# Depths in a day - A new era of rapid-response Raman-based barometry

# 2 using fluid inclusions

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### 20 Abstract

Rapid-response petrological monitoring is a major advance for volcano observatories to build and validate models in near-real-time of the plumbing systems that supply eruptions. Our rapid-response analysis of tephra from the September 2023 eruption of Kīlauea shows that Raman analyses of fluid inclusions can robustly determine magma reservoir depths within a day of receiving samples – a transformative timescale for decision making that has never been achieved by petrological methods.

### Main text

Volcano observatories increasingly use data collected from erupted lava and tephra samples in near-real-time to obtain information about the magmatic plumbing system to help inform decision making during volcanic crises<sup>1–3</sup>. Most work so far has focused on the chemistry of erupted lavas and crystal cargoes<sup>3</sup> to gain insight into changing melt composition and rheological properties (e.g., ref <sup>1</sup>). However, up until now, petrological monitoring has been unable to address the high-priority question— 'Where is the magma coming from?' <sup>2</sup>. At well-monitored volcanoes, such information can be used to draw analogies to previous eruptive episodes associated with specific storage reservoirs (e.g., vigour, pathway, or length of eruption), and to help interpret geophysical signals of ongoing activity. At poorly-monitored volcanoes, where there may be no prior constraints on magma storage geometry <sup>4</sup>/<sub>3</sub> depths of storage are a vital parameter to begin interpreting new eruptive activity. Melt inclusion (MI) barometry, a widely popular petrological method to determine storage depths from volatile contents, takes months to years to complete <sup>2</sup>. While mineral barometry could be implemented faster (only requiring electron probe microanalysis (EPMA) measurements on eruptive minerals), it is imprecise <sup>5,6</sup>, and therefore would only be able to constrain magma storage to very broad depths (e.g., stored in the crust vs. below the Moho). This technique has particularly

poor applicability at active volcanoes such as Kīlauea or Mauna Loa, where a precision of 1–2 km is needed to distinguish between storage reservoirs<sup>7,8</sup>.

Recent developments have shown that Raman-based barometry of CO<sub>2</sub>-rich fluid inclusions (FI) provides are iting alternative to popular petrological barometers, with much smaller uncertainties than mineral barometry, and requiring far less time and resources than MI analyses <sup>9,10</sup>. This method uses spectral features of CO<sub>2</sub> fluids to calculate a CO<sub>2</sub> density using an instrument specific calibration <sup>11</sup>. Along with an estimate of entrapment temperature, this density is converted into an entrapment pressure using a CO<sub>2</sub> Equation of State (EOS). Pressures are converted to depths through an estimate of crustal density. However, there has previously been no rigorous assessment of just how quickly FI depths can be obtained from erupted material, and whether these timescales are short enough to have use as a real-time monitoring tool.

The eruption onset of Kīlauea volcano on September 10, 2023 provided an unprecedented opportunity to test the validity of this method during a response, given that depths of the main magma storage regions at this volcano have been well constrained by various independent geophysical and petrological methods, including prior FI barometry<sup>10</sup>. Tephra samples representing the first ~14 hours of the September 2023 eruption were collected by Hawaiian Volcano Observatory (HVO) geologists on September 12. Following discussions with HVO over the next few days, we requested samples to run a rapid-response simulation.

Our simulation started on September 20 at 9 am PST (Day 1) following receipt of samples the day before (Fig. 1). We used a production-line style workflow involving two undergraduates, a 1<sup>st</sup> year graduate student, a post-doc, and an assistant professor, with stations for crushing and sieving, mineral picking, FI preparation, sample cataloguing, and analysis. The first steps were to crush and sieve tenhra, pick olivine crystals (size fractions 0.5-1 and 1-2 mm) crystals, and begin mounting crystals in CrystalBond<sup>TM</sup> to search for FI. By 2 pm PST (5 hrs into the simulation), we had collected our first Raman spectra. By ~7 pm PST, we had analysed and processed all data for FI and were able to share a histogram of storage depths with HVO collaborators showing that crystals, and thus

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magma, were coming from the shallower Halema'uma'u reservoir of Kīlauea (HMM on Fig. 2a-b). We also had a further ~20 FI fully prepared and catalogued for analysis. On Day 2, these 20 FI were analysed, while further FI 65 66 were prepared and catalogued. After analysis of ~15 crystals hosting FI, these crystals were passed from the Raman to a workstation where they were removed from CrystalBond<sup>TM</sup> and placed on tape to make an epoxy mount. Epoxy 67 was poured at the end of the day. By ~8:30 pm PST on Day 2, we shared an updated histogram of 46 FI pressures 68 69 and depths, confirming the dominant influence of the Halema'uma'u reservoir (Fig. 2a and c). On Day 3, while waiting for the epoxy to fully set, we finished analysing prepared FI. Then we polished the mount and began 70 cataloguing the regions of crystals on which to perform energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS). On Day 4, olivine forsterite contents (Fo = 100\*Mg/(Mg+Fe) molar) were determined by EDS, providing a framework to further 72 73 interpret the plumbing system (Fig. 2d).

Our results clearly show that the majority of FI were entrapped at  $\sim 1-2$  km below the surface (Fig. 2d), which aligns well with the depths of the Halema'uma'u reservoir interpreted from geophysics<sup>7,8,12</sup>, MI barometry <sup>13,14</sup>, and FI barometry <sup>10</sup>. While the greater number of analyses from data processed on Day 2 and Day 4 certainly enhance the story, it is notable that depths calculated on Day 1 fall within final proposed storage reservoir depths as well. Rapid EDS analyses of olivine Fo contents close to each FI reveal that olivine crystals grew from a wide range of melt compositions. It is interesting to note that FI in the cores of high-Fo (e.g., >86) olivine crystals return pressures indicative of the shallower Halema'uma'u reservoir - it has been suggested in previous eruptions that these high-Fo olivine crystals predominantly grow in the deeper South Caldera reservoir (SC on Fig. 2a), where high MgO melts are thought to reside. We suggest three possible scenarios to explain the relatively shallow pressures documented in high-Fo olivine crystals:

1) FI in high-Fo olivine crystals were entrapped within the South Caldera reservoir and re-equilibrated at Halema'uma'u pressures prior to eruption.

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86 2) High-MgO melts were injected into the Halema'uma'u reservoir, where high-Fo olivine crystallized and trapped

87 FI.

3) Complex skeletal growth of olivine crystals during extensive undercooling (e.g., ref <sup>15</sup>) meant that high-Fo olivine cores which initially grew in the South Caldera reservoir texturally evolved and trapped lower pressure FI in the Halema'uma'u reservoir.

We think that scenario 1 is unlikely given the that FI from the 2018 lower East Rift Zone eruption appear not to have re-equilibrated despite stalling in the Halema'uma'u reservoir for up to 2 years<sup>10,16</sup>, and our models of FI re-equilibration indicate <10% change in pressure after such a period. Current data does not allow us to resolve scenario 2 vs 3, but this eruption could provide an opportunity to explore this further (e.g., through detailed Phosphorous mapping in olivine around FI). Regardless of the exact mechanism, our FI pressures indicate that erupted crystal cargo experienced storage in the Halema'uma'u reservoir prior to eruption, and thus this is the most probable reservoir supplying magma to the surface.

This simulation shows that Raman-based FI barometry has significant potential for rapid-response petrological monitoring globally. It could be applied to any CO<sub>2</sub>-rich volcanic system – which includes numerous hazardous and frequently active volcanic regions worldwide (e.g., Galápagos, Réunion, Azores, Canary Islands, Iceland, Cabo Verde). The resources and personnel required are modest. Sample preparation was carried out using transmitted-reflected light microscopes from the University of California teaching collection, only using a research-grade microscope for sample cataloguing. Raman spectrometers are widely available at many universities, given that it is a popular technique in many other fields, such as material sciences, physics, chemistry, and biology, and the W-filament SEM used for EDS analyses to get olivine Fo contents has been around for 15 years (See Methods).

This simulation also enabled us to identify several 'bottlenecks' in this rapid-response workflow which could be smoothed out during future eruptions (yellow stars, Fig 1):

- 1) No courier services ship packages out of Hilo, Hawai'i over the weekend, and estimated delivery days are not reliable.
  - 2) The epoxy took 18 hours to cure enough for polishing (vs. 8 hours on the datasheet)
  - 3) We spent significant time cataloguing samples on a research-grade microscope to help navigate on the Raman, but later realized that smartphone cameras with teaching microscopes would have worked faster.

Overall, we have demonstrated that a modest-sized research group with prior teaching and class commitments working without overnight shifts can obtain pressures on game-changing timelines for understanding volcanic plumbing systems during periods of unrest. This technique adds valuable quantitative storage depth information that expands on HVO's routine near-real-time chemical monitoring with bulk rock ED-XRF<sup>1</sup>. In a true eruptive crisis, magma storage depths could be obtained even faster by removing bottlenecks 1–3, implementing overnight shift work, and requesting teaching release and class absences for students.

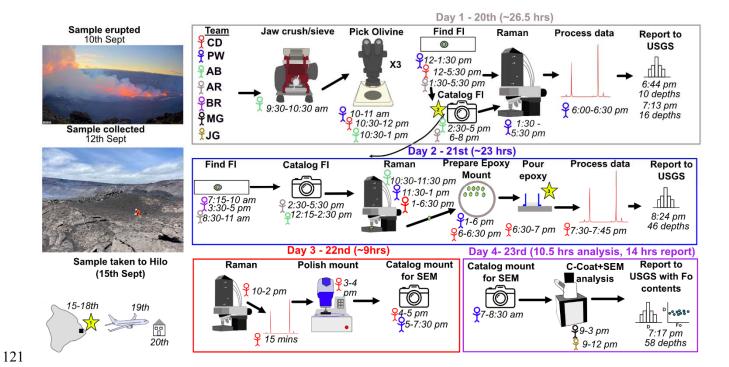


Figure 1: Workflow of the study, all times on this figure are Pacific Standard Time (PST). Stick people show the contribution of individual team members, to indicate the total time associated with each step. We note that AB was trained in these procedures during the simulation! We note that all reports were sent to HVO prior to 5:30 pm Hawaii Standard Time (HST), thus allowing for decision making for the following day.

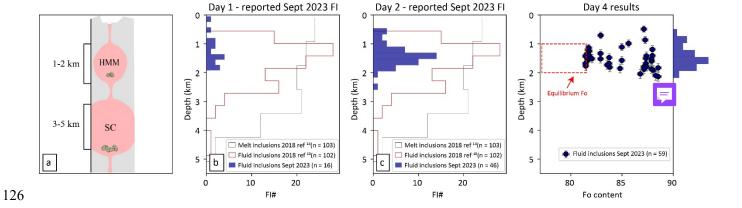


Figure 2: Evolution of results over 4 days. a) Schematic model of Kīlauea's plumbing system, indicating reservoir depths determined by geophysics and prior petrological work (HMM- Halema'uma'u; SC – South Caldera). b) By the end of Day 1, FI revealed that the crystals were supplied from the Halema'uma'u reservoir. KS tests show that within 5% confidence this is significantly shallower than depths indicated by FI (critical D = 0.22, stat = 0.24, pval=0.016) and MI (critical D = 0.22, stat = 0.41, pval=3.51e-06) from the 2018 lower East Rift Zone eruption, which required a contribution from the South Caldera reservoir. c) By the end of Day 2, depths from 46 FI were sent to HVO, confirming a very dominant role of the Halema'uma'u reservoir. On Day 2 we applied a conservative degassing filter (SO<sub>2</sub> mol% < 2.5) d) By the end of Day 4, after taking a mean of repeated analyses of single FI, applying more stringent data filters, using FI-specific temperatures, and a more appropriate crustal model (density of ~2300 kg/m³ with a normal error distribution of 100 kg/m³), entrapment depths with uncertainties were linked to crystal chemistry. Olivine Fo equilibrium field is calculated based on separated FI in Day 1 and 6 in Day 2), pressures were calculated using an estimated entrapment temperature of 10°C, and depth was calculated using the model of ref<sup>17</sup> described in ref<sup>13</sup> for crustal density.

## **Methods (Online)**

#### Sample collection and preparation

Tephra samples (USGS code KS23-588) representing the first ~14 hours of the September 10, 2023, eruption of Kīlauea volcano were collected by Hawaiian Volcano Observatory (HVO) geologists on September 12 and shipped on Friday September 15 at ~5 pm HST. This tephra was erupted from a fissure which opened at 15:36 local time on September 10 (~22 minutes after the eruption started, between 15:13 and 15:14 local time) and ceased erupting between 06:16 and 06:18 am local time on September 11. Following receipt of the samples at the University of California, Berkeley on Tuesday, September 19, material was cessed in a jaw crusher, and then 8

sieved into >2 mm, 1–2 mm, and 0.5–1 mm size fraction. Crystals were picked from the 1–2 mm and 0.5–1 mm size fractions using three different binocular microscopes (one of which had the ability to cross polars). Then, crystals were individually mounted in CrystalBond<sup>TM</sup> on glass slides and progressively polished with 1200-2500-10000 grade wet and dry paper to find FI. FI were then passed onto a team member on a research grade scope to take reflected and transmitted light images to aid with Raman navigation. These images were pasted into a Google slides document so all lab personnel at UC could access them immediately.

Glass compositions were measured on USGS sample KS23-587, a lava flow sample collected in a molten state and quenched with water at 06:30 HST on 11 September 2023. The sample was entirely glassy, and fragments were mounted in epoxy in a 1" round and polished for microprobe analysis.

#### Raman analyses

Raman spectra were acquired using a WiTec Alpha 300R Raman spectrometer at the Department of Earth and Planetary Science at the University of California, Berkeley. The relationship between CO<sub>2</sub> density and spectral features was determined from a gas calibration cell following the methods of ref<sup>10</sup>. All spectra were acquired at 37 °C. Spectra were processed and corrected for drift using the Python tool DiadFit v0.0.73<sup>18</sup>. We report ratios of SO<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>3</sub> to CO<sub>2</sub> peak areas and calculate approximate mol % SO<sub>2</sub> using the equations of ref<sup>19</sup>, implemented in DiadFit. All measured FI had SO<sub>2</sub> mol % <10, we filtered the final dataset for SO<sub>2</sub> mol % <5 (Fig. 2d), to ensure use of the pure CO<sub>2</sub> EOS was valid. We calculated densities from the Raman-measured separation of the Fermi diad using the appropriate calibrated density equations for our instrument in DiadFit<sup>18</sup>. We then calculated pressures using the EOS of ref<sup>20</sup> and an entrapment temperature estimated from the Fo content<sup>10</sup>. We propagated uncertainties in FI depths using MonteCarlo simulations implemented in DiadFit. Entrapment depths in Fig. 2d were calculated using a constant crustal density of 2300 kg/m³ and a normally distributed 1σ error of 100 kg/m³. Error in the CO<sub>2</sub>

density for each FI was determined from the error in each peak fit, the Ne line drift correction model, and the densitimeter <sup>18</sup> used a 40°C error for temperature. In total we analyzed 62 FI hosted in 31 olivine crystals. Our workflow is detailed in Fig. 1. Pictures of each FI and host crystal are available in the supplement (Image Compilation S2).

#### **Epoxy mount making and polishing**

After Raman analysis, crystals were removed from CrystalBond<sup>TM</sup> using a hotplate and placed in Acetone. They were then mounted on double-sided sticky tape with their polished side down. EpoFiresin was used to impregnate the samples in a Cast-N-Vac vacuum pourer. After curing, the epoxy mount was polished using an EcoMet30 automatic polisher, with 9, 3, and 1 um diamond pastes. A reflected light map and image of each crystal was taken using the Raman microscope to aid SEM sample navigation. The location within each FI within the reflected light image was cataloged so the Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) operator knew where to analyze to obtain an approximate Fo content for each FI.

#### **EDS** analysis

Samples were carbon coated to an approximate thickness of 25–30 μm for EDS analysis. Chemical data for each host crystal in the proximity of each FI was determined using a Zeiss EVO MA-10 SEM and a single AMETEK EDAX 10 mm² detector at the University of California, Berkeley. The beam was rastered over a 30-by-30 μm area for ~75–80s (a live time of 60 seconds with ~30% dead time). For all analyses we used an accelerating voltage of 20 kV and a 30 μm aperture, giving an approximate beam current of 5 nA. EDS data reduction was performed using an in-built standardless quantification routine (including a ZAF matrix correction), alongside predetermined "Standardless Element Coefficients" (SECs). The SECs act as correction factors for each element in the standardless quantification routine and have been determined through several years of repeat analyses of

multiple different silicate standard materials and glasses. This method returns an estimate for the relative abundance of each element in the analyzed material and, if a normalization to 100% is assumed, can be used to return semiquantitative chemical analysis of elemental or oxide weight percent values. However, for the purposes of this study we simply focused on the relative abundance of Mg and Fe in the EDS analyses to calculate the Fo content of the olivine host crystals. Furthermore, by calculating the molar Si/(Mg+Fe) ratio of each analysis we were able to provide a stoichiometric check of data quality: we obtained an average Si/(Mg+Fe) ratio of 0.497±0.006 on Kīlauea olivine crystals, close to the ideal value of ~0.5. Precision and accuracy were determined through repeat measurements of the San Carlos and Springwater olivines, which were not used as part of the standard quantification routine. We estimate the precision and accuracy of the method using repeat analyses of secondary standards (5 at start, 5 at end of day), which have Fo contents similar to our samples (see supplementary dataset S1). The Smithsonian-preferred Fo content <sup>21</sup> for the San Carlos secondary standard is 90.2 Fo, and we obtained a mean of 89.84±0.07 Fo units. For Springwater, the preferred value is 82.4 Fo, and we obtained a mean of 82.1±0.2 Fo. We also analyzed a Kīlauea olivine crystal previously measured on the USGS Menlo Park EPMA. The average Fo content obtained at Menlo Park was 87.8±0.1 Fo units, and at the University of California, Berkeley SEM, 88.5±0.1. It should be noted that such offsets also exist between different EPMA labs <sup>5</sup>. Considering these probable differences, we compared data acquired at Stanford University to that obtained at Cambridge University on the olivine crystals of ref<sup>14</sup>. The difference observed amounts to ~0.62 units at ~82 Fo and 0.78 units at 90 Fo<sup>10</sup>.

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#### EPMA analysis of glasses

Major and minor element analysis of glass from a 11 September 2023 lava (sampled molten, water quenched) was done using the U.S. Geological Survey's JEOL 8530F microprobe at the California Volcano Observatory. Analyses used 15 kV accelerating voltage and a 10 µm beam with a 10 nA current. Peak counting times were 45 s for S, Cl, and F, 40 s for Ti, P, and Mn, 20 s for Si, Ca, Fe, Al, and Mg, and 10 s Na and K

(backgrounds were measured on both sides of the peak for half the peak counting times). Standards for glass 219 analyses were VG2 basaltic glass (USNM 111240/52;ref <sup>21</sup>) for Si, Mg, and Al, Kakanui Pyrope Garnet (USNM 220 143968) for Fe, and Al, Wollastonite for Ca, Tiburon Albite for Na, MnO<sub>3</sub> for Mn, TiO<sub>2</sub> for Ti, Orthoclase OR-1A for K, Wilburforce Apatite (USGS-M105731) for P, Barite for S, Sodalite for Cl, and MgF<sub>2</sub> for F. Two-sigma 222 relative precision, based on two analyses of VG-2 glass (before and after lava sample was run), are 0.19 wt% for 223 224 SiO<sub>2</sub>, 0.15 wt% for Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, 0.003 wt% for TiO<sub>2</sub>, 0.27 wt% for FeO, 0.009 wt% for MnO, 0.006 wt% for MgO, 0.04 225 wt% for CaO, 0.11 wt% for Na<sub>2</sub>O, 0.02 for K<sub>2</sub>O, 0.04 for P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, 0.07 for SO<sub>3</sub>, 0.0001 for Cl, and 0.002 for F. X-ray intensities were converted to concentrations using standard ZAF corrections<sup>22</sup>. Analyses with totals <99.0 wt% or 226 >100.5 wt% were rejected. Reported analyses are an average of four replicate points on individual glass fragments. 227

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#### **Identifying and Resolving Bottlenecks**

The yellow stars on Fig. 1 identify current bottlenecks in the process that could be easily improved.

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### Star 1 - Shipping and receiving samples

Distributing samples to the University of California, Berkeley was not a top priority for HVO because this simulation was being attempted for the first time, and as a result, there was no guarantee of obtaining magma storage depths in a timely manner. Samples were shipped from Hilo on a Friday at ~5 pm HST. HVO was asked to ship samples to a private residence under the assumption that they might arrive over the weekend. However, no packages leave Hilo after 4pm on Friday over the weekend, so the samples started their transit to California on Monday. Had the package been taken to the courier's office on Friday morning, it would likely have arrived on Sunday. The tracking information indicated arrival on Wednesday, which is when we planned to start the simulation. However, the samples arrived at the private residence on Tuesday morning during working hours, without notification that the package had been delivered (and no one was home).

We have demonstrated that this technique adds valuable quantitative depth information that expands on HVO's routine near-real-time chemical monitoring with bulk rock ED-XRF¹. Under ideal circumstances, HVO geologists would sample tephra or molten lava from the eruption on Day 1 (morning) and dry the samples in the lab on Day 1 (afternoon), dropping the samples for shipment on the evening of Day 1, which would go out early on Day 2 (as long as the drop off did not occur Friday afternoon or over the weekend). Same-day shipping from Hawaii to Califonia is not realistic, but samples shipping Monday through Thursday mornings would allow for arrival on Day 3. Additionally, it would be possible to get samples to the University of California, Berkeley within 24 hours if someone in Hawai'i were to take a flight to San Fransisco or Oakland airport with the samples, or within ~30 hours if someone based in the University of California, Berkeley flew to Hawai'i, picked up the samples, and returned home immediately.

We note that this bottleneck can be avoided entirely if observatories rely on local research expertise (for example, in collaboration with local academic research groups) and/or establish in-house workflows for this type of work. In such a case, next-day information could readily be obtained. As this is not an option for HVO, the Hawaii-California connection will serve as the fastest way to conduct this rapid-response barometry.

#### Star 2 – Sample cataloging

The WITEC Raman microscope used in this study does not have a condenser in its optical path, which can make it very hard to navigate and find FIs, particularly in volcanic crystals that are commonly coated in glass. The first 7–10 crystals were analyzed immediately after preparation, so navigation took some time. After AB had finished crushing, sieving, and picking, he began taking photos on a research-grade scope to help the Raman operator find the FIs they were supposed to be analyzing. Late on Day 2, when students were not available, Wieser began photographing crystals holding her phone to the eyepiece of the teaching-collection reflected light and transmitted light microscopes. This provided enough textural context to easily find FIs on the Raman (Fig. S1 and

S2). The main advantage of using smartphones is that the person who found each FI could identify it, rather than passing it off to another person who then must work out where the FI is before photographing it. This would greatly reduce the number of people involved, as we almost always had one person taking photos.

#### Star 3 – Epoxy impregnation

We used EpoFix<sup>TM</sup> epoxy, which is what was available in our lab (chosen because it gives low backgrounds during SIMS analysis). After pouring the epoxy at ~7 pm, it was removed from its mount at ~9 am the next morning. The epoxy was still noticeably soft (to the extent it cracked coming out of the mold). This meant that we could not start polishing immediately. Instead, we had to wait a further ~5 hours for it to cure sufficiently to polish. If fast-curing epoxies were available, it is very possible that a team member could have stayed, and polished and cataloged the sample overnight, allowing SEM analysis on Friday (Day 3) rather than Saturday.

### **Author contributions**

Author contributions for lab work are shown on Fig. 1. CD and PW wrote the paper. CD, PW, AR, BR, and AB prepared tephra, picked olivine, found FIs, catalogued them, mounted them, and Raman-ed them. CD and PW performed all spectral fitting, data processing, and figure making, with schematic illustrations shown in Fig. 1 from AB. JG developed the Mg/Fe calibration for the EDS detector and MG performed EDS analyses with help from JG. KJL, DTD, NID and KMM collected samples, processed them in Hilo, and provided eruption context. KJL and DD prepared the glass mount and did the EMPA analyses.

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# 290 **ata availability**

- All data are made available with the publication. All data and Jupyter notebooks are also stored on Github
- 292 (https://github.com/cljdevitre/2023 Kilauea-rapid-response-simulation). The Github repository will be archived on
- 293 Zenodo upon acceptance.

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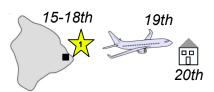




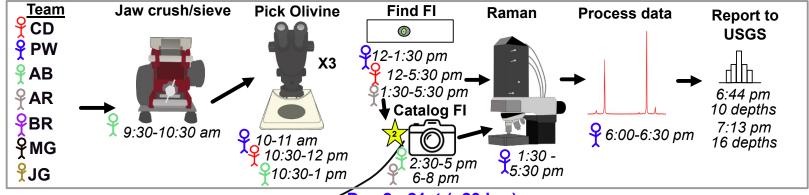
Sample collected 12th Sept



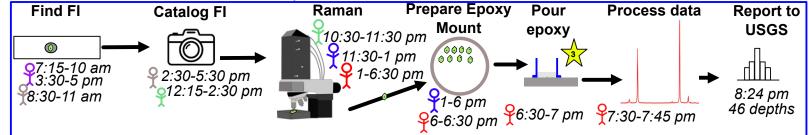
Sample taken to Hilo (15th Sept)



Day 1 - 20th (~26.5 hrs)



Day 2 - 21st (~23 hrs)



Day 3 - 22nd (~9hrs)

Raman Polish mount Catalog mount for SEM

9 10-2 pm

9 3-4 pm

9 4-5 pm

9 5-7:30 pm

## Day 4-23rd (10.5 hrs analysis, 14 hrs report)

