



Suckale, J., Keller, T., Cashman, K. V., & Persson, P. O. (2016). Flow-to-fracture transition in a volcanic mush plug may govern normal eruptions at Stromboli. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 43(23), 12,071-12,081. DOI: 10.1002/2016GL071501

Peer reviewed version

Link to published version (if available):
[10.1002/2016GL071501](https://doi.org/10.1002/2016GL071501)

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1 **Flow-to-fracture transition in a volcanic mush plug may govern normal eruptions at**
2 **Stromboli**

3 **J. Suckale¹, T Keller¹, K V Cashman^{2,3}, P-O Persson⁴**

4 ¹Department of Geophysics, Stanford University, 397 Panama Mall, Stanford, CA-94305, USA.

5 ²School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, Wills Memorial Building, Queen's Road,
6 Bristol BS8 1RJ, UK.

7 ³Department of Geological Sciences, University of Oregon, 1272 University of Oregon, Eugene,
8 OR-97403, USA

9 ⁴Department of Mathematics, University of California, Berkeley, 970 Evans Hall, Berkeley, CA-
10 94720, USA.

11 Corresponding author: Jenny Suckale (jsuckale@stanford.edu)

12 **Key Points:**

- 13 • Rheological transition in crystalline magma creates a porous mush plug beneath
14 Strombolian crater terrace.
- 15 • Localized gas segregation may give rise to hot conduits of high gas flux and mobile
16 magma through the volcanic plug.
- 17 • Strombolian eruptions may be result of a flow-to-fracture transition in the mush plug
18 induced by crustal stresses and gas over-pressure.

19

20 **Abstract**

21 Stromboli is a model volcano for studying eruptions driven by degassing. The current paradigm
22 posits that Strombolian eruptions represent the bursting of gas slugs ascending through melt-
23 filled conduits, but petrological observations show that magma at shallow depth is crystalline
24 enough to form a three-phase plug consisting of crystals, bubbles and melt. We combine a 1D
25 model of gas flushing a crystalline mush with a 3D stress model. Our results suggest that
26 localized gas segregation establishes hot conduits of mobile magma within a stagnant plug. The
27 plug is prone to tensile failure controlled by gas over-pressure and tectonic stress, with failure
28 most likely beneath the observed vent locations. We hence argue that Strombolian eruptions are
29 related to plug failure rather than flow. Our proposed three-phase model of the shallow plumbing
30 system may provide a promising framework for integrating geophysical, petrological and
31 morphological observations at Stromboli, and in open-system volcanism more generally.

32

33

34 **1. Introduction**

35 Stromboli volcano in Italy is best known for its episodic “normal” activity, defined as discrete
36 explosive bursts that last tens of seconds and eject pyroclasts to a height of 100-200 m [*Barberi*
37 *et al.*, 1993]. Normal explosions are driven by gas, as evidenced by the high proportion of
38 erupted gas relative to magma [*Allard et al.*, 1994], and the observation that high gas fluxes are
39 associated with more frequent and more vigorous eruptions than low gas fluxes [*Colò et al.*,
40 2010; *Taddeucci et al.*, 2013]. The leading paradigm [*Blackburn et al.*, 1976] posits that normal
41 eruptions at Stromboli and other volcanoes (e.g. [*Vergnolle and Mangan*, 2000]) represent the
42 buoyant ascent and burst of a large conduit-filling gas bubble, commonly referred to as a slug,
43 through a pipe-shaped conduit filled with magma (Fig. 1A). The goal of this paper is to
44 generalize this view of normal eruptions as a two-phase process involving gas and melt to a
45 three-phase framework by integrating the role of crystals. In addition to considering viscous
46 flow, we evaluate the effects a more complex magma rheology including the possibility of
47 magma failure (Fig. 1B).

48 Idealized laboratory experiments of three-phase aggregates show that adding solid
49 particles to a viscous liquid creates a wide spectrum of multi-phase interactions. These depend
50 on the relative importance of liquid viscosity, gas compressibility, and inter-particle friction,
51 [*Knudsen et al.*, 2008; *Sandnes et al.*, 2011]. An increasing solid fraction causes the rheology of
52 the mixture to stiffen, leading to behavior similar to gas percolating through a porous solid
53 [*Chevalier et al.*, 2008, 2009]. As the aggregate strength increases it may undergo a flow-to-
54 fracture transition [*Shin and Santamarina*, 2010; *Varas et al.*, 2010, 2013; *Holtzman et al.*, 2012;
55 *Islam et al.*, 2013]. This causes a significant increase in the efficiency of gas and/or liquid
56 segregation, highlighting its potential importance for understanding volcanic eruptions.

57 Here, we propose that highly crystalline magma in the shallow Strombolian plumbing
58 system behaves as a type of volcanic plug. It differs from plugs proposed for more silicic
59 volcanic systems [Marsh, 2000] in that it is porous enough to allow continuous degassing. Thus,
60 over-pressure build-up beneath the plug does not typically exceed the threshold for catastrophic
61 failure. Paroxysmal eruptions are the exception to this rule, but our focus here is on
62 understanding normal Strombolian activity. We propose a model where localized gas segregation
63 through a stagnant mush plug gives rise to hot pathways filled with mobile magma. These
64 dynamically established conduits accommodate the majority of gas flux through the system. Gas
65 pore pressure in combination with edifice-scale stress distribution can lead to magma failure at
66 the head of some degassing pulses, which thus accelerate to form normal eruptions.

67

68 **2. Observational constraints from petrology, geophysics and morphology**

69 Petrological data gives the clearest evidence for the presence of a mush plug in the Strombolian
70 plumbing system. The uppermost few hundred meters are composed of highly porphyritic (HP),
71 water-poor (<0.5 wt%) magma with 45-60 vol% phenocrysts and micro-phenocrysts that is
72 erupted as scoria during normal activity [Métrich *et al.*, 2001; Francalanci *et al.*, 2004, 2005].
73 Low-porphyritic (LP), water-rich (>2.5 wt%) magma with <10 vol.% phenocrysts originates
74 much deeper (~3 km) and is ejected as pumice only during major eruptions, alongside scoria
75 bearing the characteristics of HP magma [Métrich *et al.*, 2001; Bertagnini *et al.*, 2003;
76 Francalanci *et al.*, 2004, 2005]. Experimental data [Conte *et al.*, 2006; Agostini *et al.*, 2013]
77 point to rapid crystallization of plagioclase around 10 MPa, or 400-600 m depth depending on
78 density. The rapid increase in crystallinity should translate into a rheological transition from a

79 mobile viscous liquid to a stagnant plug [*Arzi, 1978; van der Molen and Paterson, 1979; Renner*
80 *et al., 2000a; Gurioli et al., 2014*].

81 Geomorphological and geophysical data offer a variety of constraints in addition to
82 petrology. The eruptive center at Stromboli consists of three distinct features: the crater terrace,
83 the craters and the vents (Fig. 1B). The crater terrace is an approximately elliptical area near the
84 summit of the volcano measuring about 280 m by 150 m. It is composed of three main craters
85 that are tens of meters in size, located in the North-East (NE), central, and South-West (SW)
86 portion of the crater terrace. This three-crater geometry can be traced back to at least 1776
87 [*Washington, 1917*] and appears to be surprisingly stable; for example, it was re-established only
88 months after the crater terrace collapsed during the effusive eruption in 2002-2003 [*Calvari et*
89 *al., 2005; Ripepe et al., 2005b*]. The craters typically contain several vents, each a few meters
90 across, which may accommodate both continuous gas “puffing” as well as magma ejection
91 during normal eruptions. Both the location and number of active vents within the craters vary
92 over time scales of months [*Harris et al., 1996; Harris and Ripepe, 2007a*].

93 Geophysical data suggest that surface vents are linked to a common gas source a few
94 hundred meters below the craters [*Kirchdörfer, 1999; Wielandt and Forbriger, 1999; Genco and*
95 *Ripepe, 2010*]. This is evidenced by correlations in the number of eruptions at different vents
96 [*Settle and McGetchin, 1980*], thermal mapping of the crater terrace [*Harris et al., 1996*], and
97 coupled thermal oscillations at different craters [*Ripepe et al., 2005a*]. Self-potential surveys and
98 tracking of gas anomalies further point towards convective cells consisting of gas and dense
99 magmatic liquid beneath the entire crater terrace [*Ballestracci, 1982; Finizola et al., 2003*].
100 These data suggest that a convective reservoir underlies a plug of HP magma mush that extends
101 beneath the entire crater terrace (Fig. 1B). This interpretation is consistent with depressurization

102 cycles in the upper 300-800 m inferred from seismic and strain-meter data [*De Martino et al.*,
 103 2012], and with temporal variations in the amplitude of high-frequency gravity [*Carbone et al.*,
 104 2012]. The petrology, morphology and geophysics of Stromboli are all consistent with the
 105 existence of a shallow porous plug containing dynamically emerging volcanic conduits located
 106 beneath the crater terrace.

107

108 **3. Volcanic plug model**

109 Degassing and crystallization from pressure-dependent dehydration likely govern the properties
 110 of the upper plumbing system [*Landi et al.*, 2004; *Métrich et al.*, 2009]. As hydrated magma
 111 ascends it becomes saturated in water and re-equilibrates by exsolving water into a vapor phase
 112 while crystallizing plagioclase. To characterize the properties of the hypothesized volcanic plug
 113 at Stromboli, we construct a one-dimensional, steady-state model of dehydration, crystallization
 114 and gas segregation through a three-phase magma mush. The model represents the top 1 km of
 115 the Strombolian plumbing system. Our setup implies that the deeper magma processing system
 116 provides a steady flux of well-mixed magma with approximately constant temperature, water
 117 content, and crystallinity into this shallow part of the plumbing system.

118 Phase proportions in the model are functions of pressure, temperature and water content
 119 similar to *La Spina et al.* [2015]. We define volume fractions ϕ_x for silicate crystals (solid
 120 phase), ϕ_m for silicate melt (liquid phase), and ϕ_v for water vapor (gas phase). We define the gas
 121 fraction as proportional to the difference between the melt water content supplied at depth
 122 $D = 1$ km, $X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^0$, and the pressure-dependent saturated water content of the melt, $X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{sat}}(P)$:

$$123 \quad \phi_v = \phi_v^0 + (\phi_v^{\text{max}} - \phi_v^0) \left(\frac{X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{sat}}(P) - X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^0}{X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{atm}} - X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^0} \right). \quad (1)$$

124 The two parameters controlling the vesicularity profile are hence the gas fraction of magma at
 125 depth, ϕ_v^0 , and the maximum vesicularity reached at the surface of the model column, ϕ_v^{\max} . The
 126 saturation profile with pressure is a 4th order polynomial fit to the calculated values in *Cigolini et*
 127 *al.*, [2015], Table A4. The melt fraction, ϕ_m , is a function of the homologous temperature [e.g.,
 128 *Katz*, 2003]:

$$129 \quad \phi_m = (1 - \phi_v) \left(\frac{T - T_{\text{sol}}}{T_{\text{liq}} - T_{\text{sol}}} \right)^{1.75}, \quad (2)$$

130 where the first factor compensates for the independently set vesicularity, and the solidus (T_{sol})
 131 and liquidus (T_{liq}) temperatures are decreasing functions of $X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{sat}}(P)$:

$$132 \quad T_{\text{sol}} = T_{\text{sol}}^0 - \Delta T_{\text{sol}} \times X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{sat}}(P), \quad (3a)$$

$$133 \quad T_{\text{liq}} = T_{\text{liq}}^0 - \Delta T_{\text{liq}} \times X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{sat}}(P). \quad (3b)$$

134 The dry solidus and liquidus at ambient conditions are $T_{\text{sol}}^0 = 900^\circ\text{C}$, and $T_{\text{liq}}^0 = 1250^\circ\text{C}$. The
 135 water-dependent factors $\Delta T_{\text{sol}} = 200^\circ\text{C}/\text{wt}\%$, and $\Delta T_{\text{liq}} = 100^\circ\text{C}/\text{wt}\%$ are somewhat
 136 exaggerated to emphasize the effect of dehydration. Finally, we infer the crystallinity from

$$137 \quad \phi_x = 1 - \phi_m - \phi_v. \quad (4)$$

138 The pressure P is lithostatic and computed based on the aggregate density $\bar{\rho} = \sum \phi_i \rho_i$,
 139 which depends on phase densities, ρ_i , and their relative fractions. We set the melt density to
 140 2700 kg m^{-3} . The solid density depends on the crystallizing mineral phases, which we set to
 141 3300 kg m^{-3} for the initial crystal content at depth (plagioclase, clinopyroxene and olivine), and
 142 2700 kg m^{-3} for the crystal content added during dehydration (mostly plagioclase). The density
 143 of the vapor phase is that of an ideal gas and hence depends on pressure.

144 We approximate the rheological transition occurring between a melt-supported and a
 145 crystal-supported aggregate with a hyperbolic tangent function in logarithmic space fixed at a

146 critical crystallinity, $\phi_x^{\text{crit}} = 0.5$, motivated by [Renner *et al.*, 2000b; Caricchi *et al.*, 2007;
 147 Pistone *et al.*, 2013]. The mush viscosity also depends on temperature according to an Arrhenius
 148 law, and on water content in the melt $X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{sat}}$ as a log-linear variation [e.g., Cigolini *et al.*, 2008]
 149 (see SI for details).

150 We assume buoyancy-driven Darcy flow through a static porous matrix to estimate the
 151 vertical percolation speed of gas, u :

$$152 \quad u = \frac{k}{\phi_v \mu} (\bar{\rho} - \rho_v) g, \quad (5)$$

153 where the permeability of Strombolian lava follows a 5th order power-law of the vesicularity,
 154 $k = 6 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^2 \phi_v^5$, as estimated specifically for Strombolian lava [Bai *et al.*, 2010]. The gas
 155 viscosity is constant at $\mu = 5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ Pa s}$. The flow of gas through the magma mush provides
 156 advective heat transport, which competes with conductive heat loss towards the cool surface of
 157 the volcano. Assuming thermal equilibrium between phases the conservation of energy is

$$158 \quad \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \frac{\phi_v \rho_v}{\bar{\rho}} \mathbf{u} \cdot \frac{\partial T}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = \kappa \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} + \frac{4\kappa}{D^2} (T_c - T). \quad (6)$$

159 The second term on the right hand side is the simplified contribution of lateral heat loss towards
 160 the cooler edifice surrounding the mush column, with T_c the crustal geotherm, z the depth
 161 coordinate, and $D = 1 \text{ km}$. The thermal conductivity is constant at $\kappa = 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2$. We solve for
 162 the phase fractions, the mush density and viscosity, and, u and T by a standard fixed-point
 163 iterative scheme, resolving non-linearities to a relative tolerance of 10^{-9} (see SI for details and
 164 code access).

165 Darcy flow through a viscous matrix has an inherent physical length scale δ , known as
 166 the compaction length [McKenzie, 1984], over which an interconnected pore space may be
 167 established. In the case of gas percolating through a magmatic mush matrix, δ depends on the
 168 viscosity of the magma and the vapor, as well as the permeability and vesicularity of the mush:

$$\delta = \sqrt{\frac{\eta k(\phi_v)}{\phi_v \mu}}. \quad (8)$$

169 This scale may vary significantly (~ 0.1 – 100 m) within a volcanic mush. Scaling analysis further
 170 states that the percolating phase (i.e., the water vapor) builds up a characteristic pressure
 171 difference ΔP to the matrix (i.e., the crystalline mush) at the head of each interconnected pulse:
 172

$$\Delta P = P_v - P_{\text{mush}} \sim \Delta \rho g \delta, \quad (7)$$

173 with P_{mush} the pressure in the mush, and $\Delta \rho = \rho_{\text{mush}} - \rho_v$ the density difference between mush
 174 and vapor.
 175

176 Griffith theory of failure by tensile micro-cracking suggests that the limited tensile
 177 strength, T_0 , of the magma mush imposes an upper limit on this pressure difference. If that
 178 failure criterion is reached, the magma fractures locally at the head of the gas pulse. This process
 179 can significantly accelerate gas ascent and lead to an eruption. The failure criterion is

$$\tau^2 = 4T_0 (P_{\text{eff}} + T_0) \quad (9)$$

180 where $\tau = \sqrt{2 \sigma_{II}}$ represents the shear stress magnitude computed from the second invariant of
 181 the deviatoric stress tensor, σ_{II} , and the effective pressure P_{eff} [Skempton, 1960] is defined as the
 182 difference between the mean normal stress or pressure in the three-phase mixture, \bar{P} , and the
 183 pore pressure, P_v , which relates it to the pressure difference ΔP as
 184

$$P_{\text{eff}} = \bar{P} - P_v = -(1 - \phi_v) \Delta P. \quad (10)$$

185 To quantitatively assess whether tensile failure of the magmatic mush is likely to occur at
 186 Stromboli, we complement the 1D mush column model with a 3D mechanical model. We
 187 assume that the plug is approximately homogeneous (see SI) and characterized by a finite yield
 188 strength, as suggested by both infrasonic measurements [Ripepe *et al.*, 2007] and rheological
 189 experiments [Gurioli *et al.*, 2014]. Yield strength in three-phase mushes arises from jamming,
 190 which results from the presence of force chains between closely packed particles [Liu and Nagel,
 191

192 2010; *Majmudar and Behringer, 2005*]. Yielding occurs as grain-grain contacts become
 193 mobilized, but contrary to brittle failure in competent rocks, yielding merely leads to short-term
 194 fluctuations around a relatively constant finite stress governed by external forcing instead of
 195 relieving the accumulated potential energy entirely [*Tordesillas, 2007*]. To estimate the time-
 196 averaged state of stress inside the plug from topography, tectonics and material differences, we
 197 model the plug as a weak body embedded in an elastic edifice,

$$198 \quad \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma}(\mathbf{x}) + \bar{\rho}(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{g} = 0, \quad (11)$$

199 where $\boldsymbol{\sigma}(\mathbf{x})$ is the stress tensor, $\bar{\rho}(\mathbf{x})$ the bulk density, \mathbf{g} the gravity vector, and \mathbf{x} the coordinate
 200 vector. We solve for the stress in the plug using a standard finite element method [*Peraire and*
 201 *Persson, 2011*] and assume that the main direction of extension strikes SE–NW as evidenced by
 202 normal faults in the proximity of Stromboli trending SW–NE [*Tibaldi et al., 2003; Montone et*
 203 *al., 2012*]. We assume that the shear modulus of the plug is one to two orders of magnitude
 204 smaller than the edifice rock and can hence only sustain stresses of similar magnitude as the
 205 yield strength.

206

207 **4. Results**

208 Non-explosive degassing is the dominant mode of gas extraction at Stromboli [*Allard et al.,*
 209 *1994*], implying that the upper plumbing system is continually flushed by hot gas. The
 210 percolating gas is likely subject to several localization instabilities [e.g., *Saffman and Taylor,*
 211 *1958; Stevenson, 1989; Aharonov et al., 1995; Spiegelman et al., 2001; Keller and Katz, 2016*],
 212 which are amplified by the pronounced power-law relationship between permeability and gas
 213 content at Stromboli [*Bai et al., 2010*], the strong dependence of the melt water saturation point
 214 on pressure, and the expansion of gas under decompression.

215 Mechanically, degassing weakens the magmatic mush if percolating gas bubbles act as
 216 Griffith flaws that help to facilitate tensile failure [e.g., *Oppenheimer et al., 2015*]. Thermally, a
 217 sufficient gas percolation speed maintains a high temperature along degassing pathways. To
 218 quantify the relative importance of heat transport to diffusion, we estimate the Péclet number,

$$219 \quad \text{Pe} = \frac{H \bar{u}}{\kappa}, \quad (12)$$

220 where H is the height of the plug and \bar{u} the average gas segregation speed. Since the diffusivity
 221 of porous magma is small, $\kappa \approx 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$, and the gas percolation speed potentially large,
 222 $\bar{u} = 10^{-5} - 10^{-3} \text{ m/s}$, the Péclet number is large, $\text{Pe} \approx 10^3 - 10^5$. The temperature distribution
 223 in the plug is thus dominated by the heat transport from degassing and also localized.

224 In Figure 2, we show four calculations of our mush column model with different
 225 maximum vesicularity at the surface (10, 15, 22, and 30%). These values are somewhat lower
 226 than observed in ejected lavas, because the eruptive process amplifies vesicularity. The
 227 pronounced power-law relationship between permeability and vesicularity [*Bai et al., 2010*]
 228 leads to a rapid increase in gas segregation. As a consequence, high permeability and high gas
 229 flux create a hot mush profile with intermediate crystallinity, low density and low viscosity. In
 230 contrast, low permeability results in comparatively cool temperatures, high crystallinity and high
 231 density and viscosity. The emerging picture is one of hot, permeable pathways of mobile magma
 232 embedded in a less permeable plug of relatively stagnant crystalline mush.

233 To quantify the rheological transition between mobile and stagnant magma we use the
 234 critical Rayleigh number for thermally driven and gas-buoyancy driven convection in a mush
 235 body of the dimensions of the hypothesized Strombolian plug ($L = 100 \text{ m}$). These Rayleigh
 236 numbers quantify the competition between buoyancy forces driving flow, and viscous resistance
 237 and thermal diffusion that both dampen flow:

$$Ra_T = \frac{\alpha \rho_c \Delta T L^3}{\eta_c \kappa}, \quad Ra_G = \frac{\phi_c \Delta \rho L^3}{\eta_c \kappa}, \quad (13)$$

238
 239 with α the thermal expansivity, ρ_c , ϕ_c , and η_c the characteristic density, vesicularity and
 240 viscosity of the mush, ΔT the temperature difference between the magma and the surface, and $\Delta \rho$
 241 the density contrast between gas and the magma mush. Fig. 3A shows viscosity as a function of
 242 crystal fraction and temperature (at $X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{sat}} = 0.5$ wt%). We mark the rheological transition
 243 between the mobile and stagnant regimes at a critical Rayleigh number of ~ 1000 (see Fig. 3),
 244 which is where small perturbations begin to grow into convective motion [e.g., *Turcotte and*
 245 *Schubert*, 2014]. A temperature-dependent crystallization path taken from a 1D mush model
 246 (Fig. 2, $\phi_v^{\text{max}} = 30\%$) indicates that magma along that evolution path remains mobile ($>10^{12}$ Pa
 247 s) while crystal fraction remains below $\sim 55\%$ and above temperatures ~ 1060 °C, consistent with
 248 observations of erupted HP lavas.

249 The 1D mush model does not consider the effect of stresses inside the plug and the
 250 deformational behavior they create. The stresses inside the hypothesized plug result from
 251 topography, gravity, tectonics, and from gas over-pressure related to gas segregation. To estimate
 252 the stress distribution inside the plug prior to failure, we consider a range of tensile strengths for
 253 the plug of 0.5–5 MPa, which is significantly weaker than solid rock (~ 15 MPa). Our mechanical
 254 model shows that stresses in the plug contribute to its propensity to tensile failure (Fig. 4B),
 255 because they imply a finite shear stress. Figures 4C-D compare the likelihood of failure in the
 256 presence (C) and absence (D) of the regional tectonic stress field. Without the tectonic stress
 257 field, failure would be most likely along the southern edge of the crater terrace, just underneath
 258 the volcanic summit, the Pizzo sopra la Fossa. When accounting for the extensional stress field,
 259 the locus of maximum shear stress magnitude shifts towards the NE and SW segments of the

260 ellipse, directly underneath the craters where most normal eruptions are observed (see SI for
261 robustness tests).

262

263 **5. Discussion**

264 ***5.1. Localization of gas flux governs plug behavior***

265 Our 1D mush model shows that continuous degassing through the hypothesized
266 Strombolian plug is likely accommodated through numerous, localized bubble pathways. The
267 gas-heated channels provide conduits for fast, localized degassing, whereas gas percolation
268 occurs at much slower rates in the remaining mush body. The spacing of these channels depends
269 primarily on the compaction length in the mush, which is itself variable but likely on the order of
270 tens of meters. We suggest that passive degassing distributed across the crater terrace represents
271 Darcy flux of gas through the cooler, stagnant portion of the mush plug. Puffing from eruptive
272 vents and fumaroles may instead be related to comparatively fast, localized degassing along hot
273 conduits, which is consistent with puffing being concentrated at the central vent where
274 temperatures are highest [*Landi et al.*, 2011].

275 Localization of gas flux is consequential not only for temperature and gas flux, but also
276 for the mechanical behavior of the plug. More specifically, our analysis shows that the magma in
277 gas-heated channels could be eruptible, while magma in the cold portions of the mush plug is
278 less mobile. According to our model, the eruption temperature of samples is hence more
279 indicative of the magnitude of gas flux required to keep magma mobile than of the depth from
280 which magma is erupted (see Fig. 2E–F). HP magma is derived from some range of pressures
281 [*Taddeucci et al.*, 2012b] but only a narrow range of temperatures – at most $T = 1100$ –
282 1180°C [*Landi et al.*, 2011]. We interpret the small variability in eruption temperatures as

283 evidence that HP magmas may originate at various depths within gas-flushed conduits with near
284 isothermal conditions. The significant rheological differences between magma that is hydrated
285 and warm with intermediate crystallinity compared to magma that is dry, cool and highly
286 crystalline leads to a dynamic selection of locations from which magma can be erupted and could
287 explain why erupted lavas at Stromboli have rather homogeneous properties. Our model hence
288 implies a close connection between continuous degassing and normal eruptions, which is
289 consistent with observations showing that the repose time at a given vent is inversely correlated
290 with the intra-eruptive gas flux [Colò *et al.*, 2010], and that eruption frequency and magnitude
291 increase with the overall gas flux [Taddeucci *et al.*, 2013].

292

293 ***5.2. Normal eruptions may be the surface expression of tensile failure in the volcanic plug***

294 Our results show that gas over-pressure in combination with a finite stress field make Griffith
295 failure in the volcanic plug likely (see Figure 4B). In isolation, the two contributing factors bring
296 the plug close to failure but we only expect failure for a small portion of the parameter space. For
297 example, Figure 3B compares tensile strength to gas over-pressures corresponding to compaction
298 lengths of 5–50 m. The pressure difference between mush and gas only grows sufficiently large
299 to fracture the mush for compaction lengths >20 m, and for a magma strength of <1.3 MPa (Fig.
300 3B, cross-hatched). At gas fractions of 20–30% the viscosity required to reach such compaction
301 lengths is 10^{10} – 10^{12} Pas, which is not unreasonable but somewhat stiffer than predicted for the
302 hot degassing conduits, where normal eruptions may be rooted. Similarly, when considering only
303 tectonic stresses, the mean normal stress at the base of the plug tends to be compressive (see
304 Figure 4B) unless we assume strongly extensional tectonic stress.

305 The likely possibility of tensile failure in the NE and SW segments of the plug leads us to
306 suggest that normal eruptions may represent the surface expression of failure at depth and
307 failure-facilitated ascent of gas pulses along hot conduits established by continuous degassing.
308 This interpretation of normal eruptions is compatible with recent results from pyroclast-tracking
309 velocimetry studies that decompose each normal explosion into a sequence of individual,
310 concatenated ejection pulses [*Gaudin et al.*, 2014]. These pulses are thought to indicate rapid
311 ejection of a sequence of gas pockets and entrained magma batches. Similar processes are also
312 observed in analogue laboratory experiments of outgassing from particle-rich suspensions
313 [*Oppenheimer et al.*, 2015]. Previous analysis suggests that tensile failure at the head of a
314 buoyant pulse of pore fluid can speed up its velocity by several orders of magnitude [*Connolly*
315 *and Podladchikov*, 2007; *Keller et al.*, 2013]. This effect would be amplified at Stromboli by the
316 continuous expansion of accelerated gas pulses. While modeling failure propagation is beyond
317 the scope of this model, a failure-based explanation for normal eruptions could explain observed
318 rise speeds of gas pulses of up to 100 m/s [e.g., *Harris and Ripepe*, 2007a; *Patrick et al.*, 2007;
319 *Taddeucci et al.*, 2012a, 2014], which are notoriously difficult to explain in models where a gas
320 slug ascends through a magma-filled conduit by linear viscous flow only.

321

322 **6. Conclusions**

323 The goal of this paper is to generalize the slug model for Strombolian activity by considering the
324 dynamic interactions between the three phases, gas, melt and crystals, present in the shallow
325 plumbing system. Our three-phase framework posits the existence of a porous plug beneath the
326 entire crater terrace, and links the different degassing regimes observed on the surface to the
327 different modes of gas percolation. We find that conduits of localized gas flux may emerge

328 dynamically from three-phase interactions, which could explain the shifting locations of active
329 vents on the crater terrace [*Harris and Ripepe, 2007b*]. We propose that normal eruptions may be
330 the surface expression of tensile failure of the plug, facilitated by gas-overpressures arising from
331 gas percolation through the plug in combination with extensional tectonic stress. A fracture-
332 based mechanism governing normal activity may help explain the rapid eruption speeds
333 observed, as well as providing a possible source mechanism for VLP signals. We emphasize that
334 both the slug and the plug model relate normal Strombolian activity to the exsolution and ascent
335 of gas, but differ in the mechanism by which gas is driving eruptive activity. We conclude that
336 while more work is needed to refine the plug model, it makes progress towards an integrated
337 three-phase understanding of basaltic volcanism by accounting for both fracture and flow in the
338 plumbing system.

339

340 **Acknowledgements**

341 The data used in this study have been assembled from the published literature cited in the
342 manuscript. The script used to compute the mush column model (Fig. 2) and benchmark results
343 from our 3D computations are available upon request from JS (email: jsuckale@stanford.edu).
344 We acknowledge support from two GSA student-research grants awarded to JS and IBB, the
345 AXA Research Fund awarded to KVC and by the AFOSR Computational Mathematics grant
346 FA9550-10-1-0229, the Alfred P. Sloan foundation, and the Director, Office of Science,
347 Computational and Technology Research, U.S. Department of Energy under Contract No. DE-
348 AC02-05CH11231.

349

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562

563 **Figure captions**

564 **Figure 1. A:** The slug model relates normal eruptions to the burst of periodically rising gas slugs
 565 (white) in a fixed conduit filled with liquid magma (red). **B:** The plug model captures the
 566 simplified dynamics of a mush plug consisting of HP magma beneath the entire crater terrace.
 567 Crystals are shown in grey and bubbles in white. The background color illustrates the transition
 568 from fluid-like behavior (red) to solid-like behavior (black) based on temperature and crystal
 569 content. Gas flux in the plug localizes in hot, gas-rich and crystal-poor pathways as compared to
 570 the surrounding plug. Fast gas pulses accommodated by tensile failure (yellow) follow these
 571 pathways to feed normal eruptive activity.

572

573 **Figure 2.** Results of the thermally coupled degassing model in a 1D mush column. Profiles with
 574 depth of: **A** gas fraction; **B** crystal and melt fractions; **C** mush density; **D** gas segregation speed;
 575 **E** temperature, with the magma solidus and liquidus (dotted); **F** mush viscosity, with the
 576 approximate regime boundary between mobile and stagnant mush (dotted). Line colors indicate
 577 different levels of final vesicularity contrasting low with high gas flux environments; the former
 578 creates conditions for passive degassing through a cooler, highly crystalline, stagnant mush plug;
 579 the latter for active degassing through gas-heated, lower crystallinity conduits of mobile magma.

580

581 **Figure 3.** Integrated scaling analysis of thermal and mechanical state of the volcanic plug at
 582 Stromboli: **A:** Mush viscosity plotted against crystal fraction and temperature. Rheological
 583 transition between mobile and stagnant regimes (black solid and dashed) corresponding to
 584 critical Rayleigh number for thermal and gas-buoyancy driven convection on the length scale of
 585 100 m. Crystallinity as a function of temperature (dotted) taken from 1D model results (Fig. 2,

586 $\phi_v^{\max} = 30\%$). **B:** Characteristic gas over-pressure calculated as a function of mush viscosity
 587 and gas fraction. Over-pressure at compaction lengths of 5–50 m (black contours), and tensile
 588 strength of 0.5–5 MPa (white contours). Tensile failure driven by gas over-pressure predicted for
 589 zone of overlapping patterns. 1D model results of viscosity and gas fraction for final vesicularity
 590 of 15–25% (dotted, cf. Fig. 2).

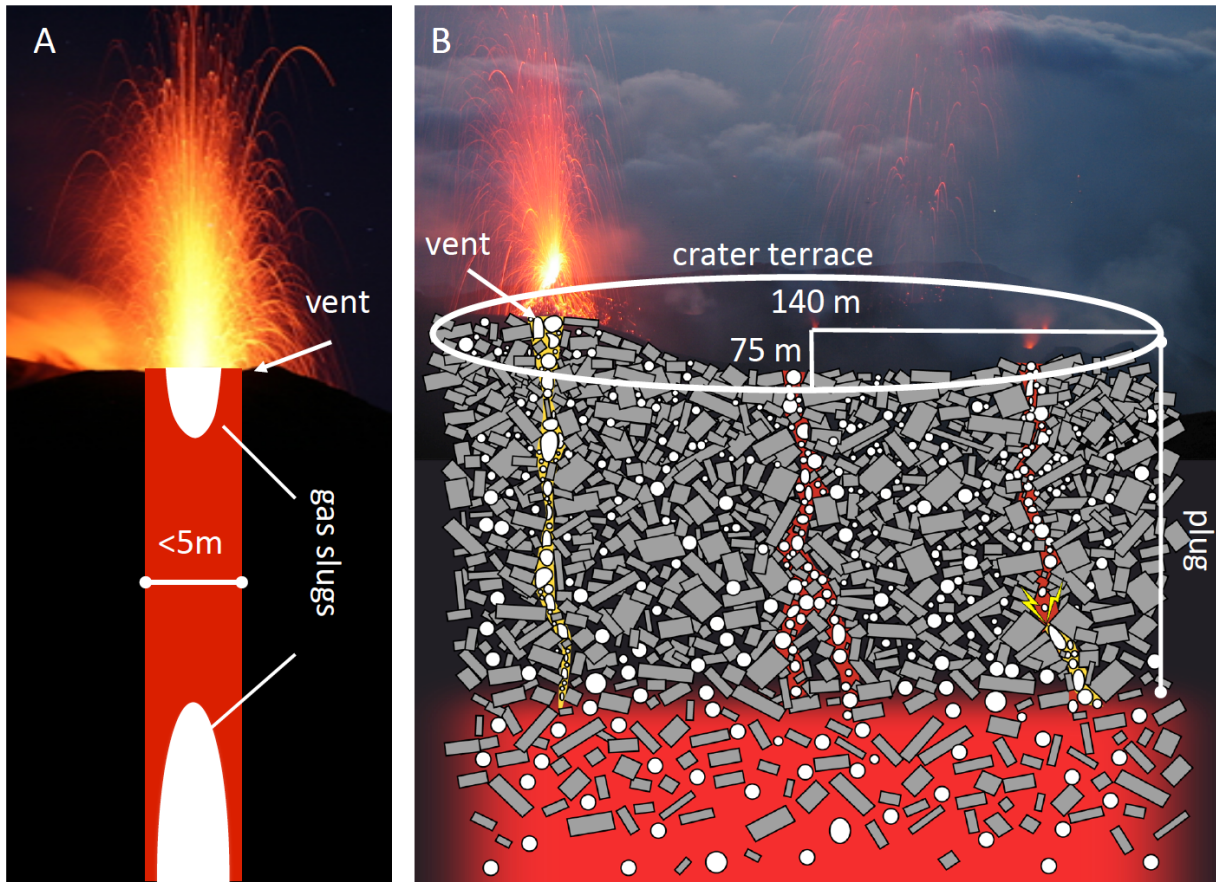
591

592 **Figure 4. A:** Cross-section through the computational mesh used to model Stromboli. The NE–
 593 SW oriented elliptical magmatic body is aligned with the main direction of normal faulting along
 594 the Panarea-Stromboli alignment (grey dashed line) implying that the least compressive stress,
 595 σ_3 , is oriented NW–SE. The intermediate principle stress, σ_2 , is oriented NE–SW and the most
 596 compressive stress, σ_1 , is vertical. The liquid melt at large depth exerts magmastatic pressure on
 597 the walls of the plumbing system but has zero shear strength. **B:** Griffith criterion for tensile
 598 failure and stress state at the center (grey), and at either end of the crater terrace (black) when
 599 neglecting gas over-pressure (dashed circles) and when assuming a gas over-pressure of 0.25
 600 MPa (solid line circles), which corresponds to an interconnected gas pulse of $\delta = 10$ m. The
 601 axes are mean normal stress and effective stress defined as the square root of the second
 602 invariant of the deviatoric stress tensor. **C:** Locations where tensile failure is most likely to occur
 603 at 285 m below the crater terrace, the approximate source depth of the VLP signal [*Chouet et al.*,
 604 2003]. The black dots represent vent locations mapped for ten years between August 1995 and
 605 June 2004 [*Harris and Ripepe, 2007b*].

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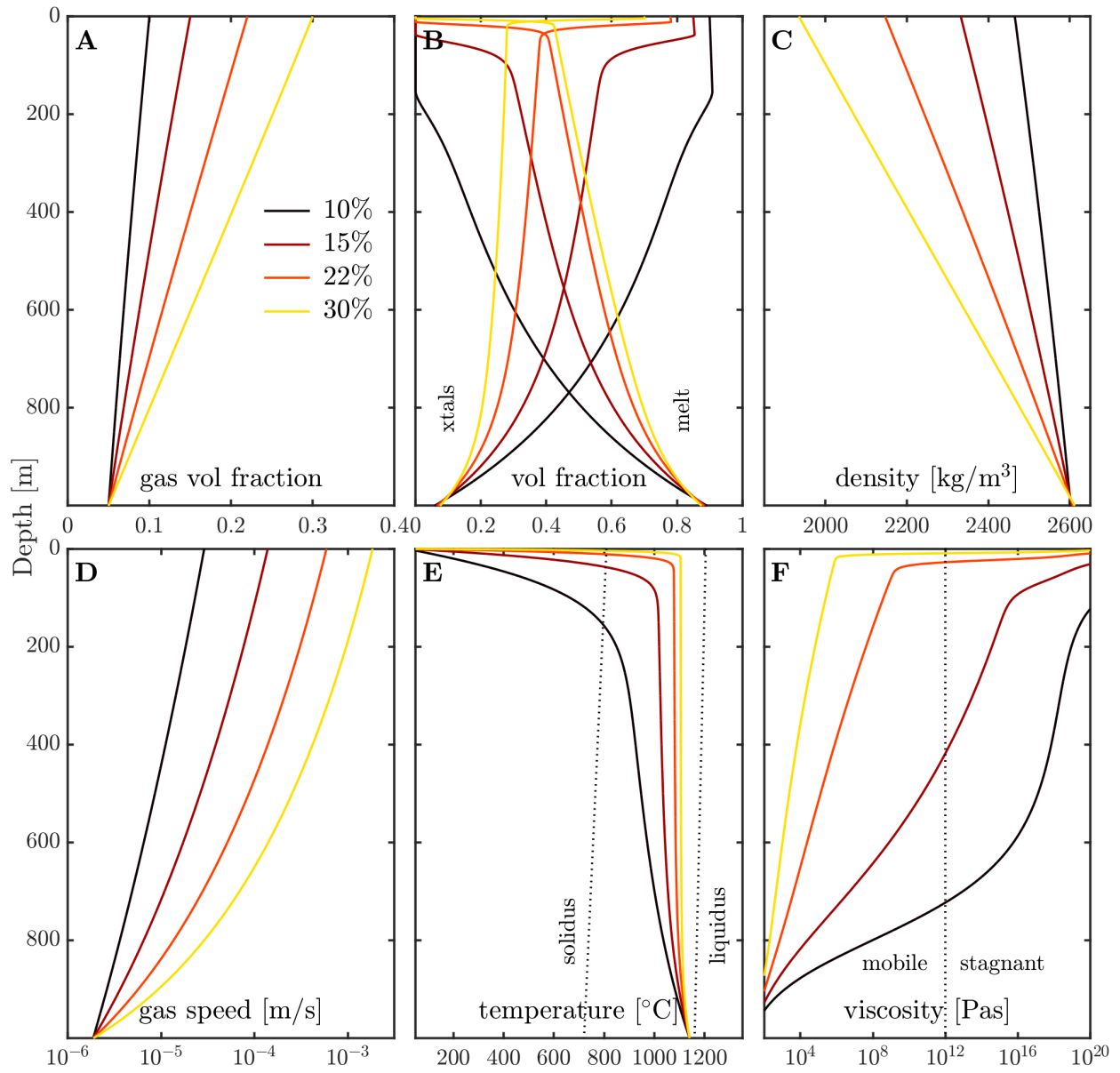
608 **Figure 1:**



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611 **Figure 2:**

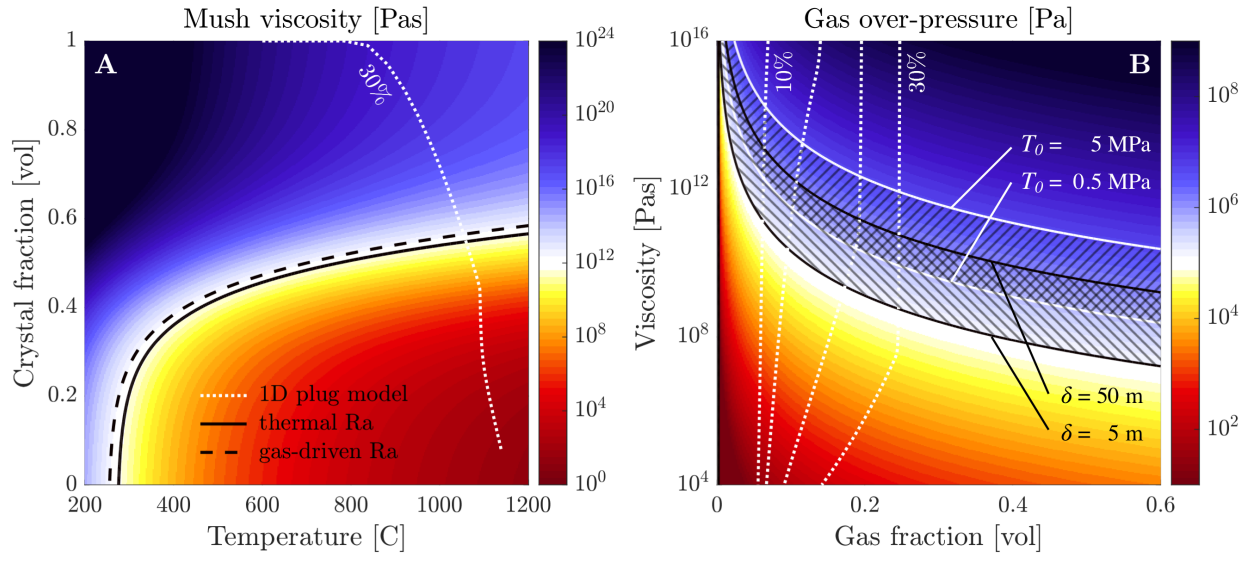


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615 **Figure 3:**

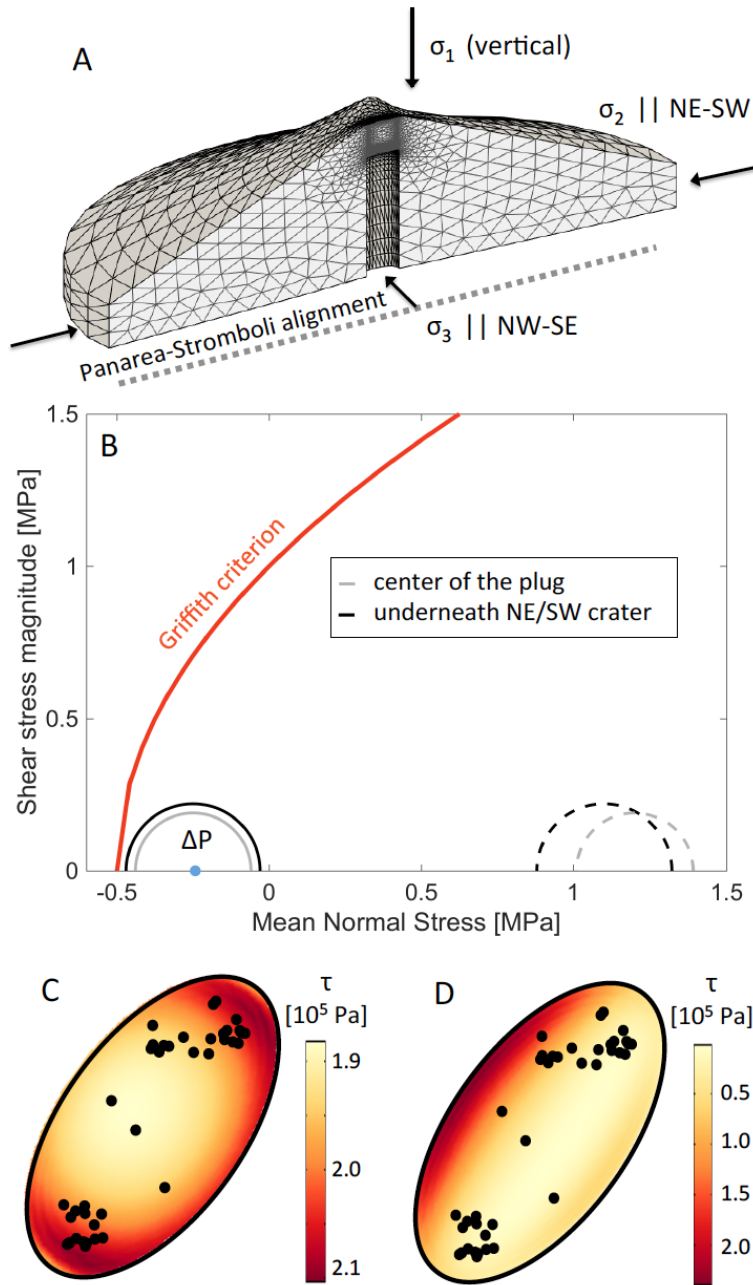


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619 **Figure 4:**



620