The Meaning of Global Ocean Ridge Basalt Major Element Compositions

Yaoling Niu1,2,3*

1Institute of Oceanology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Qingdao, 266071, China; 2Department of Earth Sciences, Durham University, Durham DH1 3LE, UK; 3Laboratory for Marine Geology, Qingdao National Laboratory For Marine Science and Technology, Qingdao 266061, China

*Corresponding author. Department of Earth Sciences, Durham University, Durham DH1 3LE, UK. Telephone: +44-19-1334-2311. Fax: +44-19-1334-2301. E-mail: yaoling.niu@durham.ac.uk

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ABSTRACT

Mid-ocean ridge basalts (MORB) are arguably the most abundant and also the simplest igneous rocks on the Earth. A correct understanding of their petrogenesis thus sets the cornerstone of igneous petrogenesis in general and also forms the foundation for studying mantle dynamics. Because major element compositions determine the mineralogy, phase equilibria and physical properties of rocks and magmas, understanding global MORB major element systematics is of prime importance. The correlated large MORB major element compositional variations are well understood as the result of cooling-dominated crustal-level processes (e.g. fractional crystallization, magma mixing, melt–rock assimilation or reaction, and other aspects of complex open-magma chamber processes), but it remains under debate what messages MORB major elements may carry about mantle sources and processes. To reveal mantle messages, it is logical to correct MORB melts for the effects of crustal-level processes to Mg# /Ca to be in equilibrium with mantle olivine of /Ca72. Such corrected MORB major element (e.g. Si72, Ti72, Al72, Fe72, Mg72, Ca72 and Na72) compositional variations thus reflect fertile mantle compositional variation, composition-controlled mantle physical property variation (e.g. density and solidus), variation in the extent and pressure of melting, and uncertainties associated with the correction. The correction-related uncertainties can be removed through justified heavy averaging. Because ridge axial depth variation (~0 to ~6000 m below sea level) and plate spreading rate variation (<10 to >150 mm a−1) are the two largest known physical variables along the global ocean ridge system, possible correlations of MORB major element compositions at Mg# /Ca with these two physical variables are expected to reveal intrinsic controls on global MORB petrogenesis and ocean ridge dynamics. Indeed, global MORB major element data averaged with respect to both ridge axial depth intervals and ridge spreading rate intervals show significant first-order correlations. These correlations lead to the conclusion that the ridge axial depth variation and MORB chemistry variation are two different effects of a common cause, induced by fertile mantle compositional variation. The latter determines (1) variation in both composition and mode of mantle mineralogy, (2) variation of mantle density, (3) variation of ridge axial depth, (4) source-inherited MORB compositional variation, (5) density-controlled variation in the maximum extent of mantle upwelling, (6) apparent variation in the extent of melting, and (7) the correlated variation of MORB chemistry with ridge axial depth. These correlations also confirm the recognition that the extent of mantle melting increases with, and is caused by, increasing plate spreading rate. Mantle temperature variation could play a part, but its overstated role in the literature results from a basic error (1) in treating ridge axial depth variation as solely caused by mantle temperature variation by ignoring the intrinsic control of mantle composition, (2) in treating mantle plume-influenced ridges (e.g. Iceland) as normal ridges of plate spreading origin, and (3) in treating seismic low velocity at great depths (>300 km) beneath these mantle plume-influenced ridges as evidence for hot ridge mantle. There is no evidence for large mantle temperature variation beneath ridges away from mantle plumes. The suggested conclusions of this study may continue to be...
debated, but they are most objective, and are most consistent with petrological, geochemical, geological and geophysical principles and observations.

Key words: mid-ocean ridges; MORB chemistry variation; MORB petrogenesis; mantle melting; fertile mantle compositional control; spreading rate control

INTRODUCTION

Mid-ocean ridge basalts (MORB) are arguably the most abundant igneous rocks on the Earth because they cover much of the global ocean floor and continue to form along the ∼60 000 km long globe-encircling ocean ridges. They are also arguably the simplest igneous rocks on the Earth because they have relatively uniform chemical and isotopic compositions and because their origin is well understood as a straightforward consequence of plate tectonics; that is, plate separation induced passive mantle upwelling, decompression melting, melt extraction and cooling-dominated crustal-level differentiation (e.g. Klein & Langmuir, 1987; McKenzie & Bickle, 1988; Niu & Batiza, 1991a; Sinton & Detrick, 1992; Niu, 1997). Nevertheless, MORB compositional variations do exist on all scales and have been recognized from the early days of MORB studies (e.g. Sun et al., 1975, 1979; Bryan & Moore, 1977; Langmuir & Hanson, 1980; Schilling et al., 1983). The correlated large major element compositional variation has been correctly explained as resulting from low-pressure crustal-level differentiation (O'Hara, 1968a, 1968b; Walker et al., 1979; Stolper, 1980; Perfit & Fornari, 1983; Christie & Sinton, 1986; Langmuir et al., 1986; Langmuir, 1989; Sinton et al., 1991; Sinton & Detrick, 1992; Batiza & Niu, 1992; Rubin et al., 2009; O'Neill & Jenner, 2012; Coogan & O'Hara, 2015). Variations in abundances and ratios of incompatible elements and radiogenic isotopes have been logically interpreted as reflecting fertile mantle source compositional variation (e.g. Frey et al., 1974; Sun et al., 1975, 1979; Zindler et al., 1984; Mahoney et al., 1994; Niu et al., 1996, 1999, 2001; Castillo et al., 1998, 2000).

In addition to these repeatedly verified and generally accepted interpretations, MORB melts, in particular their major element compositions, are predicted also to carry information on both mantle sources and processes as shown by the correlated variations among major element abundances, incompatible element ratios and radiogenic isotopes (e.g. Langmuir & Hanson, 1980; Christie & Sinton, 1986; Natland, 1989; Niu & Batiza, 1991a, 1997; Mahoney et al., 1994; Shen & Forsyth, 1995; Niu et al., 1996, 1999, 2001a, 2002a; Lecroaet al., 1997; Rubin et al., 2009) and by experimental petrology (e.g. Jaques & Green, 1980; Green & Falloon, 1998, 2005, 2015; Green, 2015). On the basis of ample observations and many studies, it is reasonable to state that MORB major element compositional variation must be inherited from the fertile mantle source compositional variation while also recording the physical conditions of magma generation as a result of plate spreading rate variation (Niu & Hékinian, 1997a, 1997b) and possibly mantle potential temperature variation (see Niu et al., 2001). In this regard, the work by Klein & Langmuir (1987), after Dick et al. (1984), offered an unprecedented insight. It showed correlated variations of MORB Fe8 and Na8 (i.e. FeO and Na2O values corrected for fractionation to a constant MgO value of 8 wt%) with ridge axial depth on a global scale. These correlations have been interpreted, following the experimental data of mantle peridotite melting (Jaques & Green, 1980), as reflecting varying extent and pressure of mantle melting in response to mantle solidus temperature variation of up to 250 K on a global scale. Langmuir et al. (1992) further elaborated quantitatively that the global MORB Fe8 variation can be effectively used to calculate the mantle solidus temperature ($T_{\text{solidus}}$) and pressure ($P_{\text{solidus}}$) and mantle potential temperature ($T_P$) from the single MORB Fe8 parameter: $P_{\text{solidus}} = 6.11 F e 8 - 34.5$ (kbar), $T_{\text{solidus}} = 1150 + 13 F e 8 / C 8$ (°C), and hence $T_P = T_{\text{solidus}} - P_{\text{solidus}} \times 1.8$ (°C) by using the experimentally determined dry mantle solidus curve and by assuming an adiabatic thermal gradient of 1.8 K kbar$^{-1}$ (see McKenzie & Bickle, 1988; also see Niu & O'Hara, 2008).

Because of its convenience, Fe8 has been popularly and axiomatically used in basalt studies. Given the well-documented mantle compositional heterogeneity for all major elements including FeO (e.g. Langmuir & Hanson, 1980; Niu et al., 1999, 2002a), and to conscientiously inform readers of the inevitable errors when indiscriminately using Fe8 in MORB studies, Niu & O'Hara (2008) demonstrated in detail in terms of straightforward petrological concepts, physical principles and logical arguments that Fe8 is a misleading parameter and cannot be used to infer mantle conditions and processes. In defence of the ‘usefulness’ of Fe8, Langmuir and his group recently published two papers (Dalton et al., 2014; Gale et al., 2014) to refute the demonstrations by Niu & O'Hara (2008).

In commemoration of Michael J. O'Hara in this thematic O'Hara volume, and given the fundamental importance of understanding MORB petrogenesis as the foundation for igneous petrology in particular and global mantle dynamics in general, there is a pressing need to demonstrate explicitly and objectively that using Fe8 in MORB studies can be misleading and must be treated with caution. The first-order global MORB major element compositional variation is largely source inherited and the signal of varying extent of melting as a function of plate spreading rate variation is also conspicuous as demonstrated previously (Niu & Hékinian, 1997a). A more comprehensive and thorough demonstration on
the origin of global MORB chemical systematics will be presented elsewhere.

THE PROBLEMS OF THE Fe8 PARAMETER

Fe8 is inappropriate in discussing mantle conditions and processes

It is logical to use basaltic melts in equilibrium with mantle mineralogy (e.g. olivine) to infer mantle melting conditions and processes. This requires that the melt have $\text{Mg#} = \frac{\text{Mg}_{\text{melt}}}{\text{Mg}_{\text{olivine}}} > 0.72$ to be in equilibrium with mantle olivine with Fo content $\text{Fo}_{\text{melt}} = \frac{\text{Mg}_{\text{melt}}}{\text{Mg}_{\text{olivine}}} > 0.30$ at low pressure (Roeder & Emslie, 1970) or higher values under mantle melting conditions with primitive MORB compositions ($\text{Mg#} > 0.90$ (or Fo90) because of the well-established olivine–melt partitioning relationship $\text{Mg#} = 0.30 \pm 0.03$ at low pressure (Roeder & Emslie, 1970) or higher values under mantle melting conditions with primitive MORB compositions ($\sim 10–15$ wt % MgO; $\text{Kd} \approx 0.32$; Baker & Stolper, 1994) or primitive ocean island basalt (OIB) compositions ($\sim 15–25$ wt % MgO; $\text{Kd} \approx 0.34$; Matzen et al., 2011).

In Fig. 1 the Klein & Langmuir (1987) data show that the MORB melts with varying Fe8 values have Mg# ~0.55–0.68, which is significantly lower than the Mg# > 0.72 required to be in equilibrium with mantle olivine. Hence, in terms of the straightforward petrological concept, Fe8 cannot be used to infer mantle processes simply because it records dominantly the highly evolved signature of MORB melts that have ascended across the Moho and left the mantle. The mantle solidus temperatures ($T_{\text{solidus}}$) and potential temperatures ($T_p$) calculated by using Fe8 following Klein & Langmuir (1987) and Langmuir et al. (1992) thus have no significance. The varying low Mg# values exhibited by MORB melts with varying Fe8 (as in Fig. 1) are consistent with varying extents of crustal-level MORB melt evolution (O’Hara, 1968a, 1968b; Walker et al., 1979; Niu, 1997).

In this context, it is important to note that the popular emphasis on mantle pyroxenites as sources of OIB and some alkali basalts (e.g. Sobolev et al., 2007) has led some to consider that mantle melts generated by pyroxenite melting should have low Mg# (e.g. Yang & Zhou, 2013). This is wrong in concept and incorrect in practice, for the following reasons: (1) melting of pyroxenites with Mg# > 0.90 would still produce primitive melts with Mg# > 0.72 constrained by the Fe–Mg exchange Kd (i.e. $K_d^{\text{clinopyroxene/melt}} \approx K_d^{\text{orthopyroxene/melt}} \approx K_d^{\text{olivine/melt}} \approx 0.30 \pm 0.03$ (e.g. Grove et al., 1992; Niu et al., 2002b); (2) partial melts of pyroxenites with low Mg# values (e.g. subducted ocean crust) will readily reach chemical equilibrium with the ambient mantle mineralogy to gain Mg# > 0.72, because pyroxenites are volumetrically minor; (3) the melts generated by pyroxenite total melting will have the same Mg# as the pyroxenites and will again reach equilibrium with the ambient mantle mineralogy to gain Mg# > 0.72, regardless of the actual pyroxenite compositions. Hence, ascending mantle melts prior to crossing the Moho should all be in equilibrium with mantle mineralogy and have Mg# > 0.72 unless

![Fig. 1.](image-url)
significant cooling and olivine crystallization has taken place during melt ascent through the cold thermal boundary layer beneath ridges (or lithospheric mantle elsewhere) as seen in abyssal peridotites (Niu, 1997; Niu et al., 1997). Therefore, if one wants to unmistakably decipher mantle processes from MORB major element compositions, it is required to correct for the effects of crustal-level processes to Mg#/${C}_{1}^{72}$, which must be constrained by the most primitive MORB glass samples with Mg# $\geq 0.72$ (see Niu et al., 1999; Niu & O’Hara, 2008).

The Klein & Langmuir (1987) correction to Fe8 has no significance

Figure 2 is modified from Niu & O’Hara (2008) to compare the fractionation-corrected data of Klein & Langmuir (1987) with fractionation-uncorrected average MORB data with MgO $\geq 7$ wt %. This illustrates that the apparently meticulous correction procedure of Klein & Langmuir (1987) is an unnecessary data manipulation because the corrected Fe8 and Na8 values have no geological difference from the uncorrected data. This is true for Na2O and largely true also for FeO and Mg# because the Klein & Langmuir (1987) interpretations were largely based on the large range (i.e. in Fe8) defined by samples from the shallowest and deepest ridges (see Niu, 1997). This evident problem remains despite the apparently exhaustive arguments in defence of the Fe8 parameter by Gale et al. (2014) as discussed below.

The Gale et al. (2014) justification of Fe8 correction is unjustified

Gale et al. (2014) made a commendable effort in providing an updated MORB dataset for improved studies. They discussed global MORB systematics and their origin. However, the very heart of the study by Gale et al. (2014) is to refute the Niu & O’Hara (2008) criticism against using Fe8 and to defend the Fe8-based interpretations by Klein & Langmuir (1987) and Langmuir et al. (1992). The Niu & O’Hara (2008) criticism of using Fe8 has three specific points: (1) Fe8, representing highly and variably evolved MORB compositions, cannot be used to decipher mantle processes as discussed above; (2) MgO and FeO are both sensitive and proportional to the pressure of melting in primitive melts in equilibrium with mantle mineralogy (see Niu & O’Hara, 2008, fig. 1), but the use of the Fe8 parameter with constant MgO $= 8$ wt % has ignored MgO as a potential pressure indicator; (3) SiO2 is also sensitive to pressure of melting, but is inversely proportional to MgO and FeO in primitive melts in equilibrium with mantle mineralogy (see Niu & O’Hara, 2008, fig. 12a), but MORB SiO2 shows no pressure signature (see Niu & O’Hara, 2008, fig. 12b and c). Gale et al. (2014) skilfully replied to these critical points through an apparently painstaking effort, which is in fact unjustified and has an additional misleading effect.

The Gale et al. (2014) global MORB data in the MgO–FeO space are illustrated in Fig. 3a. It is evident that the corrected Fe9 values must be equal to or greater than the range of 7–12.5 (~5.5 Fe units) as indicated for FeO at MgO $= 8$ wt %. To argue for Fe8 to be useful in reflecting mantle-melting conditions as claimed, Gale et al. (2014) also corrected MORB melts to be in equilibrium with mantle olivine of Fo90, denoted as Fe90. As shown
in Fig. 3b their calculated Fe8 and Fe90 are essentially the same, with the calculated Fe90 (or Fe80) in the range of 6–13 (~7 Fe units). The significant Fe8–Fe90 correlation with the same range of values looks convincing, but is curiously incomprehensible. It is puzzling and confusing why MORB melts are in equilibrium with mantle olivine of Fo90 if expressed with Fe90 (i.e. horizontal-axis Mg# melt/C24 0/C1 72–0/C1 73), whereas these same MORB melts are not in equilibrium with mantle olivine if expressed with Fe8 (i.e. vertical-axis Mg#melt/C24 0/C1 70 –< 0.54) despite the simple fact that Fe8 ≈ Fe90 (Fig. 3b). I leave this petrological impossibility to readers to comprehend, but only offer my personal understanding of the Gale et al. (2014) correction in terms of a simple mathematic treatment.

It is obvious that the only way to produce the correlated values in Fig. 3b is to set a given Fe8 value as the target to produce Fe90 ≈ Fe8. This can be done by raising MgO while lowering FeO as much or as little as needed. This is illustrated in Fig. 3c, where MgO must be raised, on average, by a factor of two (i.e. Mg90 vs MgO along the horizontal axis), while lowering FeO as needed (lower mean and range of Fe90 than actual FeO in (a)), to obtain the same Fe8 and Fe90 as in (b); this procedure involves adding as much MgO as required (on average a factor of two; i.e. Mg90 vs MgO along the horizontal axis), while lowering FeO as needed (lower mean and range of Fe90 than actual FeO in (a)).

There has been a long history in petrology of adding olivine to evolved basaltic melts to infer their primary magma compositions in equilibrium with the mantle mineralogy. Despite the various uncertainties in doing so, this is nevertheless a useful approach. The question is if this approach by Gale et al. (2014) is appropriate here. The answer is simply ‘No’ because (1) adding varying amounts of olivine with the purpose of making Fe90 ≈ Fe8 is an unjustified exercise, and (2) the so calculated FeO (Fe90, same as Fe8) and MgO (Mg90) in equilibrium with mantle olivine of Fo90 shown by the stacked red open circles with large MgO (~8–19 wt %) and FeO (~6–12 wt %) variations (Fig. 3d) are remote from the actual data, beyond the petrologically permitted interpolation and extrapolation range. Thus, the Gale et al. (2014) Fe90–Mg90 values and ranges have no relevance to the actual data.
data (the black open circles with MgO ~ 10.5 wt %). That is, the Gale et al. (2014) correction to Fe90 is entirely unconstrained and is petrologically unlikely - way beyond the data and beyond petrologically possible and permitted interpolation and extrapolation range.

Their ‘olivine addition’ procedure apparently answered the criticisms by Niu & O’Hara (2008) (see above) because olivine controls the positive Fe90–Mg90 correlation (red circles in Fig. 3d) and negative Si90–Mg90 and Si90–Fe90 correlations (not shown here) as if the varying Fe90, Mg90 and Si90 values were consistent with mantle melting pressure effects. It is objectively correct to state that MORB melts preserve no melting pressure signature at all in terms of SiO2 as demonstrated in fig. 12 of Niu & O’Hara (2008) [also see Niu et al. (2011) and further illustration below]. The correlated Fe90–Mg90–Si90 variations by Gale et al. (2014) have no pressure significance, but are the artefact of making Fe90 → Fe8 (Fig. 3b).

**THE EFFICACIES OF MORB MAJOR ELEMENTS AT Mg# = 0.72**

*About Mg# ≥ 0.72 and MORB melt compositions at Mg# = 0.72*

Basaltic melts having Mg# ≥ 0.72 do not constrain mantle solidus conditions (i.e. $P_\text{c}$ and $T_\text{c}$) because Mg# = $f$(MgO, FeO). A primitive MORB melt with MgO = 10.5 wt % and FeO = 8.1 wt % gives Mg# ~ 0.72 (assuming 90% total Fe as Fe2+) and a primitive ocean island basaltic melt erupted on thickened lithosphere with MgO = 18 wt % and FeO = 13.9 wt % can also give Mg# ~ 0.72 (Niu et al., 2011). However, variations of MORB melt compositions corrected to Mg# = 0.72 (i.e. Fe72 and Mg72 as well as Si72, Ti72, Al72 Ca72 and Na72) can be used to discuss mantle sources and processes because primitive melts having Mg# ≥ 0.72 are in equilibrium with mantle olivine of Fo ≥ 0.90 (Fo90).

However, MORB melt FeO contents corrected to MgO = 8 wt % (i.e. Fe8 with Mg# = 0.56–0.68) are too evolved to be in equilibrium with mantle olivine and cannot be used to discuss mantle processes as elaborated above. The Gale et al. (2014) corrected Fe90 cannot be used either because Fe90 = Fe8 (Fig. 3b).

**Petrological effectiveness of Fe72 versus misguiding Fe8**

Gale et al. (2014) asserted that their new data are not in agreement with the presentation of Niu & O’Hara (2008), ‘whose results relied on an inaccurate fractionation correction procedure, which led them to large errors for high- and low-FeO magmas’ (p. 1051). This is an incorrect statement as further demonstrated below in terms of basic petrological concepts and elementary illustrations.

Figure 4a is a familiar diagram showing global MORB melt (glass) major element oxide abundance variations as a function of MgO. Because MgO is proportional to the liquidus temperature, the data trend for each of the oxides with decreasing MgO is to a first order consistent with the liquid line of descent (LLD), which is conceptually the residual melt compositional variation as the result of fractional crystallization of olivine + spinel → plagioclase + olivine → plagioclase +...
clinozoisite ± olivine prior to reaching MgO ~ 4.0 wt%, after which crystallization of titanomagnetite (Ti–Fe oxides) depletes FeO and TiO₂ while increasing SiO₂, entering the basaltic-andesite stage of basaltic magma evolution (e.g. Niu et al., 2002b; Niu, 2005a; Niu & O’Hara, 2009; Stone & Niu, 2009). Strictly speaking, the data trends in Fig. 4a are not simple LLD, but the net effect of cooling-dominated crustal-level processes combined (e.g. fractional crystallization, magma mixing, melt–rock assimilation and, or, reaction and other aspects of complex open-magma chamber processes). The Klein & Langmuir (1987) and Langmuir et al. (1992) method of calculating Fe₈ and Na₈ was to assume a common LLD slope for FeO–MgO and Na₂O–MgO, respectively, to project individual data points onto the plane of MgO = 8 wt % as indicated, by back-tracking (for samples with MgO < 8 wt %) and forward-tracking (for samples with MgO > 8 wt %). To avoid correction errors, Klein & Langmuir (1987) and Langmuir et al. (1992) chose samples with MgO ≥ 5 wt %. One can do the same to obtain Ti₈, Al₈, Ca₈ and Ca₈/Al₈ (Niu & Batiza, 1991a, 1993, 1994). The only difference of the Gale et al. (2014) approach from that of Klein & Langmuir (1987) and Langmuir et al. (1992) was to obtain separate sets of LLD for MORB samples from each ridge segment with the belief that samples from different ridge segments have different LLD trends as discussed by Niu & Batiza (1993). This philosophical consideration is reasonable, but has unavoidable problems: (1) MORB samples from most ridge segments do not have enough MgO variation coverage to obtain suitable LLD (if they were LLD); hence, assumptions must be made to justify the chosen LLD slopes that in practice cannot be constrained; (2) natural MORB sample suites do not define pure LLD, but show the combined effects of complex crustal-level processes (see above).

The same data as a function of Mg# are plotted in Fig. 4b. The data trends are again not simple LLD, but the net effect of compound crustal-level processes (see above). To correct for such net effect for the global dataset, it is logical to find a common set of correction coefficients for each oxide, applicable to the global dataset in this Mg# variation diagram. Obviously, the most objective, logical and simplest method is to obtain a set of polynomial regression coefficients for each oxide based on the entire global dataset (see Niu et al., 1999; Niu & O’Hara, 2008) and to project each sample along the polynomial curves to Mg# = 0.72 as indicated by the vertical gray dashed line in Fig. 4b. To avoid unnecessary errors, Niu & O’Hara (2008) used MORB samples with MgO ≥ 7.0 wt %, thus the polynomial coefficients mostly give rise to linear coefficients, especially for FeO and MgO (see Appendix of Niu & O’Hara (2008)). This method of correction is objective, logical and simple for the following reasons.

1. We follow the data (Fig. 4b) without making any unnecessary assumption that cannot be justified.

2. Regardless of how evolved and complex the histories each MORB sample may have experienced through crustal-level processes, its parental melt must have once had Mg# ≥ 0.72 within the range constrained by the data as indicated by the gray dashed line at Mg# = 0.72 (Fig. 4b).

3. The method corrects for the net effect of compound crustal-level processes expressed by the global data trends without having to know exactly what LLD for a single sample suite may be (Fig. 4b).

4. Mg# = 0.72 is the best reference point: (a) the most primitive MORB samples have Mg# ∼ 0.72–0.73 (corresponding to some of the samples with MgO ∼ 10.5 wt % in Fig. 4a) so that the correction is well constrained within the known dataset (Fig. 4b) without having to make assumptions that cannot be justified; (b) Mg# = 0.72 is about the minimum value for a basaltic melt required to be in equilibrium with mantle olivine.

5. The key difference of the Niu & O’Hara (2008) correction method is not an ‘inaccurate fractionation procedure’ as incorrectly stated by Gale et al. (2014), but the use of the petrologically and logically best reference of Mg# = 0.72 (Fig. 5b) rather than the problematic reference of MgO = 8 wt % (Fig. 5a).

We should note that correction to MgO = 8 wt % or Mg# = 0.72 has less effect on the relative abundances and systematics of Ti₇₂ (vs Ti₈), Al₁₂₂ (vs Al₈), Ca₇₂ (vs Ca₈) and Na₇₂ (vs Na₈), as well as Ca₇₂/Al₁₂₂ (vs Ca₈/Al₈), but has large effects on Fe₇₂ (vs Fe₈) and Mg₇₂ (vs Mg₈ = 8) because of the FeO–MgO–Mg# interrelationships as further illustrated below.

More on the effectiveness of Fe₇₂ versus misguiding Fe₈ (and FeO₉)

The variation of FeO₉ against MgO and Mg# respectively (Fig. 5a and b) explicitly shows that Fe₇₂ is objective and more logical than Fe₈ and why Fe₇₂ values must have a significantly smaller range (~1.0 Fe unit) than Fe₈ (~4.5 Fe units) without any correction. With decreasing MgO (or Mg#), the upper bound of FeO₉ reaches the maximum at MgO ∼ 4 wt % (or Mg# ∼ 0.30) as a result of combined fractional crystallization of spinel + olivine + plagioclase + clinopyroxene before Fe–Ti oxide (titanomagnetite) appears on the liquidus at MgO < ~ 4 wt % to cause FeO₉ depletion. By considering samples with MgO > 5.5 wt % only, this can certainly avoid potential errors caused by highly evolved samples in correcting to Fe₈ (Klein & Langmuir, 1987; Langmuir et al., 1992; Gale et al., 2014). However, the actual data, with no correction, show that at MgO = 8 wt %, FeO = Fe₈ ~ 7.2 – ~ 11.7 wt % has an Fe₈ range of ~4.5 Fe units as indicated (Fig. 5a). This is the very minimum Fe₈ spread because correction for samples with MgO > 5.5 wt % and < 8.0 wt % onto the MgO = 8.0 wt % plane can only make the Fe₈ spread larger (i.e. > ~4.5 Fe units). On the other hand, it is evident that FeO at or projected to Mg# = 0.72 has a limited variation of
Fig. 5. The same two panels as in Fig. 4, but only FeO is plotted to highlight the difference between Fe8 (a) and Fe72 (b). The maximum of the FeO upper bound at MgO ~ 4 wt% in (a) is to a first order consistent with a liquid line of descent resulting from the combined effects of fractional crystallization of spinel + olivine + plagioclase + clinopyroxene before Fe–Ti oxide (titanomagnetite) on the liquidus at MgO < ~4 wt%. Klein & Langmuir (1987) (KL87), Langmuir et al. (1992) (LKP92) and Gale et al. (2014) (GLD14) used samples with MgO ≥ 5.5 wt% and Niu & O’Hara (2008) (NOH2008) used samples with MgO ≥ 7.0 wt%, so the obviously scattered FeO values below these chosen cut-off MgO values will not affect the calculated Fe8 or Fe72. However, those samples below the main trend in the broad shaded region cannot simply be evolved MORB melts, but are most consistent with being ‘snapshots’ of magma mixing in open magma chamber (or something equivalent) systems, largely resulting from mixing of newly replenished primitive melts with already highly evolved melts having low MgO and low FeO. There is no doubt that many samples towards the lower bound of the main data band at a given MgO or Mg# have resulted from such mixing, although it is not possible to precisely quantify this process. It is reasonable to infer that such mixing is more obvious in FeO–MgO space (a) than in the FeO–Mg# space (b) because of the significantly fatter lower bound at a given MgO in (a). The key message here is as follows: for this same dataset, Fe8 ~ 7–11.5 wt% with variation of ~4–5 Fe units, corresponding to Mg# = 0.68–0.57, far too evolved to be used for discussing mantle melting conditions and processes. On the other hand, Fe72 ~ 7–8.5 wt% with ~1.0 Fe unit variation at a constant Mg# = 0.72, which is in equilibrium with mantle olivine of Fo90 and thus can be logically used to discuss mantle melting conditions and processes. It is straightforward that the small Fe72 range of ~1 Fe unit versus the large Fe8 range of ~4–5 Fe units found by Gale et al. (2014) is a property of the actual data, and is not the result of an inaccurate correction procedure as incorrectly stated by Gale et al. (2014).
∼7–8 wt % with an Fe\textsubscript{72} range of ∼1 Fe unit as illustrated. Given the narrow FeO band at a given Mg#, and because all the samples, regardless of how they evolved, were modified through complex crustal-level processes, their parental melts must have once passed through Mg# = 0.72 with an Fe\textsubscript{72} spread that cannot be significantly greater than that observed. This is a straightforward demonstration based on the actual data without applying any correction, in contradiction to the incorrect statement by Gale\textit{et al.}(2014).

In summary, the data, not the correction procedure, demonstrate that Fe\textsubscript{8} = ∼7.0 – ∼8.0 wt % with a small range of ∼1 Fe unit (Fig. 5b; Niu & O’Hara, 2008). This ‘coincidence’ of the actual FeO at Mg# = 0.72 with Fe\textsubscript{72} by Niu & O’Hara (2008) demonstrates the objective validity of the Niu & O’Hara (2008) correction procedure, which strictly follows basic petrological principles and the intrinsic structure within the data. Figure 6a objectively compares Fe\textsubscript{72} (Niu & O’Hara, 2008) with Fe\textsubscript{8} (Klein & Langmuir, 1987; Langmuir \textit{et al.}, 1992) in Na\textsubscript{2}O–FeO space. Figure 6b and Fig. 6c are the same, but using the Gale\textit{et al.}(2014) data to compare the Niu & O’Hara (2008) method (250 m ridge depth interval averages) with the 237 global ridge segment averages of Gale\textit{et al.}(2014) (excluding the three averages from Iceland on land). It should be noted that Niu & O’Hara (2008) used 9130 MORB glass samples with MgO > 7.0 wt %, but there are only 7607 samples with MgO > 7.0 wt % and no data for the depth interval of 4750–5000 m in the Gale\textit{et al.}(2014) dataset. Nevertheless, Fig. 6b (comparison of Na\textsubscript{72} and Fe\textsubscript{72} with Na\textsubscript{8} and Fe\textsubscript{8}) and Fig. 6c (comparison of Na\textsubscript{72} and Fe\textsubscript{72} with Na\textsubscript{90} and Fe\textsubscript{90}) are essentially the same as Fig. 6a in terms of process interpretations. Therefore, the statement by Gale\textit{et al.}(2014) against the Niu & O’Hara (2008) method is inappropriate, and has the effect of further misguidance in addition to the misleading Fe\textsubscript{8}. The proposed large mantle potential temperature variation of ∼250 K on the basis of the large Fe\textsubscript{8} range [and the same large Fe\textsubscript{90} range obtained by the Gale\textit{et al.}(2014) method] is manifestly an artefact. Therefore, any intended use of Fe\textsubscript{8} should be avoided in order to advance our genuine understanding of ocean ridge dynamics.

THE MEANING OF MORB MAJOR ELEMENTS AT Mg# = 0.72

We can now use MORB major element compositions at Mg# = 0.72 to infer mantle processes. Because ridge axial depth variation (∼0 to ∼6000 m) and plate spreading rate variation (∼10 to >150 mm a\textsuperscript{-1}) are the only two largest known physical variables along the global ocean ridge system, our task is to examine whether MORB major element compositions respond to these two physical variables. Klein & Langmuir (1987) recognized Na\textsubscript{8} and Fe\textsubscript{8} correlations with ridge axial depth and Niu & O’Hara (2008) confirmed this but emphasized that
The origin of plate spreading rate variation and ridge axial depth variation

Plate spreading rate here refers to the separation rate of the two plates with respect to each other on both sides of the ridge, which is also called the 'full spreading rate' or 'total opening rate' of the ridge, and is determined by the absolute motion speeds of the two plates relative to some hotspot reference framework (e.g. DeMets et al., 1990). The absolute motion speed of a given plate has been well understood as resulting from subducting slab pull (e.g. Forsyth & Uyeda, 1975; McKenzie & Bickle, 1988; Davies & Richards, 1992), which is straightforward to understand for plates connected with subduction zones such as those in the Pacific, but not so obvious for plate motion in the Atlantic. Nevertheless, Niu (2014, 2016) illustrated that (1) seafloor spreading in ocean basins with passive margins (e.g. the Atlantic type) and (2) continental drift are simply passive movements in response to trench retreat of active seafloor subduction in ocean basins like the Pacific with subduction zones. Hence, the varying speeds of plate motion determine the plate spreading rates of the ridges concerned. Because ocean ridge magmatism results from plate separation, it is expected that the effect of plate separation rate variation must be recorded in the MORB chemistry. To deconvolve the effect of plate spreading rate variation from the effects of all other probable or possible variables involves averaging MORB chemistry with respect to spreading rate intervals, so as to average out all other possible effects (Niu & Hékínian, 1997a). This is mathematically the same as seeking the partial derivatives of a quantity with respect to a particular variable, with all other variables held constant (Niu & O'Hara, 2008).

The above elaboration demonstrates that globally the large ridge axial depth variation is unrelated to spreading rate (see below for very slow spreading ridges). This is because ridge axial depth variation is largely controlled isostatically by sub-ridge material density variations owing to varying thermal or compositional buoyancy variations that are unknown to slab pulls in remote subduction zones. For example, the pulling of the subducting slabs in the western Pacific or beneath the Andes does not know the sub-ridge buoyancy and ridge axial depth variation at the southern East Pacific Rise. Nevertheless, it has been known for decades that ridge spreading rate differences do control across-ridge morphology and along-ridge topography on local and ridge segment scales, especially at slow-spreading ridges (e.g. Macdonald, 1982; Macdonald et al., 1988; Sempere et al., 1990; Sinton et al., 1991; Grindlay et al., 1991; Niu & Batiza, 1993; Niu et al., 2001; Dick et al., 2003). These local and segment-scale variations of ridge depth and morphology are most probably of lithospheric origin and isostatically uncompensated (i.e. dynamic topography or morphology). The effects of these features, if any, thus must be removed to reveal the origin of the correlated variations of MORB chemistry with ridge axial depth on a global scale. Klein & Langmuir (1987) and Gale et al. (2014) used regionally smoothed ridge axial depth to obtain an average depth value for a given ridge segment. This requires assumptions on how to smooth and how to choose a segment depth value. Instead, Niu & O'Hara (2008) made no assumptions, but used actual MORB sample depths [see below and also fig. 3 of Niu & O'Hara (2008)].

The meaning of MORB chemistry–ridge depth correlation

As above for elucidating the spreading rate effect, to effectively deconvolve the effect of processes that lead to ridge axial depth variations from the effects of all other probable or possible variables, it is desirable to average MORB chemistry with respect to ridge axial depth intervals. The averaging is not arbitrary, but follows basic principles (Niu & O'Hara, 2008), as listed here.

1. A 250 m depth interval is chosen because this depth interval size approximates the ridge depth variation over ~500 km regional scale-lengths. This gives >20 average data points with which to work. This number of data points is large enough to be statistically significant without compromising first-order systematics, but small enough to smooth out secondary effects while making the first-order global systematics prominent.

2. The averaging uses actual sample depths regardless of geographical location and ocean basin (i.e. the Pacific, Atlantic and Indian Oceans).

3. Such heavy averaging averages out the effects of (a) spreading rate variation, (b) local-scale fertile source compositional heterogeneity [including the arbitrary normal (N-) and enriched (E-)type MORB division], and (c) dynamic topography on regional and ridge segment scales (see above) to objectively observe the significance of MORB chemistry variation with respect to ridge axial depth.

Figure 7 is modified from Niu & O'Hara (2008). The 22 data points represent heavy averages of 9130 global
MORB data with MgO ≥ 7 wt %, corrected to Mg# = 0.72 within each of the 22 depth intervals (bins) of 250 m from actual ridge depths of ~250 to 5750 m below sea level (see Niu & O'Hara, 2008, fig. 3). Figure 7a and b shows significant correlations of MORB Ti72, Al72, Fe72, Mg72, Ca72, Na72 and Ca72/Al72 with ridge axial depth. Such correlations suggest a genetic relationship between MORB chemistry and ridge axial depth. However, this relationship, cannot be a ‘cause and effect’ one because ridge axial depth (water depth) cannot physically control MORB chemistry. I consider that the correlated variations of MORB chemistry with ridge axial depth in Fig. 7a and b are two different effects of a common cause. What is this common cause?

**MORB chemistry–ridge depth correlation results from mantle compositional variation**

Niu & O'Hara (2008) demonstrated explicitly that the intrinsic cause is the fertile mantle major element compositional variation. This is because fertile mantle major element compositions determine (1) variation in both composition and mode of mantle mineralogy, (2) variation of mantle density, (3) variation of ridge axial depth because of the mantle density variation, (4) source-inherited MORB compositional variation, (5) density-controlled variation in the maximum extent of mantle upwelling, (6) apparent variation in the extent of melting, and (7) the correlated variation of MORB chemistry with ridge axial depth. These physically straightforward, logically sound and geologically simple demonstrations are summarized in Fig. 7c.

The physical significance of the correlation between MORB chemistry and ridge axial depth is shown in Fig. 7 in the form of schematic illustrations, which are convenient for conceptual clarity (see Niu & O'Hara (2008) for quantitative analysis; their figs 13–19 and related discussion). It has long been recognized that source rock compositions exert a key control on the resulting magmas, as summarized by Cox (1992): ‘the most fundamental thing to understand is that the spectrum of compositions we see is controlled in the first place by the composition of the Earth itself. Just as in the simplest phase diagram the course of evolution of residual liquids by fractionation, or the course of liquid evolution during partial melting, is controlled by the starting composition, so in the Earth the range of igneous rocks is constrained by the original materials’. This simple concept of source control has been repeatedly demonstrated experimentally (see Jaques & Green, 1980; Green, 2015; Green & Falloon, 2015), and also well documented observationally (e.g. Mahoney et al., 1994; Niu et al., 1996, 1999, 2001, 2002a; Castillo et al., 1998, 2000). Furthermore, on the basis of their detailed petrology and geochemistry study of several ridge segments along the northern Mid-Atlantic Ridge, Niu et al. (2001) recognized the dynamic role of mantle source compositional variation: ‘Mantle compositional control on the extent of mantle melting, crust production, gravity anomaly, ridge morphology, and ridge segmentation’.

Indeed, as demonstrated by Niu & O’Hara (2008), the simplest interpretation is that the MORB major element compositional systematics illustrated in Fig. 7a and b largely derive from the fertile mantle compositional systematics. That is, with increasing ridge axial depth, MORB Ti72, Al72 and Na72 increase whereas Fe72, Mg72, Ca72 and Ca72/Al72 decrease, reflecting variations in the fertile mantle source composition. In other words, corresponding to the increasing ridge axial depth, the sub-ridge mantle source increases in TiO2, Al2O3 and Na2O, and decreases in FeO, MgO, CaO and CaO/Al2O3, becoming progressively less depleted (or more enriched) in a basaltic melt component. This correspondence becomes physically straightforward if we consider the source mineralogy as a function of the major element compositions (Niu, 1997). Correlated with increasing ridge depth, the mantle source region is progressively (1) enriched in pyroxene over olivine (or higher pyroxene/olivine ratio) because of decreasing FeO and MgO, (2) enriched in jadeite over diopside (or higher jadeite/diopside ratio) in clinopyroxene because of increasing Na2O and Al2O3 and decreasing CaO and MgO, and (3) enriched in garnet because of increasing Al2O3. These mineralogical systematics consistently indicate increasing asthenospheric mantle density from beneath shallow ridges to beneath deep ridges (see Niu & Batiza, 1991b, 1991c; Niu et al., 2003), which explains in terms of isostasy why the progressively deeper ridge is underlain by progressively more enriched (or less depleted) denser mantle and why there is such MORB chemistry–ridge depth correlation as demonstrated quantitatively by Niu & O’Hara (2008) (see their figs 13–19 and detailed discussion) with the compensation depth probably in the mantle Transition Zone (Niu & O’Hara, 2008).

This fertile mantle compositional variation controlled mantle density variation can in turn have a physical feedback on ridge dynamics. Because the sub-ridge mantle upwelling is a passive response to plate separation (McKenzie & Bickle, 1988), and because the extent of the upwelling (i.e. P0–Pf in Fig. 7c) determines the extent of decompression melting (F ∝ P0–Pf), the dense fertile mantle beneath deep ridges thus has restricted upwelling (isostatic control), which gives way to conductive cooling to a deep level, forces melting to stop at such a deep level, leads to a short melting interval, and thus produces less melt and probably a thin magmatic crust relative to the less dense (more refractory) fertile mantle beneath shallow ridges as illustrated in Fig. 7c (see Niu & O’Hara, 2008). This increased final depth of melting (Pf), the increased thickness of the ‘cold thermal boundary layer’ (CTBL), and hence the reduced extent of decompression melting (F ∝ P0–Pf) in response to the increased fertility and density of the MORB mantle source beneath deep ridges collectively result from a direct physical control; that is, the well-understood ‘lid effect’ (Niu et al., 2011). The effect of this physical...
Fig. 7. (a, b) Modified from Niu & O’Hara (2008) to emphasize that, except for SiO₂, all the major element oxides (TiO₂, Al₂O₃, FeO, MgO, CaO, Na₂O and CaO/Al₂O₃), not just FeO and Na₂O, of the global MORB data after correction for the effects of cooling-dominated crustal-level processes to Mg# = 0.72, show significant intercorrelations and systematic correlations with ocean ridge axial depth. Such correlations are most consistent with fertile MORB mantle source compositional variation. The fertile mantle source is progressively more enriched (or less depleted) from beneath shallow ridges than beneath deep ridges, pointing to increasing modal garnet, jadeite/diopside ratio in clinopyroxene, and pyroxenes/olivine ratio, and thus a progressively denser mineral assemblage towards deep ridges as shown in (c). This explains straightforwardly why deep ridges are deep—fertile asthenospheric mantle is denser than more depleted mantle (see Niu et al., 2003), thus resulting in deeper ridges. Shallower ridges are underlain by more depleted asthenospheric mantle and controlled by isostasy (see Niu & O’Hara, 2008, figs 13 and 14 and accompanying discussion). In addition, dense fertile mantle beneath deep ridges upwells reluctantly in response to plate separation, which leads to a limited extent of upwelling, allowing conductive cooling to penetrate to a great depth, making a thickened cold thermal boundary layer (CTBL; the gray triangular region labeled ‘2’ in the illustration), forcing melting to stop at a deep level (P_f), resulting in a short melting interval (P_o–P_f) and less melting, and probably producing a thin magmatic crust relative to the more refractory fertile mantle beneath shallow ridges. The shaded triangular areas in the P–T diagrams illustrate conceptually the difference in melt production that is proportional to the height of the decompression melting intervals (P_o–P_f). Thus, deep ridge MORB have signatures of apparently lower extents of melting than shallow ridge MORB (see (a) and (b)) superimposed on the fertile mantle compositional inheritance [see details given by Niu & O’Hara (2008)]. An important point here is that globally the solidus depth (P_o) beneath ocean ridges away from mantle plumes (or anomalous mantle with abundant volatiles and alkalis) is essentially constant or varies little (e.g. T_o < ~ 50 K if any; see Niu & O’Hara, 2008). In contrast, the final depth of melting (P_f) can vary because of varying thickness of the CTBL, termed the ‘lid effect’, which is conspicuous for intra-plate ocean island basalts (see Niu et al., 2011), but is also detectable beneath ocean ridges as the result of plate spreading rate variation as demonstrated by Niu & Hékinian (1997a) and further illustrated in Fig. 8 using the new global dataset of Gale et al. (2014).
feedback on MORB chemistry is expected to be small, but produces the same systematics as those inherited from fertile source compositions and thus amplifies the MORB chemistry correlation with ridge axial depth as in Fig. 7b and c.

Hence, the global MORB compositional systematics (Fig. 7b and c) are the net effect of (1) fertile mantle source inheritance and (2) varying extents of melting controlled by the varying extent of upwelling and decompression melting as the result of mantle density variations ultimately still controlled by fertile mantle compositional variation. Dick and co-workers have recently offered supporting case studies on the effect of fertile mantle compositional control on MORB chemistry and ridge depth (Zhou & Dick, 2013; Dick & Zhou, 2015).

The overstated mantle temperature variation is secondary or has negligible effect on the MORB chemistry–ridge depth correlation

Klein & Langmuir (1987), Langmuir et al. (1992) and Gale et al. (2014) used the large $Fe_8$ variation (on average ~5 Fe units; Figs 1–6) to argue for large mantle temperature variations of ~250 K beneath global ocean ridges (this refers to mantle solidus depth variation, $\Delta P_s$, and corresponding solidus temperature variation, $\Delta T_s$) as the cause of the MORB chemistry–ridge depth correlation. Because $Fe_8$ (and their $Fe_{89} = Fe_{92}$; Fig. 3b) is not a mantle signature, but a highly and variably evolved crustal-level signature with Mg# = 0.56–0.68 that cannot be used to infer mantle conditions in the first place, there is no petrological evidence for large mantle potential temperature variations along the global ocean ridges. Given the small thermal expansion coefficient of $3 \times 10^{-6}$ K$^{-1}$ under upper mantle conditions, the effect of mantle temperature variation on ridge axial depth variation, if any, is negligible as vigorously demonstrated by Niu & O’Hara (2008) (e.g. 1% density reduction owing to compositional depletion is equivalent to temperature increase of ~330 K). Hence, mantle temperature variation as the cause of ridge depth variation can be ruled out on the basis of simple mineral physics. To defend the interpretation of mantle temperature control, Langmuir & co-workers used ridge axial depth as a constraint for mantle temperature variation (Dalton et al., 2014); their supporting argument is the low seismic velocity in the deep mantle (>300 km) beneath Iceland and adjacent shallow ridges. Evidently, using ridge depth as a mantle temperature constraint is subjective and circular, rather than justified evidence, because this argument neglects the intrinsic control of fertile mantle compositional variation on the physical properties and dynamic role of the mantle, as well as on MORB compositional variation.

In this context, it is conceptually important not to confuse plate tectonics with mantle plumes because they have no genetic connection and represent different modes of Earth’s cooling. It is well understood that plate tectonics is driven by the top cold thermal boundary layer (lithospheric plates) that cools the mantle, drives major aspects of mantle convection and explains seafloor subduction and ridge dynamics (McKenzie & Bickle, 1988; Davies & Richards, 1992), whereas mantle plumes are driven by the basal hot thermal boundary layer (core–mantle boundary) (e.g. Richards et al., 1989; Campbell & Griffiths, 1990; Davies & Richards, 1992) despite some debate (e.g. Davies, 2005; Foulger, 2005; Niu, 2005b). However, when mantle plumes rise to reach the lithospheric plates, interaction between the two can take place. Because the lithosphere is the thinnest at ridges, such interaction is best expressed as plume–ridge interactions (e.g. Ito et al., 2003; Niu & Hékinian, 2004). To study ridge processes of plate tectonic origin, we should study ridges uninfluenced by hotspots or mantle plumes. Hence, to use the seismic low $V_s$ anomaly at >300 km depth beneath Iceland (Dalton et al., 2014; Gale et al., 2014) that is absent elsewhere beneath global ocean ridges as evidence of a hot ridge of plate spreading origin and as evidence of large mantle temperature variations beneath global ocean ridges is inappropriate. In fact, the invoked large mantle temperature variation disappears when data from plume-influenced ridges are removed (see Niu & Hékinian, 1997a; Niu & O’Hara, 2008; Regelous et al., 2016; also see below). There is no evidence of any kind for large mantle temperature variation beneath ridges away from mantle plumes. I will specifically discuss in a later section why MORB melts do not preserve the solidus conditions (i.e. $P_o$ and $T_o$) as previously elaborated (Niu, 1997).

The meaning of MORB chemistry–spreading rate correlation

Because ocean ridges are of plate tectonic origin, and because sub-ridge mantle upwelling is a passive response to plate separation, the rate of mantle upwelling must be positively related to plate spreading rate (e.g. Reid & Jackson, 1981; Phipps Morgan, 1987; Niu, 1997). This means that the sub-ridge mantle thermal structure and extent of decompression melting must also vary as a function of plate spreading rate. Indeed, Niu & Hékinian (1997a) used the then available global MORB data (Niu & Batiza, 1993) together with the available abyssal peridotite data (Dick & Fisher, 1984; Dick et al., 1984; Dick, 1989; Johnson et al., 1990; Niu & Hékinian, 1997b) to demonstrate that the extent of sub-ridge mantle melting increases with increasing spreading rate as anticipated, and as recently confirmed with an updated dataset (Regelous et al., 2016). Figure 8a–c is reproduced from the spreading rate interval (bin width 20 mm a$^{-1}$) averaged MORB data of Niu & Hékinian (1997a), plotted as a function of full spreading rate. As above, heavy averaging is required to remove the effects of ridge axial depth variation and location-related mantle source heterogeneity variation on varying scales (including the arbitrary N- and E-type MORB
Fig. 8. Plots (a)–(c) from Niu & Hékinian [1997a; (c) was not shown then] together with the then available abyssal peridotite data allowed them to conclude that the extent of mantle melting beneath ocean ridges increases with increasing plate spreading rate. However, Gale et al. (2014) concluded (p. 1080): ‘There is no correlation between the chemical parameters and spreading rate.’ Plots in (d)–(f) use the new dataset of Gale et al. (2014) (GLD14) to show essentially the same as shown by Niu & Hékinian (1997a); that is, that decreasing Al$_72$ (d) and Al$_8$ (a), increasing Ca$_72$/Al$_72$ (e) and Ca$_8$/Al$_8$ (b), and decreasing K$_2$O/TiO$_2$ (f) and K$_8$/Ti$_8$ (c) with increasing spreading rate are simply and straightforwardly the result of increasing extent of melting. This spreading rate dependent extent of melting is a consequence of the spreading rate controlled lid effect as illustrated in (g), where notations are the same as in Fig. 7c. The numerals next to the data points in (a) and (d) denote ‘20 mm a$^{-1}$’ spreading rate intervals for averaging. Details for (a) and (b) have been given by Niu & Hékinian (1997a). Details in (d)–(f) (the insets show all the data and averages) are as follows:

1. $<20$ mm a$^{-1}$, $n = 891$ samples; 2. 20–40 mm a$^{-1}$, $n = 2163$; 3. 40–60 mm a$^{-1}$, $n = 1923$; 4. 60–80 mm a$^{-1}$, $n = 1228$; 5. 80–100 mm a$^{-1}$, $n = 1406$; 6. 100–120 mm a$^{-1}$, $n = 1130$; 7. 120–140 mm a$^{-1}$, $n = 7$; 8. 120–140 mm a$^{-1}$, $n = 236$. The heavy averaging is necessary to examine objectively the presence and significance of any spreading rate effect by averaging out all other non-spreading rate factors (e.g. effects of fertile source variation, including the arbitrary N- and E-type MORB, ridge axial depth variation and uncertainties associated with the correction procedures). Samples with seawater depth $<1500$ m are excluded, as are those from plumes and plume-influenced ridges (these are samples from Iceland, near-Iceland ridges and the Red Sea) as indicated in Fig. 9a. The reason for choosing $<1500$ m depth is because most normal ridges have axial depths $>2000$ m, but there are ridges far away from plumes or hotspots that can be as shallow as $\sim1500$ m; for example, the ridge OH-1 south of the Oceanographer Fracture Zone at $\sim35^\circ$ N MAR (Niu et al., 2001).
division) to reveal if there indeed exists any genuine correlation between MORB chemistry and plate spreading rate. As Al is an incompatible element and K is more incompatible than Ti during sub-ridge mantle melting, the decreasing Al/Hf and Ca/Ti with increasing spreading rate are a straightforward expression of an extent of mantle melting that increases with increasing spreading rate. Figure 8g provides a straightforward illustration in terms of the lid effect (i.e. the CTBL thickness) as to why the extent of mantle melting increases with increasing spreading rate. Because the rate of mantle upwelling increases with increasing plate spreading rate (see above), fast upwelling beneath fast-spreading ridges allows the adiabat to extend to a shallower level against conductive cooling to the surface. By contrast, with slower upwelling beneath slow-spreading ridges, conductive cooling to the surface extends to a greater depth against the adiabat. Hence, the depth of $P_f$ decreases and the decompression interval ($P_o - P_f$) increases with increasing spreading rate, hence the extent of melting $F \propto (P_o - P_f)$ increases with increasing plate spreading rate.

However, Gale et al. (2014) refuted the demonstration and interpretation by Niu & Hékínian (1997a) by stating: ‘There is no correlation between the chemical parameters and spreading rate’ (p. 1080). Figure 8d–f is based on the Gale et al. (2014) data and argues against their unfounded statement, confirming the findings and demonstration by Niu & Hékínian (1997a) that the extent of sub-ridge mantle melting increases with increasing spreading rate. It is important to compare Fig. 8a–c with Fig. 8d–f. The conclusion based on the 20 years older MORB dataset remains valid and is seen in the newest data.

We should emphasize that the petrological and geochemical consequences of plate spreading rate variation have long been recognized, such as isotopic variability (Batiza, 1984), MORB chemical variation trends (Niu & Batiza, 1993), magma chamber processes (Sinton & Detrick, 1992), crustal-level thermal and magmatic structures (Chen, 1992; Rubin & Sinton, 2007), shallow mantle thermal structure (Reid & Jackson, 1981; Niu & Hékínian, 1997a), ridge morphology / topography (e.g. Macdonald, 1982; Macdonald et al., 1998; Dick et al., 2003) and gravity patterns (Lin & Phipps Morgan, 1992).

**FURTHER INSIGHTS FROM OBSERVATIONS AND BASIC PETROLOGY**

The above has illustrated that to understand the physical controls on ocean ridge processes and MORB petrogenesis, the logical approach is to isolate the effects of different physical observables. This is conceptually the same as mathematically seeking partial derivatives for a particular variable while keeping all other variables held constant (Niu & O’Hara, 2008). For example, to evaluate the effects of plate spreading rate variation on MORB petrogenesis, it is best to average petrological parameters with respect to spreading rate intervals so that the potential effects of other variables (e.g. ridge depth variation, mantle source heterogeneity on varying scales within and between ocean basins) can be largely or effectively averaged out. Likewise, to decipher the effects of processes that lead to global ridge axial depth variation on MORB petrogenesis, it is best to average petrological parameters with respect to ridge axial depth intervals so that possible effects by other variables (e.g. spreading rate variation, dynamic topography on regional and ridge segment scales as well as mantle compositional heterogeneity on all scales within and between ocean basins) can be effectively averaged out. This approach offers us new insights.

**Effects of spreading rate variation on ridge axial depth and mantle melting**

We have demonstrated in Fig. 8a–f that the extent of mantle melting decreases with decreasing spreading rate (see Niu & Hékínian, 1997a), which is a straightforward consequence of the ‘lid effect’ as illustrated in Fig. 8g. Because the sub-ridge mantle upwelling rate is, in an ideal situation, half of the full spreading rate (Phipps Morgan, 1987; Niu, 1997), the subdued upwelling beneath a slow-spreading ridge should lead to a deep ridge depth because conductive cooling (1) overcomes adiabatic upwelling, (2) thickens the cold (and dense) thermal boundary layer (CTBL), (3) deepens $P_f$, (4) reduces the $P_o - P_f$ interval, (5) lowers the extent of decompression melting, and predictably (6) produces thinner magmatic crust. This is correct in terms of basic petrology and straightforward physics. However, this anticipated correlation between ridge depth and spreading rate is not obvious in Fig. 9a. The data points are still scattered even after plume- or hotspot-influenced shallow ridges (<1500 m) are removed. However, as done for MORB chemistry, if we average ridge depth values with respect to the same spreading rate intervals, an expected trend emerges as indicated by the red filled circles.

Figure 9b plots only the spreading rate interval averages with 2σ error bars. The topology of the power-law fitting curve is essentially the same as those of the petrological parameters in Fig. 8, with a flatter trend at spreading rates $>50$ mm a$^{-1}$ and a rapid change at $<40$ mm a$^{-1}$. This is the first-time revelation of the otherwise long anticipated systematics, and points to the first-order genetic connections among spreading rate, ridge depth and petrological parameters. However, for ridges with spreading rates $>50$ mm a$^{-1}$, the ridge depth is essentially constant, but the petrological parameters define first-order trends that are not horizontal, and have slopes consistent with a spreading rate dependent extent of melting (Fig. 8). The average depth for ridges with spreading rates $<40$ mm a$^{-1}$ progressively and significantly deepens with decreasing spreading rate. Because of the fact that all the average
ridge depth values are spreading rate interval averages with the potential effects of all other variables being averaged out, the ~1100 m depth difference may be the maximum (within uncertainties to be verified) ridge depth deepening as the result of reduced spreading rate alone, as indicated in Fig. 9b.

A recent study by Regelous et al. (2016), using an updated abyssal peridotite dataset and the Gale et al. (2014) MORB dataset, confirmed the recognition by Niu & Hékínian (1997a; also Niu & O’Hara, 2014) that the extent of ridge mantle melting decreases with decreasing spreading rate, especially beneath slow-spreading ridges as demonstrated above (Fig. 8). Regelous et al. further concluded, however, that this rules out the effect of fertile mantle compositional variation. This latter statement is imprecise and incorrect. Let us examine why this statement needs correction. In Fig. 7 the correlations of MORB chemistry with ridge depth are best interpreted as mantle major element compositional variation as per Niu & O’Hara (2008), and provide no information on spreading rate effect because this effect is averaged out in these plots. The Fig. 8 correlations of MORB chemistry with spreading rate are consistent with spreading rate-dependent varying extent of melting (as shown by these authors), but yield no information on ridge depth effects because these are again averaged out. Hence, on the basis of Fig. 8 we cannot rule out the effect of ridge depth and mantle source effects.

Fig. 9. (a) Plot of ridge segment depths as a function of spreading rate using the Gale et al. (2014) (GLD14) data, which show no simple systematics even when excluding sample sites influenced by mantle plumes or hotspots with depths <1500 m as indicated (see Fig. 8). Hence, we cannot simply state that ocean ridge depth increases with decreasing spreading rate. The red filled circles are ridge depth interval averages as described in the Fig. 8 caption. (b) As (a), but showing only the depth interval averages with 2σ error bars. The topology of the power-law fitting curve is essentially the same as those of the petrological parameters in Fig. 8 with a flatter trend at spreading rates >50 mm a−1 and a rapid change with further spreading rate decrease. This points to the first-order genetic connections between spreading rate, ridge depth and petrological parameters. However, for the ridges with spreading rates >50 mm a−1, the ridge depths define an essentially horizontal band (~0 slope; the purple band), but the petrological parameters define first-order trends that are not horizontal, and have slopes all consistent with a spreading rate dependent extent of melting (Fig. 8). The average depths for ridges with spreading rates <40 mm a−1 are progressively and significantly deeper with decreasing spreading rate (light blue rectangle). Because of the fact that all the depth averages result from ridge depth interval averages with the potential effects of all other variables averaged out, the ~1100 m depth difference may be the maximum (within uncertainties) ridge depth deepening as the result of reduced spreading rate alone.

MORB melts preserve no signature of $P_o$ and $T_o$, but signature of $P_f$ and $T_f$

By stating that global MORB major element compositional variations (e.g. MORB melts with Mg# > 0.72) are largely controlled by both fertile mantle compositional variation (e.g. Fig. 7) and plate spreading rate variation (Fig. 8) with the spreading rate effect being especially prominent at very slow-spreading ridges (Figs 8 and 9).
lower pressure (low Fe$_8$) and lower extent (high Na$_8$) of melting.

Niu and co-authors (Niu, 1997, 2004; Niu & Hékínian, 1997a, b; Niu & O’Hara, 2008) have emphasized that there is no evidence for large mantle potential temperature variation beneath global ocean ridges. The petrological parameter Fe$_8$ (now also Fe$_{90}$) as a pressure indicator collapses (see above). Dalton et al. (2014) used ridge axial depth variation as evidence for large mantle potential temperature variation, but this is a circular argument and has no foundation (see above and below) because fertile mantle density variations owing to compositional variations (compositional buoyancy variation) are much more effective in causing ridge axial depth variation. Niu and co-authors advocate the presence and significance of the cold thermal boundary layer (CTBL) beneath ocean ridges because this is consistent with physical analysis (Reid & Jackson, 1981) and petrological observations (Niu, 1997, 2004; Niu & Hékínian, 1997a, b; Niu et al., 1997; Niu & O’Hara, 2008) as elaborated above (Figs 7 and 8). The thickness of the CTBL determines the final depth of melting or melt–solid re-equilibration, $P_o$, hence affecting the decompression melting interval $P_o - P_f$ and the extent of melting. This is called the ‘lid effect’ (Niu et al., 2011) as elaborated above as functions of fertile mantle compositional / density variation and plate spreading rate variation with correlated variations of MORB chemistry with ridge axial depth (Fig. 7) and plate spreading rate (Fig. 8).

The key message of Fig. 10 concerns the very fundamental question as to whether the erupted MORB melts can preserve the signature of $P_o$ and $T_o$. The answer is simply ‘No’. The melt formed by decompression (in the depth interval $P_o - P_f$) will ascend because of buoyancy and melt segregation caused by matrix compaction (McKenzie, 1984). This occurs as soon as the initial porosity exceeds the permeability threshold, the value of which has varied from up to 10% (e.g. Maaloe, 1982), to ~3% (McKenzie, 1984), and to several orders of magnitude less than 1% (McKenzie, 1985; Spiegelman & Elliott, 1993) to explain the observed Th–Ra excess in MORB. However ~1% porosity may be more consistent with physical analysis (Turcotte & Phipps Morgan, 1992) and petrological constraints (Johnson et al., 1990). Melt migration and ascent may occur as diffuse porous flow or network-like channeling on millimeter scales (e.g. McKenzie, 1984; Turcotte & Phipps Morgan, 1992).

Therefore, recognizing that (1) porous flow is the primary means of melt transport, (2) the time scale for melt transport from the melting region to the crust is of the order of thousands of years (e.g. McKenzie, 1984, 1985; Spiegelman & McKenzie, 1987; Rubin & Macdougall, 1988, 1990), and (3) a time of no more than tens of hours is sufficient for attaining solid–melt
equilibrium in peridotite melting experiments, low-pressure melt–solid equilibration is inevitable during melt ascent (Niu, 1997). Hence, the erupted melts will not preserve the signature of the initial depth of melting ($P_0$, $T_0$), nor the signatures of any condition in the decompression interval $P_0 - P_l$. The pressure signature the erupted MORB melts can retain would be the final depth of melting or melt–solid equilibration of $P_l$ and $T_l$, which is the condition at the base of the CTBL (¼ ‘lid’). The MORB compositional variation as a function of ridge depth variation (composition-controlled density variation; Fig. 7) and plate spreading rate variation (Fig. 8) is the manifestation of the ‘lid effect’; that is, the $P_l$ and $T_l$ signature preserved in MORB melts (Figs 7, 8 and 10).

Because the erupted MORB melts have lost the signature of the initial depth of mantle melting (i.e. $P_0$ and $T_0$) owing to the inevitable melt–solid re-equilibration, how can we use MORB chemistry to say that large mantle potential temperature variations ($\sim 250$ K) exist beneath global ocean ridges? How can we logically establish primary magmas parental to MORB with MgO as high as 19 wt % (corrected to Fe90; see Fig. 3d)? In Fig. 10 it is shown explicitly that the melt produced will ascend in the form of porous flow ($< \sim 2\%$) through the solid peridotite matrix ($\sim 98\%$) and undergo continuous melt–solid re-equilibration. The re-equilibration is expected to be complete during decompression melting ($P_0 - P_l$) because of the close melt–solid contact and because the thousands of years of melting and melt segregation is long enough compared with the tens of hours required to reach equilibrium in experimental charges, especially for elements such as Si, Fe and Mg controlled by olivine, which is the dominant mantle peridotite mineral. Niu (1997) presented this argument explicitly, but I ask readers to judge objectively whether MORB melts can preserve the signature of $P_0$ and $T_0$ in terms of Si, Fe and Mg as presumed by Klein & Langmuir (1987), Langmuir et al. (1992), Dalton et al. (2014) and Gale et al. (2014).

A point that should be remembered: the meaning of the correlated compositional variations of MORB and abyssal peridotites

We should note the nature of the compositional correlation between abyssal peridotites and spatially associated MORB (Dick et al., 1984) and the petrological interpretations of this correlation (Dick et al., 1983; Klein & Langmuir, 1987). This correlation was effectively summarized in fig. 1 of Niu et al. (1997), showing a scattered but statistically significant positive linear correlation between the modal clinopyroxene (vol. %) content of abyssal peridotites and the Na8 of spatially associated MORB (18 site averages with $R^2 = 0.74$). Niu et al. (1997) proposed that when sample locations approach ‘hotspots’ with shallowed ridge depths, both Na8 and modal clinopyroxene decrease, which is consistent with an increasing extent of mantle melting, influenced by hotter mantle beneath hotspots. This observation is simple and powerful. The interpretation is logical also, but may not be correct. Following a detailed bulk-rock major and trace element study of global abyssal peridotites, Niu (2004, p. 2452) could not avoid the conclusion that: ‘there is no clear justification that Na8 in MORB or cpx mode in abyssal peridotites genuinely reflects the extent of mantle melting beneath mid-ocean ridges, nor that such an inferred extent of melting reflects subridge mantle potential temperature variations. The complementarity could very well be inherited from the fertile mantle sources.’ This was echoed by Dick et al. (2007), who stated: ‘As the previously analyzed peridotites are from fracture zone walls 0.5 to 14 Ma. old, and the “spatially associated basalts” are largely from the modern ridge axis, this argues for a long-term stability in magma composition and therefore mantle composition as well.’ Indeed, despite the compositional complementarity between MORB (melts) and abyssal peridotites (residues), it is unlikely for the ~14 Myr old abyssal peridotites to be melting residues of the present-day MORB. Mantle thermal anomalies may be long-lived, but can decay away with time. However, compositional anomalies (and buoyancy) should be long-lasting. For this, Zhou & Dick (2013) provided a good case study.

The geodynamic significance of compositional buoyancy contrast is best manifested by the largest topographic contrast on the Earth: the compositionally buoyant continental lithosphere (the crust and mantle lithosphere) and the compositionally dense oceanic lithosphere (despite the contribution of the ‘coldness’ of the latter) (Niu et al., 2003; Niu, 2014, 2016).

SUMMARY

1. The popular petrological parameter Fe8 devised by Klein & Langmuir (1987) and advocated by Langmuir et al. (1992) and Gale et al. (2014) in studying MORB mantle melting conditions is misleading, as demonstrated by Niu & O’Hara (2008), because Fe8 represents variably evolved melts with Mg# = 0.56–0.68 (Figs 1–3), which is a crustal signature and cannot be in equilibrium with mantle olivine. Recent work by Gale et al. (2014) showed that Fe8 $\approx$ Fe90 (Fig. 3b), with the purpose of advocating Fe8 to be the same as Fe90, and to reflect melts in equilibrium with mantle olivine Fe90. This is not true. Because melts with Fe8 have Mg# = 0.56–0.68, but those with Fe90 are meant to have Mg# $< 0.72$–0.73, how can Fe8 $\approx$ Fe90? (Fig. 3b). The data treatment to make Fe90 $\rightarrow$ Fe8 was achieved by adding varying amount of olivine, but can MORB melts have MgO as high as 19 wt % (Fig. 3d)? The most primitive MORB melts with Mg# $\geq 0.72$ have $\sim 10.5$ wt % MgO (data constrained). The Gale et al. (2014) corrected Fe90 (= Fe8) values have no relevance to actual data as they are compositionally remotely different from any MORB composition...
2. Global MORB major element compositional systematics in MgO or Mg# variation diagrams are not simple linear lines of descent (LLD; Figs 4 and 5), but the net effect of cooling-dominated, crustal-level processes (e.g. fractional crystallization, magma mixing, melt-rock assimilation / reaction and other aspects of complex open-magma chamber processes). It is petrologically justified to correct MORB melts for the crustal-level effects to Mg# $\geq 0.72$ to be in equilibrium with mantle olivine of Fo $\geq 90$ by using a single set of correction coefficients applicable to the global MORB dataset. Global MORB FeO values corrected to Mg# $= 0.72$ have Fe$_72$ $\sim$7–8 wt % (i.e. $\sim$1.0 Fe units), which is well constrained by the global MORB data as illustrated in FeO–Mg# diagrams (Figs 4 and 5). This new demonstration using the actual data as done by Niu & O'Hara (2008), argues against the incorrect statement by Gale et al. (2014) that the small Fe$_{72}$ range is due to an inaccurate correction procedure. In contrast, regardless of whether the correction procedure by Gale et al. (2014) to Fe$_8$ is justified / accurate or not, the new global MORB dataset shows that Fe$_8$ ($=\text{FeO at MgO} = 8.0 \text{ wt }\%$) is $\sim$7–12.5 wt % ($>\sim$5–5 Fe units), corresponding to Mg# $= 0.56–0.69$ (Figs 3–5), which cannot be used to say anything petrologically meaningful about mantle processes.

3. The correlation between MORB chemistry (Ti$_{72}$, Al$_{72}$, Fe$_{72}$, Mg$_{72}$, Ca$_{72}$, Na$_{72}$, Ca$_{72}$/Al$_{72}$) and ridge axial depth (Fig. 7) indicates a genetic relationship between the two, which is not a ‘cause-and-effect’ one; instead, both are different effects of a common cause. The common cause is sub-ridge fertile mantle compositional variation, which, by inference, is most consistent with varying extent of prior melting and melt extraction in terms of major elements. The least depleted (or relatively enriched) MORB source is characterized by higher TiO$_2$, Al$_2$O$_3$, Na$_2$O, and lower FeO, MgO and CaO, and thus lower CaO/Al$_2$O$_3$ than the most depleted MORB source. Such major element compositional variation determines the mantle mineralogy with greater bulk-rock density for the progressively least depleted (or relatively enriched) source, leading to progressively deeper ridges because of isostasy (Fig. 7). Melting of such compositionally varying sources imparts the source chemical signature to the erupted MORB melts (Fig. 7a and b), leading to the observed correlation of MORB chemistry with ridge axial depth (Fig. 7).

4. Mantle density is an important physical property and its variation must have a varying control on plate separation-induced upwelling. With increasing sub-ridge mantle density, as expressed by the increasing ridge axial depth, the maximum extent of passive upwelling is progressively subdued, resulting in a slightly reduced decompression melting interval and somewhat lower extent of melting. This has an enhanced (positively superimposed) effect on the signature of source composition-inherited MORB chemistry and the correlation with ridge axial depth (Fig. 7).

5. The updated global MORB dataset provided by Gale et al. (2014) confirms the recognition $\sim$20 years earlier by Niu & Hékinian (1997a) that the extent of sub-ridge mantle melting increases with increasing plate spreading rate, which is expected in terms of the understood physics of the way in which ocean ridges work (Fig. 8), but disproves the conclusive statement by Gale et al. (2014): ‘There is no correlation between the chemical parameters and spreading rate.’

6. Mantle temperature variation could play a role in MORB petrogenesis, but its overstated role comes from the misleading parameter Fe$_8$ (and Fe$_{90}$), from using ridge axial depth as a constraint by neglecting the intrinsic chemical and physical controls of fertile mantle compositional variation, and from treating ridge-centered mantle plumes such as the Iceland plume as being of plate tectonic origin.

7. In addition to the incorrect data treatment by Gale et al. (2014), the argument for large mantle temperature variations has an erroneous presumption; that is, MORB melts retain the signature of their initial depth of mantle melting ($P_o$ and $T_o$) in terms of Fe$_8$ ($=\text{FeO at MgO} = 8.0 \text{ wt }\%$) and spreading rate. This is particularly true for Si, Mg and Fe controlled by olivine, the dominant phase of the peridotite matrix (Fig. 10). Therefore, MORB melts can only retain the final depth of melting or melt–solid equilibration (i.e. $P_f$ and $T_f$), not $P_o$ and $T_o$, as explicitly discussed previously (Niu, 1997) and demonstrated by the fact that the most primitive MORB melts with Mg# $\geq 0.72$ have MgO $\approx 10$–5 wt %, not higher and not as high as 19 wt % (Fig. 3d).

8. The preservation of $P_o$ and $T_f$ in MORB melts illustrates that the lid effect, which has a primary control on the extent of melting, final depth of melt–solid equilibration and melt compositions for intraplate ocean island magmatism (Humphreys & Niu, 2009; Niu et al., 2011), also exerts a key control on MORB petrogenesis as manifested by the correlations of MORB chemistry with ridge axial depth (Fig. 7c) and with ridge spreading rate (Fig. 8g).

9. The correlations of MORB chemistry with ridge axial depth cannot be used to rule out a plate spreading rate control. Likewise, the correlations of...
MORB chemistry with plate spreading rate variation cannot be used to rule out a fertile mantle compositional control. Both fertile mantle compositional variation (expressed as large ridge axial depth variations owing to composition-determined density variations) and spreading rate variation are two primary variables that control first-order ocean ridge processes in general and MORB petrogenesis in particular.

10. It has long been anticipated that ridge axial depth should increase with decreasing plate spreading rate, but the lack of correlation between the two has been puzzling. This correlation does indeed exist after removing hotspot-influenced ridges and after averaging ridge depth values within spreading rate intervals (Fig. 9). This correlation is best described by a non-linear power-law relationship that also best describes the relationship between MORB chemistry and spreading rate. All these observations are straightforward consequences of plate tectonics.

11. The meaning of the global MORB major element compositions may continue to be debated, but the conclusions offered here are the most objective and logical, and are most consistent with petrological, geochemical, geological and geophysical principles and observations.

12. To promote scientific debate, I end this paper here by sharing my philosophy: for the same data, there can be many different interpretations, but reasonable interpretations are limited and, strictly speaking, the correct interpretation must be open-minded and objective.

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