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The Capacity of Hydrous Fluids to Transport and Fractionate Incompatible Elements and Metals within the Earth's Mantle

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

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Key Points:

- Aqueous fluids mantle fluids were simulated experimentally
- Aqueous fluids play a distinct role in chemical differentiation of the Earth

Supporting Information:

- Figures S1–S12
- Tables S1–S2
- Read Me

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The capacity of hydrous fluids to transport and fractionate incompatible elements and metals within the Earth's mantle

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Abstract Both silicate melts and aqueous fluids are thought to play critical roles in the chemical differentiation of the Earth's crust and mantle. Yet their relative effects are poorly constrained. We have addressed this issue by measuring partition coefficients for 50 trace and minor elements in experimentally produced aqueous fluids, coexisting basanite melts, and peridotite minerals. The experiments were conducted at 1.0–4.0 GPa and 950–1200°C in single capsules containing (either 40 or 50 wt %) H₂O and trace element-enriched basanite glass. This allowed run products to be easily identified and analyzed by a combination of electron microprobe and LAM-ICP-MS. Fluid and melt compositions were reconstructed from mass balances and published solubility data for H₂O in silicate melts. Relative to the basanite melt, the solutes from H₂O-fluids are enriched in SiO₂, alkalis, Ba, and Pb, but depleted in FeO, MgO, CaO, and REE. With increasing pressure, the mutual solubility of fluids and melts increases rapidly with complete miscibility between H₂O and basanitic melts occurring between 3.0 and 4.0 GPa at 1100°C. Although LREE are favored over HREE in the fluid phase, they are less soluble than the HFSE (Nb, Ta, Zr, Hf, and Ti). Thus, the relative depletions of HFSE that are characteristic of arc magmas must be due to a residual phase that concentrates HFSE (e.g., rutile). Otherwise, H₂O-fluids have the capacity to impart many of the geochemical characteristics that distinguish some rocks and melts from the deep mantle lithosphere (e.g., MARID and lamproites).

1. Introduction

Information about the compositions of hydrous fluids in equilibrium with mantle rocks is important for the solution of a number of significant petrogenetic problems. These include: the origins of arc volcanism [Green, 1973; Saunders and Tarney, 1979; Tatsumi et al., 1986; Turner et al., 1997; Brenan et al., 1998; Johnson and Plank, 1999]; incompatible element enrichments in lithospheric mantle xenoliths [Nielson and Noller, 1987; O'Reilly and Griffin, 1988; Loyd and Bailey, 1975; Bailey, 1982; Bodinier et al., 1996; Melzer et al., 1998]; and the mechanisms by which economically important metals are transferred from the mantle to the continental crust [Ballhaus et al., 1994; Fiorentini and Beresford, 2008]. However, for a number of reasons, this has been a technically difficult issue to address experimentally. Partially, this is because of the practical impossibility of preserving aqueous fluids produced under simulated mantle conditions once they have been quenched to room temperature and pressure. After quenching, most of the dissolved solids originally contained in the fluids are precipitated. The precipitated solids are both heterogeneous and physically fragile making their collection and analysis a challenging aspect of experimental design, as is the estimation of total solute concentrations in the original fluids. Various stratagems have been attempted for both of these problems.

One strategy is the use of double capsules whereby a permeable inner capsule (containing the solid starting material) is placed inside a larger H₂O-filled outer capsule [e.g., Ayers and Egger, 1995; Ayers et al., 1997; Green and Adam, 2003]. This allows solutes from the fluid phase to be trapped between the walls of the inner and outer capsules; from there, they can then be conveniently collected, chemically analyzed, and weighed. By comparing the weight of the recovered solute with the mass of H₂O released from capsules on drying, a minimum estimate of solute concentrations in the original fluids can be obtained [see Ayers and Egger, 1995]. A more direct approach has been to equilibrate crystals and/or melts with H₂O in single capsules and then (after experiments are finished) to either physically [e.g., Brenan et al., 1995a, 1995b; Adam et al., 1997] or chemically [e.g., Ayers and Watson, 1993; Keppler, 1996] separate solutes from other phases. Fluid inclusions in crystals have also been used to trap bulk fluid samples [e.g., Ballhaus et al., 1994; Adam

et al., 1997]. A more recent method has been to trap fluids within the interstices of diamond aggregates and then to analyze these by laser ablation microprobe and inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (LAM-ICP-MS) [e.g., *Stalder et al.*, 1998; *Kessel et al.*, 2004, 2005a, 2005b].

All of the described strategies have their various advantages and disadvantages. Generally, they have also made the most of the analytical technologies available at the time of their use. Thus, only the more recent studies have benefited from the resolution, sensitivity, and multielement capabilities of the laser microprobe and ICP-MS [e.g., *Stalder et al.*, 1998; *Green and Adam*, 2003; *Kessel et al.*, 2005b]. Experiments that make use of traps to isolate the fluid phase have the advantage that the fluid phase (or its precipitated solute) can be more conveniently collected and analyzed in bulk. But they also lessen the degree of contact between the fluid phase and coexisting crystals and/or melts. Thus, it is more difficult to ensure equilibrium between trapped fluids and other phases. Experiments that allow direct contact between fluids and solids have the alternative problem that it is difficult to separate precipitated solutes from other run products at the end of experiments. This can be overcome by using large fluid to solid ratios during experiments that facilitate physical separation after experiments [e.g., *Brenan et al.*, 1995a, 1995b]. But this also ensures that the crystal phases originally present during experiments have a limited capacity to buffer fluid compositions (these must be either left to chance or predetermined). Thus, the fluids produced during experiments may be significantly different from their natural analogues which are buffered by polymineralic crystal assemblages and large solid to fluid ratios. Another approach that mitigates this problem is to use smaller fluid ratios and to equilibrate fluids with natural silicate melts (whose compositions have previously been determined by equilibrium with complex natural mineral assemblages). Provided that mineral/melt partition coefficients are available for the same melts, fluid/mineral partition coefficients can also be determined. This strategy was used by *Kepler* [1996] to determine fluid/mineral partition coefficients for clinopyroxene. A further advantage of this approach is that it is relatively easy to equilibrate two fluid phases (aqueous fluid and hydrous silicate melt). Hydrous silicate melts are also a more efficient flux of equilibrium crystal growth than are low-density aqueous fluids.

In this present study, we have used the strategy of *Kepler* [1996] to take advantage of a large and self-consistent mineral/melt partition coefficient set for peridotite minerals and hydrous nepheline basanite melts. These partition coefficients were obtained during an earlier experimental study by *Adam and Green* [2006]. The basanite used by *Adam and Green* [2006] was also the subject of a liquidus phase equilibrium study by *Adam* [1990] who determined conditions of multiple saturation with garnet lherzolite at ~ 2.7 GPa and 1200°C with 4.5 wt % of dissolved H_2O and 2.0 wt % of dissolved CO_2 . Although doped with trace elements for experiments, the basanite is natural and has a primitive composition consistent with a direct mantle origin [*Adam and Green*, 2011]. Geochemical evidence also suggests formation by a relatively small degree of peridotite melting [*Adam and Green*, 2011]. Thus, the partitioning data obtained in this study is specifically relevant to aqueous fluids in equilibrium with fertile peridotite under near-solidus mantle conditions. They complement earlier experimental studies by *Schneider and Eggler* [1986] and *Ayers et al.* [1997], but provide data for a more comprehensive range of trace and minor elements (50). The new data also allow for a more direct comparison of the effects of migrating aqueous fluids versus hydrous silicate melts on trace element mobility within the Earth's mantle. In addition, by conducting experiments across a broad range of conditions (1.0–4.0 GPa and 950 – 1200°C), we are able to describe more fully the effects of changing pressure and temperature on the transport capacities of aqueous fluids in the peridotitic mantle.

2. Experimental and Analytical Methods

2.1. Experimental Rationale

The central principle of our experimental approach is that if a silicate melt is in equilibrium with peridotite, any other phase in equilibrium with that melt (including a hydrous fluid) will also be in equilibrium with peridotite. Thus,

$$D_Z^{\text{fluid/peridotite}} = D_Z^{\text{fluid/melt}} / D_Z^{\text{peridotite/melt}} \quad (1)$$

(where D is the Nernst partition coefficient and Z is the element of interest).

Although none of the H_2O -saturated experiments on UT-70489 exactly reproduce the original conditions of lherzolite equilibrium (as determined by *Adam* [1990]), and some depart from it fairly widely, the effect of

this on our results is unlikely to be profound. This is because H₂O-rich melts of broadly “basaltic” character (and thus akin to the basanite) can exist in equilibrium with peridotite over a broad range of conditions, including those produced in most of our experiments [see *Green, 1976; Hirose and Kawamoto, 1995*]. Consistent with this, all but one of our experiments crystallized olivine (an essential peridotite phase). One (sub-solidus) experiment also crystallized a complete amphibole-mica-lherzolite assemblage.

2.2. Starting Materials

Experiments were performed on mixtures of a trace element-enriched basanite glass and water. The proportions used were either 3:2 or 1:1. The basanite glass was prepared from a natural basanite (UT-70489) after it had been doped with an assortment of synthetic trace elements (Table S1). In all cases, the total mass of starting materials was 20 mg with the proportions of H₂O and glass adjusted to equal this amount. To ensure this, a careful check of weights was kept at all stages of capsule preparation and also after experiments.

2.3. Experimental Apparatus and Methods

All experiments were performed in end-loaded piston-cylinder apparatus of the type described by *Boyd and England [1960]*. Furnace assemblies were of 1.27 mm diameter with talc outer sleeves, Pyrex® inner sleeves, graphite heaters, and air-fired boron-nitride inserts. Thermocouples were of S type (Pt-Pt₉₀Rh₁₀) and no attempt was made to correct for the effect of pressure on emf. Experiments were run using a cold piston-in technique with a minus 10% correction for the effects of friction on measured pressures [see *Green et al., 1966*]. The capsules used in experiments were made from a variety of precious metals and their alloys. These included: Au, Ag₇₀Pd₃₀, and Au₈₀Pd₂₀. Distilled H₂O was added to capsules using a graduated micro-syringe. Although no attempt was made to reverse experiments, previous experience [*Adam et al., 1997*] shows that the run durations employed (generally 48 h) were sufficient for equilibrium between coexisting fluids and melts to be obtained.

2.4. Sample Preparation and Analysis

After experiments, each capsule was cleaned and weighed before a small opening was made to check for water retention and H₂O-saturation during experiments (if successfully retained, water could be seen to well from the newly made opening). Although this potentially allows for the preferential loss of some solutes in the escaped fluid (see discussion in *Kessel et al. [2004]*), we have found from previous experience [*Adam et al., 1997*] that any solutes lost in this way are similar in composition to the bulk solute remaining inside capsules. After drying at 110°C, capsules were vacuum impregnated with epoxy before being longitudinally sectioned with a diamond saw. This was done to avoid the potential loss of water-soluble components. The two capsule halves were then reimpregnated with epoxy while being mounted for polishing and analysis. Polishing was done using a nonaqueous lubricant.

Major and minor element concentrations in run products were analyzed using two different electron microprobes. These included a Cameca® SX100 and a Zeiss EVO MA15 scanning electron microscope fitted with an X-Max 20 m² detector. Although less sensitive than the SX100, the EDS system used in the EVO MA15 was able to analyze broader areas and had less tendency to cause Na₂O and K₂O loss during analyses. Thus, it was more suitable for analyzing the heterogeneous (and delicate) materials produced in our experiments. Operating conditions for the SX100 are described in *Adam and Green [2006]*. For the EVO MA15, the beam was operated at 15 kV and 3 nA, with an acquisition time of 60 s. Data collection and processing was conducted using Oxford Aztec® software. The concentrations of trace and minor elements, together with some major elements, were analyzed with a laser ablation microprobe coupled to an Agilent 7700 series ICP-MS. The spot size varied from 15 μm for crystals to 40 μm diameter for solidified melts and precipitated solutes. During analyses of solutes and melts, the beam was traversed along a 240 μm long track to increase the surface area averaged during each analysis. Other procedures were similar to those used by *Norman et al. [1996]* but employed a mixture of He and Ar to maximize ablation and detection limits. The internal standards used were Ca, Mg, and Al (dependent on the material being analyzed). Data reductions were performed using the GLITTER software program [*van Achterbergh et al., 2001*].

2.5. Accuracy, Precision, and Detection Limits

During each analytical session with the ICP-MS, the international standard BCR-2 was run at regular intervals as a check for accuracy and analytical drift. An average of eight analyses is shown in Table S1 of supporting

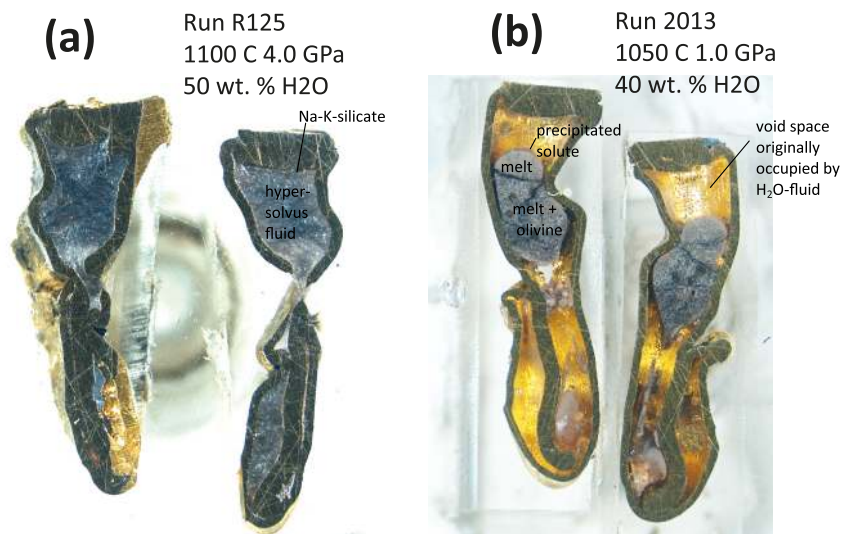


Figure 1. Longitudinal sections of two experimental capsules produced at (a) 4.0 GPa and (b) 1.0 GPa after impregnation with epoxy and polishing. The sections illustrate both the distribution of run products (including aqueous fluids) inside capsules (after quenching) and the strong effect of pressure on the solubility of silicates in aqueous fluids.

information, together with recommended values from GeoRem [see *Jochum et al., 2007*]. During analyses of minerals, the detection limits for rare earths, Th, U, Y, Sr, In, and Cs were <0.1 ppm. For most other elements, they were <1.0 ppm, with values for B, Ti, Zn, and Sn equal to a few ppm or less. Only P and K had higher detection limits equal to several tens of ppm. One sigma uncertainties calculated from counting statistics were typically within $\pm 10\%$ of measured values although typically 2–3 times higher than this for replicate analyses of individual phases.

For the solidified melts and fluid precipitates, the detection limits for most trace elements were <0.1 ppm and in almost all cases <1.0 ppm. One sigma uncertainties for replicate analyses were in most cases similar to those attributable to counting statistics ($\pm 10\%$ or less) although significantly larger (by up to several times) for some runs.

2.6. The Calculation of Solute Concentrations in Aqueous Fluids

Total solute concentrations in aqueous fluids were estimated from calculated mass balances between the compositions of starting materials and run products. The mass balances were calculated by constrained least squares regressions performed repetitively during Monte Carlo simulations, allowing us to obtain the full probability distributions for each run (see Appendix A). Trace element concentrations were also included as constraints in these calculations, but in some cases particular elements were not included on account of their propensity for alloying with metal capsules (thereby changing the bulk composition of the starting materials). Bulk fluid compositions and D values for trace elements were simultaneously calculated along with their associated probabilities. Although the results depend on assumed H_2O solubilities in coexisting melts (~ 10 wt % per GPa), these can be estimated with a reasonable degree of accuracy. The calculated values can also be compared with the direct visual evidence from run products (e.g., Figures 1 and 2).

3. Results

3.1. Description of Run Products

A list of run products and conditions for individual experiments is presented in Table 1. All of the experiments at temperatures $\geq 1050^\circ\text{C}$ produced either crystallite-rich glass or felt-like masses of feathery crystallites (\pm glass) that are interpreted as solidified basanite melts (Figures 2a–2d and S1–S12). Coexisting areas are occupied by dispersed mixtures of small white spherules and filamentous crystallites. In some experiments, the spherules have a tendency to adhere to the crystallites in arrangements that are reminiscent of threaded beads (Figures 2a, 2b, and S1–S12). The spherules and crystallites are interpreted as the solutes from aqueous fluids that were precipitated as experiments were quenched. The appearance of the solutes

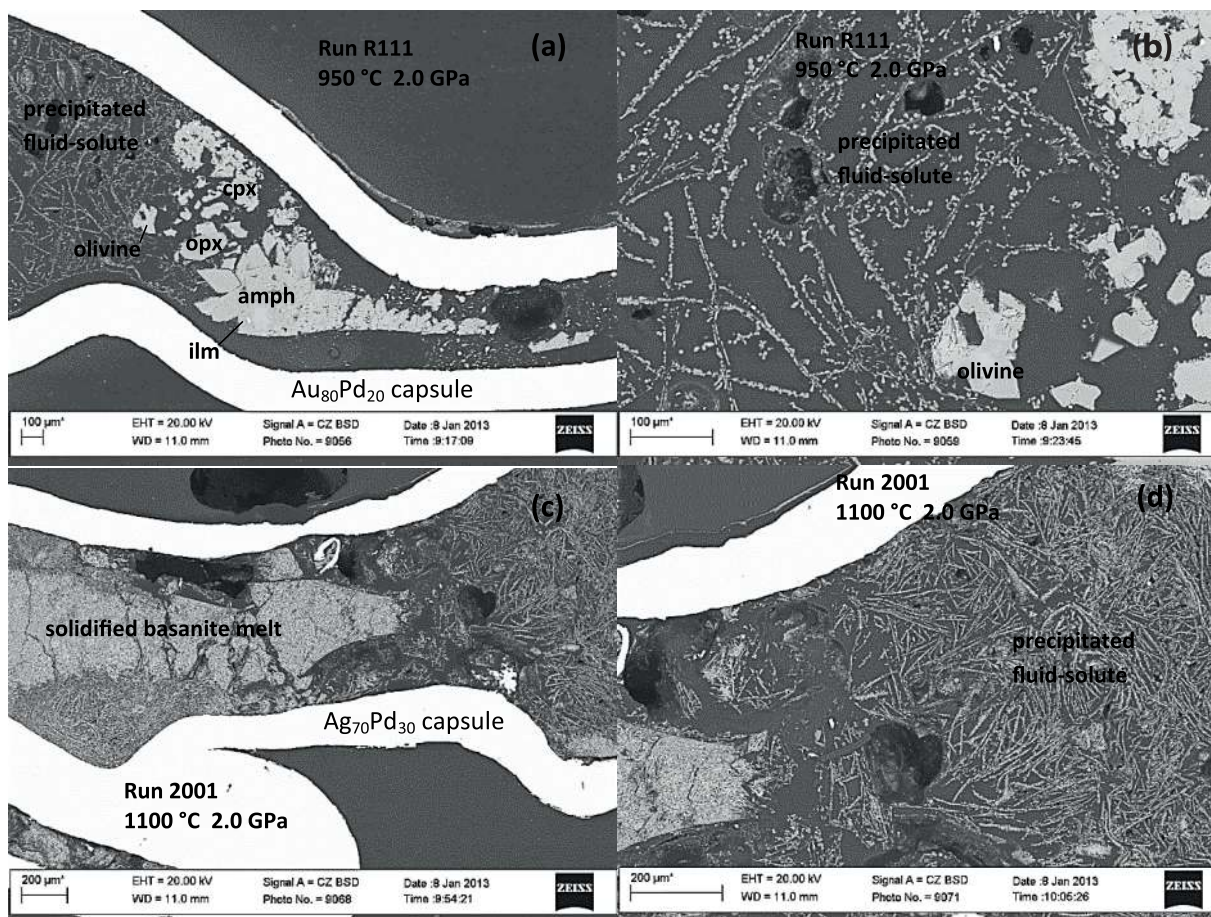


Figure 2. BSE images of solidified melts, precipitated solutes from aqueous fluids, and coexisting mineral phases.

(including their degree of dispersal) varies greatly depending upon the pressure and temperature of each experiment. At the lowest pressure (1.0 GPa), it forms narrow selvages along capsule walls and the boundaries with quenched melts. In these cases, most of the volume originally occupied by the hydrous fluid is now void space (Figure 1a). But at 2.0 GPa, the solute is sufficiently interconnected and dense to be self-supporting (Figures 2c and 2d). With increasing pressure, the density and mass of the solute increases, and its

Table 1. Run Products and Conditions for Individual Experiments^a

Run	wt % H ₂ O in Starting Mix	Capsule	°C	GPa	Result
1627 ^b	40	Ag ₇₀ Pd ₃₀	1100	2.0	7 amph + 11 cpx + 1 olivine + 2 spinel + 24 melt + 44 fluid
R111	40	Au ₈₀ Pd ₂₀	950	2.0	36 (7) amph + 7 (2) mica + 1.0 (0.5) ap + 0.5 (0.4) ilm + 3 (4) cpx + 0.1 (0.8) opx + 0.1 (0.6) ol + 48.3 (3.5) fluid (+ 3.2 ± 0.7 % FeO loss)
2001	40	Ag ₇₀ Pd ₃₀	1100	2.0	3.5 (1.9) ol + 55 (9) melt + 39 (6) fluid (+ 1.2 ± 0.7 % FeO loss)
R122	50	Au	1100	3.0	5.9 (0.6) ol + 37 (7) melt + 58 (5) fluid (+ 2.9 ± 0.2 % FeO loss)
2003	40	Au ₈₀ Pd ₂₀	1100	1.0	3.3 (0.8) ol + 45 (2) melt + 43 (2) fluid (+ 6.4 ± 0.1 % FeO loss)
2006	40	Au ₈₀ Pd ₂₀	1100	1.0	3 (2) ol + 51 (3) melt + 36 (2) fluid (+ 6.6 ± 0.1 % FeO loss)
R125	50	Au	1100	4.0	Na-K-silicate + single phase
2013	40	Au	1050	1.0	9.3 (1.0) ol + 51.5 (2.0) melt + 37.0 (1.0) fluid (+ 0.9 ± 0.0% FeO loss)
2014	50	Au ₈₀ Pd ₂₀	1200	2.0	39 (5) melt + 57 (3) fluid (+ 2.5 ± 0.4% FeO loss)

^aAbbreviations include: amph, amphibole; cpx, clinopyroxene; opx, orthopyroxene; ap, apatite; ilm, ilmenite. The estimated modal proportions and FeO-loss were calculated from mass balances between starting materials and run products (see Appendix A). Figures in parentheses are uncertainties (one standard deviation).

^bExperiment on the Southern Highlands basanite 45065 from Adam and Green [1997].

Table 2. Major and Minor Element Concentrations in Run Products

Method	WDS		WDS		WDS		WDS		WDS		WDS		WDS	
Run	R111		R111		R111		R111		R111		R111		R111	
	opx	1 std n = 3	cpx	1 std n = 6	olivine	1 std n = 3	amph	1 std n = 19	mica	1 std n = 3	ilm	1 std n = 2	solute	1 std n = 12
SiO ₂	55.40	0.27	53.38	0.75	39.69	0.33	45.61	2.22	40.19	0.16	0.05	0.00	64.15	4.05
TiO ₂	0.18	0.03	0.48	0.17	0.04	0.02	1.28	0.15	1.89	0.01	57.03	0.52	0.94	0.53
Al ₂ O ₃	2.75	0.22	2.46	0.72	0.01	0.00	11.79	2.26	15.61	0.25	0.09	0.02	17.19	1.05
Cr ₂ O ₃	0.45	0.05	0.48	0.14	0.02	0.01	0.21	0.18	0.01	0.02	0.10	0.14	0.02	0.02
FeO	8.41	0.20	4.07	0.32	15.91	2.37	6.66	2.07	7.94	0.35	32.20	2.67	2.07	1.52
MnO	0.40	0.03	0.27	0.10	0.35	0.05	0.21	0.05	0.09	0.00	0.86	0.07	0.06	0.05
NiO	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.08	0.11	0.01	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.04	0.05
MgO	31.53	0.21	17.16	1.06	43.59	2.06	17.82	2.27	20.60	0.35	9.34	1.92	2.30	1.91
CaO	0.76	0.09	21.05	1.23	0.07	0.06	10.66	0.23	0.00	0.01	0.24	0.07	2.17	2.73
Na ₂ O	0.10	0.00	0.62	0.20	0.07	0.01	2.79	0.12	0.92	0.01	0.09	0.07	5.73	1.17
K ₂ O	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.91	0.19	8.74	0.06	0.01	0.01	3.79	0.49
P ₂ O ₅	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.17	0.12	0.04	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.55	2.49
Sum	100.00		100.00		100.00		98.00		96.00		100.00		100.00	
Original total	100.74		100.50		100.78		97.79		93.89		100.48		30.24	
Mg no.	87.0		88.3		83.0		82.7		82.2		34.1		66.4	

Method	XRF	EDS		EDS		WDS		WDS		EDS	
Run/Sample	UT-70489	UT-70489		2013		2001		2014		R122	
	Rock	glass	1 std n = 12	melt	1 std n = 8	melt	1 std n = 12	melt	1 std n = 12	melt	1 std n = 8
SiO ₂	44.51	44.44	0.49	46.77	0.26	44.39	1.03	44.23	1.16	45.43	0.27
TiO ₂	2.50	2.20	0.67	3.23	0.08	2.72	0.19	2.69	0.29	2.99	0.14
Al ₂ O ₃	11.33	11.10	0.12	13.61	0.26	11.07	0.30	10.46	0.48	11.85	0.15
Cr ₂ O ₃	0.06			0.00	0.00	0.10	0.02			0.15	0.07
FeO	11.96	11.94	0.23	8.80	0.39	11.20	0.83	9.12	0.70	7.38	0.17
MnO	0.19			0.19	0.02	0.23	0.05	0.17	0.07		
NiO	0.05				0.06	0.03			0.06	0.05	
MgO	11.92	12.62	0.47	7.68	0.52	12.51	0.77	17.83	1.38	15.56	0.55
CaO	9.71	9.45	0.09	10.85	0.36	10.07	1.37	9.94	2.56	10.61	0.55
Na ₂ O	4.14	3.95	0.07	4.88	0.22	5.08	1.49	3.83	0.67	3.12	0.12
K ₂ O	2.22	2.21	0.07	2.19	0.77	0.89	0.31	0.37	0.12	1.20	0.36
P ₂ O ₅	1.41	1.45	0.23	1.98	0.09	1.71	0.34	1.30	0.02	1.48	0.16
Sum	100.00	99.35		100.00		100.00		100.00		100.00	
Original total				95.06		73.29		78.98			
Mg no.	64.0	65.3		60.9		66.6		77.7		79.0	

Method	WDS		EDS		EDS		WDS		WDS		EDS	
Run	R111		R111		2013		2001		2014		R122	
	solute	1 std n = 12	solute	1 std n = 8	solute	1 std n = 6	solute	1 std n = 12	solute	1 std n = 10	solute	1 std n = 10
SiO ₂	64.15	4.05	63.28	0.42	62.20	2.46	55.13	6.67	55.98	2.74	49.79	0.88
TiO ₂	0.94	0.53	0.88	0.23	1.24	0.66	1.52	0.61	1.60	0.44	2.28	0.21
Al ₂ O ₃	17.19	1.05	17.57	0.31	17.75	0.91	15.57	1.42	16.47	1.53	12.52	0.70
Cr ₂ O ₃	0.02	0.02	0.11	0.11	0.00	0.00	0.06	0.11			0.14	0.08
FeO	2.07	1.52	2.20	0.22	2.86	0.38	4.49	1.92	4.71	1.33	5.89	0.31
MnO	0.06	0.05	0.08	0.12			0.08	0.04	0.09	0.06	0.16	0.09
NiO	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.12			0.02	0.02			0.03	0.05
MgO	2.30	1.91	1.92	0.42	1.77	1.33	5.20	2.53	0.09	2.40	10.83	0.64
CaO	2.17	2.73	1.25	0.19	2.06	1.82	5.09	2.62	4.35	1.91	8.46	0.78
Na ₂ O	5.73	1.17	7.51	0.18	6.38	0.43	7.03	7.45	3.26	0.89	5.64	1.00
K ₂ O	3.79	0.49	5.09	0.38	5.57	0.53	4.67	0.86	5.92	0.86	3.85	0.49
P ₂ O ₅	1.55	2.49	0.07	0.13	0.17	0.41	1.15	0.94	0.63	0.04	0.42	0.26
Sum	100.00		100.00		100.00		100.00		100.00		100.00	
Original total	30.24		30.24		29.42		34.71		30.81		99.67	
Mg no.	66.4		60.9		79.9		67.4		72.6		76.6	
Estimated solute concentration in fluid	19.2	7.3		7.3	2.1	25.0	14.2	25.3	6.0	33.4	7.7	

Mg no. = $100 \times \text{Mg}/(\text{Mg} + \text{total Fe})$ on a molecular basis.

1 std = one standard deviation, n refers to number of replicate analyses.

WDS indicates analysis by wave-length X-ray fluorescence using the Cameca SX100.

EDS indicates analysis by energy dispersive X-ray fluorescence using the Zeiss EVO MA15 and X-Max 20m² detector.

All concentrations are in weight percent.

Solute concentrations in fluids were calculated from the results of mass balances between run products and starting materials (see Appendix A).

The 1 sigma uncertainties for oxides are based on the results for replicate analyses of run products n = number of analyses.

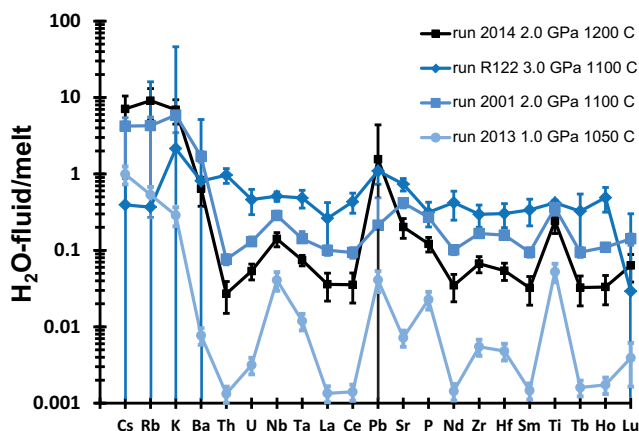


Figure 3. Fluid/melt partition coefficients for lithophile elements in aqueous fluids and basanitic melts. The data are from Table 3 (this study). Error bars are single standard deviations.

amphibole-mica-ilmenite-lherzolite assemblage, together with an H₂O-rich fluid (Figures 2a and 2b and Tables 1 and 2).

3.2. The Chemical Compositions of Coexisting Fluids, Melts, and Minerals

Analyses of major element concentrations in bulk solutes, melts, and minerals from experiments at 950–1200°C and 1.0–3.0 GPa are given in Table 2. Trace and minor element concentrations analyses by LAM-ICP-MS are provided in Table S2 of supporting information. Fluid/melt and fluid/mineral partition coefficients (*D* values) are presented in Table 3. H₂O concentrations in the basanitic melts (~10 wt % per GPa) were estimated by combining data for an olivine melilitite at 3.0 GPa [Brey and Green, 1977] with solubility measurements for diopside melts at 1.0–3.0 GPa [Egglar and Burnham, 1984]. The solute concentrations estimated for aqueous fluids (Table 2) vary from ~7 wt % at 1.0 GPa and 950–1050°C to ~34 wt % at 3.0 GPa and 1100°C (with complete miscibility at 4.0 GPa and 1100°C). They are comparable to values determined by Schneider and Egglar [1986] and Ryabchikov *et al.* [1982] who used alternative methods based on the measured weights of recovered run products.

Relative to the basanitic melts produced in experiments, the solutes from coexisting aqueous fluids are enriched in SiO₂, alkalis, Ba, and Pb, but depleted in FeO, MgO, CaO, P₂O₅, and rare earths (REE; Tables 2 and 3 and Figure 3). They are also peralkaline. When H₂O concentrations in the original fluid and melt phases are considered, only the alkalis, Ba, Ag, Bi, and Pb show a consistent preference for the fluid phase (Figures 3 and 4). The solubility of silicates in the aqueous fluid increases rapidly with increasing pressure,

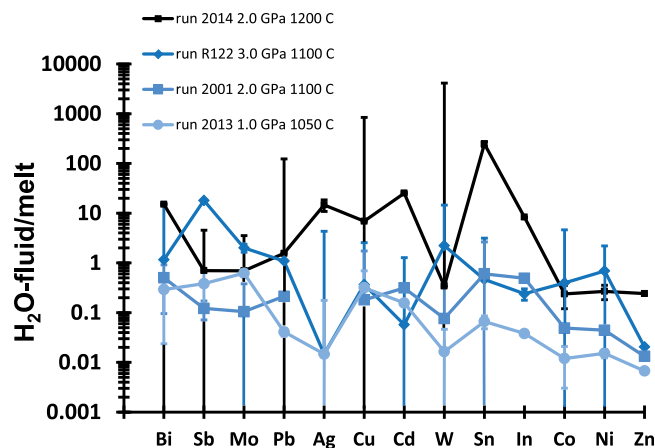


Figure 4. Fluid/melt partition coefficients for chalcophile metals in aqueous fluids and basanitic melts. The data are from Table 3 (this study). Error bars are single standard deviations.

appearance increasingly resembles that of the solidified silicate melt (Figures S1–S12). By 4.0 GPa and 1100°C, only a single felt-like matrix is produced (Figures 1a and S12), consistent with complete miscibility between H₂O and the basanite melt.

All of the experiments, except one, produced small amounts of olivine (Run R125 at 4.0 GPa crystallized Na-K-silicate in place of olivine). At 950°C, experiments were either significantly crystalline or subsolidus. One subsolidus experiment at 950°C and 2.0 GPa produced a complete

with complete miscibility between fluids and melts occurring between 3.0 and 4.0 GPa at 1100°C. Temperature also seems to have a positive effect on solute concentrations in aqueous fluids although this is less obvious than for pressure. Because of these changes, the absolute concentrations of most trace and minor elements in the fluid phase increase with increasing pressure and temperature.

4. Discussion

Two features of the experimental results stand out and are worth

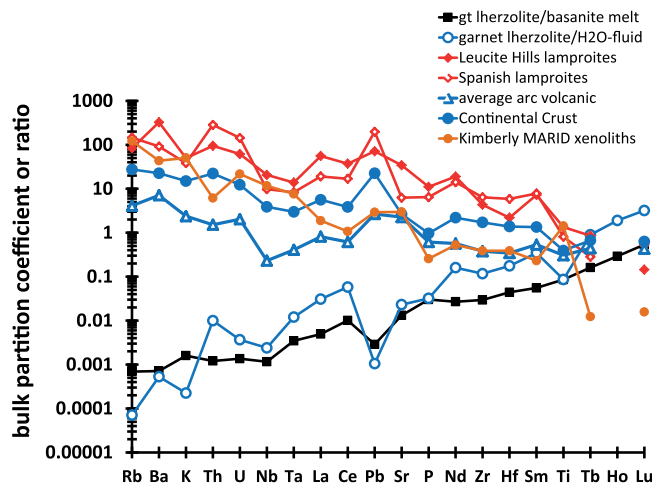


Figure 5. Peridotite/fluid and peridotite/melt partition coefficients for conditions of 2–3 GPa and 1100–1200°C. For comparison, relative incompatible element enrichments in the continental crust, arc volcanics, MARID xenoliths, and lamproites are also shown normalized to the average concentrations in mid-ocean ridge basalts. Data sources include: this work; Adam and Green [2011], Albaredo [2005], Grégoire et al. [2002], Kovalenko et al. [2010], Mirnejad and Bell [2006], Turner et al. [1999], and Wedepohl [1995].

attention. One is that at $\leq 1100^\circ\text{C}$ and 1.0 GPa, the capacity of aqueous fluids to transport incompatible elements and economically important metals is low (Figures 3 and 4). In contrast, silicate melts have a much higher capacity. But as pressure and temperature increase, so does the ability of aqueous fluids to transport incompatible elements and metals (Figures 3 and 4). The second feature is the preference of alkalis, Ba, and Pb for aqueous fluids, and the strong preference of REE for silicate melts (Figures 3–5). U is also enriched in fluids relative to Th (Figures 3 and 5). These relationships are consistent with previously published results from experimental studies of fluid partitioning [e.g., Ayers

et al., 1997; Brenan et al., 1995a; Adam et al., 1997; Stalder et al., 1998; Kessel et al., 2005b] as well as the essential role that is usually attributed to aqueous fluids during arc magma genesis [e.g., Tatsumi et al., 1986; Turner et al., 1997; Johnson and Plank, 1999]. However, the fluid/mineral D values determined in this study (Table 3) are mostly higher than previously published values (Figure 6). This is probably due to our starting composition (which is comparatively rich in Na and K) and the relatively high solubilities of alkali-silicates in aqueous fluids. Thus, total solute concentrations in our experiments were high, with consequential positive effects on the concentrations of trace and minor elements [see Ayers et al., 1997]. Consistent with previous studies [e.g., Adam et al., 1997; Ayers et al., 1997; Kessel et al., 2005a], Nb and Ta are not particularly depleted in aqueous fluids relative to other elements (Figures 3 and 5). Consequently, the Nb and Ta depletions in arc magmas must be the result of residual crystal phases (e.g., rutile) which strongly concentrate both Nb and Ta [see Brenan et al., 1995b; Xiong et al., 2005]. It is also worth noting that most arc magmas are not as strongly enriched in Pb relative to Sr as might be expected from the partitioning relations

for H_2O (Figure 5) although this is variable and not evident for the continental crust. It is possible that this reflects some involvement of sulphides in the development of arc magmatism with somewhat different factors contributing to the growth of the continental crust.

Because the solvent capacities of aqueous fluids are sensitive to pressure and temperature, the ratios of H_2O to some other (non-volatile) incompatible elements (e.g., Ce) in arc magmas should also be sensitive to the pressures and temperatures of fluid generation. But this will not necessarily be a result of the temperature-dependent solubilities of

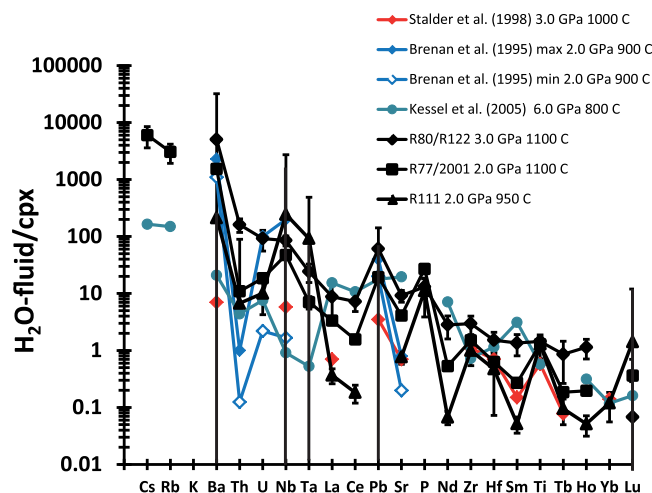


Figure 6. A comparison of fluid/clinopyroxene partition coefficients from this and previously published studies. Data sources include: Ayers et al. [1997], Adam and Green [2006], Kessel et al. [2005b], Stalder et al. [1998], and Brenan et al. [1995a]. Error bars indicate propagated uncertainties as single standard deviations.

accessory phases [as suggested by *Plank et al.*, 2009]. The pressure-dependent miscibility relations of aqueous fluids and silicate melts also have implications for the second critical end point of the H₂O-saturated peridotite solidus. The latter has been estimated to occur at ~3.8 GPa by two previous studies [*Mibe et al.*, 2007; *Gorbachev et al.*, 2013]. This contrasts with the value (between 5 and 6 GPa) estimated by *Kessel et al.* [2005a] for a H₂O-basalt system, but is consistent with the closure of the miscibility gap between aqueous fluids and basaltic melts that is observed in our own experiments between 3 and 4 GPa.

Green et al. [2010] proposed that H₂O-fluids can exist in equilibrium with normal mantle peridotite (i.e., the MORB source) at pressures around 6 GPa. But any such fluid will exist above the second critical end point. Thus, it will have qualities intermediate between those normally expected of H₂O-fluids and alkaline silicate melts. Such a fluid will carry K and Ba enrichments, but not the relative Nb, Ta, and Ti depletions characteristic of arc magmas. Consequently, migrating supersolvus fluids are a possible source of the incompatible element enrichments observed in some rocks of deep-seated lithospheric origin, such as Mica-Amphibole-Rutile-Ilmenite-Diopside (MARID; Figure 5). They may also be closely related to the kimberlite and (more particularly) lamproite melts (Figure 5) that bring such samples to the surface.

5. Conclusions

H₂O-saturated experiments on nepheline basaltic melts are an indirect means of constraining the nature of aqueous fluids in equilibrium with mantle peridotite. Such fluids are relatively enriched in alkalis, Ba, and Pb compared to coexisting silicate melts. They are also enriched in U relative to Th. These observations are consistent with the essential role usually attributed to aqueous fluids during volcanic arc genesis. But the absolute capacity of H₂O-fluids to transport incompatible elements and economically important metals is a strong positive function of pressure and (to a lesser degree) temperature. Because of this, the relative concentrations of H₂O and other (nonvolatile) incompatible elements in arc magmas should reflect the pressures and temperatures of fluid generation in the subarc environment. At 1100°C and ≤4.0 GPa, complete miscibility occurs between H₂O-fluids and basaltic melts. The supersolvus fluids produced above 4.0 GPa are likely to have properties intermediate between those usually attributed to H₂O-fluids and silicate melts. They will be enriched in K and Ba, but will not have the Nb, Ta, and Ti depletions characteristic of arc magmas. These features are consistent with the incompatible element enrichments found in some mantle xenoliths (e.g., MARID) as well as the lamproite magmas that bring such xenoliths to the surface.

Appendix A

Uncertainties in our reported weight fraction estimates and partition coefficients come from a number of sources. One is the uncertainty of the H₂O concentrations dissolved in melts during experiments. These could not be directly measured but were instead estimated from published solubility data for H₂O in basaltic and related melts. For the purposes of this study, we assumed a one sigma relative uncertainty of ±10% for these values. These uncertainties propagate to our estimated weight fractions of the stable phases, which in turn propagate to the estimation of partition coefficients. Since we expect these uncertainties to be correlated (at least in some cases; Figure A1), traditional analytic methods for error propagation analysis may not be robust. Here we use a Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) approach to estimate the uncertainties affecting our results. In each iteration *i* of the MCMC simulation, we generate a random sample of the bulk composition vector *d* and phase composition matrix *A* within ±2 standard deviations (*σ*) of their respective observational uncertainties. This random sample constitutes a trial model drawn from our prior uniform distribution of ±2*σ*. For each trial, we compute the associated weight fractions of each phase (e.g., Ol, quenched melt, etc) by solving a constrained least square optimization problem [cf. *Gill et al.*, 1981].

$$\min \frac{1}{2} \|A_i \cdot x_i - d_i\|_2^2 \quad (\text{A1})$$

subject to the strictly positive constraints

$$x_i \geq x_{low} \quad (\text{A2})$$

Where *x_i* is the vector (for iteration *i*) containing the weight fractions and *x_{low}* are the lower limits assumed for the observed phases (here we assumed *x_{low}* = 0.001 for all observed phases). Finally, we compute the

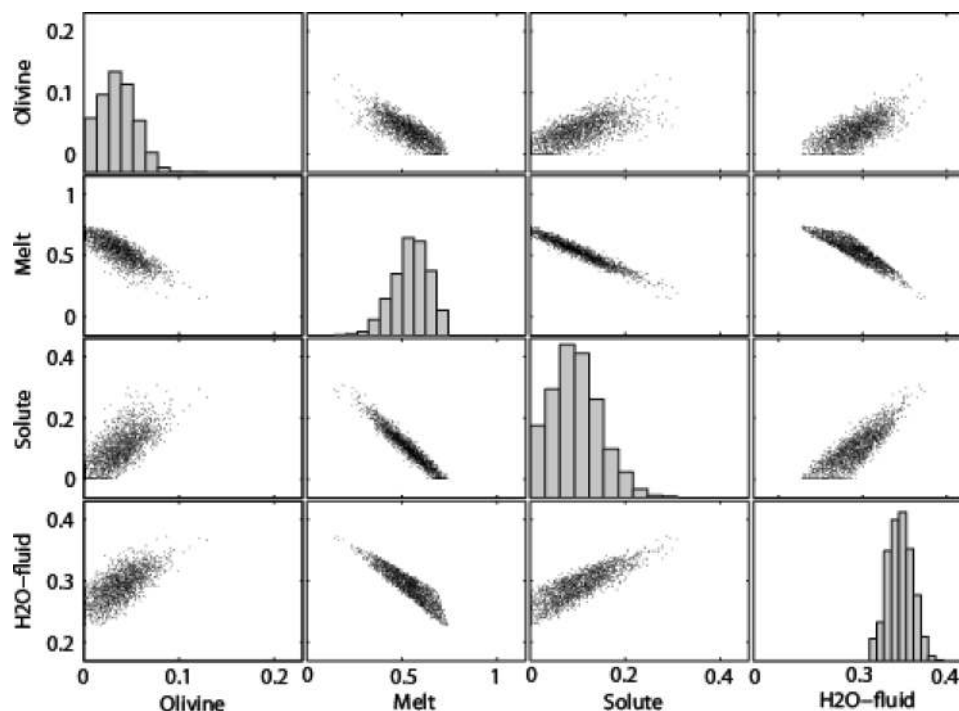


Figure A1. Example of a posterior distribution (run R2001) of weight fractions obtained with the MCMC method described in the Appendix A. The histograms in the diagonals represent the (1-D) marginal posterior distributions for each phase from which mean values and standard deviations can be computed. The nondiagonal plots are point-density representations of 2-D marginals of the posterior distribution. Note the strong correlation between weight fractions (model parameters) for some of the phases (e.g., solute and melt).

partition coefficients D_i as functions of the solution vector x_i . At the end of each iteration, x_i and D_i are either accepted or rejected as part the Markov chain according to a standard Metropolis rule [cf. Tarantola, 2005]. To compute the associated probabilities of the vectors x_i and D_i needed by the Metropolis rule, we adopt an objective function (i.e., misfit function) composed of the sum of a L2-norm for major elements and a L1-norm for trace elements [Tarantola, 2005]. We choose to use a L1-norm for trace elements due to their large variability and associated uncertainties.

When the above algorithm is iterated many times (here we use 40,000 iterations), we obtain a joint distribution (the full posterior distribution; Figure A1) for x and D from which standard estimators such as the mean, median, and σ can be evaluated. The later represents the sought uncertainty for our tabulated values.

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