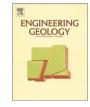
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# Spatially correlated multiscale $V_{s30}$ mapping and a case study of the Suzhou site



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### ABSTRACT

The average shear-wave velocity in the first 30 m of subsoil,  $V_{s30}$ , is a key indicator of site response affecting the ground-motion amplification for many earthquake engineering applications. Mapping of  $V_{s30}$  over a large region is commonly done through proxy-based models correlating  $V_{s30}$  with geological or topographic information. In this paper, a multiscale random field-based framework is presented and applied to mapping  $V_{s30}$  over extended areas. This framework accounts for spatial variations of  $V_{s30}$  values across different length scales and is able to adaptively refine around areas of high interest while maintaining consistent description of spatial dependence. In the case study site, Suzhou City, a total of 309 shear-wave velocity measurements are compiled and used to calculate  $V_{s30}$  values, from which the statistical and spatial parameters for the random field model are inferred. USGS topography-based  $V_{s30}$  data are also collected an used as secondary information to improve the accuracy of predictions. The random field models are coupled with Monte Carlo simulations to obtain a multiscale  $V_{s30}$  map and its associated uncertainties at the Suzhou site. The new  $V_{s30}$ map is then applied to site classification and amplification factor characterization in the studied region to demonstrate its applications.

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### 1. Introduction

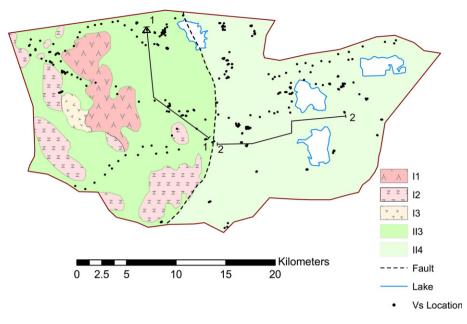
The time average shear-wave velocity in the first 30 m of subsoil, denoted as  $V_{s30}$ , is an important site parameter used in estimating site response, classifying sites in recent building codes and loss estimation (Boore, 2004). Because of its importance and effectiveness as a site parameter for site response prediction, the NGA-West2 project (Ancheta et al., 2014; Seyhan et al., 2014) made a project-level decision to compile a site database in terms of  $V_{s30}$ . The U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) earthquake hazard program also provides and maintains a global  $V_{s30}$  map server. Site databases in terms of  $V_{s30}$  give useful site information that allows engineers to choose appropriate site conditions for various design and analysis purposes.

While the  $V_{s30}$  can be computed directly given a shear-wave velocity measurement, such geophysical measurements are typically very sparse. Therefore, various descriptors or quantitative metrics of site condition have been proposed for the purpose of estimating  $V_{s30}$  in the absence of geophysical measurements. For instance, Wald and Allen (2007) proposed a technique to derive first-order site-condition maps directly from topographic data, where the  $V_{s30}$  values

are correlated with the topographic slope. Wills and Clahan (2006) and Wills and Gutierrez (2008) grouped shear-wave velocity data by corresponding geologic units to determine the shear-wave velocity characteristics of each geologic unit. Then, the geologic unit designation and shear-wave velocity characteristics are applied to sites without shear-wave velocity data. This revised geologic designation improves the previous geology-based  $V_{s30}$  method by Wills et al. (2000) and Wills and Silva (1998). In addition, geology-topography hybrid (Scasserra et al., 2009) and geomorphometry-based proxy relationships (Yong et al., 2012) have been proposed for estimating  $V_{s30}$ .

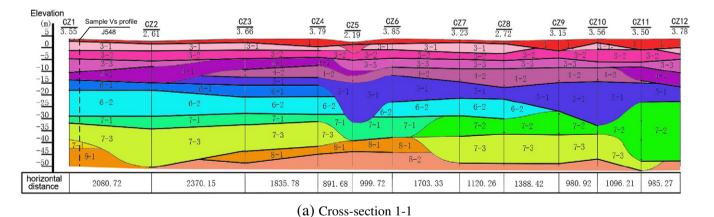
A major limitation of proxy-based methods is that, while initially derived from or constrained by observed  $V_{s30}$  values, these methods do not directly incorporate the  $V_{s30}$  measurements into the generated site condition map. This, along with the increasing amount of available direct geophysical measurement data, motivates the application of geostatistical methods to  $V_{s30}$  and site condition mapping. Examples of recent work along this line include the work of Thompson and his coworkers (Thompson et al., 2014, 2011, 2010), where a new map of  $V_{s30}$  for California is developed accounting for geology, topography and most importantly, site-specific  $V_{s30}$  measurements. The geostatistical approach of regression kriging (RK) is applied to combine these constraints to predict  $V_{s30}$ . This approach allows the resulting  $V_{s30}$  map to be locally refined to reflect the rapidly

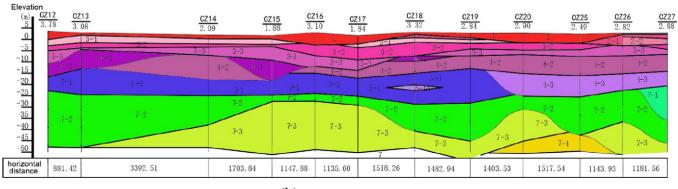
<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. E-mail address: qiushi@clemson.edu (Q. Chen).



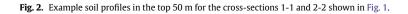
**Fig. 1.** Surficial geology map of the Suzhou site and locations of shear-wave velocity measurements (black dots in the figure). II<sub>3</sub> is the Taihu alluvial plain; II<sub>4</sub> is the lake-swamp plain; I<sub>1</sub>, I<sub>2</sub> and I<sub>3</sub> are outcrops with different rock types. Cross sections 1-1 and 2-2 are used to plot example soil profiles for the top 50 m. The little triangle shows the location of the sample *V*<sub>s</sub> profile in Fig. 3.

expanding database of  $V_{s30}$  measurements. Yong et al. (2013) and Wald et al. (2011) applied the kriging-with-a-trend method to mapping  $V_{s30}$ , where the baseline model was derived from topographic slope. Also, Lee and Tsai (2008) established the spatial relationship between the shear-wave velocity ( $V_s$ ) and the N value of the standard penetration test (SPT-N) and adopted the kriging with varying local means to update the  $V_{s30}$  maps in Taiwan. Thompson et al. (2007) modeled the horizontal variability of near-surface soil shearwave velocity in the San Francisco Bay Area using geostatistical methods.





(b) Cross-section 2-2



Number	Soil type	Property	Number Soil type		Property	
1	ground fill	loose	5-1A	clay	medium dense	
2-1	silt clay	plastic	5-2	fine	dense	
2-2	silt clay	soft plastic	6-1	clay	hard plastic	
3-1	clay	hard plastic	6-2	silt clay	plastic	
3-2	silt clay	plastic	7-1	silt clay	soft plastic	
3-3	silt	medium dense	7-2	silt with fine	dense	
4-1	silt clay	flow plastic	7-3	silt clay	soft plastic	
4-2	sandy clay	medium dense	7-4	silt	dense	
4-3	silt	dense	8-1	silt clay	hard plastic	
5-1	silt with clay	flow plastic	8-2	silt clay	plastic	

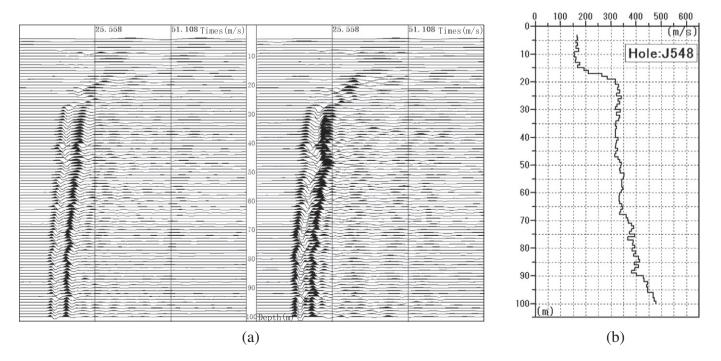
**Table 1**Explanation of soil type numbers used in Fig. 2.

In this paper, a multiscale random field-based approach is presented and applied to mapping  $V_{s30}$  over an extended region. Unlike existing geostatistical methods for  $V_{s30}$  mapping, the presented approach explicitly accounts for the spatial variability of  $V_{s30}$  across different length scales and incorporates the compiled database of direct geophysical measurements and proxy-based V<sub>s30</sub> values. High resolution predictions of  $V_{s30}$  can be obtained by adaptively refining coarse-scale values into finer scales in areas where deemed necessary while retaining appropriate spatial correlation, which is a particular useful feature for analyzing fine scale quantities of interest, such as estimation of uncertainties. Coupled with Monte Carlo simulations, the multiscale random field models also allow the quantification of uncertainties in the  $V_{s30}$  maps. The resulting  $V_{s30}$ maps preserve known V<sub>s30</sub> data, uphold appropriate spatial correlation and have multiscale resolutions with information on associated uncertainties.

The order of presentation of this paper goes as follows: Section 2 summarizes the engineering geology, field data and secondary  $V_{s30}$  data of the Suzhou site; In Section 3, key components of the developed geostatistical tools for mapping  $V_{s30}$  are presented; Statistical and spatial characterizations of the known  $V_{s30}$  data will be discussed in detail in Section 4; In Section 5, new  $V_{s30}$  maps will be represented and applications of those new  $V_{s30}$  maps will be discussed in Section 6.

### 2. The Suzhou site: engineering geology and field data

Suzhou is a populous city on the alluvial plain of the Yangtze River Delta in the southeast of Jiangsu Province, China. In this section, the engineering geology and field data of the Suzhou site are briefly summarized. The dominating alluvial deposits beneath the studied



**Fig. 3.** Sample shear-wave velocity data obtained from the suspension P-S velocity logging method: (a) depth sequential waveform arrivals; (b) shear wave velocity (*V*<sub>s</sub>) versus depth.

Table 2			
Summary of soil pa	rameters obtained	from borehole samp	les.

	$ ho_{\rm sat}$ (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	$ ho_{\rm d}  ({\rm g/cm^3})$	LL	PL
Min	1.73	1.14	22.9	11.5
Max	2.96	2.59	70.1	34.4
Mean	2.81	1.51	35.6	20.1

site are soft and sensitive. In addition to geotechnical engineering challenges associated with construction on soft soil, long-period ground motions of far earthquakes may also cause serious damage to engineering projects in this area (Zhan et al., 2009).

### 2.1. Engineering geology

The studied area of Suzhou City is covered by Quaternary deposits of fluvial, lake, lagoon and marine origins. Most of the area is a combination of a lacustrine plain and delta plain. Some layers of the lake and river deposits are rich in over-consolidated clay. Most of the lagoonal and marine deposits, however, consist of soft clays, which are dark in color and rich in organic matters. Fig. 1 shows the boundaries of the studied area, the major surficial geology units and locations of shear-wave velocity measurements. As shown in Fig. 1, the western portion of the studied area belongs to the Taihu alluvial plain (II<sub>3</sub>) with interspersed outcrops ( $I_1$ ,  $I_2$  and  $I_3$ ). The eastern portion belongs to the lake-swamp plain (II<sub>4</sub>). Almost all of the shearwave velocity measurements were taken in the geological units II<sub>3</sub> and II<sub>4</sub>. Example profiles of the top 50 m soil are plotted in Fig. 2 (a) for the Taihu alluvial plain (II<sub>3</sub>) (cross-section 1-1 in Fig. 1) and in Fig. 2 (b) for the lake-swamp plain  $(II_4)$  (cross-section 2-2 in Fig. 1), respectively. Explanations of the soil type number are summarized in Table 1.

### 2.2. Field data

The field data compiled for this study consists of shear-wave velocity measurement data and soil parameters from lab tests on samples collected at boreholes throughout the studied site. The Institute of Earthquake Engineering for Jiangsu Province, China, performed 309 shear-wave velocity tests in the Suzhou site using the suspension P-S velocity logging method. The suspension P-S logging system uses a probe that contains a source and two receivers spaced 1 m apart. The probe is lowered into the borehole to a specified depth, where the source generates a pressure wave in the borehole fluid to be received by the receivers. The elapsed time between arrivals of the waves at the receivers is used to determine the average velocity of a 1-meter-high column of soil around the borehole. An example sequential waveform arrival along depth profile is shown in Fig. 3 (a) and the corresponding shear-wave velocity profile is shown in Fig. 3 (b). The location of this profile is marked in Fig. 1 as an triangle. In general, the shear-wave velocity profile corresponds well with the expected soil conditions. For the top 20 m, the shear wave velocity is relatively small (around 150 m/s), which corresponds to the soft soil layers (types 3-1 to 4-1 in Table 1). When the depth reaches below 20 m, the shear wave velocity increases significantly (to around 350 m/s) and remains constant from 20 to 50 m, which corresponds well to the relatively hard soil layers (type 6-1 to 8-1 in Table 1).

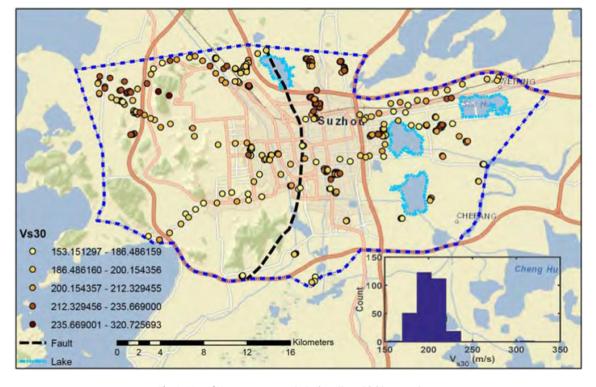
Soil samples were also collected at selected boreholes and analyzed to obtain various soil parameters of interest including the saturated density ( $\rho_{sat}$ ), the dry density ( $\rho_d$ ), the liquid limit (LL) and the plastic limit (PL). Table 2 summarizes ranges of soil parameters obtained from borehole samples. The water table is found to be at 1.35 to 1.97 m below ground surface.

### 2.3. Calculation of $V_{s30}$ at measurement locations

Given the shear-wave velocity measurement data, a timeaveraged shear-wave velocity to a profile depth z, denoted as  $V_{sz}$ , can be calculated at each measurement location as

$$V_{\rm sz} = \frac{z}{\Delta t_z} \tag{1}$$

$$\Delta t_z = \int_0^z \frac{dz}{V_s(z)} \tag{2}$$



**Fig. 4.** Map of  $V_{s30}$  measurements in Suzhou City, with histogram inset.

where  $\Delta t_z$  is the travel time for shear waves from depth *z* to the ground surface;  $V_s(z)$  is the shear-wave velocity at depth *z*; the integral is usually evaluated in practice through summation across velocities taken as constant within depth intervals. When the shear-wave velocity profile extends to depths of 30 m or greater, *z* is taken as 30 m, and the resulting velocity is  $V_{s30}$ . When z < 30 m,  $V_{s30}$  cannot be calculated directly and various correlations between  $V_s(z)$  and  $V_{s30}$  have been developed to estimate  $V_{s30}$  (Boore, 2004; Boore et al., 2011). For this study, all shear wave velocity measurements reach over 30 m.

Fig. 4 plots the  $V_{s30}$  values at 309 measurement locations as well as their histogram (the inset).

Those  $V_{s30}$  values shown in Fig. 4 are only available at locations with measured shear-wave velocity profiles. To estimate and map  $V_{s30}$  values across the region of interest, geostatistical tools and multiscale random field models will be developed and presented in Section 3. Statistical and spatial characterization of the known  $V_{s30}$  will be discussed in Section 4.

### 2.4. Secondary V<sub>s30</sub> data

In addition to the calculated  $V_{s30}$  values at measurement locations, proxy-based  $V_{s30}$  values are also collected in this study from the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) global  $V_{s30}$  map server (http://earthquake.usgs.gov/hazards/apps/vs30/). Those  $V_{s30}$  values are based on a simplified approach that correlates  $V_{s30}$  value with the topographic slope (Wald et al., 2004; Allen and Wald, 2009). Such secondary  $V_{s30}$  data are necessary because almost all  $V_{s30}$  measurements (307 out of 309) are within the Taihu alluvial plain (II<sub>3</sub>) and the lake-swamp plain (II<sub>4</sub>), i.e., within relatively soft soils. There is little information on  $V_{s30}$  values in hilly areas (I<sub>1</sub>, I<sub>2</sub> and I<sub>3</sub>). The USGS  $V_{s30}$  data will be used to improve  $V_{s30}$  predictions in hilly areas, which will be discussed in more detail in Section 5.

Fig. 5 plots the USGS  $V_{s30}$  data along with its histogram. It is clear from the map that the hilly areas in the western part of the city have much higher  $V_{s30}$  values. Moreover, in the alluvial plain, the mean of the USGS  $V_{s30}$  is 219 m/s and the minimum is 180 m/s. The mean of

the measured  $V_{s30}$  values is 200 m/s and the minimum is 153 m/s. Distributions of the USGS and measurement  $V_{s30}$  values have also been compared. In general, it is found that the USGS  $V_{s30}$  values tend to predict a higher estimate in the alluvial plain.

# 3. Geostatistical approach to characterize spatial variability across scales

In this section, key components of the developed geostatistical tools and random field-based models to map  $V_{s30}$  are presented. The rational behind a geostatistical approach is the fact that the measured soil parameters at one location are more similar to those at neighboring locations than those further away, i.e., soil parameters are spatially correlated. It is desirable to characterize the spatial structure of soil parameters of interest to improve the accuracy of predictions at unsampled locations.

In this study, a form of covariance called the semivariogram is used to describe the spatial structure, which is equal to one half of the variance of two random variables separated by a distance h as

$$\gamma(\mathbf{h}) = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Var}[Z(\mathbf{u}) - Z(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{h})]$$
(3)

where Z(u) is the variable under consideration at location u and Z(u + h) is the lagged version of the variable.

Under the condition of second-order stationarity, the semivariogram is related to the spatial correlation  $\rho(\mathbf{h})$  by

$$\rho(\mathbf{h}) = 1 - \frac{\gamma(\mathbf{h})}{\text{COV}(\mathbf{0})} \tag{4}$$

where COV(**0**) is the covariance at h = 0. The semivariogram  $\gamma(h)$  is typically preferred by the geostatistics community because it only requires the increment Z(u) - Z(u + h) to be second-order stationary, which is a weaker requirement than the second-order stationarity of the variable itself. In the following examples, the spatial structure of

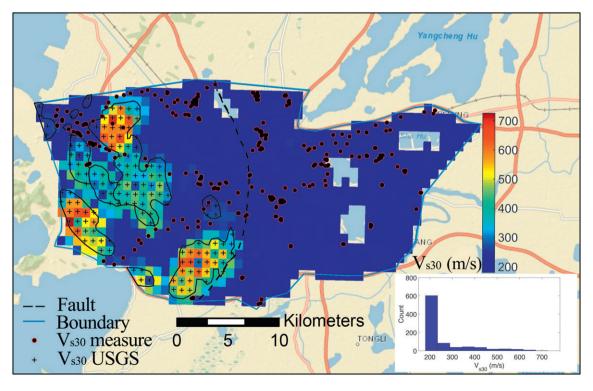


Fig. 5. USGS global slope-based  $V_{s30}$  data: map of the  $V_{s30}$  values in Suzhou City and the corresponding histogram (inset).

the soil parameter under consideration (i.e., the  $V_{\rm s30}$  value) is characterized by the semivariogram model, which can be converted to  $\rho$  and implemented within a random field model.

To account for the multiscale nature of soil variability, Chen et al. (2012) and Baker et al. (2011) extended the definition of spatial correlation to multiple scales based on the notion that material properties at the coarser scale are the arithmetically averaged values of the properties over corresponding areas at the finer scale. Such notion is formally similar to the block kriging (Goovaerts, 1997) but with a different intention to consistently and adaptive refine a coarse scale random field. The multiscale random field allows a higher resolution field to be adaptively generated around areas of high interest.

In this work, two scales of interest are considered and all the subsequent developments apply to variables following the standard Gaussian distribution, i.e., variables after the normal score transformation. The variable of interest  $Z_I^c$  at the coarse scale is defined as the arithmetically averaged fine scale values over corresponding areas as (Chen et al., 2012)

$$Z_{l}^{c} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} Z_{i(l)}^{f}$$
(5)

where the superscripts "c" and "f" correspond to coarse and fine scales, respectively; *N* is the number of fine scale elements within a corresponding coarse scale area (element) *I*.

Defining the variable of interest at the fine scale and using the relation of Eq. (5), the expression for the mean, the variance and the spatial correlation of coarse scale variables of interest can be explicitly derived. The mean of a coarse scale element  $Z_l^c$  can be derived by taking the expectation of Eq. (5) as

$$\mu_{Z^c} = E[Z_I^c] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mu_{Z_{i(I)}^f} = 0$$
(6)

where  $\mu_{Z_{f(l)}^f}$  is the mean at the fine scale, which equals to zero for variables following the standard Gaussian distribution. Accordingly, if the variance of the fine scale variable is unity, the coarse scale variance, denoted as  $\sigma_{Z^c}^2$ , can be computed as

$$\sigma_{Z^c}^2 = E\left[\left(Z_l^c\right)^2\right] - 0 = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \rho_{Z_i^f Z_j^f} \sigma_{Z_i^f} \sigma_{Z_j^f}$$
(7)

where  $\rho_{Z_i^f, Z_j^f}$  is the correlation between two fine scale element *i* and *j* with variance  $\sigma_{Z_i^f}^2$  and  $\sigma_{Z_i^f}^2$ , respectively.

The covariance between any two elements  $Z_i$  and  $Z_j$  within the random field is defined as

$$COV[Z_i, Z_j] = \rho_{Z_i, Z_i} \sigma_{Z_i} \sigma_{Z_i}$$
(8)

The correlations between all considered scales can be calculated by rearranging the definition of covariance such that

$$\rho_{Z_i, Z_j} = \frac{\text{COV}[Z_i, Z_j]}{\sigma_{Z_i} \sigma_{Z_j}} \tag{9}$$

where  $Z_i$  and  $Z_j$  are two elements within the random field at any scale with variance  $\sigma_{Z_i}^2$  and  $\sigma_{Z_j}^2$ . By making appropriate substitutions

at each scale using Eqs. (8) and (9), the correlation between elements at different scales can be obtained as (Chen et al., 2015, 2016)

$$\rho_{Z_{l}^{c}, Z_{ll}^{c}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \rho_{Z_{i(l)}^{f}, Z_{k(l)}^{f}}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \rho_{Z_{i(l)}^{f}, Z_{j(l)}^{f}}} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \rho_{Z_{i(l)}^{f}, Z_{j(l)}^{f}}}}$$
(10)

$$\rho_{Z^{f},Z^{c}_{I}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \rho_{Z^{f},Z^{f}_{i(I)}}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \rho_{Z^{f}_{i(I)},Z^{f}_{j(I)}}}}$$
(11)

where the Roman numerals *I*, *II*... are used for the coarse scale element number;  $\rho_{Z_I^c,Z_{II}^c}$  is the correlation between two coarse-scale elements *I* and *II*;  $\rho_{Z_I^f,Z_{II}^c}$  is the correlation between a fine-scale element and a coarse scale element *I*;  $\rho_{Z_{I(I)}^f,Z_{K(I)}^f}$  is the correlation between a fine element *i* and a fine element *k*, which belong to two different coarse scale elements *I* and *II*, respectively. Given the correlation  $\rho$  between elements at different scales, the corresponding covariances COV can be easily obtained via Eq. (8).

Once the covariance COV between any two elements at any scale in the random field is determined, a conditional sequential simulation approach is taken for the simulation procedure. The process simulates each value individually, conditional upon all known data and previously simulated values. Using such a process, the conditional distribution of the next value to be simulated in the random field, denoted as  $Z_n$ , is given by a univariate normal distribution with the updated mean and the variance as

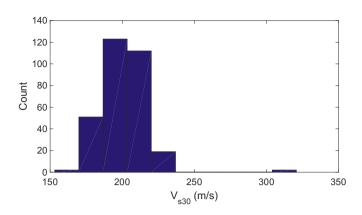
$$(Z_n|\mathbf{Z}_p) \sim N\left(\mathbf{\Sigma}_{np} \cdot \mathbf{\Sigma}_{pp}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{Z}_p, \sigma_n^2 - \mathbf{\Sigma}_{np} \cdot \mathbf{\Sigma}_{pp}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{\Sigma}_{pn}\right)$$
(12)

where  $Z_p$  is a vector of all known or previously simulated points;  $\Sigma_{np}, \Sigma_{pp}, \Sigma_{pn}$  are covariance matrices;  $\sigma_n^2$  is the covariance of the next simulated point; the subscription "p" and "n" refer to the "previous" simulated point(s) and the "next" point to be simulated, respectively.

Eq. (12) means that the unknown value  $Z_n$  at an unmeasured location can be drawn from the conditional normal distribution with the mean  $\Sigma_{np} \cdot \Sigma_{p}^{-1} \cdot \Sigma_p$  and the variance  $\sigma_n^2 - \Sigma_{np} \cdot \Sigma_{p1}^{-1} \cdot \Sigma_{pn}$ . Once  $Z_n$  is generated, it is inserted into the "previous" vector, i.e.,  $Z_p$ , upon which the "next" unknown value at another unsampled location will be generated. Such process is repeated until all locations within a random field are simulated. A key advantage of such conditional simulation is that it preserves the field data in the random field. Moreover, as pointed out by Baker et al. (2011), such a simulation approach is particular suitable for an adaptive refinement process, where additional fine-scale simulations can be progressively added in the random field in locations deemed necessary.

# 4. Data inference - statistical and spatial characterizations of the known $V_{\rm s30}$ data

The multiscale random field models require as inputs the statistical distributions and the spatial structures of the variable under consideration. In the Suzhou site, a total of 309  $V_{s30}$  values are obtained from direct shear-wave velocity measurements. Fig. 6 plots the histogram of the 309  $V_{s30}$  measurements. Among those 309  $V_{s30}$ measurements, 307 measurements are located in the two dominating surficial geological units: the Taihu alluvial plain (II<sub>3</sub>) and the lake-swamp plain (II<sub>4</sub>) as shown in Fig. 1. Those  $V_{s30}$  measurements are grouped by geological units II<sub>3</sub> and II<sub>4</sub> to see whether significant differences exist. Table 3 summarizes the statistical characteristics (e.g., mean, variance, maximum, upper quantile, median, lower quantile, minimum) of the two groups. As can be seen from Table 3, the statistical characteristics do not differ significantly between the two dominant surficial geological units. In subsequent



**Fig. 6.** Histogram of all 309  $V_{s30}$  values calculated from shear-wave velocity measurements.

Table 3	
Statistical characteristics of the known	V.30

Statistical parameter	II <sub>3</sub>	$II_4$	Combined $II_3$ and $II_4$		
Data count	143	164	307		
Mean	198	202	200		
Variance	205	216	192		
Maximum	236	233	236		
Upper quantile	208	212	210		
Median	196	203	200		
Lower quantile	188	193	191		
Minimum	172	153	153		

characterizations and examples, geologic units II<sub>3</sub> and II<sub>4</sub> are grouped together in random field models. In the outcrop areas (I<sub>1</sub>, I<sub>2</sub> and I<sub>3</sub>), no direct shear-wave velocity measurement is available. The USGS proxy-based  $V_{s30}$  data are collected (refer to Fig. 5) and incorporated as known data in those outcrop areas in subsequent random field simulations.

Fig. 7 plots all measurement data projected in the east–west and north–south directions along with the trend lines. The trend line along the west–east direction is almost a horizontal line, indicating little trend in this direction. On the other hand, Fig. 7 (b) shows slightly increased  $V_{s30}$  values from north to south. However, the change is still relatively mild to make any significant impact. It should be pointed out that 307 of the 309  $V_{s30}$  measurements are in the Taihu alluvial plain (II<sub>3</sub>) and lake-swamp plain (II<sub>4</sub>). So, the trend analysis reveals the trend (or no trend) of  $V_{s30}$  in those geological units only.

The empirical or sample semivariogram of  $V_{s30}$  measurements are also computed to infer their spatial structure in the studied

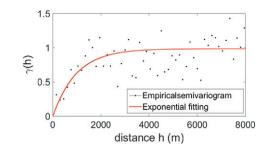


Fig. 8. Empirical and fitted semivariogram based on known  $V_{\rm s30}$  at measurement locations.

region. The empirical semivariogram, denoted as  $\hat{\gamma}(h)$ , is calculated as (Goovaerts, 1997)

$$\hat{\gamma}(\boldsymbol{h}) = \frac{1}{2N(\boldsymbol{h})} \sum_{\alpha=1}^{N(\boldsymbol{h})} \left[ Z(\boldsymbol{u}_{\alpha}) - Z(\boldsymbol{u}_{\alpha} + \boldsymbol{h}) \right]^2$$
(13)

where  $N(\mathbf{h})$  is the number of pairs of data  $(Z(\mathbf{u}_{\alpha}) \text{ and } Z(\mathbf{u}_{\alpha} + \mathbf{h}))$  separated by a vector distance  $\mathbf{h}$ .

To facilitate the incorporation of the semivariogram into random field models, the empirical semivariogram is typically fitted by a basic semivariogram model or a linear combination of several basic semivariogram models that are permissible (Goovaerts, 1997). Fig. 8 plots the empirical semivariogram model as well as the fitted exponential model of the form

$$\gamma(h) = \omega \left[ 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{3h}{a}\right) \right] + \tau \tag{14}$$

where *h* is a scalar measure of the separation distance between a pair of points; *a* is the range, i.e., the distance at which the semivariogram levels off and beyond which the semivariance is constant;  $\omega + \tau$  is the sill, which is the constant semivariance beyond the range. The fitted range for this study site is 2973 m and the sill is 0.9833.

### 5. V<sub>s30</sub> mapping of the Suzhou site

With the inferred model parameters, the known  $V_{s30}$  at measurement locations and the secondary  $V_{s30}$  information in the outcrop areas (I<sub>1</sub>, I<sub>2</sub>, I<sub>3</sub>), the multiscale random field models are used to generate  $V_{s30}$  maps of the Suzhou site. An initial coarse grid with an element size of 500 × 500 m is used. Lakes are excluded from the  $V_{s30}$  maps. The new maps account for and preserve the site-specific shear-wave velocity measurements and the inherent multiscale soil spatial structure. When coupled with Monte Carlo

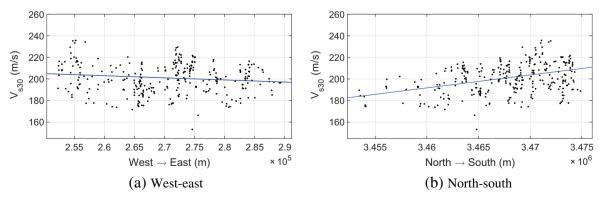


Fig. 7. Trend of the known  $V_{s30}$  values at measurement locations along (a) the west-east direction and (b) the north-south direction.

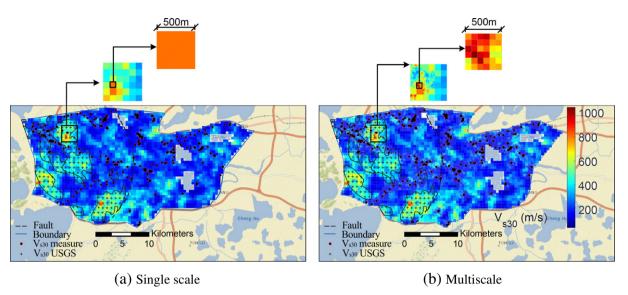


Fig. 9. Sample random field realizations of V<sub>s30</sub> in Suzhou site.

simulations, uncertainties associated with the generated  $V_{s30}$  maps can also be estimated. The generated  $V_{s30}$  maps will be compared with the available topography-based  $V_{s30}$  map obtained from the U.S. Geological Survey global  $V_{s30}$  database.

### 5.1. Random field realizations of $V_{s30}$

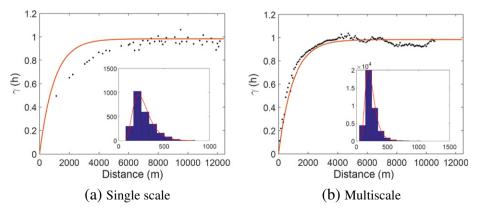
A typical set of  $V_{s30}$  realizations (single and multiscale) is shown in Fig. 9. In the multiscale realization, each coarse grid neighboring a measurement location is refined into 36 fine scale elements, where high resolution  $V_{s30}$  are generated through the multiscale model described in Section 3. Such fine scale field enables predictions across different scales and can facilitate estimation of uncertainties at much finer scales without sacrificing computation efficiency. The secondary  $V_{s30}$  data from USGS, placed on a grid with a spacing of 800 m, are incorporated as known point data values in the random fields in the outcrop areas. It should be noted that for the current study, the amount of the secondary data is fixed. A preliminary work (Liu et al., 2017) is undergoing to investigate the effect of secondary data on the spatial structure and the distribution of the resulting  $V_{s30}$ realizations.

The corresponding histograms and empirical semivariograms of the simulated  $V_{s30}$  are shown in Fig. 10. Both single and multi-scale

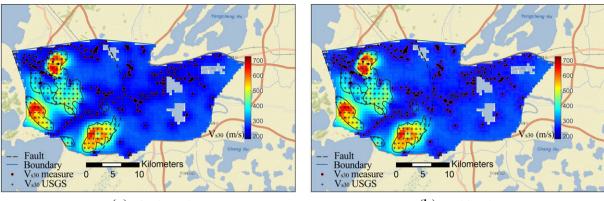
simulations preserve the statistical characterizations and the spatial structures of  $V_{s30}$  inferred from the known measurement data.

Coupling the random field model with Monte Carlo simulations, the expected  $V_{s30}$  values across the Suzhou site as well as the associated uncertainties can be obtained. Maps of the expected  $V_{s30}$  values, averaged from 1000 independent Monte Carlo simulations, are shown in Fig. 11 (a) and (b). An obvious trend manifested in the map is that high  $V_{s30}$  values occur in the southern and western part of the city, especially the hilly areas. Low values are common in the northern and eastern part, which are consistent with the trends observed in the measurement data and the knowledge about the geology of this studied area. It should be noted that, in the current study, geological boundaries are not explicitly incorporated in the data reference or in random field simulations.

One of the strengths of the proposed method is its ability to estimate uncertainties associated with generated  $V_{s30}$  maps. To quantify uncertainties, coefficients of variation (COV) from 1000 independent Monte Carlo simulations are calculated at each location and plotted in Fig. 11 (c) and (d). As shown in the figure, the COVs are generally very small and approach zero around locations with measurement data. It is interesting to note that the uncertainties associated with single scale map are smaller compared to the multiscale counterpart, especially around locations with known data. Recall that the coarse (single) scale field can be seen as the average of the corresponding



**Fig. 10.** Semivariograms and histograms (the insets) of simulated  $V_{s30}$  from one set of random field realizations in Suzhou site. Black dots are the empirical semivariogram and the red solid line is the specified exponential model. The red solid line in the histogram inset is the fitted probability density function. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)





(b) Multiscale

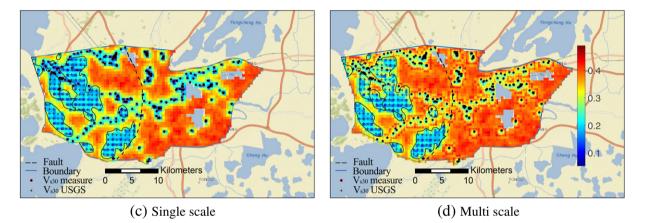


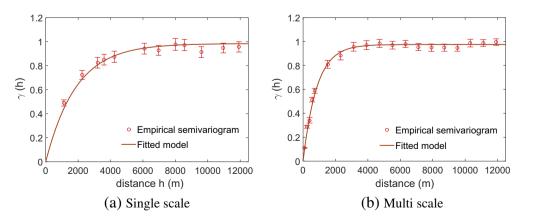
Fig. 11. Expected V<sub>s30</sub> values and associated uncertainties (coefficient of variations) at the Suzhou site.

fine (multi) scale realizations and such averaging process results the reduced uncertainties observed in Fig. 11 (c) and (d).

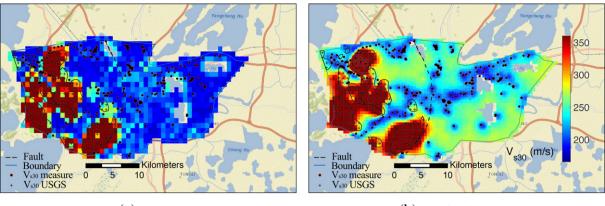
The empirical semivariograms of the predicted  $V_{s30}$  values are calculated and shown in Fig. 12 along with the error bars indicating  $\pm$ one standard deviation. It can be seen from Fig. 12 that the specified exponential spatial structure, which is inferred from measurement data, is preserved well in the simulations. It is noted that the spatial structures, quantified here by the semivariogram, are different between single and multiscale. This is because the coarse (single) scale spatial correlation is derived based on the notion that a coarse scale element is the average of the corresponding fine scale element. This averaging of the fine scale points will effectively increase the correlation of a given distance relative to the fine scale. This effect has been previously reported and studied in Chen et al. (2012).

#### 5.2. Comparison with USGS V<sub>s30</sub> maps

The newly generated multiscale random field-based  $V_{s30}$  maps incorporate and preserve the site-specific shear wave velocity measurement data and their spatial dependency. To understand the



**Fig. 12.** Empirical semivariograms of predicted  $V_{s30}$ . Error bars indicate  $\pm$  one standard deviation.



(a) USGS

(b) Multiscale map

**Fig. 13.** Comparison of *V*<sub>s30</sub> maps: (a) USGS topography-based proxy; (b) current study.

effect of local measurement data and spatial dependency on  $V_{s30}$ mapping, Fig. 13 plots side-by-side the  $V_{s30}$  map from the current study and the one from the USGS global  $V_{s30}$  map server. Note that the upper limit of the color map is set to  $V_{s30} = 360$  m/s, which corresponds to the upper bound of the NEHRP site class D (refer to Table 4). Since most of the Suzhou site has soft soil with relatively low  $V_{s30}$  values, such scale makes the difference among two maps more distinguishable. As can be seen from Fig. 13, while both maps capture the general trend of high  $V_{s30}$  values in the western hilly area and low  $V_{s30}$  values in the eastern region, the current map has significantly higher resolution and has captured the transition from hilly to plain region fairly well. The current  $V_{s30}$  map captures a northeast-southwest band with low  $V_{s30}$ , as reflected from the  $V_{s30}$ measurement data, which is missed in the proxy-based USGS map. Moreover, the current map precisely preserves the known  $V_{s30}$  values at measurement locations and provides multiscale resolution, which contains small-scale  $V_{s30}$  information. Such information can be used to estimate uncertainties at a much higher resolution without sacrificing the overall computational efficiency.

To quantify the performance of the proxy-based USGS map, the difference between USGS  $V_{s30}$  values and the measured  $V_{s30}$  normalized by the measured  $V_{s30}$  value is calculated and the histogram of all 309 data is plotted in Fig. 14. As shown in Fig. 14, many of the normalized differences are within 0 to 40% range with a few points indicating over 100% difference.

### 6. Applications of the new V<sub>s30</sub> maps

 $V_{s30}$  is a key indicator of site response in many earthquake engineering applications, such as ground-motion prediction equations, site classification, and earthquake hazard maps. In this section, two of the applications of the newly generated  $V_{s30}$  maps will be presented:  $V_{s30}$ -based site classification in Section 6.1 and the estimation of site amplification factors in Section 6.2.

 Table 4

 NEHRP site class and corresponding V<sub>-20</sub> range

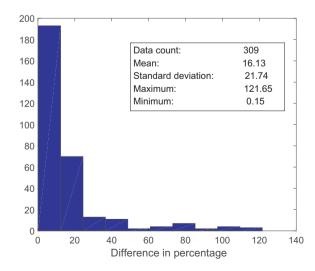
Site class	Description	<i>V</i> <sub>s30</sub>		
А	Hard rock	>1500 m/s		
В	Firm to hard rock	760 to 1500 m/s		
С	Dense soil, soft rock	360 to 760 m/s		
D	Stiff soil	180 to 360 m/s		
E	Soft clay	<180 m/s		
F	Soil requiring site specific evaluation	-		

### 6.1. V<sub>s30</sub>-based site classification

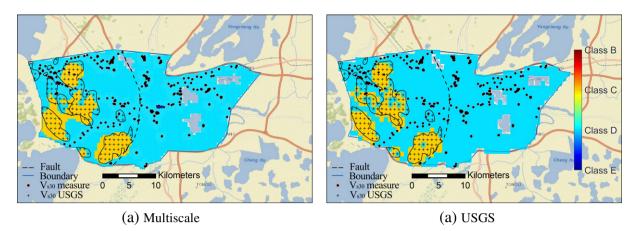
The National Earthquake Hazards Reduction Program (NEHRP) classifies a site into 5 groups and provides the range of  $V_{s30}$  values for each class as shown in Table 4. Given a  $V_{s30}$  map, the site of interest can be classified based on  $V_{s30}$  values following the NEHRP criteria.

Fig. 15 shows the site classification maps for the Suzhou site based on the new multiscale random field-based  $V_{s30}$  and the USGS proxybased  $V_{s30}$  maps. The classification map of Fig. 15 (a) shows that most of the studied region can be classified as NEHRP soil type D, where  $V_{s30}$  ranges from 180 to 360 m/s. In the hilly area in the western part, the site is classified as soil type C with  $V_{s30}$  values ranging from 360 to 760 m/s. This is consistent with the known engineering geology of this region previously described in Section 2.

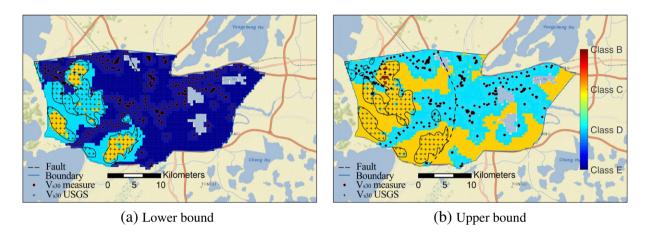
The site classification shown in Fig. 15 (a) is based on the expected  $V_{s30}$  values averaged from 1000 Monte Carlo simulations as previously shown Fig. 11 (b). To quantify the associated uncertainties in the site classification, upper and lower bound site classification maps are also generated by using ±one standard deviation of the expected  $V_{s30}$  values. The results are shown in Fig. 16. Compared to the mean  $V_{s30}$ -based site classification shown in Fig. 15 (a), most of the hilly areas in the western part of the city remain in the site class C, but the eastern plain changes to site E when the lower bound (mean minus



**Fig. 14.** Statistic characteristic of the difference (in percentage) between USGS  $V_{s30}$  prediction and known  $V_{s30}$  at 309 measurement locations.



**Fig. 15.**  $V_{s30}$ -based NEHRP site classification (Table 4): (a) based on the new multiscale  $V_{s30}$  map; (b) based on the USGS  $V_{s30}$  map.



**Fig. 16.** Uncertainties associated with the site classification maps based on expected  $V_{s30}$  values  $\pm$ one standard deviation: (a) lower bound (mean –one standard deviation); (b) upper bound (mean +one standard deviation).

one standard deviation)  $V_{\rm s30}$  map is used, which is considered to be a more conservative estimation.

### 6.2. Amplification factor mapping

The second application of the new  $V_{s30}$  map is the estimation and mapping of site amplification factors. Among various commonly used models for estimating site amplification factor, the model by Choi and Stewart (2005) is used in this work to illustrate the application. In the Choi and Stewart (2005) model, the model for estimating the amplification factor  $F_{ij}$  is expressed as

$$\ln(F_{ij}) = c \ln\left(\frac{V_{s30_{ij}}}{V_{ref}}\right) + b \ln\left(\frac{PHA_{r_{ij}}}{0.1}\right) + \eta_i + \epsilon_{ij}$$
(15)

where PHA<sub>r</sub> is the peak horizontal acceleration for the reference site condition and is expressed in the unit of the gravitational acceleration g; b is a function of the regression parameters as given in Eq. (6.2); c and V<sub>ref</sub> are the regression parameters;  $\eta_i$  is a random effect term for the *i*-th earthquake event with zero median and a standard deviation denoted as  $\tau$ ;  $\epsilon_{ij}$  represents the intra-event model residual for the *j*-th motion in *i*-th earthquake event, which has a median near zero for well-recorded events with a standard deviation denoted as  $\sigma$ .

The variation of model parameter *b* is described in the following model (Choi and Stewart, 2005):

$$b = b_{1} \quad \text{Category E}$$

$$b = b_{2} + (V_{s30} - b_{v})^{2} \frac{b_{1} - b_{2}}{(180 - b_{v})^{2}} \quad 180 < V_{s30} < b_{v} \text{ (m/s)}$$

$$b = b_{2} \quad b_{v} < V_{s30} < 520 \text{ (m/s)} \quad (16)$$

$$b = b_{2} - (V_{s30} - 520) \frac{b_{2}}{240} \quad 520 < V_{s30} < 760 \text{ (m/s)}$$

$$b = 0 \quad V_{s30} > 760 \text{ (m/s)}$$

where the units of  $V_{s30}$  are in m/s;  $b_1$ ,  $b_2$  and  $b_v$  are model parameters. For this reference model, Abrahamson and Silva (1997) provided values of site factor model parameters from regression analysis, which are summarized in Table 5.

With the amplification model Eq. (15), Eq. (6.2) and the fitting parameters in Table 5, site factors  $F_a$  (corresponding to a low-period

 Table 5

 Regression parameters for site amplification factors after Abrahamson and Silva (1997).

Parameter	$b_1$	<i>b</i> <sub>2</sub>	$b_v$	с	$V_{\rm ref}({\rm m/s})$	au	σ
$F_a$ (0.3)	-0.41	-0.11	300	-0.46	532	0.35	0.54
$F_v$ (1.0)	-0.39	0.02	300	-0.69	519	0.41	0.55

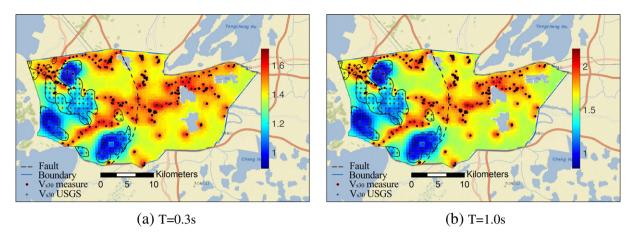


Fig. 17. Maps of amplification factors in Suzhou City based on the Choi and Stewart (2005) model: (a)  $F_a$  (T = 0.3 s) and (b)  $F_v$  (T = 1.0 s).

range with T = 0.1-0.5 s) and  $F_v$  (corresponding to a mid-period range with T = 0.4-2.0 s) are calculated based on an assumed PHA<sub>r</sub> of 0.1 g. Results of the site factors are plotted in Fig. 17 for  $F_a$ (T = 0.3 s) and  $F_v$  (T = 1.0 s). Fig. 17 shows that most of the eastern and central areas have relatively high amplification factors with a maximum of 1.7 for T = 0.3 s and 2.2 for T = 1.0 s, which correlates well with the softer soils (NEHERP site classes D and E, refer to Fig. 15 (a)).

### 7. Conclusions

In this work, a multiscale random field-based framework is presented to map  $V_{s30}$  values over extended areas. The random field model explicitly accounts for the spatial variability of  $V_{s30}$  across different scales while incorporates and preserves measured  $V_{s30}$  data. The framework is applied to map  $V_{s30}$  over the Suzhou site, where 309 shear-wave velocity measurements and topography-based  $V_{s30}$ values are compiled. Monte Carlo simulations are coupled with the random field model to quantify uncertainties of the generated multiscale  $V_{s30}$  map. The new map is then applied to site classification and amplification factor characterization in the studied region. In summary, it is found that:

- 1. Quantitatively consistent  $V_{s30}$  estimates over different length scales over the entire studied region can be obtained using the multiscale random field model. The resulting map has multiscale resolutions and is particular convenient to incorporate and preserve local measurement data into a regional  $V_{s30}$  map.
- 2. Comparison of the new  $V_{s30}$  map with existing USGS topography-based  $V_{s30}$  map shows that the new  $V_{s30}$  map provides more accurate and more detailed  $V_{s30}$  values, especially in the eastern plain region of the studied site because of the incorporated local  $V_{s30}$  measurements and their spatial dependency.
- 3. Uncertainties associated with the new  $V_{s30}$  map are quantified in terms of the coefficient of variation (COV) calculated from Monte Carlo simulations. In general, the COVs approach zero around locations with measurement data and gradually increase in areas without any known  $V_{s30}$  values. COVs in single scale random field map are found to be slightly smaller when compared to the multiscale counterpart.
- 4. The site application map based on the newly generated  $V_{s30}$  map shows that relatively stiff soil (NEHRP site class C) is found in the northwestern part of the city and the soil tends to be softer in the southeastern region (NEHRP site class D and E). This trend in the soil type correlates well with the calculated

amplification factor map, where high amplification factors are predicted in the southeastern part of the city, indicating potential seismic amplification effect in this region.

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