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Key Points:

- We provide a temperature- and water-dependent viscosity model for volcanic melts that performs better or comparable to literature models
- Anhydrous data are fit to explore the constant infinite temperature viscosity. Polymerized melts skew results toward lower values
- Differential scanning calorimetry data enable extrapolation of viscosity to any temperature using a constant value at infinite temperature

Supporting Information:

Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

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Modeling the Viscosity of Anhydrous and Hydrous Volcanic Melts

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Abstract The viscosity of volcanic melts is a dominant factor in controlling the fluid dynamics of magmas and thereby eruption style. It can vary by several orders of magnitude, depending on temperature, chemical composition, and water content. The experimentally accessible temperature range is restricted by melt crystallization and gas exsolution. Therefore, modeling viscosity as a function of temperature and water content is central to physical volcanology. We present a model that describes these dependencies by combining a physically motivated equation for temperature dependence of viscosity and a glass transition temperature (T_{o}) model for the effects of water. The equation uses the viscosity at infinite temperature η_{∞} , T_{g} , and the steepness factor *m* as fitting parameters. We investigate the effect of leaving η_{∞} free as a parameter and fixing its value, by fitting anhydrous viscosity data of 45 volcanic melts using the temperature dependent model. Both approaches describe experimental data well. Using a constant η_{∞} therefore provides a viable route for extrapolating viscosity from data restricted to small temperature intervals. Our model describes hydrous data over a wide compositional range of terrestrial magmas (26 data sets) with comparable or better quality than literature fits. With η_{∞} constrained, we finally apply our model to viscosities derived by differential scanning calorimetry and find-by comparing to viscometry based data and models—that this approach can be used to reliably describe the dependence of viscosity on temperature and water content. This introduces important implications for modeling the effects of nanostructure formation on viscosity.

Plain Language Summary How violently a volcano erupts strongly depends on the viscosity of the ascending magma. Temperature and the amount of dissolved water in the magma significantly impact viscosity. Therefore, models that predict it as a function of these parameters are of great interest and can be calibrated by measured data. We find a model that performs comparably to or better than other published ones. One model parameter describes the viscosity at infinite temperature; we investigate whether this is a constant value for all melts, and find this to be a justifiable assumption that leads to accurate predictions. Finally, we explore the possibility of deriving viscosity via differential scanning calorimetry (DSC). This approach avoids or significantly reduces melt crystallization which is a possible consequence of using more common measurement methods. By combining the constant value for the infinite temperature viscosity with DSC-derived data, our model can accurately predict viscosity at any relevant temperature.

1. Introduction

The shear viscosity (η) of naturally occurring aluminosilicate (i.e., volcanic) melts controls their transport at depth, the way they evolve to a crystal- and/or bubble-bearing system (i.e., magma) and, therefore, multiphase η of magma. The viscosity of a magma also regulates its ascent rate to the Earth's surface, the rheological response to deformation, the degassing and outgassing regime, and determines the style of volcanic eruptions (Cassidy et al., 2018; Colucci & Papale, 2021; Di Genova, Kolzenburg, et al., 2017; Dingwell, 1996; Gonnermann & Manga, 2007; Papale, 1999).

Consequently, the study of magma viscosity remains a central objective in physical volcanology as its parametrization feeds numerical models of volcanic eruptions (Gonnermann & Manga, 2013; Papale, 1999), pyroclastic density current scenarios (Ongaro et al., 2008), and ash-cloud transport (Mastin et al., 2009) that are used for operational forecasting of eruption evolution and planning of emergency response and evacuation (Marzocchi et al., 2012). The viscosity of magmas spans $10^{-3} - 10^{13}$ Pa s and is controlled by temperature (*T*), melt composition (*x*), micro and nanocrystals (Φ_c), and bubble (Φ_b) volume fraction





(Bagdassarov & Dingwell, 1992; Caricchi et al., 2007; Chevrel et al., 2015; Cordonnier et al., 2009; Costa et al., 2009; Davì et al., 2009; Dingwell et al., 1996, 2004; Di Genvova, Brooker, et al., 2020; Di Genova, Kolzenburg, et al., 2017; Di Genova, Romano, Alletti, et al., 2014; Di Genova, Zandona, & Deubener, 2020; Dobson et al., 1996; Giordano et al., 2009; Hess et al., 2001; Ishibashi & Sato, 2007; Kolzenburg et al., 2018; Lejeune et al., 1999; Liebske et al., 2003, 2005; Manga et al., 1998; Misiti et al., 2011; Mueller et al., 2010; Norton & Pinkerton, 1997; Pistone et al., 2012; Richet et al., 1996; Robert et al., 2013; Romano et al., 2003; Sehlke et al., 2014; Stabile et al., 2016; Stagno et al., 2018; Stein & Spera, 2002; Vetere et al., 2008, 2013; Vona et al., 2011, 2016, 2017; Whittington et al., 2001). Oxygen fugacity is a chemical variable that can affect volcanic melt and magma viscosity in different ways (e.g., Bouhifd et al., 2004; Kolzenburg et al., 2018; Sato, 2005; Stabile et al., 2021; Vetere et al., 2008): it determines the Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+} ratio in the melt, where the latter acts as a network modifier and the former can act as a network former. This results in opposite effects on melt viscosity; with increasing Fe^{3+} content, the melt viscosity increases. The Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+} ratio affects the viscosity in polymerized melts (e.g., rhyolites; Stabile et al., 2021) more strongly than in depolymerized melts (e.g., basalts; Kolzenburg et al., 2018). However, the Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+} ratio also shifts phase equilibria (Hamilton et al., 1964; Markl et al., 2010; Wilke, 2005), influencing the melt crystallization path (Toplis & Carroll, 1995) and rheological evolution (Bouhifd et al., 2004; Kolzenburg et al., 2018; Sato, 2005). Moreover, it has been demonstrated that changing the dissolved iron content in melts is responsible for iron nanolite formation which, in turn, affects melt viscosity (Di Genova, Kolzenburg, et al., 2017). The knowledge of melt viscosity $\eta(T, x)$ represents the foundation on which multiphase descriptions of magma viscosity $\eta(T, x, \Phi_c, \Phi_b)$ are developed (Llewellin & Manga, 2005; Mader et al., 2013; Phan-Thien & Pham, 1997; Pistone et al., 2016; Truby et al., 2015). Therefore, extensive literature provides empirical parametrizations of $\eta(T,x)$ for an ever expanding compositional space (Baker, 1996; Bottinga & Weill, 1972; Duan, 2014; Giordano & Dingwell, 2003a; Giordano et al., 2006, 2009; Hess & Dingwell, 1996; Hui & Zhang, 2007; Romine & Whittington, 2015; Shaw, 1972).

A combination of concentric cylinder and falling sphere viscometry is employed to measure melt η above the liquidus *T* in the low- η /high-*T* regime (L η , 10⁻³ Pa s < η < 10⁵ Pa s), while micropenetration and parallel plate techniques are routinely used in the high- η /low-*T* regime (H η , 10⁸ Pa s < η < 10¹³ Pa s) around the glass transition temperature T_g at which

$$\eta(T_{\rm g}) = 10^{12} \,{\rm Pa}\,{\rm s}.$$
 (1)

Due to experimental inaccessibility of $\eta < 10^{-3}$ Pa s and rapid crystallization or exsolution of volatiles for 10^5 Pa s < $\eta < 10^8$ Pa s on the timescale of measurements, interpolation between the H η and L η regimes is required. This is especially critical when the L η and H η intervals of experiments are reduced as a result of nanostructure formation, primarily nanocrystals and melt demixing, which can lead to a significant increase in η (Di Genova, Brooker, et al., 2020; Di Genova, Kolzenburg, et al., 2017; Di Genova, Zandona, & Deubener, 2020; Liebske et al., 2003). These restrictions on the H η range accessible to micropenetration and parallel plate experiments can lead to the virtual absence of data near T_g (Al-Mukadam et al., 2020; Chevrel et al., 2013; Dingwell et al., 2004).

Here, we present a new fitting approach for η of volcanic melts motivated by physically based equations that describe the temperature dependence of viscosity (Mauro et al., 2009) and water dependence of $T_{\rm g}$ (Schneider et al., 1997). This represents one of the first attempts to combine physically based equations in order to provide a single formulation for the viscosity of volcanic melts as a function of temperature and water over a large chemical space, with a set of 1,603 η data points, containing both multicomponent dry and hydrous systems as indicated in the total alkali-silica (TAS) diagram (Le Bas et al., 1986, Figure 1). To characterize the behavior of anhydrous melts in a systematic way, we order them according to the chemical parameter SM, which is a proxy of the degree of structural polymerization (Giordano & Dingwell, 2003a). We calculate SM as

$$SM = x_{FeO} + x_{MgO} + x_{MnO} + x_{CaO} + x_{Na_2O} + x_{K_2O},$$
(2)

with *x* in mol%; for compositions that only report total iron, we distribute it equally between FeO and Fe_2O_3 with an adjustment factor of 1.11 (reflecting the higher molar weight of Fe_2O_3) in terms of wt% before conversion.



First we investigate the fit of η for anhydrous samples using a model developed by Mauro et al. (2009) for technical glasses. We discuss the connection between Arrhenian behavior of volcanic melt η and the degree of structural polymerization (SM) as well as the hypothesis of a common viscosity value at infinite $T(\eta_{\infty})$ for glass-forming melts. We do so by significantly expanding previous chemical and experimental data sets of melt viscosity data (Russell et al., 2003). For a given silicate melt, the addition of H₂O can reduce the viscosity in the H_{η} regime by several orders of magnitude (e.g. Richet et al., 1996). We ignore the pressure effect on melt viscosity at fixed water content at shallow conditions typical of volcanic systems (Giordano et al., 2008; Hui & Zhang, 2007; Persikov, 1998; Zhang et al., 2003), but our model implicitly accounts for the pressure effect by varying the water content. Many studies (e.g., Dingwell et al., 1998b; Giordano et al., 2009; Misiti et al., 2011; Robert et al., 2015; Vetere et al., 2006; Whittington et al., 2009) have modeled the influence of H_2O on η by various differing empirical expressions. We apply a single formulation for water dependence of η and compare our results to published models from the literature. We show that our physically based viscosity equation can perform comparably or better than empirical formulations in the literature. Furthermore, we compare results of our fit with predictions of general chemical models (Duan, 2014; Giordano et al., 2008; Hui & Zhang, 2007). Finally, we apply our model to describe η of hydrous volcanic melts based on differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) measurements, which minimizes or avoids nanocrystallization that can occur during standard viscosity measurement around T_{σ} (Di Genova, Zandona, & Deubener, 2020). We implement our model with a constant $\log \eta_{\infty}$ and show that the combination of our fitting approach with DSC data allows both the accurate prediction of high-temperature η and the quantification of the effect nanocrystal formation has on melt viscosity around T_{g} .

2. Approaches for Modeling Silicate Melt Viscosity

2.1. Viscosity Models for Anhydrous Systems

The most popular parametrization to describe the viscosity of volcanic melts is the empirical VFT equation named after Vogel (Vogel, 1921), Fulcher (Fulcher, 1925), and Tammann (Tammann & Hesse, 1926). It has been used to fit isochemical η data (e.g. Richet et al., 1996; Whittington et al., 2001) and takes the form

$$\log \eta = A_{\rm VFT} + \frac{B_{\rm VFT}}{T - C_{\rm VFT}}.$$
(3)

 $A_{\rm VFT}$, $B_{\rm VFT}$, $C_{\rm VFT}$ are fitting parameters, where $A_{\rm VFT} = \log \eta_{\infty}$. The VFT equation has been successful in modeling the viscosity of silicate melts. Due to its empirical nature, assigning physical meaning to the fitting parameters $B_{\rm VFT}$ and $C_{\rm VFT}$ is difficult. Nevertheless, $C_{\rm VFT}$ is often identified with the Kauzmann temperature ($T_{\rm K}$) (Angell, 1997), at which the liquid and crystalline entropies are equal. At $T_{\rm K}$, the VFT equation in combination with the Adam-Gibbs equation (Adam & Gibbs, 1965) yields a configurational entropy (S_c) of zero (Mauro et al., 2009; Scherer, 1992), although $S_c = 0$ is only possible at absolute zero temperature (Avramov & Milchev, 1988; Mauro et al., 2009). On the other hand, Gibbs and DiMarzio (1958) have derived a possible thermodynamic equilibrium glass transition. Overall the physical meaning of the VFT fitting parameters continue to be a subject of discussions (e.g., Hecksher et al., 2008; Schmelzer et al., 2018; Stillinger, 1988). Finally, the VFT equation is also known to break down at low *T* (Laughlin & Uhlmann, 1972; Mauro et al., 2009; Scherer, 1992).

Therefore, a physically based parametrization of η for glass-forming melts remains an interesting subject of research. For example, the viscosity description given in the model for glass-forming liquids by Adam and Gibbs (1965) (AG) has a physical foundation. It assumes the cooperative rearrangement of independent regions within the liquid and that the potential energy of the system can be expressed by its own partition function. This leads to

$$\log \eta = A_{\rm AG} + \frac{B_{\rm AG}}{TS_c},\tag{4}$$

where $A_{AG} = \log \eta_{\infty}$, and B_{AG} is an effective activation barrier (Adam & Gibbs, 1965; Richet, 1984). As the configurational entropy S_c cannot be measured, the use of the AG equation requires an additional fit for S_c at T_g and the measurement of configurational heat capacity of the melt ($C_{P,conf}$) via DSC (Bouhifd et al., 2006;



Di Genova, Romano, Giordano, & Alletti, 2014; Giordano & Russell, 2017; Richet, 1987; Robert et al., 2014; Russell & Giordano, 2017; Sehlke & Whittington, 2016; Stebbins et al., 1984; Toplis, 1998; Webb, 2008).

One can avoid fitting S_c and measuring $C_{P,conf}$ by using the MYEGA model by Mauro et al. (2009). It describes S_c in the AG expression (Equation 4) using constraint theory and an energy landscape analysis, and takes the form

$$\log \eta = A + \frac{K}{T} \exp\left(\frac{C}{T}\right),\tag{5}$$

where *A*, *K* and *C* are fitting parameters, with $A = \log \eta_{\infty}$ as above. An alternative, physically insightful, parametrization of Equation 5, suggested by Mauro et al. (2009), can be obtained by inserting the definition of T_g (Equation 1) and making use of the steepness index *m* (fragility), which quantifies the deviation of η from Arrhenian behavior at T_g (Angell, 1995),

$$m = \left(\frac{\partial \log \eta}{\partial (T_g / T)}\right)_{T = T_g} = \frac{K}{T_g} \left(1 + \frac{C}{T_g}\right) \exp\left(\frac{C}{T_g}\right).$$
(6)

Reformulating Equation 5 with respect to these parameters yields:

$$\log \eta = A + (12 - A) \frac{T_{g}}{T} \exp\left[\left(\frac{m}{12 - A} - 1\right)\left(\frac{T_{g}}{T} - 1\right)\right].$$
 (7)

An analogous reformulation can be performed for the VFT model (Equation 3):

$$\log \eta = A_{\rm VFT} + \frac{(12 - A_{\rm VFT})^2}{m_{\rm VFT}(T / T_{\rm g, VFT} - 1) + (12 - A_{\rm VFT})}.$$
(8)

A comparison between the performance of the MYEGA (Equation 7) and VFT models (Equation 8), using anhydrous simple and multicomponent oxide systems, that is, technical glasses, and molecular liquids covering a wide range of *m* from 20 to 115, revealed that the MYEGA equation provides a superior fit for η in all systems (Mauro et al., 2009). Moreover, using 568 different technical silicate liquids with widely varying compositions and η data in the range of 10^{1} – 10^{6} Pa s, Mauro et al. (2009) also showed that the MYEGA model predicted the 10^{11} Pa s isokom *T* better. Finally, unlike the VFT parametrization, the MYEGA equation offers a realistic extrapolation of S_{c} to both the high- and low-*T* limits, with consequences for the estimate of *A* and the description of the low-*T* scaling for η (Mauro et al., 2009).

2.2. Modeling the Effect of Water on the Viscosity of Silicate Melts

The presence of water in volcanic melts adds complexity to fitting η , as even a small amount of H₂O generally leads to a strong decreases of η . While the H η and L η regimes are usually accessible for anhydrous melts and provide strong constraints on the parametrization over a large η range, the lack of L η data for hydrous compositions challenges the quality of the fit. This can lead, for example, to an unphysical cross-over of η at different H₂O content when viscosity is extrapolated to the L η domain (Figure S1). To avoid η crossovers, A_{VFT} , B_{VFT} , and C_{VFT} in Equation 3 are often empirically expressed as a function of H₂O content (e.g., Giordano et al., 2008, 2009; Hess & Dingwell, 1996; Romine & Whittington, 2015; Vetere et al., 2013; Whittington et al., 2009). While resulting fits usually provide a good description, there is no systematic approach and no physical interpretation of parameters involved, which results in a plethora of different models based on VFT.

Here we expand the MYEGA parametrization (Equation 7) in a physically motivated way to fit anhydrous and hydrous data for a given volcanic melt with varying H₂O content. We assume *A* to be independent of H₂O content (i.e., fixed by the anhydrous measurements), which reduces the water-dependent parameters to *m* and T_g . We base our η description on a T_g model by Schneider et al. (1997), who implemented a power concentration expansion of the Gordon-Taylor equation (Gordon & Taylor, 1952).

$$T_{g}(x_{H_{2}O}) = w_{1}T_{g,H_{2}O} + w_{2}T_{g,d} + cw_{1}w_{2}(T_{g,d} - T_{g,H_{2}O}) + dw_{1}w_{2}^{2}(T_{g,d} - T_{g,H_{2}O}),$$
(9)

with





$$w_1 = \frac{x_{H_2O}}{b(100 - x_{H_2O}) + x_{H_2O}}$$
 and $w_2 = \frac{b(100 - x_{H_2O})}{b(100 - x_{H_2O}) + x_{H_2O}}$, (10)

where $T_{g,d}$ is the glass transition *T* of the anhydrous (dry) composition and T_{g,H_2O} that of water (136 K, -137 °C) (Kohl et al., 2005); x_{H_2O} is given in mol%. There are three fitting parameters in this H₂O-dependent model of T_g ; *b*, *c* and *d*.

Reformulating the MYEGA equation (Equation 5), m can be expressed as

$$m = (12 - A) \left[1 + \ln \left(\frac{12 - A}{K} T_{g} \right) \right].$$
(11)

Assuming that the parameter *K* does not depend on x_{H_2O} , that is, takes the value of the anhydrous melt results in *m*, depending on H₂O content through $T_g(x_{H_2O})$ only,

$$m = m_{\rm d} + (12 - A) \ln \left(\frac{T_{\rm g}}{T_{\rm g,d}} \right).$$
(12)

The parameter m_d is the melt fragility of the anhydrous sample.

2.3. Fitting the Viscosity of Hydrous Silicate Melts

To fit a set of viscosity data including anhydrous and hydrous measurements of one specific melt composition, we follow these steps:

- 1. We fit the anhydrous data using the MYEGA model (Equation 7). These data sets often include H η and L η measurements constraining the values of *A*, $T_{g,d}$ and m_d well.
- 2. We insert Equations 9 and 12 into the MYEGA equation (Equation 7) and fit the resulting model to the remaining hydrous data. This constrains parameters *b*, *c* and *d*.

To evaluate the quality of the fit, we employ the root-mean-square error (RMSE),

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} (\eta_{c,n} - \eta_{m,n})^2}{N}},$$
(13)

where $\eta_{c,n}$ and $\eta_{m,n}$ are calculated and measured values respectively. *N* is the number of data points for which the error is calculated.

3. Viscosity Database

We use 50 viscosity data sets (1,603 data points) from the literature for fitting (Tables 1–3), displayed in a TAS diagram (Figure 1). The data sets span a large compositional space with SiO_2 content ranging from 44 wt% to 79 wt% and total alkali content ranges from 0 wt% to 17 wt% (mol% reported in Tables 1–3). Virtually all types of magma erupted on Earth are represented.

Of the 50 data sets, 45 include viscosity measurements in the $H\eta$ and $L\eta$ region for anhydrous melts (Table 1), 26 sets additionally contain data for hydrous compositions (marked by * in Table 1 and listed in Table 2). All anhydrous data are used in Section 4 to explore the parameters *A*, *m* and *T*_g; in Section 5, we explore the quality of our model for the 26 H₂O-bearing liquids (Table 2).

Table 3 lists five data sets. One only includes anhydrous measurements, while for the remaining four anhydrous and hydrous measurements are available. The η values for melts in Table 3 are derived from DSC measurements using the approach reviewed in Stabile et al. (2021) (for further discussion see Section 6). They complement viscometry measurements on glasses from eruptions already included in our database (Tables 1 and 2). With DSC, η is determined in the H η range only. In Section 6, we use DSC-derived η to illustrate that for high-quality data a reliable and predictive extrapolation of the MYEGA model from the H η to L η range is possible, assuming a fixed value for *A*.





Figure 1. Total alkali-silica representation of the data sets used in our study (Tables 1–3). Data sets are color coded according to dry only data (orange squares), those including dry and hydrous data (blue) and differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)-derived viscosities (red triangles). Open blue circles denote samples that are used to illustrate the combined fits of the MYEGA (Equation 7) and H_2O model (Equations 9–12) in Section 5.

4. Anhydrous Melts

4.1. MYEGA Fit

We use the MYEGA (Equation 7) and VFT models (Equation 8) to fit η data from 45 different anhydrous silicate melts, all of which include measurements in the H η and L η range (MYEGA: Figure 2, VFT: Figure S3). Including H η and L η measurements provides a good constraint on the fits, as two of the parameters used in the MYEGA model, $T_{g,d}$ and m_d , are quantities defined at high η (Equations 1 and 6); A, on the other hand, is a low- η quantity for $T \rightarrow \infty$. Data and fits are grouped according to increasing SM values (Equation 2) in Figure 2. The often employed structural NBO/T parameter (Mysen, 1988) was not used as it correlates positively with the chemical parameter SM (Figure S2), and Giordano and Dingwell (2003a) have shown that SM is a valid empirical parameter to infer the degree of structural polymerization of the melt. Moreover, SM is easier to calculate and therefore used here.

Figure 2a shows measurements of samples with SM < 10, which are the most polymerized melts with $x_{SiO_2} > 80 \text{ mol}\%$. Their interval of η measurements ranges from $10^2 \text{ to } 10^{13} \text{ Pa}$ s, with 785 °C < *T* < 1650 °C. For these melts, the 1 / *T* dependence of η is quasi-linear, that is, they exhibit an Arrhenian behavior. Figure 2b displays η for liquids with $10 \le SM < 20$. For these less polymerized melts, η and *T* ranges are $10^1 - 10^{14}$ Pa s, and 585 – 1710 °C, respectively. Some melts (e.g., Rhy14, Pho3) display Arrhenian behavior, while others (e.g., Rhy12, And3) exhibit a weak, but significant departure from linearity, that is, behave in a non-Arrhenian fashion. Figure 2c shows η data and fits for relatively depolymerized melts with $20 \le SM < 30$. Viscosity measurements range from 10^{-1} to 10^{14} Pa s, and 615 - 1570 °C. The majority of these melts exhibit a pronounced non-Arrhenian behavior for η , with the exception of the shoshonite sample (Sho), for which the L η range appears poorly constrained (see discussion on *A* below). Finally, Figure 2d shows η for the most depolymerized melts with SM ≥ 30 , with 10^0 Pa s $< \eta < 10^{14}$ Pa s and 635 °C < T < 1560 °C. Our results thus agree with the expected scenario that Arrhenian liquids are characterized by a polymerized melt structure due to their high content of network-forming cations (low SM), while liquids with larger values of SM exhibit non-Arrhenian behavior (e.g., Angell, 1995; Mysen, 1988; Ni et al., 2015).

Fitting parameters *A*, T_g and *m* are shown as a function of SM in Figure 3 for the MYEGA model. The fits reveal a steep decrease in T_g from 842 °C (Rhy2) to 741 °C (Rhy10) for the most polymerized melts in the interval 6.5 \leq SM \leq 10 (Figure 3b); with further increase of SM to 48.9 (Foi), T_g decreases to 643 °C. This behavior reflects the control of melt structure on T_g : Highly polymerized melts exhibit high T_g , and the addition of a



Table 1Viscosity D	lata Sets	for Anh	ydrous V.	olcanic A	Aelts Used for	Fitting, Orden	ed With Incre	asing SM	Values					
Sample	# data	SM	SiO ₂	TA	$A_{ m MYEGA, free}$	T _{g,MYEGA,free} in K	<i>M</i> MYEGA,free	RMSE	$A_{ m MYEGA, fixed}$	T _{g,MYEGA,fixed} in K	<i>m</i> MYEGA,fixed	RMSE	Reference	Comment
Rhy1	12	6.49	85.04	4.69	-7.76	1095.64	20.53	0.0005	-2.90	1105.36	25.15	0.0065	Di Genova, Kolzenburg, et al. (2017)	ſĽı
Rhy2	13	7.29	84.40	4.80	-5.56	1115.22	24.47	0.0022	-2.90	1121.23	27.57	0.0053	Di Genova, Kolzenburg, et al. (2017)	U
Rhy3	16	7.60	83.06	5.30	-9.60	1074.05	20.40	0.0057	-2.90	1093.07	27.11	0.0240	Di Genova, Kolzenburg, et al. (2017)	В
HPG8*	10	7.66	84.36	7.66	-7.24	1104.47	21.86	0.0012	-2.90	1116.93	26.57	0.0076	Hess et al. (1995); Dingwell et al. (1996)	HPG8
Rhy4	11	7.86	83.72	6.02	-6.82	1071.05	20.93	0.0002	-2.90	1083.97	25.25	0.0046	Di Genova, Kolzenburg, et al. (2017)	U
Rhy5	12	8.23	82.92	5.70	-4.07	1041.24	23.75	0.0008	-2.90	1043.84	25.31	0.0014	Di Genova, Kolzenburg, et al. (2017)	A
Rhy6	14	8.53	82.73	6.01	-5.85	1090.66	23.81	0.0057	-2.90	1097.45	27.28	0.0096	Di Genova, Kolzenburg, et al. (2017)	D
Rhy7	13	8.68	81.75	6.19	-6.29	1098.80	23.06	0.0033	-2.90	1108.12	26.91	0.0072	Di Genova, Kolzenburg, et al. (2017)	н
Rhy8*	20	8.87	82.57	7.21	-5.76	1080.59	22.63	0.0037	-2.90	1086.70	25.38	0.0113	Romine and Whittington (2015)	NCA
Rhy9	13	9.13	82.58	6.31	-4.75	1056.17	23.67	0.0013	-2.90	1064.76	26.28	0.0023	Di Genova, Kolzenburg, et al. (2017)	Н
Rhy10	12	9.33	82.57	5.78	-5.19	1014.28	21.95	0.0003	-2.90	1022.08	24.97	0.0021	Di Genova, Kolzenburg, et al. (2017)	I
Rhy11	15	13.18	78.27	5.66	-3.35	990.27	26.17	0.0005	-2.90	992.25	26.99	0.0007	Di Genova, Kolzenburg, et al. (2017)	ŗ
Rhy12	12	13.92	77.38	5.32	-3.58	1095.56	34.27	0.0092	-2.90	1097.87	35.77	0.0097	Di Genova, Kolzenburg, et al. (2017)	Г
Tra1*	18	15.25	72.30	11.14	-5.51	924.83	22.50	0.0005	-2.90	936.96	26.28	0.0069	Giordano et al. (2004)	MNV
Rhy14*	12	15.25	72.30	11.14	-2.69	814.70	23.92	0.0028	-2.90	813.46	23.54	0.0028	Di Genova et al. (2013)	PS-GM
Tra2*	18	15.49	70.26	10.58	-3.78	1020.82	30.65	0.0057	-2.90	1023.87	32.22	0.0067	Giordano et al. (2004)	IGC
Dac1 Dac2*	12 20	16.08 16.95	71.31 71.91	5.49 5.56	-4.49 -2.71	957.68 982.09	27.46 32.91	0.0015	-2.90 -2.90	965.04 981.11	30.67 32.49	0.0045	Alidibirov et al. (1997) Giordano and	DNZ
Pho1*	22	17.23	67.99	13.83	-5.16	920.36	23.37	0.0014	-2.90	929.29	26.90	0.0113	Giordano et al. (2009)	Mercato1600 with hydrous data
Pho2	13	17.29	67.97	13.98	-4.88	911.56	23.42	0.0001	-2.90	919.36	26.25	0.0022	Giordano et al. (2009)	Mercato1400
Dac3*	50	17.40	69.43	6.07	-3.36	1034.29	34.96	0.0010	-2.90	1035.17	35.87	0.0018	Whittington et al. (2009)	BRD
Tra3*	11	17.42	69.13	10.80	-3.42	933.24	25.16	0.0067	-2.90	935.28	25.96	0.0070	Romano et al. (2003)	AMS_B1

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I.

Sample	# data	SM	SiO_2	TA	$A_{\rm MYEGA, free}$	¹ g,MYEGA,free in K	<i>m</i> MYEGA,free	RMSE	$A_{ m MYEGA, fixed}$	- g,MTEUA,IIXe in K	n MYEGA,fixed	RMSE	Reference	Comment
Pho3*	22	17.79	68.32	14.62	-4.53	874.37	22.71	0.0007	-2.90	879.95	25.14	0.0054	Giordano et al. (2000)	
And1	14	19.84	67.00	5.06	-2.67	958.51	33.61	0.0022	-2.90	958.20	33.02	0.0024	Neuville et al. (1993)	Andesite
And2*	36	19.90	66.89	4.29	-3.07	1016.50	35.79	0.0004	-2.90	1016.83	36.23	0.0006	Richet et al. (1996)	Andesite
And3	21	19.96	66.27	4.37	-3.38	951.40	32.77	0.0004	-2.90	953.00	33.98	0.0012	Giordano et al. (2006)	MST
Tra5*	24	20.05	68.95	9.25	-2.49	970.99	32.07	0.0014	-2.90	969.84	31.17	0.0023	Whittington et al. (2001)	Trachyte
Pho4*	20	21.20	65.35	15.30	-2.10	919.10	30.05	0.0011	-2.90	917.74	28.49	0.0049	Whittington et al. (2001)	Phonolite
Lat*	30	22.25	62.69	7.89	-3.56	968.03	34.64	0.0345	-2.90	969.76	36.28	0.0361	Misiti et al. (2011)	FR
Pho5*	14	24.41	60.62	10.83	-6.41	914.74	26.18	0.0061	-2.90	927.36	31.53	0.0202	Romano et al. (2003)	V_1631_W
BasAnd1*	22	24.45	59.42	4.86	-2.53	947.54	38.23	0.0017	-2.90	946.84	37.06	0.0023	Robert (2014)	fu18
Pho6*	14	24.79	60.26	11.23	-4.74	928.70	34.77	0.0238	-2.90	943.04	31.20	0.0356	Romano et al. (2003)	V_1631_G
TepPho1	12	26.29	58.81	9.96	-4.08	939.20	32.87	0.0018	-2.90	944.01	36.22	0.0032	Giordano and Dingwell (2003a)	Ves_W_tot
Sho*	10	29.22	58.74	7.21	-9.44	903.15	25.47	0.0027	-2.90	911.67	35.39	0.0674	Vetere et al. (2007)	Vul
BasAnd2*	24	29.27	56.94	4.52	-3.13	988.47	40.22	0.0019	-2.90	988.73	40.93	0.0022	Robert et al. (2013)	sba
TepPho2	14	30.23	55.33	9.15	-2.72	942.93	40.31	0.0020	-2.90	942.45	39.77	0.0021	Giordano et al. (2009)	Pollena GM
Bas1*	10	30.50	53.60	5.55	-3.17	958.76	43.46	0.0016	-2.90	959.68	44.75	0.0017	Giordano and Dingwell (2003b)	ETN
Bas3*	25	31.24	54.08	3.71	-2.25	932.19	44.40	0.0019	-2.90	931.16	41.67	0.0051	Robert et al. (2015)	fu06
Bas4*	26	31.54	54.33	4.12	-3.00	932.17	40.63	0.0054	-2.90	932.74	41.02	0.0054	Misiti et al. (2009); Giordano et al. (2006)	SPZ, STB
TepPho3	16	31.65	54.80	7.53	-3.61	942.62	37.68	0.0022	-2.90	945.94	40.24	0.0034	Giordano and Dingwell (2003a)	Ves_G_tot
PhoTep1*	14	32.49	53.59	7.00	-2.51	937.95	42.26	0.0008	-2.90	937.30	40.97	0.0013	Giordano et al. (2009)	1906GM
Bas5*	33	36.10	51.89	3.66	-3.26	982.93	43.47	0.0024	-2.90	983.34	44.88	0.0031	Robert et al. (2015)	sb
Tep*	22	38.47	51.29	8.87	-1.85	932.49	48.96	0.0011	-2.90	930.00	44.48	0.0102	Whittington et al. (2000)	Tephrite
Foi*	20	48.87	42.95	7.86	-2.80	915.88	49.77	0.0009	-2.90	915.84	49.57	0.0010	Whittington et al. (2000)	NIQ
Di	37	56.19	43.75	0.00	-2.16	997.87	61.12	0.0013	-2.90	996.22	55.70	0.0066	Al-Mukadam et al. (2020)	Di



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Viscosity Du	ata Sets	From V	Viscome	etry Mea	isurements	for Hydr	ous Melt.	's Used for	· Fitting,	Ordere	d With Inci	reasing SM	Value						
	# drv				H ₂ 0	# 1vdrous													
Sample	data	SM	SiO_2	TA	range	data	A	$T_{\rm g,d}$	$m_{\rm d}$	q	с	d	RMSE	RMSE _{lit}	RMSE _{GRD}	RMSE_{HZ}	RMSE _{Duan}	Reference	Comment
HPG8	10	7.66	84.36	7.66	0-11.04	22	-7.24	1104.47	21.86	0.09	1.18	-1.90	0.17		0.83	0.36		Hess et al. (1995); Dingwell et al. (1996)	HPG8
Rhy8	20 8	8.87	82.57	7.21	0-1.21	130	-5.76	1080.59	22.63	8.26	60548.14	-60715.84	0.09		0.73	0.35	3.64	Romine and Whittington (2015)	NCA
Tra1	18	15.25	72.30	11.14	0-13.06	13	-5.51	924.83	22.50	0.24	1.07	-1.66	0.08	0.11	0.14	0.20	1.35	Giordano et al. (2004)	MNV
Rhy14	12	15.25	72.30	11.14	0-11.91	15	-2.69	814.70	23.92	0.16	1.51	-2.08	0.17	0.13	1.38	0.50	2.98	Di Genova et al. (2013)	PS-GM
Tra2	18	15.49	70.26	10.58	0-11.77	17	-3.78	1020.82	30.65	0.07	1.89	-2.26	0.10	0.10	0.42	0.34	0.87	Giordano et al. (2004)	IGC
Dac2	20	16.95	71.91	5.56	0-6.80	6	-2.71	982.09	32.91	45.08	49658.91	-49909.83	0.17	0.17	0.39	0.28	0.10	Giordano and Dingwell,(2003a)	NNZ
Pho1	22	17.23	67.99	13.83	0-14.46	30	-5.16	920.36	23.37	0.08	1.85	-1.83	0.22	0.22	0.34	0.35	1.17	Giordano et al. (2009)	Mercato 1600 with hyd. data
Dac3	50	17.40	69.43	6.07	0-16.06	26	-3.36	1034.29	34.96	0.14	1.52	-2.02	0.15	0.20	0.53	0.38		Whittington et al. (2009)	BRD
Tra3	11	17.42	69.13	10.80	0-12.91	23	-3.42	933.24	25.16	9.51	1926.67		0.12	0.21	0.37	0.22	1.14	Romano et al. (2003)	AMS_B1
Pho3	22	17.79	68.32	14.62	0-12.79	15	-4.53	874.37	22.71	0.13	1.68	-2.05	0.11	0.10	0.42	0.30	1.17	Giordano et al. (2000)	
And2	36]	06.61	66.89	4.29	0-11.35	45	-3.07	1016.50	35.79	0.29	1.73	-2.57	0.10		0.34	0.24	1.59	Richet et al. (1996)	
Tra5	24	20.05	68.95	9.25	0-15.60	42	-2.49	970.99	32.07	0.20	1.01	-1.44	0.17		0.44	0.39		Whittington et al. (2001)	Trach
Pho4	20	21.20	65.35	15.30	0-14.19	36	-2.10	919.10	30.05	4.68	278.56	-300.15	0.35		0.67	0.66		Whittington et al. (2001)	Phon
Lat	30	22.25	62.69	7.89	0-11.31	21	-3.56	968.03	34.64	0.04	3.03	-3.13	0.19	0.22	0.47	0.53	0.93	Misiti et al. (2011)	FR
Pho5	14	24.41	60.62	10.83	0-11.52	14	-6.41	914.74	26.18	1.06	21.86	-27.14	0.09	0.21	0.74	0.25	0.79	Romano et al. (2003)	V_ 1631_W
BasAnd1	22	24.45	59.42	4.86	0-10.03	23	-2.53	947.54	38.23	0.45	1.66	-2.69	0.07	0.09	0.51	0.31	1.07	Robert (2014)	fu18
Pho6	14	24.79	60.26	11.23	0-10.71	11	-5.67	935.17	27.17	0.97	19.58	-24.68	0.13	0.23	0.69	0.34	0.92	Romano et al. (2003)	V_ 1631_G
Sho	10	29.22	58.74	7.21	0-15.43	15	-9.44	903.15	25.47	0.41	0.74	-1.17	0.11	0.16	0.46	0.98	1.04	Vetere et al. (2007)	Vul
BasAnd2	24	29.27	56.94	4.52	0-12	32	-3.13	988.47	40.22	0.09	1.98	-1.85	0.13	0.24	0.72	0.50		Robert et al. (2013)	sba

Table 2



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Table 3

Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC)-Derived Viscosity Data Sets Used for Fitting, Ordered With Increasing SM

Sample	# dry data	SM	SiO	ТА	H ₂ O range	# hydrous data	A	T _{g,d}	ma	b	С	d	RMSE	Reference	Comment
Rhy14-DSC	4	14.16	77.46	9.06	0-11.91	16	-2.93	799.49	20.23	0.09	1.82	-1.99	0.14	Di Genova, Romano, Giordano, and Alletti (2014)	PS
Tra3-DSC	4	19.85	66.14	9.91	0–15.96	16	-2.93	910.88	25.11	0.24	0.95	-1.27	0.17	Di Genova, Romano, Giordano, and Alletti (2014)	AMS-B1
Lat-DSC	4	22.06	63.56	8.20	0-5.71	4	-2.93	929.95	33.36	0.98	1.53	-4.64	0.25	Di Genova, Romano, Giordano, and Alletti (2014)	FR
Bas1-DSC	4	31.19	53.82	5.26	0-8.30	8	-2.93	909.08	40.35	1.12	1.75	-4.61	0.53	Di Genova, Romano, Giordano, and Alletti (2014)	ETN
Di-DSC	10	56.19	43.75	0.00			-2.93	1000.06	59.14				0.09	Al-Mukadam et al. (2020)	Di

Note. The first block lists chemical composition (including the H_2O content in mol%) and contains information on the data, the third block information on references. In the second block the fitting parameters for the constrained hydrous MYEGA model (Equation 7 with A = -2.9, 9, and 10) and the RMSE are given. "Comment" indicates the sample name in the respective publication. Measurements mentioned to have crystallized/lost water and so on in the respective reference are excluded from fitting. Bas, Basalt; Di, Diopside; Lat, Latite; Rhy, Rhyolite; RMSE, root-mean-square error; Tra, Trachyte.

small amount of network modifying cations leads to a dramatic decrease in T_g . Rhy14 with SM = 14.6 shows T_g significantly lower than its low-SM SiO₂-rich counterparts. Rhy14 is a peralkaline rhyolite (pantellerite), characterized by an excess of alkali and alkaline earth cations over Al₂O₃ which induces a dramatic depolymerization of the melt structure within rhyolite chemistry (Di Genova et al., 2013; Dingwell et al., 1998a), leading to relatively low η (Figure 2b). As expected from Figure 2, melt fragility (*m*) positively correlates with SM (Figure 3c). In particular, we find that the strongest melt (*m* = 20.4) is Rhy3 with SM = 7.6, the most fragile melt is Di (*m* = 61.1) with SM = 56.2 (Table 1).

Finally, the parameter *A* increases significantly from -9.6 for Rhy3 to -1.9 for Tep with SM (Figure 3a, Table 1). We find the largest variation of *A* for SM < 10, and a relatively constant value of $A \sim -3$ for SM > 20. The low values of *A* for the polymerized melts with SM < 10 is likely caused by the limited η range accessible for measurements in the laboratory. For example, the viscosity of the polymerized melt Rhy3 (SM = 7.6, A = -9.6) that follows an Arrhenian behavior (Figure 2a), was measured in the range of $3.24 < \log \eta < 11.15$ (T < 1591 °C. It is not possible to extend measurements to significantly lower η values for such polymerized melts with *T* becoming too high for the measuring system and causing volatilization of alkalis from the expected behavior with SM = 29.3 and A = -9.4. This is a very low value of *A* compared to melts with similar SM. For Sho, only three data points exist in the L η range with the lowest measured viscosity log $\eta = 1.27$ (Vetere et al., 2007). This restricted L η range may not permit an accurate determination of the *T* dependence in the L η region and thus a reliable estimate of *A*.

4.2. The Viscosity at Infinite Temperature

A common assumption is that the viscosity of glass-forming melts converge to constant value of A as $T \to \infty$ (Angell et al., 2000), an assumption that can be integrated into the fitting by fixing the parameter A (Section 2.1). Maxwell's equation $\eta = G_{\infty}\tau$ provides an order-of-magnitude estimate. G_{∞} is the shear modulus at infinite frequency and τ the relaxation time. For silicate melts at infinite T, they are estimated as $G_{\infty} = 10^{10}$ Pa (Dingwell & Webb, 1989) and $\tau_{\infty} \approx 10^{-14}$ s (Angell, 1997; Börjesson et al., 1987; Fujimori & Oguni, 1995), resulting in $A = \log \eta_{\infty} = -4$.





Figure 2. Fits to viscosity measurements of 45 anhydrous samples (Table 1) using the MYEGA model (Equation 7). Data are grouped according to the chemical parameter SM (Equation 2): Intervals are (a) SM < 10, (b) $10 \le$ SM < 20, (c) $20 \le$ SM < 30 and (d) SM \ge 30. A corresponding figure using the VFT model (Equation 8) can be found in the Supporting Information (Figure S3). Abbreviations and references for the different data sets can be found in Table 1: * denotes samples for which hydrous measurements are also reported (Table 2). Symbols are assigned as follows: X for rhyolites, empty circles for HPG8, triangles to the left for trachytes, squares for dacites, pentagons for phonolites, empty crosses for andesites, empty X for latites, diamonds for basaltic andesites, stars for tephriphonolites, octagons for shoshonite, hexagons for basalts, upwards triangles for phono-tephrites, triangles to the right for tephrites, tripods for foidite, crosses for diopside.

The VFT (Equation 3) and AG models (Equation 4) have been used in the literature to explore the range of *A* values for volcanic melts. Russell et al. (2003) obtained an average $\overline{A} = -4.3 \pm 0.7$ (VFT) and $\overline{A} = -3.2 \pm 0.7$ (AG) for a compilation of 20 silicate melts. Subsequent work by Giordano et al. (2008) included more data (198 compositions) and found a value of $\overline{A} = -4.6 \pm 0.2$ using a VFT equation dependent on chemical composition. For 946 technical silicate and 31 other glass-forming technical liquids, Zheng et al. (2011) determined $\overline{A} = -2.9 \pm 0.3$ for MYEGA (Equation 7) and $\overline{A} = -3.9 \pm 0.3$ for VFT. The literature data as well as the discussion by Mauro et al. (2009) show that the MYEGA model results in a larger value for \overline{A} than VFT.

We observe a larger \overline{A} for MYEGA than VFT with $\overline{A}_{MYEGA} = -4.3 \pm 1.9$ and $\overline{A}_{VFT} = -5.1 \pm 1.5$, respectively. The difference between them is consistent with the results of Zheng et al. (2011). The trend to low values of *A* that we observe stems largely from the 11 Arrhenian data sets with SM < 10 for which the quasi-linear extrapolation of η to high *T* yields very low values of *A* (Figure 3). When the eleven *A* values for melts with SM < 10 are excluded from averaging, $\overline{A}_{VFT} = -4.6 \pm 1.2$, in agreement with the value found by Giordano et al. (2008) and close to that of Russell et al. (2003). Nine of the 11 melts in Table 1 with SM < 10 were not used in these two studies, but we assume they would have a similar influence on the values of *A*. A significant—but smaller—difference in \overline{A} remains compared to the technical data set of Zheng et al. (2011). Excluding the *A* values for SM < 10 for the MYEGA fits, we obtain $\overline{A}_{MYEGA} = -3.7 \pm 1.5$.





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Figure 3. Values of the fitting parameters A (a), T_g (b), and m (c) calculated by applying the MYEGA model (Equation 7) to 45 anhydrous measurements, plotted against the structure parameter SM (Equation 2). Blue symbols are samples which were fit with parameter A free for optimization and red symbols used A = -2.9. Open symbols denote the two samples used as examples of hydrous melts in Section 5. Numerical values of fitting parameters for the MYEGA model can be found in Table 1. Symbols for different melt compositions are assigned according to Figure 2.



Low values of *A* also correlate with low values of the steepness factor (Figure 3), highlighting a difference between the current data set and that of Zheng et al. (2011). In their database, all m > 25.9. If we restrict averaging of *A* to melts with such *m* values, we obtain $\overline{A}_{MYEGA} = -3.2 \pm 1.0$, in excellent agreement with Zheng et al. (2011). This underlines the observation that the measurable *T* interval for highly polymerized melts (low SM/low *m*) often is to narrow to constrain *A*.

4.3. Fitting With a Constant Value of A

In order to explore differences in the MYEGA fitting parameters when *A* is fixed or left as a free parameter, we refit the anhydrous data sets (Table 1) using A = -2.9 (Zheng et al., 2011). This may also be important for cases where only a small number of measurements over a limited H η range are available, including DSC measurements which we address in Section 6. The RMSE values reported in Table 1 show an expected increase due to the reduction in fitting parameters, but overall the fitting quality is still high.

Values for T_g (Table 1 and Figure 3b) are very similar to the fits with free *A* since T_g is generally well constrained by measurements in the vicinity of $\eta = 10^{12}$ Pa s (Equation 1). The largest differences in T_g exist for melts with SM < 10, which exhibit the lowest values of *A* in the MYEGA fit and show quasi-Arrhenian behavior; with the shift of *A* to larger values, T_g are also shifted to larger values, but differences do not exceed 20 °C. For SM > 10, notable differences exist for Tra1 and Pho6. For these samples the lowest *T* of measurements is significantly larger than T_g (Figure 2), leading to a less effective constraint.

Similarly, *m* values for fixed A = -2.9 in the interval SM < 10 are systematically larger. This is readily rationalized by reversing the argument given in Section 4.2 that an Arrhenian behavior of η leads to small *A*. With A = -2.9 constrained, the fit is forced to become more non-Arrhenian, increasing the curvature near T_g . For $10 \le SM < 20$, the majority of *m* values associated with fixed *A* are larger but the deviation is less pronounced. In the interval SM ≥ 20 , deviations are generally small and not systematic. A notable difference is Sho, for which L η data are scarce as discussed in Section 4.1, with m = 35.39 for A = -2.9, compared to m = 25.47 for a fitted A = -9.44.

General trends discussed for the MYEGA fit with variable A are preserved for fixed A = -2.9, and become more systematic: T_g decreases with SM, and the fragility *m* increases with SM. Fixing A leads to a narrower distribution of *m* and indicates a quasi-linear correlation with SM.

5. Hydrous Silicate Melts

After fitting anhydrous viscosity data using the MYEGA model (Figure 2), we explore the H₂O-dependent model of Equations 9–12 for the 26 samples with hydrous data (Table 2). As examples, we show two compositions in Figure 4 that are also highlighted in Figures 1 and 3: a Basaltic Andesite (BasAnd2) (Robert et al., 2013) and a Phonolite (Pho1) (Giordano et al., 2009). The maximum H₂O content of the samples exceeds 11 mol% for viscosity measurements in the H η range, with a large number of H₂O concentrations per composition (Table 2, Figure 4). The BasAnd2 data also include two falling sphere measurements of an H₂O bearing melts with 6.96 mol%. For both samples, H₂O-dependent models for η are published in the original work which provide a basis for comparing the quality of fits.

Our model describes the η measurements for BasAnd2 by Robert et al. (2013) significantly better than the literature model (Figure 4a)—with the exception of the two L η falling sphere data—which is most clearly visible for 12 mol% H₂O. In addition, our model shows a tendency toward larger curvature in log η - 1 / *T* (stronger non-Arrhenian behavior, larger *m*). For Pho1 (Figure 4d), the data are well described by both our fit and the model used in Giordano et al. (2009), with the exception of the highest H₂O content (14.39 mol%), which neither of the models match. With a high alkaline content (Figure 1 and Table 2), Pho1 shows Arrhenian behavior.

Through its definition (Equation 1), T_g is well constrained in all data sets by measurements in the H η regime. Reported values and our results for BasAnd2 and Pho1 agree well, and T_g decreases monotonically with H₂O content. In our model, the extrapolation of T_g to 100 mol% H₂O is constrained to $T_{g,H_2O} = -137^{\circ}$ C (Kohl et al., 2005).





Figure 4. Hydrous viscosity data and fits for a Basaltic Andesite, BasAnd2 by Robert et al. (2013) (left column) and a Phonolite, Pho1 by Giordano et al. (2009) (right column). Solid lines are fits using the MYEGA model and the parametrization of water dependence formulated in the current work. Dotted lines show the fits for BasAnd2 and Pho1 from the original publications. Fitting parameters T_g (b and e) and *m* (c and f) for BasAnd2 and Pho1 were calculated by applying our parametrization (blue) and using the model given in the respective reference (red) to each data set of constant H₂O content. The insets cover the H₂O -content of the experiments, the full figures show the extrapolation to 100% of H₂O. For T_g , the stars at 0 mol% and 100 mol% H₂O show values that are fixed in the fit. Fitting parameters and root-mean-square error values are given in Table 2.



The steepness parameter *m* deviates between our model and literature fits (Figure 4) for the non-Arrhenian melt BasAnd2, which is already apparent in the fits themselves. m_d reported by Robert et al. (2013) is slightly higher than the value calculated here, and their *m* shows a steeper decrease with H₂O, resulting in an increasing deviation between the two models. For Pho1, our model formulation leads to lower values of *m* with H₂O compared to the fit by Giordano et al. (2009). The initial decrease is more pronounced than for BasAnd2. This behavior reflects that BasAnd2 has lower degree of polymerization, with the SM = 29.3 and $x_{SiO_2} = 56.9$ mol% (Table 2), an effect that is not clearly visible in the models from the literature.

In some cases—illustrated by Pho1 for our model (Figure 4f), but also apparent in some trends from the literature—*m* extrapolates to negative values at high H_2O content, which constitutes unphysical behavior. Such behavior should serve as warning against extrapolating models of melt viscosity far beyond the H_2O content actually measured in the experiments used for fitting.

Figure 5 shows a comparison of our fit calculation with RMSE = 0.17 against the measured viscosities as well as prediction of three general chemical viscosity models for these compositions (Duan, 2014; Giordano et al., 2008; Hui & Zhang, 2007). The model by Duan (2014) is the only viscosity model that accounts for the pressure effect on melt viscosity, which we fixed to 1 bar. Also, this model requires the partitioning of the total iron in FeO and Fe₂O₃. Here, for the melts for which iron partitioning was not provided, we assigned 1/2 of the total iron (always given as FeO_{tot}) as FeO and 1.11/2 as Fe₂O₃. The RMSE across all calculations is 1.95. The models by Giordano et al. (2008) and Hui and Zhang (2007) have RMSE values of 0.74 and 0.69 respectively. Table 2 documents the RMSE values for all three general chemical models and literature models for the individual compositions. Compared to the latter our model performs with comparable or better quality (Figure S5). However, previously published models differ in their formulations of H₂O dependence, while we use the same model for all melts (Equations 9–12). In the Supporting Information we provide an excel file to calculate viscosities for the melts referenced here.

Parameters *c* and *d* in Equation 9 obtained for six samples (Rhy8, Dac2, Tra3, Pho4, Pho5, Pho6) show strong deviations from the other values (c > 19 and d < -24, Table 2). This leads to unphysical extrapolations of T_g and—via Equation 12—*m*, that is, to an increase of T_g with H₂O content (Figure S4). Nevertheless, our model accurately reproduces the measured η data with RMSE = 0.09–0.35 for these six compositions. The anomalous behavior of T_g and *m* with H₂O appears to result from minimizing the residuals during the fit process. The unphysical extrapolation behavior serves as reminder to use our model—like any other model—not to extrapolate far beyond the experimental H₂O range.

6. Using DSC for Modeling Melt Viscosity

During viscometry experiments in the H η regime volcanic melts can be subjected to nanostructural modification (i.e., crystallization and demixing) (Di Genova, Zandona, & Deubener, 2020), and DSC measurements provide an alternative route to obtain η data (e.g., Stabile et al., 2021). DSC measurements require a few mg of glass, which is exposed to $T > T_g$ for a few minutes only (Di Genova, Zandona, & Deubener, 2020; Stabile et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2019). This is in stark contrast to experiments using micropenetration and parallel plate techniques that require large and double-polished samples (ideally with a thickness of ~ 3 mm) and expose the melt to $T > T_g$ for significantly longer periods of time (Douglas et al., 1965) which can lead to severe chemical and textural changes in anhydrous and hydrous samples (Bouhifd et al., 2004; Di Genova, Zandona, & Deubener, 2020; Liebske et al., 2003; Richet et al., 1996). However, only temperatures around T_g can be probed using DSC, leaving the L η range unexplored, complicating η fitting. In Sections 4.2 and 4.3, we have explored the role of A for the η model, and found that using A = -2.9 (Zheng et al., 2011) constraining the high T behavior—provides a systematic and good description of melt viscosity in the L η range. Using A = -2.9 in the MYEGA fit and applying our description of H₂O dependence to DSC-derived η can therefore provide an alternative route to attain high-quality and reliable predictions.

6.1. Diopside: A Test Case

We test this approach for DSC-based data of a diopside melt (Di), an Fe-free system that is a good proxy of volcanic melt not prone to crystallization around T_g , and for which a large number of viscometry





Figure 5. Viscosity values calculated using the hydrous fitting model (η_c) developed here (Equations 7 and 9–12) (red crosses) plotted against measured values (η_m) for the data from the 26 hydrous data sets (Table 2). As comparison, the chemical models by Duan (2014) (top), Giordano et al. (2008) (middle) and Hui and Zhang (2007) (bottom) are shown as blue circles. The solid line indicates the 1:1 correspondence. The root-mean-square error (RMSE) across all 1,251 datapoints for our model is RMSE = 0.17 log units. The general chemical models have RMSE values of 1.95, 0.74, and 0.69, respectively. Values of the fitting parameters and the RMSE for individual data sets and the respective references can be found in Table 2.





Figure 6. Comparison of differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)-derived viscosity data (green symbols) with viscometry measurements (blue symbols) for a diopside (Di). Our MYEGA model fit to the DSC-derived viscosities (green line) and to the viscometric measurements (red line) both use A = -2.9. The MYEGA fit to the viscometry data by Al-Mukadam et al. (2020) (A20) is shown by the blue line.

measurements in both H η and L η ranges as well as DSC data exist. Al-Mukadam et al. (2020) performed calorimetric measurements of Di and provided two rate-dependent characteristic T in the vicinity of T_g : T_{onset} marks the sudden drop in heat flow measured in DSC, and T_{peak} corresponds to the (endothermic) minimum of the heat flow undershoot of the glass transformation interval. T_{onset} and T_{peak} were measured at five heating rates, leading to 10 data points. We use the approach of Scherer (1984) to calculate η via

$$\log \eta(T_{\text{onset/peak}}) = K_{\text{onset/peak}} - \log |q_{c,h}|, \tag{14}$$

where *K* is the chemically independent parallel shift factor and $|q_{c,h}|$ the heating rate in K s⁻¹ for $T_{\text{onset/peak}}$ (Di Genova, Zandona, & Deubener, 2020).

Here we fit both the DSC-based values, that is, 10 data points with $\eta = 10^9 - 10^{12}$ Pa s (Figure 6) as well as the viscometric measurements compiled by Al-Mukadam et al. (2020), using the MYEGA expression (Equation 7) and assuming A = -2.9 (Zheng et al., 2011). Our fit and that by Al-Mukadam et al. (2020)—which leaves *A* free—to viscometry data show good agreement overall. The deviation at high *T* stems from the differing values in *A*. The MYEGA model based on DSC-derived viscosities (at H η) predicts the L η viscometry data well. Our approach shows that a predictive extrapolation from the H η regime over more than 10 orders of magnitudes is reliably possible, spanning the entire η range relevant to volcanic eruptions.

6.2. Predicting Viscosities Using DSC

After testing this fitting approach on Di, we move to natural melts with fewer DSC data points and more complex oxide chemistry, which can lead to nanocrystallization even in the DSC experiments (Di Genova, Zandona, & Deubener, 2020). We compare the results from the fit to DSC-derived data with models that are based on viscometry measurement on melts of the same eruptions (Table 3): a Trachy-Basalt from Mt. Etna (Bas1-DSC), a Trachyte from Agnano-Monte Spina (Tra3-DSC), a Latite from Fondo Riccio (Lat-DSC), both located in the Phlegraean Fields, and a peralkaline Rhyolite from the island of Pantelleria (Rhy14-DSC), with Bas1, Tra3, Lat and Rhy14 (Table 2), the corresponding compositions with viscometry measurements. From the DSC measurements of Di Genova, Romano, Giordano, and Alletti (2014), we use selective data only, as even DSC upscans can induce nanocrystallization in volcanic melts (Di Genova, Zandona, &

Deubener, 2020). The presence of FeO-bearing nanocrystals in some samples has been suggested by Raman spectroscopy (Di Genova, Sicola, et al., 2017) and documented by transmission electron microscope (TEM) images for an anhydrous basalt from Mt. Etna following a DSC experiment (Di Genova, Zandona, & Deubener, 2020). We therefore take a conservative approach and use the characteristic temperatures from the first matching heating rate of 20 K min⁻¹ to minimize the effect of possible alteration during the experiment. In addition to T_{onset} and T_{peak} described in Section 6.1, we also use T_{liquid} and its *K* factor, provided in Di Genova, Zandona, and Deubener (2020). With the 20 K min⁻¹ heating rate, only data above T_g are generated, not constraining the slope (*m*) of η at 10¹² Pa s well. To minimize the use of DSC data points beyond the initial heating, we use one more point, T_{onset} for 5 K min⁻¹, which provides *T* for log $\eta = 12.3$.

Our model fit to the anhydrous DSC-derived data using A = -2.9 shows diverging behavior for Tra3, Bas1, and Lat in the H η range when compared to η -models based on micropenetration measurements (Section 5) (Figure 7). A possible explanation for this discrepancy is nanostructure formation before or during micropenetration measurements at low T (Di Genova, Zandona, & Deubener, 2020). In particular, Di Genova, Zandona, and Deubener (2020) reported TEM images and Raman spectra of a nanolite-bearing Mt. Etna glass (i.e., Bas-1 composition) previously subjected to micropenetration and DSC measurements. They proved both scanning electron microscope and X-ray diffraction to be inconclusive in inferring the presence of nanolites due to their small size and low volume fraction. It was observed that with increasing nanocrystallization, viscosity increased toward values from melts of similar basaltic composition. Conversely, viscometry measurements in the L η range are well predicted by the DSC-derived model. DSC-derived η for Rhy14 (Figure 7d) shows excellent agreement with micropenetration data (Di Genova et al., 2013), and agrees with their VFT model up to ~1200 °C. Contrary to the other three samples, a slight deviation can be observed between the DSC model prediction and the high-T viscometry measurements which can be traced to differences in m between the fits, DSC being better constrained at 10¹² Pa s and showing a stronger non-Arrhenian behavior.

Similar to Di, η determined by viscometry at high *T* is well predicted by the extrapolation of the DSC-based description. This suggests that it is possible to accurately describe the L η regime of volcanic melts using only measurements of the H η range with (Zheng et al., 2011). This observation is further supported when considering the η differences between anhydrous viscometry- and DSC-based models at eruptive *T* of the melts that fall between the H η and L η region, with 900 °C for Lat (Cannatelli, 2012), 945 °C for Tra3, 1225 °C for Bas1, 750 °C for Rhy-14 (Di Genova et al., 2013), which therefore requires interpolation and extrapolation of η , respectively. Differences for the anhydrous compositions are small, ranging from 0.1 and 0.6 log units for Bas1 and Lat, respectively (Figure 8).

Now we extend our analysis to the hydrous DSC and viscometry measurements: for Lat-DSC, only DSCbased η values of one hydrous composition (5.71 mol%) are used from the data reported in Di Genova, Sicola, et al. (2017), for Bas1-DSC two hydrous compositions (5.24 mol% and 8.30 mol%); further data (3.6, 3.8 wt% for Bas1-DSC and 2.7, 3.8, 6.3 wt% for Lat-DSC) are excluded due to the presence of nanocrystals in the starting material (Di Genova, Sicola, et al., 2017).

The DSC-derived η of Tra3-DSC (Figure 7a) exhibits a *T*-dependence that our model describes well, and DSC- and viscometry-based models show good agreement for η in the ~ 4 mol% and 12–13 mol% H₂O ranges; they fit all experimental data well, with some deviations for 9.07 mol% H₂O. The difference in dependence of η on H₂O becomes apparent when the models are evaluated for 15.96 mol% H₂O: While the DSC-based model shows a further decrease of η with H₂O content at given *T*, the trend for the viscometry-based model reverses, with an unphysical increase. This behavior reflects the ill-behaved fitting parameters for Tra3 mentioned in Section 5 (Figure S4), reiterating the warning against using models for H₂O concentrations outside the range of fitting. This is also reflected in the change to a positive slope of Tra3 for ~ 12 mol% at eruptive *T* (Figure 8). Data for Bas1-DSC with 5.24 mol% and 8.30 mol% of H₂O do not provide a consistent picture in terms of $\eta - 1 / T$ (Figure 7b). The two low *T* and two high *T* points show different slope, and an offset. The two high *T* points represent the DSC measurements at T_{peak} and T_{liquid} for the 20 K min⁻¹ heating rate, most likely reflecting nanocrystallization during the heating cycle in the DSC measurements, as mentioned above. Consequently, not all data can be fit with the same quality as for





Figure 7. Comparison of viscosity data for Trachyte Tra3 (a), Basalt Bas1 (b), Latite Lat (c), and Rhyolite Rhy14 (d). Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)derived viscosities (filled circles) (Di Genova, Romano, Giordano, & Alletti, 2014) were obtained by using the shift factors K_i from Di Genova, Zandona, and Deubener (2020). Viscometry measurements (open circles) for Tra3 are from Romano et al. (2003), for Bas1 from Giordano and Dingwell (2003b), for Lat from Misiti et al. (2011), and for Rhy14 from Di Genova et al. (2013). Our MYEGA fits to the DSC data (solid lines) are calculated using A = -2.9. For comparison, our fits to the viscometric data from Section 5 are included (dashed lines). H₂O content indicated in the legends by solid lines only (DSC column) show curves for which the DSC model is evaluated, without DSC-derived η data available.

Tra3-DSC. Nevertheless, Bas1-DSC and Bas1 models agree well for ~ 5 mol% H₂O, and Bas1-DSC is able to predict the 2.34 mol% H₂O viscometric data accurately, without this water content being part of the DSC-based fit. At eruptive *T*, Bas1 and Bas1-DSC (Figure 8) show a consistent decrease of η with H₂O.

The Lat-DSC model deviates significantly for 5.71 mol% of H₂O from that of Lat (Figure 7c). This is caused by the η measurements of Misiti et al. (2011) showing little variation for 1.12 – 4.37 mol% H₂O, while the DSC-derived η values, based on the measurements with 5.71 mol% H₂O only, vary significantly over this range of water content. The Lat-DSC model reasonably reproduces viscometry-based η with a water content of 2 mol% (Misiti et al., 2011). Both models describe the L η data at 10–11 mol% H₂O similarly well; for the viscometry-based Lat model they are used as input data, in Lat-DSC not. At eruptive *T*, the Lat-DSC model shows a well behaved, monotonically decreasing η with H₂O content (Figure 8), while Lat has a plateau at H₂O contents of ~ 2.5 mol% due to the clustering of similar η values for 1.12 – 4.37 mol% H₂O (Misiti et al., 2011). Consistent with the anhydrous data, viscometry measurements for Rhy14 show a steeper slope in $\eta - 1 / T$ compared to the DSC values for hydrous compositions (Figure 7d). Therefore the Rhy14 model predicts lower values in the L η regime compared to Rhy14-DSC, and higher values in the H η regime. At eruptive *T*, Rhy14 and Rhy14-DSC (Figure 8) show similar behavior, with the viscometric model generating lower η values; the difference between both models increases until it becomes approximately constant at ~ 7.5 mol% (2 wt%) with 0.8 – 0.9 log units.





Figure 8. Comparison of H_2O dependence of differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and viscometry derived models at eruptive *T*: 945 °C for Tra3, 1225 °C for Bas1, 900 °C for Lat, and 750 °C for Rhy14. Water content is given in mol%. The black ticks are set in 1 wt% intervals of H_2O concentration.

Our results for this set of examples indicate that hydrous DSC-derived η can be used to calibrate the model developed here (Equation 7 with A = -2.9 and Equations 9–12). Viscosity values of different H₂O concentration can not only be described well, but accurately predicted (Figure 7). Resulting η at eruptive *T* are well behaved with H₂O for all DSC-derived models. However, to fully validate this approach and explain the deviations between viscometry and DSC-derived models comprehensively, more DSC and viscometry measurements carried out on samples of equivalent compositions are necessary. As we have pointed out explicitly for Bas1, the formation of nanostructures appears to not only affect viscometry measurements, but also DSC experiments, albeit to a much smaller extent. Careful analysis of samples after experiments, for example, by Raman spectroscopy or TEM, is necessary to check for the formation of nanostructures (Di Genova, Zandona, & Deubener, 2020).

7. Conclusions

We present a new approach to fit the temperature and water dependence of viscosity for volcanic melts. It is based on a combination of the physically motivated MYEGA model (Mauro et al., 2009) (Equation 7) for an isochemical fit to anhydrous data and a two-component model (Schneider et al., 1997) to describe the influence of water. In the MYEGA model, the fitting parameters are the viscosity at infinite T ($A = \log \eta_{\infty}$), the glass transition temperature T_g , and the steepness factor m. In the two-component model, we formulate a dependence of T_g only between the endmembers of the anhydrous melt composition and that of water (Equations 9 and 10). For the dependence of m on water content, we derive an analytical expression dependent on T_g (Equation 12) and thereby on H₂O.

For a suite of 45 anhydrous melts (Table 1), we show that the MYEGA model describes the data comparably to—or better than—the more commonly used VFT fit. We further explore the performance of the MYEGA model by assuming a global constant value of A = -2.9 (Zheng et al., 2011); naturally, the misfit to the data increases, but the fits remain good overall. We also find that highly polymerized Arrhenian melts tend to yield smaller values of A due to the experimental inaccessibility of higher T measurements for these types of melts. For 26 data sets with both anhydrous and hydrous measurements, we apply the MYEGA model in combination with the H₂O-dependent description of T_g . We find that our model performs with comparable or better quality than various differing literature models (Table 2), including global chemical models. An



excel file to calculate viscosities of all melts considered here using our model is provided as Supporting Information.

We further investigate and fit viscosities derived from DSC which is an attractive experimental approach that avoids or reduces nanocrystallization and demixing of samples during the measurements compared to viscometric methods. The lack of low viscosity data due to DSC only probing *T* around T_g is compensated by using a constrained A = -2.9. For a small set of five examples (Table 3), we illustrate that such a fit extrapolates well to high *T* when compared to viscometry measurements. We apply the H₂O dependent model with A = -2.9 to hydrous DSC-derived viscosities, and find the model to show good fitting and predictive capabilities. Investigating these models at eruptive *T* also shows well behaved functions; viscosities monotonically decrease with H₂O content. This underlines the viability of determining η with DSC.

Since nanostructures have been shown to significantly influence η of volcanic melts (Di Genova, Brooker, et al., 2020; Di Genova, Kolzenburg, et al., 2017; Di Genova, Zandona, & Deubener, 2020), understanding and quantifying their impact on magma transport is an important task in physical volcanology. The characterization of samples exposed to DSC and viscometry measurements by Raman spectroscopy and transmission electron microscopy gives insight into the structural and textural impact of nanostructures. In combination with fitting the DSC-derived viscosities with A = -2.9 as well as viscometric measurements, this opens up the possibility to quantify the impact of nanostructure formation on the viscosity of volcanic melts. This in turn may improve our understanding of the eruptive dynamics of volcanoes.

Data Availability Statement

Data can be found in the cited references (Tables 1 and 3). An Excel file to compute viscosities with our model using fitting parameters of Table 2 is supplied as Supporting Information.

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