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Birth of a large volcanic edifice offshore Mayotte via lithosphere-scale dike intrusion

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- 29 Volcanic eruptions shape the Earth's surface and provide a window into deep Earth
- 30 processes. How the primary asthenospheric melts form, pond and ascend through the
- 31 lithosphere is, however, still poorly understood. Since 10 May 2018, magmatic activity
- 32 has occurred offshore eastern Mayotte (North Mozambique channel), associated with
- 33 large surface displacements, very low frequency earthquakes and exceptionally deep
- 34 earthquake swarms. Here we present geophysical and marine data from the MAYOBS1
- 35 cruise, which reveal that by May 2019, this activity formed a 820 m tall, ~5 km³ volcanic
- 36 edifice on the seafloor. This is the largest active submarine eruption ever documented.
- 37 Seismic and deformation data indicate that deep (> 55 km depth) magma reservoirs
- 38 were rapidly drained through dykes that intruded the entire lithosphere, and that pre-
- 39 existing subvertical faults in the mantle were reactivated beneath an ancient caldera

structure. We locate the new volcanic edifice at the tip of a 50 km-long ridge composed of many other recent edifices and lava flows. This ridge is an extensional feature inside a wide transfersional boundary that transfers strain between the East African and Madagascar rifts. We propose that the massive eruption originated from hot asthenosphere at the base of a thick old damaged lithosphere.

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Since May 10 2018, Mayotte Island (Comoros archipelago, Indian Ocean, Figure 1a) has experienced a major magmatic event off its eastern coast. This event generated more than 11000 detectable earthquakes (up to Mw 5.9), surface deformation rates of up to 200 mm/year and unusual very low frequency (VLF) earthquakes ^{1,2,3}. As of May 2021 (the time of writing), Mayotte is still deforming and both VLF events and earthquakes with Mw up to 4 are still being recorded. Prior to this event, no recent eruption or significant seismic activity was reported around Mayotte ². Only two earthquakes were detected within 100 km of the island since 1972 ⁴ and the most recent volcanic exposure is a 4-6 kyr-old pumice layer sampled in the lagoon surrounding the island ⁵. Recent geodynamic reconstructions suggest that the Comoros archipelago was built on ~150 Ma old oceanic lithosphere accreted to accommodate the opening of the Western Somali Basin ⁶. The Comorian volcanism may result from partial melting of the base of this old lithosphere in interaction with plume material 7,8,9, possibly super plumes originating from Africa 10,11,12, and may have been controlled by lithospheric deformation 13, 14. Subaerial volcanic activity on Mayotte island began 11 My ago 13. Well-preserved cones, tuff rings and maar craters in the Northeastern part of the island (on Petite Terre and in and around Mamoudzou 15,7 and further offshore 16 (Figure 1b) testify to relatively recent (probably

Holocene, ⁷) subaerial explosive volcanic activity. Gas emissions on Petite-Terre indicate magma degassing ¹⁷.

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The discovery of the eruption and the new volcanic edifice

To determine the origin of the seismicity and deformation and to search for any seafloor volcanic activity, we deployed Ocean Bottom Seismometers (OBS) with attached Absolute Pressure Gauges (APG) and acquired high-resolution marine data (bathymetry, seafloor and water column backscatter), rock dredges and CTD (Conductivity-Temperature-Depth)-Rosette during the MAYOBS1 (2-19 May 2019) cruise aboard the R/V Marion Dufresne 18. A systematic 12 kHz multibeam echosounder survey east of Mayotte, revealed a 820 m tall new volcanic edifice (NVE) 50 km east of Mayotte (Figure 1). The NVE was detected by comparing our data to those acquired during a 2014 survey by the French Naval Hydrographic and Oceanographic Service (SHOM) ¹⁹ (Figure 2a). The edifice sits on an area that, in the 2014 seafloor topography, was locally almost flat at around 3300 m below sea level (bsl). The NVE has grown on the lower insular slope of Mayotte, at the eastern tip of a WNW-ESE trending volcanic ridge (Mayotte ridge) on the submarine flank of Mayotte (Figure 1). The NVE and many other volcanic features along the ridge have high acoustic reflectivity compared to the surrounding sediments, indicating recent volcanic activity all along the ridge (Figure 1c and extended data Figures 1,2,3). The ridge is 50 km long, extending from the most recent subaerial cones and maar craters on Grande-Terre and Petite-Terre islands (MPT Volcanic zone) to the NVE (Figure 1b). It is divided into two main segments, one on the upper slope (western) and one on the mid- to lower-slope (eastern). The eastern segment trends N130°E and is made of many constructional features similar to mafic submarine eruption features observed elsewhere ^{20,21,22}: cones up to 2 km-wide and 500 m-high, probably monogenetic; lava flows with smooth bathymetry, elongated ridges with steep slopes and

90 extended data Figure 2d,e). 91 The western segment is made of volcanic features having more complex morphologies and 92 emplaced along different directions (Figure 1b and extended data Figure 2b,c). The main 93 features are: i) Two N40°E and N120°E trending sets of high-backscatter cones and lava 94 flows, northeast and southeast of Petite-Terre, respectively. These sets converge toward the 95 onshore maar craters of Petite-Terre and may have been emplaced along pre-existing fractures 96 or faults; ii) a horse-shoe shaped edifice (the Horseshoe) with a 3.5 km wide cone, steep 97 slopes and a large collapse-induced scar. East of the Horseshoe, several smaller cones and 98 volcanic features are aligned E-W, suggesting eruptive fissures. Large lava flows originate 99 from this fissure system. iii) a 4 km-wide circular structure (the Crown), whose rim is 100 crowned by seven 1 km-wide, 100-150m high volcanic cones. Their arrangement suggests typical post-caldera domes ²³. West of the Crown, submarine canyons and slope failure scars 101 102 terminate at a N-S trending slope break that may be controlled by faulting. The Crown 103 appears to sit inside a larger 10 km wide flat depression, bounded by faults and fissures, 104 which could be the remnant of an ancient caldera collapse. 105 The NVE is located at the eastern tip of the eastern segment of the Mayotte ridge (Figures 106 1b). In May 2019, its summit rose to 2580 m bsl. Its central peak resembles a pyramid with 107 steep and smooth slopes (Figure 2a and extended data Figure 3). Radial ridges, up to 300 m 108 thick and extending up to 5 km from the central pyramid, display hummocky morphology 109 similar to that observed along mid-ocean volcanic ridges 24 and active seamounts 22 and 110 probably correspond to coalesced pillow lava mounds 21. Beyond and in-between the 111 hummocky ridges, flat areas up to 100 m thick, with high backscatter, could indicate 112 channelized lava flows or sheet flows emplaced at high effusion rates 25. We calculate the 113 volume of material corresponding to the 2014- 2019 seafloor depth difference to be at least

varying orientations, which could result from dykes in more sedimented areas (Figure 1 and

 5.0 ± 0.3 km³ (Figure 2b). Popping fragments of very fresh basanitic pillow lavas (SiO2 47) 114 wt%, Na₂0 + K₂O 7.1 wt%, MgO 5.7 wt% ²⁶) were dredged on the northeastern flank of the 115 116 NVE, near its summit (see Figure 2a for sample location and supplementary S1). The lavas, 117 similar to other basanites sampled in northern Mayotte 7 are aphyric with rare 118 microphenocrysts of olivine (Fo70) and Ti-magnetite. 119 A ~1900-m high, vertical acoustic plume, rising through the water column from the NVE 120 summit to ~800 m below the sea surface, was imaged several times during the cruise using 121 the ship-borne multibeam echosounder (Figure 3, supplementary movie 1). A vertical 122 CTD/rosette cast to 3137m depth above the northern flank of the NVE, 1000m offset from the summit, showed strong geochemical signatures. High volatile concentrations (H₂ = 550nM, 123 $CH_4 = 831$ nM, $CO_2 = 34$ μ M), high turbidity and high total alkalinity values were associated 124 125 with temperature and pH anomalies (respectively 0.2°C and 1 pH unit) 27 and Extended data 126 Fig. 4). Such chemical anomalies are characteristic of submarine eruptions and may reflect magma degassing 28, molten lava interaction with seawater 29 or fluid/water discharge from 127 128 subsurface storage zones in the crust or sedimentary cover 30. The height and the strong 129 backscatter signature of the acoustic plume suggest that a mixture of solid particles (pyroclastic/hyaloclastic jet ²⁸) and/or differentiated fluid phases (droplets, hydrate-coated 130 131 bubbles or free gas ³¹) are driven upward through the water column from the NVE summit ³². 132 High turbidity measured at water depths below 2500 m, on the northern flank of the NVE, 133 likely indicates the presence of these particles ³³. Both the multiple observations of the vertical 134 acoustic plume at the summit of the NVE and the high H₂ concentration 1 km away indicate that the eruption was likely on-going in May 2019 ²⁹. 135 136 In the upper slope zone, 30 km away from the volcano, two, ~1000-m high acoustic plumes 137 were detected above the Horseshoe edifice (Figure 1 and extended data Figure 5, movie 2) 138 but no significant changes in seafloor morphology or reflectivity were detected.

The seismicity and VLF events relocated by OBS data

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The combined land-OBS network of seismic stations (supplementary Figure S2.1) detected 17000 events between February 25 and May 6, 2019. We manually relocated about 800 of the largest earthquakes onboard (see method and supplementary S2). Ninety-four percent of the earthquakes cluster beneath the western segment of the Mayotte ridge, 40 km west of the NVE and 5 to 15 km east of Petite-Terre (swarm 1, Figure 1). Almost all of the remaining events form a secondary swarm beneath the northwestern tip of the eastern segment, 30 km from Petite-Terre and 20 km from the NVE (swarm 2, Figure 1). A few events are also scattered along the eastern segment. We searched the full OBS-land catalog for events beneath the NVE, but found none. The located earthquakes are all very deep, ranging from 25±5 to 50±5 km. In addition, all P-S arrival delays recorded by an OBS deployed for 48h above the main swarm were greater than 3 seconds, indicating no events less than 20 km depth (Figure 4, extended data Figure 6b, method and supplementary S2.2). The land-OBS catalog does not show any evidence for seismicity migration, but it only represents a twomonth "snapshot" of the activity. To extend the observational time window, we relocated 139 earthquakes recorded by the land stations between May 2018 and the first OBS deployment. All the events were beneath the volcanic ridge (extended data fig. 6a). During the first weeks of the crisis, they were mainly located beneath the northwestern tip of the eastern segment, between 30 and 50 km depth, whereas in the last two weeks of June, a few events occurred closer to the NVE and between 30km-depth and the surface. In addition to the high frequency seismicity, VLF events were recorded by the OBSs wideband hydrophones. Their waveforms are similar to those of the globally detected November 11 2018 event (exponentially decaying monochromatic signals of approximately 2000s duration, with dominant period of ~15 s and polarized Rayleigh waves), suggesting repeated excitation of the same radiating source. We located 84 VLF events using waveform cross-correlation (see method and supplementary S2.3), all of them are most probably above seismic swarm 1 (Figures 4 and extended data Figure 6b), at a mean depth of 22 ± 15 km.

GNSS data and APG modeling

The GNSS network includes nine stations on Mayotte Island and two far field stations at Diego Suarez and Grande Glorieuse islands. The geometry is not optimal, preventing geodetic inversions for complicated structures or media. We performed Bayesian inversions ³⁴ of the data using a point source in an elastic half-space with two distinct analytical formalisms: an isotropic point source ³⁵ and a point compound dislocation model (pCDM, ³⁶ *see method, supplementary S3 and extended data Figure 7)*. In both cases, the results indicate ~5 km³ deflation of a deep reservoir (> 30 km). The simplest and most robust model is the deflation of ~ 40 km deep isotropic source below the eastern segment of the Mayotte ridge. An increase in absolute seafloor pressure measured by all APGs on the OBS frames, interpreted as seafloor subsidence, is compatible with these models (*see method, supplementary S3, extended data Figure 7d*).

Magma reservoirs and chronology of the eruption

beneath the ~17 km deep Moho ³⁷. Volcanic seismicity this deep is rarely documented ^{38,39}, especially in dense swarms during eruptions.

The distribution of the seismicity in the first weeks of the crisis suggests a dyke migration from the mid-slope zone to the NVE, along the eastern segment of the Mayotte ridge. This is also supported by the migration of the largest earthquakes' Centroid Moment Tensor depths ⁴⁰ towards the surface (*extended data Figures 6c and 8*) and agrees well with ^{1,2}. The earthquakes show strike-slip focal mechanisms compatible with a least compressive principal

Most of our located seismicity and modelled GNSS sources lie in the lithospheric mantle,

stress orthogonal to the eastern segment of the ridge. Similar stress trends have been observed during dyking events beneath the Izu peninsula in Japan 41 and in Iceland 42 but at much shallower depths, where they were interpreted as seismic shear faulting caused by stress transfer to the surrounding vertical faults in response to dyke opening and propagation. During the first six weeks of the crisis, the magma migrated 20 km laterally along the eastern segment of the Mayotte ridge, then upward (Figure 4 and extended data Figure 8). The building of the NVE may have begun in July 2018, once the dyke reached close to the surface ^{2,1} allowing for high magma flow rates and rapid ensuing growth. On the basis of this assumption, we estimate a minimum mean lava flow rate of ~180m³s⁻¹ between the start of the eruption on the seafloor and our survey (~ 11 months). The local stress probably decreased considerably once the magma path to the NVE was opened, as is observed during many eruptions involving dyke propagation 43, which would explain why no earthquakes were detected beneath the NVE during the OBS deployment. After the dike reached the near surface, seismicity resumed beneath the mid- and upper-slope volcanic zones (Figure 4 and extended data Figures 6a,b and 8) and its pattern appears to be constant since September 2018 ². This stationary seismicity could be caused by stress perturbation along pre-existing structures and/or fluid (gas, magma or water) motions. The swarm 1 earthquakes cluster beneath the ancient caldera structure inferred from our highresolution bathymetry (Figure 1c and extended data Figure 6b and 8). This seismicity could indicate activation of pre-existing subvertical faults 44 above a deep (> 55 km) depleting reservoir (R1,4), as has been observed during caldera collapse events 45: if so, these faults would be much deeper than documented elsewhere. Analog models for collapse of a caldera with a high-roof aspect ratio (thickness/width >> 1) indicate reverse fault motions during an initial downsag stage ⁴⁶, in agreement with the focal mechanism of the May 14, 2019 Mw4.9 swarm 1 region earthquake (Figure 4 and extended data Figure 8) and 1.

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The VLF events located above swarm 1 may be generated by the resonance of a fluid-filled (magma, gas or hydrothermal) shallower cavity or a fluid-filled crack, most probably at the base of the crust. The characteristic frequency and duration of these events are very different from VLF events typically observed in volcanic zones e.g. 47. Simple up-scaling of fluid resonance models 48,49 implies a shallower reservoir size of several kilometres (R3, Figure 4). The excitation mechanism could be rapid slip and related strain on faults close to the reservoir, or episodic collapse of a piston at the base of this shallow reservoir ⁴⁷. The acoustic plumes emanating from the overlying Horseshoe edifice may result from actively degassing of this shallower reservoir. Both the distribution of seismicity over time and the surface deformation models suggest the drainage of an exceptionally deep reservoir by a dyke that propagated from the base of the brittle lithosphere to the eastern portion of the Mayotte ridge, possibly intersecting another vertical storage zone below seismic swarm 2 before reaching the surface (R2, Figure 4 and extended data Figure 8). Within the uncertainties the GNSS isotropic model may reflect the drainage of reservoir R2 in the brittle lithosphere. The deeper reservoir (R1) may have slowly recharged from the asthenosphere before reaching tensile failure in May 2018 50.

Magma roots and paths.

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The eastern segment of the Mayotte ridge, along which the dike propagated, has the same orientation as many other volcanic features over a range of scales (Quaternary dykes, volcanic vent alignments, ridges and volcanic rift zones) in the northeastern part of Mayotte Island ¹⁵ and in and around the other Comoros islands ^{13,51} (*Figure 5 and extended data Figure 9*). The left-lateral en-echelon arrangement of these features resembles that of extensional tectonic structures in a context of oblique extension (i.e in segmented and diffuse strike-slip fault systems ⁵² or highly-oblique rifting (e.g. ^{53,54,55}). We infer that the Mayotte ridge results from the interplay between volcanism and tectonics. The location and orientation of the volcanic

features may be in part controlled by the pre-existing Mesozoic fracture zones ⁶ but they probably also emplace along new tectonic structures. These tectonic structures are extensional (fissures or step-overs) and open as a result of volcano-tectonic interactions in a wide E-W striking zone, to transfer the strain between the N-S striking offshore branches of the East African rift ⁵⁶ and the grabens of Madagascar (Aloatra and Ankai) ⁵⁷. In this context, high strain rates ⁵⁴ or highly damaged zones may develop ⁵⁸ (*Figure 5a inset*) in between the main en-echelon extensional structures. Such zones may constitute high-permeability zones where large magmatic reservoirs can develop. The main Comoros volcanic islands may have grown above such zones.

Between Mayotte and Madagascar, the lithosphere-asthenosphere boundary (LAB) is a sharp limit between a high-velocity 150 Ma lithosphere and a low-velocity asthenosphere, at about 70 km depth ^{59,60}. The low-velocity asthenosphere is interpreted as hot material spreading beneath the Mascarene basin and beyond ⁶¹. Heating of the base of the oceanic lithosphere damaged by extensional tectonic and loaded by Mayotte island ⁶² may favour the ponding of large volumes of buoyant melts. Pore pressure increase in these zones may in turn

The largest eruption ever documented in submarine domain

favour failure of deep reservoirs and faults inside the brittle lithosphere

The NVE extruded volume (as of May 2019) is 30 to 1000 times larger than that estimated for other deep-sea eruptions ^{63,25,64,21}. It is difficult to evaluate the dense rock equivalent (DRE) volume ²⁰, but, taking an upper bound of 50% for the DRE factor ⁶⁵, compatible with the 40% vesicularity of our rock sample ²⁶, the DRE erupted volume could be as large as 2.5 km³, which is larger than the 1.2 to 1.5 km³ Havre silicic eruption ⁶⁶), previously considered to be the largest documented submarine eruption. It would be 2.5 times larger than the Bardabunga eruption (Iceland's largest eruption of the last two centuries) ⁴³ and only 6 times less than Iceland's 1783-1784 Laki eruption, considered to be one of the largest basaltic eruptions

- witnessed by humanity ⁶⁷. The volumes and flux of emitted lava during the Mayotte magmatic
- event are comparable to those observed during eruptions at Earth's largest hot spots (Hawaii,
- 267 Iceland, 43,68 and one quarter of that emplaced yearly over the entire mid-ocean ridge
- system (mean estimate from spreading rates over the last 80 Ma ⁶⁹). It thus represents a
- 269 considerable input in terms of CO2 flux ⁷⁰.
- Future scenarios could include a new caldera collapse, submarine eruptions on the upper
- 271 slope, or onshore eruptions. Large lava flows and cones on the upper slope and onshore
- 272 Mayotte indicate that this has occurred in the past. Since the discovery of the NVE, an
- observatory has been established to monitor activity in real time (REVOSIMA 71) and return
- 274 cruises continue to follow the evolution of the eruption and edifices.

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Author contributions

NF, SJ, WCC, CD, IT, EJ, JMS, ALe, FP, RD, AG, CA, OF, PK, ALa, JPD, LG, JG, VG, PP, ER participated on the MAYOBS1 cruise (NF, SJ and WCC as PI), acquired and processed the geophysical and seismological data. CSa, ALa and PB detected and located the VLF events. AP was in charge of the GNSS installation in Glorieuse island and processed and modeled the GNSS data with FB and RG. VB was in charge of the OBSs APGs and processed their data. SB participated in the first OBS deployment on the Ylang vessel with WC and RD. DB, ALM and JVW were responsible for the installation of new seismological and GNSS stations in Mayotte and of data acquisition onshore. JPD, VG, ER, CC performed the geochemical analysis and interpretation of the water column data. CSc and AG processed the EM122 acoustic data. CD and AG performed the depth changes calculation. CSc provided the interpretation of the water column acoustic data. PBa and YF furnished the rocks sample descriptions and petrological analysis. NF, SJ, CD, PBa, YF, IT, FP, JVW, EJ provided the geological interpretation. NF wrote the paper with the contribution of all other authors. P.B.

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1: The volcanic ridge offshore Mayotte. a) 3D Westward view of Mayotte island and insular slope (vertical exaggeration 3). Green stars: Acoustically-detected plumes above the Horseshoe, the NVE and the degassing area on Petite-Terre island. Left inset: geographic setting and Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) surface horizontal displacements stations. Black points: seismic stations. Dashed grey lines: Mesozoic fracture zones ⁶. b) Geological interpretations of MAYOBS1 data. Purple patches: Volcanic structures (mainly cones). Pink patches: lava flows and elongated features. Yellow patches: upper slope's high reflective lava flows. NVE: in red (central part) and orange (radial ridges and flat flows). Green stars as in a). Red lines: fissures and faults, dashed lines: inferred faults. black dots: bathymetric depression. White boxes: location of Fig.2a and Extended data Fig. 3. Inset, as in b with MAYOBS backscatter data. Pink dots: Ocean Bottom seismometer (OBS) seismicity: yellow diamonds: location of the Very Low Frequency earthquakes. White boxes: location of extended data Figure 3.

Figure 2: The new volcanic edifice (NVE) offshore Mayotte. a) 30 m resolution bathymetric maps from shipboard EM122 multibeam, illuminated from N290°E. upper panel: SHOM bathymetry collected in 2014 ^{19.} lower panel: MAYOBS1 bathymetry collected in May 2019 ¹⁸. black circle: position of dredge DR01. b) Depth changes between 2014 and 2019. The change in topography is estimated to be significant when larger than 10 m.

Figure 3: The new volcanic edifice (NVE) and the acoustic plume. a) Southward 3D view of the NVE and the water column acoustic plume observed one hour before the Conductivity-

Temperature-Depth (CTD) rosette on May 16th 2019. The White dot and blue patch indicate the position of the CTD rosette deployment, 1 km far from the summit the volcano. Right inset: Processed polar echogram from one EM122 multibeam ping on May 16th (13:33 UT), horizontal and vertical-axes (both in meters) correspond respectively to the cross-track distance and the water depth.

Figure 4: Conceptual model of the submarine eruption offshore Mayotte eruption.

Bathymetry as in Figure 1b, no vertical exaggeration. Purple zones: N130°E volcano-tectonic ridges and segments. Dashed white lines: inferred ancient caldera with degassing zones above. Cross-section: red and reddish zones: magma storage zones (mush or magma chambers) and magma pathways involved in the 2018-2020 Mayotte volcanic crisis and seafloor eruption. Yellow layer: sediments. Dashed lines: subvertical faults beneath inferred caldera possibly reactivated by the deflation of a deep reservoir. White arrow: possible downsag at an initial stage of caldera collapse. Pink dots: 800 earthquakes located using OBSs and land stations. Other dots: 139 earthquakes from before the OBS deployment: colored dots are from the first 6 weeks of the crisis and white dots from the remaining 8 months before the OBS deployment. Yellow diamonds: Very Low Frequency (VLF) earthquakes. Blue and red triangles: water and magma movements, respectively. Blue patch: Location, with 3 sigma uncertainties, of the most robust isotropic source deformation model. Moho depth from ³⁷. Lithosphere/asthenosphere boundary depth from ^{60,61}.

Figure 5: Regional volcano-tectonic setting of the submarine eruption offshore Mayotte.

a) Volcano-tectonic setting of the new volcanic edifice (NVE). Volcanic cones and ridges (purple) from this study and ^{13,72,16,51}. Dots and diamonds: earthquakes as in Figure 4 and Extended data Fig. 6 and 8. Focal mechanisms for M>5 earthquakes ⁴⁰. Dotted white arrow: dyking intrusion along eastern segment of the Mayotte volcanic ridge. Red ellipse: inferred main volcano-tectonic ridges. Purple ellipses: highly damaged zones in between the en echelon ridges. Thick black arrows: local extension direction. Inset: sandbox model adapted from ⁵⁸ illustrating the possible arrangement of the main volcano-tectonic structures in Comoros. b) Geodynamic setting of the East African Rift systems. Main tectonic structures and extensional zones in Africa and Madagascar from this study and ^{73,57,74,75,56}. Purple patches:

Quaternary volcanism in Madagascar ⁵⁷. Red dots: M> 2.5 earthquakes ⁴ with focal mechanisms from ⁴⁰ for the M>5 earthquakes. Arrows: GNSS horizontal motions ⁷³. Small purple ellipses in the Comoros as in a) with double dark red arrows: the volcanic ridge east of Mayotte and extension direction. Inset: Simplified tectonic map of the East African Rift system: Yellow highlights: most active rifts and graben; Red ellipse: Transfer zone of the Comoros with direction of lateral motion.

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METHODS

Summary

Ship-borne Multibeam data was acquired using a Kongsberg EM122 1°x1° during the 2014 ¹⁹ and 2019 ¹⁸. **Ship-borne Multibeam data** were processed with the GLOBE software ⁷⁶ to provide 30-m grid spaced digital terrain models and seafloor backscatter imagery and to calculate depth differences, surface and volumes. The 3D acoustic water column data from the 2019 cruise were processed using SonarScope (@Ifremer) and GLOBE softwares https://doi.org/10.17882/70460 76. Water column measurements: A CTD-Rosette Seabird 911+ CTD (Conductivity; Temperature; Depth) equipped with an altimeter, an Aanderaa oxygen optode and a Seapoint Turbidity Meter was mounted on a carousel with 16 ®Niskin sampling bottles (8L) to measure and sample throughout the water column. Sub-sampling was performed for onboard analyses (pH, alkalinity and total CO2 by pH electrode and titrator) and for onshore analyses (CH4 analysis by the purge and trap method and H2 and CO2 analysis by the Headspace method). Seismology: 800 earthquakes identified from the onshore catalog were selected in descending magnitude order and manually picked onboard. The seismic network used during the two month deployment included OBSs, onshore local and regional stations (up to 500km distance). The events were relocated with NonLinLoc 77 and an hybrid velocity model based on trials with 6 different velocity models, achieving final location accuracies better than 5km. Eighty-four very low frequency (VLF) earthquakes were detected between February 25 and April 24, 2019, using an amplitude trigger on ocean bottom hydrophones recordings, filtered between 0.05 and 0.10 Hz, followed by a selection of events with a clear peak frequency and a final visual inspection. VLF earthquakes were located using spatial 3D back-projection of station-pair cross-correlation functions ⁷⁸, assuming a constant surface-wave speed of 3.5 km/s. A well-constrained epicentral location was obtained for 81 events. **Geodesy:** We inverted the surface deformation recorded by 6 permanent GNSS (Global Navigation Satellite System) receivers installed in Mayotte, Grande Glorieuse and Madagascar. We used both an isotropic model and a triple volumetric discontinuities (pCDM source) in a homogeneous elastic half-space, isotropic material with Poisson's ratio of 0.25 to model the pressure source in depth. Seafloor pressure data (30s sample interval) were pre-processed using harmonic analysis to remove the tides and low-pass filtering to remove residual oscillations interpreted as internal waves.

Water Column: Bathymetry and water column acoustic data.

645 See also Extended Data Figures 1 to 3 and Figure 5

We mapped the submarine slope and basin adjacent to Mayotte and detected and mapped water column anomalies using ship-borne multibeam surveys over an area of 8600 km². Bathymetric data were collected in 2014 by the French *Service Hydrographique et Océanographique de la Marine* ¹⁹ using the vessel BHO Beautemps Beaupré. The 2019 data ¹⁸ were collected using the R/V Marion Dufresne during the MAYOBS1 cruise (May 3rd to 18th). Both vessels are equipped with identical Kongsberg EM122 multibeam echosounders (12 kHz, 1°x1° beam width). Bathymetry and seafloor backscatter data sets were processed using the GLOBE software ⁷⁶ with identical 30-m cell grids to allow accurate estimates of differences in depth, surfaces and volumes. Water column acoustic data are only available for the 2019 cruise and processing was performed onboard using the SonarScope (@Ifremer) and GLOBE software packages using published methods ⁷⁹.

657 Water column: Sampling and chemical analysis 658 659 See also Extended Data Figure 4. 660 661 Water column sampling and in situ measurements with CTD-Rosette. 662 Seawater was sampled using IFREMER's CTD-Rosette, consisting of a Seabird 911+ CTD (Conductivity; Temperature; Depth) instrument mounted on a carousel with 16 8-liter ®Niskin 663 664 sampling bottles. For this cruise, the CTD-Rosette was equipped with an altimeter, an 665 Aanderaa oxygen optode and a Seapoint turbidity meter. Information from the sensors was 666 transmitted in real time, allowing us to adapt the sampling strategy to observed water column 667 anomalies. The ®Niskin bottles were subsampled for onboard and onshore analyses. For CH₄ analysis, 668 669 125mL glass bulbs were used for analysis using the purge and trap method. The bulbs were 670 allowed to overflow by at least two volumes of seawater and particular care was taken to 671 exclude air bubbles to prevent contamination. While filling, sodium azide was added to 672 prevent future microbial activity. For H₂ and CO₂ analysis, 160 mL vials were filled using the 673 Headspace method. The vials, containing some sodium azide, were filled using a silicone tube connected to the ®Niskin bottle. The silicone tube was inserted to the bottom of the vial in 674 675 order to completely fill the vial from the bottom to the top, displacing all contained air. The 676 tube was then slowly removed, taking care to avoid any air bubble, and the vial was sealed 677 with a PTFE septum using special crimping pliers. The headspace volume of 10 mL of 678 atmospheric air was added using a needle mounted on a syringe. 679 680 CH₄ analysis by the purge and trap method at IFREMER laboratories.

Onshore, the Purge and trap method ⁸⁰ was used. Once in the laboratory, CH₄ was stripped from seawater using Helium carrier gas, trapped on activated charcoal at -80°C and detected

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and quantified with a flame ionization detector after separation on a packed column. Calibration was performed injecting of a commercial gas standard (CH₄ 107.8ppm). The limit of detection is 0.03nmol/L, the precision (based on five replicates from the same rosette bottle) is within \pm 2% (confidence level 95%) and the accuracy is 5%. The CH₄ equipment was set up in a portable clean air-conditioned container, allowing one CH₄ analysis every 6 min using two extraction kits.

CO₂ and H₂ analysis were performed at IFREMER laboratories by GC/HID following methods described in ⁸¹, except that the headspace vial replaced the syringe.

pH, Total Alkalinity and ΣCO_2 measurements onboard.

pH, Total Alkalinity and ΣCO_2 measurements were performed onboard using a Metrohm 848 Titrino Plus titrator. The pH electrode was calibrated using commercially available pH buffers. pH was measured as soon as possible after sample recovery and Total Alkalinity and ΣCO_2 were then determined by direct titration with 0.1N hydrochloric acid. Concentrations were compared to a seawater reference for oceanic CO_2 measurements (Batch 178).

Seismology data

See also Supplementary information and Extended Data Figures 6 and 8

The 800 earthquakes discussed in this paper were located using recordings from a network of up to 22 seismological stations equipped with sensors of different types, operating during different time slots comprised between February 25th and May 5th 2019: 6 ocean bottom seismometers (OBS) and up to 16 land stations on Mayotte island, on Grande Glorieuse, on Khartala volcano, in Madagascar and in Kenya. Details on station location, type and quality are provided in Supplementary Information Figures S2.1 and S2.2 and Table S2.1.

An earthquake catalog of 2362 events of magnitude 2.0<M<5.4, between February 25th and May 5th, was produced in near real-time by BRGM using land stations ⁸². On board, three groups of operators working around the clock manually picked 800 of the events from the OBS, selected in descending magnitude order, using SeisComP3 software ⁸³. The Hypo71 software ⁸⁴ was used for preliminary locations and SeisComP3 was used to compute ML and MLv magnitudes, the velocity model was updated to fit the data (see Supplementary S2) then the NonLinLoc (NLL) software ⁷⁷ was used to relocate the events. Low-frequency events were detected and analysed using the broadband land stations and the broadband hydrophone (HiTech HTI-90U, 30s cut-off frequency) on the OBSs.

Geodesy data

719 See Supplementary Material and Extended Data Figures 7

We used the GNSS stations from the Centre National d'Etudes Spatiales (MAYG), EXAGONE'S TERIA network (BDRL and GAMO), Precision Topo's Lel@ network (KAWE), IPGP (GLOR) and the Université de la Réunion (DSUA). Sea floor pressure data were collected using Seabird SBE37 pressure sensors deployed on the OBS frames. The seawater pump of each instrument was deactivated to avoid induced noise on the seismometer recordings. Although SBE37s are not designed for seafloor geodesy, previous experiments indicate that their pressure gauge can be used to characterize sudden or large-amplitude deformations ^{85,86}.

Data availability statement

732	The authors declare that most of the data supporting the findings of this study are available
733	within the paper and its supplementary information files. GNSS data are available on the
734	website « http://mayotte.gnss.fr » and can be downloaded on this ftp site
735	ftp://rgpdata.ign.fr/pub/gnss_mayotte/. Ship-borne geophysical data from the MAYOBS1
736	cruise can be obtained through the French national oceanographic data center SISMER
737	(http://en.data.ifremer.fr/SISMER) but restrictions apply to the availability of these data. The
738	compilations of older bathymetric and topographic data are available on the SHOM Website
739	(http://www.shom.fr). Rock samples are referenced at
740	https://wwz.ifremer.fr/echantillons/Echantillons/Carte#/map
741	and https://campagnes.flotteoceanographique.fr/search. Samples are accessible on site at
742	IFREMER, Plouzané, France.
743	Map were created using Globe software https://doi.org/10.17882/70460 76, ArcGIS® software
744	by Esri (https://www.arcgis.com/index.html), Generic Mapping Tools ⁸⁷ , Adobe illustrator ®
745	(https://www.adobe.com/) and MATLAB.
746	In addition to Mayobs 1 cruise multibeam data (resolution: 30m) ¹⁸ , Figs. 1, 2, 4, 5 and
747	Extended data Fig. 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9 include topographic and bathymetric data from previous
748	compilation 16,88,89,90, the General Bathymetric Chart of the Oceans (https://www.gebco.net)
749	and Global topography from SRTM GL1 (https://catalog.data.gov/dataset/shuttle-radar-
750	topography-mission-srtm-gl1-global-30m). Litto3D Mayotte
751	(https://diffusion.shom.fr/presentation/litto3d-mayot2012.html). Topography and bathymetry
752	of Figure 5b from GeoMapApp (www.geomapapp.org) / CC BY. In Fig 5 and Extended data
753	Figs.6, 8, 9: focal mechanisms for M>5 earthquakes are from 40. In Figure 5, M> 2.5
754	earthquakes are from ⁴

Code Availability

Ship-borne Multibeam data were processed with the GLOBE software ⁷⁶. The 3D acoustic water column data were processed using SonarScope (@Ifremer) and GLOBE softwares https://doi.org/10.17882/70460 ⁷⁶. GNSS solutions were computed using the GipsyX/JPL software available at https://gipsy-oasis.jpl.nasa.gov. Deformation source modeling codes (Mogi and Nikkhoo) are available at https://github.com/IPGP/deformations-matlab and data processing has been achieved using the WebObs open-source system available at https://ipgp.github.io/webobs/. Pressure gauge data were processed with Python 91. Very Low Frequency Event analysis has been performed using ObsPy ⁸⁹ NumPy ⁹² and Matplotlib ⁹³. Earthquake phase picking was used performed with SeisComP3 and initial locations Hypo71 77 Final locations performed with NonLinLoc were and results converted back to SeisComP3 using ObsPy 89.

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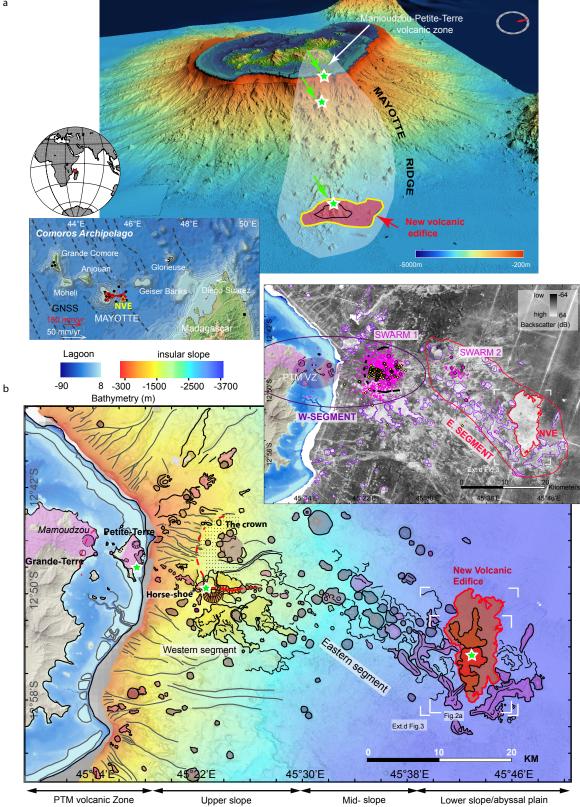
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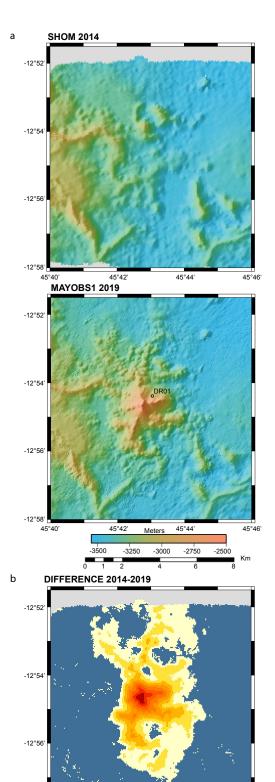
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Method References

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Meters -10 10 100 200 300 400 500 600 700 820 45°46'

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