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1	<b>REVISION 2</b>					
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3	Rapid solid-state sintering in volcanic systems					
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## Abstract

24	Solid-state sintering is a process wherein atomic diffusion along grain boundaries converts						
25	unconsolidated, crystalline aggregates into dense composites. It is a process that has largely been						
26	overlooked as significant to volcanic systems. Here, we present a preliminary suite of hot isostatic						
27	pressing experiments performed on naturally-occurring crystalline dacite powders that demonstrate the						
28	efficacy of solid-state sintering at elevated pressures (40, 70 MPa) and temperatures (700-900°C) over						
29	short timescales (2.5 days). The experimental products are dense, low-permeability rocks, supporting the						
30	hypothesis that solid-state sintering may be an important process that acts on timescales relevant to						
31	magma rise and eruption. We use the experimental data to constrain a preliminary model for the extent						
32	of densification as a function of temperature, confining pressure and time. Lastly, we present sintering						
33	maps relevant to the time-dependent loss of porosity and permeability in granular volcanic materials.						
34	Solid-state sintering is a densification process with the capacity to heal fluid-flow pathways in volcanic						
35	systems within months to years.						
36							
37	Keywords: experiments, modeling, hot isostatic pressing, permeability, Mount St. Helens, densification						
38							
39	Introduction						
40	All volcanic deposits contain void spaces, including pores, fractures, and the spaces between						
41	particles in volcaniclastic deposits. These spaces, when abundant and interconnected, facilitate flow of						
42	volcanic fluids and outgassing. However, voids in hot, subsurface volcanic deposits are generally						
43	ephemeral due to a variety of processes that reduce void space (densification). The best understood and						
44	most common densification process in volcanic systems is welding (compaction and viscous sintering of						
45	amorphous material) of pyroclastic deposits at temperatures above their glass transition temperature $(Tg)$						
46	(Giordano et al., 2005). Welding of volcanic deposits is well documented in nature (e.g., Smith, 1960)						
47	and the timescales are well constrained (Quane et al., 2009; Vasseur et al., 2013; Wadsworth et al.,						

58	Natural Occurrence: An Example from Mount St. Helens
57	
56	the short timescales (2.5 days) and the <i>P</i> - <i>T</i> conditions characteristic of volcanic settings.
55	isostatic pressing (HIP) experiments designed to test the feasibility of solid-state sintering occurring on
54	operate on timescales relevant to volcanic processes? To address this question, we present a set of hot
53	material competence) by solid-state sintering (Rahaman, 2003). The question is: can solid-state sintering
52	( <i>t</i> ) at these conditions facilitate both densification (loss of void space) and lithification (increase in
51	2003). As a diffusion-driven process, elevated temperatures $(T)$ and pressures $(P)$ , and substantial times
50	wherein adjacent crystalline particles become conjoined by diffusion at the grain boundaries (Rahaman,
49	welding. Rather, densification of crystalline (non-glassy) materials can occur by solid-state sintering
48	2017). In volcanic materials that are crystalline and lacking glass, densification does not occur by

## Natural Occurrence: An Example from Mount St. Helens

Magmas that ascend slowly (effusion rates of  $0.5-2 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  (Cashman et al., 2008)) degas. 59 60 crystallize and become nearly solidified within the volcanic conduit (Cashman et al., 2008). The 61 resulting crystal-rich, glass-poor magmas have high effective viscosities that promote fracturing and 62 cataclasis due to high shear stresses localized along the lava-wall rock interface (Lavallée et al., 2013). 63 As a result, the ascending magma and extruded lava are commonly encased by meter-scale cylindrical 64 fault zones comprising comminuted crystal-rich gouge (Cashman et al., 2008). In some cases, extruded 65 lava domes arrive at the surface still mantled by these fault zones (e.g., Mount Pelée (Martinique) 1902-3; Mount Unzen (Japan) 1990-5; Cashman et al., 2008). The lava spines produced during the 2004-8 66 67 eruption of Mount St. Helens also feature exhumed fault zones (Cashman et al., 2008). Notably, the fault 68 zones are not comprised exclusively of unconsolidated fault gouge, but show extreme variation in 69 physical and textural properties, ranging from unconsolidated powder to dense fault rock (i.e. 70 cataclasite) (Kendrick et al., 2012; Pallister et al., 2013; Gaunt et al., 2014; Ryan et al., 2018). 71 In prior work, we (Ryan et al., 2018) measured the porosity and permeability of variably 72 densified cataclasites from several spines at Mount St. Helens (Table S1) and, based on these

73	measurements and observations of the eruption, concluded that (1) the initially unconsolidated gouge					
74	densified during ascent in the conduit from $\sim$ 1 km depth, and (2) the extent of densification depended on					
75	the subsurface residence time (2.5 to 16 months). One explanation for the most densified material in the					
76	fault zone is that it results from localized frictional melting caused by seismogenic slip events (Kendrick					
77	et al., 2012). Rapid slip events cause heating and melting of portions of the fault zone, resulting in the					
78	formation of thin low-porosity glassy pseudotachylite veins (Kendrick et al., 2014). Ryan et al. (2018)					
79	put forward an alternate conceptual model, proposing that the textural heterogeneity of the exhumed					
80	glass-free cataclasites, which grade from variably indurated gouge layers to low-porosity fault rocks, can					
81	be simply due to solid-state sintering occurring in the conduit.					
82	Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) of the Mount St. Helens cataclasites shows densification					
83	and lithification to involve coalescence, without melting, of crystalline particles. Small particles ${<}10~\mu m$					
84	in diameter $(d)$ , often concentrated along the edge of larger particles, are joined by necks of crystalline					
85	material (Fig. 1a,b,c,d; Fig. S1). The patches of coalesced material form a crude framework, and reduce					
86	the space between larger particles, leaving only small irregular pores in the consolidated matrix (Fig. 1;					
87	Fig. S1). The competence of the formerly unconsolidated gouge increases as the proportion of coalesced					
88	materials increases.					

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#### **Hot Isostatic Pressing Experiments**

To assess the feasibility of solid-state sintering occurring in volcanic settings, including within conduits, we ran a series of hot isostatic pressing (HIP) experiments, using unconsolidated samples of sieved crystalline gouge from Mount St. Helens as the starting material. The mineral assemblage of the gouge includes plagioclase, potassic feldspar, silica polymorphs, amphibole, orthopyroxene and FeTi oxides (Pallister et al. 2008, 2013; Table S2). Notably there is no glass – the groundmass is "an extremely fine-grained mosaic of microlites" (Pallister et al., 2013). We provide the mineralogy and the particle size distributions of the starting material and the experimental products in Supplement S2.

98	Experimental P-T conditions were 40 and 70 MPa, and 700-900°C, respectively (Table 1). The low						
99	isostatic pressures and temperatures do not allow of plastic flow (Rybacki and Dresen, 2004) or melting,						
100	and favor densification over grain coarsening (Rahaman, 2003). Experimental conditions were chosen to						
101	map densification efficiency across a part of <i>P</i> - <i>T</i> space relevant to shallow conduits and lava domes.						
102	Four aliquots of dacite powder (45-48 g each) were sintered using an AIP-630H hot isostatic						
103	press at the Department of Materials Science and Engineering at the University of Sheffield (UK).						
104	Powders were compressed in air at 25°C in steel cylinders ( $\sim$ 3.5 × 3.8 cm) using a hydraulic press (1.8						
105	kPa applied stress). Canisters were heated under a vacuum (~5 Pa) and remained at 180°C for 24 hours,						
106	then sealed. During experiments, single sealed canister were simultaneously heated (10°C/min) and						
107	pressurized with argon gas (0.50-0.88 MPa/min) to the prescribed conditions (Table 1). Canisters						
108	remained at <i>P-T</i> condition for 2.5 days before cooling (10°C/min) and venting (0.50-0.88 MPa/min).						
109	We measured the density of the starting material, and the density and connected porosity of the						
110	experimental products (Table 1) using a Micromeritics AccuPyc II 1340 helium pycnometer, and						
111	permeability using a benchtop gas (nitrogen) permeameter (Table 1; method in Supplement S3).						
112							
113	Results						
114	SEM images of the experimental products show HIPing produced the same microstructures in all						
115	densified materials, but that higher P or T increased the efficacy of coalescence (Fig. 1; Fig. S4). Small						
116	particles (d<10 µm) dominate our experimental material (Fig. S2), and, as in the Mount St. Helens						
117	samples, this size fraction forms the framework in the sintered material. Again coalescence is						
118	accomplished by the formation of thin necks of crystalline material between adjacent small particles,						
119	commonly localized along the edges of larger particles (Fig. 1h).						
120	Relative density ( $\rho_r$ ) is the ratio of sample bulk density ( $\rho_b$ ) to the true density of the powder ( $\rho_p$ ),						
121	and is the conventional metric for tracking sintering (e.g., Rahaman, 2003). Relative density increases						
122	with greater sintering, approaching the limiting value of 1. Measured values of $\rho_r$ for our experimental						

123 products increase as *P* and *T* increase, indicative of more extensive particle-particle sintering (Fig. 2a;

Table 1). An additional implication is that total porosity ( $\phi = 1 - \rho_r$ ; Rahaman, 2003) decreases with

- 125 increased sintering and as *P* and *T* increase.
- 126 The permeability (*k*) of the experimental products also decreases with increased sintering and
- 127 decreasing  $\phi$ . Values of  $\phi$ -k for the experimental products parallel the measurements on natural samples
- 128 from Ryan et al. (2018) (Fig. 2b; Table 1), and the  $\phi$ -k relationships are described well by the
- 129 permeability model of Wadsworth et al. (2017) (Fig. 2b).
- 130 The (1) microstructural similarities between the natural and experimental samples (Fig. 1), and
- 131 (2) parallel  $\phi$ -*k* trends suggest that the HIP experiments reproduce the densification and lithification
- 132 process that occurred within the Mount St. Helens conduit (i.e. solid-state sintering). Sintering in the
- 133 experimental and natural settings was facilitated by extended time at the elevated *P*-*T* conditions

134 supplied by the HIP apparatus and volcanic conduit, respectively.

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- 136

#### **Densification Model**

137 We use our data to constrain a preliminary predictive model for solid-state sintering of

138 crystalline granular material at elevated *T* and *P*. The base form of the model is an empirical

139 semilogarithmic relationship between  $\rho_r$  and *t* (e.g., Coble, 1961; Vieira and Brook, 1984):

140 
$$\rho_r = \rho_0 + \alpha \ln\left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right) \qquad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

141 where  $\rho_0$  is the relative density at t<sub>0</sub>. The fit parameter,  $\alpha$ , varies with the *P* and *T* (Rahaman, 2003). This

142 "semilogarithmic law" between  $\rho_r$  and t has been shown to be applicable to experimental sintering data,

- 143 irrespective of the sintering material or mechanism, or whether grains grow as a result of sintering
- 144 (Vieira and Brook, 1984; Rahaman, 2003).

We modify Eq. 1 to include explicitly the *P*-*T* dependence of  $\alpha$  (cf. Supplement S3) subject to the boundary condition  $\rho_r = \rho_i / \rho_p$  at t = 1 s, where  $\rho_i$  is the bulk density of the starting material prior to the experiment (Table 1). Thus, for  $t \ge 1$  s, densification is described by:

148 
$$\rho_r = \frac{\rho_i}{\rho_p} + a \, \exp\left(\frac{b}{T}\right) P^c \ln(t) \qquad \text{Eq. (2)}$$

where *P* is pressure (MPa), *T* is temperature (K), and *t* is time (s). Although, our experiments have a single experimental time, we take advantage of the robust empirical relationship between *t* and  $\rho_r$  in Eq. 1, and the large differences in  $\rho_r$  achieved at different *P*-*T* conditions to fit Eq. 2 to the experimental data for the adjustable parameters ( $a = 0.039 \pm 0.019$ ;  $b = -3064 \pm 290$ ;  $c = 0.482 \pm 0.064$ ).

153 Supplement 3 contains further explanation of our derivation of Eq. 2. To avoid using the model

154 at conditions where it is not suitable, we (1) follow the work of Vieira and Brook (1984) and limit its

application to the intermediate stage of sintering, before pores become isolated ( $\rho_r \sim 0.97$ ,  $\phi \sim 0.03$ ;

156 Wadsworth et al., 2017), and (2) do not apply the model far from our experimental *P*-*T* conditions.

157 Nonetheless, this preliminary model (Eq. 2) provides a means to explore the first order implications of

158 solid-state sintering for volcanic systems as a function of temperature, pressure, and time.

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- 160

## **Densification and Permeability Loss**

161 We use Eq. 2 to create preliminary *sintering maps* (e.g., Ashby, 1974) illustrating the relative 162 influences of P, T and t on  $\rho_r$  (Fig. 3). The model reproduces our data well; the experiments plot on the 163 contours for 2.5-days (our experiment time) to within experimental uncertainty (Fig. 3). To predict the 164 concomitant loss of permeability as a result of sintering, we combine our time-dependent densification 165 model with Wadsworth et al.'s (2017) model for permeability (k) evolution in densifying granular 166 materials. Our sintering maps are contoured in time for, both, densification and permeability reduction, and track the sintering process from an unconsolidated state ( $\rho_i/\rho_p \sim 0.6$ ,  $\phi \sim 0.4$ ) to a densified ( $\rho_r =$ 167 168 0.97,  $\phi = 0.03$ ) state (Fig. 3). Increasing T and P results in densification and k loss over shorter 169 timescales. Notably the time to densify the material is short: after weeks at moderate volcanic conditions

170	(850°C, 20 MPa), modeled values of $\rho_r$ have increased to 0.85 and <i>k</i> has decreased by more than an
171	order of magnitude, respectively (Fig. 3a).
172	We use this approach to model the <i>P</i> - <i>T</i> - <i>t</i> -dependent reduction of permeability of crystalline
173	granular material in an idealized volcanic conduit or edifice (Fig. 3c). At 55 MPa (~2 km depth),
174	sintering reduces $\phi$ to ~0.1 and <i>k</i> by 1.5 orders of magnitude in months. With increasing pressure (e.g.,
175	75 MPa; $\sim$ 3 km depth) the material is sintered more efficiently, and becomes effectively impermeable ( <i>k</i>
176	$< 10^{-16}$ m <sup>2</sup> ), thereby creating a "closed system" (i.e. Collinson and Neuberg, 2012) in less than a year.
177	
178	Implications
179	Welding (viscous sintering of amorphous material) results in the rapid densification of melt-rich
180	(i.e. glassy) volcanic materials, and reduces the porosity and permeability of pyroclastic deposits in
181	hours to days (e.g., Quane et al., 2009; Vasseur et al., 2013; Heap et al., 2015b; Wadsworth et al., 2017).
182	This process is accelerated by the presence of H <sub>2</sub> O-rich fluids (Sparks et al., 1999). Welding, therefore,
183	plays a primary role in the healing of tuffisite veins, pyroclastic deposits, or obsidian flows (e.g., Tuffen
184	et al., 2003; Kolzenburg and Russell, 2014; Kendrick et al., 2016; Farquharson et al., 2017). For
185	example, welding of intra-conduit deposits is recognized as a means for increasing the potential for
186	explosive activity by reducing permeability and outgassing efficiency, thereby, promoting re-
187	pressurization of the volcanic system (Quane et al., 2009; Kolzenburg and Russell, 2014; Farquharson et
188	al., 2017).
189	Solid-state sintering represents an alternative process that can drive porosity and permeability
190	loss and can account for re-pressurization of a volcanic conduit and cyclical explosive behavior. Our
191	experiments demonstrate that the lifetime of permeable pathways in crystalline granular materials can be
192	on the order of weeks to months (Fig. 3). These modeled timescales coincide with the observed intervals
193	between explosive outgassing events at dome-building volcanoes: for example, during the 1995-9
194	eruption of Soufrière Hills, small ash-venting explosions occurred every 5-6 weeks (Norton et al., 2002).

195	These events were attributed to the periodic resealing and re-pressurization of the conduit (Norton et al.,						
196	2002). Similarly, outgassing events at Mount St. Helens in January and March 2005 were proposed to be						
197	explosive releases of accumulating gas pressure (Rowe et al., 2008). The material ejected was primarily						
198	fault gouge (Cashman et al., 2008; Rowe et al., 2008), some of which appears to have densified by solid						
199	state sintering prior to explosive fragmentation and ejection (see Figure 12 of Rowe et al. (2008)). This						
200	is compelling evidence of solid-state sintering modulating eruptive behavior.						
201	Although timescales for permeability loss during viscous compaction are significantly shorter,						
202	our analysis demonstrates that even at shallow depths, low temperatures, and under anhydrous						
203	conditions, crystalline materials sinter rapidly within days, and will continue to densify for months (Fig						
204	3). These results highlight the extremely ephemeral nature of permeability not only in the volcanic						
205	conduit, but also in fractured or crushed crystalline material held to moderate temperatures and						
206	pressures, such as fractures within volcanic edifices (e.g. Heap et al., 2015a) and faults associated with						
207	calderas (e.g. Hurwitz and Lowenstern, 2014). We submit that the maximum longevity of permeable						
208	pathways in many of these settings is of the order of months.						
209							
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## 298 **Table 1**

Experimental Conditions				<u>15</u>	-	Physical Properties			
Sample		Pressure	Temperature	Time	Bulk Density	Relative Density	Total Porosity	Permeability	
		(P, MPa)	(T, °C)	(t, h)	$(\rho_b,kg/m^3)^{\ a}$	$\left(\rho_r = \rho_b \ / \ \rho_p \right)^{\ b}$	$(\phi = 1 - \rho_r)^c$	$(k, m^2)^{d}$	
HIP1	а	70	900	60	2332	0.859	0.141	$1.02 \times 10^{-15}$	
	b				2341	0.862	0.138	$9.88\times10^{16}$	
HIP2	а	70	800	60	2202	0.811	0.189	$3.95\times10^{15}$	
	b				2207	0.813	0.187	$3.48\times10^{15}$	
HIP3	a	40	800	60	2073	0.763	0.237	$9.12 \times 10^{-15}$	
	b				2062	0.759	0.241	$9.67 \times 10^{-15}$	
HIP4	a	40	700	60	1923	0.708	0.292	$1.87 \times 10^{-14}$	
	b				1901	0.700	0.300	$1.66 \times 10^{-14}$	

 $^{a}\rho_{b} = m/(\pi r^{2} l)$  using the mass (m), radius (r) and length (l) of the sample core. Initial bulk density ( $\rho_{i}$ ): 1602 kg/m<sup>3</sup>.

 $^{b}$   $\rho_{p}$  is powder density (2716 kg/m³).

<sup>c</sup> Isolated porosities are <0.01.

<sup>d</sup> Steady-state measurement (see Methods). Forchheimer correction applied.

## 299

## **300 Figure Captions:**

# **Figure 1: SEM images of sintered of crystalline particles in natural and experimental materials.**

302 Mount St. Helens samples (a-d) and HIP products (e-h) show coalescence of small (<10 µm)

303 plagioclase (light grey) and silica (dark grey) particles on the edge of larger particles, and within

304 open void space. Sintering isolates small irregular pores between sintered particles. Low porosity

305 materials (**b,c,d,f,g,h**) have greater proportions of sintered material that bind larger particles, and

306 reduce inter-particle space. White boxes in (**b**,**e**) show locations of (**c**,**f**). Scale bars are in

307 micrometers.

**Figure 2: Physical properties of HIP products. (a)** Relative density (ρ<sub>r</sub>; Table 1) of HIP products

309 sintered at different experimental temperatures and pressures (open: 40 MPa; filled: 70 MPa).

- 310 Average total porosities are shown in parentheses. Initial condition:  $\rho_r = 0.59$  (porosity = 0.41).
- 311 Densification limit:  $\rho_r = 1$  (porosity = 0). Error bars are  $1\sigma$  propagated uncertainties. (b)
- 312 Measured and modeled permeability against total porosity. The permeability of HIP products
- 313 (circles) and Mount St. Helens samples (diamonds; Ryan et al., 2018) decrease by 1.3-2.1 orders

- of magnitude over the same porosity interval. Curves are Wadsworth et al. (2017) model
- 315 showing the relationship between permeability and total porosity at specified radii (contour
- 316 labels).
- 317 Figure 3: Sintering maps and timescales for healing by solid-state sintering. (a,b) Sintering maps
- 318 showing the effect of temperature (*T*) on sintering time (contour) at a pressure (P = 40 MPa) (a)
- and the effect of P on sintering time (T = 800 °C) (b). Modeled permeabilities decrease non-
- 320 linearly with increasing relative density; dotted line marks the relative density (0.97) where pores
- in the material become isolated and materials have permeabilities  $<10^{-18}$  m<sup>2</sup> (Wadsworth et al.,
- 322 2017). Experimental data (circles) sit on 2.5 day contour. (c). Contours show time to reduce
- material porosity and permeability at a given pressure/depth (density =  $\rho_p$  = 2716 kg/m<sup>3</sup>; T = 850
- $^{\circ}$ C; particle size = 5 µm). Thick line shows the initial condition. As pressure/depth increase
- 325 sintering time decreases, and the material loses porosity and permeability more quickly, until it is
- 326 rendered effectively impermeable ( $<10^{-18} \text{ m}^2$ ).



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