

1 Article

2 Natural Hazard Assessment in Western Saudi Arabia 3 using Remote Sensing and GIS Methods

4 Barbara Theilen-Willige ¹, and Helmut Wenzel ²

5 ¹ Technische Universität Berlin (TU Berlin), Institute of Applied Geosciences, Sekr. BH 3-2, Ernst Reuter-Platz
6 1, D-10587 Berlin, Germany; Barbara.Theilen-Willige@t-online.de

7 ² Wenzel Consulting Engineers GmbH, Hofstattgasse 22-21, 1180 Vienna, Austria;
8 helmut.wenzel@wenzel-consult.com

9 * Correspondence: Barbara.Theilen-Willige@t-online.de

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11 **Abstract:** The most frequent disasters in Western Saudi Arabia are flash floods, earthquakes
12 and volcanism, especially submarine volcanism potentially causing tsunamis in the Red Sea and
13 submarine mass movements, dust storms and droughts. As the consequences and effects of the
14 climate change are expected to have an increasing impact on the intensity and occurrence of
15 geohazards as flash floods, length of drought periods, or dust storms, the systematic, continuous
16 monitoring of these hazards and affected areas using satellite data and integration of the results
17 into a GIS data base is an important issue for hazard preparedness. Visual interpretation and
18 digital image processing of optical aerial and satellite images as well as radar images, combined
19 with ASTER, SRTM and ALOS PALSAR DEM data are used for the mapping and inventory of
20 areas prone to geohazards due to their geomorphologic and geologic disposition. Causal or
21 critical environmental factors influencing the disposition to be affected by hazards can be analyzed
22 interactively, then, in a GIS database. How remote sensing and GIS methods can contribute to the
23 detection and continuously monitoring of geohazards in Western Saudi Arabia is demonstrated by
24 several examples: Detection of areas prone to hydrological hazards such as flash floods causing
25 flooding of roads and settlements, tracing of dust storms, outlining of coastal areas of the Red Sea
26 prone to tsunami flooding and storm surge, mapping of traces of recent volcanic activity, and of
27 fault / fracture zones and structural features.

28 **Keywords:** W-Saudi Arabia; natural hazards; remote sensing; GIS

30 1. Introduction

31 Western Saudi Arabia is prone to different natural hazards such as earthquakes, tsunamis and
32 volcanic hazards, as well as flash floods after heavy rainfalls. Slope failure, especially rock fall, is a
33 common phenomenon in the mountainous regions. Shifting sand dunes and dust storms are a
34 serious natural hazard being faced [1]. Over the last decades, floods have been the most recurrent
35 disasters recorded in the International Disaster Database EM-DAT [2], followed by earthquakes,
36 storms and droughts, indicating a strong need for early warning systems. The low percentage for
37 droughts listed in the EM-DAT is due to limited data availability [3].

38 As the consequences and effects of the climate change will have an increasing impact on the
39 intensity and occurrence of natural hazards such as flash floods, length of drought periods, or
40 storms [4], the surveillance and systematic, continuous monitoring of these hazards is an important
41 issue of this research.

42 Further on the human impact in the landscape has to be considered (increasing of built areas,
43 mining, more intensified land use). The increase of the built environment and the enlargement of
44 urban areas has led to a great impact on the landscape and susceptibility to natural hazards.

45 An inventory of past geohazards is one of the main prerequisites for an objective hazard
46 assessment, which includes both the spatial and the temporal aspects of the probability of natural
47 hazard occurrence. Such an objective hazard assessment requires a multi-source, systematic record
48 including regular documentation of temporal information on occurrence that cannot be derived
49 from a historical inventory alone. The ability to undertake the assessment, monitoring and modeling
50 can be improved to a considerable extent through the current advances in remote sensing and GIS
51 technology. This is demonstrated in the scope of this study by the following examples:

- 52 • Flooding: Detection of areas prone to flash floods
- 53 • Seismic hazards: Mapping of fault and fracture zones and of structural features (that might be
54 of influence on seismic hazards) based on remote sensing data
- 55 • Volcanism: Inventory of volcanic features
- 56 • Tsunami hazards: Detection of areas prone to tsunami flooding

57 2. Natural Hazards

58 2.1. Flash Floods

59 In the arid areas of western Saudi Arabia flash floods are generated after high-intensity rainfall
60 events, particularly on steep mountainous terrain and hilly slopes that are barren and lack
61 vegetation cover. Flash floods and associated debris flows are quite common along the steeper
62 slopes and valleys of the western escarpments [5] during the wetter season. The runoff generated
63 during the occasional heavy rainstorms in the region, coupled with the urban growth are the main
64 causes of the occurrence of flash floods. Though the average annual rainfall in Saudi Arabia is only
65 about 100 mm, hydro-logical hazards occur especially in the big cities like Jeddah and Makkah
66 mainly due to rapid urbanization which has led to the development of housing in topographically
67 low-lying regions and obstruction of the natural drainage systems. The urbanization significantly
68 decreases the permeability of the soil and, thus, leads to a crucial increase in hazardous water
69 surface runoff [6].

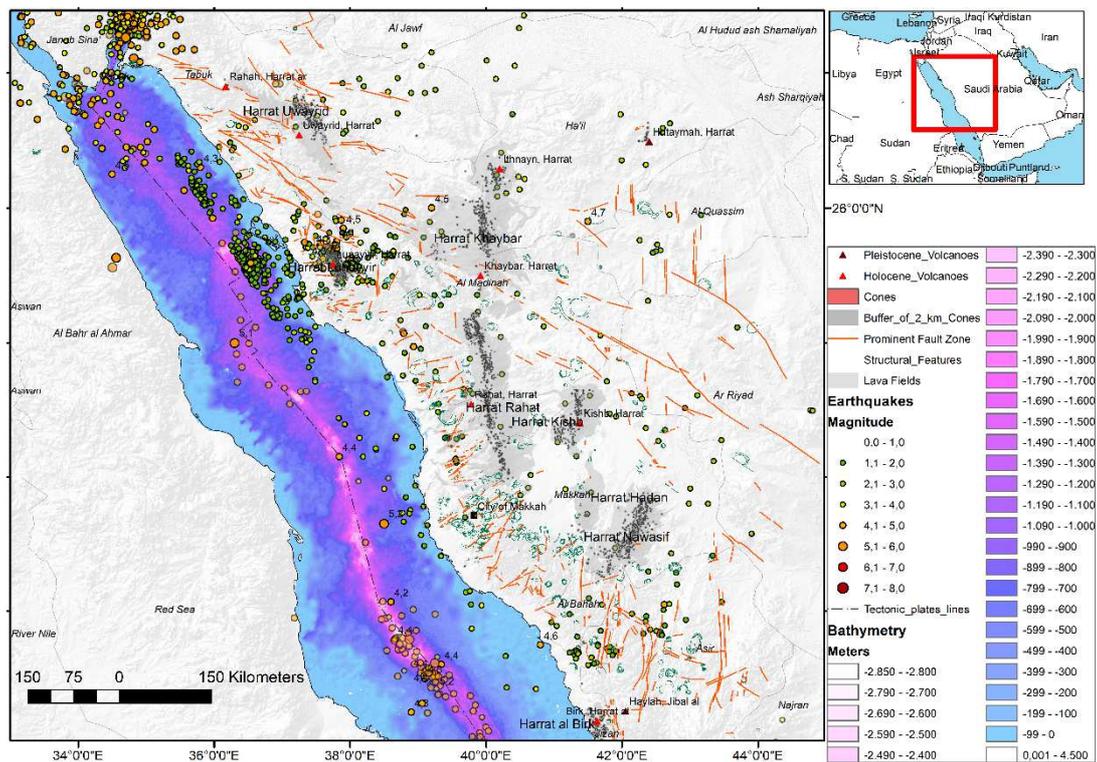
70 2.2. Earthquake Hazard

71 The general physiography of western Saudi Arabia is characterized by the Red Sea coastal
72 plains and the escarpment foothills called Tihama. Along this zone, sabkha areas exist in
73 longitudinal stretches parallel to the shore line of the Red Sea [5]. The Arabian Peninsula forms a
74 tectonic plate surrounded by active boundaries with earthquake occurrence [7]. Following the rifting
75 of the Red Sea Basin some 30 million years ago, the Red Sea region became a broad zone of active
76 deformation between Africa and Arabia. Seismicity in the region is caused by the collision of the
77 Arabian plate with the Eurasian plate along the Zagros and Bitlis thrust system, rifting and sea floor
78 spreading in the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden. A concentration of earthquake activities is monitored
79 along the Red Sea Rift and the Gulf of Aqaba [1], [8].

80 The Red Sea is a narrow ocean basin, separating the African plate from Arabian plate. It is
81 approximately 3000 km long and about 100 to 300 km wide. The margins of the Red Sea are forming
82 steep fault scarps, that rise sharply from the coast. In the central and southern Red Sea, the rifting
83 area is characterized in the median valley with an axial trough that reaches water depths of more
84 than 2000 m, and by a basaltic oceanic crust with magnetic anomalies [9]. Most of the earthquakes
85 occur within the spreading zone in the rift valley region, which is characterized by continuous sea
86 floor spreading [8], see Figure 1. Earthquake activities are oriented along major faults or clustered in
87 certain spots [10]. Concentrations of earthquake activity are seen where the spreading zone is
88 intersected by the NE-SW striking transform faults [11]. A great part of the seismicity of in western
89 Saudi Arabia is volcanic-related and, thus, more of the swarm type.

90 When researching seismic and aseismic activity and the geodynamic, plate tectonic related,
91 active movements in Western Saudi Arabia, the focus is directed towards the monitoring of larger
92 fault zones, especially active fault zones and active shear zones. Understanding active tectonic

93 processes has become fundamental not only for the detection of areas prone to earthquakes, but also
 94 for the monitoring of infrastructure (bridges, tunnels and pipelines).



95

96 **Figure 1.** Earthquakes in West-Saudi Arabia (Earthquake data: USGS, ISC, EMSC) [12,13,14] during
 97 the last decades (sources: lava shapefile from USGS, Pleistocene and Holocene volcano shapefiles
 98 from Smithsonian Institution's Global Volcanism Program (GVP) [15], cinder cones and larger
 99 lineaments (red lines) mapped based on satellite data)

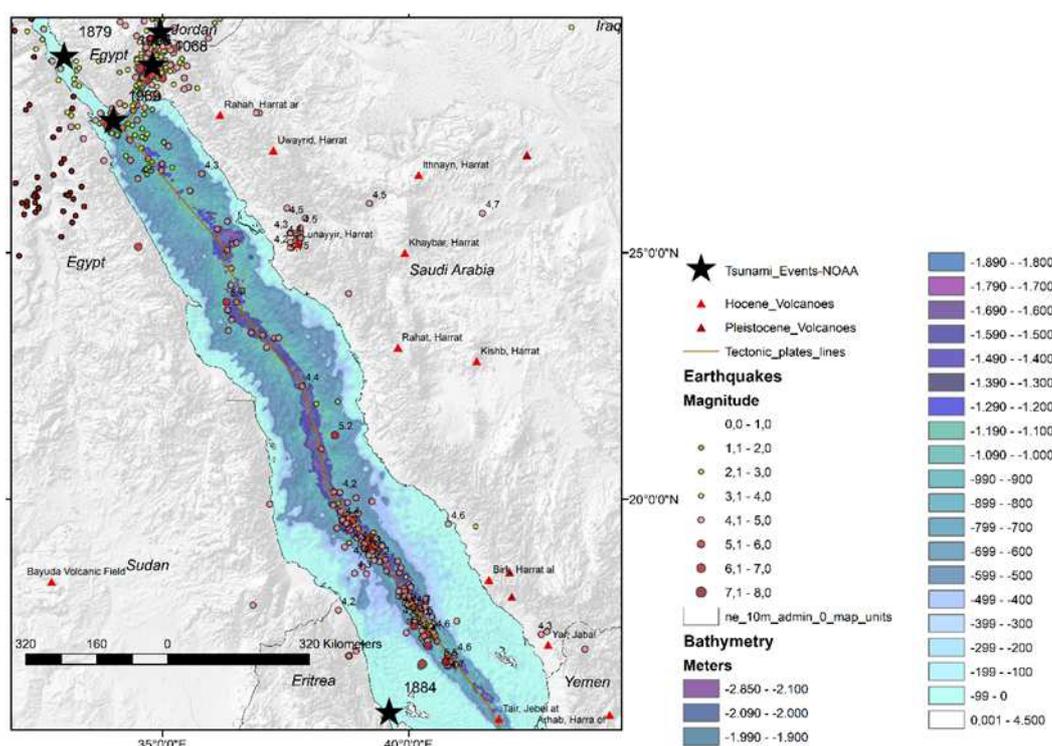
100 2.3. Volcanic Hazards

101 The western Arabian plate encompasses at least 15 continental, intraplate volcanic fields,
 102 known in Arabic as Harrat (Figure 1). The first period of volcanism (30–15 Ma) was associated with
 103 the doming and rifting of the Proterozoic basement of the present Arabian Nubian Shield along the
 104 north-northwest trending rift system leading to the opening of the Red Sea basin. The second period
 105 of volcanism (< 12 Ma) is characterized by north–south trending vent system associated with the
 106 onset of a new north–south trending 900 km long crustal rift system passing through the 600 km
 107 long Makkah–Madinah volcanic line. Individual volcanic fields can be very large, such as Harrat
 108 Ash Shams and Harrat Rahat. Harrat Al Madinah volcanic province (a part of Harrat Rahat) is an
 109 active volcanic field characterized by two historical eruptions, one in 641AD and another in 1256 AD
 110 [16]. These volcanic fields are forming a broad zone sub-parallel to the Red Sea Rift. Hawaiian to
 111 Strombolian type eruptions created lava spatter, shield volcanos and scoria cones.

112 Northwestern Saudi Arabia experienced notable earthquake swarms during April–June 2009.
 113 These earthquakes took place beneath Harrat Lunayyir [17]. The maximum magnitude recorded was
 114 5.4, and this earthquake caused minor structural damage in the town of Al-Eis about 40 km from the
 115 city of Madinah [17]. As a result of this earthquake, a northwest trending 8-km-long surface rupture
 116 propagated across the northern part of the volcanic field. Harrat Lunayyir is one of the smallest and
 117 youngest of the extensive volcanic fields on the western Arabian Peninsula, lying ~ 60 km east of the
 118 Red Sea and covering a surface area of ~3500 km² [18]). Historical records of volcanic activity
 119 indicate that over 20 eruptions have occurred on the Arabian Peninsula during the past 2000 years
 120 [19], including one possible eruption in Harrat Lunayyir about 1000 years ago, recent dyke
 121 intrusions monitored in 2009 [18].

122 2.4. Tsunami Hazards

123 The potential of magmatic and volcanic activity to move large volumes of submarine materials
 124 like lava or turbidity currents that could eventually originate water mass movements has to be
 125 taken into account in the Red Sea. The capacity of submarine seismic activity (earthquakes) to
 126 produce tsunamis in the Red Sea is known [20]. The Arabian Peninsula has been affected by
 127 tsunamis in the past, see Figure 2. Submarine, volcanic eruptions can produce volcanic tremors,
 128 earthquakes, and sudden submarine displacement of rocks and sediments, originated either by
 129 movement of magma masses under the sea-surface, formation of fractures, effusion of lava flows, or
 130 sudden formation of islands.



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132 **Figure 2.** Tsunami events (blue stars) in the Red Sea as documented by NOAA [21]
 133 Bathymetric data: GEBCO [22]

134 With an elongate shape (width of up to 355 km and a length of 2250 km) the prerequisite for
 135 seiche development in the Red Sea is given. Seiches are typically caused when strong winds and
 136 rapid changes in atmospheric pressure push water from one side of the Red Sea to the other. When
 137 the wind stops, the water rebounds to the other side of the enclosed area [23]. The water then can
 138 continue to oscillate back and forth for hours or even days. Winds and atmospheric pressure can
 139 contribute to the formation of both, seiches and meteo-tsunamis; however, winds are typically more
 140 important to a seiche motion, while pressure often plays a substantial role in meteo-tsunami
 141 formation (NOAA).

142 3. Materials and Methods

143 The interdisciplinary approach used in the scope of this research comprises remote sensing
 144 data, climate data, geological, geophysical and geomorphological / topographic data and GIS
 145 methods. The processing and analysis of Landsat and Aster images of Western Saudi Arabia that
 146 have been available for decades, will support the detection of environmental changes.
 147 GeoInformation Systems (GIS), used together with remote sensing data and field research,
 148 contribute to the analysis and presentation of information related to the geo-hazards in the
 149 investigation area. The interactions and dependencies between different causal and preparatory

150 factors influencing the susceptibility to natural hazards can be visualized and weighted step by step
151 in this GIS environment [24, 25].

152 Different satellite data and image processing tools were tested in order to find out how far the
153 satellite data can contribute to the detection of causal factors influencing the susceptibility of
154 Western Saudi Arabia to natural hazards due to the geomorphologic disposition of the region such
155 as to flash floods and to slope failure. For the present study Landsat-, ASTER, Sentinel-2 and
156 OrbView images are available [26]. The use of multi-temporal satellite remote sensing data opens up
157 the opportunity for the development of efficient methods for systematic spatio-temporal mapping
158 over large areas. For a better overview of seasonal influences on natural hazards a multi-temporal
159 analysis of different satellite data was carried out. A comparative analysis of optical satellite data
160 and the Sentinel and ALOS PALSAR radar data provided by the Alaska Satellite Facility [27] was
161 carried out, in order to derive more structural geologic information. Due to the geomorphologic
162 situation causing distortion of the radar signals in this area, the evaluation of Sentinel 1 A and B
163 provided by ESA and PALSAR radar images requires geometric correction and calibration. Radar
164 related layover-effects and foreshortening effects are limiting factors in this partly mountainous
165 environment. The processing of the radar data was carried out using the SNAP software of ESA.

166 Satellite imageries and DEM data are used for generating an image based GIS data base and
167 combined with different geodata and other thematic maps. This database comprises two main parts:
168 (a) the datasets with the background geographic conditions and (b) the hazard inventory dataset.
169 The integration of seismic records, geomorphologic analysis, digital elevation data, lithology, land
170 cover and suitable high-resolution remote sensing data are part of this data mining. In the scope of
171 this study, open-source data as provided by OpenStreetMap [28] or Google Earth were used in
172 addition for gaining the necessary information, as well as evaluations of ESRI base maps and further
173 ArcGIS-Online-tools and data.

174 One of the first steps towards the assessment of the different geohazards is the susceptibility
175 analysis and mapping. The susceptibility analysis and maps comprise the potential location of the
176 hazard source. Such susceptibility maps are a valuable tool for assessing current and potential risks
177 that can be used as input for developing early warning systems and mitigation plans, such as
178 selecting the most suitable locations for construction of structures and roads. According to the
179 resulting susceptibility maps, hot spots can be identified where more detailed analysis should
180 follow. Detailed information on historic records of both occurrences and event data are necessary
181 for the hazard analysis.

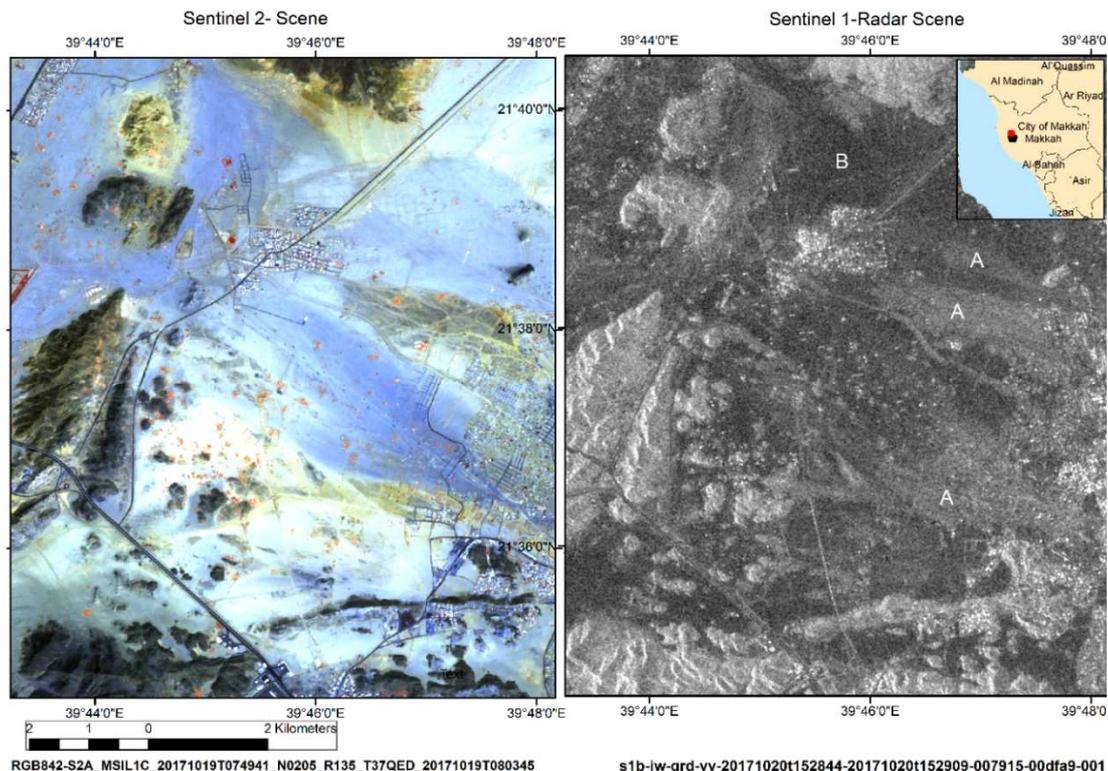
182 4. Evaluation Results

183 4.1. Combined evaluations of optical satellite images and satellite radar data for the detection of areas prone to 184 flash floods

185 Satellite images can contribute to the detection of areas prone to flash floods when acquired
186 during or shortly after the flash flood events. Cloud covers are often a hindrance. Therefore radar
187 data are a valuable, additional tool for identifying flooded areas. They help not only to detect areas
188 affected by flooding, but also to visualize the related sediment flow and disposition. The monitoring
189 and mapping of flash flood sediments and erosion pattern is an important issue for the planning of
190 settlements, infrastructure and supply lines. Figure 3 shows a Sentinel 2 (RGB band combination of
191 Band 8, 4 and 2) and a Sentinel 1-radar scene from an area west of the city of Mecca. Traces of
192 sediment transport of flash floods can be easily detected on the optical satellite data of Sentinel 2
193 in blue colors.

194 The differences in brightness between pixels in the radar image, marked by changes in the gray
195 scale and backscatter intensity due to surface roughness changes contribute to the detection of
196 sediment properties. Dark image tones are associated with finer grained sediment sheets (clay, sand)
197 because the incident radar signals were largely reflected from their “radar-smooth” surfaces in a
198 mirror-like fashion away from the satellite antenna. Coarse-grained sediments appear in lighter
199 tones as their more radar-rough surfaces generate a diffuse and stronger signal return / radar

200 backscatter (Figure 3). As the distance to the source areas of the transported sediments during a flash
 201 flood is relatively short in this area, coarse-grained, loose gravel seems to be prevailing, thus,
 202 causing the brighter tones on the radar image (diffuse radar backscatter). The finer grained material
 203 is transported to the larger valley towards the coastal area, where it is affected by aeolian activity
 204 forming dune fields.



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 206 **Figure 3.** Sediment (blue colors) after heavy rains visible on a Sentinel 2-scene (acquisition date:
 207 19.10.2017) and on the Sentinel 1 radar scene (acquisition date: 20.10.2017) west of the City of Mecca,
 208 A – coarser-grained sediments, B – finer grained sediments

209 4.2. Evaluation of Digital Elevation Model (DEM) Data

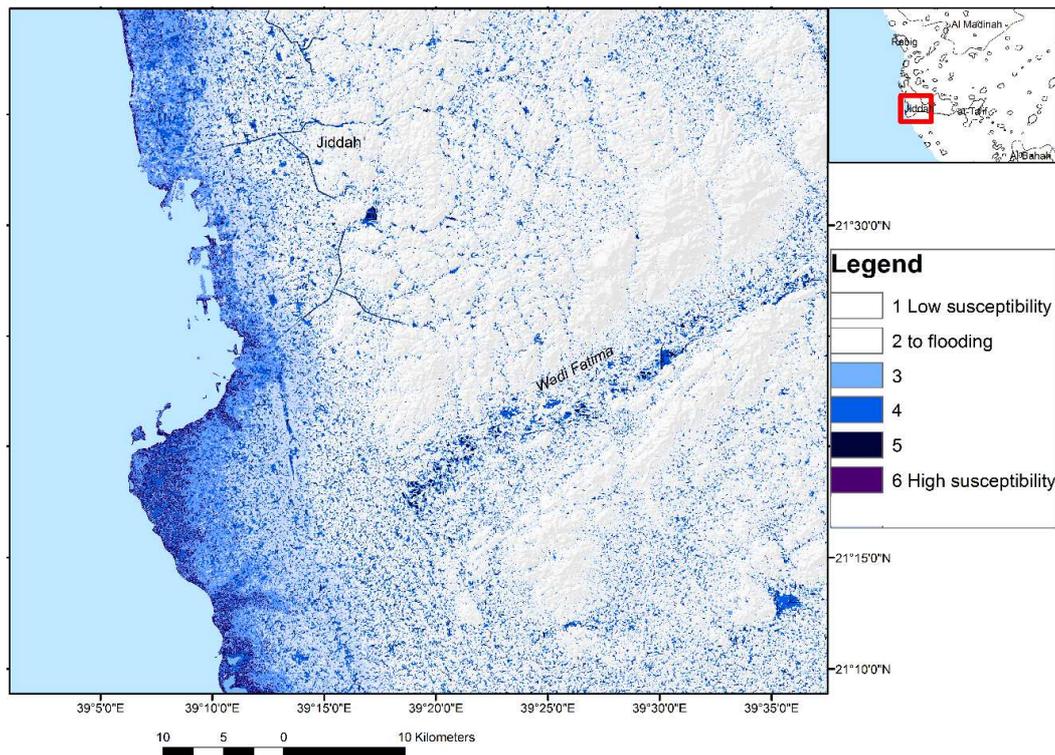
210 A weighted overlay procedure can be carried out for the detection of areas with higher
 211 susceptibility to flash floods by extracting causal / preparatory factors and, then, by aggregating
 212 these factors in the weighted overlay-tool of ArcGIS [25]. The susceptibility model represents a
 213 methodological approach to facilitate the spatial identification of flood zones. This approach is used
 214 to get information of areas that are susceptible to flash floods due to their morphometric disposition.
 215 Flash floods occur predominantly in basin / depression-areas showing slope angles $< 5^\circ$, terrain
 216 curvature = 0, high flow accumulation and drop flow according to the drop raster calculation in
 217 ArcGIS and the lowest, local height level (Figure 4). Whenever the before mentioned, causal factors
 218 occur aggregated in an area, the susceptibility to flooding is rising. Areas with these morphometric
 219 properties are susceptible to flash floods during heavy rain fall and to higher infiltration of the
 220 surface water.

221 As the urban development has led to the expansion of the built area into those broader valleys
 222 and basins, these areas will be exposed to flash floods after heavy rains.

223 4.3. Structural, tectonic analysis of satellite images as contribution to seismic research

224 The GIS integrated, structural evaluation of remote sensing data contributes to the detection of
 225 a) larger, prominent fault zones, of (b) traces of structural features such as ring structures or folds
 226 and (c) of traces of compression at the border zones of the Red Sea due to the rifting processes.

227 (a) The structural / geologic evaluation of optical satellite images and of radar data allows a quite



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Figure 4. Weighted overlay of morphometric factors influencing the susceptibility to flooding by flash floods in the area of Jiddah, factors: curvature = 0, slope degree < 10°, height level < 10 m, dropraster < 100.000 (calculated in ArcGIS), flow accumulation > 5000

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precise mapping of larger fault zones. Existing fault zones not only play an important role for ongoing tectonic processes, but also for uprising magma. They form zones of weakness that can form an entrance for the intrusion of magmatic bodies. Especially earthquake swarms were related in the past to magmatic activity [17]. Therefore, the different satellite images were used, especially to detect traces of neotectonic movements in the youngest outcrops of rocks and sediments. Whereas the oldest Precambrian / Cambrian rocks show evidence of many stress imprints in the scope of earth geologic history, the youngest strata provide hints of the more actual geodynamic processes. Therefore, the Quaternary sediments and volcanic strata were investigated as well, whether traces of younger faults can be detected. Whenever distinct linear traces of fault zones and shear zones (such as scarps and valleys cutting through older lithologic units) are visible on the satellite images, there is a hint related to active faults. The Principal Component analysis (PCA) of Landsat data helps to identify larger, prominent fault zones (Figure 5).

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(b) Another important aspect is the detection of circular structures in the Precambrian and Cambrian rocks, even when deeply eroded and only visible on the satellite images because of the circular outline. The annular structures show circular or oval shapes and they are different, in their structures, from other surrounding geologic phenomena, most of them consisting of intrusive batholiths [29]. Also, these structures differ in their dimensions, origin and the characteristics of their identification on satellite images. Some form prominent domes, others are only visible due to circular, tonal anomalies in the sedimentary covers. Their dimensions range from many meters till hundreds of meters up to more than 100 kms. The majority of these circular structures with 10 to 25 km in diameter were generally created by Precambrian intrusive, magmatic bodies of different composition (mainly granitic) and geomechanic properties.

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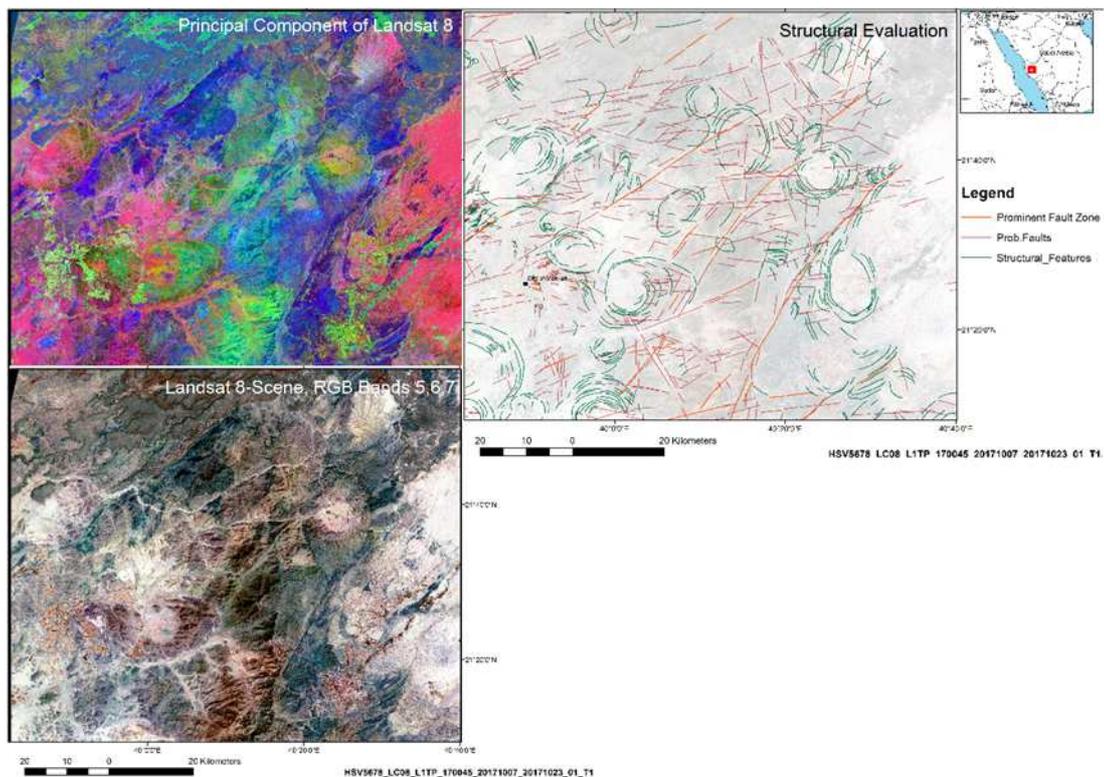
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The knowledge of the position of circular structures plays an important role when dealing with seismic and aseismic movements in this area. The earthquake pattern might be influenced by the circular structures as well as the recent volcanic activity. It seems as if the larger fault zones are “bending” around the structures. For a better understanding of the geomechanic processes in this area (movements towards northeast with velocities of 10 to 15 mm / year [30], it has to be considered

259 that the intrusive bodies might react mechanically different than the surrounding rocks, potentially
 260 forming asperities that could lead to earthquakes in case of stress accumulation. Ring structures with
 261 their different, geomechanical properties, especially when occurring block-wise, form a relatively
 262 stable “hindrance” against tectonic movements.



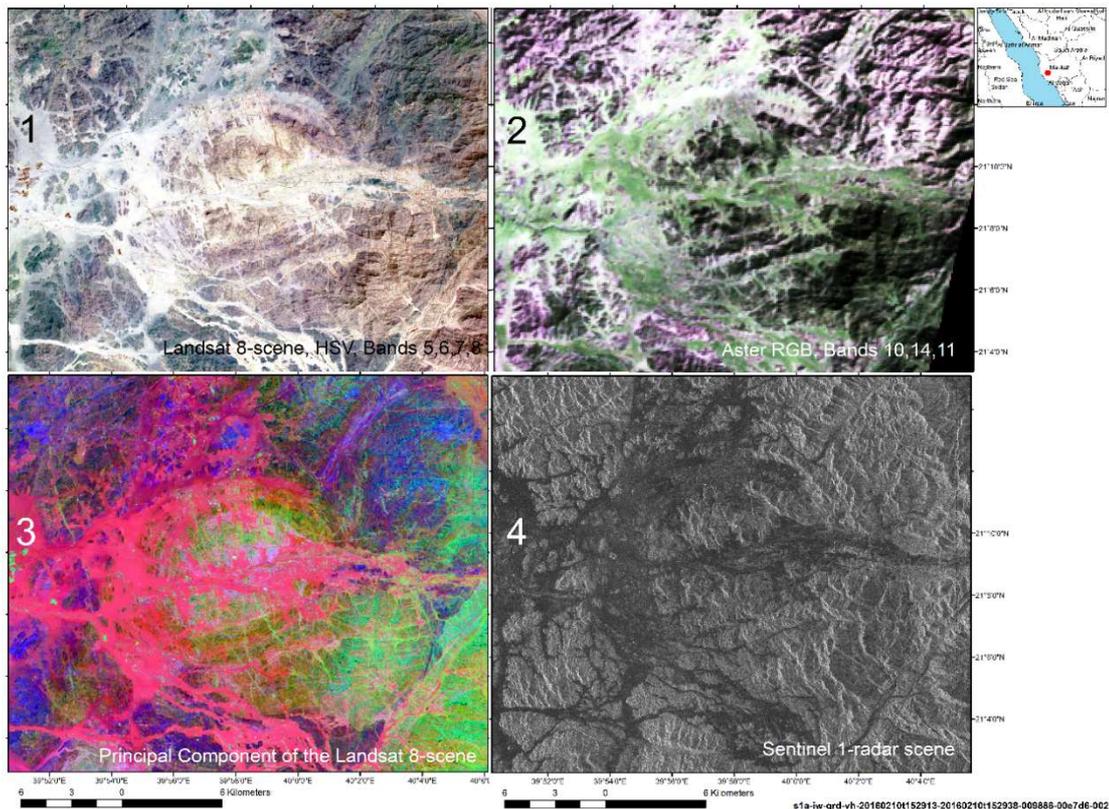
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264 **Figure 5.** Image processing and structural evaluation for the detection of prominent fault zones and
 265 circular features

266 PCA is a linear transformation that reorganizes the variance in a multiband image into a new set of
 267 image bands. These PC bands are uncorrelated linear combinations of the input bands. A PC
 268 transform finds a new set of orthogonal axes with their origin at the data mean, and it rotates them so
 269 the data variance is maximized (ESRI Online Help in ArcGIS)

270 During the last decades only few earthquakes were documented within the area of the circular
 271 structures. In case of stronger earthquakes, even far-field ones, these circular structures could
 272 influence seismic wave propagation and would cause lateral variations in seismic wave speeds.
 273 Especially the thermal bands of ASTER and Landsat 8 and Sentinel 1 radar images allow the
 274 detection of circular structures that often cannot be detected in the field easily due to sedimentary
 275 covers. Due to the penetration capabilities of Sentinel 1- C-Band radar into unconsolidated
 276 sedimentary covers up to several dm subsurface structures become visible that often remain partly
 277 undetected on optical satellite images. The satellite radar images of this arid area clearly reveal
 278 penetration of the radar signals through covers of eolian and flash flood /fluvial deposits.
 279 Penetration of the masking sand covers facilitates the detection of the underlying surface due to the
 280 reflection at the sand / bedrock interface. Dark image tones are associated with deeper sand sheets
 281 because the incident radar signals were largely reflected from their “radar-smooth” surfaces in a
 282 mirror-like fashion away from the satellite antenna. The granitic rocks and gneisses appear in lighter
 283 tones as their more radar-rough surfaces cause a diffuse and stronger signal return / radar
 284 backscatter. The ring structure shown in Figure 6 appears even more detailed on the radar scene
 285 (Fig.6, image 4) due to the subtle differences in the radar reflection. Thus, satellite data help
 286 considerably to a systematic inventory of ring structures.

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289 **Figure 6.** Use of different satellite data for providing structural information of a circular structure in
 290 the south of Makkah

291 1 - Landsat 8, HSV, Bands 5,6,7,8_LC08_L1TP_170045_20171007_20171023_01_T1

292 2 - ASTER, RGB, Bands 10,14,11-AST_L1T_00301032018080650_20180104121027_17567

293 3 - Principal Component (PC) of the Landsat 8-data

294 4 - Sentinel 1-radar image, s1a-iw-grd-vh-20160210t152913-20160210t152938-009886-00e7d6-002

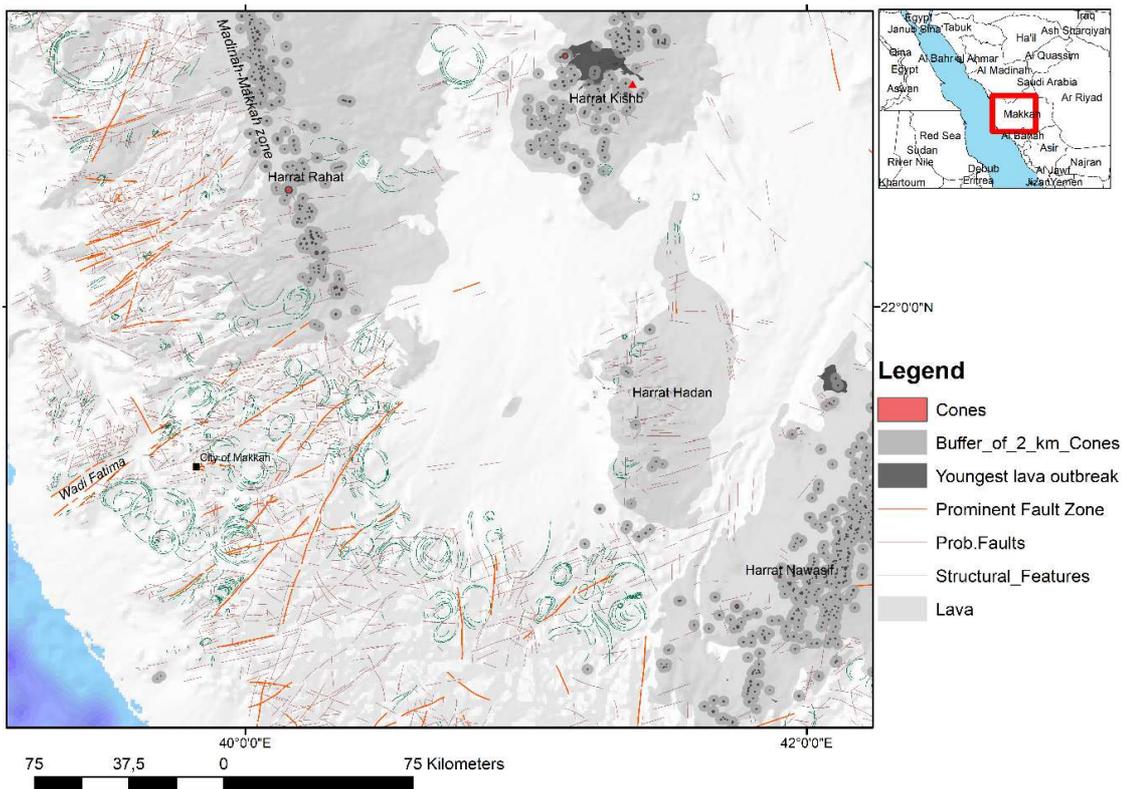
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296 (c) The coast-near areas clearly show evidence of linear features oriented NW-SE to
 297 NNW-SSE parallel to the axis of the Red Sea rift valley (Figure 7). As the area is moving towards NE,
 298 these curvi-linear features might be related to traces of compression due to accretionary thrusting
 299 and thrust-related structures. The striking direction of the assumed traces of compression changes in
 300 close relation, parallel to the orientation of the rifting axis from NW-SE to NNW-SSE. SW-NE
 301 oriented, linear elements, perpendicular to the rift valley main axis, are very prominent on the
 302 satellite images as well. Of course, there is a need to verify these features in the field. These linear
 303 features could be partly correlated with known larger shear zones such as the Wadi Fatima shear
 304 zone [31]. Examples of the visibility of these traces are shown in the next figures (Figures 8-10).

305 Linear tonal anomalies and linear morphologic features help to detect larger fault zones on
 306 radar images. The differences in brightness between pixels in the Sentinel-1 radar image (Figure 10),
 307 marked by changes in the gray scale and backscatter intensity due to surface roughness changes
 308 contribute to the location of fault zones. The illumination geometry of the radar signals from west
 309 supports the detection of fault zones parallel to the rift zone.

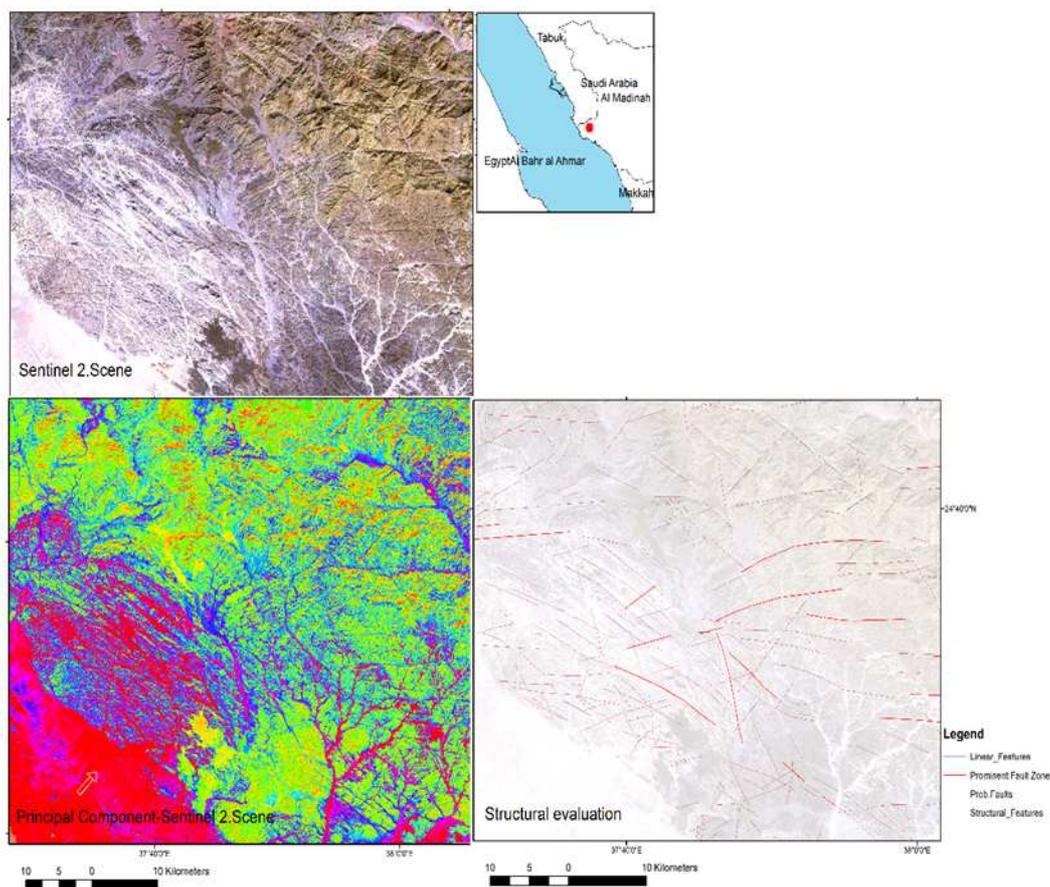
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311 Traces of probable compression can be visualized as well by processing of DEM data in order to
 312 enhance linear depressions and ridges oriented perpendicular to the main stress field. A digital map
 313 of depressions can be obtained by the map algebra operation of subtracting the depression-free DEM
 314 from the original DEM: (Fill-Aster-Mosaic) - (Aster-Mosaic) or the Sink-Tool in ArcGIS. The
 315 methodology is a semi-automatic approach involving several steps: (a) DEM acquisition and (b)
 316 sink-depth calculation using the difference between the raw DEM and the corresponding DEM with
 317 sinks filled.



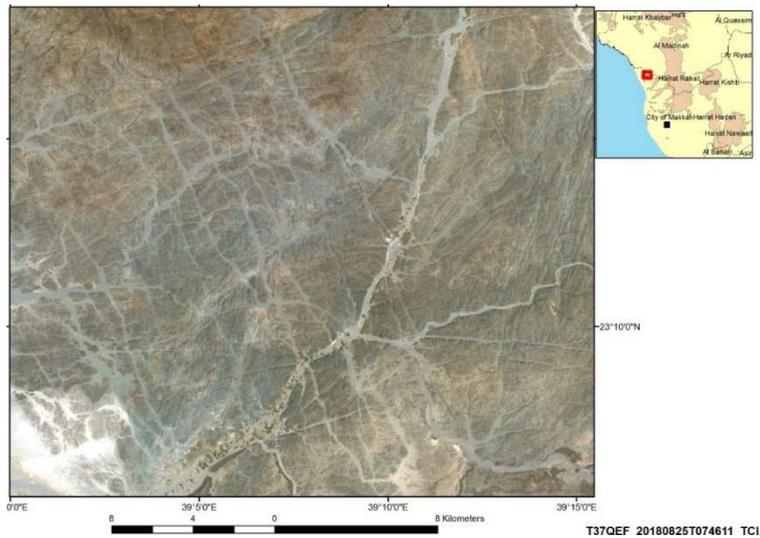
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Figure 7. Larger, prominent lineaments, ring structures and volcanic features mapped based on different satellite data



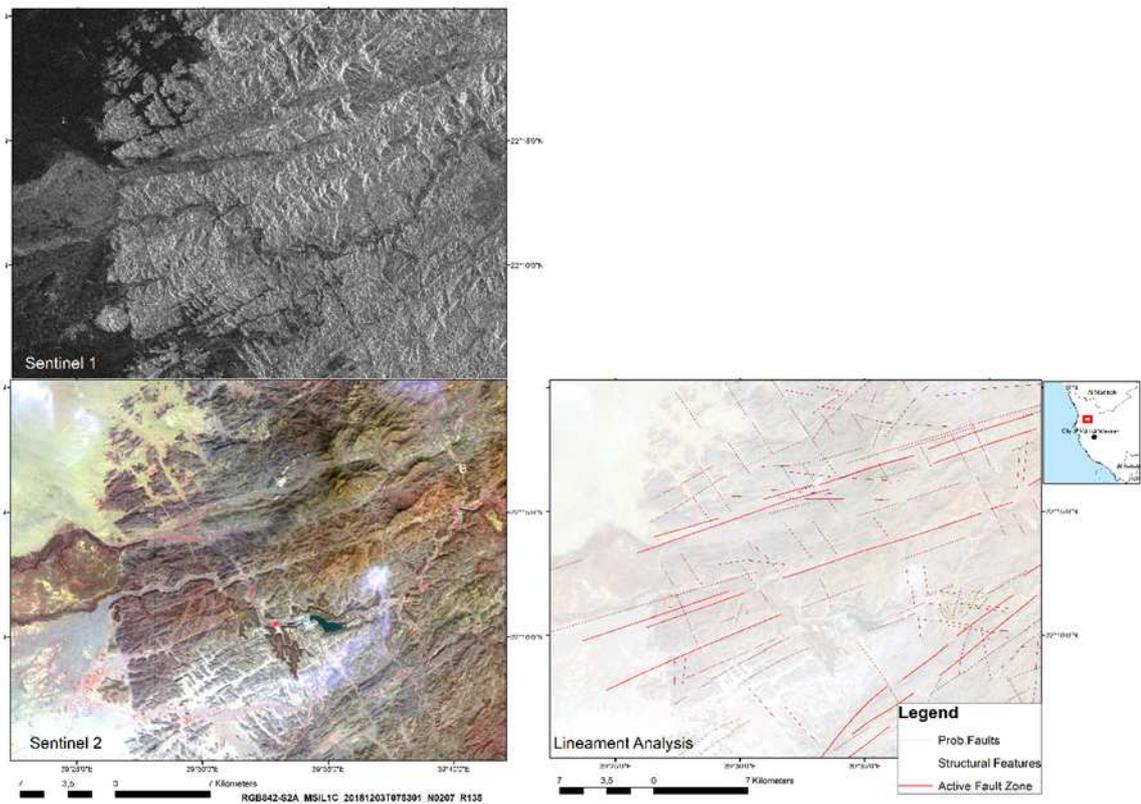
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Figure 8. Traces of compression visible as parallel, NW-SE- oriented linear features (black arrows), perpendicular to the direction of the main stress



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Figure 9. Traces of compression visible on a Sentinel 2 scene



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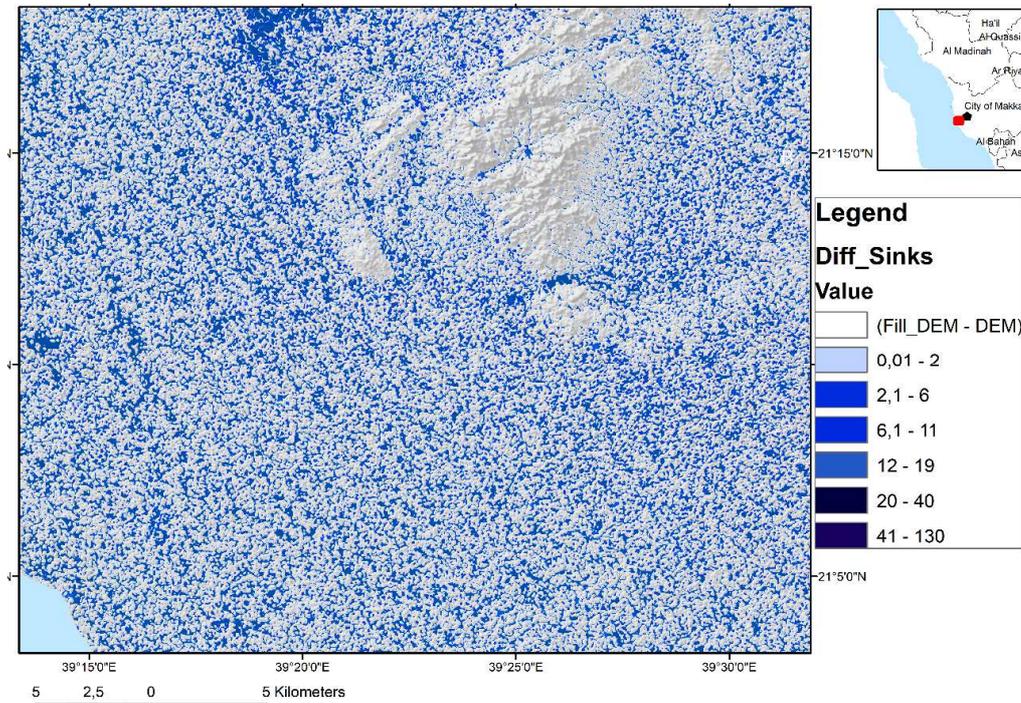
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Figure 10. Traces of compression visible on Sentinel 1 radar and Sentinel 2 optical images as NW-SE oriented parallel, linear features

329 The first step used the “Fillsink” algorithm from the ArcMap software package that identifies
330 the point or set of adjacent points surrounded by neighbors with higher elevation and rises to the
331 lowest value on the depressions boundary. This procedure then fills all depressions in the DEM,
332 including both those generated from data errors (spurious artifacts) and those that record real
333 topographic features.

334 The second step was to extract the sink depths in these areas by differencing the maps between
335 the sink-filled (“depressionless” DEM) and original DEM. The difference image highlight the
336 different depressions [25]. This approach was carried out based on SRTM, Aster and ALOS PALSAR
337 DEM data, comparing the results. When evaluating the DEM difference maps of all the three DEM
338 data sets, a linear, parallel arrangement of the sinks becomes visible, oriented parallel to the coast,

339 even in the youngest sediments (Figures 11,12). The origin of this parallel, linear arrangement might
 340 be complex and has to be discussed and to be further investigated: Reasons among others might be
 341 a) compression of the subsurface, b) traces of uplift, c) traces of parallel longitudinal dunes
 342 underneath the younger eolian covers, linear wind erosion, and flash flood sediments? Due to the
 343 rifting processes in the Red Sea and the movements of the Arabian Plate towards NE with velocities
 344 of about 10 to 15 mm / year [8] it seems most likely that the parallel alignment of linear features is
 345 related to compression.
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348 **Figure 11.** Difference DEM map of the coastal area of Jeddah showing a linear, NW-SE oriented,
 349 parallel arrangement of the "sinks" in the SRTM-DEM

350 When comparing the position of earthquake epicentres with the lineament map of W-Saudi
 351 Arabia, it appears, that the earthquake epicenters occur concentrated along these SW-NE striking
 352 shear zones (Figures 1,2). Whether these earthquakes were triggered by stress accumulations along
 353 fault zones or by magmatic activity in the subsurface, or the combination of both, has still to be
 354 investigated more detailed in the affected areas. In the scope of this research the monitoring of those
 355 zones of weakness is important regarding the safety of infrastructure. The relatively youngest,
 356 prominent fault zones cutting even through Holocene sediments, striking N-S, are visible on the
 357 different satellite data as linear, tonal anomalies.



358

359 **Figure 12.** Parallel, linear, NW-SE oriented features within coastal dune fields

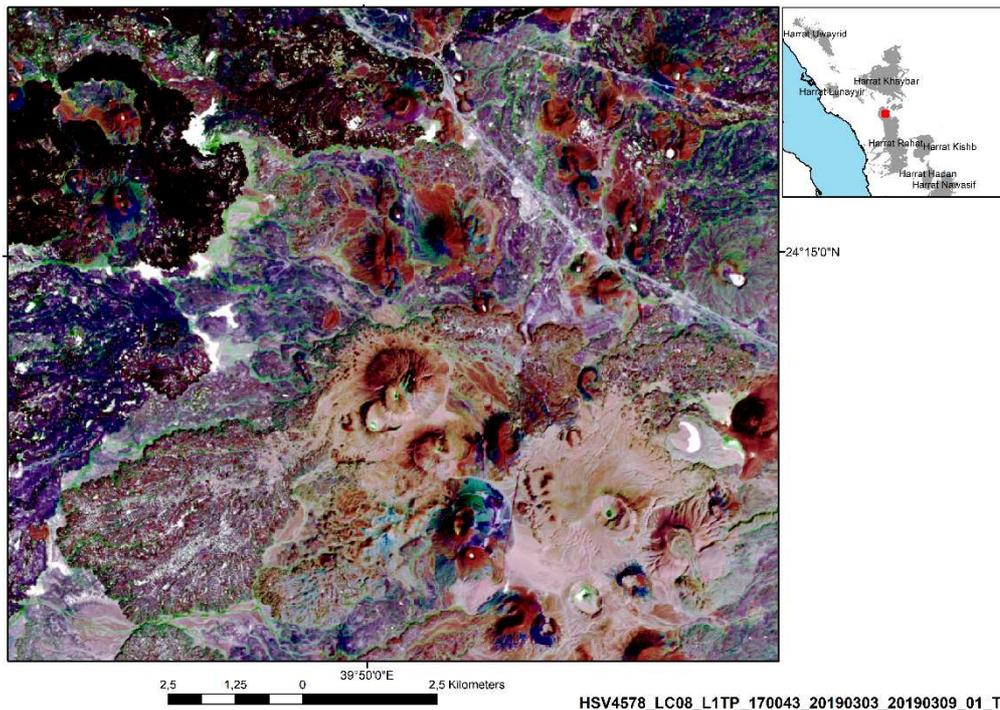
360 4.4. Contribution of the GIS integrated evaluation of satellite data to the monitoring of volcanic features

361 After digital image processing of Sentinel 2, Landsat 8, ASTER and OrbView data the use of
 362 satellite data for volcanic monitoring becomes evident: Remote sensing and GIS can contribute to

- 363
- 364 • the mapping of volcanic cinder cones,
 - 365 • the mapping of visible fault zones and dikes in the area of cinder cone fields,
 - 366 • the mapping of the most recent lava flow,
 - 367 • the detection of traces of age differences and types of volcanic features based on erosional
 and weathering conditions and on the lithologic composition.

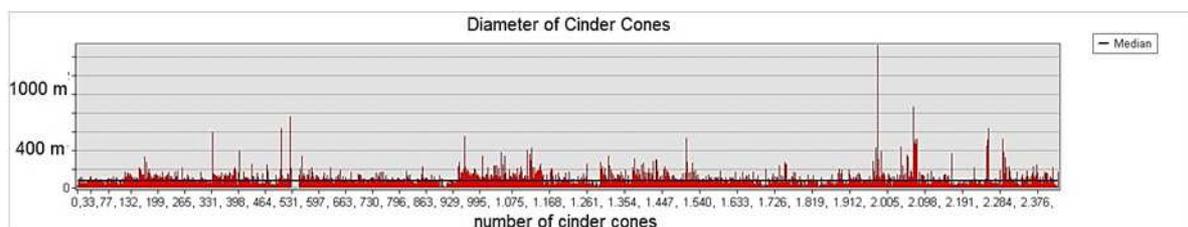
368 A systematic inventory and mapping of cinder cones and youngest volcanic eruptions in the
 369 different volcanic areas was carried out, combined with a structural (lineament) analysis (Figure 13).

370 Digital image processing tools in ENVI, SNAP and ArcGIS software help to identify cinder cones
 371 by RGB band combinations and Gaussian filters or Principal Component analysis. About 2500 cinder
 372 cones were digitized. The size of the cinder cones is relatively constant about 200 to more than 1000
 373 m in diameter (Figure 14). The mapping of the relatively youngest traces of volcanic activity such as
 374 dyke intrusions or most recent lava outbreak provides information of fault zones that are susceptible
 375 to magmatic up rise. Such information are important for the understanding, where and when future
 376 eruptions may occur. This might be important for hazard preparedness. Thus, the structural
 377 evaluation of the different satellite data is used to identify those fault zones that are obviously
 378 related to magma ascent. The strike and type of those fault zones changes from north to south.
 379 Whereas in the northern part mainly NW-SE oriented fault zones are dominant, in the central part of
 380 western Saudi Arabia NNW-SSE, and N-S striking fault zones are prevailing (Figure 7). The
 381 concentration of volcanic cones along the NNW-SSE oriented Madinah-Makkah volcanic line is
 382 clearly visible [32]. In the southern part NE-SW oriented fault zones are influencing the volcanic
 383 pattern as in Harrat Nawasif. Special attention is directed to the intersection of larger fault zones.
 384 Whenever prominent SW-NE striking fault zones are crossing N-S-oriented ones in the Harrat areas,
 385 a concentration of cinder cones align along the fault zones in the intersections can be observed.



386

387 **Figure 13.** Cinder cones of alkali-olivine basalt [19] (red) aligned along N-S and SW-NE oriented
 388 fault zones and recent lava outbreak areas with thin fluid basalt lava flows in the north of Harrat
 389 Rahat visible on a Landsat 8 scene

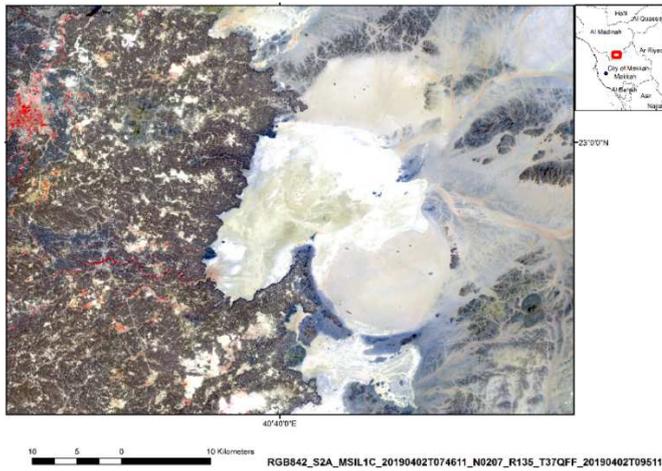


390

391 **Figure 14.** Size of cinder cones (based on about 2500 mapped cinder cones) in W-Saudi Arabia

392 The question arises, why the volcanic activity of Harrat Rahat has stopped in the N of the City of
 393 Mecca? The volcanic activity of the Madinah-Makkah zone (comprising the area along the
 394 NNW-SSE axis of Harrat Rahat) almost stops along the SW-NE oriented Wadi Fatima shear zone
 395 (Figure 7). Lava fields and cinder cones occur as if shifted towards east in the area of Harrat Hadan
 396 and Harrat Nawasif. As one of the explanations for this phenomenon might be discussed the
 397 occurrence of ring structures: When analysing the position of circular structures and the outcrop of
 398 lava, it seems as if the circular structures have an influence on the occurrence and shape of lava flow.
 399 Obviously larger, compact intrusive bodies are forming a hindrance for uprising, larger, volcanic
 400 intrusions. In areas with a higher density of large circular structures such as in the area of Makkah
 401 younger lava sheets and cinder cones could not be observed. However, the larger ring structures are
 402 often intersected by dykes.

403 The following Sentinel-2 scenes (Figures 15, 16, 17) show circular features that are partly
 404 surrounded by younger lava sheets. Whether this is caused only by topographic reasons as some
 405 ring structures are forming domes causing a flowing around, or / and selective erosion or by circular
 406 structures hindering recent magmatic ascent and flow, this has still to be investigated in the specific
 407 cases.

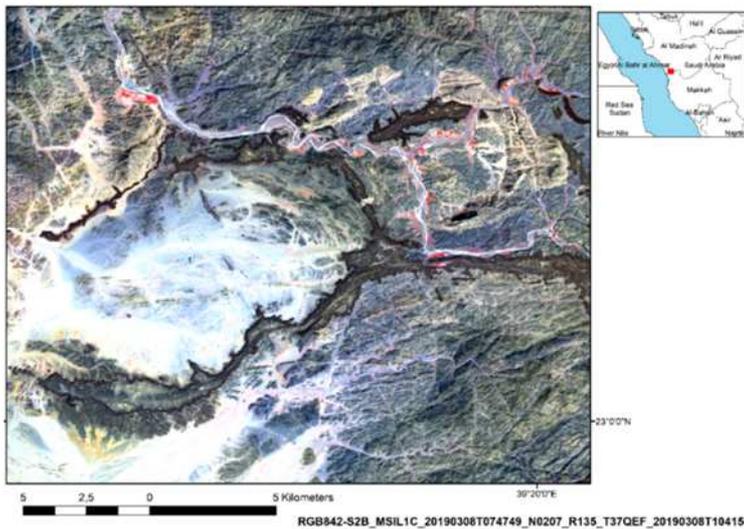


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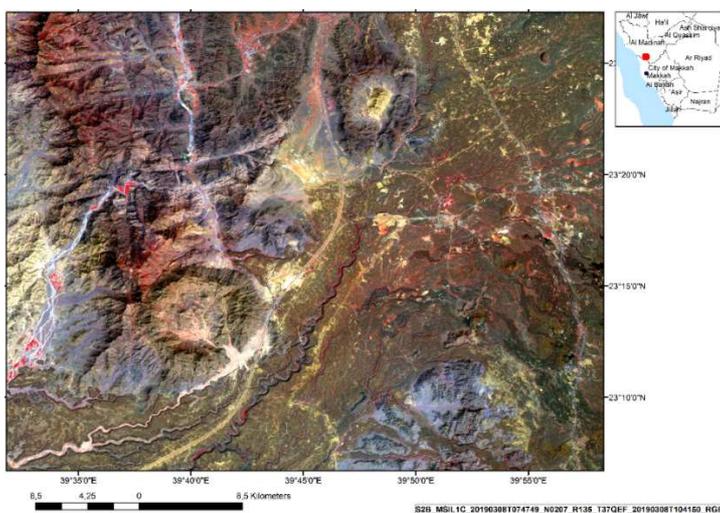
Figure 15. Sentinel 2-scene (RGB: Bands 8,4,2) showing ring structures in the east of Harrat Rahat surrounded by lava in the western part



411

412

Figure 16. Lava flow around oval (left) and circular (upper right) shaped structures



413

414

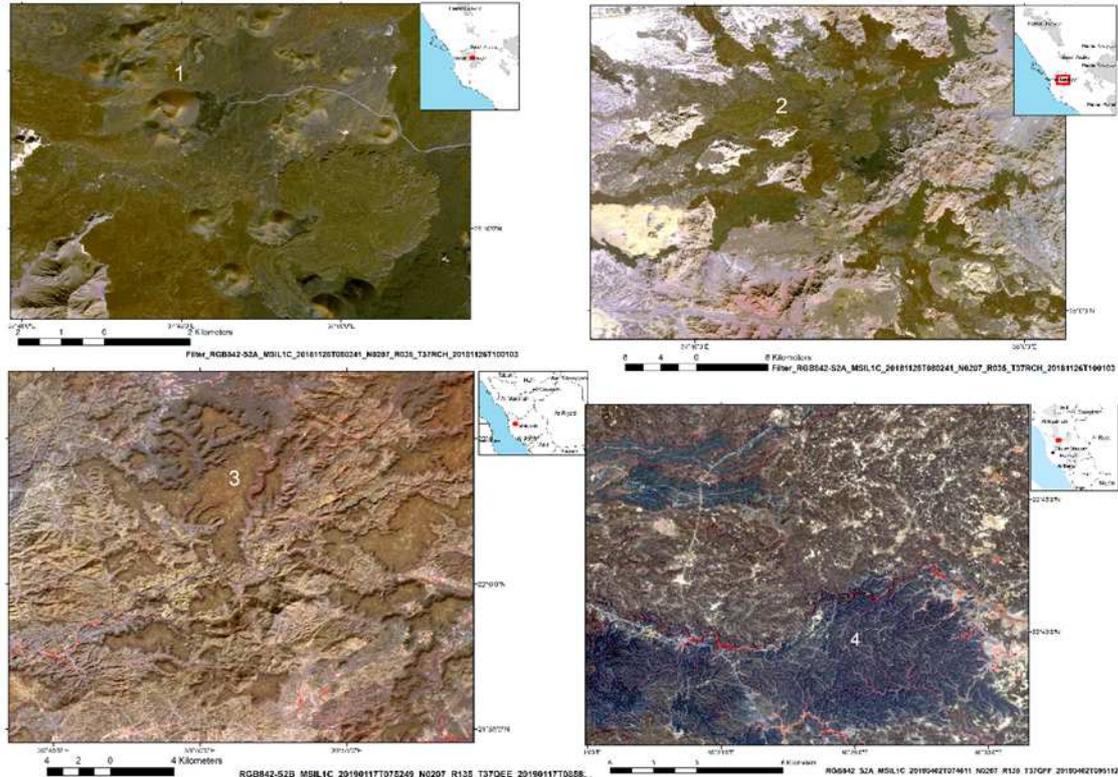
Figure 17. Lava sheets surrounding ring structures

415

416

Based on evaluations of satellite data it is possible to categorize the different volcanic features in W-Saudi Arabia systematically based on the geomorphologic properties, erosional and

417 weathering conditions and on the lithologic composition: cinder cones with latest lava outbreak,
 418 intact lava sheets, dissolved and intersected lava sheets and lava inselbergs, lava fields with
 419 developed drainage system, and isolated volcanic features intersecting eolian and fluvial sediments.
 420 Dissolved lava sheets and inselbergs occur predominantly at the western part of the Harrats,
 421 whereas the lava sheets in the eastern part are characterized by the development of a dense drainage
 422 pattern and small depressions filled with evaporitic and youngest sedimentary covers.



423

424 **Figure 18.** Geomorphologic types of volcanic features

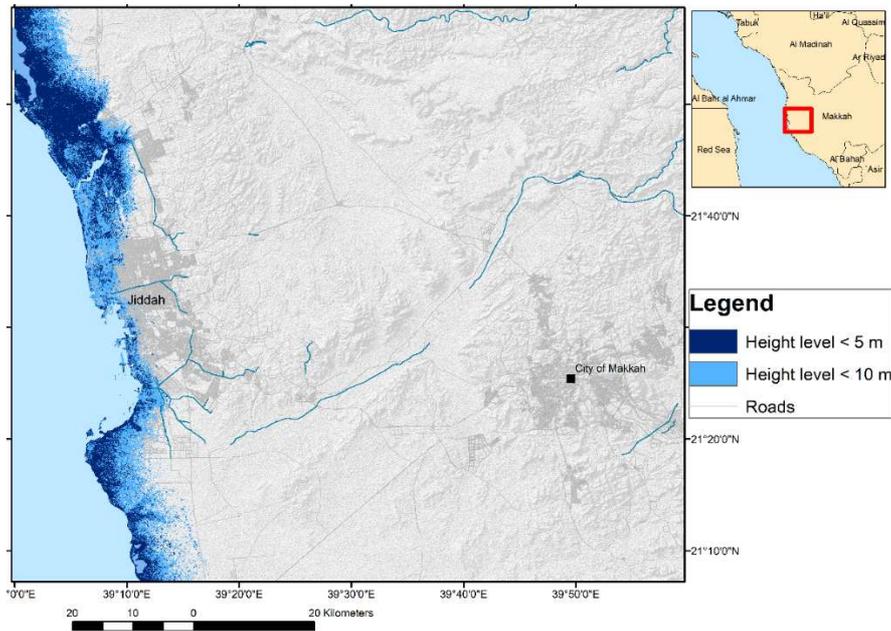
425 1- cinder cones, 2 – lava outbreak with high lava viscosity, 3 – lava inselbergs, 4 – eroded lava sheets
 426 with drainage patterns

427 4.5. Contribution of remote sensing and GIS to the detection of factors influencing tsunami hazard

428 The input of remote sensing and GIS can be considered only as a small part of the whole
 429 “mosaic” of tsunami research approaches. Nevertheless, it offers a low-cost to no-cost approach,
 430 that can be used in any area, providing a first basic data stock for emergency preparedness by
 431 providing for example susceptibility-to-flooding maps. Summarizing factors influencing flooding
 432 susceptibility such as relatively low height levels (<10 m) help to detect areas with higher flooding
 433 susceptibility. Those areas might be prone to flooding in case of a severe tsunami event. The
 434 following Fig.19 a and b shows an example of the city of Jeddah, intersecting road-shapefiles with
 435 height levels below 5 m, assuming a tsunami wave-height of 5 meters as the leading parameter for
 436 tsunami preparedness. In case of high energetic flood waves from the Red Sea or in case of flash
 437 floods these road segments < 5m might be prone first to flooding due to their lowest height level.

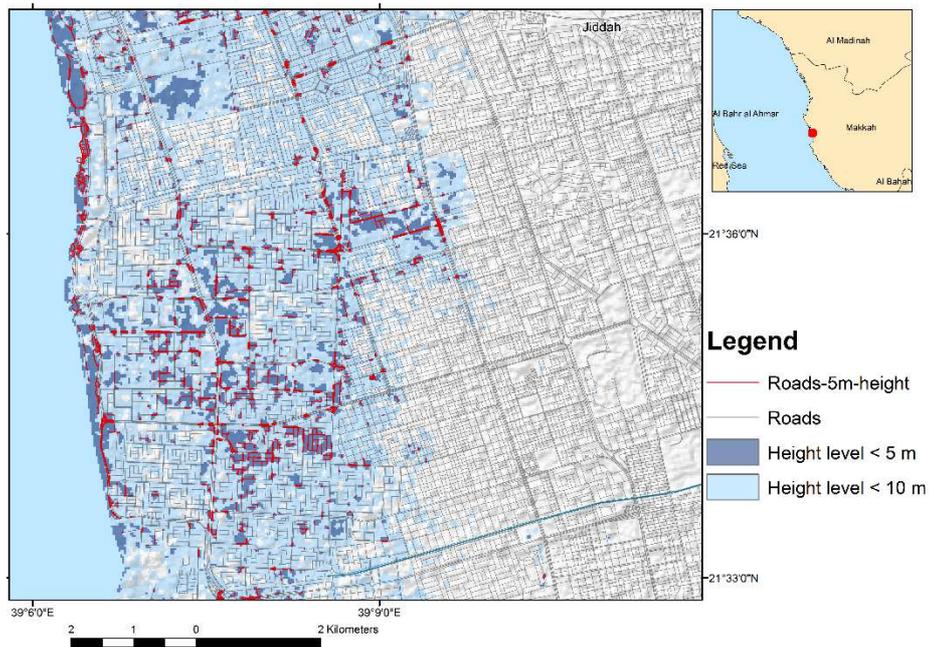
438 The source of tsunamis, the direction of the incoming waves, their height and energy cannot yet
 439 predicted. However, when analysing the influence of the coastal morphology on the streaming
 440 pattern in relation to wind and wave directions, it supports a better understanding of what might
 441 happen in case of high energetic flood waves. Given that coastal flow is the product of a complex
 442 mix of factors (i.e. freshwater discharge, tides, temperature, salinity, winds in various frequency
 443 bands and the influence of motions imposed from seiche movements), coastal dynamics may be
 444 regarded almost as regional. The tide amplitude at the time of a potential tsunami directly affects the
 445 inundation height as well and, hence, the impact of the tsunami on the coastal areas. Even in the case

446 of small amplitude tsunamis, the combination of the tsunami with a higher tide might result in a
 447 higher wave height.



448

449 **Figure 19 a.** Height levels below 10 m calculated based on SRTM DEM data (30 m resolution)

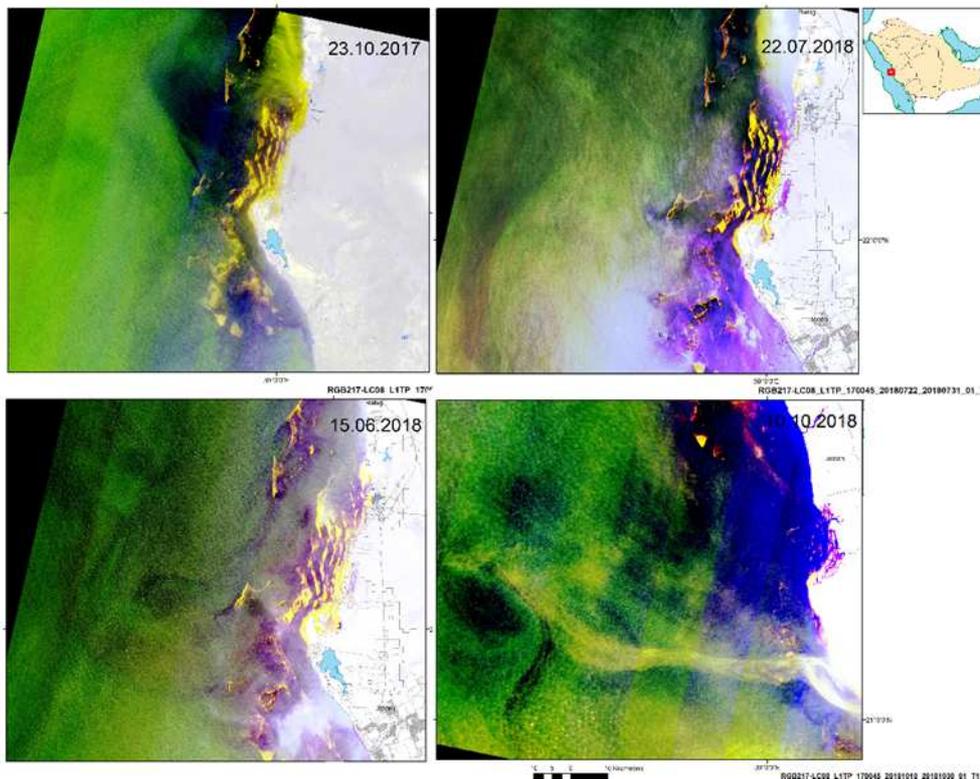


450

451 **Figure 19 b.** Road segments below 5 m height level (red) in Jeddah calculated based on ALOS
 452 PALSAR DEM data (12.5 m resolution)

453 Satellite scenes reveal streaming pattern of the upper cm of the water surface. After digital
 454 image processing and enhancement especially of the thermal LANDSAT and ASTER bands from the
 455 coastal areas, water currents at the acquisition time become clearly visible. Of course, these images
 456 reflect the water, wind and temperature conditions at the data acquisition time. However, the
 457 streaming pattern visible on the LANDSAT imageries provides some useful information of the
 458 influence of coastal morphology on water currents, that might be of interest for the better
 459 understanding of storm surge, meteo-tsunamis and tsunami wave propagation and their interaction
 460 with the coastal morphologic properties.

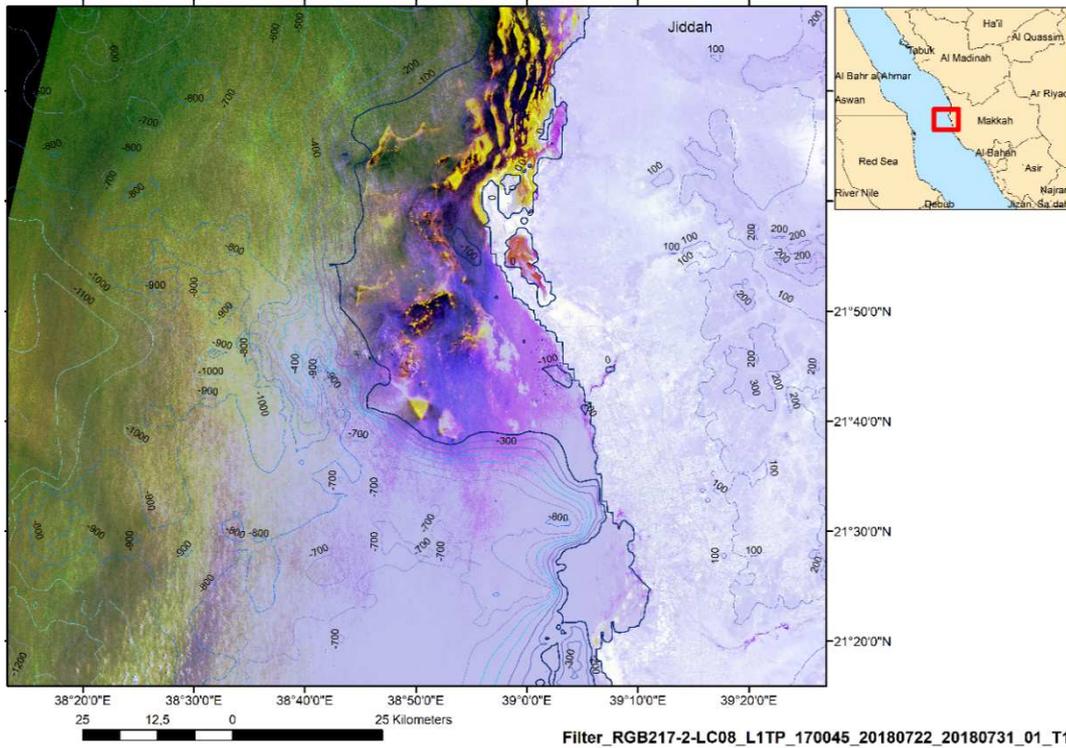
461 Time series of LANDSAT imageries form an important input for this research, as they
 462 contribute to a better understanding of the streaming pattern among different conditions such as
 463 wind directions and intensities or seasonal temperature and salinity changes. The next figure
 464 (Figure 20) demonstrates Landsat 8-scenes (RGB band combination 2,1,7) of different acquisition
 465 times with different wind and streaming conditions. Islands in front of the coast line are influencing
 466 and modifying the wave patterns, their density and sizes (Figures 20,21), often causing turbulent
 467 flow. Depending on the wind direction waves are interfering each other within the area of the
 468 islands. The islands situated in front of the coast line might slow down high energetic flood waves
 469 directed towards the coast.
 470



471
 472 **Figure 20.** Different streaming and wave patterns at the coast of Jiddah visible on Landsat 8-scenes
 473 (RGB, Bands 2,1,7) On the scene of 10.10.2018 the sediment input of a dust storm is visible as yellow
 474 band.

475 The bathymetric situation has an influence on the streaming pattern as well. Figure 21
 476 visualizes the bathymetric contour lines on the Landsat 8-scene and, thus, showing the difference in
 477 the streaming pattern visible on the satellite image from deeper areas to flat shelf areas.

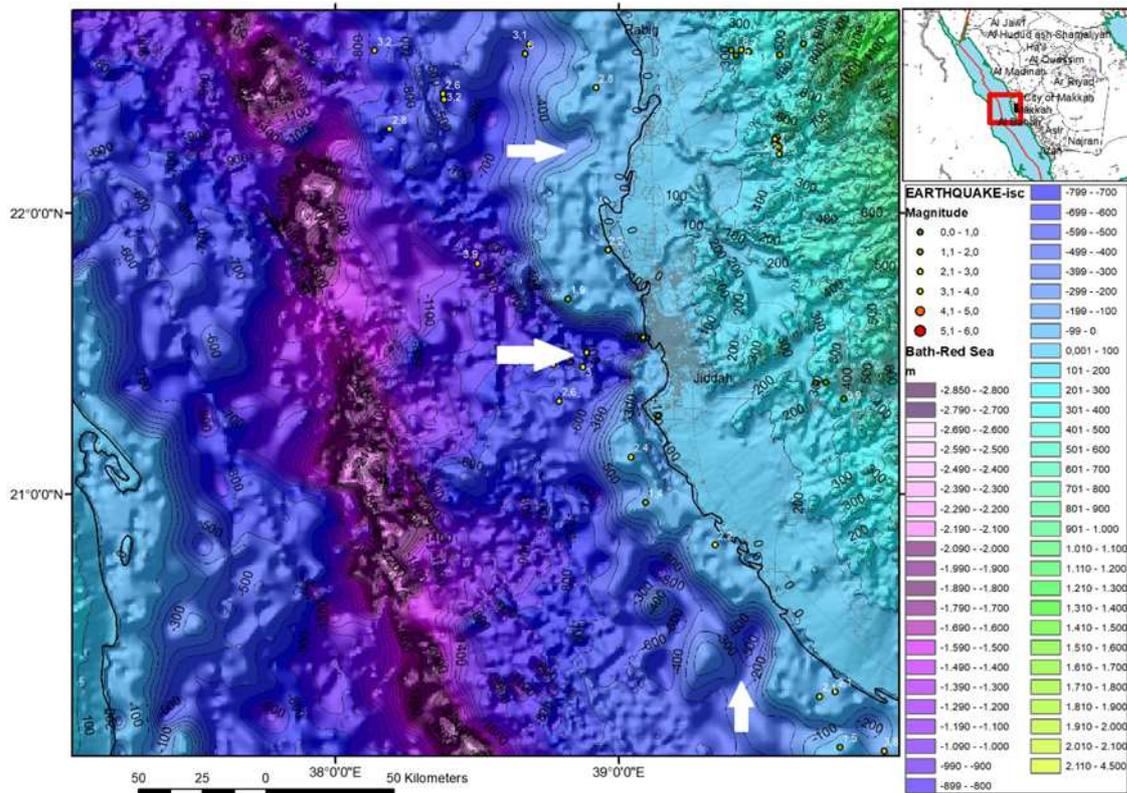
478 When analysing the coastal morphology and GEBCO bathymetric data deeper, submarine
 479 valleys /canyons can be observed that are partly oriented perpendicular towards the coast (white
 480 arrows in Figure 22). In case of high energetic flood waves such as tsunami waves caused by
 481 earthquakes, volcanic eruptions or submarine mass movements in the Red Sea the tsunami wave
 482 energies might be focused and concentrated along these valleys and, thus, in this case increasing the
 483 flooding extent in those coast segments.



484

485

Figure 21. Submarine topography and islands influencing the streaming pattern near Jeddah



486

487

488

Figure 22. Submarine valleys near the coast with potential focus of high energetic flood waves such as tsunami waves. The map was created based on GEBCO bathymetric data.

489

5. Discussion

490

491

The examples of the use of remote sensing and GIS tools for the monitoring of natural hazards have shown that the continuously, systematic documentation and surveillance based on satellite

492 data is a prerequisite not only for emergency preparedness, but also for the preparation of effective
493 field work. Observations such as of geologic features like traces of compression or ring structures
494 need further investigations. The evaluation of the satellite data helps to focus this research. For
495 example: The analysis of the different satellite data allows the detection of structural features in the
496 subsurface such as faults and ring structures more detailed than represented so far in geologic maps
497 or even not visible in the field due to younger sedimentary covers. Their specific origin and tectonic
498 role should be investigated.

499 Landsat and Sentinel 1 and 2-data are an important tool for the water streaming observation in
500 the Red Sea. When carried out in a regular pattern (of course combined with available in situ
501 measurements), remote sensing data help to get more detailed knowledge about the complex factors
502 influencing the currents in the Red Sea. This input will be important when dealing with storm surge
503 or tsunami events.

504 6. Conclusions

505 The combination of the evaluation results based on satellite images and digital elevation data
506 proved to be effective as an input for geo-hazard assessment. Prevention of damage related to
507 natural hazards (such as extreme rainfall or earthquakes and resulting secondary effects) to human
508 life and infrastructure requires preparedness and mitigation measurements that should be based on
509 a regularly updated, GIS integrated data mining in order to create a data bank for the different
510 geohazards. The frequent coverage of regularly available data such as Sentinel and Landsat are
511 fundamental for the monitoring of the natural hazards in western Saudi Arabia.

512 Evaluations of the different satellite data from W-Saudi Arabia contribute to the identification
513 of areas prone to geohazards, to the detection of the different types of hazards and of some of the
514 causal factors influencing the disposition to the specific hazards. More detailed and partly new
515 knowledge could be derived from the structural analysis of the remote sensing data.

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519 Theilen-Willige .; writing—review and editing, Theilen-Willige. ; visualization, Theilen-Willige.; supervision,
520 Wenzel.; project administration, Helmut Wenzel.; funding acquisition, Helmut Wenzel.

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522 *Conflicts of Interest:*

523 "The authors declare no conflict of interest."

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