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# Advanced Applications of Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) Remote Sensing for Detecting Pre- and Syn-eruption Signatures at Mount Sinabung, North Sumatra, Indonesia 

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#### Abstract

Mount Sinabung was re-activated at August $28^{\text {th }}, 2010$ after a long repose interval. The early stage of a phreatic eruption was then followed by magmatic eruptions at September $15^{\text {th }}, 2013$ for years until now. To understand the ground surface changes accompanying the eruption periods, comprehensive analyses of surface and subsurface data are necessary, especially the condition in pre- and syn-eruption periods. This study is raised to identify ground surface and topographical changes before, intra, and after the eruption periods by analyzing the temporal signature of surface roughness, moisture, and deformation derived from Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) data. The time series of SAR backscattering intensity were analyzed prior to and after the early eruption periods to know the lateral ground surface changes including estimated lava dome roughness and surface moisture. Meanwhile, the atmospherically corrected Differential Interferometric SAR (D-InSAR) method was also applied to know the vertical topographical changes prior to the eruptions. The atmospheric correction based on modified Referenced Linear Correlation (mRLC) was applied to each D-InSAR pair to exclude the atmospheric phase delay from the deformation signal. The changes of surface moistures on syn-eruptions were estimated by calculating dielectric constant from SAR polarimetric mode following Dubois model. Twenty-one Phased Array type L-band SAR (PALSAR) data on board Advanced Land Observing Satellite (ALOS) and nine Sentinel-1A SAR data were used in this study with the acquisition date between February 2006 and February 2017. For D-InSAR purposes, the ALOS PALSAR data were paired to generate twenty interferograms. Based on the D-InSAR deformation, three times inflation-deflation periods were observed prior to the early eruption at August $28^{\text {th }} 2010$. The first and second inflation-deflation periods at the end of 2008 and middle 2009 presented migration of magma batches and dike generations in the deep reservoir. The third inflation-deflation periods in the middle of 2010 served as a precursor signal presenting magma feeding to the shallow reservoir. The summit was inflated about 1.4 cm and followed by the eruptions. The deflation of about 2.3 cm indicated the release pressure and temperature in the shallow reservoir after the early eruption at August $28^{\text {th }}, 2010$. The last inflation-deflation period was also confirmed by the increase of the lava dome roughness size from $5,121 \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ on July to $6,584 \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ on August. The summit then inflated again about 1.1 cm after the first eruption and followed by unrest periods presented by lava dome growth and destruction at September $15^{\text {th }}, 2013$. The volcanic products including lava and pyroclastics strongly affected the moisture of surface layer. The volcanic products were observed to reduce the surface moisture within syn-eruption periods. The hot materials are presumed responsible for the evaporation of the surface moisture as well.


Keywords: ALOS PALSAR, Sentinel-1A, D-InSAR, surface moisture, Mount Sinabung
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## Introduction

Indonesia is composed of 127 active volcanoes, and the 31 most active volcanoes are located on two of the most populated islands: Sumatra and Java. One of the active volcanoes in Sumatra is Mount Sinabung which re-activated in 2010 after a long dormancy. The latest magmatic eruption produced pyroclastic flow deposits indicated at 1,200 years B.P. by carbon dating (Sutawidjaja et al., 2013). The 2010 eruptions were followed by extensive damage on crop fields near the volcano, and almost twelve thousand people were evacuated to Kabanjahe Subregency(Nugroho, 2013). The early eruption was initiated by phreatic eruptions at August 28 ${ }^{\text {th }}, 2010$ (Iguchi et al., 2012; Sutawidjaja et al., 2013). The eruption was then followed by magmatic eruptions in 2013 prolong activity to about seven year unrest (Gunawan et al., 2017; Nugraha et al., 2017). Thus, observing the first eruption phenomenon in the geological point of view and topographical change will be the key point to understand the cause and effect of the eruptions as well as for further purposes such as hazard and mitigation. The limited ground monitoring data prior to the 2010 eruption caused the eruption seem to be no precursory signal (Gunawan et al., 2017). Therefore, this paper demonstrated detection precursor signal to the eruption using satellite imageries.

Continuous observations were crucial to detect the precursors of an eruption such as geophysical and geochemical monitoring, encompassing seismic, ground deformation, gravity, magnetic, gas monitoring, as well as remote sensing (Martí and Ernst, 2005). The topographical change and ground deformation are the main precursory parameter in monitoring volcanic activities that remote sensing could be utilized. In this paper, the precursor signatures using Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) remote sensing techniques were extensively tried to recover including backscattering and phase data analyses related to changes of summit lava dome roughness and deformation signatures, respectively. Roughness of the ground surface is a physical parameter which is impor-
tant for characterizing surface geology such as weathering and hydrothermal alteration degrees (Saepuloh et al., 2015b).

The Differential Interferometric Synthetic Aperture Radar (D-InSAR) with two direction Referenced Linear Correlation (RLC) method was also used to localize the small deformation signal at the summit of Mount Sinabung by excluding the atmospheric phase delayed (Saepuloh et al., 2013). Time series observations based on InSAR were widely used to monitor active volcanoes, e.g. at Kilauea Volcano in Hawaii (Rosen et al., 1996), Etna Volcano in Italy (Lanari et al., 2007), Augustine Volcano in Alaska (Lee et al., 2007), Merapi Volcano in Indonesia (Saepuloh et al., 2010), Santorini Volcano (Papageorgiou et al., 2012), and Sinabung Volcano (Chaussard and Amelung, 2012; González et al., 2015). Volcano-related deformation is one of observation parameters accompanying seismicity in general. This study demonstrated an improvement of atmospheric phase delay removal from D-InSAR deformation signal using modified Referenced Linear Correlation (RLC) method (Saepuloh et al., 2013).

To observe syn-eruption impact to the environment, the dielectric constant and moisture content were also calculated in a series of ground surface using Sentinel-1A data. The following semiempiric inversion model (Dubois et al., 1995) was applied to extract the dielectric constant of the surface. Then, the surface moisture was estimated following Topp model (Topp et al., 1980). Detailed description about dielectric constant extraction and surface moisture estimation was explained in next section.

Mount Sinabung in Karo Regency, North Sumatra Province, Indonesia, was selected as the studied area (Figure 1). Mount Sinabung is a stratovolcano type with the elevation of 2,460 m asl. The early activity of Mount Sinabung was presented visually by exposing ashes to the atmosphere at August $28^{\text {th }}, 2010$ and followed by pyroclastic flows at September $7^{\text {th }}, 2010$, after a prolonged repose interval. The eruptions increased the alert level to maximum and changed the cat-


Figure 1. Studied area presented by ALOS PALSAR footprint in Sumatra Island (a), backscattering intensity image (b), subset of the SAR intensity image including Mounts Sinabung and Sibayak in black triangles (c).
egory "B" to "A" type volcano in the Indonesian volcanic rank. Mount Sibayak at 14 km NE of Mount Sinabung was also selected with the elevation of $2,094 \mathrm{~m}$ asl. as a reference for predicted unchange surface at a dormant volcano (Figure 1).

## Data Collection and Methods

## Data Collection

Twenty-one and nine scenes of the Phased Array type L-band Synthetic Aperture Radar (PALSAR) data on board the Advanced Land Observing Satellite (ALOS) and Sentinel-1A data were used, respectively. Detailed data used in this study were listed in Table 1. The ALOS PALSAR data were processed for lava dome roughnesschanges detection and D-InSAR deformation due to L-band sensitivity for geomorphologic and structural feature detection (Saepuloh et al., 2012). The Sentinel-1A in C-band frequency was also used to estimate the changes in surface moisture following the dielectric constant extraction. The level 1 Ground Range Detected (GRD) data from Interferometric Wide Swath (IWS) acquisition were processed using an open
source Sentinel Application Platform (SNAP) programme. The C-band frequency is superior to estimate soil and vegetation moisture content in bare and vegetated areas (De Roo et al., 2001; Zribi and Dechambre, 2003).

## Lava Dome Roughness-Change Detection

Quantifying and modeling surface roughness at field using SAR data are a complicated problem because of topographic complexity, such as Root Mean Square (RMS) height, RMS slope, and correlation length (Campbell and Garvin, 1993) and also unknown radar parameters such as relative dielectric permittivity and relative magnetic permeability (Saepuloh et al., 2015a). To simplify the radar equation, time series of SAR backscattering intensity images were used at a fixed point of the summit lava dome. Therefore, the unknown parameters could be excluded due to the absent of new volcanic products extruded prior to the eruption (Saepuloh et al., 2013). Reasoning and estimation of lava dome roughness changes were explained as follows.

The SAR backscattering coefficient $\sigma^{0}$ is a power return to the receiver sensor as a function of several parameters and explicitly could be

Table 1. SAR Data Used in this Study from ALOS PALSAR And Sentinel-1A

| No | Scene ID | Date | Sensor | Polarization Mode |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | PASL10C0702201611471206080041 | 2007/02/20 | ALOS PALSAR | HH |
| 2 | PASL10C0707081611471206080042 | 2007/07/08 | ALOS PALSAR | HH+HV |
| 3 | PASL10C0708231611401206080044 | 2007/08/23 | ALOS PALSAR | HH+HV |
| 4 | PASL10C0801081610411206080047 | 2008/01/08 | ALOS PALSAR | HH |
| 5 | PASL10C0802231610061206080043 | 2008/02/23 | ALOS PALSAR | HH |
| 6 | PASL10C0804091609231206080049 | 2008/04/09 | ALOS PALSAR | HH |
| 7 | PASL10C0805251608341206080051 | 2008/05/25 | ALOS PALSAR | HH+HV |
| 8 | PASL10C0810101609551206080045 | 2008/10/10 | ALOS PALSAR | HH+HV |
| 9 | PASL10C0811251610441206080046 | 2008/11/25 | ALOS PALSAR | HH |
| 10 | PASL10C0901101611261206080050 | 2009/01/10 | ALOS PALSAR | HH |
| 11 | PASL10C0902251612021206080048 | 2009/02/25 | ALOS PALSAR | HH |
| 12 | PASL10C0907131613061206080053 | 2009/07/13 | ALOS PALSAR | HH+HV |
| 13 | PASL10C0908281613201206080052 | 2009/08/28 | ALOS PALSAR | HH+HV |
| 14 | PASL10C0911281613301206080063 | 2009/11/28 | ALOS PALSAR | HH |
| 15 | PASL10C1001131613271206080054 | 2010/01/13 | ALOS PALSAR | HH |
| 16 | PASL10C1002281613141206080065 | 2010/02/28 | ALOS PALSAR | HH |
| 17 | PASL10C1007161611581206080066 | 2010/07/16 | ALOS PALSAR | HH+HV |
| 18 | PASL10C1008311611251206080069 | 2010/08/31 | ALOS PALSAR | HH |
| 19 | PASL10C1010160160461206080064 | 2010/10/16 | ALOS PALSAR | $\mathrm{HH}+\mathrm{HV}$ |
| 20 | PASL10C1012011610011206080067 | 2010/12/1 | ALOS PALSAR | $\mathrm{HH}+\mathrm{HV}$ |
| 21 | PASL10C1101161609091206080068 | 2011/01/16 | ALOS PALSAR | HH |
| 22 | S1A_IW_GRDH_1SDV_20150218T231128 | 2015/02/19 | SENTINEL-1A | VH+VV |
| 23 | S1A_IW_GRDH_1SDV_20150513T231130 | 2015/05/14 | SENTINEL-1A | $\mathrm{VH}+\mathrm{VV}$ |
| 24 | S1A_IW_GRDH_1SDV_20150606T231133 | 2015/06/07 | SENTINEL-1A | VH+VV |
| 25 | S1A_IW_GRDH_1SDV_20150630T231157 | 2015/07/01 | SENTINEL-1A | $\mathrm{VH}+\mathrm{VV}$ |
| 26 | S1A_IW_GRDH_1SDV_20150724T231158 | 2015/07/25 | SENTINEL-1A | $\mathrm{VH}+\mathrm{VV}$ |
| 27 | S1A_IW_GRDH_1SDV_20151215T231154 | 2015/12/16 | SENTINEL-1A | VH+VV |
| 28 | S1A_IW_GRDH_1SDV_20160108T231153 | 2016/01/09 | SENTINEL-1A | $\mathrm{VH}+\mathrm{VV}$ |
| 29 | S1A_IW_GRDH_1SDV_20160201T231152 | 2016/02/02 | SENTINEL-1A | $\mathrm{VH}+\mathrm{VV}$ |
| 30 | S1A_IW_GRDH_1SDV_20160225T231152 | 2016/02/26 | SENTINEL-1A | $\mathrm{VH}+\mathrm{VV}$ |

written as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma^{0}=\left(4 k^{4} h_{0}^{2} \cos ^{4} \theta_{i}\right)|\alpha|^{2} \omega . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\qquad$
Where:
$k$ : is the wave number,
$h_{0}$ : is the surface roughness,
$\theta_{i}$ : is the angle of incidence from the mean normal direction to the surface,
$\alpha$ : is proportional to polarization state, and
$\omega$ : is roughness height spectral density of the surface topography.

For the case of SAR backscattering time series at a fixed point of the surface lava dome, the $k, \theta_{i}$ $\alpha$, and $\omega$ were predicted to be constant, because the path/row of data series, surface material, and topography are coherent. Therefore, only $h_{0}$ influences the $\sigma^{0}$. Figure 2 shows the illustration of lava dome roughness on SAR termed as drSAR for Showa-Shinzan lava dome growth (Schmincke, 2004). After the eruption period, the summit of the volcano is relatively flat and


Figure 2. Illustration of Showa-Shinzan lava dome growth (modified from Schmincke, 2004) related to the increase of fracturing and surface roughness presented by high backscattering intensity signal.
produces low backscattering (Figure 2a). When the lava dome is growing, its volume increases and produces fracturing system at the surface. The fractures produce rough surfaces which are presented by higher backscattering intensity than flat surface (Figure 2b). Therefore, the maximum surface roughness will be achieved prior to the eruption. After the eruption, the drSAR might be affected not only by fractures at surface lava dome, but also by new volcanic products.

For drSAR processing, firstly the ALOS PALSAR level 1.5 intensity images were geocoded to transform the location of each image pixel from slant to the ground range coordinate. Then, co-registration among the images was also applied to assure the correctness of pixel location followed by subsetting image around the summit. The purpose of subsetting process is to simplify the detection process and to reduce the time processing. Finally, a layer-stacking process was performed to the sixteen images. Selecting Region of Interest (ROI) $3 \times 3$ pixels ( $=90 \times 90 \mathrm{~m}$ ) at the summit of Mounts Sinabung and Sibayak were performed to observe
surficial changes related to volcanic activity. The size of ROI was selected due to detectability of a new volcanic product under ALOS PALSAR intensity image 30 m resolution (Saepuloh et al., 2013). The processing illustration was depicted in Figure 3. The drSAR change detections were applied based seed-fill method with pixel growth criterion (Saepuloh et al., 2013). The centre point of the lava dome was used to quantify the area of drSAR at the summit of Mount Sinabung.

## Modified Referenced Linear Correlation of D-InSAR Deformations

The atmospheric conditions might influence the measured ground range and cause phase delay propagation (Papageorgiou et al., 2012). Several techniques have been developed to reduce the atmospheric effects, such as integration with Weather Research and Forecast (WRF) model based on MODIS data (Gong et al., 2011), Pairwise Logic (Hanssen, 2001), Referenced Linear Correlation (Saepuloh et al., 2013), PS-InSAR technique (Massonnet and Feigl, 1998; Sousa


Figure 3. Image stacking and selection of ROI (Region of Interest) by pixel labeling at the summit of Mount Sinabung and Mount Sibayak.
et al., 2010), stacking method and integration between GPS and MODIS data (Li et al., 2009, 2005). Selecting the appropriate technique in mitigating the atmospheric artifact depends on the availability of SAR data scenes, the method used for InSAR processing, the atmospheric condition, and the availability of external data. In this study, a high applicability technique was proposed under the tropical zone to reduce atmospheric artifact in the interferogram phase using modified Referenced Linear Correlation (mRLC). This technique requires pair-wised interferogram and the Digital Elevation Model (DEM) or highresolution topographical map. The pair-wise logic was used to generate interferogram by reducing the atmospheric phase delay of common paired D-InSAR data (Hanssen, 2001).

The modification was taken into account from previous work (Saepuloh et al., 2013) using correlation between topographic elevation to de-
formation along range (north-south) and azimuth directions (west-east). The reference location was selected at the nearest volcano without significant eruptive activity signals at the summit. Mount Sibayak about 15 km NE of Mount Sinabung is the most appropriate candidate for the reference location in this study because of no eruptive signature at the summit although the earthquake swarm are still recorded in a depth of less than 30 km (Nugraha et al., 2018). The mRLC calculates the regression between elevation and deformation at Mount Sibayak in two directions and serves as a reference for background deformation originated from atmospheric phase delay. For each interferogram, the linear regression was calculated and the equation was used to extrapolate the atmospheric phase model spatially as presented in Figure 4. Subtracting the atmospheric phase model from the pair-wise interferogram produced a final deformation signal in the interferogram.


Figure 4. Atmospheric phase model calculated based on mRLC for each pair-wised D-InSAR with YYYY/MM/DD date format, the triangle on the west and east parts are Mounts Sinabung and Sibayak, respectively.

## Surface Moisture Estimation Using Sentinel1A Data

Sentinel-1A Ground Range Detected (GRD) high resolution data was used to estimate surface moisture of land cover at and around Mount Sinabung following the eruption. The GRD data were focused, multilooked, and projected to ground range using an earth ellipsoid model. The backscattering coefficient of GRD data $\sigma^{0}{ }_{d b}$ was then calculated as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma_{d b}^{0}=10 \log _{10} \frac{(D N)}{A_{\sigma}^{2}} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $D N$ and $A_{\sigma}^{2}$ are digital number of SAR amplitude and look up table for transforming
radar reflectivity to cross-section in ground range plane, respectively.

A terrain correction process was also applied by selecting twenty-five Ground Control Points (GCPs) with RMSE 0.2 pixel to obtain the accurate geometric position of the $\sigma_{d b}^{0}$ image in geographic coordinate. Then, the $\sigma^{0}{ }_{d b}$ images were filtered using Lee filter to enhance land cover contrast, especially for the agriculture area (Ozdarici and Akyurek, 2010). The Lee filter was selected, because the studied area was mostly covered by agriculture. To estimate surface moisture, parameter influence to $\sigma_{d b}^{0}$ was firstly calculated including surface roughness $h_{0}$ and dielectric constant $\varepsilon$ of the surface (Gharechelou et al., 2015). The $h_{0}$
is variance of earth surface elevations above the horizontal line quantified by Root Mean Square (RMS) height (Saepuloh et al., 2015a). Series of field measurement were used to obtain the $h_{0}$ from the $\sigma_{d b}^{0}$ the following images (Saepuloh et al., 2012; Witra et al., 2017). The $h_{0}$ derived from the $\sigma^{0}{ }_{d b}$ could be calculated as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{0}=\lambda \sqrt{-\frac{1}{60} \ln \left(1-\frac{10^{\left(0.1 \times \sigma_{d b}^{o}\right)}}{0.04 \cos \theta_{i}}\right)} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Where:
$\lambda$ : is the wavelength used by Sentinel-1A sensor ( $=5.6 \mathrm{~cm}$ ).

Then, following Dubois model (Dubois et al., 1995), the $\varepsilon$ was calculated as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varepsilon=\frac{\log _{10} \frac{10^{2.35} \sigma_{d b}^{o} \times\left(\sin \theta_{i}\right)^{3}}{\left(\left(k h_{0} \sin \theta_{i}\right)^{1.1} \lambda^{0.7}\right) \times\left(\cos \theta_{i}\right)^{3}}}{0.46 \tan \theta_{i}} . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The surface moisture was inverted from the $\varepsilon$ (equation 3) following Topp model (Topp et al., 1980). This model is effective for retrieving soil moisture (Das and Paul, 2015; Song et al., 2010) and could be calculated as follows:

$$
\begin{align*}
M_{v}= & \left(-5.3 \times 10^{-2}\right)+\left(2.92 \times 10^{-2} \varepsilon\right) \\
& -\left(5.5 \times 10^{-4} \varepsilon^{2}\right)+\left(4.3 \times 10^{-6} \varepsilon^{3}\right) \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

Where:
$M_{v}$ : is the volumetric moisture content or the amount of stored water in surface materials.

## Results

## Small Signature of an Eruption Precursor

To obtain the surface changes at the summit, the area size of the drSAR termed as D-Zones was calculated for 16 ALOS PALSAR data series in 2007-2010. The D-Zones at the summit of Mount Sinabung was presented by red portion in backscattering intensity images of ALOS PALSAR (Figure 5). Since the same incidence angle of ALOS PALSAR data was used, the detected D-Zones presented the physical property of lava dome surface such as dielectric and surface roughness parameter. The persistent pixel location was selected to observe the changes over time. Therefore, the influence of surface roughness is


Figure 5. D-Zones at the summit of Mount Sinabung were presented by red portions.
presumed stronger than dielectric constant. When the magma ascends to the shallow reservoir, the dielectric property of lava dome will be constant, but its surface roughness might be increased as explained in previous section.

The D-Zones were located mostly at the centre of the summit prior to the eruption at August $28^{\text {th }}$, 2010. The small surface change of the D-Zones was detected relatively toward SE from the centre of the summit at August $23^{\text {rd }}, 2007$ and January $10^{\text {th }}, 2009$. Then, the large surface changes following the first eruption were detected at August $31^{\text {st }}$, October $16^{\text {th }}$, and December $1^{\text {st }}, 2010$. The SE direction is the most vulnerable zones to the distribution of volcanic products.

In addition to the surface change of the DZones, the surface deformation using D-InSAR after mRLC atmospheric correction was presented as explained in previous section. Time series D-InSAR deformation were presented by blue and red for deflation and inflation, respectively (Figure 6). The deformations at the summit of Mounts Sinabung and Sibayak were focused by excluding the other deformation possibility out of the two summits (black triangles)

The performance of mRLC is depicted by the initial and corrected deformation at the summit of Mounts Sinabung and Sibayak (Figure 7). Their initial interferogram showed large variation of deformation about -0.03 to 0.03 m and -0.03 to


Figure 6. Observed ground deformations after mRLC atmospheric correction in meter units for each pair-wised D-InSAR with YYYY/MM/DD date format. The triangle on the west and east parts are Mounts Sinabung and Sibayak, respectively.


Figure 7. D-InSAR deformation time series prior to the Mount Sinabung eruptions on August $27^{\text {th }}$, September $3^{\text {rd }}$, and September $4^{\text {th }}, 2010$ presented by black arrows showing that the atmospheric signal still influences the detected deformation (dashed lines). Mount Sibayak was used as a background deformation by the mRLC atmospheric correction and the average deformation was calculated by $3 \times 3$ pixels at the summit of Mounts Sinabung and Sibayak presented by subset Figure 2 .
0.06 m with Root Mean Square (RMS) 0.015 and 0.019 , respectively. The large variation of deformation was predicted from the atmospheric phase delay influenced to the interferogram. In contrast, the corrected interferograms at Mount Sibayak were presented by almost 0 m deformation with RMS 0.004 m . The mRLC reduced about $27 \%$ noise from deformation phase signal. For Mount Sinabung, the large variations of deformation related to atmospheric phased delay were reduced and the deformation signal was improved from the initial interferogram with RMS 0.018 m . The initial eruptions at Mount Sinabung are overlaid in the deformation plot by black arrow in Figure 7.

## Current Eruption Impacts to Ground Surface

Obtaining the impact of the eruptions to the land cover, the distribution of volcanic products and modeled surface moisture around Mount Sinabung was analyzed using Sentinel-1A as explained in previous section. The visual comparison between the eruption periods in 2015 and 2016 was used based on colour composite of polarimetric mode R, G, B for VH, VV, VH (Figures 8 a and b ). The selected colour composite was advantageous to enhance the surface parameter related to surface roughness and electrical property influenced strongly to the cross-polarization VH and co-polarization VV, respectively (Saepuloh et al., 2015a; Saepuloh et al., 2015c). The red


Figure 8. Colour composite of Senitinel-1A backscattering intensity images for R, G, B=VH, VV, VH at 2015/02/19 (a) and 2016/02/26 (b) showing the distribution of volcanic products after eruptions in 2015, and land cover types (c) at Mount Sinabung (BKSPN, 2009).
portions in the composite colour indicated the volume scattering from vegetation covers at the old volcanic formation with intensive erosional structures. The red portions with a radial pattern from the summit of Mount Sinabung were distribution of lava and pyroclastic flow deposits. The green portions toward the E and SE from the summit were interpreted as the new volcanic products including tephra, pyroclastics, and lava flows. The variety of electrical properties such as opened ground surface distinguished the appearance of volcanic products.

The volcanic products produced by the eruptions devastated land cover, especially at E-SE (Figure 8c). The grasses, bare land, farm land, paddy field, and settlements were affected mainly by pyroclastic flow deposits. The temporal analyses were pointed at " $\times$ " symbols at the forest, bare, and farm land based on published land cover map (BKSPN, 2009).

The time series of volcanic products influencing the land cover were presented by the changes of surface moisture from February 19 ${ }^{\text {th }}, 2015$ to February $26^{\text {th }}, 2016$ (Figure 9). The low surface moisture presented by red portion is concordant with the distribution of lava flow deposits and the high surface moisture presented by blue portion is concordant with the distribution of pyroclastic
flow deposits. The low surface moisture at the western flank from the summit was interpreted from the tephra deposits as well as the influence of the back slope effect from west Line of Sight (LOS). The pores of fragmental material from pyroclastics and tephra served as the infiltration media from meteoric water to the ground. Therefore, the surface moisture is high at their distribution. In contrast, the presence of fewer pores at lava flow deposits than pyroclastic and tephra causes the surface moisture is low at their distribution. The variation of surface moisture in temporal and spatial distribution is targeted as the effect of the eruptions to the land cover type as explained in the following section.

## Interpretation and discussion

The area size of lava dome roughness or D-Zone extracted based on drSAR at Mount Sinabung was observed to change prior to the eruptions (Figure 10). In spite of low variation curve, the small changes were detected in 2007 and 2008 followed by constant trend in 2009. Then, the increment was noticeable in January to August 2010. The high D-Zone was detected prior to the eruption at July $16^{\text {th }}, 2010$ about 5,121 $\mathrm{m}^{2}$. The maximum D-Zone size was detected four days after the eruption at August $31^{\text {st }}, 2010$


Figure 9. Time series of surface moisture extracted using Dubois model from Sentinel-1A SAR data shows ground surface changes related to new volcanic products.


Figure 10. Time series of D-Zone and D-InSAR deformation at the summit of Mount Sinabung with background D-Zone at Mount Merapi prior to the eruption periods. Black and dashed lines are eruption periods of Mounts Sinabung and Merapi, respectively.
about 6,584 $\mathrm{m}^{2}$. The D-Zone prior to the eruption was interpreted to be affected mainly by surface roughness originated from fracturing system at lava dome, and after the eruption the D-Zone was affected also by the roughness of new volcanic products. The increment of the D-zone prior to the eruption could be explained also by the imaging of seismic tomography from October 2010 to July 2013 (Indrastuti et al., 2019). The low anomaly seismic velocity was reported in a shallow depth at west-southwest from the summit and associated with saturated crack density that high pressurized hydrothermal fluids release to the summit produced the phreatic eruption. Accordingly, it may be possible that the pressure source of the phreatic eruption originated from the west-southwest so that the new volcanic products were detected toward to east-southeast from the summit as presented in this study.

To confirm the change pattern, the case of Mount Merapi eruption on November 2010 was used as depicted by dashed-dot curve (Figure 10).

The large variation was detected at the summit lava dome of Mount Merapi in 2007-2008. In 2010, the D-Zones decreased about $13,500 \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ and followed by a maximum increase in December $17^{\text {th }}, 2010$ about $55,800 \mathrm{~m}^{2}$. In contrast to Mount Sinabung, the eruption of Mount Merapi is characterized by the decrease of D-Zone prior to the eruption. The different eruption type between magmatic eruption at Mount Merapi and phreatic eruption at Mount Sinabung might be affected the surface lava dome as detected by drSAR. The interaction between water and magma for phreatic eruption produces a high pressure beneath the surface and fracturing system at lava dome surface (Saepuloh et al., 2015b).

Analyzing the D-Zone changes over time in the view point of deformation; the D-InSAR deformation series following mRLC atmospheric correction at Mount Sinabung was analyzed. The D-InSAR deformation and D-Zone size were compared to the Mount Merapi eruption in 2010 to characterize a different eruption style (Figure
10). The first significant inflation was detected on November 2008 about 2.3 cm and followed by the high deflation about 4.2 cm on July 2009 termed as Crest-1. The second significant inflation was reached on November 2009 about 3.3 cm . That inflation followed by a deflation until January 2010 about 1.7 cm is termed as Crest-2. The third significant inflation occurring on July 2010 about 1.4 cm was followed by a phreatic eruption at August $28^{\text {th }}, 2010$ termed as Crest-3. Then, the summit of Mount Sinabung began to deflate until August $31^{\text {st }}, 2010$ about 2.4 cm . The only GPS measurement in 2012-2013 confirms that the horizontal displacement from the summit flanks occurring in 2012-2013 is in centimeter scale (Kriswati et al., 2015). Therefore, a low rate deformation about centimeter scale detected by D-InSAR and GPS as well as enlargement of DZones indicates that the small amount of magma batches had been feeding the shallow reservoir continuously. High magma viscosity with a large amount of supply is predicted to the low rate deformation as presented in this study.

The three inflation-deflation periods, detected on November 2008 to August 2010, are interpreted as signatures of magmatic plumbing system from the crust and/or deep magma reservoir about $5.2-8.7 \mathrm{~km}$ depth from the summit (Nugraha et al., 2017). The migration process of magma batches and dike generations through the subsurface will reach a neutral buoyancy level, at which the dike will cease vertical ascent, but continue to propagate laterally and widen (Wyrick and Smart, 2009). Widening dike will allow a graben-like to form which was indicated by the deflation at ground surface (Mastin and Pollard, 1988). The limited seismicity data before the eruption caused difficulty for a deep analysis, e.g. before and during the phreatic eruption. Following the eruptions, the frequency of shallow volcanic earthquakes increased from eleven to forty-nine times per day at September $4^{\text {th }}$, 2010, and deep volcanic earthquakes increased from fifteen to thirty-six earthquakes per day between September $4^{\text {th }}$ and $5^{\text {th }}, 2010$ (Iguchi et al., 2011). These conditions illustrated that the
transport system connected the deep to shallow reservoir through a conduit. The magma has been stored in the shallow reservoir and followed by crystallization and degassing processes which caused the inflation at ground surface prior to the eruption (Bodnar et al., 2007). Then, the deflation occurred following the first eruption due to withdrawal magma pressure that fed the eruption (Lu et al., 2005). The crystallization process transformed magmatic fluid to partly solid crystals caused decreasing volume, but increased the pressure due to degassing process. Therefore, the pressure increased significantly in the shallow reservoir prior to the later magmatic eruption in 2013. Decreasing volume due to crystallization as well as magma migration and dike generation might cause prior deflation to an eruption as also recorded in the case of Mount Merapi eruptions 2010 (Saepuloh et al., 2013), Mount Hekla 1991 (Sigmundsson et al., 1992), and Mount Krafla 1978 (Einarsson and Brandsdottir, 1978).

Following the phreatic eruption in 2010, the magmatic eruptions have been initiated at September $15^{\text {th }}$, 2013 and continued until recently (Gunawan et al., 2017; Nakada et al., 2017). A new phase of Mount Sinabung eruptions has forced people around the volcano to evacuate from the hazardous zones. The long eruption phase has been started and characterized by raised ash plumes about 2 km above the summit and generation of pyroclastic flows and lava (Gunawan et al., 2017). Observing the syn-eruption impact to the ground surface, the surface moisture change using Sentinel-1A data was analyzed following the explained method in previous section. There are four land cover types affected by volcanic products. Thus, four locations presented by " $\times$ " symbols were selected as points of interest (Figure 8). The volcanic products supplied sulphur, selenium, potassium, and magnesium, and influenced the ground surface composition (Cronin et al., 1998). Surface moisture, as well as the above mentioned minerals, is one of the basic elements for soil fertility (Box et al., 1963). Analyzing the temporal change of surface moisture related to exposed volcanic products was discussed as follows.

Fragmental and pores volcanic products such as pyroclastics and tephra served space for meteoric water to hold, so that surface moisture might increase in the affected area. Interestingly, based on the result, the surface moisture relatively decreases on the syn-eruption period. The temporal variation of surface moisture at four points of interest with the number of eruptions is depicted by Figure 11. Accordingly, the surface moisture pattern shows a similar trend among land cover types that the decrease surface moisture at June $14^{\text {th }}$, and December $16^{\text {th }}, 2015$ are followed by the increase in July $1^{\text {st }}, 2015$ and January $9^{\text {th }}$, 2016. The decrease of surface moisture could generally be identified following the eruptions, e.g. the low surface moisture at June $14^{\text {th }}, 2015$ after the eruptions on March-April 2015. The similar phenomenon is also noticed that the low surface moisture at December $16^{\text {th }}, 2015$ is detected following the series of eruptions on July to November 2015.

The new volcanic products such as hot pyroclastic and lava flows are interpreted to evaporate the water content at the surface. Evaporation of surface moisture content due to drying from hot temperature is a common case in decreasing surface moisture (Hirschi et al., 2011; Zampieri et al., 2009). Following the decrease, the surface moisture increases due to infiltration of meteoric water to the pores volcanic products such as pyroclastics and tephra as presented by a high surface moisture at July $1^{\text {st }}, 2015$ and January $9^{\text {th }}, 2016$. Another possibility of low surface moisture was due to the lowering precipitation rate around Mount Sinabung. The volcanic eruptions produced ashes to the atmosphere and decreased the precipitation rate such as at El Chichón and Mount Pinatubo 1991 (Trenberth and Dai, 2007). The large eruptions are concordant to the wide decrease in precipitation (Peng et al., 2010). Further field investigations and meteorological analyses are necessary and aimed to the next step in this study.


Figure 11. Time series detected surface moisture derived by Dubois model using Sentinel-1A SAR. The black triangles are the number of eruptions prolonged after the initial eruption in 2010.

## CONCLUSION

The fracturing system of lava dome growth is explained responsible to detect rough surface and presented by a high backscattering intensity. The maximum D-Zone achieved prior to the eruption of Mount Sinabung at August 28 ${ }^{\text {th }}, 2010$ was located mostly at the centre of the summit. Following the eruption, the increase of D-Zone was also affected by new volcanic products toward SE from the summit. The change of D-Zone prior to the eruption is concordant with corrected D-InSAR deformation using modified Referenced Linear Correlation (mRLC). The mRLC was proved about $27 \%$ effective to remove atmospheric phase delay from the initial interferogram presented by decreasing of RMS deformation variation at reference location from 0.015 m to 0.004 m . Accordingly, there were detected three times inflation-deflation periods termed as crest preceding the eruption. The three crests were precursory signal started on November 2008 (first crest), November 2009 (second crest), and July 2010 (third crest). The paroxysmal third crest was successfully identified at the summit of Mount Sinabung by inflation about 1.4 cm prior to the eruptions. Following the eruption, the deflation occurred due to withdrawal of magma pressure fed to the eruption. The three crest periods are indications of magmatic plumbing system from the crust and/or deep magma reservoir about 5.2-8.7 km deep from the summit. The migration process of magma batches and dike generations through the subsurface allowed for a graben-like to form presented by the inflation-deflation of ground surface. The low and high soil moisture detected by Sentinel-1A served as an indicator of syn- and intra-eruption periods. In the syn-eruptions, the new volcanic products produced by the eruptions including lava and pyroclastic flow deposits were strongly affected to the moisture content of the surface layer. Evaporation of surface moisture due to surface drying from hot volcanic products decreased the surface moisture. In the intra-eruptions, the surface moisture increased due to infiltration of meteoric water to the pore volcanic products, such as pyroclastics and tephra.

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