Petrologic and Microstructural Constraints on Focused Melt Transport in Dunite and the Rheology of the Shallow Mantle

by<br>Michael Geoffrey Braun<br>(Sc.B. Brown University, 1996)

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
at the
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and the
Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution
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#### Abstract

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#### Abstract

Thesis

Observations at mid-ocean ridges indicate that magmas are focused to the ridge axis by a network of porous dunites in near chemical isolation. This thesis investigates several of the outstanding questions regarding the mechanisms of melt transport and its effects on the shallow mantle. Chapter 1 details the current understanding of melt migration from observations at mid-ocean ridges and ophiolites. Chapter 2 uses the size distribution and abundance of dunites measured in the Oman ophiolite to place limits on the potential mechanisms by which dunites form and subsequently estimate the flux of chemically unequilibrated melt which a network of dunites can supply. Chapter 3 characterizes the chemical composition of dunites and harzburgites from Oman to further constrain the process by which dunites form and relates the observed trends within dunites to variations in the time-integrated melt/rock ratio. Chapter 4 examines the microstructures of peridotites in Oman to constrain the deformation mechanisms which determine the viscosity of shallow mantle. Chapter 5 is a numerical investigation of advection beneath ridges incorporating the rheology inferred from the observed microstructures. Chapter 6 integrates the conclusions of the previous chapters, reevaluating the potential melt flux through dunites and constraining the permeability of the shallow mantle.


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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Figures ..... 10
List of Tables ..... 14
Chapter 1 - Introduction
Introduction ..... 15
Bibliography ..... 21
Chapter 2 - Dunite distribution in the Oman ophiolite: Implications for MELT FLUX THROUGH POROUS DUNITE CONDUITS
Abstract ..... 24
Introduction ..... 25
Observations and Results

1. General Field Relations ..... 28
2. Photomosaics and Image Processing ..... 29
3. Statistical Analysis ..... 32
Discussion
4. Extrapolation to the Melting Region ..... 38
5. Mechanisms of Dunite Formation ..... 39
6. Dunites as Diffusive Reaction Zones ..... 40
7. Dunites as Merging Reaction Zones ..... 42
8. Dunites as Porous Conduits ..... 44
Conclusions ..... 51
Acknowledgements ..... 53
Bibliography ..... 53
Chapter 3 -Dunites as conduits for primitive melt transport: Implications of the geochemistry of Oman peridotites
Abstract ..... 57
Introduction ..... 58
Methods ..... 60
Results
9. Peridotite Composition ..... 62
10. Dunite/Harzburgite Contacts ..... 64
11. Compositional Variation with Dunite Width ..... 66
Discussion ..... 78
12. Dunite Nucleation Around Hydrofractures ..... 79
13. Dunite Nucleation by Reactive Porous Flow ..... 80
14. Variable Magma Composition ..... 81
15. Reaction with a Primitive Liquid ..... 84
16. Mass Balance in a Network of Dunites ..... 94
Conclusions ..... 95
Acknowledgements ..... 96
Bibliography ..... 96
Appendix A ..... 101
Appendix B ..... 107
Chapter 4 - Microstructural evolution of naturally deformed
PERIDOTITES: GRAIN BOUNDARY SLIDING AND THE STRENGTH OF THE SHALLOW MANTLE
Abstract ..... 135
Introduction ..... 136
Microstructural Analysis ..... 147
Results
17. Texture and Grain Size ..... 140
18. Deformation Microstructures ..... 143
19. Magnitude and Orientation of Shear ..... 147
Discussion
20. Relating Deformation Mechanism and LPO ..... 149
21. Effects of Melt Generation and Transport on Grain Size ..... 155
22. Viscosity Variations in Naturally-Deformed Peridotites ..... 159
Conclusions ..... 162
Bibliography ..... 163
CHAPTER 5 - THE EFFECTS OF DEEP DAMP MELTING ON MANTLE FLOW AND MELT GENERATION BENEATH MID-OCEAN RIDGES
Abstract ..... 167
Introduction ..... 168
Model Formulation
23. Governing Equations ..... 169
24. Model Configuration ..... 170
25. Melting and Rheology ..... 171
26. Crustal Production ..... 176
27. Quantification of Buoyant Flow ..... 177
Results
28. Passive Solution ..... 177
29. Base Rheology ..... 178
30. Melt-Only ..... 178
31. Dehydration-Only ..... 180
32. Dehydration and Melt ..... 180
33. Composite Rheology-Only ..... 182
34. Variation with Spreading Rate ..... 183
Discussion
35. Crustal Thickness Variation ..... 184
36. Interpretation of Seismic Data ..... 184
37. Geochemistry of MORB ..... 186
38. Mantle Flow and Melt Migration ..... 187
Conclusions ..... 187
Acknowledgements ..... 188
Bibliography ..... 188
Chapter 6 - Implications of chemical and microstructural variations in dunite conduits on the permeability and melt flux beneath mid- OCEAN RIDGES
Introduction ..... 192
Permeability and the Melt Flux in a Dunite Network
39. Constraints on Dunite Permeability ..... 197
40. Network Permeability Models ..... 200
41. Uncertainties in Dunite Grain Size and Abundance ..... 205
42. Independent Flux Constraints ..... 207
Conclusions ..... 209
Bibliography ..... 209

## TABLE OF FIGURES

## Chapter 2 - Dunite Distribution in the Oman Ophiolite: Implications for Melt Flux Through Porous Dunite Conduits

## Figure 1. Pressures of equilibration of MORB glasses as inferred 26 from pseudo-ternary phase diagrams projected from a) plagioclase and b) clinopyroxene [after Elthon, 1983]

Figure 2. a) Composite 1-D lithologic section of peridotite in Wadi Lufti, 30
Oman. b) Power-law relationship between dunite width and frequency
Figure 3. Outcrop mosaics from Wadi Lufti, Oman
(a) Outcrop \#10
(b) Outcrop \#18

Figure 4. Photomosaic of dunites behind a mosque in Mutrah 31
Figure 5. Photomosaic of a mountainside in the Muscat Massif 33
Figure 6. Aerial map of dunites from the Muscat - Mutrah region 34
Figure 7. Idealized scale-invariant power-law distribution 35
Figure 8. Width distribution data from dunites in the mantle section 37 of the Oman ophiolite

Figure 9. Extrapolation for dunite abundance to larger length scales 39
Figure 10. Three hypotheses for replacive dunite formation in the shallow 40 mantle

Figure 11. Width of dunite reaction zones around melt filled 42 hydrofractures as a function of spreading rate
Figure 12. Forward model of merging reaction zones around melt filled hydrofractures

Figure 13. Relationship between flux and number of channels for a system47 of binary merging conduits for different initial flux distributions
Figure 14. Calculated melt flux through a porous dunite network as a function of porosity

Figure 15. Calculated melt flux through a porous dunite network in which all dunites have a single porosity
Figure 16. Schematic illustration of a coalescing dunite network beneath an 52 oceanic spreading center based on observations in Oman

## Chapter 3 - Dunites as Conduits for Primitive Melt Transport: Implications of the Geochemistry of Oman Peridotites

Figure 1. Sample location map of Samail and Wadi Tayin massifs 61
Figure 2. Major element composition of spinel from dunites and harzburgites

Figure 3. Major and minor element covariations in olivines and spinels 65
Figure 4. Profiles of olivine $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ across $50,25,3$, and 0.07 m wide dunites 67
Figure 5. Profiles of $\mathrm{NiO}(\mathrm{wt} \%)$ in olivine across $50,25,3$, and $0.07 \mathrm{~m} \quad 68$ wide dunites
Figure 6. Profiles of $\mathrm{CaO}(\mathrm{wt} \%)$ in olivine across $50,25,3$, and $0.07 \mathrm{~m} \quad 69$ wide dunites

Figure 7. Profiles of spinel Cr\# in spinel across $50,25,3$, and 0.07 m wide dunites

Figure 8. Profiles of $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}(\mathrm{wt} \%)$ in spinel across $50,25,3$, and 0.07 m wide dunites
Figure 9. Variation in olivine and spinel composition with dunite width 72
Figure 10. Composition of dikes and lavas from the Samail and Wadi Tayin 74 massifs

Figure 11. $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ partitioning as a function of spinel $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ between spinel and basaltic melt

Figure 12. REE concentrations in lavas ( $\mathrm{Mg} \#>60$ ) and dunite hosted clinopyroxenes
Figure 13. Partitioning of Cr and Al between natural spinels and their basaltic host lavas
Figure 14. Dunite compositions in equilibrium with mixtures of UDM and primitive melt
Figure 15. Variation in olivine $\mathrm{Mg} \#, \mathrm{NiO}$, and $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ as a function of melt/rock ratio

Figure 16. Calibration and performance of a preliminary olivine-opx 90 thermometer
Figure 17. Olivine and orthopyroxene Mg \#s following Fe-Mg repartitioning 91 at $1300^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$
Figure 18. Model results for the evolution of the peridotite composition with 93 increasing melt/rock interaction
Chapter 4 - Microstructural Evolution of Naturally-Deformed
Peridotites: Grain Boundary Sliding and the Strength of the Shallow Mantle
Figure 1. Orientations of dunite/harzburgite contacts and spinel lineations ..... 138 in Wadi Lufti
Figure 2. Optical micrographs and grain boundary images of representative ..... 141 samples
Figure 3. Grain size distribution statistics measured in Oman peridotites ..... 142
Figure 4. Lattice preferred orientation of olivine and orthopyroxene ..... 144 in harzburgite.
Figure 5. Olivine lattice preferred orientations in dunites ..... 145
Figure 6. Variation in LPO for populations of different grain sizes ..... 146
Figure 7. Variation in $K$ and $J$ indices with dunite width ..... 147
Figure 8. Rose diagram indicating the orientation distribution of crystal ..... 147 shapes
Figure 9. Constitutive laws for olivine slip systems extrapolated to upper ..... 152 mantle conditions
Figure 10. Deformation mechanism map for dry olivine at $1200^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ..... 157
Figure 11. Predictions for grain size evolution at $1200^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ..... 158
Chapter 5 - The Effects of Deep Damp Melting on Mantle Flow and Melt Generation Beneath Mid-Ocean Ridges
Figure 1. Schematic melt production and mantle depletion profiles beneath ..... 173a ridge axis
Figure 2. Effects of melting on normalized viscosity versus depth profiles ..... 176
Figure 3. Model results for temperature- and pressure-dependent viscosity ..... 179
a) passive flowb) base modelc) effects of melt
Figure 4. Models including the effects of dehydration beneath the ridge axis 181
a) reference viscosity
b) low viscosityc) transition to grain boundary sliding
Figure 5. Variation with spreading rate of models with a rheology including ..... 183the effects of dehydration, melt, and grain boundary sliding

Figure 6. Variation in geophysical and geochemical parameters with changes 185 in spreading rate
a) Variation in crustal thickness with spreading rate for various models
b) Effects of melt productivity on the variation in crustal thickness
c) Buoyancy index as a function of spreading rate
d) Percentage of melt generated in the presence of garnet

## Chapter 6 - Implications of Chemical and Microstructural Variations in Dunite Conduits on the Permeability and Melt Flux Beneath MidOcean Ridges

Figure 1. Grain boundary images of representative thin sections before ..... 194
and after "correction" for low temperature dynamic recrystallization
Figure 2. Statistical measures of increase in grain size with increasing ..... 196
dunite width
Figure 3. Percentage of dunite in outcrop as a function of 'intercept' ..... 199 value, $a$, in the power-law size/frequency distribution
Figure 4. Total flux as a function of porosity through an interconnected ..... 203
network of dunites
Figure 5. Permeability and melt velocity for four flux models ..... 204
Figure 6. Predicted melt flux given variations in grain size and ..... 207 dunite abundance

## TABLE OF TABLES

## Chapter 2 - Dunite Distribution in the Oman Ophiolite: Implications for Melt Flux Through Porous Dunite Conduits

Table 1. Fit parameters and dunite abundance derived from dunite images 36

## Chapter 3 - Dunites as Conduits for Primitive Melt Transport: Implications of the Geochemistry of Oman Peridotites

Table 1. Oman dike and lava compositions ..... 104-105
Table 2. Initial compositions of solid phases and melts used in mass ..... 106balance calculations
Table 3. Initial compositions of solid phases and melts for mass ..... 106 balance calculations
Table B1. Olivine compositions ..... 107-120
Table B2. Spinel compositions ..... 121-131
Table B3. Orthopyroxene compositions ..... 132-133
Table B4. Clinopyroxene compositions ..... 134
Chapter 4 - Microstructural evolution of naturally deformedPERIDOTITES: GRAIN BOUNDARY SLIDING AND THE STRENGTH OF THE SHALLOWMANTLE
Table 1. Compiled grain size and LPO statistics for each lithologic suite ..... 112
Chapter 7 - Melt Migration in Plume-Ridge Systems
Table 1. Description of model parameters and values ..... 183

## Chapter 1

## Introduction

Our understanding of the dynamics of the upper mantle and the chemical evolution of the earth have been strongly influenced by the study of mid-ocean ridge basalts. Extraction of mid-ocean ridge basalts from the mantle has been a classical problem in igneous petrology and, more recently, magma dynamics. Some aspects of this problem are reasonably well understood. A mantle lherzolite source undergoes polybaric decompression melting, beginning at pressures greater than 2 GPa , with an average fraction of melting between $\sim 5$ and $10 \%$ and a maximum melt fraction (in the shallowest residues) of 15 to $20 \%$. Melting and melt extraction processes produce an aggregate melt with the composition of olivine tholeiite. Because this overall picture is relatively simple, it is currently tractable to characterize the physical processes of melting, melt extraction, and transport from source to surface.

Much of what is known about the process of melt extraction from the mantle beneath oceanic spreading centers is inferred solely from the compositions of the lavas erupted at the surface. However, these lavas have undergone an uncertain amount of crystal fractionation, mixing, and/or assimilation on their way to the surface, which can obscure much of the melt extraction process. In contrast, ophiolitic peridotite exposures offer an unparalleled opportunity to examine the melt pathway itself. This work characterizes the structure and composition of mantle dunites in the Oman ophiolite in order to determine the process by which polybaric partial melts of the mantle are transported from their source, without equilibrating with the shallower mantle, and what influence this process has on the strength of the mantle.

The tectonic setting of the Oman ophiolite is debated [Pearce et al., 1981] and some aspects of the lava composition - at least in the northern part of the ophiolite - are different from "normal" mid-ocean ridge basalt (MORB). However, a continuous layer of sheeted dikes underlying pillow lavas throughout most of the ophiolite indicates that the igneous crust formed at an oceanic spreading center. Furthermore, the composition of the lavas in the southern ophiolite massifs is very similar to MORB [Pallister and Hopson, 1981; Pallister and Knight, 1981], so that it is likely that the processes that formed the crust were analogous to those beneath mid-ocean ridges. The spreading rate during formation of the igneous crust in Oman is not known, but is estimated to be greater than $\sim 50 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{yr}$ because
the ophiolite crust has a nearly continuous gabbroic layer [Nicolas and Boudier, 1995; Nicolas et al., 2000], whereas mid-ocean ridges with spreading rates less than $\sim 50 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{yr}$ have extensive exposures of peridotite on the seafloor, especially near fracture zones [Cannat et al., 1996; Dick, 1989]. In addition, there is no evidence for significant crystal plastic deformation of gabbroic rocks [Nicolas and Ildefonse, 1996] such as observed in samples from the Mid-Atlantic Ridge [Cannat et al., 1997].

Recent geophysical data indicate that the melting region beneath mid-ocean ridges is much larger than the seismically-determined zone of crustal accretion at the ridge axis. Seismic data from the MELT experiment ( $17^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ along the East Pacific Rise) indicate that melt is present for several hundred kilometers off-axis [Toomey et al., 1998; Webb and Forsyth, 1998] and to depths of $120-150 \mathrm{~km}$ [Forsyth et al., 1998]. Similarly, modeling studies suggest that the deep melting region is on the order of 200 km wide at the depth where the mantle crosses the solidus, even where buoyancy driven flow focuses mantle upwelling at shallower levels [e.g. Braun et al., 2000]. However, shallow seismic refraction data indicate the igneous oceanic crust attains its complete thickness within only $5-10 \mathrm{~km}$ of the ridge axis [Dunn et al., 2000; Vera et al., 1990]. Melt must therefore be efficiently extracted from a broad melting region and transported to the ridge axis to be accreted within a narrow zone.

The most important petrologic constraint on melt extraction is that MORB is not in chemical equilibrium with residual shallow-mantle harzburgite. Primitive MORBs are undersaturated in orthopyroxene (opx) with respect to the equilibrium cotectic melt composition at pressures commensurate with the base of the oceanic crust ( $1-2 \mathrm{kbar}$ ). These liquids were last saturated in opx at pressures in excess of 8-10 kbar [Elthon, 1989; Elthon and Scarfe, 1980; O'Hara, 1965; Stolper, 1980]. Spinel compositions from dunites exhibit high $\mathrm{Cr} /(\mathrm{Cr}+\mathrm{Al})$ and high $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ [Augé, 1987; Kelemen et al., 1995; Pallister and Knight, 1981] similar to those found in MORB [Dick and Bullen, 1984] and distinct from residual harzburgites [Allan and Dick, 1996; Arai and Matsukage, 1996; Dick and Bullen, 1984; Dick and Natland, 1996; Kelemen et al., 1997]. MORBs also preserve higher light/heavy rare-earth element ratios than predicted by equilibrium with residual peridotites dredged from mid-ocean ridges ("abyssal peridotites", [e.g. Johnson et al., 1990]) and sampled in ophiolites [e.g. Kelemen et al., 1995]. Thus, major and minor element data indicate that melts migrate through at least the shallowest $25-30 \mathrm{~km}$ the mantle with limited chemical interaction.

Some MORBs record melting and rapid extraction from even greater depths. Lu/Hf and $\mathrm{Sm} / \mathrm{Nd}$ isotopic systematics [Salters and Hart, 1989] and ${ }^{230} \mathrm{Th} /{ }^{238} \mathrm{U}$ excesses [Beattie, 1993; McKenzie, 1985; Sims et al., 2002] indicate the generation of small melt fractions in the presence of garnet, which is only stable in the mantle at depths greater than $\sim 70 \mathrm{~km}$ [Hirschmann and Stolper, 1996; Koga et al., 1998]. Therefore melt must be rapidly isolated from its source and delivered to the surface without equilibrating with the majority of rock through which it passes.

Although MORB is not in equilibrium with residual harzburgites, both the major and trace element concentrations from clinopyroxenes in mantle dunites from Oman are in equilibrium with the lavas that formed the overlying crust [Kelemen et al., 1995], which are similar to MORB. Dunites as observed in the mantle section of the Oman ophiolite-one of the largest, best exposed sections of oceanic crust and mantle - are generally tabular bodies with sharp, replacive contacts and orientations at small angles to the foliation in the surrounding harzburgite and the crust-mantle transition zone (paleo-Moho) [e.g. Boudier and Coleman, 1981; Lippard et al., 1986]. If the harzburgite foliation developed during deformation associated with 'corner-flow' beneath a spreading ridge, then the dunites must have formed prior to this deformation while still in the upwelling mantle beneath the ridge. These observations indicate that chemically isolated transport of melt to the surface occurred within high porosity dunite channels in the upwelling region.

Replacive dunites have been hypothesized to form by two processes: (1) as reaction zones around migrating melt-filled hydrofractures [Nicolas, 1986; Nicolas, 1990; Suhr, 1999] and (2) as high porosity conduits formed by a reactive infiltration instability [Aharonov et al., 1995; Kelemen, 1990; Kelemen and Dick, 1995; Spiegelman et al., 2001]. As melt migrates upward in the mantle, it becomes progressively undersaturated in pyroxene. In (1), silica-undersaturated melt within a hydrofracture forms dunite along the margins as the melt reacts with the wall rock. In (2), there is no crack, and high porosity dunite channels form as a result of a dissolution instability. Reaction between the melt and harzburgite dissolves pyroxene and precipitates olivine while increasing the liquid mass [Daines and Kohlstedt, 1994; Kelemen, 1990]. Kinetic studies show that these reactions can occur rapidly [Brearley and Scarfe, 1986; Kuo and Kirkpatrick, 1985a; Kuo and Kirkpatrick, 1985b; Zhang et al., 1989]. The increased porosity increases the local permeability, which in turn increases the melt flux to the area. The increased flux draws in more undersaturated melt, resulting in further dissolution. Numerical models of this positive feedback, or 'reactive infiltration instability', indicate that a self-organized network
of high porosity dunite conduits can form within the melting region [Aharonov et al., 1995; Spiegelman et al., 2001].

My thesis consists of five chapters which explore the structural and petrologic evidence for chemically-isolated melt transport focused in porous dunite conduits, as well as the effects of dunite formation and melt migration on the rheology of the upper mantle. In the first chapter, measurements of the size, abundance, spatial distribution of dunites in the Oman ophiolite are extrapolated to assess the feasibility of various proposed mechanisms of dunite formation, and the ability of a porous dunite network to supply a flux of silicaundersaturated melt that is sufficient to form the oceanic crust. Dunite abundance exhibits a power-law dependence on dunite width as measured over four orders of magnitude. Dunites wider than 5-10 m, which are required to maintain chemical isolation of the migrating melts, cannot be formed by diffusive reaction around melt-filled hydrofractures. The merging of multiple reaction zones can generate wide dunites, but not in sufficient abundance to match the observed size/frequency data. Instead, dunites may be formed by reactive porous flow. As such, the unique size/frequency relationship which characterizes the distribution of dunites can be extrapolated to estimate melt flux through an interconnected network dunites in the melting region beneath mid-ocean ridges. If flux is conserved where dunites merge, the size/frequency relationship implies that melt fraction within the dunite varies non-linearly with dunite width. By incorporating this porosity variation, estimates of the total unequilibrated melt flux through a network of interconnected dunites match the observed mid-ocean ridge magma fluxes with porosities consistent with geophysical observations.

The second chapter relates the chemical variations observed in the Oman peridotites to the effects of dunite formation and progressive melt-rock interaction. The chemical trends observed in olivine and spinel in the Oman peridotites are similar to those observed in abyssal peridotites, suggesting the igneous processes which formed the Oman mantle are similar to those that occur beneath modern mid-ocean ridges. Additionally, the composition of dunites varies systematically with dunite width, with the widest dunites in equilibrium with the liquid parental to the Oman lavas. The sharp chemical gradients at lithologic contacts and the lack of significant variation within individual dunites is inconsistent with formation by diffusive reaction around melt-filled hydrofractures. In contrast, mass balance calculations incorporating orthopyroxene dissolution and olivine precipitation predict the differences between harzburgites and dunites. These models also indicate that the systematic changes in dunite composition with increasing width are the result of increased
melt-rock ratios, as high as 100 in the widest dunites. However, mixing between primitive and more depleted melts may also influence dunite composition, especially in narrow dunites which may have formed at shallower depths. This study is the first attempt to develop a geochemical proxy which quantifies the melt-rock ratio, or the amount of melt focusing, in dunites.

In the third chapter, microstructural analyses are used to quantify the differences in the rheology of harzburgite and dunites induced by dunite formation and focused melt migration. In the same suite of rocks as used in the geochemical study, the texture, grain size, and lattice preferred orientation are observed to vary systematically with dunite width. Harzburgites are typically fine-grained and exhibit a strong $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}[100]$ lattice preferred orientation and relatively small grain size. In contrast, dunites show a systematic transition in microstructure and grain size from the fine-grained $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}[100]$ harzburgite texture in the smallest dunites to a coarse-grained, (010)[100] lattice preferred orientation in the widest dunites. Comparison of these microstructures with recent laboratory experiments suggests that the harzburgites and small dunites were deforming by dislocation-accommodated grain boundary sliding, whereas the wide dunites were deforming predominantly by dislocation creep. The transition in deformation mechanism is most likely induced by grain growth driven by melt-rock reaction and enhanced grain boundary mobility associated with an increase in melt flux through the wider dunites. These microstructural observations imply that the bulk of the shallow mantle may have a viscosity as much as an order of magnitude lower than that predicted by dislocation creep.

The fourth chapter examines the effects of rheology on mantle flow and melt generation beneath mid-ocean ridges by incorporating the transition in deformation mechanism observed in the microstructural study, as well as experimental constraints on the effects of water and melt on the viscosity of peridotite, into hybrid finite-element/finitedifference numerical models. The increase in viscosity associated with dehydration significantly inhibits buoyant mantle flow in the dry melting region. However, buoyancydriven flow is predicted in the damp melting region if the rheology in this depth interval is controlled by grain boundary sliding after the onset of melting. The models indicate that the magnitude of the effects of buoyant flow in the damp melting region become increasingly prominent at slower spreading ridges and provide a self-consistent explanation for a number of geophysical observations, including constant crustal thickness independent of spreading rate, short-wavelength mantle Bouguer anomalies at slow spreading ridges, as well as the
discrepancy between surface and body wave estimates of the magnitude of anisotropy observed along the East Pacific Rise.

The final chapter combines the dunite abundance data observed in outcrops with the microstructural observations from thin sections to re-assess the permeability of an interconnected network of dunites with the added constraint of satisfying the velocity requirements imposed by uranium-series disequilibria. The increase in grain size with dunite width increases permeability, allowing melt velocities in excess of $1 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{yr}$ in the dunites that carry $\sim 99 \%$ of the total melt flux. The high permeabilities imply that wide dunites are the primary conduits for the transport of primitive MORB, consistent with the geochemical data in the previous chapter.

In summary, large-scale field observations combined with detailed petrologic and microstructural analyses of peridotites from the Oman ophiolite indicate that dunites nucleate and widen by reactive porous flow of silica-undersaturated melts through depleted harzburgite and that wide dunites are the primary conduits for the transport of the primitive melts which form the oceanic crust. Dunite formation and focused melt transport increase the olivine grain size, thereby increasing the permeability within dunite conduits. Consistent with the observed textures, the increased melt flux through wider dunites can be quantified by comparison of observed geochemical variations with mass balance models. Variations in the major and minor elements of olivine and spinel serve as a proxy for variations in the melt-rock ratio within dunites. Assuming dunites form an interconnected network, the melt flux through wide dunites with moderate porosities is sufficient to form the oceanic crust and can occur on timescales short enough to satisfy the radiogenic isotopic constraints. The changes in grain size caused by this sustained melt transport also induce a transition in the deformation mechanism, from dislocation-accommodated grain boundary sliding in the harzburgite and small dunites to dislocation creep in wide dunites. The decrease in viscosity associated with the transition to grain boundary sliding can promote buoyancy-driven flow in the deep melting region despite the effects of dehydration during melting, and explain a variety of geophysical observations.

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## Chapter 2

# Dunite Distribution in the Oman Ophiolite: Implications for Melt Flux Through Porous Dunte Conduits 

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#### Abstract

Dunites in the mantle section of the Oman ophiolite represent conduits for chemically isolated melt transport through the shallow mantle beneath oceanic spreading centers. These dunite melt conduits exhibit a scale-invariant power-law relationship between width and cumulative abundance, as measured over four orders of magnitude. We use this size/frequency distribution to assess several hypotheses for dunite formation and estimate the total melt flux that a dunite network can accommodate beneath an oceanic spreading center. Dunites, measured from one-dimensional lithologic sections and digital image mosaics at a variety of length scales, range in width from $\sim 3 \mathrm{~mm}$ to $\sim 100 \mathrm{~m}$ and follow a power-law with a slope of $\sim 1.1$. Extrapolation of the power-law predicts that dunites as wide as 3.5 km may exist in the melting region beneath a midocean ridge. Alternatively, perhaps the widest dunites we observe ( $\sim 100 \mathrm{~m}$ ) represent a maximum size.

Modeling of dunites as diffusive reaction zones around melt-filled hydrofractures cannot explain the existence of dunites wider than $\sim 10 \mathrm{~m}$ in Oman. Instead, dunites may represent high porosity conduits formed by reactive porous flow. Using the observed size/frequency relationship, the assumption that dunites form a coalescing network, and the requirement that flux is conserved where dunites merge, we estimate the total flux through a porous dunite network and the fraction of that flux that remains chemically isolated. Our flux model predicts that the porosity in a dunite scales with the width. For maximum porosities of $\sim 1-4 \%$ in the widest dunites, a network of porous dunite conduits with the abundances observed in Oman can supply a sufficient flux of melt (of which > $95 \%$ remains chemically unequilibrated with shallow residual peridotites) to satisfy the observed mid-ocean ridge flux.


## Introduction

Geophysical and geochemical observations suggest that melt transport beneath oceanic spreading centers is strongly focused toward the ridge axis and rapidly extracted from the shallow mantle predominantly via chemically-isolating dunite conduits. In this study we examine the abundance and size distribution of dunite conduits preserved in the Oman Ophiolite to assess proposed mechanisms of dunite formation and place constraints on the melt flux that the dunite network can accommodate.

Recent geophysical data indicate that the melting region beneath mid-ocean ridges is much larger than the seismically-determined zone of crustal accretion at the ridge axis. Seismic data from the MELT experiment ( $17^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ along the East Pacific Rise) indicate that melt is present for several hundred kilometers off-axis and to depths of $120-150 \mathrm{~km}$ [Forsyth et al., 1998]. However, seismic velocity data indicate the igneous oceanic crust attains its complete thickness within 5 km of the ridge axis [Dunn et al., 2000; Vera et al., 1990]. Geochemical studies show that lateral melt migration from a broad region of corner flow is required to reproduce the trace element characteristics of MORB [Spiegelman, 1996]. Therefore melts must be efficiently extracted from a broad melting region and transported to the ridge axis to be accreted within the narrow ridge axis. Although our understanding of the exact path of melt migration through the upper mantle is incomplete, several geochemical and morphological constraints can be placed on the nature of the melt transport system.

Since mid-ocean ridge basalt (MORB) is not in chemical equilibrium with residual harzburgite in the shallow mantle, melt extraction must occur in chemicallyisolated conduits. Primitive MORBs are undersaturated in orthopyroxene (opx) with respect to the equilibrium cotectic melt composition at pressures commensurate with the base of the oceanic crust (1-2 kbar). Figure 1 shows the major element composition of $\sim 10,000$ glasses from the global MORB database (blue dots), using the isomolar projections of Elthon [1983]. Liquids close to equilibrium with mantle olivine (i.e. molar $\mathrm{Mg} \#(\mathrm{Mg} /(\mathrm{Mg}+\mathrm{Fe}))>0.66$, shown as red triangles) were last saturated in opx at pressures in excess of 8-10 kbar, in agreement with experimental data [e.g., Elthon, 1989;

Elthon and Scarfe, 1980; O'Hara, 1965; Stolper, 1980]. The high dissolution rate of opx in undersaturated basalts [Brearley and Scarfe, 1986; Kuo and Kirkpatrick, 1985a; Kuo and Kirkpatrick, 1985b] suggests that these melts must be isolated from the surrounding harzburgite during migration to preserve disequilibrium. MORBs also preserve higher light/heavy rare-earth element ratios than predicted for equilibrium with residual peridotites dredged from mid-ocean ridges ('abyssal peridotites', [e.g., Johnson et al., 1990] and sampled in ophiolites [e.g., Kelemen et al., 1995a]. In addition, numerical models of melt migration suggest that the concentrations of trace elements in MORB can also be used to distinguish two-dimensional melt transport from strictly vertical ascent [Spiegelman, 1996] when sufficient data becomes available. Thus, major and minor element data indicate that melts migrate through, at a minimum, the shallowest $25-30 \mathrm{~km}$ of the mantle with limited chemical interaction.


Figure 1. Pressures of equilibration of $\sim 10,000$ MORB glasses (circles) as inferred from pseudo-ternary phase diagrams projected from a) plagioclase and b) clinopyroxene [after Elthon, 1983]. Primitive MORB liquids (triangles), defined by $\mathrm{Mg} \mathrm{\#}(\mathrm{Mg} / \mathrm{Mg}+\mathrm{Fe}$ ) in excess of 0.66 , were last saturated in orthopyroxene at pressures greater than 10 kb , suggesting these liquids passed through the upper $25-30 \mathrm{~km}$ of the mantle without reacting with the surrounding harzburgite. Glass compositions for this global compilation are from the RIDGE PetDB database (http://petdb.ldeo.columbia.edu). The positions of the cotectic lines at all pressures ( $1 \mathrm{bar}-25 \mathrm{~kb}$ ) are taken from Elthon [1983].

Some MORBs record melting and rapid extraction from even greater depths. $\mathrm{Lu} / \mathrm{Hf}$ and $\mathrm{Sm} / \mathrm{Nd}$ isotopic systematics [Salters and Hart, 1989] and ${ }^{230} \mathrm{Th} /{ }^{238} \mathrm{U}$ excesses
[Beattie, 1993; Lundstrom et al., 1995; McKenzie, 1985] suggest the generation of small
melt fractions in the presence of garnet, which is only stable in mantle peridotite at depths greater than $\sim 70 \mathrm{~km}$ [Hirschmann and Stolper, 1996; Koga et al., 1998]. To preserve the observed excesses of the shortest lived isotopes (i.e., ${ }^{230} \mathrm{Th}$ ), melt must be rapidly isolated from the depths where fractionation occurs and delivered to the surface without achieving secular equilibrium or reacting with the majority of the rock through which it passes (see Kelemen et al. [1997] for a more complete discussion of melt velocity constraints).

Mantle dunites ( $>90 \%$ olivine) may be the chemically isolated conduits for melt transport. Although residual harzburgites are not in equilibrium with MORB, both the major and trace element concentrations from clinopyroxenes ( cpx ) in dunites in the mantle section of the Oman ophiolite are in equilibrium with the lavas (very similar to MORB) that formed the overlying crust [Kelemen et al., 1995a]. In addition, spinel compositions from dunites exhibit high $\mathrm{Cr} /(\mathrm{Cr}+\mathrm{Al})$ and high $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}[$ Augé, 1987; Kelemen et al., 1995a; Pallister and Knight, 1981] similar to those found in MORB [Dick and Bullen, 1984] and distinct from residual harzburgites [Allan and Dick, 1996; Arai and Matsukage, 1996; Dick and Bullen, 1984; Dick and Natland, 1996; Kelemen et al., 1997]. Dunites as observed in the mantle section of the Oman ophiolite-one of the largest, best exposed sections of oceanic crust and mantle - are generally tabular bodies with sharp contacts and orientations subparallel to the foliation in the surrounding harzburgite and the crust-mantle transition zone (paleo-Moho) (e.g., [Boudier and Coleman, 1981; Lippard et al., 1986]). Contact relationships between dunite and harzburgite (summarized by, e.g. Kelemen et al. [1995a], figure 2) indicate that dunites replaced the surrounding peridotite, via reactions which dissolved pyroxene (and precipitated a similar yet smaller mass of olivine). If the harzburgite foliation developed as the result of deformation associated with 'corner-flow' beneath a spreading ridge, then the dunites must have formed in the upwelling mantle beneath the ridge. Thus dunites accommodated chemically isolated transport of melt through the shallow mantle to the base of the crust.

The extent to which dunites are the sole conduits for melt transport is debatable. However, replacive dunites are abundant in the shallow mantle and certainly represent
regions of highly concentrated melt flux. As a result, the dunites embody a large part of the time-integrated history of melt migration beneath the spreading center. This study characterizes the abundance and distribution of dunites in the mantle section of the Oman ophiolite to assess (1) viable mechanisms for dunite formation and (2) the ability of a network of dunites to accommodate the observed melt flux to mid-ocean ridges.

## Observations and Results

## 1. General Field Relations

The Oman ophiolite consists of $\sim 13$ large massifs which comprise a nearly continuous band of oceanic lithosphere more than 500 km long and $50-100 \mathrm{~km}$ wide. In this study we examine the distribution of replacive dunites exposed in the mantle sections of the Samail and Muscat massifs. Although there are a variety of interpretations of the structural data, detailed mapping efforts in the Samail massif and the adjacent Wadi Tayin massif indicate relatively little internal deformation since the initiation of obduction [e.g., Jousselin et al., 1998; Nicolas et al., 2000], and the peridotites represent residual mantle which passed beneath an oceanic spreading center.

The mantle section of the Wadi Tayin massif preserves a stratigraphic thickness of up to $9-12 \mathrm{~km}$, composed almost entirely of residual harzburgite and dunite [e.g., Boudier and Coleman, 1981]. The peridotite is overlain by a $5-7 \mathrm{~km}$ thick gabbroic crustal section [e.g., Pallister and Hopson, 1981] with a nearly continuous layer of sheeted dikes underlying pillow lavas with compositions very similar to MORB [e.g., Pallister and Hopson, 1981; Pallister and Knight, 1981]. It is inferred that these observations are applicable to the Samail and Muscat massifs as well, though the crustal section in parts of the Samail massif may have been thinner ( $\sim 4 \mathrm{~km}$ ) [Nicolas et al., 1996].

Although the spreading rate during the formation of the Oman crust is unknown, the presence of the continuous igneous crustal layer [e.g., Nicolas and Boudier, 1995; Nicolas et al., 2000] suggests a half-spreading rate greater than $\sim 0.05 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{yr}$. Mid-ocean ridges with spreading rates less than $\sim 0.05 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{yr}$ exhibit extensive exposures of peridotite
on the seafloor, especially near fracture zones [e.g., Cannat, 1996; Dick, 1989]. In addition, there is little evidence for crystal plastic deformation in Oman gabbros [Nicolas and Ildefonse, 1996], whereas plastically deformed gabbros are commonly observed along the Mid-Atlantic Ridge [Cannat et al., 1997]. We infer that the Oman ophiolite represents the igneous crust and residual peridotite generated at an intermediate- to fastspreading oceanic spreading center.

The majority of dunites in the mantle section of the ophiolite occur as tabular veins, intersecting each other at small angles, with sharp contacts against the surrounding harzburgite. In this study we have chosen exposures which are planar over the length scale of the image and orthogonal to the intersection lineation formed by the planar dunites. Outcrops oriented orthogonal to the ones imaged show no intersections. The widths of dunites range from less than 1 cm to nearly 100 m , and lengths range from less than a meter to several kilometers. To avoid confusion with the large, partially cumulate, dunites formed at the base of the crust, we consider only dunites which are overlain by harzburgite. In some cases, our chosen map areas lie more than 1 km below the crustmantle transition zone, though this is not possible to verify for outcrops in the Muscat massif.

## 2. Photomosaics and Image processing

We have measured dunite widths over 4 orders of magnitude ( $10^{-2}$ to $10^{2} \mathrm{~m}$ ). Data was collected using one of several methods depending on scale: one-dimensional measured sections, outcrop mosaics for small dunites, hillside/mountainside photomosaics for intermediate scales, and airphoto analysis and chain and compass surveying for the largest dunites.

For the highest resolution, one-dimensional sections were collected in Wadi Lufti (Samail) along a chain line perpendicular to the strike of the predominant dunite orientation/peridotite foliation ( $335^{\circ} / 65^{\circ} \mathrm{SW}$ ). Seven sample lines ranged in length from 7 to 66 m , for a composite section of 208 m , with every contact along the sample line measured to millimeter precision. (Figure 2a)


Figure 2. (a) Composite one-dimensional lithologic section of mantle peridotite (containing $\sim 920$ individual dunites) from 7 outcrops in Wadi Lufti, Oman. Dunite widths range from $\sim 3 \mathrm{~mm}$ to 35 m . (b) Dunite size and abundance as measured along the composite section shows a robust power-law relationship between dunite width and frequency that extends over more than four orders of magnitude. Cumulative frequency is defined here as the number of dunites greater than a given width, $w$.

Dunite distributions over larger length scales are derived from two-dimensional image mosaics. Photomosaics of individual outcrops (figure 3a \& b) were constructed from images of 0.5 m by 0.5 m areas along a grid superimposed on the outcrop. Lithologic contacts in each image were then retraced and reassembled into the mosaic using Adobe ${ }^{\oplus}$ Photoshop ${ }^{\oplus}$. This is an improvement upon the method used by Kelemen et al. [2000], exploiting greater overlap, better camera positioning, and less image distortion. The prepared outcrops ranged in size from $3 \times 3.5 \mathrm{~m}$ to $16 \times 5 \mathrm{~m}$, with a final precision of $\sim 3 \mathrm{~mm}$ (determined by the width of the marker and the grain-size of the
rock). Where possible, one-dimensional sections traversed previously analyzed twodimensional outcrops.


Figure 3. Outcrop mosaics from Wadi Lufti, Oman. The mosaics for (a) Outcrop \#10 and (b) Outcrop \#18 are composed of approximately 40 and 170 individual photographs, respectively, taken $\sim 1.5 \mathrm{~m}$ above the outcrop surface. Contact information is determined at the outcrop and subsequently digitized from the scaled mosaic.


Figure 4. Photomosaic of dunites behind a mosque in Mutrah, part of the Muscat massif. Dunite locations were determined by image analysis and are seen here as the lighter regions in the image. Dunite orientations are measured in the field and used to correct the widths measured from each image.

At length scales larger than individual outcrops (figures 4 \& 5), images were gathered and processed in a slightly different manner. For each location, a series of scaled photographs, taken from a fixed point at a known distance from the hillside were digitized and mosaicked, again using Adobe ${ }^{\circledR}$ Photoshop ${ }^{\circledR}$. The mosaics were printed to
large sheets, over which the facies contacts were hand traced, then redigitized. This same process was used for airphoto analysis (figure 6) to fill in gaps in the ground survey. All mosaics are converted into scaled bitmap (binary) images containing just dunite (or harzburgite) objects for image processing.

## 3. Statistical Analysis

To evaluate the proposed mechanisms of dunite formation and to estimate the total potential flux through dunites, the abundance and distribution of dunites in the melt network must be determined. Kelemen et al, [2000] show that the abundance of dunites exhibits a power-law dependence on dunite width in the Ingalls ophiolite. In addition, Kelemen et al. extrapolate this dunite size/frequency relationship to predict the abundance of large dunites in the Wadi Tayin massif in Oman.

For the Oman ophiolite, the data from the composite 1-D section in Wadi Lufti show that a robust power-law relationship between dunite width and frequency does exist over at least four orders of magnitude in width (figure 2 b ). We collected additional dunite width data from images over a wide range of scales using an 'intercept width' technique, similar to that used by Kelemen et al [2000]. Dunite widths are measured along parallel lines perpendicular to the dominant dunite strike for each image mosaic. All widths are then corrected for apparent thickness based on field measurements of the true dunite orientation and camera position. In addition, several large dunites were measured using standard chain and compass techniques to further constrain the mosaics. The same width analysis is carried out for the harzburgite images, and therefore the percentage of dunite at each location can be determined by combining the dunite and harzburgite images. To account for the higher number of observations in larger areas, all frequency data are normalized by the total intercept length used in each image. Using cumulative frequency per meter allows for direct comparison of size/frequency data collected at different scales over different sized areas. (Using frequency per meter also allows for extrapolation to larger length scales, as will be discussed below.)


Figure 5. Photomosaic of a mountainside in the Muscat Massif. As at all scales, dunite orientations measured across the image area are used to correct dunite widths as measured from the image mosaic. The lighter rocks are dunite, the darker are harzburgites. The two geologists in the center of the image are standing $\sim 50 \mathrm{~m}$ apart.

For each data set, a cumulative distribution function and probability density function can be established from histograms of the width data. The cumulative distribution function (CDF) is defined as the number of objects per meter greater than a given width, w. For a power-law, the CDF has the form
(1) $\quad F_{w}=\frac{a}{w^{D}}$.
where $D$ is the power-law exponent and $a$ is related to the proportion of dunite in the image. The probability density function (PDF) is an estimate of the number of dunites of a given width per meter. The PDF is the derivative of the CDF and for the power-law above has the form
(2) $f_{w}=-\frac{d F}{d w}=\frac{a D}{w^{D+1}}$.

Ideally, the PDF could be determined directly from the width/frequency histogram. However, the values of both $D$ and $a$ are sensitive to the bin sizes used in creating the histogram. Therefore, we exploit the mathematical relationship between the distribution functions to calculate the PDF from the more robustly determined CDF.


Figure 6. Aerial map of dunites from the Muscat - Mutrah region. Dunites locations were determined by both airphoto analysis and surface observations. Dunites are shown here as highlighted regions superimposed on the airphoto. The locations of figures 4 and 5 are shown by dashed regions.

If the true distribution of dunite widths is indeed scale-invariant over some range of widths, then the abundances of sampled dunites should fall along a common line. (Figure 7) However, any sampling of the true population is subject to truncation and censorship errors. Even samples derived from ideal power-law distributions will exhibit deviations from perfect power-law behavior. Truncation errors occur at the smallest scales since dunite width is limited by the resolution of the image. At the larger scales,
object width is limited by the size of the area of interest. In addition, censorship can systematically diminish the sampling frequency. At the grain scale ( $0.5-3 \mathrm{~cm}$ ) it is very difficult to distinguish the matrix of olivine around pyroxenes in the harzburgite from a discrete dunite vein. Even though all widths are subject to this precision limit, small scale features are most affected, since the error is a larger fraction of the true width. At the largest scale, the widths of dunites with one boundary outside the field of view are also underestimated. This type of censoring can occur for any object, but is more likely for larger objects, and more important for rare observations. For a combination of these reasons, the number of the largest and smallest dunites are underestimated. Several corrections have been developed to account for these errors in cumulative frequency plots (e.g. [Barton and Zoback, 1992; Laslett, 1982]). However, the effects of the corrections are minimal if the relationship is measured from the central linear portion of the distribution [Pickering et al., 1995], which comprises the majority of the data. We define the central portion of the distribution as data which lie within the $80^{\text {th }}$ percentile of absolute range from the median.


Figure 7. Idealized scale-invariant power-law distribution. This illustration demonstrates the how several data sets over a range of overlapping length scales can be used to determine the true power-law distribution of the dunite population. Individual outcrops exhibit a characteristic relationship between $\log$ width and $\log$ frequency (inset). If the distribution of dunite widths is scale-invariant, then every outcrop will lie along a common line.

Values of $D$ and $a$ are obtained from the culled CDF data using a linear regression with data weighted by the studentized residuals to eliminate outliers with high leverage. We initially fit the linearized system, $\log F=\log a-D \log w$, using a least squares method. Outliers are culled based on the value of their studentized residuals, and the retained data are refit. In all cases, the retained data (figure 8 - open circles) represent approximately $80 \%$ of the total data set. For a more complete description, see Weisburg [1985, p109117]. Values of the fitted parameters for individual locations, as well as their average ( $D=1.11, a=0.088$ ), are shown in table 1. For a given dunite size, there exists $10^{\mathrm{D}}$, or $\sim 13$ times as many dunites of that size compared to the number of dunites that are an order of magnitude narrower. The CDFs for the data collected in Oman fall on a common distribution line spanning approximately four orders of magnitude. (Figure 8 - gray band) Because the areas mapped in detail have variable percentages of dunite ( $18-68 \%$ ), individual data sets may fall above or below the average line, reflected in the value for $a$. For this reason we use the mean values of $D$ and $a$ for extrapolation to larger length scales.

| Table 1: | Figure | D | a | $\mathrm{R}^{2}$ | $\%$ <br> dunite |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Lufti 1D <br> composite | 2 | 0.78 | 0.098 | 0.99 | 65.7 |
| Lufti o/c \#10 | 3 a | 1.38 | 0.014 | 0.83 | 68.2 |
| Lufti o/c \#18 | 3 b | 0.78 | 0.075 | 0.98 | 49.9 |
| Mosque | 4 | 1.07 | 0.079 | 0.98 | 45.5 |
| Mountainside | 5 | 1.00 | 0.061 | 0.96 | 44.3 |
| Muscat Airphoto | 6 | 1.64 | 0.198 | 0.98 | 17.7 |
| Parameter Mean |  | 1.11 | 0.088 |  |  |

Table 1. Fit parameters derived from each dunite image presented in this study, including the least-squares correlation coefficient, $\mathrm{R}^{2}$. For each image, the corresponding figure number and percentage of dunite in the image are also listed. The details of the parameter fitting are described in the text.


Figure 8. Width distribution data from dunites in the mantle section of the Oman ophiolite. These data (dots) are collected from lithologic sections and photomosaics with length scales spanning more than 4 orders of magnitude. (a) To reduce the effects of truncation and censorship errors, only data within $80 \%$ of the range from the median value (circled) are used in the fits. The mean of the fits to the individual data sets is shown by the gray band (dashed line $\pm 1 \mathrm{~s}$ in a to account for differences in dunite density between images). (b) Width-normalized dunite size/frequency statistics. Although difficult for extrapolation to larger length scales, normalization of dunite width the total intercept length collapses the data sets onto each other. In addition to the CDF data, the binned PDF data are shown with discrete symbols corresponding to each image.

## Discussion

Dunite melt conduits as observed in the shallow mantle section of the Oman ophiolite range in size from less than 1 cm to nearly 100 meters. In addition, the abundance of these dunites exhibits a power-law dependence on width as measured over four orders of magnitude. In the following section, we use the size/frequency distribution of dunites as measured in Oman to assess the proposed mechanisms for the formation of replacive dunites and subsequently estimate the total unequilibrated melt flux a dunite network can accommodate beneath oceanic spreading centers.

## 1. Extrapolation to the melting region

By extrapolating the power-law size frequency distribution measured in this study, we can estimate the size and abundance of dunite melt conduits over larger length scales (i.e. the melting region beneath mid-ocean ridges). The CDF data are normalized per unit of observation length to enable comparison of data from regions of different size. This normalization also allows for easy extrapolation, simply by multiplying the distribution function by the desired length scale, $L$. Therefore, the number of dunites wider than $w$ predicted in $L$ meters of observation perpendicular to the general strike of the tabular dunites is defined as
(3) $\quad F_{w}=\frac{a}{w^{D}} L$.

Extrapolation in this manner adequately predicts the abundance of the largest dunites observed in individual massifs in Oman ( $L=10 \mathrm{~km}$ ) as reported by Kelemen et al [2000]. (Figure 9) Estimating dunite abundance over length scales commensurate with the melting region beneath mid-ocean ridges requires one order of magnitude of additional extrapolation ( $L=100 \mathrm{~km}$ ). This approach suggests that there may be at least one dunite as wide as $\sim 3.5 \mathrm{~km}$ in the melting region beneath an oceanic spreading center (figure 9). A dunite of this width, even with a 3-5\% steady state melt fraction, is as yet undetectable by seafloor broadband seismic networks [Hung et al., 2000], so unfortunately, this hypothesis cannot be tested. Alternatively, there could be a smaller
maximum size limit. The widest dunites observed in the Oman mantle section ( $\sim 100 \mathrm{~m}$ ) could be the largest present beneath mid-ocean ridges.


Figure 9. Extrapolation for dunite abundance to larger length scales using the power-law size/frequency distribution determined from the dunite width data from Oman. For length scales on order of individual massifs in Oman, $(10 \mathrm{~km})$ the extrapolation predicts dunite abundances consistent with field observations (red dashed line). [Kelemen et al., 2000] Extrapolation to length scales commensurate with the melting region beneath mid-ocean ridges ( 100 km ) predicts the existence of dunites as wide as several kilometers (blue dashed line). Alternatively, perhaps the larges dunites are no larger than the widest dunites we observe in Oman ( $\sim 100 \mathrm{~m}$ ).

## 2. Mechanisms of Dunite Formation

Dunites have been hypothesized to form by (1) diffusive reaction around meltfilled hydrofractures [Nicolas, 1986; Nicolas, 1990; Suhr, 1999]; (2) random merging of growing reaction zones around several hydrofractures [Kelemen et al., 2000]; and (3) a reactive infiltration instability resulting in high porosity conduits. [Aharonov et al., 1995; Kelemen and Dick, 1995; Kelemen et al., 1995b; Spiegelman et al., 2001] (Figure 10a-c)

For all three hypotheses, replacive dunites are formed by reaction between ascending MORB melts and the surrounding peridotite. As pressure decreases, the solubility of silica-rich phases (opx and cpx) in basalt increases [Dick, 1977; Quick, 1981; Kelemen, 1990]. Therefore, ascending melts dissolve pyroxene and precipitate olivine, increasing the liquid mass and, where the time integrated melt flux is large
enough, creating dunite in their wake. [Daines and Kohlstedt, 1994; Kelemen, 1990; Kelemen et al., 1995b] Kinetic studies show that these reactions can occur rapidly [Brearley and Scarfe, 1986; Kuo and Kirkpatrick, 1985a; Kuo and Kirkpatrick, 1985b; Zhang et al., 1989]. The discriminating difference between hypotheses is the melt transport mechanism. In (1) and (2), pyroxene-undersaturated melt within hydrofractures forms dunite along the margins as the melt reacts with the wall rock. In (3), there is no crack, and high porosity dunite channels form as a result of a dissolution instability. The increased porosity resulting from the dissolution reaction increases the local permeability, which in turn increases the melt flux to the area. The increased flux draws in more undersaturated melt, resulting in further dissolution.


Figure 10. Three hypotheses for replacive dunite formation in the shallow mantle based on reaction of silica-undersaturated basalts with shallow mantle harzburgites. (a) Dunites may form as diffusive reaction zones around melt filled hydrofractures. (b) Random merging of growing reaction zones may give the appearance of large dunites. (c) Dunites may form by a reactive infiltration instability creating high porosity dunite melt conduits.

## 3. Dunites as diffusive reaction zones

Dunite growth as reaction zones around melt filled hydrofractures is limited by silica diffusion in the melt. Whether in hydrofractures or in the surrounding porous rock, buoyancy-driven melt transport is predominantly vertical, whereas, dunite margins grow in the direction orthogonal to melt transport. Since the kinetics of pyroxene dissolution are fast, silica must be continually moved from the reaction front back to the hydrofracture in order to drive continued dissolution. Because the melt transport velocity in the host peridotite is small, ( $\sim 1 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{yr}$; e.g. [Kelemen et al., 1997]) hydrodynamic
dispersion will also be very small [Freeze and Cherry, 1979]. Therefore, dunite growth is limited by the lateral transport of silica by diffusion.

This is a limiting case with no horizontal advection of melt. Focused flow networks require that melt, initially formed along grain boundaries uniformly distributed in a porous source rock, flow laterally into channels of focused transport. This lateral advection into the channels ( $10^{-1}-10^{-4}$ times the vertical velocity of $\sim 1 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{yr}$ in porous models [Spiegelman et al., 2001] ) may be generally faster than the diffusive transport velocity of $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$.

If dunites are diffusive reaction zones, then the time required for formation via Fickian diffusion can be estimated by,
(4) $\frac{d C}{d t}=-D_{e f f} \frac{d^{2} C}{d w^{2}}$.

Assuming the melt composition in the hydrofracture, (i.e. degree of undersaturation) remains constant, the dunite width, $w$, is proportional to the square root of the formation time, $t$. The effective diffusivity, $D_{\text {eff }}$ of a particular species in the two phase system is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{e f f}=\phi D_{\text {melt }}+(1-\phi) D_{\text {rock }}, \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

[Crank, 1975] where $\phi$ is the interconnected porosity and $D_{\text {mett }}$ and $D_{\text {rock }}$ are the diffusivities of silicon in the melt and solid phases, respectively. Given a moderate porosity of $1-3 \%, D_{\text {melf }} \approx 10^{-11} \mathrm{~m}^{2} / \mathrm{s}$, and $D_{\text {rock }} \approx 10^{-15} \mathrm{~m}^{2} / \mathrm{s}$ [Lesher et al., 1996], the time required to form the largest observed dunites in Oman ( $\sim 100 \mathrm{~m}$ ) is $250-750 \mathrm{Ma}$. However, the lifetime of solid material rising through the melting region beneath a spreading center is only $\sim 1-10 \mathrm{Ma}$ for spreading rates of $120-10 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{yr}$, respectively. Therefore, the widest dunites that could be formed by diffusion around melt-filled hydrofractures is $\sim 3-20 \mathrm{~m}$ (depending on porosity and spreading rate). (Figure 11) If the spreading rate during the formation of the igneous crust in Oman was at least $0.05 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{yr}$, then dunites wider than $\sim 3-10 \mathrm{~m}$ could not be formed as the result of diffusion alone.


Figure 11. Width of dunite reaction zones around melt filled hydrofractures as a function of spreading rate. As spreading rate increases, the time available for diffusive transport of material in the melting region decreases. For moderate porosities and spreading rates greater than $5 \mathrm{~cm} / \mathrm{yr}$, dunites wider than $\sim 12 \mathrm{~m}$ cannot form by diffusion around a melt filled hydrofracture within the residence time of solid material in the melting region. To maximize the time for diffusion, these calculations assume dunites begin forming at the base of the melting region and remain active until reaching the surface.

## 4. Dunites as merging reaction zones

Large dunites ( $>10 \mathrm{~m}$ wide) are present in the Oman ophiolite in the abundances predicted by the observed power-law ( $\sim 10 / \mathrm{km}$ ). However, diffusion around individual melt-filled hydrofractures cannot explain their formation. In modeling dunite formation as reaction zones around a static distribution of cracks, Kelemen et al. [2000] suggested that wide dunites may be the result of random merging of reaction zones around individual hydrofractures.

To test this hypothesis, we examined a series of forward models in which reaction zones around dunites are allowed to grow and merge, and compared the results to the distribution of observed dunite widths in Oman. These models start with an initial, spatially-random distribution of five parallel cracks. Reaction zones around each crack grow with the square root of time. In addition, five new dunites nucleate at each time step (unlike Kelemen et al. [2000]). With time, the merging of reaction zones create increasingly wider dunites, and a weak power-law size/frequency distribution begins to emerge. However, the merging process fills space rapidly. After 200 timesteps, the
largest dunites are only $\sim 20$ times wider than the initial width, but the dunites occupy approximately $42 \%$ of the total area (Figure 12a). By the time very wide dunites ( $>10^{3}$ times the initial width) form, more than $94 \%$ of the model space is filled with dunite and the power-law has degraded (Figure 12b).


Figure 12. Forward model of merging reaction zones around melt filled hydrofractures. An initially spatially random set of 5 cracks of width 1 are allowed to grow diffusively with the square root of time. At each timestep, 5 new cracks randomly nucleate and begin to grow. (a) At time $t=200$, a weak power-law begins to form, but dunite widths span less than 2 orders of magnitude. At this point, dunites occupy $\sim 42 \%$ of the total area. (b) By $t=800$, dunite widths range $\sim 3$ orders of magnitude, but now $94 \%$ of the total area is occupied by dunites. Although merging of growing reaction zones as shown here can produce very wide dunites, the abundance statistics are not consistent with the field observations.

We examined a range of growth and nucleation rates, which affect the time required to fill space with dunites, but in all cases, the range in dunite size never spanned more than 1.5 orders of magnitude before dunites filled more than $50 \%$ of the available space. Additional model parameters could be added to modify the fracture mechanics or diffusive growth as a function of dunite width (i.e. new dunites may preferentially nucleate near larger dunites, or larger dunites may grow faster). Such feedback effects
may produce a power-law size/frequency distribution over several orders of magnitude in width, by analogy with the feedback mechanisms examined for purely porous conduits in the next section of this paper. However, there is as yet no evidence to suggest either of these are necessary. Preliminary size/frequency data for harzburgites (the space between dunites) in the images presented here exhibit exponential distributions, suggesting the random spatial distribution of dunites within the areas we mapped in detail. (We have concentrated on areas with high dunite density, and suspect that on the massif and ophiolite scale, dunites may be clustered in a non-random fashion.) Regardless of the nature of the spatial distribution, the diffusion equation (4) specifies that the growth rate for any given dunite should decrease with time, preventing larger dunites from growing faster.

## 5. Dunites as Porous Conduits

Dunites may represent high porosity melt channels formed as a result of the reactive migration of melt in a solubility gradient [Aharonov et al., 1995; Kelemen and Dick, 1995; Kelemen et al., 1995b; Spiegelman et al., 2001]. As melt migrates upward, it becomes progressively undersaturated in pyroxene. The resulting reaction between the melt and harzburgite dissolves pyroxene and precipitates olivine while increasing the liquid mass [Daines and Kohlstedt, 1994; Kelemen, 1990; Kelemen et al., 1995b]. The increased porosity increases the local permeability, which in turn increases the melt flux to the area. The increased flux draws in more undersaturated melt, resulting in further dissolution. Numerical models of this positive feedback, or reactive infiltration instability, indicate that a self-organized network of high porosity dunite conduits, coalescing downstream, can rapidly form within the melting region [Aharonov et al., 1995; Spiegelman et al., 2001]. Modeled widths of these porous conduits, measured in terms of the width over which the soluble solid phase has been completely removed by dissolution, are $\sim 1 \mathrm{~km}$ wide when scaled to the size of the melting region beneath midocean ridges.

The primary requirement of the melt transport process is that it provides a sufficient flux of unequilibrated melt to the ridge axis to form the oceanic crust. We can assess the ability of a high-porosity dunite network to accommodate this flux using the dunite size/frequency relationship established from our field observations. The total melt flux to the ridge can be estimated as the product of the crustal thickness, half-spreading rate, and ridge length. Assuming a constant global crustal thickness of 6 km , the estimated melt flux to the ridge is $60-900 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{yr}$ per meter of ridge segment along axis for slow- and fast-spreading ridges ( 0.01 to $0.15 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{yr}$ ), respectively.

The total flux through the dunite network can be estimated by integrating the predicted flux in a dunite of a given size with the observed size/frequency data. The 2dimensional flux (volume per unit time per unit length) in an individual dunite, $J_{w}$, can be defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{w}=\phi v w, \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is the product of the dunite width, $w$, and the Darcy flux
(7) $\phi v=\frac{k \Delta \rho g}{\eta}$,
where $\Delta \rho g$ is the driving pressure gradient due to melt buoyancy, $\eta$ is the melt viscosity, and the permeability, $k$, is a function of porosity, $\phi$, grain size, $d$, and geometry, $C$ :
(8) $k=\frac{\phi^{n} d^{2}}{C}$.

For an interconnected porous network around tetrakaidecahedral grain edges, $n=2$ and $C=1600$ [von Bargen and Waff, 1986]. The grain size, d , is assumed to be $\sim 4 \mathrm{~mm}$, consistent with the observations from dunites in Oman [Boudier and Coleman, 1981]. The driving pressure gradient is derived from the density difference, $\sim 500 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{3}$, between basaltic melt and olivine. The total flux of the system, $J_{\text {tot }}$, is the integral of the product of the flux function, $J_{w}$, and the dunite PDF, $f_{w}$, over the range of dunite sizes predicted for the given length scale, $L$, where
(9a) $J_{t o t}=\int_{w_{\text {min }}}^{w_{\text {mw }}} J_{w} f_{w} d w$

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{t o t}=\int_{w_{\text {min }}}^{w_{\text {nax }}} \phi \nu w \cdot \frac{a D}{w^{D+1}} L \cdot \mathrm{~d} w . \tag{9b}
\end{equation*}
$$

To estimate the total flux through all dunites, the minimum bound for the integral, $w_{\text {min }}$, is equivalent to the width of the smallest observed dunite, $(\sim 1 \mathrm{~cm})$. The upper integration bound, $w_{\max }$, is determined from the extrapolation of the power-law at the length scale of the melting region. However, as discussed above, only dunites greater than the length scale of diffusive equilibration can preserve chemical disequilibrium. Therefore the total flux of unequilibrated melt, $J_{\text {uneq }}$, occurs only through dunites wider than 3-10 m.

In addition, we assume that the dunites form a network of channels that coalesce downstream. As discussed by Kelemen et al. [2000] this is consistent with, though not required by, the observed power-law relationship between dunite width and frequency. In such a network, flux must be conserved where porous conduits merge. In systems where flux is conserved at binary intersections the number of channels is inversely proportional to the flux they carry, or $f_{w} \propto J^{l}{ }_{w}$ [e.g., Hart, 1993]. In its simplest form, at each intersection, two channels each carrying one unit of flux join to form one channel carrying twice the flux.

Using a series of stochastic models, we show that this relationship between the number of channels and the flux they carry holds regardless of the initial distribution of flux or the order in which channels merge. In each case, approximately 4100 channels are initially assigned a flux according to a particular probability density function continuous uniform, exponential, or gaussian - with a fixed maximum allowable flux ranging from 1-100 times the smallest initial flux. (Figure 13, a, c, \& e respectively) The channels randomly merge in pairs until all the flux is in one channel. This process is repeated 100 times for each class of initial flux distribution. For any given maximum initial flux, the total flux through the system is constant, regardless of the shape of the initial distribution. In all cases, the number of channels is inversely proportional to the flux they carry as measured over approximately 4 orders of magnitude. (Figure 13, b, d, \& f) This consequence of flux conservation is also observed in theoretical [Aharonov et
al., 1995] and numerical [Spiegelman et al., 2001] models of reactive porous flow, where $f_{w} \propto J_{w}{ }^{-1}$.


Figure 13. Relationship between flux and number of channels for a system of binary merging conduits for different initial flux distributions: continuous uniform, exponential, Gaussian. In each case a starting population of $\sim 4000$ channels, with flux distributions shown in the upper panels (a, $c, \& e$ ), is allowed to randomly merge in pairs. Merging continues until all the flux is carried in one channel. The probability density function (PDF) of the resultant network in each run (b, d, \& f) is below each initial distribution. This process was repeated 100 times for each of the different initial distributions. In all cases, the maximum flux in any initial channel is constant ( 50 times the minimum flux in runs shown here), and the total flux through the system is constant. In all cases, there exists a robust power-law relationship, with a slope of -1 , between flux and number of channels. This relationship holds over nearly 4 orders of magnitude, regardless of the initial distribution of flux or order in which channels merge.

Our dunite size/frequency observations from Oman indicate that $f_{w} \propto w^{-(D+1)}$. Equating these relationships for $f_{w}$ suggests that flux is non-linearly proportional to dunite width, or

$$
J_{w} \propto w^{D+1} .
$$

Using this width-flux relation, we can define a porosity scaling as a function of dunite width. After substitution of equation (6) into the above relation, it follows that $\phi \nu w \propto w^{D+1}$.

Canceling $w$ from both sides and substituting (8) into (7) yields the following relationship between porosity, $\phi$, and channel width, $w$ :

$$
\frac{\phi^{n} d^{2}}{C \eta} \Delta \rho g \propto w^{D}
$$

Assuming grain size, $d$, melt viscosity, $\eta$, grain boundary geometry, $C$, or the driving pressure gradient, $\Delta \rho g$, do not vary significantly between dunites of different sizes, the only free parameter is the interconnected porosity. Therefore, by specifying the maximum porosity, $\phi_{\max }$, in the largest dunite, $w_{\max }$, the porosity in any given dunite can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi=\phi_{\max }\left(\frac{w}{w_{\max }}\right)^{D / \pi} . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

The Darcy flux (7) can then be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi v=\frac{\phi_{\max }^{n} d^{2} \Delta \rho g}{C \eta}\left(\frac{w}{w_{\max }}\right)^{D} . \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

After substitution of (11) into (9b), if flux is non-linearly proportional to dunite width, the total flux can be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{t o t}=\frac{\phi_{\max }^{n} d^{2} \Delta \rho g a D L}{C \eta w_{\max }^{D}}\left(w_{\max }-w_{\min }\right) . \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Adopting the spreading rate constraint for Oman, we assume that all flux through dunites wider than 5 m will preserve disequilibrium between migrating melt and the surrounding harzburgite. For length scales commensurate with mid-ocean ridge spreading centers ( $\mathrm{L}=100 \mathrm{~km}$ ), the largest dunites in the network may be as wide as $\sim 3500 \mathrm{~m}$. Given a maximum porosity in the widest dunites of $1-3 \%$, the total flux through the dunite network is comparable to the observed ridge flux. (Figure 14a) More importantly, the flux of unequilibrated melt accounts for greater than $99 \%$ of the total melt flux. Alternatively, if the largest dunite widths in the melting region are limited to the widest dunites observed in Oman ( $w_{\max }=100 \mathrm{~m}$ ), this "non-linear flux model" (Figure 14b) still supplies a sufficient unequilibrated melt flux ( $\sim 95 \%$ of the total flux) to satisfy the mid-ocean ridge constraints at reasonable porosities ( $\phi_{\max }<4 \%$ ). These results indicate that melt transport through dunites wide enough to preserve disequilibrium with the
shallow mantle can be accommodated entirely by porous flow, and thus, there is no requirement for transport through melt-filled cracks.


Figure 14. Calculated melt flux through a porous dunite network as a function of porosity, given the power-law abundance relationship derived from field observations. These calculations assume that only dunites wider than 10 m can accommodate chemically unequilibrated melt flux. These "non-linear flux model" calculations incorporate the flux conservation constraint. (a) If the largest dunites have widths predicted by the power-law for a length scale of 100 km , the unequilibrated flux ( $J_{\text {uneq }}$ - dashed line) is nearly $100 \%$ of the total flux ( $J_{\text {tor }}$-solid line) through the system and satisfies the observed ridge flux constraint (gray field) over a range of moderate porosities. (b) If the largest dunites are limited to the widest dunites observed in the mantle section of the Oman ophiolite ( 100 m ), the observed ridge flux constraint is still satisfied.


Figure 15. Calculated melt flux through a porous dunite network in which all dunites have a single porosity. (a) The "linear flux model" with the maximum width suggested by extrapolation of the power-law predicts the unequilibrated flux (dashed line) accounts for only $34 \%$ of the total flux (solid line). (b) The unequilibrated flux accounts for only $22 \%$ of the total flux if the maximum dunite width is limited to the widest observed dunites in Oman, $\sim 100 \mathrm{~m}$. In either case, the predicted fluxes satisfy the observed ridge flux constraint (gray field) over a narrow range in porosities less than $\sim 1-2 \%$.

Flux conservation is a necessary constraint on the melt flux model. A "linear melt flux" model which assumes a constant Darcy flux (e.g. integration of (9b) assuming the porosity in channels is constant and therefore independent of dunite width), does not reproduce the observed fluxes of unequilibrated melt at mid-ocean ridges. The total ridge flux in the "linear melt flux" model can be accommodated if all dunites have porosities of

1 to $2 \%$. However, the unequilibrated melt flux accounts for only $\sim 34 \%$ of the total flux, if the maximum dunite width is 3578 m (Figure 15a), and only $22 \%$ of the total flux if the maximum dunite width is 100 m (Figure 15b). Such volumes of equilibrated melt would result in an andesitic composition for the igneous oceanic crust, corresponding to a liquid composition in equilibrium with olivine, pyroxene, and spinel in the shallow mantle immediately below the base of the crust ( $\sim 2 \mathrm{~kb}$ ), very different from the observed basaltic bulk composition of oceanic crust and primitive MORB (figure 1). Thus, dunite channels can only accommodate the flux of unequilibrated melt through the shallow mantle if the porosity within the dunites is proportional to their width.

## Conclusions

Dunite widths as measured in the mantle section of the Oman ophiolite exhibit a scale-invariant power-law size/frequency distribution over 4 orders of magnitude. The power law slope ( $\mathrm{D} \approx 1.1$ ) predicts that there exist $\sim 13$ times more dunites for every order of magnitude decrease in dunite width. Extrapolation to larger length scales is consistent with field observations at the massif scale and suggests that dunites as wide as 3.5 km may exist in the melting region beneath oceanic spreading centers. Alternatively, dunites may never exceed 100 m , equivalent to the width of the largest we observe in the Oman mantle section.

Diffusive reaction zones around individual melt-filled hydrofractures cannot explain the formation of wide dunites, as the time required to form the largest observed dunites is greater than the transport time of solid material through the melting region. For the inferred minimum spreading rate of the spreading center that formed the Oman ophiolite, dunites more than $\sim 3-10 \mathrm{~m}$ wide could not have been formed by this process. Forward models for the formation of wide dunites by the random merging of reaction zones rapidly fill space and do not generate the power-law relationship observed in the field. Instead, our data are most consistent with the formation of dunites as a network of high porosity dissolution channels.


Figure 16. Schematic illustration of a coalescing dunite network beneath an oceanic spreading center based on observations in the Oman Ophiolite. Dunites are shown in green, the crust in blue, and melt is presumed to be present throughout the red and yellow region. The box in the upper right corner indicates the scale of the lithologic section preserved in Oman. The preserved dunites may have been thinned, e.g. via simple shear, during transposition resulting from corner flow. We have implicitly assumed that this thinning affected all dunite widths by the same percentage. Thinning in this manner would affect the magnitudes of the dunite widths but not change the ratio of smaller dunites to larger ones. Therefore the power-law slope would remain unaffected.

We use the dunite width/frequency statistics and diffusive equilibration length constraints to estimate the total flux of melt through porous dunite channels to the ridge axis. In a system of coalescing channels that conserves flux, porous flow in dunite dissolution channels can accommodate the observed melt flux to the ridge over a wide range of spreading rates and moderate porosities, and can preserve the observed disequilibrium between ridge basalts and the shallow, residual mantle.

Based on our observations of dunite shape, size, abundance, and distribution, we offer the following schematic illustration of the melt migration network beneath a spreading center. (Figure 16) In the melting region beneath a spreading center, ascending melts have the potential to dissolve pyroxene and precipitate olivine, leaving dunite in its wake. These high porosity dunite channels coalesce upward and toward the ridge axis.

Merging increases dunite width and porosity while decreasing the number of conduits, thus focusing melt transport toward the ridge axis.

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## Chapter 3

## DUNITES AS CONDUITS FOR PRIMITIVE MELT TRANSPORT: Implications of the geochemistry of Oman peridotites


#### Abstract

: Composition and structural relationships preserved in residual mantle peridotites have established the framework for our understanding of melt generation and transport in the shallow mantle beneath mid-ocean ridges. In particular, geochemical data and field observations from ophiolites indicate that dunites form by reaction of harzburgite with ascending orthopyroxene-undersaturated melts and subsequently serve as conduits for the transport of those melts to the surface. In this study we present detailed geochemical transects across several dunites from the Oman ophiolite to test whether dunites are the primary conduits for the melts that form the oceanic crust.

Chemical profiles across dunites from Wadi Lufti, Oman are relatively flat with sharp boundaries that coincide with the macroscopic lithologic contacts observed in the field. The compositions of olivines, pyroxenes, and spinels in peridotites exhibit trends similar to those observed in abyssal peridotites and extend to slightly more depleted compositions. Relative to the surrounding harzburgite, dunites have olivines with lower NiO and higher $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ and spinels with higher $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ and lower $\mathrm{Mg} \#$.

The major and trace element composition of dikes and lavas from the region indicate that their parental liquid was similar to MORB. Dunite compositions also vary systematically with the width of the dunite; the widest dunite preserving equilibrium with the primitive liquid parental to the dikes and lavas in the region. These observations suggest that the melt transport processes which occurred in the Oman mantle were similar to those which operate beneath modern mid-ocean ridges.

The observed trends in the data are best explained by dunite formation by reactive porous flow followed by focused melt transport. The reaction of peridotite with primitive liquid imparts a distinct chemical signature, observed in the small dunites, which is then progressively overprinted in wider dunites by an increasing flux of primitive melt. These calculations suggest that the widest dunites preserve melt/rock ratios in excess of $100-1000$. These large melt/rock ratios, coupled with field observations on the abundance of dunites, indicate that wide dunites are the primary conduits for the transport of primitive melts that form the oceanic crust.


## Introduction:

Mid-ocean ridge basalt (MORB) is not in equilibrium with residual mantle peridotites at pressures less than 1 GPa or more. Most MORBs are undersaturated in orthopyroxene relative to the low pressure equilibrium composition expected for melts at the base of the oceanic crust. In fact, the major element composition of the most primitive MORB liquids indicates they were last in equilibrium with the shallow mantle at pressures in excess of 8 kb [Elthon, 1989; Elthon and Scarfe, 1980; O'Hara, 1965; Stolper, 1980]. Although the compositions of ultra-depleted melt inclusions [Sobolev and Shimizu, 1993] and some interpretations of ${ }^{226} \mathrm{Ra}$ excesses in MORB [Jull et al., 2002; Kelemen et al., 1997; Lundstrom et al., 1995; Sims et al., 2002] imply that some melts are in intimate contact with residual harzburgite at low pressure, the fundamental observation of major element disequilibrium requires that the majority of melts erupted at mid-ocean ridges ascend thorough the uppermost $25-30 \mathrm{~km}$ of residual peridotite with minimal chemical interaction with the shallow mantle.

At least some chemically-isolated melt transport in the upper mantle occurs through dunite conduits, which form in the melting region beneath mid-ocean ridges. Primitive MORB liquids at low pressure are saturated only in olivine and spinel. Therefore dunites (rocks with greater than $90 \%$ olivine) can serve as non-reactive conduits for the transport of basaltic melts and preserve geochemical signatures indicative of melt transport. Olivines from dunites exhibit a narrow distribution in $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ (molar $\mathrm{Mg} /(\mathrm{Mg}+\mathrm{Fe}) \times 100)$ [Kelemen, 1990; Kelemen et al., 1997], typical of residual mantle dunites [e.g. Dick and Natland, 1996] and distinct from cumulate olivine precipitated at low pressure from pooled polybaric melts [Nicolas and Prinzhofer, 1983]. Clinopyroxenes in dunites preserve rare earth element (REE) concentrations in equilibrium with MORB [Alabaster et al., 1982; Kelemen et al., 1995]. In contrast, clinopyroxenes in harzburgites are significantly more light rare earth depleted, consistent with residues of moderate degrees of partial melting [Johnson et al., 1990]. Major and minor element compositions from spinels are consistent with the trace element data. The $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ (molar $\mathrm{Cr} /(\mathrm{Cr}+\mathrm{Al}) \times 100)$ and $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ content of spinels in dunites dredged from mid-
ocean ridges are similar to those in MORB and significantly higher than in spinels from residual harzburgites [e.g. Allan and Dick, 1996; Dick and Bullen, 1984].

The geochemistry of peridotites dredged from mid-ocean ridges ("abyssal peridotites") provides the framework for our understanding of melt transport beneath oceanic spreading centers. However, dredged peridotites in general, and dunites in particular, are so heavily serpentinized that few primary minerals remain. Also dredging obscures the spatial relationships between samples necessary to address questions regarding the size, shape, and 'interconnectedness' of the melt migration conduits.

Ophiolites provide a crucial extension to our understanding of melt transport beneath mid-ocean ridges. The Oman ophiolite in particular has long been the focus of study because of the geochemical similarity of the mantle peridotites, gabbros, and lavas to abyssal rocks [e.g. Augé, 1987; Kelemen et al., 1995; Lippard et al., 1986; Pallister and Hopson, 1981] particularly in the southern massifs. The original mineralogy of the peridotites is well preserved, in some areas with $<20 \%$ serpentine and the extensive exposures provide the geographic context and contact relationships unobtainable by dredging. Dunites in Oman are generally tabular bodies moderately discordant to the orthopyroxene foliation in the host harzburgite [e.g. Boudier and Coleman, 1981; Kelemen et al., 1995; Lippard et al., 1986]. Both the dunites and surrounding harzburgites are sheared parallel to the base of the overlying crust [e.g. Braun and Hirth, in prep; Dijkstra et al., 2002]. If the observed peridotite fabric was imposed by transposition of the mantle during corner flow away from the spreading center, then the dunites formed in the melting region in a near-vertical orientation, consistent with the melt conduit hypothesis.

Field relationships preserved in ophiolites indicate that dunites replace harzburgite by reaction with ascending melts which dissolve pyroxene and precipitate additional olivine and spinel [Boudier and Nicolas, 1972; Kelemen et al., 1995; Nicolas and Prinzhofer, 1983; Savel'yeva et al., 1980]. As basaltic melts rise to lower pressure, they become increasingly orthopyroxene-undersaturated and are forced to dissolve orthopyroxene to re-establish equilibrium. The dissolution of orthopyroxene leads to
increased liquid mass and precipitation of additional olivine [Daines and Kohlstedt, 1994; Kelemen, 1990]. With a sufficient flux of pyroxene-undersaturated melt, all the orthopyroxene can be dissolved and dunite is formed along the melt migration path.

What remains to be resolved is whether dunites are shallow melt migration features formed by depleted melts or the primary conduits for transport of the primitive melts which form the bulk of the oceanic crust. This distinction depends strongly on the manner in which dunites nucleate and the composition and flux of melt they carry. To better constrain these uncertainties, we examine geochemical profiles across a suite of dunites and their adjacent harzburgites from the Samail and Wadi Tayin massifs in the southern portion of the Oman ophiolite (figure 1) and compare them to the compositions of dikes and lavas in the region. With these data we can discern between the proposed models of dunite nucleation and quantify the flux of melt through dunites.

## Methods:

The majority of the residual peridotite samples come from the Wadi Lufti region of the Samail massif. This area contains some of the freshest peridotites in Oman and preserves detailed lithologic structures ordinarily obscured by the extensive weathering typical of peridotites in other regions of Oman. Dunites in Oman vary dramatically in size, from a few centimeters in width to nearly 100 m [Braun and Kelemen, 2002]. To encompass this wide range, we collected detailed transects across four dunites ( $7 \mathrm{~cm}, 3$ $\mathrm{m}, 20 \mathrm{~m}$, and 50 m wide) as well as the surrounding harzburgites from Wadi Lufti.

One drawback to the high density of dunites in Wadi Lufti, is that it is difficult to get far away from one dunite without approaching another one. Therefore, to augment our chemical characterization of the harzburgite far from dunites, we include data from the Wadi Tayin massif (see figure 1) where dunite abundance is much smaller and the harzburgites are still reasonably fresh. To constrain the compositions of the melts which may have passed through these dunites, we also collected a suite of 41 basaltic dikes and lavas from the Samail and Wadi Tayin massifs (figure 1).


Figure 1: Sample locations within the Samail and Wadi Tayin massifs in the southern portion of the Oman ophiolite. Black boxes delineate regions in which peridotites were collected. White squares indicate dike and lava sample locations. Underlying geologic map is taken from Nicolas et al. [2002].

Compositional data for all major peridotite phases were collected using the JEOL JXA-733 Superprobe at the MIT Electron Microprobe Facility. The least-altered samples in each transect were chosen for analysis. Except for the smallest dunite which is completely contained in two large thin sections, this sub-sampling results a sample spacing of $\sim 0.5 \mathrm{~m}$ (with only a few small gaps). For each thin section, we measured cores of mineral clasts with little visible alteration (critical for spinels) and present the average of at least 4 distinct grains for each phase. In total, the four transects encompass 188 samples with 1088 olivines, 1279 spinels, and 123 pyroxenes. Sample mean compositions with $1 \sigma$ standard deviations are listed in tables B1, B2, and B3, respectively, available as electronic supplements at http://www.Journal.com.

Beam currents were adjusted to obtain high precision minor element concentrations in each phase. Olivine analyses were conducted using a $100 \mathrm{nA}, 15 \mathrm{kV}$
beam with a $1 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ spot size. For Ni and Ca , the high beam current and long count times ( 240 sec on peak/ 180 sec on background) yield a $1 \sigma$ uncertainty associated with counting statistics of $\pm 1.5 \%$. Spinels were measured using a $30 \mathrm{nA}, 15 \mathrm{kV}$ beam. For Ti in spinel, an 80 sec count time results in less than $7 \%$ uncertainty. Only minimal gains in precision were obtained with longer count times. Pyroxenes were measured using the standard beam current and accelerating voltage ( $10 \mathrm{nA}, 15 \mathrm{kV}$ ) but with increased count times on Ni and Ti .

Trace element concentrations in clinopyroxenes preserved in dunites were measured using the Cameca IMS 3f Ion Microprobe at the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution by Dr. Karen Hanghøj. Equilibrium liquid compositions for the observed clinopyroxenes were calculated using the mineral/melt partition coefficients of Hart \& Dunn, [1993]. Major and trace element concentrations for the suite of dikes and lavas were measured by ICP-MS by Dr. Julian Pearce at Cardiff University.

## Results:

Our detailed transects through the residual peridotites in conjunction with the analyses of the dikes and lavas have yielded several observations which we can use to improve our understanding of melt supply to oceanic spreading centers. First, the compositions of harzburgites and dunites measured in Wadi Lufti samples are similar to abyssal residual peridotites. Second, transects across the dunites show that the geochemical boundaries between dunites and the surrounding harzburgites are well defined, with sharp transitions in both major and minor element chemistry that coincide with the macroscopic changes in lithology. Third, dunite composition is fairly uniform within each transect, but varies systematically as a function of dunite width, with wide dunites close to equilibrium with liquids parental to the observed lavas and dikes in the region, which in turn are similar to MORB.

## 1. Peridotite Composition

Numerous studies have demonstrated that the major and trace element
composition of peridotites from Oman are similar to peridotites dredged from the seafloor near mid-ocean ridges [e.g. Boudier and Coleman, 1981; Kelemen et al., 1995; Pallister and Knight, 1981]. The peridotites from Wadi Lufti show a similar relationship. The $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ (molar $\mathrm{Cr} /(\mathrm{Cr}+\mathrm{Al}) * 100)$ of spinels ranges from 31-75. Although there is significant overlap, dunite Cr\#s are typically higher than $\sim 55$ whereas harzburgites generally fall below this value. The observed co-variation of $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ and $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ in the spinels follows the abyssal peridotite trend (figure 2a) but is offset slightly to lower Mg\# at a given Cr\#. The Cr \# in spinels from Oman dunites, as in other alpine peridotites, extends to higher values than the majority of abyssal peridotites but do not reach as low, suggestive of a higher degree of partial melting [Dick and Bullen, 1984]. The variation in the $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ content of spinels (figure 2 b ) is also similar to that observed in abyssal peridotites (as compiled by Kelemen et al. [1997; 1995]), with the concentration in the dunites (0.25-0.6 wt\%) distinctly higher than in harzburgite ( $<0.25 \mathrm{wt} \%$ ). The $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ in the Oman dunites, however, do not extend to concentrations as high as those observed in abyssal rocks.

The major element composition of the majority of olivine in the peridotites is consistent with a residual, rather than cumulate origin. Olivine Mg \# ranges from 90-93 with Ni contents of 0.3-0.4 $\mathrm{wt} \%$, similar to abyssal peridotites (figure 3b). However, a few harzburgites show evidence for impregnation. These samples exhibit abundant clinopyroxene, olivines with low Ni contents ( $<0.35 \mathrm{wt} \%$ ) and Mg " ( $<88-90.5$ ), orthopyroxene with $\mathrm{Mg} \#<88$, and interstitial spinels with low $\mathrm{Cr} \#$, high $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ and a translucent brown (rather than opaque black) appearance in plane light. Rocks with these anomalous compositions (shown in light gray - figure 3) typically reside at dunite/harzburgite contacts and reflecting a late stage of "impregnation" during cooling in which igneous phases crystallize from a liquid migrating along grain boundaries, rather than representing a trapped melt.


Figure 2: Major element composition of spinel from dunites of various widths (black) and the surrounding harzburgites (gray) from Wadi Lufti. The Oman spinel data follow the trends observed in abyssal peridotites (closed circles), suggesting that the petrogenic processes which occurred in Oman are similar to those beneath active mid-ocean ridges. a) Spinel $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ as a function of $\mathrm{Mg} \#$. The Oman samples sit at the upper end of the abyssal peridotite trend with dunites generally exhibiting higher $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ than harzburgites. b) $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ versus $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ in Oman spinels. Dunites consistently exhibit higher $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ contents than the adjacent harzburgites. "Impregnated" samples are shown in light gray. Error bars indicate $1 \sigma$ standard deviation around the mean based on at least 4 points per thin section.

The olivine and spinel compositions also correlate well with each other. Figure 3a shows that with increasing in $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ in spinel, there is a monotonic decrease in the Ni content in olivine, excluding the impregnated harzburgites. Additionally, there is a distinct relationship in the dunites between the $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ of the olivines and the $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ content of the coexisting spinels (figure 3c). Dunites with higher $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ have lower $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ olivines.

## 2. Dunite/Harzburgite contacts

In the field, dunite-harzburgite boundaries are clearly defined by the difference in orthopyroxene mode. Individual pyroxenes are easily observed in smooth, stream-cut outcrop surfaces and also affect the overall weathering of the rocks. The dunites in Wadi

Lufti are tabular bodies free of orthopyroxene with mutually-parallel contacts. However, large dunites can contain lens-shaped "islands" of harzburgite which approach several meters wide. In general, dunite-harzburgite contacts are sharp, with the orthopyroxene (opx) mode dropping from $\sim 20 \%$ in the harzburgite to zero in the dunite over distances on the order of the grain size [Braun and Hirth, in prep]. In only a few cases is a diffuse


Figure 3. Major and minor element covariations in olivines and spinels from southern Oman. a) NiO in olivine decreases as $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ in spinel increases. b) Olivine NiO versus $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ in comparison to data from abyssal peridotites (closed circles - see text for references). c) Olivine Mg\# versus $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ in coexisting spinel. $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ in dunites is consistently higher than in harzburgites and is correlated with olivine major element composition. Dunites are black, harzburgites are gray and symbol shape indicates dunite width. "Impregnated" samples are shown in light gray. Error bars indicate $1 \sigma$ standard deviation around the mean based on at least 4 points per thin section.
interface with intermediate opx mode observed. These opx-poor regions are small ( $<0.5$ m wide), discontinuous, and occur toward the periphery of clusters of dunites. Olivine dominates the mode at greater than $80 \%$. However, variations in spinel abundance are also observed. The spinel mode in the dunites is higher than in the harzburgite, by as much as a factor of two, although the spinel proportion in both rock types is generally
less than $1 \%$. In addition to these small variations over large length scales, we also observe punctuated excursions in spinel mode in the form of narrow spinel-rich bands (< 1 cm wide) which typically parallel the dunite-harzburgite contacts. These spinel-rich bands occur within the dunite or at the contact, but not within the harzburgite.

Transitions in the major and minor element compositions of olivine and spinel between the harzburgite and dunite are also sharp and coincident with the changes in opx mode. Figures $4-8$ show profiles for $\mathrm{Mg} \mathrm{\#}, \mathrm{Ni}$, and CaO in olivine, and $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ and $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ in spinel respectively, across each of the four dunites. Vertical lines mark the dunite/harzburgite contacts. Horizontal lines indicate the mean harzburgite composition. For each of these elements, with the exception of CaO in olivine, the chemical change occurs almost entirely at the lithologic contacts observed in the field. The Ca contents of olivine, in contrast, exhibit a gradual transition over several meters within the dunite as well as greater chemical variation within each sample.

The boundaries of harzburgite islands within dunites are also sharp. As seen in the 20 m wide dunite, the harzburgite island at the 5 m mark exhibits a coincident decrease in CaO and $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ with an increase in Ni . Similar changes within the dunites (at 18 m in the 20 m wide dunite and near 30 m in the 50 m wide dunite) may reflect the locations of former harzburgite islands recently relieved of all their pyroxene.

## 3. Compositional variation with dunite width

Although dunite compositions are relatively constant across each transect, we observe systematic changes in the mean composition of minerals in dunites with increasing dunite width. The smallest dunite has mineral compositions similar to those in the harzburgite. However, with increasing width, dunites exhibit a $10 \%$ drop in the Ni content, a 2 -unit drop in $\mathrm{Mg} \#$, a $300 \%$ increase in $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$, and a 7 -unit increase in $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ (figure 9a-d). Possible explanations for these variations are addressed in the discussion section.


Figure 4. Profiles of Mg\# across a) 50 m, b) 25 m, c) 3 m , and d) 7 cm wide dunites. Each symbol represents an individual analysis. Vertical lines indicate the position of the lithologic contacts observed in the field between each dunite (black) and the surrounding harzburgite. Horizontal dashed line indicates the mean harzburgite composition which includes the data from Wadi Tayin. Symbols are the same as in figures 2 and 3.


Figure 5. Profiles of $\mathrm{NiO}(\mathrm{wt} \%)$ in olivine across a) 50 m, b) $25 \mathrm{~m}, \mathrm{c}) 3 \mathrm{~m}$, and d) 7 cm wide dunites. See figure 4 for additional details.


Figure 6. Profiles of CaO ( $\mathrm{wt} \%$ ) in olivine across a) 50 m , b) $25 \mathrm{~m}, \mathrm{c}) 3 \mathrm{~m}$, and d) 7 cm wide dunites. The CaO contents in olivines at the centers of dunites are in equilibrium with the liquid parental to the Oman dikes and lavas. However, the low CaO values within $1-2 \mathrm{~m}$ of the contact are likely related to subsolidus exchange with pyroxenes in the harzburgite. See figure 4 for additional details.


Figure 7. Profiles of spinel Cr\# across a) 50 m , b) 25 m , c) 3 m , and d) 7 cm wide dunites. $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ is typically higher in the dunites than in the harzburgite. See figure 4 for additional details.


Figure 8. Profiles of $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}(\mathrm{wt} \%)$ in spinel across a) 50 m , b) $\left.25 \mathrm{~m}, \mathrm{c}\right) 3 \mathrm{~m}$, and d) 7 cm wide dunites. $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ is consistently higher in dunites than harzburgites and increases with increasing dunite width. See figure 4 for additional details.


Figure 9. Variation in olivine and spinel composition with dunite width. a) NiO decreases with increasing dunite width, whereas b) $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ and d) $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ increase. c) The variation in olivine Mg\# is more complex. Mg\# increases rapidly between small and moderate width dunites then decreases with increasing width.

In the widest dunite, the major and minor element compositions of olivine and spinel, and to a lesser extent trace element concentrations in clinopyroxene, are close to equilibrium with the inferred composition of primitive Oman lavas (Table 1). The major elements in the dikes and lavas vary systematically with the $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ of the liquid (figure 10) and may therefore represent a single liquid line of descent. From these trends, the composition of the liquid parental to the Oman lavas and dikes can be estimated by backfractionating olivine and spinel ( $\pm$ plagioclase and clinopyroxene) from the most primitive of the observed compositions. During back-fractionation, equilibrium olivine and spinel are progressively added, in $0.5 \%$ increments, to the liquid until it reaches equilibrium with olivine in the widest dunite ( $\mathrm{Mg} \#=90.8$ ). Equilibrium compositions are determined using partition coefficients derived from experiments, for $\mathrm{Fe}-\mathrm{Mg}$ [Gaetani
and Grove, 1998], Ni [Hart and Davis, 1978], and Ca [Libourel, 1999], assuming equilibration at $1300^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and 5 kb . Based on the observed proportion of olivine to spinel in mantle peridotites, for each unit mass of olivine added back to the liquid, $1 \%$ of that mass in spinel is added. The total mass added is $15 \%$ of the mass of the initial liquid. The composition of the inferred parental liquid is indicated by the star in figure 10.

The observed increase in the CaO and $\mathrm{Al}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ contents with increasing $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ in the lavas suggests that these lavas may have fractionated substantial amounts of plagioclase and clinopyroxene in addition to olivine and spinel. To address this possibility, we performed a similar back-fractionation calculation which included these phases. For each mass of equilibrium olivine added, twice the mass in both plagioclase and clinopyroxene were added to the liquid. The liquid reach equilibrium with Fo90.8 olivine after $\sim 37 \%$ mass addition, relative to the initial liquid mass. Representative plagioclase and clinopyroxene compositions were taken from Oman gabbros reported by Pallister and Hopson [1981]. The estimated parental liquid composition after gabbro backfractionation is shown by the squares in figure 10.

The true liquid line of descent, if only one unique path generated all the lavas measured in this study, is unlikely to involve saturation in only olivine and spinel or all four phases during the entire cooling history. Instead, each of the phases would appear at various points along the descent path. Therefore, these two back-fractionated liquids are potential end-members, between which lies the composition of the real parental liquid.

Because Ni is compatible in olivine, equilibrium olivine addition increases the NiO content of the liquid. Back-fractionation to equilibrium with Fo90.8 olivines predicts a primitive liquid with $0.02-0.04 \mathrm{wt} \% \mathrm{NiO}(150-300 \mathrm{ppm} \mathrm{Ni})$. Given the Ni partition coefficient (in wt\%) based on the MgO content of the liquid ( $14.25 \mathrm{wt} \%$ ) [Hart and Davis, 1978] is $\sim 8$, the NiO content of olivines in equilibrium with the primitive liquid would have $\sim 0.3 \mathrm{wt} \% \mathrm{NiO}$, which is the concentration observed in olivines from the widest dunite.


Figure 10. Composition of dikes and lavas from the Samail and Wadi Tayin massifs. Oxides exhibit systematic variation with the lava $\mathrm{Mg} \mathrm{\#}$, indicative of a liquid line of descent from a common parental liquid. Back fractionation of olivinetspinel (\$) and olivine+spinel+plagioclase+clinpyroxene () bound the composition of the parental liquid.

The Ca contents of olivines in the centers of the wide dunites ( $\sim 0.2 \mathrm{wt} \%$ ) may also reflect equilibrium with the primitive mantle-derived liquid. The lavas and dikes from Oman indicate parental liquids with Ca contents of $\sim 11-13 \mathrm{wt} \%$, similar to primitive MORB (as defined by liquids with Mg\#> 66 taken from PetDB, the global MORB database). Based on olivine/melt partitioning experiments [Libourel, 1999], the predicted olivine CaO content is $0.19-0.26 \mathrm{wt} \%$, similar to the olivines in the centers of wide dunites.

The CaO content of olivines in the wider dunites decreases substantially within a
few meters of the contact with the harzburgite. This variation is most likely related to subsolidus redistribution of Ca rather than differences in melt composition in the dunite during formation at igneous conditions. Although, the high, uniform CaO contents of olivines away from the contacts of the wide dunites likely record equilibration with primitive Oman melt, applying the same partition coefficient argument (using Libourel, [1999]) to the composition of the low-Ca olivines predicts a liquid with less than 4.25 $\mathrm{wt} \% \mathrm{CaO}$. Although glasses with such low CaO contents have been observed at midocean ridges, they uniformly have $\sim 70 \mathrm{wt} \% \mathrm{SiO}_{2}, \mathrm{Mg} \mathrm{\#}$ 's less than 20 , and represent less than $0.4 \%$ of the total MORB database. Because these are not the compositions of primitive melts in the mantle, we infer that the low Ca contents in olivines within a few meters of the harzburgite contacts (which includes all the samples from the two narrow dunites) are the result of subsolidus loss of Ca from olivine to proximal orthopyroxene.
$\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ contents of spinel also reflect equilibrium with the primitive liquid. For the purposes of back-fractionation, we assume that Ti is completely incompatible in olivine. After back-fractionation, the primitive liquid contains approximately $0.6-0.7 \mathrm{wt} \% \mathrm{TiO}_{2}$. Thermodynamic solution models for Ti equilibrium between spinel and melt suggest partitioning is a complex function of the major element composition of both the solid and liquid [Poustovetov et al., 2001]. However, for simplicity in calculation, we employ the exponential relationship between the $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ of the spinel and the concentration ratio of the spinel and coexisting melt observed in natural oceanic samples [Allan et al., 1988; Gaetani et al., 1995; Hawkins and Melchior, 1983; Hawkins and Melchior, 1985] (figure 11). An exponential fit to the data yields the following partitioning relationship: $K_{T i}^{s p}=\exp (0.0359 \times \mathrm{Cr} \#-2.26)$. Given the $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ of the spinels in the widest dunite are $\sim 62$, the predicted $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ content of the spinels in equilibrium with the primitive liquid is 0.58 $0.68 \mathrm{wt} \%$, similar to what is observed in the spinels.


Figure 11. Relationship for $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ partitioning as a function of spinel $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ between spinel and basaltic melt. The compositions of spinels and coexisting basalt are taken from a variety of marine volcanic environments [Allan et al., 1988; Gaetani et al., 1995; Hawkins and Melchior, 1983; Hawkins and Melchior, 1985].

Clinopyroxenes preserved in the widest dunite also suggest near-equilibrium with the liquids parental to the dikes and lavas in Oman. The estimated REE content of the parental lavas is based on back-fractionation of olivine from dikes and lavas with measured Mg\#s greater than 60 . Of the 41 samples, 6 fit this criterion. Figure 12 shows that the chondrite-normalized REE concentrations of these lavas are nearly indistinguishable from primitive MORB glass [Frey et al., 1993]. The trace element compositions of the observed liquids are listed in table 1. Clinopyroxenes from the 50 m wide dunite are moderately depleted in rare earth elements, but significantly more lightREE enriched than residual harzburgites from Oman [Kelemen et al., 1995] or the seafloor [e.g. Johnson et al., 1990]. Calculated liquids in equilibrium with these clinopyroxenes are determined using the mineral/melt partition coefficients of Hart and Dunn [1993]. The liquid composition based on the median of 42 clinopyroxenes falls slightly below that of the Oman and MORB lavas, similar to previous measurements [Kelemen et al., 1995].


Figure 12. Rare earth element (REE) concentrations in lavas (Mg\#>60) and dunite hosted clinopyroxenes (cpx) from Oman. Measured lava concentrations have been adjusted via olivine back-fractionation as described in the text. Calculated liquids in equilibrium with the mean cpx composition (thick gray line with $1 \sigma$ error) are similar to the primitive liquids which are indistinguishable from primitive MORB glass [Frey et al., 1993].

The major and trace elements of both the solid and liquid phases measured in Oman, particularly in wide dunites, are distinct from the compositions of other ophiolitic peridotites that exhibit equilibration with highly-depleted liquids. Suhr et al. [2003] present a comprehensive suite of geochemical profiles across dunites from the Bay of Islands (BOI) ophiolite. Although several aspects of these data are similar to our observations in Oman, Suhr et al show that the composition of the large dunites in BOI record transport of strongly depleted melts. In particular, the dunites are dominated by olivines with high Mg\#'s (92-95), spinels with less than $0.15 \mathrm{wt} \% \mathrm{TiO}_{2}$, and replete with REE-depleted clinopyroxenes. Additionally, Suhr et al. observe a monotonic increase in $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ with dunite width but no relationship between either $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ or NiO with width.

The variations in mineral compositions with width in BOI dunites are distinct from the trends seen in Oman and are consistent with equilibration of increasingly depleted melts in wider dunites. Primarily, BOI dunites exhibit a monotonic increase in olivine Mg \# with width to values much higher than observed in residual peridotites in

Oman. The olivine NiO contents are slightly higher than in Oman and the spinel $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ contents are lower, as is observed in ultra-depleted melt inclusions in olivine [Sobolev and Shimizu, 1993] and the more refractory dikes in BOI [Suhr et al., 2003] and Oman [Python and Ceuleneer, 2003]. Neither Ni or Ti show any appreciable change with dunite width.

## Discussion:

Rather than inferring chemical interactions solely from compositional variations in erupted lavas or dredged peridotites, the exposures in Oman offer the opportunity to integrate the variations in the composition of residual peridotites with the spatiallyassociated lavas and the morphology of the melt conduits themselves to constrain the mechanisms by which dunites form and the composition and flux of melts they transport. The geochemical trends observed in Oman peridotites, and in particular from Wadi Lufti, closely follow those documented in abyssal peridotites (figures 2 and 3). The similarities in chemical trends seen in Oman and abyssal peridotites suggest that the igneous processes which formed the rocks now in the ophiolite are comparable to those that occur beneath modern oceanic spreading centers. The similarities between the Oman lavas and dikes presented here and primitive MORB (figure 12) augment this hypothesis. Whether or not the Oman ophiolite was formed at a mid-ocean ridge or back-arc spreading center is still a matter of debate [Pearce et al., 1981]. However, we do observe that multiple phases in the widest dunites are in major, minor, and, to a lesser extent, trace element equilibrium with liquids parental to the Oman extrusives, implying these wide dunites are conduits for the transport of primitive melts to the surface.

Given the paucity of compositional and morphological data on dunites from active mid-ocean ridges, the observed covariations in olivine and spinel composition from Oman and their relationship to dunite width are the best constraints for addressing how dunites form beneath oceanic spreading centers in general and whether they could be the primary conduits for chemically-isolated melt transport in the sub-ridge mantle.

Two distinct melt migration mechanisms have been proposed to explain the
formation of replacive dunites in the adiabatically upwelling mantle. One option is that melt migration occurs in fractures induced by melt overpressure [Nicolas, 1990; Suhr, 1999]. In this view, dunites are produced by diffusive interaction between the melt migrating through a fracture and interstitial melts in the host rock. Alternatively, melt may migrate entirely by porous flow, and dunites could represent high-porosity conduits into which undersaturated melts are focused. The detailed geochemical transects presented here provide a means to discriminate between these mechanisms of dunite formation.

## 1. Dunite nucleation around cracks

If dunites form by reaction around melt-filled fractures, then the compositional profiles should reflect the lateral diffusive transport of material between the fracture and the reaction front, or from the reaction front into the harzburgite, as is observed in laboratory experiments [Morgan and Liang, 2003]. Specifically, profiles of elements with significantly different diffusivities and partition coefficients (such as $\mathrm{Ni}, \mathrm{Fe}, \mathrm{Ca}$, and Ti) should exhibit different gradients away from the melt source. However, we observe sharp dunite/harzburgite transitions in both olivine and spinel composition (figures 4-8) and in the orthopyroxene mode (the primary reflection of the silica transport inherent to the dissolution reaction). Additionally, the time required for silicon diffusion around a melt-filled fracture to form the wide dunites (which preserve the most primitive melt signatures) is longer than the residence time of solid material in the melting region. [Braun and Kelemen, 2002]. Instead, dunite compositions are relatively constant across their width. No distinct centralized peak in concentration, indicative of the location of the annealed fracture, was observed.

Takahashi [1991; 1992] and Suhr [1999] argued that flat profiles across dunites with sharp contacts form within fractures which drained melt from the adjacent harzburgite and/or precipitated olivine in the fracture. Because the melts drained from the harzburgite were generated in situ, they are in equilibrium with the harzburgite and cannot dissolve any orthopyroxene. Precipitation of significant volumes of olivine within
the hydrofracture, enough to produce dunites several meters wide, is inconsistent with replacive nature of the contacts observed in the field [Kelemen et al., 1995].

From the geochemical data presented here we find no conclusive evidence that requires the presence of melt-filled fractures existing within dunites. The absence of evidence, however, cannot disprove the hypothesis. A hydrofracture origin is plausible for the small dunites which cross-cut the peridotite foliation at high angles. These dunite dikes, which locally contain several percent plagioclase and clinopyroxene [Python and Ceuleneer, 2003] likely formed in the conductive boundary layer just below the crust. However, the formation of hydrofractures in the melting region beneath a ridge is mechanically unlikely. A permeability barrier is required to develop significant melt overpressures to initiate hydrofracture, but such a sharp decrease in permeability in the adiabatically-upwelling portion of the melting region would be difficult to maintain because the melt fraction is typically increasing due to melting and reaction with primitive melts [Kelemen et al., 1997]. Additionally, mechanical data from laboratory experiments indicate that the viscosity of peridotite at upper mantle conditions is sufficiently low to deform at geologic strain rates at very small differential stresses $(\sim 1$ MPa) [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 2003]. Therefore, if a localized melt overpressure were to develop, the stress around it would easily be dissipated by viscous decompaction before it was large enough to induce hydrofracture.

## 2. Dunite nucleation by reactive porous flow

An increasing body of evidence indicates that dunites represent high-permeability conduits initiated as dissolution instabilities during reactive porous flow. The reaction of harzburgite at shallow pressure with melt derived from higher pressure results in dissolution of orthopyroxene, crystallization of a smaller mass of olivine, and an increase in the liquid mass [Kelemen, 1990]. The increase in porosity increases the local permeability, allowing an increased flux of reactive melt into the region, enhancing dissolution. This positive feedback can rapidly form a coalescing network of high
permeability channels which focus melt transport [Aharonov et al., 1995; Kelemen et al., 1995; Spiegelman et al., 2001].

The dunite channels, once formed, would grow wider with time. Percolation models based on melt topology in peridotites indicate that dunites are more permeable than harzburgites. The decrease in mean dihedral angle associated with the decreasing abundance of pyroxene [Toramaru and Fujii, 1986; Zhu and Hirth, 2003] coupled with the increase in porosity by reaction suggest that, once formed, dunites may serve as high permeability conduits for continued focused melt transport. Sustained transport of opxundersaturated melts will widen the conduit with time by reaction along the margins [e.g. Spiegelman et al., 2001].

The peridotites from Wadi Lufti exhibit distinct compositional variations which imply that dunite width is related to composition of melt which passed through it. Because the chemical covariations also follow trends commonly observed in abyssal peridotites (figures 2 and 3), we can use our observations from Oman to address whether porous dunites conduits are the primary conduits for the transport of primitive MORBs which form the oceanic crust.

The variation in mineral composition with dunite width (figure 9) may reflect either variations in melt composition derived from mixing of depleted and primitive liquids, or the reaction of harzburgite with a primitive liquid and the continued flux of that melt through the resulting dunite. By comparing the predictions of these two models to the observed geochemical variations, we can constrain the proportion of primitive melt which flowed through the dunites and quantify the melt/rock ratio.

## 3. Variable magma composition

The widest dunites in Oman are in equilibrium with primitive melts from deep in the melting column. In contrast, the harzburgites are the residues of high-degree, polybaric partial melting in equilibrium with shallow depleted melts. In this section, we compare the observed chemical variations with the calculated composition of dunites in equilibrium with mixtures of primitive and depleted melts.

We offer three probable mechanisms which could result in mixing of primitive and depleted liquids in a coalescing network of porous conduits: 1) diffusive chemical exchange between melts in the dunite and the surrounding harzburgite; 2) compactionenhanced "suction" of melts into the dunite from the adjacent, lower-permeability harzburgite [Spiegelman and Kelemen, 2003]; and 3) addition of more depleted melts from smaller tributaries in the coalescing network. Any combination of these mechanisms could be responsible for contributing depleted melts to the deeper-derived melts ascending in dunites, independent of the dunite width. However, melt addition along dunite margins is more likely to affect narrow dunites because the added melt represents a larger fraction of the total flux in narrow dunites in comparison with the total flux in wider dunites. The increased mixing in small dunites could therefore create the observed compositional variations with width. Field evidence from Oman suggests that porosity may increase with increasing dunite width [Braun and Kelemen, 2002] making the effect of peripheral melt addition even more pronounced in narrow dunites than in wide ones.

To test this mixing hypothesis, we calculated the composition of dunites in equilibrium with mixtures of depleted and primitive end-member liquids to compare them with the observed geochemical variations. The primitive melt composition is assumed to be that of the liquid parental to the dikes and lavas observed in Oman (table 2). For the depleted end-member, we use the composition of ultra-depleted melt (UDM) inferred from olivine-hosted melt inclusions collected from the seafloor [Sobolev and Shimizu, 1993]. The major element composition of UDM is close to equilibrium with the Oman harzburgites. However, the Ni content of UDM has not been measured, so we assert the Ni content of the depleted melt is $0.036 \mathrm{wt} \%$, to be in equilibrium with the observed harzburgite composition. The higher Ni content, relative to the parental Oman liquid, is justifiable because Ni is compatible in olivine. Partial melting of harzburgite will increase the Ni content of the depleted residue relative to the more-fertile source rock.

The compositions of olivine and spinel in equilibrium with these liquids are best
reproduced using the following mineral/liquid partition coefficients, several of which vary with the composition of the liquid: $K_{o l}^{\text {Fe-M8 }}=0.28-0.30$ [Gaetani and Grove, 1998], $K_{o l}^{N i}=10.5-11.7$ (wt\%) [Hart and Davis, 1978], $K_{s p}^{T i}=0.76-0.25$ (wt\%), and $K_{s p}^{C_{r}}=400$, $K_{s p}^{A l}=1.8$. As described in the results section, the spinel partition coefficients used here are derived from the compositions of natural spinels (figure 13) and the coexisting basalts from a variety of oceanic environments [Allan et al., 1988; Gaetani et al., 1995; Hawkins and Melchior, 1983; Hawkins and Melchior, 1985]


Figure 13. Observed partitioning of Cr and Al between natural spinels and their basaltic host lavas from several marine environments.

Figure 14 shows the evolution of the calculated equilibrium dunite composition as the ratio of depleted to primitive melt in the mixture varies from 0.01 to 100 . The general compositional trends in the data are reproduced in this model. However, the model fails to reproduce the observed variation in olivine $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ (figure14 b and c) because simple mixing cannot increase the Mg \# beyond that of either end-member. As a result, the systematic trend of decreasing olivine $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ with increasing $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ and increasing dunite width is not seen in the model.

Using a depleted melt composition in equilibrium with the higher Mg\# dunite samples would yield a better fit to the data. However, simply defining a melt based on
the dunite composition is circular in reasoning and provides no explanation for the origin of a liquid more depleted than the most depleted residues.


Figure 14. Dunite compositions in equilibrium with various mixtures of depleted and primitive melts. The depleted end-member is taken to be UDM and the primitive end-member is derived by back-fractionation of olivine and spinel. The ratio of depleted to primitive melt in the mixture is indicated at each tick mark. The mixing model reproduces much of the observed variation in Oman dunites (closed circles) and harzburgites (open circles) but cannot account for the observed high in $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ in small dunites.

## 4. Reaction with a Primitive Liquid

We can better match the observed chemical variations, especially the changes in Mg \# with dunite width, by incorporating orthopyroxene dissolution into a mass-balance model for peridotite composition with increasing melt/rock ratio. We approximate the geochemical evolution of peridotite during reactive melt transport by calculating the equilibrium composition of a fixed mass of harzburgite with an increasing mass of melt.

The mass balance between the initial peridotite and the increasing mass of primitive liquid is accomplished in two stages: a dunite formation stage to account for
mass redistribution during reaction of the harzburgite and a dunite flux stage which describes the equilibration of the newly formed dunite with an increasing melt mass.

During reaction, the change in phase proportions is dependent upon the reaction stoichiometry and the melt/rock ratio. As opx is consumed by reaction with the primitive liquid, olivine and spinel are precipitated and the liquid mass increases. This reaction is described (in mass units) as

1 OPX + 1 MELT $_{1}-->n_{o l}$ OLIVINE + $\left(2-n_{o l}\right)$ MELT $_{2}$,
where $n_{o l}$ is the mass of olivine precipitated per unit mass of opx consumed. The reaction stoichiometry is not known precisely. Based on the ratio of the apparent heats of fusion of olivine and opx at $1300^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, Kelemen [1990] estimated $n_{o l}$ to be approximately 0.7 for isobaric and either isothermal or isenthalpic conditions and constant pressure. This result has been confirmed experimentally by Daines and Kohlstedt [Daines and Kohlstedt, 1994]. However, $n_{o l}$ less than 0.7 could result, for example, from reaction during adiabatic decompression. For the purposes of testing the sensitivity of the model in relation to the data observed in Oman, we explore a range in $n_{o l}$ of 0.1 to 0.7 .

We define the melt/rock ratio, $\xi$, as the mass of the melt phase relative to that of the initial harzburgite mass. To adequately resolve the chemical changes during the initial stages of dissolution as well as the evolution of the dunite at high $\xi$, the melt/rock ratio is varied from 0.001 to 1000 with a non-linear step size. The critical melt/rock ratio, $\xi_{\text {crii, }}$, at which dissolution is complete is determined by the degree of opx-undersaturation and the abundance of opx in the initial harzburgite. A harzburgite with $\sim 20 \%$ orthopyroxene reacting at 2 kb with melt formed at an average pressure of 12 kb , would require approximately twice its mass in liquid to dissolve opx completely [Kelemen, 1990; Kelemen and Dick, 1995; Kelemen et al., 1997]. Based on the observations of solid phase abundance in the harzburgites from Oman, the initial harzburgite mode used for these calculations is $79 \%$ olivine, $20 \%$ orthopyroxene, and $1 \%$ spinel. Given the natural variation in the opx mode and, more importantly, the uncertainties in the silica activity of the primitive liquid, we allow the critical melt/rock ratio to vary from 0.5-4.

The equilibrium phase compositions for each melt/rock ratio are calculated via
three steps: determination of the bulk composition prior to reaction, modal adjustment due to reaction, and redistribution of elements into the new phase assemblage. The total content of each element, $i$, in the system, $C_{\text {tot }}^{i}$, is the sum of the initial composition, $C_{p}^{i}$, of each phase, $p$, times the modal proportion of the phase prior to reaction, $X_{p}$, or

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{\text {tot }}^{i}=\sum C_{p}^{i} X_{p} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The initial compositions of each of the solid phases is listed in table 2.
The mass proportions of each phase after reaction (denoted with *) are a function of the reaction stoichiometry, $n_{p}$, the melt/rock ratio, $\xi$, and $\xi_{\text {crit }}$ and can be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{p}^{*}=X_{p}-\frac{X_{p}}{\xi_{c r i t}} n_{p} \xi \text { for } \xi \leq \xi_{c r i r} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

With each unit mass of primitive melt added, the elemental components of the dissolved mass of opx are redistributed amongst the remaining phases. The kinetics of opx dissolution are sufficiently rapid [Brearley and Scarfe, 1986; Kuo and Kirkpatrick, 1985] and the grain size in the harzburgites is small enough [Braun and Hirth, in prep] to assume local equilibrium is achieved between the peridotite and the pervasive interstitial melt. Therefore, by substituting the appropriate partition coefficient,

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{p}^{i}=\frac{C_{p}^{i}}{C_{\text {melt }}^{i}} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for equilibrium between the phase $p$ and the melt into equation (1), the concentration of each element in each phase can be determined,

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{p^{*}}^{i}=\frac{C_{\text {lot }}^{i} K_{p}^{i}}{X_{m e l t}^{*}+X_{o l}^{*} K_{o l}^{i}+X_{o p x}^{*} K_{o p x}^{i}+X_{s p}^{*} K_{s p}^{i}} . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Olivine partition coefficients are the same as those used for the olivine back-fractionation and melt-mixing models. For simplicity, we assume $\mathrm{Ti}, \mathrm{Cr}$, and Al are perfectly incompatible in olivine as is Ni in spinel. Orthopyroxene-melt partition coefficients are fixed at $K_{o p}^{M g}=2.8, K_{o p}^{F e}=0.65, K_{o p}^{N i}=2.15$, and $K_{o p}^{A l}=0.07$ [Colson et al., 1988]. Spinel partition coefficients are derived from ratios observed in natural spinels and the
coexisting basalts [Allan et al., 1988; Gaetani et al., 1995; Hawkins and Melchior, 1983; Hawkins and Melchior, 1985]. Partition coefficients for elements in phases without empirically determined values are based on the observed compositions of coexisting solid phases in the harzburgites. See table 3 for a complete listing of the partition coefficients and their sources.

The mass balance model with reaction produces simultaneous variation in olivine $\mathrm{Mg} \#, \mathrm{NiO}$, and $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ as a function of the melt/rock ratio (figure 15). Because opx has a lower $\mathrm{Fe} / \mathrm{Mg}$ than the coexisting olivine, the incorporation of that Mg and Fe from opx into olivine by reaction subsequently raises the Mg\#. Additionally, Fe is less compatible than Mg in olivine, so the increased liquid mass preferentially partitions Fe into the liquid, further increasing the olivine $\mathrm{Mg} \#$.

Once the melt/rock ratio increases beyond complete orthopyroxene dissolution, the Mg\# drops as the bulk composition shifts towards olivine and spinel compositions in equilibrium with the ever increasing mass of primitive liquid. The $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ of the primitive liquid is sufficiently low to draw the olivine $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ back down.

The magnitude of the increase in the olivine Mg \# is dependent upon the reaction stoichiometry, $n_{o l}$, and the critical melt/rock ratio, $\xi_{c r i t}$. As $n_{o l}$ increases, the $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ variation decreases because the high-Mg\# opx reactant is diluted in a larger reservoir of olivine product. Over the range of $n_{o l}$ examined, reaction raises the $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ to $91.2-91.8$ from its initial value of 90.8 (figure 15 a - gray lines). At a fixed value of $n_{o l}$, increasing the critical melt/rock ratio, $\xi_{\text {crii }}$, decreases the influence of opx dissolution on the Mg \# of the olivine by diluting the high-Mg\# opx component in a larger mass of liquid (figure 15a - dashed lines). These results are similar to those of Suhr et al. [2003], although they were derived in a slightly different manner. Our model also continues past complete opx dissolution to model the return of the dunite composition to equilibrium with the primitive melt that formed it.

The model predicts that the concentration of Ni in olivine decreases moderately during opx dissolution and then drops further with increasing melt/rock ratio (figure 15b). Reaction decreases the olivine Ni content in proportion to the mass of olivine
precipitated. Orthopyroxene has a low Ni content, so reaction increases the olivine mass without appreciably changing the bulk Ni concentration. As a result, the finite mass of Ni in the system is diluted in an increasing mass of olivine. Increasing $n_{o l}$ decreases the NiO concentration in the olivine. Regardless of the reaction stoichiometry, after dissolution is complete, the NiO content drops further as the dunite interacts with an increasing amount of melt with a low Ni concentration.

The observed differences in NiO between the dunites and harzburgite are larger than can be accounted for simply by Ni exchange between olivine and opx during cooling. For $1000^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ of cooling, loss of Ni from opx would result in an increase of only $0.01 \mathrm{wt} \%(80 \mathrm{ppm})$ in the olivine NiO content [Kelemen et al., 1998]. Although, cooling could account for some of the variation within harzburgite samples.

The model also predicts an increase in the spinel $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ content with increasing melt/rock ratio (figure 15c). Reaction induces a sharp increase in Cr \# as Cr is added to spinel from both the primitive liquid and the dissolving orthopyroxene. The elevated Cr content and $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ of the primitive liquid relative to MORB perhaps reflect this effect of melt/rock reaction. The increase in $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ has a distinct effect on the $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ concentration. The Ti partition coefficient increases with the progressive increase in Cr\#, raising the $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ content in spinel. The increase in $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ content after complete opx dissolution is mitigated slightly as Al previously held in the opx is distributed between the melt and the spinel, dropping the Cr\#. However, once the liquid mass is large enough that the bulk Al content is not influenced by the opx component, the Cr \# increases and the $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ increase continues unfettered.

Although the model can reproduce the bulk of the Mg \# variation, it can not explain the very high Mg\#s ( $>92$ ) observed in the data. The calculations are based on a fixed harzburgite composition. However, the Mg\# of the harzburgites in Wadi Lufti vary considerably (figure 3). If instead of the average composition, a higher Mg\# harzburgite is used as the starting composition, then higher olivine Mg\#s can be attained by reaction. Some of the observed variations in harzburgite Mg \# may be related to local variations in source composition and/or the degree of melting.


Figure 15. Variation in olivine $\mathrm{Mg} \mathrm{\#}, \mathrm{NiO}$, and $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ as a function of melt/rock ratio derived from the mass balance model incorporating orthopyroxene dissolution. a) Progressive dissolution of opx with increasing $\xi$ increases the Mg\# in olivine which is then reset by the continued increase in liquid mass. The increase in Mg\# depends strongly on the ratio of olivine precipitated during reaction to opx dissolved, $n_{o l}$ (gray lines) as well as on the mass of melt required to completely dissolve opx from the rock, $\xi_{\text {crii }}$ (dashed lines). Based on theoretical and experimental constraints, we assume $n_{o r}=0.7$ and $\xi_{c r i i}=1$ (dashed gray line) for the reaction modeling. b) NiO and c) $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ variations within each phase as a function of melt/rock ratio for $\xi_{c r i f}=1$ and $n_{o}=0.3$ and 0.7 . As reaction progresses, the increase in olivine mass reduces it NiO content, as opx contains comparatively little NiO . Reaction also increases the $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ content of the melt and spinel. The magnitude of the changes is sensitive to the value of $n_{o l}$, which dictates the mass changes during reaction.


Figure 16. Calibration and performance of a preliminary olivine-orthopyroxene geothermometer. a) The thermometer is calibrated on olivine-orthopyroxene pairs from experiments at a variety of temperature and pressure conditions. Open circles represent data inverted using $\Delta C_{p}=-0.08425 \mathrm{~kJ} / \mathrm{mol}$. Dots are the same data inverted using $\Delta C_{p}=-0.1$. b) The thermometer based on the experiments (open circles) predicts the temperatures derived from olivine-spinel thermometry [Sack and Ghiorso, 1991] and the measured $K_{o l-O_{p x}}^{\text {Fe-Mg }}$.

In addition to igneous compositional variations, the olivine $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ in the harzburgite may be reduced by subsolidus diffusion. Olivine-spinel thermometry in the dunites indicates that significant diffusive exchange of Fe and Mg occurred down to temperatures of approximately $700^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. Although the spinel represents only a small fraction of the mass of the harzburgite, similar subsolidus re-equilibration with orthopyroxene may have significantly affected the $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ of the olivines in the harzburgites.

Following Loucks [1996] we develop a preliminary olivine-opx thermometer to estimate the change in the $\mathrm{Fe} / \mathrm{Mg}$ distribution coefficient, $K_{o l-O p x}^{F e-\mathrm{M}_{8}}$, between the two phases with decreasing temperature. By assuming the heat capacities of olivine and opx are similar and do not vary significantly with temperature, olivine-orthopyroxene pairs from experiments [Colson et al., 1988; Gaetani and Grove, 1998; Gaetani et al., 1994; Grove and Juster, 1989; Gudfinnsson and Presnall, 2000; Kinzler, 1997] can be inverted to develop an predictive relationship between $K_{o l-O_{p x}}^{\mathrm{Fe} \mathrm{Mg}_{g}}$ and temperature (Figure 16a). The derivation and calibration of the thermometric relation is described in Appendix A.


Figure 17. Olivine and orthopyroxene $\mathrm{Mg} \# \mathrm{~s}$ following $\mathrm{Fe}-\mathrm{Mg}$ repartitioning at $1300^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ based on variations in $K_{o t-o_{p x}}^{F e-M_{8}}$ predicted by olivine-opx geothermometry. The derivation of repartitioning functions for each phase is described in appendix $A$.

The increase in $K_{o l-O p x}^{F e-M g}$ with decreasing temperature (Figure 16b) implies that more Fe was partitioned to the olivine while more Mg was segregated to the opx during cooling. Therefore, at igneous conditions, olivines in the harzburgites had a higher $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ than the measured values would indicate. The $15 \%$ decrease in $K_{O l-O p x}^{F e-M_{8}}$ associated with increasing the temperature from $\sim 700^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $1300^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ implies, the mean $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ would increase from 90.8 to 92 (figure 17), bringing the harzburgite olivines up to values commensurate with those measured in the narrowest dunite.

Given the uncertainties in the composition of the initial peridotite and the primitive liquid, we focus on four probable model solutions which reproduce the data from Oman. Figure 18 shows each of these models superimposed on the data from Oman. In all models, $n_{o l}=0.7$ and $\xi_{\text {crit }}=1$, consistent with the theoretical and experimental values, as discussed above.

The composition of the estimated parental liquid is dependent upon the crystal fractionation path and subsequently affects the $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ of the olivines during reaction. Using the liquid composition obtained by back fractionation of olivine and spinel (figure 18 a - open circles), the model predicts only a modest change in the olivine Mg \# during reaction. However, a much larger increase in Mg\# during reaction is observed if the gabbro fractionated liquid is used as the reacting liquid (figure 18 a - open squares). The
change in model response is due to the differences in absolute concentrations of Fe and Mg between the two liquids. The $\mathrm{Fe} / \mathrm{Mg}$ ratio is the same in both liquids, which is why the olivines evolve to the same $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ at high melt rock ratios. However, the lower Fe content coupled with a partition coefficient less than 1 induces lower Fe contents in the coexisting olivine and orthopyroxene. Subsequently, the addition of that Fe -poor opx back into the system via reaction further boosts the Mg \# of the olivine which is preferentially taking Mg over Fe .

As a consequence of the different concentrations (including $\mathrm{K}, \mathrm{Na}$, and Al ) the partition coefficients are also slightly different. The effect on the magnitude of $\mathrm{Fe}-\mathrm{Mg}$ is small. Using a purely temperature-dependent $K_{o l}^{\text {Fe-Mg }}$ [Roeder and Emslie, 1970] rather than one which incorporates aluminate melt components [Gaetani and Grove, 1998] demonstrates that the effect of composition of the partition coefficient is small. However, the lower $\mathrm{Cr} / \mathrm{Al}$ ratio in gabbro-fractionated liquid produces lower $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ spinels during reaction which in turn reduces the change in $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ of spinel (figure 18d).

In addition to the variations in the liquid composition, we have discussed the possibility that the composition of the initial harzburgite could vary due to subsolidus Fe Mg exchange. Figures 18b and calso show the effects of varying the starting harzburgite Mg\# between the mean of the observed values and the repartitioned value assuming FeMg subsolidus exchange was important (solid and dashed lines, respectively). By correcting for $\mathrm{Fe}-\mathrm{Mg}$ exchange at low temperature, the $\mathrm{Mg} \mathrm{\#}$ of the olivine increases and the Mg\# of the coexisting opx decreases. The change in olivine Mg\# during reaction is reduced owing to the smaller $\mathrm{Fe} / \mathrm{Mg}$ ratio in the opx component, but less of an increase is necessary to fit the model to the data. Correcting for subsolidus $\mathrm{Fe}-\mathrm{Mg}$ exchange has no effect on the evolution of the NiO content in olivine or $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ and $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ in spinel (figure 18 a,d)

These results suggest that the geochemical covariations observed in Oman reflect the time-integrated melt/rock ratio of the peridotite. In our model all dunites undergo the same formation process. The systematic variations in dunite composition with width imply a progressive overprinting of the reaction signature with that of the primitive melt.

Narrow dunites have not been completely overprinted and thus carried a smaller timeintegrated flux. Whereas, wide dunites, which preserve equilibrium with primitive melts, were conduits for large masses of primitive melt ( $>100$ times that of the dunite).


Figure 18. Model results for the evolution of the peridotite composition with increasing melt/rock interaction. Melt-rock reaction increases the olivine $\mathrm{Mg} \mathrm{\#}$ and spinel $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{Cr} \mathrm{\#}$, while decreasing NiO in olivine. Equilibration of the resulting dunite with an increasing mass of liquid drives the Mg \# back down along with NiO , while the $\mathrm{Cr} \mathrm{\#}$ and $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ continue to rise. The model curves reproduce the general trends observed in the data (figure 3). Harzburgites are plotted as small open circles, dunites as small filled circles. During opx dissolution, the line is shown in gray. Once reaction is complete, the line is black. Curves with large open circles delineate the peridotite evolution using the "dunite"-back-fractionated liquid. Squares designate the curves which used the "gabbro"-back-fractionated liquid. Symbols along each curve represent melt/rock ratios, from left to right in a,c,d, of $0.001,0.01,0.1,1,10,100,100$.

Although the predicted changes in peridotite composition due to reaction span the range of the observed data, it does not imply that all compositional variation is related to reaction with opx-undersaturated melt. Analyses of numerous spinels in abyssal harzburgites show large variations in $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ and $\mathrm{Mg} \#$ which can arise from variations in
degree of melting and olivine fractionation, which certainly are occurring in the polybaric fractional melting regime beneath spreading centers. Because dunites are forming over a range of depths in the melting region, the melts which form them must also be variable. Mixing of these variable degree melts, by diffusion, compaction-driven flow, or injection from tributaries cannot be ruled out. The misfit between observed in composition of dunites and the model predictions likely reflect the variable contributions of these multiple processes.

## 5. Mass Balance in a Network of Dunites

The geochemical data in the context of the reaction-flux model presented here are consistent with field observations that suggest wider dunites have a higher melt/rock ratio than smaller dunites. Assuming dunites form a coalescing network of porous conduits in which magma flux is conserved, the observed power-law relationship between the abundance of dunites in Oman and their width suggests that the permeability of wide dunites is substantially higher than that in narrow dunites. As a result, magma flux estimates derived from the observed size-frequency relationship indicate the majority of the magma flux to mid-ocean ridges is transported through dunites greater than $\sim 10 \mathrm{~m}$ wide [Braun and Kelemen, 2002] . As discussed above, the composition of the wide dunites presented here are in equilibrium with melts which form the bulk of the Oman crust.

Grain size variations from the same suite of dunites as examined in this study support the hypothesis that the permeability was higher in wider dunites. Olivine grain size in these dunites increases with dunite width [Braun and Hirth, in prep]. The textures and lattice preferred orientations indicate that grain boundaries were highly mobile prior to transposition during corner flow, consistent with the hypothesis that the grain size increase forms in the melting region. The grain size increase can be therefore translated into an increase in permeability with increasing dunite width which existed when these dunites were active conduits.

## Conclusion:

Detailed transects across several dunites of various widths show that the geochemical boundaries between dunites and the surrounding harzburgites are well defined, with changes in both major and minor element chemistry coincident with the macroscopic lithologic contacts. Additionally, dunite compositions are uniform within each transect, but vary systematically as a function of dunite width, with wide dunites close to equilibrium with liquids parental to the observed lavas and dikes in the region.

The data from Oman can be used to constrain the processes of dunite formation and melt migration beneath oceanic spreading centers. The composition of residual peridotites measured in Wadi Lufti are similar to abyssal peridotites, and the inferred parent to the Oman lavas is similar to MORB. Therefore, we can extend the spatial information afforded by well-preserved outcrops to dunite inter-relationships in the melting region beneath ridges.

Geochemical profiles across the dunites are inconsistent with formation by diffusion around melt-filled hydrofractures. Instead, the data are better fit by models which approximate focused porous flow through dunites. The observed covariations in peridotite mineral compositions are only partly explained by simple mixing of depleted and primitive magmas in porous conduits of varying widths. As an alternative, we present a model for melt-rock reaction which reproduces the main features of the observed geochemical variations. The model suggests the compositional variations with dunite width reflect an increase in the time-integrated melt/rock ratio in wider dunites. Because dunites grow by reaction along their margins, narrow dunites may be formed shallower in the melting column than wide dunites. Therefore, the observations likely reflect combination of the two porous flow models, that is reaction of harzburgite with a liquid of variable composition. Regardless, the geochemical data from Oman, coupled with field observations and microstructural data collected on the same rocks, indicate that wide dunites are the primary conduits for chemically-isolated transport of melts with sufficient flux to form the oceanic crust.

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## Appendix A

We have calibrated a preliminary olivine-orthopyroxene thermometer from mineral pairs measured in laboratory experiments to estimate the variation in subsolidus $\mathrm{Fe}-\mathrm{Mg}$ partitioning. The exchange of Fe and Mg between olivine and orthopyroxene is governed by the reaction

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{o l}^{M_{g}}+X_{o p t}^{F e}=X_{o l}^{F e}+X_{o p x}^{M g} . \tag{A1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The partitioning of the components between phases is related to the changes in the standard enthalpy, $\Delta H^{\circ}$, and entropy, $\Delta S^{\circ}$, of the reaction at a given temperature by the relation,

$$
\begin{align*}
R T l \ln K_{o l-o p x}^{F e-M_{g}} & =-\Delta G_{T}^{o}  \tag{A2}\\
& =-\Delta H_{T}^{o}+T \Delta S_{T}^{o}
\end{align*}
$$

where the enthalpy and entropy at temperature, $T$, are defined by the properties at a reference state, $T_{o}$, and the excess enthalpy and entropy or reaction, respectively, associated with the difference in temperature between the reference and desired temperatures,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \Delta H_{T}=\Delta H_{T}^{o}+\Delta H_{T}^{x s}=\Delta H_{T o}+\Delta C_{p}\left(T-T_{o}\right) \\
& \Delta S_{T}=\Delta S_{T}^{o}+\Delta S_{T}^{x s}=\Delta S_{T o}+\Delta C_{p} \ln \left(\frac{T}{T_{o}}\right) . \tag{A3}
\end{align*}
$$

Substituting (A3) into (A2) yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ln K_{o l-M_{p x}}^{F e-M_{g}}+\frac{\Delta C_{p}^{o}}{R T}\left(T-T_{o}\right)-\frac{\Delta C_{p}^{o}}{R} \ln \left(\frac{T}{T_{o}}\right)=-\frac{\Delta H_{T_{o}}}{R} \frac{1}{T}+\frac{\Delta S_{T_{o}}}{R} . \tag{A4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using the standard state heat capacities of olivine and orthopyroxene at 1400 K from the thermodynamic database of Holland and Powell [1990], Loucks [1996] estimates $\Delta C_{p}=-$ $0.08425 \mathrm{~kJ} / \mathrm{mol}$.

A preliminary database of petrologic experiments which contain equilibrated olivine-orthopyroxene pairs is compiled from [Colson et al., 1988; Gaetani and Grove, 1998; Gaetani et al., 1994; Grove and Juster, 1989; Gudfinnsson and Presnall, 2000; Kinzler, 1997]. A least-squares fit to the data assuming the relationship in (A4) and $\Delta C_{p}=-0.08425 \mathrm{~kJ} / \mathrm{mol}$ yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ln K_{O l-O p x}^{F e-M_{g}}+\frac{\Delta C_{p}^{o}}{R T}\left(T-T_{o}\right)-\frac{\Delta C_{p}^{o}}{R} \ln \left(\frac{T}{T_{o}}\right)=\lambda_{1} \frac{10^{4}}{T}+\lambda_{2} \tag{A5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\lambda_{1}=-1.952$ and $\lambda_{2}=0.3012$, with a correlation coefficient, $R^{2}=0.82$ (figure 16a). Additional data, especially at low temperatures (less than $1150^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ) will better constrain the accuracy of the extrapolation.

The measured $K_{o l-O_{p x}}^{F e-M_{g}}$ from olivine-orthopyroxene pairs in Oman harzburgites along with the olivine-spinel thermometry results suggest that the extrapolation of the laboratory data is reasonably accurate. The red squares in figure 16 b show the inferred $\mathrm{Fe}-\mathrm{Mg}$ partitioning and equilibration temperature for each of the Oman samples in which olivine, orthopyroxene, and spinel have been measured. The extrapolation fits the trend in the data remarkably well considering the extent of the extrapolation. If the functional form of the inversion were inappropriate, the extrapolation would not come close.

The extrapolation is moderately sensitive to the prescribed magnitude of $\Delta C_{p}$. to better fit the temperatures inferred from olivine-spinel thermometry requires a value of $\Delta C_{P}=-=0.1 \mathrm{~kJ} / \mathrm{mol}$. With this change, $\lambda_{1}=-1.865$ and $\lambda_{2}=0.2888$, and the inversion still fits the experimental data reasonably well, with $R^{2}=0.79$ (figure 16 a - dashed line and solid symbols), and the extrapolation (figure 16b - dashed line) goes through the Oman data. Arbitrarily large changes, however, substantially reduce the quality of the fit to the laboratory experiments.

Using this empirically-derived expression for $K_{O l-O p x}^{F e-M g}$ as a function of temperature, the $\mathrm{Fe} / \mathrm{Mg}$ ratio in each phase can be determined at any given temperature by repartitioning. The $\mathrm{Fe}-\mathrm{Mg}$ distribution coefficient between olivine and orthopyroxene at any temperature is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{o l-O p x}^{F e-M_{g}}=\frac{\left(\frac{X_{F_{e}}^{o l}}{X_{M g}^{o l}}\right)}{\left(\frac{X_{F e}^{o p x}}{X_{M g}^{o p x}}\right)}, \tag{A6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $X_{j}^{i}$ is the cation fraction of element $j$ in phase $i$. Subsolidus exchange assumes that for every Fe cation transferred from olivine to orthopyroxene, a Mg cation moves
in the opposite direction. Therefore mass balance requires that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.X_{j}^{o l}\right|_{T_{1}}+\left.X_{j}^{o p x}\right|_{T_{1}}=\left.X_{j}^{o l}\right|_{T_{2}}+\left.X_{j}^{o p x}\right|_{T_{2}} \tag{A7}
\end{equation*}
$$

be satisfied for any two temperatures, $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$. For simplicity in notation, numerical subscripts 1 and 2 indicate the value at temperatures $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$, respectively. For the purposes of these calculations, it is assumed that $X_{F e_{1}}^{O l}, X_{M \xi_{1}}^{O l}, X_{F_{1}}^{O p x}$, and $X_{M g_{1}}^{O p x}$ have been measured and $T_{I}$ is known by some independent means.

Substituting (A7) for Fe into (A6) yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{2}=\frac{\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{X_{F e_{1}}^{O l}+X_{F e_{1}}^{O p x}-X_{F e_{2}}^{O l}}\right)-1}{\frac{2}{3 X_{F_{e_{2}}}^{O l}}-1} \tag{A8}
\end{equation*}
$$

For a given temperature $T_{2}$, (A5) predicts the $\mathrm{Fe} / \mathrm{Mg}$ partition coefficient, $K_{2}$. Solving (A8) is most easily solved numerically to yield $X_{\mathrm{Fe}_{2}}^{O l}$. Subsequently, resubstitution of $X_{F_{2}}^{O l}$ into (A7) yields the value for $X_{F_{2} e_{2}}^{O p x}$.

Finally, mineral stoichiometry requires $X_{F_{e}}^{o l}+X_{M g}^{o l}=2 / 3$ for olivine and $X_{F e}^{O I}+X_{M g}^{O l}=1 / 2$ for orthopyroxene, from which, $X_{M_{g_{2}}}^{O I}$ and $X_{M_{g_{2}}}^{O l}$ can be explicitly determined.
Oman Dike and Lava Compsitions


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Table 2 Initial Compositions

|  | Olivine Orthopyroxene Spinel |  |  | Melt 1 | Melt 2 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| MgO | 50.45 | 34.00 | 15.30 | 14.34 | 11.09 |
| FeO | 9.08 | 5.40 | 14.00 | 8.62 | 6.64 |
| NiO | 0.40 | 0.08 | 0.00 | 0.04 | 0.03 |
| $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ | - | 0.04 | 0.14 | 0.70 | 0.59 |
| $\mathrm{Cr}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | - | 0.56 | 27.36 | 0.04 | 0.06 |
| $\mathrm{Al}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | - | 1.67 | 40.25 | 13.84 | 15.37 |
| $\mathrm{Fe}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | - | - | 2.80 | - | - |
| $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ | 40.36 | 57.33 | 0.00 | 48.66 | 50.28 |
| CaO | 0.02 | 0.00 | - | 11.17 | 13.27 |
| MnO | 0.13 | 0.13 | - | 0.12 | 0.12 |
| $\mathrm{Na}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ | - | 1.14 | - | 2.39 | 2.48 |
| $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ | - | - | - | 0.05 | 0.04 |
| $\mathrm{K}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ | - | - | - | 0.03 | 0.02 |
| Total | 100.44 | 100.36 | 99.85 | 100.00 | 100.00 |
| Melt 1: | Dunite | kfraction |  |  |  |
| Melt 2: | Gabbro | kfraction |  |  |  |

## Table 3 Mineral/Melt Partition Coefficients

| Olivine Orthopyroxene Spinel |  |  |  |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| MgO | var $^{\mathrm{a}}$ | $2.1^{\mathrm{c}}$ | $0.833^{\mathrm{c}}$ |
| FeO | var $^{\mathrm{a}}$ | $0.56^{\mathrm{c}}$ | $1.7^{\mathrm{e}}$ |
| NiO | var $^{\mathrm{b}}$ | $2.15^{\mathrm{c}}$ | 0 |
| TiO 2 | 0 | $0.5^{\mathrm{d}}$ | $\mathrm{var}^{\text {ef }}$ |
| $\mathrm{Cr2O} 3$ | 0 | $13.23^{\mathrm{d}}$ | $1000^{\mathrm{e}}$ |
| $\mathrm{Al2O} 3$ | 0 | $0.07^{\mathrm{d}}$ | $1.6^{\mathrm{e}}$ |

var=partition coefficient varies with liquid composition
${ }^{2}$ Gaetani \& Grove, 1998, ${ }^{6}$ Hart \& Davis, 1978
${ }^{\text {ch}}$ Beattie et al., 1991, ${ }^{\text {d }}$ Colson et al., 1991
${ }^{\text {e }}$ Hawkins \& Melchior, 1983, 1985, Allen et al., 1988, Gaetani et al, 1995
${ }^{\mathrm{f}} K_{T i}^{s p}=\exp (0.0359 \times \mathrm{Cr} \#-2.26)$
Table B1- Olivine Composition
Sample $\begin{array}{lll}\text { suite } & \mathbf{N} & \mathbf{S i O}_{2}\end{array}$

| Sample | suite | N | $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{Al}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | $\mathrm{Cr}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | FeO | MnO | MgO | CaO | NiO | Total | Mg\# |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| om00-13 | 50 | 3 | 39.53 | 0.0047 | 0.0000 | 0.0003 | 10.68 | 0.1647 | 49.68 | 0.0560 | 0.2974 | 100.41 | 89.24 |
|  |  |  | (0.123) | (0.005) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.184) | (0.012) | (0.312) | (0.027) | (0.005) |  | (0.221) |
| om00-14a | 50 | 5 | 39.97 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0010 | 10.71 | 0.1680 | 48.67 | 0.0383 | 0.3024 | 99.86 | 89.01 |
|  |  |  | (0.524) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.002) | (0.142) | (0.010) | (0.385) | (0.020) | (0.005) |  | (0.202) |
| om00-14b | 50 | 4 | 40.09 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 11.11 | 0.1701 | 48.54 | 0.0127 | 0.2795 | 100.20 | 88.62 |
|  |  |  | (0.149) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.163) | (0.003) | (0.167) | (0.006) | (0.005) |  | (0.182) |
| om00-15 | 50 | 3 | 40.12 | 0.0005 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 9.06 | 0.1268 | 50.85 | 0.1668 | 0.3530 | 100.68 | 90.91 |
|  |  |  | (0.082) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.081) | (0.010) | (0.026) | (0.019) | (0.004) |  | (0.078) |
| om00-16 | 50 | 4 | 40.10 | 0.0034 | 0.0007 | 0.0000 | 9.01 | 0.1258 | 51.26 | 0.1533 | 0.3522 | 101.00 | 91.03 |
|  |  |  | (0.069) | (0.001) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.109) | (0.009) | (0.033) | (0.010) | (0.004) |  | (0.097) |
| om00-17 | 50 | 4 | 39.95 | 0.0024 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 9.10 | 0.1068 | 51.09 | 0.1304 | 0.3228 | 100.70 | 90.91 |
|  |  |  | (0.195) | (0.004) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.188) | (0.056) | (0.218) | (0.054) | (0.049) |  | (0.159) |
| om00-18 | 50 | 3 | 40.16 | 0.0022 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 9.02 | 0.1288 | 51.15 | 0.1736 | 0.3480 | 100.99 | 91.00 |
|  |  |  | (0.057) | (0.004) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.040) | (0.006) | (0.281) | (0.023) | (0.004) |  | (0.040) |
| om00-19 | 50 | 3 | 40.39 | 0.0008 | 0.0005 | 0.0000 | 9.05 | 0.1340 | 51.31 | 0.0829 | 0.3472 | 101.32 | 91.00 |
|  |  |  | (0.032) | (0.001) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.123) | (0.008) | (0.090) | (0.039) | (0.004) |  | (0.123) |
| om00-20 | 50 | 4 | 40.18 | 0.0016 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 9.08 | 0.1259 | 51.26 | 0.1498 | 0.3432 | 101.13 | 90.97 |
|  |  |  | (0.169) | (0.002) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.075) | (0.003) | (0.130) | (0.026) | (0.006) |  | (0.078) |
| om00-21 | 50 | 2 | 40.31 | 0.0005 | 0.0000 | 0.0006 | 9.10 | 0.1291 | 51.22 | 0.1551 | 0.3506 | 101.25 | 90.94 |
|  |  |  | (0.021) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.021) | (0.001) | (0.177) | (0.000) | (0.001) |  | (0.009) |
| om00-22 | 50 | 3 | 40.15 | 0.0013 | 0.0001 | 0.0009 | 9.14 | 0.1293 | 51.28 | 0.1772 | 0.3456 | 101.22 | 90.91 |
|  |  |  | (0.120) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.002) | (0.058) | (0.003) | (0.090) | (0.003) | (0.002) |  | (0.065) |
| om00-23 | 50 | 3 | 40.24 | 0.0012 | 0.0006 | 0.0002 | 9.06 | 0.1311 | 51.24 | 0.1522 | 0.3499 | 101.17 | 90.98 |
|  |  |  | (0.059) | (0.002) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.133) | (0.002) | (0.178) | (0.010) | (0.003) |  | (0.110) |
| om00-24 | 50 | 4 | 40.19 | 0.0013 | 0.0017 | 0.0002 | 9.18 | 0.1248 | 50.97 | 0.1761 | 0.3509 | 101.00 | 90.83 |
|  |  |  | (0.078) | (0.002) | (0.002) | (0.000) | (0.173) | (0.010) | (0.168) | (0.017) | (0.004) |  | (0.174) |
| om00-25 | 50 | 3 | 39.81 | 0.0015 | 0.0000 | 0.0017 | 9.06 | 0.1308 | 50.39 | 0.1359 | 0.3450 | 99.88 | 90.84 |
|  |  |  | (0.090) | (0.003) | (0.000) | (0.002) | (0.097) | (0.013) | (0.042) | (0.022) | (0.004) |  | (0.086) |


| Sample | suite | N | $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{Al}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | $\mathrm{Cr}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | FeO | MnO | MgO | CaO | NiO | Total | Mg\# |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| om00-26 | 50 | 3 | 39.85 | 0.0008 | 0.0000 | 0.0013 | 9.08 | 0.1301 | 50.45 | 0.1734 | 0.3375 | 100.02 | 90.83 |
|  |  |  | (0.101) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.002) | (0.135) | (0.005) | (0.150) | (0.020) | (0.004) |  | (0.127) |
| om00-27 | 50 | 3 | 39.91 | 0.0009 | 0.0000 | 0.0048 | 9.16 | 0.1248 | 50.73 | 0.1445 | 0.3422 | 100.42 | 90.81 |
|  |  |  | (0.055) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.125) | (0.004) | (0.075) | (0.009) | (0.008) |  | (0.126) |
| om00-28 | 50 | 3 | 39.79 | 0.0005 | 0.0000 | 0.0011 | 9.10 | 0.1374 | 50.51 | 0.1820 | 0.3457 | 100.06 | 90.82 |
|  |  |  | (0.187) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.050) | (0.001) | (0.197) | (0.002) | (0.006) |  | (0.053) |
| om00-29 | 50 | 3 | 39.97 | 0.0000 | 0.0008 | 0.0033 | 8.98 | 0.1242 | 50.52 | 0.1807 | 0.3451 | 100.12 | 90.94 |
|  |  |  | (0.040) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.006) | (0.057) | (0.003) | (0.131) | (0.018) | (0.002) |  | (0.063) |
| om00-30 | 50 | 3 | 40.39 | 0.0004 | 0.0000 | 0.0048 | 9.24 | 0.1271 | 50.89 | 0.1910 | 0.3575 | 101.20 | 90.75 |
|  |  |  | (0.135) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.086) | (0.011) | (0.046) | (0.015) | (0.008) |  | (0.084) |
| om00-31 | 50 | 3 | 40.35 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0032 | 9.14 | 0.1287 | 51.11 | 0.1507 | 0.3483 | 101.22 | 90.89 |
|  |  |  | (0.085) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.081) | (0.004) | (0.068) | (0.045) | (0.003) |  | (0.085) |
| om00-32 | 50 | 3 | 40.35 | 0.0009 | 0.0000 | 0.0029 | 9.13 | 0.1336 | 51.21 | 0.1732 | 0.3542 | 101.35 | 90.91 |
|  |  |  | (0.150) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.091) | (0.010) | (0.095) | (0.013) | (0.002) |  | (0.085) |
| om00-32.5 | 50 | 4 | 40.31 | 0.0003 | 0.0000 | 0.0038 | 9.08 | 0.1280 | 51.18 | 0.1826 | 0.3551 | 101.24 | 90.95 |
|  |  |  | (0.066) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.002) | (0.045) | (0.007) | (0.054) | (0.009) | (0.006) |  | (0.038) |
| om00-33 | 50 | 3 | 40.36 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0052 | 9.11 | 0.1224 | 51.02 | 0.1721 | 0.3494 | 101.13 | 90.90 |
|  |  |  | (0.118) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.002) | (0.100) | (0.008) | (0.146) | (0.022) | (0.004) |  | (0.114) |
| om00-34 | 50 | 3 | 40.52 | 0.0032 | 0.0000 | 0.0081 | 9.10 | 0.1314 | 51.12 | 0.1830 | 0.3404 | 101.42 | 90.92 |
|  |  |  | (0.129) | (0.002) | (0.000) | (0.004) | (0.064) | (0.014) | (0.045) | (0.004) | (0.002) |  | (0.053) |
| om00-35 | 50 | 3 | 40.27 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0046 | 9.05 | 0.1294 | 50.82 | 0.1901 | 0.3440 | 100.81 | 90.92 |
|  |  |  | (0.059) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.002) | (0.075) | (0.004) | (0.059) | (0.008) | (0.007) |  | (0.069) |
| om00-37 | 50 | 3 | 40.24 | 0.0006 | 0.0000 | 0.0007 | 8.77 | 0.1230 | 50.97 | 0.1522 | 0.3517 | 100.61 | 91.20 |
|  |  |  | (0.111) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.080) | (0.002) | (0.055) | (0.010) | (0.010) |  | (0.065) |
| om00-38 | 50 | 3 | 40.06 | 0.0009 | 0.0000 | 0.0066 | 9.58 | 0.1374 | 50.51 | 0.0600 | 0.3426 | 100.70 | 90.38 |
|  |  |  | (0.061) | (0.002) | (0.000) | (0.005) | (0.082) | (0.003) | (0.160) | (0.011) | (0.007) |  | (0.088) |
| om00-39 | 50 | 3 | 40.07 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0054 | 9.78 | 0.1327 | 50.40 | 0.0428 | 0.3303 | 100.77 | 90.18 |
|  |  |  | (0.110) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.004) | (0.138) | (0.011) | (0.182) | (0.008) | (0.004) |  | (0.153) |
| om00-41 | 50 | 3 | 40.26 | 0.0000 | 0.0007 | 0.0040 | 8.89 | 0.1324 | 50.62 | 0.1850 | 0.3645 | 100.45 | 91.03 |
|  |  |  | (0.085) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.007) | (0.035) | (0.004) | (0.067) | (0.003) | (0.005) |  | (0.031) |


| Sample | suite | N | $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{Al}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | $\mathrm{Cr}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | FeO | MnO | $\mathbf{M g O}$ | CaO | NiO | Total | Mg\# |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| om00-67 | 50 | 4 | 39.92 | 0.0172 | 0.2112 | 0.3312 | 9.98 | 0.1556 | 48.89 | 0.1335 | 0.3439 | 99.98 | 89.70 |
|  |  |  | (0.790) | (0.034) | (0.422) | (0.659) | (1.071) | (0.029) | (1.984) | (0.016) | (0.006) |  | (1.393) |
| om00-68 | 50 | 3 | 40.43 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0035 | 9.66 | 0.1560 | 49.70 | 0.1274 | 0.3409 | 100.42 | 90.16 |
|  |  |  | (0.060) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.093) | (0.004) | (0.277) | (0.005) | (0.008) |  | (0.081) |
| om00-69 | 50 | 6 | 39.95 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0029 | 9.77 | 0.1451 | 50.21 | 0.1453 | 0.3106 | 100.53 | 90.16 |
|  |  |  | (0.202) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.092) | (0.011) | (0.134) | (0.013) | (0.015) |  | (0.064) |
| om00-70 | 50 | 5 | 39.71 | 0.0000 | 0.0051 | 0.0021 | 9.75 | 0.1421 | 49.54 | 0.0625 | 0.3104 | 99.53 | 90.05 |
|  |  |  | (0.183) | (0.000) | (0.011) | (0.004) | (0.246) | (0.004) | (0.603) | (0.025) | (0.006) |  | (0.338) |
| om00-71 | 50 | 3 | 39.88 | 0.0000 | 0.0002 | 0.0030 | 9.14 | 0.1242 | 50.33 | 0.0196 | 0.3748 | 99.88 | 90.75 |
|  |  |  | (0.136) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.002) | (0.100) | (0.014) | (0.032) | (0.002) | (0.005) |  | (0.095) |
| om00-72 | 50 | 3 | 39.80 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0030 | 9.82 | 0.1496 | 49.94 | 0.0836 | 0.3180 | 100.11 | 90.07 |
|  |  |  | (0.061) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.110) | (0.014) | (0.110) | (0.027) | (0.009) |  | (0.082) |
| om00-73 | 50 | 4 | 40.02 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0015 | 9.11 | 0.1237 | 50.17 | 0.0173 | 0.3662 | 99.81 | 90.75 |
|  |  |  | (0.088) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.002) | (0.090) | (0.008) | (0.124) | (0.007) | (0.005) |  | (0.079) |
| om00-74 | 50 | 4 | 40.14 | 0.0000 | 0.0004 | 0.0027 | 8.83 | 0.1224 | 50.59 | 0.0189 | 0.3860 | 100.08 | 91.08 |
|  |  |  | (0.053) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.002) | (0.099) | (0.005) | (0.109) | (0.006) | (0.006) |  | (0.089) |
| om98-105 | 50 | 2 | 40.45 | 0.0100 | 0.0030 | 0.0095 | 9.87 | 0.1391 | 49.18 | 0.1065 | 0.3639 | 100.13 | 89.88 |
|  |  |  | (0.057) | (0.001) | (0.001) | (0.010) | (0.071) | (0.003) | (0.332) | (0.058) | (0.002) |  | (0.004) |
| om98-107 | 50 | 3 | 40.39 | 0.0152 | 0.0061 | 0.0033 | 8.23 | 0.1353 | 50.33 | 0.1582 | 0.3545 | 99.62 | 91.60 |
|  |  |  | (0.289) | (0.006) | (0.002) | (0.006) | (0.017) | (0.023) | (0.188) | (0.023) | (0.008) |  | (0.013) |
| om98-110 | 50 | 3 | 40.25 | 0.0093 | 0.0069 | 0.0000 | 9.12 | 0.1111 | 50.15 | 0.1910 | 0.3578 | 100.20 | 90.75 |
|  |  |  | (0.176) | (0.010) | (0.004) | (0.000) | (0.085) | (0.007) | (0.337) | (0.013) | (0.003) |  | (0.054) |
| om98-113 | 50 | 1 | 39.70 | 0.0248 | 0.0007 | 0.0000 | 9.28 | 0.1243 | 48.80 | 0.1530 | 0.3040 | 98.39 | 90.36 |
|  |  |  | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.000) |  | (0.000) |
| om98-116 | 50 | 3 | 40.42 | 0.0115 | 0.0046 | 0.0039 | 9.16 | 0.1033 | 49.41 | 0.0293 | 0.3635 | 99.51 | 90.58 |
|  |  |  | (0.180) | (0.005) | (0.003) | (0.006) | (0.159) | (0.023) | (0.309) | (0.002) | (0.008) |  | (0.181) |
| om00-149 | 3 | 5 | 39.94 | 0.0004 | 0.0000 | 0.0008 | 8.79 | 0.1093 | 49.94 | 0.0213 | 0.3843 | 99.18 | 91.02 |
|  |  |  | (0.228) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.080) | (0.009) | (0.348) | (0.005) | (0.018) |  | (0.084) |
| om00-150 | 3 | 6 | 40.06 | 0.0134 | 0.0000 | 0.0021 | 8.20 | 0.1226 | 50.41 | 0.0199 | 0.3649 | 99.18 | 91.64 |
|  |  |  | (0.078) | (0.004) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.083) | (0.008) | (0.167) | (0.006) | (0.008) |  | (0.083) |


| Sample | suit | N | $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{TO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{Al}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | $\mathrm{Cr}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | FeO | MnO | MgO | CaO | NiO | Total | Mg\# |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| om00-151 | 3 | 5 | 40.13 | 0.0007 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 7.91 | 0.0955 | 50.82 | 0.0181 | 0.4073 | 99.39 | 91.97 |
|  |  |  | (0.133) | (0.002) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.153) | (0.011) | (0.138) | (0.009) | (0.013) |  | (0.158) |
| om00-152b | 3 | 7 | 40.50 | 0.0008 | 0.0000 | 0.0001 | 7.84 | 0.1001 | 50.99 | 0.0140 | 0.3814 | 99.83 | 92.06 |
|  |  |  | (0.079) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.113) | (0.004) | (0.124) | (0.006) | (0.009) |  | (0.116) |
| om00-153.1 | 3 | 6 | 40.70 | 0.0021 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 8.04 | 0.1005 | 51.06 | 0.0303 | 0.3835 | 100.31 | 91.88 |
|  |  |  | (0.060) | (0.003) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.079) | (0.006) | (0.137) | (0.021) | (0.007) |  | (0.088) |
| om00-154 | 3 | 6 | 40.62 | 0.0003 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 7.89 | 0.1050 | 50.84 | 0.0248 | 0.3735 | 99.85 | 91.99 |
|  |  |  | (0.079) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.104) | (0.007) | (0.159) | (0.006) | (0.004) |  | (0.100) |
| om00-155a | 3 | 6 | 40.54 | 0.0189 | 0.0000 | 0.0020 | 7.58 | 0.1206 | 52.14 | 0.0240 | 0.3655 | 100.79 | 92.46 |
|  |  |  | (0.050) | (0.003) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.077) | (0.004) | (0.100) | (0.008) | (0.007) |  | (0.080) |
| om00-155b | 3 | 3 | 40.13 | 0.0092 | 0.0000 | 0.0005 | 7.11 | 0.1151 | 51.11 | 0.0146 | 0.3356 | 98.83 | 92.76 |
|  |  |  | (0.055) | (0.003) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.101) | (0.008) | (0.112) | (0.008) | (0.012) |  | (0.081) |
| om00-156 | 3 | 6 | 40.92 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 7.48 | 0.0951 | 51.23 | 0.0261 | 0.3764 | 100.13 | 92.43 |
|  |  |  | (0.085) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.051) | (0.007) | (0.102) | (0.009) | (0.006) |  | (0.052) |
| om00-158 | 3 | 5 | 40.61 | 0.0007 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 7.27 | 0.1090 | 51.00 | 0.0340 | 0.3598 | 99.39 | 92.59 |
|  |  |  | (0.202) | (0.002) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.074) | (0.004) | (0.415) | (0.008) | (0.010) |  | (0.052) |
| om00-160 | 3 | 5 | 40.74 | 0.0018 | 0.0000 | 0.0012 | 7.39 | 0.1081 | 50.71 | 0.0332 | 0.3581 | 99.34 | 92.44 |
|  |  |  | (0.099) | (0.003) | (0.000) | (0.002) | (0.064) | (0.006) | (0.240) | (0.009) | (0.008) |  | (0.068) |
| om00-162 | 3 | 5 | 40.69 | 0.0041 | 0.0000 | 0.0006 | 7.53 | 0.1126 | 50.60 | 0.0273 | 0.3592 | 99.32 | 92.29 |
|  |  |  | (0.190) | (0.003) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.095) | (0.007) | (0.242) | (0.010) | (0.002) |  | (0.083) |
| om00-165a | 3 | 3 | 40.44 | 0.0056 | 0.0000 | 0.0002 | 8.93 | 0.1293 | 49.84 | 0.0161 | 0.3576 | 99.72 | 90.87 |
|  |  |  | (0.059) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.065) | (0.004) | (0.215) | (0.001) | (0.003) |  | (0.030) |
| om00-166b | 3 | 5 | 40.62 | 0.0056 | 0.0000 | 0.0004 | 8.55 | 0.1220 | 50.10 | 0.0124 | 0.3687 | 99.79 | 91.26 |
|  |  |  | (0.106) | (0.005) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.138) | (0.003) | (0.174) | (0.005) | (0.013) |  | (0.118) |
| om00-168 | 3 | 3 | 40.61 | 0.0019 | 0.0000 | 0.0037 | 8.90 | 0.1224 | 50.30 | 0.0263 | 0.3563 | 100.32 | 90.97 |
|  |  |  | (0.050) | (0.002) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.053) | (0.005) | (0.841) | (0.006) | (0.014) |  | (0.089) |
| om00-170 | 3 | 8 | 40.21 | 0.0000 | 0.0029 | 0.0001 | 9.71 | 0.1291 | 50.00 | 0.0165 | 0.3212 | 100.39 | 90.17 |
|  |  |  | (0.133) | (0.000) | (0.008) | (0.000) | (0.161) | (0.018) | (0.218) | (0.008) | (0.019) |  | (0.169) |
| om00-171 | 3 | 5 | 40.15 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0023 | 9.51 | 0.1128 | 49.96 | 0.0154 | 0.3209 | 100.07 | 90.35 |
|  |  |  | (0.130) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.002) | (0.057) | (0.005) | (0.225) | (0.008) | (0.007) |  | (0.059) |


| Sample | suite | N | $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{Al}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | $\mathrm{Cr}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | FeO | MnO | MgO | CaO | NiO | Total | Mg\# |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| om00-117 | 20 | 6 | 41.12 | 0.0072 | 0.0000 | 0.0036 | 8.19 | 0.1225 | 50.80 | 0.1490 | 0.3781 | 100.78 | 91.71 |
|  |  |  | (0.161) | (0.004) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.078) | (0.005) | (0.106) | (0.012) | (0.008) |  | (0.065) |
| om00-119 | 20 | 5 | 41.14 | 0.0080 | 0.0003 | 0.0027 | 8.44 | 0.1274 | 50.45 | 0.1434 | 0.3626 | 100.67 | 91.42 |
|  |  |  | (0.143) | (0.001) | (0.001) | (0.006) | (0.050) | (0.007) | (0.088) | (0.019) | (0.004) |  | (0.052) |
| om00-122a | 20 | 6 | 40.88 | 0.0052 | 0.0000 | 0.0023 | 8.34 | 0.1256 | 50.74 | 0.1469 | 0.3684 | 100.61 | 91.56 |
|  |  |  | (0.062) | (0.003) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.071) | (0.004) | (0.130) | (0.036) | (0.007) |  | (0.051) |
| om00-124 | 20 | 6 | 40.77 | 0.0048 | 0.0002 | 0.0009 | 8.31 | 0.1326 | 50.33 | 0.1696 | 0.3627 | 100.07 | 91.53 |
|  |  |  | (0.085) | (0.003) | (0.001) | (0.001) | (0.060) | (0.010) | (0.078) | (0.010) | (0.006) |  | (0.062) |
| om00-127 | 20 | 6 | 40.84 | 0.0052 | 0.0002 | 0.0045 | 8.47 | 0.1260 | 50.44 | 0.1653 | 0.3778 | 100.43 | 91.39 |
|  |  |  | (0.115) | (0.002) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.152) | (0.007) | (0.279) | (0.019) | (0.006) |  | (0.126) |
| om00-129 | 20 | 7 | 40.83 | 0.0087 | 0.0000 | 0.0006 | 8.73 | 0.1314 | 50.32 | 0.1583 | 0.3718 | 100.56 | 91.13 |
|  |  |  | (0.092) | (0.003) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.059) | (0.006) | (0.128) | (0.018) | (0.005) |  | (0.069) |
| om00-130 | 20 | 5 | 40.83 | 0.0042 | 0.0000 | 0.0007 | 8.36 | 0.1378 | 50.33 | 0.0639 | 0.3343 | 100.07 | 91.48 |
|  |  |  | (0.133) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.053) | (0.004) | (0.114) | (0.041) | (0.005) |  | (0.055) |
| om00-131 | 20 | 5 | 41.07 | 0.0064 | 0.0000 | 0.0018 | 8.44 | 0.1348 | 50.35 | 0.1172 | 0.3134 | 100.43 | 91.41 |
|  |  |  | (0.105) | (0.002) | (0.000) | (0.002) | (0.061) | (0.003) | (0.140) | (0.031) | (0.006) |  | (0.066) |
| om00-132 | 20 | 6 | 41.00 | 0.0007 | 0.0000 | 0.0002 | 8.32 | 0.1360 | 50.68 | 0.1233 | 0.3334 | 100.59 | 91.57 |
|  |  |  | (0.086) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.078) | (0.005) | (0.170) | (0.014) | (0.006) |  | (0.065) |
| om00-135 | 20 | 6 | 40.97 | 0.0014 | 0.0000 | 0.0005 | 8.64 | 0.1386 | 50.24 | 0.1529 | 0.3236 | 100.46 | 91.20 |
|  |  |  | (0.115) | (0.002) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.026) | (0.006) | (0.122) | (0.011) | (0.006) |  | (0.038) |
| om00-136 | 20 | 6 | 41.15 | 0.0018 | 0.0000 | 0.0013 | 8.72 | 0.1405 | 50.69 | 0.1174 | 0.3367 | 101.16 | 91.20 |
|  |  |  | (0.151) | (0.002) | (0.000) | (0.002) | (0.100) | (0.009) | (0.207) | (0.013) | (0.006) |  | (0.105) |
| om00-138 | 20 | 6 | 41.03 | 0.0012 | 0.0000 | 0.0031 | 8.70 | 0.1385 | 50.60 | 0.0986 | 0.3408 | 100.91 | 91.20 |
|  |  |  | (0.114) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.122) | (0.008) | (0.176) | (0.015) | (0.005) |  | (0.124) |
| om00-139 | 20 | 7 | 41.06 | 0.0031 | 0.0000 | 0.0012 | 8.63 | 0.1311 | 50.47 | 0.0982 | 0.3439 | 100.74 | 91.25 |
|  |  |  | (0.106) | (0.003) | (0.000) | (0.002) | (0.036) | (0.009) | (0.218) | (0.011) | (0.005) |  | (0.046) |
| om00-140.3 | 20 | 6 | 41.45 | 0.0055 | 0.0000 | 0.0010 | 9.21 | 0.1408 | 50.17 | 0.0871 | 0.3243 | 101.39 | 90.67 |
|  |  |  | (0.089) | (0.003) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.058) | (0.006) | (0.204) | (0.011) | (0.004) |  | (0.069) |
| om00-141.1 | 20 | 5 | 40.48 | 0.0069 | 0.0002 | 0.0013 | 9.27 | 0.1429 | 49.90 | 0.0648 | 0.3109 | 100.18 | 90.56 |
|  |  |  | (0.112) | (0.003) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.097) | (0.011) | (0.174) | (0.018) | (0.007) |  | (0.107) |


|  | sui | N | $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{Al}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{Cr}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | Fe | MnO | MgO | CaO | NiO | Total | Mg\# |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| om00-141.2 | 20 | 5 | 40.28 | 0.0078 | 0.0000 | 0.0004 | 9.81 | 0.1446 | 49.58 | 0.0186 | 0.2540 | 100.10 | 90.01 |
|  |  |  | (0.097) | (0.003) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.21 | (0.006) | (0.164) | (0.005) | (0.0 |  | (0.216) |
| om00-141.3 | 20 | 6 | 40.48 | 0.0102 | 0.0000 | 0.0017 | 10.15 | 0.1466 | 49.57 | 0.0130 | 0.2417 | 100 | 89.70 |
|  |  |  | (0.168) | (0.002) | (0.000) | (0.004) | (0.1 | (0.007) | (0.21) | (0.004) | (0.009) |  | (0.134) |
| om00-141.4 | 20 | 4 | 40.48 | 0.0073 | 0.0002 | 0.0016 | 10.17 | 0.1477 | 49.39 | 0.0109 | 0.2461 | 100.45 | 89.65 |
|  |  |  | (0.176) | (0.004) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.170) | (0.013) | (0.100) | (0.004) | (0.003) |  | (0.174) |
| om00-141.5 | 20 | 6 | 40.17 | 0.0067 | 0.0000 | 0.0019 | 9.95 | 0.1429 | 49.52 | 0.0182 | 0.2828 | 100.10 | 89.87 |
|  |  |  | (0.147) | (0.004) | (0.000) | (0.002) | (0.289) | (0.006) | (0.327) | (0.010) | (0.020) |  | (0.314) |
| om00-142.1 | 20 | 6 | 40.46 | 0.0052 | 0.0004 | 0.0020 | 9.34 | 0.1407 | 49.83 | 0.0281 | 0.3110 | 100.12 | 90.48 |
|  |  |  | (0.079) | (0.004) | (0.001) | (0.004) | (0.124) | (0.002) | (0.141) | (0.006) | (0.006) |  | (0.117) |
| om00-142.2 | 20 | 6 | 40.39 | 0.0075 | 0.0006 | 0.0072 | 9.55 | 0.1474 | 49.88 | 0.0281 | 0.3168 | 100.32 | 90.30 |
|  |  |  | (0.231) | (0.003) | (0.001) | (0.007) | (0.092) | (0.008) | (0.221) | (0.010) | (0.010) |  | (0.092) |
| om00-142.3 | 20 | 4 | 40.33 | 0.0052 | 0.0000 | 0.0015 | 9.44 | 0.1450 | 49.69 | 0.0220 | 0.3275 | 95 | 90.37 |
|  |  |  | (0.223) | (0.002) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.053) | (0.004) | (0.070) | (0.009) | (0.004) |  | (0.055) |
| om00-143.2 | 20 | 5 | 40.50 | 0.0040 | 0.0000 | 0.0026 | 8.94 | 0.1268 | 50.36 | 0.0112 | 0.3920 | 100 | 90.94 |
|  |  |  | (0.059) | (0.004) | (0.000) | (0.004) | (0.106) | (0.002) | (0.117) | (0.005) | (0.006) |  | (0.109) |
| om00-144 | 20 | 5 | 40.67 | 0.0039 | 0.0000 | 0.0022 | 9.17 | 0.1285 | 50.21 | 0.0106 | 0.3707 | 100.56 | 90.71 |
|  |  |  | (0.115) | (0.004) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.123) | (0.003) | (0.154) | (0.003) | (0.006) |  | (0.138) |
| om00-145b | 20 | 6 | 40.50 | 0.0026 | 0.0000 | 0.0012 | 9.14 | 0.1333 | 50.34 | 0.0157 | 0.3748 | 100.50 | 90.76 |
|  |  |  | (0.109) | (0.003) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.108) | (0.003) | (0.166) | (0.006) | (0.008) |  | (0.112) |
| om00-146 | 20 | 6 | 40.39 | 0.0015 | 0.0000 | 0.0033 | 8.78 | 0.1286 | 50.92 | 0.0140 | 0.3920 | 100 | 91.18 |
|  |  |  | (0.210) | (0.002) | (0.000) | (0.004) | (0.092) | (0.010) | (0.195) | (0.007) | (0.006) |  | (0.112) |
| om00-147 | 20 | 6 | 40.66 | 0.0016 | 0.0000 | 0.0007 | 9.05 | 0.1344 | 50.41 | 0.0180 | 0.3596 | 100 | 90.85 |
|  |  |  | (0.165) | (0.002) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.117) | (0.005) | (0.166) | (0.004) | (0.008) |  | (0.114) |
| om00-148 | 20 | 7 | 40.70 | 0.0018 | 0.0002 | 0.0016 | 8.93 | 0.1384 | 50.45 | 0.0176 | 0.3701 | 100.61 | 90.97 |
|  |  |  | (0.152) | (0.001) | (0.001) | (0.002) | (0.123) | (0.005) | (0.158) | (0.009) | (0.006) |  | (0.124) |
| om99-20 | 20 | 26 | 40.38 | 0.0006 | 0.0004 | 0.0015 | 8.36 | 0.1412 | 50.73 | 0.1137 | 0.3848 | 100.12 | 91.54 |
|  |  |  | (0.164) | (0.002) | (0.001) | (0.003) | (0.148) | (0.014) | (0.170) | (0.010) | (0.005) |  | (0.138) |
| om99-21 | 20 | 10 | 40.48 | 0.0142 | 0.0014 | 0.0010 | 8.51 | 0.1054 | 50.79 | 0.1455 | 0.3560 | 100.41 | 91.41 |
|  |  |  | 0.278) | (0.009) | (0.002) | (0.002) | .156) | (0.016) | (0.227) | (0.049) | (0.013) |  | .158) |



| Sample | suite | N | $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{Al}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | $\mathrm{Cr}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | FeO | MnO | MgO | CaO | NiO | Total | Mg\# |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| om99-36c | 20 | 25 | 40.42 | 0.0017 | 0.0021 | 0.0014 | 8.78 | 0.1393 | 50.00 | 0.0095 | 0.3840 | 99.73 | 91.04 |
|  |  |  | (0.163) | (0.004) | (0.003) | (0.004) | (0.127) | (0.025) | (0.254) | (0.004) | (0.010) |  | (0.131) |
| om00-145a. 1 | WT | 7 | 40.46 | 0.0020 | 0.0000 | 0.0024 | 9.04 | 0.1354 | 50.35 | 0.0117 | 0.3641 | 100.37 | 90.85 |
|  |  |  | (0.225) | (0.002) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.109) | (0.007) | (0.124) | (0.004) | (0.007) |  | (0.111) |
| om00-145a. 2 | WT | 6 | 40.42 | 0.0028 | 0.0000 | 0.0020 | 9.17 | 0.1377 | 50.12 | 0.0132 | 0.3722 | 100.24 | 90.69 |
|  |  |  | (0.131) | (0.003) | (0.000) | (0.003) | (0.088) | (0.005) | (0.092) | (0.004) | (0.005) |  | (0.081) |
| om94-100 | WT | 3 | 40.20 | 0.0033 | 0.0133 | 0.0033 | 9.02 | 0.1400 | 50.60 | 0.0367 | 0.3967 | 100.41 | 90.91 |
|  |  |  | (0.163) | (0.006) | (0.006) | (0.006) | (0.078) | (0.010) | (0.096) | (0.006) | (0.006) |  | (0.066) |
| om94-101 | WT | 3 | 40.22 | 0.0000 | 0.0233 | 0.0000 | 9.41 | 0.1400 | 50.34 | 0.0233 | 0.4000 | 100.55 | 90.51 |
|  |  |  | (0.133) | (0.000) | (0.006) | (0.000) | (0.095) | (0.000) | (0.081) | (0.012) | (0.000) |  | (0.075) |
| om94-102 | WT | 4 | 40.44 | 0.0012 | 0.0164 | 0.0007 | 9.23 | 0.1300 | 50.26 | 0.0285 | 0.3907 | 100.49 | 90.66 |
|  |  |  | (0.099) | (0.002) | (0.001) | (0.001) | (0.075) | (0.003) | (0.075) | (0.008) | (0.007) |  | (0.080) |
| om94-103 | WT | 5 | 40.37 | 0.0060 | 0.0100 | 0.0000 | 10.03 | 0.1440 | 50.64 | 0.0200 | 0.4020 | 101.62 | 90.00 |
|  |  |  | (0.243) | (0.005) | (0.007) | (0.000) | (0.618) | (0.009) | (0.450) | (0.000) | (0.015) |  | (0.626) |
| om94-104 | WT | 4 | 40.44 | 0.0000 | 0.0050 | 0.0025 | 9.09 | 0.1225 | 49.91 | 0.0200 | 0.4200 | 100.00 | 90.73 |
|  |  |  | (0.140) | (0.000) | (0.006) | (0.005) | (0.521) | (0.010) | (1.043) | (0.008) | (0.014) |  | (0.566) |
| om94-106 | WT | 2 | 40.54 | 0.0000 | 0.0100 | 0.0050 | 8.73 | 0.1300 | 51.86 | 0.0250 | 0.4200 | 101.72 | 91.38 |
|  |  |  | (0.141) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.007) | (0.106) | (0.014) | (0.481) | (0.021) | (0.000) |  | (0.169) |
| om94-114 | WT | 2 | 40.51 | 0.0050 | 0.0150 | 0.0050 | 9.79 | 0.1450 | 50.82 | 0.0400 | 0.3650 | 101.68 | 90.25 |
|  |  |  | (0.064) | (0.007) | (0.007) | (0.007) | (0.163) | (0.007) | (0.276) | (0.000) | (0.021) |  | (0.194) |
| om94-115 | WT | 3 | 40.54 | 0.0000 | 0.0300 | 0.0233 | 9.11 | 0.1200 | 51.30 | 0.0833 | 0.3933 | 101.61 | 90.94 |
|  |  |  | (0.071) | (0.000) | (0.010) | (0.006) | (0.049) | (0.010) | (0.121) | (0.006) | (0.006) |  | (0.026) |
| om94-52 | WT | 3 | 40.14 | 0.0000 | 0.0167 | 0.0000 | 9.13 | 0.1200 | 51.16 | 0.0167 | 0.3933 | 100.98 | 90.90 |
|  |  |  | (0.081) | (0.000) | (0.006) | (0.000) | (0.130) | (0.010) | (0.225) | (0.006) | (0.006) |  | (0.150) |
| om94-53 | WT | 8 | 40.70 | 0.0000 | 0.0088 | 0.0000 | 8.77 | 0.1200 | 50.13 | 0.0150 | 0.3975 | 100.14 | 91.06 |
|  |  |  | (0.188) | (0.000) | (0.006) | (0.000) | (0.143) | (0.011) | (0.846) | (0.005) | (0.007) |  | (0.250) |
| om94-55 | WT | 5 | 40.85 | 0.0000 | 0.0120 | 0.0000 | 8.73 | 0.1220 | 49.16 | 0.0540 | 0.3780 | 99.30 | 90.94 |
|  |  |  | (0.257) | (0.000) | (0.004) | (0.000) | (0.108) | (0.013) | (0.168) | (0.015) | (0.004) |  | (0.107) |
| om94-57 | WT | 10 | 40.85 | 0.0000 | 0.0070 | 0.0000 | 8.75 | 0.1340 | 49.70 | 0.0660 | 0.3640 | 99.87 | 91.01 |
|  |  |  | (0.158) | (0.000) | (0.009) | (0.000) | (0.197) | (0.007) | (0.278) | (0.011) | (0.008) |  | (0.218) |



| Sample | suite | N | $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{Al}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | $\mathrm{Cr}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | FeO | MnO | MgO | CaO | NiO | Total | Mg\# |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| om94-83 | WT | 3 | 40.96 | 0.0099 | 0.0229 | 0.0158 | 4.28 | 0.0449 | 55.04 | 0.0184 | 0.6421 | 101.03 | 95.82 |
|  |  |  | (0.286) | (0.002) | (0.008) | (0.008) | $(0.240)$ | (0.008) | (0.471) | (0.006) | (0.061) |  | (0.248) |
| om94-87 | WT | 3 | 40.42 | 0.0000 | 0.0152 | 0.0007 | 8.74 | 0.1297 | 51.45 | 0.0214 | 0.4051 | 101.17 | 91.30 |
|  |  |  | (0.097) | (0.000) | (0.006) | (0.001) | (0.035) | (0.014) | (0.182) | (0.003) | (0.005) |  | (0.060) |
| om94-91 | WT | 4 | 40.28 | 0.0020 | 0.0130 | 0.0007 | 9.39 | 0.1447 | 50.55 | 0.0256 | 0.3998 | 100.81 | 90.56 |
|  |  |  | (0.113) | (0.004) | (0.001) | (0.001) | (0.059) | (0.005) | (0.171) | (0.008) | (0.012) |  | (0.081) |
| om94-98 | WT | 7 | 40.14 | 0.0057 | 0.0143 | 0.0000 | 9.13 | 0.1257 | 50.82 | 0.0229 | 0.3971 | 100.66 | 90.84 |
|  |  |  | (0.250) | (0.005) | (0.013) | (0.000) | (0.108) | (0.005) | (0.099) | (0.010) | (0.005) |  | (0.107) |
| om94-99 | WT | 2 | 40.35 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 9.86 | 0.1500 | 48.79 | 0.0900 | 0.3400 | 99.58 | 89.82 |
|  |  |  | (0.042) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.000) | (0.064) | (0.000) | 0.014) | (0.014) | (0.000) |  | (0.056) |

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装 $\begin{array}{r}1.852) \\ 51.44 \\ 1.364) \\ 54.77 \\ 1.459) \\ 53.59 \\ 0.809) \\ 51.84 \\ 0.871) \\ 50.24 \\ 1.936) \\ 49.02 \\ 1.102) \\ 53.03 \\ 1.221) \\ 50.80 \\ 1.456) \\ 51.44 \\ 1.190) \\ 50.95 \\ 1.253) \\ \hline\end{array}$ 51.64
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| sample | Width | $\mathbf{N}$ | $\mathbf{S i O}_{\mathbf{2}}$ | $\mathbf{T i O}_{\mathbf{2}}$ |
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| mple | Width | N | $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{Al}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | $\mathrm{Cr}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ | $\mathrm{Fe}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | FeO | MnO | MgO | Ca | NiO | Total |  |  | Fe |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| om00-175 | 3 | 9 | 90.0241 | 0.3038 | 25.62 | 40.22 | 4.30 | 17.07 | 0.2473 | 12.10 | 0.0003 | 0.1130 | 100 | 55 | 51.29 | 4.97 |
|  |  |  | (0.026) | (0.017) | (0.493) | (0.468) | (0.194) | (0.326) | (0.015) | (0.2 | (0.00 | (0.013) |  | (0.897) | (0.7 | (0.234) |
| om00-176a | 3 | 12 | 20.0081 | 0.1357 | 25.41 | 41.17 | 3.82 | 16.78 | 0.2482 | 12.31 | 0.0000 | 0.1067 | 100 | 56. | 52.0 | 4.40 |
|  |  |  | (0.005) | (0.018) | (0.422) | (0.338) | (0.234) | (0.184) | (0.015) | (0.135) | (0.000) | (0.014) |  | (0.534) | (0.600) | (0.277) |
| om00-176b | 3 | 5 | 50.1030 | 0.1888 | 26.15 | 39.88 | 4.00 | 17.30 | 0.2664 | 12.01 | 0.0018 | 0.1017 | 100 | 55.30 | 50.58 | 4.61 |
|  |  |  | (0.230) | (0.037) | (1.609) | (2.007) | (0.262) | (0.484) | (0.034) | (0.223) | (0.003) | (0.026) |  | (1.103) | (2.779) | (0.281) |
| om00-176c | 3 | 14 | 40.0367 | 0.1907 | 25.93 | 40.69 | 3.79 | 16.39 | 0.2532 | 12.59 | 0.0004 | 0.1193 | 100 | 57.80 | 51.28 | 4.35 |
|  |  |  | (0.023) | (0.032) | (0.507) | (0.590) | (0.155) | (0.217) | (0.014) | (0.143) | (0.001) | (0.012) |  | (0.590) | (0.840) | (0.181) |
| om00-176d | 3 | 6 | 0.000 | 0.0818 | 25.55 | 41.04 | 3.82 | 16.86 | 0.2696 | 12.27 | 0.0020 | 0.1033 | 100 | 56.47 | 51.86 | 4.39 |
|  |  |  | (0.000) | (0.012) | (0.537) | (0.994) | (0.368) | (0.7 | (0.011) | (0.440) | (0.002) | (0.0 |  | (1.945) | (1.088) | (0.429) |
| om98-118d | . 07 | 71 | 10.006 | 0.185 | 21.62 | 43.70 | 4.79 | 18.63 | 0.3149 | 10.67 | 0.0040 | 0.0789 | 100 | 50.51 | 57.57 | 5.67 |
|  |  |  | (0.011) | (0.020) | (0.832) | (0.915) | (0.733) | (0.761) | (0.020) | (0.555) | (0.005) | (0.016) |  | (2.319) | (1.277) | (0.883) |
| om98-118h | 07 | 26 | 60.0001 | 0.1310 | 24.43 | 42.41 | 3.31 | 17.83 | 0.2764 | 11.54 | 0.0009 | 0.0676 | 100 | 53.58 | 53.81 | 3.84 |
|  |  |  | (0.001) | (0.016) | (1.001) | (1.295) | (0.363) | (0.480) | (0.021) | (0.278) | (0.002) | (0.014) |  | (1.248) | (1.751) | (0.423) |
| om00-75 | 20 | 7 | 0.0000 | 0.1057 | 20.40 | 48.83 | 1.52 | 17.39 | 0.2707 | 11.48 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 100 | 54.06 | 61.63 | 1.80 |
|  |  |  | (0.000) | (0.021) | (0.742) | (0.834) | (0.288) | (0.626) | (0.013) | (0.374) | (0.000) | (0.000) |  | (1.691) | (1.238) | 0.345) |
| om00-76 | 20 |  | 0.0071 | 0.2947 | 17.97 | 49.90 | 3.01 | 17.23 | 0.2943 | 11.22 | 0.0029 | 0.0669 | 10 | 53.72 | 65.11 | 3.62 |
|  |  |  | (0.005) | (0.058) | (1.321) | (0.556) | (1.599) | (0.228) | (0.013) | (0.199) | (0.003) | (0.034) |  | ${ }^{(0.662)}$ | (1.641) | 1.937) |
| om00-77 | 20 | 5 | 0.0099 | 0.4662 | 18.43 | 46.24 | 6.22 | 16.69 | 0.2884 | 11.53 | 0.0006 | 0.1143 | 100 | 55.17 | 62.73 | 7.43 |
|  |  |  | (0.012) | (0.005) | (0.426) | (0.212) | (0.200) | (0.495) | (0.022) | (0.373) | (0.001) | (0.015) |  | (1.528) | (0.613) | (0.267) |
| om00-78 | 20 | 6 | 0.0021 | 0.5180 | 19.34 | 45.22 | 6.45 | 16.01 | 0.2961 | 12.05 | 0.0010 | 0.1115 |  | 57.30 | 61.07 | 7.65 |
|  |  |  | (0.003) | (0.005) | (0.616) | (0.754) | (0.333) | (0.441) | (0.012) | (0.283) | (0.002) | (0.01 |  | (1.242) | (1.105) | 0.408) |
| om00-79 | 20 | 6 | 0.0139 | 0.3239 | 14.81 | 54.00 | 2.23 | 17.58 | 0.3166 | 10.66 | 0.0048 | 0.062 | 100 | 51.93 | 70.98 | 2.72 |
|  |  |  | (0.004) | (0.017) | (0.273) | (0.331) | (0.361) | (0.890) | (0.024) | (0.618) | (0.004) | (0.017) |  | (2.706) | (0.439) | (0.434) |
| om00-80 | 20 | 5 | 0.0025 | 0.5177 | 18.89 | 44.78 | 7.19 | 16.63 | 0.2720 | 11.61 | 0.0006 | 0.1120 | 100 | 55.44 | 61.40 | 8.58 |
|  |  |  | (0.003) | (0.044) | (0.244) | (0.533) | (0.318) | (0.620) | (0.024) | (0.433) | (0.001) | (0.004) |  | (1.838) | (0.447) | (0.409) |
| om00-81 | 20 | 5 | 0.0124 | 0.5280 | 18.64 | 45.17 | 6.64 | 17.77 | 0.3023 | 10.82 | 0.0006 | 0.1053 | 10 | 52.06 | 61.92 | 7.98 |
|  |  |  | (0.006) | (0.041) | (0.494) | (0.676) | (0.142) | (0.449) | (0.022) | (0.267) | (0.001) | (0.013) |  | (1.242) | (0.969) | (0.176) |
| om00-83 | 20 | 6 | 0.0141 | 0.4017 | 18.25 | 48.31 | 4.58 | 16.13 | 0.3110 | 11.90 | 0.0068 | 0.0966 | 10 | 56.79 | 63.98 | 5.46 |
|  |  |  | (0.025) | (0.011) | (0.300) | (0.411) | (0.099) | $(0.487)$ | (0.021) | (0.294) | (0.009) | (0.008) |  | (1.348) | (0.571) | (0.117) |
| om00-84 | 20 | 5 | 0.0118 | 0.4679 | 16.52 | 49.92 | 4.69 | 16.53 | 0.3269 | 11.44 | 0.0064 | 0.0978 | 100 | 55.23 | 66.97 | 5.65 |
|  |  |  | (0.005) | (0.018) | (0.207) | (0.282) | (0.126) | (0.235) | (0.019) | (0.159) | (0.004) | (0.015) |  | ${ }^{(0.694)}$ | (0.393) | (0.149) |
| om00-85 | 20 | 3 | 0.0124 | 0.4511 | 16.78 | 49.87 | 4.42 | 16.67 | 0.3101 | 11.40 | 0.0000 | 0.0900 | 100 | 54.93 | 66.59 | 5.32 |
|  |  |  | . 008 | (0.011) | (0.145) | (0.241) | (072) | (0.279) | (0.01 | 0.18 | (0.00 | (0.019) |  | (0.815) | 0.295) | . 08 |


| sample | Width | N | $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{Al}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | $\mathrm{Cr}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | $\mathrm{Fe}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | FeO | MnO | MgO | CaO | NiO | Total | Mg\# | Cr\# | Fe3'\# |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| om00-86.2 | 20 | 7 | . 0000 | 0.0424 | 20.15 | 49.88 | 1.06 | 16.61 | 0.2648 | 11.99 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 100 | 56.29 | 62.43 | 1.25 |
|  |  |  | (0.000) | (0.019) | (0.694) | (0.418) | (0.408) | (0.222) | (0.011) | (0.147) | (0.000) | (0.000) |  | (0.607) | (0.986) | (0.483) |
| om00-86.4 | 20 | 6 | 0.0085 | 0.1297 | 20.52 | 49.76 | 0.64 | 16.76 | 0.2467 | 11.90 | 0.0015 | 0.0365 | 100 | 55.87 | 61.94 | 0.75 |
|  |  |  | (0.004) | (0.020) | (0.780) | (0.767) | (0.203) | (0.326) | (0.026) | (0.213) | (0.004) | (0.014) |  | (0.899) | (1.252) | (0.240) |
| om00-87.1 | 20 | 6 | 0.0000 | 0.1573 | 19.51 | 49.33 | 1.74 | 17.99 | 0.2886 | 10.98 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 100 | 52.09 | 62.92 | 2.07 |
|  |  |  | (0.000) | (0.010) | (0.539) | (0.599) | (0.209) | (0.576) | (0.015) | (0.401) | (0.000) | (0.000) |  | (1.707) | (0.888) | (0.252) |
| om00-87.3 | 20 | 6 | 0.0156 | 0.0898 | 21.65 | 48.58 | 0.67 | 16.52 | 0.2337 | 12.19 | 0.001 | 0.04 |  | 56.8 | 60.09 | 0.79 |
|  |  |  | (0.00 | (0.027) | (0.855) | (0.623) | (0.318) | (0.263) | (0.020) | (0.275) | (0.003) | (0.015) |  | (0.939) | (1.235) | (0.376) |
| om00-88.1 | 20 | 7 | 0.0139 | 0.2633 | 8.61 | 50.57 | 1.73 | 17.0 | 0.2712 | 11.4 | 0.0004 | 0.0554 |  | 54.6 | 64.5 | 2.07 |
|  |  |  | (0.006) | (0.044) | (1.022) | (0.203) | (0.764) | (0.832 | (0.028) | (0.671) | (0.001) | (0.010) |  | (2.637) | (1.293) | (0.922) |
| om00-89 | 20 | 5 | 0.010 | 0.1180 | 22.56 | 47.76 | 0.53 | 16.3 | 0.2415 | 12.38 | 0.0006 | 0.0330 | 100 | 57.42 | 58.68 | 0.62 |
|  |  |  | (0.007) | (0.007) | (0.210) | (0.161) | (0.179) | (0.382) | (0.012) | (0.233) | (0.001) | (0.014) |  | (1.030) | (0.300) | 0.209) |
| om00-90 | 20 | 5 | 0.0084 | 0.1154 | 22.63 | 47.72 | 0.44 | 16.51 | 0.2270 | 12.30 | 0.0000 | 0.0459 | 100 | 57.03 | 58.59 | 0.52 |
|  |  |  | (0.005) | (0.007) | (0.948) | (0.968) | (0.271) | (0.702) | (0.015) | (0.393) | (0.000) | (0.015) |  | (1.819) | (1.508) | 0.316) |
| om00-91 | 20 | 5 | 0.0069 | 0.4241 | 18.33 | 47.37 | 5.13 | 17.00 | 0.2838 | 11.36 | 0.0012 | 0.0852 | 100 | 54.35 | 63.42 | 6.14 |
|  |  |  | (0.006) | (0.019) | (0.363) | (0.627) | (0.305) | (0.309) | (0.006) | (0.209) | (0.002) | (0.005) |  | (0.903) | (0.751) | 0.358) |
| om00-92.2 | 20 | 4 | 0.0040 | 0.4596 | 20.17 | 45.87 | 4.86 | 16.13 | 0.2953 | 12.08 | 0.0022 | 0.1256 |  | 57.18 | 60.41 | 5.74 |
|  |  |  | (0.004) | (0.018) | (0.192) | (0.185) | (0.092) | (0.365) | (0.018) | (0.259) | (0.004) | (0.015) |  | (1.079) | (0.289) | 0.116) |
| om00-93 | 20 | 5 | 0.0025 | 0.4699 | 19.85 | 45.56 | 5.52 | 16.18 | 0.2843 | 12.03 | 0.0018 | 0.1055 |  | 56.99 | 60.62 | 6.54 |
|  |  |  | (0.003) | (0.021) | (0.227) | (0.493) | (0.378) | (0.438) | (0.019) | (0.312 | (0.003) | (0.016) |  | (1.299) | (0.425) | 0.459) |
| om00-94 | 20 | 6 | 0.0135 | 0.4494 | 18.79 | 45.99 | 6.09 | 16.68 | 0.3071 | 11.56 | 0.0048 | 0.1117 |  | 55.2 | 62.15 | 7.26 |
|  |  |  | (0.022) | (0.015) | (0.302) | (0.347) | (0.152) | (0.365) | (0.012) | (0.267) | (0.008) | (0.016) |  | (1.114) | (0.525) | 0.185) |
| om00-95 | 20 | 6 | 0.0088 | 0.4542 | 18.93 | 45.75 | 6.13 | 16.83 | 0.2917 | 11.50 | 0.0029 | 0.1013 | 100 | 54.92 | 61.84 | 7.31 |
|  |  |  | (0.004) | (0.023) | (0.392) | (0.702) | (0.242) | (0.351) | (0.014) | (0.228) | (0.003) | (0.010) |  | (1.003) | (0.833) | (0.292) |
| om00-98 | 20 | 5 | 0.003 | 0.3991 | 17.82 | 48.26 | 4.98 | 16.54 | 0.2955 | 11.59 | 0.0029 | 0.1076 | 10 | 55.53 | 64.51 | 5.96 |
|  |  |  | (0.003) | (0.016) | (0.362) | (0.503) | (0.177) | (0.081) | (0.006) | (0.022) | (0.003) | (0.009) |  | (0.164) | (0.695) | (0.209) |
| om00-99 | 20 | 6 | 0.001 | 0.4498 | 19.62 | 46.07 | 5.39 | 15.8 | 0.2706 | 12.21 | 0.0000 | 0.1141 | 100 | 57.82 | 61.17 | 6.37 |
|  |  |  | (0.004) | (0.041) | (0.286) | (0.617) | (0.208) | (0.276) | (0.015) | (0.181) | (0.000) | (0.008) |  | (0.785) | (0.660) | (0.248) |
| om00-100 | 20 | 5 | 0.0019 | 0.5091 | 20.74 | 44.61 | 5.63 | 15.67 | 0.2705 | 12.44 | 0.0006 | 0.1212 |  | 58.61 | 59.06 | 6.62 |
|  |  |  | (0.003) | (0.016) | (0.100) | (0.305) | (0.201) | (0.267) | (0.016) | (0.164) | (0.001) | (0.016) |  | (0.730) | (0.272) | (0.235) |
| om00-101 | 20 | 6 | 0.0016 | 0.4340 | 19.55 | 46.47 | 4.70 | 16.92 | 0.3100 | 11.52 | 0.0010 | 0.0897 | 100 | 54.83 | 61.45 | 5.59 |
|  |  |  | (0.002) | (0.012) | (0.159) | (0.288) | (0.355) | (0.584) | (0.011) | (0.368) | (0.002) | (0.008) |  | (1.648) | (0.280) | (0.416) |
| om00-104 | 20 | 7 | 0.0108 | 0.4088 | 19.63 | 46.21 | 5.03 | 16.50 | 0.2834 | 11.81 | 0.0000 | 0.1138 | 100 | 56.05 | 61.23 | 5.97 |
|  |  |  | (0.005) | (0.027 | (0.392) | (0.541) | 0.496) | (0.277) | (0.016) | (0.180) | (0.000) | (0.016) |  | (0.781) | (0.639) | 0.597) |


| ple | Width | N | $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{Al}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | $\mathrm{Cr}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | $\mathrm{Fe}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | FeO | MnO | $\mathrm{M}_{8}$ | CaO | NiO | Total | Mg\# | Cr\# | Fe3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| om00-105a | 20 | 6 | 0.0026 | 0.4919 | 21.06 | 44.85 | 5.05 | 15.66 | 0.2624 | 12.49 | 0.0000 | 0.1290 | 100 | 58. | 58.82 | 5.93 |
|  |  |  | (0.00) | (0.018) | (0.154) | (0.564) | (0.301) | (0.3 | (0.016 | (0.23 | (0.00 | (0.02 |  | (1.01 | (0.47 | ) |
| om00-106 | 20 | 6 | 0.001 | 0.4873 | 20.33 | 45.14 | 5.46 | 15.9 | 0.286 | 12.18 | 0.0005 | 0.1366 | 100 | 57.6 | 59.8 | 44 |
|  |  |  | (0.003) | (0.018) | (0.344) | (0.311) | (0.234) | (0.546) | (0.012) | (0.381) | (0.001) | (0.010) |  | (1.597) | (0.492) | (0.298) |
| m00-107 | 20 | 5 | 0.000 | 0.4885 | 20.82 | 45.03 | 5.21 | 15.47 | 0.2659 | 12.59 | 0.0000 | 0.1223 | 100 | 59.18 | 59.19 | 6.12 |
|  |  |  | (0.001) | (0.007) | (0.330) | (0.605) | (0.258) | (0.195) | (0.017) | (0.119) | (0.000) | (0.013) |  | (0.527) | (0.705) | 0.295) |
| om00-108 | 20 | 6 | 0.0048 | 0.4101 | 20.00 | 46.81 | 4.58 | 14.94 | 0.2648 | 12.87 | 0.0000 | 0.1230 | 100 | 60.56 | 61.10 | 5.38 |
|  |  |  | (0.007) | (0.014) | (0.300) | (0.267) | (0.124) | (0.200) | (0.014) | (0.159) | (0.000) | (0.013) |  | (0.612) | (0.491) | (0.144) |
| om00-109.1 | 20 | 5 | 0.0070 | 0.4159 | 20.27 | 45.98 | 4.89 | 15.55 | 0.2721 | 12.49 | 0.0006 | 0.1259 |  | 58.88 | 60.34 | . 75 |
|  |  |  | (0.00 | (0.01 | (0.160) | (0.133) | (0.050) | (0.162 | (0.014) | (0.130) | (0.001) | (0.023) |  | (0.504) | (0.254) | (0.062) |
| om00-110 | 20 | 5 | 0.006 | 0.4997 | 21.43 | 44.43 | 5.20 | 15. | 0.27 | 12.77 | 0.003 | 0.11 |  | 59.84 | 58.17 | . 08 |
|  |  |  | (0.003) | (0.015) | (0.201 | (0.226) | (0.159) | (0.192) | (0.008) | (0.127) | (0.004) | (0.013) |  | (0.535) | (0.325) | (0.190) |
| om00-112 | 20 | 5 | 0.003 | 0.488 | 21.18 | 4.50 | 5.41 | 15.2 | 0.276 | 12.7 | 0.005 | 0.1170 | 100 | 59.8 | 58.4 | 6.34 |
|  |  |  | (0.003 | (0.018) | (0.120) | (0.165) | (0.166) | (0.234) | (0.021) | (0.160) | (0.004) | (0.013) |  | (0.670) | (0.181) | 0.196) |
| om00-113 | 20 | 5 | 0.006 | 0.4945 | 21.67 | 44.12 | 5.29 | 15.12 | 0.2764 | 12.89 | 0.0071 | 0.1277 | 100 | 60.30 | 57.74 | 6.18 |
|  |  |  | (0.008) | (0.015) | (0.140) | (0.225) | (0.184) | (0.395) | (0.023) | (0.263) | (0.003) | (0.016) |  | (1.113) | (0.241) | 0.213) |
| om00-115 | 20 | 5 | 0.0007 | 0.5258 | 24.07 | 42.61 | 4.03 | 15.43 | 0.2567 | 12.96 | 0.0060 | 0.1094 | 100 | 59.95 | 54.29 | 4.66 |
|  |  |  | (0.001) | (0.039) | (0.297) | (0.463) | (0.308) | (0.501) | (0.027) | (0.343) | (0.003) | (0.023) |  | (1.409) | (0.488) | 0.365) |
| om00-117 | 20 | 5 | 0.0058 | 0.5026 | 22.47 | 43.47 | 4.82 | 15.80 | 0.2749 | 12.54 | 0.0048 | 0.1145 | 100 | 58.59 | 56.48 | 5.62 |
|  |  |  | (0.004) | (0.013) | (0.319) | (0.347) | (0.096) | (0.121) | (0.031) | (0.080) | (0.005) | (0.00 |  | (0.334) | (0.545) | (0.112) |
| om00-119 | 20 | 5 | 0.0109 | 0.4483 | 22.36 | 44.23 | 4.05 | 16.25 | 0.2900 | 12.25 | 0.0101 | 0.0978 |  | 57.33 | 57.03 | 4.73 |
|  |  |  | (0.011) | (0.049) | (0.330) | (0.622) | (0.382) | (0.341) | (0.015) | (0.238) | (0.004) | (0.020) |  | (0.990) | (0.686) | (0.440) |
| om00-122a | 20 | 5 | 0.0134 | 0.5202 | 22.16 | 43.43 | 5.05 | 16.15 | 0.2971 | 12.26 | 0.0006 | 0.1220 | 100 | 57.50 | 56.80 | 5.91 |
|  |  |  | (0.016) | (0.016) | (0.452) | (0.289) | (0.434) | (0.274) | (0.019) | (0.193) | (0.001) | (0.011) |  | (0.790) | (0.589) | (0.523) |
| om00-124 | 20 | 3 | 0.0000 | 0.4869 | 23.13 | 42.26 | 5.34 | 15.71 | 0.2736 | 12.65 | 0.0000 | 0.1380 | 100 | 58.94 | 55.07 | 6.21 |
|  |  |  | (0.000) | (0.038) | (0.457) | (0.564) | (0.105) | (0.246) | (0.022) | (0.147) | (0.000) | (0.005) |  | (0.653) | (0.810) | (0.122) |
| om00-127 | 20 | 5 | 0.0038 | 0.4975 | 20.96 | 44.32 | 5.45 | 16.32 | 0.2925 | 12.03 | 0.0000 | 0.1171 | 10 | 56.78 | 58.65 | 6.43 |
|  |  |  | (0.003) | (0.018) | (0.154) | (0.217) | (0.121) | (0.345) | (0.011) | (0.220) | (0.000) | (0.005) |  | (0.968) | (0.287) | (0.137) |
| om00-129 | 20 | 6 | 0.0032 | 0.5599 | 22.11 | 42.65 | 5.81 | 16.29 | 0.2973 | 12.13 | 0.0010 | 0.1414 | 100 | 57.03 | 56.41 | 6.81 |
|  |  |  | (0.004) | (0.022) | (0.223) | (0.479) | (0.402) | (0.608) | (0.012) | (0.431) | (0.002) | (0.014) |  | (1.784) | (0.279) | (0.497) |
| om00-130 | 20 | 5 | 0.0076 | 0.4733 | 22.41 | 43.77 | 3.85 | 17.91 | 0.3376 | 11.14 | 0.0012 | 0.0932 | 100 | 52.58 | 56.72 | 4.53 |
|  |  |  | (0.008) | (0.011) | (0.383) | (0.458) | (0.337) | (0.370) | (0.013) | (0.261) | (0.003) | (0.016) |  | (1.095) | (0.661) | (0.390) |
| om00-131 | 20 | 5 | 0.0038 | 0.5437 | 22.17 | 43.03 | 5.20 | 16.82 | 0.3118 | 11.82 | 0.0030 | 0.1042 | 100 | 55.59 | 56.56 | 6.11 |
|  |  |  | (0.003) | (0.028) | (0.383) | (0.390) | 0.249) | (0.827) | (0.024) | (0.547) | (0.003) | (0.019) |  | (2.352) | (0.612) | (0.291) |



| san | Width | N | Si | $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ | A | $\mathrm{Cr}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ |  | FeO | MnO | MgO | CaO | NiO | Total | Mg\# | Cr\# | Fe3 ${ }^{+}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| om00-146 | 20 | 6 | 60.0109 | 0.0448 | 25.55 | 42.71 | 2.32 | 16.47 | 0.2124 | 12.62 | 0.0015 | 0.0608 | 100 | 57.74 | 52.86 | 2.66 |
|  |  |  | (0.018) | (0.008) | (0.783) | (1.324) | (0.253) | (0.793) | (0.022) | (0.444) | (0.003) | (0.020) |  | (2.031) | (1.530) | (0.291) |
| om00-147 | 20 | 5 | 50.0186 | 0.0871 | 23.47 | 44.13 | 2.77 | 17.60 | 0.2440 | 11.63 | 0.0012 | 0.0559 | 100 | 54.10 | 55.78 | 3.22 |
|  |  |  | (0.012) | (0.006) | (0.794) | (1.085) | (0.166) | (0.354) | (0.012) | (0.162) | (0.003) | (0.014) |  | (0.837) | (1.435) | (0.190) |
| om00-148 | 20 | 5 | 0.0147 | 0.0805 | 22.23 | 45.49 | 2.70 | 17.82 | 0.2687 | 11.35 | 0.0000 | 0.0610 | 100 | 53.16 | 57.86 | 3.16 |
|  |  |  | (0.003) | (0.010) | (0.397) | (0.356) | (0.156) | (0.412) | (0.005) | (0.286) | (0.000) | (0.020) |  | (1.203) | (0.597) | (0.192) |
| om99-21 | 20 | 6 | 0.0010 | 0.4796 | 18.50 | 46.34 | 5.85 | 17.28 | 0.2798 | 11.16 | 0.0043 | 0.1120 | 100 | 53.52 | 62.69 | 7.01 |
|  |  |  | (0.003) | (0.022) | (0.305) | (0.486) | (0.468) | (0.464) | (0.011) | (0.323) | (0.004) | (0.019) |  | (1.387) | (0.454) | (0.580) |
| om99-22 | 20 | 7 | 0.0336 | 0.4773 | 19.34 | 46.04 | 5.72 | 15.77 | 0.2918 | 12.23 | 0.0050 | 0.0993 | 100 | 58.02 | 61.50 | 6.78 |
|  |  |  | (0.013) | (0.023) | (0.199) | (0.264) | (0.318) | (0.336) | (0.014) | (0.240) | (0.007) | (0.017) |  | (0.996) | (0.239) | (0.389) |
| om99-23 | 20 | 8 | 0.0000 | 0.4342 | 18.01 | 47.38 | 5.78 | 16.18 | 0.2486 | 11.86 | 0.0047 | 0.1064 | 100 | 56.64 | 63.84 | 6.90 |
|  |  |  | (0.000) | (0.012) | (0.333) | (0.476) | (0.180) | (0.475) | (0.017) | (0.312) | (0.004) | (0.012) |  | (1.367) | (0.627) | (0.222) |
| om99-24 | 20 | 6 | 0.0110 | 0.4796 | 20.31 | 44.68 | 5.96 | 15.97 | 0.2851 | 12.20 | 0.0005 | 0.1070 | 10 | 57.67 | 59.61 | 7.04 |
|  |  |  | (0.009) | (0.019) | (0.477) | (0.751) | (0.258) | (0.396) | (0.019) | (0.224) | (0.001) | (0.016) |  | (1.051) | (0.954) | 0.307) |
| om99-25 | 20 | 10 | 0.0000 | 0.4563 | 19.71 | 46.16 | 5.35 | 15.46 | 0.2454 | 12.51 | 0.0021 | 0.1109 | 100 | 59.06 | 61.11 | 6.31 |
|  |  |  | (0.000) | (0.016) | (0.247) | (0.285) | (0.192) | (0.595) | (0.016) | (0.414) | (0.003) | (0.019) |  | (1.737) | (0.366) | (0.238) |
| om99-27 | 20 | 9 | 0.0000 | 0.4493 | 20.37 | 45.37 | 5.57 | 15.02 | 0.2385 | 12.87 | 0.0010 | 0.1120 | 100 | 60.42 | 59.91 | 6.55 |
|  |  |  | (0.000) | (0.016) | (0.293) | (0.291) | (0.064) | (0.282) | (0.016) | (0.205) | (0.003) | (0.015) |  | (0.828) | (0.492) | (0.076) |
| om99-28 | 20 | 12 | 0.0019 | 0.4927 | 22.15 | 43.78 | 4.77 | 16.08 | 0.2865 | 12.33 | 0.0010 | 0.1011 | 100 | 57.75 | 57.00 | 5.59 |
|  |  |  | (0.003) | (0.023) | (0.438) | (0.631) | (0.441) | (0.319) | (0.017) | (0.207) | (0.003) | (0.015) |  | (0.887) | (0.793) | (0.514) |
| om99-29 | 20 | 8 | 0.0000 | 0.5137 | 21.35 | 43.48 | 5.82 | 16.52 | 0.2560 | 11.97 | 0.0015 | 0.0943 | 100 | 56.35 | 57.74 | 6.85 |
|  |  |  | (0.000) | (0.010) | (0.360) | (0.347) | (0.276) | (0.574) | (0.021) | (0.405) | (0.002) | (0.012) |  | (1.679) | (0.517) | (0.343) |
| om99-30 | 20 | 11 | 0.0154 | 0.4653 | 21.56 | 43.24 | 5.72 | 16.85 | 0.3055 | 11.75 | 0.0019 | 0.1000 | 100 | 55.42 | 57.36 | 6.74 |
|  |  |  | (0.024) | (0.031) | (0.422) | (0.841) | (0.552) | (0.556) | (0.023) | (0.370) | (0.003) | (0.022) |  | (1.595) | (0.845) | (0.667) |
| om99-31 | 20 | 8 | 0.0000 | 0.4865 | 23.03 | 43.32 | 3.97 | 17.02 | 0.2399 | 11.86 | 0.0000 | 0.0820 | 100 | 55.39 | 55.79 | 4.64 |
|  |  |  | (0.000) | (0.036) | (0.521) | (0.466) | (0.333) | (0.412) | (0.023) | (0.305) | (0.000) | (0.015) |  | (1.230) | (0.754) | (0.403) |
| om99-32 | 20 | 9 | 0.0072 | 0.4262 | 19.07 | 45.36 | 5.99 | 17.94 | 0.3260 | 10.77 | 0.0051 | 0.1011 | 100 | 51.70 | 61.47 | 7.18 |
|  |  |  | (0.009) | (0.025) | (0.382) | (0.753) | (0.534) | (0.612) | (0.017) | (0.427) | (0.004) | (0.017) |  | (1.840) | (0.732) | (0.659) |
| om99-33 | 20 | 7 | 0.0000 | 0.2837 | 21.81 | 44.43 | 4.20 | 17.47 | 0.2508 | 11.47 | 0.0013 | 0.0850 | 100 | 53.93 | 57.75 | 4.94 |
|  |  |  | (0.000) | (0.011) | (0.319) | (0.633) | (0.406) | (0.639) | (0.020) | (0.404) | (0.002) | (0.020) |  | (1.780) | (0.655) | (0.479) |
| om99-34 | 20 | 11 | 0.0000 | 0.4911 | 20.95 | 44.01 | 5.97 | 15.77 | 0.2687 | 12.38 | 0.0000 | 0.1458 | 100 | 58.32 | 58.49 | 7.02 |
|  |  |  | (0.000) | (0.009) | (0.104) | (0.175) | (0.169) | (0.239) | (0.019) | (0.160) | (0.000) | (0.018) |  | (0.681) | (0.171) | (0.200) |
| om99-35 | 20 | 5 | 0.0000 | 0.5179 | 23.00 | 43.26 | 3.80 | 17.62 | 0.2638 | 11.43 | 0.0012 | 0.1127 | 100 | 53.61 | 55.78 | 4.45 |
|  |  |  | (0.000) | (0.025) | (0.283) | (0.343) | (0.329) | (0.333) | (0.020) | (0.235) | (0.002) | (0.020) |  | (0.982) | (0.452) | (0.384) |



Table B3 - Orthopyroxene Compositions

| Sample | $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{Al}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | $\mathrm{Cr}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | FeO | MnO | MgO | CaO | $\mathrm{Na}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ | NiO | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| om00-75 | 57.14 | 0.0355 | 1.1441 | 0.5877 | 5.1 | 0.1004 | 33.37 | 2.1459 | 0.0197 | 0.1142 | 99.76 |
| om00-75 | 57.56 | 0.0374 | 1.2188 | 0.5539 | 5.28 | 0.1738 | 33.25 | 1.8624 | 0.0078 | 0.1074 | 100.05 |
| om00-75 | 57.33 | 0.0418 | 1.2195 | 0.5204 | 5.48 | 0.1235 | 33.68 | 1.6732 | 0.0095 | 0.0956 | 100.17 |
| om00-75 | 57.21 | 0.0354 | 1.2109 | 0.5473 | 5.39 | 0.1192 | 33.43 | 1.6808 | 0.0081 | 0.0864 | 72 |
| om00-75 | 57.19 | 0.0444 | 1.4586 | 0.6056 | 5.33 | 0.1422 | 33.85 | 2.3336 | 0.0227 | 0.1012 | 101.08 |
| om00-75 | 57.28 | 0.0406 | 1.4817 | 0.5628 | 5.75 | 0.1293 | 34.51 | 0.964 | 0 | 0.0822 | 100.8 |
| om00-75 | 57.75 | 0.0447 | 1.3531 | 0.4991 | 5.67 | 0.1244 | 35.02 | 0.5209 | 0 | 0.0934 | 101.08 |
| om00-75 | 57.7 | 0.0361 | 1.336 | 0.5276 | 5.42 | 0.1329 | 34.42 | 1.4287 | 0.0093 | 0.0966 | 101.12 |
| om00-75 | 57.68 | 0.0271 | 1.2732 | 0.5051 | 5.69 | 0.1227 | 34.76 | 0.9204 | 0 | 0.0974 | 101.08 |
| om00-76 | 57.65 | 0.0513 | 1.4636 | 0.5804 | 5.37 | 0.1228 | 34.25 | 1.4855 | 0.0282 | 0.0972 | 01.1 |
| om00-76 | 57.83 | 0.0483 | 1.4065 | 0.5633 | 5.29 | 0.1361 | 34.24 | 1.8157 | 0.0215 | 0.0911 | 101.45 |
| om00-76 | 57.85 | 0.0578 | 1.1514 | 0.455 | 5.4 | 0.1337 | 35.11 | 0.6679 | 0 | 0.1062 | 100.93 |
| om00-76 | 57.61 | 0.0594 | 1.3693 | 0.5202 | 5.35 | 0.1237 | 34.6 | 0.8068 | 0.0041 | 0.0869 | 100.53 |
| om00-76 | 57.77 | 0.0424 | 1.2504 | 0.4937 | 5.34 | 0.1204 | 35.13 | 0.4167 | 0 | 0.1104 | 100.67 |
| om00-76 | 57.63 | 0.0567 | 1.2759 | 0.4889 | 5.4 | 0.1426 | 35 | 0.8219 | 0.0046 | 0.0742 | 00.9 |
| om00-76 | 57.55 | 0.0498 | 1.2807 | 0.45 | 5.5 | 0.1354 | 34.71 | 0.9631 | 0 | 0.0643 | 100.7 |
| om00-86.4 | 57.56 | 0.0284 | 1.338 | 0.467 | 5.33 | 0.1151 | 34.86 | 0.9328 | 0 | 0.0821 | 100.71 |
| 00-86.4 | 57.56 | 0.0284 | 1.338 | 0.467 | 5.33 | 0.1151 | 34.86 | 0.9328 | 0 | 0.0821 | 100.71 |
| om00-86.4 | 57.25 | 0.03 | 1.4895 | 0.5891 | 5.16 | 0.1243 | 34.3 | 1.4378 | 0.0188 | 0.0812 | 100.49 |
| om00-86.4 | 57.47 | 0.0207 | 1.4851 | 0.5706 | 5.33 | 0.1317 | 34.66 | 0.8699 | 0 | 0.083 | 100.63 |
| om00-86.4 | 57.75 | 0.03 | 1.263 | 0.4384 | 5.33 | 0.1242 | 34.9 | 0.9117 | 0 | 0.089 | 100.84 |
| om00-86.4 | 57.38 | 0.0256 | 1.5131 | 0.5443 | 5.31 | 0.1167 | 34.52 | 0.9866 | 0 | 0.0932 | 100.49 |
| om00-86.4 | 57.33 | 0.0373 | 1.4464 | 0.557 | 5.07 | 0.1298 | 33.89 | 2.0126 | 0.0061 | 0.0798 | 100.55 |
| om00-88.1 | 57.09 | 0.0394 | 1.5115 | 0.5891 | 5.15 | 0.1087 | 34.07 | 1.5648 | 0.0038 | 0.0887 | 100.22 |
| om00-88.1 | 57.32 | 0.0355 | 1.306 | 0.4559 | 5.36 | 0.1 | 34.71 | 0.9592 | 0.0045 | 0.0733 | 100.35 |
| om00-88.1 | 57.25 | 0.0422 | 1.3585 | 0.5497 | 5.45 | 0.1235 | 34.97 | 0.6466 | 0 | 0.0972 | 100.49 |
| om | 57.51 | 0.0396 | 1.4028 | 0.5502 | 5.32 | 0.1406 | 34.69 | 0.8113 | 0 | 0.0957 | 100.56 |
| om00-88.1 | 57.64 | 0.0388 | 1.3993 | 0.5115 | 5.44 | 0.1242 | 35.08 | 0.6239 | 0.0009 | 0.0736 | 100.94 |
| om00-89 | 57.71 | 0.034 | 1.5681 | 0.5109 | 5.41 | 0.1348 | 34.93 | 0.6379 | 0 | 0.0925 | 101.02 |
| om00-89 | 57.78 | 0.0313 | 1.6609 | 0.6042 | 5.34 | 0.1258 | 34.65 | 1.0302 | 0 | 0.0832 | . 31 |
| om00-89 | 57.49 | 0.02 | 1.6943 | 0.5851 | 5.42 | 0.1088 | 34.87 | 0.6693 | 0.0033 | 0.0931 | 100.95 |
| om00-89 | 57.51 | 0.0219 | 1.552 | 0.5354 | 5.32 | 0.128 | 34.92 | 0.5769 | 0 | 0.0817 | 100.65 |
| om00-89 | 57.61 | 0.0272 | 1.5383 | 0.538 | 5.4 | 0.1262 | 34.79 | 0.6643 | 0 | 0.0793 | 100.81 |
| om00-90 | 57.92 | 0.0293 | 1.6593 | 0.5706 | 5.6 | 0.1176 | 34.69 | 0.5818 | 0 | 0.0806 | 101.27 |
| om00-90 | 57.3 | 0.0259 | 1.7035 | 0.6669 | 5.52 | 0.1103 | 34.57 | 0.6867 | 0.0009 | 0.1079 | 100.7 |
| om00-90 | 57.63 | 0.0253 | 1.5507 | 0.5836 | 5.64 | 0.13 | 34.91 | 0.5548 | 0 | 0.098 | 101.12 |
| om00-90 | 57.68 | 0.0237 | 1.5238 | 0.5828 | 5.54 | 0.1247 | 34.48 | 1.0324 | 0 | 0.0879 | 101.08 |
| om00-90 | 57.71 | 0.0269 | 1.5487 | 0.5727 | 5.55 | 0.1288 | 34.79 | 0.719 | 0 | 0.0987 | 101.14 |
| om00-90 | 57.76 | 0.0306 | 1.5857 | 0.5912 | 5.55 | 0.1294 | 34.58 | 0.8683 | 0 | 0.1118 | 101.21 |
| om00-90 | 57.44 | 0.0114 | 1.7418 | 0.6083 | 5.35 | 0.1204 | 34.61 | 0.5227 | 0 | 0.0527 | 100.46 |
| om00-141.2 | 55.18 | 0.0361 | 3.24 | 0.8094 | 7.81 | 0.1766 | 32.32 | 0.453 | 0.0089 | 0.0612 | 100.09 |
| om00-141.4 | 55.41 | 0.0422 | 3.38 | 0.8563 | 7.93 | 0.1616 | 32.35 | 0.4382 | 0.0145 | 0.058 | 100.64 |
| om00-141.4 | 55.28 | 0.0515 | 3.09 | 0.8466 | 7.88 | 0.1967 | 31.81 | 0.974 | 0 | 0.0704 | 100.2 |
| om00-141.4 | 55.44 | 0.048 | 3.25 | 0.8845 | 7.72 | 0.1701 | 32.34 | 0.4303 | 0 | 0.0572 | 100.34 |
| om00-143.2 | 57.35 | 0.0108 | 1.6673 | 0.5965 | 5.65 | 0.16 | 33.89 | 1.5285 | 0.026 | 0.0911 | 100.97 |
| om00-143.2 | 56.98 | 0.0199 | 1.7586 | 0.6012 | 5.76 | 0.1486 | 33.48 | 1.9972 | 0.016 | 0.1024 | 100.87 |
| om00-143.2 | 57.3 | 0.0245 | 1.6257 | 0.5667 | 5.5 | 0.1364 | 32.9 | 2.637 | 0.0071 | 0.0952 | 100.79 |
| om00-143.2 | 57.37 | 0.0243 | 1.778 | 0.5968 | 5.95 | 0.1463 | 34.26 | 0.677 | 0.0128 | 0.1067 | 100.93 |
| om00-143.2 | 57.24 | 0.0208 | 1.7374 | 0.5672 | 5.81 | 0.1533 | 33.95 | 1.5204 | 0.0049 | 0.1031 | 101.11 |
| om00-143.2 | 57.49 | 0.0323 | 1.7179 | 0.5197 | 5.93 | 0.1487 | 34.03 | 1.0338 | 0.0123 | 0.0862 | 101 |
| om00-144 | 57.19 | 0.036 | 1.8233 | 0.5529 | 5.83 | 0.1583 | 33.69 | 1.84 | 0.0255 | 0.074 | 101.22 |
| om00-144 | 56.99 | 0.0408 | 1.8262 | 0.5774 | 5.58 | 0.1294 | 32.75 | 2.986 | 0.0204 | 0.0818 | 100.98 |


| Sample | $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{Al}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | $\mathrm{Cr}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | FeO | Mn | $\mathbf{M g O}$ | CaO | Na | NiO | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| om00-144 | 57.06 | 0.0458 | 1.751 | 0.5803 | 5.71 | 0.1477 | 33.11 | 2.3079 | 0.0326 | 0.0715 | 100.82 |
| om00-144 | 57.15 | 0.0462 | 1.6951 | 0.6204 | 6.03 | 0.1661 | 33.89 | 1.0933 | 181 | 0.0834 | 100 |
| om00-165a | 57.09 | 0.0506 | 1.9796 | 0.5969 | 5.71 | 0.1202 | 33.73 | 1.6387 | 0 | 0.0686 | 100.99 |
| om00-165a | 57.22 | 0.0423 | 1.9698 | 0.5567 | 5.85 | 0.1296 | 34.61 | 0.6125 | 0.0003 | 0.0732 | 101 |
| om00-165a | 56.99 | 0.0427 | 1.8207 | 0.5535 | 5.47 | 0.1308 | 33.59 | 2.029 | 0.0021 | .086 |  |
| om00-168 | 57.09 | 0.0448 | 1.9198 | 0.6255 | 5.73 | 0.1335 | 33.69 | 1.7367 | 0.0087 | 0.0877 | 101 |
| om00-168 | 56.83 | 0.0477 | 2.0653 | 0.6572 | 5.99 | 0.1427 | 34.62 | 0.6057 | 0 | 0.07 | 01 |
| om00-168 | 56.97 | 0.0539 | 1.9535 | 0.5502 | 5.88 | 0.1439 | 34.47 | 0.7099 | 0.0236 | 0.0785 | 100.84 |
| om00-166b | 57.08 | 0.0771 | 1.9977 | 0.5951 | 5.73 | 0.1413 | 34. | 0.8172 | 0.0187 | 0.0721 | 100 |
| om00-166b | 57.21 | 0.0761 | 2.0073 | 0.5789 | 5.83 | 0.1435 | 34.74 | 0.6322 | 0 | 0.0974 | 101.31 |
| om00-166b | 56.9 | 0.0811 | 2.1678 | 0.6627 | 5.65 | 0.15 | 33.77 | 1.3338 | 0.0324 | 0.08 | 100.82 |
| om00-166b | 57.09 | 0.0672 | 1.939 | 0.6188 | 5.69 | 0.1592 | 34.68 | 0.4677 | 0.0048 | . 0918 | 00 |
| om00-173 | 57.34 | 0.0657 | 2.1139 | 0.6632 | 6.31 | 0.1785 | 34.41 | 0.5116 | 0.0025 | 0.0777 | 101.67 |
| om00-173 | 57.41 | 0.0757 | 1.7105 | 0.3799 | 6.4 | 0.1525 | 34.36 | 0.5965 |  | 0.0689 | 01.16 |
| om00-173 | 57.05 | 0.0731 | 2.0851 | 0.6112 | 6.3 | 0.1463 | 34.35 | 0.682 | 0 | 0.0679 | 101.36 |
| om00-173 | 56.77 | 0.1065 | 2.0438 | 0.6337 | 5.66 | 0.154 | 31.73 | 4.3 | 0.0237 | 0.0737 | 101.5 |
| om00-173 | 57.12 | 0.0872 | 2.0924 | 0.591 | 6.27 | 0.1661 | 33.87 | 0.9468 | . | 0.0805 | 101.22 |
| om00-173 | 57.36 | 0.0845 | 2.0351 | 0.5393 | 6.17 | 0.1548 | 33.96 | 1.2936 |  | 0.077 | 101.67 |
| om00-173 | 57.25 | 0.0778 | 2.1297 | 0.5639 | 6.29 | 0.1657 | 34.31 | 0.6585 | 0 | 0.0819 | 101.53 |

Table B4-Clinopyroxene Compositions

| Sample | $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{Al}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | $\mathrm{Cr}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ | FeO | MnO | MgO | CaO | $\mathrm{Na}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ | NiO | Tot |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| om00-86.4 | 54.82 | 0.0575 | 1.4943 | 0.8108 | 1.9024 | 0.0938 | 18.03 | 23.25 | 0.3258 | 0.0845 | 100.86 |
| om00-86.4 | 54.49 | 0.0663 | 1.4656 | 0.813 | 1.796 | 0.0692 | 18.05 | 23.6 | 0.3532 | 0.0746 | 100.77 |
| om00-86.4 | 54.38 | 0.0732 | 1.7044 | 1.0224 | 1.7481 | 0.066 | 17.57 | 23.47 | 0.3888 | 0.0659 | 100.49 |
| om00-86.4 | 54.59 | 0.081 | 1.6888 | 1.06 | 1.597 | 0.0757 | 17.58 | 23.67 | 0.3863 | 0.0776 | . 8 |
| om00-86.4 | 54.42 | 0.0768 | 1.6834 | 0.9957 | 1.5505 | 0.0689 | 17.62 | 23.87 | 0.3661 | 0.0811 | 100.73 |
| 0-88.1 | 54.19 | 0.1122 | 1.5768 | 0.8851 | 1.6376 | 0.08 | 17.9 | 24.11 | 0.3785 | 0.0743 | 100.94 |
| om00-88.1 | 54.85 | 0.0953 | 1.4743 | 0.7847 | 1.7704 | 0.0911 | 17.85 | 23.89 | 0.3602 | 0.0762 | 101. |
| om00-88.1 | 54.61 | 0.1058 | 1.3451 | 0.9549 | 1.6124 | 0.0821 | 17.9 | 23.79 | 0.3 | 0.0539 | 100 |
| om00-90 | 54.45 | 0.0721 | 1.8929 | 1.0589 | 1.7942 | 0.0704 | 17.66 | 23.82 | 0.354 | 0.0856 | 101.25 |
| om00-90 | 54.95 | 0.0762 | 1.5978 | 0.7974 | 1.811 | 0.0892 | 17.93 | 23.89 | 0.3 | 0.0837 | 101 |
| om00-90 | 54.34 | 0.0967 | 1.9743 | 1.0969 | 1.6927 | 0.0594 | 17.36 | 23.88 | 0.3604 | 0.0483 | 100 |
| om00-141.2 | 52.7 | 0.2052 | 3.2 | 1.0983 | 2.285 | 0.1006 | 16.69 | 23.99 | 0.1846 | 0.0537 | 100.52 |
| om00-141.2 | 52.86 | 0.2128 | 3.15 | 1.0946 | 2.6703 | 0.1189 | 17.77 | 22.55 | 0.1441 | 0.0589 | 100. |
| om00-141.2 | 52.75 | 0.2052 | 3.19 | 1.0736 | 2.2639 | 0.119 | 16.86 | 23.68 | 0.170 | 0.0638 | 100.38 |
| 00-141.2 | 52.75 | 0.2136 | 3.16 | 1.1323 | 2.1861 | 0.1181 | 16.68 | 23.97 | 0.1713 | 0.0508 | 100.44 |
| om00-141.2 | 52.77 | 0.204 | 3.16 | 1.0967 | 2.3165 | 0.1069 | 16.79 | 23.92 | 0.1726 | 0.0563 | . 59 |
| om00-141.2 | 53.12 | 0.228 | 3.2 | 1.1088 | 2.2235 | 0.1061 | 16.8 | 23.94 | 0.1659 | 0.0551 | 100.95 |
| om00-141.2 | 52.81 | 0.2276 | 3.19 | 1.1538 | 2.1655 | 0.1076 | 17.12 | 23.59 | 0.171 | 0.0696 | 100.61 |
| om00-141.2 | S3.1 | 0.1948 | 2.9686 | 0438 | 2.1673 | 0.1048 | 16.99 | 23.94 | 0.1846 | 0.0468 | 100.76 |
| om00-141.4 | 53.15 | 0.2085 | 2.914 | 1.0241 | 2.5243 | 0.1205 | 18.2 | 22.63 | 0.180 | 0.0615 | 101.01 |
| n00-141.4 | 53.4 | 0.2145 | 11 | 1.0998 | 2.5526 | 0.1315 | 17.87 | 23.05 | 0.1599 | 0.0493 | 101.66 |
| om00-141.4 | 53.18 | 0.1995 | 3.06 | 1.1772 | 2.5135 | 0.1131 | 16.75 | 23.7 | 0.1502 | 0.053 | 100.89 |
| n00-141.4 | 52.86 | 0.2178 | 3.27 | 1.2287 | 2.5355 | 0.1063 | 16.76 | 23.85 | 0.1493 | 0.0649 | 101.04 |
| om00-141.4 | 52.74 | 0.228 | 3.29 | 1.1602 | 2.5257 | 0.1035 | 16.9 | 23.64 | 0.1633 | 0.0631 | 100.81 |
| om00-141.4 | 53.59 | 0.1952 | 2.56 | 0.683 | 2.4598 | 0.108 | 17.5 | 23.68 | 0.1568 | 0.064 |  |
| om00-141.4 | 53.13 | 0.2111 | 3.17 | 1.1561 | 2.343 | 0.1068 | 16.71 | 23.94 | 0.161 | 0.0581 | 100.99 |
| 0-141.4 | 52.82 | 0.2032 | 3.11 | 1.1415 | 2.4656 | 0.1067 | 16.99 | 23.34 | 0.1467 | 0.0661 | 100.39 |
| om00-142.1 | 54.03 | 0.1236 | 1.7565 | 1.1063 | 2.0913 | 0.1179 | 17.41 | 23.54 | 0.2621 | 0.0751 | 100.51 |
| om00-142.1 | 54.14 | 0.1272 | 1.8019 | 1.0609 | 2.1538 | 0.1103 | 17.43 | 23.75 | 0.2505 | 0.0832 | 100. |
| om00-142.1 | 53.84 | 0.1277 | 1.5664 | 1.007 | 2.1532 | 0.1066 | 17.65 | 23.68 | 0.253 | 0.074 | 100.46 |
| om00-142.1 | 54.2 | 0.126 | 1.67 | 1.0259 | 2.24 | 0.0993 | 17.89 | 23.51 | 0.2099 | 0.0626 | 101 |
| om00-143.2 | 54.11 | 0.0598 | 2.0983 | 1.0293 | 1.9648 | 0.1152 | 17.33 | 24.18 | 0.2224 | 0.0729 | 101.19 |
| om00-143.2 | 54.4 | 0.058 | 2.0333 | 0.9534 | 2.3269 | 0.0971 | 17. | 22.95 | 0.1689 | 0.0861 | 101.12 |
| om00-165a | 53.74 | 0.0963 | 2.3602 | 0.9821 | 2.1426 | 0.1015 | 17.31 | 23.71 | 0.238 | 0.0607 | 100.74 |
| om00-165a | 53.81 | 0.0958 | 2.1652 | . 0459 | 1.935 | 0.0999 | 17. | 24.02 | 0.2688 | 0.0646 | 100.95 |
| om00-165a | 54.01 | 0.0883 | 2.3083 | 1.0376 | 2.0688 | 0.1085 | 17.43 | 23.9 | 0.2764 | 0.0616 | 101.29 |
| om00-171 | 53.53 | 0.3352 | 2.6864 | 0.9573 | 2.0991 | 0.0985 | 16.99 | 24.64 | 0.2041 | 0.0801 | 101.61 |
| om00-171 | 53.5 | 0.2267 | 2.5695 | 1.0009 | 2.3455 | 0.1208 | 17.22 | 23.97 | 0.2108 | 0.0688 | 101.24 |
| om00-171 | 54.12 | 0.2277 | 2.4397 | 0.8957 | 2.8621 | 0.1227 | 18.89 | 21.34 | 0.1829 | 0.0657 | 101.16 |
| om00-171 | 54.38 | 0.2141 | 1.9419 | 0.6618 | 2.1929 | 0.0935 | 17.72 | 24.11 | 0.2127 | 0.0762 | 101.6 |
| om00-170 | 54.47 | 0.1672 | 1.2136 | 0.4138 | 2.054 | 0.0824 | 18.12 | 24.69 | 0.158 | 0.0663 | 101.44 |
| om00-170 | 53.63 | 0.2534 | 2.23 | 0.862 | 2.0465 | 0.0876 | 17.43 | 24.58 | 0.2217 | 0.0799 | 101.4 |
| om00-170 | 53.87 | 0.2227 | 2.0462 | 0.7836 | 2.33 | 0.1035 | 17.24 | 24.26 | 0.1853 | 0.0691 | 101.11 |
| om00-170 | 53.7 | 0.2249 | 2.0417 | 0.7443 | 2.2437 | 0.1023 | 17.35 | 24.32 | 0.179 | 0.0463 | 101.04 |
| om00-168 | 53.94 | 0.133 | 2.1767 | 0.957 | 2.0788 | 0.1102 | 17.55 | 23.86 | 0.2989 | 0.0736 | 101.17 |
| om00-168 | 54.22 | 0.1415 | 1.7041 | 0.8003 | 1.9982 | 0.0917 | 17.77 | 23.94 | 0.2623 | 0.071 | 10 |
| om00-166b | 54.08 | 0.187 | 2.2827 | 0.7211 | 2.4077 | 0.0765 | 18.97 | 22.18 | 0.2103 | 0.0643 | 101.18 |
| om00-166b | 53.39 | 0.2056 | 2.8226 | 1.1404 | 2.0311 | 0.1066 | 17.16 | 23.48 | 0.2706 | 0.0622 | 100.67 |
| om00-166b | 53.89 | 0.2214 | 2.4845 | 1.0837 | 1.829 | 0.0877 | 17.32 | 24.09 | 0.2436 | 0.0698 | 101.31 |
| om00-173 | 54.1 | 0.2045 | 2.5363 | 1.0543 | 2.1553 | 0.1026 | 17.4 | 23.75 | 0.2781 | 0.0758 | 101.66 |
| om00-173 | 53.96 | 0.1829 | 2.291 | 0.9309 | 2.3161 | 0.1115 | 17.44 | 23.89 | 0.2589 | 0.088 | 101.48 |
| 00-173 | 54.1 | 0.1897 | 2.329 | 0.9835 | 2.3 | 0.1251 | 17. | 23. | 0.2105 | 0.0677 | 1 |

## Chapter 4

## Microstructural Evolution in Naturally-Deformed Dunites: Grain Boundary Sliding and the Strength of the Shallow Mantle


#### Abstract

: Systematic variations in texture and microstructure observed in naturally deformed peridotites from the Oman ophiolite are used to constrain the rheology of the shallow mantle beneath oceanic spreading centers. A comparison of harzburgites with dunites bodies of different sizes suggests that melt generation and focused melt transport have a significant influence on the dominant deformation mechanism during corner flow. We combine multiple samples from transects across several lithologic bodies to establish representative composite textures and lattice preferred orientations of coarse-grained naturally deformed peridotites. Harzburgites are typically finer-grained and exhibit a strong $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}[100]$ lattice preferred orientation and relatively small grain size. In contrast, dunites show a systematic transition in microstructure and grain size from the finegrained $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}[100]$ harzburgite texture in the smallest dunites to a coarse-grained, (010)[100] lattice preferred orientation in the widest dunites. In the context of laboratory data, these observations indicate that the harzburgites were deforming by dislocationaccommodated grain boundary sliding, whereas strain in the dunites was accommodated increasingly by dislocation creep as dunite width increased. Given the well-constrained spreading center environment associated with the ophiolite prior to obduction, we infer that the observed transition in deformation mechanism was induced by grain growth associated with dunite formation and melt transport with an the increased time-integrated melt flux in wider dunites. The inferred onset of grain boundary sliding implies the viscosity of the shallow mantle beneath oceanic spreading centers may be much lower than that predicted by extrapolation of dislocation creep flow laws, except in regions of highly focused melt transport.


## Introduction:

Correlations between the orientation of seismic anisotropy in the oceanic upper mantle and large-scale plate motions suggest that an anisotropic fabric develops as the result of flow in the asthenosphere [Hess, 1964]. Laboratory experiments have demonstrated that dislocation creep can produce a crystallographic alignment, or lattice preferred orientation (LPO), in deforming aggregates [e.g., Carter and Avé Lallemant, 1970], which is the source of the observed anisotropy [e.g., Nicolas and Christensen, 1987]. Because olivine is the most abundant, and potentially weakest, phase in the upper mantle, much work has been devoted to understanding the development of lattice preferred orientation and its relationship to seismic anisotropy and mantle dynamics.

Laboratory experiments have identified a variety of mechanisms which accommodate strain within olivine aggregates [Frost and Ashby, 1982; Karato et al., 1986]; each one dominant under a unique combination of conditions (i.e. temperature, oxygen fugacity, differential stress, grain size). Sustained deformation by the dominant mechanism induces the crystallographic alignment. As a result, the LPO, developed as strain accumulates in the deforming aggregate, is uniquely related to the dominant rheology.

Although deformation mechanisms are well defined at laboratory conditions and timescales, the experimental uncertainties become large when extrapolated to geologic scales. To better constrain the rheology, we depend on observations from naturallydeformed rocks with a reasonably well defined tectonic history. Using the observed relationship between deformation mechanism and the resultant microstructure we can infer the rheology, even when the deformation conditions are poorly known.

We examine dunites and harzburgites from the mantle section of the Oman ophiolite to constrain the deformation mechanisms which operate in melting region beneath mid-ocean ridges. The Oman ophiolite is a nearly continuous section of lithosphere formed at an oceanic spreading center [e.g. Boudier and Coleman, 1981; Glennie et al., 1974; Nicolas et al., 2000]. The extensive structural and petrologic mapping conducted in this region as well as the low extents of physical and chemical
weathering (in comparison to abyssal peridotites) make Oman ideal for the study of naturally deformed peridotites.

## Microstructural analysis:

Although a few studies have reported peridotite fabrics from various stratigraphic levels within the mantle section of the Oman ophiolite [Boudier and Coleman, 1981; Dijkstra et al., 2002], they focused primarily on flow geometry relative to the paleoridge. In most other studies, a large majority of the samples come from just below or within the crust-mantle transition zone [Boudier et al., 1988; Boudier and Nicolas, 1995; Jousselin and Mainprice, 1998; Jousselin et al., 1998; Nicolas, 1986; Nicolas et al., 1980]. As a result, many of the samples with reported LPOs have clearly been affected by melt impregnation, containing abundant interstitial plagioclase and/or clinopyroxene and an indeterminate amount of cumulate olivine. The effects of melt impregnation are evident in the abundance of weak or incoherent LPOs.

To avoid complications associated with melt impregnation, all samples in this study lie, stratigraphically, at least 1 km below the crust-mantle transition zone and are overlain by residual harzburgite. The peridotite samples are completely devoid of plagioclase, have only trace amounts of clinopyroxene, and preserve olivine forsterite contents between 89 and 92 , observations which preclude melt impregnation.

Dunites vary in size, from less than 1 cm to 100 m , follow a power-law relationship describing their abundance as a function of width [Braun and Kelemen, 2002]. To encompass this range of sizes, we examined several dunites ranging from $\sim 1$ cm to 50 m wide, as well as the adjacent harzburgites all from within $\sim 600$ meters of each other in the Wadi Lufti region of the Samail massif. Here we report the results from 4 lithologic bodies: three dunites, $3 \mathrm{~m}, 25 \mathrm{~m}$, and 50 m wide, and the surrounding harzburgite.

Lattice preferred orientations as well as grain size and grain shape distributions were measured in multiple samples from each lithologic body. Oriented samples were collected from transects across several dunites and into the surrounding harzburgite with
a sample spacing of $\sim 50 \mathrm{~cm}$. From each sample, thin sections were cut perpendicular to the mean regional dunite/harzburgite contact and parallel to the mean spinel lineation as determined from the average orientations of 59 dunites and 57 spinels (figure 1). The dunite/harzburgite contacts were chosen as a fabric reference because they have a relatively uniform orientation in this transposed mantle section and the orthopyroxene foliation is not readily evident in outcrop. However, crystal shape preferred orientations (discussed below) suggest that the actual shear plane may have been inclined to this chosen reference plane.


Figure 1: Lower hemispheric, equal-area projection of macroscopic structures in the Wadi Lufti peridotites. The foliation defined by dunite/harzburgite contacts (great circles, $\mathrm{N}=59$ ) contains the spinel lineation ( $\Delta, \mathrm{N}=57$ ). All samples were cut perpendicular to the mean dunite/harzburgite contact (142/58) and parallel to the mean spinel lineation (11-158).

The lattice preferred orientation for each sample was determined using electron backscatter diffraction (EBSD) [Adams et al., 1993] on a JEOL 840 scanning electron microscope equipped with an HKL Technologies backscatter detector. Because the grains in many samples can be quite large (up to 40 mm on a side), multiple thin sections are required to obtain a statistically representative number of grains [Ben-Ismail and Mainprice, 1998]. Therefore, data from several samples across each transect were
concatenated to characterize the microstructures. For each section, we indexed each grain interactively (rather than use a completely automated technique) measuring one orientation per grain. This method provides sufficiently extensive sample coverage while reducing errors associated with misindexing and the interference of alteration phases. However, this method limits any extrapolations to bulk rock properties, such as seismic anisotropy, because the volumetric distribution of orientations has been excluded.

In preparation for EBSD, each thin section was polished for approximately 2 hours with $0.02 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ colloidal silica then thinly coated with gold. The coating ( $<2 \mathrm{sec}$ in an evaporative coater) was sufficient to mitigate the effects of serpentine on surface charging without interfering with the quality of the diffraction patterns. Beam currents with the $\mathrm{LaB}_{6}$ or tungsten filaments were $10-60 \mathrm{nA}$ with a $\sim 20 \mathrm{kV}$ accelerating voltage and $\sim 23 \mathrm{~mm}$ working distance. Pole figures and quantitative crystallographic measurements, described below, were generated using the method of Mainprice and Silver [1993].

Grain size and grain shape data were collected separately using digital photomicrographs of many thin sections. Grain boundaries were defined by hand using a digitizing tablet and suites of co-registered digital images for each thin section in 6 or 10 distinct orientations of cross-polarized light. Grain area and perimeter are directly measured from the binary grain boundary images. The grain size is expressed as the diameter of a circle of the equivalent area to avoid biased estimates of size or number associated with grain boundary tortuosity or line intercept sampling density. Composite grain size distributions for each lithologic body are constructed in a manner similar to the orientation data. Grain size data from as many as 8 separate thin sections are concatenated to establish a statistically significant, and approximately equal, number of grains in each lithologic body. Grain orientations are defined by the direction of the major axis of the best-fitting ellipse. In each sample suite, the composite shape preferred orientation was compiled from the same grain boundary images as used for grain size analysis.

## Results:

In the following section, we delineate the differences in microstructure observed in four lithologic units: residual mantle harzburgite, and three dunites 3,25 , and 50 meters wide. The textures, grain size distributions, and lattice preferred orientations vary systematically with dunite width, suggesting heterogeneity in the manner by which deformation was accommodated in the shallow mantle.

## 1. Texture and Grain Size

The textures observed in thin section range from strongly porphyroclastic to coarse granular, suggesting large differences in the extent or style of deformation [Nicolas and Poirier, 1976]. Samples from the harzburgite 'protolith' (figure 2a) and the 3 m wide dunite (figure 2 b ) are dominated by small subgrain-free grains less than 3 mm in diameter. The few large porphyroclasts are generally smaller than those in the larger dunites. Orthopyroxenes in the harzburgite are seldom kinked suggesting a relatively high temperature during deformation [Ji et al., 2001; Skrotzki, 1994]. The 25 m wide dunite (figure 2 c ) is porphyroclastic, with numerous smaller recrystallized grains surrounding larger porphyroclasts. Samples from the largest, 50 m , dunite (figure 2d) are mildly porphyroclastic to coarse granular.

Large olivine grains ( $>5 \mathrm{~mm}$ ), common in both the 25 and 50 m wide dunites, often preserve one or two of the following textures: 1) Large grains surrounded by clusters of smaller grains. In some cases, pairs of large grains with identical extinction angles are separated by a narrow band of much smaller grains, suggesting dynamic recrystallization during deformation has split previously larger grains. 2) Large grains with irregular and interpenetrating boundaries, a texture typical of diffusion-induced grain-boundary migration [Evans et al., 1986]. 3) Large olivines completely surrounding multiple inclusions of spinel or other small olivines, suggestive of significant grain growth. 4) Large olivines with distinct subgrains or exhibiting undulose extinction.


Figure 2: Optical micrographs of representative samples from the a) harzburgite, b) 3 m wide dunite, c) 25 m wide dunite, and d) 50 m wide dunite. Each micrograph is paired with the grain boundary image derived from multiple photographs in various orientations of polarized light.

Grain size increases systematically with increasing dunite width. Composite grain size distributions (figure 3) exhibit a progression toward larger grain sizes in wider dunites. For each lithologic body, data were compiled from a sufficient number of thin sections to obtain approximately equivalent numbers of grains. The mean olivine grain size in the harzburgite is 0.43 mm , and increases with dunite width from 0.68 mm in the 3 m dunite, to 0.83 mm in the 25 m dunite and 1.26 mm in the 50 m dunite. (figure 3a) The maximum observed grain size also varies with width, from 5.18 mm in the harzburgite increasing to $7.9,18.3$, and 26.7 mm in the 3,25 , and 50 m dunites, respectively. A full listing of the quantitative characteristics of the grain size distributions are listed in table 1.



Figure 3: a) Grain size distributions for the harzburgite and $3 \mathrm{~m}, 25 \mathrm{~m}$, and 50 m wide dunites. Grain size is plotted as the grain size, $d$, normalized by the mean grain size, $\bar{d}$, for each lithologic suite. Although the distributions all have a similar shape, the mean grain size increases by a factor of three from the harzburgite to the widest dunite, and the maximum grain size increases by more than an order of magnitude. Because of the variation in grain size, more thin sections were required to assemble populations of equivalent size in the wider dunites (see table 1). b) Cumulative area distribution for grains smaller than size, $d$. As dunite width increases, the area occupied by small grains decreases while the size and abundance of large grains increases. The abundance of grain smaller than the median (*) and $1 \mathrm{~mm}(\mathrm{O})$ are shown for reference.

The differences in grain size between the lithologic bodies are emphasized in the areal distribution of grain size in the thin sections (figure 3b). The total area occupied by small grains decreases with increasing dunite width. With increasing width, the more of the area is occupied by increasingly larger grains. For example, the median grain size, which is $0.3-0.6 \mathrm{~mm}$, occupies less than $20 \%$ of the area in each body. In contrast, grains less than 2 mm occupy $\sim 90 \%$ of the area in the harzburgite, whereas they only account
for $\sim 20 \%$ of the area in the widest dunite. This shift in the areal distribution of grain size is critical to the resultant rheology.

| Grain size | 50 m du 20 m du 3 m du | hz |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \# points | 1032 | 1281 | 1595 | 1588 |
| \# samples | 8 | 4 | 3 | 1 |
| mean | 1.26 | 0.83 | 0.68 | 0.43 |
| median | 0.60 | 0.49 | 0.43 | 0.30 |
| max | 26.70 | 18.30 | 7.86 | 5.18 |
| std dev | 2.04 | 1.38 | 0.83 | 0.43 |
| kurtosis | 43.44 | 69.69 | 28.49 | 28.87 |
| skewness | 5.18 | 7.03 | 4.34 | 3.92 |


| LPO data | 50 m du | 25 m du | 3 m du | hz | hz (opx) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \# grains | 948 | 434 | 238 | 225 | 66 |
| \# samples | 10 | 7 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| mean J | 1.9 | 1.5 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 3.0 |
| mean K | 10.34 | 2.31 | 0.58 | 0.50 | 3.73 |

Table 1: Compiled grain size and LPO statistics for each lithologic suite.

## 2. Deformation Microstructures

The lattice preferred orientations as determined by EBSD, also vary systematically with dunite width while the inferred magnitude of strain remains constant. The olivine LPOs exhibit a transition from hexagonal symmetry in the harzburgite and small dunite to orthorhombic symmetry in the widest dunite. Despite the changes in the shape of the LPO, the strength of the LPO and the orientation of the finite strain ellipse remain constant across all sample suites.


Figure 4: Lattice preferred orientation of a) olivine and b) orthopyroxene in harzburgite from Wadi Lufti, Oman. The olivines exhibit a strong $\{0 k l\}[100]$ LPO with the same shear sense as that indicated by the (100)[001] orthopyroxene texture. The inset shows the shear sense and orientation of the shear plane (solid line) and finite strain ellipse relative to the dunite/harzburgite contact (dashed horizontal line). All pole figures are lower hemispheric, equal area projections.

In the harzburgite, the olivine LPO exhibits [010] and [001] girdles about a distinct [100] point maximum (figure 4a). Numerical models for dislocation creep in polycrystalline aggregates indicate the girdled pattern results from simultaneous strain accumulation on two separate slip systems, (010)[100] and (001)[100], [Tommasi et al., 2000; Wenk and Tomé, 1999], and is commonly denoted as $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}$ [100]. The olivine [100] maximum is inclined $\sim 45$ degrees to the plane of the dunite/harzburgite contact along the trend of the spinel lineation (figure 4, inset). The coexisting orthopyroxene (figure 4b) exhibits a strong orthorhombic LPO indicative of deformation on (100)[001], the easy slip system in orthopyroxene [Mackwell, 1991]. The sense of shear is the same as that preserved in the olivine, although the [001] lies closer to the plane of the dunite/harzburgite contact.


Figure 5: Olivine lattice preferred orientations from a) 3 m , b) 25 m , and c) 50 m wide dunites from Wadi Lufti, Oman. With increasing dunite width, the LPO changes from the girdled $\{0 k l\}[100]$ texture indicative of GBS to (010)[100] texture typical of dislocation creep. See figure 4 caption for explanation of inset

In the dunites, we observe a progressive transition in the LPO with increasing dunite width. The small 3 m wide dunite exhibits an LPO with girdles in [010] and [001] about the [100] direction (figure 5a) similar to, although less girdled than, the harzburgite (figure 4a). The LPO in these rocks is also similar to that observed in the experiments of Bystricky et al. [2000]. In contrast, the large 50 m wide dunite has a distinct orthorhombic LPO indicative of strain accommodation dominantly on (010)[100] (figure

5c). This orthorhombic symmetry is the same as observed in the experiments of Zhang and co-workers [1995; 2000].

The 25 m wide dunite shows a more complex LPO, intermediate between the 3 m and 50 m wide dunites (figure 5 b ). A comparison between the LPOs preserved in large grains and small grains in the 25 m wide dunite shows that the LPO is a mixture of the hexagonal and orthorhombic patterns. The grains larger than $\sim 3 \mathrm{~mm}$ (Figure 6a) exhibit an orthorhombic (010)[100] LPO, whereas finer-grained regions in the same thin sections (Figure 6b) exhibit a girdled $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}[100]$ pattern. Despite the variation in [010] and [001] pole figures, the orientation of the [100] maximum in all dunite samples is the same as in the harzburgites.


Figure 6: Variation in LPO for populations of different grain sizes from the same rocks. Samples shown here are from the 25 m wide dunite. a) Grains larger than $3 \mathrm{~mm}(\mathrm{~N}=41)$ exhibit a clear orthorhombic (010)[100] LPO. b) In contrast, grain smaller than $3 \mathrm{~mm}(\mathrm{~N}=114)$ record a girdled $\{0 k l\}[100]$ LPO.

We can quantify the differences in LPO shape using orientation distribution analysis. The shape factor, $K$, is based on the eigenvalues of the orientation tensor [Mainprice and Silver, 1993; Woodcock and Naylor, 1983]. As point maxima develop, K
increases toward infinity. In contrast, as the pole figure becomes girdled, $K$ asymptotically approaches zero. As illustrated in figure 7, the $K$ factor changes from 0.50 in the harzburgite to $0.58,1.67$, and 10.34 in the 3,25 , and 50 m dunites, respectively.


Figure 7: Quantitative textural analysis [Mainprice and Silver, 1993] indicates a distinct transition in LPO shape ( $K$ ) from girdled to point maxima with increasing dunite width.

## 3. Magnitude and Orientation of Shear

We infer the orientation of the shear plane using crystal shape- and latticepreferred orientation data derived from digital grain boundary images. This technique was originally developed using peridotites from Oman [Nicholas, 1989]. Experiments demonstrate that in a deforming aggregate, grains oriented for easy slip will lengthen in the direction of shear, imparting a foliation and an LPO to the minerals which accommodate the strain. With increasing strain, the elongation direction of the finite strain ellipse and the orientation of the olivine [100] maximum rotate toward the shear plane. The experiments by Zhang and Karato [1995] and Bystricky et al. [2000] show that the [100] maximum rotates completely into the shear plane after only $\sim 150 \%$ strain, regardless of the differences in the final LPO. Moreover, the LPO rotates more rapidly than the finite strain ellipse with increasing strain.

Our data indicate that the shear plane is inclined relative to the dunite/harzburgite contacts. Measurements of the orientation of the circumscribing ellipse enclosing grains greater than 2 mm imply the finite strain ellipse is inclined $\sim 30$ degrees from the mean orientation of the dunite/harzburgite contacts (figure 8). Grains smaller than 2 mm show no clear shape preferred orientation.


Figure 8: Rose diagram indicating the orientation distribution of crystal shapes. Using digital grain boundary images (figure 2), the orientation of each grain is determined from the major axis the best-fitting ellipse. For grains larger than 2 mm , the crystal shape foliation is oriented 30 degrees from the dunite/harzburgite contact.

Because the experiments demonstrate that the orientation of the LPO reaches steady state after only moderate strains, we assume that the olivine [100] maximum represents the shear direction. The olivine LPO data (figures 4 a and $5 \mathrm{a}-\mathrm{c}$ ) show that the [100] maximum is consistently inclined $\sim 45^{\circ}$ to the dunite/harzburgite contact orientation. Subtracting the difference in orientation between the observed crystalshape foliation and the lithologic contacts from the inclination of the [100] maximum, we infer the foliation lies only about $15^{\circ}$ out of the shear plane.

Quantitative and relative indicators of the magnitude of strain show no significant differences between dunites of different widths, despite the variations in grain size and LPO. The orientation of the finite strain ellipsoid relative to the shear plane as well as the LPO strength are observed to vary with increasing strain during laboratory experiments [Zhang, 1995; 2000]. However, the orientation of the finite strain ellipse and olivine [100] maximum in the naturally deformed samples do not vary substantially. Based on the Zhang and Karato [Zhang and Karato, 1995] data, a difference of $15^{\circ}$ between the olivine [100] maximum and the finite strain ellipse occurs either at strains less than $50 \%$, as the LPO departs from stress control, or at strains significantly greater than $350 \%$, when the orientation of the finite strain ellipse approaches the saturated LPO already aligned with the shear direction.

The similar strengths of the LPOs also indicate no significant variation in strain between the sample suites. The $J$-index reflects the strength of the LPO by quantifying the homogeneity in the distribution of crystallographic orientations [Mainprice and Silver, 1993]. Both the Zhang et al. [1995] and Bystricky et al. [2000] experiments demonstrate that the $J$-index increases with increasing strain. However, in the naturally deformed samples, the measured $J$-indices are nearly equivalent (1.5-1.9) with no clear relationship to the width of the dunite. The lack of variation in the $J$-index, finite strain ellipse, or [100] maximum suggests that all the samples were deformed approximately equally or the strains are sufficiently large that LPOs have become saturated, and further strain accumulation does not significantly affect the LPO. The well developed LPOs with the nearly equivalent $J$-indices and a small difference between the finite strain ellipse and the [100] maximum suggest that the strain in all of the rocks is large ( $>350 \%$ ).

## Discussion:

## 1. Relating Deformation Mechanism and LPO

Peridotites from Wadi Lufti, Oman exhibit two distinct patterns of lattice preferred orientation, common amongst naturally-deformed peridotites, which correlate with the grain size of the rocks in which they occur. The grain size and LPO also vary
with dunite width. Specifically, we observe an $\{0 k l\}[100]$ LPO in conjunction with smaller grain sizes in the harzburgite (figure 4 a ) and 3 m wide dunite (figure 5a), as well as in the fine-grained ( $<2 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) areas of the 25 m wide dunite (figure 6 b ). By contrast, coarse grained rocks, which comprise most of the area of wide dunites, exhibit (010) [100] textures.

Observations of both $\{0 k l\}[100]$ and $(010)[100]$ lattice preferred orientations are common among naturally deformed harzburgites. A brief review of the literature regarding peridotite petrofabrics in Oman [Ben-Ismail and Mainprice, 1998; Boudier et al., 1988; Boudier and Coleman, 1981; Boudier and Nicolas, 1995; Ceuleneer et al., 1988; Ceuleneer and Rabinowicz, 1992; Dijkstra et al., 2002; Jousselin and Mainprice, 1998; Jousselin et al., 1998; Nicolas, 1986; Nicolas et al., 1980] shows that half of the harzburgite samples which have a significant texture exhibit $\{0 k l\}[100]$ LPOs. As with our data, the LPO is also correlated with dunite size. Small dunites (described as intercalated with harzburgite on a centimeter to decimeter scale) show the $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}[100]$ texture. Despite the lack of explicit width information, rocks described simply as 'dunite' generally exhibit (010)[100] patterns. Unfortunately, grain size data for these samples were not reported, so correlations between LPO and grain size are impossible to determine from the literature alone.

Both orthorhombic (010)[100] and hexagonal $\{0 k l\}[100]$ LPOs are also observed in laboratory experiments on dry olivine aggregates in simple shear. Despite only moderate differences in deformation conditions, the experiments indicate that the distinct lattice preferred orientations correlate with significant differences in both the microstructural and mechanical properties of the aggregate. Samples deformed at $1300^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ yield an orthorhombic LPO and a uniform grain size distribution about $1 / 3$ the size of the starting material [e.g. Zhang and Karato, 1995; Zhang et al., 2000]. Samples with the orthorhombic LPO also exhibit larger heterogeneities in dislocation density and evidence for migrating grain boundaries [Lee et al., 2002]. In contrast, samples deformed at the same strain rate and confining pressure, but at $1200^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and slightly higher stress, yield the hexagonal $\{0 k l\}[100]$ LPO and a bimodal grain size, with the coarser grains similar in
size to the starting material and the finer grains an order of magnitude smaller [Zhang et al, 2000; Bystricky et al., 2000]. Additionally, the fine-grained regions exhibit lower and more homogenous dislocation densities and an abundance of thermodynamically unstable 4-grain junctions indicative of grain switching [Lee et al., 2002].

In the following discussion, we focus on experimentally-derived flow laws and the results of numerical models for the deformation of polycrystalline aggregates to discern how the differences in grain size and deformation conditions affect the rheology of the deforming aggregate and subsequently which deformation mechanisms contribute to the observed lattice preferred orientations observed in Oman.

Empirical constitutive laws derived from the deformation of oriented single crystals [Bai et al., 1991; Durham and Goetze, 1977] predict (001)[100] slip may be as easy or easier than the (010)[100] slip system in olivine. Figure 9 depicts the flow laws for the three dominant slip systems extrapolated into the range of upper mantle conditions. Although the (010)[001] slip system exhibits the slowest strain rate at all conditions, the relative strain rates on the easier two slip systems varies with the deformation conditions. At high temperatures ( $>1350^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ), the ( 010 )[100] slip system unequivocally exhibits the fastest strain rates. However, over the range of conditions predicted for the melting region beneath mid-ocean ridges $\left(1200-1300^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right.$ and oxygen fugacites between the Fayalite-Magnetite-Quartz and Nickel-Nickel Oxide buffers [Carmichael and Ghiorso, 1986]) the dominant slip system is equivocal. Given the uncertainty in the measured activation energies, the flow laws predict the (001)[100] slip system is as weak or weaker than (010)[100].

These relative differences in strain rate are independent of the differential stresses driving deformation, because all three flow laws have the same stress dependence. Therefore, the single crystal flow laws allow for the predominance of (001)[100] at all stresses down to temperatures as low as $1100^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. However, the predicted strain rates for the (010)[100] slip system again become significantly higher than for (001)[100] slip at low temperatures, power-law break down occurs below $\sim 1000^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ [Frost and Ashby, 1982; Kameyama et al., 1999] and these constitutive laws would no longer be applicable.

Therefore, over the range of conditions expected in the melting region beneath ridges, the (001)[100] slip system is equally, if not more, likely to dominate strain accumulation, and subsequently control the LPO.

However, experiments performed in the dislocation creep regime are most commonly dominated by (010)[100] creep [Carter and Avé Lallemant, 1970; Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1995; Nicolas et al., 1973; Zhang et al., 2000]. Numerical models of LPO development suggest that this discrepancy between the relative activities of the slip


Figure 9: Constitutive laws for individual slip systems in olivine extrapolated to upper mantle conditions from the experiments of Bai et al [1991]. Over the range of temperatures and oxygen fugacities (QFM-NNO) predicted for the oceanic spreading center environment, the (001)[100] slip system is equivalent or weaker than the (010)[100] slip system, traditionally predicted to be the easiest slip system in olivine. If grain switching sufficiently relaxes strain compatibility criterion, then both (010)[100] and (001)[100] can contribute equally to the formation of an LPO.
systems and predominance of the (010)[100] texture is the result of strain compatibility requirements. Specifically, requiring slip on (010)[001] - the hardest slip system in olivine - geometrically inhibits significant strain accumulation on (001)[100].

Viscoplastic self-consistent (VPSC) models reproduce the orthorhombic (010)[100] LPO when stringent strain compatibility requirements are imposed, even when (001)[100] and (010)[100] are equivalently weak [Tommasi et al., 2000; Wenk and Tomé, 1999]. Tommasi et al [Tommasi et al., 2000] show that, with increasing strain, the progressively increasing need to deform poorly-oriented grains on the hardest slip system reduces (001)[100] activity, suppressing its expression in the LPO.

When the strain compatibility criterion is relaxed, however, an $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}[100]$ LPO develops. VPSC models indicate that relaxed conditions mitigate the geometrical interactions which arise when slip on the hardest slip system is required. Relaxation, manifest as strain accumulation by intercrystalline processes (e.g. dynamic recrystallization, grain boundary migration, or grain boundary sliding), reduces the requirement for slip on (010)[001]. The activity of (001)[100] subsequently increases [Tommasi et al, 2000; Kaminski and Ribe, 2001]. As a result, models with relaxed strain compatibility show that girdled $\{0 k l\}[100]$ textures develop and persist to higher strains with increasing relaxation [Tommasi et al., 2000; Wenk and Tomé, 1999]. Therefore, based on the single crystal data and numerical models, we infer that the transition in LPO from (010)[100] to $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}[100]$ observed in the peridotites from Oman is due to a relaxation of strain compatibility.

The onset of dislocation-accommodated grain boundary sliding (GBS), in which grain switching relaxes strain compatibility, may be responsible for the transition in LPO from orthorhombic to hexagonal symmetry observed in both laboratory experiments and naturally-deformed rocks. GBS is a grain-size sensitive creep mechanism which outpaces dislocation creep at small grain sizes [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1995]. Although no direct data exist on the LPO induced by GBS, the mechanical and microstructural data which define GBS match those observed in laboratory experiments which exhibit an $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}[100]$ LPO, suggesting deformation by GBS generates the hexagonally symmetric LPO, with girdles in [010] and [001].

At constant stress, strain rates for experiments which generate hexagonal LPOs are higher than for experiments which produce orthorhombic (010)[100] patterns [Zhang
et al, 2000; Bystricky et al, 2001]. Similarly, strain rates for olivine during GBS are as much as 30 times higher than those observed in coarse-grained samples deforming by dislocation creep under similar conditions (see [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 2003] for a review). During dislocation creep, strain rate is limited by slip on the hardest system (i.e., (010)[001]). In contrast, during GBS, microstructural analysis of experimental samples indicates that strain rate is instead limited by deformation on the easiest slip system (i.e., (010)[100]) [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1995].

GBS experiments and the samples with $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}[100]$ textures indicate extensive grain switching accommodated by dislocation migration. Both Lee et al [2002] and Hirth and Kohlstedt [1995] observe an abundance of 4-grain junctions which implies grain switching was inherent to strain accumulation in both cases. Despite the small grain size, grain switching is accommodated by dislocation motion and not by diffusion. Stress exponents and activation energies measured during GBS match those for dislocation creep, and the observed gradients in dislocation density coupled with a strong crystallographic fabric indicate that dislocations are highly mobile [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 2003; Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1995]. Therefore grain switching in fine-grained aggregates allows for significantly higher strain rates than those predicted for grain-size-independent dislocation creep by alleviating the requirement for slip on the hardest slip system.

The small grain sizes observed in samples with the $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}[100]$ LPO may reflect the transition to grain size sensitive GBS. During GBS, a decrease in grain size at constant stress increases the strain rate by shortening the translation distance required for grains to switch positions. The coexistence of abundant 4-grain junctions with relatively small grain sizes observed in samples with $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}[100]$ textures, suggests that the reduced grain size may be required for the onset of the deformation mechanism responsible for the LPO. The data from Oman corroborate this assertion. Figure 6 shows LPOs collected from fine- and coarse-grained regions of the same rocks. Because the deformation conditions were otherwise the same for both regions, the grain size differences must be responsible for the differences in LPO.

Single crystal flow laws and VPSC models show that the $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}[100]$ LPO results from relaxed strain compatibility conditions which may arise from grain switching during GBS. Grain switching and grain size sensitive creep, which distinguishes GBS from nominal dislocation creep, are consistent with the observations from the laboratory experiments which exhibit the $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}[100]$ LPO [Bystricky et al., 2000; Zhang et al., 2000]. We therefore infer that the shared dominance of both (010)[100] and (001)[100] slip during GBS results in a girdled $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}[100]$ LPO. By extension, the transition from $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}[100]$ to $(010)[100]$ LPO coupled with in increase in grain size observed in naturally deformed peridotites suggests that the fine-grained harzburgites and small dunites record deformation by GBS, whereas the coarse-grained wide dunites record deformation by nominal dislocation creep.

## 2. Effects of Melt Generation and Transport on Grain Size

Melting and melt transport are most likely responsible for the observed changes in grain size which subsequently control the dominant deformation mechanism during corner flow. Geochemical data [Dick, 1977; Kelemen and Dick, 1995; Kelemen et al., 1997], field observations [e.g. Braun and Kelemen, 2002; Kelemen et al., 2000a; Kelemen et al., 2000b], and numerical models [Aharonov et al., 1995; Spiegelman et al., 2001] indicate that dunites are the remnants of high porosity channels formed from harzburgite by reactive porous flow of silica-undersaturated basaltic melt. In Oman, replacive dunites are generally tabular features which lie sub-parallel to the crust-mantle transition zone and define the prominent macroscopic foliation [Boudier and Coleman, 1981; Lippard et al., 1986]. From these constraints, it is inferred that the dunites formed as near-vertical conduits in the melting region. Although the microstructures recorded in the rocks presented here record the flow of the depleted mantle away from the spreading center, the systematic variations in grain size and LPO with dunite width suggest that the changes in deformation mechanism are related to melting and melt transport processes which occurred prior to corner flow.

Maintaining a critically small grain size is essential to the onset of GBS. If during deformation, grain size reduction by dynamic recrystallization outpaces grain growth, the decreasing grain size will drive the system into the diffusion creep regime, potentially erasing the preexisting LPO [Warren et al, in prep]. However, during diffusion creep dynamic recrystallization is not occurring, which allows grain growth to drive the system back into the dislocation creep regime. This balance has led to the notion that steadystate deforming aggregates will tend toward grain sizes at the boundary between diffusion creep and dislocation creep regimes [De Bresser et al., 2001]. Although the grain size data from Oman straddle the boundary between the diffusion creep and dislocation creep fields (figure 10), the microstructures indicate that near this boundary, peridotites likely deform by GBS with an LPO distinct from either end member.

In the harzburgite, the small olivine grain size is partly maintained by the presence of pyroxene. The presence of a distributed second phase pins olivine grain size by preventing grain boundary migration from smoothing heterogeneities in surface and internal strain energy (i.e. Zener pinning) [Evans et al., 2001]. Grain growth may be further inhibited at the onset of melting if melt also serves as a pinning phase [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1995].

The increase in grain size observed from harzburgite to dunite results from melt generation and reactive porous flow. Melt generation reduces the mass and size of the pyroxenes, mitigating the pinning effect. However, the degree of melting inferred from the composition of MORB and abyssal peridotites is too small to completely transform harzburgite into dunite. Dunites instead form by reaction between primitive melts and residual harzburgite, and this reaction process can increase grain size. During ascent, silica-undersaturated melt dissolves orthopyroxene and precipitates a nearly equivalent mass of olivine [Kelemen, 1990]. Experiments indicate that during melt-rock reaction, olivine nucleation is slow relative to growth, and the dunite formation process preferentially increases the size of preexisting grains [Daines and Kohlstedt, 1994]. The large and abrupt change in grain size commonly observed across harzburgite/dunite boundaries in the Oman samples likely reflects this process (see right side of figure 2a).


Figure 10: Deformation mechanism map for dry olivine at $1200^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 2003]. The range in grain size observed in peridotites from Oman is shown by the light gray field. The coarse-grained dunites fall in the dislocation creep field consistent with the observed (010)[100] LPO. However, the finer-grained rocks are predicted to be in the diffusion creep field, but exhibit a $\{0 k l\}[100]$ LPO indicative of GBS. The dark gray field indicates the grain size range over which the girdled LPO is observed. Therefore, we infer that the GBS field extends down along the boundary between dislocation and diffusion creep (dashed field). Extrapolated grain size piezometers [Karato et al., 1980; Van der Wal et al., 1993] (dashed lines) predict stresses on order of 1 MPa during deformation of the coarse-grained wide dunite.

Upon complete dissolution of the pinning pyroxene, olivine grains can grow with time. Numerical models of the reaction infiltration instability show that dunites grow wider with time by reaction along their boundaries [e.g. Spiegelman et al., 2001]. Therefore the correlation between olivine grain size and dunite width suggests that wider dunites formed before, and thus deeper in the melting column, than narrow ones.

Static grain growth models suggest that there is sufficient time for dunites to grow grains as large as those observed in Oman, however the effects of deformation would mitigate much of its effect. Figure 11 shows the time required for a 1 mm olivine grain to grow to the maximum observed grain size in dunites. For normal grain growth with a
grain size exponent of 3 at $1200^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ [Karato, 1989], the observed maximum grain sizes can be attained in approximately 100 years, for narrow dunites, and $\sim 4000$ years for the widest dunites. If the grain size exponent were 2 , the time required to normal grain growth to reach the largest grain size reported here would be on order of 5 Ma . Regardless of the grain size exponent, these times fall well below the maximum residence time for solid material in the melting region, which is approximately $1-10 \mathrm{Ma}$ for spreading rates of $120-10 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{yr}$, respectively [Braun and Kelemen, 2002]. However, grain growth estimates are only applicable under static conditions.


Figure 11: Predictions for the evolution of grain size at $1200^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ based on the exponential growth models [Karato, 1989]. Solid lines show the timescale for grain growth using a grain size exponent of 2 or 3 . Regardless of the grain size exponent, the time required for a 1 mm olivine grain to grow to the size of the largest olivines observed in Oman (gray box) is shorter than the residence time of solid material in the melting region beneath a mid-ocean ridge (arrows). For comparison, the steady-state dynamically-recrystallized grain size at the boundary between the dislocation and diffusion creep fields at $1200^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and a strain rate of $10^{-14} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ is shown (dashed line).

Dynamic recrystallization during deformation would substantially reduce the grain size. If, as de Bresser [De Bresser et al., 2001] suggests, the grain size is fixed to the diffusion creep-dislocation creep boundary, extrapolation of olivine flow laws [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 2003] to $1200^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and a strain rate of $10^{-14} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$, indicates the recrystallized grain size would be only $\sim 2 \mathrm{~mm}$ (figure 11). To achieve a steady state dynamically
recrystallized grain size equivalent to the maximum observed grain sizes, the deformation conditions would be in excess of $1500^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ or at strain rates less than $10^{-16} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$.

Because the dunites were active melt conduits prior to corner flow, the presence of melt could substantially enhance grain boundary mobility, offsetting the effects of dynamic recrystallization. The observed irregular and interpenetrating grain boundaries and numerous spinel inclusions within large grains in the wide dunites (figure 2d) are consistent with substantial growth due to high grain boundary mobility in the presence of melt [Evans et al., 2001].

The systematic increase in grain size with dunite width may therefore be related to an increase the time-integrated melt flux through wider dunites. Because larger grains impose a higher permeability [Von Bargen and Waff, 1986], local variations in grain size would increase the melt flux in coarse-grained dunites. The continual dissolution and reprecipitation of olivine by the passing melt can result in substantial grain growth (i.e. zone refining), such that it outpaces grain size reduction associated with dynamic recrystallization. The increased permeability also translates into a larger total volume of melt integrated over the lifetime of the dunite. This hypothesis of a larger melt/rock ratio in wider dunites is independently corroborated by geochemical data collected on these same rocks which show systematic compositional variations with dunite width [Braun and Kelemen, in prep].

## 3. Viscosity Variations in Naturally-Deformed Peridotites

We propose that melt generation and reactive melt transport are what change the grain size in dunites. However, their affect on peridotite rheology, as preserved in these samples, is not realized until after the melt has left the dunites. Although the grain size variations can be used infer a systematic increase in the porosity within the dunites, the decrease in viscosity due to the presence of melt during deformation is inconsistent with the observed textures. Instead, the viscosity variations implied by the onset of GBS predicts that harzburgites are weaker than dunites. Based on the microstructural data
presented here, we can constrain the grain size at which the transition to GBS is likely to occur in the mantle.

Direct extrapolation of the empirically-derived pieziometric relationships for stress as a function of grain size [Karato et al., 1980; Van der Wal et al., 1993] predict the differential stresses estimated for the Oman peridotites are in the range of 0.3-10 MPa (figure 10). If flow in the shallow mantle beneath mid-ocean ridges is forced by the divergent motion of the overlying plates and the plate velocity (i.e. strain rate) is presumed constant, then this predicted variation in stress implies local viscosity variations of more than an order of magnitude. Based on the laboratory observations of the effects of melt on olivine rheology [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 2003; Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1995; Kelemen et al., 1997], viscosity variations this large are possible if the melt fraction in the large dunites were $5-7 \%$ higher than in the small dunites and surrounding harzburgites.

A variation in melt content with dunite width is consistent with melt flux estimates from large scale field observations but inconsistent with the microstructures presented here. Dunite size distribution statistics from Oman suggest that the porosity within dunite conduits may increases systematically in proportion to the width of the conduit, with the maximum porosity in the widest dunites estimated to be $\sim 4 \%$ higher than in the small ones [Braun and Kelemen, 2002].

If the porosity variations were present during deformation, then the large dunites were at least order of magnitude less viscous than the surrounding harzburgite. As a consequence of the substantially lower viscosity, the wide dunites would experience greater strain localization than narrow dunites. However, the textures presented here indicate the opposite. The widest dunites exhibit coarse-grained, protogranular textures (figure 2d) with little area occupied by small recrystallized grains (figure 3b), whereas the harzburgites and small dunites exhibit abundant small dynamically recrystallized grains. Therefore, the grain sizes do not likely reflect viscosity variations associated with melt present during deformation.

Instead, the microstructures and lattice preferred orientations suggest that, because of GBS, strain may be preferentially partitioned into the harzburgite and small dunites. Laboratory data indicate that strain rates during GBS are as much as on order of magnitude faster than during dislocation creep at the same temperature and stress [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1995]. Considering all the rocks presented here are situated within several hundred meters of one another, it is possible that the range in differential stresses is not as large as that explicitly predicted by grain size piezometery. If stresses were constant across the different lithologies and the fine grained rocks were deforming by GBS, then the harzburgite and fine-grained dunites would have a lower viscosity.

Using the grain size in the wide dunites to provide an estimate of the stresses during deformation, we can use the grain size dependence of the microstructures to estimate the width of the GBS field under geologic conditions. Above a grain size of about 2 mm , grain shapes are largely equant (figure 8) and the LPO becomes orthorhombic (figure 6) indicative of dislocation creep. In peridotites with grain sizes below 2 mm , the $\{0 \mathrm{kl}\}[100]$ LPO dominates. From the data collected here this girdled LPO persists in grains as small as $500 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, although this lower bound is not well characterized. Interestingly, the grain size predicted at the boundary between diffusion and dislocation creep at $1200^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and a strain rate of $10^{-14} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ falls right within these bounds. Figure 10 illustrates the interpreted width of the GBS field based on the grain size and LPOs observed in Oman.

Further analysis of both naturally and experimentally deformed rocks is required to test this inference, as it may have significant implications for the advection of the shallow mantle beneath spreading centers. Several empirical tests regarding the strength of mixtures of olivine and pyroxene have shown that strain rates of olivine-orthopyroxene aggregates increase with increasing orthopyroxene content [e.g. Ji et al., 2001; Kohlstedt and Zimmerman, 1996; Lawlis, 1998; McDonnell et al., 2000]. Existing data on the resultant microstructures in such controlled experiments indicate that orthopyroxene is deforming by dislocation creep where as the olivines are dominated by GBS [Fliervoet et al., 1999]. These experiments, however, were done in uniaxial compression to strains
less than $24 \%$, and the LPOs show evidence for diffusion creep as well as GBS. Although quantitative estimates of the relative viscosities are obscured by the saturated LPOs, our data indicate that dunites and harzburgites can deform by different deformation mechanisms under similar conditions.

Numerical models which incorporate GBS [Braun et al., 2000; Choblet and Parmentier, 2001] predict a significant change in the advective patterns in the shallow mantle beneath mid-ocean ridges. The large viscosity increase associated with dehydration during melting is countered by the onset of GBS, yielding a region of buoyancy driven flow which becomes more pronounced with decreasing spreading rate. As a result, these models can reproduce a variety of geophysical observations, including the observed depth variations in seismic anisotropy [e.g. Gaherty et al., 1996] and the short wavelength of gravity anomalies at slow spreading ridges [e.g. Lin and Phipps Morgan, 1992], which cannot be generated by models which rely solely on deformation by diffusion or dislocation creep.

## Conclusions:

Analysis of texture, microstructure, and grain size indicate that peridotites from the Oman ophiolite show a transition in deformation mechanism from grain boundary sliding to dislocation creep induced by melt generation and migration. By compiling composite textural and microstructural measurements from suites of samples, we can quantitatively compare the microstructures in coarse-grained naturally-deformed peridotites. The harzburgites are fine-grained with a strongly recrystallized texture and a girdled $\{0 k l\}[100]$ lattice preferred orientation, which we suggest is the result of dislocation-accommodated grain boundary sliding. Coupled to an increase in their width, dunites exhibit an increase in grain size, a weaker porphyroclastic texture, and a transition from $\{0 k l\}[100]$ to an orthorhombic (010)[100] LPO indicative of dislocation creep. Because dunites form and grow by reaction of harzburgite with ascending melts, we ascribe the transition in deformation mechanism to changes in grain size induced by larger time-integrated melt-rock ratios in wider dunites.

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## Chapter 5

# The Effects of Deep Damp Melting on Mantle Flow and Melt Generation Beneath Mid-Ocean Ridges 

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#### Abstract

We explore the implications of experimental constraints on mantle rheology and the thermodynamics of melting for mantle flow and melt generation beneath a mid-ocean ridge. Numerical models are used to investigate the effects of 1) rheologies affected by dehydration during melting, the presence of melt, and a transition in creep mechanism to grain boundary sliding, and 2) variations in the rate of melt production. Water in the mantle deepens the peridotite solidus, producing a region of damp melting between approximately 70 and 120 km depth. Extraction of water during melting can increase mantle viscosity by as much as two orders of magnitude. At the same time, the presence of melt can decrease the mantle viscosity. A decrease in recrystallized grain size due to the presence of melt can promote a transition in the dominant deformation mechanism to grain boundary sliding limited by creep on the easiest slip system for olivine, resulting in an additional order of magnitude decrease in viscosity. The increase in viscosity associated with dehydration significantly inhibits buoyant mantle flow in the dry melting region. However, buoyantly driven flow is predicted in the damp melting region if the viscosity in this depth interval is on the order of $10^{18} \mathrm{~Pa} \mathrm{~s}$; a viscosity this low can be achieved if a transition to grain boundary sliding occurs after the onset of damp melting. Previous models suggest that crustal thickness variation with spreading rate is a consequence of conductive cooling at the top of the melting region. If melt productivity is higher, so that more melt is produced at greater depth, then the influence of spreading rate on crustal thickness is reduced even in the absence of buoyant upwelling. Rheology has a significant effect on the size and shape of the melting region and the strain distribution beneath the ridge at a given spreading rate. For example, buoyant upwelling in the damp melting region localizes melt production and induces a region of strong elongation in finite strain ellipses between $50-120 \mathrm{~km}$, offering an explanation for the apparent difference in seismic anisotropy inferred from body and surface waves in the MELT experiment. The models indicate that the magnitude of the effects of buoyant flow in the damp melting region become increasingly prominent at slower spreading ridges. If lattice-preferred orientations produced by deep buoyant flow are incorporated into the lithosphere as it thickens by conductive cooling, then anisotropy in old lithosphere may be greater for lithosphere created at slower spreading rates.


## Introduction

In this study, we use numerical models to explore the implications of experimental constraints on mantle rheology and the thermodynamics of melting on mantle flow beneath spreading centers. In particular, we investigate the rheological effects of changes in viscosity associated with the extraction of water during melting, the presence of an interstitial melt phase, and possible changes in deformation mechanism. In addition, we examine the significance of variable melt production rates on the amount of melt produced. The results of these models are used to discuss how data on crustal thickness, seismic velocity and anisotropy, and geochemistry can be used to constrain the rheology and melting of upwelling mantle.

Water is present in the earth's mantle [Bell and Rossman, 1992; Kohlstedt et al., 1996] in sufficient quantities to affect the rate and depth of melting during adiabatic decompression. A first order effect of water on melting is depression of the peridotite solidus. The water content of the oceanic mantle is sufficient to promote a region of 'damp melting' beneath spreading ridges at depths between $\sim 70-120 \mathrm{~km}$, followed by anhydrous melting above $\sim 70 \mathrm{~km}$ [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1996]. Therefore the size of the melting region is expanded relative to that expected for anhydrous mantle.

The interval of damp melting can also affect melt production rates. Thermodynamic models indicate that the rate of isentropic melting of peridotite is initially slow but increases rapidly, to as much as $2-3 \% / \mathrm{kb}$, after incompatible components are extracted [Asimow et al., 1997]. This productivity estimate is similar to rates calculated from inversions of geochemical data on mid-ocean ridge basalt (MORB) [McKenzie and O'Nions, 1991] and significantly greater than the average productivity previously estimated from thermodynamic calculations [McKenzie and Bickle, 1988; Turcotte and Ahern, 1978]. Because melting is initially buffered by a limited amount of water, the productivity during damp melting is low [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1996]. Melting in the damp region also results in extraction of other incompatible components. This scenario may lead to greater melt production rates deeper in the melting column than under anhydrous conditions. Increasing the magnitude of melt productivity also increases the depth of phase exhaustion (e.g. clinopyroxene out) [Dick and Fisher, 1984], which has potentially important implications for the influence of thermal conduction, and subsequent truncation of the top of the melting region, on the variation of crustal thickness with spreading rate.

In addition to changing the melting behavior, the presence of water significantly reduces the viscosity of olivine aggregates. Because water is an incompatible component
during melting, the extraction of water from olivine, due to the presence of melt, can result in an increase in mantle viscosity [Karato, 1986]. Petrologic constraints on the water content of the MORB source region, in conjunction with experimental data on the effect of water on viscosity and the solubility of water in peridotite and MORB, indicate that the extraction of water during melting beneath mid-ocean ridges results in an increase in viscosity by a factor of $\sim 100$ [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1996]. These effects have been suggested to promote the creation of a compositional lithosphere at the ridge axis [Gaherty et al., 1999; Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1996; Phipps Morgan, 1997].

The effective viscosity of partially molten peridotite is also dependent on the retained melt fraction. A moderate decrease in viscosity is observed when small amounts of interstitial melt are present, in both the diffusion creep [Cooper and Kohlstedt, 1984; Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1995b] and dislocation creep regimes [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1995a; Kohlstedt and Zimmerman, 1996]. With melt contents in excess of $\sim 5 \%$, viscosity decreases by more than an order of magnitude.

An additional decrease in viscosity may arise if the onset of melting promotes a decrease in the dynamically recrystallized grain size and a concomitant transition in deformation mechanism. Microstructural observations indicate the presence of melt inhibits grain growth in olivine-basalt aggregates [Faul, 1997; Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1995a]. Thus, the dynamically recrystallized grain size may decrease with continued deformation after the onset of melting. Extrapolation of experimental flow laws to stresses and strain rates appropriate for the upper mantle indicates the transition from creep at a grain size of 1-10 mm [Karato et al., 1986], similar to the observed range of grain size in natural peridotites [Mercier, 1980; Nicolas and Boudier, 1995]. Experimental studies indicate that the dominant deformation mechanism at this transition is grain boundary sliding limited by creep on the easiest slip system in olivine [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1995a]. Creep rates observed for this mechanism are approximately an order of magnitude greater than those for dislocation creep at the same stress. Therefore, if grain size reduction is sufficient to promote a transition to the grain boundary sliding process, an additional decrease in viscosity of as much as an order of magnitude may result, even at low melt fractions.

## Model Formulation, Parameters, and Analysis

## 1. Governing Equations

The models in our study are based on solutions of the following set of governing equations:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{\partial u_{i}}{\partial x_{i}}=-\dot{M}  \tag{1}\\
& \frac{\partial T}{\partial t}=\kappa \nabla^{2} T-u_{i} \frac{\partial T}{\partial x_{i}}-\frac{\Delta H_{f u s}}{c_{p}} \dot{M}  \tag{2}\\
& -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x_{i}}+\frac{\partial \tau_{i j}}{\partial x_{i}}+\rho g_{i}=0  \tag{3}\\
& \frac{\partial F}{\partial t}+u_{i} \frac{\partial F_{i}}{\partial x_{i}}=\dot{M} \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

expressing, respectively, conservation of mass, conservation of energy, mechanical equilibrium for variable viscosity, and advection and production due to melting of mantle depletion $(F)$. In these equations, $u_{i}$ is the mantle velocity, $\dot{M}$ is the rate of melt production, $T$ is temperature, $t$ is time, $\kappa$ is the thermal diffusivity, $\Delta H_{f u s}$ is the latent heat of fusion, $c_{p}$ is the specific heat at constant pressure, $p$ is pressure, $\tau_{i j}$ is the deviatoric stress tensor defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tau_{i j}=2 \eta\left(\frac{\partial u_{i}}{\partial x_{j}}+\frac{\partial u_{j}}{\partial x_{i}}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

$g_{i}$ is the acceleration due to gravity, and $\eta$ is the viscosity. The density, $\rho$, is a function of temperature, composition (i.e. depletion), and retained melt fraction $\phi$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho=\rho_{0}(1-\alpha T-\gamma F)-\Delta \rho \phi, \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\rho_{o}$ is the reference density of the mantle, $\alpha$ is the coefficient of thermal expansion, $\gamma$ is a ratio that accounts for the change in density of the residue owing to preferential extraction of Fe versus Mg during melting [Oxburgh and Parmentier, 1977], and $\Delta \rho$ is the density difference between the solid and melt.

## 2. Model Configuration

Steady state solutions are obtained numerically using a hybrid finite element-finite difference formulation. The equations for buoyant viscous flow are solved using a standard penalty function method with linear rectangular elements. The equations for energy conservation and melt depletion are solved with second order finite difference approximations [Barnouin-Jha, 1996]. Advection of scalar variables (e.g., temperature, depletion) is accomplished using an upwind-differencing method with high order
corrections to reduce artificial diffusion [Smolarkiewicz, 1983]. Steady state solutions are calculated on a $41 \times 81$ node mesh with non-uniform, rectangular elements within a vertical plane beneath a spreading center perpendicular to the axis. Node spacing decreases toward the ridge axis from both depth and off-axis providing resolution of better than 2 km near the ridge axis in a domain 300 km by 300 km . Continuity of velocity is imposed between the mantle and the crust above, such that material at the top of the domain is moving only horizontally at the prescribed spreading rate. Material entering the base of the domain is assumed to be flowing only vertically, without resistance from the deeper mantle. Symmetry is assumed along the vertical boundary beneath the axis, and the off-axis velocity boundary conditions are defined by an analytical, passive-flow solution.

The temperature of incoming material at the bottom is determined by a prescribed potential temperature $\left(1350^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)$ and a adiabatic gradient $\left(0.3^{\circ} \mathrm{C} / \mathrm{km}\right)$. The temperature along the top boundary is set to $0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. The temperature distribution is controlled by the competing effects of conductive heat loss from above and advective heat transport from below.

## 3. Melting and Rheology

Melting occurs when the temperature of the adiabatically upwelling solid exceeds the solidus temperature at a given pressure. The amount of melt generated for a given amount of adiabatic decompression is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
F=F_{\text {damp }}\left(\frac{T-T_{\text {damp }}}{T_{d r y}-T_{\text {damp }}}\right), \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

in the damp melting region, and by

$$
\begin{equation*}
F=\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial T}\right)_{p}\left(T-T_{d r y}\right)+F_{d a m p} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

in the dry melting region. The amount of melt generated in the dry melting region is adjusted through use of the isobaric melt productivity, $(\partial F / \partial T)_{p}$. The total melt fraction produced in the damp region ( $F_{\text {damp }}$ ) is set to 0.01 , based on the analysis of the effect of water on melting beneath
spreading centers [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1996]. The damp and dry solidi, respectively, are defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{\text {damp }}=900^{\circ} C+\left(\rho_{m} g Z_{m}+\rho_{c} g Z_{c}\right)\left(\frac{d T}{d P}\right)_{d a m p} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{d r y}=1100^{\circ} \mathrm{C}+\left(\rho_{m} g Z_{m}+\rho_{c} g Z_{c}\right)\left(\frac{d T}{d P}\right)_{d r y} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Z_{m}$ is the depth beneath the crust-mantle boundary, and $\rho_{m}$ is the density of the mantle. The solidi account for the thickness ( $Z_{c}$ ) and the density $\left(\rho_{c}\right)$ of the crust.

The rate of melt production expressed as a function of depth is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{M}=u_{z} \frac{d F}{d z} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $u_{z}$ is the solid upwelling rate and $d F / d z$ is the amount of melt produced per unit depth over which decompression occurs.

One-dimensional melting models for adiabatic upwelling of dry and damp mantle are illustrated in Figure 1. The total depletion in both models is limited to $18 \%$; this value is assumed to be the amount of melt produced prior to the exhaustion of clinopyroxene. With this constraint and a constant productivity of $1 \% / \mathrm{kbar}$, melting of an anhydrous mantle extends from the intersection of the adiabat with the dry solidus ( $\sim 70 \mathrm{~km}$ ) to within 5-10 km of the crust-mantle boundary (Figure 1a). In contrast, melting influenced by the presence of water initially proceeds slowly ( $\sim 0.1 \% / \mathrm{kb}$ ) above the damp solidus ( $\sim 120 \mathrm{~km}$ ) and continues at a higher productivity ( $2 \% / \mathrm{kbar}$ ) above the dry solidus (Figure 1b). With the higher melt productivity in this model, phase exhaustion due to adiabatic decompression occurs $\sim 30 \mathrm{~km}$ below the crust-mantle boundary.

We assume that melt migrates vertically through the permeable shallow mantle according to Darcy's law, and that the rate of melt extraction balances the production of melt [Jha et al., 1994], thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{K \Delta \rho g}{\eta}=\int_{z} \dot{M} d z \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $K$ is the permeability, defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
K=\frac{d^{2} \bar{\phi}^{n}}{C} . \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

The characteristic spacing of melt tubules, $d$, is assumed to be on the order of the grain size, $\bar{\phi}$ is the mean melt fraction, $n=2$, and $C$, is a geometrical constant indicative of a melt topology distributed along the edges of tetrakaidekahedral grains [Cheadle, 1993; Von Bargen and Waff, 1986]. The permeability in the passive flow model, $K$, is approximately $3 \times 10^{-13} \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ for a melt fraction of 0.03 . Assuming a permeability model based on melt


Figure 1. Schematic melt production and mantle depletion profiles beneath a ridge axis for (a) melting only above the dry solidus at a productivity of $1 \% / \mathrm{kb}$ and (b) melting that includes the effects of water and increased productivity ( $2 \% / \mathrm{kb}$ ) above the dry solidus; melt productivity in the damp melting region is $0.1 \% / \mathrm{kb}$. In each figure, the melt productivity, mantle depletion, and temperature are shown as a function of depth. The dashed lines indicate depths where the mantle adiabat crosses the damp and dry solidi. The region of melt generation is deeper with increased productivity.
topology with isotropic surface energies and a single phase, this permeability is consistent with a grain size of approximately 2 mm [Von Bargen and Waff, 1986], which is in the range estimated for the mantle. The actual permeability could be lower than we have used owing to the effects of second phases [Toramaru and Fujii, 1986] and anisotropic wetting [Faul, 1997]. The effective permeability could also be larger if the grain size were larger or melt were efficiently segregated into high porosity channels [Kelemen et al., 1997].

The mantle viscosity is parameterized as a function of temperature, $T$, pressure, $P$, melt fraction, $\phi$, and water content, $\Omega$, using the relationship:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta=A \exp \left(\frac{Q+P V}{R T}\right) * \exp (-a \phi) * \Omega \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

The temperature and pressure dependence of viscosity are controlled by the activation energy ( $Q=265 \mathrm{~kJ} / \mathrm{mol}$ ) and activation volume ( $V=5 \times 10^{-6} \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{mol}$ ). The activation terms are reduced by a factor of two relative to experimental values as a linear approximation for a non-linear rheology [Christensen, 1984]. The pre-exponential term

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\frac{\eta_{r e f}}{\exp \left(\frac{Q+V \rho_{0} g Z_{x d a m p}}{R T_{x d a m p}}\right)} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

defines a reference condition, where $\eta_{\text {ref }}$ is the viscosity of the mantle as it crosses the solidus, $Z_{\text {xdamp }}$ is the depth at which the adiabat crosses the damp solidus, $T_{\text {xdamp }}$ is the absolute temperature at $Z_{\text {xdamp }}$, and $R$ is the ideal gas constant.

Following [Kelemen et al., 1997], the effect of melt fraction on viscosity is described by the relationship:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\eta}{\eta_{0}} \approx \exp (-a \phi) \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\eta_{o}$ is the viscosity of the material at the same pressure and temperature neglecting the effects of melt, and $a$ is a constant between 30 and 45 based on experimental observations [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1995a; Kohlstedt and Zimmerman, 1996]. For $a=45,5 \%$ melt results in an order of magnitude decrease in viscosity. This empirical relationship holds for melt percentages up to at least $10 \%$, but may be valid up to some greater, rheologically critical melt percentage above which the aggregate no longer deforms as a solid.

The viscosity increase that results from the extraction of water during melting is parameterized with the variable $\Omega$. Water is extracted from the mantle gradually during damp melting, until the upwelling mantle crosses the dry solidus and productivity subsequently increases. At this point water is extracted more rapidly. In the damp melting regime, $\Omega$ increases linearly with $F$ up to a maximum factor of $\eta_{d a m p} / \eta_{0}$. After crossing the dry solidus, $\Omega$ is set to $\eta_{d r y} / \eta_{o}$, reflecting the increase in viscosity associated with the extraction of the remaining water from the matrix; $\eta_{\text {dry }}$ is the anhydrous mantle viscosity at the reference pressure and temperature. In all models, we set $\eta_{d a m p} / \eta_{o}=10$ and $\eta_{d r} / \eta_{o},=100$.

Implicit in the hypothesis that grain boundary sliding can be promoted by a decrease in recrystallized grain size after the onset of melting, is that sufficient strain is accumulated to achieve a steady-state grain size. Experimental observations show that following a change in deformation conditions, $5-10 \%$ strain is required to develop a new steady state grain size [Van der Wal, 1993]. To determine if this strain criterion is met, and therefore
the viscosity decrease is justifiable, we calculate strain accumulation along solid-flow streamlines using a finite difference method based on velocity gradients around each node [Barnouin-Jha, 1996; McKenzie, 1979]. These calculations indicate that 5\% strain is achieved within the damp melting region, even if the reference viscosity is $10^{25} \mathrm{~Pa}$ (a proxy for passive flow). Therefore, in models that explore the influence of grain boundary sliding, we assume that the dynamically recrystallized grain size in the presence of melt is small enough to promote the transition in creep mechanism and that additional strain is accumulated rapidly enough that the steady-state flow law is applicable. Therefore, the viscosity is reduced by an order of magnitude anywhere melt is present.

The finite strain calculation can also be used to determine regions where a lattice preferred orientation of olivine may develop beneath the ridge axis. The development of a lattice preferred orientation in olivine during plastic deformation by dislocation creep has a significant effect on the seismic, and potentially electromagnetic [Evans et al., 1998], properties of ridges observed at the surface. Even when subject to the transitional creep mechanism, deformation is still limited by dislocation motion in the easiest slip system and may result in the development of a significant lattice preferred orientation. For each model, we calculate finite strain accumulation along flow lines, starting from an initially strain-free state at a depth of 200 km .

The cumulative effects of dehydration, melt, and grain boundary sliding on viscosity structure beneath a ridge are schematically illustrated in Figure 2. The influence of temperature and pressure have been omitted for simplicity in plotting. Cooling of the solid due to melting results in a small increase in viscosity (Figure 2a). Without dehydration, the presence of melt decreases the viscosity (Figure 2b). Dehydration alone produces a viscosity profile reflecting the changes in water content during damp and dry melting (Figure 2c). The viscosity profile that includes both the effects of melt and water demonstrates that the influence of dehydration is significantly greater than the effect of the presence of melt, unless the melt fraction is very large (e.g. $>0.1$ ) (Figure 2d). However, the additional effect of a transition in creep mechanism to grain boundary sliding mitigates the influence of dehydration and results in a low viscosity region beneath the dry solidus (Figure 2e).


Figure 2. Normalized viscosity versus depth profiles show the effects of melting on the viscosity of an initially damp mantle. (a) Viscosity increase due to cooling during decompression melting. (b) Viscosity decrease due to the presence of melt (with maximum melt content of $\sim 3 \%$ ); the profile in (a) is shown as a dashed line. (c) Viscosity increase due to the effects of dehydration; the profile from (a) is shown as a dashed line. (d) The solid line shows the combined effects of melt and dehydration relative to the profile that includes only the effects of dehydration (dashed line). (e) Composite viscosity profile (solid line) that includes a change in deformation mechanism from dislocation creep to grain-boundary sliding, as well as the effects of melt and dehydration, resulting in a low viscosity region beneath the dry solidus; the dashed line is the profile shown in (d). In each plot, the depths of the damp and dry solidi are shown by horizontal dotted lines.

## 4. Crustal Production

For each model we calculate the crustal thickness, mean melt fraction, mean pressure of melting, and mean degree of melting. The crustal thickness is calculated by dividing the volume rate of melt generation by the spreading rate. The mean pressure $(\bar{P})$ and degree ( $\bar{F}$ ) of melting are defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{P}=\rho_{m} g\left(\frac{\int_{a}^{z} \dot{M} d a}{\int_{a}^{\dot{M} d a}}\right)+\rho_{c} g Z_{c} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{F}=\frac{\int_{a} F \dot{M} d a}{\int_{a}^{\dot{M} d a}} \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a$ is the area of the melting region [Forsyth, 1993; Langmuir et al., 1992].

## 5. Quantification of Buoyant Flow

We evaluate the magnitude of buoyant flow by comparing the upwelling velocities determined from the models to those determined for a passive flow solution at the same spreading rate by the relationship

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta_{z}=\frac{1}{L} \int_{L} \frac{w_{\text {model }}}{w_{\text {passive }}} d z \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $L$ is the height of the melting region, and $w$ is the vertical component of velocity beneath the axis. This buoyancy index, $\beta_{z}$, becomes large for highly focused flow and approaches unity for passive-like flow. For these calculations, $w_{\text {passive }}$ is taken from the results of a model with a reference viscosity of $10^{25} \mathrm{Pas}$ and for which no effects of melt or dehydration were included.

## Results

Steady state solutions for numerical models illustrating the progressive superposition of rheological effects shown in Figure 2 are presented in Figures 3, 4, and 5. Data for these models (e.g., mean melt fraction, crustal thickness) are summarized in Table 1 and in Figures 6a-d.

## 1. Passive Solution

To assess the component of buoyancy driven flow in each model solution, we first calculate the solution for a system with a high reference viscosity ( $\eta_{r e f}=10^{25} \mathrm{~Pa}$ s) to use as a proxy for passive flow (Figure 3a). The resulting solid flow streamlines closely resemble the analytical solution for corner flow with constant viscosity [Reid and Jackson, 1981]. In addition, the melting region has a roughly triangular shape that extends $\sim 110 \mathrm{~km}$ deep and $\sim 225 \mathrm{~km}$ off axis. This result becomes our non-buoyant solution ( $\beta_{z} \equiv 1$ ) to which we compare other velocity fields.

## 2. Base Rheology

The solution for the 'base' model, upon which we build the more realistic rheologies, is illustrated in Figure 3b. The reference viscosity for this model is $5 \times 10^{18} \mathrm{~Pa} \mathrm{~s}$, and the melting function is illustrated in Figure 1 b . Compared to the passive model, the crust is thicker because buoyancy driven flow results in greater upwelling rates in the melting region and thus more material is melted. Buoyant localization of melting also limits the extent of melting off-axis to 100 km . Focusing of solid flow toward the ridge axis induces vertically oriented finite strain ellipse elongation directions under the ridge axis, similar to previous results [Blackman et al., 1996]. The largest finite strains are produced in material that passes through the outer edge of the damp melting region. This flow results in region of very high strain between depths of 80 and 150 km off axis.

## 3. Melt-Only

The 'melt-only' rheology builds upon the base rheology with the added effect of a viscosity reduction due to the presence of melt. (Figure 3c) The decrease in mantle viscosity due to the presence of melt, in conjunction with the density contrast between the melt and mantle, enhances the upwelling velocity, inducing more focused solid flow ( $\beta_{z}=2.44$ compared to 1.51 for the base rheology) and stronger vertical elongations of finite strain ellipses in the shallow melting region. The increased solid flux leads to higher melt fractions which further decreases the viscosity. This positive feedback leads to increased crustal production (Table 1) and higher melt fractions concentrated in a smaller, shallower melting region, relative to the base rheology. The buoyant feedback can be discerned in the depression of the isodepletion contours outside the melting region and more shallowly focused flow streamlines delineated by the finite strain ellipses shown in Figure 3c. If the permeability were higher, the effects of buoyant flow would be diminished. For example, with an order of magnitude increase in permeability for the model with the rheology shown in figure 3c, the buoyancy is significantly diminished ( $\beta_{z}=1.48$ ).


Figure 3. Model results for temperature- and pressure-dependent viscosity, including damp melting and increased melt productivity ( $2 \% / \mathrm{kb}$ ). The half spreading rate in each case is 50 $\mathrm{mm} / \mathrm{yr}$. Filled contours in the left panels represent the mantle viscosity, and black lines depict isotherms ( $200^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ intervals) for a potential temperature of $1350^{\circ}$ and an adiabatic gradient of $0.3^{\circ} \mathrm{C} / \mathrm{km}$. Solid flow streamlines, as depicted by the finite strain ellipses (red ovals), are determined by the calculated velocity field (white vectors). Velocity vector length is equal to the half-spreading rate along the top boundary. Filled contours on the right panel show the steadystate melt fraction ( $>0.1 \%$ ) overlain by isodepletion contours (black lines). (a) Model for a system with a reference viscosity of $10^{25} \mathrm{~Pa}$ s used as a proxy for passive flow. (b) Model with a
reference viscosity of $5 \times 10^{18} \mathrm{~Pa} s$ used as a basis of comparison for models which include other rheologic effects. (c) Model including the effects of viscosity reduction due to the presence of melt. The feedback between melt generation and viscosity reduction produces a region of focused flow that extends from depths of 10 to 150 km beneath the axis and a diagnostic pattern of strain accumulation.

## 4. Dehydration-Only

Focused upwelling in the melting region is strongly inhibited by the increase in viscosity due to the extraction of water. The resulting passive-like flow ( $\beta_{z}=1.05$ ) is characterized by horizontally stratified viscosity and depletion structures throughout the melting region. Calculated finite strain ellipses are similar to those of the passive solution (Figure 3a). The amount of melt generated, and therefore crustal thickness, is reduced because the increased viscosity reduces the solid flux through the melting region. In addition, the lack of focusing permits melting to take place further off axis, since still-fertile material continues to advect upward. The reduced melt fractions averaged over the larger melting region result in a lower mean melt fraction relative to the base model.

## 5. Dehydration and Melt

When the rheological effects of dehydration and melt are combined (Figure 4a), the viscosity increase due to dehydration dominates the decrease due to the presence of melt, creating a passive-like flow pattern. The viscosity structure in the melting region mirrors the primary melting zone, as in the melt-only model; however, the viscosities above the dry solidus are two orders of magnitude higher, inhibiting buoyant flow. As a result of the higher viscosity, the mean melt fraction decreases and the melting region widens to $\sim 170$ km off-axis, similar to the passive model. Because of the smaller melt fraction and higher viscosity, the effects of buoyancy ( $\beta_{z}=1.19$ ) and the overall magnitude of finite strain are diminished. Decreasing the reference viscosity to $2 \times 10^{18} \mathrm{~Pa} \mathrm{~s}$ is sufficient to generate very focused upwelling in both the damp and dry melting regimes (Figure 4b). The damp melting region becomes much narrower and the high velocity gradients induce much stronger finite strain than in the higher viscosity counterpart. The deep buoyant flux is also reflected in the larger crustal thickness, higher melt fraction, and lower mean degree of melting.


Figure 4. Models including the effects of dehydration beneath the ridge axis. The half spreading rate in each case is $50 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{yr}$. The model variables are plotted the same as described in figure 3. (a) Model with a reference viscosity of $5 \times 10^{18} \mathrm{~Pa}$ s including the effects of dehydration and melt. (b) Model with a reference viscosity of $2 \times 10^{18} \mathrm{~Pa} \mathrm{~s}$ including the effects of dehydration and melt. (c) Model with a reference viscosity of $5 \times 10^{18} \mathrm{~Pa}$ including the effect of a transition to grain boundary sliding, as well as the effects of dehydration and melt. Since the effects of dehydration dominate those of melt, the viscosity and velocity structures resemble more passivelike flow above the dry solidus. Even with lower reference viscosities, buoyant flow is restricted to depths beneath the dry solidus.

## 6. Composite Rheology

An additional decrease in viscosity due to a change in creep mechanism from dislocation creep to grain boundary sliding limited by creep on the easiest slip system in olivine allows for focused, buoyancy-driven flow, but only in the damp melting region (Figure 4 c ). In the damp melting region, the influence of grain boundary sliding dominates over the effect of dehydration (e.g., Figure 2e), resulting in a lower viscosity. The low effective viscosity permits strongly focused flow, narrowing the width of the damp melting region and generating a finite strain pattern similar to the base model.

The velocity field rapidly changes to more passive-like flow as the viscosity increases above the dry solidus. The melt region also broadens as material diverted away from the axis continues to melt due to the small vertical component of flow. Relative to the dehydration and melt model, the mean melt fraction and the mean pressure of melting are slightly higher, and the mean degree of melting and crustal thickness remain approximately the same (Table 1). The difference in $\beta_{z}$ between the composite model and the dehydration and melt model is associated with buoyant flow in the damp melting regime (compare Figure 4 c to 4 a ). Thus, because only small amounts of melt are produced in this region, the difference in crustal thickness between these two models is small.

## 7. Variation with Spreading Rate

There is a strong effect of spreading rate on the flow field determined for the composite rheology (Figure 5). As the spreading rate decreases, the solid flow becomes more focused, and the melt region narrows significantly. The mean degree of melting drops off and the melt production below the dry solidus increases slightly (Figure 6d) at very slow spreading rates. The buoyancy index, $\beta_{z}$, is also greatest at slow spreading rates, with buoyancy increasing significantly at rates below $30 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{yr}$ (Figure 6c). These results suggest that buoyant localization of melting at slow spreading ridges occurs in the damp melting region. The spreading rate at which the rapid increase in buoyancy occurs coincides with the spreading rate at which the crustal thickness begins to deviate from a relatively constant value.
$\mathrm{U}_{1 / 2}=10 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{yr}$
a.


$$
\mathrm{U}_{1 / 2}=30 \mathrm{~mm} / \mathrm{yr}
$$



Figure 5. Variation with spreading rate of models with a rheology including the effects of dehydration, melt, and grain boundary sliding (the same rheology as in figure 4 c ). The model variables are plotted the same as described in figure 3. Buoyant localization of solid flow and melt generation at depth increases as the half spreading rate decreases. The magnitude and localization of strain also increases with decreasing spreading rate.

## Discussion

The results of these models provide important insights into the interpretation of geophysical and geochemical observations established for the global ridge system. In this section we discuss the implications of our results on the interpretation of crustal thickness variations, the seismic structure of the mantle beneath ridges, the chemistry of MORB, and the dynamics of melt migration.

## 1. Crustal Thickness Variation

The effect of spreading rate on crustal thickness depends on the magnitude of buoyant upwelling and the melt productivity. Buoyancy driven upwelling can be sufficient to inhibit conductive cooling, allowing melting to proceed to shallower depths. Previous studies have suggested that this effect is responsible for the lack of variation in crustal thickness with spreading rate [Forsyth, 1992; Sotin and Parmentier, 1989]. Alternatively, if melt productivity is higher, so that more melt is produced at greater depth (e.g. Figure 1b), then conductive cooling will have a smaller effect on the amount of melt produced. Therefore, for passive flow the influence of spreading rate on crustal thickness is smaller for higher melt productivites (Figure 6b).

The percentage of melt produced in the damp melting region increases with increasing buoyancy $\left(\beta_{z}\right)$ for a variety of rheologic models. The increased role of buoyancy with decreasing spreading rate is reflected in a modest increase in the percent of melt produced in the presence of garnet with decreasing spreading rate (Figure 6d). We assume that all melt generated at pressures greater than 2.5 GPa is produced in the presence of garnet.

## 2. Interpretation of Seismic Data

Rheology has a significant effect on the predicted size and shape of the melting region and the finite strain distribution beneath the ridge at a given spreading rate. Our model results provide a basis to interpret the observed dimensions of the melting region and seismic anisotropy. The size of the melting region determined from the Mantle Electromagnetic and Tomography (MELT) experiment along the East Pacific rise is consistent with passive-like flow [Forsyth et al., 1998a; Toomey et al., 1998]. Our models suggest that, for geophysically constrained values of mantle viscosity, the large lateral extent of the melting region results from the transition to passive-like flow due to the effects of dehydration (compare Figures 3b, c, and 4a).

Our models also illustrate a possible explanation for the apparent inconsistency between the magnitudes of anisotropy interpreted from shear wave splitting and surface wave analyses of anisotropy in the MELT region. Although the relationship between lattice preferred orientation and finite strain is not fully resolved, the direction and degree of anisotropy is coupled to the orientation and magnitude of finite strain, especially at large strains [Wenk et al., 1989; Zhang and Karato, 1995]. The finite strains calculated from these models can be used to predict lattice-preferred orientation, and therefore, seismic anisotropy in the mantle [McKenzie, 1979; Ribe, 1989]. Rayleigh wave data from the MELT region [Forsyth et al., 1998b] imply less anisotropy than that determined from body waves [Wolfe and Solomon, 1998]. The short ( 25 s ) period surface waves are sensitive


Figure 6. Characteristic model results as a function of spreading rate. (a) Variation in crustal thickness with spreading rate for the 'base' ( $\square$ ), 'composite' ( ${ }^{*}$ ), 'dehydration and melt' ( $\triangle$ ), and high viscosity passive ( O ) rheologies assuming complete extraction of melt. (b) Effects of melt productivity on the variation in crustal thickness for the high viscosity passive rheology. $2 \% / \mathrm{kb}$ (solid line) with damp melting, $1 \% / \mathrm{kb}$ with damp melting (dashed line), and $1 \% / \mathrm{kb}$ without damp melting (dotted line). (c) Buoyancy index as a function of spreading rate. (d) Percentage of melt generated in the presence of garnet. Crustal thickness is constant, except at very slow spreading rates, for rheologies which promote buoyant upwelling. The thinner crust for the composite and dehydration and melt models relative to the base rheology is due to the restriction of buoyant upwelling to depths below the dry solidus. By removing the effects of buoyancy (by using a high reference viscosity) the crustal thickness is decreased further and becomes more strongly spreading rate dependent. Crustal thickness increases with increased productivity. The decrease in crustal thickness with decreasing spreading rate occurs at higher spreading rates for lower productivities. Finally, the percentage of melt produced in the presence of garnet is greatest at slow spreading rates or for rheologies that limit buoyancy to the damp melting region.
to anisotropy only within the upper 100 km , whereas body waves integrate over greater depth. The 'hidden' anisotropy indicated by the shear wave splitting can be associated with the buoyant flow in the damp melting region (Figure 5c). A preferred alignment of melt pockets can also contribute to seismic anisotropy [e.g. Blackman et al., 1996; Zimmerman et al., 1999]. However, we emphasize that the strong horizontal fabric in the depth interval of $100-150 \mathrm{~km}$ occurs outside the melting region where melt has likely been extracted.

Variation in the arrival times of vertically-incident body waves and the magnitude of anisotropy should increase at slower spreading rates. Strong vertical elongation directions resulting from increased buoyancy driven flow at slow spreading rates could result in earlier arrival times, relative to an isotropic medium, for vertically propagating waves directly beneath the ridge axis (Figure 5a). Similarly, strong horizontal elongation directions would induce later arrival times off-axis. Therefore, variations in arrival times should be greatest at slow spreading rates. In addition, greater horizontal elongation with decreasing spreading rate could lead to a detectable increase in the magnitude of anisotropy between $50-120 \mathrm{~km}$. If this lattice-preferred orientation is incorporated into the lithosphere as it thickens by conductive cooling, then the anisotropy in old lithosphere may be greater for lithosphere created at slower spreading rates.

## 3. Geochemistry of MORB

Damp melting that generates near-fractional, small-degree melts at depths between 70 and 120 km is consistent with geochemical constraints from radiogenic isotopic ratios and rare earth element (REE) patterns in MORB glasses and melt inclusions. In the presence of garnet, melting at these depths can explain the ${ }^{176} \mathrm{Hf} /{ }^{177} \mathrm{Hf}$ and ${ }^{143} \mathrm{Nd} /{ }^{144} \mathrm{Nd}$ excesses [Salters and Hart, 1989], light-REE-enriched trace element patterns [Hirschmann and Stolper, 1996], and secular disequilibria observed among uranium-series isotopes $\left({ }^{230} \mathrm{Th}\right)^{238} \mathrm{U}$ and $\left.{ }^{226} \mathrm{Ra}{ }^{230} \mathrm{Th}\right)$ [Beattie, 1993; Salters and Longhi, 1999] in MORB. Buoyant focusing of mantle flow and melt generation below 70 km (Figure 4a-c) could enhance these garnet signatures. As the spreading rate decreases, buoyancy localizes melt production beneath the axis, increasing the likelihood that this melt will be extracted to form crust at the ridge axis, regardless of the mechanism of melt migration. In addition a greater fraction of the total melt produced is derived from the damp melting region (Figure 6f). Therefore, as spreading rate decreases, the garnet signatures observed in MORB may be more pronounced. However the mean pressure of melting appears to be controlled
predominantly by melt productivity and varies only by 10-30 MPa for the range of rheology and spreading rates examined in this study.

## 4. Mantle Flow and Melt Migration

A change from 2- to 3-dimensional convective structure in the shallow mantle has been suggested as an explanation for the morphologic and geophysical characteristics of fast and slow spreading ridges [Jha et al., 1994; Parmentier and Phipps Morgan, 1990]. The length-scale of segmentation at slow spreading ridges and wavelength of 'bulls-eye' mantle Bouguer anomalies derived from along-axis variation in crustal thickness [Lin and Phipps Morgan, 1992] have been attributed to $50-100 \mathrm{~km}$ wavelength convective instabilities in the upper mantle [Kuo and Forsyth, 1988; Lin et al., 1990]. However 3dimensional models with simpler rheologies do not generate such short wavelength instabilities [Barnouin-Jha et al., 1995]. In our models (Figure 5), the increase in viscosity associated with dehydration decreases the column height over which buoyant flow occurs [Choblet and Parmentier, 2001]. The shorter column height could lead to shorter alongaxis wavelengths of buoyant upwelling.

The viscosity structure produced by dehydration can also influence melt migration. Pressure gradients induced by 'corner flow' associated with plate spreading can result in ridgeward melt migration if the viscosity in the melting region were on the order of $10^{21}$ Pa•s [Phipps Morgan, 1987; Spiegelman and McKenzie, 1987]. The viscosity increase associated with dehydration can result in viscosities in this range over the majority of the melting region.

## Conclusions

This series of numerical models demonstrates the importance of rheology and melt productivity on crustal production and the dynamics of mantle flow beneath mid-ocean ridges.
Owing to the effects of dehydration, buoyant circulation is limited to depths beneath the dry solidus despite a substantial retained melt fraction. This is significant if the mantle viscosity is sufficiently small ( $\sim 10^{18} \mathrm{~Pa} \cdot \mathrm{~s}$ ); a viscosity this low can be achieved if a transition to grain boundary sliding occurs after the onset of damp melting.

We also examine the spreading rate dependence of models that incorporate more realistic rheologies and deep, damp melting. The crustal thickness calculated in these models varies with spreading rate only at very low spreading rates, as is observed in
available seismic data. This invariance is due to a buoyancy enhanced flux of mantle through the melting region and an increased melt productivity deep in the melting column. Strain accumulation calculations indicate that a significant lattice-preferred orientation would develop as deep as 150 km , as a result of buoyant flow in the damp melting region. The magnitude of this effect increases with decreasing spreading rate, indicating that the seismic properties observed at the ridge and anisotropy preserved in the lithosphere could also vary systematically with spreading rate.

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## Chapter 6

# Implications of Chemical and Microstructural Variations in Dunite Conduits on the Permeability and Melt Flux Beneath Mid-Ocean Ridges 

## Introduction

The segregation and transport of basaltic melt from its source deep beneath midocean ridges is both efficient and rapid. Although mid-ocean ridge basalt (MORB) is an mixture of near-fractional melts derived over a range of pressures [Johnson et al., 1990; McKenzie and O'Nions, 1991], the major element composition of primitive basalts, which form the bulk of the oceanic crust, implies that these primitive liquids traverse the uppermost $20-30 \mathrm{~km}$ of the mantle without significant chemical interaction with the rocks through which they pass [Elthon, 1989; O'Hara, 1965; Stolper, 1980]. Additionally, ${ }^{230} \mathrm{Th}$ excesses observed in recently erupted lavas indicate that some melts are segregated from their source at depths greater than 75 km and ascend to the surface with rates on order of a meter per year [e.g. Beattie, 1993; McKenzie, 1985; Sims et al., 2002].

Geochemical and petrologic data from abyssal and ophiolitic peridotites suggest that dunites (rocks with $>90 \%$ olivine) accommodate the chemically-isolated transport of primitive melts to the surface via porous flow [Kelemen et al., 1997]. Dunites are ubiquitous in residual mantle peridotites and often exhibit compositions in equilibrium with primitive MORB [Braun and Kelemen, in prep; Dick, 1977; Kelemen et al., 1995]. These geochemical data, in conjunction with field observations [e.g. Braun and Kelemen, 2002; Kelemen et al., 2000], and numerical models [Aharonov et al., 1995; Spiegelman et al., 2001] indicate that dunites are the remnants of high porosity channels formed from harzburgite by reactive porous flow of basaltic melt.

By constraining the permeability of dunites, we can address whether an interconnected network of porous dunite conduits can deliver the volume of unequilibrated melts required to form the oceanic crust on timescales short enough to preserve the excess ${ }^{230} \mathrm{Th}$. Permeability estimates are derived from a combination of field
and microstructural observations from dunites in the Oman ophiolite. The extensive exposures of gabbroic crust and residual mantle peridotite in the Oman ophiolite were created at a submarine spreading center [e.g. Nicolas et al., 2000]. The geochemical characteristics observed in Oman peridotites closely follow those documented in abyssal peridotites [Godard et al., 2000; Kelemen et al., 1997] suggesting that the igneous processes which formed the Oman rocks are similar to those that occur beneath midocean ridges. Additionally, the Oman ophiolite offers extensive outcrops which preserve structural details impossible to observe in active spreading environments.

Observations regarding the widths of dunites and their grain size distributions in Oman can be used to constrain the permeability and melt capacity of the transport network. First, measurements of dunite widths in the mantle section of the ophiolite constrain the size and distribution of porous conduits which comprise the network [Braun and Kelemen, 2002]. Dunites in the Samail, Wadi Tayin, and Muscat massifs of the Oman ophiolite range in size from several millimeters to approximately 100 m wide. In these regions, a power-law relationship exists between the width of dunites and their abundance. Extrapolation of the power-law successfully predicts the abundance of wide dunites on length scales of entire massifs, providing confidence that the additional extrapolation to mid-ocean ridge length scales probably represents the dunite abundance in the melting region.

Additionally, microstructural analyses on the same peridotites document an increase in grain size with dunite width, likely induced by increased melt migration prior to corner flow [Braun and Hirth, in prep]. The significant increase in grain size observed across harzburgite/dunite boundaries is consistent with laboratory experiments which show that the increase in olivine mass associated with opx dissolution results in an increase in olivine grain size during reaction [Daines and Kohlstedt, 1994]. Normal grain growth [e.g.Atkinson, 1988] can account for much of the grain size variation once dunite formation is complete, because the pinning orthopyroxene phase has been removed [Olgaard and Evans, 1986]. The time required for normal grain growth [Karato, 1989]


Figure 1. Grain boundary images of representative thin sections from the (a) harzburgite, (b) 3 m wide dunite, (c) 25 m wide dunite, (d) 50 m wide dunite. Images in the left column are traced directly from the thin section. Images in the right column are the result of the grain growth algorithm described in the text. Scale bar in all images is 10 mm . Black represents spinel, white is olivine, and gray is orthopyroxene
to produce grains as large as the observed maxima is well within the ascent time of peridotite in the melting region [Braun and Kelemen, 2002]. Even though the peridotite was deforming during its ascent, the common occurrence of spinel and small olivine inclusions within large olivine grains (figure 1) suggests that grain boundary mobility was greatly enhanced, perhaps by the presence of melt, mitigating the grain size reduction effects of dynamic recrystallization [Braun and Hirth, in prep].

These grain size variations in conjunction with the dunite abundances are what best constrain the permeability of the porous dunite conduits. Grain sizes were measured from grain boundary images and have been corrected for thin-sectioning and the effects of low temperature recrystallization to better represent the actual grain size distribution under asthenospheric conditions. In an attempt to remove the abundant small grains associated with dynamic recrystallization at high stress and low temperature [Karato et al., 1980; Van der Wal et al., 1993], the edges of grains were "eroded" using image analysis techniques until olivines smaller than 1 mm were removed. The eroded grains were then dilated, restoring the remaining grains to their original size. This threshold grain size of 1 mm was chosen because it reflects the boundary between dislocation and diffusion creep at the conditions at which the rocks were deformed $\left(1200^{\circ} \mathrm{C}, 1 \mathrm{MPa}\right.$ differential stress, and a strain rate of $10^{-14} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ) as inferred from lattice preferred orientations [Braun and Hirth, in prep].

The effects of the dynamic recrystallization correction on representative thin sections with different grain size distributions are illustrated in figure 1. Fine-grained regions exhibit a more uniform grain size and euhedral shapes. The size of large grains is virtually unaffected, however, short wavelength undulations in grain boundaries are smoothed. The dynamic recrystallization correction changes the grain size distributions
as well (figure 2). To convert the measured (apparent) grain size to a more representative 3-dimensional grain size, we multiply the grain sizes by 1.5 [Pannozo, 1982; Gunderson and Jensen, 1983; Renner et al., 2003]. Figure 2a depicts the corrected grain size data as a function of dunite width. Although the variations in mean and median grain size, observed in the raw data, have been obscured by the dynamic recrystallization correction, the maximum grain size still clearly exhibits an increases from 4.5 mm in the harzburgite to 12,29 , and 39 mm in the 3,25 and 50 m wide dunites, respectively. However, percolation theory indicates that the maximum grain size is not likely the primary control on permeability. Instead, the permeability of porous aggregates with non-uniform grain sizes is better represented by the "backbone" grain size, which is what remains after truncating the largest and smallest grains from the distribution. Lacking an accurate analytical or empirical relationship between the grain size distribution and permeability, I have chosen to use the grain size which defines $50 \%$ of the cumulative area of the sample (figure 2 b ) as representative of the aggregate in the Kozney-Carmen permeability relationship [e.g. Von Bargen and Waff, 1986; Wark and Watson, 1998]. In the Oman peridotites, $50 \%$ of the sample is occupied by grain smaller than 2.25 in the harzburgite and $4.8,7.4$, and 10.95 mm in the 2,25 , and 50 m dunites, respectively.


Figure 2. Increase in grain size with increasing dunite width as shown by several statistical measures. (a) Variation in mean, median, maximum, and ' $50 \%$ area' grain size. Dashed lines indicate the measured values and solid lines indicate grain sizes corrected for the effects of dynamic recrystallization at high stress. (b) Cumulative area as function of grain size. ${ }^{*}$ denotes the median grain size in each population. O designates the grain size above and below which $50 \%$ of the total area is occupied.

## Permeability and the Melt Flux in a Dunite Network

## 1. Constraints on Dunite Permeability

Hierarchical interconnection is typical of coalescing tributary systems observed in nature, from river basins [e.g. Dodds and Rothman, 2000; Tokunaga, 1978] to arterial systems [e.g. Schreiner et al., 1997] and have also been observed in dissolution channeling experiments [Hoefner and Fogler, 1988]. The spatial distribution of dunites, the clustering behavior in particular, suggests that dunites are also hierarchically interconnected with respect to their size, forming a coalescing network. The overall percentage of dunite in the mantle section of the Oman ophiolite is $5-15 \%$, however, the dunites appear to be arranged in clusters with proportions approaching $40-70 \%$ of the peridotite locally. Clusters typically contain a few large dunites which are surrounded and intersected by smaller dunites, which are in turn connected to even smaller dunites. Deformation associated with corner flow and obduction has substantially reduced the intersection angles between dunites, and in several cases, dunites cross each other. However, given the uncertainties in the orientation of the dunites relative to the spreading center under which they formed, we infer from their spatial distribution that the dunites formed a coalescing network of channels which focused melt transport to the ridge axis.

Within this context of a coalescing network, Braun and Kelemen [Braun and Kelemen, 2002] derive a method for estimating the total melt flux that the dunites can supply, given the abundances measured in the field. In the following section, I expand upon that analysis by incorporating the grain size data and comparing the resultant permeability and flux estimates to the volume and velocity constraints required by crustal thickness and ${ }^{230} \mathrm{Th}$ excesses in MORB.

The total melt flux through a network of interconnected, porous dunites can be estimated by integrating the predicted flux in a dunite of a given width with the observed abundance of dunites that width. The 2-dimensional flux (area per unit time per unit length) in an individual dunite, $J_{w}$, can be defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{w}=\phi \nu w, \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is the product of the dunite width, $w$, and the Darcy flux

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi v=\frac{K}{\eta} \Delta \rho g, \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\Delta \rho g$ is the driving pressure gradient owing to melt buoyancy, $\eta$ is the melt viscosity, and the permeability, $K$, is a function of porosity, $\phi$, grain size, $d$, and geometry, $C$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
K=\frac{\phi^{n} d^{2}}{C} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Empirical determination of rock permeabilities indicate that $n=3$ and $C=200$ [Wark and Watson, 1998], which is consistent with the laboratory estimates of Renner et al. [Renner et al., 2003]. The viscosity of basalt is on the order of $10 \mathrm{~Pa} \cdot \mathrm{~s}$ [Bottinga and Weill, 1972].

For Oman, Braun and Kelemen [2002] show that the number of dunites, $f_{w}$, within a length scale, $L$, is related to the width of the dunite, $w$, by the power-law relationship

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{w}=\frac{a D}{w^{D+1}} L \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $D$ is the ratio of narrow dunites to wide dunites and $a$ is constant which reflects the percentage of dunite within the mantle. By definition, the fraction of dunite within $L$ meters is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{L} \int_{w_{\min }}^{w_{\max }} f_{w} w d w \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Figure 3 shows the predicted relationship between $a$ and the percentage of dunite in a given outcrop along with the measured abundances in each of the locations used for the power-law determination. The prediction fits the majority of the dunite abundance measurements quite well. The two "apparent" exceptions to the prediction, from the airphoto ( $17 \%$ dunite) and from Lufti outcrop \#10 ( $68 \%$ dunite), can both be fit by adjusting the prediction parameters to those specific for the outcrop rather than using the mean values for all Oman. First, both datasets have higher $D$ values than the rest of the regions analyzed [Braun and Kelemen, 2002]. Additionally the abundance prediction depends on the range in dunite width used for integration. Despite the large variation in the true dunite size distribution as observed on the ground, only dunites wider than
several meters can be accurately resolved in the airphoto. Using the values for listed in Braun and Kelemen [2002] and integrating only over dunites from 5 to 100 m , the prediction passes through the data point (dashed line). Outcrop \#10 is small and contains only a few dunites which span a small range in width. Reintegration of (5) with more appropriate values of $D, w_{\min }$ and $w_{\max }$ moves the predicted curve toward the data point. The remaining misfit between the data and the prediction likely reflects error in the estimates of $D$ and $a$ from such a small sample of the population, as indicated by the low correlation coefficient obtained for the fit.


Figure 3. Percentage of dunite in outcrop as a function of 'intercept' value, $a$, in the powerlaw size/frequency distribution (eqn 4). Circles indicate the abundance of dunite in each of the data sets used in fitting the power-law and the associated value of $a$ [Braun and Kelemen, 2002]. The solid line is the theoretical prediction based on $D=1.11$ and dunites ranging from 0.1 to 100 m wide. The mean $a$ as reported by Braun and Kelemen is shown with $a *$. The intercept value given a dunite abundance of $10 \%$ in the mantle is shown with a $\quad$. Dashed line is the predicted abundance curve for the airphoto data. See text for description.

Because the dunite size/frequency statistics were collected from regions in which the local proportion of dunite ( $20-70 \%$ ) was much higher than the average for the whole mantle section ( $5-15 \%$ ), the power-law "intercept" value, $a$, is corrected to 0.015 to approximate the regional dunite proportion.

The total melt flux can thus be expressed as the product of the melt flux $J_{w}$, and the number of dunites, $f_{w}$, integrated over the observed range in dunite widths, or

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{t o t}=\int_{w_{\text {min }}}^{w_{\text {max }}} f_{w} J_{w} d w . \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

## 2. Network Permeability Models

In this section, the permeability distributions predicted by each of four models are used to compute the total unequilibrated melt flux to the ridge and velocity at which that melt is transported in comparison to the observed geophysical and geochemical constraints. Based on the dunite distribution data, Braun and Kelemen introduce two permeability models for the solution of (3): one in which both porosity and grain size are constant and independent of dunite width and another in which flux conservation requires that the porosity varies with dunite width. However, the textural observations from Oman indicate that grain size, $d$, also varies with dunite width, and should be incorporated into the permeability distribution.

If all melt is transported via dunites, then the observed oceanic crustal thickness requires that the dunite network supply a flux of $60-900 \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{yr}$ of melt per meter of ridge axis, depending on spreading rate [Braun and Kelemen, 2002]. Because of the pyroxeneundersaturated bulk composition of primary MORB, a large fraction of the total melt flux in dunites must remain isolated from chemical interaction with the surrounding harzburgite. Based on the inferred time scale for upwelling beneath the Oman paleospreading center and dunite porosities less than $5 \%$, the minimum dunite width which can maintain the major element disequilibrium is approximately 5 m [Braun and Kelemen, 2002]. Additionally, if ${ }^{230} \mathrm{Th}$ excesses are created by small degrees of melting in the presence of garnet [e.g. Beattie, 1993], then melts must segregate from their source at small porosities and migrate to the surface from $75-120 \mathrm{~km}$ depth in less than 5 half-lives of ${ }^{230} \mathrm{Th}\left(t_{1 / 2}=75,380 \mathrm{yr}\right.$ ). This isotopic constraint requires melt velocities of $0.2-1.2 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{yr}$. A viable flux model must satisfy all three of these requirements.

Model 1: The simplest permeability model is one in which both grain size and porosity are constant in all dunites and the melt flux varies linearly with width. Using a
grain size of 2 mm , as is observed in the harzburgites in Oman, integration of (1) predicts the total melt flux through a dunite network is sufficient to create the oceanic crust provided dunites have porosities of $\sim 2-6 \%$ (figure $4 a$ ). With $3 \%$ porosity, the permeability of a dunite is $\sim 5 \times 10^{-13} \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ independent of width (figure 5a). At this level of permeability the melt velocity is $0.27 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{yr}$ (figure 5 b), barely satisfying the velocity constraint required by the ${ }^{230} \mathrm{Th}$ excesses. With a porosity greater than $6 \%$ or grain size larger than 4 mm , the melt velocities exceed $1 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{yr}$. However, regardless of porosity or grain size, the fraction of the total flux which would remain unequilibrated is only $22 \%$, implying that primary MORB traveling through such a network would not be far from pyroxene saturation.

Model 2: Incorporating the observed grain size variations with dunite width increases the permeability and melt flux in wide dunites. The textural data from the Oman dunites (figure 2) show a power-law dependence of grain size on dunite width of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
d=p w^{m} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $p=0.004$ and $m=0.2268$, derived from a least-squares fit to the " $50 \%$ area" data (figure 2a). Substituting (7) into (3) and reintegrating (6) yields higher total melt flux than Model 1 and fits the mid-ocean ridge flux constraints at lower porosities (figure 4 b ). The $\sim 5$-fold increase in grain size increases the permeability of wide dunites from $5.3 \times 10^{-}$ ${ }^{13}$ to $1.7 \times 10^{-11} \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ (with $\phi=3 \%$ ), allowing melt velocities to easily exceed the ${ }^{230} \mathrm{Th}$-excess constraint in all dunites wider than a few centimeters (figure 5b). However, the fraction of unequilibrated flux still only accounts for $\sim 67 \%$ of the total melt flux.

Model 3: By incorporating the requirement that melt flux is conserved where dunites coalesce, Braun and Kelemen, [2002] derived a dependence of porosity on dunite width of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi=\phi_{\max }\left(\frac{w}{w_{\max }}\right)^{D / n} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

By fixing the maximum porosity, $\phi_{\max }$, in the widest observed dunite, $w_{\max }(100 \mathrm{~m}$ in Oman), the porosities in dunites of all other widths are specified. Since the majority of
the flux in this model is passing through wide dunites, the fraction of unequilibrated melt is $95 \%$ of the total (figure 4c). However, the total melt flux is lower than either Model 1 or 2 because the porosity, and therefore the permeability (figure 5a), is smaller in narrower dunites. Therefore, the mid-ocean ridge flux constraint is met only at large porosities ( $\phi_{\text {max }}>6 \%$ ).

It is possible, at the porosities which satisfy the crustal production requirement ( $\phi_{\max }>6 \%$ ), to get melt velocities within the range required by the Th data. Such high porosities are larger than those inferred for the distributed porosity in shallow mantle beneath mid-ocean ridges, [e.g. Forsyth, 1992; Toomey et al., 1998], but would be undetectable if confined within bodies less than 100 m across [Hung et al., 2000]. However, the high porosities would result in a either a substantial viscosity reduction and localized strain in the wide dunites or high compaction rates [Renner et al., 2003] and rapid expulsion of the melt from the dunite. Based on laboratory experiments, the effective viscosity, $\eta=\eta_{\text {re }} \exp (-\alpha \phi)$ of a dunite with $\phi=6 \%$ would be a factor of 8 lower than a melt-free olivine aggregate $\eta_{\text {ref }}(\alpha=30-40)$ [Hirth and Kohlstedt, 2003; Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1995]. Localized deformation in the dunites as a result of a viscosity reduction is inconsistent with the porphyroclastic and coarse granular textures observed in the wide dunites [Braun and Hirth, in prep]. Rather than plastic deformation of the solid, high porosities can increase the compaction rate such that the volumetric strain rate due to the expulsion of melt exceeds that of the deforming solid. The volumetric strain rate,

$$
\dot{\varepsilon} \approx \frac{K}{\mu \delta_{c}} \Delta P
$$

is dependent upon the permeability, $K$, the melt viscosity, $\mu$, and the length scale, $\delta_{c}$, over which a pressure gradient, $\Delta P$, can be transmitted. The compaction length scale as defined by [McKenzie, 1984] is

$$
\delta_{c}=\sqrt{\frac{\eta}{\mu} K} .
$$



Figure 4. Total flux as a function of porosity through an interconnected network of dunites with the abundances measured in Oman for four different permeability models as compared to the observed mid-ocean ridge magma flux (gray box). The total melt flux through the network, $J_{i}$, is shown as a solid line, and the unequilibrated melt flux, $J_{u}$, (defined in the text) is shown as a dashed line. a) Model 1: Given a constant grain size ( $d=2 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) and porosity in all dunites, the fraction of unequilibrated melt $\left(J_{\mu} / J_{t}\right)$ is only $22 \%$. (b) Model 2 : With constant porosity, and grain size dependent on dunite width (7), the total flux increases and $67 \%$ of the flux remains unequilibrated. (c) Model 3: Grain size is constant ( $d=2 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) and porosity varies with dunite width as described by (8). The $x$-axis defines the maximum porosity in the widest dunite. The total flux is smaller but more remains unequilibrated. (d) Model 4: Total flux when both grain size and porosity vary with dunite width (9). In this model, the mid-ocean ridge fluxes are matched at moderate porosities and nearly all the flux remains unequilibrated.


Figure 5. (a) Permeability and (b) velocity for each of the four models. In all cases, the porosity (or maximum porosity) is $3 \%$ and the grain size is 2 mm where held constant. Only the model which incorporates grain size and porosity variations satisfies both the melt velocity constraints imposed by the observation of ${ }^{230} \mathrm{Th}$ excesses (gray box) and maintains a significant fraction of unequilibrated melts (figure 4).

For $\phi=6 \%, \mu=40 \mathrm{~Pa} \cdot \mathrm{~s}$, and $\Delta P=\Delta \rho g$, the compaction length is $\sim 2 \mathrm{~km}$ and $\dot{\varepsilon}=8 \times 10^{-12} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$. Therefore, dunites would compact at a rate more than 800 times faster than the surrounding mantle is deforming ( $\sim 10^{-14} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ), rapidly expelling melt and reducing the porosity. Smaller porosities would mitigate the viscosity reduction and/or compaction
rate effects. However, the melt velocities would fall well below those required by the magma flux (figure 4 c ) and ${ }^{230} \mathrm{Th}$ excess (figure 5 b ) constraints.

Model 4: To account for the observed grain size variations as well as the flux conservation constraints, Model 4 combines the grain size variation with dunite width with the porosity variations inferred from the dunite size/frequency statistics. Substituting both (7) and (8) into (3) and reintegrating (6) yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{t o t}=\frac{D a L \Delta \rho g}{\eta C} \frac{\phi_{\max }^{n} p^{n}}{w_{\max }^{D}(2 m+1)}\left[w_{\max }^{2 m+1}-w_{\min }^{2 m+1}\right] . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

The porosity decrease with decreasing width reduces the total melt flux relative to Model 2 , satisfying the mid-ocean ridge flux requirement over a wide range of $\phi_{\max }(2-5 \%)$ (figure 4 d ). Additionally, $\sim 99 \%$ of the total melt flux remains unequilibrated because of the high permeabilities (figure 5a) associated with the combined porosity and grain size increases. As a result, the melt velocities meet or exceed the ${ }^{230} \mathrm{Th}$ velocity constraints in all dunites greater than $\sim 8 \mathrm{~m}$ wide even with only $3 \%$ porosity in the widest dunite (figure 5b).

## 3. Uncertainties in Dunite Grain Size and Abundance

This thesis represents the first systematic investigation of dunite microstructure, composition, distribution, and abundance. However, these data are not complete and thus the permeabilities models presented here accompanied by two key uncertainties. First, the characterization of the olivine grain size distributions is limited to only a few dunites which makes definitive correlations with dunite width difficult. Second, the exact proportion of dunites in the shallow mantle is unknown [Kelemen et al, 1997]. In light of these uncertainties, we can estimate the sensitivity of the calculations presented above on the assumed grain size and dunite proportion.

It is uncertain whether or not the small grains in wide dunites (e.g. figure 1c) were part of the high temperature deformation texture and therefore present when the dunite was an active melt conduit. Although grains smaller than $\sim 2 \mathrm{~mm}$ exhibit an LPO with the same sense of shear as large grains and consistent with deformation at geologic strain
rates ( $\sim 10^{-14} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ) by dislocation-accommodated grain boundary sliding at $1000-1300^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ [Braun and Hirth, in prep], it is possible that they formed during dynamic recrystallization at much lower temperature $\left(800-1000^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)$ and commensurately higher stress ( $\sim 100-10 \mathrm{MPa}$, respectively). If it were the case that the small grains formed after the dunites were active melt conduits, then the large grains in the wide dunites directly reflect the grain size which controls the permeability rather than the area-defined value reported here.


Figure 6. Changes in the unequilibrated melt flux relative to the estimated ridge flux (gray box) based on potential variations in the permeability model. For reasonable variations in grain size and dunite abundance, a interconnected network of dunites can supply an adequate magma flux to form the oceanic crust. Increasing olivine grain size, $d$, increases the flux in (a) the constant grain size model relative to (b) the model in which grain size varies with width as measured in thin section. For either (c) a fixed grain size or (d) a power-law grain size distribution, increasing the total percentage of the mantle occupied by dunites increases the total flux. Solid lines are for $d=2 \mathrm{~mm}$, dashed for $d=10 \mathrm{~mm}$. Even if dunites represent only $1 \%$ of the shallow mantle, Model 4 still satisfies the mid-ocean ridge melt flux constraints.

Figure $6 \mathrm{a} \& \mathrm{~b}$ examines the effects of variations in grain size on the melt flux assuming a fixed dunite abundance of $10 \%$. Increasing the grain size from 2 to 10 mm increases the total melt flux predicted by Model 3 by nearly two orders of magnitude. If the wide dunites are populated entirely by grains $\sim 10 \mathrm{~mm}$ in diameter, then a maximum porosity of only $2-5 \%$ in the widest dunites is required to satisfy the mid-ocean ridge
magma flux constraint. In contrast, if the dunite grain size is only 2 mm , then the required porosities would be significantly higher, as discussed above. The melt flux predicted by Model 4 would remain unchanged, since the grain size is assumed to be a function of the dunite width. Insufficient data exist to better constrain the potential variation in the power-law exponent, $m$, in (7). With the current observations, Model 4 satisfies the mid-ocean ridge melt flux constraint with maximum porosities in the widest dunites between approximately 2 and $5 \%$.

Dunite abundance as measured directly from field observations range from 5-15\% averaged over the available exposures in Oman [Boudier, 1981 \#210; Lippard, 1986 \#211], with higher proportions of dunite in individual clusters [Braun, 2002 \#6422]. However, Kelemen et al [, 1997 \#32] argue that the transposed mantle near the base of the crust contains the core of what previously was the upwelling mantle in the melting region. Therefore, the dunites observed in the field may well represent all the dunites that existed in the melting region. If the exposed stratigraphic thickness in Oman is about $10 \%$ of the total height of the melting column, then the abundance of dunites in the melting region may be as low as $1 \%$.

Figure $6 \mathrm{c} \mathrm{\& d}$ illustrates the effect of dunite abundance on the predicted flux of unequilibrated melt. If the total proportion of dunites in the melting region were as low $1 \%$ then Model 3 could not satisfy the mid-ocean ridge magma flux constraint at realistic porosities. However, if the grain size were 10 mm then a mantle with $1 \%$ dunite could match the observed ridge flux. In the case where both grain size and porosity vary as function of dunite width, a mantle with $1 \%$ dunite could meet the observed ridge flux, but porosities in wide dunites would be quite large, especially at fast spreading ridges.

## 4. Independent Melt Flux Constraints

The inferred increase in melt flux associated with the increase in permeability is consistent with the geochemical composition of dunites which provide a proxy for the amount of melt which passed through them [Braun and Kelemen, in prep]. Analyses of dunites from Oman show systematic variations in composition with dunite width. With
increasing width, the olivine Mg \# decreases, the Ni content drops and both the $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ content and Cr\# of spinels increase markedly. The widest dunites have compositions which are in major, minor, and to a lesser extent, trace element equilibrium with the liquid parental to the Oman basalts.

Mass balance calculations for interaction between residual harzburgite and the liquid parental to the Oman lavas can reproduce these systematic variations with increasing amounts of melt-rock reaction. Reactive porous flow dissolves orthopyroxene (opx), precipitates olivine, and increases the liquid mass [Kelemen, 1990], all of which is recorded by variations in the olivine Mg . Because of its relatively high $\mathrm{Mg} \#$, the dissolution of opx contributes more Mg than Fe to the remaining phases. Additionally, based on the relative partitioning of Fe and Mg between melt and olivine [Gaetani and Grove, 1998], Mg is preferentially incorporated into the olivine while the liquid becomes an increasingly large reservoir for Fe . Because opx has only a trace amount of Ni , the increase in olivine mass by reaction serves only to dilute the NiO concentration. Additionally, the contribution of Cr from the dissolving opx and the liquid dramatically increases the spinel $\mathrm{Cr} \#$ during reaction. Once opx dissolution is complete, interaction of the resulting dunite with an increasing volume of melt drives the Mg \# and NiO content down toward equilibrium with the primitive liquid. Similarly, the $\mathrm{TiO}_{2}$ content in the spinel increases until it reaches equilibrium with the primitive liquid. While the composition of the narrow dunites suggests only about 1-2 times the rock mass in liquid passed through, the composition of the widest dunites is consistent with time-integrated melt-rock ratios as high as 1000 .

The range in the time-integrated melt-rock ratio inferred from geochemistry is larger than that predicted solely by variations in permeability. The melt-rock ratio over the life of the dunite is up to $10^{3}$ times larger in wide dunites than narrow ones. However, the instantaneous melt flux as inferred from the permeability is only $\sim 100$ times larger in wide dunites. Therefore, large dunites must form earlier (i.e. deeper in the melting column) and remain active longer than small ones. This notion is consistent with dunite growth with time by reaction along their margins and with grain growth models
which require more time to grow the larger grains in wider dunites. Additionally, the formation of high permeability dunites high in the melting column

## Conclusions

Dunite size/frequency statistics coupled with observed systematic grain size variations in Oman peridotites provide a framework to determine the melt capacity of a network of porous dunite conduits and their ability to preserve major element disequilibrium with the shallow mantle and excess radiogenic ${ }^{230} \mathrm{Th}$ observed in MORB. Four permeability models are examined with respect to their ability to satisfy these chemical and volumetric constraints. The model in which both porosity and grain size vary systematically with dunite width produces both an unequilibrated melt flux sufficient to generate 6 km of oceanic crustal gabbro and the high melt velocities required to maintain ${ }^{230} \mathrm{Th}$ excesses with sustainable maximum porosities consistent with microstructural constraints. The grain size and dunite width distributions imply that the permeability of dunites ranges from less than $10^{-16} \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ for dunites narrower than 100 cm to as high as $10^{-11} \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ in dunites 100 m wide. Based on the distribution of porosity and grain size in a interconnected network of porous dunites which conserve flux, the bulk of the melt transport is accommodated in conduits with permeabilities between $1.5 \times 10^{-13}$ and $1.7 \times 10^{-11} \mathrm{~m}^{2}$.

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