

The 30 October 2020, M7.0 Samos Island (Eastern Aegean Sea) Earthquake: effects of source rupture, path and local-site conditions on the observed and simulated ground motions

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Abstract

On 30 October 2020 a M_w 7.0 earthquake occurred in the eastern Aegean Sea, between the Greek island of Samos and Turkey's Aegean coast, causing considerable seismic damage and deaths, especially in the Turkish city of Izmir, approximately 70 km from the epicenter. In this study, we provide a detailed description of the Samos earthquake, starting from the fault rupture to the ground motion characteristics. We first use Interferometric Synthetic Aperture Radar (InSAR) and Global Positioning System (GPS) data to constrain the source mechanisms. Then, we utilize this information to analyze the ground motion characteristics of the mainshock in terms of peak ground acceleration (PGA), peak ground velocity (PGV), and spectral pseudo-accelerations. Modelling of geodetic data shows that the Samos earthquake ruptured a NNE-dipping normal fault located offshore north of Samos, with up to 2.5-3 m of slip and an estimated geodetic moment of 3.3×10^{19} Nm (M_w 7.0). Although low PGA were induced by the earthquake, the ground shaking was strongly amplified in Izmir throughout the alluvial sediments. Structural damage observed in Izmir reveals the potential of seismic risk due to the local site effects. To better understand the earthquake characteristics, we generated and compared stochastic strong ground motions with the observed ground motion parameters as well as the ground motion prediction equations (GMPEs), exploring also the efficacy of the region-specific parameters which may be used to better predict the expected ground shaking from future large earthquakes in the region.

Key Words: Earthquake source observations; Satellite geodesy; Ground motions simulations; Site effects; Building damage distribution; Eastern Aegean Sea earthquake.

27 **1 Introduction**

28 The 30 October 2020 M_w 7.0 Samos (eastern Aegean Sea) earthquake is the largest event to have occurred in the
29 eastern Aegean region. The last significant event in this area was 11 August 1904, when a M 6.8 earthquake struck
30 the south coast of Samos, and caused significant structural damage on Samos and western Anatolia (Turkey). The
31 30 October 2020 earthquake produced widespread effects including a tsunami, loss of life and severe damage in
32 the epicentral area: in particular, more than 100 people died due to building collapses in the metropolitan area of
33 Izmir (Turkey), and two victims were found in east Samos (Cetin et al. 2020). The earthquake magnitude and
34 epicenter is provided by the various national and international institutes, with rather similar magnitude scales
35 ranging from M_w 6.9 to 7.0. The epicenter was located offshore in the eastern Aegean Sea, between the Greek
36 island of Samos and Turkey's Karaburun peninsula, roughly equidistant from each coast (Fig. 1). The normal
37 faulting mechanism of the mainshock agrees with the almost NNE-SSW direction of active extension across this
38 back-arc area located behind the Hellenic subduction zone. The study area is still affected by aftershocks, with up
39 to now 3,192 events of magnitude ≥ 2.0 and 61 events of magnitude ≥ 4.0 . The largest aftershocks ($M \geq 5.0$)
40 occurred on 30 and 31 October 2020 and their magnitudes were estimated to be M_w 5.2 and 5.0, respectively
41 (KOERI 2020). The aftershock sequence extends over more than 70 km, both E and W of the hypocenter (Fig. 1).

42 As highlighted by several previous studies (MMI 2000; Bjerrum et al. 2013), into the possible
43 consequences of large earthquakes in the region, the 30 October 2020 Samos (eastern Aegean Sea) earthquake
44 caused significant damage to the city of İzmir, that is the third largest city in Turkey with a provincial population
45 of 4.5 million, located approximately 70 km from the earthquake epicenter. The structural provenance of the İzmir
46 bay is identified with related extensional tectonics in western Anatolia, and is located within the Basin and Range
47 province (Uzel et al. 2013; Gok and Polat 2014). The city of İzmir is located on the Inner Bay of İzmir, upon the
48 growing marine soft soil deposits. The unexpected extensive damage caused by the earthquake was, to some
49 extent, caused by the presence of soft sediments that amplified earthquake ground motion at frequencies around
50 0.5-1.5 Hz and increased building damage in the Karsiyaka and Bayrakli districts in the city. Furthermore, there
51 have been many large earthquakes ($M > 6.5$) in the region with rather catastrophic consequences to the city of
52 İzmir. The earthquake of 10 July 1688 that completely destroyed the city; earthquakes occurred in 1739 Foça and
53 another earthquake occurred in 1788 in the İzmir area again destroyed most of the city (Ambraseys 2009; Sosyal
54 et al. 1981). Therefore, it becomes important to understand the interaction between the main fault systems
55 surrounding İzmir, as well as the attenuation of waves propagation through the Earth and the site-specific

56 characteristics in the metropolitan area to generate realistic estimates of seismic hazard through scenario-based
57 ground motion modeling for the future possible earthquakes.

58 In this study, we investigated the main features of earthquake source rupture and mechanism together with
59 observed ground motion variability in different sites. In this respect, first we utilized Interferometric Synthetic
60 Aperture Radar (InSAR) data acquired by the Sentinel-1 satellites and Global Positioning System (GPS)
61 measurements to study the ground displacement field and to derive, by using elastic dislocation modelling, the
62 fault geometry and slip distribution of the causative fault segment, that represent crucial input parameters for the
63 ground motion simulations, especially for the areas in the near-source region. In regard to earthquake ground
64 motion, we describe the seismic wave attenuation pattern as a function of distance and frequency from source to
65 site taking into account earthquake source complexity as well as the local soil condition properties on ground
66 motions. To do so we generated high-frequency strong ground motion recordings obtained during the 2020 Samos
67 earthquake using a stochastic finite-fault simulation approach. Then we compared those with observed ground
68 accelerations and velocities to bring detailed understanding of the damage caused in the city of Izmir (Motazedian
69 and Atkinson 2005; Boore 2009). Several approaches such as the horizontal to vertical ratio (H/V) (Nakamura
70 1989), the standard spectra ratio (SSR) (Borcherdt 1970) and the frequency domain transfer function (Haskel
71 1960) method have been applied to estimate the fundamental soil frequency as well as the site amplifications for
72 the stations located in the soft soils around the Izmir Bay. Both the observed and the simulated pseudo-acceleration
73 response spectra are compared with the EC8 design spectrum and the new Turkish building code (TBSC-2018)
74 for engineering applications.

75 **2 Tectonic and seismological setting of the study area**

76 The Greek island of Samos is located in the eastern part of the Aegean Sea, a few kilometers west of the Turkish
77 coast (Fig. 1). The Aegean region and western Turkey are among the most seismically and tectonically active
78 areas in the Euro-Mediterranean region, therefore characterized by a significant seismic hazard. The current stress
79 regime of the Samos area is associated with regional Aegean Sea NNE-SSW extension. In particular, this area
80 represents an extensional back-arc region located behind the Hellenic subduction zone (e.g. McKenzie 1978), as
81 a result of the ongoing movement between the Eurasian, African, Arabian and Anatolian plates (Şengör 1987;
82 Yılmaz et al. 2000). In fact, northeast motion of the African plate underneath Greece and western Anatolia
83 (Turkey) along the Hellenic Arc resulted in an E-W oriented rift and graben systems in the Aegean Sea, as well
84 as in western Turkey (McKenzie 1978; Taymaz et al. 1991). This extensional crustal deformation in the region

85 (about 7.4 mm/yr of crustal extension between Samos and western Anatolia as suggested by Vernant et al. 2014)
86 results in various complex fault systems (a combination of normal-slip and strike-slip faults). Based on field
87 evidence for onshore faults and on effects of faulting on the seafloor from offshore faults, different active tectonic
88 structures have been identified in the study area (e.g. Chatzipetros et al. 2013). The coastline of Samos seems to
89 be partly controlled by faulting: a dextral transtensional strike-slip fault striking NE-SW to the NW shoreline; a
90 E-W striking normal fault with dextral component in the SW coastline; the Vathy WNW-ESE striking normal
91 fault located on the NE of the island; and the approximately 30 km long, WNW-ENE striking offshore North
92 Samos fault. The Kusadasi Golf in Turkey is bounded by an active right-lateral NS trending fault (the Gülbahçe
93 Fault) and by NE–SW trending faults (the Seferihisar and Tuzla faults, respectively) (Ocakoglu et al. 2004).

94 In historical and recent times, Samos and Turkey’s west coast have experienced multiple damaging
95 earthquakes. In the early 20th century, on 11 August 1904, a M 6.8 earthquake struck the south coast of Samos
96 causing significant damage in the Greek islands and destroying many cities in western Anatolia (Macropoulos et
97 al. 2012). In addition, during the historical period, around 201-197 BC, 46-47 AD and between 1700 and 1799,
98 circa ten damaging earthquakes were occurred in and around Samos (Stiros et al. 2000). Particularly, large
99 earthquakes occurred in the region on 10 July 1688, in 1739 and 1788 with catastrophic consequences in the city
100 of Izmir (Soysal et al. 1981; Ambraseys 2009). Recently, a series of moderate magnitude earthquakes, including
101 the 17 October and 20 October 2005 M 5.7 and M 5.9 earthquakes, respectively, together with the intense seismic
102 activity observed adjacent to the southern part of the Gülbahçe Fault (Aktar 2007), caused damage to buildings in
103 the region (Sözbilir et al. 2009). Detailed information and knowledge on these and many other events in terms of
104 magnitude and the geometry and kinematics of the activated faults can be found in Tan et al. (2014), Chatzipetros
105 et al. (2013), Ambraseys (2009), Kouskouna and Sakkas (2013).

106 **3 Earthquake Source Model**

107 **3.1 Geodetic dataset**

108 We used InSAR data acquired by the Sentinel-1 satellites in TOPS (Terrain Observation by Progressive Scans)
109 mode and continuous GPS observations to measure the ground displacement due to the 30 October 2020 M_w 7.0
110 Samos earthquake. In particular, we used Sentinel-1 ascending interferogram made with the 23 October and 10
111 November 2020 scenes acquired on track 029, and the descending interferogram made with the 24 October and
112 11 November 2020 scenes acquired on track 136 (Figs. 2 and S1), because these 18-days pairs provide better
113 quality interferograms than the previous pairs. Other interferograms of different tracks (i.e. ascending track 131)

114 or with different temporal acquisition scenes were also processed, but the extracted information was of a lower
115 quality.

116 The interferograms were produced using the Sentinel Application Platform SNAP software developed
117 by the European Space Agency. The topographic phase component was removed exploiting the DEM (Digital
118 Elevation Model) provided by Shuttle Radar Topography Mission 1 arcsec (Jarvis et al. 2008). We enhanced the
119 signal to noise ratio of the resulting interferograms by applying the Goldstein filtering algorithm (Goldstein and
120 Werner 1998) with a coherence threshold of 0.3. Both the interferograms show a clear fringe pattern of the
121 coseismic displacements (Fig. S1), corresponding to ground deformation onshore on the west of Samos.

122 The interferograms were then unwrapped using Statistical-Cost Network-Flow Algorithm for Phase
123 Unwrapping (SNAPHU) (Chen and Zebker 2001) and finally geocoded to obtain the ground deformation maps.
124 In the displacements pattern, we observed a major lobe of increasing LOS (Line-Of-Sight) displacements (with
125 maximum value of about 10-15 cm) towards the satellite in the NW Samos, except from a small sector of the NE
126 coast of Samos, where the motion is away from the satellite (Figs. 2, S2 and S3).

127 In addition, we also used the GPS measurements of coseismic displacements from Ganas et al. (2020),
128 which reveal a general relative normal motion E-W to ESE-WSW oriented between Samos and Turkey's west
129 coast (Fig. 3), in agreement with the moment tensor solutions of both regional and teleseismic data (e.g. CSEM-
130 EMSC). The largest horizontal and vertical static offsets were measured at SAMO site, where about 37 cm of
131 movement towards S-SW and an uplift of about 9 cm were observed (Fig. 3), in agreement with InSAR data.

132 **3.2 Inversion for fault geometry and coseismic slip**

133 To image the fault geometry and slip distribution of the 2020 Samos mainshock, we simply inverted the static
134 deformation for distributed slip on a number of different fault geometries, corresponding to a NNE-dipping fault
135 rupture scenario. We adopted the same inversion scheme as in Cheloni et al. (2019), which used rectangular
136 dislocations embedded in an elastic, homogeneous and isotropic half-space (Okada 1985). Although this physical
137 model tends to be simplified in several respects (e.g. homogeneous material properties, effect of topography,
138 gravitational contribution, etc.), the use of more sophisticated models would involve the estimation of further
139 unknowns which may not be solved by the actual poor data coverage (i.e. much of the deformation is found under
140 the sea). Thus, we prefer to use the simpler model but which can still be adequate in obtaining a rough estimate
141 of the source properties. Before modelling, the InSAR interferograms were downsampled to reduce the number

142 of data points from several millions to a set of about some hundreds of points, using a resolution-based resampling
143 algorithm (Lohman and Simons 2005; Figs. S2 and S3). The geodetic data is thus inverted for slip magnitude on
144 each fault patch of constant rake and size (2.5 km × 2.5 km), inferring the optimal fault geometry iterating by grid
145 searching over, locations, strikes, dips and rake angles of the fault plane jointly inverting InSAR LOS and GPS
146 displacements, while using relative weights to properly combine the different data sets (i.e. to take into account
147 both the relative variance of the different datasets and the different number of measurements). In particular, the
148 fault location is varied by an interval of 250 m (range between ± 10 km from the center of our projection), the
149 strike and rake angle varies by an interval of 5° (range between 270°/290° and between -120°/-60°, respectively),
150 while the dip angle by step of 2° (range between 30°/50°). As regards the relative weighting, we assigned a
151 relative weighting factor to GPS and InSAR displacements so that the weight for one dataset does not affect the
152 fit to the other data type. We choose the proper weighting parameter by examining the RMS reduction for each
153 different dataset as a function of the relative weight (Fig. S4). We also used positivity constraints in the inversions
154 using bounded-values, weighted least-squares algorithm (Stark and Parker 1995) to impose positivity constraints
155 on the estimated slip and we regularized the linear inversion by applying spatial smoothing. Specifically, we
156 regularized our inversion using a Laplacian smoothing criterion, choosing the optimal spatial smoothing factor
157 through the use of a trade-off curve, namely the L-curve. In fact, the corner of the L-curve corresponds to a good
158 balance between minimization of the size of the regularized solution versus the size of the corresponding residuals
159 (Fig. S5). Additional terms consisting of a linear ramp for each InSAR interferogram are also included in the
160 inversion to minimize the effect on the solution of any residual long-wavelength orbital signal in InSAR images.

161 The inversion of the geodetic displacements satisfactorily reproduces both the observed InSAR LOS
162 displacement maps (Fig. 2) and the GPS offsets (Fig. 3). The best-fitting fault model is obtained with N285°ESE-
163 WNW striking and 38°NNE dipping normal (rake angle equal to -80°) fault plane in good agreement with focal
164 solutions and with the distribution of aftershocks (Fig. 4). The coseismic slip distribution model on the preferred
165 fault plane (50 km × 25 km; including 20 × 10 sub-faults) shows a single major asperity with peak slip of about
166 2.5-3 m, located WNW respect to the epicentre, for an along-strike length of about 40 km. Although a detailed
167 fine slip distribution cannot be obtained from the available geodetic dataset (due to the lack of measurements at
168 sea), nevertheless, the obtained slip distribution is compatible with relocated aftershocks distribution (Cetin et al.
169 2020), which is characterized by the almost complete absence of seismic events in the area where we retrieved
170 most of the slip (Figure 4), suggesting therefore that the largest slip may have occurred just in this region. The
171 resulting seismic moment is 3.3×10^{19} Nm, corresponding to a M_w 7.0 earthquake, in agreement with

172 seismological results (Table 1). Our retrieved slip distribution located westward of the epicenter, implies a
173 predominantly WNW rupture directivity. Our preferred fault plane geometry is also in agreement with the
174 published focal mechanisms for the mainshock from a number of agencies (the strike angle of the N-dipping fault
175 plane varies from 260° to 294° , the dip angle from 29° to 55° , and the rake angle from -116° to -65° ; see Table 1)
176 and the dimension and position of the main slip asperity agree with the recent geodetic finite-fault model of Ganas
177 et al. (2020), who suggest that rupture during the Samos earthquake occurred on a 37 km NNE dipping normal
178 fault located offshore of the north coast of Samos. These source related parameters are crucial to predict the ground
179 motions particularly in near source.

180 **4 Investigating the strong ground motion characteristics of the 30 October 2020** 181 **earthquake through synthetic seismograms**

182 **4.1 Strong ground motion dataset and some observations**

183 Strong motion data were obtained mostly from the networks managed by the General Director of Disaster Affairs,
184 Earthquake Research Department (AFAD) and the Bogazici University, Kandilli Observatory and Earthquake
185 Research Institute (KOERI). AFAD stations are mostly well documented (AFAD 2020) and contain lots of
186 information on the V_{s30} , the average velocity over the top 30 m of the soil at each station, the fundamental resonant
187 frequencies (f_0) and the corresponding soil types according to European Seismic Design Codes, EC8 (CEN 2006).
188 Although the distribution of the accelerometers deployed in the epicentral area seems very few, the earthquake
189 registered approximately 200 strong motion records within 250 km of the fault (Fig. 1). Few strong motion stations
190 registered the mainshock in Samos Island (KRL1, SMG1 and SAMA). The maximum observed peak ground
191 acceleration (PGA) was around 0.23 g and 0.27 g in Samos at SMG1 and on the southern tip of the Karaburun
192 Peninsula at GMLD (KOERI) strong motion stations, respectively. These stations are the closest to the epicenter,
193 being located around 17 km to the south and 22 km to the northwest of the mainshock. Station 0905, located 43
194 km from the fault plane and on stiff soil, recorded 0.18 g peak ground acceleration, the second highest after the
195 GMLD station. Most of the stations positioned in Izmir have relatively low ground accelerations with values near
196 0.1 g, while those stations located on the soft soil of the Bayraklı and Karsiyaka districts of the city have amplified
197 ground motions for longer periods. In Table 2 the strong ground motion stations are given, along with the station
198 name, location, site class (according to the EC8 classification), source-to-site distances, and the observed peak
199 ground accelerations and peak ground velocities at three components.

200 4.2 Generation of synthetic strong ground motions

201 In this section, to better understand the ground motion characteristics and the physical processes and parameters
202 underlying seismic wave propagation of the 30 October 2020 Samos earthquake, we composed a stochastic ground
203 motion model to generate predictions of peak ground acceleration and velocity, and 5%-damped response pseudo-
204 spectral acceleration for the M_w 7.0 mainshock. These simulations account for source, path and site effects related
205 to the fault rupture, the seismic wave propagation as well as the complex site responses in the case of the
206 sedimentary basin, providing a spatial variation of ground motion, which may be essential to assess the seismic
207 hazard and reduce the seismic risk in the populated urban areas.

208 The strong ground motion synthetics were completed by using a stochastic finite-fault simulation model,
209 based on dynamic corner frequency (Motazedian and Atkinson 2005; Boore 2009). Stochastic simulation methods
210 contemplate the physics-based rupture process and call for well-defined source and slip distribution, together with
211 path, and local site conditions within the region of interest.

212 The finite-fault source model with slip distribution (Fig. 4a) determined in the present study is intended as
213 an input to the ground motion calculations (see previous section and Table 3). The region specific crustal S waves
214 attenuation parameters are selected as characterized by Akinci et al. (2012), using several hundred regional
215 earthquakes (M 2.5-5.8) recorded during the Western Anatolia Seismic Recording Experiment (WASRE) between
216 November 2002 and October 2003 (Akyol et al. 2006; Zhu et al. 2006). The anelastic attenuation for the entire
217 region is given as the quality factor, $Q_s(f) = 180f^{0.55}$ and the geometrical spreading coefficient, $g(r)$, is described
218 by $r^{-1.0}$ at distances less than 20 km as a body-wave-like function; between 20 and 40 km, and between 40 and
219 100 km the spectral amplitudes increase with distance and the geometric spreading are defined as $r^{-0.8}$, $r^{-0.7}$,
220 respectively. Beyond 100 km, it is described by $r^{-0.5}$ consistent with theoretical attenuation of the surface waves
221 in a half-space. These results are quite similar to that obtained by Kurtulmus and Akyol (2013) as $Q_s(f) = 190f^{0.64}$
222 with a rapid decay of $g(r) \propto r^{-1.0}$ both for short and long-distance ranges in the same region. The stress drop
223 parameter was determined from the residuals between the observed and the simulated peak ground accelerations
224 which were calculated using different $\Delta\sigma$, ranging from 50 to 200 bars (Fig. S6). In stochastic simulations, the
225 site effects were taken into account according to each station site class. As observed in Figure S6, a stress drop
226 value of $\Delta\sigma = 80$ bars was considered as the most reasonable value to provide a satisfactory comparison, with
227 lower residuals. This value is also in good agreement with those determined with earthquakes of similar magnitude
228 in Turkey. The level of the acceleration spectrum at high frequencies is estimated between 8-20 MPa by Akinci

229 et al. (2006, 2014), Cheloni and Akinci (2020) and Malagnini et al. (2010) for the 1999 Kocaeli M_w 7.2 and 2020
230 Elazig (Doganbey) M_w 6.8 earthquakes with strike-slip faulting, respectively, and for the 2011 Van Lake M_w 7.1
231 earthquake with reverse faulting in Turkey.

232 The parameters employed to quantify the impact of the shallower sedimentary layers to the seismic ground
233 motion are the soil amplification factor $D(f)$ and the kappa parameter (κ). The former is characterized as an
234 exponential decay to produce the diminution factor, $e^{-\pi f \kappa}$ (Anderson and Hough 1984). In the present study, we
235 used frequency-dependent generic site amplifications and kappa parameters for different site classes from Boore
236 and Joyner (1997) and Pischiutta et al. (2020). The κ parameter was set as 0.035 s for the site class A (average
237 V_{s30} 1150 m/s, Pischiutta et al. 2020) and B (V_{s30} between 620 m/s, Boore and Joyner 1997), while for the site
238 class C and D (average V_{s30} 255 m/s and 190 m/s), it was favored as 0.055 s.

239 The physical parameters that characterize the earthquake source rupture and the seismic wave propagation
240 together with the site related parameters considered to generate synthetic ground motions are listed in Table 3,
241 while the generic site amplifications are given in Table S1. We note that the adopted generic site amplifications,
242 calculated through the quarter wavelength approach (Joyner and Fumal 1985; Boore and Joyne, 1997) using the
243 averaged velocity over the uppermost 30 m of the soil, and are characterized by velocity gradients which are not
244 sensitive to impedance contrasts between the layers (Boore et al. 1994, 2011). In the following section, to give
245 more attention to this topic, we evaluated local site responses in terms of spectral amplification by using several
246 different techniques, particularly for sites located in the Karsiyaka and Bayrakli districts where heavy damage was
247 observed during the 30 October 2020 earthquake (Erdik et al. 2020).

248 **4.3 Spatial distribution of horizontal peak ground accelerations and velocities**

249 In order to investigate the spatial distribution of the ground motions we simulated the M_w 7.0 Samos earthquake
250 at 1055 virtual stations distributed on a regular grid with 5-km spacing together for the sites where strong ground
251 motion stations were actually located. In Figures 5a and b we presented the spatial distribution of the PGA and
252 PGV values obtained from the simulations using the main fault rupture and the spectral parameters (Table 3)
253 within the selected area using a uniform rock site amplification with $V_{s30} = 760$ m/s referring to the engineering
254 bedrock. The spatial distribution of simulated PGA and PGV values for the 30 October 2020 mainshock holds
255 explicit effects of the earthquake source rupture since the soil condition is assumed to be uniform across the region.
256 The strongest ground shaking is observed in areas close to the main asperity with a larger slip located roughly in
257 the central part of the fault and calculated around 0.5 g in PGA and 50 cm/s in PGV in the northwest of Samos.

258 Simulations at the nearest stations, GMLD at $R_{jb}=11$ km and 0905 at $R_{jb}=21$ km resulted in PGA of 0.23 g, and
259 0.15 g while observed values range from 0.19-0.27 g, and 0.15-0.18 g, respectively. There is good consistency
260 found between observed and predicted ground motions close to the source rupture, which confirms the well
261 constrained source parameters (fault geometry and slip distribution) described in the present study. Simulated
262 ground motions are then somewhat validated by the observed ground motion parameters and compared with two
263 selected ground motion prediction equations (GMPEs), in terms of PGA and PGV values, for epicentral distances
264 up to 250 km.

265 **4.4 Comparisons between observed and simulated time histories and Fourier Spectra**

266 In this section to demonstrate the efficacy of our ground motion model both in time and frequency domain, we
267 compared some selected recordings of acceleration and velocity time histories and their Fourier Amplitude spectra
268 with synthetic ones. In our simulations we examined different geological conditions for each strong motion station
269 according to the network classification (Table 2). As shown in Figure 6a the synthetic time series are in rather
270 good agreement with those of the selected recordings considering only generic site amplification factors were
271 used. Although the synthetic spectra match quite well with those of the recorded data, especially at most of the
272 stations located on rock and stiff soil, reproducing acceptable amplitudes and frequency content, they
273 underestimate spectral amplitudes between 0.5 and 2.0 Hz for those recordings observed at stations located in the
274 Bornova Basin, Izmir (Fig. 6b). Stations 3519, 3513, 3521 and 3518 are located on alluvial sites close to the
275 shoreline of the Bayrakli and the Karsiyaka district whereas stations 3514, 3524, and 3521 are deployed on the
276 stiff soil site in Izmir. As can be observed in Figure 6a the stations 3519, 3513, 3521 and 3518 have longer periods
277 and higher amplitudes due to their local site characteristics. In fact, a considerable part of the metropolitan area
278 of İzmir is located on sedimentary alluvial deposits. Furthermore, the notable fluvial degradation takes place in
279 the delta of the Gediz River in the northern section of the İzmir Bay (Uzel et al. 2013). Therefore, the use of the
280 generic site amplifications may not be enough to properly quantify the site amplification factors since they
281 disregard specific geological features of the soil stratigraphy such as the impedance contrasts in sedimentary
282 basins and the soil depths. Although the generic soil amplifications have been used commonly in many
283 applications, Boore (2013) has exposed their limitations inferred by the method, the quarter wavelength approach,
284 which smooths so that underestimates of the fundamental resonant peaks generated by the presence of the strong
285 bedrock/soil seismic impedance contrasts. In addition, several studies have also indicated the importance of the
286 soil/bedrock impedance contrast, thickness of soil, and soil properties on characterizing the site response in terms
287 of amplitude and frequency content (Zandieh and Pezeshk 2011; Banab et al. 2012; Molnar et al. 2004). For

288 example, Pratt et al. (2017) have demonstrated that the strong ground motion amplifications generated by the
289 strong contrasts between shallow sediments and underlying bedrock beneath Washington, D.C., during the
290 relatively distant and moderate size M_w 5.8 Virginia earthquake. Particularly, Baise et al. (2016) stated that the
291 short- and intermediate-period amplification considered in building codes may under predict soil amplification in
292 strong impedance contrast environments such as in Boston, Massachusetts.

293 **4.5 Comparison between observed, simulated and predicted GMPEs ground motions**

294 Finally, the simulated horizontal peak accelerations and velocities have been compared with those from processed
295 data of the 30 October Samos earthquake together with some ground motion prediction equations (GMPEs)
296 developed on the basis of strong motion data. The two GMPEs are preferred being 1) the local GMPE, Akkar and
297 Cagnan (2010) (hereafter AC10) derived from the Turkish strong motion recordings and 2) the global NGA-west
298 model of Boore et al. (2014) (hereafter BSS14) derived based on metadata from shallow earthquakes in
299 tectonically active regions in the world. The relations are derived for normal faulting style and for engineering
300 rock site conditions, $V_{s30} = 760$ m/s, to be comparable and to fit the conditions in this study. We employed different
301 generic site amplifications and kappa factors in the calculations which are assigned on the basis of the soil
302 classification according to the EC8 (Tables 2 and 3). Both the recorded and simulated peak accelerations and
303 velocities at distances up to 250 km from the fault are compared with the two selected empirical GMPEs (Figs.
304 7a and b). We also gathered the simulation ground motion parameters performed for the generic soil site class at
305 the 1055 virtual stations to those simulated for the 116 strong motion stations of the AFAD network on different
306 geological conditions. Generally, the ground motions obtained from simulations agree well with the observed
307 ground motion parameters although the recordings present larger non-conformity over greater distances $R_{jb} > 100$
308 km. The observed PGAs and PGVs are mostly in the range of the empirical relationships for the BSSA14 and the
309 AC10 yet, the BSSA14 model better predicts the observed peak accelerations and velocities at distances over 100
310 km with respect to the AC10. At the closest R_{jb} distances (up to 20 km), simulated PGA and PGV values present
311 a large variability and have a more scattered data distribution compared to the variations provided by the empirical
312 relationships with one standard deviation. Because the simulated PGAs and PGVs acquired from a normal faulting
313 mechanism represent large variations between the hanging-wall and foot-wall sections of the fault plane.
314 Maximum acceleration values at the closest distances range between 0.5 and 0.8 g on the hanging-wall of the fault
315 plane.

316 Moreover, we observed a clear trend of the observed data due to the EC8 soil type classification up to
317 distances of 100 km. The consequences of site effect become more evident over longer periods on PGV parameters

318 with respect to PGAs around the 50 km R_{jb} distances. Most of the highest PGA and PGV values correspond to
319 stations belonging to C site class located on the Bornova basin in Izmir and are remarkably underestimated by the
320 GMPEs. The generic amplification factors, used in our simulations, were also not able to capture properly locally
321 amplified ground motions at particular frequencies.

322 **4.6 Site amplifications**

323 In order to completely understand the ground motion characteristics of the earthquake through synthetics, we
324 investigated site characteristics of strong motion stations located on the shorelines of the city of Izmir. Particularly
325 we examined the stations 3519, 3513, 3518, 3521 with site classification C and D, and the stations 3514, 3524,
326 3511 and 3520 with site classification A and B type. Site amplification factors are estimated over commonly used
327 methods: 1) horizontal-to-vertical component spectral ratios, HVSR (e.g. Nakamura 1989; Lermo and Chavez-
328 Garcia 1993); 2) standard spectral ratio, SSR (Borcherdt 1970); and 3) the propagator-matrix method, PMM, of
329 Haskell (1960) and the quarter wavelength, QWL techniques (Joyner and Fumal 1985; Boore and Joyner 1997),
330 although several limitations of the HVSR and SSR methods have been reported in the literature (SESAME, 2004;
331 Malagnini et al. 2004; Akinci et al. 2010).

332 To determine the frequency-dependent amplifications, first of all, the ratio of the horizontal-to-vertical
333 (H/V) components of ground motion are calculated between the horizontal Fourier spectrum (N-S and E-W
334 spectra) and the vertical one over the S-wave; starting 1.0 s before the manually picked S-wave arrivals and over
335 around 15-20 s time windows.

336 The SSR technique is applied to the recordings of the mainshock as a secondary approach to investigate
337 the soil amplifications at the selected sites. The spectral ratio is obtained by dividing the Fourier spectrum of the
338 acceleration for the S wave at the selected stations by the spectrum of the S wave at the reference stations on the
339 hard-rock sites. The station 3514 is chosen as a reference station being deployed on a geologic bedrock ($V_{s30} =$
340 836 m/s).

341 In order to interpret the site amplifications based on shear wave velocity, density and attenuation as a
342 function of depth, as a tertiary approach we computed the theoretical amplifications for three sites using the
343 propagator-matrix method of Haskell (1960). To do so we used the *site_amp* and *nrattle* computer program, a
344 modified version of C. Mueller's program *rattle* by R. B. Herrmann (part of the SMSIM computer codes of Boore
345 2003). We prototyped shear-wave velocities and attenuation as a function of depth from those profiles provided
346 by Pamuk et al. (2018, 2018b) and computed amplifications in the frequency-domain. In these velocity models,

347 engineering bedrock ($V_s > 760$ m/s) depth changes from 200 to 400 m in the Bornova basin while the seismic
348 bedrock ($V_s > 3000$ m/s) ranges between 1200 to 1400 m. The velocity profiles S2, S3, S5 and the deeper one S4,
349 with greater proximity to the 3519 station, are adopted from Pamuk et al. (2018). Figure 8a shows adopted 1D
350 prototyped V_s -depth profiles (see Figure 5 of Pamuk et al. 2018) and Figure 8b shows amplifications with a
351 vertical incidence wave of geometrical effect calculated using the PPM (continuous lines) and QWL (dashed lines)
352 methods. Attenuation effect at the closest sites is included using kappa parameters 0.055 s. As can be seen clearly
353 in Figure 8b, the QWL method underestimates the resonance peaks generated by the large impedance contrasts.
354 The resonant frequencies are different based on the four models and the shear wave profiles considered for the
355 site amplifications. The site responses derived from the PPM are double those obtained from the QWL one. There
356 is also clear evidence that the maximum peak value is shifted towards lower frequencies when the thickness of
357 the layer increases. The S4 model with a strong impedance variation at roughly 120 m and 600 m presents larger
358 peaks around 0.7 and 1.6 Hz yet the frequency of resonant peak decreases, 0.3 s, with increasing thickness, having
359 a relevant impedance contrast around 450 m, in the case of the velocity model S3.

360 In Figures 9a and b we compare the resultant site amplifications from HVSR (left six panels) and SSR
361 methods (right six panels): it is evident the strong amplifications at stations 3519, 3513, and 3521 with a clear
362 peak at low frequencies between 0.3 and 1.5 Hz, while stations located on rock and stiff soil do not show any
363 evidence for strong amplifications at least for frequencies lower than 3-4 Hz. These clear and sharp peaks may
364 imply the presence of firm velocity contrast at depth between unconsolidated deposits and underlying bedrocks.
365 From Figure 9, we can conclude that the surface/bedrock ground motion felt at station 3519 was 5-8 times larger
366 in respect to that at station 3514 at the fundamental period of 0.7 s. Amplification values obtained from the HVSR
367 method are slightly greater, roughly at low frequencies, than the SSR results. Site amplifications from theoretical
368 experiments of the quarter-wavelength approximation confirm the suggestion that the maximum amplitude of
369 spectral ratios is sensitive to relevant impedance contrasts.

370 Being consistent with previous studies, the three methods were able to closely reveal the fundamental
371 frequencies, all being ranged between 0.3 and 2.0 Hz, despite the relative differences concerning the amplitude of
372 ratios (e.g. Field and Jacob 1995; Bonilla et al. 2002). This could be due to several factors such as the amplified
373 vertical component by the multiple reflected and converted waves by basin geometry or the selected reference
374 station which does not have a perfectly flat spectrum and may be explored in future studies. Moreover, we note
375 that the method adopted in this study does not consider the 2D/3D effects in sedimentary basins, since such
376 reverberations and converted waves at low frequency, cannot be properly generated using a 1D velocity model

377 and a stochastic approach. Finally, in Figure 10 we demonstrated the effect of site amplifications obtained from
378 the PPM and the QWL approximations throughout our simulations. We computed spectral accelerations at three
379 sites 3519, 3513 and 3520, located on the soft soils and compared those with the observed spectral accelerations.
380 Simulated spectral accelerations calculated using the site response spectra obtained from the PPM provided better
381 fit with the observed data reproducing resonant peaks and corresponding amplitudes. However, these resonance
382 peaks are always underestimated by the QWL amplifications since the method is insensitive to the important
383 impedance contrasts between layers and the velocities are averaged over depth. In the Supplementary Material we
384 further provided some synthetic time series and their complementary Fourier spectrum calculated using the PPM
385 site responses with the resonance peaks (Fig. S7).

386 **4.7 Acceleration response spectra and observed damage distribution in the** 387 **Metropolitan area of Izmir**

388 In general, the damage potential of the ground motions on the structures are measured by the amplitudes and shape
389 of the response spectrum. Buildings are designed to withstand forces no higher than these spectral values. To
390 examine the effect of the earthquake on the Izmir Metropolitan area, we compared the code compiled spectrum
391 with the spectra computed from the recorded ground motions. Figure 11 shows the spectral accelerations
392 (response spectra, 5% damping) computed from the NS and EW components recorded at eleven stations, with five
393 and six being located on soft and rocky soil sites within the study area. In the same figure, previous (TSC-2007)
394 and most recent uniform seismic hazard spectra (TBSC-2018) were also depicted. Upper boundaries of the design-
395 level spectrum of TSC-2007 and TBSC-2018 are almost identical at hard soil station locations except for 3512
396 and 3524 stations both having higher spectral values in TBSC-2018. With regards to soft soil stations, TBSC-
397 2018 spectra are approximately 19% percent higher than TSC-2007 values. Except for in the vicinity of the 0.5 -
398 1 sec periods which reflect the dominant vibration period of 5-10 story reinforced concrete buildings, the spectral
399 values of the recorded motions (average of the spectral values at 1s period for soft and hard soil stations are 0.37
400 g and 0.10 g, respectively) are far below the design-level spectra (0.57 g and 0.22 g for soft and hard soils,
401 respectively) of the recent earthquake building codes. Therefore, buildings would have neither suffered from any
402 excessive damage, nor collapsed if they had been constructed according to the engineering practice and design
403 guidelines.

404 Following the 30 October 2020 Samos earthquake, the Ministry of Urbanization and Environment
405 completed on-site assessment of the building inventory in Izmir to determine the condition of the structures and
406 share the assessment reports on the website (MUE 2020) for possible reclamations by the property owners. The

407 spatial representation of the distribution of the damaged buildings acquired from the reports is plotted in Figure
408 11 in order to correlate the soil condition and computed spectral values of the records. Two important
409 morphological features are clearly observable, associated with the high bedrock outcrops and with the low-lying
410 basin structure with thick sedimentary deposits. A considerable part of İzmir's metropolitan area is located on
411 sedimentary alluvial deposits. Furthermore, the notable fluvial degradation takes place in the delta of the Gediz
412 River in the northern section of the Bay of Izmir. During the 30 October earthquake, site response played an
413 important role in the amplification of ground motions on soft soil sites such as 3513, 3518, 3519, 3521 and 3522
414 sites (Fig. 12).

415 İzmir is one of Turkey's major cities, where migration in the last couple of decades increased significantly.
416 Thus, rapid housing demand has been a critical issue in which the construction quality and proper engineering
417 design has been compromised. Catastrophic results of the soil amplification and the inadequate construction
418 techniques were the main issues in the Izmir Earthquake Master Plan (MMI 2000) where the areas have already
419 been highlighted as having the potential for significant building damage (Fig. 13).

420 Similarities between the predicted and observed distribution maps reveal the necessity of considering the
421 local site conditions and also housing demand in accordance with population growth must be explicitly included
422 in the urbanization plans. On the other hand, the assessment reports and observations on the site indicate that the
423 damaged buildings during the earthquake were constructed with low quality material and workmanship which are
424 crucial defects of the construction sector in the developing countries. To avoid further damage, the Ministry of
425 Environment and Urbanization decreed to demolish all buildings with major to moderate damage (as of December
426 2020, 652 and 778 major and moderate damaged buildings, respectively) as well as the surrounding buildings if
427 constructed by the same contractors. The damage distribution due to the earthquake clearly reveals all engineering
428 steps including soil examination, soil-structure interaction in terms of resonance frequency, code-compliant design
429 and construction must be substantially considered in urbanization policies.

430 **5 Conclusion**

431 In this study we provided a complete description of the strong ground motions induced by the 30 October 2020
432 M_w 7.0 Samos (eastern Aegean Sea) earthquake taking into account three principal components that characterize
433 the observed ground motions (earthquake source complexity, seismic wave propagation and site effects) through
434 the earthquake simulations. Although we studied each of the physical parameters and the consequences on the

435 predicted ground motion, particular attention was given to interpretation of the observed ground motions in terms
436 of the site effects that played a particular role in the Bay of Izmir area.

437 With regards to the seismic source, the Samos earthquake was caused by the rupture of a NNE-dipping
438 normal fault located offshore of north coast of Samos. The geometry and location of our preferred model is
439 therefore consistent with the rupture of the offshore North Samos Fault during the main seismic event, which was
440 believed to be active mainly on the basis of its effect on the seafloor (Chatzipretros et al. 2013). The slip
441 distribution obtained from the inversion of geodetic data shows a main asperity (peak slip of about 2-5-3 m),
442 located WNW from the epicenter, suggesting therefore a westward directivity during the mainshock. The seismic
443 moment release is 3.3×10^{19} Nm (equivalent to a M_w 7.0), in agreement with magnitude estimates provided by
444 different research Institutes.

445 Our results indicate that the detailed knowledge of the regional crustal and near-site specific attenuations
446 as well as the earthquake source rupture characteristics, are essential for a complete understanding of the
447 earthquake induced seismic hazard and to better predict the earthquake ground motions in a region. Region
448 specific frequency-dependent attenuation together with the geometrical-spreading coefficient as described by
449 Akinci et al. (2013) are successfully used to simulate ground motions in the study area.

450 We demonstrated that the generic soil amplifications used for the simulations were not adequate for the
451 soil and the site conditions in Izmir Bay where simulations systematically underestimate the observed ground
452 motions at the period range of 0.5 to 1.5 s. Stations located within the Bornova basin are characterized by the
453 largest estimates of the amplification amplitudes at that particular period range that are commonly detected by the
454 three different approximation methods (HVSr, SSR and PPM). Conversely, stations located on the rock units
455 show the least amplification level, ranging between 2 and 4. We have obtained substantial improvements on our
456 simulations by considering the strong resonance effects particularly at lower frequencies ($f < 1.5$ Hz). However,
457 we have used only 1D velocity models to generate synthetic ground motions that do not include the 3D wave
458 propagation effects caused by basin effect, geologic structural complexities and surface topography on the
459 observed ground motion amplification pattern. Application of 3D deterministic approach may improve the results
460 considering 3D basin and topographic effects particularly in the Izmir area.

461 Damage to the city of Izmir exhibits that small-to-moderate ground motions can be locally amplified
462 modifying the intensity of ground shaking. Since these amplified waves may cause structural damage, a proper

463 calibration of the site response is fundamental not only for ground motion simulations, but also for site
464 classifications throughout the Izmir Bay area. The peculiar resonant frequencies of ground shaking **thus** need to
465 be taken into consideration when undertaking the seismic-resistant design of civil engineering structures in the
466 Izmir Metropolitan area, where the annual rate of construction of residential buildings has increased fivefold (from
467 1500s to 7500s per year) over the last 18 years (TSI 2021). Furthermore, active tectonic structures and historical
468 seismicity of the area suggest that earthquakes with similar size may occur close to the city again in the future,
469 and could produce much greater damage in the area.

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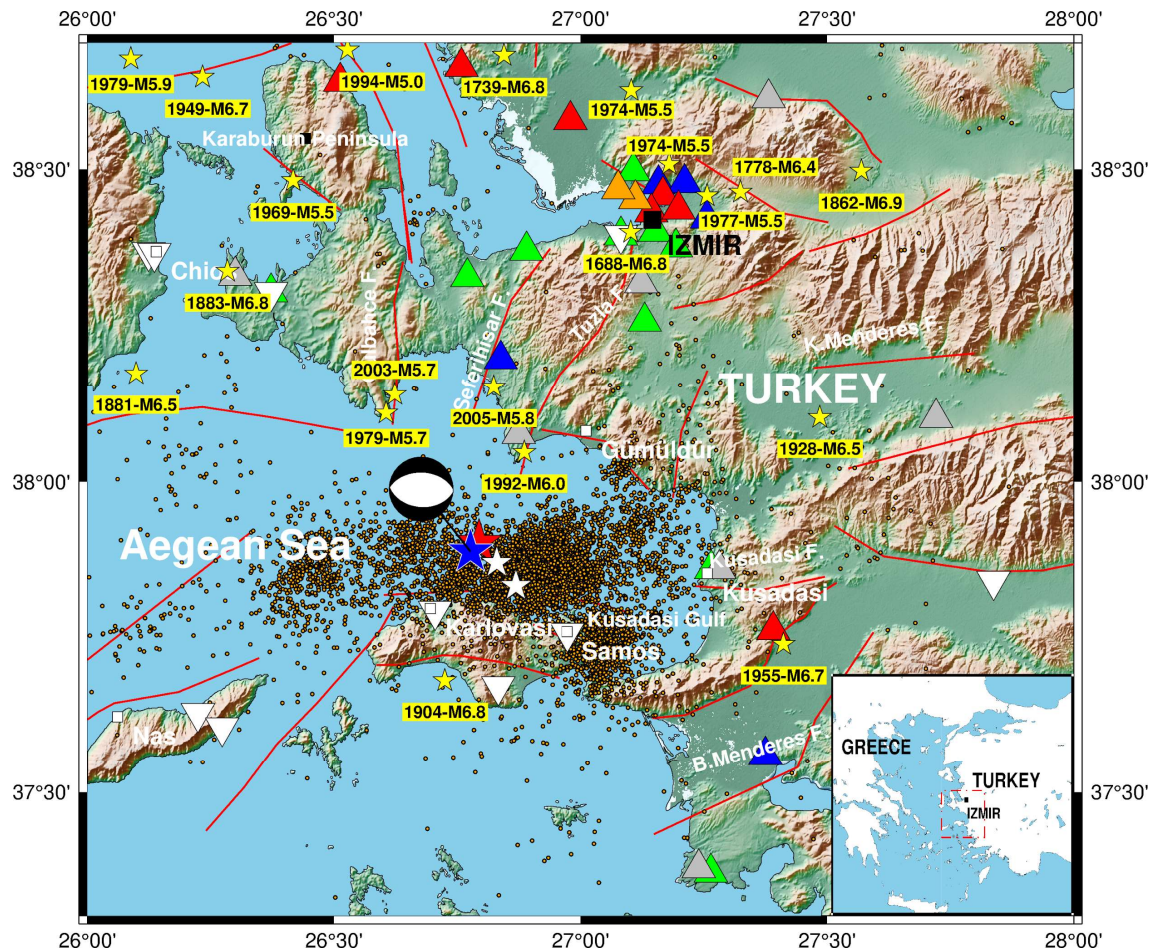
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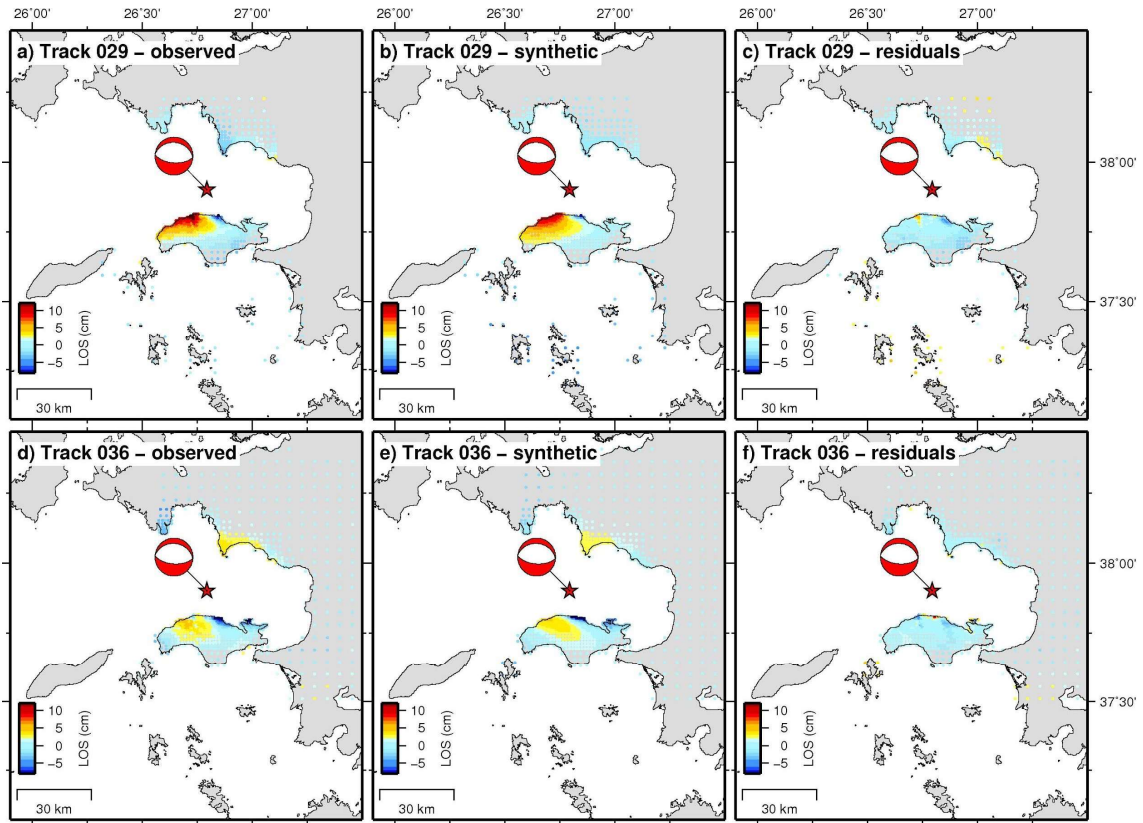
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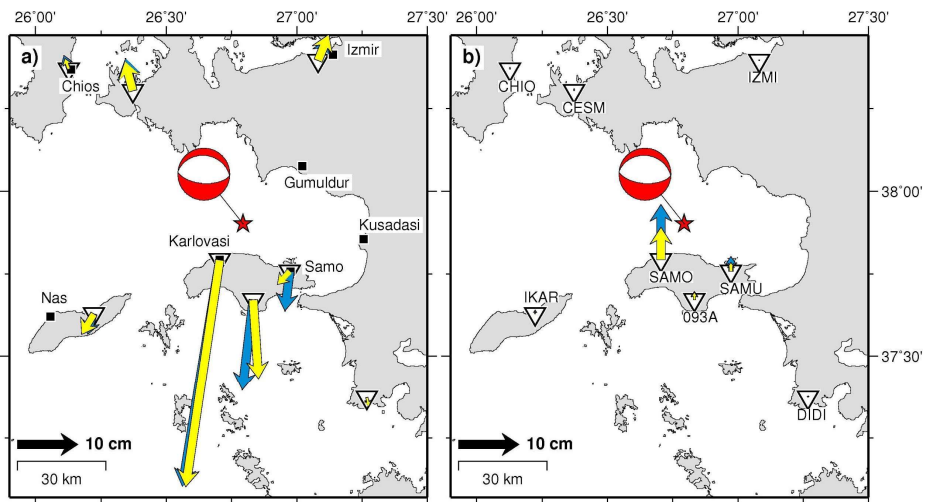
654 **Figure 1.** The Seismotectonic setting of the study area. The solid lines represent the main fault segments from
 655 the GEM fault database (Styron & Pagani 2020). Seismicity: the orange dots are the aftershocks (quick solutions)
 656 recorded between 30 October 2020 and 13 January 2021 (available at [http://www.koeri.boun.edu.tr/sismo/2/latest-](http://www.koeri.boun.edu.tr/sismo/2/latest-earthquakes/map/)
 657 [earthquakes/map/](http://www.koeri.boun.edu.tr/sismo/2/latest-earthquakes/map/)); the blue and red stars represent the locations of the mainshock provided by AFAD and KOERI,
 658 respectively, with the relative moment tensor solution (red beach-ball, U.S. Geological Survey 2020); the white
 659 stars are the location of the major ($M \geq 5$) events of the seismic sequence; the yellow stars depict the epicenter of
 660 the major earthquakes of the instrumental era (from Makropoulos et al. 2012; Ambraseys 2009; Duman et al.
 661 2018). The inverted white triangles represent the geodetic stations, while the colored triangles indicate seismic
 662 station locations according to site classification (A site green, B site blue, C site red and D site orange, no site
 663 information gray color). The red dashed box in the inset shows the area of the main figure. The black square
 664 indicates the location of the Izmit city center.

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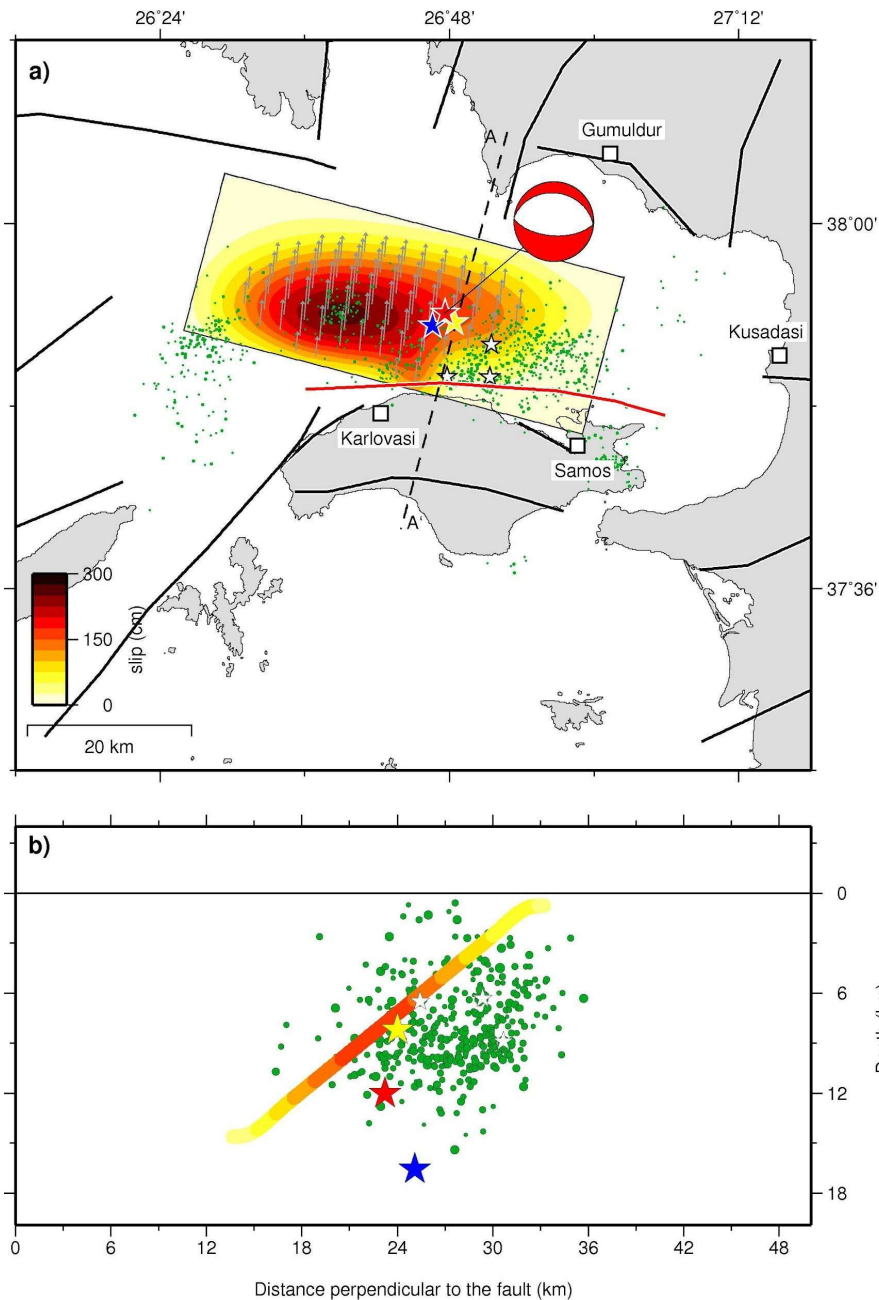
666

667 **Figure 2.** Observed, modeled, and residual sampled points from the InSAR Sentinel-1 ascending (panels a, b, and
 668 c) and descending (panels d, e and f) unwrapped interferograms, respectively. The red star represents the
 669 mainshock epicenter provided by KOERI.



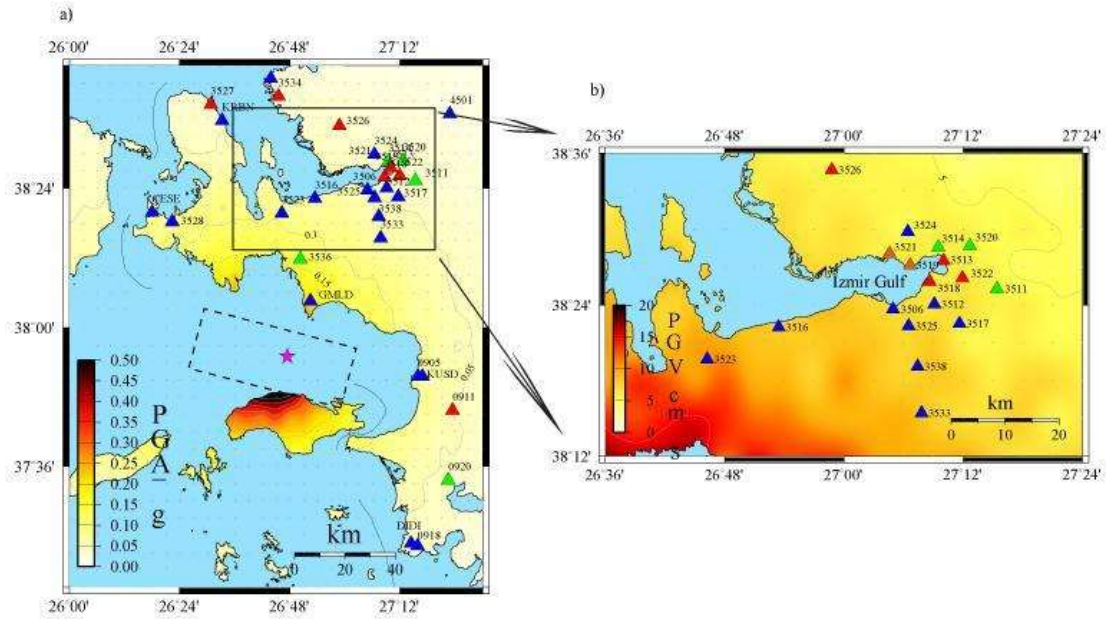
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671 **Figure 3.** Observed (blue) and modeled (yellow) GPS displacements: (a) horizontal, and (b) vertical
 672 displacements, respectively. The red star represents the mainshock epicenter (KOERI).



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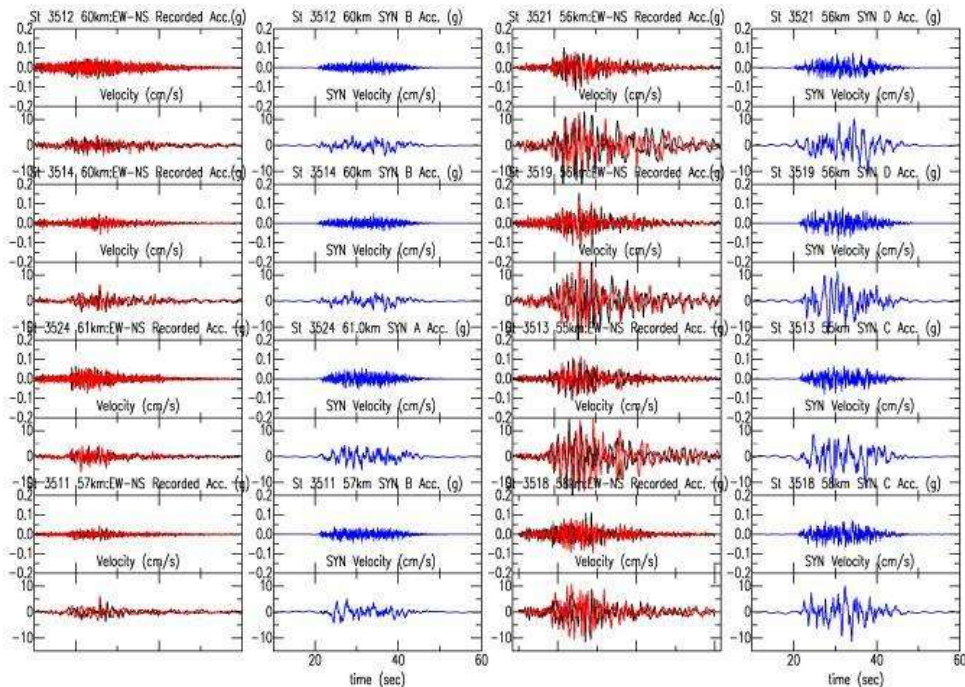
674 **Figure 4.** (a) Coseismic slip distribution on the preferred fault model. The blue and red stars represent the AFAD
 675 and KOERI locations of the mainshock, respectively, while the yellow star is the relocated solution (Cetin et al.
 676 2020); the white stars are the major aftershocks with $M \geq 4.5$. Green circles are relocated aftershocks (symbols
 677 size is scaled by magnitude) between 30 October 2020 and 30 November 2020 (Cetin et al. 2020). The red beach
 678 ball indicates the mechanisms of the mainshock from the USGS solution. Grey arrows indicate slip directions on
 679 fault patches. Other symbols as in Figure 1. (b) Cross section drawn perpendicular to the strike of the fault,
 680 showing the slip distribution as a function of depth and the location of seismic events (symbols as in the top panel).



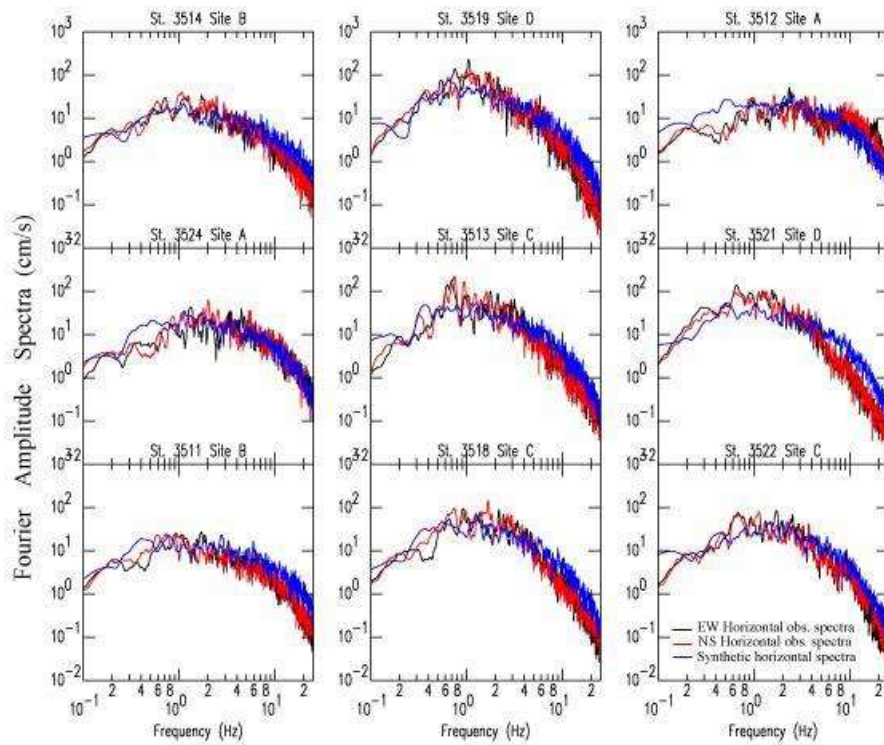
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682 **Figure 5.** Spatial distributions of stochastic ground motion in terms of (a) PGA (g) over the study area and (b)
 683 PGV (m/s) variation in Izmir and surrounding areas obtained using the parameters given in Table 3 at the
 684 engineering rock site, $V_{s30} = 760$ m/s over the 1055 virtual stations located at 5 km grid spacing. Locations of
 685 strong-motion stations are given by colored triangles indicating the type of site classifications associated with
 686 each station. Rectangular dashed box presents the fault surface projection. Star indicates the epicentral location of
 687 the mainshock as provided by AFAD.

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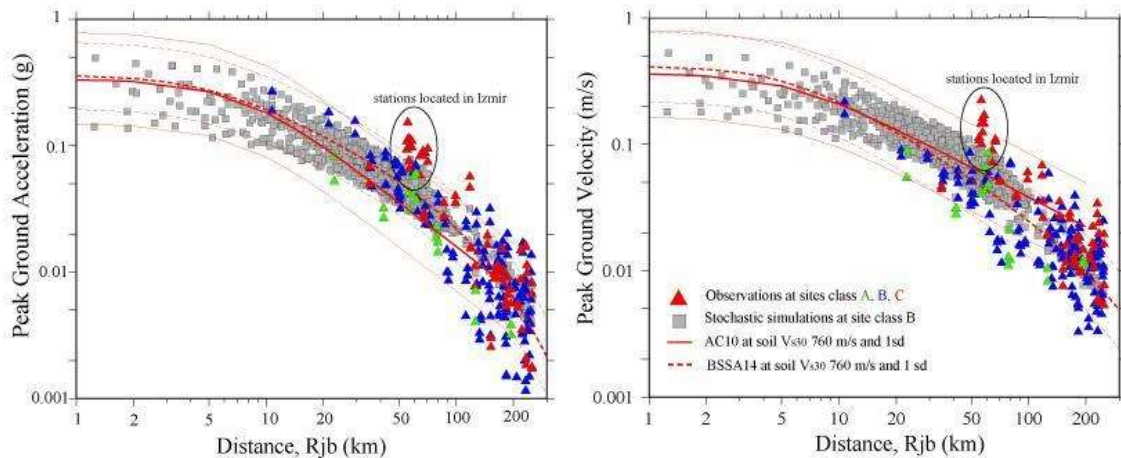
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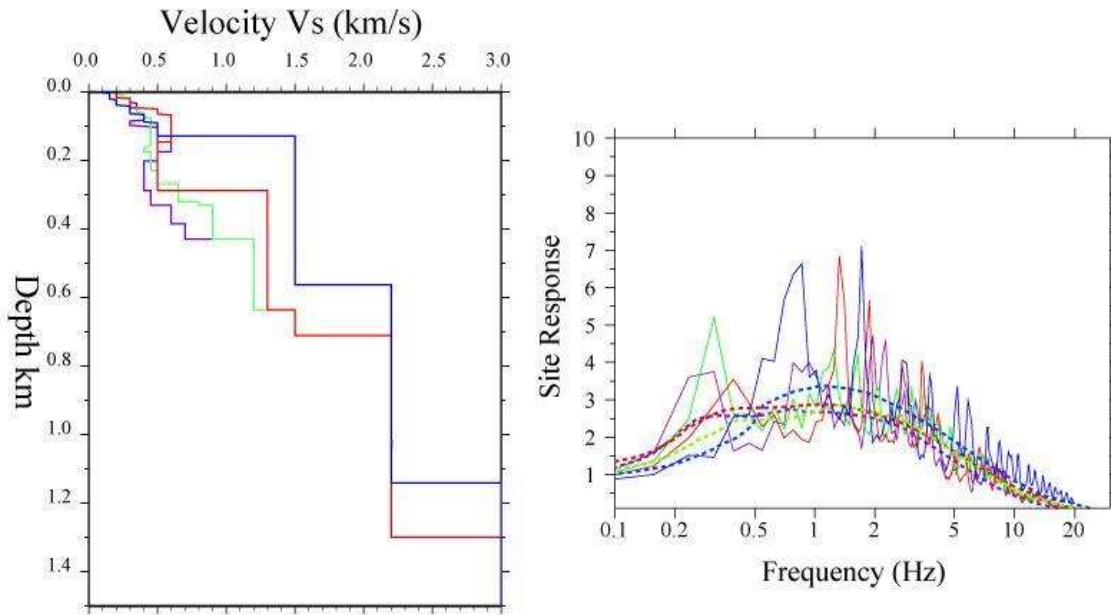
691 **Figure 6.** Comparisons between (a) observed and simulated (SYN) acceleration and velocity time histories and
 692 (b) Fourier Amplitude spectra at selected stations in the Izmir metropolitan area. Recorded horizontal ground
 693 motion data are indicated with black and red for NS and EW components, respectively, while synthetics are
 694 presented in blue.

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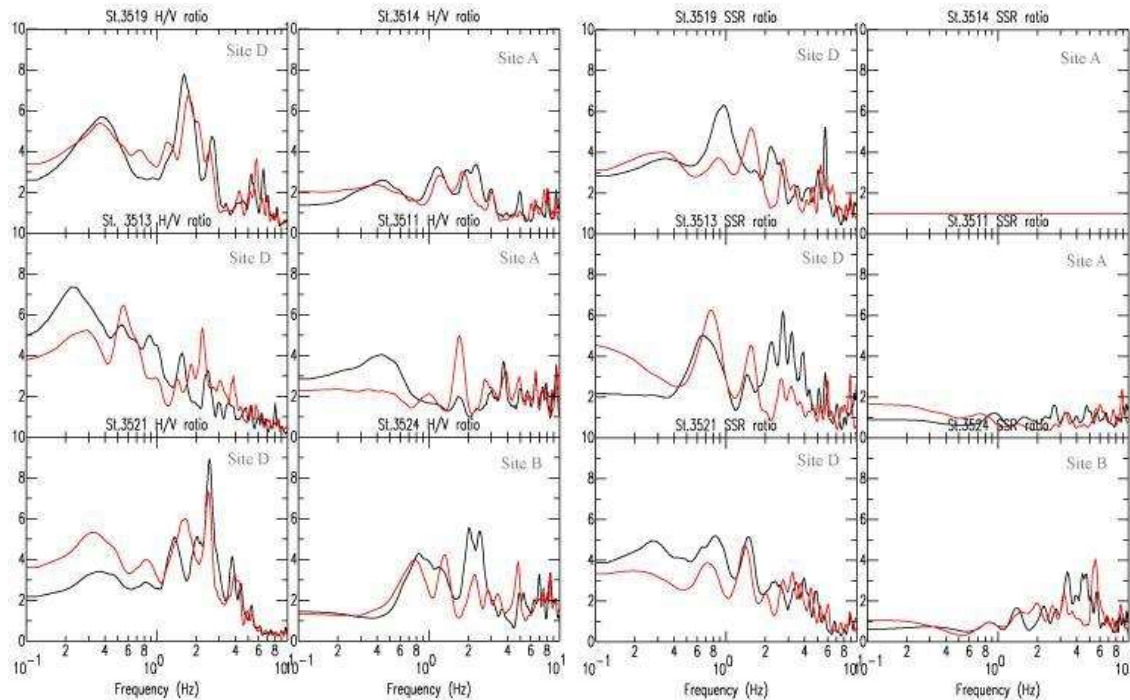
696

697 **Figure 7.** Comparison of observed horizontal (a) peak ground acceleration (PGA g) and (b) peak ground velocity
 698 (PGV m/s) values of Samos earthquake M_w 7.0 at rock (green), stiff (blue) and soft (red) soil site against the
 699 simulated ground motion parameters calculated at 1055 virtual stations and the ground motion prediction models
 700 of BSSA14 (Boore et al. 2014) and AC10 (Akkar and Cagnan 2010). PGA and PGV values recorded by the
 701 stations located in the Izmir metropolitan area are grouped and highlighted in the same figure.



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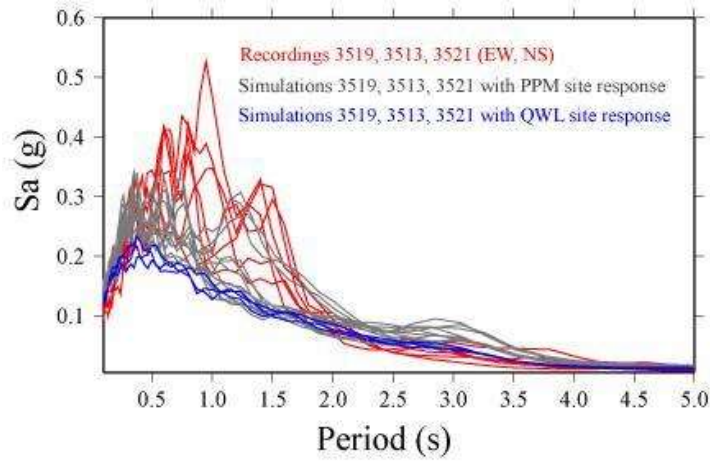
703 **Figure 8.** (a) The velocity profiles S2 (violet), S3 (green), S4 (blue) and S5 (red) adopted from the Pamuk et al.
 704 (2018) and used for site amplification in the Izmir Bay area. (b) Site responses are calculated using four velocity
 705 profiles through the PPM (continuous curves) and QWL (dashed curves) method, for this model $\kappa=0.05$ s.



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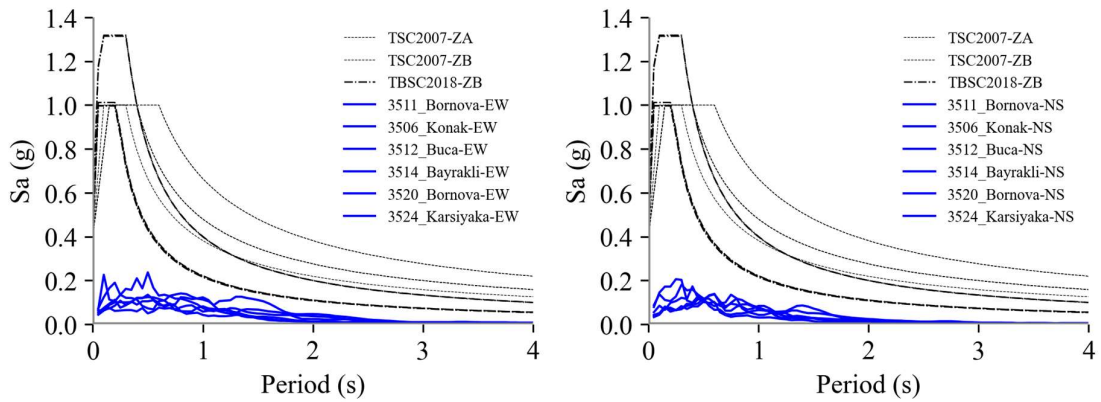
707 **Figure 9.** Site amplification functions together with well-defined resonance peaks from a) the H/V spectral ratio
 708 and b) the SSR Spectral ratio of S waves at six recording sites selected from those deployed in the Izmir
 709 metropolitan area (3519, 3513 and 3521 located on the soft soil while 3514, 3511 and 3524 on the stiff and rock
 710 site). Ratios are shown for the two components of the mainshock, $M_w 7.0$ (black and red curves in each frame).

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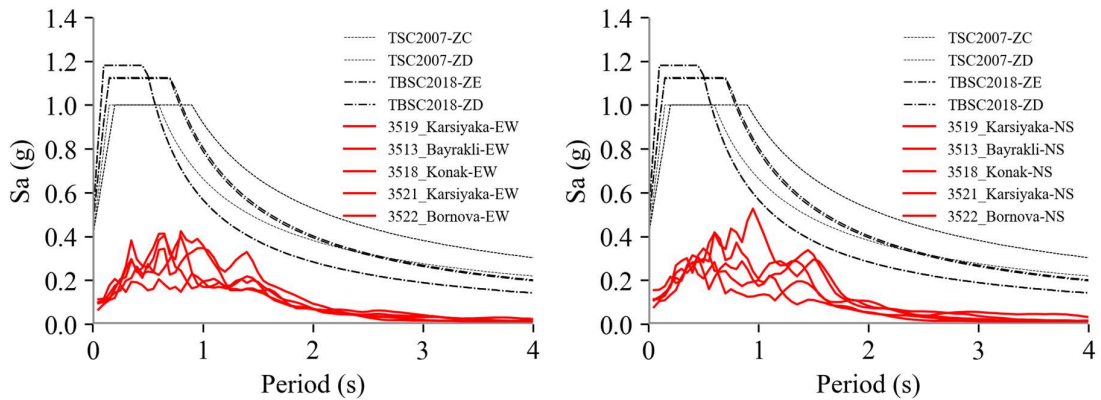


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713 **Figure 10.** The spectral accelerations are from the recorded on the horizontal components (red) and the simulated
714 seismograms that are obtained using the site amplifications derived from the PPM (grey) and QWL (blue)
715 approximations at three sites 3519, 3513 and 3521 located in the Izmir Bay area.

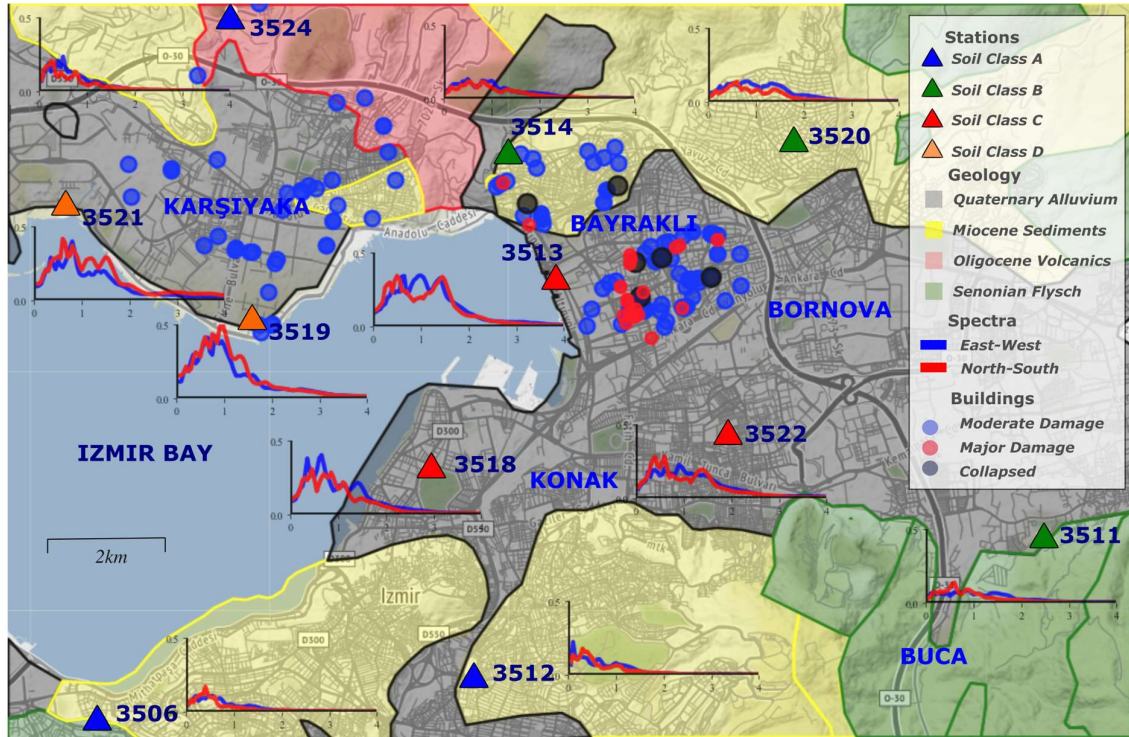


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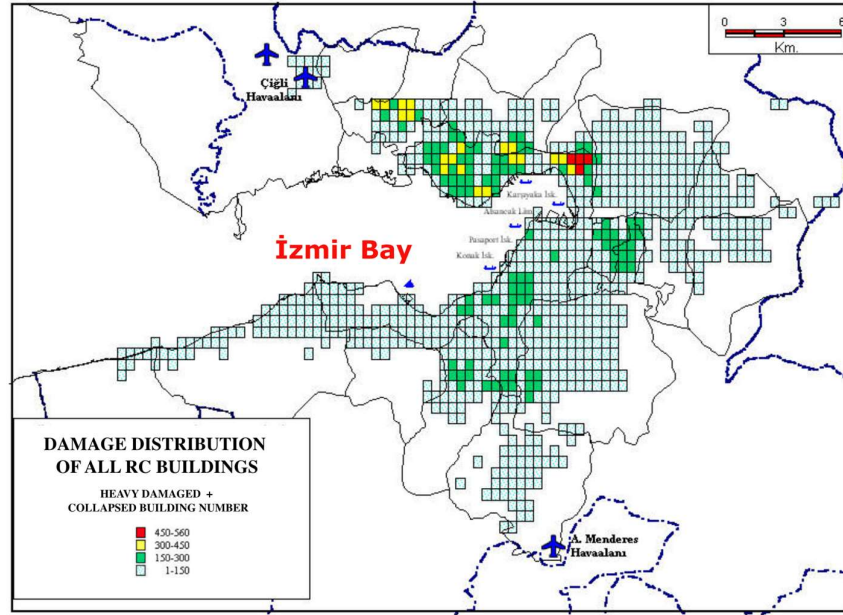
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718 **Figure 11.** Comparison of the response spectrum of twelve strong motion records with Seismic Design Codes of
 719 2007 and 2018 spectrum grouped in hard (blue) and soft (red) soils at top and bottom rows, respectively, also EW
 720 and NS components at each row, respectively.



721

722 **Figure 12.** Distribution of AFAD ground motion stations (AFAD 2020) and response spectrum curves obtained
 723 in the station, building damage (Ministry of Environment and Urbanization), Geology of Izmir Metropolitan Area
 724 (General Directorate of Mineral Research and Exploration).



725

726 **Figure 13.** Predicted distribution of heavy damage and collapse potential buildings in Izmir Metropolitan Area
 727 (English translation of the map from Izmir Earthquake Master Plan, MMI 2000).

728 **Table 1.** Published moment tensor solutions for the mainshock of the 30 October 2020 Samos earthquake. Only
 729 the solutions of the N-dipping nodal plane are shown (modified from Akkar et al. (2021)).

<i>Agency</i>	<i>Moment magnitude</i>	<i>Depth (km)</i>	<i>Strike (°)</i>	<i>Dip (°)</i>	<i>Rake (°)</i>
USGS	7.0	11.5	276	29	-87
IPGP	7.0	14	260	36	-116
GCMT	7.0	12	270	37	-95
INGV	7.0	10	289	40	-69
OCA	7.2	10	275	45	-96
AFAD	6.9	11	270	46	-91
GFZ	7.0	15	272	48	-93
UOA	6.9	13	270	50	-81
NOA	6.9	6	294	54	-65
KOERI	6.9	10	272	55	-93

730

731 **Table 2.** Strong motion stations recorded the mainshock of the 30 October 2020, M7.0 Samos (eastern Aegean
732 Sea) earthquake and corresponding PGV and PGA values. The last column indicates the site classification
733 according to Eurocode8, EC8 (CEN, 2004).

<i>Station Code</i>	<i>LAT</i>	<i>LON</i>	<i>Distance R_{epi} (km)</i>	<i>PGA-EW (g)</i>	<i>PGA-NS (g)</i>	<i>PGA-UD (g)</i>	<i>PGV-NS (cm/s)</i>	<i>PGV-EW (cm/s)</i>	<i>PGV-UD (cm/s)</i>	<i>V_{S30} (m/s)</i>	<i>EC8</i>
SMG1	37.753	26.978	21.5	0.232	0.162	0.137	24.1	18.8	10.6	-	-
GMLD	38.076	26.874	22.6	0.189	0.269	0.128	21.78	17.27	6.43	-	B
3536	38.196	26.838	34.69	0.081	0.051	0.032	5.31	8.71	3.56	1141	A
0905	37.859	27.265	43.05	0.147	0.183	0.081	7.83	8.87	4.54	369	B
3523	38.328	26.770	48.85	0.065	0.082	0.038	5.71	4.97	4.10	414	B
3533	38.257	27.130	51.37	0.047	0.075	0.038	5.51	5.93	3.37	415	B
3516	38.370	26.890	54.48	0.049	0.048	0.033	4.82	3.63	2.43	460	B
0911	37.762	27.390	55.83	0.068	0.049	0.048	4.31	4.52	2.76	307	C
3538	38.318	27.123	56.63	0.078	0.087	0.040	5.47	6.08	2.66	-	-
3528	38.303	26.372	58.22	0.152	0.120	0.078	7.54	8.32	3.62	532	B
3506	38.394	27.082	62.24	0.042	0.045	0.024	3.38	3.15	2.07	771	B
0920	37.560	27.374	64.04	0.031	0.026	0.022	3.00	2.69	1.99	894	A
3517	38.375	27.193	65.29	0.037	0.041	0.020	3.95	3.48	2.10	695	B
3512	38.400	27.151	65.71	0.058	0.059	0.029	3.31	3.89	1.58	468	B
3518	38.431	27.143	68.31	0.093	0.108	0.032	1131	10.64	8.32	298	C
3519	38.452	27.111	69.16	0.112	0.153	0.035	22.52	14.48	4.32	131	D
3521	38.467	27.076	69.50	0.096	0.113	0.041	16.17	12.29	3.86	145	D
3522	38.435	27.198	71.14	0.065	0.075	0.025	9.92	14.79	3.72	249	C
0918	37.369	27.264	71.84	0.032	0.039	0.021	5.99	4.97	4.09	630	B
3513	38.458	27.167	71.94	0.097	0.108	0.045	17.08	14.42	4.74	196	C
3511	38.421	27.256	72.58	0.042	0.030	0.019	3.96	5.96	1.87	827	A
3514	38.476	27.158	73.32	0.057	0.040	0.026	4.21	6.41	1.93	836	A

3524	38.496	27.107	73.51	0.070	0.066	0.030	4.70	5.90	1.92	459	B
3520	38.478	27.211	75.72	0.060	0.037	0.020	4.65	8.36	2.68	875	A
3526	38.578	26.979	78.63	0.083	0.090	0.030	10.82	10.43	3.41	205	C
3534	38.662	26.758	85.96	0.094	0.075	0.039	5.06	4.91	2.63	328	C
3539	38.1022	27.721	86.26	0.028	0.038	0.023	2.68	1.93	1.75	-	-
3527	38.639	26.512	86.50	0.058	0.082	0.048	8.84	7.02	6.06	207	C
4501	38.612	27.381	96.26	0.041	0.036	0.025	7.05	6.79	3.53	340	-
3503	39.073	26.888	131.99	0.046	0.057	0.017	6.68	5.54	1.98	193	C
3537	39.109	27.170	139.87	0.008	0.008	0.007	1.89	1.55	1.58	608	B
3508	39.088	27.374	143.07	0.017	0.015	0.008	2.08	1.69	1.01	558	B

734

735

736 **Table 3.** Model parameters for the finite-fault simulation of the 30 October 2020 Samos (eastern Aegean Sea)
 737 earthquake.

Parameter	Value	Reference
Moment Magnitude	7.0	EMSC- USGS - SLU - INGV
Hypocentral Depth	16 km	AFAD
Fault plane orientation	285° - 38°	This study
Fault length and width	50 x 25 km	This study
Stress Drop	80 bars	This study (best-fit estimate)
Crustal Density	2800 kg m ⁻³	Çubuk-Sabuncu et al. (2017)
Crustal shear wave velocity, V _s	3.5 km s ⁻¹	Çubuk-Sabuncu et al. (2017)
Rupture Velocity	0.8 x V _s	-
Pulsing Percentage	50%	-
Slip model subfaults	2.5 x 2.5 km	This study
Geometrical Spreading Coe.	$r^{-1.0}$ $r < 20$ km $r^{-0.8}$ $20 < r < 40$ km $r^{-0.7}$ $40 < r < 100$ km $r^{-0.5}$ $r > 100$ km	Akinci et al. (2013)
Anelastic Attenuation	180 $f^{0.55}$	Akinci et al. (2013)
Kappa parameters, κ	0.045 s and 0.055 s	Akinci et al. (2013)
Site amplifications	class A (V _{s30} 1140 m/s) class B (V _{s30} 620 m/s) class C and D (V _{s30} 255 m/s)	Pischiutta et al. (2020) Boore and Joyner (1997) Boore and Joyner (1997)

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