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11 Fracturing and healing of basaltic magmas during explosive volcanic eruptions

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- 26 Main text
- 27 The eruption of basaltic magmas dominates explosive volcanism on Earth and other planets
- 28 within the Solar System. The mechanism through which continuous magma fragments into

volcanic particles is central in governing eruption dynamics and the ensuing hazards. However, the mechanism of fragmentation of basaltic magmas is still disputed, with both viscous and brittle mechanisms having been proposed. Here we carry out textural analysis of the products of ten eruptions from seven volcanoes by Scanning Electron Microscope. We find broken crystals surrounded by intact glass that testify to the brittle fragmentation of basaltic magmas during explosive activity worldwide. We then replicated the natural textures of broken crystals in laboratory experiments where variably crystallised basaltic melt was fragmented by rapid deformation. The experiments reveal that crystals are broken by the propagation of a network of fractures through magma, and that afterwards the fractures heal by viscous flow of the melt. Fracturing and healing affect gas mobility, stress distribution, and bubble and crystal size distributions in magma. Our results challenge the idea that the grain size distribution of basaltic eruption products reflects the density of fractures that initially fragmented the magma and ultimately indicate that brittle fracturing and viscous healing of magma may underlie basaltic explosive eruptions globally.

The eruption of fragmental magma of basaltic composition is the most frequent type of explosive volcanism on Earth and in the Solar System¹⁻³. Eruptions span from centuries of persistent, weak explosions, through days to months of lava fountains and ash emissions, to rare, global-scale catastrophic events^{4,5}. Explosive eruptions occur when continuous magma is fragmented into volcanic particles – or pyroclasts. Fragmentation boosts the expansion of the gas phase present in the magma, converting magma internal energy into eruptive kinetic energy and determining the size distribution and dispersal of pyroclasts^{2,6–8}. In turn, these parameters critically determine the hazards posed by explosive eruptions, from the life-claiming fallout of volcanic bombs close to the volcano^{9,10} to the regional-scale atmospheric dispersal of volcanic ash and its impact on air traffic, public health, infrastructures, and climate^{11–14}.

While several criteria exist for the fragmentation of more viscous magmas^{15–19}, the fragmentation of basaltic magmas is still hotly debated. It has often been attributed to the viscous thinning of magma by fluid-dynamic instabilities^{8,20–22}, but also to the brittle failure of magma without appreciable viscous deformation, mainly in eruptions driven by magma-water interaction²³ or crystal-rich magmas in violent eruptions^{2,23–27}. Energetic considerations and clast morphology suggest that basaltic ash particles may result from brittle fragmentation^{28–30}, but textural evidences may also record later-stage processes overprinting the original fragmentation, including particle collision and recycling inside volcanic vents³¹. Uncertainties as to which fragmentation criterion is more appropriate for basaltic magmas, or if a single criterion can satisfy their broad spectrum of eruption styles, are hindering our capability to understand and model basaltic explosive volcanism on Earth and elsewhere.

Here we demonstrate that broken crystals found inside basaltic pyroclasts offer robust proof for the brittle fragmentation of basaltic magmas. Features of these broken crystals are reproduced experimentally, revealing that fragmentation occurs through the propagation of a network of branching fractures during rapid deformation of magma. Both in the experiments and in nature, fracturing is followed by viscous healing which masks the fractures, leaving broken crystals as the only preserved traces in the magma. We found broken crystals in the products of ten eruptions spanning a wide range of activity style and magma composition, indicating that brittle fracturing and viscous healing of basaltic magmas is common over the entire spectrum of eruption explosivity.

Features of broken crystals in basalt

Broken crystals of plagioclase, pyroxene, olivine, and Fe-Ti-oxides, 1-500 μ m in size, are ubiquitously found in the products of ten explosive eruptions encompassing styles from Strombolian to paroxysmal and violent Strombolian, with ash-poor to ash-rich plumes from 0.1 to 6 km high and magma discharge rates from 10^2 to 10^6 kg s⁻¹, compositions from basanite to basaltic andesite, and crystallinity from 2 to

54 vol. % (see Methods and Extended Data Table 1). Broken crystals occur in millimetre-sized zones often localized at the margins of pyroclasts (Fig. 1, Extended Data Fig. 1a), but also, with no noticeable difference, as scattered individuals, appearing in ~10-20 % of the whole area investigated. They are found in pyroclasts from 10 µm to 0.5 m across, but more commonly in ash-sized (< 2 mm) than lapilli-(2-64 mm) or bomb-sized (>64 mm) ones. In general, broken crystals lie within an intact groundmass. Fractures in broken crystals can be glassfilled or open, with straight, curved, irregular, jigsaw, stepped, and branched morphologies and multiple fracture generations (Fig. 1a-d, Extended Data Fig. 2, and Supplementary Data 1 and 2). Open fractures range from small, rounded vesicles inside glass fillings, to irregular vesicles larger than the whole crystal (Fig. 1g-k). Fracture density can be >2x10³ fractures per mm² (Extended Data Fig. 1a), and varies from a single fracture per crystal, to fractures with micron- to sub-micron spacing in shattered crystals (Fig. 1f). Crystal fragments are displaced in all directions after fracturing, pulling apart being always evident in open fractures, and rotation being also common (Extended Data Fig. 1b, Extended Data Fig. 2g-j). Occasionally, flow banding of Fe-rich glass filaments evidences melt flow after fracturing (Extended Data Fig. 2f,g). Open fractures occasionally extend beyond crystals and into the glass and even into vesicles, with smooth margins indicative of melt viscous flow after fracturing (Fig. 1m,n). Several such fractures are interconnected by Fe-rich glass filaments, remains of a longer fracture partially healed (Fig. 11,m), as previously reported³². Extensive fracture healing leaves behind only an alignment of small vesicles,

Experimental constrains on the origin of broken crystals

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In order to understand the processes responsible for their formation, broken crystals were reproduced in laboratory fragmentation experiments following Büttner and co-authors³³ (Fig. 2). Basaltic pyroclasts

crystal fragments, and Fe-rich glass filaments (Fig. 10 and Extended Data Fig. 2e,f).

were melted in a steel crucible at 1275 °C and then left to crystallize for variable time at 1160 °C until obtaining variable degrees of crystallinity (3-63 vol. %, Extended Data Table 1). After cooling to 1080 °C, similar to the eruptive temperature³⁴, sudden injection of compressed Argon gas at the base of the sample caused its doming, fracturing, and fragmentation (see Supplementary Video 1). High-speed imaging (Fig. 2a-d) and calculations suggest maximum syn-fracturing elongation strain rates of the sample of 10²-10³ s⁻¹ over length scales of a few millimetres³³. Experimental fragments, microns to centimetres in size and fluidal to blocky in shape, display variable crystallinity, larger fragments retaining some of the fractures captured by high-speed imaging during deformation (Fig. 2e,f).

Near the sample surface, fractures display sharp, jagged outlines indicative of their brittle origin, transitioning into smooth, sinuous outlines due to viscous flow in the sample interior (Fig. 2f, Fig. 3a-e, and Extended Data Fig. 3a). Melt flowing into the fractures occasionally formed isolated vesicles (Fig. 3a and Extended Data Fig. 3b,c) and vesicle alignments (Fig. 3f-I and Extended Data Fig. 3j).

In the products from all experiments, fractures and fracture-derived vesicles are surrounded, for some millimetres, by broken crystals otherwise missing elsewhere. Features of broken crystals are the same as in volcanic products, including open and glass-filled fractures and Fe-rich glass filaments (Fig. 3e-m and Extended Data Fig. 3g-o). Transitions among fractures, fracture-derived vesicles, and open and glass-filled fractures in broken crystals are abundant (Fig. 3c-e and Extended Data Fig. 3d-f). A hierarchy of fractures exists, their width and length decreasing away from the largest fractures.

Broken crystals are found in all experimental products, independent of sample zone (e.g., surface, interior, or periphery) and crystallinity differences. As in natural products, also in the experimental ones broken crystals and the associated textures are more abundant in smaller fragments and in fragment's periphery. Quantitative fracture parameters in natural and experimental products are nearly undistinguishable within their internal variability, fractures mostly ranging $0.02\text{-}10~\mu\text{m}$ in width, $0.2\text{-}10~\mu\text{m}$ in widt

100 µm in length, 1-100 in aspect ratio, 1-1.5 in tortuosity, and open fractures being larger than glass-filled ones (Fig. 4).

Fracturing and healing of basaltic magmas

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Broken crystals in volcanic rocks have been previously attributed to multiple causes, including flow shear, shock wave and impact fragmentation, and brittle magma failure^{35–39}. The transition that we observed between fractures in melt and in crystals cannot be explained by shear flow, which would break crystals without fracturing melt. Our fragmentation experiments illustrate effectively how the textures of broken crystals are formed by brittle fracturing. Gas injection from below imposes a complex stress field to the expanding sample, which undergoes brittle failure through the propagation of tensional fractures³³ (Fig. 2). These fractures form a branching network that cuts through the melt and breaks the crystals (Fig. 3). Matching parameters and textures in the experimental and natural products show that brittle fracturing occurs also in basaltic magmas during explosive eruptions. There, broken crystals form when a network of branching fractures propagates through magma, larger fractures bounding individual pyroclasts, smaller ones propagating only a short distance into magma (Fig. 5). Accordingly, broken crystals are more common in smaller particles and along the margins of larger ones, where fracture density in magma was higher. Analogies with the experimental products (Fig. 3k-m) and the presence of open fractures and elongation features (Fig. 1i,j,k) suggest that fragmenting magma undergoes rapid extension. This may occur repeatedly both inside and outside the volcanic conduit according to the specific dynamics of the different eruption styles. Magma ascent, gas pockets expansion, hydrodynamic instabilities, and drag with gas and air may all result in local stress and strain rate exceeding those required for brittle fracturing 8,22,26,40. The strain rates in our experiments are a factor of two to three higher than those required for the brittle fracturing of basaltic melts at crystal volume fractions close to maximum packing²⁶ (~1 s⁻¹), but both in the experiments and in

eruptions brittle fracturing occurred also at much lower crystal fractions (2-3 vol. %) as testified by the presence of broken crystals.

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After fracturing, viscous flow of the melt heals — partially or completely — the fractures. Flow and healing must occur before the melt quenches below its glass transition temperature. The duration of the time interval between fracturing and cooling, and the local melt flow velocity, function of its viscosity, surface tension, and local pressure gradient, determine the maximum width of fractures that can be healed. Thinner fractures heal faster, leaving glass-filled broken crystals. Wider fractures heal slower and can leave open fractures in the crystals (Fig. 4).

The time elapsed between melt fracturing and quenching depends on the travel time of magma from its fracturing depth to its ejection and cooling into the atmosphere, function of clast size⁴¹. Fracturing depth, rise speed, and clast size thus determine the potential for the preservation of fractures in pyroclasts. The time scales relevant for our natural and experimental case studies are those for fracture propagation (<10⁻⁴ s), fracture healing by surface tension (10⁻⁴-1 s), travel of the fractured magma before clast formation (0 to $>10^3$ s) and from clast formation to ejection (10^{-2} -10 s), and cooling after ejection (1-10² s) (see Methods). Fractures larger than ~10 µm seem to effectively break magma into pyroclasts, because such fractures are rare in broken crystals (Fig. 4). If a 10 µm-wide fracture requires ~1 s to heal, and pyroclasts travel at a velocity of ~100 m s⁻¹ to the surface where they cool (see Methods), then pyroclast formation should occur at a depth that can be tentatively placed in the order of 100 m or less. Deeper pyroclast formation would increase the chances of fractures larger than 10 µm being healed and preserved. Incomplete fracturing of magma may still occur at greater depth, but the resulting increased fracture healing and larger spreading of crystal fragments could render it hardly detectable, unless fractures were preserved by rapid quenching due to, e.g., in-conduit contact with external water³². To the extreme, complete healing in the conduit could result in fragmented magma

contributing to lava effusion, as suggested by textural evidence and modelling for more silicic eruptions^{39,42}.

Magma fracturing and healing unavoidably impact eruption evolution and products. Added crystal fragments could increase magma viscosity and non-Newtonian behaviour⁴³. Added fractures provide new pathways for magma outgassing^{24,32,44,45} and new surface for volatile diffusion, thus favouring magma degassing. Healing fractures can trap small bubbles in magma and crystals⁴⁶. Overall, the size distribution of both crystals and vesicles inside pyroclasts will be affected, thus impacting the results of two well-established forensic tools in volcanology^{47,48}.

It is a long-standing paradigm that the size distribution of pyroclasts reflects the efficiency of magma fragmentation², higher fragmentation energy leading to higher fracture density and inevitably to smaller pyroclasts⁴⁹. Fracture healing implies that only a fraction of the fractures that propagate through magma, and of the energy consumed by fragmentation, contribute to the formation of new particles⁷. Many of the healed fractures in broken crystals are a few microns or less apart. If unhealed, such fractures would be prone to later reactivation during, e.g., collisions between pyroclasts, resulting in the formation of ash particles of comparable small size. Fracture healing may be a crucial factor in reducing the abundance of hazardous fine-grained ash particles in the products of basaltic explosive eruptions.

Despite having been previously suggested^{24,25,29,32} and recently modelled^{26,27,30} for specific cases, the generalised brittle fragmentation of basaltic magmas remained unproved so far. The broken crystals and accompanying textures that we found provide direct evidence in this regard. It is remarkable how the same fragmentation textures were found in ash- to bomb-sized products from ten eruptions that differ by magma composition, tectonic setting, and multiple orders of magnitude in the volume, mass ejection rate, dispersal, and average grain size distribution of erupted products. Similar textures, and

possibly also unrecognised broken crystals, appear in previous literature covering many other eruptions spanning Hawaiian lava fountains, catastrophic Plinian events, and more^{32,50–58}. Fracturing and healing are common in silicic magmas^{17,39,59}, but were not considered feasible in basaltic ones⁶⁰ until recently³². We conclude that brittle fragmentation and subsequent healing are not limited to magma-water-driven or catastrophic eruptions or the formation of basaltic ash, but are ubiquitous factors controlling basaltic explosive volcanism.

Data availability

A selection of 317 microphotographs detailing pyroclast textures related to the fracturing and healing of basaltic magmas in explosive volcanic eruptions and in fragmentation experiments is provided as Supplementary Information and is available at Mendeley Data, V1, doi: 10.17632/h5ynspf336.1, while the entire dataset of more than 2100 microphotographs is available upon request from J.T. The data used in Fig. 4 and Extended Data Fig. 1 and Extended Data Table 1 are available at Mendeley Data, V1, doi: 10.17632/38rss8f2yb.1 and presented in the Source data. Source data are provided with this paper.

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- 341 Author contributions. JT conceptualized this study, contributed to sample collection and
- fragmentation experiments, and performed the majority of FESEM analyses. CC, MAAI, and HDG
- contributed to conceptualize the study and to sample collection and FESEM analyses. DA, PS, EDB,
- and FDS contributed to sample collection and FESEM analyses. All authors wrote the manuscript
- 345 together.
- 346 **Competing interests.** The authors declare no competing interest.
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- Taddeucci (email: jacopo.taddeucci@ingv.it).

349 Figure Captions

- Fig. 1: Scanning electron micrographs of broken crystals and healing fractures in volcanic particles
- from different eruptions. a-f): Crystals with increasing density and complexity of melt-filled fractures,

fractures with small vesicles to largely open, multiple fractures. 1-o): Melt- and crystal-breaking fractures with increasing degrees of healing, from fractures with sharp boundaries (1), through partly healed fractures surrounded by viscously deformed melt (m,n), to completely healed fractures leaving a trail of broken crystals, small vesicles, and Fe-rich glass wisps (o). Grey tones from black to white are: voids (vesicles, fractures, and grain boundaries); plagioclase; glass; pyroxene and olivine and Fe- and Mg-rich glass; and Fe- Ti-oxides. Full-scale images are provided in Supplementary Data 1 and 2.

Fig. 2: Fracturing of basaltic melt during fragmentation experiments. a-d): High-speed video frames showing fracture initiation (red arrows) and propagation through the top of the basaltic melt within the cylindrical crucible (see Supplementary Video 1). e): Photograph of the upper surface of an experimental product. Fractures through the upper surface show the partially crystallized, vesicular, glassy interior of the specimen, which also includes fractured crystals. f): Polarised light micrograph of the cross-section of the specimen in (e). One of the fractures cuts through the more crystal-rich upper part of the basalt into the glass-rich interior.

Fig. 3: Scanning electron micrographs of the experimental products and broken crystals and healing fractures therein. a): A large fracture propagating downwards from the sample surface (same as Fig. 2f). Viscous deformation of the melt around the lower part of the fracture locally forms isolated vesicles (red arrows). Red letters mark the location of other panels. b-e): Large, partly healed fractures are surrounded by broken crystals that record the passage of multiple, narrow fractures now completely healed (red box in (d) is magnified in (e)). f): The partially crystallized, homogeneous sample interior from another experiment, with vesicle chains formed by the passage and healing of fractures, as witnessed by the broken crystals surrounding them (g-j). k-m): Broken crystals in ash-sized

experimental products, with Fe-rich sutures from healed fractures. Comparative tables of natural and experimental products are provided in Supplementary Data 1.

Fig. 4: Parameters of fractures in broken crystals from eruptions and experiments. Length, width, aspect ratio, and tortuosity of fractures in natural (a,c) and experimental (b,d) products, for different fracture and crystal types. a,b): in colour, fracture tortuosity (the ratio of fracture length to the straight distance between its extremities). Note logarithmic colour scale. Red lines and numbers represent constant values of aspect ratio (the ratio of fracture length to its width). Length and width measurement error, estimated by repeated measurements, is < 13% of the given value. c,d): Statistical values for the parameters. The top and bottom of boxes are the 25th and 75th percentiles of the samples, respectively, while the middle of each box is the sample median. Whiskers span 1.5 times the interquartile range.

Fig. 5: Proposed processes involved in the fragmentation of a parcel of basaltic magma rising along the conduit of an erupting volcano. Colours indicate silicate melt (red), gas bubbles (white), silicic (blue) and mafic (yellow) crystals, and fractures (black). During magma ascent (a), exsolved gas pockets expand rapidly and accelerate the magma until rapid deformation and stress accumulation induces brittle fracturing (b). Large fractures propagate through the magma and isolate individual pyroclasts. Narrower fractures are healed by viscous deformation of the melt, leaving additional bubbles and broken crystals in the pyroclasts (c).

Methods

Eruption case studies background and sampling information

We found broken crystals within pyroclasts of the following eruptions and styles: Etna (Italy) 2001 and 2002-2003 flank eruptions^{62,63}; Parícutin (Mexico) 1943, Xitle (Mexico) 2 ka, and Croscat (Spain) 11 ka violent Strombolian eruptions⁶⁴⁻⁶⁶; Eyjafiallajökull (Iceland) 2010 complex eruption⁶⁷; Fuego

(Guatemala) 2012 and Stromboli (Italy) July 2019 and August 2019 paroxysmal eruptions^{68–70}; and Stromboli (Italy) 2019 persistent, normal Strombolian activity⁷¹. These cases include eruptions with and without accompanying lava effusion, eruption plumes and ejecta height from few hundred metres to few kilometres, magma ascent rates from 0.1 to 30 m s⁻¹, magma discharge rates from 10² to 10⁶ kg s⁻¹, continuous ejection duration from few seconds to few days, and whole eruption duration from few months to centuries^{27,69,72–74}. Whole rock composition of the erupted magmas ranges from basanite, through basalt, trachybasalt and basaltic andesite, to andesite (SiO₂ range 44 to 60 wt.%)^{63,65–68,75–79}, while interstitial glass compositions, representative of the melt in between the crystals, range from basanite, through basalt, basaltic andesite, andesite and benmoreite, to trachyte and dacite (SiO₂ range 44 to 65 wt.%)^{34,61,78–81}. All products include microlite- to microphenocrystal-sized crystals of plagioclase, pyroxene, olivine, and Fe- and Ti-oxides, in a groundmass that can be either glassy or microcrystalline. Domains of the two types of groundmass are often found intermingled within the same pyroclasts, as visible in Extended Data Fig. 2 and Supplemental Data 2. Extended Data Table 1 reports the crystallinity of some of the erupted products.

410 Sampling information is as follows:

- 411 Croscat volcano (Spain), 11 ka eruption: Lapilli-sized pyroclasts were sampled from the tephra fallout
- deposit outcropping in the Pacte del Quesito location, as described by Di Traglia and co-authors
- 413 (sections #26, 27, 55, Figs. 2, 3 and 4) 65 .
- Parícutin volcano (Mexico), 1943 eruption: Lapilli-sized pyroclasts were sampled from the tephra
- fallout deposit in a ~3 m deep excavation we dug at coordinates N 19° 29' 55" and W 102° 15' 44"
- 416 (approximately coincident with Site A as reported by Pioli and co-authors ⁷⁷).

- 417 Xitle volcano (Mexico), 2 ka eruption: Lapilli-sized pyroclasts were sampled from the tephra fallout
- 418 deposit outcropping at coordinates N 19° 13' 47" and W 99° 14' 30" and N 19° 14' 27" and W 99° 13'
- 419 18".
- 420 Etna (Italy), 2001 eruption: Volcanic ash was sampled on 26 and 29 July 2001, near the Mascalucia
- village (N 37° 34' 36'', E 15° 02' 58''). The samples include ash particles in the size range 100 to 400
- 422 μm, collected over a time interval of 24 hours on a clean surface while settling from the eruption
- 423 plume^{34,62}.
- Etna (Italy), 2002-03 eruption: Volcanic ash was sampled on 7 and 11 November 2002 near the Ballo
- locality village (N 37° 42' 17", E 15° 06' 56") and at the INGV building inside Catania city (N 37°
- 426 30' 49'', E 15° 04' 55''), respectively. Both samples include ash particles collected over a time interval
- of several hours on a clean surface while settling from the eruption plume⁸⁰.
- 428 Evjafiallajökull, (Iceland), 2010 eruption: Volcanic ash was sampled on 19 May 2010 at coordinates N
- 429 63° 42′ 39′′, W 19° 44′ 00′′. Ash particles were collected over a time interval of five hours on a clean
- surface while settling from the eruption plume.
- 431 Fuego (Guatemala), paroxysmal Strombolian activity: Volcanic ash was sampled on 13 September
- 432 2012 at coordinates N 14° 26' 02", W 90° 55' 31". Ash particles were collected over an unknown
- 433 time interval on a clean surface while settling from the 3000 m-high eruption plume of a single
- 434 explosion.
- Stromboli (Italy), 3 July 2019 paroxysmal explosion: multiple decimetre-sized volcanic bombs were
- sampled from the ground on 28 July 2019 at coordinates N 38° 47′ 36′′, E 15° 13′ 00′′.
- 437 Stromboli (Italy), 28 August 2019 paroxysmal explosion: multiple decimetre-sized volcanic bombs
- were sampled from the ground on 7 September 2019 at coordinates N 38° 47′ 33′′, E 15° 12′ 50′′.

Stromboli (Italy), ongoing Strombolian activity: Volcanic ash was sampled on 11 May 2019 at coordinates N 38° 47′ 45′′, E 15° 12′ 59′′. Ash particles were collected over a time interval of a few minutes on a clean surface while settling from the eruption plumes of individual explosions from different vents.

Imaging and measurements

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experiments.

Microscopic observations were performed using a JEOL 6500 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope (FESEM), operated at accelerating voltage between 15 and 20 kV and variable emission current, and using Back-Scattered electrons as imaging source. The Etna samples were observed using a Cambridge Stereoscan 360 Scanning Electron Microscope. In total, more than 3 bomb-sized, 60 lapilli-sized, and 300 ash-sized pyroclasts were investigated in detail at magnifications between 10 and 100,000 x, for a total of more than 650 hours of observation. Extensive visual documentation of the natural and experimental products is available in the Supplementary Information files. The groundmass crystallinity of selected samples and of the experimental products was measured on FESEM images at magnifications between 180 and 350 x, by both image segmentation and point counting methods, counting a minimum of 500 randomly distributed points for each image. The results of the two methods are congruent within $\sim 10\%$. Crystallinity was measured in pyroclasts with a glassy groundmass only, and all values in Extended Data Table 1 are provided on a vesicle-free basis. Quantitative crystal fracture parameters were measured from the FESEM images. The fractures were parameterised by measuring their bi-dimensional length, mean width, aspect ratio, and tortuosity. The aspect ratio is calculated as the ratio of the fracture length to its mean width, and tortuosity as the ratio of the length of the fracture to the straight distance between its extremities. 325 fractures were

measured in the products of the different eruptions, and 307 in the products of the different

The bi-dimensional fracture number density was obtained from the total number of crystal fragments per unit area of the particle (on a vesicle-free basis), and, based on the observation of the micrographs in Supplementary Information S1, assuming that each fragment is bounded on average by two fractures. The obtained numbers are lower bounds, because the occurrence of finely fragmented crystals (e.g., Fig. 1f) produces locally much higher fracture number densities at the micrometric scale.

Fragmentation experiments

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Fragmentation experiments were performed following Büttner and co-authors³³. The selected starting material was lapilli-size pyroclasts from the explosive activity that took place at 2700 m elevation on the southern flank of Mt. Etna during the 2002-03 eruption. The experimental set-up includes a heating system and an injection system. In the heating system, a steel crucible (inner diameter 10 cm) with removable lid contains 0.3 to 0.5 kg of granulate starting material and is surrounded by a water-cooled copper coil. Electric current from a radio-frequency generator circulates in the coil and inductively heats up the crucible that melts the rock. The injection system connects the base of the crucible to a pressurized Argon gas reservoir and a computer-controlled solenoid valve that allows impulsive injection of the gas at the base of the melt. We used a thermocouple (S-type, Pt/PtRh, temperature range 50 - 1750 °C, tolerance 0.5%) to measure temperature at the surface of the melt. During preliminary test runs we defined the best heating path to obtain a melt that would represent at best the range of crystal abundance and size of the natural products. All runs started with an identical heating ramp that reached 1275 °C in 100 minutes, a dwell at the same temperature for 90 minutes during which the sample melted completely, and a cooling ramp to 1160 °C in 30 minutes. This latter temperature was kept constant for a time interval that varied from 90 to 180 minutes in the different runs, resulting in a variable melt crystallization. Final run procedures included hand-stirring to homogenize the melt about 10 minutes before the injection, cooling to the final temperature of 1080 °C in 5-10 minutes, removal of crucible lid, and gas injection for a duration of 0.03s. Gas injection fragments the sample and ejects it out of the melt. A total of 17 experiments were performed, including test and repeated runs, to obtain the 11 experiments with different degree of melt crystallinity reported in Extended Data Table 1. Sample fragmentation was recorded using a NAC HotShot 512 high speed camera recording at 5000 frames per second and 512x512 pixel resolution.

Petrographic micrographs and FESEM analyses reveal that in all experimental products the top few microns of the sample display an entirely crystallized crust of sub-micron sized crystals. The rest of the sample displays a range of crystallinity features function of the duration of the crystallization interval. Features include relic phenocrysts, skeletal aggregates of plagioclase and pyroxenes, and microlites of plagioclase, pyroxene, olivine and oxides. Total crystal content ranges from 3 to 63 vol. % (Extended Data Table 1). Melt viscosity at fragmentation, calculated from the starting material composition^{63,80}, the measured crystallinity (Extended Data Table 1), the experimental temperature, and the model of Giordano and co-authors⁸², ranges from 10^{2,3} to 10^{4,5} Pa s, in line with estimated melt viscosities during the 2001 Etna eruption and with experimental measurements of Etna melt viscosity during crystallization^{34,83}. The spatial distribution of crystals within the sample ranges from mostly homogeneous to patchy as the result of heterogeneous crystallization of the melt, experimental procedures, and melt deformation during ejection.

Time scales

The time scale for fracture propagation is constrained by our high-speed video observation to be $<10^{-4}$ s (Fig. 2), in agreement with the measured time scale of 10^{-7} s for a fracture 100 µm long propagating in synthetic glass analogues for high-temperature basalt⁴⁹. The time scale for the onset of healing after initial contact of two basaltic melt parcels can be estimated to be of the order of 10^{-6} to 10^{-5} s, following experimental results obtained for silicic magmas⁴⁶ and a constant melt viscosity in the range of 10^2 to

10^{4.5} Pa for the melt composition, crystallinity, and temperature of most of our experimental and natural cases (see above)⁸². An upper limit of the time scale for complete fracture healing can be estimated considering surface tension as the only driving force and neglecting the intervention of other forces 46 (e.g., local pressure gradients, magma rise and vesiculation, gas drag). For a constant melt viscosity in the range of 10² to 10^{4.5} Pa s, a surface tension at the melt-vapour interface ranging from 0.05 to 0.1 N m^{-1 84}, and the observed range of fracture width from 0.1 to 10 µm (Fig. 4), the time for magma flow to close the fracture ranges from 10⁻⁴ to 1 s. This analysis applies to fractures in melt only, and does not includes the flow of melt into crystals. In our conceptual model (Fig. 5), and in analogy with more silicic cases 17,85, fracturing of basaltic magma does not necessarily lead to immediate pyroclast formation. The travel time of a fractured magma parcel before it becomes entirely separated from the rest of the magma as a single pyroclast and is consequently accelerated by the gas phase to its ejection velocity depends on magma ascent rate (10⁻¹ to 30 m s⁻¹, see above) and fracturing depth. Thus, this time scale ranges from zero, in the case of fracturing coincident with clast formation, to $>10^3$ s for the slowest ascent rate and fracturing depth of the order of 10² m. The in-conduit travel time of fractured magma as a clast before ejection depends on its rise speed in the gas-pyroclasts mixture, which ranges from 10 to 100 m s⁻¹ 86,87 for our case study eruptions, and the depth of clast formation, assumed to be in the 1-100 m range⁸⁶, resulting in a time scale of 10⁻² to 10 s. The time scale required for a clast to cool from eruptive temperature to the glass transition temperature after its ejection from the volcanic conduit (or from the crucible, in the case of the experiments) has been calculated using the experimentally-validated model of Moitra and co-authors⁴¹, considering the size of the investigated clasts (10⁻⁴ to 10⁻² m), typical thermal conductivity for basalts of k= 0.6 W m⁻¹ K⁻¹ 88, and a glass transition temperature in between 680-650 °C⁸². Cooling after ejection of the whole clast (from the surface to its centre) occurs in the time range from 1 to 10^2 s.

References only in Methods

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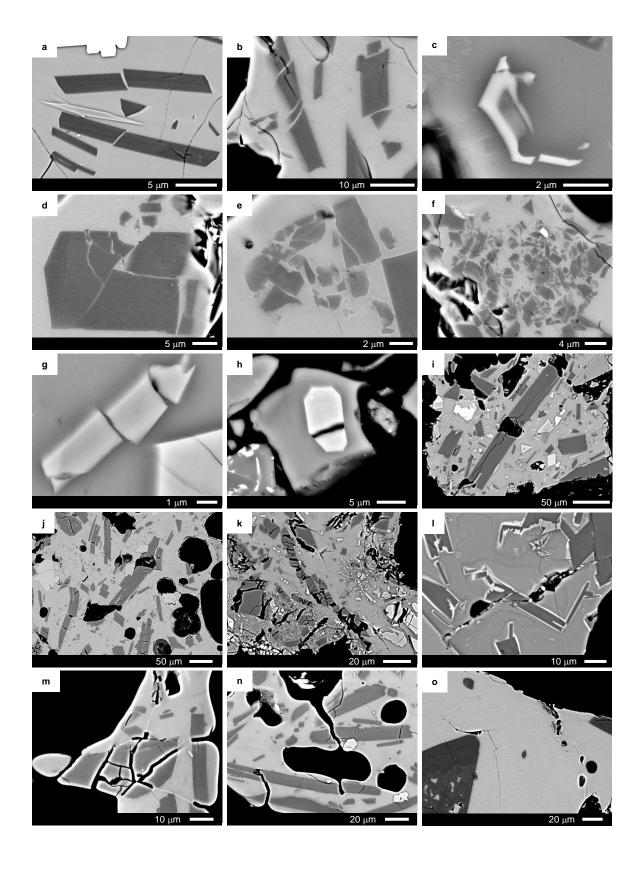
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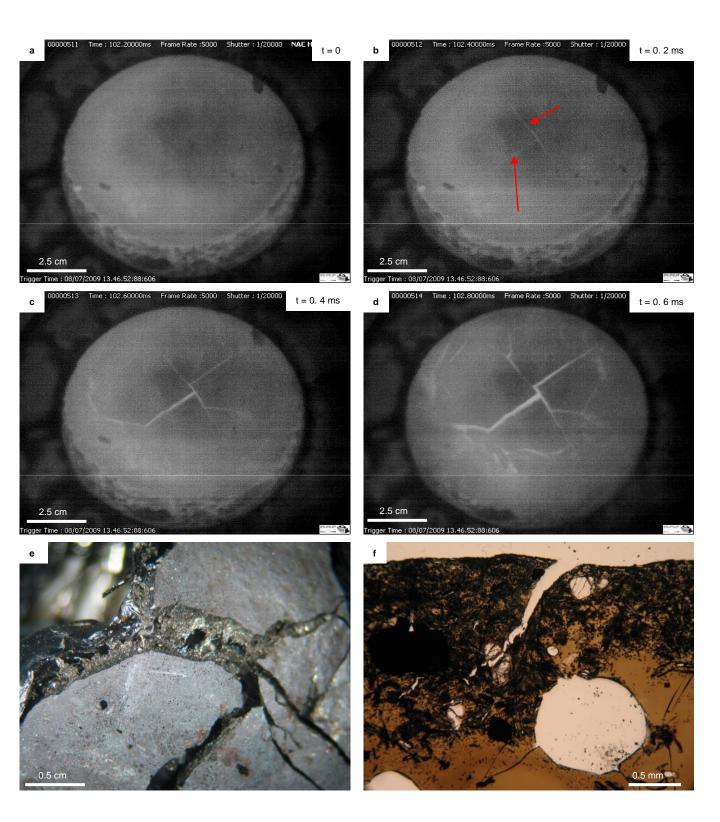
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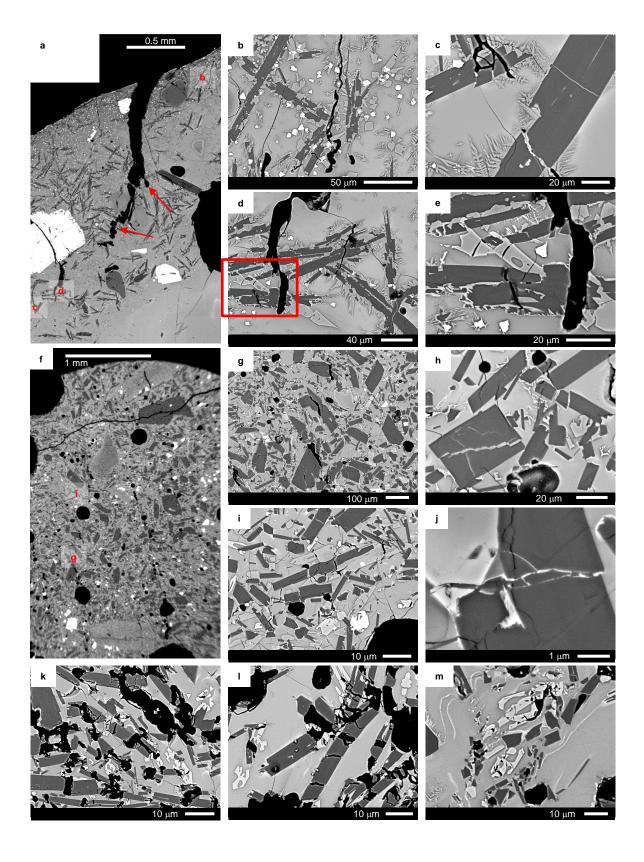
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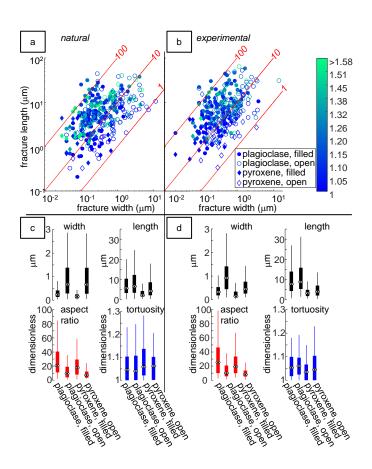
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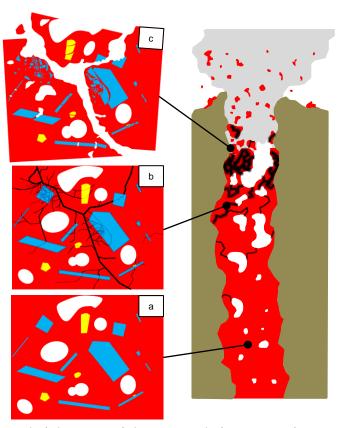
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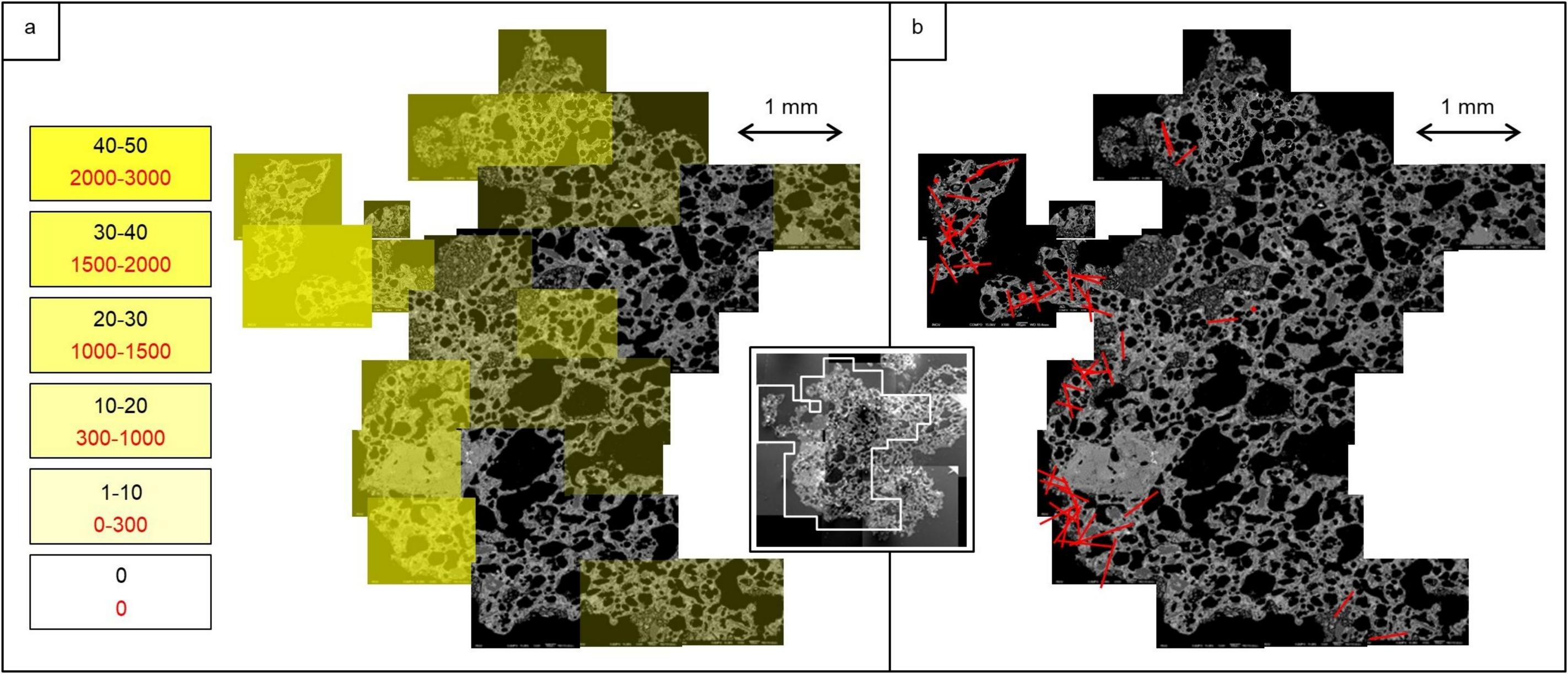


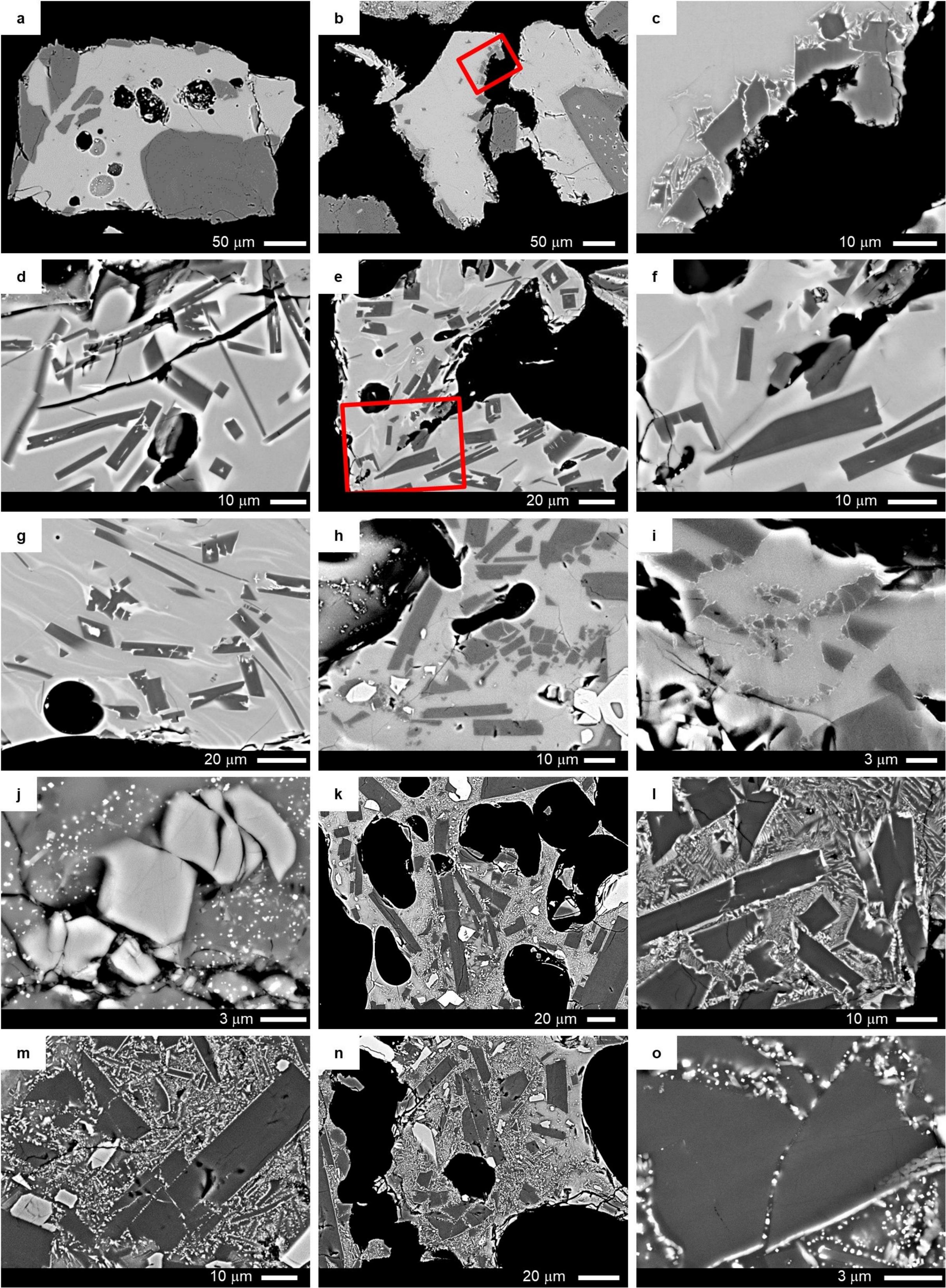


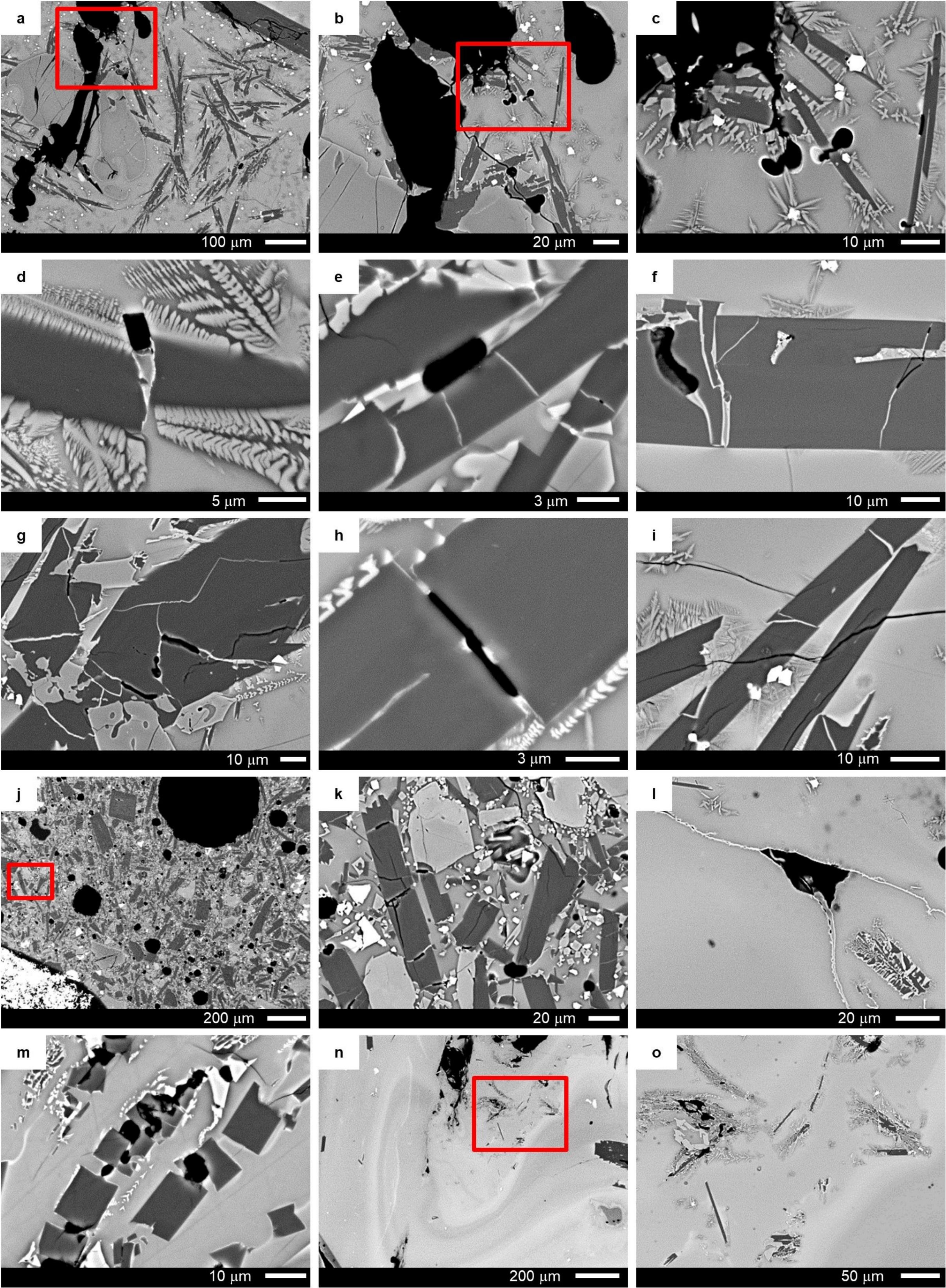


scale of microns to tens of microns

scale of metres to tens of metres







		plagioclase	pyroxene	olivine	oxides	mafics*	crystallinity	
10-	glass (vol.%)	(vol.%)	(vol.%)	(vol.%)	(vol.%)	(vol.%)	(vol.%)	references
Experiment #								
6	83.7 ± 12.0	4.4 ± 3.1	4.4 ± 3.1	3.1 ± 4.4	4.4 ± 6.3		16.3 ± 12.0	this work
8	63.6 ± 4.1	24.2 ± 2.2	4.0 ± 2.2	7.9 ± 5.4	0.4 ± 1.1		36.4 ± 5.1	this work
9	60.7 ± 8.1	29.8 ± 6.7	6.6 ± 10.4	1.9 ± 2.5	1.1 ± 1.5		39.3 ± 8.1	this work
10	37.1 ± 6.4	43.0 ± 3.9	11.8 ± 4.0	5.3 ± 2.7	2.5 ± 1.5		62.7 ± 6.2	this work
11	43.5 ± 9.2	38.6 ± 6.9	12.8 ± 4.1	4.2 ± 1.3	1.9 ± 0.7		57.6 ± 8.1	this work
11a	57.6 ± 10.6	23.2 ± 7.7	10.8 ± 16.5	6.4 ± 5.9	2.0 ± 2.0		42.4 ± 10.1	this work
12	58.4 ± 6.8	34.3 ± 7.0	2.9 ± 3.6	4.0 ± 2.8	0.4 ± 0.2		41.6 ± 6.8	this work
13	37.3 ± 6.2	34.0 ± 5.4	21.3 ± 3.3	4.3 ± 2.1	3.4 ± 0.5		63.0 ± 6.1	this work
13a	56.0 ± 10.5	27.5 ± 8.1	7.8 ± 14.7	7.9 ± 3.2	0.7 ± 0.5		44.0 ± 10.4	this work
15	49.0 ± 8.3	30.9 ± 2.1	11.8 ± 8.0	6.7 ± 4.0	1.6 ± 1.7		51.0 ± 8.3	this work
17	97.0 ± 2.0	2.9 ± 1.9	0.0 ± 0.1	0.1 ± 0.3	0.0 ± 0.0		3.0 ± 2.0	this work
Eruption								
Etna 2001	60.4 ± 4.2	25.1 ± 2.8	10.1 ± 5.5	1.6 ± 1.0	2.9 ± 0.8		39.6 ± 4.2	this work
Etna 2002	45.6	31.4	17.1	2.7	3.2		54.4	this work
Paricutin 1943	60.9 ± 5.1	34.1 ± 4.4				4.9 ± 1.7	39.1 ± 5.1	this work
Xitle 2 ka	66.9 ± 7.9	29.3 ± 6.9				3.8 ± 2.1	33.1 ± 7.9	this work
Croscat 11 ka	98-57						2-43	61
*Sum of pyroxene, olivine, and oxides. All values are the mean of >5 image measurements over 1-5 clasts, ± 1 standard deviation								

⁽except Etna 2002, one image only).