

# Risk Assessment at Puerto Vallarta due to a Local Tsunami.

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## Research Article

**Keywords:** Tsunami hazard, Rivera Plate, Jalisco Block, Bahía de Banderas, Puerto Vallarta

**Posted Date:** April 28th, 2021

**DOI:** <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-337768/v1>

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# 1 Risk assessment at Puerto Vallarta due to a local tsunami.

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## 5 Abstract

6 The Jalisco region in western Mexico is one of the most seismically active in  
7 the country. The city of Puerto Vallarta is located at Bahía de Banderas on the  
8 northern coast of Jalisco., Currently there exists a Seismic Gap in the Northern  
9 coast of Jalisco (Vallarta Gap). Historically seismogenic tsunamis have affected  
10 the coast of Jalisco. In this work, the risk due to a local tsunami in the city of  
11 Puerto Vallarta is a function of the interaction between hazard and  
12 vulnerability. We model the tsunami hazard, generation and propagation, using  
13 the initial conditions for a great earthquake ( $M_w \geq 8.0$ ) similar to those that  
14 occurred in 1787 at Oaxaca and in 1995 at Tenacatita Bay, Jalisco.  
15 Vulnerability is estimated with available data for the years 2010-2015 with  
16 sociodemographic variables and the location of government, commercial or  
17 cultural facilities. The area with the highest vulnerability and risk is between  
18 the valleys of the Ameca and Pitillal Rivers, extending to a distance greater than  
19 5.1 km from the coastline and affecting an area of 30.55 km<sup>2</sup>. This study does  
20 not consider the direct damage caused by the tsunamigenic earthquake and  
21 aftershocks; it assumes that critical buildings in the region, mostly hotels, would  
22 not collapse after the earthquake and could serve as a refuge for its users. The  
23 first (It) tsunami wave arrives to Puerto Vallarta (Cuale) 19 min after the  
24 earthquake with a height (Hi) of 3.7 m, the Run Up (At) arrives 74 min after  
25 earthquake with a height (Hr) of 5.6 m.

26 **Keywords:** Tsunami hazard, Rivera Plate, Jalisco Block, Bahía de Banderas, Puerto  
27 Vallarta.

## 28 1 Introduction

29 The Jalisco region, in western Mexico (Figure 1), is one of the most seismogenic  
30 regions in Mexico, with many past destructive earthquakes of great magnitude, some of  
31 which generated important tsunamis. The largest instrumentally-recorded historic earthquake  
32 in the 20th century in Mexico was an  $M = 8.2$ , on June 3, 1932, and located off the coast of  
33 Jalisco (Núñez-Cornú 2011). A few days later, on June 18, 1932, a magnitude  $M = 7.8$   
34 earthquake struck the region again. Sánchez and Farreras (1993) have proposed both  
35 earthquakes were tsunamigenic. Nevertheless, the most destructive tsunamigenic event in the  
36 region was a probable submarine slump landslide involving marine sediments provided by  
37 the Armería River accumulated on the continental shelf that took place on June 22, 1932. It  
38 was responsible for destroying a resort at Cuyutlán (Colima state), causing a maximum water  
39 layer height of 15 m and an estimated flooding extent of 1 km along 20 km of coast.

40 In 1995, an  $M_w = 8.0$  earthquake occurred off the coast of Jalisco, caused a tsunami  
41 that affected a 200-km-long coastline with damage limited to low-lying coasts (Ortiz et al.  
42 1995; Ortiz et al. 2000; Trejo et al. 2015). The 1995 earthquake ruptured only the southern  
43 half of the area proposed for the 1932 events (Singh et al. 1985), suggesting that the northern  
44 coast of Jalisco, including Bahía de Banderas (BdB) (Figure 1), presents a seismic gap  
45 (Vallarta Gap) that might rupture and generate a local tsunami.

46 The BdB region (Figure 1) could be affected by tele-, regional, and local tsunamis.  
47 To date, there is no historical report for significant damages caused by tele-tsunamis or  
48 regional tsunamis at BdB. In the case of tele-tsunamis, the waves reported historically are  
49 less than one meter; however, the hazard exists because of the possibility that bay resonance  
50 could amplify tsunami waves and generate a seiche that could cause much damage. Dressler  
51 and Núñez-Cornú (2007) calculated the bay's eigen-period (resonance period) at  $T = 2,726$  s  
52 (45 min 30 sec) using a hydropneumatic method and a preliminary bathymetric model of the  
53 BdB. Specific sites such as Boca de Tomatlán, Marina Vallarta, Plaza Genovesa and, Playa  
54 de Los Muertos regions in Puerto Vallarta, were evaluated for an incoming wave to BdB of  
55 10 cm amplitude and different arrival periods, and the results vary at the different sites with  
56 amplitudes higher than 100 cm and oscillations of different periods.

57 No important earthquake in the region was reported on March 12, 1883, even though  
58 a tsunami was reported in Las Peñas (currently Puerto Vallarta):

59 "It was observed that the sea withdrew its ordinary beaches to a considerable  
60 extent and at a considerable distance from the coast, revealing some mountains  
61 and valleys in the background... It is not known with certainty what the ocean  
62 brought about in its withdrawal, but after some time, it reoccupied its box with  
63 enough noise and impulse" (Orozco and Berra 1888).

64 Four places in Puerto Vallarta were analyzed by Núñez-Cornú et al. (2006) for an  $M_w$   
65 = 8.0 earthquake to estimate tsunami run-up height ( $H_r$ ), and they concluded that a tsunami  
66 would enter at Pitillal river's valley as a  $2 \text{ m} \leq H_r \leq 4 \text{ m}$  and in the area of the Ameca river's  
67 valley as a  $5 \text{ m} \leq H_r \leq 7 \text{ m}$ . The estimated run-up was imprecise in shallow waters (depth <  
68 50 m), due to the resolution of the information used, because it does not discriminate between  
69 different beaches in Puerto Vallarta. For this scenario a specialized study is required to  
70 generate more datasets that characterize the shallow water marine relief in Puerto Vallarta  
71 because in these areas the tsunami's wave is refracted, and hazards could be increased.

72 The coastal community at Puerto Vallarta faces the challenge of mitigating the  
73 tsunami hazard from local earthquakes. This fact requires developing accurate risk-reduction  
74 measures based on thorough tsunami hazard, vulnerability, and risk assessments. Núñez-  
75 Cornú and Carrero-Roa (2012) suggest that land managers with an adequate perception of  
76 risk could make decisions to prevent a disaster by reducing vulnerability through design  
77 actions based on scientific data and risk assessment theory. Risk assessment consists of three  
78 phases: evaluation, management, and perception. Reducing vulnerability requires mitigation  
79 actions such as sustainable land uses, possible civil works, and population preparation  
80 (knowing how to take shelter to stay safe, etc.). Civil Defense Authorities need to generate  
81 contingency response protocols, determine the recovery and reconstruction actions in the  
82 affected area, and evaluate economic losses in the community due to a false alert.

83 Perception is a critical phase of risk assessment, as decision-makers can create a  
84 disaster based on the misperception of hazard behavior. One such example is the catastrophe

85 caused by Hurricane Katrina in 2005 in New Orleans, USA(Dixon 2015) with more than  
86 1800 fatalities. Katrina remains the costliest disaster in the U.S. history. Another example  
87 occurred as a result of the 1985 eruption of Nevado del Ruiz Volcano, Colombia, whereby  
88 a failure in communication lead to the destruction of the city of Armero by a lahar causing  
89 more than 24,000 fatalities (Mileti et al. 1991). Such a disaster occurs after a catastrophic  
90 chain of hazard and social events (Smith 2013). For Núñez-Cornú and Carrero-Roa (2012),  
91 it is not the lack of information or misperception of hazard that causes the disaster, rather a  
92 disaster results from the inadequate management of socially acceptable risk, based on three  
93 factors: (a) denying the hazard, (b) maintain the inertia of territory without planning, and (c)  
94 transfer the costs of risk to others.

95 An assessment of the tsunami risk for a coastal community is the primary initial  
96 information required for the design of social education programs, and the implementation of  
97 protocols by local emergency institutions and the civil defense both in public and private  
98 buildings (Hebenstrait et al. 2003). Currently, Puerto Vallarta has the highest population  
99 density on the Jalisco coast, and the second largest urban area in the state and plays an  
100 essential role in the regional economic development, mainly through tourism. The 2020  
101 population census preliminary results counted 291,839 (Instituto de Información Estadística  
102 y Geográfica de Jalisco INEGI 2020). More than 90% of Puerto Vallarta inhabitants live in  
103 our study area (Figure 2), and there is an average floating population of approximately 50,000  
104 people during the high tourist season, from October to April.

105 The objective of this work is to carry out a first evaluation of the Risk that a local  
106 seismogenic tsunami represents for the city of Puerto Vallarta. Hazard is modeled from  
107 potential tsunami inundation zones based on numerical simulations of a major thrust  
108 earthquake occurring in the Vallarta Gap. The vulnerability is obtained with data from public  
109 databases. This study does not consider direct damages caused by that earthquake; it assumes  
110 that critical buildings in the region, mostly hotels, would not collapse after the earthquake  
111 and could serve as a refuge for its users.

112

## 113 2 Tectonic Setting and local Tsunamis

114 In Western Mexico, three tectonic plates interact, the Rivera Plate (RP) and the Cocos  
115 Plate (CP), which are subducted along the Mesoamerican trench (MAT) under the North  
116 American Plate (NOAM). This process has produced deformation and fragmentation of the  
117 continental crust giving rise to a tectonic unit known as the Jalisco Block (JB) and several  
118 triple points have been proposed (Figure 1). The tectonics of this region are not clearly  
119 understood (Luhr et al. 1985; Bourgois et al. 1988; DeMets and Stein 1990; Allan et al. 1991;  
120 Garduño and Tibaldi 1991). The JB is defined to the north by the extensive structure known  
121 as the Tepic-Zacoalco fault zone (TZR), which continues east with the Chapala – Tula Rift  
122 Zone (CTR) and the Pacific coast, and continues south to the Pacific coast by Colima fault  
123 zone (CRZ). The CRZ is similar in structure and age to the TZR and is defined on land and  
124 offshore by recent seismic activity (Pacheco et al. 2003). The TZR consists of several tectonic  
125 depressions with extensional and right lateral movements, which also indicate deep crustal  
126 failures between the JB and NOAM (Núñez-Cornú et al. 2002). The western border of JB  
127 defined by the MAT.

128 Dañobeitia et al. (2016) and Núñez-Cornú et al. (2016) found that to the north of the  
129 Marias Islands, there is no clear evidence of an active subduction zone. Instead, faulting is  
130 observed to the west of the Marias Islands, while to the south between the María Magdalena  
131 and María Cleofas islands, the subducted slab of the Rivera Plate is delineated by regional  
132 seismicity. They also report the existence of a 100 km long tectonic structure south of Maria  
133 Cleofas Island, Sierra de Cleofas (SC). The SC is oriented N-S and marks the boundary  
134 between RP and JB, possibly as a result of compression of RP against JB. It establishes the  
135 beginning of the current subduction and associated seismic activity. Urías et al. (2016)  
136 propose that the existence of Ipala Canyon (IC) is related to extension produced by the abrupt  
137 change in RP convergence and that IC may be the southeast limit of a major forearm block  
138 (Figure 1), called Banderas Forearc Block (BFB).

139 The Jalisco region has experienced numerous destructive earthquakes of great  
140 magnitude with epicenters along the coast and inland. The historical macroseismic data for  
141 the region date back to 1544 (Núñez-Cornú 2011). Núñez - Cornú et al. (2018) reported that

142 at least 22 major earthquakes with  $M \geq 7.0$  took place in the past 474 years. Suter (2019)  
143 studied and concluded that the 1563, May 27,  $M_I = 8$ , earthquake took place offshore Puerto  
144 de Navidad (now named as Barra de Navidad), and the estimated rupture area to be similar  
145 to the 1932 and 1995 earthquakes. Suter (2018) analyzed the macroseismic data of the  
146 October 2, 1847, Jalisco Earthquake, and concluded that there were two earthquakes the same  
147 day. The first one, a subduction type earthquake, took place at 07:30 am offshore Tecomán,  
148 Colima with an estimated magnitude of  $M_w 7.4$  (Figure 1); the second, a shallow intraplate  
149 type earthquake with an estimated magnitude  $M_I 5.7$ , took place at 09:30 am and affected the  
150 western part of the CTR, destroying the city of Ocotlán and other towns nearby. To date,  
151 thirteen big destructive earthquakes (Table 1, Figure 1) associated with the subduction  
152 process of RP below NOAM along the Jalisco coast region have been identified. Only for  
153 seven of these, are there local data of relevant damage caused by the tsunamis generated. It  
154 is necessary to add two tsunamis (1883 and 1932-06-22) probably generated by submarine  
155 landslides. However, no geological studies have been for Puerto Vallarta to identify damage  
156 and/or effects of historical tsunamis.

157

### 158 3 Methods

159 The study area is the city of Puerto Vallarta, Jalisco (Figure 2) located between  $105^\circ$   
160  $20' W$ ,  $20^\circ 43' N$  and  $105^\circ 11' W$ ,  $20^\circ 32' N$ . In this study, we present an estimation of the  
161 risk in Puerto Vallarta due to the occurrence of a local tsunami after a great magnitude  
162 earthquake with an epicenter offshore along the northern part of the Middle America Trench.  
163 Risk is a function of hazard and vulnerability for a specific area; in this study, we consider  
164 the hazard is a result of the coastal flood generated by a local tsunami. Subsequently, mapping  
165 the population, housing, and vital facilities located in the hazard impact area is necessary to  
166 estimate vulnerability and risk. It should be mentioned that vulnerability analyses were done  
167 in Arcgis 10.2.2, hazard effects and Risk in Erdas Er mapper 2013, and artwork in CorelDraw  
168 X7.

### 169 3.1 Hazard

170 Aida (1978) describes a numerical experiment for tsunami generation based on a  
171 seismic fault model, using seismic parameters, and shows that the calculated tsunamis agreed  
172 reasonably well with the tsunami records observed at several stations along the coast. He  
173 proposes the existence of a correction factor  $K$  to correct the theoretical values. Since the  
174 time of that publication, several different methods to model the seismic source of an  
175 earthquake using seismic and geodetic data observed from the earthquake have been  
176 proposed (Johnson 1999; Ratnasari et al. 2020; Gusman et al. 2014), as well as different  
177 methods to model the displacement of water generated by the seismic source. (Geist 1999;  
178 Bryant 2001). In this study, we applied the methodology used in a previous study in Oaxaca,  
179 Mexico (Núñez-Cornú et al. 2008), as described below, to model the 1787 earthquake-  
180 tsunami effects, as in this case, there was no seismic model of the source. A seismic source  
181 based on the local tectonics was proposed; the theoretical tsunami waves modeled fit fairly  
182 well with the description of historical damage.

183 In this case, we assume the rupture will occur on the plate interface and assume  
184 dimensions consistent with an  $M_w \sim 8.0$ , which for the Vallarta Gap is an inverse fault plane  
185 of  $L = 150 \pm 30$  km,  $W = 60$ , km, dipping  $11^\circ$  towards the coast at a depth of 10 km on the  
186 interplate region, according to the standard relation:

$$187 \quad M_w = 2/3 \log_{10}(A) - 10.73 \quad (1)$$

188 where  $A$  is the area in  $\text{km}^2$  (Utsu and Seki 1954; Wyss 1979; Singh et al. 1980).. The total  
189 area was integrated in segments of individual subareas,  $A_i = 30 \times 30 \text{ km}^2$ . Twelve  
190 segments were used (Figure 3).

191 The seismic moment  $Mo_i$  of each of the segments was adjusted individually by  
192 varying the coseismic dislocation ( $d_i$ ) from to the relationship

$$193 \quad Mo_i = \mu A_i d_i \quad (2)$$

194 to fit the moment magnitude of the earthquake ( $M_w$ ) (Hanks and Kanamori 1979). Moment  
195 estimates assume a rigidity modulus

196 
$$\mu = 5 \times 10^{11} \text{ dyn/cm}^2 \quad (3)$$

197 which has been used previously for this region by various authors:

198 
$$M_w = 2/3 \log_{10}(\sum_{i=1}^{12} M_{0i}) - 10.73 \quad (4).$$

199 The coseismic vertical deformation of the seafloor as produced by the buried fault  
 200 plane is computed by using the dislocation model of Mansinha and Smylie (1971) by  
 201 prescribing a reverse fault mechanism on each one of the segments. Increasing the  $d_i$  value  
 202 will increase the value of the  $M_{0i}$  and the  $M_w$ . For the initial tsunami condition, the sea-level  
 203 change is taken to be the same as the seafloor uplift calculated from the dislocation model.

204 The propagation of the tsunami is simulated by the vertically integrated longwave  
 205 equations (Pedlosky 1982):

206 
$$\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} + \bar{\nabla} \cdot M = 0 \quad (5)$$

207 
$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial t} + g h \bar{\nabla} \eta = 0 \quad (6).$$

208 In these equations,  $t$  is time,  $\eta$  is the vertical displacement of the water surface above the  
 209 equipotential level,  $h$  is the depth of the water column,  $g$  is gravitational acceleration, and  $M$   
 210 is the vector of the discharge fluxes in longitudinal and latitudinal directions. These equations  
 211 are solved in a spherical coordinate system by the method of finite differences with the Leap-  
 212 Frog scheme (Goto et al. 1997). For computation, the step time was set to 1 s, and the grid  
 213 spacing of 27 s was used for the whole region, whereas a grid spacing of 3 s was used to  
 214 describe the shallow areas. For nearshore bathymetry in the study region, from 1000 m depth  
 215 to the coast, we used data from local navigational charts (SEMAR 2011). No detailed  
 216 bathymetry of BdB was available (scale 1:4,000 or high). While for depths greater than 1000  
 217 m, we used data from the ETOPO-2 data set (Smith and Sandwell 1997).

218 This model generated theoretical tsunami waveforms and arrival times, which were  
 219 computed along the coast in 24 virtual gauge sensors (theoretical pressure sensors or VTG)  
 220 off the coast of the Nayarit, Jalisco, and Colima states, at depths of 10 m (Figure 3). The

221 tsunami amplification factor because of shoaling from 10 m depth up to the coast is  
222 practically negligible and ranges from 1 to 2%. To measure the maximum flood area due to  
223 run-up, a digital terrain elevation model (DTM) was generated on land, with cells of 4 m<sup>2</sup>,  
224 that was interpolated from the DTM obtained by photogrammetry at the year 2000 (Núñez-  
225 Cornú et al. 2006). This DTM allows us to map elevation values equivalents to the run-up  
226 model. Tsunami hazard calculated for a scenario of maximum flooding in high tide and  
227 tsunami's model. Different zones were delimited to match altitude values at Puerto Vallarta's  
228 coast with synthetic tsunami waveforms and local tide variation, around +1 m, based on tidal  
229 forecasts by Centro de Investigación Científica y de Educación Superior de Ensenada, Baja  
230 California (CICESE 2016) for Puerto Vallarta for the years 2012, 2013 and 2016.

### 231 3.2 Vulnerability

232 We follow the same methodologies used by Núñez-Cornú et al. (2006) and Suárez-  
233 Plascencia et al. (2008) for the previous city's vulnerability studies, natural hazard's atlas  
234 and, disaster's reports in México (Guzman et al. 2003; Simioni 2003; Rosales et al. 2004;  
235 García et al. 2014). Extensive information concerning people, homes, and facilities in our  
236 study area was available from different online platforms, whether governmental or private  
237 because Puerto Vallarta is a city. Data used, such as people and housing, are from different  
238 platforms as Consejo Nacional de Población (CONAPO 2012), Instituto Nacional de  
239 Estadística y Geografía (INEGI 2010; 2012; 2013; 2015). Some facilities data in the studied  
240 area were updated using Google (2015) application.

241 The analysis in this study consisted of determining population attributes and locations  
242 of government offices or facilities that indicate Puerto Vallarta's vulnerability in the affected  
243 area by the local tsunami hazard. We included census information of 214 Basic Geostatistical  
244 Areas (AGEB as defined by INEGI) and of five rural localities (less than 2,500 inhabitants,  
245 Figure 2) for the whole of Puerto Vallarta county.

246 According to Guzman et al. (2003), it is necessary to estimate the population affected  
247 if the hazard occurs, for that reason the population projection in the affected area to the year  
248 2015 was calculated, assuming that the growth was natural, the following equation was used;

249 
$$C = P(e^{r \cdot t}) \tag{7}$$

250 where  $C$  is the exponential growth of the population susceptible to hazard,  $P$  number of  
251 inhabitants registered in the last census,  $e$  is Euler's number,  $r$  is the population growth rate  
252 and  $t$  is the time in a year, concerning the last available census.

253 The equation used to project five years after the last available census to know the  
254 annual projection data of population growth at the municipal level and assuming that the  
255 population grows continuously and slowly, the latter supposes that there are no mass  
256 migratory movements after the available census records. The municipality's growth rates for  
257 the years 2010 to 2015, calculated by CONAPO (2012), we used in the population projection  
258 equation; it was necessary because the following census data will be after the year 2020.

259 We used a vectorial geographical information system (GIS) to calculate  $z$  statistic in  
260 population data (Wheather and Cook 2000; Mendenhall et al. 2013), with these values, it was  
261 possible to compare different AGEBS per vulnerabilities (attributes) in the affected area.  
262 Furthermore, the vulnerability of the population was analyzed according to the age range  
263 (Table 2) with different factors or criterion scores (Gómez and Barredo 2006) for prioritizing  
264 the vulnerability age group. Only for this information layer and before  $z$  statistic was  
265 calculated, different experiments were carried out to observe which values highlighted the  
266 most vulnerable age groups. High value was for the population less than six years old,  
267 followed by older adults and populations with special needs (limited range of motion or  
268 learning), with the assumption that in these population categories, support would be needed  
269 for transport or with precise instructions to facilitate their movement to a shelter.

270 Other population attributes are also observed as the type of housing and availability  
271 of services such as electricity and potable water services, internet, and computer availability,  
272 these do not represent significant differences in affected AGEBS, and therefore they are not  
273 used in the final maps.

274 We also located within the county, the vulnerable facilities that in case of  
275 contingency, it is necessary to keep them in operation, like bridges, shopping centers (supply  
276 of food), schools, communications, and transportation. Facilities were located in GIS and

277 then were reclassified as high vulnerability. In the same way, we added a layer for overall  
278 average damages to household goods for affected tsunami areas. The total vulnerability in  
279 each AGEB is evaluated in eight information layers or vulnerability criteria, which are  
280 reclassified as very high, high, medium, and low. In this way, a vulnerability is obtained as  
281 a basis for calculating risk (Figure 4). The study area is divided into eight micro-basins by  
282 natural boundaryies in the vulnerability map.

283 Then we observed results in each AGEB and then we reclass vulnerability ratings as  
284 low, mean, or high for local tsunami for Puerto Vallarta City (Figure 4). Layers with z statistic  
285 can be viewed as a density distribution, age ranges, education level, range of motion or  
286 learning, occupied population and, housing.

287

### 288 3.3 Risk

289 Smith (2013) claims that risk analysis is based on probability theories. When the  
290 analysis is undertaken, risk ( $R$ ), taken as some product of probability and loss. Tobin and  
291 Montz (1997), define a hazard as a potential threat to humans and their welfare, and suggest  
292 that the risk is expressed as the product of the probability of occurrence (hazard) and  
293 vulnerability.

294 To evaluate the risk in Puerto Vallarta, we estimate from the modeling of one  
295 earthquake with the initial condition for a tsunami and the vulnerability information  
296 previously described, according to the relation:

$$297 \quad R = H \times V \quad (8)$$

298 where  $R$  is risk,  $H$  hazard and,  $V$  vulnerability.

299 Moreover, the following functions used (Figure 4):

$$300 \quad H(h) = (\text{run} - \text{up})(\text{probability factor}) \quad (9)$$

301 also, the *probability factor* or dislocation factor is related to the *Mo* or Magnitude, according  
302 to logarithmic Gutenberg-Richter relation (Stein and Wysession 2014):

$$303 \quad \log N = a_1 - bM \quad (10).$$

304 Vulnerability information's layers reclassified in each AGEB (Figure 4):

$$305 \quad V(v) = v1 + v2 + v3 + v4 + v5 + v6 + v7 + v8 \quad (11)$$

306 where *v1* is education, *v2*: housing, *v3*: occupied population, *v4*: age, *v5*: population density,  
307 *v6*: the range of motion or learning, *v7*: facilities and, *v8*: clean debris.

308 For the inhabited homes in the tsunami flood area, costs for the loss of household,  
309 cleaning, and debris transportation were calculated for each micro-basin. For this, a program  
310 is used to budget costs and control civil engineering work. The damage costs do not estimate  
311 the structural damages to buildings or bridges caused by a high magnitude earthquake. Nor  
312 do we include the costs associated with the cessation of day-to-day operations for an  
313 international airport, international maritime terminal, and regional bus station, which we  
314 excluded from this study. Also we excluded the costs for the loss of cultural heritage, such  
315 as Museo del Cuale (sometimes unrecoverable as an archaeological site), or costs such as the  
316 loss of documents in cadaster, special equipment or computer in hospitals, government  
317 offices, and schools.

318 The risk and vulnerability maps were generated in a raster image manager, for which  
319 values for Puerto Vallarta were entered at different points in each AGEB and interpolated  
320 with a spline method.

321

## 322 4 Results

### 323 4.1 Earthquake, fracture area, magnitude, and dislocation

324 In this study, different tests were performed for the proposed tsunami by changing  
325 the initial earthquake conditions by varying the dislocation while keeping the fracture plane  
326 constant. In this work, five hazard scenarios were evaluated with dislocation values  $d_i = 2, 3,$   
327  $4, 5,$  and  $6$  m (Table 3) for Puerto Vallarta. Pitillal riverside (VTG 5, Figure 3 and Figure 5)  
328 was the site of the highest run-up calculated along Puerto Vallarta coast,  $2.7 \text{ m} \leq Hr \leq 8 \text{ m},$   
329 and  $I_t = 20 \text{ min}, A_t = 72 \text{ min}.$  We analyze, in particular, the case for  $d_i = 5\text{m}.$

### 330 4.2 Sea level and arrival times

331 The tsunami hazard was obtained from run-up values that affected Puerto Vallarta.  
332 We calculated a scenario for maximum flooding assuming the Mw 8.0 earthquake occurred  
333 at high tide and run-up would affect coastal communities in our study region. The synthetic  
334 tsunami waveforms outputs generated for the first 10 hours after the earthquake for 24 VTG  
335 distributed on the southern coast of Nayarit, Jalisco, and north of Colima, heights, and  
336 arrivals times of tsunami for coastal communities for the studied region are plotted in Figure  
337 5 and listed in Table 4.

338 In Jalisco coast, the calculated first Tsunami wave ( $Hi$ ) had an arrival time ( $It$ ) of 11  
339 min after the earthquake, and corresponded to the municipality of Cabo Corrientes for the  
340 VTG near communities Aquiles Serdán ( $Hi = 5.8 \text{ m}, It = 11 \text{ min}$ ) and Ipala ( $Hi = 9.0 \text{ m}, It =$   
341  $13 \text{ min}$ ). At Ipala the Run-up wave ( $Hr$ ) is  $10.9 \text{ m}$  and the arrival times ( $At$ ) 37, 60, 96, and  
342 120 min (in this case four “big” waves were generated) (Table 4). In Tomatlán, for the marsh  
343 zones of Colorado and Majahuas,  $Hi = 6.1 \text{ m}, It = 19 \text{ min}.$  At Chamela (La Huerta),  $Hr = 5.1$   
344  $\text{m}$  and  $At = 61$  and  $307 \text{ min},$  while at Cihuatlán (San Patricio)  $Hr = 2.2 \text{ m}$  and  $At = 106 \text{ min}.$   
345 In Bahía de Manzanillo, Colima  $Hr = 3.9 \text{ m}$  and  $At = 177 \text{ min}.$  Meanwhile, to the north at  
346 La Cruz de Huanacastle in BdB (Nayarit) , $Hr = 7.0 \text{ m}$  and  $At = 86 \text{ min}.$

### 347 **4.3 Flood by a local tsunami**

348 The  $Hr$  and the most ocean water inland penetration ( $x$ ) were calculated for our region.  
349 Five of eight micro-basins tsunami hazard scenarios were at the maximum, with a run-up of  
350  $5 \text{ m} \leq Hr \leq 9 \text{ m}$  and an inland penetration of  $0.6 \text{ km (Cuale)} \leq x \leq 5.1 \text{ km (Ameca)}$ , resulting  
351 in a total flood area of  $30.55 \text{ km}^2$ . The tsunami flood and  $Hr$  comparison between micro-  
352 basins Ameca, Salado, Pitillal, Camarones, and Cuale are shown in [Figure 6](#). Significant  
353 flood volume by the tsunami wave was estimated in the Salado estuary area, where the  
354 elevation is 1 m below sea level.

### 355 **4.4 Housing and public facilities vulnerability**

356 In 2010, Puerto Vallarta had 255,681 inhabitants, 96% of which was concentrated in  
357 the study area. The remaining people for the municipality live in  $\geq 100$  rural towns whose  
358 elevations are  $\geq 20 \text{ m}$ . For that reason, the rural towns were not considered in the risk  
359 assessment because they are outside the areas directly affected by the local tsunami hazards.  
360 By the year 2015, this study calculated that the population in the flood area increases to  
361 include 47 AGEB as shown in [Figure 7](#). This is gives by equation  $C = P(e^{r \cdot t}) = 88,316$   
362 inhabitants inside the adverse effects of natural hazards.

363 Land use in Puerto Vallarta has favored the establishment of tourist services,  
364 commerce, and high-density housing close to the beach. For the year 2010, there were 33,942  
365 dwellings in the affected area, of which 23,271 inhabited. The services available such as  
366 potable water, electricity, and drainage between the tourist strip and the rest of the community  
367 were compared. It is observed that the indexes are similar in the all municipalities, even in  
368 zones of height greater than 20 m, the reason is that there is an acceptable comparable  
369 coverage of these services. In the case of a disaster in Puerta Vallarta, it is assumed that the  
370 first attention would be given to re-establish services to the tourist zone. The most significant  
371 proportion of vulnerable housing in the study area is distributed in the Salado and Pitillal  
372 micro-basins.

373 At the time of this study, there were 320 vulnerable public facilities in the  
374 municipality, of which 33% are vulnerable to flooding if a local tsunami occurs. [Table 5](#)

375 shows the number of public facilities and the volume of debris per micro-basin to estimate  
376 cleaning costs. The number of vulnerable facilities observed by micro-watersheds is as  
377 follows: 45 in Salado, 27 in Pitillal, 14 in Cuale, 12 in Ameca-Mascota, and 6 in Camarones.  
378 The percentages of vulnerable facilities for the total municipality considering their primary  
379 use are the following: schools 15%, government and emergency care 5%, health units 2%,  
380 and for various uses 11% (such as the distribution of electric energy, fuel storage, shopping  
381 malls, entertainment, museums, roads, transportation, and bridges).

382 For the vulnerability categories, the  $z$  statistic was used; they classified as NULL for  
383 the case that in the AGEB, the data is equal to zero or data not available. The low vulnerability  
384 group corresponds to the values  $z \leq -0.5$ , medium for values  $-0.5 < z < 1$ , and high for values  
385 of  $z > 1$ . Different ranges of  $z$ -score values were established in layers of education level,  
386 occupied population, and housing by observing in the study area those values that reflect the  
387 conditions of hypothesis.

388 High vulnerability values due to population variables such as age or special needs  
389 (physical or learning), educational condition, and population density were observed at the El  
390 Salado, Pitillal, and Ameca micro-basins (Las Juntas). The total occupied population of the  
391 municipality of Puerto Vallarta in 2010 was 47,676, of which 18,592 are in the tsunami  
392 impact zone, and are concentrated in the El Salado basin. We use a raster GIS for the image  
393 to show the vulnerability map of Puerto Vallarta for the local tsunami hazard as far as an  
394 elevation of 30 m. Its map was obtained from 539 points with all the municipality's  
395 information, of which 219 points correspond to AGEB with data for population and housing  
396 data and 323 points for the vulnerable facilities (Figure 8).

397

398

399

400 **4.5 Risk**

401 We estimated the cost of property damage in each dwelling inhabited in the affected  
402 area under the assumption that the minimum damage was \$1,200 US dollars (which includes  
403 damage to some household goods as living room, breakfast room, bed, and kitchen), so the  
404 total cost calculated for this concept was \$27,925,200 US dollars.

405 Cleaning and transporting debris costs depend on the volume calculation. The  
406 affected areas were measured in each micro-basin, assuming a debris height of 0.1 m. The  
407 condition established that the debris was vegetation, sand, and mud and that people should  
408 do the cleaning without the use of special equipment. For debris moving and unloading costs,  
409 the conditions were to use a dump truck and to transit by road up to a distance of 1 km. The  
410 cost calculated for this concept was \$6,457,899 US dollars (Table 5).

411 We used a raster GIS for imaging to show the risk in Puerto Vallarta for a local  
412 tsunami, and focused in five of eight micro-basins: Ameca, Salado, Pitillal, Camarones and,  
413 Cuale, where the observed land uses were the hotel zone with medium risk, the housing area  
414 and the vital facilities with high and very high risk. We present two maps of Risk: in the first  
415 (Figure 9a), we consider the total flood area due to a 5m coseismic slip; in the second (Figure  
416 9b), an empirical probability factor based on the magnitude (coseismic slip) was considered;  
417 a smaller slip is more likely than a large slip, in this case, a probability factor between 1.0  
418 and 0.1 (Figure 4) was applied to the vulnerability.

419

420 **5 Discussion**

421 We calculated  $Hr$  and  $At$  for local tsunami to assess the hazard on Jalisco's and  
422 southern Nayarit's coasts using a theoretical seismic source based on the local tectonics.  
423 Values used for the coseismic slip or dislocation range from two to six meters ( $8.0 < Mw <$   
424  $8.2$ ). Pacheco et al. (1997) propose a maximum slip of 4 m for the 1995 earthquake. Quintanar  
425 et al. (2011) proposes a maximum slip of 3.2 m for the 2003 earthquake, however, there is  
426 no reported tsunami for this earthquake. Trejo et al. (2015) use the same method to model  
427 the effects of the 1995 earthquake tsunami, but use different slips in some segments of the

428 rupture area to adjust the reported data (Ortiz et al. 1995). The  $H_r$  estimated in five places of  
429 Puerto Vallarta coincides with the studies of Nuñez-Cornú et al. (2006), Dresler, and Nuñez-  
430 Cornú (2007). The scales of the data do not allow for the estimation of a tsunami due to the  
431 slipping of sediments in the deltas of the rivers in Puerto Vallarta, as happened in Coyutlan,  
432 1932. For this tsunami we estimated more significant destruction because the  $H_r$  was  $\geq 10$  m  
433 because of the earthquake's impulse due to the collapse of the sediment fringe of the Armeria  
434 River after an earthquake of magnitude  $M = 6$  (Núñez-Cornú-Cornú 2011).

435         Previously, these types of studies have not been carried out in Mexico, the evaluation  
436 of vulnerability for tsunamis and the methodology used in this study is similar to that used  
437 for floods and earthquakes hazards, the population, and facilities affected at the moment of  
438 hazard occurs (Guzman et al. 2003). These studies are based on the information available for  
439 the city of Puerto Vallarta and published by government agencies. Some previous studies as  
440 the Natural Hazards Atlas and Ecological Planning Program or the Integrated Management  
441 of Coastal Landscapes (Nuñez-Cornú et al. 2006; Núñez-Cornú and Carrero 2012). The  
442 methodology seemed appropriate considering the available information as a whole and could  
443 be analyzed in a GIS. The vulnerability of the municipality of Puerto Vallarta estimated by  
444 tsunami flooding be useful for both the local or regional type following a major earthquake  
445 or a distant one in the case that the tsunami would enter the bay with an amplitude equal to  
446 the natural frequency of BdB which could then generate seiches. The results provide some  
447 preliminary answers for this particular city, and we did not consider the floating population  
448 due to tourism because it varies by the time of year and the characteristics of the hotel,  
449 quality, and service costs. However, this study represents the first approximation of  
450 estimating municipality vulnerability, with  $\geq 275,640$  people living in this city (IEEG, 2018),  
451 which will improve with the availability of the data from the next census in 2020.

452         Puerto Vallarta is a medium-sized city, and we did not assess the vulnerability of  
453 buildings (Simioni 2003; Santos et al. 2014; Voulgaris and Murayama 2014) only the surface  
454 area affected by tsunami flooding. In our case study, land use is mostly designated for  
455 buildings, hotels, tourist services, and commerce and these are closest to the coast. Regarding  
456 hotels are  $> 4$  levels (susceptible to respond to vibration by the earthquake energy), we

457 worked with two assumptions, (a) low tsunami's velocity does not generate too much  
458 turbulence as Tenacatita bay, October 1995 and (b) buildings are seismo-resistant so they  
459 would not collapse. Given these conditions, in some places in Puerto Vallarta, multi-story  
460 hotels could serve as vertical evacuation and shelter for the guests themselves in the case of  
461 a tsunami.

462 In other places, moving to a safe area is more feasible. We observed theoretical  
463 tsunami travel results from some places in the study area. Walking to a safe area is feasible  
464 in 11 minutes or 16 min if walking speed ( $v$ ) is 1.1 m/s or if under severe walking conditions  
465  $v = 0.751$  m/s (Ashar et al. 2018), because our model estimated that the first tsunami arrival  
466 would be at  $\geq 19$  minutes (Table 4 and Figure 6). It is important not to forget that a family  
467 emergency plan is essential for people with special needs (support is needed as transport or  
468 precise instructions to facilitate their movement to a shelter).

469 Storm surge inundation in Puerto Vallarta has happened previously. An example of  
470 flood damage was a storm surge generated by Hurricane Kenna in October 2002. The waves  
471 produced by this hurricane entered land up to a distance of 1 km approximately. Three hotels  
472 suffered intense non-structural damage, and the tourist strip was affected with different levels  
473 of damage depending on the proximity to the beach, or due to flooding and sand deposition.  
474 There were no reported direct victims associated with this hazard at Puerto Vallarta. To assess  
475 tsunami risk in Puerto Vallarta, the vulnerability was analyzed by criteria scores (Gómez and  
476 Barredo 2006), and hazard by probability factor (dislocation factor) according to the height  
477 at the study area and some parameters of local (this study) or tele-tsunami calculated by  
478 Dressler and Nuñez-Cornú (2007).

479

## 480 **6 Conclusions**

481 Puerto Vallarta is located in a seismic region, in which great magnitude earthquakes  
482 and local tsunamis have occurred. In this city, the impact due to historical tsunamis is  
483 unknown due to a lack of evidence because to date no specific studies have been carried out.  
484 However, the results presented in this work are useful in protocols and to civil defense in

485 Jalisco and provides essential information for the county's territory managers, which design  
486 one Partial Development Plan. A preliminary evaluation of essential cost damage for a  
487 simplified house and for the cleaning of debris was also calculated. Maps for tsunami hazard  
488 and local vulnerability in Puerto Vallarta were made.

489 The risk area in Puerto Vallarta County State affected by flooding due to a local  
490 tsunami was measured to be 30.55 km<sup>2</sup> approximately. The highest risk was found in the  
491 northern study area, between the valleys of the Ameca and Pitillal rivers (calculated area 26.5  
492 km<sup>2</sup>), because this area contains the greatest population density at Puerto Vallarta and at a  
493 distance of 0.8 km from the coastline, also there a regional bus station, an international  
494 airport, and an international port. We consider that the northern hotel zone could be a vertical  
495 evacuation zone for tourists and local people, following the such an earthquake and tsunami.  
496 Some hotels in Puerto Vallarta could function as a refuge; these seismically resistant  
497 structures should have more than six levels. One factor that increases the risk created by a  
498 local tsunami in the Puerto Vallarta coastal strip is the current land use. It has allowed a  
499 reduction in protective zones, and high population density construction close to the beach,  
500 and in the zones of mangroves in the Ameca and Salado micro-basins. While in the south  
501 study zone, from Boca de Tomatlán community to Playa Camarones, the risk area is 1.5 km<sup>2</sup>,  
502 and it is feasible for people to walk to a safe area from some points, as an example in  
503 Camarones micro-basin people should walk toward the south to the municipal stadium. For  
504 this, it is necessary to do some preliminary evacuation tests to determine escape routes and  
505 keep people safe for at least four to six hours, because the arrival time for the second wave  
506 was calculated by the model as one hour after the tsunami. This second wave arrival time is  
507 micro-basin dependent.

508 The perception of the appropriate hazard in the minds' of the managers of the Jalisco  
509 State will guarantee that economic and social activities are sustainable. It is suggested that  
510 the next partial plans of county development are reviewed, specifically the strip of coastline  
511 of up to 20 m elevation in Jalisco State, such that land use favors very low population density  
512 and the implementation of a construction standard for seismo-resistant buildings throughout  
513 this county.

514 **Acknowledgements**

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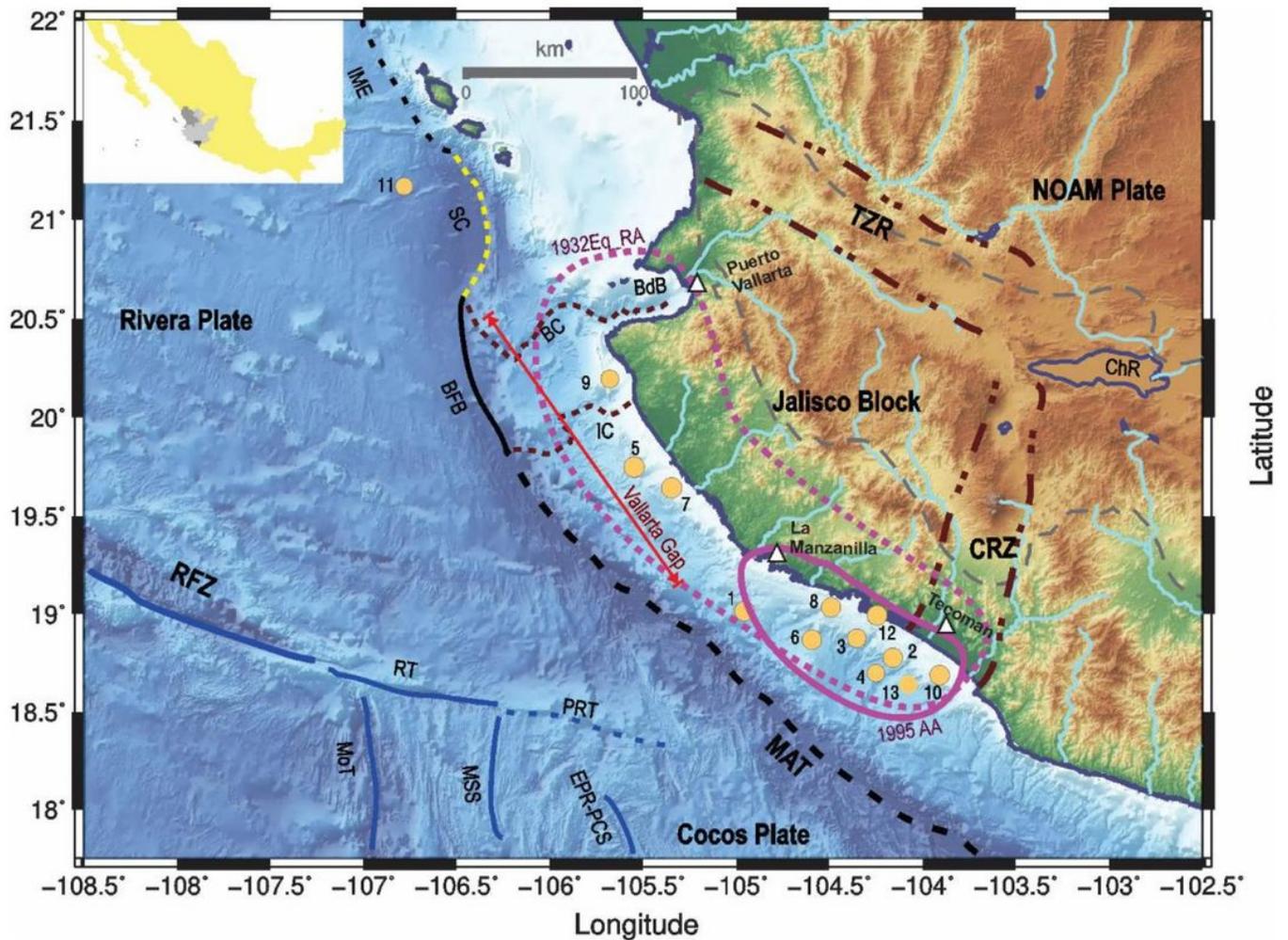
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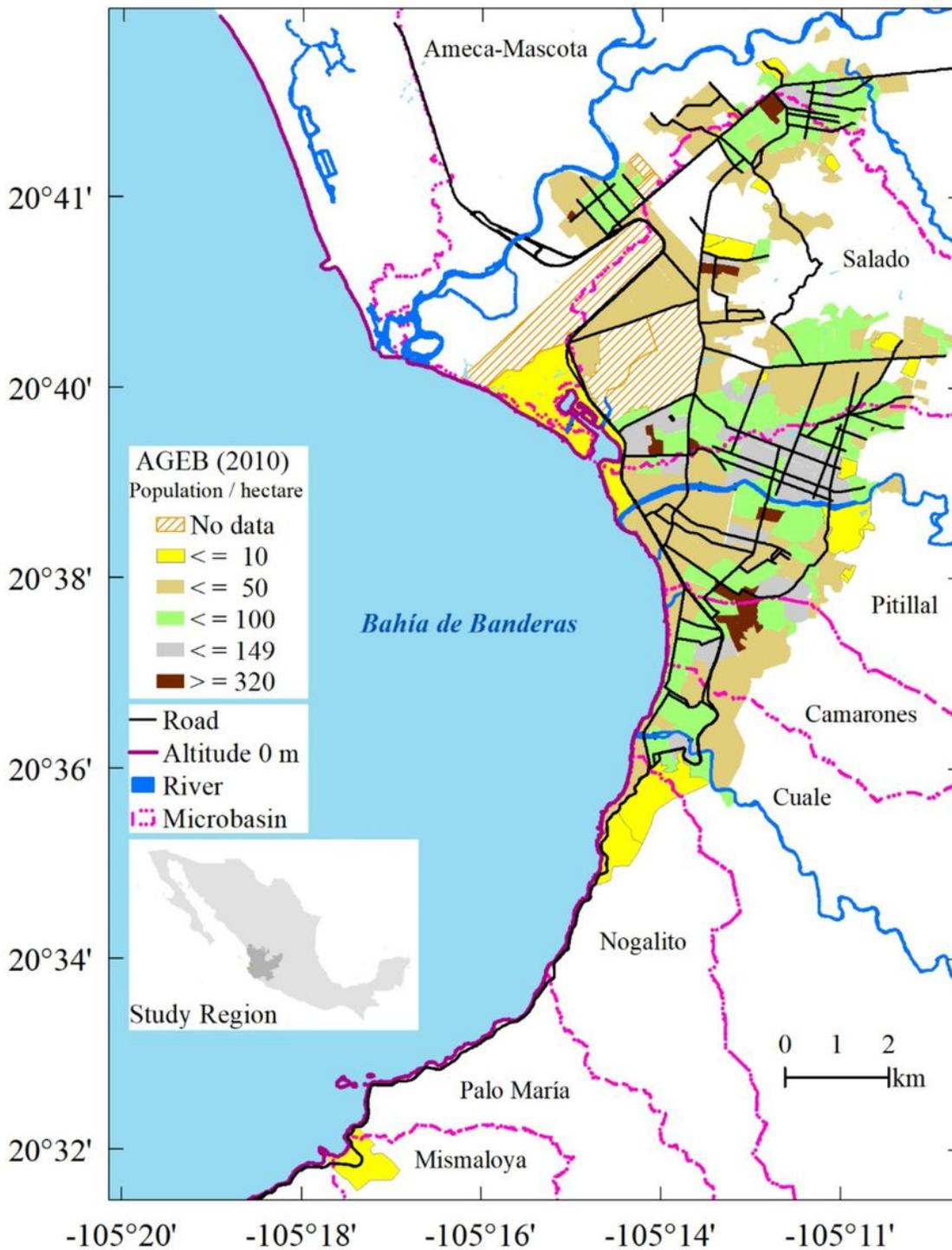
# Figures



**Figure 1**

Tectonic framework of the Jalisco region, IME: Islas Marias Escarpment; SC: Sierra de Cleofas; BFB: Bahía de Banderas fore-arc Block; TZR: Tepic-Zacoalco Rift zone; ChR: Chapala Rift zone; CRZ: Colima Rift zone; MG: Manzanillo Graben; MAT: Middle America Trench; RFZ: Rivera Fault zone; MoT: Moctezuma Trough; MSS: Moctezuma Spreading Segment; EPR-PCS: East Pacific Rise Pacific-Cocos Segment; RT: Rivera Transform Fault; PRT: Paleo Rivera Transform fault (after Perez-Gaviria et al. (2013)); IME: Islas Marias escarpment; SC: Sierra de Cleofas; BC: Banderas Canyon; IC: Ipala Canyon; BFB: Banderas Forearc Block; BdB: Bahia de Banderas; 1932Eq\_RA: Rupture area proposed for 1932 Earthquakes (Singh et al., 1985); 1995 AA: Earthquake Aftershock area. Yellow circles mark the epicenters of the earthquakes in Table 1. Modified from Núñez-Cornú et al. (2018). Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its

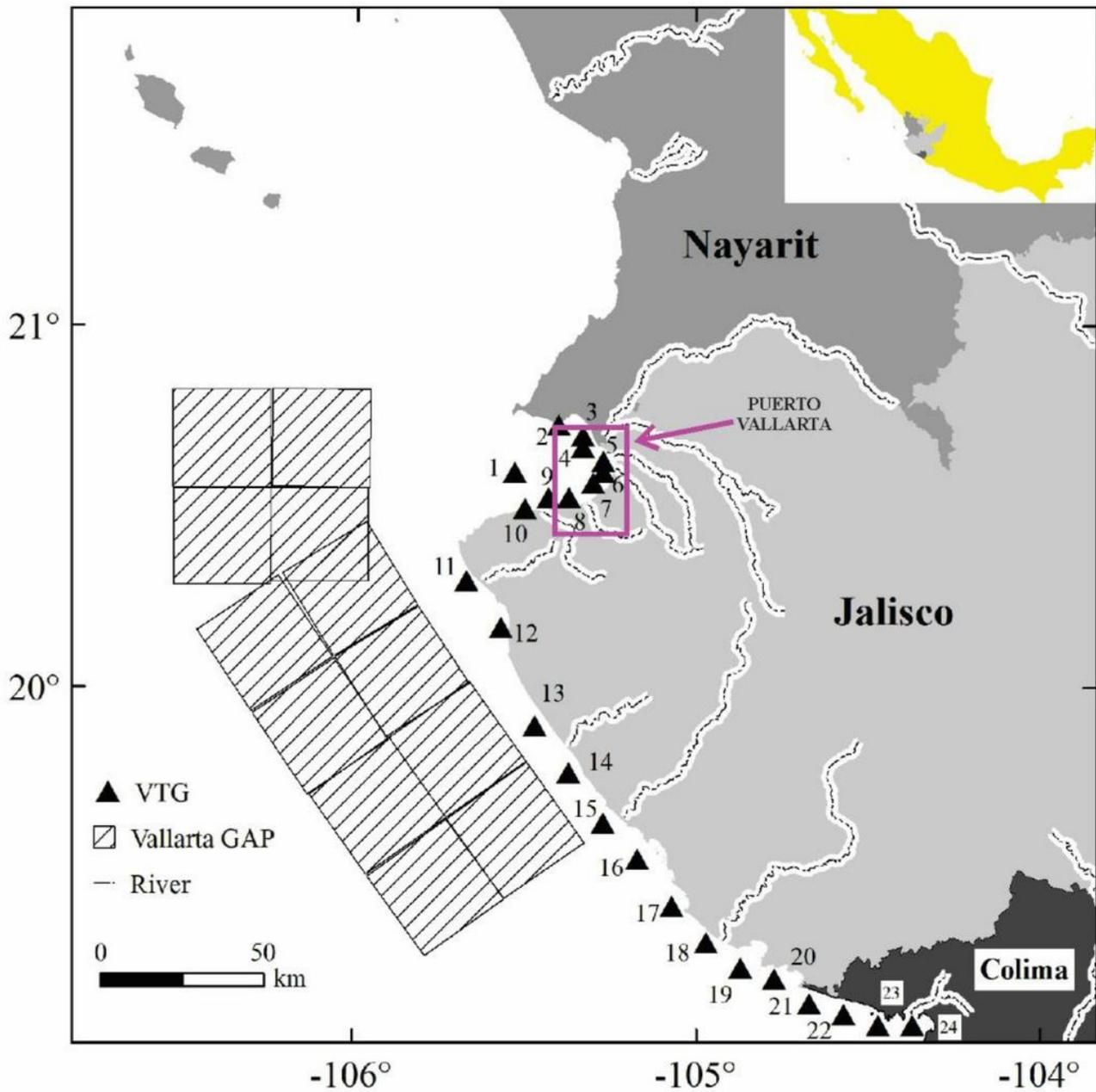
authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.



**Figure 2**

Study area with population density distribution using AGEBs. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its

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**Figure 3**

Distribution of rupture area and subareas (rectangles) used to numerically model the local tsunami. Triangles indicate the distribution of virtual gauge sensors (VTG). Numbers indicate the localities, as in Table 4. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

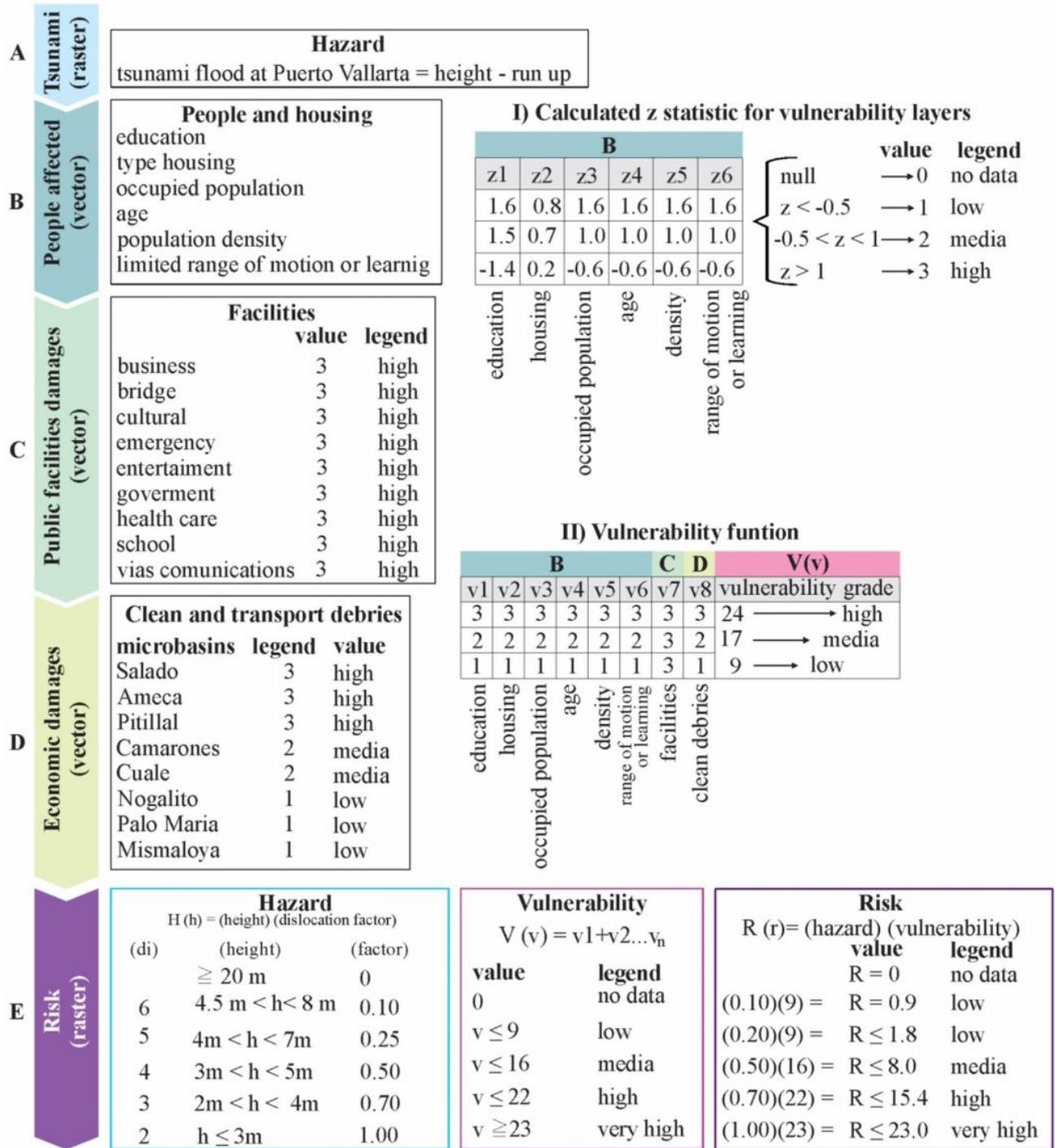
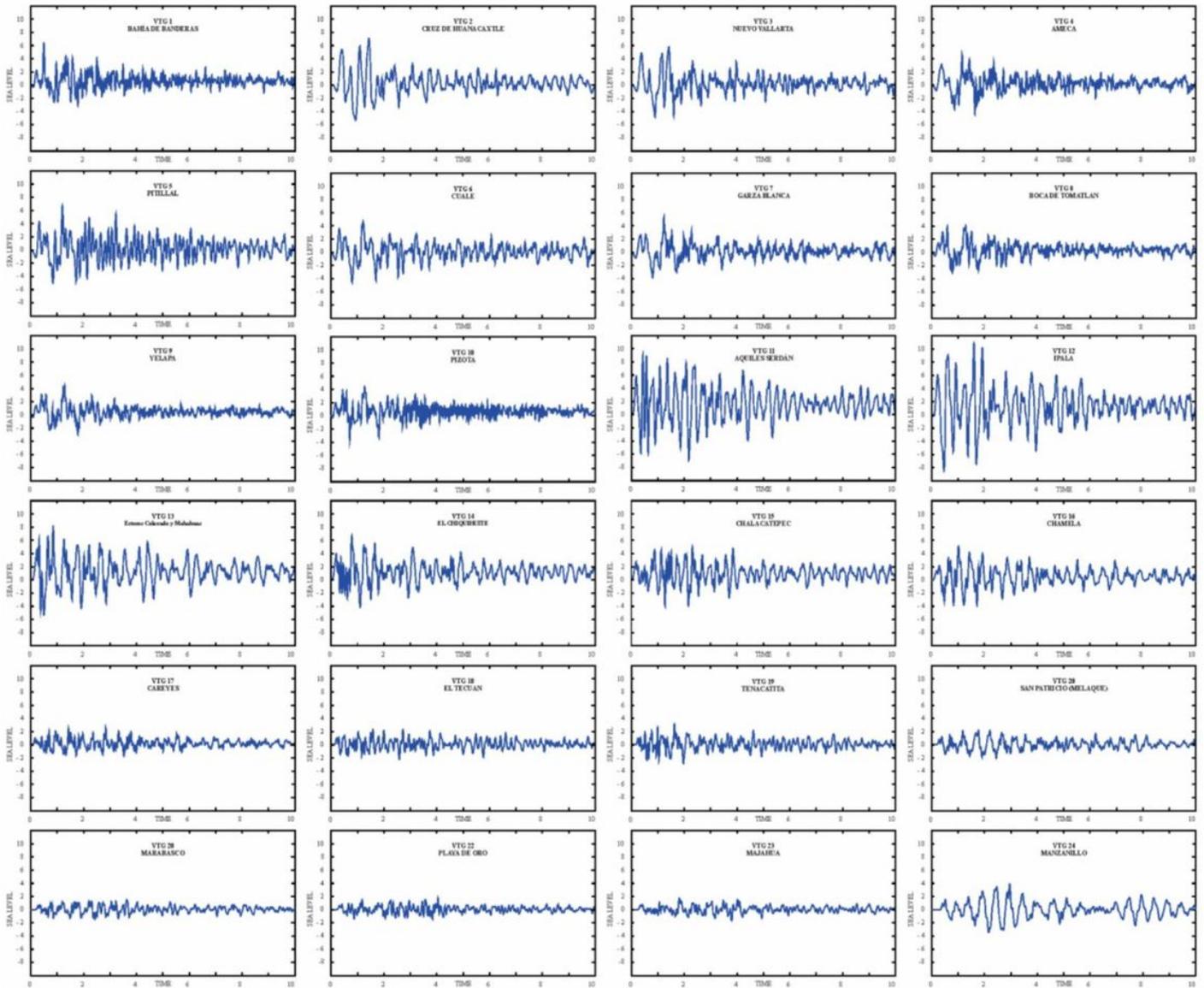


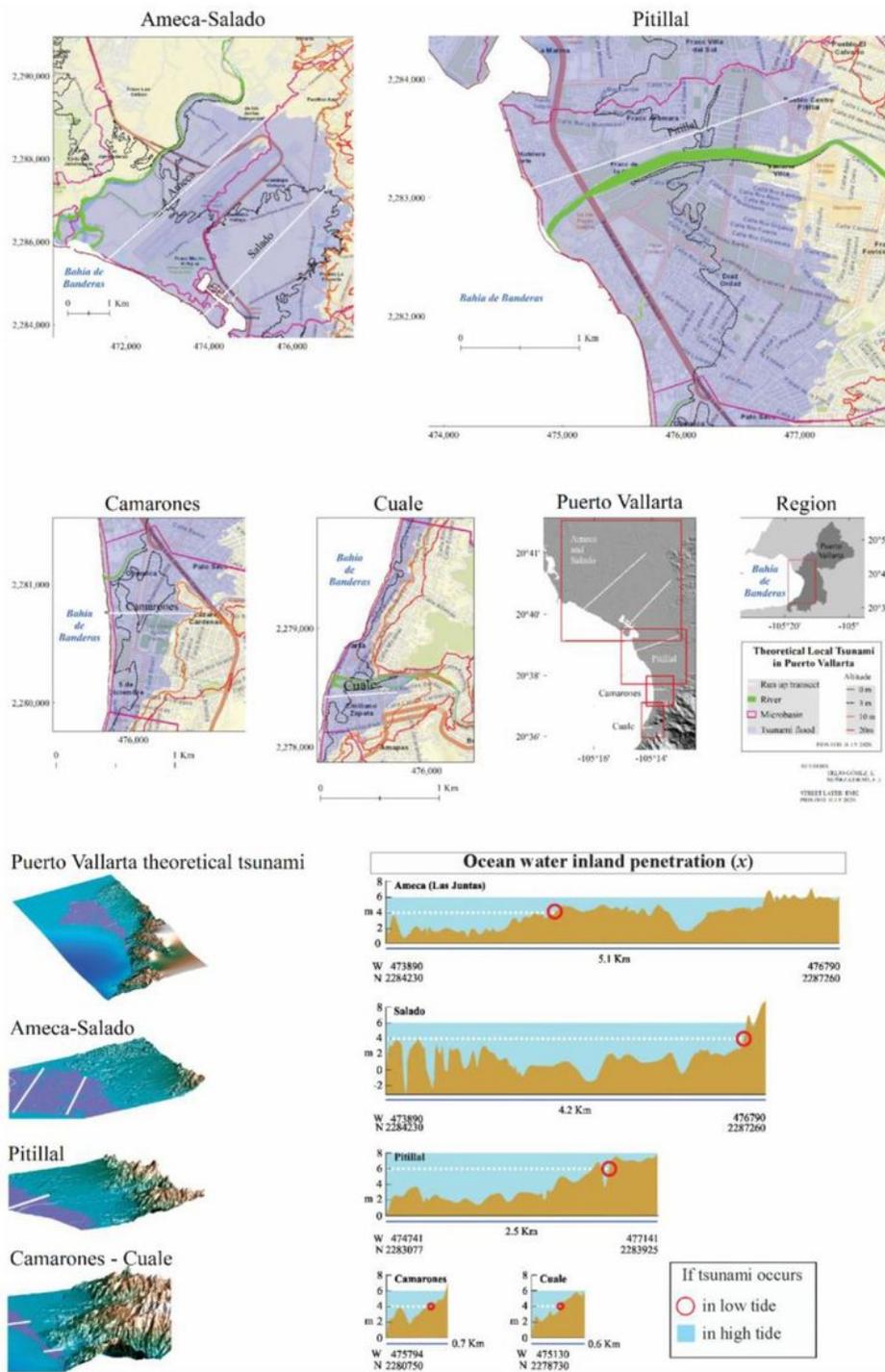
Figure 4

Flowchart to assess vulnerability and risk in the city of Puerto Vallarta.



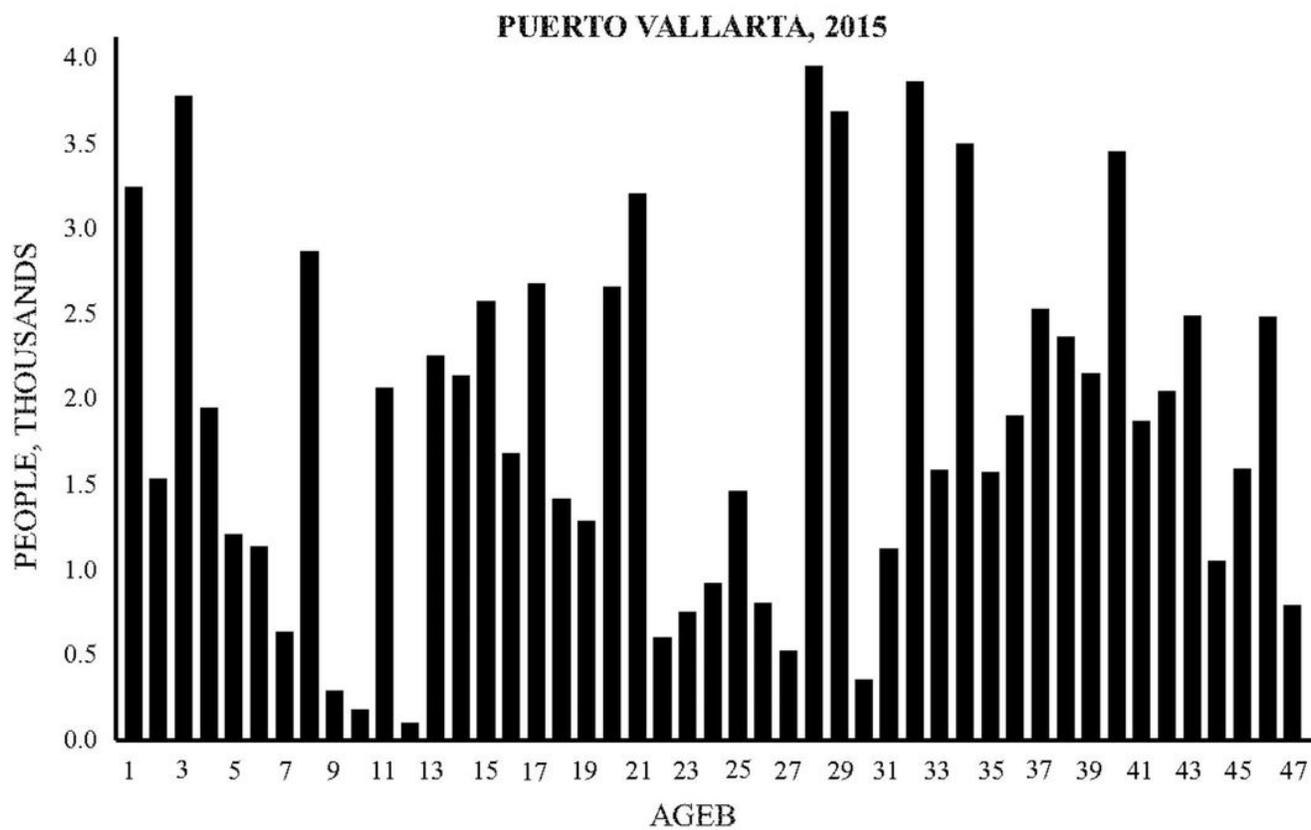
**Figure 5**

Synthetic tsunami waveforms at obtained the virtual gauge sensors (VTG) in the study region. Sea level in meters, time in hours.



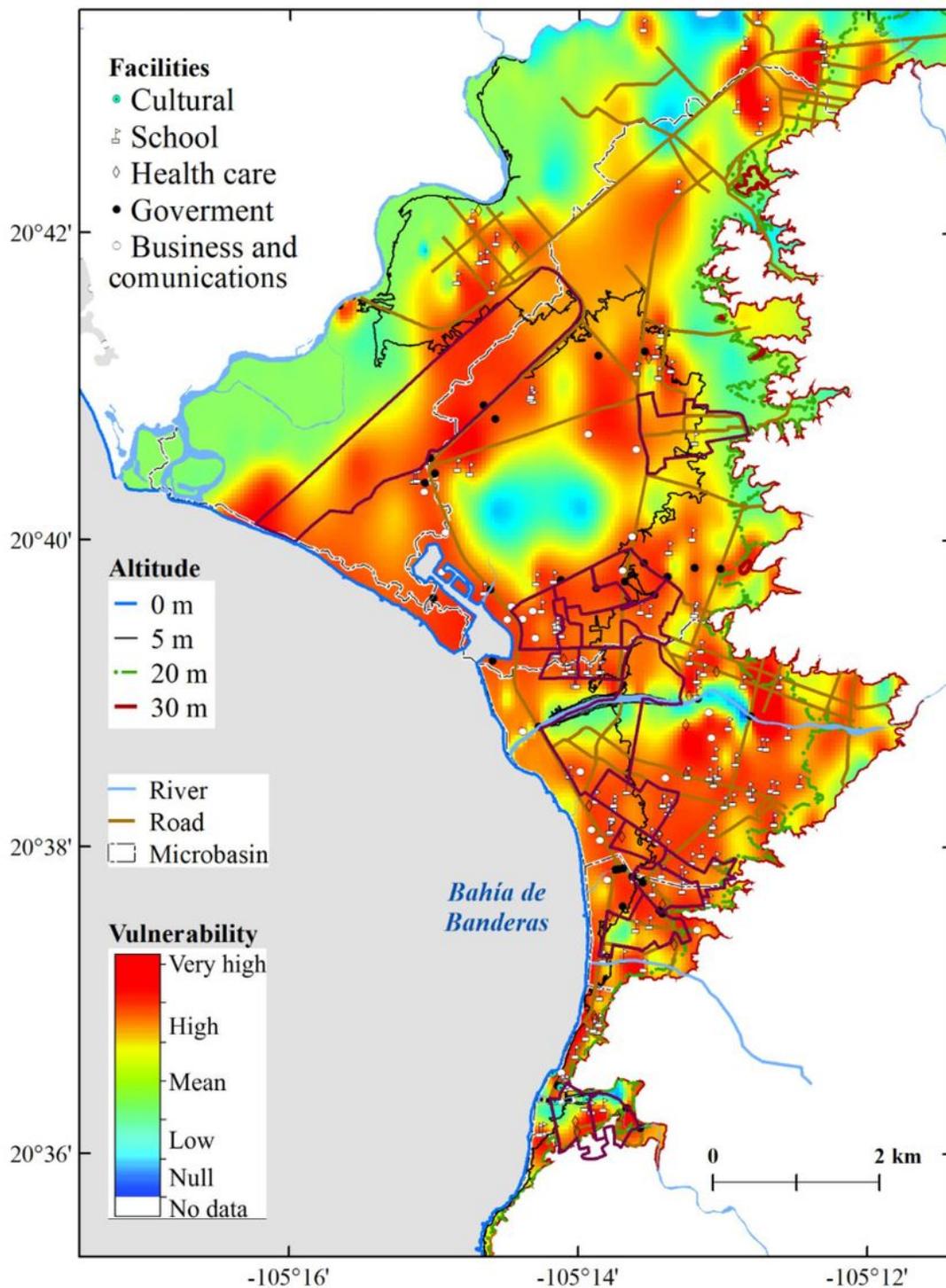
**Figure 6**

Horizontal inundation distance by a local-tsunami in Puerto Vallarta. Street map by ESRI. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.



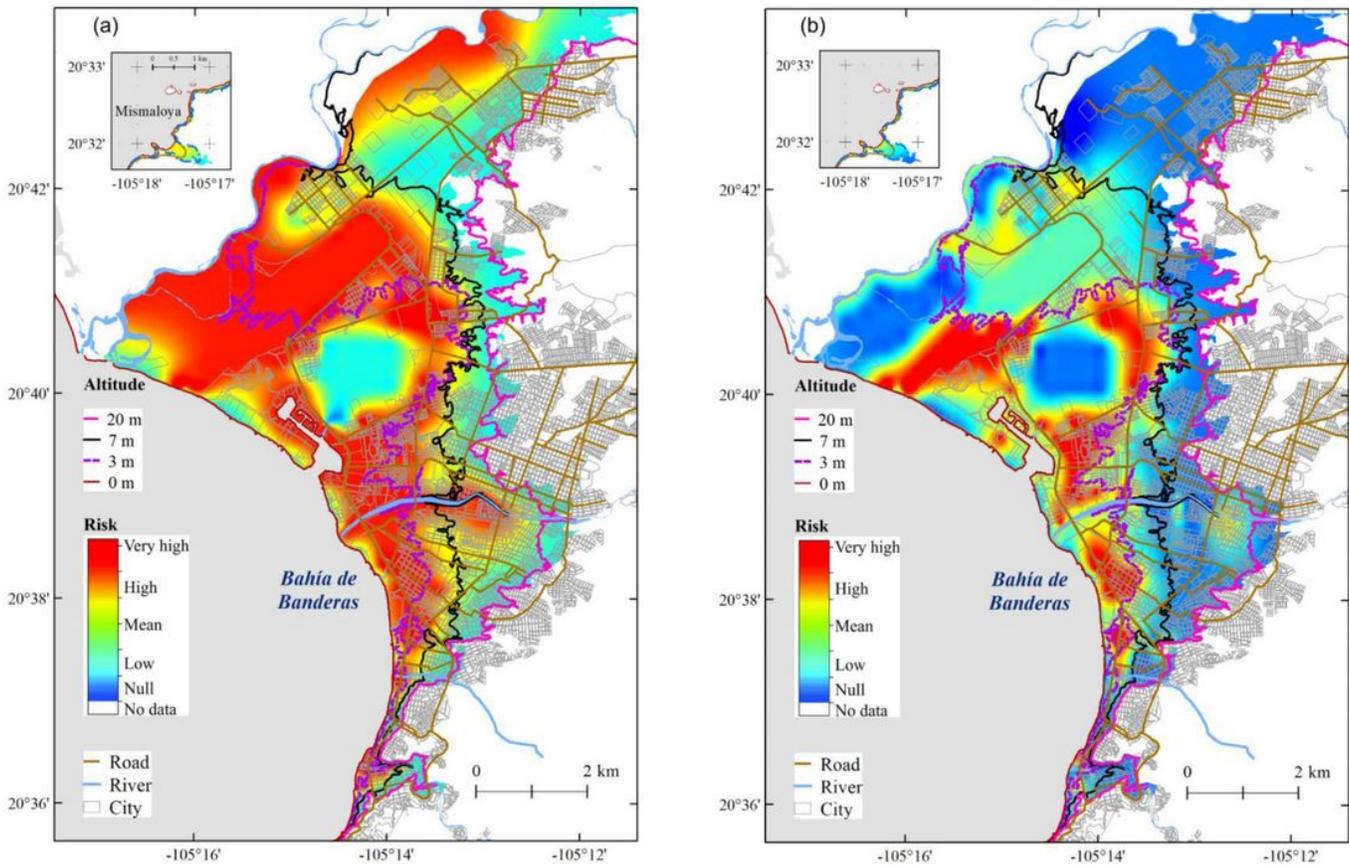
**Figure 7**

Projection of the affected population in the area of flooding by AGEB.



**Figure 8**

Vulnerability assessment in the municipality of Puerto Vallarta with data from 2015. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.



**Figure 9**

Local-tsunami risk assessment in the municipality of Puerto Vallarta with data from 2015. (a) Total flood area due to a coseismic slip=5m, (b) Risk considering an empiric probability factor due to different values for coseismic slip (Fig. 4). Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.