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An H_2O-CO_2 mixed fluid saturation model compatible with rhyolite-MELTS

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Abstract A thermodynamic model for estimating the saturation conditions of H₂O-CO₂ mixed fluids in multicomponent silicate liquids is described. The model extends the capabilities of rhyolite-MELTS (Gualda et al. in J Petrol 53:875–890, 2012a) and augments the water saturation model in MELTS (Ghiorso and Sack in Contrib Mineral Petrol 119:197-212, 1995). The model is internally consistent with the fluid-phase thermodynamic model of Duan and Zhang (Geochim Cosmochim Acta 70:2311-2324, 2006). It may be used independently of rhyolite-MELTS to estimate intensive variables and fluid saturation conditions from glass inclusions trapped in phenocrysts. The model is calibrated from published experimental data on water and carbon dioxide solubility, and mixed fluid saturation in silicate liquids. The model is constructed on the assumption that water dissolves to form a hydroxyl melt species, and that carbon dioxide both a molecular species and a carbonate ion, the latter complexed with calcium. Excess enthalpy interaction terms in part compensate for these simplistic assumptions regarding speciation. The model is restricted to natural composition liquids over the pressure range 0-3 GPa. One characteristic of the model is that fluid saturation isobars at pressures greater than ~100 MPa always display

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a maximum in melt CO₂ at nonzero H₂O melt concentrations, regardless of bulk composition. This feature is universal and can be attributed to the dominance of hydroxyl speciation at low water concentrations. The model is applied to four examples. The first involves estimation of pressures from H₂O-CO₂-bearing glass inclusions found in quartz phenocrysts of the Bishop Tuff. The second illustrates H₂O and CO₂ partitioning between melt and fluid during fluid-saturated equilibrium and fractional crystallization of MORB. The third example demonstrates that the position of the quartz-feldspar cotectic surface is insensitive to melt CO₂ contents, which facilitates geobarometry using phase equilibria. The final example shows the effect of H₂O and CO₂ on the crystallization paths of a high-silica rhyolite composition representative of the late-erupted Bishop Tuff. Software that implements the model is available at ofm-research.org, and the model is incorporated into the latest version (1.1+) of rhyolite-MELTS.

Keywords Mixed fluid saturation \cdot Silicate melts \cdot Thermodynamics \cdot MELTS

Introduction and previous work

The presence of a fluid phase in a magmatic assemblage has an essential influence on the phase relations, elemental partitioning, and material properties of the system. The viscosity, density, and compressibility of a magma body are all critically dependent on the concentration of dissolved fluid (Lange 1994; Ochs and Lange 1997; Giordano et al. 2008). The partitioning of trace elements between minerals and melt can be markedly different if a fluid phase coexists with the assemblage (Spera et al. 2007). The saturation condition for a fluid phase coexisting with silicate melt is



a strong function of the proportion of H₂O to CO₂ in that phase. This is because of the compositionally dependent differential solubility of H2O- and CO2-rich fluids in silicate liquids and the strong partitioning of the two volatile components between melt and fluid. It is the nature of this partitioning that motivates the application of mixed volatile phase saturation to the interpretation of magmatic pre-eruptive conditions from the H₂O and CO₂ contents of glass inclusions in magmatic minerals (Moore 2008). The importance of this partitioning and the role it plays in interpreting the dynamical evolution of magma bodies has instigated an impressive number of experimental studies characterizing volatile saturation conditions and the physics and chemistry of the mechanism of fluid saturation. In turn, the experimental studies have spawned a number of models aimed at systematizing these observations in order to provide a predictive framework for the interpretation of data on natural rock samples.

The aim of this paper is to present a new thermodynamic model for mixed H₂O-CO₂ fluid saturation in natural silicate melts. The model presented is compatible with the computational frameworks and thermodynamic data/ model collections embodied in rhyolite-MELTS (Gualda et al. 2012a) and MELTS (Ghiorso and Sack 1995). Consequently, it may be used in conjunction with these computational packages to model the effects of mixed fluid saturation on liquid-solid phase relations in magmatic systems under crustal pressure (P)-temperature (T) conditions. Internal consistency with MELTS and rhyolite-MELTS discriminates the model presented here from the work of Duan (2014), Papale (1997, 1999), Papale et al. (2006), Moore et al. (1998), Dixon et al. (1995), Newman and Lowenstern (2002), and others (see Table 3 of Moore 2008). Additionally, the described model extends the calibration database of Papale et al. (2006) and improves upon the underlying theoretical formulation for activity composition relations of the H₂O component in the melt (after Ghiorso et al. 1983), as well as implementing a more robust and extensible model for the thermodynamic properties of the fluid phase (following Duan and Zhang 2006; this fluid model is also adopted by Duan 2014).

We proceed by first describing the model and the underlying objectives of its formulation and then discuss the calibration database, and finally the mechanics and compromises of calibration. The paper ends with applications aimed to (1) illustrate the use of the model to estimate fluid saturation in basaltic and rhyolitic bulk compositions; (2) demonstrate the use of the model coupled with rhyolite-MELTS to show the evolution of fluid saturation and CO₂–H₂O partitioning during equilibrium and fractional crystallization of basalt and rhyolite. In Electronic Supplementary Materials (ESM), an Appendix is provided that enumerates the details of both the fluid and melt models and discusses

the method of parameter optimization used for the calibration of the model to experimental data.

An extended version of rhyolite-MELTS and software for performing solubility and partitioning calculations based on the model presented here is available at the URL ofm-research.org.

The model

Our objective is to formulate a thermodynamic model for mixed H₂O-CO₂ fluid saturation that is compatible with MELTS (Ghiorso and Sack 1995) and rhyolite-MELTS (Gualda et al. 2012a). Effectively, this means that we seek a model that can be applied under crustal to supercrustal T- and P-conditions (600–1400 °C, 0–3 GPa) and that is internally consistent with the "anhydrous" silicate-liquid model of MELTS, which is identical to that in rhyolite-MELTS. The former restriction does not substantially limit the application of the model because effectively this pressure range encompasses the database of mixed volatile saturation experiments (see below). The latter restriction gives us the advantage that once calibrated from solubility data, estimates of the effects of dissolved volatiles on solid-liguid phase relations can be assessed in an internally consistent manner. The model we seek, however, will, by design, not be compatible with pMELTS (Ghiorso et al. 2002), nor will it be intended to model CO₂-rich fluid equilibria under mantle-like conditions at P > 3 GPa. In our view, the available experimental data are simply not extensive enough to provide a means of calibration in the higher-pressure regime.

MELTS and rhyolite-MELTS contain identical thermodynamic descriptions for the solubility of a pure H₂O component fluid phase. The formulation is based upon a configurational entropy model for dissolved H₂O in the melt originally devised by Ghiorso et al. (1983), which is built upon the formulations of Nicholls (1980) and Burnham and Davis (1974). Standard-state¹ thermodynamic properties of the H₂O component in the melt are taken in part from the equation of state (EOS) of Burnham et al. (1969), with partial molar entropy and enthalpy determined from model calibration. Thermodynamic properties of the water phase in MELTS were adopted from Haar et al. (1984) for pressures below 1 GPa and from Helgeson and Kirkham (1974) at higher pressures.

When attempting to extend MELTS to include a mixed fluid solubility model, four principal questions emerge: (1) Will the configurational entropy model for the melt H₂O



 $^{^{1}}$ Throughout this paper for the melt phase: Unit activity of the pure substance at any T and P.

component need modification? (2) What model will be adopted to describe thermodynamic properties of the mixed fluid phase? (3) What standard-state properties for melt component end members are optimal? and (4) Will excess free energy parameters involving H₂O inherited from the MELTS model require modification?

In MELTS, the configurational entropy model for the H_2O component dissolved in silicate liquid is based on the physical assumption that H_2O dissociates completely to hydroxyl units in the melt phase. This assumption motivates the relation $a_{H_2O} \approx X_{H_2O}^2$, where a denotes the activity and X the mole fraction of dissolved water. This relationship implies (Ghiorso et al. 1983):

$$\hat{S}^{\text{conf}} = -R \sum_{i=1}^{\text{anhydrous}} X_i \ln X_i - 2RX_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} \ln X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$$

$$-R \left(1 - X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}\right) \ln \left(1 - X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}\right)$$
(1)

for the molar configurational entropy of mixing as a consequence of the requirement of the equality of cross-partial compositional derivatives of any thermodynamic state function (Prigogine and Defay 1954). Importantly, a necessary consequence of (1) is that for any "anhydrous" melt component: $a_i \approx X_i (1 - X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}})$. The MELTS configurational entropy model does not include energetic contributions that might arise from partitioning of dissolved water into hydroxyl and molecular species (Stolper 1982). This is an apparent deficiency that may impact the ability to model water solubility experimental data over the whole range of compositions, temperatures, and pressures of interest. Speciation was not included in MELTS because the additional complexity would necessitate calibration of excess Gibbs free energy parameters for both hydroxyl and molecular water interactions with "anhydrous" melt species, effectively doubling the number of model parameters, and the experimental database available at the time of calibration did not warrant such an extension (Ghiorso and Sack 1995). This simplification must be revisited and assessed in light of the more comprehensive calibration data set assembled for the present analysis.

The pure water phase thermodynamic models utilized in MELTS are unsuitable for the mixed fluid models required here because they cannot readily be extended into the H₂O-CO₂ join with its complex and highly non-ideal solution properties. Papale et al. (2006) used the thermodynamic model of Kerrick and Jacobs (1981), which is a modified Redlick–Kwong formulation for the H₂O-CO₂ system. Along with Duan (2014), we choose the model of Duan and Zhang (2006; see ESM Appendix to this paper). This more recent formulation is based on a virial expansion EOS and is therefore more readily extensible to more complex fluids (e.g., plus CH₄, SO₂). Their model reproduces well

the extensive post-1981 data sets on mixing relations across the binary join (Duan and Zhang 2006, their Table 1) and is calibrated in part on first principle MD results that facilitate the extrapolation of the model to elevated temperatures (to 2300 °C) and pressures (to 10 GPa). Most importantly, the model of Duan and Zhang (2006) retrieves properties for water that are consistent with Haar et al. (1984) and Helgeson and Kirkham (1974) over the *P*–*T* range of interest here.

The EOS for the dissolved H_2O component in silicate liquids that is used in MELTS is adapted from the work of Nicholls (1980) and is ultimately attributable to Burnham et al. (1969). This EOS is a volume explicit polynomial in T and P with 15 parameters. The data for this EOS are derived from the determinations of the partial molar volume of H_2O in albite composition liquids. Ochs and Lange (1997) reevaluated these experimental results, adopting a smaller reference volume for dissolved water in the melt and found that the T-P dependence of the data could be adequately recovered, better interpolated, and better extrapolated using a three-parameter EOS:

$$\bar{v}_{\text{H}_2\text{O},T,P}^{\text{o}} = \bar{v}_{\text{H}_2\text{O},1400\,\text{K},1\,\text{bar}}^{\text{o}} + \frac{\partial \bar{v}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{o}}}{\partial T} (T - 1400) + \frac{\partial \bar{v}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{o}}}{\partial P} (P - 1)$$
(2)

Here, $\bar{\nu}_{H_2O}^o$ is the standard-state partial molar volume of H_2O dissolved in the melt. In this paper, we will adopt the Ochs and Lange (1997) expression in substitute for that obtained by Burnham et al. (1969) for the recalibration of the water solubility model in MELTS. The same course of action was followed with success in developing the water solubility calibration in pMELTS (Ghiorso et al. 2002).

Calibration data

Duan (2014), Papale et al. (2006), and Moore (2008) summarize experimental data available from the literature to assess the solubility of H₂O-CO₂ fluids in silicate liquids and the differential partitioning of H₂O and CO₂ between the two phases. We have based our calibration database on their summaries, adding more recent data where available. Data are used only if liquid and fluid compositions as well as temperature and pressure are reported in the source or can be reliably estimated from provided experimental descriptions or metadata. Experiments that produced solid phases were discarded unless analyses of quenched glass are reported. In mixed H₂O-CO₂ fluid saturation experiments, analytical measurements of the two volatile components in both quenched glass and fluid are required for inclusion in the data set. In addition, we have excluded the CO₂ solubility measurements from the literature where the analysis of dissolved carbon was made using beta-track



Table 1 Data sources utilized in model calibration

References	Number of experimental constraints				
	H ₂ O fluid experiments	CO ₂ fluid experiments	Mixed H ₂ O-CO ₂ fluid experiments		
Barclay et al. (1998)	1				
Behrens (1995)	56				
Behrens and Jantos (2001)	37				
Behrens et al. (2001)	50				
Behrens et al. (2004a)			12		
Behrens et al. (2009)	21		20		
Benne and Behrens (2003)	41				
Berndt et al. (2002)	9				
Bezmen et al. (1991)	1				
Blank et al. (1993)			7		
Blatter and Carmichael (2001)	2				
Botcharnikov et al. (2005a)	1				
Botcharnikov et al. (2005b)	3		9		
Botcharnikov et al. (2006)	2		21		
Botcharnikov et al. (2007)	3		3		
Brey (1976)		1			
Brooker et al. (1999)		27			
Brooker et al. (2001)		10			
Burnham and Jahns (1962)	57				
Carroll and Blank (1997)	20				
Di Matteo et al. (2004)	15				
Dingwell et al. (1984)	12				
Dingwell et al. (1997)	17				
Dixon et al. (1995)	6		9		
Feig et al. (2006)	1				
Gaillard et al. (2003)	11				
Gerke and Kilinc (1992)	1				
Grove et al. (1997)	2				
Hamilton and Oxtoby (1986)	50				
Hamilton et al. (1964)	11				
Hammer et al. (2002)	1				
Holtz et al. (1992)	28				
Holtz et al. (1995)	87				
Holtz et al. (2000)	27				
Iacono-Marziano et al. (2008)	1				
Iacono-Marziano et al. (2012)	6		23		
Iacovino et al. (2013)			15		
Jakobsson (1997)			8		
Kennedy et al. (1962)	13				
Khitarov et al. (1963)	18				
Khitarov et al. (1968)	9				
King and Holloway (2002)		1	4		
Kogarko et al. (1977)	12				
Kohn et al. (1989)	5				
Larsen and Gardner (2004)	5				
Lesne et al. (2011a)			34		
Lesne et al. (2011b)			13		



Table 1 continued

References	Number of experimental constraints			
	H ₂ O fluid experiments	CO ₂ fluid experiments	Mixed H ₂ O–CO ₂ fluid experiments	
Lesne et al. (2011c)	25	,	25	
Liu et al. (2005)	21			
Mangan and Sisson (2000)	1			
Martel et al. (1998)	5			
Mattey (1991)		5		
Mattey et al. (1990)		13		
McMillan et al. (1986)	9			
Medard and Grove (2008)	9			
Métrich and Rutherford (1998)	10			
Moore and Carmichael (1998)	12			
Moore et al. (1998)	41			
Moore et al. (2008)	1			
Morizet et al. (2002)		30		
Morizet et al. (2010)			10	
Mysen and Cody (2004)	53			
Ohlhorst et al. (2001)	6			
Orlova (1962)	21			
Oxtoby and Hamilton (1978)	52			
Paillat et al. (1992)	9			
Pan et al. (1991)		15		
Pawley et al. (1992)		5		
Persikov (1974)	15			
Pineau et al. (1998)	7			
Rai et al. (1983)		6		
Roach (2005)	5	5		
Romano et al. (1996)	40			
Schmidt and Behrens (2008)	69			
Schmidt et al. (1999)	4			
Shaw (1963)	2			
Shishkina et al. (2010)	7		27	
Shishkina et al. (2014)	4		33	
Silver et al. (1990)	45			
Tamic et al. (2001)	4		34	
Thibault and Holloway (1994)		16		
Vetere et al. (2011)	5		16	
Vetere et al. (2014)	4		16	
Watson (1979)	2			
Wilke et al. (2002)	6			
Yamashita (1999)	15			
Yoder (1965)	1			
Total	1152	134	339	

methods (e.g., Mysen et al. 1974). These measurements yield results that contradict several other experimental studies, specifically in the pressure dependence of the solubility relations. While Papale et al. (2006) did include these beta-track experiments as constraints for his model,

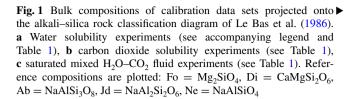
Duan (2014) chose not to do so, and in comparison with Papale, this resulted in fewer pressure-dependent model parameters for CO_2 solubility. We follow Duan's example and exclude beta-track measurements from our calibration data set.



Data sources are tabulated in Table 1, corresponding to fluid saturation experiments involving water, carbon dioxide, and mixed fluids. All the data sources listed have been entered into LEPR (lepr.ofm-research.org, Hirschmann et al. 2008), and a combined data file that is compliant with the LEPR schema is available at ofm-research.org. For all iron-bearing experiments, the ferric and ferrous iron contents of the melt are estimated using Kress and Carmichael (1988). Figures 1 and 2 display visualizations of the composition, temperature, and pressure ranges of the three data sets. It is important to note that there is minimal overlap in T- and P-spaces for the H₂O and CO₂ solubility data sets (Fig. 2d). In part, this is due to practical considerations of experimental design derived from the limited solubility of CO2 in silicate liquids at low pressures. The lack of overlap, however, has certain consequences for parameter calibration, as we discuss below, and will motivate our decision to utilize both the pure CO₂ solubility experiments and the fluid saturation experiments together for the calibration of the energetic properties of CO₂ in the melt. The majority of data (1152 cases) constrain water solubility, and despite the relevance and intense interest in mixed volatile solubility relations and partitioning, there are a smaller number (339) of mixed volatile experiments that in turn span a more restricted portion of the composition space of natural liquids (Fig. 1c). It is especially important to note that very little data are available (and only water solubility results) at temperatures below 800 °C (Fig. 1), which means that the application of any model calibrated from these data to natural phase assemblages involving quartz + sanidine + plagioclase + fluid will involve extrapolation to lower temperatures (c.f., Johannes and Holtz 1996).

Assessment of the MELTS water solubility model and recalibration

The first task is to access the suitability of the MELTS water solubility model against the calibration database. We perform this assessment in two ways. First, we calculate from experimentally reported temperatures and pressures and the thermochemical model of Duan and Zhang (2006) the chemical potential of water ($\mu_{H_2O}^0$, see ESM Appendix). Concurrently, utilizing the activity composition relations for H₂O-bearing silicate liquids from MELTS, we calculate from the experimentally reported liquid compositions and water contents the chemical potential of H₂O in the silicate liquid ($\mu_{\rm H_2O}^{\rm melt}$). The difference between these two quantities $\Delta\mu_{\rm H_2O}^{\rm residual}=\mu_{\rm H_2O}^{\rm melt}-\mu_{\rm H_2O}^{\rm o},$ is an energetic residual that describes the degree of misfit between model and data. The second way we can assess the applicability of the MELTS water model to the calibration data set is to calculate the dissolved water content of the experimental silicate liquid



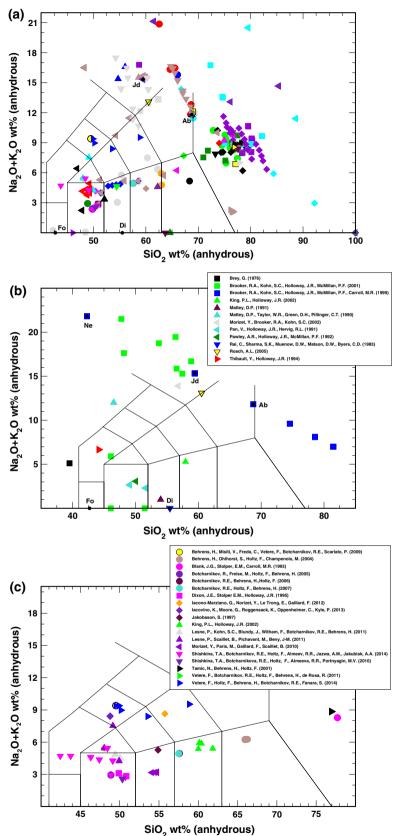
from the identity $\mu_{\rm H_2O}^{\rm melt} = f\left({\rm wt\%_{model-H_2O}}\right) = \mu_{\rm H_2O}^{\rm o}$ and compare ${\rm wt\%_{model-H_2O}}$ to ${\rm wt\%_{experiment-H_2O}}$. This comparison offers a direct assessment of how well the model reproduces a directly measured experimental quantity.

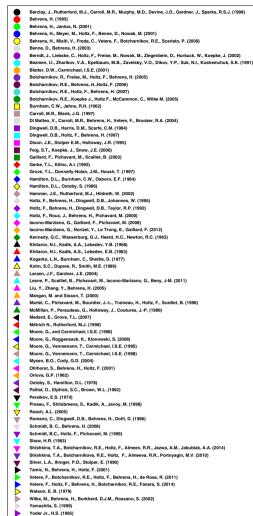
Assessment of the water solubility data set against the MELTS water model is shown in Figs. 3, 4, and 5. Figure 3a, b examines energetic residuals as a function of melt water concentration. In Fig. 3b, we have culled the data to only plot experiments performed on natural² composition melts; this data filtering is consistent with the compositional range over which the MELTS calibration, which is based on both anhydrous and water-bearing experiments, is applicable. The average statistical uncertainty of the entire data set scatters about zero, with standard deviation on the order of 3 kJ/mol (Fig. 3a). The natural data set has a much tighter distribution of residuals, but the mean is skewed to negative values, and close examination reveals that poorest recovery occurs in more alkali-rich bulk compositions. This is not surprising, as these compositions represent the furthest extrapolation from the original MELTS water calibration, which was based on a subset of data from Burnham and Jahns (1962, five experiments), Hamilton et al. (1964, 11 experiments), Khitarov et al. (Khitarov et al. 1963, 1968, 12 experiments), and a small number (119 experiments) of multiply saturated (solid + fluid) phase equilibrium studies (Ghiorso and Sack 1995, their Table A2) spanning the composition range of basalt to rhyolite, the pressure range 10-500 MPa, and the temperature interval 670-1150 °C.

Figure 4 shows a visual assessment of wt%_{model-H₂O} versus wt%_{experiment-H₂O} for the entire calibration data set (Fig. 4a) and the subset of natural compositions (Fig. 4b). The first thing to notice is that errors in energetic residuals ($\Delta\mu_{\rm H_2O}^{\rm residual} = \mu_{\rm H_2O}^{\rm melt} - \mu_{\rm H_2O}^{\rm o}$, Fig. 3) do not translate uniformly to errors in model H₂O concentrations. This is because the chemical potential of water in the melt is to first order a function of the logarithm of water mole fraction. This logarithmic dependence means that the same uniform error in energetic residual requires a larger compensation in melt water mole fraction to zero that residual at high concentrations of water when



 $^{^2}$ Through this paper, we define a *natural* composition as one that contains finite concentrations of the oxides SiO₂, Al₂O₃, FeO, MgO, CaO, and one of either Na₂O or K₂O.







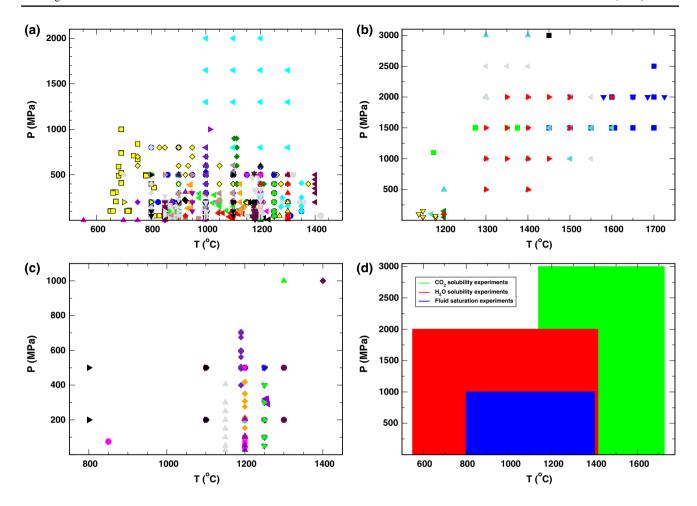


Fig. 2 Temperature and pressure conditions of calibration data sets. a Water solubility experiments, **b** carbon dioxide solubility experiments, **c** saturated mixed H₂O–CO₂ fluid experiments, **d** comparison of coverage of the three data types. *Symbol* legend given in Fig. 1

compared to lower concentrations. The inset graph to the lower right in Fig. 4b illustrates this dependence for the case of a uniform residual error of ± 3 kJ/mol; it is apparent that this constant residual error generates insignificant errors in predicted water contents at low water concentrations, but quite significant errors at elevated concentrations.

The results plotted in Fig. 4a demonstrate that the MELTS water solubility model is incapable of recovering experimental data on the alkali–silica join (Mysen and Cody 2004) and albite bulk composition at dissolved water contents in excess of 8 wt%. For natural compositions, recovery of water contents is within the expected error envelope at concentrations up to 10 wt%, but systematically offset at higher concentrations Fig. 4b), and recovery fails completely for the peraluminous granitic composition of Burnham and Jahns (1962; see inset upper left in Fig. 4b). The compositional dependence of the systematic offsets is better visualized in Fig. 5, where we have divided the data plotted in Fig. 4b into compositional sectors of the TAS diagram (q.v. Fig. 1a). Figure 5a–c shows that recovery of

water contents is quite good for basaltic through rhyolitic bulk compositions, but systematically offset for alkali-rich mafic compositions (Fig. 5d, e), especially at lower silica contents (Fig. 5d).

We conclude from this assessment of the MELTS water solubility model that, while it is adequate for low-alkali, natural compositions at water contents below 6 wt% (and therefore, lower pressures, ~<300 MPa), a recalibration of the model against the newer and much expanded data set might improve data recovery. The way to perform this task and maintain internal consistency is to recalibrate MELTS (or rhyolite-MELTS) against the new water solubility database and other more recent experimental solid-liquid experimental data. This exercise is beyond the scope of this paper. Instead, we will use the water solubility data set and recalibrate those parameters in the MELTS liquid thermodynamic model that pertain to the energetic properties of the H₂O component. Pertinent model parameters are listed in Table 2. To perform the recalibration, we abandon the EOS of Nicholls (1980) and adopt that of Ochs and Lange (1997), as discussed above (e.g., Eq. 2).



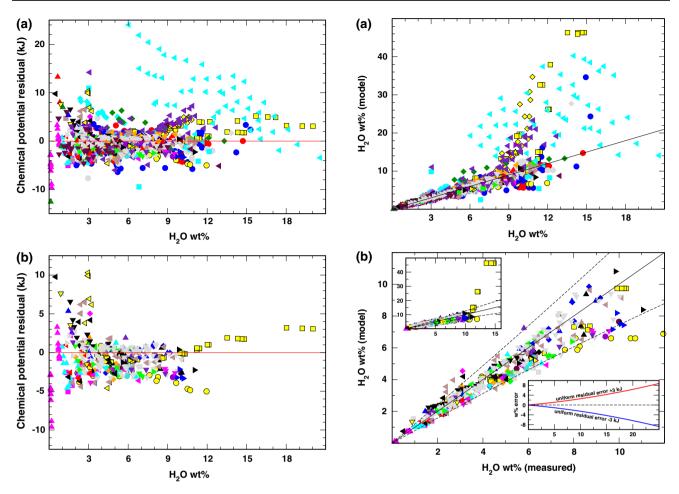


Fig. 3 Original MELTS model residuals in the chemical potential of H₂O for water solubility experiments plotted as a function of melt water content. Symbol legend given in Fig. 1a. a All data from Table 1, b natural composition (see text for definition) data from Table 1

Our method of parameter optimization is developed in the ESM Appendix and is based upon singular-value analysis (SVA). This technique permits values (and uncertainties, e.g., Press et al. 1999, p. 698) of all operative parameters to be obtained even if the calibration data set is insufficient to constrain each value uniquely. In brief, the technique remaps the variance of model residuals into linear combinations of model parameters and identifies which linear combinations contribute significantly to the solution. The number of these statistically significant linear combinations of parameters is called the rank of the optimization problem and effectively provides a measure of the number of uncorrelated parameters. Values of all the model parameters are then generated from this smaller uncorrelated subset of linear combinations to obtain the final solution. See Press et al. (1999) or Lawson and Hanson (1974) for a full discussion of the method.

In addition to employing SVA, we have weighted residuals, so that more importance is given to a residual

Fig. 4 Original MELTS model melt water contents (computed by finding a water content that zeroes model residuals) plotted as a function of the measured quantity for water solubility experiments. The black line references perfect agreement. Symbol legend given in Fig. 1a. a All data from Table 1, b natural composition data from Table 1. In (b), the upper inset shows all the natural data, while the main body of the figure focuses on water contents below 10 wt%. The dashed curves define a data envelope corresponding to a uniform energetic error in residuals of ± 3 kJ/mol; this function is plotted in the lower right inset and discussed in the text

associated with an experiment with high total water content than one with low total water content. This weighting technique permits a higher degree of fidelity in recovering experimental water contents and is motivated by the discussion presented above concerning Fig. 4. The function used to affect the weighting of residuals is the one plotted in the lower right inset of Fig. 4b.³

In ESM-Fig. 1 (see Electronic Supplementary Material), we plot an SVA summary analysis of the water model parameter optimization problem. Values for twelve

³ An empirical polynomial is fitted to the plotted function and yields the equation: weight = 0.0064788 (wt% H_2O) (wt% H_2O) + 0.18906661 (wt% H_2O) + 0.01583988.



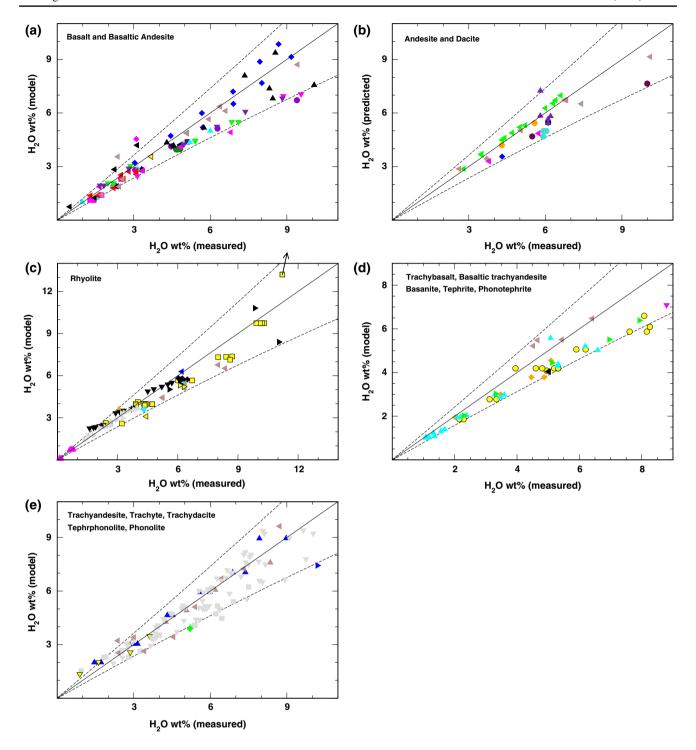


Fig. 5 Original MELTS model melt water contents plotted as a function of the measured quantity for water solubility experiments. The black line references perfect agreement. Symbol legend given in Fig. 1a. The dashed curves define a data envelope corresponding to a

uniform energetic error in residuals of ± 3 kJ/mol. Data on bulk compositions: **a** basalts and basaltic andesites, **b** andesites and dacites, **c** rhyolites, **d** alkalic basaltic rocks, **e** trachytic and phonolitic rocks

parameters are extracted (Table 2) from 10 statistically significant linear combinations. Cutoff is chosen at 1 % of the total variance, and the percent variance accounted by each linear combination is plotted along with the contribution

of each model parameter to each linear combination. It is apparent from the figure that the most statistically significant model parameters are the standard-state enthalpy and entropy of the water component in the melt, as well as



Table 2 Model parameters

Parameter	* = H ₂ O	* = CO ₂	* = CaCO ₃	Units (*/mol)
W(SiO ₂ , *)	27.557 ± 0.018	_	63.281 ± 1.592	kJ
W(TiO ₂ , *)	88.199 ± 2.531	-19.266 ± 0.259	-79.203 ± 0.364	kJ
W(Al ₂ O ₃ , *)	11.768 ± 2.566	_	46.716 ± 1.176	kJ
W(Fe ₂ O ₃ , *)	50.105 ± 8.509	-3.187 ± 0.137	65.509 ± 0.171	kJ
W(Fe ₂ SiO ₄ , *)	30.936 ± 5.818	-32.465 ± 0.308	-72.997 ± 0.290	kJ
$W(Mg_2SiO_4, *)$	20.910 ± 4.486	-40.854 ± 0.641	-24.873 ± 1.037	kJ
W(CaSiO ₃ , *)	9.715 ± 2.674	30.012 ± 1.437	37.534 ± 1.012	kJ
W(Na ₂ SiO ₃ , *)	-82.460 ± 2.423	_	-311.011 ± 0.737	kJ
W(KAlSiO ₄ , *)	1.057 ± 1.186	_	-27.865 ± 2.287	kJ
W(Ca ₃ (PO ₄) ₂ , *)	44.133 ± 0.336	-3.473 ± 0.030	2.012 ± 0.050	kJ
W(H ₂ O, *)		23.255 ± 1.345	7.873 ± 1.449	kJ
$\Delta \hat{H}^{ m o}_{ m f,*}$	2.784 ± 0.235^{a}	-0.631 ± 0.887^{b}	-17.574 ± 0.404	kJ
\hat{S}_*^{o}	2.384 ± 0.214^{a}	-109.393 ± 0.684^{b}	_	J/K
$\hat{V}_*^{ m o}$	2.775 ^c	4.0158 ± 0.0206	-1.9034 ± 0.0462	J/bar
$\frac{\partial \hat{V}^{\text{o}}_{*}}{\partial T}$	1.086 ^c	1.213 ^d	e	J/K-bar $\times 10^3$
$\frac{\partial I}{\partial \hat{V}^{o}_{*}}$	-0.382^{c}	-0.427^{d}	f	$J/bar^2 \times 10^4$

Interaction parameters for additional liquid components adopted from Ghiorso and Sack (1995). Uncertainties are \pm one standard error

interaction parameters between $\rm H_2O$ and silica, the alkalis, and alumina. All other model parameters contribute to reducing the variance below the 2 % level.

Only natural composition liquids were used in the recalibration exercise.

Assessment of the recalibrated MELTS water model is provided in Figs. 6 and 7. Figure 6a shows that energetic residuals are randomly distributed about zero and that—by design of the weighting function—these residuals are better recovered at high water contents than low. The distribution of residuals can be compared directly to Fig. 3b demonstrating visually that the recalibration has significantly improved data recovery. In Fig. 6b, the energetic residuals are translated into water contents, which are in turn plotted against those measured. Compare Figs. 6b to 4b to see that the recalibration has improved recovery at intermediate water contents (4–7 wt%) and especially so at higher water contents (>8 wt%). In Fig. 7, the water content

recovery is dissected by rock type. Comparing Figs. 7a–c to 5a–c reveals that recovery of water contents for basalts through rhyolites is somewhat improved by the new calibration, whereas recovery for more alkalic bulk compositions (Fig. 7d, e, compare Fig. 5d, e) is notably better. On the whole, recalibration generates a model that is much improved over that in MELTS or rhyolite-MELTS.

As non-natural bulk compositions were not utilized in the recalibration, it is of interest to examine extrapolated model recovery of these data. In Fig. 8, we plot predicted water contents versus measured for albite liquid (Fig. 8a) and all other non-naturals (Fig. 8b). Recovery for albite liquid is poor for the low-temperature studies of Burnham and Jahns (1962) and for the data of Hamilton and Oxtoby (1986) and Oxtoby and Hamilton (1978) at water contents greater than 8 wt%. Recovery of data on water solubility in SiO₂–Na₂O binary melts is poor (Fig. 8b), as in the original model (Fig. 4a). The poor recovery at low temperatures



^a Value reported is a correction to that adopted by Ghiorso and Sack (1995) and used in MELTS/rhyolite-MELTS. Ghiorso and Sack (1995) compute enthalpy and entropy from adopted values of -279,992 J/mol and 152.59 J/K-mol, respectively, by adding to these values the *difference* between those computed at one bar and specified temperature from the Haar equation (Haar et al. 1984) and the expressions derived by Robie et al. (1978). The reason for this somewhat Byzantine recipe is discussed in Ghiorso and Sack (1995, p. 210)

^b Value reported is a correction from quantities calculated at specified temperature and 1 bar from the pure CO₂ fluid model of Duan and Zhang (2006). Adopting this scheme insures that the heat capacity of the melt CO₂ component has a value and temperature dependence consistent with that adopted for the fluid phase. These values consequently identify the difference in enthalpy and entropy between the dissolved CO₂ component in the melt and that of the fluid phase at 1 bar

^c Adopted value from Ochs and Lange (1997)

^d Assumed value, see text

Assumed to be identical to $\frac{\partial \hat{V}_{\text{CO}_2}^o}{\partial T} + \frac{\partial \hat{V}_{\text{CaO}}^o}{\partial T}$, the latter adopted from Lange and Carmichael (1987)

f Assumed to be identical to $\frac{\partial \hat{V}_{\text{CO}_2}^o}{\partial P} + \frac{\partial \hat{V}_{\text{CalO}}^o}{\partial P}$, the latter adopted from Kress and Carmichael (1991)

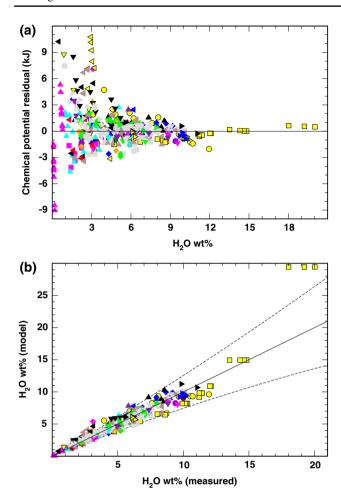


Fig. 6 Revised MELTS water model. a Residuals in the chemical potential of H_2O for natural composition water solubility experiments plotted as a function of melt water content, **b** model melt water contents plotted as a function of the measured quantity for water solubility experiments. In (**b**), the *black line* references perfect agreement, and the *dashed curves* define a data envelope corresponding to a uniform energetic error in residuals of ± 3 kJ/mol. *Symbol* legend given in Fig. 1a

for the Burnham and Jahns (1962) data set is suggestive. It raises the possibility that the misfit may be due to speciation of dissolved water into both hydroxyl and molecular species, the latter of which is likely more abundant in situ at low temperatures (Nowak and Behrens 1995). While we (and others, e.g., Papale et al. 2006; Moore and Carmichael 1998; Duan 2014) have found no suggestion of the necessity of including water speciation in solubility models for natural compositions, it is nevertheless well known that hydroxyl and molecular species of dissolved water are identified in quenched glass products of water solubility experiments, and that their abundances are systematically related to both temperature and pressure. This issue of speciation can be explored further by focusing solely on the albite melt solubility data and performing two optimized model

fits: (1) a speciation model, constructed on the assumption of ideal mixing of NaAlSi₃O₈ liquid and both hydroxyl and molecular water species, and (2) a Burnham model, constructed on the assumption of ideal mixing of hydroxyl species and NaAlSi₃O₈ liquid. For the speciation model, thermodynamic properties of water in both structural configurations are extracted from the fit, and the entropy of the hydroxyl species is taken as the square of the mole fraction (Eq. 1, and the Burnham model). Results of this modeling exercise are plotted in Fig. 9, with model parameters listed in the figure legend. Several interesting features are apparent. First, it is clear that by isolating the albite data, it is possible to construct a representative model using either the speciation or Burnham formulation, and that the data sets of Oxtoby and Hamilton (1978) and Hamilton and Oxtoby (1986) are outliers in either case. Second, the temperature dependence of hydroxyl molecular water speciation, extracted here solely from the solubility relations, is consistent with measured trends inferred from NIR spectra (e.g., Stolper 1989; Nowak and Behrens 1995). Third, the pressure dependence of speciation (even when the effect of varying temperature is subtracted) differs from that suggested by Silver and Stolper (1989) and Hui et al. (2008). The pressure effect extracted by the model is to stabilize the hydroxyl species with elevated pressure, while the trends exhibited from speciation measurements on glasses quenched from high-pressure experiments suggest negligible pressure stabilization below 1 GPa; the inference here is that the molecular species has a smaller molar volume than two hydroxyl units. The important conclusion to draw from modeling the NaAlSi₃O₈ liquid water solubility data is that either the speciation or the Burnham model can recover the solubility array. Therefore, inclusion of speciation in the thermodynamic formulation is unnecessary if the objective is to recover the solubility relations. We infer from this observation that the inability of the recalibrated MELTS water model to recover the low-temperature data of Burnham and Jahns (1962) is not a consequence of ignoring water speciation, but rather a manifestation that the MELTS anhydrous thermodynamic model is incapable of characterizing the enthalpy of pure albite liquid, probably because the excess enthalpy terms in the model, which are derived by fitting phase equilibria in multicomponent systems, cannot extrapolate accurately to NaAlSi₃O₈ bulk composition. The fact that the problem manifests at low temperature corroborates this conclusion in that entropy of mixing tends to dominate melt energetics at elevated temperature.

The quality of the data recovery of the natural composition experiments shown in Fig. 8 justifies the use of the reformulated MELTS water solubility model as a basis for the mixed fluid saturation model proposed below. The formulation and calibration of that model is developed in the next section.



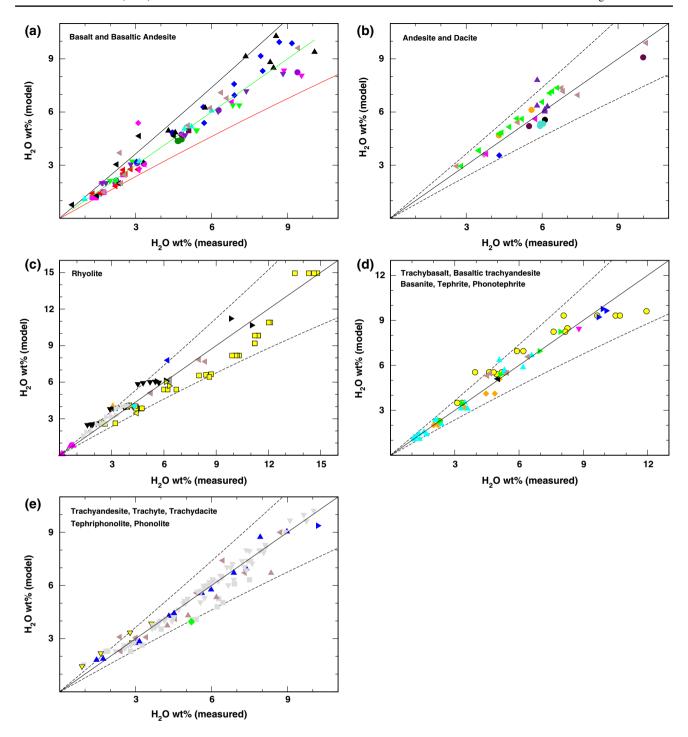


Fig. 7 Revised MELTS model melt water contents plotted as a function of the measured quantity for water solubility experiments. The *black line* references perfect agreement. *Symbol* legend given in Fig. 1a. The *dashed curves* define a data envelope corresponding to a

uniform energetic error in residuals of ± 3 kJ/mol. Data on bulk compositions: **a** basalts and basaltic andesites, **b** andesites and dacites, **c** rhyolites, **d** alkalic basaltic rocks, **e** trachytic and phonolitic rocks

Carbon dioxide solubility in silicate liquids

In addition to adopting the model of Duan and Zhang (2006) for thermodynamic properties of the fluid phase, in order to extend our recalibrated water solubility model to

include mixed fluids, a choice must be made for specifying the configurational entropy of dissolved carbon dioxide in the melt. Fine and Stolper (1985, 1986 and thereafter many others: see the excellent summary in Guillot and Sator 2011) suggest, from FTIR studies of quenched glass



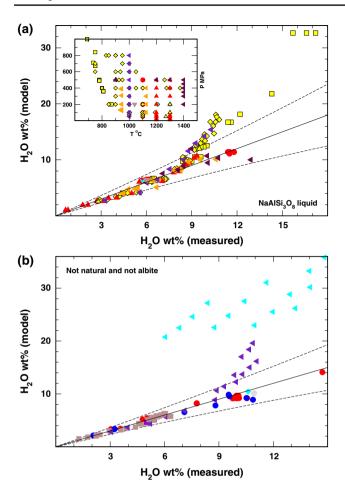
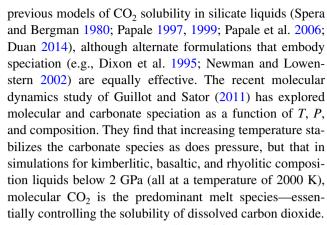


Fig. 8 Revised MELTS model melt water contents plotted as a function of the measured quantity for non-natural composition liquids. a NaAlSi $_3$ O $_8$ (albite) bulk composition melts, **b** all other non-natural composition melts. The *black line* references perfect agreement. *Symbol* legend given in Fig. 1a. The *dashed curves* define a data envelope corresponding to a uniform energetic error in residuals of ± 3 kJ/mol

experimental run products, that carbon dioxide exists in the melt as two distinct species: molecular CO2 and carbonate ions, the latter presumably associated principally with alkali metal and alkali earth cations. Theirs and subsequent studies also infer the predominance of molecular CO2 in rhyolitic and more siliceous compositions with increasing importance of carbonate at decreasing SiO2 concentration. Unlike the situation with dissolved water in silicate melts, where the mechanism of diffusion is a first-order function of speciation (Wasserburg 1988; Behrens and Nowak 1997; recent literature summary in Zhang and Ni 2010), the diffusivity of carbon dioxide does not exhibit a strong dependence on the relative abundance of molecular CO2 and carbonate species (Nowak et al. 2004). This observation suggests that it may be possible to model carbon dioxide solubility in silicate liquids with a single melt species. Indeed, that assumption has proved successful in



Despite the attractive simplicity of formulating a thermodynamic model with a single component of carbon, in order to examine the consequences of carbonate speciation on solubility relations, we construct an associated regular solution model that contains both molecular and carbonate species. Specifically, we assume that the lack of significant carbonate in rhyolitic glass implies that alkali-metal carbonate complexes are less important carbonate reservoirs than those of the alkali earths. Consequently, the model we propose that extends the hydrous liquid model of MELTS contains two carbon species, CO2 and CaCO3. Details of model formulation, including expressions for the Gibbs free energy, methods of calculating a homogeneous equilibrium distribution of melt carbon species, and expressions for the chemical potentials of melt components, are provided in the ESM Appendix. We will evaluate this model against the carbon dioxide solubility and mixed fluid saturation databases, with an eye toward establishing the necessity of including the CaCO₃ species and the possible need of adding additional carbonate species of the alkali metals and alkali earths. Carbon-related parameters of the melt model are listed in Table 2.

The model requires an expression for the standard-state chemical potential of the CO_2 component in the melt (ESM Appendix, Eq. 27), which is not the same as the endmember component in the fluid phase, whose properties we compute from Duan and Zhang (2006; ESM Appendix, Eq. 8). For the melt, $\mu^{o}_{CO_2}$ is parameterized as:

$$\mu_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{o}} = \bar{h}_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{o}} - T\bar{s}_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{o}} + \left[\bar{v}_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{o}} + \frac{\partial \bar{v}_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{o}}}{\partial T}(T - 1400) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \bar{v}_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{o}}}{\partial P}(P - 1)\right](P - 1)$$
(3)

where $\bar{h}^{\rm o}_{{\rm CO}_2}$ is the partial molar enthalpy of the pure component, $\bar{s}^{\rm o}_{{\rm CO}_2}$ is the partial molar entropy, and $\bar{v}^{\rm o}_{{\rm CO}_2}$ is the partial molar volume. In (Eq. 3), the units of temperature and pressure are assumed as K and bars. None of these three standard-state parameters have been measured, but there are a number of previous estimates for $\bar{v}^{\rm o}_{{\rm CO}_2}$.



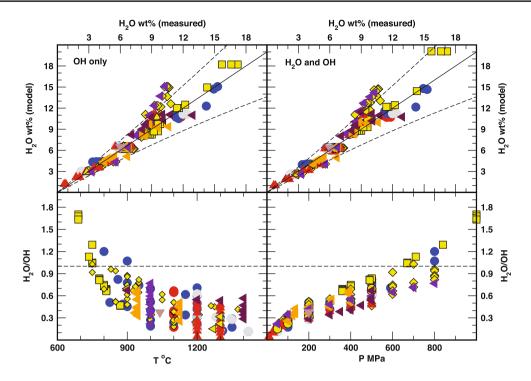


Fig. 9 Model water contents plotted versus measured quantities for experiments on $\mathrm{NaAlSi_3O_8}$ composition liquids computed from models calibrated specifically for this bulk composition: (upper left panel) ideal solution model constructed on the assumption that water dissolves as an hydroxyl melt species (upper right panel) ideal associated solution model constructed on the assumption that water dissolves as both molecular and hydroxyl melt species (lower left panel) ratio of molecular to hydroxyl species computed for the associated solution model plotted as a function of temperature (lower right panel) same ratio, plotted as a function of pressure. In the top two panels, the black line references perfect agreement, and the dashed curves define a data envelope corresponding to a uniform ener-

getic error in residuals of ± 3 kJ/mol. In the *bottom* two panels, the *dashed line* references a ratio of unity. *Symbol* legend given in Fig. 1a. Parameters for the hydroxyl-only model: $\Delta \hat{H}_{\rm f,H_2O}^{\rm o}=14.154$ kJ/mol, $\hat{S}_{\rm H_2O}^{\rm o}=6.162$ J/K-mol, $\hat{V}_{\rm H_2O}^{\rm o}=2.359$ J/bar-mol. Parameters for the hydroxyl, molecular speciation model: $\Delta \hat{H}_{\rm f,H_2O}^{\rm o}$ as $_{\rm 2OH^-}=16.482$ kJ/mol, $\hat{S}_{\rm H_2O}^{\rm o}$ as $_{\rm 2OH^-}=4.134$ J/K-mol, $\hat{V}_{\rm H_2O}^{\rm o}$ as $_{\rm 2OH^-}=3.545$ J/bar-mol, $\Delta \hat{H}_{\rm f,H_2O}^{\rm o}$ as $_{\rm 2OH^-}=4.134$ kJ/mol, $\hat{S}_{\rm H_2O}^{\rm o}$ as $_{\rm 2OH^-}=3.545$ J/bar-mol, $\hat{S}_{\rm H_2O}^{\rm o}$ as $_{\rm 2OH^-}=3.545$ J/bar-mol, $\hat{V}_{\rm H_2O}^{\rm o}$ as $_{\rm 2OH^-}=3.545$ J/bar-mol. The volumetric quantities are referenced to $_{\rm 1400}^{\rm o}$ °C

Spera and Bergman (1980) estimated $\bar{\nu}^o_{CO_2}$ by analyzing experimental data on CO₂ solubility from the literature and obtained a value of 34.9 cc/mol (at 1460 °C) to 33.5 cc/mol (at 1620 °C) for NaAlSi₃O₈ liquid, 34.1–32.7 cc/mol for NaAlSi₂O₆ liquid, 34.5–30.7 cc/mol for NaAlSiO₄ liquid, 33.9 cc/mol for molten andesite, 32.7 cc/mol for molten tholeiite, and 29.3 cc/mol for liquids of olivine melilite composition. They suggest that a common value of ~30 cc/ mol can be universally applied, that this value is independent of T and P, and that there is no marked compositional dependence to $\bar{v}_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{o}}$. In agreement with Spera and Bergman (1980), Stolper and Holloway (1988) obtain a value of 33 cc/mol for basaltic composition liquid at 1200 °C from solubility experiments at low P. Lange (1994) summarizes values of $\bar{v}_{CO_2}^0$ from studies that determine relative abundances of molecular CO2 and carbonate and suggests that the best estimates fall in the range 21-28 cc/mol, the smaller being applicable to carbonate-dominated systems. Newman and Lowenstern (2002) adopt a value of 28 cc/mol

for rhyolite liquid and 23 cc/mol for basaltic liquid in their solubility models. Liu and Lange (2003) have analyzed fusion curves of molten carbonate liquids and estimated $\bar{\nu}_{CO_2}^o$ at 1100 K as 25.8 cc/mol (molten CaCO₃), 27.7 cc/mol (molten Li₂CO₃), 28.7 cc/mol (molten Na₂CO₃), and 32.4 cc/mol (molten K₂CO₃). They suggest that the most applicable value for natural melts is close to the number for molten CaCO₃. Recently, Duncan and Agee (2011) determined, using the sink–float experimental method, a value for $\bar{\nu}_{CO_2}^o$ for molten peridotite at 2123 K in the pressure range 4.3–5.5 GPa to be 23.71 cc/mol to 22.06 cc/mol, respectively, which yields their model estimate for $\bar{\nu}_{CO_2}^o$ at 1 bar as 36.57 cc/mol. Guillot and Sator (2011) compute from first principles a value of ~25.5 cc/mol for kimberlitic liquid and ~30.5 cc/mol for MORB liquid (both at 2000 K).

Estimates of $\bar{v}^{o}_{CO_2}$ are obviously varied, and some of this variation may be due to the temperature dependence of the molar volume: $\partial \bar{v}^{o}_{CO_2}/\partial T$. The only estimate of this quantity comes from Liu and Lange (2003, 3.41 \pm 2.23 \times 10⁻³ cc/mol-K),



but their value is derived from the analysis of the fusion curve of CaCO₃.

Papale et al. (2006) used an equation of the form of (4) in their analysis of CO₂ solubility data. They find values of $\bar{v}_{\text{CO}_2}^0$, $\partial \bar{v}_{\text{CO}_2}^0 / \partial T$, and $\partial \bar{v}_{\text{CO}_2}^0 / \partial P$ of 24.92 cc/mol, 13.44×10^{-3} cc/mol-K, and $2.10^{7} \times 10^{-9}$ cc/mol-bar. Their $\partial \bar{v}_{CO_2}^0 / \partial T$ is much larger than that suggested by Liu and Lange (2003), and their value of $\partial \bar{v}_{CO_2}^0 / \partial P$ is clearly of the wrong sign as it implies a negative compressibility or bulk modulus; that implausible value of $\partial \bar{v}_{CO_2}^0 / \partial P$ may be ascribed in part to the fact that Papale et al. (2006) made the melt interaction parameters involving the CO₂ component (W_{i,CO_2}) pressure-dependent; consequently, in practical application their modeled value of $\partial \bar{v}_{CO_2}^0 / \partial P$ of CO_2 in a mixed melt could still be thermodynamically consistent, i.e., negative. Duan (2014) extracts a standard-state molar volume of 25.03 + 1973.44 \times 10⁻³ P/T-1.06 \times 10⁻³ P from their analysis of CO2 solubility and mixed fluid saturation data, from which $\partial \bar{v}_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{o}}/\partial T$ and $\partial \bar{v}_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{o}}/\partial P$ at 1400 °C and 1 bar are -7.05×10^{-7} cc/mol K and 1.19 \times 10^{-4} cc/ mol-bar, respectively. Duan's value of $\partial \bar{v}_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{o}}/\partial T$ is implausibly small, and his value for $\partial \bar{v}_{CO_2}^0 / \partial P$ has the wrong sign. It is interesting that both Papale et al. (2006) and Duan (2014) obtain by parameter regression physically implausible estimates for the compressibility of dissolved CO₂ in melts. In part, this result must be due to model parameter correlation resulting from deficiencies in the experimental calibration database, but it may also be due to simplistic assumptions regarding CO₂ melt speciation.

Given the $T\!-\!P$ distribution of available CO_2 solubility data (Fig. 2b, and mixed fluid saturation data, Fig. 2c) and recognizing that the solubility of CO_2 in silicate liquid is quite low at lower pressure regardless of composition, we have opted not to extract $\partial \bar{\nu}_{CO_2}^o/\partial T$ or $\partial \bar{\nu}_{CO_2}^o/\partial P$ by parameter regression. We set these quantities to numerical values consistent with Ochs and Lange's (1997) analysis for H_2O (Table 2), scaled by the ratio of molecular weights of CO_2 and H_2O . We also assume that

$$\frac{\partial \bar{v}_{\text{CaCO}_3}^{\text{o}}}{\partial P} = \frac{\partial \bar{v}_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{o}}}{\partial P} + \frac{\partial \bar{v}_{\text{CaO}}^{\text{o}}}{\partial P}$$
(4)

and

$$\frac{\partial \bar{v}_{\text{CaCO}_3}^{\text{o}}}{\partial T} = \frac{\partial \bar{v}_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{o}}}{\partial T} + \frac{\partial \bar{v}_{\text{CaO}}^{\text{o}}}{\partial T}$$
 (5)

with indicated quantities for the CaO melt component taken from Lange and Carmichael (1987). However, we relax the usual ideal mixing assumption that would impose the constraint $\bar{v}^{o}_{CaCO_3} = \bar{v}^{o}_{CO_2} + \bar{v}^{o}_{CaO}$, and extract both $\bar{v}^{o}_{CO_2}$ and $\bar{v}^{o}_{CaCO_3}$ during model optimization.

Model parameters (Table 2) are obtained by optimization of residuals ($\Delta\mu_{\rm CO_2}^{\rm residual}$) against natural compositions from the pure CO₂ solubility studies and from all the mixed fluid

studies (Table 1). Because speciation of carbon renders the parameter optimization process intrinsically nonlinear, the optimization is carried out in a series of SVA steps (this method is discussed in the ESM Appendix), and an initial guess of parameter values is provided to the optimization procedure that predisposes molecular CO2 to be the dominant carbon species at lower T and in highly silicic compositions. There are 23 model parameters involved in the regression. Results from the SVA of the last phase of the optimization are presented in ESM-Fig. 2 (see Electronic Supplementary Material). More than 90 % of the residual variance is accounted for by the first five uncorrelated linear combinations (ESM-Fig. 2) of model parameters, and these linear combinations are exclusively constructed from standard-state properties. The most important "excess" energy parameters involve CO₂- and CaCO₃-H₂O interactions, which enter into linear combinations 5-8. We chose a cutoff "rank" for this problem of 15, as this cutoff accounts for residual variance greater than 0.1 % and is the point at which extracted values of model parameters change little with inclusion of additional linear combinations. Parameter values and their uncertainties are reported in Table 2.

The quality of the model fit is best examined by looking at energetic residuals, predicted CO₂ melt contents, predicted mixed fluid compositions, and modeled H₂O-CO₂ saturation relations. Energetic residuals are plotted in Fig. 10. The standard error of residuals for the CO₂ parameter optimization is ~3 kJ/mol. The pronounced scattering of residuals at low total dissolved CO₂ contents (Fig. 10a) is due to the sensitivity of the logarithm to small variations in mole fraction and is to be expected. In Fig. 10b, residuals are plotted as a function of the modeled proportion of molecular CO₂ species to total dissolved carbon. Although no constraints derived from species abundances in quenched glass from experimental run products were imposed on the model parameterization, the results are qualitatively consistent with those observations. Specifically, rhyolitic and dacitic bulk compositions are dominated by molecular CO₂, and proportions of carbonate increase with decreasing silica content. In addition, there is little correlation of energetic residual to alkali content, which supports our assumption that sodium and potassium carbonate complexes are not required to model the data array. The mixed fluid residuals plotted in Fig. 10c show that the model recovers experiments across the entire range of fluid compositions without bias.

Figure 11 casts energetic model residuals into estimates of melt CO₂ contents. The figure shows that recovery of CO₂ contents is generally within 10 % of the measured quantity for natural composition liquids. In the same figure, we have also plotted predicted CO₂ contents from experimental solubility data on bulk compositions that were not used in the calibration because they fall outside the



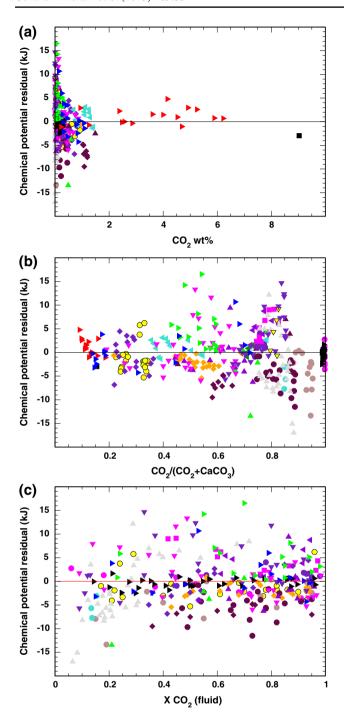


Fig. 10 CO_2 model regression: **a** energetic model residuals in the chemical potential of CO_2 for carbon dioxide solubility and mixed fluid saturation experiments plotted as a function of **a** melt CO_2 content, **b** the modeled molar ratio of molecular CO_2 to total dissolved carbon in the melt, and **c** the reported mole fraction of CO_2 in the mixed fluid saturation experiments. *Symbol* legend given in Fig. 1b, c

composition space applicable to the MELTS models. The data from Morizet et al. (2002) are from a synthetic phonolite with high alumina and soda concentrations. The data from Brooker et al. (1999) were obtained on a composition

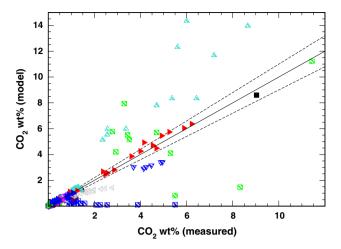


Fig. 11 Model melt carbon dioxide contents (computed by finding a CO_2 concentration that zeroes model residuals) plotted as a function of measured melt CO_2 content for CO_2 solubility experiments and mixed fluid saturation experiments. The *black line* references perfect agreement; *dashed lines* denote ± 10 %. *Symbol* legend given in Fig. 1b, c. The *hatched symbols* refer to non-natural bulk composition experiments that were not used in model parameter optimization

in the soda-alumina-silica system. The data of Mattey et al. (1990) are on liquids in the system silica-aluminalime-soda, as are most of the data of Brooker et al. (2001). The best synthetic data recovery is for the calcium-magnesium-silica liquids of Rai et al. (1983). It is clear from the figure that the model for CO₂ solubility developed in this paper does not work well for non-natural liquids that are Na₂O-bearing but have absent or near-absent concentrations of CaO. This observation suggests that a solubility model for these liquids could be extended from the present model by incorporation of a Na₂CO₃ melt species. However, in practical terms, if the reader is interested in a CO₂ solubility model that captures these synthetic liquids, they should use the model of Papale et al. (2006) or Duan (2014). Finally, it should also be noted that all of the mixed fluid experiments have natural compositions, and their CO₂ content recovery will be examined in detail below.

For the mixed fluid data set, energetic residuals may be recast into estimates of melt H_2O and CO_2 contents, or in terms of fluid H_2O , CO_2 mol fractions, or some combination of the two. Below, we construct predicted H_2O-CO_2 saturation diagrams for all of the mixed fluid experimental bulk compositions. In Fig. 12, we examine the estimates of fluid composition and compare these to experimentally reported compositions. The mole fractions of H_2O and CO_2 in the fluid are estimated independently by zeroing the residual in $\Delta\mu_{H_2O}^{\rm residual}$ and $\Delta\mu_{CO_2}^{\rm residual}$, respectively, ascribing all residual error to the composition of the fluid phase. In Fig. 12c, the sum of these estimates is plotted against reported fluid composition. The calculated sum should



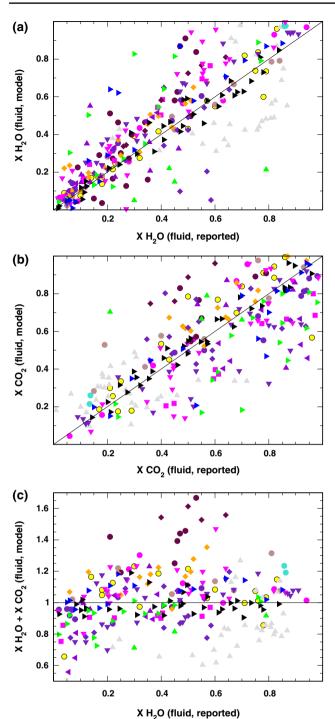


Fig. 12 Model fluid water and carbon dioxide mole fractions (computed by finding concentrations that zero model residuals) plotted as a function of fluid composition. **a** H_2O fluid mole fraction (computed from H_2O chemical potential residuals) plotted against reported fluid water content, **b** CO_2 fluid mole fraction (computed from CO_2 chemical potential residuals) plotted against reported fluid carbon dioxide content, **c** sum of independent model estimates of fluid composition plotted against reported fluid water content. The *black line* references perfect agreement. *Symbol* legend given in Fig. 1c

of course be unity, and any deviation from unity reveals model error in recovery of the reported fluid composition. In the majority of the mixed fluid experiments tabulated in Table 1, the fluid composition was estimated and not directly measured. The most commonly used approach is to determine fluid H2O and CO2 contents by mass balance using the weight-loss method (Behrens et al. 2009; Botcharnikov et al. 2005a, b, 2006, 2007; Jakobsson 1997; Lesne et al. 2011a; Shishkina et al. 2010, 2014; Tamic et al. 2001; Vetere et al. 2011, 2014). Other methods include calculation of fluid composition from the total pressure, estimates of CO₂ fugacity, and an assumed equation of state (Behrens et al. 2004a, b; Iacono-Marziano et al. 2012; Lesne et al. 2011b) and micro-Raman spectroscopy of experimentally produced fluid inclusions (Morizet et al. 2010). The most rigorous and direct method to determine experimental fluid composition (Moore 2008) is vacuum manometry of the fluid-separated run product. Only the studies of Blank et al. (1993), Dixon et al. (1995), and Iacovino et al. (2013) utilize that analytical technique. The estimated fluid compositions of Dixon et al. (1995) and Iacovino et al. (2013) are randomly scattered and within ~10 % of the unity line in Fig. 12c. Recovery of Blank et al.'s (1993) fluid data shows greater scatter at $X H_2O < 0.5$, but the total concentrations of CO₂ in their experiments are so low, that a larger recovery error is expected. Other data show systematic bias; on the whole, the error expected from indirect estimates of fluid composition (like the weight-loss method) is typically on the order of 10 %, but it is not unusual to report analytical errors at low fluid H₂O contents of 50-100 % or even higher (Moore 2008). An additional consideration that pertains to systematic bias in either energetic residuals (Fig. 10b, c) or predicted fluid composition (Fig. 12a, b) is that the data of Lesne et al. (2011a) were obtained on bulk compositions that contain additional volatile components (S, Cl), whose energetic consequences we have not considered. Similarly, the data of Botcharnikov et al. (2007) are obtained on Cl-bearing fluids. We should also note that the experimental run conditions of Botcharnikov et al. (2006) and Morizet et al. (2010) are reducing, and the fluid/melt system consequently contains reduced carbon species.

In ESM-Fig. 3 (see Electronic Supplementary Material), saturation state relations are calculated for the experimental compositions and conditions of each mixed fluid calibration data set of Table 1, and these model curves are compared to reported melt volatile concentrations. This analysis is exhaustive of all published mixed fluid saturation state studies in order to give the reader a sense of the successes and failures of the model across a broad spectrum of natural composition liquids. Reported uncertainties are plotted as $\pm 2\sigma$. Uncertainty in determination of melt $\rm H_2O$



and CO₂ contents is typically in the range 10-20 % relative Duncan, M.S., Dasgupta, R. (2014) when determined using FTIR methods. H₂O determined by 1300 °C 1.5 1.2 0.6 0.3 1.5 2.5 P (GPa) results are reported with two sigma brackets

Fig. 13 Modeled CO₂ solubility in average partial melt composition reported by Duncan and Dasgupta (2014) for a reported melt water content of ~0.45 wt%, plotted as a function of pressure. Experimental

more traditional methods of titration are often more precise if dissolved water concentration is high. Behrens et al. (2004a), for example, report relative errors on H₂O melt contents between 2 and 20 % determined using titration. An important consideration in evaluating the model-data comparison of ESM-Fig. 3 is the fact that model curves are drawn assuming the reported nominal composition of the melt is invariant. In practice, this is not the case. Iron loss to capsules is commonplace, and alkali loss is a potential problem; often, the compositions of experimental run products vary appreciably from the nominal values. In performing the model fit, actual experimental run product compositions were utilized (if such data were reported or could be obtained from the authors), but in ESM-Fig. 3, plotted experimental measurements may very well reflect volatile content determinations for experimental liquids that differ from the nominal model curves. Another complication (which is also the case for water solubility data) is that at higher pressures, there is likely appreciable dissolution of "anhydrous" melt components into the fluid phase, which would both alter the nominal bulk composition of the silicate melt and affect the thermodynamic properties of the fluid. This elemental partitioning has not been measured for the experiments reported in Table 1, nor can the effects of this partitioning be estimated. It constitutes a source of systematic modeling error that is intrinsic to all solubility and mixed fluid saturation models for silicate liquids; we expect the extent of this effect to increase with pressure and temperature.

Recovery of basaltic compositions is illustrated in ESM-Figs. 3d (Botcharnikov et al. 2005b), 3g (Dixon et al. 1995), 3m, 3o (Lesne et al. 2011a), 3n (Lesne et al. 2012b), 3r (Shishkina et al. 2010), 3s, 3u, 3v, 3y, and 3z (Shishkina et al. 2014). Model results are in good agreement with experiment except for those of Lesne et al. (2011a) at elevated pressure and two low-K₂O compositions (1690xi and SC1) of Shishkina et al. (2014). The Lesne et al.'s (2011a) experimental compositions are S- and Cl-bearing and that may have a significant effect under high-P conditions. Shishkina et al.'s (2014) results for SC1 are at odds with results on the same bulk composition presented by Botcharnikov et al. (2005b).

The modeled high-pressure saturation curve for the icelandite of Jakobsson (1997, ESM-Fig. 3j) underestimates melt CO₂ contents by about a factor of two. By contrast, the basaltic andesite of Morizet et al. (2010, ESM-Fig. 3q) is better recovered despite experiments being conducted under reducing conditions, which should displace the modeled saturation curves downward due to a lowering of the fugacity of CO₂. Jakobsson's results are somewhat enigmatic in that essentially the same CO₂ concentration is measured over the entire documented range of melt water contents. He ascribes this result to a "high-pressure limit" on the capacity of the melt to dissolve CO₂. Curiously, a similar constant CO₂ capacity is seen in the 500- and 200-MPa experiments of Botcharnikov et al. (2006) on an andesitic bulk composition (ESM-Fig. 3e, although note how the CO₂-bearing array abruptly transitions to their experimental determinations of pure water solubility). By contrast, the Cl-bearing experiments of Botcharnikov et al. (2007, ESM-Fig. 3f) on the same andesitic composition can be viewed as consistent with the model curves, if allowance is made for the presence of Cl in system, which enhances water solubility by ~0.5 wt% (compare ESM-Figs. 3e and 3f at 200 MPa). Finally, modeled saturation curves at 1 GPa for Mt Hood andesite broadly account for the experimental results of King and Holloway (2002, ESM-Fig. 3k).

Mixed fluid experiments on dacitic bulk compositions (Behrens et al. 2004a, b, ESM-Fig. 3a) show that the model may slightly underpredict saturation pressures at low total pressure. By contrast, modeled results for rhyolitic liquids (Blank et al. 1993, ESM-Fig. 3c; Tamic et al. 2001, ESM-Figs. 3za and 3zb) are well described at 1100 °C for experiments at both 200 and 500 MPa. There is some indication that CO2 solubility may be underpredicted by the model at low pressure (<200 MPa) and low water contents (<2 wt%), where total CO₂ concentrations are quite low. An important result, however, is that the very weak temperature dependence of saturation curve displacement documented by Tamic et al. (2001) is captured very well by the model. The experimental data of Duncan and Dasgupta (2014, Fig. 13) allow us to examine the extrapolation of the model to high pressure for rhyolitic compositions. These



experiments were performed on partial melts of sediments over the pressure range 1.5-3 GPa; the partial melts have compositions corresponding to high-alkali, low-silica rhyolites. Agreement between the modeled saturation curve and the experimental data is excellent (Fig. 13). Additionally, the model predicts that the dominant carbon species for these melts is molecular CO₂, consistent with FTIR analysis of quenched glass experimental run products (Duncan and Dasgupta 2014). This successful model extrapolation can be attributed to the quality of the low-temperature, lowpressure data (Blank et al. 1993; Tamic et al. 2001) upon which the standard-state volume and entropy of molecular CO₂ are principally calibrated. Model agreement with the Duncan and Dasgupta (2014) data suggests that the large estimate for the molar volume of molecular CO₂ (~4 J/bar, Table 2) is robust.

There are a large number of experimental studies on natural alkalic compositions ranging from alkali basalts to trachyandesites (Fig. 1c). Modeled saturation curves for basanites/tephrites (Shishkina et al. 2014, ESM-Figs. 3t, 3w) and trachybasalts (Shishkina et al. 2014, ESM-Fig. 3x; Lesne et al. 2011b, ESM-Fig. 3i) are well recovered, as are the shoshonitic composition of Vetere et al. (2011, ESM-Fig. 3zc; Vetere et al. 2014, ESM-Fig. 3zh), the Etna trachyandesite of Iacono-Marziano et al. (2012, ESM-Fig. 3h), and the latite of Vetere et al. (2014, ESM-Fig. 3zg). A number of experimental studies have been performed on phonotephrites. The Vesuvius lava of Lesne et al. (Lesne et al. 2011b, ESM-Fig. 3p) is modeled with fidelity over the pressure range 25-200 MPa, as is the Erebus lava of Iacovino et al. (2013, ESM-Fig. 3i) and the three strongly alkali Alban Hills phonotephrites of Vetere et al. (2014, ESM-Figs. 3zd, 3ze, 3zf). Overall, the model recovers mixed fluid saturation relations very well in alkalic magmas, and this success must be ascribed in part to the extensive alkalic liquid-mineral data set that was available to calibrate the original MELTS liquid model. Previous comprehensive models of H₂O-CO₂ saturation (e.g., Papale et al. 2006), which have not benefitted from access to calibration data on more alkalic mixed fluid systems, are less successful than the proposed model in recovering results from these studies.

In general, experimental results in mixed fluid systems obtained at the highest pressures (\geq 500 MPa) are more poorly recovered by the model than those at lower pressure, but there is also some inconsistency manifest in many studies between solubility measurements determined in CO_2 -free fluid and saturation surfaces for mixed H_2O-CO_2 fluids at high pressure extrapolated to pure water (e.g., Behrens et al. 2009). The experimental complications at high pressure make these results subject to greater uncertainty (Moore 2008), but nonetheless, it is apparent that model results and experimental mixed fluid measurements are

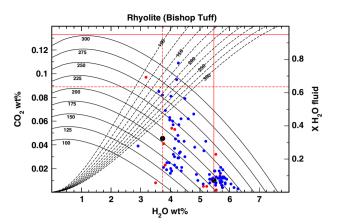


Fig. 14 Model saturation curves for a bulk composition corresponding to an average late-erupted Bishop Tuff glass inclusion composition (Table 3). *Solid curves* are isobars (labeled in MPa) describing melt CO₂ content (*left vertical axis*) as a function of H₂O content. *Dashed curves* are isobars of fluid H₂O mole fraction (*right vertical axis*). The *graph* is drawn for 750 °C. Available data on water and carbon dioxide contents from glass inclusions from both early-erupted (low CO₂, high H₂O) and late-erupted (low H₂O, high and variable CO₂) Bishop Tuff are plotted (Anderson et al. 2000, *solid red circles*; Wallace et al. 1995, 1999, *solid blue circles*). The average compositions of Anderson et al. (2000, *large solid black circles*) yield a pressure of ~180 MPa and associated fluid composition of ~0.95 for EBT and ~170 MPa with associated fluid composition of ~0.64 for LBT

generally in agreement at lower pressures (100–500 MPa) regardless of composition.

Applications

The mixed fluid saturation model is explored by examining three applications. Water solubility and mixed fluid saturation state relations for rhyolitic liquids are first examined in light of observations from natural glass inclusions. Second, the mixed fluid saturation state model is coupled with rhyolite-MELTS to explore the consequences of fluid-saturated equilibrium and fractional crystallization of MORB. Finally, we use rhyolite-MELTS to calculate crystallization paths—including H₂O and CO₂ evolution in the melt—and show how the results of modeling can be used to constrain the crystallization conditions and initial H₂O/CO₂ ratios of natural magmas.

Mixed fluid saturation in rhyolitic liquid

Figure 14 shows computed saturation curves for a highsilica rhyolite composition liquid, namely an average of late-erupted glass inclusions found in quartzes from the Bishop Tuff (see Table 3). Major-element compositions of glass inclusions in the Bishop Tuff are all very similar



Table 3 Bulk compositions used in example calculations

	MORBa	Early Bishop Tuff ^b	Late Bishop Tuff ^b
SiO ₂	47.4	77.7	77.8
TiO_2	1.01	0.08	0.09
Al_2O_3	17.64	12.5	12
Cr_2O_3	0.425		
Fe_2O_3	0.89	0.192	0.196
FeO	7.18	0.487	0.474
MgO	7.63	0.03	0.04
CaO	12.44	0.43	0.45
Na ₂ O	2.65	3.99	3.7
K_2O	0.03	4.89	5.36
P_2O_5	0.08		

^a Allen et al. (1989)

(see Gualda and Ghiorso 2013), particularly with respect to SiO₂ and Al₂O₃ values, which makes the calculated saturation curves generally applicable to all Bishop Tuff glass inclusions plotted in Fig. 14. Solid curves in Fig. 14a show computed equilibrium CO₂–H₂O isobars over the pressure range 100-300 MPa. Melt CO₂ concentrations should be read from the left-scale of the ordinate. The dashed isobars show saturated fluid composition plotted as a function of melt water content; fluid composition should be read from the right scale of the ordinate, and the isobars migrate from left to right as pressure increases, as indicated. One characteristic feature of the H₂O-CO₂ melt composition isobars is the maxima in melt CO₂ content found at low concentrations of dissolved water in the melt (and low $X_{\text{H}_2O}^{\text{fluid}}$). A similar feature can be seen in all the model curves of all the compositions plotted in ESM-Fig. 3 and is universal for all compositions we have examined. The maxima at nonzero H₂O values was in fact first observed by Eggler (1973) who explained it in terms of breakdown of polymerized melt structures (and hence enhancement of CO₂ solubility) due to dissolution of dissolved water to hydroxyl species. Holloway (1976) quantifies Eggler's explanation and suggests that the maximum should shift to higher $X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{fluid}}$ with pressure. This shift is borne out by a number of experimental studies (e.g., Mysen 1976). In our model, the physical reason for the maxima is entropic and follows from Eggler's (1973) analysis. The enhanced solubility of CO₂ accompanying small additions of H₂O arises because the activity of CO₂ in the melt is proportional to $X_{\text{CO}_2}(1-X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}})$ (see ESM Appendix; a Gibbs-Duhem consequence of $a_{\rm H_2O} \propto X_{\rm H_2O}^2$; consequently, at fixed activity (fugacity) of CO_2 , X_{CO_2} must rise with the addition of water to the melt. At higher concentrations of dissolved water, however, strong preferential partitioning of CO₂ to the fluid phase

(Fig. 12) extracts CO₂ from the melt, and its concentration falls. Although our model contains a non-ideal positive mixing energy between dissolved H₂O and both CO₂ and CaCO3 melt species, the effect of that term is second order, and the maximum in the saturation curves would exist even if the energetics of mixing along the H₂O–CO₂ component melt binary were ideal. The maximum in the saturation curves for mixed H₂O–CO₂ fluid systems is a consequence of predominant hydroxyl speciation of dissolved water at low melt water contents.

Average H₂O and CO₂ contents of glass inclusions from quartz phenocrysts in early and late eruptives of the Bishop Tuff are plotted in Fig. 14 (data from Wallace et al. 1999; Anderson et al. 2000). Model calculations reveal an average pressure of 190 MPa for entrapment of early-erupted inclusions and 180 MPa for late-erupted inclusions, and a total range of pressures that is similar for both early- and lateerupted rocks. Both these results are consistent with pressures derived using phase equilibria (Gualda and Ghiorso 2013, 2014), which suggests not only that these pressure estimates are robust, but also that both early-erupted and late-erupted magmas were fluid-saturated. Model fluid compositions are also consistent with previous studies, with early-erupted inclusions saturated with an essentially pure H₂O vapor phase (5 mol% CO₂) and the late-erupted inclusions saturated with a fluid containing about 36 mol% CO₂. While the model curves are plotted assuming a temperature of 750 °C, the effect of temperature in displacing the isobars is minimal for rhyolite bulk composition (Tamic et al. 2001, see also ESM-Figs. 3za and 3zb); the saturation relations displayed in the figure should be valid over a temperature range of 650–850 °C.

Fluid-saturated evolution of basaltic magma

One major goal in developing the model presented here resides in the desire to couple this fluid saturation model with the computational thermodynamics package rhyolite-MELTS in order to explore the consequences of fluid-saturated equilibrium and fractional crystallization of a magmatic system. Holloway (1976) has discussed in some detail the issues that arise in mixed fluid saturation and its effect on phase equilibria in granitic systems. Here, the problem of fluid saturation in systems evolving from initial MORB-liquid compositions will be assessed. This system is chosen for illustration because MORB phase relations are well understood, and the CO₂-absent, H₂O-bearing case has been modeled previously using MELTS (Ghiorso 1997).

An initial magma bulk composition is chosen (MORB, Table 3, column 1) with a dissolved volatile content of 0.8 wt% and weight ratio 3:1 (CO₂/H₂O). At 100 MPa, this composition is volatile-oversaturated at the liquidus.



b Average compositions of melt inclusions compiled by Gualda et al. (2012a)

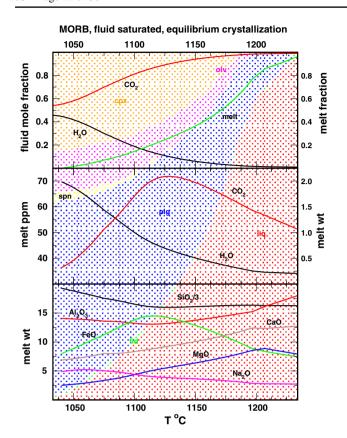


Fig. 15 Equilibrium crystallization of fluid-saturated MORB liquid (Table 3, column 1). Calculations performed using rhyolite-MELTS (Gualda et al. 2012a) and the fluid saturation model developed in this paper. In order to maintain internal consistency between the fluid saturation model and rhyolite-MELTS, the CO2 model extension developed in this paper was added to the existing water solubility model of rhyolite-MELTS. This addition insures that rhyolite-MELTS recovers correctly the effect of water on the invariant point for silicic systems, but also allows for partitioning of CO₂ between melt and fluid phase to be consistently modeled. By not using the revised water solubility model, calculations coupled to rhyolite-MELTS do not take full advantage of the improved recovery of water solubility provided by that model, but for low-alkali natural liquids, these improvements are minor and generally within experimental uncertainty. The background in the figure shows relative mass proportions of phases with fields labeled as: liq = liquid, fld = fluid, plg = plagioclase, spn = Fe-Ti oxide, olv = olivine, cpx = clinopyroxene. Top panel evolution of fluid composition (red and black curves, left axis) and liquid fraction (green curve, right axis). Middle panel: evolution of melt volatile content; H2O in wt% (black curve, right axis), CO2 in ppm (red curve, left axis). Lower panel: evolution of melt composition; note scaling of silica concentration

Three simulations were performed: (1) isobaric equilibrium crystallization to the solidus, (2) isobaric fractional crystallization of solid phases with the possibility of back reaction with the fluid phase, and (3) isobaric fractional crystallization of both solid and fluid phases. The second model is explored to consider the scenario of chemical isolation of the interiors of growing phenocrysts without the necessity of physical separation of phases from liquid. The third

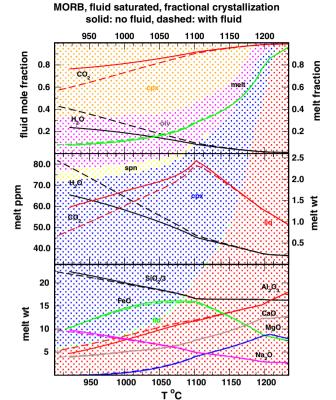


Fig. 16 Fractional crystallization of fluid-saturated MORB liquid (Table 3, column 1). Calculations performed using rhyolite-MELTS as described in the caption for Fig. 15, which should also be consulted for the explanation of *symbols*. Solid curves denote calculations where solid phases are chemically isolated from the evolving magma but fluid is kept in chemical communication. Dashed curves reflect calculations where both solid and fluid phases are prevented from backreacting with the liquid as crystallization proceeds

model considers the same scenario with transport of bubbles of fluid out of the system at a rate exceeding that of crystal growth.

Results of the simulations are reported in Figs. 15 and 16. Comparing all three simulations to model calculations presented in Ghiorso (1997) shows that the presence of CO₂ in the system does not substantially affect the phase relations other than inducing volatile saturation early in the evolution. In all three cases, the initial fluid that forms has a composition that is essentially pure CO₂. The fluid evolves to become more H₂O-rich as the system crystalizes, but even near the solidus, the fluid contains >50 mol% CO₂. By contrast, the concentrations of H₂O and CO₂ dissolved in the melt show a more complex temperature dependence. In the initial stages of crystallization, the abundance of both volatile components increases, CO2 more so than H2O. At the onset of the crystallization of spinel, which drives silica content of the melt to higher values, the increasing trend of CO₂ enrichment reverses, and ultimately, melt



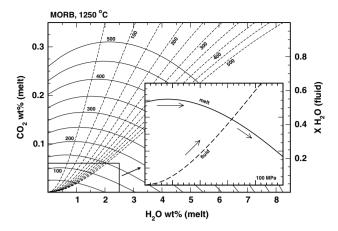


Fig. 17 Model saturation surfaces for a bulk composition MORB liquid (see Table 3, column 1). *Solid curves* are isobars (labeled in MPa) of melt CO_2 content (*left vertical axis*) versus melt H_2O content. *Dashed curves* are isobars of fluid H_2O mole fraction (*right vertical axis*). The *graph* is drawn for 1250 °C. The 100 MPa saturation relations are detailed in the blowup *inset*, with *arrows* indicating the direction of evolution of a magma degassing and initially saturated with a fluid very enriched in CO_2

CO₂ concentrations are driven to lower values as the system evolves. The initial trend of CO₂ enrichment may seem contradictory to the expected evolution along mixed fluid saturation curves, which for this MORB are plotted in Fig. 17. As the fluid coexisting with melt becomes more water-rich, we expect the melt to also become enriched in H₂O, but we also expect CO₂ concentration to decrease. This is because as CO₂ and H₂O are partitioned into the fluid phase, the fluid composition broadly follows the 100-MPa fluid isobar (dashed curve, Fig. 17, see inset) toward higher $X_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{fluid}}$; at the same time, the melt becomes enriched in H₂O, in part due to the partitioning of CO₂ out of the melt into the fluid phase, and in part because the mass of solid phases crystallizing exceeds the mass of exsolved fluid. As the magma evolves by crystallization, the melt loses CO₂ and its volatile content should follow the melt isobar (solid curves, Fig. 17). Necessarily, the fluid that coexists with the melt under these conditions must become more H₂O-rich. In detail, however, there are nuances to this evolution trend. At the initial stages of crystallization, the concentration of dissolved CO₂ increases because of the maximum in the saturation curve, but this effect is minor at low pressure. The driving force for the increase in the concentration of dissolved CO₂ in the MORB crystallization case is the melt bulk composition change that involves a rise in the concentration of both FeO and Na₂O, the effect of which increases the capacity of the melt to retain CO₂. Once spinel appears on the liquidus, however, silica increases and the FeO content decreases, and together these changes in bulk composition lower the capacity of the melt to hold carbon dioxide.

In the case of solid + fluid phase fractionation (Fig. 16, dashed curves), H₂O concentration in the exsolved fluid rises more dramatically in the later stages of crystallization than the solid-only case; bear in mind that what is plotted in Fig. 16 is the instantaneous fluid composition and not the cumulative composition of fluid fractionate. The cause for this increase is due to the dramatic change in melt volatile composition as CO₂-rich bubbles are discarded from the magma and is in contrast to the more muted increase observed for the equilibrium crystallization or the solidphase-only fractionation case. The H₂O concentration in the melt phase rises appreciably in the fluid fractionation case because CO2 is being preferentially withdrawn from the system. Remarkably, the highest CO2 melt concentrations are generated for the fractionation case where fluid is maintained in chemical equilibrium with the melt. The evolution of melt H₂O and CO₂ concentrations clearly distinguishes the three endmember modes of crystallization simulated in Figs. 15 and 16, and it is intriguing to speculate that these distinct volatile trends may be captured in trapped glass inclusions and therefore used to constrain some details of the history of crystallizing magmas.

Geobarometry using the simultaneous equilibrium between melt, quartz, feldspars, and a fluid phase

Much attention has been given to the estimation of pressures using H₂O-CO₂ fluid saturation in rhyolitic melts. Results presented in Fig. 14 suggest entrapment pressures close to 180 MPa for the average late-erupted glass inclusion composition from the Bishop Tuff. We have recently proposed a method whereby the simultaneous equilibrium of melt, quartz, feldspars, and fluid can be used to estimate the crystallization pressure of rocks for which melt composition can be estimated—we refer to this method as the rhyolite-MELTS geobarometer (Gualda and Ghiorso 2013, 2014). The mixed H₂O-CO₂ model presented here allows us to explicitly evaluate the effect of CO2 on the application of the rhyolite-MELTS geobarometer (the effect can be implicitly tested by varying H₂O content, as performed in Gualda and Ghiorso 2013, 2014). We use here the same average late-erupted glass composition employed by Gualda et al. (2012a; calculated from data of Anderson et al. 2000; see also Gualda and Ghiorso 2013; also Table 3). We vary H₂O above and below the average glass inclusion value of 3.74 wt% H₂O, from 2.74 to 4.74 in 0.5 increments. We use initial values of 0, 10, 20, 50, 100, 200, 500, and 1000 ppm CO₂. We thus apply the rhyolite-MELTS geobarometer to a total of 40 compositions (5 H_2O values \times 8 CO_2 values). It is clear from the results (Fig. 18) that the derived pressures are entirely insensitive to the choice of initial CO₂ concentration. This conclusion emerges from the fact that the position of the



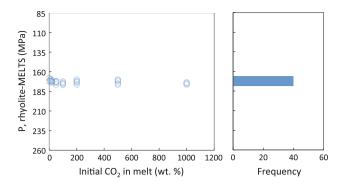


Fig. 18 Pressures estimated using the rhyolite-MELTS geobarometer (Gualda and Ghiorso 2014) for average late-erupted bulk pumice composition of Hildreth (1979). Five different initial $\rm H_2O$ contents (4.47, 4.97, 5.47, 5.97, 6.47 wt% $\rm H_2O$) and eight different $\rm CO_2$ contents (0, 10, 20, 50, 100, 200, 500, 1000 ppm $\rm CO_2$) are used, resulting in a total of 40 pressure estimates. The calculations establish the insensitivity of pressure estimates for quartz–feldspar-bearing magmas to water and $\rm CO_2$ content of the magma

quartz-feldspar cotectic surface is fundamentally dependent on the total pressure, with only a weak dependency on water pressure for values below ~ 3 wt% H_2O (Gualda and Ghiorso 2013, 2014). In this context, CO_2 —a trace element in the melt phase—plays no direct role in the stability of quartz or feldspar; instead, CO_2 buffers the activity—and thus the concentration—of H_2O in the melt. With this perspective, the results presented here are largely unsurprising and reinforce the conclusion of Gualda and Ghiorso (2013) that late-erupted glass inclusions were entrapped under fluid-saturated conditions at pressures of ~ 175 MPa.

Crystallization paths of a high-silica rhyolite under variable H₂O and CO₂

The evolution of H₂O and CO₂ in rhyolitic magmas has received significant attention given the wealth of information that can be derived from H₂O-CO₂ data on glass inclusions (e.g., Wallace et al. 1999, among many others). Typically, glass inclusion data are interpreted considering H₂O-CO₂ saturation curves (e.g., Blundy et al. 2010 and references therein, among many others), but it is difficult to appropriately consider the evolution in the crystallizing assemblage that accompanies the evolution in H₂O-CO₂ in the melt phase. We use rhyolite-MELTS coupled with the mixed fluid model developed here to illustrate this relationship for a high-silica rhyolite pumice composition representative of the late-erupted Bishop Tuff (from Hildreth 1979). Simulations for this composition for the water-saturated case were presented elsewhere (Gualda et al. 2012a, b). The analysis is not exhaustive and intended only to demonstrate the capabilities of the coupling of rhyolite-MELTS with a mixed fluid model, as well as the challenges in establishing appropriate initial conditions and styles of crystallization (equilibrium versus fractional crystallization, for instance).

One of the challenges in such modeling is that, while glass inclusions provide snapshots of melt compositions attained during crystallization (and inferred fluid compositions obtained using saturation models like the one presented here), we lack detailed knowledge of the initial H₂O and CO₂ contents of magmas. Our approach here is to use a wide range of H₂O and CO₂ initial values to investigate the simultaneous effect of crystallization and H₂O-CO₂ evolution in the melt and fluid. We use a reference H₂O value in the melt of 3.74 wt% (same as above), and we again vary initial melt H₂O relative to this value from 2.74 to 4.74 wt% in 0.5 increments. We use initial CO₂ values of 0–1000 ppm CO₂, resulting in 40 simulations, which leads to a number of different fluid-saturated and fluid-undersaturated evolution paths. We use a crystallization pressure of 175 MPa, consistent with the glass inclusion data (see above, also Gualda et al. 2012a; Gualda and Ghiorso 2013). For simplicity, we did not consider fluid fractionation, but we emphasize that it would be possible to do so using rhyolite-MELTS.

One important caveat in the application of the mixed fluid model coupled with rhyolite-MELTS is that a compromise is necessary to render the H₂O-CO₂ model developed here consistent with the quartz-two-feldspar cotectic calibration in rhyolite-MELTS. This cotectic was calibrated by Gualda et al. (2012a) to be internally consistent with the *original* MELTS water solubility model. The new water solubility model proposed here disrupts that calibration. As mentioned above, the best solution to this dilemma would involve recalibration of the cotectic against mixed fluid-phase equilibrium data. Unfortunately, at this juncture, the data available to perform this task are insufficient, and the project to acquire them and recalibrate the phase equilibrium model would exceed the scope of this paper. The compromise we choose is to keep the water solubility model in rhyolite-MELTS unmodified, and to couple it to the CO2 and mixed fluid saturation model presented here. Or, in other words, to replace the new endmember water solubility model with the older MELTS model, but adopt the CO₂ model and mixed fluid model developed above. The negative consequence of this compromise is that H₂O concentrations in the melt phase are slightly underestimated for cotectic bulk compositions. The positive consequence is that solid-liquid phase relations at the cotectic are correctly recovered, and the effect of the addition of CO₂ to the melt and fluid phase is properly extended. With this compromise, we can still explore the coevolution of melt H₂O and CO₂



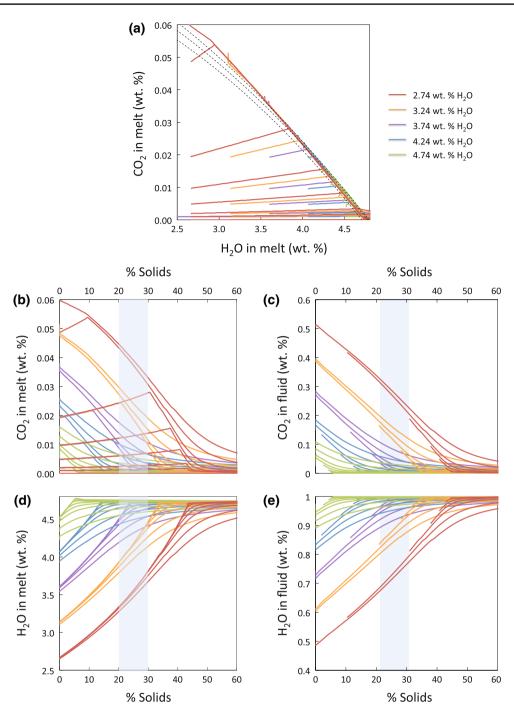


Fig. 19 Crystallization paths for average late-erupted bulk pumice composition of Hildreth (1979; see Table 3). Five different initial H₂O contents (4.47, 4.97, 5.47, 5.97, 6.47 wt% H₂O) and eight different CO₂ contents (0, 10, 20, 50, 100, 200, 500, 1000 ppm CO₂) are used, resulting in a total of 40 simulations. All simulations were conducted at 175 MPa, with oxygen fugacity buffered at the Ni-NiO

buffer. Top panel (a) shows the evolution of melt H2O and CO2 contents in the magma along the 40 crystallization paths. Left and right panels show the evolution paths in terms of H₂O(melt)— % solid, H₂O(fluid)— % solid. Colors correspond to initial bulk water content, as indicated. The shaded area represents the extent of crystallization recorded in late-erupted Bishop Tuff pumice

concentrations and the abundance and composition of all phases present including fluid concentrations and fluid saturation pressures. Importantly, this compromise need only be made for recovery of phase relations in quartztwo-feldspar cotectic compositions. In other bulk compositions, MELTS crystallization simulations may be



performed utilizing the fully internally consistent mixed fluid model proposed in this paper.⁴

The results of the simulations using the average lateerupted Bishop Tuff pumice composition are shown in Fig. 19. The evolution of H_2O-CO_2 in the melt is shown in the top panel (Fig. 19a) and as a function of the abundance of coexisting solids in the left panels (Fig. 19b, d), while the relationship between the evolution of fluid CO₂ and H₂O as a function of the abundance of coexisting solids is shown in the right panels (Fig. 19c, e). Evolution curves are color-coded according to their initial H2O concentration. The typical crystallinity of late-erupted Bishop Tuff pumice (~20-30 wt%) is indicated by the shaded regions (Fig. 19b-e). In all cases, H₂O concentration in the melt increases steadily up to a value of ~4.7 wt% H₂O, which corresponds to the CO₂-free solubility of H₂O calculated by the rhyolite-MELTS water model. For fluid-saturated conditions, CO2 in the melt decreases steadily; for fluidundersaturated conditions, CO₂ concentrations rise slightly until fluid saturation takes place, from which point the evolution is the same as the fluid-saturated case. The evolution of the fluid-phase composition parallels that of the melt: paths are largely dictated by the initial H₂O concentration, with CO₂ controlling the point at which fluid saturation takes place. For the initial conditions considered here, the maximum CO₂ concentration in the melt is ~600 ppm, and concentrations of ~500 ppm, as observed in late-erupted Bishop Tuff inclusions (Wallace et al. 1999; Anderson et al. 2000), can only be attained with relatively high initial CO₂ (>500 ppm) and low initial H_2O (<3.24 wt%). The observation that crystallinity (i.e., % solids) in pumice is between 20 and 30 wt% further limits the range of possible starting H₂O concentrations to the lowest values considered here (2.74 wt%).

Summary

A thermodynamic model is developed for H_2O-CO_2 mixed fluid saturation in natural silicate liquids. The model replaces the water saturation calibration and extends the anhydrous liquid thermodynamic model of MELTS (Ghiorso and Sack 1995) and rhyolite-MELTS (Gualda et al. 2012a). The model is intended to be used at lower pressures (<1 GPa) and on relatively oxidized systems, such that all carbon in the system is assumed to be C^{4+} . The model assumes an entropic contribution to the melt that is

⁴ An updated version of rhyolite-MELTS may be downloaded from melts.ofm-research.org that implements both the compromised mixed fluid model, which is suitable for quartz-two-feldspar cotectic compositions, and the full mixed fluid model, which is applicable to other natural magma compositions.



consistent with water dissolution as hydroxyl units and with carbon dioxide dissolving as both molecular and carbonate species. Excess enthalpy terms are calibrated from experimental measurements and in part compensate for any assumptions regarding melt speciation. The model is internally consistent with thermodynamic properties of the fluid phase reported in Duan and Zhang (2006). As the model is built upon MELTS, calculations utilizing that code can now be made to examine H₂O and CO₂ partitioning between the melt and vapor phase accompanying crystallization along a specified temperature and pressure evolution path.

Availability

The saturation model described in this paper is available as a Macintosh and iPad application from the Apple App store, and as a Web-based calculator at ctserver.ofm-research.org. An enhanced version of rhyolite-MELTS that contains the mixed fluid model developed in this paper is available from the Web site at melts.ofm-research.org.

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