



ANNIVERSARY OF Parícutin volcano

# FIELDTRIP GUIDE

Fieldtrip Guide for the Horse-Ride trail to Parícutin volcano



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Instituto de Geofísica UNAM Field Guide for the Horse-Ride Trail to Parícutin Volcano

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### Field Guide for the Horse-Ride Trail to Parícutin Volcano

GA guidebook for the post-meeting fieldtrip in conjuntion with the conference

# *"Celebrating the 80th anniversary of Paricutin volcano, preserving our heritage and preparing for future eruptions"*

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### ABSTRACT

Parícutin volcano in western-central Mexico is one of the most significant geosites in the country. Parícutin erupted between 1943 and 1952 and is the youngest volcano of the Michoacán-Guanajuato Volcanic Field together with Jorullo (1759-1774). Both of them are the unique monogenetic volcanoes formed since the Spanish conquest (1519-1521) in the Trans-Mexican Volcanic Belt. As part of the activities related to the 80th anniversary celebration of the Parícutin eruption, we organized this one-day excursion to the Parícutin volcano. Horses are the easiest and most rapid means to reach the base of the cone. Thus, in this field trip, we will get to the volcano by riding horses. We will depart from the town of Angahuan, surround the lava field on its western side, and cross the ash deposits that erupted during the explosive phases of the eruption. After reaching the base of the scoria cone, we will dismount and secure the horses under a shade, and climb to the crater rim. The path is ~11 km long and it takes ~4 hours from Angahuan to the crater's summit. Then, we will trot back to Angahuan, and pay on our way a visit to the church ruins of San Juan Parangaricutiro.

### Introduction

### Introduction

This field trip was designed as a 1-day excursion offered to participants of the conference commemorating the 80th anniversary of the Parícutin (February 19-24, 2023). Parícutin is located in the Purépecha region and can be easily reached on paved roads from Morelia, the capital city of the state of Michoacán in Mexico (Figs. 1 and 2). The small picturesque town of Angahuan is the closest to the volcano (Fig. 2) and the place where we will start the horse-ride trail. It is located 23 km NW of the city of Uruapan, which announces itself as the "world capital of avocado". Uruapan can be reached from Morelia after a drive of 111 km (~1:30 hour) by taking the new toll road via Pátzcuaro. Hosting facilities are very limited in Angahuan (cabins at Angahuan Tourist Center) but Uruapan offers multiple options for accommodation. The area is characterized by pine-and-oak forests and plantations of avocado trees. Temperatures at night can be relatively cold in the Parícutin area due to high altitudes (2400 masl at Angahuan, and 2770 masl at the summit of the Parícutin cone). Angahuan and other towns in the area are inhabited by Purhépecha indigenous communities, many of which still speak their native language.

This field guide follows on and is an update of two previous guides (Guilbaud *et al.*, 2009; Siebe *et al.*, 2014), which focused on several volcanic sites of the Michoacán-Guanajuato Volcanic Field, including the Parícutin areaThe volcano cannot be reached by a paved road and is surrounded by a field of irregular lavas so that horses are the easiest and most rapid means to reach the base of the cone. Thus, in this field trip, we will get to the volcano by going around the lavas to the west and crossing through the ash deposits that erupted during the explosive phases of Parícutin. We will then get off the horses and climb the cone. After running down the cone's slopes, we will trot back to Angahuan, making a stop at the church ruins of San Juan Parangaricutiro, before reaching the town of Angahuan.

# Geological setting and regional volcanic activity

The Michoacán-Guanajuato Volcanic Field in the Trans-Mexican Volcanic Belt is one of the largest monogenetic fields related to a continental arc on Earth, holding more than 1,200 edifices (Hasenaka and Carmichael, 1985; Valentine and Connor, 2015; Mahgoub *et al.*, 2017). This volcanic field contains abundant scoria cones, about 300 shields of intermediate volumes (10km<sup>3</sup>), ~25 maar-craters, and two old and poorly studied stratovolcanoes, Tancítaro and Patambán (Ownby *et al.*, 2007; Siebe *et al.*, 2014). Parícutin (1943-1952) is the youngest volcano of this field and together with the Jorullo volcano (1759-1774) the only monogenetic volcanoes formed since the Spanish conquest (1519-1521) in the Trans-Mexican Volcanic Belt. However, it is very probable that another monogenetic eruption will occur again in this volcanic field. Over the last twenty years, several seismic swarms occurred nearby the Tancítaro-Parícutin region (1997, 1999, 2000, 2006, 2020 and 2021) (Gardine et al. 2011; Jácome et al., 2022). For that reason, a monitoring system has been recently set up in the Parícutin area, which provided crucial information on the last 2020 and 2021 seismic swarms. This system has detected about 100,000 earthquakes (Legrand et al., 2023), which are interpreted to be the result of dikes opening by hydraulic fracture in a fragile domain (< 15 km depth). In order to minimize the loss of life and property it is necessary to learn more about this type of eruptions and their preceding unrest phenomena. Only then we will be able to anticipate an eruption and design better preventive strategies for the mitigation of its hazards.

#### The Parícutin eruption

The Parícutin eruption was witnessed initially by local inhabitants, and later by scientists. This volcano, which erupted in the middle of a cornfield, has become one of the bestknown monogenetic volcanoes in the world (Fig. 3). Its eruption dynamics and magma



Figure 1. The left map shows the location of the MGVF within the trans-Mexican Volcanic Belt (TMVB). The right map is a DEM of the Michoacán–Guanajuato volcanic field (MGVF, yellow area) showing the location of Parícutin volcano (red triangle) and the main towns (white dots).



Figure 2. Road map of the itinerary from Morelia to Angahuan, showing main cities and towns (Google Maps).

composition have been described in numerous papers, based on the detailed accounts of the local people, visitors, and scientists who witnessed the eruption from the early beginning to its end, providing an invaluable detailed record of a monogenetic eruption.

The eruption started on February 20, 1943 and ended on March 4, 1952 (Wilcox, 1954). It produced ~ 2.5 km3 of material (dense rock equivalent), including 0.89 km3 of tephra forming the cone and the ash blanket (Fries, 1953) and 1.64 km3 of lava (Larrea et al., 2017). The onset of activity was preceded by 45 days of enhanced regional seismicity. The birth of the volcano was witnessed by at least four local people, including the family owner of the cornfield. The volcano first formed a E-W-oriented fissure in alluvium that emitted ash, sulfur-rich gases, and incandescent bombs. A main cone grew rapidly, reaching 148 m in height at the end of the first month. Explosive activity was intense and often associated with lava effusion from

separate vents. It was described as "violent Strombolian" (MacDonald, 1972; Pioli *et al.*, 2008). Eruptive clouds reached in a height of up to 8 km and fine ash fell on distant places, including Mexico City (350 km to the east) during the first days of April 1943. The intensity of the explosive activity and the volume of lava and tephra erupted, decreased gradually during the eruption as the magma flux declined (Fries, 1953).

Throughout the entire duration of the eruption, a cast of scientists (Adán Pérez-Peña, Jenaro González-Reyna, Ezequiel Ordóñez, William Foshag, Konrad Krauskopf, Kenneth Segerstrom, Howel Williams, Ray Wilcox, etc.) surveyed the progression of the eruption and provided maps depicting the volcano's sequential growth. They collected in-situ samples of the emitted tephras and lavas, took photographs, and partially filmed the eruption during the nine years of eruptive activity. Later, this information together with testimonies by eyewitnesses were compiled by James Luhr and Tom Simkin in a review book (Luhr *et al.*, 1993) that is considered the best documentation of the formation and evolution of the Parícutin volcano. Based on eruptive dynamics and chemo-stratigraphic features of its products, this eruption has been divided by several authors into three main stages: Stage I (1943); Stage II (1943-1946); and Stage III (1947-1952) (Luhr, 2001; Pioli *et al.*, 2008; Erlund *et al.*, 2010; Rowe *et al.*, 2011; Bolós *et al.*, 2021).

Stage I (Feb. to July., 1943), which erupted the most mafic material (SiO<sub>2</sub> < 56 wt%), corresponds to the climax of explosive activity that produced intense violent Strombolian phases (Fig. 2A).

Stage II (Aug. 1943- Dec. 1946) during which the frequency of explosions decreased, although the explosive eruptive style continued (Ordoñez, 1945). Stage III (Jan. 1947- March 1952), when the eruptive activity was dominated by effusive emissions of andesitic lava (SiO<sub>2</sub> 56.7–61.58 wt%) (Wilcox, 1954; McBirney *et al.*, 1987; Luhr, 2001; Cebrià *et al.*, 2011). However, sporadic explosive events persisted, producing short-lived Strombolian to Vulcanian explosions with strong degassing and ash emissions (Ordoñez, 1945; Luhr and Simkin, 1993; Pioli *et al.*, 2008).

The emitted tephra and lava products evolved with time from basaltic andesite to andesite (53-60.5 wt.% SiO<sub>2</sub>) (Larrea et al., 2019). Several studies dealing with the petrology and geochemical characteristics of lavas, tephra, and xenoliths, as well as melt inclusion studies, proposed that crustal contamination was an important process in the petrogenesis of Parícutin's magmas (e.g., Wilcox, 1954; McBirney et al., 1987; Luhr, 2001; Erlund et al., 2010; Cebriá et al., 2011; Rowe et al., 2011). These studies led to the notion of Parícutin representing a classic example of assimilation-fractional crystallization (AFC) in a subduction-related calc-alkaline setting. However, a multi-isotopic study of Parícutin products by Larrea et al. (2019) revealed that the compositional variations are inconsistent with significant crustal assimilation. Alternatively, Parícutin's geochemical variability is explained by a combination of variable degrees of fractional crystallization of magmas produced by melting of a heterogeneous mantle metasomatized (Larrea et al., 2019). In addition, recent mineral chemistry and olivine diffusion timescale studies by Albert et al. (2020) and Larrea et al. (2021) revealed the existence of a convective magma regime during the first weeks/months of the eruption ("opening stage"), with large temperature and oxygen fugacity gradients characterized by short timescales (few days), followed by a steadier magma regime with longer timescales (few months) and including periodic magma recharge, mixing, and fractional crystallization.

The eruption had important social and economic impacts as two villages, San Juan Parangaricutiro (4000 inhabitants) and Parícutin (733 inhabitants), and a total of 24.8 km<sup>2</sup> of land were buried under the lava (Luhr *et al.*, 1993). The vegetation was completely destroyed within an area of 300 km<sup>2</sup> as it was covered by more than 15 cm of ash, which affected the ecology and agriculture



Figure 3. Parícutin eruption (photo by Hugo Brehme).

(Luhr *et al.*, 1993). Moreover, three years after the eruption began (1946)—as identified by Segerstrom (1950) — several types of erosion affected the pyroclastic deposits, such as: creeping, landslides, mud-flows, water erosion (e.g., erosion grooves), and wind erosion (e.g., ripples and dunes). Mass wasting and water erosion occurred mostly during the rainy season, which lasts from May to October, eventually producing major lahars that flooded toward the NW through the town of Los Reyes (Segerstrom, 1950, 1960). In comparison, wind erosion acted primarily in the dry season from November to April. The interaction of these external factors with ash fall deposits generated complex interbedding of deposits. Therefore, the Parícutin eruption and its related sediments provide a good example of the wide range of syn- and post-depositional sedimentary processes related to ash-rich eruptions.

### Parícutin horse-ride trail and geo-stops

This fieldtrip starts at the visitor center of Angahuan. The path used to get to the cone rim is ~11 km long and takes ~4 hours (Fig. 4).

The first stop is a panoramic view of Parícutin and its lava flow-field from a terrace in front of a cafeteria in the Angahuan Tourist Center (Fig. 5).

After a horse-ride of ~3 hours, we reach the western base of the cone. Then, after dismounting and securing the horses under the shade of a group of pine trees, the cone can be climbed in 30 to 60 minutes, following a path that goes diagonally to the S crater rim and around the crater (Stop 2 - Fig. 4). The climb is somewhat tedious, because of the loose scoria and ash that form the slopes. The descent is much faster and starts from the main summit on the W crater rim and goes straight down to the groove of trees where the horses were left behind. Consider that on the crater rim the wind is often strong (watch your sombrero) and temperatures are fresh (bring your jacket) as the summit culminates at ~2800 masl.

The cone is 220 m high and 950 m wide at the base. The crater has a diameter of 250 m and a depth of ~40 m. The evolution of the cone during the eruption is well documented (see Luhr and Simkin, 1993). It grew mostly during the first year. By the end of the first day, it was already 30 m high (nearly 1 m/ hr), doubled in height by the end of the third day, and reached 148 m in height at the end of the first month (average of 5 m/ day). By the end of the first year, it was 336 m high (almost 1 m/day on average). In the following 8 years it grew slowly, finally reaching its maximum height of 424 m in 1952. Note that lava flows covered the base so that the height of the cone protruding from the flows is lower (220 m) than its actual height (424 m, see above).

The cone growth was not continuous. Eyewitnesses describe several episodes of partial destruction (e.g., Ordóñez, 1947; Foshag and González-Reyna, 1956). Sector collapses were accompanied by lateral lava outbreaks. At the beginning of the eruption, lava emerged from vents formed within the cone and flowed out from the opening in the cone left by the collapse (Fig. 6). Later in the eruption, when the cone had reached maturity, lava was emitted from temporary vents formed at the base of the cone (Fig. 6).

During pauses in lava emission or changes in the vent location, explosive activity at the cone rapidly healed the breaches, restoring the cone's symmetry (Luhr *et al.*, 1993; Foshag and González-Reyna, 1956). It is remarkable that the current



Figure 4. Horse trail to Parícutin volcano from the town of Angahuan (Aerial view from Google Earth).



Figure 5. Panoramic view of Parícutin cone and Sapichu lateral vent from the Angahuan Tourist Center.

shape of the cone does not record any of these episodes of destruction and reconstruction (Fig. 7).

However, recent geophysical surveys through self-potential (SP) and electrical resistivity tomography (ERT) revealed the morphology of a buried horseshoe-shaped crater produced by cone collapse early in the eruption, as well as the contact between lava flows and the overlying pyroclastic fallout deposits (L1). This anomaly shows a voltage difference exceeding 300 mV (Fig. 8) (Bo-lós *et al.*, 2020). Moreover, the use of these geophysical methods allowed also inferring the cone's evolution, describing the geometry of the eruption's feeder dike and the internal facies (L2) with low electrical conductivity values (Fig. 8) (Bolós *et al.*, 2020).



Figure 6. (a) Sector collapse during Stage I of the eruption, as observed and painted in the tonal drawing by Dr. Atl (1950) (14 June 1943). b) Lava flows after the cone sector collapse on 20 June 1943, displaying the L1 lineament (photo by R. García). (c) Two eruptive columns rise from A and B craters aligned with the L2 lineament; photo taken on 21 June 1943 by an anonymous photographer.



Figure 7. High-resolution DEM (36.4 cm/pixel) of the Parícutin cone (Bolós *et al.*, 2020).



Figure 8. a) Self-potential map displaying the L1 and L2 inferred lineaments of figure 6 (Bolós et al., 2020). b) Three-dimensional resistivity model of Parícutin volcano over the topographic surface up to a surveyed depth of 95 m. Coordinates in meters (UTM 13N-WGS84). (Bolos et al., 2020).



Figure 9. Drone view of the Parícutin crater rim (photo by Claudio Tinoco).



Figure 10. Geological map of Parícutin volcano with the 22 lava eruptive phases described by Becerril et al. (2021), slightly modified from Luhr and Simkin (1993) and Larrea et al. (2017) in terms of duration, to include in one single eruptive phase the entire emplacement of each lava flow, from its initiation to its end (the modified eruptive phases are denoted in the legend with an asterisk). Location of the most active vents during the eruption are also shown (i.e., Parícutin main cone, Sapichu, Taqui, and Ahuán). Note lava eruptive phases 1, 2, 6, and 17 are not exposed on the surface because they were covered by the most recent lava flows.

The path along the crater rim (Stop 2) (Fig. 9) provides an overview of the lava flow-field and the surrounding area. The high density of young scoria cones in the region surrounding the Parícutin is spectacular. From the rim, it is possible to distinguish several different lava branches that piled up with time.

As during the Jorullo eruption (Guilbaud et al., 2009) the flows that reached the furthest distance from the vent were the earliest produced, because of the increase in the magma's silica content and thus viscosity with time. From the NE rim looking north, notice the Sapichu vent (from Zapicho, Tarascan word for kid or small boy, Ordóñez, 1947) (Fig. 5). This vent, built 8 months after the beginning of the eruption, emitted lava continuously during its 2.5 months of activity. It thus never formed a complete cone but an irregular-shaped edifice. The lava field of Parícutin is wide and it has been divided in 22 phases according to Becerril et al. (2021), slightly modified from Luhr et al. (1993) and Larrea et al. (2017) (Fig. 10).

Fumarole gases still escape from the Sapichu and the summit of the Parícutin cone, forming whitish coatings. Other hot fumarolic areas in the dark-colored flow-field can be seen from the crater rim, distinguishable by their contrasting whitish coloration. A 270 °C fumarole sampled in June 1995 contained 47 mol-% CO<sub>2</sub> and 52 mol-% air (water free basis). The delta carbon-13 isotopic parameter of -20.5 ‰ for the CO<sub>2</sub> indicates that the hot interior of the flow was still thermally decomposing organic debris near the flow base 50 years after eruption (Goff and Mc-Murtry, 2000). More recently, the measured conductivities across the fumarolic activity of the cone detected several meter-scale zones of convective hydrothermal- fluid circulation of meteoric water within the cone (Fig. 11) (Bolós et al., 2020).

Going back to Angahuan, we get to the third stop that is an outcrop of ash layers along the trail (Fig. 4). There, we have the opportunity to watch and discuss the stratigraphic record of fall deposits of the most explosive phases of the eruption in an open pit. This stratigraphic succession shows seven units that resulted from reworked processes, which was induced by short episodes of heavy rainfall, followed by severe dust storms during dry periods (Segerstrom, 1950, 1960). The deposits reworked by water comprise massive, grain-supported layers, interbedded with fine-grained, indurated



Figure 11. The topographic profile of Parícutin cone comparing the self-potential and temperature data. The preferential direction movement of the fluids is shown in blue color for the downflow and red color for the upflow (ZA-ZK). Notice the matching between the self-potential and temperature anomalies (Bolós *et al.*, 2020).

poorly to moderately sorted laminae, and in some units the presence of raindrop marks and mud cracks at the top suggests that torrential rain events were followed by dry periods (Bolós *et al.*, 2021). During these dry periods, wind produced ripples and dunes (Fig. 12). The analysis of these deposits reveals that more than 70% of the total thicknesses of ash around the volcano correspond to syn-eruptive reworked deposits (Bolós *et al.*, 2021) (Fig. 13).

Finally, we will make a final stop at the old church of San Juan Parangaricutiro (Fig. 14) which was buried by lava on the 19th of June 1944 (Luhr et al., 1993). At that time, it was the main town of the region with 1895 inhabitants. The conservation of the columns of the church is remarkable. The southern column is incomplete as it was never finished, since its construction was interrupted by the activity of the Parícutin volcano. People from this town were evacuated and relocated in Nuevo San Juan. We will follow a path around the lava field at this site, which shows a strongly irregular topography and a peculiar surface texture, transitional between the pahoehoe and aa lava types.

Before trotting back to Angahuan and on the bus to return to Morelia, we will have the opportunity to enjoy delicious "quesadillas" (cheese-filled tacos) while enjoying the sunset.

#### Recommendations

This excursion lasts approximately 10 hours (round trip), so good physical condition is required. It is however not mandatory to have previous experience of horse riding.



Figure 12. Photograph of the main sedimentary structures observed in the reworked deposits. A) Low-angle lamination, upper-stage parallel lamination, load-cast and flame structures as a result of humid and soft-sedimentary deformation. B) Straight cross-bedding produced by the migration of aeolian dunes with transverse morphology. C) Ellipsoidal grains oriented within upper-stage parallel lamination and raindrops. D) Upper-stage parallel lamination cut by a scoured-channel with an erosive base and filled with side accretion elements. E) Upper-stage parallel lamination, convolute bedding, and current-ripples. (Bolós *et al.*, 2021).







Figure 14. Ruins of the church of San Juan Parangaricutiro.

Please bring with you:

- 2 liters of water (minimum).
- Breakfast: Note that we will leave early from Morelia and you may have to buy something for your breakfast the previous days.
- Lunch: lunch will be provided, but it is recommended to bring something else: energy bars/fruit/nuts/chocolates (optional).
- Boots.
- Cap or hat.
- Sunglasses.
- Sunscreen.
- Sweatshirt/jacket.
- Pants and preferably a long-sleeved shirt (no shorts).
- Buff/scarf or mask to protect from the sun and ash (optional)
- Gloves to protect hands from rock abrasion and horse's reins (optional).
- A bit of cash to buy succulent local food and souvenirs from this culturally-rich region (optional).
- Camera

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