

Article

Basin Resonance and Seismic Hazard in Jakarta, Indonesia

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Abstract: We use earthquake ground motion modelling via Ground Motion Prediction Equations (GMPEs) and numerical simulation of seismic waves to consider the effects of site amplification and basin resonance in Jakarta, the capital city of Indonesia. While spectral accelerations at short periods are sensitive to near-surface conditions (i.e., V_{s30}), our results suggest that, for basins as deep as Jakarta's, available GMPEs cannot be relied upon to accurately estimate the effect of basin depth on ground motions at long periods (>1 s). Amplitudes at such long periods are influenced by entrapment of seismic waves in the basin, resulting in longer duration of strong ground motion, and interference between incoming and reflected waves as well as focusing at basin edges may amplify seismic waves. In order to simulate such phenomena in detail, a basin model derived from a previous study is used as a computational domain for deterministic earthquake scenario modeling in a 2-dimensional cross-section. A M_w 9.0 megathrust, a M_w 6.5 crustal thrust and a M_w 7.0 intraslab earthquake are chosen as scenario events that pose credible threats to Jakarta, and the interactions with the basin of seismic waves generated by these events were simulated. The highest PGV amplifications are recorded at sites near the middle of the basin and near its southern edge, with maximum amplifications of PGV in the horizontal component of 200% for the crustal, 600% for the megathrust and 335% for the deep intraslab earthquake scenario, respectively. We find that the levels of response spectral acceleration fall below those of the 2012 Indonesian building Codes's design response spectrum for short periods (< 1 s), but closely approach or may even exceed these levels for longer periods.

Keywords: seismic hazard; openquake; GMPE; basin-induced amplification; SPECFEM2D

1. Introduction

An assessment of ground shaking due to potential earthquake scenarios for a metropolitan area is of great importance for risk mitigation. As the world's 4th largest urban agglomeration (Brinkhoff [9]) located in a tectonically active region, greater Jakarta, Indonesia, is a potential hotspot for global earthquake risk. One important factor to consider in assessing this risk is the seismic response of the Jakarta Basin. Basin structure can have a profound influence on seismic ground motion, and various methods have been used to take this into account in seismic hazard studies. These methods can be simply divided into 2 main approaches. The first approach uses depth Z_{V_s} to a reference shear-wave velocity, V_s , taken to represent seismic basement, as a parameter in Ground Motion Prediction Equations (GMPEs, see, e.g. Chiou & Youngs [13] and Campbell & Bozorgnia [11]). Because GMPEs are independent of source-receiver path, this approach allows basin effects to be taken into account in most implementations of Probabilistic Seismic Hazard Analysis (PSHA). The second approach uses numerical modelling of seismic waves and depends on the source-site path (see, e.g.

34 *Graves* [20], *Bard & Bouchon* [7] and *Furumura and Chen* [16]). This approach offers a much more
35 complete treatment of the ground motion, but because of its source-site path dependence it cannot
36 be effectively used in PSHA. In this study we consider the efficacy of both approaches in assessing
37 seismic hazard in Jakarta, using a recently developed model of the Jakarta Basin (*Cipta, et al.* [12]).

38 Recent Ground Motion Prediction Equations (GMPEs) incorporate sedimentary basin effects by
39 using the depth at which shear-wave velocity reaches 1.0 km/s, denoted $Z_{1.0}$ (e.g. *Chiou & Youngs* [13]
40 and *Abrahamson et al.* [3]), or 2.5 km/s, denoted $Z_{2.5}$, to parametrize basin depth. The latter is thought
41 to be a better description of basin depth (*Marafi et al.* [29]). In this study, the GMPEs from *Chiou &*
42 *Youngs* [13] and *Campbell & Bozorgnia* [11] are used to compute ground motions triggered by a crustal
43 earthquake, while for the megathrust *Abrahamson et al.* [3] is used, and for intraslab events *Abrahamson*
44 *et al.* [3] (intraslab) is used. In this chapter, these GMPEs are referred as CY2014, CB2014, AEA2015
45 and AEA2015S, respectively. In all cases where a GMPE is used with depth to a particular reference
46 velocity Z_{V_s} , that depth is determined from the Jakarta Basin model of *Cipta, et al.* [12], which is based
47 on a Horizontal-to-Vertical Spectral Ratio (HVS) analysis of ambient seismic noise.

48 The analysis of *Cipta, et al.* [12] also provides the model for the geometry of the Jakarta Basin
49 that we use to simulate 2D seismic wave propagation along a NS cross section of the Jakarta Basin.
50 Long period ground motion modeling was carried out by means of the SPECFEM2D software
51 (<http://geodynamics.org/cig/software/specfem2d/>; *Komatitsch & Vilotte* [27]), which uses the spectral
52 element method. These simulations are conducted to evaluate the effect of the Jakarta basin structure
53 on long period (≥ 1 s) ground-shaking in the city of Jakarta. Scenario modeling includes a megathrust,
54 a medium-depth intraslab and shallow crustal earthquakes. The main objective of this paper is to
55 analyse the effect of the deep sedimentary basin on amplification of long period ground motion in the
56 city of Jakarta. Long duration ground shaking is expected to build up due to seismic wave entrapment
57 inside the basin (*Graves* [20]) and the conversion of incident shear waves at the basin edge (*Bard &*
58 *Bouchon* [7]).

59 The deep Jakarta basin is filled with alluvial fan and alluvium deposited continuously during the
60 early Quaternary to the present day. Rapid subsidence of Jakarta soil due to water extraction – up to
61 26 cm per year (*Abidin et al.* [2], *Ng et al.* [36]) shows the high extent of water saturation of sediment fill.
62 Underneath these Quaternary sediments lie volcaniclastic deposits of Pliocene-Pleistocene age that
63 are mainly composed of tuff and locally tuffaceous breccia, lava and lahar. Volcanic material has been
64 shown to strongly amplify seismic ground motion – as high as 50 times compared to bedrock sites – in
65 Mexico City during the event of 1985 Michoacán Earthquake (*Cruz-Atienza et al.* [14]). In Jakarta, a
66 combination of volcanic, alluvial fan and alluvium deposits as thick as 300-1400 m overlie Tertiary
67 bedrock. By numerical modelling of multiple earthquake scenarios, we can assess the variability
68 of ground motion and amplification effects caused by the combination of basin geometry and soft
69 sediment with the different earthquake scenarios.

70 Since the basin model of *Cipta, et al.* [12] is confined to the city limits of Jakarta, a paleo-topographic
71 approach is used to identify the basin edges and extend the basin model derived from the HVS
72 method. This final basin model will be used as the computational domain for the SPECFEM2D code
73 (<http://geodynamics.org/cig/software/specfem2d/>; *Komatitsch & Vilotte* [27]). In this study, waves originating
74 from a megathrust event (M_w 9.0) propagate from 1002 source points through 5-layer domain model.
75 The other scenarios, a shallow M_w 6.5 crustal and a medium-depth M_w 7.0 intraslab earthquake, use a
76 smaller number of source points and elements.

77 2. Tectonic Setting of Jakarta and Surroundings

78 Java island, where Jakarta is located, is part of the Sunda Arc that extends from the Andaman Sea
79 in the northwest to the Banda Sea in the east. The Australian Plate is moving northward at a rate of
80 67 (*Simons et al.* [46]) to 70 (*Hall* [21]) mm/yr and subducting beneath the Eurasian Plate. *Pusgen* [40]
81 estimated that the Sunda Strait and West-Central Java segments of the Sunda Subduction Zone can
82 accommodate earthquakes as large as Mw 8.7. These are the closest segments to Jakarta and located

83 about 250 km from the city to the south. In the last decade, the West-Central segment produced 2
84 destructive earthquakes, namely the Mw 7.6 Pangandaran (2006) and the Mw 7.0 Tasikmalaya (2009)
85 Earthquakes *Pusgen* [40].

86 The tectonics and seismicity of Jakarta and adjacent areas is highly influenced by the the
87 convergence of the Australian Plate toward the Eurasian Plate (Figure 1). Apart from producing
88 megathrust earthquakes, the northward motion of the Australian Plate is also responsible for
89 earthquake activity on shallow crustal faults, some of which are located near Jakarta such as the
90 Cimandiri, Lembang and Baribis Faults. The Cimandiri Fault shows a dominant strike-slip movement
91 with rake angle less than 15° and dip larger than 70° (*Dardji et al.* [15]). The same author also observed
92 high-angle reverse movement, and argued that permutation between strike-slip and dip-slip systems
93 may happen over relatively intervals along the strike of an active fault. Despite a disagreement
94 regarding sense of movement, *Dardji et al.* [15], *Abidin et al.* [1], *Supartoyo et al.* [47], *Marliyani &*
95 *Arrowsmith* [30] and *Handayani et al.* [22], using paleostress, GPS, morphometry, geomorphology and
96 audio-magnetotelluric methods, respectively, conclude that the Cimandiri Fault is active and its
97 segmentation limits the maximum magnitude of potential earthquakes.

98 The 24 km length of the Lembang Fault with a slip rate of 2.0 mm/yr is thought capable of
99 producing a Mw 6.8 earthquake (*Pusgen* [40]). An earlier study by *Meilano et al.* [31] indicates a larger
100 slip-rate (6 mm/yr) with fault locking at 3-15 km and this study also observed shallow creep at rate of
101 6 mm/yr. During 2009-2015, there were 4 earthquakes recorded along the Lembang Fault, three of
102 which showed left-lateral faulting, and an earthquake located at the eastern edge of the fault showed
103 oblique slip with a normal-dominant movement (*Pusgen* [40]).

104 The Baribis or Baribis-Kendeng Fault has been proposed as a major thrust and fold structure
105 extending all the way across Java from the Sunda Strait in the west to beyond East Java in the east,
106 and it is suggested that some segments are still active (*Simandjuntak & Barber* [45]). The strike-slip
107 Cimandiri and Citanduy Faults cut across the Baribis-Kendeng Thrust near the border of West-Central
108 Java and therefore it is not clear whether this is one single structure or is divided into the Baribis Thrust
109 in the west and the Kendeng Thrust in the east. *Koulali et al.* [28] suggest that the Baribis Thrust is
110 accommodating convergence between Java and the Sunda Block at about 5 mm/yr, while *Pusgen* [40]
111 show the the Baribis-Kendeng Thrust as a highly segmented system of faults starting from Subang
112 in the west (north of the Lembang Fault) to Surabaya in the east. Each segment can accommodate
113 earthquakes in the magnitude range Mw 6.0 - Mw 6.5.

114 3. The Jakarta Basin

115 Earthquake-induced resonance is a phenomenon that occurs in deep sedimentary basins, as
116 seen in Mexico City (*Cruz-Atienza et al.* [14], *Rial et al.* [42]) and Kathmandu (*Galetzka et al.* [17])
117 due to the 1985 Michoacán and 2015 Nepal earthquakes, respectively. Greater Jakarta (including
118 Jakarta as well as the adjacent cities of Bekasi, Bogor, Depok, Tangerang and Tangerang Selatan) is
119 the world's 4th largest urban agglomeration with a population of 28.9 million (*Brinkhoff* [9]), and
120 has experienced destructive earthquakes in 1699 (*Nata & Witsen* [35]), 1780 (*Albini et al.* [4]) and
121 1834 (*Musson* [34]). Jakarta's high population, together with many tall buildings (67 \geq 150 m in
122 height, see <https://skyscrapercenter.com/city/jakarta>) and history of earthquake occurrence can be a deadly
123 combination if seismic hazard not adequately addressed.

124 A model of the seismic velocity structure of the Jakarta Basin was constructed by *Cipta, et al.* [12]
125 using analysis of Horizontal-to-Vertical Spectral Ratios (HVS) of ambient seismic noise (Figure 2),
126 but this model does not extend to the basin edges. The sediment deposits along the city border are
127 thick, from about 200 m in the south, 800 m in the west and more than 1000 m in the east. Because the
128 model does not include the basin edges, it is necessary to extend the model beyond Jakarta itself to
129 estimated plausible margins of the basin, which are presumed to be the axes of low angle folds that
130 will appear as topographic highs. For this purpose, geological data namely, the lateral distribution of
131 lithology, drainage pattern and topographic information was utilized. A simple method to reconstruct

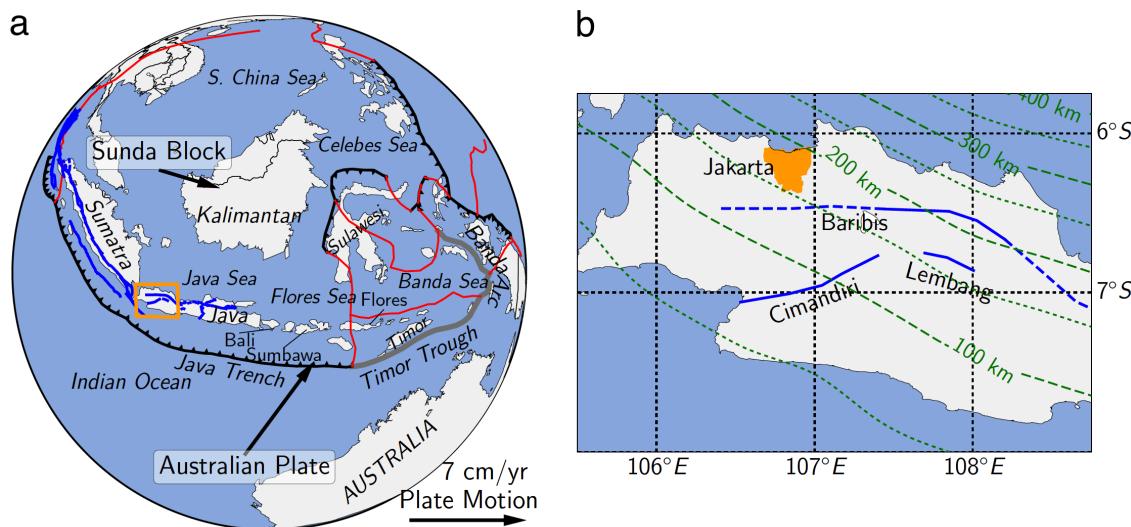


Figure 1. (a) Simplified tectonic setting of the Indonesian region and (b) western Java, with more detail of the inset area indicated in (a). The study area is the orange shaded area in (b). Motion of the Australian Plate at a rate of 7 cm a year toward the Eurasian Plate is indicated by a black arrow. Major faults are indicated by blue lines, while black toothed, red and green dashed lines denoted subduction, microcontinent boundaries, and Benioff countours, respectively. The blue dashed-line indicates the continuation of the Baribis fault to the west and east as mentioned in *Simandjuntak & Barber* [45].

132 the paleo-topography called the arc-method is used (for detail see e.g. *Allmendinger* [5]). By comparing
 133 geological data and sediment thickness as presented in Figure 2, it is a reasonable guess to interpret
 134 the basement of the basin as the upper Parigi formation deposited in the Late Miocene. To construct a
 135 paleotopography, i.e. a topography before the more recent Cibuluh formation was deposited, we need
 136 to plot the strike and dip of the Parigi formation layering in a 2D cross-section.

137 The topographic map shows that Jakarta in particular and the north coast of West Java in general
 138 is an area of gentle slope (slope 1-10 %). The morphology and surface lithology of this area is well
 139 illustrated in its drainage pattern, an excellent example of a dendritic drainage pattern characteristic of
 140 gentle topography with homogeneous lithology. Careful analysis of the drainage pattern discloses the
 141 faint topographic highs to the west and east of the city. Most of the tributaries of the Cisadane River (1
 142 In Figure 3) flow only from the west, while further to the west the Cimanceuri River (4 in Figure 3)
 143 flows from the south, veers westward then flows northward. These 2 rivers encircle a topographic
 144 high that can be identified with the western rim of the Jakarta basin. The geological map shows that
 145 near the Cimanceuri River (4 In Figure 3) the lithology is changing from aluvial fan Qav to QT tuff
 146 (north) and Oligocene-Miocene formations (south). This changing lithology confirms the hypothesis
 147 that the Cimanceuri River lies at the western rim of the Jakarta basin, in the slightly elevated land that
 148 is known as the Tangerang High.

149 The Kali Bekasi River (3 in Figure 3) to the east of the city receives water intake mostly from
 150 the east, and further to the east the Citarum River (5 in Figure 3) flows from the south, turns to the
 151 east and circles back to the west, eventually flowing into the Kali Bekasi River and the Java Sea. This
 152 drainage pattern is indicative of a topographic high just east of the Kali Bekasi River, known as the
 153 Rengasdengklok High. The Kali Bekasi River also marks the boundary between two alluvial fan bodies,
 154 alluvial fan Qav to the west of the Kali Bekasi River, and alluvial fan Qav/Qos to the east of the river.
 155 The changing lithology and topographic high to the east suggest that the eastern rim of the basin is
 156 situated around the Kali Bekasi River.

157 Oil prospecting studies using the seismic reflection method have successfully recognized five
 158 principal oil reservoir groups within the North West-Java Basin. These oil caps are (1) Eocene-Oligocene

159 fractured volcanics (Jatibarang Volcanics), (2) Oligocene–Lower Miocene deltaic sandstones (Talang
160 Akar Formation), (3) Lower Miocene reefs (Baturaja Formation), (4) Lower–Middle Miocene sandstones
161 (Upper Cibulakan Formation), and (5) Middle–Upper Miocene carbonates (Parigi Limestones and
162 Upper Cibulakan Formation) (Kingston [25]). On the top of these reservoirs, the Parigi, Cibuluh
163 and Quaternary formations were deposited successively, with a hiatus due to decreasing sea level
164 separating these formations. From these data, it can be inferred that the Jakarta Basin, also known
165 as the Ciputat Basin, is part of the North West-Java Basin in which the basement is composed of
166 carbonates of the the upper Parigi formation deposited in the Middle–Upper Miocene (see Figure 6 in
167 Putra *et al.* [41]).

168 Since the HVSR-derived model provided by Cipta, *et al.* [12] covers only about 80% of the city,
169 much less than the Ciputat Basin, we need to extend the coverage area to the basin's rims in order to
170 simulate wave propagation in a more realistic basin geometry that minimizes any artefacts associated
171 with an artificially abrupt basin edge. The arc method, also known as the Busk method (named after
172 H. G. Busk and nicely explained in Allmendinger [5]), is used to reconstruct the carbonates of the
173 Parigi Formation, so that the basin basement extends outside the area in which it is inferred from
174 the HVSR measurements. In using the arc method, it is assumed that the stratigraphy of the Parigi
175 formation has not been strongly affected by erosion. The final basin model, which is the composite of
176 the HVSR-derived model (covering the city) and that derived using the arc method (covering outside
177 the city to the basin's rim) is presented in Figure 4.

178 4. Material and Methods

179 4.1. Ground Motion Prediction Equations (GMPEs)

180 A GMPE is a generic term for a mathematical relationship between a statistical estimate of
181 expected ground motion, and earthquake magnitude and some measure of distance to the earthquake
182 fault rupture. GMPEs can supply a probability density function of ground motion values for a given
183 earthquake scenario. These equations provide probabilistic descriptions of the level of ground shaking
184 as a function of the earthquake parameters, accounting for path and site effects. Some New Generation
185 Attenuation (NGA) functions take into account independent estimator variables such as earthquake
186 magnitude (f_{mag}), geometric attenuation (f_{dis}), style of faulting(f_{flt}), hanging-wall geometry (f_{hng}),
187 shallow site response (f_{site}), basin response (f_{sed}), hypocentral depth (f_{hyp}), rupture dip (f_{dip}), and
188 (apparent) anelastic attenuation (f_{atn}) (Campbell & Bozorgnia [10]). They model a ground motion
189 parameter Y , which could represent Peak Ground Acceleration (PGA), Peak Ground Velocity (PGV) or
190 spectral acceleration (SA) at specific periods as:

$$\ln Y = f_{mag} + f_{dis} + f_{flt} + f_{hng} + f_{site} + f_{sed} + f_{hyp} + f_{dip} + f_{atn} \quad (1)$$

191 Out of these parameters, we are interested in investigating the f_{sed} parameter, which is intended
192 to parametrize basin depth. The preliminary ground motion simulations are readily performed
193 as the selected NGA GMPEs (CY2014 and CB2014) are incorporated in OpenQuake, a software
194 platform developed by the Global Earthquake Model (GEM) Foundation for seismic hazard and risk
195 calculations. The source code for this software is openly downloadable from a public repository
196 www.github.com/gem, and operates on operating systems such as Linux, MacOS and Windows (GEM
197 [19]).

198 The three GMPEs mentioned above require site parameters that use V_{S30} as a proxy for
199 near-surface geology (soil) classification, and $Z_{1.0}$ or $Z_{2.5}$ to describe basin depth ($Z_{1.0}$ is the depth
200 to a V_S of 1 km/s, while $Z_{2.5}$ is depth to 2.5 km/s). Using data from Japan and California, Chiou &
201 Youngs [13] provide empirical equations relating V_{S30} and $Z_{1.0}$ and Campbell & Bozorgnia [10] provide
202 empirical equations to estimate $Z_{2.5}$. To asses whether the velocity structure of the Jakarta Basin covers
203 a similar parameter range to those in California and Japan that are used for these GMPEs, we plotted

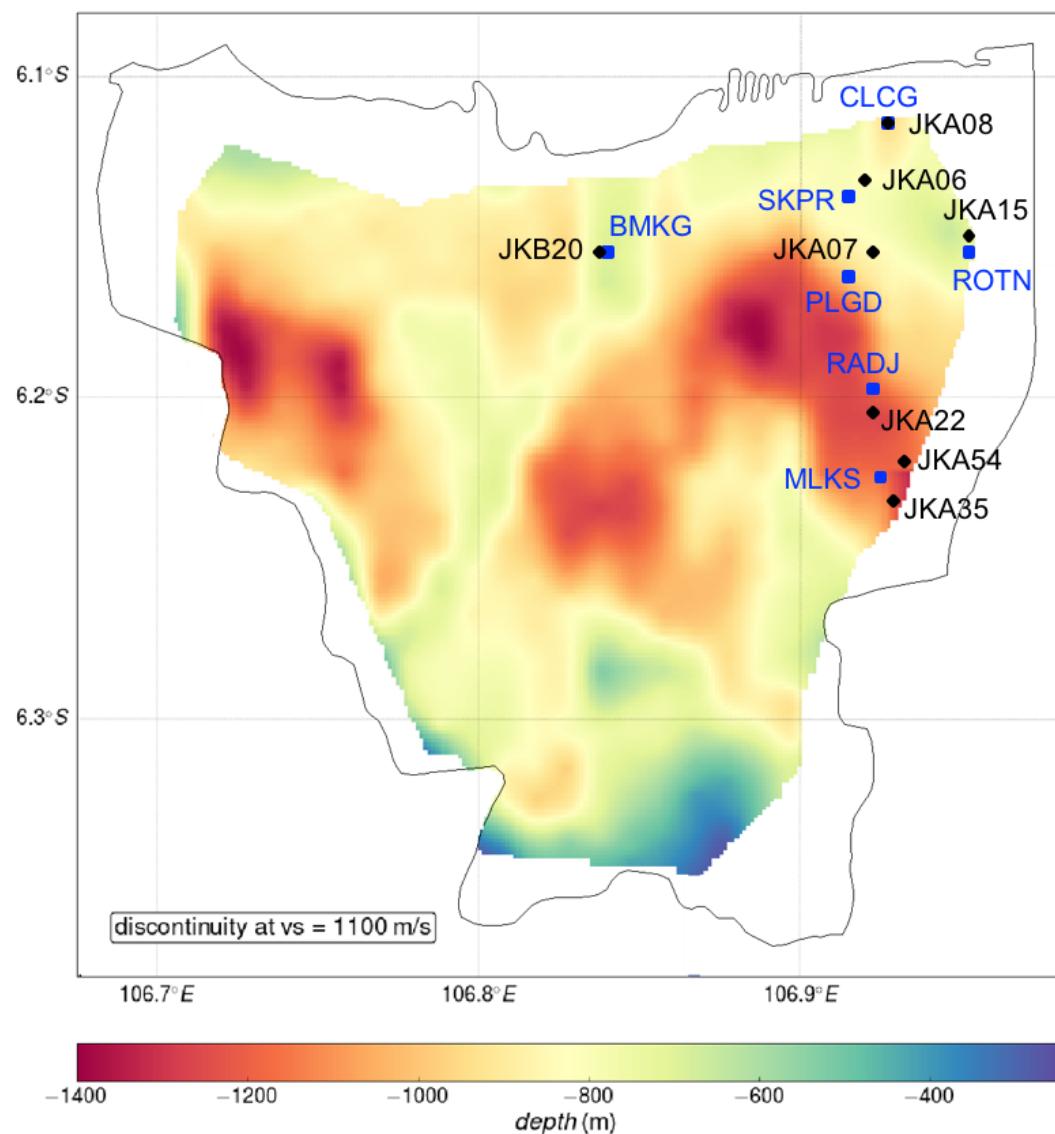


Figure 2. Considering shear-wave velocity $V_s=1300$ m/s as the basin bottom, we can map the geometry of the basin. Inside the city, the basin depth ranges from 300 m in the southeast to more than 1300 m in the northwest and northeast. The labelled black diamonds and blue squares are HVSR and SPAC co-located stations.

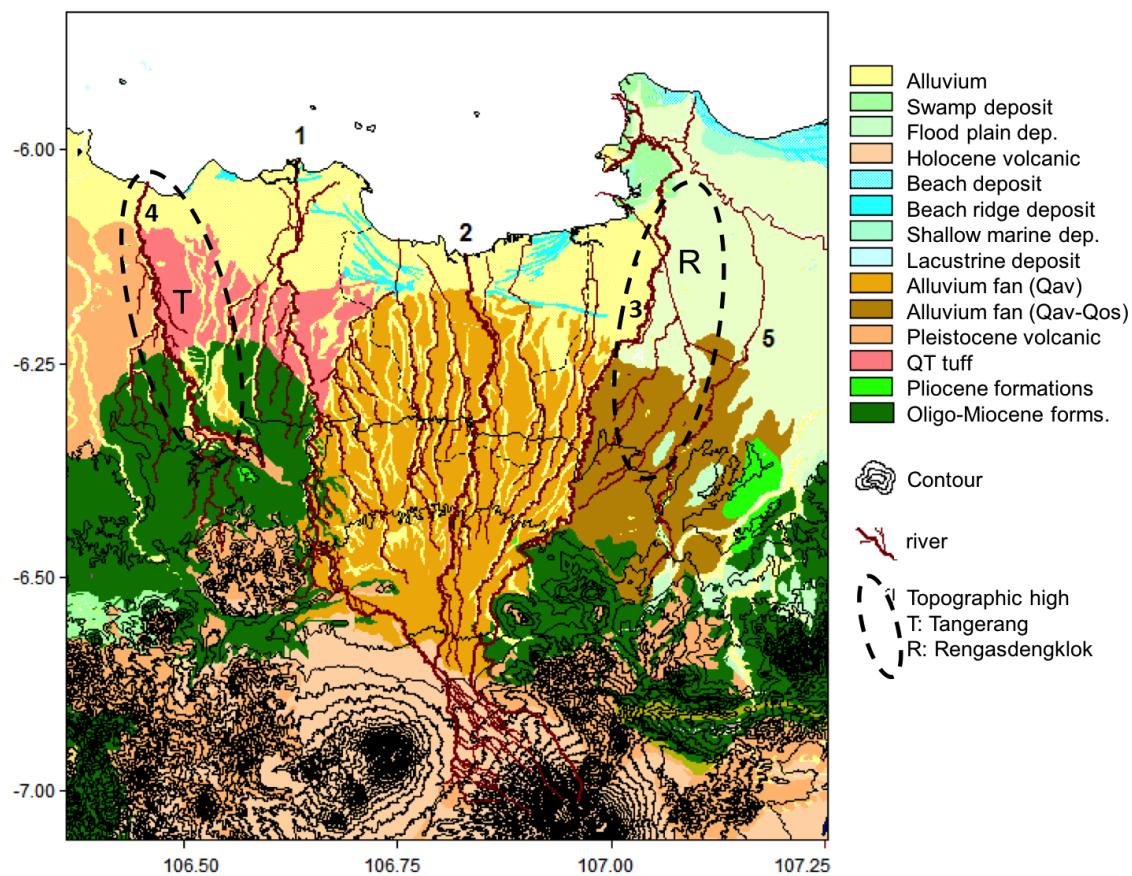


Figure 3. Contour lines and drainage patterns overlaid on a map of surface geology show the funnel-shaped basin, bounded by the Cisadane (1) and Kali Bekasi (3) Rivers in the west and east, respectively. Mountains from which the Cisadane (1), Ciliwung (2) and Kali Bekasi (3) Rivers sprout form the narrow base of a funnel-shaped topographic low with Jakarta Bay at its mouth. The Cimanceuri River is labeled as (4). The SN Line is the cross-section of domain area used in simulation.

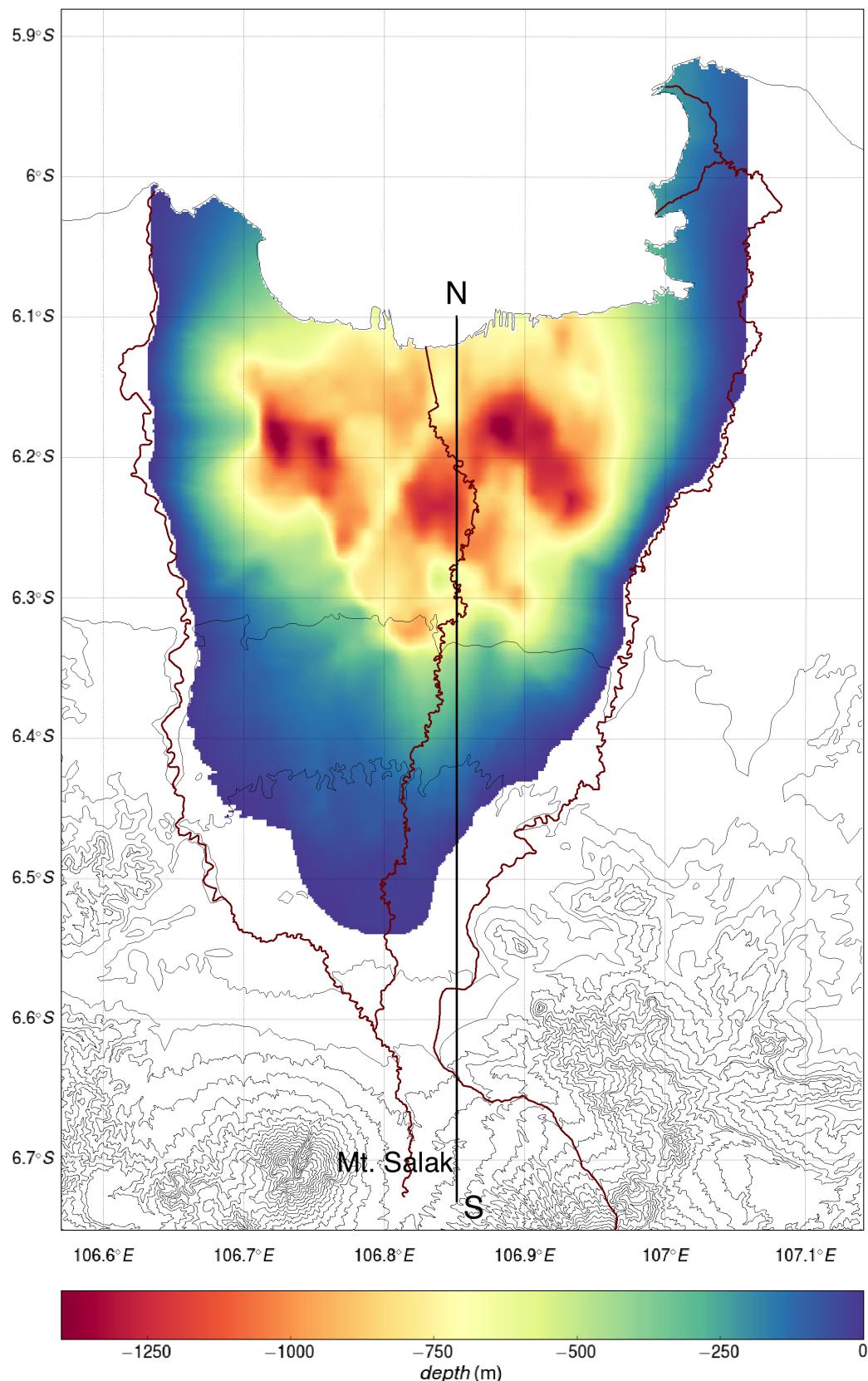


Figure 4. The extended basin model presented here merges the basin model derived from the HVSR technique that covered only the city of Jakarta with the result of the arc (Busk) method that considered geological data to estimate the basin edges.

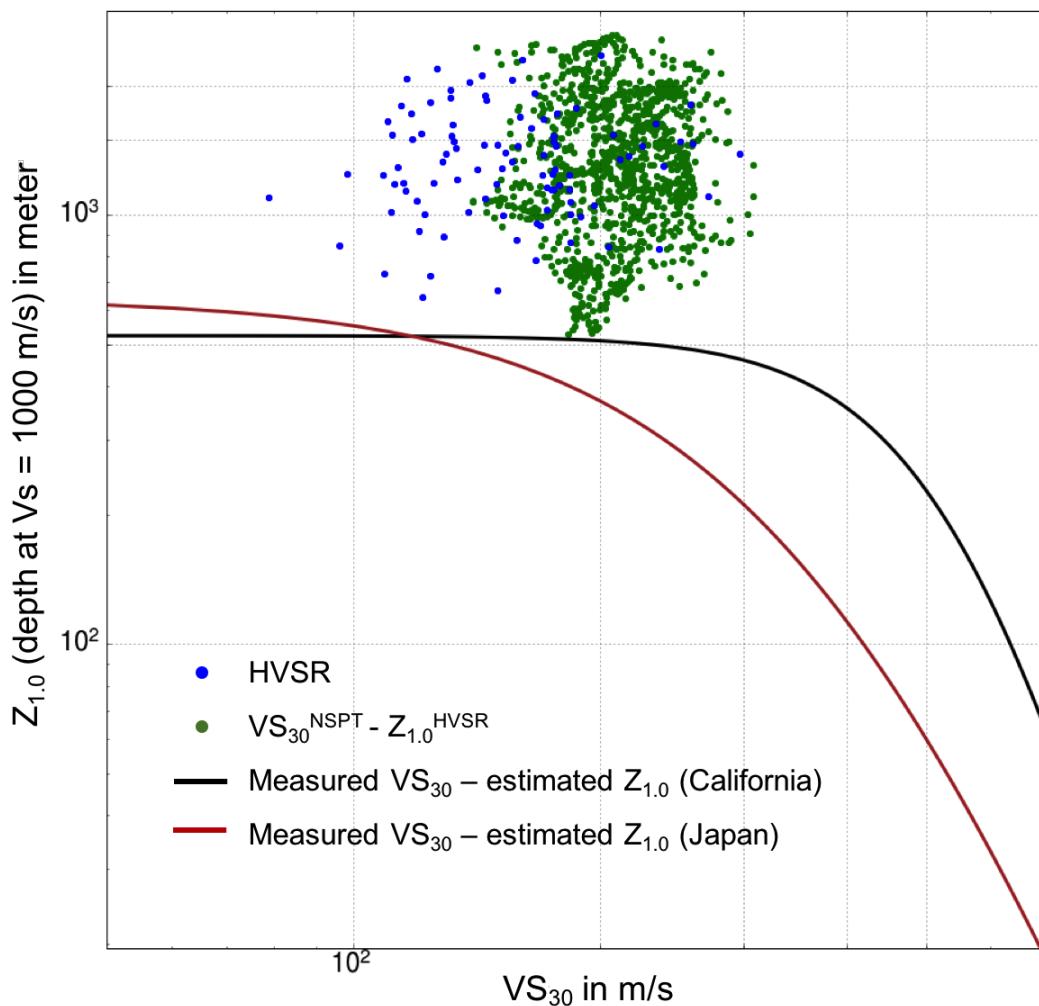


Figure 5. Plot of V_{S30} against $Z_{1.0}$ and curves showing estimated $Z_{1.0}$ as a function of measured and computed V_{S30} derived by *Chiou & Youngs* [13] from data taken in California (black line) and Japan (brown line). The blue and green dots are plots of $Z_{1.0}$ from the *Cipta, et al.* [12] model for the Jakarta Basin plotted against V_{S30} taken from the same model and from the NSPT data of *Ridwan* [43], respectively.

204 the empirical equations of *Chiou & Youngs* [13] for $Z_{1.0}$ as a function of V_{S30} against data from the *Cipta,*
 205 *et al.* [12] model for the Jakarta Basin, where $Z_{1.0}$ is taken directly from the model and V_{S30} is either
 206 taken from the *Cipta, et al.* [12] model or the NSPT data of *Ridwan* [43]. Regardless of which estimate of
 207 V_{S30} is used, Figure 5 shows that depths for the Jakarta Basin are always much greater than the $Z_{1.0}$
 208 calculated from the *Chiou & Youngs* [13] empirical relations, either for California or Japan. Thus, the
 209 Jakarta Basin would appear to be much deeper than those for which the deep sediment adjustments to
 210 the *Chiou & Youngs* [13] GMPE were developed, and the same is almost certainly true for the *Campbell*
 211 & *Bozorgnia* [10], since it was based on a similar dataset. As a consequence, caution should be exercised
 212 when using these GMPEs to account for the effect of deep sediments in Jakarta.

213 *4.2. Numerical Simulation of Seismic Waves*

214 Earthquake-generated ground shaking depends not only on the earthquake source parameters,
 215 but also on the medium in which seismic waves propagate, especially near surface and basin structure.
 216 In this study, seismic waves generated by synthetic ruptures on a crustal fault, the Java Megathrust,
 217 and an intraslab fault are simulated using SPECFEM2D. This software uses the Spectral Element

218 Method (SEM), which combines the flexibility of the finite element method (FEM) with the accuracy of
219 high-order (trigonometric) element basis functions. SEM is very effective at achieving high accuracy
220 even for realistic earth models, and is therefore applicable for a wide range of applications in seismology
221 (Komatitsch & Vilotte [27]). This approach to scenario ground modelling is similar to that used by
222 Molnar *et al.* [3233] to study seismic wave interaction with 3D structure of the Georgia Basin, British
223 Columbia, Canada.

224 The seismic characteristics of the Jakarta Basin as obtained from the HVSR analysis will be
225 represented in our 2D domain as a SN cross section over which the earthquake simulation takes place.
226 This simulation aims to analyze the effect of basin geometry on seismic hazard. To avoid extremely
227 small elements, the sediment inside the basin is taken to be a homogeneous medium overlying bedrock,
228 which is part of a 3-layer lithosphere, with maximum domain area as large as 445 km in length by 150
229 km in depth (Figure 6). The shear-wave velocity both in the sediment-filled basin and bedrock are
230 taken as averages from the corresponding depths of the HVSR model. Crustal P-wave velocity (V_P)
231 outside the basin is taken to be 1.8 times V_S as indicated in Cipta, *et al.* [12].

232 Secondly, earthquake scenarios that each pose a credible risk to Jakarta are chosen by referring to
233 Nguyen, *et al.* [37], whose analysis of historical data and earthquake simulations identified 3 sources
234 that may have severely affect Jakarta in the past: a large megathrust event, a shallow crustal event, and
235 a medium-depth intraslab event. A scenario for each of these event types is considered in this study.

236 The surface geology in the area of interest, from older to younger deposits, is composed of Tertiary
237 marine formations, Pliocene-Pleistocene volcanic rocks, alluvial fan and recent alluvium. Alluvial fan
238 deposits are the main component filling the basin, overlaying the Tertiary-Quaternary volcanic rocks
239 that are presumed to act as basement. It is also possible that Miocene marine deposits play a role as
240 bedrock, especially in the northern part of the basin. Heterogeneities both in vertical and horizontal
241 directions make it difficult to set the elastic properties of the basin, particularly since the very low
242 V_S (<100 m/s) near the surface will require extremely small elements to model accurately. Instead of
243 describing the detailed spatial variation of basin velocities, V_S is set to the average velocity in the basin
244 resulting from inversion of HVSR ellipticity curves, 582 m/s. Compressional-wave velocity (V_P) in the
245 basin is set to 3-4 times V_S under the assumption that as a groundwater basin, the sediments filling
246 Jakarta Basin are highly saturated, as also indicated by HVSR inversion that shows high (~ 4) V_P/V_S
247 (Cipta, *et al.* [12]).

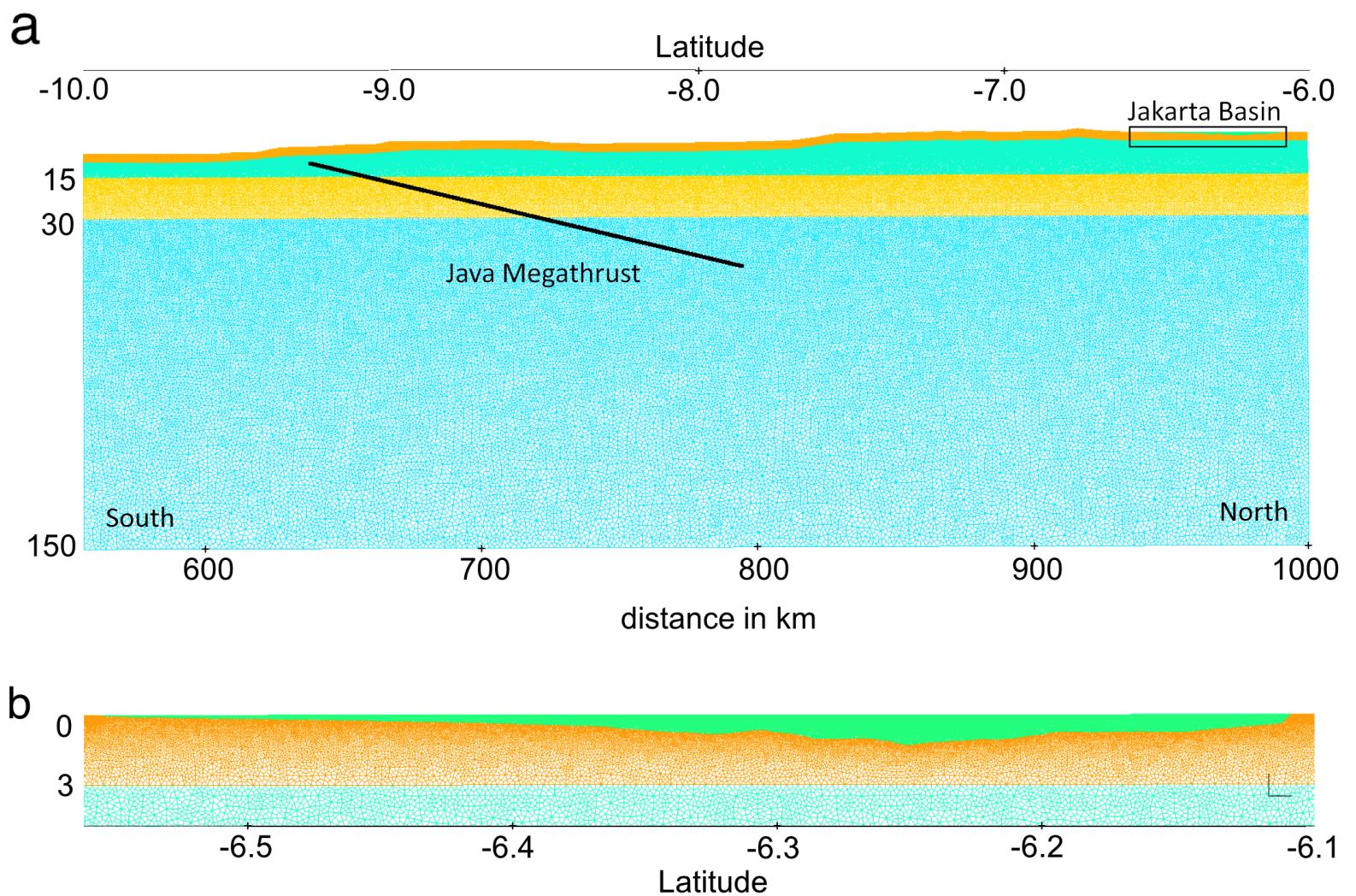


Figure 6. (a) The SPECFEM2D computational domain consists of a 5-layered medium, with the surface topography extracted from SRTM and the basin geometry resulting from the HVSR inversion. The vertical axis is depth (km) and horizontal is latitude in km and degree. The thick black line represents an inclined set of 1002 point sources along the subduction zone megathrust, and the area of the rectangle basin shown in (b) is indicated. For the crustal fault and deep intraslab scenarios, different dimensions of domain areas are used but the mesh-sizes for the first 4 top layers are same.

248 The total length of the computational domain for the megathrust event extends from 6° to 10°
 249 south latitude, the maximum depth is 150 km and highest elevation is 1.5 km. The topographic surface
 250 is extracted from the Shuttle Radar Topography Mission DEM (SRTM Digital Elevation Model, freely
 251 downloaded from: https://dds.cr.usgs.gov/srtm/version2_1/SRTM3/Eurasia/). The domain
 252 area accommodates source locations and is divided into 5 zones including the basin, a 3-layer crust
 253 and the mantle. Irregular quadrangle meshes are generated to fill the domain area, the coarsest
 254 (maximum gridsize: 2000 m) meshes filling the lower layer while the finest meshes are arranged in
 255 the basin (maximum gridsize: 12.5 m). The very small mesh size in the basin, together with the large
 256 computational domain that includes the megathrust, results in a very large mesh size, of 800,000
 257 elements. This large mesh size is the main reason that calculations in this study were limited to 2-D, as
 258 a 3-D mesh at this resolution would have resulted in very long computation time. The topographic
 259 surface is set to be a free surface while the other sides are set to be absorbent surfaces to avoid waves
 260 reflecting back into the domain area (see Figure 6).

261 While seismic attenuation in sedimentary basins like Jakarta can be high, we found that the
 262 viscoelastic calculations of SPECFEM2D for our large computational mesh were prohibitive (even
 263 the elastic calculations using 28 CPUs required a wall time of 18 hours; viscoelastic calculations took
 264 much longer). To our knowledge no studies of seismic attenuation or seismic quality factor for the
 265 Jakarta region have been undertaken, but in order to test the influence of attenuation we use $Q_p=44$
 266 and $Q_s=25$, taken from a study conducted *Hauksson et al.* [23] in the Los Angeles Basin. Tests using
 267 these values for Q_p and Q_s in the basin indicated that viscoelasticity had a small effect for periods > 1
 268 s. Therefore, in the simulations described here we neglected attenuation in the basin for reasons of
 269 computational efficiency. All parameters for simulations are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Domain parameters used in simulation

layer	ρ ($\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$)	V_p (ms^{-1})	V_s (m^{-1})	Q_k^*	Q_μ^*	max depth (m)
Basin	1200	1600	582	44	25	1385
Layer 2	2200	4100	2300	283	150	3000
Layer 3	2900	5100	2800	450	450	13467
Layer 4	3200	6500	3200	500	500	15000
Layer 5	3800	8000	4000	600	700	120000

* Parameter values were tested but not used in the simulations presented here

270 In this study, we assume that seismic waves are generated outside the basin, in the Java subduction
 271 zone for the megathrust scenario, in the shallow crust to the south of the basin for the crustal earthquake
 272 scenario, and in the mantle for the intralslab scenario. Seismic waves propagate from the source through
 273 a 5-layer mantle + crustal model to the surface, as indicated in Table 1. On the surface, both inside
 274 and outside the basin, seismic waves will be recorded at stations located at 2 km spacing along a
 275 south-north cross-section. In order to account for 3-D geometrical spreading and attenuation in the
 276 crust and upper mantle in our 2-D elastic simulation, we scaled the computational results by matching
 277 the long-period (1-10 s) spectra of seismograms recorded just outside the basin with results from
 278 suitable GMPEs for the appropriate magnitude and distance. For the megathrust scenario, we scaled
 279 the seismograms by matching spectra with results of the AEA2014 GMPE, for the crustal source we
 280 used CY2014, and for the intraslab earthquake scenario we matched spectra to AEA2014S.

281 5. Results

282 5.1. GMPE modeling results

283 GMPE simulations have been performed and the results show that for PGA, pseudo spectral
 284 acceleration (PSA) at 0.2 s and 5.0 s, their patterns are very similar to each other, and closely follow the
 285 pattern of V_{S30} input. At 5.0 s, which is close to the apparent resonance peak in most of the HVSR

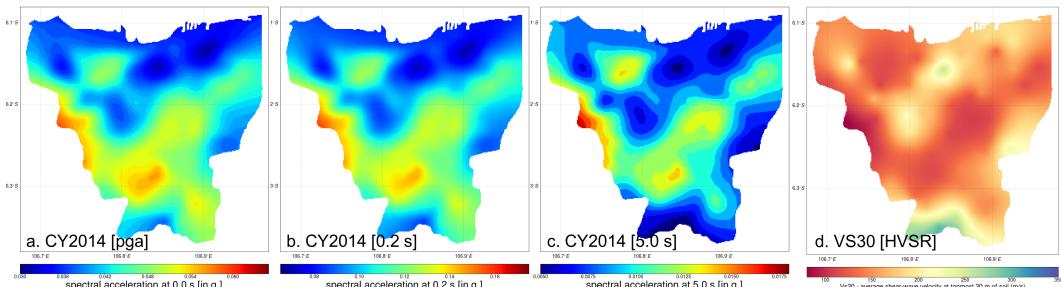


Figure 7. Comparison results of GMPE modeling using CY2014 for PGA, SA 0.2 s and SA 0.5 s (a, b, c). Eventhough $Z_{1.0}$ and $Z_{2.5}$ are included in the calculation, long period spectra (5.0 s) showing similar pattern to the V_{S30} derived from HVSR (d). This indicates that basin depth term used in the GMPE may not adequately express the effects of basin geometry, at least for basins as deep as Jakarta's.

measured by Cipta, *et al.* [12], it is expected that basin geometry would have a significant influence on the long period ground motion. However, the effect of basin geometry is not really captured by yjr GMPE modeling as shown in Figure 7. For this reason, it seems clear that a more sophisticated approach is needed to account for basin effects in long period ground motions, at least until a GMPE specific for the Jakarta region is available.

5.2. Numerical Simulation Results

The crustal and megathrust events are situated south of Jakarta at distances 85 km and 200 km and with magnitudes M_w 6.5 and M_w 9.0, respectively. The megathrust is dipping north while the crustal fault is dipping south. The third scenario simulates propagation of seismic waves originating from a medium-depth intraslab earthquake located at the depth of the subducting slab at 180–204 km (fault width = 34 km) directly beneath the city. This fault is dipping south and the earthquake has magnitude M_w 7.0.

Snapshots from the crustal fault scenario are presented in Figure 8. After 10 s, the P-wave is showing up in the lower left corner of the topmost panel and at 12 s, both P-wave (dark) and S-wave (vermilion) are observed approaching the basin. At 50 s, seismic waves, both body and surface waves, have entered and are trapped inside the basin. Surface waves are modulated inside the basin and at 90 s, while body waves are attenuated and have faded away outside the basin, surface waves are still reverberating in the basin.

Seismograms (radial, horizontal component) resulting from these three scenarios are presented in Figure 9 a-c. Two types of seismograms are plotted: (1) those calculated using the elastic parameters indicated in Table 1, colored blue in Figure 9 and referred to here as 'basin seismograms', and those calculated using an identical computational mesh but with the basin elastic parameters replaced by those of the basement (i.e., the Basin parameters in Table 1 are replaced by those of Layer 2), colored orange in Figure 9 and referred to here as 'bedrock seismograms'. The three record sections in Figure 9 a-c clearly show that seismic waves propagating through the soft sediment inside the basin are amplified to different degrees. Outside the basin the orange colored curves (bedrock seismograms) match the blue curves (basin seismograms) perfectly, meaning that outside the basin, no amplification is observed. On the other hand, inside the basin, basin seismograms have much higher amplitudes and prolonged durations in comparison to bedrock seismograms. It is interesting to note that the basin-bedrock seismogram ratio is not uniform, and basin depth is not the only factor contributing to the amplification. Basin geometry and direction of incoming waves also appear to influence the degree of amplification.

For the crustal earthquake scenario, Figure 9 a, seismic waves propagating toward the north edge of the basin are reflected back into the basin and recorded at 200 s at the southernmost station (S2117) and at progressively earlier times at more northerly stations. However, at S2157 to S2176, reflected

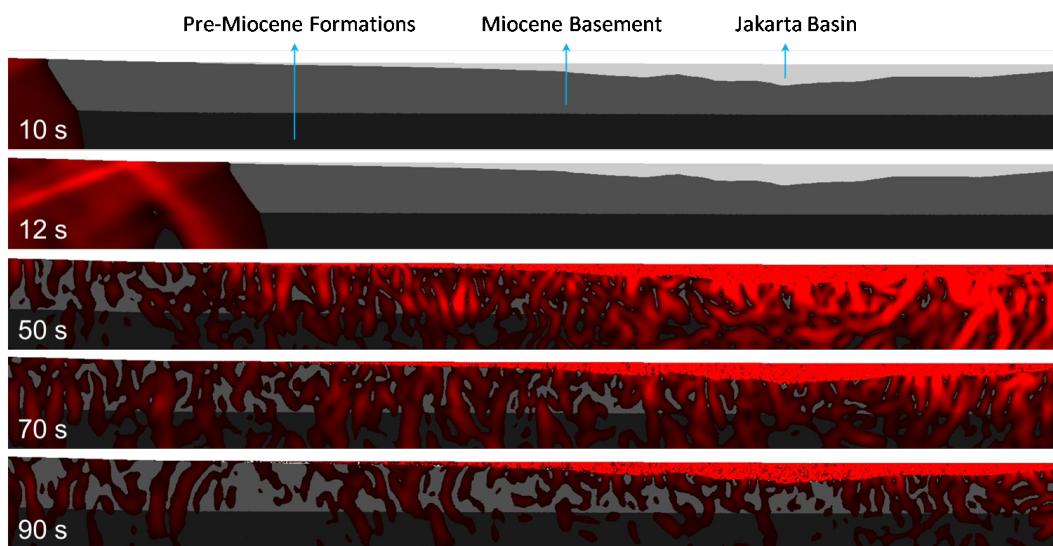


Figure 8. Snapshots of wave propagation, showing waves approaching (10 and 12 s, top two panels) and reverberating inside (50, 70 and 90 s, bottom three panels) the basin. The modeled M_w 6.5 earthquake is taken to have ruptured a southward dipping, shallow crustal thrust fault 85 km south of the city center. The Jakarta Basin is the light gray colored area, overlying the dark grey medium, clearly shown in the top two pictures capturing snapshots at 10 and 12 s, respectively.

321 waves are not clearly seen because they interfere with seismic waves propagate northward, producing
 322 high amplitude seismograms at 50-60 s (Figure 5.14a). The megathrust earthquake also exhibits
 323 reflected waves that are clearly observed at S2130 to S2169, again with reflected waves recorded earlier
 324 in the north than in the south (Figure 9b).

325 In contrast to the other two scenarios, the intraslab earthquake scenario shows reflected waves
 326 from both south and north edges. Near the south edge, high amplitude seismic waves are observed at
 327 stations S2130-2135 at times 50-100 s. These high amplitudes are generated from interaction between
 328 incoming and reflected waves as well as entrapment at the basin's edge. As time goes by, waves
 329 reflected by the northern edge of the basin are recorded after 100 s in the southern stations and recorded
 330 earlier in the central and northern stations.

331 Seismograms in Figure 10a-b record incoming P- and S-waves at 20 s and 36 s, respectively, for
 332 the crustal fault scenario. For the basin seismograms in Figure 10c-d, the direct S-wave is followed
 333 by a series of reverberations comprised of S-wave and Rayleigh wave energy, that builds up over the
 334 following 15 s, with the highest vertical component amplitude achieved 10 s after the direct S-wave
 335 arrival. It is observed that S-wave/Rayleigh wave coda that builds up at about 37 s is still observed
 336 after more than 150 s. The bedrock seismograms (Fig 10e-f) are dominated by the direct S-wave and
 337 have a very weak coda after only a few seconds. The long duration (> 120 s) and very high amplitude
 338 of basin seismic waves after 40 s indicate the interference between seismic body waves and surface
 339 waves.

340 The intraslab scenario produces similar results, at the same station, with surface waves observed
 341 after 55 s and still trapped inside the basin after 240 s. In the case of the megathrust event, the
 342 Rayleigh wave arrives about 25 s after the P-waves recorded in the seismograms. The interference
 343 of reverberating surface waves leads to very high amplitudes, compared to the crustal and intraslab
 344 scenario. Entrapment of seismic waves inside the basin prolongs the duration of seismic waves, with
 345 high amplitude seismic waves still observed 10 minutes after the earthquake. Interference between
 346 seismic body waves and secondary surface waves was recognized as a main cause of building collapse
 347 in Kobe during the 1995 Great Hanshin Earthquake (Zhao *et al.* [51]).

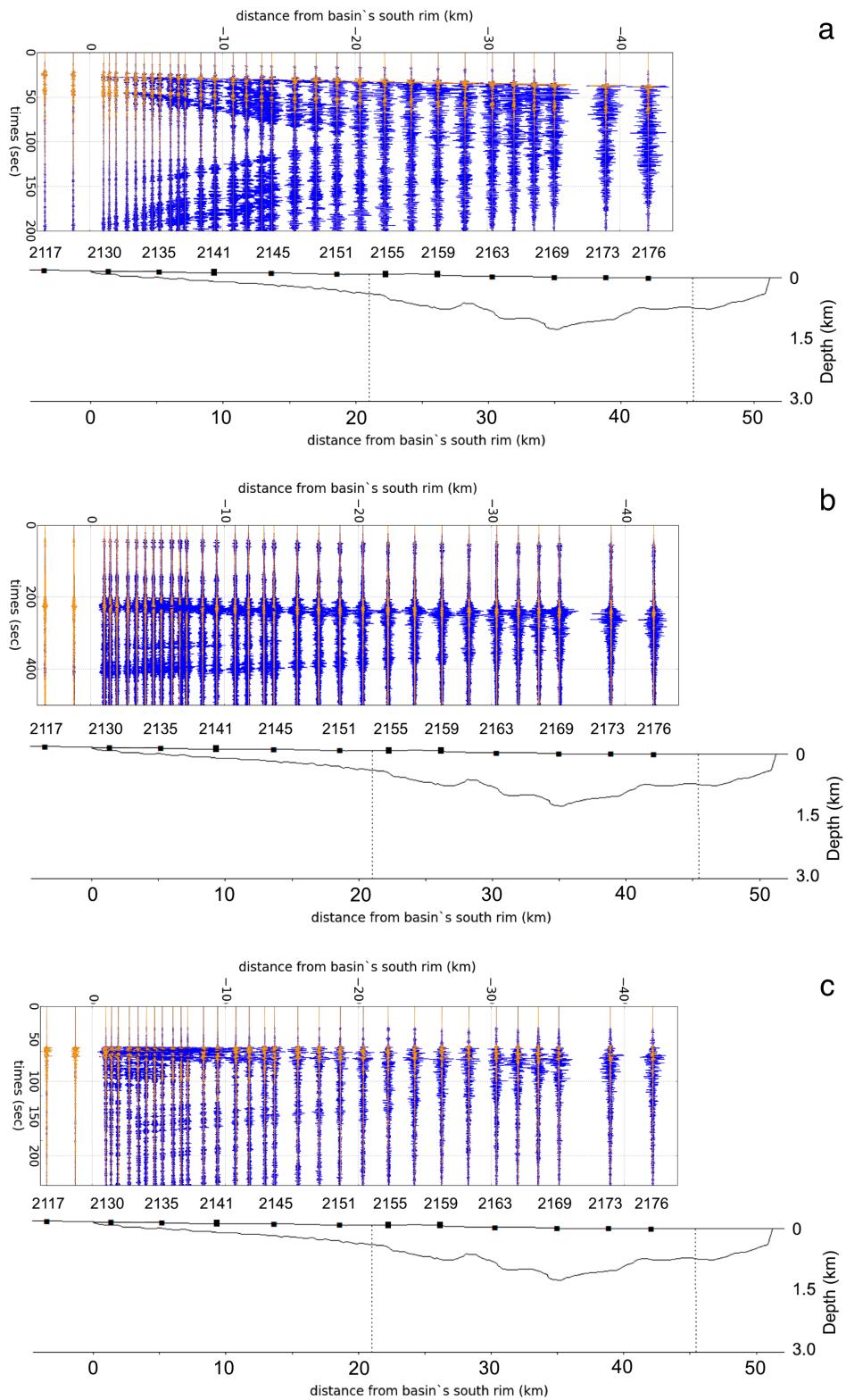


Figure 9. Bedrock seismograms (orange traces) are plotted over basin seismograms (blue traces). Outside the basin, no amplification has occurred, while inside the basin high amplifications and prolonged durations are observed. The level of amplification is different from station to station and depends upon geometry of the basin. Labelled points indicate location of stations correspond to the seismograms plotted directly above the points. In the area between dotted lines (21-41 km from the basin's rim) basin structure inferred from Cipta, *et al.* [12] while the extension of the basin is estimated from geological data.

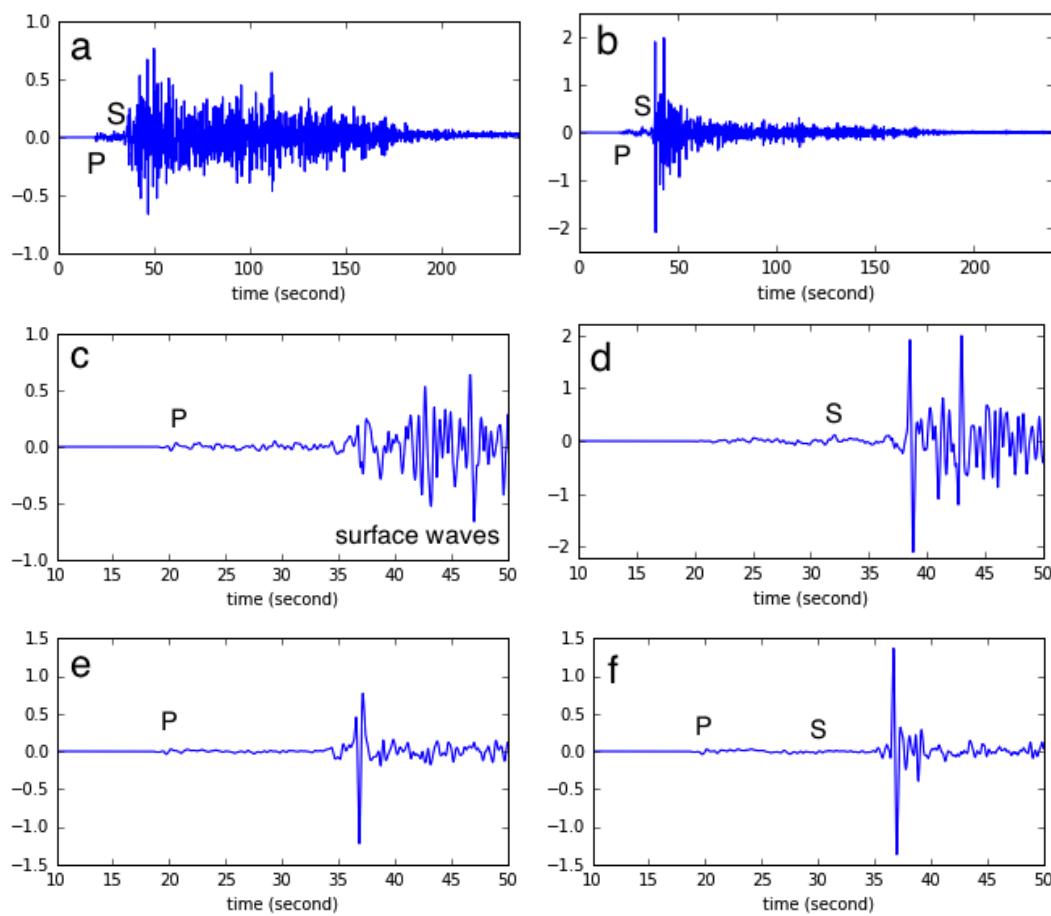


Figure 10. Seismograms at stations S2169, both for vertical (a) and horizontal (b) components, showing P-, S- and surface waves generated from the crustal fault scenario. Figs. c and d: the same seismograms at time 10-50 second, showing the arrival of direct S followed by Rayleigh surface waves at about 37 s. Similar to c and d, e and f are seismograms recorded at bedrock sites. For a clearer image, Y-axes are magnified differently for each figure, so values at Y-axes do not show actual units.

348 The three scenarios indicate that the larger the magnitude, the longer the seismic waves were
 349 observed inside the basin. The “red” (i.e., long-period dominant) spectrum of frequency content
 350 generated by the larger rupture area may be responsible for the very long duration of long period
 351 ground motions generated by the megathrust scenario. Together with the maximum amplitude and
 352 duration of seismic waves, frequency content is also a very important factor that is responsible for
 353 building damage. According to *Shoji et al.* [44], duration is more event-dependent than site-dependent
 354 while the site-dependency for a given total power is greater than the event-dependency.

355 6. Discussion

356 6.1. GMPE - Seismic Hazard

357 Using GMPE modeling, psuedo-spectral acceleration (PSA) for each spectral period can be
 358 computed and by taking the maximum PSAs over the basin, simulated response spectra (SRS) can be
 359 generated. SRS from each scenario can be compared to the designed response spectrum used for the
 360 building code in Jakarta to investigate the performance of the building code. However, since GMPE
 361 simulations do not fully take the effects of basin geometry into account, longer period PSA may be
 362 underestimated, and hence we need to be careful in interpreting the curves presented in Figure 11.

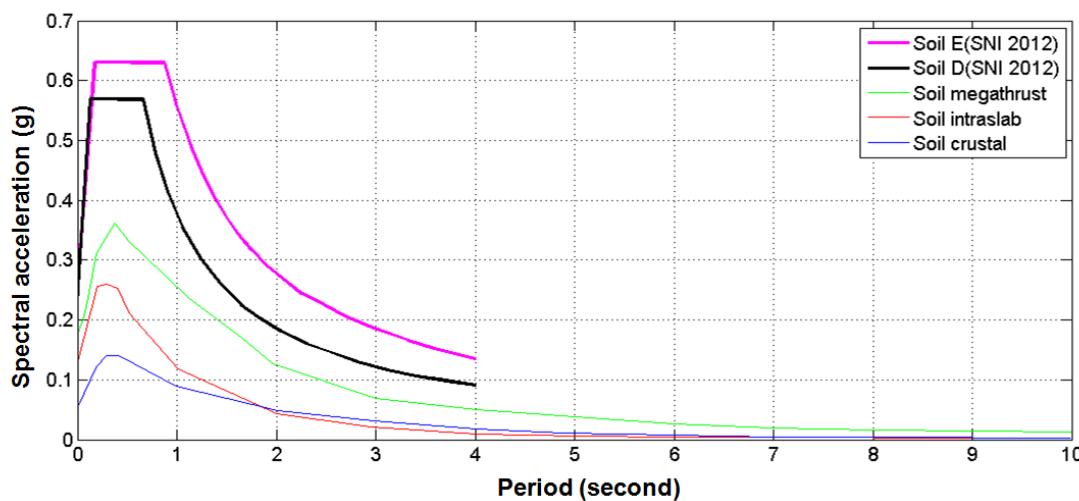


Figure 11. Design response spectrum used for the 2012 Indonesian Building Code for medium soil sites in Jakarta (thick black curve). Also plotted are acceleration response spectra produced from GMPE simulations for crustal fault (GMPE:CY2014), megathrust (GMPE:AEA2015) and intraslab earthquake (GMPE:AEA2015S) scenarios (blue, green and red curves, respectively), calculated on soil sites.

363 For this reason, let us compare design seismic response and SRS at the shorter periods (< 1 s) only,
 364 and note that shorter period response spectra correspond to the natural resonance of most residential
 365 buildings (which, however, are not generally required to conform to the Indonesian building code)

366 A very important characteristic of seismic waves is their period. This phenomenon is particularly
 367 important for determining building response to seismic forces. Buildings have a natural or fundamental
 368 period, corresponding to the resonant period at which a building sways back and forth in a horizontal
 369 direction. In fact, without being subject to significant external force, a building vibrates only at its
 370 natural period. When the building is subject to an external force, by for example horizontal ground
 371 motion or wind, whose period matches the building's natural period, the building may experience
 372 resonance that enhances building vibration by as much as 4–5 times (Arnold *et al.* [6]).

To estimate the natural period of a building with respect to its height or number of stories, for a reinforced concrete building, the following equation can be used (e.g. UBC [48] and Wiegel [50]):

$$T_n = C_t \times h^{3/4} \quad (2)$$

373 where T_n and h denote spectral period (in second) and height of a building in meters, respectively,
 374 while C is a coefficient that accounts for the number of storeys, height of building and amount of infilled
 375 panel. This coefficient varies from 0.05 (Wiegel [50]) to 0.073 (UBC [48]) if the height is in meters. For
 376 practical purposes, the above equation can be simplified as follows: the natural period of a building
 377 is equal to the number of storeys divided by 10 Arnold *et al.* [6]. For example, a common residential
 378 building composed of 1–3 stories will be most sensitive to ground motion at spectral periods in the
 379 range 0.1–0.3 s.

380 The current building code (2012 Indonesia's National Standard-SNI 1726-2002) adopted the
 381 updated seismic map of Irsyam *et al.* [24] that estimated ground motions for a 2% probability of
 382 exceedance in 50 years (2500 years return period) as the maximum considered earthquake (MCE) level.
 383 Figure 11 shows that the current seismic building code in Indonesia that takes into account D and E
 384 soil classes performs well against the PSA estimated from GMPEs for all 3 scenarios. In this figure, the
 385 thick black and magenta curves represent designed ground motion produced by the MCE in a 2500
 386 years return period for D- and E-type soils, respectively.

387 6.2. Numerical Simulations - Peak Ground Velocity (PGV)

388 Numerical simulation of seismic waves using SPECFEM2D for selected earthquake scenarios is
389 an approach that should give a more complete account of basin and site effects than is obtainable from
390 GMPEs. Three scenarios, namely, crustal, megathrust and intraslab scenarios are considered. These
391 simulations are conducted to estimate the long period ground motions which are affected by basin
392 resonance that may not be accounted for by the GMPE modeling considered above.

393 The Mw 6.5 crustal fault scenario generates a maximum peak ground velocity of 0.038 m/s and
394 maximum PGV amplification is about 206%. Figure 12a shows that amplification is not uniform
395 throughout the basin; at station S2147, amplification is small (about 20%), while other stations recorded
396 higher velocities due to amplification. Most striking is the amplification observed at S2169 at the
397 deepest part of the basin (Figure 12 and Figure 13a-c). Amplification here is described in a manner
398 similar to that used by Pilz *et al.* [38] in calculating estimated PGV amplification in Santiago Basin, Chile:
399 we subtract the PGV values for the bedrock seismograms from the value for the basin seismograms,
400 and divide this by the PGV value for the bedrock seismograms (multiplying by 100 to convert to
401 percentage amplification).

402 Different characteristics of simulated PGV and amplification are produced by the megathrust
403 earthquake scenario. PGV and amplification tend to increase as the basin gets deeper. Prominent
404 PGV and amplification are recorded at stations S2153 and S2173. Simulated PGV at these stations are
405 0.683 m/s and 0.714 m/s while amplifications are 579% and 687%, respectively (Figure 12a and Figure
406 13d-f).

407 The intraslab earthquake scenario results in very high amplification, especially at S2131, so that
408 the estimated PGV in that station is higher than the other stations. The source of the intraslab scenario
409 is very deep and directly beneath the city, so that rupture-to-station distance is the same for all stations,
410 hence the variation of amplification with respect to rupture distance can be neglected. Therefore,
411 high amplification at this station is most probably due to focusing of seismic waves by the basin
412 edge, while entrapment of seismic waves inside the basin may also affect amplification at this station.
413 High amplification is also recorded at S2165, where particularly thick basin fill is responsible for high
414 amplification (Figure 12a and Figure 14a-c). Recorded PGV (m/s) and amplification (%) for all three
415 scenarios are presented in Table 2. Minor amplification or deamplification recorded at stations S2117
416 and S2124 that are located outside the basin may come from simulation noise.

417 6.3. Numerical Simulation - Response Spectral Acceleration

418 The megathrust scenario generated the highest peak ground velocity and amplification in the
419 basin, especially at station S2173. In this section, we will look at the response spectral acceleration that
420 is widely used to characterise ground motion in civil engineering, then compare the design building
421 code against spectral acceleration resulting from SPEFEM2D modeling. At station S2169 and S2173,
422 simulated horizontal acceleration at period 1 s are about 0.45 g, which is higher than the design
423 response spectrum used by the building code. At periods shorter than 1 s very high accelerations are
424 observed (Figure 15), however, these results may be inaccurate since neither near surface attenuation κ
425 nor crustal and basin frequency-dependent attenuations for V_p and V_s (Qp and Qs) for Jakarta region
426 are available.

427 Since long period (>1 s) ground motions are much less sensitive to κ , Qp and Qs, it seems
428 reasonable to consider how these compare to the design response spectrum. At S2161, there are two
429 ground motion peaks that fall on or above the design response spectrum, at periods of about 1.5 s and
430 3.5 s (Figure 15a)..

431 For the intraslab earthquake scenario, basin edges effects can be particularly pronounced as
432 observed in Figure 9 c. Amplification of short period ground motions, particularly at periods of about
433 0.55 s, result in very high acceleration (3 g) at S2131 (16). At this point, the PGV amplification is 335%
434 (14), but this high frequency content may not be realistic due to the lack of consideration of attenuation
435 effects as discussed above. On the other hand, the high amplification at S2165 in the deepest part of

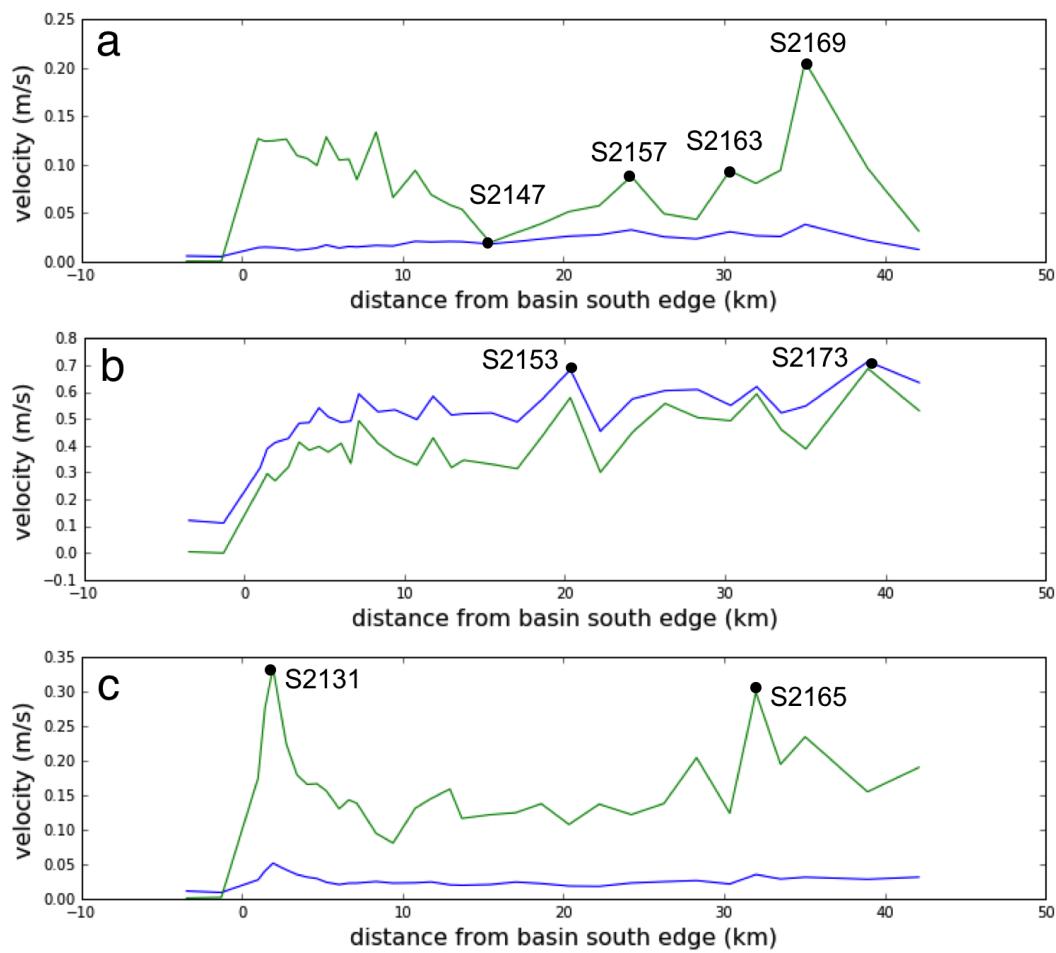


Figure 12. Peak velocity at stations plotted as a function of distance from the basin edge, generated for crustal fault (a), megathrust (b), and intraslab (c) earthquake scenarios. Blue and green curves represent peak velocity in the basin stations and amplification (percentage amplification divided by 1000), respectively. Selected stations name are indicated by labelled dots.

Table 2. Amplification in % resulted from 3 scenarios

Station	PGV-C	Ampli-C	PGV-M	Ampli-M	PGV-S	Ampli-S
S2117	0.006	0	0.121	4	0.011	1
S2124	0.005	0	0.111	-1	0.009	2
S2129	0.014	127	0.317	246	0.027	174
S2130	0.015	124	0.388	295	0.040	277
S2131	0.014	125	0.412	269	0.051	335
S2132	0.013	126	0.427	320	0.042	224
S2133	0.012	109	0.483	414	0.035	180
S2134	0.013	106	0.486	383	0.031	166
S2135	0.014	99	0.541	397	0.029	167
S2136	0.017	129	0.508	376	0.024	156
S2137	0.014	105	0.487	409	0.020	131
S2138	0.015	106	0.492	334	0.022	143
S2139	0.015	85	0.593	493	0.023	138
S2140	0.017	134	0.526	409	0.025	95
S2141	0.016	66	0.534	363	0.023	81
S2142	0.021	94	0.497	328	0.023	131
S2143	0.020	69	0.584	429	0.024	145
S2144	0.021	58	0.514	318	0.020	159
S2145	0.020	54	0.519	346	0.019	116
S2147	0.018	20	0.522	330	0.020	122
S2149	0.020	30	0.488	314	0.024	125
S2151	0.023	39	0.575	438	0.022	138
S2153	0.026	51	0.683	579	0.018	108
S2155	0.027	58	0.454	300	0.018	137
S2157	0.033	88	0.575	450	0.023	122
S2159	0.025	49	0.605	557	0.025	138
S2161	0.023	44	0.609	505	0.026	205
S2163	0.031	94	0.550	493	0.021	124
S2165	0.027	81	0.620	593	0.035	299
S2167	0.026	94	0.522	460	0.029	195
S2169	0.038	206	0.548	388	0.031	235
S2173	0.022	96	0.714	687	0.028	155
S2176	0.012	32	0.635	530	0.031	190

PGV-C, PGV-M, PGV-S, Ampli-C, Ampli-M, Ampli-S are peak ground velocity (PGV) and amplification (Amp) generated from crustal fault, megathrust and intraslab scenarios. PGV and amplification are in units of m/s and %.

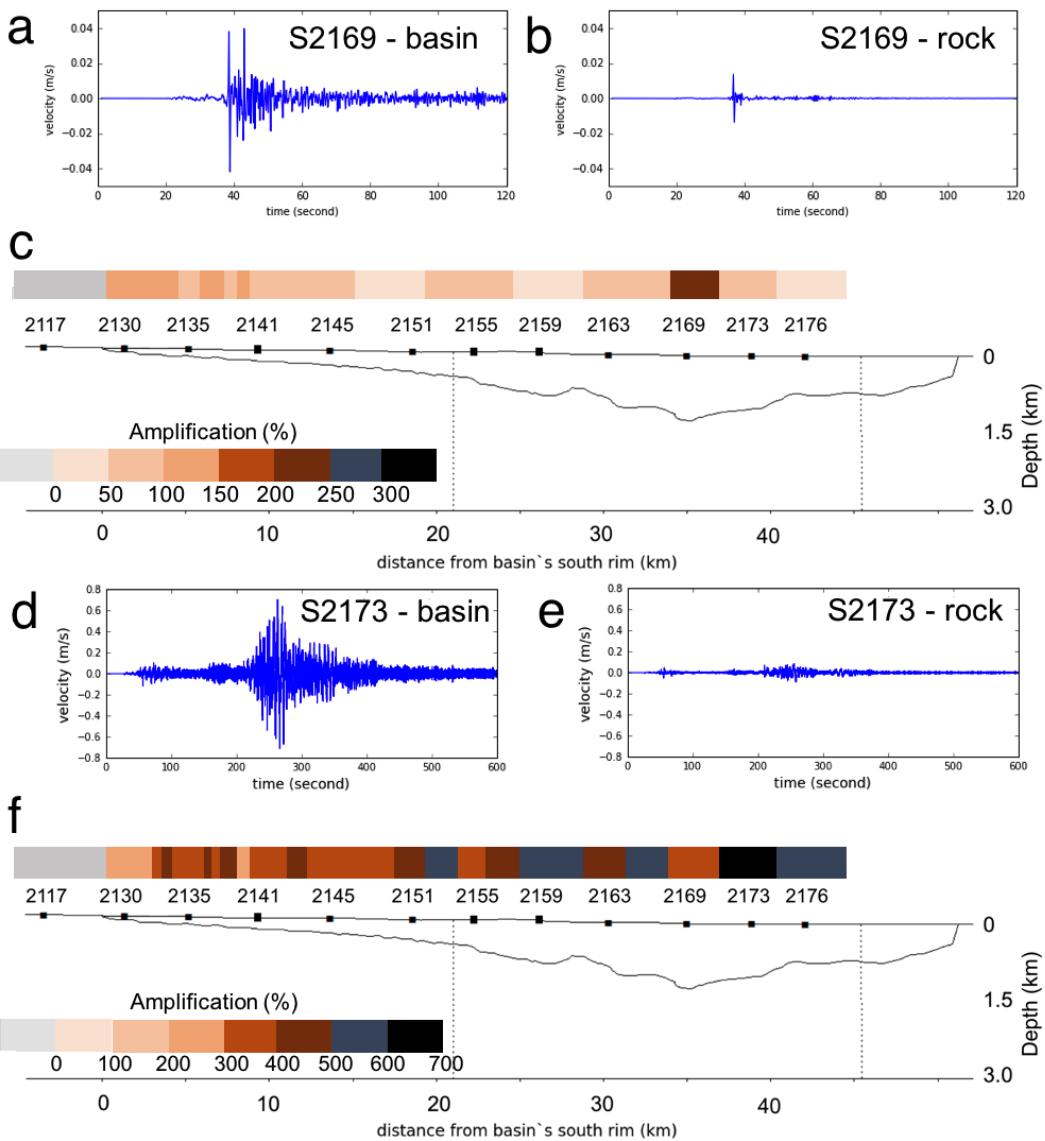


Figure 13. amplification for the crustal (a-c) and megathrust (d-f) earthquake scenarios. Figures a, b show velocity seismogram at stations S2169 for basin and bedrock sites respectively, and Figure c shows PGV amplification at each station along the S-N cross-section for the crustal fault scenario. Similar to Fig a, b, c, Fig d, e, f depict seismograms at basin and rock sites (S2173) and PGV amplification for the megathrust earthquake scenario. The cross-section is located at the longitude 108.84335° and seismograms are the radial horizontal component.

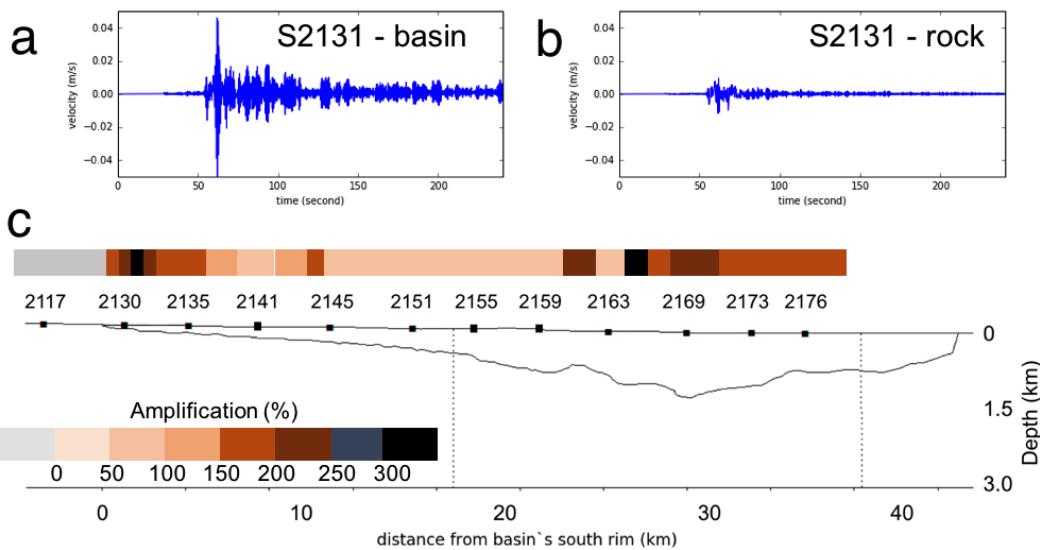


Figure 14. Similar to Figure 13, but for medium-depth intraslab earthquake scenario. Figure **a, b** are basin and bedrock seismograms (at S2131, located about 500 m north of S2130) and Figure **c** shows PGV amplification along the S-N cross-section.

436 the basin as can be seen in Figure 12c, is apparent in ground motion at about 1 s period, as shown
 437 in Figure 16, which is not strongly affected by attenuation. The spectral amplification at this point
 438 is as high as 424% or slightly higher than the PGV amplification (300%). More interesting features
 439 appear at the longer periods. While long period (> 1 s) accelerations at S2131 fall below the 2012-SNI
 440 design response spectrum, at S2165 the scenario response spectrum at about 5.5 s is touching the
 441 design response spectrum. An acceleration of 0.06 g and amplification of 335% (for period of 5.5 s) are
 442 estimated by the simulation (Figure 16).

443 7. Conclusion

444 We have shown that GMPE modeling predicts the significant influence of near-surface geology,
 445 represented by V_{S30} , on short-period (< 1 s) seismic waves. However, for a very deep basin filled
 446 with soft sediment, available GMPEs are not capable of capturing the effects of basin geometry on
 447 seismic waves, at least for basins as deep as the Jakarta Basin. Consequently, more realistic approaches
 448 should be used to estimate ground motions. SPECFEM2D was chosen to simulate earthquake scenario
 449 ground motions, and the results show how soft sediment filling a deep basin amplifies seismic waves,
 450 generating high ground motion on the basin surface.

451 The amplification of ground motion due to basin geometry and depth varies from site to site, and
 452 depends upon depth of the basin, distance from the source, distance from the basin edge and also
 453 magnitude of the earthquake. While the megathrust scenario showed a close correspondence between
 454 PGV and spectral amplification, the crustal fault and especially intraslab scenarios showed a more
 455 complex relationship. These latter scenarios show high amplification in the south and north parts of
 456 basin and show low amplification in the central part. Highest PGV are observed at the north stations,
 457 where the basin is very deep (> 1000 m), in the crustal fault and megathrust scenarios. In contrast, the
 458 intraslab scenario triggered the highest PGV near the basin edge.

459 The crustal fault scenario produced high spectral amplitudes at frequencies in the range 0.4-0.6
 460 Hz, while the megathrust event generated high ground motions at frequencies of about 0.2 Hz and
 461 0.5 Hz (15). Pronounced high ground motions at frequencies about 0.2 Hz are generated by the deep
 462 intraslab scenario (16). The high spectral amplitudes in the period range of 1.6-10 s are approximately
 463 in accordance with natural periods of 16–100 story buildings, therefore, basin resonance may be a more
 464 important consideration for high-rise buildings construction than previously realised.

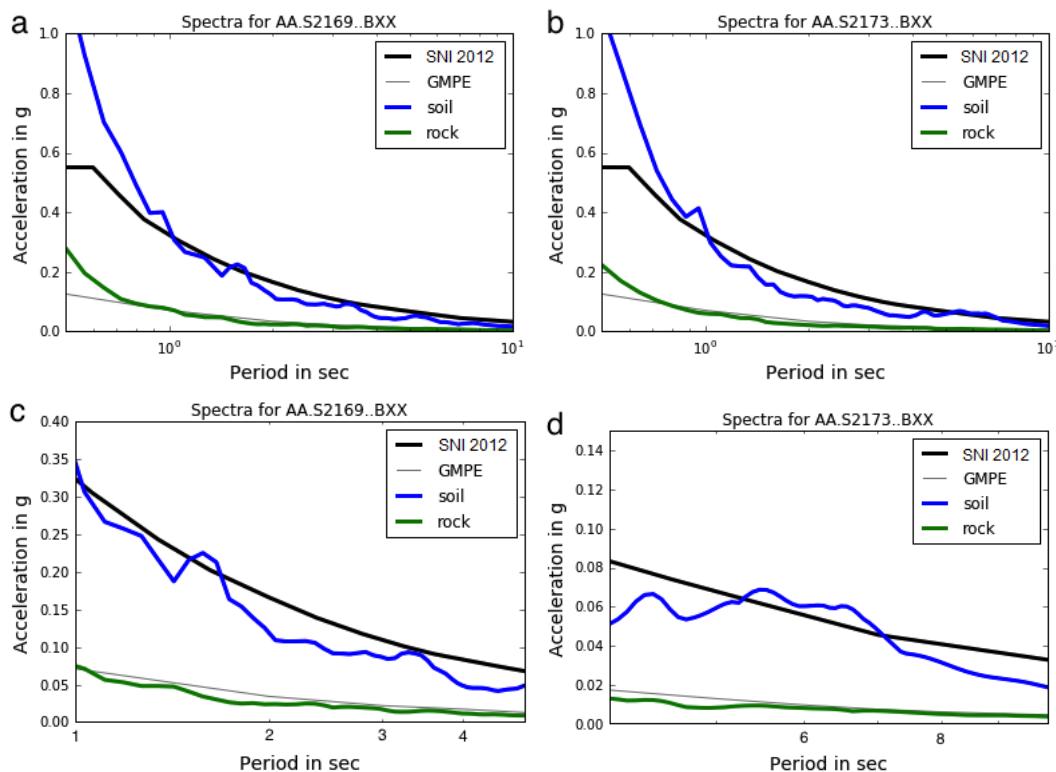


Figure 15. Computed acceleration response spectra for the megathrust earthquake scenario, plotted with the PSA using the AEA2015 GMPE and the Jakarta Building Code's design response spectrum (for D-type soil, thick-black curve) at stations S2169 (a) and S2173 (b). (c) and (d) are zoomed images of (a) and (b), respectively for the period band 1–5 s (c) and 4–10 s (d). Location of stations are indicated in Figure 13 and Figure 14

465 Megathrust earthquakes may trigger high spectral accelerations in Jakarta. Especially at a period
 466 of 1 s, the simulated acceleration is higher than the design spectrum of the building code. At some
 467 stations (e.g. S2173), acceleration at about period 5 s is also a bit higher than the building code's design
 468 spectrum. This high acceleration and long duration of seismic waves inside the basin, as shown in
 469 Figure 5.14, should be of concern, because these factors can be responsible for building collapse. The
 470 high spectral accelerations (0.07–0.08 g) at periods between 5–7 s are estimated from the megathrust
 471 scenario, but high spectral acceleration (0.06 g) at a period of about 5.5 s is also estimated due to the
 472 intraslab earthquake scenario.

473 While results in this study should be regarded as preliminary in that they neglect the effects of
 474 attenuation inside the basin and do not account for 3-D wave propagation, overall they show the
 475 greatly enhanced seismic hazard in Jakarta due to its deep basin structure. When this is combined with
 476 Jakarta's proximity to earthquake sources (megathrust and active faults) and destructive earthquakes
 477 that have devastated Jakarta centuries ago, the risk of catastrophic damage should one of these large
 478 historical events occur today seems very real.

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 483 A.521219).

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 485 guidance and technical support for the numerical simulations and analysis; M.I. provided advice on earthquake
 486 engineering aspects and the Indonesian building code; S.H. provided advice on geology of the Jakarta Basin.

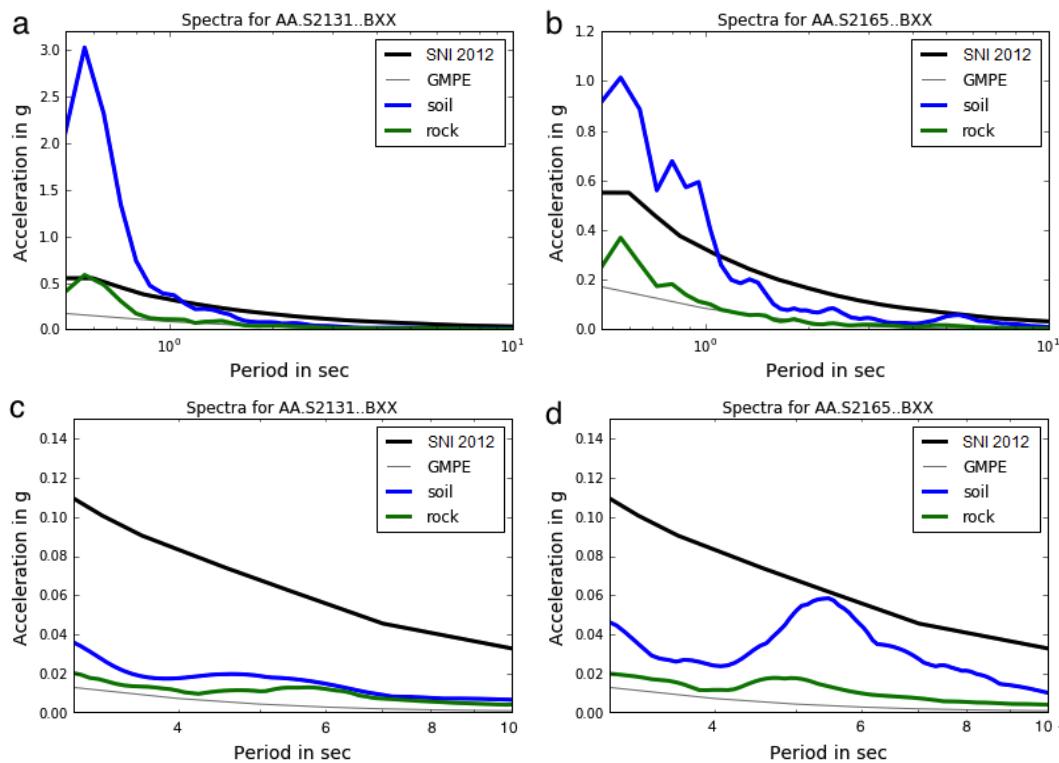


Figure 16. Computed acceleration response spectra for the intraslab earthquake scenario, plotted with the PSA using the AEA2015S GMPE and the Jakarta Building Code's design response spectrum (for D-type soil, thick-black curve) at stations S2131 (a) and S2165 (b). (c) and (d) are zoomed images of (a) and (b), respectively, for the period band 3–10 s. Locations of S2165 are indicated in Figure 5.19 and Figure 5.20, while S2131 is 500 m north of S2130 in the same figures. Note, that the Y-axes have different scales.

487 Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare they have no conflict of interest."

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605 Sample Availability: Samples of the compounds are available from the authors.