



The impact of dissolved CO₂ on bubble nucleation in water-poor rhyolite melts



James E. Gardner^{a,*}, James D. Webster^b

^a Department of Geological Sciences, Jackson School of Geosciences, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, TX 78712-0254, USA

^b Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, American Museum of Natural History, Central Park West at 79th, New York, NY 10024-5192, USA

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 3 August 2015

Received in revised form 13 November 2015

Accepted 16 November 2015

Available online 1 December 2015

Keywords:

Bubble

Nucleation

Rhyolite

Kinetics

H₂O

CO₂

ABSTRACT

Volcanic eruptions of H₂O-poor rhyolite are enigmas, because gas bubbles are needed to drive eruptions, but experimental evidence suggests that bubbles cannot nucleate because there is insufficient H₂O to overcome the free energy associated with the formation of the bubble–melt interface. In this study, we examine whether CO₂ in the melt can solve that enigma, possibly by nucleating CO₂-enriched bubbles that are then used by H₂O or lowering the surficial free energy. We use experimental decompressions to examine the affect of dissolved CO₂ at conditions both where H₂O alone can nucleate bubbles, and where H₂O activity is too poor to nucleate bubbles. Experiments using CO₂-free, hydrated rhyolite melt at 875–900 °C conditions find that bubbles nucleate when [H₂O] = 4.34–4.74 wt.%, once H₂O supersaturates (Δc , the ratio of the initial H₂O content to the expected amount at equilibrium at low pressure) by ~2–3. Rhyolite melts with less H₂O do not nucleate bubbles, even when $\Delta c \gg 3$. Equally hydrated rhyolite melt that also contains 500–1000 ppm CO₂ nucleates bubbles similarly in terms of the critical Δc , except that CO₂-bearing rhyolite must decompress more to reach a given Δc . That difference is just a result of the change in H₂O solubility in the presence CO₂. It thus appears that bubble nucleation in rhyolite melt is dictated by Δc , and does not change in the presence of CO₂. Importantly, molten rhyolite that is too H₂O poor to nucleate bubbles will not nucleate them if they are CO₂ rich. The vesiculation of such melts requires that bubbles nucleate heterogeneously.

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1. Introduction

Volcanic eruptions are driven by gas (primarily H₂O) exsolving and growing bubbles in magma as it rises to the surface (Sparks, 1978). While that rise leads magma to become supersaturated in H₂O – where supersaturation (ΔP) is saturation pressure (P_{SAT}) minus low pressure (P) – bubbles will not form until ΔP overcomes the surficial free energy (σ) of the bubble–melt interface (Hurwitz and Navon, 1994; Gonnermann and Gardner, 2013). High values of ΔP are typically needed to homogeneously nucleate H₂O bubbles in rhyolite melt (Mourtada-Bonnefoi and Laporte, 1999, 2002; Mangan and Sisson, 2000; Gardner and Ketcham, 2011). In fact, Mourtada-Bonnefoi and Laporte (1999) found that rhyolite with ~4 wt.% H₂O does not nucleate bubbles, even at $\Delta P \approx P_{SAT}$. Heterogeneities, such as crystals, can reduce ΔP by reducing the effective σ (Hurwitz and Navon, 1994; Mangan et al., 2004; Gardner and Denis, 2004). In their absence, however, bubbles are unlikely to nucleate in H₂O-poor rhyolite melt.

It would thus seem that H₂O-poor rhyolite melts need to be crystal-rich in order to erupt. But aphyric rhyolite that originally had ≤ 2.5 wt.% H₂O has, for example, erupted both explosively and as obsidian lava at

Yellowstone (Fig. 1). How do bubbles nucleate in such H₂O-poor magmas? The Yellowstone rhyolitic magmas are rich in dissolved CO₂ (Fig. 1). That CO₂ could have facilitated degassing, for example, by forming CO₂-dominated bubbles rather than H₂O-rich bubbles, because of the much lower solubility of CO₂ in rhyolite melt (Blank et al., 1993). In that case, H₂O could then degas into those bubbles or the CO₂ bubbles could serve as sites for heterogeneous H₂O bubble nucleation. At present, evidence for the effects of CO₂ in H₂O-poor rhyolite melts is sparse. Mangan and Sisson (2000) suggest that CO₂ has no affect on homogeneous bubble nucleation. But, only one of their samples that was decompressed fast enough (8.5 MPa s⁻¹) to induce homogeneous nucleation contained more than 20 ppm CO₂, and it was decompressed only to moderate ΔP . Bai et al. (2008) suggest that significant amounts of CO₂ can affect bubble nucleation in hydrous basalt, but the conditions of their experiments were such that bubbles could nucleate without CO₂ present, and so it is unclear whether CO₂ allows degassing when H₂O alone cannot. In a more extensive study, Mourtada-Bonnefoi and Laporte (1999, 2002) found that rhyolites with ~4.5 wt.% H₂O and significant CO₂ (≥ 800 ppm) nucleated bubbles upon decompression, whereas similar melts with little CO₂ did not.

This study builds on the work of Mourtada-Bonnefoi and Laporte (1999, 2002), by comparing bubble nucleation in hydrous rhyolite melt that either does or does not contain CO₂. We examine conditions

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: gardner@mail.utexas.edu (J.E. Gardner).

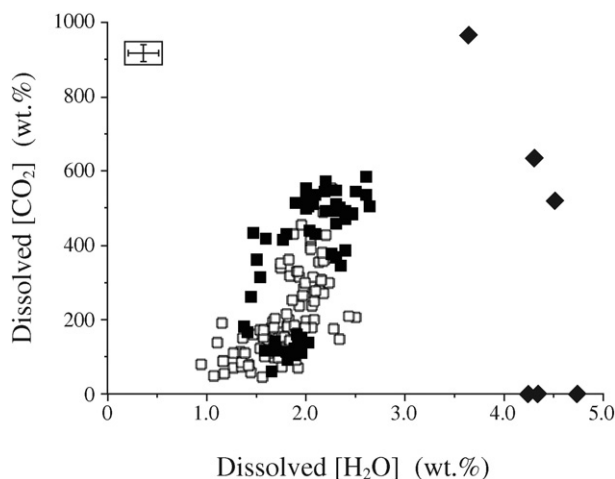


Fig. 1. Dissolved H₂O and CO₂ contents of rhyolitic glass inclusions in quartz phenocrysts from 6 obsidian lavas (open squares) and 3 pyroclastic tuffs (filled squares), erupted in the past 175 k.y. at Yellowstone caldera (K. Befus and J.E. Gardner, unpublished data). The average errors ($\pm 1\sigma$) on analyses are shown. Volatile contents of rhyolite glasses used in this study are shown as diamonds, with error bars smaller than the symbol size (Table 2).

both at which H₂O can nucleate bubbles, and at which H₂O is poor to nucleate bubbles, in order to examine whether CO₂ facilitates bubble nucleation.

2. Material and methods

All experiments used cylinders cored from obsidian that has been used by this lab before (Gardner, 2009; Gardner and Ketcham, 2011; Gardner et al., 2013). It consists of high-silica rhyolitic glass and <1 vol.% microlites of Fe–Ti oxides (Table 1). Most cylinders were 11–13 mm long and 2.7 mm in diameter.

Six cylinders and sufficient distilled water were sealed inside Au capsules, and each capsule was placed into externally heated, cold-seal pressure vessels and run at 875° or 900 °C (± 5 °C) and 120, 125, or 140 MPa (± 0.1 MPa) for 5–6 days (Table 2). Six other cylinders were saturated with H₂O + CO₂ in an internally heated pressure vessel (IHPV). Two of those were first hydrated at 65 MPa for 5 days, and then re-equilibrated together with a mixed H₂O + CO₂ fluid inside a single Pt capsule at 270 MPa and 1000 °C, producing glasses with 3.64 wt.% H₂O and 966 ppm CO₂ (Table 2). Both oxalic acid dihydrate and silver oxalate were used as CO₂ sources. Two other cylinders were hydrated at 135 MPa, and then re-equilibrated with a mixed H₂O + CO₂ fluid (oxalic acid dihydrate) in one capsule at 260 MPa and 1000 °C, producing glasses with 4.51 wt.% H₂O and 520 ppm CO₂. The last two cylinders were equilibrated together in a single capsule with a mixed H₂O + CO₂

Table 1
Rhyolites used in this study and by Mourtada-Bonnefoi and Laporte (1999, 2002).

	This Study	M-B&L
SiO ₂	76.53	76.51
TiO ₂	0.06	0.03
Al ₂ O ₃	13.01	12.56
FeO*	0.79	0.55
MnO	0.08	0.07
MgO	0.02	0.01
CaO	0.74	0.25
Na ₂ O	3.87	4.47
K ₂ O	4.91	4.24
Molar N/NK	0.55	0.62
Molar A/CNK	0.99	1.01

Composition of sample used in this study measured by electron microprobe (normalized to 100%), with all Fe reported as FeO; oxides are in wt.%.

fluid (oxalic acid dihydrate) at 258.5 MPa and 1075 °C, producing glasses with 4.30 wt.% H₂O and 635 ppm CO₂.

Samples were extracted from their capsules, and sectioned into smaller samples using a slow speed saw. Each was ~0.5 cm long and weighed ≥ 50 mg. A thin wafer (~1 mm thick) was also sliced from the center of each sample and used to measure volatile contents using Fourier-Transform Infrared (FTIR) Spectroscopy (see below). More than one wafer was cut from each of the H₂O + CO₂ samples to assure that volatiles were homogeneously distributed in the glasses.

Each sample cut from the starting materials was used in a decompression experiment by sealing it inside Au capsules, which were then placed into a cup on the end of an Inconel rod and inserted into rapid-quench, cold-seal pressure vessels. The sample was held in the water-cooled region of the vessel while the pressure vessel heated to 850 or 875 °C. The Inconel rod was then raised with an external magnet to insert the sample into the hot zone of the pressure vessel. Pressure was quickly adjusted using a hand-operated intensifier to either 1 MPa above the original hydration pressure or to 251 MPa (Table 2). Although that latter pressure differs slightly from the original pressures, the difference did not induce bubbles to nucleate, as shown by the absence of bubbles after most decompressions.

After a sample heated for 5 min, pressure was released quickly to a lower pressure (P_{FINAL}), and then held there for a given amount of time before the sample was rapidly quenched by lowering it back into the water-cooled jacket. The method of pressure release changed during the project. At first, the pressure line was cracked open to release water from it until pressure had dropped to the desired level. These were relatively slow (5–22 s) and precise to ± 1 s. All of these runs were quenched after a total of 60 s (Table 2). After some trial and error, we changed to dropping pressure by opening the pressure vessel to a large pressure reservoir that had been set at some low pressure. This caused very rapid drops in pressure (≤ 2.5 s) that could be timed more precisely (± 0.1 s). All of these runs were held at P_{FINAL} for ~60 s, except one which was held for ~120 s. Except for that one, the amount of time that all samples spent below the starting pressure was ~60 s (Table 2).

All decompression samples were examined to see whether bubbles nucleated (Fig. 2). If they had, their number density (N_B) was measured using a petrographic microscope by selecting 4–5 areas (40 $\mu\text{m} \times 40 \mu\text{m}$) of a sample and counting all bubbles that appear as the field of view is moved through it using the focusing knob of the microscope. The thickness of each volume measured, typically 800–2000 μm , was recorded by a Heidenhain focus drive linear encoder that detects the motion of the stage, and is precise to $\pm 0.6 \mu\text{m}$. The typical volume was $\sim 9.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^3$, and so the detection limit on N_B is $\sim 100 \text{ cm}^{-3}$.

Dissolved volatiles were analyzed with a Thermo Electron Nicolet 6700 spectrometer and Continuum IR microscope. Concentrations of molecular (H₂O_m) and hydroxyl (OH⁻) H₂O in glasses were determined from absorbances at ~ 5250 and $\sim 4500 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, using white light and a CaF₂ beamsplitter and the model of Zhang et al. (1997). Reported H₂O contents are the averaged sums of H₂O_m and OH⁻ (Table 2). The same spots were analyzed for dissolved molecular CO₂, which was determined from the absorbance at $\sim 2350 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, using a globular light source and a KBr beamsplitter and the absorptivity of Behrens et al. (2004). Sample thicknesses were measured with the focus drive encoder described above.

3. Results

Numerous bubbles (often <10 μm) grew in the outer fringes of all decompression samples (Fig. 2a). Such “fringe” bubbles occur almost invariably in decompressions of hydrous melts, and result from heterogeneous nucleation where the melt touches the metal capsule (Mangan and Sisson, 2000). In this study we ignore these bubbles, and instead focus on the interiors of samples, away from all contacts, as we are interested in the ability of water-poor rhyolite to nucleate bubbles homogeneously.

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