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Oceanic Zircon Records Extreme Fractional Crystallization of MORB to Rhyolite on the Alarcon Rise Mid-Ocean Ridge

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Abstract

The first known occurrence of rhyolite along the submarine segments of the mid-ocean ridge (MOR) system was discovered on Alarcon Rise, the northernmost segment of the East Pacific Rise (EPR), by the Monterey Bay Aquarium Research Institute in 2012. Zircon trace element and Hf and O isotope patterns indicate that the rhyolite formed by extreme crystal fractionation of primary mid-ocean ridge basalt (MORB) sourced from normal to enriched MOR mantle with little to no addition of continental lithosphere or hydrated oceanic crust. A large range in zircon ε Hf spanning 11 ε units is comparable to the range of whole rock ε Hf from the entire EPR. This variability is comparable to continental granitoids that develop over long periods of time from multiple sources. Zircon geochronology from Alarcon Rise suggests that at least 20 kyr was needed for rhyolite petrogenesis. Grain-scale textural discontinuities and trace element trends from zircon cores and rims are consistent with crystal fractionation from a MORB magma with possible perturbations associated with mixing or replenishment events. Comparison of whole rock and zircon oxygen isotopes with modeled fractionation and zircon-melt patterns suggests that, after they formed, rhyolite magmas entrained hydrated mafic crust from conduit walls during ascent and/or were hydrated by seawater in the vent during eruption. These data do not support a model where rhyolites formed directly from partial melts of hydrated oceanic crust or do they require assimilation of such crust during fractional crystallization, both models being commonly invoked for the formation of oceanic plagiogranites and dacites. A spatial association of highly evolved lavas (rhyolites) with an increased number of fault scarps on the northern Alarcon Rise might suggest that low magma flux for \sim 20 kyr facilitated extended magma residence necessary to generate rhyolite from MORB.

INTRODUCTION

Evolved lavas on the mid-ocean ridge (MOR) system are extremely rare (Fig. 1A). Until recently (Clague et al., 2018), rhyolite had only been observed in thick oceanic crust of hot-spot affected segments such as Iceland and the Galapagos (Geist et al., 1995; Haase et al., 2005; Bindeman et al., 2012a). 'Normal' oceanic crust generated along the submerged MOR system does contain a minor component of evolved plutonic rocks, most having been sampled from plutonic sections of drill holes, exhumed footwalls of oceanic core complexes and ophiolites (e.g. Sharapov et al., 2013; Grimes et al., 2015; Padilla et al., 2016). Moreover, dacite, andesite, and basaltic andesite make up an exceedingly small component of normal

thickness MORs (e.g. Haase et al., 2005; Wanless et al., 2010). The discovery of a rhyolite lava dome with up to 77 wt% SiO_2 on the Alarcon Rise segment of the East Pacific Rise (EPR) in the Gulf of California (Fig. 1B) is the first of its kind identified on the global submarine MOR system (Clague et al., 2018), and its source and petrogenesis are the focus of this study.

The genesis and eruption of rare evolved lavas on the largely basalt-covered MOR system remain enigmatic because extensive magmatic differentiation should be limited by voluminous decompression melting of the Earth's mantle and robust magma resupply rates. The latter limits the extent for cooling and crystal fractionation to progress prior to eruption (Christie &

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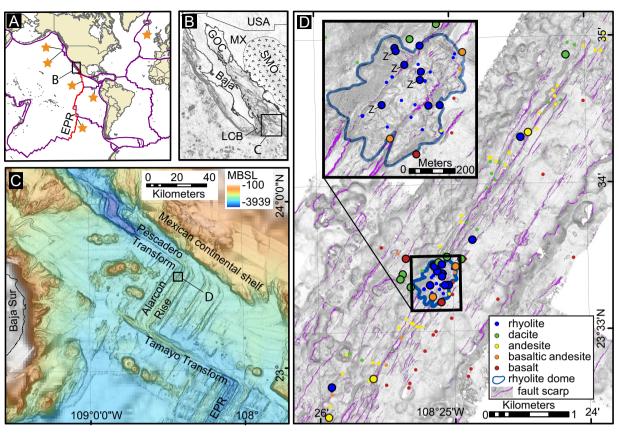


Fig. 1. Study site location maps. (A) Global map showing known locations of evolved MOR volcanic rocks (stars). All plate boundaries shown by purple lines except the EPR shown in red. Field area shown by box labeled B. (B) Regional map of the Gulf of California (GOC). Continental crust domains of the Sierra Madre Occidental (SMO) rhyolite province (Ferrari et al., 2007) and granitic Los Cabos Block (LCB) are adjacent to field area shown by box labeled C. (C) Bathymetric map of Alarcon Rise MOR spreading ridge segment with study area shown by box labeled D at northern end of the spreading segment. Bathymetry of Alarcon Rise derived from ship-based multibeam data. (D) Locations of samples used in this study shown by larger symbols with black outlines. Close-up view of central rhyolite dome showing zircon samples denoted by 'Z'. Bathymetric data derived from autonomous underwater vehicle (AUV)-collected multibeam data and gridded to 1 m. Fault scarps with slopes >55° are highlighted by purple shading

Sinton, 1981). Most existing models to explain the occurrence of evolved MOR lavas stem from tectonomagmatic processes that rely on episodic magma supply near spreading-ridge tips (Christie & Sinton, 1981), proximity to cold lithosphere (Perfit et al., 1983), partial melting of hydrated oceanic crust in anomalously thick lithosphere (Nicholson et al., 1991) or along deep-seated oceanic detachment faults (Koepke et al., 2007; Jöns et al., 2009), and/or some combination of these factors (Wanless et al., 2010). Although MOR zircon is quite common in evolved plutonic rocks (e.g. Schwartz et al., 2005; Grimes et al., 2015), its presence is very rare in volcanic rocks (cf. Schmitt et al., 2011) and has not been widely used to help understand the origin of unusually evolved MOR lavas. Rhyolite-hosted zircon and whole rock geochemistry and geochronology are used here to understand rhyolite petrogenesis on the Alarcon Rise MOR.

ALARCON RISE

Alarcon Rise is the northernmost spreading segment of the EPR and is located in the mouth of the Gulf of California ~8 km from the Mexican continental slope

(Fig. 1C). Seafloor spreading along Alarcon Rise initiated by 2-3 Ma and evolved into a ~40-km long intermediaterate spreading ridge (49 mm/a full rate) with normal MOR crustal thickness (5-7 km; Sutherland, 2006; Lizarralde et al., 2007; DeMets et al., 2010). The rise is volcanically active and bound by leaky transforms faults, the Pescadero to the north and the Tamayo to the south (Fig. 1C), both of which have young basaltic lava flows (Clague et al., 2018).

Alarcon Rise, like most of the global MOR, is primarily made up of normal mid-ocean ridge basalt (N-MORB), but evolved compositions including basaltic andesite, andesite, dacite, and rhyolite make up a notable portion of the northern 25% of the rise (Castillo et al., 2002; Clague et al., 2018) and occur 10-5 km inboard from the Pescadero Transform (Fig. 1C). This northern part of the rise has a significantly higher number of exposed fault scarps than the rest of the rise (Fig. 2). The evolved lavas occur along a ridge-parallel lineament that is ~300 m in width and cut by abundant high-angle fault scarps (Fig. 1D). Three rhyolite domes $2-5 \times 10^6$ m³ occur along the lineament in its southern, central, and northern areas. These domes were entirely effusive and are primarily composed of autoclastic breccia (Portner et al., 2021). The largest and most silicic rhyolite dome occurs

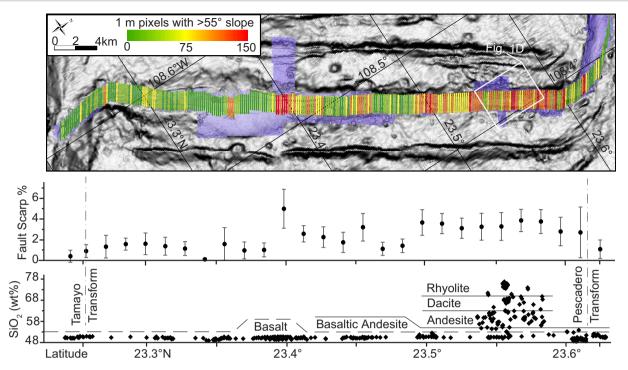


Fig. 2. Variation of lava composition and fault scarp proportion along Alarcon Rise. Map shows 1770 m long transect lines (green-yellow-red) that are color coded by length that is coincident with a fault scarp. Fault scarps are identified from purple 1-m resolution AUV bathymetry that has linear patterns of slopes >55° (Fig. 1D). Gray bathymetry is the same as that shown in Fig. 1C. Each data point in the plot of fault scarp % represents the average proportion of 10 transect lines where each data point is plotted at the center of the group of transects along the x-axis. Error bars are 1 σ . Bottom plot shows electron microprobe-derived SiO2 content from volcanic glass sampled from lavas along the ridge axis (data from Clague et al., 2018).

at the lineament center and is the focus of this study (Fig. 1D inset).

A total of 362 lava samples from Alarcon Rise were collected by the remotely operated vehicles (ROVs) Tiburon and Doc Ricketts in 2003, 2012, and 2015 and greatly expand the prior collection of samples collected from six on-axis dredges from the 1990s (Castillo et al., 2002). Although most lavas have incompatible element depletion typical of N-MORB, slightly enriched (E)-MORB were also collected from the Pescadero Transform and the central part of Alarcon Rise. Major element compositions across the full sample suite follow a tholeiitic trend (Fig. 3) that encompasses the full lithologic spectrum between basalt and rhyolite up to 77 wt% SiO₂ (Table 1). Compositional trends are partly consistent with Rhyolite-MELTS models of crystal fractionation under slightly reducing conditions (QFM-M1), but discrepancies in FeO and TiO₂ (outlined samples on Fig. 3) and enrichment in K₂O and Cl are thought to be associated with hybridization/mixing processes and incorporation of a seawaterbased assimilant, respectively (Clague et al., 2018).

Thirty-six samples were collected from the central rhyolite dome, whereas two samples were collected from both the southern and northern domes. Rhyolite samples are glassy and unaltered. Coarse to fine-grained mafic and intermediate xenoliths are common, display sharp contacts and are phyric (Fig. 4A). Rhyolites are moderately (10%–50%) vesicular and crystal rich (Portner et al., 2021). Crystal contents range from ~15% to 30%, with

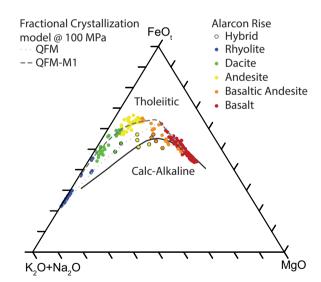


Fig. 3. Major element geochemistry (from Clague et al., 2018) for lavas erupted on Alarcon Rise showing a tholeiitic trend. Hybrid samples (outlined) identified by Clague et al. (2018) as having relatively lower FeO and TiO₂ compared with the bulk of samples follow a similar, though lower FeOt, fractional crystallization trend. Both fractional crystallization trends modeled with Rhyolite-MELTS (Gualda et al., 2012). Models start from the most magnesian sample (D398-R7 with 7.56 wt% MgO) adjacent to the central rhyolite dome. The parent basalt contains 0.25 wt% H_2O and 77 μ g/g CO_2 (Portner et al., 2021). Model runs at 100 and 35 MPa show little to no difference on this plot and are identical to the higher magnesian portions of trends starting from a more primitive sample with 8.6 wt% MgO (D395-R11) collected further south from the evolved volcanic suite (Clague et al., 2018).

Table 1: Glass major element composition (wt%) from samples used in this study

Sample	Latitude	Longitude	Depth	SiO ₂	TiO2	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K20	P ₂ O ₅	ច	s	Total
D392-R15	23.351472	-108.547998	2296	49.47	1.33	16.57	8.85	0.16	8.48	12.25	2.75	60.0	0.14	900.0	0.108	100.21
155-V36^	23.805833	-108.58683	2987	50.12	1.88	16.07	10.65	0.19	7.30	10.67	3.09	0.327	0.228	0.009	0.103	100.65
D746-R12	23.399844	-108.52809	2327	50.53	1.69	15.35	9.76	0.20	7.39	11.63	3.09	0.38	0.24	0.025	0.112	100.38
D398-R7	23.553275	-108.418212	2418	20.67	1.68	15.08	10.35	0.17	7.56	11.70	2.99	0.16	0.18	0.012	0.141	100.70
D740-R3	23.558271	-108.422505	2476	51.89	1.35	14.94	9.53	0.17	6.74	11.29	2.94	0.32	0.15	0.058	0.111	99.48
GOC12-RC11	23.612413	-108.38288	2353	52.83	1.71	14.60	10.66	0.21	5.16	9.62	3.59	0.40	0.28	0.049	0.127	99.22
D401-R33	23.557308	-108.416406	2401	52.97	2.04	13.95	12.11	0.22	4.91	8.74	3.84	0.45	0.28	0.076	0.142	99.73
D398-R6	23.553896	-108.419255	2372	55.36	1.97	14.08	12.27	0.23	3.70	7.34	3.99	0.68	0.51	0.164	0.108	100.41
D741-R5	23.540357	-108.432335	2430	59.77	1.50	14.82	8.46	0.12	2.75	5.93	4.26	1.17	0.19	0.254	0.059	99.28
D398-R16-2	23.544686	-108.42677	2384	60.85	1.38	13.38	10.29	0.21	1.34	4.46	5.21	1.14	0.48	0.288	0.073	99.12
D398-R16	23.572445	-108.407182	2349	61.23	1.20	12.60	11.98	0.31	0.79	4.56	4.82	1.03	0.36	0.217	0.095	99.20
D742-R15	23.544686	-108.42677	2384	61.69	1.37	13.46	10.59	0.20	1.37	4.44	4.52	1.09	0.46	0.288	0.068	99.54
D401-R29	23.557813	-108.418482	2341	62.65	1.10	13.40	10.45	0.20	96.0	4.14	5.08	1.09	0.31	0.263	0.061	99.72
D401-R2	23.555924	-108.423237	2475	63.24	1.04	13.21	10.05	0.19	0.89	3.86	90.5	1.20	0.30	0.312	0.052	99.39
D742-R24	23.581195	-108.40237	2411	63.77	1.27	14.02	8.46	0.15	1.39	4.11	4.82	1.35	0.33	0.271	0.046	66.66
D401-R1	23.5565	-108.42293	2482	66.87	0.73	13.40	7.26	0.15	0.54	2.85	5.16	1.59	0.17	0.413	0.023	99.17
D401-R34	23.558146	-108.415635	2393	67.25	0.65	13.03	7.25	0.17	0.32	2.68	2.66	1.56	0.13	0.323	0.030	99.05
D740-R17	23.55841	-108.417448	2355	68.14	0.64	12.67	7.29	0.18	0.39	2.53	4.92	1.67	0.13	0.375	0.029	98.97
D401-R3	23.555032	-108.421966	2418	68.43	0.64	13.05	6.78	0.15	0.49	2.43	5.16	1.75	0.12	0.489	0.029	99.52
D741-R8	23.543788	-108.431917	2472	70.60	0.68	13.13	4.91	60.0	0.48	1.98	5.02	2.04	0.14	0.375	0.010	99.45
D740-R21	23.560309	-108.414269	2411	70.92	0.46	12.57	5.68	0.14	0.13	1.88	2.07	1.84	90.0	0.380	0.012	99.13
D742-R13	23.571925	-108.408122	2353	73.98	0.29	11.39	4.25	0.07	0.07	1.18	4.94	2.22	0.03	0.525	I	98.94
D401-R20*	23.556208	-108.418077	2348	74.61	0.18	11.79	2.66	0.05	0.05	0.74	5.03	2.77	0.02	0.605	I	98.53
D401-R14	23.556532	-108.418037	2349	74.78	0.17	11.74	2.56	0.05	0.04	0.75	5.12	2.76	0.03	0.600	0.003	98.62
D401-R24*	23.556804	-108.418689	2325	74.87	0.21	11.96	2.77	90.0	0.04	0.77	5.21	2.70	0.01	0.613	0.003	99.21
D401-R28*	23.557343	-108.419029	2337	74.88	0.21	11.12	2.93	90.0	90.0	0.65	4.84	2.90	0.02	0.728	0.001	98.40
D401-R26	23.557468	-108.419075	2340	75.17	0.20	11.17	2.71	90.0	0.02	0.62	4.85	3.02	0.01	0.641	0.002	98.50
D401-R30	23.557561	-108.418088	2337	75.23	0.19	11.00	2.72	0.05	0.03	0.62	4.78	2.94	0.01	0.598	0.005	98.17
D401-R7*	23.555215	-108.419583	2347	75.50	0.16	11.23	2.24	0.03	0.02	0.55	4.84	2.94	0.01	0.540	900.0	98.06
D398-R3	23.555199	-108.417744	2380	75.59	0.20	12.05	2.95	0.07	0.09	0.85	4.84	2.52	0.03	0.591	1	98.36
D398-R2	23.55522	-108.417293	2400	76.77	0.21	11.06	2.99	90.0	0.07	0.65	4.12	2.81	0.04	0.638		99.42

All data were collected on electron microprobe (Clague et al., 2018). *Samples used for zircon geochemistry and geochronology. *Dredge sample collected from Pescadero transform in 1976 on cruise L176MX.

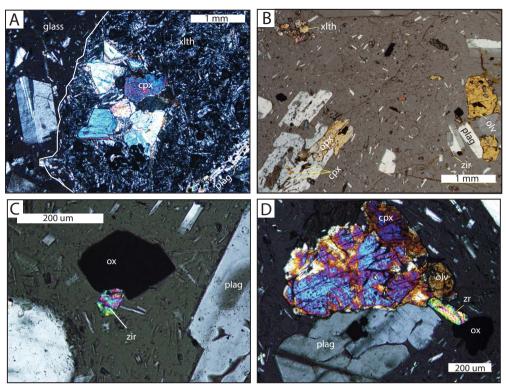


Fig. 4. Cross-polarized microphotographs of zircon-host rhyolite. Acronyms correspond to the minerals plagioclase (plag), clinopyroxene (cpx), othropyroxene (opx), olivine (olv), FeTi oxides—ilmenite or titanomagnetite (ox), and zircon (zir). (A) Crystalline phyric xenolith (xlth) with sharp contact against glassy rhyolite. (B) Representative rhyolite texture showing plagioclase microlites and glomerocrysts of plagioclase and mafic minerals. (C) Opaque FeTi oxide with attached euhedral zircon. (D) Glomerocrystic cluster containing primary phenocryst phases and accessory zircon.

some areas containing very high plagioclase microlite concentrations. Phenocrysts (250–1500 μ m) of sodic plagioclase (oligoclase), favalitic olivine, clinopyroxene, and orthopyroxene occur as isolated crystals and more commonly as glomerocrysts (Fig. 4B). Glomerocrysts also contain much finer-grained ilmenite and magnetite, which are primarily disseminated throughout the glass matrix. Trace amounts of apatite also occur within favalite melt inclusions. Glomerocrysts and FeTi oxide minerals locally have trace quantities of attached zircon, which rarely occur alone (Fig. 4C and D). Zircon data presented here come from four rhyolite samples collected from the central rhyolite lava dome.

METHODS

Whole rock isotope analysis

Strontium, Nd, and Pb isotope ratios were analyzed using a 9-collector, Micromass Sector 54 thermal ionization mass spectrometer at the Scripps Institution of Oceanography, University of California San Diego. Total procedural blanks are 35 pg for Sr, 10 pg for Nd, and 60 pg for Pb. Strontium isotopic ratios were fractionationcorrected to $^{86}Sr/^{88}Sr = 0.1194$ and are reported relative to ${}^{87}\text{Sr}/{}^{86}\text{Sr} = 0.710254 + 0.000018 (n = 22) for NBS 987$ during the period of analysis. Neodymium isotopic ratios were measured in oxide form, fractionation-corrected to $^{146}NdO/^{144}NdO = 0.72225$ ($^{146}Nd/^{144}Nd = 0.7219$) and are reported relative to 143 Nd/ 144 Nd = 0.511856 \pm 0.000016

(n=19) for the La Jolla Nd Standard during the period of analysis. Lead isotopic ratios were analyzed using the double-spike method to correct for mass fractionation during analyses; separate measurements of spiked and unspiked samples were made on different aliquots from the same dissolution. The SBL-74 ²⁰⁷Pb-²⁰⁴Pb doublespike from the University of Southampton was used. During the analysis period, the method produced the following results for NBS981: 206 Pb/ 204 Pb = 16.9300 \pm 0.0020, 207 Pb/ 204 Pb = 15.4896 ± 0.0027 and 208 Pb/ 204 Pb = 36.6999 ± 0.0086 (n = 11). 2σ precisions for individual runs are better than these.

Hafnium isotope ratios on whole rock samples were measured with a Neptune MC-ICP-MS at the Keck Isotope Laboratory at the University of California Santa Cruz. Hafnium was separated from digested samples with Ln-spec resin following Munker et al. (2001). Hf isotopes were exponentially normalized internally to 179 Hf/ 177 Hf = 0.7325. Sample data were normalized to JMC 475 ¹⁷⁶Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf = 0.282160 (Blichert-Toft & White, 2001), which was measured at the beginning of each analytical session and after every three unknowns. Seven analyses of JMC yielded an average of 176 Hf/ 177 Hf = 0.282145 ± 10 (2 σ). Whole rock hafnium isotope data are reported as $\varepsilon Hf_{wholerock}$, which is calculated by $[(^{176}Hf/^{177}Hf_{sample}/^{176}Hf/^{177}Hf_{CHUR})-1] \times$ 10 000 where the hafnium isotope value of the chondritic uniform reservoir (176Hf/177Hf_{CHUR}) is 0.282785 (Bouvier et al., 2008).

Hydrogen and oxygen isotopes and total water concentrations were measured in duplicate or triplicate on 1–2-mg glass fragments by laser fluorination (δ^{18} O) and \sim 30 mg of 50–250- μ m glass chips by thermal conversion/elemental analyzer (TC/EA; δD and H_2O_t) coupled to a large radius MAT253 10-kV gas source isotope ratio mass spectrometer at the Stable Isotope Lab at the University of Oregon (Bindeman et al., 2012b; Martin et al., 2017). Oxygen isotope notation, δ^{18} O, is defined as $[(^{18}O/^{16}O_{sample})/(^{18}O/^{16}O_{VSMOW})-1] \times 1000$, where the Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW) standard $^{18}O/^{16}O_{VSMOW} = 0.0020052$. Hydrogen isotope notation, δD , is defined as $[(D/H_{sample})/(D/H_{VSMOW})-1] \times 1000$, where $D/H_{VSMOW} = 0.00015576$. Measurement uncertainty (all reported as 2σ) for δD in %, parts/thousand, and H₂O_t in wt% is based on concurrently run NBS30 $(-66.67 \pm 1.45\%; 3.57 \pm 0.17 \text{ wt%}), \text{RUH } (-97.03 \pm 2.51\%;$ 4.60 ± 0.26 wt%), and BUD (-163.10 ± 2.04 %; 2.32 ± 0.24 wt%) standards.

Zircon sample preparation

Four glassy rhyolite lava samples yielded ∼110 zircon grains per kilogram of rock. Samples were pulverized by high-voltage electrodynamic disaggregation using SelFrag[©], which fragmented the samples along grain boundaries preserving complete crystal shapes. Heavy minerals, including zircon, were then concentrated using traditional heavy liquid and magnetic techniques. Extracted zircons were prepared in epoxy mounts and polished. Cathodoluminescence (CL) images were used to identify core and rim associations and guide laser ablation spot analyses.

Zircon U-series ion microprobe (SHRIMP-RG) analysis

Zircons from the four rhyolites were measured for U and Th isotopes at the sensitive high resolution ion microprobe-reverse geometry (SHRIMP-RG) facility at Stanford University. Twenty unknown spot analyses were bracketed by zircon 91500 (Wiedenbeck et al., 2004). Beam sizes were $25 \times 35 \mu m$ and sputtered 3-5 μm deep into the sample. Median zircon U and Th concentrations were 143 and 93 μ g/g, respectively. Ten analyses of zircon from the Early Bishop Tuff (EBT) were measured at the beginning of each analytical session, and the average ²³⁸U/²³²Th was used to correct unknowns. Repeat analyses of EBT on 2 days gave averages of $^{238}\text{U}/^{232}\text{Th} = 0.9612 \pm 0.0071 \ (2\sigma, n = 14)$ and 0.9681 ± 0.0083 (n = 9), respectively. Model ages were calculated using decay constants $\lambda_{230} = 9.1577 \times 10^{-6} \text{ a}^{-1}$, $\lambda_{232} = 4.9475 \times 10^{-11} \text{ a}^{-1}$, and $\lambda_{238} = 1.55125 \times 10^{-10} \text{ a}^{-1}$ (Supplementary Table S1).

Zircon trace element LA-ICPMS

Zircon trace elements were analyzed by LA-ICPMS in the geo-analytical unit of Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia, which operates a New Wave 213 nm Nd:YAG laser system linked to an Agilent 7500 s ICP-MS (Jackson

et al., 2004). Analyses used a beam diameter of 30–40 μ m, a 5-Hz repetition rate, and an output energy of ~0.9 mJ per pulse. Synthetic glass (NIST-610 and BCR) and zircon (GJ-1) standards were used to evaluate accuracy and precision (Supplementary Table S2). Analysis runs were collected in batches of 15 measurements of unknowns between measurements of three to five standards over 3 days of data collection.

Non-zircon phases (e.g. apatite, xenotime, FeTi oxides) exposed at the surfaces of zircon grains were avoided during laser ablation. Some of these inclusions were ablated as the laser penetrated into a grain's subsurface and were characterized by anomalously high contents of P, heavy rare earth element (HREE), Fe, and/or Ti. If present, data from subsurface inclusions were filtered from sample analyses so that only zircon data were evaluated. In these cases, the shortened analysis times were less precise than 'clean' analyses, but both groups span the same elemental concentration range.

Zircon Hf isotope LA-MC-ICPMS

Following trace element analysis, zircons were analyzed for ¹⁷⁶Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf using LA-MC-ICPMS at Macquarie University. A New Wave Research 213 nm Nd:YAG laser, connected to a Nu Plasma multi-collector ICP-MS was used with a beam diameter of 55–45 μ m, 5-Hz repetition rate, and 1.3-0.6-mJ output energy/pulse. Nu plasma time-resolved analysis software was used to select stable portions of the measurement and calculate standard error. Smaller signal selection is reflected by larger internal analytical error. The average percent signal selection used for reported ¹⁷⁶Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf data is 78% with no discernable difference between the average or range of data with different signal selection percentages. For some measurements, the latter portions of the signal were excessively noisy due to accidental ablation of inclusions or from ablation through small zircon grains and into the epoxy mount. If stable portions of the analysis accounted for <30% of the full analysis, it was expunged from the dataset (n = 6/121). Zircon hafnium isotope data are reported as εHf_{zircon} , which is calculated using the same equation as $\varepsilon Hf_{wholerock}$.

Interference of ¹⁷⁶Lu and ¹⁷⁶Yb on ¹⁷⁶Hf was corrected by measuring the interference-free ¹⁷⁵Lu and ¹⁷²Yb isotopes and using ¹⁷⁶Lu/¹⁷⁵Lu (0.02669 after De Bievre & Taylor, 1993) and ¹⁷⁶Yb/¹⁷²Yb (0.58669 after Griffin et al., 2002) to calculate 176 Lu/ 177 Hf and 176 Yb/ 177 Hf. Repeated calibration of standards has shown that 176Hf/177Hf is accurate when ¹⁷⁶Yb/¹⁷⁷Hf < 0.26 but becomes increasingly less precise when ¹⁷⁶Yb/¹⁷⁷Hf > 0.20 (Griffin et al., 2000, 2002). Analyses with ¹⁷⁶Yb/¹⁷⁷Hf values 0.20–0.26 and > 0.26 are indicated on all plots (n = 30/115 analyses).

Measured isotopic ratios of the Mudtank and Temora zircon standards (Woodhead & Hergt, 2005) were used to assess accuracy and precision of zircon analyses. Analytical runs were collected in batches of three to six measurements of unknowns between measurements of two to three standards over 3 days of data collection. The mean value measured for Mudtank zircon during the 3 days (n = 40) of this study was ¹⁷⁶Hf $/^{177}$ Hf = 0.282539 \pm 42 (2 σ), which is well within uncertainty of the accepted value 0.282523 ± 59 (2σ ; Gain et al., 2019). Slight positive and negative trends between ¹⁷⁶Hf /¹⁷⁷Hf vs ¹⁷⁸Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf and ¹⁸⁰Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf, respectively, exist for the Mudtank standard but still fall within 2σ error (Supplementary Table S3). The Temora zircon standard has a much higher Yb content and is therefore better for evaluating the Yb-interference correction on unknown Alarcon Rise grains. Measurements at the start and end of each day of analysis yield an average 176Yb/177Hf (n=7) of 0.0434 \pm 41 (2 σ) and 176 Hf/ 177 Hf of 0.282683 \pm 54, which are within analytical error of accepted values 0.032 ± 15 and 0.282680 ± 31 , respectively (Wu et al., 2006). Importantly, no trends between ¹⁷⁶Yb/¹⁷⁷Hf and ¹⁷⁶Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf in either the Mudtank or Temora standards were observed indicating that the Yb-correction factor was acceptable.

Zircon δ^{18} O secondary ion microprobe (SIMS) analysis

Zircon oxygen isotopes were measured with the Cameca IMS-1280 at the University of Wisconsin, Madison Wisc-SIMS facility. Zircon grains from two rhyolite samples were carefully polished to ensure a smooth, flat, lowrelief surface (Kita et al., 2009). Analyzed spot sizes were \sim 10 μ m. Zircon standard KIM-5 was measured five times before and after every 10 samples. The average ¹⁸O/¹⁶O of KIM-5 over the course of the analytical run was 4.75 ± 0.42‰ (Supplementary Table S4). Grain measurements were then corrected to KIM-5 δ^{18} O of 5.09‰ (Valley, 2003).

RESULTS

Whole rock isotopes and water concentrations

Whole-rock Sr-Nd-Pb isotope analyses of representative Alarcon lavas compare well with EPR lavas. Rhyolites exhibit subtly higher 87 Sr/86 Sr than most other compositions (Table 2) but still cluster near depleted MORB mantle (DMM) in Nd-Sr isotope space (Fig. 5A). One E-MORB and one dacite both have affinities closer to an enriched DMM (EDMM) source in all Sr-Nd-Pb plots. Lead isotopes show no correlation with degree of differentiation and form a trend from DMM to a slightly enriched source where 206 Pb/ 204 Pb ranges from 18.4 to 18.7 (Fig. 5B and C). Hafnium isotopes on five rhyolite samples yield an average $\varepsilon Hf_{\text{wholerock}}$ of 13.06 \pm 0.14 (2 σ), which does not differ from the basalt to dacite average of 13.01 ± 0.44 (Fig. 6A).

Rhyolites (n=4) have a narrow range in $\delta^{18}O_{\text{wholerock}}$ with an average of 6.23 ± 0.16% and represent the evolved end of a near-linear trend from mafic to intermediate compositions (Fig. 6B). The mafic end-member is within analytical error of the accepted N-MORB value of $5.7 \pm 0.2\%$ (Table 2). Compared with modeled fractionation trends, Alarcon Rise lavas plot closest to the 'normal' (mantle-derived) high magnesium δ^{18} O array of

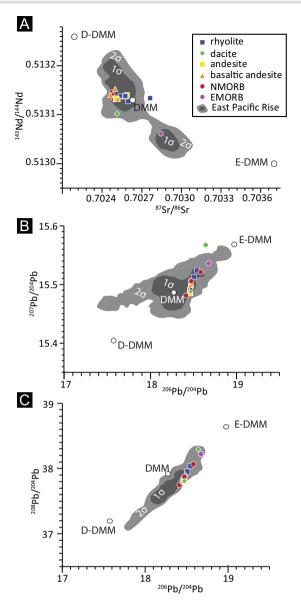


Fig. 5. Whole rock Sr-Nd (A) and Pb-Pb (B-C) isotope data for all lava compositions from Alarcon Rise. Depleted (D-) and enriched (E-) end-members of the DMM reservoir are from Workman & Hart (2005). Dark (1σ) and light (2σ) gray fields represent contoured point density plots of EPR spreading center Sr-Nd (n = 307) and Pb-Pb (n = 252) isotope data from PetDB. Point density plots created using ArcGIS spatial analyst software.

Bindeman (2008) and slightly lower than other models for MORB and the more hydrous Bushveld layered intrusive complex (Bucholz et al., 2017). Lava compositions all have much lower δ^{18} O than model trends used for Ocean Island and hotspot-affected regions (Muehlenbachs & Byerly, 1982; Sheppard & Harris, 1985).

Hydrogen isotopes (δ D) generally range between -60%to -65% with a smaller subpopulation of -75% to -80% (Fig. 6C). This range is larger than the analytical uncertainty of 2.46% on each measurement. The larger population is within error of average Pacific N-MORB $(-60 \pm 5\%)$ while the smaller population extends to a more enriched variant sampled along the EPR around 17-15°N (Clog et al., 2013; Dixon et al., 2017). Alarcon δD does

Table 2: Whole rock isotope and water concentrations.																		
Sample	SiO ₂ # (wt%)	87 Sr/ 86 Sr		¹⁴³ Nd/ ¹⁴⁴ Nd		²⁰⁶ Pb/ ²⁰⁴ Pb		²⁰⁷ Pb/ ²⁰⁴ Pb		²⁰⁸ Pb/ ²⁰⁴ Pb		¹⁷⁶ Hf/ ¹⁷⁷ Hf		$_{e}$ Hf		δ ¹⁸ Ο (%) ± 0.16	δD (% ₀) ± 2.46	$\begin{array}{l} \rm H_2O\\ (wt\%)\\ \pm \ 0.12 \end{array}$
D392-R15	49.47	l									1	I				5.73	-77.97	0.19
155-V36	50.12	0.702846	9#	0.513061	8 #	18.678	+ 3	15.536	+ 3	38.217	8 H		I	I	I	I	I	
D746-R12	50.53	I	l	I	l	I		I				0.283128	±19	12.48	∓0.69	I		I
D398-R7	20.67	1			1	I		1	1	1	I	0.283137	±23	13.09	±0.80	5.61	-80.70	0.19
D740-R3	51.89				1	1	1	1	1		1	0.283149	±22	13.23	±0.78	1	1	1
GOC12-	52.83	0.702510	± 17	0.513133	± 14	18.477	#3	15.506	1	37.870	#3	Ι	I	I	I	5.77	-65.56	09.0
RC11																		
D401-R33	52.97	0.702519	±15	0.513132	±14	18.452	#3	15.490	#5	37.809	Ŧ2		l			5.79	-61.14	0.70
D398-R6	55.36	1	I	I	I	I	1	1	1	I	1		I	Ι	I	5.78	-60.53	0.93
D741-R5	59.77					I		1		1		0.283137	±13	13.10	±0.46	I	1	1
D398-R16-2	60.85	1	I	1	1	1		1	I			0.283146	±16	13.11	±0.57	I	I	I
D398-R16	61.69				1	1		1	1	I		0.283144	±17	13.05	±0.59	I	I	I
D742-R15	61.23	1	I	1		I		I		1		0.283136	±19	13.06	∓0.68	I	I	1
D401-R29	62.65	0.702588	±18	0.513140	±12	18.467	±4	15.498	+ 1	37.843	T 2	1	I	I	I	5.92	-62.23	1.73
D401-R2	63.24	0.702505	± 12	0.513133	9#	18.468	∓3	15.484	+ 1	37.801	#3	I	I	I	I	80.9	-64.42	1.95
D742-R24	63.77	1	I	I		I		I	1	I	1	0.283138	±18	13.12	∓0.63	I	I	I
D401-R1	66.87	1	I	I		I		I		I		1	I	I		5.95	-59.76	1.98
D401-R34	67.25	0.702512	±14	0.513102	±20	18.641	∓3	15.567	+ 1	38.293	#1	1	I	I	I	I	I	1
D740-R17	68.14	1				1		1		I		0.283139	∓36	12.90	± 1.27	I	I	
D401-R3	68.43	0.702527	± 12	0.513132	9#	18.47a1	∓3	15.487	+ 1	37.809	#3	I	I	I	I	6.07	-64.21	1.63
D741-R8	70.60					I		I				0.283145	±16	13.10	±0.57	1		
D740-R21	70.92		l			ı		I		I		0.283133	±18	12.96	∓0.65		I	I
D742-R13	73.98	1	I			I		I	1	I		0.283138	±20	13.14	±0.70	I	I	I
D401-R20*	74.61	0.702572	± 17	0.513137	±22	18.463	∓3	15.491	± 3	37.823	T 2	0.283138	±16	13.14	±0.56	I	I	
D401-R14	74.78	1	I	1		I		I		1		1	I	I	I	6.14	-59.53	2.04
D401-R24*	74.87	0.702576	±20	0.513138	±18	18.508	± 2	15.513	+ 1	37.949	#2	0.283135	±13	13.04	±0.45	I		
D401-R28*	74.88	0.702763	±20	0.513134	± 14	18.545	±4	15.524	∓3	38.039	T 2	0.283143	±19	13.03	70.66	I	I	
D401-R26	75.17					I		I					I	I	1	6.19	-63.55	1.65
D401-R30	75.23		l			I		I		I		0.283134	±15	13.00	±0.54		I	I
D401-R7*	75.50	0.702597	±14	0.513127	±18	18.461	±4	15.489	#3	37.818	9 T	I	I	I	I	I	I	I
D398-R3	75.59	0.702541	±14	0.513138	±16	18.473	± 2	15.496	+ 1	37.836	∓3		I	I	1	6.30	-62.11	2.50
D398-R2	76.77			1		I	ı	I		1	I	1	I	I	I	6.29	-76.04	1.96

All analytical error reported to 2σ . *Samples used for zircon geochemistry and geochronology. *Denotes glass composition form Table 1.

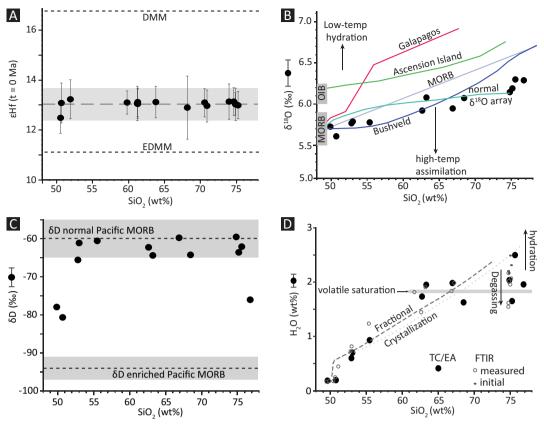


Fig. 6. Whole rock Hf, O, and H isotope data. SiO₂ compositions are from glass electron microprobe data (Clague et al., 2018). (A) Epsilon Hafnium (εHf) values for depleted (D-) and enriched (E-) end-members of the DMM reservoir (short-dashed lines) are from Workman & Hart (2005). Average of all Alarcon lavas (long-dashed line) $\pm 2\sigma$ are shown by gray field. Individual sample analytical error bars are $\pm 2\sigma$. (B) Whole rock δ^{18} O data yield an average 2σ analytical precision of 0.16% (thick bar on y-axis). Fractionation trends (colored lines) from a starting MORB composition of 5.7% are from Bindeman (2008; high magnesium normal δ^{18} O array), Bucholz et al. (2017; MORB and Bushveld igneous complex), Sheppard and Harris (1985; Ascension Island alkaline suite), and Muehlenbachs and Byerly (1982; hot-spot influenced Galapagos Spreading Center). (C) Whole rock δD data yield an average 2σ analytical precision of 2.5% (bar on y-axis). Normal to enriched Pacific MORB δD values (dashed lines with 2σ gray area) from Clog et al. (2013) and Dixon et al. (2017). (D) Whole rock H₂O collected by TC/EA. Average 2σ analytical uncertainty is 0.12 wt%. Dissolved water contents measured by transmission FTIR are from Portner et al. (2021). Initial H₂O contents for non-pumiceous (<30% vesicles) rhyolites were calculated by recombining the FTIR-generated dissolved wt% H2O with the exsolved wt% gas phase (assuming negligible CO2). Exsolved wt% H2O was calculated using the ideal gas law and vesicle volumes (Portner et al., 2021) for the pressure at the depth of eruption (~23 MPa) and magma temperature of 766°C (see Ti-in-zircon thermometry below). These conditions were also used to calculate the solubility limit of H₂O for intermediate to felsic compositions (gray bar; Newman & Lowenstern, 2002). Fractional crystallization models are described in Fig. 3.

not show any consistent variation with composition and indicates a depleted to slightly enriched MORB mantle

Total water contents measured with TC/EA in this study agree well with published primary magmatic H₂O_{total} data collected by FTIR across all compositions (Fig. 6D). Overall increasing H₂O with SiO₂ follows a normal fractional crystallization trend up until ~62 wt% SiO₂, where water saturation is reached. At higher SiO₂ contents intermediate through felsic compositions mostly vary between 1.6 to 2.0 wt% H2O, which is similar, to slightly above, expected concentrations for the solubility limit at the depth/pressure (~23 MPa) of eruption (assuming <10 μ g/g CO₂). In this context, rhyolite H₂O concentrations lower than expected from fractional crystallization (2.4-2.7 wt% H₂O) are due to degassing, which is preserved by vesicularities of 10%~50% (Portner et al., 2021). Aside from rare pumiceous samples (>30% vesicles), initial dissolved H₂O contents in rhyolites prior to bubble exsolution fall closer

to expected concentrations (Fig. 6D). One rhyolite sample with up to 2.5 wt% H₂O (measured with TC/EA) may indicate secondary seawater hydration. This is confirmed by relatively high H₂O_m:OH (>1.2) in other hydrous rhyolites measured with FTIR (>>2.5 wt% H₂O_{total} [= $H_2O_m + OH$] not shown in Fig. 6D) due to faster diffusion rates of molecular water (H₂O_m) compared with hydroxyl (OH⁻) species at low temperature (Portner et al., 2021). However, a δD value of -62.11% for the aforementioned rhyolite sample (Table 2) does not deviate from other samples having Pacific MORB-affinities, implying that its 2.5 wt% H₂O may not be from secondary hydration (cf. Martin et al., 2017) but instead reflects an undegassed primary magmatic volatile component.

Zircon textures and geochronology

Zircons form euhedral crystals that range from 250×30 to $80 \times 50 \mu m$. Some grains show little to no internal zonation (Fig. 7A), but most contain well-defined sector and oscillatory zoning (Fig. 7B and C) that is defined

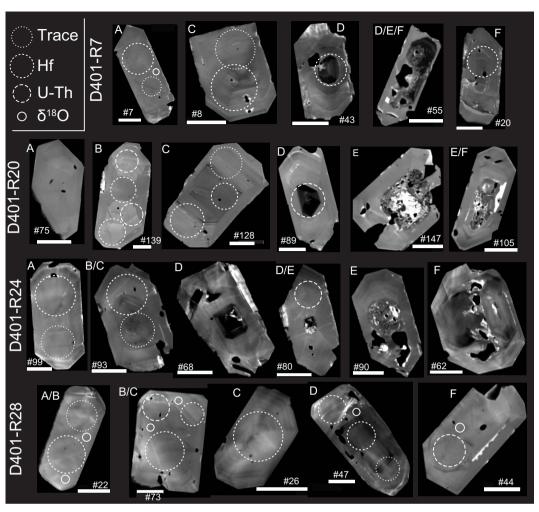


Fig. 7. CL images of representative Alarcon Rise zircons from four samples used for geochemistry and geochronology in this study. Grains exhibit faint to no internal zonation (A), sector zoning (B), oscillatory zoning (C), dark euhedral cores (D), porous or inclusion filled cores with numerous bright domains (E), and anhedral cores with marked zoning discontinuities along contacts with outer rim domains (F). Laser ablation pits (short-dashed circles) for hafnium (Hf) and trace elements (t) range from ~50 to 35 μm, respectively. Ion probe pits (long-dashed and solid circles) from U-Th analyses and δ^{18} O are 30 and \sim 10 μ m, respectively. All scale bars are 40 μ m.

by relatively bright and dark domains in CL imaging. Of 450 zircons imaged from four samples, 25% have darker CL fluorescence in their cores compared with rims (Fig. 7D) and 7% have porous or inclusion-rich cores with very bright CL (Fig. 7E). Most core-to-rim transitions are continuous with oscillatory zoning and no marked contact, but rare more anhedral to subhedral cores also occur with marked discontinuities in zonation patterns where they are in contact with more euhedral outer rims (Fig. 7F). The core-torim contact surfaces in discontinuously zoned grains locally exhibit <5 μm thick reaction domains that have unusually bright CL fluorescence. In some cases, multiple grain cores appear to be fused together (e.g. grain #62 in Fig. 7F). Grains with porous and inclusionrich domains were avoided during trace element and isotope analysis.

SHRIMP U-Th zircon model ages from four samples yielded a pooled (n = 71) weighted mean age of 23.4 ± 4.5 (2σ) ka and a small population (n=5) at 45 ± 9 ka (Fig. 8). Host glass (238U)/(232Th) and (230Th/232Th) from ICP-MS analyses average 0.95 ± 0.050 . No discernable age difference was determined between core and rim spot analyses. The primary age population is consistent with a minimum eruption age of 11.7 ka derived from ¹⁴C dating of foraminifera in sediment horizons that contain rhyolitic ash collected in push cores near the rhyolite dome (Clague et al., 2018; Portner et al., 2021).

Zircon trace element geochemistry

Rare earth element (REE) patterns for Alarcon zircon (n=111) are mostly indistinguishable from other MOR magmatic zircon datasets, with depleted light (L)REE and negative Eu and positive Ce anomalies (Fig. 9A). Alarcon LREE patterns are slightly flatter compared with the global MOR crust survey (Grimes et al., 2009) with a few grains $(n\sim7)$ showing relatively small Ce anomalies, very low Sm_N/La_N and high La concentrations (Fig. 9B). Although the latter is common in porous zircon formed by dissolution-precipitation processes associated with hydrothermal fluids (Hoskin, 2005; Grimes et al., 2009), clean oscillatory and sector zoning

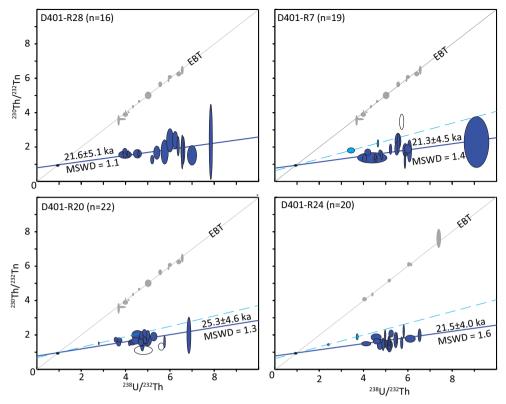


Fig. 8. U-Th activity diagram for zircons from four Alarcon Rise rhyolite samples. U-Th isochron model ages (dark blue grains) forced to intersect mean host glass U/Th value of 0.95 ± 0.05 (black ellipse). All error ellipses are 10. Dashed line through light blue grains yields combined age of 45.2 ± 8.9 ka (MSWD = 0.083). Three empty ellipses are grains expunged from isochron analysis. Light gray grains and corresponding isochron represent analyses from EBT on first (D401-R28, R7, and R20) and second (D401-R24) days of analyses. Plots made using IsoplotR (Vermeesch, 2018).

patterns in the Alarcon grains with low Sm_N/La_N are more indicative of a magmatic origin (Fig. 7B and C). Smaller Eu anomalies (Eu/Eu*) and larger Ce anomalies (Ce/Ce*) tend to correlate with higher total (Σ) REE concentrations (Fig. 9C and D). Grain cores generally have higher ΣREE but smaller Ce/Ce* and Eu/Eu* compared with rims.

Compared with zircon formed in continental settings, Alarcon Rise grains have low overall Hf (<1.1 wt%) and much higher Yb concentrations (>1000 μ g/g; Fig. 10). The latter is typical for most MOR zircon grains, which also contain much higher Gd concentrations. Harker plots of Yb vs more incompatible trace elements exhibit overall positive trends with Alarcon Rise zircons having a closer affinity to 'normal' MOR zircon than grains from the hotspot-influenced MOR of Iceland or oceanic arcs (Fig. 10). Alarcon Rise zircon rims are slightly more depleted in Yb than cores and tend to be more enriched in Nb, Ce, Th, and U. Moreover, enrichment in all of these elements, as well as Gd, is also shared by MOR zircons interpreted to have formed from fractional crystallization processes rather than by partial melting of hydrous oceanic crust (Pietranik et al., 2017).

Strong positive correlation between U and Yb in zircon reflects their similar compatibility (Fig. 10). However, since U is slightly less compatible than Yb (Nardi et al., 2013), the U/Yb ratio increases during crustal evolution and is effective in discriminating oceanic vs continental/ arc provenance (Grimes et al., 2007). Plotting U vs Yb and U/Yb against other trace elements and ratios effectively shows a lower boundary of continental zircon in a survey of >5000 grains (Grimes et al., 2015). Such plots indicate that Alarcon Rise zircon show a strong MOR affinity with little to no continental signature (Figs 10 and 11A-C).

Although data plot along the mantle array (Fig. 11C), analyses from zircon rims tend to yield consistently higher U/Yb ratios compared with core analyses (Fig. 11D). This trend is caused by lower Yb concentrations at a given U content in grain rims (Fig. 10). Grain rims also have higher Nb/Yb and slightly lower Gd/Yb, which corresponds with expected trends produced by zircon and apatite crystallization in the host melt (Fig. 11C and D; Grimes et al., 2015). Increasing U/Yb during zircon growth is also corroborated by an overall positive trend with Hf (Fig. 11B), which increasingly substitutes for Zr during magma evolution and cooling (Grimes et al., 2009).

Higher Hf concentrations also correspond with lower Ti-contents, a proxy for cooler temperatures (Fig. 12A). Titanium concentrations range from 5 to 24 μ g/g, which corresponds to Ti-in-zircon crystallization temperatures between 700°C and 850°C (Fig. 12B). An average Ti-inzircon temperature of 766 ± 53°C is within error of FeTi oxide temperatures of 811 ± 54 °C (Portner et al., 2021). The absence of trends in Ti and Hf between cores and rims from different grains indicates that they all did not

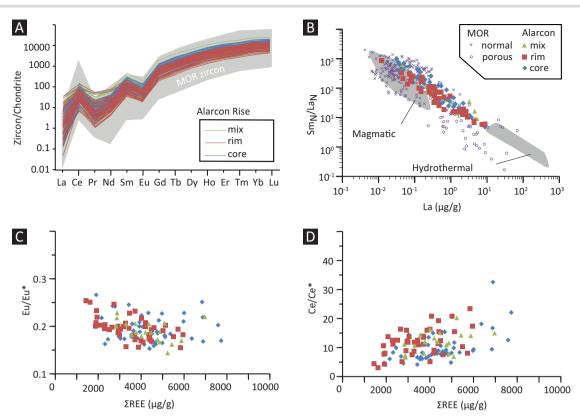


Fig. 9. REE plots for Alarcon Rise zircon (n=111). (A) Chondrite normalized (N) REE concentration diagram showing depleted LREE. Global survey of oceanic zircon from MOR crust after Grimes et al. (2009). (B) Comparison of (Sm/La)_N vs La (µg/g) between zircons from Alarcon Rise and other MOR settings. Normal magmatic MOR zircon exhibits oscillatory to sector zoning (types 1 and 2), whereas porous MOR zircon (type 3) exhibit chaotic zoning patterns with abundant inclusions and pores (Grimes et al., 2009). Discrimination fields for hydrothermal vs magmatic zircon are from continental rocks (Hoskin, 2005). (C) Europium anomaly (E_N/E_*) vs total (Σ) REE where $E_N/\sqrt{Sm_NxGd_N}$. (D) Cerium anomaly (E_N/E_*) vs Σ REE where Ce* is equal to Ce_N/_√(La_N(1/3) + Nd_N(2/3)). Plot symbols correspond to zircon grain rims (red square/line), cores (blue diamond/line), or mixed regions that included both core and rim (green triangle/line). Core vs rim classification is based on laser spot positions within grain zoning patterns (Fig. 7). Chondrite values are from Sun & McDonough (1989).

nucleate and crystallize at the same time but instead formed over an extended period of magma cooling and fractionation.

Zircon Hf and O isotope geochemistry

Zircon 176 Hf/ 177 Hf $_{initial}$ (t=0 Ma) values ranging from 0.283396 to 0.283027 (for grains with 176 Yb/ 177 Hf < 0.20) were calculated using the Lu-decay constant of Scherer et al. (2001) and a CHUR value of 0.282785 (Bouvier et al., 2008). Due to the very young age of all zircon grains (Fig. 8) and very long half-life of the Lu-Hf system, $^{176}\text{Hf}/^{177}\text{Hf}$ initial is indistinguishable from $^{176} Hf/^{177} Hf_{measured}$ making additional corrections for radiogenic decay negligible.

Epsilon hafnium (ε Hf_{zircon}) data from 80 zircon grains (85 total analyses not including grains with 176 Yb/ 177 Hf > 0.20) from four samples yield a Gaussian distribution with an average of 13.7 ± 5.6 (2 σ ; Fig. 13A), indicating a normal to enriched DMM source (ε Hf_{zircon} = 16.8–11.1; Workman & Hart, 2005). The \pm 5.6 SD in εHf_{zircon} values of the population is much larger than the average internal analytical error of ± 2.4 (2 σ) on each measurement. The Gaussian distribution is asymmetric with a notable proportion of grains with relatively lower (more enriched) ε and a much smaller

tail of analyses at high (more depleted) ε value. The peak mode is consistent with mantle zircon, but with a wide overall range between $\varepsilon Hf_{zircon} = 19$ and 8, within a 95% CI (Fig. 13A). A subset of zircons with multiple spot analyses in single grains (n=14, including grains)with 176 Yb/ 177 Hf > 0.20), confirm generally more variable εHf_{zircon} in grain cores vs rims (Fig. 14A). This variation is within analytical precision for most grains (8/14) but is primarily lower in grain cores that are analytically distinct from grain rims (5/6). Overall variability is most pronounced in grain cores with high 176Yb/177Hf, which also tend to have larger analytical uncertainty. Higher ¹⁷⁶Yb/¹⁷⁷Hf generally reflects higher overall Yb contents in grain cores (Fig. 14B).

Interference of ¹⁷⁶Yb on ¹⁷⁶Hf during MC-ICPMS analysis reduces analytical precision, particularly at high Yb concentrations (e.g. Fisher et al., 2014). Due to the high HREE/Hf contents of oceanic zircon, including high Yb in Alarcon zircon, it is important to effectively evaluate the validity of the noted range in reported εHf_{zircon} (Fig. 13A). Including analyses with 176 Yb/ 177 Hf > 0.20 (30/115) in the zircon dataset makes <2% difference to the average εHf_{zircon} (13.5 ± 6.8) but does increase the standard deviation by 1.2ε units. No obvious trends were identified in plots of εHf_{zircon} vs Yb (Fig. 14C), suggesting

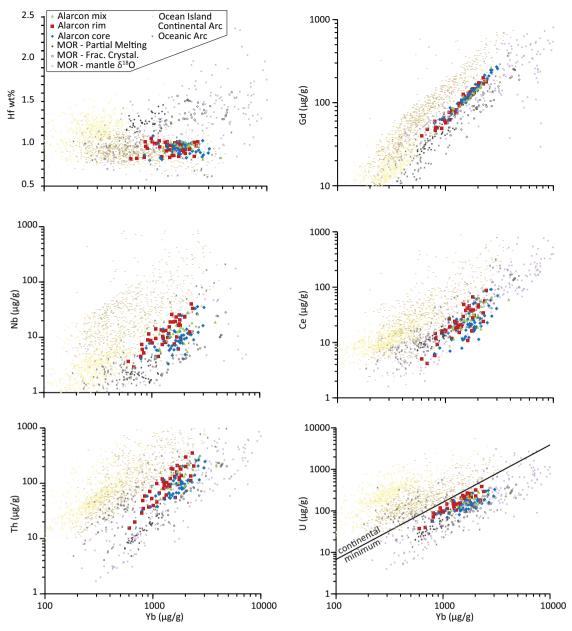


Fig. 10. Zircon trace element diagram of Yb vs Hf, Gd, Nb, Ce, Th, and U. MOR data from Southwest Indian and Mid-Atlantic Ridge zircons are interpreted to have formed from partial melting and fractional crystallization processes (Pietranik et al., 2017) and exhibit mantle-like δ^{18} O_{zircor} (Grimes et al., 2009, 2011). Ocean Island data from Icelandic rhyolites and North American continental arc data are from Carley et al. (2014) and the references therein. Oceanic arc data are from the forearc, back-arc, and remnant arc areas of the Izu-Bonin system (Barth et al., 2017).

that overall high Yb and low Hf (wt%) concentrations in Alarcon Rise zircons cannot explain the wide range of measured ε Hf_{zircon} alone in grains with <0.20 176 Yb/ 177 Hf. A minor to negligible impact of the Yb-interference correction on reported εHf_{zircon} is also indicated by a lack of any trend in a plot of the Yb-correction percentage vs εHf_{zircon} (Fig. 14D). This analysis suggests that the large range in Alarcon Rise &Hfzircon is mostly natural and not an analytical artifact. This is supported by the much greater 2σ variability across the full dataset (5.6 ε) compared with analytical uncertainty (2.4 ε) alone.

The majority (85/87 grains) of $\delta^{18}O_{zircon}$ measurements fall within a narrow range of 4.6%-5.5% (Fig. 13B). The average $\delta^{18}O_{zircon}$ of $5.0 \pm 0.3\%$ (n = 87; 2 σ) overlaps with the accepted mantle-derived value ($5.3 \pm 0.3\%$; Valley, 2003). Standard deviation of the population (0.45%) is approximately double the average individual measurement precision (0.27%) implying some of the range in data is real. No discernable differences were noted in grain cores vs rims or between dark vs light CL domains. Analysis pairs from single grains where both a core and rim were measured have lower $\delta^{18} {
m O}_{
m zircon}$ in 10/19 grains. Alarcon $\delta^{18} O_{zircon}$ is notably higher than the majority of Icelandic rhyolite-hosted zircon thought to form from partial melting of hydrothermally altered crust (2.2%-4.8%; Bindeman et al., 2012a; Padilla et al.,

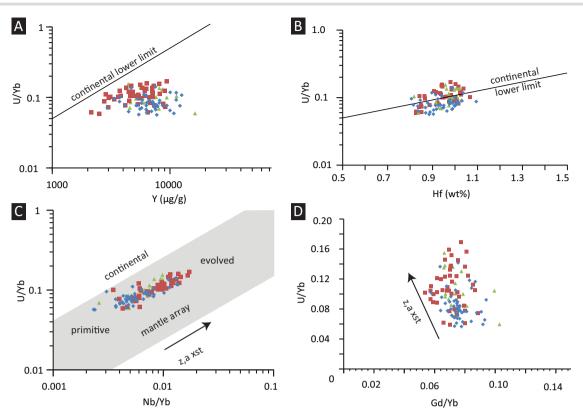


Fig. 11. Zircon trace element discrimination diagrams for Alarcon Rise zircon. Lower limit of continental zircon in A-C is from Grimes et al. (2007). Mantle array and vectors for zircon and apatite crystallization (z, a xst) in C and D are from Carley et al. (2014) and Grimes et al. (2015). Symbols correspond to legends shown in Figs 9 and 10.

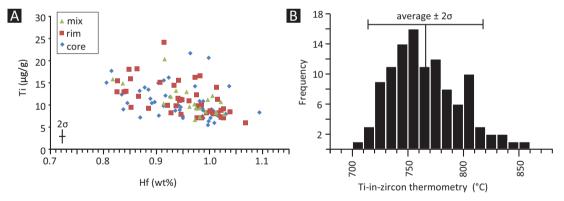


Fig. 12. Titanium ($\mu g/g$) and Hf (wt%) concentrations (A) and Ti-in-zircon crystallization temperatures (B) for Alarcon Rise zircons. Increasing Ti correlates with increasing crystallization temperature. Titanium-in-zircon thermometry was calculated using $a_{\text{TiO2}} = 0.8$ and $a_{\text{SiO2}} = 1.0$ and calibrated for pressure at 4±2 km depth below seafloor (after Ferry & Watson, 2007). Average temperature (vertical bar) and 2σ analytical error (horizontal bar) on each temperature measurement is 52°C.

DISCUSSION

Oceanic MORB mantle source

Little to no contribution from continental crust or mantle

An oceanic mantle origin for all Alarcon Rise lavas is indicated by whole rock Hf-Nd-Sr-Pb isotope geochemistry. Data fall within the existing EPR field and are consistent with a DMM to EDMM affinity (Figs 5 and 6A). Whole rock δD also show good agreement with a normal to slightly enriched Pacific MORB mantle source (Fig. 6C). This conclusion is supported by eruption of both N-MORB and rare E-MORB along Alarcon Rise (Clague et al., 2018).

Trace element concentrations below the minimum values determined for continental crust (Figs 10 and 11) and a relatively juvenile Hf-isotope signature (Fig. 13A) for Alarcon zircon support an oceanic crust affinity and suggest that they are genetically related to their host rhyolitic melt and are not continental xenocrysts (cf. Ashwal et al., 2017). Most ε Hf_{zircon} data (with 176 Yb/ 177 Hf < 0.20) fall within the oceanic mantle zircon field (Kostitsyn et al., 2009; Portner et al., 2011; Padilla et al., 2016), but some grains exhibit an enriched character (<11 ε Hf_{zircon}; Fig. 13A). These enriched grains create a broad range in Alarcon εHf_{zircon} at constant

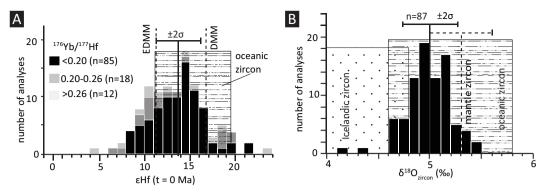


Fig. 13. Alarcon zircon Hf and O isotope data. (A) Stacked column frequency histogram of &Hfzircon (n = 115). Normal to enriched oceanic zircon field (horizontal dashed pattern) from Kostitsyn et al. (2009), Portner et al. (2011), Jeffcoat (2012), and Pietranik et al. (2017). Ideal DMM and EDMM sources (vertical dashed lines) are from Workman & Hart (2005). Average ε Hf_{zircon}, for grains with 176 Yb/ 177 Hf < 0.20 is shown by solid vertical line with horizontal $\pm 2\sigma$ analytical error bars. (B) Stacked column frequency histogram of $\delta^{18}O_{zircon}$ (n = 87) with average (solid vertical line) and analytical $\pm 2\sigma$ (error bars) values. Average mantle zircon (vertical dashed line) with $\pm 2\sigma$ bars is from Valley (2003). Range of normal oceanic zircon (horizontal dashed pattern) is from Grimes et al. (2011). Icelandic zircon field (dotted) is from Padilla et al. (2016) and extends to 2.2%.

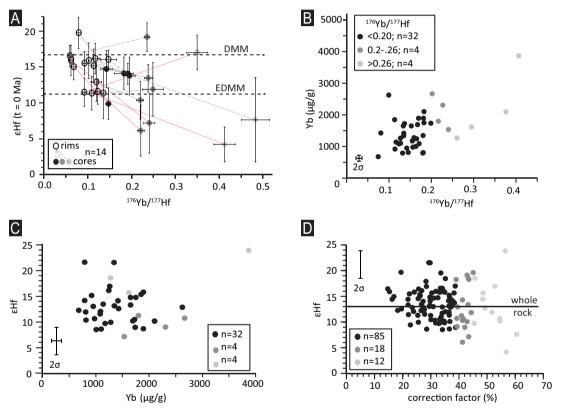


Fig. 14. Plots of Hf and Yb isotope and concentration data from zircon. Samples color coded by ¹⁷⁶Yb/¹⁷⁷Hf values of <0.20 (black), 0.20–0.26 (medium gray), and > 0.26 (light gray). (A) Isotopic comparison of cores and rims from single zircon grains (n = 14). Tie-lines connect grains with paired core-rim analyses. Solid red tie-lines indicate grains with analytically distinguishable core-rim variation, whereas dashed tie-lines connect paired analyses that are within analytical 2σ error. Mantle source reservoirs (DMM and EDMM) are from Workman & Hart (2005). (B) Yb¹⁷⁶/Hf¹⁷⁷ and total Yb concentrations collected by MC-ICPMS and LA-ICPMS analysis, respectively, from different spots on single grains. Two- σ analytical error is smaller than the size of the plotted points. (C) Hf isotopic values from MC-ICPMS compared with total Yb concentration (LA-ICPMS), collected from different spots on single grains. (D) Hf isotopic values (ϵ Hf_{zircon}) vs Yb correction factors. The Yb correction factor = (176 Hf/ 177 Hf_{measured} - 176 Hf/ 177 Hf_{corrected})/ 176 Hf/ 177 Hf_{measured} is directly proportional to 176 Yb/ 177 Hf, where the 0.20% cutoff used in other plots corresponds to a 42% correction. The solid line represents the average whole rock ε Hf (Fig. 6A).

 $\delta^{18}O_{zircon}$ that falls within a 0%-5% mixing model domain between southern Baja continental crust and DMM (Fig. 15). However, the most enriched zircons are still within analytical uncertainty (\sim 2.4 ε units) of an EDMM source reservoir and do not require any continental input to explain their composition. This point is supported by zircon trace element patterns that show very little to no continental signature in multiple discrimination plots. Although we cannot preclude a minor contribution of continental crust, combined observations from zircon trace element and isotope geochemistry suggest that nearby Mexican crust was likely not involved in formation of Alarcon Rise rhyolites despite its proximity.

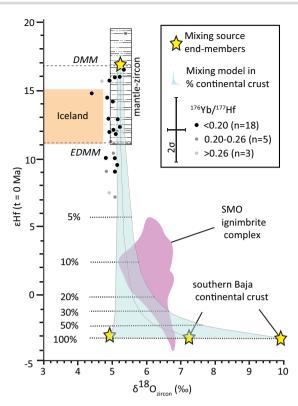


Fig. 15. Zircon Hf vs O isotope plot showing mixing domain (light blue) between zircon formed from hypothetical source reservoirs (stars). Data from the SMO ignimbrite field in western mainland Mexico are from Andrews et al. (2014). Mixing line end-member ε Hf, and O and Hf concentrations are from Workman and Hart (2005; DMM) and Schaaf et al. (2000, continental crust). Continental crust ε Hf values were converted from &Nd using the terrestrial array of Vervoort et al. (2011) and correspond to granitoids exposed on the LCB of the southern Baja Peninsula (see LCB in Fig. 1 $\bar{\text{B}}$). End-member $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values for zircon from DMM and a likely range of continental crust sources are from Bindeman (2008) and Valley et al. (2005), respectively. Zircon ε Hf and δ^{18} O‰ values from Icelandic rhyolites represent a hydrothermally altered oceanic crust affinity (Bindeman et al., 2012a; Padilla et al., 2016).

Zircon Hf isotopic heterogeneity

The few studies of εHf_{zircon} from MOR crust show that single sample sites tend to vary by 9 to 4 ε units (Kostitsyn et al., 2009; Portner et al., 2011; Jeffcoat, 2012; Thomas, 2013; Padilla et al., 2016), which is generally much less than Alarcon rhyolite εHf_{zircon} (~11 ε units). Alarcon's large range is comparable to $\varepsilon Hf_{wholerock}$ variation measured from the full length of the EPR (17.7 to 6.0) or the Mid-Atlantic Ridge (18.6 to 9.8; Nowell et al., 1998; Salters et al., 2011, Zhang et al., 2016). In sum, the full range of εHf_{zircon} seen in Alarcon Rise rhyolites (19 to 8) is nearly equivalent to the full $\varepsilon Hf_{wholerock}$ range of MOR oceanic crust in general. Below, we suggest that this is likely due to the high sensitivity of zircon in capturing arepsilonHf that would otherwise be overlooked in whole rock studies.

Although some of the variability in Alarcon ε Hf_{zircon} corresponds with higher overall Yb in grain cores, analysis of the Yb-interference correction supports the interpretation that most of the observed range is real (Fig. 14D). This is important since the whole rock

dissolution method generally minimizes Yb-interference and $\varepsilon Hf_{\text{wholerock}}$ (13.07 ± 0.13, n = 5) is strikingly more precise than εHf_{zircon} (13.7 ± 5.6, n = 85). Discrepancies between whole rock and zircon ε Hf can be related to variability between zircon and other phases digested during whole rock analysis (e.g. Tang et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2019), but close similarity between average ε Hf_{wholerock} and ε Hf_{zircon} from Alarcon Rise suggest this is unlikely. Rather, it is more plausible that the $\varepsilon Hf_{wholerock}$ signal homogenizes the range recorded by εHf_{zircon} . This may be due to εHf_{zircon} variability primarily coming from zircon cores, which make up a relatively insignificant volume of material that would contribute to $\varepsilon Hf_{wholerock}$. Importantly, the EDMM-DMM range preserved by ε Hf_{zircon} is corroborated by whole rock Pb isotopes that also range from enriched to normal DMM source end-members (Fig. 5B and C).

The εHf_{zircon} variability seen in Alarcon rhyolite is not uncommon for granitoids from the continental crust. Variability of 10–11 ε units for individual granite samples require magma-mixing from different sources of melt generation and pluton emplacement, over millions of years in some cases (e.g. Kemp et al., 2007; Yang et al., 2007; Shaw & Flood, 2009). In general, researchers studying continental rocks rely on zircon, vs whole rock, to identify isotopic end-members and assess the magnitudes of their input during magma petrogenesis. Within this context, Alarcon Rise zircon likely preserves the melting of a heterogeneously enriched mantle source that replenished an evolving MORB magma over tens of thousands of years of rhyolite petrogenesis.

Magma evolution Zircon growth history

U-series geochronology shows that the vast majority of Alarcon Rise zircons crystallized by ~23 ka. These ages are much younger than nearby Mexican continental crust (>5 Ma; Ferrari et al., 2007; Fletcher et al., 2007), supporting the interpretation that Alarcon grains are not continental xenocrysts. The older Alarcon grain population (~45 ka), however, indicates a complicated history of rhyolite petrogenesis and zircon crystallization that generated textural and chemical differences between core and rim.

Grain-scale variations in zircon trace elements from core to rim record chemical changes in the host melt with time (e.g. Claiborne et al., 2006) and can be used to interpret rhyolite magma evolution on Alarcon Rise. Previous work has suggested that increasing oceanic zircon U/Yb toward more 'continental-like' compositions may be caused by low degrees of partial melting or influence of a more enriched MORB mantle source (Portner et al., 2011). Similar ε Hf in zircon grain cores compared with rims (Fig. 14A) would then suggest that progressive depletion of Yb relative to U in grain rims is caused by magma fractionation processes and not changes in source enrichment. This interpretation is also supported by increasing Nb/Yb from grain cores to rims (Fig. 11C),

which can be produced by apatite and zircon fractionation during magma evolution (Grimes et al., 2015). Moreover, slightly higher Σ REE in grain cores, primarily by early uptake of less incompatible HREE, would deplete the residual melt in REE from which later grain rims would crystallize. Some overlap in these chemical signals between grain cores and rims, however, may indicate periodic recharge events of more primitive magma that mixed with the zircon magma host.

Trace element chemical variation is also displayed by darker CL cores and brighter CL rims for the majority of grains. Although most grains (>70%) show relatively clean oscillatory and sector zoning from core to rim, evidence for continuous chemical evolution, a noticeable small subpopulation shows abrupt contacts and changes in zoning patterns at the core-rim boundary. Anhedral and/or porous to pitted cores (Fig. 7E and F) in the small subpopulation represent a more complex growth history that reflects a change in the chemical environment from which some grains grew.

Porous/pitted zircons representing a small portion of grains collected from the plutonic section of MOR crust (Grimes et al., 2009) have been interpreted to form in the presence of aqueous solutions. Such fluids are invoked to be necessary in the generation of many MOR silicic magmas (i.e. plagiogranites), which have largely been interpreted to form through assimilation of hydrated oceanic crust and subsequent fractional crystallization (AFC; e.g. Wanless et al., 2010). This process is often indicated by lower δ^{18} O values than expected from crystal fractionation alone (Bindeman et al., 2012a; Hampton et al., 2021). Although sharp boundaries between textural domains of some Alarcon zircon exist, their $\delta^{18}O_{zircon}$ signature of $5.0 \pm 0.3\%$ is more representative of a juvenile DMM source ($\delta^{18}O_{zircon} = 5.3 \pm 0.3\%$; Valley, 2003) without the need for assimilating hydrated oceanic crust. Zircon grains with porous microstructure may also form during dissolution-precipitation processes (Halpin et al., 2020), which could explain anhedral core-rim boundaries. This latter process would likely accompany periodic mafic recharge events over ~20 kyr of rhyolite petrogenesis.

Rhyolite petrogenesis

Fractional crystallization may account for the production of some high silica magmas on the MOR (Byerly, 1980; Juster et al., 1989; Geist et al., 1995) and back-arc spreading centers (Beier et al., 2015), but other mechanisms including liquid immiscibility (Charlier et al., 2013), gabbro/sheeted dike partial melting (France et al., 2010; Grimes et al., 2013), and AFC involving seawater-altered oceanic crust (Gerlach et al., 1981; Oskarsson et al., 1982; Pedersen & Malpas, 1984; Nicholson et al., 1991; Haase et al., 2005; Wanless et al., 2010; Van Der Zander et al., 2010) or hydrothermal brines (Michael & Schilling, 1989; Jeanvoine et al., 2021) have been proposed to occur. Experiments and sampling generally show that liquid immiscibility produces mafic, including FeTi basalt, and felsic

end-members, without a significant proportion of intermediate composition (52-65 wt% SiO₂) magmas (Dixon & Rutherford, 1979; Charlier et al., 2013). The abundance of intermediate lava flows and minor amount (by volume) of felsic lava flows on Alarcon Rise likely rules out liquid immiscibility (Figs 1D and 2). Instead, major element trends are more consistent with a fractional crystallization model that includes some hybridization (mixing) between intermediate and end-member compositions (Clague et al., 2018; Fig. 3). However, the cited model also does not match measured trends in Cl and K2O, which are much more enriched than simple fractionation models (Fig. 16A). Elevated Cl is generally ascribed to surface to subsurface contamination by hydrothermal brines or assimilation of seawater-altered crust around the margins of evolving magma bodies in magmatic arc, hotspot, and MOR settings (Michael & Cornell, 1998; Perfit et al., 2003; le Roux et al., 2006; Wanless et al., 2010; Deardorff et al., 2011; Portner et al., 2014; Hampton et al., 2021; Jeanvoine et al., 2021).

Assimilation of hydrothermally altered lower oceanic crust

Determining whether the petrogenesis of evolved MOR magmas requires the involvement of seawater-altered mafic crust, through bulk assimilation or addition of small percentage partial melts, has largely hinged on the identification of geochemical signals predicted by experimental and numerical models (e.g. Dixon & Rutherford, 1979; Juster et al., 1989; Berndt et al., 2004; Koepke et al., 2004). Major elements trends, particularly that of Ti, from partial melting experiments of gabbro and sheeted dike samples show promise but diverge under different run conditions and are inconclusive (Koepke et al., 2007; France et al., 2010). Partial melts derived from hydrous oceanic crust can also be identified from whole rock trace element concentrations where La and Yb remain constant with increasing SiO₂ (Brophy, 2009). A similar origin is interpreted for zircon with lower Nb, Ce, Gd, Th, and Yb (Pietranik et al., 2017). Enrichment of these elements in Alarcon Rise zircon (Fig. 10) instead supports a fractional crystallization origin for their host rhyolites without the need for crustal assimilation. However, comparably large ranges in said trace elements in MOR zircon that lack (Grimes et al., 2011) or contain (Carley et al., 2014) evidence for assimilation of hydrous oceanic crust question their utility as an effective petrogenetic discriminator. Rather, more reliable interpretations can be drawn from combined trace element and isotope investigations of zircon and whole rock/glass geochemistry, particularly δ^{18} O data (e.g. Bindeman, 2008; Grimes et al., 2011, 2013; Padilla et al., 2016).

Direct measurement and modeled trends show that δ^{18} O variation during fractionation from basalt to rhyolite can increase by 0.5%-1.5% (Muehlenbachs & Byerly, 1982; Bindeman, 2008). However, modeled δ^{18} O fractionation trends are quite variable and highly dependent on mineral crystallization and temperature (Fig. 6B). Compared with wetter and colder calc-alkaline systems, drier

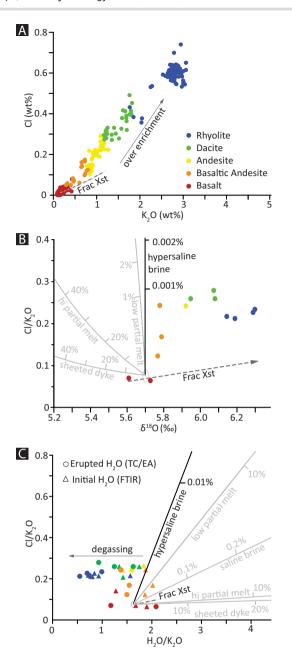


Fig. 16. Contaminant/assimilant identification diagrams. (A) Chlorine vs K₂O electron microprobe glass data for the entire Alarcon Rise (Clague et al., 2018). Fractional crystallization (Frac Xst) models are the same as in Fig. 3 where the high K₂O end of the trend marks the predicted most siliceous composition. (B) Whole rock δ^{18} O data (Fig. $\hat{6B}$) vs microprobe glass Cl/K2O data. Mixing lines (gray and black solid lines) connect primitive basalt (empty gray circle) with three end-members: (1) hypersaline brine (50% NaCl; Kent et al., 1999), (2) sheeted dikes exhibiting <50% alteration between 1500 and 2000 mbsf in OSDP hole 504B (Sparks, 1995; Zuleger et al., 1995), and (3) low (1%) and high degree (20%) partial melts from the sheeted dike composition. Partial melts were modeled using Rhyolite-MELTS at QFM-M1 and 100 MPa (Gualda et al., 2012). End-member δ^{18} O = 4.61‰ for sheeted dike (Alt et al., 1995) and their partial melts, and $\delta^{18}O = 0.85\%$ for the hypersaline brine (Alt et al., 2010). Fractional crystallization δ^{18} O values are from Bindeman (2008; Fig. 6B) and Cl/K₂O from Rhyolite-MELTS output (see Fig. 3 caption). All mixing lines calculated after Ersoy & Helvaci (2010), with tick marks corresponding to relative percentages of end-members needed to mix with the starting basalt. (C) Chlorine/K2O vs H2O/K2O contaminant/assimilant mixing diagram. Saline (15% NaCl) brine component composition is from Kent et al. (1999), whereas the sources of the other components are the same as in B. Erupted H₂O (circles) measured with TC/EA, and initial (undegassed) H2O (triangles) calculated from published FTIR data (Fig. 6D).

and hotter tholeiitic systems, like Alarcon Rise (Fig. 3) should generate overall lower increases in δ^{18} O of $\sim 1\%$ (Bucholz et al., 2017). Lower than expected $\delta^{18}O_{wholerock}$ measurements, compared with modeled trends, in MOR dacites and rhyodacites have led many to invoke assimilation of hydrated oceanic crust during their petrogenesis (e.g. Perfit et al., 1999; Wanless et al., 2011). A similar interpretation has been extended to ophiolitic plagiogranites using calculated melt δ^{18} O compositions for the melt from which zircon grew (δ^{18} O_{calc-melt}; Grimes et al., 2013; Morag et al., 2020). However, below, we show that this process is not required to produce the geochemical signature of Alarcon Rise rhyolites.

Alarcon zircon $\delta^{18}O_{calc-melt}$ of 6.7 \pm 0.5%, calculated after Bucholz et al. (2017) using major element compositions (Clague et al., 2018) and Ti-in-zircon crystallization temperatures, extend to higher values than rhyolite $\delta^{18}O_{\text{wholerock}}$ (6.2 ± 0.2%). These values are ~0.6%-1.1‰ higher than basaltic $\delta^{18}O_{wholerock}$ and within the expected range of high silica magmas formed solely from crystal fractionation of MORB or high-Mg arc basalt (see MORB and normal δ^{18} O arrays in Fig. 6B). A MORB protolith for rhyolite $\delta^{18}O_{calc-melt}$ reflects average $\delta^{18}O_{zircon}$ $(5.0 \pm 0.3\%)$, which is analytically indistinguishable from mantle-like zircon ($5.3 \pm 0.3\%$; Valley, 2003) and modern normal MOR plutonic crust thought to have crystallized in a closed system $(5.2 \pm 0.5\%)$; Grimes et al., 2011). This observation suggests that little if any assimilation of seawater-hydrated oceanic crust was required during differentiation of Alarcon MORB to rhyolite and prior to zircon crystallization.

Secondary processes during magma ascent and eruption

Although $\delta^{18}O_{calc-melt}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{wholerock}$ are within analytical uncertainty, the latter is consistently lower than most model trends (Fig. 6B). This might reflect incorporation of low δ^{18} O mafic minerals (e.g. pyroxene>olivine>>FeTi oxides) into the rhyolite magma. Abundant crystalline basalt xenoliths (Fig. 4A and B), and zoned clinopyroxene and plagioclase phenocrysts with mafic affinities (Dreyer et al., 2014) would lower the $\delta^{18}O_{wholerock}$ signal compared with $\delta^{18}O_{calc-melt}$. The presence of these mafic materials within rhyolite samples, as well as the occurrence of hybrid lavas (Fig. 3), suggests that incorporation of wall rock during magma ascent and/or magma-mixing was important during development of the Alarcon lava suite (Clague et al., 2018) and could have produced the small disparity between rhyolite $\delta^{18}O_{calc-melt}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{wholerock}$. Future mineral chemistry data will determine what proportion of the rhyolite crystal cargo is mafic and if it could effectively lower the δ^{18} O_{wholerock} signal.

Another explanation for the disparity between $\delta^{18}O_{calc-melt}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{wholerock}$ could be attributed to seawater assimilation subsequent to zircon crystallization. Volatile speciation data from FTIR analysis indicate that Alarcon Rise rhyolite glasses with >>2.5 wt% H₂O_t preserve syn- or post-eruptive hydration (Portner et al., 2021), a trait that might be shared by one sample used for

 $\delta^{18}O_{\text{wholerock}}$ analysis with unusually high H₂O (2.5 wt%; Fig. 6D). High temperature (>300°C) diffusion of seawater $(\delta^{18}O = -0.1 \text{ to } -0.3; \text{ Keigwin, 2002})$ into the glass matrix during or shortly after eruption could lower δ^{18} O_{wholerock}, but the co-occurring zircon ($\delta^{18}O_{calc-melt}$) would be left unaffected and reflect the pristine DMM source. Evidence for this process is preserved by Cl- and H2O-enriched flow bands in some MORB lavas and Alarcon rhyolite samples (Portner et al., 2014, 2015). This interpretation would suggest that slightly lower δ^{18} O_{wholerock} compared with $\delta^{18}O_{calc-melt}$ may just be an artifact of syn-eruptive hydration. Moreover, although models for entrainment of mafic material and/or secondary hydration during magma ascent and eruption may explain the minor discrepancy between $\delta^{18} O_{wholerock}$ vs $\delta^{18} O_{calc-melt},$ they do not explain Cl and K over enrichment observed in all evolved lava compositions erupted alongside the rhyolite dome (Fig. 16A).

Deep-seated contamination by hydrothermal brines

Incorporation of a Cl-enriched component without greatly modifying δ^{18} O is possible through contamination by minimal amounts of hypersaline brine (Fig. 16B). Phase separation of hydrothermal cells in the oceanic crust can produce hypersaline brines with ~50 wt% NaCl near the top of axial melt lenses and low salinity fluids that vent from black smoker vent fields at the surface (Fig. 17A; Nehlig, 1991; Kelley & Früh-Green, 2001; Coumou et al., 2009). Deep-seated hypersaline brines are a primary contaminant source for unusually Cl-rich fractionated basalts and more evolved lavas in MOR, back-arc, and oceanic island settings (Michael & Shilling, 1989; Kent et al., 1999; Jeanvoine et al., 2021). Up to 95% and 40% of the Cl and H₂O, respectively, in submarine glasses may ultimately be derived from contamination by hypersaline brine early on during magma evolution (Kendrick et al., 2013).

Other potential sources of Cl enrichment from bulk assimilation of altered lower crust (e.g. sheeted dikes) or their partial melts would produce lower δ^{18} O and higher H_2O/K_2O than observed in Alarcon lavas (Fig. 16B and C). Although low degree (1%) partial melts of an altered mafic crustal component may achieve similar Cl/K2O contents to observed sample trends (e.g. Wanless et al., 2011), such a low percentage of partial melt falls below the threshold for effective melt segregation and migration (Vigneresse et al., 1996; Lee & Morton, 2015) unless significant fracturing/deformation can provide pathways for melt migration (Etheridge et al., 2020). Higher degrees (20%) of partial melt (andesite in composition) extracted from altered sheeted dikes would be more capable of migrating into an adjacent magma body, but the resulting Cl-enrichment and δ^{18} O would be far too low compared with what is observed in Alarcon lavas (Fig. 16C). In either case, the assimilation of such crustal components would require a much higher volume of assimilant (>1000X) that is unrealistic (Michael & Shilling, 1989).

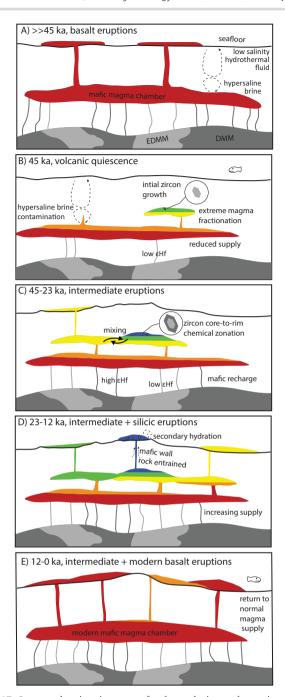


Fig. 17. Cartoon showing time-steps for the evolution and eruption of evolved lavas on Alarcon Rise. Mafic to felsic magma compositions represented by hot (red) to cool (blue) colors, respectively (see color spectrum in Fig. 16). Relative magma chamber depth in crust is approximate and based on data from spreading ridges (Arnulf et al., 2014) with intermediate-rates (~50 mm/yr) and normal oceanic crustal thickness (6–7 km) like Alarcon Rise (Lizarralde et al., 2007; DeMets et al., 2010). Magma chamber thicknesses and inner stratification are not drawn to scale. (A) > > 45 ka: normal magmatic spreading conditions with high magma flux sourced from a heterogeneously enriched Pacific MORB mantle source (light to dark gray). (B) ~45 ka: decreased magma supply during a period of amagmatic extension initiates, causing magma chambers to stagnate and differentiate to more evolved compositions. (C) 45-23 ka: small recharge events over 22 kyr allow isotopically diverse magmas to mix and fractionate, producing a wide range in zircon ε Hf. Initial eruptions of more evolved compositions occur. (D) 23-12 ka: zircon crystallization ceased by this time. Increasing magma flux triggers eruptions of silicic and intermediate lavas at the surface. (E) < 12 ka: magma flux continues to increase until normal magmatic spreading conditions return with voluminous basalt eruptions at the surface.

Higher volumes of assimilant would also enrich the magma in H₂O, but average initial H₂O contents in rhyolite at 100 MPa calculated from dissolved and exsolved components (Fig. 6D) closely match predicted H₂O contents from fractional crystallization. Although relatively lower H₂O/K₂O in the more evolved Alarcon Rise magmas could be explained by degassing processes (e.g. Wanless et al., 2010), samples generally converge along the hypersaline brine mixing line (Fig. 16C). Thus, overall, increasing Cl/K₂O from basalt to basaltic andesite and constant Cl/K₂O in more evolved lavas suggest that hypersaline brine contamination occurred early on in the fractionation process (Fig. 16B).

We envisage a model where deep-seated hydrothermal brines interacted with early evolved melts as they migrated from deep to shallower storage levels (see below; Fig. 17B). This process did not trigger or influence rhyolite formation to any great degree and is a common phenomenon along the MOR system (Michael & Schilling, 1989). Following extreme crystal fractionation (Fig. 17C), rhyolitic magma incorporated a small component of low δ^{18} O wall rock and/or seawater along the conduit during magma ascent and/or in the eruptive vent (Fig. 17D). This interpretation is consistent with models for subsolidus seawater infiltration, alteration, and assimilation along deep-seated crustal fractures after silicic magma petrogenesis (Gillis, 1995; Grimes et al., 2011). Future trace element, isotopic, and melt inclusion volatile studies are needed to better understand hightemperature interaction between brines and seawater with ascending magmas just above the melt lens and in the eruptive conduit and vent environments.

Tectono-magmatic model

Alarcon zircon geochronology, geochemistry, and internal CL-patterns indicate growth and chemical evolution from ~45 to 23 ka. Lower magma recharge during this time could allow differentiation of MORB to rhyolite (Fig. 17B and C). Such evolved oceanic rocks have been proposed to form in magma chambers that are cut-off from their sources during periodic reductions in magma supply (Wanless et al., 2010). The process would likely accompany time periods or spatial focusing of amagmatic vs magmatic extension along intermediate spreading ridges, which has been proposed to explain abyssal hill fabric on Alarcon Rise (Le Saout et al., 2019).

An association of increased tectonic deformation with magma-starved slow-spreading centers suggests that extension in these settings is accommodated by faulting rather than by dike emplacement (Buck et al., 2005; Ito & Behn, 2008). A lower magma supply during eruption of Alarcon rhyolites is supported by a higher occurrence of faults in the northern portion of the spreading segment where they erupted (Fig. 2). The difference between the two zircon age populations suggest that a reduced magma supply may have been sustained for a period of at least ~22 kyr. This extended period of time could have allowed small magmatic pulses

from an isotopically variable MORB mantle to ascend and stall in the crust where they would slowly mix and fractionate to eventually produce an eruptible batch of rhyolite magma (Fig. 17C).

Magma recharge, although limited, would need to have been sustained over the 22 kyr of rhyolite evolution to provide enough heat to prohibit complete crystallization. Moreover, silicic melt extraction would be hindered by high crystal contents and, hence, higher viscosity as well as low porosities generated during extreme crystal fractionation from MORB to rhyolite. Modeling (Fig. 3; Clague et al., 2018) shows that the starting MORB liquid must have fractionated >90% crystals in order to evolve to a 74 wt% SiO₂ melt. Such high crystal contents are beyond the terminal porosity (~25%) needed for effective silicic melt extraction (Vigneresse et al., 1996; Lee & Morton, 2015). Therefore, we envisage a multi-tiered magma ascent and fractionation process where the primary MORB magmas evolved to a basaltic andesite melt and residual crystal mush bearing >50% solids in a deep magma chamber (Fig. 17B). Continued magma recharge from below would trigger ascent of the evolved basaltic andesite to a shallower magma lens where it would further fractionate another ≤75% crystals in one or more depth stages. During this initial ascent phase, the early evolved melts would interact with minor amounts of hypersaline brines just above the deep magma chamber.

A step-wise crystal fractionation process is supported by relatively increasing crystal-contents with SiO2 in intermediate lavas that erupted alongside crystal-rich rhyolite lavas (Portner et al., 2021). Periodic replenishment and mixing of low-SiO₂ intermediate composition magma into a shallow melt lens bearing higher SiO₂ magma would be possible due to similar viscosities, compared with mixing the most mafic and felsic endmembers alone (Manga, 1996). Such a punctuated recharge, mixing and differentiation process might explain the presence of 'hybrid' lavas on Alarcon Rise (Fig. 3; Clague et al., 2018) and diverse ε Hf_{zircon} signal (Fig. 13A). Future analysis and modeling of mineral, melt inclusion, and glass trace element geochemistry will help address this question.

A high abundance of intermediate lavas relative to rhyolites, and a minor proportion of old zircon grains further support the idea that magma recharge was continuous enough to sustain an intermediate composition magma lens, and too hot to allow significant zircon crystallization in rhyolite melt early on (Fig. 17B). Numerical modeling shows that a 25 m thick silicic liquid could develop at the top of a fractionating magma chamber over 22 kyr if it was water saturated (Lee et al., 2015). High initial water contents (4.5–2.0 wt%) estimated for Alarcon rhyolites at depth in the crust prior to magma ascent and degassing would produce low enough viscosities (10⁵⁻⁶ Pa s) to allow extraction of a rhyolitic batch equal in volume to lava domes on the seafloor ($2-5 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^3$; Portner et al., 2021).

The erupted central rhyolite dome volume would have ultimately been generated from up to 108 m³ of mafic magma considering the required ~95% crystal fractionation needed for differentiation. Assuming a steady input over 22 kyr, a resupply rate of 4.5×10^3 m³/yr would be required for the central Alarcon Rise rhyolite dome source, which is comparable to the lowest eruption rates inferred for the northern EPR (Sinton et al., 2002). Increased magma recharge on Alarcon Rise after 23 ka could then trigger the eruption of silicic lava at the roof of the shallow magma lens (Fig. 17D). This eruption must have been older than ~12 ka, which is the age of the oldest sediment that contains rhyolite ash (Clague et al., 2018). Continued increase in magma supply after 12 ka, closer to typical rates (104 m³/yr over 1 km spreading segment length) inferred for intermediate spreading ridges (White et al., 2006), supported a return to normal basalt dominated volcanism occurring today (Fig. 17E).

CONCLUSIONS

Zircon and whole rock geochemistry of the Alarcon Rise evolved volcanic suite exhibit normal to slightly enriched MOR oceanic crust geochemical signatures. Little to no evidence exists for the incorporation of nearby continental lithosphere or hydrated oceanic crust during rhyolite petrogenesis. Zircon geochronology, geochemistry, and textural characteristics suggest that rhyolite primarily formed between 45 and 23 ka during a time of reduced magma flux, mixing, and differentiation. Increased mantle melting after this period triggered the ascent and eruption of evolved lavas. Alarcon Rise rhyolites are the most evolved volcanic rocks yet found along a normal submarine MOR system away from hot-spots and provide an example of extreme MORB fractionation without crustal assimilation.

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SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary data are available at Journal of Petrology online.

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