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3 4	1	The Ilopango Tierra Blanca Joven (TBJ) eruption, El Salvador:
5 6	2	volcano-stratigraphy and physical characterization of the major Holocene event
7 8	3	of Central America
9 10	4	Dario Pedrazzi ¹ , Ivan Sunye-Puchol ² , Gerardo Aguirre-Díaz ² , Antonio Costa ³ , Victoria
11	5	C. Smith ⁴ , Matthieu Poret ³ , Pablo Dávila-Harris ⁵ , Daniel P. Miggins ⁶ , Walter
12 13 14	6	Hernández ⁷ , Eduardo Gutiérrez ⁷
15	7	¹ ICTJA, CSIC, Group of Volcanology, SIMGEO UB-CSIC, Institute of Earth Sciences
16 17	8	Jaume Almera, Lluis Sole i Sabaris s/n, 08028 Barcelona, Spain
18 19	9	² Centro de Geociencias, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Blvd. Juriquilla
20	10	3001, Campus UNAM, Querétaro, 76230, Mexico
21 22	11	³ Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia, INGV-Bologna, Via Donato Creti, 12,
23 24	12	40100 Bologna, Italy.
24 25	13	⁴ Research Laboratory for Archaeology and the History of Art University of Oxford 1-2
26 27	14	South Parks Road Oxford OX1 3TG, U.K.
28	15	⁵ División de Geociencias Aplicadas, IPICYT, San Luis Potosí, 78216, Mexico.
29 30	16	⁶ College of Earth, Ocean and Atmospheric Sciences, Oregon State University, 104
31 32	17	CEOAS Administration Building, 101 SW 26th St, Corvallis, OR 97331, EE. UU.
33	18	⁷ Gerencia de Geología del Observatorio Ambiental, Ministerio de Medio Ambiente y
34 35	19	Recursos Naturales MARN San Salvador, 76230, El Salvador
36	20	*Corresponding author (e-mail: dpedrazzi@ictja.csic.es)
37 38	21	Submitted to: JVGR
39 40	22	Abstract
41 42	23	The Ilopango caldera is the source of the large Tierra Blanca Joven (TBJ) eruption that
43	24 25	occurred about 1.5 ka years ago, between ca. AD270 and AD535. The eruption dispersed volcanic ash over much of the present territory of El Salv.or, and pyroclastic
44 45	26	density currents extended 40 km from the volcano. In this study, we document the
45 46	27	physical characteristics of the deposits from all over El Salvador to further constrain the
47	28 29	eruption processes and the intensity and magnitude of the different phases of the eruption. The succession of deposits generated by the TBL eruption is made of 8 units

eruption. The succession of deposits generated by the TBJ eruption is made of 8 units.

The eruption started with PDCs of hydromagmatic origin (Unit A₀), followed by fallout

deposits (Units A and B) that are <15 cm thick and exposed in sections close to the

Ilopango caldera (within 10-15 km). The eruption, then, transitioned into a regime that

generated further PDCs (Units C-F), these range from dilute to dense and they filled the

depressions near the Ilopango caldera with thicknesses up to 70 m. Deposits from the

co-ignimbrite plume (Unit G) are the most widespread, the deposits are found in

Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica and the Pacific Ocean and cm-thick

across El Salvador. Modelling of the deposits suggests that column heights were 29 km

and 7 km for the first two fallout phases, and that the co-ignimbrite phoenix plume rose up to 49 km. Volumes estimated for the fallout units are 0.15, 0.8 and 16 km³ dense rock equivalent (DRE) for Unit A, B and G respectively. The PDCs deposits volumes were estimated to be ~0.5, ~3.3, ~0.3 and ~9.1 km³ DRE for Units C, D, E and F, respectively. The combined volume of TBJ deposits is ~30 km³ DRE (~58 km³ bulk rock), indicating that it was one of largest Holocene eruptions from Central America. This eruption occurred while Mayan populations were living in the region and it would have had a significant impact on the areas within tens of kilometres of the vent for many vears to decades after the eruption.

Keywords: Pyroclastic Density Currents; Co-ignimbrite; Tephra fallout; Tephra dispersal modelling; Ilopango caldera

1. Introduction

Large caldera volcanoes pose a significant hazard to populations that surround them. In order to understand the likelihood and type of further activity it is key that the deposits of previous eruptions are well studied. This study focuses on the thick deposits of the Tierra Blanca Joven (TBJ) eruption from Ilopango Caldera, El Salvador.

Ilopango Caldera (IC; Fig. 1), located in El Salvador, is a 13 by 17 km volcano-tectonic structure filled by an intra-caldera lake (Mann et al., 2004), recently interpreted as a strike-slip caldera by Saxby et al. (2016). The IC belongs to the San Salvador Extensional Step-over in the central part of the country (SSES; Fig. 1b; Garibaldi et al. 2016), which is in turn part of the El Salvador Fault Zone-ESFZ (Montero and Dewey, 1982; Siebert and Simkin, 2002; La Femina et al., 2002; Corti et al., 2005; Turner et al., 2007). The IC was formed and shaped by various eruptions, and older (pre-57 ka) pyroclastic deposits are related to previous caldera collapse episodes (Lexa et al., 2011; Aguirre Díaz et al., 2017; Suñé-Puchol et al., 2019a,b). There are only a few publications that detail the eruptions in the last 57 ka, i.e. the TB4, TB3 and TB2 eruptions (Rose et al., 1999; Kutterolf et al., 2008a,b; Hernández, 2004; Hernández et al., 2012; Mann et al., 2004) and some recent studies have been carried out on the pre-57 ka ignimbrites of Ilopango (Hernández, 2004; Hernández et al., 2010; Lexa et al., 2011; Aguirre Díaz et al., 2017; Suñé-Puchol et al., 2019a,b). The latest studies focused on the eruption of a dacitic dome that formed the Islas Quemadas in Ilopango Lake (IQ; Fig. 1c) in 1879 (Richer et al., 2004), and a subaquatic eruption in this lake (Mann et al., 2004).

The last large explosive eruption of Ilopango volcano was the TBJ (Tierra Blanca Joven – white young earth), which is estimated to have erupted $\sim 30 \text{ km}^3 \text{ DRE of}$

magma about 1.5ka years ago, between AD270 and AD535 (Dull et al., 2001; 2010). The TBJ was a cataclysmic eruption (Rolo et al., 2004) and is considered to be the largest in Central America since the ca. 84ka Los Chocoyos-Guatemala eruption (Dull et al., 2010). Outside of the zone of devastation by the TBJ eruption, there was a much larger area of prolonged depopulation (10-150 years) following the TBJ eruption (Dull et al., 2001).

Presently, the area around IC is densely populated with about 3,000,000 people living within 30 km of the caldera. The population density during most of the late Holocene in El Salvador has been the greatest of any mainland country in the Americas (Daugherty 1969; Denevan 1992; Lovell and Lutz 1995; Wilkie and Ortega 1997). Since the last eruption was in AD1879, IC is still considered active and, it poses a major risk for El Salvador and neighbouring countries. In order to contribute to the hazard assessment at IC, we conducted a detailed field mapping to further investigate the TBJ deposits with the aim of building on the previous work and accurately reconstructing the eruption sequence.

There have been several publications about the TBJ eruption deposits. They were first documented by Williams and Meyer Abich (1955) and called "white earth" due to their peculiar white colour, although they were thought to originate from San Salvador Volcano. Further studies of IC deposits were carried out by the German Geological Mission (MGA) whilst they completed the 1:500,000 scale El Salvador Geological Map (Weber et al., 1974). They defined IC and divided the proximal deposits into Units s4 (TBJ deposits) and s3'a (TB4, TB3 and TB2 eruptions) as part of the San Salvador Formation. Later, Hart (1981) worked on the detailed stratigraphy of the TBJ deposits and identified two important eruptive stages; T1 and T2, whose products are subdivided into six units and associated with different eruptive phases. Subsequently, Hart and Steen-McIntire (1983) described the stratigraphy and distribution of the TBJ tephra and Vallance and Houghton (1998) revised the stratigraphy of Hart and Steen-McIntire (1983) and labelled the stratigraphic units, characterizing them lithologically and refining associated eruptive processes. Recent works on TBJ by Hernández (2004) identified new ignimbrites (Alpha, Beta, and Gray) and detailed the characteristics of each unit in more detail.

173106Despite all this studies, a detailed stratigraphic survey including mapping and174107reconstruction of eruptive dynamics was still lacking. This study presents new field176108descriptions, petrographic observations, major element glass geochemistry,

granulometric data for the TBJ deposits, and uses these data to further understand transport/depositional mechanisms and the corresponding eruption dynamics of the TBJ eruption. Moreover, the physical parameters of the eruption were determined, including the total erupted mass, the height of the eruptive columns, the emission rate, the duration of the eruption, and, above all, reconstruct the distribution of the TBJ deposit using models and field observations. In particular, the stratigraphic and granulometric data obtained in the field were used to model the distribution of the TBJ tephra, including the dispersion of the finest ash that covered vast areas (thousands of km²).

197 117 2. Geological Setting

198199118Central America and El Salvador geodynamic and geology

El Salvador is located in North Central America, on the Pacific margin of the Caribbean Plate (Fig. 1a). To the north, this plate interacts with the North American plate with a relative velocity between plates of 19 mm/year (DeMets et al., 2000; Guzmán - Speziale et al., 2005; Funk et al., 2009). Towards the west of El Salvador, the relatively young Cocos Plate (<25 Ma; Protti et al., 1995; Barckhausen et al., 2001) subducts towards the NE under the Caribbean plate along the Middle America Trench, at a speed of 73-85 mm/year (Dixon, 1993; De Mets, 2001).

The highest rate of continental tectonic deformation in El Salvador occurs in the El Salvador Fault Zone (ESFZ), a narrow E-W zone of right lateral faulting connected by pull-aparts, that extends for more than 150 km (Martínez - Díaz et al., 2004; Fig. 1a) from Guatemala, where it is known as the Jalpatagua Fault (JF), to the Nicaragua Depression (ND) (Canora et al., 2012). These faults are sub-parallel and affect volcanic deposits and volcanic rocks of Pleistocene-Holocene age (Corti et al., 2005). Geological and seismological analyses suggest that ESFZ is not laterally continuous and it has been subdivided into different sections (Martínez - Díaz et al., 2004; Corti et al., 2005).

The chain of volcanoes along the Central American Volcanic Arc (CAVA; Fig. 1a) has been developing since the Tertiary (De Mets, 2001; Mann, 2007; Carr et al., 2007) and is part of the Pacific Ring of Fire (Simkin and Siebert, 1994; Carr et al., 2007; Saxby et al., 2016). The CAVA extends for more than 1,000 km from the southeast of Mexico to the central valley of Costa Rica and defines an abrupt continental volcanic front located between 165-190 km from the Middle America Trench (Fig. 1a). Volcanoes of Panama are excluded from the CAVA as they are associated with the subduction of the Nazca Plate below the Caribbean, which makes

them distinct in composition and activity relative to those in the CAVA (Carr et al.,2007).

Volcanism of the Volcanic Arc of El Salvador (VAES) constitutes one of the most active segments of the CAVA. VAES includes 21 active volcanoes, three of which have erupted in the last century (Santa Ana-SA, Izalco-I, San Salvador-SS and San Miguel-SM, Fig. 1b; Siebert and Simkin, 2002). Deposits from these volcanoes, together with volcanic rocks of ages ranging from the Cenozoic to the present, constitute most of the geology of El Salvador (Fig. 1b).

256 150 Ilopango Caldera

The IC (Fig. 1c) is located less than 10 km from San Salvador City and it forms part of the same eruptive lineament as the San Salvador and San Vicente volcanoes (Fig. 1b). IC is located directly above faults in the San Salvador and San Vicente ESFZ segments within the San Salvador Pull-Apart (SSPA; Garibaldi et al., 2016), which is a tectonic structure-oriented NW-SE, with right trans-tensive dynamics, parallel to the Mesoamerican trench. The transforming faults of the graben / pull-apart seem to control the morphology of IC, its formation and its volcanic eruptions (Soefield, 2004; Suñe-Puchol et al., 2019a), as described for other Graben Calderas (Aguirre-Díaz, 2008). Several authors, in their study of volcanism in southern El Salvador, noticed that the IC was a volcanic-tectonic depression controlled by the faults of an ancient graben (Williams and Meyer-Abich, 1955; Golombek and Carr, 1978; Hutton and Reavy, 1992; Soefield 2004; Aguirre-Díaz et al., 2015, 2016, 2017). Recently, Saxby et al. (2016) interpreted IC as a strike-slip caldera. IC was the result of several collapses associated to large explosive ignimbrite-forming eruptions (Suñé-Puchol et al., 2019a,b) as previously suggested by Williams and Meyer-Abich (1955). The topographic edge of IC has several semicircular bays (Fig. 1c), which are evidence for multiple collapse events (Lexa et al., 2011).

3. Methods

Field mapping was carried out over an area of about 20,000 km², across El Salvador to reconstruct the stratigraphy of the TBJ deposits and the stratigraphic relationships with other eruptive deposits. The characteristics of the deposits were recorded including grading, colour, sorting, apparent component content (juvenile and lithic fragments), and primary sedimentary structures. The nomenclature used in this study for the bed thickness, grain size and sorting of the pyroclastic deposits follows

that proposed by Sohn and Chough (1989). The classification of the primary volcaniclastic deposits follows White and Houghton (2006) and the nomenclature for volcanic stratigraphy is based on Martí et al. (2018), adopting the same criteria as Suñé-Puchol et al. (2019a,b) for the previous Ilopango eruptions. A total of 82 stratigraphic sections were measured, but we focus here on 21 outcrops that we consider representative of the whole succession, and its spatial variations and preservation of deposits.

The geographical coordinates of the locations, stratigraphic sections and sampling points were recorded using a portable Garmin Dakota-20 GPS (precision of \sim 3 m) and quoted on the UTM projection Datum: D WGS 1984, zone 16N. All this local information is reported in Supplementary Material 1. All the georeferenced data were managed and processed using the open source software Quantum GIS (Las Palmas; https://www.qgis.org/en/site/).

Thicknesses of the deposits and specific units were measured to create a database (see Supplementary Material 1) for tephra dispersal simulations (Macedonio et al., 2005). Tephra dispersal from virtual sources in an eruption column was simulated using the HAZMAP model, which solves equations for advection, diffusion and sedimentation of tephra particles in two dimensions (Macedonio et al., 2005). We followed an approach similar to Matthews et al. (2012) but used the Total Grain Size Distributions (TGSDs) (Bonadonna and Houghton, 2005) phases determined through the Voronoi Tessellation method, that we estimated for the different phases using data collected in this study. The granulometry data used to generate the TGSDs are available in Supplementary Material 2. Isopach maps were generated by modelling the ash deposition in terms of mass loading (kg/m^2) and these were converted into thicknesses using a bulk density of $1,000 \text{ kg/m}^3$. In addition to the volumes, the solution of the inverse problem (Costa et al., 2009; Matthews et al., 2012) allowed us to estimate column heights, from which, by using the results of Mastin et al. (2009) and Bonadonna and Costa (2013), we assessed the corresponding Mass Eruption Rates (MER) for each unit. The volume estimations of the PDCs units were determined using the Delaunay triangulation method (Macedonio and Pareschi, 1991) that is particularly suitable for the reconstruction of volume between geological horizons and the interpolation of bivariate data, when function values are available at irregularly-spaced data points, as in the case of geological outcrops.

A binocular microscope was used to determine the main petrographic and textural characteristics of the juvenile components. In addition, petrographic analyses were carried out in order to identify the mineralogy and general composition of the studied deposits. Thin sections were produced at Wagner Petrographic LLC, a professional company of Lindon, Utah (USA).

Granulometric analyses were performed at the MARN (Ministerio de Medio Ambiente y Recursos Naturales) facilities of El Salvador Government and the Physical Volcanology Laboratory of Centro de Geociencias, UNAM in Juriquilla-Querétaro (Mexico). Representative levels of each stratigraphic unit were sampled and analysed (141 samples in total; Fig. 2 and Supplementary material 2) for grain-size distribution and componentry. Grain-size analysis were performed by dry sieving at 1 phi (Φ) intervals through sieves with aperture sizes ranging from 64 to 0.25 mm (-6 Φ to 3 Φ , where $\Phi = -\log_2 d$ with d is the diameter in mm) and by wet sieving through a MicroTec Analisette22 Fritsch from 0.125 mm to less than 0.01 mm (4 Φ to >10 Φ). The weight percentages of the sieved fractions were calculated and then plotted as cumulative curves to give grain-size distribution. All data from grain-size analysis are reported in Supplementary Material 3 and 4. The proportion of juveniles from -5Φ to 0Φ was defined by hand picking and from 0Φ to 2Φ using a binocular microscope and image analysis techniques (e.g. ImageJ software; https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/). This point-counting method allows identifying the different components of each particle-size class using binocular microscope pictures. Modal proportions of juvenile pumice and accidental lithic fragments are reported in Supplementary Material 5.

Whole rock pumice geochemical analyses for major elements, trace and rare earth-elements (REE) (Table 2) were measured at the CGEO LEI laboratory (trace and REE, with an ICP-MS) and at Instituto de Geología of UNAM (major and trace elements, X RIGAKU ZSX Primus II spectrometer), following standard sample preparation and analytical techniques (Bernal and Lozano-Santacruz, 2005).

Electron probe X-ray microanalysis for mineralogy was performed using a JEOL JXA-8230 electron microprobe at the Scientific and Technological Centers (Universitat de Barcelona). Wavelength-dispersive analyses of silicates were conducted using a 20 kV accelerating voltage and 15 nA current and with a focused beam. Glasses were analysed using a 6 nA current with a defocused 5-10 micron spot. Counting times were 10 s peak and 10 s background. A range of natural and synthetic standards was used for

241 calibration Th

calibration. The correction model XPP was used to convert X-ray intensity ratios intoconcentrations. Data are included in Supplementary Material 6.

The major element compositions of the matrix glass of the TBJ were determined using wavelength-dispersive electron probe microanalysis (EPMA) in the Research Laboratory for Archaeology and the History of Art at the University of Oxford. Analyses were carried out on samples from all units, A to G, and distal deposits located up to 130 km from the caldera. The EPMA of the TBJ glasses were acquired using an accelerating voltage of 15 kV, beam current of 6 nA, and 10-µm-diameter beam. The count times on peak were: 30 s for Si, Al, Fe, Ca, K and Ti; 50 s for Cl and Mn; 60 s for P; and 12 s for Na, and background counts were collected for the same amount of time but split to positions either side of the peak. The PAP absorption correction method was used for quantification and the oxide compositions quoted assume stoichiometry. The electron probe was calibrated for each element using well-characterized mineral standards, which was verified by analysing MPI-DING reference glasses (Jochum et al., 2006). These MPI-DING glasses were used as secondary standards during each analytical run, and this data is included in the Supplementary Material 7 as they demonstrate the accuracy and precision of the TBJ datasets. All the glass analyses presented have been normalized to 100% to account for variable hydration and allow different samples to be compared, and all the raw compositional data can be accessed in Table 3.

261 4. Characteristics of the pyroclastic succession

Proximal TBJ member products (0-10 km from the caldera) are exposed inside and close to the caldera with a maximum observed thickness of ~60 meters (Supp Material 1). The TBJ member can be divided in 8 units that were labelled alphabetically from base to top (A₀-G; Fig. 2). Due to differences in dispersal patterns, lateral facies variations and surface erosion, the complete stratigraphy was reconstructed from a large number of individual outcrops. Simplified stratigraphic logs of 21 localities are shown in Fig. 2. They were arranged from west (left) to east (right) and from south to north, across El Salvador in order to show how single units correlate with each other. A composite section is also shown in figure 2 and illustrates the general stratigraphy of the TBJ member. The TBJ member consists of initial pumice lapilli-supported grain deposits and later of several units made of a coarse and fine ash, matrix-supported massive deposits with pumice lapilli and lithics interbedded with laminated levels of

lapilli (i.e. ILO 18 and ILO22; Fig. 2). All these deposits were mapped across several dozens of km from the caldera rim. The medial succession can be observed up to 30-40 km from the caldera rim, where the best exposures are found on the southern slopes of IC (i.e. ILO 8 and ILO130; Fig. 2). The last unit, which comprises massive fine-grained deposits, is observed in medial exposures and distal ones that are more than 100 km from the caldera (i.e. ILO289 and ILO302; Fig. 2). Deposits from the TBJ eruption are characterized as being white soft and easily erodible, generating "badlands" type scarps (Šebesta, 2007). Most of the San Salvador Metropolitan Area (Fig. 1c) has been built on the TBJ tephra deposits.

283 Unit A_0

A₀ is the first unit in the TBJ succession of deposits (stratigraphic log 22 in Fig. 2), which is observed in medial (10-40 km from the vent) outcrops mainly to the south of the caldera. Thickness ranges from 2 to 4 cm (Supplementary Material 1) and the deposits are characterized by poorly-sorted, thinly bedded or laminated, moist beds of rounded dense, glassy coarse and fine pumice ash with accidental lithic fragments. The deposit usually rests directly upon a paleosol or older, weathered pre-caldera lavas. At the outcrop scale, there are lateral variations in the thickness and number of beds, with pinch and swell structures and locally erosive basal contacts (Figs. 3a,b).

292 Unit A

Unit A (stratigraphic logs 22, 172, 247, 291 in Fig. 2) outcrops in different points around IC, but mainly in the eastern and southern sectors at medial locations. It shows thicknesses from 3 to 14 cm (Supplementary Material 1) and is characterized by massive well-sorted thin to medium coarse angular pumice ash beds (Figs. 3a,b) with ash-sized lithic fragments. A planar contact separates it from the underlying Unit A₀.

521 298 Unit B

Unit B (stratigraphic logs 18, 22, 38, 49, 172, 247, 291 in Fig. 2) is characterized by moderately to poorly-sorted, massive thin beds of angular pumice lapilli and lithics with no ash (Fig. 3c). Thicknesses vary from 1 to \sim 5 cm (Supplementary Material 1). This deposit shows sometimes yellowish colour due to the pigmentation and cementing of iron oxides by contact with the underlying paleosol. It appears in several outcrops at proximal and medial locations.

305 Unit C

534
535306Unit C (stratigraphic logs 8, 18, 22, 49, 247 in Fig. 2) is only preserved at a few536
537307outcrops in proximal and medial locations. It has a peculiar grey-yellowish colour (Fig.

308 3a) and is a well-sorted, matrix-supported deposit with light stratification of pumice
309 fragments with scattered accretionary lapilli and hydrothermally altered lithics.
310 Observed thicknesses range from a few cm up to 10 m in some depressions
311 (Supplementary Material 1).

550 312 Unit D

Well-sorted, massive, lithic-poor ash rich deposit (Fig 3d). Unit D outcrops at proximal and medial locations (stratigraphic log 8, 18, 22, 28, 38, 49, 172, 247, 291, 293 in Fig. 2). The intermediate and distal (>40 km from the caldera) facies of this unit is quite unconsolidated with a fine ash matrix and dispersed pumice juvenile fragments (Fig. 3ei) and with slight variations between one horizon and another. At proximal locations the deposits are more cemented with a coarse ash matrix and containing beds that show a strong enrichment of millimetric accretionary lapilli (Fig. 3eii). At some outcrops, the deposit shows planar stratification. The maximum measured thickness of the Unit D is about 8 m (Supplementary Material 1).

322 Unit E

Unit E consists of doublets of thin to medium thick massive and laminated beds of rounded lapilli and coarse ash pumice (Figs. 3d,f). The unit outcrops at proximal and medial locations from the caldera (stratigraphic logs 8, 18, 22, 28, 49, 172, 247, 293 in Fig. 2). It represents a good stratigraphic marker of the TBJ eruption and to differentiate between Units D and F (Fig. 3d). The massive deposits are light coloured and composed of unconsolidated thick ash with pumice thin lapilli and lithics. The laminated deposits constitute very fine, well-sorted ash, that is light brown and dark brown when wet. It is commonly quite consolidated and rich in glass fragments and crystals. Locally, these deposits show folding that is characteristic of soft sediments (Fig. 3g). The maximum measured thickness is 1 m (Supplementary Material 1).

333 Unit F 584

Unit F is composed of chaotic, massive, poorly-sorted, non-welded, light-coloured to light beige (Fig. 3d) with thickness up to about 60-70 m thick (Supplementary Material 1). Unit F outcrops at both proximal and medial locations (stratigraphic logs 8, 18, 22, 28, 32, 33, 46, 49, 51, 130, 165, 169, 172, 247, 286, 293 in Fig. 2) and found up to 40 km from the caldera. To the north, the deposits extend away from the caldera for at least \sim 35 km and outcrop close to Cerrón Grande (Fig. 2). To the west, deposits cover part of San Salvador Volcano (Fig. 2), reaching a maximum height of 930 m (1,740 m a.s.l.). Deposits were also found close to the Municipality of Colón

(Fig. 2), where they achieve a distance of ~ 40 km. Towards the southern part (Balsamo Cordillera; Fig. 2), deposits outcrop along the old channels of rivers and streams reaching distances of more than 30 km. East of IC, Unit F was recognized up to 30-35 km away, close to the San Vicente Volcano (Fig. 2). The deposits in the proximal outcrops show a coarse ash matrix with abundant centimetre- and decimetre-sized pumice and lithic fragments (Figs. 3h,i). Visibly mingled pumice with dark to light grey bands within the white pumice are found in unit F at very proximal sites within the caldera, e.g. ILO-32 (Fig 3h). The abundance of mingled clasts at this site is \sim 5-10% and the clasts range from around 5 to 20 cm in length.

Some decimetre-sized lithic-rich beds are observed close to the caldera edge (Fig. 3j). Medial outcrops show the same massive, lithic-rich deposits with a fine ash matrix, and lithic and juvenile pumice up to few centimetres in size (Fig. 3k). Most of the outcrops show a lower layer with higher particle concentrations. Degassing pipes are seen in this unit at some outcrops (Fig. 31). In some cases, Unit F is found directly above Unit D or with a reworked lower part (Fig. 3m).

357 Unit G

It is an unconsolidated, massive, well-sorted, coarse to fine ash deposit with millimetre-sized accretionary lapilli (Fig. 3n). In some outcrops, a slight stratification is observed, with a transitional contact with Unit F below. Deposits were described mainly at medial and distal outcrops (stratigraphic logs 22, 46, 49, 113, 130, 165, 169, 172, 289, 302 in Fig. 2) and found up to 100 km from the vent (Fig. 3o). Maximum measured thicknesses are ~ 6 m (Supplementary Material 1).

640 364 **5. Physical parameters**

365 *Grain-size distribution*

Data from Supplementary Material 3 was plotted in Supplementary Material 4 in order to show variation of TBJ grain-size at proximal (0-10 km), medial (10-40 km) and distal locations (>40 km) from IC. Data include Medium Diameter (Md Φ), Sorting ($\sigma\Phi$) and Skewness ($\alpha\Phi$) parameters (Supplementary Material 4a-4f) as well as F1 [wt.% <1 mm diameter (0 Φ)] and F2 [wt.% <1/16 mm diameter (4 Φ)] (Supplementary Material 4g-i). Granulometric data of the local distributions characterized up to phi 10 were used to reconstruct the Total Grain Size Distributions (Fig. 4).

653
654373Figures j-ac of Supplementary Material 4 illustrate the grain-size distribution of655
656374the TBJ samples depending on distance from the caldera. Both A₀ and A samples show

a bimodal trend. Conversely, samples from Unit A are characterized by a unimodal trend. No proximal and distal samples were found for both Units A₀ and A. Only two samples from Unit B were collected at proximal locations, and only one of the two samples shows a unimodal trend. Medial samples from Unit B seem no show a clear relationship between distance and grain size trend similarly to the only sample from a distal outcrop that only shows a slight shift to finer classes. Two samples from Unit C at proximal locations show a polymodal trend, similarly to the ones at medial outcrops. Only one sample was collected from distal outcrops showing a shift towards finer classes. However, unlike Unit C, samples from Unit D at proximal and medial outcrops have a clear polymodal trend. Therefore not a clear relationship between distance and grain size trend was observed for sample from this unit. Only one distal sample from Unit D indicates a shift towards finer classes similar to the samples from Unit C. Two proximal samples from Unit E show different tendencies with a unimodal trend but towards coarser and finer classes. The same is observed at medial distance. Only one distal outcrop from Unit E was found in the field. It shows a clear shift towards finer classes. Proximal and medial samples from Unit F show a polymodal trend with coarser classes being more representative. Distal samples from Unit F seem to show a slight bimodal trend without any substantial change in the granulometrical distribution. Only one sample from Unit G was collected at one proximal outcrop. Medial and distal samples from Unit G are characterized by a bimodal trend.

395 *Componentry analysis*

Componentry of individual beds is presented in Fig. 2 and Supplementary Material 5. The modal proportions of juvenile pumice and accidental lithic fragments (mafic clasts and pre-TBJ eruption ignimbrites) are given for each grain-size fraction (or class) until 2Φ and their distribution among grain-size fractions, as well as units is not costant. Unit A₀, which is only present at few scattered medial outcrops, has a lithic content of ~8-8.5%. The following Unit A shows variable values from ~10-11% up to ~22-23% at medial locations. Unit B, at medial locations, shows values between ~15 and ~19% up to 28%. At distal outcrops, lithics are ~12%. Unit C at proximal outcrops contains total lithic values of ~9%. Medial outcrops are characterised by lithic values of \sim 5-8.5%. Unit D shows a constant lithic content from proximal to distal outcrops with values ~1-4%. Unit E shows values comprised between ~8% and ~16% although several samples show a considerable decrease with only lithics of $\sim 3\%$. Unit F at proximal outcrops shows values $\sim 15\%$ of lithics whilst at medial outcrops values are

409 generally around 5-15%. Unit G is characterised by lithics values at medial and distal

- 410 outcrops of $\sim 1-3\%$.
- 726
727411Product distribution and volume of the different eruptive phases

The distribution of outcrops and the thickness data (reported in the
Supplementary Material 1) from each unit is shown in Fig. 5. Combining these field
observations and dispersal models for each phase, we estimate the corresponding mass
of erupted material (in terms of DRE) and intensity (in terms of discharge rate).

Concerning the fallout units, which includes Units A and B from sustained eruption columns, and G from a co-ignimbrite plume, we computed the tephra transport and sedimentation by solving an inverse problem (Pfeiffer et al., 2005; Costa et al., 2009) using the tephra dispersal model Hazmap (Macedonio et al., 2005). The results are summarized in Table 1, where the Total Erupted Mass (TEM), the column height, maximum wind intensity, and other physical parameters are reported for the different units. Furthermore, for Unit A we estimated a TEM of $\sim 3.5 \times 10^{11}$ kg (i.e. 0.15 km³ DRE assuming a constant magma density of 2,300 kg/m³), and an eruptive column height of ~29 km, corresponding MER of $< ~10^8$ kg/s (Bonadonna and Costa, 2013). TEM for Unit B is of $\sim 2 \times 10^{12}$ kg (i.e. 0.8 km³ DRE), with an eruptive column height of ~ 7 km, corresponding MER of ~105-106 kg/s (Bonadonna and Costa, 2013). For the fallout unit G from the co-ignimbrite column, we adopted a first order approach similar to Matthews et al. (2012). Results of the inverse problem for the co-ignimbrite phase suggest a TEM of $\sim 4 \times 10^{13}$ kg (i.e. 16 km³ DRE) with a co-ignimbrite plume that reached a height of ~49 km (corresponding to a MER of ~ 10^{10} kg/s). For the co-ignimbrite plume the source of ash is not "point source" but rise from all the surface of ignimbrite sheet, which can have a radius >30-50 km (Costa et al., 2018). For this reason, the validity of the tephra dispersal model, which assumes virtual sources along an eruption column, is not fully appropriate for points at distances smaller than 30-50 km and simulation results should be considered simply as model extrapolations. However, in our case most of the available outcrops were at larger distances (see Supplementary Material 1). The individual grain-size distributions of the samples of each unit at several locations (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Material 2) were used to generate the TGSDs (Total Grain Size Distributions) reported in Figure 4. These TGSDs were estimated using the Voronoi tessellation method of Bonadonna and Houghton (2005). For the sake of comparison, the volumes of Units A, B, and G were

442 also assessed by adopting empirical integrations of the deposit thinning (Bonadonna and
443 Costa, 2012).

The dispersal of the different units as isopachs is shown in Fig. 5. From these maps, we can see that Units A (Fig. 5a) and B (Fig. 5b) were mainly dispersed to the west and west-south-west areas, respectively. In contrast, Unit G (Fig. 5g) was dispersed towards the south by weak winds.

Taking into account that PDC of Unit F had a runout distance of ~50 km (Fig. 5f), from the results of Costa et al. (2018) we can estimate a MER of order of 10^{10} kg/s, which is consistent with the value estimated for the co-ignimbrite phase (Unit G) on the basis of the height of the co-ignimbrite plume (see Table 1). The volume of PDC Units C, D, and F were calculated using the Delaunay triangulation method (Macedonio and Pareschi, 1991), which is, as mentioned in the Methods Section, suitable for assessing the volume between geological horizons from irregularly-spaced data points. We obtained the following volume estimations:

456 1. $\sim 0.7 \text{ km}^3$ (i.e. $\sim 0.5 \text{ km}^3 \text{ DRE}$) for Unit C;

457 2. $\sim 5.0 \text{ km}^3$ (i.e. $\sim 3.3 \text{ km}^3 \text{ DRE}$) for Unit D;

809 458 3. $\sim 0.5 \text{ km}^3$ (i.e. $\sim 0.3 \text{ km}^3 \text{ DRE}$) for Unit E;

459 4. $\sim 14 \text{ km}^3$ (i.e. $\sim 9.1 \text{ km}^3 \text{ DRE}$) for Unit F.

460 DRE volumes were calculated using an assumed deposit density of ~1,500 kg/m³
461 (Quane and Rusell, 2005) and a magma density of 2,300 kg/m³. These volumes indicate
462 that 30 km³ of magma was ejected during the TBJ eruption.

463 6. Petrography, geochemistry and glass compositions of the TBJ deposits

Pumice clasts from the TBJ units are moderately crystal-rich (up to 10-15%) and highly vesicular. Mineralogy assemblage consists of 70-75% euhedral to subhedral plagioclase (andesine and labradorite; Figs. 6a-d and Fig. 7a), about 20% of magnesio-hornblende (Figs. 6a,b,e,f and 7b), and 10 vol.% of crystal content is made of pyroxene (Figs. 6g,h and 7c,d), Fe-Ti oxides and apatite. Plagioclase crystals often have sieve-textured cores and contain apatite inclusions, Fe-Ti oxides and clinopyroxene (Figs. 6a-d). The hornblende crystals (Figs. 6e, f) have pristine rims with abundant inclusions of apatite (Fig. 6a) and orthopyroxene.

Whole-rock compositions of the TBJ pumices are dacitic to rhyolitic (Fig. 8a
and Table 2), and glass compositions are typically rhyolitic with the exception of
mingled pumices found in the upper sequence (Unit F; see above) that extend to basalt

(Fig. 8a). The glass compositions were determined for individual shards using an electron microprobe from samples through the entire succession of deposits, and from both proximal and distal sites. Excluding the rare mingled clasts in Unit F, other deposits display homogenous, rhyolitic major element compositions with SiO₂=75.3-78.1 wt.%, Al₂O₃=11.9-13.8 wt.%, Total FeO=0.99-1.53 wt.%, MgO=0.12-0.33 wt.%, CaO=0.9-1.6 wt.%, NaO₂=3.78-4.88 wt.% and K₂O=2.38-3.37 wt.% (*n*=239; Table 3; Figa. 8a-d). The darkest material within the mingled pumice is basaltic and ranges down to 48.63 wt.% SiO₂, 7.91 wt.% Al₂O₃, 12.42 wt.% Total FeO, 12.03 wt.% MgO, and 15.02 wt.% CaO (Table 3; Figs. 8a-d). These grey bands are heterogenous in composition and extend from the least evolved composition to SiO_2 concentrations up to 68.5 wt.%. The whole-rock XRF data plot between this dacitic composition and the dominant rhyolite (Figs. 8a-d).

7. Discussion

The volume of material erupted during the TBJ eruption was \sim 58 km³ of bulk rock, equivalent to $\sim 30 \text{ km}^3 \text{ DRE}$ of magma and corresponding to a magnitude of 6.8 (Pyle, 2000) (Table 1). Eight units can be identified in the deposits that provide evidence for distinct eruptive styles. The sedimentological and lithological characteristics of these deposits suggest that the TBJ eruption included phases associated with pure magmatic activity and those characterized by magma-water interaction, which are also seen in older intra-caldera deposits (Mann et al., 2004; Suñe-Puchol et al., 2019a,b). Paleosols separate the TBJ from previous eruption deposits at several outcrops (Fig. 2). The repose period before the TBJ was of a sufficient length for this pedogenesis to occur, and the caldera was probably quiescent for around 8 ka, i.e. since TB2 (Kutterolf et al., 2008).

Unit A₀ (less than 0.1 km³ total DRE volume - Table 1) represents the onset of the TBJ eruption. The field characteristics (Figs. 3a,b) and granulometric analysis (poorly sorted deposit, positive grain-size skewness values-and a bimodal trend; Supplementary material 4b, e, j) suggest that this unit was deposited by dilute PDCs (Branney and Kokelaar, 2002; Dellino et al., 2004a,b; Brand and White, 2007; Brand and Clarke, 2009). The high proportion of mafic lithic fragments is consistent with explosive excavation of the conduit and vent (Fig. 9a), as described in other studies e.g. Vesuvius, Italy (Barberi et al., 1989) and the AD1630 eruption of Furnas volcano, San Miguel, Azores (Cole et al., 1995). These surge clouds had a high momentum as they

travelled at least up to 15-20 km from the vent. The deposits show similar field characteristics to the ones of the Laver LM1 from the Lower Member of the Neapolitan Yellow Tuff that represented the onset of the eruption (Orsi et al., 1992). Grain size and componentry (fine-grained deposits; Fig. 4h and high mafic lithic content - Fig. 2), as well as ash deposits suggest that there was magma-water interaction (Self and Sparks, 1978; Barberi et al., 1989; Houghton and Schmincke, 1989; Houghton and Smith, 1993; Cole et al., 1995; Dellino and La Volpe, 1995; De Rita et al., 2002). The opening phases of volcanic eruptions present favourable conditions for magma-water interaction, similar to other case studies such as the Minoan, Santorini Island, Greece, AD79 Vesuvius, Italy (Cioni et al., 2000), Etna 122BC, Italy (Coltelli et al., 1998), and Tarawera AD1886, New Zealand (Houghton et al. 2004) eruptions.

The explosive eruptions that formed Unit A (Fig. 9b) produced an eruptive column that rose to 29 km (Table 1) and it spread mainly westwards in the proximal and medial area. Field evidence (Figs. 3a,b) and granulometric data (well-sorted deposit and a unimodal trend; Supplementary material 4b-f and 4k) of samples are consistent with a tephra fallout deposit (0.15 km³ total DRE volume - Table 1). Unit A was most likely hydromagmatic, due to the high lithic content (Fig. 2) and fine grain size at medial locations (Supplementary Material 4k) and a distribution mainly to the south of the caldera (Fig. 5a). Passing from dilute PDCs of Unit A_0 to fallout deposits of Unit A is probably related to changes in magma-water mass ratio, which has been observed at several historical hydromagmatic eruptions, e.g. Kilauea volcano, Hawaii, AD1790 (McPhie et al., 1990) or Capelinhos (1957-1958) in Faial, Azores (Cole et al., 2001).

Concerning the first two phases (A_0 and A), the magma-water mass ratio promoted a more or less high explosive efficiency, from wet PDCs and fallout deposits towards drier lapilli fall (Unit B), so the magmatic fragmentation became progressively more dominant. Then, the eruption entered a magmatic fall-dominated phase (Fig. 9c) that formed Unit B (Fig. 3c), which is characterized by highly vesiculated juvenile products released through a \sim 7-km-high column (Tab. 1) with a grain-supported deposit mainly oriented southwestwards from the source (Fig. 5b). This eruption phase produced a coarse, generally medium sorted (Supplementary Material 4a,b,d,e), pumice fall deposit with a 0.22 km³ total DRE volume (Table 1). General drier conditions can be related to any factors such as, for example, the variations in magma flux or availability of water in the system, or in some cases, some batches of magma can reach the surface without explosive interaction with water, similarly to maar-diatreme

eruptions (Valentine and White, 2012). Similar activity was observed for the C11 deposits of Caldeira Volcano, Faial Island, Azores (Pimentel et al., 2015). The eruption was characterized at the beginning by a series of hydromagmatic eruptions with fallout and PDCs deposits and a subsequent more dominant magmatic fragmentation, due to the rapid draining of magma from the conduit, with the establishment of a sub-Plinian column. The increase in the dispersal area and grain size features in the deposits (Supplementary Material 4g, h, i, l, m, n) indicates steady growth of the eruption column. The column reached its climax without major fluctuations, as there are internal bedding features and the deposits lack normal or inverse grading. This was probably facilitated by the gradual stabilization of the conduit walls associated with increasing vent diameter and magma discharge rate.

Unit C (0.5 km³ total DRE volume - Table 1) represents an abrupt change in the eruption dynamics (Fig. 9d). This well-sorted (Supplementary Material 4a-c), massive, lithic-poor and ash-rich deposit (Supplementary Material 4d-f and g-i), with few dispersed pumice fragments and accretionary lapilli indicate deposition from PDCs (Fig. 3a) that flowed mainly to the south-east part of the IC (Fig. 5c). These dynamics were probably due to the shift of the vent location and a subsequent interaction of magma with external water that led to an enhanced magma fragmentation, as well as a greater explosivity of the eruption that contributed to the generation of fine ash (Supplementary Material 40-q). The stratigraphic position of these hydromagmatic deposits immediately above the magmatic deposits suggests a subsequent access of the lake water to the column of rising magma. However, we cannot discount the role of hydrothermal and groundwater in the hydromagmatic episode that lead to the emplacement of Unit C. The presence of hydrothermally altered lithic fragments suggests the occurrence of an extensive hydrothermal system within the caldera at the time of the eruption (Saxby et al., 2016).

Unit D (3.3 km³ total DRE volume - Table 1) shows similar field characteristics (Fig. 3d,e) and granulometric data (Supplementary Material 4 a-c and r-t) to the previous unit C (Fig. 3d), and suggest it was emplaced from PDCs of hydromagmatic origin (Fig. 9d). The hydrothermally altered lithic fragments observed in Unit C are not recognized in the Unit D, so the ongoing magma-water interaction was most likely fuelled by surface water. There was probably a shallow lake in the IC at \geq 43.670 ka years ago as proposed by Mann et al. (2004). As suggested by Aravena et al. (2018), natural aquifers appear unlikely to be sources of enough water to significantly affect the

eruptive dynamics of an event with high mass discharge rate; conversely, evidence for magma-water interaction are probably related to the involvement of surface water or the injection of groundwater by high-magnitude collapse mechanisms. The same type of activity was also reported for Taal caldera lake, Philippines in 1991 (Delmelle and Bernard, 2000), the hydromagmatic eruption of Kilauea Volcano, Hawaii, in 1970 (Mastin, 1997), or the Nari Caldera at Ulleung Island, Korea (Kim et al., 2014). Changes from dry to wet conditions in such eruptions were also observed for the Askja 1875 eruption, Iceland (Sparks et al., 1981; Carey et al., 2010) and the AD232 Taupo eruption, New Zealand (Houghton et al., 2000). The absence of any fall deposits at the base of Units C and D rules out the possibility of a sustained eruptive column phase (Fig. 5d).

During the course of the eruption, there was another change in the eruptive dynamics, with a switch to drier conditions (Fig. 9e). Unit E (0.3 km³ total DRE volume - Table 1) was deposited by alternation of dilute PDCs and fallout, which is based on plane-parallel and low-angle cross laminations and grain-supported layers without traction structures (Fig. 3f; Chough and Sohn, 1990; De Rosa et al., 1992; Dellino et al., 2004b; Solgevik et al., 2007), alternation of well and poorly sorted deposits (Supplementary Material4 a-c) of ash and lapilli (Supplementary Material4 g-i), and a clear polymodal trend of the grain size distribution (Supplementary Material 4 u-w). Soft sediment folding (Fig. 3g) might indicate that some of the layers were deposited wet as consequence of magma-water interaction, thus characterizing the whole unit as alternation of dry and wet deposits that were deposited around the IC (Fig. 5e). At this time, due to structural faults that characterize IC, the magma might have had interaction with the almost empty Ilopango Lake after Unit D phase, thus allowing an intermittent magma-water interaction with the formation of short-lived columns and lateral blast.

It is important to consider how, not only a change in the water-magma ratio might have led to the emplacement of fallout and PDCs deposits, but also the scaled depth (ratio between depth of explosion and energy) can have huge effects on deposit characteristics, grain size and deposit morphology (see Taddeucci et al. 2013; Graettinger et al. 2014, 2015; Valentine et al. 2014, 2015; Sonder et al. 2015). As suggested in Graettinger et al. (2015), when scaled depth is constant, the crater focuses the jet and results in decreasing overall volumes of coarse ejecta and the potential occurrence of fine-grained dilute density current deposits. Progressively increasing scaled depth results in an overall decrease in ejecta volume to the point where the

- explosion is confined and no ejecta are produced. A progressive decrease in scaled depth will result in an increase in ejecta volume and in the grain size of ejecta deposits and low occurrence of fine-grained dilute density currents as the jet is larger than the previous crater and therefore does not exhibit significant focusing.
- The final phase (Fig. 9f) of the eruption was marked by a dramatic change in eruptive style with deposition of chaotic, massive, poorly-sorted (Supplementary Material4a-c), non-welded dry thick PDC deposits (Figs. 3h, i). The lag-breccia deposits of Unit F are observed only close to the caldera topographic edge (Figs. 3j). This might be related to the strong control exerted by the paleotopography on facies architecture as observed, for example, for the Abrigo Ignimbrite in Tenerife, Canary Islands (Pittari et al., 2006) or the Acatlán ignimbrite, Mexico (Branney and Kokelaar, 1997). This is a lithic-rich ignimbrite that represents continued clearing from fissure vents along the main bounding caldera faults (Fig. 9f). The sharp, erosive lower contact with underlying units, coarse, up to meter-sized lithic clasts and juveniles in a poorly sorted matrix (Figs. 3h-k), together with granulometric analyses (Supplementary Material 4g-i and x-z), suggest eruptive dynamics that were dominated by vigorous and prolonged pyroclastic fountaining that produced sustained quasi-steady PDCs, as the eruption waxed and stabilized. Both basal high-particle concentrations in the PDCs and the long runout distances were maintained because of the continuous supply of dense currents at the vent (Roche et al., 2016). These deposits formed an ignimbrite sheet, Unit F (9.3 km³ total DRE volume-Tab. 1) that reached the sea on southern sectors of the caldera and was widespread around IC (Fig. 5f). At this point, the increase in the magma eruption rate could have been produced by the start of the caldera collapse, which would have commenced the rapid evacuation of magma from the sub-caldera magma chamber, leading to a subsequent inefficient magma-water interaction during F eruptive phase. Similar mechanisms from wet to drier conditions were also observed during the Neapolitan Yellow Tuff eruption (Orsi et al., 1992). The mingled pumice clasts that extend to basaltic compositions are also found in deposits from this phase of the eruption suggesting that additional melts were erupted. Since these distinctive less evolved compositions are restricted to the clasts in the very proximal outcrops it implies that the erupted volume of this melt was incredibly small. It is quite common for additional melts to be erupted during caldera formation (cf. Smith et al., 2016).
- As for Units C and D, no fallout layers were recognized at the base of Unit F, thus, suggesting that an initial buoyant Plinian eruption column-building phase was not

produced. This feature is similar to other ignimbrites such as Campanian (Marti et al., 2016) and Ora in Italy (Willcock et al., 2013), or Huichapan in Mexico (Pacheco et al., 2018). The occurrence of fines-poor elutriation pipes (Fig. 31) indicates that following deposition, vigorous gas escape occurred elutriating fines. These pipes are interpreted as evidence of rapid emplacement involving particle segregation and vigorous, post emplacement fluid (dusty gas) escape (Branney and Kokelaar, 2002), thus suggesting that at the time of deposition Unit F deposits were hot.

Unit G (Fig. 3n) represents the final co-ignimbritic deposit of the TBJ eruption (Fig. 9g). Deposits were found at medial and distal locations that are more than 100 km from the caldera (Fig. 3o). This unit is made of moderately to poorly sorted (Supplementary Material 4a-c) ash (Supplementary Material 4 g-i) with a clear bimodality grain-size distribution trend (Supplementary Material 4aa-ac) that highlights the significance of ash aggregation processes in the transport and deposition.

The absence of Plinian pumice fall deposits preceding the dense PDC deposits of TBJ is a typical characteristic of graben-type calderas as Ilopango (Aguirre-Díaz and Martí, 2015; Aguirre-Díaz et al., 2016, 2017; Saxby et al., 2016; Sunye-Puchol et al., 2019a) or fissure ignimbrite eruptions related to local/regional faults (Aguirre-Díaz and Labarthe-Hernández, 2003; Aguirre-Díaz et al., 2008). This is due to the significant control of tectonic stress on mass discharge rate (Costa et al., 2011; Costa and Martí, 2016), with graben-type calderas tending to generate large MER larger that are too high to sustain a Plinian column (see Costa et al, 2018).

The TBJ deposits highlight that a single eruption can produce a complex sequence of eruption styles and depositional processes. The magnitude of this eruption means that Mayan populations living in the region would have been considerably affected (Dull et al., 2001; Hernández, 2004; Hernández et al., 2015). The human populations directly affected by the TBJ eruption would have been those living in the territory within 50 km of the IC. However, the indirect effects on social, economic, and political systems probably affected a much wider area of Mesoamerica (Dull et al., 2001). It has also been suggested that the sulphate peak, typically associated with volcanic eruptions, in the both Greenland and Antarctic ice cores at AD 539-540 could be associated with the TBJ eruption (Sigl et al., 2015). These peaks are associated with the H₂SO₄ aerosols that are injected into the high atmosphere during large volcanic eruptions, which increase the albedo and potentially produce a volcanic winter period (Robock, 2000). However, the date of the eruption has not been sufficiently resolved to

establish if these sulphate peaks in the polar ice cores are in fact associated wit the TBJ
eruption as the ¹⁴C dates fall on a plateau in the radiocarbon calibration curve (e.g.,
Reimer et al., 2013), which results in an imprecise eruption range of AD270-AD400
(Lohse et al., 2018) to AD440-550 (Dull et al. 2010).

The examination of this eruption sheds light on a number of important implications for hazard assessment when considered within the framework of the volcanism associated with IC and Country of El Salvador. The detailed study of the TBJ eruption together with the one of Suné-Puchol et al. (2019a,b) about the older eruptions of IC, represent the first and necessary step towards improved volcanic hazard assessments for the region. These are essential to mitigate volcanic risk for the large number of communities, including the City of San Salvador, that are expanding around this active volcano.

690 Conclusion

In this study, we conducted a detailed stratigraphic and lithological study of the dacitic pumice Tierra Blanca Joven (TBJ) deposit. The TBJ is the last explosive eruption of Ilopango Caldera, representing a singular eruptive episode and constitutes the last eruptive cycle of the Tierra Blanca sequence that starts with the TB4 eruption deposit. The TBJ eruption erupted ~58 km³ of bulk volume rock or ~30 km³ DRE of magma, corresponding to a 6.8 magnitude eruption.

The eruption was characterized by eight phases (A_0-G) with distinct eruptive styles without major pauses in between. The eruption started with dilute PDCs followed by two fallout phases that left only few cm of deposits, found mainly close to the IC. Subsequently, dense and dilute PDCs of hydromagmatic and magmatic origin filled the depressions near the Ilopango Lake. Deposits thicknesses are up to 70 m and reached distances of at least 40 km from the vent, covering the area where the city of San Salvador is now located. Finally, coignimbritic ash deposits of the last stage of the eruption were found all over El Salvador with significant thicknesses, and also found dispersed into neighbouring countries.

1249706The TBJ was a cataclysmic event and is considered to be one of the largest1250707Quaternary eruptions in Central America. TBJ eruptive products would have1252708considerably affected the Mayan populations living in Salvadorian and nearby1253709territories at that time. Consequently, long- and short-term hazard assessments for IC

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710 should take into account all possible scenarios including those described for the TBJ
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Fig. 1: a) Geological setting of northern Central America; ESFZ: El Salvador Fault Zone; GF: Gulf of Fonseca; IG: Ipala Graben; JF: Jalpatagua Fault; ND: Nicaraguan Depression; PF: Polochic fault; b) simplified geological map showing all the major geological formations of El Salvador (Hernández, 2004). CC: Coatepeque Caldera; CG: Cerrón Grande dump; I: Izalco Volcano; IC: Ilopango Caldera; LO: Laguna Olomega; SA: Santa Ana Volcano; SM: San Miguel Volcano; SS: San Salvador Volcano; SV: San Vicente Volcano; c) Google Earth image of Ilopango caldera (IC) (US Depth of State Geographer 2018); SSMA: San Salvador Metropolitan area; IQ: Islas Quemadas.

Fig. 2: Stratigraphic logs of TBJ succession of deposits and their locations. Granulometric analysis and lithics content are shown as well. The TBJ eruption can be divided in 8 units from base to top; Units A_0 to G. Stratigraphic logs are arranged from west (left) to east (right) and from south to north, and cover most of the El Salvador. Inset figure show the locations of the outcrops and samples of Figs. 2 and 3.

Fig. 3: Field photographs of the TBJ units with views of details. a) Units A₀-D resting on a paleosol, see the scraper for scale; b) features of Units A_0 and A: the former is characterized by poorly-sorted thinly, laminated beds of rounded pumice lapilli and coarse ash, and the latter by lithic-rich, massive, well-sorted thin to medium coarse angular pumice ash beds; c) Unit B, it shows massive thin beds of angular pumice lapilli with no ash; d) Units D, E, F. Unit D is an ash rich deposit whilst Unit F is characterized by a coarse ash matrix with abundant centimeter- and decimeter-size pumice and lithic fragments. Unit E has laminated beds; e) photographs of Unit D showing ei) ash matrix and dispersed pumice juvenile fragments with slight variations

between one horizon and another and eii) strong enrichment of millimeter-size accretionary lapilli. Photographs of the characteristics feature of Unit E, f) doublets of thin to medium thick massive and laminated beds lapilli and coarse ash pumice; g) soft-sediments deformation structures: folding; Unit F with h) coarse ash matrix with abundant centimeter-size and decimeter-size pumice and lithic fragments at proximal outcrops, in the inset figure a mingled pumice is shown as well i) chaotic massive poorly-sorted, non-welded, light-colored deposits; j) some decimeter-size lithic-rich levels; k) at distal outcrop; l) degassing pipes; m) reworked (RW) lower part of Unit F; n) Unit G, unconsolidated massive ash deposits with dispersed accretionary lapilli (AL); o) distal outcrops of Unit G reach thicknesses of 40-50 cm at Tazumal Archaeological Site (Chalchuapa). Outcrops numbers are shown in yellow in the inset in Fig. 2. Yellow dotted lines divide different units of the TBJ Member. White dotted lines outline details of the field picture.

2064
2065
20661155Fig. 4: Total Grain Size Distributions of fallout units (A, B and G). For the sake of
comparison TGSDs associated to the co-ignimbrite phase of the Campanian Ignimbrite
are also reported (Marti et al., 2016).

Fig. 5: Distribution maps of each unit of TBJ eruption: a) Unit A, b) Unit B, C) Unit C,
Unit D, E) Unit E, F) Unit F, g) and gi) Unit G.

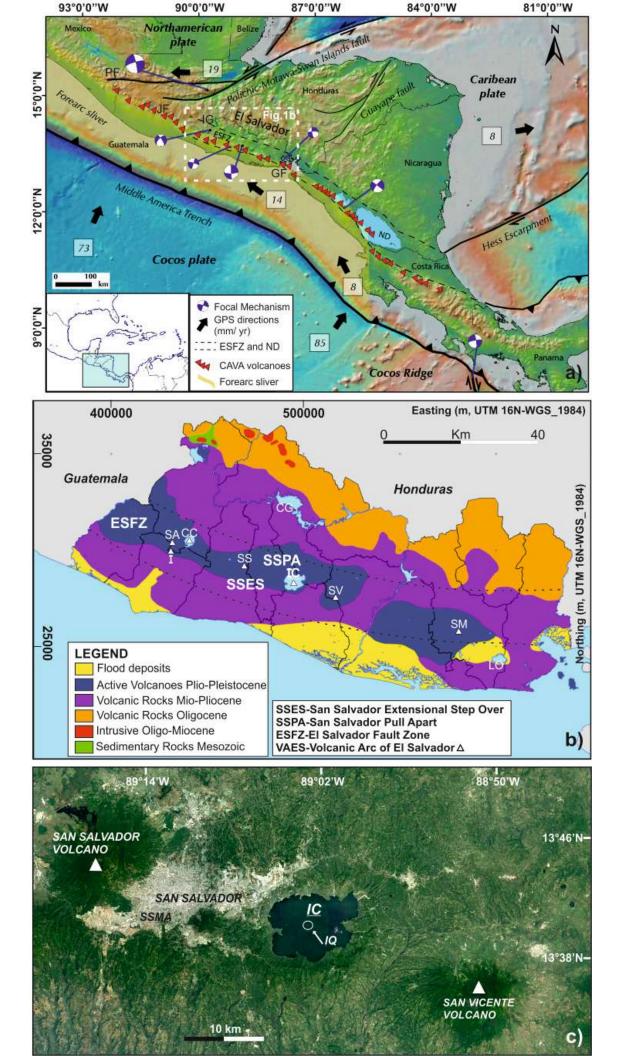
Fig. 6: Petrographic features of the TBJ eruption products: parallel and crossed polarized nichols: a) and b) mineralogy assemblage with euhedral to subhedral plagioclase and hornblende with apatite inclusions; c) and d) detailed picture of plagioclase with pyroxene and oxide inclusions; e) and f) euhedral hornblende; g) and h) subhedral pyroxene with apatite inclusions.

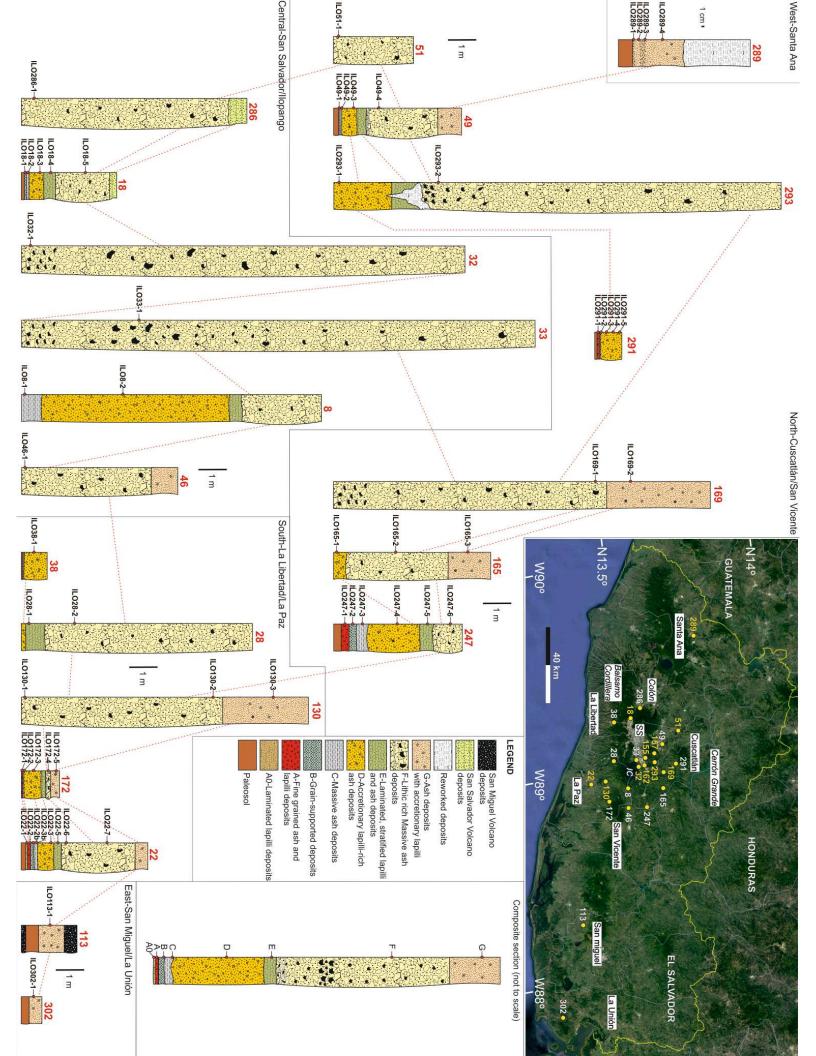
1165 Fig. 7: Microprobe data of a) feldspars (classification of Smith and Brown, 1988); b)
1166 amphiboles (classification of Leake et. al., 1997) and c) sodium and d) calcium,
1167 magnesium, iron pyroxenes (classification of Morimoto et al. 1989) diagrams.

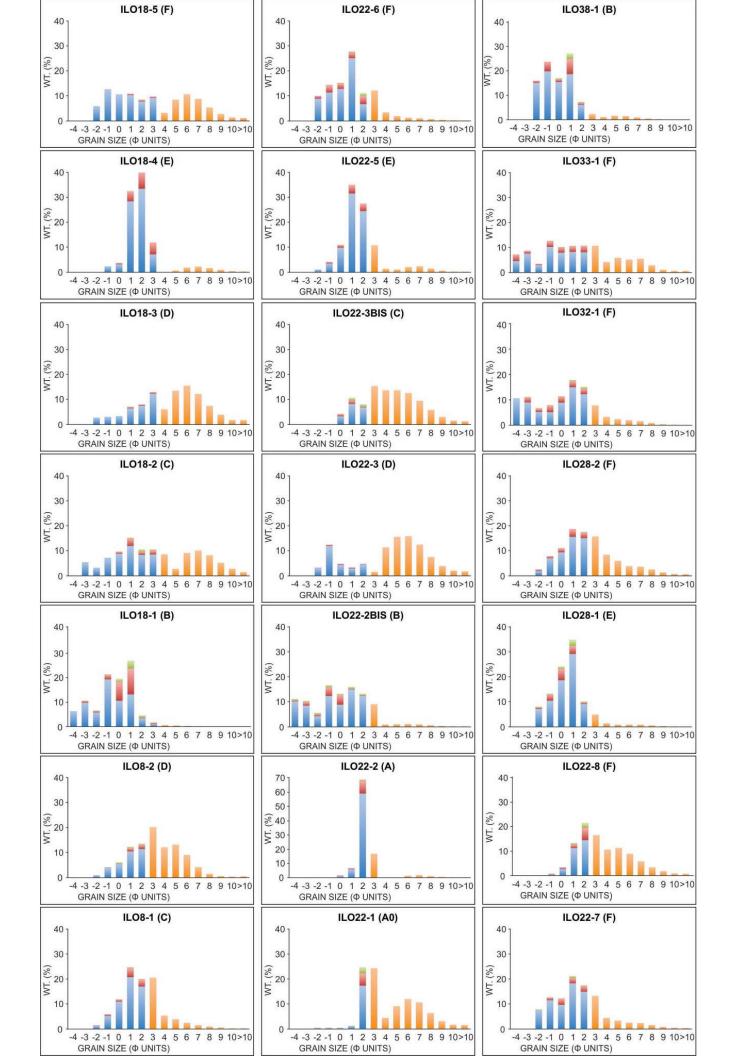
1168Fig. 8: a) Plot of TBJ juvenile samples (i.e. pumice clasts) and mingled pumices in the20861169TAS (SiO₂-Na₂O+K₂O) classification diagram of Le Bas et al. (1986). Glass20881170compositions from the entire composition succession of deposits, and from both20891171proximal and distal sites: b) CaO vs FeO; c) and d) SiO₂ vs Al₂O₃

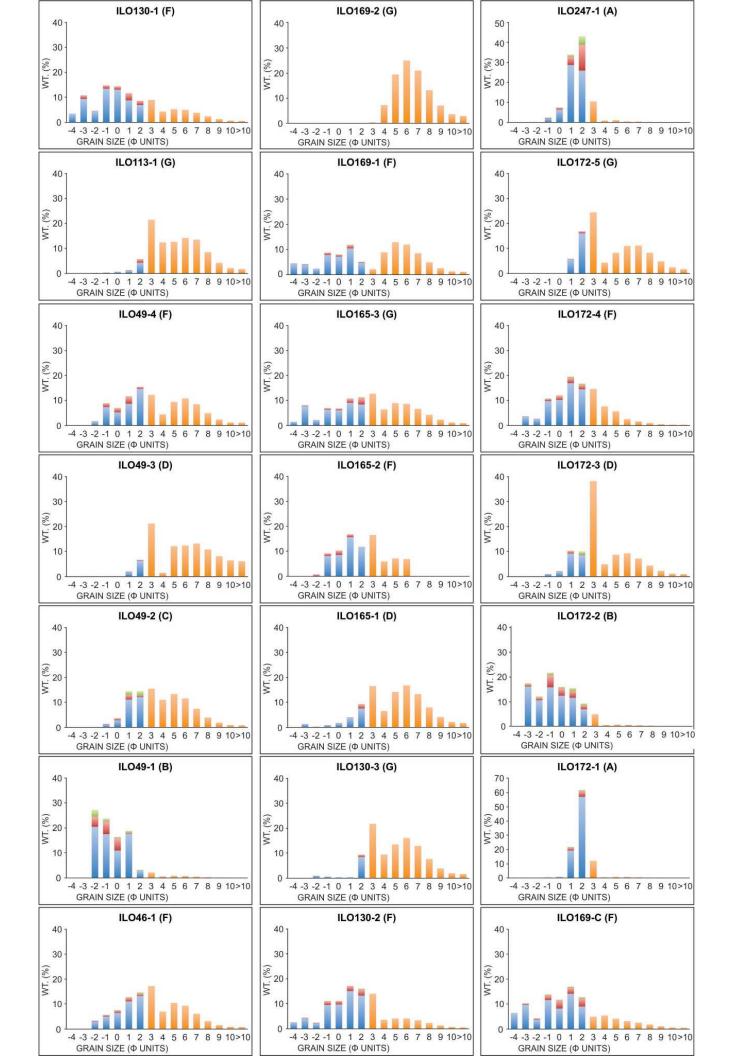
2091
20921172Fig. 9: Sketch (not to scale) illustrating the evolution of the TBJ eruption: a) rise of2093
20931173magma and interaction with a shallow aquifer or water lake and formation of the2094
20951174directional dilute PDCs that spread mainly southward (Unit A_0); fallout phases2096
20971175represented by b) hydromagmatic Unit A and c) magmatic Unit B; d) PDCs of

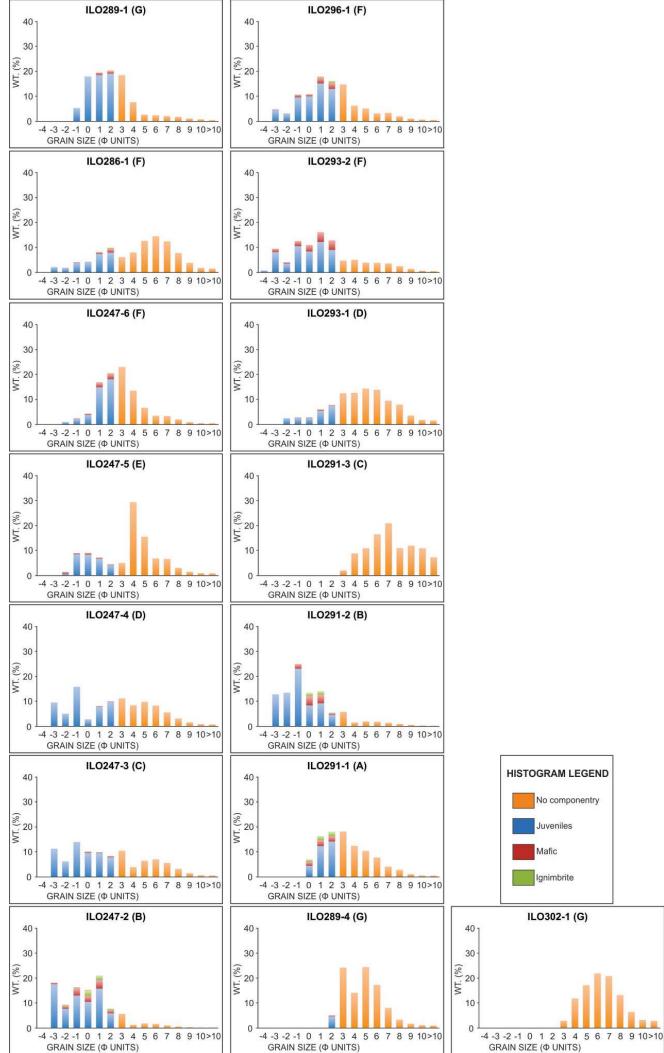
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2103	1176	hydromagmatic origin, due to a renewed magma-water interaction, with formations of
2104 2105	1177	Unit C and Unit D; e) PDCs and fallout deposits from the transitional Unit E due to the
2106	1178	alternation of dry and wet phases; f) main phase of the TBJ eruption with deposition of
2107 2108	1179	Unit F by dense PDCs associated to the caldera collapse; g) co-ignimbrite deposits.
2109	11/9	Onit F by dense FDCs associated to the caldera conapse, g) to-ignimorite deposits.
2110 2111	1180	Tables Caption
2112	1181	Table 1: Summary of the physical parameters of the deposits from the TBJ eruption.
2113 2114	1182	Table 2: Whole rock analyses of representative TBJ samples.
2115	1183	Table 3: Representative glass analyses of the TBJ eruption units.
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2118	1184	Supplementary Material
2119 2120	1185	Supplementary Material 1: Thickness and location of units from TBJ eruption.
2121	1186	Supplementary Material 2: Grain Size analysis of TBJ deposits.
2122 2123	1187	Supplementary Material 3: Granulometric parameters of TBJ eruption.
2124	1188	Supplementary Material 4: Plots of grain-size data from TBJ deposits. (a-c) Sorting
2125 2126	1189	$(\sigma\Phi)$ v. median diameter (Md Φ); (d-f) sorting $(\sigma\Phi)$ vs. skewness $(\alpha\Phi)$; (g-i) F1 (wt.%
2127 2128	1190	<1 mm diameter) versus F2 (wt.% <1/16 mm diameter); (j-ac) granulometric frequency
2120	1191	distribution.
2130 2131	1192	Supplementary Material 5: Modal proportions of juvenile pumice and accidental lithic
2131	1193	fragments.
2133 2134	1194	Supplementary Material 6: Electron microprobe analysis of TBJ minerals
2135	1195	Supplementary Material 7: Electron microprobe analysis of TBJ glass
2136 2137	1196	Supplementary Material 7. Election incroprote analysis of TDJ glass
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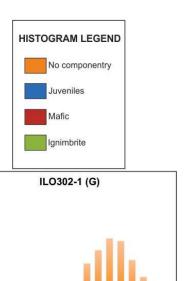


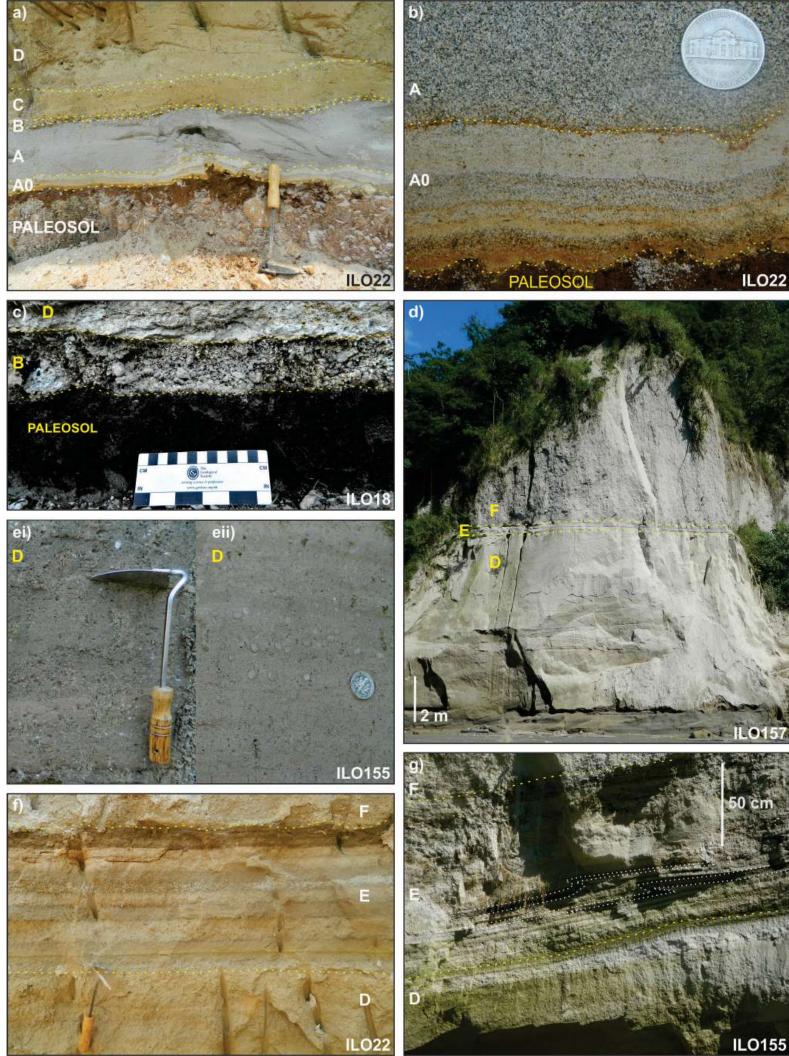






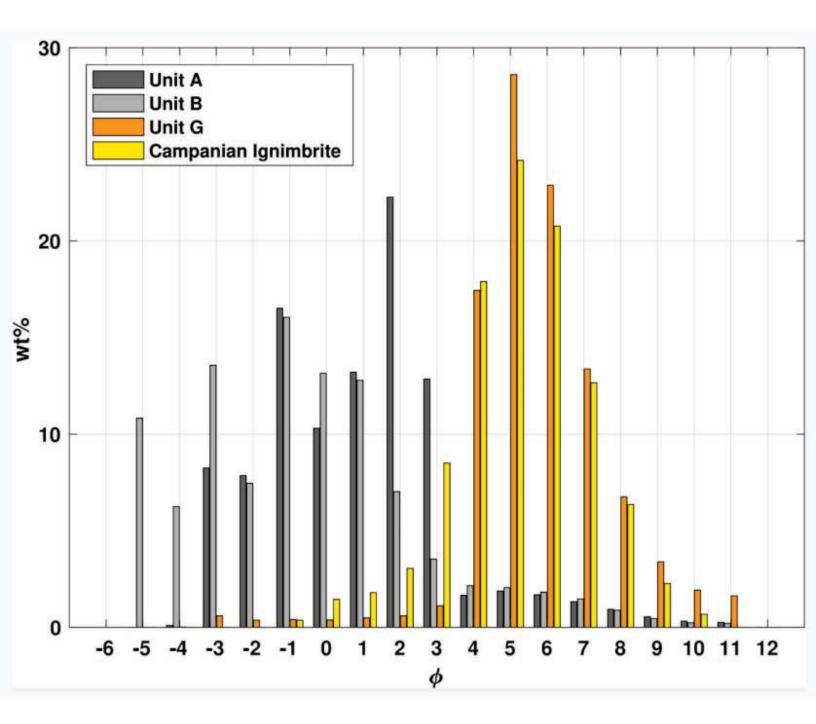


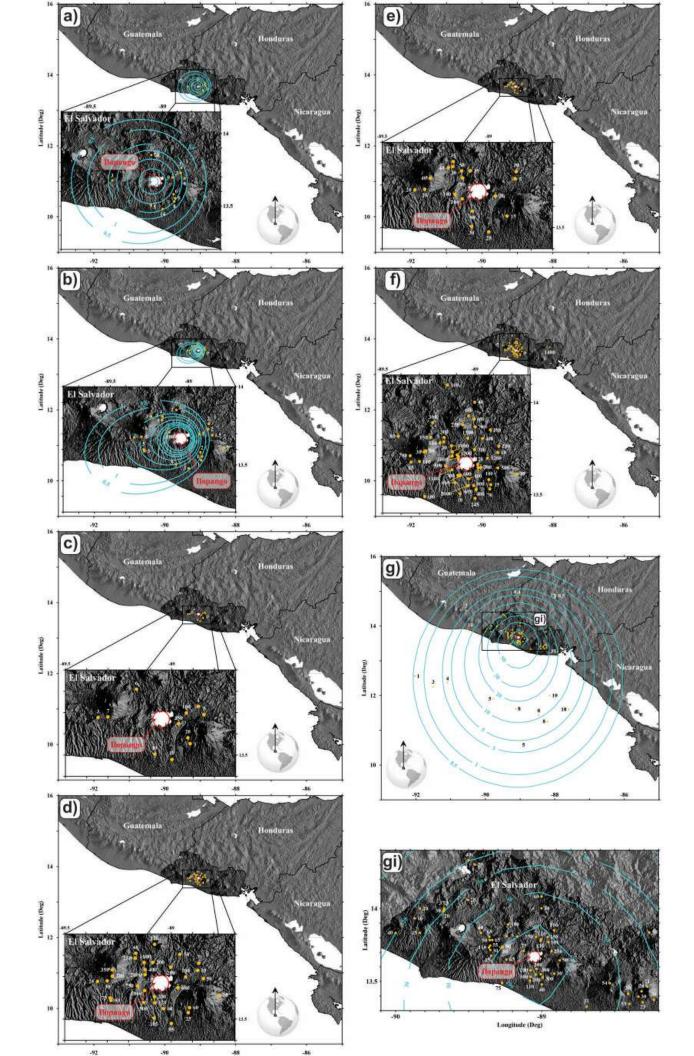


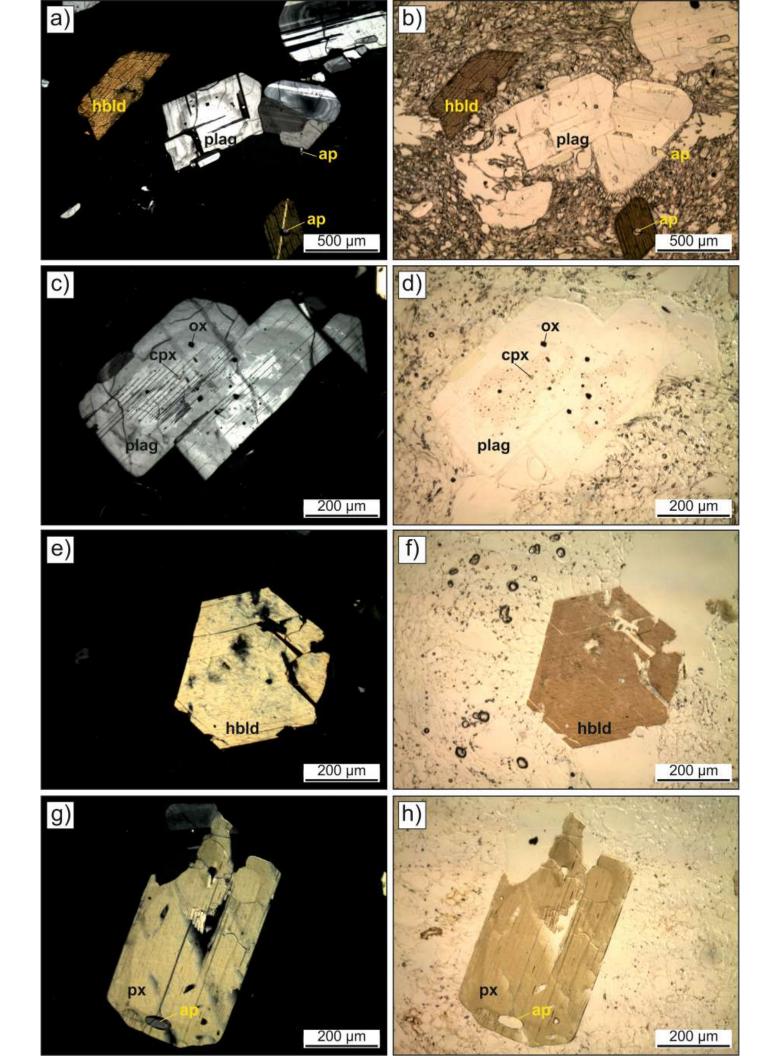


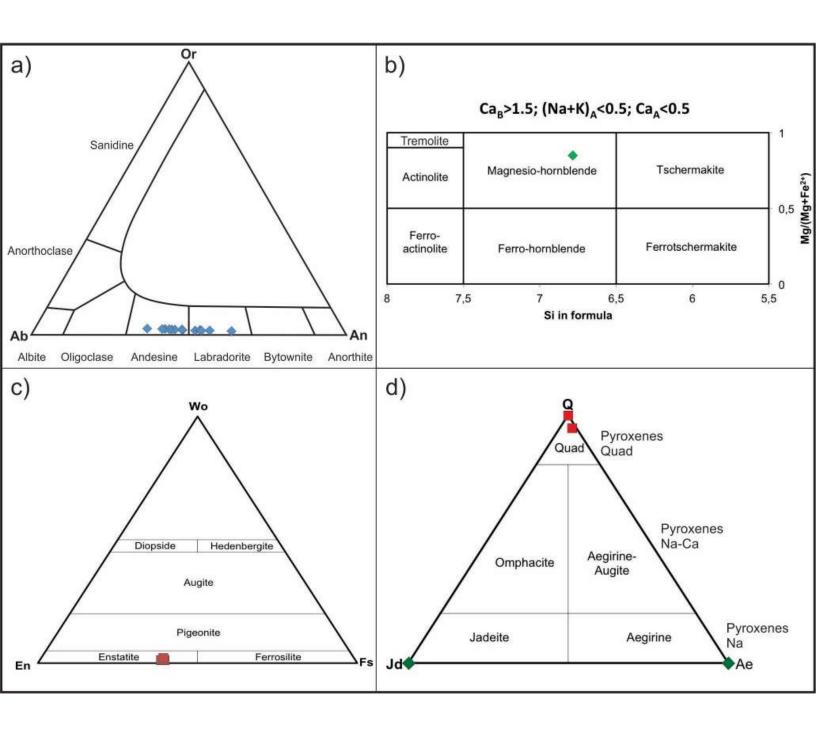
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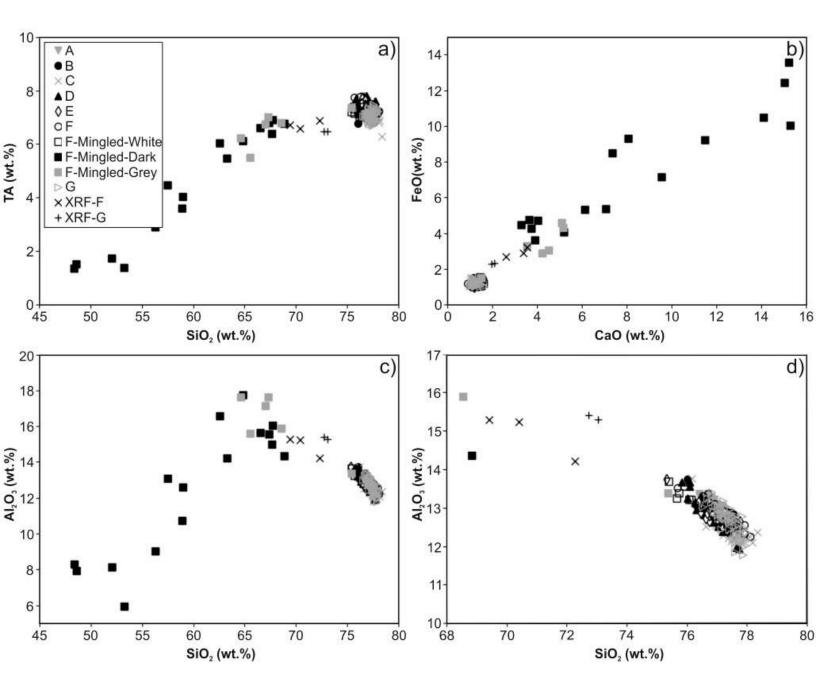


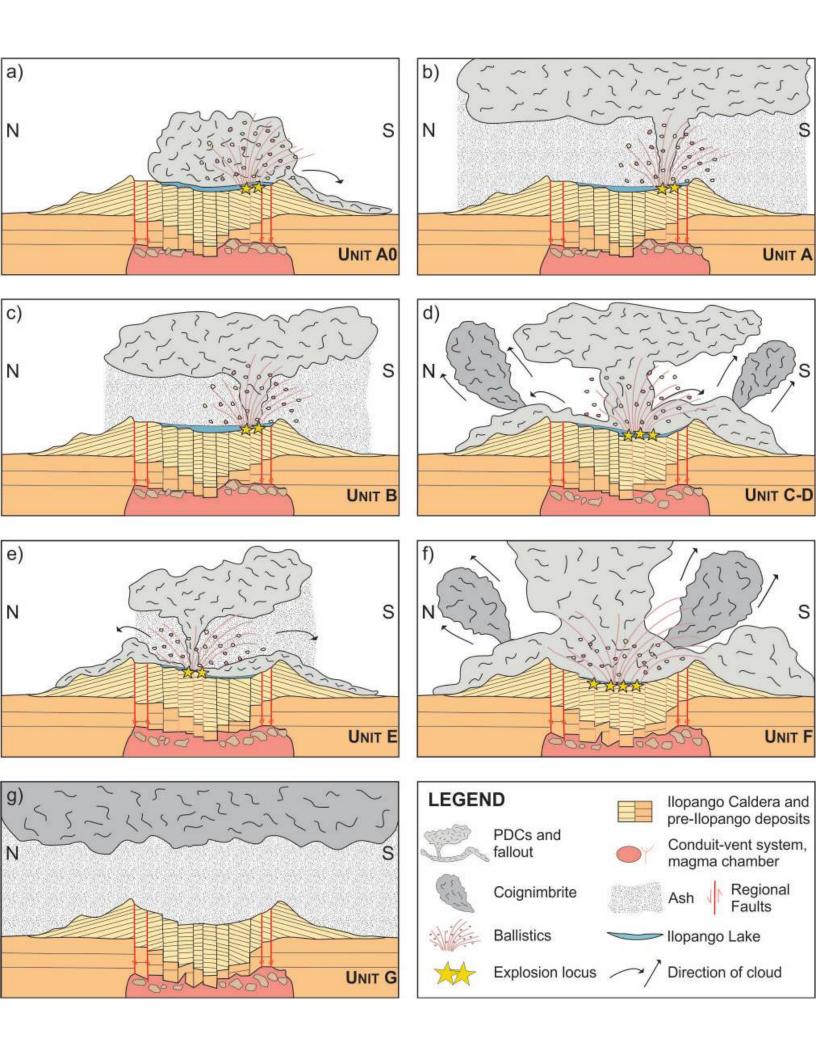












Tab. 1 Summary of the physical parameters of the deposits from the TBJ eruption

Physical parameters	Unit A0	Unit A	Unit B	Unit C	Unit D	Unit E	Unit F	Unit G	Total TBJ	
Bulk Volume (km³)	<0.1	0.35	1.84	0.7	5	0.5	14	36.80	69.35	"+ caldera filling"
Total Erupted Mass (kg)	<0.1	3.5×10 ¹¹	2×10 ¹²	1.2×10 ¹²	8.2×10 ¹²	0.7×10 ¹²	2.3×10 ¹³	4×10 ¹³	7.5×10 ¹³	"+ caldera filling"
DRE volume (km³)	<0.1	0.15	0,8	0.5	3.3	0.3	9.1	16	30	"+ caldera filling"
Mass Eruption Rate (kg/s)	~109	~108	~ 10 ⁵ -10 ⁶	~109	~10 ⁹	~109	~1010	~1010	s.	
Runout PDC (km)	20	1.5	. 	25	25	20	50	-		
Column Height (km)	(a)	29	7	-	-	-	3	49		
Magnitude		-		-	-		-	-	6.8	

Table 2 Whole rock analyses of representative TBJ samples

Sample	ILO-32-2	ILO-128-1	ILO-169-A	ILO-302-1	ILO-303-1
TBJ Unit	F (base)	F (base)	F (Base)	G	G
Site	Apulo	S. Anton. Masahuat	Oratorio	La Union	Santa Elena
Distance	Proximal	Medial	Medial	Distal	Distal
Latitude	N13°42.504'	N13°32 826'	N13°48.382'	N13°16.263'	N13°24.965'
Longitude		W89°02.510'	W89°02.301'	W87°54.421'	
		(oxides, wt.%)	100 02.001	101 54.421	1100 24.000
			60 624	70 46	70.081
SiO2	67,34	70,325	68,631	70,45	
TiO2	0,408	0,301	0,34	0,247	0,25
AI2O3	14,833	13,826	14,846	14,744	14,835
Fe2O3	3,475	2,913	3,142	2,431	2,495
MnO	0,122	0,109	0,113	0,099	0,101
MgO	1,216	0,873	0,995	0,557	0,597
CaO	3,453	2,528	3,311	1,9	2,01
Na2O	4,317	4,263	4,295	3,623	3,64
K2O)	2,188	2,433	2,122	2,621	2,595
P2O5	0,133	0.097	0,105	0,06	0,067
Total	99,975	99,888	99,99	99,932	99,891
LOI	2,49	2,22	2,09	3,2	3,22
Trace eleme					
Li	14	15	8	20	20
Be	1	1	1	1	1
В	43	73	41	39	31
P	0	0	0	0	0
Sc	5	3	7	2	3
Ti	0	0	0	0	0
V	40	27	34	20	22
Cr	3	3	3	3	3
		4	4	3	4
Co	5				
Ni	2	2		2	2
Cu	9	6	8	14	16
Zn	47	44	44	40	41
Ga	14	13	13	14	14
Rb	37	48	27	56	55
Sr	308	242	284	191	213
Y	17	17	15	17	17
Zr	144	149	149	139	143
Nb	3	4	3	4	4
Mo	2	2	2	2	2
	1			3	3
Sn		1	1	2072	
Sb	1	1	1	1	1
Cs	2	2	2	3	3
Ba	997	1111	974	1271	1199
La	12	13	10	14	13
Ce	24	26	19	28	28
Pr	3	3	3	3	3
Nd	13	13	11	13	13
Sm	3	3		3	3
Eu	1	1	1	1	1
Tb	Ó	0	0	0	0
					0
Gd	3	3	2	3	3
Dy	3	3	2	3	3
Но	1	1	1	1	1
Er	2	2	2	2	2
Er Yb	2 2 0 4	2 2 0 4	2 2 0	2 2 0 4 0	2
Lu	0	0	0	0	0
Hf	4	4	4	4	4
Та		0	0		-
	0	0	0	0	0
VV TI	0	1	0	1 0	2 2 0 4 0 1 0
W TI Pb	0 0 0 6 3	1 0 7 3	0 6	0	0
Pb	6	7	6	8	8 4 2
Th U	3 1	3	2	4	4

Samples analyzed by X-Ray Fluorescence in the Insituto de Geología (UNAM) by Patricia Girón. Coordinates in WGS84 system (zone 16P). LOI: Lost of ignition

Table 3 Representative glass analyses of the TBJ eruption units

Sample	ILO-122-1	LO-122-2	ILO-122-3	ILO-8-1	ILO-122-4	ILO-2-1	ILO-122-0	ILO-8-3	ILO-8-2	ILO-8-4	ILO-32	ILO-32	ILO-32	ILO-32	ILO-9-1	ILO-122-9	ILO-289	Average 1s	
TBJ Unit	A (base)	A (top)	B (top)	G	c	D	Da (top)	Db	Do	E	F	F-Mingled-White	F-Mingled-Grey	F-Mingled-Dark	F	G	G (distal)		
Sile	Comalapa	Comalapa	Comalapa	E San Emigdio	Comalapa	San Marcos	Comalapa	E San Emigdio	E San Emigdio	E San Emigdio	Urb. La Selva	Urb. La Selva	Urb. La Selva	Urb. La Selva	E llopango	Comalapa	Tazumal		
Distance	Medial	Modial	Medial	Proximal	Medial	Proximal	Medial	Proximal	Proximal	Proximal	Proximal	Proximal	Proximal	Proximal	Proximal	Medial	Distal		
Latitude	N13'30.283'	N13'30.283'	N13'30.283'	N13'38.876'	N13*30.283*	N13'39.381'	N13*30.283*	N13°38.876	N13'38.876'	N13°38.876'	N13°42.504'	N13°42.504'	N13°42,504"	N13°42.504'	N13°39,807	N13'30.283'	N13*58,769*		
Longitude	W89'04.805'	W89'04.805'	W89'04.805'	W88*58.097*	W89*04.805'	W89'9.517	W89'04.805'	W88"58.097	W88*58.097*	W88*58.097	W89105.365	W89*05.365	W89*05.365*	W89*05.365	W88*59.099	W89"04.805"	W89*40.397		
Analysis tabel	LO-122-1_17	1.0-122-2_13	ILO-122-3_12	TBU_B-1_C	ILO-122-4_15	TBJ_2-1_6	11.0-122-5_4	T8J_8-5_16	T8.J_8-2_9	TBJ_8-4_19	LO-32_13	8.0-32_white-4	10-32_prey-2	4.0-32_dark-18	TBJ_9-1_13	ILO-122-9_12	ILO-289_6	n=240; P10, 8	8 O, n=100
50,	76.42	76,85	77,22	2 77,31	1 77,36	77.05	76,79	76,11	1 77.0	76,7	6 78,12	76,1	65,5	5 52,	,09 77,5	6 77,22	2 77,40	77,07	0,47
πo,	0.19	0.24	0,19	0.17	0,17	0.19	0,17	0.18	8 0.20	0.1	5 0,18	0,2	0.40	9 1.	17 0.15	5 0.16	0.19	0.19	0.03
ALO,	13,30	13,09	12,63	12,84	12,64	12,68	13,14	13,66	12,5	13, 1	2 12.24	13,2	15,6	3 8,	12 12,4	7 12,74	12,80	12,81	0,30
FeO	1,23	1,09	1,06	0,99	1,17	1,18	1,10	1,06	3 1,23	1.0	7 1,08	1,11	4,5	3 10,	.02 1.0	1,26	1,02	1,19	0,11
Coll	0.13	0,12	0,12	0.03	0,07	D, 11	0,10	0.03	3 0.00	0.0	5 0,00	0,10	0,20	0,	30 0.0	3 0.06	0.09	0.07	0.05
MgCl	0,18	0,22	0,22	0,20	0,23	D,15	0,23	D, 15	0,23	0,1	7 0,16	0,2	2,63	11,	14 0,19	9 0,18	0,18	0,20	0,03
CaO	1,38	1.22	1.21	1.23	1,21	1.22	1,27	1,50	1,19	1.2	1,00	1,60	5,08	9 15,	28 1.1	4 1,26	1,24	1.23	0.10
Na ₂ O	4,30	4.32	4,54	4,44	4,43	4,55	4,34	4,44	4,50	4,6	2 4,26	4,0	3,83	2 1,	24 4,4	1 4.31	4,36	4.36	0.20
K.0	2,87	2,84	2,82	2,80	2,71	2,80	2,86	2,81	3,06	2,8	3 2,97	2,9	1,68	3 0,	.50 3,00	2,71	2,72	2,88	0,13
P ₂ O ₂				0.01	R secon	0.02		0.02	2 0.02	0.0	5	0,0	0,11	7 0,	.08 0.00	2	111 10/2020	0.03	0,02
CI				0.17		0,19		0,16	3 0,2*	0,1	7	0,23	0,1	7 0,	05 0,2	3		0,20	0,02
Analytical total	98.08	99.00	97,36	95,65	97.41	96,13	95.01	95.70	96.8	99.4	3 97.36	94.4	92.64	8 97.	85 94.7	8 98.59	99.52		

EPMA of individual glass shards aquired at 15kV and 6 nA using a 10 micron defoccused beam. Data are normalised to 100% to account for variable hydration and facilitate comparision.