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Depths in a day - A new era of rapid-response Raman-based barometry using fluid inclusions

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

- 2 barometry using fluid inclusions.
- 3 Running title: Depths in a day a new era of rapid response barometry
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Abstract

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Rapid-response petrological monitoring is a major advance for volcano
observatories to build and validate models of the plumbing systems that supply eruptions
in near-real-time. 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 not previously been achieved by petrological methods.

- 23 Keywords: Fluid Inclusions; Geobarometry; Raman Spectroscopy; Rapid Response;
- 24 Volcano Monitoring

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Main Text

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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 haking during volcanic crises (Gansecki et al., 2019; Re et al., 2021; Pankhurst et al., 2022). Most work so far has focused on the chemistry of erupted lavas and crystal cargoes (Pankhurst et al., 2022) to gain insight into changing melt composition and rheological properties (e.g., Gansecki et al., 2019). However, up until now, petrological monitoring has been unable to address the high-priority question— 'Where is the magma coming from?' (Re et al., 2021). 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 (Wieser et al., 2023b), 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 (Re et al., 2021). While mineral barometry could be implemented faster (only requiring electron probe microanalysis (EPMA) measurements on eruptive minerals), it is imprecise (Wieser et al., 2023a), 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

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km is needed to distinguish between storage reservoirs (Baker and Amelung, 2012; Anderson and Poland, 2016).

Recent developments have shown that Raman-based barometry of CO₂-rich fluid inclusions (FI) provides an alternative to popular petrological barometers, with much smaller uncertainties than mineral barometry, and requiring far less time and resources than MI analyses (Dayton *et al.*, 2023; DeVitre and Wieser, 2023). This method uses spectral features of CO₂ fluids to calculate a CO₂ density using an instrument specific calibration (DeVitre *et al.*, 2021). Ong with an estimate of entrapment temperature, this density is converted into an entrapment pressure using a CO₂ Equation of State (EOS). Pressures are converted to depths through an estimate of crustal density. However, there has previously been no rigorous assessment of 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 (DeVitre and Wieser, 2023). Tephra samples representing the first ~14 hours of the September 2023 eruption were collected by Hawaiian Volcano Observatory (HVO) geologists on September 12 and mailed to UC Berkeley on September 15th (Fig. 1).

Our simulation started on September 20 at 9 am PST (Day 1), the morning after sample receipt (Fig. 1). We used a production-line style workflow involving two undergraduates, a 1st year graduate student, a post-doc, and an assistant professor, with

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stations for crushing and sieving, mineral picking, FI preparation, sample cataloguing, and analysis. The first steps were to crush and sieve tephra, pick olivine crystals (size fractions 0.5-1 and 1-2 mm) crystals, and begin mounting crystals in CrystalBond^{TM*} 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 processed the spectra from 16 FI to get CO₂ densities using a calibration ruling CO₂ density to Fermi sepa on (DeVitre and Wieser (2023), DeVitre et al. 2021). CO₂ densities were converted into pressures using the EOS of pan and Wagner, 1996), assuming an entrapment temperature 1150 °C. Pressures were converted into depths using the crustal density model of Ryan, (1987) parameterized by Lerner et al. (2021). We shared the resulting histogram (Fig 2a) of storage depths with HVO collaborators showing that crystals, and thus magma, were likely coming from the shallower Halema'uma'u reservoir of Kīlauea (HMM on Fig. 2a-b). It worthwhile to note that the number of FI reported on Day 2 is comparable to many melt inclusion studies. which often aim for ~20 MI per sample but frequently report fewer (e.g., Lerner et al., 2021) reported 14 MI with sufficient data – that is MI glass total volatile contents and major element compositions - to produce saturation pressures for the LERZ eruption of 2018). We also had an additional ~20 FI fully prepared and catalogued for analysis by the end of Day 1. On Day 2, these 20 FI were analysed, while supplementary FI 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 CrystalBondTM and placed on tape to make an epoxy mount. Epoxy 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 and depths, confirming the

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dominant contribution 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 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 interpret the plumbing system (Fig. 2d). The Fo content of an olivine is a function of MgO and FeO in the liquid and the Ol-Liq partitioning coefficient (K_D). Thus, the Fo contents of the host olivine close to each FI can be used to assess the calculated storage depth in its broader petrographic context (e.g., distinguishing high-Fo olivines which crystallize from more primitive melts from low Fo olivines forming in more evolved melts). This olivine forsterite content can also be used to estimate the likely entrapment temperature of each fluid inclusion (see DeVitre and Wieser, 2023) for performing EOS calculations, rather than having to use a uniform temperature as on Day 1-2.

Our results clearly show that the majority of FI were entrapped at ~1–2 km below the surface (Fig. 2d), which aligns well with the depths of the Halema'uma'u reservoir interpreted from geophysics (Baker and Amelung, 2012; Anderson and Poland, 2016; Anderson *et al.*, 2019), MI barometry (Lerner *et al.*, 2021; Wieser *et al.*, 2021), and FI barometry (DeVitre and Wieser, 2023). 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. 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

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reservoir since 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 (Helz et al., 2014; Pietruszka et al., 2015, 2018;
Wieser et al., 2019). 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 then
transported into the Halema'uma'u reservoir, where the id inclusions re-equilibrated to
lower pressures prior to eruption over shorter timescales than would be required to reset
the host Fo content.
2) High-MgO melts were injected into the Halema'uma'u reservoir, where high-Fo olivine
crystallized and trapped FI at shallow depths.
3) Complex skeletal growth of olivine crystals during extensive undercooling (e.g.,
(Welsch et al., 2013) could mean that high-Fo olivine cores, which initially grew in the SC
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 (DeVitre and Wieser, 2023; Mourey et al., 2023), and our models
of FI re-equilibration indicate <10% change in pressure over this time 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 at Halema'uma'u reservoir depths prior to eruption, and thus this was
the most probable reservoir supplying magma to the surface in the Sept 2023 eruption.

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This simulation shows that Raman-based FI barometry has significant potential for rapid-response petrological monitoring globally. It could be applied to any CO₂-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 Supplementary Information S1 Appendix).

This simulation also enabled us to identify several 'bottlenecks' in this rapidresponse workflow (yellow stars, Fig, 1, see Supplementary Information S1 Appendix for further details) so that we could determine depths even faster during future eruptions:

- 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).
 Faster curing epoxies can be used to eliminate this delay.
- 3) We spent significant time cataloguing samples on a research-grade microscope to help navigate on the Raman microscope, 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 relevant

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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(Gansecki *et al.*, 2019). 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.

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 conducted Raman analyses. 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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Data availability

All data are made available in the Supplementary Information associated with the publication. We include detailed materials and methods (S1 Appendix), complete processed Dataset (S2 Dataset), a compilation of microphotographs of the FI and crystals (S3 FI Image Compilation) and a record of emails and tracking receipts related to the samples, data sharing and manuscript submission (S4 Email and tracking record). All raw data and Jupyter notebooks also Github are stored on (https://github.com/cljdevitre/2023 Kilauea-rapid-response-simulation). The Github repository will be archived on Zenodo upon acceptance.

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Figure captions

making for the following day.

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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 and all reports were sent to HVO prior to 5:30 pm Hawaii Standard Time (HST), thus allowing for decision

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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 depths consistent with the Halema'uma'u reservoir. Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests show that September 2023 FI are recording depths significantly shallower than those recorded 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. ¹ Melt inclusion data for the 2018 LERZ eruption is from Wieser et al., (2021); ² Fluid inclusion data for the 2018 LERZ eruption is from DeVitre and Wieser, (2023) c) By the end of Day 2, depths from 46 FI were sent to HVO, confirming a dominant role of the Halema'uma'u reservoir. On Day 2 we applied a conservative degassing filter (SO₂ 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. Error bars correspond to uncertainties propagated using Monte Carlo simulations (see Supplementary Information S1 Appendix)

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Olivine Fo equilibrium field is calculated based on Glass EPMA data collected on September 11,
2023 (see Supplementary Information S1 Appendix). We note here that initial data for Days 1
and 2 did not filter out repeated analyses (1 repeated FI in Day 1 and 6 in Day 2), pressures were
calculated using an estimated entrapment temperature of 1150°C (Wieser et al., 2021; DeVitre and
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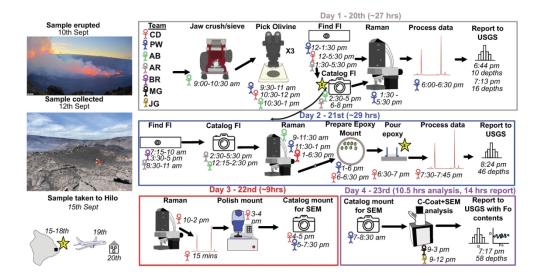


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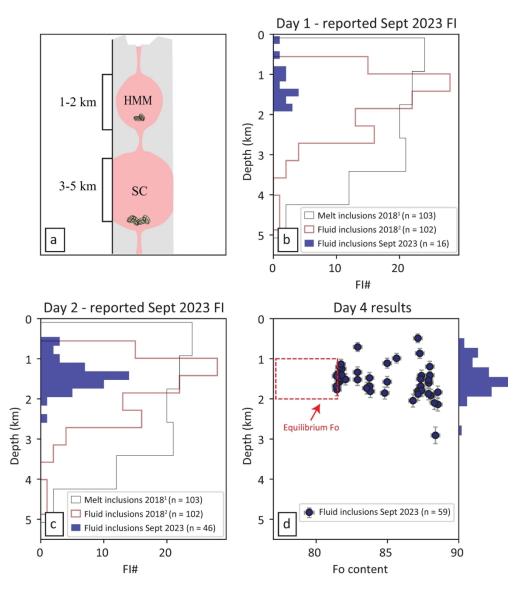


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