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1	Accurate predictions of iron redox state in silicate glasses: A multivariate approach using
2	x-ray absorption spectroscopy
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11	REVISION 1
12	
13	Abstract
14	Pre-edge features in the K absorption edge of x-ray absorption spectra are commonly
15	used to predict Fe ³⁺ valence state in silicate glasses. However, this study shows that using the
16	entire spectral region from the pre-edge into the extended x-ray absorption fine structure region
17	provides more accurate results when combined with multivariate analysis techniques. The least
18	<u>a</u> bsolute <u>shrinkage</u> and <u>selection</u> <u>operator</u> (lasso) regression technique yields %Fe ³⁺ values that
19	are accurate to $\pm 3.6\%$ absolute when the full spectral region is employed. This method can be
20	used across a broad range of glass compositions, is easily automated, and is demonstrated to
21	yield accurate results from different synchrotrons. It will enable future studies involving x-ray
22	mapping of redox gradients on standard thin sections at $1 \times 1 \ \mu m$ pixel sizes.
23	INTRODUCTION

It has long been a goal of geoscientists to develop a robust method for microanalysis of iron redox states, and decades of development in the synchrotron x-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) community have worked toward this goal. Glasses are of particular interest because of the direct relationship between $Fe^{3+}/\Sigma Fe$ and the intrinsic oxygen fugacity (f_{O2}) of the melt, and the fact that glasses may record the oxidation state of their magma source region and, possibly, the additional effects of magma interaction with the near surface environment.

The geological community is especially interested in using XAS to quantify Fe redox 30 states in magmatic and volcanic glasses of varying compositions. Berry et al. (2003) laid the 31 32 framework for many subsequent studies by using XAS spectra of synthetic silicate glasses with independently-measured $Fe^{3+}/\Sigma Fe$ ratios to calculate Fe^{3+} from peak area-normalized centroids in 33 the pre-edge region. Subsequent workers (e.g., Wilke et al. 2005, Cottrell et al. 2009, Lühl et al. 34 35 2014) also used internal standards to predict redox in glasses. These studies made incremental 36 progress toward development of a more generalized approach because they used only small 37 numbers of standards, so their results were applicable to only limited compositional ranges. They 38 also focused only on the pre-edge portion of the Fe K absorption edge.

The challenge now at hand is to improve upon all prior approaches to Fe redox state 39 determinations by exploiting information contained in the entire XAS spectrum, potentially 40 41 extending into the EXAFS region. For example, Berry et al. (2010) suggest several empirical alternative approaches to calibration of garnet XANES spectra. They report that the average 42 centroid energy of garnet pre-edges is relatively insensitive to $Fe^{3+}/\Sigma Fe$, and propose two 43 alternative approaches to $Fe^{3+}/\Sigma Fe$ prediction. The first is to use the main absorption edge energy 44 at an arbitrary normalized intensity value of 0.9, and the second employs the ratio of spectral 45 46 intensities at 7138.4 and 7161.7 eV. This work shows that valuable information is encoded in the

47 main edge and low-energy EXAFS regions.

48 Most recently, Dyar et al. (2012) demonstrated that a multivariate analysis method (partial last squares regression, or PLS) employing the full XAS spectra resulted in dramatic 49 improvements in the accuracy of predicting $Fe^{3+}/\Sigma Fe$ in garnets. Results showed that PLS 50 analysis of the entire XANES spectral region yields significantly better predictions of Fe^{3+} in 51 garnets, with both robustness and generalizability, than approaches based solely on pre-edges. 52 Moreover, their PLS coefficients and loadings clearly demonstrate that the vast majority of the 53 useful information in the XANES spectra for predicting $Fe^{3+}/\Sigma Fe$ in garnets is found in channels 54 at the main edge and higher. The current study tests the broader applicability of this result on a 55 system of great interest to geoscientists: silicate glasses. 56 This study seeks to overcome the limitations of the previous studies of $Fe^{3+}/\Sigma Fe$ by using 57 372 spectra from 60 different bulk glass compositions and comparing information found in the 58 pre-edge region to that in the broader energy range covering the Fe K edge from 7100-7220 eV. 59 We describe a robust model with well-justified error bars that allows determination of $Fe^{3+}/\Sigma Fe$ 60 61 over a wide range of silicate glass compositions. Software available from the authors allows this 62 calibration to be used on data from any synchrotron that outputs data in the ubiquitous $\chi\mu$ (*.xmu) standard format as output by the ATHENA program (Ravel and Newville 2005). 63 **SAMPLES STUDIED** 64 Compositions of synthetic glass samples studied are shown in Figure 1 on a plot of total 65

alkalis vs. SiO₂ and as-run compositions are provided in Table 1^1 . Starting compositions were

¹Deposit item AM-15-xxxx, Table 1. Deposit items are available two ways: For a paper copy, contact the Business Office of the Mineralogical Society of America (see inside front cover of recent issue for price information). For an electronic copy visit the MSA web site at http://www.minsocam.org, go to The American Mineralogist Contents, find the table of contents for the specific volume/issue wanted, and then click on the deposit link there.

67 produced by weighing out appropriate amounts of Alfa Aesar Puratronic oxide and carbonate 68 powders, grinding the mixtures by hand in an agate mortar under ethanol for one hour, and decarbonating (if carbonates were present) at 800°C for 2 hours. Oxide mixes were used directly 69 in the low-SiO₂ experiments without a glassing step. A mixture of sample powder (~100 mg) and 70 71 polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) was used to adhere the sample to the wire loop. High-SiO₂ runs were first glassed at the appropriate f_{O2} and the resulting glass was placed on a wire loop (without 72 73 PVA) and rerun to ensure homogeneity and lack of bubbles.

Equilibration experiments were run in a vertical 1-atm gas mixing furnace at Tufts 74 University using the Pt (or Re) wire-loop technique. Re loops were used for low f_{02} runs ($f_{02} <$ 75 QFM [quartz-fayalite-magnetite]). Re wire was used as Fe solubility in the Re is low under the 76 conditions of these experiments (Borisov and Jones 1999). Pt-loops were pre-doped using 77 powders of the identical starting composition for 6 hours at T_{max} and the f_{O2} intended for the 78 79 experiment. Glassy material was dissolved off the Pt-loop using a 50:50 mixture of heated HF and HNO₃ and the loop was then used for an experiment. These procedures were followed to 80 81 reduce but, generally, not eliminate Fe losses to the wire during an experiment. A majority of the 82 samples were equilibrated in multiple f_{O2} 's including air, CO₂, and at QFM and IW/Mo-MoO₂ buffers to vary the resulting Fe³⁺ contents. 83

In addition to those samples, we were fortunate to obtain probe mounts from the wet 84 chemical redox study of Moore et al. (1995), which included many highly silicic samples. Our 85 data set also includes five repeat XAS analyses on a homogeneous bead of volcanic glass from 86 Apollo sample 15081; no Mossbauer analysis is available for that sample, but it is likely to be 87 completely reduced, having formed at IW-0.5 (Sato et al. 1973). 88

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METHODS

Samples were analyzed during several sessions at beamline X26A at the National 90 91 Synchrotron Light Source (NSLS), Brookhaven National Laboratory, and beamline 13 ID-E 92 (GSECARS) at the 7 GeV Advanced Photon Source, Argonne National Laboratory. At both beamlines, the beam was focused using mutually-orthogonal Kirkpatrick-Baez mirrors to a ~7×9 93 94 μm area (NSLS) or a 1×1 μm area (GSECARS). Incident beam energy was controlled by a water-cooled (9° C) Si(311) channel-cut monochromator. At the NSLS, monochromator energy 95 drift was monitored with a magnetite standard that was analyzed before and after every 2-3 96 samples. An energy offset was determined using repeat measurements of the observed pre-edge 97 98 centroid of the NMNH magnetite standard relative to a reference energy of 7113.25 eV (cf. Westre et al. 1997). At GSECARS, incident x-ray energy was calibrated on the first derivative 99 peak of an iron metal foil standard (7110.75 eV, Kraft et al. 1996) and no energy drift was 100 101 detected throughout the analytical session. Numerous samples were run at both facilities and the 102 spectra are indistinguishable (Figure 2), indicating that the energy calibrations are comparable. XANES spectra were collected in fluorescence mode using a 9-element high-purity Ge 103 104 solid-state detector array. Acquisition parameters varied between sessions, but the structure of 105 the Fe K absorption edge was scanned at a sampling resolution of at least 5.0 eV from 7020-7105 eV, 0.1 eV from 7105-7118 eV, 0.5 eV from 7118-7140 eV, and 1.0 eV from 7140-7220 eV. The 106 maximum energy of the scan was chosen empirically to avoid any significant remaining 107 108 oscillations in the absorption spectra to achieve reasonable edge-step normalization. 109 Spectra were processed using the PAXAS (Python Analysis for XAS) software package written for this project by Mirna Lerotic and CJ Carey. The program automates I₀ and edge-step 110 111 normalization and optional correction for over-absorption (OA). PAXAS works in batch processing mode, taking as input a list of filenames of raw spectra, a list of sample compositions 112

113 for OA correction, material type (garnet, amphibole, glass), and optional energy shifts for each 114 spectrum. Background removal and edge-step normalization in PAXAS were performed using a linear fit to the pre-edge region (~7025-7085 eV) and a third-order polynomial fit to the post-115 edge region (~7210-7215 eV) using the algorithm of Ravel and Newville (2005). The optional 116 117 OA correction uses an adaptation of the FLUO algorithm (Haskel 1999) with absorption cross-118 sections used to approximate the absorption coefficient from McMaster et al. (1969). Input data 119 files are in the standard $\chi\mu$ (*.xmu) format as output by the ATHENA program (multi-column data of energy bins, fluorescence intensities and incident flux intensities). PAXAS assumes that 120 121 input data has already been corrected for detector dead-time. The software is configured to output predicted %Fe³⁺ using the optimal algorithm described in Dyar et al. (2012) for garnets, 122 Dyar et al. (submitted) for amphiboles, and this paper for glasses, and is available from the 123 124 authors.

125 Four variations of data input were employed: pre-edge data only vs. the full spectra, and 126 corrected for OA vs. uncorrected. Each of these four data sets was tested using two multivariate 127 techniques. The first is partial least squares regression (PLS), which calculates components that 128 maximize the covariance between the feature and response matrices (Wegelin 2000). It is 129 especially well suited for problems with many highly correlated features and multiple responses 130 (Kalivas 1999). PLS sequentially chooses directions, or components, of maximal covariance from the feature matrix, X, and the response matrix, Y, to determine the model coefficients using 131 a two-step process. The first step is the shrinkage step, in which the shrinkage penalty determines 132 133 the number of factors to be included in the regression. This shrinks the feature matrix by projecting it from the original p-dimensional space into a smaller q-dimensional vector space. In 134 135 this project, p = 600, the number of channels at which the signal is measured, and q, the number

136	of components, is either allowed to vary from 1-10 or held constant at $q = 6$ in this study. The
137	second step follows ordinary least squares by regressing the response (here Fe^{3+} / Fe) on the
138	components generated in the first step to minimize the residual sum of squared error.
139	The second multivariate technique tested was lasso regression, which is an ordinary least
140	squares regression model with an l_1 penalty on the model coefficients to induce sparsity (Hastie
141	et al. 2009). It produces a sparse model by shrinking some coefficients and setting most other
142	coefficients to zero. It is assumed that a smaller subset of the predictor variables is driving the
143	prediction results. Thus, other coefficients can be excluded from the model (i.e., set to zero) with
144	no significant performance loss. This reduces a sizable, largely uninterpretable model to a sparse,
145	more interpretable model. The lasso adds a regularizer to ordinary least squares to prevent the
146	model from overfitting the training data. It performs automatic feature selection by constricting
147	non-informative feature coefficients to zero. For problems with many features, the lasso can
148	eliminate noisy features that may otherwise hinder the model. These parsimonious models have
149	shown to be effective in many types of chemometric models (Filmozer et al. 2012). The lasso has
150	one hyperparameter, α , that controls the constriction level of the coefficient vector β .
151	The open-source machine learning Python library Scikit-learn (Pedregosa et al. 2011)
152	was used to train and test all models. Accuracy was evaluated using leave-one-out cross-
153	validation and calculated using the root mean square error of prediction (RMSEP), which is in
154	the units of absolute $\%$ Fe ³⁺ .
155	RESULTS
156	Results of the 12 permutations on multivariate analyses are given in Figure 3: six models
157	using the full spectrum (lasso, PLS with q floating, and PLS with $q = 6$ either with or without the

158 over-absorption correction) and the same six using only the first 120 channels that comprise the

159	pre-edge region. The PLS models with q held constant at 6 are very similar to those in which q
160	was allowed to float. In fact, for both full-spectrum models the floating q converged on a value
161	of 6, the same as the value held constant. The pre-edge models converged on $q = 5$ when that
162	parameter was allowed to vary, but the RMSEP is very similar. We conclude that models with q
163	= 6 are most broadly useful.
164	Overall, the pre-edge-only prediction models yield uniformly inferior results, with the
165	lasso performing slightly better than the PLS models. The full spectrum models all have
166	significantly smaller (better) RMSEP values and the R ² values of those predictions when plotted
167	against Mössbauer % Fe^{3+} are >0.94. For the 600-channel models, the lasso performs the best,
168	with RMSEP = 3.55 for samples without the over-absorption correction, and ± 3.59 for corrected
169	data. On the basis of these results, the two lasso models will be used in the PAXAS software
170	package; errors on prediction of %Fe ³⁺ in glasses can be cited as ± 3.6 for either model.
171	Our data also provide an opportunity to check the applicability of our model to data from
172	two facilities. Figure 4 shows plots of predicted vs. measured $%Fe^{3+}$ for the two lasso models,
173	with different colors for data from NSLS and APS. There is no appreciable difference between
174	the two data sets, which were acquired on overlapping sets of samples.
175	Figure 5 shows the results of the models in graphical format. All data are plotted in blue
176	for the full spectra (top panels) and the pre-edge region only. For the lasso models, lasso
177	coefficients are indicated as vertical red lines; selected channels (energies) are indicated by the x
178	axis and the magnitudes of those coefficients are indicated by the length of the bar and the end-
179	point relative to the right-hand y axis. Only a few coefficients are located in the energy region
180	corresponding to the pre-edge signal, indicating that the bulk of information in the spectra about
181	Fe valence state is found in the main edge and EXAFS regions. The same trend is observed to

182 some extent in the PLS model loadings and coefficients. In contrast, the pre-edge models 183 (bottom panels in Figure 5), while less accurate, are remarkably sparse. Note that although the 184 pre-edge centroids have negative rather than positive PLS coefficients (bottom panels of Figure 5), that does not they do not influence the predictions. In general, the magnitudes of PLS 185 186 coefficients are much informative that their signs. 187 **IMPLICATIONS** There is great diversity in standards and methods used by different research groups for 188 prediction of Fe^{3+} / Fe in glasses, and this has resulted in a general lack of consistency and 189

accuracy across different studies. This work provides a broadly-applicable and widely accessible

method that is easily implemented using standard XAS file formats and does not require timeconsuming fitting of pre-edge features. Moreover, data from previous studies can easily be reanalyzed to assess the reliability of existing numbers. The new calibration should ensure that cross-comparisons can be made among researchers and synchrotron facilities with known accuracy.

Moreover, the automated nature of this technique and its optimal performance from the 196 197 lasso sparse prediction method open the door to the long-awaited possibility of creating maps of Fe^{3+} at high resolutions. The lasso calibration uses ~100 of the 600 channels acquired in this 198 study. Even if adjacent channels are included in a data-acquisition protocol, the time needed for 199 200 analyzing a single spot will be halved. At ~45 seconds per location (including moving the sample) and $1 \times 1 \,\mu m$ resolution, it will be possible to create a map of Fe³⁺ on a 50 μm glassy area 201 202 in a thin section in ~35 hours. Understanding redox gradients in silicate glasses should provide exciting new insights into magmatic processes at microscales. 203

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266 267 268	FIGURES AND FIGURE CAPTIONS
269	FIGURE 1. Total alkali vs. SiO_2 diagram showing compositions used for XANES calibration. Green
270	circles indicate samples equilibrated at up to four different f_{o2} 's, resulting in glasses with nearly the
271	same composition but very different Fe ³⁺ contents. Purple squares represent compositions from other
272	studies (see text) for which only a single glass was used. Full compositional information for all
273	standards is given in Table 1.
274	FIGURE 2. Comparison of over-absorption-corrected XAS spectra acquired at two different
275	synchrotrons: beamlines x26a at the National Synchrotron Light Source at Brookhaven National
276	Laboratory, and the GSECARS beamline at the 7 GeV Advanced Photon Source, Argonne
277	National Laboratory.
278	FIGURE 3. Graphs of leave-one-out cross-validation results from twelve different models showing
279	prediction errors calculated as root mean square errors (top panel) and the R ² values for a best-fit line
280	comparing the XAS-predicted %Fe ³⁺ values to those from Mössbauer spectroscopy (bottom panel).
281	These results demonstrate that sparse prediction models significantly outperform PLS for this data set.
282	FIGURE 4. Example plots of predicted Fe^{3+} by the lasso models using the full spectra for data without
283	over-absorption correction (no OA) and with it (with OA). In both cases, the regression line has an R^2
284	value of 0.99.
285	FIGURE 5. All XAS data in full spectrum and pre-edge-only models are plotted in blue against the
286	locations and magnitudes of lasso coefficients (vertical red lines ending in circles) in square plots and
287	the loadings and coefficients for PLS models (red dashed lines) with $q = 6$, in rectangular plots. The red
288	features indicate the energies at which the prediction of Fe^{3+} is most weighted in the <i>x</i> direction; the <i>y</i>
289	direction shows the magnitude of the coefficient or loading at that energy.

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