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Pervasive Crustal Volcanic Mush in the Highly Stretched Sunda Plate Margin of Northern Sumatra

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Key Points:

- A new receiver function method is developed to constrain crustal thickness and melt fraction
- Applications to dense nodal array data in northwestern Sumatra show a thin (~22 km) crust and high crustal melt fraction (up to 19%)
- The new constraints partly explain abnormal volcanic migration and crustal stretching

Supporting Information:

Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

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
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Pervasive Crustal Volcanic Mush in the Highly Stretched Sunda Plate Margin of Northern Sumatra

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Abstract Arc volcanism, crustal deformation, and their interplay are poorly understood in northwestern Sumatra. Traditional receiver function H- κ stacking studies constrain the variations in crustal thickness and V_p/V_s ratio in volcanic zones but rarely estimate the melt fractions. Here, we propose a H- Φ stacking method, a variant of the H- κ stacking method, and apply it to the dense nodal array data from Aceh, northern Sumatra, to estimate crustal thickness, V_p/V_s ratio, and melt fraction. Most results show considerably high V_p/V_s ratios (~1.98) and melt fractions (up to 19%), indicating pervasive crustal magmatic mush. The northwestern edge of the Aceh crust is much thinner (~22 km) than extended crust globally, reflecting a highly stretched crust due to tectonic processes governing the opening of the Andaman Sea. This thin crust and high melt fractions explain the Bouguer gravity anomaly, and partly explain the northward migration of Quaternary volcanics.

Plain Language Summary Crustal thickness and melt fraction are important indicators of crustal magmatism and deformation. Situated between the Sumatran and Andaman subduction zones, Aceh, in northwestern Sumatra, is distinguished by strong crustal deformation, resulting in active crustal seismicity, and Quaternary volcanics that have migrated northward over time. However, the abnormal arc volcanism, crustal deformation, and their interplay, remain unclear because of poor understanding of the crustal structure. To fill this knowledge gap, we deployed 155 nodal seismic stations in Aceh for 18 months. In this work, we develop a new receiver function method that takes advantage of converted seismic energy from the base of the crust to constrain the crustal thickness and melt fraction beneath the stations in Aceh. We find that: (a) the average crustal melt fraction is as high as 19%, indicating a considerable volume of partially molten rock in the crust and (b) the crust in northern Aceh is as thin as ~22 km, suggesting high stretching of the crust associated with the opening of the Andaman Sea. The stretched crust with a high melt fraction partly explains the northward migration of Quaternary volcanics and active seismicity/crustal deformation, but the migration mechanism of other volcanics requires further investigation.

1. Introduction

Fundamental crustal structure parameters (e.g., V_p/V_s ratio and crustal thickness) are critical to understanding the deformation and volcanism in the overriding plate of a subduction zone. Improved knowledge of crustal structure is particularly needed for northwestern Sumatra (i.e., Aceh), where volcanism has abnormally migrated from the forearc to backarc, for example, the Seulawah Agam, Peuet Sague, and Geureudong volcanoes (Figures 1b and 1c; Lai et al., 2021). However, only sparse seismic observations were previously available, limiting our understanding of the arc volcanism. Important factors, such as the magma budget, distribution, and spatial correlation with the crustal structure and deformation are poorly known (Annen et al., 2006; Cashman et al., 2017).

Aceh is located at the continental margin between the Sunda Arc and the Andaman Sea, accommodating forces of seafloor spreading and far-field extrusion from the north (Figure 1a; X. Wang et al., 2022). The eastern edge of the Andaman Sea shows remarkable correspondence to the big bend of the Sunda trench (Figure 1a). The change in trench curvature also marks the rupture boundary between the 2004 Mw9.2 Sumatra-Andaman and the 2005 Mw8.7 Nias megathrust earthquakes (Chlieh et al., 2007; Hsu et al., 2006) (Figure 1b). Such dramatic structure variations both to the north and south of Aceh cause a high level of seismicity in the northwestern end

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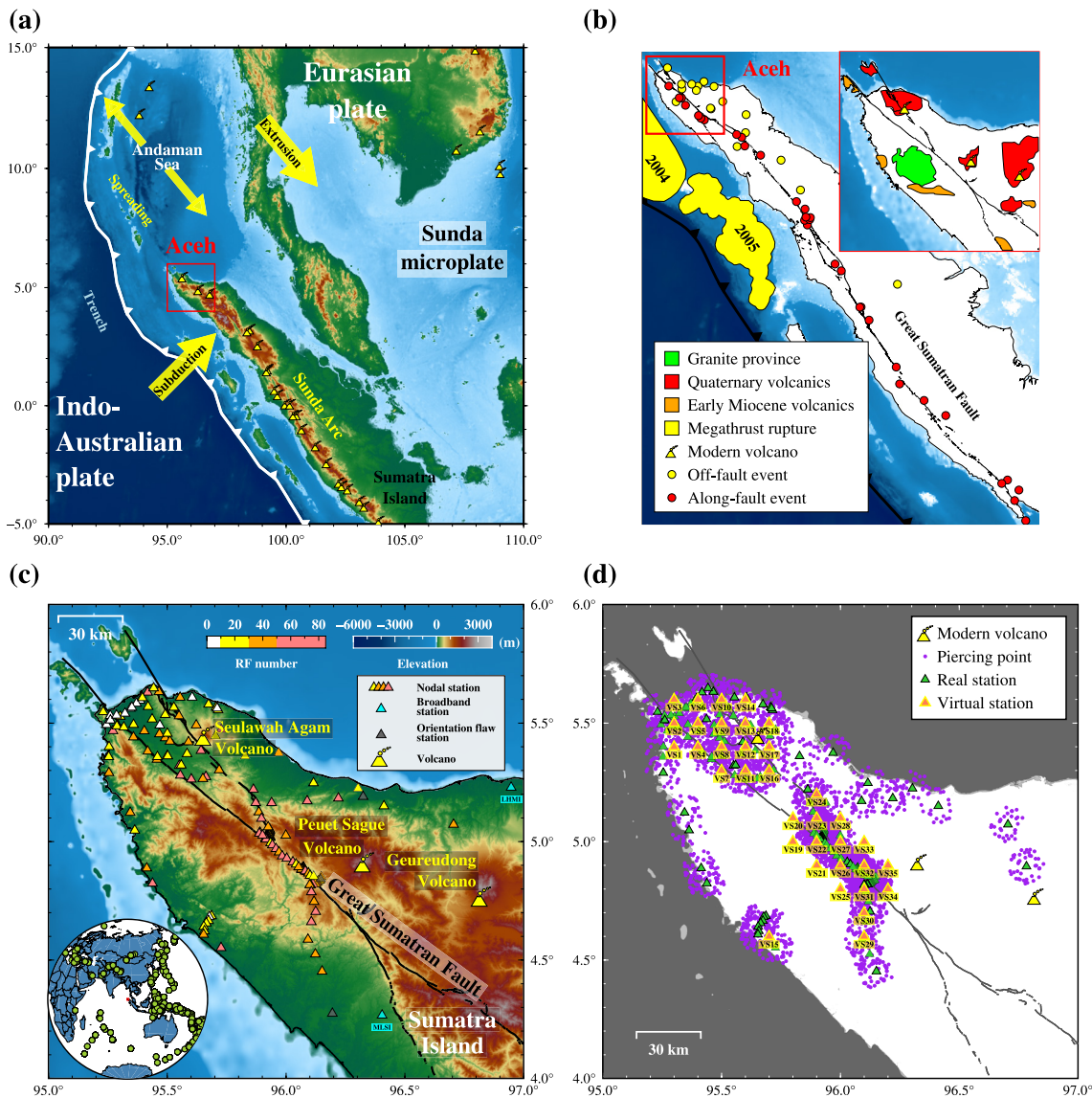


Figure 1. (a and b) Tectonic setting of Aceh, (c and d) distribution of the nodal seismic array. Red and yellow dots in (b) show historical M5.5+ earthquakes along and off the Great Sumatran Fault, respectively (Muzli et al., 2018). Yellow zones in (b) show the 2004 Mw9.2 and 2005 Mw8.7 great earthquake ruptures. Locations of the granite province and volcanics are retrieved from Barber (2000) and Lai et al. (2021), respectively. Gray triangles in (c) show the nodal stations with misorientations of >50°, and the green dots show teleseismic events used. Purple circles in (d) show Ps-wave piercing points at 30 km depth.

of Sumatra (Muksin et al., 2019; Muzli et al., 2018). Sizable off-Sumatran fault crustal earthquakes occur much more frequently in Aceh than in other Sumatran regions, suggesting more distributed deformation in the crust (Figure 1b; Muzli et al., 2018). While both volcanism and crustal deformation highlight the active tectonics of Aceh, the paucity of regional seismic observations has hindered our ability to constrain the crustal structure and thus better understand the tectonics. To fill the observational gap, a dense array of short-period seismic nodes was deployed in Aceh for ~1.5 years, covering the Seulawah Agam Volcano and part of the Great Sumatran Fault (GSF) and its bifurcations (Figure 1c). The array recorded numerous teleseismic earthquakes, providing a valuable data set to better constrain the regional crustal structure.

Typically, crustal structural parameters such as crustal thickness and V_p/V_s ratio are estimated by H- κ stacking of teleseismic receiver functions (RFs) (e.g., Zhu & Kanamori, 2000), which usually reveal high V_p/V_s ratios in volcanic areas (e.g., Eagar et al., 2011; Janiszewski et al., 2013; T. Wang et al., 2021). The high V_p/V_s ratios can indicate the degree of crustal magma mush. Reed et al. (2014) converts V_p/V_s ratio to melt fraction by a theoretical relationship (Watanabe, 1993), which was designed for granitic and rhyolitic melts and thus is not generalizable

to other volcanic settings. Hammond (2014) extends H- κ stacking to constrain melt-induced crustal anisotropy, providing estimates for melt fraction by considering the aspect ratio of the melt. However, the study finds a strong trade-off between melt fraction and melt geometry (aspect ratio).

To resolve these limitations, here we propose both explicit and implicit approaches to estimate the crustal melt fraction, based on critical porosity and Gassmann's equations (Gassmann, 1951; Nur et al., 1998). Critical porosity is equivalent to aspect ratio in parameterizing velocity by melt fraction, with the advantage that it can be determined by geological information to better resolve the trade-off between melt fraction and melt geometry (Paulatto et al., 2022). The explicit method directly converts V_p/V_s ratio into melt fraction, while the implicit method incorporates Gassmann's equations into H- κ stacking method to constrain crustal thickness, melt fraction, V_p , and V_p/V_s ratio simultaneously. We name the implicit method as H- Φ stacking method and apply it to the nodal seismic array data in Aceh. Based on the crustal thickness result, the crustal stretching factor is also estimated. We then analyze the interaction between crustal stretching and magmatic mush distribution. In the following sections, we first introduce the data and the methods, then show our results, followed by interpretation regarding the spatial distribution of magmas, regional tectonic, and volcanic processes.

2. RF Data

The short-period array comprises 155 nodes, deployed from January 2020 to July 2021 (Figure 1c) and principally distributed along roads and flat areas. The deployment team overcame difficulties imposed by the tropical environment and the COVID19 pandemic, managing to recharge and re-deploy all nodes every ~ 35 days. This is a unique way of deploying nodal arrays for long-term acquisition over many cycles of node's battery life (Lythgoe et al., 2022). Beside the short-period array, we also include two permanent broadband stations (MLSI and LHMI) in Aceh for RF analysis. Waveform data are collected for teleseismic events (28–92° epicentral distance) that occurred during the deployment period and have magnitudes ≥ 5.5 (Figure 1c). Before RF analysis, we detect the sensor misorientation (Niu & Li, 2011; X. Wang et al., 2016) and exclude the nodal stations with $>30^\circ$ misorientations (Figures S1 and S2 in Supporting Information S1). For broadband station MLSI, we detect a $202 \pm 6.7^\circ$ misorientation and correct it (Figures S3 and S4 in Supporting Information S1).

We calculate RFs from the teleseismic waveforms with a time domain iterative deconvolution method (Kikuchi & Kanamori, 1992; Ligorria & Ammon, 1999). We then select high-quality RFs rigorously by both visual inspection and automatic selection. In total, we obtain $>5,700$ high-quality RFs (see more details on data pre-processing in Text S1 of Supporting Information S1). We find eight nodal stations that show clear reverberation phases, suggesting the presence of unconsolidated sediments (Langston, 2011; Y. Yu et al., 2015; Zelt & Ellis, 1999). The reverberations are suppressed by a frequency domain filtering algorithm (Y. Yu et al., 2015) (Figures S5 and S6 in Supporting Information S1).

3. Methods

3.1. Virtual Station H- κ Stacking With Multiple Parameters

Our nodal array observations have a high level of noise, likely due to the poor deployment condition. Fortunately, the dense array allows for spatial stacking to increase the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) (Lythgoe et al., 2020; Ward et al., 2018). Here we apply a spatial stacking technique, called “Virtual Station Stacking,” to group RF traces. For a single station, the spatial resolution of traditional H- κ stacking depends on the distribution of Ps conversion points at the Moho. Assuming a crustal V_s of 3.5 km/s and a crustal thickness of 30 km, the horizontal resolution of H- κ stacking is ~ 20 km. To cover piercing points with similar resolution, we group RFs within each 10-km-radius cylinder, inside which the RF number is required to be ≥ 100 . In total, 35 virtual stations are established (Figure 1d). The Moho piercing points are calculated based on a regional forearc velocity model (Collings et al., 2012) (Figure S7b in Supporting Information S1). Figure 2a shows that the virtual station stacking significantly enhances the SNR.

We then apply H- κ stacking to the virtual station RFs to estimate the best crustal thickness and V_p/V_s ratio fitting the traveltimes of Ps, PpPs, and PsPs + PpSs phases from the Moho (Zhu & Kanamori, 2000). We assume that reliable crustal thickness range, V_p/V_s ratio range, and crustal V_p are 20–50 km, 1.5–2.3, 6.1 km/s, respectively, according to previous studies (e.g., Bora et al., 2016; Laske et al., 2012; Macpherson et al., 2012; Pratama et al., 2020). H- κ stacking is established hypothesizing a single-layer and isotropic crust, which may lead to relatively large uncertainties in areas

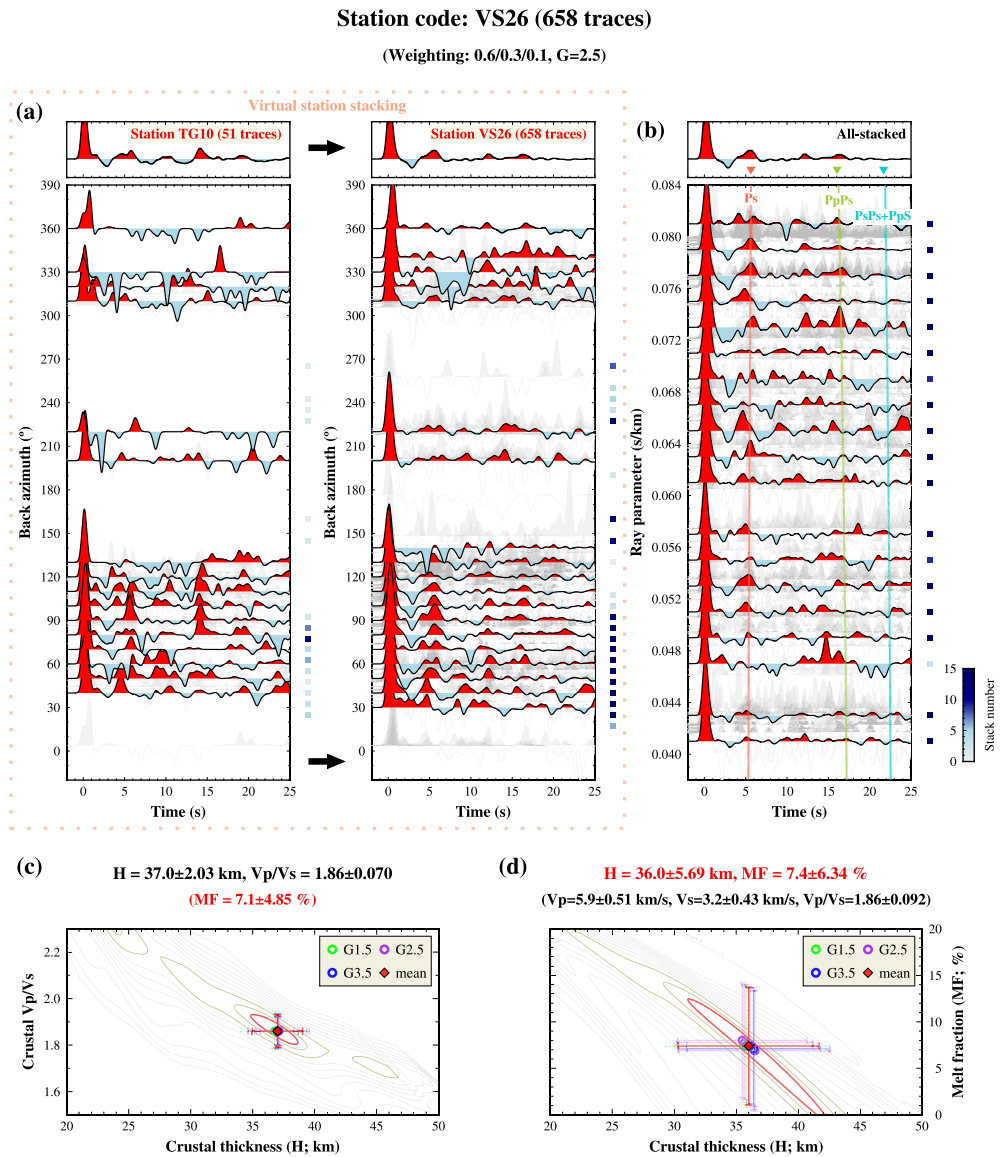


Figure 2. (a) Virtual station stacking and (b–d) results of multiple-parameter H-κ stacking and H-Φ stacking at VS26. Panel (a) shows the comparison of receiver functions (RFs) at real station TG10 and virtual station VS26, which are located very closely (Figure S7a in Supporting Information S1). Gray and color-filled waveforms show individual and stacked RFs, respectively. The number of RFs stacked in back azimuthal or ray parameter bins is shown by the squares. The theoretical arrival times of target phases in H-κ and H-Φ stacking are marked by the lines and the triangles, respectively. Panels (c) and (d) are the H-κ and H-Φ stacking results, respectively. “MF” means melt fraction. The circles show estimates from various Gaussian filtering (G) and weighting parameters. The estimates are grouped by G and shown in green, purple, and blue. The 95% energy contour is marked in red, and the 80% and 90% contours are marked in brown.

with complex tectonic settings, manifesting as non-unique H-κ estimates (Figure S8 in Supporting Information S1; Ogden et al., 2019). To suppress this non-uniqueness, we apply different Gaussian filtering and weighting parameters (Figures 2b and 2c; Feng et al., 2021; Ogden et al., 2019). The final estimate is defined as the average of the results derived from different parameters. The final uncertainty is the average uncertainty of individual results estimated by the 95% contour of the stacked energy (Figure 2c). See more details in Text S2 of Supporting Information S1.

3.2. Explicit and Implicit Approaches for Melt Fraction Estimation

We derive both the explicit and implicit expressions of melt fraction based on Gassmann's equations (Gassmann, 1951) and the assumption of critical porosity (Nur et al., 1998). Gassmann's equations describe the

relationship between melt fraction and velocity under a low-frequency assumption that poral fluids fully fill the pore space (Chu et al., 2010). Critical porosity defines the transition porosity where a frame-supported medium turns to be fluid-supported (Van der Molen & Paterson, 1979). Melt fraction (Φ) can be expressed as a function of V_p/V_s ratio (κ):

$$\Phi = \Phi_0 - \frac{A}{B}$$

$$A = K_0\Phi_0K_m$$

$$B = \Phi_0(K_0 - K_m)(C\mu_0 - K_0) + K_mC\mu_0$$

$$C = \kappa^2 - \frac{4}{3}$$

where K_0 , μ_0 , K_m , Φ_0 , κ are the bulk and shear moduli of the country rock, the bulk modulus of melt, the critical porosity, and the V_p/V_s ratio, respectively. The sensitivity kernel between Φ and κ is defined by the derivative of melt fraction with respect to κ :

$$\partial\Phi = \frac{2AD}{B^2}\kappa\partial\kappa$$

$$D = \mu_0\Phi_0(K_0 - K_m) + K_m\mu_0$$

where K_0 , μ_0 are converted from the seismic wave speeds and density of the country rock (Chu et al., 2010). Based on a regional velocity model and the exposure of dacite-andesite rocks in northern Sumatra, we assume a V_p value of 6.5 km/s and V_p/V_s ratio of 1.78 for the country rock (Ji et al., 2009; Kennett et al., 1995; Laske et al., 2012; Rock et al., 1982; Zaini et al., 2021). K_m and ϕ_0 are assigned to be 16.1 GPa (e.g., for andesitic melt; Bass, 1995) and 0.30 (e.g., for dacite volcanos; X. Yu & Lee, 2016), respectively. Based on these equations, when country rock parameters and melt parameters are fixed, Φ only depends on κ . Here κ could be estimated by H- κ stacking or other approaches.

Based on the above explicit relationship between Φ and κ , we further expand the traditional H- κ stacking method to a H- Φ stacking method, which is an implicit approach to estimate the average crustal melt fraction. Note that in H- κ stacking a constant crustal V_p is assumed, which is inappropriate since the average crustal V_p decreases as the melt fraction increases (Figure S9 in Supporting Information S1). In our proposed H- Φ stacking method, the crustal V_p is estimated based on the melt fraction, therefore the V_p is no longer constant. This is an improvement on the traditional H- κ method, resulting in a more accurate crustal thickness estimate.

We implement H- Φ stacking of RFs through the following steps. First, assuming the density, shear and bulk moduli of the country rock, density and bulk modulus of the melt, and critical porosity, Gassmann's equations are applied for a range of melt fraction to calculate the corresponding V_p and V_s . Second, based on these velocities, the theoretical arrival times of the three target phases are calculated for a range of crustal thickness (H). These phases are then stacked with assigned weights (similar to that in H- κ stacking). The largest stacking energy provides the optimal estimation for crustal thickness and melt fraction. In this process, V_p , V_s , and V_p/V_s are estimated as byproducts (Figure 2d and Figure S10 in Supporting Information S1).

We evaluate the robustness of H- Φ stacking through a series of synthetic tests. We use $V_p = 6.5$ km/s, $V_p/V_s = 1.78$, density = 2.75 g/cm³ for the country rock, density = 2.45 g/cm³, bulk modulus = 16.1 GPa for the melt, and critical porosity of 0.3 (N1 model in Table S1 of Supporting Information S1) as input parameters to calculate the equivalent V_p and V_s for a melt fraction of 10%. Assuming a one-layer crust with equivalent V_p and V_s , we then generate synthetic RF waveforms for a crustal thickness of 35 km (Figure S10 in Supporting Information S1). The presumed parameters (Table S1 in Supporting Information S1) are perturbed when applying the H- Φ stacking to the synthetic RF waveforms. Figure S11 in Supporting Information S1 shows the derived H, V_p , V_s , V_p/V_s and Φ , which are recovered with acceptable deviations, suggesting that H- Φ stacking has weak sensitivity to the presumed parameters. Regarding the N1 model (Table S1 in Supporting Information S1), the explicit approach (e.g., H- κ stacking) produces similar melt fraction estimates to that from H- Φ stacking (with a difference of ~1%–2%) despite using an inaccurate crustal V_p of 6.1–6.5 km/s (the true V_p is 5.7 km/s), indicating that melt fraction (i.e., V_p/V_s) is insensitive to the assumed crustal V_p value. In this case, however, the crustal thickness is notably different, with deviations as high as ~5 km, suggesting its stronger sensitivity to the crustal V_p or melt

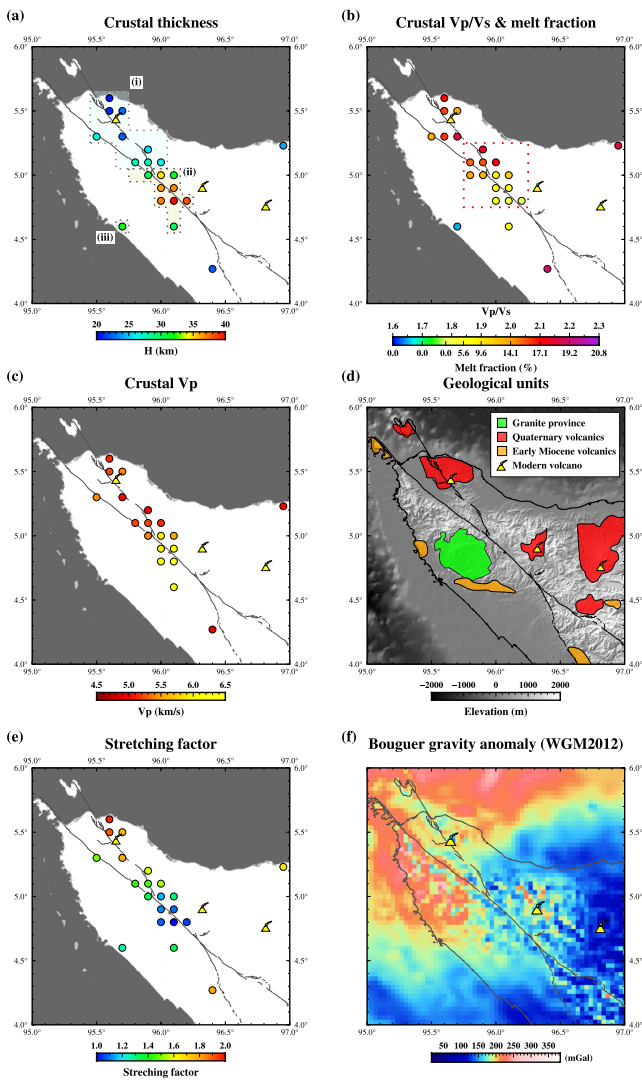


Figure 3. Spatial variations of (a) crustal thickness, (b) V_p/V_s and melt fraction, (c) V_p , (d) key geological units, (e) stretching factor, and (f) Bouguer gravity anomaly. The polygons in (a) show our sub-regions. The red rectangle in (b) highlights the area where crustal thickness and V_p/V_s show a strong negative correlation (Figure 4c).

fraction. Because H- Φ stacking overperforms the explicit approach based on H- κ stacking, in this study results are mostly derived from H- Φ stacking. We then test the influence of a uniformly dipping Moho, crustal anisotropy, and multiple crustal layers on H- Φ stacking estimates. As shown in Figures S12 and S13 in Supporting Information S1, a Moho dips at an angle $<15^\circ$, or a $<10\%$ anisotropic crust with a horizontal symmetric axis, results in <5 km and $<5\%$ deviations in crustal thickness and melt fraction, respectively. We also find that virtual station stacking can alleviate the influence of a dipping Moho. See more details in Text S3 of Supporting Information S1.

4. Results

Reliable estimates on crustal thickness and V_p/V_s ratio by H- Φ stacking are obtained at 21 virtual stations and 2 broadband stations (Table S2 in Supporting Information S1). The crustal thickness ranges from 20 to 40 km (± 1.0 – 6.6 km; ± 3.0 km on average). The average crustal thickness is ~ 29 km (Figure 3a), close to the average crustal thickness in Crust1.0 for the same region (~ 31 km; Figure S14 in Supporting Information S1). However, our results show much stronger spatial variations. The estimated V_p/V_s ratio varies from 1.65 to 2.19 (± 0.04 – 0.11 ; ± 0.09 on average), with an average of ~ 1.98 (Figure 3b). The average V_p/V_s ratio is much higher than the global continental average of ~ 1.77 (Christensen, 1996), but instead is closer to the V_p/V_s ratios in active volcanic regions (1.87 and above) (Ji et al., 2009), with values higher than 1.95 reported in many volcanic areas (e.g., Janiszewski et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2020; Rao et al., 2015), including the Sunda arc (Syuhada et al., 2016; Wölbner & Rüpker, 2016). The crustal average V_p values are 4.9–6.3 km/s (± 0.1 – 0.5 km/s; ± 0.3 km/s on average), with an average of ~ 5.4 km/s (Figure 3c), close to the value of ~ 5.1 km/s in the Red Sea Rift volcanic zone (Reed et al., 2014) but much smaller than the global continental average of 6.45 km/s (Christensen & Mooney, 1995). Melt fractions are estimated to be $\sim 0\%$ – 19% (± 1.0 – 6.7% ; $\pm 3.7\%$ on average), with an average of $\sim 12\%$ (Figures 3b and 4b), similar to the average crustal melt fraction of $\sim 9\%$ estimated by Reed et al. (2014). The explicit and implicit approaches provide similar melt fraction estimates, with the difference of $<1\%$ on average (Figures 2c, 2d, and 4b). Note that crustal thickness estimated from H- Φ stacking is ~ 0 – 6 km smaller than that estimated using traditional H- κ stacking (Figure S15 in Supporting Information S1), which is caused by overestimation of H- κ stacking, as we highlighted in Section 3.2 and also emphasized by Reed et al. (2014). H- Φ stacking results in a generally larger uncertainty than H- κ stacking (e.g., Figures 2c and 2d), owing to the intrinsic lower sharpness of the stacked energy contours around the peak.

We find distinguishing features of crustal structure along the GSF. At the northwestern part (i.e., region i in Figure 3a), the crust is thinner (~ 24 km), with higher V_p/V_s (~ 2.07), hence higher melt fraction ($\sim 16\%$), and lower average crustal V_p (~ 5.2 km/s). At the southeastern part, between the two GSF bifurcations (i.e., region ii), the crust is thicker (~ 35 km), has lower V_p/V_s (~ 1.88), lower melt fraction ($\sim 8\%$), and higher V_p (~ 5.9 km/s). In region ii, the uncertainty of the estimates is also larger than that in region i, suggesting higher noise contamination level and/or more complex crustal structures (Table S2 in Supporting Information S1). At the forearc area (region iii), the V_p/V_s is strikingly low (~ 1.65 ; Figure 3b).

5. Interpretation and Discussion

5.1. Pervasive Crustal Melts in Aceh and Its Global Implications

The wide range of melt fractions (0%–19%) in Aceh suggests a high spatial variation of magma distribution in the crust. The melt fraction is different in the forearc (region iii in Figure 3a) and arc-backarc areas (regions i and ii).

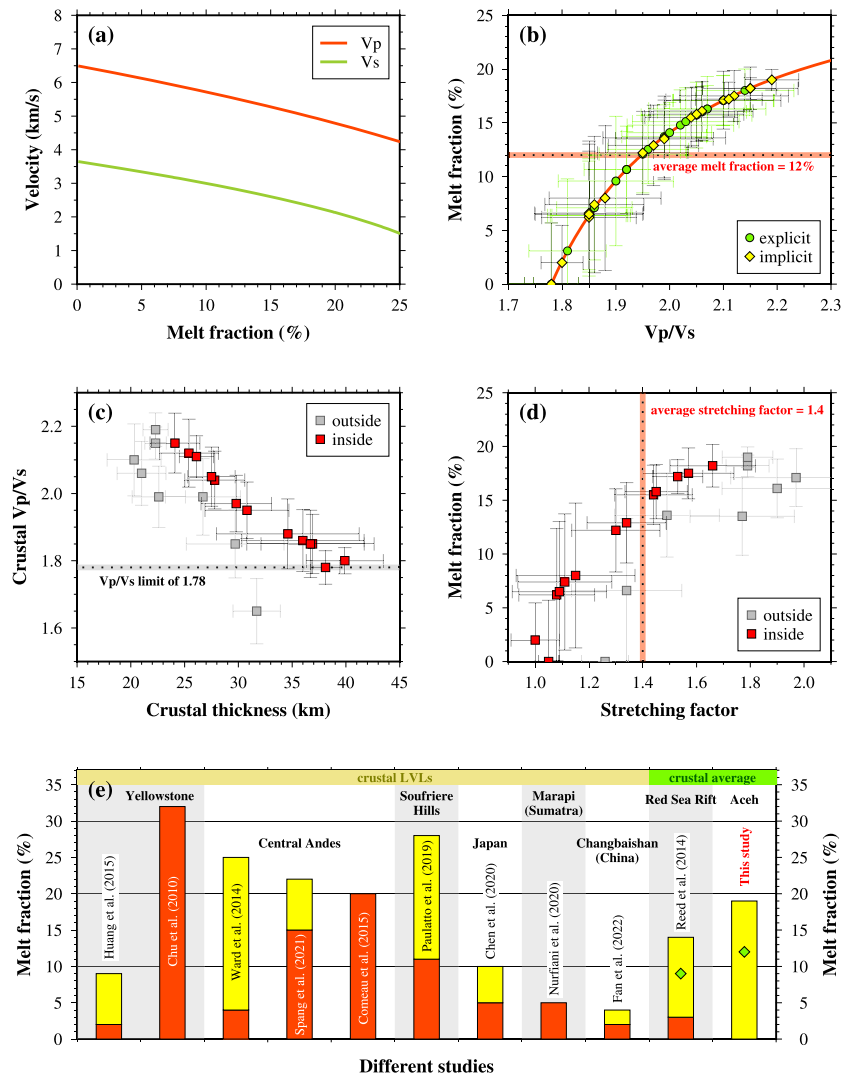


Figure 4. (a) Theoretical relationships between velocity and melt fraction, (b) melt fractions estimated by the explicit and implicit methods, (c) and (d) correlations between crustal thickness and V_p/V_s (i.e., stretching factor and melt fraction). The red curve in (b) shows the theoretical relationship calculated by the explicit approach. Red and gray squares in (c) and (d) show the crustal thickness and V_p/V_s inside and outside the Great Sumatran Fault transition (the red rectangle in Figure 3b), respectively. Panel (e) shows comparison of melt fraction with other studies. Yellow bars show the range of melt fraction with the red bars show the minimum. Red bars also show melt fractions from studies only providing an average. Green diamonds mark the regional averages.

In the arc-backarc areas, the melt fraction is $\sim 16\%$ around the Seulawah Agam Volcano (region i), and gradually decreases to $\sim 8\%$ further to the southeast (region ii). In the forearc area (region iii) where an intruded Cretaceous granite batholith outcropped (Barber, 2000), the crustal V_p/V_s is as low as 1.65 (i.e., 0% melt fraction), suggesting a dominantly felsic crust that has not been reignited by modern volcanism (Lai et al., 2021).

The 12% average crustal melt fraction suggests pervasive magmatic mush and partial melting in the Aceh crust. Similarly high V_p/V_s ratios and high melt fractions have been reported in other volcanic areas (e.g., Eagar et al., 2011; Janiszewski et al., 2013; Reed et al., 2014), suggesting that high melt fraction is a common feature in active volcanic regions. The melt fraction we derive represents a crustal average, which may imply the existence of localized crustal magmatic bodies with melt fractions larger than 19%. Melt fractions estimated for localized crustal Low Velocity Layers (LVLs) in a few volcanic areas indeed show large values (e.g., 20% to 30%) such as Yellowstone (Chu et al., 2010), Soufrière Hills (Paulatto et al., 2019), and Central Andes (Comeau et al., 2015; Spang et al., 2021) (Figure 4e).

In addition, relatively low melt fractions are reported for some volcanic regions, with estimates from 2% to 10% for the intra-crustal LVLs with several-kilometer thicknesses, for example, in Northeast Japan (K. X. Chen et al., 2020), Changbaishan volcano (Fan et al., 2022), and Marapi volcano (Nurfiani et al., 2021) (Figure 4e). Even for the same volcano, different studies show dramatic differences in melt fraction estimates. For example, Huang et al. (2015) reported a $\sim 10,000 \text{ km}^3$ low-velocity reservoir with $\sim 9\%$ melt fraction beneath Yellowstone volcano using P-wave tomography. However, RF modeling presented by Chu et al. (2010) shows a $\sim 4,300 \text{ km}^3$ LVL in the same area with a melt fraction of $\sim 32\%$. Relatively low melt fraction estimates can be caused by the resolution limits, the wavefront healing effect, and non-uniqueness of seismic tomography techniques (Fan et al., 2022; Paulatto et al., 2019, 2022; Rasht-Behesht et al., 2020). For instance, the wavefront healing effect can lead to $\sim 50\%$ melt fraction underestimation (Paulatto et al., 2019). The H- Φ stacking method is more sensitive to the crustal thickness and the crustal average V_p/V_s than tomography, providing independent and complementary melt fraction constraints.

5.2. Crustal Volcanism Migration Facilitated by Crustal Stretching

The crustal thickness of $\sim 22 \text{ km}$ in northern Aceh is much thinner than the global average of 30.5 km for extended crust (Christensen & Mooney, 1995), suggesting much strong extensional deformation of the crust. The off-Sumatran fault seismicity in Aceh also indicates strong distributed crustal deformation (Muzli et al., 2018). To quantify the degree of crustal extension, we calculated the stretching factor assuming that the prior-stretching crustal thickness is the largest crustal thickness in the study region (39.9 km ; Table S2 in Supporting Information S1) (L. Chen, 2014). The estimated stretching factors range from ~ 1.0 – 2.0 with an average of ~ 1.4 , similar to that in other continental margins (Ahmed et al., 2013; L. Chen, 2014; L. Chen et al., 2013). The stretching factor decreases from northwest to southeast, along the spreading direction of the Andaman Sea (Figures 1a and 3e), probably suggesting a causal relationship. The spreading of the Andaman Sea has enhanced the regional geotherm to the north of the GSF, therefore facilitating the northward migration of volcanism around Seulawah Agam volcano (Lai et al., 2021). It is notable that the western branch of the bifurcation marks a boundary between two blocks of different Bouguer gravity anomaly, with a smaller positive gravity anomaly beneath Seulawah Agam volcano (Figure 3f). This sharp drop in gravity maybe due to pervasive low-density magma in the eastern crust, which has fed into the Quaternary volcanics and is shown as high melt fractions in our results. Frequent seismicity in the crust may have created faults that facilitate melt intrusion and accumulation, therefore speeding up crustal magmatism. At the branching transition of the GSF, we notice a clear negative correlation between crustal thickness and V_p/V_s , thus a positive correlation between stretching factor and melt fraction (Figures 4c and 4d), suggesting that the elevated crustal melting percentage is closely related to the fault branching.

In contrast to the Seulawah Agam volcanic area, the crustal thickness ($\sim 35 \text{ km}$) near the Quaternary volcanics at Peuet Sague volcano is closer to the global average (Figure 3). The Bouguer gravity anomaly at the Peuet Sague volcano is more scattered, with a larger magnitude of the anomaly than its nearby region, while gravity near the Geureudong volcanics shows no dramatic differences with its neighbors. These features suggest that the northward migration of Peuet Sague and Geureudong volcanisms may not be simply explained by crustal stretching and further investigations are needed.

5.3. Limitations and Future Study

While H- Φ stacking of RFs provides a robust estimation of the crustal melt fraction, there are several limitations. First, since the entire crust is considered as one layer, this method cannot reveal detailed crustal magmatic architecture. Second, H- Φ stacking requires more parameters than H- κ stacking, therefore suffering from more trade-offs between parameters. Third, H- Φ stacking assumes a homogeneous isotropic crust, providing estimates with $< \sim 5 \text{ km}$ and $< \sim 5\%$ biases in crustal thickness and melt fraction, respectively, when the Moho dip angle is $< \sim 15^\circ$ and the crustal anisotropy strength is $< \sim 10\%$. Highly complicated crustal structures (e.g., larger crustal anisotropy, steeply dipping Moho, 3-D structure, and their compound effects) can significantly influence the melt fraction estimates. Adopting more advanced H- κ stacking techniques into H- Φ stacking will further improve the accuracy (e.g., Li et al., 2019). Finally, we exclude the contribution of volatiles in Gassmann's equations for simplification, which would act to decrease the melt fraction estimates (Chu et al., 2010). Future studies can consider volatiles to have better melt fraction estimates.

6. Conclusion

We propose a new RF method, H- Φ stacking, to constrain crustal thickness, V_p , V_p/V_s , and melt fraction simultaneously. Application to northern Sumatra dense array observations reveals a thin crust near the continental margin associated with significantly high V_p/V_s (~ 1.98) and melt fraction (12%), indicating pervasive magmatic mush in the crust. Our results provide new insights to the northward migration of the Seulawah Agam volcanism and its correlation with crustal seismicity.

Data Availability Statement

The seismic data used are archived at Feng and Wei (2023). Data of active volcanoes are from Global Volcanism Program (2023). Bouguer gravity anomaly data are from Bonvalot et al. (2012). We sincerely thank the Indonesian Agency for Meteorology, Climatology, and Geophysics for providing the permanent seismic station data, LHMI and MLSI (IA network), which are downloaded from 202.90.198.100/webdc3/ when it was accessible. The data are also achieved at the GEOFON center with restricted access currently. We use hk1.3 software package (Zhu, 2009) to calculate RFs and do H- κ stacking. We use RAYSUM software (Frederiksen & Bostock, 2000) to calculate synthetic seismic waveforms in the cases of anisotropic layers and dipping interfaces. H- Φ stacking and virtual station stacking codes are available at Feng et al. (2023).

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