Earthquake Risks and Lack of Disaster Management in Afghanistan

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7 Key Points:

- Afghanistan is in a tectonically active region of the Indian, Eurasian, and Arabian plate
 boundaries.
- A database of active geological faults and seismic regions is important in earthquake
 disaster risk reduction in the country.
- Infrastructure codes, design, and earthquake disaster management are possible solutions
 for disaster mitigation.

14

15 Abstract

Afghanistan is in a seismically active area and is historically hit by destructive earthquakes. It is 16 17 located on the edge of the Eurasian tectonic plate, bordered by the northern boundary of the Indian plate, and with the collisional Arabian plate into the South. The Hindukush and Pamir 18 19 Mountains within Afghanistan are the western extension of the Himalayan orogeny uplifted and sheared by Indian and Eurasian plate convergence. These tectonic activities have created several 20 21 active deep faults across the country and in the Hindukush-Himalayan region, where highmagnitude earthquakes have historically occurred. Earthquakes in Afghanistan are primarily 22 23 driven by the relative northward movements of the Arabian plate past western Afghanistan and the Indian plate past eastern Afghanistan as both plates subduct under the Eurasian plate. These 24 25 tectonic movements caused ground shaking from high to moderate and low from the northeast through the southwest of the country. On June 22, 2022, the southeastern part of Afghanistan 26 was hit by a destructive Mw6.2 earthquake. The purpose of this study is to develop an ArcGIS 27 Pro database of compiled geologic faults and regions of heightened seismicity for spatial 28 29 analyses of earthquake disaster severity across Afghanistan. These spatial analyses place better constraints on the placement of active and historic seismicity along mapped and known active 30 faults for progress in earthquake disaster management. Furthermore, we define current hazards 31 associated with building and infrastructural design and competency given the recurrent and 32 eminent seismicity within Afghanistan and describe possible directions and solutions to mitigate 33 the threat to life and property¹. 34

35 **1 Introduction**

Tectonic earthquakes in the Himalayan region resulted from the subduction of the Indian 36 continent under the Eurasian plate (Guo et al., 2017; Verma et al., 1980). Hindukush Mountains 37 are part of the Himalayan active tectonic region, which happened from the Northeast to the 38 southeast of Afghanistan and extended to the surrounding region (Chouhan, 1970; Verma et al., 39 1980). The region underwent intensive folding, thrusting, and faulting in the Mesozoic and 40 Cenozoic eras. The folding and faulting in the Himalayan region trend northwest-southeast and 41 east-west directions (Joshi & Hayashi, 2010). Northward underthrusting of the Indian crust 42 beneath Eurasia generates many earthquakes and makes this area one of the most seismically 43 hazardous regions on Earth (Bilham, 2019; Hinsbergen, 2022). This region is presently where the 44

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most distractive earthquakes occur, propagating seismic waves throughout Afghanistan and the
surrounding regions (Kufner et al., 2021; Rehman et al., 2017a). Therefore, the northeastern
region of Afghanistan is the center of high-hazard earthquakes.

48 From ancient times, Afghanistan has been affected by destructive seismic activities that centered in the northeastern region (Rehman et al., 2017b). Each year, Afghanistan is struck by 49 moderate to strong earthquakes, causing damage, economic losses, and fatalities (Boyd et al., 50 2007a). During the last 30 years, earthquakes have caused over 10,000 fatalities (World Bank, 51 52 2017). Strong earthquakes occur every few years in and around Afghanistan, there have been 53 about 100 damaging earthquakes since 1900 (Daniell et al., 2011). Recently, there has been a frequency in the recurrence of earthquakes around epicenters and along the main faults in 54 Afghanistan. In 2019, an earthquake with M_w6.1 magnitude occurred in Badakhshan province, 55 and an M_w5.1 earthquake in 2021 in Kabul with no fatalities and less damage (Risklayer, 2023). 56 57 In 2015, the M_w7.5 earthquake in the Hindukush Mountains caused 117 fatalities and destroyed over 7,000 houses (IFRC, 2015). In June 2022 a M_w6.2 earthquake struck the southeastern region 58 59 of Afghanistan, causing over 1,163 fatalities, 3,600 injured, and about 1,000 houses destroyed (Qiu et al., 2023a). A M_w6.5 earthquake Shaked Jurm of Badakhshan on the 21st of March 2023 60 with no fatalities. All the earthquakes were followed by aftershocks and recurrence in and around 61 the mainshock centers. 62

The impact and vulnerability of earthquake hazards in Afghanistan are mainly due to the 63 distribution of active faults across the country; settlement in disaster-prone areas, unreinforced 64 construction against earthquake shaking; lack of disaster management system, including but not 65 limited to poverty, conflict, and instability in the country (SESRIC, 2016). To this end, 66 earthquake disaster management is important for earthquake risk and vulnerability reduction, and 67 it is the basis for the country's sustainability. Over the past two decades, Afghanistan's disaster 68 risk management focused on response and recovery (UNDRR, 2020). However, the Government 69 of the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan (GoIRA) worked with development partners, including 70 the World Bank, United Nations organizations, and relevant international NGOs, to develop 71 Disaster Risk Management (DRM) systems and mainstreaming Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) 72 in the development process (World Bank, 2018). GoIRA structured the DRM and DRR in the 73 74 national development strategy (GoIRA, 2013, 2021). Based on that number of policies and plans 75 developed in the framework of DRM and DRR but remained in the draft (ANDMA, 2011). In

addition, the protracted war and conflict exacerbate Afghanistan's vulnerability to natural 76 disasters (Peters, 2021a). Insecurity and conflict cause state fragility, which leads to 77 socioeconomic vulnerability from one side on the other hand, natural disasters result in frequent 78 loss of lives, livelihoods, and properties and cause migration and displacement (International 79 Alert, 2015). All these causes and effects intensify disaster impacts, whereas Afghanistan has a 80 wealthy natural potential for disaster risk reduction. In conclusion, this study focused on 81 studying earthquake disasters in Afghanistan and approaches for earthquake disaster risk 82 reduction. The seismic risk analysis is based on major historical records and modeling 83 earthquake faults and tectonic zones using ArcGIS Pro. Risk assessment is created by combining 84 hazard, exposure, and vulnerability. Data from USGS, Risklayer, and other databases were 85 analyzed using ArcGIS Pro. The paper concluded with some constructive recommendations on 86 earthquake risk mitigation which is a missing part that greatly assists risk reduction. 87

88 2 Methodology

In this study, we compile and use all currently cataloged and recorded earthquake 89 databases and historical records for Afghanistan and the surrounding region to investigate 90 earthquake disasters and related socioeconomic exposure and vulnerability. Afghanistan and the 91 surrounding countries are within the convergent Himalayan tectonic region, as the Eurasian and 92 Indian plates collide. This zone is a special focus of geological studies. Therefore, there are some 93 papers on Afghanistan and surrounding countries' tectonic settings, active faults, and earthquake 94 disasters. Recently, the United States Geological Survey (USGS) investigated seismic activities 95 in Afghanistan (Dewey, 2006). USGS investigated geological faults, seismic zones, and created 96 97 earthquake hazard maps including a historical earthquake database (Dewey, 2006; USGS, 2023). Some historical and recent earthquake records were used from Risklayer online database 98 99 (Risklayer, 2023). The updated main geological faults crossed Afghanistan and connected with surrounding regions including plate boundaries are derived from the ArcGIS REST Services 100 101 Directory (ArcGIS, 2023; Bird, 2003). In this study, USGS reports and databases are reviewed, and recent earthquakes were added to the existing database. Tectonic settings, active faults, and 102 103 seismic regions of Afghanistan were digitized and mapped with the updated data using ArcGIS 104 Pro. Also, earthquake hazard maps and historical databases updated with recent earthquakes were created. Based on the available data a simple approach for earthquake Disaster Risk 105

Reduction (DRR) was proposed for Afghanistan. Some of this paper's raw materials are drawnfrom the author's own experience.

Due to the protracted war and conflict in Afghanistan, most data recording and research 108 infrastructure have been destroyed (Rubin, 2011). Our research investigations have been 109 challenging due to the lack of accurate data. Therefore, a national-level DRM is hampered by a 110 lack of consistent data on hazard risk and vulnerability nationally. The approaches that can be 111 used to assess earthquake-related hazards and risks are limited by the lack of data and security 112 113 issues preventing field observation and data collection. There is a long gap in the available data between 1980 to 2002, and later due to war and conflict in Afghanistan. In the past couple of 114 decades, the State Ministry for Disaster Management and Humanitarian Affairs (DMHA), with 115 national and international partners, set up a national-level disaster information management 116 system, and it started its initial recording system. Since the Taliban occupied and took control of 117 118 Afghanistan, the system has been inoperable. Now, advanced remote sensing technology enables quantitative risk assessment in data-scarce areas (Cremen et al., 2022; Ward et al., 2015). 119

ArcGIS Pro was used for creating maps, data reanalyzing, and visualizing (Esri, 2023). Topographical and hydrological mapping, remote-sensing data, and satellite images were used from National Geographic, Esri, USGS, the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the UN, and the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA).

124 **3 Results and Discussions**

In Afghanistan within the public population, there is a common perspective that 125 earthquakes are natural disasters that can occur anywhere, with no predictability or government-126 led hazard investigations or mitigation, such as building codes. However, earthquakes in 127 Afghanistan occur due to direct tectonic processes associated with movements between the 128 Indian, Eurasian, and Arabian plates (Abdullah et al., 2008; Ruleman, 2011; Ruleman et al., 129 2007). The boundaries between these plates consist of coalesced, continental stresses merged 130 into a concentrated deformed zone or plane, or a fault, where episodic, large, brittle crustal 131 movements deform or rupture the surface (Abdullah et al., 2008; Ruleman, 2011; Ruleman et al., 132 2007; Wheeler, Bufe, Johnson, & Dart, 2005; Wheeler & Rukstales, 2007) and showing recurrent 133 movement through the geologic past. Faults with movement within the Quaternary Period, or 134 Pleistocene, over the last 2.58 Ma, are considered active by the Nuclear Regulatory Committee 135

(Mcginnis et al., 2016). Faults are distributed through different regions in Afghanistan (Ruleman 136 et al., 2007). Strong earth-shaking and infrastructure destruction have been well documented 137 around major historical earthquakes and located epicenters. These have been primarily recorded, 138 located, and documented along the major plate boundaries between Afghanistan, Pakistan, and 139 Asia (Dewey, 2006). The Badakhshan province in northern Afghanistan is the center of major 140 earthquake concentrations. Seismic source zones and some faults extend beyond the national 141 boundary (Fig. 3) (Ruleman, 2011) The historical record shows that many large earthquakes 142 located in surrounding countries have created vigorous shaking and caused damage within 143 Afghanistan (Fig. 2). Ruleman and others (2007) extend the seismic hazard for Afghanistan to 144 any seismic source zone within 100 km of the country's political boundary. To the most extent, 145 earthquakes cannot be predicted nor managed, but earthquake hazards can be defined, mitigated, 146 and decreased by reducing risk, vulnerability, and exposure to Afghanistan's infrastructure and 147 population. The following sections explain the tectonic structure, historic earthquake disaster 148 record after Hopper et al. (Hopper et al., 2006), infrastructural and population vulnerability, and 149 conclude with earthquake risk management solutions for Afghanistan. 150

151 **3.1 Tectonic Structure of Afghanistan and the Surrounding Region**

Afghanistan is located on the perimeter of the Eurasian plate in the complex active 152 tectonic region of the Alpine-Himalaya orogenic belt, constructed during the collision between 153 the Indian, Arabian, and Eurasian plates beginning in the Late Paleogene and continued to the 154 155 present (Abdullah et al., 2008; Mahmood & Gloaguen, 2012a). Afghanistan has hundreds of kilometers long active plate boundaries from the west, south, and east. In the west, the Arabian 156 plate moves northward relative to Eurasia at about 31 mm/y (Vernant et al., 2004) that is the 157 active plate boundary trends northwestward through the Zagros region of southwestern Iran 158 159 (Ambraseys & Bilham, 2003) (Fig. 1). This plate motion has deformed the region within and surrounding Iran, forming major structures including north-south-trending, right-lateral strike-160 slip fault systems on its eastern boundary with Afghanistan, and a series of east-west-trending 161 reverse and strike-slip faults discontinuously distributed throughout the country (Boyd et al., 162 2007b). 163

Along the eastern margin of Afghanistan, the Indian plate moves northward relative to Eurasia at an average rate of about 34.4 mm/y (Valdiya & Sanwal, 2017b). Eurasian plate motion

and collision with the Indian plate occur at a rate at various measured rates averaging ~13 mm/y (Bird, 2003; Ruleman et al., 2007; Sella et al., 2002; Vernant et al., 2004). This movement has formed a broad, transpressional plate boundary zone, trending southwestward from the Hindukush in northeastern Afghanistan, through Kabul, and along the country's eastern side (Wheeler, Bufe, Johnson, Dart, et al., 2005). Deformation had formed the belt of major, northnortheast-trending, left-lateral strike-slip faults and continues with abundant historic and contemporary seismicity.

The seismicity intensifies within northeastern Afghanistan along a prominent zone of deep earthquakes associated with northward subduction of the Indian plate beneath Eurasia, extending beneath the Hindukush and Pamir Mountains (Boyd et al., 2007b; Perry et al., 2019). In the Pamir and Hindukush, the seismogenic zone starts from 50 km, reaches approximately 250 km depth, and has several subduction features, such as crustal and thrust faults and a local seismicity zone with high speeds (Sippl, Schurr, Tympel, et al., 2013; Sippl, Schurr, Yuan, et al., 2013).



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Figure 1. Tectonic setting of Afghanistan and the surrounding regions. The bold arrows
 show the relative direction and velocities of the Eurasian (EU), Arabian (AR), and Indian
 (IN) plates. The small arrows show EU and IN transform boundaries labeled in red.

184 Some faults are active because of the historical record, recent significant earthquake 185 occurrences along the faults, and the appearance of surface rupture. Earthquakes in Afghanistan and the surrounding region caused and will likely cause severe damage from strong ground shaking, faults rupturing the ground surface, liquefaction, and extensive landslides. As we witnessed, the devastating $M_w6.2$ earthquake struck the southeastern region of Afghanistan on 22^{nd} June 2022 (Qiu et al., 2023b; Shnizai, 2020). Figure 1 shows Afghanistan's location on the Eurasian plate, including the Indian and Arabian plate boundaries.

The Makran subduction zone is formed between the overriding Eurasian plate and the 191 subducting Arabian plate (Fig. 1). It is due to the northward subduction of the oceanic part of the 192 193 Arabian Plate beneath the Lut and Afghan blocks in the northwestern Indian Ocean (Mokhtari et al., 2019; Nemati, 2019). It has a complicated tectonic setting as it is located at a triple junction 194 with the Indian Plate. Southwestern Pakistan, southeastern Iran, and southernmost Afghanistan 195 comprise a broad transpressional fold and thrust belt comprised of south-southeast-verging, 196 north-dipping thrust faults, and associated east-northeast-trending folds (Priestley et al., 2022; 197 198 Shareq, 1981). It is a seismically active region, producing frequent large-magnitude earthquakes with the most recent magnitude Mw7.7 earthquake occurred in September 2013 in Balochistan 199 200 Province (Mokhtari et al., 2019).

201 **3.2 Regional Tectonic Framework and Associated Fault Systems**

202 Hindukush and Pamir Mountains in Afghanistan are part of the Himalayan orogeny uplifted by the collision between the Indian and Eurasian plates. This tectonic event and 203 associated movements have created several active deep faults in the Hindukush-Himalayan 204 region and crossing Afghanistan (James, 1989; Mahmood & Gloaguen, 2012b) as shown in 205 206 Figure 2. The boundary of the Himalayan tectonic region reaches the foothills of the Sulaiman Mountains in the west, the Indo-Burmese Arc in the east, and the Himalaya Front in the north of 207 India (Tsapanos et al., 2016). Earthquakes are an episodic release of building region tectonic 208 strain and stress and motion, or slip, between crustal blocks causing major damaging shaking in 209 this region (Kearse & Kaneko, 2020). Also, the relative motion between the two plates in the 210 west and south of the Himalayan front is oblique, resulting in strike-slip, reverse-slip, and 211 oblique-slip earthquakes and associated displacement along faults and fault zones (Ruleman, 212 2011; Ruleman et al., 2007; Valdiya & Sanwal, 2017a). As depicted in Figure 2, Afghanistan and 213 the surrounding countries are in the same tectonic region and have a similar tectonic structure. 214 The fault systems crossing Afghanistan extend into the surrounding countries. Ruleman et al. 215

(2007) considered any fault within 100 km of the Afghanistan political border to be a potential 216 threat to Afghanistan's population and infrastructure. The main active fault systems are the 217 Chaman, Hari Rud, Central Badakhshan, and Darvaz, with many subsidiary smaller faults and 218 fault zones accommodating motion between these major faults (Ruleman et al., 2007; Wheeler, 219 Bufe, Johnson, & Dart, 2005; Wheeler & Rukstales, 2007), with high-magnitude shallow and 220 deep crustal earthquakes. Figure 2 shows earthquakes from 1964 to 2004 in the region. Recently, 221 high-magnitude earthquakes occurred around these fault systems affecting Afghanistan and the 222 surrounding regions (Bilham, 2019; Kufner et al., 2023). In the western part of the country 223 earthquake shaking from the Arabian plate caused deadly earthquakes in eastern Iran (Nemati, 224 2019). 225



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Figure 2: Historical earthquakes in Afghanistan and surrounding regions between 1964 –
2004. The historical earthquakes are modified from the USGS database (Ambraseys &
Bilham, 2003.

230 **3.3 Tectonic Zones of Afghanistan**

Afghanistan is an assemblage of different crustal and oceanic blocks composing several unique terranes welded onto the southern margin of the Eurasian plate during a series of

successive accretionary events beginning in the Paleozoic and continuing to present (Bohannon, 233 2010; Doebrich & Wahl, 2006; Ruleman et al., 2007; Sinfield & Shroder, 2016). The geological 234 structure of Afghanistan is dominated by the Mesozoic (Cimmeride) and Tertiary (Himalayan) 235 orogenic episodes that have created and continue to create mountainous regions and the dramatic 236 landscape of Afghanistan (Tapponnier et al., 1981a; Whitney, 2006). Afghanistan has been 237 classified as four distinct seismotectonic regions with different geologic histories and structures 238 (Bohannon, 2010; Shareq, 2011; Shroder et al., 2022; Wheeler, Bufe, Johnson, & Dart, 2005; 239 Wheeler & Rukstales, 2007) as outlined in Figure 3. 240



Figure 3. Tectonic zones and major fault systems of Afghanistan (red lines) (modified from Wheeler et al., 2005). The green region is the North Afghan Platform, the light pink region is the Transpressional Plate Boundary, the blue region is the Middle Afghanistan, and the orange region is the Accreted Terranes zone.

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The Transpressional Plate Boundary region is the boundary between the Eurasian and the Indian plates caused by continental collision and moving northward at a rate of about 39 mm/y (Ruleman et al., 2007; Wheeler, Bufe, Johnson, & Dart, 2005). The plate is located south and east of the Afghan Block, including the eastern portion of the Hindu Kush, Pamir Mountain ranges, and the Sulaiman fold and thrust belt of southern Afghanistan (Fig.3). The western and northern boundaries of this zone are defined by the left lateral Chaman and Central Badakhshan

fault systems, respectively, with the exotic Kabul crustal block (Bohannon, 2010; Ruleman et al., 2007), where the Chaman fault shows greater tectonic activity and more recent earthquakes. This is the most active seismic zone in Afghanistan, with the local exception of the eastern part of the North Afghan Platform (Figure 3).

The North Afghan Platform region lies north of the Hari Rud fault zone and west of the 256 Central Badakhshan fault systems, and includes the Tajik basin (Ruleman et al., 2007; Wheeler, 257 Bufe, Johnson, & Dart, 2005)(Fig. 3). The Darvaz is a more active fault in the Platform. This 258 259 zone formed the southern margin of the Eurasian continental plate, and it is relatively stable tectonically. It comprises deformed metamorphic and igneous rocks basement and was created 260 during the Carboniferous-Permian and Hercynian Orogeny (Shnizai, 2020). The eastern part of 261 the North Afghan Platform is more seismically active than the rest it might be incorporating the 262 Darvaz fault in this part. 263

The Middle Afghanistan Geosuture Zone is a narrow zone occurred immediately south of the North Afghan Platform and is part of the current right-lateral Hari Rud fault zone (Ruleman et al., 2007; Wheeler, Bufe, Johnson, & Dart, 2005). It forms the boundary between the North Afghan Platform and the Afghan Block, including other terranes to the south (Sinfield & Shroder, 2016). The Hari Rud River flows along the major downfaulted graben within the geosuture south of the Paropamisus Mountains.

The Accreted Terranes region is located south of the Geosuture and includes numerous external folded, faulted, partially metamorphosed, and deformed blocks that comprise the mountains and plains of the Farah, Helmand, and Arghandab areas formed during the Mesozoic Cimmerian Orogeny and that involved closing of the Paleo-Tethys Ocean (Banks, 2014; Ruleman et al., 2007; Wheeler, Bufe, Johnson, & Dart, 2005) (Fig. 3). The accreted Terranes is a seismically calm, or quiescent, region.

Identification of these tectonic zones, after Wheeler et al. (2005) and Ruleman et al. (2007), will allow us the capability to assign the distribution of earthquake magnitudes over different faults and regions of Afghanistan. In general, the tectonic activities, earthquakes, and deformation in Afghanistan and the surrounding region are driven by the collision between the northward-moving Indian and Eurasian plates (Prevot et al., 1980; Ruleman et al., 2007). This movement has formed active Quaternary faults across the country, showing modern tectonic

activity such as moderate to high magnitude and potentially damaging earthquakes. The Earth's 282 crust in Afghanistan is divided by a complex network of faults with different ages and directions 283 of movement, as delineated in Figure 2. Ancient Earthquakes along the myriad of faults within 284 Afghanistan (Figure 2) have caused different amounts of slip during earthquakes in the geologic 285 past. Due to the temporospatial migrations of stress and strain within the region, some faults are 286 active causing recent destructive earthquakes, while other faults are dormant, or quiescent in 287 historical times (Lawrence et al., 1981; Mahmood & Gloaguen, 2011; Quittmeyer & Jacob K.H., 288 1979). Figure 3 demonstrates major geologic regions and fault systems extending across 289 Afghanistan. Some faults have moved repeatedly and frequently during the Quaternary Period, 290 showing continuous movement into the recent Holocene epoch, but have no historical evidence 291 for movement. Identification of repetitive movement through the geologic past without historic 292 movement is indicative of a seismic hazard. Thus, investigating active faults is in the foundation 293 for these seismic hazard assessments. They allow either estimation of the locations, size, and 294 dates of large historical earthquakes or estimating the rate of fault slip averaged over several 295 earthquake cycles. Most recent details studies of these faults are conducted by USGS using 296 297 satellite image analysis (Ruleman, 2011; Ruleman et al., 2007; Wheeler, Bufe, Johnson, & Dart, 2005). However, field studies were not conducted, and detailed investigations of the fault 298 299 activities, slip rates, and more geologic characteristics are needed. Ruleman et al. (2007) subdivided Afghanistan into eight tectonic domains, each having distinct physiographic, 300 301 geomorphic, and associated neotectonics qualities of Quaternary deformation (Ruleman et al., 2007). 302

303 **3.4 Major Active Faults in Afghanistan**

Within this study, previously mapped and identified faults and fault zones are investigated in Afghanistan, and 10 large seismically active faults are suggested through these investigations. The most prominent four active faults are the Chaman, Hari Rud, Central Badakhshan, and Darvaz, which are explained in detail below (Boyd et al., 2007a; Lawrence et al., 1981; Wheeler, Bufe, Johnson, Dart, et al., 2005).

309 Chaman Fault: The Chaman fault is a system of several faults that forms the western edge of 310 the transpressional plate boundary between the Eurasian and Indian plates (Fig. 3). The 650-km 311 long Chaman fault is a left-lateral strike-slip faults system seismically very active in southeastern

Afghanistan. The fault slip rates are reported to differ between 19-35 mm/y(Lawrence et al., 312 1981; Ruleman et al., 2007; Tapponnier et al., 1981b), being the most active fault within 313 Afghanistan (Ruleman et al., 2007). The Chaman fault system has been subdivided into four to 314 five main faults: Chaman, Mokur, Gardiz, and Paghman (Ruleman et al., 2007; Shroder et al., 315 2022) (Fig. 2 and 3). Earthquakes and recurrent movement along the fault have created many 316 complex surface ruptures along the fault trace (Ruleman et al., 2007). There are numerous 317 historical accounts of major large, damaging earthquakes throughout Afghanistan and the 318 surrounding regions. A few of the major historic earthquake accounts include 1) an earthquake 319 in July 1505 with an estimated magnitude of M_s 7.3 produced 60 km of surface rupture and 320 several meters of vertical offset near Kabul; 2) an earthquake on December 20, 1892, near 31N, 321 created a 60 km surface rupture that produced 60-75 cm of left-lateral slip and dropped the west 322 wall of the fault down 20-30 cm (Barnhart, 2017; Quittmeyer & Jacob K.H., 1979); and 3) an 323 earthquake in 1975 with a magnitude of Mw 6.4 near 30N produced 5 km of surface rupture and 324 4 cm of left-lateral offset with a small eastside down slip (Boyd et al., 2007a). Recently, a $M_w 6.2$ 325 earthquake occurred on June 22, 2022, created a 0-8 km long surface rupture with a maximum 326 327 slip of about 2m at a depth of 2 km (Qiu et al., 2023b).

Hari Rud Fault: The Hari Rud fault system, also called the Herat fault, is a right-lateral strike-328 slip fault trending nearly east to west; it separates the Northern Afghan Platform from Central 329 Afghanistan (Fig. 3) (Ruleman et al., 2007; Wheeler, Bufe, Johnson, & Dart, 2005). The fault 330 extends 730 km to the west across Iran's border, from its intersection with the Chaman fault 331 north of Kabul (Boyd et al., 2007b; Ruleman et al., 2007). The fault is a major continental-scale 332 suture that coincides with the boundary between the relatively stable, gently deformed Eurasian 333 content to the north and extensively deformed accreted terrains to the south (Tapponnier et al., 334 1981a), which has been a major tectonic boundary since the early Mesozoic (Tapponnier et al., 335 1981b). Previous studies indicate that the area along this suture zone originated as a north-336 dipping structure, developing into a right-lateral strike-slip fault in Tertiary time. Recent studies 337 indicate a continuation of Quaternary tectonic activities along the fault (Ruleman et al., 2007; 338 Wheeler, Bufe, Johnson, & Dart, 2005). Few earthquakes and little background seismicity do 339 340 occur along the Hari Rud fault, but the fault demonstrates less tectonic activity than Chaman, Darvaz, Central Badakhshan, and the Konar fault (Boyd et al., 2007b; Dewey, 2006; Ruleman et 341 al., 2007; Wheeler, Bufe, Johnson, & Dart, 2005). 342

Central Badakhshan Fault: The Central Badakhshan fault is a left-lateral oblique thrust fault extending from the Panjshir fault's eastern end to the Tajikistan border (Fig. 3) (Ruleman et al., 2007; Wheeler, Bufe, Johnson, & Dart, 2005). It is a north-northeast trending fault associated with active oblique-thrust faults (Ruleman, 2011; Ruleman et al., 2007; Shnizai, 2020). Thrust faults, along with left-lateral and right-lateral fault zones show evidence of probable recurrent Quaternary tectonic activity, indicating a complex interplay between faults in this transpressional region (Ruleman, 2011; Ruleman et al., 2007).

350 Darvaz Fault: Located in northeastern Afghanistan and extending northward into Tajikistan, the Darvaz fault is a 380-km long, left-lateral fault, trending parallel to the Central Badakhshan fault 351 (Ruleman, 2011; Ruleman et al., 2007; Wheeler, Bufe, Johnson, & Dart, 2005) (Fig. 3). The 352 Darvaz fault is in a seismically active region with continued Quaternary tectonism, where 353 Holocene and late Pleistocene deposits are laterally offset by 20 to 0 meters and 300 meters, 354 respectively (Dewey, 2006; Ruleman et al., 2007; Trifonov, 1978). The Andarab, Darafshan, 355 Sarobi, Konar, Alburz Marmul, and Panjshir faults all demonstrate Quaternary tectonic activity; 356 however, previous investigations and other datasets are limited for these faults. These faults and 357 fault zones and characterizing the active tectonic signature of them should be a focus of future 358 research related to seismic hazards within Afghanistan and the surrounding region. 359

360

3.5 Historical Earthquakes in Afghanistan

Historical records of earthquakes over hundreds to thousands of years give us a first-361 order approximation of the hazards (Bilham, 2019; Dewey, 2006). Afghanistan is in an active 362 tectonic region; thus, a historic earthquake database is essential for disaster risk management. 363 Recently, the population has increased by an order of magnitude, so the vulnerability of 364 dwellings subjected to seismic shaking has increased. The protracted war and conflict in 365 Afghanistan destroyed research organizations, and databases, and disturbed the data collection 366 process, resulting in large data gaps. Recently, the USGS conducted unique investigations on the 367 country's tectonic and earthquake disaster vulnerability mapping and initiated a historic 368 earthquake record database (Ambraseys & Bilham, 2003; Dewey, 2006). World Bank prepared 369 the Afghanistan disaster risk profile (e.g., World Bank, 2017); the United Nations Environmental 370 Program (UNEP) founded the basis for environmental sciences, scientific studies, and conducted 371 basic work on environmental disasters (e.g., Noori & Sherzad, 2020; Unep, 2003; UNEP, 2016). 372

The USGS database shows that the history of deadly earthquakes in Afghanistan returns thousands of years as shown in Figure 4. The catalog records more than 1300 earthquakes, and the history of the first earthquakes in the record returned to A.D. 734 to the present (Ambraseys & Bilham, 2003). The earliest documented earthquake occurred in A.D. 819 in the north of the country with an M_s 7.4 estimated magnitude. This earthquake caused heavy damage and many casualties within villages more than 10 kilometers from the epicenter (Boyd et al., 2007b).



Figure 4: Historical earthquakes and their magnitudes and main tectonic zones and fault systems in Afghanistan. Modified from Wheeler et al. (2005) and Dewey et al. (2006)

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Figure 5 shows the historic earthquake location, magnitude, and focal depth inside 382 Afghanistan territories and surrounding regions. Earthquakes with focal depths between 0 and 70 383 384 are considered shallow earthquakes; between 70 and 300 km are intermediate-depth earthquakes, and deep-focus earthquakes are 300 to 700 km (Hammed et al., 2013). Intermediate-depth 385 earthquakes represent deformation within the subducted lithosphere beneath the Eurasian Plate, 386 rather than shallow plate interfaces between subducting and overriding tectonic plates. They 387 typically cause less damage on the ground surface above their foci than similar-magnitude 388 shallow-focus earthquakes. Still, large, intermediate-depth earthquakes may be felt at great 389 distances from their epicenters. Occasional deep-focus earthquakes, greater than 300 km, occur 390 beneath northeastern Afghanistan as well (USGS, 2015). 391

The Transpressional Boundary region is the most tectonically active region in 392 Afghanistan as shown in Figure 3. It is home to the Hindukush deep seismic zone, where deep 393 earthquakes with high magnitudes occur, while the country's central and western parts have 394 remained seismically inactive. Also, the active, left-lateral, strike-slip Chaman fault is the fastest-395 moving fault in the southeastern region. For instance, in 1505, a segment of the Chaman fault 396 near Kabul, Afghanistan, ruptured, causing widespread destruction. The M7.6 earthquake on 30 397 May 1935 in Quetta occurred in the Sulaiman Range and killed 30,000 civilians while affecting 398 60,000 others outside the Afghanistan territories. In Afghanistan, earthquakes of moderate 399 magnitude 5.0-5.9 have been destructive and have caused fatalities. Therefore, the catalog 400 presented here covers all earthquakes greater than a magnitude M5 event. 401







404 **3.6 Recent Seismicity and Earthquakes in Afghanistan**

Figure 6 shows Afghanistan and the surrounding vicinity's seismotectonic map with the recent earthquakes from 1990 to 2004. Many earthquakes were occurring during this period. A few most recent destructive are summarized below:

408 On June 21, 2022, an M_s6 magnitude earthquake with a 40-km deep epicenter struck near 409 Khost province of Afghanistan (Fig. 6). The earthquake had 1150 casualties, 3,000 injured, and

10,000 homes damaged in Khost and Paktika provinces (USGS, 2022). The most affected districts in Khost were Sperah and Barmal, Nikeh, Ster Giyan, and the Ziruk area in Paktika. The earthquake caused a landslide in Khost killed 10 people and injured 25. Technically, the pattern of elastic waves that were radiated by the June 21, 2022, earthquake indicates the event was predominantly strike-slip faulting, either a left-lateral slip on a northeast-striking fault or a rightlateral slip on a northwest-striking fault (Kufner et al., 2023; USGS, 2022), and modeled regionally by Ruleman et al. (2007) and Ruleman (2011).

On October 26, 2015, a $M_s7.5$ magnitude earthquake occurred southwest of Jurm in Badakhshan province near the Hindukush region (Fig. 6). The earthquake happened due to reverse faulting at an intermediate depth, approximately 210 km below the Hindukush Range in northeastern Afghanistan (Hayes et al., 2016). Focal mechanism solutions indicate that rupture occurred on either a steep, south-dipping reverse fault or a shallow, north-dipping thrust fault.

Several M_s7 magnitude earthquakes were recorded in northern Afghanistan in the 422 Hindukush region during the second half of the past century (Fig. 6). In March 2002, a M_s7.4 423 earthquake occurred just 20 km west of the October 26, 2015, event, with a similar depth and 424 425 thrust fault orientation. The 2002 event caused over 150 fatalities and either damaged or destroyed over 400 houses in a seismogenic landslide. In December 1983 an M_s7.4 earthquake 426 occurred at a similar depth just 8 km south of the October 26, 2015, event; the earthquake 427 resulted in 26 fatalities, hundreds of injuries, and extensive infrastructural damage in the region. 428 In October 2005 the deadliest earthquake hit the Kashmir region of Pakistan proximal to the 429 430 eastern border of Afghanistan (Mulvey et al., 2008).





432 Figure 6: Recent earthquakes from 1990 – 2022 in Afghanistan.

In general, Afghanistan is in need of a proper disaster database and a regular national 433 disaster management system, involving the mapping of tectonic structures and active faults, and 434 interactive earthquake hazard maps. By using available national data with global geospatial data, 435 we can begin to understand the extent of earthquake vulnerable regions and areas prone to higher 436 impact earthquake risk disasters. Several worldwide historical earthquake databases provide 437 438 useful information, such as seismological information, building damage, social losses (deaths, injuries, home-less and affected), and economic losses. Also, this information is essential in 439 understanding global economic and social losses, and it has a profound impact on Gross 440 Domestic Production (GDP) and Human Development Index (HDI) worldwide (Daniell et al., 441 2011). In this study, with the support of the available national and geospatial data, more accurate 442 and current seismotectonic maps, earthquake hazard maps, and a historical earthquake database 443 have been created. As Afghanistan is in a tectonically active region, future destructive 444 earthquakes will occur proximal to population centers, most likely causing numerous casualties 445 and massive damage. In order to reduce the risk of earthquake disasters in the country, a seismic 446 447 hazards protection plan must be considered in all development plans; construction code must be

448 applied in all urban, public, and private buildings, and contingency plans must be developed for449 the most vulnerable areas of high seismic hazard.

450 **3.7 Earthquake Hazard Map of Afghanistan**

Figure 7 depicts the Afghanistan earthquake hazard map divided into 6 seismic regions 451 based on earthquake shaking intensity from low to high, light blue to red, respectively. The 452 hazard map was first initiated by USGS (Boyd et al., 2007a). The region proximal to the Central 453 Badakhshan, Darvaz, and Chaman faults, has experienced the highest shaking and most 454 destruction historic earthquakes, shows the most geomorphic evidence for continuous tectonism 455 (Ruleman, 2011; Ruleman et al., 2007), and thus defined on this map as the highest seismic 456 hazard. The second highest seismic hazard exists in the dispersed region associated with these 457 main fault zones as predictable shaking as major events along the faults resonate and attenuate 458 throughout the region. In general, the transpressional plate boundary area from the Darvaz-459 Badakhshan fault system in the east to the North Afghan Platform in central-western Afghanistan 460 are the most seismically active regions. 461

The region with the pink color is the third seismically active area (the area around the Hari Rud fault), in the western of the country, it is influenced by the Arabian fault and transtensional strike-slip faulting along the Iran-Afghanistan border (Austermann & Iaffaldano, 2013; Ezati et al., 2022; Walker & Jackson, 2004) The rest is a seismic calm area mostly covering the Accreted Terrans. The details of the seismic region are explained in the legend on the right side of Figure 7.





471 **3.8** Socioeconomic and Environmental Vulnerability to Earthquakes in Afghanistan

468

More than four decades of war and conflict in Afghanistan have killed millions, forced 472 millions to flee their homes, and destroyed the country's infrastructure and environment (Oxfam, 473 2009; Price, 2019). This condition kept the country away from socioeconomic development and 474 exacerbated the natural disaster vulnerability (Peters, 2021b; Přívara & Přívarová, 2019). In 475 addition, climate change has deeply affected natural resources, especially water and agriculture 476 (Mihran, 2011). The combined effects of man-made and natural disasters put the country in 477 extreme poverty, and the HDI is at its lowest level. About 97% of the population was below the 478 poverty line in 2021 (Clayton Thomas, 2021; UNDP, 2021). Vulnerability is increasing around 479 disaster-prone areas due to increasing population density along with a lack of technical 480 information for proper disaster management. Ultimately, this is due to a lack of stable and 481 responsible leadership in the country. 482

The population distribution between urban and rural areas is quite large. With a total 483 estimated population of 32.9 million, about 23.4 million live in rural areas 8 million in urban 484 areas, and 1.5 million nomads (NSIA, 2021). Most of the earthquake vulnerable areas are rural. 485 During the GoIRA, GDP was exceptionally high, and life standards and livelihood were 486 improved well. GDP was \$20.14 billion in 2020 (IMF, 2023), despite earthquake disasters 487 having a profound impact on the economy, lives, and livelihoods of people in Afghanistan. 488 Destructive earthquakes have been known in Afghanistan for over four millennia (Shroder, 2014). 489 Since 1990, 355 documented low and high-magnitude earthquakes have caused huge losses to 490 resources and infrastructure (UNDRR, 2020). The estimated GDP value of assets decreases when 491 high-magnitude earthquakes occur (World Bank, 2018). However, earthquake disaster risk 492 493 management is absent in Afghanistan. The country will reach socioeconomic and environmental sustainability when proper disaster management is conducted through extensively available 494 natural solutions, land use management, construction code application, and relocation of the 495 vulnerable population from disaster-prone areas. These are essential tools to reduce vulnerability 496 497 and reliance on international aid in disaster response and will result in poverty reduction (Mead, 2022). Peacebuilding and political stability are a prerequisite for sustainable development in 498 Afghanistan. As of June 22, 2022, the earthquake in Khost and Paktiya provinces lacked a 499 legitimate and responsible government. The poor presence of relief organizations, insecurity, and 500 access to the harsh terrain result in a low response. In addition, the earthquake disaster was 501 already exacerbated by the preceding flood and drought, which led to reduced pastureland, water 502 shortages, food insecurity, economic degradation, land degradation, and internal displacement in 503 Afghanistan. 504

505

3.9 Unstandardized Construction

From ancient times people in Afghanistan have been living around disaster-prone areas. 506 People believe that the will of God cause natural disasters due to the evil deeds of humans, 507 making approaches to mitigate disaster risk seem impossible. People constructed houses on steep 508 slope areas prone to landslides and avalanches. Many houses are built from mud, masonry, and 509 510 bricks, and RCC (Reinforced Cement Concrete), is the modern construction in Afghanistan. Strong shaking earthquakes destroy mostly unreinforced buildings constructed from mud, brick, 511 and masonry increasing casualties (Lang et al., 2018). Improved construction standards and 512 techniques supplied by scientific seismic hazard estimation could significantly reduce the loss of 513

life and properties. The variety of destructive and deadly hazards associated with earthquakes 514 poses a real threat to reconstruction efforts and the economic growth of Afghanistan. Boyd and 515 others developed a model built on historical earthquake records and the current tectonic 516 environment to predict the strength of ground shaking in future earthquakes (Boyd et al., 2007b). 517 Therefore, it is essential to efficiently identify buildings' vulnerability to ground shaking to reduce 518 construction failure and avoid losses during earthquakes by retrofitting the constructions. Haziq and 519 Kiyotaka investigated building codes for sustainable and resilient structures (Haziq & Kiyotaka, 520 2017). Construction is generally based on the availability of materials and equipment in 521 Afghanistan due to a lack of disaster vulnerability awareness and low economic conditions. Most 522 of the buildings follow the traditional methods of construction without considering building 523 codes and earthquake reinforcement. Lang and others defined 29 building typologies in Central 524 and South Asia. According to their classifications, the standard building types in Afghanistan's 525 suburban and urban centers are constructed from burnt clay brick masonry, concrete block 526 masonry walls, and Reinforced Concrete (RC) buildings, regularly observed in the south-central 527 and western cities. Building types dominate rural Afghanistan from stone masonry walls, mud 528 529 (adobe) walls, and load-bearing timber frames. Most building typologies are vulnerable to earthquake shocks (Lang et al., 2018). GoIRA approved the building code in 2012 to measure 530 531 construction sustainability (ANSA, 2012). Recently, there have been promising improvements in public and private buildings. However, most facilities still ignore building codes not considered 532 533 in construction which susceptible buildings to earthquake shocks.

534 **3.10 Earthquake Disaster Risk Reduction Measures**

Over the past two decades security was the focus and main challenge for the GoIRA and 535 that covered more than 50 percent of the national budget (GoIRA, 1390). However, some 536 537 disaster management activities were conducted with financial and technical support from donors. World Bank, UN organizations, and relevant international NGOs worked on developing DRM 538 systems and mainstreamed DRR in the development process (World Bank, 2018). GoIRA 539 structured the DRM and DRR in the national development strategy (GoIRA, 2013, 2021). Based 540 on the number of policies and plans developed in the framework of DRM, DRR remained in the 541 draft (ANDMA, 2011). Disaster risk management focus was on response and recovery (UNDRR, 542 2020). Disaster management must be collaborative and multi-discipline, carried out before and 543 after a natural disaster to mitigate the risks of the disaster. A cycle of five interconnected 544

processes, such as 1) Mitigation and Control, 2) Preparedness, 3) Disaster Inducing, 4) Response, and 5) Recovery (Chaudhary & Piracha, 2021; Yu et al., 2018). The first step in managing and reducing the risk of natural disasters covers all possible mitigation and control measures. If the disaster progresses, preparedness should be considered to leave the area exposed to disaster risks. The response is immediately after the disaster, and the recovery is a longer process after emergency management. Figure 8 Shows the disaster management cycle.



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Figure 8: Disaster management cycle.

553 The earthquake disaster risk management framework has several engineering and soft managerial measures. Main engineering measures included 1) mapping the vulnerability and 554 designing construction and building codes based on the seismic assessment map of the area. 2) 555 Applying building codes on private and public buildings with required reinforcement to reduce 556 557 vulnerability. 3) Identifying a seismically calm area to relocate the vulnerable population. 4) Diverging stream flow from across active geological faults and earthquake-prone areas because 558 of blockage of a stream after earthquake shaking. The leading soft management measures include 559 1) Geological investigation that provides basic information about the area's geological structure, 560 including geological formations, bedrocks, and sedimentation depths over the bedrocks. 2) 561 Tectonic structure and geological faults in and around the area. 3) information about earthquake 562

hazards, risks, vulnerability, and history of earthquakes in and around the region. 4) Public awareness about disaster vulnerability, protection, and emergency drills are integral to disaster management.

The above-mentioned measures are essential for earthquake disaster management in 566 Afghanistan. Some initial steps are being taken on both engineering and soft-measure aspects of 567 disaster management in the country. Initial information about the tectonic setting, seismic zones, 568 earthquake database, and initial earthquake hazards map including initial disaster risk 569 570 management framework exists. Few studies have been conducted on the construction code of 571 Afghanistan. This information is essential as initial steps toward the earthquake DRR and its founding basis for earthquake disaster and risk management investigations. For urgent measures 572 on earthquake risk management and response planning, the hazard map is essential for 573 understanding the vulnerable area, scope, and level of seismic hazard for various parts of the 574 575 country (Fig. 7). Also, this type of assessment is an essential source of information for engineers to increase safety and resilience against strong earthquakes in the design of critical facilities such 576 577 as power plants, dams, pipelines, and major roads.

578 4 Conclusions and Recommendations

Afghanistan is in a tectonically active region and is highly vulnerable to destructive earthquake hazards. Chaman, Hari Rud, Central Badakhshan, and Darvaz are active geological faults in Afghanistan. Regions around these faults have been identified and characterized as seismically active. All the regions have experienced historic destructive earthquakes, leaving most places exposed to earthquake hazards.

Most of the earthquake vulnerability in Afghanistan is due to the high numbers of 584 inhabitants within these earthquake-prone areas. Additionally, poverty, and a lack of political 585 stability, security, disaster management plans and preparedness, and public service contribute to 586 the absence of humanitarian support to civilians during natural disasters. Decades of conflict and 587 instability have undermined the country's coping mechanism and protective capacity. This 588 increases the likelihood that hazard events become disasters with significant humanitarian and 589 economic consequences. While natural hazards and tragedies do not necessarily cause conflict, 590 natural disasters can exacerbate the challenges people already face in fragile states, create new 591 592 risks, and stress an already weakened governance system.

This study proposes earthquake disaster risk mitigation, reducing the exposed 593 population's vulnerability through disaster management, and empowering the local community 594 and awareness program. Seismic risk mitigation measures should be taken to minimize seismic 595 risk and losses in earthquake disaster-prone areas, as shown in the earthquake hazard map (Fig. 596 7). It is noteworthy that disaster management is an essential step toward the sustainable 597 development of the country. Finally, this study ends with the following recommendations for 598 disaster managers, planners, and urban policymakers to facilitate a reasonable evaluation of the 599 current seismic risk state in the country and prepare for the future possible earthquake DRR. 600

- Preparing a comprehensive earthquake hazard map based on further scientific
 investigations. Interactive hazard maps should be prepared to contain all active faults
 crossing the specific regions, vulnerable regions, vulnerable populations, and properties,
 including earthquake calm places for relocation.
- 605 Establishing a Disaster Management System (DMS) consisting of all five processes • (Mitigation, Control, Preparedness, Response, and Recovery). A qualified team is needed 606 for quality management. Capacity building and mobilization of the management team is 607 required. The team should have full access to all the national and international online 608 databases, GIS maps, analysis skills, and research capabilities. The team should proceed 609 with any management process based on their investigation results. They should have the 610 support of relevant national agencies and international organizations. In the current 611 context of Afghanistan, DMS with high technical mobilization and huge financial 612 backing is difficult. Therefore, a DMS with a national context, community base, and 613 possible international support is working, and it is essential for earthquake vulnerability 614 reduction. 615
- Public Awareness is critical; the disaster management team can lead outreach objectives
 with relevant organizations. Public awareness is essential for vulnerable communities to
 construct resilient buildings using locally available materials and construction techniques.
 Informing the most exposed population to earthquake disasters is at the forefront, with
 voluntary relocation and assistance an option for exposed inhabitants.
- Establishing a historic and contemporary earthquake database and catalog, with the installation of seismographs and Early Warning Systems (EWS). USGS already

established a database with historical records, it should be updated with the new data and must be enriched with interactive online maps. The existing unoperated seismograph network? currently within Afghanistan should be updated, and others should be installed in appropriate places for a complete seismic record. Possibly, an emplacement of a locally available EWS is needed for disaster prediction, emergency management, relocation, and response-related information.

Creating a national context construction code for government, public, local, and private
 buildings, including masonry and mud buildings. Assisting and supporting poor
 communities on the construction code application.

632

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642

643

644 **Open Research**

This study did not use new field data, models, computer codes, or new software. Most of 645 the data in the study were used from the available sources that were all referenced. Main 646 earthquake data, such as geological faults, seismic zones, and earthquake hazard maps including 647 a historical earthquake database were used from the United States Geological Survey (USGS) 648 (Bilham, 2019; Dewey, 2006; USGS, 2015, 2022; Wheeler et al., 2005). In this study, we used 649 USGS earthquake databases (Dewey, 2006; USGS, 2023). Recent earthquakes were added to the 650 existing USGS database and used as new information in this paper (USGS, 2015b, 2022). Some 651 historical and recent earthquake records were used from Risklayer online database (Risklayer, 652 2023). The updated main geological faults crossed Afghanistan and connected with surrounding 653 regions including plate boundaries are derived from the ArcGIS Global Earthquake Archive 654 (ArcGIS, 2023; Bird, 2003). Finally, Afghanistan's tectonic settings, active faults, and seismic 655 regions were digitized and mapped with the updated data using ArcGIS Pro (Esri, 2023). Also in 656 this study, the earthquake hazard map from (Boyd et al., 2007) was modified, and historical 657 databases updated with recent earthquakes were used (Ambraseys & Bilham, 2003; Dewey, 658 2006). Therefore, most of this study is prepared from previously published sources mentioned 659 above and all the citation are listed below. All the data including PDF, websites and database 660 have direct links to access. 661

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