

1 **Double-difference earthquake relocation using waveform cross-correlation**
2 **in Central and East Java, Indonesia s**

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12

13 **Abstract** The Central and East Java region, which is part of the Sunda Arc, has relatively high

14 seismic rates due to the convergence of two major tectonic plates in the Indonesian region; i.e.,

15 the Indo-Australian Plate subducting under the Eurasian Plate. Many devastating earthquakes

16 have occurred in this area as a result of the interaction between these two plates. Two examples

17 are the 1994 Banyuwangi earthquake (Mw 7.6) and the 2006 Yogyakarta earthquake (Mw 6.3).

18 This study aims to determine precise earthquake locations and analyze the pattern of seismic

19 distribution in Central and East Java, Indonesia. We manually re-picked P and S-wave arrival

20 times that were recorded by the Agency for Meteorology, Climatology and Geophysics

21 (BMKG) of the Indonesian earthquake network during the time period January 2009 to

22 September 2017. We then determined the earthquake locations using a non-linear method. To
23 improve the accuracy of the earthquake locations, we relocated 1,127 out of 1,529 events, using
24 a double-difference algorithm with waveform cross-correlation data. Overall, the seismicity in
25 the Central and East Java region is predominantly distributed in the south of Java Island; e.g.,
26 the Kebumen, Yogyakarta, Pacitan, Malang, and Banyuwangi clusters. These clusters are
27 probably related to the subduction activity in these regions. Meanwhile, there are clusters of
28 earthquakes having shallow depths on the mainland that indicate the activity of inland faults in
29 the region; e.g., the Opak Fault, the Kendeng Thrust, and the Rembang-Madura-Kangean-
30 Sakala (RMKS) Fault Zone. Several other active inland faults have not shown any significant
31 seismicity over the time period mentioned, i.e., the Pasuruan Fault, the Lasem Fault, the Muria
32 Fault, the Semarang Thrust, and the Probolinggo Fault.

33

34 **Keywords:** Hypocenter determination, 1-D seismic velocity model, waveform cross-
35 correlation, relocation, Central Java, East Java

36

37 **1 Introduction**

38 Central and East Java are part of the Sunda Arc, which has relatively high seismicity and a
39 complex geological system as a result of the Indo-Australian Plate subducting under the
40 Eurasian Plate. The convergence rate varies from ~5.6 cm/yr in the western part of Java to ~6.5
41 cm/yr in the eastern part (Koulali et al. 2017). This has produced several active faults, i.e., the
42 Semarang Thrust Fault, the Kendeng Thrust Fault, the Opak Fault, the Lasem Fault, the
43 Probolinggo Fault and the Pasuruan Fault, as well as the volcanoes that most likely control the

44 seismicity in the study area (Marliyani, 2016; Pusat Studi Gempa Nasional (PuSGeN), 2017)
45 (Fig.1). In contrast with the oblique convergence that occurs in Sumatra, the convergence is
46 normal in the western part of the Sunda Arc up to the plate boundaries at Java Island (Malod
47 et al., 1995). Consequently, the seismic rate in Central and East Java is relatively lower than in
48 Sumatra and West Java (the transitional zone from oblique to normal subduction) (Newcomb
49 and Mccann, 1987). However, the study area still has a potential for destructive earthquakes
50 since the seismic gap that is found in this area threatens the region with potential future
51 megathrust events (Widiyantoro et al., 2020). Based on historical earthquake data, many large
52 earthquakes have occurred in Central and East Java, such as the 1994 large subduction thrust
53 earthquake (Mw 7.6) that produced a tsunami in Banyuwangi. This earthquake was caused by
54 slip over a subducting seamount, which is a locked patch within a decoupled subduction zone
55 (Abercrombie et al., 2001). Another event, the 2006 Yogyakarta earthquake (Mw 6.3),
56 occurred on the inland Opak Fault; the geometry of which has been subsequently determined
57 by SAR interferometry (Tsuji et al., 2009). There have also been other historical earthquakes
58 ($M > 6$) along the Sunda Arc dating from the 1900s that have been documented by Newcomb
59 and McCann (1987).

60

61 Previous studies have evaluated the seismicity in the study area using the Agency for
62 Meteorology, Climatology, and Geophysics of Indonesia (BMKG) regional network. These
63 include: hypocenter determination using a non-linear method in West Java (Rosalia et al., 2017)
64 and in Central and East Java (Muttaqy et al., 2019); hypocenter relocation using a double-
65 difference method in West Java (Supendi et al., 2018), and in East Java (Cahyaningrum et al.,

66 2015); and teleseismic double-difference along the Sunda Arc (Nugraha et al., 2018). Many
67 local seismic networks have been deployed and have also contributed to seismicity and
68 tomography studies in Central and East Java. These include: the DOMERAPI network that was
69 used to comprehensively study the crustal structure beneath the Merapi volcano (Ramdhan et
70 al., 2015, 2016, 2017a, b, 2019); the MERAMEX network, consisting of onshore and offshore
71 seismographic stations in Central Java, that successfully determined the crustal and upper
72 mantle structure beneath Central and East Java; as well as studies related to volcanic activities
73 in the study area (Koulakov et al. 2007, 2009; Wagner et al. 2007; Rohadi et al. 2013; Bohm
74 et al. 2013; Zulfakriza et al. 2014; Haberland et al. 2014; Wölbern and Rumpker 2016); and
75 ambient noise tomography, using both the BMKG network and portable seismographs in East
76 Java (Martha et al., 2017).

77

78 Central and East Java are considered to be the most densely populated region in Indonesia;
79 over 73 million people live in this highly seismic area (Central Bureau of Statistics of Indonesia
80 (BPS), 2012). Due to the potential of high seismic hazard, the investigation of earthquake
81 clusters in this region is essential in order to improve and support the Indonesian seismic hazard
82 map. Therefore, this study aims to determine precise hypocenter locations and analyze the
83 pattern of seismic distribution in Central and East Java.

84

85 **2 Data and Method**

86 We manually re-picked P- and S-arrivals on waveforms recorded at 34 BMKG stations in
87 Central and East Java (Fig 1) in the period January 2009 to September 2017, using Seisgram2K

88 (Lomax and Michelini, 2009). The following criteria were used for selecting events for
89 determining the hypocenters: (i) recorded by at least four stations and having clear onset P-and
90 S-arrival times, and (ii) having magnitude (M_w) > 3 (Fig 2a). To assure quality control during
91 the picking process, we plotted a Wadati Diagram to independently check the linear
92 relationship between phase data (Fig 2b); a V_p/V_s ratio of 1.75 was obtained. The hypocenter
93 locations were determined using a non-linear method in the NLLoc program (Lomax et al.,
94 2000) with the global 1-D seismic velocity model AK135 (Kennett et al.,1995). This method
95 uses the oct-tree importance sampling to produce an estimation of the posterior density function
96 (PDF) for the hypocenter location in 3D. A similar method was implemented to determine
97 hypocenters in West Java (Rosalia et al., 2017), as well as in doing an aftershock analysis of
98 the May 27, 2006, M 6.4 Yogyakarta earthquake (Husni et al., 2018; Wulandari et al., 2018);
99 it was also used in the Pannonian Basin in Hungary (Wéber and Süle, 2014), the Central-
100 Eastern Alps of North Italy (Viganò et al., 2015), and the eastern border faults of the Main
101 Ethiopian Rift (Lapins et al., 2020), among many others.

102

103 In order to have a more reliable seismic velocity model of the area beneath the study area, we
104 updated the 1-D seismic velocity model from VELEST code which simultaneously inverts the
105 hypocenter, velocity and station corrections. The code performs an iterative damped least-
106 squares inversion where each iteration solves ray tracing and inverse problems. We applied
107 the damping to control which parameters of earthquake locations, layer velocities, and station
108 corrections needed to be adjusted. The higher the damping value, the fewer parameters are
109 allowed to vary in the inversion process (Kissling, 1995). In this study, we selected events that

110 have a maximum azimuthal gap of 180° to assure that the events are well localized by the
111 seismograph network and are representative of the subsurface information in the study area.
112 The 1-D priori seismic velocity model considered for this study was taken from Koulakov et
113 al. (2007) as it successfully defined crustal and upper mantle P-average velocity (V_p) beneath
114 Central Java and combined well with the global AK135 model (Kennett et al., 1995) for the
115 deeper part of the structure (> 210 km). We used the V_p/V_s ratio of 1.75 derived by using a
116 Wadati Diagram to scale the initial V_s model. We then randomly generated 10 initial velocity
117 models that were uniformly distributed within $\pm 20\%$ relative to the priori model.

118

119 We then ran the HypoDD program (Waldhauser, 2001), which implements the double-
120 difference algorithm (Waldhauser and Ellsworth, 2000), to relocate earthquakes that had
121 previously been determined using the non-linear method. The double-difference algorithm is
122 based on the assumption that if the distance between two earthquakes is smaller than their
123 distances to the station and the length scale of the structure, then the ray paths of these
124 earthquakes are similar. HypoDD can minimize the residuals between observed and calculated
125 travel-time differences for pairs of earthquakes recorded at the same station. Thus, the errors
126 due to an inaccurate velocity model can be minimized without using station corrections.

127

128 In addition to double-difference relocation, we also used waveform cross-correlation (WCC)
129 data to obtain more reliable relative travel time data. Using waveform cross-correlation data
130 minimizes the error commonly associated with the arrival-time picking process (Hauksson and
131 Shearer, 2005; Schaff and Waldhauser, 2005). This process relies on the similarity between

132 waveforms recorded at the same station. The WCC technique is initially performed by selecting
133 the seismogram with the highest signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) to be the master event of each
134 earthquake cluster as determined by a double-difference algorithm. We assumed that the onsets
135 of P- and S-waves on a highly SNR seismogram were clear enough to be identified. The other
136 seismograms at the same cluster and the same station were cross-correlated and the picked
137 arrival times were refined to the shifted time. Cross-correlation has been widely used, in
138 addition to the double-difference algorithm, to relocate hypocenters; e.g., Sumatra (Pesicek et
139 al., 2010; Waldhauser et al., 2012; Muksin et al., 2014), Central Java (Sipayung et al., 2018),
140 the Nicoya Peninsula in Costa Rica (Hansen et al., 2006), the 2019 Ridgecrest earthquake
141 sequence in eastern California (Lin, 2020), the Alboran slab of the westernmost part of the
142 Mediterranean Sea (Sun and Bezada, 2020), among others.

143

144 **3 Results and Discussions**

145 The hypocenter determination results consisted of the location of 1,529 events, using 11,192
146 phases for each P and S-wave (Fig 3). To quantify the capability of the BMKG network in
147 detecting earthquakes, we plotted both the cumulative number of earthquakes and the
148 frequency-magnitude relationship in the time period 2009 to 2017 using the maximum
149 likelihood method, which was applied in the Zmap package (Wiemer, 2001). The regional
150 BMKG network has a 3.4 magnitude of completeness (M_c), with many more earthquakes that
151 could still be recorded; as compared to global networks such as USGS, which has a M_c of 4.2
152 with fewer earthquakes that could be recorded (Fig 4).

153

154 We conducted the updated 1-D seismic velocity model by employing the selected 154 located
155 events that have a maximum azimuthal gap of 180° and which were expected to represent the
156 average velocity of Central and East Java. This is a trial-and-error process done by defining
157 various initial models and parameters, iteratively. For each initial model, we used various
158 velocity dampings from 0.1 to 1.0, while the hypocenter and station correction dampings were
159 set to 0.01 and 0.1, respectively. This resulted in 100 1-D seismic velocity model solutions for
160 each V_p and V_s . We selected 1 out of 100 updated models that was considered to be the best
161 solution having minimal residual (Fig 5).

162

163 Several earthquakes that may be generated by the same source mechanism will produce high
164 waveform similarity at a common station. Therefore, the waveform cross-correlation (WCC)
165 process ensures the consistency of P and S-wave phase identification. We computed the cross-
166 correlation functions for P-and S-waves using a time window of 0.2 s before and 2 s after the
167 onset of P-arrival time and 1.4 s before and 5 s after S-arrival time onset. We used the
168 Butterworth filter between 1-6 Hz and coefficient correlation criteria that are greater than 0.7.
169 Figure 6 shows an example of the cross-correlation results at RTBI and PWJI stations. The
170 output of the WCC process that was saved as input for HypoDD was the lag time and
171 coefficient correlation. We also used this technique to estimate the uncertainty of observed
172 data, resulting in the average of picking errors for P- and S-arrivals as 0.1886 s and 0.297 s,
173 respectively.

174

175 We applied both catalog and cross-correlation differential time data in HypoDD to improve the
176 quality of event clustering. The weighting of the distance between paired events for catalog
177 data (WDCT) was set to 45 km in the first four iterations; it was then set to 15 km and 35 km
178 for correlation data (WDCC) in the second four iterations. These parameters are distance cutoff
179 parameters used in HypoDD to remove data for event pairs with separation distances larger
180 than the given values (Waldhauser, 2001). The selection of the optimum damping factor
181 depends on the system conditions to be resolved, which is represented as the condition number
182 (CND) (Hauksson and Shearer, 2005). We used the damping factors of 85 and 70, resulting in
183 a condition number between 40 and 80.

184

185 As a result, we were successful in relocating 1,127 out of 1,529 events in the Central and East
186 Java region (Table S1 in the supplementary material) that form more of a cluster in several
187 areas than the initial locations indicated (Fig 7). The average shifting of earthquake locations
188 in X (east-west), Y (north-south), and Z (depth) directions are 3.37, 4.76, and 10.4 km,
189 respectively; with the maximum shifted locations being 29.2, 44.36, and 49.98 km, respectively
190 (Fig S1). This somewhat significant improvement was also statistically proven by the
191 histogram of residual times (Fig 8) which had standard deviations of 0.912, 0.476, and 0.402
192 s^2 before relocation, after relocation without, and with WCC, respectively. The distribution of
193 location errors in X, Y and Z directions are also provided in Figure S2.

194

195 Based on the relocation results, the seismicity in Central and East Java are predominantly
196 distributed in the south of Java Island. The vertical cross-section of blocks B-F (Fig 9) shows

197 subduction-related events that are compatible with the slab 1.0 model (Hayes et al., 2012). The
198 dipping angle of the slab steepens from west to east. Each block represents several interesting
199 clusters in the study area, such as the Kebumen, Yogyakarta, Pacitan, Malang, and Banyuwangi
200 clusters.

201

202 Block B contains the Kebumen cluster where the Mw 6.2 Kebumen earthquake occurred on
203 January 25, 2014 (Fig 9). The focal mechanism of the Global Centroid Moment Tensor
204 (GCMT) (Dziewonski et al., 1981; Ekström et al., 2012) (<https://www.globalcmt.org/>), shows
205 a normal faulting mechanism, while the surrounding events in the cluster are dominated by a
206 thrusting mechanism (Fig 12). Based on the location and focus depth, the seismicity in this
207 cluster consists of intraslab events associated with an intense deformation zone due to plate
208 collision (Serhalawan et al., 2017).

209

210 The vertical cross-sections of blocks C, D, and E depict the Yogyakarta, Pacitan, and Malang
211 clusters, respectively (Fig 9). These seismic clusters are located at the forearc of the Java
212 subduction system and are dominated by subduction-related events with thrusting mechanisms
213 and normal-faulting mechanisms in certain areas, based on the GCMT focal mechanism (Fig
214 12). The steeper angle of the slab causes an increase in the number of earthquakes towards the
215 east with depths of up to 200 km. On April 10, 2021, a Mw 6.1 earthquake with a thrusting
216 fault mechanism occurred near the Malang cluster. The event produced strong shaking with
217 MMI V in East Java (<http://shakemap.bmkg.go.id/>), causing fatalities and damage to buildings.

218 Block F represents an interesting cluster in the south of Banyuwangi, close to the location of

219 the Mw 7.8 Banyuwangi earthquake that occurred in 1994 (Fig 9). The seismicity in this area
220 is most likely related to the subducting plate behind seamount which triggered the normal
221 faulting earthquake at the outer rise of the Indo-Australian Plate (Abercrombie et al., 2001)
222 (Fig 12).

223

224 Additionally, the shallow clustered earthquakes are probably controlled by active inland faults,
225 such as in block A, northern block D and block F, and are associated with the Opak Fault, the
226 Kendeng Thrust Fault, and the Rembang-Madura-Kangean-Sakala (RMKS) Fault Zones,
227 respectively (Fig 9). The Opak Fault is considered be the cause of the 2006 Yogyakarta
228 earthquake (Mw 6.3); the aftershocks of which were still observed in the data during the period
229 of our study. The geometry of the Opak Fault is still debatable, whether the fault plane is east-
230 or west-dipping. Based on the vertical cross-section of block A, the relocated events are
231 clustered in the east of the Opak Fault lineament with depths between 5-20 km, indicating that
232 the fault plane is more likely east-dipping. Based on SAR interferometry observations, it was
233 concluded that the geometry of the Opak Fault is considered to be an east-dipping left-lateral
234 fault which ensures that the hypocenter distribution is in the eastern part of the fault (Tsuji et
235 al., 2009). Several previous studies also support this result and show that the aftershock
236 distribution of the 2006 Yogyakarta earthquake is parallel to the Opak Fault lineament and
237 located 5-10 km to the east (Husni et al., 2018; Wulandari et al., 2018). Furthermore, a recent
238 crustal deformation study suggests that the distribution of these aftershocks is most likely
239 related to the activity of unmapped local faults, instead of the Opak Fault, which are currently

240 accumulating stress in Yogyakarta as the results of an ongoing postseismic deformation of the
241 2006 Yogyakarta earthquake (Widjajanti et al., 2020).

242

243 Furthermore, shallow clustered events at depths of less than 30 km were observed in the
244 northern part of block D, suggesting activity in the Kendeng Thrust Zone (Figs 9 and 10). This
245 is a major fault zone in the study area; it extends for 200 km from Central to East Java and is
246 an accumulation of thrusts and folds (Pusat Studi Gempa Nasional (PuSGeN), 2017). Evidence
247 of movement in this fault can be observed by the presence of uplifted alluvial terrace along
248 with this fault's activity (Marliyani, 2016). Based on their geodetic study, Koulali et al. (2017)
249 estimate the average slip rate of Kendeng Thrust Fault to be about 2.3-4.1 mm/yr. However,
250 whether the seismicity is controlled by the local fault or by volcanic activity of Mt. Pandan and
251 Mt. Wilis is still debatable. In 2015, an earthquake in Madiun (Mw 4.2) caused damage to
252 several houses due to its shallow depth and the amplification effect in the north of Mt. Pandan
253 (Nugraha et al., 2016). Previous studies suggest that this event may be related to the local strike-
254 slip fault (Nugraha et al., 2016; Sipayung et al., 2018). In contrast, a gravity survey that was
255 conducted around Mt. Pandan indicated that a low-density anomaly, possibly related to hot
256 material or a magma body, may have triggered the seismicity (Santoso et al., 2018). The survey
257 suggests that the subduction process resulted in fault movement which triggered a magma flow
258 to the surface at the same time. Thus, we conclude that the seismicity in this cluster might be
259 associated with both Kendeng Thrust activity and a magmatic process.

260

261 There is a shallow seismic cluster around Rembang and Madura in the northern part of East
262 Java (Fig 11) which most likely corresponds to the Rembang-Madura-Kangean-Sakala
263 (RMKS) Fault Zone. We suggest that this fault extends to the north of Surabaya where shallow
264 events are observed. Recent destructive earthquakes have occurred in the RMKS Fault Zone,
265 i.e., the Madura earthquake (Mw 4.3) and the Situbondo earthquake (Mw 6.3), both in 2018
266 but with different mechanisms. The Madura earthquake (Mw 4.3) was more likely related to
267 the strike-slip RMKS Fault, while the Situbondo earthquake (Mw 6.3) has a thrusting
268 mechanism based on the GCMT focal mechanism solution (Fig 12). This suggests that the
269 Situbondo earthquake had a strong connection with the Back Arc Thrust that may extend from
270 the east.

271

272 Several other active inland faults may control the seismicity in the Central and East Java region,
273 for example, the Pasuruan Fault, the Lasem Fault, the Muria Fault, the Semarang Thrust Fault,
274 and the Probolinggo Fault. These have not shown a significant number of earthquakes during
275 the time period of 2009 to 2017. Hence, “unpaired” events that are not clustered beyond
276 distance weighting were eliminated by the double-difference algorithm. Moreover, earthquakes
277 associated with volcanic activities were also not well-determined due to the limited
278 seismograph network used in this study.

279

280 **4 Conclusions**

281 We have successfully determined 1,529 earthquakes in the Central and East Java region in the
282 time period of January 2009 to September 2017, using a manual re-picking process. We then

283 relocated 1,127 events by applying waveform cross-correlation data in the double-difference
284 algorithm. Overall, our results show that the seismic pattern in Central and East Java is
285 predominantly distributed in the south of Java Island, such as the Kebumen, Yogyakarta,
286 Pacitan, Malang, and Banyuwangi clusters. These seismic clusters are subduction-related
287 events that are compatible with the slab 1.0 model (Hayes et al., 2012). The dipping angle of
288 the slab steepens to the east, causing an increase towards the east in the number of earthquakes
289 with depths of up to 200 km.

290

291 Shallow clustered earthquakes in the mainland of the Central and East Java region were also
292 observed; these correspond to active inland faults that include the Opak Fault, the Kendeng
293 Thrust Fault, and the Rembang-Madura-Kangean-Sakala (RMKS) Fault Zone. Based on the
294 relocation results, the seismicity around the Opak Fault indicates east-dipping geometry, since
295 the relocated events were distributed to the east of the Opak Fault lineament at depths between
296 5-20 km. Meanwhile, the shallow seismic cluster (< 30 km depths) around the Kendeng Thrust
297 Fault in the north of Madiun coincide with volcanoes present there, suggesting that these are
298 triggered by both active local faults and magmatic processes beneath Mt. Pandan and Mt. Wilis.
299 We suggest that the RMKS Fault in the northern part of East Java extends to the north of
300 Surabaya where shallow events are observed. Several other active inland faults have not shown
301 significant seismicity, and earthquakes caused by volcanic activities were not well-determined
302 by the seismic network used in this study.

303

304 **Authors' contributions**

305 FM, ADN, NTP, SR, PS conceived the study; FM, ADN, DPS, ZZ contributed to the writing
306 of the manuscript. All authors contributed to the preparation of the manuscript. All authors
307 have read and approved the final manuscript.

308

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313

314 **Competing interests**

315 We declare that we have no significant competing financial, professional or personal interests
316 that might have influenced the performance or presentation of the work described in this
317 manuscript.

318

319 **Availability of data and materials**

320 The datasets supporting the conclusions of this article are included within the article and its
321 additional files.

322

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328

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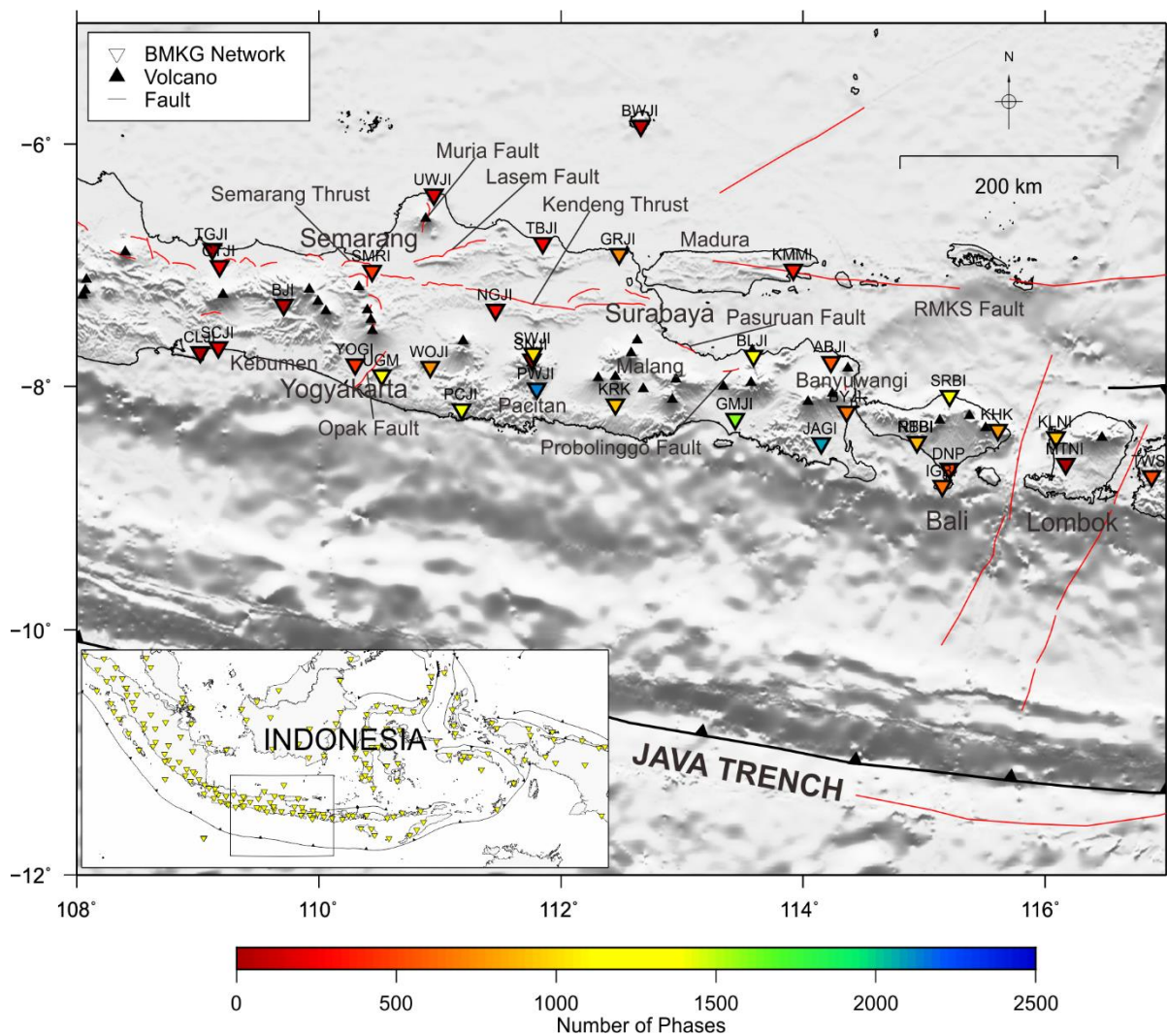
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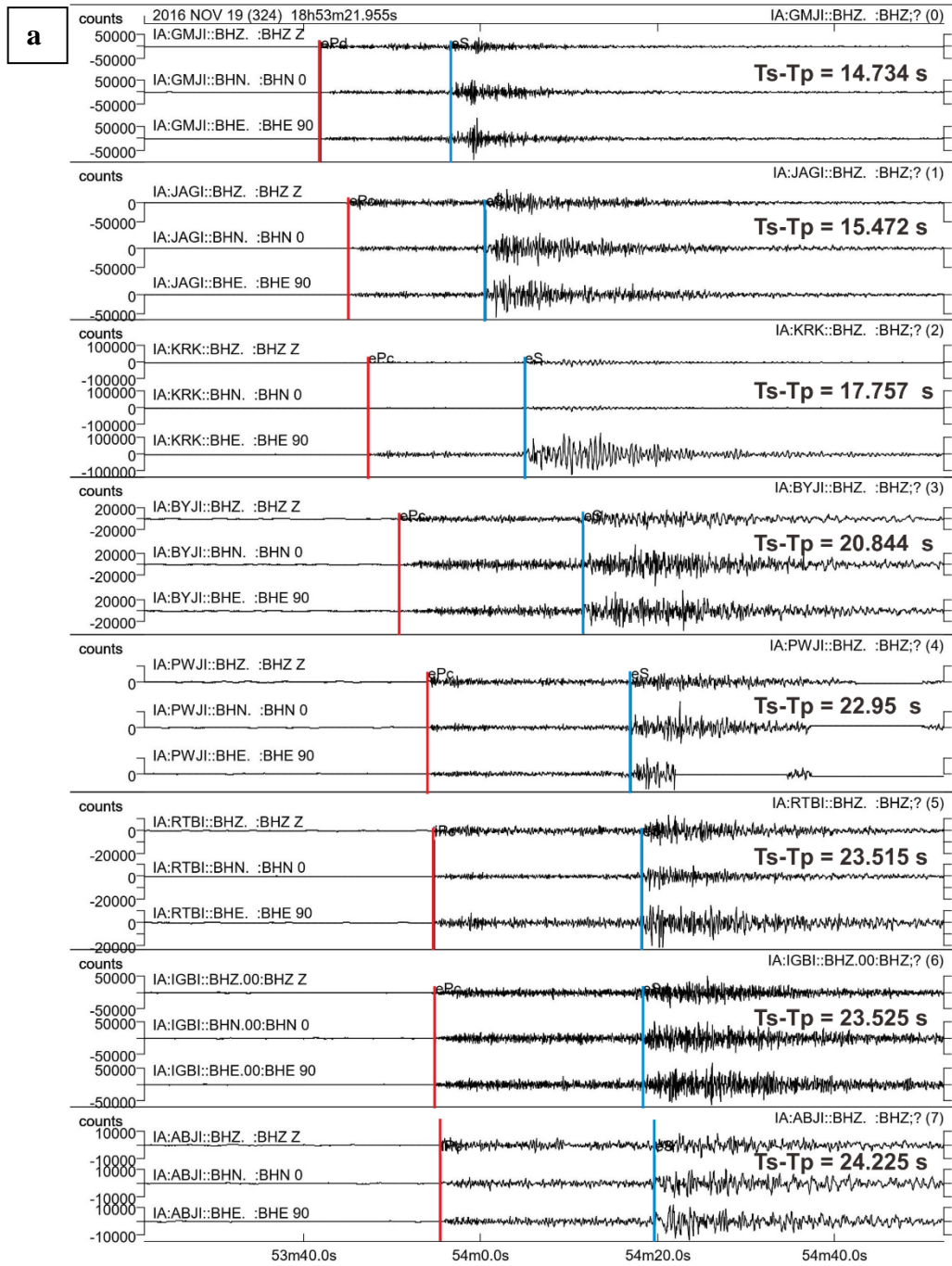
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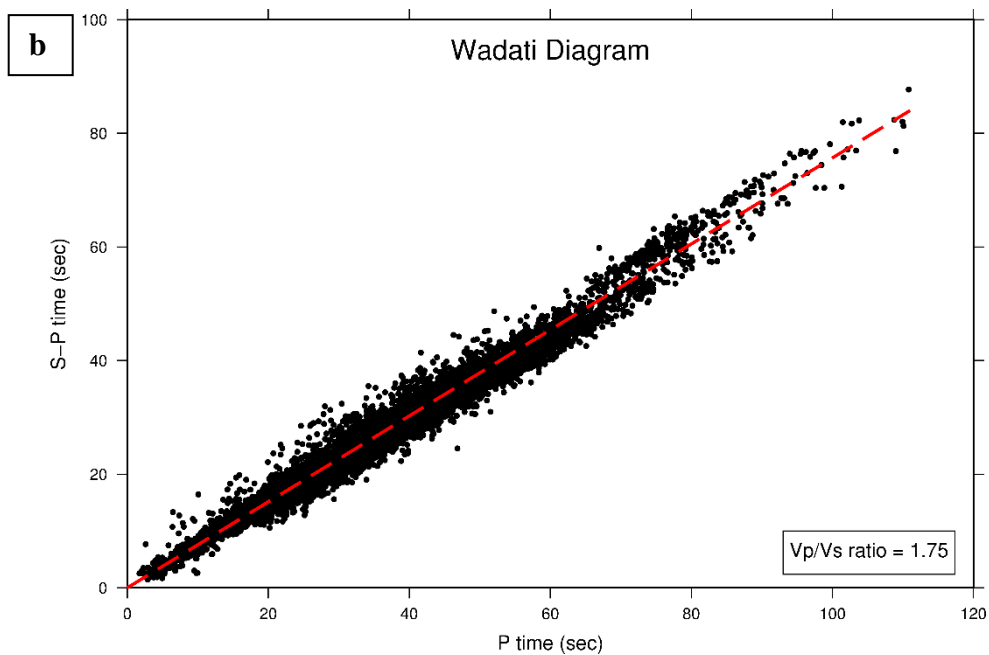
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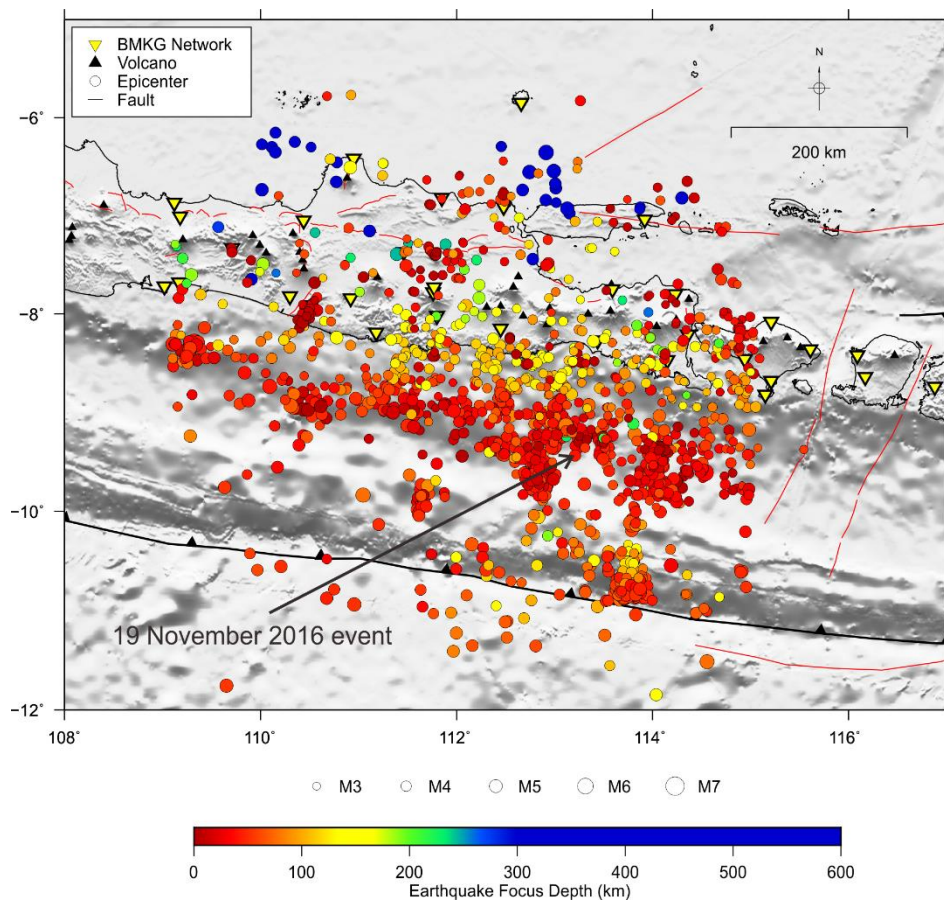
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506 Fig. 1. Map showing the distribution of BMKG seismographic stations (inverted triangles) used
507 in this study, active fault lineament (red lines) and volcanoes (black triangles) (Pusat Studi
508 Gempa Nasional (PuSGeN) 2017). The colors represent the number of phases picked for each
509 station.



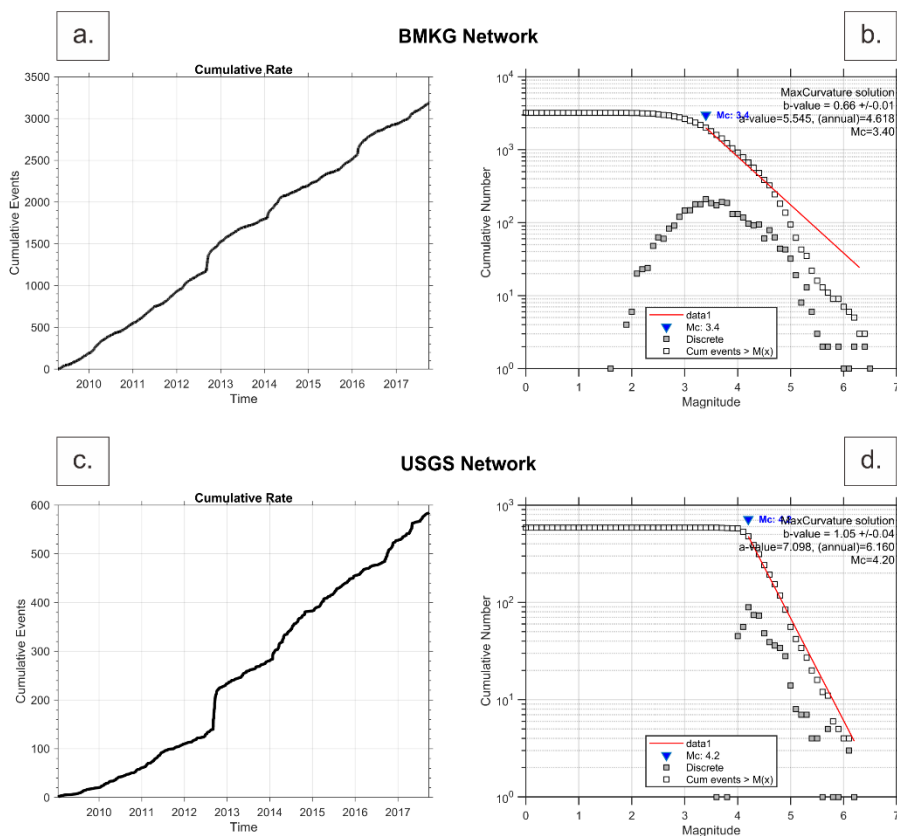


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512 Fig. 2. **a** Three-component seismogram example of a November 19, 2016 event (epicenter
513 location is shown in Fig 3) recorded by the nearest stations (GMJI, JAGI, KRK, BYJI, PWJI,
514 RTBI, IGBI, and ABJI as shown in Fig 1). Red and blue lines indicate the arrival times of P
515 and S-waves, respectively. **b** Wadati Diagram showing a linear relationship between picked
516 phases. The V_p/V_s ratio in this study is 1.75. Red dashed line indicates deviations from a
517 constant V_p/V_s ratio and/or data reading errors.



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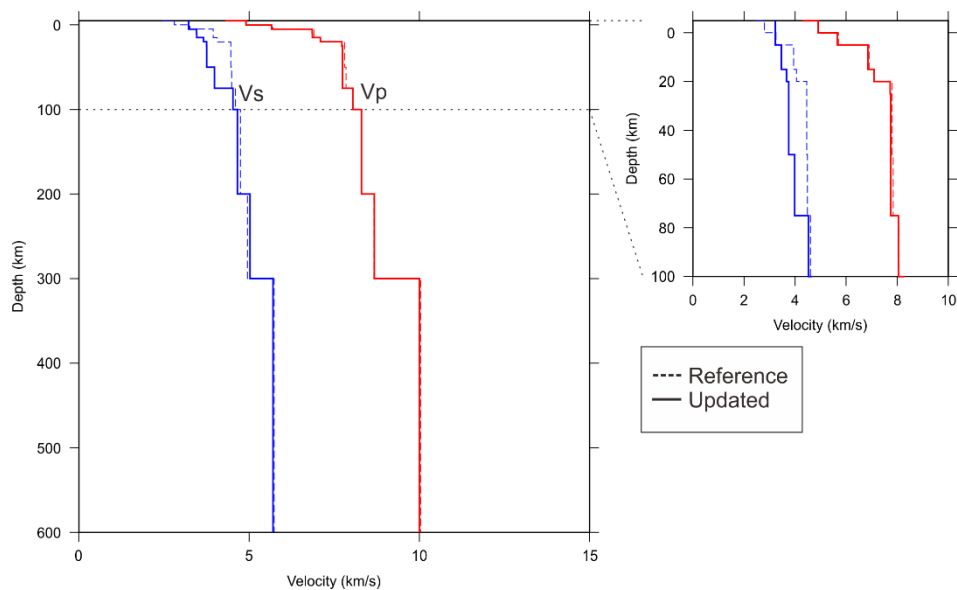
519 Fig. 3. Map of seismic distribution determined by this study in the Central and East Java region
520 during the time period 2009 to 2017. The solid-color circles represent earthquake focus depth.



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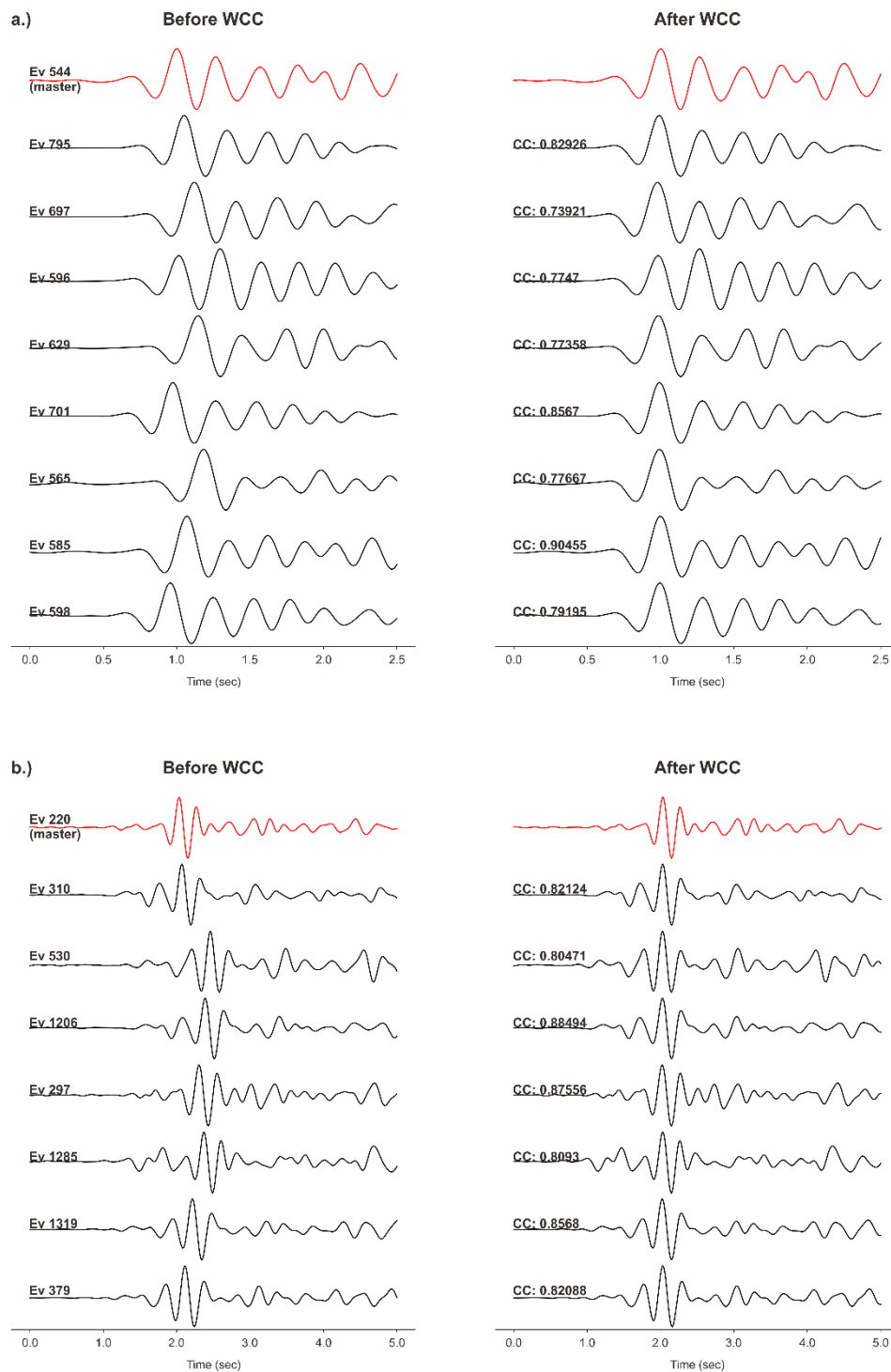
522 Fig. 4. **a** Earthquake cumulative numbers and **b** earthquake magnitude-frequency in relation to
523 the regional BMKG network, compared to **c** earthquake cumulative numbers and **d** earthquake
524 magnitude-frequency in relation to the global USGS network.

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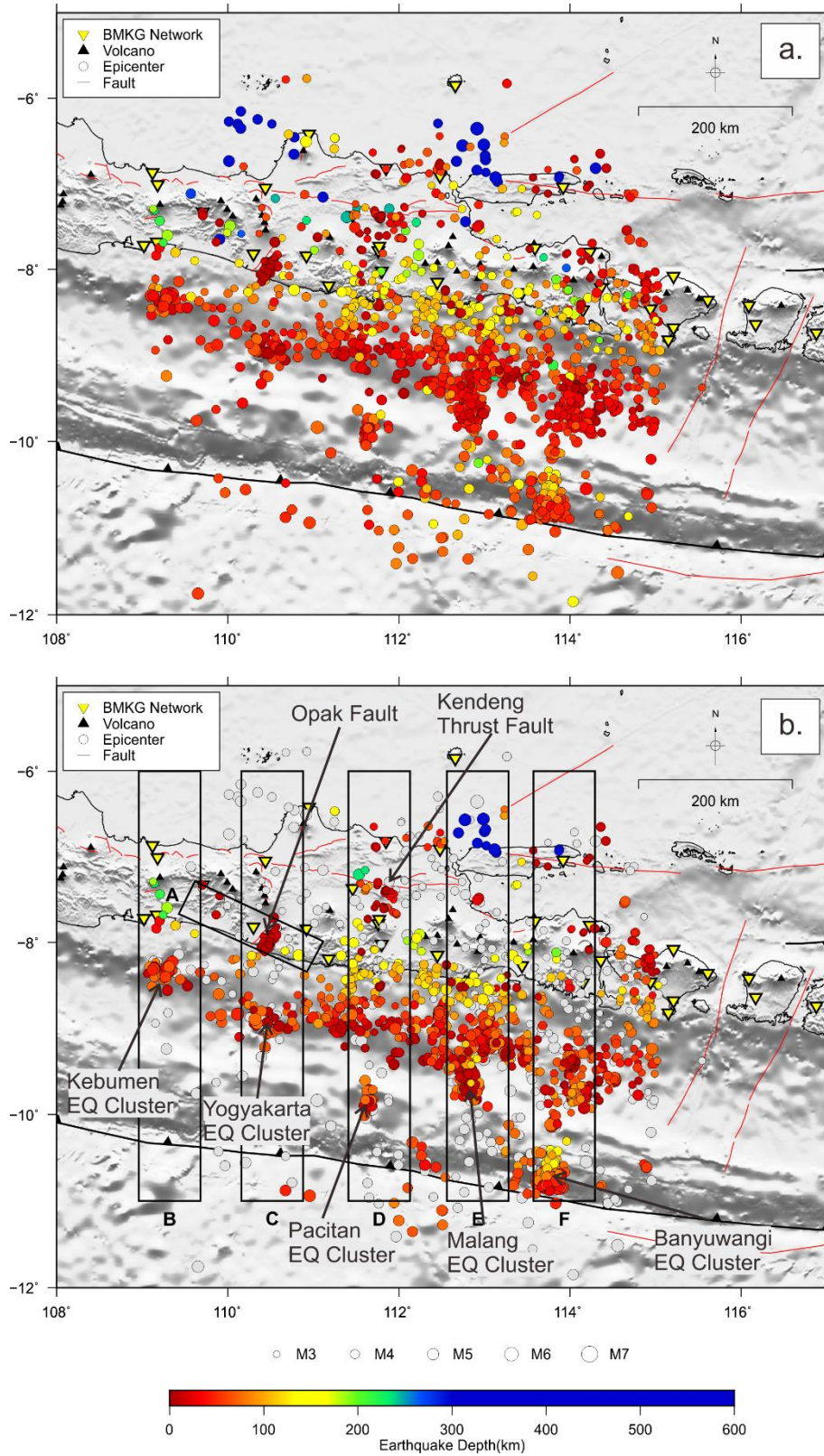
527 Fig. 5. The updated 1-D seismic velocity model applied to the hypocenter relocation process
528 (bold lines). The red and blue lines indicate Vp and Vs, respectively. The dashed lines reference
529 the 1-D seismic velocity model taken from Koulakov et al. (2007) and the AK135 (Kennett et
530 al.,1995).



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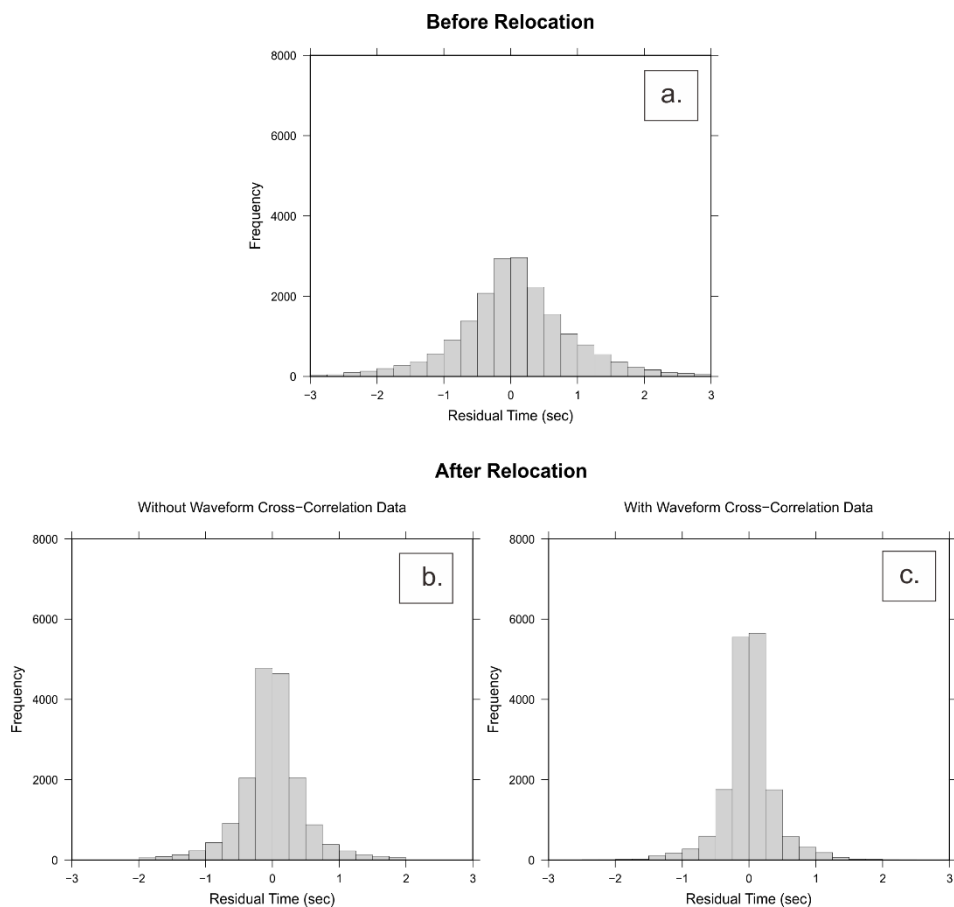
532 Fig. 6. Example of the waveform cross-correlation (WCC) process for events recorded at

533 common stations. **a** P-waves recorded at RTBI station. **b** S-waves recorded at PWJI station.



535 Fig. 7. Comparison of seismic distribution in the Central and East Java region. **a** before
536 relocation. **b** after the relocation. Blocks A-F are the area used to plot the vertical cross-sections
537 shown in Fig 9. The solid-colored circles represent earthquake focus depth, while the grey
538 circles are earthquakes which were eliminated in the relocation process.

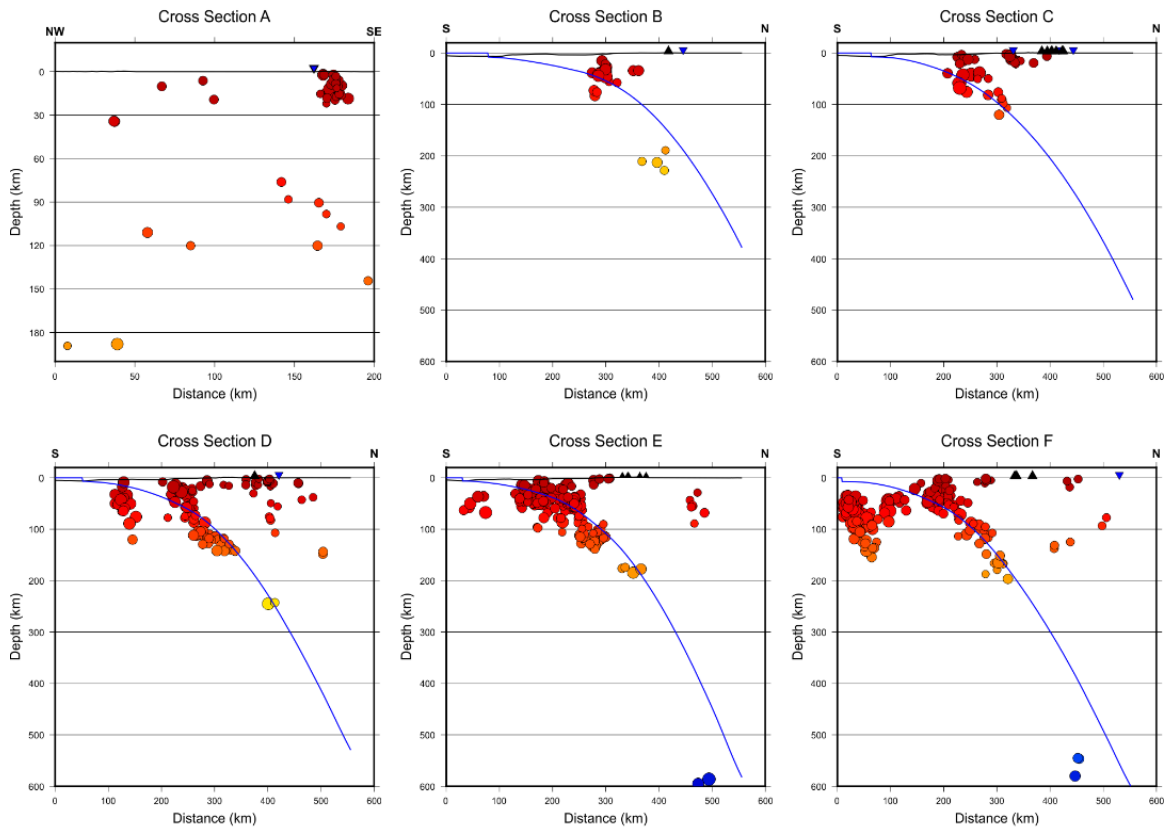
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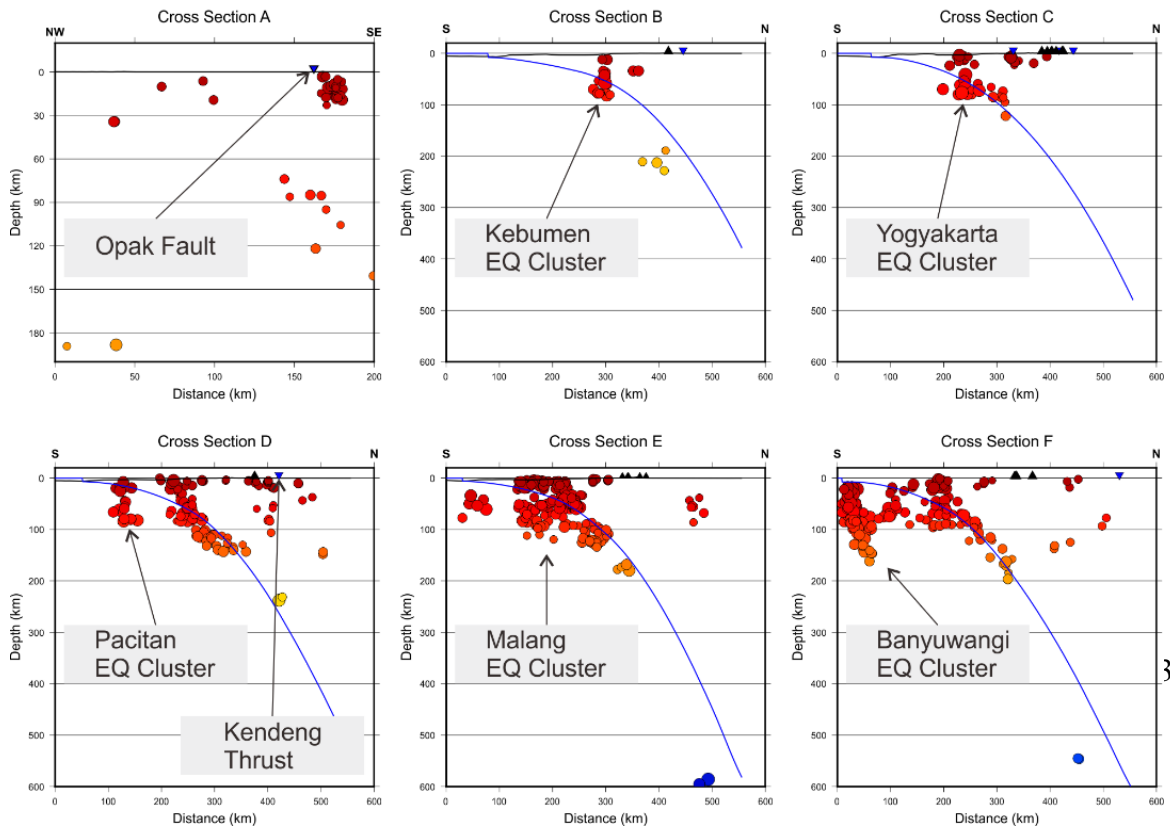
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541 Fig. 8. **a** Histograms of travel time residuals before relocation and **b** after relocation; without
542 and **c** with waveform cross-correlation data in the relocation process of 1,127 events.

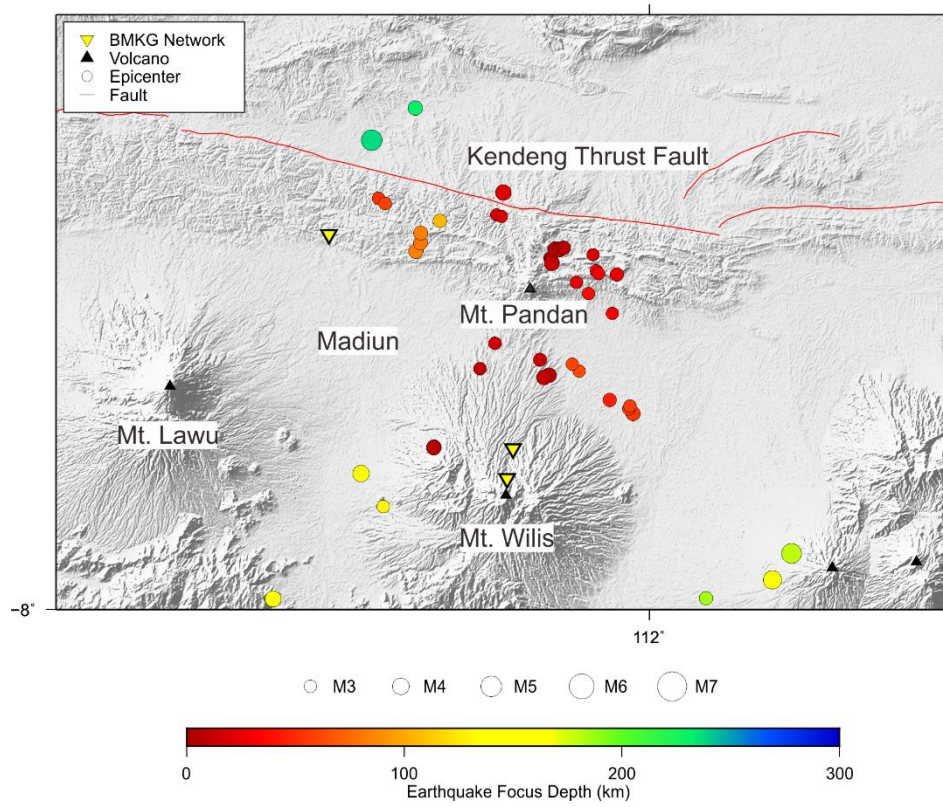
Before Relocation



After Relocation

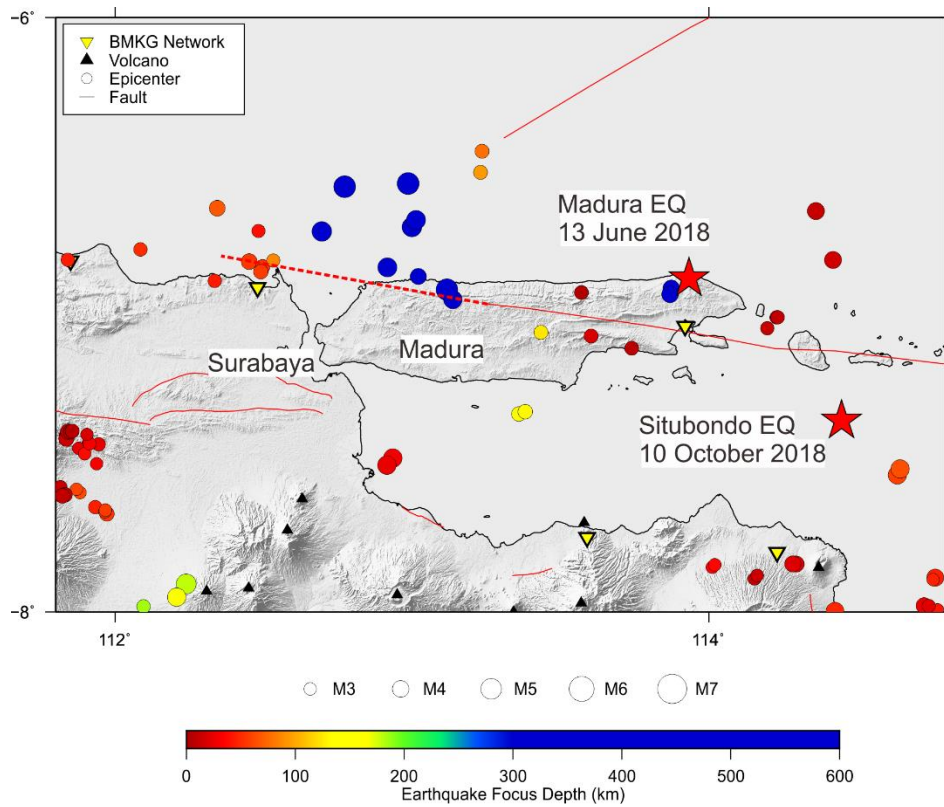


544 Fig. 9. Vertical cross-sections of blocks A-F before and after relocation (as shown in Figure 6).
545 These are along the Opak Fault, the Kebumen, Yogyakarta, Pacitan, Kendeng Thrust Fault,
546 and the Malang and Banyuwangi clusters. The blue line indicates the slab 1.0 model (Hayes et
547 al. 2012).



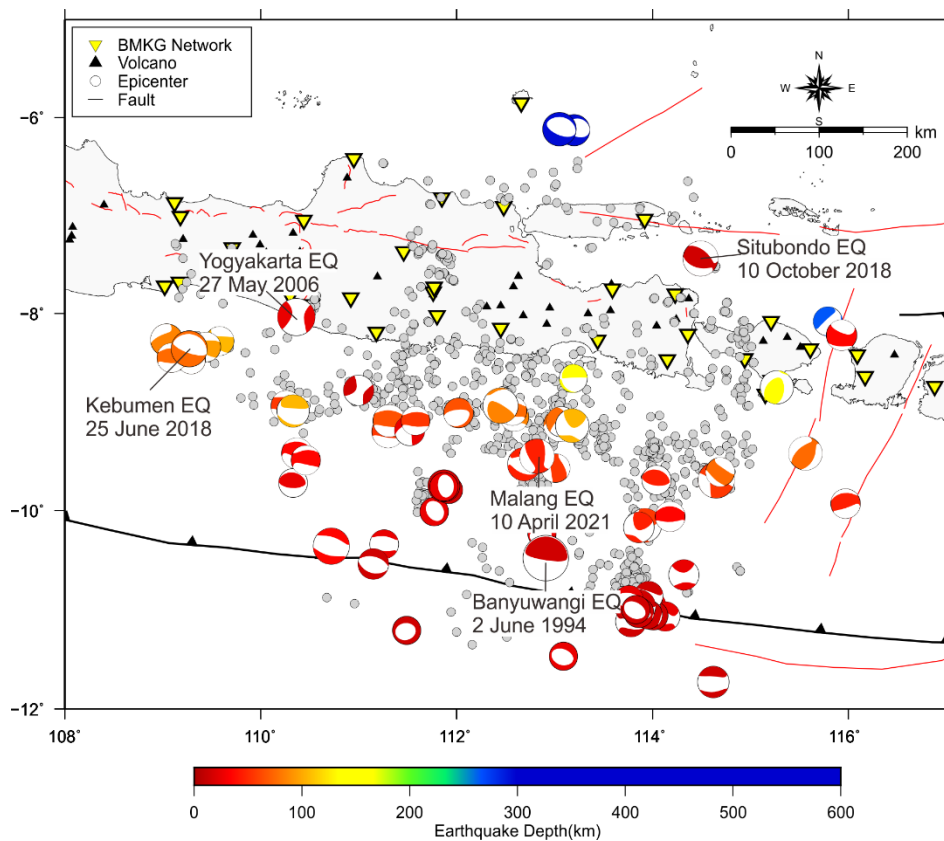
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Fig. 10. Map of seismic distribution around Mt. Pandan and the Kendeng Thrust Fault north of Madiun, East Java, Indonesia.



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Fig. 11. Map of seismic distribution in the Rembang and Madura areas. The dashed red line is a possible extended fault. Red stars are recently earthquakes that occurred in 2018.



558
559 Fig. 12. Map of focal mechanism distribution in Central and East Java, taken from the Global
560 Centroid Moment Tensor (GCMT) (Dziewonski et al. 1981; Ekström et al. 2012)
561 (<https://www.globalcmt.org/>) during the time period 2009 to 2018. Grey dots are relocated
562 epicentres.