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2	Petrogenetic implications of chromite-seeded boninite crystallization experiments:
3	Providing a basis for chromite-melt diffusion chronometry in an oxybarometric context
4	^{1*} Daniel A. Coulthard Jr., ¹ Georg F. Zellmer, ² Akihiko Tomiya, ³ Sébastien Jégo, ¹ Raimundo
5	Brahm
6	¹ Volcanic Risk Solutions, School of Agriculture and Environment, Massey University,
7	Private Bag 11 222, 4414 Palmerston North, New Zealand; g.f.zellmer@massey.ac.nz,
8	r.brahm@massey.ac.nz
9	² Geological Survey of Japan, Advanced Institute of Science and Technology Tsukuba Central
10	7, 1-1-1 Higashi, Tsukuba, Ibaraki 305-8567, Japan; a.tomiya@aist.go.jp
11	³ Institut des Sciences de la Terre d'Orléans, UMR 7327, CNRS/INSU-Université d'Orléans-
12	BRGM, 1A rue de la Férollerie, 45071 Orléans, France; s_jego@hotmail.com
13	*Corresponding author: d.a.coulthard@massey.ac.nz, phone: +64 21 168 1669
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18	
19	ABSTRACT

20 Boninites are rare high magnesium andesites that often contain trace chromites. These 21 chromites precipitate from primitive boninitic melts and are thought to be carried to the 22 surface in melts that continue to crystallize a significant volume of silicate minerals. Such 23 magmatic differentiation drives primitive chromite out of equilibrium with the residual melt with respect to both divalent and trivalent cation proportions. Diffusion then operates to alter 24 25 primitive chromite toward a composition in equilibrium with residual melt. To simulate this 26 process, we have performed internally heated pressure vessel experiments, providing insights 27 into the processes of chromite-melt re-equilibration through time. While Fe-Mg exchange at 28 magmatic temperatures equilibrates the tetrahedrally coordinated divalent cations in chromite 29 in less than 6 hours, equilibration of trivalent cations in octahedral coordination with residual 30 melts is slower. Our experimental results show that chromite Al concentrations are ubiquitously lower, and Fe^{2+}/Fe^{3+} values are ubiquitously higher than modelled equilibrium 31 values, indicating that there was insufficient time for significant Al and Fe³⁺ replacement of 32 33 Cr. Similar observations can be made for natural chromite compositions in the extrusive 34 sequence of the Troodos ophiolite (Cyprus). Based on a simple model of diffusive 35 equilibration, we estimate that microphenocrystic chromites up to 60 µm in diameter take between 60 days and c. 170 years to equilibrate under conditions analogous to the 36 37 physiochemical state of melt immediately prior to eruption. For the Troodos ophiolite extrusive sequence, this implies that mafic magmas are erupted less than c. 170 years after 38 39 extraction from the mantle for disequilibrium textures and compositions to be preserved.

40 1. INTRODUCTION

Boninites are rare high magnesium andesites that are produced by the melting of highly
depleted mantle (harzburgite) under shallow and hydrous conditions (Pearce and Reagan,
2019). The paucity of this rock type in the geologic record may be attributed to the exotic

44 nature of these petrogenetic conditions and/or the tendency of boninites to erupt in places 45 with a low preservation potential (e.g. forearc regions, Stern and Bloomer, 1992). Nevertheless, boninites are generated in several tectonic settings including intraoceanic arcs 46 47 (Meijer, 1980), intracontinental arcs (Tatsumi, 2006), back-arc basins (Falloon et al., 1992), and oceanic plateaus (Golowin et al., 2017). Additionally, several boninites have been found 48 49 in ophiolite terranes (e.g. Bédard, 1999; Cameron, 1985; Dilek and Thy, 2009; Ishikawa et al., 2002; Meffre et al., 1996), though the tectonic settings of some ophiolites are topics of 50 51 rigorous debate (cf. Gass, 1968; Metcalf and Shervais, 2008; Miyashiro, 1973; Moores et al., 52 2000; Pearce and Robinson, 2010; Regelous et al., 2014; Woelki et al., 2020; Woelki et al., 2018). 53

54 A cogenetic relationship between boninitic melt and podiform chromitite deposits found in 55 some ophiolitic mantle sections has been hypothesized (Arai, 1997; Arai and Yurimoto, 1994, 1995; Rollinson, 2008; Rollinson et al., 2018; Zhou and Robinson, 1997; Zhou et al., 56 1994). With regard to podiform chromitite formation, it has been suggested that primitive 57 hydrous melts react with depleted mantle, become silica-enriched via the incongruent melting 58 of orthopyroxene (implying olivine crystallization), and crystallize a large volume of high-59 60 Cr# chromite due to change in the number of available melt octahedral sites (Edwards et al., 2000). Separately, mechanisms of chromitite formation have been experimentally explored 61 assuming immiscibility between melt-melt or melt-fluid components (Ballhaus, 1998; 62 63 Matveev and Ballhaus, 2002). Initial immiscibility has been observed in other experimental studies that focused on the formation of boninitic melts via the same petrogenetic mechanism 64 65 (i.e. incongruent melting, Fisk, 1986), and the boninitic composition of melts are preserved in equilibrium experiments that simulate melt-peridotite reactions (Mitchell and Grove, 2016). It 66 is noteworthy that one experiment (C608) of Mitchell and Grove (2016) not only produced 67 boninite melt in equilibrium with a dunite residual mantle mineral assemblage, but that the 68

composition of the residual mineral assemblage overlaps with the most depleted end of the
olivine-spinel mantle array in compositional space (Arai, 1994). Ultimately, few studies have
explicitly attempted to reconcile the links between boninite magma genesis, chromitite
formation, and/or, more generally, chromite crystallization (Arai, 1997; Arai and Yurimoto,
1994, 1995; Rollinson, 2008; Rollinson et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 1994; Zhou et al., 1996).

If boninitic melts are generated during concomitant olivine and chromite precipitation as described above, then the appearance of high-Cr# chromite (and forsteritic olivine) in boninites may be due to their removal from a mantle domain rather than crystallization from extracted melts in the crustal domain, where chromite has not been observed to crystallize under experimental conditions analogous to those that are realistic for primitive melt differentiation (e.g. pressures > 1 bar, Umino and Kushiro, 1989).

It is important to specify the full implications of this model of boninite + chromitite 80 81 petrogenesis, namely that boninite and chromitite appear to be linked by a cogenetic 82 relationship based on observations of each in ophiolitic assemblages, that the underlying 83 relationship is essentially a reactive transport process that occurs in the shallow subarc mantle, and that information on such processes may be inferred by detailed studies of 84 85 chromite-melt or chromite-olivine-melt geochemistry; the systematics of which are preserved to different degrees in natural volcanic and plutonic suites (e.g. Kamenetsky et al., 2001). 86 87 Further, if chromites are plucked from the melt-mantle petrogenetic system, then their melt 88 inclusions (e.g. Kamenetsky et al., 2002; Umino et al., 2018; Umino et al., 2015) may give 89 valuable information regarding the nature of magma genesis in the reactive transport regime.

In the present study, we conducted a series of high-pressure (*c*. 2 kbar) experiments to create
systems wherein high silica boninite crystallized over brief time periods in the presence of
stable chromite. The data presented here demonstrate that chromite is little affected by

93 crystallization processes over short timescales unless unrealistically oxidizing conditions are 94 imposed. Silicate mineral assemblages form via equilibrium crystallization in hydrous melts 95 without significantly altering chromite compositions save for Mg-Fe exchange when buffered 96 near the nickel-nickel oxide (NNO) buffer. We propose that the systems represented by these 97 experiments may be regarded as approximations of what occurs in natural chromite-bearing 98 primary melts during their crustal differentiation (Scowen et al., 1991). Similar observations on partial chromite-melt equilibration in natural samples from the Troodos ophiolite (Cyprus) 99 100 allow a coarse quantification of the extraction time for the mafic magmas of the extrusive 101 suite, but more detailed diffusion chronometry on the chemical zonation patterns of natural chromites will be required to provide tight constraints. 102

103 2. MATERIALS AND EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

104 Crystallization experiments were performed using internally heated pressure vessels (IHPVs)
105 at the Institut des Sciences de la Terre d'Orléans (ISTO), Université d'Orléans, France, as
106 well as at the Geological Survey of Japan (GSJ) in Tsukuba, Japan. Additional sample
107 preparation took place at ISTO and at the Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and
108 Technology (JAMSTEC) in Yokosuka, Japan.

109 2.1. Starting materials

Table 1 provides major element data for the starting materials as well as the bulk composition of the mixture used for the experiments. Analyses of the starting materials are given alongside sample data in the supplemental Tables S1 and S2. A fragment of high-Si boninite taken via dredging from the Mariana forearc (sample YK0612 974-R6, Reagan et al., 2010) was chosen as a suitable starting material based on observed chromite phenocrysts and microphenocrysts in thin section, which indicated chromite stability. The fragment was powdered and fluxed to form glass, which was analysed during our routine spectrometric

117 analysis (BO-G, Table S1) and re-powdered for sample loading. Chromite seeds sourced from the mantle section of the Troodos Ophiolite were added to glass powders with the intent 118 119 of fostering further growth of chromite from boninitic melts. These seeds are unzoned and are homogeneous (avg. Mg# = 62, Cr/[Al+Cr+Fe³⁺] = 70). Two sample mixtures were made by 120 mixing powdered glass with one size fraction of chromite (either >160 μ m or < 32 μ m in 121 122 size), and each starting mixture contained 2% added chromite (by mass). The size of the seeds added to powdered glass were initially varied in order to test if seed size affects the 123 124 resultant modal mineralogy of the sample.

125 Nominally pure platinum capsules were used as sample containers. Sample mixtures were first loaded and then hydrated with heavy water (²H₂O) using a microsyringe before the 126 capsules were welded shut. Each capsule contained c. 1 wt% $^{2}H_{2}O$ prior to welding (Table 2). 127 ²H₂O was used instead of ¹H₂O to allow future analysis of water using secondary ion mass 128 129 spectrometry, with this substitution enabling easy distinction between added water and 130 background hydrogen. The quality of the welds was checked by immersing each capsule in hot oil. All capsules were adequately sealed (poor welds emit a bubble stream, indicating an 131 inadequate seal). 132

NiO+NiPd redox sensors added to each experiment allowed for the hydrogen fugacity (fH_2) imposed by the IHPV pressure medium to be evaluated, as redox sensors accurately reflect the oxygen fugacity (fO_2) imposed by the gas buffer (Pownceby and O'Neill, 1994; Taylor et al., 1992). These sensors were made by packing two pellets into inert ZrO₂ powder within a platinum capsule so that the pellets are not in contact with the capsule wall. One pellet was made of 50% NiO and 50% Ni_xPd_{1-x} and the other was made of 50% NiO and 50% Ni_yPd_{1-y}, with x = 0.5 and y = 0.85. Deionized water was added until the capsule interior became

visibly saturated. Then the capsule was welded shut. Welds were checked in the same wayfor the sensors as they were for the sample capsules.

142 2.2. Experimental design

143 The IHPVs used at ISTO and GSJ both employed molybdenum furnaces to perform the high 144 temperature experiments described here. Since the same amount of water was initialized in each sample, by varying the temperature of the experiments between 1200, 1150, and 1100°C. 145 variable degrees of crystallinity are achieved in each sample. This determines the 146 147 concentration of water in residual melts, as the crystallization of nominally anhydrous mafic 148 minerals enriches the melt volume in incompatible volatile elements. The experiments were performed under isobaric conditions, which means the final variable to consider is the fO_2 of 149 150 the system.

151 Target oxygen fugacities were c. 1-3 log units above the NNO buffer, which are analogous to 152 magmas generated in subduction zone settings (Brandon and Draper, 1996; Evans et al., 153 2012; Kelley and Cottrell, 2009; Parkinson and Arculus, 1999). The oxidation states were 154 either left unbuffered or buffered by pressurizing the IHPV with an Ar-H₂ gas mixture $(pH_2^{added}, Table 2)$. Pt capsules are permeable to hydrogen, which diffuses through the 155 capsule wall to bond with oxygen in the melt so that reduction of the sample volume occurs 156 157 (Chou et al., 1978; Shaw, 1963). Since the volume of the pressure medium is much greater than the volume of the sample capsule, the pressure medium is effectively an infinite 158 159 reservoir with respect to hydrogen. Thus, the effective concentration of hydrogen available to 160 each capsule during a given experiment, fH_2 , may be considered constant. Unbuffered 161 experiments cause the redox state of melts to approach a condition known as the intrinsic fO_2 162 of the IHPV. The intrinsic fO_2 of IHPV systems is highly oxidizing (NNO+2 to NNO+4, 163 Scaillet et al., 1992; Taylor et al., 1992, see further discussion in Supplemental Text 1).

164	The experiments described here each lasted less than 6 hours. The utility of short-period
165	experiments is multifaceted. From a volcanological perspective, fast ascending magmas are
166	extracted from their crustal domains and extruded onto the surface in as little as tens of
167	minutes (Lloyd et al., 2016) when melts are hot (>1000°C) and volatile rich. Short timescales
168	of the order of hours to days have also been inferred for volatile poor arc magmas (Lormand
169	et al., 2020). In a rapidly ascending melt, a variety of concomitant processes may alter the
170	physiochemical state of the melt volume, including syn-eruptive mixing (e.g. Tomiya et al.,
171	2013; Wolf and Eichelberger, 1997), crystallization (e.g. Blundy and Cashman, 2005;
172	Cashman and Blundy, 2000), and whole-rock contamination (e.g. Mattioli et al., 2006). Such
173	processes, along with subtleties such as the inclusion of antecrystic minerals, produce
174	disequilibrium mineral assemblages that provide valuable insight into the latest stages of
175	magmatism (Couch et al., 2001; La Spina et al., 2016; Ubide et al., 2014; Zellmer et al.,
176	2016; Zellmer et al., 2014). Thus, for natural magmatic systems, brief durations on the order
177	of hours represent an end member in an ascent period context, and disequilibrium
178	characteristics may be useful if properly placed into a petrogenetic context. Given boninite
179	petrogenesis occurs at relatively shallow depths and generates hot and hydrous melts,
180	sometimes in extensional settings (Reagan et al., 2017), rapid ascent rates cannot be
181	precluded. Furthermore, since it is possible that chromites preserved in boninite matrices may
182	have been generated within the source regions of the melts, knowledge of how these minerals
183	react to changes in the physiochemical states of the melts (i.e. experimental observation) is
184	needed in order to assess and contextualize natural sample materials. These considerations
185	provide an incentive to perform experiments on brief timescales and to analyse
186	disequilibrium features.

3. ANALYTICAL METHODS

Analytical facilities at Victoria University of Wellington, Hokkaido University, Massey 188 189 University, and The University of Iowa were utilized to gather the data presented here. 190 Following removal of the sample holder from the IHPV, each capsule was weighed to assess 191 for mass loss during the experiment. The capsules were then mounted in epoxy and ground to 192 expose their interiors. Ni-Pd alloys recovered from each sensor capsule was separated from powdered ZrO₂ and mounted in epoxy. These sample materials were then polished for 193 194 imaging and microprobe analysis, using SiC lapwheels and diamond grit paste. *Electron microbeam techniques* 195 3.1. 196 Samples produced at ISTO were imaged using an FEI Quanta 200 Environmental scanning 197 electron microscope (SEM) at the Manawatu Microscopy and Imaging Centre (Massey 198 University). This SEM was also used to perform semi-quantitative analyses of calcic silicate 199 minerals using an attached EDAX energy dispersive spectroscope (EDS). Samples produced 200 at GSJ were imaged at the Creative Research Institute of Hokkaido University using a JEOL 201 JSM-7000F Field Emission SEM. An attached XMAX 150 EDS was used here to analyse the capsule Pt walls in contact with sample melts in order to detect iron loss after each 202 203 experiment (Supplemental Text 2, Table S3). Quantification of Fe in Pt was achieved by 204 calibrating signal intensity to pure Co.

Electron probe microanalysis (EPMA) occurred at multiple laboratories: at Victoria
University of Wellington and The University of Iowa, JEOL JXA-8230 Superprobes were
used. Additional chromite analyses were performed at Hokkaido University on a JEOL JXA8800R. Glass analyses were performed using Na-migration mitigation techniques. In addition
to using diffuse beam conditions (spot sizes of 5-10 µm), two Na acquisitions are totalled. If
analyses return low concentrations (determined using secondary standards), then sodium loss
may be corrected by either: removing the second acquisition (if Na is lost), removing either

212 point (if either indicates loss), or back-calculating time-resolved intensity to correct for Na

213 loss. No analyses reported here experienced significant sodium migration as indicated by

- 214 multiple analyses of both sample and standard materials.
- 215 Secondary standards provided by the Smithsonian Institution Department of Mineral Sciences
- and/or the Max Planck Institute for Chemistry were included in all glass and mineral
- analyses. Ni-Pd sensor compositions were quantified using metal standards by Astimex.

218 Repeat analyses of secondary standards provided a basis to assess the accuracy of data

219 gathered during EPMA (Tables S1-S2, and S4). The accuracies associated with glass analyses

have been determined to be within 1% for SiO₂, Al₂O₃, MgO, and CaO, 5% for TiO₂, FeO,

and K₂O, 10% for Na₂O, and 20% for MnO. For analyses of silicate minerals, SiO₂, MgO,

222 CaO, and Na₂O are accurate to within 1%, while FeO, Cr₂O₃, MnO, and Al₂O₃ are better than

223 2%. Chromite standardization was achieved using several mineral and oxide standards.

224 Replicate standard analyses demonstrated that all major elements given are accurate to within

5%, while MnO is accurate to within 40%. Secondary standard compositions are taken from

226 Jarosewich et al. (1980); Jochum et al. (2006); and Jochum et al. (2005).

227 To ensure analyses of pyroxene were of high quality, raw EPMA data were normalized prior

to formulae recalculation using the methods described by Putirka (2008). Analyses that

returned cation totals much greater than or less than 4 (on an O = 6 basis) were discarded. In

a similar manner, raw chromite analyses were recalculated to cation proportions per 4

- 231 oxygens. Recalculation of ferric iron proportions used the equation of Droop (1987). No
- 232 other multivalent cations (e.g. Mn, Cr) were considered.

233 3.2. Determination of phase proportions

In order to provide high-precision phase proportion data, a computationally inexpensive
 machine learning tool enabled the analysis of backscattered electron (BSE) images and

236	produced segmented images that we interpreted in terms of phase proportions using Adobe
237	Photoshop. Segmented images are images that have been petrographically interpreted using a
238	machine learning algorithm and are color-coded based on which phase each pixel represents
239	(Supplemental Text 3). The machine learning tool used is called Trainable Weka
240	Segmentation, and was developed by Arganda-Carreras et al. (2017). The algorithm requires
241	limited user input (5-8 user-defined groups of pixels) to "train" the computer-generated
242	classifier, which segments as many mineral phases as the user defines This tool produced the
243	segmented images used to infer the phase proportions given in Table 2. The tool is provided
244	as a plugin on the Fiji Is Just ImageJ (FIJI) platform (Schindelin et al., 2012). A minimum of
245	5 training sessions were conducted for each analysis, and the data derived from each
246	segmented image were averaged to produce the given proportions with the calculated
247	standard deviation providing the precision of each phase classification. Images representative
248	of the sample textures were used for segmentation. See Supplemental Text 3 for more
249	information and an example of a segmented image.

250 3.3. Determination of oxygen fugacities from the solid sensors

Fugacity calculations were performed following the methodology of Scaillet et al. (1995).
Sensor compositions, *X*Ni (Ni/[Ni+Pd] calculated using cation proportion), were determined
following EPMA. Further discussion of fugacity, including the calculation methodology, is
provided in the Supplemental Text 1.

255 **4. RESULTS**

256 Weighing the capsules after quench indicated that no mass was lost during any experiment.

257 Table 2 gives information on each sample including the mixture used, initial water

concentration, experimental conditions, resultant phase proportions inferred for each sample,

259 sensor compositions, and fO_2 data.

The capsule interiors of every sample except for Bon1200Ub were analysed via EDS in order to assess the degree of iron loss from the melt to the Pt of the capsule wall. Line analyses from the sample-wall contact into the capsule wall yielded no detectable iron *c*. 30 µm from the interface. Integrating concentration profiles demonstrates that iron loss in unbuffered experiments is limited to 10% or lower (of bulk sample Fe), while buffered experiments lost 20-35% Fe over experiment durations (Supplemental Text 2, Table S3). However, we will demonstrate that none of our discussion topics have been significantly affected by iron loss.

267 4.1. Petrographic observations

Euhedral-subhedral orthopyroxene (opx) is abundant and is the only silicate phase present at 268 269 1200°C and 1150°C (Figure 1A). In BSE images, these crystals often have bright caps that 270 form at the apices of euhedral crystal forms (Figure 1B). At 1100°C, a petrographically distinct trace silicate phase was observed along with abundant opx in Bon1100U (Figure 1C). 271 272 Semi-quantitative EDS analyses of this phase demonstrate that this silicate is rich in Ca, Mg, 273 and Fe. If it is a pyroxene, it is likely augite (c. $Wo_{31} En_{57} Fs_{12}$). Chromite is stable in all boninitic samples, and BSE images of moderate-sized grains show that chromite mantles 274 275 have become brighter than cores (Figure 1D), indicating that diffusive equilibration was interrupted by quenching in large grains. In general, all chromites appear as anhedral grains 276 277 with sharp-subrounded corners. These are not indications of chromite growth, suggesting that all observed chromites are the original seeds added to each experiment. Likewise, there is no 278 279 evidence of dissolution, which indicates that chromite was a stable phase for the full duration 280 of each experiment. This implies that our experiments only produced pyroxene crystallization 281 in the presence of stable chromite.

A small number of micro-vesicles occur in all boninitic samples (e.g. Figure 1A). The vesicles are spherical and show no indication of clustering. They appear randomly distributed

within the sample volume. No vapour films were observed along any of the capsule walls.

285 4.2. Redox sensors and calculation of imposed fO_2

282

283

Average XNi values were calculated for each sensor and used to infer sensor fO_2 for each 286 287 experiment. For water undersaturated sample melts, aH₂O must be modelled in order to accurately calculate fO_2 . To this end, the activity model of Burnham (1979) was used in 288 289 conjunction with major element data and inferred melt water concentrations (Supplemental 290 Text 1) to model aH_2O . The uncertainties reported here for fO_2 are similar to those reported 291 elsewhere for the solid sensor technique (Jégo et al., 2010; Scaillet et al., 1995). The solubility model of Zhang et al. (2007) was used to calculate maximum water concentrations 292 293 in residual melts under the experimental conditions, which correspond to c. 5.3-5.4 wt%. 294 According to these model constraints, boninitic melts did not reach saturation (Table 2), and 295 the ubiquitous presence of micro-vesicles (Figure 1A) is therefore not due to water saturation 296 (exsolution) but likely due to the inclusion of atmospheric gas in the sample capsules during 297 preparation.

298 Complexities associated with quench crystallization were observed in samples Bon1200Ua 299 Bon1200Ub, Bon1200Ba and Bon1200Bb and are discussed later. A principal effect of 300 quench crystallization is to raise aH_2O in residual melts. Thus, for these high-T samples, the 301 reported fO_2 data are considered maxima.

302 4.3. Compositional Data

303	Representative compositional data are given in Table 3. Full sample datasets for each phase,
304	including secondary standard analyses, data compiled from the literature, and model data, are
305	given in Tables S1-S2 and S4. Literature data cited for comparison are provided in Table S5.
306	4.3.1. Glass compositions
307	Residual melts formed andesitic glasses, the compositions of which are given with other
308	experimental products in Table 3. These glasses are depleted in FeO, MnO, MgO, and Cr_2O_3
309	relative to both the initial boninite glass as well as the bulk composition of the system
310	(Table 1). SiO ₂ , CaO, Al ₂ O ₃ , Na ₂ O, K ₂ O, and TiO ₂ are enriched in residual melt during every
311	experiment, which is consistent with extensive opx crystallization.
312	The two experiments conducted at high temperature (Bon1200U and Bon1200B) returned
313	four samples with glasses containing low MgO concentrations relative to those from
314	experiments conducted at 1150°C. This is counterintuitive, because the crystallization of opx
315	at higher temperature should produce a lower proportion of minerals relative to lower
316	temperatures, and overall depletion of MgO and FeO relative to the initial glass composition
317	should be smaller. Additionally, glass compositions inferred for sample Bon1200Ua indicate
318	a high degree of heterogeneity beyond the limit of analytical uncertainty, consistent with
319	inefficient quenching producing local melt heterogeneity. These data, along with relatively
320	high melt K ₂ O concentrations and the presence of abundant rim formation on opx grains
321	within these samples (Figure 1B) indicate that a significant degree of quench crystallization
322	has occurred in the high temperature experiments. These observations are absent from all
323	experiments conducted at 1150-1100°C, which suggests that quenching was efficient in these
324	latter experiments and that no quench crystallization occurred.

325 4.3.2. Pyroxene compositions

326 Opx formed under every temperature and redox condition imposed by the IHPV. In order to 327 confirm the identity of low-Ca pyroxenes as opx and not pigeonite, we calculated calcium 328 molar fractions for an opx-clinopyroxene (cpx) dividing line using equation 38 of Beattie et 329 al. (1991) with the experimental temperatures imposed within the IHPV as the single 330 independent variable. All pyroxene data presented here fall below these model values, which 331 confirms their identity as opx. Opx compositions are graphically illustrated in Figure 2. Plotted alongside these data are data taken from other experiments conducted using boninitic 332 333 bulk compositions (Tatsumi, 1981; Umino and Kushiro, 1989) and natural opx compositions 334 sourced from boninitic rocks (Mariana trench, Bloomer and Hawkins, 1987; Troodos ophiolite, Cameron, 1985; and Chichijima, Umino, 1986; Yajima and Fujimaki, 2001). 335 336 Opx Mg# (molar Mg/[Mg+Fe_{Total}]) positively correlates with temperature, and under buffered redox conditions is lower than in unbuffered products (Figure 2). Differences in MgO and 337 FeO concentrations observed in samples processed at 1200°C but different fO_2 are on the 338 339 order of 1-2 wt% for each element. Thus, lower Mg# is associated both with lower 340 temperature as well as lower fO₂. Minor oxide components in opx include CaO, Na₂O, Cr₂O₃, MnO, TiO₂, and Al₂O₃. The concentrations of each of these oxides are < 5 wt%, with 341 342 variation of some concentrations correlating with changes in the intensive parameters of the 343 IHPV. Higher cation proportions of Ca, Al, and Mn are observed in samples synthesized under lower temperatures (Figure 2). Cr₂O₃, Na₂O and TiO₂ concentrations are extremely low 344 in all pyroxenes, and potential variations in these oxides due to changes in temperature or 345 346 redox condition are imperceptible when considering the detection limits for these elements. 347 The effects of imposing variable redox conditions on the melt-opx partitioning of Ca, Al, and 348 Mn cannot be discerned for a given temperature interval because, with regard to these 349 elements, the mean core compositions for all opx synthesized at a given temperature are not observed to significantly change between high and low fO_2 . 350

When natural and other experimental opx compositions are compared to the experimentally synthesized opx presented here, the majority of natural and experimental opx compositions are similar to opx synthesized at 1200°C and under buffered *f*O₂ conditions in terms of their Mg#. Mn proportions broadly overlap with products of high temperature crystallization, while Al and Ca cation proportions from the literature are, respectively, somewhat lower and higher than our experimental products.

357 4.3.3. Chromite compositions

Initial seed chromite fragments were analysed by EPMA in order to determine if the chromitite pod could be considered homogeneous. Representative data are given in Table 1 with other starting material compositions. A single analysis revealed minimal enrichment of FeO and TiO₂ (Table S2). Because the level of enrichment is low and rarely observed, we consider the seed chromite to be homogeneous.

363 Experimental chromite compositions are chromium-rich, typically with 70 < Cr# < 81 (Cr# = molar Cr/[Cr+Al], Table 3), and compositional data are illustrated in Figure 3. Priority was 364 given to small seed chromites (c. 10-15 μ m in diameter) that were able to be analysed without 365 significant Si-contamination of the analysis volume from adjacent glass. This was because 366 the initial goal of adding seed chromite was to foster mineral growth from the boninitic 367 liquid. Since this likely did not occur, then the next best action was to analyse material that 368 369 most likely equilibrated with residual melts by the end of each experiment. Two samples 370 seeded with large chromite fragments (Bon1200Ua and Bon1200Ba) were observed to also 371 contain several small anhedral chromite fragments distributed among the opx crystals (possibly chromite powder contamination from the sieving process). Several of these were 372 373 analysed in Bon1200Ua, but no analyses of chromite in Bon1200Ba were determined to be

free of glass contamination based on high observed concentrations of Si, Ca, and, in somecases, Na. These data were rejected.

Compositions taken from the literature on boninite-hosted chromites sourced from the
Mariana trench wall (Bloomer and Hawkins, 1987), the Troodos ophiolite (Bailey et al.,
1991; Cameron, 1985; Flower and Levine, 1987; MacLeod, 1988; Thy and Xenophontos,
1991), Guam (Reagan and Meijer, 1984), and Chichijima (Umino, 1986) are provided for
comparison. Note that the chromites from Thy and Xenophontos (1991) are olivine-hosted
mineral inclusions.

In terms of trivalent cation proportions (i.e. Fe^{3+} , Al, and Cr), fO_2 buffered experiments 382 produced chromites with compositions that did not significantly change from the initial seed 383 384 composition (Figure 3A). Chromium is efficiently oxidized above NNO in iron-bearing melts 385 (Hanson and Jones, 1998). Thus, all Cr in chromite is Cr³⁺. However, some of these chromites have bright mantles that clearly indicate Fe enrichment (e.g. Figure 1D). Under 386 387 intrinsic fO_2 conditions corresponding to c. 3.2-4.0 log units above the NNO buffer and at 388 temperatures of 1200-1150°C (red and yellow diamonds on Fig. 3), significant amounts of Fe^{3+} were added to chromite, resulting in an enrichment of total FeO with concentrations > 20 389 wt%. For these samples, their trend on Figure 3A illustrates significant Fe³⁺-Al exchange 390 391 between chromite and melt, as the trend of core compositions runs sub-parallel to lines of 392 equal Cr proportion (which caused the observed increase in Cr# for these chromites). Because this trend is linear and the samples do not cluster, it is likely that the Fe³⁺-Al exchange 393 394 reaction failed to reach equilibrium. It is noteworthy that chromite grains in sample 395 Bon1100U appear to have lost very little Al during the experiments, as Al₂O₃ concentrations 396 are ≤ 1 wt% different from concentrations in the seed chromite, consistent with the observed invariance of their inferred Fe³⁺ contents. TiO₂ was consistently low in all chromites, 397

reaching a maximum value of 0.14 wt% under the lowest temperature setting (Bon1100U).

399 NiO concentrations were nearly constant throughout the dataset at c. 0.11 wt%.

400 The literature data lie on a separate trend on Figure 3A that is sub-parallel to lines of constant 401 Fe^{3+} proportion. Of these data, chromite inclusions in olivine from the Kythreotis locality (Troodos, Thy and Xenophontos, 1991) and matrix chromite from Guam appear to be the 402 403 most aluminous, while sample material from the Mariana Trench and Chichijima plot 404 together near the extreme Cr end of the ternary diagram along with other Troodos chromites. 405 In fact, chromite compositions from Troodos boninites and tholeiites span a wide range on 406 this diagram, plotting between the Kythreotis samples and the highly chromian composition observed for the Kapilio locality (Cameron, 1985). The similarity between some of the 407 chromites observed in Troodos boninites/tholeiites and the seed chromites from the plutonic 408 409 chromitite is noted, as it was by Cameron (1985).

410 In Figure 3B, Mg# (chromite Mg# = Mg/[Mg+Fe²⁺] using molar proportions) is plotted against Fe³⁺/[Fe³⁺+Cr+Al] (also calculated using molar proportions) in order to visualize the 411 412 effects of iron enrichment in a compositional space that is more representative of the spinel 413 (sensu lato, hereafter s.l.) solid solution. Again, it is evident that buffered experiments (squares) have the same Fe³⁺ proportion as seed chromite. However, it is apparent that some 414 Mg-Fe²⁺ exchange has occurred at 1150°C, which represents the rim formation reaction 415 416 observed in BSE images (vellow square). Thus, in fO₂ buffered experiments conducted at 1150°C, Fe²⁺ has been added to chromite and Mg has been lost to the melt. For a given 417 temperature, Mg# appears to decrease with Fe³⁺ incorporation. This is observed for samples 418 419 recovered from experiments Bon1200U and Bon1150U, which plot to higher Fe³⁺ relative to products of buffered experiments. Interestingly, natural chromite compositions observed in 420 421 the Troodos ophiolite span a slightly greater range of Mg# than the experimental products.

422 Included in these data are additional olivine-hosted chromite inclusion data from Sobolev et423 al. (1993) and Golowin et al. (2017).

424 **5. DISCUSSION**

425 5.1. Assessment of divalent cation distribution and equilibrium state between chromite426 opx-melt

427 Because the experiments described here did not produce any discernible chromite growth, 428 instead of discussing chromite crystallization, the following sections discuss the state and 429 kinetics of chromite equilibration. The physiochemical states imposed upon the boninite 430 system are analogous to a shallow-mid crust setting, and thus these experiments are ideally 431 suited to study the effects of chemical disequilibrium on compositional change as a function 432 of temperature and fO_2 over brief timescales in this setting.

Based on textural evidence, it is apparent that large seed chromites in the samples presented here failed to reach chemical equilibrium with their residual melts (Figure 1D). Since opx crystallization is the process that altered the major element composition of melts during each experiment, it is also the process that determines the extent to which chromite would have to interact with residual melt in order to reach an equilibrium state under the conditions imposed within the IHPV. Thus, it is important to qualify the relationship between opx and residual melt so that chromite-melt relationships can be confidently explored.

440 In order to test for opx-melt equilibrium, the methodology of Putirka (2008) was used.

441 Specifically, for a given sample, melt cation fractions were calculated (X_d^{liq} , Table S1) for

442 each glass analysis. From these values, $X_{\rm Si}^{liq}$ was used to calculate model equilibrium Fe-Mg

443 exchange coefficients (K_D, Table 4, Figure 4A) using the following relationship given by

444 Putirka (2008):

445

$K_D(Fe - Mg)^{opx - liq} = 0.4805 - 0.3733X_{Si}^{liq}$ Equation 1

446	An uncertainty (1 σ) of \pm 0.06 was attributed to these modelled K _D values, which is an order
447	of magnitude higher than the 1σ associated with the distribution of modelled K_D values given
448	in Table 4 and is illustrated as areas on Figure 4A. Observed K _D calculations employed molar
449	proportions for opx core analyses and average molar proportions for glass compositions.
450	Average K_D values (including 2σ error bars) for samples Bon1150U and Bon1150B plot
451	completely within their model areas, indicating that the opx sampled in these charges were in
452	equilibrium with their respective residual melts at the time of quenching. K_D values
453	calculated for three opx cores in sample Bon1100U produce an average K_D that is positioned
454	just outside of the model area. However, since the lower error bar stretches into the
455	uncertainty envelope as illustrated, it is reasonable to say that these crystals also equilibrated
456	with their residual melt. There are two negative effects of quench crystallization that
457	impacted K_D calculations and prevented us from determining whether opx in samples
458	processed at 1200°C were able to reach equilibrium or not. The first is the effect of raising
459	X_{Si}^{liq} , which occurred as quench crystals removed Mg, Fe, and Ca from residual melts. This
460	lowers model K_D values (Equation 1). The other effect is the removal of Mg and Fe from the
461	melt phase, which precluded realistic K _D values from being observed (Figure 4A). Since opx-
462	melt K _D s indicate an equilibrium condition for experiments conducted at 1150-1100°C, none
463	of the iron loss observed in these samples had an observable effect on the equilibrium
464	partitioning of Fe-Mg between opx and melt. This indicates that our equilibration
465	considerations are not significantly affected by this process.

In order to assess for chromite-opx equilibrium, the model of Liermann and Ganguly (2003)
was applied. This model was calibrated at higher pressures than imposed in our experiments.
However, because changes between partial molar volumes (of end-member compositions at

the standard state) associated with the Fe²⁺-Mg exchange reaction between chromite and opx appear to exhibit ideal mixing behaviour and because both Fe²⁺ and Mg endmembers exhibit similar and predictable pressure dependencies, Liermann and Ganguly (2003) assumed a pressure normalization scheme (their equation 5) to process their K_D values and formulate a thermometer for opx-chromite pairs that may be applied under a wide range of pressure conditions. We have rearranged this thermometer (their equation 8) to predict chromite-opx K_D (Fe²⁺-Mg, Table 4) at 2 kbar (0.2 GPa):

476
$$K_{D}(Fe^{2+} - Mg)^{chrm - opx} = \exp\left[\frac{AT(K) + B + 122P(GPa) - CX_{AI}^{opx} + DY_{Cr}^{chrm}}{T(K)}\right]$$
Equation 2

This K_D equation utilizes opx Al molar proportion (X_{Al}^{opx}) , chromite Cr/[Cr+Al+Fe³⁺] 477 (Y_{Cr}^{chrm}) , and constants derived for Al-Fe³⁺ system correction using the charge balance 478 479 method: $A = -0.351\pm0.102$, $B = 1217\pm120$, C = 1863, and $D = 2345\pm188$ (Table 4 of 480 Liermann and Ganguly, 2003). Uncertainties associated with the model K_Ds were calculated 481 to be ± 0.157 (i.e. better than $\pm 7\%$, 2σ relative) based on propagating the uncertainties provided for coefficients A, B, and D. Assuming the compositional parameter for opx does 482 483 not significantly change, and since Cr proportions for the synthetic chromites are not observed to change significantly between any of the samples (Figure 3A), this equation 484 predicts the equilibrium state of chromite-opx with regard to Fe²⁺-Mg exchange for each 485 486 experimental condition at the time of quenching (Figure 4B, observed K_D values were calculated using molar proportions with chromite $X_{\rm FeO}$ multiplied by molar Fe²⁺/ Σ Fe inferred 487 from stoichiometry). 488

489 As illustrated on Figure 4B, the Fe²⁺-Mg subcomposition of chromite (given as Mg# in 490 Figure 3B) in several samples has equilibrated with the opx-melt subsystem over the brief 491 timescale of these experiments. The relatively large seed shown in Figure 1D has a rim that is 492 c. 8-10 µm wide. Because our analyses prioritized small chromites that were c. 10-15 µm in

diameter, we consider it likely that EPMA sampled chromite that completely equilibrated
with respect to Fe²⁺-Mg through diffusion.

495 Thus, since a self-consistent determination of equilibrium has been established using 496 empirical relationships, then the Fe^{2+} -Mg data provided here describe the equilibrium condition of the melt + opx + chromite system under high temperature and fO_2 conditions 497 498 analogous to those in sub-arc crust. Interestingly, significant degrees of iron loss should raise the Mg# of the sample bulk composition even when the ratio of Fe^{2+} to Fe^{3+} in melt is 499 500 maintained by hydration (Supplemental Text 2). This effect should be observable in product 501 opx compositions, as higher melt Mg# should result in higher opx Mg#. Since this is not observed (Figure 2, Table 3), then the observed iron loss (in the case of Bon1150B, 20% bulk 502 Fe) does not significantly affect the equilibrium distribution of Fe²⁺-Mg under our 503 504 experimental conditions.

505 5.2. Assessing chromite-melt equilibrium based on model equilibrium trivalent cation
506 proportions

Since Fe²⁺-Mg has now been accounted for, it is prudent to also examine the equilibrium state 507 508 of the trivalent cations in chromite. To this end, multiple modelling methods were integrated 509 to predict equilibrium chromite compositions (with respect to trivalent cation proportions). 510 Our method modelled system compositional data using the alphaMELTS front end (Smith 511 and Asimow, 2005) and the MELTS thermodynamic model (Ghiorso and Sack, 1995) with 512 Rhyolite-MELTS system corrections enabled (Gualda et al., 2012). Nested modelling utilized SPINMELT-2.0 (Nikolaev et al., 2018a, b), which calculated an alternative stable chromite 513 514 composition for each intermediate MELTS step. These models are likely to bookend actual 515 trivalent cation proportions in spinel (s.l.) compositional space (see Davis and Cottrell, 2018; Nikolaev et al., 2018a, for information and discussion on how individual models behave 516

when predicting chromite compositions). A detailed description of the modelling 517 518 methodology is included in Supplemental Text 4. SPINMELT-2.0 cannot make sense of 519 MELTS-modelled liquid compositions at NNO+3 because the liquid composition at this 520 condition lies outside of the calibration range for the SPINMELT-2.0 algorithm. Thus, SPINMELT-2.0 data are not available under highly oxidizing conditions. 521 522 Figure 5 illustrates the relationship between MELTS and SPINMELT-2.0 models and the 523 difference between modelled compositions and the synthetic chromites produced in our 524 experiments. Alternative models were created to observe the effect of 30% iron loss on the 525 system (empty symbols, Figure 5). It appears that under highly oxidizing conditions and 1150-1200°C, experimental chromite Fe³⁺/[Fe³⁺+Cr+Al] values approach values that are 526 attained at NNO+2 in the MELTS models. Still, given the distance on the ternary diagram 527 between modelled chromite compositions and our experimental data, none of the 528 529 experimental chromites are in equilibrium based on observed trivalent cation proportions. 530 This includes model data that were generated under conditions where iron loss was accounted 531 for. The principal effect of iron loss is to reduce the proportion of iron in equilibrium chromite. The trend to high Fe³⁺ concentrations observed for the oxidized samples illustrated 532 533 in Figures 3A and 5 are likely to represent a segment of a diffusion trend in ternary space. 534 The concept of diffusion in this compositional space is explored below. Since the volume of chromite in the charges is invariant (i.e. no resorption or crystallization has been observed), 535 then the process by which chromite equilibrates can exclusively be attributed to diffusion. 536

537 Differences between MELTS and SPINMELT-2.0 output data are surprisingly large but may
538 be attributed to both our modelling strategy (Supplemental Text 4) as well as inherent
539 limitations of the model platforms. Models in the MELTS family tend to overpredict spinel
540 (*s.l.*) Fe³⁺ proportion and underpredict Cr proportion (Davis and Cottrell, 2018; Nikolaev et

541 al., 2018a), and the creators of SPINMELT-2.0 claim that their model reproduces several 542 petrologically important chemical aspects of chromite chemistry to better than 20% (Cr/Al and Mg/Fe²⁺, Nikolaev et al., 2018a). What MELTS does describe accurately is Fe-Al 543 544 exchange within the system during melt evolution and thus likely provides a best fit topology 545 in compositional space (Davis and Cottrell, 2018). Because of these observations, we 546 reiterate that our modelling method likely bookends equilibrium chromite compositions; keeping in mind that multiple experiments were performed beyond the calibration range of 547 548 SPINMELT-2.0.

549 In the case where Fe^{2+} in chromite is in equilibrium with the co-existing melt/silicate mineral assemblage, the interdiffusion of trivalent cations should occur in chromite with Fe²⁺/Fe³⁺ 550 higher than that in coexisting melt, as melt Fe^{2+}/Fe^{3+} should always be higher than spinel 551 Fe²⁺/Fe³⁺ (Maurel and Maurel, 1982). Using equation 7 of Kress and Carmichael (1991), 552 553 model melt Fe^{2+}/Fe^{3+} values were generated (Table S1) using glass compositions and the intensive parameters imposed by the IHPV to show that most if not all experimental 554 chromites must incorporate more Fe^{3+} before reaching an equilibrium Fe^{2+}/Fe^{3+} threshold 555 (Figure 6). That is, in order to reach an equilibrium condition, the observed Fe^{2+}/Fe^{3+} in 556 chromite must incorporate more Fe^{3+} so that their ratio values fall below the grey lines on 557 Figure 6. The exception is sample Bon1200Bb, the chromite Fe^{2+}/Fe^{3+} values of which are 558 distributed (mostly) beneath the modelled melt Fe^{2+}/Fe^{3+} value. 559

560 The diffusion of major cations within spinel (*s.l.*, e.g. Figure 19 of Van Orman and Crispin,

561 2010) are ranked by order of decreasing diffusivity (log D, m²/s) at 1100°C ($10^{4}/K = c. 7.3$):

- 562 Mg-Al (extrapolated, c. -13.5), Fe (self-diffusion, c. -16), Mg (self-diffusion, c. -16.5), and
- 563 Cr-Al (below x-axis, see below). Thus, D_{Cr-Al} is likely the limiting factor in chromite-melt
- 564 diffusive equilibration, though uncertainties associated with D_{Cr-Al} are reportedly large at high

565 Cr# (Suzuki et al., 2008) and fO₂ affects D_{Fe} (Vogt et al., 2015). As stated by Vogt et al. 566 (2015) this behaviour is not well constrained under high-T and high-P conditions. Our results 567 corroborate this inference. Since spinel (s.l.) is an isometric mineral, the given diffusivities do 568 not vary with crystallographic orientation, which is convenient for the purpose of textural analysis (Supplemental Text 5). 569 As demonstrated in Figure 3A, when buffered at NNO+0.4, +1 and +2.5, chromite 570 571 compositions did not significantly change from the original seed composition with respect to 572 trivalent cation proportion. Only change in Mg# is observed for these chromites (Figure 3B). 573 Significant Fe³⁺ incorporation was only observed in unbuffered samples at $T > 1100^{\circ}C$ and 574 occurred at the expense of Al, since trivalent cation proportions for these samples are 575 distributed along lines of equal Cr proportion (Figure 3A). Thus, Al counter-diffusion

576 facilitated Fe³⁺ incorporation in chromite under highly oxidizing conditions at 1150-1200°C;

577 although it is unlikely these minerals completely equilibrated during the experiments

578 (Figure 5).

The Fe-Mg and Fe-Al exchange reactions have also been observed in natural samples that are allowed to equilibrate over decadal timescales (Scowen et al., 1991). Importantly, the observations of Scowen et al. (1991) confirm the rank of the diffusivities outlined above and establish that even though Cr is the most sluggish element to diffuse, eventually Cr diffusion does occur in natural settings to equilibrate chromite following Fe-Al interdiffusion.

Based on our observations, we hypothesize that Fe^{3+} -Al interdiffusion operates principally as a function of fO_2 to equilibrate chromite Fe^{2+}/Fe^{3+} (after equilibration of chromite Mg#) on a shorter timescale than is required to equilibrate Cr in the system. This scenario of diffusive re-equilibration may be conceptualized within a multi-step chemical reaction (Figure 7). The first step concerns Fe^{2+} -Mg exchange between chromite and melt. This is the only reaction

589	observed in samples processed under buffered fO_2 (and in sample Bon1100U), and since the
590	observed changes in chromite composition are more complex under higher fO_2 conditions, we
591	combine this exchange with the observed increase in Fe^{3+} in trivalent cation proportion as
592	reaction 1 (Figure 7). Thus, a relatively high $Fe^{2+}/Mg + Fe^{3+}/Al$ composition is generated as a
593	magnetite component (FeFe ₂ O ₄) is added to the starting chromite composition. This exchange
594	is facilitated by the counter-diffusion and exchange of Mg and Al, and the spinel (sensu
595	stricto, hereafter s.s.) component thus diminishes (see Table S2 for modelled end-member
596	component compositions). With reaction 1, the chromite composition approaches a tie line
597	between $Fe(Al,Cr)_2O_4$ and $Mg(Fe,Cr)_2O_4$ in the compositional space of the spinel (s.l.) prism
598	(dashed grey line in Figure 7A). Importantly, the chromite compositional trend will not
599	approach the Cr-magnetite solid solution in the prism space but a spinel (s.l.) composition
600	intermediate between Cr-magnetite and the $Mg(Fe,Cr)_2O_4$ solid solution, as spinel (s.l.) Mg
601	concentration is only being diluted by reaction 1 (i.e. Mg is rearranged within the chromite
602	matrix with some flux across the crystal-melt boundary). In order to equilibrate Cr
603	proportion, which is expected to decrease under all imposed experimental conditions
604	(Figure 5), compositions should evolve along lines of equal Fe ³⁺ /Al (dashed grey line in
605	Figure 7B; reaction 2) in the isothermal state as Cr is lost to the melt phase. An added
606	component with higher Fe ²⁺ /Mg is required because Mg# in chromite was not observed to
607	increase in any experiment (Figure 3B) and because this is necessary for chromite to
608	equilibrate with the silicate mineral assemblage (Figure 4B).

The difference in diffusivities between mineral species provides an interesting constraint on the origin of the polymineralic microlite assemblages described here. In particular, Fe-Mg interdiffusion in opx occurs more slowly (log D = -19.5 at QFM and high T, Klügel, 2001) than interdiffusion of any of the major cations in chromite. If, in natural samples, it is found that microlitic silicates like opx are in equilibrium with residual melts and matrix chromites

614 are not, then the likely explanation for this observation is that the microlitic silicate formed 615 from the melt it is in (i.e. an equilibrium crystallization process). Crystallization of ferrous 616 phases is one of several oxidizing mechanisms in arc magmatic systems (see Cottrell et al., 617 2020). This process provides an impetus for diffusive re-equilibration of chromite to begin, and the grounds for oxyspeedometric analysis of the chromite-melt subsystem in a diffusion 618 619 chronometric context. Chromite crystals sampled from Chichijima (Umino, 1986), the Troodos ophiolite (Bailey et al., 1991), and Guam (Reagan and Meijer, 1984) exhibit 620 621 chemical zonation consistent with pre-eruptive oxidation, as chromite rim-mantle zone 622 analyses return more ferric compositions than analyses of their cores. Such features are unique to the pre-eruptive regime but may be confused with compositional trends that are 623 624 attributable to chemical weathering. Thus, it is important to discern here oxidation of 625 chromite that occurs in this scenario and oxidation that occurs post-eruption (i.e. chemical weathering or metamorphism of chromite). In the literature on the zoned chromites described 626 above, there is no mention of textures consistent with porous-chromite oxidation (Gervilla et 627 628 al., 2019; Hodel et al., 2020). The volcanic rocks sampled by the studies cited above were 629 observed to be fresh with little to no evidence of alteration, which is not consistent with a weathering environment capable of significantly modifying chromite compositions in either 630 631 hydrothermal (Hodel et al., 2020) or metamorphic (Gervilla et al., 2019) regimes. Instead, since the chromite FeO and Al₂O₃ concentrations are observed to increase from core to rim 632 633 (which is a geochemical signature of magmatic oxidation in our model, i.e. reaction 2 of 634 Figure 7), we maintain that these zonation patterns are of magmatic rather than secondary origin. With this in mind, the next sections assess natural chromite and glass compositions 635 636 recovered from the extrusive suite of the Troodos ophiolite in a similar manner as our experimental products, and data available from the literature are used to constrain ascent rates 637 for these lavas. 638

639 5.3. Experimental observations vs. natural processing in the crustal column

640 Mafic Troodos glass compositions were taken from the literature for the following localities: 641 the Kalavassos Mine (eastern end of the Limassol Forest Complex), Margi (northern part of 642 the extrusive sequence), and Kapilio (western end of the Limassol Forest Complex). All data 643 were taken from Woelki et al. (2020) with an additional two glass analyses from Golowin et 644 al. (2017) for the Kalavassos Mine locality. The studies cited used laser ablation inductively 645 coupled plasma mass spectrometry to quantify minor-trace concentrations of Cr for these 646 samples. Data on mineral compositions for these locations are sparse. However, multiple 647 compositions were found and taken from Cameron (1985), Bailey et al. (1991), Flower and 648 Levine (1987), and MacLeod (1988). Here, we assess these data to determine if the 649 aforementioned minerals and melts were in equilibrium at the time of eruption. Chromite data 650 were found neither for the Akaki River Canyon section nor for the Arakapas Fault Belt though Ohnenstetter et al. (1990) performed several analyses, no data are provided in the 651 652 source. Thus, even though these locations have been widely studied, we are currently unable to assess for chromite-melt equilibrium for these parts of the extrusive sequence. 653

654 SPINMELT-2.0 was used to model equilibrium chromite compositions in a similar way as in the experimental scenario discussed above. Physiochemical variables were set to approximate 655 eruption conditions with pressure set to 0.5 kbar, which corresponds to a water depth of 5000 656 meters (inferred eruption condition, Woelki et al., 2020), and the fO_2 of the system was set to 657 658 QFM+0.25 (c. NNO-0.5), QFM+0.75 (c. NNO), and QFM+1.25 (c. NNO+0.5). This range 659 compares well with the natural range of fO_2 for the Troodos magmas; crystallization of 660 olivine + chromite occurred at fugacities slightly above QFM+0.25 (Golowin et al., 2017); and glasses recovered from a Troodos "upper pillow lava" (Rautenschlein et al., 1985) have 661 662 Fe^{2+}/Fe^{3+} (recalculated to molar ratios) that return fO_2 values $\geq QFM+1.35$ (NNO+0.6) using

a pressure of 0.5 kbar, a temperature of 1130°C (upper limit of eruption temperature given by
Golowin et al., 2017), a rearranged equation 7 from Kress and Carmichael (1991), and the
fugacity conversions of Frost (1991), providing a reasonable estimate for the upper limit for
our fugacity setting.

SPINMELT-2.0 output was treated in a similar way as the experimental data (Supplemental 667 Text 4). When fO_2 is provided, melt Fe^{2+}/Fe^{3+} is calculated internally and used to model 668 669 chromite composition. Since temperature is not provided to the program, it must be predicted by the algorithm to provide a chromite composition estimate for each input melt composition. 670 671 For these lavas, liquid temperatures have been inferred to vary between c. 1030-1130°C (Golowin et al., 2017). These temperatures are consistent with temperatures inferred from 672 673 viscosity models (Schouten and Kelemen, 2002) generated for lavas on the North side of the extrusive sequence and with independent thermometry (inferred to provide a quantification of 674 675 closure temperature) performed by Dare et al. (2009) for the Kalavassos Mine locality. SPINMELT-2.0 output was observed to lie within 25°C of this temperature range for a 676 majority of the glass samples (Table S6) for each fO_2 condition. Thus, we inferred that our 677 678 models faithfully replicated equilibrium conditions for chromite-melt at the time of eruption.

679 Figure 8 illustrates the relationships between modelled and observed chromite compositions 680 of the Troodos (cf. Figure 5). Sample glass recovered from the Kalavassos Mine produced 681 one major cluster for each fO_2 condition and one Al-rich glass sample displaced modelled 682 chromite compositions to higher Al and lower Cr. All glass samples were determined to be 683 "tholeiitic" by Woelki et al. (2020). All of the matrix chromite compositions observed for this 684 locality are similar to olivine-hosted chromite inclusions observed in these same lavas 685 (Golowin et al., 2017). A single natural chromite composition is displaced to higher Al 686 compared with the others. However, according to our models, all of these chromite

compositions are too Cr-rich and require Fe³⁺+Al incorporation to be in equilibrium with
 residual melts.

689 Woelki et al. (2020) determined that the glass samples recovered from the Kapilio locality 690 range from boninitic to tholeiitic in composition. The chromite data from this locality include 691 the most chromian spinel (s.l.) analysis from the Troodos sample suite (Cameron, 1985) and 692 three relatively simple (number of elements reported = 4) analyses of chromite given by 693 Flower and Levine (1987). These compositions are also far from the modelled chromite compositions. As with the samples from the Kalavassos Mine, Fe³⁺+Al incorporation is 694 695 required for re-equilibration. If a tie line is drawn through the natural samples from the Cr apex, it would intersect the model array at the point where the data generated at OFM+0.75 696 697 touches the data generated at QFM+1.25.

Finally, chromites taken from the Margi locality exhibit a compositional trend that is similar 698 699 to that observed in the data from the Kapilio suite. Glasses taken from this locality produced 700 a high-Al and low-Al trend, which reflects a modest separation of the glass data into more 701 and less differentiated populations, respectively. Chromite core analyses given by Bailey et al. (1991) lie in roughly the same area as those of the Kalavassos Mine. However, rim 702 analyses reported in this study are displaced to higher Fe³⁺ concentrations with a single 703 analysis reaching the Fe³⁺ proportion inferred for chromite in equilibrium with melt at 704 OFM+0.75. However, for this mineral rim, Cr-Al interdiffusion must also occur to reach the 705 706 Al concentration inferred to represent an equilibrium composition. Thus, we conclude that the 707 chromites observed in the Troodos extrusive suite were not in equilibrium with their residual 708 melt compositions at the time of eruption, but in multiple localities these minerals were likely 709 in a state of active equilibration (via diffusion) at the time they were erupted.

710	Regarding Fe ²⁺ , slowly cooled chromites lose Mg to coexisting ferromagnesian silicates
711	(Ozawa, 1984), while rapidly quenched mineral pairs preserve high-temperature
712	compositions (e.g. Scowen et al., 1991). Since the glasses sampled from the Troodos rapidly
713	quenched upon eruption (e.g. Robinson et al., 1983), chromite Mg# may have been
714	preserved. By focusing on a single locality where glass, opx, and chromite data exist, we may
715	treat natural samples in the same way as the experimental products above and test for system
716	Fe ²⁺ -Mg equilibrium. To this end, we refocus on the Kapilio locality. Glass data from this site
717	(Woelki et al., 2020) were processed to predict $K_D(Fe-Mg)^{opx-liq}$ values using equation 1.
718	Mineral data from this locality are from Flower and Levine (1987). In total, two opx and
719	three chromite compositions were used (their sample AM-4, Table 5). Unfortunately, there is
720	no way of determining if these materials come from the same outcrops as the glass, which is
721	why all glass data were used in modelling. Based on model physiochemical constraints
722	outlined above, the opx sampled by Flower and Levine (1987) is in equilibrium with residual
723	melts (within 1σ of the mean model K _D (Fe-Mg) ^{opx-liq} value). Using a median Y_{Cr}^{chrm} for the
724	matrix chromites (0.70), model K_D (Fe-Mg) ^{<i>chrm-opx</i>} values (calculated using equation 2) are
725	observed to vary between c. 4.68-4.96 at 1130°C and 0.5 kbar and 5.41-5.86 at 1030°C and
726	0.5 kbar (Table 5). Varying Y_{Cr}^{chrm} by 0.1 (the actual variation observed among the sample
727	chromites) causes these model K_D values to vary by ± 0.07 (<i>c</i> . $\pm 3\%$), which is roughly one
728	half of the magnitude of the uncertainty associated with the model parameters. Observed
729	$K_D(Fe-Mg)^{chrm-opx}$ values are found to vary between 4.8 and 7.3 depending on which
730	chromite-opx pair is used. Two of the three chromite grains are seen to be in equilibrium with
731	at least one of the opx grains based on these K_D models. One other chromite grain in this
732	sample returned high observed K_D values for both opx grains, reflecting low MgO
733	concentrations. This chromite also has a low total EPMA composition (94.79) compared to
734	the other analyses (c . 98). Regardless, it is remarkable, given the dearth of mineral data

available for the Troodos extrusive sequence, that any equilibrium condition could be
established at all. These findings further the point that more mineral data should be gathered
from the Troodos ophiolite and other natural chromite-bearing rocks to assess for mineralmineral/mineral-melt equilibrium.

739 The effects of natural quench crystallization and syn-eruptive microlite growth on modelling 740 equilibrium chromite composition also needs to be considered. Depending on the Fe-Mg ratio of the minerals that crystallize, Fe^{2+} may be enriched or depleted in the residual melt. Using 741 742 equilibrium exchange coefficients (e.g. Putirka, 2008), the crystallization of ferromagnesian 743 silicates like olivine and opx are expected to enrich melts in FeO relative to MgO, and the differentiation of melt by these minerals should modestly enrich Fe³⁺ over Fe²⁺ (Birner et al., 744 2018; Kelley and Cottrell, 2012; O'Neill et al., 2018; Shorttle et al., 2015). Melt Al₂O₃ is 745 expected to increase with the equilibrium crystallization of ferromagnesian silicates. Based 746 on observations of the experimental products made at 1200°C, melt Al₂O₃ concentrations 747 748 were not significantly affected by quench crystallization (Table 3). Although this effect will 749 depend on the volume of crystallization produced during quenching, which was not constrained, we do not expect minor degrees of quench crystallization to significantly affect 750 751 melt Al₂O₃ unless an aluminous phase crystallizes. In some relatively differentiated Troodos 752 lavas, plagioclase feldspar is observed (Flower and Levine, 1987; Schmincke et al., 1983). 753 Feldspar crystallization is expected to reduce melt Al₂O₃ and thus modelled chromite Al₂O₃ concentrations, which would cause observed chromite compositions to appear closer to 754 755 equilibrium. Instead, we propose that (i) the higher chromite Al concentrations predicted by our modelling (Figure 8) reflect Al₂O₃ enrichment in the magmas (and thus the absence of 756 757 plagioclase in glasses sampled by Woelki et al., 2020) that comprise the Troodos extrusive 758 sequence, which is consistent with the predominate silicate mineral assemblages observed 759 therein; namely olivine, olivine+cpx, or olivine+opx+cpx (Flower and Levine, 1987; Malpas

and Langdon, 1984; Schmincke et al., 1983), and that (ii) quench crystallization does not
significantly affect these data. Since the most primitive glasses sampled by Woelki et al.
(2018) were observed to classify as boninite liquids, we infer that the most Cr-rich
equilibrium chromite compositions in our models (Figure 8), which correspond to these
relatively primitive melt compositions, represent chromite compositions that genuinely reflect
the equilibrium composition of chromite in melts unaffected by quench/syn-eruptive
crystallization.

767 5.4. Estimation of maximum/minimum ascent time through diffusion modelling

768 Since stable chromite was driven into chemical disequilibrium during magmatic 769 differentiation, remained in a state of disequilibrium with respect to trivalent cation proportions at the time of eruption, and equilibrated with co-existing silicate minerals with 770 771 respect to Fe-Mg exchange (divalent cation proportion), magma ascent time may be estimated on the basis of disequilibrium/equilibrium between chromite and the equilibrium 772 773 condition defined by the physiochemical state of the residual melts. Here, the maximum 774 ascent time was modelled based on the lowest interdiffusivity for the chromite compositional system (D_{Cr-Al}), and minimum ascent time was modelled based on the highest interdiffusivity 775 776 (D_{Fe-Mg}).

Based on chromite-melt behaviour modelled above and observed in the mafic lavas of the extrusive suite of the Troodos ophiolite, we estimated the maximum and minimum ascent times by calculating the time (t) it would take to equilibrate a hypothetical groundmass chromite microphenocryst [30-60 µm diameter with a composition similar to those of primitive chromite microphenocryst cores and mineral inclusions from the Kalavassos Mine locality (Figure 8, Golowin et al., 2017; Sobolev et al., 1993)] with residual melt under the inferred eruptive conditions using the following relationship from Crank (1975):

	Journal Pre-proofs
784	$\tau = Dt/a^2$ Equation 3
785	where a is the crystal radius, t is time, τ is non-dimensional time, and D is the interdiffusion
786	coefficient.
787	D_{Cr-Al} , the interdiffusivity coefficient of Cr-Al in chromite, is positively correlated with both
788	temperature and Cr# (Suzuki et al., 2008). For this reason, we calculated D_{Cr-Al} for chromite
789	with Cr # = 80 at 1030°C and 1130°C by extrapolating the relationships illustrated in Figures 5
790	and 10 of Suzuki et al. (2008) to low temperatures. In detail, we reproduced the Arrhenius

plot of Suzuki et al. (2008) for chromite with Cr = 80 and fit linear equations to their diffusivity data to predict $logD_{Cr-Al}$ as a function of temperature (Supplemental Text 5). The

following equation was recovered:

794
$$\log D_{Cr-Al} = -2.4199 \left(\frac{10^4}{T(K)}\right) + 2.3902$$
 Equation 4

Using this equation, we estimate $\log D_{Cr-Al}$ (cm²/s) to be -16.2 at 1030°C and -14.9 at 1130°C (Table 6).

We elected to use self-diffusion coefficients from Liermann and Ganguly (2002) to estimate logD_{Fe-Mg} at the same conditions as $logD_{Cr-Al}$. We also reproduced their Arrhenius plots for both Fe and Mg self-diffusion (Supplemental Text 5) and then used their equation 4 to calculate an interdiffusivity coefficient, $logD_{Fe-Mg}$. For this calculation, we used the following linear equations recovered from their Arrhenius plots:

802
$$\log D_{Fe} = -1.0322 \left(\frac{10^4}{T(K)}\right) - 4.7506$$
 Equation 5

803
$$\log D_{Mg} = -1.0545 \left(\frac{10^4}{T(K)}\right) - 4.7125$$
 Equation 6

804	Using these equations and equation 4 of Liermann and Ganguly (2002), logD _{Fe-Mg} was

805 calculated to be -12.7 at 1030°C and -12.2 at 1130°C (Table 6).

806 With these D values, we calculated maximum ascent time using the simple equation for 807 diffusion in a sphere (equation 3) by assuming $\tau = 0.04$ (i.e. insignificant change in core 808 composition) and minimum ascent time by assuming $\tau = 0.4$ (i.e. complete re-equilibration, 809 Table 6). At 1030°C, in order to preserve a matrix chromite core whose Cr = 80, a maximum 810 of c. 170 years can pass before the core of the chromite begins to to equilibrate, which means 811 that the mafic lavas of the Troodos ophiolite, once extracted from their mantle source, 812 crystallized their silicate cargo and erupted in less than c. 170 years. If T is raised to 1130°C, 813 the maximum amount of time is reduced to 8 years. Since the interdiffusivity coefficient is 814 positively correlated with Cr#, if chromite has a lower Cr# than 80, then maximum ascent 815 time increases. In fact, when Cr# approaches 0, D_{Cr-Al} approaches values two orders of 816 magnitude lower than when Cr = 80 (Suzuki et al., 2008). Maximum ascent times would 817 increase accordingly. However, because the chromites of the Troodos presented here are 818 highly chromian, we expect our maximum ascent times to be within reason. We calculated 819 minimum ascent time (for the same hypothetical chromite grain) at 1030°C to be c. 220 days. 820 At 1130°C this value is lowered to 60 days. These back-of-the-envelope calculations 821 demonstrate that it will be possible to constrain the ascent rate of boninitic magmas through 822 study of diffusion profiles in matrix chromite crystals that they carry, and this should be done 823 systematically in future research.

Overall, the melt temperature data cited as independent observations for the Troodos extrusive suite are corroborative, but it is important to discuss these data because temperature exerts strong control over diffusion. The three methods of temperature estimation are based on geochemical modelling (Dare et al., 2009; Golowin et al., 2017; Schouten and Kelemen,

828	2002). Golowin et al. (2017) used olivine-melt compositional data and the equilibrium
829	relationships given by Ford et al. (1983) and Almeev et al. (2007) to quantify minimum
830	crystallization temperatures, which they interpreted as eruption temperatures. Schouten and
831	Kelemen (2002) used the geothermometer of Sisson and Grove (1993) to estimate
832	temperature for their viscosity models. Finally, Dare et al. (2009) calculated temperature
833	using the olivine-spinel thermometer of Ballhaus et al. (1991) and inferred this temperature as
834	a closure temperature for chromite. Taken together, since the present discussion is focused on
835	the kinetics of chromite-melt re-equilibration at pre-eruptive conditions, the estimates of
836	Golowin et al. (2017) represent our preferred liquid temperatures because they are most likely
837	to constrain melt temperatures prior to significant syn-eruptive crystallization of microlitic
838	pyroxene. Granted, when significant pyroxene crystallization occurs, melt water
839	concentrations assumed by Golowin et al. (2017) for Troodos glasses (c. 3 wt%) represent
840	maxima and their temperatures minima following the liquidus depression relationships given
841	by Almeev et al. (2007). Woelki et al. (2020) quantified water concentrations in boninite
842	glasses to be 1.7-2.7 wt%, which is slightly below the value provided by Golowin et al.
843	(2017). This means our models may use temperatures that are slightly underestimated. The
844	consequence of this is that our model ascent rates may be minima under high-temperature
845	conditions and that ascent times for the Troodos extrusive sequence may be higher than
846	modelled here. The likelihood of lower liquid temperatures are low due to the high closure
847	temperature of 1100°C inferred by Dare et al. (2009).

Additional complexity is added when considering the effect of changing Cr# during oxidation. Since $logD_{Cr-Al}$ becomes lower as chromite loses Cr (Suzuki et al., 2008), since we elected to regress data provided for the highest Cr# chromites in the study of Suzuki et al. (2008) in order to estimate maximum ascent rate, and since natural chromites have slightly

less Cr (Table S5), our maximum ascent times may be underestimated. This is an additional
knowledge gap that should be addressed with future experimental work.

854 Because primitive compositional characteristics of the oxide mineral cargo are retained in 855 several chromite crystals in the matrices of lavas of the Troodos ophiolite extrusive sequence 856 and because, in some cases, mineral textures relating to diffusive equilibration seem to be 857 preserved, we propose that chromites in such boninitic-tholeiitic lavas are products of either 858 (i) crystallization from primary magmas or the incongruent melting reaction that is known to 859 produce olivine + chromite in the shallow sub-arc mantle, or (ii) crystallization in complex 860 fluid-melt or melt-melt mixtures in the same part of the magmatic system. In either case, chromite is likely precipitated prior to extensive pyroxene crystallization, as melt 861 862 fractionation by pyroxene tends to compromise chromite stability in some igneous systems 863 (e.g. layered mafic intrusions or ocean island basalts, Irvine, 1967; Roeder, 1994). Such 864 behaviour appears to be absent in boninites and tholeiites associated with ophiolitic terranes such as the Troodos or the forearc regions of intra-oceanic arc systems (e.g. Whattam et al., 865 2020). In these rocks, matrix chromite appears with stable pyroxene minerals as euhedral-866 subhedral mineral grains with no signs of resorption or breakdown. Thus, chromite is most 867 868 likely a primitive component of the boninite-tholeiite petrogenetic system that perseveres 869 through differentiation in arc systems and likely records compositional traits that reflect the 870 full range of physiochemical states these magmas undergo prior to eruption (Figure 9).

In our petrogenetic model, synthesized in Figure 9, chromite forms in equilibrium with primitive boninitic melt prior to the growth of many silicate minerals (Figure 9B) and has a primitive composition characterized by high Mg# and Y_{Cr} (Stage 1). Once silicate minerals nucleate (Figure 9C), chromite Mg# will immediately begin to re-equilibrate, as this parameter is highly sensitive to the presence of ferromagnesian silicates (Stage 2). As these

876	silicates grow, melt oxidation occurs, and Fe ³⁺ -Al exchange begins (Stage 3, Figure 9D).
877	Finally, Cr exchange begins to occur with Fe^{3+} and Al (such that chromite Fe^{3+}/Al remains
878	constant, Figure 7B) and the volume of chromite at the edge of the grain reaches an
879	equilibrium state with melt prior to eruption (Stage 4). If this chromite grain is entrained in an
880	ascending melt that is quenched upon eruption, then the differential diffusivities of the major
881	trivalent cations in chromite can be interpreted in a chronometric context (Figure 9E). Careful
882	analysis of chromite should include a quantification of Fe-speciation (see EPMA
883	methodology of Davis and Cottrell, 2018) so that precise thermometry and fugacity
884	information can be inferred from natural samples.

885 6. CONCLUSIONS

1) The experiments presented here enabled us to infer the kinetic behaviour of chromite
in boninitic melt. Pyroxene is a ubiquitous component of the experimentally
synthesized boninites, and residual melts are andesitic in composition. Matrix glasses
preserved in natural boninites (Coulthard Jr et al., 2021; Woelki et al., 2020)
demonstrate that olivine ± pyroxene crystallization commonly generates residual
melts that are basaltic andesitic to andesitic in composition, similar to the products of
these crystallization experiments.

2) The fact that these same natural glasses are enriched in Fe³⁺ upon eruption (Brounce
et al., 2019; Rautenschlein et al., 1985) suggests that primitive boninitic melts (i)
crystallize chromite under less oxidizing conditions than those characteristic of the
pre-eruptive crustal column and within what are likely complex melt-fluid/melt-melt
mixtures present in the sub-arc or back-arc mantle, (ii) crystallize olivine/pyroxene
phenocrysts under magmatic conditions without significant chromite crystallization in
the crust, and (iii) entrain most of their chromite crystal cargo prior to microlitic

- growth during ascent and eruption, to produce natural boninites and derived andesitic-basaltic andesitic glasses.
- 902 3) If chromite, including microlitic matrix chromite, were to crystallize from these residual liquids, then they would incorporate more Fe³⁺ and Al than observed, as 903 904 shown by the natural samples taken from the extrusive sequence of the Troodos 905 Ophiolite. Thus, most chromites are products of primitive melt crystallization in the crustal domain or of the incongruent melting of orthopyroxene in the mantle domain. 906 907 When entrained in an evolving magma, melt oxidation perturbs the equilibrium chromite composition to higher Fe³⁺. If sufficiently oxidizing conditions are achieved, 908 909 Fe^{3+} replaces Al efficiently such that $Fe^{2+}/Fe^{3+} + Fe^{3+}/Al$ chromite-melt equilibrium is 910 approached. The disequilibrium textures and compositions preserved in some phenocrystic-microphenocrystic chromites should be examined closely to ascertain 911 912 ascent rates using Fe³⁺ diffusivity. 4) In chromite, $Cr-Al/Fe^{3+}$ equilibrium is achieved over much longer timescales. If 913 914 considered the limiting factor of chromite-melt equilibration, natural 915 microphenocrystic chromite observed in the extrusive suite of the Troodos ophiolite would equilibrate with residual melts in less than c. 170 years. Diffusion may be 916 917 much more rapid, and future work on the diffusive equilibration of both experimental 918 and natural chromites should provide tighter constraints.
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1288 Figure Captions

1289 Figure 1: A) BSE image of Bon1150U. This image is representative of the "general" texture 1290 observed in the boninitic charges. This includes several examples of euhedral prismatic opx 1291 (dark mineral grains) and platy elongated opx (same colour) set in a relatively homogeneous glass with anhedral chromite (bright grains). The black orb-shaped parts are vapour bubbles. 1292 1293 B) Close up of an opx cut parallel to the (010) plane exhibiting a ghost core (red ellipse). The 1294 core is likely related to crystallization occurring within the melt/glass phase before stable 1295 thermal conditions were achieved within the IHPV. The arrow points to bright caps that form 1296 at the apices of most if not all opx in this sample (from experiment Bon1200B). These caps 1297 are thought to have grown during quench. The glass adjacent to these minerals is darker, 1298 indicating the loss of iron to the quench-grown rim. C) Broad view of sample Bon1100U with 1299 calcic pyroxene highlighted (red ellipses). Several opx are aligned here, with their c-axes sub-1300 perpendicular to the image plane. D) BSE image of chromite in Bon1150B after thresholding 1301 brightness and contrast to isolate and amplify Fe enrichment textures.

Figure 2: Cation proportion (O = 6) vs Mg# (calculated using Fe_{total}) for opx core analyses.
Literature data are taken from sources listed in the text. Point uncertainties are within the
boundaries of the symbol.

Figure 3: Chromite compositional data. A) A portion of a conventional ternary diagram illustrating the relative proportions of octahedrally coordinated trivalent cations after recalculation (dimensions of the ternary are illustrated on the inset). Literature data are taken from sources listed in the text. B) Diagram that illustrates Fe incorporation into both octahedral and tetrahedral sites using Mg# and the Fe³⁺/(Fe³⁺+Al+Cr) parameter. Symbols same as Figure 2. Analytical uncertainties associated with each composition lie within the symbol boundaries.

1312 Figure 4: A) Equilibrium exchange coefficients calculated for opx and residual melt. B) 1313 Equilibrium exchange coefficients for opx and chromite. Symbols as in Figure 2. 1314 Figure 5: Results from MELTS and SPINMELT-2.0 modelling compared to experimental 1315 data (the edge of the ternary diagram from Figure 3A is shown as a dashed line). Lines are 1316 drawn in the direction of decreasing temperature from 1200°C to 1100°C. Solid symbols 1317 represent model data that do not account for iron loss, while empty symbols represent data 1318 generated using models with 30% imposed iron loss. 1319 Figure 6: Comparison between average chromite Fe^{2+}/Fe^{3+} observed in experimental charges 1320 and modelled equilibrium glass values of the same ratio (grey lines). For equilibrium 1321 conditions to be met, the symbols for each sample would need to lie below the grey lines. Figure 7: Graphical representation of the chemical evolution of chromites within the 1322 1323 compositional space of the spinel prism (inset). Hypothesized relationship: Fe-Mg 1324 interdiffusivity > Fe-Al interdiffusivity > Cr-(Al, Fe) interdiffusivity. If Fe-Mg and Fe-Al equilibrate chromite Mg#, Fe²⁺/Fe³⁺, and Fe³⁺/Al, with Cr equilibration following, then re-1325 1326 equilibration is a process that may be approximated by reactions 1 and 2 in a multi-step

1327 fashion. A) Reaction 1 displaces chromite compositions to higher Fe^{2+}/Mg and Fe^{3+}/Al as the

1328 spinel (*s.s.*) component in chromite decreases. In ternary space, this reaction causes a shift to

1329 higher Fe³⁺ concentrations along lines of equal Cr proportion (B). Reaction 2 proceeds along

1330 lines of equal Fe^{3+}/Al (dashed grey line in B) as Cr is lost to the melt phase. Reaction 2

1331 proceeds in a direction perpendicular to the page (up) in A.

1332 Figure 8: Partial ternary diagrams (see inset) generated to compare trivalent cation

1333 proportions of natural chromite minerals from the Troodos ophiolite (green triangles) with

1334 modelled chromite compositions generated using SPINMELT-2.0. The grey-bordered green

area underlying the green triangles on the Kalavassos Mine section represents the

1336 compositional range of olivine-hosted chromite inclusions taken from Golowin et al. (2017)1337 and MacLeod (1988).

1338 Figure 9: Diagram summarizing the petrogenetic model wherein disequilibrium textures are 1339 preserved in phenocrystic-microphenocrystic chromite as a function of differences between 1340 the diffusivities of the major divalent and trivalent cations in chromite. A) Spinel octahedron. Subsequent images use a cross section of this hypothetical mineral form. B) A schematic of 1341 1342 the initial condition of chromite in primitive boninite melt without a large proportion of silicate minerals. C) Silicate mineral nuclei form, immediately depleting the surrounding melt 1343 1344 in Fe²⁺ and Mg. D) Silicate minerals grow and completely alter the surrounding melt. The melt has acquired an evolved residual composition rich in Fe^{3+} . E) Hypothetical diffusion 1345

1346 trends for all major cations in chromite from a-a' (transect shown in D).

	High-Si Boninite	Troodos Chromitite	Boninite Glass	Normalized Mixture Composition
	*YK0612 974-R6	**Chromite Seed	**BO-G	BO-G with 2 wt% added Chromite
SiO ₂	56.74	0.05	57.92	55.51
TiO ₂	0.17	0.05	0.04	0.17
Cr_2O_3	***0.19	53.81	0.19	1.26
Al_2O_3	10.66	15.11	10.69	10.73
FeO	8.75	15.34	8.38	8.87
MnO	0.23	0.24	0.16	0.23
MgO	15.04	14.01	14.62	15.01
CaO	5.54	-	6.16	5.42
Na ₂ O	2.01	-	1.86	1.97
K ₂ O	0.82	-	0.46	0.80
P_2O_5	0.03	-	0.08	0.03
Total	100.18	98.72	100.48	100.00
*0	(1, 0, 0)	$\mathbf{VDE} \mathbf{A} = 1 \cdot \mathbf{V}$		

 Table 1: Starting material compositions

*Composition from Reagan et al. (2010, XRF Analysis)

**All analyses of starting materials are provided in the supplemental Tables S1 and S2

***Converted from ppm Cr to wt% Cr₂O₃

- = not quantified

Capsule ID	IHPV Lab	Initial Con	Experimental Conditions					
		Seed Size (µm)	wt% $D_2O(1\sigma)$	Т (°С)	P (kbar)	$p\mathrm{H}_{2}^{added}$ (bars)	Duration (hrs)	
Bon1200Ua	ISTO	x < 32	1.136 (0.142)	1200	2.13	0.0	4.0	
Bon1200Ub	ISTO	160 < x < 250	1.395 (0.155)	1200	2.13	0.0	4.0	
Bon1200Ba	ISTO	x < 32	0.916 (0.153)	1200	2.12	1.9	1.4	
Bon1200Bb	ISTO	160 < x < 250	0.763 (0.191)	1200	2.12	1.9	1.4	
Bon1150U	ISTO	x < 32	0.770 (0.128)	1150	2.16	0.0	4.2	
Bon1150B	ISTO	x < 32	0.705 (0.141)	1150	2.14	1.4	3.2	
Bon1100U	GSJ	x < 32	1.280 (0.142)	1100	2.00	0.0	5.1	

Table 2: Sample identification and characterization, experiment descriptions, and preliminary results

Names: $U = intrinsic fO_2$, $B = buffered fO_2$, a and b designate a difference in the seed size of the chromite added

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Table 2 (continued)

Capsule ID	Product Ph	ase Proportio	ons (10)	Activity Mod	lel	Oxygen Fugacity			
	Orthopyroxene	Chromite	Glass	Final wt% $^{2}H_{2}O(1\sigma)$	$aH_2O(1\sigma)$	Sensor $X_{\rm Ni}(1\sigma)$	$\log fO_2$ (bars)	$\Delta NNO (1\sigma)$	
Bon1200Ua	0.49 (0.01)	0.02 (0.01)	0.49 (0.02)	2.32 (0.30)	0.34 (0.07)	0.020 (0.004)	-3.69	3.81 (0.17)	
Bon1200Ub	0.50 (0.03)	0.02 (0.00)	0.48 (0.03)	2.91 (0.37)	0.48 (0.08)	0.020 (0.004)	-3.39	4.11 (0.17)	
Bon1200Ba	0.59 (0.07)	0.01 (0.00)	0.40 (0.07)	2.29 (0.55)	0.31 (0.11)	0.256 (0.003)	-6.77	0.73 (0.26)	
Bon1200Bb	0.55 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)	0.44 (0.01)	1.73 (0.44)	0.22 (0.08)	0.256 (0.003)	-7.07	0.43 (0.27)	
Bon1150U	0.40 (0.08)	0.02 (0.00)	0.58 (0.08)	1.33 (0.29)	0.17 (0.07)	0.020 (0.004)	-4.88	3.21 (0.29)	
Bon1150B	0.60 (0.06)	0.02 (0.00)	0.38 (0.05)	1.86 (0.44)	0.26 (0.09)	0.194 (0.003)	-7.09	1.00 (0.26)	
Bon1100U	0.45 (0.05)	0.01 (0.01)	0.54 (0.05)	2.37 (0.34)	0.32 (0.07)	0.069 (0.009)	-6.21	2.52 (0.16)	

Sample	Phase	No. Analyses	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Cr_2O_3	Al_2O_3	FeO	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	NiO	Total	Mg#	Cr#	*Fe ²⁺ /Fe ³⁺
Bon1200Ua	Glass	6	61.36	0.07	bdl	16.34	5.90	0.10	2.43	6.51	3.08	0.81	-	96.63	-	-	0.77
	Orthopyroxene	15	55.99	bdl	0.69	1.66	6.59	0.20	33.87	1.09	bdl	-	-	100.14	0.90	0.22	-
	Chromite	4	0.27	bdl	48.62	8.49	24.89	0.36	12.57	-	-	_))	0.10	95.36	0.47	0.79	1.17
Bon1200Ub	Glass	8	60.57	0.20	bdl	15.98	7.51	0.14	2.79	6.11	2.52	0.69	-	96.52	-	-	0.76
	Orthopyroxene	13	56.35	bdl	0.67	1.49	6.09	0.18	34.30	0.93	bdl	-	-	100.04	0.91	0.23	-
Bon1200Ba	Glass	5	62.08	0.18	bdl	17.90	5.24	0.13	1.64	6.13	2.99	0.84	-	97.17	-	-	3.35
	Orthopyroxene	13	56.34	bdl	0.71	1.88	7.31	0.20	32.68	1.32	0.05	-	-	100.50	0.89	0.22	-
Bon1200Bb	Glass	2	60.95	0.18	bdl	18.14	5.13	0.14	1.11	6.16	2.92	0.84	-	95.56	-	-	3.84
	Orthopyroxene	9	54.99	bdl	0.68	1.56	7.18	0.20	32.28	1.20	0.15	-	-	98.25	0.89	0.23	-
	Chromite	4	0.12	0.05	50.66	14.36	16.20	0.29	13.16	-	-	-	0.11	95.02	0.59	0.70	3.48
Bon1150U	Glass	4	58.52	0.06	0.05	14.47	7.04	0.11	6.12	8.13	2.59	0.65	-	97.74	-	-	1.00
	Orthopyroxene	8	55.02	bdl	0.64	2.47	8.46	0.23	31.23	1.69	0.06	-	-	99.84	0.87	0.15	-
	Chromite-Core	4	0.11	0.04	51.17	11.86	21.57	0.39	11.62	-	-	-	0.12	96.95	0.49	0.74	2.44
	Chromite-Rim	3	0.15	bdl	48.96	9.34	26.09	0.38	10.89	-	-	-	0.15	96.07	0.43	0.78	1.61
Bon1150B	Glass	3	60.34	0.08	bdl	16.20	5.21	0.10	4.63	7.01	2.94	0.75	-	97.29	-	-	2.74
	Orthopyroxene	2	54.98	bdl	0.70	2.37	9.04	0.24	31.57	1.89	bdl	-	-	100.83	0.86	0.16	-
	Chromite	1	0.08	0.05	51.93	14.45	19.41	0.35	11.5	-	-	-	0.10	97.93	0.51	0.71	4.51
Bon1100U	Glass	5	58.96	0.18	0.14	14.75	6.11	0.13	5.97	8.18	2.59	0.68	-	97.71	-	-	1.31
	Orthopyroxene	3	55.20	0.05	0.44	3.33	9.13	0.29	30.01	2.67	0.10	-	-	101.24	0.85	0.08	-
	Chromite	6	0.07	0.14	50.93	14.41	22.28	0.32	10.96	-	-	-	0.09	99.42	0.47	0.70	3.50

Table 3: Representative compositional data of experiment products (average composition)

*Calculated using either stoichiometric recalculation (after Droop, 1987) for chromite or the model of Kress and Carmichael (1991) for glass

bdl = *below detection limit,* - = *not analyzed/calculated*

Modelled	$K_{\underline{D}}(Fe-Mg)^{opx-liq}$ (10)	<u>*K_D(Fe-Mg)^{chrm-opx}</u>
Bon1200Ua	0.209 (0.007)	4.594
Bon1200Ub	0.211 (0.003)	-
Bon1200Ba	0.201 (0.005)	-
Bon1200Bb	0.199 (0.002)	4.639
Bon1150U	0.233 (0.001)	4.936
Bon1150B	0.219 (0.003)	4.957
Bon1100U	0.231 (0.009)	5.098
Observed		
Bon1200Ua	0.080 (0.004)	5.475 (0.260)
Bon1200Ub	0.066 (0.003)	-
Bon1200Ba	0.070 (0.005)	-
Bon1200Bb	0.048 (0.001)	4.279 (0.110)
Bon1150U	0.236 (0.011)	5.103 (0.237)
Bon1150B	0.246 (0.013)	4.863 (0.238)
Bon1100U	0.298 (0.010)	5.194 (0.171)

1352Table 4: Predicted and observed equilibrium compositional data for
orthopyroxene (opx) and chromite (chrm)

 $l\sigma$ is a quantification of the distribution of modelled/observed values based on analytical precision and detected heterogeneity

*Model uncertainty = c. $\pm 0.157 (1\sigma)$ using error propagation

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Opx data (norm.)	SiO ₂	Al_2O_3	FeO	MnO	MgO	CaO	Moles MgO	Moles FeO	X _{Al} ^{opx}		
*AM-4 opx-a	55.38	2.71	9.01	0.00	32.43	0.47	0.805	0.125	0.112		
*AM-4 opx-b	56.14	1.65	8.15	0.00	32.63	1.43	0.810	0.113	0.068		
Chromite data	Cr ₂ O ₃	Al_2O_3	FeO	MgO	Total				Average Y _{Cr} ^{chrm}		
*AM-4 chrm-a	51.65	9.82	23.73	9.59	94.79		0.238	0.244	0.70		
*AM-4 chrm-b	52.71	9.98	23.43	11.60	97.72		0.288	0.216			
*AM-4 chrm-c	53.80	10.18	23.46	11.25	98.69		0.279	0.228			
Glass data and model K_D	*:	*Average	Model K _D (Fe	e-Mg) ^{opx-liq}	(1σ)		**Average melt molar	MgO (1σ)	**Average melt molar FeO (1 σ)		
			0.292 (0.00	4)			0.232 (0.024)		0.108 (0.004)		
Modelled $K_D(Fe-Mg)^{chrm-opx}$	opx-a	opx-b	***(lo)								
1030°C (0.5 kbar)	4.676	4.955	0.157								
1130°C (0.5 kbar)	5.408	5.755	^				* Taken from Flower	and Levine (1987)			
							** Compiled from all	avalable analyses o	f Kapilio glass from Woelki et al. (2020)		
Observed K_D Values	$K_D(F)$	e-Mg)	****(1 <i>0</i>)	Equilil	orium?		*** Same model unce	ertainty as in previou	us table		
opx-a and average melt	0.3	334	0.041	ye	yes		**** Calculated using error propagation methods applied to average melt composition				
opx-b and average melt	0.3	300	^	ye	es		^ = Same as above				
chrm-a and opx-a	6.5	587	-	n	0		- = Cannot be calcula	ted using available	data		
chrm-a and opx-b	7.3	324	-	n	0						
chrm-b and opx-a	4.8	327	-	yes (10)30°C)						
chrm-b and opx-b	5.3	367	-	yes (n	iod T)						
chrm-c and opx-a	5.2	238	-	yes (n	iod T)						
chrm-c and ony-h	5.8	324	-	yes (0	opx-b						

Table 5: Assessment of Fe-Mg equilibrium between opx, chromite, and melt in Kapilio lavas

Table 6: Ascent time calculations										
Chromite Radius (µm)	Maximum Ascent Time fr	om Cr-Al Diffusion (years)	Minimum Ascent Time from Fe-Mg Diffusion (days)							
	<u>at 1030 °C</u>	<u>at 1130 °C</u>	<u>at 1030 °C</u>	<u>at 1130 °C</u>						
15	43	2	56	15						
20	77	4	99	27						
25	120	6	155	42						
30	173	8	223	60						
$log D (cm^2/sec)$	-16.2	-14.9	-12.7	-12.2						

Declaration of interests

 \boxtimes The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: