The role of Edge-Driven Convection in the generation of volcanism I: a 2D systematic study

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Abstract. The origin of intraplate volcanism is not explained by the plate tectonic theory, and several models have been put forward for explanation. One of these models involves Edge-Driven Convection (EDC), in which cold and thick continental lithosphere is juxtaposed to warm and thin oceanic lithosphere to trigger convective instability. To test whether EDC can produce long-lived high-volume magmatism, we run numerical models of EDC for a wide range of mantle properties and
5 edge (*i.e.*, the oceanic-continental transition) geometries. We find that the most important parameters that govern EDC are the rheological paramaters mantle viscosity η_0 and activation energy E_a. However, even the maximum melting volumes found in our models are insufficient to account for island-building volcanism on old seafloor, such as at the Canary Islands and Cape Verde. Also, beneath old seafloor, localized EDC-related melting commonly transitions into widespread melting due to small-scale sublithospheric convection, inconsistent with the distribution of volcanism at these volcanic chains. In turn, EDC is a
10 good candidate to sustain the formation of small seamounts on young seafloor, as it is a highly transient phenomenon that occurs in all our models soon after initiation. In a companion paper, we investigate the implications of interaction of EDC with mantle-plume activity.

1 Introduction

15 Understanding the origin of volcanism improves our understanding of Earth's deep interior processes, structure and composition. In this context, intraplate volcanism deserves particular attention, because it is not readily explained by plate-tectonics processes. One of the leading theories to explain intraplate magmatism involves mantle plume theory. In this theory, a magmatic hotspot is sustained by a fixed and columnar mantle upwelling, or "plume", forming a volcano chain on a steadily moving plate (Wilson, 1963; Morgan, 1971).

20   Plume theory makes specific testable predictions, such as the distribution of volcanism, the age-distance relationship along the volcanic chain, as well as anomalies in heat-flux and topography (hotspot swells). These predictions have been successfully compared to observations at several locations (*e.g.* Hawaii, Louisville. . .), however, comparisons fail at other locations (see

Courtillot et al., 2003). For example, the age-distance relationship measured along the Pukapuka Ridge does not agree with the overriding plate motion (Sandwell et al., 1995; Ballmer et al., 2013); at Madeira, there is no apparent swell (Anderson, 2005; Ballmer et al., 2013; King and Adam, 2014); etc. Accordingly, alternative or complementary models have been proposed for sustaining intraplate volcanism (Foulger and Anderson, 2005; Hirano, 2011; Ballmer et al., 2015; Green, 2015).

One of these models involves Edge-Driven Convection (EDC; King and Anderson, 1995, 1998). EDC is a variant of small-scale convection (SSC; Richter, 1973; Parsons and McKenzie, 1978; Huang et al., 2003; Dumoulin et al., 2005), *i.e.* a thermal boundary-layer instability that is largely driven by cooling of the lithosphere and the related density inversion (Ballmer et al., 2009; Ballmer, 2017). EDC is triggered by the presence of lithospheric steps (or lateral heterogeneity): the related lateral density difference promotes the instability (which is ultimately driven by the density inversion), setting up a convection cell (figure 1). According to King and Anderson (1995, 1998), the associated upwelling(s) may be sufficient to sustain mantle melting without the need of a plume. This magmatism is predicted to occur at a distance from the step in lithospheric thickness (*e.g.*, nearby a cratonic margin) of a few hundred kilometers.
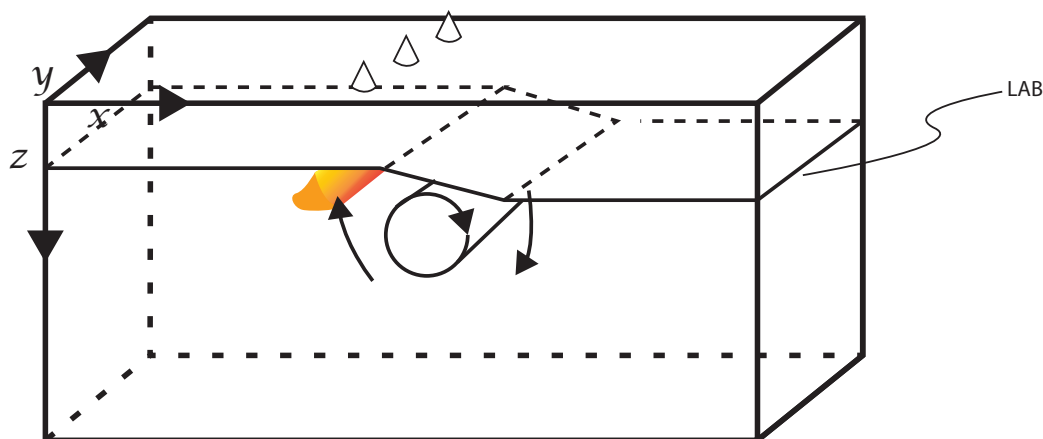
Figure 1. Schematic of Edge-Driven Convection. A downwelling is promoted on the thick continental side of the lithospheric edge, triggering a passive upwelling that sustains mantle decompression melting (orange) and related volcanism parallel to the continent-ocean transition (cones). The Lithosphere-Asthenosphere Boundary (LAB) is labeled.

In the Atlantic Ocean basin, several volcanic chains occur near the margin of the continental platform (*e.g.*, the Canary Islands, Cape Verde or the Cameroon Volcanic Line). For many (or all) of these chains, several predictions of classic plume theory are not fulfilled. For example, the Canary Islands do not display a strictly linear age progression, with coeval volcanism occurring over hundreds of kilometers and sustained volcanism at a single island or seamount for >20 Ma (Abdel-Monem et al., 1971, 1972; Carracedo, 1999; Geldmacher et al., 2005). Given these complexities, several alternative hypotheses have been proposed. For instance, some authors have invoked the extraction of magmas along elongated shear zones of preexisting melt (Araña and Ortiz, 1991; Doblas et al., 2007; Martinez-Arevalo et al., 2013), possibly associated with a thermal anomaly (Anguita and Hernán, 2000). Alternatively, the "passive" upwelling of "mantle blobs" (Hoernle and Schmincke, 1993; Thirlwall

et al., 2000), or EDC with or without a contribution from a nearby plume (King and Ritsema, 2000; Geldmacher et al., 2005) may sustain Canary volcanism. EDC has also been proposed as an underlying mechanism for other Atlantic hotspots such as

45 Bermuda or Cape Verde (Vogt, 1991; King and Ritsema, 2000).

Despite the long-lasting debate on the origin of near-continental intraplate volcanism, there is no published comprehensive geodynamic study of EDC and related magmatism in a continental-oceanic setting. Some authors (King and Ritsema, 2000; Sacek, 2017) have explored the dynamics of this mechanism, and applied their results to the eastern Atlantic, but have not explicitly and consistently modeled mantle melting. Others have studied EDC in great detail but for a purely continental setting

50 (van Wijk et al., 2008, 2010; Till et al., 2010; Kaislaniemi and Van Hunen, 2014; Ballmer et al., 2015; Currie and van Wijk, 2016).

In this contribution, we study EDC-related flow and melting in the upper mantle using numerical models in order to understand the origin of intraplate volcanism in the eastern Atlantic. EDC can be approximated as a purely two-dimensional (2D) mode of convection, with convection roll(s) infinitely extending along the continental margin (King and Anderson, 1995;

55 Kaislaniemi and Van Hunen, 2014). Therefore, we have chosen to investigate 2D models, which allows us to explore a wide parameter space, and to test the potential of EDC to systematically sustain intraplate volcanism. Finally, we compare model predictions with observations at the Canaries and Cape Verde and evaluate the limitations of our results in the limit of our model assumptions.

We find that melt generation by EDC alone is too restrictive and transient to be a suitable explanation for the occurrence of

60 large volcano chains such as the Canary Islands or Cape Verde. Our models predict that EDC *sensu stricto* generates volcanism only for a small subset of the parameter space, and if it does so, only with small amounts of very enriched volcanism, and only below young and thin oceanic lithosphere. EDC remains a suitable explanation for small seamounts in the area (*e.g.* Van Den Bogaard, 2013). A companion paper (citation) explores the dynamics of plume-EDC interaction, showing that a contribution from at least a weak plume is required to sustain island-building volcanism.

65 ## 2 Methods

We run 2D numerical models using the mantle-convection code CITCOM (Moresi and Solomatov, 1995; Moresi and Gurnis, 1996; Zhong et al., 2000) with the additions described in Ballmer (2009). We use the code to solve the equations of conservation of mass, momentum and energy according to the "extended Boussinesq approximation" (Christensen and Yuen, 1985) in a Cartesian frame of reference. Non-diffusive fields (*e.g.* composition or melt depletion) are advected by passive tracers. King

70 and Ritsema (2000) demonstrate that EDC is confined to the upper mantle whenever the phase change at 660 km is present, so all our experiments are regional models with a vertical extent of 660 km. The Cartesian model box of dimensions 2640x660 km is resolved by 384x96 elements without grid refinement. Resolution tests confirm that results converge well at this resolution.

Kinematic boundary conditions involve no slip at the top and bottom boundaries. In some models, a non-zero plate velocity (v_{plate}) is imposed. When v_{plate} is 0, both side boundaries are free slip. Otherwise, we impose a self-consistent (Couette-like)

75 velocity profile in the inflow (left) boundary and open the opposite outflow boundary.

In terms of thermal boundary conditions, we impose potential temperatures of $T_{surf} = 0$ °C and T_{ref} = 1350 °C at the top and bottom, respectively. In real temperature space, an adiabatic gradient of 0.3 K·km^{-1} is added. Lateral boundaries are reflective (zero heat flow) except when inflow happens because of finite plate motion, in which case the thermal boundary condition is fixed at the initial profile. The models also include internal (*i.e.*, radioactive) heating with a reference value of $H =$ 7.75·10^{-12} W·kg^{-1}, but we also run models with higher values of H. In addition, we discuss models with increased radiogenic heating that occurs only in the continental crust.

The initial thermal profiles of the oceanic (left) and continental (right side of the box) lithosphere are calculated according to the half-space cooling model (*e.g.* Turcotte and Schubert, 2014, ; figure 2a) plus a small random thermal noise to simulate small-scale heterogeneity and advance the solution of the initial timesteps. Both the thermal age of the continental lithosphere and the age of the oceanic lithosphere are free model parameters (τ_c, τ_o). The edge (*i.e.*, the transition in lithospheric thickness) is imposed as a linear interpolation between the oceanic and continental lithospheric thermal profiles. We chose this setting because it allows us to freely vary the geometry of the transition between oceanic and continental lithosphere.

The geometry of the edge is an unconstrained parameter, the effects of which on EDC have not yet been studied systematically. The edge is defined by the initial lithospheric thickness on either side, and the width of the linear transition between the two (w). Hence, we systematically explore parameters age of the oceanic lithosphere (τ_o), age of the continental lithosphere (τ_c). To study how much the dynamics change due to a change in the aspect ratio of the transition between ocean and continent, we also changed the width of the wedge between the two lithospheres (w).

The modeled mantle consists of a fine-scale mixture of peridotite (97 %) and recycled basaltic eclogite (3 %, from now on, pyroxenite; Hirschmann and Stolper, 1996). Mantle depletion of both lithologies increase with increasing degrees of melting, which affects mantle density ρ:

$$\rho = \rho_{ref} - \alpha \cdot \rho_{ref} \cdot (T - T_{ref}) + F \cdot \Delta\rho_F + \phi \cdot \Delta\rho_\phi \qquad (1)$$

where ρ_{ref} is the mantle density at T_{ref}, α the thermal expansivity, T the temperature, F the melt depletion extent, ϕ the mantle porosity, and $\Delta\rho_F$ and $\Delta\rho_\phi$ the density differences related to melt depletion and melt retention (Schutt and Lesher, 2006; Ballmer et al., 2009). The depleted lithosphere is, therefore, more buoyant than the underlying mantle. To calculate the initial depletion profile of the oceanic lithosphere for our EDC models, we run 2D simulations of flow and melting of a simplified mid-ocean ridge using the same parameters as in the corresponding EDC models.

As for the initial depletion profile at the base of the continental lithosphere, we have chosen to impose the same ridge depletion as in the oceanic side on the continental part, adding a depleted lid (with $F = 1$) on the top (figure 2b). This depleted lid mimics the excess buoyancy of continental crust. The initial thickness of this lid is arbitrarily defined as 40 km for the reference case, but it is adjusted for models with different continental thicknesses to follow the $0.9 \cdot T_{ref}$ isotherm on the continental side. The edge itself consists on a wedge of crustal depletion ($F = 1$) of width w that thins toward the oceanic lithosphere (figure 2). Indeed, it has been suggested that the subcontinental lithospheric mantle is harzburgitic in nature (Bodinier and Godard, 2013), but the specific profile remains unconstrained.
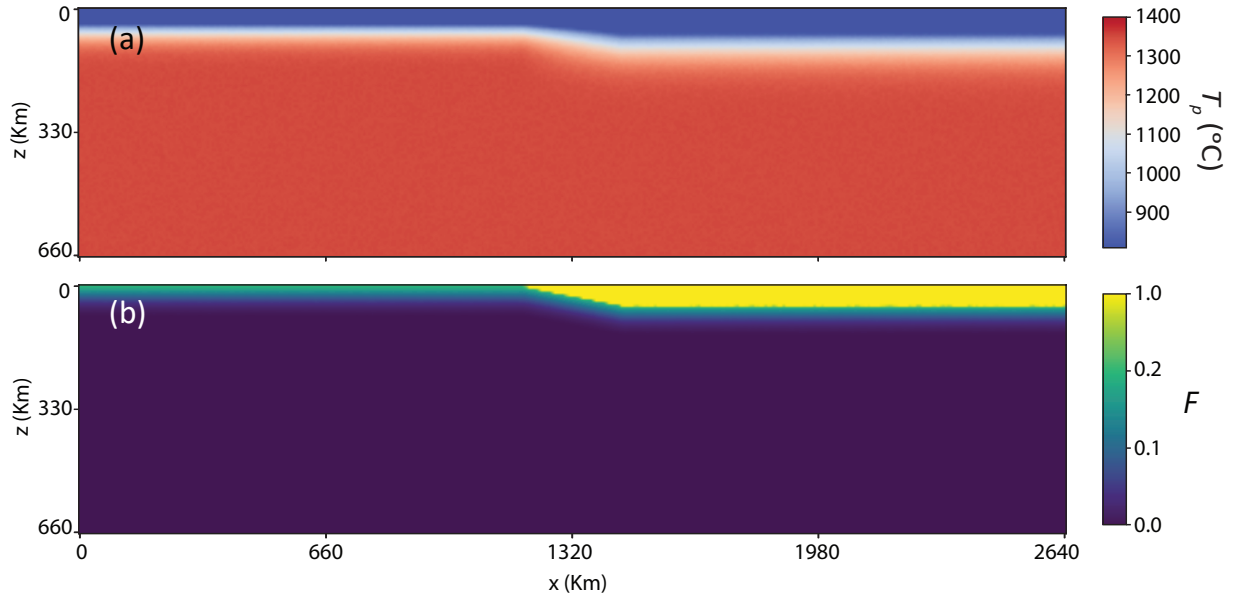
Figure 2. Initial conditions for the reference model. (a) Initial field of potential temperature T_p (*i.e.* with the adiabatic gradient removed). (b) Initial compositional field of depletion (F) for the hydrous peridotite component.

We consider melting explicitly in our models following Ballmer et al. (2009), assuming that the lithological assemblage
110   consists of 82% depleted peridotite, 15% enriched peridotite (for the aforementioned sum of 97%) and 3% pyroxenite. Peridotite melting is calculated using the parameterization of Katz et al. (2003). We impose an H_2O content of 100 ppm for the background depleted peridotitic component, and 300 ppm for the enriched peridotitic component. The pyroxenite melting law is taken from Pertermann and Hirschmann (2003). Melt flow and extraction occurs on timescales much shorter than convective flow. We therefore assume instantaneous extraction of any melt fractions that exceed the critical porosity (ϕ_c).
115   We use a simplified rheology with a dependence of viscosity on temperature T and pressure P:

$$\log \eta = \log \eta_0 + \frac{E_a + P \cdot V_a}{R \cdot T} - \frac{E_a}{R \cdot T_{ref}} \tag{2}$$

where η is the viscosity, E_a and V_a the activation energy and volume, respectively, T and P are the temperature and pressure, R the ideal gas constant and T_{ref} is the reference (potential) temperature. In this formulation, η_0 is the reference viscosity defined at $T = T_{ref}$ and zero pressure, and hence does not represent the viscosity of the asthenosphere. Our reference activation energy
120   is 200 kJ · mol^{-1}, *i.e.*, lower than the lower limit constrained by deformation experiments (Karato and Wu, 1993; Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1996). We use such reduced values for E_a to account for the effects of stress-dependent viscosity (*e.g.*, due to dislocation creep) in a simplified Newtonian rheology description (Christensen, 1984; van Hunen et al., 2005). We do not

consider the effects of compositional (*e.g.* pyroxenite vs. peridotite, water-dependent) rheology in this work. Our choice of the rheology parameterization causes the true depth-dependency of viscosity to be due to both, E_a and V_a (eq. 2). To make sure

125 that the slope of the viscosity profile along the adiabat remains the same in all cases, We slightly adjust V_a as parameter E_a is varied. Any variations in V_a (see table 1) are only due to this adjustment.

Table 1. Relevant parameters for the models described in this chapter. Values between parenthesis represent the explored parameter space, with the exception of V_a (see section 2 for explanation)

Notation	Parameter	Value(Range)	Unit
T_{ref}	Reference temperature	1350 (1300-1400)	°C
D	Reference thickness	660	km
ρ_{ref}	Reference density	3300	kg·m^{-3}
κ	Thermal diffusivity	$1 \cdot 10^{-6}$	m^2·s^{-1}
g	Gravity acceleration	9.8	m·s^{-2}
α	Thermal expansivity	$3 \cdot 10^{-5}$	K^{-1}
c_P	Heat capacity (constant pressure)	1250	J·kg^{-1}·K^{-1}
η_0	Reference viscosity	$8.61 \cdot 10^{18}$ ($2.87 \cdot 10^{18}$-$1.96 \cdot 10^{19}$)	Pa·s
E_a	Activation energy	200 (120-300)	kJ·mol$^-$1
V_a	Activation volume	$5.00 \cdot 10^{-6}$ ($4.54 \cdot 10^{-6}$-$5.82 \cdot 10^{-6}$)	m^3·mol^{-1}
γ_a	Adiabatic gradient	0.3	K·km^{-1}
H	Internal heating	$7.75 \cdot 10^{-12}$ ($7.75 \cdot 10^{-12}$-$2.33 \cdot 10^{-11}$)	W·kg^{-1}
F	Melt depletion	0-1	-
$\Delta \rho_F$	Density anomaly due to melt depletion	-100	kg·m^{-3}
ϕ_c	Critical porosity	0.01	-
$\Delta \rho_\phi$	density anomaly due to melt retention	-100	kg·m^{-3}
L	Latent heat of melt	$5.6 \cdot 10^5$	J·kg^{-1}
v_{plate}	Plate velocity	0-6	cm·yr^{-1}
τ_c	Age of the continental lithosphere	100(70-300)	Ma
τ_o	Age of the oceanic lithosphere	40(30-50)	Ma
w	Width of the edge	264(132-396)	km

3   Results

3.1   Reference case

Figure 3 shows a typical example of EDC as a series of snapshots for the reference case. The convective pattern initially
130   resembles (figure 3a) the pattern of the idealized case in figure 1, as well as the cases reported by King and Anderson (1998):
there is one major convection cell with a dominant downwelling on the continental side of the edge and upwelling return flow
on the oceanic side. The downwelling is mainly sustained by lateral inflow of sub-lithospheric material from the oceanic side
due to the asymmetry in viscosity structure, but some material from the continental side is also entrained. As a response to
this entrainment, a secondary return-flow upwelling is soon generated on the continental side (figure 3b). The flow patterns,
135   however, promptly change to more complex configurations, with several upwellings and downwellings adjacent to the initial
convection cell. Soon thereafter (at 35~40 Myr), the oceanic lithosphere as a whole becomes thermally unstable triggering
widespread small-scale convection (SSC; figure 3d). At this point, EDC becomes almost undistinguishable from SSC (in our
2D models). Ultimately, SSC also develops beneath the continental lithosphere (~45 Myr, not shown).
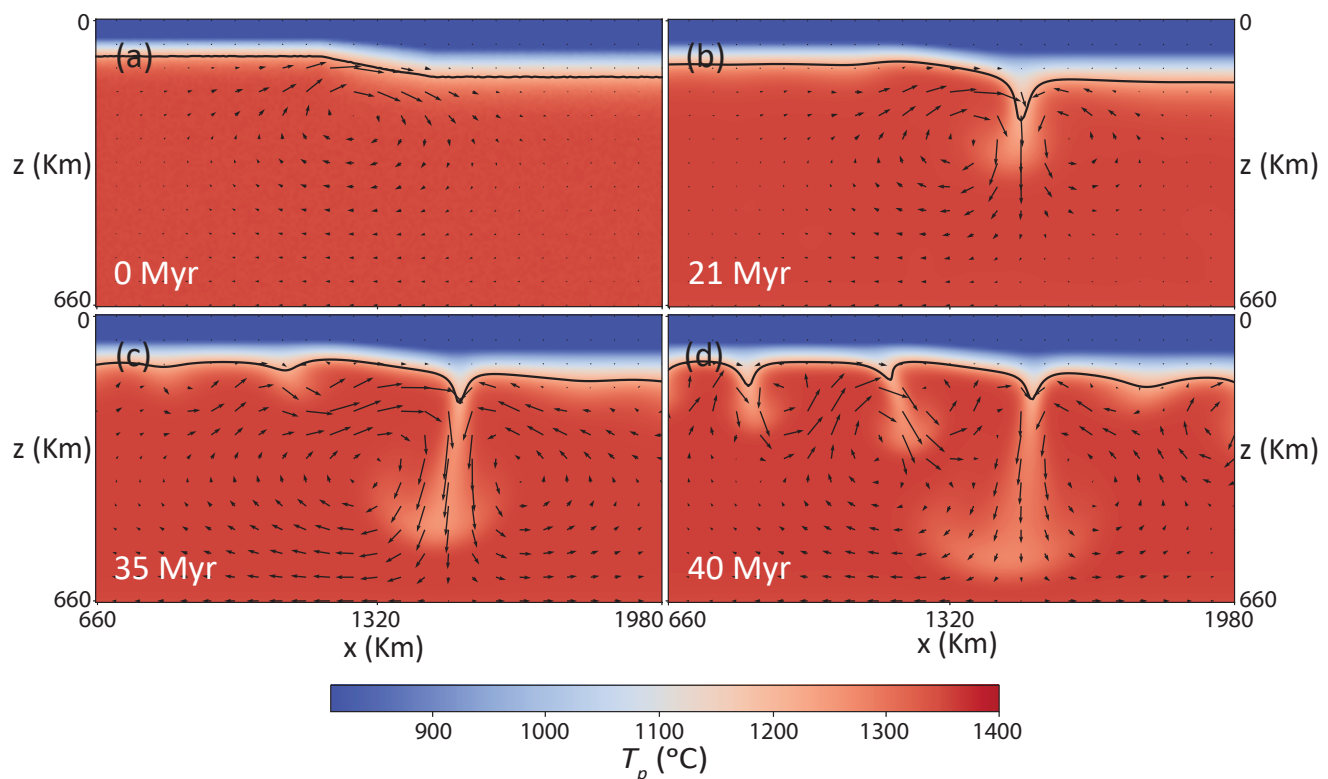
Figure 3. Series of snapshots of potential temperature for the reference case (for parameters, see table 1). In black, the 1215 ·C isotherm
$(0.9{\cdot}T_{ref})$ is shown as a proxy for the base of the lithosphere. No melting is predicted by this model at any timestep.

An important consequence of EDC (and subsequent SSC) is the erosion of the base of the lithosphere (represented by the
140   black contour in figure 3). At 21 Myr (figure 3b), a clear 'bump' (or small cavity; Conrad et al., 2010) appears at the base of the
lithosphere due to the stresses that are imposed by the upwelling, as well as material entrainment by the major downwelling.
Not only is this thermal erosion partly responsible for triggering secondary downwellings and transmitting SSC toward the
oceanic side (figures 3c,d) (*e.g.* Dumoulin et al., 2005), but it is also a requirement for melting. Displacement of at least the
base of the depleted lid is necessary for melting, because the temperatures are below the melting point of the lithosphere at
145   timestep zero. Nonetheless, in this reference model, erosion of the depleted lid remains insufficient to allow mantle melting to
occur throughout model evolution.

3.2   Effects of physical properties of the mantle

To understand the optimal conditions for melting generated by Edge-Driven Convection, we systematically explore several
150   physical properties of the models. We focus on the effects of reference viscosity (η_0), activation energy (E_a) and initial potential
temperature (T_{ref}).

Increasing the reference viscosity (according to eq. 2) tends to delay the onset of convective instability and hamper melting
(figures 4a,b; 5a). Thereby, the duration of EDC (which starts immediately at $t = 0$, albeit with a smaller vigor compared to
the reference case) vs. SSC is enhanced. Figure 4 (b) shows a snapshot of a case with $\eta_0 = 1.95 \cdot 10^{19}$ Pa·s, which displays a
155   similar pattern of convection as the reference case with $\eta_0 = 8.61 \cdot 10^{18}$ Pa·s (figure 3c), but at a much later model time of 82
Myr. Accordingly, the onset of SSC is much later than estimated for a typical ocean basin on Earth (Stein and Stein, 1994;
Doin and Fleitout, 1996), and the lithospheric thickness on the oceanic side of the model is far too thick to potentially allow the
astenosphere to melt. In turn, cases with $\eta_0 \leq 3.83 \cdot 10^{18}$ Pa·s (figures 4c, 5a) display melting during a limited period of time
(*i.e.*, over a few Myr), but based on the (late) timing and (widespread) distribution of melting, most of this melting is associated
160   with SSC rather than with EDC (see figure 4c).

Decreasing activation energy (figures. 4c, 5b) tends to advance and increase the vigor of EDC and SSC. For low E_a, the
viscosity of the base of the lithosphere is decreased, and hence the lithosphere becomes more mobile. For $E_a \leq 140$ kJ·mol^{-1},
the related erosion of the base of the lithosphere is sufficient to permit early and localized EDC-related melting. However, in
these cases, more vigorous melting ultimately occurs across the entire oceanic domain due to SSC. Also, the onset of SSC
165   and related seafloor flattening is < 70 Myr, *i.e.*, earlier than realistic for the Atlantic (Stein and Stein, 1994), although we can
compensate this by choosing a different reference viscosity. In turn, cases with high $E_a \geq 250$ kJ·mol^{-1} display a late onset
of SSC and a stable lithosphere with ultimate thicknesses greater than realistic (figures 4d, 5b).

Regarding convection patterns, the entrainment of sublithospheric material by the dominant downwelling near the edge tends
to be more symmetric for low E_a. This prediction implies that that the activation energy will have an important effect on the
170   final geometry of the oceanic-continental transition. Finally, cooling of the mantle is more efficient for low E_a than for high
E_a, since the base of the lithosphere is more mobile. This effect also occurs for decreasing η_0, but is more pronounced for
decreasing E_a (see isotherms in figure 4a vs. figure 4c).
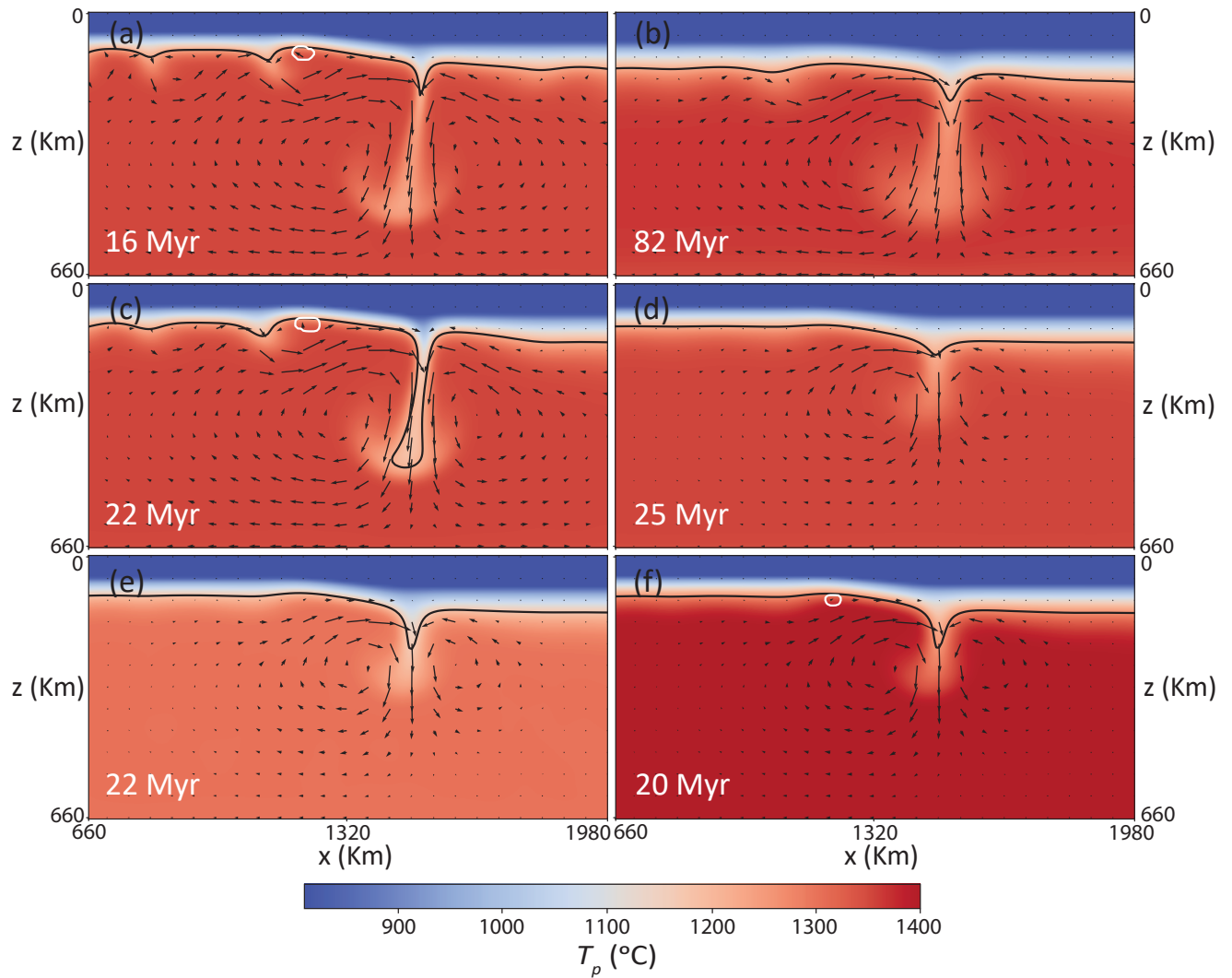
Figure 4. Effects of rheological parameters and reference temperature on Edge-Driven Convection, shown by snapshots of potential temperature of various cases. (a) $\eta_0 = 3.83 \cdot 10^{18}$. (b) $\eta_0 = 1.96 \cdot 10^{19}$. (c) $E_a = 120 \, \text{kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$. (d) $E_a = 300 \, \text{kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$. (e) $T_{ref} = 1300 \, ^{\circ}\text{C}$. (f) $T_{ref} = 1400 \, ^{\circ}\text{C}$. All other parameters as in the reference case. White contours outline areas with active melting. Black contour refers to the isotherm of $T = 1215 \, ^{\circ}\text{C} = 0.9 \cdot T_{ref}$. Note that snapshots are chosen such that they show a similar stage of model evolution as in figure 3b (*i.e.*, mature EDC major downwelling), while model times differ due to the effects of rheological parameters on onset and vigor of EDC/SSC. Note that the reference case (figure 3b,c) corresponds to an intermediate case for the trends shown in any of the rows.
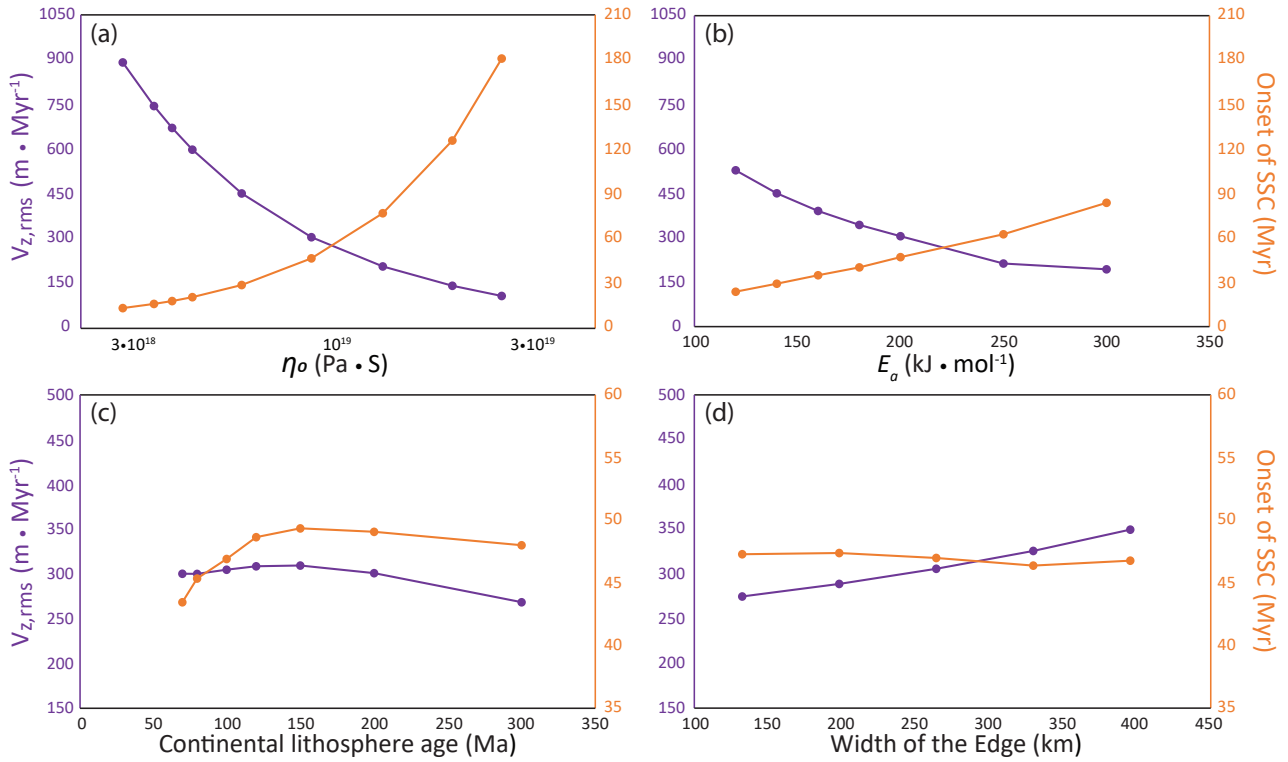
Figure 5. Diagrams showing the sensitivities of $v_{z,rms}$ (root mean square of vertical velocities) and of the onset age of small scale convection (starting from an oceanic crust of age 40 Ma) to selected parameters. (a) Reference viscosity (η_0). (b) Activation Energy (E_a). (c) Age (or thickness) of the continental lithosphere (τ_c). (d) Width in the horizontal direction of the edge (w). Note that the vertical axes of panels (c) and (d) are exaggerated with respect to those of panels (a) and (b).

Increasing T_{ref} tends to advance convective instability and boost magmatism. An increment of potential temperature from 1350 °C to 1400 °C (figure 4e) induces minor melting in the area of maximum erosion of the lithosphere during a limited

175   period of time. This effect is smaller than expected because it is largely compensated by an increase of the thickness of the pre-calculated depleted lithosphere (see section 2), and because the lithosphere still cools via conduction. Increasing the temperature even more may further increase melting, but would also lead to unrealistic crustal thicknesses in the corresponding pre-calculated models. Also note that the peridotite melting parameterization used in this study (Katz et al., 2003) is on the lower end in terms of solidus temperatures (*e.g.* McKenzie and Bickle, 1989; Iwamori et al., 1995; Hirschmann, 2000; Lambart

180   et al., 2016).

Figure 6 presents a summary of the joint effect of η_0 and E_a on EDC-related mantle melting. The melting rate characteristic for EDC (figure 6a) is determined at the first local maximum of root-mean square vertical velocity $v_{z,rms}$, which corresponds to the development of the first major downwelling from near the edge. Determining the exact volume of EDC-related melting remains difficult because melting occurs before and/or after this maximum, and commonly transitions into persistent SSC-

185 related melting. For example, the model with $E_a = 140$ kJ·mol^{-1} (and with reference values of η_0) displays some EDC-related melting just before the onset of SSC, but this melting episode is extremely short-lived and would likely be insufficient to sustain any significant volcanism. Nonetheless, there is a systematic trend between melt volume fluxes that are measured as described above with both parameters. This result suggests that the stability and final thickness of the lithosphere ultimately controls melting due to EDC and, probably, due to SSC. This final thickness (*i.e.*, beneath old ocean basins) is constrained by seismic

190 observations, and seafloor topography (Stein and Stein, 1994; Doin and Fleitout, 1996; van Hunen et al., 2005).
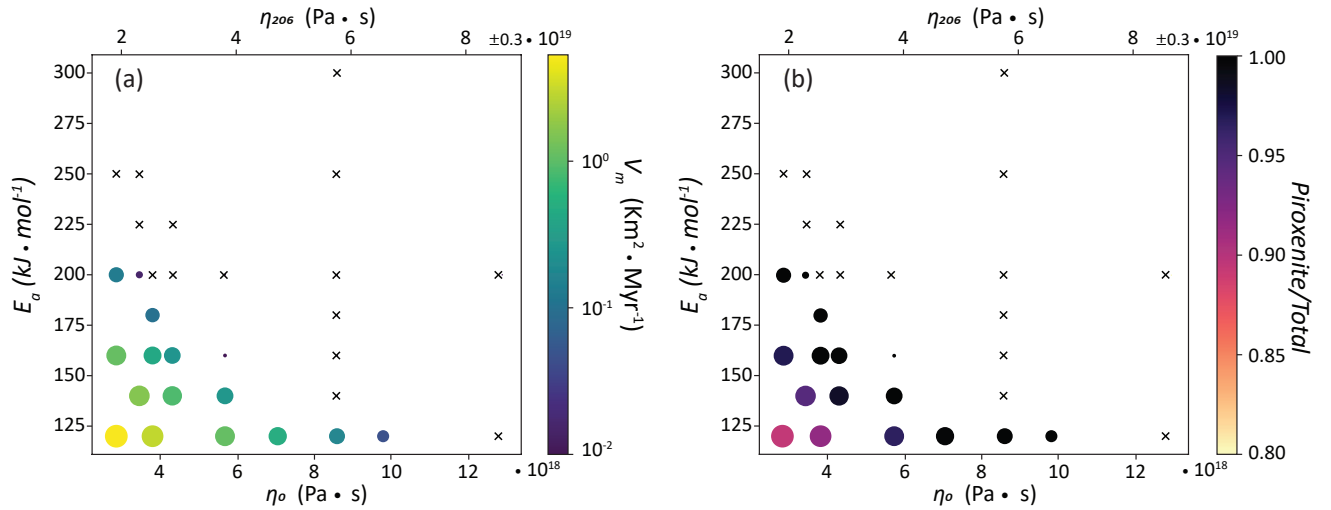
Figure 6. Scatter plots showing the melt properties variation with respect to the referent viscosity (η_0) and activation energy (E_a). The upper axis η_{206} refers to the viscosity in the asthenosphere measured at $z = 206$ km depth on the oceanic side for all cases with $E_a = 200$ kJ·mol^{-1}. For all other cases, this value slighy varies according to (very small) temperature changes related to the half-space cooling model (see eq. 2), but by less than 5 %. (a) Melt volume flux due to EDC (colored circles), measured at the point of maximum EDC-related vertical velocitites (*i.e.*, $v_{z,rms}$). Crosses mark cases in which no melting is detected. The size of the circles also scale with melt volume fluxes. Melt volume fluxes are reported in km^2·Myr^{-1} due to the 2D character of the model (*i.e.* corresponding to km^3·Myr^{-1} per km of plate in the out-of-plane direction). (b) Scatter plot showing the origin of the melting products (*i.e.* proportion of melt derived from pyroxenite vs. total melt; colored circles). Notation of crosses and size of circles as in panel (a). Note that the color scale is set between 0.8 and 1

Figure 6b shows the compositional origin of the melts from figure 6a. In many of the models, only the pyroxenite component melts, if melting occurs at all. This prediction implies the formation of magmas that are extremely enriched. The enrichment tends to slightly decrease with increasing melt flux. The least enriched case is consistent with the highest volume in figure 6a, and corresponds to a model with $E_a = 120$ kJ·mol^{-1} and $\eta_0 = 2.87 \cdot 10^{18}$ Pa·s. Even in this extreme case, the melts are mostly

195   pyroxenite-derived. Although the absolute numbers in figure 6b depend on the choices of our melting parameterizations and lithological assemblage (see section 2), the general trends will be similar as shown in figure 6b unless the pyroxenite component melts at a lower temperature than peridotite (Yaxley and Green, 1998; Shorttle et al., 2014; Lambart et al., 2016).

3.3   Effects of lithospheric-edge geometry

Modification of τ_o within the small range explored here controls the convection patterns of EDC. We explore τ_o only in a
200   small range ($30 \leq \tau_o \leq 50$ Ma) because any smaller τ_o yields melting at time $t = 0$, and any larger τ_o yields a metastable base of the lithosphere (*i.e.*, due to τ_o close to or larger than the onset age of SSC for η_0 in the reference case). With $\tau_o = 30$ Ma, melting appears during the early stages of EDC but quickly ceases (at $t < 10$ Myrs), consistent with the results of the reference case ($\tau_o = 40$ Ma). Reducing or increasing τ_o changes the convection patterns of EDC: decreasing the age (and hence initial thickness) of the oceanic lithosphere tends to promote more asymmetric downwellings. For η_0 as in the reference case,
205   significant EDC-related melting requires $\tau_o \leq 30$ Ma. Widespread SSC (and related melting) is largely independent of τ_o.

Changing the continental thicknesses also modifies the patterns of convection. Figure 77 (a and b) shows that thicker continental lithospheres tend to increase the vigor of EDC, therefore augmenting the volume of related melting. However, this increase only occurs up to some point: for $\tau_c > 150$ Ma (figures 5c and 7b) the pattern of convection changes such that the maximum vertical velocity occurs at significantly greater depths than in the reference case (figure 3). As a result, the character-
210   istic velocities of EDC slow down because the viscosity increases with depth (see eq. 2). The onset of SSC also decreases for $\tau_c > 150$ Ma. Similar to the effects of decreasing τ_o, increasing τ_c enhances the asymmetry of the EDC cell. This asymmetry, in turn, implies that less material from the base of the continental lithosphere, and more material from the base of the oceanic lithosphere is entrained by the EDC downwelling for higher τ_c.

Increasing w increases the $v_{z,rms}$ of EDC, probably due to more material from the lithosphere (thermal boundary layer)
215   entrained in the downwelling(s) (figure 7d). Contrary to the previous cases, changing w does not affect noticeably the onset of SSC, which remains largely constant (figure 5d). These differences between changing τ_o and τ_c, and changing w, suggests that the geometrical effects cannot be simplified to an aspect-ratio-dependent parameter and that all geometrical parameters have a distinct effect.

Finally, we devise a model for the Canary Islands with $w = 528$ km, and a continental thermal age $\tau_c = 350$ Ma (corresponding
220   to a depth of 275 km for the 1215 °C isotherm), similar to the lithospheric thickness maps presented by Jessell et al. (2016, ; and references therein). Results from this model conform with the combined predictions of our cases with a very wide edge and with a very thick continental lithosphere ($v_{z,rms} = 287$ m·Myr^{-1}, and onset of SSC = 48+40 Myr), suggesting that extrapolations from the trends in figure 5c,d are viable for settings outside the range of parameters systematically explored here. Also note that no melting was detected in this case.

225   ### 3.4   Effects of internal heating

We also explore the effects of internal heating on model results. In principle, radioactive heating in the mantle should be much lower than that in the crust, but chemical heterogeneity may locally increase internal heating. We explore cases with increased
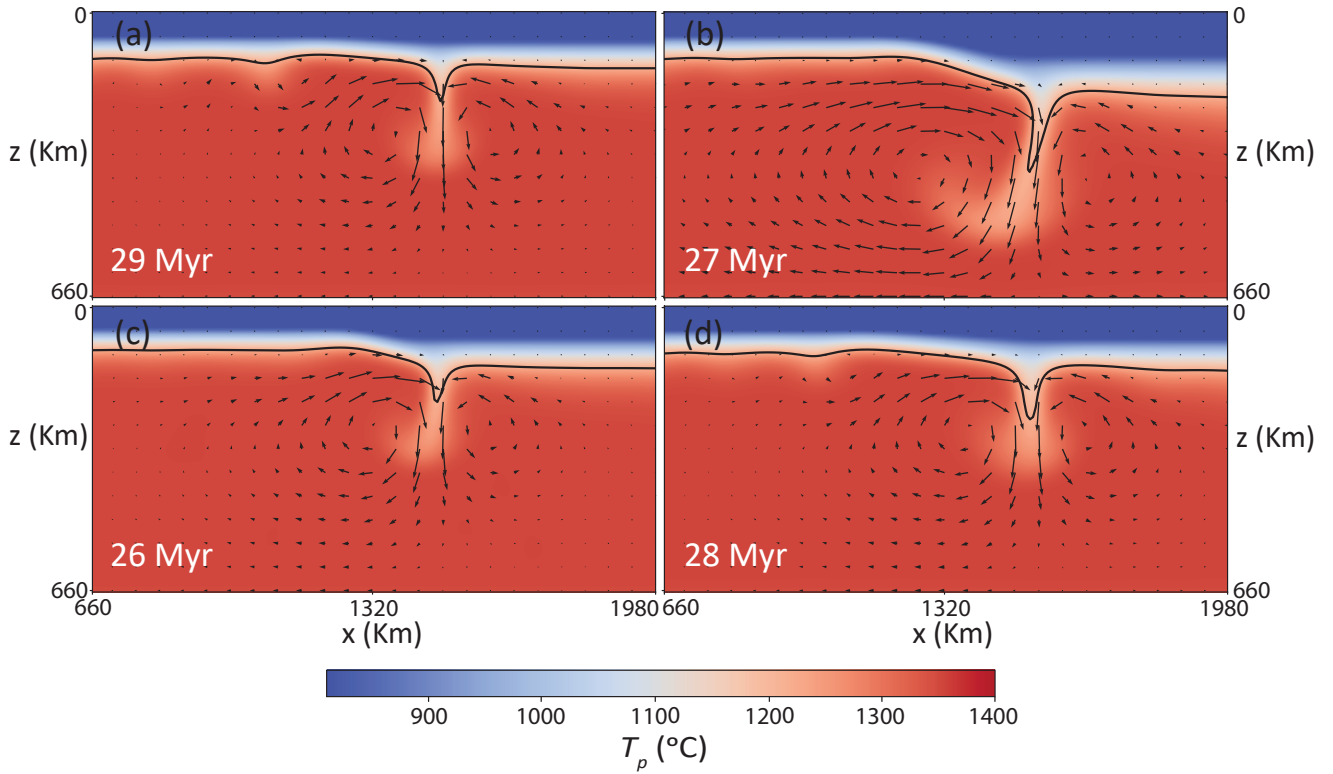
Figure 7. Effects of edge geometry on Edge-Driven Convection, shown by snapshots of potential temperature. (a) τ_c = 70 Ma. (b) τ_c = 150 Ma. (c) w = 132 km. (d) w = 396 km. All other parameters as in the reference case. Note that no melting occurs in any of the models.

internal heating everywhere, and others with increased internal heating just in the continental 'crust' (*i.e.*, yellow area in figure 2 with $F = 1$; as defined in section 2). We find that tripling the radiogenic heat production compared to the reference case

230   everywhere has little influence on the vigor and geometry of EDC. However, it has an important influence on mantle melting, and also advances the onset of SSC which, then, becomes more vigorous than in the reference case (*i.e.*, with increased $v_{z,rms}$).

Increasing internal heating can induce melting, and boost the degrees and rates of melting, by limiting asthenospheric cooling. For example, as the mantle internal heating rate is unrealistically tripled in a model with activation energy $E_a = 160$ kJ·mol^{-1}, there is an increase in volcanism equivalent to reducing the E_a from 160 to 140 kJ·mol^{-1}, or to reducing η_0 from

235    $8.61 \cdot 10^{18}$ to $5.68 \cdot 10^{18}$ Pa·s.

In nature, heat-producing elements tend to be concentrated in the continental crust due to their incompatible nature with respect to the mantle. We run an additional set of models with increased internal heating only in the continental crust H_c. Increasing the internal heating to $H_c = 5 \cdot H$ does not have any apparent effects on melting, nor it does affect the convection patters or $v_{z,rms}$. For $H_c = 10 \cdot H$, the average $v_{z,rms}$ is increased, but no substantial changes in terms of convection patterns

240   are detected. Only for $H_c \geq 50 \cdot H$, significant changes occur compared to the reference case, with progressive lithospheric

thinning on the continental side due to the effects of radioactive heating on the viscosity. At $H_c = 100 \cdot H$, melting occurs in the lower crust (followed by melting in the eroded continental lithosphere). In any case, $H_c \geq 50 \cdot H = 3.875 \cdot 10^{-10}$ W·kg are unrealistic as an average value for the whole crustal thickness (Turcotte and Schubert, 2014).

3.5 Effects of volatile contents

245 Fluids released from the transition zone or other volatile-rich heterogeneities entrained by upper-mantle convection may also play an important role for intraplate volcanism, because they can greatly decrease melting temperatures. Unfortunately, dealing with amounts of water in a rock greater than the ones presented above remains a challenge for modeling (Green, 2015). We increase the water content in the enriched peridotitic component (EC) to 1000 ppm (0.1 %) in some models. In others, we also increase the abundance of EC (for 15 % to 25 %). However, we emphasize that we are limited by the melting parameterization

250 applied here (Katz et al., 2003), and hence are unable to explicitly model compositions that bear hydrous phases or other volatiles such as CO_2. In other words, H_2O concentrations in these additional models is a qualitative proxy for bulk volatiles in terms of their effects on melting behavior.

We find that for sufficiently large contents of H_2O in EC, EC melting starts to occur for the reference setting. The solidus of hydrous peridotite for 1000 ppm H_2O is below that of pyroxenite. In previous cases, pyroxenite was the main source (or even

255 the sole one) of mantle melting. In this case the composition of magmas/melts is different than in previous cases and mostly peridotite-derived. In cases with high water contents in EC, melting is usually widespread, occurring due to EDC and SSC. Nonetheless, the amount of melting is very limited because of the low productivity of melting at low F in hydrous peridotite (Hirschmann et al., 1999; Katz et al., 2003; Asimow et al., 2004); and note that this productivity is much lower than that of the pyroxenite used here (Pertermann and Hirschmann, 2003). For example, the peak melt production in a case with 1000 ppm

260 H2O in EC and a content of 25 % EC in the mantle assemblage is two orders of magnitude lower than that of the case with activation energy $E_a = 120$ kJ·mol^{-1} and $\eta_0 = 2.87 \cdot 10^{18}$ (*i.e.*, the case with maximum melt flux in figure 6).

3.6 Effects of plate motion

Another potentially important effect involves upper-mantle shear imposed by plate motion. All models presented above are stationary, *i.e.*, with $v_{plate} = 0$ cm·yr^{-1}, but on Earth plates move at finite speeds. Hence, we run additional models with an

265 imposed plate velocity of 2, 4 and 6 cm·yr^{-1} in both directions perpendicular to the edge. Related shearing of the asthenosphere may contribute to melt production near the continent-ocean transition for plate motions in the direction of the continent (and hence opposite directions of mantle shear) due to shear-driven upwelling (King and Anderson, 1995, 1998; Conrad et al., 2010; Till et al., 2010). We find however that no melting is generated for plate velocities ≤ 6 cm·yr^{-1}, in models with a setting that otherwise conforms to the reference case.

4 Discussion

To explore the potential of EDC in terms of sustaining mantle melting and intraplate oceanic volcanism, we run a series of 2D convection models in a systematic parameter study. One robust result of our models involves the transient nature of EDC, with an evolving flow pattern and vigor. In all cases, EDC is followed by SSC, and EDC alone (*i.e.*, before the onset of widespread SSC) is never associated with high degrees or large volumes of mantle melting. In most models, EDC-related melting does not occur at all and, when it does, it is often short-lived and almost invariably followed by widespread melting due to SSC (except for the cases of T_{ref} = 1400 °C and τ_o = 30 Ma).

In all models in which melting due to EDC occurs, it happens soon after the beginning of the model and for only a short timespan. Keep in mind that EDC occurs mostly because the initial conditions of our models are metastable, and in reality should have started significantly earlier than time $t = 0$ Myr in our models, *e.g.*, immediately following rifting (van Wijk et al., 2010). Thus, any significant magmatism due to EDC beneath mature oceanic lithosphere is not realistic. On old lithosphere, if any melting occurs, it should occur widespread (due to SSC) and not localized (due to EDC). Pushing mantle properties to values that are more favorable for EDC-related melting invariably advances the onset of SSC (figure 5), therefore constraining even more the timing of purely EDC-related melting.

Although overall consistent (compare figure 6a with figure 6a of Kaislaniemi and Van Hunen, 2014), many of mour results may strike as surprising when compared to previous work. In particular, our main conclusion of little-to-no melting due to EDC is in contrast to King and Anderson (1995, 1998), Till et al. (2010) and, to a smaller extent, Kaislaniemi and Van Hunen (2014). To my knowledge, no other work has self-consistently calculated the initial oceanic lithosphere depletion profile, and the initial condition indeed has a big influence on melting in these models, mostly due to the very transient nature of EDC. Indeed, a step-like edge can promote at least short-lived vigorous EDC and melting, but may not be realistic. This is not necessarily a criticism of previous work - for example, Kaislaniemi and Van Hunen (2014) deal with a tecton-craton transition in a continental setting - but rather a cautionary tale for future work regarding melting in the oceanic domain.

Kaislaniemi and Van Hunen (2014) suggested that increased radiogenic heating may maintain otherwise transient EDC-related melting, and that this increased radiogenic heating may cause hotter temperatures beneath the continents as well. My results suggest that increased internal heating can indeed have a significant effect on melting, because it elevates temperatures such that they exceed those for which the initial mid-ocean ridge depletion profile was calculated on the oceanic side (but note that in this case, the relevant origin of melting is not EDC anymore). Also, we find that strong enrichments of internal heat sources are required to have a significant effect on EDC-related melting. Although a local enrichment of radiogenic elements, or a blanketing effect by a continent, is possible, Jain et al. (2019) showed recently that there is an inverse relation between increased radiogenic heating and the ability of continents to "heat" the mantle below by isolation.

Till et al. (2010) were the first to systematically explore the effect of edge geometry in EDC flow. Their model setting was, however, different than ours, because they imposed a rheological stabilization of the craton and they focused on a setting with intense mantle wind. Under those conditions, mantle flow and melting change significantly because of shear-driven upwelling

and decompression melting. My results overall agree with their study, nonetheless, except for predicting much lower melting volumes.

305   As demonstrated by our high-temperature models, EDC may (temporarily) sustain higher volume fluxes of melting, if hot materials are brought to the oceanic-continental transition for any reason. Such hot materials may be transported to the base of the lithosphere mainly by two processes: global mantle wind (*e.g.*, Behn et al., 2004; Conrad et al., 2011) or mantle plumes (for detailed investigation, see companion paper). Alternatively, the entrainment of hydrous or enriched materials by EDC may sustain moderate volcanism locally. For example, hydrous upwellings from the transition zone may be conveyed by EDC or

310 SSC to the base of the lithosphere (Long et al., 2019). In this case, the underlying origin of mantle melting in the first place are the hydrous upwellings, and not EDC, even though the latter may ultimately control the geographic distribution of volcanism.

    In any case, degrees of melting and related volume fluxes predicted by our models are unable to account for the high eruptions rates of the Canary Islands or Cape Verde (Hoernle and Schmincke, 1993; Carracedo et al., 1998; Plesner et al., 2003), even for a slow moving plate. We consider the case with greatest melt fluxes in figure 6a (E_a = 120 kJ·mol^{-1}; η_0 = 2.87·10^{18}): all

315 magmas produced in the mantle before the onset of SSC-related melting will result in a 2D edifice of only 2.55 km height, assuming the most favorable conditions (no melt retention in the mantle, and complete extrusion to the surface) and an edifice slope of 18 degrees (Smith, 1988). This height is insufficient to explain emerged islands in the Canary archipelago, since the seafloor is > 3 km below sea level. If we assume that 3D effects will focus melts into conical edifices with an spacing in the 3rd dimension of 50 km (consistent with the separation of the islands La Palma and El Hierro), the height of the edifices would be

320 4.66 km above the sea floor, compatible with the height of small islands, such as El Hierro, but inadequate to explain the height of islands such as La Palma or Tenerife. These calculations demonstrate that not even this extreme case, with parameters that are marginally realistic for the Earth's mantle (E_a = 120 kJ·mol^{-1}; η_0 = 2.87·10^{18}), and considering favorable assumptions, can reproduce the volumes of major (subaerial) volcano chains such as the Canary Islands (or Cape Verde).

    In addition, the short lifespan of EDC-related melting in models with low τ_o suggests that any related volcanism should

325 occur on seafloor much younger than that underlying the Canaries or Cape Verde. Besides, no widespread magmatism such as due to SSC is observed in the vicinity of any of these archipelagos. Also, strictly-speaking, EDC melting is expected to sustain volcanism in an elongated zone that is parallel to the cratonic margin, and not localized like a hotspot. On the basis of the results of the models here presented, we draw the conclusion that Edge-Driven Convection alone is insufficient to sustain island-building volcanism near the African margin.

330 Furthermore, our models predict that EDC-related lavas invariable originate from mantle melting of enriched lithologies such as pyroxenite (figure 6b). While volcanic compositions in the shield building stage of the Canaries are slightly more enriched than their Hawaiian counterparts (Abdel-Monem et al., 1971, 1972; Carracedo, 1999), they are not consistent with mostly pyroxenite-derived primary magmas. The models in which hydrous peridotite melts first - *i.e.*, the hydrous models - present even lower productivities and melting volumes. Geochemically speaking, we cannot favor and EDC origin for the main

335 shield-building stage of the Canary or Cape Verde archipelagos either.

    Nonetheless, there are some enriched volcanic compositions in the Eastern Atlantic, for example, the outcrops of carbonatites in the two archipelagos mentioned above (Allegre et al., 1971; Hoernle et al., 2002; Doucelance et al., 2010). Moreover, data

about fluid inclusions in recent work suggests that current eruptions are among the most CO_2-rich for ocean islands (Taracsák et al., 2019, ; Esteban Gazel, Cornell University, personal communication, 2018). Although it has been suggested that a high

340   amount of CO_2 in the source is not required to explain the magmatic signatures of these islands (Schmidt and Weidendorfer, 2018), the influence of CO_2 on melting should not be ignored. Unfortunately, no efficient parameterization includes the effects of CO_2 on melting in the mantle in a way that we could incorporate it in our models. And the high water models of section 3.5 are only a proxy for what could happen.

While an alternative origin (such as a thermal anomaly) is required for the volcanic archipelagos, this does not imply that

345   EDC does not happen near the western African margin. EDC occurs in all of my models and must occur along every continental margin on Earth. Patriat and Labails (2006) found a "bulge" in the basement of the ocean-continent transition between the Canary Islands and Cape Verde. The location of this topographic anomaly coincides with the position of the main upwelling in our models (*i.e.*, at similar distances from the margin as predicted here). In turn, this "bulge" does not coincide with the inferred position of the Canary or Cape Verde hotspots.

350   In addition, Van Den Bogaard (2013) describes the formation of seamounts near the current position of, but significantly preceding, the Canary hotspot (Geldmacher et al., 2005). The timing and location of these seamounts is consistent with EDC-related melting beneath oceanic seafloor younger than 60 Ma, such as predicted by my models (for example, the Bisabuelas seamount erupted 142 Ma ago in a much younger African Plate). Given my model results, the geochemical signatures of these seamounts can be used as a test for their origin. We demonstrate that any EDC-related melting robustly implies strong

355   geochemical enrichment.

One of the main conclusions of this study is the occurrence of EDC in absolutely all models run here, at least for a short duration. This is an intuitive result, as mantle convection is driven by lateral density differences. Even for a lithosphere that is intrinsically buoyant due to chemical anomalies, the thermal boundary layer will grow to the point where EDC starts (Lee et al., 2005). It is very likely that EDC starts as soon as rifting indents the lithosphere, resulting in an increased magmatism

360   and erosion (King and Anderson, 1995; Sleep, 2007).

Gerya et al. (2015) suggested that several processes during the history of the lithosphere may weaken it sufficiently to overcome the resistance to subduction initiation. In this sense, EDC-related low degree magmatism, although insufficient to generate archipelagos, may help to decrease the strength of the lithosphere in the continental-oceanic transition. This weakening could help to localize subduction zones along continental margins. The stresses related to EDC and SSC may further contribute

365   to break plates (Solomatov, 2004; Mulyukova and Bercovici, 2018). We show that EDC can thermally erode and indent the lithosphere locally, and that melting will occur just below this indentation. Future work should focus on the role of EDC in subduction initiation.

Concerning limitations, my models are intentionally simplified, because I attempt to explore the systematic effects of rheological and geometrical parameters on Edge-Driven Convection and melting. We did not take into account effects like

370   composition-dependent rheology or a rheologically stabilized craton. However, as the depleted and dehydrated lithosphere is expected to be more viscous than modeled here, our predicted velocities of EDC can be understood as upper bounds. Moreover, we show that erosion of the lithosphere is a prerequisite for EDC-related melting, and considering the effect of depletion

stiffening will only reduce the degrees of melting and related volumes discussed in section 3. Lee et al. (2005) showed the importance of composition-dependent rheology for stabilizing cratons, and the influence of these variables on EDC needs to

375 be better constrained. On the other hand, Currie and van Wijk (2016) showed that EDC and craton stability are intimately associated, and that the influence of EDC on craton formation and stability is poorly understood.

Finally, 3D models of EDC may present small differences with their 2D counterparts (Kaislaniemi and Van Hunen, 2014). We expect these discrepancies to be small, however, in particular for models with small plate velocities. For large plate velocities, the preferred geometry of SSC (longitudinal rolls; Richter and Parsons, 1975) is different than that prescribed in 2D models,

380 and hence the onset age of SSC may be further advanced. In this sense, again, our model setup is conservative. Test models indeed confirm that key model predictions remain robust in 3D geometry.

5   Conclusions

In this paper, we study the formation of mantle melting and oceanic intraplate volcanism due to Edge-Driven Convection (EDC). As a complex, transient phenomenon, EDC is strongly affected by mantle rheological properties and the geometry of

385 the base of the lithosphere. The following points summarize the key findings of this paper:

- For a wide range of parameters, EDC is insufficient to sustain mantle melting at all. Only for a subset of the parameter space, EDC can sustain magmatism. However, even for these models (*e.g.* low E_a and/or η_0), EDC-related magmatism can only build small seamounts with very enriched geochemistry on young oceanic crust (*e.g.* the Cretaceous-to-Paleogene Canary islands seamount province, Van Den Bogaard, 2013).

390 - In turn, EDC is by far insufficient to sustain voluminous island-building volcanism, particularly on old seafloor (such as the Canaries or Cape Verde). On old seafloor, volcanism occurs widespread due to SSC, and not localized due to EDC (if it occurs at all).

- Although EDC melting is not very vigorous, mantle flow due to EDC occurs with any combination of physical parameters realistic for the Earth, albeit it remains a transient phenomenon. we predict that EDC should occur everywhere on Earth

395 where lateral density variations exist in the lithosphere, but is soon joined by widespread SSC.

- Increased mantle temperatures or water contents can modify the vigor of convection and the amount of melting, but future work is needed to quantify the conditions under which such thermal/compositional anomalies can be sustained continuously in order to reproduce the large volumes of volcanism observed at the Eastern Atlantic Archipelagos.

A companion study [citation] deals with the possible interaction between mantle plumes and Edge-Driven Convection.

400 *Code and data availability.*   The complete code and data used in this work are available upon request

Author contributions. AMC performed the numerical experiments, as well as post-processed, analyzed and plotted the data. Both authors devised the study, interpreted the results, and wrote the paper.

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