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Effects of fluid and melt density and structure on high pressure and 1 temperature experimental studies of hydrogen isotope partitioning 2 3 between coexisting melt and aqueous fluid 4 5 Bjorn Mysen Geophysical Laboratory 6 Carnegie Instn. Washington 7 8 5251 Broad Branch Rd., NW 9 Washington DC 20015 10 11 Abstract 12 Hydrogen isotope partitioning (as H₂O and D₂O) between silicate-saturated aqueous 13 fluid and water-saturated aluminosilicate melt has been determined with 14 vibrational spectroscopy (Raman and infrared) in-situ with the samples at high 15 temperature and pressure by using a hydrothermal diamond anvil cell (HDAC) for 16 sample containment. In order to assess the effects of pressure and, therefore, 17 different silicate speciation in fluids and melts, on the D/H partitioning behavior, 18 two pressure/temperature experimental trajectories (450-800°C/155-754 MPa, and 19 450°-800°C/562-1271 MPa) were used. In these temperature and pressure ranges, 20 the fluid/melt partition coefficients are temperature (and pressure) dependent with 21 the average enthalpy change, $\Delta H = -6.6\pm15 \text{ kJ/mol}$ and $-10.3\pm1.1 \text{ kJ/mol}$ for H_2O and 22 D₂O, respectively. The ΔH-values for the lower-pressure trajectory (and, therefore, 23 lower fluid density) were 15-20% higher than for the higher-pressure (and higher 24 fluid density) trajectory. The (D/H) ratios of fluids and melts, (D/H)fluid and 25 (D/H)^{melt}, are also temperature dependent with a small negative ΔH for (D/H)^{fluid} 26 (average: -2.4 ± 0.8 kJ/mol) and a positive ΔH -value for (D/H)^{melt} (2.3 ±1.4 kJ/mol). 27 The (D,H) exchange equilibrium between fluid and melt is also temperature (and

pressure) dependent so that for the low-density P/T trajectory, the ΔH =-4.2±0.6

kJ/mol, whereas for the higher-density trajectory, ΔH=-5.4±0.7 kJ/mol. The

difference between the H2O and D2O fluid/melt partition coefficients and the

temperature and pressure-dependent D/H fractionation behavior in and between

hydrous silicate melts and silicate-saturated aqueous fluid in part is because

pressure increases with increasing temperature in the HDAC experiments and the

volume difference between fluid and melt differ for H₂O and D₂O. In addition, the silicate speciation in fluids and melts are temperature- and pressure-dependent, which also leads to significantly temperature- and pressure-dependent D/H fractionation within and between silicate melts and fluids at high temperature and pressure. In the Earth's deep crust and upper mantle, hydrogen isotope partitioning between condensed phases and aqueous fluid can differ substantially from that between condensed phases and pure H₂O because the aqueous fluid in the Earth's interior is a concentrated silicate solution wherein the silicate speciation affects the isotope partitioning.

Introduction

Stable isotope (H, C, O, N, S) fractionation is a tool with which to model gas fluxing, degassing, and other materials transport in geological processes (e.g., Pineau et al., 1998; Hauri, 2002; Deines, 2002; Manning, 2004). Such modeling depends on isotope fractionation factors. Theoretical modeling relies on assumptions of no interaction between functional groups in the materials (such as in a gas phase, e. g., Niki et al., 1965; Richet and Bottinga, 1977). In aqueous solutions with strong intermolecular forces (as much as ~20 kJ/mol for hydrogen bonding, for example; Walrafen et al., 1996) this assumption fails (e. g., O' Neil and Truesdell, 1993; Horita et al., 1995; Foustoukos and Mysen, 2012). Furthermore, in silicate melts, whether water-bearing or anhydrous, there are interconnected structural units with bond energies of tens to hundreds of kJ/mol (Bockris and Reddy, 1970; Poole et al., 1995). Type and proportions of such structural units may govern the structural role of protons and deuterons, for example (Cody et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2011). Similar structural features describe silicate solute in aqueous solutions and high

59 temperature and pressure (e.g., Zotov and Keppler, 2002; Mibe et al., 2008; Newton 60 and Manning, 2008). Such structural constraints can affect element and isotope partitioning between melts, fluids, and other phases (O' Neil and Truesdell, 1993; 61 62 Horita et al., 1995; Driesner and Seward, 2000; Mysen, 2012, 2013). 63 Isotope partitioning has been determined experimentally by analyzing melts and 64 fluids in experimental charges following their physical separation after quenching of an 65 experiment to ambient temperature and pressure (Kuroda et al., 1982; Dobson et al., 66 1989; Pineau et al., 1998). The separation process is, however, challenging because 67 during temperature-quenching of hydrous silicate systems, oxide components dissolved 68 in aqueous fluids at high temperature and pressure tend to precipitate (Schneider and 69 Eggler, 1984; Mysen and Wheeler, 2000). This quench precipitation alters the 70 composition of the fluid from its equilibrium values and likely also alters the isotope ratio 71 of the residual fluid because isotope fractionation varies with solute concentration in the 72 fluid (O'Neil and Truesdell, 1993; Horita et al., 1995). The precipitates formed in this 73 manner often cannot be separated completely from coexisting glass or crystals, which 74 renders a major challenge recombination of residual fluid and quenched oxide 75 components to that which existed at high temperature and pressure. Additional 76 complexity can arise from water dissolved in melts at high pressure and temperature 77 because some of this water often exsolves from the melt during cooling of melt to a glass 78 for ambient-condition study. This exsolution process results in water contents of 79 quenched hydrous glass that differ from their high temperature and pressure equilibrium

values (Yoder et al., 1957; Eggler and Burnham, 1984). Water exsolution likely also

leads to different isotope ratios of the quenched glass compared with the values at high temperature and pressure prior to quenching.

Experimental barriers caused by temperature- and pressure-quenching of experimental charges before analysis can be avoided completely by analysis of the samples *in-situ* while at the temperature and pressure of interest. In this report, the behavior of deuterium and hydrogen has been evaluated in this manner. To this end, the D/H ratios in coexisting melt and fluid, D and H partitioning between them, and D/H exchange equilibria between fluid and melt have been determined by using vibrational spectroscopy to probe samples *in-situ* at high temperature and pressure contained in an externally-heated hydrothermal diamond anvil cell (Bassett et al., 1996). Two different pressure-/temperature-trajectories were explored. In this manner, effects of total water content of melts and of silicate content of coexisting fluid on D/H partitioning between silicate-saturated aqueous fluid and water-saturated silicate melts were evaluated without results being affected by alteration of melts and fluid during temperature-/pressure-quenching of an experiments before isotope analysis.

Experimental Methods

Starting material was the NA10 composition glass originally used by Mysen (2007). This melt has NBO/T=0.5 and Al/(Al+Si)=0.189, which are reasonable approximations to melt polymerization and Al/(Al+Si)-values of island arc andesitic magmas (NBO/T: nonbridging oxygen per tetrahedrally coordinated cations; see Table 1 for description of NBO/T calculation of melt and glass from chemical composition). This composition also has a sufficiently low liquidus temperature and glass transition temperature so that

104 examination of melt+fluid equilibria is feasible over a large temperature interval below 105 the practical temperature maximum of an externally-heated diamond anvil cell (≤1000°C 106 - Bassett et al., 1996). Small glass chips (<100 µm across) were loaded together with a D₂O+H₂O (50:50 by 107 volume) liquid, ¹³C diamond chips (to monitor pressure), and Pt metal (to enhance 108 109 equilibration rates - see Horita, 1988) in the 500µm central hole of 125 µm thick Ir 110 gaskets used in the diamond cell (Fig. 1). During an experiment, this diameter shrank to 111 ~400 µm and the gasket to ~80-90 µm thickness. 112 The hydrothermal diamond anvil cell (HDAC) was heated with two Mo-wound 113 furnaces (0.1 mm diameter Mo wire) surrounding the upper and lower diamond, 114 respectively. Temperature was measured (and controlled) with K-type thermocouples to 115 within ±1°C. Pressure was generated by the fluid because as temperature is increased and 116 sample volume is kept constant by using the method to ascertain constant sample volume 117 as described by Bassett et al. (1996). Under the assumption that the PVT properties of 118 silicate-saturated mixed (D₂O+H₂O) fluid are the same as those of pure H₂O, pressure can 119 be calculated at any temperature. However, these assumptions can lead to erroneous 120 pressure estimates (e.g., Mysen, 2010), and an independent pressure sensor, therefore, 121 was employed. This was accomplished by monitoring the one-phonon Raman shift of 122 synthetic ¹³C diamond (Schiferl et al., 1997; Mysen and Yamashita; 2010). Spectrometer 123 positional precision is critical, therefore, to minimize pressure uncertainty. This precision was optimized by using 2400 gratings/mm and Ne emission lines as internal frequency 124 reference. The uncertainty in frequency of the ¹³C diamond one-phonon-shift then is 125 126 about ± 0.1 cm⁻¹. From the calibration curve of Mysen and Yamashita (2010), this

frequency precision results in $\pm 40 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ precision of pressure. The calibration itself does, 127 128 however, carry an approximately ±100 MPa error so that the combined uncertainty in the 129 pressure from the one-phonon Raman shift of the 13 C diamond is about ± 110 cm⁻¹. Platinum was added to the sample chamber because Pt enhances isotope exchange 130 rate (Horita, 1988). For example, D/H equilibrium between liquid H₂O and H₂ at 25°C 131 132 and ambient pressure is reached within 1-2 hrs (Horita, 1988). Results of time studies of 133 D/H partitioning between fluid and melts using similar compositions and temperature, but 134 higher pressures also indicate that an hour is sufficient to reach isotopic equilibrium 135 (Mysen, 2013). 136 Whether or not the presence of Pt result in dissociation of H2O to form H2 and 137 platinum oxide or iridium oxide was assessed by subjecting H₂O in contact with Pt and in 138 Ir gaskets to 400°-800°C/660-1440 MPa by using an HDAC design identical to those 139 under which the D/H partitioning experiments were carried out. There is no evidence of 140 H₂ in the H₂O even at the highest temperatures and pressures (Fig. 3). This result likely is 141 because Pt- and Ir oxides are not stable under these experimental conditions. 142 Coexisting melt and fluid were probed in-situ while the samples were at the 143 temperatures and pressures of interest by using a JASCOTM model IMV4000 microFTIR 144 and with an NRS-3100 confocal microRaman spectrometer. Transmission infrared spectroscopy was conducted with 10X objective and condenser cassegraine lenses, 145 146 an MCT detector, CaF2 beam splitter and a halogen light source. It should be noted 147 that for the infrared absorption spectroscopy of melt globules in a matrix of silicate-148 saturated fluid, there often was some interference on spectra of melt from its 149 surrounding aqueous fluid. This interference was because the globule-diameter

150	frequently was less than the distance between the diamond culets (sample
151	thickness; 80-90 μm). When recording the absorption spectra under such
152	circumstances (as illustrated schematically in Fig. 2), the infrared beam will pass
153	through both melt and fluid during measurement. The absorption signal will,
154	therefore, comprise contributions from both melt and fluid.
155	Raman spectroscopic measurements were carried out with a 532 nm laser operating at
156	\sim 7 mW at the sample. Spectra were recorded through a 50X magnification/0.42 N.A.
157	long-working distance Mitutoyo™ objective lens. An Andor™ Model DV401-F1
158	$1024x128$ pixel (25 μ m pixel size) Peltier-cooled CCD was used for signal detection. The
159	spectrometer has a single monochromator, a holographic notch filter, and holographic
160	gratings with 600, 1200, and 2400 gratings/mm available for use. For the measurements,
161	600 gratings/mm were used, which results in a CCD energy window corresponding to \sim
162	3650 cm ⁻¹ . The frequency uncertainty with 600 gratings/mm is ± 3 -4 cm ⁻¹ . For the Raman
163	spectroscopic measurements of ¹³ C diamond used for pressure estimates, 2400
164	gratings/mm were employed with Ne emission lines used for internal frequency
165	calibration, which result in the frequency uncertainty is $\pm 0.1~\text{cm}^{-1}$ discussed in more
166	detail above. The diameter of the laser beam at the sample was $\sim 1~\mu\text{m}.$ The sample
167	excitation volume extends to 10-20 μm depth for transparent samples such as fluid and
168	melt. The Raman measurements do not suffer from the same interference issues that
169	affected the infrared absorption measurements because of the much smaller sample
170	volume probed with the Raman spectroscopy compared with FTIR absorption
171	spectroscopy,.

In each of the two pressure/temperature series of Raman and infrared measurements, the sample was first brought to the highest temperature (800°C) and corresponding pressure (1271 and 754 MPa for high-density and low density fluid, respectively; see below for further detail). Following Raman spectroscopic measurements of the carbon-13 diamond, of diamond in the diamond cell itself, of fluid, and of melt at this temperature (and pressure), the temperature was decreased at 1°C/s to successively lower temperatures and then kept for approximately an hour at each of the desired temperature and pressure conditions (Table 2) followed by the same sequence of spectroscopic measurements. The same sample was, therefore, used for all temperatures and pressures in each of the two series of Raman and infrared measurement. In order to remove the interference from the 2nd order diamond shift, Raman spectra of diamonds recorded at the same temperature as the spectra of samples, were subtracted from the spectra of fluids and melts. The infrared spectroscopic measurements were conducted subsequent to Raman measurements, and using the same sample and with the same temperature/pressure path as in the Raman spectroscopy. It was assumed that the pressures during the infrared measurements were the same as those during the Raman measurements. Absorption spectra of an empty cell after measurements were recorded at the same temperatures in

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Results

order to normalize out the effect of diamond absorption on the infrared spectra.

The temperature-dependent P/T paths of the two series of experiments with different fluid densities (termed low density and high density; Fig. 4, see also Table 2) were:

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$$P_{low density} = 573 - 2.29 \cdot T(^{\circ}C) + 0.00313 \cdot T^{2},$$
 (1a)

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$$P_{high density} = 24 + 0.999 \bullet T(^{\circ}C) + 0.000671 \bullet T^{2}.$$
 (1b)

The pressure/temperature relations calculated with the assumption that the fluid density in the experiments can be modeled with that of pure H₂O (Wagner and Pruss, 2002) are also shown in Fig. 4. There is difference between the trajectories derived with this method compared with that from the one-phonon shift of carbon-13 diamond (Fig. 4) exists because silicate components are dissolved in the fluid (Manning, 1994; Newton and Manning, 2008). These solutes affect PVT properties of the aqueous fluid (Mysen, 2010). Furthermore, PVT properties of D₂O fluid as compared with pure H₂O (Bazaev et al., 2003) might also contribute to the difference pressure/temperature trajectories.

Under the conditions investigated, the temperatures exceed that of the glass transition because dissolved water depresses this temperature by several hundred degrees (Duebner et al., 2003; Del Gaudio et al., 2007). Above the glass transition temperature (but not necessarily above the liquidus temperature), the supercooled melt behaves structurally and thermodynamically as a melt (the material is

216 energetically relaxed). This is not the case for a glass, which is not relaxed (e.g., 217 Moynihan et al., 1976; Scherer, 1986). It follows that the data reported here are 218 quantitatively applicable to those of a melt above its liquidus temperature. 219 220 Raman Spectra. Information on the nature of the aluminosilicate bonding environment (structure) 221 222 was derived from interpretation of the spectra in the low-frequency range, 200-223 1200 cm⁻¹. The D₂O and H₂O environments were probed with spectra in the high-224 frequency range between about 2500 and 3800 cm⁻¹. 225 In the low-frequency range, the Raman spectra of hydrous melts 226 characteristically have broad bands in the 300-600 cm⁻¹ and 800-1200 cm⁻¹ 227 frequency ranges (Fig. 4). This topology remains at all temperatures and pressures 228 under study here. These features are typical of alkali aluminosilicate glass and melt 229 spectra whether these materials are anhydrous or hydrous (e.g., McMillan et al., 230 1992; Mysen, 2007; Malfait et al., 2007). 231 With increasing temperature and pressure, there is intensity growth centered near 500 and 850 cm-1 (marked "a" and "b", respectively, in Fig. 5). The 232 233 intensity near 500 cm-1 is assigned to bending and rocking (Si, Al)-O vibrations in 234 depolymerized structural units. The abundance of these structural units increases, 235 therefore, with increasing temperature and pressure (which also results in 236 increasing water solubility in silicate melts; see McMillan, 1994, for review). The intensity, "b" (Fig. 5), likely could be assigned to Si-OH stretching (near 970 cm⁻¹; 237

e.g. Stolen and Walrafen, 1976), Si-OD stretching (near 900 cm-1; McMillan et al., 239 1993), and Si-O-stretching in Q² species (near 950 cm⁻¹; Mysen, 2007). 240 The low-frequency range in Raman spectra of silicate-saturated fluid differs 241 from the spectra of hydrous melts in that its dominant intensity is near 770 cm-1 242 instead of the lower- and higher-frequency intensity maxima in the spectra of hydrous melts (Figs. 5 and 6). This frequency is identical to that in spectra of fluids 243 244 in Al-free silicate systems (Zotov and Keppler, 2002; Mysen, 2009). In the spectra of 245 low-density fluid, the 770 cm-1 band is the only discernible Raman signal (Fig. 6A), 246 whereas in the spectra of high-density fluid (where the pressure at given 247 temperature is twice or more than that of low-density fluid; Table 2) there is 248 intensity growth near 600 cm-1 (marked "a" in Fig. 6B). At the highest 249 temperatures and pressures there is also a shoulder on the high-frequency side of the 770 cm⁻¹ band (marked "b" in Fig. 6B). 250 251 The 770 cm⁻¹ band (Fig. 6) in Raman spectra of silicate-saturated aqueous fluids 252 is assigned to Si-O stretching in Q0 units (e.g., Zotov and Keppler, 2002; Mibe et al., 253 2008). In the low-density fluid, the only detectable silicate species is, therefore, Qo 254 (isolated SiO₄ tetrahedra). In the high-density fluids, on the other hand, the 255 additional Raman intensity on the low- and high-frequency side of the 770 cm-1 256 band is because more polymerized structural units of silicate in the high-density fluid. The shoulder near 820-830 cm-1 ("b" in Fig. 6B) is assigned to Si-O-257 stretching in Q1-species and the intensity maximum marked "a" in Fig. 5b most 258 259 likely is due to Si-O-Si bending motion of the same species (e.g., Zotov and Keppler. 260 2002; Mibe et al., 2008).

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261 In the high-frequency range, the Raman spectra are dominated by intensity envelopes in the 2500-2700 cm⁻¹ and 3200-3700 cm⁻¹ ranges, respectively (shown with gradient fill and light gray fill in Fig. 7). The envelope between 3200 and 3700 cm-1 is a comparatively featureless broad asymmetric band that evolves toward a single, symmetric band with increasing temperature (and pressure). This evolution is similar to that in spectra of aqueous fluids and hydrous melts in other systems (Kohl et al., 1991; Frantz et al., 1993; Kawamoto, 2004). The bands that comprise this intensity envelope are assigned to OH vibrations in molecular H₂O and in HDO (c) and to OH vibrations in OH-groups that are bonded to metal cations (i. e., Si⁴⁺, Al³⁺, and perhaps Na⁺; Mysen and Virgo, 1986; Cody et al., 2005). The temperature-dependent evolution of this intensity envelope toward a single symmetric band reflects diminishing extent of hydrogen bonding with increasing temperature (Walrafen et al., 1986; Frantz et al., 1993; Foustoukos and Mysen, 2012). The 2500-2800 cm⁻¹ intensity envelope comprises bands that are assigned to 0 ··· D vibrations in molecular D2O and HDO, and in OD groups bonded to metal cations (see, for example, Walrafen, 1971; Max and Chapados, 2002; Foustoukos and Mysen, 2012). There is considerably more topological variation in this intensity envelope than in the higher-frequency envelope comprising O...H vibrations (Fig. 7). The two highest-frequency bands, near 2650 and 2550 cm⁻¹, respectively, are assigned to OD groups that form bonding with Si⁴⁺ and Al³⁺ (Walrafen, 1971; Max and Chapados, 2002). There is, in addition, a third band near 2450 cm⁻¹, which is more intense in spectra of melts than in spectra of fluids (marked "b" in the examples in Fig. 7). It is possible that

this band can be assigned to OD stretching in OD groups bonded to Na⁺. The relative intensities of these groups of bands differ in the spectra of melts and fluids (Fig. 7).

Finally, there are two bands (at 2910 and 2970 cm⁻¹) observed in all spectra of fluid, but that are not seen in spectra of melts (marked "a" in Fig. 7). There are several possible assignments of these bands. This frequency range is, for example, that where bands assignable to C... H stretching in organic functional groups (e.g., Socrates, 2001). It is also where D.D vibrations in D₂ would occur (e.g., Veirs and Rosenblatt, 1987; Socrates, 2001). However, the assignment to D2 is highly unlikely because there is no evidence of H₂ (dominant Raman bands near 4150 cm⁻¹) or HD (sharp band near 3620 cm^{-1} ; Williams et al., 2002). The first alternative implies interaction of the H_2O+D_2O fluid with carbon in the sample area. For example, it could be a reaction between H₂O and carbon in the diamond of the HDAC to form CH₄ (Chou and Anderson, 2009). Another possible source of the carbon is incomplete removal of a residue of organic solvents from cleaning of gaskets after polishing. Whatever the source of carbon, the band near 2900 cm⁻¹ could be assigned to C-H stretching in CH₄ or methyl (CH₃) groups and the 2960 cm⁻¹ band to C-H stretching in CH_xD_y isotopologues (Foustoukos and Mysen, 2013). The latter isotopologues were then formed by interaction with deuterium in the D₂O.

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Infrared Absorption Spectra

Infrared absorption spectra were recorded between 2000 and 7800 cm⁻¹. The two dominant regions are centered near 2600 and 3500 cm⁻¹ (gradient-filled and gray

fill, respectively; see Fig. 8). In addition, there are much weaker bands near 4500, 5200 and, sometimes, 7000 cm⁻¹ (see inserts, Fig. 8).

The principal contribution to the 2600 cm⁻¹ maximum is absorption by OD groups in molecular D₂O and from OD-groups forming bonds with metal cations (Bukka et al., 1992; Martra et al., 2001). The equivalent OH absorptions result in the other main peak centered near 3500 cm⁻¹ (e.g., Stone and Walrafen, 1982). In addition, possible combination bands of OD/SiOD and OD/SiOH, computed by linear combination of the OD fundamental stretching at 2600 cm⁻¹, SiOH near 970 and SiOD near 900 cm⁻¹, can result in absorption bands in the 3500-3600 cm⁻¹ frequency region of the infrared spectra (see also Stone and Walrafen, 1982). If present, the intensity contributions from these peaks cannot be isolated quantitatively from the intensity assigned to fundamental OH stretch. It is proposed, for example, that the peak marked "b" could contain this contribution (Fig. 8).

The much weaker bands near 4500 and 5000 cm $^{-1}$ (Fig. 8) commonly are interpreted to be combination bands involving OH-groups and H₂O, respectively (e.g., Stolper, 1982; Behrens and Nowak, 2003). It is possible, however, that a peak marked "a" in the inserts in Fig. 8 could be the first overtone of molecular D₂O (Walrafen et al., 1996). That notwithstanding, the much grater OH/H₂O ratio in hydrous melts as compared with coexisting, silicate-saturated aqueous fluid is visually evident (Fig. 8).

Discussion

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327 Water and heavy water exist in melts and fluids in the form of OH and OD groups that form bonds with silicate components and as molecular H₂O (shown with the symbol H₂Oo here) and molecular D₂O (shown as D₂Oo). The Raman scattering and infrared absorption from these two groups of species may be used to extract D and H partitioning between fluids and melts. To this end, the ratios of integrated area of the intensity envelopes near 2600 cm⁻¹ and 3500 cm⁻¹ in the Raman and FTIR spectra (Figs. 7 and 8), assigned to vibration of OD- and OH-bearing species, whether bonded to metal cations or protons, respectively, can be used as a measure of concentration ratios of OD- and OH-containing species, respectively, provided that the force constants of OD and OH stretching are the same. Mysen (2013) concluded that this is so, which means that these force constants cancel out and, therefore, the ratio of integrated areas equals the abundance ratio of deuterated and pronated species. These concentration ratios are equivalent to total D and H concentration ratios in the samples because there is no evidence for other H- or D-bearing species. Therefore, it follows from the Raman spectra;

$$D/H = X_{OD+(D2O)}^{o}/X_{OH+(H2O)}^{o} = A_{OD}/A_{OH}.$$
 (2)

In eqn. (2), $X_{OD+(D2O)^0}$ and $X_{OH+(H2O)^0}$ are the sum of concentrations of structurally bound OD and molecular D_2O and OH and molecular H_2O . The A_{OD} and A_{OH} are the integrated areas of Raman frequencies centered near 2600 and 3500 cm-1, respectively (Fig. 8). In equation (2), it is assumed that the force constants for OD and OH stretching are the same in all environments so that the ratio of integrated areas,

350	A _{OD} /A _{OH} , equals the abundance ratio, X _{OD+(D2O)} o/X _{OH+(H2O)} o. Mysen (2013) found this		
351	assumption accurate within the error of the data (~5 %) by measuring the ratios of		
352	integrated areas, A_{0D}/A_{OH} , for supercritical fluids with known $X_{0D+(D20)}^{o}/X_{OH+(H20)}^{o}$.		
353	The deuterium and proton partition coefficients between fluid and melt derived		
354	from the Raman spectra are;		
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356	$K_D^{\text{fluid/melt}} = X_{\text{OD+(D2O)}^{\text{o} \text{ fluid}}} / X_{\text{OD+(D2O)}^{\text{o} \text{ melt}}} = A_{\text{OD}}^{\text{fluid}} / A_{\text{OD}}^{\text{melt}}, \tag{3a}$		
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358	and		
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360	$K_{H}^{\text{fluid/melt}} = X_{\text{OH+(H2O)}}^{\text{o fluid}} / X_{\text{OH+(H2O)}}^{\text{o melt}} = A_{\text{OH}}^{\text{fluid}} / A_{\text{OH}}^{\text{melt}}. $ (3b)		
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362	No additional assumptions are needed.		
363	For infrared absorption spectra, molecular weights of D_2O and H_2O and density		

For infrared absorption spectra, molecular weights of D_2O and H_2O and density of fluid and melt must be integrated into the calculations. By using the Beer-Lambert law simply to describe a relationship between total H_2O and D_2O and the absorption intensities, the (D/H)-ratio from the FTIR absorption spectra is;

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$$(D/H) = X_{OD+(D20)}^{\circ}/X_{OH+(H20)}^{\circ} = (A_{OD}/A_{OH}) \cdot 20.02/18.02,$$
 (4)

370 where 20.02 and 18.02 are molecular weights of D_2O and H_2O , respectively. The fluid/melt partition coefficients are;

$$373 \qquad K_D^{\text{fluid/melt}} = X_{OD+(D2O)}^{\circ \text{ fluid}} / X_{OD+(D2O)}^{\circ \text{ melt}} = (A_{OD}^{\text{fluid}} / A_{OD}^{\text{melt}}) \bullet (d^{\text{melt}} / d^{\text{fluid}}), \tag{5a}$$

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$$K_{H}^{\text{fluid/melt}} = X_{OH+(H2O)}^{\text{o fluid}} / X_{OH+(H2O)}^{\text{o melt}} = A_{OH}^{\text{fluid}} / A_{OH}^{\text{melt}} \cdot (d^{\text{fluid}}), \tag{5b}$$

where d^{melt} and d^{fluid}, are the density of melt and fluid, respectively.

In equations (4) and (5), it is assumed that the molar absorption coefficients for total H_2O and total D_2O do not vary with concentration of water and heavy water, respectively, and that their values are equal so that these cancel out in eqns. (4) and (5). The ratio of structurally bound OH-groups to molecular water, OH/H_2O° , in melts is insensitive to total H_2O at concentration higher than 5-6 wt% (Dixon and Stolper, 1995; Zotov and Keppler, 1998). The water solubility in the present melts is not known with precision. However, by using the empirical water solubility model of Moore et al. (1998), an H_2O content ≥ 5 wt% in these melts is approximately correct for the lowest temperature and pressure and increases with increasing temperature and pressure. The OH/H_2O° ratio, therefore, is not expected to vary much in the temperature and pressure ranges studied. Less is known about the behavior of heavy water. It is assumed, therefore, that the D_2O solubility and the OD/D_2O° ratio are similar to those of H_2O .

The density of fluid and melt is also needed in equation (5). Fluid density was derived from the intersection of a fluid isochore with the fluid+vapor univariant curve and using the PVT data of pure H₂O to determine the corresponding density

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396 (Wagner and Pruss, 2002). It is assumed, therefore, that the density of a silicate-397 saturated mixed H₂O+D₂O fluid can be modeled with the properties of pure H₂O. 398 This assumption leads to a density uncertainty. This uncertainty increases with 399 increasing temperature and pressure and may be as high as 10 % at the highest temperatures and pressures because of the increased silicate solubility in aqueous fluids with increasing temperature and pressure (see Mysen, 2010). These differences from the PVT behavior of pure H2O are also reflected the different pressure/temperature trajectories in Fig. 4. The density of coexisting water-saturated hydrous melt is also temperature- and pressure-dependent. This is in part because of temperature- and pressuredependent thermal expansion and compressibility and in part because the solubility of water in melts increases with increasing pressure. By using the partial molar volumes of oxides in silicate melts from Lange (1994), water solubility estimates from Moore et al. (1998), and a partial molar volume of H₂O of 12 cm³/mol (Richet et al., 2000), the melt density is 2.2±0.2 g/cm³ in the pressure/temperature range of the experiments. This value was used in equation (5). The fluid/melt partition coefficient, KHfluid/melt, differs from that of KDfluid/melt at all temperatures, pressures, and fluid densities (Figs. 9 and 10). The ΔH-value, obtained from the slope of the relationships between $\ln K_H^{fluid/melt} vs. 1/T$ and $\ln K_D^{fluid/melt} vs.$ 1/T (Figs. 9 and 10), is essentially the same whether from Raman or FTIR data (Table 3). We note, however, that the curves for the FTIR spectra are offset to higher partition coefficient values compared with those determined from the Raman spectra (Figs. 9 and 10). This offset could be because of too high melt density or too

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low fluid density when calculating the K_D and K_H-values with equation (5). An error of 20-25% in the fluid/melt density ratio is necessary to reach agreement between the partition coefficients from the two different spectroscopic measurements. This is larger than the error introduced by the uncertainty in the density estimates. It is likely, therefore, that at least a portion of the difference is because there are contributions other than OD and OH stretch vibrations to each of the two main absorption envelopes at 2600 and 3500 cm⁻¹. The ΔH for the D₂O partitioning is about twice that of H₂O, which may suggest partial molar volume differences between H2O and D2O in melt and fluid (partial molar volume of H₂O and D₂O in aqueous brines do indeed differ, see for example: Trevani et al., 2007) because pressure increases with temperature in these experiments. A volume effect might contribute to the slightly different ΔH-values in the two experimental series with different fluid density (Figs. 4, 9, 10; Table 3). With different partial molar volumes of D₂O and H₂O in melts and fluids, their pressure derivatives likely also are different. Therefore, the volume difference, $\Delta V^{fluid-melt}$, for H₂O and D₂O are not the same and the difference is pressure-dependent. The different ΔH -values may also be due to variations in silicate, water, and heavy water speciation in melts and fluids, or contributions from all these factors. It follows from the temperature-dependent $K_D^{fluid/melt}$ and $K_H^{fluid/melt}$ that $(D/H)^{fluid}$ and (D/H)^{melt} are also temperature (and pressure dependent; see Fig. 11). However, the behavior differs for melt and fluid with (D/H)^{fluid} decreasing with increasing temperature, whereas for (D/H)^{melt}, the temperature correlation is positive (Fig. 11). The slope from the high-density FTIR data yields a Δ H-value in the same range as that obtained with the

Raman data, but the error is very large because of the data scatter (see above for discussion of this). The ΔH derived from the temperature relationships of (D/H)^{fluid} is slightly greater for the low-density than for high-density fluid (Fig. 11A; Table 3). This difference likely is because in the low-density fluid, the only silicate-species is Q^0 over the entire temperature and pressure range, whereas for the high-density fluid, additional Q-species are formed at the high-density fluid experiments by Mysen (2013) (see also Fig. 4). In contrast, the (D/H)^{melt} increases with increasing temperature (Fig. 11B) with the ΔH of $(D/H)^{melt}$ slightly less temperature-dependent in the experiments where melt coexists with low-density fluid than when with high-density fluid (Table 3). Because the pressure/temperature trajectories of the two experimental series experiments differ, so does the solubility of water in the melt. That, in turn, causes changes in abundance trajectories of Q-species along the different pressure/temperature paths, which, in turn, appear to change the details of how water and heavy water interact with the silicate melt.

The D/H exchange equilibrium constant, $K_{D/H}^{\text{fluid/mell}}$, for,

$$H_2O(\text{melt}) + D_2O(\text{fluid}) = D_2O(\text{melt}) + H_2O(\text{fluid}),$$
 (6)

where H₂O and D₂O denote total water and heavy water concentration. The equilibrium constant,

$$K_{D/H}^{\text{fluid/melt}} = X_{D2O}^{\text{melt}} \cdot X_{H2O}^{\text{fluid}} / X_{H2O}^{\text{melt}} \cdot X_{D2O}^{\text{fluid}} = (D/H)^{\text{melt}} / (D/H)^{\text{fluid}},$$
(7)

is shown as a function of temperature (and pressure) in Fig. 12. Here the mol fractions represent the sum of water and heavy water dissolved in fluids and melts both as OH and OD groups bonded to silicate components and as molecular H_2O° and D_2O° .

The (D/H) partitioning relationships (Fig. 12) may be partly because the composition and structure of fluid and melt are temperature and pressure-dependent and, therefore, so is the (D/H)^{fluid} and (D/H)^{melt}. In addition, the pressure increase will affect the (D/H)-partitioning in part because, in analogy with D-substituted Mg(OH)₂ (Horita et al., 2010), the compressibility and density of D₂O-bearing melt differs from those of H₂O-bearing melt and fluid. In addition, the speciation and abundance of silicate solute in fluid is temperature- and pressure-dependent, which can cause D/H fractionation to vary. The contribution from fluid is silicate concentration dependent, so the higher the fluid density, the more of an influence from the silicate components in aqueous fluid is likely. The resulting difference in D/H fractionation factors is the underlying cause for the temperature/pressure dependence.

The D/H partitioning data reported here and elsewhere (Wang et al., 2011; Mysen, 2013) were obtained in compositionally relatively simple aluminosilicate systems and cannot, therefore, be applied quantitatively to characterization of natural processes. However, the principles that relate silicate speciation in fluids and melts to D/H fractionation are the same whether in chemically simple systems such as studied here or in chemically more complex systems such as those of magmatic liquids and hydrothermal fluids in the crust and the mantle of the Earth.

Acknowledgments

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675 Table 1. Procedure to calculate NBO/T of a melt[†] 676 677 1. Convert chemical analysis to atomic proportions 2. (a) Establish proportion of tetrahedrally-coordinated cations (T-cations) 678 679 (b) At pressures below those where pressure-induced coordination changes occur, the main three T-cations are Si4+, Al3+, and P5+. Under certain 680 circumstances, Fe3+ and Ti4+ may also exist in tetrahedral coordination in 681 682 silicate melts. † 683 3. Note that T-cations are assigned a formal charge of 4+. This is accomplished 684 charge-balance with alkalis or alkaline earths conceptually similar to charge-685 balance of tetrahedrally-coordinated cations in crystal chemistry. 686 4 The NBO/T is calculated by electrical charge-balance in which T-cations are 687 assigned a formal charge of 4 and oxygen a formal charge of 2-. With X_T and 688 X₀ their proportions from the chemical analysis, the NBO/T of a melt is: 689 690 691 $NBO = (2 \cdot X_0 - 4 \cdot X_T) / X_T$ 692 693

[†] This procedure can only be used provided that melt/glass structural information is available with which to assign cations to tetrahedral coordination.

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697	Table 2. Run data					
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699		Low-density	$y (0.67 \text{ g/cm}^3)^{\#}$			
700	Temp., °C	Press., MPa**	Time, min [†]	Phases	Raman	FTIR
701	425*	156	N.A.	Melt+Fluid	$\mathbf{x}^{\dagger\dagger}$	o##
702	500	231	65	Melt+Fluid	x	0
703	575	285	70	Melt+Fluid	x	0
704	650	405	65	Melt+Fluid	x	x
705	725	561	75	Melt+Fluid	x	x
706	800	754	60	Melt+Fluid	x	0
707						
708		High-density	$(0.81 \text{ g/cm}^3)^{\#}$			
709	25	0.1	N.A.	Glass+Fluid	x	X
710	425	562	70	Melt+Fluid	x	X
711	500	682	75	Melt+Fluid	X	x
712	575	876	80	Melt+Fluid	X	X
713	650	922	75	Melt+Fluid	x	x
714	725	1079	60	Melt+Fluid	x	x
715	800	1271	65	Melt+Fluid	x	X
716						

[#] Density is calculated assuming PVT properties of the fluid are the same as pure H₂O (from Wagner and Pruss, 2002).

FTIR spectrum recorded, but melt spectra show clear strong influence of absorption from surrounding aqueous fluid (see text and Fig. 2 for additional details)

* Raman spectrum of ¹³C diamond was also recorded at room temperature (25°C)

Uncertainty, which incorporates both the fitting errors of the pressure calibration of the 13 C Raman shift (Mysen and Yamashita, 2010) and frequency error in the Raman shift, is ~ 100 MPa. However, precision which incorporates only the frequency error in the Raman shift is ~ 40 MPa.

[†] Time between attaining the temperature (and pressure) and beginning of recording of spectrum of fluid (which was always recorded before melt).

† Analyses carried out.

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732	Table 3. Enthalpy values from temperature-dependent partitioning (Figs. 8-11)					
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734	Partition	Experiment	ΔH, kJ/mol	Partition	Experiment ΔH, kJ/mol	
735	coefficien	t		coefficient	214	
736						
737	KH fluid/melt	Raman: low-density	-7.6 ± 0.7	(D/H) ^{melt}	Raman: low-density 0.8±1.3	
738	Kufluid/melt	Raman: high-density	-5.4 ± 1.0	(D/H) ^{melt}	Raman: high-density 4.0±0.8	
739	K r fluid/melt	FTIR: high-density	-5.1±0.9	(D/H) ^{melt}	FTIR: high-density 1.8±2.4	ĺ
740	K _H fluid/melt	Mysen (2013) [†]	-8.1±3.6	(D/H) ^{melt}	Mysen $(2013)^{\dagger}$ 2.8±0.9	
741				A 12-14	•	
742	KD_fluid/melt	Raman: low-density	-11.9±0.5	K _{H/D} fluid/melt	Raman: low-density -4.2±0.6	
743	K _ fluid/melt	Daman high density	-9.7±1.4	K _{H/D} maid men	Raman: high-density 5.4±0.7	
744	K _ fluid/melt	ETID: high density	-9.3±0.8	K _{H/D} nutd/men	FTIR: high-density -4.8±0.3	
745	K _D fluid/melt	Mysen (2013) [†]	-10.1±2.2	K _{H/D} fluid/melt	Mysen $(2013)^{\dagger}$ -6.4±1.4	
746						
747	(D/H)fluid	Raman: low-density	-3.2±0.5			
748	(D/H)fluid	Raman: high-density	-1.4 ± 0.8			
749	(D/H)fluid	FTIR: high-density	-3.0±3.7			
750	(D/H)fluid	Mysen (2013) [†]	-2.0±2.6			
751						
752 753	† Fluid de	nsity from Mysen (201)	3): 0.86 g/cm ³	1		

Figure Captions

- Figure 1 Microphotograph of sample, from high-density fluid experiment, at 800°C and 1271 MPa.
- Figure 2 Schematic representation of infrared beam path through sample in diamond anvil cell with melt globule diameter less than the distance between upper and lower diamond of the diamond anvil cell.
 - Figure 3 Eaman spectra of H₂O, recorded in-situ in the HDAC at temperatures and pressures indicated on individual spectra. Micron-sized pieces of Pt was loaded together with the H₂O. The sample was contained in an Ir gasket similar to that used in the other experiments. The H₂O density and pressures at different temperatures were calculated from the PVT data of H₂O (Wagner and Pruss, 2002).
 - Figure 4 Pressure/temperature trajectories of the two series of experiments (low- and high-density fluid) with pressure a function of temperature as seen in equations (1a) and (1b). Also shown (dashed lines) is the pressure/temperature trajectory of the experimental series in Mysen (2013). The sharp peak near 900 cm⁻¹ in the spectrum of fluid at 425°C/156 MPa is from the CCD response to cosmic rays.
 - Figure 5 –Examples of Raman spectra of melts in the low-frequency region at temperature and pressure indicated on individual spectra. The sharp peak near 350 cm⁻¹ in the spectrum of fluid at 800°C/1271 MPa is from the CCD response to cosmic rays.
 - Figure 6 A. Examples of Raman spectra of silicate-saturated (D₂O+H₂O) low-density fluid at temperature and pressure indicated on individual spectra. B. Same as A except from high-density fluid. The sharp peak near 3350 cm⁻¹ in the spectrum of melt at 425°C/156 MPa is from the CCD response to cosmic rays.
 - Figure 7 Examples of Raman spectra of coexisting water-saturated melt and silicatesaturated fluid from low-density experimemnts at temperatures and pressures indicated on individual spectra.
 - Figure 8 Examples of FTIR absorption spectra of coexisting water-saturated melt and silicate-saturated fluid from high-density experiments at temperatures and pressures indicated on individual spectra.
 - Figure 9 Fluid/melt partition coefficient for hydrogen, measured as total H₂O, K_H^{fluid/melt}, as a function of temperature and pressure (as indicated). The pressure scales were calculated from equations (1a) and (1b) based on the Raman shift of ¹³C diamond (Fig. 4). Error bars reflect progression of errors from calculating the areas of the integrated Raman intensity assigned to OH-stretching in H₂O in the 3000-3700 cm⁻¹ frequency range.
 - Figure 10 Fluid/melt partition coefficient for deuterium, measured as total D₂O, K_D fluid/melt, as a function of temperature and pressure (as indicated). The pressure scales were calculated from equations (1a) and (1b) based on the Raman shift of ¹³C diamond (Fig. 4). Error bars reflect progression of errors from calculating the areas of the integrated Raman intensity assigned to OD-stretching in D₂O in the 2100-2800 cm⁻¹ frequency range.
- Figure 11 A. D/H fractionation factors for fluid, (D/H)^{fluid}, based on the OD/OH ratio derived from the Raman and FTIR spectra (as indicated) as a function of temperature.

 B. D/H fractionation factors for coexisting melt, (D/H)^{melt}, based on the OD/OH ratio derived from the Raman and FTIR spectra (as indicated) as a function of temperature.

799	The pressure scales were calculated from equations (1a) and (1b) based on the Raman
800	shift of ¹³ C diamond (Fig. 4). Error bars reflect progression of errors from calculating
801	the areas of the integrated Raman and FTIR absorption intensity assigned to OD-
802	stretching in D ₂ O and OH in H ₂ O in Raman and FTIR spectra.
803	Figure 12 – Exchange equilibrium coefficient for coexisting fluid and melt, K _{D/H} ^{fluid/melt} ,
804	as a function of temperature and pressure for experimental series indicated. The
805	pressure scales were calculated from equations (1a) and (1b) based on the Raman shift
806	of ¹³ C diamond (Fig. 4). Error bars reflect progression of errors from calculating the
807	areas of the integrated Raman and FTIR absorption intensity assigned to OD-stretching
808	in D ₂ O and OH in H ₂ O in Raman and FTIR spectra from melts and fludis.
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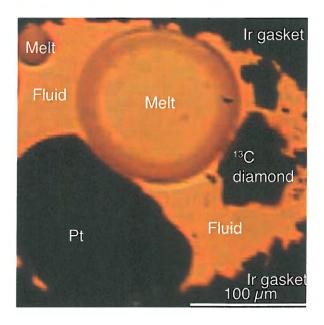
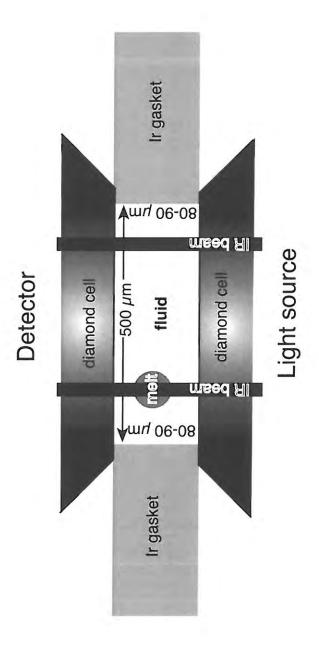


Fig. 1 (4449R1)





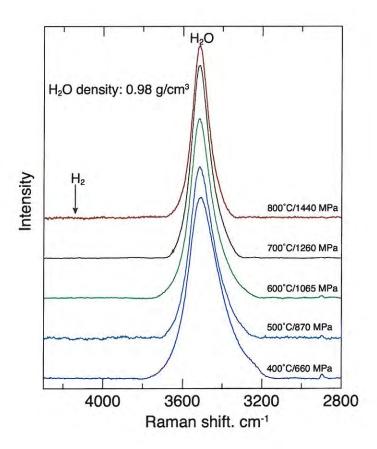


Fig. 3(4449R1)

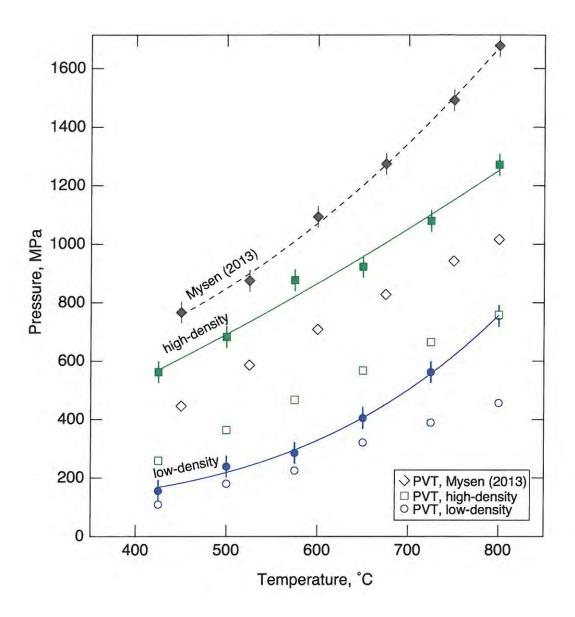
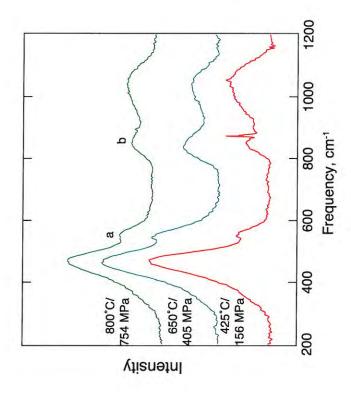
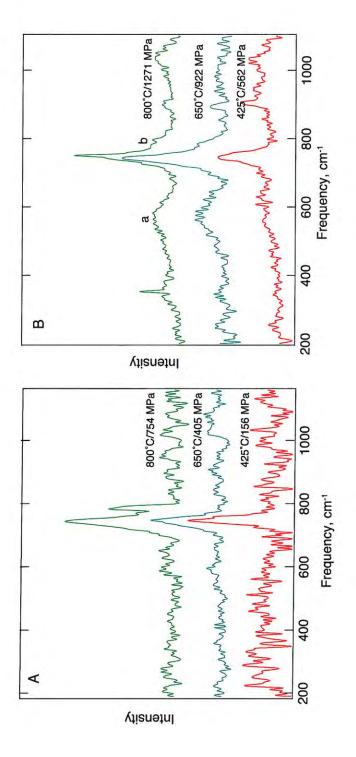


Fig. 4 (4449R1)







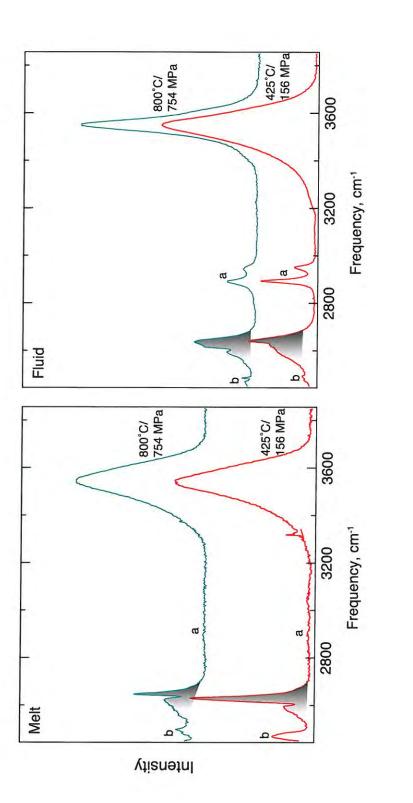


Fig. 7(4449R1

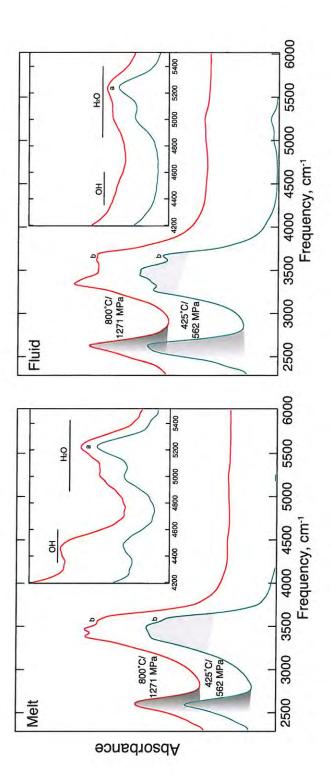


Fig. 8 (4449R1)

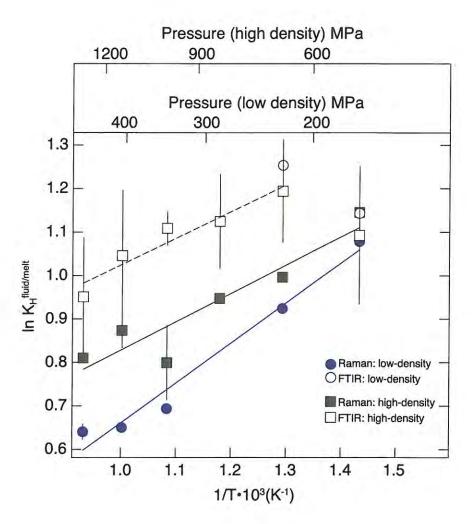


Fig. 9 (4449R1)

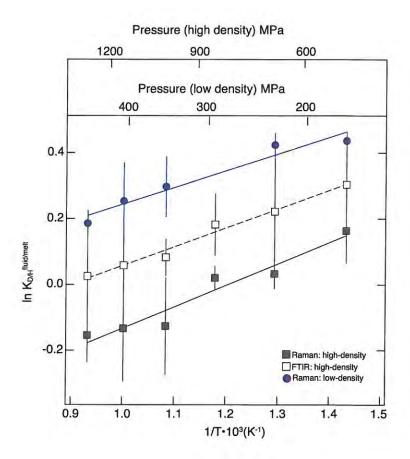


Fig. 12 (4449R1)