1 Role of magma mixing in the pre-eruptive dynamics of the Aeolian

2 Islands volcanoes (Southern Tyrrhenian Sea, Italy)

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30 Abstract

We combined literature and experimental data to determine the role of magma mixing in the pre-31 eruptive dynamics of the Aeolian Islands volcanoes. As a first step, we systematically reviewed the 32 evidence supporting the hypothesis of mixing-triggered eruptions in the Aeolian archipelago, 33 providing textural, chemical, and rheological constraints. The existing data highlighted the 34 significant role of magma mixing in many eruptions within the Aeolian archipelago. Examples 35 include the Upper Pollara and Porri volcano eruptions at Salina, Monte Guardia, and the AD 1230 36 Monte Pilato eruption at Lipari, as well as the present-day activity at Stromboli. Then, we focused 37 on Vulcano Island, chosen as a case study because it represents one of the volcanoes posing the 38 highest risk in the Aeolian archipelago. At Vulcano Island, we highlighted the role of magma 39 mixing in the AD 1739 and 1888–90 eruptions. Finally, we investigated mixing-to-eruption 40 timescales for the AD 1739 eruption, performing mixing experiments, and evaluated the progressive 41 decay of the chemical concentration variance with time. Results pointed to mixing-to-eruption 42 timescales of the order of 29±9 h and magma ascent rates ranging between 3×10^{-2} and 5×10^{-2} m s⁻¹. 43 We finally emphasized that the presented results may have significant implications in the context of 44 volcanic hazard mitigation and planning of emergency activities. 45

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47 Key words: magma mixing, time series experiments, eruption timescales

48 **1. Introduction**

The physical and chemical interaction between compositionally different magmas (i.e. 49 magma mixing in the broadest interpretation that includes mingling and mixing, in agreement with 50 Perugini and Poli, 2012) is a widely studied petrological phenomenon (e.g., Anderson, 1976; Sparks 51 et al., 1977; Bateman, 1995; De Rosa et al. 1996; Wiebe, 1994; De Campos et al., 2008; Albert et 52 al., 2015; Wiesmaier et al., 2015) that has been investigated considering either chemical (e.g., 53 Lesher, 1990; Bateman, 1995; Bergantz et al., 2015; Perugini and Poli, 2005; Petrelli et al., 2006, 54 2011), thermo-dynamical (e.g., Sparks and Marshall, 1986; Snyder, 2000), or rheological 55 approaches (Blake and Fink, 2000; Albert et al., 2015). Moreover, magma mixing has been 56 suggested as an effective eruption trigger (e.g., Sparks et al. 1977; Druitt et al. 2012), and recently, 57 the combination of experimental investigations and the study of volcanic rocks produced by the 58 interaction between different magmas has been proposed as a robust volcanic chronometer (e.g., 59 60 Perugini et al., 2015). The main idea behind the use of magma mixing as a volcanic chronometer assumes the injection of hotter, more primitive, and potentially volatile-rich magma into a more 61 evolved magmatic reservoir as among the leading causes of mechanical destabilization of the 62 system, possibly triggering the eruption (e.g., Sparks et al., 1977; Eichelberger, 1980; Huppert et 63 al., 1984; Wiebe, 1994; Laumonier et al., 2014a, 2014b; Perugini et al., 2015). 64

Observation of pyroclastic rocks and lava flows strongly supports the hypothesis that 65 magma mixing is often involved in the volcanic plumbing system (i.e. the structural framework of 66 the pathways and storage regions through which magma travels from its source region to the Earth's 67 surface; Galland et al., 2015) before an eruption. Examples of significant eruptions from the last 68 two centuries providing evidence of magma mixing are Tambora (1815; Gertisser et al., 2011), 69 Mount St. Helens (1980; Gardner et al., 1995), Pinatubo (1991; Pallister et al., 1992), Soufriere 70 Hills (1995; Murphy et al., 1998), and Ejafjallajökull (2010; Sigmundsson et al., 2010). However, 71 even if the occurrence of a direct link between the injection of new magmas in a shallow crust 72

magmatic reservoir and a subsequent eruption was already established, the timescales of the process
 remain unclear and warrant further investigation.

Substantial evidence of magma mixing has been found in many pyroclastic and effusive products derived from the eruptive activity of the Aeolian Islands volcanoes (Southern Tyrrhenian Sea, Italy), making this area of great interest to study the interaction between compositionally different magmas prior to the eruptions (Francalanci et al., 1989, 1999; Peccerillo, 2005; Petrone et al., 2006; 2018; De Rosa et al., 1996, 2002).

In this paper, we report a comprehensive review of the evidence supporting the hypothesis of mixing-triggered eruptions in the Aeolian archipelago, providing textural, chemical, and rheological constraints.

Subsequently, we experimentally investigated the AD 1739 eruption at Vulcano Island 83 (Aeolian archipelago), chosen as a case study because it represents one of the most active and 84 85 dangerous volcanoes in the Aeolian archipelago, posing the highest risk in the region (De Astis et al., 2013). By comparing the results of magma mixing experiments to natural samples, we provide 86 an estimate of the timescales occurring between the beginning of the mixing process in the shallow 87 magmatic reservoir and the subsequent eruption. Finally, we present an estimate of the averaged 88 magma ascent rates, and discuss the implications of the results for an improved definition of the 89 90 dynamics occurring in the Vulcano plumbing system prior to the eruption.

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92 2. Geological setting and petro-volcanological background

93 2.1. Geologic summary of the Aeolian archipelago and evidence of magma mixing

The Aeolian Islands are a volcanic archipelago in the Southern Tyrrhenian Sea, north of the coast of Sicily. The archipelago consists of seven islands: Lipari, Stromboli, Vulcano, Salina, Alicudi, Filicudi, and Panarea (Fig. 1A). The subaerial volcanoes of this archipelago and the associated volcanic seamounts form a ring-shaped structure emplaced on continental crust.

The volcanic products (aged from 430 ka to present; Peccerillo, 2005) range from calcalkaline, high-K calc-alkaline, to shoshonitic and alkaline (Keller, 1980; Peccerillo, 2005; Fig. 2).

The geochemical affinity of these rocks and the occurrence of deep seismicity in the southern sector of the Tyrrhenian Sea connects the genesis of the Aeolian archipelago to the subduction of the Ionian domain beneath the Calabrian arc (Keller, 1980; Peccerillo, 2005).

The mixing process, together with fractional crystallization, magma-fluid interactions, and 103 different degrees of host rock assimilation, has often been invoked as a recurring event in the 104 petrological evolution of magmatic feeding systems throughout the Aeolian arc (e.g., De Rosa et al., 105 2003; Francalanci et al., 1989; Gioncada et al., 2005; De Astis et al., 2013). Many studies 106 107 addressing magma mixing have focused on detailed descriptions and analysis of morphological features (De Rosa et al., 1996, 2002, 2003; Perugini et al., 2004, 2007; Ventura et al., 2006; Vetere 108 et al., 2015a) or physicochemical disequilibria in crystals (Landi et al., 2004; Perugini and Poli, 109 110 2012). Furthermore, particular emphasis has been given to the study of mafic enclaves dispersed in more felsic magmas, as these occur in several outcrops throughout the Aeolian archipelago (e.g., 111 Pollara depression and Porri lava flow at Salina; La Fossa cone at Vulcano; Monte Guardia and 112 Monte Pilato at Lipari; De Rosa et al., 2003; Perugini et al., 2004, 2007; Piochi et al., 2009; Davì et 113 al., 2009, 2010, Vetere et al., 2015a). 114

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116 2.2. Vulcano Island and the AD 1739 and 1888–90 eruptions

Vulcano is the southernmost island of the Aeolian archipelago and, along with Salina and Lipari, it forms a NNW–SSE-striking volcanic belt deviating from the Aeolian ring-shaped structure (Peccerillo, 2005; Fig. 1B).

The southern part of Vulcano Island is formed by the Primordial Vulcano and Piano Caldera, while the northern sector hosts the Mastro Minico-Lentia complex and the Fossa Caldera (De Astis et al., 2013). The volcanic activity of Vulcano started ca. 120 ka ago (Peccerillo, 2005; Clocchiatti et al., 1994; De Astis et al., 2013; Fig. 1B) and the last eruptions occurred in AD 1739

and 1888–90. The Vulcanello Peninsula, along the northern part of the island, consists of shoshonitic and latitic lava flows. Along with the volcanic products of the La Fossa cone, these products represent the most alkaline compositions found in the Aeolian archipelago (Peccerillo, 2005; De Astis et al., 2013). In particular, the magmatic products from the AD 1739 and 1888–90 eruptions range from latitic to rhyolitic compositions (Peccerillo, 2005; Clocchiatti et al., 1994; highlighted in red as probability density function in Fig. 2A).

Two different phases characterize the AD 1739 eruption. The early explosive phase was essentially phreatomagmatic. It produced several low-energy pyroclastic density currents (PDCs) and minor fallout episodes (De Astis et al., 2013). The deposits generated during this phase are prevalently exposed along the flanks of La Fossa cone and are interlayered with banded pumiceous trachy-rhyolitic bombs.

The subsequent effusive phase produced the Pietre Cotte lava flow (Fig. 3A). It represents the latest lava flow event at Vulcano Island and shows evidence of magma mixing through the presence of mafic enclaves in a rhyolitic host (Piochi et al., 2009). Detailed observations suggest that the mafic enclaves constitute 5–7% of the entire outcrop and their presence led to the interpretation of the occurrence of magma mixing during the eruptive event (Perugini et al., 2007).

The AD 1888–90 eruption represents the latest activity of La Fossa (Clocchiatti et al., 1994; 140 141 De Astis et al., 2013). The initial eruptive phases are recorded in the stratigraphic sequence by rhyolitic phreatomagmatic breccias containing magmatic enclaves (latitic in composition). The 142 following phases were predominantly explosive and consisted of pyroclastic surges and intermittent 143 fallout products ranging from trachytic to latitic. The upper sequence is characterized by rhyolitic 144 tephra, similar in composition to the initial eruptive phase (Clocchiatti et al., 1994; De Astis et al., 145 2013). The occurrence of magma mixing is highlighted by reaction rims in the different phases, 146 reversely zoned clinopyroxenes, banded pyroclastic products, and the presence of magmatic 147 enclaves (latitic in composition). Clocchiatti et al. (1994) fixed the maximum volume of the latitic 148 enclaves in the hosting rhyolite to $\sim 10\%$. 149

The estimated temperature for mixing processes, which occurred in a shallow reservoir (~1 150 kbar; De Astis et al., 2013) for both the AD 1739 and 1888-90 events, is 1000-1100°C for the latite 151 and 955–1000°C for the rhyolite, in agreement with Vetere et al. (2015a) and Clocchiatti et al. 152 (1994), respectively. To achieve such conditions, the volumetric proportions of latitic magma 153 involved in the re-heating of the shallow magmatic reservoir were assumed to be significantly 154 higher than the amount shown by field observations as reported by Vetere et al. (2015a). This 155 observation also agrees with the experimental results reported by Laumonier et al. (2014b), stating 156 that onset of mixing in a felsic reservoir (e.g., rhyolitic or dacitic) requires a mass fraction of mafic 157 magma of approximately 60-65% (Laumonier et al., 2014b). 158

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160 **3. Methodology**

161 3.1. Experimental end-members and banded pumices

The utilized end-members were sampled by the Petro-Volcanology Research Group (PVRG; <u>http://pvrg.unipg.it</u>), University of Perugia. The least evolved was a latite sampled from the top part (AD 1888–90 eruption) of the La Fossa cone, while the most evolved was a high-K rhyolitic obsidian from the Pietre Cotte lava flow (AD 1739 eruption). The choice of the end-members was determined by field observations and geochemical modeling of whole-rock analysis pointing to these compositions as end-members for the mixing process occurring before the AD 1739 eruption (Clocchiatti et al., 1994; Piochi et al., 2009; Vetere et al., 2015a).

The rhyolitic end-member (i.e. felsic; Fig. 3B) is characterized by a banded aspect with an alternation of pumiceous and glassy bands with elongation parallel to the lava flow direction (Vetere et al., 2015a).

The latitic end-member (i.e. mafic; Fig. 3C) appears as a dark gray rock showing a high degree of vesiculation. It occurs as enclaves within the rhyolitic host. Petrographically, it shows a porphyritic texture with euhedral to sub-euhedral crystals of clinopyroxene and plagioclase

immersed in a microcrystalline groundmass composed of clinopyroxene, plagioclase, opaqueminerals, and glass.

Fig. 4 shows the composition of the end-members plotted in a total-alkali vs. silica diagram (TAS, Le Maitre, 1989) in which the literature data for Vulcano Island are also reported.

Banded pumices, utilized to compare the experimental results to natural samples, are from 179 the fallout events of the early explosive phase of the AD 1739 eruption (Fig. 3D). Macroscopically, 180 they show a high degree of vesiculation along with the presence of several filament-like structures. 181 Optical analysis showed a glassy matrix with a few occurrences of small phenocrysts (mode < 2%), 182 mainly plagioclase, clinopyroxene, and minor olivine. The collected banded pumices did not 183 highlight significant inter-sample textural and compositional variations. Because of these 184 similarities, we selected one representative sample to be utilized in the present study. The sample 185 was prepared for a 100-µm thin section and polished using up to 1-µm diamond pastes for the 186 187 analysis via electron microprobe.

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189 *3.2. Experimental apparatus and methods*

To provide mixing-to-eruption timescales, new magma mixing experiments were performed using the Chaotic Magma Mixing Apparatus (COMMA, Morgavi et al., 2015) installed at the Department of Physics and Geology, University of Perugia (Italy). The device was designed to conduct experiments at high temperature with high-viscosity (up to 10⁶ Pa s) natural and synthetic magmas up to a temperature of 1800°C (Fig 5; Morgavi et al., 2015).

The apparatus produces chaotic flow dynamics in the mixing system using a stirring protocol known as a Journal Bearing System (JBS; Swanson and Ottino, 1990). The ability of the JBS to produce efficient mixing patterns, by fully controlling the mixing kinematics, makes it well suited for the experimental investigation of magma mixing processes (De Campos et al., 2008, 2011; Morgavi et al., 2015; Rossi et al., 2017). The utilized mixing protocol produces textures representative of several natural examples bearing evidence of magmatic interaction, among which

201 many cases have been documented in the Aeolian Islands (De Rosa et al., 2002; Perugini et al., 202 2004; Perugini and Poli, 2012). Therefore, it allows one to reproduce the non-linear nature of the 203 mixing process (e.g., chaotic; Flinders and Clemens, 1996; De Rosa et al., 2002). In addition, the 204 aforementioned cited study cases support the robustness of the assumption that chaotic mixing 205 experiments can accurately reproduce pre-eruptive magma mixing events (De Campos et al., 2008, 206 2011; Perugini et al., 2015).

The system is composed of a $Pt_{80}Rh_{20}$ crucible (i.e. the outer cylinder) that contains the two 207 end-member compositions and an inner, off-centred spindle (i.e. the inner cylinder; Fig. 5). The 208 geometry of the system is determined by two parameters: (a) the ratio of the radii of the two 209 cylinders $r = R_{in}/R_{out} = 1/3$ and (b) the eccentricity ratio of the outer cylinder $\varepsilon = \delta/R_{out} =$ 210 0.3, where δ is the distance between the centers of the two cylinders (Swanson and Ottino, 1990). 211 212 The mixing of magmas is triggered by the alternating rotations of the inner and the outer cylinder in opposite directions because both streamlines and velocity are time-dependent (Galaktionov et al., 213 2002; Swanson and Ottino, 1990). For the present work, the characteristic velocity $V = |V_{in}| +$ 214 $|V_{out}|$ and characteristic length $L = R_{out} - R_{in}$ are equal to 2.8×10^{-5} m s⁻¹ and 1.23×10^{-2} 215 m, respectively, with a strain rate of $\sim 10^{-3}$ s⁻¹, calculated in agreement with Galaktionov et al., 2002. 216

During the experiments, the relative volumes of the felsic (rhyolite) and mafic (latite) endmembers were 88% and 12%, respectively. Notably, the volumetric proportions used in the experimental setup were relevant to those observed in the erupted products (Perugini et al., 2007; Clocchiatti et al., 1994), although the volumetric balances in the magmatic reservoir were reasonably different with much greater volume of the less-evolved end-member being intruded (see also section 2.2).

The durations of the two experiments were 10.5 h (Experiment A) and 31.5 h (Experiment B), corresponding to one and three repetitions of a protocol consisting of two rotations of the crucible over 7 h and six rotations of the spindle over 3.5 h, respectively. The experiment started

with two homogeneous contrasting multicomponent silicate melts. With time, the initial elemental concentrations in the end-members were expected to drift towards the hybrid of the system.

The experimental conditions were P = 1 atm and T = 1200 °C. The choice of 1200 °C for the 228 experiments aimed at compensating for the absence of water during the experiments performed at 229 atmospheric pressure, resulting a rheological and chemical behaviour similar to the natural 230 occurrence (H₂O ~1.5 wt.%; T ~1000°C; P ~ 1 kbar; Clocchiatti et al., 1994). In particular, we 231 utilized a parametrization for the viscosity (η) and the chemical diffusivities based on the models of 232 Giordano et al. (2008) and González-García at al. (2017), respectively. In detail, Fig. 6 shows the 233 parametrization for the viscosity based on the model of Giordano et al. (2008). For both the latitic 234 and rhyolitic end-members, the value of η in the presence of ~1.5 wt.% H₂O at T=1000°C (i.e. the 235 estimated temperature for the AD 1739 eruption) agrees with the parametrization of η for dry melts 236 at the experimental temperature (i.e. 1200°C). For the chemical diffusivities, the presence of ~1.5 237 wt.% of water leads to an increase in the chemical diffusivities of ~1.5 log units compared to that of 238 dry conditions (González-García at al., 2017). Assuming an Arrhenian behaviour for the selected 239 chemical species (e.g., Zhang et al., 2010), an increase in the temperature of ~200°C well agrees 240 well with an increase in the chemical diffusivities of $\sim 1.5 \log units$. 241

The temperature inside the experimental sample was monitored using an S-type Pt/Pt-Rh thermocouple. The error for the temperature was $\pm 3^{\circ}$ C.

At the end of each experiment, the furnace was rapidly moved downward to allow the 244 experimental sample to be near the cooling heads positioned at the top and the bottom exits of the 245 246 furnace tube. To ensure the achievement of a glassy sample, we calculated the NBO/T value in agreement with Mysen and Richet (2005) for the latitic composition (i.e. the experimental 247 composition in which the development of crystals preferentially occurs in the studied system). The 248 resulting value was 0.27. Starting from the obtained NBO/T value, we calculated the critical cooling 249 rate (Rc) as ca. 4000 °C/h, according to Vetere et al., (2015b). During the quenching, the 250 temperature of the samples decreased from 1200°C to 665°C (Tg for our composition calculated 251

after Giordano et al., 2008) in ca. 3 min, corresponding to a quench rate of $\sim 10^4 \text{ °C/h}$, significantly higher than the obtained Rc. This rate completely suppressed nucleation and crystallization processes within the experimental samples. The sample was then cored out from the outer cylinder, set in epoxy resin, and left to harden for 24 h. Ultimately, the experimental product was cut into slices ca. 4 mm in thickness and polished using up to 1-µm diamond pastes for analysis using an electron microprobe.

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259 3.3. Analytical methods

Major element concentrations and back-scattered electron (BSE) images were acquired 260 using a Cameca SX100 electron microprobe (EMP) at the Institut für Mineralogie, Leibniz 261 Universität Hannover (Germany). The operating conditions were characterized by an acceleration 262 voltage of 15 kV, a beam current of 4 nA, and a beam diameter of 10 µm to minimize the alkali loss 263 264 in the glass analysis. Raw data were converted to concentration using the software "Peak Sight" and "PAP" matrix (Pouchou and Pichoir, 1991). The reference materials utilized for the calibration were 265 wollastonite for Ca and Si, periclase for Mg, hematite for Fe, corundum for Al, rutile for Ti, 266 orthoclase for K, and albite for Na. The counting time was 10 s for each element. 267

Accuracy and precision were determined for the VG-568 (rhyolite) and VG-2 (basalt) glasses (Jarosewich et al., 1980), utilized as secondary reference materials. Absolute analytical errors, measured for international reference materials, were of the order of 4% for all analyzed elements. During the experiments, a total of five profiles (two for experiment A and three for experiment B) were obtained with a spacing of 15 μ m between the analysis points, for a total of 877 analytical determinations. The same analytical conditions were used for the three transects performed on the banded pumice, for a total of 92 analytical determinations.

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276 *3.4. Mixing to Eruption Timescales estimate*

Mixing-to-eruption timescale estimates were developed using the method of concentration 277 variance decay (CVD; Perugini et al., 2015). It was utilized to capture the time elapsing between the 278 beginning of the mixing process (i.e. the injection of new mafic magma in the reservoir) and the 279 eruption. It consisted of experimentally evaluating the rate at which the concentration variance of 280 the different chemical elements decayed with time during the mixing process (e.g., Perugini et al., 281 2015). The successive step consisted of the derivation of empirical relations, typically exponential, 282 linking the variance decay with time. Finally, comparing the concentration variances of the natural 283 sample, namely the banded pumice generated by the fallout events of the early explosive phase of 284 the AD 1739 eruption (Fig. 3D), to the parametrization derived from the experiments, we provided 285 an estimate of the mixing-to-eruption timescales. 286

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288 3.4.1. Concentration variance and concentration variance decay

In the fluid dynamics literature, concentration variance is commonly used to evaluate the degree of homogenization in fluid mixtures (e.g., Rothstein et al., 1999). For a given chemical element, the concentration variance is defined as follows:

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$$\sigma^2(\mathcal{C}^i) = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N (c_n^i - \mu^i)}{N}$$
(1)

where *N* is the number of the analytical determinations, C_n^i is the concentration of a given chemical element *i* in the analytical determination *n*, and μ^i is the average composition for the element *i*. The concentration variance is strongly dependent on the mixing time: when the mixing time increases and the system moves towards homogeneity, the concentration variance progressively decreases. Moreover, $\sigma^2(C^i)$ depends on the concentrations of each element *i*.

In this work, considering the concentration of chemical elements in the experimental sample reported in Table 1 and following the method of Perugini et al. (2015), we normalized the variance values to the initial variance utilizing the following equation:

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$$\sigma_n^2(C^i) = \frac{\sigma^2(C^i)_t}{\sigma^2(C^i)_{t=0}}$$
 (2)

where $\sigma^2(C^i)_t$ and $\sigma^2(C^i)_{t=0}$ are, respectively, the variance in the chemical element (C^i) at time *t* and t = 0 (i.e. before the beginning of the experiment or mixing event in nature).

In detail, a concentration variance (σ_n^2) was calculated for all the investigated chemical elements in each analyzed transect. The operation was repeated for the two-mixing times (i.e. 10.5 h and 31.5 h). The obtained values were subsequently averaged to obtain a representative estimation of the homogenization degree in the studied system.

In addition, using the same procedure, we calculated the σ_n^2 for the natural sample (the banded pumice sampled from the fallout deposits of the AD 1739 eruption). Hereafter, we always refer to the concentration variance considering Eq. (2).

The concept of concentration variance decay (CVD) was used in Perugini et al. (2015) and Rossi et al. (2017) in the assessment of the elemental mobility and chemical homogenization of silicate melt systems. Particularly, for all the analyzed chemical elements, the CVD is modeled by an exponential law as follows:

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$$\sigma_n^2(C^i) = C_0 exp(-Rt) + C_1$$
 (3)

where C_0 and C_1 represent the value of the concentration variance $[\sigma_n^2(C^i)]$ at t = 0 and $t = \infty$, 316 respectively, and t is the mixing time. The fitting parameter R is termed the "relaxation of 317 concentration variance" (RCV) and quantifies the rate at which the concentration variance decays 318 with increasing mixing time and, in addition, the mobility of the chemical elements in the system. 319 Regarding the mobility of the chemical elements, the main controlling parameters in a melt are the 320 temperature, chemical composition, volatile content, oxygen fugacity, and pressure (e.g., Zhang et 321 al., 2010). In addition the R parameter accounts, in a single variable, for a range of processes 322 affecting elemental mobility including the (a) partitioning of the chemical elements into different 323 melts (Watson, 1976), (b) influence of advection on apparent diffusive fluxes (Perugini et al., 324 2006), (c) dependence of diffusivities on multicomponent composition (e.g., Zhang et al., 2010), 325

and (d) potential development of "uphill" or "downhill" diffusion processes (Watson and Jurewicz,
1984).

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329 4. Results and Discussion

330 4.1. Evidence linking magma mixing to the eruptive events of the Aeolian archipelago

The main significant points resulting from the review of current literature highlighted that i) magma mixing has been widely documented for most of the eruptions occurring in the Aeolian Islands, ii) many studies have linked the mixing process to an eruption, iii) many works have noted the rapid remobilization of a shallow reservoir prior to an eruption (Table 2 and references therein). In the following, we report the main findings resulting from the investigation of literature data.

At Salina Island, the interaction between a dacitic and a basaltic-andesite magma has been 336 shown by the presence of magmatic enclaves in the Porri lava flow (ca. 43 ka; De Rosa et al., 1996; 337 Ventura et al., 2006) and in products from the Upper Pollara eruption (ca. 13 ka; Perugini et al., 338 2004). In detail, Perugini et al. (2004) underlined that the analysis of concentration patterns of 339 heterogeneous juvenile products allows for the estimation of initial magma concentrations, and also 340 providing constraints for pre- and syn-eruptive dynamics. In addition, Perugini et al. (2004) 341 interpreted the whole eruptive sequence as the result of the emptying of the whole magmatic 342 343 reservoir, highlighting that the flow regime during the interaction between the two end-members was heterogeneous, from sub-turbulent to completely turbulent, just prior to and during the 344 eruption. 345

Regarding the Porri lava flow, De Rosa et al. (1996) and Ventura et al. (2006) reported its structural and geochemical features with evidence of the interaction between two different magmas. They utilized the mixing structures (e.g., enclaves and bandings) to calculate the shear strain of the lava flow and to evaluate the efficiency of the process (De Rosa et al., 1996). Particularly, Ventura et al. (2006) made inferences on the degree of interaction between the different magmas on the basis of the spatial distribution of the enclaves. According to this hypothesis, host magmas characterized by a homogeneous spatial distribution of enclaves are indicative of efficient advection processes that may favor magma mixing. In contrast, host magmas characterized by an inhomogeneous distribution of enclaves suggest a low dynamical interaction between the two endmembers, and therefore inefficient mixing (Ventura et al., 2006).

At Lipari, the juvenile material recognized in the products of the Monte Guardia rhyolitic 356 eruption (ca. 22 ka) was investigated by petrographic, mineralogical and melt inclusion-based 357 studies (De Rosa et al., 2003). Results highlighted that different mixing textures were produced in a 358 single mixing event before the first stage of the eruption, followed by a second phase characterized 359 by a larger volume of magma of rhyolitic composition (De Rosa et al., 2003). Moreover, chemical 360 361 analysis of zoned clinopyroxenes and plagioclases found in these rocks (Gioncada et al., 2005) support the idea that the chemical zonation in the minerals preceded the eruptive event, with a 362 residence time before mixing on the order of decades to hundreds of years (Gioncada et al., 2005). 363

Additionally, Davì et al. (2009, 2010) focused on latitic enclaves found in the rhyolitic lava flow of Rocche Rosse, produced by the AD 1230 Monte Pilato eruption. The estimated viscosities were then applied to rheological modeling of mixing processes between the latitic and rhyolitic magmas at conditions relevant for the Rocche Rosse eruption. Results suggested rapid ascent events, occurring just after the beginning of the mixing process (Davì et al. 2009, 2010).

369 At Stromboli, magma mixing has been widely investigated by several authors (Francalanci et al., 1989, 2012; Petrone et al., 2006, 2018; Armienti et al., 2007; Landi et al., 2004). 370 Mineralogical and chemical studies of lavas and pyroclastic products produced during the 1985-371 2000 and 2002-2003 eruptions highlighted mixing-related chemical zoning in plagioclase 372 phenocrysts (Landi et al., 2004, 2009). In detail, evidence suggested recharge events in the 373 magmatic system by hotter magma batches. These mixing events, often developing between 374 magmas of similar mafic composition, efficiently occurred in the Stromboli feeding system just 375 before the eruptions during the period 1985–2000 as highlighted by the disequilibrium textures in 376

the plagioclase phenocrysts (showing an alternation of labradoritic and bytownitic layers; Landi et
al., 2004, 2009).

Textural evidence of magma mixing was also reported by Armienti et al. (2007), defining 379 significant chemical zoning and resorption textures in plagioclase, olivine, and pyroxene crystals. In 380 particular, a crystal size distribution analysis suggested a stationary crystallizing system being 381 continuously re-injected by crystal-free basaltic melt (Armienti et al., 2007). In addition, the large 382 radiogenic isotope (Sr, Nd, Pb, U, and Th) variations detected in the plagioclase, olivine, and 383 clinopyroxene (Francalanci et al., 1999, 2012; Landi et al., 2009) confirmed the occurrence of 384 mixing processes between the crystal-rich and crystal-poor magmas in a shallow magmatic 385 386 reservoir (Francalanci et al., 2012). Moreover, Petrone et al. (2006) highlighted oscillatory patterns and sharp compositional changes in clinopyroxene and plagioclase phases, suggesting complex 387 dynamics in the magmatic reservoir. Petrone et al. (2006) also suggested the injection of mafic 388 389 magma batches into the magmatic reservoir, highlighting that magma mixing played a significant role in the development of compositional changes and temperature variations (Petrone et al., 2006). 390 391 Recently, Petrone et al. (2018) estimated the residence times of mafic magmas in the volcanic feeding systems of the Post-Pizzo pyroclastic sequence (ca. 1.7-1.5 ka) and Early Paroxysms of the 392 present eruptive sequence using Fe-Mg diffusion in clinopyroxenes. They provided timescales of 393 394 the order of 1 to approximately 50 years between the arrival of the mafic magma in the shallow system and the eruption (Petrone et al., 2018). In addition, modeling provided by Petrone et al. 395 (2018) highlighted mixing-to-eruption timescales from days to months for selected clinopyroxenes, 396 397 further suggesting that rapid mixing events and short storage timescales are key parameters in the pre-eruptive dynamics of the system. Many authors noted the evidence that the present-day activity 398 of Stromboli is controlled by a steady-state feeding system in which injection, mixing, degassing, 399 and crystallization at a shallow level continuously occur (Francalanci et al., 1999, 2012; Landi et 400 al., 2009; Petrone et al., 2006, 2018). Moreover, Landi et al. (2009) suggested that the change 401 between strombolian and effusive activity is mainly related to periods of relatively more or less 402

vigorous injection into the shallow magmatic system (Landi et al., 2009). As a summary, Table 2
reports a synthesis of the evidence linking the mixing process to the eruptive events of the whole
Aeolian archipelago.

406

407 4.2. Evidence linking magma mixing to the AD 1739 and 1888–90 eruptions of Vulcano Island

The process of magma mixing in the AD 1739 eruption of Vulcano Island has been widely investigated (Perugini et al., 2007; Piochi et al., 2009; Vetere et al., 2015a), focusing on the morphological, geochemical thermo-dynamical, and rheological characterization of the erupted magmas.

412 All the studies noted the mixing process as having a primary role in the pre-eruptive evolution of the volcanic plumbing system, and also suggesting a direct link between the occurrence 413 of magma mixing and the subsequent eruption. In detail, Perugini et al. (2007) quantitatively 414 415 investigated the morphology and size distributions of the enclaves in the Pietre Cotte lava flow. Perugini et al. (2007) showed that the enclaves resulted from the fragmentation of viscous fingering 416 417 structures following the injection of mafic magma into a felsic reservoir just prior to the eruption. In addition, geochemical investigations performed by Piochi et al. (2009) provided evidence that the 418 latitic enclaves and the rhyolitic host magma were subject to similar thermo-barometric conditions, 419 420 further supporting the idea of the coexistence of compositionally variable magmas in the shallow magmatic reservoir beneath the La Fossa cone before the AD 1739 eruption. 421

Vetere et al. (2015a), using thermo-dynamical and rheological constraints, suggested that the most plausible scenario for the AD 1739 eruption was a shallow reservoir in which a latitic magma intruded a rhyolitic magma, finally leading to eruptive events. Part of the volume of the latitic magma remained in the reservoir after the conclusion of the AD 1739 eruptive event, to be erupted during the last cycle of AD 1888–90.

In the case of the AD 1888–90 eruptive cycle, Clocchiatti et al. (1994), utilizing whole-rock
analysis and isotopic investigations, highlighted that the erupted pyroclastic products were derived

from mixing between a rhyolitic end-member and a latite of similar composition to the enclaves detected in the Pietre Cotte lava flow. In addition, Clocchiatti et al. (1994) highlighted a direct link between the mixing process, occurring in the shallow reservoir, and the subsequent eruption. In detail, Clocchiatti et al. (1994) suggested the unlocking of the rhyolite by re-heating resulting from the injection of the hotter latite.

434

435 4.3 Timescale estimation for the AD 1739 eruption

The presented magma mixing experiments aimed to define the mixing-to-eruption timescales, i.e. the time elapsed between the beginning of the mixing in the magmatic reservoir and the subsequent eruption, for the AD 1739 eruption at Vulcano island.

The morphological results of the experiments are shown in Fig. 7, displaying BSE images of selected portions of the experimental products in which the presence of stretched and folded alternating filaments of the two end-members are clearly observable. The density of the filament populations as well as their thicknesses strongly vary throughout the whole experimental product as a direct consequence of the complex dynamics acting during the mixing process (i.e. the JBS protocol; Swanson and Ottino, 1990).

The analysis performed using EMP on the experimental and natural samples is shown in Table SM1. Fig. 8 shows the compositional variation of all the analyzed elements of the experimental products (i.e. Al₂O₃, CaO, MgO, K₂O, FeO, Na₂O, and TiO₂) vs. SiO₂. End-member compositions are also reported, as a reference.

Fig. 9 shows the evolution of the normalized concentration variance, i.e. $\sigma_n^2(C^i)$, in the experiments as a function of time. In addition, Fig. 9 shows the results of the exponential fitting, linking the evolution of the normalized variance and time (please refer to section 3.4.1. for further details). Results highlight that the investigated elements (i.e. Si, Mg, Ca, Ti, Fe, Na, Al, and K) show rates of decay, measured by the *R* parameter, ranging between 0.122 and 0.185 (Fig. 9). Furthermore, Fig. 10 shows the variability in all the analyzed elements (i.e. Si, Mg, Ca, Ti, Fe, Na, Al, and K) along transects made for the analyzed banded pumice used in this work as natural sample, representative of the explosive phase of the AD 1739 eruption. The banded pumice highlights compositions ranging between trachyte (i.e. $SiO_2 \sim 68$ wt.%) and rhyolite (i.e. $SiO_2 \sim 73$ wt.%; Fig. 10). These compositions agree well with those produced by the mixing process between the latitic (i.e. $SiO_2 \sim 58$ wt.%) and rhyolitic (i.e. $SiO_2 \sim 74$ wt.%) end-members utilized during the experiments, in the proportions reported in the present study (i.e. 12-88%).

As for the experimental products, the normalized variance was also estimated for the natural 461 sample, including all the analyzed elements (i.e. Si, Al, K, Na, Ca, Mg, Fe, and Ti). Mixing-to-462 463 eruption timescales were then estimated using Eq. (3). The obtained mixing-to-eruption timescales show a variability ranging from ca. 10 to 39 h (i.e. the minimum and the maximum value, 464 respectively), with an average of 29±9 (s.d.) h (please refer to Table SM2 for further details). The 465 obtained timescales, of the order of days, are very short if compared to the few other estimates for 466 467 volcanic systems of the Aeolian archipelago ranging from years to decades (e.g., Gioncada et al., 2005 and Petrone et al., 2018). However, they agree with the lower bound of the estimates reported 468 by Petrone et al. (2018), of the order of days to months, for clinopyroxene portions capturing the 469 final stages (i.e. final injections) of the mixing process at Stromboli. 470

In addition, the recovered mixing-to-eruption timescale estimates can be used to infer the average magma ascent velocity in the case of the AD 1739 eruption of Vulcano Island. To achieve such estimates, the definition of the depth for the final magma storage before the eruption was essential. On the basis of petrological, geochemical, isotopic, and geobarometric data, De Astis et al. (2013) showed that, in the case of the La Fossa cone, the most probable final storage region was at ca. 3–5 km depth.

Assuming 3 and 5 km as the upper and lower boundary for the magmatic storage depths of the AD 1739 eruption and combining them with the mixing-to-eruption timescales (i.e. 29 ± 9 h) reported in the present manuscript, we estimated averaged magma ascent rates ranging from 3×10^{-2}

to 5×10^{-2} m s⁻¹. Notably, the obtained ascent rate values are row estimates, and they do not imply any inference regarding modulations of the velocity profile from the storage region to the surface because of potential changes in the physical properties of magma during the ascent or other factors.

Finally, Fig. 11 shows the inferred temporal evolution of the shallow magmatic system beneath the La Fossa cone before the AD 1739 eruption. In detail, at the initial time t = 0, a rhyolitic reservoir was at ca. 3–5 km. The ascent of the latitic magma from a deeper reservoir (20– 25 km; De Astis et al., 2013) produced a re-heating of the rhyolite, triggering the unlocking of the system and the mixing process, lasting for a maximum of ca. 39 h, and finally leading to the AD 1739 eruptive event.

489

490 5. Concluding Remarks

In this work, we extensively reviewed evidence supporting the hypothesis of mixingtriggered eruptions for the Aeolian archipelago, providing textural, chemical, and rheological constraints. Results highlighted a strict relation between the occurrence of magma mixing at shallow crustal levels and the eruptions. In addition, the detailed review of literature data allowed us to improve our understanding regarding pre-eruptive dynamics occurring in the feeding systems of active volcanoes of the Aeolian archipelago.

Finally, the performed experiments provided constraints on mixing-to-eruption timescales for the AD 1739 eruption that occurred at Vulcano Island, utilized as a case study. Our results suggest an average mixing-to-eruption time (i.e. the time between the onset of mixing in the reservoir and the eruption) of 29 ± 9 h and magma ascent rates ranging between 3×10^{-2} and 5×10^{-2} m s⁻¹.

These new findings may have important implications for volcano monitoring and civil protection purposes. For example, short mixing-to-eruption timescales and high ascent velocities (e.g., Petrelli et al., 2018) for magma rising towards the Earth's surface may imply short warning times for volcanic crises, on the order of days to hours.

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722 Figure Captions

Figure 1: A) Schematic map of the Aeolian Islands and B) schematic geological map of Vulcano
Island (modified from Peccerillo et al., 2006) showing the main volcanic units and the location
of the Pietre Cotte lava flow generated during the effusive phase of the AD 1739 eruption.

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Figure 2: A) Total alkali vs. silica diagram (TAS, Le Maitre, 1989) and B) SiO₂ vs. K₂O diagram
 (Peccerillo and Taylor, 1976) showing the petrology of rocks of the Aeolian Islands. Literature
 data are taken from Georoc (http:// georoc.mpch-mainz.gwdg.de).

730

Figure 3: A) View of the Pietre Cotte lava flow; B) and C) end-members used in the mixing
experiments (B: rhyolite and C: latite); D) Example of banded pumice produced by the fallout
events of the early phase of the AD 1739 eruption used as natural sample in the present work.

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Figure 4: Compositions of latitic (blue star) and rhyolitic (red star) end-members used in this work
plotted in a total-alkali vs. silica diagram (Le Maitre, 1989). Literature data for Vulcano Island

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(taken from Georoc, http:// georoc.mpch-mainz.gwdg.de) are also reported.

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Figure 5: Schematic representation (not to scale) of the COMMA (reproduced and slightly modified 739 from Morgavi et al., 2015). A) Complete experimental setup showing the high-temperature 740 furnace, the upper and lower motors for the rotation of the spindle and the crucible hosting the 741 end-member melts, and the positioning of the experimental crucible; B) enlargement of the 742 experimental crucible filled with the end-member compositions; C) section of the crucible 743 perpendicular to its vertical axis showing the relative position of the end-members and the 744 spindle. Geometrical parameters of the used experimental protocol are also shown (see text and 745 746 Morgavi et al. (2015) for further details).

Fig. 6: Parametrization for the melt viscosity (η), based on the model of Giordano et al. (2008), elaborated to compensate for the absence of water (1.5 wt.% in natural samples, Clocchiatti et al., 1994) during the mixing experiments at atmospheric pressure. The gray area represents the estimated η values under the physical conditions of the shallow reservoir before the AD 1739 eruption (~ 1000°C, ~ 1 kbar) (3.3±0.2 Pa s for latite, and 5.1±0.2 Pa s for rhyolite; Clocchiatti et al., 1994). The blue line represents the calculated η values as a function of temperature. The blue line intersects the gray area at ~1200°C, the experimental temperature.

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Figure 7: BSE images of selected areas of the experimental samples showing the intricate morphologies produced during the mixing experiments. The location of the selected analyzed transects is also reported. Please refer to Morgavi et al. (2013, 2015) for a detailed description of the morphologies produced by JBS.

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Figure 8: Inter-elemental binary diagrams for the analyzed chemical elements (CaO, MgO, K_2O , Na₂O, FeO, Al₂O₃ and TiO₂) vs. SiO₂ showing the compositional variability resulting from chaotic mixing processes during experiment A (10.5 h) and B (31.5 h). End-member
 compositions are also reported, as a reference.

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Figure 9: Variation in concentration variance as a function of mixing time for the analyzed chemical elements fitted using Eq. (3) (see text). The value of R (i.e., the rate at which concentration variance decays with time) is reported for each analyzed element.

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Figure 10: Compositional variation of the analyzed chemical elements (SiO₂, Al₂O₃, CaO, MgO,
Na₂O, K₂O, FeO, and TiO₂) along the transects analyzed for the banded pumice. Estimated
mixing-to-eruption timescales are reported for each analyzed element. The location of the
analyzed transects is also reported.

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Figure 11: Schematic evolution (not to scale) of the shallow magmatic system beneath the La Fossa cone before the AD 1739 eruption. A): The shallow magmatic reservoir is at 3–5 km depth below the La Fossa cone (De Astis et al., 2013). Deeper batches of latitic magma start to rise towards the felsic reservoir. B): At t = 0, the injection of a latitic magma into the rhyolitic reservoir leads to the unlocking of the system and the chemo-physical interaction of the two compositionally different magmas. C) After $t \ge 29$ h, the mixed magma reaches the surface triggering the eruption.

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783 **Table Captions**

Table 1: Concentrations (in weight %) and relative standard deviations of major elements in the felsic and mafic end-member glasses used during the mixing experiments. The value *N* represents the total number of analytical points averaged to obtain the reported concentrations. The density (Ochs and Lange, 1999) and viscosity (Giordano et al., 2008) of both end788 members are also reported.

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Table 2: Summary of the most relevant features (discussed in this work) detected in the rocks of the
Aeolian archipelago linking the mixing process to eruptive events.

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793 Supplementary material

Table SM1: Complete analytical dataset containing all the analytical determinations performed on the experimental (877 analysis) and natural (92 analysis) samples. A total of five and three transects were analyzed for the experimental and the natural samples, respectively. The values of the calculated concentration variance (σ^2) for each chemical element in each transect are also reported.

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Table SM2: Coefficients (C₁, C₀ and R) used to fit the decay of the concentration variance for the
 experimental samples and used to estimate the mixing-to-eruption timescales for the natural
 sample.













Figure



Figure 5



Figure





Figure 8

Figure



Figure 9





Figure 11

	Rhyolitic end-member (wt.%)	St. Dev.	Latitic end-member (wt.%)	St. Dev.
Λ	/=8			
SiO ₂	73.90	0.2	58.81	0.4
Al_2O_3	13.73	0.3	16.36	0.2
K ₂ O	5.49	0.1	3.85	0.2
TiO ₂	0.10	0.1	0.58	0.1
FeO _t	1.81	0.1	6.31	0.1
Na ₂ O	3.69	0.3	4.77	0.2
MgO	0.22	0.1	3.20	0.1
CaO	1.05	0.1	6.12	0.1
Total	100.00		100.00	
Density (g/cm ³)	2.35		2.54	
Viscosity (Pa s) @1200°C	1.66×10^{5}		1.62×10^{3}	

Table 1

Island	Eruptive event Evidence of magma mixing		References
VULCANO	AD 1739 Pietre Cotte eruption	Latitic enclaves dispersed in a rhyolitic host magma	Perugini et al. (2007) Piochi et al. (2009) Vetere et al. (2015)
	Porri lava flow, age ca. 43 ka	Basaltic-andesitic enclaves dispersed in a dacitic host magma	De Rosa et al. (1996) Ventura et al. (2006)
SALINA	Upper Pollara eruption, age ca. 13 ka	Heterogeneous juvenile fragments (andesitic in composition) dispersed in a rhyolitic host magma	Perugini et al. (2004)
LIPARI	Monte Guardia eruption, age ca. 22 ka	Latitic enclaves (showing zoned plagioclase and clinopyroxene) dispersed in a rhyolitic host magma	De Rosa et al. (2003) Gioncada et al. (2005)
	Rocche Rosse lava flow, AD 1230 eruption	Latitic enclaves dispersed in a rhyolitic host magma	Davì et al. (2009, 2010)
	1985-2000 and 2002-2003 activity products	Chemical zoning, resorptions and disequilibrium textures in clinopyroxene, olivine and plagioclase	Landi et al. (2004, 2009) Armienti et al. (2007)
STROMBOLI	1985-1986, 1996 + Present- day activity products	Radiogenic isotope variations in clinopiroxene, olivine and plagioclase	Francalanci et al. (2012)
	Post Pizzo pyroclastic sequence and Present-day activity products	Chemical zoning in clinopyroxene and plagioclase	Petrone et al. (2006, 2018)

Table 2

Dataset points	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	K ₂ O	TiO ₂
				Profile
1	72.86	14.23	5.19	0.10
2	72.87	14.12	5.24	0.14
3	73.09	14.09	5.25	0.13
4	73.17	14.06	5.22	0.13
5	72.97	14.04	5.22	0.12
6	73.46	13.83	5.24	0.11
7	72.82	14.26	5.23	0.10
8	73.16	14.27	5.26	0.12
9	73.28	14.08	5.24	0.12
10	73 17	13 94	5 25	0.10
11	73 17	14 03	5 19	0.13
12	73 19	13.99	5 28	0.09
13	73 15	14 19	5 24	0.00
14	73.16	14.15	5 33	0.10
15	73.10	14.00	5.00	0.10
16	73.10	14.07	5 30	0.11
17	73.1/	14.02	5.30	0.14
10	73.14	14.00	5.30	0.10
10	73.20	13.92	5.32	0.10
19	73.20	14.15	5.30	0.13
20	73.05	14.10	0.3Z	0.12
21	73.UZ	14.10	5.25 5.24	0.09
22	73.18	14.01	5.34	0.11
23	73.14	14.25	5.25	0.09
24	72.83	14.27	5.28	0.13
25	73.24	14.07	5.29	0.11
26	73.12	14.10	5.26	0.13
27	73.43	13.96	5.31	0.13
28	72.76	14.18	5.37	0.11
29	73.28	14.06	5.32	0.13
30	73.32	14.01	5.25	0.12
31	73.04	14.13	5.27	0.14
32	73.20	14.24	5.36	0.11
33	73.15	13.95	5.35	0.16
34	73.11	13.97	5.33	0.11
35	73.01	14.07	5.25	0.09
36	73.02	13.91	5.48	0.08
37	73.20	13.90	5.46	0.10
38	73.49	13.89	5.24	0.13
39	73.17	14.09	5.32	0.12
40	73.26	14.00	5.33	0.12
41	72.93	14.13	5.40	0.12
42	73.59	13.78	5.42	0.12
43	73.15	13.77	5.43	0.14
44	70.35	13.75	5.10	0.21

TableClick here to download Table: Table SM2.docx

Oxide	C ₁	C ₀	R	t (hours)
SiO ₂	0	1	1 0.124	
Al_2O_3	0	1	0.124	10
K_2O	0	1	0.141	24
TiO ₂	0	1	0.14	33
FeO	0	1	0.131	33
Na ₂ O	0	1	0.185	27
MgO	0	1	0.123	34
CaO	0	1	0.122	39
			averaged <i>t</i>	29
			stand. dev.	9

Table SM2