GEOLOGICAL AND STRUCTURAL CONTROLS ON LA GARROTXA MONOGENETIC VOLCANIC FIELD (NE IBERIA)



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Universitat de Barcelona
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Als meus pares i a la meva terra

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Abstract

Basaltic monogenetic volcanism is widely distributed around the World and is characterised by the formation of volcanoes that erupt small amounts (0.01–0.2 km³) of mafic magma in short lived eruptions typically lasting from few days to few months. Monogenetic volcanoes are often grouped in volcanic fields, the distribution of which depends in each case on their regional and local tectonic controls. The great variety of eruptive styles, edifice morphologies, and deposits shown by monogenetic volcanoes is the result of a complex combination of internal (magma composition, gas content, magma rheology, magma volume, etc.) and external (regional and local stress fields, stratigraphic and rheological contrasts of substrate rock, hydrogeology, etc.) parameters during magma transport from the source region to the surface.

The present PhD Thesis focuses on the geological and structural controls of monogenetic volcanism. It pays particular attention to the uppermost part of the lithosphere and its role to determine the distribution of eruptive vents and eruptive styles. We have selected La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (GVF) as a case study. This Quaternary volcanic field is located in the Northeast of the Iberian Peninsula and includes more than 50 well-preserved volcanoes. It covers an area of 600 km², between the cities of Olot and Girona and belongs to the Catalan Volcanic Zone, one of the alkaline volcanic provinces of the European Rift System. The GVF is still poorly known and has become an ideal place for the application of the multidisciplinary studies, including geophysical methods, geological fieldwork and geomorphological and structural analyses, which constitute this PhD Thesis.

The first work was carried out at the Northern sector of the GVF. This study was mainly based on the application of gravimetry and self-potential techniques, in order to identify the main tectonic structures of the volcanic area at depth. A second work was performed in order to obtain a much better detail of the shallower structures and to relate the subsurface geology to the feeding system of these monogenetic volcanoes. In this case, we applied the electrical resistivity tomography method, comparing the new data with the self-potential results. A third work was carried out at the Southern sector of the GVF, at La Crosa de Sant Dalmai volcano (10 km SW of Girona), one of the biggest maar-diatreme edifices of the Iberian Peninsula. Here, several geophysical techniques were applied, including gravimetry, magnetometry, self-potential and electrical resistivity tomography. A model of the uppermost part of the diatreme was obtained, determining the internal structure and its origin. The results obtained with the application of these geophysical methods in this volcanic field suggest that electrical resistivity tomography is a useful tool for the study the internal structures of different types of monogenetic landforms. In this way we present a short work that illustrates different examples of internal structures of monogenetic volcanic cones from GVF. Furthermore, combining the results from these geophysical studies with the geological informations obtained by fieldwork, we performed the first volcanic stratigraphy map of the GVF. Finally, we also led a detailed volcano-structural analysis of the whole volcanic field, including geostatistical distribution of faults, fissures and vents, morpho-structural lineaments identified by remote sensing, a morphometrical analysis of the volcanic cones and craters, location of regional seismic events recorded in the area (since 1978), and mantle derived gases in springs and water wells, as a guide to identify active faults and open fractures and to define the structural controls of this volcanism.

The results obtained from all these studies have permitted understanding how magma was transported into the lithosphere and erupted at the surface, and represent an essential tool for a correct volcanic hazard assessment of the GVF. Furthermore, the methodologies described in this PhD Thesis establish general guidelines to study active monogenetic volcanic fields and we hope that it will contribute to improve their understanding.

Resum

El vulcanisme basàltic monogenètic està extensament distribuït arreu del món i es caracteritza per la formació de volcans amb poc volum de material emès (0,01 a 0,2 km³) de magma màfic en erupcions de curta durada, habitualment amb períodes de pocs dies fins a mesos. Els volcans monogenètics sovint estan agrupats en camps volcànics, la distribució dels quals depèn del control tectònic regional i local al qual estan sotmesos en cada cas. La gran varietat d'estils eruptius, morfologies volcàniques i dipòsits, que presenta el vulcanisme monogenètic són el resultat d'una complexa combinació de paràmetres interns (composició del magma, contingut de gas, reologia del magma, volum de magma, etc.) i externs (camps d'esforços locals i regionals, contrastos estratigràfics i reològics del substrat, hidrogeologia, etc.) durant el transport del magma des de la zona d'origen fins la superfície.

La present Tesi Doctoral es centra en els controls geològics i estructurals del vulcanisme monogenètic. S'ha posat especial atenció a la part més superficial de la litosfera i en el paper que juga aquesta zona en determinar la distribució de punts emissors i estils eruptius. S'ha seleccionat com a cas estudi el Camp Volcànic de la Garrotxa (GVF), localitzat al nord-est de la Península Ibèrica, el qual comprèn més de 50 volcans ben preservats. Aquest camp volcànic Quaternari s'estén per una àrea de més 600 km², entre les ciutats d'Olot i Girona, i forma part de la Zona Volcànica Catalana, una de les províncies volcàniques alcalines del Rift Europeu. El GVF és encara poc conegut i ha esdevingut un lloc ideal per l'aplicació d'estudis multidisciplinaris com els treballs que constitueixen aquesta Tesi Doctoral, integrant mètodes geofísics, treballs de camp, i anàlisis geomorfològics i estructurals.

El primer treball s'ha portat a terme al sector Nord del GVF. Aquest estudi s'ha basat principalment en l'aplicació de les tècniques de gravimetria i potencial espontani, per tal d'identificar les estructures tectòniques principals de la zona volcànica en profunditat. Un segon treball s'ha realitzat per tal d'obtenir un major detall de les estructures superficials i relacionar la geologia subsuperficial amb el sistema d'ascens magmàtic d'aquest volcans monogenètics. En aquest cas, s'ha aplicat el mètode geofísic de la tomografia elèctrica comparant les noves dades amb els resultats de potencial espontani. Un tercer treball s'ha dut a terme en el sector Sud del GVF, concretament en el volcà de la Crosa de Sant Dalmai (a 10 km al SO de Girona), un dels maar-diatrema més grans de la Península Ibèrica. Per portarho a terme, s'han usat diverses tècniques geofísiques, incloent gravimetria, magnetometria, potencial espontani i tomografia elèctrica. D'aquesta manera s'ha obtingut un model de la part superior de la diatrema, determinant la seva estructura interna i el seu origen. El resultat obtingut amb l'aplicació d'aquests mètodes geofísics en aquest camp volcànic, suggereix que la tomografia elèctrica resulta una eina eficaç per l'estudi de l'estructura interna en diferents tipus d'edificis monogenètics. D'aquesta manera es presenta un treball breu amb diferents exemples il·lustratius de l'estructura interna de cons volcànics del camp monogenètic del GVF. A demés, combinant els resultats d'aquests estudis geofísics amb la informació geològica obtinguda a partir de treballs de camp, s'ha realitzat la primera cartografia vulcanoestratigràfica del GVF. Finalment, també s'ha portat a terme un anàlisi detallat de la volcano-estructura de tot el camp volcànic, el qual inclou la distribució geoestadística de falles, fissures eruptives i punts emissors, identificació morfo-estructural de lineacions a partir de teledetecció, un anàlisi morfomètric dels cons i els cràters, localització de la sismicitat registrada de la zona (des de 1978) i gasos derivats del mantell en surgències i pous, com a guia per identificar falles actives o fractures obertes, per tal de definir els controls estructurals d'aquest vulcanisme.

Els resultats obtinguts a partir de tots aquests estudis han permès entendre com el magma va ser transportat des de la litosfera fins fer erupció a la superfície, i representa un eina essencial per una correcta avaluació de la perillositat volcànica al GVF. Tanmateix, les metodologies descrites en aquesta Tesi Doctoral estableixen una pauta general per l'estudi dels camps volcànics monogenètics actius, i s'espera que contribueixi a millorar-ne el seu coneixement.

Introduction

1.1. Motivation

Scoria cone and maar-diatreme edifices are the main manifestations of monogenetic volcanism and are often grouped into volcanic fields that are found in any geotectonic settings. Due to the abundance of this volcanism, about 10% of the world population lives in active volcanic areas (Baxter, 2000; Lorenz, 2007).

The Neogene-Quaternary European Cenozoic Rift System contains several volcanic areas, all related to the same geodynamic environment but with different local tectonics affecting volcanism (Wilson and Downes 1991, 1992; Downes 2001; Dèzes et al. 2004). The stratigraphic and volcano-structural evolution of the different volcanic fields of this rift system is still poorly known. Moreover, one of the least studied of these recent European volcanic areas is the Catalan Volcanic Zone (CVZ) (Martí et al., 1992) located in the northeast of Iberia.

As part of the CVZ, La Garrotxa monogenetic Volcanic Field (GVF) is the youngest (Middle Pleistocene to Early Holocene) and the best-preserved volcanic area of the Iberian Peninsula. This volcanic field offers exceptional conditions, in terms of size and distribution of volcanic vents and products, to study the evolution of the dynamics of volcanism. During the last years, several studies have been conducted in this area mostly addressed to characterise the volcanic activity and petrology of volcanic products (Bianchini et al., 2007; Di Traglia et al., 2009; Gisbert et al., 2009; Martí et al., 2011; Cimarelli et al., 2012, 2013; Pedrazzi et al., 2014). However, the geological and structural controls of this magmatism and related volcanism are still poorly constrained. This is why we have addressed this PhD Thesis to the study of the GVF in order to characterise how regional and local tectonics have influenced and controlled the volcanic activity in the area. In addition, the purpose of this PhD Thesis is to make the results obtained applicable to other volcanic areas of similar characteristics, thus contributing to the general understanding on monogenetic volcanism.

Moreover, the characterisation of the geological and structural controls of this volcanic field will constitute the basis to build a comprehensive hazard assessment of the area. Despite, volcanic activity stopped about Early Holocene, the fact that volcanism in CVZ started more than 12 Ma ago (Araña et al., 1983) and continued nearly to present, suggests that this is not an extinct area. In fact, since 2013, this volcanic field has been considered, in legal terms, as an active volcanic area jointly to other Spanish volcanic zones (e.g.: Canary Islands) by the Spanish government. This is illustrated in the Spanish for Official Bulletin of the State (B.O.E) of February 11th of 2013, which establishes the actions procedure for a correct volcanic risk assessment, including a correct knowledge of the area. This implicates that hazard assessment, together with volcano monitoring, is a necessary requisite to reduce potential volcanic risk in this area.

1.2. State of the art

1.2.1. Monogenetic volcanism

Monogenetic volcanism represents the most common volcano type on Earth (Wood, 1980; Cas and Wright (1987), Wohletz and Heiken (1992), Vespermann and Schmincke (2000), Schmincke (2004), Lorenz (2007), and Le Corvec (2013). Monogenetic volcanoes are commonly clustered within volcanic fields and are present in any geotectonic and environmental setting

(Connor and Conway, 2000; Valentine and Gregg, 2008; Kereszturi and Németh, 2012). Basaltic monogenetic volcanism is characterised by the formation of volcanoes that erupt small amounts (0.01–0.2 km³) of mafic magma in short lived eruptions typically lasting from few days to few months (Fiske and Jackson, 1972; Walker, 1999). Each volcanic eruption is the end process of a magma rising from its source in the upper mantle to the surface (e.g., Brenna et al., 2011; McGee et al., 2011). Monogenetic volcanoes distribution inside a volcanic field depends in each case on their regional and local tectonic controls. The great variety of eruptive styles, edifice morphologies, and deposits shown by monogenetic volcanoes are the result of a complex combination of internal (magma composition, gas content, magma rheology, magma volume, etc.) and external (regional and local stress fields, stratigraphic and rheological contrasts of substrate rock, hydrogeology, etc.) parameters, during the magma transport from the source region to the surface (Gretener, 1969; Clemens and Mawer, 1992; Gudmundsson, 2003; Tibaldi, 2003; Acocella and Tibaldi, 2005; Gudmundsson and Philipp, 2006; Kavanagh et al., 2006; Tibaldi et al., 2014). These recent findings highlight the need to view volcanic fields in the same manner as we view composite volcanoes in terms of dangerousness (Németh, 2010).

A monogenetic basaltic volcanic field may contain an average 10 to 100 volcanoes of cumulative volume about 10 km³, and may span 50 ka to 5 Ma (Connor and Conway, 2000) during which dramatic climatic and paleoenvironmental changes can take place (Németh, 2010). However, some volcanic fields are much larger than the average. This is the case of the Michoacan-Guanajuato volcanic field in Mexico that contains more than 1000 volcanoes and covers an area about 40,000 km² (Hasenaka and Carmichael, 1985; Connor, 1987; Hasenaka, 1994).

Eruptions in monogenetic volcanic fields are difficult to forecast because the factors controlling the precursory activity are still poorly understood. Furthermore, in monogenetic volcanism each new eruption creates a different vent, suggesting that volcanic susceptibility (i.e.: the probability of vent opening, Martí and Felpeto, 2010) contains a high degree of randomness and that accurate spatial forecasting is highly uncertain. Recent studies of monogenetic volcanism reveal how sensitive magma migration is to changes in regional and/or local stress fields caused by structural or lithological contrasts (e.g. former magmatic intrusions) (Martí et al. 2013). This may induce variations in the pattern of further magma movements and thus affect the location of future eruption sites. Furthermore, the interaction between monogenetic volcanoes and the uppermost part of the basement plays an important role in the evolution of volcanic fields (Tibaldi and Lagmay, 2006), as shown by changes in eruption dynamics occurring at different vents located at relatively short distances.

Studies of monogenetic volcanic fields are among the earliest works in Volcanology. One of the first surveys was carried out by Nicholas Desmarest, a geologist that mapped the cinder cones of Auvergne, France, around 1766. The major contribution of Desmarest was the relative volcano-stratigraphy of cinder cones in Auvergne using the superposition of lava flows deposits that he carefully correlated to eruptive vents when possible. Subsequently, all mappings in volcanic fields have emulated the techniques used by Desmarest. The 1759–1774 eruption of Jorullo volcano in the Michoacán-Guanajuato volcanic field (Mexico) focused additional attention on this type of volcanism. Geologists such as Von Humboldt, Scrope, and Lyell noted the great number of cones around Jorullo and realized that these cones formed during episodes of similar eruptive styles. The 1943–1952 eruptions of Parícutin volcano, also in the Michoacán-Guanajuato volcanic field, led to more systematic mapping in this area. In his

pioneer work on volcanoes of the Parícutin region, Williams (1950) conducted petrologic investigations, mapping, and relative dating of volcanoes in this area, resulting in the first comprehensive, modern treatment of basaltic volcanic fields. During the sixties and seventies, the NASA lunar programme started several studies of monogenetic volcanoes on Earth. These research projects were focused on morphological aspects of monogenetic volcanic landforms in order to relate these morphologies to analogous extra terrestrial landforms. In the last decades, the number of studies devoted to characterise the distribution patterns of monogenetic volcanic fields and the tectonic environment in which they occur has increased (e.g. Rout et al., 1993; Nishi et al., 1996; Bibby et al., 1998; Di Maio et al., 1998, 2000; Németh et al., 2001; Schulz et al., 2005; Ross et al, 2011; Blaikie et al., 2014).

Due to the complexity that magmatic plumbing systems in monogenetic volcanism entails, the geologists need other methods for understanding the structural and stratigraphic setting of a volcanic area and the pathways of the magma in its ascent to the Earth's surface. In this way, geophysical exploration and more specifically geoelectrical methods have been used in different volcanic areas around the world. For example, in Ethiopian Rift Valley, Emilia et al. (1977) applied magnetic anomaly and resistivity measurements to investigate the evolution of a volcanic crater. Nishi et al. (1996), in New Zealand, applied self-potential surveys to study the hydrothermal system of White Island Volcano. Bibby et al. (1998) used electrical resistivity imaging to characterise the upper crust of the Taupo Volcanic Zone. In Italy Di Maio et al (1998, 2000) applied electrical and electromagnetic methods to study the structure of Mount Somma and Campi Flegrei. In Japan Hase et al (2005) studied the hydrothermal system beneath Aso volcano with self-potential and resistivity measurements. In Massif Central of France Portal et al (2013) explored the inner structure of Puy de Dôme volcano from electrical resistivity tomography, gravity and muon imaging. These studies have proven the efficiency of geoelectrical methods in the characterisation of the inner structure of volcanic systems. For this reason they have been also applied recently to the study of monogenetic volcanic fields (Brunner et al., 1999; López-Loera et al., 2008; Mrlina et al., 2009; Martin-Serrano et al., 2009; Cassidy and Locke, 2010; Blaikie et al., 2012; Valenta et al., 2014), and constitute one of the main contributions of this PhD Thesis.

1.2.2. A review of the research history in La Garrotxa Volcanic Field

The early naturalistic and geological works in La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (GVF) were carried out by the pharmacist and naturalist Francesc X. Bolós (1776, published in 1820 and 1841). In 1808 the geologist William Maclure came to the region of Olot accompanied by Bolós (Bolós 1841; Riba 1996). Soon after, Maclure published the first scientific note about the volcanic region of Catalonia (Maclure 1808) without ever mentioning the communications given by Bolós. Lyell visited the GVF in 1830 and he was helped in the fieldwork around the Olot area by Bolós (Lyell 1833; Bolós 1841; Riba 1996). Lyell, on the basis of his field observations, included a very well illustrated geological study of "Volcanic region of Olot in Catalonia" in the "Principles of Geology" (Lyell 1833). Since then, several national and foreign researchers have published about this volcanic area in the main European scientific journals and geological societies.

At the beginning of 20th century the works by Gelabert (1904), Sapper (1904), Calderon et al. (1906), Washington (1907), San Miguel de la Cámara (1918, 1936), San Miguel de la

Cámara and Marcet Riba (1926), Chevalier (1926, 1927, 1931a, 1931b); Bolós (1931), and Loewinson-Lessin (1931) include detailed descriptions about the main volcanoes of the GVF, as well as the first petrographic and geochemical studies of their rocks and an improvement of the geological maps of the area.

During the Spanish Civil War (1936 – 1939), all scientific activity on this region was interrupted. More than 20 years were required to reactivate the research activity on the area. After this inactivity period, Solé Sabarís and Marcet Riba (1953), Solé Sabarís (1957, 1962), Bolós (1957), Cardelús (1957), and Guardia (1964), restored the research in the GVF giving the first chronology of this Quaternary monogenetic volcanism. During the seventies the number of authors working on the GVF increased (e.g.: Donville 1973; Fayas and Doménech 1974; Riba 1975; Coy-Yll et al., 1975; Mallarach 1976; Bech et al., 1976; Solé Sograñes 1978) with the research work focused on several subjects (i.e.: geochronology, geomorphology, geothermalism, geochemistry and structural geology).

Mallarach and Riera (1981), Mallarach (1982, 1998), Araña, et al. (1983), and Martí and Mallarach (1987) provided the first insights into the eruptive mechanisms of the GVF, pointing out the presence of a large number of volcanoes with phreatomagmatic activity. Martí et al. (1992) published for the first time an overview of regional and global settings of the GVF, outlining the relationship between the volcanism in this area and the rift system related to the Valencia Trough. From that time, the most abundant research articles about the area were related to petrological and geochemical aspects of the basaltic rocks and their xenoliths (Llobera 1983; López-Ruiz and Badiola 1985; Neumann et al., 1999; Cebrià et al., 2000; Enrique and Toribio 2009; Oliveras and Galán 2006, 2009; Bianchini et al., 2007; Galán et al., 2008; Oliveras 2009; Gisbert et al., 2011; Cimarelli et al., 2012). However, some insights about the geophysical, tectonic and structural aspects of the area were also published by Gallart et al. (1984, 1991), Fernández et al. (1990), Vegas (1994), Saula et al. (1996), Goula et al. (1999), Lewis et al. (2000), Zarroca et al. (2012), and Moreno et al. (2014).

During the last decade new data addressed to characterise the volcanic activity of this volcanic field were produced (Di Traglia et al., 2009; Gisbert et al., 2009; Martí et al., 2011; Cimarelli et al., 2013; Pedrazzi et al., 2014).

The inheritance of the whole naturalists and researchers that investigated the GVF is an essential starting point in order to allow further geological studies in this area. Furthermore, the GVF is an ideal place to apply several geological and geophysical methods in order to understand the different aspects that conform the volcanology of the area, to compare it with other monogenetic volcanic fields worldwide, and to assess its potential hazard and risk.

1.3. Main objectives

The present PhD Thesis aims to characterise how regional and local tectonics have influenced and controlled the volcanic activity in the GVF, in order to understand how magma was transported through the lithosphere and erupted at the surface. Particular attention has been paid on the geology of the uppermost part of the lithosphere and its role to determine the distribution of eruptive vents and eruptive styles. Therefore, the main overall objective has been to establish general guidelines to study the structural controls on active monogenetic volcanism, thus contributing to improve their understanding. This was

achieved by applying different methods, such as geophysical methods, fieldwork and geomorphological and structural analyses.

The specific aims of this PhD Thesis are: (a) to study the relationship between the distribution of monogenetic volcanic landforms and the subsurface structure of the GVF, (b) to clarify the control exerted by the substrate geology in this volcanic field, (c) to explore the internal structure of simple and complex monogenetic volcanoes including a tuff cone and the biggest maar-diatreme of the GVF, (d) to reconstruct the eruptive history and geochronological evolution of the whole study area, and (e) to establish the tectonic controls and the geodynamic origin of this volcanic field.

The specific results obtained from this multidisciplinary work represent an essential tool to lead a correct volcanic hazard assessment of the area, but also a step forward in the preservation of the geological heritage of the GVF.

1.4. Outline

This PhD dissertation is structured into several chapters each one corresponding to a different research paper that constitutes independent but interrelated scientific contributions. In this sense, each work reflects the main objectives of the PhD Thesis and describes the different methodologies applied in the GVF, in order to develop a conceptual model of magma transport through the lithosphere and its eruption at surface, which will contribute to improve our understanding of the volcanic evolution of this region and to undertake hazard assessment in this monogenetic volcanic field.

Chapter 1 is this general introduction. Chapters 2 to 5 correspond to research papers consisting of several geophysical surveys performed in different specific areas of the GVF, and which have allowed to reconstruct the internal structure of these volcanoes and the geology of the subtract on which they built up. Combining these results with geological information obtained from new fieldwork and remote sensing studies, chapters 6 and 7 offer the volcanic stratigraphy of the whole volcanic field and its volcano-structural analysis, respectively.

The first geophysical survey (Chapter 2) was performed at the Northern sector of the study area. This study was mainly based on the application of gravimetry and self-potential techniques, in order to identify the main tectonic structures of the volcanic area at depth. This work was published in Bulletin of Volcanology (Barde-Cabusson et al., 2014).

A second work (Chapter 3) was performed in order to obtain a much better resolution of the shallowest structures and to relate the subsurface geology to the feeding system of these monogenetic volcanoes and to their eruptive style. In this case, we applied the electrical resistivity tomography method, comparing the new data with the previous self-potential results. The study is presented in Bolós et al. (2014) in International Journal of Earth Science.

A third work (Chapter 4) was carried out at the Southern sector of the GVF, at La Crosa de Sant Dalmai volcano (10 km SW of Girona), one of the biggest Quaternary maar-diatreme edifices of the Iberian Peninsula. Here, several geophysical techniques were applied: gravimetry, magnetometry, self-potential and electrical resistivity tomography. A model of the uppermost part of the diatreme was proposed, determining the internal

structure and its origin. The results were published in Journal of Volcanology and Geothermal Research (Bolós et al., 2012).

The results obtained with the application of geophysical methods in the mentioned works, suggested that electrical resistivity tomography is a useful tool to study the internal structures of different types of monogenetic landforms. In this way we present a short work (Chapter 5), published in Geophysical Research Letters (Barde-Cabusson et al., 2013) that illustrates various examples of internal structures of monogenetic volcanic cones from GVF.

The fifth work conducted in the area (Chapter 6) as part of this PhD Thesis, consisted in studying and cataloguing all new ephemeral outcrops, water wells, and geotechnical boreholes (almost 100). This enabled us to establish the first volcanic stratigraphy of the whole volcanic succession, completing a detailed volcanological map of this volcanic field, which includes the geology below the city of Olot. Likewise, the knowledge of the relative geochronology and extension of the most recent volcanic deposits has also improved. This work is presented in Bolós et al. (2014 in-press) in Journal of Quaternary Science.

The final study (Chapter 7) corresponds to a detailed volcano-structural analysis of the whole volcanic field. This includes geostatistical distribution of faults, fissures and vents, morpho-structural lineaments identified by remote sensing, a morphometrical analysis of the volcanic cones and craters, location of regional seismic events recorded in the area (since 1978), and mantle derived gases in springs and water wells, used as a guide to identify active faults and open fractures and to define the structural controls of this volcanism. This study is currently under review in Tectonophysics (Bolós et al., under-review).

The last chapters (Chapters 8 and 9) correspond to the summary of the results and discussion and to the general conclusions of the whole work, respectively.

Therefore, the structure of this PhD Thesis follows a logical sequence in which the reader first identifies the main aims of the work, thereby enhancing the coherence of the working approach. Then, the main geological and structural features of this monogenetic volcanism are progressively defined in order to provide at the end a coherent conceptual model of the magmatic plumbing system of this volcanic field.

Structural control of monogenetic volcanism in the Garrotxa volcanic field (Northeastern Spain) from gravity and self-potential measurements

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2.1. Abstract

We report new geophysical observations on the distribution of subsurface structures associated with monogenetic volcanism in the Garrotxa volcanic field (Northern Spain). As part of the Catalan Volcanic Zone, this Quaternary volcanic field is associated with the European rifts system. It contains the most recent and best preserved volcanic edifices of the Catalan Volcanic Zone with 38 monogenetic volcanoes identified in the Garrotxa Natural Park. We conducted new gravimetric and self-potential surveys to enhance our understanding of the relationship between the local geology and the spatial distribution of the monogenetic volcanoes. The main finding of this study is that the central part of the volcanic field is dominated by a broad negative Bouguer anomaly of around -0.5 mGal, within which a series of gravity minima are found with amplitudes of up to -2.3 mGal. Inverse modelling of the Bouguer data suggests that surficial low-density material dominates the volcanic field, most likely associated with effusive and explosive surface deposits. In contrast, an arcuate cluster of gravity minima to the NW of the Croscat volcano, the youngest volcano of this zone, is modelled by vertically extended lowdensity bodies, which we interpret as a complex ensemble of fault damage zones and the roots of young scoria cones. A ground-water infiltration zone identified by a selfpotential anomaly is associated with a steep horizontal Bouguer gravity gradient and interpreted as a fault zone and/or magmatic fissure, which fed the most recent volcanic activity in the Garrotxa. Gravimetric and self-potential data are well correlated and indicate a control on the locations of scoria cones by NNE-SSW and NNW-SSE striking tectonic features, which intersect the main structural boundaries of the study area to the north and south. Our interpretation of the data is that faults facilitated magma ascent to the surface. Our findings have major implications for understanding the relationship between subsurface structures and potential future volcanic activity in the Garrotxa volcanic field.

 $\textbf{Keywords:} \ \ \mathsf{Self-potential} \ \cdot \ \ \mathsf{Gravimetry} \ \cdot \ \ \mathsf{Garrotxa} \ \cdot \ \ \mathsf{Structural} \ \ \mathsf{control} \ \cdot \ \ \mathsf{Monogenetic} \ \mathsf{volcanism}$

2.2. Introduction

The temporal and spatial distribution of monogenetic volcanoes and the probability of future activity in monogenetic volcanic fields are subjects of increasing interest (e.g. Scandone 1979; Connor and Hill 1995; Connor et al. 2000; Alberico et al. 2002; Martin et al. 2003; Valentine and Perry 2006; Alberico et al. 2008). Statistical analyses indicate that deep and near-surface geological structures may control the distribution of magmatic complexes and volcanic vents (Zhang and Lutz 1989; Lutz and

Gutmann 1995; Paulsen and Wilson 2010), but geological structures are often hidden and their identification from surface geology alone can be difficult. Statistical, numerical and geological studies are ideally combined with geophysical investigations to build geologically meaningful models (Kiyosugi et al. 2010; Cebrià et al. 2011). In addition, geophysical methods have already been shown to be useful in studying dispersed volcanic fields and their relation to local tectonics (e.g. Rout et al. 1993 with detailed gravity and aeromagnetic studies on the Auckland volcanic field, New Zealand; Blakely et al. 1997 with gravity data on the Cascade Range, Oregon and California; Connor et al. 2000 with a combination of gravity data and magnetic data at Yucca Mountain (Nevada); Kiyosugi et al. 2010 with P wave tomography from the Abu Monogenetic Volcano Group, Japan).

In a monogenetic volcanic field, from one eruption to another, magma must be transported from source to surface at different places. Depending on stress conditions, magma injection parameters and geometry, pre-existing crustal fractures may influence the propagation of magmas (Valentine and Krogh 2006; Gaffney et al. 2007; Wetmore et al. 2009). In a set of analogue experiments, Le Corvec et al. (2013) investigate the conditions leading a dyke to interact with preexisting fractures into the crust, by varying (1) the volume of injected magma, (2) the distance between a dike and a preexisting fracture and (3) the impact of a deviatoric stress. They find that, in nature, the interaction between propagating dikes and pre-existing fractures is likely to occur when the horizontal distance that separates them becomes less than about 200 m, and they determine that dikes with a volume less than about $10-2 \text{ km}^3$ would experience a decrease in their propagation velocity owing to the presence of surrounding fractures.

The Garrotxa monogenetic volcanic field is part of the Catalan Volcanic Zone (Martí et al. 1992) and hosts one of the Spanish Peninsula's youngest volcanic fields (Fig. 1).

The Catalan Volcanic Zone is itself part of a major European belt of young volcanic zones and rift valleys (Wilson and Downes 1991) including the Eger graben and the Rhone–Rhine valley systems. Despite eruptive activity as recently as 10 ka BP (Cébria et al. 2000), the hazard potential of the Garrotxa volcanic field has been little studied and needs to be accurately assessed. Most of the volcanic activity of the Garrotxa took place along a WNW–ESE trending depression, corresponding to an eroded anticline of Eocene rocks (Martí et al. 2011; Fig. 1). The volcanic activity within the Garrotxa volcanic field is concentrated along structural lineaments (Martí et al. 2011; Cimarelli et al. 2013). Martí et al. (2011) described the main characteristics of the volcanism and the stratigraphic sequences of some key volcanic edifices in this area. They conclude that the main cause of the complex eruptive behaviour observed in the Garrotxa volcanic field resides in the lithological, structural and hydrogeological characteristics of the substrate beneath the volcanoes. However, knowledge of the subsurface architecture from geophysical data has so far only been available on a regional scale.

Here, we present results from a study of the subsurface structure beneath the Garrotxa volcanic field using new gravity and self-potential data to assess the relationship between the distribution of volcanic landforms and the subsurface structure of the field (Fig. 2).

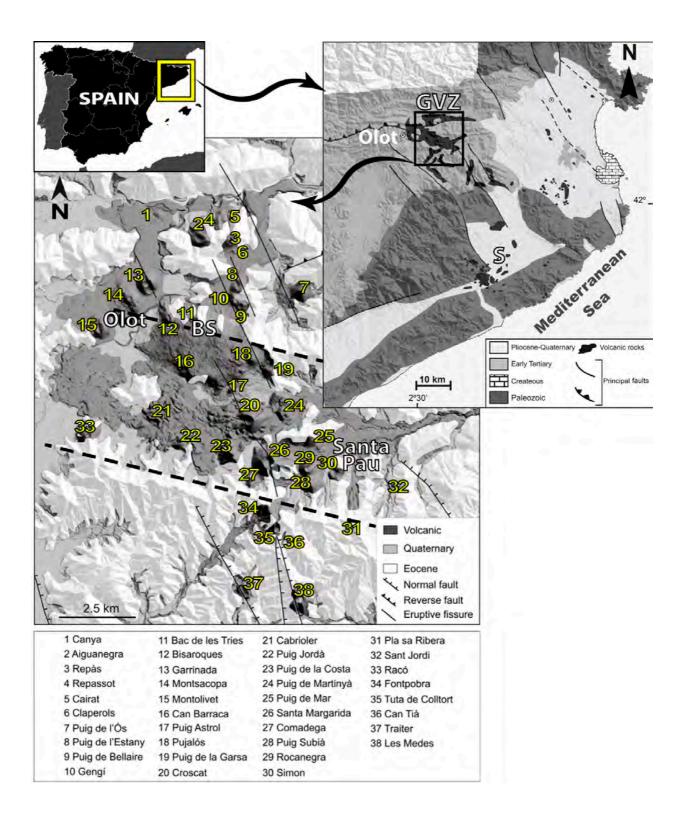


Fig. 1. Index and simplified geological and structural map of the studied area (modified from Martí et al. 2011). BS stands for Batet de la Serra village, and black dashed lines highlight the Garrotxa eroded anticline depression. Upper right inset Simplified geological map of the Catalan Volcanic Zone and its surroundings (modified from Guérin et al. 1985). GVZ Garrotxa Volcanic Zone, S La Selva.

2.3. Field investigations, data post-processing and modelling

2.3.1. Joint gravimetric and GPS surveys

Gravimetric data were obtained over 80 km² in the Natural Park of La Garrotxa, including all volcanic edifices outside the township of Olot. The survey area extends roughly between the townships of Olot and Santa Pau and follows the east—west elongated depression where most of the volcanic edifices are built (Fig. 1).

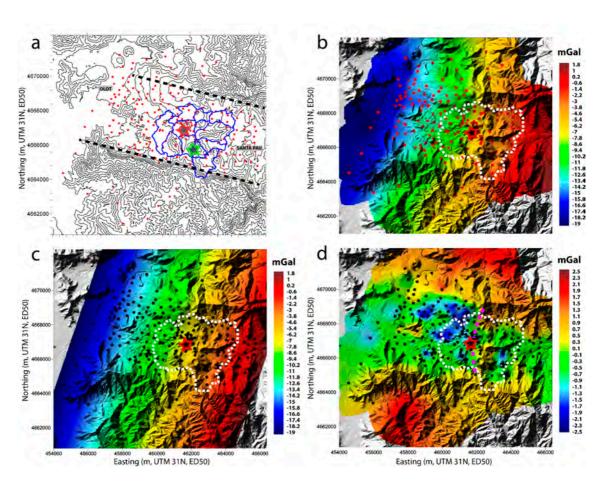


Fig. 2. a) Topographic contours for the area, overlain by the gravity data benchmarks (red dots) and the self-potential data points (blue dots). b) Bouguer anomaly map and index for the self-potential map (white dashed line). c) Regional anomaly. d) Residual gravity map obtained by subtracting the regional anomaly from the observed one; this residual anomaly is built to extract the short-wavelength signal. The pink dashed line highlights a steep gravity gradient described in the text. Red and black dots Gravimetry-survey benchmarks, red star Croscat volcano, green star Santa Margarida cone. Coordinates in metres (UTM31N–ED50).

Data were collected in September 2007 and March 2008 at 205 individual benchmarks (Fig. 2). Maximum distance between individual benchmarks in the central zone was about 1.5 km, and average distance between benchmarks around volcanic vents was <500 m. Gravimetric measurements were performed using an automated Burris gravimeter (B-028). Data at each benchmark were obtained by averaging a data stream from the gravimeter collected automatically by a handheld controller. The data collection is unbiased by the operator as the process of data

collection and processing to an observed gravity value is automated by the system. Individual measurements were obtained at an instrumental repeatability of better than 6 muGal (1 muGal = 10-8 m/s²). Data at benchmarks was recorded relative to a reference located at 4665916mN, 459604 mE (m, UTM 31 N, ED50).

We calculated the complete Bouguer anomaly (with terrain correction to a distance of 60 km). Raw data was reduced for the effects of instrument drift (approximately linear at -37.5 muGal/day), Solid Earth tides, latitude variations, difference of elevation between individual benchmarks and terrain effects using standard procedures. A terrain density of 2,450 kg/m³ was derived based on a minimum correlation between observed gravity variations and topography, inferred from digital elevation data of 15 m spatial resolution. This mathematically derived density value is in broad agreement with the densities of sedimentary surface rocks of the area. Gravity data are reported relative to absolute gravity reference value calculated theoretically at 980,240 mGal (see supplementary Table 1).

Benchmark locations and elevations were determined using a Global Satellite Navigation System composed of two LEICA SR20 Global Positioning System (GPS) single- frequency receivers. GPS data were collected simultaneously at benchmarks and at a reference station. The reference included an antenna mounted on a metal pole, which was fixed to the ground by a buried socket and a data logger. In total, we recorded more than 100 h of reference data at 10-s intervals. The roving receiver collected data in static mode from an antenna, which was carried on a pole housed in a backpack. GPS observation times varied inversely with signal quality between 6 and 30 min. One operator took GPS measurements at each benchmark, while another operated the gravimeter.

Benchmark locations were calculated with respect to the reference using LEICA SKIPRO software. We obtained an average precision on benchmark locations of <0.5 and 1 m in the horizontal and vertical, respectively. This precision is sufficient to correct the gravimetric data for the effect of elevation changes from benchmark to benchmark over the survey area in order to obtain a resolution of Bouguer gravity variations <1 mGal (=10-5 m/s²), which is deemed appropriate for the study. This contrasts with existing regional Bouguer anomaly data, which is associated with an uncertainty of at least a factor of 5 higher.

2.3.2. Gravimetric data uncertainties and adjustment of geodetic reference frames

Error analysis gives a mean precision of the differential gravity values of ± 21 muGal, which represents an excellent value for structural gravimetric observations. Nevertheless, final anomaly data also contain uncertainties coming from elevation data and from terrain corrections. We estimate a precision level of 0.3 muGal, for this combined data. Some complexities in processing the terrain effect arise from differences between the geodetic reference frame of the survey (ellipsoidal WGS84) and the reference frame of available digital topographic data (local reference frame with geoidal orthometric heights). We applied a mathematical correlation procedure to compare Northing, Easting and ellipsoidal height values of both frames. Fixing several reference points in either framework, we were able to derive the following relationships to match the DEM framework to our GPS positions and vice versa:

- 1: Easting = EastingDEM-88 m;
- 2. Northing = NorthingDEM-220.8 m
- 3: Geoid Height = Ellipsoidal heights from GPS measurements + 47.1 m

Three-dimensional (3D) positions of benchmarks between our GPS data and the available digital elevation data are thus offset according to the following shift values:

$$dz = 47.1 \text{ m}$$
 $dx = 88.0 \text{ m}$ $dy = 220.8 \text{ m}$

The value of dz of 47.1 m clearly corresponds to the height of the geoid in the zone (orthometric to geometric height translation). The values for dx and dy would correspond to a translation or horizontal discrepancy between the two reference systems. Cross-correlating both datasets, we obtain an average vertical precision of the digital elevation data of 2.52 m, which appears a reasonable value given that the DEM is based on gridded data with 15m precision. Supplementary Table 1 gives details on UTM benchmark coordinates (Zone T31), GPS heights and correlation with available digital elevation data of the survey area as well as the obtained gravity data.

2.3.3. 3D inversion of Bouguer gravity anomaly data

We performed a non-linear inversion of resulting local Bouguer anomaly data to construct a 3D model of the anomalous sub-surface density distribution (Fig. 3). The inversion routine is described in detail in Gottsmann et al. (2008) and Camacho et al. (2011) including sensitivity tests. In summary, the inversion constructs a subsurface model defined by a 3-D aggregation of M parallelepiped cells, which are filled, in a "growth" process, by means of prescribed positive and/or negative density contrasts.

We addressed the problem of non-uniqueness by adopting a mixed minimisation condition, based on model "fitness" (least square fitness) and "smoothness" (total anomalous mass):

$$\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{p}}^{-1} \mathbf{v} + \lambda \, \mathbf{m}^T \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{m}}^{-1} \mathbf{m} = \min, \tag{1}$$

where $\mathbf{m} = (\Delta \rho_{1_1}, ..., \Delta \rho_M)^T$ (superscript T denotes transpose of a matrix) are density contrast values for the M cells of the model, $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, ..., v_N)^T$ are residual values for the N data points, QD is an a priori covariance matrix for uncertainties of the gravity data, QM is an a priori covariance matrix for uncertainties of the model parameters, and λ is a factor for selected balance fitness/smoothness of the model (Camacho et al. 2011).

Key for the inversion is the selection of an optimal balance between data "fitness" (least-square fitness) and model "smoothness" (total anomalous mass) expressed by the dimensional optimisation factor λ . For low values of λ , the inversion results in the generation of an excessively complex model of the subsurface structure with very good fit to the data. For high values of λ , the inversion produces a simple model but with poor fit to the data. L-curve criterion is a popular approach to select the trade-off parameter (e.g., Aster et al., 2004). We adopt the optimisation procedure proposed in Camacho et al. (2011) as producing uncorrelated inversion residuals. In fact, for too high a value of λ , model residuals are large and auto-correlated with respect to their mutual distance. For too low a value of λ , model residuals show negative values of autocorrelation for small distances due to accounting for noise. The optimal value satisfies the condition of a zero autocorrelation of residuals with respect to the mutual distance between benchmarks.

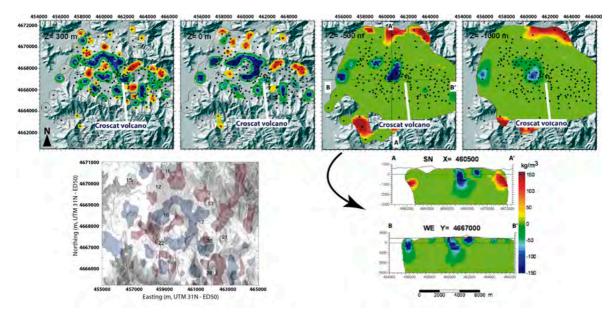


Fig. 3. Horizontal and vertical sections through the preferred density anomaly model of the Garrotxa depression (upper panel and lower right-hand side). Lower left-hand side depicts the modelled distribution of anomalous density bodies overlain by a digital elevation model. Isopycnic surfaces show the +120 kg/m³ (red) and -120 kg/m³ (blue) contrasts. Numbers of volcanoes refer to those shown in Fig. 1. The low density bodies are interpreted to result from a combination of tectonic lineaments and the sub-volcanic roots of the dominant volcanic landforms in the Garrotxa monogenetic volcanic field. High-density bodies in the centre of the modelling domain are interpreted as surficial features of the landforms such as lava flows. High-density bodies at the periphery of the modelling domain are poorly constrained due to low data coverage. Coordinates in meters (UTM31N–ED50)

3.3.4. Self-potential survey

The self-potential method measures the distribution of the electric potential at the surface of Earth or in boreholes, with respect to a reference electrode. Sources of self-potential fields include chemical potential gradients (Maineult et al. 2005, 2006), redox potentials (Linde and Revil 2007), rapid fluid disruption (Johnston et al. 2001) and electrokinetic conversion associated with fluid movement through porous materials (the so-called streaming potential). In active volcanic areas, the main source of self-potential variations is related to the flow of groundwater (e.g. Massenet and Pham 1985; Ishido et al. 1997; Bedrosian et al. 2007; Barde-Cabusson et al. 2009; Mauri et al. 2010; Pearson et al. 2012).

We used a pair of non-polarizing $Cu/CuSO_4$ electrodes. The microporous nature of the end contacts of these electrodes (made of a low-permeability wood) avoids leakage of the $CuSO_4$ solution during contact with the ground. The difference of electrical potential between a fixed reference and a moving electrode was measured with a calibrated high impedance voltmeter (Extech EX520, sensitivity of 0.1 mV, input impedance >10 $M\Omega$).

Before and after each series of measurements, the reference electrode and the moving electrode were put face-to-face to check that the difference of potential between the two electrodes was <2 mV (if this is not the case, the static value is removed to all the measurements). For each self-potential measurement, the value of the electrical resistance was also measured prior the self-potential measurement in order to check the quality of the

electrical contact between the scanning electrode and the ground (less than a few tens kilohms).

Self-potential measurements were obtained with a 300-m-long wire connecting the two electrodes. We performed a series of closed profiles between Olot and Santa Pau (2,073 measurements). The distance between two successive measurement stations was 20 m. Using a long cable avoids cumulative errors by changing the reference too often along the same profile. As the profiles are several kilometres long, a new reference station was established every 300 m. After the survey, the entire self-potential dataset was corrected using the first reference station as the unique reference. Usually, the 0 mV reference for self-potential measurements is taken at the sea or a water table as it provides a constant value in time. Because no such stable reference was available and self-potential is intrinsically a relative measurement, our self-potential data set is referenced arbitrarily to a point northeast of Santa Margarida (Fig. 1). A closure correction (below 50 mV for eight profiles and as much as 100 mV for three profiles) was applied to distribute the calculated data drift linearly on the profiles forming the dataset in order to limit cumulative errors.

Measurements of self-potential were only carried out in a small part of the area investigated by gravimetric measurements. Our aim was to test if near-surface structures such as fracture and faults have corresponding expressions at greater depth as revealed by the inversion of the gravimetric data and if the joint application of these potential field techniques in the Garrotxa yields useful insights.

2.4. Results

2.4.1. Local gravity anomaly

Figure 2b shows the resultant gravity anomaly data for the survey area with values between –19 and 2 mGal. The gravity data appears to follow a strong linear trend, which we modelled with a horizontal slope of 1,928 muGal/km and azimuth N108°E (Fig. 2c). We attribute this trend to regional large wavelength deep-seated geological structures associated with the topography of the metamorphic basement below a thrust belt at the SE part of the Pyrenees (Martinez et al. 1997). In order to derive the local gravity anomaly data (Bouguer anomaly), we subtracted the predicted gravity anomaly of the regional component from the oserved data. The resultant anomaly map is given in Fig. 2d.

The obtained Bouguer anomaly map shows a range in gravity variations in the survey area between -2.5 and + 2.5 mGal. Neutral to mildly negative (up to -0.7 mGal) gravity anomalies dominate a central elongated sector striking WNW–ESE and following the Garrotxa depression, which hosts the volcanic zone. A pronounced negative gravity anomaly with amplitudes of up to -2.5 mGal lays in the central part of the survey area bordering the high ground to the north. There is, however, no indication for a spatially extended large amplitude and coherent low-density structure beneath the entire volcanic zone, but rather for a series of spatially concentrated low-density bodies. The overall surficial shape of the dominant gravity-low resembles a horseshoe, which opens towards the SW (Fig. 2d).

Parts of the area dominated by low gravity values correspond to prominent volcanic edifices such as, the Croscat, Can Barraca, Puig Astrol and Pujalós volcanoes (see Figs. 1 and 2d with Croscat taken as a reference for localization). The anomaly is clearly bounded to the North (by areas of higher topography) as well as to the East with a steep horizontal gravity gradient towards neutral gravity. This transition occurs across a line striking roughly N–S (pink dashed line in Fig. 2d).

In addition, a linear element of relative higher gravity (+0.3 to +0.7 mGal; depicted by yellow colors in Fig. 2d; roughly at 4 666 000 mN and 463,000 mE) separates two zones with negative anomalies. This gravity high strikes NNE–SSW, coincides with a break in slope from the volcanic centres towards the town of Santa Pau and runs roughly parallel to the Eastern border of the dominant negative horseshoe-shaped gravity anomaly.

2.4.2. Gravity inversion results

The resultant gravity model is illustrated in Fig. 3, and the distribution of inversion residuals is shown in Fig. 4. Anomalous density contrasts range between –150 and 150 kg/m³, where neutral contrasts with terrain rocks are expressed by values of 0 kg/m³.

Bodies of positive and negative density contrasts dominate the near surface of the volcanic field. However, only low density bodies modelled in the centre of the survey area and underlying major volcanic landforms (predominantly scoria cones) appear to be rooted at greater depth with traceable extents to depths greater than –500 m. In particular, the size and extent of the dominant low-density bodies beneath the Croscat cone and its adjacent NW side are revealed. The lower left hand of Fig. 3 depicts the modelled distribution of anomalous density bodies overlain by a digital elevation model. Isopycnic surfaces show the +120 kg/m³ (red) and –120 kg/m³ (blue) contrasts (see Fig. 1 for numbered volcano names).

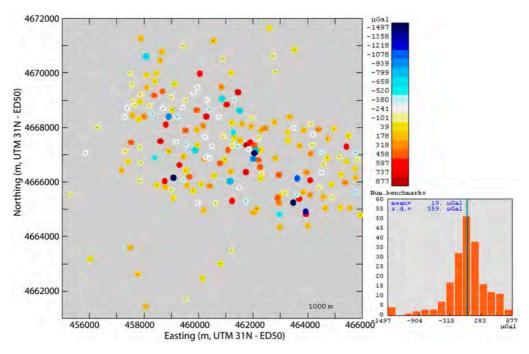


Fig. 4. Map showing the distribution of the inversion residuals as a proxy for the quality of fit of the model to the observations. The mean residual is 0.019 mGal with a standard deviation of 0.359 mGal, reflecting the best fit to the data as well as satisfying constraints of model smoothness (λ =40)

2.4.3. Self-potential

The most striking feature of the self-potential map is a sharp transition in the self-potential values from east to west, where the lowest values are registered (Fig. 5a). This transition takes place along a NNE–SSW axis in the northern part of the study area and along a NNW–SSE axis south of the Croscat volcanic cone. The NNW–SSE axis is outlined by sharp self-potential spatial variations northwest of the Croscat cone, south of the Croscat cone and a more gradual variation through the Santa Margarida cone. The self-potential map shows a total variation of ~340 mV. Maximum self-potential values have been measured in the eastern half of the study area with poor spatial variations (<30 mV) and no specific pattern identified through the orientation of the self-potential isolines. In this sector, however, as it coincides with a negative gravity anomaly (~-1.7 mGal; Fig. 5b), we note the presence of a low self-potential minimum (<20 mV under the local values) just north of the Rocanegra scoria cone. This variation is less than the background noise in the area, but it is clearly above the local noise (see profile a–b in Fig. 5a).

The Puig Subià cone shows a strong self-potential minimum of 150 mV below the surrounding background self-potential. A self-potential vs elevation graph of the whole dataset (Fig. 6) shows different distributions of the measurements for the eastern and western parts of the map, separated by the NNE-SSW and NNW-SSE lineations identified with self-potential. The eastern zone shows a linear trend with a self-potential vs elevation gradient of -0.19 mV/m, typical of hydrogeological zones on volcanoes (e.g. Lénat 2007). This contrasts with data from the western zone, which does not follow a particular trend. Only the isolated minima or maxima registered in the eastern part of the map diverge from this trend. As an example, the self-potential measurements corresponding to the strong minimum registered on Puig Subià plot outside of the hydrogeological trend (Fig. 6). At the south-western end of the map the self-potential signal tends to increase again. Additionally, some small-scale (a few tens of metres wide) self-potential minima or maxima are visible along single profiles. In particular, a self-potential minimum has been mapped in the Puig de Martinyà area (see profile c-d in Fig. 5a). The NNE-SSW and NNW-SSE self-potential axes coincide with the orientation of the residual gravity anomaly isolines corresponding to the gravity lows reported in the previous section (Fig. 5). Overall we find an excellent correlation between the gravity and self-potential anomalies as depicted in Fig. 7.

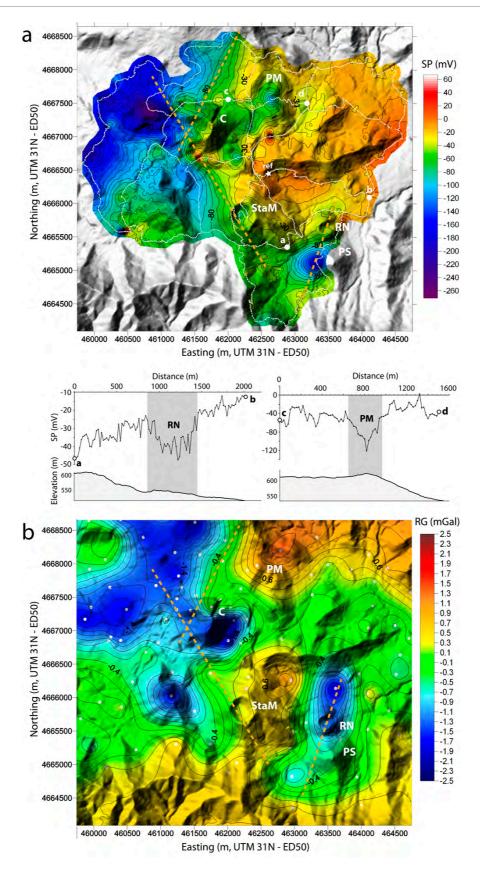


Fig. 5. a) Self-potential map overlain on a digital elevation model. In the lower part, two SP vs distance graphs and corresponding topography (ab and cd). b) Residual gravity anomaly map in the same area. Note how both self-potential and gravimetric data highlight NNE–SSW and NNW–SSE lineaments (orange broken lines). ref stands for the SP reference point, C Croscat, PM Puig de Martinyà, Sta M Santa Margarida, RN Rocanegra, PS Puig Subià.

2.5. Discussion

2.5.1. Distribution of volcanism related to local tectonics from gravity and self-potential data

The localized gravity lows (Fig. 2d) are interpreted to result from relatively low rock densities. These densities could reflect either volcanic surface deposits or rocks of the shallow plumbing system of individual volcanic centres. The rather abrupt change from neutral to both pronounced negative and positive gravity values and vice versa (horizontal gravity gradients > ±1 mGal/km) might indicate a structural confinement of the main anomalous density zones by conjugated faults. The data allow us to suggest a WNW-ESE orientation, which finds expression in the main structural lineaments of the Garrotxa graben. In addition, NNE-SSW and NNW-SSE axes are highlighted in the central part of the volcanic field (Fig. 5). Although the self-potential data covers only part of the gravimetry map, it supports the same NNE-SSW and NNW-SSE orientations with the strong transition observed from east to west (100 mV over a few hundred metres). The NNW-SSE axis matches the lineament drawn by the gravity high near Croscat and Santa Margarida cones (Fig. 5). Marti et al. (2011) interpret the Santa Margarida/Croscat/La Pomareda alignment as the result of a single eruptive episode along a NNW-SSE trending, 3 km long fissure. Our data provides geophysical evidence for a correlation between volcanism and tectonic structures, which may imply a structural control on magma at depth, establishing a basis for interpreting the self-potential variations associated with gravity anomalies in our study area.

The north-western sector of the self-potential map presents another sharp variation highlighting a NNE-SSW lineament. This coincides with the eastern limit of the north-western negative gravity anomaly (Fig. 5). No volcanic edifice is evident along this lineament, but our geophysical data might indicate the presence of a NNE-SSW-oriented structural boundary, similar to the NNW-SSE axis detected between the Croscat and Santa Margarida volcanoes. The former can be interpreted as a fault zone or a zone of failed shallow intrusions along an existing structural anisotropy. Due to the substantial vegetation cover and poor accessibility, there is a lack of precise geological data on the extent of surface deposits from individual eruptions or indeed small-scale volcanic edifices in this area. Volcanological field observations to the north and south of the Croscat volcano indicate that there is indeed no correlation between the spatial distribution of the surface deposits and the spatial limits of the geophysical structures. The stark difference in selfpotential values between the western and eastern zone (Fig. 6) suggests lateral heterogeneity of the medium (Lénat 2007). This indicates that the corresponding NNW-SSE and NNE-SSW lineaments might not simply mark eruptive fissures but may indicate faults separating two blocks with different hydrogeological properties and/or different global resistivity values. The presence of pre-existing faults is not necessary to explain the observed self-potential signal because the presence of dykes might impede groundwater movement, creating this contrast between the eastern and the western zones. Both interpretations, independently or combined, are compatible with the results.

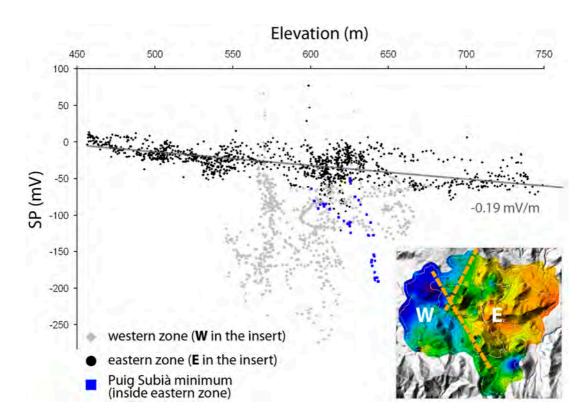


Fig. 6. Plot of the self-potential data as a function of elevation. A global trend illustrates the correlation between SP and elevation in the eastern zone of the SP map, with a SP/elevation gradient of -0.19 mV m-1, while this correlation does not exist in the western zone. Only punctual minima or maxima registered in the eastern part of the SP map plot outside this trend, as exampled by the Puig Subià minimum (blue squares).

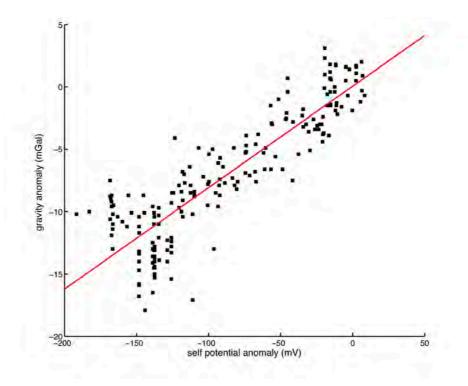


Fig. 7. There is a positive linear relationship between the gravity and self potential anomalies with a regression coefficient R =0.88. Due to different locations of the individual measurement points for the two techniques, the SP data have been interpolated at the gravity benchmark to test for a possible correlation.

North of the Rocanegra cone, the eastern negative gravity anomaly (Fig. 5) is associated with a weak self-potential minimum showing a sharp variation at the limits (see profile a–b in Fig. 5). This minimum is of ~20 mV with respect to the surrounding area, which is significantly higher than the signal noise along the corresponding profile. South of Rocanegra, on the Puig Subià cone, we also measured a strong self-potential minimum of ~150 mV. Again, no relationship could be established with the surface lithology. These self-potential minima are thought to be related to preferential meteoric infiltration or to a sharp lateral resistivity variation. The association and sharp limits of the self-potential minima and the negative gravity anomaly might indicate a structural limit such as a fault or a fissure, guiding infiltration of groundwater. The respective location of Rocanegra and Puig Subià, two well-preserved volcanic edifices, establish a NNE–SSW alignment with the measured anomalies. This direction and the similar preservation state of the two cones are consistent with a genetic link between them along a NNE–SSW oriented structural weakness (Fig. 5).

It is interesting to note that volcanic edifices occur only within the depression formed by the eroded anticline. Wetmore et al. (2009) discuss the relationship between intrusions and folding on local scale and give the example of the Trachyte Mesa intrusion (Utah, USA), which was emplaced into a series of northeast trending upright and open folds formed during the Jurassic. The fold axes strike sub-parallel to the long axis of the Trachyte Mesa intrusion, and the geometry of the basal contact of the intrusion appears to follow the morphology of the fold limbs. The majority of the intrusion is confined within the axis of a syncline bounded by anticlines on either side. The authors suggest that both pre-existing structures and the density of the magma relative to that of the host rocks fundamentally controlled the emplacement of this intrusion. In the case of the Garrotxa volcanic field, we cannot unambiguously establish a causal relationship between the anticline and the volcanic activity, but note that there are strong indications for the presence of structural lineaments that cut across the anticline and contributed to the localisation of magma pathways (see below).

2.5.2. Density anomaly models of volcanic roots

The 3D density anomaly model shows a dominant body of negative density contrast, with an annulus of isolated density lows of similar amplitude (up to $-150 \, \text{g/m}^3$). The centre of the main anomalous body is located ~1 km WNW of the ~14 ka Croscat volcano, the youngest volcano in this area (Puiguriguer et al. 2012). The -2mGal Bouguer anomaly is explained in the model by a coherent arcuate and rather shallow-seated (to depths of around sea level) low-density structure. The anomaly is well defined by numerous gravity stations and its diameter at the surface is about 2 km. Its northern border appears buried beneath the morphological high of the plateau between Batet de la Serra village and Pujalós volcano (Fig. 1). Beneath the main central depression of the Garrotxa (between Olot and the Croscat cone), the anomaly is modelled for an optimisation factor λ =40 by a shallow zone extending at least 1 km deep over a zone about 1.5 km wide and characterized by up to $-150 \, \text{kg/m}^3$ density contrast (see cross-sections in Fig. 3). A possible explanation of this dominant structure is that it represents a combination of the (pyroclastic) sub-volcanic root of the surficial scoria cones and fault/fissure damage zones. The portions of these structures beneath Batet de la Serra village and Pujalós volcano appear to be shallow intrusions

branching from the main low-density bodies, which fed the scoria cones in the central depression as depicted in the N–S cross-section and by the –120 kg/m³ isopycnic surfaces (Fig. 3). The roughly NNE–SSW extension of the western arc and the roughly NNW–SSE extension of the eastern arc may delineate magma pathways along the dominant structural features of the Garrotxa. It is perhaps interesting to note that the deeper portions of the low density bodies resemble cylindrical geometries, which may delineate the shallow magmatic feeder systems of individual volcanoes in the western part of the study (near Olot), as well as the scoria cone cluster at the centre of the volcanic field (Croscat and its neighbouring volcanoes to the SW and W). From west to east, the Garrinada, Can Barraca, Cabrioler, Puig Jordà, Puig de la Costa, Croscat, Puig Subià, Rocanegra, Puig de Mar and Simon volcanoes are modelled to contain low density roots to several hundred metres depth.

The origin of the main low-density body near Croscat deserves further examination. First, it appears that the cluster of volcanic cones in the centre of the Garrotxa has been fed by a common fault-bounded magmatic feeder system from which conduit-like structures fan away at surficial levels (<1,000 m depth) to feed monogenetic volcanoes of the central zone. Second, the stratigraphic record of the Croscat edifice shows evidence for violent Strombolian activity during its generation (Marti et al. 2011). This implies an increase in intensity of eruption, inferred to result from deepening of the fragmentation level. Therefore, in addition to a tectonic origin for the low-density structure, the body could also be a testament of pyroclastic roots beneath the cones.

In contrast to Croscat, a pronounced negative density body is absent beneath Santa Margarida volcano, which appears bounded in the north by a high-density body next to the low density volume beneath Croscat. Such a sharp change in density contrasts is striking and our interpretation is that a NNE–SSW trending fault zone and potentially a second zone striking perpendicular to it separates the plumbing systems of Croscat and Santa Margarida, masking a potential low-density root beneath Santa Margarida. In addition, the eruptive history of Santa Magarida volcano is profoundly different from that of Croscat. Santa Magarida is almost exclusively built of phreatomagmatic lithic-rich deposits from surges. The absence of a dominant density low beneath Santa Magarida could also result from a fundamentally different fragmentation process of its magma, which according to its stratigraphic record never attained the substantial violent Strombolian character that its neighbour Croscat did (Marti et al. 2011).

2.5.3. Volcano-tectonics of the Garrotxa monogenetic field

The main lineaments identified by the geophysical study intersect the edges of the depression formed by the Garrotxa eroded anticline (Martinez et al. 1997). The NNW–SSE trending lineaments run parallel to major regional structures expressed by major normal faults (see insert in Fig. 1). One could thus envisage a mini-(half) graben almost perpendicular to the main WNW–ESE striking eroded anticline defining the location of the central volcanic zone of the Garrotxa, between Olot and Santa Pau. In order to explain the negative density contrasts, a substantial amount of pyroclastic material or porous lavas with lower than average bulk densities must be present. In this context and based on the data and modelling presented herein, we surmise that the presence and location of the volcanic centres is tectonically controlled by a network of conjugate faults intersecting the anticline axis.

2.5. Conclusions

The main finding of this study is that the central part of the Garrotxa volcanic field is underlain by low-density material. Porous volcaniclastic deposits including the pyroclastic roots of volcanic edifices in combination with fault and fissure damage zones appear to be the main candidates to explain the observed gravity anomalies. Volcanism appears to be controlled by NNE-SSW and NNW-SSE tectonic structures identified by both gravimetric and self-potential data. The Croscat, Santa Margarida and RocaNegra volcanoes lie atop a conjugated fault system. The combination of the two geophysical methods has helped us to explore and link the surficial expressions of monogenetic volcanism and characteristic fault/fissure zones of the volcanic field with magma pathways and their sub-surface structures to depths of about 1 km. Identification of such volcano-morpho-tectonic structures and their mutual relationships is critical for better understanding the dynamics of monogenetic volcanic fields. Our study demonstrates the close link between tectonic structures and magma pathways in the evolution of the Garrotxa volcanic field with potential to guide future eruptive activity. This subject is of substantial interest for the assessment of causes and consequences of future volcano-tectonic unrest and volcanic reactivation in the Garrotxa and other monogenetic volcanic fields.

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Suplemental Table 1: Detailed listing of gravity benchmarks and resultant gravity data.

Benchmark	(GPS(Z+47.1m)		DEM*	Diff)	Gravity **	Anomaly**
Name	Easting	Northing	Height	(m)	(m)	μGal**	μGal**
GPS Ref	459604	4665916	560.53	559.0	-1.5	980240000	-4331
SG0001	459567	4665876	548.95	547.0	-2.0	980236309	-10170
SG0002	459665	4666192	569.48	567.1	-2.4	980233151	-9837
SG0003	459531	4666425	553.86	551.0	-2.9	980235617	-10848
SG0004	459529	4666410	553.56	550.1	-3.4	980235603	-10895
SG0005	459294	4666626	549.53	544.4	-5.2	980236840	-10737
SG0006	459448	4666926	556.23	554.3	-1.9	980235199	-11351
SG0007	459866	4667172	559.84	557.7	-2.1	980233796	-12213
SG0008	459554	4667388	557.82	555.9	-2.0	980234151	-12374
SG0009	459183	4667476	563.95	560.3	-3.7	980232837	-12374
SG0010	458906	4667143	549.34	546.2	-3.2	980236091	-11984
SG0011	459077	4666160	530.86	530.9	.1	980237324	-13158
SG0012	460411	4665858	574.65	570.3	-4.3	980233247	-8288
SG0013	459978	4665250	564.78	562.9	-1.9	980232958	-9389
SG0014	460190	4664964	578.32	574.9	-3.4	980229985	-8070
SG0015	460631	4665222	567.34	564.2	-3.2	980233882	-7745
SG0017	464092	4666062	511.29	510.3	-1.0	980253250	-1501
SG0018	463617	4666139	555.06	552.3	-2.7	980240875	-4777
SG0019	462944	4666259	595.77	599.0	3.2	980233715	-3072
SG0020	462316	4666308	622.16	622.9	.7	980227091	-4982
SG0023	463828	4665625	526.53	528.5	1.9	980248453	-2627
SG0024	463690	4665376	533.34	535.6	2.3	980246253	-2667
SG0025	463934	4664815	552.12	555.5	3.4	980242740	-1535
SG0026	463996	4664397	601.45	604.1	2.6	980232580	-478
SG0027	463927	4664915	525.12	536.7	11.6 *	980245911	-3632
SG0028	463601	4665526	555.08	557.2	2.1	980240936	-3778
SG0029	463469	4665246	597.65	600.1	2.5	980230194	-5302
SG0030	463171	4665625	544.33	546.9	2.5	980242881	-3734
SG0031	459800	4665684	573.28	571.2	-2.1	980231953	-9673
SG0032	462993	4665490	565.21	567.1	1.9	980238836	-3486
SG0033	462933	4665243	572.22	572.9	.7	980237493	-3282
SG0034	462958	4664819	574.69	577.8	3.1	980235881	-3999
SG0035	462971	4664350	628.43	627.7	7	980225233	-2334
SG0036	462902	4665428	604.00	602.2	-1.8	980231196	-3026
SG0037	462277	4666133	655.00	654.8	2	980219992	-4812
SG0038	461228	4665301	652.99	653.4	.4	980218643	-5998
SG0039	461157	4666027	631.30	633.4	2.1	980220936	-8948
SG0040	462001	4664882	657.58	659.6	2.0	980218572	-4394
SG0041	462136	4665025	665.01	668.3	3.3	980217566	-4248
SG0042	461743	4665304	621.96	627.8	5.9	980224650	-6189
SG0043	461505	4665797	595.24	596.6	1.4	980229787	-7339
SG0044	460777	4666683	590.77	590.5	2	980230354	-8624
SG0045	461174	4666381	615.82	614.1	-1.7	980225631	-8047
SG0046	461740	4666367	616.95	620.5	3.6	980227013	-6110
SG0047	462255	4666548	618.02	619.7	1.7	980228081	-5150
SG0048	462189	4666812	618.18	620.5	2.4	980227329	-6193
SG0049	462008	4666853	636.45	639.2	2.7	980221241	-8162
SG0050	462274	4667174	608.18	612.8	4.6	980229279	-6562
SG0051	462042	4667341	610.03	615.0	4.9	980229058	-6596
SG0052	461757	4667355	610.93	613.1	2.2	980228373	-6861
SG0053	461445	4667302	613.58	614.8	1.2	980225165	-8813
SG0054	461244	4667480	604.50	604.4	1	980227759	-9178
SG0055	461313	4667649	610.03	611.6	1.6	980226911	-9014
SG0056	461527	4667524	613.31	614.7	1.4	980226920	-8215
SG0057 SG0058	461887 460576	4667455 4666238	612.65 571.31	614.4 567.2	-4.2	980228566 980233453	-6685 -8919
SG0058 SG0059	460576	4666826	608.18	610.4	2.3	980233453	-8919
300039	1 00737	4000020	000.10	010.4	4.5	200440/30	-0212

SG0060	461085	4667178	604.58	607.3	2.8	980227894	-8725
SG0061	461235	4667314	611.31	613.7	2.4	980226150	-9110
SG0062	461268	4667819	622.69	626.0	3.4	980223616	-9803
SG0063	462093	4667152	627.88	630.6	2.7	980223749	-7943
SG0064	461825	4667206	624.75	631.8	7.0 *	980223671	-7884
SG0065	462043	4667063	643.30	645.0	1.7	980219434	-8786
SG0066	462198	4667624	626.18	627.6	1.5	980225890	-6408
SG0067	462293	4667902	631.86	634.6	2.7	980225747	-5711
	461925	4668040	638.02	638.7		980223747	-7078
SG0068					.6		
SG0069	461585	4668135	653.98	656.2	2.3	980218426	-8593
SG0070	461214	4668171	669.80	672.3	2.5	980213680	-9862
SG0071	460739	4668396	669.06	667.0	-2.0	980212958	-10983
SG0072	460400	4668664	663.24	663.5	.3	980213731	-11606
SG0073	460288	4668998	664.47	663.4	-1.1	980213285	-11986
SG0074	460047	4669981	653.61	653.2	4	980216992	-10000
SG0075	459968	4669462	636.56	635.2	-1.4	980219118	-12292
SG0076	459829	4669265	622.39	622.7	.3	980221601	-12703
SG0077	459527	4668992	596.99	595.7	-1.3	980226014	-13331
SG0078	459116	4669593	554.68	552.9	-1.8	980235266	-13240
SG0079	459006	4669106	529.16	528.8	4	980239489	-13942
SG0080	459956	4667351	553.34	550.0	-3.3	980235887	-11548
SG0081	460241	4667647	545.74	542.8	-2.9	980237740	-11243
SG0082	460172	4668064	569.72	567.4	-2.3	980233505	-10432
SG0083	459937	4667918	536.47	533.8	-2.7	980239897	-11081
SG0084	460491	4667319	574.67	571.0	-3.7	980231892	-10922
SG0085	460929	4667676	602.68	601.7	9	980227424	-9969
SG0086	460283	4668403	657.43	654.0	-3.5	980216001	-10221
				1			
SG0087	461029	4668845	726.91	728.0	1.1	980201771	-9910
SG0088	461314	4669019	724.92	723.2	-1.7	980202404	-9892
SG0089	460834	4669477	705.21	705.0	2	980206232	-9894
SG0091	460086	4665935	571.93	568.1	-3.8	980233249	-9070
SG0092	460399	4666857	580.69	578.0	-2.7	980230880	-10401
SG0093	460222	4666849	567.26	564.2	-3.1	980233926	-10118
SG0094	460256	4666903	576.94	572.9	-4.0	980231426	-10722
SG0095	459510	4667892	532.90	530.5	-2.4	980240370	-11549
SG0096	458798	4668113	513.72	512.6	-1.1	980243165	-12780
SG0097	459223	4668398	510.36	507.1	-3.3	980242694	-13888
SG0098	459434	4668732	582.43	580.6	-1.8	980228371	-13593
SG0099	459025	4668641	502.91	503.2	.3	980244207	-14150
SG0100	459925	4668641	630.81	628.5	-2.3	980220686	-11405
SG0101	461441	4669295	723.86	722.0	-1.9	980204455	-7870
SG0102	460853	4669054	709.70	709.1	6	980204190	-11447
SG0103	461509	4668619	709.10	710.3	1.2	980205174	-10099
SG0104	461955	4668349	669.27	671.0	1.8	980215876	-7729
SG0105	462443	4667973	634.35	636.1	1.8	980225286	-5076
SG0106	464417	4665809	483.35	486.7	3.3	980258725	-1094
SG0107	464519	4666347	488.59	490.2	1.6	980257969	-1731
SG0108	464578	4666638	471.19	473.7	2.5	980261804	-1679
SG0100	464108	4667039	471.19	477.3	3.4	980260695	-2312
				1			
SG0110	463710	4667332	500.60	503.4	2.8	980254633	-3299
SG0111	463267	4667533	517.19	519.4	2.2	980250398	-4243
SG0112	462815	4666874	571.01	572.3	1.3	980238356	-4578
SG0117	457869	4669215	430.16	429.0	-1.1	980258392	-15405
SG0118	457852	4668952	430.56	430.2	4	980258107	-15365
SG0120	457590	4668963	435.46	434.8	7	980256337	-16186
SG0121	457398	4668706	439.04	438.8	2	980254718	-16879
SG0122	457654	4668815	434.48	434.3	2	980256630	-15977
SG0123	457569	4668445	438.21	436.4	-1.8	980255872	-15618
SG0124	457300	4668379	441.67	442.7	1.0	980253995	-16761
300124					_	. —	
SG0124 SG0125	457800	4668300	436.80	436.8	.0	980256419	-14951
	457800 458000	4668300 4668400	436.80 446.10	436.8 446.1	.0	980256419 980257178	-14951 -12390

SG0128	458300	4668500	454.60	454.6	.0	980253215	-14864
SG0129	458700	4668700	473.90	473.9	.0	980249625	-14724
SG0130	458900	4668400	503.70	503.8	.1	980243099	-15101
SG0131	458600	4667500	547.20	547.2	.1	980237064	-11504
SG0132	463960	4666358	503.41	505.4	2.0	980253803	-2495
SG0134	464966	4667949	526.11	527.6	1.5	980251422	-467
SG0135	464730	4667577	497.34	496.5	8	980257265	-1011
SG0136	464508	4667083	469.20	470.7	1.5	980262007	-2151
SG0138	459462	4666072	556.04	552.1	-3.9	980234171	-11219
	458754		538.35	535.0	-3.3	980237449	-11219
SG0140		4666034		1			
SG0141	458775	4665814	531.34	528.5	-2.8	980237970	-11433
SG0142	459071	4665415	573.03	570.0	-3.0	980229209	-10684
SG0143	458996	4665711	532.34	528.4	-3.9	980237866	-11290
SG0144	458471	4665890	516.23	515.0	-1.2	980240417	-12005
SG0145	457830	4666053	513.20	512.8	4	980239806	-13534
SG0146	457180	4666424	495.63	496.2	.6	980242542	-14649
SG0147	457421	4666751	490.89	492.1	1.2	980244534	-14658
SG0148	457311	4667132	484.21	484.2	.0	980245863	-15139
SG0149	457524	4667454	475.59	475.0	6	980248726	-14276
SG0150	457845	4667277	490.19	490.4	.2	980245712	-14202
SG0151	458382	4666890	512.89	513.8	.9	980241268	-13565
	464712			463.8	1.5		
SG0153		4666885	462.28			980264145	-1320
SG0154	465158	4666928	455.22	459.2	4.0	980266355	-435
SG0155	465417	4667295	479.21	480.8	1.5	980262301	931
SG0156	465495	4667688	483.83	485.8	2.0	980261262	751
SG0158	464167	4667364	480.05	480.3	.2	980259462	-2604
SG0159	464194	4667734	498.43	499.8	1.4	980255924	-2574
SG0160	464389	4667929	519.44	521.0	1.6	980252273	-1579
SG0161	464110	4668133	523.14	523.8	.7	980250993	-2537
SG0163	463849	4667903	505.04	506.1	1.1	980254248	-2972
SG0164	463331	4668392	548.39	549.5	1.1	980244878	-3540
SG0165	463496	4667982	508.45	511.7	3.2	980252624	-4008
SG0166	462787	4668193	564.36	561.6	-2.7	980240614	-4147
						980240614	
SG0167	463257	4667831	518.90	518.9	.0		-4113
SG0168	465403	4666749	436.74	438.0	1.3	980270595	160
SG0169	465825	4666820	425.32	427.0	1.7	980273628	816
SG0170	465758	4667086	433.56	436.2	2.6	980271580	530
SG0171	465217	4666283	452.39	455.1	2.7	980266911	-093
SG0172	465731	4666500	431.24	433.7	2.5	980272223	739
SG0173	465741	4666151	435.72	436.5	.8	980271286	1051
SG0174	465788	4665634	436.46	438.0	1.5	980269997	723
SG0175	465546	4665050	470.60	471.7	1.1	980262637	1323
SG0176	465916	4664790	461.65	463.3	1.6	980265162	2153
SG0177	465372	4665980	473.24	475.8	2.5	980262866	607
SG0178	464869	4665916	459.32	459.5	.2	980264625	-432
SG0179				1	1.7		
	465207	4665082	517.35	519.0		980252719	727
SG0180	464893	4665441	464.20	466.1	1.9	980263076	048
SG0181	464564	4665454	511.49	508.3	-3.2	980252897	-254
SG0182	464635	4665034	494.32	494.1	2	980256241	210
SG0185	464093	4665528	510.26	512.0	1.7	980252661	-1465
SG0186	457566	4669584	433.77	432.0	-1.8	980257409	-16060
SG0187	457877	4666705	499.03	500.4	1.3	980243466	-14070
SG0188	457479	4669991	438.37	436.4	-2.0	980256822	-16077
SG0189	458084	4669923	428.64	425.8	-2.8	980259717	-14928
SG0190	458392	4669691	461.88	460.0	-1.9	980253678	-14048
SG0191	458374	4669176	468.93	468.7	2	980252021	-13894
SG0192	458675	4669322	497.44	494.0	-3.4	980246772	-13366
540172	458095	4669464	448.04	446.4	-1.7	980255897	-14547
SCU103	せいひひろう			1	-2.0	1	-14347
SG0193	150151	1660006					- 14/40
SG0194	458451	4669986	448.25	446.2		980256406	
	458451 458594 458665	4669986 4670456 4670792	448.25 426.19 418.85	446.2 424.5 417.1	-2.0 -1.7 -1.7	980261326 980263352	-13942 -13904

SG0198	460556	4671179	464.23	459.4	-4.9	980258559	-9832
SG0199	460880	4670522	487.66	483.1	-4.5	980253089	-9753
SG0200	461181	4670011	522.47	523.4	1.0	980245348	-9019
SG0201	462598	4671647	403.84	402.4	-1.4	980274305	-6206
SG0202	462706	4670615	435.69	433.7	-2.0	980267016	-6330
SG0203	462811	4670046	430.10	428.1	-2.0	980267241	-5922
SG0204	463517	4670845	489.55	487.1	-2.5	980258404	-4127
SG0206	454591	4664374	471.50	471.3	2	980242295	-18081
SG0207	456026	4663175	496.04	496.7	.7	980240460	-13997
SG0208	457502	4663590	553.95	557.8	3.9	980232349	-10797
SG0209	458063	4661433	511.11	514.1	3.0	980241632	-8369
SG0210	459521	4661707	531.08	529.6	-1.5	980239976	-6345
SG0211	460151	4662466	591.09	589.3	-1.8	980229303	-5866
SG0212	461194	4663484	639.28	644.0	4.7	980220851	-5087
SG0213	460807	4663005	620.37	619.6	7	980224466	-5192
SG0214	457768	4662619	549.20	547.9	-1.3	980233510	-8887
SG0215	455312	4665529	467.67	469.4	1.7	980244606	-17486
SG0216	455862	4667073	459.73	458.7	-1.0	980246867	-18867
SG0217	456300	4668006	475.17	472.4	-2.7	980245940	-17806
SG0218	458082	4670595	453.34	448.7	-4.6	980253452	-16302
SG0219	457880	4671260	428.81	426.4	-2.4	980260163	-15359

Geophysical exploration on the subsurface geology of La Garrotxa monogenetic Volcanic Field (NE Iberian Peninsula)

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3.1. Abstract

We applied self-potential and electrical resistivity tomography to the exploration of the uppermost part of the substrate geology and shallow structure of La Garrotxa monogenetic Volcanic Field, part of the European Neogene-Quaternary volcanic province. The aim of the study was to improve knowledge of the shallowest part of the feeding system of these monogenetic volcanoes and of its relationship with the subsurface geology. This study complements previous geophysical studies carried out at a less detailed scale and aimed at identifying deeper structures, and together will constitute the basis to establish volcanic susceptibility in La Garrotxa. Self-potential study complemented previous smaller-scale studies and targeted key areas where electrical resistivity tomography could be conducted. The main new results include the generation of resistivity models identifying dykes and faults associated with several monogenetic cones. The combined results confirm that shallow tectonics controlling the distribution of the foci of eruptive activity in this volcanic zone mainly correspond to NNW-SSE and accessorily by NNE-SSW Neogene extensional fissures and faults and concretely show the associated magmatic intrusions. These structures coincide with the deeper ones identified in previous studies, and show that previous Alpine tectonic structures played no apparent role in controlling the loci of this volcanism. Moreover, the results obtained show that the changes in eruption dynamics occurring at different vents located at relatively short distances in this volcanic area are controlled by shallow stratigraphical, structural, and hydrogeological differences underneath these monogenetic volcanoes.

Keywords: monogenetic volcanism · Garrotxa Volcanic Field · electrical resistivity tomography · self-potential · subsurface geology · feeding system

3.2. Introduction

Monogenetic volcanism is characterised by the formation of volcanoes that extrude small amounts of magma in each eruption (0.01–0.2 km³) (Walker 2000). These short-lived eruptions are often grouped in volcanic fields (Connor and Conway 2000; Walker 2000; Valentine and Gregg 2008) and are common under a variety of geodynamic conditions (Francis 1993; Connor and Conway 2000; Walker 2000). A particular feature of this type of volcanism is the great variety of resulting eruptive styles, morphologies and deposits (Houghton et al. 1999; Connor and Conway 2000; Parfitt 2004; Valentine and Gregg 2008). This diversity is caused by compositional changes (e.g. volatile content), magma supply rate, local tectonics (e.g. stress fields, degree of fracturing, basement mechanical behaviour) or by the hydrogeological characteristics of the substrate (e.g. Vespermann and Schmincke 2000; Walker 2000; Martí et al. 2011; Bolós et al. 2012; Pedrazzi et al. 2014). A good example of the great diversity found in monogenetic volcanic fields is the European Cenozoic Rift System, which encompasses several different volcanic areas, all related to the same geodynamic environment but with different local tectonics (Wilson and Downes 1991, 1992; Downes 2001; Dèzes et al. 2004).

The location and distribution of monogenetic volcanic fields depend on the size and shape of the magmatic source, i.e. it is governed by regional geodynamics. However, the distribution of the eruptive vents within each volcanic field is the result of the geological structure and stress fields found in the upper crust at the moment of activity in each location (Zhang and Lutz 1989; Connor and Conway 2000; Cebrià et al. 2011).

The factors controlling the precursory activity in monogenetic volcanic fields are still poorly understood and so eruptions in these systems are difficult to forecast. In monogenetic volcanism each new eruption creates a different vent, suggesting that volcanic susceptibility contains a high degree of randomness and that accurate spatial forecasting is at best highly uncertain. Recent studies of monogenetic volcanism reveal how sensitive magma migration is to changes in regional and/or local stress fields caused by tectonic or lithological contrasts (e.g. former magmatic intrusions) (Martí et al. 2013). This may induce variations in the pattern of further magma movements and thus affect the location of future eruption sites.

The spatial distribution of eruptive vents may help reveal fracture patterns. At depth, magma rises towards the surface following the path that is normal to the minimum stress in the area (Connor and Conway 2000; Gudmundsson 2006; Cebrià et al. 2011). Near to the Earth's surface, it may become increasingly influenced by pre-existing structures and, for example, be captured by pre-existing faults and joints (e.g. Valentine and Gregg 2008; Le Corvec et al. 2013). Therefore, knowledge of regional and local tectonic controls and structures and the position of the eruptive vents is essential for understanding past volcanism. The relationship between the position of past eruptive focuses and these controls and structures will be important for determining the location of future vents (Martí and Felpeto 2010).

Geophysical exploration and more specifically geoelectrical methods have been used in the last decades to investigate structural geology and the feeding system in different volcanic areas around the world. For example, in New Zealand Nishi et al. (1996) applied self-potential surveys to study the hydrothermal system of White Island Volcano. Bibby et al. (1998) used electrical resistivity imaging to characterise the upper crust of the Taupo Volcanic Zone. In Italy Di Maio et al. (1998, 2000) applied electrical and electromagnetic methods to study the structure of Mount Somma and Campi Flegrei. In Japan Hase et al. (2005) studied the hydrothermal system beneath Aso volcano with self-potential and resistivity measurements. In Massif Central of France Portal et al. (2013) explored the inner structure of Puy de Dôme volcano from electrical resistivity tomography, gravity and muon imaging. These studies and others referenced therein have proven the efficiency of geoelectrical methods for studying the structure and geology of volcanoes.

A previous geophysical study has been performed in La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (GVF) by Barde-Cabusson et al. (2014) dealing with deeper structures (up to 3 km in depth) associated with the volcanism of this area. This study was based mainly on the application of gravimetry and self-potential techniques, and revealed interesting features of the internal structure of the area (e.g. the presence of low density bodies associated with the main Neogene fault and fissure systems). However, this study did not clarify the superficial aspects of the possible control exercised by the substrate geology or identify any shallow structural features. Thus, in order to obtain a much better resolution of the shallower structures of this area a new geophysical survey was carried out that covered a greater area than the previous self-potential survey and undertook electrical resistivity tomography surveys throughout the whole area. The self-potential data confirm and complement previous results, which, combined with the new electrical tomography data, offer a more detailed picture of the substrate geology and structure beneath the volcanoes of La Garrotxa.

In this paper we describe the methodology used to conduct the field surveys and to process the data gathered, and then present the data obtained. We interpret the geological meaning of the data and, finally, discuss their relevance to subsoil geology in highly built-up areas and/or areas covered by dense vegetation. We identify the local shallow tectonic controls operating on the distribution of eruptive vents in the GVF and situate them in a more complex regional context.

3.3. Geological setting

The GVF is part of the Catalan Volcanic Zone (CVZ) (NE Spain), one of the Quaternary alkaline volcanic provinces associated with the intraplate European Cenozoic Rift System (Martí et al. 1992; Downes 2001; Dèzes et al. 2004) (Figure 1). It covers an area of about 600 km² and is located between the cities of Olot and Girona (Figure 1). This basaltic volcanic field contains over 50 cones including cinder and scoria cones, tuff rings and maars, ranging in age from 0.7 Ma to early Holocene (Martí et al. 2011). Materials from the upper Palaeozoic, Eocene and Quaternary characterize the substrate. The volcanism of the GVF is mainly represented by alkaline rocks with poorly evolved magmas, i.e. basalts and basanites (Araña et al. 1983; Cebrià et al. 2000). A notable feature of this area is the presence of mantle xenoliths and lower crust cumulates (Araña et al. 1983; López-Ruiz and Rodriguez-Badiola 1985; Martí et al. 1992; Neumann et al. 1999; Cebrià et al. 2000), which suggests that some of the eruptive fissures and faults reached quite deeply into the lithosphere and that some were the same regional normal faults which bound the area's horsts and grabens (Martí et al. 2011).

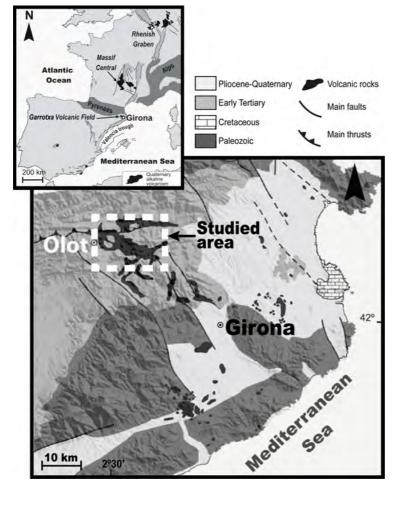


Fig. 1. a) Simplified map of the distribution of the volcanism in the European Cenozoic Rift System. b) Simplified geological map of the Catalan Volcanic Zone (modified from Guérin et al. 1985).

The GVF is laterally limited by two main NNW–SSE fault systems: the Llorà Fault to the east and the Amer Fault to the west, which are thought to be responsible for the distribution of the area's volcanism and its fluvial network (Saula et al. 1995; Martí et al. 2011; Bolós et al. 2012; Cimarelli et al. 2013). Most of the volcanoes in the study area are located between the towns of Olot and Santa Pau (Figure 2). They stand on folded Eocene basement, characterized by conglomerates, sandstones, marls, clays and gypsum (Bracons and Bellmunt Formations) that outcrops as an eroded anticline with an E–W axial plane. This anticline and the reverse faults described in the area were formed during the Alpine Orogeny (Martinez et al. 1997) (Figure 2).

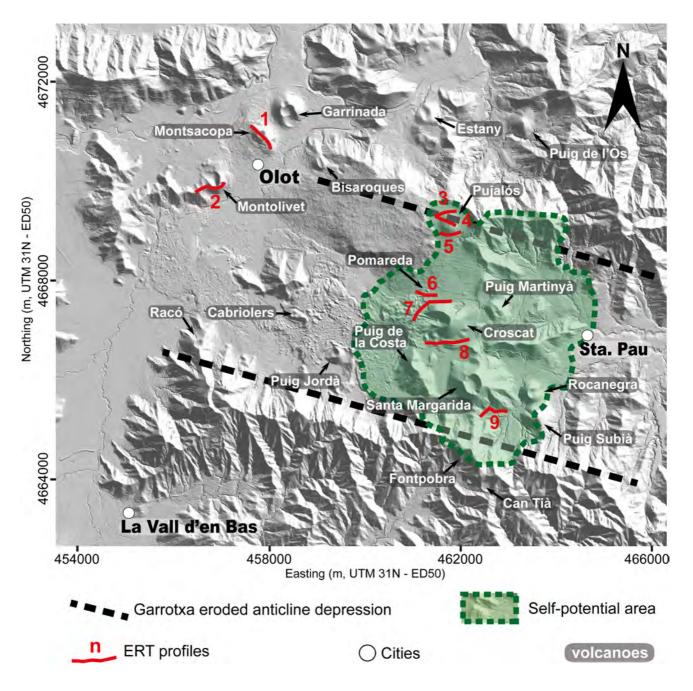


Fig. 2. Digital Elevation Model of the study area, with location of the self-potential and ERT profiles described in this study.

3.4. Methods

The study area extends roughly between the towns of Olot and Santa Pau, both inside and outside the elongated E–W-eroded anticline depression in which most of the volcanic edifices of the GVF are situated (Figure 2). The study involved the application of self-potential (SP) and electrical resistivity tomography (ERT), which generated data that, in conjunction with existing geological data, enabled us to map geological units and to delineate structural limits at the surface and in the substrate below the volcanic edifices. The SP measurements focused on a number of key volcanic edifices and provided surface information to a resolution of 20 m, thereby allowing the main structural limits to be identified; the ERT profiles, on the other hand, provided 2D geological, structural and hydrogeological information at depth.

The main mechanism responsible of self-potential signals in volcanic terrains is the electrokinetic effect. This mechanism produces a positive electrical potential in the flow direction. When the groundwater moves through a porous rock matrix or in fractures and discontinuities of the substrate, electrochemical interactions occur at the interface between a mineral and the pore water. In normal pH conditions the surface of silicate and alumino-silicates is negatively charged and the zeta-potential is negative. In order to maintain a global electroneutrality in the system, the electrical double (or triple) layer theory says that the diffuse layer has a net charge of opposite sign (positive) to the surface charge of the mineral. In this way the positive electrical charges are dragged by groundwater in the direction of the flow, creating positive self-potential anomalies over discharge areas and negative anomalies over recharge areas (e.g. Revil 2002).

The SP map drawn by Barde-Cabusson et al. (2014) was completed by means of 474 new measurements in additional profiles that covered a total of 10 km. All the SP measurements were made with a high impedance voltmeter (Extech EX520, sensitivity of 0.1 mV, input impedance >10 M Ω) using two non-polarised Cu/CuSO₄ electrodes and a 300-m section of cable. The difference in potential between the reference electrode, which was placed at the start of the profile, and the moving electrode was measured. In all, the SP surveys correspond to a series of profiles involving a total of 2,547 measurements with a distance of 20 m between successive stations. Additional data were corrected for closure errors based on the previous SP dataset correction with a single reference (Figure 3; for details of the field methodology, see Barde-Cabusson et al. 2014).

Electrical resistivity methods are based on the principle that the distribution of electrical potential in the ground around a current-carrying electrode depends on the electrical resistivities and distribution of the surrounding rocks. Resistivity measurements are commonly used for investigating various types of subsurface exploration problems. As a general principle, the acquisition techniques consist in measuring, between two electrodes (M, N), the difference of potential generated by the electrical current which is injected into the ground via two other electrodes (the transmitting line AB). Electrical resistivity tomography (ERT) surveys are normally carried out with multi-electrode resistivity systems. Such surveys use a number of electrodes deployed in a straight line at equal intervals and computer-controlled system is then used to select the active electrodes for each electrode set-up automatically (Griffiths and Barker 1993). This allows a large number of measurements to be performed and 2D resistivity high-resolution data can be obtained very quickly. The ERT data were acquired with an Iris Syscal Pro resistivity system. A Wenner-Schlumberger electrode configuration was used with 48

electrodes connected to a 470-m section of cable (10 m between electrodes) that enabled us to obtain a maximum depth of investigation of 100 m. The main reason for choosing a mixed Wenner-Schlumberger array in areas where both types of geological structures (vertical and horizontal) are expected to occur is because better results might be obtained. The signal strength of this hybrid array is weaker than the one provided by the Wenner array, but the depth of investigation is increased and lateral coverage is improved (Martorana et al. 2009). Besides, in the Wenner-Schlumberger configuration, the measured voltage signal drops to the level of electrical noise as the distance between the current electrodes becomes very large while keeping the potential dipole length constant. This is because the measured potential signal in the Schlumberger array is inversely proportional to the square of the current electrode spacing, whereas in the dipole-dipole array the measured potential signal is inversely proportional to the third power of the current electrode spacing.

A total of nine ERT profiles of different lengths were obtained from 16 acquisitions using 470-m-long sections (Figure 2). The roll-along method was used to obtain five of the profiles (profiles 1, 2, 7, 8 and 9). Profiles 7 and 8 consisted of three sections with half the cable length overlapping, giving each a total length of 950 m, while profiles 1, 2, and 9 were composed of two sections, each with a total length of 710 m. Finally, four profiles (3, 4, 5 and 6) consisted of individual sections.

The data obtained were interpreted using an inversion process to provide a resistivity section that approximates the actual subsurface structure and to locate their boundaries spatially below the surface of the site. The apparent electrical resistivity data acquired in the field were processed with the Res2dinv software from GEOTOMO© (Loke 2002), which is based on the smoothness-constrained, nonlinear least-squares optimization technique, was used to obtain the interpretative model. The inversion algorithm is an iteratively reweighted least-squared method based on the Gauss-Newton method; in addition, the Jacobian matrix of partial derivatives is always recalculated using the finite-element method. The first step in the inversion is the estimation of an initial model. Next, the solution is iteratively improved by varying the model parameters to minimize the discrepancies between the observed and the calculated responses. The inversion program uses a 2D model divided into a number of rectangular blocks (pixels of inversion models), whose arrangement is made according to the distribution of the data points in the pseudo-section (Loke and Barker 1996). In the model we also included topographical information obtained from the Digital Elevation Model (DEM) to a resolution of 15x15 m from Catalan Geographic Institute (www.icc.cat). The RMS error (representation of the reproducibility of the data from the inverted model) was in most cases less than 7% but increased in the roll-along profiles.

3.5. Results

3.5.1. Self-potential map

The SP map (Figure 3) shows a total variation of ~300 mV. The main feature of the map is the transition from east to west: in the east, low amplitude SP spatial variation (<30 mV) is observed, while in the west the SP isolines are oriented NNW–SSE and NNE–SSW. Additional more isolated negative SP peaks are visible at Rocanegra Strombolian volcano, Puig Subià and

Puig Martinyà (Figure 3). One of the most significant features of this new SP map is the abrupt E–W transition (with the lowest values recorded on the western side) observable in the northern sector centred on the Pujalós volcano. In the southernmost part of the map, the new data that complement the data generated by Barde-Cabusson et al. (2014) show a continuation of the NNW–SSE lineament crossing the volcanoes of Croscat and Santa Margarida (Figure 3). This area corresponds to the southern high-point of the anticline, where a normal fault and pyroclastic deposits from the Fontpobra volcano are found (IGC; 1:25 000, www.igc.cat).

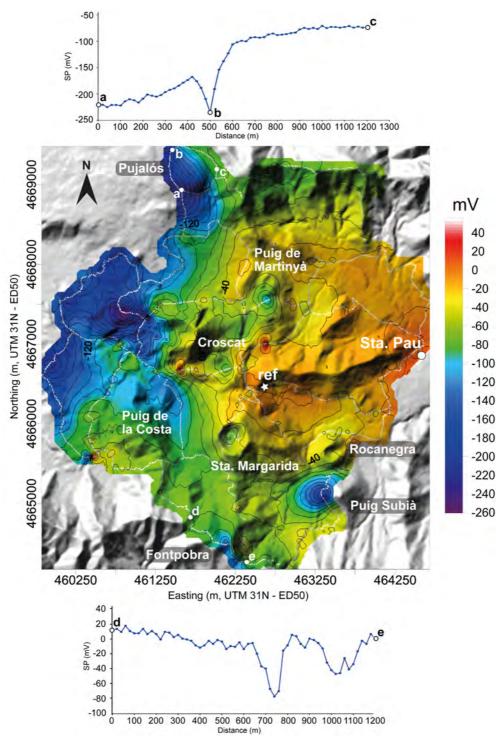


Fig. 3. Self-potential map. In the upper and lower part of the figure, the two SP vs. distance graphs correspond on the map to the 'abc' and 'de' profiles. White dots show the location of the SP measuring stations. Coordinates in UTM - 31N - ED50.

3.5.2. Electrical resistivity tomography

ERT profiles show in some cases excessively high resistivity values, ranging from less than $10~\Omega$ m to hundreds of thousands of Ω m. These high resistivities are generated by the inversion process in Res2dinv when strong resistivity contrasts exist close to the surface. This occurs if materials with very low resistivity such as clay, silt and organic soils come into contact in parallel with materials with very high resistivity (Loke 2002). For this reason, we chose a colour scale whose maximum corresponds to values of resistivity >26,000 Ω m, the value measured for the massive basaltic intrusions that outcrop in the field that were the highest measured in the area. This enabled us to provide a more realistic picture of the subsurface repartitioning of the resistivity. In Res2dinv, however, we imposed a cell width of half the unit electrode spacing, which allowed us to obtain optimal results in profiles with high contrasts in resistivity (Loke 2002).

Profile 1: Montsacopa volcano

Profile 1 was carried out through the central part of the Montsacopa edifice (Figure 4) in a NNW–SSE direction. It is characterized by resistivity values from ~100 to over 26,000 Ω m. The lowest values are visible in the shallowest part of the high resistivity intrusive and spatter products below the volcano's crater A. In the southeastern half of the profile, high values of resistivity are interrupted by a small zone of lower resistivities (Figure 4) corresponding to another hidden crater (crater B) (Bolós 2009; Barde-Cabusson et al. 2013). These craters are aligned in a NNW–SSE direction.

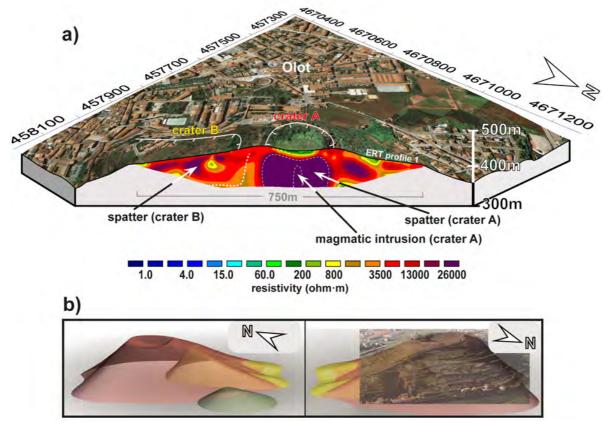


Fig. 4 a) Orthophotograph overlaid on a 3D block diagram of ERT profile 1 corresponding to Montsacopa volcano (RMS error 5.7%). b) 3D interpretation model showing the overlapping cones inside the edifice. Coordinates in UTM - 31N - ED50.

Profile 2: Montolivet volcano

An E–W profile was conducted on the southern side of the Montolivet volcano. Profile 2 (Figure 5) reveals a zone of high resistivity (>1,000 Ω m) located mainly in the eastern half of the edifice, with a thickness of over 80 m. The deepest part of this profile had lower resistivity values (~60–1,000 Ω m) that define a horizontal interface with the upper resistive layer. This deep layer continues in the western part of the volcano, where the values are also lower (~20–200 Ω m), and is separated from the eastern high resistivity zone by an interface dipping 45° eastwards in the cross-section defined by the ERT profile.

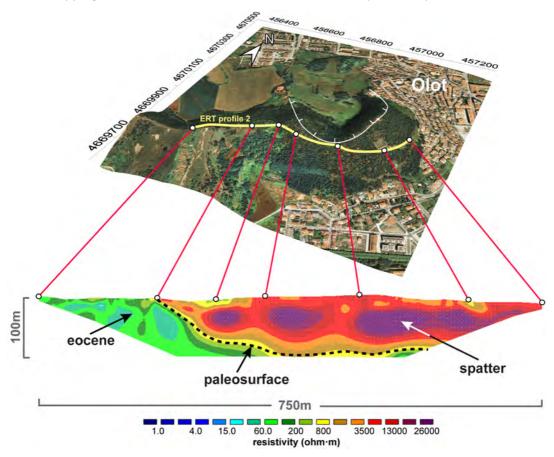


Fig. 5 Top: orthophotograph overlaid on a Digital Elevation Model with the location of ERT profile 2 (yellow line) corresponding to Montolivet volcano. Bottom: ERT model (RMS error 3.0%). Coord. in UTM - 31N - ED50.

Profiles 3, 4 and 5: Pujalós volcano

Three profiles were carried out on the Pujalós volcano as a means of comparing results with variations in the SP. Profile 3 in the northern part of the volcano (Figs. 6a and b) cuts across the NNW–SSE lineament shown by the SP. This profile reveals a shallow conductive layer (40–400 Ω m) overlaying a resistive layer (>1,000 Ω m) that continues to the maximum depth of exploration in the western half of the profile, but narrows eastwards to a thickness of ~40 m (Figure 6b). Profile 4 was acquired through the centre of the volcanic cone (Figs. 6a and c) and obtained a resistivity model that is very similar to that from profile 3 (Figure 6b). Profile 5 was located in the southern part of the volcano and crosses the NNW–SSE SP lineament described above (Figs. 6a and d). Although the repartition of the resistivity is not as clear in this ERT model as in the two previous profiles, an

a)

irregular resistive layer is seen to extend from a depth of 50 m to the maximum depth of the exploration. In the upper part, a less resistive layer is sometimes interrupted in places by resistive bodies connected to the deeper layer and sometimes also to the topography surface. Strombolian fallout deposits and spatter facies have been observed on the surface, coinciding geographically with the high resistivity values in the shallow part of these profiles.

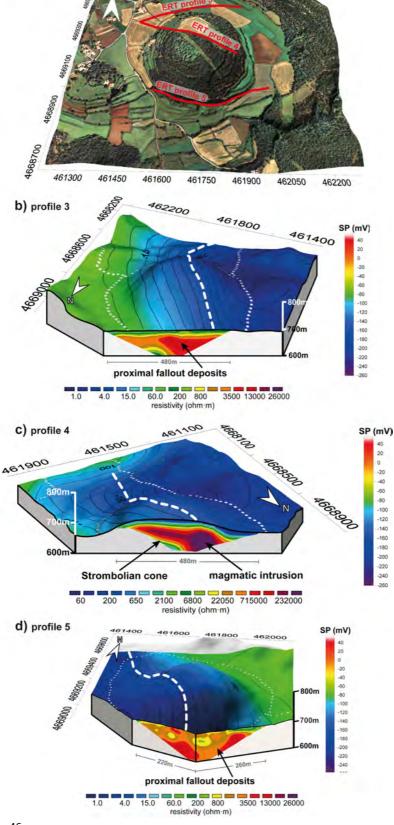


Fig. 6. a) Orthophotograph overlaid on a digital elevation model with the location of the ERT profiles (red lines). b), c) and d) 3D block diagrams of Pujalós volcano, showing the corresponding SP mapping on the surface and ERT profiles 3 (RMS error 2.9%), 4 (RMS error 15.2%) and 5 (RMS error 3.7%) in the cross-section. White dotted lines show the location of the measurements. White dashed line identifies the SP lineation. Coordinates UTM - 31N - ED50.

Profile 6: La Pomareda spatter cone

Profile 6 cuts across the Pomareda volcano in an E–W direction (Figure 2) and has the highest resistivity values (~13,000 – ~26,000 Ω m) detected at the surface in the study area (Figure 7). In the field this unit corresponds to massive basaltic lava flows and spatter deposits. A 15–20-m-thick layer appears to be connected to the deepest part of the resistivity model via a narrow channel reaching ~4,000 Ω m. This channel crosses a less resistive layer (400–2,000 Ω m) and joins a deep, high resistivity horizontal layer with values that range from ~2,000 Ω m in the west to ~10,000 Ω m in the east (Figure 7).

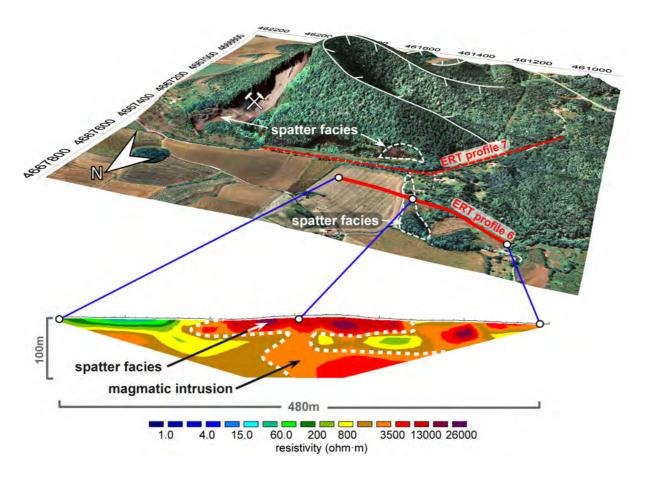


Fig. 7. Top: orthophotograph overlaid on a digital elevation model with the location of ERT profile 6 corresponding to Pomareda volcano (red line). Bottom: ERT model (RMS error 5.5%). Coordinates in UTM - 31N - ED50.

Profiles 7 and 8: Croscat volcano

Profile 7 (Figure 8) was carried out in an E–W direction (Figure 2) on the northern side of the volcano and it was composed of three different sections that were processed jointly. It has a high inversion error (RMS=22.5%) due to the poor quality of the measurements carried out in the western part of the profile. We processed each section separately and found RMS errors of 11.9%, 15.2% and 35.8% from east to west, respectively, indicating that the data from the westernmost section is the least reliable.

One of the main elements of the profile is observed in its centre (Figure 8, zone A), where a resistive body shows values over 20,000 Ω m. This body is elongated and rises vertically from the base of the resistivity model almost to the topography surface. Its lateral contacts are well defined on both sides and there is a sharp lateral transition of the resistivity. In the cross-section this body is ~30-m thick in its shallowest part and ~60-m thick at depth. In the westernmost part of the profile its resistivity values are of the same order of magnitude (Figure 8, zone B); this area is quite homogeneous from the surface to the maximum depth of exploration (Figure 8).

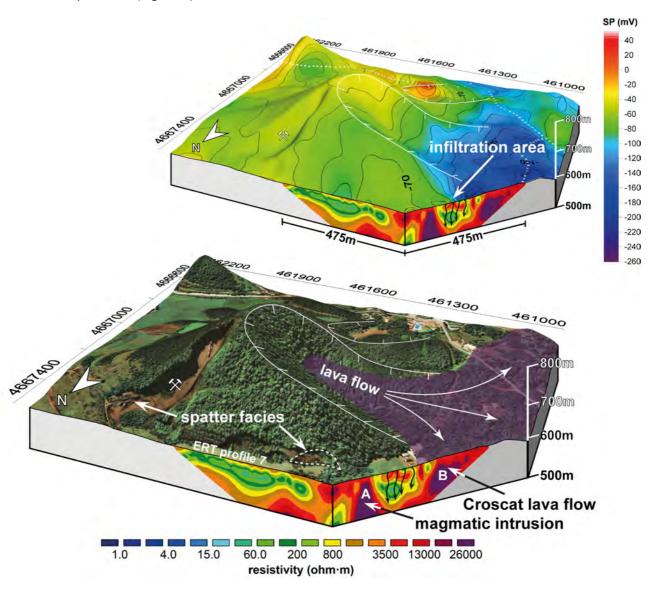


Fig. 8. 3D block diagrams for ERT profile 7 located on the northern side of Croscat volcano. The upper part of the figure shows the surface SP map overlaid on a Digital Elevation Model. In the lower part, an orthophotograph is overlaid on the same Digital Elevation Model. The corresponding ERT profile is presented in the cross-section (RMS error 22.5%). Coordinates in UTM - 31N - ED50.

Profile 8 has the same direction as profile 7 (E–W) and it is located on the southern side of the volcano (Figure 9). A resistive body borders the western part of the profile (Figure 9, zone A) and extends from the maximum depth of exploration (here \sim 70 m) to the

topography surface. Due to the presence of a main road we were unable to extend the profile further to the west to gain a better idea of the geometry of this resistive body. A few metres to the east a resistive bulge with no continuity at depth coincides with the deposits of Croscat's secondary crater (Figure 9, zone B). Throughout the rest of the profile, a 30–15-m-thick resistive level (1,000–13,000 Ω m) overlies a more conductive layer (50–1,000 Ω m). In the easternmost part of the profile these layers appear to be shifted downwards by ~10 m, thereby defining a western and an eastern block. This separation also coincides with a discrete break-in-slope in the topography. The eastern block is overlain by a conductive layer that is just a few metres thick. The deepest layer has the highest conductive values encountered in the profile (reaching values <4 Ω m) (Figure 9, zone C), a whole order of magnitude lower than the corresponding layer in the western block.

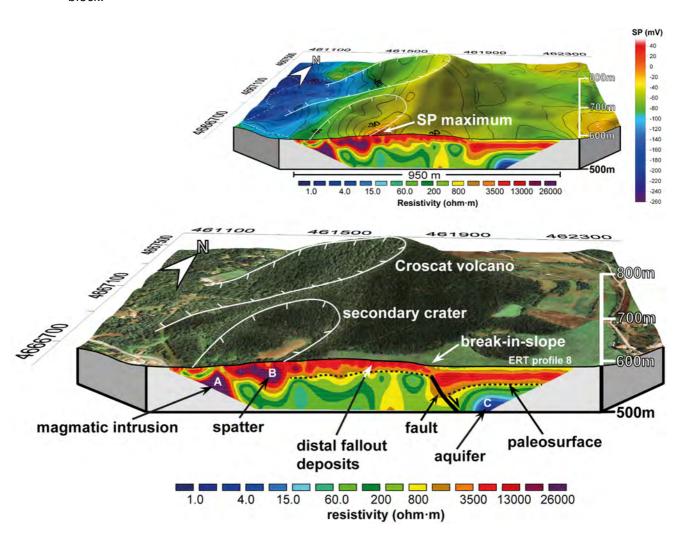


Fig. 9. 3D block diagrams for ERT profile 8 located on the southern side of Croscat volcano. The upper part of the figure shows the surface SP map overlaid on a Digital Elevation Model. In the lower part, an orthophotograph is overlaid on the same Digital Elevation Model. The corresponding ERT profile is presented in the cross-section (RMS error 11.7%). Coordinates in UTM - 31N - ED50.

Profile 9: Santa Margarida volcano

Profile 9 is located on the south of Santa Margarida volcano (Figure 10). With an RMS error of 11% after six iterations, this profile may be unreliable since it also included a lot of unrealistic data points that we removed during processing with Res2dinv. The distribution of the resistivity is not as clear as in the other resistivity models. Nevertheless, the most interesting feature here is probably the observation of a resistive body at a depth of about 70 m in the east of a resistive body (>10,000 Ω m), possibly connected to shallower layers along a narrow pathway (Figure 10, zone A).

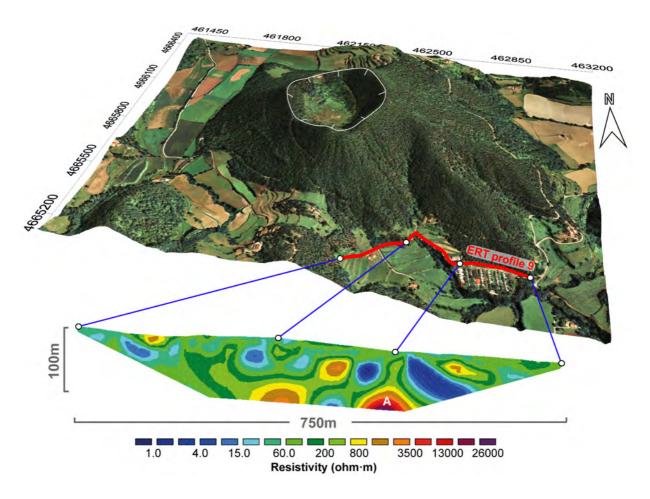


Fig. 10. Top: orthophotograph overlaid on a Digital Elevation Model with the location of ERT profile 9 on the southern side of Santa Margarida volcano (red line). Bottom: ERT model (RMS error 11.0%). Coordinates in UTM - 31N - ED50.

3.6. Discussion

Interpretations of the new SP map enable us to identify structures that were subsequently observed in two dimensions in the high-resolution ERT profiles. Surface geological information was also useful for interpreting the ERT profiles.

As proposed by Barde-Cabusson et al. (2014; Figure 5a), the main observed features are the NNW-SSE and NNE-SSW trends that show up in the SP, suggesting that the volcanic field is structurally confined by this conjugated fault system that favoured magma ascent.

This hypothesis is confirmed by the ERT profiles performed in the directions described above. We identified several very shallow intrusive bodies aligned along the profiles whose crosssections are geometrically more or less vertical which narrow near the surface, and which are characterized by high resistivity values. This is fully compatible with the presence of feeder dykes. In the northern part of the map, at least two of the three ERT profiles (i.e. profiles 3 and 4) from Pujalós volcano (Figure 6) reveal resistive bodies that continue beyond the maximum depth of exploration. Although the distribution of the resistivity in the third southern profile (profile 5) is less clear, the direction of the line joining the main resistive bodies detected in these profiles matches the NNW-SSE SP trend detected in this volcano. Figure 3 contains a graph of SP vs. distance passing north of Pujalós that shows a clear negative peak corresponding geographically to the location of the resistive body in profile 3 that is not present in the SP profile passing south of this volcano. This peak cannot be explained by the non-linearity of the SP profile in the north and could be a consequence of meteoric water infiltration along a structural limit covered by impermeable material in the south. We believe that profiles 3 and 4 merely reveal the upper part of the feeder dyke as it flares on reaching the topography surface (Valentine 2012; Barde-Cabusson et al. 2013).

The Santa Margarida-Croscat-La Pomareda alignment in the central part of the study area was described by Martí et al. (2011) as the result of a single eruptive episode occurring along a 3-km long fissure system. Our study provides geophysical and geological evidence supporting this idea. La Pomareda ERT (profile 6) was performed across the inferred fissure zone (Figure 7) and generated high resistivity values that can be related to outcropping spatter facies. At depth, the resistive channel connecting the spatter at the surface to the deepest zone can be interpreted as the feeder dyke that supplied the eruption. The resistivity values obtained for this channel ($^{\sim}3,500 \Omega$ m) are lower than those obtained for the resistive bodies found along the same fissure near Croscat volcano. It is important to bear in mind, however, that the Pomareda spatter cone forms a smaller edifice than Croscat. These observations suggest that the magma flow rate - and thus the intensity of the eruptive activity – was lower at this point on the fissure. Croscat, built on the same eruptive fissure, is a complex volcano with several vents and several eruptive phases including violent Strombolian and phreatomagmatic episodes (Martí and Mallarach 1987; Martí et al. 2011). The ERT profiles performed north and south of this volcano (Figure 8 and 9, respectively) exhibit resistive bodies that are compatible with the presence of a feeder dyke aligned with the Pomareda volcano in a NNW-SSE direction (Figure 11). At the surface a spatter facies was found in profile 7 and a secondary cone is visible near profile 8. The westernmost resistive body described in profile 7 matches a lava flow that occurred during the final phase of Croscat's eruption (Figure 8). An important feature observable in the eastern part of profile 8 (Figure 9) is a clear shift of ~10 m at the base of the upper resistive layer, which has been mapped as fallout deposits and a lava flow from Croscat (Cimarelli et al. 2013). These volcanic deposits probably cover a pre-existing normal fault that affects the underlying Eocene units and is revealed only by a small break-in-slope visible in the surface topography. In the eastern block the underlying unit is clearly more conductive than in the western block due to the presence of an aquifer confined to the west by the fault plane (Figs. 9 and 11). This fault is likely a conjugate of a Neogene fault mapped 200 m to the southeast (IGC; 1:25 000, www.igc.cat) or a prolongation of the same. Its presence has important implications for understanding eruptive dynamics in monogenetic volcanic fields since it may explain why hydromagmatic and Strombolian activity can take place simultaneously or within short time spans, in close proximity to each other or even in the same edifice (e.g. Martí et al. 2011; Pedrazzi et al. 2014). Thus, tectonic limits may play an important role in defining the diversity of monogenetic volcanoes owing to their impact on hydrogeology at shallow depths. In the eastern part of profile 9 (Figure 10) in the south of this area, a resistive body (>10,000 Ω m) is present at a depth of 70 metres. This body is aligned with Santa Margarida-Croscat-La Pomareda fissure system, therefore it correspond presumably to a magmatic intrusion, which did not reach the surface in this profile.

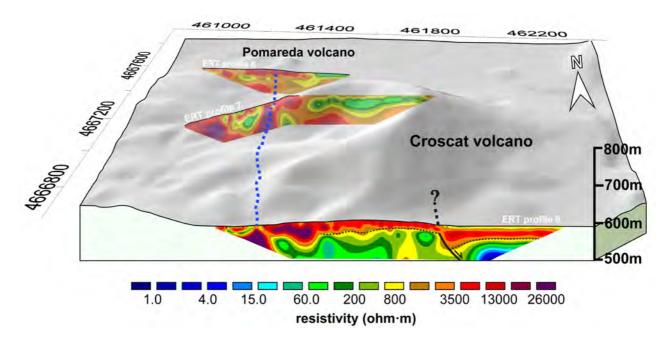


Fig. 11. 3D block diagram of Croscat and Pomareda volcanoes showing ERT profiles 6, 7 and 8. The blue dashed line highlights a NNW–SSE eruptive fissure.

The area of Olot ERT profile 1 (Figure 4) performed on the Montsacopa volcano has already been described by Barde-Cabusson (2013). The present study confirms that in addition to the obvious crater on its summit, there is a hidden vent located on the southeastern flank of this volcano, as suggested by Bolós (2009). These two coalescent cones are aligned in a NNW–SSE direction. Montsacopa and the two other volcanic edifices within the city of Olot (Garrinada and Montolivet) all have several vents that define three separate NNW–SSE lines which reflect the direction of their corresponding eruptive fissures (Martí et al. 2011). This finding contrasts with previous studies that assumed that the eruptions of Montsacopa, Garrinada and Montolivet were located along a single NE–SW fissure (Calderón et al. 1906; San Miguel de la Cámara 1918; Mallarach and Riera 1981; Gisbert et al. 2009).

ERT profile 2 crosses the southern flank of Montolivet and the outcropping Eocene basement (Bellmunt Formation) that is characterized by conglomerates, sandstones and clays. The Bellmunt Formation appears in the profiles as shades of green ($^{\sim}20-500~\Omega$ m) only on the western side and at depth (Figure 5). The transition towards the high resistivity values of the Montolivet volcanic deposits defines the pre-eruptive topography. The highest resistivity values have no continuity at depth, which suggests that this area is characterized only by proximal facies deposits and that this profile (profile 2) did not cross the feeder dyke

(Figure 5). Nevertheless, the horseshoe-shaped depression of Montolivet's crater indicates that the feeder fracture runs in a NNW–SSE direction (i.e. fault-strike breaching, Tibaldi 1995), as seen in other areas (Corazzato and Tibaldi 2006). Differently, Croscat's crater is open to the west, even though all the data obtained show that it is associated with a NNW–SSE fault. Crater breaching might coincide with fracture propagation (e.g. Montolivet volcano) or with the weakest zone of the cone (e.g. Croscat volcano) (see Tibaldi 1995). The NNW–SSE direction determined for the nearby Montsacopa and Garrinada volcanoes tends to support this interpretation of Montolivet. A hypothesis that explains why the feeder dyke is not visible in the ERT profile is that the edifice of Montolivet was in fact built at the southeastern tip of the fissure.

Two main fault systems were identified in the study area: an E–W compressive fault system formed during the Alpine Orogeny and a NNW–SSE normal fault system formed during the current extensive context (Martinez et al. 1997). The data obtained suggest that volcanism in the area is controlled by the recent extensive fault system and that the Alpine system played no role in controlling magma ascent and/or eruptions. These NNW–SSE normal faults are almost perpendicular to the limits of the E–W depression formed by the Garrotxa anticline.

The Pujalós and the Fontpobra volcanoes provide key information on the faults associated with the GVF volcanism. Both are located outside the depression of La Garrotxa, very close to the northern and southern limits of the anticline, respectively. However, ERT (in the case of Pujalós) and self-potential (Pujalós and Fontpobra) suggest the presence of NNW–SSE eruptive fissures, which would indicate that the tectonic limits associated with the Alpine Orogeny did not determine the volcanic intrusions in the GVF.

3.7. Conclusions

New geophysical data were combined with field geological information to explore the subsurface geology and structure of the monogenetic Garrotxa Volcanic Field. We identified feeder dykes and structural limits associated with known eruptive vents. The information derived for the subsurface provides data that is useful for interpreting the influence of shallow geological and structural settings on the eruptive dynamics of this monogenetic volcanic field and has interesting implications for similar volcanic zones.

The NNW–SSE direction highlighted by previous SP and gravimetric studies was targeted by the ERT. The 2D images obtained with this method reveal the existence of high resistivity bodies corresponding to NNW–SSE-running feeder dykes that confirm the role played by NNW–SSE tectonic structures in the volcanic manifestations in the area. In addition, the same direction is observed for the Pujalós and Fontpobra eruptive fissures, although both volcanoes are located in the vicinity of the limits of the anticline, respectively, in the northern and southern part of the study area. This suggests that Alpine tectonic structures such as the anticline and the associated regional faults were not implicated in the formation of these two volcanoes. This conclusion can be extended to the whole area given the distribution of the dykes that have been identified and available geological and geophysical data.

In ERT profile 8, we identified a normal fault confining an aquifer to the west. This configuration could have a number of different consequences on eruptive dynamics depending on the path followed by future intrusions. Both phreatomagmatic and Strombolian activity could take place simultaneously or within a short time span, in close proximity or even in the same volcanic edifice, depending on whether or not the intrusion interacts with the aquifer. The existence of such a configuration could explain the variety of eruptive dynamics in the monogenetic Garrotxa Volcanic Field and in other volcanic fields of similar characteristics without any need for change in the composition of the magma.

The results of this paper will help assess the volcanic susceptibility of the area and increase understanding of the influence of local geology on the distribution and dynamics of the eruptive activity in this area and in monogenetic fields in general.

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Investigation of the inner structure of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar (Catalan Volcanic Zone, Spain)

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4.1. Abstract

La Crosa de Sant Dalmai volcano is the largest volcanic edifice of the Catalan Volcanic Zone (NE Spain). It is a very well preserved maar-type structure, 1.5 km in diameter, excavated at the contact between a hard substrate and a soft substrate formed by Palaeozoic granites and Pliocene and Quaternary gravels, respectively. In order to infer the uppermost inner structure of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar and to characterise its main geological and tectonic constraints, we have performed a multiparametric geophysical study including gravimetry, magnetometry, self-potential, and electrical resistivity tomography. The results obtained together with a field geology revision and additional geological data from two drill cores, provide a detailed picture of the post-eruptive maar infill sequence as well as of the uppermost part of the maar-diatreme structure. This information helps in understanding the origin and subsequent evolution of the volcano, which included an alternation of phreatomagmatic and Strombolian phases. Geophysical data show that the last Strombolian phase, which culminated with the formation of a scoria cone inside the maar, was associated with a NW-SE trending regional fault. The little erosion and degradation of the original tephra ring suggest a much younger age of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar than was previously stated.

Keywords: Catalan Volcanic Zone \cdot Maar-diatreme \cdot Geoelectrical methods \cdot Gravity survey \cdot Magnetic survey \cdot Drill core

4.2. Introduction

Phreatomagmatic explosions result from brief, near-surface magma/water interactions occurring during the ascent of magma towards the surface, which leads to violent explosions (Lorenz, 1973; Sheridan and Wohletz, 1981, 1983; Wohletz, 1983). Unlike magmatic eruptions that are entirely controlled by the composition and physical properties of the magma (i.e. volatile content, viscosity), phreatomagmatic eruptions may vary considerably depending on external factors such as the stratigraphic, structural and hydrogeological characteristics of the substrate through which the volcanoes are emplaced. Phreatomagmatism is common in all subaerial volcanic settings as continental rifts, active continental volcanic island arc, foreland basins, late orogenic intermontane basins of orogenic belts, basin and range, cratons, and hot spots (Lorenz, 2007). In monogenetic volcanic fields, as well as in polygenetic volcanoes, a large variety of volcanic morphologies and eruption sequences can be observed associated with this type of volcanism (Wohletz and Sheridan, 1983).

A maar is a type of phreatomagmatic volcanic structure characterised by the formation of a tephra ring due to the accumulation of pyroclastic deposits around a circular crater, whose floor lies below the pre-eruption ground surface (Lorenz, 1973, 2007; Lorenz and Kurszlaukis, 2007; White and Ross, 2011). The presence of meteoric water and/or groundwater, after the eruption's end, might lead to the development of a lake inside the

crater (Schmincke, 1988; Büchel, 1993). Due to the surface geomorphology and the internal structure, these volcanoes are called maar-diatremes. The term used is descriptive and not genetic, so it does not refer to any specific place or suite of processes (Lorenz, 1975, 1986). The maar-diatreme volcanoes, although representing examples of monogenetic activity, represent a significant degree of hazard, as has been shown by past eruptions with a number of human casualties in the historical record around the world (White and Ross, 2011).

The reconstruction of the internal structure of individual young maar-diatreme systems can only be based on geophysical studies and drill cores and other type of mechanical excavations. In deeply eroded systems it is possible to observe the deepest parts of the diatreme but the uppermost sections have been lost in most cases. Therefore, to get an idealised picture of the maar-diatreme system it is necessary to combine both approaches.

This study is aimed at obtaining a 3D geological model of the internal structure of the topmost part of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar, in the Catalan Volcanic Zone (NE Spain), in order to determine the structure of the substrate below the tephra ring and the posteruptive infill sequence of the maar crater and the uppermost level inside the diatreme. In order to accomplish this objective we applied several geophysical techniques, including gravity,magnetic, self-potential and electrical resistivity tomography methods. These methods combined with field geology and the study of samples from two drill cores located inside the maar-crater, provided the necessary information to image the shallow internal structure of the La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar-diatreme volcano.

4.3. Geological setting and general characteristics of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai

The Catalan Volcanic Zone (CVZ), situated in the NE part of the Iberian Peninsula (Girona Province), is one of the Quaternary alkaline volcanic provinces belonging to the European Cenozoic Rift System (Martí et al., 1992; Dèzes et al., 2004) (Fig. 1). The CVZ ranges in age from >12 Ma to early Holocene and it is mainly represented by alkali basalts and basanites (Martí et al., 1992; Cebrià et al., 2000).

This basaltic monogenetic volcanic zone comprises more than 50 well preserved monogenetic cones including scoria cones, tuff cones, tephra rings, and maars. The area has traditionally been divided into three different sub-zones: L'Empordà to the Northeast (12–8 Ma), La Selva (7.9–1.7 Ma) to the South and La Garrotxa (0.5–0.01 Ma) to the West (Araña et al., 1983; Martí et al., 1992) (Fig. 1). In the CVZ volcanism, small-sized cinder cones formed along widely dispersed fissure zones during monogenetic, short-lived eruptions. Hydromagmatic events were also common. Each eruption was probably caused by an individual batch of magma that was transported rapidly from the source region, each batch representing the products of an individual partial melting event (Martí et al., 1992, 2011).

La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar belongs to the La Selva subzone, which corresponds to a tectonic depression bounded by an ENE–WSW and a NW–SE fault system (Fig. 1). The basement of this area consists of granites and metamorphic rocks of Palaeozoic age, which crop out defining a nonconformity with the Pliocene and Quaternary sediments. These last

filled the La Selva depression with variable thicknesses of 35 to 200 m in the Sant Dalmai area (Trilla and Pallí, 1977; Barnolas et al., 1979). The volcanic deposits cover an area of about 7 km2 among the municipalities of Aiguaviva and Sant Dalmai, 2 km northwest of the Girona airport, overlying basement and Pliocene and Quaternary rocks (Fig. 2).

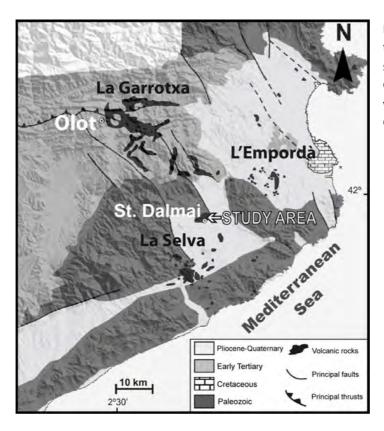


Fig. 1. Simplified geological map of the Catalan Volcanic Zone and its surroundings Location of La Garrotxa, La Selva and L'Empordà volcanic fields. (Modified from Guérin et al., 1986).

The ejecta of this maar volcano are mostly composed of phreatomagmatic deposits that form a circular tephra ring around a shallow crater 1250 m in diameter and a few tens of metres in depth. The tephra ring is asymmetrical, being higher in the west (maximum height of 50 m), where the internal and external slopes are also steeper, than in the east (maximum height of 30 m). Also, the deposits surrounding the rim show a wider distribution towards the east (Fig. 2). The succession of deposits shows the same stratigraphy all around the tephra ring but not in equal proportions. They reached distances of nearly 4 km towards the east and only of a few hundred metres towards the west. This asymmetrical distribution of the deposits was attributed to different strength of the rocks that form the substrate at each side below the volcano (Martí et al., 1986). The initial topography, the direction of the wind during the eruption, and the possible inclination of the eruptive conduit could also have influenced the distribution of the deposits around the vent (e.g. Büchel and Lorenz, 1993).

The lowermost unit of the succession of deposits of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai volcano is not fully exposed and corresponds to >1 m thick coarse lithic-rich breccia with blocks up to 70 cm in diameter. The lithics consist of granites and schists with subordinate scoria lapilli and cauliflower bombs (Pedrazzi, et al., 2012). Above them lies a 10 m thick uniform sequence of lithic-rich deposits alternating with crudely stratified, coarse-grained pyroclastic surge deposits. The next unit in the stratigraphic succession is a 1 m thick Strombolian, non-welded scoria lapilli deposit, which is followed by 8 m thick sequence of alternating units of lithic-rich breccia and pyroclastic surges. The eruption ended with a new Strombolian episode

from a new vent opened at the interior of the maar. This episode formed a small scoria cone partially overlapping the maar tephra ring and a lava flow emplaced inside the maar (see below). As most maar-diatreme volcanoes are related to basic magmas, most final magmatic phases inside maar craters lead to the formation of scoria cones or even lava lakes in a final magmatic phase (Lorenz, 2007).

The age of this volcano is not well constrained. Although it is located in the La Selva sector where most of the outcropping volcanic rocks have ages older than 1.7 Ma (Araña et al., 1983), it is evident from the state of preservation of its morphology and juvenile components that La Crosa de Sant Dalmai volcano might be younger.

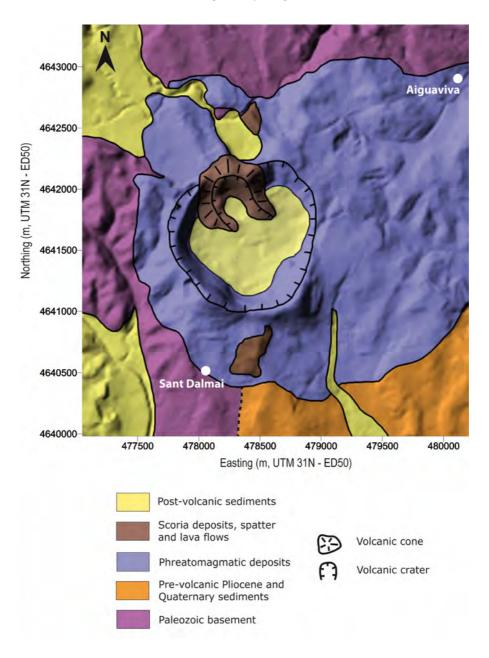


Fig. 2. Geological map of la Crosa de Sant Dalmai volcano. Coordinates in metres (UTM31N - ED50). Topographic base is taken from the ICC, at 1:5000 scale. The mapping of the deposits has been developed from the simplified map of Martí and Mallarach (1987) and analysis from new outcrops in the field. The figure shows the main crater and the scoria cone the latter formed during the final stages of activity of the volcano, along with the extent of the phreatomagmatic deposits.

4.4. Methodology

The methodology used to carry out this work comprises multidisciplinary tasks. A preliminary geological map of the area at 1:5000 scale was produced starting from the one elaborated by Martí, et al. (1986) and conducting new field work (Fig. 2). This allowed us to understand field relationships among the different geological units, to determine the extent of the deposits, and to identify the most significant geomorphological features. All the geological information collected was incorporated into a georeferenced database and processed through a Geographical Information System managed by ©Global Mapper 12.00 and Arcgis 9.2 (© ESRI) software. The projection system of coordinates used was the ED50 DATUM, UTM 31 N.

Additional geological data came from two drill cores (S1 and S2, Fig. 3). S1, reaching a depth of 15 m, was made in December 2009 at the western side of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar crater. S2, with a total depth of 61 m, was made in April 2012 at the north-eastern side of the maar crater (Fig. 3) The data collected from these cores were helpful in studying the post-eruptive sedimentary fill of the crater and correlating these deposits with the resistivity profiles obtained through the electrical resistivity tomography (ERT) (Fig. 3).

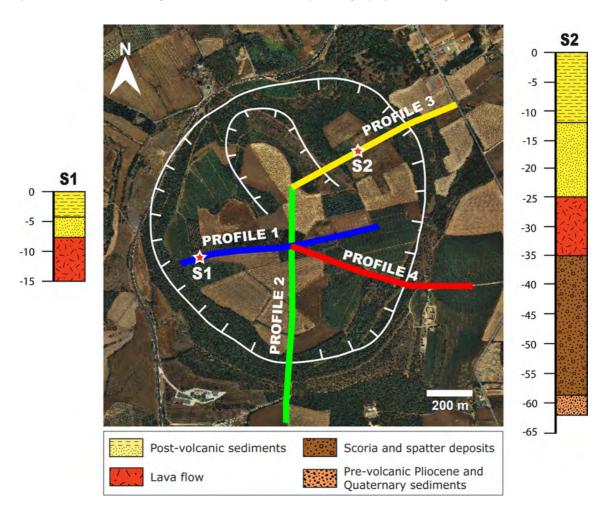


Fig. 3. Orthophotomap from the Institut Cartogràfic de Catalunya (ICC) web site, showing the location of each ERT profile. It also shows the location of the two drill cores (S1 and S2) and their respective synthetic stratigraphic sections.

Subsequently, various geophysical techniques, including gravity, magnetics, self-potential and electrical resistivity tomography, were applied. Some unpublished data from several geophysical surveys carried out in 1995 by some of the authors of this publication already existed. We incorporated these data into this study and in some cases they were recollected and reprocessed.

The gravity survey covered a total area of 8 km2 inside and around La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar, and included a total of 158 stations. Gravity readings were taken with a Lacoste and Romberg G831 gravimeter and referred to the IGSN-71 international gravity system. Station altitude was measured with an Air HB-1A high precision quartz altimeter or derived from ±0.1 m benchmarks. The gravity data were corrected for effects caused by variations in latitude, elevation, topography, instrumental drift and earth tides caused by the sun and moon. The corrected values generated Bouguer anomalies, which represent the gravity effect of crustal and shallower geological structures. In order to get the residual anomaly, due to the local density changes, it was necessary to subtract the regional component that in this area shows a well defined west–east trend with values ranging from –0.2 to –4.4 mGal that mostly express the depth of the Moho discontinuity (Casas et al., 1986).

Total field magnetic measurements were performed in 1995 with a proton magnetometer Geometrics model G-816. In this study we used the 226 original stations without adding new measurements. The correction for diurnal variation was previously performed on the data set and as with the gravity data, a regional field was defined from stations distant from the volcano and subtracted to give the residual anomaly. After this step, the magnetic data were interpolated to a regular grid. The residual values are around the zero level far away from the volcano indicating a successful removal of the regional field.

The self-potential (SP) measurements were made with a high impedance voltmeter (~10 M Ω) with a sensitivity of 0.1 mV, using two non-polarised Cu/CuSO $_4$ electrodes and a 300 m long cable. The difference of potential was measured between the reference electrode, which was placed at the beginning of the profile and the moving electrode. The measurements were performed every 20 m with several profiles forming an interconnected network covering the entire surface of the crater of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai. During the measurements, the reference and moving electrodes were switched every few hundred metres in order to avoid the systematic error due to electrode offset. In the data-processing we applied a closure correction along the profiles, in order to limit cumulative errors.

The electrical resistivity tomography (ERT) is a technique in which the process of data acquisition is fully automated. This allows performing a great number of measurements, obtaining 2D resistivity high-resolution data in a short time. The electrical resistivity data were acquired with an Iris Syscal Pro resistivity system. The electrode configuration was the Wenner-Schlumberger array using 48 electrodes connected to a 470 m long cable (10 m spacing between electrodes), obtaining a maximum depth of investigation of about 100 m. The main reason for choosing a Wenner-Schlumberger electrode array was the good relationship between signal intensity and good horizontal and vertical sensitivity analysis (Binley and Kemna, 2005).

We used the roll-along method to complete some of the profiles (Fig. 3). Profile 1 and profile 3were composed of two sections overlapping on one-third of the cable length, resulting in 800 m long profiles. Profile 4 sections overlapped on half of the cable length giving a total length of 710 m. Finally, the two sections composing profile 2 did not share any electrode.

The apparent electrical resistivity data acquired in the field were processed with the RES2DINV software from GEOTOMO© (Loke, 2002) including topography information. The topography was obtained from the Digital Elevation Model (DEM) of 15Å~15 m resolution from Institut Cartogràfic de Catalunya. In all our profiles the RMS error, indicator of the reliability of the inversion, was less than 7%, giving a high viability for the resistivity models obtained (Loke and Barker, 1996).

4.5. Results

4.5.1. Geological data

The geological map in Fig. 2 shows that the maar is located near the nonconformity between Palaeozoic basement (mainly outcropping at the northern and western side of the map) and the pre-volcanic Pliocene and Quaternary sediments, which the fill La Selva depression mainly at the southern side. The maar pyroclastic deposits show an asymmetrical distribution mostly extending towards the east for more than 4 km (Martí et al., 1986). The tephra ring morphology and deposits around the crater are very well preserved as well as the Strombolian cone located on the northern side of the maar crater (Fig. 2).

Relevant geological information was also obtained from the analysis of the two drill cores S1 and S2 (Fig. 3). S1 shows a phreatic water table at a depth of 10 m. The first 7.6 m below the crater floor are composed of alternating fine-grained silt and clay deposits. Deeper, the drilling encounters a basaltic lava flow from the final Strombolian episode related to La Crosa de Sant Dalmai eruption. S2 shows a phreatic water table at a depth of 18 m. The first 12 m of the core are composed of fine silt and clay deposits, and the following 14 m show grained sand and colluvial deposits from the tephra ring and the Strombolian cone. The basaltic lava flow appears at a depth of 26 m and shows a total thickness of 10 m. Below, there is a 20 m thick succession of alternating fine and coarse-grained lapilli beds from the intra-maar Strombolian cone. At a depth of 61 m, S2 shows Pliocene and Quaternary sediments containing organic material, which correspond to the contact between the diatreme and the substratum.

4.5.2. Gravimetry

The residual Bouguer anomaly map (Fig. 4c) shows slightly negative to neutral values in the western sector of the map, increasing towards the east, up to 3.5 mGal. The global pattern in the eastern sector shows a NW–SE orientation. The map shows negative values for the stations located right on the rim of the tephra cone. In the north, a minimum is centred on the ring, where the Strombolian scoria cone was emplaced. In the south another minimum coincides with the thicker deposits of the tephra ring. Inside the maar, neutral values are found while reaching the central area. The gravity model of the maar structure has not been developed because the main gravity signature is a circular gravity low produced by the accumulation of pyroclastic material and there is no evidence of the deep root of the structure.

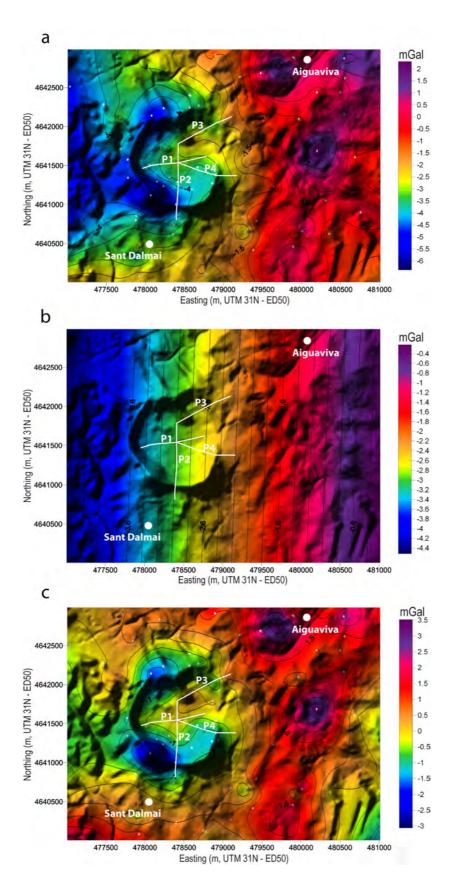


Fig. 4. a. Bouguer anomaly map; b. regional anomaly; c. residual gravity map obtained by subtracting the regional anomaly from the Bouguer anomaly map. Coordinates in metres (UTM31N - ED50). In white: location of ERT the profiles P1, P2, P3, and P4. Small white dots correspond to the gravimetry stations.

4.5.3. Magnetometry

The resulting magnetometry map (Fig. 5) shows the distribution of the local magnetic field for the superficial geological layers. The surface structures detected by this method correspond to rocks with a high proportion of magnetic minerals. Concentric magnetic isolines characterise the interior of the maar crater, with an increase from 1600 nT along the ring to 3200 nT toward the central area. A magnetic maximum is measured at the northern side of the maar, on the eastern side of the Strombolian cone rim with values up to 5000 nT.

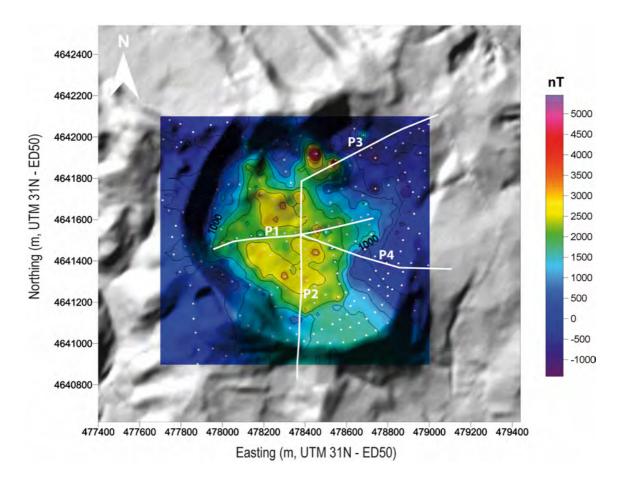


Fig. 5. Residual total field magnetic anomaly map. The white dots correspond to the measurements. The white lines show the location of ERT profiles (P).

4.5.4. Self-potential (SP)

The SP map (Fig. 6) shows an increase of 120 mV from SW to NE, describing a sharp transition highlighting a NW–SE lineament across the maar. The northern end of this lineament overlaps the magnetic anomaly high centred on the Strombolian edifice located at the northern side of the maar crater. In the western side the maar no significant variation of self-potential is observed.

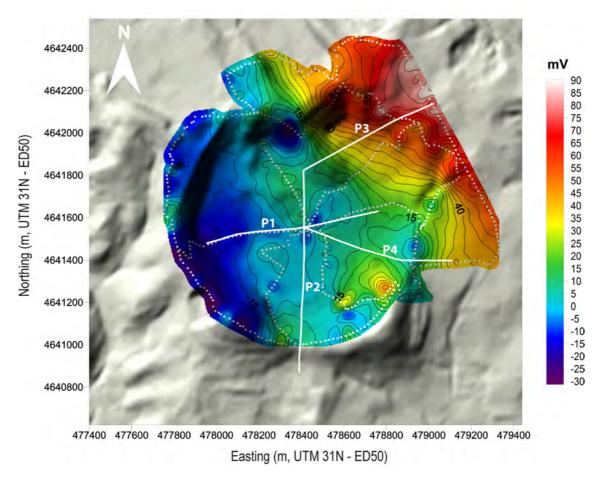


Fig. 6. Self-potential map. The white dots correspond to the measurements. The white lines show the location of ERT profiles (P).

4.5.5. Electrical resistivity tomography (ERT)

ERT models show high resistivity values (1000 Ω .m to more than 8000 Ω .m) matching the areas where the profiles cut the tephra ring (Fig. 7). Inside the main crater the profiles show a ~10 to 20 m thick superficial planar layer of low resistivity (10 Ω .m to 200 Ω .m) (Fig. 7).

In profiles 1 and 2, this layer overlies a thick high resistivity layer (~2000 to 5000 Ω .m) visible until the maximum depth of investigation. However, in the last 20 m, resistivity tends to be lower so that we can estimate the thickness of this layer at ~60 m.

Profile 3 crosses the eastern flank of the Strombolian cone and the eastern side of the maar rim. We observe a high resistivity body (from 2000 to more than 8000 Ω .m) in the Strombolian cone area. This resistive zone spreads from 30 m under the surface and is rooted beyond the depth of investigation. Between the Strombolian cone and the maar rim (from 380 to 520 m distance on the resistivity model) the conductive superficial layer overlies a resistive layer, slightly thinner than the one described in profiles 1 and 2. This resistive layer overlies a conductive layer (a few Ω .m to 100 Ω .m), visible until depth of investigation.

In profile 4, high resistivity in the tephra ring narrows from 30 m under the topography and extends at depth. Inside the maar, under the superficial low resistivity layer encountered in all the profiles, lies a resistive layer. As well as in profile 3, it is thinner than those encountered in the same position on profiles 1 and 2. At greater depth the resistivity lowers to $\sim 100 \ \Omega$.m.

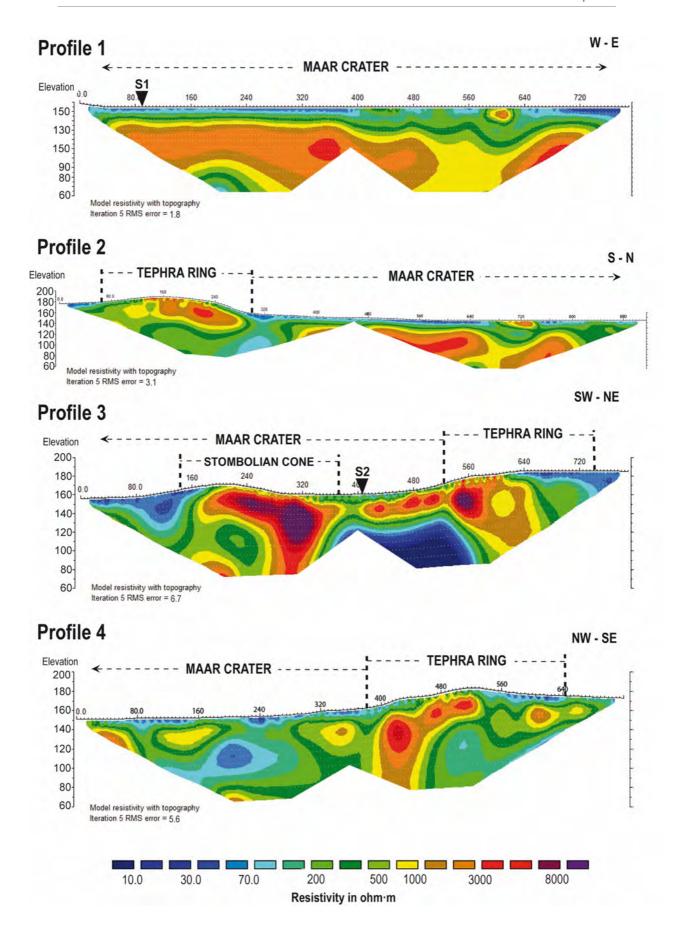


Fig. 7. ERT models with topography.

4.6. Discussion

4.6.1. Phreatomagmatic activity

The residual gravity anomaly map shows negative anomalies coinciding with resistive structures imaged with ERT. The southwest main gravity anomaly reaches values of about –2.5 mGal and coincides with an area of maximum accumulation of poorly consolidated pyroclastic materials, i.e. unwelded breccia, that form the tephra ring. This is consistent with the high resistivity observed in the tephra ring as this material is highly vesiculated. This physical characteristic confers a high resistivity to these levels.

4.6.2. Strombolian activity

The strong gravity anomaly located at the northern side of the tephra ring shows negative values of up to -2 mGal. This anomaly marks the zone of maximum accumulation of scoria deposits belonging to the Strombolian cone formed inside the maar crater. Resistivity profile 3, crossing the Strombolian cone more in the South, gives high resistivity values. The shape of the corresponding resistivity body, narrowing from 30 m under the topographic surface might correspond to the base of the Strombolian cone, highlighting the former depth of the maar crater before the Strombolian episode in this part of the crater. The resistive root found under the Strombolian cone might correspond to the eruptive conduit or a secondary dyke.

The ERT images show an area inside the maar crater ranging from 1100 to 3000 Ω .m (coloured orange and red in Fig. 8a). This is interpreted to correspond to the basaltic lava flow emitted during the Strombolian phase at the end of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai eruption, and which was also intersected by the drill core S1 (see position in Fig. 3). In some places, this basaltic lava flow is detected until the maximum depth of investigation of the ERT profiles (95 m). The positive magnetic anomaly covers almost the whole maar crater, outlining the extent of the lava below the post-maar sediments (Fig. 8b). In the eastern part of the maar crater floor, no significant magnetic anomaly is detected while the S2 drill core shows the presence of the lava flow at a depth of 26 m, with a thickness of 10 m. The lava flow is not detected by the magnetic measurements probably because it is thin and located too deep for the resolution of the method.

4.6.3. Post-eruptive phase

The drill cores show that the post-volcanic infill sequence of the maar crater has an average thickness of 10 m in the eastern part of the maar, and 26 m in the northwestern zone. This is in the order of magnitude of the 10–25 m thick superficial conductive layer observed in the ERT models. These data indicate that the corresponding post-maar sediments (ranging from ~30 Ω .m to 500 Ω .m) form a regular layer extending in the whole maar crater around the Strombolian cone, burying the associated lava flow (Fig. 8).

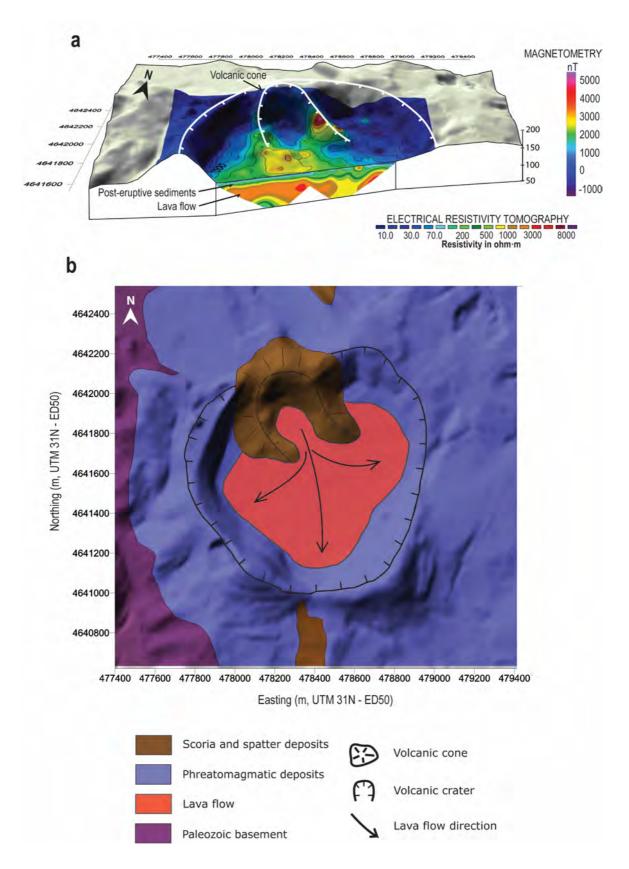


Fig. 8. a) 3D block diagram of the residual total field magnetic anomaly map and the ERT profile 1. b) Mapping of the interpreted lava flow.

4.6.4. Geological control on the eruptive activity

The SP map displays a sharp transition from negative ($-25 \, \text{mV}$) to positive values (75 mV), following a NW–SE trend. This lineament may be interpreted as a fault associated with the regional trend, guiding the ascending magma (Fig 1). The resistive body (2000 to more than 8000 Ω .m) detected at depth in the ERT profile 3 and rooted below the maximum depth of investigation is located on this fault (Fig. 9). We interpret this high resistivity root as a basaltic intrusion that fed the last episode of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai eruption, i.e. the last Strombolian phase. It is difficult to estimate the dimensions of this intrusion (eruptive conduit or secondary dyke). Our ERT data provide only 2 day information and the resolution decreases exponentially with depth making difficult concluding on the nature of this intrusion. However, the superficial section of this intrusion could be estimated between 20 and 30 m wide. This is not concordant with the usual dyke dimensions in such small volcanic edifices. However, White and Ross (2011) and Lefebvre et al. (2012) show that dykes can widen through several processes near the surface and produce such large superficial intrusions from a dyke or from the coalescence of dyke segments.

The problem is whether this fracture also controlled the ascent of magma in the phreatomagmatic phases corresponding to the opening and development of the maar crater and its diatreme. Although the deeper internal structure of the diatreme cannot be defined with the geophysical methods we have applied in this study, it is possible to know the geological unit where the phreatomagmatic explosions occurred. This may be done by simply looking at the populations of the lithic fragments present in the maar deposits, which correspond exclusively to Palaeozoic granites. These fragments are decimetric to less than 1 mm in size, show angular to subangular shapes, and in some cases are strongly hydrothermally altered. These lithic fragments were directly broken and ejected from the Palaeozoic substrate of the volcano by the phreatomagmatic explosions. This suggests that the maar-forming explosions and, therefore, the magma/water interaction did not occur at the contact between the Palaeozoic basement and the Pliocene and Quaternary infill of the La Selva depression as was initially suggested by Martí et al (1986), but occurred directly in an aquifer located in the fractured granitic basement (Pedrazzi et al., 2012).

Therefore, if the fracture detected with SP is the main pathway by which the magma ascended to the surface, this should be branched into the granite causing interaction of ascending magma with its aquifer, thus generating violent explosions leading to the formation of the maar and its diatreme. Later, after the maar-diatreme formation, the rise and eruption of the magma would be restricted to the main fracture without the possibility of interacting with the granite aquifer, probably already exhausted, resulting in a final purely Strombolian phase.

Finally, it is important to mention that the geophysical imaging of the maar confirms the lack of significant erosion and modification of its original morphology. This is demonstrated by the preservation of the original slopes of the tephra ring and also by the scarcity of breccia deposits inside the crater, which suggests that little remobilisation of the tephra ring deposits has occurred since its formation. All this suggests that the age of the La Crosa de Sant Dalmai volcano is younger than stated previously for the La Selva sub-zone (7.9–1.7 Ma, Araña, et al. (1983)).

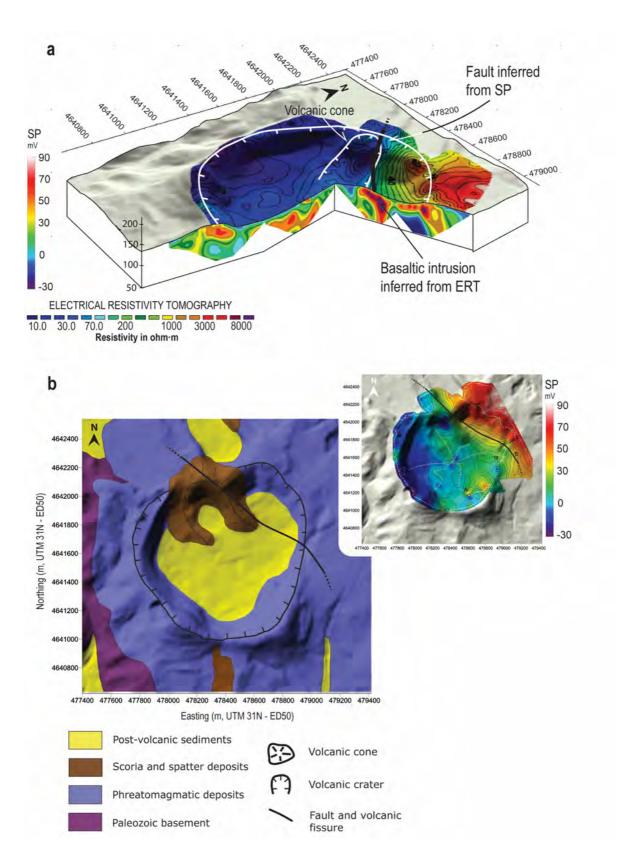


Fig. 9. a) 3D block diagram of the self-potential and the ERT profiles 2 and 3. b) NW–SE fault inferred from self-potential, in the upper right corner, and located on the geological map.

4.6. Conclusions

Combining new geophysical and geological data we have been able to elaborate a 3D model of the internal structure of the uppermost part of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maardiatreme system (Fig. 10), the largest volcano of the Catalan Volcanic Zone. This model helps in understanding the influence of the pre-eruptive basement on the phreatomagmatic and Strombolian activity that constructed the volcanic edifice and the characteristics of the posteruptive deposits that infill the maar crater. In particular, we have been able to determine 1) the elevation of the maar crater floor under the Strombolian cone; 2) the extension of the lava flow formed during this last Strombolian episode, which is now buried under a 10 to 20 m thick post eruptive sedimentary layer; 3) the presence of a NW–SE lineament interpreted as a fault associated with the regional trend; and 4) the control exerted by this fault on the location of the Strombolian cone, whilst the phreatomagmatic activity resulted from the interaction with an aquifer in the granitic basement.

This multiparametric geophysical and geological research has provided relevant information on the upper structure of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar, offering important clues to understand its formation and evolution. However, the applied geophysical methods do not always have sufficient spatial resolution and depth of investigation, so there are still some questions about the deeper part of the diatreme, for which exploration other methods such as pole-dipole ERT profiles or seismic reflection profiles should be used.

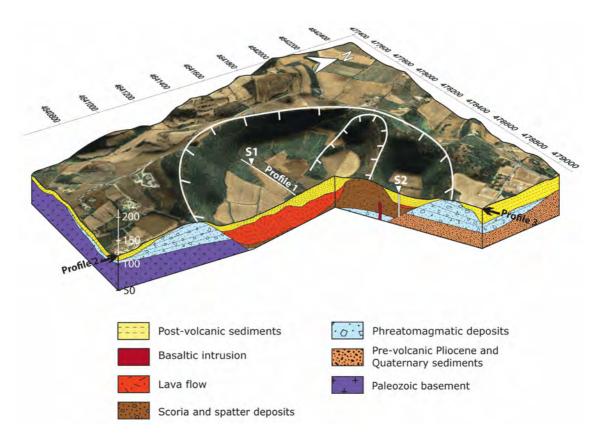


Fig. 10. Synthetic 3D model. Orthophotomap overlapped on the DEM with geologic interpretation through cross sections corresponding to ERT profile 2 (N–S direction) and 3 (SW–NE direction). The locations of S1 and S2 drillings are indicated.

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Electrical resistivity tomography revealing the internal structure of monogenetic volcanoes

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5.1. Abstract

Eruptive activity of individual monogenetic volcanoes usually lasts a few days or weeks. However, their short lifetime does not always mean that their dynamics and structure are simple. Monogenetic cones construction is rarely witnessed from the beginning to the end, and conditions for observing their internal structure are hardly reached. We provide high-resolution electrical resistivity sections (10m electrode spacing) of three monogenetic cones from northeastern Spain, comparing our results to geological observations to interpret their underground continuation. The 100m maximum depth of exploration provides information on almost the entire edifices, highlighting the relationships between Strombolian and hydromagmatic deposits in two multiphase edifices. A main observation is a column of distinct resistivity centered on the Puig d' Àdri volcano, which we interpret as the eruptive conduit. This method can provide valuable information on the past volcanic dynamics of monogenetic volcanic fields, which has real implications for the forecast of future activity.

Keywords: Exploration Geophysics · Magnetic and electrical methods · Volcanology · Instruments and techniques

5.2. Introduction

Monogenetic volcanoes are small volcanic edifices built-up in a short period of time, (e.g., few hours or days in the East-Izu monogenetic volcano group and several years for Jorullo in 1759 ~ 1766 and Paricutín in 1943 ~ 1952), so that their complexity is sometimes underestimated (De la Cruz-Reyna and Yokoyama, 2011). Monogenetic volcanic edifices go from simple one-phase volcanoes to complex edifices built from several distinct phases of activity (Walker, 2000; Valentine and Gregg, 2008). A complex eruptive dynamics can, for example, result in the accumulation of highly vesicular scoria (Strombolian-style explosive events) and compact, fine-enriched ash (phreatomagmatic explosive events), forming a complex layercake-style edifice alternating horizons of different electric resistivity material in a reduced space. This makes high-resolution electrical resistivity tomography (ERT) a valuable tool to investigate the internal structure of monogenetic volcanoes. In contrast with polygenetic volcanoes and despite being the most common type of activity, eruptions giving birth to monogenetic volcanoes are much less witnessed and less described in scientific reports (Kereszturi and Németh, 2012). Only a few events of this type have occurred worldwide in historical times such as Al Madinah (1256), Jorullo (1759 ~ 1766) and Paricutín (1943 ~ 1952), and the Ukinrek maar (1977) (De la Cruz-Reyna and Yokoyama, 2011; Kereszturi and Németh, 2012). Monogenetic cones can be weathered, exhibiting part of their internal structure. Mathieu et al. (2008) presented natural examples of monogenetic cones from the Chaîne des Puys (French Massif Central) and of parasitic cones from the northeast rift of Teide (Canary Islands) where the shape of shallow volcanic intrusions are wellpreserved. Other examples exist (e.g., Geshi et al., 2011); however, no unified model or similar attempted to connect field observations of this type with some geophysical approach until now.

Valentine (2012) used crustal xenoliths to study the shallow plumbing systems of small-volume scoria cones and maars. In particular, he showed that their conduits or dikes flare mainly in the uppermost ~150m of the crust.

Geophysics has been successfully used to model (Cassidy et al., 2007; Mrlina et al., 2009; Blaikie et al., 2012) or to image (e.g., Gebhardt et al., 2011; Martín-Serrano et al., 2009; Bolós et al., 2012) the subsurface structure of maar volcanoes. ERT was applied on polygenetic volcanoes, providing valuable information on their structure and hydrothermal systems (e.g., Revil et al., 2008, 2011). Portal et al. (2013) also presented preliminary results on a model of monogenetic dome using joint interpretation of ERT, gravimetry, and muonic imagery models. However, a detailed study of the internal structure of monogenetic volcanoes remains poorly documented, particularly edifices built up after multiple phases of activity.

The Catalan Volcanic Zone (CVZ), at the north of Spain (Figure 1a), is mostly unknown compared to the contemporaneous alkaline volcanism in other parts of western and central Europe (Cenozoic alkaline volcanism in the Rhenish massif and Rhinegraben of Germany, the Massif Central of France, and the western Pannonian Basin in Eastern Europe; e.g., Downes (2001)) but it offers an excellent opportunity for a detailed exploration of monogenetic volcanoes' internal structure. In this study, we present ERT models from three monogenetic volcanoes giving a detailed image of the entire edifices. Key observations are made from the two more complex edifices because they offer the most important diversity of deposits and structural features.

5.3. Monogenetic Volcanism in the Garrotxa Volcanic Field

The CVZ is one of the Quaternary alkaline volcanic provinces of the European rifts system (Martí et al., 1992, 2011). It has been active during the last 12 Ma and the volcanism is mainly characterized by alkali basalts and basanites. Inside the CVZ, the Garrotxa volcanic field is a subzone registering the latest volcanic activity (0.5-0.01 Ma) (Araña et al., 1983; Martí et al., 1992). It comprises more than 50 well-preserved monogenetic volcanoes including scoria cones, tephra rings, and maars. Some of these eruptions alternated Strombolian and hydromagmatic phases, giving rise to complex stratigraphic successions not only within the monogenetic field but also at the scale of individual edifices (Martí and Mallarach, 1987; Martí et al., 2011; Pedrazzi and Marti, 2011; Bolós et al., 2012). Martí et al. (2011) classify monogenetic volcanoes depending on whether or not hydromagmatic activity contributed to their construction. Volcanoes exclusively derived from magmatic activity correspond to scoria cones with occasional lava flows while volcanic cones including hydromagmatic activity, although morphologically similar to scoria cones, are much more complex. They may alternate phreatic, phreatomagmatic, and Strombolian phases, generating a wide diversity of pyroclastic density currents and fallout deposits, including explosive and effusive episodes.

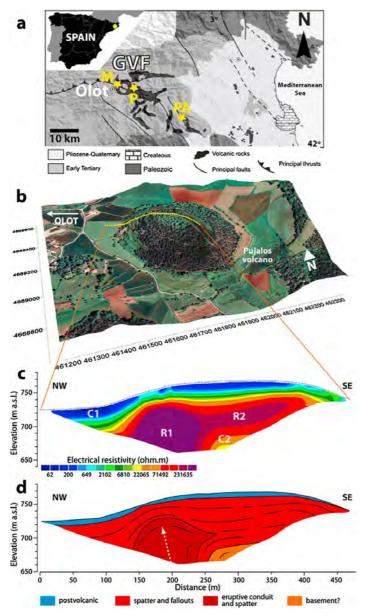


Fig. 1. (a) Localization maps of the Garrotxa volcanic field (GVF) and of our three monogenetic volcanoes: Pujalós (P), Montsacopa (M), and Puig d'Àdri (PA) volcanoes (modified from Martí et al. (2011)). (b) Orthophotography of the Pujalós volcano, a monogenetic Strombolian volcano, overlaid on a digital Elevation Model with localization of the ERT profile (yellow dotted line). (c) ERT model (RMS error 15.2% after five iterations). R and C stands for resistive and conductive bodies or layers respectively. (d) Geological interpretation.

5.4. Data Acquisition and Processing

Multielectrode ERT was used to obtain 2-D resistivity high-resolution data on three monogenetic volcanoes from the Garrotxa volcanic field. We used an Iris Syscal Pro resistivity system with 48 electrodes connected to a 470m long cable (10m electrode spacing) in Wenner-Schlumberger configuration (maximum depth of investigation of about 100 m). We used the roll-along method to complete some of the profiles. No reciprocal measurements were taken but data quality was assessed by averaging or stacking several measurements and very good quality factors were obtained (q< 3.5%). Low contact resistances of the electrodes were achieved because of the high moisture of the soils and the special design of the stainless steel electrodes directly in contact with the multicore cable (maximum values< 3 k Ω). Current injected was automatically adjusted by the system to optimize the input voltage and to ensure the best signal-to-noise ratio. The maximum power of the instrument is 800V and the maximum current is 320mA at 2.5 k Ω contact resistance. In our survey, depending on

the distance between current electrodes, the current intensity ranged from 275 to 5mA. The typical standard deviation was less than 1% with maximum standard deviation values lower than 3.5%. (8) The resistivity data were inverted with RES2DINV (Loke, 2002). Covariance matrix is commonly used to assess the accuracy of the inversion for models that consist of a small number of parameters but RES2DINV, like most nonlinear inversion programs, carries out an optimization process that tries to reduce the difference between the calculated and measured apparent resistivity values. The inversion routine used by the program is based on the smoothness constrained least-squares method (de Groot-Hedlin and Constable, 1990; Sasaki, 1992) which allows to adjust the damping factor. This parameter is designed to accommodate noisier data sets, without which the inversion attempts to fit noise as data and becomes unstable. A larger damping factor was used for the Pujalós volcano data set (Figure 1). When data show large resistivity variations near the surface, it is also recommended to use a model where the cell width is half the unit electrode spacing. This was applied to the Pujalós and Montsacopa profiles. This strategy allowed us to improve the results but RMS error, estimating the difference between the calculated and measured apparent resistivity, was still high for Pujalós. The results are discussed taking this fact into account.

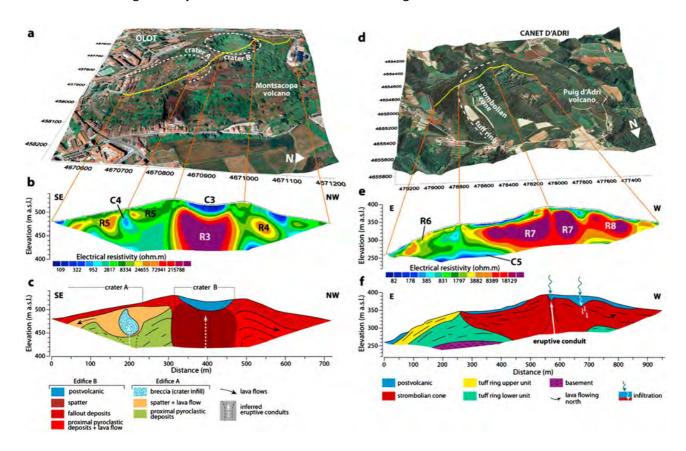


Fig. 2. The Montsacopa and Puig d'Àdri volcanoes, two complex monogenetic volcanoes built by hydromagmatic and Strombolian activity. (a and d) Orthophotography overlaid on a digital elevation model with localization of the ERT profile (yellow dotted line). (b and e) ERT model (vertical exaggeration 1.17, RMS error 5.7% after four iterations for Montsacopa and vertical exaggeration 1.17, RMS error 6.1% after five iterations for Puig d'Àdri). R and C stands for resistive and conductive units respectively. (c and f) Geological interpretation.

5.5. Results

The following results relate to our three example monogenetic volcanoes. A first ERT profile was performed on the Pujalós volcano, near the city of Olot, in the Garrotxa volcanic field (Figure 1). The ERT cable was laid out from the northwestern side of the Pujalós, passing through the summit up to the southeastern flank (Figure 1b). The resistivity model (Figure 1c) shows a globally simple distribution of the resistivity. We found a superficial conductive layer C1 (< 650 Ω m), 10 to 20m thick, and slightly thicker beyond the fields located at the NW of the cone. A rounded resistive body R1 (> 250,000 Ω m) appears at ~30m depth. R1 is offset with respect to the cone summit and extends beyond the maximum depth of investigation. This resistive body seems to be connected to the SE with an elongated shape of slightly lower resistivity values that follows a 15 slope (R2). Under this layer, the resistivity values decrease progressively up to one order of magnitude (C2).

The second test was performed in the same area, on Montsacopa, a volcano located inside the city of Olot itself. This volcano presents a NW-SE elongated shape with a wellpreserved circular crater in the summit (crater B in Figure 2a). A previous study based on stratigraphy indicates the presence of a second eruptive vent (crater A in Figure 2a) on the SE flank (Bolós, 2009). Our ERT profile (Figure 2b) covers the volcano nearly from one extreme to the other, crossing the two craters. This 710m long profile is composed of two sections acquired with a roll-along of half the cable length. After four iterations, the data inversion gave a good RMS error value of 5.7%. The most striking feature is a 150m wide high-resistivity body R3 (> 200,000 Ω m) under crater B. It presents a concave upper limit, nearly vertical laterals, and extends beyond the maximum depth of exploration. On top of this body lies a lenticular conductive body marked as C3, \sim 20m thick at its maximum (\sim 950 to 100 Ω m). At the NW we observe a resistive elongated body (R4), dipping NW at an angle of 20º. It is surrounded by lower resistivity values (~3000 to 300 Ωm). The resistivity distribution in the SE flank is more complex. It shows a few meters-thick superficial layer, displaying resistivity $< 3000 \Omega m$. It overlays an irregular resistive layer with several tens of thousands Ωm resistivity (R5). Surrounded by these high-resistivity values, the model shows a drop-shaped zone C4, of lower resistivity (~1000 Ω m). Deeper, the inversion model shows resistivity values of about 3000 Ω m.

Still in the Garrotxa, we acquired a third ERT profile on the Puig d' Àdri volcano (Figures 2d, 2e, 2f, and 1a for localization). These data were acquired along three sections overlapping by half the cable length, i.e., we obtained a profile of 950m in total. After five iterations we obtained an RMS error of 6.1% for this model, confirming the quality of the inversion. The eastern part of the resistivity model shows several layers identified through their respective resistivity. In particular, we can notice the presence of a horizontal conductive layer (< 400 Ω m) at depth (C5). Going upward, an area of 1000 to 3000 Ω m seems to change progressively from horizontal to ~20° dip. It lays under a more resistive (up to 8000 Ω m) 20m thick layer (R6). The rest of the resistivity model is occupied by a large resistive unit, R7, (> 4000 Ω m) overlaid by a conductive layer (< 400 Ω m). The resistive unit displays a V-shaped base, intersected by the lower limit of the model. Nearly in the center of the V, a less-resistive (light-red color in Figure 2e) vertical column connects the deepest layer to the surface. At 100m to the west the conductive superficial layer enters deeper into the resistive unit. This last follows the slope of the western flank, forming a thick resistive layer (R8).

5.6. Discussion

Our three example monogenetic volcanoes are a good illustration of the difference made by Martí et al. (2011) concerning monogenetic volcanoes affected or not by hydromagmatic phases during their construction. For the three sites, the water table is located in the sedimentary basement, at depths greater than our maximum depth of exploration so that we do not take it into account in the interpretation. Available geological information describes the Pujalós volcano as a scoria cone, possibly originating a lava flow covering an area of about 6 km2 to the west (IGC et al., 2007). Despite the elevated RMS error (15.2% after five iterations), the resistivity model seems to fi t well this description (Figure 1). Moreover, a strong likeness exists with natural examples from eroded areas such as the one we observed in El Hierro (Canary Islands, Spain). Figure 3 shows two buried monogenetic cones intersected by a vertical scarp on the coast of El Hierro. This situation allows observing a crosssection of both cones with their feeding dykes enlarging to flattened rounded massive units at the center of the volcanoes. This would correspond to the resistive heart R1 of the Pujalós volcano (Figure 1c). The conduit enlarging in the very superficial part of the eruptive system is quite compatible with conclusions made by Valentine (2012). It can be interpreted as spatter deposits, which are the most proximal products to volcanic vents and directly connected to the eruptive conduit. In the Pujalós, resistive layer R2 can be compared to the stratified accumulation of scoria visible in the monogenetic cones of El Hierro. The resistivity values decreasing at depth (C2) may correspond to the basement, dipping NW. Because of the position of the profile we cannot confirm or infer the presence of a lava flow to the west. Finally, the conductive superficial layer C1 corresponds to the postvolcanic cover, thicker in the northwestern cultivated fields area.

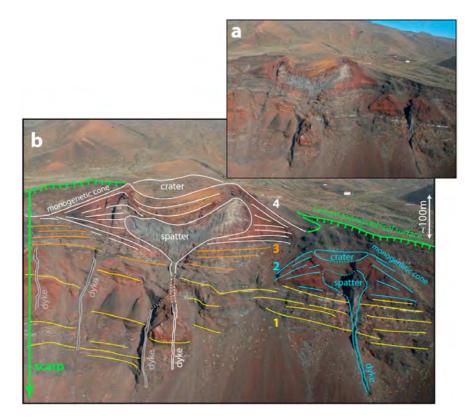


Fig. 3. (a) Photography of two monogenetic cones intersected by a cliff at the western point of El Hierro (Canary Islands, Spain). (b) Interpretation. Numbers associated to a color code corresponds to a chronological order.

The repartition of the resistivity inside Montsacopa and Puig d'Àdri appears more complex than for the Pujalós volcano, reflecting their more complex eruptive histories. Montsacopa shows a sequence involving a Strombolian phase at the beginning and a hydromagmatic one at the end (Martí et al., 2011). In addition to the summit well-visible crater, stratigraphical study of the volcanic deposits suggest the existence of a hidden vent on the southeastern flank (Bolós, 2009), which is confirmed by ERT. In the SE flank, we interpret the lower resistivity body C4 as crater A infill, i.e., breccias associated to Strombolian explosions (Figure 2b). This unit is likely surrounded by spatter deposits (R5). The connection with a feeding conduit is not visible on the tomogram, most probably because the profile is offset on a side of the crater. The continuation of R5 to the SE can be

interpreted as a lava flow (Figure 2c). Under this system, the lower resistivity values may correspond to material with a higher open porosity and/or alteration (Loke, 2002). According to the position of this unit in the edifice, it is compatible with fallout deposits that can be associated to the early activity of crater A. These deposits may have been cut-off to the NW by an explosion giving birth to crater B. This ~150m wide cavity was likely filled by welded deposits forming R3 high-resistivity body. However, note that the inversion process may be affected by superficial strong resistivity contrasts (Loke, 2002) and the resistivity values of this body may be overestimated. These rocks being inaccessible and no similar rocks outcropping, no laboratory measurement of the real resistivity could be performed. The lenticular conductive layer C3 consists of postvolcanic products filling crater B. The NW flank of the volcano can be interpreted as an accumulation of proximal fallout deposits associated to crater B, with intercalation of more resistive lava flows (R4). Indeed, outcrops at the NW of the volcano, close to our profile, show a superposition of two lava flows attributed to the activity of Montsacopa (Bolós, 2009).

Martí et al. (2011) describe a complex eruptive history for the Puig d'Àdri volcano, involving successive hydromagmatic and Strombolian phases. On the corresponding ERT profile the hydromagmatic deposits of the eastern side of the profile and the Strombolian deposits inside the limits of the tuff-cone (Pujadas et al., 1997; Martí et al., 2011) are well-identifiable (Figures 2e and 2f). In the east, the successive layers of different resistivity values correspond, from the surface to the base, to postvolcanic deposits on two hydromagmatic units. The upper hydromagmatic deposits (R6) show higher resistivity values with respect to the underlying deposits possibly because of a higher degree of compaction, reducing its permeability and then its water content. The underlying tuff ring deposits (Figure 2f) consist mainly of surges, explosion breccias, and a pyroclastic flow (Martí et al., 2011). Conductive layer C5, visible at the inferior limit of the tomogram, likely corresponds to marls and sandstones constituting the basement. Its spatial relationship with both the hydromagmatic and Strombolian units and its resistivity, are fully compatible with this interpretation. The most uncommon observation provided by our ERT data concerns the Strombolian unit, represented in red tones in Figure 2f and corresponding to the highest resistivity values. A less-resistive 10 to 20m large column occupies a central position inside the Strombolian cone and connects the deep layer to the surface. We believe that this lower resistivity values correspond to an accumulation of brecciated material partly consolidated, plugging the feeding conduit of the Strombolian cone. To our knowledge this is the fi rst time that this has been shown with geophysical imaging. Finally, we interpret R8, at the western side of the profile, as the two lava flows described by Martí et al. (2011) that caused the breaching of the northwestern flank of the scoria cone. The underlying deposits are likely to be attributed to the hydromagmatic anterior phase. The interface between the lava flows and the Strombolian cone may constitute a preferential path for meteoric water infiltration, triggering progressive weathering of rocks and thus leading to decrease the resistivity. This would explain the deepening of the conductive superficial layer observed (blue arrow in Figure 2f). A similar explanation can be proposed for the slight deepening of the conductive superficial layer into the eruptive conduit, even if we are here at the limit of the spatial resolution of the ERT measurements.

5.7. Conclusion

We show that volcanic cones exclusively derived from magmatic activity, built by the accumulation of scoria with occasional emission of lava flows, are easily distinguished from more complex edifices affected by hydromagmatic phases. ERT offers a strong advantage regarding spatial resolution and depth of exploration with respect to other geophysical methods, for the study of monogenetic volcanoes. With complementary surface geological observations either on site or using other natural examples, we could highlight various elements of the structure of these volcanoes and evidence several types of volcanic products such as (1) spatter deposits in the central part of the cones, (2) contrasts between hydromagmatic and Strombolian deposits, (3) buried lava flows, (4) the hidden eruptive vent of the Montsacopa volcano, and (5) the eruptive conduit of the Puig d'Adri Strombolian cone. We think that high-resolution ERT is a powerful tool for the study of the internal structure of monogenetic volcanoes. The detailed structural and geological interpretation of such data is a valuable contribution to enhance knowledge about volcanic hazards in monogenetic volcanic fields in general. Because this method gives information about the past volcanic dynamics, it is particularly interesting for the forecast of future activity in a given monogenetic volcanic field.

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Volcanic stratigraphy of the Quaternary La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (NE Iberian Peninsula)

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6.1. Abstract

The monogenetic Quaternary La Garrotxa Volcanic Field forms part of the Catalan Volcanic Zone (NE Iberian Peninsula), one of the alkaline volcanic provinces of the European rift system. It harbours in total more than 50 basaltic monogenetic cones that range in age from the Middle Pleistocene to the early Holocene and include cinder and scoria cones, lava flows, tuff rings and maars. This study is the result of 10 years work, during which we conducted extensive fieldwork, including the study of ephemeral outcrops and the stratigraphic logging of new water wells and geotechnical drill holes, taking also into account the existing information gathered by recent geophysical studies that have applied shallow geophysical methods to establish the substrate geology of this volcanic field. As a result we have obtained a comprehensive volcanic stratigraphy of the area that identifies the products of each single eruption, their relative stratigraphy and their surface area. This volcanic stratigraphy constitutes an essential tool for understanding the evolution of this volcanic field and for establishing a correct volcanic hazard assessment of the area, but it also provides a precise reference for the Quaternary tephrochronology of the lake sediments in neighbouring areas.

Keywords: Quaternary volcanism \cdot volcano-stratigraphy \cdot monogenetic volcanism \cdot Garrotxa volcanic field \cdot hazard assessment

6.2. Introduction

Volcanic terrains are characterised by the complex stratigraphic relationships of their products whose causes include, variously, the extremely rapid depositional rates compared with conventional sub-aerial and submarine sedimentary environments, the friable character of many volcanic deposits, which facilitate their rapid erosion, the contrasting influence of topography on the emplacement of volcanic products, and rapid changes in facies. Such complexity constitutes one of the main obstacles when reconstructing the geological evolution of volcanic areas. This is even more problematic in highly urbanised areas where construction activities modify the original morphology of the area and hide many natural features, and where deposits are often lost to quarrying. This may impose a limitation to construct a volcanic hazard model from such active volcanic areas, as establishing correct stratigraphic relationships may be challenged due to the ignorance of part of the volcanological record.

The stratigraphic and volcanological evolution of the different volcanic fields of the Neogene-Quaternary volcanism associated with the European Cenozoic Rift System are still poorly known. Although several detailed petrological and geochemical studies of this magmatic episode have been conducted in recent decades aimed at understanding its petrogenesis and geodynamic constraints (Wilson and Downes, 1991, 1992, 2006; Hoernle et al., 1995; Wilson and Bianchini, 1999; Wilson and Petterson, 2001; Lustrino and Wilson, 2007), the eruptive history and geochronology of the different areas where this volcanic activity occurred, are not well constrained. In many cases this has hindered the definition of

the evolution of the volcanism in each area, thereby generating uncertainty around the relative age of volcanic episodes and recurrence cycles. It also complicates any comprehensive hazard assessment in these areas, some of which have been active into Mid-Holocene.

One of the least studied of these recent European volcanic areas is the Catalan Volcanic Zone (Martí et al., 1992) located in the northeast of the Iberian Peninsula. Its activity started over 12 Ma ago and continued until the early Holocene. The Quaternary La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (GVF) (Martí et al., 2011) is the youngest (Middle Pleistocene to early Holocene) and best preserved of these volcanic areas. However, its surface outcrops are just part of the complex geology that has been constructed during the over 700 ka of intermittent volcanism in this area. In this paper we present a comprehensive volcanic stratigraphy of the GVF. This work is based on ten years of systematic recognition and characterisation of all ephemeral outcrops exposed on construction sites and data from all new wells and geotechnical boreholes. Geological data have been complemented with results from recent geophysical studies on the substrate geology of the GVF (Bolós et al., 2012, in press; Barde-Cabusson et al., 2013, 2014;), in order to obtain a more precise picture of the subsoil geology of the area and to better define the corresponding stratigraphic relationships. We describe the results obtained and discuss their implications for the study of the evolution of this volcanic area and for assessing potential hazard and tephrochronological correlations in the area.

6.3. Geological setting

Situated in the northeast of the Iberian Peninsula, the Garrotxa Volcanic Field (GVF) is part of the Catalan Volcanic Zone and one of the provinces of the Neogene-Quaternary alkaline volcanism associated with the European rift system. It covers about 600 km² and is located between the cities of Olot and Girona (Fig. 1). This basaltic volcanic field contains over 50 cones (including both cinder and scoria cones), lava flows, tuff rings and maars dating from the Middle Pleistocene to early Holocene that rest on upper Palaeozoic granites and schists, or on sedimentary Eocene and Quaternary subtracts. Available petrological and geochemical data indicate that the products of this volcanic region range from strongly silica-undersaturated to nearly silica-saturated compositions (Araña et al., 1983; López-Ruiz and Rodríguez-Badiola, 1985; Cebriá et al., 2000; Martí et al., 1992). This region comprises a suite of intracontinental leucite, basanites, nepheline basanites and alkali olivine basalts, which in most cases represent primary or nearly primary liquids (Cebriá et al., 2000). The geochemical characteristics of these lavas are very similar to the analogous petrologic types of other Cenozoic volcanics of Europe, which are intermediate between HIMU, DM and EM1 (Cebriá et al., 2000; Downes, 2001).

The GVF embraces two geographically distinct zones, the larger one located in the north in the area of La Garrotxa and a southerly area that contains fewer but larger and more complex volcanic edifices (Martí et al., 2011) (Fig. 1). Although both corresponding to tectonically controlled depressions, the northern zone has a substrate of thick layers of Tertiary and Quaternary sediments, whereas the southern zone is floored by unconsolidated Quaternary sediments in combination with the Palaeozoic basement.

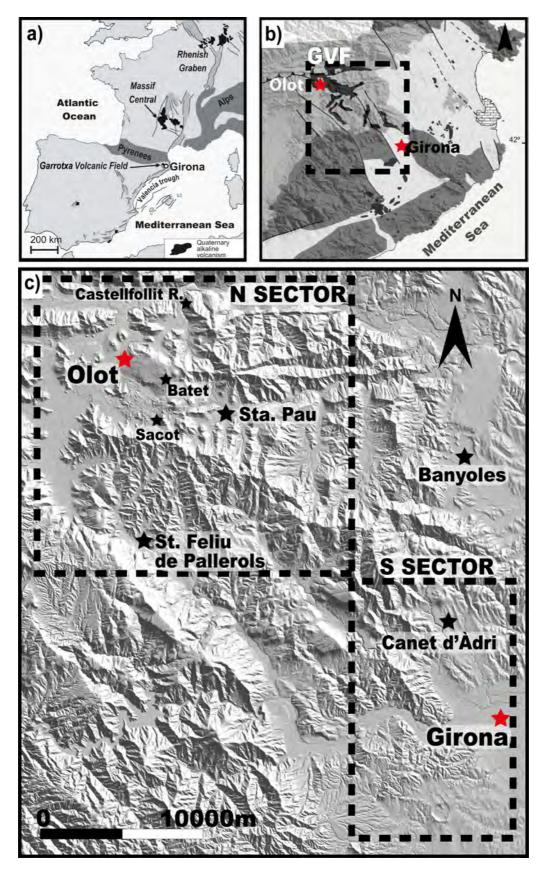


Fig. 1. Map of the study area. a) Simplified map of the distribution of the European rift system. b) Simplified geological map of the Catalan Volcanic Zone (Modified from Guérin et al., 1985). c) Geographic distribution of the Garrotxa Quaternary volcanic field

Volcanic activity in the GVF is characterised by numerous small cinder cones built during short-lived monogenetic eruptions along tectonic related volcanic fissures. The total volume of extruded magma in each eruption was between 0.01 and 0.2 km³ (DRE). Strombolian and phreatomagmatic episodes alternated in most of these eruptions and gave rise to complex stratigraphic sequences composed of a broad range of pyroclastic deposits (Martí et al., 2011; Cimarelli et al., 2013). The eruption sequences differ from one cone to another and demonstrate that the eruptions did not follow a common pattern, particularly in cases of magma/water interaction. This complex eruptive behaviour may be related to the differing stratigraphic, structural and hydrogeological characteristics of the substrate below each volcano rather than to any differences in the physicochemistry of the erupting magmas, which are generally fairly homogeneous throughout the GVF (Martí et al., 2011).

The eruptive fissures that controlled the volcanic activity in the GVF correspond to NNW-SSE and NNE-SSW oriented Neogene tectonic structures (Cimarelli et al., 2013; Barde-Cabusson et al., 2013, 2014; Bolós et al., in press). This suggests that the ascent and eruption of the magmas originated at the base of the lithosphere (Martí et al., 1992) was guided by the same regional faults system that bound the area's horsts and grabens. This explains the high magma ascent velocities (0.2m/s) found in these volcanic materials, which together with the presence of mantle xenoliths and lower crust cumulates suggest that some of the eruptive fissures and faults extended to the base of the lithosphere (Martí et al., 1992).

An important part of the northern zone of the GVF now lies underneath the city of Olot (almost 40,000 inhabitants), a highly industrialised and urbanised area covering about 30 km². The deposits of the five recent volcanic cones (Montolivet, Montsacopa, La Garrinada, Bisaroques and Ca l'Isidret) located in the middle of the city (Fig. 2) have been partially covered by or removed due to urban and industrial construction. Furthermore, a dense carpet of vegetation covers other parts of the GVF and thus the surface geology of the area is not always visible. Traditionally, these factors have hampered geological mapping and stratigraphic correlations and in part explain the incomplete knowledge of the volcanological evolution of this area.



Fig. 2. Aerial view of the city of Olot and its volcanic cones. Photography by SIGMA

6.4. Methodology

The lack of continuous outcrops due to partial erosion of the deposits, coverage by younger products and/or human-induced modification of terrains due construction activities, as well as the apparent similarity of most of these deposits, mean that stratigraphic correlation and the determination of the relative ages of these outcrops is not a straightforward task. To sort out these limitations we carried out extensive fieldwork including the study of ephemeral outcrops and the stratigraphic logging of water wells and geotechnical drill holes (Fig. 3).

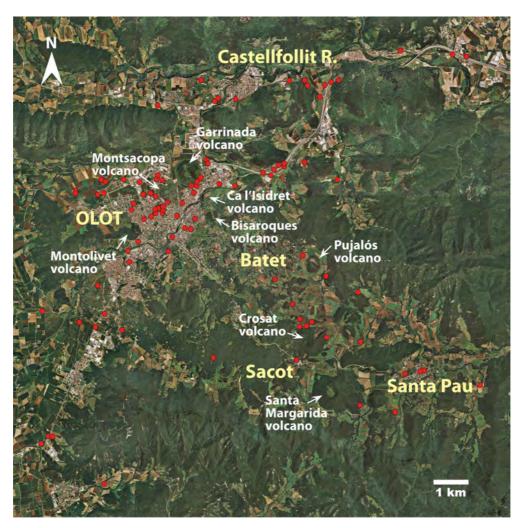


Fig. 3. Location of the studied ephemeral outcrops, water wells and geotechnical drill holes.

In addition, we also considered the existing information gathered by recent geophysical studies that have applied shallow geophysical methods to establish the substrate geology of the GVF (Bolós et al., 2012, in press; Barde-Cabusson et al., 2013, 2014). Finally, we also used basic petrology and geochemistry including mineral chemistry to identify possible fingerprints that could establish a precise correlation between these deposits and determine their relative stratigraphy, as it has been done in similar studies (e.g.: García et al., 2014). However, in this case the results obtained were not relevant to establish a systematic distinction of deposits from different eruptions based on petrological criteria, so these results were not considered to establish our volcanic stratigraphy and are not presented in this study. The use of precise

petrological fingerprints with this type of volcanic rock would require a much more detailed petrological study, which is beyond the main purpose of this study.

We used as a reference the geological 1:25,000-scale maps of the Catalan Geological Survey (IGC, 2003, 2007), which were substantially modified by the new data obtained in this work. A shape file containing the new digital geological maps was combined with a 2-m resolution DEM of the area using an open GIS platform (QGIS) to obtain a graphic representation of the volcanic stratigraphy of the area. The legend of the maps includes the relative stratigraphy of the different mappable units that were identified.

Field geology consisted of a revision of the existing geological maps and the remapping of certain areas at different scales (1:5000 and 1:1000) using as a basis the topographic maps and orthophotographs produced by the Catalan Geographic Institute (www.icc.cat). These resources permitted us to identify most of the characteristics of the surface geology and, in particular, the contact between the volcanic and non-volcanic units, the superficial extent of the volcanic units, the direction of emplacement and position of vents, and a number of volcanic-related structural lineations.

Fieldwork was completed via the study of ephemeral outcrops (Fig. 4) and the stratigraphic logging of water wells and geotechnical drill holes (Fig. 3), which also provided information on the subsoil geology. Construction in built-up areas occasionally exposes new outcrops and large stratigraphic sections. However, the temporary nature of these outcrops is an important drawback and if they are not documented immediately they run the risk of being quickly lost. The same applies to geotechnical boreholes and wells. This information is frequently poorly recorded and often lost among the myriad of documents handled by local administrative bodies.



Fig. 4. Example of an ephemeral outcrop from Montsacopa member, visible during the construction of a new building.

Over the previous ten years we systematically studied most of the ephemeral outcrops in the GVF created by urban, industrial and infrastructure construction, as well as new water wells and geotechnical boreholes. In all, we described and catalogued almost 100 ephemeral outcrops (Fig. 3). The methodology applied consisted of three different steps that were followed in all cases. First, we designed a series of data sheets or templates for the systematic description of each ephemeral outcrop (Fig. 5) with space for notes on a series of variables including outcrop code, type of construction work, name of reviewer of the outcrop, location (UTM coordinates), a detailed field description, photographs, geological cross-sections, a stratigraphic column, an interpretation of the outcrop in the general geological context of the area, and other relevant observations. Second, we maintained close links with local authorities and the Catalan Geological Survey to ensure that we were warned well in advance of any new construction work in the area or any new wells or boreholes. We also developed a protocol for obtaining information from any public construction work planned at national level that was to

be carried out in the study area. Lastly, all the information obtained was incorporated into a geographical database developed using an open-access GIS platform (QGIS, www.qgis.org). A shape file containing all the new digital geological map sections was created with a 2-m-resolution DEM of the area.

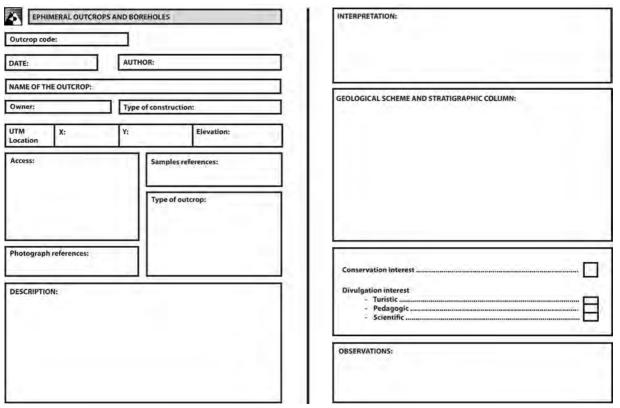


Fig. 5. Data sheet designed for the systematic study and cataloguing of ephemeral outcrops (see text for explanation).

During the period of data collection we conducted stratigraphic logging of the geotechnical boreholes and water wells included in this study directly at each site during drilling operations. This allowed us to identify the different stratigraphic units and to obtain samples that were later studied at the laboratory. In most cases only cuttings were obtained from the drilling operations but they permitted to identify the different stratigraphic units with a high degree of accuracy. Also, we revised and incorporated, when relevant, information from previous boreholes recorded and classified by the Catalan Geological Survey.

The criteria used to establish the relative stratigraphy of the volcanic units were their field relationships, the stratigraphic relationships observed in boreholes and wells, morphometry-based relative dating using the degradation of volcanic cones (see Kereszturi et al., 2013), paleomagnetic correlations (LI. Planagumà, unpublished data), the degree of alteration (weathering) of the volcanic materials, the presence of interbedded fluvial terraces, and absolute dates (if available). To estimate the volume of the deposits corresponding to the products of each eruption we took into account their spatial distribution and thickness variations. We measured in the laboratory densities from field samples from all types of volcanic materials (lavas, scoria, lapilli size pyroclasts, juvenile fragments in PDC deposits) and obtained an average density for each type. Then, the calculated volumes where converted into Dense Rock Equivalent volumes using a density of 2,53 for the magma that we obtained from a

glass made from a natural sample (Croscat lava flow) and applying the equation: DRE (km3) = volume of volcanic deposit (km3) * density of volcanic deposit (kg/m3) / magma density (kg/m3), for each type of deposit belonging to the same eruption and then adding all the values to obtain the total volume in DRE for each eruption.

To complement the geological information obtained from the field studies, we also took into account the available geophysical information of the area, including gravity data, self-potential (SP) maps and electrical resistivity tomography (ERT), obtained in previous studies by the same working group (Bolós et al., 2012; in press; Barde-Cabusson et al., 2013, 2014). The combined interpretation of the geological and geophysical data provided detailed information on the internal structure of certain volcanic cones and the stratigraphy and shallow structure of the substrate on which the volcanoes were emplaced.

6.5. Volcanic stratigraphy vs. conventional stratigraphy

Before presenting and discussing the results of this study it is worthwhile first analysing the stratigraphic criteria used in this work. One of the key questions in understanding the evolution of an active volcano or a recent volcanic field is the volcanic stratigraphy, that is, the stratigraphic and chronological order in which the products of each eruption appear in the geological record. Volcanic stratigraphy is an essential part of field studies in volcanic areas everywhere and is necessary for generating geological maps, reconstructing the volcanological evolution and eruptive dynamics, and studying the physical volcanology and tephrostratigraphy (Connor, 1990; Nemeth et al., 2001, 2012; Palladino et al., 2010; Branca et al., 2011; Guillbaud et al., 2011; Groppelli and Martí, 2013).

Fisher and Schmincke (1984) proposed the use of volcanic activity units combining stratigraphic and volcanological criteria, a method that has the advantage of directly linking volcanic activity with the resulting stratigraphic record; the main unit is considered to be the individual eruption (Member) (Table 1). Another advantage of volcanic stratigraphic units is that they are very useful for understanding the eruptive dynamics of a given eruption or set of eruptions. However, they do not take into account inter-eruptive phenomena (e.g. debris flow, lahars, etc.), which may represent important elements in the life of a volcano and can have important chronological implications (Groppelli and Martí, 2013). Instead of this some authors (e.g. Groppelli et al., 2005; Giordano et al., 2010; Palladino et al., 2010; Branca et al., 2011; Cimarelli et al., 2013) prefer to use unconformity related units (synthems) in the study of volcanic successions. These type of stratigraphic units, initially defined by Chang (1975) and Salvador (1987) for sedimentary terrains, enable the time evolution of a volcanic area to be correlated with geological events acting on local, regional or global scales; an example would be the correlation of the timing and styles of volcanism in a volcanic province with regional tectonics (Palladino et al., 2010). In a similar way, volcanic activity may lead to the incorporation of a large amount of debris into a sedimentary system, thereby changing its dynamics and the sedimentation vs. erosional rates (Smith, 1991). All this may create normally low-rank unconformities in the stratigraphic record of an area that correspond to distinct volcanological-geological events. However, unconformity based units often show nonisochronous boundaries. This is the reason why geological units, members, formations and groups are preferred in many volcano-stratigraphic studies and also in this study.

In the GVF the recorded volcanism dates from the Middle Pleistocene to the early Holocene (Araña et al., 1983; Guerin et al., 1985; Lewis et al., 2000). During this period no significant geological changes have been recorded in the region (Martí et al., 1992) and so the observed stratigraphic unconformities are very local in scale and due to the irregular emplacement of volcanic products and not to any more widespread geological changes. In addition to this, the lack of geochronological data hampers the identification of groups of volcanic eruptions that could have occurred during the same time interval. For these reasons, we chose to use the formal volcano-stratigraphic unit member - in the sense defined by Fisher and Schminke (1984) – and mapped the eruptive units associated with each of the volcanic structures of this field.

Using the member as the fundamental volcano-stratigraphic unit we grouped all the products of a single eruption into the same stratigraphic member and distinguished each one from those pertaining to other eruptions or members. In each member, we distinguished different units corresponding to the products of the different pulses of a single eruption. This permitted us to characterise the eruption sequences and their mechanisms and understand how volcanism evolved with time; this in turn enabled us to identify any changes in the eruption style, the location of the vents, the size of the eruptions, the characteristics of their products, and their relative stratigraphy (age) and areal extent (Figs. 4 and 5). The information provided in this format is crucial not only for understanding the evolution of this volcanic area but also for the description of any potential hazards.

6.6. Results

The main outcome of this study is a new digital volcano-stratigraphic map of the GVF at scale 1:2000, which is summarised in Figs. 6 and 7. These new volcano-stratigraphic framework complements a previous study focused on the description of the successions of deposits characteristic of the GVF volcanoes (Martí et al., 2011), and improves the recent stratigraphy proposed by Cimarelli et al., 2013, which is based on different stratigraphic criteria (synthoms) and is partially incomplete due to the lack of subsoil information and that from the ephemeral outcrops. Table 2 summarises all the stratigraphic members (55 in all) that were identified in this study. The members are placed from the youngest (top) to the oldest (bottom) according to their relative stratigraphy (Fig. 8). Also given is an indication of whether the age is relative (i.e. it was established on the basis of observable stratigraphic relationships) or absolute (i.e. a geochronological – isotopic or paleontologic – date is available), as well as the corresponding reference source and the calculated erupted volumes (in Dense Rock Equivalent, DRE) when available.

The precision in establishing the stratigraphic relationships between the volcanic materials studied decreased progressively with their age, as the younger materials were better exposed and preserved, and located at shallower depths than the older ones, which were often only accessible through boreholes and wells or deep ephemeral outcrops. Due to the incomplete exposure some of the older units could have been missed. However, the systematics used in the construction of this volcanic stratigraphy will allow the incorporation of new stratigraphic units or the modification of their relative stratigraphic position in an easy way and without disturbing the rest of the information included.

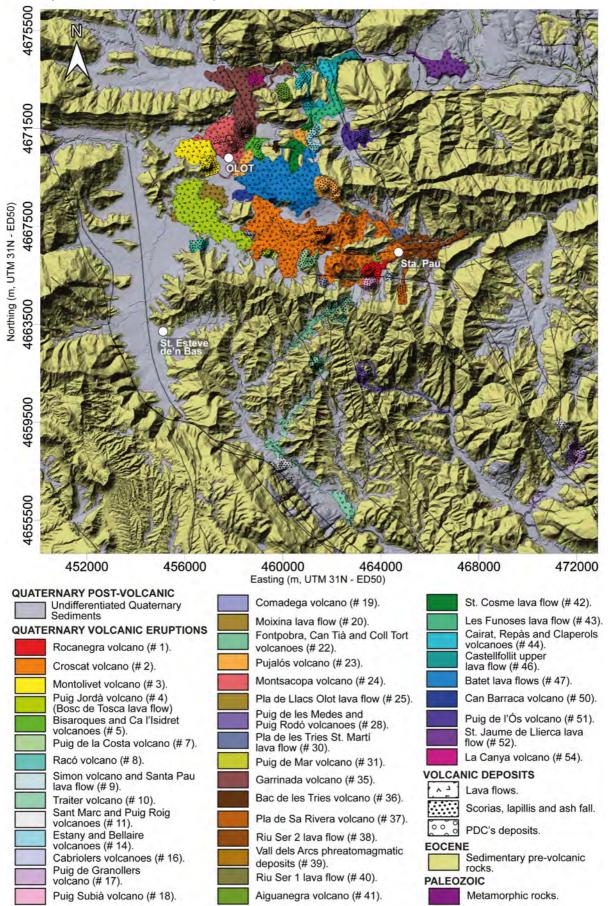


Fig. 6. Volcanic stratigraphy map of the northern sector of the Garrotxa Volcanic Field. A different colour based on the RGB scale was assigned to each member and different kinds of hatching were used to indicate different types of deposits (PDCs, lava flows, fallout, etc.). Numbers correspond to the stratigraphic order of Table 2. Numbers missing in this legend correspond to non-mappable (i.e.: only observable in boreholes and wells) stratigraphic units.

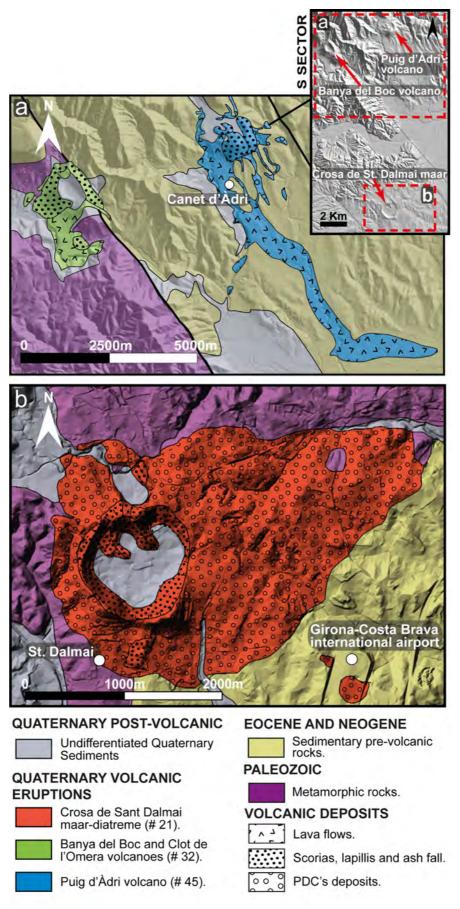


Figure 7. Volcanic stratigraphy map of the southern sector of the Garrotxa Volcanic Field.

When the source area or vent of the different volcano-stratigraphic units or members was plotted on a structural map of the area with the successive numbers of their relative ages (1 for the youngest, 55 for the oldest) indicated (Fig. 9), it becomes evident that most members are located on NNW-SSE-oriented Neogene fractures and faults, thereby confirming the findings of other authors (Martí et al, 2011; Cimarelli et al., 2013; Barde-Cabusson et al., 2014; Bolós et al., in press). These members have a rather scattered time-space distribution, albeit with a tendency for older eruptions (Middle Pleistocene) to be concentrated towards the north of the area. However, we observed no structural indicator that could suggest a similar tendency in the Neogene faults as suggested by Cimarelli et al (2013). Some of the eruptions developed in multiple phases and with multiple vents along the same eruption fissure (Martí et al., 2011), and are thus responsible for some of the clusters of vents that appear in Fig 8. However, a comparison of the different eruptions failed to identify any apparent concentration of vents at any specific location or at any specific time.

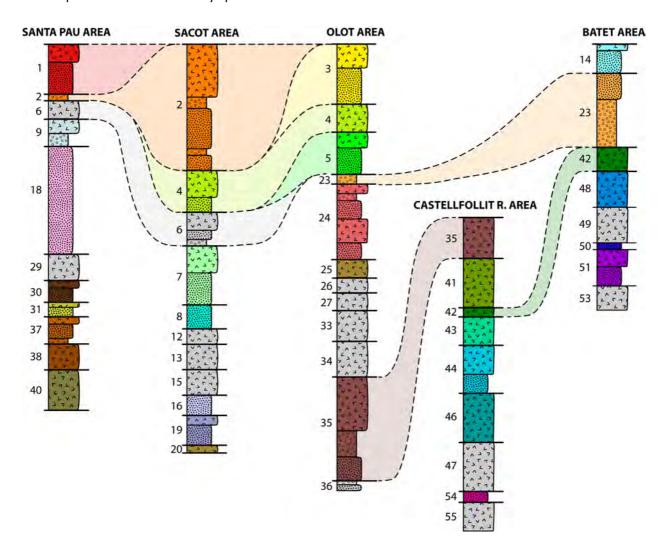
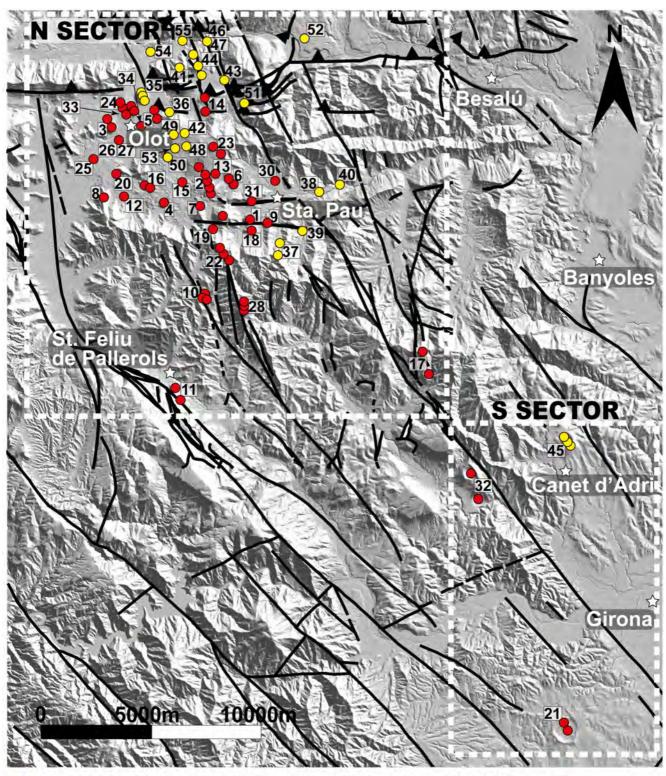


Fig. 8. Correlation of the main stratigraphic members identified in the northern sector of the GVF. Colours of different units are the same than in Fig. 6. In grey, units not observable at surface (i.e.: only visible in boreholes and wells). Numbers of different members as listed in Table 2. See Figures 1 and 3 for location of the stratigraphic logs.



- Holocene and Upper Pleistocene eruptions (0 to 126,000 years)
- Middle Pleistocene eruptions (126,000 to 781,000 years)
- Neogene normal faults Alpine thrusts

Fig. 9. Map of the vents and source areas of the different eruptions (members) listed in Table 2.

The volcanic materials of the studied stratigraphic units consist of lava flows and different types of fallout and pyroclastic density current deposits derived from Strombolian and phreatomagmatic eruptions. Martí et al. (2011) pointed out that different eruption sequences, corresponding either to purely magmatic or phreatomagmatic episodes and alternating Strombolian and phreatomagmatic phases, characterise the volcanoes of La Garrotxa. However, they did not identified neither the spatial relationships among the products of the different eruptions nor their relative stratigraphy. Our field stratigraphic study did not reveal any apparent time or space variation in the style of volcanism, thereby suggesting that differences in eruptive behaviour could be related to local variations in the characteristics (e.g. hydrogeology) of the substrate rather than to geological changes on a major scale.

The calculated volumes shown in Table 2 are all minimum estimates of the DRE and represent the minimum volume of magma erupted in each case and, consequently, the magnitude of the eruption. Not all calculated volumes have the same degree of accuracy, since not all deposits are completely exposed. This implies that the record presented here is incomplete and should be treated with care if used in further studies. The volumes obtained lie between 0.01–0.03 km³. However, a few eruptions (Croscat (2), Puig Subià (18), Crosa de Sant Dalmai (21), Puig de Banya del Boc (32), Garrinada (35), Puig d'Àdri (45) and Puig de l'Ós (51)) generated larger volumes, up to 0.2 km³, in the case of Croscat.

Other important results derive from this stratigraphic study at a more local and detailed level. The use of ephemeral outcrops, wells and boreholes (this work), in combination with results from the application of shallow geophysical methods (Bolós et al., 2012, in press; Barde-Cabusson, et al., 2013, 2014), permitted to obtain the volcanic stratigraphy of the highly urbanised - and, consequently, with a poorly exposed geology - area of Olot (Fig. 9), thus improving previous maps (Mallarach, 1982; IGC, 2003, 2007; Cimarelli et al., 2013) that could not show the same degree of detail. In this sector of the GVF we found very complex stratigraphic relationships between the city's five volcanic cones (Garrinada, Montsacopa, Bisaroques, Ca l'Isidret and Montolivet) (Fig. 10). In previous studies based on the surface geology observable in this built-up area, three of these volcanoes (Montolivet, Garrinada and Montsacopa) were assumed to belong either to the same eruption (Calderón et al, 1906; Sant Miguel de la Cámara and Marcet Riba, 1926; Mallarach and Riera, 1981) or to different eruptions occurring along the same NE-SW fracture (Gisbert et al., 2009). Our study reveals that, in fact, each cone corresponds to a different eruption, all of which are situated along NNW-SSE-oriented fissures. The study of the ephemeral outcrops enabled us to identify the stratigraphic relationships between deposits and discover that each succession of deposits was separated from the next by stratigraphic discontinuities (i.e. erosion surfaces, and paleosoils), which suggest that several thousand years elapsed between each eruption. The oldest of these volcanoes is now thought to be La Garrinada and the youngest Montolivet. In addition, we identified a previously unrevealed volcanic cone (Ca l'Isidret) that formed from a separate vent during the eruption of the Bisaroques volcano (Fig. 10). The volcanic fissures that formed these five cones run all in a NNW-SSE direction, as do most of the other eruptive fissures identified in this study.

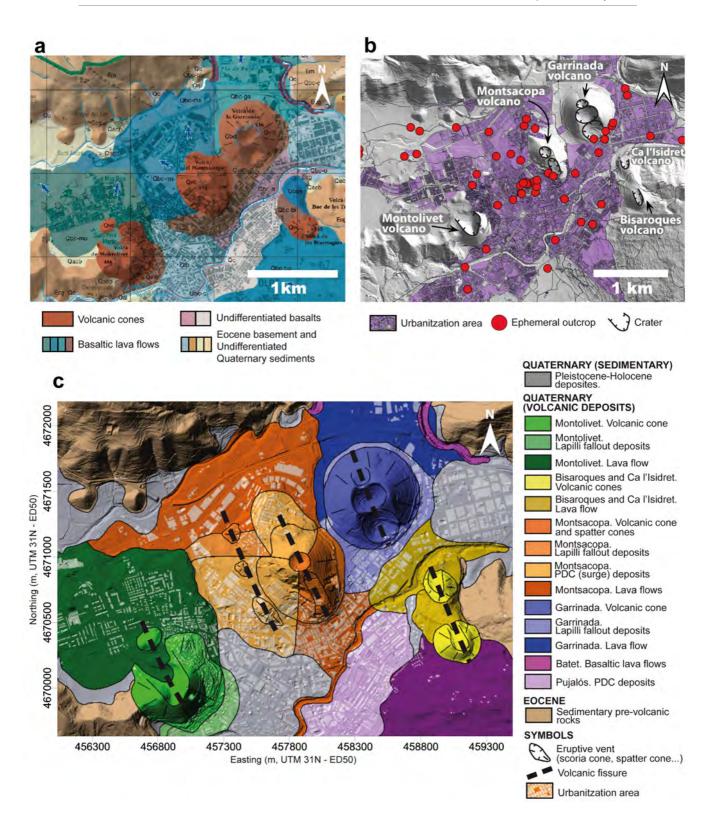


Fig. 10. a) Geological map of the Olot area made by the Catalan Geological Survey (IGC, 2007). (b) Main urbanised area (violet colour) and location of the studied ephemeral outcrops and boreholes. c) New geological map of the Olot area made in this study.

Moreover, in the case of La Garrinada, we used an ephemeral outcrop to complete the stratigraphic sequence partially established by Gisbert et al. (2009), thus providing better constraints to interpret its eruption sequence. Also, the study of 30 ephemeral outcrops

around Montsacopa (Fig. 11), combined with a revision of existing conventional outcrops, enabled us to identify the different vents and products generated during its construction, not envisaged in previous studies (e.g.: Martí et al., 2011; Cimarelli et al., 2013). The construction of this volcano resulted from a multivent fissural eruption. In total we identified up to five different vents on Montsacopa: a central cone and crater, which was the only previously known cone, two other vents whose products are mostly covered by those emitted from the main crater, and scoria deposits that were generated by two further vents. This multivent eruption included Strombolian and phreatomagmatic phases that generated a large variety of deposits including fallout, ballistic ejecta, pyroclastic density currents and lava flows (Fig. 10).





Fig. 11. Field photographs showing Montsacopa deposits and their the stratigraphic relationships. Upper) Conformable contact between Strombolian (lapilli scoria) and phreatomagmatic (PDC) deposits from the main cone building phase of the Montsacopa eruption. Lower) Syn-eruptive succession formed by welded scoria (spatter) at the base and a lava flow on top erupted from a marginal vent with an intercalated distal fallout deposits from the main Montsacopa vent.

Another example of complex multivent fissure fed eruption is illustrated by two of the largest volcanoes in the GVF, Croscat and Santa Margarida (Figs. 8 and 12). Our results confirm what was envisaged by Martí et al (2011) in the sense these two volcanoes, together with La Pomareda scoria vent, formed during the same eruption along the same fissure and showing very different eruption dynamics. The data obtained in this study from two boreholes and one ephemeral outcrop confirm the existence of a phreatomagmatic ash layer formed during the opening phase of the Santa Margarida crater, which is conformably underlying La Pomareda and Croscat successions. This ash layer lies on a thick paleosoil, thus indicating the existence in this area of a significant temporal interruption of volcanic activity before this last eruption.

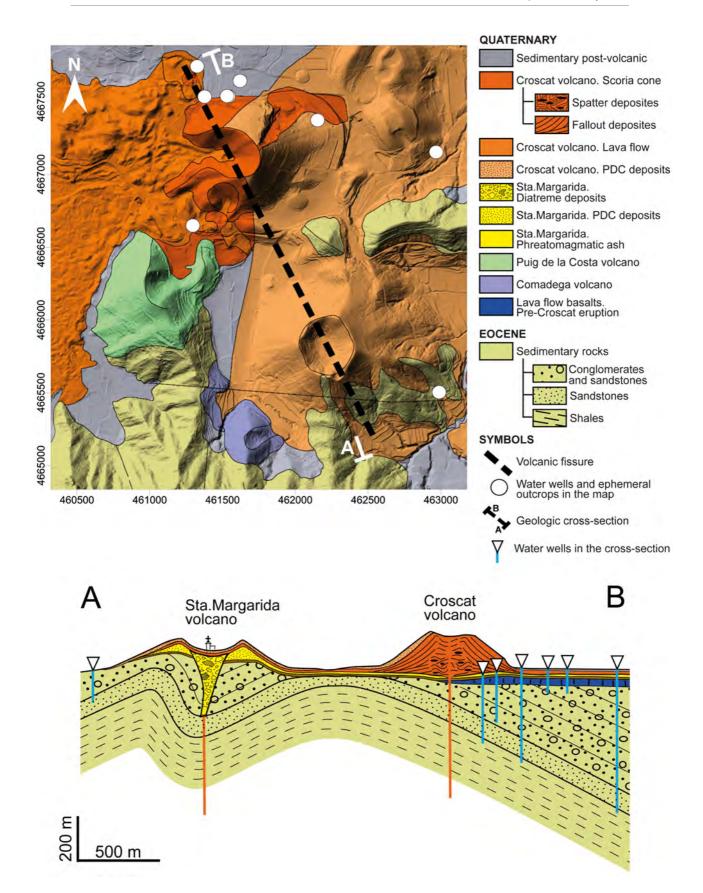


Fig. 12. New geological map (this study) and cross section showing the stratigraphic correlation (modified from Martí et al. 2011) of the central sector of the Garrotxa Volcanic Field obtained through the study of ephemeral outcrops and the stratigraphic logging of wells.

These boreholes also show the existence of more than 100 m of pyroclastic materials from La Pomareda and Croscat not exposed at surface, and how the La Pomareda scoria conformably underlies the Croscat succession (Fig. 8), mostly formed by an initial scoria and a thick sequence of lapilli size fallout, which mostly extend towards the east, conformably overlying the Santa Margarida crater and deposits. These conformable stratigraphic relationships and the absence of paleosoils or erosion surfaces between the deposits suggest that these three vents, in fact, formed during the same eruption.

6.7. Discussion and conclusions

The study of ephemeral outcrops and the stratigraphic logging of water wells and geotechnical drill holes, combined with surface geology and results from shallow geophysical studies, proves to be an efficient way of reconstructing the geology and volcanic stratigraphy of recent volcanic fields and, in particular, of highly urbanised areas in which increasing construction and the occupation of the soil hamper direct observation. The pioneering work conducted in La Garrotxa Volcanic Field, studying and cataloguing all new ephemeral outcrops and water wells and geotechnical boreholes (almost 100) over a period of ten years, has enabled us to (i) establish a detailed stratigraphy of the whole volcanic succession, from the Middle Pleistocene to the early Holocene, (ii) complete a detailed volcanological map of this volcanic field (which includes the city of Olot), and (iii) reinterpret a number of eruptive events. Likewise, our knowledge of the relative geochronology and extension of the most recent volcanic deposits has also improved. Despite revealing no clear pattern of the time-space evolution of this volcanism without a more precise statistical analysis, a concentration of the oldest eruptions towards the north and east of the area can be inferred from the results. Most of the volcanic eruptions (members) identified in this study concentrate in what we refer to as the northern sector of the GVF (Fig. 6) and far fewer are found in the southern sector (Fig. 7). This difference in the concentrations of the volcanic vents between the two sectors is not timecontrolled since eruptions of similar ages have occurred in both sectors (see Table 2).

Despite their complexity, we observed no major geological changes in the area that could justify the stratigraphic relationships in the volcanic materials of the GVF. We attribute all the observed stratigraphic discontinuities and unconformities to either minor, inter-eruptive and syn-eruptive erosional and depositional episodes, to non-depositional hiatus corresponding to the non-uniform aerial distribution of the volcanic materials erupting from the vents, or – above all – to the fact that volcanic materials do not always emplace according to the principle of superposition, in particular when younger materials emplace on deeply eroded older ones. The style of the volcanism does not show any significant variation along the stratigraphic succession. The differences observed in the deduced eruption sequences (e.g. the alternation of Strombolian and phreatomagmatic phases) (see Martí et al 2011 and Cimarelli et al 2013) of the different members should be interpreted as due to local variations in the characteristics of the substrate rather than to any geological changes on a major scale. Similarly, the volume of erupted magma in those cases for which it could be calculated is mostly of the order of 0.02 km³ ± 0.01, which indicates that most of the eruptions were low magnitude monogenetic eruptions. The trends and outliers observed in these estimated volumes require a more detailed investigation that was beyond the scope of this study.

At a more detailed level, the results obtained help demonstrate the importance of access to the subsoil geology if a correct interpretation of such a complex stratigraphic succession, marked by multiple but relatively small and irregularly distributed depositional (and erosional) events, is to be attempted; this is the case of many Quaternary monogenetic volcanic fields and, in particular, in highly urbanised areas. In this study we were able to identify the volcanic stratigraphy buried below the city of Olot and other sectors of the volcanic field, thereby providing a correct interpretation that previously had always depended on incomplete observations. This complicates the reconstruction of the eruption dynamics and may induce significant miscalculations in hazard assessments due to errors in the inferred eruptive scenarios resulting from a lack of geological information from built-up areas.

In conclusion, the proposed volcanic stratigraphy offers the basis on which to built further studies on the GVF. It also provides a precise reference for the Quaternary tephrochronology of the lake sediments in neighbouring areas. The role of these studies in the reconstruction of the palaeoclimate histories is important to understand sedimentological variability and climate change. In the case of northeastern Iberian Peninsula the presence of Late Pleistocene tephra layers coming from the GVF in some lake sediments (e.g. Höbig et al., 2012) help to establish stratigraphic and geochronological markers. A precise correlation with eruptive episodes identified in this study will provide a constraint for the Pleistocene evolution of this area, but will also contribute to better estimate the size of these eruption by characterising more precisely their areal extend and volume of erupted magma. Finally, studies like this one represent a step forward in the preservation of the geological heritage of areas such as the GVF, by providing the basic knowledge on their evolution but also by enhancing the importance of their geological values in front of potential threats imposed by the demographic expansion of modern societies.

Acknowledgments

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Suplemental Table 1: Volcanic activity units and formal volcano-stratigraphic units (modified from Fisher and Schmincke, 1984)

Volcanic Activity Units	Duration	Products and Volcanic Landforms	General Genetic designation	Volcano- stratigraphic Units (Formal units)
Eruptive pulse	seconds, minutes	Single airfall bed, PDC deposit, lahar, lava flow, etc	Eruption units (one or several beds, bedding sets, flows,)	Bed or level
Eruptive phase (several pulses)	minutes, hours, days	One or several deposits (several beds) of airfall, PDC, lava flows, lahars	One or several deposits (several beds) corresponding to a particular eruption dynamics	Unit
Eruption (several phases)	days, months, years	Succession of volcanic deposits of any nature (airfall, PDCs, lahars, lava flows, etc	Sequence of volcanic and related deposits formed during the same eruption	Member
Eruptive epoch (includes several eruptions and inter-eruptive - calm- episodes)	tens, hundreds or thousands of years	Single poligenetic volcanoes (stratovolcanoes, shield volcanoes, calderas, etc) or single monogenetic volcanic fields	Multiple members that may be grouped in cycles, depending on age, composition, eruptive style, etc	Formation
Eruptive period (includes several epochs and calm periods)	thousands or millions of years	Volcanic fields and regions consisting of many volcanoes and volcanic forms	Multiple Formations	Group

Suplemental Table 2. Volcanic stratigraphy of the La Garrotxa Volcanic Field. Source: (1) Burjachs (1983). C14 dating. (2) Guérin and Valladas (1980). Thermoluminiscence dating of volcanic plagioclases. (3) Guerin i Benhamou (1985). Thermoluminiscence dating of volcanic plagioclases and K/Ar Isotopic dating. (4) Bolós A. (1925). Relative dating by biostratigraphy. (5) Pedrazzi et al. (2014). U-Th and C14 dating. (6) Mallarach, JM. (1981, 1982, 1998). Relative dating by stratigraphy. (7) Donville (1973). K/Ar Isotopic dating. (8) Lewis, C (2000). Ar/Ar Isotopic dating. (9) Gòmez B. (personal comunication, 2014) Thermoluminescence (TL) dating of sediments.

Time period	Relative Stratigraphy (from younger to older)	Age	Member	Source	Description	DRE (Km ³)
Holocene	1	Relative	Rocanegra volcano	(1)	These deposits overlie the Croscat volcano (# 2) phreatomagmatic deposits and are not covered by the Croscat volcano fallout.	0,01
	2	11.5 – 13 ka	Santa Margarida – Croscat – Pomareda eruptive fissure	(2) (3)		0,18
	3	Relative < 18000	Montolivet volcano	(4)	These deposits overlie those of Montsacopa volcano (# 24), which in turn overlay La Garrinada (# 35) volcano deposits.	0,02
	4	17.1 ka	Puig Jordà volcano	(2) (3)	Lava flow with rootless volcanoes, locally known as Bosc de Tosca.	0,03
	5	Relative	Bisaroques and Ca l'Isidret volcanoes		Young aspect and poorly eroded materials overlying La Garrinada (# 35) volcano deposits.	0,01
a)	6	Relative	Puig de Martinyà volcano		There is a paleosoil that separates these deposits from the Croscat volcano (# 2) deposits.	
Upper Pleistocene	7	Relative	Puig de la Costa volcano (Lava flow below Croscat volcano member (# 2)		Several lava flows were recognised in the Croscat borehole (see Figs. 8 and 12) below the Croscat and Puig Martinyà (# 6) deposits. The uppermost lava flow can be stratigraphically correlated with the Puig de la Costa volcano, so it should be younger than 30 ka.	
ladd	8	Relative	Racó volcano			0,02
<u>ה</u>	9	28.1 ka	Simon volcano and Santa Pau lava flow	(2)	Santa Pau lava flow could be related to the Simon volcano according to its location and stratigraphic position.	
	10	30 to 46.3 ka	Traiter volcano	(2)		0,03
	11	Relative	Sant Marc and Puig Roig volcano			
	12	Relative	Lava flow below Bosc de Tosca		Appears underlying the Bosc de Tosca (Puig Jordà volcano (# 4)) lava flow and Racó volcano (# 8) deposits.	
	13	Relative	Pla de Massandell borehole upper lava flow			

14	Relative (< 45 ka)	L'Estany and Bellaire volcanoes	(1)		0,02
15	Relative	Pla de Massandell borehole lower lava flow			
16	Relative	Cabriolers volcanoes			
17	Relative	Puig de Granollers volcano			0,03
18	Relative	Puig Subià volcano		Its deposits appear below the Santa Pau lava flow (# 9).	0.1 – 0.2
19	Relative	Comadega volcano		Underlying deposits from Croscat and Santa Margarida (# 2) and other volcanoes deposits in the Santa Pau area.	
20	Relative	La Moixina lava flow			
21	43 - 120 ka	Crosa de Sant Dalmai volcano	(1) (5)		0,13
22	73.5 ka	Fontpobra, Can Tià and Coll Tort volcanoes	(2)		0,03
23	Relative	Pujalós volcano			0,03-0.07
24	Relative	Volcà del Montsacopa		Its deposits overlay La Garrinada volcano (# 35) and are covered by thus from the Bisaroques and Ca l'Isidret volcanoes (# 5).	0.02-0.06
25	Relative	Pla de Llacs lava flow			
26	Relative	Pla d'Olot lava flow		Below Pla de Llacs (# 25). Only observable in boreholes.	
27	Relative	Pla d'Olot lava flows		Undetermined number of lava flows that fill the Olot depression.	
28	100 ka	Puig de les Medes and Puig Rodó volcanoes	(2)		0,02
29	Relative	Lava flow in borehole at Croscat northern flank			
30	110 ka	Pla de les Tries lava flow	(2)		

	31	110 ka	Puig de Mar volcano	(6) (2) (7) (6)		
				(2) (7)		
	32	121 ka	Puig de la Banya del Boch	(2) (3)		
			and Clot de l'Omera			
			volcanoes			
		Relative	Olot 2 lava flow		Only observable in boreholes.	
	34	Relative	Olot 1 lava flow		Only observable in boreholes.	
	35	133 ka	Garrinada volcano	(2) (8)		0,08
	36	Relative	Bac de les Tries volcano		Deposits observable below la Garrinada volcano (# 35).	
	37	Relative	Pla sa Ribera volcano			
	38	Relative	Riu Ser lava flow 2		Appearing above the Riu Ser lava flow 1 (# 40).	
	39	Relative	Vall dels Arcs		Underlying the Riu Ser lava flow 2 (# 39).	
			phreatomagmatic deposits			
		Relative	Riu Ser lava flow 1			
υ U	41	150 ka	Sant Joan les Fonts lava flow	(8)		
cen			and Aiguanegra volcano			
Middle Pleistocene	42	Relative	Sant Cosme lava flow (from		Above the Funoses lava flow (# 42).	
е <u>Р</u>			Batet)			
ippi	43	Relative	Les Funoses lava flow		Above the Castellfollit lava flows (# 46 and # 47).	
Σ	44	Relative	Cairat-Repàs-Claperols eruptive fissure			
	45	168 ka	Puig d'Àdri volcano	(9)		0,09
	46	192 ka	Castellfollit de la Roca upper lava flow	(8)		
	47	217 ka	Castellfollit de la Roca lower lava flow	(8)		
	48	Relative	Batet upper lava flows			

49	247 ka	Batet middle lava flows	(2)		
50	Relative	Barraca volcano		These products are covered by the Batet lavas (# 48 and # 49).	
51	250 ka	Puig de l'Ós volcano	(8)		0,02
52	Relative	Sant Jaume de Llierca lava flow			
53	Relative	Batet lower lava flows		Lava flows identified in a borehole at the Batet high (Fig. 3).	
54	Relative	La Canya volcano			
55	590 – 700 ka	Sant Joan les Fonts lava flows	(8)	The oldest lava emission recognised in this volcanic field.	

Volcano-structural analysis of La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (NE Iberia): implications for the plumbing system

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Tectonophysics

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7.1. Abstract

The Garrotxa Volcanic Field is related to the Neogene-Quaternary European Rift system and is the youngest representation of monogenetic volcanism in the Iberian Peninsula. encompasses over 50 well-preserved volcanoes in an area of about 600 km² lying between the cities of Olot and Girona (NE Spain). In this paper we investigate the relationship between the Neogene extensional tectonics and the spatial distribution of the volcanoes in the area. The analysis includes the geostatistical distribution of faults, fissures and vents, as well as morphostructural lineaments, and the morphometrical analysis of volcanic cones and craters. As well, we use the location of the regional seismicity registered since 1978 and the sites of freshwater springs and mantle-derived gases as indicators of active faults and open fractures. Finally, we consider the location of the volcanoes with ultramafic xenoliths as a way of identifying the deepest fractures in the zone and estimating magma ascent velocities. The results obtained show that this volcanic area consists of an extensional basin delimited by two principal faults that permitted the ascent of magma from either the source region or from shallower reservoirs located at the base of the crust. Towards the upper part of the crust, magma transport was captured by shallow extensional secondary faults whose formation is linked to the slight transtensional movement of the main bounding faults. Our study provides evidence of how the local stress field and contrasts in rheology could have controlled magma migration, which suggests that precise knowledge of the stress configuration and distribution of rheological and structural discontinuities in such regions is crucial in the forecasting of monogenetic volcanism.

Keywords: Volcano-structural · Garrotxa Volcanic Field · monogenetic volcanism · magma ascent rates · plumbing system

7.2. Introduction

Basaltic monogenetic volcanic fields related to rift zones are found world-over and are expressed on the Earth's surface by the alignments of pyroclastic cones and vents and parallel faults and eruptive fissures (Fiske and Jackson, 1972; Walker, 1999). A volcanic eruption signals the end of the process whereby magma rises from its source in the upper mantle to the surface (e.g. Brenna et al., 2011; McGee et al., 2011). The final geometry of the magma pathway towards the surface is directly controlled by the stress field and always follows a path normal to the minimum stress and parallel to the maximum principal stress (Rubin, 1995; Connor and Conway, 2000; Gudmundsson and Philipp, 2006, Cebrià et al., 2011; Le Corvec et al., 2013). In monogenetic volcanic fields the distributions and magnitudes of different stress fields can be related to the tectonic and gravitational forces that, in turn, are linked to (a) basement geometry, (b) local topography, (c) stress changes occurring during dyke propagation, and (d) stress barriers related to structural discontinuities and rheological changes in stratigraphic successions (Gretener, 1969; Clemens and Mawer, 1992; Gudmundsson, 2003; Tibaldi, 2003; Acocella and Tibaldi, 2005; Gudmundsson and Philipp, 2006; Kavanagh et al., 2006; Tibaldi et al., 2014).

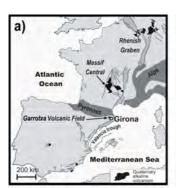
Deciphering the potential pathways that magma uses to reach the surface is of crucial importance when conducting hazard assessment in volcanic areas.

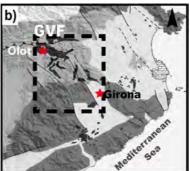
The complexity of subsurface plumbing systems in monogenetic volcanic fields ensures that such systems are difficult to predict and rarely accessible for study and so other methods are needed for understanding the structural setting of a volcanic area and the pathways used by magma on its ascent to the Earth's surface. Over the last twenty years, several geophysical studies have been devoted to geostructural characterisations of the feeding systems of monogenetic volcanic areas (or, more generally, of active volcanic districts) (e.g. Nishi et al., 1996; Bibby et al., 1998; Di Maio et al., 1998, 2000; Portal et al., 2013; Blaikie et al 2014). In La Garrotxa Volcanic Field geophysical studies of this type have been conducted in recent years and have been successful in describing the stratigraphy of the area and the shallow structure beneath the volcanic deposits (Bolós et al., 2012, 2014a, 2014b; Barde-Cabusson et al., 2013, 2014). Results have confirmed in general terms that this volcanism is mainly controlled by NW-SE faults that are the very faults that control the post-Alpine structural evolution of the area. However, the exact structural control and the role played by the major and subordinated faults in determining the distribution of vents and the frequency and size of the eruptions is not known.

In order to improve our understanding of the structural constraints of La Garrotxa volcanism we combined the results of these previous geophysical works with new volcano-structural analysis that includes data on the geostatistical distribution of faults, fissures and eruptive vents, the identification of morpho-structural lineaments by remote sensing, and a morphometrical analysis of the field's volcanic cones and craters. In addition, we took into account all of the epicentres of regional seismic events recorded by the Geological Survey of Catalonia (IGC) since 1978, as well as the distribution of CO₂-rich freshwater springs, and springs and wells with high radon levels, as a guide to active faults and open fractures, respectively. Finally, we analysed the distribution of upper mantle xenoliths and lower crust cumulates as an indication of the depth reached by certain fractures and faults, and used the largest of these enclaves to estimate magma ascent velocities. The data obtained was combined into a conceptual model describing how magma was transported from source to the surface in La Garrotxa Volcanic Field, which can bring some clues for such processes in other monogenetic volcanic fields.

7.3. Geological setting

Mafic alkaline volcanism is widely distributed along the European Cenozoic Rift System that comprises four main volcanic areas: the Rhenohercynian in Germany, the western Panonian Basin in Eastern Europe, the Massif Central in France and the Valencia Trough in Spain (Ziegler, 1992; Downes, 2001; Dèzes et al, 2004, Michon and Merle, 2005). The study area is part of the Valencia Trough, a NE-SW-oriented Neogene basin lying offshore between the Iberian Peninsula and the Balearic promontory in northeastern Spain (Fig. 1). The most important concentration of Middle Miocene-to-recent volcanism in the Valencia Trough is found in the Catalan Volcanic zone (CVZ) in the NE Iberian Peninsula (Martí et al., 1992; Martí et al., 2011). This area is characterised by a series of graben and horst structures that have controlled Neogene-Quaternary volcanism and sedimentation.





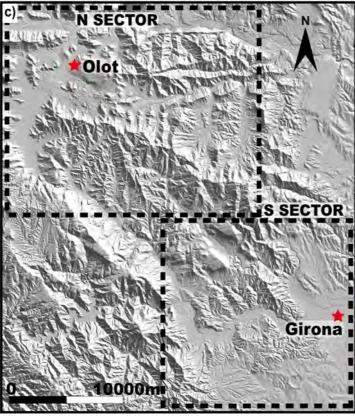


Fig. 1. Location of the study area.

a) Simplified map of the distribution of the European rift system. b) Simplified geological map of the Catalan Volcanic Zone (modified from Guérin et al., 1985). c) Geographic distribution of La Garrotxa Quaternary volcanic field.

The most recent episode in this volcanism corresponds to La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (GVF) (0.7 Ma to early Holocene) (Araña et al., 1983; Bolós et al., 2014b). This field covers an area of about 600 km² located between the cities of Olot and Girona (Fig. 1) and is bounded by two regional conjugated Neogene normal faults with a transtensional component (Goula et al., 1999; Olivera et al., 2003): the Amer Fault to the east and the Llorà Fault to the west. These two faults are responsible for the distribution of the area's volcanism, as well as its seismicity and fluvial network (Saula et al., 1996; Martí et al., 2011; Cimarelli et al., 2013; Barde-Cabusson et al 2014). The northern part of this volcanic field is limited by an E-W reverse fault system, which is not related to the subsequent magmatism. The GVF contains over 50 well-preserved cones, the main concentration being located in the northern sector of the area (Fig. 1). The morphologies of these volcanoes include cinder and scoria cones, spatter cones, tuff rings and maars, and in composition mainly correspond to basanites and alkaline basalts (Araña et al., 1983; Cebrià et al., 2000; Martí et al., 1992). Some volcanoes contain ultramafic to mafic xenoliths including pyroxenites, melanogabbros, amphibolites and spinel lherzolites, of which the pyroxenites are the most abundant (Llobera, 1983;

Neumann et al., 1999, Bianchini et al., 2007; Galán et al., 2008). Pressure and temperature estimates suggest that the pyroxenites, melanogabbros and amphibolites may have crystallised in magma chambers located at the crust–mantle boundary (Neumann et al., 1999), which, according to geophysical estimates, are located at a depth of ~30 km (Fernández et al., 1990; Gallart et al., 1984, 1991); on the other hand, the spinel lherzolites may derive from the source region in the asthenospheric mantle (Bianchini et al., 2007).

7.4. Methodology

New fieldwork and remote sensing analyses were conducted in order to identify and measure the main volcano-structural features such as vents lineaments, fissures and faults (Fig. 2). Structural mapping was performed with the software ArcGIS 10 by ESRI® at a scale of 1:5 000 using orthophotographs (1:2500), aerial photographs (1:18 000) and Digital Elevation Models (DEM; 5- and 2-m resolutions) produced by the Cartographic Institute of Catalonia (ICC; www.icc.cat). Geological maps produced by the Geological Survey of Spain and Geological Survey of Catalonia (IGME; 1:50 000, http://cuarzo.igme.es/sigeco/, 2011; IGC; 1:25 000; www.igc.cat) were also used. The morpho-tectonic analysis included the determination and comparison of lineaments obtained from orthophotomaps and different illumination-shaded relief DEMs, as well as a statistical analysis of the length and orientation of lineations. To avoid any artefact that could be attributed to the lighting direction of the DEM we used different lighting models. We also analysed the profile and direction of several streams and rivers in order to detect abrupt changes in slope direction that could be related to tectonic movements (Fig. 3).

Eruptive vents were mapped as individual points of magma emission on the surface, which allowed us to delineate eruptive fissures corresponding to lines connecting volcanic vents opened during the same eruption (e.g. Tibaldi; 1995, Paulsen and Wilson, 2010; Becerril et al., 2013). Fieldwork allowed us to verify the number of existing vents and to check fissure lengths and strikes.

A morphometrical analysis of the most representative well-preserved volcanoes was also performed. We analysed a total of 28 cones and craters in both the northern and southern sectors of the GVF using a DEM with resolutions of 2 and 5 m, respectively. The cone and crater outlines were manually delimited by consulting slope breaks and geological maps. Morphometric parameters of each cone and crater were extracted using the MORVOLC program (Grosse et al., 2009, 2012). The following parameters were considered: (a) Ellipticity Index (EI) of the cone and crater outlines (EI is a measure of elongation equal to:

$$EI = \frac{PI * \left(\frac{L}{2}\right)^2}{A} \tag{1}$$

where L is the maximum/major outline axis and A is the outline area), (b) the average EI of the closed elevation contours (at 5 m equidistance) within the cone base, (c) the major axis azimuths of the cone and crater outlines, (d) the circular average azimuth of the major axes of the closed elevation contours within the cone, and (e) the calculated azimuth and direction of breaching in breached craters.

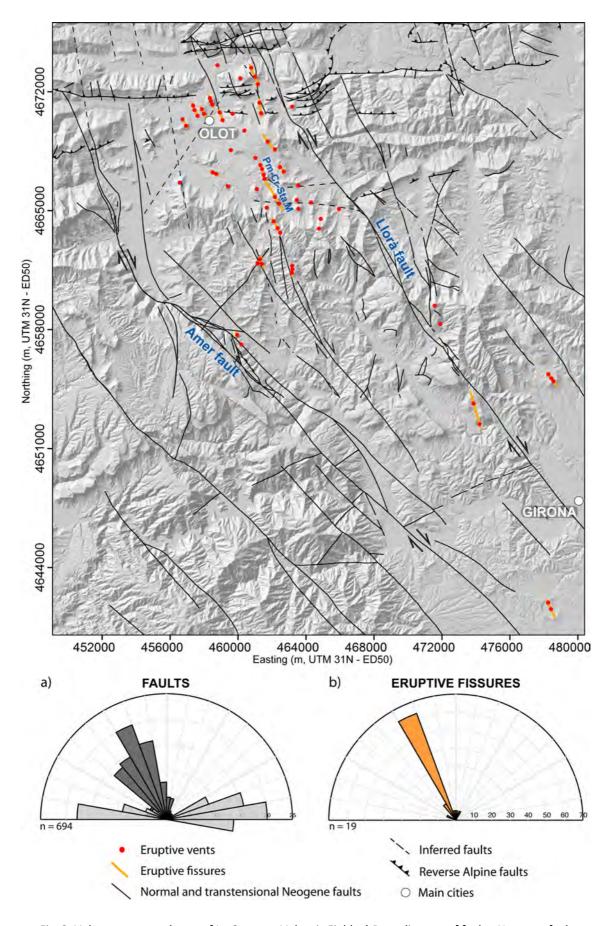


Fig. 2. Volcano-structural map of La Garrotxa Volcanic Field. a) Rose diagram of faults; Neogene faults are represented in dark grey and Alpine reverse faults in light grey. b) Rose diagram of eruptive fissures.

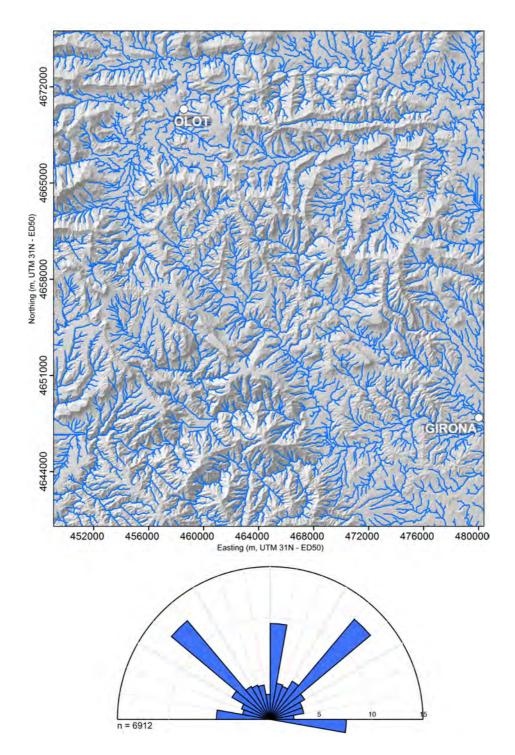


Fig. 3. Drainage network of La Garrotxa Volcanic Field. Trends are represented in a rose diagram.

A statistical analysis based on the nearest-neighbour concept (see Cebrià et al., 2011) was applied to eruptive vents in order to obtain the angles of the lines that connect all pairs of eruptive vents. Previous studies have demonstrated that the main lineaments obtained from the union of eruptive vents can reveal stress field patterns (Lutz, 1986; Cebrià et al., 2011). To carry out this analysis we considered lineaments of up to 12 km in maximum length, corresponding to the maximum distance between two eruptive vents inside the northern sector. We choose this sector since it has the major concentration of volcanoes (Fig. 4).

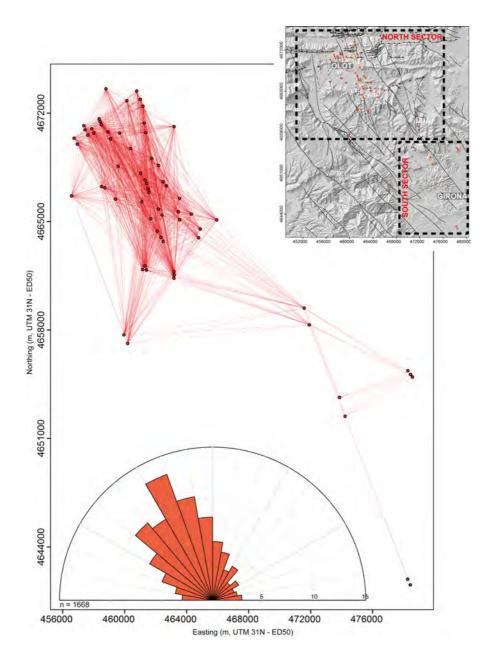


Fig. 4. Eruptive vent lineaments obtained using the nearest-neighbour technique. The rose diagram shows the distribution of the alignments.

No outcropping dykes were identified in the studied area due to its recent age and lack of significant erosion. However, several feeder dykes hidden by their own deposits were identified using Electric Resistivity Tomography (Bolós et al., 2012, 2014a). Preliminary interpretations of geological maps were carried out in order to compile and to check previous mapped faults (IGC and IGME geological maps) and to identify new ones. Stress patterns were also obtained from the drainage network map extracted using a DEM spatial analysis. Rose diagrams of fissures, faults and drainage networks were performed with the software Stereonet 8.8.4 (Cardozo and Allmendinger, 2013). We also took into account the distribution of the main freshwater springs existing in the study area (Fig. 5) to indicate the presence of open fractures and faults. We georeferenced a total of 254 springs shown on the topographic maps of the Catalan Geographic Institute (www.icc.cat), along with others identified during fieldwork. High concentrations of

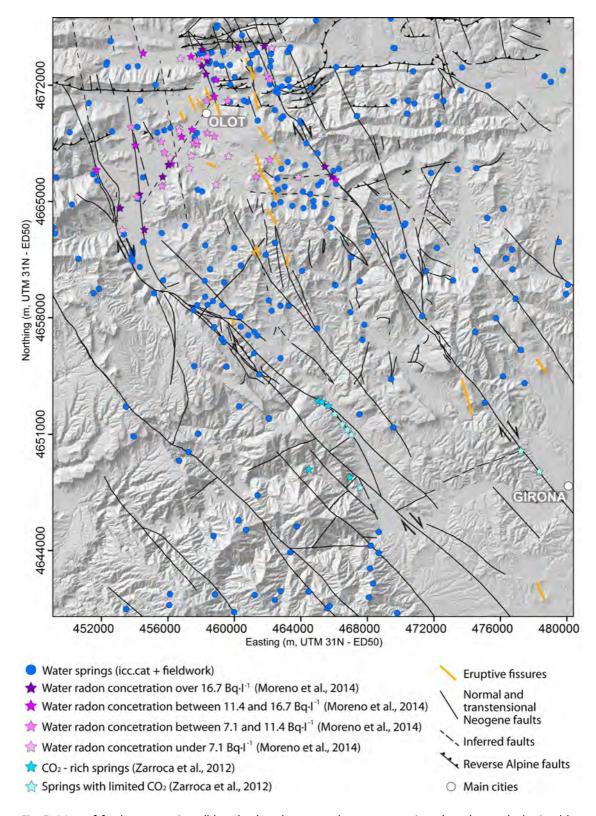


Fig. 5. Map of freshwater springs (blue dots) and water radon concentrations (purple stars) obtained by Moreno et al. (2014), and CO₂-rich springs (blue stars) obtained by Zarroca et al. (2012).

endogenous gases (i.e. radon, CO₂) in freshwater springs are assumed to indicate the presence of deep fractures with high permeability values (Wattananikorn et al., 1998; Kresic, 2010), which is this case where they are directly linked to active Quaternary faults (Zarroca et al., 2012). In a small part of the study area (southern sector; 463216, 4646403 (UTM 31N - ED50)) we also used

12 measurements of CO_2 in freshwater springs taken by Zarroca et al. (2012). In the northern part of the study area (449194, 4662424 (UTM 31N - ED50)), Moreno et al. (2014) catalogued 53 groundwater radon measurements in water wells and springs. All these data were incorporated into a database and are presented in this work, together with data from other springs (Fig. 5).

The location of seismic events was also incorporated into the dataset used in this study (Fig. 6). Although seismic events are not that abundant in the northeastern part of the Iberian Peninsula, it was possible to collect accurate data regarding the earthquakes recorded since 1978 by the Geological Survey of Catalonia (www.igc.cat). This data provides information regarding the current tectonic stresses in the GVF. We compiled the location, depth and magnitude of the seismic events; locations of seismic events were represented on the structural map. The average distance between seismic stations is 30 km and data pertaining to earthquakes located within this network have an accuracy of 2–3 km for epicentres and 5 km for depths (Goula et al., 1999).

The presence of upper-mantle and lower-crust xenoliths in volcanic products has been used as an indicator of the depth of magma pathways and to estimate magma ascent velocities (Sparks et al., 1977, 2006; Spera, 1984; Tsuchiyama 1986; Sachs and Stange, 1993; Klügel, 1998; Mattsson 2012; Jankovics et al., 2013). In this study we mapped the distribution of the volcanoes containing lower-crust xenoliths, mantle-derived xenoliths or both (Fig. 7) as a way of estimating the depth of the fractures and faults through which magma is transported to the surface. Calculations of magma ascent velocities were made on the basis of the assumption that magma (melt) was – in rheological and petrological terms – similar throughout the study area (i.e. basalts and basanites) (Araña et al., 1983; Cebriá et al., 2000; Martí et al., 1992), although the distribution of xenoliths does in fact vary. In addition, we assumed that during its ascent the magma did not undergo any significant temperature variations, as has been suggested by Cimarelli et al. (2012), and that its rheology was close to that of a Newtonian fluid, as should occur in the case of a magma of this composition with a crystal content of less than 15% (see Vona et al, 2011). With these assumptions in mind, we applied the method of Spera (1980, 1984), which defines:

$$Re_n = \frac{\rho_l D_n u_n}{\eta_l} \tag{2}$$

$$u_n = \left(\frac{8R_n\Delta\rho g}{3C_{d\rho_l}}\right)^{1/2} \tag{3}$$

where $\eta_l, u_n, R_n, \Delta \rho, \rho_l, g$ and C_d represent the Newtonian viscosity, nodule settling velocity, radius, density difference between melt and xenolith, density of melt, gravity value, and drag coefficient, respectively. C_d is related to the nodule settling velocity and hence to Re_n . For our samples we considered $Re_n > 0.1$ and therefore we applied:

$$C_d = 18Re_n^{-3/5} (4)$$

In order to estimate the minimum ascent rate we took into account the maximum size of xenoliths found in the area. The density of the melt was measured from natural rock glass by remelting a representative sample in a Pt crucible at 1400° C for 5 hours in an open atmosphere to remove vesiculation. The density obtained was 2.53 g/cm³. Finally, we used the method of Vona et al. (2011) to estimate the viscosity (40 to 50 Pa.s).

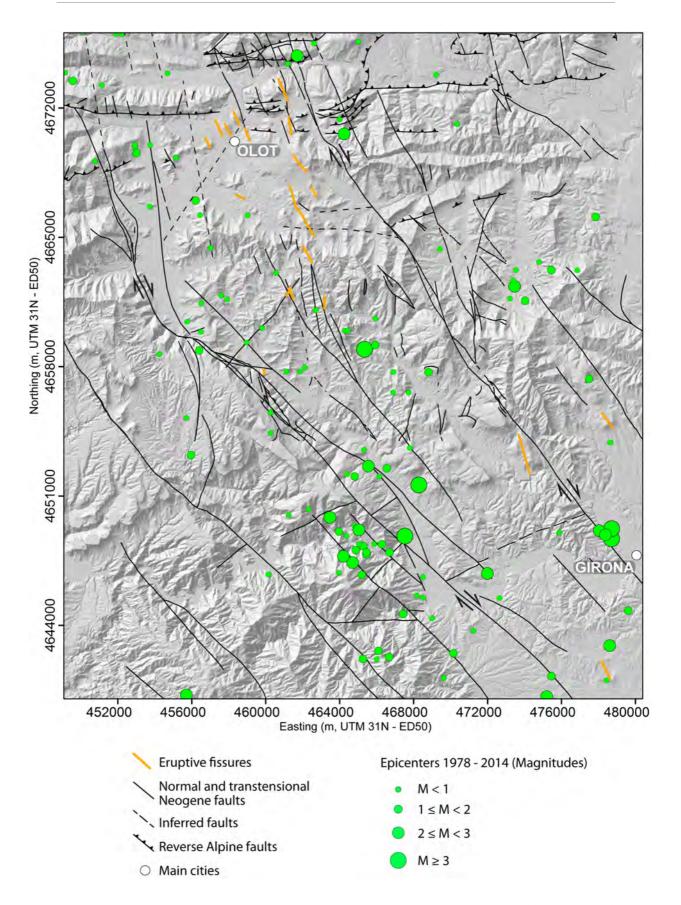


Fig. 6. Epicentral map of regional seismic events recorded by the Geological Survey of Catalonia (IGC) since 1978.

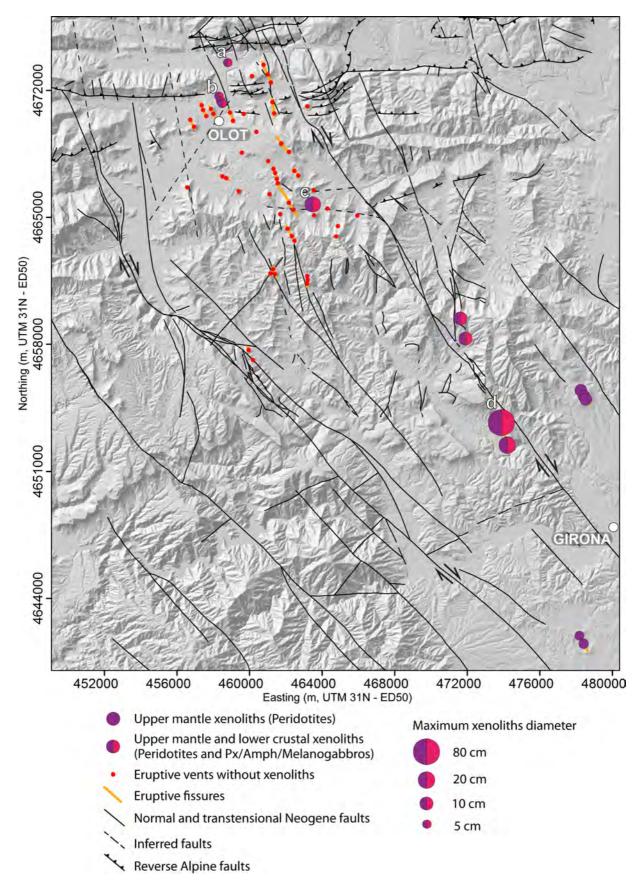


Fig. 7. Volcano-structural map with the distribution of all ultramafic xenoliths (upper-mantle and lower-crust xenoliths) found in the study area, with an indication of their maximum size. a: La Canya; b: La Garrinada; c: Rocanegra; d: Puig de la Banya del Boc.

7.5. Results

Although the GVF is constrained above all between two Neogene faults, the Amer and Llorà faults, there are a few other volcanic outcrops and vents located outside these structural limits, mainly east of the Llorà fault (Fig. 2). No vents are directly located on the Amer and Llorà faults. All the vents identified in this study are located on subordinated faults. In the field it is clear that the majority of volcanic deposits have not been affected by the Neogene faults. Only the main Amer fault affects the central sector of the volcanic deposits (Fig. 8). Most of the volcanic deposits located in the north of the study area cover the basement rocks, which prevents the subordinate faults in this zone from being identified. Towards the north, a set of E-W reverse faults and thrusts formed during the Alpine Orogeny delimits the volcanic field but is intersected (crossed) by the same NW-SW Neogene fault system that constrains the volcanic field further to the south (Fig. 2) (Table 1, Supp. material).



Fig. 8. Outcrops of Quaternary volcanic deposits affected by the Amer fault.

A total of 67 eruptive vents were mapped in the study area and are represented on our map (Fig. 2) by points corresponding to the middle of the craters of isolated cinder cones and of coalescent cinder cones that belong to the same eruptive fissure. The majority of eruptive vents (83.5%) are located in the northern sector of the GVF, around the city of Olot (Fig. 2), while only a few (16.5%) are located in the southern sector (Fig. 2) (Table 1, Supp. material). However, the volcanoes in the southern sector are larger and emitted more magma than those in the northern sector (Bolós et al., 2014a). Several volcanic deposits that cannot be associated with any eruptive vent, either because they have been eroded or covered by more recent volcanic materials, were not considered in our structural analysis.

The alignments defined by 44 eruptive vents allowed us to infer up to 19 eruptive fissures (Fig. 2). All fissures have the same trend, with a strike average of ~N155ºE; the exception is a fissure with a strike of N29ºE subparallel to a related. The longest fissure was measured at ~3050 m and is located in the central area of the northern sector (Pomareda - Croscat - Santa Margarida eruptive fissure) (Pm-Cr-Sta.M in Fig. 2), and was recognized through geological fieldwork and geophysical studies (Barde-Cabusson et al., 2013; Barde-Cabusson et al., 2014). The shortest fissure measures 287 m and the average fissure length is 968 m, although most fissures measure between 400 and 1200 m (Table 1, Supp. material).

The 28 analysed cones have basal widths between 160 and 1430 m (average 610 m) and heights between 20 and 170 m (average 73 m). 23 of the 28 cones have visible craters, with some cones having 2 or 3 coalescing craters. Additionally, 4 craters not associated to any cone, were also mapped. Of a total of 36 analysed craters, 21 are breached. Closed craters have widths between 40 and 390 m (average 220 m; excluding one large crater with a width of 1160 m) and depths between 5 and 60 m (average 20 m). Cone bases EI vary between 1.2 and 2.1, and for the closed crater outlines between 1.2 and 1.5; EI average of elevation contours vary between 1.3 and 4.9. Elongation azimuths of the cone bases, closed crater outlines and elevation contours, together with breaching directions of the breached craters, defines two orientation trends: a main NW-SE to NNW-SSE trend (with crater breaching mostly to the NNW), and a secondary NE-SW trend (with crater breaching towards the NE) (see Table 2 in Supp. material).

The analysis of the drainage network also allowed us to distinguish different trends that confirm the main structural features of the area; the four principal stream directions identified were NW-SE, NE-SW, N-S and E-W (Fig. 3).

In order to obtain an unbiased analysis of the main direction of the alignments, we performed a statistical study based on the nearest-neighbour concept. The results obtained show a lineament distribution that clearly follows a NNW-SSE trend (Fig. 4). Secondary directions ranging from NE-SW to E-W were also obtained.

The majority of freshwater springs identified and plotted on the structural map coincide with the main tectonic elements such as Neogene faults and the Alpine reverse faults (Fig 5). However, a few springs are not associated to any structural element. Moreno et al. (2014) analysed the endogenous gas content of springs and water wells in the northern part of the study area. A total of 41 measurements of water radon concentration with values between 16.7 and 7.1 Bq.l⁻¹ were made, with most located on the Amer and Llorà faults and others on other Neogene secondary faults (Fig. 5). As well, Zarroca et al. (2012) measured a total of 12 CO₂-rich springs located in the southern part of our study area on the central part of the Amer fault (Fig.5). The emissions of CO₂ in this area are clearly measureable in the field as sustained bubbling in freshwater springs.

A total of 144 seismic events have been recorded in the GVF since 1978 (Fig. 6) and are mostly distributed along the Neogene faults clustered between the Amer and Llorà faults. Moreover, there is a greater density of seismic events in the central part of the Amer fault that coincides with high CO₂ emissions. The maximum earthquake magnitude registered in this period was 3.5 (local magnitude) in 1983 on the Amer fault (Fig. 6) (Table 3, Supp. material). Despite the low present-day seismicity, a swarm of powerful earthquakes that took place in 1427-1428 with epicentral intensities ranging between VI and VIII has been attributed to a movement of the Amer fault (Fontserè and Iglésies, 1971; Goula et al., 1999; Olivera et al., 2003, 2006; Perea, 2009; Zarroca et al., 2012).

As explained above, we also considered the distribution of mantle-derived xenolith and crustal cumulates as a way of indicating the depth of the faults and fissures through which they were transported to the surface, and of estimating magma ascent velocities. The distribution of all ultramafic xenoliths found in the area along with their maximum sizes is shown in Figure 7. We observed that the presence of xenoliths is related to the volcanoes located near – but not on – the main Llorà fault. In the area with the greatest density of volcanic cones (northern area), only three volcanoes (Rocanegra, La Garrinada and La Canya;

see Fig. 7) have ultramafic xenoliths, whilst in the southern sector all the volcanoes have this type of xenoliths. Moreover, we observed that the presence of upper-mantle cumulates (i.e. spinel lherzolites) coincides with the volcanoes that have xenoliths, whereas the presence of lower-crust cumulates (i.e. Pyroxenites/Amphybolites) is restricted to volcanoes located in the northern sector and just one volcano in the south sector (Puig de la Banya del Boc; see Fig. 7). The maximum sizes of the ultramafic xenoliths found in the GVF correspond to pyroxenites, with diameters of up to 80 cm (Fig. 9). However, most xenoliths range in size from a few centimetres to 20 cm in diameter, for both mantle-derived nodules and lower-crust cumulates. Velocities of 0.19 to 0.21 m/s have been obtained using equations 2, 3, 4, assuming a Newtonian viscosity of 40–50 Pa.s, the largest xenolith encountered (80 cm), a melt density of 2.53 g/cm³, a xenolith density of 3.55 g/cm³, and a gravity value of 9.8 m/s². The velocities obtained are in accordance with those suggested for other monogenetic volcanic fields (Szabó and Bodnar, 1996; Klügel, 1998; Sparks et al., 2006; Mattsson, 2012; Harangi et al., 2013; Jankovics et al., 2013).



Fig. 9. Photograph of the largest xenolith (pyroxenite) found in the study area (Banya del Boc volcano, southern sector of the GVF, see Fig. 7).

7.6. Discussion and conclusions

The morphological and structural data presented above reveal that the evolution of the GVF has been mostly controlled by two major Neogene faults, the Amer and Llorà faults. They are both oriented NW-SE as are most of the major post-Alpine extensional faults that have defined a horst and graben structural pattern in NE Iberia. However, most of the eruptive fissures and secondary structural lineaments identified in this study show a NNW-SSE trend that runs slightly obliquely to the main faults.

The pattern shown by the eruptive fissures and subordinated structural lineaments is compatible with a slight dextral transtensional component in the two main faults, as previously suggested by previous studies (Goula et al., 1999; Olivera et al., 2003) and indicates that magma ascent in the uppermost crust and subsequent eruptions were controlled by these subordinated fissures. This structural configuration would have favoured the opening of these fractures and the transport of magma through them, at least in the final pre-eruptive stages. Similar behaviour has been described in other volcanic zones (e.g.

Karakhanian et al., 2002). However, it is not clear how deep these fractures are nor what exactly was their role in transporting magma from deeper levels.

The presence of mantle-derived xenoliths and lower-crust cumulates suggests that the magmas that erupted in the GVF came either directly from the source region in the upper mantle or from intermediate reservoirs located at the base of the crust. No evidence exists for the presence of shallower reservoirs under this volcanic field. This is also confirmed by existing petrological and geochemical data (Martí et al., 1992; Neuman et al., 1999; Cebriá et al., 2000). Therefore, what remains to be discerned is how deep the structures observed on the surface extend and how they were used by magma to reach the surface. It is worth noting that most of the area's freshwater springs are associated with relatively shallow stratigraphic or structural discontinuities, while the presence of high radon and CO₂ concentrations mainly occurs along the major Neogene faults (Moreno et al., 2014; Zarroca et al., 2012), thereby indicating that the deep circulation of these mantle-derived gases is permitted through these faults (Redondo and Yélamos, 2005; Zarroca et al., 2012). Likewise, the recorded seismicity also reveals that Neogene faults have been active recently, mainly along the Amer fault. Finally, the obtained magma ascent rates indicate that only a relatively short time was required for magma to reach the surface, thereby suggesting the existence of preferential pathways for magma when ascending from source or accumulation regions to the eruption sites.

Taking into account all this evidence we speculate that the Llorà fault played the most important role in driving magma from the source region, either to the base of the crust where magma occasionally accumulated (underplating) and differentiated or directly to much shallower levels where it was captured by the subordinated fractures that allowed it to erupt to the surface. As indicated by the presence of lower-crust cumulates and the location of vents and eruptive fissures, the extraction of magma from the lower crust reservoir(s) was mainly controlled by the Llorà fault and, to a lesser extent, by the Amer fault, which would have acted as a conjugate major fault reaching down the base of the crust. Shallow subordinated fractures to the Amer fault would have also captured the ascending magma in its last stages and have controlled its eruption to the surface (Fig. 10).

Confirming the proposed model would require the undertaking of a detailed petrological study, which is beyond the purpose of this paper. However, the fact that the mantle-derived xenoliths and the largest lower-crust cumulates are restricted to the vents related to the Llorà fault is strong support for this model. Likewise, the volcanoes associated with this fault have the largest erupted volumes (Bolós et al., 2014b) of all volcanoes in this volcanic field, which also suggests that the Llorà fault was the main magma pathway.

The reason why magma eruptions have occurred through different NNW-SSE eruptive fissures during the history of the GVF – despite its constant and common feeding system at depth – seems to be related to the role played by these subordinate shallow fractures. They captured magma during the final stages of its ascent to the surface and so determined the point of each eruption. The shallow character of these fractures suggests that the local stress field, which was mostly controlled by the movement of the two main (Llorà and Amer) faults, only made a weak contribution. Under these circumstances, these shallow fractures could be easily sealed by residual magma that solidified within and it was easier for a new eruptive episode to open a fresh fracture than to reuse a previously sealed one. The sealing of these eruptive fissures by intruding magma would also obstruct the

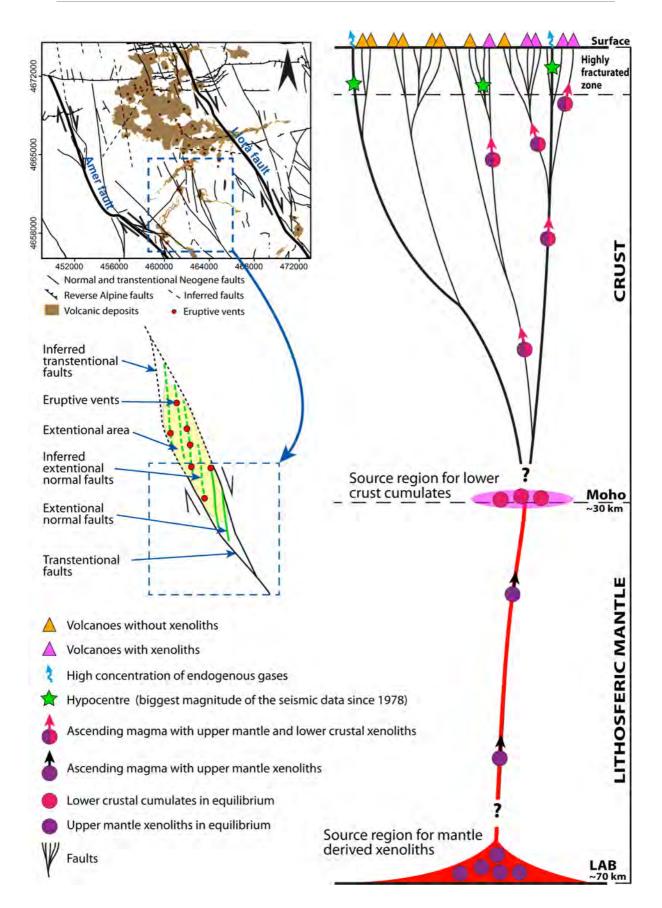


Fig. 10. Schematic representation of the relationships between regional/local tectonic faulting and the plumbing system of La Garrotxa Volcanic Field. (Right) cross section. (Left) top view.

circulation of the endogenous gases, as is shown in the northern sector around Olot, where most eruptive vents have no associated volcanic gas emissions. This would also suggest – in accordance with the intermittent character of this volcanism (Martí et al., 1992) – that each eruptive episode corresponds to an intermittent reactivation of the main fault system every 5 000 – 20 000 years. These tectonic reactivations would permit the ascent of deep magma and the opening of subordinate fractures in the uppermost crust, which would erupt on the surface each time in a different location in the volcanic field. Volcanism in the GVF is mainly concentrated in its northern sector, which suggests that the basin in this area is larger, where the accumulation of post-Alpine sediments is thicker. Moreover, the difference in basement lithology between the northern (Tertiary and Quaternary sediments) and southern (Paleaeozoic granites and schists) sectors of the volcanic field may also have played a significant role in controlling the ability for magma to find pathways to reach the surface. The fact that there is no magmatism north of the GVF may be due to the important increase in thickness of the crust due to the Alpine Orogeny (Fig. 2).

Although the GVF is the best-preserved area in the Catalan Volcanic zone, it is not the only one containing important volumes of volcanic rocks. Older zones such as the Empordà or La Selva (Araña et al., 1983; Martí et al., 1992) also have numerous volcanic features that can be observed on the surface (highly eroded outcrops) or in the subsoil in seismic profiles and gravity and aeromagnetic maps (Casas et al., 1986; Zeyen and Banda, 1988). The tectonic evolution of the area has been controlled by a similar system of Neogene NW-SE-oriented faults, which seems to have evolved over time from NE to SW. We believe that a similar model to the one proposed in this study for the GVF could be applied to other areas in the Catalan Volcanic Zone.

In conclusion, the GVF provides a good example of the structural complexity that governs monogenetic volcanism. Although magma ascent from the depths has always been controlled by the same Neogene extensional fault system that reaches the base of the lithosphere, magma transport in the uppermost crust and the eruptions were controlled by subordinated fractures originating in response to the transtensional component of the main faults. These shallow fractures were sealed by the remaining magma after each eruption and so new fractures had to be opened in each new eruptive episode, probably in association with a sporadic reactivation of the main faults. The model proposed has important implications for hazard assessment as this pattern of magma flow makes this type of volcanism largely unpredictable in terms of the eruption location since the exact position of new vents does not necessarily follow a statistically pre-defined law. Any point located in the area affected by the tectonic stresses constrained by the two main faults could host a new vent if no major basement rheological discontinuities exist. Moreover, the calculated ascent velocities imply that magma may travel either from the source region in the mantle or from the base of the crust to the surface in just a few days, as has been proposed in other monogenetic fields. It is likely that most of this journey occurred aseismically due to the relatively large dimensions of the path provided by the main faults and the absence of shear movement between the fault planes, as occurred in the 2011-2012 El Hierro eruption (Martí et al., 2013). Only when magma had to open the shallow subordinate fractures did the hydraulic fracturing cause any shallow seismicity that could warn of the imminence of the eruption. Therefore, precise knowledge of the stress configuration and distribution of rheological and structural discontinuities in monogenetic fields is crucial when attempting to forecast monogenetic volcanism.

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Suplemental Table 1: Summary of the structural data.

		Total Nº	North Sector %	South Sector %	Mean Trend	Min. length (m)	Max. length (m)	
Eruptive vents		67	83.5	16.5	-	-	-	
	Fissures		84.2	15.8	N155ºE	287	3050	
	Main transtensional Neogen	604			NW-SW			
Faults	Secondary extensional Neogen	604	-	-	NNW-SSE	-	-	
	Reverse Alpine	90			E-W			

Supplemental Table 2. Summary of the morphometric data. ND: not determined. * Azimuth of crater

Name	X (m UTM 31N ED-50)	Y (m UTM 31N ED- 50)	Basal Width (m)	Height (m)	Ellipticity index [basal outline]	Ellipticity index [avg. contours]	Azimuth Major Basal Axis (0- 180º)	Avg. Azimuth Elevation contours (0-180º)	Crater [type]	Crater Width (m)	Crater Depth (m)	Ellipticity index [crater outline]	Azimuth Major Crater Axis (0- 180º)	Breaching Direction (0-360°)
	Northern Sector													
Aiguanegra volcano	460148	4672798	605	69	1.40	ND	114	ND	breached	296	28	ND	ND	307
Puig de l'Ós volcano	463197	4671125	614	83	1.27	1.70	49	162	breached	ND	ND	ND	ND	220
Puig de l'Estany volcano	461363	4670747	505	48	1.46	ND	45	ND	breached	245	19	ND	ND	336
Puig de Bellaire volcano	461268	4671371	472	36	1.80	ND	122	ND	closed	188	9	1.34	58	ND
Gengi volcano	461219	4670962	248	22	1.38	ND	41	ND	no crater	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
Bisaroques volcano	459082	4670358	304	42	1.20	ND	79	ND	breached	156	4	ND	ND	342
Ca l'Isidret volcano	458924	4670777	238	26	1.38	ND	109	ND	breached	125	9	ND	ND	332
Garrinada volcano	458417	4671430	726	116	1.15	1.50	10	36	multiple (3); 2 closed & 1 breached	ND	ND	ND	163*	335
Montsacopa volcano	457906	4670935	669	83	1.62	1.69	148	137	multiple (2); closed & breached	ND	ND	ND	148*	151
Montolivet volcano	456937	4670015	644	87	1.48	ND	27	ND	breached	251	19	ND	ND	320
Puig Astrol volcano	461039	4668110	160	25	1.22	1.32	139	17	closed	41	5	1.25	61	ND
Pujalós volcano	461748	4669070	473	56	1.19	1.28	159	165	no crater	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
Croscat volcano	461518	4667115	964	169	1.70	1.98	67	134	multiple (2); breached	ND	ND	ND	ND	203
Cabrioler volcanoes	458620	4667237	355	38	2.06	2.79	122	113	multiple (2); closed & breached	122	8	1.49	125	212

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Puig Jordà v.	459401	4666446	343	54	1.51	2.22	68	36	breached	178	10	ND	ND	294
Puig de la			793	115	1.81	4.28	43	150	breached	220	29	ND	ND	22
Costa volcano	461117	4666257	, , ,	110	1.01		10	100	Dicachea				.,,,	
Santa														
Margarida			1296	161	1.64	1.44	126	105	closed	392	59	1.29	169	ND
volcano	462184	4665796												
Comadega	464605	4665455	382	53	1.29	ND	167	ND	breached	147	10	ND	ND	65
volcano	461685	4665177												
Puig Subià	462550	4665100	652	119	1.48	1.35	104	159	no crater	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
volcano	463558	4665103												
Rocanegra	462466	4665636	536	98	1.32	2.06	67	173	breached	261	24	ND	ND	54
volcano	463466		400	22	1.26	ND	150	ND	1	207	25	ND	ND	210
Simon volcano	464297	4665482	480	33	1.26	ND	159	ND	breached	287	25	ND	ND	319
Racó volcano	456565	4666649	653	87	2.00	ND	50	ND	closed	149	12	1.43	67	ND
Fontpobra			562	38	1.36	ND	142	ND	breached	293	24	ND	ND	188
volcano	462100	4664362	002		1.00	1,2		1,2		_,,,			.,,,	100
Traiter			F02	60	1 20	MD	174	ND	multiple (3); 2	ND	ND	MD	25*	151
volcano	461298	4661940	582	60	1.39	ND	174	ND	closed & 1 breached	ND	ND	ND	35*	151
Voicano	401270	1001710							multiple (2);					
Les Medes			701	62	1.61	ND	145	ND	closed &	ND	ND	ND	14*	170
volcano	463179	4661343							breached					
Puig de									multiple (2);	246:				
Granollers			ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	closed &	416	16; 19	1.42	113	137
volcanoes	471822	4658670							breached	110				
							Southern S	ector						
Banya del Boc			1428	118	1.87	4.86	122	141	breached	716	53	ND	ND	162
volcano	473917	4653698	1420	110	1.07	4.00	122	171	bieacheu	710	55	ND	ND	102
Clot de			ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	closed	391	45	1.25	156	ND
l'Omera v.	474197	4652475	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND		371	73	1.25	130	ND
									muliple (3); 1					
Puig d'Àdri			1234	118	1.34	1.57	78	36	tuff cone & 2 scoria cones	239	5	ND	ND	315
volcano	478554	4655037							breached					
Voicano	1/0334	1000007							multiple (2);					
									tephra ring &	11622				
			466	21	1.95	2.11	117	102	scoria cone	1163,3; 271,7	49; 9	1.21	33.00	149
Crosa de Sant	.=0.40=								(intra-maar)	2/1,/				
Dalmai maar	478402	4641591							breached					

Suplemental Table 3: Seismic events recorded by the Geological Survey of Catalonia (IGC) since 1978. ND: not determined.

Year	Month	Day	Hour	X (m UTM 31N ED-50)	Y (m UTM 31N ED-50)	Z (km)	Magnitude
1978	7	19	15:46	448637,7	4671031,3	2	2,9
1979	5	24	19:47	467528,9	4648822,6	1	3
1979	5	25	01:42	478711,2	4648669,2	1	3,3
1979	5	25	01:47	478712,9	4649224,4	ND	3
1979	5	25	07:32	478049,9	4649115,3	ND	2,9
1979	5	26	21:21	478380,6	4648892,3	ND	2,7
1981	6	22	15:22	455712,4	4640225,7	ND	2,7
1982	4	12	02:24	475202,3	4640131,1	ND	2,6
1982	4	12	14:55	463475,1	4649841,6	24	2,7
1982	4	12	15:21	465559,2	4652607,1	ND	2,6
1985	8	24	02:16	458974,6	4659304,4	ND	0
1986	8	25	22:17	462318,0	4650291,8	ND	0
1986	10	26	21:56	468286,8	4651595,0	3	3,5
1988	1	13	23:58	460105,5	4639755,6	ND	0
1988	2	11	04:50	478381,5	4676207,0	ND	0
1988	8	29	09:35	452479,0	4677333,7	ND	0
1988	10	7	19:46	446877,2	4678484,2	ND	0
1988	12	12	09:29	455723,1	4655215,6	ND	0
1990	4	16	08:14	449563,5	4673467,5	ND	1,6
1991	3	8	02:31	464798,1	4649390,8	2,8	,-
1991	10	29	12:54	468580,3	4680241,4	ND	2,5
1992	2	9	22:00	464242,9	4670601,7	1	2,9
1992	5	28	04:29	460410,4	4679283,3	ND	0
1992	8	16	13:20	450436,0	4680123,9	1	2,9
1992	9	5	20:59	466669,8	4642275,6	ND	1,9
1992	9	18	07:58	447960,3	4679919,7	8	2,8
1993	3	9	20:31	455865,7	4677977,9	ND	2
1993	4	19	12:24	446793,9	4678373,8	ND	0
1993	6	30	22:33	471994,1	4646805,0	ND	2
1993	8	2	21:54	478644,1	4653888,0	ND	0
1993	8	22	20:06	477496,2	4657333,6	ND	1,7
1993	9	2	12:39	456209,9	4666982,7	ND	1,8
1994	5	19	13:27	475895,9	4649011,3	ND	0
1994	11	15	01:54	464705,3	4647392,6	ND	2
1995	2	20	04:09	465341,8	4658937,2	1	3,2
1995	4	6	06:53	461705,9	4674834,5	9	2,3
1996	2	9	07:34	447942,2	4677476,9	4	2,4
1996	2	10	10:55	449114,1	4679800,2	ND	1,9
1996	3	25	21:33	459586,3	4679399,0	3	2,4
1996	11	7	12:23	472284,2	4678449,2	ND	1,6
1997	4	6	05:24	474036,9	4661564,8	ND	1,8
1997	4	6	05:25	475448,3	4663225,3	9	1,3
1997	4	6	05:45	473210,4	4661678,9	ND	0,7
1997	4	6	06:00	473461,0	4662344,2	7	2
1997	4	6	06:02	473379,6	4662677,6	ND	0,7
1997	4	25	23:14	466645,4	4637057,1	ND	1,5
1998	9	27	21:23	470153,0	4642482,2	ND	1,6
1998	12	29	00:20	452222,4	4676002,9	0,7	0

1999	5	8	11:46	446532,9	4676599,1	ND	0,7
1999	5	27	09:49	470356,2	4671128,5	ND	0,5
1999	11	9	02:41	478611,0	4642895,8	ND	2,1
2000	1	3	18:28	459011,5	4679846,5	1	3
2000	1	3	18:44	459006,3	4678958,2	ND	0,4
2000	1	3	18:55	459588,8	4679843,2	10	0,7
2000	1	3	19:17	459503,2	4679288,5	3	0,9
2000	1	3	19:48	459836,2	4679841,8	2	0
2000	1	3	19:49	461071,5	4679501,7	11	1,8
2000	1	3	20:18	459095,9	4680179,2	4	0,9
2000	1	3	21:45	459338,8	4679400,5	ND	0,1
2000	1	4	01:33	459013,5	4680179,7	13	0,5
2000	1	4	03:23	459257,0	4679512,0	3	0,6
2000	1	4	03:26	459498,0	4678400,2	ND	0,1
2000	1	4	03:40	459590,7	4680176,3	3	2,2
2000	1	4	03:45	458756,9	4678626,6	ND	0,3
2000	1	4	04:03	459421,3	4679400,0	6	1,5
2000	1	4	06:20	459422,6	4679622,1	3	1,4
2000	1	4	13:08	459340,1	4679622,5	3	0,9
2000	1	7	04:49	459423,2	4679733,1	3	1,1
2000	1	12	23:28	459421,3	4679400,0	6	0,3
2000	1	27	04:47	459833,1	4679286,6	7	0,4
2000	3	2	22:10	459421,3	4679400,0	7	0,7
2000	3	14	14:21	456453,0	4666203,9	ND	0,8
2000	5	13	06:09	466091,0	4642611,4	ND	1,4
2001	4	26	19:42	448224,0	4670923,3	14	1,4
2001	5	7	21:54	477854,7	4666104,3	ND	1,5
2001	10	24	18:12	456506,2	4661428,9	ND	0,5
2001	10	25	04:50	456496,6	4659874,4	ND	0,1
2001	10	26	14:04	457583,8	4661866,5	0,5	0
2001	10	29	19:28	457913,2	4661642,4	9	0,2
2001	10	30	05:55	455755,8	4660434,2	0,2	·, <u>-</u>
2001	10	30	18:29	460567,2	4663070,6	ND	0,2
2002	1	2	06:50	459917,5	4679619,2	1	1,7
2002	1	25	15:33	451130,4	4673234,4	ND	0,1
2002	3	31	23:12	479611,3	4644780,4	ND	1,1
2002	6	10	15:55	450508,3	4678679,8	3	1,4
2002	6	13	23:23	463999,2	4671380,2	ND	0
2002	6	27	19:32	464811,3	4652055,6	3	1,1
2002	8	4	02:56	469649,9	4641151,9	ND	0,9
2002	8	11	07:54	446391,2	4668827,2	10	0,1
2002	11	3	04:17	465928,9	4660599,9	ND	0
2002	11	3	22:12	459806,1	4660076,9	ND	0,6
2002	11	5	02:03	456407,8	4658875,6	3	1,6
2002	11	17	20:50	461317,1	4679167,2	11	0,6
2003	4	21	22:42	475454,9	4641240,5	ND	1,2
2003	4	22	02:18	482025,5	4648993,1	ND	0,9
2003	4	22	23:36	467426,7	4644603,8	ND	1
2003	7	9	10:46	468332,9	4680242,5	ND	0
2003	8	3	13:14	466552,2	4652491,3	4	1,1
2003	9	3	13:55	446486,6	4659610,0	ND	0

2003	7	2	03:50	460240,4	4678395,9	7	1,6
2004	2	18	10:04	459503,8	4679399,5	2	1,3
2004	3	2	04:13	460251,1	4680283,6	3	1,7
2004	3	24	20:31	468810,5	4657699,7	6	1,6
2004	3	26	04:25	463968,1	4649061,9	ND	1,7
2004	4	13	19:05	460144,8	4646750,6	ND	0,6
2004	6	4	01:54	461387,4	4676946,0	10	1
2004	8	25	23:12	461239,5	4649964,5	ND	0,8
2004	11	21	21:56	448136,5	4670257,6	12	1,5
2004	11	22	00:22	448056,4	4670591,4	12	0,5
2004	11	27	06:19	448303,3	4670478,5	13	0,7
2005	2	9	15:20	464209,9	4647728,2	3	2,9
2005	3	18	13:32	466284,3	4648384,3	3	1,4
2005	3	18	13:49	465870,1	4648386,2	1,6	0
2005	7	26	12:08	465453,2	4647833,1	3	1,7
2005	8	17	11:09	464874,3	4648058,0	3	1,8
2005	10	7	02:18	459014,6	4666188,6	ND	0,2
2005	10	18	12:26	465259,8	4642171,3	13	1,3
2006	4	1	01:20	478842,9	4637232,5	ND	0,6
2006	4	1	03:29	480585,2	4637227,5	ND	0,7
2006	5	26	18:00	466136,1	4652049,1	13	0,4
2006	5	27	07:02	454255,7	4658667,1	ND	0,7
2006	5	30	18:01	453004,6	4669557,2	10	1
2006	6	4	13:24	465921,9	4659156,5	8	1,5
2006	7	10	11:08	464271,6	4659941,9	ND	0
2006	9	1	05:20	462706,0	4661060,3	0,9	0
2006	11	10	11:28	466696,4	4647938,2	ND	1,4
2006	12	11	18:41	462110,5	4657954,4	13	0,5
2006	12	27	12:19	463956,9	4646841,2	12	0
2007	1	11	11:47	465045,5	4649167,5	3	2,2
2007	2	19	11:56	465199,2	4646724,0	3	1,4
2007	4	26	11:02	465289,6	4648278,0	3	1,5
2007	4	30	03:21	468177,1	4645599,7	5	0,9
2007	5	14	10:44	465453,7	4647944,1	5	1,4
2007	6	29	02:00	478677,3	4637344,0	ND	0
2007	7	5	21:23	479423,7	4637230,8	9	0,9
2007	12	20	03:57	455150,6	4669321,2	3	0,3
2008	2	3	02:16	461861,2	4657733,7	4	0,3
2008	4	24	00:50	467799,1	4653595,9	0,5	0
2008	6	22	19:49	465151,9	4637064,3	ND	0,1
2008	7	25	02:04	465235,9	4637285,9	ND	0,3
2009	1	1	04:42	480341,5	4639115,7	ND	0,3
2009	2	16	02:37	447873,7	4679365,1	ND	0,5
2009	9	21	05:08	462617,3	4675495,8	ND	0,7
2009	10	25	06:15	465011,0	4675594,6	5	0
2009	11	8	01:11	452650,7	4678331,9	10	0,6
2010	4	12	20:59	465779,6	4680920,7	10	0
2010	7	27	01:47	471235,8	4643699,1	9	0,8
2010	9	14	23:09	469318,6	4679349,8	7	0,4
2010	12	28	18:14	474788,6	4663671,8	9	0,5
2010	12	31	04:43	448036,8	4667926,5	ND	0

2011 1 7 17:49 460476,7 4676395,9 5 2011 1 18 03:20 465905,0 4638393,0 4 2011 1 18 03:21 466319,3 4638280,0 ND 2011 3 19 19:48 451892,3 4676005,2 ND 2011 3 19 20:24 451495,8 4678339,8 ND 2011 3 31 01:39 469211,8 4673798,3 1 2011 4 30 19:14 450771,5 4669128,3 18 2011 5 24 02:23 455959,0 4653215,4 7 2011 6 3 21:44 450077,7 4676128,9 ND	0,8 0,4 0 0 0,4
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2011 6 3 21:44 450077,7 4676128,9 ND	1,4
	0,2
2011 7 27 10:36 452924,3 4669890,9 7	0,4
2011 8 17 06:38 449154,0 4673914,6 15	0,3
2011 9 10 01:18 465315,2 4653496,6 ND	0,7
2011 9 17 03:08 465041,7 4648390,3 5	0,9
2011 12 11 03:26 471789,2 4636923,9 2	0,5
2011 12 11 03:39 454684,4 4673876,9 ND	0
2011 12 13 02:44 470796,2 4637594,0 8	1,5
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2011 12 26 08:47 453159,0 4680327,3 5	0,3
2011 12 26 18:02 453244,4 4680770,9 ND	0,2
2011 12 26 20:23 452912,3 4680440,0 6	0,2
2011 12 27 12:17 452999,2 4681105,7 8	0,4
2011 12 27 13:20 452916,0 4680995,2 7	0
2011 12 27 20:56 453078,7 4680661,0 5	0,7
2011 12 27 22:30 453571,3 4680324,6 5	0,3
2011 12 30 06:44 453245,1 4680881,9 ND	1,8
2012 3 30 10:52 464381,2 4648837,7 2	1,5
2012 4 20 00:06 469418,5 4664359,2 12	0,3
2012 5 11 00:56 453750,9 4669996,5 13	0,4
2012 6 5 01:03 453729,0 4666665,4 8	0
2012 7 1 19:03 460270,6 4654411,4 4	0,9
2012 8 31 19:31 464437,0 4659941,0 4	0,9
2012 8 31 21:27 464397,9 4652168,7 2	0,8
2012 11 4 04:00 461208,3 4674393,1 4	0
2013 2 28 05:16 473547,0 4663232,2 14	0
2013 3 16 00:27 478439,5 4641008,8 2	0,4
2013 3 26 13:50 457020,6 4664423,8 1	0,2
2013 5 25 09:03 447945,1 4666705,7 13	1,2
2013 7 23 17:27 452925,0 4670001,9 12	2
2013 7 24 11:26 476853,6 4663220,5 13	0
2013 7 24 14:40 472651,8 4645470,0 ND	0,1
2013 8 17 01:58 466006,0 4642167,7 18	0
2013 8 26 16:11 461116,6 4657737,8 4	0,4
2013 9 19 16:31 466907,7 4657708,3 ND	0,2
2013 9 20 03:04 467730,0 4656594,1 4	1,1
2013 9 20 03:17 466902,5 4656598,0 4	0,4
2013 11 19 01:51 468513,1 4646597,5 4	0,9
2013 12 2 02:45 468508,1 4645487,2 4	0,9
2014 2 17 02:01 470142,3 4639928,4 4	0
2014 2 17 05:24 460276,8 4655521,7 8	0

Summary of results and discussion

This PhD Thesis consists of six research papers that are currently published, in-press or under-review in international journals. The results obtained in the whole work show that the influence of local tectonics and geology of the substrate determine the controls and eruption styles in the GVF. Several methodologies were implemented, described and discussed, in order to investigate the role played by the structural and geological controls, but also to explore the internal structure of monogenetic volcanoes and to reconstruct the relative stratigraphy of this volcanic field.

The first work allowed identifying the main tectonic structures of the volcanic area at depth. This study was performed in the Northern sector of the study area, as it presents the greatest density of volcanic cones of the whole volcanic field. As reported in Barde-Cabusson et al. (2014), volcanism appears to be controlled by NNE–SSW and NNW–SSE tectonic structures identified by gravimetric and self-potential surveys. Moreover, another finding of this study was that the central part of the northern sector is dominated by a broad negative Bouguer anomaly of around –0.5 mGal, within which a series of gravity minima are found with amplitudes of up to –2.3 mGal. Porous volcanoclastic deposits, including the pyroclastic roots of volcanic edifices, in combination with fault and fissure damage zones appear to be the main candidates to explain the observed gravity anomalies. This suggests that there is not evidence of a large magma chamber in the upper part of the crust that controlled any eruption. The combination of both geophysical methods helped us to explore and link the superficial expressions of monogenetic volcanism and characteristic fissure zones of the GVF with magma pathways at depths.

From the identification of the tectonic structures that play a main role on this volcanism, we carried out a second work (see Bolós et al., 2014) in order to obtain a much better resolution of the shallower structures and to better identify the role played by the geology of the substrate on the uppermost part of the feeding system. The self-potential dataset was complemented from the previous smaller-scale studies and electrical resistivity tomography was conducted on some key areas. The main new results include the generation of resistivity models from 9 electrical resistivity tomography profiles. The 2D images obtained revealed the existence of high resistivity bodies corresponding to NNW-SSE-running feeder dykes, confirming the role played by NNW-SSE Neogene extensional faults in the volcanic manifestations in the area. These structures coincide with the deeper ones identified in the previous work, and show that anterior Alpine tectonic structures played no apparent role in controlling the loci of this volcanism. In addition, the results obtained showed that the phreatomagmatic and Strombolian activity could take place simultaneously or within a short time span, in close proximity or even in the same volcanic edifice, because of the controlled exerted by shallow stratigraphical, structural, and hydrogeological differences underneath these monogenetic volcanoes. The existence of such a configuration could explain the variety of eruptive dynamics in the monogenetic GVF and in other volcanic fields of similar characteristics without any need for change in the composition of the magma.

A further investigation was carried out at the southern sector of the GVF, specifically in La Crosa de Sant Dalmai volcano (10 km SW of Girona) one of the most representative volcanic landform of the GVF. This volcano is a very well preserved maar-diatreme, 1.5 km in diameter, excavated at the contact between a hard substrate and a soft substrate formed by Palaeozoic granites and squits and Pliocene and Quaternary gravels, respectively. This work applied gravimetry, magnetometry, self-potential and electrical resistivity tomography in

order to infer the inner structure of the maar-diatreme and to characterise the main geological and tectonic constraints, as reported in Bolós et al. (2012). This multiparametric geophysical study together with new field geology and additional geological data from two drill cores provided a detailed picture of the post-eruptive maar infill sequence as well as of the uppermost part of the maar-diatreme structure. The model obtained helps to understand the influence of the pre-eruptive basement on the phreatomagmatic and Strombolian activity that constructed the volcanic edifice and the characteristics of the post-eruptive deposits that infill the maar crater. In addition, geophysical data showed that the last Strombolian phase, which culminated with the formation of a scoria cone inside the maar, was associated with a NW–SE oriented fault, in accordance with the regional trend already mentioned.

The results obtained with the application of these geophysical methods in the GVF demonstrate that electrical resistivity tomography is a useful tool to study the internal structure of monogenetic volcanoes. This is reported in Barde-Cabusson et al. (2013) where, this method was applied to three monogenetic cones from the GVF (Montsacopa and Pujalós volcanoes at northern sector and Puig d'Àdri tephra ring at the southern sector of the GVF), comparing the results with geological observations to interpret the inner structures of the volcanoes. Several volcanic products were identified such as (a) spatter deposits in the central part of the cones, (b) sharp contrasts between hydromagmatic and Strombolian deposits, (c) buried lava flows, (d) the hidden eruptive vent of the Montsacopa volcano, and (e) the eruptive conduit of the Puig d'Àdri Strombolian cone.

The fifth work was conducted in whole volcanic field and dealt with the study of ephemeral outcrops, the stratigraphic logging of water wells and geotechnical drill holes, combined with surface geology and the results from the previous shallow geophysical studies. As reported in Bolós et al. (2014 in-press), the methodology applied in this work proved to be an efficient way of reconstructing the geology and volcanic stratigraphy of recent volcanic fields and, in particular, of highly urbanised areas in which increasing construction and the occupation of the soil hamper direct observation. The main results obtained enabled us to (a) establish a detailed stratigraphy of the whole volcanic succession, from the Middle Pleistocene to the early Holocene, (b) complete a detailed volcanological map of this volcanic field (which includes the city of Olot), and (c) reinterpret a number of eruptive events. Likewise, the knowledge of the relative geochronology and extension of the most recent volcanic deposits has also improved. Despite revealing no clear pattern of the time-space evolution of this volcanism without a more precise statistical analysis, a concentration of the oldest eruptions towards the north and east of the area can be inferred from the results. Most of the volcanic eruptions identified in this study were concentrated in the northern sector of the GVF and only fewer are found far in the southern sector. This difference in the concentrations of the eruptive vents between the two sectors is not timecontrolled since eruptions of similar ages have occurred in both sectors. In addition, the volume of erupted magma in those cases for which it could be calculated is mostly of the order of 0.02 km³ ± 0.01, which indicates that most of the eruptions were low magnitude monogenetic eruptions. The proposed volcanic stratigraphy offers the basis to build further studies on the GVF and it also provides a precise reference for the Quaternary tephrochronology of the lake sediments in neighbouring areas.

The last research paper (Bolós et al., under-review) aimed at investigating the relationship between the Neogene extensional tectonics and the spatial distribution of the volcanoes in the whole area through a volcano-structural analysis. This included the geostatistical distribution of faults, fissures and vents, as well as morpho-structural lineaments, and the morphometrical analysis of volcanic cones and craters. Furthermore, we used the location of the regional seismicity registered since 1978 and the sites of freshwater springs and mantle-derived gases as indicators of active faults and open fractures. In addition, we considered the location of the volcanoes with ultramafic xenoliths as a way for identifying the deepest fractures in the zone and estimating magma ascent velocities. The morphological and structural data obtained revealed that the evolution of the GVF was mostly controlled by two major Neogene transtensional faults oriented NW-SE, the Amer and Llorà faults. However, most of the eruptive fissures and structural lineaments identified in this study show a NNW-SSE trend that runs slightly obliquely to the main faults. The pattern shown by the eruptive fissures and subordinated extensional faults is compatible with a slight dextral transtensional component in the two main faults, as suggested by previous studies (Goula et al., 1999; Olivera et al., 2003) and indicates that magma ascent in the uppermost crust and subsequent eruptions were controlled by these subordinated fractures. The presence of mantle-derived xenoliths and lower-crust cumulates suggests that the magmas that erupted in the GVF came either directly from the source region in the upper mantle or from intermediate reservoirs located at the base of the crust. This is also confirmed by existing petrological and geochemical data (Martí et al., 1992; Neuman et al., 1999; Cebriá et al., 2000). It is worth noting that most of the area's freshwater springs are associated with relatively shallow stratigraphic or structural discontinuities, while the presence of high radon and CO₂ concentrations mainly occur along the major Neogene faults (Moreno et al., 2014; Zarroca et al., 2012), thereby indicating that the deep circulation of these mantle-derived gases is permitted through these faults (Redondo and Yélamos, 2005; Zarroca et al., 2012). Likewise, the recorded seismicity also revealed that Neogene faults have been active recently, mainly along the Amer fault. Moreover, the calculated ascent velocities (0.19 to 0.21 m/s) imply that magma may travel either from the source region in the mantle or from the base of the crust to the surface in just a few days, thereby suggesting the existence of preferential pathways for magma when ascending from source or accumulation regions to the eruption sites. The fact that the xenoliths are restricted to the eruptive vents related to the Llorà fault and that these volcanoes have also the largest erupted volumes of all the volcanoes in this volcanic field, as shown in the previous work (see Bolós et al., 2014 inpress), suggests that the Llorà fault was the main magma pathway. However, towards the upper part of the crust, magma was captured by shallow extensional secondary faults.

The results presented in this PhD Thesis evidence the importance of multidisciplinary studies to understand how magma is transported into the lithosphere and erupts at surface. The final model proposed takes into account the whole works presented and has important implications for hazard assessment as this type of volcanism is largely unpredictable in terms of eruption location (i.e. susceptibility) since the exact position of new vents does not necessarily follow a statistically pre-defined law. Furthermore, the results obtained show that the changes in eruption dynamics occurring at different vents located at relatively short distances is controlled by shallow stratigraphical, structural, and hydrogeological differences in the uppermost part of the lithosphere.

Conclusions

The present PhD Thesis is the first comprehensive study addressing physical volcanology, volcanic-stratigraphy and geological structure of the Quaternary La Garrotxa monogenetic Volcanic Field (GVF) in a combined approach. This study has included detailed field geology and the application of shallow geophysical methods to characterise both the surface and the subsoil geology of the area. The results obtained will allow to better understand how regional and local tectonics have influenced and controlled the volcanic activity in the GVF, and to constrain the tephrochronological evolution of the area.

The GVF provides a good example of the structural complexity that governs monogenetic volcanism. The results obtained suggest that each eruptive episode in this volcanic field corresponds to an intermittent reactivation of the main fault system every 5 000 to 20 000 years. These tectonic reactivations would have permitted the ascent of deep magma through the crust, which would have erupted at the surface each time in a different location inside the volcanic field. Volcanism in the area is mainly concentrated in the northern sector, where the tectonic depression is wider and the accumulation of post-Alpine sediments is thicker, compared to the rest of the field. Moreover, the difference in basement lithology between the northern (Tertiary and Quaternary sediments) and southern (Paleozoic granites and schists) sectors of the volcanic field may also have played a significant role in controlling the ability for the magma to find pathways to reach the surface. The absence of magmatism beyond the northern limit of the GVF may be due to the significant thickness increase of the crust due to the Alpine Orogeny (i.e. Pyrenees). Moreover, geophysical data and volcano-structural analysis show that the previous Alpine tectonic structures played no apparent role in controlling the loci of this volcanism. This last appears to be controlled mainly by NNW-SSE extensional faults related to Negonene tectonism. This PhD Thesis demonstrates the close link between tectonic structures and magma pathways in the evolution of the GVF and their potential to guide future eruptive activity. This subject is of primary interest for the assessment of volcanic hazard in the GVF and similar monogenetic volcanic fields.

Moreover, a precise stratigraphy and correlation of the identified eruptive episodes will provide a constraint for the Pleistocene to Holocene evolution of the area, but will also contribute to better estimate the size of these eruptions by characterising more precisely their areal extent and the volume of erupted magma. In addition, the results obtained show the importance of the basement geology as changes in eruption dynamics occurring at different vents located at relatively short distances are controlled by shallow stratigraphical, structural, and hydrogeological differences underneath these monogenetic volcanoes. The existence of such a configuration could explain the variety of eruptive dynamics in the GVF and in other monogenetic volcanic fields of similar characteristics without any need for changes in the composition or rheology of the magma. In this way, it has been determined that electrical resistivity tomography method is a powerful tool to study the substrate underneath monogenetic volcanoes and as well as their internal structure.

All the data acquired and presented in this thesis will help to assess volcanic susceptibility and hazard, two of the unavoidable requirement to estimate volcanic risk. In addition, this work has intended to be a step forward in the preservation of the geological heritage in La Garrotxa monogenetic Volcanic Field by providing the basic knowledge but also by enhancing the importance of their geological values in front of potential threats imposed by the demographic expansion of modern societies.

Future research in this area should focus, among other aspects, on detailed petrological studies of the volcanic rocks to carry out phase equilibrium experiments, in order to establish the precise conditions of magma transport and storage at depth. This is necessary to identify melting and melt extraction rising mechanisms governing volcanism in this region, the origin of different xenoliths erupted by magmas and, finally, to establish a comparison with other volcanic provinces of the European Rift System.

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APPENDIX 1

Contribution to the papers

Inform from the supervisors of the thesis on the impact factor or the categorization of journal publications to be found in the doctoral thesis and the report of the thesis supervisor explaining the participation in the paper of the coauthors.





JOAN MARTI I MOLIST, Professor d'Investigació del CSIC adscrit a l'Institut de Ciències de la Terra "Jaume Almera" de Barcelona i Director de la Tesi Doctoral realitzada per Xavier de Bolós Granados titulada "GEOLOGICAL AND STRUCTURAL CONTROLS ON LA GARROTXA MONOGENETIC VOLCANIC FIELD (NE IBERIA)"

CERTIFICA:

1) que, d'acord amb la normativa vigent de la Universitat de Barcelona referent a la presentació de Tesis Doctorals, aquesta Tesi Doctoral es presenta com a compendi de les següents publicacions científiques de les que s'indica el seu factor d'impacte a l'any de la publicació:

S. Barde-Cabusson, J. Gottsmann, J. Martí, **Xavier Bolós**, A. G. Camacho, A. Geyer, Ll. Planagumà, E. Ronchin, A. Sánchez, 2014. Structural control of monogenetic volcanism in the Garrotxa volcanic field (Northeastern Spain) from gravity and self-potential measurements. Bulletin of Volcanology. http://link.springer.com/article/10.1007%2Fs00445-013-0788-0. Factor d'impacte: 2,653

Xavier Bolós, Stéphanie Barde-Cabusson, Dario Pedrazzi, Joan Martí, Albert Casas, Raúl Lovera, Daniel Nadal-Sala, 2014 in-press. Geophysical exploration on the subsurface geology of La Garrotxa monogenetic Volcanic Field (NE Iberian Peninsula). International Journal of Earth Science (IJES). Factor d'impacte: 2,261

Xavier Bolós, Stéphanie Barde-Cabusson, Dario Pedrazzi, Joan Martí, Albert Casas, Mahjoub Himi, Raúl Lovera, 2012. Investigation of the inner structure of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar. Journal of Volcanology and Geothermal Research (JVGR). http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvolgeores.2012.08.003. Factor d'impacte: 2,19

Stéphanie Barde-Cabusson, **Xavier Bolós**, Dario Pedrazzi, Raul Lovera, Guillem Serra, Joan Martí, Albert Casas, 2013. Electrical resistivity tomography revealing the internal structure of monogenetic volcanoes. Geophysical Research Letters (GRL). http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/grl.50538/abstract. Factor d'impacte: 3,98

Xavier Bolós, Llorenç Planagumà, Joan Martí, (2014 in-press). Volcanic stratigraphy and evolution of the Quaternary monogenetic volcanism in the Catalan Volcanic Zone (NE Spain). Journal of Quaternary Science. Factor d'impacte: 2,939

Xavier Bolós, Joan Martí, Laura Becerril, Llorenç Planagumà, Pablo Grosse, Stéphanie Barde-Cabusson (under-review). Volcano-structural analysis of La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (NE Iberia): implications for the plumbing system. Tectonophysics. Factor d'impacte: 2,684



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2) que tots els treballs han estat realitzats en col·laboració amb altres investigadors, havent estat el doctorant la persona encarregada de realitzar la major part del treball, la seva planificació, redacció i revisió, en aquelles publicacions en que és el primer autor, en els que el paper dels altres firmants ha estat l'assessorament científic, aportació de dades complementaries i/o participació en els treballs de camp. Igualment, en els altres treballs inclusos, el paper del doctorant ha estat destacat i del tot necessari per la consecució dels resultats obtinguts.

I perquè així consti i a tots el efectes oportuns signo el present certificat a Barcelona a 9 de juny de dos mil catorze.



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APPENDIX 2

Structural control of monogenetic volcanism in the Garrotxa volcanic field (Northeastern Spain) from gravity and self-potential measurements

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Structural control of monogenetic volcanism in the Garrotxa volcanic field (Northeastern Spain) from gravity and self-potential measurements

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Abstract We report new geophysical observations on the distribution of subsurface structures associated with monogenetic volcanism in the Garrotxa volcanic field (Northern Spain). As part of the Catalan Volcanic Zone, this Quaternary volcanic field is associated with the European rifts system. It contains the most recent and best preserved volcanic edifices of the Catalan Volcanic Zone with 38 monogenetic volcanoes identified in the Garrotxa Natural Park. We conducted new gravimetric and self-potential surveys to enhance our understanding of the relationship between the local geology and the spatial distribution of the monogenetic volcanoes. The main finding of this study is that the central part of the volcanic field is dominated by a broad negative Bouguer anomaly of around -0.5 mGal, within which a series of gravity minima are found with amplitudes of up to -2.3 mGal. Inverse modelling of the Bouguer data suggests

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that surficial low-density material dominates the volcanic field, most likely associated with effusive and explosive surface deposits. In contrast, an arcuate cluster of gravity minima to the NW of the Croscat volcano, the youngest volcano of this zone, is modelled by vertically extended low-density bodies, which we interpret as a complex ensemble of fault damage zones and the roots of young scoria cones. A ground-water infiltration zone identified by a self-potential anomaly is associated with a steep horizontal Bouguer gravity gradient and interpreted as a fault zone and/or magmatic fissure, which fed the most recent volcanic activity in the Garrotxa. Gravimetric and self-potential data are well correlated and indicate a control on the locations of scoria cones by NNE-SSW and NNW-SSE striking tectonic features, which intersect the main structural boundaries of the study area to the north and south. Our interpretation of the data is that faults facilitated magma ascent to the surface. Our findings have major implications for understanding the relationship between subsurface structures and potential future volcanic activity in the Garrotxa volcanic field.

 $\textbf{Keywords} \ \ Self-potential \cdot Gravimetry \cdot Garrotxa \cdot Structural \\ control \cdot Monogenetic volcanism$

Introduction

The temporal and spatial distribution of monogenetic volcanoes and the probability of future activity in monogenetic volcanic fields are subjects of increasing interest (e.g. Scandone 1979; Connor and Hill 1995; Connor et al. 2000; Alberico et al. 2002; Martin et al. 2003; Valentine and Perry 2006; Alberico et al. 2008). Statistical analyses indicate that deep and near-surface geological structures may control the distribution of magmatic complexes and volcanic vents



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(Zhang and Lutz 1989: Lutz and Gutmann 1995: Paulsen and Wilson 2010), but geological structures are often hidden and their identification from surface geology alone can be difficult. Statistical, numerical and geological studies are ideally combined with geophysical investigations to build geologically meaningful models (Kiyosugi et al. 2010; Cebrià et al. 2011). In addition, geophysical methods have already been shown to be useful in studying dispersed volcanic fields and their relation to local tectonics (e.g. Rout et al. 1993 with detailed gravity and aeromagnetic studies on the Auckland volcanic field, New Zealand; Blakely et al. 1997 with gravity data on the Cascade Range, Oregon and California; Connor et al. 2000 with a combination of gravity data and magnetic data at Yucca Mountain (Nevada); Kiyosugi et al. 2010 with Pwave tomography from the Abu Monogenetic Volcano Group, Japan).

In a monogenetic volcanic field, from one eruption to another, magma must be transported from source to surface at different places. Depending on stress conditions, magma injection parameters and geometry, pre-existing crustal fractures may influence the propagation of magmas (Valentine and Krogh 2006; Gaffney et al. 2007; Wetmore et al. 2009). In a set of analogue experiments, Le Corvec et al. (2013) investigate the conditions leading a dyke to interact with preexisting fractures into the crust, by varying (1) the volume of injected magma, (2) the distance between a dike and a preexisting fracture and (3) the impact of a deviatoric stress. They find that, in nature, the interaction between propagating dikes and pre-existing fractures is likely to occur when the horizontal distance that separates them becomes less than about 200 m, and they determine that dikes with a volume less than about 10⁻² km³ would experience a decrease in their propagation velocity owing to the presence of surrounding fractures.

The Garrotxa monogenetic volcanic field is part of the Catalan Volcanic Zone (Martí et al. 1992) and hosts one of the Spanish Peninsula's youngest volcanic fields (Fig. 1). The Catalan Volcanic Zone is itself part of a major European belt of young volcanic zones and rift valleys (Wilson and Downes 1991) including the Eger graben and the Rhone–Rhine valley systems. Despite eruptive activity as recently as 10 ka BP (Cébria et al. 2000), the hazard potential of the Garrotxa volcanic field has been little studied and needs to be accurately assessed. Most of the volcanic activity of the Garrotxa took place along a WNW-ESE trending depression, corresponding to an eroded anticline of Eocene rocks (Martí et al. 2011; Fig. 1). The volcanic activity within the Garrotxa volcanic field is concentrated along structural lineaments (Martí et al. 2011; Cimarelli et al. 2013). Martí et al. (2011) described the main characteristics of the volcanism and the stratigraphic sequences of some key volcanic edifices in this area. They conclude that the main cause of the complex eruptive behaviour observed in the Garrotxa volcanic field resides in the lithological, structural and hydrogeological characteristics of the substrate beneath the volcanoes. However, knowledge of the subsurface architecture from geophysical data has so far only been available on a regional scale.

Here, we present results from a study of the subsurface structure beneath the Garrotxa volcanic field using new gravity and self-potential data to assess the relationship between the distribution of volcanic landforms and the subsurface structure of the field (Fig. 2).

Field investigations, data post-processing and modelling

Joint gravimetric and GPS surveys

Gravimetric data were obtained over 80 km² in the Natural Park of La Garrotxa, including all volcanic edifices outside the township of Olot. The survey area extends roughly between the townships of Olot and Santa Pau and follows the east—west elongated depression where most of the volcanic edifices are built (Fig. 1).

Data were collected in September 2007 and March 2008 at 205 individual benchmarks (Fig. 2). Maximum distance between individual benchmarks in the central zone was about 1.5 km, and average distance between benchmarks around volcanic vents was <500 m. Gravimetric measurements were performed using an automated Burris gravimeter (B-028). Data at each benchmark were obtained by averaging a data stream from the gravimeter collected automatically by a handheld controller. The data collection is unbiased by the operator as the process of data collection and processing to an observed gravity value is automated by the system. Individual measurements were obtained at an instrumental repeatability of better than 6 muGal (1 muGal=10⁻⁸ m/s²). Data at benchmarks was recorded relative to a reference located at 4665916mN, 459604 mE (m, UTM 31 N, ED50).

We calculated the complete Bouguer anomaly (with terrain correction to a distance of 60 km). Raw data was reduced for the effects of instrument drift (approximately linear at –37.5 muGal/day), Solid Earth tides, latitude variations, difference of elevation between individual benchmarks and terrain effects using standard procedures. A terrain density of 2,450 kg/m³ was derived based on a minimum correlation between observed gravity variations and topography, inferred from digital elevation data of 15 m spatial resolution. This mathematically derived density value is in broad agreement with the densities of sedimentary surface rocks of the area. Gravity data are reported relative to absolute gravity reference value calculated theoretically at 980,240 mGal (see supplementary Table 1).

Benchmark locations and elevations were determined using a Global Satellite Navigation System composed of two LEICA SR20 Global Positioning System (GPS) single-



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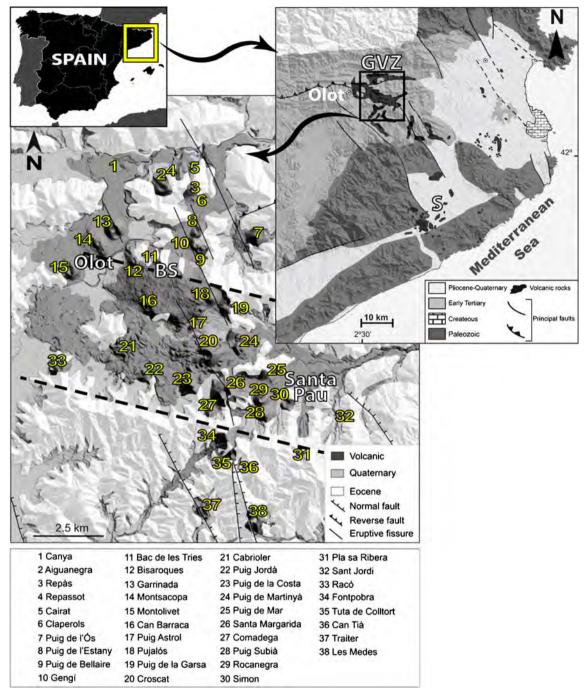


Fig. 1 Index and simplified geological and structural map of the studied area (modified from Martí et al. 2011). *BS* stands for Batet de la Serra village, and *black dashed lines* highlight the Garrotxa eroded anticline

depression. *Upper right inset* Simplified geological map of the Catalan Volcanic Zone and its surroundings (modified from Guérin et al. 1985). *GVZ* Garrotxa Volcanic Zone, *S* La Selva

frequency receivers. GPS data were collected simultaneously at benchmarks and at a reference station. The reference included an antenna mounted on a metal pole, which was fixed to the ground by a buried socket and a data logger. In total, we recorded more than 100 h of reference data at 10-s intervals. The roving receiver collected data in static mode from an antenna, which was carried on a pole housed in a backpack. GPS observation times varied inversely with signal quality

between 6 and 30 min. One operator took GPS measurements at each benchmark, while another operated the gravimeter.

Benchmark locations were calculated with respect to the reference using LEICA SKIPRO software. We obtained an average precision on benchmark locations of <0.5 and 1 m in the horizontal and vertical, respectively. This precision is sufficient to correct the gravimetric data for the effect of elevation changes from benchmark to benchmark over the



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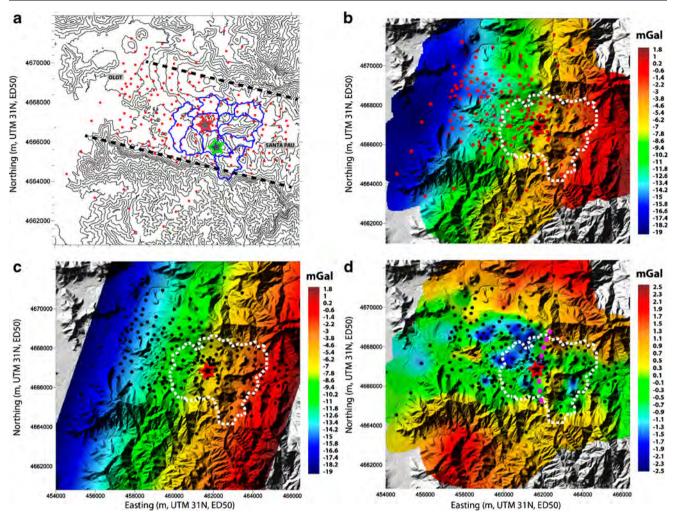


Fig. 2 a Topographic contours for the area, overlain by the gravity data benchmarks (*red dots*) and the self-potential data points (*blue dots*). **b** Bouguer anomaly map and index for the self-potential map (*white dashed line*). **c** Regional anomaly. **d** Residual gravity map obtained by subtracting the regional anomaly from the observed one; this residual

anomaly is built to extract the short-wavelength signal. The *pink dashed line* highlights a steep gravity gradient described in the text. *Red and black dots* Gravimetry-survey benchmarks, *red star* Croscat volcano, *green star* Santa Margarida cone. Coordinates in metres (UTM31N–ED50)

survey area in order to obtain a resolution of Bouguer gravity variations <1 mGal (= 10^{-5} m/s²), which is deemed appropriate for the study. This contrasts with existing regional Bouguer anomaly data, which is associated with an uncertainty of at least a factor of 5 higher.

Gravimetric data uncertainties and adjustment of geodetic reference frames

Error analysis gives a mean precision of the differential gravity values of ± 21 muGal, which represents an excellent value for structural gravimetric observations. Nevertheless, final anomaly data also contain uncertainties coming from elevation data and from terrain corrections. We estimate a precision level of 0.3 muGal, for this combined data. Some complexities in processing the terrain effect arise from differences between the geodetic reference frame of the survey (ellipsoidal WGS84) and the reference frame of available digital

topographic data (local reference frame with geoidal orthometric heights). We applied a mathematical correlation procedure to compare Northing, Easting and ellipsoidal height values of both frames. Fixing several reference points in either framework, we were able to derive the following relationships to match the DEM framework to our GPS positions and vice versa:

- Easting=EastingDEM-88 m
- 2. Northing=NorthingDEM-220.8 m
- 3. Geoid height=ellipsoidal heights from GPS measurements+47.1 m.

Three-dimensional (3D) positions of benchmarks between our GPS data and the available digital elevation data are thus offset according to the following shift values:

$$dz = 47.1 \text{ m}$$
 $dx = 88.0 \text{ m}$ $dy = 220.8 \text{ m}$



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The value of dz of 47.1 m clearly corresponds to the height of the geoid in the zone (orthometric to geometric height translation). The values for dx and dy would correspond to a translation or horizontal discrepancy between the two reference systems. Cross-correlating both datasets, we obtain an average vertical precision of the digital elevation data of 2.52 m, which appears a reasonable value given that the DEM is based on gridded data with 15 m precision. Supplementary Table 1 gives details on UTM benchmark coordinates (Zone T31), GPS heights and correlation with available digital elevation data of the survey area as well as the obtained gravity data.

3D inversion of Bouguer gravity anomaly data

We performed a non-linear inversion of resulting local Bouguer anomaly data to construct a 3D model of the anomalous sub-surface density distribution (Fig. 3). The inversion routine is described in detail in Gottsmann et al. (2008) and Camacho et al. (2011) including sensitivity tests. In summary, the inversion constructs a subsurface model defined by a 3D aggregation of M parallelepiped cells, which are filled, in a "growth" process, by means of prescribed positive and/or negative density contrasts.

We addressed the problem of non-uniqueness by adopting a mixed minimisation condition, based on model "fitness" (least square fitness) and "smoothness" (total anomalous mass):

$$\mathbf{v}^{T}\mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{D}}^{-1}\mathbf{v} + \lambda \quad \mathbf{m}^{T}\mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{M}}^{-1}\mathbf{m} = \min$$
 (1)

where $\mathbf{m} = \left(\Delta \rho_{1_1}, \ldots, \Delta \rho_M\right)^T$ (superscript T denotes transpose of a matrix) are density contrast values for the M cells of the model, $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \ldots, v_N)^T$ are residual values for the N data points, $\mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{D}}$ is an a priori covariance matrix for uncertainties of the gravity data, $\mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{M}}$ is an a priori covariance matrix for uncertainties of the model parameters, and λ is a factor for selected balance fitness/smoothness of the model (Camacho et al. 2011).

Key for the inversion is the selection of an optimal balance between data "fitness" (least-square fitness) and model "smoothness" (total anomalous mass) expressed by the dimensional optimisation factor λ . For low values of λ , the inversion results in the generation of an excessively complex model of the subsurface structure with very good fit to the data. For high values of λ , the inversion produces a simple model but with poor fit to the data. L-curve criterion is a popular approach to select the trade-off parameter (e.g., Aster et al. 2004). We adopt the optimisation procedure proposed in Camacho et al. (2011) as producing uncorrelated inversion residuals. In fact, for too high a value of λ , model residuals are large and auto-correlated with respect to their

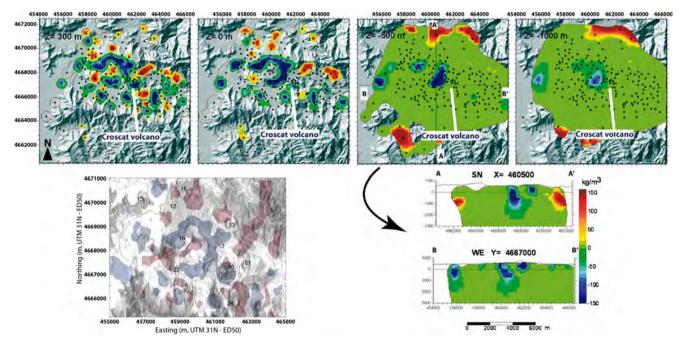


Fig. 3 Horizontal and vertical sections through the preferred density anomaly model of the Garrotxa depression (*upper panel* and *lower right-hand side*). *Lower left-hand side* depicts the modelled distribution of anomalous density bodies overlain by a digital elevation model. Isopycnic surfaces show the +120 kg/m³ (*red*) and -120 kg/m³ (*blue*) contrasts. Numbers of volcanoes refer to those shown in Fig. 1. The low-density bodies are interpreted to result from a combination of tectonic

lineaments and the sub-volcanic roots of the dominant volcanic landforms in the Garrotxa monogenetic volcanic field. High-density bodies in the centre of the modelling domain are interpreted as surficial features of the landforms such as lava flows. High-density bodies at the periphery of the modelling domain are poorly constrained due to low data coverage. Coordinates in meters (UTM31N–ED50)



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mutual distance. For too low a value of λ , model residuals show negative values of autocorrelation for small distances due to accounting for noise. The optimal value satisfies the condition of a zero autocorrelation of residuals with respect to the mutual distance between benchmarks.

Self-potential survey

The self-potential method measures the distribution of the electric potential at the surface of Earth or in boreholes, with respect to a reference electrode. Sources of self-potential fields include chemical potential gradients (Maineult et al. 2005, 2006), redox potentials (Linde and Revil 2007), rapid fluid disruption (Johnston et al. 2001) and electrokinetic conversion associated with fluid movement through porous materials (the so-called streaming potential). In active volcanic areas, the main source of self-potential variations is related to the flow of groundwater (e.g. Massenet and Pham 1985; Ishido et al. 1997; Bedrosian et al. 2007; Barde-Cabusson et al. 2009; Mauri et al. 2010; Pearson et al. 2012).

We used a pair of non-polarizing Cu/CuSO_4 electrodes. The microporous nature of the end contacts of these electrodes (made of a low-permeability wood) avoids leakage of the CuSO_4 solution during contact with the ground. The difference of electrical potential between a fixed reference and a moving electrode was measured with a calibrated high impedance voltmeter (Extech EX520, sensitivity of 0.1 mV, input impedance >10 M Ω).

Before and after each series of measurements, the reference electrode and the moving electrode were put face-to-face to check that the difference of potential between the two electrodes was <2 mV (if this is not the case, the static value is removed to all the measurements). For each self-potential measurement, the value of the electrical resistance was also measured prior the self-potential measurement in order to check the quality of the electrical contact between the scanning electrode and the ground (less than a few tens kilohms).

Self-potential measurements were obtained with a 300-mlong wire connecting the two electrodes. We performed a series of closed profiles between Olot and Santa Pau (2,073 measurements). The distance between two successive measurement stations was 20 m. Using a long cable avoids cumulative errors by changing the reference too often along the same profile. As the profiles are several kilometres long, a new reference station was established every 300 m. After the survey, the entire self-potential dataset was corrected using the first reference station as the unique reference. Usually, the 0 mV reference for self-potential measurements is taken at the sea or a water table as it provides a constant value in time. Because no such stable reference was available and selfpotential is intrinsically a relative measurement, our selfpotential data set is referenced arbitrarily to a point northeast of Santa Margarida (Fig. 1). A closure correction (below 50 mV for eight profiles and as much as 100 mV for three profiles) was applied to distribute the calculated data drift linearly on the profiles forming the dataset in order to limit cumulative errors.

Measurements of self-potential were only carried out in a small part of the area investigated by gravimetric measurements. Our aim was to test if near-surface structures such as fracture and faults have corresponding expressions at greater depth as revealed by the inversion of the gravimetric data and if the joint application of these potential field techniques in the Garrotxa yields useful insights.

Results

Local gravity anomaly

Figure 2b shows the resultant gravity anomaly data for the survey area with values between –19 and 2 mGal. The gravity data appears to follow a strong linear trend, which we modelled with a horizontal slope of 1,928 muGal/km and azimuth N108°E (Fig. 2c). We attribute this trend to regional large wavelength deep-seated geological structures associated with the topography of the metamorphic basement below a thrust belt at the SE part of the Pyrenees (Martinez et al. 1997). In order to derive the local gravity anomaly data (Bouguer anomaly), we subtracted the predicted gravity anomaly of the regional component from the observed data. The resultant anomaly map is given in Fig. 2d.

The obtained Bouguer anomaly map shows a range in gravity variations in the survey area between -2.5 and +2.5 mGal. Neutral to mildly negative (up to -0.7 mGal) gravity anomalies dominate a central elongated sector striking WNW–ESE and following the Garrotxa depression, which hosts the volcanic zone. A pronounced negative gravity anomaly with amplitudes of up to -2.5 mGal lays in the central part of the survey area bordering the high ground to the north. There is, however, no indication for a spatially extended large amplitude and coherent low-density structure beneath the entire volcanic zone, but rather for a series of spatially concentrated low-density bodies. The overall surficial shape of the dominant gravity-low resembles a horseshoe, which opens towards the SW (Fig. 2d).

Parts of the area dominated by low gravity values correspond to prominent volcanic edifices such as, the Croscat, Can Barraca, Puig Astrol and Pujalós volcanoes (see Figs. 1 and 2d with Croscat taken as a reference for localization). The anomaly is clearly bounded to the North (by areas of higher topography) as well as to the East with a steep horizontal gravity gradient towards neutral gravity. This transition occurs across a line striking roughly N–S (pink dashed line in Fig. 2d).

In addition, a linear element of relative higher gravity (+0.3 to +0.7 mGal; depicted by yellow colors in Fig. 2d; roughly at



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4 666 000 mN and 463,000 mE) separates two zones with negative anomalies. This gravity high strikes NNE–SSW, coincides with a break in slope from the volcanic centres towards the town of Santa Pau and runs roughly parallel to the Eastern border of the dominant negative horseshoe-shaped gravity anomaly.

Gravity inversion results

The resultant gravity model is illustrated in Fig. 3, and the distribution of inversion residuals is shown in Fig. 4. Anomalous density contrasts range between -150 and 150 kg/m^3 , where neutral contrasts with terrain rocks are expressed by values of 0 kg/m^3 .

Bodies of positive and negative density contrasts dominate the near surface of the volcanic field. However, only low-density bodies modelled in the centre of the survey area and underlying major volcanic landforms (predominantly scoria cones) appear to be rooted at greater depth with traceable extents to depths greater than -500 m. In particular, the size and extent of the dominant low-density bodies beneath the Croscat cone and its adjacent NW side are revealed. The lower left hand of Fig. 3 depicts the modelled distribution of

anomalous density bodies overlain by a digital elevation model. Isopycnic surfaces show the $+120 \text{ kg/m}^3$ (red) and -120 kg/m^3 (blue) contrasts (see Fig. 1 for numbered volcano names).

Self-potential

The most striking feature of the self-potential map is a sharp transition in the self-potential values from east to west, where the lowest values are registered (Fig. 5a). This transition takes place along a NNE-SSW axis in the northern part of the study area and along a NNW-SSE axis south of the Croscat volcanic cone. The NNW-SSE axis is outlined by sharp selfpotential spatial variations northwest of the Croscat cone, south of the Croscat cone and a more gradual variation through the Santa Margarida cone. The self-potential map shows a total variation of ~340 mV. Maximum self-potential values have been measured in the eastern half of the study area with poor spatial variations (<30 mV) and no specific pattern identified through the orientation of the self-potential isolines. In this sector, however, as it coincides with a negative gravity anomaly (\sim -1.7 mGal; Fig. 5b), we note the presence of a low self-potential minimum (<20 mV under the local values) just

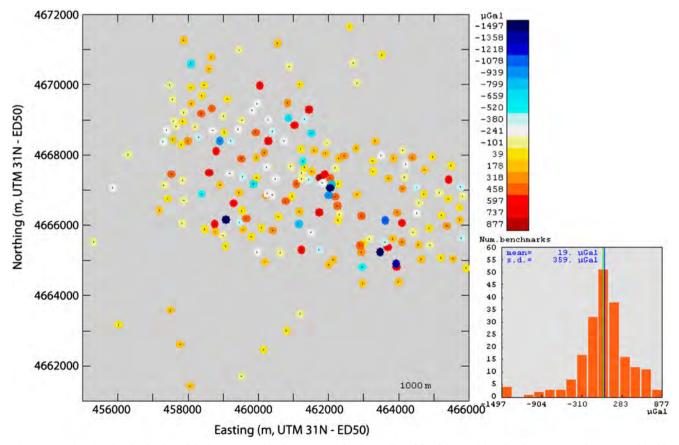
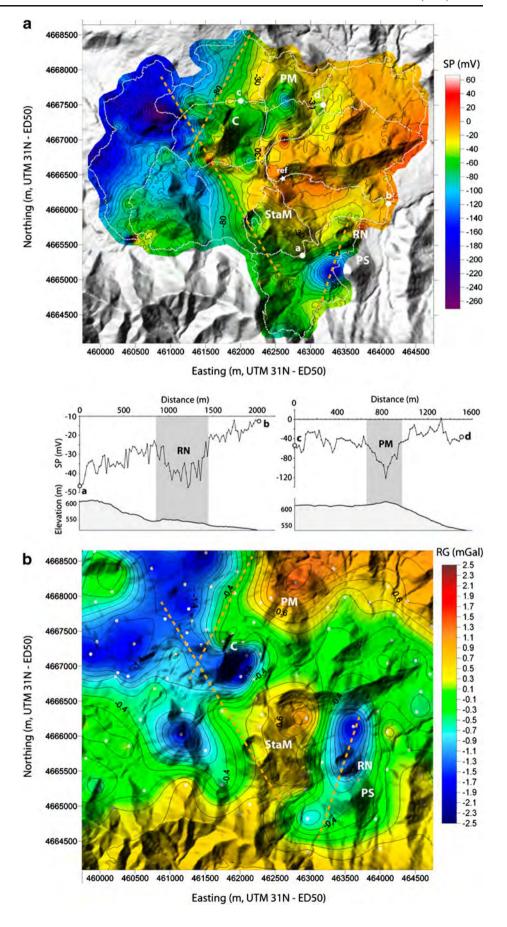


Fig. 4 Map showing the distribution of the inversion residuals as a proxy for the quality of fit of the model to the observations. The mean residual is 0.019 mGal with a standard deviation of 0.359 mGal, reflecting the best fit to the data as well as satisfying constraints of model smoothness (λ =40)



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Fig. 5 a Self-potential map overlain on a digital elevation model. In the lower part, two SP vs distance graphs and corresponding topography (ab and cd). b Residual gravity anomaly map in the same area. Note how both self-potential and gravimetric data highlight NNE–SSW and NNW–SSE lineaments (orange broken lines). ref stands for the SP reference point, C Croscat, PM Puig de Martinyà, StaM Santa Margarida, RN Rocanegra, PS Puig Subià





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north of the Rocanegra scoria cone. This variation is less than the background noise in the area, but it is clearly above the local noise (see profile a–b in Fig. 5a).

The Puig Subià cone shows a strong self-potential minimum of 150 mV below the surrounding background self-potential.

A self-potential vs elevation graph of the whole dataset (Fig. 6) shows different distributions of the measurements for the eastern and western parts of the map, separated by the NNE-SSW and NNW-SSE lineations identified with self-potential. The eastern zone shows a linear trend with a self-potential vs elevation gradient of -0.19 mV/m, typical of hydrogeological zones on volcanoes (e.g. Lénat 2007). This contrasts with data from the western zone, which does not follow a particular trend. Only the isolated minima or maxima registered in the eastern part of the map diverge from this trend. As an example, the self-potential measurements corresponding to the strong minimum registered on Puig Subià plot outside of the hydrogeological trend (Fig. 6). At the south-western end of the map the selfpotential signal tends to increase again. Additionally, some small-scale (a few tens of metres wide) selfpotential minima or maxima are visible along single profiles. In particular, a self-potential minimum has been mapped in the Puig de Martinyà area (see profile c-d in Fig. 5a).

The NNE-SSW and NNW-SSE self-potential axes coincide with the orientation of the residual gravity anomaly isolines corresponding to the gravity lows reported in the previous section (Fig. 5). Overall we find an excellent correlation between the gravity and self-potential anomalies as depicted in Fig. 7.

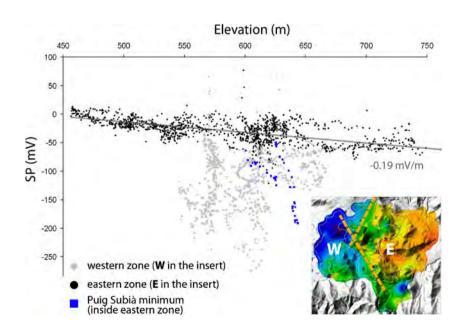
Fig. 6 Plot of the self-potential data as a function of elevation. A global trend illustrates the correlation between SP and elevation in the eastern zone of the SP map, with a SP/elevation gradient of -0.19 mV m⁻¹, while this correlation does not exist in the western zone. Only punctual minima or maxima registered in the eastern part of the SP map plot outside this trend, as exampled by the Puig Subià minimum (*blue squares*)

Discussion

Distribution of volcanism related to local tectonics from gravity and self-potential data

The localized gravity lows (Fig. 2d) are interpreted to result from relatively low rock densities. These densities could reflect either volcanic surface deposits or rocks of the shallow plumbing system of individual volcanic centres. The rather abrupt change from neutral to both pronounced negative and positive gravity values and vice versa (horizontal gravity gradients>±1 mGal/km) might indicate a structural confinement of the main anomalous density zones by conjugated faults. The data allow us to suggest a WNW-ESE orientation, which finds expression in the main structural lineaments of the Garrotxa graben. In addition, NNE-SSW and NNW-SSE axes are highlighted in the central part of the volcanic field (Fig. 5). Although the self-potential data covers only part of the gravimetry map, it supports the same NNE-SSW and NNW-SSE orientations with the strong transition observed from east to west (100 mV over a few hundred metres). The NNW-SSE axis matches the lineament drawn by the gravity high near Croscat and Santa Margarida cones (Fig. 5). Marti et al. (2011) interpret the Santa Margarida/Croscat/La Pomareda alignment as the result of a single eruptive episode along a NNW-SSE trending, 3 km long fissure. Our data provides geophysical evidence for a correlation between volcanism and tectonic structures, which may imply a structural control on magma at depth, establishing a basis for interpreting the self-potential variations associated with gravity anomalies in our study area.

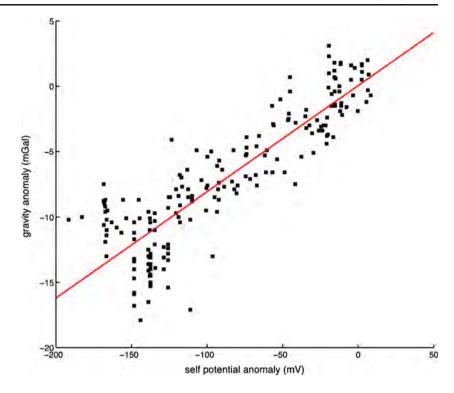
The north-western sector of the self-potential map presents another sharp variation highlighting a NNE–SSW lineament.





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Fig. 7 There is a positive linear relationship between the gravity and self potential anomalies with a regression coefficient R = 0.88. Due to different locations of the individual measurement points for the two techniques, the SP data have been interpolated at the gravity benchmark to test for a possible correlation



This coincides with the eastern limit of the north-western negative gravity anomaly (Fig. 5). No volcanic edifice is evident along this lineament, but our geophysical data might indicate the presence of a NNE-SSW-oriented structural boundary, similar to the NNW-SSE axis detected between the Croscat and Santa Margarida volcanoes. The former can be interpreted as a fault zone or a zone of failed shallow intrusions along an existing structural anisotropy. Due to the substantial vegetation cover and poor accessibility, there is a lack of precise geological data on the extent of surface deposits from individual eruptions or indeed small-scale volcanic edifices in this area. Volcanological field observations to the north and south of the Croscat volcano indicate that there is indeed no correlation between the spatial distribution of the surface deposits and the spatial limits of the geophysical structures. The stark difference in self-potential values between the western and eastern zone (Fig. 6) suggests lateral heterogeneity of the medium (Lénat 2007). This indicates that the corresponding NNW-SSE and NNE-SSW lineaments might not simply mark eruptive fissures but may indicate faults separating two blocks with different hydrogeological properties and/or different global resistivity values. The presence of pre-existing faults is not necessary to explain the observed self-potential signal because the presence of dykes might impede groundwater movement, creating this contrast between the eastern and the western zones. Both interpretations, independently or combined, are compatible with the results.

North of the Rocanegra cone, the eastern negative gravity anomaly (Fig. 5) is associated with a weak self-potential

minimum showing a sharp variation at the limits (see profile a-b in Fig. 5). This minimum is of ~20 mV with respect to the surrounding area, which is significantly higher than the signal noise along the corresponding profile. South of Rocanegra, on the Puig Subià cone, we also measured a strong self-potential minimum of ~150 mV. Again, no relationship could be established with the surface lithology. These self-potential minima are thought to be related to preferential meteoric infiltration or to a sharp lateral resistivity variation. The association and sharp limits of the self-potential minima and the negative gravity anomaly might indicate a structural limit such as a fault or a fissure, guiding infiltration of groundwater. The respective location of Rocanegra and Puig Subià, two wellpreserved volcanic edifices, establish a NNE-SSW alignment with the measured anomalies. This direction and the similar preservation state of the two cones are consistent with a genetic link between them along a NNE-SSW oriented structural weakness (Fig. 5).

It is interesting to note that volcanic edifices occur only within the depression formed by the eroded anticline. Wetmore et al. (2009) discuss the relationship between intrusions and folding on local scale and give the example of the Trachyte Mesa intrusion (Utah, USA), which was emplaced into a series of northeast trending upright and open folds formed during the Jurassic. The fold axes strike sub-parallel to the long axis of the Trachyte Mesa intrusion, and the geometry of the basal contact of the intrusion appears to follow the morphology of the fold limbs. The majority of the intrusion is confined within the axis of a syncline bounded by anticlines on either side. The authors suggest that both pre-



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existing structures and the density of the magma relative to that of the host rocks fundamentally controlled the emplacement of this intrusion. In the case of the Garrotxa volcanic field, we cannot unambiguously establish a causal relationship between the anticline and the volcanic activity, but note that there are strong indications for the presence of structural lineaments that cut across the anticline and contributed to the localisation of magma pathways (see below).

Density anomaly models of volcanic roots

The 3D density anomaly model shows a dominant body of negative density contrast, with an annulus of isolated density lows of similar amplitude (up to -150 kg/m^3). The centre of the main anomalous body is located ~1 km WNW of the ~14 ka Croscat volcano, the youngest volcano in this area (Puiguriguer et al. 2012). The -2 mGal Bouguer anomaly is explained in the model by a coherent arcuate and rather shallow-seated (to depths of around sea level) low-density structure. The anomaly is well defined by numerous gravity stations and its diameter at the surface is about 2 km. Its northern border appears buried beneath the morphological high of the plateau between Batet de la Serra village and Pujalos volcano (Fig. 1). Beneath the main central depression of the Garrotxa (between Olot and the Croscat cone), the anomaly is modelled for an optimisation factor $\lambda = 40$ by a shallow zone extending at least 1 km deep over a zone about 1.5 km wide and characterized by up to -150 kg/m³ density contrast (see cross-sections in Fig. 3). A possible explanation of this dominant structure is that it represents a combination of the (pyroclastic) sub-volcanic root of the surficial scoria cones and fault/fissure damage zones. The portions of these structures beneath Batet de la Serra village and Pujalos volcano appear to be shallow intrusions branching from the main low-density bodies, which fed the scoria cones in the central depression as depicted in the N-S cross-section and by the -120 kg/m³ isopycnic surfaces (Fig. 3). The roughly NNE-SSW extension of the western arc and the roughly NNW-SSE extension of the eastern arc may delineate magma pathways along the dominant structural features of the Garrotxa. It is perhaps interesting to note that the deeper portions of the lowdensity bodies resemble cylindrical geometries, which may delineate the shallow magmatic feeder systems of individual volcanoes in the western part of the study (near Olot), as well as the scoria cone cluster at the centre of the volcanic field (Croscat and its neighbouring volcanoes to the SW and W). From west to east, the Garrinada, Can Barraca, Cabrioler, Puig Jorda, Puig de la Costa, Croscat, Puig Subià, Rocanegra, Puig de Mar and Simon volcanoes are modelled to contain lowdensity roots to several hundred metres depth.

The origin of the main low-density body near Croscat deserves further examination. First, it appears that the cluster of volcanic cones in the centre of the Garrotxa has been fed by a common fault-bounded magmatic feeder system from which

conduit-like structures fan away at surficial levels (<1,000 m depth) to feed monogenetic volcanoes of the central zone. Second, the stratigraphic record of the Croscat edifice shows evidence for violent Strombolian activity during its generation (Marti et al. 2011). This implies an increase in intensity of eruption, inferred to result from deepening of the fragmentation level. Therefore, in addition to a tectonic origin for the low-density structure, the body could also be a testament of pyroclastic roots beneath the cones.

In contrast to Croscat, a pronounced negative density body is absent beneath Santa Margarida volcano, which appears bounded in the north by a high-density body next to the lowdensity volume beneath Croscat. Such a sharp change in density contrasts is striking and our interpretation is that a NNE-SSW trending fault zone and potentially a second zone striking perpendicular to it separates the plumbing systems of Croscat and Santa Margarida, masking a potential low-density root beneath Santa Margarida. In addition, the eruptive history of Santa Magarida volcano is profoundly different from that of Croscat. Santa Magarida is almost exclusively built of phreatomagmatic lithic-rich deposits from surges. The absence of a dominant density low beneath Santa Magarida could also result from a fundamentally different fragmentation process of its magma, which according to its stratigraphic record never attained the substantial violent Strombolian character that its neighbour Croscat did (Marti et al. 2011).

Volcano-tectonics of the Garrotxa monogenetic field

The main lineaments identified by the geophysical study intersect the edges of the depression formed by the Garrotxa eroded anticline (Martinez et al. 1997). The NNW–SSE trending lineaments run parallel to major regional structures expressed by major normal faults (see insert in Fig. 1). One could thus envisage a mini-(half) graben almost perpendicular to the main WNW–ESE striking eroded anticline defining the location of the central volcanic zone of the Garrotxa, between Olot and Santa Pau. In order to explain the negative density contrasts, a substantial amount of pyroclastic material or porous lavas with lower than average bulk densities must be present. In this context and based on the data and modelling presented herein, we surmise that the presence and location of the volcanic centres is tectonically controlled by a network of conjugate faults intersecting the anticline axis.

Conclusions

The main finding of this study is that the central part of the Garrotxa volcanic field is underlain by low-density material. Porous volcaniclastic deposits including the pyroclastic roots of volcanic edifices in combination with fault and fissure damage zones appear to be the main candidates to explain



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the observed gravity anomalies. Volcanism appears to be controlled by NNE-SSW and NNW-SSE tectonic structures identified by both gravimetric and self-potential data. The Croscat, Santa Margarida and Roca Negra volcanoes lie atop a conjugated fault system. The combination of the two geophysical methods has helped us to explore and link the surficial expressions of monogenetic volcanism and characteristic fault/fissure zones of the volcanic field with magma pathways and their sub-surface structures to depths of about 1 km. Identification of such volcano-morpho-tectonic structures and their mutual relationships is critical for better understanding the dynamics of monogenetic volcanic fields. Our study demonstrates the close link between tectonic structures and magma pathways in the evolution of the Garrotxa volcanic field with potential to guide future eruptive activity. This subject is of substantial interest for the assessment of causes and consequences of future volcano-tectonic unrest and volcanic reactivation in the Garrotxa and other monogenetic volcanic fields.

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APPENDIX 3

Geophysical exploration on the subsurface geology of La Garrotxa monogenetic Volcanic Field (NE Iberian Peninsula)

ORIGINAL PAPER

Geophysical exploration on the subsurface geology of La Garrotxa monogenetic volcanic field (NE Iberian Peninsula)

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Abstract We applied self-potential (SP) and electrical resistivity tomography (ERT) to the exploration of the uppermost part of the substrate geology and shallow structure of La Garrotxa monogenetic volcanic field, part of the European Neogene-Quaternary volcanic province. The aim of the study was to improve knowledge of the shallowest part of the feeding system of these monogenetic volcanoes and of its relationship with the subsurface geology. This study complements previous geophysical studies carried out at a less detailed scale and aimed at identifying deeper structures, and together will constitute the basis to establish volcanic susceptibility in La Garrotxa. SP study complemented previous smaller-scale studies and targeted key areas where ERT could be conducted. The main new results include the generation of resistivity models identifying dykes and faults associated with several monogenetic cones. The combined results confirm that shallow tectonics controlling the distribution of the foci of eruptive activity in this volcanic zone mainly correspond to NNW-SSE and accessorily by NNE-SSW Neogene extensional fissures and faults and concretely show the associated magmatic

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D. Nadal-Sala Ecology Department, University of Barcelona, Diagonal 645, 08028 Barcelona, Spain intrusions. These structures coincide with the deeper ones identified in previous studies, and show that previous Alpine tectonic structures played no apparent role in controlling the loci of this volcanism. Moreover, the results obtained show that the changes in eruption dynamics occurring at different vents located at relatively short distances in this volcanic area are controlled by shallow stratigraphical, structural and hydrogeological differences underneath these monogenetic volcanoes.

Keywords Monogenetic volcanism · Garrotxa volcanic field · Electrical resistivity tomography · Self-potential · Subsurface geology · Feeding system

Introduction

Monogenetic volcanism is characterised by the formation of volcanoes that extrude small amounts of magma in each eruption (0.01–0.2 km³) (Walker 2000). These short-lived eruptions are often grouped in volcanic fields (Connor and Conway 2000; Walker 2000; Valentine and Gregg 2008) and are common under a variety of geodynamic conditions (Francis 1993; Connor and Conway 2000; Walker 2000). A particular feature of this type of volcanism is the great variety of resulting eruptive styles, morphologies and deposits (Houghton et al. 1999; Connor and Conway 2000; Parfitt 2004; Valentine and Gregg 2008). This diversity is caused by compositional changes (e.g. volatile content), magma supply rate, local tectonics (e.g. stress fields, degree of fracturing, basement mechanical behaviour) or by the hydrogeological characteristics of the substrate (e.g. Vespermann and Schmincke 2000; Walker 2000; Martí et al. 2011; Bolós et al. 2012; Pedrazzi et al. 2014). A good example of the great diversity found in monogenetic volcanic fields



is the European Cenozoic Rift System, which encompasses several different volcanic areas, all related to the same geodynamic environment but with different local tectonics (Wilson and Downes 1991, 1992; Downes 2001; Dèzes et al. 2004).

The location and distribution of monogenetic volcanic fields depend on the size and shape of the magmatic source, i.e. it is governed by regional geodynamics. However, the distribution of the eruptive vents within each volcanic field is the result of the geological structure and stress fields found in the upper crust at the moment of activity in each location (Zhang and Lutz 1989; Connor and Conway 2000; Cebrià et al. 2011).

The factors controlling the precursory activity in monogenetic volcanic fields are still poorly understood, and so eruptions in these systems are difficult to forecast. In monogenetic volcanism, each new eruption creates a different vent, suggesting that volcanic susceptibility contains a high degree of randomness and that accurate spatial forecasting is at best highly uncertain. Recent studies of monogenetic volcanism reveal how sensitive magma migration is to changes in regional and/or local stress fields caused by tectonic or lithological contrasts (e.g. former magmatic intrusions) (Martí et al. 2013). This may induce variations in the pattern of further magma movements and thus affect the location of future eruption sites.

The spatial distribution of eruptive vents may help reveal fracture patterns. At depth, magma rises towards the surface following the path that is normal to the minimum stress in the area (Connor and Conway 2000; Gudmundsson 2006; Cebrià et al. 2011). Near to the Earth's surface, it may become increasingly influenced by pre-existing structures and, for example, be captured by pre-existing faults and joints (e.g. Valentine and Gregg 2008; Le Corvec et al. 2013). Therefore, knowledge of regional and local tectonic controls and structures and the position of the eruptive vents is essential for understanding past volcanism. The relationship between the position of past eruptive focuses and these controls and structures will be important for determining the location of future vents (Martí and Felpeto 2010).

Geophysical exploration and more specifically geoelectrical methods have been used in the last decades to investigate structural geology and the feeding system in different volcanic areas around the world. For example, in New Zealand, Nishi et al. (1996) applied self-potential (SP) surveys to study the hydrothermal system of White Island Volcano. Bibby et al. (1998) used electrical resistivity imaging to characterise the upper crust of the Taupo Volcanic Zone. In Italy, Di Maio et al. (1998, 2000) applied electrical and electromagnetic methods to study the structure of Mount Somma and Campi Flegrei. In Japan, Hase et al. (2005) studied the hydrothermal system beneath Aso volcano

with SP and resistivity measurements. In Massif Central of France, Portal et al. (2013) explored the inner structure of Puy de Dôme volcano from electrical resistivity tomography (ERT), gravity and muon imaging. These studies and others referenced therein have proven the efficiency of geoelectrical methods for studying the structure and geology of volcanoes.

A previous geophysical study has been performed in La Garrotxa volcanic field (GVF) by Barde-Cabusson et al. (2014) dealing with deeper structures (up to 3 km in depth) associated with the volcanism of this area. This study was based mainly on the application of gravimetry and SP techniques and revealed interesting features of the internal structure of the area (e.g. the presence of low density bodies associated with the main Neogene fault and fissure systems). However, this study did not clarify the superficial aspects of the possible control exercised by the substrate geology or identify any shallow structural features. Thus, in order to obtain a much better resolution of the shallower structures of this area, a new geophysical survey was carried out that covered a greater area than the previous SP survey and undertook ERT surveys throughout the whole area. The SP data confirm and complement previous results, which, combined with the new electrical tomography data, offer a more detailed picture of the substrate geology and structure beneath the volcanoes of La Garrotxa.

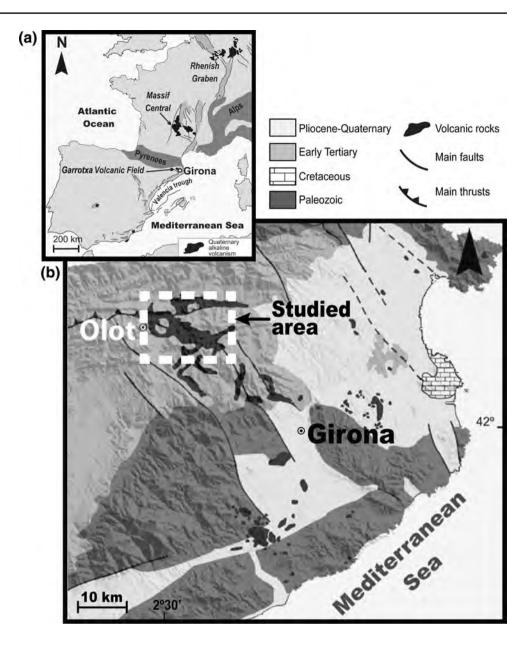
In this paper, we describe the methodology used to conduct the field surveys and to process the data gathered, and then present the data obtained. We interpret the geological meaning of the data and, finally, discuss their relevance to subsoil geology in highly built-up areas and/or areas covered by dense vegetation. We identify the local shallow tectonic controls operating on the distribution of eruptive vents in the GVF and situate them in a more complex regional context.

Geological setting

The GVF is part of the Catalan Volcanic Zone (CVZ) (NE Spain), one of the Quaternary alkaline volcanic provinces associated with the intraplate European Cenozoic Rift System (Martí et al. 1992; Downes 2001; Dèzes et al. 2004) (Fig. 1). It covers an area of about 600 km² and is located between the cities of Olot and Girona (Fig. 1). This basaltic volcanic field contains over 50 cones including cinder and scoria cones, tuff rings and maars, ranging in age from 0.7 Ma to early Holocene (Martí et al. 2011). Materials from the upper Palaeozoic, Eocene and Quaternary characterise the substrate. The volcanism of the GVF is mainly represented by alkaline rocks with poorly evolved magmas, i.e. basalts and basanites (Araña et al. 1983; Cebrià et al. 2000). A notable feature of this area is the presence



Fig. 1 a Simplified map of the distribution of the volcanism in the European Cenozoic Rift System. b Simplified geological map of the Catalan Volcanic Zone (modified from Guérin et al. 1985)



of mantle xenoliths and lower crust cumulates (Araña et al. 1983; López-Ruiz and Rodriguez-Badiola 1985; Martí et al. 1992; Neumann et al. 1999; Cebrià et al. 2000), which suggests that some of the eruptive fissures and faults reached quite deeply into the lithosphere and that some were the same regional normal faults which bound the area's horsts and grabens (Martí et al. 2011).

The GVF is laterally limited by two main NNW-SSE fault systems: the Llorà Fault to the east and the Amer Fault to the west, which are thought to be responsible for the distribution of the area's volcanism and its fluvial network (Saula et al. 1995; Martí et al. 2011; Bolós et al. 2012; Cimarelli et al. 2013). Most of the volcanoes in the study area are located between the towns of Olot and Santa Pau (Fig. 2). They stand on folded Eocene basement,

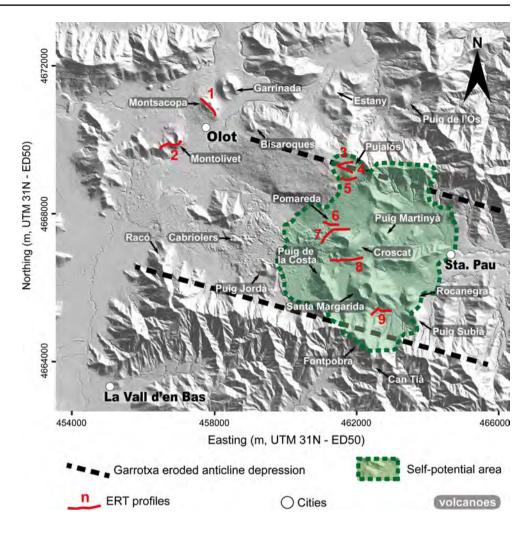
characterised by conglomerates, sandstones, marls, clays and gypsum (Bracons and Bellmunt formations) that outcrops as an eroded anticline with an E–W axial plane. This anticline and the reverse faults described in the area were formed during the Alpine Orogeny (Martinez et al. 1997) (Fig. 2).

Methods

The study area extends roughly between the towns of Olot and Santa Pau, both inside and outside the elongated E–W-eroded anticline depression in which most of the volcanic edifices of the GVF are situated (Fig. 2). The study involved the application of SP and ERT, which generated



Fig. 2 Digital elevation model of the study area, with location of the self-potential and ERT profiles described in this study



data that, in conjunction with existing geological data, enabled us to map geological units and to delineate structural limits at the surface and in the substrate below the volcanic edifices. The SP measurements focused on a number of key volcanic edifices and provided surface information to a resolution of 20 m, thereby allowing the main structural limits to be identified; the ERT profiles, on the other hand, provided 2D geological, structural and hydrogeological information at depth.

The main mechanism responsible of SP signals in volcanic terrains is the electrokinetic effect. This mechanism produces a positive electrical potential in the flow direction. When the groundwater moves through a porous rock matrix or in fractures and discontinuities of the substrate, electrochemical interactions occur at the interface between a mineral and the pore water. In normal pH conditions, the surface of silicate and alumino-silicates is negatively charged and the zeta-potential is negative. In order to maintain a global electro neutrality in the system, the electrical double (or triple) layer theory says that the diffuse layer has a net charge of opposite sign (positive) to the surface charge of the mineral. In this way, the positive electrical charges are

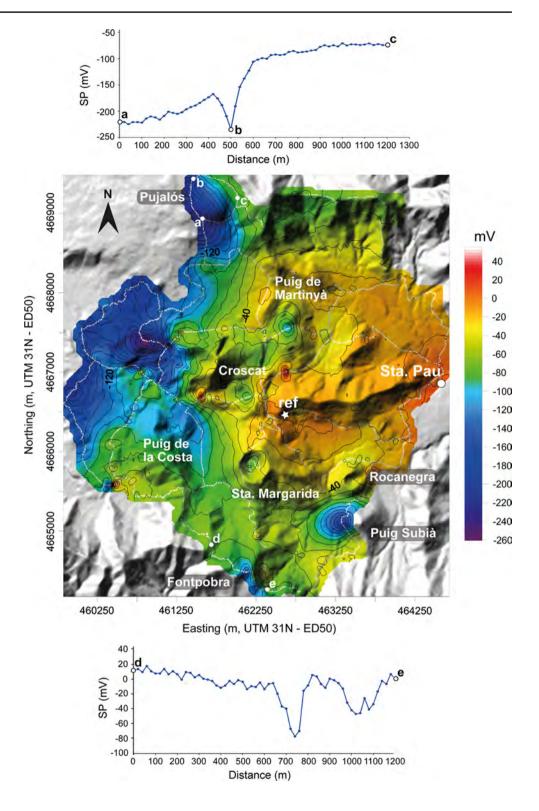
dragged by groundwater in the direction of the flow, creating positive SP anomalies over discharge areas and negative anomalies over recharge areas (e.g. Revil 2002).

The SP map drawn by Barde-Cabusson et al. (2014) was completed by means of 474 new measurements in additional profiles that covered a total of 10 km. All the SP measurements were made with a high impedance voltmeter (Extech EX520, sensitivity of 0.1 mV, input impedance >10 M Ω) using two non-polarised Cu/CuSO₄ electrodes and a 300 m section of cable. The difference in potential between the reference electrode, which was placed at the start of the profile, and the moving electrode was measured. In all, the SP surveys correspond to a series of profiles involving a total of 2,547 measurements with a distance of 20 m between successive stations. Additional data were corrected for closure errors based on the previous SP dataset correction with a single reference (Fig. 3; for details of the field methodology, see Barde-Cabusson et al. 2014).

Electrical resistivity methods are based on the principle that the distribution of electrical potential in the ground around a current-carrying electrode depends on the electrical resistivities and distribution of the surrounding rocks.



Fig. 3 Self-potential map. In the *upper* and *lower* part of the figure, the two SP versus distance graphs correspond on the map to the 'abc' and 'de' profiles. White dots show the location of the SP measuring stations. Coordinates in UTM—31 N—ED50



Resistivity measurements are commonly used for investigating various types of subsurface exploration problems. As a general principle, the acquisition techniques consist in measuring, between two electrodes (M, N), the difference of potential generated by the electrical current which is injected into the ground via two other electrodes (the

transmitting line AB). ERT surveys are normally carried out with multi-electrode resistivity systems. Such surveys use a number of electrodes deployed in a straight line at equal intervals and computer-controlled system is then used to select the active electrodes for each electrode setup automatically (Griffiths and Barker 1993). This allows



a large number of measurements to be taken and 2D resistivity high-resolution data can be obtained very quickly. The ERT data were acquired with an Iris Syscal Pro resistivity system. A Wenner-Schlumberger electrode configuration was used with 48 electrodes connected to a 470 m section of cable (10 m between electrodes) that enabled us to obtain a maximum depth of investigation of 100 m. The main reason for choosing a mixed Wenner-Schlumberger array in areas where both types of geological structures (vertical and horizontal) are expected to occur is because better results might be obtained. The signal strength of this hybrid array is weaker than the one provided by the Wenner array, but the depth of investigation is increased and lateral coverage is improved (Martorana et al. 2009). Besides, in the Wenner-Schlumberger configuration, the measured voltage signal drops to the level of electrical noise as the distance between the current electrodes becomes very large while keeping the potential dipole length constant. This is because the measured potential signal in the Schlumberger array is inversely proportional to the square of the current electrode spacing, whereas in the dipole-dipole array the measured potential signal is inversely proportional to the third power of the current electrode spacing.

A total of nine ERT profiles of different lengths were obtained from 16 acquisitions using 470-m-long sections (Fig. 2). The roll-along method was used to obtain five of the profiles (profiles 1, 2, 7, 8 and 9). Profiles 7 and 8 consisted of three sections with half the cable length overlapping, giving each a total length of 950 m, while profiles 1, 2, and 9 were composed of two sections, each with a total length of 710 m. Finally, four profiles (3, 4, 5 and 6) consisted of individual sections.

The data obtained were interpreted using an inversion process to provide a resistivity section that approximates the actual subsurface structure and to locate their boundaries spatially below the surface of the site. The apparent electrical resistivity data acquired in the field were processed with the Res2dinv software from GEOTOMO© (Loke 2002), which is based on the smoothness-constrained, nonlinear least-squares optimisation technique, was used to obtain the interpretative model. The inversion algorithm is an iteratively reweighted least-squared method based on the Gauss-Newton method; in addition, the Jacobian matrix of partial derivatives is always recalculated using the finite-element method. The first step in the inversion is the estimation of an initial model. Next, the solution is iteratively improved by varying the model parameters to minimise the discrepancies between the observed and the calculated responses. The inversion programme uses a 2D model divided into a number of rectangular blocks (pixels of inversion models), whose arrangement is made according to the distribution of the data points in the pseudo-section (Loke and Barker 1996). In the model, we also included topographical information obtained from the digital elevation model (DEM) to a resolution of 15×15 m from Catalan Geographic Institute (http://www.icc.cat). The RMS error (representation of the reproducibility of the data from the inverted model) was in most cases <7 % but increased in the roll-along profiles.

Results

Self-potential map

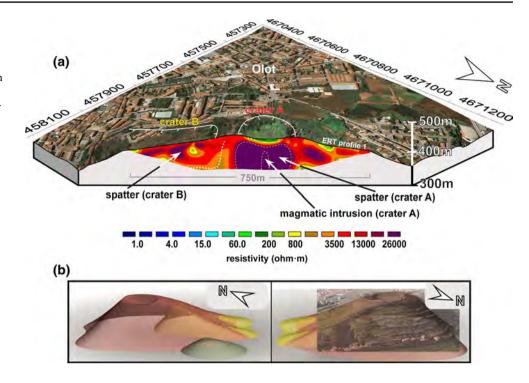
The SP map (Fig. 3) shows a total variation of ~300 mV. The main feature of the map is the transition from east to west: in the east, low amplitude SP spatial variation (<30 mV) is observed, while in the west the SP isolines are oriented NNW-SSE and NNE-SSW. Additional more isolated negative SP peaks are visible at Rocanegra Strombolian volcano, Puig Subià and Puig Martinyà (Fig. 3). One of the most significant features of this new SP map is the abrupt E-W transition (with the lowest values recorded on the western side) observable in the northern sector centred on the Pujalós volcano. In the southernmost part of the map, the new data that complement the data generated by Barde-Cabusson et al. (2014) show a continuation of the NNW-SSE lineament crossing the volcanoes of Croscat and Santa Margarida (Fig. 3). This area corresponds to the southern high point of the anticline, where a normal fault and pyroclastic deposits from the Fontpobra volcano are found (IGC; 1:25,000, http://www.igc.cat).

Electrical resistivity tomography

ERT profiles show in some cases excessively high resistivity values, ranging from <10 Ωm to hundreds of thousands of Ω m. These high resistivities are generated by the inversion process in Res2dinv when strong resistivity contrasts exist close to the surface. This occurs if materials with very low resistivity such as clay, silt and organic soils come into contact in parallel with materials with very high resistivity (Loke 2002). For this reason, we chose a colour scale whose maximum corresponds to values of resistivity >26,000 Ω m, the value measured for the massive basaltic intrusions that outcrop in the field that were the highest measured in the area. This enabled us to provide a more realistic picture of the subsurface repartitioning of the resistivity. In Res2diny, however, we imposed a cell width of half the unit electrode spacing, which allowed us to obtain optimal results in profiles with high contrasts in resistivity (Loke 2002).



Fig. 4 a Orthophotograph overlaid on a 3D block diagram of ERT profile 1 corresponding to Montsacopa volcano (RMS error 5.7 %). b 3D interpretation model showing the overlapping cones inside the edifice. Coordinates in UTM—31 N—ED50



Profile 1: Montsacopa volcano

Profile 1 was carried out through the central part of the Montsacopa edifice (Fig. 4) in a NNW–SSE direction. It is characterised by resistivity values from ~100 to over 26,000 Ωm. The lowest values are visible in the shallowest part of the high resistivity intrusive and spatter products below the volcano's crater A. In the south-eastern half of the profile, high values of resistivity are interrupted by a small zone of lower resistivities (Fig. 4) corresponding to another hidden crater (crater B) (Bolós 2009; Barde-Cabusson et al. 2013). These craters are aligned in a NNW–SSE direction.

Profile 2: Montolivet volcano

An E–W profile was conducted on the southern side of the Montolivet volcano. Profile 2 (Fig. 5) reveals a zone of high resistivity (>1,000 Ω m) located mainly in the eastern half of the edifice, with a thickness of over 80 m. The deepest part of this profile had lower resistivity values (~60–1,000 Ω m) that define a horizontal interface with the upper resistive layer. This deep layer continues in the western part of the volcano, where the values are also lower (~20–200 Ω m), and is separated from the eastern high resistivity zone by an interface dipping 45° eastwards in the cross section defined by the ERT profile.

Profiles 3, 4 and 5: Pujalós volcano

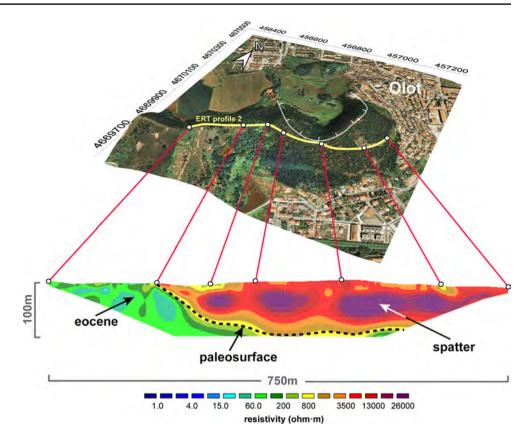
Three profiles were carried out on the Pujalós volcano as a means of comparing results with variations in the SP. Profile 3 in the northern part of the volcano (Fig. 6a, b) cuts across the NNW-SSE lineament shown by the SP. This profile reveals a shallow conductive layer (40–400 Ωm) overlaying a resistive layer (>1,000 Ω m) that continues to the maximum depth of exploration in the western half of the profile, but narrows eastwards to a thickness of ~40 m (Fig. 6b). Profile 4 was acquired through the centre of the volcanic cone (Fig. 6a, c) and obtained a resistivity model that is very similar to that from profile 3 (Fig. 6b). Profile 5 was located in the southern part of the volcano and crosses the NNW-SSE SP lineament described above (Fig. 6a, d). Although the repartition of the resistivity is not as clear in this ERT model as in the two previous profiles, an irregular resistive layer is seen to extend from a depth of 50 m to the maximum depth of the exploration. In the upper part, a less resistive layer is sometimes interrupted in places by resistive bodies connected to the deeper layer and sometimes also to the topography surface. Strombolian fallout deposits and spatter facies have been observed on the surface, coinciding geographically with the high resistivity values in the shallow part of these profiles.

Profile 6: La Pomareda spatter cone

Profile 6 cuts across the Pomareda volcano in an E–W direction (Fig. 2) and has the highest resistivity values (\sim 13,000 to \sim 26,000 Ω m) detected at the surface in the study area (Fig. 7). In the field, this unit corresponds to massive basaltic lava flows and spatter deposits. A 15- to 20-m-thick layer appears to be connected to the deepest part of the resistivity model



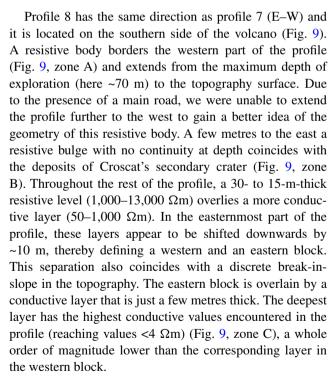
Fig. 5 *Top*: orthophotograph overlaid on a digital elevation model with the location of ERT profile 2 (*yellow line*) corresponding to Montolivet volcano. *Bottom*: ERT model (RMS error 3.0 %). Coordinates in UTM—31 N—ED50



via a narrow channel reaching ~4,000 Ω m. This channel crosses a less resistive layer (400–2,000 Ω m) and joins a deep, high resistivity horizontal layer with values that range from ~2,000 Ω m in the west to ~10,000 Ω m in the east (Fig. 7).

Profiles 7 and 8: Croscat volcano

Profile 7 (Fig. 8) was carried out in an E-W direction (Fig. 2) on the northern side of the volcano, and it was composed of three different sections that were processed jointly. It has a high inversion error (RMS = 22.5 %) due to the poor quality of the measurements carried out in the western part of the profile. We processed each section separately and found RMS errors of 11.9, 15.2 and 35.8 % from east to west, respectively, indicating that the data from the westernmost section is the least reliable. One of the main elements of the profile is observed in its centre (Fig. 8, zone A), where a resistive body shows values over 20,000 Ω m. This body is elongated and rises vertically from the base of the resistivity model almost to the topography surface. Its lateral contacts are well defined on both sides and there is a sharp lateral transition of the resistivity. In the cross section, this body is ~30 m thick in its shallowest part and ~60 m thick at depth. In the westernmost part of the profile, its resistivity values are of the same order of magnitude (Fig. 8, zone B); this area is quite homogeneous from the surface to the maximum depth of exploration (Fig. 8).



Profile 9: Santa Margarida volcano

Profile 9 is located on the south of Santa Margarida volcano (Fig. 10). With an RMS error of 11 % after six iterations,



Fig. 6 a Orthophotograph overlaid on a digital elevation model with the location of the ERT profiles (red lines). b-d 3D block diagrams of Pujalós volcano, showing the corresponding SP mapping on the surface and ERT profiles 3 (RMS error 2.9 %), 4 (RMS error 15.2 %) and 5 (RMS error 3.7 %) in the cross section. White dotted lines show the location of the SP measurements. White dashed line identifies the SP lineation. Coordinates in UTM-31 N-ED50

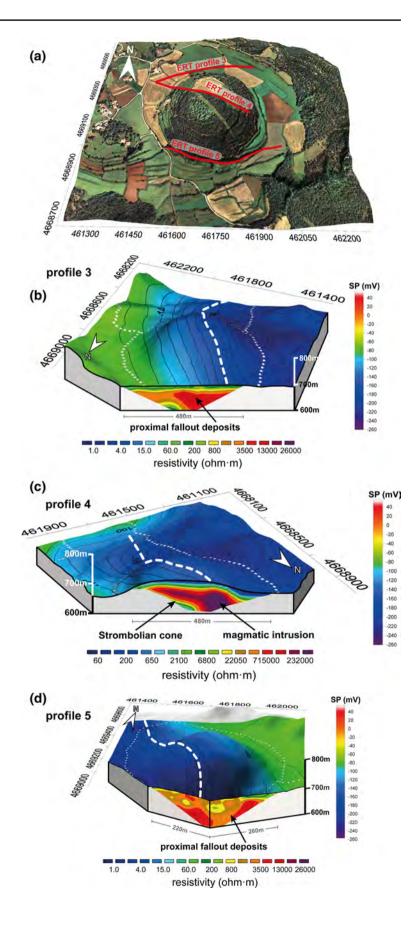
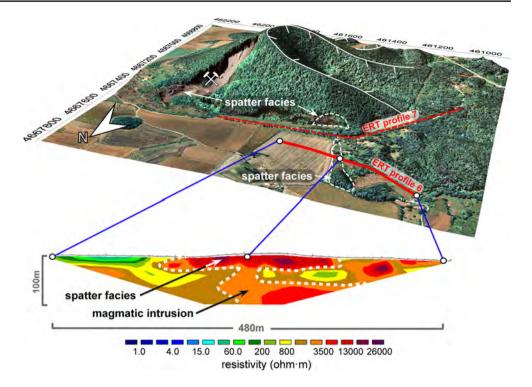




Fig. 7 *Top*: orthophotograph overlaid on a digital elevation model with the location of ERT profile 6 corresponding to Pomareda volcano (*red line*). *Bottom*: ERT model (RMS error 5.5 %). Coordinates in UTM—31 N—ED50



this profile may be unreliable since it also included a lot of unrealistic data points that we removed during processing with Res2dinv. The distribution of the resistivity is not as clear as in the other resistivity models. Nevertheless, the most interesting feature here is probably the observation of a resistive body at a depth of about 70 m in the east of a resistive body (>10,000 Ω m), possibly connected to shallower layers along a narrow pathway (Fig. 10, zone A).

Discussion

Interpretations of the new SP map enable us to identify structures that were subsequently observed in two dimensions in the high-resolution ERT profiles. Surface geological information was also useful for interpreting the ERT profiles.

As proposed by Barde-Cabusson et al. (2014; Fig. 5a), the main observed features are the NNW-SSE and NNE-SSW trends that show up in the SP, suggesting that the volcanic field is structurally confined by this conjugated fault system that favoured magma ascent. This hypothesis is confirmed by the ERT profiles performed in the directions described above. We identified several very shallow intrusive bodies aligned along the profiles whose cross sections are geometrically more or less vertical which narrow near the surface, and which are characterised by high resistivity values. This is fully compatible with the presence of feeder dykes. In the northern part of the map, at least two of the three ERT profiles (i.e. profiles 3 and 4) from Pujalós

volcano (Fig. 6) reveal resistive bodies that continue beyond the maximum depth of exploration. Although the distribution of the resistivity in the third southern profile (profile 5) is less clear, the direction of the line joining the main resistive bodies detected in these profiles matches the NNW-SSE SP trend detected in this volcano. Figure 3 contains a graph of SP versus distance passing north of Pujalós that shows a clear negative peak corresponding geographically to the location of the resistive body in profile 3 that is not present in the SP profile passing south of this volcano. This peak cannot be explained by the nonlinearity of the SP profile in the north and could be a consequence of meteoric water infiltration along a structural limit covered by impermeable material in the south. We believe that profiles 3 and 4 merely reveal the upper part of the feeder dyke as it flares on reaching the topography surface (Valentine 2012; Barde-Cabusson et al. 2013).

The Santa Margarida-Croscat-La Pomareda alignment in the central part of the study area was described by Martí et al. (2011) as the result of a single eruptive episode occurring along a 3-km-long fissure system. Our study provides geophysical and geological evidence supporting this idea. La Pomareda ERT (profile 6) was performed across the inferred fissure zone (Fig. 7) and generated high resistivity values that can be related to outcropping spatter facies. At depth, the resistive channel connecting the spatter at the surface to the deepest zone can be interpreted as the feeder dyke that supplied the eruption. The resistivity values obtained for this channel (\sim 3,500 Ω m) are lower than those obtained for the resistive bodies found along the



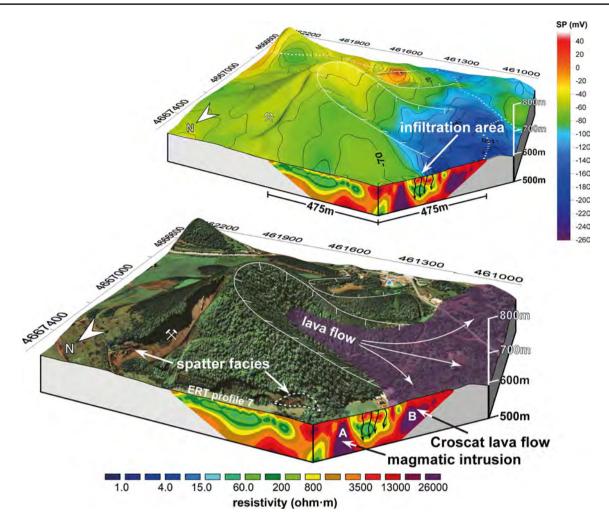


Fig. 8 3D block diagrams for ERT profile 7 located on the northern side of Croscat volcano. The *upper* part of the figure shows the surface SP map overlaid on a digital elevation model. In the *lower* part,

an orthophotograph is overlaid on the same digital elevation model. The corresponding ERT profile is presented in the cross section (RMS error 22.5 %). Coordinates in UTM—31 N—ED50

same fissure near Croscat volcano. It is important to bear in mind, however, that the Pomareda spatter cone forms a smaller edifice than Croscat. These observations suggest that the magma flow rate—and thus the intensity of the eruptive activity—was lower at this point on the fissure. Croscat, built on the same eruptive fissure, is a complex volcano with several vents and several eruptive phases including violent Strombolian and phreatomagmatic episodes (Martí and Mallarach 1987; Martí et al. 2011). The ERT profiles performed north and south of this volcano (Figs. 8, 9, respectively) exhibit resistive bodies that are compatible with the presence of a feeder dyke aligned with the Pomareda volcano in a NNW-SSE direction (Fig. 11). At the surface, a spatter facies was found in profile 7 and a secondary cone is visible near profile 8. The westernmost resistive body described in profile 7 matches a lava flow that occurred during the final phase of Croscat's eruption (Fig. 8). An important feature observable in the eastern part

of profile 8 (Fig. 9) is a clear shift of ~10 m at the base of the upper resistive layer, which has been mapped as fallout deposits and a lava flow from Croscat (Cimarelli et al. 2013). These volcanic deposits probably cover a pre-existing normal fault that affects the underlying Eocene units and is revealed only by a small break-in-slope visible in the surface topography. In the eastern block, the underlying unit is clearly more conductive than in the western block due to the presence of an aquifer confined to the west by the fault plane (Figs. 9, 11). This fault is likely a conjugate of a Neogene fault mapped 200 m to the southeast (IGC; 1:25,000, http://www.igc.cat) or a prolongation of the same. Its presence has important implications for understanding eruptive dynamics in monogenetic volcanic fields since it may explain why hydro magmatic and Strombolian activity can take place simultaneously or within short time spans, in close proximity to each other or even in the same edifice (e.g. Martí et al. 2011; Pedrazzi et al. 2014). Thus,



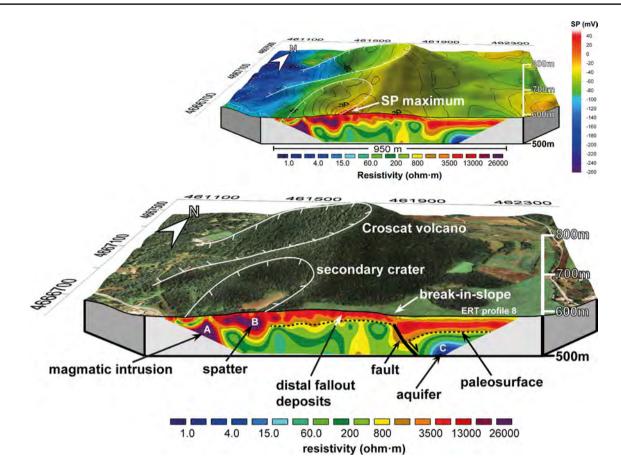


Fig. 9 3D block diagrams for ERT profile 8 located on the southern side of Croscat volcano. The *upper* part of the figure shows the surface SP map overlaid on a digital elevation model. In the *lower* part,

an orthophotograph is overlaid on the same digital elevation model. The corresponding ERT profile is presented in the cross section (RMS error 11.7 %). Coordinates in UTM—31 N—ED50

tectonic limits may play an important role in defining the diversity of monogenetic volcanoes owing to their impact on hydrogeology at shallow depths. In the eastern part of profile 9 (Fig. 10) in the south of this area, a resistive body (>10,000 Ω m) is present at a depth of 70 m. This body is aligned with Santa Margarida-Croscat-La Pomareda fissure system; therefore, it correspond presumably to a magmatic intrusion, which did not reach the surface in this profile.

The area of Olot ERT profile 1 (Fig. 4) performed on the Montsacopa volcano has already been described by Barde-Cabusson (2013). The present study confirms that in addition to the obvious crater on its summit, and there is a hidden vent located on the south-eastern flank of this volcano, as suggested by Bolós (2009). These two coalescent cones are aligned in a NNW–SSE direction. Montsacopa, and the two other volcanic edifices within the city of Olot (Garrinada and Montolivet) all have several vents that define three separate NNW–SSE lines which reflect the direction of their corresponding eruptive fissures (Martí et al. 2011). This finding contrasts with previous studies that assumed that the eruptions of Montsacopa, Garrinada

and Montolivet were located along a single NE–SW fissure (Calderón et al. 1906; San Miguel de la Cámara 1918; Mallarach and Riera 1981; Gisbert et al. 2009).

ERT profile 2 crosses the southern flank of Montolivet and the outcropping Eocene basement (Bellmunt Formation) that is characterised by conglomerates, sandstones and clays. The Bellmunt Formation appears in the profiles as shades of green (~20-500 Ω m) only on the western side and at depth (Fig. 5). The transition towards the high resistivity values of the Montolivet volcanic deposits defines the pre-eruptive topography. The highest resistivity values have no continuity at depth, which suggests that this area is characterised only by proximal facies deposits and that this profile (profile 2) did not cross the feeder dyke (Fig. 5). Nevertheless, the horseshoe-shaped depression of Montolivet's crater indicates that the feeder fracture runs in a NNW-SSE direction (i.e. fault-strike breaching, Tibaldi 1995), as seen in other areas (Corazzato and Tibaldi 2006). Differently, Croscat's crater is open to the west, even though all the data obtained show that it is associated with a NNW-SSE fault. Crater breaching



Fig. 10 Top: orthophotograph overlaid on a digital elevation model with the location of ERT profile 9 on the southern side of Santa Margarida volcano (red line). Bottom: ERT model (RMS error 11.0 %). Coordinates in UTM—31 N—ED50

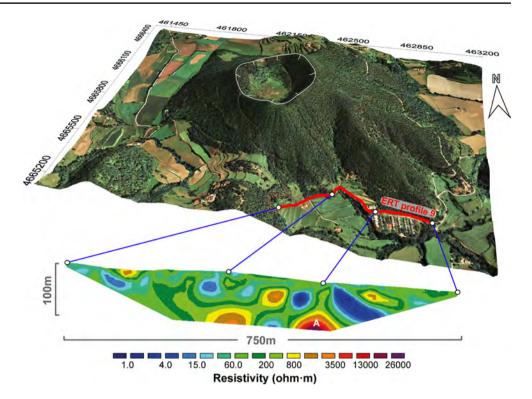
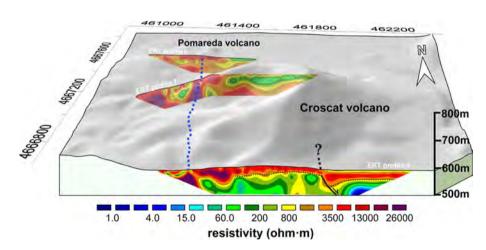


Fig. 11 3D block diagram of Croscat and Pomareda volcanoes showing ERT profiles 6, 7 and 8. The *blue dashed line* highlights a NNW–SSE eruptive fissure



might coincide with fracture propagation (e.g. Montolivet volcano) or with the weakest zone of the cone (e.g. Croscat volcano) (see Tibaldi 1995). The NNW–SSE direction determined for the nearby Montsacopa and Garrinada volcanoes tends to support this interpretation of Montolivet. A hypothesis that explains why the feeder dyke is not visible in the ERT profile is that the edifice of Montolivet was in fact built at the south-eastern tip of the fissure.

Two main fault systems were identified in the study area: an E-W compressive fault system formed during the Alpine Orogeny and a NNW-SSE normal fault system formed during the current extensive context (Martinez et al. 1997). The data obtained suggest that volcanism in the area is controlled by the recent extensive fault system and that

the Alpine system played no role in controlling magma ascent and/or eruptions. These NNW-SSE normal faults are almost perpendicular to the limits of the E-W depression formed by the Garrotxa anticline.

The Pujalós and the Fontpobra volcanoes provide key information on the faults associated with the GVF volcanism. Both are located outside the depression of La Garrotxa, very close to the northern and southern limits of the anticline, respectively. However, ERT (in the case of Pujalós) and SP (Pujalós and Fontpobra) suggest the presence of NNW–SSE eruptive fissures, which would indicate that the tectonic limits associated with the Alpine Orogeny did not determine the volcanic intrusions in the GVF.



Conclusions

New geophysical data were combined with field geological information to explore the subsurface geology and structure of the monogenetic GVF. We identified feeder dykes and structural limits associated with known eruptive vents. The information derived for the subsurface provides data that is useful for interpreting the influence of shallow geological and structural settings on the eruptive dynamics of this monogenetic volcanic field and has interesting implications for similar volcanic zones.

The NNW-SSE direction highlighted by previous SP and gravimetric studies was targeted by the ERT. The 2D images obtained with this method reveal the existence of high resistivity bodies corresponding to NNW-SSE-running feeder dykes that confirm the role played by NNW-SSE tectonic structures in the volcanic manifestations in the area. In addition, the same direction is observed for the Pujalós and Fontpobra eruptive fissures, although both volcanoes are located in the vicinity of the limits of the anticline, respectively, in the northern and southern part of the study area. This suggests that Alpine tectonic structures such as the anticline and the associated regional faults were not implicated in the formation of these two volcanoes. This conclusion can be extended to the whole area given the distribution of the dykes that have been identified and available geological and geophysical data.

In ERT profile 8, we identified a normal fault confining an aquifer to the west. This configuration could have a number of different consequences on eruptive dynamics depending on the path followed by future intrusions. Both phreatomagmatic and Strombolian activity could take place simultaneously or within a short time span, in close proximity or even in the same volcanic edifice, depending on whether or not the intrusion interacts with the aquifer. The existence of such a configuration could explain the variety of eruptive dynamics in the monogenetic GVF and in other volcanic fields of similar characteristics without any need for change in the composition of the magma.

The results of this paper will help assess the volcanic susceptibility of the area and increase understanding of the influence of local geology on the distribution and dynamics of the eruptive activity in this area and in monogenetic fields in general.

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APPENDIX 4

Investigation of the inner structure of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar (Catalan Volcanic Zone, Spain)

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Investigation of the inner structure of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar (Catalan Volcanic Zone, Spain)

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ABSTRACT

La Crosa de Sant Dalmai volcano is the largest volcanic edifice of the Catalan Volcanic Zone (NE Spain). It is a very well preserved maar-type structure, 1.5 km in diameter, excavated at the contact between a hard substrate and a soft substrate formed by Palaeozoic granites and Pliocene and Quaternary gravels, respectively. In order to infer the uppermost inner structure of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar and to characterise its main geological and tectonic constraints, we have performed a multiparametric geophysical study including gravimetry, magnetometry, self-potential, and electrical resistivity tomography. The results obtained together with a field geology revision and additional geological data from two drill cores, provide a detailed picture of the post-eruptive maar infill sequence as well as of the uppermost part of the maar-diatreme structure. This information helps in understanding the origin and subsequent evolution of the volcano, which included an alternation of phreatomagmatic and Strombolian phases. Geophysical data show that the last Strombolian phase, which culminated with the formation of a scoria cone inside the maar, was associated with a NW–SE trending regional fault. The little erosion and degradation of the original tephra ring suggest a much younger age of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar than was previously stated.

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1. Introduction

Phreatomagmatic explosions result from brief, near-surface magma/water interactions occurring during the ascent of magma towards the surface, which leads to violent explosions (Lorenz, 1973: Sheridan and Wohletz, 1981, 1983: Wohletz, 1983), Unlike magmatic eruptions that are entirely controlled by the composition and physical properties of the magma (i.e. volatile content, viscosity), phreatomagmatic eruptions may vary considerably depending on external factors such as the stratigraphic, structural and hydrogeological characteristics of the substrate through which the volcanoes are emplaced. Phreatomagmatism is common in all subaerial volcanic settings as continental rifts, active continental volcanic island arc, foreland basins, late orogenic intermontane basins of orogenic belts, basin and range, cratons, and hot spots (Lorenz, 2007). In monogenetic volcanic fields, as well as in polygenetic volcanoes, a large variety of volcanic morphologies and eruption sequences can be observed associated with this type of volcanism (Wohletz and Sheridan, 1983).

A maar is a type of phreatomagmatic volcanic structure characterised by the formation of a tephra ring due to the accumulation of

pyroclastic deposits around a circular crater, whose floor lies below the pre-eruption ground surface (Lorenz, 1973, 2007; Lorenz and Kurszlaukis, 2007; White and Ross, 2011). The presence of meteoric water and/or groundwater, after the eruption's end, might lead to the development of a lake inside the crater (Schmincke, 1988; Büchel, 1993). Due to the surface geomorphology and the internal structure, these volcanoes are called maar-diatremes. The term used is descriptive and not genetic, so it does not refer to any specific place or suite of processes (Lorenz, 1975, 1986). The maar-diatreme volcanoes, although representing examples of monogenetic activity, represent a significant degree of hazard, as has been shown by past eruptions with a number of human casualties in the historical record around the world (White and Ross, 2011).

The reconstruction of the internal structure of individual young maar-diatreme systems can only be based on geophysical studies and drill cores and other type of mechanical excavations. In deeply eroded systems it is possible to observe the deepest parts of the diatreme but the uppermost sections have been lost in most cases. Therefore, to get an idealised picture of the maar-diatreme system it is necessary to combine both approaches.

This study is aimed at obtaining a 3D geological model of the internal structure of the topmost part of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar, in the Catalan Volcanic Zone (NE Spain), in order to determine the structure of the

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substrate below the tephra ring and the post-eruptive infill sequence of the maar crater and the uppermost level inside the diatreme. In order to accomplish this objective we applied several geophysical techniques, including gravity, magnetic, self-potential and electrical resistivity tomography methods. These methods combined with field geology and the study of samples from two drill cores located inside the maar-crater, provided the necessary information to image the shallow internal structure of the La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar-diatreme volcano.

2. Geological setting and general characteristics of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai

The Catalan Volcanic Zone (CVZ), situated in the NE part of the Iberian Peninsula (Girona Province), is one of the Quaternary alkaline volcanic provinces belonging to the European Cenozoic Rift System (Martí et al., 1992; Dèzes et al., 2004) (Fig. 1). The CVZ ranges in age from > 12 Ma to early Holocene and it is mainly represented by alkali basalts and basanites (Martí et al., 1992; Cebriá et al., 2000).

This basaltic monogenetic volcanic zone comprises more than 50 well preserved monogenetic cones including scoria cones, tuff cones, tephra rings, and maars. The area has traditionally been divided into three different sub-zones: L'Empordà to the Northeast (12–8 Ma), La

Selva (7.9–1.7 Ma) to the South and La Garrotxa (0.5–0.01 Ma) to the West (Araña et al., 1983; Martí et al., 1992) (Fig. 1). In the CVZ volcanism, small-sized cinder cones formed along widely dispersed fissure zones during monogenetic, short-lived eruptions. Hydromagmatic events were also common. Each eruption was probably caused by an individual batch of magma that was transported rapidly from the source region, each batch representing the products of an individual partial melting event (Martí et al., 1992, 2011).

La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar belongs to the La Selva subzone, which corresponds to a tectonic depression bounded by an ENE–WSW and a NW–SE fault system (Fig. 1). The basement of this area consists of granites and metamorphic rocks of Palaeozoic age, which crop out defining a nonconformity with the Pliocene and Quaternary sediments. These last filled the La Selva depression with variable thicknesses of 35 to 200 m in the Sant Dalmai area (Trilla and Pallí, 1977; Barnolas et al., 1979). The volcanic deposits cover an area of about 7 km² among the municipalities of Aiguaviva and Sant Dalmai, 2 km northwest of the Girona airport, overlying basement and Pliocene and Quaternary rocks (Fig. 2).

The ejecta of this maar volcano are mostly composed of phreatomagmatic deposits that form a circular tephra ring around a shallow crater 1250 m in diameter and a few tens of metres in depth. The tephra ring is asymmetrical, being higher in the west

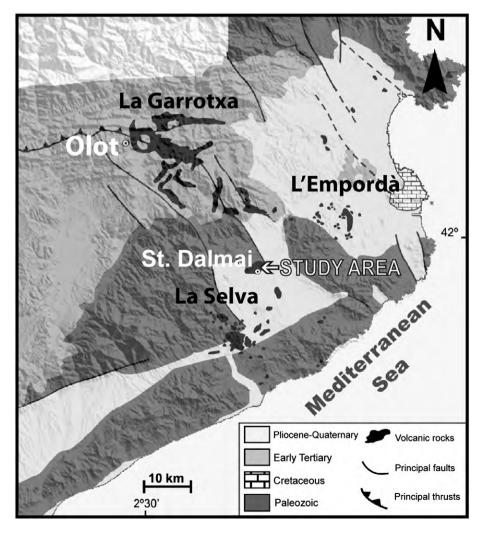


Fig. 1. Simplified geological map of the Catalan Volcanic Zone and its surroundings Location of La Garrotxa, La Selva and L'Empordà volcanic fields. (Modified from Guérin et al., 1986)

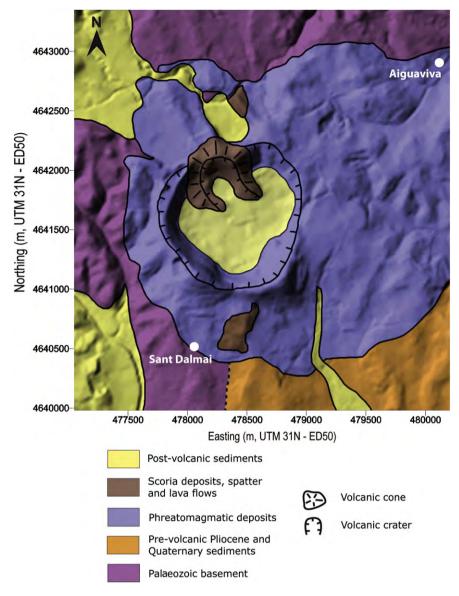


Fig. 2. Geological map of la Crosa de Sant Dalmai volcano. Coordinates in metres (UTM31N – ED50). Topographic base is taken from the ICC, at 1:5000 scale. The mapping of the deposits has been developed from the simplified map of Martí and Mallarach (1987) and analysis from new outcrops in the field. The figure shows the main crater and the scoria cone the latter formed during the final stages of activity of the volcano, along with the extent of the phreatomagmatic deposits.

(maximum height of 50 m), where the internal and external slopes are also steeper, than in the east (maximum height of 30 m). Also, the deposits surrounding the rim show a wider distribution towards the east (Fig. 2). The succession of deposits shows the same stratigraphy all around the tephra ring but not in equal proportions. They reached distances of nearly 4 km towards the east and only of a few hundred metres towards the west. This asymmetrical distribution of the deposits was attributed to different strength of the rocks that form the substrate at each side below the volcano (Martí et al., 1986). The initial topography, the direction of the wind during the eruption, and the possible inclination of the eruptive conduit could also have influenced the distribution of the deposits around the vent (e.g. Büchel and Lorenz, 1993).

The lowermost unit of the succession of deposits of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai volcano is not fully exposed and corresponds to >1 m thick coarse lithic-rich breccia with blocks up to 70 cm in diameter. The lithics consist of granites and schists with subordinate scoria lapilli and cauliflower bombs (Pedrazzi, et al., 2012). Above them lies

a 10 m thick uniform sequence of lithic-rich deposits alternating with crudely stratified, coarse-grained pyroclastic surge deposits. The next unit in the stratigraphic succession is a 1 m thick Strombolian, non-welded scoria lapilli deposit, which is followed by 8 m thick sequence of alternating units of lithic-rich breccia and pyroclastic surges. The eruption ended with a new Strombolian episode from a new vent opened at the interior of the maar. This episode formed a small scoria cone partially overlapping the maar tephra ring and a lava flow emplaced inside the maar (see below). As most maar-diatreme volcanoes are related to basic magmas, most final magmatic phases inside maar craters lead to the formation of scoria cones or even lava lakes in a final magmatic phase (Lorenz, 2007).

The age of this volcano is not well constrained. Although it is located in the La Selva sector where most of the outcropping volcanic rocks have ages older than 1.7 Ma (Araña et al., 1983), it is evident from the state of preservation of its morphology and juvenile components that La Crosa de Sant Dalmai volcano might be younger.

3. Methodology

The methodology used to carry out this work comprises multi-disciplinary tasks. A preliminary geological map of the area at 1:5000 scale was produced starting from the one elaborated by Martí, et al. (1986) and conducting new field work (Fig. 2). This allowed us to understand field relationships among the different geological units, to determine the extent of the deposits, and to identify the most significant geomorphological features. All the geological information collected was incorporated into a georeferenced database and processed through a Geographical Information System managed by ©Global Mapper 12.00 and Arcgis 9.2 (© ESRI) software. The projection system of coordinates used was the ED50 DATUM, UTM 31 N.

Additional geological data came from two drill cores (S1 and S2, Fig. 3). S1, reaching a depth of 15 m, was made in December 2009 at the western side of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar crater. S2, with a total depth of 61 m, was made in April 2012 at the north-eastern side of the maar crater (Fig. 3) The data collected from these cores were helpful in studying the post-eruptive sedimentary fill of the crater and correlating these deposits with the resistivity profiles obtained through the electrical resistivity tomography (ERT) (Fig. 3).

Subsequently, various geophysical techniques, including gravity, magnetics, self-potential and electrical resistivity tomography, were applied. Some unpublished data from several geophysical surveys carried out in 1995 by some of the authors of this publication already

existed. We incorporated these data into this study and in some cases they were recollected and reprocessed.

The gravity survey covered a total area of 8 km² inside and around La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar, and included a total of 158 stations. Gravity readings were taken with a Lacoste and Romberg G831 gravimeter and referred to the IGSN-71 international gravity system. Station altitude was measured with an Air HB-1A high precision quartz altimeter or derived from ± 0.1 m benchmarks. The gravity data were corrected for effects caused by variations in latitude, elevation, topography, instrumental drift and earth tides caused by the sun and moon. The corrected values generated Bouguer anomalies, which represent the gravity effect of crustal and shallower geological structures. In order to get the residual anomaly, due to the local density changes, it was necessary to subtract the regional component that in this area shows a well defined west–east trend with values ranging from -0.2 to -4.4 mGal that mostly express the depth of the Moho discontinuity (Casas et al., 1986).

Total field magnetic measurements were performed in 1995 with a proton magnetometer Geometrics model G-816. In this study we used the 226 original stations without adding new measurements. The correction for diurnal variation was previously performed on the data set and as with the gravity data, a regional field was defined from stations distant from the volcano and subtracted to give the residual anomaly. After this step, the magnetic data were interpolated to a regular grid. The residual values are around the zero level far away from the volcano indicating a successful removal of the regional field.

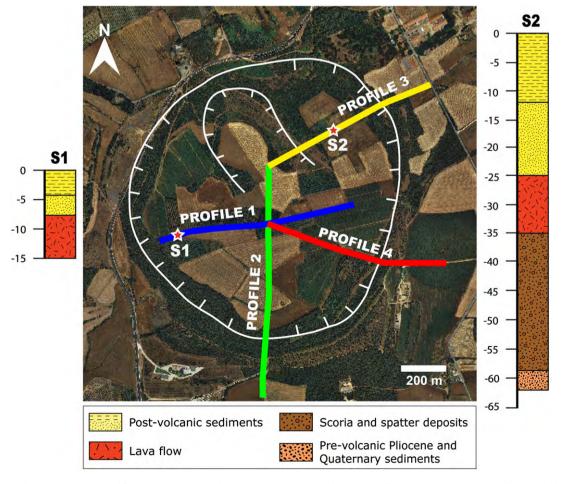


Fig. 3. Orthophotomap from the Institut Cartogràfic de Catalunya (ICC) web site, showing the location of each ERT profile. It also shows the location of the two drill cores (S1 and S2) and their respective synthetic stratigraphic sections.

The self-potential (SP) measurements were made with a high impedance voltmeter (~10 M Ω) with a sensitivity of 0.1 mV, using two non-polarised Cu/CuSO₄ electrodes and a 300 m long cable. The difference of potential was measured between the reference electrode, which was placed at the beginning of the profile and the moving electrode. The measurements were performed every 20 m with several profiles forming an interconnected network covering the entire surface of the crater of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai. During the measurements, the reference and moving electrodes were switched every few hundred metres in order to avoid the systematic error due to electrode offset. In the data-processing we applied a closure correction along the profiles, in order to limit cumulative errors.

The electrical resistivity tomography (ERT) is a technique in which the process of data acquisition is fully automated. This allows performing a great number of measurements, obtaining 2D resistivity high resolution data in a short time. The electrical resistivity data were acquired with an Iris Syscal Pro resistivity system. The electrode configuration was the Wenner-Schlumberger array using 48 electrodes connected to a 470 m long cable (10 m spacing between electrodes), obtaining a maximum depth of investigation of about 100 m. The main reason for choosing a Wenner-Schlumberger electrode array was the good relationship between signal intensity and good horizontal and vertical sensitivity analysis (Binley and Kemna, 2005).

We used the roll-along method to complete some of the profiles (Fig. 3). Profile 1 and profile 3 were composed of two sections overlapping on one-third of the cable length, resulting in 800 m long profiles. Profile 4 sections overlapped on half of the cable length giving a total length of 710 m. Finally, the two sections composing profile 2 did not share any electrode.

The apparent electrical resistivity data acquired in the field were processed with the RES2DINV software from GEOTOMO© (Loke, 2002) including topography information. The topography was obtained from the Digital Elevation Model (DEM) of 15×15 m resolution from Institut Cartogràfic de Catalunya. In all our profiles the RMS error, indicator of the reliability of the inversion, was less than 7%, giving a high viability for the resistivity models obtained (Loke and Barker, 1996).

4. Results

4.1. Geological data

The geological map in Fig. 2 shows that the maar is located near the nonconformity between Palaeozoic basement (mainly outcropping at the northern and western side of the map) and the pre-volcanic Pliocene and Quaternary sediments, which the fill La Selva depression mainly at the southern side. The maar pyroclastic deposits show an asymmetrical distribution mostly extending towards the east for more than 4 km (Martí et al., 1986). The tephra ring morphology and deposits around the crater are very well preserved as well as the Strombolian cone located on the northern side of the maar crater (Fig. 2).

Relevant geological information was also obtained from the analysis of the two drill cores S1 and S2 (Fig. 3). S1 shows a phreatic water table at a depth of 10 m. The first 7.6 m below the crater floor are composed of alternating fine-grained silt and clay deposits. Deeper, the drilling encounters a basaltic lava flow from the final Strombolian episode related to La Crosa de Sant Dalmai eruption. S2 shows a phreatic water table at a depth of 18 m. The first 12 m of the core are composed of fine silt and clay deposits, and the following 14 m show grained sand and colluvial deposits from the tephra ring and the Strombolian cone. The basaltic lava flow appears at a depth of 26 m and shows a total thickness of 10 m. Below, there is a 20 m thick succession of alternating fine and coarse-grained lapilli beds from the intra-maar Strombolian cone. At a depth of 61 m, S2 shows Pliocene and Quaternary sediments containing organic material, which correspond to the contact between the diatreme and the substratum.

4.2. Gravimetry

The residual Bouguer anomaly map (Fig. 4c) shows slightly negative to neutral values in the western sector of the map, increasing towards the east, up to 3.5 mGal. The global pattern in the eastern sector shows a NW–SE orientation. The map shows negative values for the stations located right on the rim of the tephra cone. In the north, a minimum is centred on the ring, where the Strombolian scoria cone was emplaced. In the south another minimum coincides with the thicker deposits of the tephra ring. Inside the maar, neutral values are found while reaching the central area. The gravity model of the maar structure has not been developed because the main gravity signature is a circular gravity low produced by the accumulation of pyroclastic material and there is no evidence of the deep root of the structure.

4.3. Magnetometry

The resulting magnetometry map (Fig. 5) shows the distribution of the local magnetic field for the superficial geological layers. The surface structures detected by this method correspond to rocks with a high proportion of magnetic minerals. Concentric magnetic isolines characterise the interior of the maar crater, with an increase from 1600 nT along the ring to 3200 nT toward the central area. A magnetic maximum is measured at the northern side of the maar, on the eastern side of the Strombolian cone rim with values up to 5000 nT.

4.4. Self-potential (SP)

The SP map (Fig. 6) shows an increase of 120 mV from SW to NE, describing a sharp transition highlighting a NW–SE lineament across the maar. The northern end of this lineament overlaps the magnetic anomaly high centred on the Strombolian edifice located at the northern side of the maar crater. In the western side the maar no significant variation of self-potential is observed.

4.5. Electrical resistivity tomography (ERT)

ERT models show high resistivity values (1000 Ω .m to more than 8000 Ω .m) matching the areas where the profiles cut the tephra ring (Fig. 7). Inside the main crater the profiles show a ~10 to 20 m thick superficial planar layer of low resistivity (10 Ω .m to 200 Ω .m) (Fig. 7).

In profiles 1 and 2, this layer overlies a thick high resistivity layer (\sim 2000 to 5000 Ω .m) visible until the maximum depth of investigation. However, in the last 20 m, resistivity tends to be lower so that we can estimate the thickness of this layer at \sim 60 m.

Profile 3 crosses the eastern flank of the Strombolian cone and the eastern side of the maar rim. We observe a high resistivity body (from 2000 to more than 8000 Ω .m) in the Strombolian cone area. This resistive zone spreads from 30 m under the surface and is rooted beyond the depth of investigation. Between the Strombolian cone and the maar rim (from 380 to 520 m distance on the resistivity model) the conductive superficial layer overlies a resistive layer, slightly thinner than the one described in profiles 1 and 2. This resistive layer overlies a conductive layer (a few Ω .m to 100 Ω .m), visible until depth of investigation.

In profile 4, high resistivity in the tephra ring narrows from 30 m under the topography and extends at depth. Inside the maar, under the superficial low resistivity layer encountered in all the profiles, lies a resistive layer. As well as in profile 3, it is thinner than those encountered in the same position on profiles 1 and 2. At greater depth the resistivity lowers to $\sim\!100~\Omega.m.$

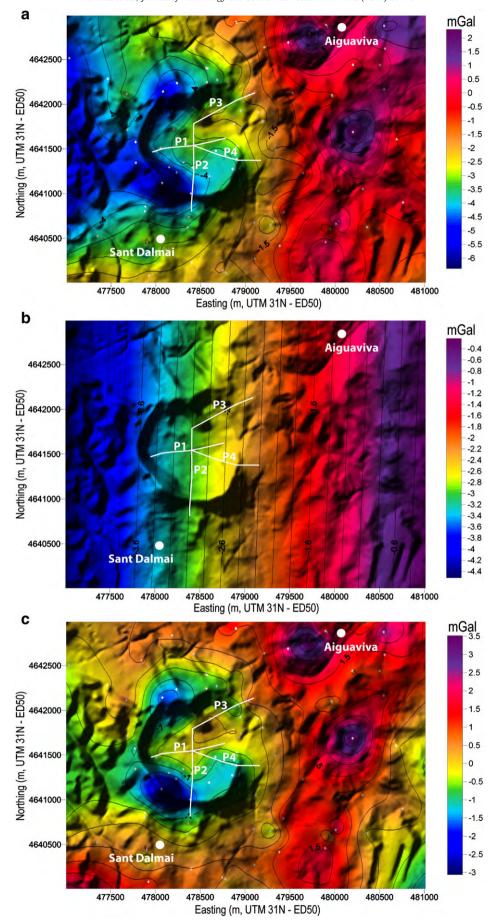


Fig. 4. a. Bouguer anomaly map; b. regional anomaly; c. residual gravity map obtained by subtracting the regional anomaly from the Bouguer anomaly map. Coordinates in metres (UTM31N — ED50). In white: location of ERT the profiles P1, P2, P3, and P4. Small white dots correspond to the gravimetry stations.

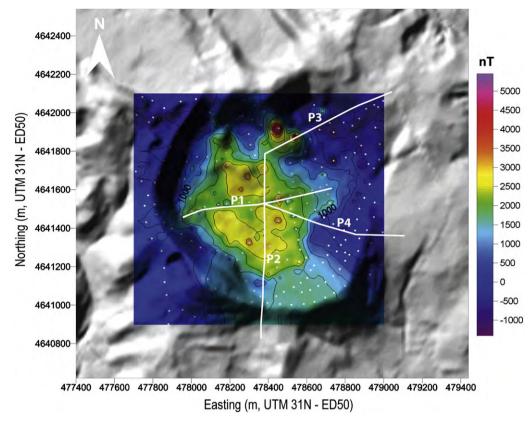


Fig. 5. Residual total field magnetic anomaly map. The white dots correspond to the measurements. The white lines show the location of ERT profiles (P).

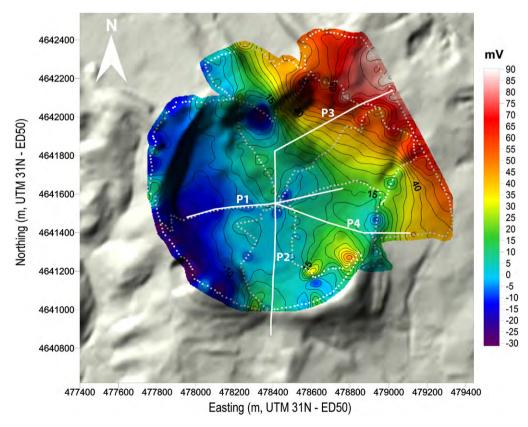


Fig. 6. Self-potential map. The white dots correspond to the measurements. The white lines show the location of ERT profiles (P).

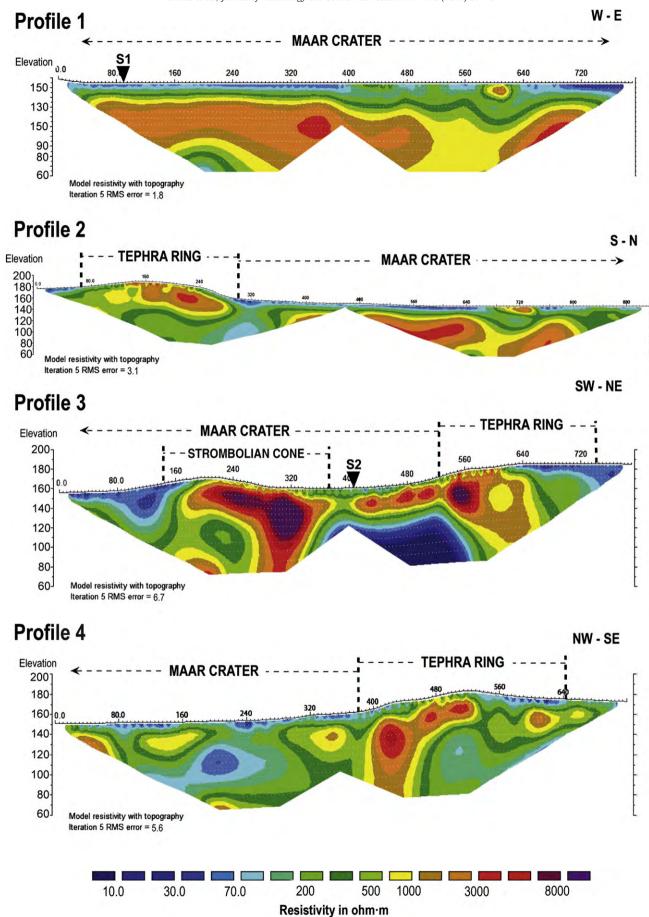


Fig. 7. ERT models with topography.

5. Discussion

5.1. Phreatomagmatic activity

The residual gravity anomaly map shows negative anomalies coinciding with resistive structures imaged with ERT. The southwest main gravity anomaly reaches values of about -2.5~mGal and coincides with an area of maximum accumulation of poorly consolidated pyroclastic materials, i.e. unwelded breccia, that form the tephra ring. This

is consistent with the high resistivity observed in the tephra ring as this material is highly vesiculated. This physical characteristic confers a high resistivity to these levels.

5.2. Strombolian activity

The strong gravity anomaly located at the northern side of the tephra ring shows negative values of up to -2 mGal. This anomaly marks the zone of maximum accumulation of scoria deposits belonging to the

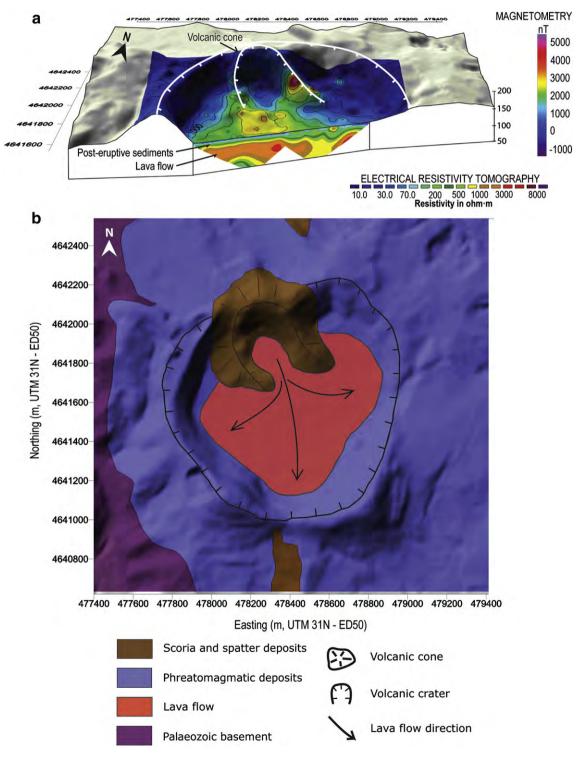


Fig. 8. a) 3D block diagram of the residual total field magnetic anomaly map and the ERT profile 1. b) Mapping of the interpreted lava flow.

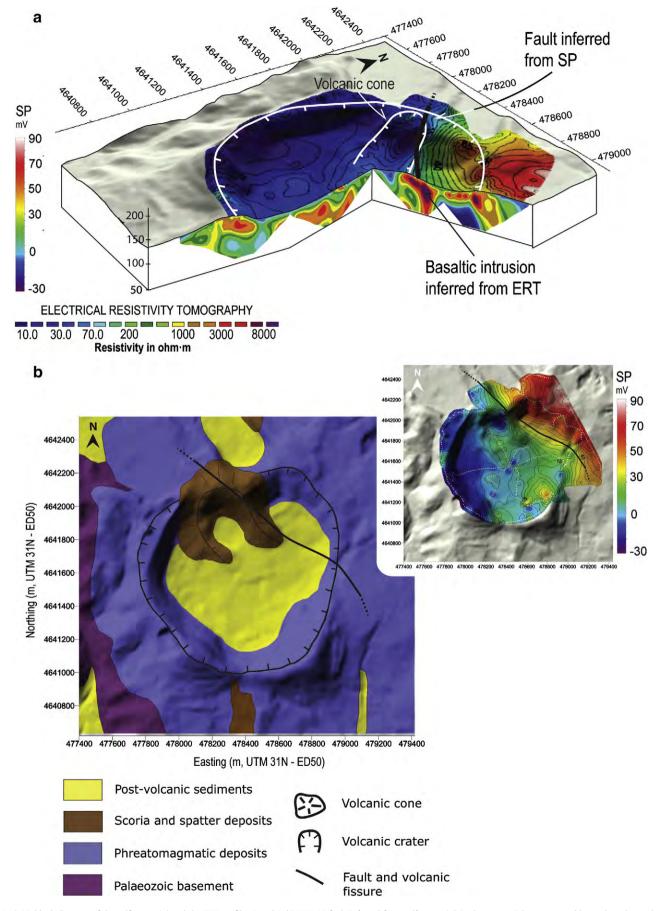


Fig. 9. a) 3D block diagram of the self-potential and the ERT profiles 2 and 3. b) NW-SE fault inferred from self-potential, in the upper right corner, and located on the geological map.

Strombolian cone formed inside the maar crater. Resistivity profile 3, crossing the Strombolian cone more in the South, gives high resistivity values. The shape of the corresponding resistivity body, narrowing from 30 m under the topographic surface might correspond to the base of the Strombolian cone, highlighting the former depth of the maar crater before the Strombolian episode in this part of the crater. The resistive root found under the Strombolian cone might correspond to the eruptive conduit or a secondary dyke.

The ERT images show an area inside the maar crater ranging from 1100 to 3000 Ω .m (coloured orange and red in Fig. 8a). This is interpreted to correspond to the basaltic lava flow emitted during the Strombolian phase at the end of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai eruption, and which was also intersected by the drill core S1 (see position in Fig. 3). In some places, this basaltic lava flow is detected until the maximum depth of investigation of the ERT profiles (95 m). The positive magnetic anomaly covers almost the whole maar crater, outlining the extent of the lava below the post-maar sediments (Fig. 8b). In the eastern part of the maar crater floor, no significant magnetic anomaly is detected while the S2 drill core shows the presence of the lava flow at a depth of 26 m, with a thickness of 10 m. The lava flow is not detected by the magnetic measurements probably because it is thin and located too deep for the resolution of the method.

5.3. Post-eruptive phase

The drill cores show that the post-volcanic infill sequence of the maar crater has an average thickness of 10 m in the eastern part of the maar, and 26 m in the north-western zone. This is in the order of magnitude of the 10-25 m thick superficial conductive layer observed in the ERT models. These data indicate that the corresponding post-maar sediments (ranging from ~30 Ω .m to 500 Ω .m) form a regular layer extending in the whole maar crater around the Strombolian cone, burying the associated lava flow (Fig. 8).

5.4. Geological control on the eruptive activity

The SP map displays a sharp transition from negative (-25 mV)to positive values (75 mV), following a NW-SE trend. This lineament may be interpreted as a fault associated with the regional trend, guiding the ascending magma (Fig 1). The resistive body (2000 to more than 8000Ω .m) detected at depth in the ERT profile 3 and rooted below the maximum depth of investigation is located on this fault (Fig. 9). We interpret this high resistivity root as a basaltic intrusion that fed the last episode of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai eruption, i.e. the last Strombolian phase. It is difficult to estimate the dimensions of this intrusion (eruptive conduit or secondary dyke). Our ERT data provide only 2 day information and the resolution decreases exponentially with depth making difficult concluding on the nature of this intrusion. However, the superficial section of this intrusion could be estimated between 20 and 30 m wide. This is not concordant with the usual dyke dimensions in such small volcanic edifices. However, White and Ross (2011) and Lefebvre et al. (2012) show that dykes can widen through several processes near the surface and produce such large superficial intrusions from a dyke or from the coalescence of dyke segments.

The problem is whether this fracture also controlled the ascent of magma in the phreatomagmatic phases corresponding to the opening and development of the maar crater and its diatreme. Although the deeper internal structure of the diatreme cannot be defined with the geophysical methods we have applied in this study, it is possible to know the geological unit where the phreatomagmatic explosions occurred. This may be done by simply looking at the populations of the lithic fragments present in the maar deposits, which correspond exclusively to Palaeozoic granites. These fragments are decimetric to less than 1 mm in size, show angular to subangular shapes, and in some cases are strongly hydrothermally altered. These lithic fragments

were directly broken and ejected from the Palaeozoic substrate of the volcano by the phreatomagmatic explosions. This suggests that the maar-forming explosions and, therefore, the magma/water interaction did not occur at the contact between the Palaeozoic basement and the Pliocene and Quaternary infill of the La Selva depression as was initially suggested by Martí et al (1986), but occurred directly in an aquifer located in the fractured granitic basement (Pedrazzi et al., 2012).

Therefore, if the fracture detected with SP is the main pathway by which the magma ascended to the surface, this should be branched into the granite causing interaction of ascending magma with its aquifer, thus generating violent explosions leading to the formation of the maar and its diatreme. Later, after the maar-diatreme formation, the rise and eruption of the magma would be restricted to the main fracture without the possibility of interacting with the granite aquifer, probably already exhausted, resulting in a final purely Strombolian phase.

Finally, it is important to mention that the geophysical imaging of the maar confirms the lack of significant erosion and modification of its original morphology. This is demonstrated by the preservation of the original slopes of the tephra ring and also by the scarcity of breccia deposits inside the crater, which suggests that little remobilisation of the tephra ring deposits has occurred since its formation. All this suggests that the age of the La Crosa de Sant Dalmai volcano is younger than stated previously for the La Selva sub-zone (7.9–1.7 Ma, Araña, et al. (1983)).

6. Conclusions

Combining new geophysical and geological data we have been able to elaborate a 3D model of the internal structure of the uppermost part of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar-diatreme system (Fig. 10), the largest volcano of the Catalan Volcanic Zone. This model helps in understanding the influence of the pre-eruptive basement on the phreatomagmatic and Strombolian activity that constructed the volcanic edifice and the characteristics of the post-eruptive deposits that infill the maar crater. In particular, we have been able to determine 1) the elevation of the maar crater floor under the Strombolian cone; 2) the extension of the lava flow formed during this last Strombolian episode, which is now buried under a 10 to 20 m thick post eruptive sedimentary layer; 3) the presence of a NW–SE lineament interpreted as a fault associated with the regional trend; and 4) the control exerted by this fault on the location of the Strombolian cone, whilst the phreatomagmatic activity resulted from the interaction with an aquifer in the granitic basement.

This multiparametric geophysical and geological research has provided relevant information on the upper structure of La Crosa de Sant Dalmai maar, offering important clues to understand its formation and evolution. However, the applied geophysical methods do not always have sufficient spatial resolution and depth of investigation, so there are still some questions about the deeper part of the diatreme, for which exploration other methods such as pole-dipole ERT profiles or seismic reflection profiles should be used.

Acknowledgements

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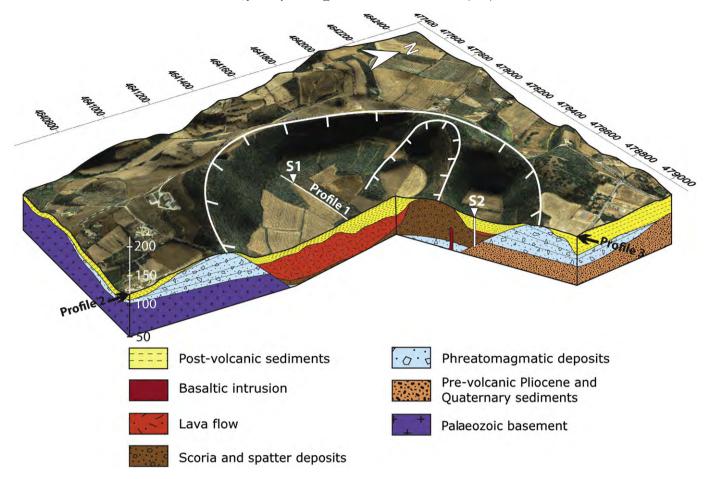


Fig. 10. Synthetic 3D model. Orthophotomap overlapped on the DEM with geologic interpretation through cross sections corresponding to ERT profile 2 (N–S direction) and 3 (SW–NE direction). The locations of S1 and S2 drillings are indicated.

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APPENDIX 5

Electrical resistivity tomography revealing the internal structure of monogenetic volcanoes

Electrical resistivity tomography revealing the internal structure of monogenetic volcanoes

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[1] Eruptive activity of individual monogenetic volcanoes usually lasts a few days or weeks. However, their short lifetime does not always mean that their dynamics and structure are simple. Monogenetic cones construction is rarely witnessed from the beginning to the end, and conditions for observing their internal structure are hardly reached. We provide high-resolution electrical resistivity sections (10 m electrode spacing) of three monogenetic cones from northeastern Spain, comparing our results to geological observations to interpret their underground continuation. The 100 m maximum depth of exploration provides information on almost the entire edifices, highlighting the relationships between Strombolian and hydromagmatic deposits in two multiphase edifices. A main observation is a column of distinct resistivity centered on the Puig d'Adri volcano, which we interpret as the eruptive conduit. This method can provide valuable information on the past volcanic dynamics of monogenetic volcanic fields, which has real implications for the forecast of future activity. Citation: Barde-Cabusson, S., X. Bolós, D. Pedrazzi, R. Lovera, G. Serra, J. Martí, and A. Casas (2013), Electrical resistivity tomography revealing the internal structure of monogenetic volcanoes, Geophys. Res. Lett., 40, doi:10.1002/grl.50538.

1. Introduction

[2] Monogenetic volcanoes are small volcanic edifices built-up in a short period of time, (e.g., few hours or days in the East-Izu monogenetic volcano group and several years for Jorullo in 1759~1766 and Paricutín in 1943~1952), so that their complexity is sometimes underestimated [De la Cruz-Reyna and Yokoyama, 2011]. Monogenetic volcanic edifices go from simple one-phase volcanoes to complex edifices built from several distinct phases of activity [Walker, 2000; Valentine and Gregg, 2008]. A complex eruptive dynamics can, for example, result in the accumulation of highly vesicular scoria (Strombolian-style explosive events) and compact, fine-enriched ash (phreatomagmatic

explosive events), forming a complex layercake-style edifice alternating horizons of different electric resistivity material in a reduced space. This makes high-resolution electrical resistivity tomography (ERT) a valuable tool to investigate the internal structure of monogenetic volcanoes. In contrast with polygenetic volcanoes and despite being the most common type of activity, eruptions giving birth to monogenetic volcanoes are much less witnessed and less described in scientific reports [Kereszturi and Németh, 2012]. Only a few events of this type have occurred worldwide in historical times such as Al Madinah (1256), Jorullo (1759 ~ 1766) and Paricutín (1943 ~ 1952), and the Ukinrek maar (1977) [De la Cruz-Reyna and Yokoyama, 2011; Kereszturi and Németh, 2012]. Monogenetic cones can be weathered, exhibiting part of their internal structure. Mathieu et al. [2008] presented natural examples of monogenetic cones from the Chaîne des Puys (French Massif Central) and of parasitic cones from the northeast rift of Teide (Canary Islands) where the shape of shallow volcanic intrusions are well-preserved. Other examples exist [e.g., Geshi et al., 2011]; however, no unified model or similar attempted to connect field observations of this type with some geophysical approach until now.

- [3] Valentine [2012] used crustal xenoliths to study the shallow plumbing systems of small-volume scoria cones and maars. In particular, he showed that their conduits or dikes flare mainly in the uppermost ~150 m of the crust.
- [4] Geophysics has been successfully used to model [Cassidy et al., 2007; Mrlina et al., 2009; Blaikie et al., 2012] or to image [e.g., Gebhardt et al., 2011; Martín-Serrano et al., 2009; Bolós et al., 2012] the subsurface structure of maar volcanoes. ERT was applied on polygenetic volcanoes, providing valuable information on their structure and hydrothermal systems [e.g., Revil et al., 2008, 2011]. Portal et al. [2013] also presented preliminary results on a model of monogenetic dome using joint interpretation of ERT, gravimetry, and muonic imagery models. However, a detailed study of the internal structure of monogenetic volcanoes remains poorly documented, particularly edifices built up after multiple phases of activity.
- [5] The Catalan Volcanic Zone (CVZ), at the north of Spain (Figure 1a), is mostly unknown compared to the contemporaneous alkaline volcanism in other parts of western and central Europe (Cenozoic alkaline volcanism in the Rhenish massif and Rhinegraben of Germany, the Massif Central of France, and the western Pannonian Basin in Eastern Europe; e.g., *Downes* [2001]) but it offers an excellent opportunity for a detailed exploration of monogenetic volcanoes' internal structure. In this study, we present ERT models from three monogenetic volcanoes giving a detailed image of the entire edifices. Key observations are made from the two more complex edifices because they offer the most important diversity of deposits and structural features.

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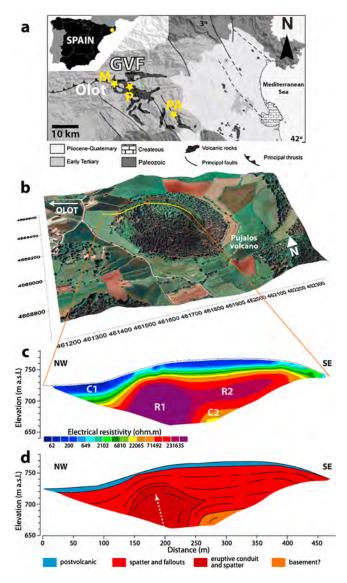


Figure 1. (a) Localization maps of the Garrotxa volcanic field (GVF) and of our three monogenetic volcanoes: Pujalós (P), Montsacopa (M), and Puig d'Adri (PA) volcanoes (modified from *Martí et al.* [2011]). (b) Orthophotography of the Pujalós volcano, a monogenetic Strombolian volcano, overlaid on a digital Elevation Model with localization of the ERT profile (yellow dotted line). (c) ERT model (RMS error 15.2% after five iterations). R and C stands for resistive and conductive bodies or layers respectively. (d) Geological interpretation.

2. Monogenetic Volcanism in the Garrotxa Volcanic Field

[6] The CVZ is one of the Quaternary alkaline volcanic provinces of the European rifts system [Marti et al., 1992, 2011]. It has been active during the last 12 Ma and the volcanism is mainly characterized by alkali basalts and basanites. Inside the CVZ, the Garrotxa volcanic field is a subzone registering the latest volcanic activity (0.5–0.01 Ma) [Araña et al., 1983; Marti et al., 1992]. It comprises more than 50 well-preserved monogenetic volcanoes including scoria cones, tephra rings, and maars. Some of these eruptions alternated Strombolian and hydromagmatic phases, giving rise to complex stratigraphic successions not only within the monogenetic field but also at the scale of individual edifices [Marti and Mallarach, 1987; Marti et al., 2011; Pedrazzi and Marti, 2011; Bolós et al., 2012]. Marti et al. [2011] classify monogenetic volcanoes depending on

whether or not hydromagmatic activity contributed to their construction. Volcanoes exclusively derived from magmatic activity correspond to scoria cones with occasional lava flows while volcanic cones including hydromagmatic activity, although morphologically similar to scoria cones, are much more complex. They may alternate phreatic, phreatomagmatic, and Strombolian phases, generating a wide diversity of pyroclastic density currents and fallout deposits, including explosive and effusive episodes.

3. Data Acquisition and Processing

[7] Multielectrode ERT was used to obtain 2-D resistivity high-resolution data on three monogenetic volcanoes from the Garrotxa volcanic field. We used an Iris Syscal Pro resistivity system with 48 electrodes connected to a 470 m long cable (10 m electrode spacing) in Wenner-Schlumberger configuration (maximum depth of investigation of about

100 m). We used the roll-along method to complete some of the profiles. No reciprocal measurements were taken but data quality was assessed by averaging or stacking several measurements and very good quality factors were obtained (q < 3.5%). Low contact resistances of the electrodes were achieved because of the high moisture of the soils and the special design of the stainless steel electrodes directly in contact with the multicore cable (maximum values $< 3 \text{ k}\Omega$). Current injected was automatically adjusted by the system to optimize the input voltage and to ensure the best signal-to-noise ratio. The maximum power of the instrument is 800 V and the maximum current is 320 mA at 2.5 k Ω contact resistance. In our survey, depending on the distance between current electrodes, the current intensity ranged from 275 to 5 mA. The typical standard deviation was less than 1% with maximum standard deviation values lower than 3.5%.

[8] The resistivity data were inverted with RES2DINV [Loke, 2002]. Covariance matrix is commonly used to assess the accuracy of the inversion for models that consist of a small number of parameters but RES2DINV, like most nonlinear inversion programs, carries out an optimization process that tries to reduce the difference between the calculated and measured apparent resistivity values. The inversion routine used by the program is based on the smoothnessconstrained least-squares method [de Groot-Hedlin and Constable, 1990; Sasaki, 1992] which allows to adjust the damping factor. This parameter is designed to accommodate noisier data sets, without which the inversion attempts to fit noise as data and becomes unstable. A larger damping factor was used for the Pujalós volcano data set (Figure 1). When data show large resistivity variations near the surface, it is also recommended to use a model where the cell width is half the unit electrode spacing. This was applied to the Pujalós and Montsacopa profiles. This strategy allowed us to improve the results but RMS error, estimating the difference between the calculated and measured apparent resistivity, was still high for Pujalós. The results are discussed taking this fact into account.

4. Results

[9] The following results relate to our three example monogenetic volcanoes. A first ERT profile was performed on the Pujalós volcano, near the city of Olot, in the Garrotxa volcanic field (Figure 1). The ERT cable was laid out from the northwestern side of the Pujalós, passing through the summit up to the southeastern flank (Figure 1b). The resistivity model (Figure 1c) shows a globally simple distribution of the resistivity. We found a superficial conductive layer C1 ($<650 \Omega \cdot m$), 10 to 20 m thick, and slightly thicker beyond the fields located at the NW of the cone. A rounded resistive body R1 (>250,000 Ω ·m) appears at ~30 m depth. R1 is offset with respect to the cone summit and extends beyond the maximum depth of investigation. This resistive body seems to be connected to the SE with an elongated shape of slightly lower resistivity values that follows a 15° slope (R2). Under this layer, the resistivity values decrease progressively up to one order of magnitude (C2).

[10] The second test was performed in the same area, on Montsacopa, a volcano located inside the city of Olot itself. This volcano presents a NW-SE elongated shape with a

well-preserved circular crater in the summit (crater B in Figure 2a). A previous study based on stratigraphy indicates the presence of a second eruptive vent (crater A in Figure 2a) on the SE flank [Bolós, 2009]. Our ERT profile (Figure 2b) covers the volcano nearly from one extreme to the other, crossing the two craters. This 710 m long profile is composed of two sections acquired with a roll-along of half the cable length. After four iterations, the data inversion gave a good RMS error value of 5.7%. The most striking feature is a 150 m wide high-resistivity body R3 (>200,000 Ω ·m) under crater B. It presents a concave upper limit, nearly vertical laterals, and extends beyond the maximum depth of exploration. On top of this body lies a lenticular conductive body marked as C3, ~20 m thick at its maximum (~950 to 100 Ω ·m). At the NW we observe a resistive elongated body (R4), dipping NW at an angle of 20°. It is surrounded by lower resistivity values (~ 3000 to 300 $\Omega \cdot m$). The resistivity distribution in the SE flank is more complex. It shows a few meters-thick superficial layer, displaying resistivity $<3000 \Omega \cdot m$. It overlays an irregular resistive layer with several tens of thousands Ω ·m resistivity (R5). Surrounded by these high-resistivity values, the model shows a drop-shaped zone C4, of lower resistivity ($\sim 1000 \ \Omega \cdot m$). Deeper, the inversion model shows resistivity values of about 3000 $\Omega \cdot m$.

[11] Still in the Garrotxa, we acquired a third ERT profile on the Puig d'Adri volcano (Figures 2d, 2e, 2f, and 1a for localization). These data were acquired along three sections overlapping by half the cable length, i.e., we obtained a profile of 950 m in total. After five iterations we obtained an RMS error of 6.1% for this model, confirming the quality of the inversion. The eastern part of the resistivity model shows several layers identified through their respective resistivity. In particular, we can notice the presence of a horizontal conductive layer ($<400 \ \Omega \cdot m$) at depth (C5). Going upward, an area of 1000 to 3000 Ω·m seems to change progressively from horizontal to $\sim 20^{\circ}$ dip. It lays under a more resistive (up to $8000 \Omega \cdot m$) 20 m thick layer (R6). The rest of the resistivity model is occupied by a large resistive unit, R7, (>4000 Ω ·m) overlaid by a conductive layer ($<400 \Omega \cdot m$). The resistive unit displays a V-shaped base, intersected by the lower limit of the model. Nearly in the center of the V, a less-resistive (light-red color in Figure 2e) vertical column connects the deepest layer to the surface. At 100 m to the west the conductive superficial layer enters deeper into the resistive unit. This last follows the slope of the western flank, forming a thick resistive layer (R8).

5. Discussion

[12] Our three example monogenetic volcanoes are a good illustration of the difference made by *Martí et al.* [2011] concerning monogenetic volcanoes affected or not by hydromagmatic phases during their construction. For the three sites, the water table is located in the sedimentary basement, at depths greater than our maximum depth of exploration so that we do not take it into account in the interpretation. Available geological information describes the Pujalós volcano as a scoria cone, possibly originating a lava flow covering an area of about 6 km² to the west [*IGC et al.*, 2007]. Despite the elevated RMS error (15.2% after five iterations), the resistivity model seems to fit well this description (Figure 1). Moreover, a strong likeness exists with natural

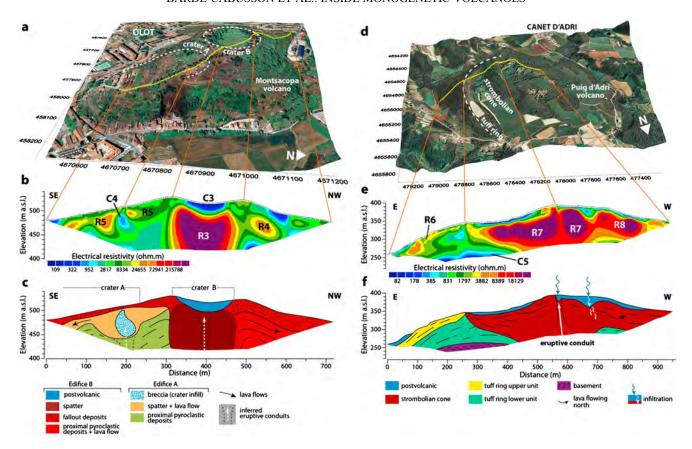


Figure 2. The Montsacopa and Puig d'Adri volcanoes, two complex monogenetic volcanoes built by hydromagmatic and Strombolian activity. (a and d) Orthophotography overlaid on a digital elevation model with localization of the ERT profile (yellow dotted line). (b and e) ERT model (vertical exaggeration 1.17, RMS error 5.7% after four iterations for Montsacopa and vertical exaggeration 1.17, RMS error 6.1% after five iterations for Puig d'Adri). R and C stands for resistive and conductive units respectively. (c and f) Geological interpretation.

examples from eroded areas such as the one we observed in El Hierro (Canary Islands, Spain). Figure 3 shows two buried monogenetic cones intersected by a vertical scarp on the coast of El Hierro. This situation allows observing a crosssection of both cones with their feeding dykes enlarging to flattened rounded massive units at the center of the volcanoes. This would correspond to the resistive heart R1 of the Pujalós volcano (Figure 1c). The conduit enlarging in the very superficial part of the eruptive system is quite compatible with conclusions made by Valentine [2012]. It can be interpreted as spatter deposits, which are the most proximal products to volcanic vents and directly connected to the eruptive conduit. In the Pujalós, resistive layer R2 can be compared to the stratified accumulation of scoria visible in the monogenetic cones of El Hierro. The resistivity values decreasing at depth (C2) may correspond to the basement, dipping NW. Because of the position of the profile we cannot confirm or infer the presence of a lava flow to the west. Finally, the conductive superficial layer C1 corresponds to the postvolcanic cover, thicker in the northwestern cultivated fields area.

[13] The repartition of the resistivity inside Montsacopa and Puig d'Adri appears more complex than for the Pujalós volcano, reflecting their more complex eruptive histories. Montsacopa shows a sequence involving a Strombolian phase at the beginning and a hydromagmatic one at the end [Martí et al., 2011]. In addition to the summit well-visible

crater, stratigraphical study of the volcanic deposits suggest the existence of a hidden vent on the southeastern flank [Bolós, 2009], which is confirmed by ERT. In the SE flank, we interpret the lower resistivity body C4 as crater A infill, i.e., breccias associated to Strombolian explosions (Figure 2b). This unit is likely surrounded by spatter deposits (R5). The connection with a feeding conduit is not visible on the tomogram, most probably because the profile is offset on a side of the crater. The continuation of R5 to the SE can be interpreted as a lava flow (Figure 2c). Under this system, the lower resistivity values may correspond to material with a higher open porosity and/or alteration [Loke, 2002]. According to the position of this unit in the edifice, it is compatible with fallout deposits that can be associated to the early activity of crater A. These deposits may have been cut-off to the NW by an explosion giving birth to crater B. This ~150 m wide cavity was likely filled by welded deposits forming R3 high-resistivity body. However, note that the inversion process may be affected by superficial strong resistivity contrasts [Loke, 2002] and the resistivity values of this body may be overestimated. These rocks being inaccessible and no similar rocks outcropping, no laboratory measurement of the real resistivity could be performed. The lenticular conductive layer C3 consists of postvolcanic products filling crater B. The NW flank of the volcano can be interpreted as an accumulation of proximal fallout deposits associated to crater B, with intercalation of more resistive lava flows (R4).

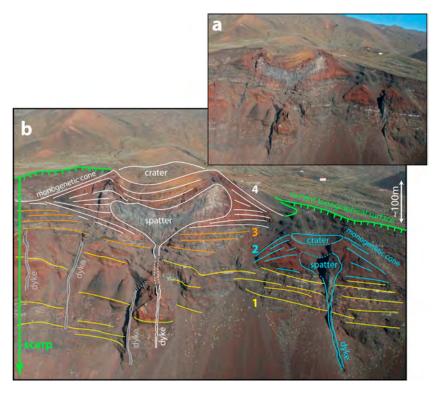


Figure 3. (a) Photography of two monogenetic cones intersected by a cliff at the western point of El Hierro (Canary Islands, Spain). (b) Interpretation. Numbers associated to a color code corresponds to a chronological order.

Indeed, outcrops at the NW of the volcano, close to our profile, show a superposition of two lava flows attributed to the activity of Montsacopa [*Bolós*, 2009].

[14] Martí et al. [2011] describe a complex eruptive history for the Puig d'Adri volcano, involving successive hydromagmatic and Strombolian phases. On the corresponding ERT profile the hydromagmatic deposits of the eastern side of the profile and the Strombolian deposits inside the limits of the tuff-cone [Pujadas et al., 1997; Martí et al., 2011] are well-identifiable (Figures 2e and 2f). In the east, the successive layers of different resistivity values correspond, from the surface to the base, to postvolcanic deposits on two hydromagmatic units. The upper hydromagmatic deposits (R6) show higher resistivity values with respect to the underlying deposits possibly because of a higher degree of compaction, reducing its permeability and then its water content. The underlying tuff ring deposits (Figure 2f) consist mainly of surges, explosion breccias, and a pyroclastic flow [Marti et al., 2011]. Conductive layer C5, visible at the inferior limit of the tomogram, likely corresponds to marls and sandstones constituting the basement. Its spatial relationship with both the hydromagmatic and Strombolian units and its resistivity, are fully compatible with this interpretation. The most uncommon observation provided by our ERT data concerns the Strombolian unit, represented in red tones in Figure 2f and corresponding to the highest resistivity values. A less-resistive 10 to 20 m large column occupies a central position inside the Strombolian cone and connects the deep layer to the surface. We believe that this lower resistivity values correspond to an accumulation of brecciated material partly consolidated, plugging the feeding conduit of the Strombolian cone. To our knowledge this is the first time that this has been shown with geophysical imaging. Finally, we interpret R8, at the western side of the profile, as the two lava

flows described by *Martí et al.* [2011] that caused the breaching of the northwestern flank of the scoria cone. The underlying deposits are likely to be attributed to the hydromagmatic anterior phase. The interface between the lava flows and the Strombolian cone may constitute a preferential path for meteoric water infiltration, triggering progressive weathering of rocks and thus leading to decrease the resistivity. This would explain the deepening of the conductive superficial layer observed (blue arrow in Figure 2f). A similar explanation can be proposed for the slight deepening of the conductive superficial layer into the eruptive conduit, even if we are here at the limit of the spatial resolution of the ERT measurements.

6. Conclusion

[15] We show that volcanic cones exclusively derived from magmatic activity, built by the accumulation of scoria with occasional emission of lava flows, are easily distinguished from more complex edifices affected by hydromagmatic phases. ERT offers a strong advantage regarding spatial resolution and depth of exploration with respect to other geophysical methods, for the study of monogenetic volcanoes. With complementary surface geological observations either on site or using other natural examples, we could highlight various elements of the structure of these volcanoes and evidence several types of volcanic products such as (1) spatter deposits in the central part of the cones, (2) contrasts between hydromagmatic and Strombolian deposits, (3) buried lava flows, (4) the hidden eruptive vent of the Montsacopa volcano, and (5) the eruptive conduit of the Puig d'Adri Strombolian cone. We think that high-resolution ERT is a powerful tool for the study of the internal structure of monogenetic volcanoes. The detailed structural and geological

interpretation of such data is a valuable contribution to enhance knowledge about volcanic hazards in monogenetic volcanic fields in general. Because this method gives information about the past volcanic dynamics, it is particularly interesting for the forecast of future activity in a given monogenetic volcanic field.

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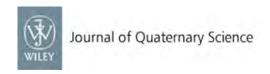
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APPENDIX 6

Volcanic stratigraphy of the Quaternary La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (NE Iberian Peninsula)

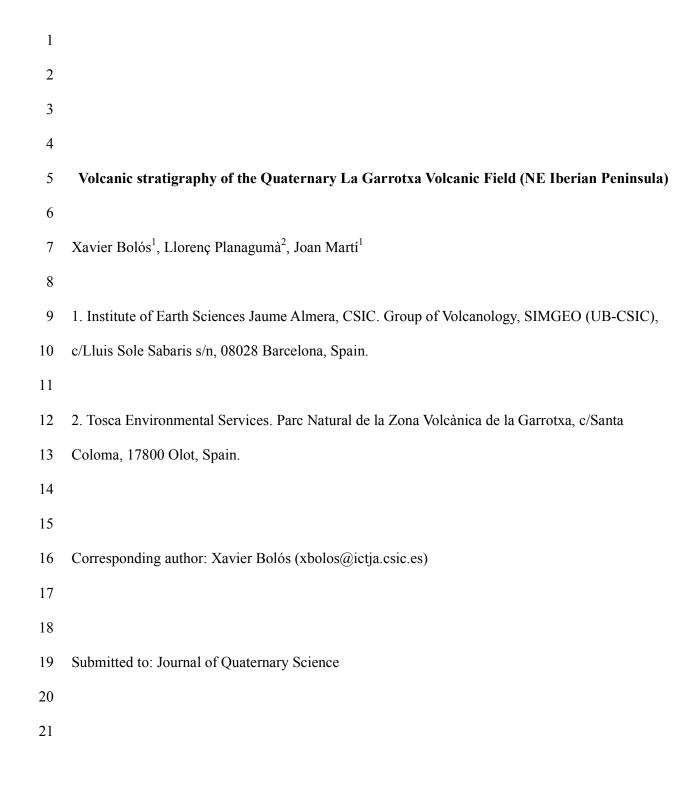
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Volcanic stratigraphy of the Quaternary La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (NE Iberian Peninsula)

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Abstract

The monogenetic Quaternary La Garrotxa Volcanic Field forms part of the Catalan Volcanic Zone (NE Iberian Peninsula), one of the alkaline volcanic provinces of the European rift system. It harbours in total more than 50 basaltic monogenetic cones that range in age from the Middle Pleistocene to the early Holocene and include cinder and scoria cones, lava flows, tuff rings and maars. This study is the result of 10 years work, during which we conducted extensive fieldwork, including the study of ephemeral outcrops and the stratigraphic logging of new water wells and geotechnical drill holes, taking also into account the existing information gathered by recent geophysical studies that have applied shallow geophysical methods to establish the substrate geology of this volcanic field. As a result we have obtained a comprehensive volcanic stratigraphy of the area that identifies the products of each single eruption, their relative stratigraphy and their surface area. This volcanic stratigraphy constitutes an essential tool for understanding the evolution of this volcanic field and for establishing a correct volcanic hazard assessment of the area, but it also provides a precise reference for the Quaternary tephrochronology of the lake sediments in neighbouring areas.

- KEYWORDS: Quaternary volcanism, volcano-stratigraphy, monogenetic volcanism, Garrotxa
- 39 volcanic field, hazard assessment

Introduction

Volcanic terrains are characterised by the complex stratigraphic relationships of their products whose causes include, variously, the extremely rapid depositional rates compared with conventional sub-aerial and submarine sedimentary environments, the friable character of many volcanic deposits, which facilitate their rapid erosion, the contrasting influence of topography on the emplacement of volcanic products, and rapid changes in facies. Such complexity constitutes one of the main obstacles when reconstructing the geological evolution of volcanic areas. This is even more problematic in highly urbanised areas where construction activities modify the original morphology of the area and hide many natural features, and where deposits are often lost to quarrying. This may impose a limitation to construct a volcanic hazard model from such active volcanic areas, as establishing correct stratigraphic relationships may be challenged due to the ignorance of part of the volcanological record.

The stratigraphic and volcanological evolution of the different volcanic fields of the Neogene-Quaternary volcanism associated with the European Cenozoic Rift System are still poorly known. Although several detailed petrological and geochemical studies of this magmatic episode have been conducted in recent decades aimed at understanding its petrogenesis and geodynamic constraints (Wilson and Downes, 1991, 1992, 2006; Hoernle et al., 1995; Wilson and Bianchini, 1999; Wilson and Petterson, 2001; Lustrino and Wilson, 2007), the eruptive history and geochronology of the different areas where this volcanic activity occurred, are not well constrained. In many cases this has hindered the definition of the evolution of the volcanism in each area, thereby generating uncertainty around the relative age of volcanic episodes and recurrence cycles. It also complicates any comprehensive hazard assessment in these areas, some of which have been active into Mid-Holocene.

One of the least studied of these recent European volcanic areas is the Catalan Volcanic Zone (Martí et al., 1992) located in the northeast of the Iberian Peninsula. Its activity started over 12 Ma ago and continued until the early Holocene. The Quaternary La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (GVF)

(Martí et al., 2011) is the youngest (Middle Pleistocene to early Holocene) and best preserved of these volcanic areas. However, its surface outcrops are just part of the complex geology that has been constructed during the over 700 ka of intermittent volcanism in this area. In this paper we present a comprehensive volcanic stratigraphy of the GVF. This work is based on ten years of systematic recognition and characterisation of all ephemeral outcrops exposed on construction sites and data from all new wells and geotechnical boreholes. Geological data have been complemented with results from recent geophysical studies on the substrate geology of the GVF (Bolós et al., 2012, in press; Barde-Cabusson et al., 2013, 2014;), in order to obtain a more precise picture of the subsoil geology of the area and to better define the corresponding stratigraphic relationships. We describe the results obtained and discuss their implications for the study of the evolution of this volcanic area and for assessing potential hazard and tephrochronological correlations in the area.

Geological setting

Situated in the northeast of the Iberian Peninsula, the Garrotxa Volcanic Field (GVF) is part of the Catalan Volcanic Zone and one of the provinces of the Neogene–Quaternary alkaline volcanism associated with the European rift system. It covers about 600 km² and is located between the cities of Olot and Girona (Fig. 1). This basaltic volcanic field contains over 50 cones (including both cinder and scoria cones), lava flows, tuff rings and maars dating from the Middle Pleistocene to early Holocene that rest on upper Palaeozoic granites and schists, or on sedimentary Eocene and Quaternary subtracts. Available petrological and geochemical data indicate that the products of this volcanic region range from strongly silica-undersaturated to nearly silica-saturated compositions (Araña et al., 1983; López-Ruiz and Rodríguez-Badiola, 1985; Cebriá et al., 2000; Martí et al., 1992). This region comprises a suite of intracontinental leucite, basanites, nepheline basanites and alkali olivine basalts, which in most cases represent primary or nearly primary liquids (Cebriá et al., 2000). The geochemical characteristics of these lavas are very similar to the analogous petrologic types of other Cenozoic volcanics of Europe, which are intermediate between HIMU, DM and EM1

92 (Cebriá et al., 2000; Downes, 2001).

The GVF embraces two geographically distinct zones, the larger one located in the north in the area of La Garrotxa and a southerly area that contains fewer but larger and more complex volcanic edifices (Martí et al., 2011) (Fig. 1). Although both corresponding to tectonically controlled depressions, the northern zone has a substrate of thick layers of Tertiary and Quaternary sediments, whereas the southern zone is floored by unconsolidated Quaternary sediments in combination with the Palaeozoic basement.

Volcanic activity in the GVF is characterised by numerous small cinder cones built during short-lived monogenetic eruptions along tectonic related volcanic fissures. The total volume of extruded magma in each eruption was between 0.01 and 0.2 km³ (DRE). Strombolian and phreatomagmatic episodes alternated in most of these eruptions and gave rise to complex stratigraphic sequences composed of a broad range of pyroclastic deposits (Martí et al., 2011; Cimarelli et al., 2013). The eruption sequences differ from one cone to another and demonstrate that the eruptions did not follow a common pattern, particularly in cases of magma/water interaction. This complex eruptive behaviour may be related to the differing stratigraphic, structural and hydrogeological characteristics of the substrate below each volcano rather than to any differences in the physicochemistry of the erupting magmas, which are generally fairly homogeneous throughout the GVF (Martí et al., 2011).

The eruptive fissures that controlled the volcanic activity in the GVF correspond to NNW-SSE and NNE-SSW oriented Neogene tectonic structures (Cimarelli et al., 2013; Barde-Cabusson et al., 2013, 2014; Bolós et al., in press). This suggests that the ascent and eruption of the magmas originated at the base of the lithosphere (Martí et al., 1992) was guided by the same regional faults system that bound the area's horsts and grabens. This explains the high magma ascent velocities (0.2m/s) found in these volcanic materials, which together with the presence of mantle xenoliths and lower crust cumulates suggest that some of the eruptive fissures and faults extended to the base of the lithosphere (Martí et al., 1992).

An important part of the northern zone of the GVF now lies underneath the city of Olot (almost 40,000 inhabitants), a highly industrialised and urbanised area covering about 30 km². The deposits of the five recent volcanic cones (Montolivet, Montsacopa, La Garrinada, Bisaroques and Ca l'Isidret) located in the middle of the city (Fig. 2) have been partially covered by or removed due to urban and industrial construction. Furthermore, a dense carpet of vegetation covers other parts of the GVF and thus the surface geology of the area is not always visible. Traditionally, these factors have hampered geological mapping and stratigraphic correlations and in part explain the incomplete knowledge of the volcanological evolution of this area.

Methodology

The lack of continuous outcrops due to partial erosion of the deposits, coverage by younger products and/or human-induced modification of terrains due construction activities, as well as the apparent similarity of most of these deposits, mean that stratigraphic correlation and the determination of the relative ages of these outcrops is not a straightforward task. To sort out these limitations we carried out extensive fieldwork including the study of ephemeral outcrops and the stratigraphic logging of water wells and geotechnical drill holes (Fig. 3). In addition, we also considered the existing information gathered by recent geophysical studies that have applied shallow geophysical methods to establish the substrate geology of the GVF (Bolós et al., 2012, in press; Barde-Cabusson et al., 2013, 2014). Finally, we also used basic petrology and geochemistry including mineral chemistry to identify possible fingerprints that could establish a precise correlation between these deposits and determine their relative stratigraphy, as it has been done in similar studies (e.g.: García et al., 2014). However, in this case the results obtained were not relevant to establish a systematic distinction of deposits from different eruptions based on petrological criteria, so these results were not considered to establish our volcanic stratigraphy and are not presented in this study. The use of precise petrological fingerprints with this type of volcanic rock would require a much more detailed petrological study, which is beyond the main purpose of

this study.

We used as a reference the geological 1:25,000-scale maps of the Catalan Geological Survey (IGC, 2003, 2007), which were substantially modified by the new data obtained in this work. A shape file containing the new digital geological maps was combined with a 2-m resolution DEM of the area using an open GIS platform (QGIS) to obtain a graphic representation of the volcanic stratigraphy of the area. The legend of the maps includes the relative stratigraphy of the different mappable units that were identified.

Field geology consisted of a revision of the existing geological maps and the remapping of certain areas at different scales (1:5000 and 1:1000) using as a basis the topographic maps and orthophotographs produced by the Catalan Geographic Institute (www.icc.cat). These resources permitted us to identify most of the characteristics of the surface geology and, in particular, the contact between the volcanic and non-volcanic units, the superficial extent of the volcanic units, the direction of emplacement and position of vents, and a number of volcanic-related structural lineations.

Fieldwork was completed via the study of ephemeral outcrops (Fig. 4) and the stratigraphic logging of water wells and geotechnical drill holes (Fig. 3), which also provided information on the subsoil geology. Construction in built-up areas occasionally exposes new outcrops and large stratigraphic sections. However, the temporary nature of these outcrops is an important drawback and if they are not documented immediately they run the risk of being quickly lost. The same applies to geotechnical boreholes and wells. This information is frequently poorly recorded and often lost among the myriad of documents handled by local administrative bodies.

Over the previous ten years we systematically studied most of the ephemeral outcrops in the GVF created by urban, industrial and infrastructure construction, as well as new water wells and geotechnical boreholes. In all, we described and catalogued almost 100 ephemeral outcrops (Fig. 3). The methodology applied consisted of three different steps that were followed in all cases. First, we designed a series of data sheets or templates for the systematic description of each ephemeral

outcrop (Fig. 5) with space for notes on a series of variables including outcrop code, type of construction work, name of reviewer of the outcrop, location (UTM coordinates), a detailed field description, photographs, geological cross-sections, a stratigraphic column, an interpretation of the outcrop in the general geological context of the area, and other relevant observations. Second, we maintained close links with local authorities and the Catalan Geological Survey to ensure that we were warned well in advance of any new construction work in the area or any new wells or boreholes. We also developed a protocol for obtaining information from any public construction work planned at national level that was to be carried out in the study area. Lastly, all the information obtained was incorporated into a geographical database developed using an open-access GIS platform (QGIS, www.qgis.org). A shape file containing all the new digital geological map sections was created with a 2-m-resolution DEM of the area.

During the period of data collection we conducted stratigraphic logging of the geotechnical boreholes and water wells included in this study directly at each site during drilling operations. This allowed us to identify the different stratigraphic units and to obtain samples that were later studied at the laboratory. In most cases only cuttings were obtained from the drilling operations but they permitted to identify the different stratigraphic units with a high degree of accuracy. Also, we revised and incorporated, when relevant, information from previous boreholes recorded and classified by the Catalan Geological Survey.

The criteria used to establish the relative stratigraphy of the volcanic units were their field relationships, the stratigraphic relationships observed in boreholes and wells, morphometry-based relative dating using the degradation of volcanic cones (see Kereszturi et al., 2013), paleomagnetic correlations (Ll. Planagumà, unpublished data), the degree of alteration (weathering) of the volcanic materials, the presence of interbedded fluvial terraces, and absolute dates (if available). To estimate the volume of the deposits corresponding to the products of each eruption we took into account their spatial distribution and thickness variations. We measured in the laboratory densities from field samples from all types of volcanic materials (lavas, scoria, lapilli size pyroclasts, juvenile fragments

in PDC deposits) and obtained an average density for each type. Then, the calculated volumes where converted into Dense Rock Equivalent volumes using a density of 2,53 for the magma that we obtained from a glass made from a natural sample (Croscat lava flow) and applying the equation: DRE (km3) = volume of volcanic deposit (km3) * density of volcanic deposit (kg/m3) / magma density (kg/m3), for each type of deposit belonging to the same eruption and then adding all the values to obtain the total volume in DRE for each eruption.

To complement the geological information obtained from the field studies, we also took into account the available geophysical information of the area, including gravity data, self-potential (SP) maps and electrical resistivity tomography (ERT), obtained in previous studies by the same working group (Bolós et al., 2012; in press; Barde-Cabusson et al., 2013, 2014). The combined interpretation of the geological and geophysical data provided detailed information on the internal structure of certain volcanic cones and the stratigraphy and shallow structure of the substrate on which the volcanoes were emplaced.

210 Volcanic stratigraphy vs. conventional stratigraphy

Before presenting and discussing the results of this study it is worthwhile first analysing the stratigraphic criteria used in this work. One of the key questions in understanding the evolution of an active volcano or a recent volcanic field is the volcanic stratigraphy, that is, the stratigraphic and chronological order in which the products of each eruption appear in the geological record. Volcanic stratigraphy is an essential part of field studies in volcanic areas everywhere and is necessary for generating geological maps, reconstructing the volcanological evolution and eruptive dynamics, and studying the physical volcanology and tephrostratigraphy (Connor, 1990; Nemeth et al., 2001, 2012; Palladino et al., 2010; Branca et al., 2011; Guillbaud et al., 2011; Groppelli and Martí, 2013).

Fisher and Schmincke (1984) proposed the use of volcanic activity units combining stratigraphic and volcanological criteria, a method that has the advantage of directly linking

volcanic activity with the resulting stratigraphic record; the main unit is considered to be the

individual eruption (Member) (Table 1). Another advantage of volcanic stratigraphic units is that they are very useful for understanding the eruptive dynamics of a given eruption or set of eruptions. However, they do not take into account inter-eruptive phenomena (e.g. debris flow, lahars, etc.), which may represent important elements in the life of a volcano and can have important chronological implications (Groppelli and Martí, 2013). Instead of this some authors (e.g. Groppelli et al., 2005; Giordano et al., 2010; Palladino et al., 2010; Branca et al., 2011; Cimarelli et al., 2013) prefer to use unconformity related units (synthems) in the study of volcanic successions. These type of stratigraphic units, initially defined by Chang (1975) and Salvador (1987) for sedimentary terrains, enable the time evolution of a volcanic area to be correlated with geological events acting on local, regional or global scales; an example would be the correlation of the timing and styles of volcanism in a volcanic province with regional tectonics (Palladino et al., 2010). In a similar way, volcanic activity may lead to the incorporation of a large amount of debris into a sedimentary system, thereby changing its dynamics and the sedimentation vs. erosional rates (Smith, 1991). All this may create normally low-rank unconformities in the stratigraphic record of an area that correspond to distinct volcanological-geological events. However, unconformity based units often show non-isochronous boundaries. This is the reason why geological units, members, formations and groups are preferred in many volcano-stratigraphic studies and also in this study.

In the GVF the recorded volcanism dates from the Middle Pleistocene to the early Holocene (Araña et al., 1983; Guerin et al., 1985; Lewis et al., 2000). During this period no significant geological changes have been recorded in the region (Martí et al., 1992) and so the observed stratigraphic unconformities are very local in scale and due to the irregular emplacement of volcanic products and not to any more widespread geological changes. In addition to this, the lack of geochronological data hampers the identification of groups of volcanic eruptions that could have occurred during the same time interval. For these reasons, we chose to use the formal volcanostratigraphic unit member - in the sense defined by Fisher and Schminke (1984) – and mapped the eruptive units associated with each of the volcanic structures of this field.

Using the member as the fundamental volcano-stratigraphic unit we grouped all the products of a single eruption into the same stratigraphic member and distinguished each one from those pertaining to other eruptions or members. In each member, we distinguished different units corresponding to the products of the different pulses of a single eruption. This permitted us to characterise the eruption sequences and their mechanisms and understand how volcanism evolved with time; this in turn enabled us to identify any changes in the eruption style, the location of the vents, the size of the eruptions, the characteristics of their products, and their relative stratigraphy (age) and areal extent (Figs. 4 and 5). The information provided in this format is crucial not only for understanding the evolution of this volcanic area but also for the description of any potential hazards.

Results

The main outcome of this study is a new digital volcano-stratigraphic map of the GVF at scale 1:2000, which is summarised in Figs. 6 and 7. These new volcano-stratigraphic framework complements a previous study focused on the description of the successions of deposits characteristic of the GVF volcanoes (Martí et al., 2011), and improves the recent stratigraphy proposed by Cimarelli et al., 2013, which is based on different stratigraphic criteria (synthoms) and is partially incomplete due to the lack of subsoil information and that from the ephemeral outcrops.

Table 2 summarises all the stratigraphic members (55 in all) that were identified in this study. The members are placed from the youngest (top) to the oldest (bottom) according to their relative stratigraphy (Fig. 8). Also given is an indication of whether the age is relative (i.e. it was established on the basis of observable stratigraphic relationships) or absolute (i.e. a geochronological – isotopic or paleontologic – date is available), as well as the corresponding reference source and the calculated erupted volumes (in Dense Rock Equivalent, DRE) when available.

The precision in establishing the stratigraphic relationships between the volcanic materials

studied decreased progressively with their age, as the younger materials were better exposed and preserved, and located at shallower depths than the older ones, which were often only accessible through boreholes and wells or deep ephemeral outcrops. Due to the incomplete exposure some of the older units could have been missed. However, the systematics used in the construction of this volcanic stratigraphy will allow the incorporation of new stratigraphic units or the modification of their relative stratigraphic position in an easy way and without disturbing the rest of the information included.

When the source area or vent of the different volcano-stratigraphic units or members was plotted on a structural map of the area with the successive numbers of their relative ages (1 for the youngest, 55 for the oldest) indicated (Fig. 9), it becomes evident that most members are located on NNW-SSE-oriented Neogene fractures and faults, thereby confirming the findings of other authors (Martí et al., 2011; Cimarelli et al., 2013; Barde-Cabusson et al., 2014; Bolós et al., in press). These members have a rather scattered time-space distribution, albeit with a tendency for older eruptions (Middle Pleistocene) to be concentrated towards the north of the area. However, we observed no structural indicator that could suggest a similar tendency in the Neogene faults as suggested by Cimarelli et al (2013). Some of the eruptions developed in multiple phases and with multiple vents along the same eruption fissure (Martí et al., 2011), and are thus responsible for some of the clusters of vents that appear in Fig 8. However, a comparison of the different eruptions failed to identify any apparent concentration of vents at any specific location or at any specific time.

The volcanic materials of the studied stratigraphic units consist of lava flows and different types of fallout and pyroclastic density current deposits derived from Strombolian and phreatomagmatic eruptions. Martí et al. (2011) pointed out that different eruption sequences, corresponding either to purely magmatic or phreatomagmatic episodes and alternating Strombolian and phreatomagmatic phases, characterise the volcanoes of La Garrotxa. However, they did not identified neither the spatial relationships among the products of the different eruptions nor their relative stratigraphy. Our field stratigraphic study did not reveal any apparent time or space

variation in the style of volcanism, thereby suggesting that differences in eruptive behaviour could be related to local variations in the characteristics (e.g. hydrogeology) of the substrate rather than to geological changes on a major scale.

The calculated volumes shown in Table 2 are all minimum estimates of the DRE and represent the minimum volume of magma erupted in each case and, consequently, the magnitude of the eruption. Not all calculated volumes have the same degree of accuracy, since not all deposits are completely exposed. This implies that the record presented here is incomplete and should be treated with care if used in further studies. The volumes obtained lie between 0.01–0.03 km³. However, a few eruptions (Croscat (2), Puig Subià (18), Crosa de Sant Dalmai (21), Puig de Banya del Boc (32), Garrinada (35), Puig d'Àdri (45) and Puig de l'Ós (51)) generated larger volumes, up to 0.2 km³, in the case of Croscat.

Other important results derive from this stratigraphic study at a more local and detailed level. The use of ephemeral outcrops, wells and boreholes (this work), in combination with results from the application of shallow geophysical methods (Bolós et al., 2012, in press; Barde-Cabusson, et al., 2013, 2014), permitted to obtain the volcanic stratigraphy of the highly urbanised – and, consequently, with a poorly exposed geology – area of Olot (Fig. 9), thus improving previous maps (Mallarach, 1982; IGC, 2003, 2007; Cimarelli et al., 2013) that could not show the same degree of detail. In this sector of the GVF we found very complex stratigraphic relationships between the city's five volcanic cones (Garrinada, Montsacopa, Bisaroques, Ca l'Isidret and Montolivet) (Fig. 10). In previous studies based on the surface geology observable in this built-up area, three of these volcanoes (Montolivet, Garrinada and Montsacopa) were assumed to belong either to the same eruption (Calderón et al, 1906; Sant Miguel de la Cámara and Marcet Riba, 1926; Mallarach and Riera, 1981) or to different eruptions occurring along the same NE-SW fracture (Gisbert et al., 2009). Our study reveals that, in fact, each cone corresponds to a different eruption, all of which are situated along NNW-SSE-oriented fissures. The study of the ephemeral outcrops enabled us to identify the stratigraphic relationships between deposits and discover that each succession of

deposits was separated from the next by stratigraphic discontinuities (i.e. erosion surfaces, and paleosoils), which suggest that several thousand years elapsed between each eruption. The oldest of these volcanoes is now thought to be La Garrinada and the youngest Montolivet. In addition, we identified a previously unrevealed volcanic cone (Ca l'Isidret) that formed from a separate vent during the eruption of the Bisaroques volcano (Fig. 10). The volcanic fissures that formed these five cones run all in a NNW-SSE direction, as do most of the other eruptive fissures identified in this study.

Moreover, in the case of La Garrinada, we used an ephemeral outcrop to complete the stratigraphic sequence partially established by Gisbert et al. (2009), thus providing better constraints to interpret its eruption sequence. Also, the study of 30 ephemeral outcrops around Montsacopa (Fig. 11), combined with a revision of existing conventional outcrops, enabled us to identify the different vents and products generated during its construction, not envisaged in previous studies (e.g.: Martí et al., 2011; Cimarelli et al., 2013). The construction of this volcano resulted from a multivent fissural eruption. In total we identified up to five different vents on Montsacopa: a central cone and crater, which was the only previously known cone, two other vents whose products are mostly covered by those emitted from the main crater, and scoria deposits that were generated by two further vents. This multivent eruption included Strombolian and phreatomagmatic phases that generated a large variety of deposits including fallout, ballistic ejecta, pyroclastic density currents and lava flows (Fig. 10).

Another example of complex multivent fissure fed eruption is illustrated by two of the largest volcanoes in the GVF, Croscat and Santa Margarida (Figs. 8 and 12). Our results confirm what was envisaged by Martí et al (2011) in the sense these two volcanoes, together with La Pomareda scoria vent, formed during the same eruption along the same fissure and showing very different eruption dynamics. The data obtained in this study from two boreholes and one ephemeral outcrop confirm the existence of a phreatomagmatic ash layer formed during the opening phase of the Santa Margarida crater, which is conformably underlying La Pomareda and Croscat successions.

This ash layer lies on a thick paleosoil, thus indicating the existence in this area of a significant temporal interruption of volcanic activity before this last eruption. These boreholes also show the existence of more than 100 m of pyroclastic materials from La Pomareda and Croscat not exposed at surface, and how the La Pomareda scoria conformably underlies the Croscat succession (Fig. 8), mostly formed by an initial scoria and a thick sequence of lapilli size fallout, which mostly extend towards the east, conformably overlying the Santa Margarida crater and deposits. These conformable stratigraphic relationships and the absence of paleosoils or erosion surfaces between the deposits suggest that these three vents, in fact, formed during the same eruption.

Discussion and conclusions

The study of ephemeral outcrops and the stratigraphic logging of water wells and geotechnical drill holes, combined with surface geology and results from shallow geophysical studies, proves to be an efficient way of reconstructing the geology and volcanic stratigraphy of recent volcanic fields and, in particular, of highly urbanised areas in which increasing construction and the occupation of the soil hamper direct observation. The pioneering work conducted in La Garrotxa Volcanic Field, studying and cataloguing all new ephemeral outcrops and water wells and geotechnical boreholes (almost 100) over a period of ten years, has enabled us to (i) establish a detailed stratigraphy of the whole volcanic succession, from the Middle Pleistocene to the early Holocene, (ii) complete a detailed volcanological map of this volcanic field (which includes the city of Olot), and (iii) reinterpret a number of eruptive events. Likewise, our knowledge of the relative geochronology and extension of the most recent volcanic deposits has also improved. Despite revealing no clear pattern of the time-space evolution of this volcanism without a more precise statistical analysis, a concentration of the oldest eruptions towards the north and east of the area can be inferred from the results. Most of the volcanic eruptions (members) identified in this study concentrate in what we refer to as the northern sector of the GVF (Fig. 6) and far fewer are found in the southern sector (Fig. 7). This difference in the concentrations of the volcanic vents between the

two sectors is not time-controlled since eruptions of similar ages have occurred in both sectors (see Table 2).

Despite their complexity, we observed no major geological changes in the area that could justify the stratigraphic relationships in the volcanic materials of the GVF. We attribute all the observed stratigraphic discontinuities and unconformities to either minor, inter-eruptive and syneruptive erosional and depositional episodes, to non-depositional hiatus corresponding to the non-uniform aerial distribution of the volcanic materials erupting from the vents, or – above all – to the fact that volcanic materials do not always emplace according to the principle of superposition, in particular when younger materials emplace on deeply eroded older ones. The style of the volcanism does not show any significant variation along the stratigraphic succession. The differences observed in the deduced eruption sequences (e.g. the alternation of Strombolian and phreatomagmatic phases) (see Martí et al 2011 and Cimarelli et al 2013) of the different members should be interpreted as due to local variations in the characteristics of the substrate rather than to any geological changes on a major scale. Similarly, the volume of erupted magma in those cases for which it could be calculated is mostly of the order of 0.02 km³ ± 0.01, which indicates that most of the eruptions were low magnitude monogenetic eruptions. The trends and outliers observed in these estimated volumes require a more detailed investigation that was beyond the scope of this study.

At a more detailed level, the results obtained help demonstrate the importance of access to the subsoil geology if a correct interpretation of such a complex stratigraphic succession, marked by multiple but relatively small and irregularly distributed depositional (and erosional) events, is to be attempted; this is the case of many Quaternary monogenetic volcanic fields and, in particular, in highly urbanised areas. In this study we were able to identify the volcanic stratigraphy buried below the city of Olot and other sectors of the volcanic field, thereby providing a correct interpretation that previously had always depended on incomplete observations. This complicates the reconstruction of the eruption dynamics and may induce significant miscalculations in hazard assessments due to errors in the inferred eruptive scenarios resulting from a lack of geological information from built-

404 up areas.

In conclusion, the proposed volcanic stratigraphy offers the basis on which to built further studies on the GVF. It also provides a precise reference for the Quaternary tephrochronology of the lake sediments in neighbouring areas. The role of these studies in the reconstruction of the palaeoclimate histories is important to understand sedimentological variability and climate change. In the case of northeastern Iberian Peninsula the presence of Late Pleistocene tephra layers coming from the GVF in some lake sediments (e.g. Höbig et al., 2012) help to establish stratigraphic and geochronological markers. A precise correlation with eruptive episodes identified in this study will provide a constraint for the Pleistocene evolution of this area, but will also contribute to better estimate the size of these eruption by characterising more precisely their areal extend and volume of erupted magma. Finally, studies like this one represent a step forward in the preservation of the geological heritage of areas such as the GVF, by providing the basic knowledge on their evolution but also by enhancing the importance of their geological values in front of potential threats imposed by the demographic expansion of modern societies.

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624	Table 1. Volcanic activity units and formal volcano-stratigraphic units (modified from Fisher and
625	Schmincke, 1984).
626	
627	Table 2. Volcanic stratigraphy of the La Garrotxa Volcanic Field. Source: (1) Burjachs (1983). C14
628	dating. (2) Guérin and Valladas (1980). Thermoluminiscence dating of volcanic plagioclases. (3)
629	Guerin i Benhamou (1985). Thermoluminiscence dating of volcanic plagioclases and K/Ar Isotopic
630	dating. (4) Bolós A. (1925). Relative dating by biostratigraphy. (5) Pedrazzi et al. (2014). U-Th and
631	C14 dating. (6) Mallarach, JM. (1981, 1982, 1998). Relative dating by stratigraphy. (7) Donville
632	(1973). K/Ar Isotopic dating. (8) Lewis, C (2000). Ar/Ar Isotopic dating. (9) Gòmez B. (personal
633	comunication, 2014) Thermoluminescence (TL) dating of sediments.

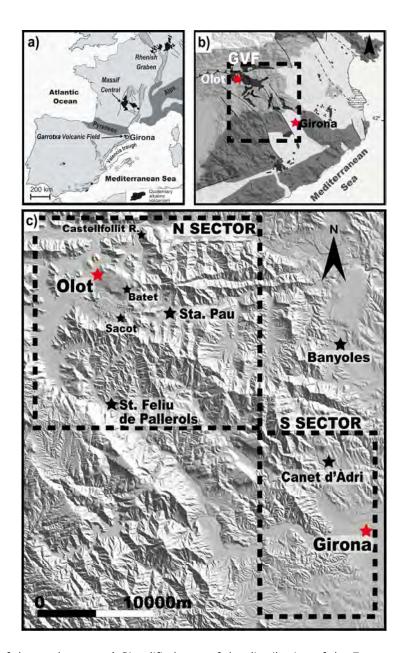


Figure 1. Map of the study area. a) Simplified map of the distribution of the European rift system. b) Simplified geological map of the Catalan Volcanic Zone (Modified from Guérin et al., 1985). c) Geographic distribution of the Garrotxa Quaternary volcanic field.

261x431mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 2. Aerial view of the city of Olot and its volcanic cones. 203x152mm (300 x 300 DPI)

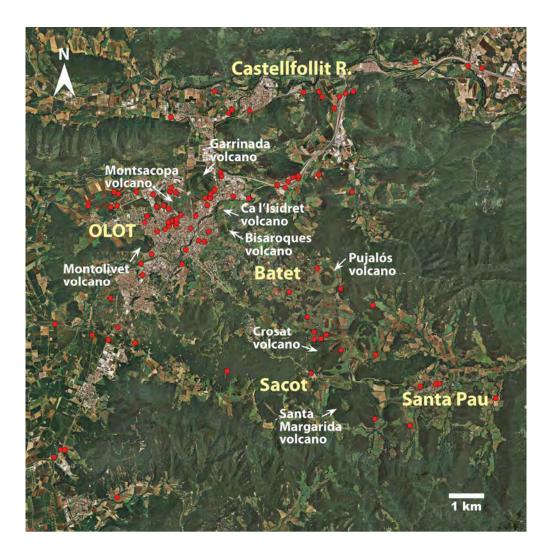


Figure 3. Location of the studied ephemeral outcrops, water wells and geotechnical drill holes. 147x149mm~(300~x~300~DPI)





Figure 4. Example of an ephemeral outcrop (left) from Montsacopa member, visible during the construction of a new building. $80x33mm (300 \times 300 DPI)$

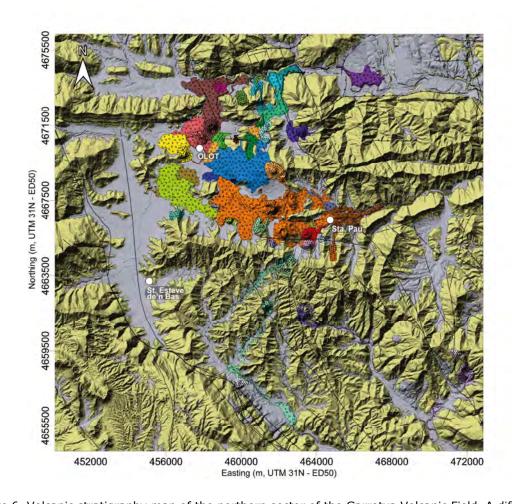


Figure 6. Volcanic stratigraphy map of the northern sector of the Garrotxa Volcanic Field. A different colour based on the RGB scale was assigned to each member and different kinds of hatching were used to indicate different types of deposits (PDCs, lava flows, fallout, etc.). Numbers correspond to the stratigraphic order of Table 2. Numbers missing in this legend correspond to non-mappable (i.e.: only observable in boreholes and wells) stratigraphic units.

204x193mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 6. Volcanic stratigraphy map of the northern sector of the Garrotxa Volcanic Field. A different colour based on the RGB scale was assigned to each member and different kinds of hatching were used to indicate different types of deposits (PDCs, lava flows, fallout, etc.). Numbers correspond to the stratigraphic order of Table 2. Numbers missing in this legend correspond to non-mappable (i.e.: only observable in boreholes and wells) stratigraphic units.

224x289mm (300 x 300 DPI)

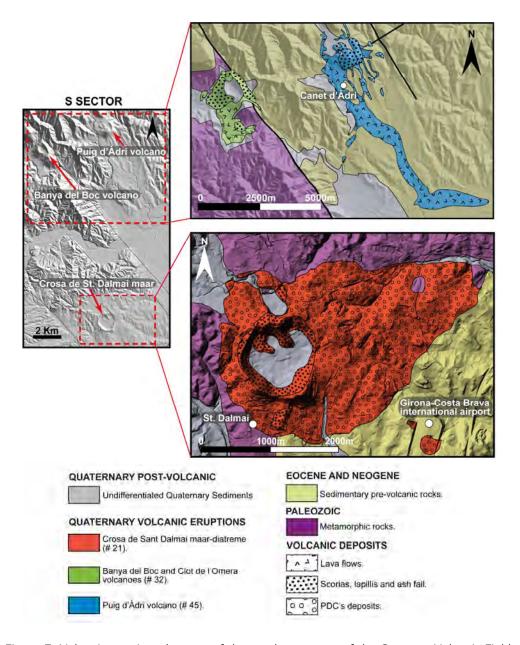


Figure 7. Volcanic stratigraphy map of the southern sector of the Garrotxa Volcanic Field. 243x308mm (300 x 300 DPI)

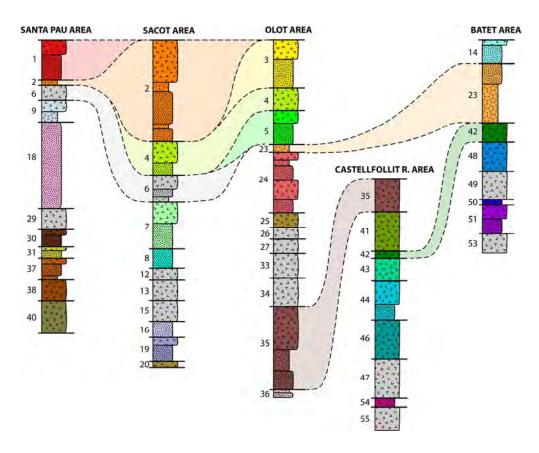


Figure 8. Correlation of the main stratigraphic members identified in the northern sector of the GVF. Colours of different units are the same than in Fig. 6. In grey, units not observable at surface (i.e.: only visible in boreholes and wells). Numbers of different members as listed in Table 2. See Figures 1 and 3 for location of the stratigraphic logs.

185x150mm (300 x 300 DPI)

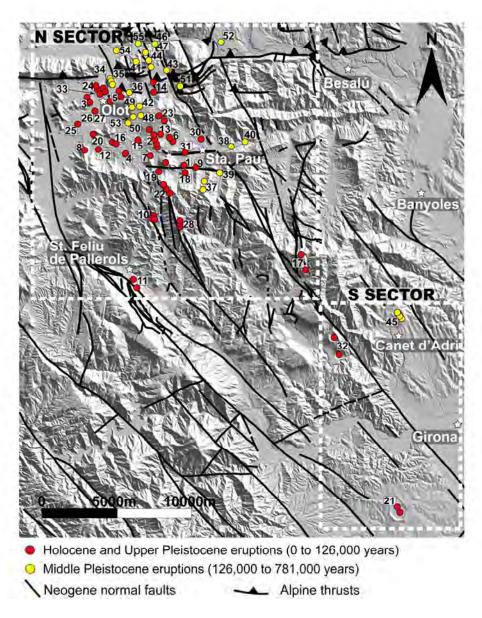


Figure 9. Map of the vents and source areas of the different eruptions (members) listed in Table 2. 225x272mm (300 x 300 DPI)

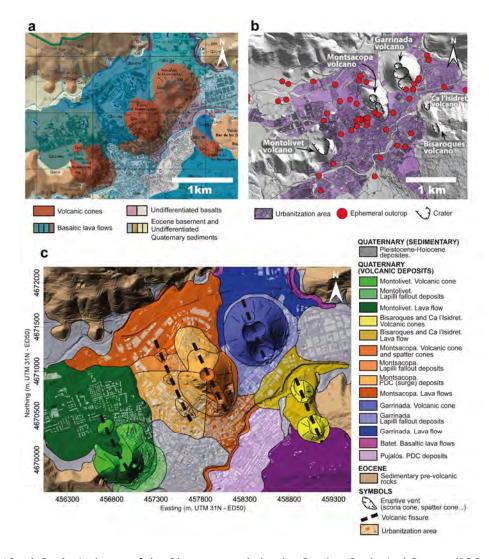


Figure 10. a) Geological map of the Olot area made by the Catalan Geological Survey (IGC, 2007). (b) Main urbanised area (violet colour) and location of the studied ephemeral outcrops and boreholes. c) New geological map of the Olot area made in this study.

217x224mm (300 x 300 DPI)

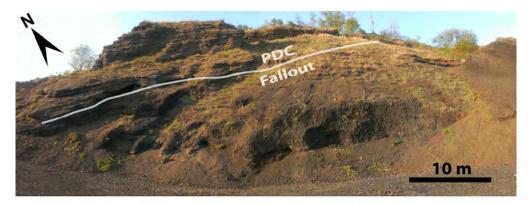




Figure 11. Field photographs showing Montsacopa deposits and their the stratigraphic relationships. Upper) Conformable contact between Strombolian (lapilli scoria) and phreatomagmatic (PDC) deposits from the main cone building phase of the Montsacopa eruption. Lower) Syn-eruptive succession formed by welded scoria (spatter) at the base and a lava flow on top erupted from a marginal vent with an intercalated distal fallout deposits from the main Montsacopa vent.

179x134mm (300 x 300 DPI)

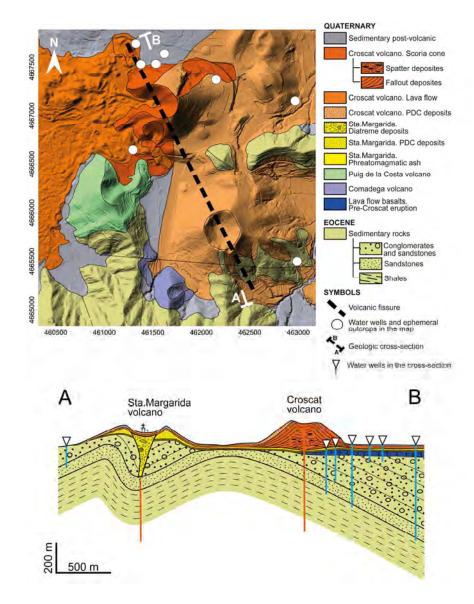


Figure 12. New geological map (this study) and cross section showing the stratigraphic correlation (modified from Martí et al. 2011) of the central sector of the Garrotxa Volcanic Field obtained through the study of ephemeral outcrops and the stratigraphic logging of wells.

240x270mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Volcanic Activity Units	Duration	Products and Volcanic Landforms	General Genetic designation	Volcano- stratigraphic Units (Formal units)
Eruptive pulse	seconds, minutes	Single airfall bed, PDC deposit, lahar, lava flow, etc	Eruption units (one or several beds, bedding sets, flows,)	Bed or level
Eruptive phase (several pulses)	minutes, hours, days	One or several deposits (several beds) of airfall, PDC, lava flows, lahars	One or several deposits (several beds) corresponding to a particular eruption dynamics	Unit
Eruption (several phases)	days, months, years	Succession of volcanic deposits of any nature (airfall, PDCs, lahars, lava flows, etc	Sequence of volcanic and related deposits formed during the same eruption	Member
Eruptive epoch (includes several eruptions and inter-eruptive - calm- episodes)	tens, hundreds or thousands of years	Single poligenetic volcanoes (stratovolcanoes, shield volcanoes, calderas, etc) or single monogenetic volcanic fields	Multiple members that may be grouped in cycles, depending on age, composition, eruptive style, etc	Formation
Eruptive period (includes several epochs and calm periods)	thousands or millions of years	Volcanic fields and regions consisting of many volcanoes and volcanic forms	Multiple Formations	Group

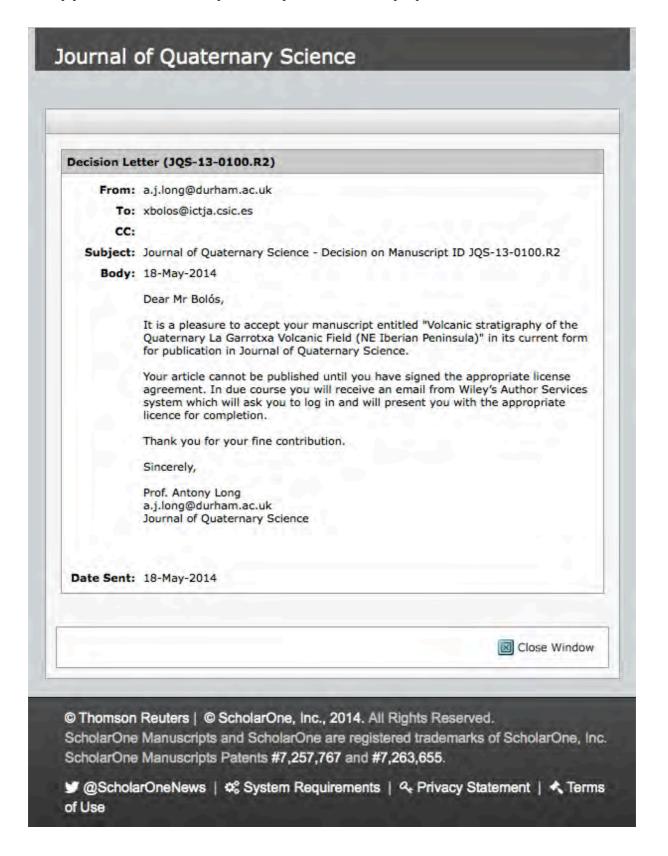
Time period	Relative Stratigraphy (from younger to older)	Age	Member	Source	Description	DRE (Km ³)
Holocene	1	Relative	Rocanegra volcano	(1)	These deposits overlie the Croscat volcano (# 2) phreatomagmatic deposits and are not covered by the Croscat volcano fallout.	0,01
	2	11.5 – 13 ka	Santa Margarida – Croscat – Pomareda eruptive fissure	(2) (3)		0,18
		Relative < 18000	Montolivet volcano	(4)	These deposits overlie those of Montsacopa volcano (# 24), which in turn overlay La Garrinada (# 35) volcano deposits.	0,02
		17.1 ka	Puig Jordà volcano	(2) (3)	Lava flow with rootless volcanoes, locally known as Bosc de Tosca.	0,03
		Relative	Bisaroques and Ca l'Isidret volcanoes		Young aspect and poorly eroded materials overlying La Garrinada (# 35) volcano deposits.	0,01
		Relative	Puig de Martinyà volcano		There is a paleosoil that separates these deposits from the Croscat volcano (# 2) deposits.	
Upper Pleistocene	7	Relative	Puig de la Costa volcano (Lava flow below Croscat volcano member (# 2)		Several lava flows were recognised in the Croscat borehole (see Figs. 8 and 12) below the Croscat and Puig Martinyà (# 6) deposits. The uppermost lava flow can be stratigraphically correlated with the Puig de la Costa volcano, so it should be younger than 30 ka.	
oer	8	Relative	Racó volcano			0,02
n d	9	28.1 ka	Simon volcano and Santa Pau lava flow	(2)	Santa Pau lava flow could be related to the Simon volcano according to its location and stratigraphic position.	
	10	30 to 46.3 ka	Traiter volcano	(2)		0,03
	11	Relative	Sant Marc and Puig Roig volcano			
		Relative	Lava flow below Bosc de Tosca		Appears underlying the Bosc de Tosca (Puig Jordà volcano (# 4)) lava flow and Racó volcano (# 8) deposits.	
	13	Relative	Pla de Massandell borehole upper lava flow			
	14	Relative (< 45 ka)	L'Estany and Bellaire volcanoes	(1)		0,02

15	Relative	Pla de Massandell borehole lower lava flow			
16	Relative	Cabriolers volcanoes			
17	Relative	Puig de Granollers volcano			0,03
18	Relative	Puig Subià volcano		Its deposits appear below the Santa Pau lava flow (# 9).	0.1 – 0.2
19	Relative	Comadega volcano		Underlying deposits from Croscat and Santa Margarida (# 2) and other volcanoes deposits in the Santa Pau area.	
20	Relative	La Moixina lava flow		·	
21	43 - 120 ka	Crosa de Sant Dalmai volcano	(1) (5)		0,13
22	73.5 ka	Fontpobra, Can Tià and Coll Tort volcanoes	(2)		0,03
23	Relative	Pujalós volcano			0,03-0.07
24	Relative	Volcà del Montsacopa		Its deposits overlay La Garrinada volcano (# 35) and are covered by thus from the Bisaroques and Ca l'Isidret volcanoes (# 5).	0.02-0.06
25	Relative	Pla de Llacs lava flow			
26	Relative	Pla d'Olot lava flow		Below Pla de Llacs (# 25). Only observable in boreholes.	
27	Relative	Pla d'Olot lava flows		Undetermined number of lava flows that fill the Olot depression.	
28	100 ka	Puig de les Medes and Puig Rodó volcanoes	(2)		0,02
29	Relative	Lava flow in borehole at Croscat northern flank			
30	110 ka	Pla de les Tries lava flow	(2)		
31	110 ka	Puig de Mar volcano	(6) (2) (7) (6) (2) (7)		
32	121 ka	Puig de la Banya del Boch and Clot de l'Omera volcanoes	(2)(3)		
	Relative	Olot 2 lava flow		Only observable in boreholes.	-
34	Relative	Olot 1 lava flow		Only observable in boreholes.	

Middle Pleistocene

35	133 ka	Garrinada volcano	(2) (8)		0,08
36	Relative	Bac de les Tries volcano		Deposits observable below la Garrinada volcano (# 35).	
37	Relative	Pla sa Ribera volcano			
38	Relative	Riu Ser lava flow 2		Appearing above the Riu Ser lava flow 1 (# 40).	
	Relative	Vall dels Arcs phreatomagmatic deposits		Underlying the Riu Ser lava flow 2 (# 39).	
	Relative	Riu Ser lava flow 1			
	150 ka	Sant Joan les Fonts lava flow and Aiguanegra volcano	(8)		
42	Relative	Sant Cosme lava flow (from Batet)		Above the Funoses lava flow (# 42).	
43	Relative	Les Funoses lava flow		Above the Castellfollit lava flows (# 46 and # 47).	
44	Relative	Cairat-Repàs-Claperols eruptive fissure			
45	168 ka	Puig d'Àdri volcano	(9)		0,09
46	192 ka	Castellfollit de la Roca upper lava flow	(8)		
47	217 ka	Castellfollit de la Roca lower lava flow	(8)		
48	Relative	Batet upper lava flows			
49	247 ka	Batet middle lava flows	(2)		
50	Relative	Barraca volcano		These products are covered by the Batet lavas (# 48 and # 49).	
	250 ka	Puig de l'Ós volcano	(8)		0,02
52	Relative	Sant Jaume de Llierca lava flow			
53	Relative	Batet lower lava flows		Lava flows identified in a borehole at the Batet high (Fig. 3).	
54	Relative	La Canya volcano			
55	590 – 700 ka	Sant Joan les Fonts lava flows	(8)	The oldest lava emission recognised in this volcanic field.	

Appendix 6.1. Acceptance proof of the paper



APPENDIX 7

Volcano-structural analysis of La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (NE of Iberia): implications on the plumbing system

Elsevier Editorial System(tm) for Tectonophysics Manuscript Draft

Manuscript Number:

Title: Volcano-structural analysis of La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (NE Iberia): implications for the plumbing system

Article Type: Research Paper

Keywords: Volcano-structural; Garrotxa Volcanic Field; monogenetic volcanism; magma ascent rates;

plumbing system

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Corresponding Author's Institution: ICTJA-CSIC

First Author: Xavier Bolós, M.D.

Order of Authors: Xavier Bolós, M.D.; Joan Martí; Laura Becerril; Llorenç Planagumà; Pablo Grosse; Stéphanie Barde-Cabusson

Abstract: The Garrotxa Volcanic Field is related to the Neogene-Quaternary European Rift system and is the youngest representation of monogenetic volcanism in the Iberian Peninsula. It encompasses over 50 well-preserved volcanoes in an area of about 600 km2 lying between the cities of Olot and Girona (NE Spain). In this paper we investigate the relationship between the Neogene extensional tectonics and the spatial distribution of the volcanoes in the area. The analysis includes the geostatistical distribution of faults, fissures and vents, as well as morpho-structural lineaments, and the morphometrical analysis of volcanic cones and craters. As well, we use the location of the regional seismicity registered since 1978 and the sites of freshwater springs and mantle-derived gases as indicators of active faults and open fractures. Finally, we consider the location of the volcanoes with ultramafic xenoliths as a way of identifying the deepest fractures in the zone and estimating magma ascent velocities. The results obtained show that this volcanic area consists of an extensional basin delimited by two principal faults that permitted the ascent of magma from either the source region or from shallower reservoirs located at the base of the crust. Towards the upper part of the crust, magma transport was captured by shallow extensional secondary faults whose formation is linked to the slight transtensional movement of the main bounding faults. Our study provides evidence of how the local stress field and contrasts in rheology could have controlled magma migration, which suggests that precise knowledge of the stress configuration and distribution of rheological and structural discontinuities in such regions is crucial in the forecasting of monogenetic volcanism.





Barcelona, May 23, 2014

Dear Editor of Tectonophysics,

Please find enclosed the manuscript entitled "Volcano-structural analysis of La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (NE Iberia): implications for the plumbing system", by Xavier Bolós, Joan Martí, Laura Becerril, Llorenç Planagumà, Pablo Grosse, Stéphanie Barde-Cabusson, which we would like to submit for publication to Tectonophysics.

This research paper focuses on the Quaternary La Garrotxa Volcanic Field, the youngest sector of the Catalan Volcanic Zone (NE of Spain), a still poorly known part of the European Volcanic Rifts System. We conducted a detailed volcano-structural analysis of this volcanic field, including geostatistical distribution of faults, fissures and vents, morpho-structural lineaments identified by remote sensing, a morphometrical analysis of the volcanic cones and craters, location of regional seismic events recorded in the area (since 1978), and mantle derived gases in springs and water wells, as a guide to identify active faults and open fractures and to define the structural controls of this volcanism. The results obtained from this paper have permitted to understand how magma was transported into the lithosphere and erupted at the surface, and represent an essential tool for a correct volcanic hazard assessment of this volcanic field.

The manuscript satisfies the Tectonophysics mission statement in the sense that it deals with an important, but still poorly studied, Quaternary volcanic episode in Europe, but also because it describes a methodology for establishing the tectonic controls and the origin of this monogenetic volcanism that will be useful for being applied to other areas with similar problems.

On behalf of the Authors

Sincerely,

Xavier Bolós

*Abstract

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Volcano-structural analysis of La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (NE Iberia):

implications for the plumbing system

Corresponding author: X. Bolós

Abstract

The Garrotxa Volcanic Field is related to the Neogene-Quaternary European Rift

system and is the youngest representation of monogenetic volcanism in the Iberian

Peninsula. It encompasses over 50 well-preserved volcanoes in an area of about 600

km² lying between the cities of Olot and Girona (NE Spain). In this paper we investigate

the relationship between the Neogene extensional tectonics and the spatial distribution

of the volcanoes in the area. The analysis includes the geostatistical distribution of

faults, fissures and vents, as well as morpho-structural lineaments, and the

morphometrical analysis of volcanic cones and craters. As well, we use the location of

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from shallower reservoirs located at the base of the crust. Towards the upper part of the

crust, magma transport was captured by shallow extensional secondary faults whose

formation is linked to the slight transtensional movement of the main bounding faults.

Our study provides evidence of how the local stress field and contrasts in rheology

could have controlled magma migration, which suggests that precise knowledge of the

stress configuration and distribution of rheological and structural discontinuities in such

regions is crucial in the forecasting of monogenetic volcanism.

Highlights (for review)

Volcano-structural analysis of La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (NE Iberia): implications for the plumbing system

Corresponding author: X. Bolós

HIGHLIGHTS

- Analyses of structural elements, vents, seismicity, freshwater springs and gases
- Xenoliths to identify the deepest fractures and estimate magma ascent velocities.
- Transtensional main faults determine spatial distribution of the Garrotxa volcanism
- Magma transport in the upper part crust is captured by extensional secondary faults

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Volcano-structural analysis of La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (NE Iberia):

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implication	s ior the p	numping	syst

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15 Abstract

17 The Garrotxa Volcanic Field is related to the Neogene-Quaternary European Rift system

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Keywords: Volcano-structural, Garrotxa Volcanic Field, monogenetic volcanism,

41 magma ascent rates, plumbing system

1. Introduction

Basaltic monogenetic volcanic fields related to rift zones are found world-over and are expressed on the Earth's surface by the alignments of pyroclastic cones and vents and parallel faults and eruptive fissures (Fiske and Jackson, 1972; Walker, 1999). A volcanic eruption signals the end of the process whereby magma rises from its source in the upper mantle to the surface (e.g. Brenna et al., 2011; McGee et al., 2011). The

final geometry of the magma pathway towards the surface is directly controlled by the stress field and always follows a path normal to the minimum stress and parallel to the maximum principal stress (Rubin, 1995; Connor and Conway, 2000; Gudmundsson and Philipp, 2006, Cebrià et al., 2011; Le Corvec et al., 2013). In monogenetic volcanic fields the distributions and magnitudes of different stress fields can be related to the tectonic and gravitational forces that, in turn, are linked to (a) basement geometry, (b) local topography, (c) stress changes occurring during dyke propagation, and (d) stress barriers related to structural discontinuities and rheological changes in stratigraphic successions (Gretener, 1969; Clemens and Mawer, 1992; Gudmundsson, 2003; Tibaldi, 2003; Acocella and Tibaldi, 2005; Gudmundsson and Philipp, 2006; Kavanagh et al., 2006; Tibaldi et al., 2014). Deciphering the potential pathways that magma uses to reach the surface is of crucial importance when conducting hazard assessment in volcanic areas.

The complexity of subsurface plumbing systems in monogenetic volcanic fields ensures that such systems are difficult to predict and rarely accessible for study and so other methods are needed for understanding the structural setting of a volcanic area and the pathways used by magma on its ascent to the Earth's surface. Over the last twenty years, several geophysical studies have been devoted to geostructural characterisations of the feeding systems of monogenetic volcanic areas (or, more generally, of active volcanic districts) (e.g. Nishi et al., 1996; Bibby et al., 1998; Di Maio et al., 1998, 2000; Portal et al., 2013; Blaikie et al 2014). In La Garrotxa Volcanic Field geophysical studies of this type have been conducted in recent years and have been successful in describing the stratigraphy of the area and the shallow structure beneath the volcanic deposits (Bolós et al., 2012, 2014a, 2014b; Barde-Cabusson et al., 2013, 2014). Results have confirmed in general terms that this volcanism is mainly controlled by NW-SE

faults that are the very faults that control the post-Alpine structural evolution of the area. However, the exact structural control and the role played by the major and subordinated faults in determining the distribution of vents and the frequency and size of the eruptions is not known.

In order to improve our understanding of the structural constraints of La Garrotxa volcanism we combined the results of these previous geophysical works with new volcano-structural analysis that includes data on the geostatistical distribution of faults, fissures and eruptive vents, the identification of morpho-structural lineaments by remote sensing, and a morphometrical analysis of the field's volcanic cones and craters. In addition, we took into account all of the epicentres of regional seismic events recorded by the Geological Survey of Catalonia (IGC) since 1978, as well as the distribution of CO₂-rich freshwater springs, and springs and wells with high radon levels, as a guide to active faults and open fractures, respectively. Finally, we analysed the distribution of upper mantle xenoliths and lower crust cumulates as an indication of the depth reached by certain fractures and faults, and used the largest of these enclaves to estimate magma ascent velocities. The data obtained was combined into a conceptual model describing how magma was transported from source to the surface in La Garrotxa Volcanic Field, which can bring some clues for such processes in other monogenetic volcanic fields.

2. Geological setting

Mafic alkaline volcanism is widely distributed along the European Cenozoic Rift System that comprises four main volcanic areas: the Rhenohercynian in Germany, the western Panonian Basin in Eastern Europe, the Massif Central in France and the Valencia Trough in Spain (Ziegler, 1992; Downes, 2001; Dèzes et al, 2004, Michon and Merle, 2005). The study area is part of the Valencia Trough, a NE-SW-oriented Neogene basin lying offshore between the Iberian Peninsula and the Balearic promontory in northeastern Spain (Fig. 1). The most important concentration of Middle Miocene-to-recent volcanism in the Valencia Trough is found in the Catalan Volcanic zone (CVZ) in the NE Iberian Peninsula (Martí et al., 1992; Martí et al., 2011). This area is characterised by a series of graben and horst structures that have controlled Neogene-Quaternary volcanism and sedimentation.

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The most recent episode in this volcanism corresponds to La Garrotxa Volcanic Field (GVF) (0.7 Ma to early Holocene) (Araña et al., 1983; Bolós et al., 2014b). This field covers an area of about 600 km² located between the cities of Olot and Girona (Fig. 1) and is bounded by two regional conjugated Neogene normal faults with a transtensional component (Goula et al., 1999; Olivera et al., 2003): the Amer Fault to the east and the Llorà Fault to the west. These two faults are responsible for the distribution of the area's volcanism, as well as its seismicity and fluvial network (Saula et al., 1996; Martí et al., 2011; Cimarelli et al., 2013; Barde-Cabusson et al 2014). The northern part of this volcanic field is limited by an E-W reverse fault system, which is not related to the subsequent magmatism. The GVF contains over 50 well-preserved cones, the main concentration being located in the northern sector of the area (Fig. 1). The morphologies of these volcanoes include cinder and scoria cones, spatter cones, tuff rings and maars, and in composition mainly correspond to basanites and alkaline basalts (Araña et al., 1983; Cebrià et al., 2000; Martí et al., 1992). Some volcanoes contain ultramafic to mafic xenoliths including pyroxenites, melanogabbros, amphibolites and spinel lherzolites, of which the pyroxenites are the most abundant (Llobera, 1983;

Neumann et al., 1999, Bianchini et al., 2007; Galán et al., 2008). Pressure and temperature estimates suggest that the pyroxenites, melanogabbros and amphibolites may have crystallised in magma chambers located at the crust–mantle boundary (Neumann et al., 1999), which, according to geophysical estimates, are located at a depth of ~30 km (Fernández et al., 1990; Gallart et al., 1984, 1991); on the other hand, the spinel lherzolites may derive from the source region in the asthenospheric mantle (Bianchini et al., 2007).

3. Methodology

New fieldwork and remote sensing analyses were conducted in order to identify and measure the main volcano-structural features such as vents lineaments, fissures and faults (Fig. 2). Structural mapping was performed with the software ArcGIS 10 by ESRI® at a scale of 1:5 000 using orthophotographs (1:2500), aerial photographs (1:18 000) and Digital Elevation Models (DEM; 5- and 2-m resolutions) produced by the Cartographic Institute of Catalonia (ICC; www.icc.cat). Geological maps produced by the Geological Survey of Spain and Geological Survey of Catalonia (IGME; 1:50 000, http://cuarzo.igme.es/sigeco/, 2011; IGC; 1:25 000; www.igc.cat) were also used. The morpho-tectonic analysis included the determination and comparison of lineaments obtained from orthophotomaps and different illumination-shaded relief DEMs, as well as a statistical analysis of the length and orientation of lineations. To avoid any artefact that could be attributed to the lighting direction of the DEM we used different lighting models. We also analysed the profile and direction of several streams and rivers in order

to detect abrupt changes in slope direction that could be related to tectonic movements (Fig. 3).

Eruptive vents were mapped as individual points of magma emission on the surface, which allowed us to delineate eruptive fissures corresponding to lines connecting volcanic vents opened during the same eruption (e.g. Tibaldi; 1995, Paulsen and Wilson, 2010; Becerril et al., 2013). Fieldwork allowed us to verify the number of existing vents and to check fissure lengths and strikes.

A morphometrical analysis of the most representative well-preserved volcanoes was also performed. We analysed a total of 28 cones and craters in both the northern and southern sectors of the GVF using a DEM with resolutions of 2 and 5 m, respectively. The cone and crater outlines were manually delimited by consulting slope breaks and geological maps. Morphometric parameters of each cone and crater were extracted using the MORVOLC program (Grosse et al., 2009, 2012). The following parameters were considered: (a) Ellipticity Index (EI) of the cone and crater outlines (EI is a measure of elongation equal to:

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$$EI=(PI*(L/2)^2)/A$$
 (1)

where L is the maximum/major outline axis and A is the outline area), (b) the average EI of the closed elevation contours (at 5 m equidistance) within the cone base, (c) the major axis azimuths of the cone and crater outlines, (d) the circular average azimuth of the major axes of the closed elevation contours within the cone, and (e) the calculated azimuth and direction of breaching in breached craters.

A statistical analysis based on the nearest-neighbour concept (see Cebrià et al., 2011) was applied to eruptive vents in order to obtain the angles of the lines that connect all pairs of eruptive vents. Previous studies have demonstrated that the main lineaments obtained from the union of eruptive vents can reveal stress field patterns

(Lutz, 1986; Cebrià et al., 2011). To carry out this analysis we considered lineaments of up to 12 km in maximum length, corresponding to the maximum distance between two eruptive vents inside the northern sector. We choose this sector since it has the major concentration of volcanoes (Fig. 4).

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No outcropping dykes were identified in the studied area due to its recent age and lack of significant erosion. However, several feeder dykes hidden by their own deposits were identified using Electric Resistivity Tomography (Bolós et al., 2012, 2014a). Preliminary interpretations of geological maps were carried out in order to compile and to check previous mapped faults (IGC and IGME geological maps) and to identify new ones. Stress patterns were also obtained from the drainage network map extracted using a DEM spatial analysis. Rose diagrams of fissures, faults and drainage networks were performed with the software Stereonet 8.8.4 (Cardozo and Allmendinger, 2013). We also took into account the distribution of the main freshwater springs existing in the study area (Fig. 5) to indicate the presence of open fractures and faults. We georeferenced a total of 254 springs shown on the topographic maps of the Catalan Geographic Institute (www.icc.cat), along with others identified during fieldwork. High concentrations of endogenous gases (i.e. radon, CO₂) in freshwater springs are assumed to indicate the presence of deep fractures with high permeability values (Wattananikorn et al., 1998; Kresic, 2010), which is this case where they are directly linked to active Quaternary faults (Zarroca et al., 2012). In a small part of the study area (southern sector; 463216, 4646403 (UTM 31N - ED50)) we also used 12 measurements of CO₂ in freshwater springs taken by Zarroca et al. (2012). In the northern part of the study area (449194, 4662424 (UTM 31N - ED50)), Moreno et al. (2014) catalogued 53 groundwater radon measurements in water wells and springs. All these data were incorporated into a database and are presented in this work, together with data from other springs (Fig. 5).

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The location of seismic events was also incorporated into the dataset used in this study (Fig. 6). Although seismic events are not that abundant in the northeastern part of the Iberian Peninsula, it was possible to collect accurate data regarding the earthquakes recorded since 1978 by the Geological Survey of Catalonia (www.igc.cat). This data provides information regarding the current tectonic stresses in the GVF. We compiled the location, depth and magnitude of the seismic events; locations of seismic events were represented on the structural map. The average distance between seismic stations is 30 km and data pertaining to earthquakes located within this network have an accuracy of 2–3 km for epicentres and 5 km for depths (Goula et al., 1999).

The presence of upper-mantle and lower-crust xenoliths in volcanic products has been used as an indicator of the depth of magma pathways and to estimate magma ascent velocities par s et al. pera suc hiyama achs and gel, 1998; Mattsson 2012; Jankovics et al., 2013). In this study we tange lu mapped the distribution of the volcanoes containing lower-crust xenoliths, mantlederived xenoliths or both (Fig. 7) as a way of estimating the depth of the fractures and faults through which magma is transported to the surface. Calculations of magma ascent velocities were made on the basis of the assumption that magma (melt) was - in rheological and petrological terms – similar throughout the study area (i.e. basalts and basanites) (Araña et al., 1983; Cebriá et al., 2000; Martí et al., 1992), although the distribution of xenoliths does in fact vary. In addition, we assumed that during its ascent the magma did not undergo any significant temperature variations, as has been suggested by Cimarelli et al. (2012), and that its rheology was close to that of a Newtonian fluid, as should occur in the case of a magma of this composition with a crystal content of less than 15% (see Vona et al, 2011). With these assumptions in mind,

we applied the method of Spera (1980, 1984), which defines:

$$Re_{n} = \frac{\rho_{1} u_{n} u_{n}}{\eta_{1}} \tag{2}$$

$$u_n = \left(\frac{a\kappa_n\Delta\rho_B}{ac_{d\rho_1}}\right)^{1/2} \tag{3}$$

where η_1 , u_n , R_u , $\Delta \rho$, ρ_1 , g and C_d represent the Newtonian viscosity, nodule settling velocity, radius, density difference between melt and xenolith, density of melt, gravity value, and drag coefficient, respectively. C_d is related to the nodule settling velocity and hence to Re_n . For our samples we considered $Re_n > 0.1$ and therefore we applied:

$$C_d = 18Re_n^{-3/5} \tag{4}$$

In order to estimate the minimum ascent rate we took into account the maximum size of xenoliths found in the area. The density of the melt was measured from natural rock glass by remelting a representative sample in a Pt crucible at 1400° C for 5 hours in an open atmosphere to remove vesiculation. The density obtained was 2.53 g/cm³. Finally, we used the method of Vona et al. (2011) to estimate the viscosity (40 to 50 Pa.s).

4. Results

Although the GVF is constrained above all between two Neogene faults, the Amer and Llorà faults, there are a few other volcanic outcrops and vents located outside these structural limits, mainly east of the Llorà fault (Fig. 2). No vents are directly located on the Amer and Llorà faults. All the vents identified in this study are located on subordinated faults. In the field it is clear that the majority of volcanic deposits have not been affected by the Neogene faults. Only the main Amer fault affects the central sector of the volcanic deposits (Fig. 8). Most of the volcanic deposits located in the

north of the study area cover the basement rocks, which prevents the subordinate faults in this zone from being identified. Towards the north, a set of E-W reverse faults and thrusts formed during the Alpine Orogeny delimits the volcanic field but is intersected (crossed) by the same NW-SW Neogene fault system that constrains the volcanic field further to the south (Fig. 2) (Table 1, Supp. material).

A total of 67 eruptive vents were mapped in the study area and are represented on our map (Fig. 2) by points corresponding to the middle of the craters of isolated cinder cones and of coalescent cinder cones that belong to the same eruptive fissure. The majority of eruptive vents (83.5%) are located in the northern sector of the GVF, around the city of Olot (Fig. 2), while only a few (16.5%) are located in the southern sector (Fig. 2) (Table 1, Supp. material). However, the volcanoes in the southern sector are larger and emitted more magma than those in the northern sector (Bolós et al., 2014a). Several volcanic deposits that cannot be associated with any eruptive vent, either because they have been eroded or covered by more recent volcanic materials, were not considered in our structural analysis.

The alignments defined by 44 eruptive vents allowed us to infer up to 19 eruptive fissures (Fig. 2). All fissures have the same trend, with a strike average of ~N155°E; the exception is a fissure with a strike of N29°E subparallel to a related. The longest fissure was measured at ~3050 m and is located in the central area of the northern sector (Pomareda - Croscat - Santa Margarida eruptive fissure) (Pm-Cr-Sta.M in Fig. 2), and was recognized through geological fieldwork and geophysical studies (Barde-Cabusson et al., 2013; Barde-Cabusson et al., 2014). The shortest fissure measures 287 m and the average fissure length is 968 m, although most fissures measure between 400 and 1200 m (Table 1, Supp. material).

The 28 analysed cones have basal widths between 160 and 1430 m (average 610

m) and heights between 20 and 170 m (average 73 m). 23 of the 28 cones have visible craters, with some cones having 2 or 3 coalescing craters. Additionally, 4 craters not associated to any cone, were also mapped. Of a total of 36 analysed craters, 21 are breached. Closed craters have widths between 40 and 390 m (average 220 m; excluding one large crater with a width of 1160 m) and depths between 5 and 60 m (average 20 m). Cone bases EI vary between 1.2 and 2.1, and for the closed crater outlines between 1.2 and 1.5; EI average of elevation contours vary between 1.3 and 4.9. Elongation azimuths of the cone bases, closed crater outlines and elevation contours, together with breaching directions of the breached craters, defines two orientation trends: a main NW-SE to NNW-SSE trend (with crater breaching mostly to the NNW), and a secondary NE-SW trend (with crater breaching towards the NE) (see Table 2 in Supp. material).

The analysis of the drainage network also allowed us to distinguish different trends that confirm the main structural features of the area; the four principal stream directions identified were NW-SE, NE-SW, N-S and E-W (Fig. 3).

In order to obtain an unbiased analysis of the main direction of the alignments, we performed a statistical study based on the nearest-neighbour concept. The results obtained show a lineament distribution that clearly follows a NNW-SSE trend (Fig. 4). Secondary directions ranging from NE-SW to E-W were also obtained.

The majority of freshwater springs identified and plotted on the structural map coincide with the main tectonic elements such as Neogene faults and the Alpine reverse faults (Fig 5). However, a few springs are not associated to any structural element. Moreno et al. (2014) analysed the endogenous gas content of springs and water wells in the northern part of the study area. A total of 41 measurements of water radon concentration with values between 16.7 and 7.1 Bq.l⁻¹ were made, with most located on the Amer and Llorà faults and others on other Neogene secondary faults (Fig. 5). As

well, Zarroca et al. (2012) measured a total of 12 CO₂-rich springs located in the southern part of our study area on the central part of the Amer fault (Fig.5). The emissions of CO₂ in this area are clearly measureable in the field as sustained bubbling in freshwater springs.

A total of 144 seismic events have been recorded in the GVF since 1978 (Fig. 6) and are mostly distributed along the Neogene faults clustered between the Amer and Llorà faults. Moreover, there is a greater density of seismic events in the central part of the Amer fault that coincides with high CO₂ emissions. The maximum earthquake magnitude registered in this period was 3.5 (local magnitude) in 1983 on the Amer fault (Fig. 6) (Table 3, Supp. material). Despite the low present-day seismicity, a swarm of powerful earthquakes that took place in 1427-1428 with epicentral intensities ranging between VI and VIII has been attributed to a movement of the Amer fault (Fontserè and Iglésies, 1971; Goula et al., 1999; Olivera et al., 2003, 2006; Perea, 2009; Zarroca et al., 2012).

As explained above, we also considered the distribution of mantle-derived xenolith and crustal cumulates as a way of indicating the depth of the faults and fissures through which they were transported to the surface, and of estimating magma ascent velocities. The distribution of all ultramafic xenoliths found in the area along with their maximum sizes is shown in Figure 7. We observed that the presence of xenoliths is related to the volcanoes located near – but not on – the main Llorà fault. In the area with the greatest density of volcanic cones (northern area), only three volcanoes (Rocanegra, La Garrinada and La Canya; see Fig. 7) have ultramafic xenoliths, whilst in the southern sector all the volcanoes have this type of xenoliths. Moreover, we observed that the presence of upper-mantle cumulates (i.e. spinel lherzolites) coincides with the volcanoes that have xenoliths, whereas the presence of lower-crust cumulates (i.e.

Pyroxenites/Amphybolites) is restricted to volcanoes located in the northern sector and just one volcano in the south sector (Puig de la Banya del Boc; see Fig. 7). The maximum sizes of the ultramafic xenoliths found in the GVF correspond to pyroxenites, with diameters of up to 80 cm (Fig. 9). However, most xenoliths range in size from a few centimetres to 20 cm in diameter, for both mantle-derived nodules and lower-crust cumulates. Velocities of 0.19 to 0.21 m/s have been obtained using equations 2, 3, 4, assuming a Newtonian viscosity of 40–50 Pa.s, the largest xenolith encountered (80 cm), a melt density of 2.53 g/cm³, a xenolith density of 3.55 g/cm³, and a gravity value of 9.8 m/s². The velocities obtained are in accordance with those suggested for other monogenetic volcanic fields zab and odnar lu gel, 1998; Sparks et al., 2006; Mattsson, 2012; Harangi et al., 2013; Jankovics et al., 2013).

5. Discussion and conclusions

The morphological and structural data presented above reveal that the evolution of the GVF has been mostly controlled by two major Neogene faults, the Amer and Llorà faults. They are both oriented NW-SE as are most of the major post-Alpine extensional faults that have defined a horst and graben structural pattern in NE Iberia. However, most of the eruptive fissures and secondary structural lineaments identified in this study show a NNW-SSE trend that runs slightly obliquely to the main faults.

The pattern shown by the eruptive fissures and subordinated structural lineaments is compatible with a slight dextral transtensional component in the two main faults, as previously suggested by previous studies (Goula et al., 1999; Olivera et al., 2003) and indicates that magma ascent in the uppermost crust and subsequent eruptions

were controlled by these subordinated fissures. This structural configuration would have favoured the opening of these fractures and the transport of magma through them, at least in the final pre-eruptive stages. Similar behaviour has been described in other volcanic zones (e.g. Karakhanian et al., 2002). However, it is not clear how deep these fractures are nor what exactly was their role in transporting magma from deeper levels.

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The presence of mantle-derived xenoliths and lower-crust cumulates suggests that the magmas that erupted in the GVF came either directly from the source region in the upper mantle or from intermediate reservoirs located at the base of the crust. No evidence exists for the presence of shallower reservoirs under this volcanic field. This is also confirmed by existing petrological and geochemical data (Martí et al., 1992; Neuman et al., 1999; Cebriá et al., 2000). Therefore, what remains to be discerned is how deep the structures observed on the surface extend and how they were used by magma to reach the surface. It is worth noting that most of the area's freshwater springs are associated with relatively shallow stratigraphic or structural discontinuities, while the presence of high radon and CO₂ concentrations mainly occurs along the major Neogene faults (Moreno et al., 2014; Zarroca et al., 2012), thereby indicating that the deep circulation of these mantle-derived gases is permitted through these faults (Redondo and Yélamos, 2005; Zarroca et al., 2012). Likewise, the recorded seismicity also reveals that Neogene faults have been active recently, mainly along the Amer fault. Finally, the obtained magma ascent rates indicate that only a relatively short time was required for magma to reach the surface, thereby suggesting the existence of preferential pathways for magma when ascending from source or accumulation regions to the eruption sites.

Taking into account all this evidence we speculate that the Llorà fault played the most important role in driving magma from the source region, either to the base of the

crust where magma occasionally accumulated (underplating) and differentiated or directly to much shallower levels where it was captured by the subordinated fractures that allowed it to erupt to the surface. As indicated by the presence of lower-crust cumulates and the location of vents and eruptive fissures, the extraction of magma from the lower crust reservoir(s) was mainly controlled by the Llorà fault and, to a lesser extent, by the Amer fault, which would have acted as a conjugate major fault reaching down the base of the crust. Shallow subordinated fractures to the Amer fault would have also captured the ascending magma in its last stages and have controlled its eruption to the surface (Fig. 10).

Confirming the proposed model would require the undertaking of a detailed petrological study, which is beyond the purpose of this paper. However, the fact that the mantle-derived xenoliths and the largest lower-crust cumulates are restricted to the vents related to the Llorà fault is strong support for this model. Likewise, the volcanoes associated with this fault have the largest erupted volumes (Bolós et al., 2014b) of all volcanoes in this volcanic field, which also suggests that the Llorà fault was the main magma pathway.

The reason why magma eruptions have occurred through different NNW-SSE eruptive fissures during the history of the GVF – despite its constant and common feeding system at depth – seems to be related to the role played by these subordinate shallow fractures. They captured magma during the final stages of its ascent to the surface and so determined the point of each eruption. The shallow character of these fractures suggests that the local stress field, which was mostly controlled by the movement of the two main (Llorà and Amer) faults, only made a weak contribution. Under these circumstances, these shallow fractures could be easily sealed by residual magma that solidified within and it was easier for a new eruptive episode to open a

fresh fracture than to reuse a previously sealed one. The sealing of these eruptive fissures by intruding magma would also obstruct the circulation of the endogenous gases, as is shown in the northern sector around Olot, where most eruptive vents have no associated volcanic gas emissions. This would also suggest – in accordance with the intermittent character of this volcanism (Martí et al., 1992) – that each eruptive episode corresponds to an intermittent reactivation of the main fault system every 5 000 – 20 000 years. These tectonic reactivations would permit the ascent of deep magma and the opening of subordinate fractures in the uppermost crust, which would erupt on the surface each time in a different location in the volcanic field. Volcanism in the GVF is mainly concentrated in its northern sector, which suggests that the basin in this area is larger, where the accumulation of post-Alpine sediments is thicker. Moreover, the difference in basement lithology between the northern (Tertiary and Quaternary sediments) and southern (Paleaeozoic granites and schists) sectors of the volcanic field may also have played a significant role in controlling the ability for magma to find pathways to reach the surface. The fact that there is no magmatism north of the GVF may be due to the important increase in thickness of the crust due to the Alpine Orogeny (Fig. 2).

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Although the GVF is the best-preserved area in the Catalan Volcanic zone, it is not the only one containing important volumes of volcanic rocks. Older zones such as the Empordà or La Selva (Araña et al., 1983; Martí et al., 1992) also have numerous volcanic features that can be observed on the surface (highly eroded outcrops) or in the subsoil in seismic profiles and gravity and aeromagnetic maps (Casas et al., 1986; Zeyen and Banda, 1988). The tectonic evolution of the area has been controlled by a similar system of Neogene NW-SE-oriented faults, which seems to have evolved over time from NE to SW. We believe that a similar model to the one proposed in this study

for the GVF could be applied to other areas in the Catalan Volcanic Zone.

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In conclusion, the GVF provides a good example of the structural complexity that governs monogenetic volcanism. Although magma ascent from the depths has always been controlled by the same Neogene extensional fault system that reaches the base of the lithosphere, magma transport in the uppermost crust and the eruptions were controlled by subordinated fractures originating in response to the transtensional component of the main faults. These shallow fractures were sealed by the remaining magma after each eruption and so new fractures had to be opened in each new eruptive episode, probably in association with a sporadic reactivation of the main faults. The model proposed has important implications for hazard assessment as this pattern of magma flow makes this type of volcanism largely unpredictable in terms of the eruption location since the exact position of new vents does not necessarily follow a statistically pre-defined law. Any point located in the area affected by the tectonic stresses constrained by the two main faults could host a new vent if no major basement rheological discontinuities exist. Moreover, the calculated ascent velocities imply that magma may travel either from the source region in the mantle or from the base of the crust to the surface in just a few days, as has been proposed in other monogenetic fields. It is likely that most of this journey occurred aseismically due to the relatively large dimensions of the path provided by the main faults and the absence of shear movement between the fault planes, as occurred in the 2011-2012 El Hierro eruption (Martí et al., 2013). Only when magma had to open the shallow subordinate fractures did the hydraulic fracturing cause any shallow seismicity that could warn of the imminence of the eruption. Therefore, precise knowledge of the stress configuration and distribution of rheological and structural discontinuities in monogenetic fields is crucial when attempting to forecast monogenetic volcanism.

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700 Figure captions 701 Figure 1. Location of the study area. a) Simplified map of the distribution of the 702 703 European rift system. b) Simplified geological map of the Catalan Volcanic Zone 704 (modified from Guérin et al., 1985). c) Geographic distribution of La Garrotxa 705 Quaternary volcanic field. 706 707 Figure 2. Volcano-structural map of La Garrotxa Volcanic Field. a) Rose diagram of 708 faults; Neogene faults are represented in dark grey and Alpine reverse faults in light 709 grey. b) Rose diagram of eruptive fissures. 710 711 Figure 3. Drainage network of La Garrotxa Volcanic Field. Trends are represented in a 712 rose diagram. 713 714 Figure 4. Eruptive vent lineaments obtained using the nearest-neighbour technique. The 715 rose diagram shows the distribution of the alignments. 716 717 Figure 5. Map of freshwater springs (blue dots) and water radon concentrations (purple 718 stars) obtained by Moreno et al. (2014), and CO₂-rich springs (blue stars) obtained by 719 Zarroca et al. (2012). 720 721 Figure 6. Epicentral map of regional seismic events recorded by the Geological Survey 722 of Catalonia (IGC) since 1978.

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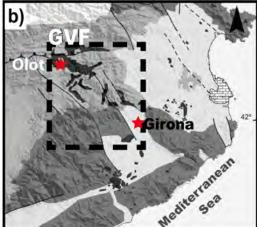
724 Figure 7. Volcano-structural map with the distribution of all ultramafic xenoliths (upper-725 mantle and lower-crust xenoliths) found in the study area, with an indication of their 726 maximum size. a: La Canya; b: La Garrinada; c: Rocanegra; d: Puig de la Banya del 727 Boc. 728 729 Figure 8. Outcrops of Quaternary volcanic deposits affected by the Amer fault. 730 Figure 9. Photograph of the largest xenolith (pyroxenite) found in the study area (Banya 731 732 del Boc volcano, southern sector of the GVF, see Fig. 7). 733 734 Figure 10. Schematic representation of the relationships between regional/local tectonic 735 faulting and the plumbing system of La Garrotxa Volcanic Field. (Right) cross section. 736 (Left) top view. 737

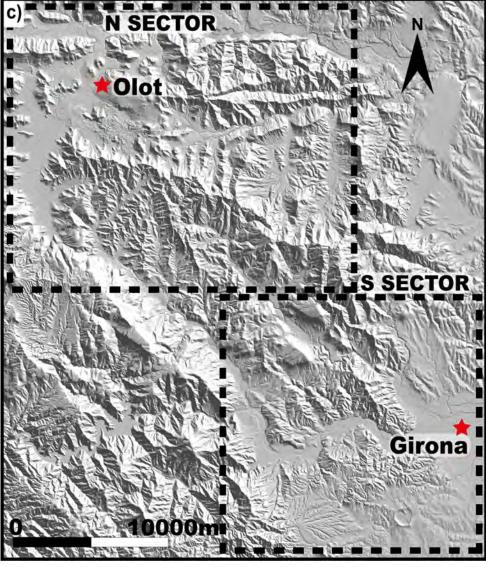
738 Supplementary material

739

- 740 Table 1. Summary of the structural data.
- 741 Table 2. Summary of the morphometric data. ND: not determined. * Azimuth of crater
- alignment.
- 743 Table 3. Seismic events recorded by the Geological Survey of Catalonia (IGC) since
- 744 1978. ND: not determined.







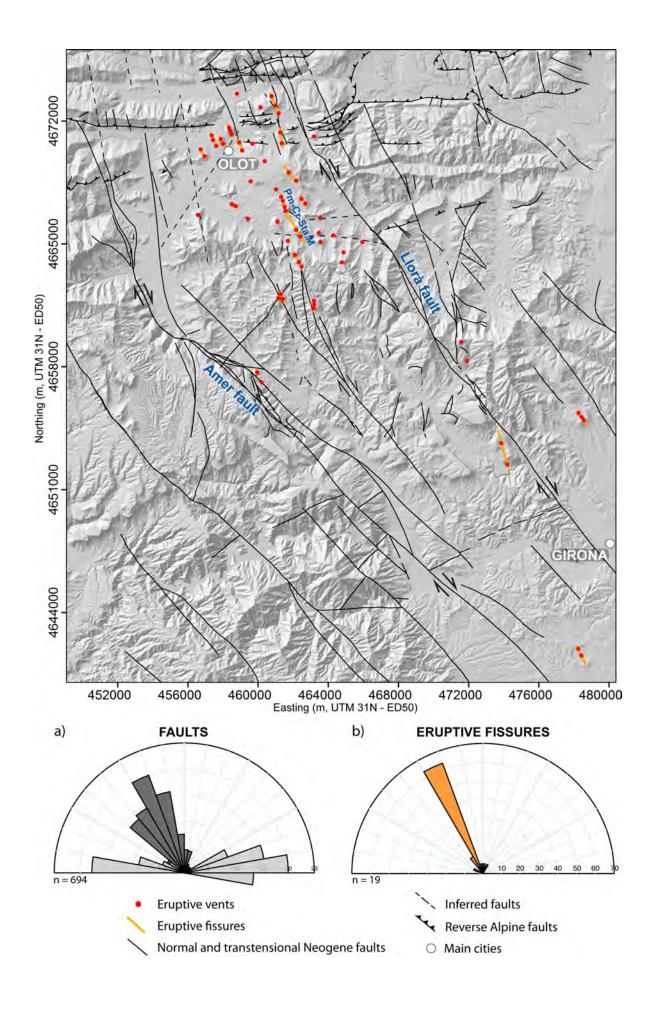
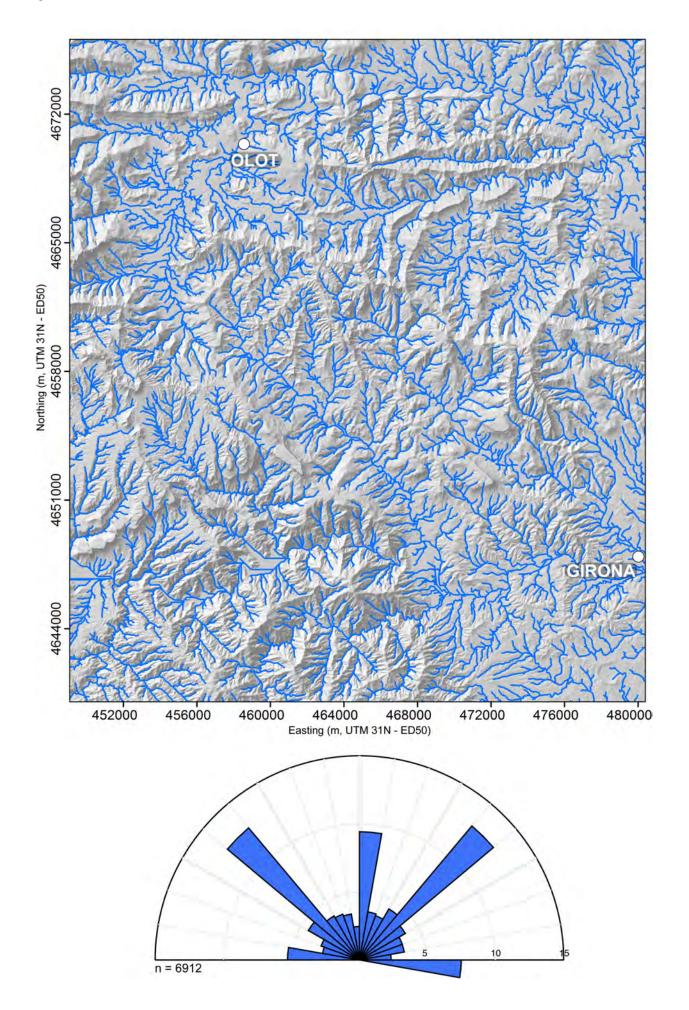


Figure 3



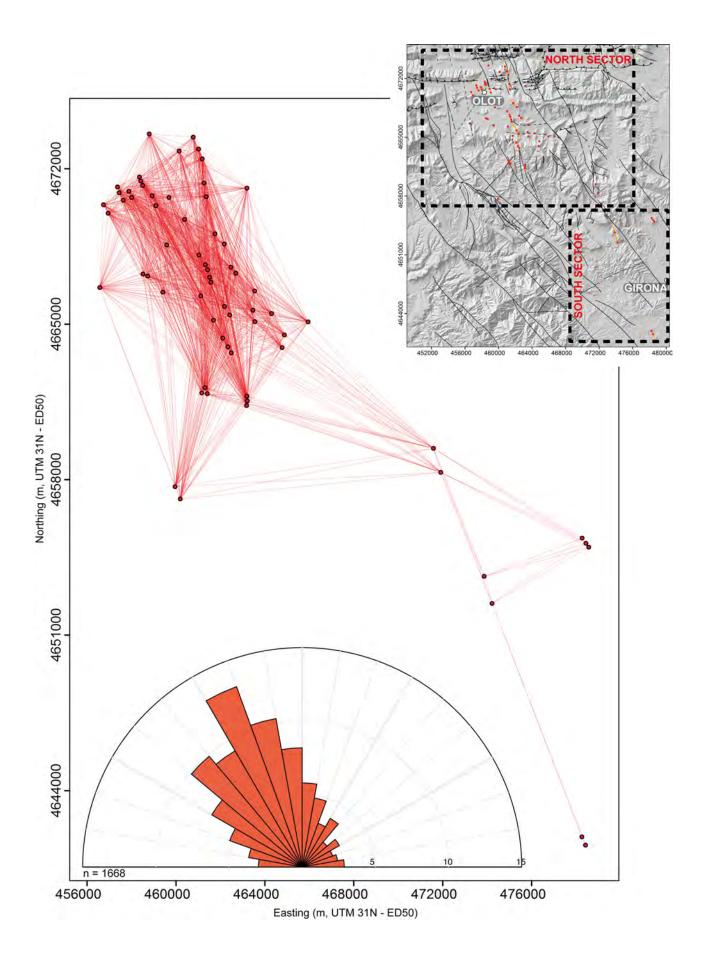
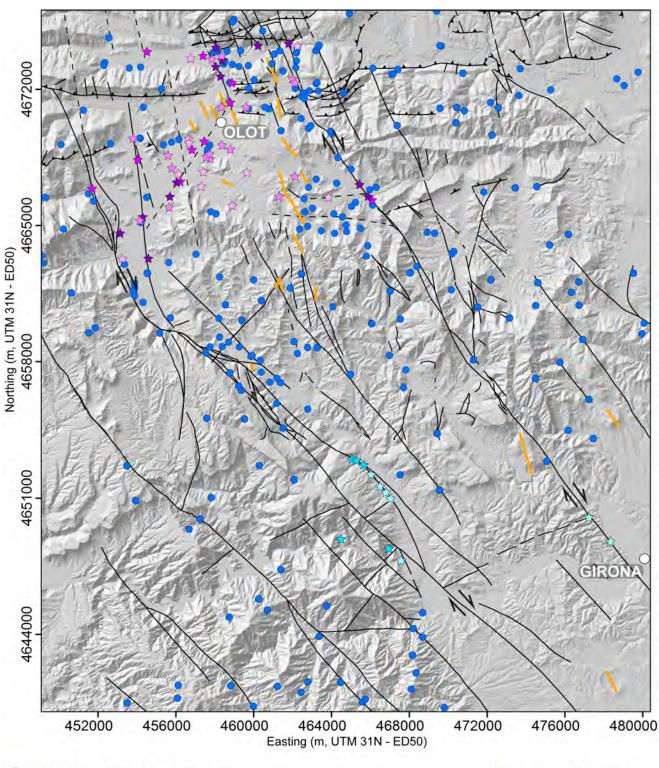


Figure 5



- Water springs (icc.cat + fieldwork)
- ★ Water radon concetration over 16.7 Bq·l-1 (Moreno et al., 2014)
- ★ Water radon concetration between 11.4 and 16.7 Bq·l⁻¹ (Moreno et al., 2014)
- ★ Water radon concetration between 7.1 and 11.4 Bq·l⁻¹ (Moreno et al., 2014)
- ★ Water radon concetration under 7.1 Bq·l⁻¹ (Moreno et al., 2014)
- ★ CO₂ rich springs (Zarroca et al., 2012)
- Springs with limited CO₂ (Zarroca et al., 2012)

Eruptive fissures

Normal and transtensional Neogene faults

Inferred faults

Reverse Alpine faults

Main cities

Figure 6

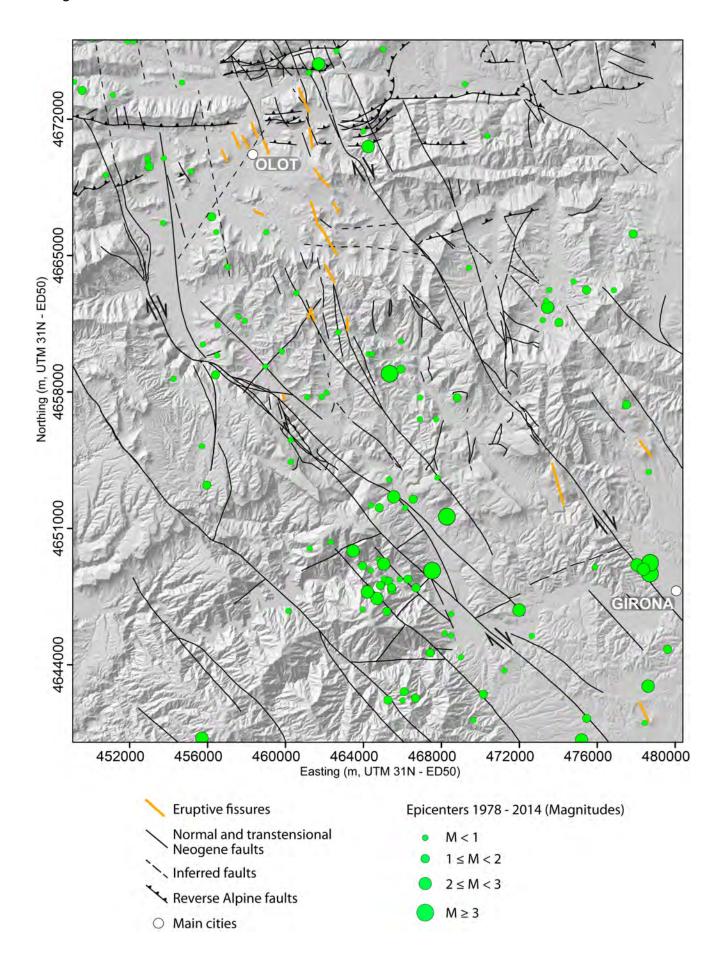
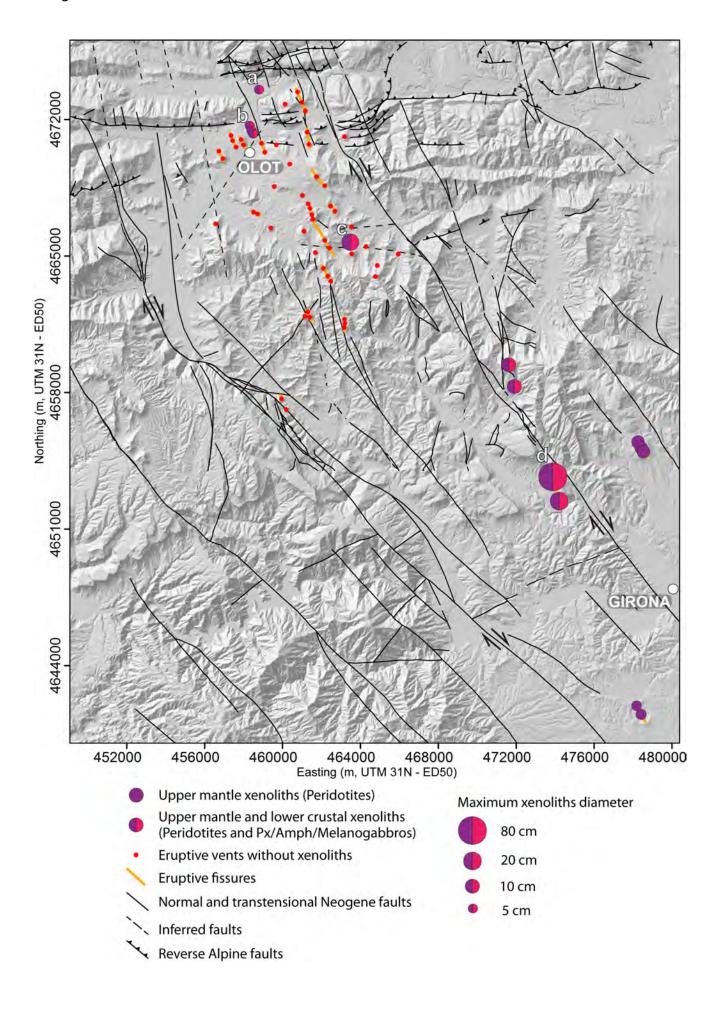
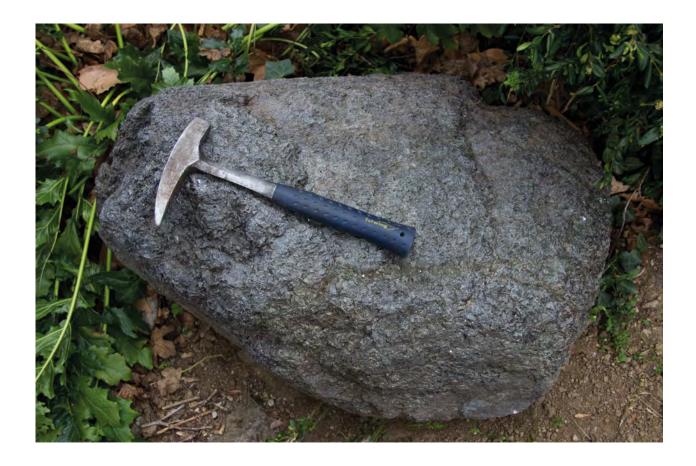
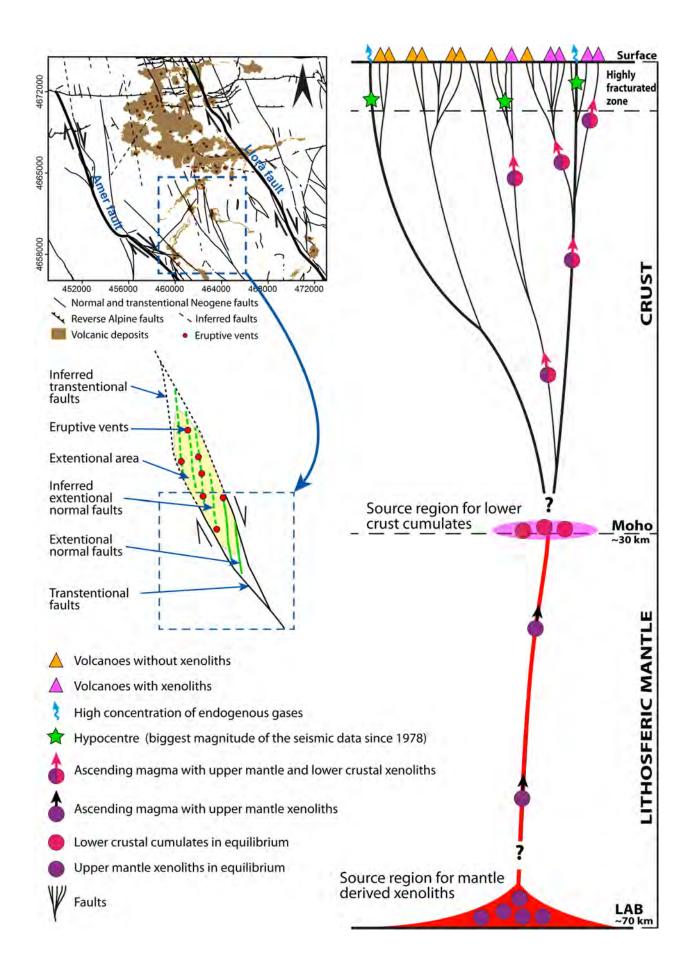


Figure 7









Appendix 7.1. Proof of delivery of the paper

