



HAL
open science

Tsunami impact assessment for low-lying cities along the Northern Atlantic Coast of Morocco using MIRONE software

Abdelkarim Tadibaght, Abdelmounim El M'rini, Lionel Siame, Olivier Bellier

► To cite this version:

Abdelkarim Tadibaght, Abdelmounim El M'rini, Lionel Siame, Olivier Bellier. Tsunami impact assessment for low-lying cities along the Northern Atlantic Coast of Morocco using MIRONE software. *Journal of African Earth Sciences*, 2022, 192, pp.104580. 10.1016/j.jafrearsci.2022.104580. hal-03662711

HAL Id: hal-03662711

<https://hal.science/hal-03662711v1>

Submitted on 9 May 2022

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution - NonCommercial - NoDerivatives 4.0 International License

1 **Tsunami impact assessment for low-lying cities along the Northern**
2 **Atlantic coast of Morocco using MIRONE software**

3

Abdelkarim TADIBAGHT^{a*}, Abdelmounim EL M'RINI^a, Lionel SIAME^b, Olivier Bellier^{b,c}

4 ^aLR3G, FS, Abdelmalek Essaadi University, Tetouan, Morocco

5 ^b Aix Marseille Univ, CNRS, IRD, INRAE, Coll France, CEREGE, Aix-en-Provence, France

6 ^c Aix Marseille Univ, CNRS, ECCOREV, Aix-en-Provence, France

7 * Address correspondence to: Abdelkarim Tadibaght

8 E-mail: tadibaghtabde@gmail.com

9 Tel.: +212657966260

10 Abdelkarim Tadibaght Orcid: <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7161-0154>

11 Abdelmounim El M'rini Orcid: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7963-5660>

12 Lionel Siame Orcid: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4288-9528>

13 Olivier Bellier Orcid: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3213-7306>

14 **Abstract:**

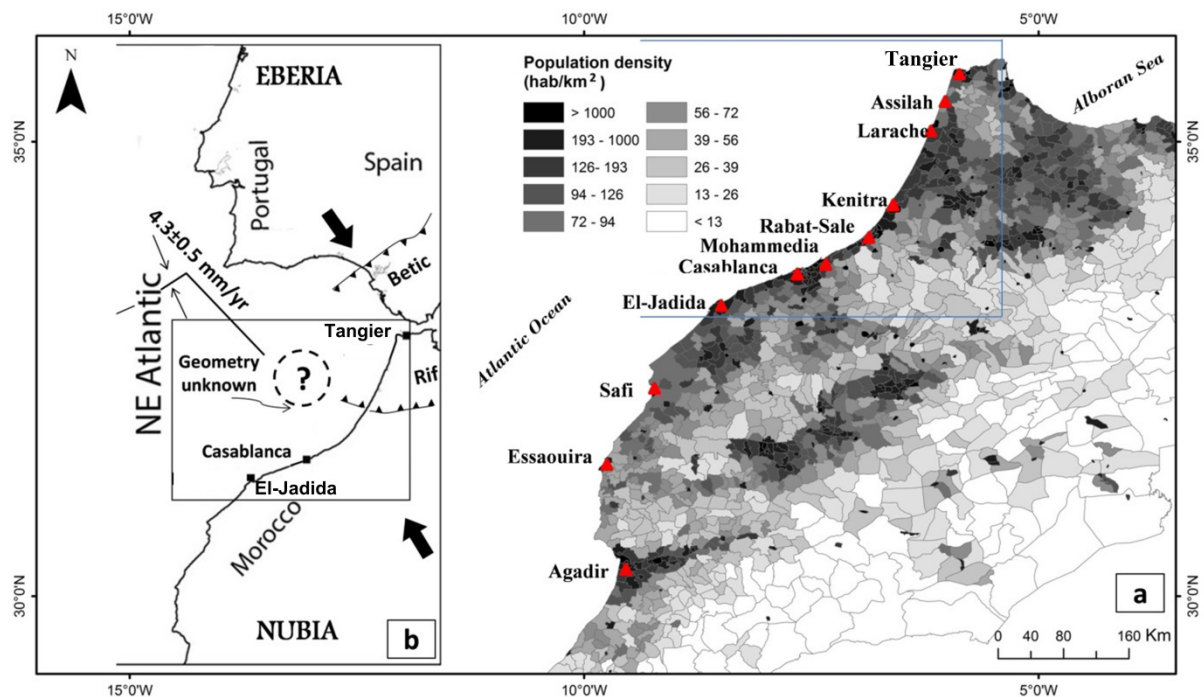
15 The Northern Atlantic coastline of Morocco is potentially exposed to tsunamis, like that triggered by the
16 large Lisbon event (November 1st, 1755), also known as the most destructive event in Moroccan history. In this
17 work, we used MIRONE software to simulate tsunami phenomenon in the Southwest Iberian Margin region,
18 combining a series of bathymetric and topographic grid layers with an initial water elevation generated using
19 Mansinha's formulations and assuming an instantaneous seabed movement. For this investigation, we considered
20 four scenarios, associated with four potential seismic sources for the 1755 earthquake located in the Gulf of
21 Cadiz. Thus, for each scenario, we obtained a map showing the results of the simulation (distance traveled, wave
22 displacement speed, evolution of wave heights from offshore to coastal areas and arrival travel times). These
23 maps showed that cities like Mohammedia, Casablanca and El-Jadida, were important stakes that could be
24 impacted by a tsunami originating from these sources. For these cities, we thus determined the traveling water
25 columns and the inland distances that could be reached by this inundation. The results show that these cities are
26 potentially threaten by maximum water elevation exceeding 20 m in some locations, with a worse scenario
27 characterized by flow depth and inundation distance ranging from 6 m to 10, and 1.8 km to 4.6 km, respectively.
28 These results should also be useful for the authorities, emergency, and decision planners to develop tsunami
29 protection and risk awareness among the coastal communities of Morocco.

30 **Keywords:** 1755 Lisbon tsunami, Numerical modeling, MIRONE, Northern Atlantic coast, Morocco.

31 **1. Introduction**

32 Coastal areas are exposed to quite a lot of natural hazards, from waves triggered by earthquake or
33 extreme weather events to erosion including landslides. This situation is likely to increase in the context of
34 global warming and sea-level rise combined to socio-economic growths, and seriously questions the adaptation
35 of heavily urbanized areas located at low elevation. Within this context, there is a dire need to better characterize
36 coastal hazards and associated risks located along the margin of the diffuse tectonic boundary accommodating
37 the convergence between the Nubia and Iberia plates (Fig. 1). The Atlantic coast of Morocco is potentially
38 threatened by tsunami waves triggered by earthquakes generated within the Gulf of Cadiz. Indeed, to the southwest
39 of Cape Saint Vincent, oceanic earthquakes may be tsunamigenic, and generate waves that can reach the coasts
40 of Portugal, Spain and Morocco, like during the so-called Lisbon event on November 1st, 1755 ($M_w \sim 8.5$)
41 (Solares et al., 1979; Johnston, 1996; Gutscher, 2004; Gutscher et al., 2006). The Atlantic coast of Morocco also
42 gathers about 10.3 millions of inhabitants (Laouina, 2019), which corresponds to 33% of the total country

43 population according to last general population and housing census data (H.C.P, 2014). This region has always
 44 been an important attraction hub for population coming from the interior regions (El Mrini, 2011). This region
 45 also hosts some of the largest cities with a heavy weight in the Moroccan economy: Tangier, Larache, Kenitra,
 46 Rabat, Mohammedia, Casablanca and El-Jadida. In fact, accounting for all the socio-economic assets, this
 47 coveted coastline is a structuring pole of the Moroccan economy (D.A.T, 2017), which therefore experiences
 48 significant forms of pressure. It is the site of a strong land speculation and anarchic urbanization, as a
 49 consequence of important industrialization, logistics and tourist development projects, in addition to fishery and
 50 agricultural activities (Laouina, 2019). On an area of approximately 25,000 km², corresponding to the tape
 51 ~10 km from the Atlantic shores, the average density is roughly 407 inhabitants / km², almost ten times the
 52 national value (Fig. 1) (Laouina, 2019). Since the early 2000s, Morocco has implemented a strategy for the
 53 development of tourism, through the Azur plans “vision 2010” and “vision 2020”. These programs being
 54 essentially based on the development of coastal tourism, several resorts and hotel structures have thus been
 55 constructed along the coastlines concerned by this study. So, the combination of the Moroccan coast’s exposition
 56 to the tectonic setting in the Gulf of Cadiz with density of population and economic assets should thus be an
 57 important motivation for adequately managing this region for protection against natural coastal hazards.



58
 59 Figure 1: (a) Map of the study area showing the population density and the principal cities of Northern Morocco
 60 (based on Laouina, 2019), (b) tectonic boundary and regional overview of the Northeast Atlantic area.

61

62 In this work, our aim is to identify high-risk cities for tsunamis events using open-source models where
63 quantitative assessments should also be carried out (*e.g.*, Tadibaght et al., 2022). In this study, tsunami
64 characteristics such as inundation boundaries, flow depths, inundation distance, and inundation areas were
65 simulated (for some of the largest socio-economical areas) along the Atlantic coast of Morocco, allowing for a
66 regional reappraisal of the tsunami risk assessment. Considering several potential earthquake sources located in
67 the Gulf of Cadiz, and using MIRONE code (Luis, 2007), this characterization is achieved through a scenario-
68 based approach like that described *in* Omira et al. (2009), which considers an initial sea-surface perturbation
69 created by an instantaneous seabed displacement (*e.g.*, Mansinha and Smylie, 1971). It was executed on a series
70 of bathymetric and topographic grid layers (300 m, 60 m, 15 m, 10 m and 2 m resolutions). The results are
71 displayed as maps of Maximum Flow (Depth and Distance), and Maximum Wave Elevation from epicenter to
72 the coast for the more exposed cities along the coast and discussed regarding historical data and previously
73 published models.

74 **2. Extreme coastal events and geodynamic setting of the Gulf of Cadiz region**

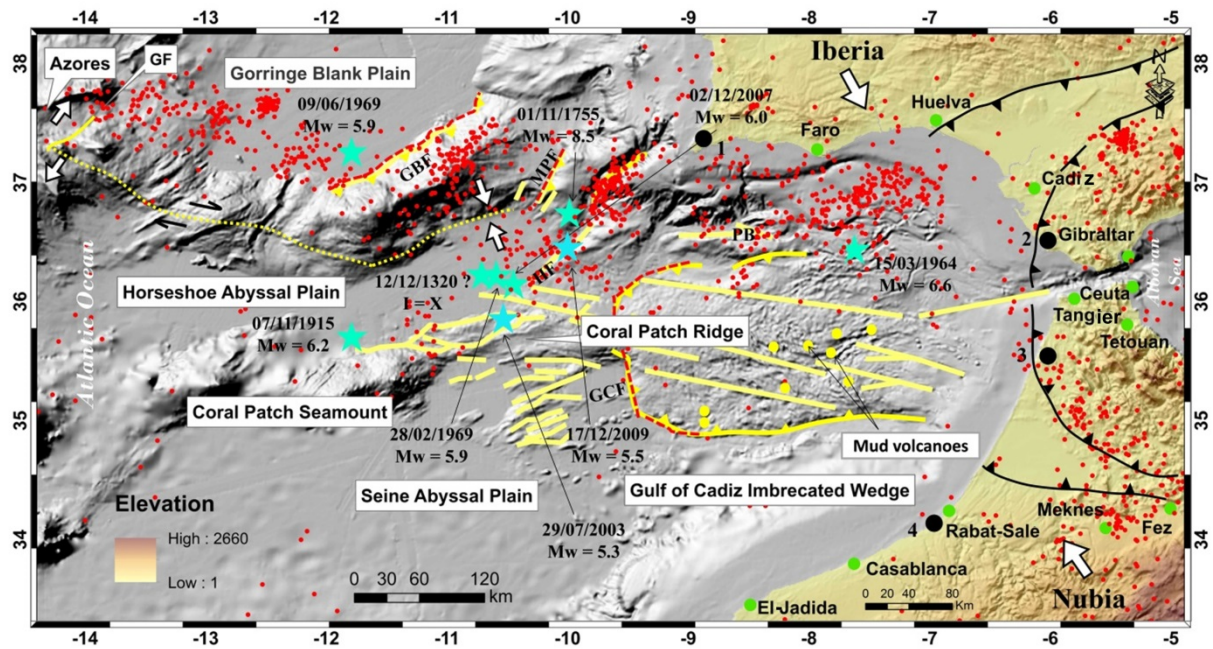
75 Tsunamis generally comprise a series of superficial oceanic waves generated for example by a volcanic
76 eruption, an earthquake, or a submarine landslide, and spread in the ocean at high speed together with a
77 relatively small amplitude. Approaching coastal areas, the wave speed decreases while the amplitude increases in
78 response to the spatial compression due to the shallowing bathymetry. When exceeding tens of meters, such
79 coastal waves can drown large areas of low-lying regions like during the 2004 Sumatra (Chadha et al., 2005) and
80 the 2011 Tohoku-oki (Goto et al., 2014) events. Most of large tsunamis are generally associated with high
81 magnitude ($M_w \geq 8.5$) earthquakes along subduction zones (*e.g.*, Jing et al., 2013).

82 Offshore of the Atlantic coasts of Morocco, the Southwestern Iberian margin region is characterized by
83 submarine faults that are considered capable to release energy similar to that of a subduction zone (Gutscher et
84 al., 2006). Around the Gulf of Cadiz, the countries that are exposed to potential tsunami events are Portugal,
85 Spain, and Morocco (Fig. 1). The earthquake that caused the Lisbon catastrophe in 1755 also triggered a
86 transoceanic tsunami (Roger et al., 2010a, 2010b, and 2011) that was observed in most of countries of the
87 Northern Atlantic Ocean, with major repercussions along the coastlines of Portugal, southwest Spain and
88 Northern Morocco (Solares et al., 1979; Johnston, 1996; Baptista et al., 1998; Gutscher et al., 2006). In the

89 archives, historians described this tsunami and its consequences on European and Moroccan coasts, suggesting
90 that its main source was a strong earthquake in the southwestern Iberian margin region. Nonetheless, the
91 understanding of this tsunami is still debated and imposes a confrontation of the historical sources in terms of
92 interpretation, since some parameters such as the actual location of the seismic epicenter, the height of waves or,
93 the flooded zones are not well known (*e.g.*, Baptista et al., 1998; Omira et al., 2009). However, some studies
94 suggested that the seismogenic source of the 1755 and 1969 ($M_w=7.8$) events could be the same (Levret, 1991).
95 Mentioning a great impact of the 1755 tsunami along the Moroccan shores, Soyris (1755) described tsunami
96 wave height of 24 m and run-ups reaching about 15 m (Blanc, 2008). Barkan et al. (2009) reported that the run-
97 up of this tsunami has reached 5 to 15 m along the Moroccan and Portuguese coasts. Therefore, the 1969 event is
98 also worth mentioning in terms of the need to evacuate the shore-dwelling population as the Casablanca tide
99 gauge recorded the first wave of tsunami which peaking at about 0.8 m (Gjevik et al., 1997). There are other
100 tsunami sources like the November 1941 tsunami event which had its epicenter along the Gloria fault (Baptista et
101 al., 2020) and that was recorded in several locations along the Moroccan coast with a maximum wave's
102 amplitude reach up to 0.25 m in Casablanca and 0.45 m in Essaouira (Kaabouben et al., 2009). However,
103 tsunami simulations for the 1941 event, including some Moroccan coastal areas, done a maximum wave's
104 amplitude reach up to 0.09 m and 0.12 m respectively (Baptista et al., 2016). More recently, some seismic events
105 occurred with lower magnitude in 2003 ($M_w= 5.3$), 2007 ($M_w = 5.9$) and 2009 ($M_w=5.5$), without triggering
106 tsunamis (Pro et al., 2013). However, Omira et al. (2012), using tsunami simulations, showed that the
107 descriptions included in the historical archives may overestimate the tsunami characteristics. In addition,
108 geomorphic and sedimentological markers of coastal extreme events have been described along the coasts of
109 Portugal (Algarve: Andrade, 1992); (Lisbon: Scheffers and Kelletat, 2005); (Cascais-Caboda Roca: Oliveira et
110 al., 2011), Spain (Cadiz: Dabrio et al., 1998; Luque et al., 2001); (Cabo of Trafalgar: Whelan and Kelletat,
111 2005), and Morocco (Tangier: El Talibi et al., 2021, Rabat: Medina et al., 2011; Mhammdi et al., 2008, Loukkos
112 zone: Mhammdi and Medina, 2015). However, the origin of the triggering waves is still largely debated between
113 tsunami or strong storm events (Scheffers, 2002; Hall et al., 2008; Morton et al., 2008; Goff et al., 2009, 2012b;
114 Switzer and Burston, 2010; Hoffmann et al., 2013). It should be mentioned that there are other studies on coastal
115 geomorphology and sedimentology of tidal ranges and different energy systems (*e.g.*, Dill and Kaufhold, 2018;
116 Dill et al., 2020), which it can used with others like sedimentological, chemical and mineralogical approaches to
117 find out the origin of recent or historiqués events deposits and landforms (*e.g.*, Dill, 2022). This leads us to
118 distinguish each phenomenon from another (*i.e.*, storms or tsunamis), as was done exactly in a research paper by

119 Ruiz Muñoz et al., 2021, where a set of the easternmost mineralogical and geochemical evidence of the 1755
120 Lisbon tsunami event were found in the Western Mediterranean.

121 The studied area comprises large Moroccan cities between Tangier and El-Jadida along the Northern Atlantic
122 coast of Morocco, which are potentially exposed to tsunami impact generated by earthquakes occurring in the
123 Southwestern Iberian margin region (*e.g.*, Blanc, 2009, 2008). In this region, a complex of faults is located at the
124 end of the eastern Azores-Gibraltar plate boundary that separates the Nubian and Iberia continental plates. Along
125 the Azores-Gibraltar plate boundary, the deformation pattern changes from ENE-WSW extension, close to the
126 Azores triple junction to right lateral strike slip along the Gloria fault and compressional deformation from the
127 Gorringe Bank through the Alboran Sea (*e.g.*, Hayward et al., 1999) (Fig. 2). This area is tectonically active and
128 produced tsunamis generated by a number of earthquakes (*e.g.*, Baptista et al., 1998), like 1755 November 1st
129 (Gutscher et al., 2006), 1941 November 25th (Mw 8) (Bufoin et al., 1988,2004), 1969 February 28th (Mw 7.3),
130 1975 May 26th (Mw7.9), and 2007 February12th (Mw 6.3) (Baptista et al., 1992; Heinrich et al., 1994). In this
131 region, the main active structures are the Marquês do Pombal Fault (Zitellini et al., 1999), Gorringe Bank Fault
132 (Johnston, 1996), Portimão Bank Fault (Zitellini et al., 2009; Lima et al., 2010), Gulf of Cádiz Fault (Gutscher et
133 al., 2002; Gutscher et al., 2006), and Horseshoe Fault (Gracia et al., 2003). Even if the source of the Lisbon
134 event is still debated, Johnston (1996) suggested that its origin zone may well be a structure located between the
135 Coral Patch Ridge and the Gorringe Bank (Fig. 2). Recent studies based on seismic reflection and multibeam
136 echosounder data indicated that three major faults can be possibly the source of 1755 event: the N60°E-striking
137 thrust Gorringe Bank Fault (Johnston, 1996; Grandin et al., 2007), the NNE, trending Marquês do Pombal thrust
138 fault (Zitellini et al., 2001; Gracia et al., 2003), and the western Gulf of Cádiz Fault, possibly as part of an
139 Nubian plate subduction beneath Gibraltar (Gutscher et al., 2002; 2006; Thiebot and Gutscher, 2006).

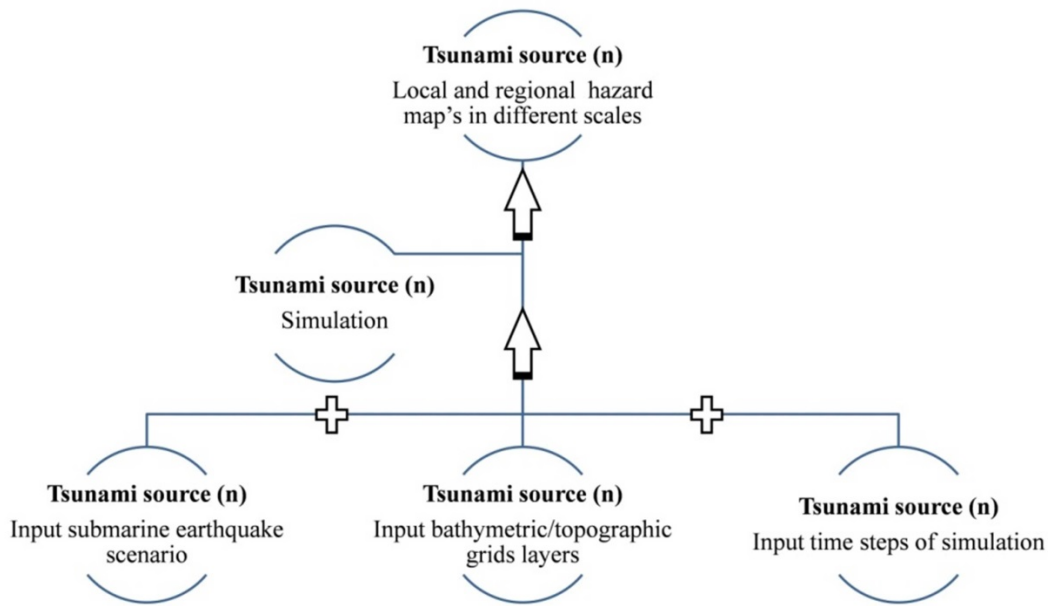


140

141 Figure 2: Bathymetry map and tectonic interpretation of the Azores-Gibraltar area modified from (Zitellini et al.,
 142 2009; Bartolome et al., 2012). Earthquake epicenter distribution (red dots) from ISC Catalogue and the 1st
 143 November 1755 Lisbon model earthquakes used in this study (red dashed lines). The blue stars locate the
 144 epicentres of the most important events, and the black circles locate the sites where coastal mega-blocks have
 145 been convincingly described (1, Furnas-Barranco; 2, Cabo of Trafalgar; 3, Larache; 4, Val d'Or). Abr: GBF,
 146 Goringe Bank Fault; MPF, Marquês do Pombal Fault; HF, Horseshoe Fault; GF, Gloria Fault; PB, Portimão
 147 Bank Fault; GCF, Gulf of Cádiz Fault.

148 3. Methodology

149 To evaluate tsunami hazard parameters along the studied coastline, we applied a methodology
 150 illustrated by the simplified logical tree shown by Figure. 3. This approach aims to reproduce historic events
 151 such as the 1755 1st November tsunami that affected the Gulf of Cadiz. To do so, the tsunami hydrodynamic
 152 simulation includes three main steps: wave generation, and propagation as well as inland inundation.



153

154 Figure 3: Logical approach to evaluate tsunami impact in study area.

155 3.1. Tsunami scenarios

156 To define the seismic scenarios capable to trigger tsunamis in the Southwestern Iberian region, we
 157 compiled potential tsunamigenic faults from the literature (Blanc, 2009) (Table 1 and Fig. 2) and used the focal
 158 mechanisms of some selected events from the International Seismological Center (ISC, 2020) catalogue for the
 159 period 1970–2007 ($M_w > 3$).

160 We selected four earthquake scenarios that correspond to four faults in the Gulf of Cadiz (dashed red
 161 lines in Fig. 2), using indicators of seismotectonic activity such as fault traces in submarine Quaternary deposits
 162 and seismo-stratigraphic signatures as well as instrumental seismicity (Hayward et al., 1999; Zitellini et al.,
 163 2001; Gràcia et al. 2003; Omira et al., 2009; Cunha et al., 2010; Bartolome et al., 2012; Martínez-Loriente et al.,
 164 2018).

165 In these scenarios, we focused on assessment of tsunamis impact in the Gulf of Cadiz region and some
 166 cities of Northern Atlantic Morocco using typical faults parameters (Table 1): Gorringe Bank, Gulf of Cadiz,
 167 Marquês do Pombal, and Horseshoe faults. To model associated tsunami, the geometry of the faults was
 168 simplified to a rectangle and the slip amplitude was fixed accordingly (Scholz, 1981). Therefore, the seismic

169 moment definition of Aki (1966) (Eq.1) and the Mo-Mw relation defined by Hanks and Kanamori, 1979 (Eq. 2)
 170 included in MIRONE software were used to compute the earthquake scenario's magnitude (Table.1).

$$171 \quad M_0 = \mu \times A \times D \quad (1)$$

$$172 \quad \text{Log}_{10} (M_0) = 1.5 \times M_w + 9.05 \quad (2)$$

173 where M_0 is the seismic moment (Nm); A is the rupture area (km^2); μ is the crustal rigidity (Nm^{-2}), D the fault
 174 slip (m) and M_w is the moment magnitude.

175 Table 1: Fault parameters of the tsunamigenic scenarios used in this study. μ : the shear modulus, L : the fault
 176 length in km, W : the fault width in km, and M_w : the seismic magnitude (modified from Omira et al., 2009).

| Scenarios name | L (km) | W (km) | Epicentre coordinates (WGS84/Decimal Degrees) | | Depth (km) | Slip (m) | Strike (°) | Dip (°) | Rake (°) | μ (Pa) | Mw |
|------------------------------------|-----------|-----------|--|--------|---------------|-------------|---------------|------------|-------------|----------------------|-----|
| | | | Lon | Lat | | | | | | | |
| Gorringe Bank fault | 127 | 60 | -11.332 | 36.665 | 5.0 | 8.3 | 233.0 | 35 | 90 | 3.0×10^{10} | 8.4 |
| Horseshoe fault | 165 | 70 | -9.913 | 35.796 | 4.0 | 10.7 | 42.1 | 35 | 90 | 3.0×10^{10} | 8.4 |
| Marquês do Pombal fault | 129 | 70 | -9.890 | 36.574 | 4.0 | 8.0 | 20.0 | 35 | 90 | 3.0×10^{10} | 8.1 |
| Gulf of Cadiz fault | 168 | 200 | -8.059 | 35.407 | 5.0 | 10 | 349.0 | 5 | 90 | 3.0×10^{10} | 8.6 |

177

178 3.2. Simulation code

179 Numerical simulation is an effective method to estimate the areas that will be flooded, as well as the
 180 maximum wave height and the arrival travel times of a tsunami. We used MIRONE program that allows
 181 realizing numerical simulation of the hydrodynamic process with the TINTOL code ([http://fct-
 182 gmt.ualg.pt/mirone/downloads/windows.html](http://fct-gmt.ualg.pt/mirone/downloads/windows.html), accessed December 2019) (Luis, 2007). To compute the

183 generation of a tsunami caused by an offshore seismic event, we used a linear elastic dislocation model
 184 (Mansinha and Smylie, 1971). Because this option only computes the vertical component of the deformation
 185 produced by an earthquake, it is less prone to uncertainties in the parameters and simply consists in calculating
 186 the initial vertical movement of the sea surface floor associated with a seismic rupture. As for propagation and
 187 inundation, linear (Eq.3) and non-linear (Eq.4) differential models included in MIRONE software are used,
 188 respectively (Luis, 2007).

$$189 \quad \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$190 \quad \frac{\partial P}{\partial t} + gH + \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial x} = 0$$

$$191 \quad \frac{\partial Q}{\partial t} + gH + \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial y} = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$192 \quad \frac{\partial P}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{P^2}{H} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{PQ}{H} \right) + gH \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial x} + \tau_x = 0$$

$$193 \quad \frac{\partial Q}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{PQ}{H} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{Q^2}{H} \right) + gH \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial y} + \tau_y = 0 \quad (4)$$

194 where η is the free-surface displacement, $H = \eta + h$ is the total water depth and h is the still-water depth. P and
 195 Q are the horizontal components of the volume flux in the x and y -axes, respectively, and τ_x and τ_y are the
 196 bottom friction terms in the x - and y -axes, respectively.

197 Finally, to propagate this initial impulsion through the oceanic water body, from the source zone to the
 198 coast, we used a series of bathymetric/topographic grids layers were downloaded from the GEBCO database
 199 (General Bathymetric Chart of the Oceans,
 200 https://www.gebco.net/data_and_products/gridded_bathymetry_data/, accessed December 2019). The time step
 201 used for tsunami simulations was 1.5 s and the computations were carried out for 3000 s. This dataset was nested
 202 in a grid system with different resolutions for consecutive calculations of tsunami event generation, propagation
 203 in an open boundary condition and inland inundation. The main grid layer has a 300 m-resolution and is used for
 204 tsunami propagation in the Gulf of Cadiz. The second grid layers, improved by transplanting the main grid layer
 205 of 300 m using ‘transplant 2nd grid tool’ (Luis, 2007), have a high resolution (60 m, 15 m, 10 m and 2 m) and
 206 are used for the inland inundation of selected cities exposed to tsunami along the Atlantic coast of Morocco (El-
 207 Jadida, Casablanca and Mohammedia).

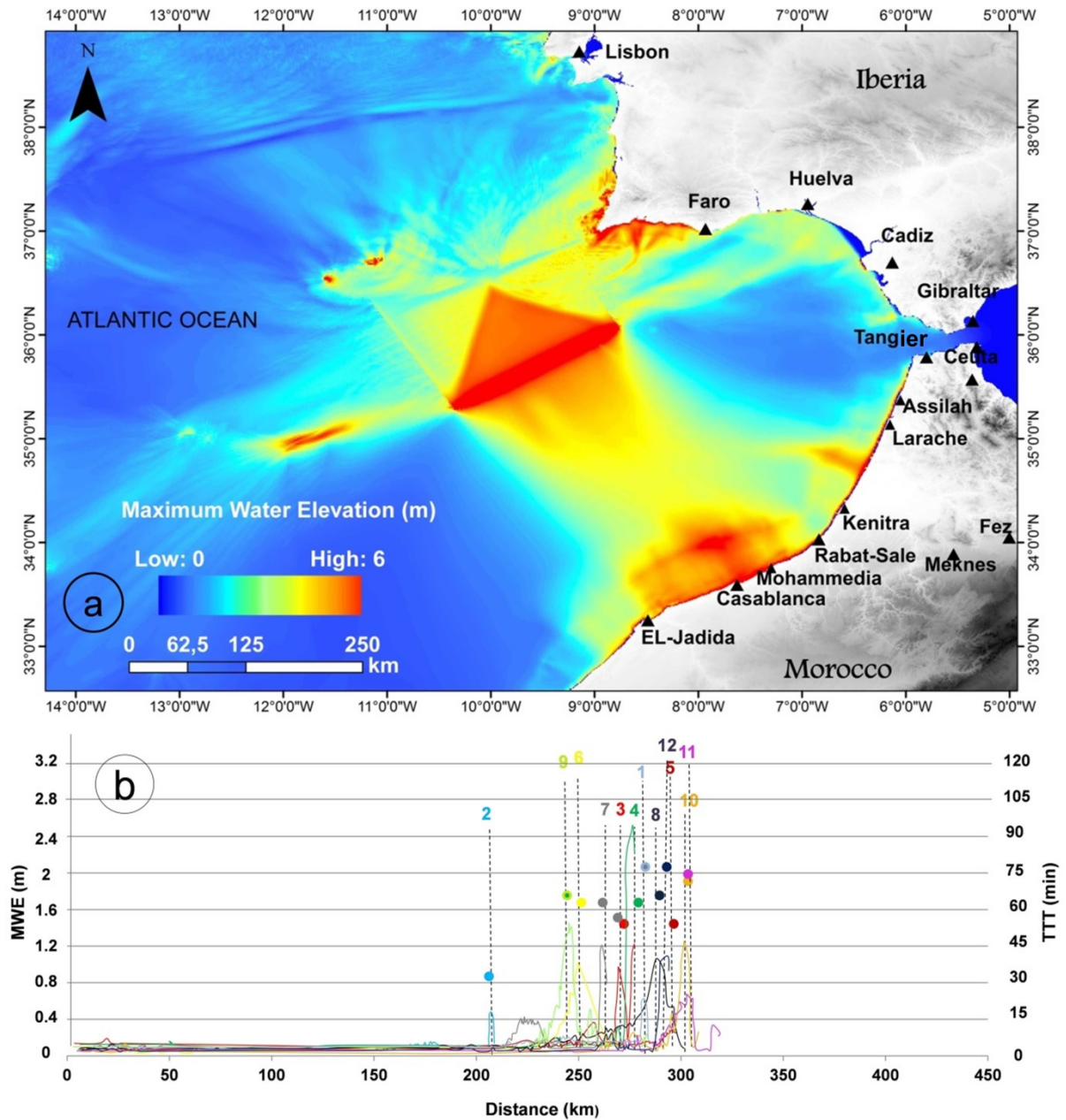
208 **4. Results**

209 For each earthquake scenario, tsunami simulation was produced to derive the following parameters:
210 spatial and temporal distribution of Maximum Water Elevation (MWE), Maximum Inundation Distance (MID),
211 and Maximum Flow Depths (MFD). The MWE shows the large-scale tsunami energy direction toward the coasts
212 around the Gulf of Cadiz, whereas the MFD, and MID were computed to evaluate the local impact of simulated
213 tsunamis in selected areas along the Northern Atlantic coast of Morocco.

214 **4.1. Maximum Water Elevation and tsunami arrival travel time estimate**

215 For the four earthquake scenarios, the results of MWE calculations are presented in Figures 4, 5, 6 and 7
216 respectively, with the results of arrival travel time, from the epicenter source to the coast that locates the highest
217 tsunami waves. In our simulations, all earthquake scenarios steered tsunami energy towards the Gulf of Cadiz
218 region including the south-western coasts of the Iberian Peninsula and the Northern Atlantic coasts of Morocco.
219 However, there are differences in the main direction of maximum energy as well as in the time required to reach
220 the coastal regions.

221 The scenario involving Cadiz Wedge in front of the Gulf of Cadiz Fault ($M_w = 8.6$; Table. 1) has been
222 considered as a possible source of the 1755 event (*e.g.*, Gutscher, 2004). In figure 4-a, the simulation indicates
223 that the wave front generated by this scenario is directed towards the coasts of all cities around the Gulf of Cadiz,
224 with a greater MWE in south-western Iberian Peninsula than along the Northern Atlantic coasts of Morocco. In
225 this scenario, the tsunami impact would significantly affect coastline between Larache and El-Jadida. In the
226 offshore area, the tsunami waves have equal amplitudes. Nevertheless, change in bathymetry affects the wave
227 speed, which can abruptly produce a MWE reaching up to 6 m in some locations (Fig. 4-a). The estimation of the
228 arrival travel time for the tsunami waves is on the order of 65 min along the Northern coasts of Morocco (Fig. 4-
229 b).

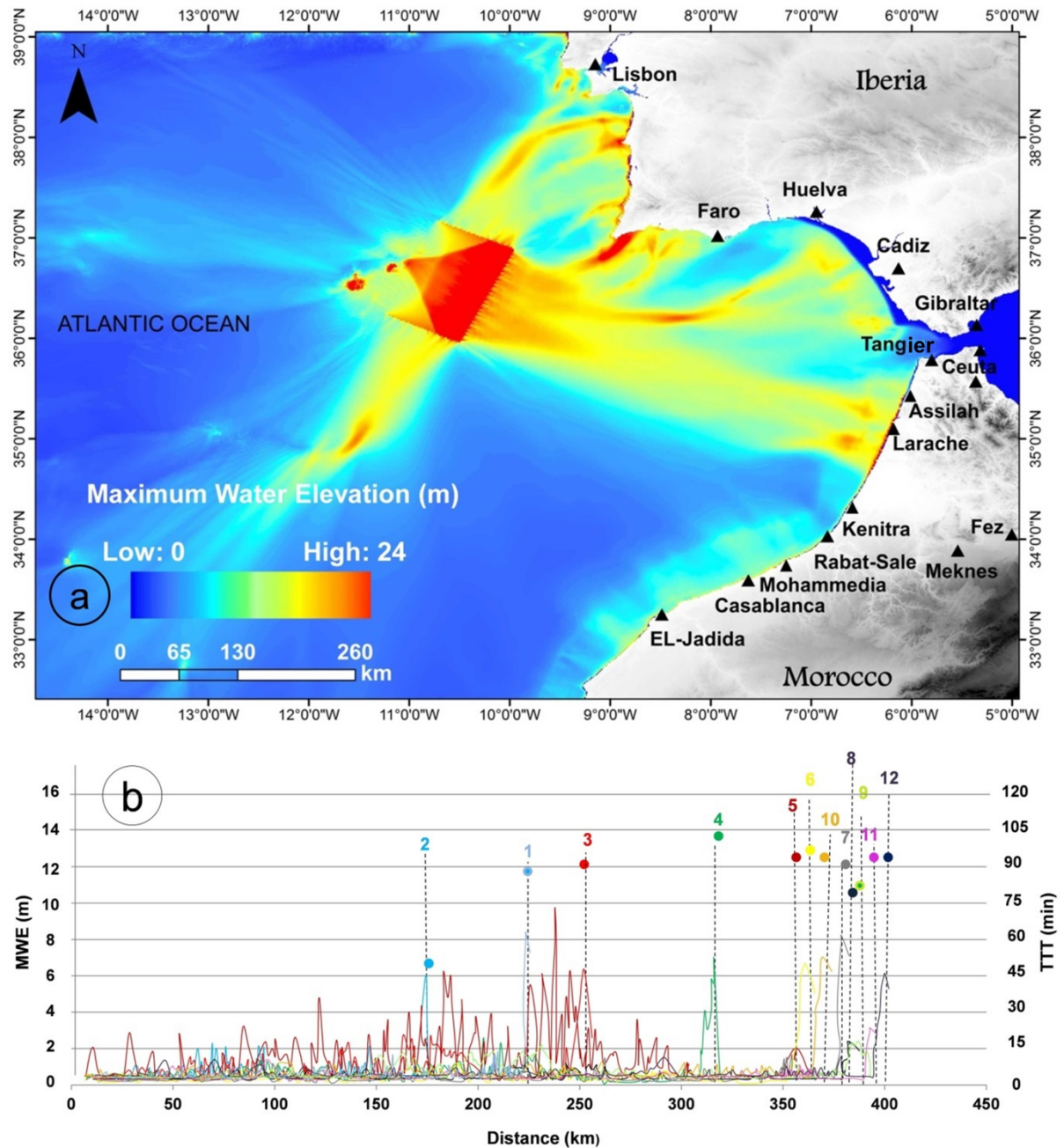


230

231 Figure 4: Results of the propagation for the Gulf of Cádiz Fault in south-western coasts of Iberian Peninsula and
 232 Northern of Morocco coasts, (a) wave height from the epicentre zone to the coast and (b) tsunami arrival travel
 233 times (TTT) at selected cities (1, Lisbon; 2, Faro; 3, Huelva; 4, Cadiz; 5, Tangier; 6, Assilah; 7, Larache; 8,
 234 Kenitra; 9, Rabat-Sale; 10, Mohammedia; 11, Casablanca; 12, El-Jadida)

235 The Marquês do Pombal Fault is located in the active tectonic region between the Goringe Bank and the Coral
 236 Patch Ridge zone (Fig. 2) (Johnston, 1996; Zitellini et al., 2001). With a M_w of 8.1 (Table 1), the tsunami may
 237 cause severe destructions to coastal cities of Morocco, Portugal, and Spain. In figure 5-a, the simulation displays

238 that the wave front generated by this scenario would be directed towards the coasts of Larache, Casablanca,
239 Rabat-Sale, El-Jadida, Cadiz, Faro and Lisbon. MWE computations for Marquês do Pombal Fault along of the
240 coasts exposed to this scenario may reach up to 24 m in some areas (Fig.5-a). Examination of these results
241 indicates that the tsunami impact in some locations is low (*i.e.*, Northern of Kenitra) because of the local
242 bathymetry. Moreover, the estimated magnitude of 8.1 (Table. 1) is less than for other faults considered in this
243 study. Therefore, MWE results show sites where the tsunami energy is weaker (Kenitra and surrounding coasts)
244 than in others. The arrival travel time estimation could be about 95 min along the Northern coasts of Morocco
245 because of the long distance traveled (Fig. 5-b).

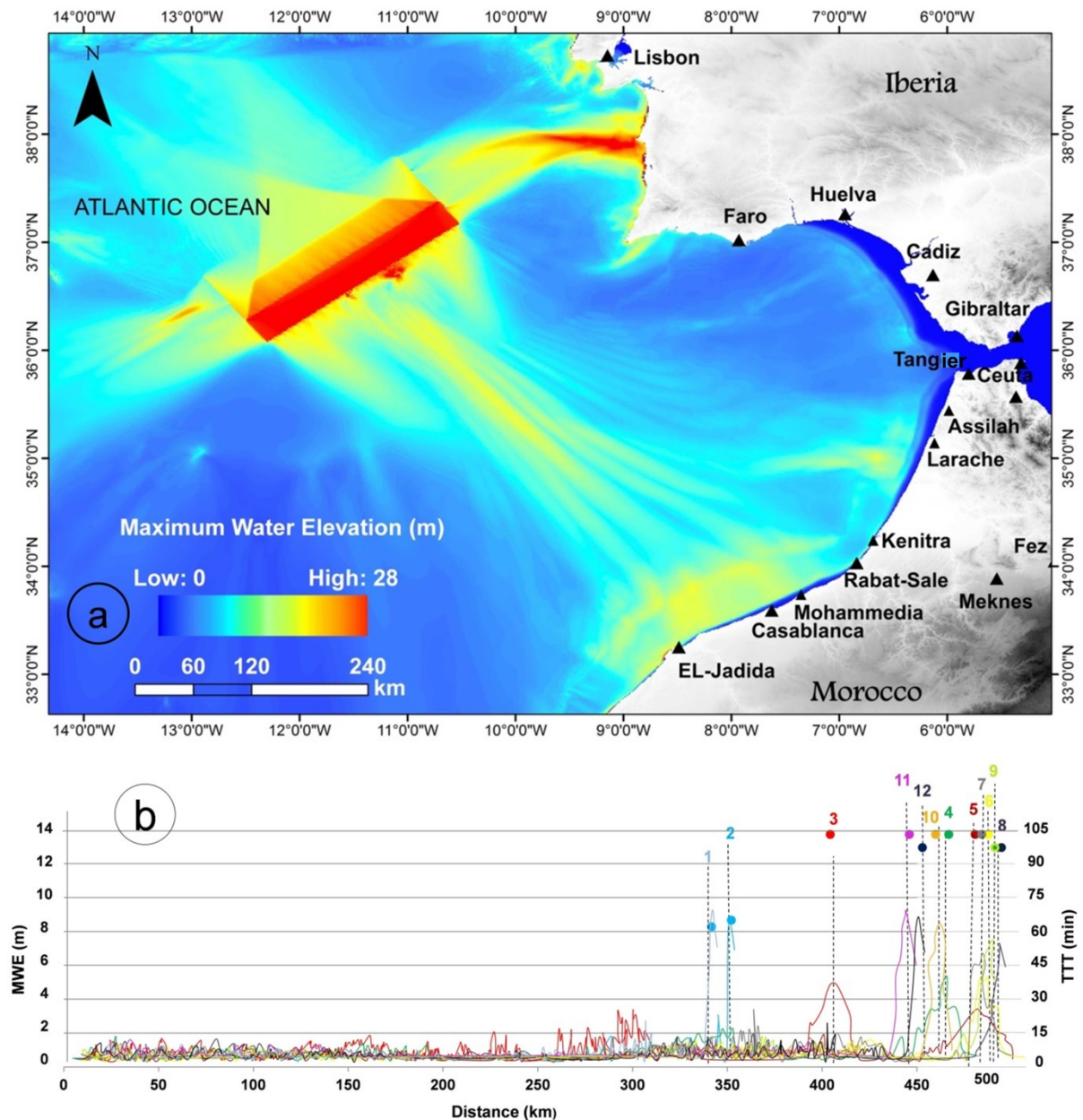


246

247 Figure 5: Results of the propagation for the Marquês do Pombal Fault in south-western coasts of Iberian
 248 Peninsula and Northern of Morocco coasts, (a) wave height from the epicentre zone to the coast and (b) tsunami
 249 arrival travel times (TTT) at selected cities (1, Lisbon; 2, Faro; 3, Huelva; 4, Cadiz; 5, Tangier; 6, Assilah; 7,
 250 Larache; 8, Kenitra; 9, Rabat-Sale; 10, Mohammedia; 11, Casablanca; 12, El-Jadida)

251 The Gorringe Bank Fault may be the source for the 1755 earthquake because of its associated active uplift and
 252 shortening (e.g., Johnston, 1996). In figure 6-a, the simulation displays tsunami waves that are directed towards
 253 three different directions in the Gulf of Cadiz. Part of the waves created is directed towards the Portuguese coast,

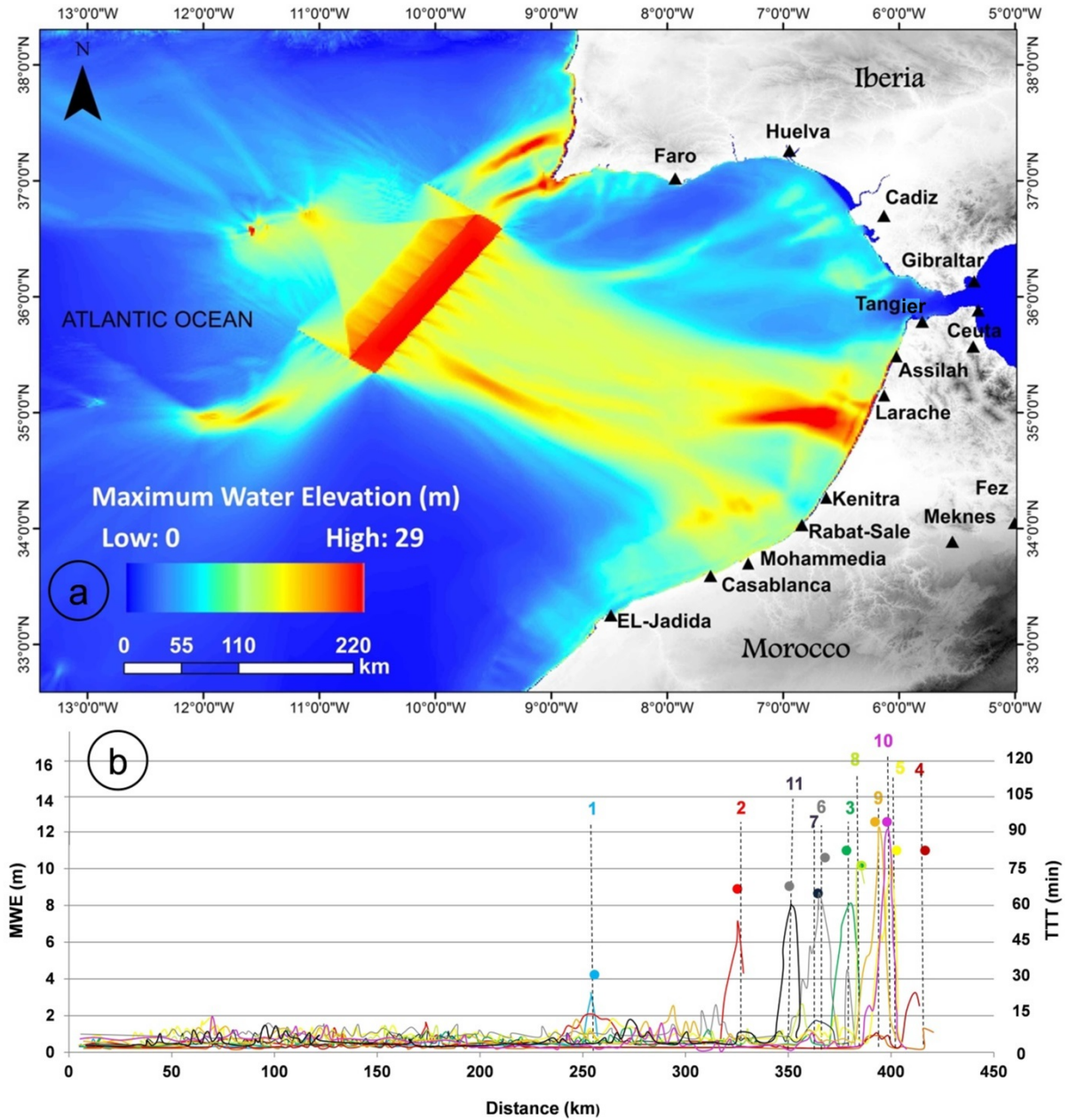
254 with a MWE ranging from 2 to 8 m at Faro and reach up to 20 m in the south of Lisbon (Fig. 6-a). Another part
 255 is directed towards the Gibraltar Strait and is characterized by MWE lower than 6 m at Cadiz (Fig. 6-a). The last
 256 part is directed towards the Moroccan coasts and is characterized by very high amplitudes up to 10 m close to
 257 Casablanca and surrounding areas (Fig. 6-a). The estimated arrival travel time could be about 99 min along the
 258 studied coastal area (Fig. 6-b).



259
 260 Figure 6: Results of the propagation for the Goringe Bank Fault in south-western coasts of Iberian Peninsula
 261 and Northern of Morocco coasts, (a) wave height from the epicentre zone to the coast and (b) tsunami arrival

262 travel times (TTT) at selected cities (1, Lisbon; 2, Faro; 3, Huelva; 4, Cadiz; 5, Tangier; 6, Assilah; 7, Larache;
263 8, Kenitra; 9, Rabat-Sale; 10, Mohammedia; 11, Casablanca; 12, El-Jadida)

264 In figure 7-a, we present the results of MWE and tsunami wave's directions for the Horseshoe Fault scenario.
265 First, this potential earthquake has an epicenter zone very close to the others and has almost the same orientation,
266 except to that of Gulf of Cadiz Fault. Whereas the magnitude of this earthquake scenario is like that of Gorringe
267 Bank Fault, it would create higher waves and larger tsunami energy over the coastal zones of Morocco. The
268 principal directions of tsunami energy are to the South (El-Jadida), to South-Southeast (Mohammedia-
269 Casablanca-Kenitra-Rabat), to the Southeast (Larache-Tangier-Assilah-Gibraltar), to the East (Cadiz), and to the
270 Northeast (Huelva-Faro). Within this scenario, the MWE may reach up to 10 m, 23 m, 25 m, 10 m and 10-25 m
271 according to these directions, respectively (Fig. 7-a). The tsunami may significantly affect the coastlines of
272 Casablanca, Mohammedia and Larache. During the simulation, the tsunami waves spread out and reached the
273 Northern Atlantic coasts of Morocco in a shorter time (~79 min), unlike the other scenarios (Gorringe Bank and
274 Marquês do Pombal faults) (Fig. 7-b). The result of MWE computations reach about 23 m for Horseshoe Fault
275 along most of the coasts exposed to this scenario, with a maximum energy towards Mohammedia and Larache
276 coastal areas (Fig. 7-a). Consequently, the tsunami wave near the Moroccan coastline, and the energy generated
277 by the Horseshoe Fault could be very high. These results suggest that this scenario is the worst tsunami case for
278 the Moroccan coasts, as well as in some other areas along the coastal areas of the south-western of Iberian
279 Peninsula.



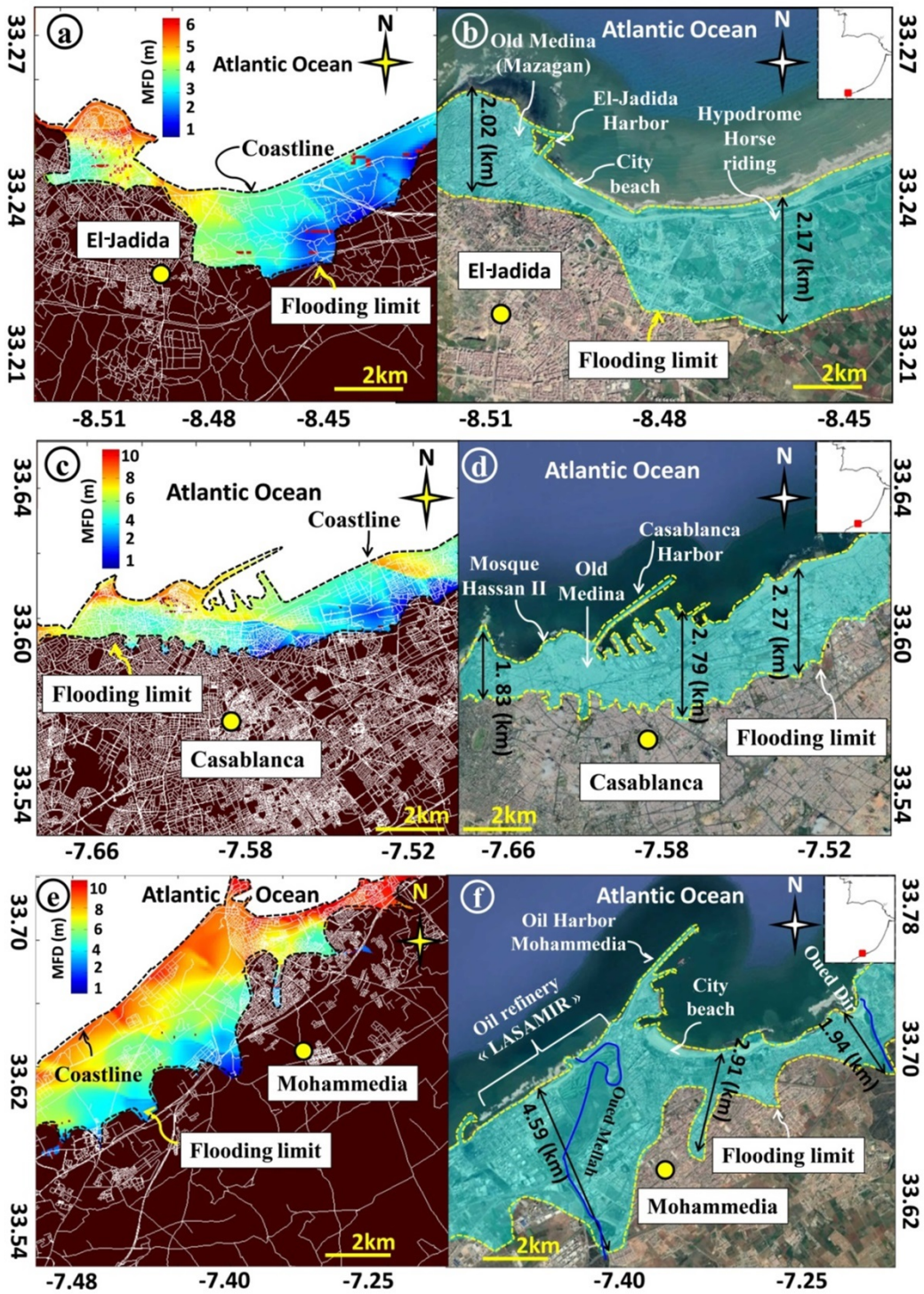
280

281 Figure 7: Results of the propagation for the Horseshoe Fault in south-western coasts of Iberian Peninsula and
 282 Northern of Morocco coasts, (a) wave height from the epicentre zone to the coast and (b) tsunami arrival travel
 283 times (TTT) at selected cities (1, Faro; 2, Huelva; 3, Cadiz; 4, Tangier; 5, Assilah; 6, Larache; 7, Kenitra; 8,
 284 Rabat-Sale; 9, Mohammedia; 10, Casablanca; 11, El-Jadida)

285 4.2. Impact and Mapping Inundation

286 The results of MID, MFD, and MIA computations and spatial distribution with arrival travel times on
 287 the exposed cities along the Northern Atlantic coasts of Morocco for the worst scenario associated to Horseshoe

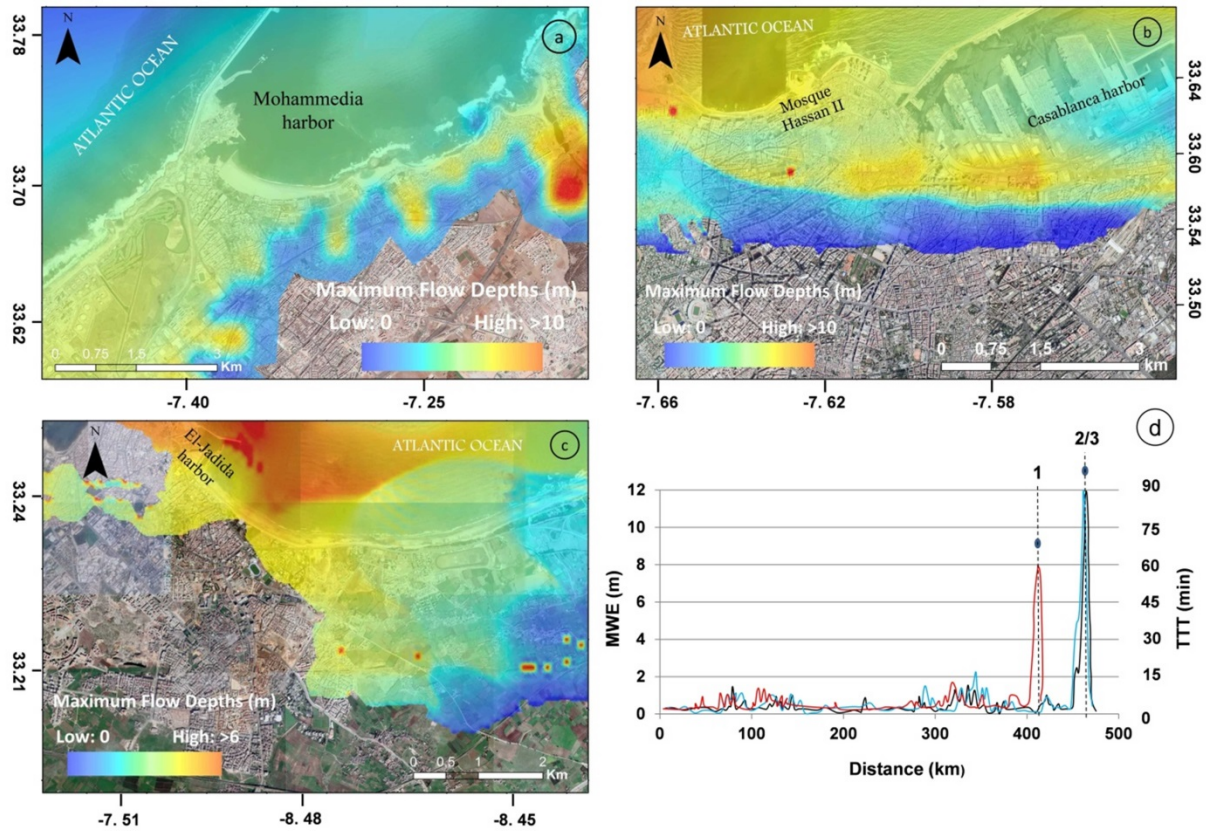
288 Fault are presented in figures 8 and 9, which display the results for the considered cities (El-Jadida, Casablanca,
289 and Mohammedia). Figure 8-a shows the tsunami impact at El-Jadida. In this city, the MFD ranges from 5 to 6 m
290 and the MID reaches 2.2 km and 2 km in the surrounding areas of the hypodrome and harbor, respectively
291 (Fig.8-b). We also present the tsunami impact generated by the Horseshoe Fault scenario at Casablanca, which
292 produces a MFD ranging from 8 m to 10 m (Fig.8-c) and a MID of about 2.8 km at the harbor (Fig.8-d). This
293 scenario produces height impact along the coast of Mohammedia city, with the MFD ranging from 8 m to 10 m
294 (Fig.8-e). The MID reaches 4.6 km at the location of the oil refinery “La Samir” and surrounding areas (city
295 beach, and oil harbor) because of the flat topography and rivers (Dir and Mellah), where the inundation extends
296 even more, flooding large land surfaces (Fig.8-f).



297

298 Figure 8: Flooding maps and computed inundation distances for the Horseshoe Fault scenario on the selected
 299 exposed cities along the Northern Atlantic coast of Morocco: (a) MFD and (b) MID at El-Jadida; (c) MFD and
 300 (d) MID at Casablanca; (e) MFD and (f) MID at Mohammedia.

301



302
 303 Figure 9: Results inundated area and maximum flow depths, for the Horseshoe Fault scenario along the harbors
 304 and principal locations in (a) Mohammedia, (b) Casablanca, (c) El-Jadida with high resolution inundation maps 2
 305 m, 10 m and 15 m respectively and (d) maximum tsunami water elevation (MWE) along the coastline and
 306 tsunami arrival travel times (TTT) at selected locations (1- El-Jadida and 2/3- Casablanca & Mohammedia).

307 5. Discussion

308 5.1. Comparison with other model results and historical data

309 The simulation maps show that maximum flow depth generated by the Horseshoe Fault scenario, which
 310 we assumed to be the scenario triggering the worst tsunami impact on considered coastal cities and surrounding
 311 areas. The harbors of these cities are completely flooded, the inundation depth reaching 6 m at El-Jadida and 10
 312 m at both Casablanca and Mohammedia. Moreover, the maximum area flooded located at Mohammedia harbor
 313 (the main oil port of Morocco) and in "La Samir" refinery. This site constitutes an important issue as it comprises
 314 not only the refinery but also the largest thermal electric central in the country, which largely supplies the region
 315 of Casablanca.

316 The maximum flow depth decreases progressively from the coastline towards the inundation boundary
 317 because of the variation of topography and energy dissipation. Furthermore, simulation results are influenced by

318 the fault strike (Satake et al., 2007) and the basin bathymetry that constrains the tsunami energy distribution
319 (Omira et al., 2011). The maximal tsunami amplitude is perpendicular to the fault strike (Titov, 1999), and the
320 decrease in bathymetry amplifies the wave amplitude along the coasts. Therefore, the characteristic parameters
321 (strike, dip and slip) of candidate tsunamigenic sources may affect the MWE and the rake or slip angle on the
322 fault plane, which also plays an important role on the initial deformation. On the other hand, the results of three
323 earthquake scenarios associated with the Horseshoe, Marquês do Pombal, and Gorringe Bank faults show some
324 degrees of compatibility with both historical tsunami impact observations and description of geomorphic and
325 sedimentary deposits in Spain (Whelan and Kelletat, 2005), Portugal (Scheffers and Kelletat, 2005) and along
326 the Northern coast of Morocco (Medina et al., 2011; El Talibi et al., 2016, 2021). If the Horseshoe Fault, with
327 some differences in the maximum level of waves heights due to the limitation of MIRONE software (see section
328 5.2), appears to be the more impacting potential source, in agreement with previous models (Omira et al., 2009,
329 2010 ; Lima et al., 2010; Mellas et al., 2012; Benchekroun et al., 2015 and El Moussaoui et al., 2017), the
330 analysis of tsunami propagation close to the shoreline indicate that waves have similar behavior for the three
331 scenarios, most probably because of the proximity of the sources as well as their similar orientations. If Assilah
332 and Larache are at equal distance (360 km) from the epicenter of Marquês do Pombal and Horseshoe faults, the
333 difference in waves arrival travel time after earthquake that reach to 95 and 80 respectively (difference of 15
334 min), reflects the propagation velocity of the two wave trains consequently to bathymetry variations and
335 differences in energies released towards the Moroccan coasts (see Fig. 5-b and Fig. 7-b). According to our
336 simulation, the MWE in El-Jadida should be less than 10 m, which disagrees with historical records (*e.g.*, Soyris,
337 1755). However, Blanc (2009) estimated that the MWE of the 1755 tsunami, reported along the shoreline of
338 Morocco between Agadir and Tangier, was 2.5 m. Indeed, our results show that the worst energy of Horseshoe
339 scenario is steered between Tangier and El-Jadida coasts. This is in agreement with the historical data that
340 indicate that the tsunami impact was greater in Northern Atlantic coasts of Morocco than along the southern
341 coasts (Kaabouben et al., 2009). However, these authors show that at El-Jadida city, the flooding limit reaches
342 roughly 0.7 km, which is smaller than the 2 km inland calculated in this work. Nevertheless, according to the
343 tsunami travel time calculated using the ray tracing technique by Omira et al. (2009), as well as to evacuation
344 model used in Tadibaght et al. (2022), the Northern Atlantic population of Morocco can safely evacuate if the
345 tsunami event were to occur in daytime and the evacuation were to start 1 hour after the triggering of tsunami
346 waves or earlier.

347 **5.2. Validity and limitations of tsunami simulation**

348 Despite the improvement of the bathymetric/topographic data in the MIRONE software, the 300 m
349 resolution (www.Gebco.net) is a limitation especially in hazard mapping at the local scale. Thus, the results
350 obtained in this work may be influenced by protective structures in ports and by submarine canyons. The latter
351 cannot be detected due to the low resolution of the input data, but may change the amplitude of wave breaking
352 and the tsunami energy. However, according to Wynn et al. (2000), maps of submarine canyons in Morocco
353 show that they exist only in the south of El-Jadida. So, the effect of these canyons can be regarded as negligible.

354 We restricted the scenarios to four major faults (Gorringe Bank, Marquês do Pombal, Horseshoe, Gulf
355 of Cádiz), considering that they are active and responsible for recent seismic events in the Gulf of Cadiz (*e.g.*,
356 Zitellini et al., 2001; Silva et al., 2017). The magnitude calculated for each scenario by MIRONE software can
357 be influenced by the geometry of the source area and by the number of fault segments such as the complex
358 seismic scenarios proposed by Fonseca, (2020), which also considers the accretionary prism as a potential source
359 for seismic events in the Gulf of Cadiz. However, MIRONE software (Open-source tool) gives good results
360 comparable with commercial software of more limited access (*e.g.*, Omira et al. 2012). Moreover, MIRONE is
361 one of the most popular programs in the scientific community due to its high quality of cartography and graphing
362 capabilities (Luis, 2007).

363 According to other results in the three scenarios Gorringe Bank, Marquês do Pombal and Horseshoe
364 faults, the MWE higher than 10 meters and the distance inundation reach up to 1 km are overestimated and
365 unrealistic values (*e.g.*, Mellas et al. 2012; Omira et al. 2012; Omira et al. 2015). But, an event of such
366 magnitude is still possible, since in Morocco there are cities like Mazagan (El-Jadida) that were affected by the
367 1755 event despite their geographical location exceeding 10 meters (*e.g.*, Soyris, 1755; El Mrabet, 2005).

368 **6. Conclusion**

369 In this paper, we simulated scenarios of tsunami flooding in some cities along the Northern Atlantic
370 coasts of Morocco for the earthquake sources located in the offshore of the Gulf of Cadiz region. To do this, we
371 used the parameters of scenario sources by the integration in MIRONE numerical code combining a series of
372 bathymetric /topographic grid layers with an initial water elevation (sea-surface perturbation) generated using
373 Mansinha's formulations and assuming an instantaneous seabed displacement. Using MIRONE software (Open-
374 source tool), results indicate that the Horseshoe Fault is the worst scenario, which produced the largest tsunami
375 toward the Northern Atlantic coasts of Morocco. Through our literature review and results, we can say that it is
376 the most likely source of a potential tsunami. This scenario computed a MWE that may exceed 20 m in some
377 area, the MFD and MID range respectively from 8 m to 10 m and 1.9 km to 4.6 km inland at "La Samir" in

378 Mohammedia. Moreover, the computed MWE ≤ 10 m at EL-Jadida show a large disagreement with historical
379 reports in some locations and agreement with numerical model results. Tsunami impact calculated at both
380 Casablanca and Mohammedia is the same except the inland distance that is less at Casablanca. However, the
381 economic and touristic areas are exposed to west-Iberian tsunamis in the Northern of Morocco. Therefore,
382 economic and social impacts of a major tsunami along these coasts may have large consequences, either directly:
383 power generating units and power and gas supply at Mohammedia; losses for industry, shipping and navigation,
384 especially at Casablanca; loss of agricultural production by loss of crops and contamination of soils, especially at
385 El-Jadida and surrounding areas, or indirectly: destruction of hospital and medical centre buildings and
386 equipments, emergence of water vector-borne diseases following sea water inundation of freshwater bodies. On
387 this basis and in absence of early warning system, risk education of coastal communities is one of the main
388 preventive actions in the case of a future event.

389 **Highlights**

- 390 - Characteristics of potential tsunami sources around the Gulf of Cadiz.
- 391 - Simulation the impacts of tsunami on some cities along the Northern Atlantic coasts of Morocco.
- 392 - MIRONE software as reliable open-source tool for tsunami waves simulation.

393 **Acknowledgment**

394 This work is part of the RiskMED project, Labex OT-Med (ANR-11-LABE-0061), supported by the
395 Investissements d'Avenir, French Government project of the French National Research Agency (ANR) through
396 the A*Midex project (ANR-1-IE-0001-02). The authors thank all reviewers for the constructive and valuable
397 comments.

398 **Declaration of competing Interest**

399 The authors declare having no conflict of interest.

References

- Aki, K., 1966. Generation and Propagation of G Waves from the Niigata Earthquake of June 16, 1964. *Bull. Earthq. Res. Inst.* 44
- Andrade, C., 1992. Tsunami generated forms in the Algarve barrier islands (South Portugal). *Sci. Tsunami Haz.* 10, 21–34.
- Baptista, M.A., Miranda, P., Victor, L.M., 1992. Maximum entropy analysis of Portuguese tsunami data; the tsunamis of 28.02. 1969 and 26.05. 1975. *Sci. Tsunami Hazards* 10, 9–20.
- Baptista, M.A., Miranda, P.M.A., Miranda, J.M., Victor, L.M., 1998. Constrains on the source of the 1755 Lisbon tsunami inferred from numerical modelling of historical data on the source of the 1755 Lisbon tsunami. *J. Geodyn.* 25, 159–174.
- Baptista, M. A., Miranda, J. M., Batlló, J., Lisboa, F., Luis, J., & Maciá, R., 2016. New study on the 1941 Gloria Fault earthquake and tsunami. *Natural Hazards and Earth System Sciences*, 16(8), 1967-1977.
- Baptista, M. A., 2020. Tsunamis along the Azores Gibraltar plate boundary. *Pure and Applied Geophysics*, 177(4), 1713-1724.
- Barkan, R., Uri, S., & Lin, J., 2009. Far field tsunami simulations of the 1755 Lisbon earthquake: Implications for tsunami hazard to the US East Coast and the Caribbean. *Marine Geology*, 264(1-2), 109-122.
- Bartolome, R., Gràcia, E., Stich, D., Martinez-Loriente, S., Klaeschen, D., de Lis Mancilla, F., Lo Iacono, C., Dañobeitia, J.J., Zitellini, N., 2012. Evidence for active strike-slip faulting along the Eurasia-Africa convergence zone: Implications for seismic hazard in the southwest Iberian margin. *Geology* 40, 495–498.
- Benchekroun, S., Omira, R., Baptista, M.A., El Mouraouah, A., Brahim, A.I., Toto, E.A., 2015. Tsunami impact and vulnerability in the harbour area of Tangier, Morocco. *Geomatics, Nat. Hazards Risk* 6, 718–740.
- Blanc, P.-L., 2008. The tsunami in Cadiz on 1 November 1755: A critical analysis of reports by Antonio de Ulloa and by Louis Godin. *Comptes Rendus Geosci.* 340, 251–261.
- Blanc, P.-L., 2009. Earthquakes and tsunami in November 1755 in Morocco: a different reading of contemporaneous documentary sources. *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.* 9, 725–738.

- Buform, E., Udias, A., Mezcuca, J., 1988. Seismicity and focal mechanisms in south Spain. *Bull. Seismol. Soc. Am.* 78, 2008–2024.
- Buform E., Bezzegoud M., Udias A., Pro C., 2004. Seismic sources on the Iberia-African plate boundary and their tectonic implications. *Pure Appl Geophys* 161:623–626
- Chadha, R.K., Latha, G., Yeh, H., Peterson, C., Katada, T., 2005. The tsunami of the great Sumatra earthquake of M 9.0 on 26 December 2004--Impact on the east coast of India. *Curr. Sci.* 1297–1301.
- Cunha PP, Buylaert JP, Murray AS, Andrade C, Freitas MC, Fatela F, Munhá JM, Martins AA, Sugisaki S., 2010. Optical dating of clastic deposits generated by an extreme marine coastal flood: The 1755 tsunami deposits in the Algarve (Portugal). *Quat Geochronol* 5: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.quageo.2009.09.004>
- Dabrio, C.J., Goy Goy, J.L., Zazo Cardeña, C., 1998. The record of the tsunami produced by the 1755 Lisbon earthquake in Valdelagrana spit (Gulf of Cádiz, southern Spain). *Geogaceta* 23, 31–34.
- DAT (Direction de l'Aménagement du Territoire), 2017. Élaboration de la stratégie nationale de gestion intégrée du littoral - Phase 2 : Diagnostic stratégique du littoral. <https://www.muat.gov.ma/sites/default/files/Documentation/17.pdf>. Accessed 6 Oct 2021
- Dill, H.G. and Kaufhold, S., 2018. The Totumo mud volcano and its near-shore marine sedimentological setting (North Colombia) – From sedimentary volcanism to epithermal mineralization.- *Sedimentary Geology* 366: 14-31.
- Dill H.G., Buzatu A., Goldmann S., Kaufhold S., and Birgăoanu d., 2020. Coastal landforms of “Meso-Afro-American” and “Neo-American” landscapes in the periglacial South Atlantic Ocean: With special reference to the clast orientation, morphology, and granulometry of continental and marine sediments. *Journal of South American Earth Sciences* 98: 102385
- Dill, H.G., 2022. Trends and composition – A sedimentological-chemical-mineralogical approach to constrain the origin of Quaternary deposits and landforms - From the review to the manual.- *Geosciences*: 1497156, 59 pp.
- El Moussaoui, S., Omira, R., Zaghloul, M.N., El Talibi, H., Aboumaria, K., 2017. Tsunami hazard and buildings vulnerability along the Northern Atlantic coast of Morocco--the 1755-like tsunami in Asilah test-site. *Geoenvironmental Disasters* 4, 1–14.

- El Mrabet, T., 2005. The great earthquakes in the Maghreb region and their consequences on man and environment. CNRS-LAG report, Rabat, Morocco (in Arabic). ISBN-9954-0-3777-2
- El Mrini, A. (2011). Evolution morphodynamique et impact des aménagements sur le littoral tétouanais entre Ras Mazari et Fnideq (Maroc nord occidental). PhD Thesis, France: Université Abdelmalek Essaadi, Morocco and Université de Nantes, 303p.
- El Talibi H El, Moussaoui S El, Zaghoul MN, Aboumaria K, Wassmer P, Mercier JL., 2016. New sedimentary and geomorphic evidence of tsunami flooding related to an older events along the Tangier-Asilah coastal plain, Morocco. *Geoenvironmental Disasters* 3:. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40677-016-0049-6>
- El Talibi, H., El Moussaoui, S., Aboumaria, K., Wassmer, P., Mercier, J.L., 2021. Geological evidence of high-energy marine flooding events on the Tangier coastal plain, Morocco. *Euro-Mediterranean J. Environ. Integr.* 6, 1–18.
- Fonseca, J.F.B.D., 2020. A Reassessment of the Magnitude of the 1755 Lisbon Earthquake A Reassessment of the Magnitude of the 1755 Lisbon Earthquake. *Bulletin of the Seismological Society of America* 110 (1): 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1785/0120190198>
- Gjevik, B., Pedersen, G., Dybesland, E., Harbitz, C. B., Miranda, P. M. A., Baptista, M. A., & Guesmia, M., 1997. Modeling tsunamis from earthquake sources near Gorringe Bank southwest of Portugal. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 102(C13), 27931-27949.
- Goff, J.R., Lane, E., Arnold, J., 2009. The tsunami geomorphology of coastal dunes. *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.* 9, 847–854.
- Goff, J., Chagué-Goff, C., Nichol, S., Jaffe, B., Dominey-Howes, D., 2012. Progress in palaeotsunami research. *Sediment. Geol.* 243, 70–88.
- Goto, K., Ikehara, K., Goff, J., Chagué-Goff, C., & Jaffe, B., 2014. The 2011 Tohoku-oki tsunami—Three years on. *Marine Geology*, 358, 2-11.
- Gràcia E, Danobeitia J, Vergés J, Bartolomé R, Córdoba D., 2003. Crustal architecture and tectonic evolution of the Gulf of Cadiz (SW Iberian margin) at the convergence of the Eurasian and African plates. *Tectonics* 22:. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2001tc901045>

- Grandin, R., Borges, J.F., Bezzeghoud, M., Caldeira, B., Carrilho, F., 2007. Simulations of strong ground motion in SW Iberia for the 1969 February 28 ($M_s = 8.0$) and the 1755 November 1 ($M \sim 8.5$) earthquakes--I. Velocity model. *Geophys. J. Int.* 171, 1144–1161.
- Gutscher, M. A., Malod, J., Rehault, J. P., Contrucci, I., Klingelhoefer, F., Mendes-Victor, L., & Spakman, W., 2002. Evidence for active subduction beneath Gibraltar. *Geology*, 30(12), 1071-1074.
- Gutscher, M.-A., 2004. What caused the great Lisbon earthquake? *Science* 305:1247–1248. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1101351>
- Gutscher, M.-A., Baptista, M.A., Miranda, J.M., 2006. The Gibraltar Arc seismogenic zone (part 2): constraints on a shallow east dipping fault plane source for the 1755 Lisbon earthquake provided by tsunami modeling and seismic intensity. *Tectonophysics* 426, 153–166.
- Hall, A.M., Hansom, J.D., Jarvis, J., 2008. Patterns and rates of erosion produced by high energy wave processes on hard rock headlands: The Grind of the Navir, Shetland, Scotland. *Mar. Geol.* 248, 28–46.
- Hanks, T.C., Kanamori, H., 1979. A moment magnitude scale. *J. Geophys. Res. Solid Earth* 84, 2348–2350.
- Hayward, N., Watts, A.B., Westbrook, G.K., Collier, J.S., 1999. A seismic reflection and GLORIA study of compressional deformation in the Gorrige Bank region, eastern North Atlantic. *Geophys. J. Int.* 138, 831–850.
- HCP (Haut Commicariat au Plan), 2014. Recensement général de la population humaine. <http://rgphentableaux.hcp.ma/Default1/>. Accessed 6 Apr 2021
- Heinrich Ph, Baptista MA, Miranda P., 1994. Numerical simulation of the 1969 tsunami along the Portuguese coast. Preliminary results. *Sci Tsunami Hazard* 12(1):3–23
- Hoffmann, G., Reicherter, K., Wiatr, T., Grützner, C., Rausch, T., 2013. Block and boulder accumulations along the coastline between Fins and Sur (Sultanate of Oman): tsunamigenic remains? *Nat. hazards* 65, 851–873.
- ISC (International Seismological Centre., 2020. On-line Bulletin. <https://earthquake.usgs.gov/earthquakes/search/>. Accessed 11 Dec 2020

- Jing, H.H., Zhang, H., Yuen, D.A., Shi, Y., 2013. A revised evaluation of tsunami hazards along the Chinese coast in view of the Tohoku-Oki Earthquake. *Pure Appl. Geophys.* 170, 129–138.
- Johnston, A.C., 1996. Seismic moment assessment of earthquakes in stable continental regions. III. New Madrid 1811--1812, Charleston 1886 and Lisbon 1755. *Geophys. J. Int.* 126, 314–344.
- Kaabouben, F., Baptista, M.A., Iben Brahim, A., Mouraouah, A. El, Toto, A., 2009. On the moroccan tsunami catalogue. *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.* 9, 1227–1236.
- Laouina, A., 2019. Note de recherche--Le littoral dans le développement du Maroc et de sa politique atlantique. *Norois* 41–54.
- Levret, A., 1991. The effects of the November 1, 1755 Lisbon earthquake in Morocco. *Tectonophysics* 193, 83–94.
- Lima, V. V., Miranda, J.M., Baptista, M.A., Catalão, J., Gonzalez, M., Otero, L., Olabarrieta, M., Álvarez-Gómez, J.A., Carreño, E., 2010. Impact of a 1755-like tsunami in Huelva, Spain. *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.* 10, 139–148.
- Luis, J.F., 2007. Mirone: A multi-purpose tool for exploring grid data. *Comput. & Geosci.* 33, 31–41.
- Luque, L., Lario, J., Zazo, C., Goy, J.L., Dabrio, C.J., Silva, P.G., 2001. Tsunami deposits as paleoseismic indicators: examples from the Spanish coast. *Acta geológica hispánica* 36, 197–211.
- Mansinha, L.A., Smylie, D.E., 1971. The displacement fields of inclined faults. *Bull. Seismol. Soc. Am.* 61, 1433–1440.
- Martínez-Loriente S, Gràcia E, Bartolome R, Perea H, Klaeschen D, Dañobeitia JJ, Zitellini N, Wynn RB, Masson DG., 2018. Morphostructure, tectono-sedimentary evolution and seismic potential of the Horseshoe Fault, SW Iberian Margin. *Basin Res* 30: <https://doi.org/10.1111/bre.12225>
- Medina, F., Mhammdi, N., Chiguer, A., Akil, M., Jaaidi, E.B., 2011. The Rabat and Larache boulder fields; new examples of high-energy deposits related to storms and tsunami waves in north-western Morocco. *Nat. Hazards* 59, 725.

- Mellas, S., Leone, F., Omira, R., Gherardi, M., Baptista, M.-A., Zourarah, B., Péroche, M., Lagahé, É., 2012. Le risque tsunamique au Maroc: modélisation et évaluation au moyen d'un premier jeu d'indicateurs d'exposition du littoral atlantique. *Physio-Géo. Géographie Phys. Environ.* 119–139.
- Mhammdi, N., Medina, F., Kelletat, D., Ahmamou, M., Aloussi, L., 2008. Large boulders along the Rabat coast (Morocco); possible emplacement by the November, 1st, 1755 AD tsunami. *Sci. Tsunami Hazards* 27, 17–30.
- Mhammdi N, Medina F., 2015. Recent tsunami deposits along the Moroccan Atlantic Coast. In: XIV Reunión Nacional de Cuaternario. Granada
- Morton, R.A., Richmond, B.M., Jaffe, B.E., Gelfenbaum, G., 2008. Coarse-clast ridge complexes of the Caribbean: a preliminary basis for distinguishing tsunami and storm-wave origins. *J. Sediment. Res.* 78, 624–637.
- Oliveira, M.A., Andrade, C., Freitas, M.C., Costa, P., Taborda, R., Janardo, C., Neves, R., 2011. Transport of large boulders quarried from shore platforms of the Portuguese west coast. *J. Coast. Res.* 1871–1875.
- Omira, R., Baptista, M.A., Matias, L., Miranda, J.M., Catita, C., Carrilho, F., Toto, E., 2009. Design of a sea-level tsunami detection network for the Gulf of Cadiz. *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.* 9, 1327–1338.
- Omira, R., Baptista, M.A., Miranda, J.M., Toto, E., Catita, C., Catalao, J., 2010. Tsunami vulnerability assessment of Casablanca-Morocco using numerical modelling and GIS tools. *Nat. hazards* 54, 75–95.
- Omira, R., Baptista, M.A., Miranda, J.M., 2011. Evaluating tsunami impact on the Gulf of Cadiz coast (Northeast Atlantic). *Pure Appl. Geophys.* 168, 1033–1043.
- Omira, R., Baptista, M.A., Mellas, S., Leone, F., de Richemond, N.M., Zourarah, B., Cherel, J.-P., 2012. The November 1st, 1755 tsunami in Morocco: Can numerical modeling clarify the uncertainties of historical reports. *Tsunami-Analysis a Hazard-From Phys. Interpret. to Hum. Impact. InTech* 61–76.
- Omira, R., Baptista, M.A., Matias, L., 2015. Probabilistic tsunami hazard in the Northeast Atlantic from near- and far-field tectonic sources. *Pure Appl. Geophys.* 172, 901–920.

- Pro, C., Buforn, E., Bezzeghoud, M., Udías, A., 2013. The earthquakes of 29 July 2003, 12 February 2007, and 17 December 2009 in the region of Cape Saint Vincent (SW Iberia) and their relation with the 1755 Lisbon earthquake. *Tectonophysics* 583, 16–27.
- Roger, J., Baptista, M. A., Mosher, D., Hébert, H., & Sahal, A., 2010a. Tsunami impact on Newfoundland, Canada, due to far-field generated tsunamis: implications on hazard assessment. In *Proceedings of the 9th US National and 10th Canadian Conference on Earthquake Engineering*, Toronto, July (pp. 25-29).
- Roger, J., Allgeyer, S., Hébert, H., Baptista, M. A., Loevenbruck, A., & Schindelé, F., 2010b. The 1755 Lisbon tsunami in Guadeloupe Archipelago: source sensitivity and investigation of resonance effects. *The Open Oceanography Journal*, 4 (1).
- Roger, J., Baptista, M. A., Sahal, A., Accary, F., Allgeyer, S., & Hébert, H., 2011. The transoceanic 1755 Lisbon tsunami in Martinique. *Pure and Applied Geophysics*, 168(6), 1015-1031.
- Ruiz, F., Pozo, M., González-Regalado, M. L., Rodríguez Vidal, J., Cáceres, L. M., Abad, M., & Arroyo, M., 2021. New Geological Evidence of the 1755 Lisbon Tsunami from the Rock of Gibraltar (Southern Iberian Peninsula). *Minerals*, 11(12), 1397.
- Satake K., Okal E.A., Borrero J.C., 2007. Tsunami and its Hazard in the Indian and Pacific Oceans: Introduction. In: Satake K., Okal E.A., Borrero J.C. (eds) *Tsunami and Its Hazards in the Indian and Pacific Oceans*. Pageoph Topical Volumes. Birkhäuser Basel. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-7643-8364-0_1
- Scheffers, A., 2002. Paleotsunami evidences from boulder deposits on Aruba, Curaçao and Bonaire. *Sci. Tsunami Hazards* 20, 26–37.
- Scheffers, A., Kelletat, D., 2005. Tsunami relics on the coastal landscape west of Lisbon, Portugal. *Sci. Tsunami Hazards* 23, 3–16.
- Scholz, CH., 1981. Scaling laws for large earthquakes; consequences for physical models. *Bull Seismol Soc Am* 72:1–14
- Silva, S., Terrinha, P., Matias, L., Duarte, J.C., Roque, C., Ranero, C.R., Geissler, W.H., Zitellini, N., 2017. Micro-seismicity in the Gulf of Cadiz: Is there a link between micro-seismicity, high magnitude earthquakes and active faults? *Tectonophysics* 717, 226–241.

- Solares, J.M.M., Arroyo, A.L., Mezcuca, J., 1979. Isoseismal map of the 1755 Lisbon earthquake obtained from Spanish data. *Tectonophysics* 53, 301–313.
- Soyris, M., 1755. Extrait d'une lettre de Maroc en date du 5 novembre 1755 : de Soyris à Guys. *Archives N.*
- Switzer, A.D., Burston, J.M., 2010. Competing mechanisms for boulder deposition on the southeast Australian coast. *Geomorphology* 114, 42–54.
- Tadibaght, A., Agharroud, K., Bounab, A., M'rini, E., Siame, L., El Kharim, Y., & El Ouaty, O., 2022. Quantitative risk assessment in El-Jadida (Northern Atlantic Coast of Morocco) for a tsunami scenario equivalent to that of the 1755 Lisbon earthquake. *Environmental Earth Sciences*, 81(5), 1-18.
- Thiebot, E., Gutscher, M.-A., 2006. The Gibraltar Arc seismogenic zone (part 1): constraints on a shallow east dipping fault plane source for the 1755 Lisbon earthquake provided by seismic data, gravity and thermal modeling. *Tectonophysics* 426, 135–152.
- Titov, V. V., 1999. Offshore forecasting of Alaska-Aleutian subduction zone tsunamis in Hawaii. NOAA Technical Memorandum, ERL PMEL-114, Seattle, Washington, 22 pp.
- Whelan, F., Kelletat, D., 2005. Boulder deposits on the southern Spanish Atlantic coast: possible evidence for the 1755 AD Lisbon tsunami. *Sci. Tsunami Hazards* 23, 25–38.
- Wynn, R.B., Masson, D.G., Stow, D.A., Weaver, P.P., 2000. The Northwest African slope apron: a modern analogue for deep-water systems with complex seafloor topography. *Mar. Pet. Geol.* 17, 253–265.
- Zitellini, N., Chierici, F., Sartori, R., Torelli, L., 1999. The tectonic source of the 1755 Lisbon earthquake and tsunami. *Ann. Geophys.* 42.
- Zitellini, N., Mendes, L.A., Cordoba, D., Danobeitia, J., Nicolich, R., Pellis, G., Ribeiro, A., Sartori, R., Torelli, L., Bartolome, R., others, 2001. Source of 1755 Lisbon earthquake and tsunami investigated. *Eos, Trans. Am. Geophys. Union* 82, 285–291.
- Zitellini, N., Gràcia, E., Matias, L., Terrinha, P., Abreu, M.A., DeAlteriis, G., Henriët, J.P., Dañobeitia, J.J., Masson, D.G., Mulder, T., others, 2009. The quest for the Africa–Eurasia plate boundary west of the Strait of Gibraltar. *Earth Planet. Sci. Lett.* 280, 13–50.