

Magma decompression rate calculations with EMBER: A user-friendly software to model diffusion of H 2 O, CO 2 and S in melt embayments

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- 1 Magma decompression rate calculations with EMBER: A
- user-friendly software to model diffusion of H₂O, CO₂ and
- **S in melt embayments**

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- 15 **Keywords**: volcanic eruption, magma degassing, conduit processes, volatile element exsolution,
- 16 GUI

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Highlights:

- EMBER is a new, freely available, GUI software that models magma ascent rates for basalt to rhyolite with H2O, CO2 and S diffusion profiles
 - EMBER was validated by reproducing previous published literature data
 - For mafic eruptions, we found a notable correlation between maximum recalculated decompression rates and eruption magnitude or plume height

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ABSTRACT

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27 Magma decompression rate is one of the most important parameters in controlling eruption dynamics. One way to determine decompression rate is by fitting a volatile elements diffusion profile to a 28 29 concentration gradient in crystal-hosted embayments. Previous studies have used a variety of diffusion models, limiting the possibility for inter-study comparison. Here, we introduce EMBER (EMBayment-30 31 Estimated Rates), a standalone versatile tool that models diffusion of volatile elements along melt 32 embayments. Our model relies on the pdepe function of MATLAB to calculate diffusion profiles of H₂O, CO₂ and S through the finite difference method. EMBER uses a grid search seeking out the best 33 34 fits for decompression rates, initial dissolved concentration of each studied volatile and initial 35 exsolved gas content, while setting three constants: temperature along the ascent and pressure at the 36 beginning and end of the ascent. Our model can compute the rate for basaltic, intermediate, and 37 rhyolitic compositions. We applied EMBER to previous studies to evaluate and validate our model. We then re-processed "homogeneously" the raw data from the literature for a comparison. In other 38 words, the same protocol was used for each diffusion profiles removing the literature-specific 39 40 strategies used to constrain unknown parameters. With this comparison, we found a statistically 41 significant positive correlation between maximum magma decompression rates and explosivity of the related eruption. EMBER is expected to help increase the number of volatile diffusion in embayments 42

studies aiming at constraining magma decompression and ascent rates and to facilitate inter-study

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comparisons.

1. INTRODUCTION

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Magma ascent rate is a fundamental physical parameter in determining the behavior of a volcanic eruption. Magma ascent rate can be estimated in several ways, during ascent and eruption by geophysical methods, or after the eruption using geochemical and petrological methods. One example of a geophysical method is the analysis of volcanic earthquakes, in which the progressive migration of tremors from a depth to the surface is interpreted as the upward migration of ascending magma [e.g., Aki and Koyanagi., 1981; Scandone and Malone., 1985; Klein et al., 1987; Tryggvason., 1994]. Geochemical methods to determine magma ascent rate are numerous but most of them are only applicable to limited melt compositions. In andesitic magma for instance, the thickness of amphibole breakdown rims has been used to determine ascent rates based on the experimentally-determined rate of the break-down reaction [e.g., Carey and Sigurdsson., 1985; Rutherford and Hill., 1993; Geschwind and Rutherford., 1995; Browne and Gardner., 2006]. Another example is the use of diffusion profiles (e.g., Fe-Mg or H₂O) at the rims of minerals in mantle xenoliths as they re-equilibrate with their carrier melt on their way to the surface [e.g., Mackwell and Kohlstedt., 1990; Klügel et al., 1997; Klügel., 1998; Kohlstedt and Mackwell., 1998; Le Voyer et al., 2014]. Knowing the diffusion coefficient of the species of interest, one can derive an estimate of the magma ascent rate for these eruptions [e.g., Demouchy and Mackwell., 2006; Sparks et al., 2006; Rutherford., 2008]. Another method, based on nucleation theory, links the bubble number density in erupted products (measurable from 2D and 3D observations) to the magma decompression rate [Toramaru., 1989, 1995, 2006]. This theoretical relationship has been reproduced experimentally but is not applicable to natural samples, once bubbles start to coalesce [e.g., Martel and Iacono-Marziano., 2015].

One method, which holds the potential to be widely applicable for a wide range of magma compositions and decompression rates, is the analysis of the diffusion profiles of

volatile elements along melt embayments (also called re-entrants). Embayments are crystalhosted elongated melt pockets of various shapes and sizes, opened to the outside melt [e.g., Anderson., 1991]. Their formation mechanism is similar to that of melt inclusions [e.g., Faure and Schiano., 2005], through either crystallization around a defect or dissolution of the host crystal, with the exception that they remain connected to the surrounding bubbly melt. They have been studied in quartz [e.g., Liu et al., 2007; Myers et al., 2018], in plagioclases [e.g., Humphreys et al., 2008] and olivine crystals [e.g.,Lloyd et al., 2014; Ferguson et al., 2016; Moussallam et al., 2019], in quenched material ranging from basalt to rhyolite in composition. During magma ascent, the volatile content of the melt surrounding the embayment will decrease, maintaining equilibrium with the exsolved gas phase. The limited volume of melt embayments, however, often prevents bubble formation inside, resulting in embayment melt being super-saturated in volatiles compared to the surrounding melt. This difference in chemical potential leads to a concentration gradient and to diffusive transport of volatile species from the interior to the mouth of the embayment resulting in a diffusion profile. If such a profile is preserved in natural samples, it can then be inverted to derive a decompression rate assuming that the elongated tubular shape of the embayment and the relative impermeability of the host crystal led to unidirectional (1D) diffusion and prevented any advective melt motion in the embayment. The dependency of volatile diffusion in embayments on multiple parameters (melt composition, temperature, pressure, degassing path, decompression rate) makes the interpretation of natural diffusion profiles a challenging endeavour. A numerical model adapted to a wide range of magma compositions is therefore needed to generate multiple diffusion profiles with known parameters and find the synthetic profile which most closely reproduces the measurement.

1.1 Existing embayment volatile diffusion models

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Several such numerical models have been developed in the last decades (Table 1). The first published code was developed in FORTRAN 77 [Liu et al., 2007]. Assuming a certain temperature, pressure, initial concentration, exsolved gas, degassing path and decompression rate, the code generated time-dependent profiles of H₂O and CO₂ concentrations until the fragmentation pressure is reached. The process was repeated several times with different decompression rates to find the best fit. A second model was presented by Humphreys et al., [2008] using the COMSOL multiphysics software to model only H₂O profiles. Their model imposes the final concentration at the mouth of the embayment from the start of the calculation and allows the software to run the diffusion calculation. Lloyd et al., [2014] developed a model calculating simultaneously, for a range of decompression rates, three volatile element profiles at once: H₂O, CO₂ and S. In a following study, an improved development of a MATLAB code by Ferguson et al., [2016] took H₂O, CO₂ and S into account and considered not only a range of decompression rates but also the initial concentration of each volatile element as well as the exsolved gas content at the beginning of the ascent (M₀) for basaltic compositions. The addition of this new parameter: (M₀), the preexisting (already exsolved volatile content in equilibrium with magma at the onset of a magma ascent), proved to have a significant impact on the modelled profile and made the grid search more complex and the result better constrained [Ferguson et al., 2016]. Another study subsequently build the FORTRAN 77 model from Liu et al., [2007] in MATLAB with updated diffusion coefficients for rhyolitic compositions and a best fit search algorithm [Myers et al., 2018]. This code was later updated taking the pressure at which degassing stops as a free parameter [Myers et al., 2021]. Another code, written in Rstudio and restricted to basaltic melts, took into account all the aforementioned parameters with fixed inputs and was made openly available [Moussallam et al., 2019]. One of the most recent model is tuned to intermediate magma compositions, contains a specific S solubility relation and a general H₂O

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diffusion coefficient relation for intermediate magma, and looks for the decompression rate and initial pressure [Newcombe et al., 2020]. The latest model to date is written in Matlab and uses grid searches to find decompression rate, initial concentration of H₂O and S and exsolved gas content [Moussallam et al., 2021].

At present, seven different data processing methods to model volatile diffusion profiles in embayments exist; each published study uses its specific model written on four different platforms (FORTRAN 77, COMSOL, MATLAB and RStudio). Other than the code of Moussallam et al., [2019], none are directly downloadable without a specific request to the authors. Each code considers different input parameters, different volatile species and is tuned to a specific melt composition. This lack of consistency is an issue for inter-study comparison and the lack of open software access can be an impediment to a large number of new studies on natural products.

The aim of this article is to provide the community with a user-friendly and crossoperating system MATLAB code that is able to constrain decompression rates from volatile
diffusion in melt embayments for rhyolitic to basaltic melt compositions, and for as wide a
range of starting conditions as possible. We then retroactively analyze all volatile diffusion
profiles from the literature using EMBER. Our results help identify potential discrepancies in
published decompression rates, notably for the Mt St Helens 1980's eruption, and provide an
easily comparable, self-consistent summary of decompression rates obtained from volatile
element diffusion in melt embayments published to date. Our software, EMBER, calculates
results likely comparable to those by the DIPRA software [Girona and Costa., 2013], which
can extract timescales from diffusion zoning in olivine crystals, and is also a widely
distributed MATLAB program.

2. Code architecture

2.1 Diffusion model

Volatile element diffusion in embayments can be regarded as a 1D process, because of their elongated, tube-like geometries and the incompatibility of the elements in their mineral host [Ferguson et al., 2016; Humphreys et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2007; Lloyd et al., 2014; Moussallam et al., 2019, 2021; Myers et al., 2018, 2021; Newcombe et al., 2020]. While this is a commonly accepted assumption, further studies are needed to assess the impacts of the three-dimensional shape of embayments to volatiles diffusion [deGraffenried and Shea., 2020]. If it proves to be relevant, EMBER will need to be updated accordingly to compute both 1D and 3D diffusion. The evolution of the concentration gradient is therefore described by Fick's Second Law (Eq.1):

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(D(x, t) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) \tag{1}$$

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$$C = C_i \text{ at } x > 0, t = 0$$
 (2)

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$$C = C_{sat}(t) \text{ at } x = 0, t > 0; \frac{dC}{dx} = 0 \text{ at } x = X, t > 0$$
 (3)

where D is the diffusion coefficient of the studied volatile species; C, the concentration of studied species, x, the distance from the mouth of the embayment, X, the distance at the interior of the embayment, C_{sat} , the saturation concentration calculated at the mouth of the embayment by using a solubility model, C_i , the initial concentration along the embayment and X, the time. These diffusion equations show that diffusion coefficients depend heavily on X0 concentration X1, temperature and pressure. These three parameters, and therefore the diffusion coefficient, all change during ascent. Diffusion coefficients are hence calculated along every point of the embayment from the start to the end of the calculation.

The boundary condition at the interior is defined by an absence of mass flux (Neumann condition) (Eq.2) and the volatile concentration at the mouth of the embayment is fixed but varies with respect to time t (Dirichlet boundary condition). The initial volatile concentration C_{init} along the embayment is constant, and the value should be the concentrations of volatile elements at the initiation of magma ascent. Volatile concentration at the mouth of the embayment is set by the solubility of each volatile species along a pressure related path of the magma ascent, and these constraints are entered into EMBER as a text file. For example, EMBER's default setup reads output files from SolEx [Witham et al., 2012], and VolatileCalc [Newman and Lowenstern., 2002] depending on magma types.

Solubility of gas species depends on T, P, magma composition and exsolved gas content (M₀). EMBER does not calculate the solubility of volatiles and uses an "external" solubility model like VolatileCalc [Newman and Lowenstern., 2002], Solex [Witham et al., 2012] or any other model that the user chooses to calculate the degassing paths. Since the value of M₀ is initially unknown, a typical calculation is done by choosing a "target exsolved gas content" thus by setting a corresponding degassing path. EMBER works with seven solubility files accounting for M₀ values of 0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.4, 0.8, 1.6, 3.2 wt. %, which are supplied by the user. EMBER interpolates those seven degassing paths to find the degassing path associated with the targeted exsolved gas content. It should be noted that, when VolatileCalc-generated degassing paths are used, EMBER imposes the reference point concentrations of 0.01wt. % H₂O, 1 ppm CO₂ and 1 ppm S at P=1 bar because VolatileCalc does not model the degassing path down to one bar.

EMBER calculates all model diffusion profiles of the volatile elements following the grid search which range is defined by the user, before iteratively comparing measured and calculated profiles. First, profiles are calculated by varying three parameters for each calculation loop: constant decompression rate, initial volatile content and exsolved gas

content, for each element. Parameters such as temperature, melt composition, initial pressure prior to ascent and pressure at which decompression stops are specified together with the volatile species of interest (H₂O, CO₂, S) and they are fixed for all calculations. The program calculates diffusion profiles using finite difference formulation solved with the *pdepe* function, an ordinary differential equation (ODE) solver from MATLAB.

Diffusion coefficients used in the model calculations are based on the following equations and calculated for each step of the ascent and at each point of a given profile. Water diffusion coefficient (D_{H_2O}) in $m^2 ext{.} s^{-1}$ for basaltic melt is given by

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$$D_{H_2O} = \exp\left[-11.924 - 1.003\ln(C_{H_2O})\right] * \exp\left[\frac{-\exp(11.836 - 0.139\ln(C_{H_2O}))}{RT}\right]$$
(4)

where C_{H_2O} is water concentration in wt. %; R, the gas constant in J.mol⁻¹.K⁻¹ and T, the temperature in Kelvin [Freda et al., 2003]. For melt with intermediate composition (55 < SiO₂ < 70 wt. %), the water diffusion coefficient ($D_{H_2O_t}$ in $m^2.s^{-1}$) is calculated using a combination of equations (5a-i), from Ni and Zhang., [2018], as previously used by Newcombe et al., [2020]:

$$D_{H_2O_t} = D_{H_2O_m} \left(1 - \frac{dX_{OH}}{2dX} \right) + D_{OH} \frac{dX_{OH}}{2dX}, \tag{5a}$$

$$D_{H_2O_m} = D_0 \exp(aX) , (5b)$$

$$D_{OH} = const , (5c)$$

$$\frac{dX_{OH}}{2dX} = \frac{1-2X}{\sqrt{4X(X-1)\left(1-\frac{4}{K}\right)+1}} , \qquad (5d)$$

$$lnK = 2.6Y_{SI} - \frac{4339Y_{SI}}{T}, (5e)$$

$$a = -94.07 + 74.112Y_{SI} + \frac{198508 - 166674Y_{SI}}{T}, \tag{5f}$$

$$lnD_{OH} = -16.78 - 37.428Y_{SI} - \frac{39250 - 27576Y_{SI}}{T},$$
 (5g)

$$\ln\left(\frac{D_{OH}}{D_0}\right) = -56.09 - 115.93Y_{SI} + 160.54\sqrt{Y_{SI}} - \frac{3970\sqrt{Y_{SI}}}{T},$$
(5h)

$$lnD_0 = 8.02 - 31Y_{SI} + 2.348PY_{SI} + \frac{121824Y_{SI} - 118323\sqrt{Y_{SI}} - (10016Y_{SI} - 3648)P}{T}, \quad (5i)$$

- with Y_{SI} , the mole fraction of Si among all cations, D_0 , a diffusion parameter in $m^2 \cdot s^{-1}$, K,
- the equilibrium constant, X, the mole fraction of each species, P in GPa, T in Kelvin, a, a
- dimensionless parameter, D_{OH} the OH diffusivity in $m^2.s^{-1}$, $D_{H_2O_m}$, the molecular H_2O
- 217 diffusivity in m^2 . s^{-1} and $D_{H_2O_t}$, the total H₂O diffusivity in m^2 . s^{-1} .
- For rhyolitic melt, the water diffusion coefficient (in μm^2 . s^{-1}) is given by,

$$D_{H_2O} = C_{H_2O} \exp(10.49 - \frac{10.661}{T} - \frac{1.772P_t}{T})$$
 (6a)

- for low (\leq 2 wt. %) water melt, where P_t is the pressure in MPa at time t [Zhang and
- Behrens., 2000]. However, if the water content is high (from 2 to 8 wt. %), diffusion
- coefficient is calculated by,

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$$D_{H_2O} = X \exp\left(m\right) \left\{1 + \exp\left[56 + m + X\left(-34.1 + \frac{44620}{T} + \frac{57.3P_t}{T}\right) - \sqrt{X}\left(0.091 + \frac{4.77*10^6}{T^2}\right)\right]\right\}$$

$$(6b)$$

- where $m = -20.79 5030/T 1.4 P_t/T$, and $X = (C_{H_2O}/18.015)/[C_{H_2O}/18.015 + 1.4 P_t/T]$
- 226 $(100 C_{H_2O})/32.49$ [Zhang and Behrens., 2000]. The diffusion coefficient of $CO_2(D_{CO_2})$,
- 227 in m^2 . s^{-1} , is given by,

$$D_{CO_2} = \exp\left[-14.34 - \frac{17360 - 0.6527P_t}{T} + \left(-0.7171 + \frac{1436.8}{T}\right)C_{H_2O}\right]$$
(7)

for basalts to rhyolites [Nowak et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2007]. The program also calculates diffusion coefficient of S (D_S) , in m^2 . s^{-1} :

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$$D_S(i) = \exp\left(-8.21 - \frac{27692 - 651.6 C_{H_2O}}{T}\right) \tag{8}$$

- [Zhang et al., 2007]. It is to be noted that the sulfur diffusivity determined by Zhang et al.,
- 233 [2007] is applicable only to basaltic melts under reduced conditions [Zhang et al., 2007].

2.2 Best fit determination

The second part of the code compares a measured concentration profile to a series of calculated ones (with N set of parameters) to find the best fit and its associated parameters (i.e. grid search). EMBER favours the grid search over other more efficient optimization methods (e.g. gradient search method), because with the mixture of diffusion of dissimilar species, it is not clear a priori if there will always exist a unique solution. While computationally intensive (and inefficient), we consider it is more suitable to take an approach of "calculate-all". The best fit is determined by comparing the dimensionless normalized residual square error ($NErr_i$) for each i of N sets of parameters,

$$NErr_{j} = \sum_{i} \frac{1}{u_{i}^{2}} (C_{ij} - Cs_{ij})^{2}$$
 (9)

where u_j is the analytical measurement uncertainty applied at the highest volatile concentration measured in the embayment; usually at the interior of the embayment (*i.e*: an uncertainty of 5% of $Cs_{ij_}max$), i denotes discrete points along the distance to the embayment mouth, C_{ij} is the calculated concentration and Cs_{ij} is the measured concentration. Among the generated profiles, the one that gives the minimum $NErr_j$ is the best fit. One may calculate $NErr_j$ by considering the "weighting and scaling of the error" of each volatile (further details can be found in part 4.5). By doing so, the program first calculates $NErr_j$ values without

dimensions thanks to u_j . The term u_j effectively constrains the "weight" of three diffusion profiles (H₂O, CO₂, and S) as measurements with better uncertainty (in relative term) have a stronger influence to the sum total of three *NErr*. EMBER then scales the *NErr* values between each volatiles before adding them. If one chooses not to weight and scale each volatile species' error, $u_i = 1$.

EMBER assesses statistical variations of *NErr* by a Monte Carlo simulation accounting for the uncertainty of the measurement $C \pm \sigma$, using a Gaussian distribution random function to generate m iterations of possible profiles within measurement uncertainties. Therefore, for a parameter set (*i.e.* case j), there is m number of *NErr* computed by comparing a calculated profile against m numbers of the randomly generated profiles $Cs_i + \varepsilon$ (Figure 1, Step 1). A similar approach is taken for the uncertainty of x. The result of this simulation is represented by a mean ($Nerr_m$) and its related 1- σ confidence interval for a parameter set j (Figure 1, Step 2).

2.3 Propagation of errors

The uncertainties on the fit parameters Ci, dPdt and M_0 (to a lesser extent) are assessed by the statistical distributions of the parameters that are extracted from the calculated profiles y that satisfy the following condition (Figure 1. Step 3):

Pr(
$$a - \sigma_1 \le y \le a + \sigma_2$$
) = 68% (10)

Here, a is the value for which $Nerr_m$ is the smallest, and σ_1 and σ_2 respectively the lower and upper boundaries of the confidence interval, calculated using the prctile MATLAB function. For every j calculated profiles (with a set of parameters), there is a corresponding NErr. Equation (10) states that there are cases of calculated profiles for which NErr is within the expected uncertainty. EMBER extracts the corresponding parameters (dPdt and C_i) and

report the distribution of values as mean and 1- σ confidence interval, which are the best fit parameter and an associated uncertainty (Figure 1. Step 4 and 5). In consequence, measurement uncertainties must be entered by the user in EMBER because of the Monte Carlo error propagation. An uncertainty on the distance between two measurement spots is set by default at $\pm 2~\mu m$ and can be changed to whichever value the user requires, down to 0 μm if needed.

3. Examples of model outputs

3.1 Organization of the graphical user interface

EMBER runs inside a user-friendly Graphical User Interface (GUI) upon execution of the application file. The GUI is separated in two parts: the input section, dedicated to generating the grid search and decompression conditions (left hand side Part1, panels a, b, c; Fig.2), and the results section dedicated to displaying the results once calculation is terminated (Part 2, panels a, b; Fig. 2). Panel 2c display a process log during the calculations. Figure 3 shows the result of a simulation using the volatile profiles measured in an embayment from the study of Ferguson et al., [2016] as an example. Unticking the "Weighting and scaling of error" checkbox will remove the scaling of NErr. The u_j parameter from equation (8) is set to 1 in this case and NErr is not scaled before being added for the cumulative error calculation. In such case, as all concentration are treated as weight percent internally, the H_2O profile will usually weight more than the others as it usually records much larger variations in absolute concentration.

3.2 Outputs of the calculation

Figures generated by EMBER have two purposes: (1) to display the results of the calculation and (2) to track the variation of the best-fit estimation with parameters from the grid search such as M_0 or C_i . Figure 3a shows the influence of the exsolved gas content to the resulting best-fit diffusion profile. Other parameters can be tested. For example, the number of volatile species fitted at once (single or up to 3, solid line or dashed line, respectively; Fig. 3b) also influences the resulting best-fit profile. Figure 3c shows the sensitivity of the cumulative error over decompression rate and exsolved gas content (M_0). Figure 3d shows the influence of the initial concentration on each volatile best fit error calculation.

Each figure generated is saved in a unique file (.fig) directly openable with EMBER. Along with the figures, EMBER also produces four Excel (.xls) files (.csv for Mac). They contain the input parameters, the diffusion profiles of each best case, for every decompression rate with the best C_i and M_0 , and a copy of the results for each volatile with the respective exsolved gas content.

4. Calculation and performance test

4.1 A priori requirements

As with all computational software, meaningful results in EMBER will only be achieved with appropriate dataset. Investigations should be limited to entirely glassy embayments, sampled from rapidly quenched deposits (e.g., <2 cm sized tephra), exhibiting a geometry that is close to that of a cylinder with constant radius. More complex geometries would void the core assumption of unidirectional diffusion and necessitate 3D diffusion modeling. [e.g., deGraffenried and Shea., 2020], which is not currently supported by EMBER. The longer the embayment, the more likely it is to display a concentration plateau in the diffusion profile indicative of C_i and the starting pressure of ascent (P_{Start}). In absence of such condition, we recommend the user to determine P_{Start}, C_i and T from melt inclusions and geo-

thermobarometry studies. Finally, volatile concentration measurements on surrounding glass are required to assess P_{end} , the pressure of quenching.

While we used VolatileCalc and SolEx as the main degassing path generators in the examples below, it should be noted that EMBER can also read degassing paths from any other software as long as the input files comply with the required format (see the tutorial in the additional instructions). Hence, the choice of degassing path software is ultimately up to the user's preference.

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4.2 Comparison with previous studies

We re-analysed the natural volatile diffusion profiles in embayments from previous studies, to assess the quality of EMBER's decompression rate calculation: from the 1980 Mt St Helens [Humphreys et al., 2008], 1974 Fuego [Lloyd et al., 2014], 1500, 1650 and 1959 Kīlauea [Ferguson et al., 2016], 27 ka Taupo [Myers et al., 2018], 767 ka Long Valley [Myers et al., 2018], 2 Ma Yellowstone [Myers et al., 2018], 2017-2018 Ambae/Aoba [Moussallam et al., 2019], Late Bronze Age (LBA) Santorini [Myers et al., 2021] and December 2018 Ambrym [Moussallam et al., 2021] eruptions. We used the uncertainties reported in each study when provided. Also when provided, we directly used the specific grid search (e.g. Ferguson et al., [2016] provides a range of M₀). Otherwise, we estimated the possible range of grid search from the reported uncertainties for decompression rates and initial concentrations. Degassing paths were calculated respecting P, T, and volatile contents used in the original studies (typically, we use SolEx or VolatileCalc when authors specified it). Similarly, the reanalysed results were calculated using the same set of values for M₀ as the original literature data to which they are compared. In detail this was $M_0 = 0.1$, 1.6, 1.6, 0.8 wt. % respectively for IkiE1, ReticE2 and KeaE1 [Ferguson et al., 2016], $M_0 = 0.4$, 0, 0, 3.2 wt. % respectively for AF2, AD5, AE38 and PG11 [Moussallam et al., 2021] and $M_0 = 0$ wt. % for

all embayments from Ambae [Moussallam et al., 2019]. For all other studies of which the exsolved gas content was not specified we used $M_0 = 0$ wt. %. In some cases [Myers et al., 2018], we limited our tests to three samples from each investigated eruption, making sure to test the samples with the highest and lowest estimation. All results except those from Ambrym were calculated with the weighting and scaling of the error. The results are shown in Figure 4.

There is a good agreement between EMBER results and most literature values. Data from the 1980's Mt St Helens eruption [Humphreys et al., 2008] show consistent disparity between the published decompression rates and EMBER's. This difference is due to significantly different boundary conditions of this study compared with the original. The model from the original study [Humphreys et al., 2008] fixed the final concentration at the mouth of the embayment, prior to the ascension. Since the diffusion phenomenon is gradient-dependent, imposing a high concentration gradient at the beginning of the simulation should lead to faster volatile diffusion and a higher decompression rate estimation. This is a critical simplification leading to significant differences in the calculated decompression rate. Other minor differences observed between our re-analysis and earlier decompression rates estimates come from (1) the use of a different H₂O diffusion coefficient as well as a single episode of ascent in all our calculation (as opposed to two-step ascent; [Lloyd et al., 2014]), (2) the calculation of diffusion coefficient (e.g., taking into account the change of diffusivity due to H₂O diffusion or choosing different equations of diffusivity) and (3) the weighting and scaling of error associated with each volatile diffusion profile in all our calculations (Fig.4).

4.3 Monte Carlo simulation

We ran tests on three samples with variable number of Monte Carlo iterations (m=3, 11, 101, 501 and 1001) to determine the lowest number of the iterations to achieve stable assessment

of uncertainties: BT251, a rhyolite from Long Valley, ReE2, a reticulite from 1500 CE Kīlauca lava fountain and AO02, a basalt from phase 2 of the 2017-2018 eruption of Ambae. For BT251, the representation gradually acquires the shape of a pseudo-gaussian distribution with increasing iteration counts. The median and mean values of all filtered decompression rate do not change significantly with increasing iterations (Fig 5) and a stability of the data distribution is quickly achieved (for m=11). For ReE1, the precision of the nanoSIMS measurements and the low decompression rate leads to a stable calculation and a needle shaped histogram even for m=3, suggesting that the results are well constrained. For AO02 the shape of the histogram is pointy, unimodal and skewing right with a long tail. With higher dP/dt values (i.e., sharper diffusion profiles), modelled diffusion profiles become more and more similar, making it harder for the software to find the best solution. This results in a skewed solution histogram with a long tail and a more noticeable difference between mean and median value. For such cases, stability is reached for m = 101. We recommend 101 iterations (EMBER default iteration value) as it was enough to reach a stable solution for our most uncertain case.

4.4 How well does EMBER constrain M₀?

Calculation of the exsolved gas content has been introduced within the embayment method with the calculations made by Ferguson et al., [2016]. They noted it had a significant influence on their calculation of decompression rate, which was confirmed by later studies and by EMBER (Fig 3a and Fig 6a). The effect is mostly a result of the exsolved gas content having a large influence on the degassing trend. From our investigation of literature data, we see that a change of M_0 from 0 to 3.2 wt. % can cause the decompression rate estimation to increase by 10 fold (Fig 6 (a)). This variation is most pronounced on H_2O profiles in embayments of basaltic composition (Fig 6 (a), (b), (c)). Except for these few cases, the

impact of M_0 is hardly significant enough for it to be accurately determined using only diffusion profiles (the associated error frequently covering the entire range studied).

The change of decompression rate in response to variable M_0 illustrates the importance of P_{end} (Fig. 6 (d)) (which must be determined from measured data) and the critical influence of the modelled degassing path.

The best fit M_0 values are directly affected by the choice of P_{end} (Fig. 6 (d)) which must be determined from measured data. Taking as an example, the calculation of one profile from Ferguson et al., [2016] which ends at a specified quenching pressure $P_{end} = 2.75$ MPa. Using the decompression path (from SolEx) for $M_0 < 1.6$ wt. %, the resulting H_2O concentration at P=2.75 MPa would be higher than $C_S(x=0)$, the measured concentration at the mouth of the embayment approximated with the glass measurement, by up to 0.20 wt. %. Synthesized diffusion profiles in this case cannot reproduce the concentration at the mouth of the embayment for $M_0 < 1.6$ wt. %. Because of this limitation, as shown in figure 3a, only a degassing paths associated with at the best fit M_0 value could match the whole diffusion profile by fitting the concentration at the mouth. It should be noted that if a different Pend is chosen, it is possible that EMBER finds another best-fit M_0 (Fig 6 (d)). Therefore, we advise the user to be cautious when choosing Pend for decompression rate modelling, especially in case constrained by one volatile species (Fig 6 (e), (f)).

4.5 Weighting and scaling of error

EMBER leaves the user the choice to, or not to, equally weigh and scale the relative contribution of each volatile profile equally, when calculating the cumulative error. For example, the study from Ferguson et al., [2016] gives equal weight $(u_j = 1)$ to all three volatile species, except on a few cases. By doing so, the best fit $NErr_i$ calculated from H₂O

profiles is several orders of magnitude higher than the best fit *NErr_j* calculated for CO₂ or S profiles. That difference is due to the range of concentration variation, as H₂O usually varies within a few wt. % and CO₂ and S usually varies within thousands of ppm at best. Cumulative error calculation, and subsequently the best fit determination, becomes heavily dependent on the H₂O *NErr_j* value, making the constrains brought by CO₂ or S profiles almost negligible. Another approach is to weight the *NErr_j* values either with analytical uncertainty [Myers et al., 2018] or maximum measured concentration in the embayment [Newcombe et al., 2020] of volatile species. Weighting the concentration with the error value nondimensionalizes the profile and gives equal weight to the quality of fit of each volatile specie. In EMBER, the *NErr_j* values are weighted by the analytical uncertainty on each volatile concentration. It results in an even consideration of the constraints brought by each volatile species. There are pros and cons for this choice, if one thinks the S degassing model to not be as accurate as the H₂O degassing model for instance, one may choose not to weigh and scale the errors. The user ultimately must make the choice and it should be reported.

5. Recalculation of decompression rates

In the previous section, we presented EMBER calculation results using initial conditions (C_i, M_0) if studied, range of dPdt, P_{end} , P_{start} directly from the original literature studies to demonstrate the quality of EMBER and its ability to reproduce the former literature results. Now, we use EMBER to reprocess the raw data from the literatures, but this time using a uniform protocol that takes into account the following parameters: the presence of exsolved gas, the same set of formulas for diffusion coefficient calculation, a model with a single step ascent and an initial volatile element concentration, determined from the concentration plateau (Table 2). Detailed modelled profiles of each embayments can be found in the supplementary materials. We restricted the calculations to 3 profiles per eruption for Myers et

al., [2018], including the ones associated with the highest and lowest decompression rate recorded, and to 5 profiles for Myers et al., [2021].

5.1 The impact of calculation strategies

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Our hope with developing EMBER is to minimize differences in modelling parameters (e.g., diffusion coefficients, error treatment, minimization strategy...) in future studies. It is important to realize however that differences in strategies will persist. For instance, whilst EMBER allow the user to set the exsolved gas content (M₀) as a free parameter to be determined by a grid-search, some users might prefer to impose an exsolved gas content based on independent constraint. This is the case for instance of the Moussallam et al., [2019] study of the 2017-2018 Ambae eruption where, in a second set of calculations, the authors used the difference between the volatile content of the melt inclusions and the starting volatile content of the embayments to estimate the likely amount of exsolved volatile in the system at the initiation of ascent. Another strategy is to use the volatile content of melt inclusions as starting conditions for the diffusion model instead of the measured plateau values in the embayment interior. This was the strategy adopted by Myers et al., [2021] for the Minoan eruption of Santorini, were a fixed initial concentration of 5.2 wt. % H₂O (except for one embayment at 5.6 wt. % H₂O) was used for all model calculations. Such strategy was also used by Humphreys et al., [2008] for Mt St Helens calculations. In this study, we recalculated all embayment profiles using the same strategy throughout, but we do not pass judgement on the validity of one strategy over another. Our aim is to present a dataset which is as comparable as possible. The data presented in Fig. 7 and Table 2 are hence

all calculated leaving the exsolved volatile content (M₀) as unconstrained (i.e., as a part of the

grid search) and using the plateau values in volatile content recorded in embayment interiors as the model starting conditions (C_i) .

This difference in starting assumptions can lead to significant differences in the resulting decompression rate. Recalculating the embayment data from Myers et al., [2021] with our protocol leads to decompression rates 3 to 20 times higher. It is therefore of paramount importance that users of EMBER explicitly report their assumptions and starting conditions. We recommend that future compilations continue to reprocess original data in a consistent manner (as done here) in order to render inter-study comparison as coherent as possible.

5.2 Decompression rates vs eruption parameters

A recent literature compilation showed a clear relationship between magma decompression rate and whether an eruption is explosive or effusive in character [Cassidy et al., 2018]. This relationship deserves more scrutiny to establish if finer relationships between magma decompression rates and explosivity exists in nature. The VEI (Volcanic Explosivity Index), as an approximation of eruption explosivity, is related to eruption magnitude and/or plume height [Newhall and Self., 1982]. To show the utility of EMBER for the studies of volcanic explosivity, we tested the presence (or absence) of a correlation between decompression rate and both eruption magnitude and plume height, with our reprocessed data. Previous studies have found that the eruption magnitude is positively correlated with decompression rate [Ferguson et al., 2016; Moussallam et al., 2019]. However, our compilation shows no clear correlation between decompression rate and eruption magnitude (Fig. 7a).

We notice that an increase in decompression rate with eruption magnitude is noticeable for basaltic magmas (Kīlauea, Ambae and Ambrym) but the correlation is weakly significant (Pearson coefficient of 0.24 with a p-value of 0.35 and R²=0.47, which corresponds to a weak

positive correlation). In a single eruption, there can be varying flow regime creating a range of decompression rate within the conduit; a batch of magma potentially ascend faster than the others (e.g., [Martel et al., 1998; Gonnermann and Manga., 2007; Cassidy et al., 2015]). If we only consider the highest decompression rate of any given eruption however, the aforementioned weak correlation between decompression rate and magnitude becomes more significant for mafic eruptions (Figure 7a) (Pearson coefficient of 0.93 with a p-value of 0.01 and R²=0.86). The calculated decompression rates for rhyolitic eruptions on the other hand shows no correlation with eruption magnitude. The eruption intensity is also assessed with the plume height, which is directly observed or calculated through several empirically-determined relations involving isopachs for explosive eruptions (e.g., [Woods and Wohletz., 1991; Mastin et al., 2009; Pyle., 2015]). The eruption intensity, estimated from the mass eruption rate, has been shown to be positively correlated with decompression rate [Barth et al., 2019; Ferguson et al., 2016; Newcombe et al., 2020]. Thus, the plume height is expected to correlate with the decompression rate. We used EMBER-recalculated decompression rates to test this hypothesis. For the two eruptions of

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intensity, estimated from the mass eruption rate, has been shown to be positively correlated with decompression rate [Barth et al., 2019; Ferguson et al., 2016; Newcombe et al., 2020]. Thus, the plume height is expected to correlate with the decompression rate. We used EMBER-recalculated decompression rates to test this hypothesis. For the two eruptions of Kīlauea for which the plume height is not constrained, we used the maximal height of the lava fountain instead. Ambrym's plume height data for the 2018 eruption is undetermined and therefore not added to Figure 7b. Results show no global correlation between these two parameters (Figure 7b). However, considering again the highest decompression rate recorded for each eruption, a strong positive correlation emerges for basaltic eruptions (with a Person coefficient of 0.76, a p-value of 0.005 and R²=0.88). Again, the calculated decompression rate for rhyolitic eruptions shows no correlation with eruption plume height. The maximum decompression rate for basaltic eruption therefore shows a statistically significant positive correlation with both eruption magnitude and plume height. A first order positive correlation

therefore exists between the maximal magma decompression rate and the explosivity of an eruption for basaltic eruptions.

6. Conclusion

- We present EMBER, a user-friendly GUI program that calculates decompression rates from H₂O, CO₂ and S concentration profiles along embayments of basaltic to rhyolitic compositions.
- We found that decompression rate calculations are particularly sensitive to variations
 of M₀ especially for the H₂O diffusion profile. Variations of P_{end} are also accompanied
 by a variation of the best fit exsolved gas content, but not necessarily by a variation of
 associated decompression rate.
- We recalculated decompression rates from previous studies twice: first, to validate and
 test how well EMBER reproduced existing results using the parameters from the
 original studies, and secondly, to homogenize determined decompression rates
 applying the same protocol to the existing raw data from previous studies, in order to
 improve inter-study comparison.
- In the first case, recalculated decompression rates are in the same order of magnitude
 as original calculations but notable differences do occur such as for the 1980 Mt St
 Helens eruption which recalculated decompression rate are at 0.15-0.41 MPa/s, half of
 the previously reported values [Humphreys et al., 2008].
- In the second case, recalculated dataset shows no significant correlation between magma decompression rate and eruption magnitude when considering the entire dataset and shows a weak correlation when considering the subset of decompression rates of basaltic magma (Pearson coefficient of 0.24 with a p-value of 0.35 and

R²=0.47.) The correlation is significant when considering only the maximum decompression rates of each basaltic eruption (Pearson coefficient of 0.93 with a p-value of 0.01 and R²=0.86). Additionally, there is no significant correlation between decompression rate and plume height when considering the entire dataset. However, once again, a statistically significant trend appears when considering only the maximum decompression rate of the basaltic eruptions (with a Person coefficient of 0.84, a p-value of 0.007 and R²=0.88).

• Our results suggest for the first time, a significant positive correlation, between embayment-calculated maximum decompression rate and eruption explosivity parameters such as magnitude and plume height, for basaltic eruptions.

554	7. Computer code availability
555	• Title of the software: EMBER
556 557 558	 Developers: Guillaume Georgeais, Kenneth T. Koga, Yves Moussallam, Estelle F. Rose-Koga
559 560 561	 Hardware used: EMBER was run on a computer with 4 core (4.5GHz) and 16GB of RAM
562 563 564	 Link to the software, tutorial and test using data from [Ferguson et al., 2016] DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.13663811
565 566 567	 Software required: MATLAB Runtime Environment 2019b and up https://www.mathworks.com/products/compiler/matlab-runtime.html
568	
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Figure caption

Figure 1: Flow chart showing the calculation steps used in EMBER to determine the parameters and associated errors resulting in the best fit of natural volatile diffusion profiles. The outputs are a decompression rate and an initial (dissolved) volatile concentration as well as their associated confidence interval. This process of calculation is repeated for each value of exsolved volatile content (M_0) . Estimation of the M_0 value and its related uncertainty is done in a similar manner but by considering the range of M_0 variation as the 4^{th} dimension of the starting matrix.

Figure 2: A display example of EMBER's GUI after a cycle of calculations. Input parameters are entered on the left panel (part 1) and results are displayed on the right (part 2). The input section is divided in three main parts, the grid search definition (1a), the main parameters and model selection (1b), and the parameters for the Monte-Carlo simulation (uncertainty and number of iterations) (1c). The result section is in three parts: comparison between best fit and natural diffusion profiles (2a), the result parameter of each best fit (2b) and the log section to follow the evolution of the calculation (2c). Clicking on the "Display all figures" once the program is done with the calculation will display best fits for each exsolved volatile content value and for each studied volatile specie. It also displays 3 3D-plots, of the evolution of the calculative error for each volatile(1) vs. the decompression rate and initial concentration, (2) the evolution of the decompression rate vs. exsolved volatile content and initial volatile concentration for each studied volatile specie and (3) the evolution of the cumulative error vs. decompression rate and exsolved volatile content (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Subset of plots generated from a calculation on the 1500CE Kīlauea reticulite ReaE1 studied previously by Ferguson et al., [2016]. (a) Influence of exsolved volatile content M_0 on best fit diffusion profiles of H_2O . Initial parameters from the grid search are listed in the caption. (b) Best fit diffusion profiles calculated by considering H_2O only (solid line) or all studied species (dashed lines). (c) Evolution of the cumulated scaled log_{10} (NErr_m) values over a range of decompression rate and exsolved volatile content. (d) Evolution of the NErr_m value for each volatile over a range of decompression rate and initial volatile content. The NErr_m values are in a log_{10} scale. The values of interest, linked to the smallest error value, are highlighted by a blue, red or yellow dot for H_2O , CO_2 and S respectively (d), and a black dot for the cumulative error (c).

 Figure 4: Comparison between recalculated data with EMBER and previous estimation from the literature. EMBER estimations are comparable with literature estimates with a few systematic differences (see text for details). Dashed line indicates the 1:1 ratio and thin solid lines indicates 2:1 and 0.5:1 ratios. Results from EMBER were acquired taking the input conditions of the respective original studies. Calculations for samples from Lloyd et al., :[2014] were made using their original H_2O diffusion coefficient. All the results displayed are

calculated for M_0 =0 excepted when original studies provided a range of M_0 [Ferguson et al., 2016]. EMBER calculations were made using the "weighting and scaling of error" option which is a source of difference with previously reported literature decompression rate.

Figure 5: Statistical repartition of all filtered decompression rate values with increasing iteration count of the Monte Carlo approach. The repartition gradually acquires a more pronounced shape. The red bars indicates the 1-σ confidence interval of those decompression rates while the blue, green and black ones respectively indicate the best-fit result, the median and the mean. Calculation is done with fixed initial concentration and exsolved volatile content. All displayed data are in MPa/s

 Figure 6: Evolution of modeled relative decompression rates from H_2O (a), CO_2 (b) and S (c) as a function of the exsolved volatile content for a selection of embayments. Each case in a), b) or c) is calculated with a fixed P_{end} , reported in Table 2. For figures (d), (e) and (f), P_{ref} is the P_{end} value displayed in Table 2 for ReE2 and BT251. (d) The initial exsolved volatile content needed to generate the best fit ($M_{Bestfit}$) increases for ReE2 when changing Pend but not systematically for M413. (e) Variation of relative decompression rate modeled from the H_2O diffusion profile only with P_{end} . (f) Variation of relative decompression rate modeled from all studied species (H_2O , CO_2 and S for ReE2, and H_2O and CO_2 for M413) with P_{end} .

Figure 7: (a) Compilation of EMBER-recalculated decompression rate as a function of eruption magnitude. The bigger mark indicates the highest decompression rate estimate for each eruption. For basaltic magmas, there is a trend of increasing decompression rate related to increasing magnitude only when considering the maximum decompression rate values. The trend does not apply to rhyolitic magmas. (b) Compilation of EMBERrecalculated decompression rate as a function of eruption plume height. The bigger mark indicates the highest decompression rate estimate for each eruption. With the exception of Ambrym, which plume maximal height is unknown and assessed by lava fountain height, there is a notable correlation between maximal decompression rate and plume height for basaltic magmas. The same caption applies for both figures. Magnitude estimates were calculated from either orginal article or respectively Shreve et al., [2019], Johnston et al., [2014], Self, [2006] and Mason et al., [2004] for Ambrym's 2018 eruption, Santorini's Minoan eruption, Taupo's Oruanui eruption and both Long Valley's Bishop Tuff and Yellowstone's Huckleberry Ridge Tuff. Plume height estimation comes from modelisations from Gardner et al., [1991], Mastin et al., [2014] and Van Eaton et al., [2012] respectively for Long Valley's Bishop Tuff, Yellowstone's Huckleberry Ridge Tuff and Taupo's Oruanui eruptions.

Table caption

Table 1: Comparison of previously published codes. EMBER is a fully available complete software that covers a large spectrum of magma composition: $dPdt = decompression \ rate, \ C_i = initial \ concentration, \ M_0 = exsolved \ volatile \ content, \ P_f = pressure \ of \ quench, \ gs \ stands \ for "grid \ search". Every study that model decompression rates from <math>CO_2$ and/or S uses the diffusion coefficients calculated from [Zhang et al., 2007]. The only two exceptions are the CO_2 diffusivity from [Liu et al.,

2007] which is calculated from [Behrens and Zhang, 2001] and the S diffusivity from [Ferguson et al., 2016], which is calculated from [Freda et al., 2005]. **Table 2**: Re-calculated decompression rates with initial conditions and related eruption parameters. Ascent rates were calculated with density values from each original studies using the equation $Asc_rate = (Decomp_rate/9.81 * Crustal_density) 10^6 with Decomp_rate in MPa/s, Asc_rate$ in m/s and the crustal density in kg/m3

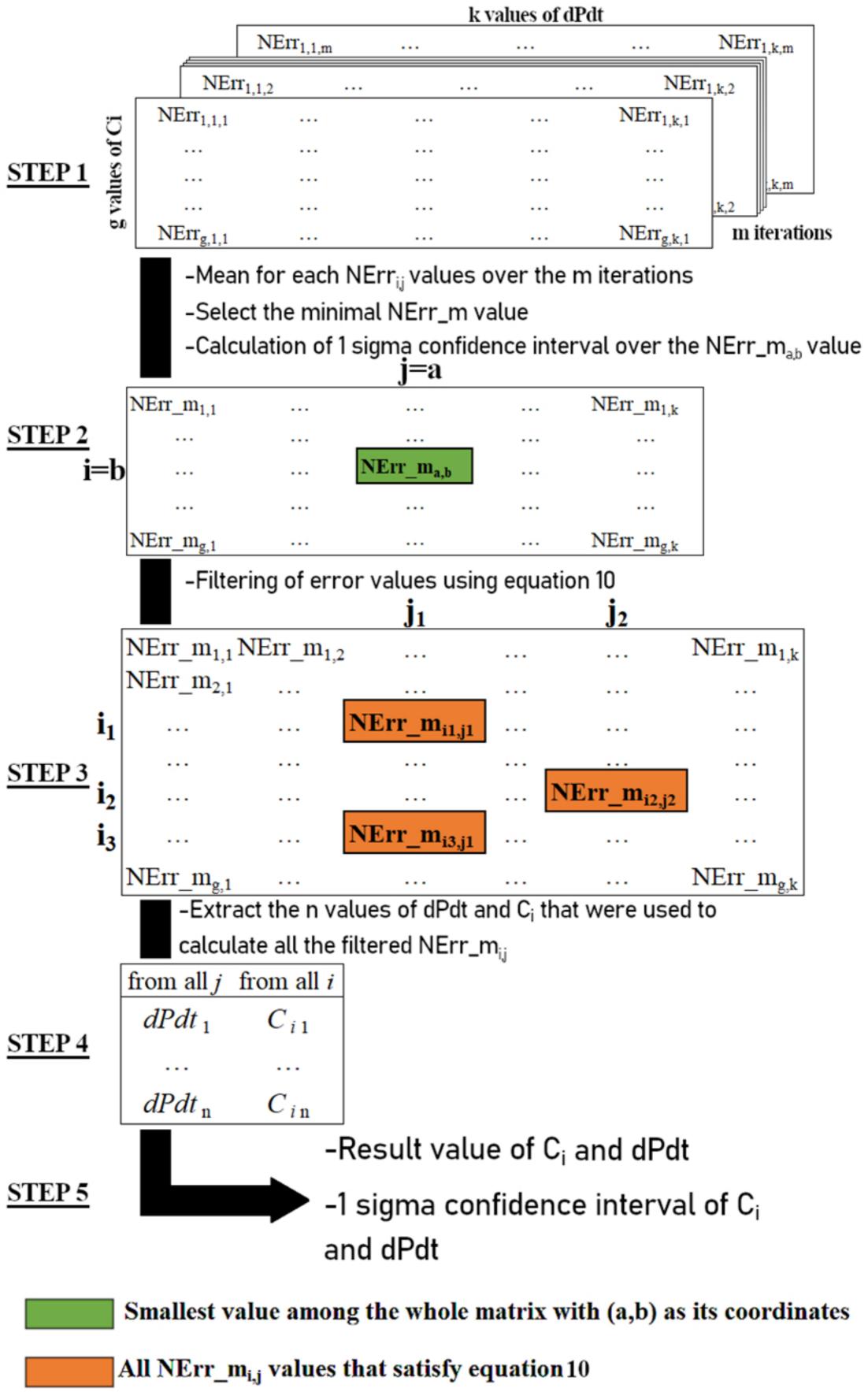
Tables

Table 1

Article	Architecture	Volatiles studied	Magmatic composition	H_2O diffusion coefficient	Input parameters	M_0 study	Availability		
Liu et al, 2007	FORTRAN 77	H ₂ O	Rhyolitic	a	$dPdt, C_i, T, M_0, P_f, P_0 *$	yes	On request		
Humphreys et al, 2008	COMSOL	H_2O	Rhyolitic	a; b	$\begin{array}{l} dPdt, C_i P_f, P_0,\\ T\ ^* \end{array}$				
Lloyd et al, 2014	n.d	H ₂ O,CO ₂ ,S	Intermediate	Self-determined empiric law	$dPdt$, P_f , P_0 , C_i , T^*				
Ferguson et al, 2016	MATLAB	H ₂ O,CO ₂ ,S	Basaltic	c	$gs(dPdt, C_i, M_0), P_f, P_0, T$	yes			
Myers et al, 2018	MATLAB	H ₂ O,CO ₂	Rhyolitic	a	$gs(dPdt, P_f, M_0), C_i, P_0, T$	yes	On request		
Moussallam et al, 2019	RStudio	H_2O	Basaltic	Constant (e)	$\begin{array}{l} dPdt, C_i, P_f, P_0,\\ T \end{array}$	yes	Publicly Available		
Newcombe et al, 2020	MATLAB	H ₂ O,CO ₂ ,S	Intermediate	d	$dPdt,M_0,P_{\rm f},\\P_0,T\ *$	yes			
EMBER (This study)	MATLAB	H ₂ O,CO ₂ ,S	Basaltic, Intermediate and Rhyolitic	e ; d ; a	$gs(dPdt, C_i, \\ M_0), P_f, P_0, T$	yes	Publicly Available		
a = [Zhang and Behrens, 2000]b = [Nowak and Behrens, 1997]		c = [Zhang et al., 2010] d = [Ni and Zhang, 2018]		e = [Freda et al., 2003] *unconfirmed use of a grid search					

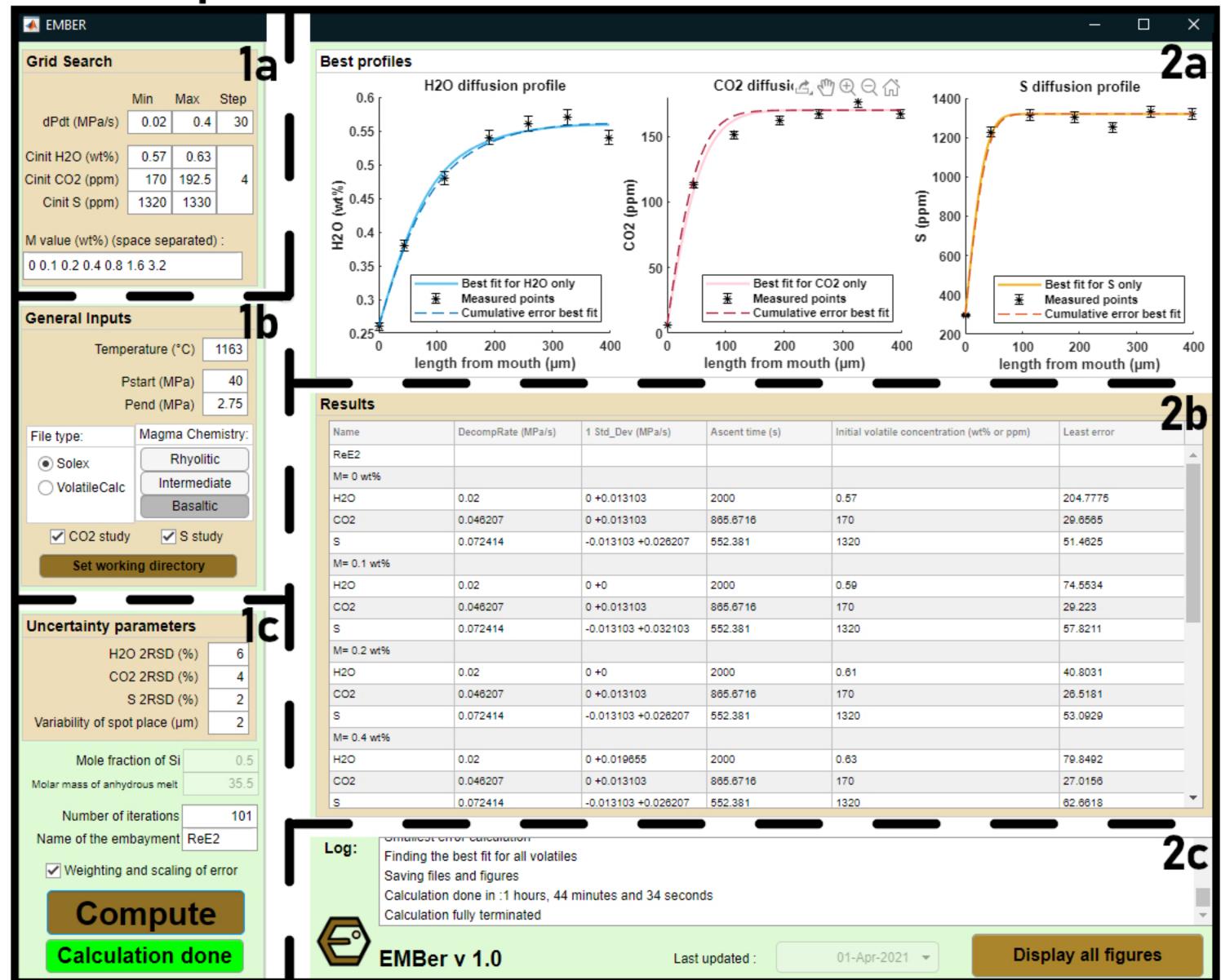
Table 2

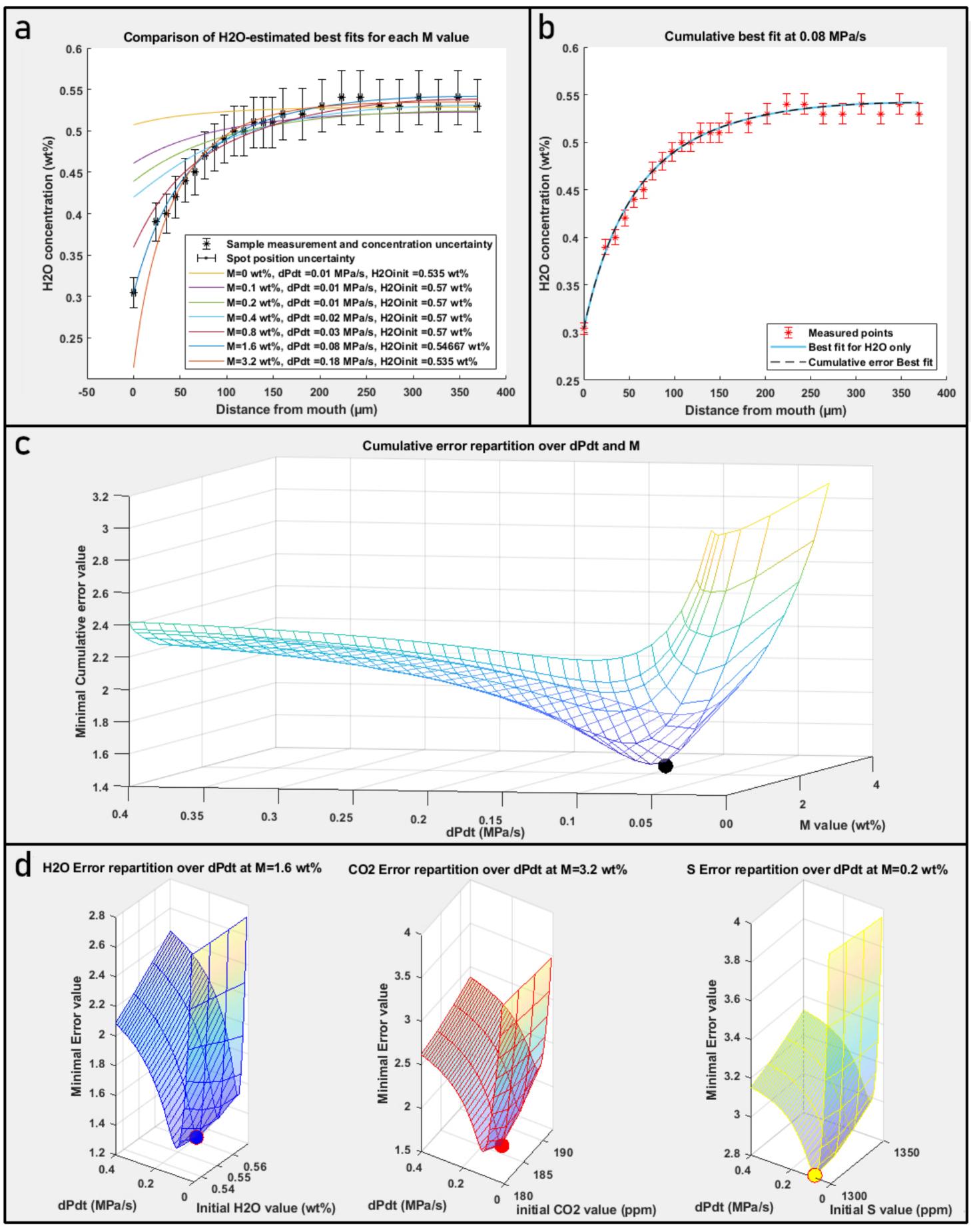
	Decompression rate (Mpa/s)		Assent vote (m/s)	Ascent rate (m/s) Initial concentration		ion	M (wt%)	Time of	Pstart (MPa) Pend (MPa)		T(°C)	Magnitude		
	H2O based	CO2 based	S based	all specie		H2O (wt%)	CO2 (ppm)	S (ppm)	WI (WL76)	ascension (s)	rstart (Mra)	rena (Mra)	1(-0)	Magnitude
Ferguson et al., 2016														
IkiE1	0.03 + 0.01	0.02 + 0.00	0.04 + 0.01	0.04 + 6	00 00 1.4	0.60 + 0.00	300 + 0	1390 + 0	0.1 + 0.1	2755	107	0.1	1192	1.5
ReticE1	0.08 + 0.03	0.09 + 0.02	0.08 + 0.04	0.00 + (02 01 2.9	0.55 + 0.00	184 + 0	1316 + 0	1.6 + 0.0	553	47	2.75	1163	2.5
ReticE2	0.07 + 0.03	0.03 + 0.01	0.40 + 0.00	0.06 + (02 2.1	0.57 + 0.00	170 + 0	1320 + 0	3.2 + 0.0	676	40	0.1	1163	2.5
KeaE1	0.28 + 0.10	0.11 + 0.04	0.35 + 0.25	0.26 + (9.3 9.3	0.52 + 0.03	265 + 5	1415 + 5	1.6 + 0.0	185	50	2	1160	2.6
Moussallam et al., 2019	- 0.03	- 0.01	- 0.10		-	- 0.00	- 0	- 0	- 0.0					
AO2	0.46 + 0.27				16.0	1.32 + 0.00			0.1 + 0.1	110	50	0.1	1150	3.3
AO13	0.12 + 0.03				4.2	1.15 + 0.00			1.6 + 1.6	253	30	0.1	1150	3.3
AO38	0.17 + 0.05		0.39 + 0.01	0.19 + 5	08 07 6.7	1.15 + 0.00		403 + 0	0.8 + 0.8 - 0.5	237	45	0.1	1150	3.3
Lloyd et al., 2014	- 0.03		- 0.16	. (17	- 0.00		- 0	- 0.5					
E1	0.24 + 0.01	0.03 + 0.00	0.01 + 0.00	0.06 + 6	13 2.2	4.00 + 0.00	100 + 0	1500 + 0	0.1 + 0.3	3333	202	2	1030	4.4
E2	1.07 + 0.29	0.10 + 0.00	0.01 - 0.00 0.13 + 0.34 - 0.03	0.20 + 6	02 03 11 1	2 20 + 0.10	150 + 3	1000 + 33	0.1	175	54.6	2	1030	4.4
E3	0.02 + 0.47	1 47 + 0.03	0.15 - 0.03	110 + 6	32 40.0	200 + 0.00	160 + 0	1900 - 0	16 + 1.6	69	78	2	1030	4.4
E4	0.25 + 0.08	0.20 + 0.13	0.46 + 0.01	044 +	01 16.2	200 + 0.00	170 + 0	2070 + 0	0.1 + 0.1	498	221	2	1030	4.4
Myers et al., 2018	0.55 - 0.05	0.28 - 0.08	0.40 - 0.27	(10.5	2.00 - 0.00	170 - 0	2070 - 0	0.1 - 0.0			=		
BTF7-1 RE no 2	0.021 + 0.002				0.8	3.70 + 0.10			0.4 + 2.8	3238	78	10	740	8.5
BT F2-5 RE no 1	0.003				1.6	2 00 + 0.00			1 6 + 1.6	1014	77	35	740	8.5
BTF8-2 RE no 1	0.010				10.7	5 00 + 0.00			0 1 + 1.5	264	131	59	740	8.5
P1963-6 RE no 1	0.007 + 0.002	0.0001 + 0.0004		0.002 + 0.	02 0.1	1 00 + 0.00	90 + 0		0 + 0.8	3846	38	13	780	8
P2305-F RE no 1	0.002	0.0001 - 0.000		0.002 - 0.	0.1	2 40 + 0.00	90 - 0		2 2 + 0.0	900	68	50	780	8
P1970-A RE no 6	0.068 + 0.058	0.010 + 0.004			72 1.2	2.40 + 0.10	90 + 10		0.1 + 0.7	515	89	54	780	8
MM4 RE no 12	0.003	0.001 + 0.000		0.005 + 0.	00 02	2.00 + 0.00	200 + 0		0.1	4934	85	40	800	9
MM7 RE no 10	0.004	0.000 + 0.000		0.012 + 0.	06 O.E	2 50 + 0.56	170 + 8		- 0.0	467	71	25	800	9
MM4 RE no 13	0.038	0.000		0.105 + 0.	81 4.1	2.00 + 0.00	200 + 0		+ 1.6	1272	98	10	800	9
Humphreys et al., 2008	0.069 - 0.018	0.152 - 0.080		0.103 - 0.	47 4.1	2.80 - 0.00	290 - 0		1.0 - 1.4	1272	20	10	800	,
KV518b-1	0.16 + 0.00				6.4	4.60 + 1.66			0	662	137	33	880	4.9
MSH1-3	0.00				9.3	6 50 + 0.00			0	481	137	27	880	4.9
MSH1-6	0.00				33.3	- 0.32			0	157	137	9	880	4.9
Moussallam et al. (2021)	0.02 - 0.02				33.3	0.50 - 0.48			· ·	157	137	,	880	4.9
	2.64 + 1.55		5.87 + 0.14	264 + 2	99.5	1.48 + 0.03		220 + 10	3.2 + 0.0	26	68	0.1	1110	4
AF2	- 1.27		- 2.90	2.04 - 1	55	- 0.03		- 10	- 0.4	64	34	0.1		4
AD5	0.49 - 0.08		0.14 - 0.04	0.55 - (14 19.9	1.05 - 0.10		950 - 100	0.1 - 0.1		34 37		1110	
AE38 PG11	0.11 - 0.02		0.01 - 0.00	0.11	13 4.2	1.03 - 0.00		707 + 33	- 0.0 + 1.6	335 68		0.1	1110	4
	1.70 + 0.87		0.10 + 0.06	1.70	56 59 64.1	1.80 + 0.20		/9/ - 17	1.6 + 1.6	68	115	0.1	1110	4
Myers et al, 2021	1.70 + 0.86					4.70 + 0.10								
18R1F	- 0.75				66.7	4.70 - 0.00			0	49	143	60	850	7.4
18R1O	- 0.40				66.7	4.30 - 0.00			0	55	119	26	850	7.4
18R2O	0.43 - 0.05				16.9	4.60 - 0.00			0	274	120	2	850	7.4
20R1O	0.47 - 0.08				18.4	3.33 - 0.03			0	153	77	5	850	7.4
11R6O	2.93 + 1.32				114.8	4.30 + 0.10			0	26	116	40	850	7.4



Part 1: Inputs

Part 2: Results





Decompression rate from the litterature (MPa/s)

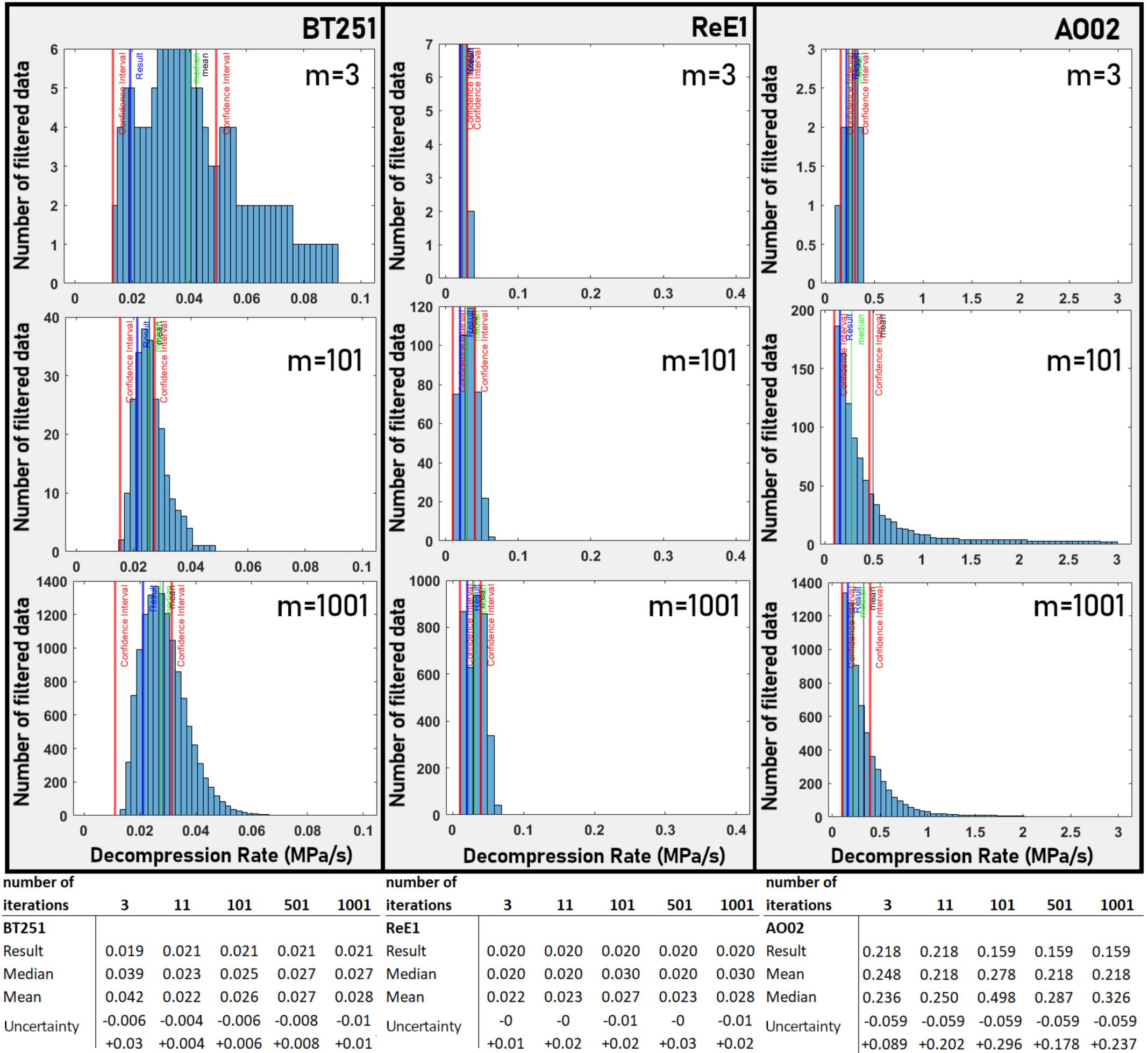


Figure	6.
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