

SAR and InSAR for disaster response and precursors

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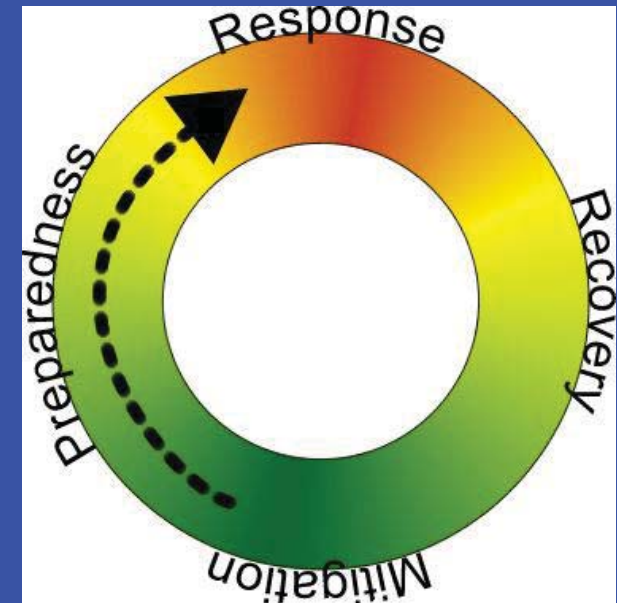
SAR and InSAR provide multiple observations useful
For hazard assessment and response

- 1) Phase change
- 2) Coherence change
- 3) Amplitude change (also use optical images)
- 4) Polarimetry
- 5) Topographic mapping (also use optical images)

Case studies:

- 1) Sinkholes, floods, wildfires, permafrost
- 2) Using coherence change as a proxy for damage
- 3) Glacier change in Patagonia

Disaster Management
Cycle



Lewis, 2009

Many InSAR applications already discussed

Landslides (but precursory deformation before landslides is an open question)

Inter-seismic strain: where will future earthquakes occur?

Rapid calculation of co-seismic deformation

Which fault ruptured?

For Coloumb stress change on nearby faults (e.g., Haiti, Neena Mountain, etc.)

Precursory deformation before volcanic eruptions (not always)

Land subsidence: coastal areas, damage to infrastructure

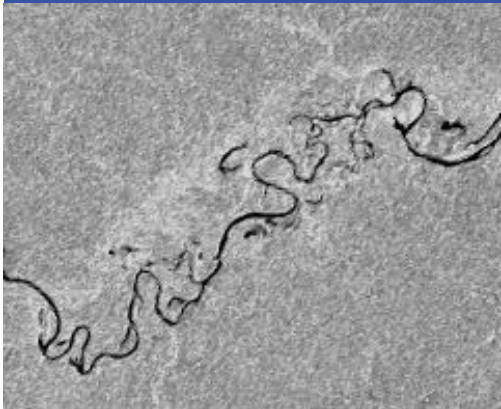
InSAR and SAR to measure floods



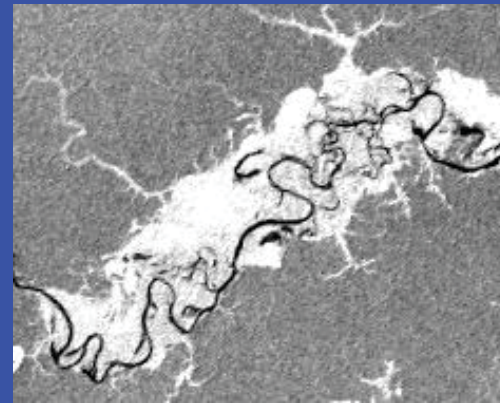
Varzea (Amazon) Dry Season



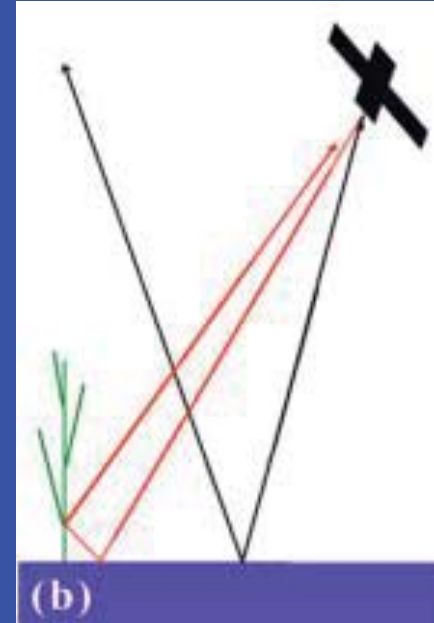
Varzea (Amazon) Wet Season



JERS-1 Dry Season

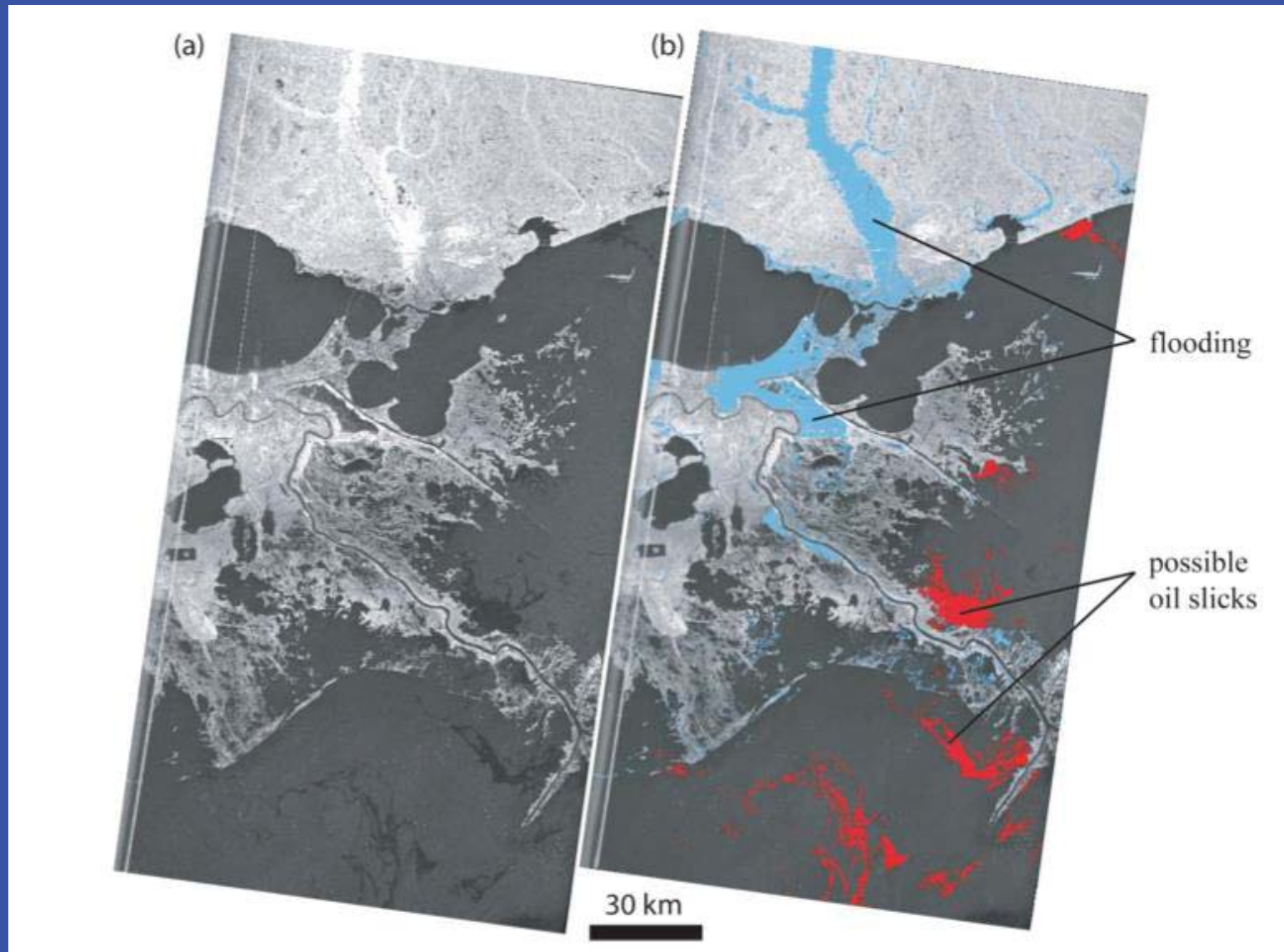


JERS-1 Wet Season



Double bounce of inundated areas increases signal amplitude and changes the phase signal (causing “fringes”)

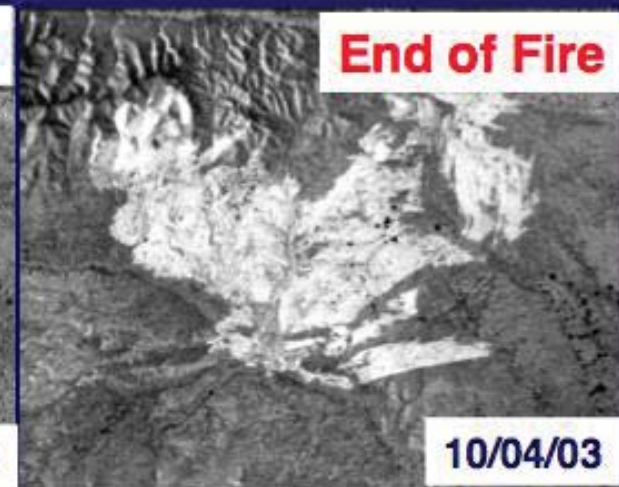
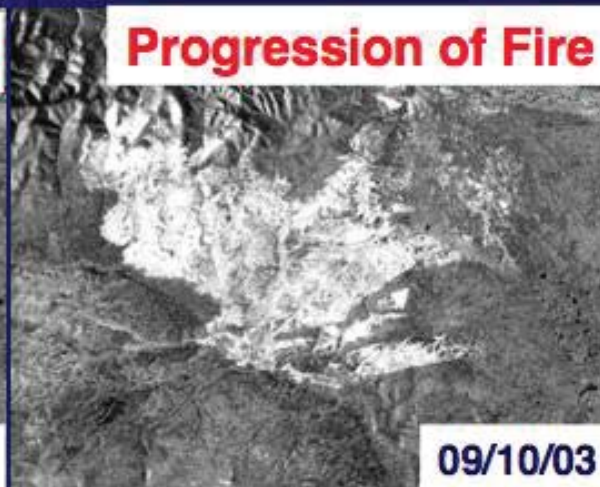
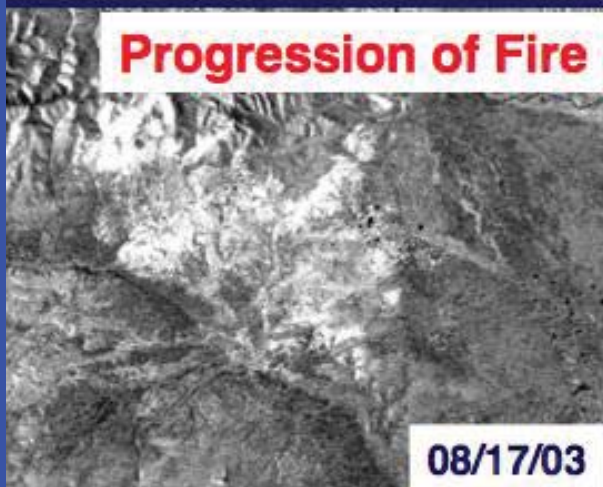
Example following hurricane Katrina



Radarsat-1 image from 2 Sept. 2005 compared with Landsat ETM+ mosaic

Mapping wildfire severity and extent

Yukon River Basin, Alaska

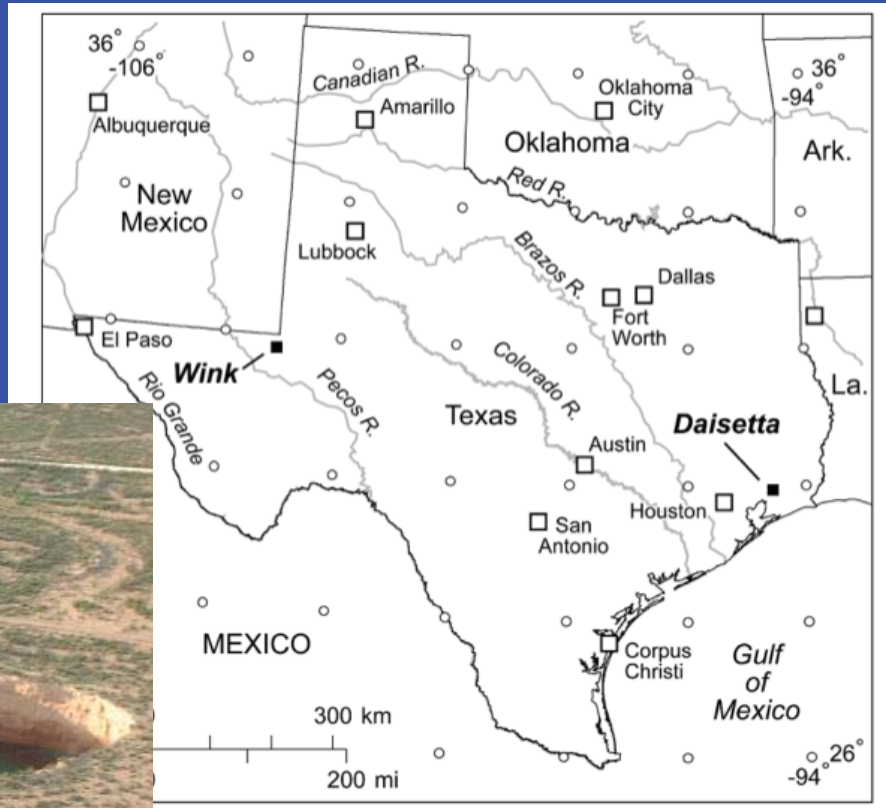


Sinkholes in Texas

Wink sinkholes:
Hendrick oil field with salt deposits

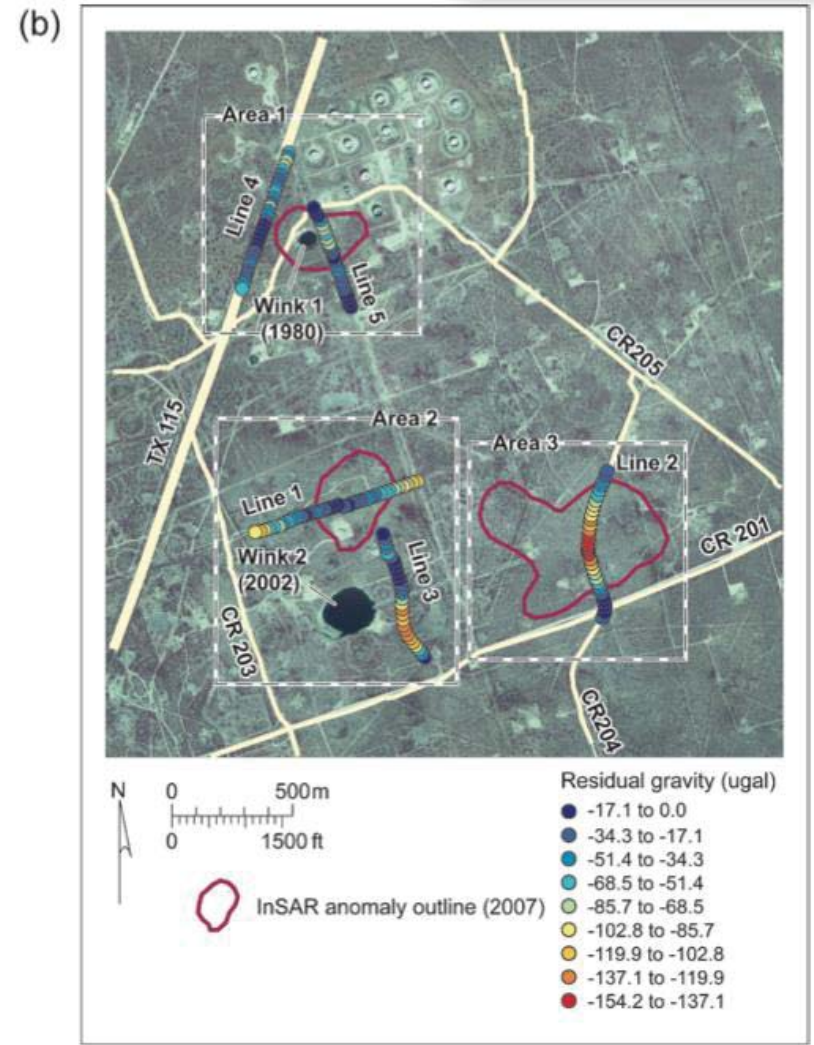
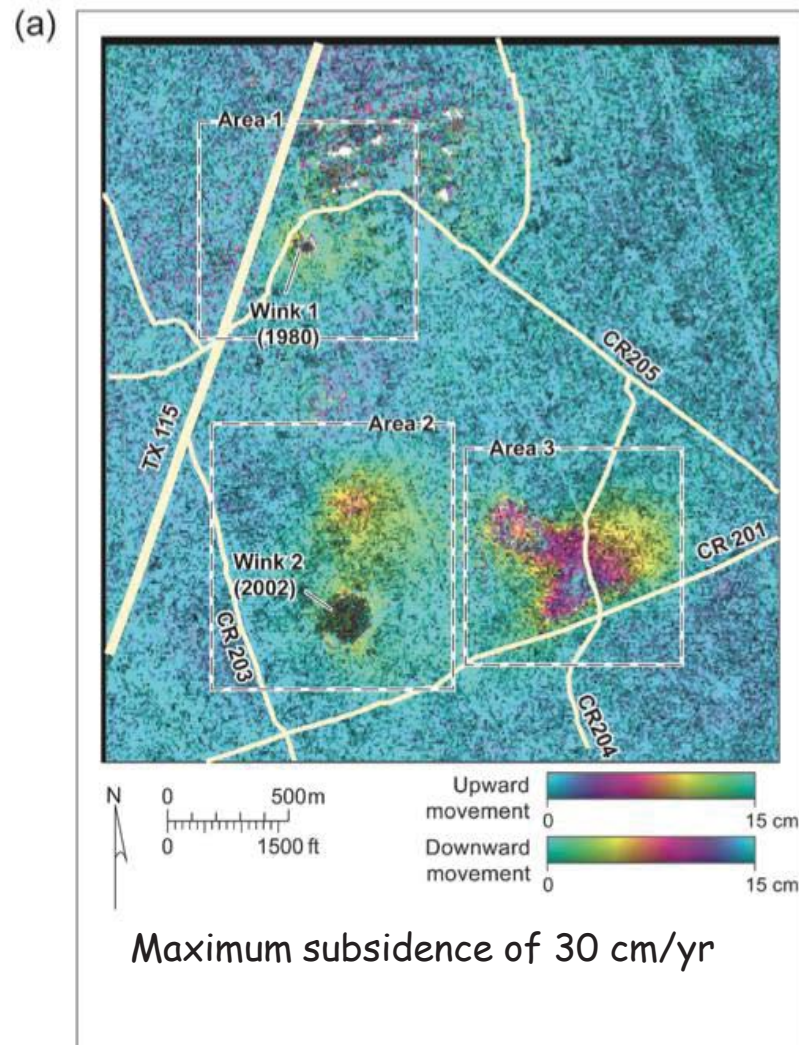
1980: Caused by seepage or fractures near oil well?

2002: Cause unknown, but maybe related to water well

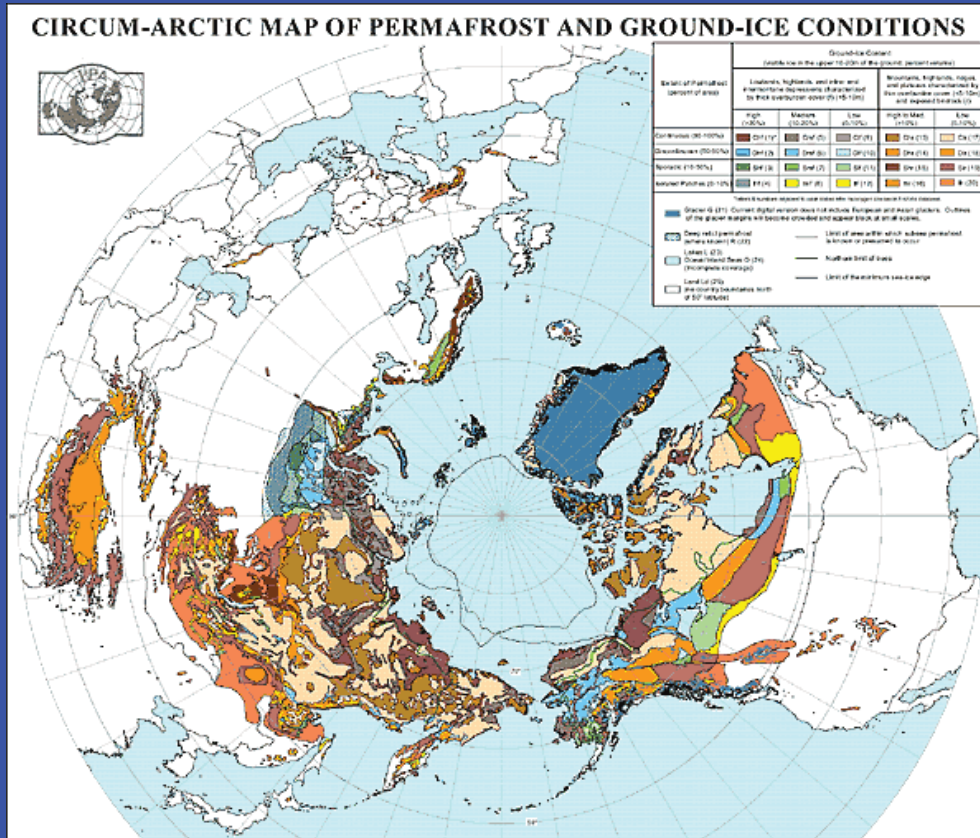


Daisetta 2008 sinkhole had no precursory deformation

Expansion of old sinkholes and potential new ones



Permafrost change



Seasonal signal related to active layer thickness
 Long term trend from climate change

Impact on local infrastructure & global impact on methane

Liu et al., 2010

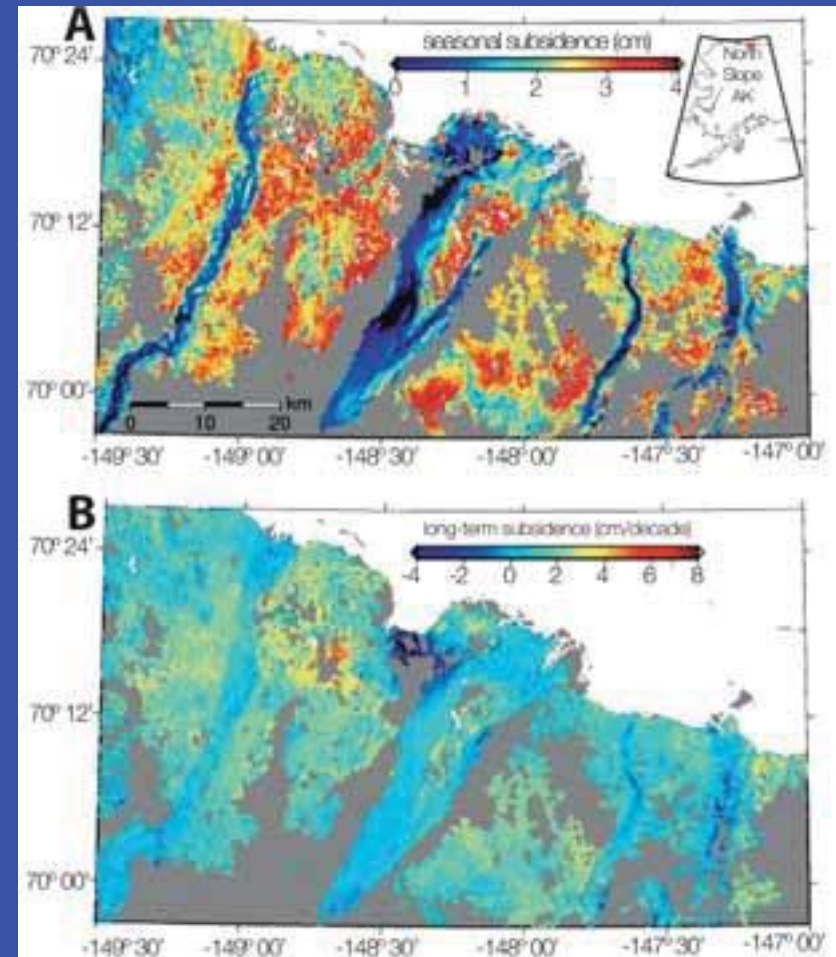


Figure 2: (a) Long-term average seasonal subsidence occurring between June and September based on InSAR measurements. The inset map shows the location of the study area as a red box on the North Slope of Alaska. (b) Long-term trends in surface subsidence between 1992 and 2000. The Arctic Ocean in the northeast is in white. Gray areas indicate regions where no robust InSAR measurements could be made. Figures are adapted from Liu, et al. [2010].

Disaster response: InSAR coherence to rapidly produce damage proxy maps

Synopsis:

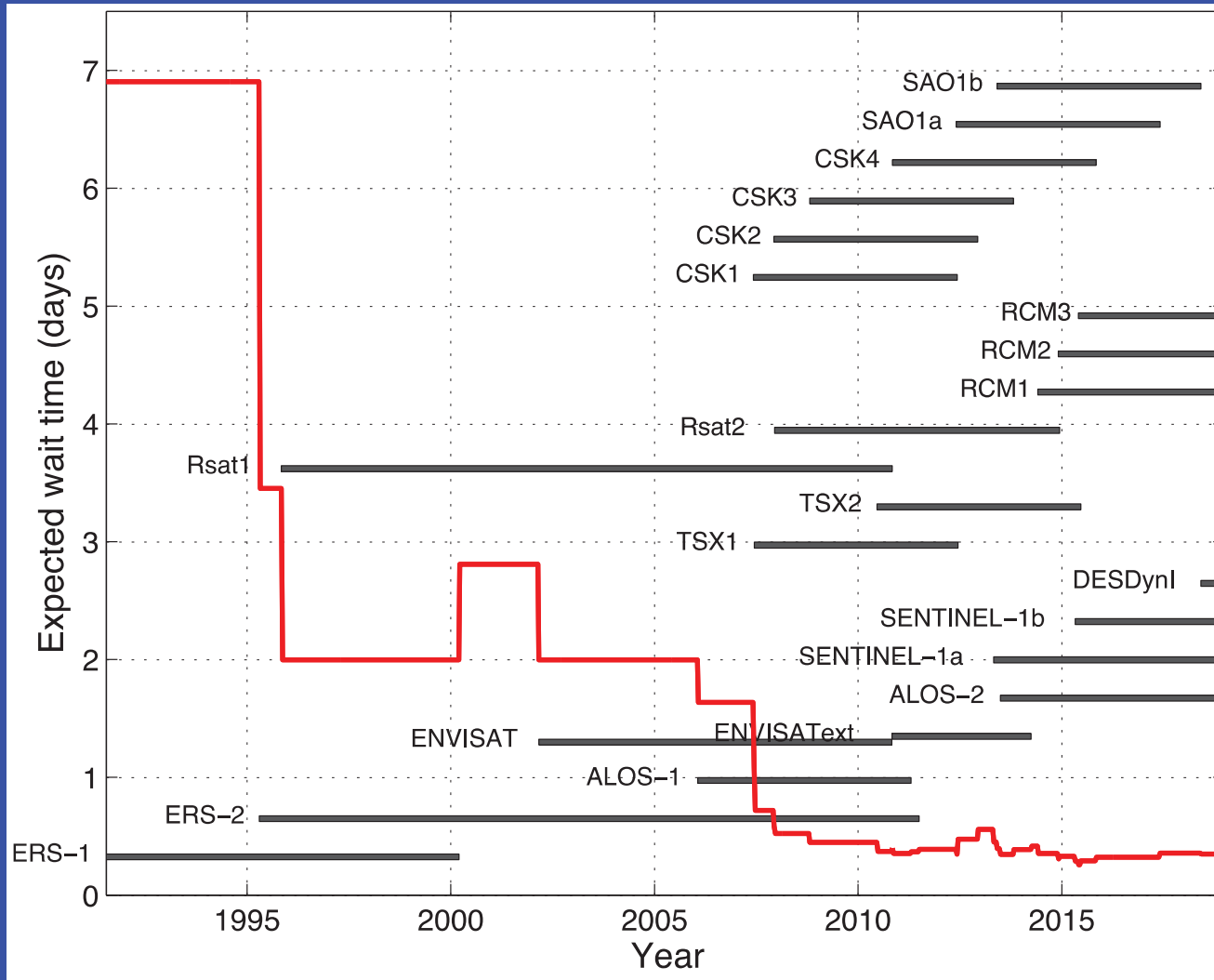
- All-weather, day/night radar with automatic algorithm (no human intervention)
- More effective than other satellite sensors and crowdsourcing?)
- Need for validation:
Haiti example: only ~10% of the most damaged buildings were identified in 0.8 m/pixel imagery. Vertical collapse not easy to detect in nadir imagery (e.g., Booth et al., 2012)

The Aria project of Caltech/JPL

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3. Geological Survey of Japan, AIST, Tsukuba, Japan

Data Acquisition Latency (all InSAR missions)



Expected wait time until
the first SAR satellite
to visit after an event

Ascending + descending
orbit

Right-looking mode

Latitude of 38° N/S

Present: 9 hours

2020: 8 hours

(Yun et al, 2011)

Problem:

- Sufficient pre-event
imagery?

Natural coherence change with time

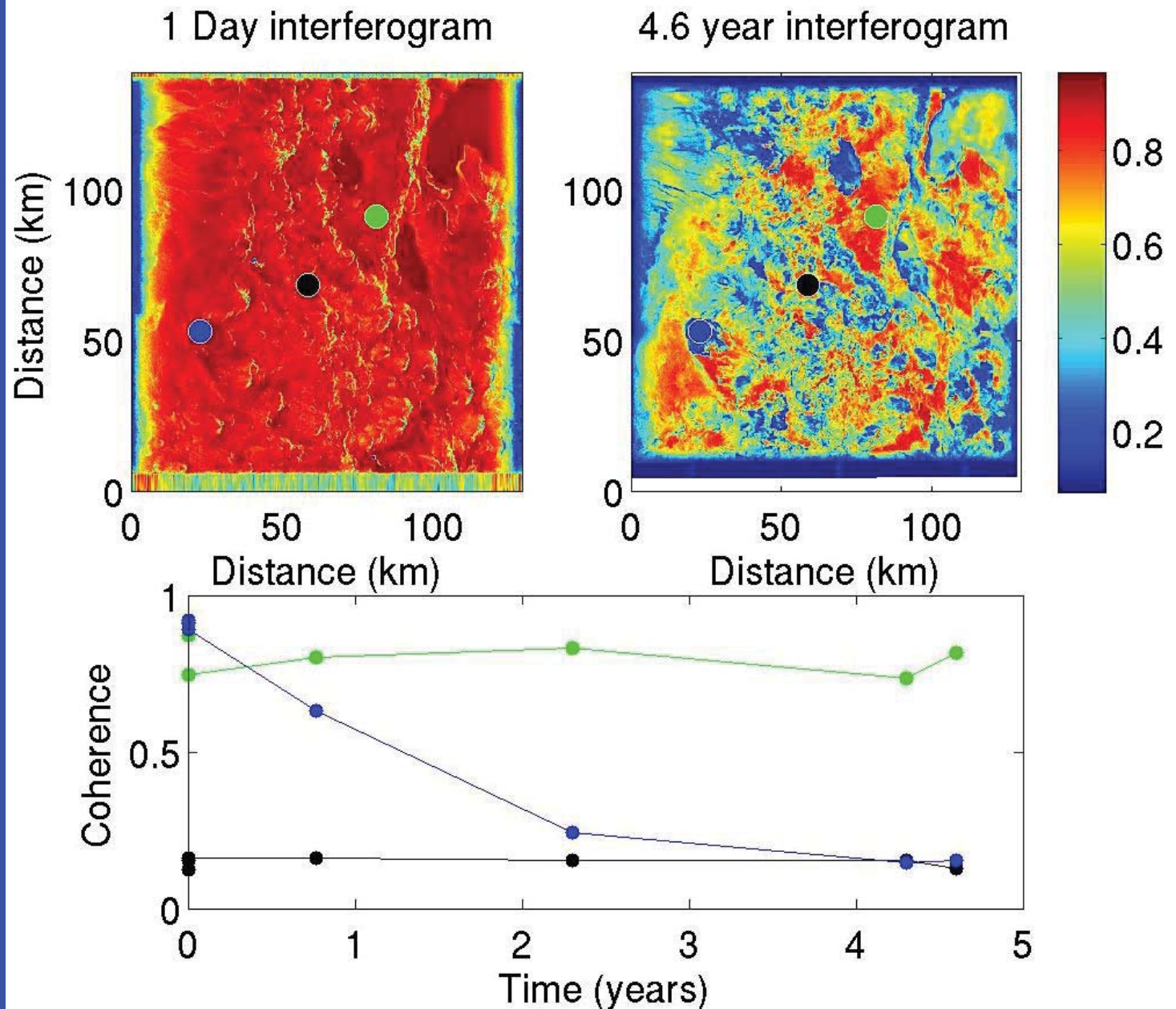


Multiple image analysis of arid Andes (Chile/Argentina)

Black pixel = water

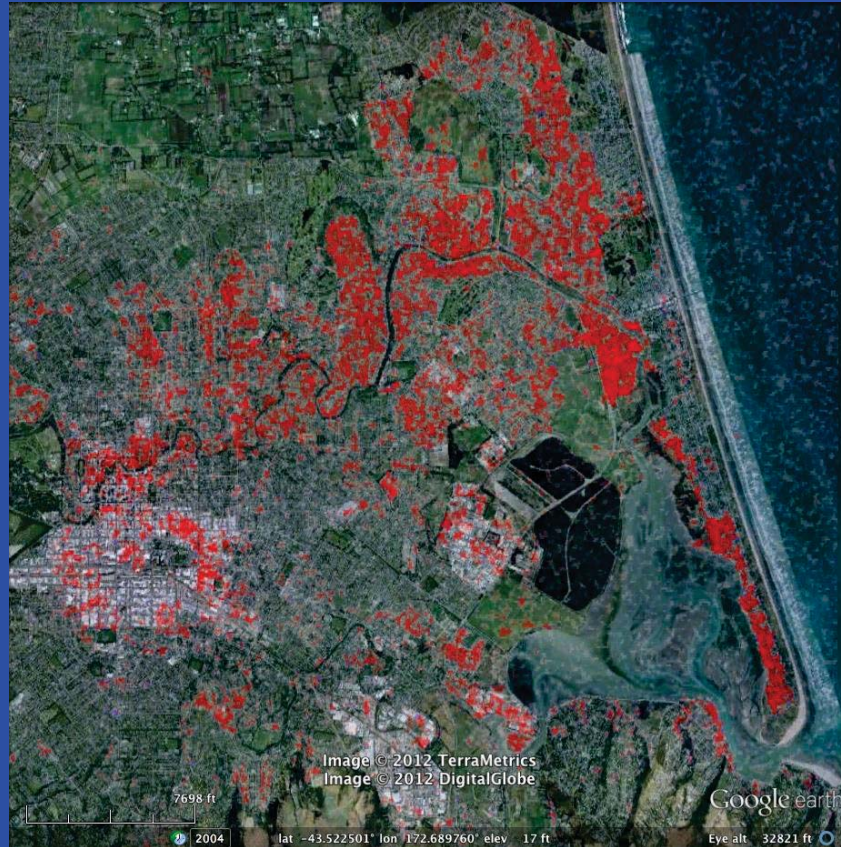
Green = unchanging volcanic deposit

Blue = windblown salt flat



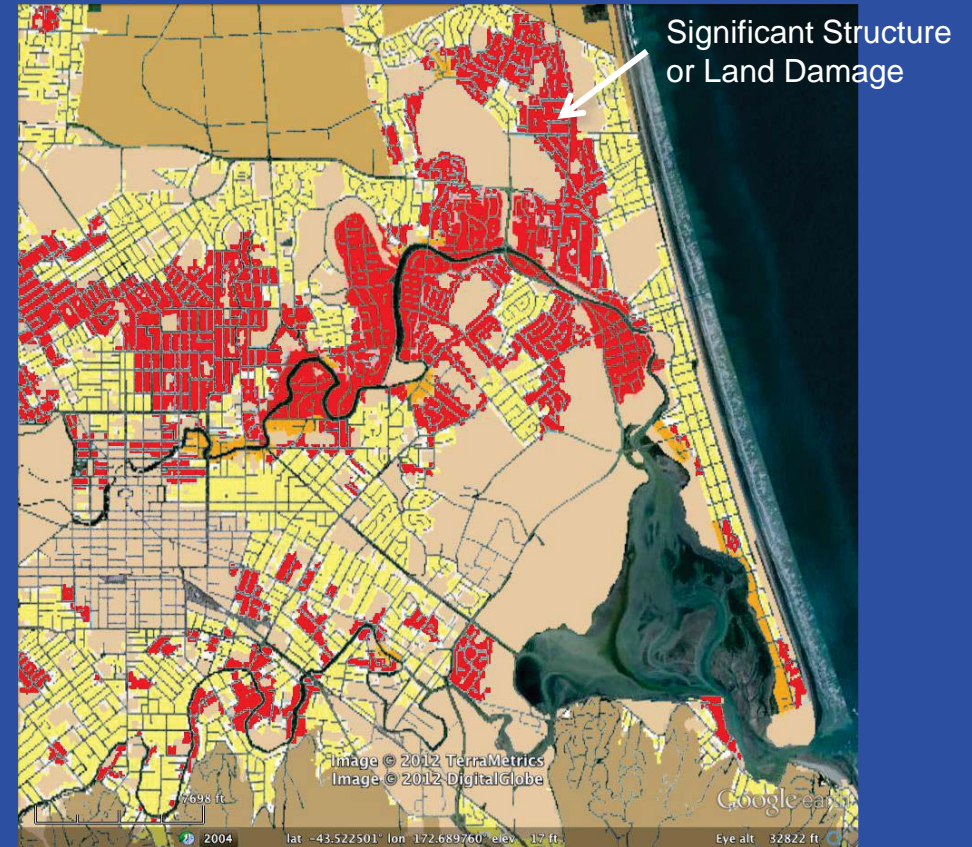
February 2011 Christchurch Earthquake Damage

From radar data acquired **3 days** after EQ



Damage Proxy Map (ALOS PALSAR):
2010.10.10 – 2011.01.10 – 2011.02.25
ARIA – JPL/Caltech

Ground Truth Map released **8 months** after EQ

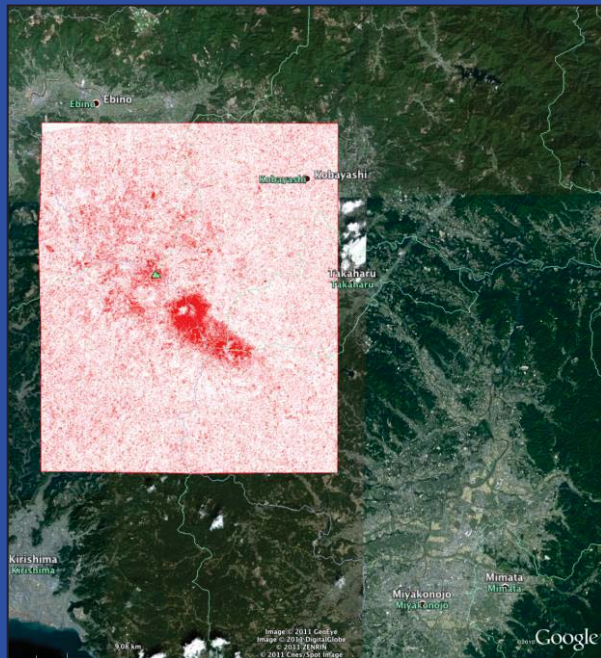


2011.08.28 version
Data provided by the New Zealand Government
<http://data.govt.nz>

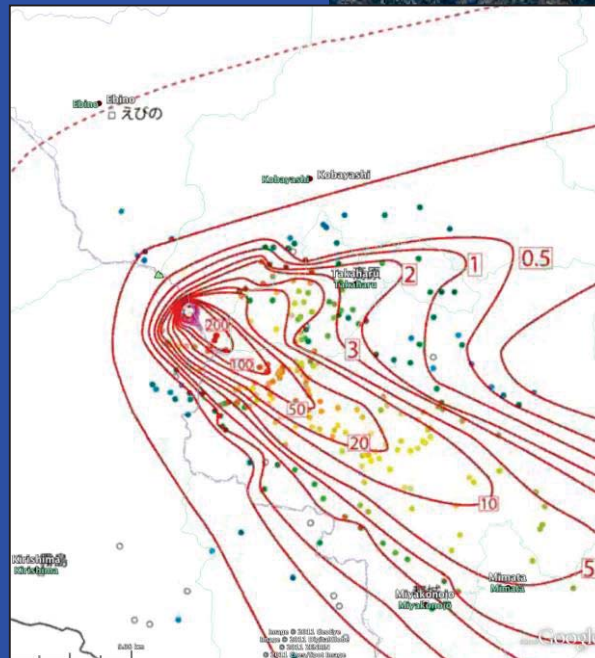


2011 Kirishima Volcano Eruption Ash Fall Damage

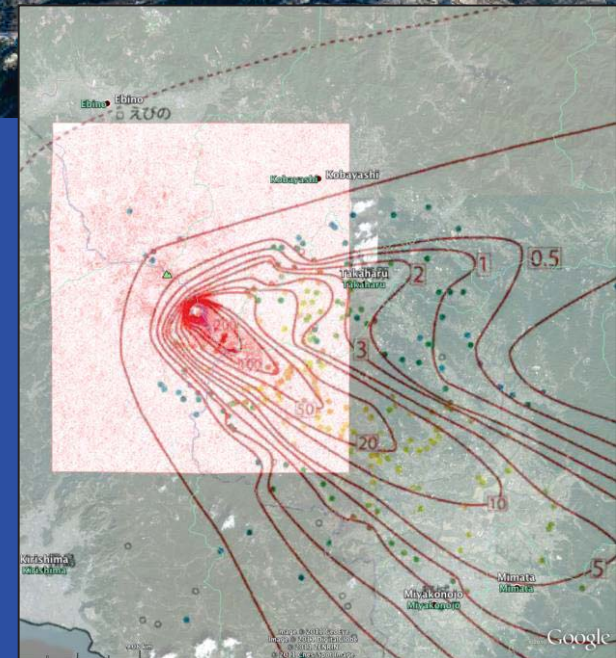
ALOS PALSAR 2010/05/20 – 2010/11/20 – 2011/02/20



Damage Proxy Map
ARIA – JPL/Caltech



Ground Truth: Contour lines that indicate
the amount of ash deposits in kg/m^2 -
Geological Survey of Japan (AIST)



With 99 percentile anomaly threshold,
the detection boundary corresponds to
 $100 \text{ kg}/\text{m}^2$ curve (~10 cm deep)



Remote sensing of Patagonia glacier change

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Mike Willis
Andrew Melkonian
Cornell

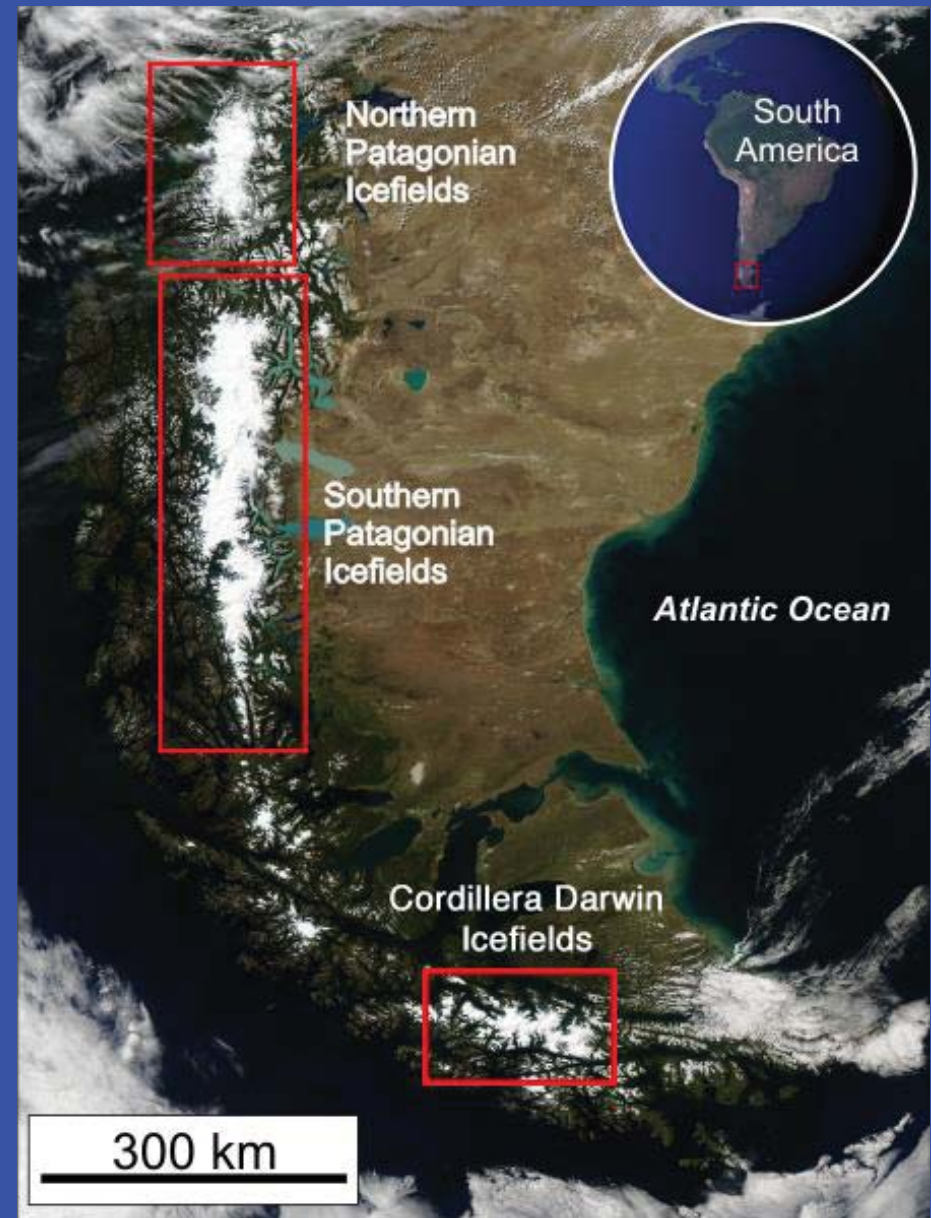
Andrés Rivera
U. Chile

Joan Ramage
Claudio Berti
Lehigh U.



Despite being 0.6% of all ice, Patagonia & Alaska contribute ~20% of all eustatic sea level rise (Jacob et al., 2012)

They are more responsive to change and produce glacial outburst floods

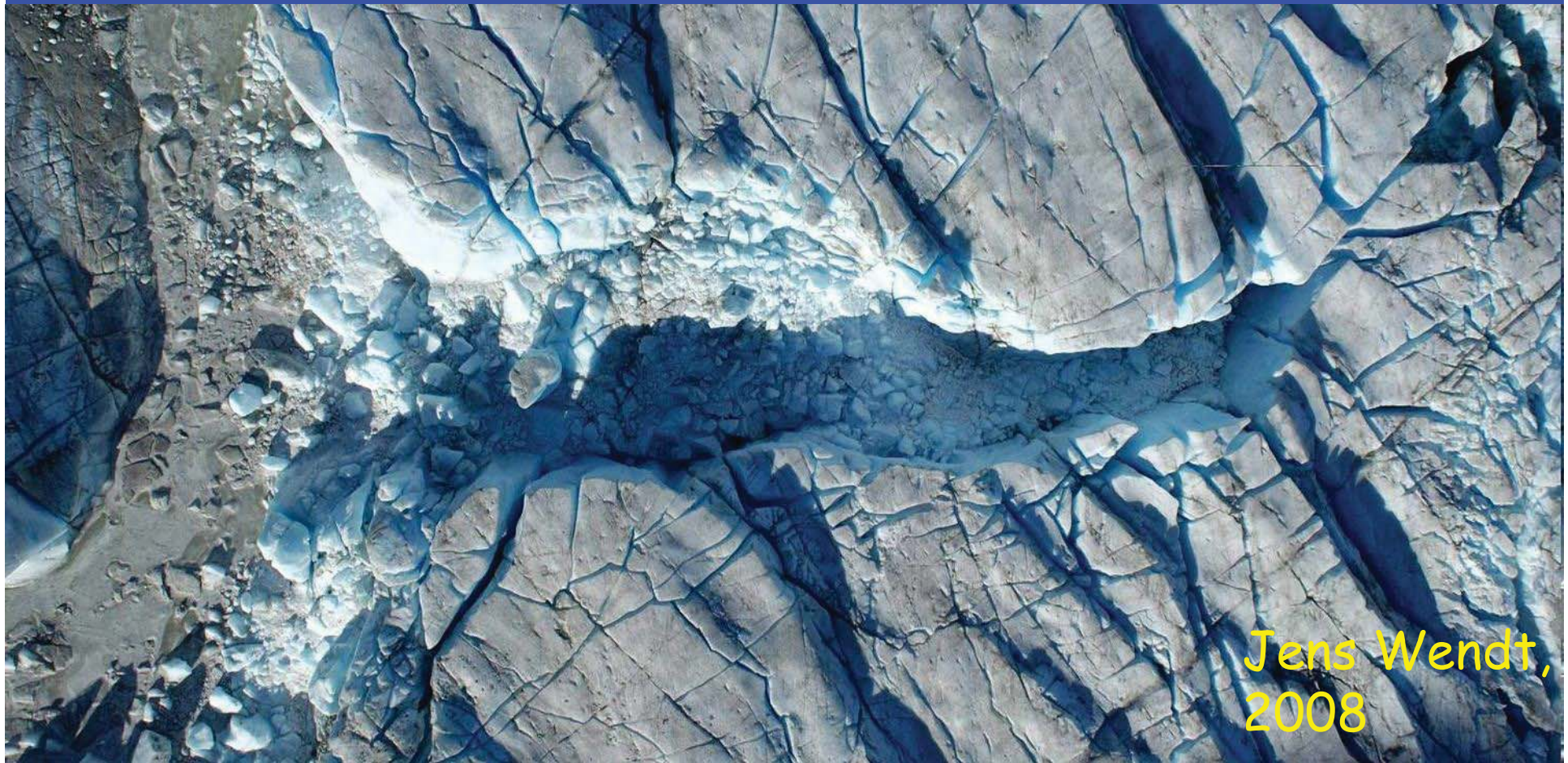


MODIS image

Glacial Lake Outburst Floods

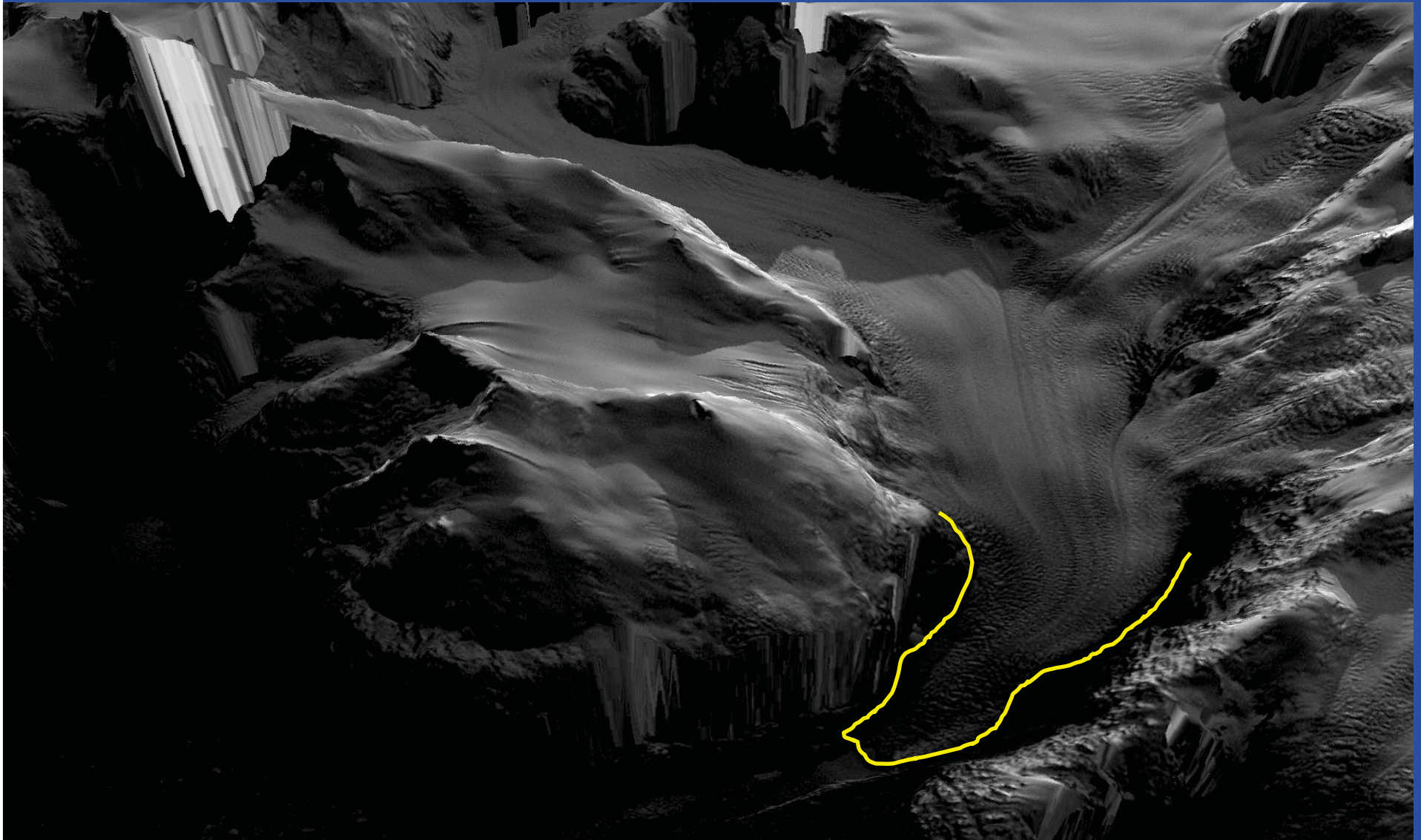
Colonia glacier, Northern Patagonia Icefield: near proposed dam-site

5 floods in 2008-2009, each 200 million m^3 - potential for bigger ones
unprecedented since monitoring started in 1963 (Dussailant et al., 2009)



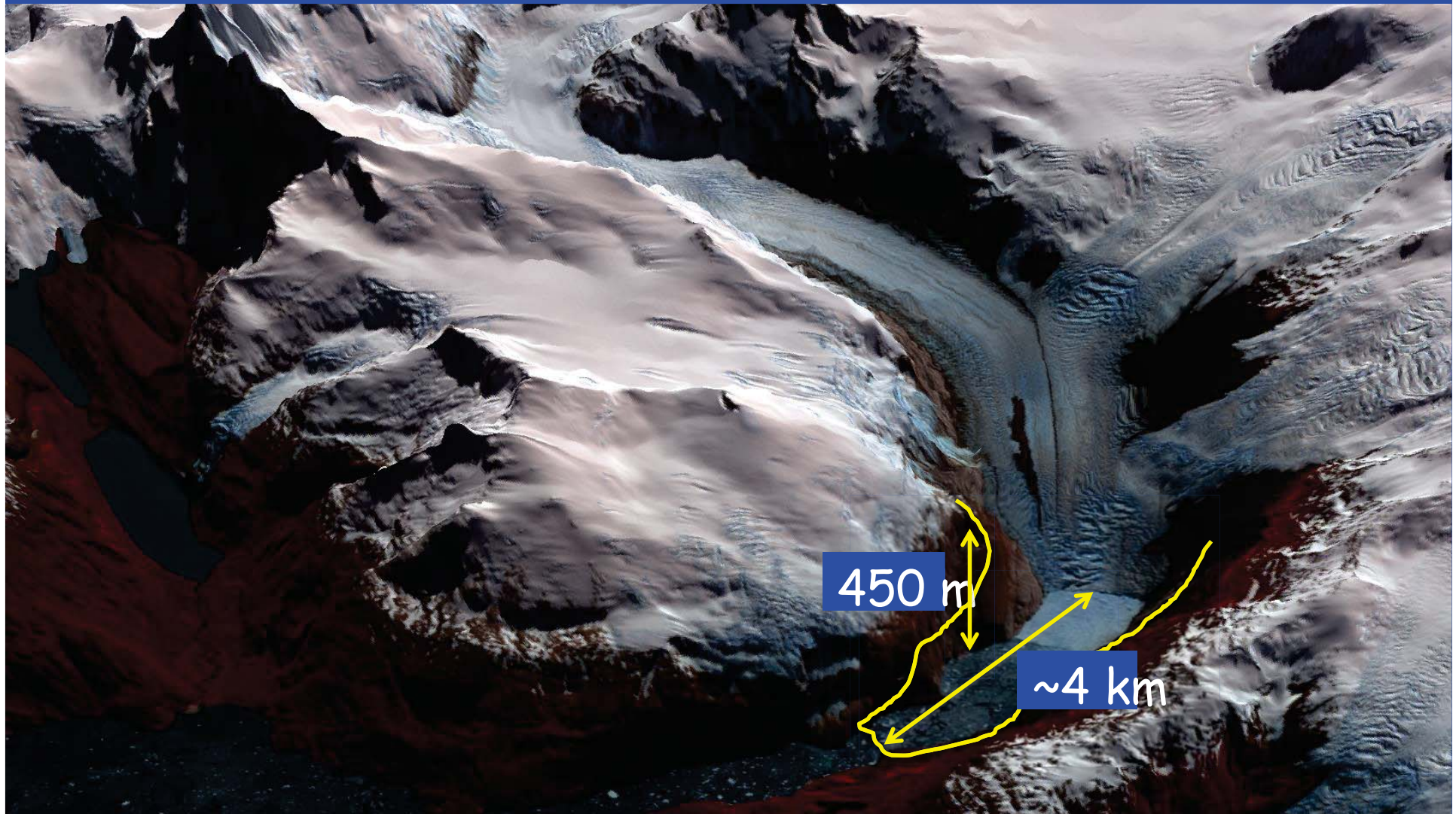
Jens Wendt,
2008

HPS 12 glacier, southern Patagonia: Oct. 2001

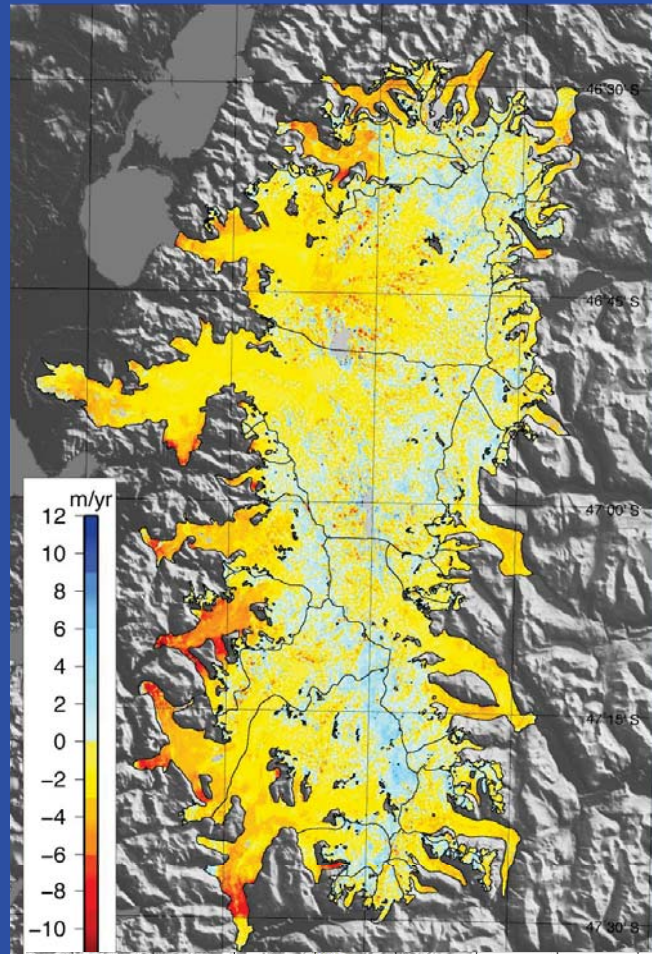


Landsat over SRTM DEM.

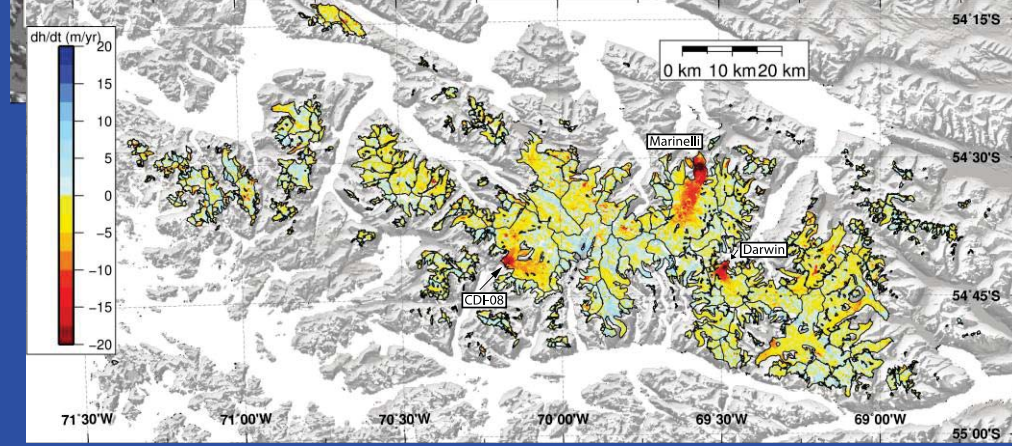
HPS 12 glacier, southern Patagonia: Feb. 2010



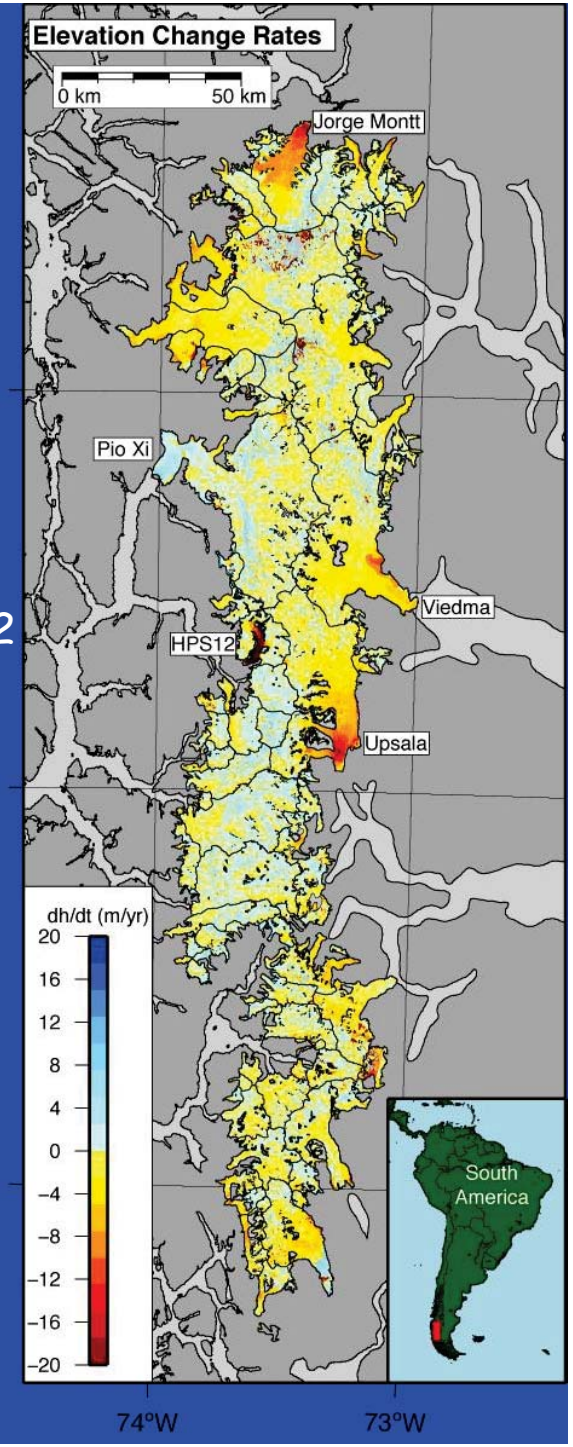
ASTER over ASTER DEM
Lost thickness = Empire State Building



Northern Patagonia
Icefield: 4,000 km²
(Willis et al., 2012)



Cordillera
Darwin
Icefield:
2,500 km²
(Melkonian et al.,
2013)



Southern Patagonia
Icefield: 12,000 km²
(Willis et al., 2012b)

Summary

- Satellite radar is a versatile & underutilized complement to optical sensors for disaster response
- While some applications for hazard assessment are well developed (earthquakes, inter-seismic, volcanoes, landslides, subsidence, etc.) others that could be more widely used
- Advantages:
 - All-weather, Day-night capability
 - Derived products are routine, uniform, and fast
 - 1) Phase change: ground movement
 - 2) Coherence change: damage
 - 3) Amplitude change: Ground movement & damage
 - 4) Polarimetry
 - 5) Topographic change

Taking full advantage of the temporal coverage from the constellation of international sensors is a challenge