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**Linking magmatic processes and magma chemistry during the post-glacial to recent explosive eruptions of Ubinas volcano (southern Peru)**

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## Abstract

Understanding the links between the magma differentiation processes, the magma plumbing system and the magma composition at arc volcanoes is of paramount importance for volcanic hazard assessment. In this work we focus on the post-glacial, Holocene, historical, and recent eruption products of Ubinas volcano (Peru), which display an overall decrease in silica content from the older, plinian (VEI 3-5), rhyolitic eruptions (69-71 wt.% SiO<sub>2</sub>) to the historical and recent (2006-2009, 2013-2017), vulcanian (VEI 1-2) basaltic andesitic eruptions (55-57 wt.% SiO<sub>2</sub>). Based on a comprehensive study of the major and trace elements and the Sr-Nd-Pb isotopes, we conclude that this temporal pattern reflects the evolution of the Ubinas magmas in the middle-to-upper crust by a coupled Assimilation-Fractional Crystallization (AFC) process involving a cumulate composed of plagioclase, amphibole, clinopyroxene, orthopyroxene and Fe-Ti oxides with minor amounts of olivine and biotite at the mafic and felsic end-members, respectively. Upper crustal assimilation is limited to 5-8 vol.%, but the overall radiogenic Sr-Nd-Pb signature of the Ubinas magmas requires a larger crustal component, which must therefore occur at middle to lower crustal depths. The petrology of the Ubinas magmas also points to an overall increase in P-T conditions: the large Holocene dacitic and rhyolitic eruptions record temperatures ranging from 800 to 850°C and pressures in the range of 200-400 MPa, whereas the historical and recent (2006-2009, 2013-2017) basaltic andesitic eruptions provide higher temperatures and pressures (1000°C, >300-400 MPa). Overall, the thermo-barometry, phase equilibrium and geochemical constraints allow us to propose the existence of a middle-to-upper crust magma column composed of a highly crystalline magma mush containing batches of liquid magma, which seems to be continually recharged from deeper levels. On the basis of the petrological nature of the historical basaltic andesitic eruptions (*CE* 1667, 2006-2009, 2013-2017), we postulate that during the last centuries, Ubinas experienced a recharge-dominated process, with no evidence for a rejuvenation of the silica-rich reservoir that fed the large Holocene dacitic to rhyolitic eruptions. This study highlights the importance of detailed petrological studies of Holocene sequences at explosive arc volcanoes in order to constrain the magmatic processes and conditions that control large explosive eruptions.

**Keywords:** Ubinas, Peru, arc volcanoes, recharge, thermobarometry, magma plumbing system

## 1. Introduction

Understanding the occurrence of explosive eruptions involving intermediate and silica-rich magmas (i.e. andesites, dacites and rhyolites) in arc volcanoes is of paramount importance for volcanic hazard assessment. It is widely accepted by the scientific community that primitive arc magmas result from partial melting of a source located in the mantle wedge which was previously metasomatized by fluids or melts derived from the subducted slab (Kelemen et al., 2014; Turner et al., 2016; Schmidt and Jagoutz, 2017). These magmas display a large geochemical heterogeneity related to the nature of their magma sources together with the fluid/melt transport in the mantle wedge (Grove et al., 2003; Rawson et al., 2016). Primitive arc magmas (mostly magnesium-rich basalts or basaltic andesites) ascend through the mantle wedge and stagnate at different levels in the arc crust, where they are modified by various non-exclusive physical and chemical processes. As a result, intermediate and silica-rich magmas are generated by a complex sequence of petrogenetic processes that include fractional crystallization, crustal assimilation, and magma mixing (Hildreth and Moorbath, 1988; Annen et al., 2006; Lee and Bachmann, 2014). On one hand, there is a large amount of geochemical and experimental data showing that andesites (and more differentiated liquids) are by-products of basalt crystallisation (Sisson et al., 2005; Blatter et al., 2013; Nandedkar et al., 2014; Ulmer et al., 2018). In addition, following the seminal work of Hildreth and Moorbath (1988), the deep arc crust is considered as a dynamic zone in which the process of melting, assimilation, storage and homogenisation (the so-called MASH model) are actively at work. This model has been corroborated by numerical and physical arguments (*cf.* Annen et al., 2006; Jackson et al., 2018). On the other hand, the paucity of intermediate (andesitic) composition melt inclusions compared to the overwhelming abundance of these compositions in bulk-rock erupted products suggests that magma mixing between silica-poor (primitive) and silica-rich (differentiated) magmas is a common process during andesite genesis (Eichelberger et al., 2006; Reubi and Blundy, 2009; Kent et al., 2010; Schiano et al., 2010). These models are probably end-member situations at work at different places in the arc crust. Thus, the magmatic plumbing systems that feed active volcanoes are considered to be vertically-elongated zones consisting of a mixture of solid phases and interstitial melt, in which ephemeral magma accumulation occurs (Cashman et al., 2016; Bachmann and Huber, 2016; Jackson et al., 2018). This model of *trans-crustal magmatic systems* rests on theoretical, geophysical, experimental petrology and geochemical arguments, and challenges the classic view of melt-dominated magma chambers. It accounts for the different compositional ranges observed in arc volcanoes as well as the overwhelming evidence for a multi-stage, polybaric sequence of crystallization for most arc magma suites.

Arc volcanoes show variable compositional trends on a timescale of hundreds to thousands of years. Some arc volcanoes display homogeneous basaltic andesitic to andesitic magmas [e.g. Sangay (Monzier et al., 1999) and Reventador (Samaniego et al., 2008) volcanoes in Ecuador, Arenal in Costa Rica (Ryder et al., 2006), Merapi in Indonesia (Gertisser and Keller, 2003)]; whereas others are broadly dacitic magma systems [e.g. Mount St. Helens (Blatter et al., 2017), Pinatubo (Newhall and Punongbayan, 1995), Guagua Pichincha (Samaniego et al., 2010), Huaynaputina (Thouret et al., 1999)]. There are also arc volcanoes that mostly erupt andesitic magmas with scarce eruptions involving silica-rich magmas during sporadic (albeit larger) events [e.g. Colima in Mexico (Luhr and Carmichael, 1990; Robin et al., 1991; Macias et al., 2017), Tungurahua in Ecuador (Samaniego et al., 2011; Andujar et al., 2017; Nauret et al., 2018)]. Lastly, some arc volcanoes display temporal geochemical variations, for instance Cotopaxi volcano in Ecuador (Hall and Mather, 2008; Garrison et al., 2011; Martel et al., 2018), where larger rhyolitic eruptions transitioned to smaller andesitic events. This is also the case for Ubinas volcano in southern Peru, which is characterized by a temporal geochemical trend showing a progressive decrease in silica content over the last few thousand years (Thouret et al., 2005; Rivera et al., 2014), from pre-Holocene, large ( $VEI \geq 4$ ) plinian eruptions involving rhyolitic magmas to the historical and recent, small-to-moderate ( $VEI$  1-2) vulcanian events that involve basaltic andesitic magmas.

In this study, we performed a detailed mineralogical and geochemical study that includes whole-rock major, trace element and Sr-Nd-Pb isotopic analyses, as well as a comprehensive petrogenetical and thermo-barometric study of a succession of explosive deposits covering the post-glacial, historical and recent eruptive chronology of Ubinas. These data allow us to identify the main magmatic processes responsible for the diversity of Ubinas magmas, as well as to petrologically image the magmatic plumbing system during the large eruptions involving silica-rich magma and the smaller events involving silica-poor magmas. These findings will contribute to the hazard assessment at this active volcano of the Andean Central Volcanic Zone (CVZ). More generally, this case-study provides constraints to discuss the magma processes at work at other arc volcanoes that display large compositional ranges over relatively short time intervals (several thousands of years).

## 2. Eruptive chronology

Ubinas volcano ( $16^{\circ} 22'S$ ,  $70^{\circ} 54'W$ , 5672 meters above sea level – m a.s.l.), located ~75 km east of Arequipa (Fig. 1), is the most active volcanic centre of the Peruvian arc, and together with Sabancaya and Lascar are amongst the most active volcanoes in the Andean Central Volcanic Zone (CVZ). This segment of the Andean arc developed on a thick continental crust (up to 65-75 km thick, Ryan et al., 2016) and results from the

subduction of the Nazca plate below the South-American lithosphere. Ubinas has experienced at least 27 low-to-moderately explosive (VEI 1-3) eruptions in historical and recent times (i.e. from the beginning of the Spanish conquest in ~1532 CE to the present day) (Siebert et al., 2010; Rivera et al., 2014). The eruptive chronology of Ubinas was studied in detail by Thouret et al. (2005) and Rivera (2010), who defined two successive edifices (Ubinas I and Ubinas II). The older, mostly effusive Ubinas I volcano was constructed by the emplacement of andesitic and dacitic lava flows from around 450 to 370 ka, and suffered a large sector collapse at the end of its growth. The younger Ubinas II volcano was constructed on top of the older edifice over the last 370 ka and consists of andesitic and dacitic lava flows and domes and thick successions of block-and-ash-flow deposits that infill the Ubinas valley to the south. It forms a truncated cone with a summit caldera (1x1.5 km), which testifies to intense explosive activity in Late Pleistocene times. Based on the stratigraphy, Thouret et al. (2005) suggested that this summit caldera was formed between 25 and 10 ka by a sequence of large explosive eruptions responsible for a thick succession of plinian tephra fall deposits. Geochronological data from these deposits are infrequent due to the scarcity of organic material for radiocarbon dating as a consequence of the extremely arid weather conditions of the Central Andes. However, rough temporal constraints come from stratigraphic correlations with distal tephra layers found at Laguna Salinas, 25-30 km west of Ubinas (Juvigné et al., 1997). Based on these data, Thouret et al. (2005) considered that the basal tephra of the caldera-related succession is older than 14 ka. In any case, these eruptions occurred after the Late Glacial Maximum (LGM), dated at 17-25 ka in this part of the Andes (Smith et al., 2008; Bromley et al., 2009; Blard et al., 2014).

Figure 1

The post-glacial eruptive succession at Ubinas (Fig. 2a) comprises 10-15 m-thick plinian tephra fallout deposits that crop out in the southern and south-eastern part of the cone at a distance of up to 15 km from the summit. Around the hamlet of *Sacuhaya* (8-9 km south of the summit), at least seven pumice-and-lithics tephra layers were described. The basal layer is a 2-3 m-thick, rhyolitic white pumice deposit (Fig. 2b) that correlates with the distal Laguna Salinas ash fallout deposit (see above). In this cross-section, we found six additional, 10-100 cm-thick tephra fallout layers, which correspond to the Holocene plinian activity of Ubinas (Fig. 2c). A charcoal sample collected from an ash-rich paleosol layer in the lower-middle part of this cross-section, directly below a 1 m-thick plinian fallout deposit (UBI-10-12 sample, Fig. 2c, 3a), was dated at  $7480 \pm 40$  BP by Thouret et al. (2005). This date represents the only absolute age for this tephra succession. All these tephra layers

correspond to Ubinas post glacial activity, excepting a 10-15 cm-thick, white, fine lapilli, tephra fallout deposit that blankets the region located to the south of Ubinas (samples UBI-10-15 and UBI-10-08, Fig. 3). Based on tephra dispersal studies performed by Wright et al. (2017) and the chemical composition of these samples (see below), we consider the source of this deposit being a different volcano than Ubinas. At *Quebrada Infiernillos* (5-6 km southeast of the summit), the tephra fallout deposits correlate with the middle-upper part of the Sacuhaya cross-section. In addition, in this outcrop, we found the deposits of the last two plinian eruptions of Ubinas (VEI 4-5, Thouret et al., 2005; Siebert et al., 2010), which were dated at  $980 \pm 60$  BP (Fig. 2a, d). During the fieldwork performed for this study, we found at the base of these tephra fallout deposits, a >50 cm, ash-rich layer with disseminated pumice fragments, containing non-carbonized branches that yielded an age of  $1890 \pm 70$  BP (UBI-15-03, GrA 65545, Center for Isotope Research, University of Groningen, The Netherlands). Given the stratigraphic position of this sample (in the underlying ash-rich layer), we consider that this age represents the oldest age limit for this eruption. Based on the previous and these new data, we consider that the last plinian eruption at Ubinas occurred at 1-2 ka.

Eruptive activity in historical and recent times has been characterized by low-to-moderate (VEI 1-2) vulcanian eruptions accompanied by long-lasting ash and gas emissions. The large eruption of this period occurred in CE 1667 (Thouret et al., 2005; Siebert et al., 2010) and was characterized by a moderately explosive (VEI 3) event that produced low-volume, scoria-rich pyroclastic flow deposits that outcrop on the upper part of the cone, close to the caldera border (Fig. 2c). During the last two decades, Ubinas has experienced several eruptive periods in 2006-2009, 2013-2017, and recently in 2019 (Fig. 1b, Fig. 2f). These eruptions show very similar patterns, starting with a strong phreatic phase followed by intermittent vulcanian events that progressively waned over a period of a few years (Rivera et al., 2010; 2014).

Figure 2

### 3. Sampling and analytical methods

Based on the comprehensive work of Thouret et al. (2005) and Rivera (2010) we sampled the key cross-sections of Sacuhaya and Quebrada Infiernillos as well as the historical and recent eruptive products of the CE 1667, 2006-2009 and 2013-2017 eruptions (Fig. 2). Major and trace element concentrations of 33 new whole-rock samples from the post-glacial eruptive events, including 8 samples from the historical and recent eruptions (CE 1667, 2006-2009, and 2013-2017), were analysed at the Laboratoire Geosciences Océan, Université de

Bretagne Occidentale (Brest, France). Agate-grinded powders were dissolved in HNO<sub>3</sub> and HF and then measured by ICP-AES (Inductively Coupled Plasma-Atomic Emission Spectroscopy), following the procedure of Cotten et al. (1995). Relative standard deviations are 1% for SiO<sub>2</sub> and ≤ 2% for the other major elements, and ≤ 5% for trace elements. To these data we added the major and trace element compositions of 24 samples previously published by Thouret et al. (2005) and Rivera et al. (2014). Sr, Nd and Pb isotopic ratios were measured at Laboratoire Magmas et Volcans (LMV), Université Clermont Auvergne (Clermont-Ferrand, France) for 15 samples that span the post-glacial activity of Ubinas. Sr and Nd data were obtained following the techniques described by Pin et al. (1994) and Pin and Santos Zalduegui (1997), using a TIMS and a MC-ICP-MS respectively. We include 10 Sr–Nd isotopic ratios published by Thouret et al. (2005), Rivera (2010) and Rivera et al. (2014), which were also analysed at LMV, following the same analytical procedure. Sr isotopic measurements were corrected for mass-fractionation using an exponential law and  $^{86}\text{Sr}/^{88}\text{Sr} = 0.1194$  and normalized to the value of the NIST SRM987 standard ( $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} = 0.710245$ ). Nd isotopic measurements were corrected for mass fractionation using an exponential law and  $^{146}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd} = 0.7219$  and normalized to the value of JNdi-1 standard ( $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd} = 0.512100 \pm 5$  ( $2\sigma$ ),  $n = 5$ ). External reproducibility was monitored by repeated analyses of JNdi-1 standard ( $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd} = 0.512000 \pm 10$  ( $2\sigma$ ),  $n = 13$ ). This value is equal, within error margins, to the proposed value for JNdi-1 standard. Pb isotopic ratios were determined following the methods described by Nauret et al. (2018), using a MC-ICP-MS at LMV. Pb isotope ratios were normalized to values of NIST SRM 981 given by Galer et al. (1998). Total procedural blanks are lower than 0.15 ng ( $n = 6$ ), which is negligible compared to the amount of Pb loaded on the columns (200 to 500 ng). We used international standards (AGV2, BHVO2 and BIR-1) in order to test the reproducibility of our method. Values obtained for AGV-2 are  $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 18.870$ ;  $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 15.618$ ;  $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 38.546$  ( $n = 5$ ), for BHVO-2:  $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 18.608$ ;  $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 15.536$ ;  $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 38.212$  ( $n = 2$ ) and for BIR-1:  $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 18.848$ ;  $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 15.655$ ;  $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 38.489$  ( $n = 1$ ). These results are in agreement with the international reference values. All measured Pb isotope compositions were corrected for mass fractionation by adding a solution of the NIST SRM 997 Tl standard to the sample before measurement. The new whole-rock major and trace elements and isotopic ratios are presented in Table 1. Sample locations are given in the electronic Supplementary material 1.

Major element compositions for minerals and matrix glasses of 11 representative samples of Ubinas eruptive products were analysed at the LMV, using a CAMECA SX-100 microprobe. The operating conditions for minerals were 15 kV accelerating voltage, 10–12 nA beam current, and 10 s counting time; whereas the matrix glass measurements were performed using a 15 kV accelerating voltage, 4–8 nA beam current, 5–10 μm



beam size, 10 s counting time, and using international glass standards. With these operating conditions and given that alkali elements measurements were performed first, we should avoid significant Na migration under the electron beam (*cf.* Devine et al., 1995). Selected major elements composition of Ubinas minerals are presented in Tables 2, 3, 4, 5; whereas the entire dataset was included in the Supplementary material 2. In order to measure trace element concentrations of selected Ubinas minerals, Laser-Ablation-ICP-MS analyses were performed on phenocrysts of selected Ubinas samples, using a 193 nm Resonetics M-50E excimer laser coupled to an Agilent 7500cs ICP-MS. The laser energy was about 3 mJ, with a pulse frequency of 2-3 Hz. The spot diameter was set at 60-80  $\mu\text{m}$  and the analysis time was 100 s after a background measurement ( $\sim 30$  s). The technique uses calcium as an internal standard and measurements were calibrated relative to the NIST-612 glass. The glass standard BCR was also measured to check the reliability of the results. Data treatment was performed on Glitter software ([www.glitter-gemoc.com](http://www.glitter-gemoc.com)). The typical analytical error for most trace elements is  $< 10\%$ .

We measured the pre-eruptive water content on selected melt inclusions using a Renishaw InVia confocal microspectrometer equipped with a 532 nm diode laser (200 mW output power), a Peltier-cooled CCD detector, a motorized XYZ stage and a Leica DM2500 M optical microscope, at the LMV. The laser power was set to  $\sim 3$  mW. A 2400 grooves/mm grating, a 100 $\times$  objective and 20  $\mu\text{m}$  slit aperture (high confocality setting) were used for the analyses. These analytical conditions result in lateral spatial resolution of  $\sim 1$   $\mu\text{m}$  and spectral resolution better than  $1$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . Daily calibration of the spectrometer was performed based on the  $520.5$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  peak of Si. The spectra were recorded in the wavenumber ranges from  $\sim 100$  to  $1350$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (alumino-silicate network domain) and from  $\sim 3000$  to  $3800$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (water domain), using Wire 4.2 software. Acquisition times were 60-240 s and 120-480 s for the alumino-silicate and water domains, respectively. Spectra treatment was performed using PeakFit 4.0 software. For determination of water content in glasses, we used the external calibration procedure and a set of hydrous glass standards with rhyolitic, andesitic, and basaltic compositions (see Schiavi et al. (2018) for details about the method) that were analysed at the same conditions as the samples several times a day. All the analysed glass inclusions contain “nanolites” of magnetite, as revealed by the presence of its main peak centred at  $\sim 670$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (Supplementary material 3). The intensity of the magnetite peak relative to the main glass band near  $500$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  varies significantly among the samples (intensity ratio from 0.4 to 1.8). Di Genova et al. (2017) and Schiavi et al. (2018) observed that the presence of magnetite dispersed in the glass causes underestimation of the water content of the inclusion. Therefore, the estimated water contents are minimum values. The water contents are weakly underestimated in inclusions whose spectra show a weak magnetite signal (band intensity ratios 0.4-0.5), but they are strongly underestimated in inclusions with an intense magnetite peak (Supplementary material 4).

## 4. Petrological data

### 4.1. Whole-rock geochemistry

The post-glacial, historical and recent eruptive products of Ubinas form a continuous high-K magmatic trend, ranging from basaltic andesites to rhyolites (55-71 wt.% SiO<sub>2</sub>; 2-4 wt.% K<sub>2</sub>O, recalculated as anhydrous, Fig. 3). The most striking characteristic of this dataset is the overall decrease in silica content through time. At the base of the tephra succession, we have the older rhyolitic compositions (69-71 wt.% SiO<sub>2</sub>) of the pre-Holocene eruption deposits, followed by several Holocene dacitic (62-69 wt.% SiO<sub>2</sub>) tephra fall deposits. Above this is the andesitic (60-62 wt.% SiO<sub>2</sub>) tephra fallout deposits that corresponds to the 1-2 ka plinian eruptions. The Ubinas stratigraphic succession terminates with the historical and recent eruptive products of basaltic andesitic compositions (55-57 wt.% SiO<sub>2</sub>), that include those of the CE 1667, 2006-2009 and 2013-2017 eruptions (Fig. 3). A more detailed observation of this dataset reveals that the chemical variation is not uniform, there are two periods of silica-rich compositions in the middle (samples UBI-10-14, 16; Fig. 3), and in the upper part of the Holocene volcanic succession (the 1-2 ka eruption). Concomitantly with silica variations, the K<sub>2</sub>O and some incompatible trace elements (e.g. Rb, Th) show also a decrease through time; whereas MgO concentrations, as well the compatible elements (e.g. Sr, Ni, Cr) display an overall increase from the older rhyolites to the younger basaltic andesites up to a maximum for CE 1667 eruption products (Supplementary materials 5 and 6). We should highlight the presence of two samples that lie off the main trend (UBI-10-15 from Sacuhaya section, and UBI-10-08 from Quebrada Infiernillos section), which are represented by black dots in Fig. 3 and the other geochemical plots. Compared to the other tephra layers and for the same silica content, these samples display lower incompatible elements concentrations (e.g. K<sub>2</sub>O, Rb, Th, La, Fig. 3 and 4; Supplementary materials 5 and 6).

Overall, the Ubinas magmatic series displays well-defined negative correlations for silica and most major elements (Fig. 4, Supplementary materials 5), except for Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, and Na<sub>2</sub>O that are highly scattered. Sr and the transition metals (e.g. Sc, V, Co, Cr, Ni) also show negative correlations with silica increase. Conversely, some trace elements (and K<sub>2</sub>O) show fairly good positive correlations with silica, especially the Large-Ion Lithophile Elements (LILE; e.g. Rb, Th), while the High Field Strength Elements (HFSE; e.g. Nb and Zr) show a broad scatter. The Rare Earth Elements (REE) display a notable behaviour: the light REE (LREE; e.g. La, Ce) show no clear variation with silica increase, spanning over a wide range of values for the same silica content, whereas the Middle and Heavy REE (MREE and HREE; e.g. Nd, Sm, Yb) display clear negative correlations.

As a result, REE ratios show temporal trends, such as a progressive decrease in La/Sm and increase in Sm/Yb or Dy/Yb ratios from rhyolites to basaltic andesites (Supplementary materials 6). Lastly, the major and trace element variations have a noticeable break-in-slope at 56-58 wt.% SiO<sub>2</sub>, with the basaltic andesitic group (BA) on one side and a more widespread andesitic-dacitic-rhyolitic group (ADR) on the other side. We keep this dichotomy for the forthcoming sections of this manuscript.

Figure 3

Figure 4

Table 1

Sr and Nd isotopic data broadly display homogeneous values at the scale of the CVZ (Fig. 5a). In detail, <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr range between 0.70657 and 0.70707 with <sup>143</sup>Nd/<sup>144</sup>Nd between 0.51228 and 0.51235 (Fig. 5b, Table 1). These isotopic ratios are plotted far from the mantle domain represented by the MORB field and they display a negative correlation in <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr vs. <sup>143</sup>Nd/<sup>144</sup>Nd diagram. We should stress that sample UBI-10-15 plots off the trend with low <sup>143</sup>Nd/<sup>144</sup>Nd and relatively high <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb values. This characteristic confirms the interpretation that this deposit does not correspond to Ubinas. Note that although we include these samples on the geochemical plots, we exclude them from the subsequent analysis. Looking in detail, BA samples display the less radiogenic values in Sr and the most radiogenic in Nd, although they display a variability that accounts for at least 50% of the whole Ubinas isotopic variation (Fig. 5b). Surprisingly, the most radiogenic Sr values (and conversely the less radiogenic Nd values) are displayed by some dacites (rather than rhyolites, Fig. 5b). On the whole, Sr-Nd isotopic ratios define fairly good correlations with most differentiation indices (e.g. SiO<sub>2</sub>, K<sub>2</sub>O, Rb, Th; Supplementary materials 7). All samples fall within the isotopic field of the Andean Central Volcanic Zone (Davidson et al., 1991) and roughly display less radiogenic Sr compositions (Fig. 5a) than those of El Misti volcano (Rivera et al., 2017), but similar to those of the Andahua monogenetic cones (Delacour et al., 2007). Pb isotopic data also display very homogeneous values at the scale of the CVZ (Mamani et al., 2010). However, looking at in detail, they display a quite large range of variation (<sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb: 18.147-18.244; <sup>207</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb: 15.610-15.616; <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb: 38.548-38.649; Fig. 5c), with no well-defined linear correlations in <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb vs. <sup>207</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb diagrams (Fig. 5d). In contrast to the Sr-Nd isotopic data, the Pb isotopic ratios of Ubinas differ from those of the Andahua monogenetic cones, plotting at lower <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb and higher <sup>207</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb values (Fig. 5c).

Figure 5

#### 4.2. Petrography and mineral chemistry

Blocks and bombs from the BA group are porphyritic, black to grey, dense to poorly vesiculated rocks bearing 20-25 vol.% phenocrysts of plagioclase, ortho- and clinopyroxene and Fe-Ti oxides, with scarce amphibole and olivine. On the contrary, the ADR samples are mostly phenocryst-poor (< 5 vol.%), highly vesiculated pumices with variable mineral assemblages. Andesitic samples contain plagioclase, amphibole, ortho- and clinopyroxene, Fe-Ti oxides and scarce phenocrysts of biotite, whereas dacites and rhyolites are composed of plagioclase, amphibole, biotite, and Fe-Ti oxides. Thus, the mineral assemblage changed concomitantly with magma chemistry from BA to ADR samples (Fig. 6).

Figure 6

*Plagioclase* is the most abundant phase in Ubi volcanic samples. In BA group, plagioclase (10-20 vol.%) occurs as euhedral and subhedral phenocrysts showing a wide compositional range ( $An_{35-80}$ , Fig. 7, Table 2), sometimes within a single phenocryst (e.g.  $An_{36-65}$ , Rivera et al., 2014; and new unpublished data from 2006 and 2015 eruptive products). In spite of this diversity, most (~70%) phenocryst cores and rims display compositions between  $An_{45}$  and  $An_{65}$  (Fig. 7). On the basis of textural and chemical characteristics, we identified two different plagioclase populations in BA samples: (1) euhedral, non-altered phenocrysts with normal, oscillatory and reverse zoning patterns; and, (2) sieve-cored and sieve-ringed phenocrysts with frequent dissolution zones and clear overgrowth rims displaying strong reverse zoning (e.g.  $An_{40-64}$ ). In the ADR samples, plagioclase is also the most abundant phase (5-15 vol.%), displaying clear (unaltered), euhedral to subhedral forms with also large compositional variations (e.g.  $An_{33-72}$ ; Fig. 7) and frequent normal zoning patterns (e.g.  $An_{65-40}$ ), while some phenocrysts display no chemical variation. We also found rare reversely zoned phenocrysts (e.g.  $An_{46-51}$ ) as well as some inherited cores (e.g.  $An_{70}$ ). We note that the peak for the An composition shifts from  $An_{50-65}$  for BA to  $An_{35-50}$  for ADR (Fig. 7). Although the compositional range observed in ADR is as large as those of for BA plagioclases, the phenocryst's rims display more restricted compositions in the ADR group ( $An_{35-55}$  for dacites, and  $An_{40-60}$  for rhyolites). Lastly, the large compositional range of plagioclases from both groups suggest that some of them should be considered as antecrysts (*cf.* Streck, 2008), i.e. the An-poor cores and rims in BA group, and the An-rich cores in ADR group.

Figure 7

Table 2

*Amphibole* phenocrysts are ubiquitous in Ubinas samples. They are an accessory phase (~1 vol.%) in BA group, displaying anhedral forms with frequent opaque (black) reaction rims (*cf.* De Angelis et al., 2013), whereas other phenocrysts are completely altered. They display homogeneous magnesium-hastingsite compositions (according to the classification of Leake et al., 1997). In contrast, amphibole phenocrysts in the ADR samples are much more abundant (2-5 vol.%), and appear as euhedral phenocrysts without any disequilibrium features. They display wide compositional variations, spanning the magnesium-hastingsite, tschermakite and magnesium-hornblende groups. The large compositional variation of Ubinas amphibole phenocrysts is summarized in an Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> vs. Mg# diagram (Fig. 8a, Table 3). In this figure, amphibole from the BA samples show homogeneous, high-Al contents (12.5-13.1 wt.% Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) and relatively high Mg# (65-73) [where Mg# = 100 \* Mg/(Mg + Fe<sup>T</sup>) in mol.%, and Fe<sup>T</sup> is total iron as Fe<sup>2+</sup>]. Amphiboles in andesites display intermediary and homogeneous Al contents (9.6-11.0 wt.% Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) and homogeneous Mg# values (66-68), whereas amphibole phenocrysts in dacites and rhyolites span a large compositional range (7.0-12.7 wt.% Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>; Mg# 61-71). Such a broad chemical composition of amphiboles is usually ascribed to changes in chemical and thermodynamic parameters such as melt composition, pressure, temperature and redox state (Johnson and Rutherford, 1989; Schmidt, 1992; Bachmann and Dungan, 2002; Prouteau and Scaillet, 2003; De Angelis et al., 2013; Krawczynski et al., 2012; Erdmann et al., 2014; Kiss et al., 2014). In order to constrain the role of the main parameters controlling amphibole chemistry, a substitution analysis is usually performed (*cf.* Poli and Schmidt, 1992; Bachmann and Dungan, 2002). Fig. 8b and c show the variation of three key parameters [<sup>IV</sup>Al, <sup>VI</sup>Al and (Na+K)<sup>A</sup>] that suggest a leading role for edenite (*ed*) substitution, a valuable proxy for temperature variations. However, the variation observed in <sup>VI</sup>Al component also points out for a role of the tschermakitic (*tk*) substitution, which is considered as a proxy for pressure variations. In addition, Kiss et al. (2014) propose that the variations in Mg# coupled with the variation in Al content of amphiboles (Fig. 8a) could be used as a proxy for variation in melt composition.

Figure 8

Table 3

Table 4

**Clinopyroxene** phenocrysts in BA samples (~5 vol.%) show diopsidic to augitic compositions ( $\text{En}_{38-47}\text{-Fs}_{10-21}\text{-Wo}_{38-46}$ , Table 4, according to the classification of Morimoto et al., 1988), display euhedral forms, mostly with reverse zoning patterns, although some phenocrysts show homogeneous compositions. The MgO content of clinopyroxene, expressed by the Mg#, ranges from 65 to 82. There are also some inherited cores, which are mantled by thin (10-50  $\mu\text{m}$ ), Mg-rich (Mg# 76-80) overgrowth rims. Clinopyroxene is also present as an accessory phase (<1 vol.%) in andesitic and dacitic samples as phenocrysts or microphenocrysts with very homogeneous compositions (Mg# 76-77).

**Orthopyroxene** phenocrysts appear to some extent (~2 vol.%) in BA group as well as in andesitic and dacitic samples. They appear as euhedral phenocrysts, frequently associated with clinopyroxene. They have enstatitic compositions ( $\text{En}_{65-71}\text{-Fs}_{24-34}\text{-Wo}_{2-4}$ , Table 4, according to the classification of Morimoto et al., 1988). Slight differences in Mg# have been observed between orthopyroxenes from BA and andesites (70-76) and dacites (67-70). We stress that orthopyroxene is absent in rhyolites.

**Biotite** phenocrysts are ubiquitous in rhyolites (2-4 vol.%), are much scarcer (1-2 vol.%) in dacites, and are absent from more mafic rocks. Biotite appears as euhedral (up to 1-2 mm long) phenocrysts without reaction rims or any other disequilibrium textures. They display homogeneous compositions with  $\text{Fe}^{2+}/(\text{Fe}^{2+}+\text{Mg})$  ratios of 0.33-0.36 and very restricted Mg# values (64-67, Table 3). These characteristics confirm these micas are classified as biotites (according to the classification of Deer et al., 2013).

**Fe-Ti oxides** appear throughout the Ubina magmatic series as microphenocrysts and microlites in the matrix (1-2 vol.%) as well as inclusions in other mineral phases. They mostly correspond to titanomagnetite (6-18 wt.%  $\text{TiO}_2$ , Table 5), although rare ilmenite (37-38 wt.%  $\text{TiO}_2$ ) crystals are also observed in some dacites. Rivera (2010) also reports some rare ilmenite crystals in dacites and rhyolites of Ubina.

**Olivine** appears only as an accessory phase (< 1 vol.%) in BA such as those of the 2006-2009 and 2013-2017 eruptions. They are mostly subhedral or euhedral phenocrysts (up to 300-400  $\mu\text{m}$ ) or microlites with homogeneous compositions ( $\text{Fo}_{66-78}$ , Table 5), and usually normal zoning patterns. Olivine phenocrysts frequently show reaction rims composed of plagioclase, pyroxene, and Fe-Ti oxides, or more scarce orthopyroxene overgrowth rims.

Lastly, some **apatite** microphenocrysts and microlites are found as inclusions in plagioclase and amphibole, whereas **zircon** microlites occurs as inclusions in biotites.

Table 5

#### 4.3. Trace elements in minerals

Trace element concentrations were measured in plagioclase, ortho- and clinopyroxene, and amphibole phenocrysts from three Ubinas samples, a basaltic andesite (UBI-10-18B), an andesite (UBI-10-01) and a rhyolite (UBI-10-10C). Results are plotted in chondrite-normalized REE plots (Fig. 9). Plagioclase patterns are fractionated, with high LREE and low HREE contents and a conspicuous positive Eu anomaly for the andesite sample (Fig. 9a), as well as other notable positive anomalies for Ba and Sr (not shown). Orthopyroxene spectra are homogeneous, displaying low LREE relative to HREE contents, and a small negative Eu anomaly. Clinopyroxenes from the basaltic andesite sample display slightly flat spectra with maximum values for MREE and a small negative Eu anomaly (Fig. 9b). Lastly, two distinct populations of amphibole are identified (Fig. 9c): a REE-poor group that corresponds to amphibole from the basaltic andesite, and a REE-rich group that corresponds to the andesite and the rhyolite. These two populations are also observed for HFSE (e.g. Nb, Ta, Zr, not shown). Both groups display concave spectra with higher abundances of Nd (and other MREE) compared with other LREE and HREE. In addition, the REE-poor group corresponds to high-Al amphibole and display no Eu anomaly; whereas REE-rich group corresponds to low-Al amphibole and displays a conspicuous negative Eu anomaly. This feature indicated the contemporaneous crystallization of plagioclase, low-Al amphibole, orthopyroxene and clinopyroxene in the AD R group.

Figure 9

#### 4.4. Chemical composition of interstitial matrix glass and melt inclusions

Interstitial matrix glass from the BA samples distributes into two compositional groups. Glasses from the CE 1667 eruptive products display homogeneous compositions (62.7-64.1 wt.% SiO<sub>2</sub>; n=5, normalized to anhydrous values, Table 6), whereas those from the 2006-2009 and 2013-2017 samples show slightly more differentiated compositions (62.7-67.0 wt.% SiO<sub>2</sub>, n=11). In contrast, interstitial glasses from whole-rock andesite samples from the 1-2 ka eruptions show dacitic to rhyolitic compositions (68.6-70.3 wt.% SiO<sub>2</sub>; n=13), and glasses from whole-rock dacites and rhyolites samples display high-silica rhyolitic compositions (73.8-76.1 wt.% SiO<sub>2</sub>; n=38). We analysed several melt inclusions from an andesitic and a rhyolitic tephra samples. We

should stress the high homogeneity of these analyses that display almost similar compositions for both samples:  $66.0 \pm 1.4$  wt.%  $\text{SiO}_2$  (n=12) for MI in plagioclase crystals from andesitic tephra and  $66.2 \pm 1.2$  wt.%  $\text{SiO}_2$  (n=9) for MI in plagioclase crystals from rhyolitic tephra. We should highlight that these compositions are identical to those of the interstitial matrix glasses from andesitic tephra. When plotted on Harker diagrams (Fig. 10), whole-rock, matrix glasses and melt inclusions samples define a single magmatic trend, although some scattering is observed for  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{Na}_2\text{O}$  (not shown). Matrix glasses from the BA group fall outside this trend, especially for  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{K}_2\text{O}$ . It is worth noting that the matrix glass from the andesite whole-rock samples displays an almost identical rhyolitic composition to the whole-rock rhyolites.

The water content of the matrix glasses was estimated using the “by difference” method (Devine et al., 1995). We stress that these values mostly correspond to degassed magmas and thus these values should be considered as rough minimum estimates of the pre-eruptive water content. Concerning the ADR samples, we found large glass shards that allowed us to perform defocused analyses to minimize Na migration. As a result, the water content of matrix glasses from the ADR samples is  $4.9 \pm 1.2$  wt.% (n=51). In order to better constrain the pre-eruptive water content for ADR samples, we analysed plagioclase-hosted melt inclusions by Raman spectroscopy. The inclusions show variable water contents suggesting entrapment at different depths and/or complex degassing histories. The maximum value (6 wt.%) was measured in an inclusion of the rhyolitic tephra less affected by the magnetite signal (Supplementary material 3). Overall, minimum water contents of the melt inclusions from the andesitic samples range from 2.3 to 3 wt.%, whereas those from the rhyolitic samples span a range of 2.3 to 6 wt.%  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . Although most of the inclusions seem to be characterised by moderate water contents (2-3 wt.%), the true water contents are obtained only after correction for the underestimation caused by the presence of magnetite in the glass. The underestimate is proportional to the intensity of the magnetite peak and is evident in glasses with low (microprobe + Raman) totals (< 97 wt.%; Supplementary material 4). When this effect is taken into account and the compositions corrected, the water contents increase to varying degrees between 3 and 6 wt.%. Using the “by difference” method on MI analyses we obtain an average value of  $5.6 \pm 1.7$  wt.%  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (n=21), in agreement with the results of Raman measurements.

Figure 10

Table 6

## 5. Discussion



### 5.1. Pre-eruptive P-T conditions

**ADR magmas.** Given that amphibole is ubiquitous in this magmatic group, a suitable geothermometer is based on the amphibole-plagioclase equilibrium, using the edenite-richterite formulation of Holland and Blundy (1994), which applies to quartz-free assemblages. We applied this geothermometer to euhedral amphibole-plagioclase pairs in contact or for amphibole inclusions in plagioclase phenocrysts. We stress that this thermometer is weakly affected by pressure changes (a change of 100 MPa induces a temperature difference of around 5 °C). In Table 7, the temperature estimates using the amphibole-plagioclase thermometer show a decrease in magmatic temperatures from andesitic samples that yield very homogeneous values ( $913 \pm 13$  °C, n=15), to dacites ( $881 \pm 36$  °C, n=21), and rhyolites that show even lower values ( $846 \pm 30$  °C, n=12).

Magnetite-ilmenite pairs are extremely rare in Ubina magmatic series, however, we analysed 11 pairs from dacites and rhyolites that follow the equilibrium criteria of Lacroix and Hirschmann (1988). Using the Lindsley and Spencer (1982) thermobarometric procedure, these pairs show very homogeneous T- $fO_2$  results. For dacites, the magnetite-ilmenite thermometer yields a temperature of  $879 \pm 4$  °C (n=9) and a  $fO_2$  of  $-10.3 \pm 0.1$  (NNO+2); whereas for rhyolites the temperature is slightly lower,  $849 \pm 3$  °C (n=2) and  $fO_2$  of  $-10.7 \pm 0.1$  (NNO+2). We should stress the good agreement between these temperature estimates and those obtained from the amphibole-plagioclase thermometer. However, as mentioned by Rutherford and Devine (1996), the magnetite-ilmenite thermometer systematically displays higher values (up to 30°C) for highly oxidized magmas ( $fO_2$  between -10 and -11). If we apply this empirical correction the estimated temperature should be  $\sim 850$  °C for dacites and  $\sim 820$  °C for rhyolites.

Another reliable thermometer for this magmatic group is the plagioclase-melt formulation of Putirka (2008). We applied this thermometer to mineral rims in equilibrium with the adjacent matrix glasses. We ensured that equilibrium conditions had been attained by selecting euhedral crystals, and by comparing the plagioclase-melt exchange coefficients with the putative values from the literature ( $K_d^{Ab-An} = 0.1 \pm 0.05$ ; Putirka, 2008). Given that the pressure dependency on temperature estimates is negligible, we fixed a crystallisation pressure (see below) in order to better constrain the magmatic temperature. We stress that a large pressure variation of around 500 MPa induces a temperature variation within the method's error (Putirka, 2008). In contrast, a critical point with these models concerns the pre-eruptive water content of magmas, because a change of 1 wt.%  $H_2O$  induces a variation of  $\sim 20$  °C (i.e. Putirka, 2008; Samaniego et al., 2011; Arpa et al., 2017). In this work, we consider water content of 6 wt.%, which corresponds to the maximum values measured in melt inclusions. In Table 7, we summarize temperature estimates for the ADR group. As for the previous

thermometers, the plagioclase-melt formulation shows a decrease in magmatic temperatures from andesites ( $881 \pm 5$  °C, n=6) to dacites and rhyolites that show lower but similar values ( $787 \pm 11$  °C, n=5 and  $813 \pm 5$  °C, n=8 respectively). We should stress these estimates are systematically lower than those obtained by the other methods (Table 7).

Amphibole stability in calc-alkaline magmas has been widely used to estimate its crystallization pressure. The Al-in-hornblende barometer has been experimentally calibrated for different ranges of temperature (Johnson and Rutherford, 1989; Schmidt, 1992; Mutch et al., 2016). These formulations stipulate that the aluminium content ( $Al^T$ ) of amphibole is proportional to the crystallization pressure at specific conditions defined by a mineral assemblage composed of plagioclase, sanidine, amphibole, biotite, quartz, sphene and Fe-Ti oxides. Given that quartz is absent from the equilibrium assemblages at Ubinas even from the rhyolitic magmas, this barometer would yield anomalously high pressures. On the other hand Ridolfi et al. (2010) and Ridolfi and Renzulli (2012) looked again into amphibole stability in calc-alkaline magmas and proposed new empirical P-T- $fO_2$ -XH<sub>2</sub>O formulations based on amphibole chemistry. However, many authors consider that  $Al^T$  in amphibole is sensitive to both pressure and temperature variations (Pili and Schmidt, 1992; Anderson and Smith, 1995; Bachmann and Dungan, 2002; Kiss et al., 2015). This implies that this barometer should be used within the specific temperature range at which it was calibrated. In order to test the accuracy of these models, Erdmann et al. (2014) compared the experimentally determined P-T conditions of a set of amphiboles with the values calculated using Ridolfi et al. (2010) and Ridolfi and Renzulli (2012) formulations. Based on this analysis, Erdmann et al. (2014) concluded that temperature estimates are acceptable, whereas pressure values are seriously flawed. Temperature estimates obtained from the Ridolfi et al. (2010) and Ridolfi and Renzulli (2012) methods also show a decrease in magmatic temperature from andesites to rhyolites groups (Table 7), although the absolute values are 30-60°C higher than those obtained with the magnetite-ilmenite, amphibole-plagioclase and plagioclase-melt thermometers. It is worth noting that following Ridolfi and Renzulli (2002) method, for dacitic and rhyolitic magmas we obtain very similar values for  $fO_2$  that those obtained with the magnetite-ilmenite pairs ( $\Delta NNO = 1.7 \pm 0.3$ , n=45).

Pressure estimates are summarized in Table 7. We observe that most barometers show a progressive decrease in amphibole crystallization pressure through the ADR samples. However, we should stress that the temperature estimated for ADR group did not match those of the most common experimental calibrations (Johnson and Rutherford, 1989; Schmidt, 1992; Mutch et al., 2016). For this reason, we focus on other calibrations that take into account the influence of temperature on  $Al^T$  (Anderson and Smith, 1995) or by

applying the formulation that uses the  $^{VI}Al$  for barometry (Médard and Le Pennec, 2013; Manrique et al., 2020). If we focus on amphibole phenocryst of rhyolites and fixing the temperature at 820°C (see above), we obtain  $228 \pm 86$  MPa ( $n = 16$ ) using the temperature-corrected barometer of Anderson and Smith (1995). Using the temperature independent barometer of Médard and Le Pennec (2013), we obtain rather higher values of  $316 \pm 51$  MPa, which are indeed in the error range of the methods. Other concordant results were obtained using the empirical barometers of Ridolfi et al. (2010) and Ridolfi and Renzulli (2012), which yield similar values ( $237 \pm 81$  MPa and  $252 \pm 91$  MPa, respectively). In summary, it seems plausible that amphibole in silica-rich magmas (dacites and rhyolites) crystallized at 200-400 MPa (Fig. 11) and temperatures in the range of 800-850°C.

**BA magmas.** Given the presence of ortho- and clinopyroxene in BA and andesitic magmas, a suitable geothermometer is the two-pyroxene thermometer (*cf.* Lindsley, 1983). Rivera et al. (2014) applied this thermometer for the 2006-2009 magmas and obtained temperatures of 950-1020°C ( $n=6$ ). A careful observation of these orthopyroxene-clinopyroxene pairs reveals that most of them do not follow the equilibrium criteria defined by the comparison of the calculated exchange coefficients with the putative values from the literature ( $K_d^{Fe-Mg} = 1.09 \pm 0.14$ ; Putirka, 2008). This analysis shows that only two orthopyroxene-clinopyroxene pairs from Rivera et al. (2014), one pair from our dataset and five additional pairs from older samples of older Ubina samples (Rivera, 2010) follow the equilibrium criteria. These pairs yield a temperature of  $993 \pm 24$  (n=8) for BA samples. This value is very close to the temperatures obtained with the amphibole-based Ridolfi et al. (2010) method ( $994 \pm 9^\circ C$ , n=23).

Given that most barometers are not calibrated for basaltic andesitic compositions, that the mineral assemblage of these magmas do not meet those needed for the method, and that the temperatures obtained for the BA group are far from the calibration temperatures of most barometers, the pressure estimates for this group are much more difficult to compute. In addition, we observe that the temperature-controlled edenite substitution is much more important than the pressure-controlled tschermakite substitution (Fig. 8), which implies that the differences in amphibole chemistry are mostly related to temperature, with a minor role for pressure and magma chemistry. The empirical barometers of Ridolfi et al. (2010) and Ridolfi and Renzulli (2012) yield pressures of  $453 \pm 26$  MPa and  $357 \pm 138$  (n = 23) respectively, whereas the temperature-independent barometer of Médard and Le Pennec (2013) yields values of  $341 \pm 35$  MPa (i.e. no difference between amphiboles from ADR and BA groups, Fig. 11). Given the uncertainties associated with the application of these models to the BA magmas, we

conclude that these amphiboles probably crystallized at higher pressure (>300-400 MPa) and temperatures (1000-1050°C).

Figure 11

Table 7

## 5.2. The origin of the magmatic diversity: trans-crustal assimilation and fractional crystallization

### processes

The magmatic differentiation in continental arc settings is a complex process including fractional crystallization coupled with crustal assimilation at several levels in the crust. In addition, frequent recharge and the subsequent magma mixing process is ubiquitous of active magmatic systems. We should stress that these processes are not mutually exclusive, acting at the same time during magma ascent and storage across the crust. Given that the Andean Central Volcanic Zone developed on a thick (up to 70 km) continental crust, it represents the archetype for studying the crustal participation on continental arc magmatism. Most studies consider these magmas stagnate at different levels in the crust and acquire its geochemical signature at the so-called MASH (Melting-Assimilation-Storage-Homogenization) zones located in the deep and hot lower crust (Hildreth and Moorbath, 1988; Davidson et al., 1990; Muir et al., 2014). Then, intermediate magmas could stagnate again at shallow levels, where they differentiate via a coupled assimilation-fractional crystallization process. More recently, Blum-Oeste and Wörner (2016) identified three different geochemical end-members able to explain the whole variability of CVZ magmas: (1) a slightly evolved calc-alkaline basaltic andesite; (2) an enriched shoshonitic basalt; and, (3) a crustal-derived rhyodacite. These authors propose that all CVZ magmas derived from mixing process at variable proportions of these three end-members.

The Ubinas magmatic series, which is composed of basaltic andesites through to rhyolites, has been interpreted as a result of a coupled assimilation and fractional crystallization process occurring at different depth in the crust (Thouret et al., 2005; Rivera, 2010). These authors also suggest that the mafic magmas resulted of a deep crustal differentiation process involving amphibole and/or garnet. Our geochemical data shows a conspicuous break-in-slope observed at 56-57 wt.% SiO<sub>2</sub> in compatible elements (MgO, Ni, Sr, Fig. 4). This feature indicates the early crystallization of an olivine-dominated cumulate in BA magmas, followed by the fractionation of clinopyroxene, amphibole and plagioclase for ADR magmas. In addition, the frequent zoning

patterns observed in plagioclase and pyroxenes; and, the fact that the matrix glass compositions fall on the main Ubina geochemical trend (Fig. 10), corroborates the progressive fractionation process.

Experimental data on crystallization of primitive arc magmas at mid- to lower-crustal pressures show a continuous geochemical trend from primitive magnesian basalts up to high-silica rhyolites (Müntener et al., 2001; Sisson et al., 2005; Pichavant and Macdonald, 2007; Alonso-Perez et al., 2009; Blatter et al., 2013; Nandedkar et al., 2014). These experiments were performed from near-liquidus temperatures (~1150-1200°C) down to temperatures as low as 700°C; pressures ranging from 900 to 400 MPa; and at oxidizing (NNO+2) and moderately hydrous (~3-4 wt.% H<sub>2</sub>O) conditions. At high pressure and temperature (900-700 MPa; 1200-950°C), the dominant crystallizing minerals are clinopyroxene + olivine + Cr-Spinel ± orthopyroxene. At lower pressure and temperature, plagioclase begins to crystallize, Fe-Ti oxides replace spinel, olivine dissolves and amphibole crystallization begins (at temperatures below ~1000°C). At the end of the crystallization sequence, apatite, quartz and biotite appear as liquidus phases. In Fig. 10 we compare the major element compositions of the whole-rock and matrix glasses and melt inclusions from Ubina with fields of selected experimentally-determined liquids (Sisson et al., 2005; Blatter et al., 2013; Nandedkar et al., 2014). We observe a reasonable correspondence, except for the mafic compositions (> 5 wt.% MgO), which are lacking in the Ubina magmatic series, and globally lower values of K<sub>2</sub>O (not shown) related to the composition of the starting material. These results imply that the commonly observed mineral assemblage in Ubina samples records a long crystallization sequence, roughly spanning from 900 to 200 MPa, and from 1150 to 700°C.

Additional constraints on magmatic differentiation come from trace elements systematics. The negative correlation of Sr with silica increase suggest a significant role of plagioclase, whereas the decrease of the transition metals (e.g. Ni, Sc, V) suggest the fractionation of clinopyroxene and olivine, namely for BA group. In addition, trace element systematics supports the leading role of amphibole fractionation for the ADR group. On the basis of theoretical and experimental studies, amphibole preferentially incorporates MREE over HREE and LREE (*cf.* Davidson et al., 2007). This observation is corroborated by the Ubina amphibole trace element patterns (Fig. 9), which show that fractionation of this mineral leads to an increase in La/Nd and a decrease in Nd/Yb and Dy/Yb with silica contents in the magma (Fig. 12a, b). In order to test the hypothesis of an amphibole-controlled fractional crystallization process, we performed a two-steps geochemical modelling procedure. First, major element mass-balance calculations (Bryan et al., 1969) between mafic and felsic end-members (e.g. UBI-10-18C and UBI-10-11, respectively) allow us to estimate the modal composition of the cumulate (46–48% Pl + 38–44% Amph + 3–5% Cpx + 6% Mag + 1% Apt), as well as the degree of fractionation

(50-55%) required to evolve from a BA to a rhyolitic end-members. It is worth noting that the modal composition of the cumulate estimated by mass-balance is coherent with the observed mineral assemblage of Ubinas samples and confirms the leading role of amphibole fractionation. Then, these results were used in the trace element modelling of a Rayleigh-type fractional crystallization (FC), using partition coefficients for intermediate liquids (Rollinson, 1993; Bachmann et al. 2005; Rivera et al., 2017). We also observe that isotopic ratios are correlated with silica as well as with some trace elements ratios (e.g. Dy/Yb, Fig. 12c, d), and that the higher values for both parameters (i.e. Dy/Yb and  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ ) roughly correspond to the BA samples. Consequently, a pure fractional crystallization processes cannot explain these variations: the changes in isotopic ratios clearly point at of some degree of crustal assimilation. Based on this observation, we performed an assimilation-fractional crystallization (AFC, DePaolo, 1981) model, using exactly the same parameters than for the FC model, with different fractionation/assimilation ratios ( $r = 0.04-0.10$ ) and using the local upper continental crust represented by the Precambrian Charcani gneiss (Beily et al., 1990; Rivera et al., 2017) as a potential contaminant. The modelling results for both FC and AFC models are shown in Fig. 13. These models show a good agreement for most trace elements in the multi-parameter plot (Fig. 13a), as well as in the binary plots including key trace elements ratios and isotopic rapports (Fig. 13b, c), although a mismatch is observed for some trace elements as the LREE. These models suggest a proportion of assimilated crust of 2-6 vol.% (following the procedure of Aitchison and Forrest, 1994).

Lastly given that Sr-Nd-Pb ratios are similar beyond the mantle values, with only weak isotopic variations between the basaltic andesitic and rhyolitic end-members (with a silica variation of more than 15 wt.%), we suggest that the isotopic signature of BA Ubinas magmas was mostly acquired at a deep stage of magmatic differentiation, probably in the lower crust MASH zone. Single mass-balance models confirm that 20-30% of a putative lower crust is needed to shift the mantle-derived magmas to those of the BA Ubinas samples. Given the large uncertainties concerning the deep fractionation processes as well as the lower crustal compositions, we did not perform a quantitative analyse of these deep processes. However, this two-steps model has been applied on a regional Andean scale (Hildreth and Moorbath, 1988; Mamani et al., 2010; Blum-Oeste and Wörner, 2016; Ancellin et al., 2017) as well as to specific volcanic centres such as the Andahua monogenetic cones (Delacour et al., 2007), El Misti (Rivera et al., 2017), Ollagüe (Feeley and Davidson, 1994; Matioli et al., 2006), Nevados de Payachata (Davidson et al., 1990), and Lascar (Sainlot et al., 2020) in the CVZ; and Cotopaxi (Garrison et al., 2011) and Tungurahua volcanoes (Nauret et al., 2018) in the NVZ.

Figure 12

Figure 13

### 5.3. The magmatic plumbing system and the progressive temporal changes in magma chemistry

The geochemical data for the Ubinas magmatic series reveals a large compositional variation that could be explained by a coupled assimilation-fractional crystallization (AFC) process involving a mineral assemblage composed of plagioclase, amphibole, orthopyroxene, clinopyroxene, Fe-Ti oxides, with minor olivine and biotite (at the mafic and felsic end-members respectively). A key geochemical characteristic of the Ubinas magmatic series is the overall variation of most geochemical parameters. As discussed above, Ubinas magmas become less differentiated through time (Fig. 3, 4, Supplementary materials 5 and 6), with the recently erupted magmas (the BA group) displaying the highest  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$  and lowest  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  isotopes (Fig. 5, Supplementary materials 6), indicating that BA magmas are among the most primitive compositions erupted during the last millennium. In addition, as demonstrated by Rivera et al. (2014) for the 2006-2009 eruptions, and corroborated by 2013-2017 magmas (this work), the BA magmas display frequent disequilibrium textures, such as inversely zoned plagioclase phenocrysts with sieve textures and overgrowth rims, inversely zoned clinopyroxene phenocrysts, and rare olivine crystals with reaction and overgrowth rims. These features point to a magma mixing scenario between two magmas of similar basaltic andesitic compositions but different temperature and volatile contents (Rivera et al., 2014). Thus, we infer that during the historical and recent eruptions the trans-crustal magmatic reservoir was fed by mafic magmas *in situ*. In contrast, it is worth noting that disequilibrium textures and other magma mixing evidences (e.g. banded samples) are absent in the ADR samples. However, we should stress that mixing of hybrid magmas of different degrees of differentiation is a ubiquitous process at the trans-crustal magmatic systems.

Due to the thick continental crust, primitive basaltic magmas are extremely rare in the Central Andes, with notable exceptions, for example the Andahua monogenetic cones in Southern Peru (Delacour et al., 2007; Sørensen and Holm, 2008). On the whole, the primitive Central Andes magmas display variably enriched trace element patterns as well as variable radiogenic isotopic signatures (Mamani et al., 2010; Blum-Oeste and Wörner, 2016), which must have been acquired at the so-called lower-crustal hot zones (Hildreth and Moorbath, 1988; Annen et al., 2006). During their ascent from the lower crust, these magmas stall at different levels in the thick Central Andes crust and then feed the middle-to-upper crustal magma system.

On the basis of the petrological data presented in this work, we are able to reconstruct the upper part of the magma plumbing system over the last millennia. Although most barometers indicate two distinct pressure populations for ADR and BA magmas, we cannot confirm these differences due to the fact that most magmas (namely the BA group) do not meet neither the mineralogical assemblage nor the temperature range stipulated for the models. If we focus on most differentiated magmas of Ubina series (dacites and rhyolites), and taking into account the intrinsic uncertainties related with the methods, we consider that amphibole from these magmas crystallized in the range of 200-400 MPa, which is realistic for dacitic and rhyolitic magmas in arc settings (Rutherford and Hill, 1993; Moore and Carmichael, 1998; Martel et al., 1999; Scaillet and Evans, 1999; Rutherford and Devine, 2003; Andujar et al., 2017; Martel et al., 2018). Considering a bulk density value for upper crustal rocks of 2600 kg/m<sup>3</sup>, and the pressure-depth relationship of Blundy and Cashman (2008), the ADR magma storage region would be located at 8-15 km below the summit. We imagine this magma storage region as a plexus of sill-like intrusions that conform a mushy magma reservoir (cf. Annen et al., 2006; Wörner et al., 2018). This reservoir should be frequently fed by primitive BA magmas that certainly formed deeper in the crust as a result of AFC process from primitive arc magmas, as suggested by phase-equilibrium studies revealing that primitive arc magmas in arc settings stall and differentiate at even higher pressures (up to 900 MPa, 30-35 km deep; Blatter et al., 2013; Nandedkar et al., 2014).

During Holocene times, the Ubina magma plumbing system stored a large amount of differentiated (andesitic to rhyolitic) magmas. As a result, Ubina experienced notable plinian eruptions, the last one occurred at 1-2 ka. In contrast, over the last few centuries, Ubina experienced smaller eruptions involving BA magmas. Although we cannot exclude a bias due to the fact that smaller basaltic andesitic events might not be preserved in the geological record, it seems clear that the current state of the Ubina magma plumbing system corresponds to a phase of recharge, with no evidence for a rejuvenation of the silica-rich reservoir that fed the large Holocene dacitic to rhyolitic eruptions. This conclusion is corroborated by recent seismological studies showing that volcano-tectonic events at Ubina are clustered below the summit caldera and up to 8 km depth (Inza et al., 2014; Gonzalez et al., 2014; Machacca-Puma et al., 2019). In addition, some regional geophysical studies in this part of the Andes have not identified low velocity anomalies that could be interpreted as a large magma storage zone, suggesting a reservoir of relatively modest dimensions that is unable to be imaged by the spatial resolution of the regional tomographic studies (cf. Ryant et al., 2016).

Figure 14



## 6. Conclusions

During the last millennia (i.e. post-glacial and Holocene times) and recently, the eruptive products of Ubinas have shown an overall decrease in silica content from the older rhyolites (69-71 wt.% SiO<sub>2</sub>) to the historical and recent basaltic andesites (55-57 wt.% SiO<sub>2</sub>). K<sub>2</sub>O and certain incompatible trace elements (e.g. Rb, Th) are positively correlated with silica; whereas MgO concentration, as well the compatible elements (e.g. Sr, Y, Yb, Ni, Cr) display an overall increase from the older rhyolites to the younger basaltic andesites, peaking in the CE 1667 eruption products. In contrast to these large major and trace element variations, Sr-Nd-Pb isotopic values show generally highly radiogenic values but little variation from basaltic andesites to rhyolites. We note that the isotopic data indicate that magmas erupted during the recent eruptions of Ubinas rank amongst the most primitive magmas erupted by this volcano during the last millennia. These temporal patterns indicate that the Ubinas magmatic series evolved in the middle-to-upper crust by a coupled Assimilation-Fractional Crystallization (AFC) process involving a cumulate composed of plagioclase, amphibole, clinopyroxene, orthopyroxene and Fe-Ti oxides with minor amounts of olivine and biotite at the mafic and felsic end-members. The role of upper crustal assimilation is limited and constrained to maximum a few per cent; however, the highly radiogenic Sr-Nd-Pb signature of Ubinas magmas requires a higher degree of crustal processing, which must have occurred at lower crustal depths.

The detailed petrological study of the Ubinas magmatic series points to an overall variation in P-T conditions, from the older and colder dacites and rhyolites up to the younger (historical and recent), hotter and probably deeper basaltic andesites. These data, together with geochemical and phase equilibrium constraints allow us to propose the existence of an elongated upper crust magma reservoir composed of a highly crystalline mush with some batches of liquid magma. Our study reveals that the large Holocene andesite-dacite-rhyolite (ADR) eruptions require the existence of a large shallower reservoir at 200-400 MPa, which seems to be recharged by the historical and recent (CE 1667, 2006-2009, 2013-2017) basaltic andesitic magmas, which were formed at deeper levels in the crust. This study highlights the importance of detailed petrological studies of Holocene sequences at explosive arc volcanoes in order to constrain the magmatic processes and conditions that control the occurrence of large explosive eruptions.

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## Figures

**Figure 1.** (a) Digital elevation model of southern Peru, showing the location of the active volcanic arc and Ubinas volcano. (b) Ubinas volcano seen from the south, showing an ash-rich vulcanian eruption column. This photo was taken from Ubinas village on April 26<sup>th</sup>, 2014.

**Figure 2.** (a) Synthetic stratigraphic column showing the main eruptive events of the post-glacial to recent eruptive chronology of Ubinas volcano (after Thouret et al., 2005 and our own fieldwork). The colour code corresponds to the main units defined in the text: grey/black for rhyolites, white for dacites, yellow for andesites and red for basaltic andesites. (b) Plinian fallout deposit close to Sacuhaya hamlet (UBI-10-10, see Supplementary material 1 for the UTM location). (c) Succession of at least 6 plinian-subplinian fallout deposits interlayered with reworked ash horizons outcropping close to Sacuhaya hamlet (UBI-10-11 to UBI-10-16). (d) Plinian fallout deposits at Quebrada Infiernillos (UBI-10-01 to UBI-10-06) dated at 1-2 ka. (e) Scoria-rich pyroclastic density current deposit on the western flank of Ubinas just below the caldera rim (UBI-10-19). (f) Ballistic block near the caldera rim associated with the 2015 eruption (UBI-15-14). Note the grey ash layer that covers the caldera rim results from the recent eruptions (2006-2009 and 2013-2015).

**Figure 3.** (a) Sample locations on the Sacuhaya cross-section. (b) Silica content of samples from the Sacuhaya section. (c) K<sub>2</sub>O vs. SiO<sub>2</sub> diagram from the post-glacial, historical, and recent samples of Ubinas volcano. The fields in this diagram are taken from Pecerillo and Taylor (1976). BA, basic andesite; A, andesite; D, dacite; R, rhyolite; LK, low potassium; MK, medium potassium; HK, high potassium. (d) Silica contents vs. stratigraphic position for the post-glacial to recent samples. Black dots correspond to samples from a distal tephra fallout (UBI-10-15 and UBI-10-08), whose source is probably other than Ubinas.

**Figure 4.** Selected major (a, b) and trace (c, d, e, f, g, h) elements for Ubinas samples. Note the break in slope between the basic andesite (BA) group and the andesite, dacite, rhyolite (ADR) group. Symbols are the same as in Fig. 3.

**Figure 5.** (a) <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr vs. <sup>143</sup>Nd/<sup>144</sup>Nd diagram for Ubinas rocks, compared with published isotopic data for the Mid-Ocean Ridge Basalts (MORB, White et al., 1993 and reference therein) and the Andean Northern, Central

and Southern Volcanic Zones (NVZ, CVZ and SVZ respectively; Davidson et al., 1991; Ancellin et al., 2017). (b) Detailed  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  vs.  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$  diagram for Ubinas samples. (c)  $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$  vs.  $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$  diagram for Ubinas samples. Note the extreme homogeneity of Ubinas volcano compared to the very large field displayed for the CVZ. (d) Detailed  $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$  vs.  $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$  diagram for Ubinas samples. The absence of linear correlation suggests that a process more complicated than a simple binary mixing process controls Pb isotopes variations. Data from the Andahua monogenetic cones (Delacour et al., 2007) and El Misti volcano (Rivera et al., 2017) are also included. The isotopic signature of the Precambrian Charcani gneiss comes from Boily et al. (1990), Mamani et al. (2010) and Rivera et al. (2017). Symbols are the same as in Fig. 3. Analytical error bars are within the symbol size.

**Figure 6.** Optical microphotographs for Ubinas samples. (a) Basaltic andesite (UBI-10-18C) showing a mineral assemblage composed of plagioclase, ortho- and clinopyroxene, amphibole and Fe-Ti oxides. Note the black aureole around the amphibole. (b) Disequilibrium textures in the basaltic andesite (UBI-10-18C) showing a clinopyroxene phenocryst core mantled with an overgrowth rim and a plagioclase phenocryst (top left) with an altered (sieve) core and a fresh overgrowth rim. (c) Andesitic tephra (UBI-10-06) showing a mineral clot composed of plagioclase, amphibole and orthopyroxene. (d) Amphibole phenocryst in a rhyolitic tephra (UBI-10-10B).

**Figure 7.** Histograms of An contents for plagioclases derived from (a) basaltic andesites, (b) andesites, (c) dacites, and (d) rhyolites. Rims (R) are differentiated from core and interior (C+I) compositions. Note the large An variations, namely for plagioclase from the BA group, and the fact that most compositions in the BA (and andesites) display  $\text{An}_{55-65}$ , whereas the plagioclases in the dacites and rhyolites are generally between  $\text{An}_{35-50}$ .

**Figure 8.** (a) Diagram showing the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  and Mg# variations for Ubinas amphiboles. The vectors represent in a schematic way the effect of an increase in P-T as well as a variation of mafic to felsic magma chemistry (modified from Kiss et al., 2014). (b)  $^{\text{IV}}\text{Al}$  vs.  $^{\text{VI}}\text{Al}$ , and (c)  $^{\text{IV}}\text{Al}$  vs.  $(\text{Na}+\text{K})^{\text{A}}$  showing the effect of edenite (*ed*) and tshermakite (*tk*) substitutions (after Poli and Schmidt, 1992).

**Figure 9.** Rare earth element (REE) diagram for selected (a) plagioclase, (b) ortho and clinopyroxene, and (c) amphibole phenocrysts from Ubinas samples. Note that two populations exist for amphibole. Data normalized to

chondrite values (Sun and McDonough, 1989). Data correspond to a basaltic andesite (UBI-10-18B), an andesite (UBI-10-01) and a rhyolite (UBI-10-10C).

**Figure 10.** MgO (a), CaO (b), Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (c), Na<sub>2</sub>O (d), Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>\* (e), CaO/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (f) as a function of silica for whole-rocks (WR), matrix glasses (MG) and melt inclusions (MI) of Ubinas samples. The fields of experimentally determined liquid-line-of-descent compositions are shown for comparison (S05: Sisson et al., 2005; B13: Blatter et al., 2013; N14: Nandedkar et al., 2014).

**Figure 11.** Histograms of amphibole crystallization pressure estimates for Ubinas samples (BA: basic andesites; A: andesites; D: dacites; R: rhyolites). Different models have been tested (JR8: Johnson and Rutherford, 1989; R10: Ridolfi et al., 2010; RR12: Ridolfi and Renzulli, 2012; MLP: Mercier and Le Pennec, 2013).

**Figure 12.** (a, b, c) Sr/Y, Dy/Yb, and <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr vs. silica content. (d) Dy/Yb vs. <sup>143</sup>Nd/<sup>144</sup>Nd. The white circles labelled as “BA”, “EB” and “RD” correspond to the three end-members identified by Blum-Oeste and Wörner (2016). BA – calc-alkaline basaltic andesite, EB – silicoshaltic enriched basalt, RD – crustal-derived rhyodacite. The grey field corresponds to the CVZ geochemical variation. The arrows in (a, b) show the expected effects of garnet, amphibole and plagioclase-pyroxene fractionation. Note that the only mineral able to efficiently fractionate MREE over HREE (i.e. Dy/Yb) is amphibole. The arrows in (c, d) correspond to theoretical trends for FC and AFC process. Symbols are the same as in Fig. 3.

**Figure 13.** Results of the geochemical modelling. (a) Multielement diagram normalized to Primitive Mantle (Sun and McDonough, 1989) for the mafic (UBI-10-18C) and silica-rich (UBI-10-11) end-members, as well as an AFC model. (b) Sr vs. <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr diagrams showing the Ubinas samples as well as the AFC and FC models from two mafic end-members (UBI-10-18C and UBI-99-10). (c) Sr vs. Dy/Yb diagram for Ubinas samples and the two AFC models. The fractionating phases for both models (FC and AFC) are 46% Pl + 44% Amph + 3% Cpx + 6% Mag + 1% Apt, and the assimilation/fractional crystallization rate (r) = 0.04. Partition coefficients were compiled by Rivera et al. (2017) and correspond to intermediate to acid liquids. Note that in (a) and (c) AFC and FC models display almost the same values due to fact that trace elements are slightly modified by the very low degrees of crustal assimilation, whereas in (b) we clearly show that assimilation is needed for explain the Sr isotopic variation. Symbols are the same as in Fig. 3.

**Figure 14.** Reconstruction of the magmatic plumbing system beneath Ubinas volcano for **(a)** the ADR group (post glacial and Holocene), and **(b)** the BA group (Historical and recent eruptions). The volcano-tectonic (VT) seismic source location comes from Machacca-Puma et al. (2019).

**Table 1.** Whole-rock major, trace elements and Sr-Nd-Pb isotopes for the Ubinas.

**Table 2.** Selected plagioclase analyses for Ubinas samples.

**Table 3.** Selected amphibole and biotite analyses for Ubinas samples.

**Table 4.** Selected clinopyroxene and orthopyroxene analyses for Ubinas samples.

**Table 5.** Selected olivine and Fe-Ti oxides analyses for Ubinas samples.

**Table 6.** Matrix glass composition (average  $\pm$  standard deviation) for Ubinas samples.

**Table 7.** T-P-H<sub>2</sub>O conditions for Ubinas magmas.

**Supplementary material 1.** Samples location for Ubinas volcano.

**Supplementary material 2.** Mineral composition for Ubinas samples.

**Supplementary material 3.** Raman spectra showing the glass bands in the alumino-silicate network domain. The intense peak at  $\sim 670 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  indicates the presence of magnetite nanolites dispersed in the glass. **(a)** Spectra of selected inclusions only slightly affected by the presence of magnetite (intensity ratios of magnetite peak to glass band ranging from 0.4 to 0.6). **(b)** Spectra of glass inclusions strongly affected by the presence of magnetite (intensity ratios from 0.6 to 1.8). Signal intensity is normalized to acquisition time and laser power.

**Supplementary material 4.** Effect of the presence of magnetite nanolites on the quantification of water in glass inclusions by Raman spectroscopy.  $I_{\text{Mgt}}/I_{\text{glass}}$  is the ratio of the intensity of the main Raman peak of magnetite to the intensity of the principal Raman band of the glass. **(a)** Plot of  $I_{\text{Mgt}}/I_{\text{glass}}$  versus the totals calculated as the sum of all major elements measured by electron microprobe and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  values measured by Raman spectroscopy. A negative correlation is observed, indicating that the measured water content is more accurate for inclusions weakly affected by the presence of magnetite (low  $I_{\text{Mgt}}/I_{\text{glass}}$ ) and that low totals are due to underestimate of the water contents for high  $I_{\text{Mgt}}/I_{\text{glass}}$ . **(b)** Plot of  $I_{\text{Mgt}}/I_{\text{glass}}$  versus the measured water contents. For low  $I_{\text{Mgt}}/I_{\text{glass}}$ , the measured water contents are not or weakly underestimated, whereas they deviate progressively from the correct contents as the  $I_{\text{Mgt}}/I_{\text{glass}}$  ratio increases. The three dashed arrows indicate the approximate extent of the correction needed to obtain the true water contents.

**Supplementary material 5.** Binary diagrams of the Ubina magmatic series, showing major ( $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3^*$ , CaO,  $\text{Na}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2$ ) and trace elements (V, Cr, Nb, Y, Ba, Th, Ce, Dy) plotted against silica as a differentiation index.

**Supplementary material 6.** Temporal variation of the Ubina magmatic series, showing some key major (MgO and CaO), trace elements concentrations (Th, La, Nd, Yb) and ratios (La/Nd, Dy/Yb, Rb/Sr), as well as some isotopic ratios ( $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ,  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ ,  $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ ).

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**Declaration of competing interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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## Highlights

Holocene to recent eruptive products of Ubinas volcano display a progressive decrease in silica content

Ubinas eruptions reveal a link between magnitude, dynamism and magma chemistry

Magma diversity results of middle-to-upper crust assimilation-fractional crystallization process

Petrology suggest a progressive increase in P-T conditions, from the older dacites and rhyolites to the younger basaltic andesites

Dacites and rhyolites are stored at a reservoir at 250-400 MPa, which seems to be recharged by the historical and recent basaltic andesitic magmas

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