

Water and Carbon Dioxide in Basaltic Magmas

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Abstract

Experiments were conducted in which basaltic melts were equilibrated with a vapor phase consisting of pure water, pure carbon dioxide, and water-carbon dioxide mixtures at 1200°C and 200 to 980 bars in order to develop a basis for interpreting the behavior of these volatiles during the evolution and degassing of submarine magmas. Molar absorptivities for the 4500 cm⁻¹ band for hydroxyl groups and for the 5230 and 1630 cm⁻¹ bands of molecular water were calibrated to be 0.67 ± 0.04 , 0.62 ± 0.08 , and 25 ± 3 l/mole-cm, respectively. The solubility of water in MORB liquid was determined from the experiments in which MORB melt was equilibrated with pure H₂O vapor. Results are in agreement with the higher-pressure results of Hamilton et al. (1964) on Columbia River basalt. Trends observed in the concentrations of molecular water and hydroxyl groups with respect to total water concentration in the quenched, experimental, basaltic glasses are similar to those observed in albitic glasses (Silver and Stolper, 1989). Moreover, the concentration of molecular water measured in the quenched basaltic glasses is approximately proportional to water fugacity in all samples regardless of the composition of the vapor (XCO₂), demonstrating that molecular water solubility in basaltic melts is closely approximated by Henry's law at pressures less than 1 kbar. Total water concentrations and the speciation of water in vapor-saturated basaltic melt are fit by a regular ternary solution model with the coefficients for albitic glasses (Silver and Stolper, 1989), where the activity of water in the melt is given by Henry's law for molecular water. At pressures higher than about 1 kbar, the effect of the molar volume of water in the melt ($V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0,m}$) on the activity of water in vapor-saturated melts is no longer negligible; a ($V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0,m}$) of ~ 12 cm³/mole fits the data of Hamilton et al. (1964).

Concentrations of CO₂ dissolved as carbonate in the experimental glasses range from 63 to 315 ppm CO₂. Carbonate was the only species of dissolved carbon observed. The mole fraction of CO₂ in the vapor varied from 0.39 to 0.93. Concentrations of CO₂

dissolved as carbonate in the melt for all the experiments are proportional to f_{CO_2} . The data for pure CO_2 -saturated and mixed H_2O - CO_2 -saturated experiments are fit with a straight line through the origin with a slope of 40 ppm/100 bar f_{CO_2} (equivalent to 47 ppm/km water depth). These results suggest Henrian behavior for CO_2 ; that is, the solubility of CO_2 in the basaltic melt is essentially proportional to the fugacity of CO_2 , with the same constant of proportionality, whether the vapor contains pure CO_2 or $\text{H}_2\text{O}+\text{CO}_2$. These results do not support the widely held view that water enhances the solubility of carbon dioxide in basaltic melts.

Results of degassing calculations show that the vapor phase in equilibrium with MORB magmas at typical midoceanic eruption depths is CO_2 -rich and that the dissolved CO_2 contents should vary linearly with depth of eruption. Basaltic magmas containing <1.0 wt.% H_2O will not degas significant quantities of water until pressures <100 bars are reached. As water contents increase, either through fractional crystallization or variations in the initial water contents, an inverse correlation is predicted between dissolved CO_2 and H_2O contents in melts saturated with a mixed H_2O - CO_2 vapor phase. These predictions were tested by examining the water and carbon dioxide concentrations in suites of basaltic glasses from the Juan de Fuca Ridge and Hawaii.

Concentrations of dissolved H_2O and CO_2 were measured in a suite of basaltic glasses from the Juan de Fuca Ridge. CO_2 contents dissolved as carbonate range from about 45 to 360 ppm by weight. In contrast to the predictions based on vapor-saturated degassing, samples erupted at a given depth exhibit a large range in dissolved CO_2 contents that we interpret to be the result of variable amounts of degassing. The lowest CO_2 contents at each depth are in reasonable agreement with the experimentally determined CO_2 solubility curve for basalt at low pressures. All glasses with CO_2 values higher than the experimentally determined solubility at the eruption depth are oversaturated because of incomplete degassing. The highest CO_2 contents are spatially associated with the local topographic highs for each ridge segment. Lavas from relatively deep areas may have had

greater opportunity to degas during ascent from a relatively deeper magma chamber or during lateral flow in dikes or seafloor lava flows. The highest observed CO_2 concentrations are from the axial seamount and lead to an estimate of a minimum depth to the magma chamber of 2.7 kilometers beneath the ridge axis. Water contents were not modified during degassing and were found to behave incompatibly during partial melting and crystal fractionation. Variations in ratios of water to other incompatible elements suggest that water has a bulk partition coefficient similar to La during partial melting ($D \sim 0.010$).

Major, minor, and dissolved volatile element concentrations were measured in tholeiitic glasses from the submarine portion (Puna Ridge) of the east rift zone of Kilauea Volcano, Hawaii. Dissolved H_2O and S concentrations display a wide range relative to nonvolatile incompatible elements at all depths. This range cannot be readily explained by fractional crystallization, degassing of H_2O and S during eruption on the seafloor, or source region heterogeneities. Dissolved CO_2 concentrations, in contrast, show a positive correlation with eruption depth and typically agree within error with the solubility at that depth. Magmas along the Puna Ridge can be modelled as resulting from (1) mixing of a relatively volatile-rich, undegassed component with magmas that experienced low pressure (perhaps subaerial) degassing during which substantial H_2O , S, and CO_2 were lost, followed by (2) fractional crystallization of olivine, clinopyroxene, and plagioclase from this mixture to generate a residual liquid; and (3) further degassing, principally of CO_2 for samples erupted deeper than 1000 m, during eruption on the seafloor. The degassed end member may form at upper levels of the summit magma chamber (assuming less than lithostatic pressure gradients), during residence at shallow levels in the crust, or during sustained summit eruptions. The final phase of degassing during eruption on the seafloor occurs slowly enough to achieve melt/vapor equilibrium during exsolution of the typically CO_2 -rich vapor phase. According to the model, an average Kilauean primary magma with 16.0 % MgO should contain ~ 0.47 wt. % H_2O and ~ 900 ppm S. The model predicts that

submarine lavas from wholly submarine volcanoes (i.e., Loihi), for which there is no opportunity to generate the degassed end member by low pressure degassing, will be enriched in volatiles relative to those from volcanoes whose summits have breached the sea surface (i.e., Kilauea and Mauna Loa).

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Introduction

This thesis was undertaken to characterize the behavior of water and carbon dioxide in submarine basaltic glasses. First, I conducted an experimental study of solubilities of water and carbon dioxide in basaltic melts in order to develop a basis for interpreting the behavior of these volatiles during the evolution and degassing of submarine magmas. Second, I measured the water and carbon dioxide concentrations in suites of basaltic glasses from several tectonic environments using infrared spectroscopy. Variations in these data were modelled in terms of degassing, crystal fractionation, partial melting, and source region heterogeneity. The thesis is written as three separate papers (Chapters 1-3) and three appendices. Each paper appears here with separate abstracts, introductions and bibliographies. Variations in style among the manuscripts are a function of the format of the journal to which they were submitted.

In Chapter 1, to be submitted to *Contributions to Mineralogy and Petrology*, I report results of experiments in which basaltic melts were equilibrated with a vapor phase consisting of pure water, pure carbon dioxide, and water-carbon dioxide mixtures at 1200°C and 200 to 980 bars. Water solubility at these pressures was found to be consistent with previous studies at higher pressures. The solubilities of molecular water and carbon dioxide were found to obey Henry's law, such that the amount of each species dissolved in the melt is simply proportional to the fugacity of that species in the vapor. The solubility of CO₂ was not higher in hydrous melts than anhydrous melts, in contrast to the results of previous studies at much higher pressures. Results of degassing calculations, described in Appendix 3, show that the vapor phase in equilibrium with MORB magmas at typical midoceanic eruption depths is CO₂-rich and that the dissolved CO₂ contents should vary linearly with depth of eruption (pressure). Basaltic magmas containing <1.0 wt.% H₂O will not degas significant quantities of water until pressures <100 bars are reached. As water contents increase, either through fractional crystallization or variations in the initial water contents, an inverse correlation is predicted between dissolved CO₂ and H₂O

contents. These predictions will be tested by examining the water and carbon dioxide concentrations in suites of basaltic glasses from the Juan de Fuca Ridge (Chapter 2) and Hawaii (Chapter 3).

In Chapter 2, published in *Earth and Planetary Science Letters* (v. 90, 87-104, 1988), concentrations of dissolved H₂O and CO₂ were measured in a suite of basaltic glasses from the Juan de Fuca Ridge. This study was significant because it marked the first time that the variation in water and carbon dioxide was examined in detail in a geochemically and tectonically well constrained suite of samples from a single rift environment. A large range in CO₂ contents was observed in samples erupted at similar depths and was interpreted to be the result of variable amounts of degassing. These data showed the importance of understanding the kinetics of degassing in modelling the chemistry of volatile species in these glasses. Because the solubility of water is much higher than that of carbon dioxide in basalt, and because the concentrations of water in MORB are low, water contents were not modified during degassing and were found to behave incompatibly during partial melting and crystal fractionation. Variations in ratios of water to other incompatible elements suggest that water has a bulk partition coefficient similar to La during partial melting ($D \sim 0.010$).

One way of further testing the influence of eruption kinetics on volatile species chemistry in basaltic magmas is to investigate nonridge environments, where we might expect much slower eruption rates. In Chapter 3, published in *Journal of Geology* (v. 99, 371-394, 1991), the concentrations of major and minor elements, water, sulfur, and carbon dioxide in a suite of samples from the submarine portion of the Kilauea east rift zone are discussed. The major and minor element data, including sulfur, were generated by David Clague at the USGS. The concentrations of water and carbon dioxide were measured using infrared spectroscopy by myself at Caltech. In contrast to the MORB data, the CO₂ concentrations were found to be in equilibrium with the solubility of CO₂ in basalt for the depth of eruption, while water and sulfur showed a large range in values that could not be

explained by simple crystal-liquid fractionation processes or degassing during submarine eruption. A model was developed to explain the variations in major, minor, and volatile element geochemistry involving (1) mixing of a relatively volatile-rich, undegassed component with magmas that experienced low pressure degassing during which substantial H₂O, S, and CO₂ were lost, followed by (2) fractional crystallization of olivine, clinopyroxene, and plagioclase from this mixture to generate a residual liquid; and (3) further degassing, principally of CO₂ for samples erupted deeper than 1000 m, during eruption on the seafloor. This study shows that the degassing history of magmas erupted from volcanoes that have breached the sea surface (popped their tops), is much more complicated than those that are completely submarine.

Appendix 1 is a preprint of a manuscript in press in *American Mineralogist* on the development of the rapid-quench, internally heated pressure vessel with John Holloway as first author. Appendix 2 is a preprint of a paper describing the determination of the molar absorptivity for dissolved carbonate in basaltic glass, which will be submitted to *American Mineralogist*. Appendix 3 is a detailed description of the method used to determine degassing paths of basaltic magmas based on the thermodynamic development of H₂O and CO₂ solubilities described in Chapter 1.

Chapter 1

An experimental study of water and carbon dioxide in midoceanic ridge basalt

Abstract

A series of experiments were conducted to determine the solubilities of H₂O and CO₂ and the nature of their mixing behavior in basaltic liquid at pressures and temperature relevant to seafloor eruption. MORB liquid was saturated at 1200°C with pure H₂O at pressures of 176-717 bars and H₂O-CO₂ vapor at pressures up to 980 bars. Experiments were performed in conventional and rapid-quench, internally heated pressure vessels. Iron loss was controlled using foils of Pt-Fe alloy. Oxygen fugacity was controlled by using mixtures of Ar and H₂ as the pressurizing medium. Vapor compositions had XCO₂ ranging from 0 to 0.93. Concentrations and speciation of H₂O and CO₂ dissolved in the quenched glasses were measured using infrared spectroscopy. Molar absorptivities for the 4500 cm⁻¹ band for hydroxyl groups and for the 5230 and 1630 cm⁻¹ bands of molecular water were calibrated to be 0.67 ± 0.04 , 0.62 ± 0.08 , and 25 ± 3 l/mole-cm, respectively.

The solubility of water in MORB liquid was determined from the experiments in which MORB melt was equilibrated with pure H₂O vapor. Results are in agreement with the higher-pressure results of Hamilton et al. (1964) on Columbia River basalt. Trends observed in the concentrations of molecular water and hydroxyl groups with respect to total water concentration in the quenched, experimental basaltic glasses are similar to those observed in albitic glasses (Silver and Stolper, 1989). Moreover, the concentration of molecular water measured in the quenched basaltic glasses is approximately proportional to water fugacity in all samples regardless of the composition of the vapor (XCO₂), demonstrating that molecular water solubility in basaltic melts is closely approximated by Henry's law at pressures less than 1 kbar. Total water concentrations and the speciation of water in vapor-saturated basaltic melt are fit by a regular ternary solution model with the coefficients for albitic glasses (Silver and Stolper, 1989), where the activity of water in the melt is given by Henry's law for molecular water. At pressures higher than about 1 kbar, the effect of the molar volume

of water in the melt ($V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0,m}$) on the activity of water in vapor-saturated melts is no longer negligible; a ($V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0,m}$) of $\sim 12 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mole}$ fits the data of Hamilton et al. (1964).

Concentrations of CO_2 dissolved as carbonate in the experimental glasses range from 63 to 315 ppm CO_2 . Carbonate was the only species of dissolved carbon observed. The mole fraction of CO_2 in the vapor varied from 0.39 to 0.93. Concentrations of CO_2 dissolved as carbonate in the melt for all the experiments are proportional to $f\text{CO}_2$. The data for pure CO_2 -saturated and mixed $\text{H}_2\text{O-CO}_2$ -saturated experiments are fit with a straight line through the origin with a slope of 40 ppm/100 bar $f\text{CO}_2$ (equivalent to 47 ppm/km water depth). These results suggest Henrian behavior for CO_2 ; that is, the solubility of CO_2 in the basaltic melt is essentially proportional to the fugacity of CO_2 , with the same constant of proportionality, whether the vapor contains pure CO_2 or $\text{H}_2\text{O+CO}_2$. These results do not support the widely held view that water enhances the solubility of carbon dioxide in basaltic melts. Degassing processes in basaltic magmas rich in both water and carbon dioxide can be accurately modelled using these results in the end-member systems and the assumption of Henry's law.

1. Introduction

Magma erupted subaerially solidify at a pressure of about 1 bar, but the pressure on submarine magmas depends on the water depth at which they erupt and may range from near 1 bar to several hundred bars. Even over this small range in pressure, the vesicularity of magma and the composition of gas in vesicles can change dramatically, reflecting the enormous differences in volume between vapor and melt, the large compressibility of the gas phase at these low pressures, and the differing solubilities of various gaseous species. The degassing of submarine magmas as they erupt at progressively shallower depths is largely responsible for the negative correlation between eruption depth and vesicularity of submarine magmas (e. g., Moore , 1965 , 1970 , 1979 ; Moore and Schilling, 1973). It also leads to changes in the composition of the vapor in the vesicles with depth (e.g., Moore, 1965, 1970; Gerlach, 1986) and might result in systematic changes in the oxidation state of iron in erupting magmas (e.g., Sato and Wright, 1966; Sato, 1978; Mathez, 1984; Carmichael and Ghiorso, 1986).

In view of the importance of the exsolution of a vapor phase from submarine magmas to understanding their vesicle contents, their eruptive histories, aspects of their chemistry (especially oxidation state), and the chemistry of the atmosphere and ocean (Des Marais, 1985), it is surprising how little is really known about the behavior of volatile components in these systems. Only recently has the solubility of carbon dioxide, the major degassing species in MORBs (Killingley and Muenow, 1975; Moore et al., 1977; Delaney et al., 1978; Jambon and Zimmermann, 1987) been measured in MORB melt by experiment (Stolper and Holloway, 1988; Matthey, 1991; Pan et al., 1991; Pawley and Holloway, 1991).

Although the solubility of water in MORB magmas is expected to be much greater than that of carbon dioxide under equivalent conditions, prior to this study there had been no measurements of the solubility of water in MORB systems, though some

work does exist on other basaltic compositions. Hamilton et al. (1964) measured the solubility of water in a Columbia River basaltic melt at 1-6 kbar, using several analytical techniques for bulk-water contents. There is also some Russian work on water solubility in basaltic melts at pressures between 1 and 3 kbar (Khitarov et al., 1959; Kadik et al., 1971), but the results differ in some ways from those of Hamilton et al. (1964). Also, the absence of speciation data in these previous studies prevented the development of a thermodynamic model for water solubility.

In the context of MORB petrogenesis, the concentration of water in basaltic liquids in equilibrium with pure water vapor is less important than the concentration of water in liquids in equilibrium with H₂O-CO₂ fluids, because the vapor that exsolves from MORBs on decompression contains both volatile components. Except at very low pressures (<50 bars based on Moore, 1970) or for magmas in which water is highly enriched (e.g., Byers et al., 1983, 1984), the vapor phase that exsolves from MORB magmas is predominantly carbon dioxide (Killingley and Muenow, 1975; Moore et al., 1977; Delaney et al., 1978; Jambon and Zimmermann, 1987). If both water and carbon dioxide solubility in the mixed volatile system can be approximated by Henry's law (where the activity of a species dissolved in the melt is proportional to its fugacity in the vapor) under the conditions of MORB genesis, then the behavior of the mixed volatile system can be understood simply with reference to the two end-member systems. Given the Henrian approximation and knowledge of the solubilities of CO₂ and H₂O in melts in the end-member systems, the degassing paths of magmas as they decompress can be readily calculated. Such calculations have been carried out by Shilobreyeva et al. (1983); Gerlach (1986); and Newman (1989, 1990) for basaltic systems and by Newman et al. (1988) for rhyolitic systems.

There have been reasons to suspect, however, that the Henrian approximation may be inaccurate, particularly at the CO₂-rich end of the system, where data at much higher pressures in other silicate-H₂O-CO₂ systems have indicated that the presence of

water enhances the solubility of carbon dioxide by as much as 50% (Holloway and Lewis, 1974; Mysen, 1976; Brey and Green, 1976; Egglar and Rosenhauer, 1978). The explanation offered for this is that addition of water depolymerizes the melt, thereby enhancing the solubility of carbon dioxide as carbonate. Kadik et al. (1972) reported mixed CO₂ and H₂O solubilities in basaltic melts at 1-3 kbar and did not report the expected effect of water on CO₂ solubility. Their experiments, however, did not extend to the CO₂-rich part of the system, and the CO₂ contents they reported are inconsistent with later studies (Stolper and Holloway, 1988).

I will show that the expected enhancement in CO₂ solubility does not occur in MORB at pressures relevant to eruption conditions over the range of vapor compositions investigated, and that both molecular water and carbon dioxide solubilities appear to follow Henry's law. These measurements provide a basis for interpreting the water and carbon contents of submarine magmas and for assessing the factors controlling the extent to which they degas on ascent and emplacement.

2. Experimental Techniques

Experiments were conducted by equilibrating basaltic melt with pure H₂O, pure CO₂, and mixed H₂O-CO₂ vapors at 1200°C at pressures between 200 and 980 bars in conventional and rapid-quench, internally heated pressure vessels. After quenching, the water and carbon dioxide contents dissolved in the basaltic glass were measured using infrared spectroscopy. Details of each run are given in Table 1.

2.1 Starting materials

Experiments were conducted on two starting materials, both Fe-rich basalt from the Juan de Fuca Ridge, chosen for their low liquidus temperatures (~1165°C). Compositions of the starting materials are listed with the compositions of the run products in Table 2. One composition (TT152-51-3) is the same starting material used

in the CO₂ solubility study of Stolper and Holloway (1988). Several grams of this composition were powdered, pressed into pellets, and held at 940°C for 14 hrs at 1 atm in a CO₂-CO gas mixture corresponding to the quartz-fayalite-magnetite (QFM) buffer. The pellet was repowdered, and the powder was stored in a dessicator. The other composition (TT152-51-3) was held at 900°C for 36 hrs in an H₂-CO₂ gas mix corresponding to the nickel-nickel oxide (Ni-NiO) buffer. Vapor compositions were produced by addition of water, oxalic acid dihydrate (H₂C₂O₄·2H₂O), and silver oxalate (Ag₂C₂O₄). Powdered basalt (50 to 100 mg) and various combinations of water, oxalic acid dihydrate, or silver oxalate were loaded into Pt capsules (0.15" outside diameter Pt tubing) that were then sealed by arc welding.

2.2 Control of Fe-Loss

It has long been recognized that a major problem in high-temperature experiments on basaltic compositions is the loss of iron from the melt to the Pt container (see Grove, 1981 for a review). Reduction of iron as FeO in the melt results in production of an Fe-Pt alloy and liberation of excess O₂. The extent of iron loss is related to the oxidation state of the system in that O₂ is produced during the reaction, and the proportion of the total iron present as FeO varies as a function of oxygen fugacity. A higher oxidation state results in lower concentrations of Fe in the Fe-Pt alloy in equilibrium with the melt, and therefore less Fe will be lost from the melt. For example, the concentrations of Fe in alloys in equilibrium with a basalt containing 12.4 wt.% FeO* (total Fe as FeO) at 1200°C at the hematite-magnetite (HM), Ni-NiO, and QFM buffers are 0.16, 6.5, and 8.7 wt.%, respectively. Techniques used to control iron loss in these experiments are discussed below. Control of oxygen fugacity is discussed in the sections on conventional and rapid-quench, internally heated pressure vessels.

In the first approach, loss of Fe to the Pt capsule was minimized by use of a double-capsule technique. Outer capsules of pure platinum were lined with cylindrical

Pt-Fe alloy foils having activities of Fe calculated to be in equilibrium with the basalt at the run conditions (Grove, 1981; Van der Laan and Koster van Groos, 1991). The Pt-Fe alloy inserts were generated by electroplating Fe onto Pt-foils (0.002" thick) followed by annealing at high temperature (1450°C) in a reducing gas (f_{O_2} ~two log units below the iron-wustite (IW) buffer) to produce a homogeneous alloy. Unfortunately, the Pt-Fe alloy foils proved to be brittle, prone to breakage during capsule preparation, and they complicated the process of arc-welding the capsules.

The second approach to minimizing Fe loss involved the use of Pt capsules presaturated with Fe. Presaturation was performed by melting powdered TT152-21-35 in open Pt capsules at 1 atm at 1250°C in an H₂-CO₂ gas mix corresponding to QFM-1/2 (log units) for 14 hrs. After presaturation, the glass was dissolved out of the capsules by soaking in warm HF followed by dilute HCl. The major disadvantage to capsule presaturation was that the capsules became brittle and tended to rupture during quench.

A few runs were also performed in pure Pt capsules (without a Pt-Fe alloy insert or Fe-presaturation). These runs also cracked before or during quench similar to the Fe-presaturated capsules.

2.3 Conventional, Internally Heated Pressure Vessel (IHPV)

Several low pressure (200-300 bar) runs were conducted in a horizontal, internally heated gas-pressure vessel (Holloway, 1971). Ar gas was used as the pressurizing medium; pressures were monitored with a Bourdon tube gauge. Samples were heated with a single-wound Kanthal furnace. Temperatures were monitored with two chromel-alumel thermocouples bracketing the position of the capsule.

Experiments were brought up to the run conditions by first prefilling the vessel with a small volume of H₂, calculated using a modified Redlich-Kwong (MRK) equation of state (Holloway, 1977) to be in equilibrium with H₂O at QFM at the run conditions, pressurizing the Ar gas to about two-thirds of the desired final pressure at

room temperature, increasing the temperature to the final T, and then adjusting the pressure to the desired value. Hydrogen pressures in the Ar gas were monitored using a AgPd Shaw membrane. Temperature gradients were about 30°C along the length of the capsule. Pressures varied by <1% of the run pressure. Single-pressure runs were held at the run conditions for 2.5 hrs. Reversals were held at a higher pressure for 2.5 hrs, and then the pressure was decreased and held at the final value for an additional 2.5 hrs.

Runs in the conventional, internally heated pressure vessels were terminated by shutting off power to the furnace. Quench rates of about 8°C/sec were achieved. Glasses were produced for runs ≤ 300 bars. Melts did not quench to glass at this quench rate for runs >300 bars.

2.4 Rapid-quench, Internally Heated Pressure Vessel (RQIHPV)

Because of the difficulty in quenching hydrous basaltic melts to glass, and the requirement for glass material for FTIR analysis, it was necessary to design a rapid-quench mechanism for the internally heated pressure vessel for use in the higher-pressure experiments. Details of the design are given in Holloway et al. (1992) (Appendix 1) and summarized below. The pressure vessel was mounted in a vertical position. Samples were heated with a Kanthal double-wound furnace. The sample was hung from a thin Pt wire. The quenching mechanism used a high surge current from a discharging capacitor to burn out the Pt-hanging wire, allowing the sample to drop down to the head, which maintained a temperature of about 25°C. Four sheathed, chromel-alumel thermocouples (or Pt-Rh thermocouples in some runs) bracketed the location of the sample providing information on thermal gradients during the runs. Temperature gradients were typically less than 10°C over about 1.5 cm. The inclusion of quench wire leads through the head left insufficient room for a Shaw membrane; therefore, control of f_{H_2} was done by using premixed mixtures of Ar and H₂ as the pressure medium. This technique has been shown to provide an “infinite reservoir” of

H₂ for the duration of the experiments (Joyce and Holloway, 1992). Several runs were conducted using pure Ar gas as the pressure medium.

Experiments were brought up to the run conditions in a manner similar to those conducted in the conventional, internally heated pressure vessels. Run times were similar to those run in the conventional, internally heated pressure vessels (Table 1). All runs quenched to glass successfully.

3. Analytical Techniques

All run products were clear, brown glass. Most had bubbles ranging in size from 10s to 1000s of microns that were concentrated along the capsule walls. Several runs had a large bubble in the center of the quenched glass. Glass in the bottoms of the capsules of the CO₂-rich runs were a milky, bluish-green color and contained disseminated streaks of silver from the silver oxalate.

3.1 Electron Microprobe

Electron microprobe analyses of the run products were carried out at the California Institute of Technology on a JEOL JXA-733 Superprobe (15 kV accelerating potential, 15 nA beam current, 20 μ m spot size). Standards used for the glass analyses were VG-2 for Mg, Al, Si, Ca, and Fe; TiO₂ for Ti, a synthetic Mn-olivine for Mn, albite for Na, and microcline for K. Data reduction was done using the CITZAF program (Armstrong, 1988), employing the absorption correction of Armstrong (1982), the atomic number correction of Love et al. (1978), and the fluorescence correction of Reed (1965) as modified by Armstrong (1988). Glass analyses reported in Table 2 are averages of 4 to 8 analyses of different spots.

The concentration of Fe in the Fe-Pt foils were also determined after the runs by electron microprobe. Standards used were pure Pt and Fe metals. Backgrounds were 0.01 wt.% for Fe in Pt and 0.05 for Pt in Fe. Iron concentrations in the foils

determined by microprobe were within 8% of those determined by mass balance before the run.

3.2 Fe²⁺/Fe³⁺

Ferrous iron was measured by Dr. Ian Carmichael at the University of California at Berkeley by a colorimetric, wet-chemical method (Wilson, 1960) corrected for time-dependent, ferric-iron interference as described in Lange and Carmichael (1989). Precision of the ferrous iron analyses is about 2% of the amount present based on multiple analyses of an internal lab standard (JDFD-2; $10.93 \pm 0.21\%$ (2σ)). Ferric iron was determined by subtracting ferrous iron from total iron determined by microprobe. These data are listed in Table 2.

3.3 Spectroscopic Data Analysis

3.3.1 Determination of concentrations

Dissolved, total H₂O and CO₂ concentrations were determined by transmission infrared spectroscopy on doubly polished glass chips, using the procedures and calibrations described by Dixon et al. (1988). In general, concentrations are calculated using the Beer-Lambert law as follows:

$$c = \frac{(MW) (Abs)}{(\rho) (d) (\epsilon)} \quad , \quad (1)$$

where c is the concentration in weight fraction, MW is the molecular weight of the species of interest in g/mole (18.015 for H₂O, 44.01 for CO₂), Abs is absorbance (dimensionless), ρ is the glass density in g/l, d is the sample thickness in centimeters, and ϵ is the molar absorptivity in l/(mol cm). If integrated absorbance (cm⁻¹) is used

instead of absorbance, ϵ is replaced by ϵ^* , the integrated molar absorptivity, with units of $l/(\text{mol cm}^2)$. Previous studies have documented the equivalence of concentrations calculated using band heights and integrated absorbances (Fine and Stolper, 1986; Newman et al., 1986; Silver, 1988). Concentrations in this study are calculated using band heights (absorbances) only. Glass densities (Table 1) were calculated using the Gladstone-Dale rule and the Church-Johnson equation as described by Silver (1988). Thicknesses of glasses were measured using a digital micrometer having an accuracy and precision of about 1-2 μm . The validity of Lambert's law (i.e., that absorbance is proportional to sample thickness) for these samples was confirmed by measuring band intensities on several pieces of the same sample ground to different thicknesses.

3.3.2 Infrared region (1500-3800 cm^{-1})

A typical spectrum in the infrared region (1500-3800 cm^{-1}) is shown in Figure 1a. Note the broad asymmetric band centered at $\sim 3550 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ corresponding to the fundamental OH-stretching vibration (Nakamoto, 1978). The band at 1630 cm^{-1} is due to the fundamental bending mode of water molecules (Nakamoto, 1978). The bands at 1515 and 1430 cm^{-1} correspond to antisymmetric stretching of distorted carbonate (CO_3^{2-}) groups (Brey and Green, 1975; Sharma, 1979; Sharma et al., 1979; Mysen and Virgo, 1980a and b; Fine and Stolper, 1986). No absorptions at ~ 2350 , corresponding to the ν_3 antisymmetric stretch of molecular CO_2 , were observed.

At least three glass chips were separated from each experiment for spectroscopic analysis. Precision of the measurements of total water in the infrared region are about 2% based on duplicate analyses of a single glass chip. When the 3550 cm^{-1} band was analyzed on the same spot in both the infrared and near-infrared regions, however, the data were not as reproducible and differences of up to 14% were observed. Accuracy is limited by the uncertainty in the molar absorptivity and is about 10%. Accuracy for the 1630 cm^{-1} band is discussed below in the calibration section.

The intensities (band heights) of the carbonate bands were measured separately after numerical subtraction of the spectrum of a decarbonated basaltic glass, either TT152-21-35 or 519BL, and a concentration was calculated from the intensity of each band. Figure 1b shows typical sample, reference, and reference-subtracted spectra in the carbonate region. Analyses of the same spot are reproducible to about 8% of the amount present for CO₂ concentrations >50 pm. Accuracy is limited by the uncertainty in the molar absorption coefficient and in the background correction procedure and is estimated to be about 15%.

3.3.3 Near-infrared region (3800-7600 cm⁻¹)

Band assignments for hydrous species in the near-infrared region (3800-7600 cm⁻¹) in basaltic glasses are similar to those for rhyolitic glasses (see review in Newman et al., 1986). The main bands of interest for this study are the 5230 cm⁻¹ band, resulting from the combination stretching + bending mode of water molecules (Scholze, 1960; Bartholomew et al., 1980), and the 4500 cm⁻¹ band, resulting from a combination mode for Si-OH and Al-OH groups (Scholze, 1966; Stolper, 1982a). Determination of the band heights for the near-infrared bands for molecular water (5230 cm⁻¹) and hydroxyl groups (4500 cm⁻¹) were complicated by the presence of two broadly overlapping absorption bands corresponding to the crystal-field transitions in octahedrally and tetrahedrally coordinated Fe²⁺ ions (Bell et al. 1976; Goldman and Berg, 1980) in the near-infrared region at about 9500 and 5500 cm⁻¹ (1.06 and 1.8 μm, respectively) and an absorption at 4000 cm⁻¹ (Figure 2). The band at 4000 cm⁻¹ correlates with total water content (Stolper, 1982a), but the mechanism of absorption is uncertain (Newman et al. 1986; Silver and Stolper, 1989). The spectrum of a single, devolatilized reference glass cannot be used for subtraction for all the samples, because the Fe absorption bands are a function of the total iron concentration and oxidation state, and these quantities may change during the experimental runs. Another complicating

factor is the presence of the large, asymmetric OH absorption at 3550 cm^{-1} . Unfortunately, the shape of the 3550 cm^{-1} absorption narrows slightly as water concentrations increase (Silver and Stolper, 1989), over the range of concentrations found in the experimental glasses. Therefore, the effect of the 3550 cm^{-1} absorption could not be removed by simply subtracting out a generic 3550 cm^{-1} band shape.

In order to have a consistent background-subtraction method for the near-infrared region, we fit the background using a nonlinear curve-fitting routine. Nonlinear least-squares fits to the backgrounds were calculated using a curve-fit routine modified from Bevington (1969) (Program 11-5, p. 237). The backgrounds were modeled as a sum of 5 Gaussian curves: two for the Fe absorptions centered at about 9500 and 5500 cm^{-1} , one centered at about 4000 cm^{-1} , and two to fit the left-hand shoulder of the 3550 cm^{-1} absorption. A typical spectrum, the modeled fit, and the resulting background-subtracted spectrum are shown in Figure 2. Note the flat background on the background-subtracted spectrum, the asymmetric shape of the 5230 cm^{-1} band and the symmetric Gaussian shape of the 4500 cm^{-1} band. Band heights were measured by hand on the background-subtracted spectra.

3.4 Manometry

The composition of the mixed $\text{H}_2\text{O-CO}_2$ vapor phase in two runs (20M and 21M) were measured using manometry by P. Ihinger at Caltech (Ihinger, 1991). Capsules were loaded in a vacuum-tight, capsule-piercing device and pierced under vacuum at room temperature. Vapor was extracted by a series of cycles of expansion of the gas into an evacuated volume followed by condensation in the cold trap at liquid-nitrogen temperatures. After pumping away a small volume of non-condensable gas (<4%), the CO_2 was released by bathing the trap in a slurry of dry ice and M17 (an organic solvent consisting of methylene chloride, methyl chloroform, and tetrahydrofuran) and passed through a Toepler pump into a calibrated volume for manometric analysis. The

pure water remaining in the cold trap was converted to H₂ by expanding over hot (750°C) uranium using the procedure of Bigeleisen et al. (1952) and passed into a calibrated volume for manometric analysis. Analytical uncertainty of the manometric measurement is estimated to be less than one percent of the volume of the sample (Ihinger, 1991).

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Calibration of molar absorptivities

In order to calculate concentrations of water dissolved as hydroxyl groups and molecular water from the measured absorbances, the molar absorptivities for the 4500, 5230, and 1630 cm⁻¹ bands had to be determined for basaltic glass. We solved for the molar absorptivities of these bands, assuming that the concentrations of molecular water and hydroxyl groups had to add up to the concentration of total water measured using the 3550 cm⁻¹ band. Thus, assuming that molecular water + hydroxyl groups = total water, the Beer-Lambert law yields:

$$\frac{MW * Abs^{5230}}{\epsilon^{5230} * \rho * d} + \frac{MW * Abs^{4500}}{\epsilon^{4500} * \rho * d} = \frac{MW * Abs^{3550}}{\epsilon^{3550} * \rho * d}, \quad (2)$$

where the variables are the same as in Equation (1). This is equivalent to:

$$\frac{\epsilon^{3550}}{\epsilon^{5230}} Abs^{5230} + \frac{\epsilon^{3550}}{\epsilon^{4500}} Abs^{4500} = Abs^{3550} \quad (3)$$

We performed a multiple regression on all the absorbance data (Table 4) to solve simultaneously for ϵ^{5230} and ϵ^{4500} , assuming $\epsilon^{3550} = 63 \pm 5$ l/mole-cm (Dobson,

Newman, Epstein, and Stolper, unpublished). Similarly, we performed a multiple regression to solve simultaneously for ϵ^{1630} and ϵ^{4500} . We also performed a linear regression to solve for the ratio of the molar absorptivities for the two molecular water bands by assuming that the concentrations for the two bands were equivalent:

$$\frac{\epsilon^{1630}}{\epsilon^{5230}} \text{Abs}^{5230} = \text{Abs}^{1630} \quad (4)$$

The molar absorptivities for the 4500 cm^{-1} band for hydroxyl groups and for the 5230 and 1630 cm^{-1} bands of molecular water have been calibrated to be 0.67 ± 0.04 , 0.62 ± 0.08 , and 25 ± 3 l/mole-cm, respectively (Table 3). Reported errors include propagation of error for the value of ϵ^{3550} . The errors in the molar absorptivities (about 6% for the 4500 cm^{-1} band and about 12% for the 5230 and 1630 cm^{-1} bands) are the limiting error source in the accuracy of determinations of hydroxyl and molecular water concentrations.

The internal consistency of our procedure and the quality of the derived values for the molar absorptivities can be demonstrated in two ways. First, total water as calculated by the sum of molecular water and hydroxyl groups can be plotted versus total water measured using the 3550 cm^{-1} band (Figure 3). A fit through these data shows about 4% deviation from the ideal slope of 1 (well within 2 standard deviations of the 1:1 line) and negligible deviation from the ideal intercept of 0. Second, the concentration of molecular water determined from the 1630 cm^{-1} band can be plotted versus that determined from the 5230 cm^{-1} band (Figure 4). The data in Figure 4 also lie within 2 standard deviations of the 1:1 line, showing that the concentrations of molecular water determined from the 5230 and 1630 cm^{-1} bands are equivalent.

Our best-fit molar absorptivities for molecular water and hydroxyl groups in basaltic glasses are significantly lower (~60%) than those determined for rhyolitic glasses (Newman et al., 1986; Ihinger, 1991), showing the importance of accurate molar absorptivity calibrations for each composition of interest.

4.2 Fe-loss and oxidation state

The use of the double-capsule technique successfully minimized Fe-loss from the basaltic melt to the Pt capsule. The runs performed using the Pt-Fe alloy inserts lost less than 7% of the total FeO present (<0.9 wt.% FeO). One run (17H) actually gained iron from the Fe-Pt alloy foil, going from an initial Fe content of 12.3 wt.% to a final value of 13.1 wt.%. Another advantage of the double-capsule technique is that the outer platinum capsules remained relatively pure and were not weakened by interaction with the iron in the melt. Only the double-capsule runs were able to withstand quenching without cracking.

The extent of iron loss in the nondouble capsule runs is a function of their oxidation state during the run. Runs 32 through 35 were performed in pure Pt capsules, but lost less than 10% of their initial iron. These runs were highly oxidized (>NiNiO) because H₂ was lost from the capsule to the pure Ar gas outside the capsule during the run (discussed in more detail below). Several of these quenched glasses were red in color consistent with their high oxidation states. Only two experiments (28B and 29B) run in pure Pt capsules lost significant iron (52% and 85%, respectively), producing glasses that were pale green in color. Though the final f_{O_2} of these runs were between NiNiO and QFM, these runs initially experienced reducing conditions relative to the others for two reasons. First, oxalic acid dihydrate was used to generate the vapor phase, resulting in production of excess H₂ (H₂:H₂O:CO₂ = 1:2:2). Second, these runs ruptured during the run (fugacities of H₂O and CO₂ are in the correct ratio but both

diminished by about 60%) resulting in equilibration with the reducing Ar/H₂ pressure medium gas.

Oxygen fugacities were calculated from Fe₂O₃/FeO ratios measured in the glasses using the empirical relationships of Kilinc et al. (1983) and Kress and Carmichael (1991). These two methods give results within about 0.4 log units of each other. We list the values calculated using Kilinc et al. (1983) in Table 2 to be consistent with oxygen fugacities presented in previous studies of natural MORB glasses (Christie et al., 1986). Most runs are within a log unit of the QFM buffer at 1200°C. Runs 17H, 20M, and 33A have oxygen fugacities more oxidizing than QFM, having log f_{O_2} s 1.8 to 3.5 log units greater than QFM (0.8 to 2.5 more oxidizing than Ni-NiO at 1200°C).

The fact that the oxygen fugacity of all of the runs is >QFM at 1200°C is important because it allows us to estimate the effect of CO on the composition of the vapor phase. Recently, it has been shown that CO₂ behaves in a Henrian fashion in the C-O system (Holloway et al., 1992; Pawley and Holloway, 1991; Pawley et al., 1992). As a consequence, CO₂ solubility is strongly dependent on the oxygen fugacity of the system since, for example, under graphite-saturated conditions where the proportion of CO in the vapor is 50-90%, the fugacity of CO₂ is 50-90% less than under conditions where the fluid is nearly pure CO₂. Because the f_{O_2} of our experiments was >QFM, the proportion of CO in the vapor phase is <5% (Deines et al., 1974) allowing us to assume in our calculation of fugacities that CO₂ is the only carbon species.

4.3 Solubility of water in basaltic melts

Run conditions are listed in Table 1; absorbance and concentration data for dissolved water species are given in Table 4 and summarized in Table 7.

4.3.1 Concentrations of water

Six successful experiments using pure water were conducted at about 1200°C with total pressure (~P_{H₂O} in these experiments) ranging between 200 and 717 bars.

Three experiments (7, 8, and 9) were conducted in the conventional, internally heated vessel, and three others (17H, 20H, and 21H) were conducted in the rapid-quench, internally heated vessel. Fugacities of water were calculated assuming pure water in the vapor using a MRK equation of state (Holloway, 1977).

Three successful experiments (18M, 20M, and 21M) using oxalic acid dihydrate to produce a mixed H₂O-CO₂ vapor phase were carried out at about 1200°C and total pressure ranging from 310 to 980 bars. The vapor phase composition of two of these runs (20H and 21H) was measured using manometry and found to contain about 0.4 volume percent H₂O and 0.6 volume percent CO₂. These proportions of H₂O and CO₂ in the vapor are consistent with mass balance calculations if the starting material contained about 0.1 wt.% H₂O, possibly dissolved in the glassy starting material or adsorbed on the powder surface. The vapor phase composition of the third oxalic acid dihydrate run (18M) was calculated by mass balance, assuming 0.1 wt.% H₂O in the starting material, and also was found to be about 0.4 vol.% H₂O and 0.6 vol.% CO₂. Fugacities of H₂O and CO₂ were calculated using the mole fractions of the species in the vapor and a MRK equation of state (Holloway, 1977). Though additional mixed H₂O-CO₂ vapor experiments were conducted, the pure water and oxalic acid dihydrate experiments provide a data set in which the water fugacities are well constrained, allowing the relation between water fugacity in the vapor and concentration of total and molecular water to be determined.

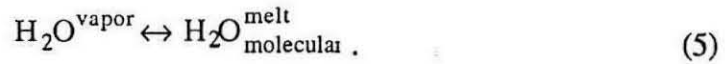
Figure 5 shows total dissolved water, determined from the 3550 cm⁻¹ band, plotted against water fugacity. Water concentrations in these runs range from 1 to 2.5 wt.% and are typically homogeneous to better than 7% of the amount present. The water concentrations of runs 7 (held at 200 bars for 2.5 hrs) and 8 (held at 400 bars for 2.25 hrs and then held at 200 bars for 2.75 hrs) are the same within errors, indicating that equilibrium was reached on the time scales of the experiments. Also note that the water concentrations of runs 9 (run in the IHPV) and 20H (run in the RQIHPV) are the

same within errors, showing that quench rate does not affect the total dissolved water concentration at these pressures. Finally, note that the water concentration in runs 21M (mixed H₂O-CO₂ vapor with $f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} = 200$ bar) and 7 and 8 (pure H₂O vapor with $f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} = 200$ bar) are the same within errors, showing that the solubility of water is a simple function of H₂O fugacity regardless of the composition of the vapor.

Figure 6 compares our results with those of Hamilton et al. (1964). Although the earlier results were obtained at higher pressures and with a different basalt composition (Columbia River basalt), the data from both studies are clearly compatible.

4.3.2 Validity of Henry's law

The interaction between vapor and water molecules dissolved in the melt can be described by the following reaction:



The equilibrium constant for the reaction is:

$$K = \frac{a_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}}^{\text{m}}}{a_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{v}}} = \frac{X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}}^{\text{m}}}{(f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}/f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^0)} \quad (6)$$

where $f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ is the fugacity of water in the vapor, $f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^0$ is the fugacity of water in the standard state of the vapor, taken as pure water vapor at P and T (Burnham et al., 1969), and the activity of water molecules in the melt, $a_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}}^{\text{m}}$ defined relative to a standard state of pure water molecules at P and T (Shaw, 1964; Stolper, 1982b; Silver and Stolper, 1985). If Henry's law is valid for water in basaltic systems, the activity of molecular water in the melt should be equal to its mole fraction in the melt ($X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}}^{\text{m}}$).

Using the calibration discussed above, the concentrations of water dissolved as molecular water and hydroxyl groups were determined for each run. Mole fractions were calculated on a single oxygen basis according to the equations listed in the key to Table 4. The concentration of molecular water measured in the quenched basaltic glasses is approximately proportional to water fugacity in all samples (Figure 8), confirming that molecular water solubility in basaltic melts is closely approximated by Henry's law at pressures less than 1 kbar, as has been previously observed for more silicic, more highly polymerized melts (Stolper, 1982a, b; Silver and Stolper, 1989; Silver et al., 1990). Note that at the low pressures of these experiments, the effect of the molar volume of water ($V_{H_2O}^{0,m}$) can be neglected and it is acceptable to compare data obtained at different total pressures directly with those obtained from different vapor phase compositions. A fit through the data forced through the origin has an R^2 of 0.97 and yields the relation:

$$X_{H_2O, mol}^m = 2.93 \times 10^{-5} * f_{H_2O} \text{ (bar)} . \quad (7)$$

This equation can be used to calculate the fugacity of water in equilibrium with basalt at 1200°C and pressures <1 kbar based on the measured concentrations of molecular water in quenched, natural basaltic glasses and in the mixed H₂O-CO₂ runs where direct measurement of the vapor composition may not be possible. This will be important in cases where the capsule ruptured prematurely.

The fact that the proportionality between molecular water and water fugacity holds regardless of the composition of the vapor phase (Figure 8), suggests that H₂O-CO₂ mixtures can be modelled as ideal. A better way to illustrate the validity of Henry's law for molecular water in H₂O-CO₂ mixtures is shown in Figure 9. From Equation (6) we can derive:

$$\frac{X_{\text{H}_2\text{O, mol}}^{\text{m}}}{X_{\text{H}_2\text{O, mol}}^{0, \text{m}}} = \frac{f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}}{f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^0}, \quad (8)$$

where $X_{\text{H}_2\text{O, mol}}^{\text{m}}$ is the mole fraction of molecular water dissolved in a melt in equilibrium with pure water vapor at P and T. Thus, if the species in the melt behave ideally, the ratio of the amount of molecular water dissolved in a melt in equilibrium with mixed H₂O-CO₂ vapor phase with respect to that dissolved in the melt in equilibrium with a pure H₂O vapor phase (y-axis in Figure 9) should be simply equal to the ratio of the water fugacities in the mixed and pure vapors (x-axis in Figure 9). In fact, this is exactly what we observe; the mixed vapor runs fall within errors of the 1:1 line (Figure 9). This observation considerably simplifies modelling of the thermodynamics of hydrous basaltic melts.

Figure 8 also shows that there is no difference in the proportion of molecular water between the slow (conventional IHPV) and fast (RQIHPV) quench experiments, suggesting that the speciation of water is not altered on quenching. This contrasts with observations for rhyolitic melts (Silver et al., 1990; Ihinger, 1991) and suggests that the speciation of water in basaltic melts is less dependent on temperature than that in rhyolitic melts.

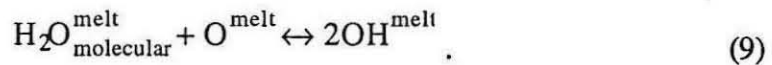
4.3.3 Speciation of water in basalt

Previous studies of hydrous silicate melts (Stolper, 1982a, b; Stolper et al., 1983; Newman et al., 1986; Silver and Stolper, 1989; Silver et al., 1990; Ihinger, 1991) have shown that the speciation of water varies systematically with total water concentration. At low water concentrations, water dissolves in the melt dominantly as hydroxyl groups. As the concentration of water increases, the concentration of hydroxyl groups levels off, while the concentration of molecular water increases. Thus,

the proportion of molecular water increases as the amount of total dissolved water increases.

Concentrations of molecular water and hydroxyl groups in the quenched basaltic glasses with respect to total water concentration are shown in Figures 7a and b along with the data for albitic glass (Silver and Stolper, 1989). The trends observed in these experiments on MORB are essentially identical to those observed in albitic glasses (Silver and Stolper, 1989) and similar to those found in other silicate melt compositions (Stolper, 1982a, b; Stolper et al., 1983; Newman et al., 1986; Silver et al., 1990; Ihinger, 1991). Though the water concentrations observed in this study are not high enough to allow us to determine the crossover point at which the concentration of molecular water equals that of hydroxyl groups, based on the coincidence of the MORB and albitic glass data sets, we assume this occurs at about 4 wt.% total dissolved H₂O, equivalent to a mole fraction of total dissolved H₂O (X_B) of 0.12.

Several recent studies (Stolper, 1982a; Silver and Stolper, 1985; Silver and Stolper, 1989; Silver et al., 1990) have focussed on development of simple thermodynamic models involving homogeneous equilibria among melt species that can account for the trends in the spectroscopically determined water speciation data. Once water molecules enter the melt, they will react with the silicate portion of the melt to form hydroxyl groups as described by the reaction:



The equilibrium constant for this reaction is:

$$K = \frac{(a_{\text{OH}}^{\text{m}})^2}{(a_{\text{H}_2\text{O, mol}}^{\text{m}})(a_{\text{O}}^{\text{m}})} \quad (10)$$

The simplest type of thermodynamic model (Wasserburg, 1957; Stolper, 1982b; and Silver and Stolper, 1985) involves ideal mixing of water molecules, hydroxyl groups, and oxygens in the melt, allowing the activities to be replaced by mole fractions in the expression of the equilibrium constant. This ideal mixing model provides a qualitative fit to the shape of the trends in the speciation data at low water concentrations, but tends to diverge progressively from the measured concentrations at high water contents; the measured hydroxyl group concentrations flatten out more sharply relative to the ideal mixing model calculations (Silver and Stolper, 1989).

Silver and Stolper (1989) use the ideal mixing model as a basis for development of several more complex models to account for the speciation data by including the effects of nonideal interactions, mixing properties of polymeric groups, and a range of distinguishable types of oxygens in the melt. Any of these three nonideal models are able to reproduce the measured variations in speciation; the data cannot distinguish among the models. For simplicity, I will limit my treatment of water solubility in basalt to the regular solution model developed by Silver and Stolper (1989) for albitic glass.

Possible nonideal interactions between water molecules, hydroxyl groups, and oxygens can be modelled in terms of a regular ternary solution, where the entropy of mixing is taken to be identical to that in an ideal mixture, but the possible configurations of the three species over the quasi-crystalline lattice sites are not energetically identical. The activities of the three species are (Guggenheim, 1952; Prigogine and Defay, 1954, Equation 16.90):

$$a_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}}^m = X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}}^m \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{RT} (X_{\text{O}}^m X_{\text{OH}}^m (W_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}-\text{O}} - W_{\text{O}-\text{OH}} + W_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}-\text{OH}}) \right. \\ \left. + (X_{\text{O}}^m)^2 W_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}-\text{O}} + (X_{\text{OH}}^m)^2 W_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}-\text{OH}}) \right\}, \quad (11.1)$$

$$a_{\text{O}}^{\text{m}} = X_{\text{O}}^{\text{m}} \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{RT} (X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}}^{\text{m}} X_{\text{OH}}^{\text{m}} (W_{\text{O-OH}} W_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol-OH}} + W_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol-O}}) \right. \\ \left. + (X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}}^{\text{m}})^2 W_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol-O}} + (X_{\text{OH}}^{\text{m}})^2 W_{\text{O-OH}}) \right\}, \quad (11.2)$$

$$a_{\text{OH}}^{\text{m}} = X_{\text{OH}}^{\text{m}} \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{RT} (X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}}^{\text{m}} X_{\text{O}}^{\text{m}} (W_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol-OH}} W_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol-O}} + W_{\text{O-OH}}) \right. \\ \left. + (X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}}^{\text{m}})^2 W_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol-OH}} + (X_{\text{O}}^{\text{m}})^2 W_{\text{O-OH}}) \right\}, \quad (11.3)$$

where the W_{ij} are binary interaction parameters, have units of energy, and are independent of temperature and pressure.

Following Silver and Stolper (1989), the activity expressions given above can be substituted into the definition of K (Equation 10) and rearranged to give:

$$-\ln \left[\frac{(X_{\text{OH}}^{\text{m}})^2}{(X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}}^{\text{m}})(1 - X_{\text{OH}}^{\text{m}} X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}}^{\text{m}})} \right] = A' + B' X_{\text{OH}}^{\text{m}} + C' X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}}^{\text{m}}, \quad (12)$$

where

$$A' = -\ln K + (2W_{\text{O-OH}} - W_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol-O}})/RT; \quad (13.1)$$

$$B' = (W_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol-O}} - 3W_{\text{O-OH}} - W_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol-OH}})/RT; \quad (13.2)$$

$$C' = 2(W_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol-O}} - W_{\text{O-OH}})/RT. \quad (13.3)$$

Given values for these coefficients and $X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}}^{\text{m}}$ (from Henry's law as discussed above), Equation 12 can be solved iteratively to give X_{OH}^{m} . The mole fraction of total dissolved water can then be specified using:

$$X_{\text{total H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{m}} = X_{\text{B}} = X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}}^{\text{m}} + \frac{X_{\text{OH}}^{\text{m}}}{2}. \quad (14)$$

For water in albitic glasses, Silver and Stolper (1989) used the method of least squares to determine the best fit values for the coefficients in Equation 10 of $A'=0.403$, $B'=15.333$, $C'=10.894$. Because the water speciation data for basaltic glass determined in this study are coincident with the data for albitic glass determined by Silver and Stolper (1989), and because the albitic glass data span a much larger range in water concentrations, allowing a more robust determination of the values for the coefficients, I will use the values for albitic glasses in the modelling of water speciation in basaltic systems. The applicability of these coefficients for calculating the speciation of water in basaltic glasses having water contents greater than about 3 wt. % needs to be confirmed by experimentally producing basaltic glasses with higher water contents.

Curves representing the mole fractions of molecular water, hydroxyl groups, and total water calculated using Henry's law (Equation 6) and the regular ternary solution model are shown along with the spectroscopically measured data on Figures 5 and 7b. The model accurately predicts the observed speciation and total water concentration for basaltic glass at pressures <1 kbar.

At pressures higher than about 1 kbar, however, the effect of the molar volume of water in the melt ($V_{H_2O}^{0,m}$) on the activity of water in vapor-saturated melts is no longer negligible, and it must be included in the expression to constrain the activity of water in the melt. It has been shown previously (Silver and Stolper, 1989) that the solubility of molecular water can be expressed as:

$$a_{\text{mol. H}_2\text{O}}^m(P, T) = a_{\text{mol. H}_2\text{O}}^{0,m}(P_0, T_0) \frac{f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}(P, T)}{f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^0(P_0, T_0)} \exp\left\{ \frac{-V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{mol}}^{0,m}(P-P_0)}{RT} - \frac{\Delta H_r^0(P_0)}{R} \left(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{T_0} \right) \right\} \quad , \quad (15)$$

where $a_{\text{mol. H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{m}}(P, T)$ is the activity of molecular water in the vapor-saturated melt at P and T , relative to standard states defined by the pure melt species at the temperature and pressure of interest; $a_{\text{mol. H}_2\text{O}}^{0, \text{m}}(P_0, T_0)$ is the activity of molecular water in the melt in equilibrium with pure water at a reference pressure and temperature of P_0 and T_0 ; $f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}(P, T)$ is the fugacity of H_2O in the vapor at P and T ; $f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^0(P_0, T_0)$ is the fugacity of pure H_2O in the vapor at P_0 and T_0 ; $V_{\text{H}_2\text{O, mol}}^{0, \text{m}}$ is the molar volume of molecular water in the melt in its standard state; $\Delta H_r^0(P_0)$ is the enthalpy change of the reaction. Because these experiments were done at a single temperature, the temperature term can be neglected. At low pressures, the exponent of the $P-P_0$ term is small and can be neglected, but becomes significant at pressures greater than about 1 kbar. Because of the weak pressure dependence of the speciation of water in silicate liquids, it has been suggested that the partial molar volume of molecular water in a silicate melt may be similar to that of a hydroxyl group (Stolper, 1989). If this assumption is valid, then determinations of the partial molar volume of molecular water should be equivalent to the partial molar volume of water ($V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0, \text{m}}$) in silicate melts. In the following discussion, I will simply refer to the molar volume of water in the melt ($V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0, \text{m}}$).

Figure 6 shows the calculated water solubilities for basalt at 1200°C using the regular solution model and several different values for $V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0, \text{m}}$. A value of $V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0, \text{m}}=0$ is equivalent to neglecting the pressure term. The levelling off of water solubility at elevated pressures is due to a nonzero, partial molar volume of water in the melt. Using a reference pressure and temperature of 1 bar and 1200°C and assuming a regular solution model, the water solubility data of Hamilton et al. (1964) are best fit by the following pressure dependent equation for the activity of water in the melt:

$$a_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{m}} = X_{\text{mol. H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{m}} = 3.102 \times 10^{-5} \frac{f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}}{1} \exp\left\{\frac{-12(P-1)}{RT}\right\}. \quad (16)$$

Note that the data are best fit by a $V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0,m}$ of 12 cm³/mole. Values for water solubility and speciation based on equations 12 and 16 are provided in Table 8.

Recently, estimates for the partial molar volume of water in silicate liquids have been compiled by Lange and Carmichael (1990) and are listed in Table 5. The estimates of $V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0,m}$ constrained by data at pressures >1 kbar range from 17 to 25 cm³/mol. The $V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0,m}$ in Ca-Al-Mg-silicate melts appear to be lower than the Na-Al-K-silicate melts. The estimate of $V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0,m}$ for basalt is even lower than those for the simple synthetic compositions, and may reflect to addition of Fe to the melt. It is difficult to assess, however, if the variations in $V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0,m}$ are due to compositional effects or to uncertainties in the thermodynamic analysis.

4.5 Mixed-volatile (CO₂+H₂O) solubility relations in basaltic melts

Nine successful experiments using a mixed H₂O-CO₂ vapor phase were conducted at 1200°C with total pressure ranging between 210 and 980 bars. Run conditions are listed in Table 1. Carbonate absorbance data for individual spectra from each run are reported in Table 6. The mean and 1 standard deviation of all of the CO₂ concentrations measured from all spectra on glass chips from the same run are reported in Table 7. All mixed H₂O-CO₂ runs were conducted in the rapid-quench, internally heated pressure vessel. The three experiments (18M, 20M, and 21M) using oxalic acid dihydrate to produce a mixed H₂O-CO₂ vapor phase have well constrained H₂O and CO₂ fugacities as discussed above. The other mixed vapor experiments leaked (ruptured) either on quenching or when two capsules, run at the same time and had sintered together, were pulled apart. Thus, the composition of the vapor phase in these latter experiments could not be measured directly, and had to be determined by more indirect methods. The fugacity of water in the vapor phase in equilibrium with the melt

for these experiments was calculated using the linear relation between fugacity and the mole% of molecular water measured using the 5230 cm^{-1} band in the glass (Equation 6). We assumed that the vapor was composed of only H_2O and CO_2 , consistent with the measured oxidation state of the glasses, and used the MRK equation of state (Holloway, 1977) to solve for the mole fractions of H_2O and CO_2 and the fugacity of CO_2 in the vapor at the run conditions.

It is interesting to note that the runs (30-35) (performed using pure Ar gas as the pressure medium in order to try to minimize the H_2 embrittlement of the Pt capsules) have calculated $f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ s in the vapor phase lower than that predicted by mass balance. Because H_2 will diffuse through the Pt capsule until the fugacity of hydrogen inside the capsule is the same as that in the Ar gas outside the capsule, it was expected that variable amounts of H_2 would be lost during these runs. The expected H_2 loss from the interior of the capsule did not become significant, however, until about the sixth run after switching to a pure Ar gas, showing that there was a substantial H_2 -memory effect caused by slow diffusion of H_2 out of the vessel over the course of several runs. As the amount of residual H_2 in the vessel progressively decreased with each run, the amount of H_2 -loss from the interior of the capsule increased.

CO_2 concentrations in two glasses equilibrated with pure CO_2 vapor (TT152-2 and 5 from Stolper and Holloway, 1988) were redetermined for this study so that all data were obtained using a consistent background-subtraction scheme. The highest pressure run of Stolper and Holloway (1988) was not reanalyzed because that run failed after an hour and could have anomalously low CO_2 concentrations (E. Stolper, personal communication). The revised CO_2 concentrations of the reanalyzed glasses are about 10% higher, but still within $2\text{-}\sigma$ errors, of those reported in Stolper and Holloway (1988). The resulting slope of a linear regression line through the two revised data points and forced through zero yields a slope of 47 ppm/100 bar pressure (equivalent to

47 ppm/(km water depth)), about 20% higher than the value of 38 ± 2 ppm/100 bar reported in Stolper and Holloway (1988).

Concentrations of CO₂ dissolved as carbonate in the experimental glasses range from 63 to 315 ppm CO₂. Carbonate was the only species of dissolved carbon observed consistent with the results of Fine and Stolper (1986). The mole fraction of CO₂ in the vapor varied from 0.39 to 0.95. The CO₂ concentrations of runs 33B (held at 503 bars for 2 hrs with $f_{\text{CO}_2} = 207.2$ bars) and 20M (held at 424 bars for 3 hrs and then held at 200 bars for 3 hrs with a final $f_{\text{CO}_2} = 201$ bars) are the same within errors, indicating that equilibrium was reached on the time scales of the experiments.

The CO₂ concentrations in the 33B-20M experiment pair (different run conditions, same f_{CO_2}), and also in runs 35B (mixed H₂O-CO₂ vapor, $f_{\text{CO}_2} = 531$ bars) and TT152-5 (pure CO₂ vapor, $f_{\text{CO}_2} = 560$ bars), are the same within errors, showing that the solubility of carbon dioxide is a simple function of f_{CO_2} regardless of the composition of the vapor. Concentrations of CO₂ dissolved as carbonate in the melt for all the experiments are proportional to f_{CO_2} (Figure 10). The data for pure CO₂ and mixed H₂O-CO₂ experiments are fit with a straight line through the origin with an R² of 0.99:

$$\text{CO}_2 \text{ (ppm)} = 0.395 * f_{\text{CO}_2} \quad (17)$$

Alternatively, the data can be cast in terms of mole fractions, and a fit through these data gives:

$$a_{\text{CO}_2}^m = X_{\text{CO}_2}^m = 3.292 \times 10^{-7} * f_{\text{CO}_2} \quad (18)$$

Equations 15 and 16 allow the the fugacity of CO₂ in a mixed H₂O-CO₂ vapor phase to be calculated based on the measured concentrations of CO₂ dissolved in the natural basaltic glasses that last equilibrated at pressures <1 kbar.

As discussed for water, at pressures higher than about 1 kbar, the pressure effect of $V_{\text{CO}_2}^{0,m}$ is no longer negligible. Using a $V_{\text{CO}_2}^{0,m}$ of 23.14 cm³/mole (Pan et al., 1991), the data are fit by:

$$a_{\text{CO}_2}^m = X_{\text{CO}_2}^m = 3.817 \times 10^{-7} \frac{f_{\text{CO}_2}}{1} \exp \left\{ \frac{-23.14(P-1)}{RT} \right\}, \quad (19)$$

allowing CO₂ solubility to be predicted at pressures > 1kbar (Table 9).

As discussed for molecular water, the validity of a Henrian model for CO₂ solubility in equilibrium with H₂O-CO₂ mixtures can best be investigated on a plot of $X_{\text{CO}_2}^m / (X_{\text{CO}_2}^m)^\circ$ versus $f_{\text{CO}_2} / (f_{\text{CO}_2})^\circ$ (Figure 11). All data fall within 2- σ errors of the 1:1 line, even at the CO₂-rich end of the vapor composition, where the enhancement of CO₂ solubility was expected to be the greatest.

Unless carbon dissolves in the melt as another undetected form, these results suggest Henrian behavior for CO₂; that is, the solubility of CO₂ in the basaltic melt is essentially proportional to the fugacity of CO₂, with the same constant of proportionality, whether the vapor contains pure CO₂ or H₂O+CO₂ (or as indicated in Figure 5, CO+CO₂). Our results do not support the widely held view that water enhances the solubility of carbon dioxide in basaltic melts. Thus, degassing processes in basaltic magmas that are rich in both water and carbon dioxide (e.g., from the Mariana Trough; Newman, 1989) can be accurately modelled using our results in the end-member systems and the assumption of Henry's law as discussed below.

We emphasize that these results may not be precisely comparable to previous studies that have reported non-Henrian behavior of CO₂ (i.e., an enhancement of CO₂

solubility by the addition of water) because our experiments were conducted at significantly lower total pressures (compare, for example, Mysen, 1976; Brey and Green, 1976; Eggler and Rosenhauer, 1978). Also, errors in the previous studies may have been introduced by having the H₂O and CO₂ concentrations measured on bulk samples, rather than in glasses.

5. Implications for modelling of basaltic magma degassing

The solubility relations determined in this study can be used to calculate degassing paths of H₂O- and CO₂-bearing basaltic magmas for a variety of conditions relevant to submarine and subaerial eruptions. Since there are three species (three unknowns) to be described, we require three equations. Degassing of water (dissolved as OH and molecular H₂O) and carbon dioxide (dissolved as carbonate) from basaltic magmas can be described using three nonlinear equations describing mass balance, fractionation, and speciation. The relations have been incorporated in a computer program (Appendix 3) that calculates both closed (where the exsolved vapor remains in contact with the melt throughout degassing) and open (where the vapor is effectively removed from the melt at each degassing step) system degassing paths.

I have performed closed system degassing calculations using initial H₂O concentrations of 0.1, 0.3, 0.6, 1.0, and 2.0 wt.% and CO₂ contents of 500 ppm. This range in compositions can be thought of in terms of either variable source region compositions (low water contents for MORB and higher water contents for arc-related basalts) or varying degrees of fractional crystallization of a MORB magma initially containing 0.1 wt.% H₂O; for example, a residual melt after 95% crystallization would contain 2 wt.% H₂O. For these calculations, I have assumed that each melt starts with a CO₂ content of 500 ppm, as would be expected if it had resided in a vapor-saturated magma chamber at about 2 km below the seafloor. For comparison with the closed system calculations, I have performed open system degassing calculations using an

initial H₂O concentration of 1.0 wt.% and initial CO₂ contents of 500 ppm and 1.0 wt.%. An individual calculation determines the degassing path of a packet of basaltic magma at a given pressure and 1200°C; degassing proceeds until saturation is reached. Trends in the vapor-saturated H₂O, CO₂, and vapor compositions with pressure are shown in Figures 12-16. A summary of the vapor-saturated data from closed system degassing calculations is given in Table 10.

Figure 12 shows the variation of H₂O contents with pressure during closed system degassing in basaltic melts saturated with a mixed H₂O-CO₂ vapor phase. Melts having initial water contents <2.0 wt.% and initial CO₂ contents of 500 ppm are undersaturated with respect to water at 1000 bars. As pressure decreases, degassing of a CO₂-rich vapor phase proceeds with negligible loss of water until the water content closely approaches the water solubility curve. The pressure at which significant loss of water, arbitrarily chosen to be 10% of the initial amount, occurs is summarized below:

<u>H₂O°</u>	<u>P (bars)</u>	<u>Water Depth (m)</u>
.1	<1	undersat at atm. P
.3	10	100
.6	33	330
1.0	100	1000
2.0	370	3700

These calculations show that H₂O concentrations in typical MORB (~0.1-0.3 wt. % H₂O) will not be modified by degassing during eruption on the seafloor unless erupted in water depths shallower than about 100 m. Oceanic island basalts containing slightly higher water contents (~0.3-1.0%) may begin exsolving H₂O at eruption depths of 100-1000 m. Water concentrations in water-rich arc or back-arc related magmas (up to about

2 wt. %) may be modified by degassing during eruption at water depths as deep as several thousand meters.

In contrast to the behavior of water, the low solubility of CO_2 causes CO_2 to exsolve continuously from basaltic melts as pressure drops (Figure 13). Based on the calculations, MORBs erupted on the seafloor in equilibrium with a vapor phase are predicted to have CO_2 concentrations within errors of the solubility curve for pure CO_2 , whereas water-rich magmas will exsolve sufficient H_2O to reduce significantly the fugacity of CO_2 in the vapor, resulting in lower dissolved CO_2 concentrations. For example, at a pressure of 200 bars (water depth of 2000 m), the CO_2 content of melts saturated with a mixed H_2O - CO_2 vapor phase and initially containing 2.0 wt.% H_2O will be about half the value of a melt saturated with pure CO_2 . These predictions are consistent with the low observed CO_2 contents in Mariana trough basalts (Newman, 1989).

Figure 14 shows the covariation of CO_2 and H_2O during closed system degassing. The dashed lines show the degassing path for a given initial H_2O and CO_2 composition. For example, at 800 bars a melt initially containing 1.0 wt.% H_2O and 500 ppm CO_2 will be saturated with a mixed H_2O - CO_2 vapor phase at 0.999 wt.% H_2O and 328 ppm CO_2 . As the pressure decreases, CO_2 is lost preferentially with respect to H_2O until a pressure of about 100 bars is reached. Saturation values for closed system degassing for melts having a range in initial H_2O concentrations at constant pressure and initial CO_2 content are shown in solid lines. At a given pressure and initial CO_2 content, the proportion of H_2O in the exsolved vapor will be directly proportional to the initial H_2O content of the melt. Thus, for basaltic melts having a range in H_2O contents and erupted at similar water depths, we would expect to observe a negative correlation between H_2O and CO_2 contents. Such a negative correlation is observed in basaltic glasses from the Mariana back-arc basin (Newman, 1989).

Variations in the vapor phase composition with closed system degassing are shown in Figure 15. The calculations show that the vapor phase in equilibrium with MORB at depths typical for midoceanic ridges (1000-3000 m) is >90% CO₂, consistent with measurements of vapor compositions of vesicles (Killingley and Muenow, 1975; Moore et al., 1977; Delaney et al., 1978; Jambon and Zimmermann, 1987). A water-rich vapor phase can be exsolved in a midoceanic ridge setting from residual melts formed by >90% fractional crystallization and having water contents >1.0 wt.%. This water-rich vapor may be preserved as water-rich vesicles in erupted fractionated lavas or as trapped water-rich vapor inclusions in late stage minerals in oceanic gabbros, such as apatite.

The differences in degassing paths for open versus closed system degassing are shown in Figures 16 and 17. During open system degassing, the vapor is effectively removed from the system after each degassing step; therefore, the system has no "memory" of the initial conditions as degassing proceeds. Thus, the open system degassing paths are identical for melts initially having H₂O contents of 1.0 wt.% and CO₂ contents of 500 ppm and 1.0 wt.%. In general during open system degassing, CO₂ is rapidly removed from the melt with negligible loss of water until the H₂O solubility is reached; for a melt initially containing 1 wt.% H₂O, significant water loss (10% of the initial H₂O) does not occur until a pressure of 80 bars is reached. The closed system degassing path for melt with an initial volatile content of 1.0 wt.% H₂O and 500 ppm CO₂ is similar to the open system case (10% of the initial H₂O has been lost by 95 bars), because the concentration of CO₂ is small compared to the that of H₂O. Also shown on Figure 16, is the closed system degassing path for a melt initially having equal concentrations (1 wt.%) of H₂O and CO₂. In this case, significant water loss occurs at higher pressures (10% of the initial H₂O has been lost by 450 bars) than the open system cases, because the large volume of exsolved CO₂ remains in contact with

the melt, requiring exsolution of more H₂O to produce the appropriate $f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ to be in equilibrium with the melt.

Figure 17 shows CO₂ versus H₂O for open and closed system degassing. Degassing paths are comparable to the dashed lines on Figure 14. Results for open system degassing (dashed lines) are identical regardless of the initial CO₂ concentration. During closed system degassing, degassing paths are a strong function of initial H₂O and CO₂ concentrations. The pressure at which significant loss of water begins increases as the initial concentration of CO₂ increases.

The results of these calculations are qualitatively similar to those of Shilobreyeva et al. (1983), Gerlach (1986), and Newman (1989, 1990) for basaltic systems and by Newman et al. (1988) for rhyolitic systems, but are based specifically on the thermodynamic models for water and carbon dioxide in mid-ocean ridge basalt at 1200°C as determined in this study. Predictions based on these calculations will be tested by examination of the variation in H₂O and CO₂ contents in suites of natural basaltic glasses (Chapters 2 and 3).

6. Conclusions

A series of experiments have been performed to determine the solubilities of H₂O and CO₂ and the nature of their mixing behavior in basaltic liquid at temperature and pressures relevant to seafloor eruption. The major conclusions of the study are:

1) Molar absorptivities for basaltic glass for the 4500 cm⁻¹ band for hydroxyl groups and for the 5230 and 1630 cm⁻¹ bands of molecular water were calibrated to be 0.67 ± 0.04 , 0.62 ± 0.08 , and 25 ± 3 L/mole-cm, respectively.

2) Both molecular water and carbon dioxide appear to follow Henry's law over the range of vapor compositions and pressures (<1 kbar) investigated.

3) Experimental results for water solubility in MORB at pressures from 200-980 bars, a range relevant to seafloor eruption, are consistent with those of previous studies

at higher pressures. Total water concentrations and the speciation of water in vapor-saturated basaltic melt are fit by a regular ternary solution model with the coefficients for albitic glasses, where the activity of water in the melt is given by Henry's law for molecular water. At pressures higher than about 1 kbar, the effect of the molar volume of water in the melt ($V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0,m}$) on the activity of water in vapor-saturated melts is no longer negligible; a ($V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0,m}$) of $\sim 12 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mole}$ fits the data of Hamilton et al. (1964).

4) Water does not enhance the solubility of CO_2 in basaltic melts over the pressures (200-980 bars) and temperature ($\sim 1200^\circ \text{C}$) investigated.

5) These results provide a simple basis for interpreting the water and carbon contents of submarine magmas and for assessing factors controlling degassing on ascent and emplacement.

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Table 1: Experiment Summary

Run	Comments	P (bars)	T (°C)	±°C	Run duration	rev?	Fe-loss control	Fe in foil (wt. %)	fO ₂ control	X _{H₂}	Quench rate (°C/sec)
JED 7H	IHPV	206	1196	16	2 hrs 30 min	no	Fe-Pt alloy foil	7.7	Shaw membrane	1.95	~8
JED 8H	IHPV	201	1205	16	5 hrs	yes	Fe-Pt alloy foil	8.2	Shaw membrane	2.10	"
JED 9H	IHPV	300	1200	15	4 hrs 30 min	yes	Fe-Pt alloy foil	6.9	Shaw membrane	1.93	"
JED 17H	RQ-IHPV	717	1182	27	3 hr	no	Fe-Pt alloy foil	9.2	H ₂ /Ar mix	1.49	100s
JED 17M	RQ-IHPV, 1	717	1182	27	3 hr	no	Fe-Pt alloy foil	9.39	H ₂ /Ar mix	1.49	"
JED 18M	RQ-IHPV, 1	980	1197	1	3 hrs 5 min	no	Fe-Pt alloy foil	7.7	H ₂ /Ar mix	1.49	"
JED 20H	RQ-IHPV	310	1199	6	6 hrs	yes	Fe-Pt alloy foil	8.62	H ₂ /Ar mix	1.49	"
JED 20M	RQ-IHPV	310	1199	6	6 hrs	yes	Fe-Pt alloy foil	8.55	H ₂ /Ar mix	1.49	"
JED 21H	RQ-IHPV	507	1198	4	5 hrs 30 min	yes	Fe-Pt alloy foil	5.99	H ₂ /Ar mix	1.49	"
JED 21M	RQ-IHPV	507	1198	4	5 hrs 30 min	yes	Fe-Pt alloy foil	8.08	H ₂ /Ar mix	1.49	"
JED 32A	RQ-IHPV	515	1199	5	2 hrs	no	pure Pt garbage can		pure Ar	0	"
JED 33A	RQ-IHPV, 1	503	1197	7	2 hrs	no	pure Pt garbage can		pure Ar	0	"
JED 33B	RQ-IHPV, 1	503	1197	7	2 hrs	no	pure Pt garbage can		pure Ar	0	"
JED 34B	RQ-IHPV, 1	507	1199	5	2 hrs	no	pure Pt garbage can		pure Ar	0	"
JED 35B	RQ-IHPV, 1	504	1196	8	2 hrs	no	pure Pt garbage can		pure Ar	0	"

Notes: IHPV means runs were performed in a conventional internally heated pressure vessel. RQ-IHPV runs were performed in a rapid quench internally heated pressure vessel. 1 indicates that vapor was lost from the capsule during or after quench as determined by bead of water on outside of capsule, sometimes with CO₂ bubbles still streaming through, or by audible hiss of vapor loss upon puncture of capsule.

Table 1 (cont.)

Run	starting material	basalt added (g)	H ₂ O added (g)	oxal. acid dihyd. added (g)	oxalic acid added (g)	Ag-oxalate added (g)	tot. H ₂ O+CO ₂ added (g)	wt. loss after run (g)
JED 7	powdered TT152-21-35,	0.09090	0.0026	0	0	0	0.0026	0
JED 8	QFM-3, 960°C, 20 hrs	0.09059	0.0042	0	0	0	0.0042	0
JED 9	"	0.09070	0.0038	0	0	0	0.0038	0.0012
JED 17H	"	0.10135	0.01029	0	0	0	0.01029	0
JED 17M	"	0.10086	0	0	0.01235	0	0.01207	0.00078
JED 18M	"	0.09218	0	0.0177	0	0	0.0174	?
JED 20H	"	0.07125	0.006	0	0	0	0.0060	0
JED 20M	"	0.07090	0	0.00613	0	0	0.0060	0
JED 21H	"	0.08900	0.00877	0	0	0	0.00877	0
JED 21M	"	0.09282	0	0.01028	0	0	0.00992	0.0001
JED 32A	powdered TT152-51-3,	0.04186	0.00086	0	0	0.02804	0.0090	?
JED 33A	NiNiO, 900°C, 36hrs	0.04435	0.00127	0	0	0.02031	0.00715	0.00597
JED 33B	"	0.05330	0.00306	0	0	0.00868	0.00558	0.00382
JED 34B	"	0.05297	0.0029	0	0	0.00515	0.0044	0.002
JED 35B	"	0.07212	0.0093	0	0	0.01812	0.00607	0.00514

Notes: H₂O added as pure distilled H₂O. Oxalic acid dihydrite: H₂C₂O₄·2H₂O. Oxalic acid: H₂C₂O₄. Ag-Oxalate: Ag₂C₂O₄. A "?" for weight loss indicates that portion of capsule of unknown weight sintered to capsule holder causing rupture of capsule when removing it from run assembly.

Table 1 (cont.)

Run	H ₂ O added (moles)	CO ₂ added (moles)	X _{H₂O} -vapor, initial	X _{CO₂} -vapor, initial	vapor comp.	X _{H₂O} -vapor, final	X _{CO₂} -vapor, final
JED 7	0.00014	0	1	0	pure H ₂ O added	1	0
JED 8	0.00023	0	1	0	pure H ₂ O added	1	0
JED 9	0.00021	0	1	0	pure H ₂ O added	1	0
JED 17H	0.00057	0	1	0	pure H ₂ O added	1	0
JED 17M	0	0.000137	0	1	mol. H ₂ O in melt	0.075	0.925
JED 18M	0.000281	0.000281	0.5	0.5	mass balance	0.416	0.584
JED 20H	0.000333	0	1	0	pure H ₂ O added	1	0
JED 20M	0.000097	0.000097	0.5	0.5	manometry	0.387	0.613
JED 21H	0.000487	0	1	0	pure H ₂ O added	1	0
JED 21M	0.00016	0.00016	0.5	0.5	manometry	0.405	0.595
JED 32A	0.000048	0.000185	0.206	0.794	mol. H ₂ O in melt	0.138	0.862
JED 33A	0.00007	0.000134	0.343	0.657	mol. H ₂ O in melt	0.238	0.762
JED 33B	0.00017	0.000057	0.749	0.251	mol. H ₂ O in melt	0.615	0.385
JED 34B	0.000161	0.000034	0.826	0.174	mol. H ₂ O in melt	0.580	0.420
JED 35B	0.000052	0.000119	0.242	0.758	mol. H ₂ O in melt	0.055	0.945

Table 1 (cont.)

Run	$f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ (bars)	f_{CO_2} (bars)	$f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\circ}$ (bars)	$f_{\text{CO}_2}^{\circ}$ (bars)	FeO* (wt. %)	FeO (wt. %)	Fe ₂ O ₃ (wt. %)
JED 7	204.9	0	204.9		12.0 assumed	9.57	2.70
JED 8	200	0	200		12.0 assumed	9.71	2.54
JED 9	298.1	0	298.1		12.0 assumed	8.72	9.69
JED 17H	709.2	0	709.2		13.07	9.41	4.06
JED 17M	47.2	775.1	709.2	838.5	12.13	10.02	2.34
JED 18M	377.4	689.7	972.7	1214	11.46	9.79	1.86
JED 20H	308.3	0	308.3		11.85	9.47	2.64
JED 20M	116	201	308.3	331.2	11.94	6.56	5.98
JED 21H	503.2	0	503.2		11.39	9.11	2.53
JED 21M	195.6	330.9	503.2	565.4	11.89	10.00	2.09
JED 32A	65	495.1	511.1	575.4	10.08		
JED 33A	111.4	424.8	499.3	560.5	10.39	4.15	6.79
JED 33B	301.5	207.2	499.3	560.5	10.26	1.95	9.23
JED 34B	285.7	229.1	503.2	565.4	9.88	0.48	10.44
JED 35B	2.5	530.7	500.2	561.7			

Notes: All fugacities were calculated using a modified Redlich-Kwong equation of state (Holloway, 1977). $f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ and f_{CO_2} calculated using final mole fractions of H₂O and CO₂ in the vapor, $f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\circ}$ and $f_{\text{CO}_2}^{\circ}$ calculated for pure H₂O and CO₂ vapor phase compositions.

Table 2: Major element compositions, oxygen fugacities, and densities of quenched basaltic glasses

Run (#avg.)	17H (6)	17M (8)	18M (7)	20H (5)	20M (6)	21H (5)	21M (4)	32A (4)	33A (2)	28B (4) (failed)	29B (5) (failed)	32B (4) (failed)	TT152- 21-35 (start. mat.)	TT152- 51-3 (start. mat.)
SiO ₂	49.03	50.84	50.86	50.88	50.73	50.29	50.65	48.87	49.77	52.08	55.71	49.41	50.81	50.53
TiO ₂	1.78	1.85	1.76	1.70	1.77	1.76	1.74	1.40	1.49	1.55	1.48	1.46	1.84	1.61
Al ₂ O ₃	13.57	14.10	13.92	14.06	14.03	13.92	14.03	14.47	14.82	15.62	16.37	14.71	13.70	14.87
FeO*	13.07	12.13	11.46	11.85	11.94	11.39	11.88	10.08	10.39	5.77	1.86	10.68	12.44	11.93
MgO	6.72	6.87	6.73	6.82	6.82	6.74	6.69	7.09	7.20	7.94	6.97	7.16	6.67	6.43
CaO	10.69	11.03	10.75	10.95	10.98	10.86	10.87	11.83	12.06	13.42	12.42	12.12	11.53	12.29
Na ₂ O	2.54	2.64	2.58	2.72	2.59	2.63	2.62	2.72	2.76	2.88	3.33	2.68	2.68	2.98
K ₂ O	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.07	0.08	0.09	0.11	0.13	0.20	0.11	0.15	0.15
MnO	0.20	0.22	0.21	0.22	0.23	0.24	0.22	0.19	0.21	0.23	0.20	0.19	0.22	0.20
H ₂ O	2.56	0.50	1.85	1.74	1.05	2.42	1.43	0.91	0.86	0.38	0.46	0.61		
CO ₂	0.00	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01		
Total	100.24	100.3	100.23	101.02	100.24	100.32	100.22	97.67	99.69	100.01	99.01	99.14	100.04	100.99
FeO	9.41	10.02	9.79	9.47	6.56	9.11	10.00		4.15					
Fe ₂ O ₃	4.07	2.34	1.86	2.64	5.98	2.53	2.09		6.93					
log fO ₂	-6.72	-7.93	-8.13	-7.38	-5.01	-7.37	-7.94		-5.92					
ρ (g/cm ³)	2.86	2.88	2.83	2.84	2.86	2.83	2.85	2.84	2.84	2.77	2.66	2.86		

Notes: FeO* is total iron as FeO. FeO determined by wet chemistry (see text), Fe₂O₃ determined by (FeO*-FeO)/0.9. Oxygen fugacities calculated using Kilinc et al. (1983). Glass densities calculated using Gladstone-Dale rule and the Church-Johnson equation as described by Silver (1988). Major element analyses of starting materials courtesy of J. Delaney (unpublished data).

Table 3: Molar Absorptivity Calibration for Molecular Water and Hydroxyl Groups

Calibration	ϵ^{5230}	ϵ^{4500}	ϵ^{1630}
mol. water ⁵²³⁰ + OH ⁴⁵⁰⁰ = tot. water ³⁵⁵⁰	0.62 ± 0.08	0.65 ± 0.06	
mol. water ¹⁶³⁰ + OH ⁴⁵⁰⁰ = tot. water ³⁵⁵⁰		0.68 ± 0.06	25 ± 3
mol. water ¹⁶³⁰ = mol. water ⁵²³⁰	from 1		25 ± 3
Mean values	0.62 ± 0.08	0.67 ± 0.04	25 ± 3

Table 4: Spectroscopic data for total water, molecular water, and hydroxyl groups

Run	Thick. (μm)	3550 cm^{-1}			5230 cm^{-1}			4500 cm^{-1}			1630 cm^{-1}		
		Abs	H_2O (wt. %)	$\text{X}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$	Abs	H_2O , mol (wt. %)	$\text{X}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$, mol	Abs	OH (wt. %)	XOH	Abs	H_2O , mol (wt. %)	$\text{X}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$, mol
7H	170	1.2680	1.272	0.0255	0.00277	0.282	0.0057	0.00931	0.878	0.0352			
7H	132	1.2390	1.243	0.0249	0.00246	0.251	0.0051	0.00948	0.895	0.0358			
7H	160	1.2560	1.261	0.0253	0.00253	0.257	0.0052	0.00989	0.933	0.0374			
7H	172	1.2650	1.268	0.0254	0.00266	0.271	0.0055	0.00967	0.912	0.0365			
7H	32	1.2700	1.274	0.0255									
7H	31	1.3310	1.335	0.0268									
7H	32	1.2890	1.294	0.0259									
8H	190	1.3590	1.364	0.0273	0.00331	0.338	0.0068	0.00962	0.908	0.0363			
8H	197	1.5680	1.572	0.0314	0.00414	0.422	0.0085	0.01041	0.982	0.0391			
8H	51	1.1610	1.169	0.0235									
8H	156	1.4420	1.447	0.0290	0.00331	0.338	0.0068	0.01040	0.981	0.0392			0.0062
8H	153	1.7250	1.731	0.0345	0.00342	0.349	0.0071	0.01060	1.001	0.0400			
8H	84	1.3820	1.387	0.0278									
8H	82	1.3430	1.347	0.0270									
9H	153	1.8530	1.872	0.0373	0.00528	0.542	0.0110	0.01247	1.184	0.0470			0.0082
9H	103												
9H	254				0.00501	0.514	0.0104	0.01199	1.140	0.0453			0.0096
9H	58	1.7100	1.729	0.0345									0.0092
9H	83	1.4360	1.451	0.0290									
9H	132	1.7500	1.768	0.0353									
9H	133	1.7820	1.801	0.0359									
9H	97	1.6990	1.717	0.0343									
9H	84	1.6000	1.617	0.0323									
9H	77	1.7250	1.743	0.0348									
9H	78	1.7900	1.809	0.0361									
9H	67	1.8150	1.834	0.0366									
9H	70	1.8110	1.830	0.0365									
17H	58	1.6970	1.709	0.0341	0.00485	0.496	0.0100	0.01194	1.131	0.0449			0.0341
17H	58	1.6910	1.703	0.0340	0.00453	0.464	0.0094	0.01178	1.116	0.0444			0.0340
17H	56	1.7300	1.742	0.0348	0.00433	0.443	0.0090	0.01211	1.147	0.0456			0.0348
17H	58	1.6810	1.693	0.0338	0.00451	0.461	0.0093	0.01174	1.112	0.0442			0.0338
17H	287												
17H	274												
17H	287												
17H	291												

Notes: Absorbance data normalized to a sample thickness of 100 μm . Mole fractions of dissolved water species are calculated on a single oxygen basis as follows:

(1) the mole fraction of total water in the melt (X_B) and the mole fraction of molecular water in the melt are calculated by:

$$X_{H_2O}^m = \frac{\text{wt\% } H_2O / 18.015}{\left(\text{wt\% } H_2O / 18.015 + (100 - \text{wt\% } H_2O) / 36.594 \right)}$$

(2) the mole fraction of OH in the melt is calculated by:

$$X_{OH}^m = 2 \left(X_B - X_{H_2O}^m \right)$$

Table 4 (cont.)

Run	Thick. (μm)	3550 cm^{-1}			5230 cm^{-1}			4500 cm^{-1}			1630 cm^{-1}		
		Abs	H ₂ O (wt. %)	X _{H₂O}	Abs	H ₂ O, mol (wt. %)	X _{H₂O} , mol	Abs	OH (wt. %)	X _{OH}	Abs	H ₂ O, mol (wt. %)	X _{H₂O} , mol
33A	159	0.9459	0.952	0.0192	0.00179	0.183	0.0037	0.00712	0.674	0.0271	0.04448	0.113	0.0023
33A	163	0.7951	0.801	0.0161							0.04393	0.112	0.0023
33A	61	0.8287	0.834	0.0168							0.04754	0.121	0.0024
33A	59	0.8619	0.868	0.0175							0.03790	0.096	0.0020
33A	58	0.8095	0.815	0.0164							0.03292	0.085	0.0017
33A	64	0.8086	0.814	0.0164							0.03000	0.076	0.0015
33A	65	0.7639	0.769	0.0155									
33A	61	0.9279	0.935	0.0188									
33A	58	0.9035	0.910	0.0183									
33B	27	1.6556	1.667	0.0333							0.17340	0.440	0.0089
33B	27	1.6611	1.672	0.0334							0.17340	0.440	0.0089
33B	28	1.6125	1.624	0.0324							0.16650	0.422	0.0085
33B	173	1.7156	1.727	0.0345	0.00429	0.439	0.0089	0.01316	1.246	0.0495			
34B	327												
34B	322										0.16150	0.410	0.0083
34B	321										0.16830	0.427	0.0086
34B	42	1.4143	1.424	0.0285							0.12150	0.308	0.0062
34B	42	1.6321	1.644	0.0328							0.12740	0.323	0.0065
34B	42	1.4857	1.496	0.0299							0.16910	0.429	0.0087
34B	151	1.6172	1.627	0.0325	0.00424	0.434	0.0088	0.01324	1.254	0.0499	0.14580	0.370	0.0075
34B	151	1.6927	1.705	0.0340	0.00397	0.407	0.0082	0.01377	1.304	0.0518	0.13840	0.351	0.0071
34B	151	1.5974	1.608	0.0321	0.00397	0.407	0.0082	0.01351	1.279	0.0509	0.15890	0.403	0.0082
34B	150										0.15890	0.403	0.0082
34B	150										0.17130	0.435	0.0088
35B	78	0.3500	0.348	0.0070							n.d.		
35B	76	0.3415	0.340	0.0069							n.d.		
35B	94	0.3862	0.384	0.0078							n.d.		
35B	88	0.3546	0.353	0.0071							n.d.		
35B	92	0.3571	0.348	0.0070							n.d.		
35B	94	0.4043	0.403	0.0082							n.d.		
35B	88	0.3852	0.383	0.0077							n.d.		

Table 5: Estimates of the partial molar volume of H₂O in silicate liquids

Composition	V _{H₂O} (cm ³ /mol)	P range (kbars)	T range (°C)	Reference
NaAlSi ₃ O ₈	17-22	3-8	1000	Burnham & Davis (1971)
NaAlSi ₃ O ₈	~22	1-8	1000	Silver et al. (1990)
KAlSi ₃ O ₈	~25	1-7	900-1340	Silver et al. (1990)
Ca-Al-silicate	~16	1-5	1180	Silver et al. (1990)
CaMgSi ₂ O ₆	~17	20	1240	Hodges (1974)
Basalt	~12	1-8	1100-1200	this study
Rhyolite	~0	<1.5	850	Silver et al. (1990)

Table 6: Spectroscopic data for carbon dissolved as carbonate in the quenched basaltic glasses

Run	Spectrum	Thick. (μm)	Reference subtracted	1515 cm^{-1}		1430 cm^{-1}	
				Abs	XCO ₂	Abs	XCO ₂
17M	0.001	168	519	0.076429	311	0.076667	312
17M	0.002	178	519	0.075843	309	0.077247	315
17M	0.003	176	2135	0.071591	292	0.078977	322
17M	0.004	202	2135	0.071535	292	0.072525	296
18M	0.001	269	519	0.077323	321	0.072862	302
18M	0.001	269	2135	0.072119	299	0.068401	284
18M	0.002	271	519	0.070849	294	0.064207	266
18M	0.003	290	2135	0.067586	280	0.061379	254
18M	0.003	290	519	0.078621	326	0.074828	311
18M	0.004	300	2135	0.072000	299	0.069000	286
18M	0.004	300	519	0.074667	310	0.065333	271
18M	0.005	298	519	0.080201	332	0.072819	302
18M	0.005	298	2135	0.066443	275	0.062081	257
20M	0.001	222	0	0.013514	56	0.018018	74
20M	0.001	222	519	0.014189	58	0.015946	66
20M	0.002	174	0	0.019540	80	0.021839	90
20M	0.002	174	2135	0.016782	69	0.017701	72
20M	0.003	200	0	0.017000	70	0.019000	78
20M	0.003	200	2135	0.017750	72	0.018000	73
20M	0.003	200	2135	0.016200	67	0.014700	61
20M	0.004	190	0	0.015789	65	0.020000	82
20M	0.004	190	2135	0.018526	75	0.018316	75
20M	0.004	190	2135	0.018421	75	0.021053	86
20M	0.005	203	0	0.017734	72	0.020690	85
20M	0.005	203	2135	0.016010	66	0.016010	66
20M	0.005	203	2135	0.016010	66	0.019704	81
21M	0.001	236	0	0.031356	129	0.033051	137
21M	0.001	236	2135	0.030085	124	0.030085	124
21M	0.001	236	2135	0.029237	121	0.029237	121
21M	0.001	236	2135	0.031356	129	0.031356	129
21M	0.001	236	2135	0.029661	122	0.029322	121
21M	0.002	239	0	0.025105	103	0.029289	121
21M	0.002	239	2135	0.030126	124	0.029289	121
21M	0.001	236	0	0.031356	129	0.033051	137
21M	0.001	236	2135	0.030085	124	0.030085	124
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21M	0.002	239	2135	0.030126	124	0.029289	121
21M	0.001	236	0	0.031356	129	0.033051	137
21M	0.001	236	2135	0.030085	124	0.030085	124
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21M	0.002	239	0	0.025105	103	0.029289	121
21M	0.002	239	2135	0.030126	124	0.029289	121
21M	0.001	236	0	0.031356	129	0.033051	137
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21M	0.002	239	0	0.025105	103	0.029289	121
21M	0.002	239	2135	0.030126	124	0.029289	121
21M	0.001	236	0	0.031356	129	0.033051	137
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21M	0.002	239	2135	0.030126	124	0.029289	121
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21M	0.002	239	0	0.025105	103	0.029289	121
21M	0.002	239	2135	0.030126	124	0.029289	121
21M	0.001	236	0	0.031356	129	0.033051	137
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21M	0.001	236	2135	0.031356	129	0.031356	129
21M	0.001	236	2135	0.029661	122	0.029322	121
21M	0.002	239	0	0.025105	103	0.029289	121
21M	0.002	239	2135	0.030126	124	0.029289	121
21M	0.001	236	0	0.031356	129	0.033051	137
21M	0.001	236	2135	0.030085	124	0.030085	124
21M	0.001	236	2135	0.029237	121	0.029237	121
21M	0.001	236	2135	0.031356	129	0.031356	129
21M	0.001	236					

comparing absorbances measured on the same spectrum but having a different decarbonated reference glass subtracted. 2135 is a devolatilized glass of TT152-21-35; 519 is a devolatilized glass of a Mid-Atlantic Ridge basaltic glass; 0 is no reference subtracted. The

$$\text{mole fraction of CO}_2 \text{ in the melt is calculated by: } X_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{m}} = \frac{\text{ppmCO}_2 \times 10^{-4} / 44.01}{\left(\text{ppmCO}_2 \times 10^{-4} / 44.01 + \left(100 - \text{ppmCO}_2 \times 10^{-4} - \text{wt\% H}_2\text{O} \right) / 36.594 \right)}$$

Table 6 (cont.)

Run	Spectrum	Thick. (μm)	Reference subtracted	1515 cm^{-1}			1430 cm^{-1}		
				Abs	ppm	X_{CO_2}	Abs	ppm	X_{CO_2}
21M	0.002	239	2135	0.031799	131	1.07E-04	0.032218	133	1.09E-04
21M	0.003	235	0	0.028085	116	9.5E-05	0.025532	105	8.62E-05
21M	0.003	235	2135	0.030638	126	1.03E-04	0.029787	123	1.01E-04
21M	0.003	235	2135	0.033957	140	1.14E-04	0.031404	130	1.06E-04
21M	0.003	235	2135	0.034894	143	1.18E-04	0.031915	132	1.08E-04
21M	0.004	240	0	0.029167	120	9.82E-05	0.030833	127	1.04E-04
21M	0.004	240	2135	0.030000	124	1.01E-04	0.029167	120	9.82E-05
32A	0.001	179	2135	0.044693	184	1.52E-04	0.051117	211	1.74E-04
32A	0.002	196	2135	0.045306	187	1.55E-04	0.051888	214	1.77E-04
32A	0.003	194	2135	0.049175	203	1.68E-04	0.054588	226	1.86E-04
33A	0.001	143	2135	0.045455	188	1.55E-04	0.046853	193	1.59E-04
33A	0.002	141	2135	0.043262	178	1.47E-04	0.049291	204	1.68E-04
33A	0.003	141	2135	0.043617	180	1.49E-04	0.047518	196	1.62E-04
33A	0.004	159	2135	0.043522	179	1.48E-04	0.047799	197	1.63E-04
33A	0.005	163	2135	0.045399	187	1.54E-04	0.050920	210	1.73E-04
33A	0.001	61	2135	0.048689	201	1.66E-04	0.049672	205	1.69E-04
33A	0.002	59	2135	0.049576	205	1.69E-04	0.054153	224	1.84E-04
33A	0.003	58	2135	0.045172	186	1.54E-04	0.053103	220	1.81E-04
33A	0.004	64	2135	0.042500	172	1.42E-04	0.051719	210	1.73E-04
33A	0.005	65	2135	0.044000	181	1.5E-04	0.052615	218	1.80E-04
33B	0.001	173	2135	0.015607	64	5.24E-05	0.017341	72	5.88E-05
33B	0.002	173	2135	0.013873	57	4.67E-05	0.016185	67	5.48E-05
33B	0.003	173	2135	0.011561	47	3.87E-05	0.015607	64	5.24E-05
34B	0.001	327	2135	0.014373	59		0.014373	59	
34B	0.002	322	2135	0.011180	46		0.015528	64	
34B	0.003	321	2135	0.016822	70		0.017757	73	
34B	0.004	42	2135	0.014286	59	4.85E-05	0.014286	59	4.85E-05
34B	0.001	151	2135	0.017219	71	5.81E-05	0.016556	68	5.56E-05
34B	0.002	151	2135	0.013245	55	4.51E-05	0.019868	82	6.69E-05
34B	0.003	151	2135	0.014570	60	4.92E-05	0.017881	74	6.05E-05
34B	0.004	150	2135	0.014667	60		0.014667	60	
35B	0.001	78	2135	0.045385	185	1.54E-04	0.048462	198	1.64E-04
35B	0.002	76	2135	0.054474	222	1.84E-04	0.057237	234	1.94E-04
35B	0.003	94	2135	0.055851	228	1.89E-04	0.059681	244	2.02E-04
35B	0.004	88	2135	0.049773	204	1.69E-04	0.053864	220	1.83E-04
35B	0.005	92	2135	0.057609	235	1.95E-04	0.059783	245	2.03E-04

Table 7: Summary of H₂O and CO₂ data

Run	fH ₂ O (bars)	total H ₂ O 3550 cm ⁻¹ (wt. %)	H ₂ O, mol 5230 cm ⁻¹ (wt. %)	XH ₂ O, mol	OH 4500 cm ⁻¹ (wt. %)	XOH	total H ₂ O OH+H ₂ O mol (wt. %)	XB	fCO ₂	CO ₂ (ppm)	XCO ₂
35B	25	0.40 ± 0.01	n.d.	0	0.47 ± 0.06	0.0191	0.47	0.0095	530.7	223 ± 16	0.000186
17M	47.2	0.48 ± 0.02	0.02 ± 0.00	0.0005	0.37 ± 0.03	0.0151	0.4	0.008	775.1	306 ± 9	0.000255
32B	46.3	0.61 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.02	0.0014	0.50 ± 0.01	0.0203	0.57	0.0115			
32A	64.9	0.89 ± 0.04	0.09 ± 0.01	0.0019	0.73 ± 0.06	0.0292	0.82	0.0165	495.1	204 ± 16	0.00017
33A	111.1	0.95 ± 0.00	0.16 ± 0.02	0.0033	0.71 ± 0.04	0.0287	0.88	0.0177	424.8	197 ± 15	0.000164
20M	116	1.02 ± 0.04	0.18 ± 0.02	0.0035	0.89 ± 0.02	0.0359	1.07	0.0215	201	72 ± 7	0.00006
7H	204.9	1.28 ± 0.03	0.27 ± 0.01	0.0054	0.91 ± 0.02	0.0362	1.17	0.0235			
21M	195.6	1.41 ± 0.00	0.33 ± 0.03	0.0067	1.06 ± 0.05	0.0422	1.39	0.0278	330.9	125 ± 8	0.000104
8H	199.95	1.43 ± 0.18	0.36 ± 0.04	0.0073	0.97 ± 0.04	0.0386	1.33	0.0267			
34B	285.4	1.65 ± 0.05	0.42 ± 0.02	0.0084	1.28 ± 0.02	0.0509	1.69	0.0338	229.1	64 ± 6	0.000053
33B	301.9	1.73 ±	0.44 ±	0.0089	1.25 ±	0.0495	1.69	0.0336	207.2	62 ± 6	0.000052
20H	308.3	1.71 ± 0.02	0.47 ± 0.02	0.0094	1.13 ± 0.02	0.0448	1.59	0.0318			
18M	377.4	1.83 ± 0.03	0.51 ± 0.04	0.0103	1.43 ± 0.18	0.0567	1.94	0.0386	689.7	293 ± 20	0.000244
9H	298.05	1.74 ± 0.12	0.53 ± 0.02	0.0107	1.16 ± 0.03	0.0461	1.69	0.0337			
21H	503.2	2.23 ± 0.05	0.84 ± 0.02	0.0169	1.34 ± 0.06	0.0528	2.18	0.0433			
17H	709.2	2.49 ± 0.15	0.90 ± 0.07	0.0182	1.85 ± 0.05	0.0726	2.76	0.0544			

Table 8: Calculated water speciation and solubility data

P (bars)	$f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ (bars)	$X_{\text{H}_2\text{O, mol}}$	X_{OH}	X_{B}	$\text{H}_2\text{O, mol}$ (wt.%)	OH (wt.%)	$\text{H}_2\text{O, total}$ (wt.%)
1	1.000	0.00003	0.0044	0.00223	0.0015	0.1083	0.1099
5	4.999	0.00016	0.00942	0.00487	0.0076	0.2324	0.2401
10	9.998	0.00031	0.01293	0.00677	0.0153	0.3192	0.3346
25	24.986	0.00077	0.01932	0.01044	0.0381	0.4780	0.5165
50	49.946	0.00154	0.02577	0.01443	0.0760	0.6385	0.7155
100	99.794	0.00307	0.03374	0.01993	0.1512	0.8376	0.9913
200	199.238	0.00606	0.04314	0.02763	0.2993	1.0736	1.3796
300	298.426	0.00899	0.04914	0.03356	0.4446	1.2250	1.6809
400	397.460	0.01186	0.05353	0.03862	0.5872	1.3357	1.9393
500	496.407	0.01466	0.05693	0.04313	0.7273	1.4219	2.1707
600	595.386	0.01742	0.05967	0.04725	0.8650	1.4913	2.3832
700	694.481	0.02012	0.06193	0.05108	1.0006	1.5488	2.5817
800	793.781	0.02277	0.06384	0.05469	1.1340	1.5973	2.7692
900	893.376	0.02538	0.06549	0.05812	1.2656	1.6392	2.9482
1000	993.353	0.02794	0.06688	0.06138	1.3953	1.6747	3.1190
2000	2031.960	0.05182	0.07426	0.08895	2.6200	1.8630	4.5860
3000	3190.161	0.07377	0.07632	0.11192	3.7727	1.9156	5.8418
4000	4526.357	0.09489	0.07622	0.13300	4.9080	1.9131	7.0218
5000	6091.760	0.11579	0.07496	0.15327	6.0564	1.8809	8.1823

Fugacity of pure water was calculated using a modified Redlich-Kwong equation of state (Holloway, 1977).

Activity of water in the melt ($X_{\text{H}_2\text{O, mol}}$) was calculated using Equation 16. Speciation and solubilities were calculated using a regular solution model (Equation 12).

Table 9: CO₂ solubility data

P (bars)	fCO ₂ (bars)	CO ₂ (ppm)
0	0.00	0
100	102.13	46
200	208.67	92
300	319.81	138
400	435.76	185
500	556.72	232
600	682.91	279
700	814.53	327
800	951.80	375
900	1095.00	423
1000	1244.20	472
2000	3127.11	982

Table 10: Summary of Saturation Values for Closed System Degassing

P (bars)	F closed	H ₂ O (wt.%)	CO ₂ (ppm)	X _{H₂O} in vapor	X _{CO₂} in vapor	P (bars)	F closed	H ₂ O (wt.%)	CO ₂ (ppm)	X _{H₂O} in vapor	X _{CO₂} in vapor
1000.	0.991	0.100	500.0	0.000	1.000	1000	0.996	0.300	500.0	0.009	0.991
950	0.982	0.100	473.0	0.000	0.999	950	0.993	0.300	470.2	0.009	0.991
900	0.974	0.100	448.5	0.000	0.999	900	0.990	0.300	445.7	0.010	0.990
850	0.966	0.100	424.2	0.000	0.999	850	0.987	0.300	421.3	0.010	0.990
800	0.958	0.100	399.9	0.000	0.999	800	0.984	0.300	397.0	0.011	0.989
750	0.950	0.100	375.7	0.000	0.999	750	0.980	0.300	372.8	0.011	0.989
700	0.941	0.100	351.6	0.000	0.999	700	0.977	0.300	348.7	0.011	0.989
650	0.933	0.100	327.6	0.001	0.999	650	0.974	0.300	324.7	0.012	0.988
600	0.925	0.100	303.7	0.001	0.999	600	0.971	0.300	300.7	0.013	0.987
550	0.917	0.100	279.8	0.001	0.999	550	0.968	0.300	276.9	0.014	0.986
500	0.909	0.100	256.1	0.001	0.999	500	0.965	0.300	253.1	0.015	0.985
450	0.901	0.100	232.4	0.002	0.998	450	0.962	0.300	229.4	0.017	0.983
400	0.893	0.100	208.8	0.002	0.998	400	0.959	0.300	205.8	0.018	0.982
350	0.885	0.100	185.3	0.002	0.998	350	0.955	0.300	182.2	0.020	0.980
300	0.877	0.100	161.9	0.002	0.998	300	0.952	0.300	158.8	0.023	0.977
250	0.869	0.100	138.5	0.003	0.997	250	0.949	0.299	135.4	0.027	0.973
200	0.861	0.100	115.2	0.003	0.997	200	0.945	0.299	112.1	0.032	0.968
150	0.853	0.100	92.0	0.004	0.996	150	0.942	0.299	88.8	0.039	0.961
100	0.844	0.100	68.8	0.005	0.995	100	0.937	0.299	65.6	0.051	0.949
90	0.843	0.100	45.7	0.008	0.992	90	0.936	0.298	42.5	0.074	0.926
80	0.841	0.100	41.1	0.009	0.991	80	0.934	0.298	37.9	0.081	0.919
70	0.839	0.100	36.5	0.010	0.990	70	0.933	0.298	33.3	0.090	0.910
60	0.837	0.100	31.9	0.011	0.989	60	0.931	0.297	28.7	0.102	0.898
50	0.835	0.100	27.2	0.013	0.987	50	0.929	0.297	24.1	0.117	0.883
40	0.833	0.100	22.6	0.015	0.985	40	0.925	0.296	19.5	0.138	0.862
30	0.831	0.100	18.0	0.019	0.981	30	0.920	0.294	14.9	0.169	0.831
20	0.827	0.099	13.4	0.024	0.976	20	0.907	0.291	10.3	0.219	0.781
10	0.820	0.099	8.8	0.035	0.965	10	0.851	0.273	5.8	0.318	0.682
5	0.808	0.097	4.2	0.064	0.936	5	0.701	0.225	1.6	0.572	0.428
1	0.703	0.085	1.9	0.118	0.882	1	0.344	0.110	0.3	0.786	0.214
			0.2	0.428	0.572				0.0	0.903	0.097

F is the fraction of volatiles remaining in the melt: $(\text{H}_2\text{O}^m + \text{CO}_2^m)/(\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{tot}} + \text{CO}_2^{\text{tot}})$.

Table 10 (cont.)

P (bars)	F closed	H ₂ O (wt.%)	CO ₂ (ppm)	X _{H₂O} in vapor	X _{CO₂} in vapor	P (bars)	F closed	H ₂ O (wt.%)	CO ₂ (ppm)	X _{H₂O} in vapor	X _{CO₂} in vapor
1000	0.997	0.600	500.0	0.037	0.963	1000	0.997	1.000	500.0	0.110	0.890
950	0.995	0.600	457.8	0.039	0.961	950	0.995	0.999	424.6	0.115	0.885
900	0.994	0.600	433.3	0.041	0.959	900	0.994	0.999	400.2	0.121	0.879
850	0.992	0.600	409.0	0.044	0.956	850	0.993	0.999	376.0	0.128	0.872
800	0.990	0.600	384.7	0.046	0.954	800	0.992	0.999	351.8	0.135	0.865
750	0.989	0.600	360.5	0.049	0.951	750	0.991	0.999	327.8	0.144	0.856
700	0.987	0.600	336.4	0.052	0.948	700	0.990	0.998	303.8	0.153	0.847
650	0.985	0.599	312.3	0.056	0.944	650	0.988	0.998	279.9	0.164	0.836
600	0.983	0.599	288.4	0.060	0.940	600	0.987	0.998	256.2	0.176	0.824
550	0.982	0.599	264.6	0.066	0.935	550	0.986	0.997	232.5	0.191	0.809
500	0.980	0.599	240.8	0.071	0.929	500	0.984	0.997	208.9	0.207	0.793
450	0.978	0.599	217.2	0.078	0.922	450	0.982	0.996	185.4	0.228	0.772
400	0.976	0.599	193.6	0.087	0.913	400	0.981	0.995	162.0	0.253	0.747
350	0.974	0.598	170.1	0.098	0.902	350	0.978	0.994	138.7	0.284	0.716
300	0.972	0.598	146.6	0.113	0.887	300	0.976	0.992	115.5	0.327	0.673
250	0.970	0.597	123.3	0.133	0.867	250	0.972	0.989	92.4	0.385	0.615
200	0.967	0.597	100.0	0.163	0.837	200	0.966	0.983	69.5	0.471	0.529
150	0.963	0.595	76.8	0.212	0.788	150	0.951	0.970	46.9	0.607	0.393
100	0.955	0.591	53.7	0.307	0.693	100	0.895	0.913	25.2	0.812	0.188
90	0.953	0.590	30.8	0.337	0.663	90	0.868	0.886	7.5	0.849	0.151
80	0.949	0.588	26.2	0.377	0.623	80	0.834	0.851	5.3	0.880	0.120
70	0.945	0.585	21.7	0.377	0.623	70	0.792	0.808	3.6	0.904	0.096
60	0.937	0.581	17.3	0.425	0.575	60	0.744	0.759	2.4	0.922	0.078
50	0.924	0.573	12.9	0.489	0.511	50	0.687	0.701	1.6	0.936	0.064
40	0.897	0.556	8.7	0.574	0.426	40	0.622	0.635	1.0	0.947	0.053
30	0.837	0.519	5.0	0.682	0.318	30	0.546	0.558	0.6	0.956	0.044
20	0.721	0.448	2.2	0.798	0.202	20	0.454	0.463	0.3	0.963	0.037
5	0.387	0.240	0.7	0.882	0.118	10	0.328	0.335	0.1	0.970	0.030
1	0.177	0.110	0.0	0.946	0.054	5	0.236	0.240	0.0	0.974	0.026
			0.0	0.960	0.040	1	0.108	0.110	0.0	0.978	0.022

Table 10 (cont.)

P (bars)	F closed	H ₂ O (wt.%)	CO ₂ (ppm)	X _{H₂O} in vapor	X _{CO₂} in vapor	P (bars)	F open	H ₂ O (wt.%)	CO ₂ (ppm)	X _{H₂O} in vapor	X _{CO₂} in vapor
1000	0.992	1.993	267.3	0.442	0.558	1000	0.997	1.000	500.0	0.000	1.000
950	0.990	1.991	244.0	0.463	0.537	950	0.996	1.000	424.5	0.000	1.000
900	0.989	1.989	220.8	0.486	0.515	900	0.994	0.999	400.2	0.117	0.883
850	0.987	1.987	197.9	0.511	0.489	850	0.993	0.999	375.9	0.063	0.937
800	0.986	1.984	175.1	0.539	0.461	800	0.992	0.999	351.8	0.119	0.881
750	0.984	1.981	152.5	0.571	0.429	750	0.991	0.999	303.8	0.120	0.880
700	0.981	1.977	130.2	0.605	0.395	700	0.990	0.999	279.9	0.122	0.879
650	0.978	1.971	108.3	0.644	0.356	650	0.989	0.999	256.1	0.219	0.781
600	0.973	1.963	86.9	0.686	0.314	600	0.988	0.998	232.4	0.176	0.824
550	0.967	1.950	66.4	0.736	0.264	550	0.987	0.998	208.8	0.225	0.775
500	0.956	1.930	47.4	0.790	0.210	500	0.985	0.998	185.3	0.182	0.818
450	0.939	1.896	31.0	0.845	0.155	450	0.984	0.998	161.8	0.234	0.766
400	0.910	1.838	18.7	0.892	0.108	400	0.983	0.997	138.4	0.240	0.760
350	0.868	1.753	10.9	0.925	0.075	350	0.982	0.997	115.1	0.293	0.707
300	0.813	1.643	6.4	0.946	0.054	300	0.980	0.997	91.9	0.308	0.692
250	0.749	1.514	3.7	0.960	0.040	250	0.979	0.996	68.8	0.442	0.558
200	0.676	1.365	2.1	0.969	0.031	200	0.977	0.995	45.7	0.488	0.512
150	0.591	1.194	1.1	0.975	0.025	150	0.975	0.994	22.8	0.682	0.318
100	0.489	0.988	0.4	0.980	0.020	100	0.967	0.987	0.5	0.989	0.011
90	0.466	0.941	0.3	0.981	0.019	90	0.925	0.944	0.0	1.000	0.000
80	0.441	0.890	0.2	0.982	0.018	80	0.875	0.893	0.0	1.000	0.000
70	0.414	0.837	0.2	0.983	0.017	70	0.822	0.839	0.0	1.000	0.000
60	0.386	0.779	0.1	0.984	0.016	60	0.765	0.780	0.0	1.000	0.000
50	0.354	0.716	0.0	0.984	0.016	50	0.702	0.716	0.0	1.000	0.000
40	0.319	0.645	0.0	0.985	0.015	40	0.632	0.645	0.0	1.000	0.000
30	0.279	0.563	0.0	0.986	0.014	30	0.552	0.563	0.0	1.000	0.000
20	0.230	0.465	0.0	0.987	0.013	20	0.456	0.465	0.0	1.000	0.000
5	0.119	0.240	0.0	0.989	0.011	5	0.236	0.240	0.0	1.000	0.000
1	0.054	0.110	0.0	0.989	0.011	1	0.108	0.110	0.0	1.000	0.000

Vapor compositions for open system degassing are less reliable than those for closed system degassing because of very small quantities of H₂O and CO₂ degassed during each step.

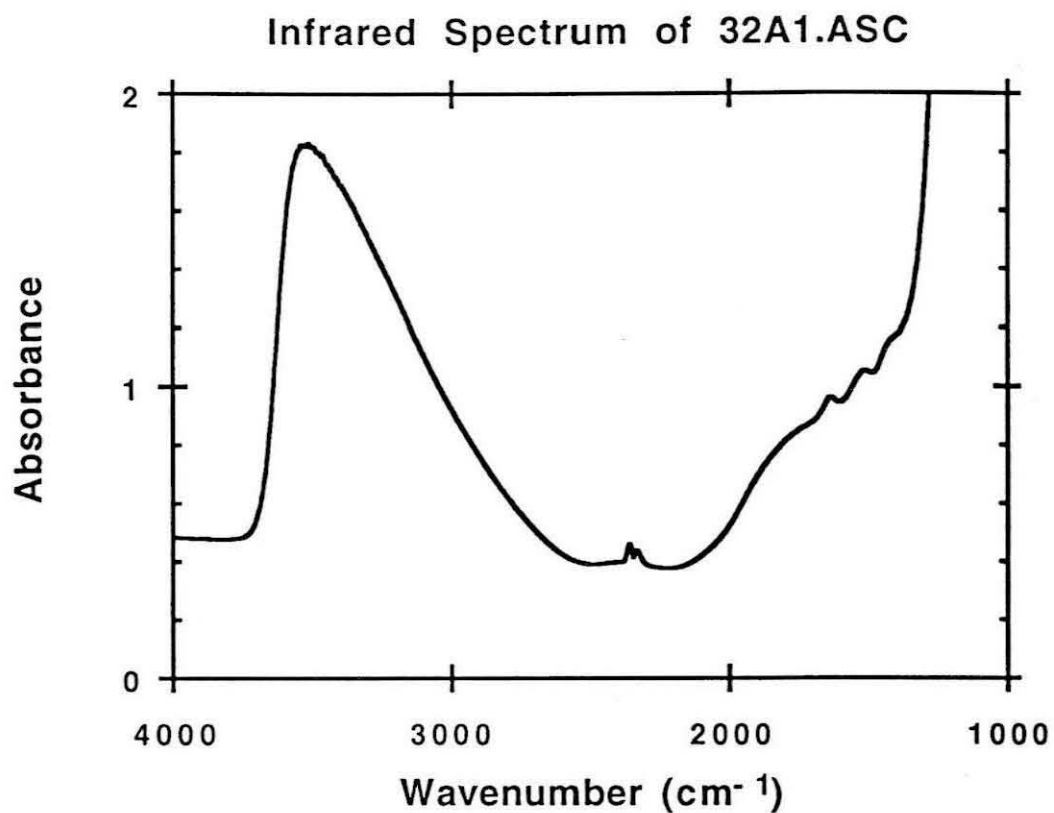


Figure 1a: Infrared spectrum showing typical absorptions of total water (3550 cm^{-1}), molecular water (1630 cm^{-1}), and carbonate bands (1515 and 1430 cm^{-1}). Small peaks at about 2350 cm^{-1} are absorptions by atmospheric CO_2 .

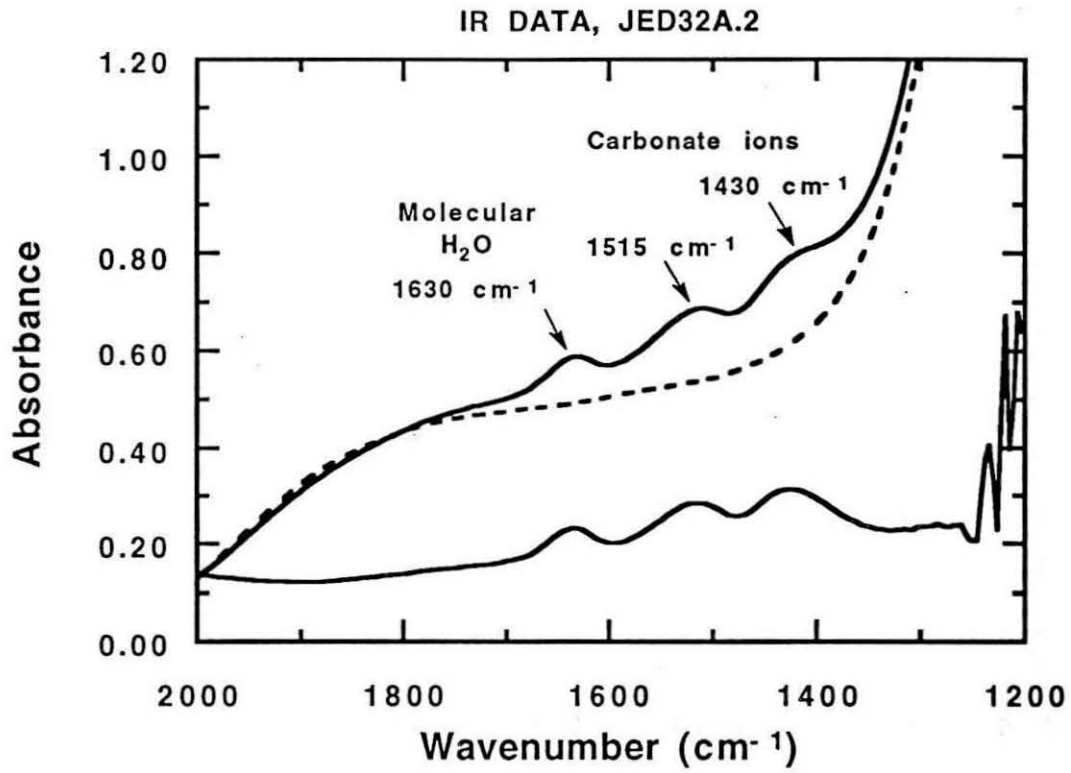


Figure 1b: Typical near-infrared spectrum of basalt showing the absorptions of molecular water at 5230 cm^{-1} and hydroxyl groups at 4500 cm^{-1} superposed on the broad absorptions at 9500 and 5500 cm^{-1} corresponding to the crystal-field transitions in octahedrally and tetrahedrally coordinated Fe^{2+} ions.

NIR spectrum, modelled background, and background subtracted spectrum for JED9T.1

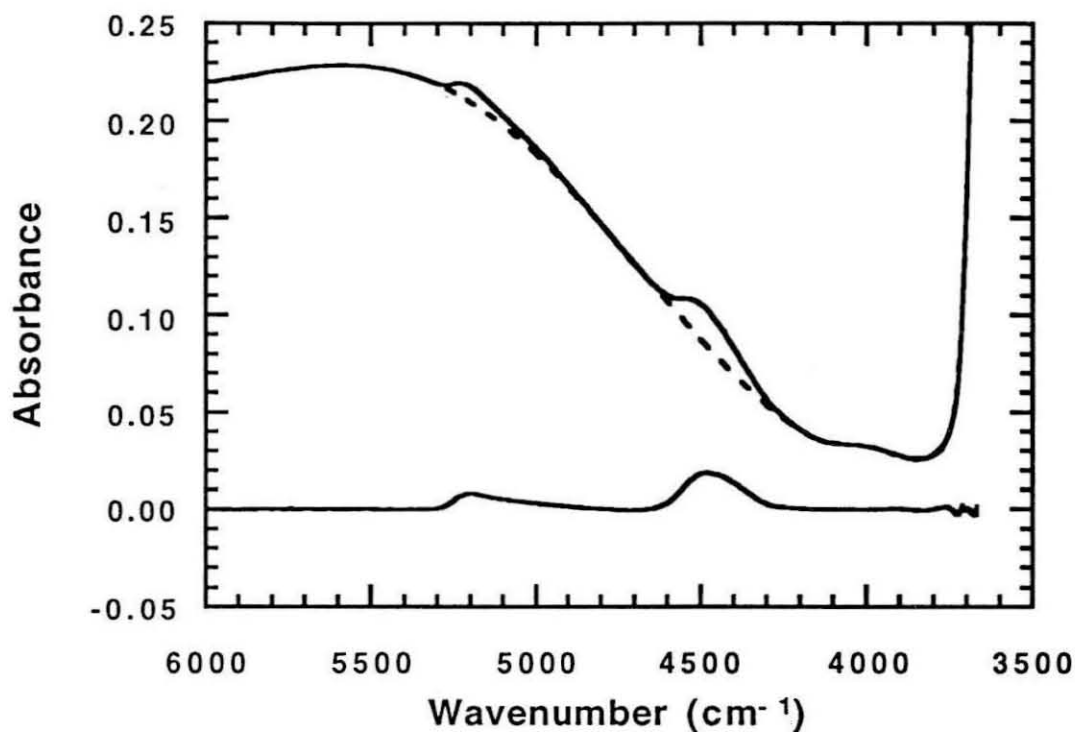


Figure 2: Typical background subtracted near-infrared spectrum. The backgrounds were modeled as a sum of 5 Gaussian curves: two for the Fe absorptions centered at about 9500 and 5500 cm^{-1} , one centered at about 4000 cm^{-1} , and two to fit the left hand shoulder of the 3550 cm^{-1} absorption.

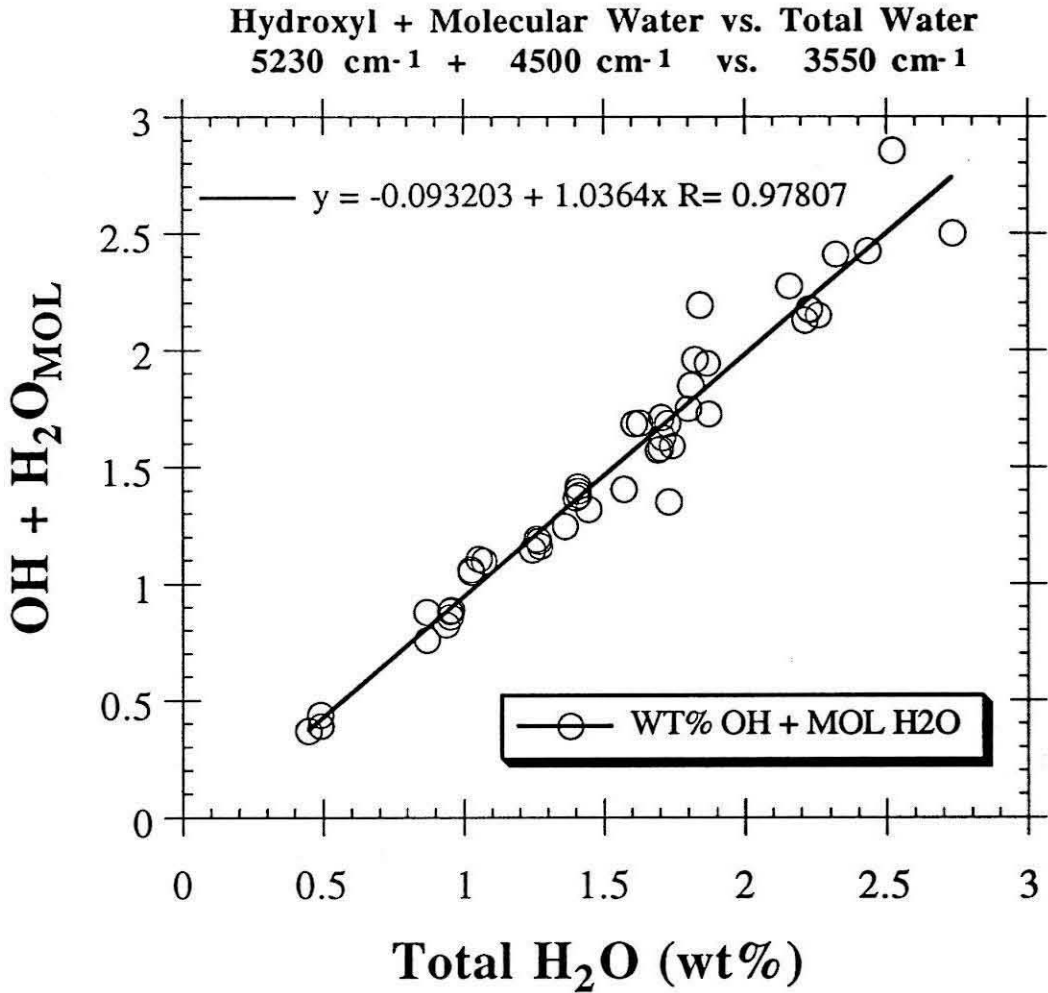


Figure 3: OH + molecular H₂O (5230 cm⁻¹) vs. total H₂O (3550 cm⁻¹) showing the internal consistency of the calibration of the molar absorptivities. Because the 5230, 4500, and 3550 cm⁻¹ data were measured on the same spectrum, data from individual spectra are shown.

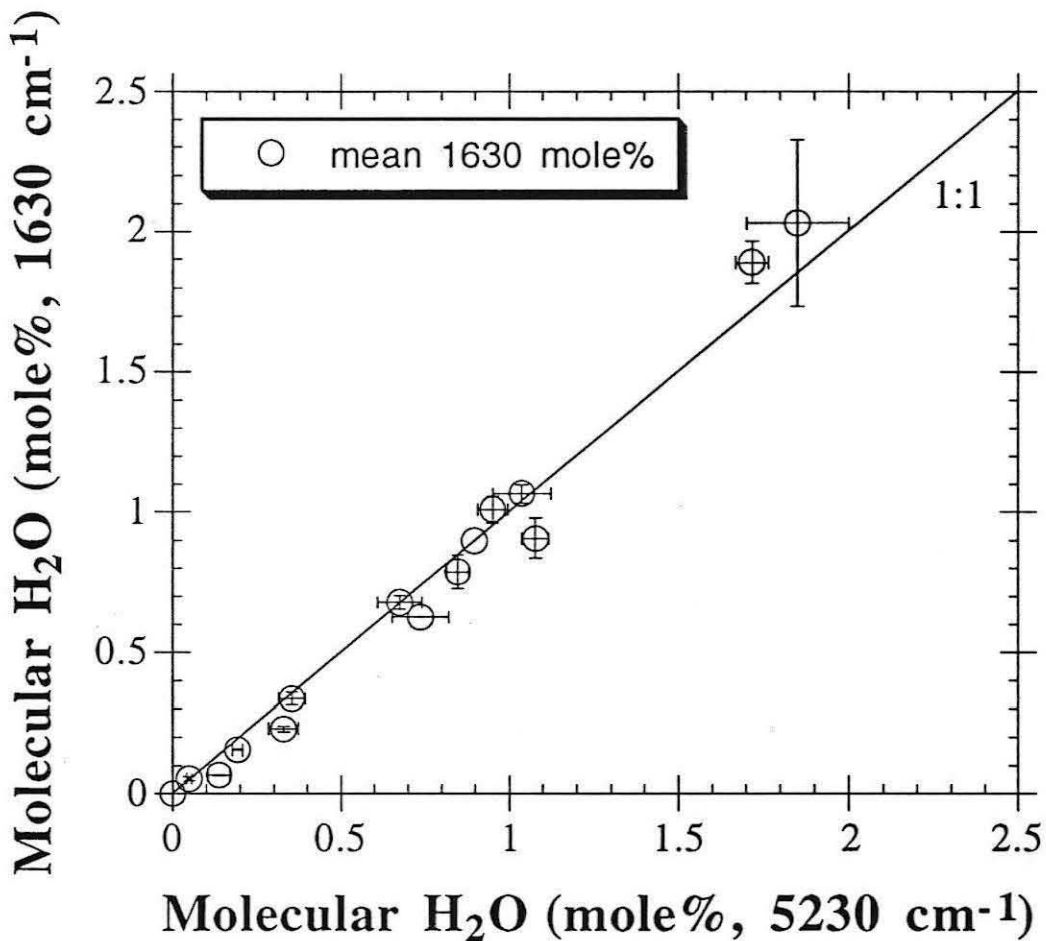


Figure 4: 5230 vs. 1630 cm⁻¹ demonstrating the internal consistency of the molar absorptivity calibrations. Because the 1630 and 5230 cm⁻¹ data are measured on different spectra (infrared vs. near-infrared), these data are reported in terms of means and standard deviations for each run.

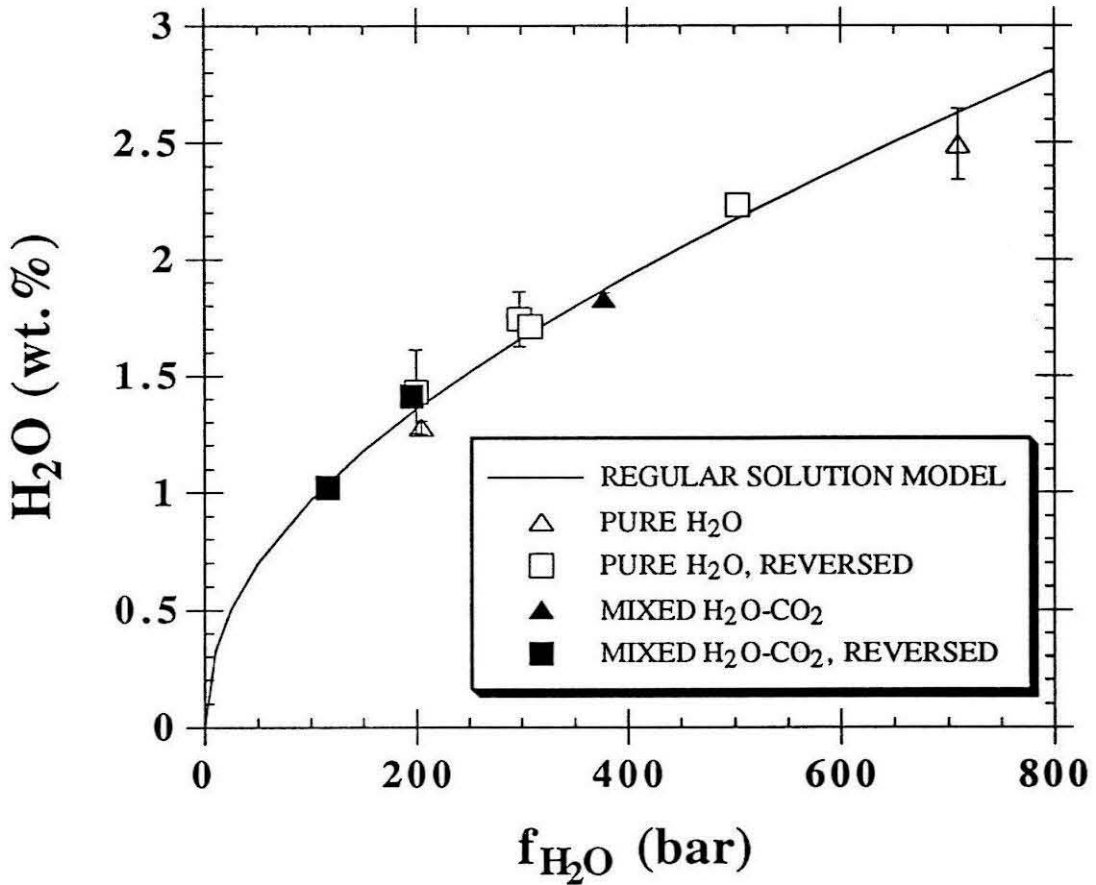


Figure 5: Comparison of molecular H_2O (wt.%) in MORB liquids in equilibrium with "pure" H_2O and mixed H_2O - CO_2 fluids. Error bars are 1 standard deviation of the mean for all analyses of glasses from a run. Symbols with no error bar have errors smaller than the size of the symbol. Curve calculated using a regular ternary solution model with the coefficients for albitic glasses (Silver and Stolper, 1989), where the activity of water in the melt is given by Henry's law for molecular water.

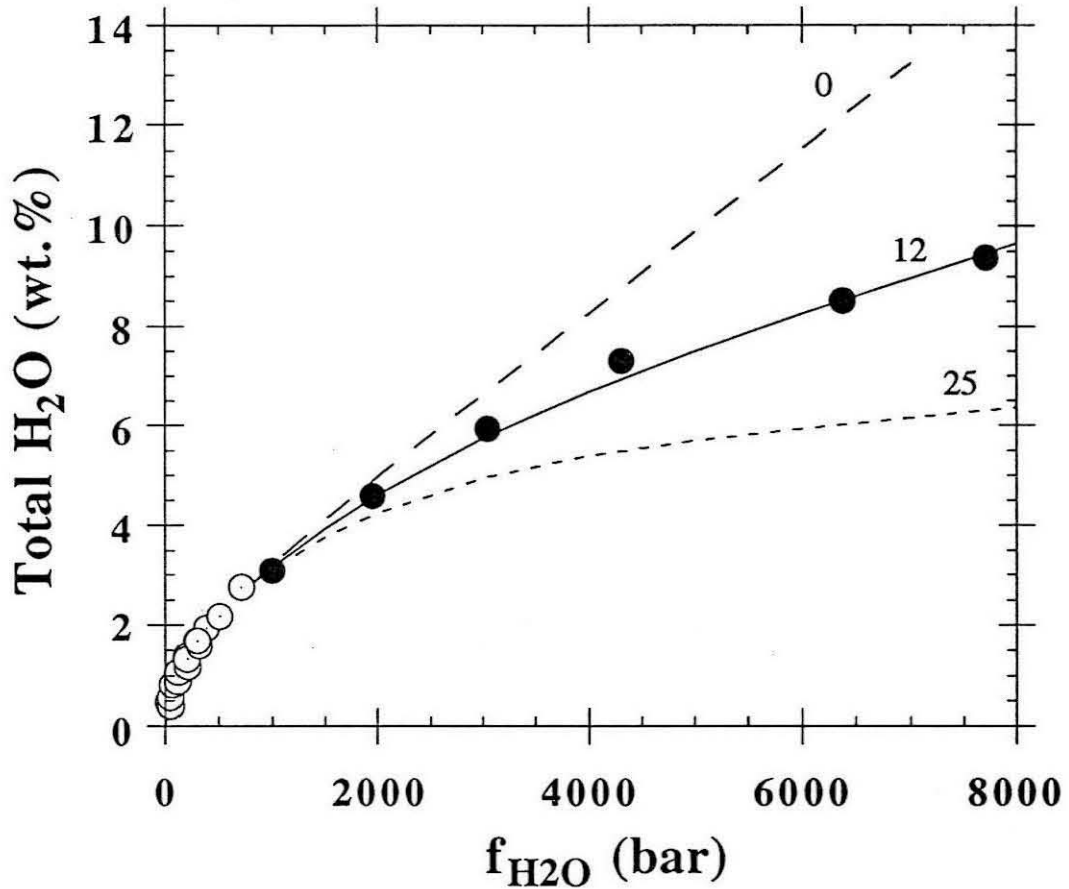


Figure 6: Comparison of new experimental results for the solubility of H_2O (wt.%) in MORB's (open circles) with previous results on a Columbia River basalt (filled circles, Hamilton et al., 1964). Curves calculated using the activity formulations of the regular solution model discussed in the text; numbers next to curves are the values of $V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0,m}$. A $V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0,m}$ of $12 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mole}$ provides the best fit to the data.

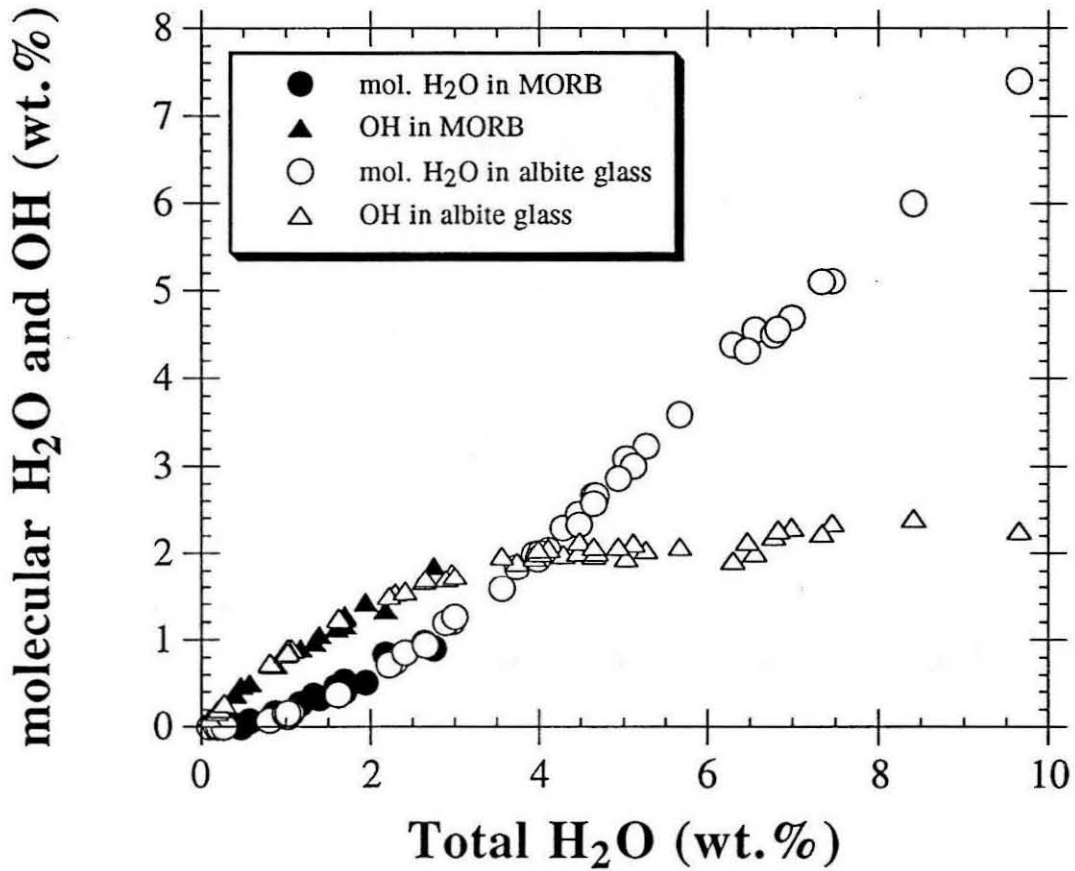


Figure 7a: The concentrations of water dissolved as molecular H₂O (circles) and as OH groups (triangles) as functions of total water (sum of mol. H₂O and OH). Albite samples synthesized in piston cylinder apparatus; data from Silver and Stolper (1989). MORB data from this study.

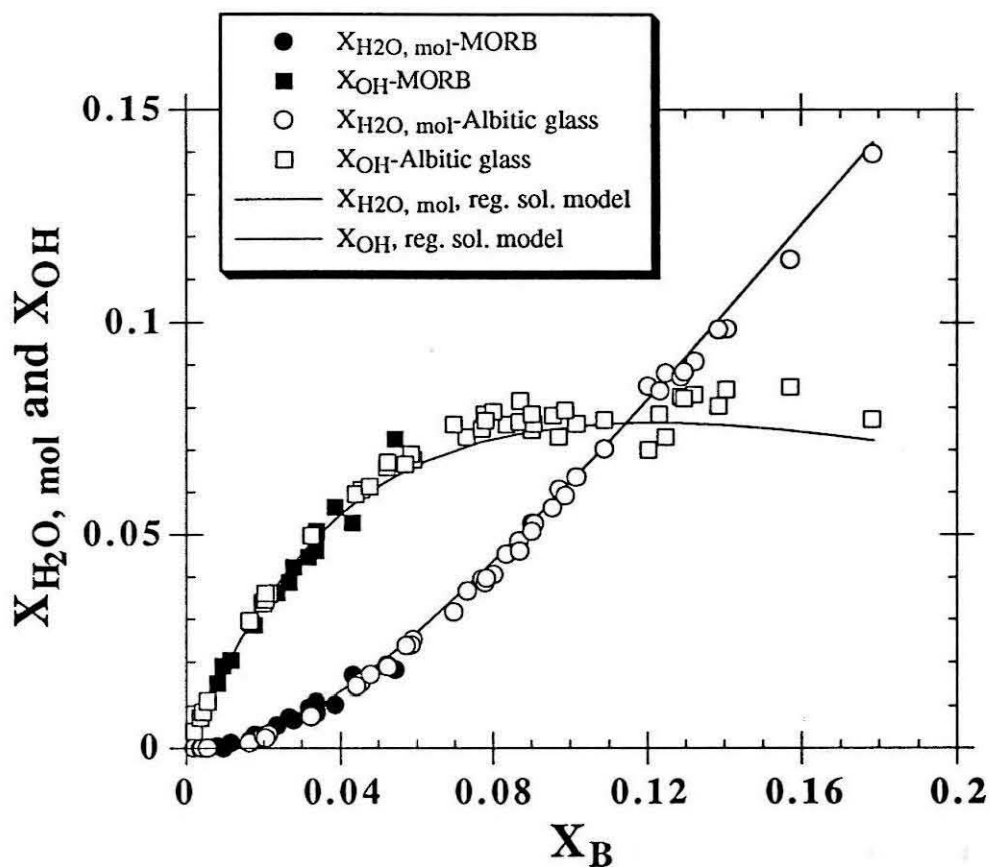


Figure 7b: Mole fractions of molecular water and hydroxyl groups as a function of mole fraction of total dissolved water. Curves generated using a regular solution model and the coefficients for albitic glass from Silver and Stolper (1989), where the activity of water in the melt is given by Henry's law for molecular water.

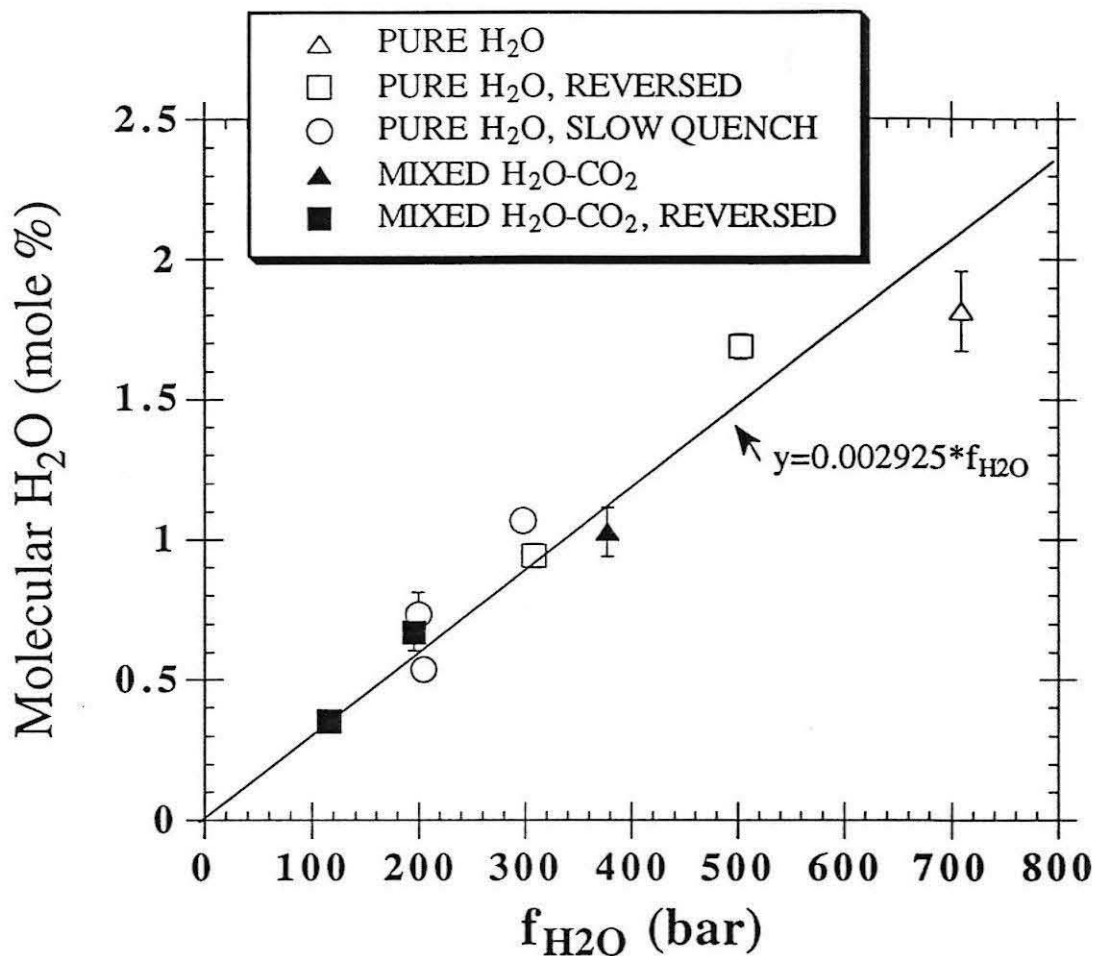


Figure 8: Linear relationship between molecular H₂O, determined from the 5230 cm⁻¹ absorbance, and f_{H₂O} indicates Henrian behavior over pressure range investigated.

Error bars are 1-σ errors; symbols with no error bars have errors smaller than the size of the symbol.

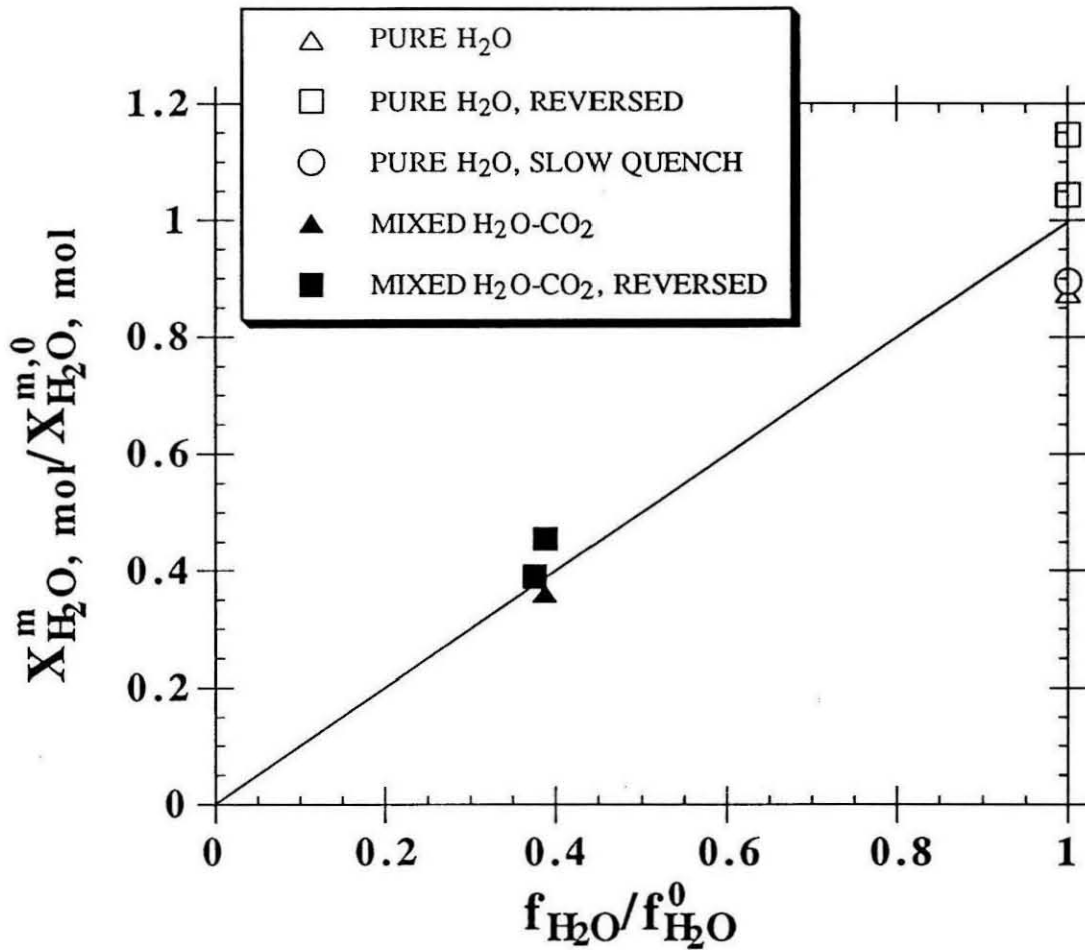


Figure 9: Plot of $X_{H_2O}^m / X_{H_2O}^{m,0}$ vs. $f_{H_2O} / f_{H_2O}^0$ showing that the ratio of the amount of molecular water dissolved in a melt in equilibrium with mixed H₂O-CO₂ vapor phase with respect to that dissolved in the melt in equilibrium with a pure H₂O vapor phase is equal to the ratio of the water fugacities in the mixed and pure vapors.

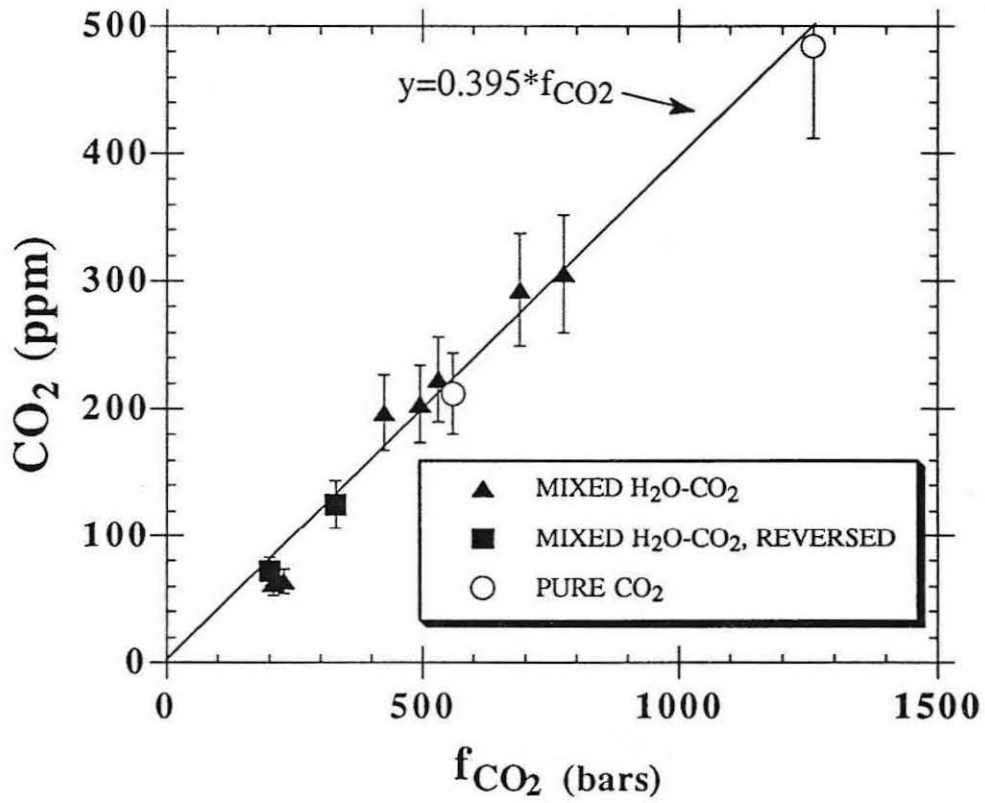


Figure 10: Plot of CO_2 (ppm) vs. f_{CO_2} showing that the solubility of carbon dioxide is a simple function of f_{CO_2} regardless of the composition of the vapor. Errors are 15% of the amount present.

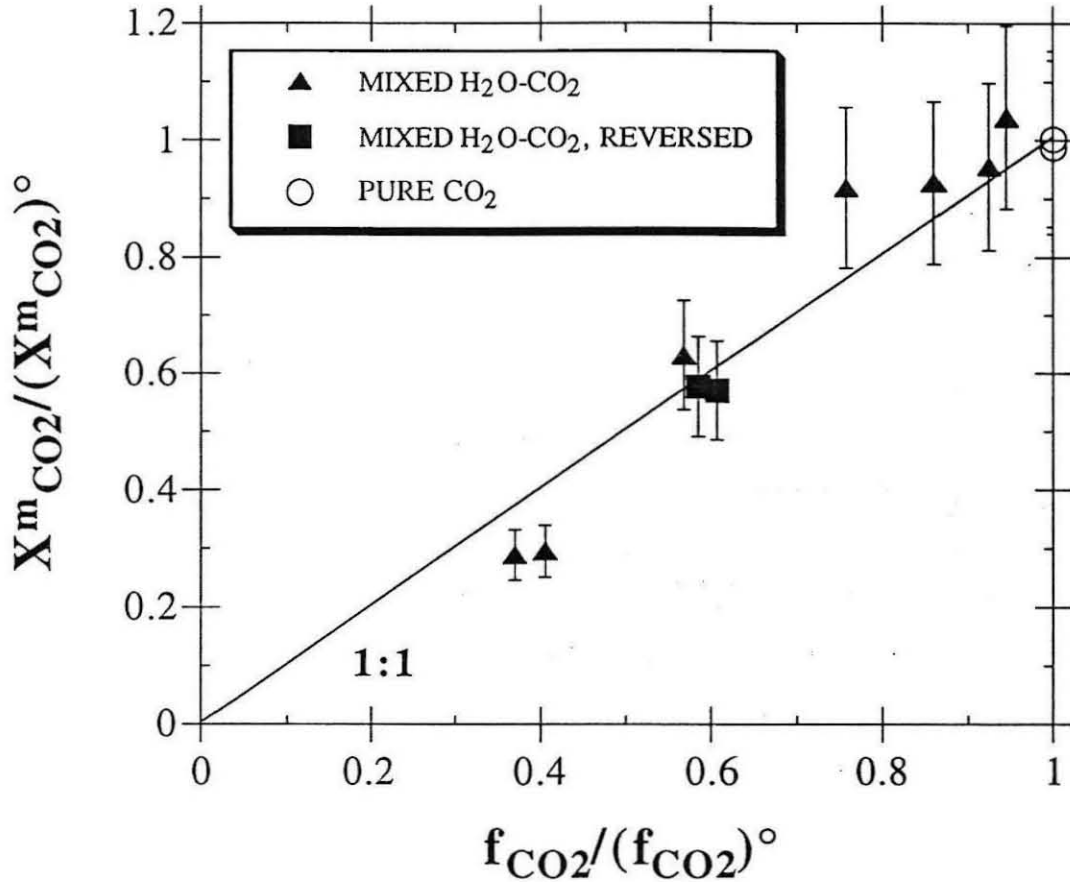


Figure 11: $X_{CO_2}/X_{CO_2}^\circ$ vs. $f_{CO_2}/f_{CO_2}^\circ$ showing that the ratio of the amount of carbon dioxide dissolved in a melt in equilibrium with mixed H₂O-CO₂ vapor phase with respect to that dissolved in the melt in equilibrium with a pure CO₂ vapor phase is equal to the ratio of the CO₂ fugacities in the mixed and pure vapors. Errors are 15% of the amount present.

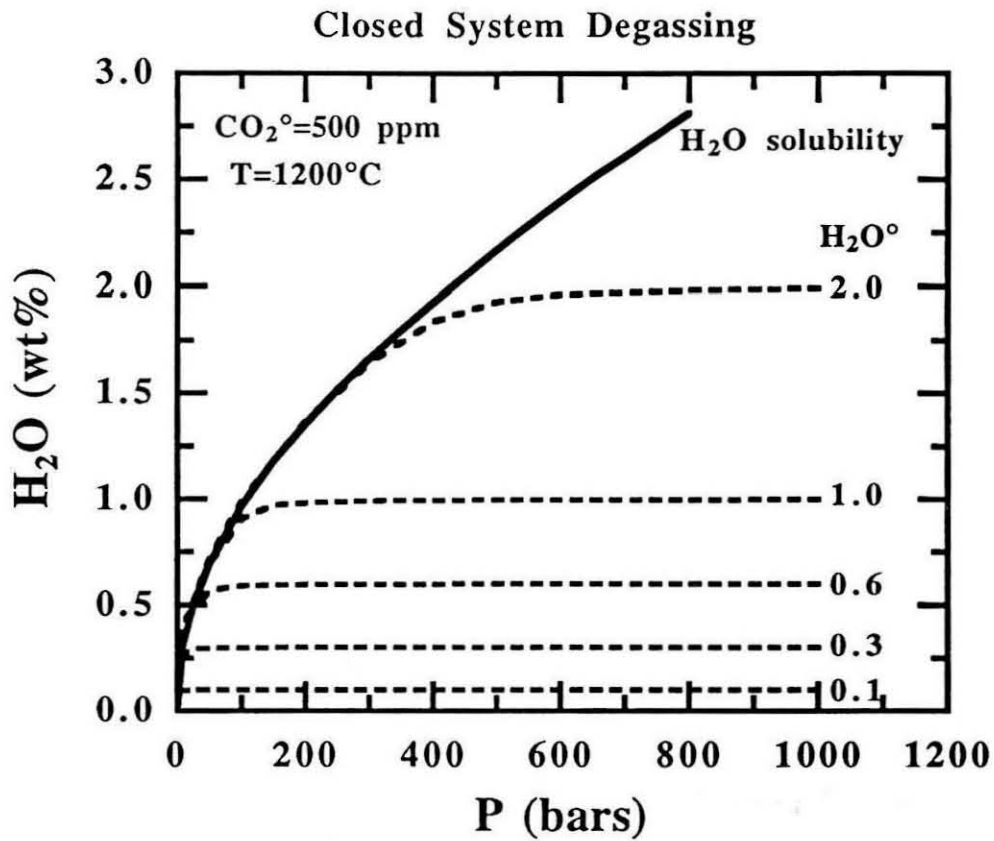


Figure 12: H_2O vs. P in vapor saturated basaltic melts for closed system degassing of melts initially containing 500 ppm CO_2 and a range of H_2O contents (0.1-2.0 wt.%). Solid line is solubility of water in equilibrium with pure water vapor. Dashed lines are degassing paths for melts with different initial water concentrations.

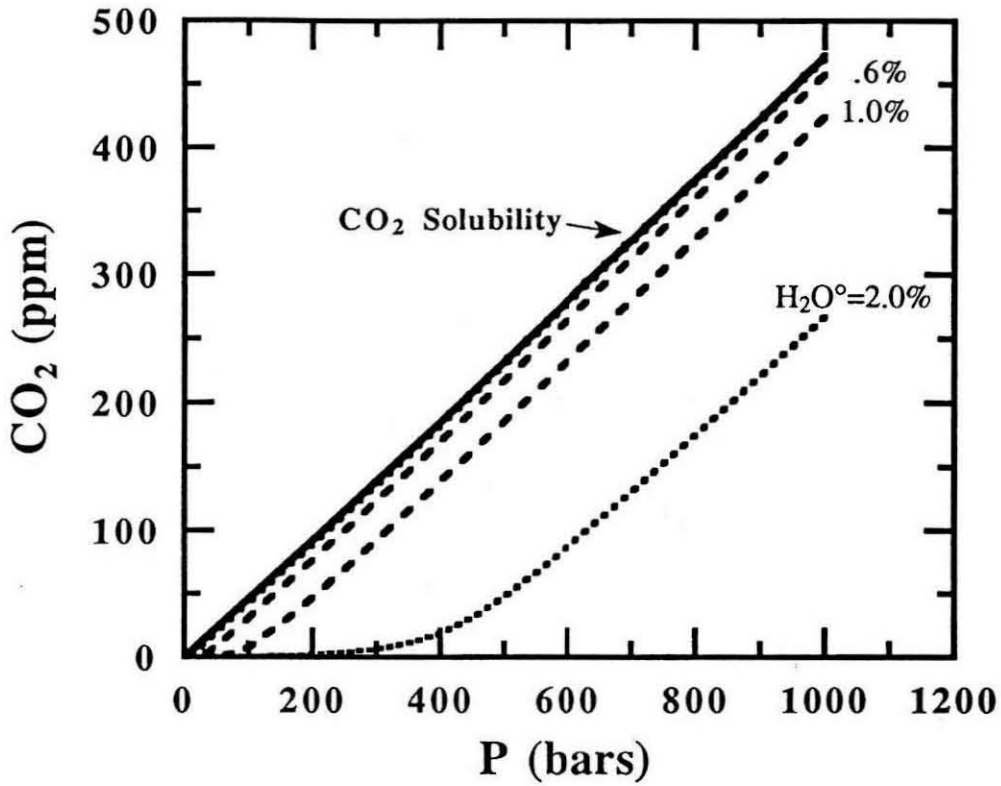


Figure 13: Vapor saturated values of CO₂ vs. P for closed system degassing of basaltic melts at 1200°C and initially containing 500 ppm CO₂ and a range of H₂O contents (0.1-2.0 wt.%). The trends for melts containing 0.1 and 0.3 wt.% H₂O overlap with the trend for pure CO₂ solubility (solid line).

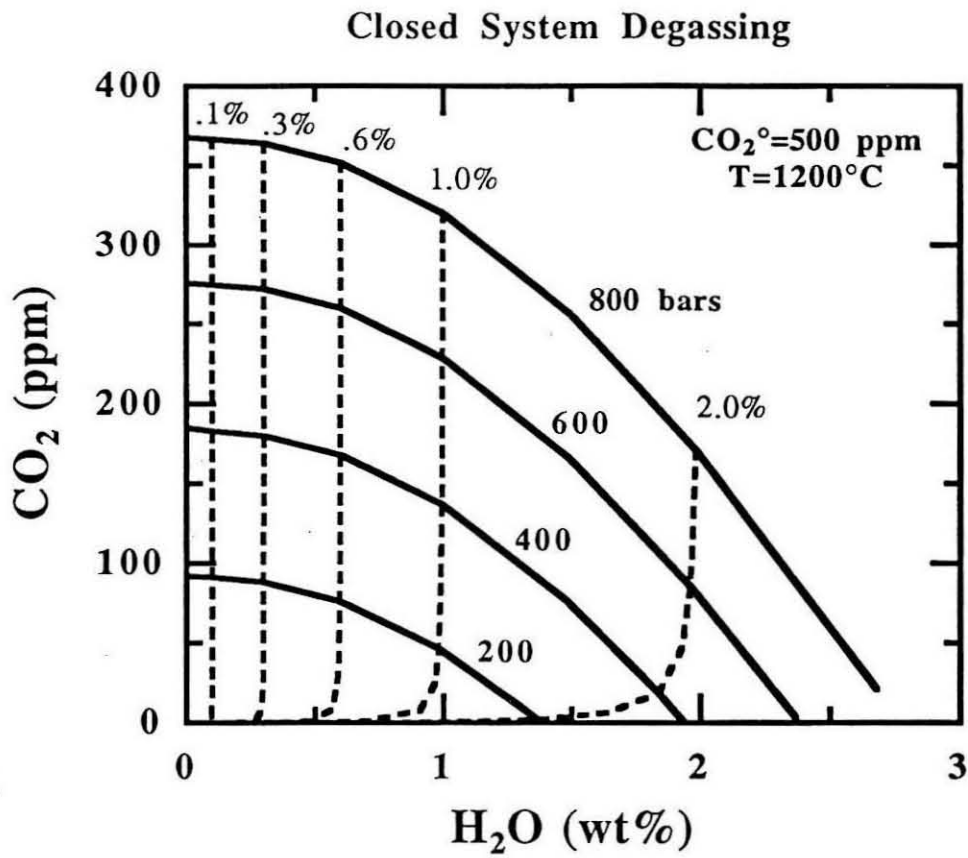


Figure 14: Inverse correlation between CO₂ and H₂O at constant pressure during closed system degassing. Solid lines are lines of constant pressure. Dashed lines represent degassing paths for different initial water contents with decreasing P.

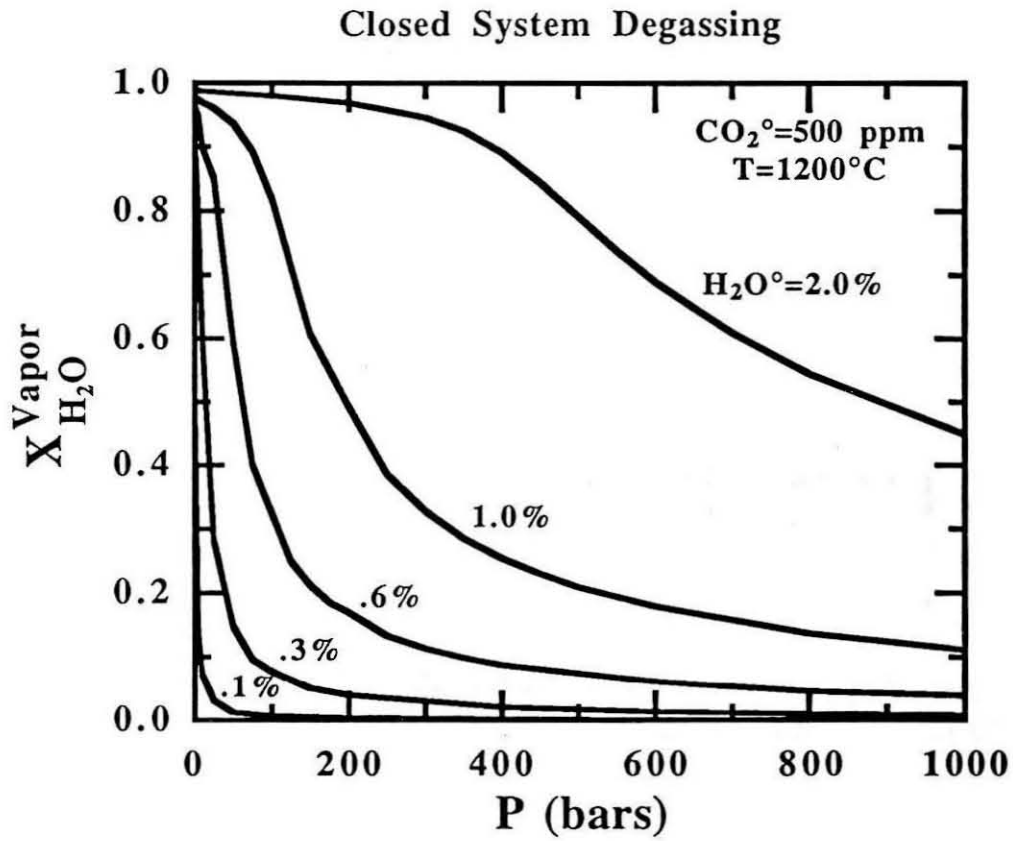


Figure 15: Variation in composition of mixed $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CO}_2$ vapor phase in equilibrium with basaltic melt during closed system degassing. Numbers next to curves represent initial water content of magma.

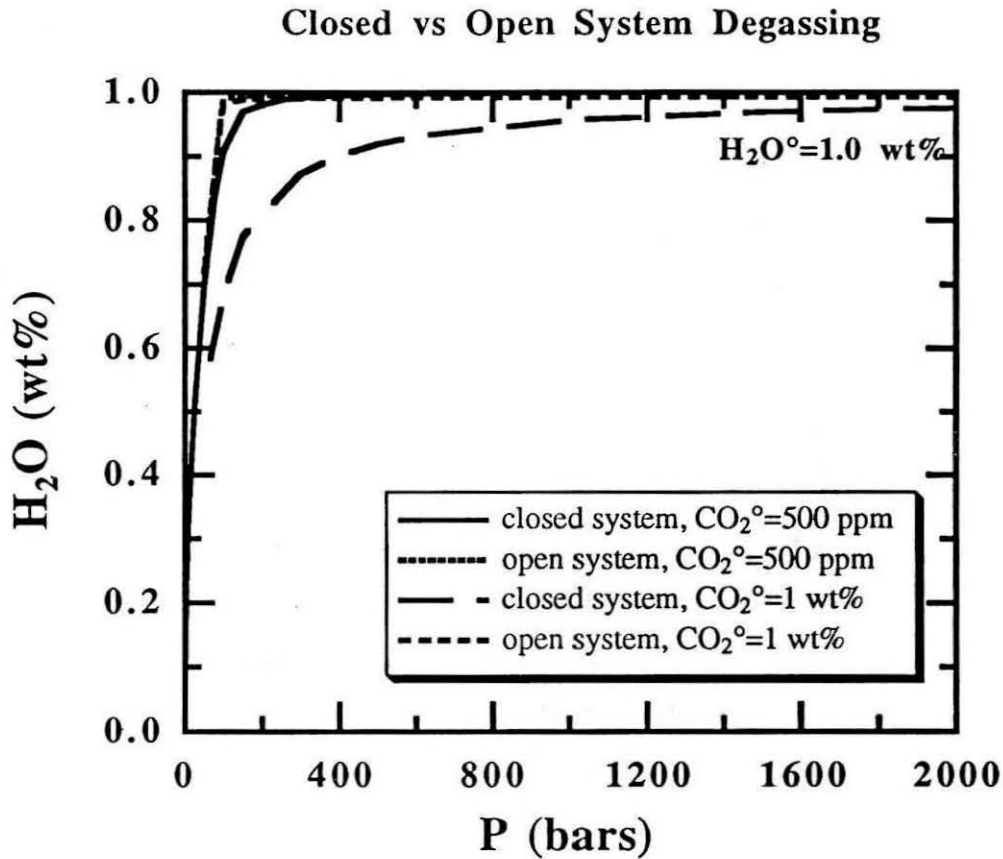


Figure 16: H_2O versus P for open and closed system degassing of basaltic melts with initial water contents of 1.0 wt.%. Results of closed and open system degassing are shown for two different initial CO_2 contents of 500 ppm and 1.0 wt.%. Saturation values for H_2O along the open system degassing paths (short-dashed lines) are identical regardless of the starting composition with negligible water loss until a pressure of about 80 bars is reached. Saturation values for H_2O are lower for the closed system degassing paths and are dependent on the initial composition

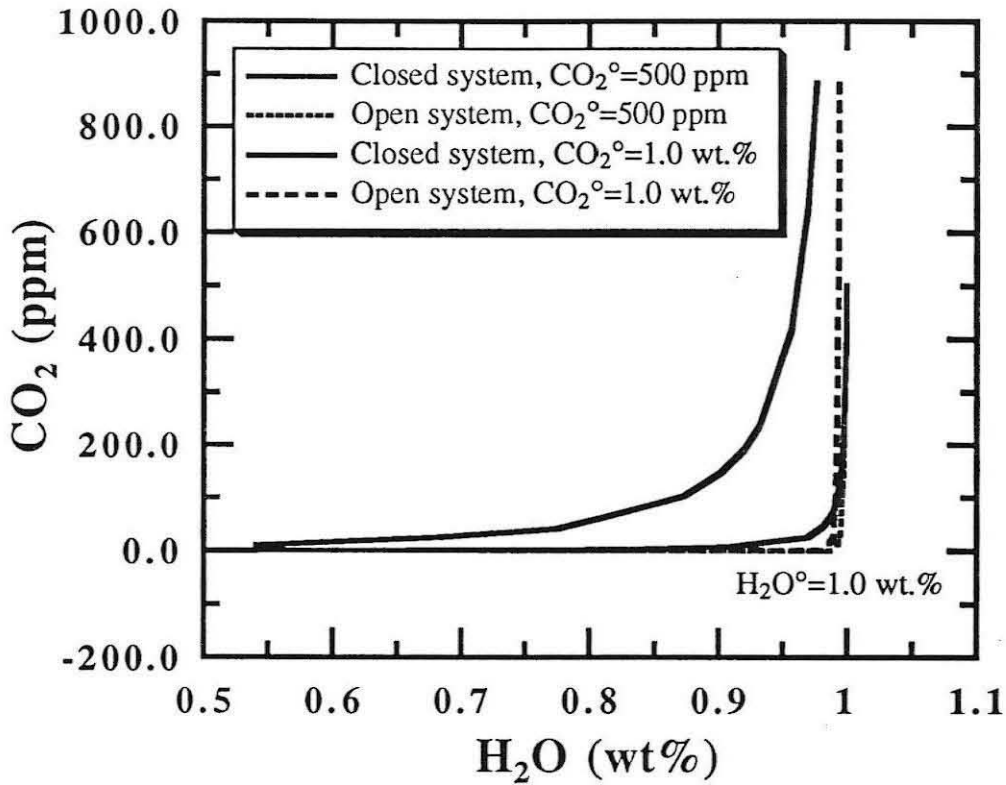


Figure 17: CO_2 versus H_2O for open and closed system degassing. Degassing paths are comparable to the dashed lines on Figure 14. Results for open system degassing (dashed lines) are identical regardless of the initial CO_2 concentration. During closed system degassing, degassing paths are a strong function of initial H_2O and CO_2 concentrations. The pressure at which significant loss of water begins increases as the initial concentration of CO_2 increases.

Chapter 2

**INFRARED SPECTROSCOPIC MEASUREMENTS OF CO₂ and H₂O
IN JUAN DE FUCA RIDGE BASALTIC GLASSES**

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90, 87-104.)

ABSTRACT

Dissolved H₂O and CO₂ contents in basaltic glasses from the Juan de Fuca Ridge and neighboring seamounts were determined by infrared spectroscopy. CO₂ contents range from about 45 to 360 ppm by weight, with carbonate ion complexes the only detectable form of dissolved carbon. Samples erupted at a given depth exhibit a large range in dissolved CO₂ contents that we interpret to be the result of variable amounts of degassing. The lowest CO₂ contents at each depth are in reasonable agreement with the experimentally determined CO₂ solubility curve for basalt at low pressures. All glasses with CO₂ values higher than the experimentally determined solubility at the eruption depth are oversaturated because of incomplete degassing. The highest CO₂ contents are spatially associated with the local topographic highs for each ridge segment. Lavas from relatively deep areas may have had greater opportunity to degas during ascent from a magma chamber or during lateral flow in dikes or seafloor lava flows. The highest observed CO₂ concentrations are from the axial seamount and lead to an estimate of a minimum depth to the magma chamber of 2.7 kilometers beneath the ridge axis.

H₂O contents vary from 0.07 to 0.48 wt %, with hydroxyl groups the only detectable form of dissolved water. Water contents correlate positively with FeO*/MgO and the highest water contents are found in the incompatible element enriched Endeavour segment lavas. Variations in ratios of water to other incompatible elements suggest that water has a bulk partition coefficient similar to La during partial melting ($D \sim 0.01$).

INTRODUCTION

The solubility of CO₂ in silicate liquids is so small at low pressures that most, if not all, terrestrial basaltic magmas exsolve a CO₂-rich vapor as they near the earth's surface. Since CO₂ solubility is roughly linear with pressure at low pressures and the pressure on erupting submarine magma is a linear function of water depth, an approximately linear correlation between depth of eruption and concentration of CO₂ dissolved in the melt is expected provided that magma is able to degas as it rises from depth or as it is emplaced on the ocean floor. In addition, for magmas having the same bulk CO₂ content but erupted at different water depths, a strong negative correlation between depth of eruption and vesicularity is expected. In contrast, H₂O is highly soluble in basaltic liquids even at low pressure. Thus, when mid-ocean ridge basalt (MORB) is erupted in water deeper than about 500 m, little of the water partitions into the vapor phase and water contents are not expected to correlate with eruption depth or extent of degassing [1-4].

The expectation of a positive correlation between extent of CO₂ degassing and eruption depth has had an important influence on thinking about volatile contents and eruptive behavior of submarine magmas. Moore and his coworkers [1-3, 5, 6] have written extensively on volatiles in submarine basalt and, in particular, have documented the expected negative correlation between vesicularity and eruption depth for individual suites. There also have been several claims, based on samples from a wide range of localities, that CO₂ contents in submarine basaltic glasses are positively correlated with depth [7-9]. In fact, in the absence of experimental determinations of CO₂ solubility in basalts at low pressure, Harris [7] and Des Marais and Moore [8] used observed relationships between depth and CO₂ concentration in basaltic glasses to constrain the pressure dependence of CO₂ solubility in basaltic melts.

Despite the attractiveness of this framework for thinking about the behavior of CO₂ in submarine basalt, there is still considerable uncertainty about CO₂ contents of basaltic glasses. Measurements by different techniques on the same samples can vary by more than an order of magnitude, and causes of these discrepancies are the subject of much debate [10-14]. Using an infrared spectroscopic technique that is specific to carbon dioxide dissolved in the glass, Fine and Stolper [10] showed that dissolved CO₂ contents in submarine basaltic glasses are lower than previously reported and uncorrelated with depth. However, because unrelated samples from a wide range of localities were compared, these results do not give an optimum test of whether there exists a linear correlation between eruption depth and dissolved CO₂ content.

In this study, we measured dissolved CO₂ and H₂O contents of a petrologically and geologically well characterized suite of basaltic glasses from the Juan de Fuca Ridge and neighboring seamounts [15-31] using the infrared spectroscopic technique of Fine and Stolper [10]. Covering a range of eruption depths along a single ridge axis, these samples provide an ideal opportunity to examine the relationship between depth and dissolved CO₂ content in a set of closely related samples. We will show that the expected correlation between dissolved CO₂ content and depth is not observed, probably because many magmas erupted in this area rose so rapidly from depth that there was not enough time for them to degas fully. Comparison of volatile contents with other parameters also leads to insights into the factors controlling the volatile element geochemistry of mid-ocean ridge magmas.

GEOLOGIC SETTING

The Juan de Fuca Ridge is a medium-rate spreading center with a half spreading rate of approximately 30 mm/yr. Based on high resolution bathymetry, Delaney et al. [26] divided the Juan de Fuca Ridge into eight segments roughly 50 km in length (Figure 1).

The northernmost Endeavour segment is offset 30 km to the west of the remainder of the Juan de Fuca Ridge (segments 1-7 numbered from south to north) at the Cobb Offset, an area of overlapping spreading centers caused by northward propagation of segment 7 into the Juan de Fuca Plate [17, 18, 22]. The Juan de Fuca Ridge south of the Cobb Offset is bisected by an axial seamount at the intersection of the Cobb-Eickleburg Seamount chain and the ridge [16]. Segments 1 through 3 and 6 through 4 shift progressively westward toward the axial seamount in a symmetric pattern (Figure 1) [16]. The neovolcanic zone is shallowest at the summit caldera of the axial seamount (1425 m) and deepens to ~2200 m toward the distal ends of segments 3 and 4. Segments 2 and 5 are deeper (2200 to 2700 m) and have broad axial rift valleys 7 to 10 km wide. Segments 1 and 6 have extremely linear and narrow axial rift valleys less than 1.5 km wide. There is a good correlation between shallow topography, hydrothermal activity, and voluminous recent volcanic eruptions [23, 28].

The distribution of seamounts is highly asymmetric with most on the Pacific Plate. The Cobb-Eickleberg seamount chain is the largest and longest-lived seamount chain in the area and is thought to have a hotspot origin [15, 32, 33]. There are also many short chains and isolated volcanoes, not associated with hotspots, that were probably produced close to the ridge axis [15, 34, 35]. Davis and Karsten [25] hypothesized that the asymmetric generation of non-hotspot seamounts is related to the rapid ridge-perpendicular migration rate of the Juan de Fuca Ridge over a heterogeneous source region.

Geochemistry

South of the Cobb Offset the lavas are tholeiites characterized by low K_2O (<0.30 wt %) and variable iron and titanium enrichment probably caused by up to 50 % fractional

crystallization of olivine, plagioclase, and clinopyroxene in the approximate proportions of 1:5:1, respectively [16, 26, 30]. The most highly evolved lavas are ferrobasalts that occur near the Juan de Fuca Ridge-Blanco Fracture Zone intersection (southern end of segment 1) and 20 to 30 km south of the Cobb propagating rift tip (northern end of segment 6) [16]. Although the Cobb-Eickleburg Seamount chain has been proposed as a hotspot trace [e.g., 36], no systematic trends along the ridge away from the axial seamount have been found in trace elements [30], rare earth elements (REE) [19], or Sr-isotopes [20]. Basalts from segments 1-7 of the Juan de Fuca Ridge have low $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of 0.70233 to 0.70267 [20] characteristic of depleted MORB source regions, but their trace element contents and ratios are transitional between enriched and depleted MORB [30]. (We use "enriched" and "depleted" only to refer to chemical composition, and do not imply that a particular physical process relates the various mantle source regions.) For example, the Zr/Nb ratios are ~20, intermediate between high ratios of >35 for depleted MORB and low ratios of ~10 for enriched MORB [37]. Similarly, La/Sm ratios range from 0.5 to 0.9, higher than a range of 0.3 to 0.5 more typical of depleted MORB [e.g., 38, 39].

The lavas from the Endeavour segment are geochemically distinct, and are tholeiites characterized by high concentrations of incompatible elements [26, 30]. For example, the average K_2O content is about double that south of the Cobb Offset. They also have lower total FeO and higher SiO_2 and Na_2O contents for a given MgO content. Differences in major elements between Endeavour segment lavas and those south of the Cobb Offset may reflect generation of the magmas parental to the Endeavour segment lavas by smaller degrees of partial melting at shallower depths in the mantle [e.g., 40]. Ratios of highly incompatible elements are typical of enriched MORB. The samples are slightly light REE enriched ($\text{La}/\text{Sm} > 1$) and have Zr/Nb ratios that range from 7 to 16 [30]. $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios do not show a similar enrichment (0.70243 to 0.70259), perhaps reflecting a relatively recent source region enrichment [20].

The seamount lavas are tholeiites with compositions similar to those of the lavas from the Juan de Fuca Ridge south of the Cobb Offset [24].

SAMPLES

Most samples were selected from dredge hauls from cruises 063, 152, 170, and 175 of the R/V T. Thompson (University of Washington) and cruise 81-017 of the R/V Hudson (University of British Columbia). Additional samples from the axial seamount (Pisces 1326) were obtained by submersible. Ridge crest samples are from dredges spaced approximately 10 km apart. Seamount samples are from Cobb-Eickleberg, Vance, Springfield, and Heck seamount chains, and the Explorer Seamount (Figure 1). Compared to ridge crest samples, seamount sample depths are less well known because of downslope transport and large depth ranges sampled by dredging. The glasses analyzed in this study are from splits of glasses used in other petrologic studies [16, 19-21, 24, 30, 41].

ANALYTICAL TECHNIQUES

Glass chips were doubly polished to a thickness of approximately 100 μm . Each glass chip was placed over a 400 μm in diameter aperture, positioned so that the infrared beam passed through pale brown glass avoiding crystals, devitrified zones, and vesicles. Transmission infrared spectra in the 4000 to 1200 cm^{-1} (2.5 to 8.3 microns) range were collected on a Nicolet 60SX FTIR spectrometer [42]. Typically, 2000 to 2048 scans were collected for each spectrum. The spectrum of an anhydrous, decarbonated sample of TT152-43-19, melted at 1 atm on a Pt loop at 1315°C at QFM and then quenched in water, was subtracted from the sample spectra as a background correction.

The concentrations of H₂O and CO₂ were determined according to the Beer-Lambert law from the intensities of the 3535 cm⁻¹ and 1515-1435 cm⁻¹ bands [10, 42] using the molar absorption coefficient and integral molar absorption coefficient for CO₂ dissolved as carbonate in basaltic glass from Fine and Stolper [10]. The molar absorption coefficient for H₂O in basaltic glass is taken to be 63 ± 5 L/mol-cm (P. Dobson, S. Newman, S. Epstein, and E. Stolper, unpublished results).

Volume percent and size distribution of vesicles were determined for some samples. Analysis was done in reflected light on polished thin sections by counting numbers of vesicles contained in areas of 0.3 cm² (100 adjacent fields of view with a 20X objective) or 1.3 cm² (100 adjacent fields of view with a 10X objective; used only for samples with vesicles >600 μm in diameter). The diameter of each vesicle was measured at the vesicle-surface intersection and its area calculated. The volume percent of vesicles for each sample was calculated by dividing the area of vesicles by the total area examined. Bubbles that overlapped adjacent fields of view were counted if they intersected the bottom or left boundary and ignored if they intersected the top or right boundary. The glass chips used for infrared analysis were too small to give statistically significant numbers of vesicles, so larger thin sections of the outer glassy rind of the sample were used for vesicle content determinations. The thin sections used for point counting and glass chips used for infrared analysis were often from slightly different locations on the glassy rim of the sample, so that vesicle contents measured in thin sections sometimes differ from those in the glass chips analyzed for volatiles. Where vesicle populations in different thin sections from the same sample are significantly different, they are listed separately in Table 2.

RESULTS

Locations, depths, concentrations of selected major elements, and concentrations of CO₂ (ppm by weight) and H₂O (wt %) are given in Table 1. Vesicle contents of thin sections are given in Table 2. Some of the data are presented graphically in Figures 2-9.

Precision and Accuracy

In order to assess the precision of our CO₂ measurements, several spectra (2-4) were collected on a single glass chip or on texturally similar glass chips from the same split for a number of samples. Repeat spectra on the same glass chip were obtained for 6 samples and yielded CO₂ contents reproducible to within 7 %. Multiple spectra on texturally similar chips from the same split were obtained for 7 samples and yielded CO₂ contents reproducible to within 13 %. These errors are similar to those reported previously using the same technique [10, 42]. The poorer reproducibility for analyses of different glass chips may reflect minor sample heterogeneity. Glasses from the same dredge but with different textural appearance (e.g., amount of devitrification) have concentrations that differ by up to almost 40 % and are listed separately.

Concentrations of water based on multiple spectra from the same glass chip vary less than 3 %. Typical $1\hat{A}$ values for analyses of different chips from the same split are also usually about 3 %, but variations of up to about 20 % are occasionally observed and may reflect sample heterogeneity.

The accuracy of the reported concentrations is limited primarily by uncertainties in the molar absorption coefficients. These are thought to be known to within 15 % or better

for the carbonate bands [10] and to about 10 % for the hydroxyl band at 3535 cm^{-1} in basalts.

Vesicularity

Different thin sections of the same sample can show significant textural heterogeneity (e.g., TT152-29-1). For samples from which several texturally similar thin sections were point counted, the vesicle content listed in Table 2 is the average of the values of the individual thin sections. Vesicles range in size from a few microns to about 1 mm. Large vesicles dominate the total volume percent vesicles, and the diameter of the largest vesicle is roughly correlated with the total volume percent vesicles. Ridge crest samples contain less than 2.3 total volume % vesicles with most having less than 1.5 %. Higher values of up to 3.1 volume % were found for seamount samples. Concentrations of vesicles less than $40\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ in diameter are highest for the ridge crest samples and range up to 0.35 %. For two samples, thin sections cut perpendicular to the cooling surface contained both glassy and devitrified areas. In these two thin sections, the partially devitrified areas are richer in vesicles than the glassy areas.

CO₂ Contents

The only form of dissolved carbon dioxide found in these samples is carbonate ion complexes, in agreement with the results of Fine and Stolper [10]. CO₂ concentrations range from 45 to 360 ppm. Two samples did not contain detectable CO₂. One of these, HU81017-31-2, was collected at a depth of 800 m, the shallowest in this study. The other sample, HU81017-2-4, was extremely thin ($40\text{ }\mu\text{m}$) and the lack of detectable CO₂ probably reflects sample thickness instead of an anomalously low CO₂ content.

Figure 2 shows dissolved CO₂ content vs. vesicularity for the samples we studied. In cases where thin sections of the same sample showed a wide range of vesicle contents, the vesicle content plotted on Figure 2 corresponds to data from the thin section most similar in texture to the glass chip analyzed for CO₂. There is no correlation between dissolved CO₂ content and total vesicle content, though all the data are confined to the lower left part of the figure and appear to be approximately bounded by the sort of trend expected for closed system degassing. Samples with the largest bubbles (diameter >1 mm) have low CO₂ contents. Most samples with CO₂ contents greater than 200 ppm have abundant (>0.08 volume %) bubbles less than 40 μm in diameter (Figure 3). Samples analyzed by IR containing more than a dozen bubbles smaller than 40 μm per glass chip (a few mm²) are labelled on the figures with a "b" next to their symbol.

Glassy rims of pillows typically have a textural gradation from glassy at the margin to inwardly increasing degrees of devitrification [44]. The outer centimeter can be subdivided into four zones: glass (~3 mm thick), glass with isolated spherulites (~4 mm thick), glass with partially coalesced spherulites (~1-2 mm thick), and fully coalesced spherulites (~1-2 mm thick) [44]. Although most glasses analyzed in this study are clear brown glass and probably came from the outer few mm of the glassy rind, a few samples have devitrification rims up to 140 μm thick around phenocrysts. Two different glass chips, one with devitrification rims and the other without, were analyzed at each of two dredge locations (TT170-5 and TT175-61). Even though the aperture was placed to avoid the devitrified rims, the CO₂ contents of glasses from samples with partial devitrification are 70 to 100 ppm lower than those of glasses from undevitrified samples from the same locality. Moreover, the three lowest CO₂ contents in samples from the Endeavour segment (TT175-17-14, TT175-40-3, and TT175-54-4) were measured in glasses with devitrified zones. In the two thin sections that contained the textural gradation from glassy to fully devitrified (TT152-77-6 and TT152-61), the volume percent vesicles measured in glassy

regions of the partially devitrified areas is a few tenths of a percent higher than that in undevitrified areas. Likewise, the difference in vesicle contents between partially devitrified regions and clear glassy regions in two different thin sections of TT170-5 is 0.38 % (1.81 vs. 1.43 volume %). Roughly 120 ppm CO₂ must exsolve to form 0.38 % vesicles, similar to the observed CO₂ depletion of the partially devitrified sample relative to the glassy one. We do not have an explanation for how the glass in samples that are partially devitrified could have become depleted in CO₂. The cooling times for the glassy rinds of pillows are much too fast for significant bubble growth to occur [45] and more work is needed to determine whether our observations on these few samples are significant. Nevertheless, because they appear anomalous, analyses of glasses from partially devitrified samples, shown with a "d" next to them on the figures, are not included in the discussion of the general trends in the data.

CO₂ concentrations are plotted versus depth in Figure 4. Also shown is the best fit solubility curve of CO₂ in basalt at 1200°C for pressures up to 1.5 kilobars determined using infrared spectroscopy [42]. Our measurements of dissolved CO₂ contents do not show a positive correlation with depth. Most glasses have CO₂ concentrations in excess of the experimentally determined solubility for the pressure of eruption. Even including the partially devitrified samples, the lowest CO₂ concentrations at a given depth agree within error with the 250 bar solubility measurements [42]. The only undevitrified sample that falls below the best fit solubility curve is TT152-13, the most fractionated composition analyzed, but even this sample has a CO₂ content within measurement error of the 250 bar solubility.

CO₂ contents of samples south of the Cobb Offset show a weak negative correlation with depth (Figures 5c and 6), exactly opposite the trend expected from the pressure dependence of CO₂ solubility in basalt. The highest CO₂ concentrations occur in

lavas from the axial seamount caldera and range from 237 to 360 ppm. When CO₂ contents are plotted against position along the ridge (Figure 6), the highest CO₂ contents are associated with the local topographic highs for each segment.

Samples from the seamounts and Endeavour segment (Figures 5a and b) tend to have lower CO₂ contents (<220 ppm) than those from south of the Cobb Offset, with the lowest values (excepting the partially devitrified samples) close to the experimentally determined solubility. The highest CO₂ content from the Endeavour segment is spatially associated with the topographic high (Figure 6), but there is no clear negative correlation between CO₂ and depth as is seen for samples south of the Cobb Offset.

CO₂ contents do not correlate with degree of fractionation (FeO*/MgO) or incompatible element enrichment.

H₂O Contents

Hydroxyl groups are the only detectable form of dissolved water. H₂O contents vary from 0.07 to 0.48 wt %. Water contents of partially devitrified samples are not significantly different from those in glassy samples (e.g., TT170-5A and -5B). Water contents of the ridge samples correlate positively, though with considerable scatter, with FeO*/MgO ratios (Figure 7), K₂O contents (Figure 8), rare earth element contents (Figure 9a-d), and the concentrations of highly incompatible trace elements such as Zr and Nb (Figure 9e and f). Samples from the Endeavour segment have higher water and incompatible element contents than those south of the Cobb Offset at the same FeO*/MgO ratio. On a plot of H₂O versus La the Endeavour segment samples are colinear with those from south of the Cobb Offset on a line that passes through the origin. When water contents are plotted versus progressively heavier (more compatible) REE, the fields for the

Endeavour segment samples are displaced progressively toward higher water/REE ratios (Figures 9a-c). On a plot of water versus Zr, the Endeavour segment data are roughly colinear with data from south of the Cobb Offset on a line that passes through the origin (Figure 9e), but the Endeavour segment samples have lower H₂O/Nb ratios than samples from south of the Cobb Offset (Figure 9f). The seamount samples have water contents less than 0.3 wt %, similar to samples south of the Cobb Offset.

COMPARISON TO OTHER STUDIES

Splits from some of the samples analyzed in this study have been analyzed for CO₂ by Blank et al. [41] using combustion/manometry. The high temperature portion of their data ranges from 140 to 540 ppm CO₂. Dissolved CO₂ contents of 130 ppm were measured on three "vesicle-free" glasses from the southern Juan de Fuca Ridge near the location of TT152-37 by Brett et al. [46] using thermal and laser vacuum extraction techniques combined with quantitative capacitance manometry. The results from these studies are similar to ours. As discussed in the INTRODUCTION, however, measurements of CO₂ contents of MORBs are not without controversy. Although values determined by infrared spectroscopy [10, this study], combustion/manometry [8, 41], or pyrolysis/manometry [7, 46, 47] are typically less than about 400 ppm by weight, the dissolved CO₂ contents of MORB determined by one pyrolysis/manometry study [48] and vacuum fusion/quadrupole mass spectrometry studies [12, 49-51] on the same or similar samples are a factor of two to an order of magnitude higher. Possible explanations for the higher CO₂ contents obtained by fusion/quadrupole mass spectrometry are discussed elsewhere [10, 11].

Concentrations of water in Juan de Fuca Ridge glasses measured in this study using the infrared spectroscopic technique are consistent with those obtained on MORB glasses

by a variety of other techniques such as the Penfield method, vacuum fusion/mass spectrometry, vacuum fusion/manometry, and gas chromatography [1, 7, 12, 21, 46, 49-52]. The range of H₂O contents found in Juan de Fuca Ridge lavas south of the Cobb Offset (0.15 - 0.36 wt %) is essentially identical to the results reported by Moore [1] obtained using the Penfield method on samples from the same region. Splits from some of the samples analyzed in this study have been analyzed for H₂O and D/H ratios by Kyser and O'Neil [21] using pyrolysis/manometry. There is a good correspondence between the two data sets, although their values are lower by about 0.02 to 0.11 wt % H₂O.

CO₂ VERSUS DEPTH

The most significant aspect of our data on dissolved CO₂ contents is that many of the glasses contain CO₂ in excess of its solubility for the hydrostatic pressure at the depth of eruption [see also 10, 42]. The simplest explanation for the existence of glasses supersaturated with respect to CO₂-rich vapor is that they rose from depth and erupted on such short time scales that vapor exsolution did not proceed to completion prior to quenching. Magmas that rise more slowly to the ocean floor from underlying magma chambers and/or pond near the ocean floor prior to eruption and quenching will have more opportunity to nucleate and grow bubbles. These magmas may reach equilibrium and will contain dissolved CO₂ contents corresponding approximately to the CO₂ solubility at the hydrostatic pressure of the eruption depth.

Since many submarine basaltic glasses are supersaturated with respect to CO₂, estimates of solubility based on observed CO₂ contents of basalts at a given depth [e.g., 7, 8] could yield overestimates of CO₂ solubility. On the other hand, the pressure dependence of CO₂ solubility could be determined by comparing the lowest dissolved CO₂ contents of basalts erupted at different depths.

As expected, the lowest CO₂ concentrations at a given depth lie near the measured solubility curve [42]. Sample TT152-13 has a CO₂ concentration of 56 ± 10 ppm (1 $\hat{\text{A}}$) and is the only undevitrified sample that falls below the best fit solubility, although within the reported uncertainty it overlaps with the solubility data [42]. This sample is the most highly evolved of the samples we studied, but it is unlikely that CO₂ solubility in a fractionated basaltic melt is significantly different from that in more primitive basaltic melts at the same temperature [53]. However, the approximate liquidus temperature for TT152-13 is 1160°C [C. Langmuir and T. Plank, personal communication], lower than liquidus temperatures for most of the other samples (1190-1240°C) [54]. Since CO₂ solubility may be a strong positive function of temperature [42], this might account for the low CO₂ content of this fractionated basalt.

Based on our interpretation of the extent of CO₂ degassing in submarine basalts, the degree of CO₂ supersaturation provides information about relative ascent rates and lengths of time magmas were at or near the seafloor prior to quenching. Although our sampling is limited, the most supersaturated glasses along each ridge segment (~50 km) occur at the summit and the least supersaturated glasses occur at the deeper, distal ends (Figures 5c and 6). On the scale of the entire Juan de Fuca Ridge (~500 km), the highest CO₂ contents occur in glasses from the axial seamount caldera, the summit of the largest topographic anomaly along the ridge (Figure 6).

The observed correlation between ridge topography and CO₂ supersaturation, opposite the common expectation that CO₂ contents are higher for samples erupted at greater depths, suggests some constraints on the dynamics of magma emplacement. Several factors reflecting directions and rates of magma supply need to be considered. (1) Decreasing CO₂ contents with increasing depth along a single ridge segment may reflect

greater opportunities for degassing during lateral flow away from the zone of magma replenishment, either at the surface or in subaxial rifts, analogous to the Kilauea East Rift Zone [55, 56] or Icelandic fissure eruptions [57]. Evidence in support of lateral transport of magma away from axial highs comes from recent models of magmatic segmentation of mid-ocean ridges [33, 58-60]. Overlapping spreading centers and small ridge crest discontinuities also are interpreted to result from misalignment of magmatic pulses that have propagated laterally away from the shallow zone of magma replenishment [61, 62]. (2) If magma is supplied to the deeper portions of the ridge primarily in a vertical direction, greater degrees of degassing may indicate longer transit times between the magma chamber and the surface, either because the magma chamber is deeper, or ascent rates are lower. (3) The high CO₂ contents of glasses from the summit of the axial seamount may indicate extremely short transit times between the magma chamber and the surface reflecting either a shallower magma chamber or higher ascent rates at this location than at deeper portions of the ridge. Ascent rates along mid-ocean ridges are poorly known, but several models predict that there should be along-strike variations in the depth to the magma chamber. Francheteau and Ballard [59] presented a model in which each accretionary ridge segment is underlain by a magma chamber that is largest and shallowest where the ridge crest is shallowest. The high heat flux associated with a large magma chamber causes thinning of the crustal lid, enhanced hydrothermal circulation, and isostatic uplift. Because the crustal lid is thinnest at the axial high, erupting magmas might be relatively undegassed, as they have traversed the shortest, most direct path from the magma reservoir. Observations of voluminous volcanic outpouring [28] and hydrothermal activity [23] at the shallowest part of each ridge segment of the Juan de Fuca Ridge are consistent with this model. Also, results of seismic reflection studies [31] show that the reflector interpreted to be the top of a magma chamber is deeper relative to the ocean floor where the ridge crest is deeper.

Estimates of depths to magma chambers have been attempted by determining the minimum pressure necessary to keep the dissolved CO₂ in supersaturated melts in solution [42]. This calculation assumes that magmas in the magma chamber were vapor-saturated, that they resided in the magma chamber long enough to have established melt-vapor equilibrium [see 49], and that minimal degassing occurred during ascent and eruption. If any of these assumptions are incorrect, the actual depth to the magma chamber will be greater than our estimate. If the negative correlation between dissolved CO₂ contents and eruption depth reflects more extensive degassing for the deeper samples, the second assumption is violated for most of the samples analyzed in this study. Data from the axial seamount, however, may be appropriate to use in such a calculation, because these samples are the least degassed. The sample with the highest CO₂ content, 360 ppm, has about 300 ppm in excess of the solubility at the pressure of eruption (150 bars). The excess CO₂ could be kept in solution if the pressure were increased to about 900 bars. Using a density of 2.8 g/cm³ for the oceanic crust, the magma would have been vapor-saturated at a depth beneath the seafloor of 2.7 km, in good agreement with the multi-channel seismic reflection results of 2.3 to 2.5 km beneath segment 1 [31]. We note that seismic reflections probably come from near the roof of the chamber, whereas magmas may erupt from deeper levels, so an exact correspondence between these two depth estimates may not be expected in any case.

In general, CO₂ will exsolve into bubbles that may remain suspended in the liquid ("closed system" degassing) or leave the melt ("open system" degassing). For similar bulk CO₂ contents, a negative correlation between vesicle content and dissolved CO₂ content is expected for samples that degas under closed system conditions. The samples we have studied do not fall on a single closed system path (Figure 2) suggesting either a range of initial CO₂ contents in the melts or that some samples have gained or lost bubbles during or prior to eruption. Although large bubbles can rise long distances in magma on eruptive time scales and thus need not be conserved, small bubbles are probably conserved on these

time scales. For example, in 30 minutes a 0.0010 cm (10 μm) diameter bubble in basaltic melt will rise only about 0.004 cm, while a 0.10 cm (1000 μm) bubble will rise 40 cm. Thus small vesicles probably record locally closed system behavior during rapid eruptions. The high concentrations of small vesicles in the samples with CO_2 -rich glasses (Figure 3) and the decoupling of their concentration from the concentration of large vesicles (Figure 2) may reflect this kind of behavior. Detailed study of bubble size distributions and CO_2 contents of MORB glasses in the context of knowledge of rates of bubble nucleation and growth may provide quantitative constraints on timescales of magma transport [42, 45]. Measurements of CO_2 -zoning profiles in glass adjacent to small vesicles would also be valuable.

DISCUSSION OF H_2O DATA

The amount of water that partitions into the vapor phase is small in submarine eruptions deeper than about 500 m [1-4]. Consequently water contents, unlike CO_2 contents, are not expected to be significantly affected by degassing and can be used to gain insight into the behavior of water during crystal-liquid fractionation processes. It is beyond the scope of this paper to try to explain all the geochemical variations along the Juan de Fuca Ridge, but we briefly discuss water contents in the context of data for other trace and minor elements and existing petrogenetic models.

Chemical variation in Juan de Fuca Ridge basalts has been ascribed to a combination of variations in source region chemistry, degrees of partial melting, and amounts of fractional crystallization and magma mixing [16, 26, 27, 30]. Based on major and trace element data, Liias [30] concluded that the most primitive Endeavour segment lavas could be derived by 7 to 9 % partial melting of a lherzolithic source region with REE

contents 2X chondritic values. The most primitive lavas from the Juan de Fuca Ridge south of the Cobb Offset could be formed from higher degrees of partial melting (10 to 30 %) of a lherzolitic source region depleted relative to that for the Endeavour segment lavas. He also concluded that to generate the wide range of highly incompatible ratios found in lavas south of the Cobb Offset, the source region must be heterogeneous on a scale of hundreds of meters to several kilometers.

The association of high water contents with incompatible element enriched Endeavour segment lavas (Figures 7-9) is consistent with previous studies of H₂O in MORB [1, 52] and implies that water behaves as an incompatible component during magma generation. The systematic behavior of water with respect to other incompatible components allows constraints to be placed on the behavior of water during partial melting. In particular, the proportionality between water and La contents (Figure 9a) for all samples from the Juan de Fuca ridge implies that these components were not fractionated during partial melting, and thus that they have similar bulk partition coefficients (we assume here that the source regions of the Endeavour segment and segments 1-7 are related and their compositional differences were generated by previous igneous processing including extraction and/or addition of a basaltic component). Assuming the lherzolitic source regions are composed of 60% olivine, 30% orthopyroxene, and 10% clinopyroxene [30] and using mineral/melt partition coefficients for La from Bender et al. [63], the bulk partition coefficients of water and La are estimated to be about 0.01. This result is similar, but not identical, to those of Michael [64] for lavas from the Explorer Ridge and the Pacific-Nazca Ridge. Although both his and our studies lead to the conclusion that water behaves like a light rare earth element, he finds water to have a partition coefficient similar to those of Ce and Nd, i.e., somewhat higher than that of La.

Initial water contents of mantle sources of Juan de Fuca ridge lavas can be estimated based on the similar behavior of La and H₂O. This is done by multiplying the initial estimated La contents in the source regions by the near constant H₂O/La ratio of the lavas of about 500. Using source compositions in Liias [30], the enriched source with a La content of 0.66 ppm (2X chon.) would have a water content of 330 ppm, and the transitional source with a La content of 0.50 ppm (1.5X chon.) would have an estimated water content of 250 ppm. These water contents for MORB mantle source regions are similar to those estimated by Byers et al. [51] for the Galapagos Spreading Center and Michael [64] for the Pacific-Nazca and Explorer Ridges on the basis of batch melting calculations assuming reasonable degrees of partial melting (10-30 %).

Equilibrium batch partial melting paths of hypothetical Juan de Fuca ridge source regions [66] have been calculated based on these estimates of water content and the source region compositions of Liias [30]; see caption to Figure 8. These are shown in Figures 8 and 9 along with the effects of fractional crystallization at low pressures. It is clear that the behavior of water relative to other incompatible trace elements can be explained to first order in the context of these simple extensions of Liias's models given a DH₂O of 0.01. For Endeavour segment lavas, about 7-20 % melting of a relatively enriched source (slightly larger than partial melting estimates of Liias [30]) followed by up to about 40 % fractional crystallization can account for most of the data. For Juan de Fuca lavas south of the Cobb Offset, 15-30 % melting of a relatively depleted source followed by up to 50 % fractional crystallization can explain most of the data. We emphasize, however, that although partial melting and fractional crystallization can account for the major trends in the data for lavas from the Juan de Fuca Ridge, important roles for local source variation and/or magma mixing cannot be ruled out [27, 30].

According to this analysis, the H₂O content of the "anhydrous" residue after extraction of MORBs from mantle source regions (provided that melt extraction is 100% efficient) would be on the order of 10 ppm. Assuming that the residual mantle phases during MORB genesis are olivine and pyroxene in the approximate proportions 60:40 [30] and given that the water contents of mantle olivines are at the ppb level [65], this suggests that the residual pyroxenes contain a few tens of ppm dissolved water. The pyroxene/liquid partition coefficient for water during partial melting leading to MORB genesis may thus be as high as 0.03. The small variations in the incompatibility of water during MORB genesis that have been observed [i.e., this study, 64] might reflect variable olivine/pyroxene ratios in MORB source regions. If orthopyroxene tended to concentrate water relative to clinopyroxene, or if water partitions approximately equally between the two pyroxenes (in contrast to most incompatible elements), variations in pyroxene proportions and degree of partial melting could also influence the partition coefficient for water.

CONCLUSIONS

(1) Dissolved CO₂ concentrations of basaltic glasses from the Juan de Fuca Ridge and neighboring seamounts have been measured using infrared spectroscopy and range from 45 to 360 ppm by weight. Samples erupted at a given depth exhibit a wide range in dissolved CO₂ contents, with many samples significantly supersaturated with respect to CO₂-rich vapor at the depth of eruption. Supersaturated glasses probably quenched from magmas that ascended and erupted on timescales too short to degas fully. Samples with the lowest dissolved CO₂ contents at a given depth measured in this study lie near the experimentally determined solubility curve for basaltic melt [42], suggesting that these samples degassed to the equilibrium solubility value.

(2) CO₂ contents of samples south of the Cobb Offset correlate negatively with eruption depth. The highest CO₂ contents for each ridge segment are spatially associated with local topographic highs. Magmas erupted at local axial highs may be least degassed because they traveled directly upward from an underlying magma chamber. Magmas erupted along deeper sections of the ridge may be more degassed because they traveled longer distances from deeper magma chambers or laterally away from magma chambers underlying the axial highs in subaxial dikes or seafloor lava flows.

(3) Dissolved water contents were also determined by infrared spectroscopy and range from 0.07 to 0.48 wt %. Water behaves like La ($D \sim 0.01$) during magma genesis in the mantle beneath the Juan de Fuca Ridge. The concentration of water in residual "anhydrous" mantle after MORB extraction is on the order of 10 ppm, which is probably concentrated in pyroxene. Variable pyroxene/olivine ratios in peridotitic source regions may translate into variable partition coefficients for water during magma genesis. Water also behaves like an incompatible element during lower pressure crystal/liquid fractionation processes. Endeavour segment lavas could have been produced by about 7-20 % partial melting of a mantle source region containing about 330 ppm water followed by up to 40 % fractional crystallization at low pressures. Juan de Fuca Ridge lavas south of the Cobb Offset could have been derived by larger degrees of partial melting (10 to 30 %) of a source region containing about 250 ppm water followed by up to 50 % fractional crystallization at low pressures.

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TABLE 1

SAMPLE	COM- MENTS	LOCATION	DEPTH FROM (m)	TO (m)	LATITUDE (°N)	LONGITUDE (°W)	SiO ₂ (wt %)	TiO ₂ (wt %)	Na ₂ O (wt %)	K ₂ O (wt %)	P ₂ O ₅ (wt %)	Mg#	FeO ⁺ / MgO (wt %)	H ₂ O (wt %)	CO ₂ (+/-)# (ppm)
JUAN DE FUCA RIDGE, SEGMENTS 1-7															
TT152-37	b, l	81	2335	2340	44.817	130.395	50.8	1.9	2.8	0.23	0.25	48	2.0	0.23	203 (14, 4)
TT152-43-19	k	81	2282	2282	44.896	130.205	50.7	1.4	2.4	0.13	0.12	58	1.3	0.16	209 (11, 2)
TT152-44		82	2375	2425	45.134	130.188	50.6	1.3	2.4	0.17	0.12	60	1.2	0.18	108 (13, 3)
TT152-77-7		83	1920	2080	45.871	130.081	47.9	1.3	2.8	0.03	0.11	63	1.1	0.17	171 (18, 1)
TT152-77-6		83	1920	2080	45.871	130.061	47.7	1.3	2.6	0.04	0.08	63	1.1	0.16	178 (20, 1)
TT152-55-25	b	AXIAL	1530	1559	45.938	130.002	49.4	1.4	2.8	0.16	0.13	54	1.5	0.23	285 (28, 2)
TT170-5A	b, d	AXIAL	1425	1545	45.947	130.027	49.2	1.5	2.8	0.16	0.12	54	1.5	0.22	137 (00, 1)
TT170-5B	b	AXIAL	1425	1545	45.947	130.027	49.2	1.5	2.8	0.16	0.12	54	1.5	0.21	237 (31, 1)
PISCESI326-2A	b	AXIAL	1554	1554	45.983	130.051	50.4	1.5	2.9	0.16	0.12	54	1.5	0.30	300 (35, 1)
PISCESI326-2B	b	AXIAL	1554	1554	45.983	130.051	50.4	1.5	2.9	0.16	0.12	54	1.5	0.22	311 (28, 2)
TT152-61		85	2220	2337	46.075	129.983	49.2	1.7	2.3	0.16	0.16	51	1.7	0.38	087 (11, 4)
TT152-72		85	2200	2265	46.285	129.726	50.3	1.3	2.3	0.09	0.11	58	1.4	0.27	088 (02, 1)
TT152-65	b	85	2295	2320	46.353	129.684	50.9	1.2	2.5	0.07	0.11	56	1.4	0.15	234 (11, 1)
TT152-29-1	b, k	86	2310	2380	46.822	129.292	49.6	1.6	2.0	0.10	0.18	52	1.6	0.20	221 (11, 1)
TT152-21	b, l	86	2410	2520	46.926	129.264	50.6	1.9	2.6	0.16	0.16	48	1.9	0.36	225 (20, 3)
TT152-13		86	2625	2625	47.204	128.124	50.5	2.4	2.7	0.15	0.23	43	2.3	0.33	056 (10, 1)
HU81017-6-11	l	87	2528	2528	47.22	128.092	50.8	2.0	2.7	0.19	0.18	48	1.9	0.31	107 (00, 1)
TT152-11-21		87	2640	2690	47.541	128.954	50.5	1.8	2.3	0.21	0.21	52	1.7	0.29	099 (08, 2)
TT152-78-1	b	87	2340	2345	47.681	128.975	50.9	1.3	2.6	0.13	0.12	59	1.3	0.18	211 (13, 1)
ENDEAVOUR SEGMENT															
HU81017-11	RD		2569	2569	47.62	129.265	51.1	1.5	3.2	0.10	0.16	59	1.2	0.29	116 (11, 2)
TT175-40-3	a, d	END-SE	2251	2736	47.702	128.208	50.6	1.6	3.1	0.25	0.18	57	1.4	0.39	045 (9, 1)
HU81017-2-4	RD		2470	2470	47.726	129.244	51.6	1.9	3.0	0.44	0.33	50	1.8	0.48	n.d.
TT170-70-21	RD		2161	2201	47.878	129.145	50.0	1.5	2.8	0.17	0.18	59	1.3	0.22	090 (12, 3)
TT175-28-27	RD		2121	2322	47.848	129.103	50.8	1.7	2.9	0.54	0.24	55	1.5	0.46	186 (14, 1)
TT175-20-30	a	RD	2102	2151	47.953	129.108	51.4	1.7	2.7	0.54	0.25	56	1.4	0.39	084 (20, 1)
TT175-54-4	a, d	RD	2052	2241	47.954	129.115	51.8	1.8	3.0	0.39	0.06	55	1.4	0.38	049 (06, 1)
TT175-17-14	RD		2003	2190	47.984	129.085	50.7	1.6	2.7	0.36	0.20	55	1.5	0.33	073 (03, 1)
TT175-31	RD		2181	2201	48.021	129.065	52.0	1.7	2.9	0.50	0.22	58	1.3	0.38	141 (13, 2)
W8408A-3D	a	RD	2270	2365	48.391	129.077	49.9	1.2	2.4	0.16	0.12	62	1.1	0.20	124 (36, 1)
SEAMOUNTS															
TT175-92-9	a	PURITY	2054	2327	45.611	130.832	46.9	1.4	2.8	0.06	0.08	64	1.0	0.18	107 (12, 1)
TT175-90	o	COLPAGE	1727	1832	45.676	130.829	50.5	1.6	2.8	0.26	0.17	56	1.4	0.29	086 (13, 1)
TT170-36-3		BEE	1639	1682	45.967	130.274	48.6	1.2	3.0	0.08	0.11	60	1.2	0.13	065 (16, 1)
TT175-69	d	HUMILITY	1872	2052	46.034	131.268	51.0	1.6	3.0	0.16	0.13	54	1.5	0.24	203 (17, 3)
TT175-74-10		GLUT	1594	1922	47.141	131.483	50.2	1.4	2.7	0.19	0.12	62	1.1	0.19	089 (17, 1)
TT175-71		LUST	1987	2003	47.501	131.515	49.0	1.4	2.9	0.22	0.14	57	1.3	0.26	104 (11, 2)
TT175-39-3		HOASW	2101	2777	47.895	129.405	50.2	0.9	1.9	0.00	0.06	65	1.0	0.07	219 (33, 2)
TT175-61-11	d	E.SPGED	1367	2171	47.901	129.842	50.1	1.3	2.6	0.03	0.06	58	1.3	0.07	114 (13, 2)
TT175-61-20	b	E.SPGED	1367	2171	47.901	129.842	49.6	1.5	2.9	0.10	0.13	55	1.5	0.16	188 (20, 2)
JLK 71-15-8-1		END.SMT	1772	1772	48.263	129.063	51.2	1.1	2.4	0.04	0.06	80	1.2	0.09	205 (06, 1)
JLK 70-16-5-23	d	E.HECK	1574	1574	48.317	129.201	50.8	0.9	2.3	0.02	0.04	84	1.0	0.12	108 (00, 1)
HU81017-31-2	B	EXPL	800	800	48.561	130.942	47.8	1.3	2.9	0.04	0.11	51	1.2	0.30	n.d.
TT083-34-7	d	EXPL	2370	2770	48.963	131.033	47.1	1.3	2.9	0.16	0.10	59	1.3	0.26	117 (09, 1)

Legend for Table 1

a: major elements are for different samples or averages of several samples from the same location. b: more than a dozen vesicles $<40\ \mu\text{m}$ present in the glass chip analyzed by IR. c: phenocrysts and/or quench crystals present in glass. d: partially devitrified. e: depths corrected using Handbook of Ocean., 1966, p. 74, region 24. f: major elements obtained on glasses using Univ. of Washington 5-channel ARL-EMS electron microprobe (Delaney, unpublished data). g: $100 \times \text{Mg}/(\text{Mg} + \text{Fe}^{2+})$, Mg and Fe in atomic proportions. h: FeO^* = total iron as FeO, both FeO^* and MgO in wt.%. i: Water concentrations were determined using the height of the $3535\ \text{cm}^{-1}$ peak, and where more than one spectrum was available we have reported the average and standard deviation. First value in parentheses is the standard deviation ($1-\sigma$), second value is the number of spectra used to calculate average. j: For each spectrum, we measured separately the intensities of the 1515 and $1435\ \text{cm}^{-1}$ peaks plus the total area under the doublet and calculated a CO_2 concentration from each measurement. The CO_2 contents are averages of all the CO_2 concentrations measured from all spectra on texturally similar glass chips from the same split. The reported error in the CO_2 contents used to calculate the average. First value in parentheses is the standard deviation ($1-\sigma$), second value is the number of spectra used to calculate average. k: H_2O and CO_2 contents from Fine and Stolper [10]. l. average H_2O and CO_2 contents include analyses from Fine and Stolper [10].

TABLE 2: VESICLE CONTENTS MEASURED ON THIN SECTIONS

SAMPLE	COMMENTS	VOL % VESICLES TOTAL*	VOL % VESICLES < 40 microns*	VESICLES PER CM ² *	VESICLES PER CM ² *	DIAMETER LARGEST VESICLE (microns)
SEGMENTS 1-7						
TT152-37		1.02 (0.15, 4)	0.18 (0.05, 4)	630 (80, 4)		140
TT152-43-19		1.72	0.00	34		1020
TT152-44		0.95	0.02	70		480
TT152-77-6A	g to d, p	0.29	0.03	140		120
TT152-77-6B	d to s, same ts	0.55	0.02	160		220
TT152-55-25	b	0.44 (0.09, 3)	0.22 (0.00, 3)	570 (50, 3)		90
TT170-5A	g, b, p	1.43 (0.08, 2)	0.07 (0.01, 2)	290 (70, 2)		340
TT170-5B	d, b, diff. ts, p	1.81	0.08	320		370
P1326-2	b	0.35	0.12	380		140
TT152-61A	g, p	0.19	0.01	70		170
TT152-61B	d, same ts	0.72	0.00	10		680
TT152-65	b	1.36 (0.25, 2)	0.14 (0.04, 2)	770 (70, 2)		130
TT152-29-1A	g	0.37	0.00	40		390
TT152-29-1B	d, diff. ts	0.02	0.00	30		50
TT152-29-1C	b, diff. ts, p	0.78 (0.15, 3)	0.33 (0.04, 3)	1540 (150, 3)		100
TT152-13		2.26	0.01	50		1030
TT152-11-21		0.28	0.00	40		310
TT152-78-1	b	1.38	0.35	1210		90
ENDEAVOUR SEG.						
TT175-40-3	d, b	0.91 (0.05, 2)	0.03 (0.01, 2)	580 (90, 2)		270
TT170-70-21		1.05	0.03	100		650
TT175-20-30	b	0.95	0.07	520		200
SEAMOUNTS						
TT170-36-3		0.04	0.00	30		90
TT175-74-10		2.70	0.02	80		680
TT175-71		3.07	0.01	70		620

Notes:

- * first value in parentheses is standard deviation (1-sigma), second value is number of thin sections averaged.
 b: most bubbles <40 microns d: partially devitrified g: glassy s: spherulitic p: thin section with texture most similar to glass chip analyzed for volatiles; data from this thin section are plotted on Figures 2 and 3.
 A, B, C: distinguish point counts on distinct areas of the same sample, either on the same thin section (same ts) or different thin sections (diff ts).

Figure 1: Map showing location of some of the seamounts and mid-oceanic ridge segments in the northeast Pacific (modified from Delaney, in prep). S1-S7 and Endeavour refer to segments of the Juan de Fuca Ridge. Names of seamounts or seamount chains from which we have samples are also given.

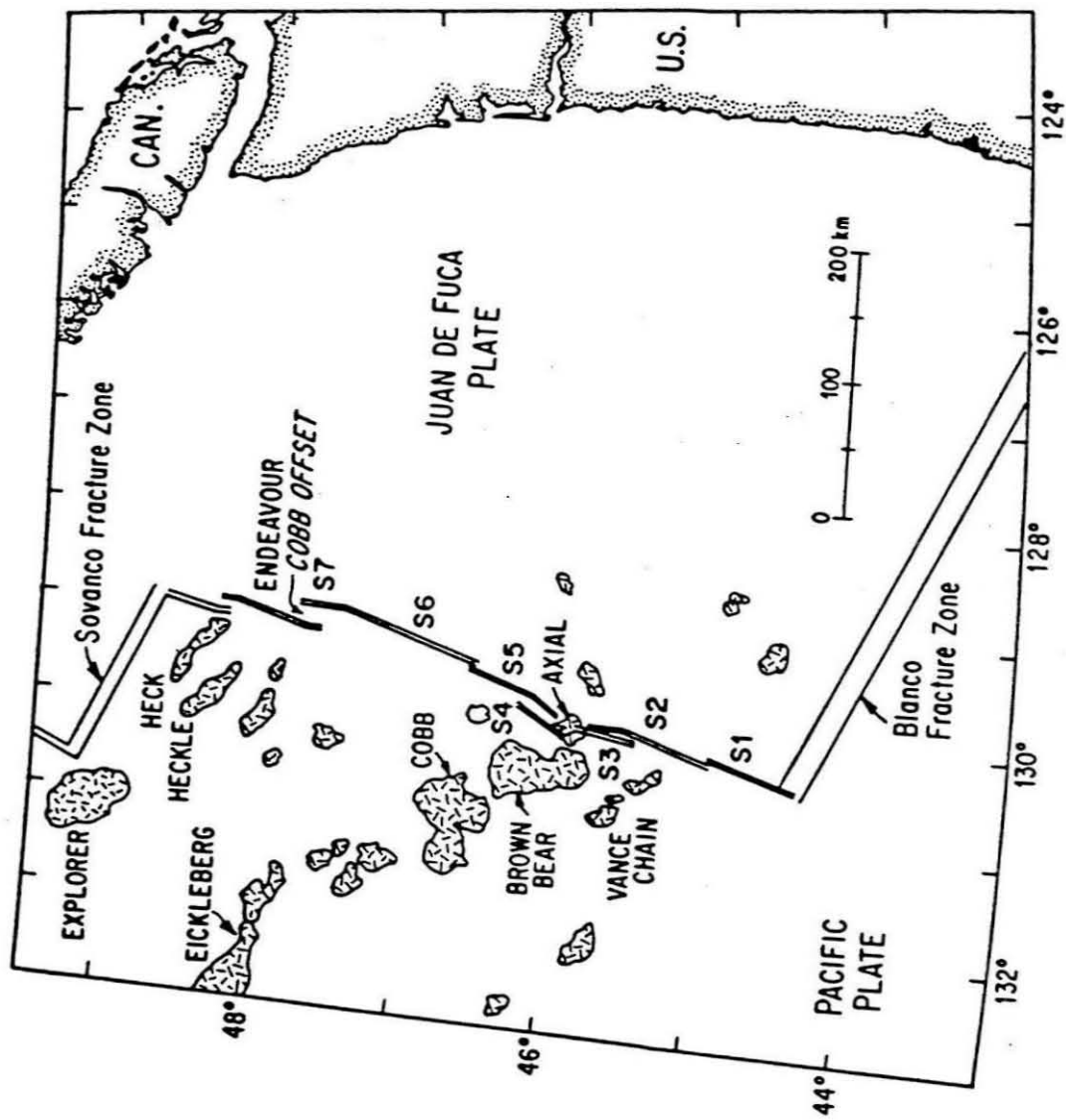


Figure 2: Dissolved CO₂ content versus total volume percent vesicles measured on thin sections. CO₂ contents were not measured on the same thin sections used for vesicle content determinations. If different thin sections of the same sample had a range in vesicle contents, then the vesicle content plotted corresponds to the thin section most similar in texture to the glass chip analyzed for CO₂. "b" indicates samples with more than a dozen bubbles <40 μm in diameter present in the glass chip analyzed for CO₂. "d" indicates that the glass chip analyzed for CO₂ was partially devitrified. Samples from segments 1-7 are represented by open squares, from the Endeavour segment by filled diamonds, and from off-ridge seamounts by filled squares. The increase in vesicle content expected for a given amount of closed system CO₂ degassing is shown as the heavy arrow. The calculation was done assuming the ideal gas law, a glass transition temperature of 1000°C, a pressure of 200 bars, a gas composed of 90% CO₂, and a basalt density of 2.8 g/cm³. The position of the arrow is arbitrary.

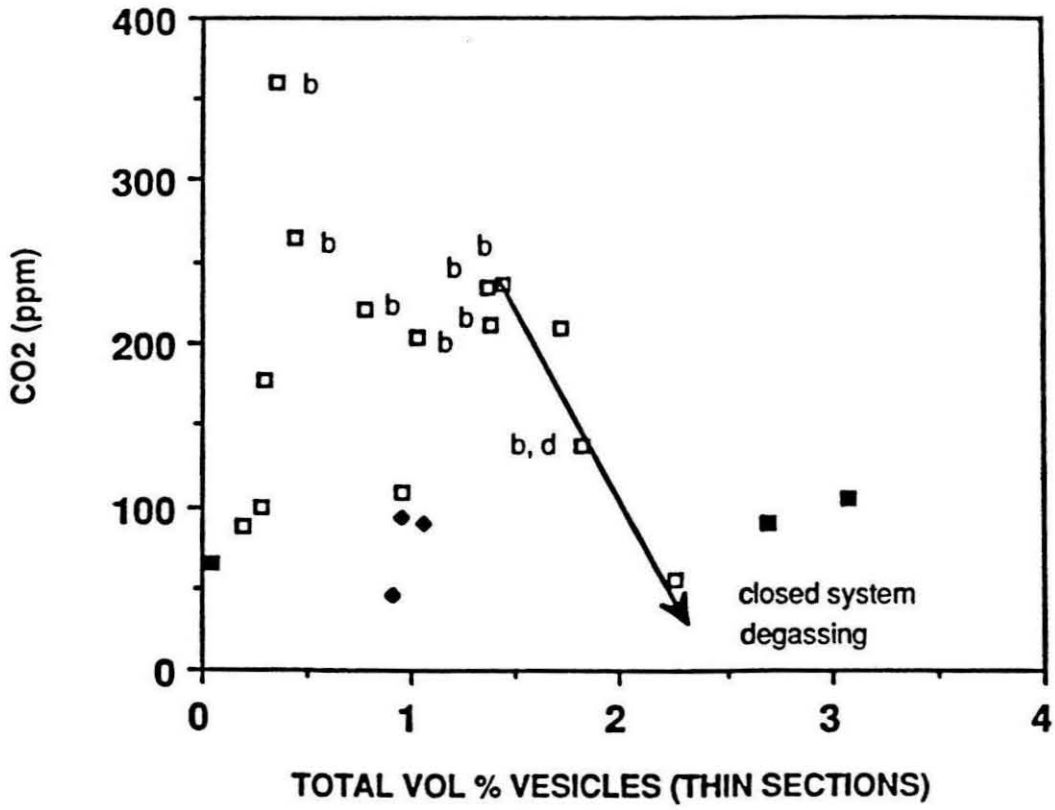


Figure 3: Dissolved CO₂ content versus volume percent vesicles <40 μm in diameter for samples shown in Figure 5. Small bubbles are most abundant in samples containing >200 ppm CO₂. Symbols and "b" and "d" are the same as in Figure 2.

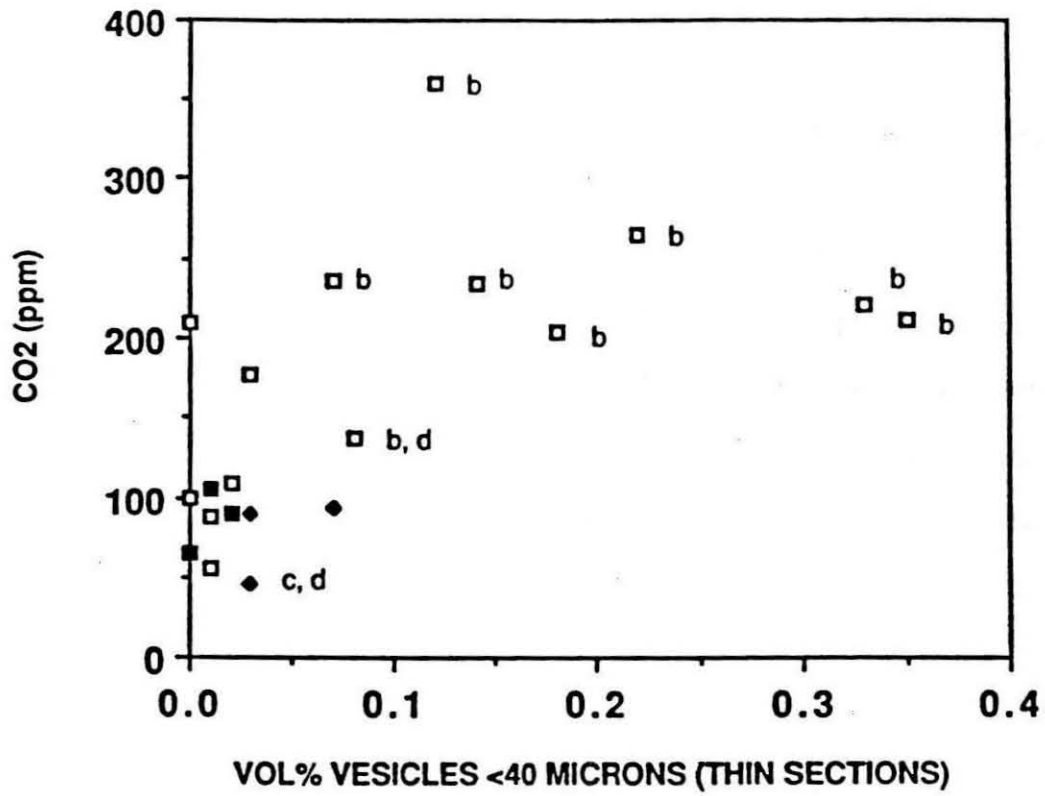


Figure 4: Dissolved CO₂ contents versus depth for samples from the Juan de Fuca Ridge and adjacent seamounts. CO₂ solubility in basalt at 1200°C (10m H₂O = 1 bar) from Stolper and Holloway [42]. Note most samples have CO₂ contents in excess of solubility. Except for the partially devitrified samples, the lowest CO₂ contents at a given depth usually lie near the experimentally determined solubility curve. Typical error bars (1 \hat{A}) are shown on a few points and are about 10 % of the amount present. Depth ranges are shown as error bars for those dredges that sample depth ranges larger than the depth range represented by the width of the symbols.

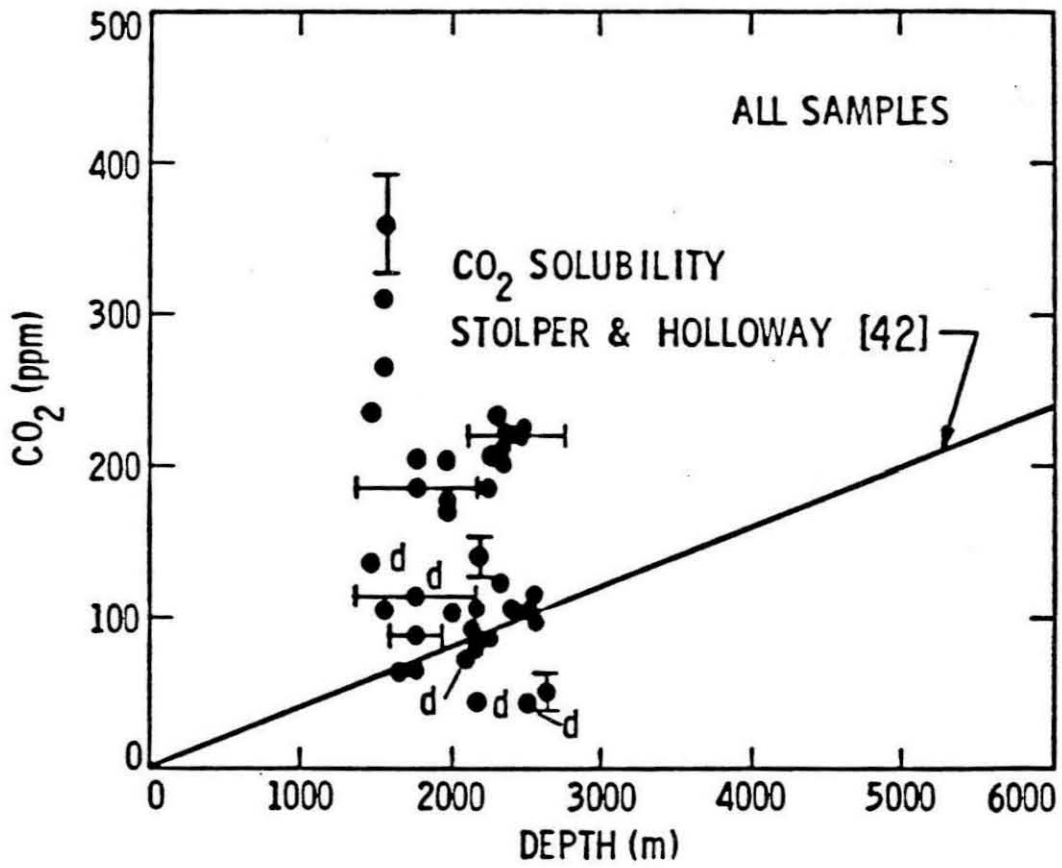


Figure 5: Dissolved CO₂ contents versus depth. Typical error bars (1 \hat{A}) are shown on a few points. Solid line is best fit solubility curve for basaltic liquid at 1200°C [42]. Symbols are the same as in Figure 2. (a) Seamount samples. (b) Samples from Endeavour segment. Note lowest dissolved CO₂ contents are from devitrified glasses. (c) Samples south of the Cobb Offset. Note negative correlation (especially when partially devitrified samples are neglected) between dissolved CO₂ content and depth of eruption. Depth ranges are shown as error bars for those dredges that sample depth ranges larger than the depth range represented by the width of the symbols.

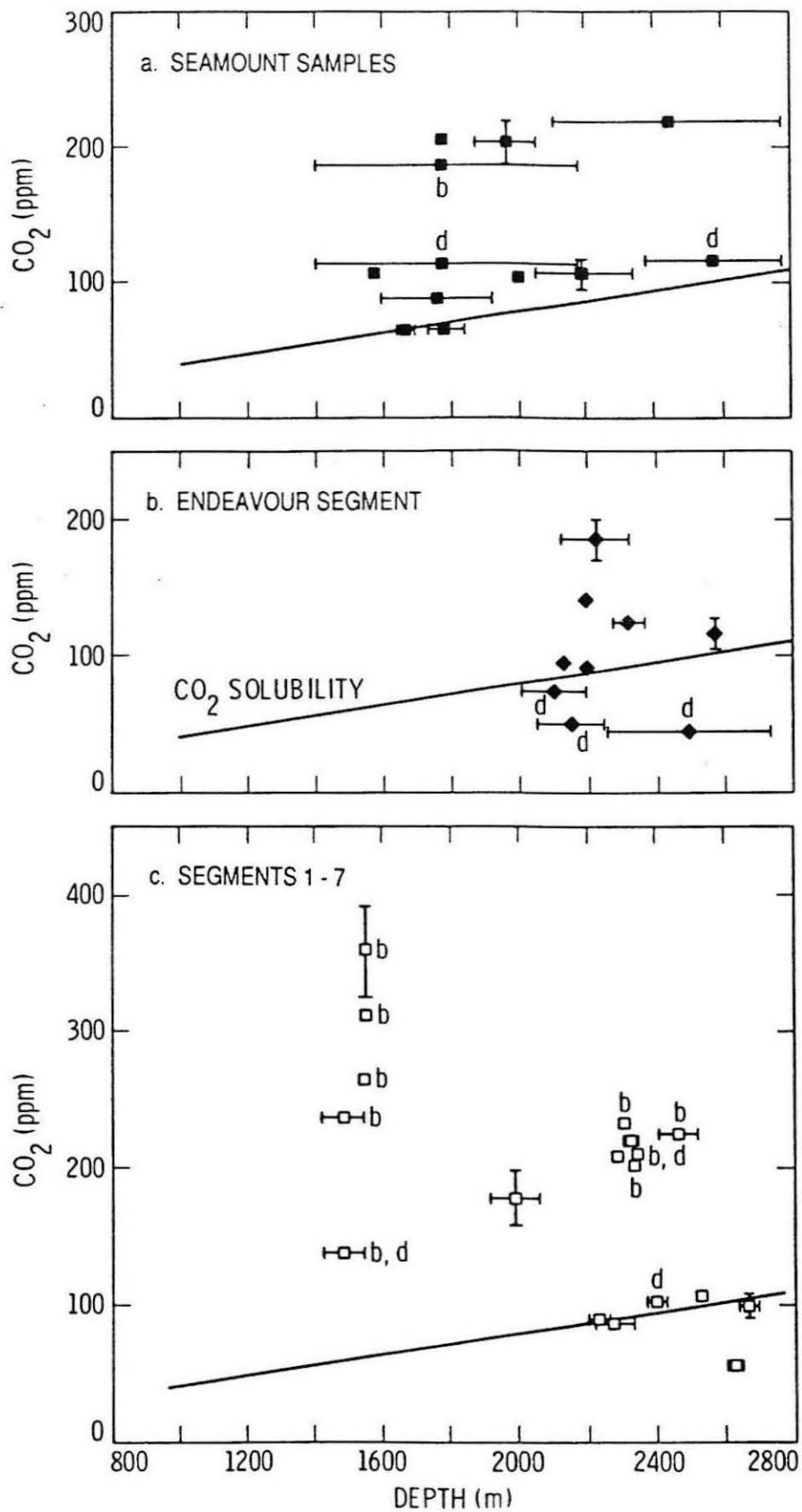


Figure 6: Dissolved CO₂ contents and generalized ridge topography [68] versus latitude. Note that high CO₂ contents correlate with shallow topography on individual ridge segments and over entire ridge. Vertical dashed lines connect high CO₂ values to their sample location. Symbols are the same as in Figure 2.

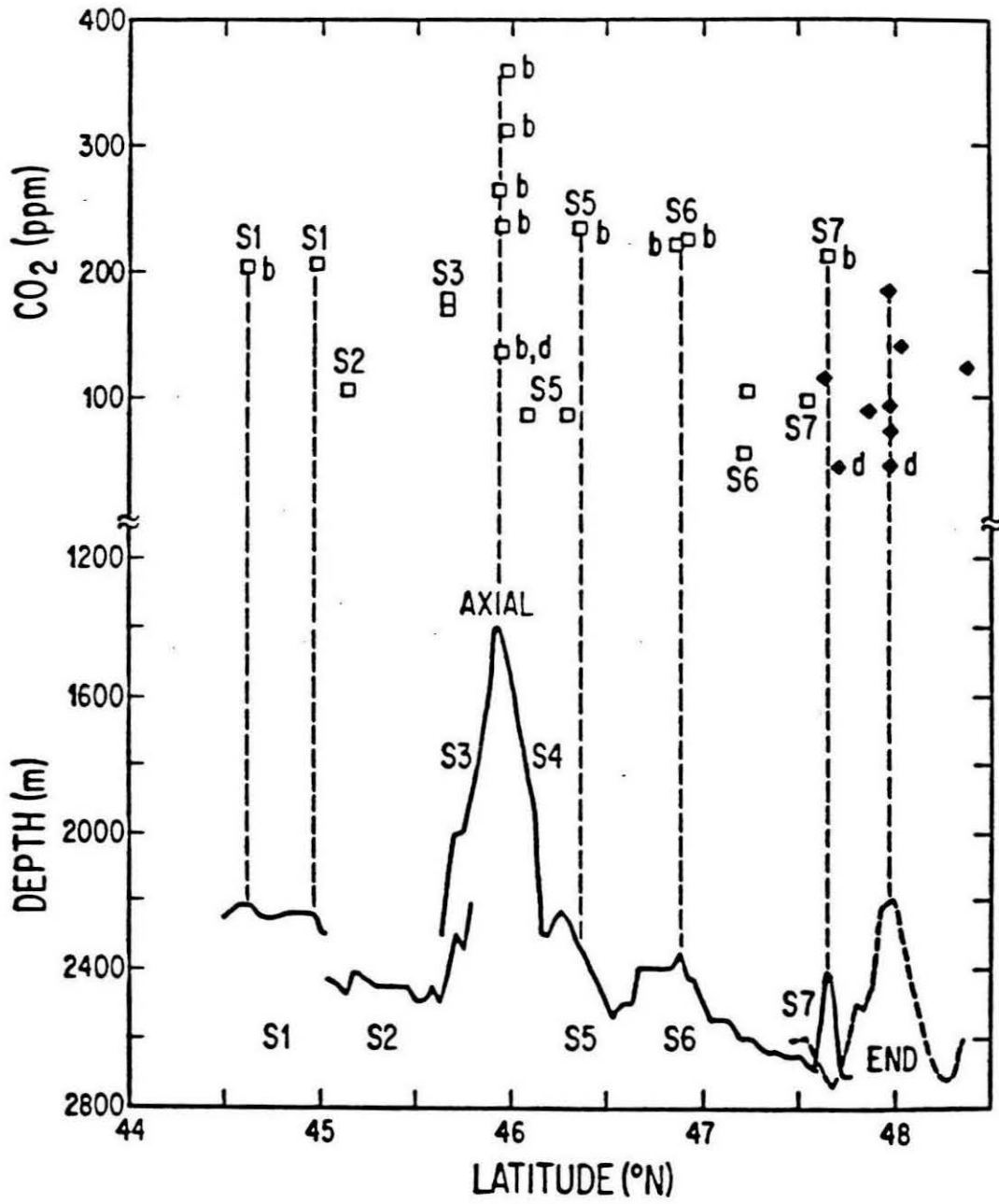


Figure 7: Dissolved H₂O contents versus FeO*/MgO. Symbols same as in Figure 2. Water contents increase with increasing FeO*/MgO. Endeavour segment samples have higher water contents at the same FeO*/MgO than samples from segments 1-7. Trends produced by 20% fractional crystallization of olivine, plagioclase, and clinopyroxene in proportions 1:5:1, respectively, are shown. In fractional crystallization models for major and trace elements [30], this assemblage provided the best fit to the data.

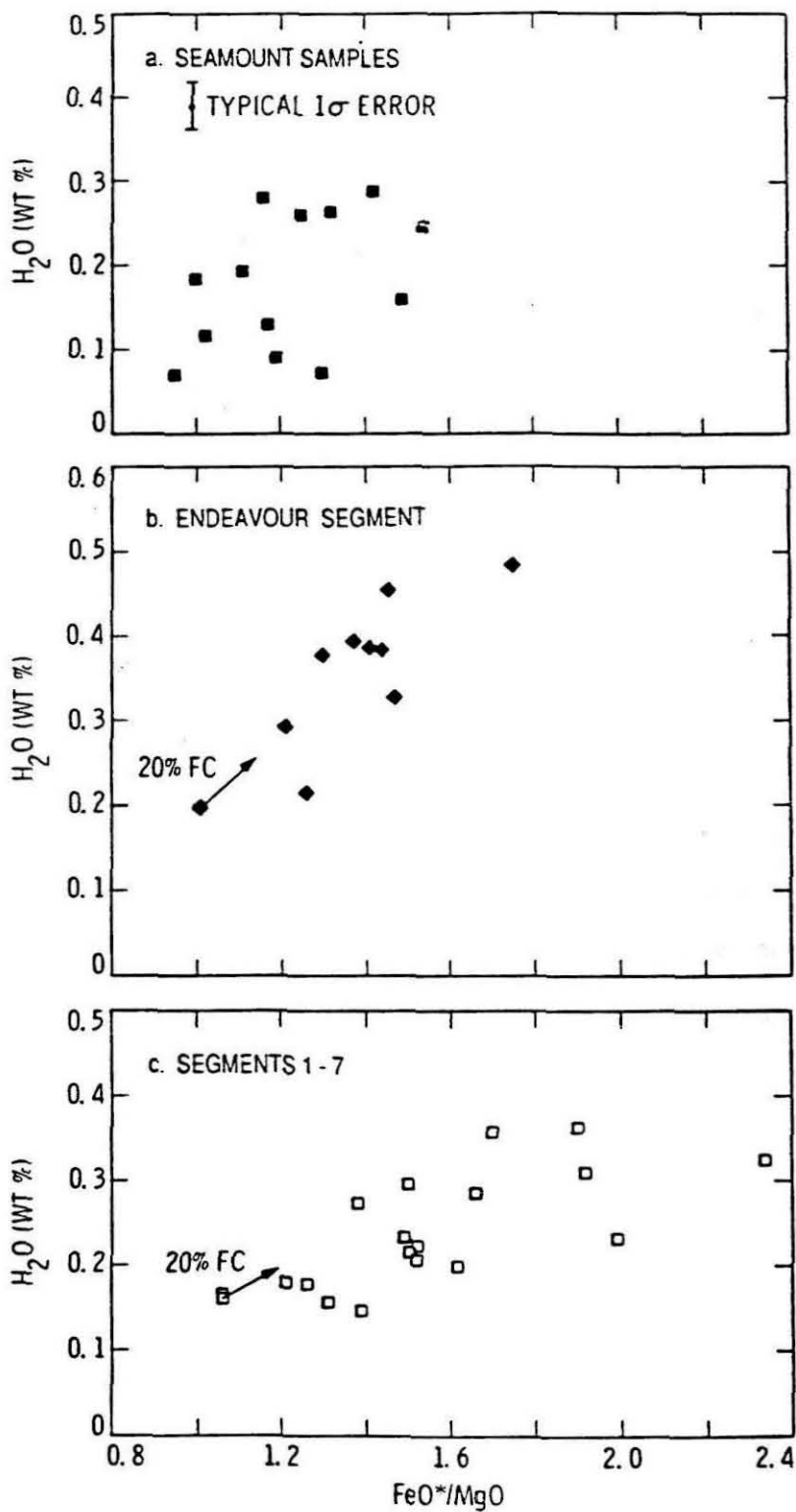


Figure 8: Dissolved H₂O versus K₂O contents. Symbols are the same as in Figure 2. Water contents correlate positively with K₂O contents. Endeavour segment lavas have higher water and K₂O contents along with lower (on average) H₂O/K₂O ratios. Partial melting models were calculated using a bulk partition coefficient of 0.001 for K [67] and 0.01 for H₂O (see text). Ticks on the partial melting lines are at 5, 8, 10, 15, 20, and 30 percent partial melting. Bulk K₂O contents in the mantle sources were estimated to be 180 ppm for the transitional source and 300 ppm for the enriched source, by calculating the source composition needed to produce the K₂O contents found in the most primitive lavas using batch melting equations [66] and assuming amounts of partial melting as constrained by other trace elements [30]. Estimation of bulk H₂O values for mantle sources described in text. Fractional crystallization of 50% of a 1:5:1 mixture of olivine, plagioclase, and clinopyroxene, respectively, are shown as arrows attached to the 20% partial melt composition from a transitional source for segments 1-7 and seamounts and to the 10% partial melt composition from an enriched source for the Endeavour segment.

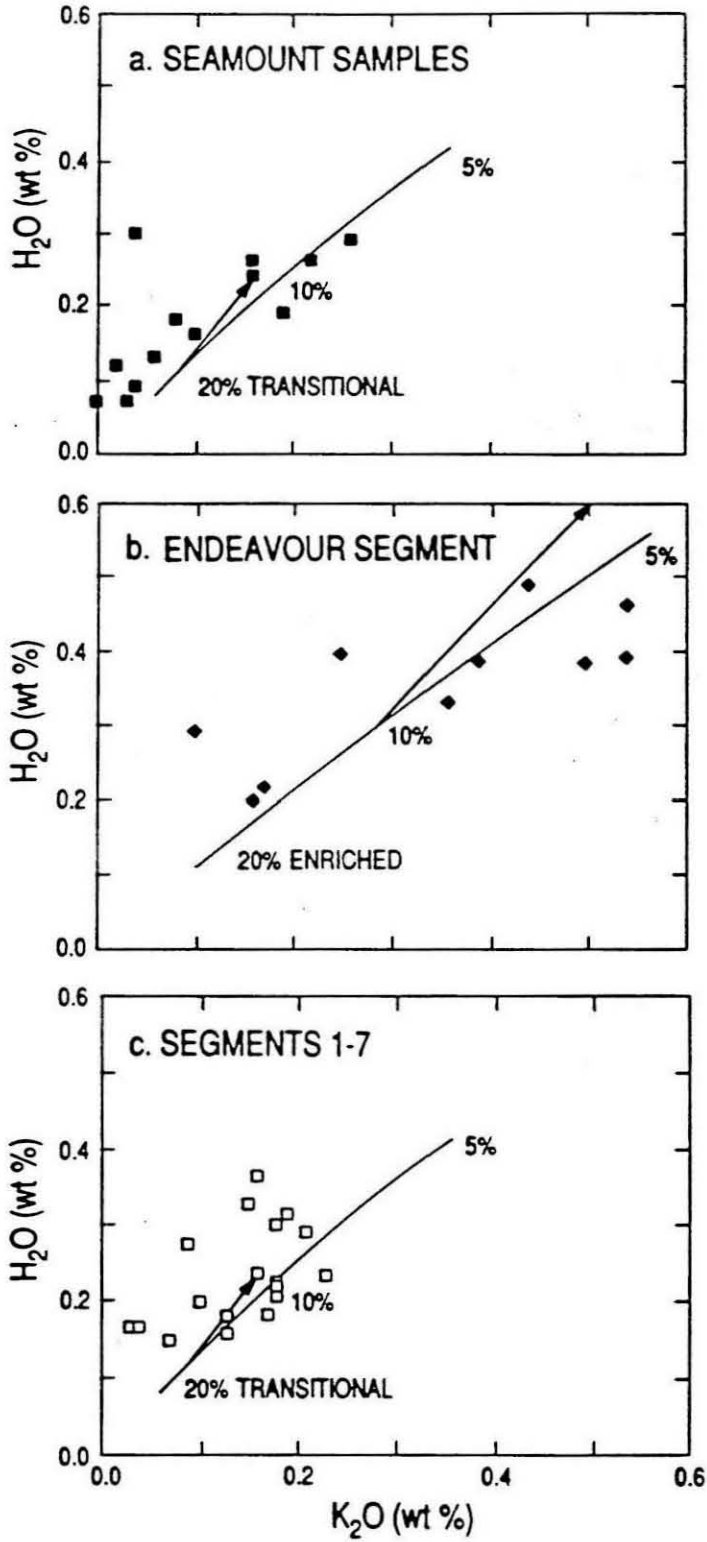
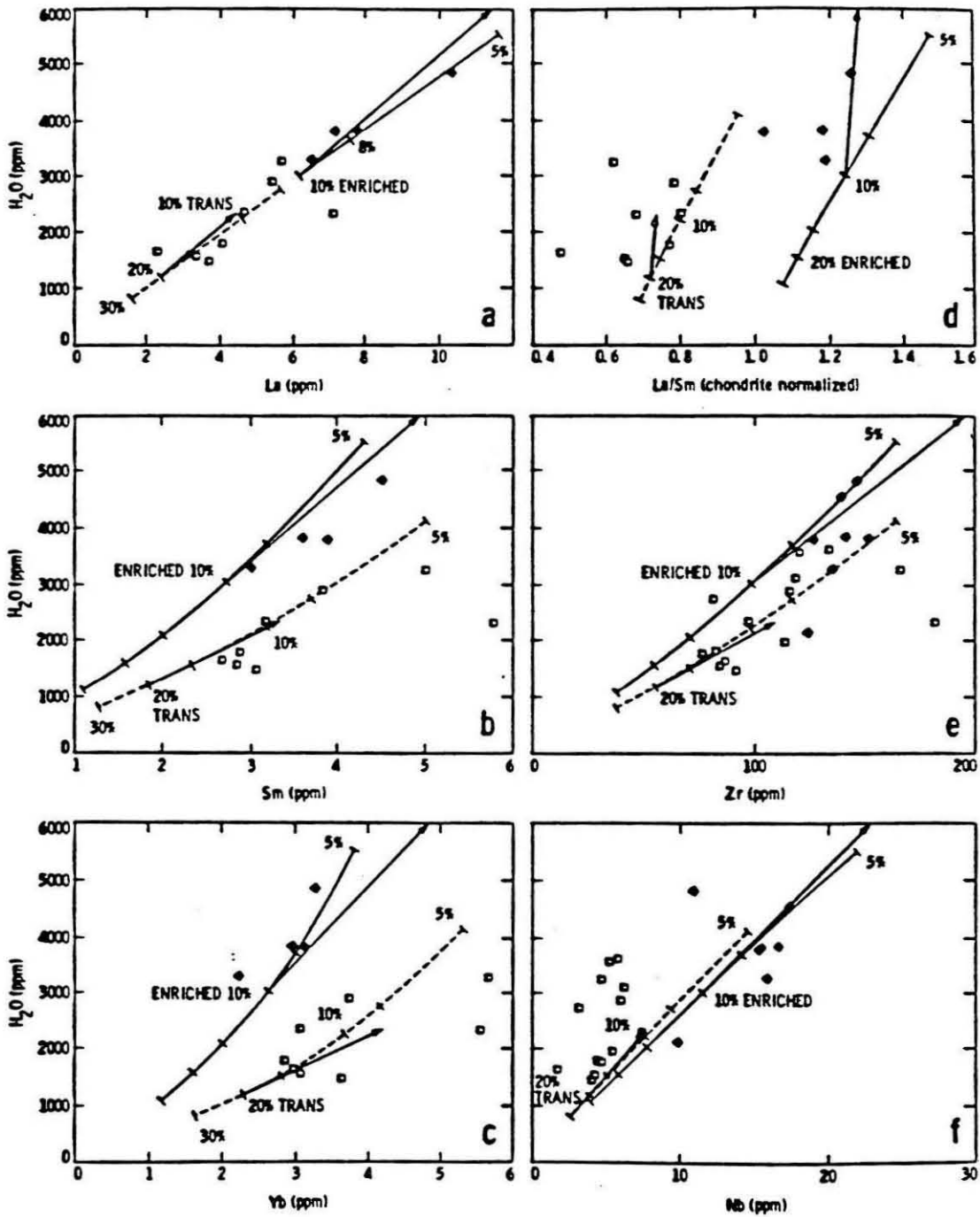


Figure 9: Dissolved H₂O in glasses (this study) versus REE and trace element data in whole rock powders (Lias, [30]; instrumental neutron activation analysis, X-ray fluorescence). Symbols are the same as in Figure 2. For the Endeavour segment, common samples were not analysed by us and by Lias [30], so water contents of samples analysed for REE were estimated based on major element chemistry and the observed good correlations between water, FeO*/MgO, TiO₂, and K₂O contents. Batch melting calculations shown using an enriched source [30] for Endeavour segment (solid line) and a transitional source [30] for segments 1-7 (south of the Cobb Offset) (dashed line) with ticks at 5, 8, 10, 15, 20, and 30 percent partial melting. Most partition coefficients (solid/liquid) are from Bender et al. [63] assuming ol:opx:cpx in the proportions of 60:30:10 in the residue. A partition coefficient of 0.005 was used for Nb because it provided a better fit to the data than the value of 0.06 calculated from data in Bender et al. [63]. Fractional crystallization of 50% of a 1:5:1 mixture of olivine, plagioclase, and clinopyroxene, respectively, are shown as arrows attached to the 20% partial melt composition from a transitional source for segments 1-7 and to the 10% partial melt composition from an enriched source for the Endeavour segment.



Post publication note

Incorporation of my revised CO₂ solubility values, about 20% higher than the Stolper and Holloway (1988) values, results in only trivial modifications to the conclusions presented in this paper. Most of the glasses remain supersaturated with respect to CO₂, and the samples with the lowest CO₂ contents are still within errors of the CO₂ solubility curve. A revised estimate for the depth to the magma chamber using the new CO₂ solubility is as follows: The highest CO₂ contents of 360 ppm would be redissolved at a pressure of 760 bar. Subtraction of 150 bar hydrostatic pressure leaves a lithostatic pressure of 610 bars. Assuming a crustal density of 2.8 g/cm³, the depth to the magma chamber would be 2.2 km. This revised estimate is in better agreement with estimates based on seismic reflection than the previous estimate of 2.7 km.

Chapter 3

**DEGASSING HISTORY OF WATER, SULFUR, AND CARBON IN
SUBMARINE LAVAS FROM KILAUEA VOLCANO, HAWAII**

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ABSTRACT

Major, minor, and dissolved volatile element concentrations were measured in tholeiitic glasses from the submarine portion (Puna Ridge) of the east rift zone of Kilauea Volcano, Hawaii. Dissolved H₂O and S concentrations display a wide range relative to nonvolatile incompatible elements at all depths. This range cannot be readily explained by fractional crystallization, degassing of H₂O and S during eruption on the seafloor, or source region heterogeneities. Dissolved CO₂ concentrations, in contrast, show a positive correlation with eruption depth and typically agree within error with the solubility at that depth. We propose that most magmas along the Puna Ridge result from (1) mixing of a relatively volatile-rich, undegassed component with magmas that experienced low pressure (perhaps subaerial) degassing during which substantial H₂O, S, and CO₂ were lost, followed by (2) fractional crystallization of olivine, clinopyroxene, and plagioclase from this mixture to generate a residual liquid; and (3) further degassing, principally of CO₂ for samples erupted deeper than 1000 m, during eruption on the seafloor. The degassed end member may form at upper levels of the summit magma chamber (assuming less than lithostatic pressure gradients), during residence at shallow levels in the crust, or during sustained summit eruptions. The final phase of degassing during eruption on the seafloor occurs slowly enough to achieve melt/vapor equilibrium during exsolution of the typically CO₂-rich vapor phase. We predict that average Kilauean primary magmas with 16.0 % MgO contain ~0.47 wt. % H₂O, ~900 ppm S, and have δD values of ~-30 to -40‰. Our model predicts that submarine lavas from wholly submarine volcanoes (i.e., Loihi), for which there is no opportunity to generate the degassed end member by low pressure degassing, will be enriched in volatiles relative to those from volcanoes whose summits have breached the sea surface (i.e., Kilauea and Mauna Loa).

INTRODUCTION

Water and sulfur are much more soluble in basaltic liquids than carbon dioxide. These solubility differences, combined with volcanic gas emission data, have been used to develop two stage models of the outgassing of Kilauea magmas (e.g., Gerlach and Graeber 1985; Greenland et al. 1985; Gerlach 1986). The first stage occurs in the summit magma chamber where most of the CO₂ and lesser amounts of SO₂ and H₂O degas. The second stage occurs during subaerial eruptions where most of the remaining CO₂, SO₂, and H₂O degasses. A second stage of degassing of H₂O and S is not expected to occur in magmas erupted along Kilauea's submarine rift zones deeper than about 1000 meters because the pressure at the depth of eruption is sufficient to prevent exsolution of significant H₂O and S. Consequently, these submarine magmas have been thought to contain concentrations of H₂O and S that have been largely unchanged on eruption. Previous studies of H₂O and S in Hawaiian submarine basaltic glasses (e.g., Moore and Fabbi 1971; Killingley and Muenow 1975; Muenow et al. 1979; Harris and Anderson 1983; Kyser and O'Neil 1984; Byers et al. 1985; Garcia et al. 1989) have focused on constraining their concentrations and using these data to make inferences about their concentrations in primitive magmas and heterogeneities in mantle source regions. We will show, however, based on new measurements of major and minor element and dissolved H₂O, CO₂, and S concentrations in a suite of tholeiitic glasses from the submarine portion of the east rift zone of Kilauea Volcano, Hawaii (hereafter referred to as the Puna Ridge), that even many submarine magmas from Kilauea have lost water and sulfur during complex degassing histories and that inferences regarding volatile concentrations in primitive Hawaiian magmas and mantle source regions may require revision.

GEOLOGIC SETTING

The Puna Ridge is the submarine portion of the 130 km long east rift zone of Kilauea Volcano. It extends 75 km from the shoreline at Cape Kumukahi to the east-northeast to a depth of roughly 5400 m (fig. 1). Lonsdale (1989) presented a detailed geomorphic analysis of the ridge based on high-resolution geophysical techniques and photography. This data set allows a more detailed interpretation than earlier work (Moore 1965; Moore and Fiske 1969; Fornari et al. 1978) and shows that the Puna Ridge is structurally similar to the subaerial portion of the east rift zone. In particular, it contains en-echelon eruptive fissures, pit craters, open fissures, grabens aligned along the axis of the rift, and small shields and steep-sided cones. The main difference between the submarine and subaerial portions of the rift is the steeper gradient along the axis of the submarine rift: the subaerial gradient of 23 m/km steepens to 50 m/km near the shoreline and to 100 m/km at a depth of about 2800 m (Lonsdale 1989).

Most of the rift zone consists of pillow lava flows and pillow joint-block talus (Moore and Fiske 1969; Fornari et al. 1978; Lonsdale 1989), although many of the dredged samples consist of flat to slightly curved slabs of lava with a glassy rim on the top, but not bottom, surface. These fragments are probably from hollow lava tubes in tube-fed lobate flows like the one illustrated by Fornari et al. (1978, fig. 8 bottom right). Lonsdale (1989) noted that sheet-like flows are more common along the deeper parts of the rift and dredge data confirm this observation (Clague et al. 1988).

SAMPLE LOCATIONS

Dredge locations and depths are listed in Table 1 and shown in Figure 1 except for dredges SU49-66 and SU51-66, located just south of the southern boundary of Figure 1. Along-rift dredges recovered samples (dominantly pillows) erupted in the submarine environment (Table 1). The off-rift dredges recovered samples (dominantly glassy basaltic sand and scoria) from rubble-covered slopes of the volcano or from the submarine part of

the 1960 Kapoho flow (Table 1). The fragmental material sampled by the off-rift dredges is believed to be shattered, quenched lava formed by subaerial flows reaching the sea, and vitric ash formed by phreatic processes (Moore and Fiske 1969). Thirteen of the dredges were recovered from the Puna Ridge by the *Pioneer* in 1962 (Moore, 1965). Four dredges were recovered by the *Surveyor* in 1966; three of these are from the flanks of Kilauea and the fourth is located slightly off the axis of the Puna Ridge (Moore and Fiske 1969). The latest five dredges, recovered by the *R/V Farnella* in 1988, were located mainly to fill in gaps in the earlier dredge programs (Clague et al. 1988). One of these, D5, was recovered off the rift axis from a large inflated sheet flow that ponded in the Hawaiian Deep at the base of the Puna Ridge and was discovered by a recent GLORIA side-scan sonar survey (Holcomb et al. 1988). Based on the GLORIA image this flow could have erupted from the Puna Ridge at any depth greater than about 4000 m. One additional sample was collected by the submersible Makalii off the coast of Cape Kumikahi. Though the depth of collection is well known, an exact location is unavailable because of lack of reliable navigation during the dive. Several of the along-rift dredges (SU56, 1688, D43, and 1714) are located slightly off the axis of the Puna Ridge and may have erupted up to 700 m shallower than the depths at which they were dredged. The uncertainty in eruption depth for these dredges is not large enough to significantly affect our conclusions.

Microprobe analyses of the glasses, petrography, and apparent age based on palagonite alteration were used to identify distinguishable flow units within individual dredges. Several flow units contain abundant crystal clusters ranging in size from large glomerocrysts to small gabbroic xenoliths about 1 cm in diameter that were also used to distinguish flow units. Most dredges recovered samples of only a single flow, but dredges D45, 1742, SU56-66, D43, and 1697 recovered two flow units, and D42 recovered three flow units.

ANALYTICAL TECHNIQUES

Modal analyses were performed on thin sections by point counting (1000 counts). Glass chips (1-3 mm in diameter) representative of each flow unit were selected for microprobe analysis, cast into epoxy mounts, and prepared as doubly-polished thin sections. The translucent, pale brown glassy rims were analyzed for major and minor elements on the 9-spectrometer ARL SEMQ microprobe at the U. S. Geological Survey, Menlo Park, using natural and synthetic standards (VG-2 for SiO₂, Al₂O₃, FeO, MgO, CaO, and Na₂O; orthoclase for K₂O; apatite for P₂O₅; barite for S; TiO₂ for TiO₂; and Mn₂O₃ for MnO). Polished thin sections of glass inclusions in crystals were also prepared and analyzed. All glasses were analyzed using a slightly defocused beam (roughly 5 μm spot size was used to avoid abundant phenocrysts and microphenocrysts), 10 nA beam current, 15 kV accelerating potential, and a total count time of 100 s for S, K₂O, P₂O₅, and Al₂O₃, and 200 s for the remaining elements. Each analysis is the average of 3-5 point analyses of glasses from a single sample; many reported analyses are averages of multiple samples from the same flow unit as indicated in Tables 3 and 4. The use of barite as the standard for S gives results about 15% lower than obtained using a sulfide (pyrrhotite or troilite) standard. This standard was used to improve agreement with previous results for samples from the same flow units analyzed by other techniques (see discussion in results section). Precision of the microprobe analyses is estimated from the means and standard deviations of 19 analyses of Juan de Fuca glass standard VG-2 and 15 analyses of Makoupuhi (Kilauea) glass standard A99 (Table 2). Analyses of different glass chips from the same flow unit agree within the analytical precision.

Dissolved H₂O and CO₂ concentrations were determined by transmission infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) on doubly polished glass chips using the procedures and calibrations described by Dixon et al. (1988). This microbeam technique allows us to avoid vesicles, crystals, and areas of seawater alteration that may affect analyses of bulk samples. Where more than one spectrum was measured on glasses from the same flow unit, we report the

average H₂O content and standard deviation. Dissolved H₂O concentrations based on two spectra from the same glass chip and from different glass chips from the same flow unit are reproducible to within 6% of the amount present. The intensities of the carbonate (CO₃²⁻) peaks (1515 and 1435 cm⁻¹) were measured separately after numerical subtraction of the spectrum of Kilauea Iki lava lake glass 79-6-190.3 (a glass containing no detectable dissolved CO₂) and a concentration was calculated from the intensity of each peak. The dissolved CO₂ contents are averages of all of the CO₂ concentrations measured from all spectra on glass chips from the same flow unit. For samples with dissolved CO₂ contents greater than 50 ppm, analyses on the same and different glass chips from the same flow unit are reproducible to within 8% of the amount present. Dissolved CO₂ contents less than 50 ppm are near the limits of detection and are reproducible to no better than about 70% of the amount present.

The accuracy of the reported H₂O and CO₂ concentrations is limited primarily by uncertainties in the molar absorption coefficients. These values are known to within 15% for the carbonate bands (Fine and Stolper 1986) and to about 10% for the hydroxyl band at 3535 cm⁻¹ in basalts.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

Microscopic Petrography.-All analyzed samples have glassy rims. The modal abundances in the along-rift samples (Table 3) are highly variable but only 3 mineral assemblages are found: 1) olivine + clinopyroxene + spinel + glass; 2) olivine + clinopyroxene + plagioclase + spinel + glass; and 3) olivine + clinopyroxene + plagioclase + orthopyroxene + spinel + glass. Four samples have assemblage (1), ten have assemblage (2), and twelve have assemblage (3). The modal data demonstrate the crystal-rich character of many of the samples and the unusual occurrence of small amounts of clinopyroxene and plagioclase in olivine-rich (>10% modal olivine) samples. Clague et al. (1990) present detailed mineral chemistry and whole-rock compositions of these lavas and

discuss their formation processes. The glassy rims of the off-rift samples contain abundant microlites and are texturally distinct from the other submarine samples. This texture is typical of subaerially degassed lavas that have quenched below sealevel (see discussion in Moore and Clague, 1987).

Olivine, and less commonly plagioclase, clinopyroxene, and orthopyroxene phenocrysts contain translucent, pale brown glass inclusions. Glass inclusions up to about 200 μm in diameter are present in both euhedral and resorbed phenocrysts. Many of the inclusions in olivine contain single euhedral crystals of Cr-rich spinel, and some include a small vapor bubble. No sulfide phase was seen in any inclusions. CO_2 -rich fluid inclusions in olivine, like those observed in dunite xenoliths from Hawaii (Roedder 1965), were not observed.

Moore (1965) studied a subset of these samples and showed that down to depths of 800 m, Puna Ridge basalts have greater than 10 percent vesicles and bulk densities less than 2.8 g/cm^3 . Below 800 m the vesicles become smaller and less abundant and the bulk densities increase slowly with depth from 2.8 to 3.0 g/cm^3 . Our modal data, when uncertainties in eruption depth are considered, support his observations. The vesicle content is less than 2 vol% at 2000-5500 m depth. At shallower levels, vesicle content increases with decreasing depth to nearly 35 vol% in a lava collected at 490 m.

Major and Minor Elements.-The glassy rims analyzed in this study are tholeiitic in composition and have low ($\leq 7 \text{ wt. } \%$) MgO contents (Tables 3 and 4). Glass compositions are uncorrelated with eruption depth and more and less fractionated samples occur with equal frequency at all depths. Glass compositions of the along-rift samples are plotted on MgO-variation diagrams in Figure 2 with model liquid lines of descent calculated using the procedures of Grove and Baker (1984) (see caption of fig. 2 for details). The compositions of the off-rift samples are similar to those of the along-rift samples. Al_2O_3 and CaO contents decrease with decreasing MgO content, whereas FeO^* , Na_2O , K_2O ,

P₂O₅, and TiO₂ contents increase with decreasing MgO content. The FeO* contents of the most fractionated samples (MgO < 5.5 wt. %) are lower and their P₂O₅ and K₂O contents are higher than the values expected based on the calculated liquid line of descent. The analytical errors for SiO₂ (1σ = 0.30-0.43) are large enough to mask any trends that may be present. Analyses of Na₂O, P₂O₅, Al₂O₃, and CaO are generally within error of subaerial lavas with similar MgO contents (Wright and Fiske 1971). At the same MgO content, our SiO₂ analyses are higher and our FeO, TiO₂, and K₂O analyses are lower than those of Wright and Fiske (1971).

The K₂O/P₂O₅ ratio for the glasses included in this study is nearly constant with an average and 1s value of 1.61 ± 0.12 (fig. 3). Whole-rock XRF analyses of many of the same samples give an average K₂O/P₂O₅ ratio of 1.79 ± 0.07 (Clague et al. 1990), similar to values determined by wet-chemistry on whole-rock samples for prehistoric Kilauean lavas (1.70 ± 0.06) and the 1840 Kilauea picrite (1.84 ± 0.06), but lower than the 1959 Kilauea Iki lavas (2.05 ± 0.06) (Wright 1971). Variations in incompatible element ratios comparable in magnitude to these variations in K₂O/P₂O₅ in lavas from many different eruptions of Kilauea have been observed during a single sustained eruption of Mauna Ulu (Hofmann et al. 1984).

Dissolved H₂O.-Dissolved H₂O contents in along-rift glasses range from 0.11 to 0.85 wt. %. Dissolved H₂O contents in the two off-rift (subaerially degassed) glasses analyzed by FTIR are 0.09 wt. %. Flow 1742a has a H₂O content (0.11 wt. %) similar to those of these subaerial samples, even though it was dredged along the axis of the Puna Ridge at a depth of 1400 m. Samples having dissolved H₂O contents less than 0.35 wt. % contain only OH⁻ groups. Based on the presence of an absorption at 1630 cm⁻¹ in glasses with total water contents greater than 0.35 wt. %, we conclude that both molecular H₂O and OH⁻ groups are present in these glasses. The molar absorption coefficient for the molecular water band at 1630 cm⁻¹ in basaltic glass is not well known, but using the values

for rhyolitic and albitic glasses (Newman et al. 1986; Silver and Stolper 1989), we estimate that no more than 10% of the total dissolved water is present as molecular H_2O . Dissolved molecular H_2O is present in Kilauean tholeiitic glasses at slightly lower total H_2O contents than in mid-ocean ridge basalt (MORB) glasses; for example, no molecular H_2O was detected in glasses from the Juan de Fuca Ridge having dissolved H_2O contents up to 0.48 wt. % (Dixon et al. 1988).

Water concentrations in samples from a few of the same dredges analyzed in this study have been analyzed previously by other techniques. The data of Moore (1965) and Kyser and O'Neil (1984) have been corrected for the mass fraction of phenocrysts in their whole-rock samples using our modal data (see caption to fig. 4). In general there is good agreement between the different data sets (fig. 4a). Almost all the H_2O concentrations measured by Moore (1965) using the Penfield method, Harris (1981) and Kyser and O'Neil (1984) using vacuum fusion/manometry, and Killingley and Muenow (1975) and Muenow et al. (1979) using vacuum fusion/mass spectrometry on glass separates, are within 30% of our values. However, the analysis of sample 1712 by Harris (1981) is 57% lower than ours and the analysis of 1717 by Moore (1965) is 70% higher than ours.

H_2O contents show a weak correlation with depth (fig. 5a) that is unrelated to the solubility curve for pure water in basalt at 1100°C based on an extrapolation of the high pressure data of Hamilton et al. (1964) to the low pressures relevant to these depths of eruption. Nearly the entire range of H_2O values occurs within the depth range of 1400 to 1600 m. Samples erupted in water depths shallower than 1000 m fall near the solubility curve (Hamilton et al. 1964) and are probably saturated with respect to water. These samples, however, are not the ones with the lowest H_2O contents. Samples erupted deeper than 1000 m are greatly undersaturated with respect to pure water.

H_2O contents are plotted versus MgO and K_2O contents in figs. 6a and b. In general, H_2O contents increase with decreasing MgO and increasing K_2O contents, but the scatter in the H_2O data is two to three times greater than in the K_2O data at a given MgO

content (fig. 2). The observed scatter in the H₂O concentrations is reflected in the variable H₂O/K₂O ratios that range from 0.24 to 1.49, in contrast to the nearly constant P₂O₅/K₂O ratios (fig. 3). We have subdivided the samples into three arbitrary groups based on their H₂O/K₂O ratios: (1) low-H₂O/K₂O samples having H₂O/K₂O ratios less than or equal to 0.7; (2) moderate-H₂O/K₂O samples having H₂O/K₂O ratios ranging from 0.7 to 1.0; and (3) high-H₂O/K₂O samples having H₂O/K₂O ratios greater than 1.0. These three groups plot along roughly parallel trends on the H₂O versus K₂O diagram (fig. 6b). H₂O contents samples in each group are weakly negatively correlated with MgO content. Garcia et al. (1989) also found a rough negative correlation between H₂O and MgO in other glasses from the Puna Ridge, but they did not observe H₂O concentrations as low as those in our low H₂O/K₂O group.

Dissolved S.-The S contents of the Puna Ridge glasses range from 220 to 1440 ppm by weight. The values for the off-rift samples (70-240 ppm by weight) are similar to those reported for fountain spatter from Kilauea (Swanson and Fabbi 1973; Gerlach and Graeber 1985) and support the idea that these samples were subaerially degassed. Flow 1742a has a S content (220 ppm) similar to those of the off-rift samples, even though it was dredged along the axis of the Puna Ridge at a depth of 1400 m.

Though the use of a barite standard for microprobe analysis of S results in S values about 15% lower than when a sulfide standard is used (e.g., compare the MORB trend presented in Figure 7 with that of Mathez (1976)), our values still tend to be higher (from 8% lower to 30% higher) than those in samples from the same flow units analyzed using x-ray fluorescence spectrometry (Moore and Fabbi 1971) on 9 whole-rock samples and corrected for the mass fraction of phenocrysts, or using vacuum fusion/mass spectrometry (Killingley and Muenow 1975; Muenow et al. 1979) on 13 glass separates (fig. 4b). Our S concentrations are 18 to 50% higher than those measured using vacuum fusion/manometry on glass separates from 7 samples (Harris 1981; Sakai et al. 1984) and using

combustion/manometry on glass separates from 4 samples (Des Marais and Moore 1984) from the same flow units (fig. 4b). Some of the discrepancies between our measurements of S in the glass and previous analyses of S in bulk samples may be related to the type of sample analyzed; for example, in addition to the glassy rim, the whole-rock samples analyzed by Moore and Fabbi (1971) may have included unknown amounts of the crystalline interior that may have lost some sulfur upon crystallization (Moore and Fabbi 1971). Other discrepancies could reflect analytical techniques; for example, our S concentrations may be systematically high (though the discrepancy would be even worse if a sulfide standard had been used) or perhaps S is not completely released during stepped-heating fusion and combustion techniques. Though the interlaboratory comparison suggests that the accuracy of sulfur determinations is poorly known, the S analyses presented in this study are precise and can be directly compared to the IR analyses of H₂O and CO₂ because both data sets were determined using microbeam techniques on glass.

There is no clear correlation between S concentration and depth (fig. 5b). As is observed for H₂O, the entire range of S contents occurs between 1400 and 1600 m water depth.

S concentrations are plotted against FeO* (total iron reported as FeO) in Figure 7a with the correlation observed in MORB glasses (based on analyses obtained using the same microprobe standards and procedures used here; Clague, unpub. data). S concentrations in Kilauean glasses are lower than MORB glasses at the same FeO* concentration. The samples with the highest S contents at a given FeO* content are within error of the line defined by MORB glasses, which has been interpreted as defining sulfide-saturated liquid compositions (Mathez 1976). Note that the MORB FeO*-S trend shown on Figure 7a is about 15% lower than that of Mathez (1976), presumably due to differences in microprobe standardization for S. Most of the samples with highest S contents belong to our high H₂O/K₂O group. We consider the large range in S contents in Kilauean glasses, which

contrasts with what has been observed in MORB glasses, to be a significant feature of our data set.

There is a positive correlation between H₂O and S (fig. 7b), defined mainly by the 5 members of the low-H₂O/K₂O group. The range of S concentrations reported for other submarine glasses from Kilauea (Garcia et al. 1989) is similar to that spanned by our high- and moderate-H₂O/K₂O samples.

Dissolved CO₂.-Dissolved CO₂ concentrations in the along rift glasses range from below detection limits to 280 ppm. The only form of dissolved CO₂ detected in these samples is carbonate ion complexes. No detectable CO₂ (<10 ppm) was found in the off-rift (subaerially degassed) glasses.

CO₂ contents of some of the same flows analyzed by us have been analyzed by other workers (Muenow et al. 1979; Harris 1981; Des Marais and Moore 1984; Matthey et al. 1984). Although a detailed comparison shows considerable scatter (fig. 4c), our measurements are similar to those of Harris (1981), Des Marais and Moore (1984) and Matthey et al. (1984), but significantly lower than those of Muenow et al. (1979). Such discrepancies in interlaboratory comparisons of CO₂ contents of basaltic glasses are well documented but poorly understood (see Des Marais 1986; Fine and Stolper 1986; Craig 1987; Exley et al. 1987, Stolper and Holloway 1988; Dixon et al. 1988).

CO₂ concentrations are plotted versus depth in Figure 5c along with the experimentally determined solubility curve of CO₂ in basalt at 1200°C for pressures up to 1.5 kbar (Stolper and Holloway 1988). Though scattered, the dissolved CO₂ contents show a positive correlation with depth. The slope of a linear regression line through the data and forced through zero yields a slope of 42 ± 2 (1 σ) ppm/km. This value is within error of the slope of 38 ± 2 (1 σ) ppm/km for the solubility data of Stolper and Holloway (1988) but lower than a slope of 59 ppm/km for the apparent solubility curve of Harris (1981). Several samples, however, deviate significantly either positively or negatively

from the solubility curve. Dissolved CO₂ contents do not correlate with major or minor element concentrations, or with water contents.

Sample D4, dredged from near the rift zone at a depth of 5470 m, contains about 280 ppm CO₂, approximately 70 ppm CO₂ in excess of the solubility at this depth. Sample D5 is from a voluminous lava flow of uncertain eruption depth located at the base of the rift and contains about 260 ppm CO₂. Based on the similar CO₂ contents of these two samples, we suggest that the lava flows sampled by D4 and D5 erupted at about the same depth; it is possible, and consistent with the distribution of the lava flow (see fig. 1) that D5 erupted in the vicinity of sample D4 and, channelled by the moat, flowed laterally along the base of the rift to its present location.

Our CO₂ data are not in agreement with those of Garcia et al. (1989). Their reported CO₂ concentrations for submarine Kilauean glasses range from 350 to 1350 ppm in excess of the solubility at the depth of eruption, whereas our values are supersaturated by no more than 70 ppm. Their CO₂ concentrations were measured on bulk samples using vacuum fusion/mass spectrometry, a technique that commonly gives CO₂ values much higher than FTIR analyses on the same samples. We emphasize that our analyses are determined using the same technique as those constraining the solubility curve of Stolper and Holloway (1988) and measure only CO₂ dissolved in the glass.

Glass Inclusions.-Analyses of glass inclusions in olivine, plagioclase, clinopyroxene, and orthopyroxene are presented in Clague et al. (1990). Based on major and minor element compositions of these inclusions (Clague et al. 1990), they have crystallized a small (<20%) but variable percentage of their volume onto the walls of the host phase.

The only volatile element we have analyzed in the inclusions is S, which was determined by electron microprobe as in the host glasses. The S contents of glass inclusions range from 220-1380 ppm in 45 analyzed olivine crystals, from 750-1560 ppm

in 4 analyzed plagioclase crystals, from 970-1980 ppm in 4 analyzed clinopyroxene crystals, and is 1400 ppm in a single orthopyroxene crystal. Several small gabbroic xenoliths also contain glass inclusions in olivine (6 analyses ranging from 370-1630 ppm S), clinopyroxene (2 analyses of 680 and 1300 ppm S), and plagioclase (1 analysis of 750 ppm S). Even though the S contents of all these glass inclusions are presumably higher than the S content of the melt that was originally trapped in the crystals (because of the effects of crystallization on the inclusion walls) the facts that some glass inclusions have S contents as low as the lowest value observed in the rind glasses and that enrichments due to crystallization on inclusion walls are $\leq 20\%$ suggest to us that the host phenocrysts grew from magmas having a wide range of volatile contents. We note that many of the glass inclusion compositions are above the inferred sulfide saturation line in FeO-S (fig. 8b) and that no sulfide phases have been observed in these inclusions, suggesting that sulfide nucleation was inhibited within the inclusions during post-entrapment crystallization of the host phase.

INTERPRETATIONS

Major Element Chemistry.-Wright and Fiske (1971) demonstrated that lavas from Kilauea with MgO >6.8 wt. % plot along olivine-control lines. Puna Ridge glasses generally have lower MgO contents than the lower limit for olivine controlled lavas from Kilauea and define trends distinct from olivine-control lines, but similar or parallel to those for strongly fractionated lavas from Kilauea (Wright and Fiske 1971). In particular, the trends of decreasing CaO and Al₂O₃ with decreasing MgO result from crystallization of clinopyroxene and plagioclase in addition to olivine, as demonstrated by experimental studies of Kilauean lavas (Thompson and Tilley 1969; Helz and Thornber 1987).

The trends in the major element data are generally consistent with fractional crystallization of up to 30% olivine, plagioclase, and clinopyroxene in proportions of 1:5.2:4.9 from a parental magma containing 7.0 wt. % MgO (fig. 2). Although this simple

fractionation model successfully reproduces most of the observed trends in major element chemistry, it cannot account for the low FeO* contents, or the high P₂O₅ and K₂O contents, of the most fractionated samples. Chemical evidence for the fractionation of late-crystallizing phases not on the liquid of erupted lavas (e.g., oxide crystallization to account for the low FeO contents), and greater increases of incompatible elements with fractionation than can be generated by simple fractional crystallization are characteristics common to many suites of volcanic rocks and may be caused by mixing of residual melts from the crystallizing margins of the magma chamber with well-mixed convecting magma in the interior (Langmuir 1989) or by periodic replenishment of magma bodies that are fractionating and serving as sources of erupted lavas (O'Hara 1977; O'Hara and Mathews 1981). Data on mineral assemblages and their compositions support an explanation of these deviations from simple liquid lines of descent that invokes an important role for magma mixing (Clague et al. 1990). Moreover, as we show below, magma mixing appears to play a critical role in generating the range of volatile contents observed in submarine lavas. Some of the observed deviations in incompatible element concentrations from the simple liquid line of descent may also be related to variable degrees of partial melting or to source region heterogeneity (Wright 1971; Hofmann et al. 1984; Garcia et al. 1989; Clague et al. 1990).

Magma Ascent Rate and CO₂ Supersaturation. -The CO₂ contents of the Puna Ridge glasses, which are approximately saturated with CO₂-rich vapor at their depth of eruption, differ from those for glasses from the East Pacific Rise and Juan de Fuca Ridge (Fine and Stolper 1986; Dixon et al. 1988), where many of the glasses are significantly supersaturated with respect to CO₂-rich vapor at their eruption depth. The CO₂-supersaturated nature of the mid-ocean ridge lavas has been attributed to incomplete degassing during rapid ascent and eruption. The simplest explanation for the correspondence between the dissolved CO₂ contents of most glasses from the Puna Ridge

and the solubility curve is that magmas erupted along the Puna Ridge rose and erupted slowly enough to allow nearly complete exsolution of a CO₂-rich vapor prior to quenching. If this is the case, it implies that magmas along the Puna Ridge typically take more time to travel from a magma reservoir to their final site of quenching on the seafloor than those along the East Pacific Rise and Juan de Fuca Ridge. The predominance of pillow lavas along the Puna Ridge (Lonsdale 1989) is consistent with low effusion rates (Ballard et al. 1979, Holcomb and Clague 1983). The only samples from the Puna Ridge that plot significantly above the solubility curve in Figure 5c are those from the deepest dredges. Incomplete degassing of these samples would be consistent with the observed increase in the proportion of sheet flows, which are thought to erupt at higher effusion rates than pillows (Ballard et al. 1979, Holcomb and Clague 1983), with depth along the rift (Lonsdale 1989).

H₂O and S Contents.-H₂O behaves as an incompatible element during partial melting and fractional crystallization of anhydrous phases; therefore, if these were the only processes affecting the magma composition, H₂O would correlate approximately linearly with other incompatible elements (such as K₂O) as has been found in MORB (e.g., Moore 1970; Michael and Chase 1987; Dixon et al. 1988). The wide range of H₂O and S contents at the same MgO, FeO, and K₂O contents (figs. 6a, 6b, and 7a) demonstrates that processes other than, or in addition to, crystal-liquid fractionation of anhydrous phases influences their concentrations. These samples are so low in H₂O and S that it is unlikely they would be saturated with H- or S-rich crystalline phases, and, as expected, such phases have not been observed in the lavas. Crystallization of hydrous or S-bearing phases, therefore, is also unlikely to have been a major factor in accounting for the observed variations in H₂O and S contents. Moreover, the variations in H₂O/K₂O and S/K₂O ratios of up to a factor of 6 are not likely to be explained by source region heterogeneities because

comparable variations are not observed in ratios of nonvolatile incompatible elements (e.g., K_2O/P_2O_5 ; see fig. 3).

Exsolution of a vapor phase is one possible mechanism for generating a range in concentrations of volatile components such as H_2O and S while leaving those of nonvolatile incompatible elements unaffected. In order to assess whether degassing during submarine eruption can explain the observed range in H_2O and S, we need to compare the conditions under which substantial amounts of H_2O and S degas from these magmas to those experienced on the seafloor. It is well known that CO_2 exsolves from basaltic magma over a wide range of pressures and dominates the vapor phase at pressures greater than about 100 bar in low- H_2O basalts such as MORB and ocean island tholeiites (Killingley and Muenow 1975; Moore et al. 1977; Delaney et al. 1978; Gerlach and Graeber 1985; Gerlach 1986). Existing solubility data for pure water in basalt (Hamilton et al. 1964) and studies of Kilauean lavas (Moore 1965; Killingley and Muenow 1975; Kyser and O'Neil 1984) indicate that degassing of H_2O and S does not become significant in these melts until pressures lower than about 100 bars are reached (corresponding to water depths shallower than 1000 m or magma column heights less than about 400 m). The fact that the samples from shallower than 1000 m depth have concentrations of H_2O and CO_2 near their solubilities at pressures corresponding to their depths of eruption (figs. 5a and c) is consistent with saturation with respect to a vapor phase containing significant concentrations of both CO_2 and H_2O during submarine eruptions at these depths. Partial degassing on submarine eruption might thus account for depletions in H_2O and S in Puna Ridge glasses erupted shallower than 1000 m, but it cannot be a significant factor in explaining the range of H_2O and S contents of samples erupted deeper than 1000 m.

Another important aspect of the data for samples erupted deeper than 1000 m is that glasses that are low in H_2O and S are not also systematically low in CO_2 (fig. 5c). Thus, the observed range of H_2O and S in the >1000 m samples cannot be a relic of a single episode of low pressure degassing at some point in their evolution prior to their eruption on

the submarine Puna Ridge. If this were the case, the CO₂ contents should be essentially zero, because at pressures low enough to degas substantial quantities of H₂O and S, nearly all of the CO₂ would also exsolve from the melt (Gerlach 1986). The correspondence of most of the CO₂ data to the solubility curve (fig. 5c) is strong evidence that these samples last degassed under submarine conditions near their depths of eruption on the Puna Ridge, and that their preeruptive CO₂ contents were even higher than their current values. These data thus argue strongly that the range of H₂O and S contents observed in samples deeper than 1000 m are not the result of a single episode of low pressure degassing at some point in their history. Note that the off-rift samples do not contain detectable CO₂, consistent with a single stage of subaerial degassing in their evolution.

Our preferred explanation for the observed depletions in H₂O and S that are uncorrelated with nonvolatile incompatible elements is that the lavas we have studied are samples of mixed magmas, one component of which was degassed (i.e., either by actual subaerial eruption or in a shallow magma chamber in which total pressure was less than lithostatic, perhaps by connection through cracks to the surface) and one that was not. Thus, although the magmas we have sampled erupted in submarine environments, they have inherited to varying degrees the characteristic H₂O and S depletions of lavas degassed at low total pressure. Our model is illustrated schematically in Figure 9. In the following sections, we discuss some of the consequences of our model in quantitative terms.

Quantitative Modelling.-We have developed a simple quantitative model that describes the mixing hypothesis presented in the preceding paragraph. We assume that each glass composition can be generated by the following sequence of processes: (1) mixing of undegassed and degassed liquids; (2) fractional crystallization of olivine, clinopyroxene, and plagioclase from this mixture to generate a residual liquid; and (3) further degassing during eruption on the sea floor (principally of CO₂ for eruption depths >1000 m; H₂O and probably S, in addition to CO₂, for eruption depths <1000 m).

For both degassed and undegassed end members, we chose a liquid with a major element composition (shown as "P" in fig. 2; composition listed in caption to fig. 2) similar to the most primitive analyzed glass (MgO ~7.0 wt. %) from the Puna Ridge because glasses with high and low H₂O contents are found at this primitive end of our sample distribution (fig. 6a). In order to be able to account for all of our H₂O data, the H₂O content of the undegassed end member was chosen to be 0.62 wt % and the H₂O content of the degassed end member was chosen to be 0.10 wt %. The S content of the undegassed end member was chosen to be 1200 ppm and that of the degassed end member was chosen to be 200 ppm; these values were chosen such that both end members have an H₂O/S ratio close to the average of 5.1 (see fig. 7b). The CO₂ content of the undegassed end member was chosen to be 480 ppm, which is the minimum value required to account for the highest CO₂ content glasses we have analyzed. The degassed end member is assumed to have no CO₂. The concentrations of H₂O, S, and CO₂ in the degassed end member are close to those measured in the off-rift glasses (Table 4).

The proportions of the two end members and the amount of subsequent fractional crystallization for each sample are listed in Table 5. Because the CaO data show the least scatter with respect to the calculated fractional crystallization trend as discussed above, the amount of fractional crystallization needed to generate the major element composition of the each glass from a parent magma "P" was estimated using its CaO content. The H₂O concentration of the reconstructed parental magma composition for each glass was then calculated by correcting for this amount of fractional crystallization. This H₂O content was then used as the basis for calculating the proportions of degassed and undegassed end members in the parental magma.

Several aspects of this quantitative modelling require clarification. First, the choices of degassed and undegassed end members are not unique. For example, the undegassed end member could have higher H₂O, S, and CO₂ contents if all samples in our collection contain some of the degassed component. Also, the degassed end member could

have lower or higher concentrations depending on the extent of degassing experienced by individual packets of magma. Second, there is nothing in our data set that requires that there are only two end members involved in the mixing process. For example, in one case the mixture could involve two end members that are unfractionated but variably degassed (this is the model we have chosen); in another, fractional crystallization of one or both end members could have preceded degassing of the volatile-depleted end member and mixing, after which more fractional crystallization and mixing could occur; in another, one or both end members could be more primitive (i.e., have higher MgO) than the ones we have chosen. However, since the courses of fractional crystallization and degassing are little affected by each other on the scale we are considering, these additional permutations on the processes we are postulating would have little effect on the outcome of our modelling.

The model we have proposed accounts well for the observed variations in, and correlations among, volatile and nonvolatile elements in Puna Ridge glasses. For example, our model defines, within 2σ errors, a field that encompasses the H₂O, MgO, and K₂O data (figs. 6a and b), although the most fractionated samples have K₂O contents higher and FeO contents lower by more than 1 σ error than our model. As discussed above, these discrepancies could reflect the inadequacy of modelling complex magma chamber processes by simple fractional crystallization. At this point there is insufficient information to properly constrain the details of these complex processes, but because the solid-liquid partition coefficients of H₂O, S, K₂O and P₂O₅ are similar, these components will covary similarly whether simple fractional crystallization or more complex processes are incorporated into the modelling. In any case, the variability caused by fractional crystallization (or these more complex fractionation processes) is readily distinguishable from that produced by mixing of degassed and undegassed magmas.

The proportion of the degassed end member required to produce the moderate- and high-H₂O group compositions is less than 50%. Note that although three of the five low H₂O/K₂O samples (>50% degassed end member) occur deeper than 1000 m (below the

depth at which significant H₂O and S are lost on submarine eruption), none of the samples in the low H₂O/K₂O group occur deeper than 3000 m (the depth at which a change in slope of the rift axis occurs) suggesting that the proportions of degassed magma within magma reservoirs are greater at shallower levels.

Our model accounts well for the S data (figs. 7a and b), as expected based on the roughly constant H₂O/S ratio of the samples. The positive correlation of H₂O and S is produced by the colinear trends of degassing and fractional crystallization.

The behavior of CO₂ predicted by our model is interesting in that depending upon the proportions of the two end members and the depth of submarine eruption, the magmas may be either supersaturated or undersaturated with respect to CO₂ on eruption. The following examples illustrate this point. Consider a batch of magma residing in a magma chamber at a depth of 4 km beneath the summit of Kilauea (lithostatic load about 1000 bars). A 50/50 mixture of degassed (no CO₂) and undegassed (480 ppm CO₂) magmas will have a CO₂ content of about 240 ppm; undersaturated with respect to CO₂ at this depth in the magma chamber. During lateral injection into the rift system and eruption, the pressure decreases to hydrostatic (300 bars), and the CO₂ solubility decreases from 400 to 110 ppm. Therefore, during eruption the mixed magma will become supersaturated with respect to a vapor phase and exsolution of CO₂-rich vapor will occur. In this way, a magma can both be rich enough in CO₂ to degas on submarine eruption, yet inherit the H₂O and S depletion of shallow degassing (which, as discussed above, would in a single stage process also strip the magma of all its CO₂). However, if the mixing proportions were greater than about 80% of the degassed end member, the mixed magma would have less than 110 ppm, and during eruption on the seafloor, CO₂-rich vesicles would not form.

The behavior of CO₂ in almost all of the Puna Ridge glasses is consistent with our proposed mixing model. Calculated mixing proportions listed in Table 5 lead to the prediction that only 1 sample would be undersaturated with respect to CO₂-rich vapor on eruption. This sample (1742a) contains no detectable CO₂, is the only bubble-free sample

shallower than 5000 m, and, as predicted, falls outside of errors below the solubility curve in Figure 5c. The remaining samples are predicted to contain sufficient CO₂ to become supersaturated with respect to CO₂-rich vapor during eruption. The model does not predict, however, the absence of detectable CO₂ in sample 1689 erupted at a depth of 1600 m. We note that this sample is vesicular (4% vesicles), highly fractionated (5.20 wt. % MgO), and contains an extremely high H₂O content of 0.81 wt. %. Exsolution on eruption of vesicles rich in both H₂O and CO₂ could account at least qualitatively for the characteristics of this sample. It is interesting that the only sample from the Juan de Fuca Ridge that fell significantly below the experimentally-determined CO₂ solubility curve was also the most fractionated of the suite (Dixon et al. 1988), perhaps reflecting a similar effect. It is also possible that sample 1689 has undergone an episode of low pressure degassing followed by migration down the rift system, as suggested by Des Marais and Moore (1984) for selected CO₂-poor samples.

Isotopic Fractionation and Seawater Addition.-Kyser and O'Neil (1984) observed a positive correlation between δD (-73 to -33‰) and H₂O contents (0.24 to 0.56 wt. %) in 10 glassy whole rock samples from the Puna Ridge. They proposed that small amounts of seawater ($\delta D = 0‰$) were added to unaltered magma ($\delta D = -80‰$) at magmatic temperatures, resulting in increases in both δD and H₂O contents. Seawater addition, however, would not readily explain the covariation of H₂O and S observed in this study. A positive correlation between H₂O content and δD was not found, however, by Garcia et al. (1989) in glasses from four Kilauean tholeiites having a smaller range of δD values (-61 to -74‰) and water contents (0.44 to 0.57 wt. %) than the suite of samples studied by Kyser et al. (1984), nor is there any overlap between the two data sets (fig. 10).

Our model, with minor modifications, can account for the covariation of δD and H₂O contents observed by Kyser and O'Neil (1984). We generated the degassed end

member (0.25 wt. % H₂O and δD of -80‰) from the undegassed end member (0.62 wt. % H₂O and δD of -35‰) by Rayleigh fractionation using a vapor/melt fractionation factor of 1.050. The fractionation factor needed to fit the data is at the high end of a wide range of values (1.010 to 1.050) suggested for high temperature degassing of basalt (Kyser and O'Neil 1984, Pineau and Javoy 1986) based on the δD values of coexisting glass and vapor in submarine basalts.

Figure 10 shows the range of H₂O contents and δD values predicted by our model of mixing of degassed and undegassed magmas followed by fractional crystallization along with the data of Kyser and O'Neil (1984) and Garcia et al. (1989). Although there is considerable scatter in the observed δD values that cannot be rationalized by any simple model, our model of mixing and fractional crystallization explains the observed range in δD values and their correlation with H₂O content reasonably well. The correspondence between our model and the data of Kyser and O'Neil (1984) is much poorer if we use a more degassed component for our degassed end member composition. If significant, this could suggest that the degassed end member may not typically be as fully degassed as the 0.10 wt. % H₂O component used to generate Figures 6 and 7. Note that our reinterpretation of the data of Kyser and O'Neil (1984) implies that mantle source regions for Hawaiian tholeiites may have δD values as high as ~-30 to -40‰, significantly heavier than the value of -80‰ assumed by other workers (Craig and Lupton 1976; Kyser and O'Neil, 1984) for the mantle source regions for Hawaii and MORB. In a study of another oceanic hotspot, Poreda et al. (1986) conclude that the mantle source regions for Iceland must have δD values heavier than MORB, in the range of -44 to -74‰. Also, in a study of glasses from the East Pacific Rise, Chaussidon et al. (1989) document a positive correlation between δD and ¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd ratios and use these data to suggest that the mantle source regions for these lavas have δD values ranging from -55 to -84‰. These

studies suggest that the mantle is heterogeneous with respect to hydrogen isotopes as well as with respect to radiogenic isotopes and concentrations of incompatible elements.

Volatile Content of Primary Magma.-We can estimate the volatile contents of Kilauean primary magma based on the composition of our hypothetical undegassed end member (0.62 wt. % H₂O, 1200 ppm S). Crystallization of about 25% olivine and minor amounts (~1%) of magnesiochromite from an average primary magma composition containing about 16% MgO proposed by Clague et al. (1990) is required to generate the major element composition of the undegassed end member. Thus, correcting for about 25% crystallization, we calculate that such a primary magma would contain about 0.47 wt. % H₂O and 900 ppm S. These values must be considered minimum estimates, because we may not have sampled the undegassed end member composition (i.e., all samples may have some fraction of degassed magma). Also, the degree of partial melting, and consequently the concentrations of incompatible elements, may vary by as much as $\pm 20\%$ from the average value for different batches of magma entering Kilauea (Clague et al. 1990), implying that the initial H₂O content may range from about 0.38 to 0.56 wt. % and the initial S content may range from 720 to 1080 ppm.

Several other approaches can be used to estimate the S content of the primary magma. First, use of the highest S/K₂O ratio in the high S glass inclusions in olivines (0.238) and the K₂O content of the average primary magma (0.39 wt. %), yields an estimate of 930 ppm S in the primary magma. Second, the highest S content in glass inclusions in olivine from tephra erupted near the summit of Kilauea (Clague, unpub. data) is 1300 ppm in a glass with 6.7 wt. % MgO. Correction for about 35% fractional crystallization results in an estimate of 845 ppm S in a primary melt composition.

Our estimated H₂O content is higher than values of 0.32 wt. % by Greenland et al. (1985) based on gas emission data and 0.30 wt. % by Gerlach and Graeber (1985). Our estimate of the S content in the primary magma is nearly identical to that of Greenland et al.

(1985) based on gas emission data but lower than a value of 1300 ppm used by Gerlach and Graeber (1985) based on glass inclusion data of Harris and Anderson (1983) on glass inclusions with about 12% MgO.

Mechanisms for Generation and Recycling of Degassed Magma.-Recycling of magma degassed at shallow levels in the crust may provide a possible mechanism for returning degassed magmas to the interior of the volcano for mixing with relatively undegassed magmas. Since the tops of the Kilauea summit magma chamber and rift zone reservoirs are on average about 2 km beneath the volcano surface (Fiske and Kinoshita 1969; Koyanagi et al. 1976; Ryan et al. 1981; Ryan 1988), corresponding to lithostatic pressures of about 500 to 560 bars (assuming crustal densities of 2.5 to 2.8 g/cm³), significant amounts of H₂O and S could not be simply lost from these magmas during residence in the magma reservoir, unless the pressure on the magma is much less than lithostatic. Considerable magmatic CO₂ is lost during summit chamber degassing (Gerlach 1980; Gerlach and Graeber 1985; Greenland et al. 1985; Gerlach 1986), and vigorous degassing at eruptive fissures with little or no lava appearing at the surface is commonly observed at Kilauea (Moore and Koyanagi 1969), implying the existence of open pathways from the surface to the magma and less than lithostatic pressures on the magma. The continuous emission of SO₂ from high temperature fumaroles during repose periods at Kilauea provides evidence that sulfur is able to degas even at times when magma does not reach the surface (Casadevall et al. 1980; Gerlach 1980; Harris and Anderson 1983; Greenland et al. 1985) and is consistent with the idea of less than lithostatic pressures in the summit chamber. Another possibility is that CO₂-rich bubbles rising through the magma within the summit magma chamber (Vergnolle and Jaupart 1990) may progressively dehydrate the magma as has been hypothesized for the Bishop Tuff (Anderson et al. 1989). Thus, degassing of magma at depth in the summit magma chamber is one possible

mechanism for generating the degassed component observed in submarine magmas erupted on the Puna Ridge.

Estimates for the amounts of S and H₂O loss during summit chamber degassing are highly varied. Based on measured gas emission and magma supply rates, Greenland et al. (1985) estimate that magma residing in the summit magma reservoir degasses about 18% of its original S. Similar estimates for H₂O cannot be made because of contributions of unknown amounts of meteoric water to the gas emission data, but the near constant H₂O/S ratio shown in our data suggest that the proportion of H₂O degassed could be close to that of S. Gerlach and Graeber (1985) estimate a higher value of 46% for the amount of original S lost during summit degassing, but they may have overestimated the S concentration in the calculated chamber gas composition because of inaccuracies in analytical techniques used to measure S (as discussed above) in their parental (measured by microprobe) and stored (measured by XRF) magma compositions.

Recycling of degassed magma during sustained summit lava lake activity may also provide a mechanism for returning degassed magmas to the summit magma reservoir. Such phenomena have been well-documented during historic eruptions of Kilauea. On a small scale, subaerial lava flows (e.g., the earliest phase of Puu O'o) were observed descending into preexisting open cracks (Wolfe et al. 1987). On a larger scale, the 1919-1920 eruption at Mauna Iki on the southwest rift zone was fed by degassed lava drained from Halemaumau along shallow fissures (Jaggar 1947). The best documented example of lava lake backflow occurred during the Kilauea Iki summit eruption in 1959, for which Richter et al. (1970) observed backflow of lake lava down the vent during and following each of the 17 eruptive phases. Following phase 4 there was little net volume change in the lava lake, suggesting that a volume of lava comparable to that erupted reentered down the vent following each eruptive phase. Another example occurred on Feb. 7, 1960, when the still liquid core of the 1952 lava lake in Halemaumau drained away and resulted in the rapid collapse of the floor of Halemaumau (Richter et al. 1970, p. E70). This collapse and two

smaller subsequent collapses in Halemaumau had a total volume of about 20 million m³, and this volume of degassed summit lake lava presumably drained into magma reservoirs beneath Kilauea's summit. Degassing of magma within the crust may also occur when magma moves to relatively shallow depths and then returns to the main reservoir; for example, the summit chamber is presently only 1 km below Halemaumau pit crater, and it is not unreasonable to suppose that magmas may reach within 0.5 km or less of the surface as they migrate through pathways in the summit region.

In contrast to the predominance of rift eruptions over the past 70 yrs, the eruptive style of Kilauea during the 1800s, and in fact over much of the last 10,000 years (including the times of eruption of most of the Puna Ridge lavas; Clague et al. 1990), was characterized by vigorous summit activity and formation of sustained summit lava lakes (Holcomb 1987). The predominance of such an eruptive style at the summit over the period in which the Puna Ridge samples erupted is consistent with the important role played by a degassed end member in our model for the generation of the Puna Ridge suite. Periods of sustained summit activity and subsequent catastrophic caldera collapse would provide opportunities for significant quantities of degassed magma to return to the magma reservoir and mix with relatively undegassed magma (perhaps new influxes of primitive magma), followed by lateral injection of the mixed magma into an adjacent rift system. Mixing may also be facilitated by convection in the reservoir initiated by caldera collapse.

Predictions for Other Volcanoes.-We predict that depletions in volatile elements similar to those observed in Puna Ridge glasses should be observed in samples from rift zones of oceanic volcanoes whose summits have breached the sea surface (e.g., Mauna Loa), but not in samples from completely submerged oceanic volcanoes (e.g., Loihi). The H₂O contents of glasses from the submarine rift zone of Mauna Loa do indeed display a wide range at a given MgO content (Garcia et al. 1989), similar to that of Kilauean glasses (fig. 11). In contrast and also as predicted, the H₂O contents of tholeiitic glasses from the

summit of Loihi are higher than those of most glasses from the Mauna Loa submarine rift (Garcia et al. 1989), comparable to our high H₂O/K₂O samples (fig. 11). Similarly, Cl contents in tholeiitic glasses from Loihi are an order of magnitude higher than those in glasses from the submarine rift zones of Kilauea and Mauna Loa (Byers et al. 1985; Garcia et al. 1989). Byers et al. (1985) and Garcia et al. (1989) attributed these differences in H₂O and Cl contents to differences in the volatile element contents of the mantle source regions of Loihi and Mauna Loa parent magmas. While source regions for different Hawaiian volcanoes may indeed differ, the differences between the volatile contents of tholeiitic glasses from Loihi and those from the submarine rifts of Kilauea and Mauna Loa can also be explained by invoking a role for low pressure (perhaps even subaerially) degassed magma in eruptions on the submarine portions of the rift zones of volcanoes whose summits have breached the ocean surface.

CONCLUSIONS

We have presented major and volatile element concentrations in basaltic glasses from the submarine portion of the east rift zone of Kilauea Volcano, Hawaii. Significant features of our data are: (1) H_2O/K_2O ratios are highly variable, in contrast to the nearly constant ratios of nonvolatile incompatible elements (e.g., K_2O/P_2O_5); (2) S contents at a given FeO^* are highly variable and often much lower than required for sulfide saturation, in contrast to the simple trends observed in MORB glasses; (3) S contents in glass inclusions are highly variable, and (4) CO_2 contents of most glasses agree within error with CO_2 solubility at the pressure of eruption. These data cannot readily be explained by combinations of fractional crystallization, degassing during submarine eruption, seawater addition, or heterogeneities in the mantle source regions of the magmas.

Our data are consistent with generation of these submarine magmas by: (1) mixing of magmas depleted in H_2O , S, and CO_2 with relatively undegassed magmas (degassed to the extent that occurs on rise into the summit reservoir located at >2-3 km depth beneath the summit of Kilauea); followed by (2) up to 30% fractional crystallization of olivine, clinopyroxene, and plagioclase in the proportions of 1:5.2:4.9 from the mixed magma to generate residual liquid; followed by (3) further degassing upon eruption on the seafloor, principally of CO_2 for eruption depths greater than 1000 m and of CO_2 , H_2O and S shallower than 1000 m. The degassed component can be generated in the upper levels of the summit magma chamber, if the summit magma reservoir experiences pressures much less than lithostatic, by a flux of CO_2 -rich bubbles rising through the magma, or during sustained summit eruptions and in lava lakes. Mixing of the degassed and undegassed components can occur as degassed magma is returned to the interior of the volcano, perhaps associated with drainbacks of lava lakes developed during sustained summit eruptions. The final phase of degassing during eruption on the seafloor occurs slowly enough to achieve melt/vapor equilibrium during exsolution of the typically CO_2 -rich vapor phase.

Based on the characteristics of the undegassed end member required by our mixing model, we predict that Kilauean primary magmas with 16.0% MgO contain ~0.47 wt. % H₂O and ~900 ppm S. We can also explain the observed positive correlation between H₂O contents and δ D values (Kyser and O'Neil 1984) if this component has a δ D value of about -30 to -40‰, which is much higher than previous estimates of the δ D of primitive Hawaiian magmas. We also predict that submarine lavas from wholly submarine volcanoes (i.e., for which there is no opportunity to generate the degassed end member by low pressure degassing) will be enriched in volatiles relative to those from volcanoes whose summits have breached the sea surface. This is consistent with the observed volatile element enrichment in tholeiitic glasses from Loihi relative to submarine glasses from Kilauea and Mauna Loa (Byers et al. 1985; Garcia et al. 1989).

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TABLE 1

Dredge Locations

Dredge	Depth (m)	Lat. (N)	Long. (W)
<i>Along-Rift</i>			
1684	490	19° 32.1'	154° 47.4'
1717	550	19° 32.7'	154° 46.7'
D45	740	19° 32.9'	154° 45.4'
1685	760	19° 34.5'	154° 45.5'
1742	1400	19° 36.5'	154° 39.0'
SU56-66	1440	19° 32.0'	154° 42.9'
1689	1600	19° 36.5'	154° 39.0'
1688	1650	19° 36.2'	154° 42.8'
D43	1835	19° 37.1'	154° 36.3'
D42	2235	19° 40.1'	154° 29.9'
1695	2590	19° 42.5'	154° 26.1'
1697	2960	19° 44.1'	154° 24.5'
1699	3410	19° 45.2'	154° 22.2'
1701	3960	19° 44.5'	154° 15.0'
1712	4680	19° 50.2'	154° 18.9'
1706	5000	19° 51.5'	154° 15.2'
1714	5180	19° 49.1'	154° 15.4'
D4	5470	19° 49.6'	154° 08.3'
D5	5490	19° 26.9'	154° 16.3'
<i>Off-Rift</i>			
SU49-66	840	19° 07.7'	155° 16.5'
SU51-66	1040	19° 12.6'	155° 10.2'
SU57-66	1560	19° 25.3'	154° 48.9'

Dredges 1684 to 1742 recovered by the *Pioneer* in 1962; dredges SUxx-66 recovered by the *Surveyor* in 1966; dredges D4 to D45 recovered by *R/V Farnella* in 1988.

Table 2

Comparison of Wet Chemical and Microprobe Analyses of Glass Standards

	VG-2 ¹	VG-2 ² n=19	A-99 ¹	A-99 ² n=15
SiO ₂	50.81	50.56 ± .30	50.94	51.00 ± .43
Al ₂ O ₃	14.06	14.13 ± .29	12.49	12.71 ± .35
FeO*	11.84	11.69 ± .10	13.30	13.28 ± .12
MnO	.20	.21 ± .01	.15	.20 ± .01
MgO	6.71	6.99 ± .05	5.08	5.11 ± .05
CaO	11.12	11.07 ± .21	9.30	9.26 ± .18
Na ₂ O	2.62	2.78 ± .06	2.66	2.80 ± .05
K ₂ O	.19	.19 ± .01	.82	.82 ± .03
P ₂ O ₅	n.a.	.22 ± .02	n.a.	.45 ± .04
TiO ₂	1.85	1.82 ± .03	4.06	3.99 ± .06
S	n.a.	.134 ± .008	n.a.	.017 ± .003

¹wet chemical analyses (Jarosewich et al. 1979)

²mean microprobe analysis and 1s standard deviation; The standard values for SiO₂, FeO, MgO, and Na₂O in VG-2 used in the microprobe data reduction program were modified slightly from the reported wet-chemical analysis based on microprobe analysis of VG-2 against other standards and are within the standard deviations reported for our mean analysis.

n.a. = not analyzed

TABLE 3
ANALYSES OF GLASSES FROM THE PUNA RIDGE

Flow Unit Number	1684	1717	D45a	D45b	1685	1742a	1742b	SU58a	SU58b	1689	1688	D43a	D43b	D42a	D42b	D42c	1695	1697ad
Depth (m)	490	550	740	740	890	1400	1400	1440	1440	1600	1650	1835	1835	2235	2235	2235	2590	2860
SiO ₂	51.2	51.8	50.7	51.0	50.7	52.2	50.0	52.0	52.2	51.8	51.4	51.0	51.9	51.2	50.9	51.0	51.6	52.4
Al ₂ O ₃	14.2	13.6	14.1	13.8	13.6	13.5	13.8	14.1	14.2	13.6	13.7	14.2	13.6	14.0	13.8	14.4	13.8	13.7
FeO	11.0	11.3	11.2	11.4	11.6	10.9	11.0	10.4	10.9	11.4	11.3	10.2	11.8	10.8	11.2	10.9	10.5	11.1
MnO	.15	.16	.17	.17	.18	.16	.17	.15	.16	.16	.18	.16	.18	.17	.16	.17	.16	.15
MgO	6.37	5.98	6.00	5.86	6.07	6.39	6.41	6.70	5.62	5.20	6.20	6.96	5.65	6.50	6.28	6.49	6.45	6.25
CaO	10.9	10.2	10.6	10.3	10.3	10.3	10.9	9.63	9.23	10.4	11.1	9.79	10.7	10.5	10.7	10.6	10.4	10.4
Na ₂ O	2.48	2.56	2.69	2.67	2.71	2.52	2.59	2.83	2.83	2.72	2.46	2.40	2.67	2.44	2.53	2.60	2.53	2.62
K ₂ O	.52	.54	.49	.58	.67	.46	.52	.48	.67	.67	.47	.41	.53	.41	.52	.48	.50	.46
P ₂ O ₅	.33	.37	.32	.32	.40	.31	.32	.30	.41	.48	.31	.27	.33	.28	.36	.30	.29	.27
TiO ₂	2.70	2.87	2.72	3.00	3.16	2.80	2.78	2.59	3.10	3.22	2.76	2.42	3.20	2.49	2.72	2.69	2.83	2.81
Total	99.9	99.5	99.0	98.9	99.5	99.6	98.5	100.2	99.8	98.6	99.3	99.2	99.8	99.1	99.8	99.2	100.2	100.2
S (wt %)	.066	.073	.098	.100	.090	.022	.125	.047	.098	.129	.123	.098	.144	.117	.119	.085	.104	.073
H ₂ O (wt %) ^a	.47	.38	.50	.42	.40	.11	.48	.22	.54	.81	.51	.48	.58	.61	.6257	...
CO ₂ (ppm) ^b	0	0	30	19	29	0	39	71	46	0	57	84	21	117	110	...	118	...
std. dev.	20	5	15	...	11	7	10	0	8	5	13	10	17	...	30	...
Modal Analyses ^c																		
Vesicles	32.9	15.8	.7	9.8	10.9	0	7.4	2.8	1.4	4.0	2.0	1.7	0.3	.1	1.7	.7	.7	.6
Olivine	1	6	3	5	5	18	6	9	29	10	5	28	12	7	6	3	9	7
Cpx	2	6	3	4	4	1	2	1	2	5	2	<1	10	<1	2	1	<1	4
Opx	...	>1	...	>1	2	>1	<1	<1	<1	<1
Plag	<1	4	2	3	5	<1	1	<1	1	4	1	...	11	...	2	<1	<1	5

^aCalculated using molar absorption coefficient of 63 ± 6 l mol⁻¹ cm⁻¹ for the 3535 cm⁻¹ band in basalt (P. Dobson, S. Newman, S. Epstein, and E. Stolper, unpublished results) and assumed glass density of 2.8 g cm⁻³. Where more than one spectrum was measured we report the average and standard deviation.

^bThe intensities of the carbonate (CO₃²⁻) peaks (1515-1435 cm⁻¹) were measured separately after numerical subtraction of the spectrum of Kilauea Iki lava glass 79-6-190.3 (a glass containing no detectable dissolved CO₂) and a concentration was calculated from each measurement using a molar absorption coefficient of 375 l mol⁻¹ cm⁻¹ (Fine and Stolper 1966) and an assumed glass density of 2.8 g cm⁻³. The dissolved CO₂ contents are averages of all of the CO₂ concentrations measured from all spectra on glass chips from the same split.

^cModes give the combined volume percent of phenocrysts, microphenocrysts, xenocrysts, and vesicles in the outer 1.5 cm of the sample, which includes the glassy rims plus a microcrystalline zone adjacent to the glassy rim. All samples contain <1% chromite enclosed in olivine phenocrysts.

^dSample 1697 analyzed by Killingley and Muenow (1975) and Muenow et al. (1979) is from flow unit 1697a. Sample 1697 analyzed by Byers et al. (1985) and Harris (1981) is probably from flow unit 1697b. Sample reported as 1712 (4860 m) by Byers et al. (1985) is probably a misidentified sample from dredge 1714 based on their reported microprobe glass analysis.

Table 4

Microprobe Analyses of Subaerially Erupted Kilauean Glasses

Flow Unit	228-3*	SU49	SU51a	SU51b	SU57a	SU57b	SU57c
No. Averaged	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Depth	220	840	1040	1040	1560	1560	1560
SiO ₂	50.6	51.5	51.3	52.0	52.1	51.4	51.2
Al ₂ O ₃	13.5	13.3	14.0	13.8	13.6	13.2	13.7
FeO	11.3	11.8	10.9	11.0	11.1	12.0	11.8
MnO	.20	.19	.16	.16	.15	.18	.18
MgO	5.25	6.32	6.93	6.58	6.45	6.10	6.07
CaO	9.44	10.8	11.2	11.3	11.2	10.6	10.3
Na ₂ O	2.84	2.47	2.40	2.42	2.50	2.64	2.61
K ₂ O	.95	.49	.46	.44	.45	.53	.58
P ₂ O ₅	.56	.30	.32	.25	.28	.31	.39
TiO ₂	<u>4.28</u>	<u>2.90</u>	<u>2.46</u>	<u>2.52</u>	<u>2.66</u>	<u>2.96</u>	<u>3.13</u>
Total	98.9	100.1	100.1	100.5	100.5	99.9	100.0
S (wt. %)	.024	.015	.007	.011	.017	.013	.010
H ₂ O (wt. %)				.09		.09	
std.dev.				.00		.00	
CO ₂ (ppm)				0		0	
std.dev.				0		0	

* 1960 Kapoho flow collected off Cape Kumikahi by the submersible *Makali'i* on dive PP82-228 as sample 3.

Table 5

Mixing and Fractional Crystallization Proportions

Sample	%Deg.	%xtls	model CO ₂ (ppm)	model S (wt. %)
1684	34.2	6.0	336	.091
1717	59.2	18.0	239	.074
D45a	34.0	11.4	358	.097
D45b	54.6	20.0	272	.082
1685	55.0	16.4	258	.078
1742a	100.0	16.4	0	.024
1742b	34.2	8.0	343	.093
SU56a	79.6	6.5	105	.043
SU56b	38.1	25.5	399	.110
1689	11.0	30.4	613	.157
1688	35.8	14.9	362	.099
D43a	28.8	2.0	349	.093
D43b	33.8	23.5	415	.113
D42a	13.3	9.7	461	.118
D42b	15.8	13.2	466	.120
1695	22.1	11.4	422	.110
1697b	78.3	11.4	118	.047
1699	0	24.7	637	.159
1701	36.9	29.8	431	.118
1712	40.8	23.0	369	.103
1706	8.7	22.3	564	.143
1714	47.3	14.9	297	.085
D4-13	40.8	11.4	321	.089
D5-8	11.9	11.4	477	.122

The amount of fractional crystallization (%xtls) needed to generate the major element composition of the each glass from a parent magma ("P" on fig. 2 containing 7.0 wt. % MgO and 11.23 wt. % CaO) was estimated using its CaO content (see fig. 2). The proportions of degassed (%Deg with 0.10 wt % H₂O, 200 ppm S, and no CO₂) and undegassed (100-%Deg with 0.62 wt % H₂O, 1200 ppm S, and 480 ppm CO₂) end members were calculated by mass balance using the H₂O content (corrected for %xtls) of the reconstructed parental magma composition for each glass. Model CO₂ and S concentrations for each glass represent our predicted values after mixing and fractional crystallization.

Figure 1. Dredge locations of samples from the Puna Ridge (inset). Bathymetry along the axis of the Puna Ridge and in the Hawaiian Moat at the distal end of the Puna Ridge after Lonsdale (1989), remainder of the bathymetry after Wilde et al. (1980), modified slightly based on data from U.S. Geological Survey cruise F2-88-HW (Clague et al. 1988). Dredge locations from Moore (1965) and Clague et al. (1985) are listed in Table 1. Sample location symbols are: filled circle for dredges by *Pioneer* in 1962, filled triangles for dredges by *Surveyor* in 1966, filled squares for dredges by *R/V Farnella* in 1988, and an open square for a box core by *R/V Farnella* in 1988 that included 5 turbidite layers of submarine erupted glass sand and silt (these glasses are discussed in Clague et al. 1990):

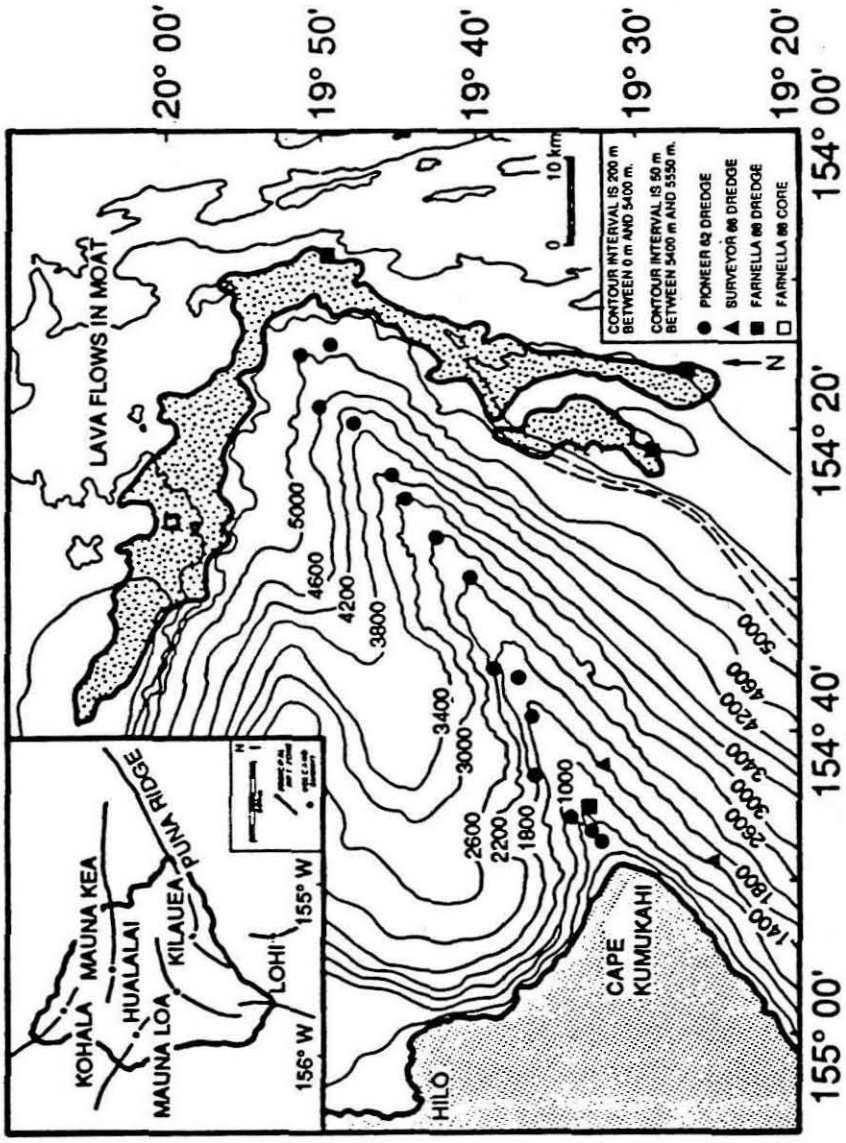


FIGURE 1

Figure 2. MgO variation diagrams of glass compositions from the Puna Ridge. Solid line represents 0-30% crystal fractionation of olivine, plagioclase, and clinopyroxene in proportions of 1:5.2:4.9 from a parental magma (P). Composition of parental magma (in wt. %) is SiO₂ 51.02, Al₂O₃ 14.37, FeO 10.12, MnO 0.13, MgO 7.00, CaO 11.23, Na₂O 2.37, K₂O 0.44, P₂O₅ 0.28, TiO₂ 2.40, S 0.120, H₂O 0.62, CO₂ 0.048. Fractional crystallization calculations (following Grove and Baker 1984) were carried out in increments by removing 2 wt. % solids from an initial liquid to give a residual fractionated liquid. Compositions of olivine, plagioclase, and clinopyroxene in equilibrium with the initial liquid were calculated for each increment using Fe-Mg distribution coefficients of 0.30 for olivine (Roedder 1974) and 0.25 for clinopyroxene (Grove and Bryan 1983) and Ca-Na distribution coefficient of 1.5 for plagioclase. The CaO, Al₂O₃, and TiO₂ contents of the clinopyroxene were kept constant at 19.1, 2.49, 0.65 wt. %, respectively, and were chosen to be close to the average composition found in lavas from the Puna Ridge (Clague et al. 1990).

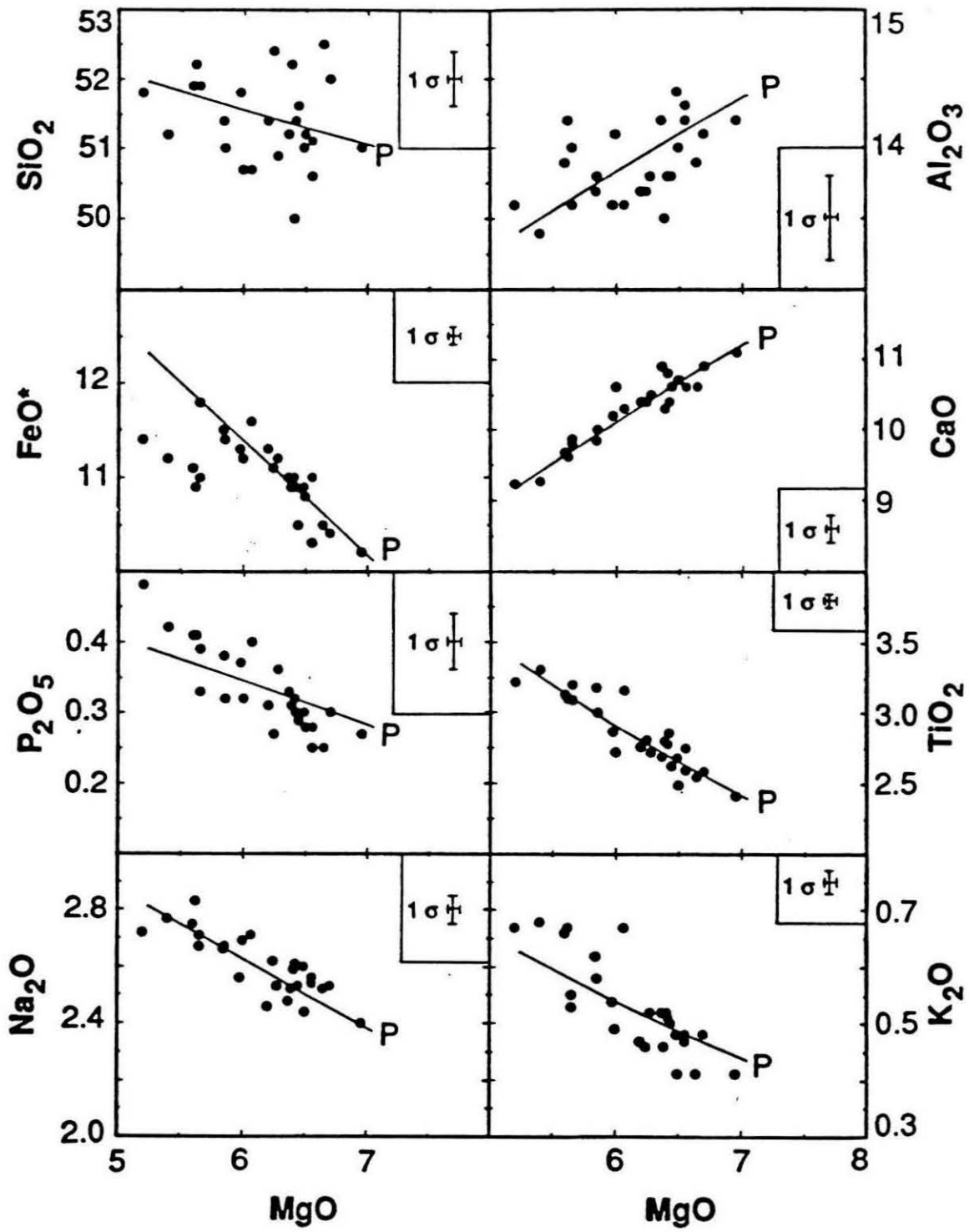


FIGURE 2

Figure 3. K_2O versus P_2O_5 for the glass compositions from the Puna Ridge.

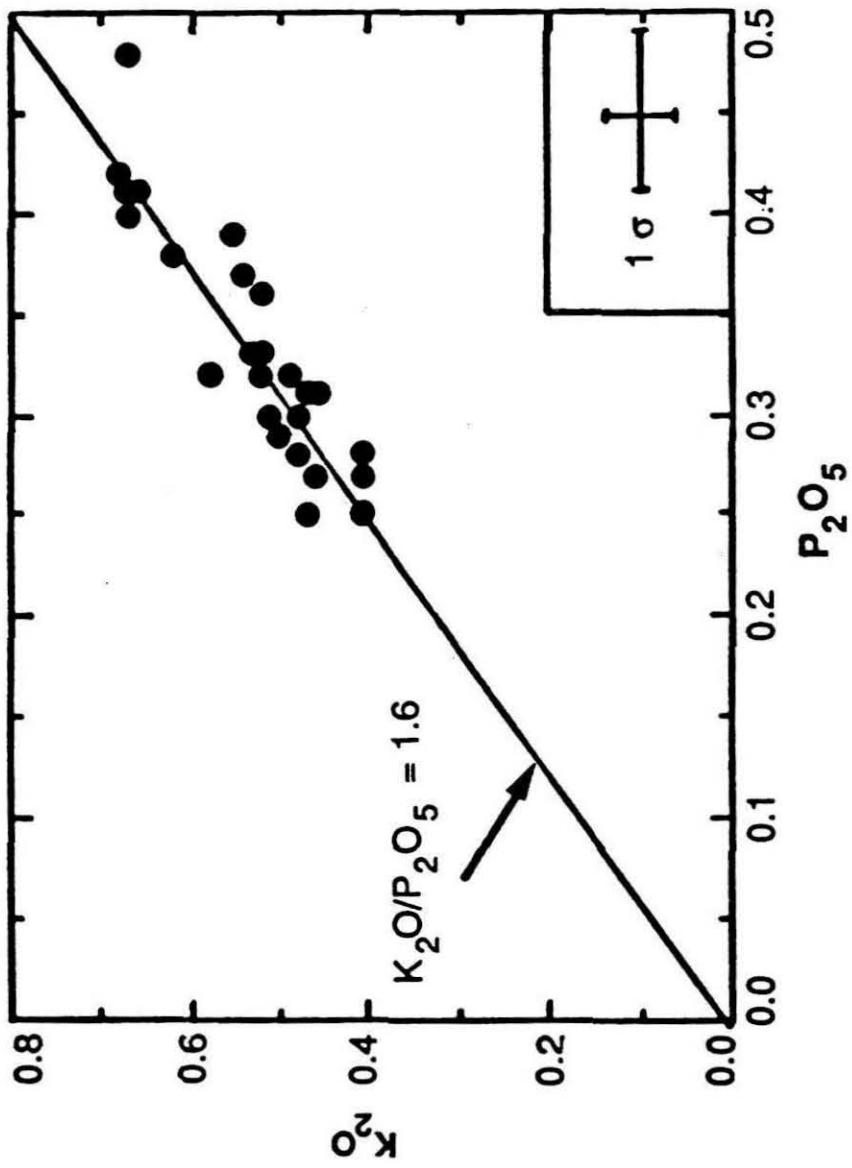


FIGURE 3

Figure 4. Comparisons of volatile element data measured by other techniques and those reported in this study on samples from the same flow units. Filled symbols represent analyses of glassy whole-rock samples. H₂O and S concentrations shown on the figure for whole-rock samples have been corrected for the mass fraction of phenocrysts using our modal data (Table 3) and densities(g/cm³) of 3.5 for olivine, 3.3 for clinopyroxene, and 2.72 for plagioclase. Open symbols and crosses represent analyses of glass separates. a) H₂O, b) S, c) CO₂.

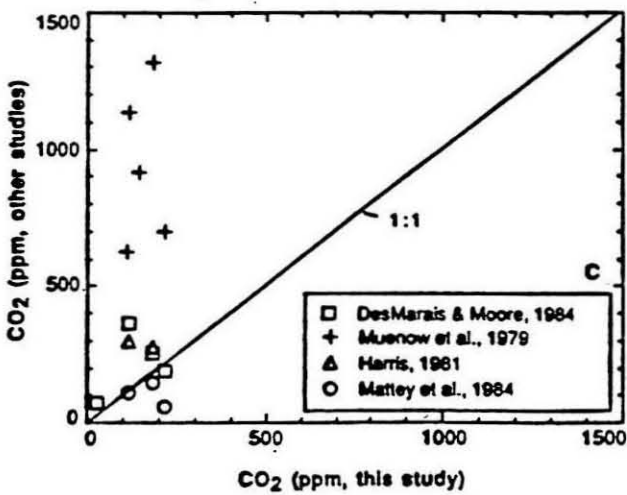
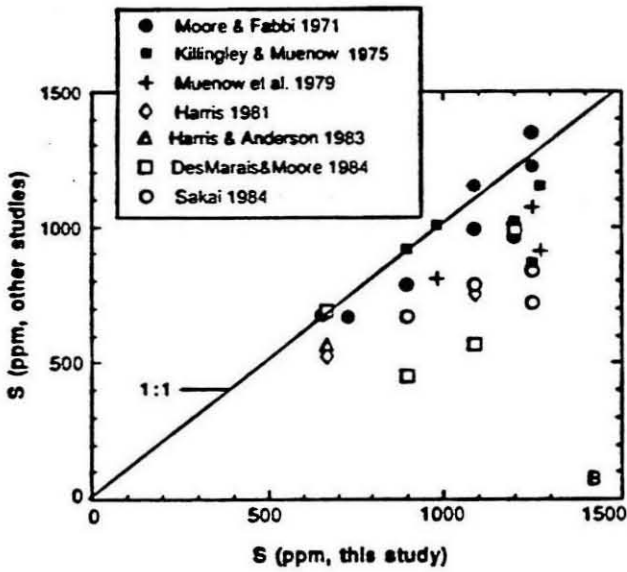
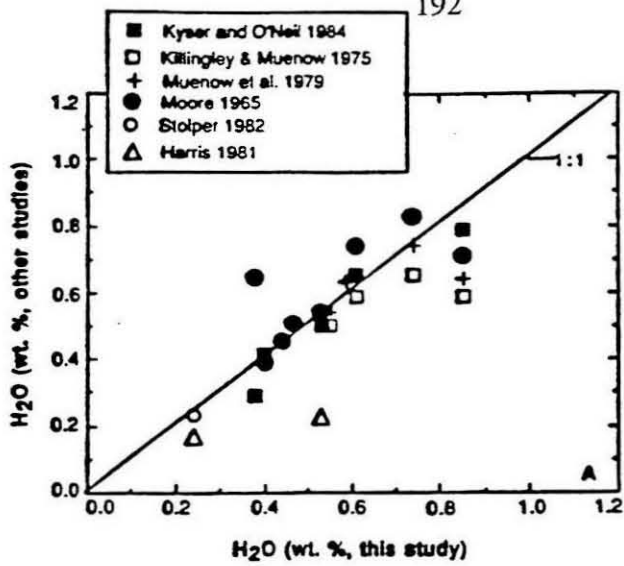


FIGURE 4

5. a) Dissolved H₂O vs depth. Solubility of pure H₂O in basalt at 1100°C (Hamilton et al. 1964) is an extrapolation of higher pressure data.. b) Dissolved S vs depth. c) Dissolved CO₂ vs depth. Open squares: low-H₂O/K₂O samples with H₂O/K₂O ratios less than or equal to 0.7; Filled circles: moderate-H₂O/K₂O samples with H₂O/K₂O ratios between 0.7 and 1.0; Crosses: high-H₂O/K₂O samples with H₂O/K₂O greater than 1.0. Vertical lines through some symbols show uncertainty in depth of eruption.

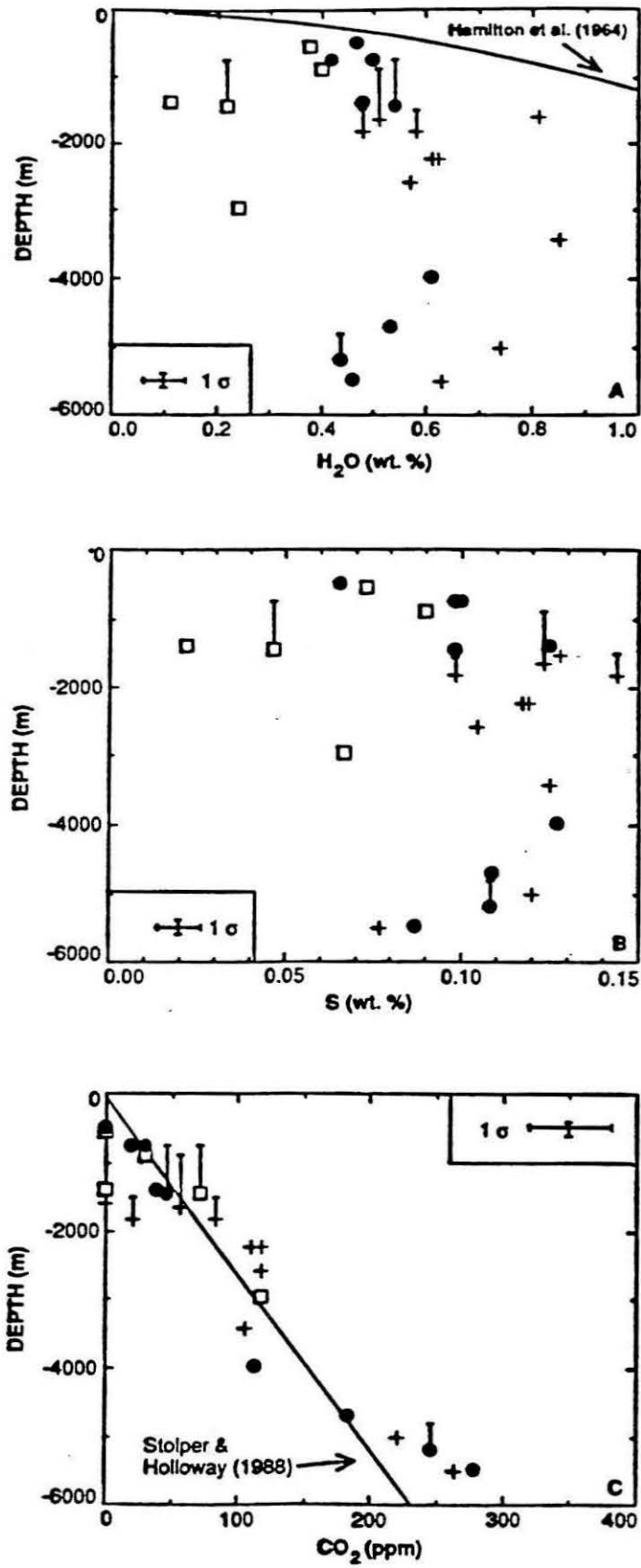


FIGURE 5

6. a) Dissolved H_2O vs MgO , b) Dissolved H_2O vs K_2O . Open squares: low- H_2O/K_2O samples with H_2O/K_2O ratios less than or equal to 0.7; Filled circles: moderate- H_2O/K_2O samples with K_2O/H_2O ratios between 0.7 and 1.0; Crosses: high- H_2O/K_2O samples with H_2O/K_2O greater than 1.0; Open triangles: off-rift (subaerially degassed) samples; U: Undegassed end member; D: Degassed end member; Trends resulting from mixing of degassed and undegassed magmas calculated using mixing equations in Langmuir et al. (1978) and shown by open ended arrows. Trends resulting from fractional crystallization (f.c.) shown by solid arrows. Extent of fractional crystallization is constrained by major element models. Grid lines shown at 20% intervals for mixing proportions and 10% intervals for fractional crystallization.

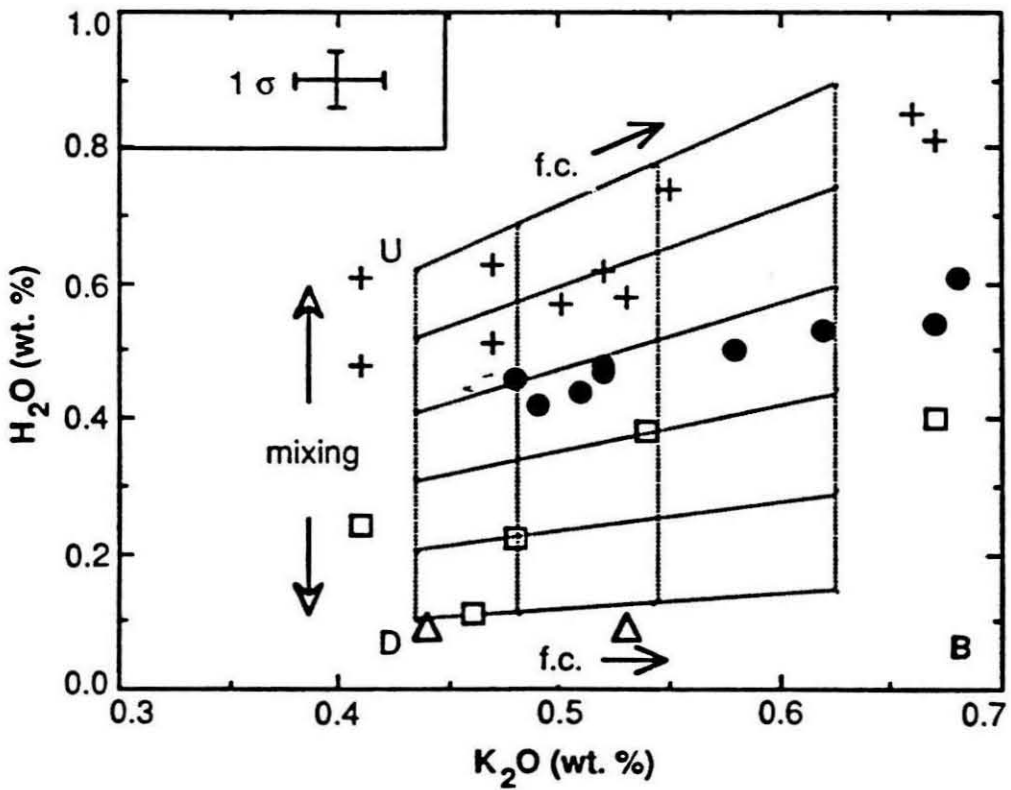
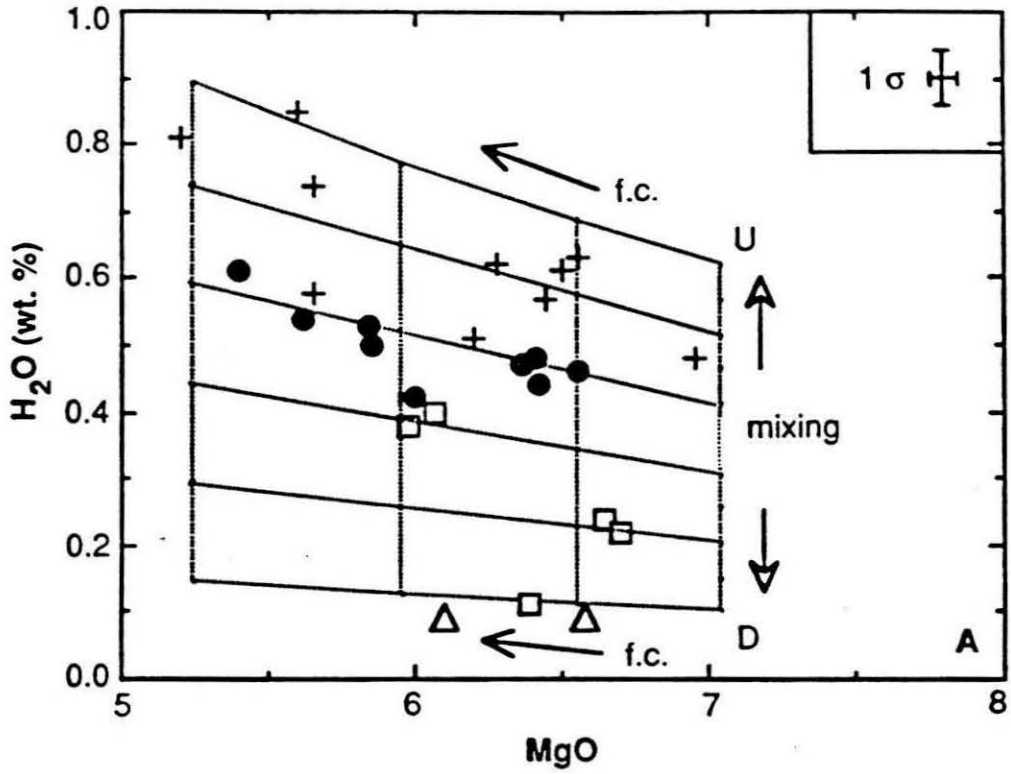


FIGURE 6

7. a) Dissolved S vs FeO. MORB S trend line is based on microprobe analysis of glasses from Juan de Fuca and Gorda Ridges (D. A. Clague, unpub. data) obtained using the same S standardization as the data in this study and are about 15% lower than those of Mathez (1976), obtained using a sulfide standard for S. The wide range of S concentrations at a given FeO* content in Puna Ridge glasses contrasts with the narrow range observed in MORB glasses. b) Dissolved S vs H₂O. Classification of samples and trends resulting from mixing of degassed and undegassed magmas and fractional crystallization are the same as in Figure 6.

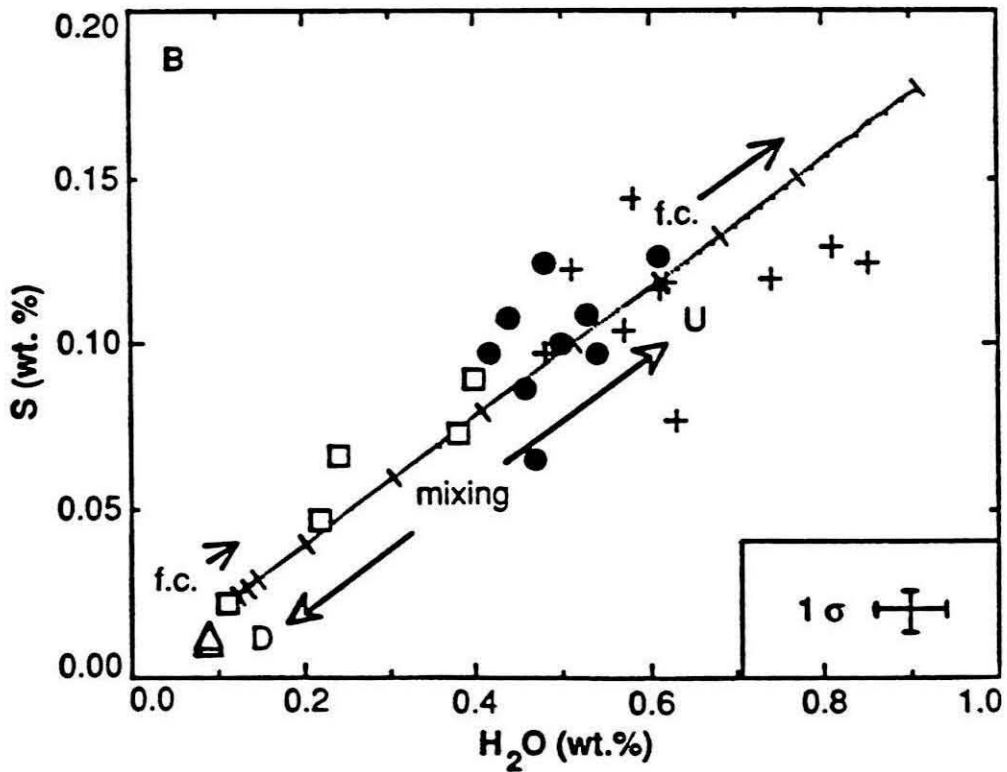
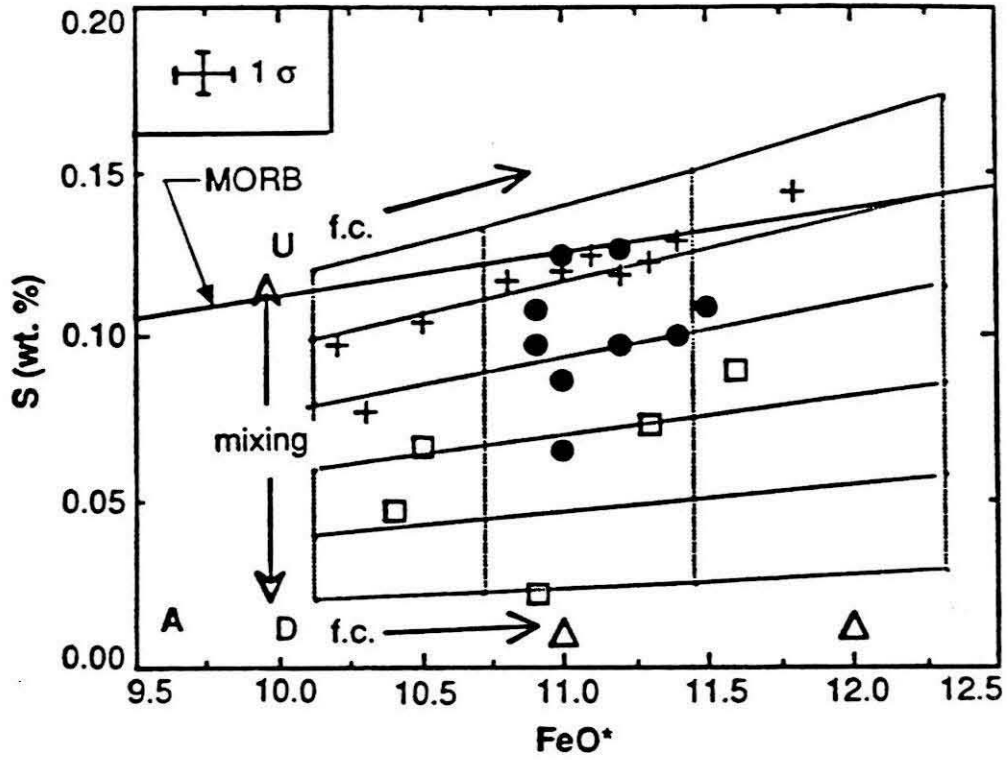


FIGURE 7

8. Dissolved S contents in glass inclusions. Cross-hatched fields surround data from glassy rinds. a) S vs. MgO, b) S vs. FeO*.

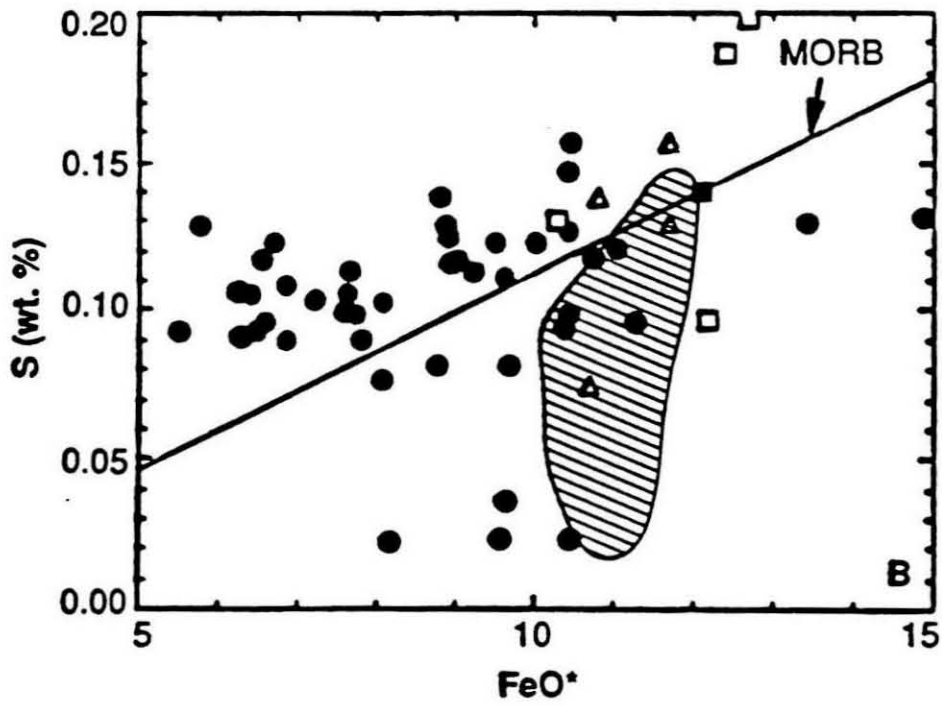
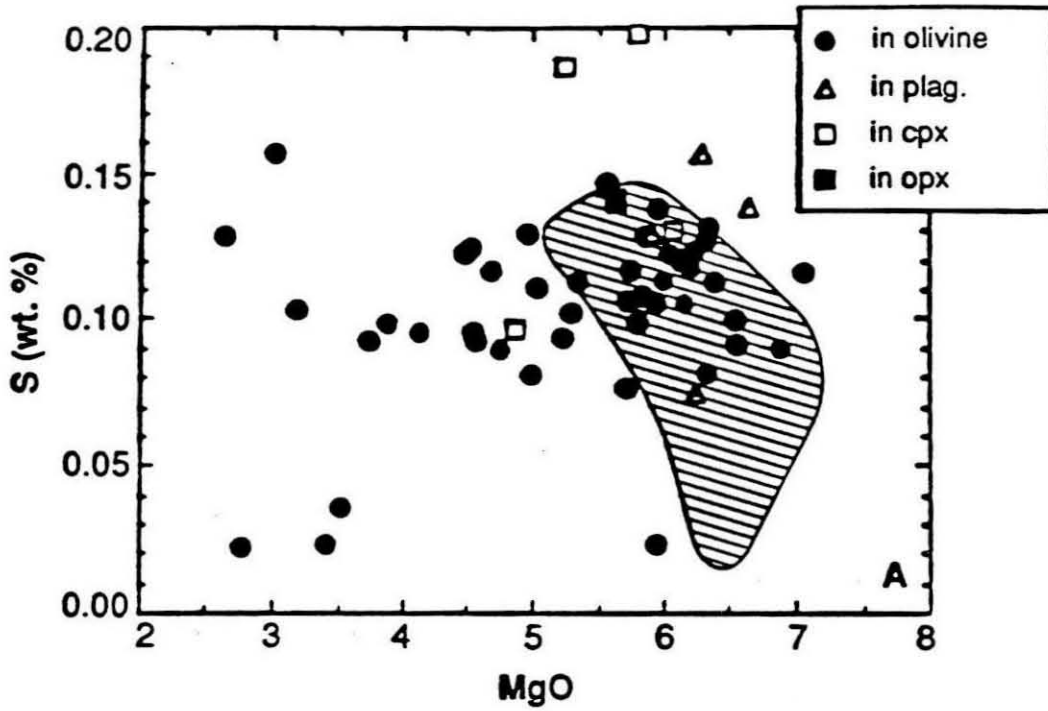


FIGURE 8

9. Schematic cross-section of Kilauea Volcano (vertical exaggeration 5:1) illustrating our model for the degassing history of Puna Ridge tholeiites. Most magmas erupted along the Puna Ridge result from mixing of a relatively volatile-rich, undegassed component with magmas that experienced low pressure (perhaps subaerial) degassing during which substantial H₂O, S, and CO₂ were lost. The gradient in stippling density from light to dark represents a decrease in the proportion of degassed component with depth in the summit magma reservoir. Olivine, clinopyroxene, and plagioclase are removed from this mixture to generate a residual liquid. Further degassing, principally of CO₂ for samples erupted deeper than 1000 m, occurs during eruption on the seafloor.

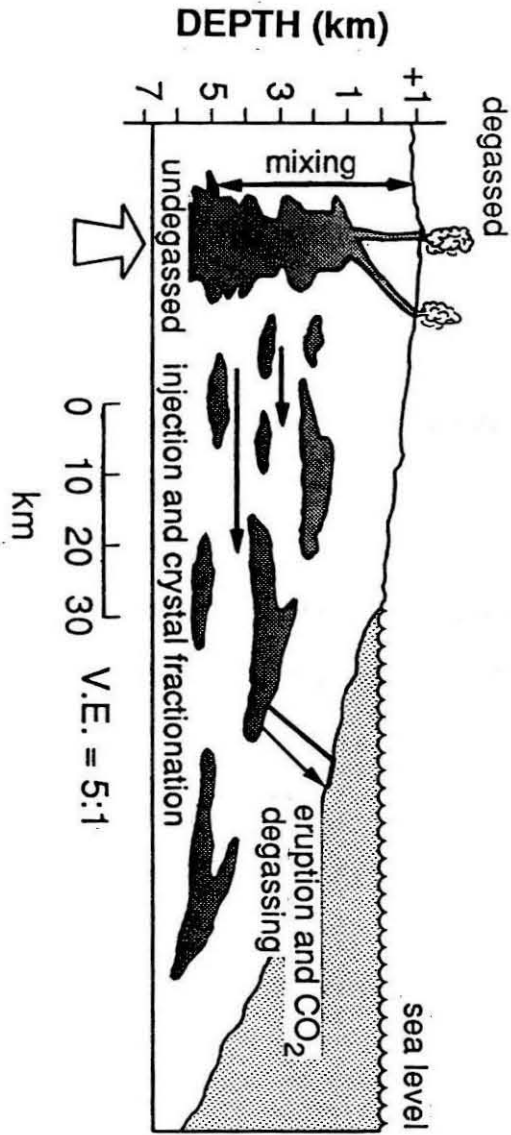


FIGURE 9

10. δD vs. dissolved H_2O . Open squares: Data of Kyser et al. (1984) on glassy whole-rock samples; Filled circles: H_2O concentrations of Kyser et al. (1984) corrected for mass fraction of phenocrysts; Filled triangles: Data of Garcia et al. (1989) on glass separates from Puna Ridge samples. Gridlines for mixing and fractional crystallization model are the same as in Figure 6. The isotopic composition of the degassed end member (D; $H_2O = 0.25$ wt. %, $\delta D = -80\text{‰}$) was calculated from the undegassed end member (U; $H_2O = 0.62$ wt. %, $\delta D = -35\text{‰}$) using a Rayleigh fractionation model and a fractionation factor of 1.050.

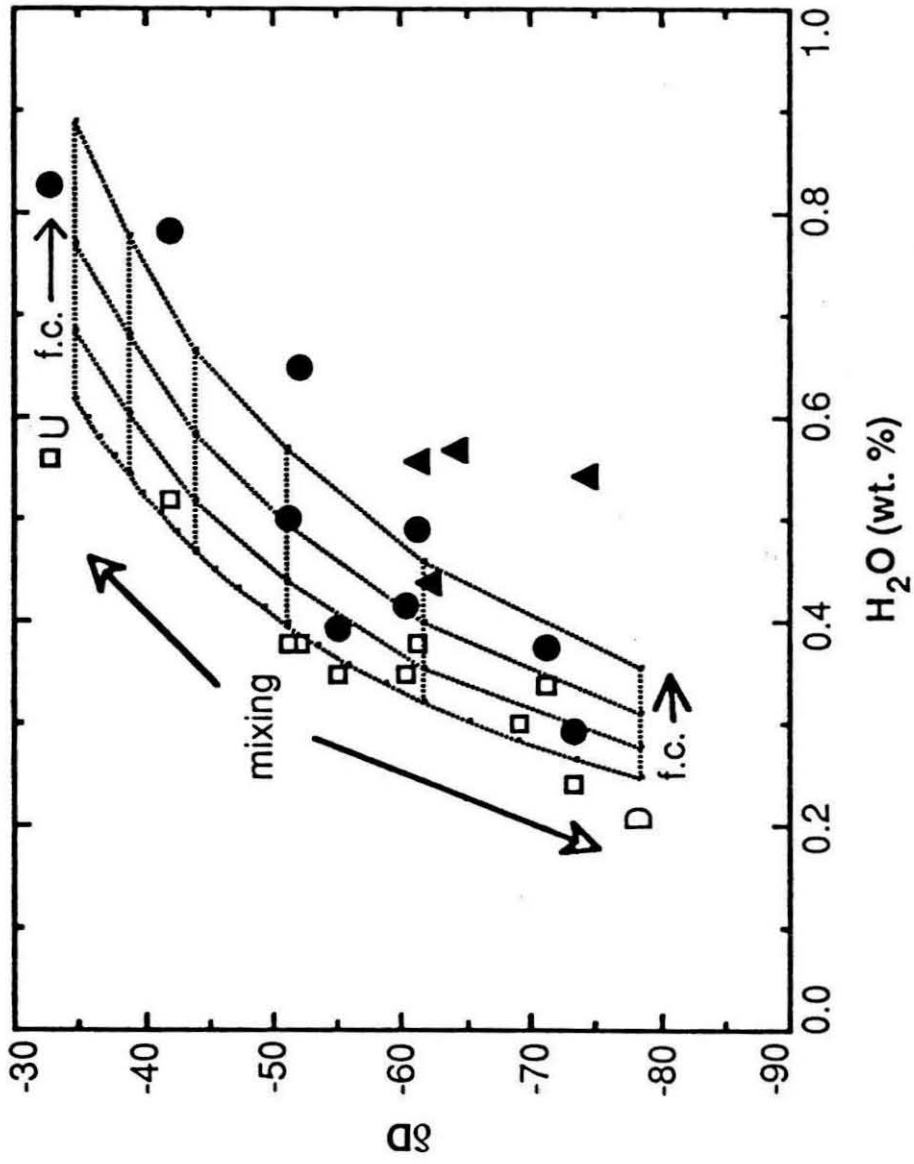
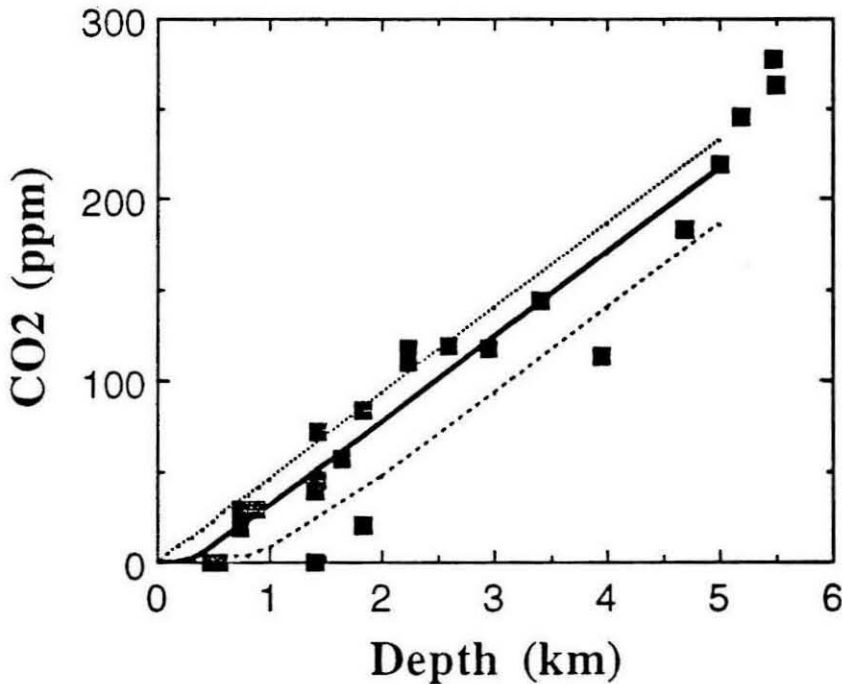


FIGURE 10

11. Comparison of H₂O contents in lavas from Kilauea (symbols; this study), Mauna Loa and Loihi (cross-hatched fields; Garcia et al. 1989). Open squares: low-H₂O/K₂O samples with H₂O/K₂O ratios less than or equal to 0.70; Filled circles: moderate-H₂O/K₂O samples with $0.70 < K_2O/H_2O < 1.0$; Crosses: high-H₂O/K₂O samples with H₂O/K₂O greater than or equal to 1.0. H₂O contents in samples from Loihi are higher than those from Mauna Loa, and are similar to the H₂O concentrations in our high H₂O/K₂O samples.

Post publication note:

The CO₂ concentrations measured in Puna Ridge glasses are shown below along with the trends calculated from closed system degassing models of basaltic melts (Chapter 1) with initial water contents ranging from 0.1 to 1.0 wt.%. Most data fall within the envelop generated by the upper, H₂O°=0.1 wt.% and the lower, H₂O°=1.0 wt.% curves. The closed system degassing curve for a melt having H₂O° of 0.6 wt.% (middle dark line) has the same slope as the calculated best fit through the data and the origin (42 ppm/km).



The section in Chapter 3 on δD and H₂O modelling assumes that the linear correlation between δD and H₂O observed by Kyser and O'Neil (1984) is a primary (magmatic) feature of these samples. This assumption leads to our conclusion that the mantle may be as light as -30 to -40‰. Based on the H₂O speciation data (Chapter 1), I

now believe that the glasses with the highest δD values ($>50\text{‰}$) may have had water added by diffusion at low temperatures, and that the correlation observed by Kyser and O'Neil (1984) is a secondary, not a primary feature. If this is true, then the mantle is about -60 to -80‰ and the fractionation factor between melt and vapor for hydrogen isotopes is probably smaller than assumed in our modelling.

APPENDIX I

An internally-heated, rapid-quench, high pressure vessel

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Abstract

A pressure vessel and furnace system were designed for "rapid-quench" operation while maintaining the advantages of sample size and hydrostatic loading inherent in an internally-heated, argon-medium vessel (IHPV). The rapid-quench is achieved using the "quench wire" technique common to atmospheric-pressure, quench furnaces; the sample capsules fall from their position in the furnace hot-spot into room temperature argon gas at the bottom of the vessel chamber. The quench rate is several hundred $^{\circ}\text{C sec}^{-1}$ compared to a rate of about 3 $^{\circ}\text{C sec}^{-1}$ in conventional IHPV's. The system operates at temperatures up to at least 1300 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ and pressures up to 1500 bars, conditions specifically chosen to study solubilities of H_2O , CO_2 , and other volatiles in low viscosity silicate melts which have shown severe quench effects in IHPV's having "normal" quench rates. Loading and unloading the pressure system is relatively simple and fast.

Introduction

Many phase equilibrium studies are hampered by the inability to "quench in" the chemical and structural identity of one or more phases existing at the pressure - temperature conditions of the experiment. The problem is most prevalent in carbonate, sulfide, and low-viscosity silicate liquids, and in supercritical fluids. The most obvious quench effect in liquids is the formation of quench crystals or the overgrowth of quench rims on stable crystals. These effects can make it difficult or impossible to determine the chemical composition of the stable liquid. Quench effects in supercritical fluids may cause changes in their bulk

composition by precipitation of solids, or may cause changes in abundance of species due to homogeneous reactions. The degree to which a high pressure - temperature assemblage is preserved depends on the quench rate of the experimental apparatus and the properties of the system under study. The quench rate varies widely among the apparatus types commonly used in experimental petrology (Holloway and Wood, 1988). Piston-cylinder and one-atmosphere quench furnaces have relatively high rates while internally-heated and cold-seal pressure vessels have much lower quench rates. The quench rate of cold-seal vessels was dramatically improved by the introduction of rapid-quench systems, first by Rudert et al. (1976), and with recent improvements by Ihinger (1991). Compared to cold-seal vessels, IHPV's offer advantages of higher temperature operation at a given pressure, and generally of larger sample size. However, the slow quench rate of IHPV's has made them unacceptable for studies such as solubility of H₂O in basaltic liquids because the liquid often forms quench crystals. The formation of quench crystals may change the bulk H₂O content of the quench crystal + glass assemblage representing the stable liquid, and it certainly prevents use of analytical techniques such as infrared spectroscopy which rely on the presence of a glassy sample to quantitatively determine dissolved H₂O content. The purpose of this paper is to describe the design and operation of an IHPV which allows quench rates about two orders of magnitude greater than obtainable with conventional designs.

Design objectives

In addition to the primary criterion that the system should obtain the greatest feasible quench rate, several other desired design features were identified. These were: a maximum operating temperature greater than the liquidus of primary basaltic compositions; a stable, isothermal, hot-zone longer than the length of the

sample capsules; a maximum pressure high enough to achieve the solubility range-coverage desired; and finally, ease of operation.

Exploratory designs were tested in an existing IHPV with a 5 cm inside diameter and a 35 cm working length. A furnace consisting of two independently powered resistance elements had an inside diameter of 1.6 cm. The vessel is operated with its long axis vertical, so the furnace elements are positioned one above the other. The "rapid quench" modification is described in detail below. It is based on the quench wire design used in one atmosphere quench furnaces (Shepherd et al., 1909; Osborn and Schairer, 1941), the only difference being the placement of the quench assembly *inside* the IHPV. The quench occurs when the sample drops from the hot spot of the furnace to the bottom of the vessel where the argon was determined to be at room temperature (20-27 °C) by a thermocouple placed at the point where the capsule comes to rest. In this design an open space exists between the sample and the bottom of the vessel to allow the sample to drop. Tests were made at a temperature of 1100 °C from pressures ranging from 500 bars to 5 kbar. It was found that at pressures of up to about 2 kbar the temperature gradient over a 4 cm length was within ± 15 °C and stable. At higher pressures severe aperiodic temperature oscillations occurred and became larger as pressure increased. The oscillations could not be reduced by changes in the temperature controller settings, nor by changes in the proportion of power between the upper and lower furnace elements. These oscillations were eliminated when the open space below the samples was filled with a solid ceramic rod, and so we infer that they are the result of strong convection of argon gas in the open column. The conclusion from the preliminary tests was that the rapid

quench design would work at pressures below 2 kbar, but that the temperature oscillations precluded operation at higher pressures.

Design

Vessel

An overall schematic of the vessel, furnace and quench assembly is shown in Fig. 1. Because of the upper pressure restriction caused by the temperature oscillations, a 2 kbar operating pressure was chosen. The diameter of the furnace used in the preliminary tests was satisfactory, but we choose a slightly larger vessel inside diameter to allow a small increase in the size of the hole below the sample capsules. The vessel (manufactured by the High Pressure Equipment Co.) is a single-end design with a 5.72 cm ID, a working length of 30 cm, and a 15 cm OD. It is made of AISI 4340 steel heat-treated to 35 on the Rockwell 'C' scale. The vessel was fitted for water cooling by winding 0.96 cm ID copper tubing on the OD of the vessel immediately after coating the vessel with a 3 mm layer of aluminum-filled epoxy cement. The vessel was permanently mounted in a vertical position, open end facing down, so that the open end is at a height of about 1.5 m above the floor. The pressure inlet to the vessel is through its closed end.

Closure-head

The pressure seal on the closure-head is a simple inverted bridgeman type with a rubber o-ring backed by a stainless steel wedge ring (Holloway, 1971). The closure-head contains two lead-throughs for furnace power capable of carrying currents of 25 amps each, and five low-power lead-throughs for thermocouples and the quench-wire electrode. All low-power lead-throughs consist of a wire onto which a tool steel cone is silver soldered. The wires are copper for the

quench electrode lead-through, platinum-compensated for one thermocouple lead-through, and PtRh₁₀-compensated for the other three thermocouple lead-throughs. The thermocouple leads and cones are electrically insulated from the head with heat-shrink thermoelastomer plastic tubing. There are three mounting holes for furnace support rods.

Furnace

The furnace is shown schematically in Fig. 1. An outer stainless steel tube has an OD of 5.7 cm, a length of 23 cm, and a wall thickness of 1.3 mm. The furnace has an ID of 2.00 cm. Each of the two windings are about 9 cm in length. The samples are positioned about 1 cm below the boundary between the two windings.

Two winding materials are used, either a 1.02 mm diameter nickel alloy with approximate composition Ni 76 wt %, Cr 16, Fe 8, Mn 0.5, Ti 0.35, Al 0.25 (Kanthal A-1), or 0.5 mm diameter PtRh₃₀ alloy. The nickel alloy works well at temperatures of up to 1200 °C, and the Pt alloy is used at higher temperatures.

The furnace ceramic used depends on the element type: for Ni alloy elements the ceramic is a hydraulic-setting type of approximately CaSiO₃ composition (Saureisen #75), and in the Pt alloy furnaces a castable alumina-based ceramic (Ceramacast 510, Aremco Products) is used.

Thermocouples

Three Pt-PtRh₁₀ thermocouples are used. They are positioned at three different heights in the hot zone of the furnace (in early experiments at 1200 °C up to five sheathed, type K thermocouples were used to determine the optimum position for the samples.) The three thermocouples share a common negative lead-through to

minimize the number of lead-throughs required. Two-hole thermocouple ceramic insulators (99.9% Al_2O_3) are used to support and electrically insulate the thermocouples.

Quench assembly

The quench assembly is shown schematically in Fig. 1 and details of the quench wire and capsule holder are shown in Fig. 2. The assembly consists of a set of 1.65 cm OD ceramic pieces (Aremcolox 502-1400, Aremco Products), each containing a central 7.1 mm quenching hole and five 1.6 mm holes for the three thermocouples and two quench-wire electrodes. The quench electrodes are made of 0.7 mm Pt wire. One is grounded to the closure-head and the other connected to the copper wire lead-through. The quench wire is isolated from the capsule clamp wire by a thin piece of two hole thermocouple ceramic. Use of the separator minimizes accidental welding of one end of the quench wire to the capsule clamp wire (which is the most usual cause of a failed quench). The capsule clamp is fabricated from a piece of cast Pt rod and provides an easy mechanism for holding the capsule without damaging it.

Operation

Procedure

Setting up an experiment involves hanging the sample capsule on the quench wire, tying the quench wire to the electrodes, and attaching the furnace in place over the quench assembly. The entire furnace/closure-head assembly is then inserted into the vessel. The simple inverted Bridgeman (o-ring) seal allows the closure to be inserted into the vessel by hand.

The run is brought to a starting pressure about 60% of the desired pressure before heating. Power is then applied and temperature increased to set-point over a period of about 20 minutes. The experiment is terminated by connecting an 80000 μF capacitor charged to about 35 volts to the quench wire electrodes. This explosively fuses the quench wire allowing the capsules to fall to the bottom of the quench assembly. A microphone is attached to the bottom exterior of the vessel and its amplified output allows audio confirmation that the capsule has fallen. The power to the furnace is then switched off and the furnace allowed to cool to room temperature.

After bleeding off the argon gas to atmospheric pressure the closure nut is removed and the closure-head/furnace assembly removed by hand from the vessel. Due to the moderate pressures used, the closure seal components have long lifetimes, the rubber o-rings need replacing after 10-20 runs and the stainless steel wedge rings last for up to 100 runs.

Hydrogen Control

For nominally hydrogen-free experiments such as those using fluids in the C - O system (Pawley and Holloway, 1991), pure argon gas is used as the pressure medium. In samples with hydrogen as a component, H_2 fugacity is controlled by using premixed hydrogen-argon gas, following Joyce and Holloway (1991). We have noted that the vessel has a memory effect when switching from argon containing relatively high H_2 to pure argon; a significant amount of hydrogen is observed in the nominally pure argon during a run, as evidenced by high H_2O contents in quenched basaltic glasses. The amount of hydrogen in subsequent pure argon runs is very low. This suggests that a significant amount of hydrogen

dissolves in the components of the pressure system exposed to argon, as noted by Joyce and Holloway (1991).

Furnace Conditions

The optimal proportions of power to the windings are 50% upper and 50% lower. The power consumed at 1200 °C ranges from 400 watts at 200 bars to 500 watts at 1500 bars.

The temperature gradients vary between furnaces, ranging from 0 to 20 °C cm⁻¹ over a 1 cm sample length.

Temperature oscillations are on the order of ± 1 °C.

Quench Rate

Use of this system results in an isobaric quench in which the capsule drops from a hot region of relatively low argon density to a cold region of considerably higher argon density (actually there is a small change in pressure observed when the capsule falls due to the displacement of cold argon into hotter regions.) Fig. 3 shows argon density at 25° and 1200 °C as a function of pressure.

The quench rate in this system is difficult to measure directly. We have observed that hydrous basaltic liquids which did not quench to glasses in a conventional IHPV do form excellent glasses in the rapid quench system (Dixon et al., unpublished) demonstrating that the quench is faster in the latter system. Another approach is to calculate the quench rate using a conductive cooling model (see Carslaw and Jaeger, 1959, p. 199). We assume that the argon convects the heat away from the cooling capsule and therefore maintains a

constant temperature of about 25 °C at the outer contact of the capsule. We are most interested in the rate of cooling in the temperature interval between the run temperature (1200 °C) and the glass transition T for the sample. For a liquidus temperature of 1150 °C, the glass transition temperature is about 850-900 °C (Uhlmann and Onorato, 1979), but we have assumed a more conservative value of 700 °C. We can ignore the latent heat of crystallization because the melt is quenching to glass. Also we can neglect the effect of cooling the outer platinum capsule because the thermal diffusivity for platinum (0.25 cm sec^{-1}) is much greater than that for silicate melts (0.01 cm sec^{-1}). With these values, the time needed for the center of a cylinder having a radius of 0.25 cm to reach the glass transition temperature is about 1 sec, resulting in a quench rate of about 500 °C sec^{-1} at the center of the capsule. Though the exact quench rate is a function of time and distance from the capsule wall, we are confident that we have achieved quench rates two orders of magnitude faster than those obtained in conventional internally-heated pressure vessels.

Acknowledgements

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Figure 1. Schematic cross-section of the rapid quench vessel. The ceramic insulators in the furnace interior are not shown here, but are shown in Fig. 2.

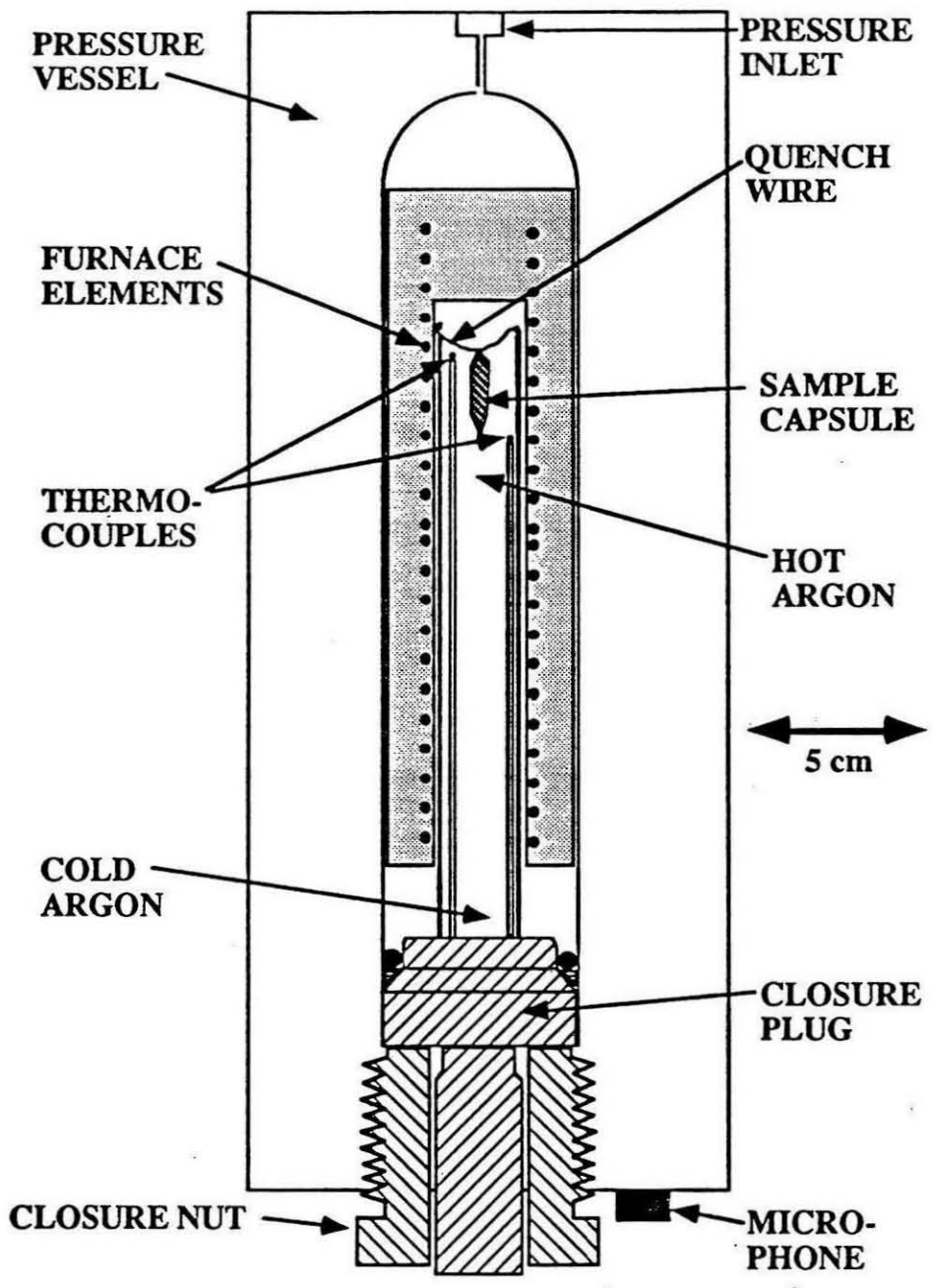


Figure 1

Figure 2. Detailed views of the quench assembly. **a.** Plan view. **b.** Vertical cross-section.

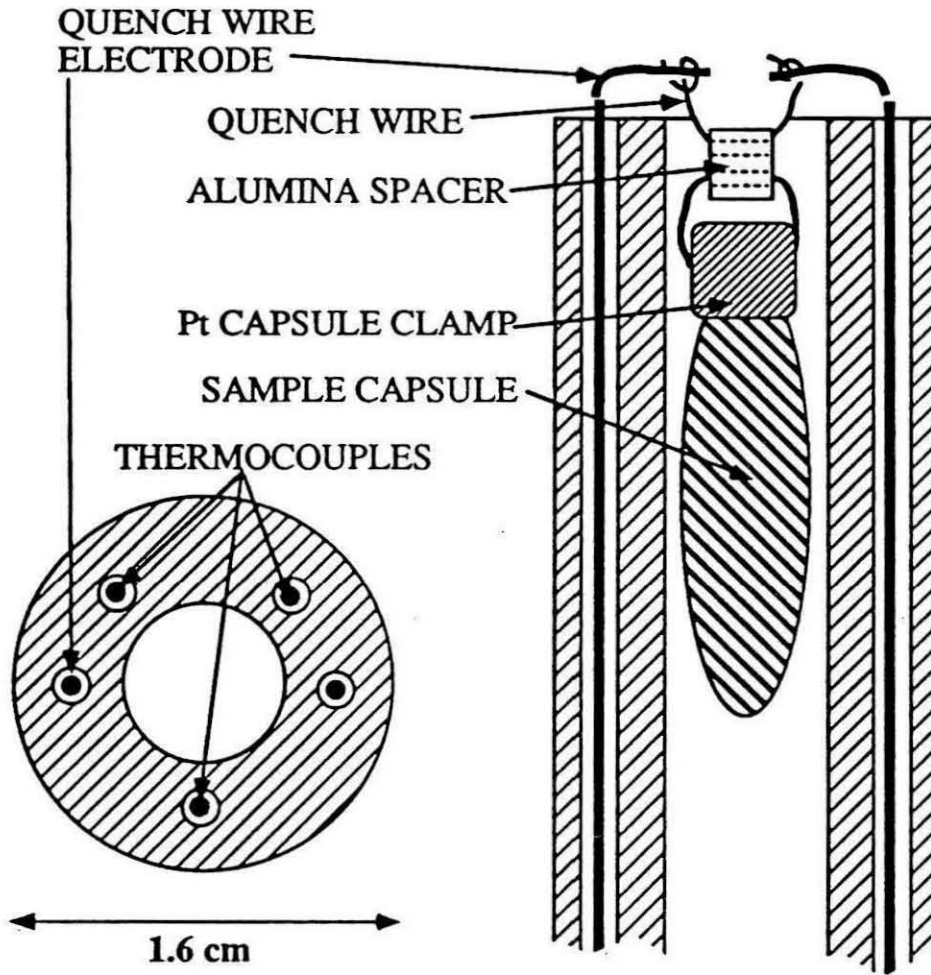
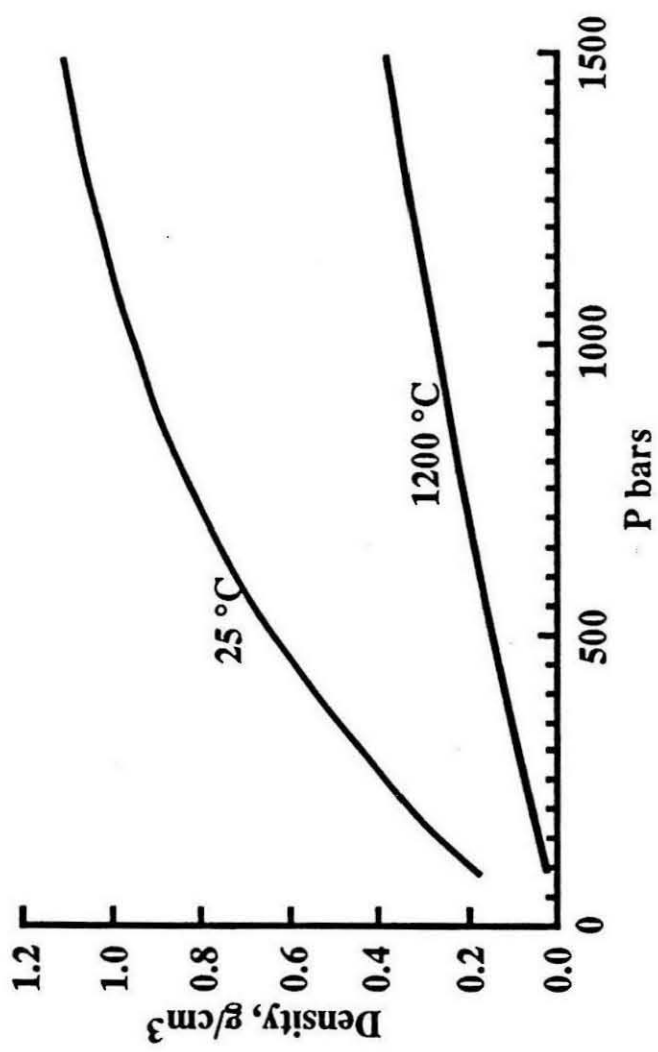
**Figure 2**

Figure 3. Variation in the density of argon as a function of pressure along the 25° and 1200°C isotherms. Calculated using a Redlich-Kwong equation of state (Holloway, 1987) with a and b parameters of $9.54 \times 10^6 \text{ bar}\cdot\text{cm}^6\cdot\text{deg}^{1/2}$ and 21.6 cm^3 , respectively.



**Determination of the molar absorptivity for dissolved
carbonate in basanitic glass**

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ABSTRACT

Basaltic glasses with known dissolved carbon concentrations have been analyzed using infrared spectroscopy. Carbon is dissolved as carbonate complexes in the glass, giving rise to absorption bands at 1525 and 1425 cm^{-1} . No carbon was observed to be dissolved as molecular carbon dioxide in the glass. Molar absorptivities of 282 ± 6 l/mole-cm were determined for both the 1525 and 1425 cm^{-1} absorption bands. An integrated molar absorptivity of $60,000 \pm 700$ l/mole-cm^2 was determined using the integrated area under the doublet. These values are about 20% lower than those determined for tholeiitic glasses.

INTRODUCTION

Infrared spectroscopy, when accurately calibrated for the composition of interest, can be used as a quantitative tool for measuring the dissolved water and carbon dioxide contents in silicate glasses. Recent studies using infrared spectroscopy to measure the concentrations and speciation of dissolved volatiles in tholeiitic basaltic (Dixon et al., 1988; Dixon et al., 1991) and rhyolitic (Newman et al., 1988) glasses and glass inclusions have shown that these data, combined with accurate knowledge of the solubilities at the pressures of interest, provide powerful constraints on the degassing histories of magmatic systems. Discovery of fresh alkalic glasses on submarine volcanic rocks erupted along the Hawaiian Arch (Clague et al., 1990) has motivated us to extend the calibration of the infrared technique from tholeiitic to more alkalic compositions. In order to use the intensities of infrared absorptions to determine concentrations, the molar absorptivity, or the proportionality constant between the measured absorbance and the concentration (also referred to as the extinction coefficient), for the absorbance band of interest must be known. Molar absorptivities for carbon dissolved as carbonate and molecular carbon dioxide (when present) have been determined in previous studies for

Ca-Mg silicate (including tholeiite, diopside, and anorthite glasses) (Fine and Stolper, 1986) and Na-aluminosilicate (Fine and Stolper, 1985) glasses. This study presents new molar absorptivity determinations for carbon dissolved as carbonate ion complexes in basanitic glass compositions.

ANALYTICAL TECHNIQUE

Glass chips having known concentrations of dissolved carbon were doubly polished to a thickness of about 30 to 60 μm in order to have the absorbances on scale. The position and size of the beam were controlled by placing each glass chip over a 200 μm aperture. Transmission infrared spectra in the 4000-1200 cm^{-1} (2.5 to 8.3 μm) range were collected using the microchamber on a Nicolet 60SX FTIR spectrometer, a globar source, a KBr beamsplitter, a HgCdTe detector, and a mirror velocity of 1.57 cm/s . Typically, 4096 scans were collected for each spectrum. The spectrum of a decarbonated basanite sample (1297D) was subtracted from the sample spectra as a background correction. Absorbance measurements were made on reference subtracted spectra. Determination of the molar absorptivities was done through Beer-Lambert law calibration (see caption to Fig. 2, and discussions in Stolper, 1982; Fine and Stolper, 1985; Fine and Stolper, 1986). The thickness, or path length, is measured by a digital micrometer with a precision of $\pm 1\text{-}2$ μm . The glass density was calculated to be 2950 g/l using the Gladstone-Dale rule and the Church-Johnson equation as described by Silver (1988).

CHARACTERIZATION OF GLASSES

Glasses were prepared by quenching CO_2 -saturated basanitic melts generated under P-T conditions ranging from 1-20 kbar and 1200-1550°C. In general, the experimental procedures were the same as those in Pan et al. (1991). The starting material is a basanite from Peridot Mesa, San Carlos Arizona (Table 1). The CO_2 source of the samples

(except 3048-7) was a mixture of siderite, calcite, magnesite, and Na_2CO_3 . The carbonates were mixed with proportions of reagent grade Al_2O_3 and SiO_2 to yield the correct stoichiometry of the original basanite. Run 3048-7 contained silver oxalate as the CO_2 source. Pan et al. (1991) showed that there was an insignificant effect of using the two different CO_2 sources. The samples were placed in Fe-saturated Pt capsules and runs were performed in a rapid-quench, internally heated gas vessel (3048-7 only) (Holloway et al., 1991) or a non-endloaded piston cylinder apparatus.

The bulk carbon values were obtained using a LECO™ JR-12 Carbon Analyzer. Carbon analysis was done on 18-28 mg of glass hand-picked to be free of bubbles. Analytical precision was determined to be ± 0.006 wt.% carbon. The accuracy of these concentrations was confirmed by ion probe and found to be within 10% of the LECO™ measured values (Pan and Holloway, in prep.).

RESULTS

A typical spectrum is shown in Figure 1. Absorbance data for each spectrum are reported in Table 2. All samples have absorptions at 1525 and 1425 cm^{-1} resulting from the ν_3 antisymmetric stretching of CO_2 dissolved as carbonate groups in the glass (Brey and Green, 1975; Sharma, 1979; Sharma et al., 1979; Mysen and Virgo 1980a; Fine and Stolper, 1986). The splitting between the two carbonate bands is 100 cm^{-1} , slightly larger than the 80 cm^{-1} observed for tholeiitic glasses (Fine and Stolper, 1986), but within the range observed for other Ca-Mg silicate glasses (Sharma, 1979; Sharma et al., 1979; Taylor, 1990). Absorbances at 2630 cm^{-1} were not observed, indicating that carbon does not dissolve in these glasses as molecular CO_2 , consistent with observations for other Ca-Mg silicate glasses (Brey, 1976; Sharma, 1979; Sharma et al., 1979; Fine and Stolper, 1986; Taylor, 1990).

Absorbances normalized to 100 μm sample thickness are plotted against measured concentrations in Figure 2. There is a linear correlation that goes through the origin between absorbance and concentration using the peak heights of the 1425 and 1525 cm^{-1} absorbance bands and for the integrated absorbance of the doublet. Linear regression through the data and forced through the origin yields molar absorptivities of 282 ± 6 l/mole-cm for both the 1525 and 1425 cm^{-1} absorption bands and an integrated molar absorptivity of $60,000 \pm 700$ l/mole-cm^2 using the integrated area under the doublet.

DISCUSSION

Fine and Stolper (1986) determined the molar absorptivity for carbonate dissolved in Ca-Mg silicate glasses (including tholeiite, diopside, and anorthite glasses) to 375 l/mole-cm for both the 1515 and 1435 cm^{-1} absorption bands and the integrated molar absorptivity to be $69,500 \pm 700$ l/mole-cm^2 using the integrated area under the doublet. Our values for basanite are 25% lower for the molar absorptivity and 14% lower for the integrated molar absorptivity. Pan et al. (1991) have confirmed the molar absorptivity of 375 l/mole-cm for tholeiite using carbon concentrations measured by LECO™ carbon analysis and ion probe, thus showing that the difference in molar absorptivity for tholeiite and basanite is not caused by a systematic bias in the analytical methods used to measure the carbon concentrations in glasses in this study and those in Fine and Stolper (1986).

In general, previous studies have found that the character of the carbonate bands in silicate glasses can be divided into two distinct compositional groups; such that NaAl silicate glasses (albite, jadeite, nepheline glasses) have splittings of about 200 cm^{-1} and molar absorptivities of 200 to 235 l/mole-cm , while CaMg silicate glasses (tholeiite, diopside, anorthite, sodamelilte, and ankerimite) have splittings of about 90 ± 10 cm^{-1} and molar absorptivity of 375 l/mole-cm . These differences are related to the environment of the dissolved carbonate in the silicate melt (see Taylor, 1990). Our

values for both the molar absorptivity and magnitude of splitting of the carbonate bands for basanite are intermediate between values for NaAl silicate glasses and CaMg silicate glasses. This is consistent with the fact that the basanite is richer in alkalis than the tholeiite studied by Fine and Stolper (1986), but the exact nature of the compositional dependence of the molar absorptivity requires more data on the molar absorptivities of other melt compositions covering a range in alkali/alkali earth ratios.

CONCLUSIONS

Molar absorptivities of 282 ± 6 l/mole-cm were determined for both the 1525 and 1425 cm^{-1} absorption bands in basanitic glass. An integrated molar absorptivity of $60,000 \pm 700$ l/mole-cm² was determined using the integrated area under the doublet. These values are about 20% lower than those determined for tholeiitic glasses.

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TABLE 1. Composition Peridot
Mesa Basanite, San Carlos

SiO ₂	46.82
TiO ₂	3.17
Al ₂ O ₃	15.20
Fe ₂ O ₃	0.86
FeO	11.21
MnO	0.23
MgO	9.06
CaO	8.22
Na ₂ O	4.33
K ₂ O	1.32
P ₂ O ₅	<u>0.27</u>
Total	<u>100.00</u>

TABLE 2. Infrared data obtained in this study

Sample	CO ₂ (wt.%)	Spec#	Band (cm-1)	Intensity (abs)	Band (cm-1)	Intensity (abs)	Area (cm-1)
3048-7	0.080670	1	1523	0.17111	1424	0.16000	35.6220
		2	1522	0.14091	1420	0.13864	27.9091
		3	1528	0.16984	1426	0.16190	34.4127
		4	1521	0.15323	1424	0.14677	30.0484
3048-11	2.4270	1	1530	4.7781	1424	4.7781	1035.6250
		2	1529	4.4656	1423	4.4469	957.5000
		3	1529	4.5967	1420	4.4900	950.3333
3048-13	2.1780	1	1524	4.1140	1431	4.1163	890.8163
		2	1526	4.3227	1425	4.3250	926.8182
		3	1526	4.1213	1423	4.0787	887.8723
3048-16	1.1770	1	1523	2.2956	1425	2.2533	467.3333
		2	1523	2.1909	1426	2.1386	444.5455
		3	1524	2.1702	1428	2.1191	437.8724
3048-15	1.7270	1	1524	3.2400	1426	3.2133	680.6667
		2	1526	3.3033	1425	3.2867	696.0000
		3	1524	3.0036	1424	2.9357	606.4286

Figure 1. Typical spectrum of basanite saturated with CO₂ in the frequency range of 2200 to 1200 cm⁻¹ (5-8 μm wavelength). A reference spectrum of decarbonated basanite 1297 has been subtracted. Carbonate absorption bands are present at 1423 and 1529 cm⁻¹.

304811.02 S#10404 D=32UM BASANITE MIR

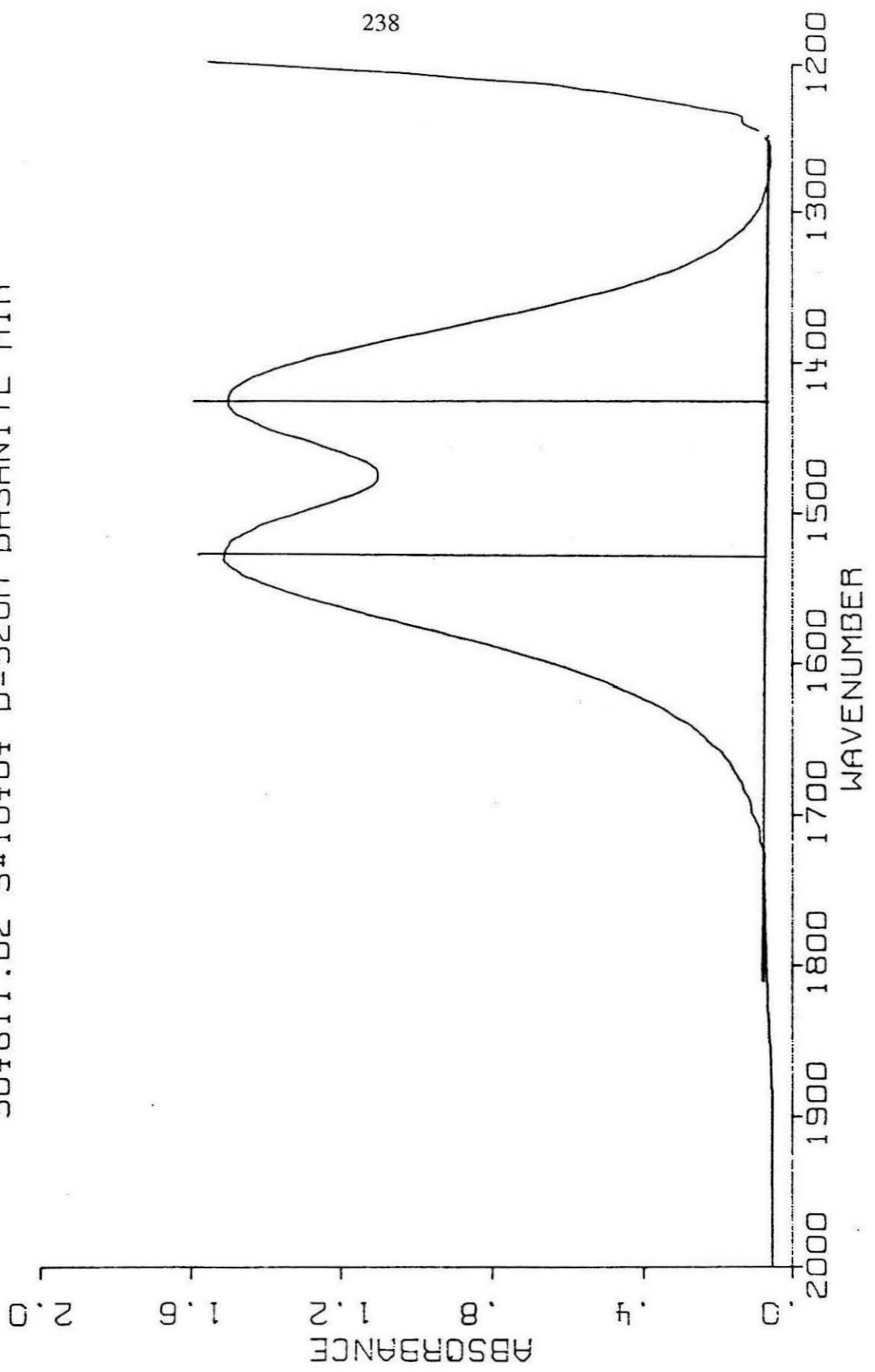


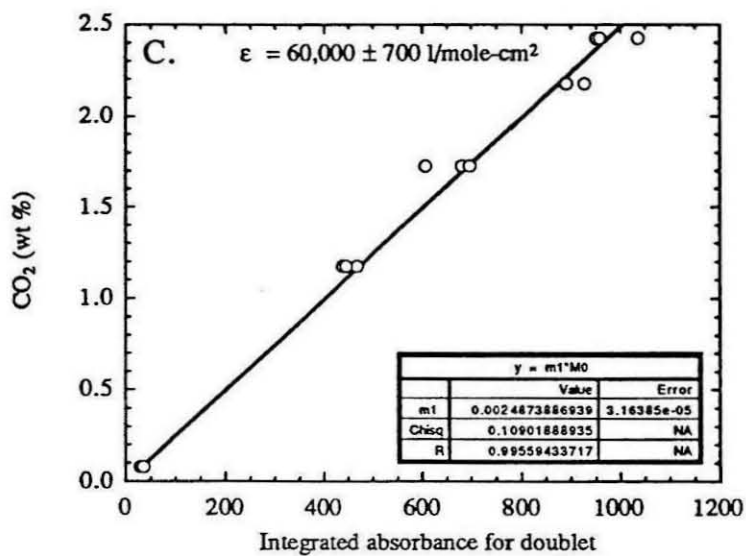
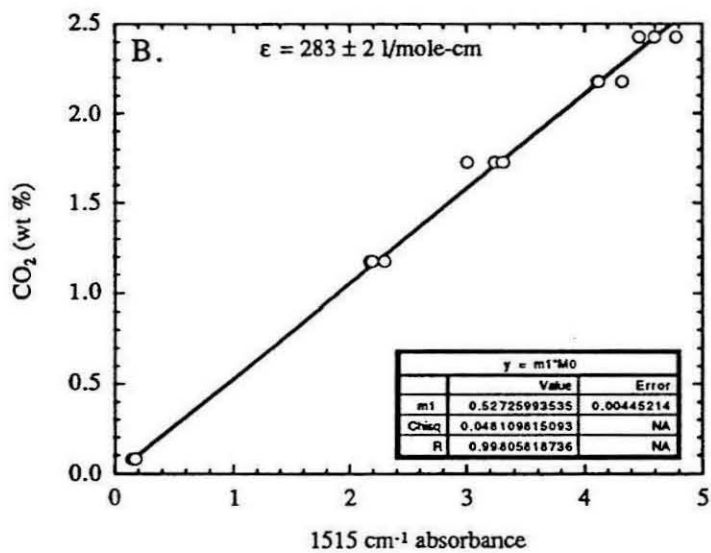
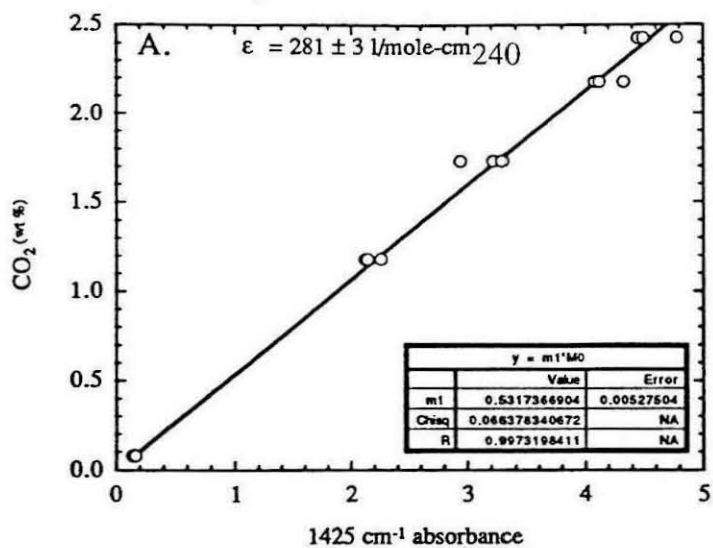
Figure 2. Measured carbon concentrations plotted vs. intensities of absorptions normalized to a sample thickness of 100 μm . A. Concentration vs. 1425 cm^{-1} absorbance. B. Concentration vs. 1525 cm^{-1} absorbance. C. Concentration vs. integrated molar absorbance. Concentrations are calculated using Beer-Lambert law:

$$c = \frac{\text{MW} \times \text{Abs}}{\rho \times d} \times \frac{1}{\epsilon}$$

where MW is the molecular weight in g/mole, ρ is the glass density in g/l, and d is the sample thickness in cm. The slope of the line on a plot of concentration vs. measured absorbance normalized to 100 μm can be related to the molar absorptivity by:

$$\text{slope} = \frac{\text{MW} \times 10^4}{\rho \times \epsilon}$$

The molar absorptivities were calculated using a glass density of 2950 g/l and MW of 44.01g/mole.



Appendix 3

**A Method for Calculating Degassing of Water
and Carbon Dioxide from Basaltic Magma**

Introduction

Degassing of water and carbon dioxide from basaltic magmas can be described using three independent, nonlinear equations describing mass balance, fractionation, and speciation of water in the melt. The analytical problem can be simplified by expressing the governing equations in terms of three coupled, linear, differential equations and solving using standard methods of matrix algebra. This approach is similar to one used to describe D/H fractionation during degassing of water from silicate melts (G. Miller and P. Dobson, personal communication) and has the advantage of allowing solution of both open and closed system degassing problems. The three governing equations and a method for their solution are discussed below. A list of variable definitions is given below.

Definition of Variables

- CO_2^{Tot} initial number of moles of CO_2 in the melt
 CO_2^{m} number of moles of CO_2 in the melt
 $\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{Tot}}$ initial number of moles of H_2O in the melt
 $\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{m}}$ number of moles of H_2O in the melt;
 OH^{m} number of moles of OH in the melt
 $\text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^{\text{m}}$ number of moles of molecular water in the melt
 CO_2^{v} number of moles of CO_2 in the vapor
 $\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{v}}$ number of moles of H_2O in the vapor
 X_i^{m} mole fraction of species i in melt (single oxygen basis);

$$= \frac{N_i^{\text{m}}}{N_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{m}} + N_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{m}} + N_{\text{O}}}, \text{ where } N_{\text{O}} = \frac{100 - \text{wt}\% \text{H}_2\text{O} - \text{wt}\% \text{CO}_2}{36.594}$$
 X_i^{v} mole fraction of species i in vapor
 a_i^{m} activity of species i in melt

$a_i^{0,m}$	activity of species i in melt in equilibrium with vapor phase of pure i
f_i	fugacity of i in the vapor
f_i^0	fugacity of pure vapor i
$V_i^{0,m}$	molar volume of i in the melt
f	fraction of total volatiles remaining in melt (Eqn.1)
β	CO ₂ /H ₂ O fractionation factor between vapor and melt (Eqn 9)
λ	discriminates between open ($\lambda=0$) and closed ($\lambda=1$) system degassing
y	fraction of H ₂ O present as OH (Eqn. 24)

Governing Equations:

1) Mass balance:

The equation of mass balance is defined in terms of f , the fraction of initial water and carbon dioxide remaining in the melt:

$$f = \frac{H_2O^m + CO_2^m}{H_2O^{Tot} + CO_2^{Tot}} \quad (1)$$

Water dissolved in a basaltic melt can exist as hydroxyl groups or as discrete molecules of water. When water enters the melt as hydroxyl groups, one molecule of H₂O reacts with a bridging oxygen to produce 2 hydroxyl groups; therefore, the mass balance equation for H₂O is:

$$H_2O^m = .5OH^m + H_2O_{mol}^m \quad (2)$$

Substitution of (2) into (1) gives:

$$f = \frac{.5\text{OH}^m + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m + \text{CO}_2^m}{\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{Tot}} + \text{CO}_2^{\text{Tot}}} \quad (3)$$

Differentiating of (3) with respect to f gives:

$$\frac{.5d\text{OH}^m}{df} + \frac{d\text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m}{df} + \frac{d\text{CO}_2^m}{df} = \text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{Tot}} + \text{CO}_2^{\text{Tot}} \quad (4)$$

In both open and closed system degassing, we can equate the differential gain of water and carbon dioxide in the vapor with the differential loss from the melt:

$$\text{CO}_2^v = \text{CO}_2^{\text{Tot}} - \text{CO}_2^m \quad (5)$$

and

$$\text{H}_2\text{O}^v = \text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{Tot}} - \text{H}_2\text{O}^m = \text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{Tot}} - .5 \text{OH}^m - \text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m \quad (6)$$

Differentiating (5) and (6) with respect to f leads to:

$$\frac{d\text{CO}_2^v}{df} = \frac{-d\text{CO}_2^m}{df} \quad (7)$$

and

$$\frac{d\text{H}_2\text{O}^v}{df} = \frac{-d\text{H}_2\text{O}^m}{df} = \frac{-.5d\text{OH}^m}{df} - \frac{d\text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m}{df} \quad (8)$$

2) Fractionation

Assuming that both water and CO_2 in the melt are in equilibrium with the vapor phase during each degassing step, and that we have accurate knowledge of their solubilities (Chapter 1), we can express this equilibrium in terms of a single constant ratio of $\beta_{\text{CO}_2\text{-H}_2\text{O}}$:

$$\beta_{\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}} = \frac{\left(\frac{N_{\text{CO}_2}^v}{N_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^v} \right)}{\left(\frac{N_{\text{CO}_2}^m}{N_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^m} \right)} \quad (9)$$

Solubilities are expressed in terms of fugacities and mole fractions of components in the melt; therefore, we need to express β in terms of these variables. Because the denominators cancel, the ratio of the number of moles is the same as the ratio of the mole fractions of H₂O and CO₂.

$$\left(\frac{N_{\text{CO}_2}^m}{N_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^m} \right) = \left(\frac{\frac{N_{\text{CO}_2}^m}{N_{\text{O}}^m + N_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^m + N_{\text{CO}_2}^m}}{\frac{N_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^m}{N_{\text{O}}^m + N_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^m + N_{\text{CO}_2}^m}} \right) = \left(\frac{X_{\text{CO}_2}^m}{X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^m} \right) \quad (10)$$

For the fugacities of H₂O and CO₂ in the vapor phase, we can simplify the calculation by using the Lewis-Randall rule:

$$f_i = X_i^v f_i^0 \quad (11)$$

The use of the Lewis-Randall assumption, rather than calculating the fugacities of H₂O and CO₂ using the modified Redlich-Kwong equation of state for H₂O-CO₂ mixtures (Holloway, 1977) results in <20% errors (Table 1). In general, the magnitude of the difference between fugacities calculated using the Lewis-Randall rule instead of the modified Redlich-Kwong equation increases with pressure and decreases with increasing mole fraction of the species in the vapor. At 100 bars pressure, the error is <2%, while

at 1000 bars pressure, the error is as much as 20%. Table 2 shows the magnitude of the error in b caused by using the Lewis-Randall rule to calculate fugacities. In general, the error is less than 15% for conditions relevant to degassing of basaltic magmas.

The ratio of the number of moles of CO_2 and H_2O in the vapor can now be expressed in terms of fugacities by:

$$\left(\frac{N_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{v}} f_{\text{CO}_2}^0}{N_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{v}} f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^0} \right) = \left(\frac{X_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{v}} f_{\text{CO}_2}^0}{X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{v}} f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^0} \right) = \left(\frac{f_{\text{CO}_2}}{f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}} \right) \quad (12)$$

We can define a new variable, β' , where:

$$\beta' = \frac{\left(\frac{f_{\text{CO}_2}}{f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}} \right)}{\left(\frac{X_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{m}}}{X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{m}}} \right)} = \beta \left(\frac{f_{\text{CO}_2}^0}{f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^0} \right) \quad (13)$$

The value of β will be a function of pressure. The pressure dependence of the activity of H_2O and CO_2 in basaltic melts (assuming T to be constant at 1200 °C) is shown below:

$$X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{m}} = a_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{m}} = a_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0,\text{m}}(P_0) \frac{f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}(P)}{f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^0(P_0)} \exp\left(\frac{-V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0,\text{m}}(P-P_0)}{RT} \right) \quad (14)$$

and

$$X_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{m}} = a_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{m}} = a_{\text{CO}_2}^{0,\text{m}}(P_0) \frac{f_{\text{CO}_2}(P)}{f_{\text{CO}_2}^0(P_0)} \exp\left(\frac{-V_{\text{CO}_2}^{0,\text{m}}(P-P_0)}{RT} \right) \quad (15)$$

Using a reference pressure (P_0) of 1 bar and data from Chapter 1, then:

$$\begin{aligned}
 a_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{ms}}}^{0,m}(P_0) &= 3.102 \times 10^{-5} & a_{\text{CO}_2}^{0,m}(P_0) &= 3.817 \times 10^{-7} \\
 f_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^0(P_0) &= 1 & f_{\text{CO}_2}^0(P_0) &= 1 \\
 V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0,m} &= 12 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mole} & V_{\text{CO}_2}^{0,m} &= 23.14 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mole}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Substituting in these value into Eqns 14 and 15, and applying the definition of β' gives:

$$\beta = 81.268 \frac{\exp\left(\frac{-12(P-1)}{122,488}\right)}{\exp\left(\frac{-23.14(P-1)}{122,488}\right)}. \quad (16)$$

Differentiating of the expression for β (9) with respect to f gives:

$$\beta \text{CO}_2^m \left(\frac{d\text{H}_2\text{O}^v}{df} \right) + \beta \text{H}_2\text{O}^v \left(\frac{d\text{CO}_2^m}{df} \right) - \text{CO}_2^v \left(\frac{d\text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m}{df} \right) - \text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m \left(\frac{d\text{CO}_2^v}{df} \right) = 0. \quad (17)$$

The vapor phase abundances can be expressed as:

$$\text{H}_2\text{O}^v = \lambda \left(\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{Tot}} - .5\text{OH}^m - \text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m \right), \quad (18)$$

$$\text{CO}_2^v = \lambda \left(\text{CO}_2^{\text{Tot}} - \text{CO}_2^m \right), \quad (19)$$

where $\lambda=1$ for closed system degassing and 0 for open system degassing. Combining Equations 17-19 gives:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &-.5\beta \text{CO}_2^m \left(\frac{d\text{OH}^m}{df} \right) + [(\lambda-\beta)\text{CO}_2^m - \lambda\text{CO}_2^{\text{Tot}}] \left(\frac{d\text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m}{df} \right) \\
 &+ \left[\beta \lambda \left(\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{Tot}} - .5\text{OH}^m - \text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m \right) + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m \right] \left(\frac{d\text{CO}_2^m}{df} \right) = 0.
 \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

3) Speciation:

The speciation equation (Eqn. 12, Chapter 1) defines the distribution of water between hydroxyl groups and molecular water species in the melt. An equivalent equation does not exist for CO₂ because CO₂ dissolves in basaltic melts only as carbonate groups. It is convenient to define a variable, y , as the fraction of total water present as OH groups:

$$y = \frac{.5\text{OH}^{\text{m}}}{.5\text{OH}^{\text{m}} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^{\text{m}}} = \frac{\text{OH}^{\text{m}}}{\text{OH}^{\text{m}} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^{\text{m}}} \quad (21)$$

Rearranging and differentiating with respect to f yields:

$$(y - 1)\frac{d\text{OH}^{\text{m}}}{df} + 2y\frac{d\text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^{\text{m}}}{df} = \frac{-dy}{df} (\text{OH}^{\text{m}} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^{\text{m}}) \quad (22)$$

This equation contains the term dy/df , which must be expressed in terms of $d\text{OH}^{\text{m}}/df$ or $d\text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}/df$. Using the chain rule, $d\text{OH}^{\text{m}}/df$ can be expressed as:

$$\frac{d\text{OH}^{\text{m}}}{df} = \left(\frac{d\text{OH}^{\text{m}}}{dy} \right) \left(\frac{dy}{df} \right) \quad (23)$$

Therefore, dy/df is equivalent to:

$$\frac{dy}{df} = \frac{\left(\frac{d\text{OH}^{\text{m}}}{df} \right)}{\left(\frac{d\text{OH}^{\text{m}}}{dy} \right)} \quad (24)$$

I have obtained an analytical expression for dOH^m/dy by fitting a 3rd order polynomial through OH^m vs Y data (Figure 1) for albite (Silver and Stolper, 1989). The fit has an R^2 of 0.994 and is given by:

$$X_{OH}^m = 0.0770 + 0.00642y + 0.0385y^2 - 0.1209y^3 \quad (25)$$

The derivative of (25) with respect to y is:

$$\frac{dX_{OH}^m}{dy} = 0.00642 + 0.07694y - 0.3627y^2 \quad (26)$$

Since:

$$OH^m = X_{OH}^m(N_{H_2O} + N_{CO_2} + N_O) \quad (27)$$

then:

$$\frac{dOH^m}{dy} = (N_{H_2O} + N_{CO_2} + N_O) (0.00642 + 0.07694y - 0.3627y^2) \quad (28)$$

Now that dOH^m/dy can be evaluated for each iteration, we can combine (22) and (24) to get the final differential equation for speciation of water in the melt:

$$\left[(y - 1) \left(\frac{dOH^m}{dy} \right) + OH^m + 2H_2O_{mol}^m \right] \left(\frac{dOH^m}{df} \right) + 2y \left(\frac{dOH^m}{dy} \right) \left(\frac{dH_2O_{mol}^m}{df} \right) = 0 \quad (29)$$

The three final differential equations are:

Mass Balance:

$$\frac{.5dOH^m}{df} + \frac{dH_2O_{mol}^m}{df} + \frac{dCO_2^m}{df} = H_2O^{Tot} + CO_2^{Tot} ; \quad (4)$$

Fractionation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &-.5\beta\text{CO}_2^m\left(\frac{d\text{OH}^m}{df}\right) + [(\lambda-\beta)\text{CO}_2^m - \lambda\text{CO}_2^{\text{Tot}}]\left(\frac{d\text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m}{df}\right) \\
 &+ \left[\beta\lambda(\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{Tot}} - .5\text{OH}^m - \text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m) + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m\right]\left(\frac{d\text{CO}_2^m}{df}\right) = 0 ; \quad (20)
 \end{aligned}$$

and Speciation:

$$\left[(y-1)\left(\frac{d\text{OH}^m}{dy}\right) + \text{OH}^m + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m\right]\left(\frac{d\text{OH}^m}{df}\right) + 2y\left(\frac{d\text{OH}^m}{dy}\right)\left(\frac{d\text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m}{df}\right) = 0 \quad (29)$$

These equations can be solved simultaneously for the derivatives $\frac{d\text{OH}^m}{df}$, $\frac{d\text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m}{df}$, and $\frac{d\text{CO}_2^m}{df}$. These derivatives are calculated by casting Equations 4, 20, and 29 into the form of a matrix equation ($\mathbf{AX} = \mathbf{B}$):

$$\begin{vmatrix}
 .5 & 1 & 1 \\
 -.5\beta\text{CO}_2^m & (\lambda - \beta)\text{CO}_2^m - \lambda\text{CO}_2^{\text{Tot}} & \beta\lambda(\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{Tot}} - .5\text{OH}^m - \text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m) \\
 & & + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m \\
 (y-1)\left(\frac{d\text{OH}^m}{dy}\right) + \text{OH}^m & 2y\left(\frac{d\text{OH}^m}{dy}\right) & 0 \\
 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m & &
 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{X} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{d\text{OH}^m}{df} \\ \frac{d\text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{mol}}^m}{df} \\ \frac{d\text{CO}_2^m}{df} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{Tot}} + \text{CO}_2^{\text{Tot}} \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (30)$$

This matrix equation can be solved using standard techniques, and the vector of derivatives can be integrated numerically to yield the abundances of hydroxyl groups, molecular water, and carbon dioxide in the melt.

Discussion of Degassing Program:

A program has been written to calculate the degassing path of a packet of basaltic magma at a given pressure and 1200°C; degassing proceeds until saturation is reached. The calculation begins with a specified pressure, initial water and carbon dioxide contents, and f set to 1. For open system degassing, λ is set to 0 (equivalent to setting H_2O^v and CO_2^v to 0 for each iteration). For closed system degassing, λ is set to 1. The values for $f_{H_2O}^0$, $f_{CO_2}^0$, and β are computed as a function of pressure and remain constant for the remainder of the calculations.

The program next computes the progressive changes in melt and vapor compositions with progressive degassing of increments of initial volatiles present ($-df$). For each iteration, the concentrations of water species (OH^m and $H_2O_{mol}^m$) and dy/df are calculated. Substitution of the numeric values of y , dy/df , b , and the melt species concentrations OH^m , $H_2O_{mol}^m$, and CO_2^m into Eqn 30 gives a 3X3 matrix equation for $\frac{dOH^m}{df}$, $\frac{dH_2O_{mol}^m}{df}$, and $\frac{dCO_2^m}{df}$. The values of these derivatives are determined using a LU decomposition solution to the matrix equation.

For each iteration, the total volatile content (H_2O and CO_2) drops by an amount $-df$. The concentrations of the melt species drop by amounts $-df \frac{dOH^m}{df}$, $-df \frac{dH_2O_{mol}^m}{df}$, and $-df \frac{dCO_2^m}{df}$, respectively. The abundances and f are changed by the appropriate amount, and new values of y and dy/df are calculated. The matrix equations are solved again, now using the updated abundances. These steps are repeated until saturation is reached. Saturation is defined by:

$$\frac{a_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{m}}}{a_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{0,\text{m}}} + \frac{a_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{m}}}{a_{\text{CO}_2}^{0,\text{m}}} = 1 \quad (31)$$

where the activities of the species in the melt are the mole fractions of molecular water and carbon dioxide in the melt after each iteration, and the activities of the species in the melt in equilibrium with a pure vapor phase are calculated using Equations 14 and 15.

A copy of the program and sample calculations are included below.

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Table 1: Comparison of H₂O and CO₂ fugacities calculated using the MRK equation of state and the Lewis-Randall Rule

P (bars)	$X_{H_2O}^v$	$f_{H_2O}^{MRK}$	$f_{H_2O}^{LR}$	% diff.	$f_{CO_2}^{MRK}$	$f_{CO_2}^{LR}$	% diff
100	.01	.975	.998	2.4	101.11	101.09	0.0
100	.1	9.78	9.98	2.0	91.90	91.92	0.0
100	.25	24.61	24.95	1.4	76.49	76.60	0.1
100	.5	49.59	49.90	0.6	50.76	51.07	0.6
100	.75	74.73	74.84	0.2	25.18	25.53	1.4
500	.01	4.49	4.96	10.47	551.15	551.15	0.0
500	.1	45.56	49.64	9.0	500.60	501.05	0.1
500	.25	116.63	124.10	6.4	415.07	417.54	0.6
500	.5	241.01	248.21	3.0	271.28	278.36	2.6
500	.75	369.44	372.31	0.8	130.79	139.18	6.4
1000	.01	8.40	9.93	18.2	1231.76	1231.78	0
1000	.1	85.94	99.34	15.6	1118.26	1119.80	0.1
1000	.25	222.93	248.34	11.4	924.54	933.17	0.9
1000	.5	470.74	496.68	5.5	596.27	622.11	4.3
1000	.75	734.11	745.01	1.5	279.16	311.06	11.4

MRK values calculated using a modified Redlich-Kwong equation of state (Holloway, 1977). LR values calculated using $f_i = X_i f_i^0$.

Table 2

P (bars)	$X_{H_2O}^v$	$\left(\frac{f_{CO_2}}{f_{H_2O}}\right)$	$\left(\frac{X_{CO_2}^v f_{CO_2}^o}{X_{H_2O}^v f_{H_2O}^o}\right)$	% diff
100	.01	103.70	101.29	-2.3
100	.1	9.397	9.210	-2.0
100	.25	3.108	3.070	-1.2
100	.5	1.024	1.023	-0.1
100	.75	0.337	0.341	+1.2
500	.01	122.751	111.119	-9.5
500	.1	10.988	10.094	-8.1
500	.25	3.559	3.365	-5.5
500	.5	1.126	1.121	-0.4
500	.75	.3540	0.374	+5.6
1000	.01	146.638	124.046	-15.4
1000	.1	13.012	11.272	-13.4
1000	.25	4.147	3.758	-9.4
1000	.5	1.267	1.253	-1.1
1000	.75	0.380	0.418	+10.0


```

100 REM **THIS PROGRAM CALCULATES A DEGASSING PATH FOR A BASALTIC MELT**
REM **WITH A GIVEN TOTAL VOLATILE CONTENT AND EMPLACED AT A GIVEN P AND
T.**
REM **DEGASSING PROCEEDS UNTIL SATURATION IS REACHED. ONLY FINAL
SATURATION**
REM **VALUES ARE SAVED IN DATA FILE, THEN PROGRAM ITERATES DOWN PRESSURE**
F$ = CHR$(34)
PRINT "INPUT FILENAME FOR STORING OUTPUT DATA: ":INPUT F$
OPEN F$ FOR OUTPUT AS #1
REM **FIRST INPUT P,T,WTH2O, PPMCO2**
3100 PRINT "INPUT INITIAL H2O CONTENT (WT%): ":INPUT WTH2O
3200 PRINT "INPUT INITIAL CO2 CONTENT (PPM): ":INPUT PPMCO2
    WTH2OO=WTH2O
    PPMCO2O=PPMCO2
3300 PRINT "INPUT P (BARS): ":INPUT P
REM **SET LAMBDA TO 1 FOR CLOSED SYSTEM DEGASSING OR 0 FOR OPEN SYSTEM**
PRINT "DO YOU WANT OPEN (0) OR CLOSED (1) SYSTEM DEGASSING? ENTER 0 OR
1:":INPUT LAMBDA
REM 3400 PRINT "INPUT T (°C): ":INPUT TEMP
3450 TEMP=1200+273.15
    T=TEMP

REM **INITIAL INCREMENT OF DEGASSING SET TO BE .1%**
DF=-.001

3500 REM **OBTAIN FUGACITIES OF PURE H2O AND CO2 AT GIVEN P AND T FOR USE IN **
REM **CALCULATION OF BETA USING MRK FROM HOLLOWAY, 1977 AND PRAUSNITZ,
P156**
REM **AND LEWIS-RANDALL RULE SIMPLIFICATION (F=X*F°)**
    R=83.14321
REM **AH IS THE TEMP DEP EQN FOR a FOR H2O, UNITS ARE atm cm^6 R^1/2 mole^-2**
REM **1.01325 IS CONVERSION FROM BARS TO ATM, T IN CELSIUS**
    AH=(1.668E+08-193080*(T-273.15)+186.4*(T-273.15)^2-.071288*(T-273.15)^3)*1.01325
REM **AC IS TEMP DEP EQN FOR a FOR CO2, T IN CELSIUS**
    AC=1.01325*(7.303E+07-71400*(T-273.15)+21.57*(T-273.15)^2)
REM **b(H2O)=14.6 cm^3/mole, b(CO2)=29.7**
    B1=14.6
    B2=29.7
REM **AHC IS THE EQN FOR a FOR MIXTURES OF H2O AND CO2**
REM **INCLUDES LNK, THE EQUILIBRIUM CONSTANT FOR H2O-CO2 COMPLEX
FORMATION**
REM **T IN DEGREES KELVIN**
REM **(a°H2O*a°CO2)^1/2=4.01248E+07 **
    LNK=-11.071+(5953/T)-(2746000!/T^2)+(4.646E+08/T^3)
    K=EXP(LNK)
    AHC=1.01325*((K*.5*R*T^2.5/1.026676)+40124800#)
REM **USES METHOD OF NEWTON TO ITERATE FOR VOLUME**
FOR X1=0 TO 1 STEP 1
    B=X1*B1+(1-X1)*B2
    A=(X1^2*AH)+(2*X1*(1-X1)*AHC)+((1-X1)^2*AC)
    DEF FNF#(V#)=R*T/(V#-B)-A/((V#*V#+B*V#)*SQR(T))-P
    V2=B+5
    Q=1
    V1=V2
3510 F1=(FNF#(V1+.01)-FNF#(V1))/.01
    V2=V1-Q*FNF#(V1)/F1
    F2=(FNF#(V2+.01)-FNF#(V2))/.01
    IF F2*F1>0 THEN 3520

```

```

Q=Q/2
3520 IF ABS(V2-V1)<.00001 THEN 3530
V1=V2
F1=F2
GOTO 3510
3530 V#=V2
REM **G1=FUGACITY COEFFICIENT FOR H2O, G2= FOR CO2, SEE PRAUSNITZ P.156**
G1=LOG(V#/(V#-B))+B1/(V#-B)-2*(X1*AH+(1-X1)*AHC)*LOG((V#+B)/V#)/(R*T^1.5*B)
G1=G1+(LOG((V#+B)/V#)-B/(V#+B))*A*B1/(R*T^1.5*B^2)-LOG(P*V#/(R*T))
G1=EXP(G1)
G2=LOG(V#/(V#-B))+B2/(V#-B)-2*(X1*AHC+(1-X1)*AC)*LOG((V#+B)/V#)/(R*T^1.5*B)
G2=G2+(LOG((V#+B)/V#)-B/(V#+B))*A*B2/(R*T^1.5*B^2)-LOG(P*V#/(R*T))
G2=EXP(G2)
IF X1=0 THEN VCO2=V#
IF X1=1 THEN VH2O=V#
IF X1=0 THEN FCO2O#=G2*(1-X1)*P
IF X1=1 THEN FH2OO#=G1*X1*P
NEXT X1

REM **CALCULATE BETAP AS FUNCTION OF P**
BETAP=81.268*(EXP(-12*(P-1)/122488!))/(EXP(-23.14*(P-1)/122488!))

REM **CALCULATE BETA FROM BETAP (BETA=BETAP*FH2OO/FCO2O)**
BETA=BETAP*FH2OO#/FCO2O#

3550 REM **CALCULATE INITIAL (OR TOTAL) NUMBER OF MOLES OF H2O AND CO2**
NCO2TOT=PPMCO2*.0001/44.009
NH2OTOT=WTH2O/18.015

3600 REM **CALCULATE NUMBER OF MOLES AND MOLE FRACTIONS OF H2O AND CO2 IN
MELT**
T=TEMP
H2OOLD=WTH2O
CO2OLD=PPMCO2
NCO2=PPMCO2*.0001/44.009
NH2O=WTH2O/18.015
NO=(100-WTH2O-PPMCO2*.0001)/36.594
XH2O=NH2O/(NH2O+NO+NCO2)
XCO2M=NCO2/(NCO2+NO+NH2O)
XO=1-XH2O-XCO2
XB=NH2O/(NH2O+NO+NCO2)

3610 REM **F=FRACTION OF INITIAL VOLATILES LEFT IN MELT**
F=(NH2O+NCO2)/(NH2OTOT+NCO2TOT)

3620 REM **FIRST GUESS FOR XOHM CALCULATED BY USING FOURTH ORDER
POLYNOMIAL FIT**
REM **THROUGH ALBITE DATA FOR XOHM VS XH2O**
XOHMO#=2.1898*XH2O-23.3226*XH2O^2+113.6695*XH2O^3-211.243*XH2O^4
IF (XH2O-.5*XOHMO#<=0) THEN XOHM#=2*.98*XH2O
XOHM#=XOHMO#
REM ** ITERATIVE SOLUTION FOR WATER SPECIATION USING SILVER AND STOLPER,
1989**
REM ** REGULAR SOLUTION MODEL WITH PARAMETERS FOR ALBITE**
3700 K=0
3710 IF (XH2O-.5*XOHM#<=0) THEN XOHM#=(.999*2*XH2O+XOHMO#)/2
IF (XO-.5*XOHM#<=0) THEN XOHM#=(.999*2*XO+XOHMO#)/2
IF (XOHM#^2=0) THEN XOHM#=XOHMO#/2

```

```

A=9.143
B=-3.295
C=-6.019
D=-.572
FX#=A+B*(XOHM#-1)+2*C*(XO-XOHM#)+2*D*(XH2O-XOHM#)+LOG(XOHM#^2/((XH2O-
.5*XOHM#)*(XO-.5*XOHM#)))
REM **FXP# IS DERIVATIVE OF FX# WITH RESPECT TO XOHM#**
FXP#=B-2*(C+D)+(2*(XH2O-.5*XOHM#)*(XO-.5*XOHM#)+.5*XOHM#*((XH2O-
.5*XOHM#)+(XO-.5*XOHM#)))/(XOHM#*(XH2O-.5*XOHM#)*(XO-.5*XOHM#))
DERATH#=FX#/FXP#
XOHMO#=XOHM#
XOHM#=XOHM#-DERATH#
K=K+1
IF (ABS(DERATH#)>=.00001) THEN GOTO 3710
XMH2OM#=XH2O-.5*XOHM#

REM ** CALCULATE NOHM AND NMH2OM FROM XOHM AND XMH2OM**
NMH2OM=XMH2OM#*(NH2O+NCO2+NO)
NOHM=XOHM#*(NH2O+NCO2+NO)

REM **Y=OH/(OH +MOLH2O)=FRACTION OF WATER AS OH**
Y=.5*NOHM/(.5*NOHM+NMH2OM)

REM **DOHMDY=DOHM/DY=DERIVATIVE OF 3RD ORDER POLYNOMIAL THROUGH ALBITE
XOH VS Y DATA**
DOHMDY=(NH2O+NCO2+NO)*(.00642+.07694*Y-.3627*Y^2)

REM **DEFINE COEFFICIENTS FOR LINEAR DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS TO BE
CALCULATED IN**
REM **LINEAR EQUATION SOLVER ROUTINE**
REM DIM A(3,3)
REM DIM B(3)
REM DIM X(3)
REM A(1,1)=.5
REM A(1,2)=1
REM A(1,3)=1
REM A(2,1)=-.5*BETA*NCO2
REM A(2,2)=(LAMBDA-BETA)*NCO2-LAMBDA*NCO2TOT
REM A(2,3)=BETA*LAMBDA*(NH2OTOT-.5*NOHM-NMH2OM)+NMH2OM
REM A(3,1)=(Y-1)*DOHMDY+NOHM+2*NMH2OM
REM A(3,2)=2*Y*DOHMDY
REM A(3,3)=0

REM **X(1)=DOHDF**
REM **X(2)=DMH2ODF**
REM **X(3)=DCO2DF**

REM B(1)=NH2OTOT+NCO2TOT
REM B(2)=0
REM B(3)=0

REM **SOLVE 3 LINEAR DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS BY LU DECOMPOSITION**
REM **GENERAL LINEAR EQUATION SOLVER**
REM **REF P. 76, J. HEILBORNN, SCIENCE & ENGINEERING PROGRAMS/OSBORNE-
MCGRAW HILL
REM **FACTORIZATION OF A**
REM **INPUT DATA**
GOSUB 420

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```

REM 1-NORM OF A
GOSUB 860
REM FACTORIZATION OF A
GOSUB 1050
REM ESTIMATION OF CONDITION OF MATRIX A
GOSUB 1640
REM INPUT VECTOR B
280 GOSUB 650
REM SOLVE A*X=B
GOSUB 2440
REM OUTPUT SOLUTION
GOSUB 760
GOTO 5000
REM INPUT DATA
420 N=3
  A(1,1)=.5
  A(1,2)=1
  A(1,3)=1
  A(2,1)=-.5*BETA*NCO2
  A(2,2)=(LAMBDA-BETA)*NCO2-LAMBDA*NCO2TOT
  A(2,3)=BETA*LAMBDA*(NH2OTOT-.5*NOHM-NMH2OM)+NMH2OM
  A(3,1)=(Y-1)*DOHMDY+NOHM+2*NMH2OM
  A(3,2)=2*Y*DOHMDY
  A(3,3)=0
620 RETURN
REM INPUT B ROUTINE
650 B(1)=NH2OTOT+NCO2TOT
  B(2)=0
  B(3)=0
730 RETURN
REM OUTPUT SOLUTION
760 REM PRINT
REM PRINT "SOLUTION"
REM PRINT "*****"
REM FOR I=1 TO N
REM PRINT "X(";I;") = ";B(I)
REM NEXT I
830 RETURN
REM 1 NORM OF MATRIX A
860 A9=0
FOR J=1 TO N
  T=0
  FOR I=1 TO N
  T=T+ABS(A(I,J))
  NEXT I
  IF T<=A9 THEN 940
  A9=T
940 NEXT J
950 RETURN
REM P IS PERMUTATION MATRIX
REM L IS LOWER TRIANGULAR MATRIX
REM U IS UPPER TRIANGULAR MATRIX
1050 I0(N)=1
N1=N-1
IF N1=0 THEN 2150
FOR K=1 TO N1
  K1 = K+1
REM FIND PIVOT

```

```

M=K
FOR I=K1 TO N
A1=ABS(A(I,K))
A2=ABS(A(M,K))
IF A1<=A2 THEN 1170
M=I
1170 NEXT I
REM PIVOT LOCATED
I0(K)=M
IF M=K THEN 1250
I0(N)=-I0(N)
REM INTERCHANGE DIAGONAL TERMS
1250 T=A(M,K)
A(M,K)=A(K,K)
A(K,K)=T
REM SKIP STEP IF PIVOT IS ZERO
IF T=0 THEN 1450
REM COMPUTE MULTIPLIERS
FOR I=K1 TO N
A(I,K)=-A(I,K)/T
NEXT I
REM INTERCHANGE AND ELIMINATE BY COLUMNS
FOR J=K1 TO N
T=A(M,J)
A(M,J)=A(K,J)
A(K,J)=T
IF T=0 THEN 1440
FOR I=K1 TO N
A(I,J)=A(I,J) + A(I,K)*T
NEXT I
1440 NEXT J
1450 NEXT K
REM PRINT "WANT DET(A) (Y/N) ";
REM INPUT WS
REM IF WS="N" THEN 1590
REM COMPUTE DETERMINANT
D=1
FOR I=1 TO N
D=D*A(I,I)
NEXT I
D=D*I0(N)
REM PRINT "DET(A) = ";D
1590 RETURN
REM ESTIMATION OF CONDITION OF MATRIX A
1640 IF N>1 THEN 1740
C=1
IF A(1,1)<>0 THEN 2240
GOTO 2380
REM GENERAL CASE
1740 K=1
1750 T=0
IF K=1 THEN 1810
K1=K-1
FOR I=1 TO K1
T=T+A(I,K)*B(I)
NEXT I
1810 E1=1
IF T>=0 THEN 1850

```

```

E1=-1
REM CHECK FOR SINGULARITY
1850 IF A(K,K)=0 THEN 2380
B(K)=- (E1+T)/A(K,K)
K=K+1
IF K>=(N+1) THEN 1910
GOTO 1750
REM SOLVE FOR SYSTEM
1910 FOR K2=1 TO N1
K=N-K2
T=0
K1=K+1
FOR I=K1 TO N
T=T+A(I,K)*B(K)
NEXT I
B(K)=T
M=I0(K)
IF M=K THEN 2040
T=B(M)
B(M) = B(K)
B(K)=T
2040 NEXT K2
Y1=0
FOR I=1 TO N
Y1=Y1+ABS(B(I))
NEXT I
GOSUB 2440
Z1=0
FOR I= 1 TO N
2150 Z1 =Z1+ABS(B(I))
NEXT I
C=A9*Z1/Y1
IF C>=1 THEN 2240
C=1
2240 REM PRINT
REM PRINT "ESTIMATION OF CONDITION OF MATRIX A"
REM PRINT " C = ";C
REM TEST FOR SINGULARITY
IF C<(C+1) THEN 2350
2340 REM PRINT "A IS SINGULAR TO WORKING PRECISION"
2350 REM PRINT
RETURN
2380 REM PRINT "MATRIX A IS SINGULAR"
GOTO 2680
REM FORWARD SOLUTION
2440 IF N=1 THEN 2660
N1=N-1
FOR K=1 TO N1
K1=K+1
M=I0(K)
T=B(M)
B(M)=B(K)
B(K)=T
FOR I=K1 TO N
B(I)=B(I)+A(I,K)*T
2540 NEXT I
2550 NEXT K
2570 FOR K2=1 TO N1

```

```

K1=N-K2
K=K1+1
B(K)=B(K)/A(K,K)
T=B(K)
FOR I=1 TO K1
B(I)=B(I)+A(I,K)*T
2640 NEXT I
2650 NEXT K2
2660 B(1)=B(1)/A(1,1)
2670 RETURN
2680 GOTO 5000

```

```

5000 REM **CALCULATE NEW NOHM, NMH2OM, NH2O, NCO2**
REM **NOHM=NOHM+DF(DOHM/DF), ECT.**

```

```

F=F+DF
DOHMDF=B(1)
DMH2OMDF=B(2)
DCO2DF=B(3)
NOHM=NOHM+DF*DOHMDF
NMH2OM=NMH2OM+DF*DMH2OMDF
NH2O=.5*NOHM+NMH2OM
NCO2=NCO2+DF*DCO2DF
IF NCO2<=0 THEN NCO2=0
WTH2O=NH2O*18.015
PPMCO2=NCO2*44.009/.0001
H2ONEW=WTH2O
CO2NEW=PPMCO2

```

```

NO=(100-WTH2O-PPMCO2*.0001)/36.594
XH2O=NH2O/(NH2O+NO+NCO2)
XCO2M=NCO2/(NCO2+NO+NH2O)
XO=1-XH2O-XCO2
XB=NH2O/(NH2O+NO+NCO2)
XOHM=NOHM/(NH2O+NO+NCO2)
XMH2OM=NMH2OM/(NH2O+NO+NCO2)

```

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IF LAMBDA=0 GOTO 5200

```

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5100 REM **CALCULATE COMPOSITION OF VAPOR PHASE CLOSED SYSTEM**

```

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NVCO2=NCO2TOT-NCO2
NVH2O=NH2OTOT-NH2O
XVCO2=NVCO2/(NVCO2+NVH2O)
XVH2O=NVH2O/(NVCO2+NVH2O)
GOTO 6000

```

```

5200 REM **CALCULATE COMPOSITION OF VAPOR FOR EACH STEP IN OPEN SYSTEM**

```

```

VCO2=CO2OLD-CO2NEW
NVCO2=VCO2/(10000*44.01)
VH2O=H2OOLD-H2ONEW
NVH2O=VH2O/18.015
XVCO2=NVCO2/(NVCO2+NVH2O)
XVH2O=NVH2O/(NVCO2+NVH2O)

```

```

6000 REM **IS THE MELT SATURATED? IF SO, STOP. IF NOT, CONTINUE**

```

```

REM **MELT IS SATURATED WHEN ACO2/A°CO2 + AH2O/A°H2O = 1**
AH2OM=XMH2OM
ACO2M=XCO2M

```

```
6500 REM **ACTIVITY CALCULATIONS INCLUDING CORRECTION FOR MOLAR VOLUME OF
    REM WATER AND CARBON DIOXIDE IN MELT WITH REF STATE OF 1 BAR, 1200°C**
    AOH2OM=3.102E-05*(FH2OO#/1)*EXP(-12*(P-1)/122488!)
    AOCO2M=3.817E-07*(FCO2O#/1)*EXP(-23.14*(P-1)/122488!)

6700 GH2O=AH2OM/AOH2OM
    GCO2=ACO2M/AOCO2M

7000 REM **IF ONE MORE ITERATION WOULD CAUSE NEGATIVE VALUES FOR H2O OR
    CO2 THEN**
    REM **REDUCE THE DEGASSING INCREMENT BY HALF*
    IF (GH2O+GCO2-1<.0001) THEN GOTO 8000
    IF (GH2O+GCO2-1<1) AND (GH2O+GCO2-1>.1) THEN DF=-.0001
    IF (GH2O+GCO2-1<.1) AND (GH2O+GCO2-1>.01) THEN DF=-.00005
    IF (GH2O+GCO2-1<=.01) AND (GH2O+GCO2-1>.001) THEN DF=-.00001
    IF (GH2O+GCO2-1<=.001) AND (GH2O+GCO2-1>.0001) THEN DF=-.000001
    GOTO 3600

8000 WRITE #1,P;TEMP-273.15;WTH2OO;PPMCO2O;FH2OO#;FCO2O#;LAMBDA;BETA;Y;F;B(1);
    B(2);B(3);NOHM;NMH2OM;NCO2;XOHM;XMH2OM;XH2O;XCO2M;WTH2O; PPMCO2; NVH2O;
    NVCO2; XVH2O;XVCO2; GH2O; GCO2; GH2O+GCO2

    IF P=1 THEN GOTO 9000
    IF P=5 THEN P=1
    IF P=10 THEN P=5
    IF P<=100 AND P>10 THEN P=P-10
    IF P>=150 THEN P=P-50
    PRINT "P=";P
    WTH2O=WTH2OO
    PPMCO2=PPMCO2O
    GOTO 3450

9000 CLOSE #1
    GOTO 100
    END
```


P (bars)	T °C	INIT H2O (w%)	INIT CO2 (PPM)	P*H2O (bars)	P*CO2 (bars)	lambda	beta	Y-OH/(OH+2H2O)	F	DOH/WDF	DMH/2OMDF	DCO2/MDF	NOHM	NMH/2OM
1	1000.0	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	993.35	1244.2	1.0000	71.053	0.99660	0.010114	0.0022096	0.049379	0.093763	0.00815966
2	950.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	943.31	1168.8	1.0000	71.501	0.99548	0.011134	0.0024319	0.048848	0.093772	0.0085939
3	900.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	893.38	1095.0	1.0000	71.958	0.99434	0.012314	0.0026889	0.047799	0.093759	0.0089508
4	850.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	843.54	1022.8	1.0000	72.416	0.99318	0.013874	0.0029848	0.046824	0.093745	0.0093573
5	800.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	793.78	951.80	1.0000	72.884	0.99202	0.015256	0.0033290	0.045689	0.093729	0.00985834
6	750.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	744.10	882.45	1.0000	73.358	0.99081	0.017110	0.0037322	0.044358	0.093711	0.01035790
7	700.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	694.48	814.53	1.0000	73.838	0.98958	0.019290	0.0042058	0.042795	0.093690	0.01085738
8	650.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	644.91	748.02	1.0000	74.328	0.98830	0.021856	0.0047829	0.040955	0.093668	0.01136679
9	600.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	595.39	682.91	1.0000	74.820	0.98697	0.024893	0.0054217	0.038777	0.093637	0.01185609
10	550.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	545.89	619.15	1.0000	75.321	0.98557	0.028473	0.0061970	0.036212	0.093602	0.01231225
11	500.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	496.41	558.72	1.0000	75.828	0.98408	0.032687	0.0071080	0.033194	0.093560	0.01273423
12	450.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	446.93	495.60	1.0000	76.342	0.98245	0.037641	0.0081764	0.029649	0.093507	0.0131228
13	400.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	397.45	435.76	1.0000	76.863	0.98060	0.043422	0.0094187	0.025516	0.093438	0.01347128
14	350.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	347.95	377.17	1.0000	77.390	0.97846	0.049946	0.010813	0.020859	0.093345	0.0137796
15	300.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	298.43	319.81	1.0000	77.924	0.97572	0.057214	0.012352	0.015687	0.093206	0.01404573
16	250.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	248.86	263.65	1.0000	78.465	0.97194	0.064672	0.013899	0.010410	0.092988	0.01428400
17	200.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	199.24	208.67	1.0000	79.012	0.96690	0.071677	0.015275	0.0055317	0.092572	0.01453070
18	150.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	149.55	154.84	1.0000	79.565	0.95915	0.077258	0.016123	0.0018930	0.091545	0.01476078
19	100.00	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	99.794	102.13	1.0000	80.124	0.95990	0.081671	0.015572	0.00023824	0.087142	0.01490966
20	90.000	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	89.832	91.726	1.0000	80.237	0.96452	0.082802	0.015106	0.00013788	0.085012	0.01496611
21	80.000	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	79.868	81.362	1.0000	80.349	0.97045	0.083402	0.014488	7.9838e-05	0.082231	0.01501104
22	70.000	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	69.897	71.041	1.0000	80.462	0.97768	0.083736	0.013723	4.7235e-05	0.078775	0.01504904
23	60.000	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	59.924	60.764	1.0000	80.578	0.98609	0.74351	0.012822	2.6690e-05	0.074631	0.01507972
24	50.000	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	49.947	50.529	1.0000	80.689	0.99574	0.88718	0.011785	1.7816e-05	0.069730	0.01509581
25	40.000	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	39.966	40.338	1.0000	80.803	0.99675	0.82231	0.010586	1.1137e-05	0.063925	0.015102870
26	30.000	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	29.980	30.190	1.0000	80.917	0.99875	0.54643	0.0092178	6.8399e-06	0.056917	0.01510935
27	20.000	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	19.991	20.084	1.0000	81.031	0.99453	0.45407	0.008154	3.9206e-06	0.048074	0.015116839
28	10.000	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	9.9978	10.021	1.0000	81.148	0.95430	0.32826	0.10256	2.0344e-06	0.035490	0.015124973
29	5.0000	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	4.9994	5.0053	1.0000	81.203	0.96818	0.23552	0.10571	0.0037904	0.025892	0.01512471
30	1.0000	1200.0	1.0000	500.00	0.99996	1.0002	1.0000	81.249	0.96811	0.10788	0.10990	0.0016946	0.012052	0.01512052

	NCO2M	XO1M	XM12OM	XH2OM	XCO2M	W12O	PPMCO2	NV12O	NVCO2	XV12O	XVCO2	M/e H2O	M/e CO2	M/A(H)+M/e(C)
1	0.00096471	0.033671	0.0031140	0.020100	0.00034945	0.99962	424.56	2.1104e-05	0.00017142	0.170861	0.89039	0.11145	0.88864	1.0001
2	0.00090939	0.033967	0.0031130	0.020096	0.00032941	0.99968	400.21	2.9515e-05	0.00022674	0.11518	0.88482	0.11675	0.88334	1.0001
3	0.00085427	0.033962	0.0031118	0.020093	0.00030844	0.99970	375.96	3.8948e-05	0.00028188	0.12141	0.87859	0.12263	0.87744	1.0001
4	0.00079938	0.033957	0.0031106	0.020089	0.00028956	0.99911	351.80	4.9409e-05	0.00033675	0.12765	0.87205	0.12919	0.87086	1.0001
5	0.00074477	0.033951	0.0031092	0.020085	0.00026878	0.99890	327.78	6.1251e-05	0.00039137	0.13533	0.86467	0.13655	0.86355	1.0001
6	0.00069031	0.033945	0.0031075	0.020080	0.00025005	0.99865	303.80	7.4600e-05	0.00045682	0.14367	0.85633	0.14488	0.85520	1.0001
7	0.00063607	0.033937	0.0031057	0.020074	0.00023040	0.99837	279.93	9.0443e-05	0.00050006	0.15318	0.84684	0.15438	0.84568	1.0001
8	0.00058207	0.033928	0.0031035	0.020068	0.00021084	0.99804	256.16	0.00010863	0.00055406	0.16392	0.83608	0.16532	0.83477	1.0001
9	0.00052828	0.033918	0.0031010	0.020060	0.00019135	0.99765	232.48	0.00013017	0.00060787	0.17637	0.82363	0.17805	0.82203	1.0001
10	0.00047464	0.033905	0.0030979	0.020051	0.00017193	0.99719	208.88	0.00015582	0.00066149	0.19065	0.80935	0.19306	0.80699	1.0001
11	0.00042124	0.033890	0.0030943	0.020039	0.00015259	0.99663	185.38	0.00018702	0.00071489	0.20738	0.79264	0.21101	0.78903	1.0000
12	0.00036808	0.033871	0.0030897	0.020025	0.00013333	0.99592	161.99	0.00022627	0.00076805	0.22758	0.77244	0.23288	0.76721	1.0001
13	0.00031512	0.033848	0.0030838	0.020007	0.00011415	0.99500	138.68	0.00027771	0.00082101	0.25275	0.74725	0.26008	0.74000	1.0001
14	0.00026240	0.033813	0.0030756	0.019982	8.5052e-05	0.99378	115.48	0.00034639	0.00087373	0.28390	0.71810	0.29486	0.70523	1.0001
15	0.00020998	0.033763	0.0030638	0.019945	7.6064e-05	0.99191	92.411	0.00044917	0.00092615	0.32659	0.67341	0.34078	0.65932	1.0001
16	0.00015784	0.033684	0.0030447	0.019887	5.7214e-05	0.98899	69.508	0.00061112	0.00097819	0.38452	0.61548	0.40416	0.59591	1.0001
17	0.00010663	0.033538	0.0030094	0.019777	3.8630e-05	0.98349	46.928	0.00091625	0.0010295	0.47090	0.52910	0.49651	0.50357	1.0001
18	5.7211e-05	0.033166	0.0029231	0.019507	2.0729e-05	0.96993	25.178	0.0016689	0.0010769	0.60736	0.39264	0.63938	0.36074	1.0001
19	1.8958e-05	0.031592	0.0025734	0.018369	6.1477e-06	0.91282	7.4630	0.0048395	0.0011192	0.81218	0.18782	0.83942	0.16087	1.0001
20	1.8931e-05	0.030828	0.0024155	0.017829	4.3266e-06	0.88575	5.2508	0.0063421	0.0012442	0.84943	0.15057	0.87443	0.12567	1.0001
21	8.1903e-06	0.029930	0.0022189	0.017135	2.9711e-06	0.85094	3.6045	0.0082742	0.001306	0.90388	0.098124	0.92522	0.074882	1.0001
22	5.5226e-06	0.028580	0.0019925	0.016287	2.0042e-06	0.80848	2.4304	0.0106631	0.001306	0.90388	0.098124	0.92522	0.074882	1.0001
23	3.6377e-06	0.027098	0.0017419	0.015291	1.3209e-06	0.75668	1.6009	0.013397	0.001325	0.92205	0.077948	0.94251	0.057598	1.0001
24	2.3097e-06	0.025304	0.0014744	0.014141	8.3915e-07	0.70120	1.0165	0.016586	0.001338	0.93801	0.063985	0.95618	0.043913	1.0001
25	1.3645e-06	0.023241	0.0011950	0.012815	4.9609e-07	0.65502	0.60051	0.020260	0.001348	0.94696	0.053040	0.96764	0.032456	1.0001
26	8.6555e-07	0.020709	0.00090728	0.011262	2.4947e-07	0.55760	0.30175	0.024557	0.001354	0.95581	0.044193	0.97633	0.021768	1.0001
27	1.9542e-07	0.017508	0.00061327	0.0093675	7.1172e-08	0.46336	0.086002	0.029789	0.001359	0.96327	0.036733	0.99078	0.0099172	1.0001
28	0.0000	0.012942	0.00030988	0.0067811	0.0000	0.33498	0.0000	0.036915	0.001361	0.97014	0.029658	1.0001	0.0000	1.0001
29	0.0000	0.0094297	0.00015503	0.0048699	0.0000	0.24034	0.0000	0.042168	0.001361	0.97378	0.026238	1.0001	0.0000	1.0001
30	0.0000	0.0044054	3.1022e-05	0.0022337	0.0000	0.11009	0.0000	0.049398	0.001361	0.97752	0.022482	1.0001	0.0000	1.0001