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Hidden melting signatures recorded in the Troodos ophiolite plutonic suite: evidence for widespread generation of depleted melts and intra-crustal melt aggregation

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Abstract The main plutonic complex of the Troodos ophiolite, north of the Arakapas Fault Zone, has been re-examined both from field and geochemical perspectives. Ion microprobe analyses of clinopyroxene crystal cores show that the range of melt compositions added to the lower crust far exceeds that of published lavas in the main Troodos massif. This suggests that the lower crust acted as a filter into which a large range of melt compositions were added and out of which a homogenised (and generally fractionated) derivative was extracted. This crustal-level aggregation homogenised diverse melt fractions from a broad range of degrees of melting. Depleted melts with U-shaped rare earth element (REE) patterns were a significant component of the melts added to the crust, but because of their low incompatible element abundances, mixing with less depleted melts prior to eruption masked their signature in the lavas. The discovery that highly depleted melts constituted a significant component of the melts added to the Troodos crust, but not of the lavas, demonstrates that the spatial distribution of lava-types is not necessarily a good indicator of where different parental melt compositions are generated within the mantle. Compared with normal mid-ocean ridge basalts, the Troodos parental melts were (1) generally depleted in immobile incompatible

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trace elements, (2) less depleted in light REE (LREE) than would be expected for the concomitant depletion in middle and heavy REE, (3) enriched in Sr with respect to the LREE and (4) more oxidised. Modelling of these characteristics suggests a mantle source that had previously lost a significant melt fraction under relatively reducing conditions. This was followed by remelting under more oxidising conditions in an environment in which Sr and LREE were added to the source consistent with previous models of a supra-subduction zone setting.

Introduction

Understanding magma plumbing at oceanic spreading centres requires detailed studies of the entire plumbing system. Early work concentrated on the extrusive portion of the oceanic crust and this was followed by investigations of samples of the upper part of the residual mantle. In more recent years, the role of magma chambers and, thus, the plutonic section of oceanic crust, has been given greater consideration. Studies of the lower oceanic crust allow us to investigate the compositional diversity of melts feeding the crust and how these are mixed and fractionated prior to eruption. In turn, this allows a greater understanding of the processes of mantle melting and melt extraction from the mantle than does the consideration of the (homogenised and generally fractionated) compositions of extrusives alone.

Melt generation and aggregation at spreading centres

Melting at oceanic spreading centres is widely thought to be a polybaric, near-fractional, process and thus a wide variety of melt compositions must be generated within the melting column (e.g. Klein and Langmuir 1987; Johnson et al. 1990). However, the variation in melt compositions erupted is generally quite small. This

requires that somewhere within the magma plumbing system the diverse melts are mixed together, or aggregated, to produce a much less variable 'end-product'. Much geochemical information is 'lost' because of this mixing. Clearly, even the extrusives are not 'completely aggregated' because lavas with different parental compositions erupt in close spatial and temporal proximity. Understanding where aggregation occurs is critical to developing better models of magma plumbing and, in particular, how melts are extracted from the mantle at spreading centres.

One approach to understanding melt generation, extraction and aggregation is through the investigation of the diversity of melt compositions generated and how these vary spatially within the magma plumbing system. For example, melt inclusion studies have demonstrated that there is much more diversity in the melts parental to primitive olivine (e.g. Sobolev and Shimizu 1993) and plagioclase (e.g. Sours-Page et al. 1999) crystals than there is in erupted lavas at normal mid-ocean ridges. The same information can be gained from trace element analysis of cumulus crystal in plutonic rocks formed in the lower crust at spreading centres (e.g. Coogan et al. 2000a). This has some advantages over melt inclusion studies in that there is no need to rely on the 'chance' occurrence of melt inclusions and where in the magma plumbing system the crystals formed is somewhat better constrained.

In this study we investigate melt generation and aggregation processes within the Troodos ophiolite principally using the trace element compositions of the cores of cumulus clinopyroxene as indicators of the compositions of melts added to the crust. The Troodos ophiolite was chosen for this study for a number of reasons. Firstly, clinopyroxene was an early crystallising phase in the Troodos ophiolite and, thus, its composition should preserve evidence of the compositional diversity of parental melts added to the crust. This contrasts with normal mid-ocean ridge basalts (NMORB) in which the later crystallisation of clinopyroxene means that it has less chance of recording compositional information about Moho-crossing melt compositions prior to their mixing and fractionation. Also, the presence of clinopyroxene throughout almost all of the Troodos plutonic complex allows it to be used to investigate parental magma compositions in diverse locations. Secondly, previous workers have mapped early and late plutonic suites providing a starting point for sampling. Thirdly, previous studies have concentrated principally on the superbly exposed lava and sheeted dyke sequences that provide a database for the compositional variability of melts extracted from the lower crust. Finally, as a consequence of its strong supra-subduction zone (SSZ) geochemical signature, comparison of the Troodos ophiolite with data from normal mid-ocean ridges may allow insights into the similarities and differences between the magma plumbing system at SSZ spreading centres and normal MORs (i.e. mid-ocean ridges away from the influence of subduction zones).

The \sim 91-Ma (Mukasa and Ludden 1987) Troodos ophiolite has been influential in the development of ideas of mid-ocean ridge processes and ophiolite formation in subduction-related settings. It is a classic SSZ ophiolite as identified principally by its lava geochemistry (e.g. Miyashiro 1973; Pearce et al. 1984; Robinson et al. 1983; Rautenschlein et al. 1985). This is evident both in the major element (e.g. the presence of boninitic lavas, basaltic andesites, andesites and dacites) and trace element (e.g. high large ion lithophile element to high field strength element ratios and low high field strength element abundances for a given degree of differentiation) compositions of the lavas and dykes. There is no evidence that any of the exposed crust has a normal midocean ridge basalt (NMORB) composition. Formation of the ophiolite at a submarine spreading centre is demonstrated by the continuous sheeted dyke complex, abundant pillow lavas and overlying marine sediments. Despite the strong SSZ geochemical signature there is no evidence for an adjacent volcanic arc during the formation of the Troodos ocean crust and the lack of volcaniclastic sediments provides strong evidence that there were no associated subaerial volcanic edifices (e.g. Robertson 1990). A series of drill cores, which recovered almost the entire lava and dyke complexes and \sim 1.5 km into the plutonic complex (referred to as CY1, CY1A, CY2, CY2A and CY4), have provided an important resource for much of the work in Cyprus. The ophiolite can be broadly divided into two regions, the main ophiolite massif to the north and a structurally and geochemically more complex region to the south. They are divided by the Arakapas Fault Zone, which is believed to have been an transform fault. This study was carried out entirely within the main ophiolite massif north of this fault zone.

A large number of studies have investigated the lava stratigraphy in the Troodos ophiolite. A commonly held view is that there is a lower suite of basaltic–andesite to dacite lavas, referred to as the lower pillow lavas (LPL), which may be aphyric or contain phenocrysts of plagioclase, clinopyroxene, orthopyroxene and/or magnetite. This is overlain by a more primitive basaltic to andesitic upper pillow lava (UPL) suite, which can contain chromite, olivine, orthopyroxene, clinopyroxene and plagioclase phenocrysts (e.g. Cameron 1985; Thy and Xenophontos 1991). However, in reality, there is considerable complexity within the lava stratigraphy with primitive lavas also being common at the base of the lava section in some areas (Taylor 1990; Bednarz and Schmincke 1994; Portnyagin et al. 1997) and interlayered with more typical LPL in other places (Taylor 1990; Sobolev et al. 1993). Some studies have suggested that the changes in lava chemistry with depth in the extrusives record the eruption of an axial and an off-axis suite (e.g. Thy and Moores 1988). In contrast, Baragar et al. (1987) shows that there is no systematic age relationship between dykes with UPL and LPL compositions, indicating that there was no temporal transition between these magma types. Using this observation, together with palaeomagnetic inclinations (used to infer tectonic rotations), Schouten and Denham (2000) propose that the lava sequence was erupted from a single zone with the upper lavas flowing farther off-axis (up to \sim 2.5 km) and thus ending up at the top of the lava succession. Thus, vertical stratigraphies through the Troodos lava sequence provide, at best, ambiguous information about temporal changes in magma compositions. It is also noteworthy that in the CY1/1A drill cores the more primitive UPLs have the same Zr/Y ratio as the more differentiated LPLs, suggesting that at least some of the distinction between these suites is simply due to the degree of crystal fractionation. Within, and to the south of, the Arakapas Fault Zone there is a third, boninitic suite of lavas (e.g. McCulloch and Cameron 1983; Rogers et al. 1989). Lavas with these highly depleted compositions have not been described in the main ophiolite massif that we have studied.

The plutonic section of the Troodos ophiolites has also been divided into early and late suites by some workers (Benn 1986; Benn and Laurent 1987; Thy 1987; Dunsworth 1989; Ash 1990). However, based on mineral major element compositions there has been disagreement over whether the divisions within the plutonics correspond with the division of the extrusives (Benn and Laurent 1987; Thy 1987; Dunsworth 1989; Malpas 1990). At a map scale, the plutonic sequence appears to show a general stratigraphic sequence. At the base it is dominated by ultramafic cumulates; these are overlain by mafic cumulates and the most evolved dioritic and trondjemitic lithologies are most abundant near the base of the sheeted dyke complex. The basal 1.5 km of the CY4 drill core shows a similar general stratigraphy, although the depth of the petrological Moho beneath the base of this hole is uncertain (e.g. Thy 1987; Malpas 1990). In detail, however, there is abundant intermixing of the plutonic lithologies; for example, plagiogranites are found adjacent to deep-seated ultramafic cumulates and ultramafic cumulates exist close to the base of the sheeted dyke complex. Decimetre-scale ultramafic and mafic layers also commonly exist adjacent to one another.

Major element compositional variability within the plutonics has been used to investigate magma chamber processes and crustal evolution. These studies have identified compositional layering on a variety of scales within the plutonics. Browning et al. (1989) have documented significant metre-scale cryptic variations in the basal (generally ultramafic) part of the CY4 drill core. Dunsworth (1989) found little cryptic variation on a metre-scale in a 20-m section of layered gabbros northwest of Mt Olympus although a few metre-thick horizons show slight variations in Cr in clinopyroxene. Ash (1990) documents 50–100-m scale variations in whole-rock chemistry in a section of ultramafic cumulates in the Amiandos area. The most detailed, and largest-scale, chemical stratigraphy available is for the CY4 drill core in which Thy (1987) documents various cryptic variations

on a 100-m scale. These variations are more strongly developed in the uppermost part of the core within gabbronorites, but are present throughout the core.

In this study the plutonic complex was re-examined and sampled in the field and, to a much lesser extent, in the CY4 drill core (Fig. 1, Tables 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5). Samples were collected from nearly the entire outcrop area of the main Troodos plutonic complex (north of the Arakapas Fault Zone) to provide an overview of the trace element variability within the lower crust. Samples were collected from all previously mapped units using the maps of Wilson (1959), Benn (1986), Benn and Laurent (1987), Dunsworth (1989), Ash (1990) and Malpas and Brace (1987). Sampling was restricted to the main ophiolite massif, north of the Arakapas Fault Zone, both because this is the area in which previous mapping identified early and late plutonic suites and also to avoid the complexities associated with the area within and to the south of the Arakapas Fault Zone.

Analytical techniques

The major element compositions of the cores of clinopyroxene, plagioclase and olivine crystals were determined using a JEOL 8600 electron microprobe at the University of Leicester. A 30-nA beam current, $15-kV$ accelerating voltage and 10 - μ m spot size were used for all analyses. A ZAF correction procedure was used to reduce the raw data.

The trace element compositions of the cores of cumulus clinopyroxene crystals were determined using a Cameca 4f ion microprobe at the University of Edinburgh. Crystals were chosen for analysis on the basis of being the largest (unaltered) clinopyroxene in a thin section and, thus, the most likely to be a cut through the centre of a crystal. Even if \sim 50% of the volume of a crystal is zoned this only constitutes the outer \sim 20% of the diameter of the crystal, making it likely that the cores of crystals can be identified in this way. Calibration was performed against NIST 610 using element abundances from Pearce et al. (1997). A \sim 15-nA beam current produced a spot size of \sim 30 μ m. A 75-eV offset energy was used to reduce molecular interferences and the remaining interferences, such as light rare earth element (LREE) oxides on heavy (H)REEs, were corrected offline. Counting times were varied between samples with the aim of maintaining a precision of better than 15% relative on the lowest abundance elements (LREE), leading to total counting times of up to 250 s on these elements in some samples. All data are reported in Tables 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5.

Whole-rock trace element compositions of dykes cutting the plutonics were determined by ICP-MS using a Perkin Elmer Elan 5000 at Cardiff University. Samples were dissolved using a standard HF-HNO₃ dissolution procedure. Calibration was performed using commercial elemental solutions and international rock standards were run as an external check of the data quality.

Field observations

Figure 1 shows the distribution of plutonic lithologies in the area north of the Arakapas Fault Zone and the locations of the samples used in this study. The Pleistocene and Recent uplift of Mt Olympus (e.g. Robertson 1990), which led to the exposure of the deeper plutonic and residual mantle parts of the ophiolite, was accommoFig. 1 Simplified map showing the distribution of plutonics in the main part of the Troodos ophiolite (north of the Arakapas Fault Zone) and the location of the samples used in this study (modified from the Geological Survey of Cyprus Map 1995). Sample numbers prefixes 99CL are excluded for clarity. Note that the samples come from almost the entire extent of the exposed plutonic section of the main ophiolite massif. The inset shows the Troodos ophiolite with the plutonic section at the centre of a dome-like structure with dykes and then lavas distributed concentrically around it. Also shown is the location of the Arakapas Fault Zone (AFZ)

dated by significant faulting along the eastern side of Mt Olympus (Fig. 1). This means that it is difficult to establish a plutonic pseudo-stratigraphy except within the CY4 drill core and it also makes accurate calculation of the thickness of the Troodos crust difficult. Three estimates of crustal thickness can be made. Firstly, Vine and Smith (1990) show that geological reconstruction of CY1, CY1a and CY4 produces a stacked crustal section 3.56 km thick ''with little more than 100 m of the section missing''. This reconstruction produces a systematic variation in rock physical properties (magnetics, density, elasticity and conductivity) with depth supporting the 'stacked' nature of these drill cores. Vine and Smith (1990) suggest that the base of CY4 is probably near the base of the crust indicating a \sim 4-km-thick crustal section. Secondly, regional mapping led Wilson (1959) to draw cross sections with ≤ 2 km of plutonics and \leq 2.5 km of dykes and lavas, suggesting a total crustal thickness of ≤ 4.5 km. A maximum thickness (apparent rather than true thickness) of the plutonics is defined by their horizontal outcrop extent to the west of Mt Olympus. In this region, the foliation within the plutonic section varies smoothly from east to west, implying that the uplift of Mt Olympus was principally taken up by doming rather than faulting (Dunsworth 1989). The width of the outcrop of plutonics here is \sim 5 km placing an upper limit on the thickness of the plutonic suite and thus a maximum crustal thickness is 7.5 km. Finally, south of the Arakapas Fault Zone the crustal thickness has been estimated at \sim 4 km (MacLeod 1990). In summary, we suggest that the total crustal thickness is probably \leq 5 km and is certainly \leq 7.5 km.

The previous studies that have divided the plutonics into early and late suites (Benn 1986; Benn and Laurent 1987; Dunsworth 1989; Ash 1990) have used three principal field criteria to define mappable plutons: (1)

patches of one lithology or grain size in a body of another lithology or grain size, which are interpreted as xenoliths; (2) the coexistence of plutonics in which the layering is folded and contorted and those in which it is not interpreted as indicative of deformation after formation of the folded plutonics and before formation of the unfolded plutonics; and (3) discordancy of layering and foliation orientations within and between adjacent outcrops. Our re-examination of the Troodos plutonics has revealed no evidence for any significant time interval between the bodies mapped as early and late suites. Firstly, features interpreted as xenoliths of other intrusions (e.g. Fig. 5 of Malpas et al. 1989) have major and trace element compositions identical to their hosts. This suggests that either complete equilibration was achieved, or fortuitous similarities existed between their parental melt compositions, or they are not xenoliths (e.g. samples 99CL74a and b; Tables 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5). Although these alternatives cannot be unambiguously distinguished, the compositional similarities between so-called xenoliths and host raises sufficient doubt about the origin of the 'xenoliths' that they cannot be considered as strong evidence for multiple magma chambers. Furthermore, the existence of xenoliths does not require a significant time interval between the formation of the 'xenoliths' and 'host'. Secondly, we find no field or microstructural evidence for significant crystal plastic deformation in any of the plutonic rocks (as exists in oceanic gabbros from slow-spreading ridges; e.g. Cannat 1991). Instead, there is copious evidence of magmatic deformation (e.g. folding and shearing of layering, strong mineral foliations and lineations), which is defined by the orientation of unstrained elongate magmatic crystals. Magmatic deformation may be heterogeneous within a magma chamber (e.g. slumping at the wall, but not at the floor) and, thus, cannot be used as evidence

Sample prefix	99CL													
Sample crystal mode $(\%)$	$\mathbf{1}$		$8\,$		9		10		11		12		13	
	a	b	\mathbf{a}	$\mathbf b$	a	b	a	b	\mathbf{q}	$\mathbf b$	a	$\mathbf b$	a	\mathbf{a}
ol			20	20			10	10	55	55			90	90
opx	35	35	80	80	40	40	50	50	45	45	25	25	10	10
opx	5	5									15	15		
plag	60	60			60	60	40	40			60	60		
$wt\%$														
SiO ₂	52.3	53.7	53.7	53.3	53.7	53.3	53.7	54.0	53.9	53.4	52.8	53.2	53.8	53.3
TiO ₂	0.32	0.14	0.17	0.14	0.21	0.24	0.15	0.18	0.08	0.07	0.16	0.14	0.11	0.14
Al_2O_3	3.2	1.6	2.0	2.5	2.4	2.1	1.9	1.9	2.1	2.4	3.1	1.7	2.0	2.0
Cr ₂ O ₂	0.06	0.20	0.23	0.25	0.22	0.24	0.22	0.15	0.48	0.76	0.06	0.20	0.23	0.25
FeO MnO	7.8 0.19	5.1 0.14	5.5 0.15	5.9 0.16	4.7 0.21	4.9 0.21	4.9 0.12	5.1 0.12	5.2 0.12	4.0 0.11	5.2 0.15	4.7 0.12	4.0 0.17	4.3 0.12
MgO	16.6	18.6	18.2	18.6	15.7	16.2	17.6	18.1	17.8	18.4	16.7	17.3	17.9	17.5
CaO	19.0	20.7	20.9	18.4	23.5	23.5	21.6	21.7	21.8	21.5	21.9	22.4	22.7	22.3
Na ₂ O	0.30	0.08	0.13	0.17	0.14	0.15	0.13	0.12	0.14	0.06	0.20	0.08	0.08	0.28
Total	99.8	100.3	101.1	99.3	101.9	100.9	100.4	101.2	100.6	100.8	100.2	99.8	100.9	100.3
ppm														
Sc	71	101	82	85	87	88	78	79	77	70	91	82	90	79
Ti	723	1,865	753	795	804	848	774	767	416	378	665	676	517	427
\mathbf{V}	167	294	191	195	206	209	183	179	188	179	218	220	215	193
Cr	1,562	975	1,585	1,842	1,706	1,572	1,222	1,199	3,279	5,413	746	1,241	1,377	1,735
Sr	3.2	4.5	3.3	3.9	3.6	4.0	3.5	3.6	2.2	2.3	3.4	2.6	2.9	3.3
$\mathbf Y$	4.6	11.0	5.0	5.1	5.3	5.3	5.2	5.4	2.9	2.3	4.5	4.7	3.5	2.8
Zr	0.93	6.15	1.07	1.10	1.20	1.29	1.26	1.28	0.26	0.28	0.88	0.56	0.30	0.44
La	0.05	0.13	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.02
Ce	0.17	0.56	0.15	0.12	0.16	0.17	0.18	0.19	0.04	0.03	0.12	0.08	0.04	0.06
Pr	0.05	0.14	0.05	0.03	0.04	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.02
Nd	0.49	1.33	0.38	0.38	0.43	0.46	0.46	0.51	0.11	0.07	0.37	0.27	0.13	0.13
Sm	0.26	0.69	0.28	0.32	0.36	0.35	0.29	0.32	0.12	0.08	0.25	0.22	0.12	0.11
Eu	0.13	0.30	0.12	0.15	0.11	0.15	0.13	0.14	0.07	0.04	0.13	0.11	0.07	0.06
Gd	0.51	1.07	0.55	0.53	0.57	0.65	0.55	0.59	0.30	0.20	0.50	0.46	0.30	0.27
Tb														
Dy	0.80	1.67	0.77	0.84	0.91	0.79	0.88	0.91	0.48	0.41	0.84	0.72	0.57	0.45
Ho	0.18	0.42	0.19	0.22	0.20	0.22	0.21	0.22	0.12	0.09	0.20	0.18	0.13	0.11
Er	0.53	1.25	0.70	0.51	0.51	0.64	0.58	0.65	0.38	0.27	0.48	0.45	0.37	0.29
Tm														
Yb	0.50	1.07	0.49	0.62	0.34	0.52	0.61	0.63	0.39	0.25	0.52	0.61	0.36	0.35
Lu														

Table 1 Compositions of all clinopyroxene crystals analysed in this study along with sample modes (visually estimated from thin sections)

for difference in the age of the plutonics (e.g. McBirney and Nicolas 1997). This could also lead to discordance between layering and foliation orientations in different parts of a single magma chamber. Thus, the observation of discordance between layer orientations is, at best, inconclusive evidence for multiple magma chambers. Finally, no chilled margins were identified within the plutonics even where different lithologies exist adjacent to one another. It is thus concluded that field relationships do not provide unequivocal evidence for (or against) the existence of multiple magma chambers that cooled completely prior to the intrusion of later plutons.

Petrography and mineral major element compositions

The plutonic rocks of the Troodos ophiolite range from dunites through to plagiogranites. In this study, the most evolved lithologies have not been considered because the aim was to investigate parental melt compositions; however, the range of lithologies studied is still large (Fig. 2; Tables 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5). Ultramafic samples are dominated by clinopyroxene and/or olivine with lesser amounts of orthopyroxene, plagioclase and Crspinel. Mafic samples are generally olivine and Cr-spinel free and orthopyroxene-bearing. No troctolites were observed in the field. The high abundance of ultramafic cumulates and the absence of troctolites indicates a reversal in the order of appearance of clinopyroxene and plagioclase on the low pressure liquidus compared with that in MORB. This suggests either that the parental melt was highly depleted and/or that it had a high $H₂O$ activity, which would have suppressed plagioclase saturation (e.g. Panjasawatwong et al. 1995).

Figure 3 compares the co-variation of clinopyroxene $Mg#-Cr₂O₃$ and $Mg#-TiO₂$ in the Troodos plutonics

with that observed in gabbros from normal mid-ocean ridges. In the relatively primitive samples (Cr_2O_3) 0.3 wt\%) the Troodos clinopyroxenes generally have a higher Mg#, and a lower Ti content, for a given Cr_2O_3 content than clinopyroxene in gabbros from normal midocean ridges. This suggests that, with respect to MORB, the Troodos parental melt was more magnesian and had lower incompatible element abundances, consistent with studies of the lava and dyke geochemistry (e.g. Pearce et al. 1984; Sobolev et al. 1993).

Oxygen fugacity

The sources of supra-subduction zone magmas are generally more oxidised than the MORB source (e.g. Parkinson and Arculus 1999). The partitioning of Fe into plagioclase is strongly dependent on oxygen fugacity because of the higher partitioning of $Fe³⁺$ into plagioclase (in place of Al^{3+}) than that of Fe²⁺ (e.g. Phinney 1992); thus, the partitioning of iron between plagioclase and coexisting mafic phases can be used as an oxygen barometer. In order to estimate the oxygen fugacity under which crystallisation of the Troodos plutonics took place the oxygen barometer of Sungawara (2001) has been applied to new and published data for coexisting plagioclase and olivine. The results are shown in Fig. 4 in which they are compared with data for gabbros from the Mid-Atlantic Ridge. The values for the Mid-Atlantic Ridge gabbros are similar to, or slightly higher than, those expected based on direct $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ measurements for primitive MORB glasses (Christie et al. 1986). The higher values may either indicate a slight offset of the barometer calibration to higher fO_2 values, or that the magma that crystallised the Mid-Atlantic Ridge gabbros was

 $00C1$

Table 2 Compositions of all clinopyroxene crystals analysed in this study along with sample modes (visually estimated from thin sections)

フフヘレ														
Sample mode		23	24		27A 27B		28		30		31		34	
	a	\mathbf{a}	a	\rm{a}	\rm{a}	b	a	b	a	b	a	b	a	b
_o ₁ cpx opx	40	40	50 30 20	50 30 20	5 90	100	80 20	80 20	60 30	60 30	30 10	30 10	30 55 15	30 55 15
plag	60	60			5				10	10	60	60		
$\mathrm{wt}\mathrm{^{0}\!}/_{\!0}$														
SiO ₂ TiO ₂ Al_2O_3	53.5 0.09 1.1	53.2 0.11 1.4	54.7 0.03 0.8	55.1 0.00 0.8	54.8 0.04 1.1	54.0 0.07 1.6	54.1 0.02 1.0	54.9 0.06 1.2	53.8 0.12 2.4	53.8 0.11 2.2	54.2 0.13 0.8	54.2 0.13 0.8	54.9 0.05 1.1	55.4 0.04 0.7
Cr_2O_3	0.07	0.07	0.70	0.74	0.50	0.51	0.56	0.55	0.89	0.94	0.07	0.07	0.50	0.38
FeO MnO	6.6 0.22	6.3 0.26	3.1 0.09	3.0 0.09	3.7 0.13	3.8 0.13	3.4 0.14	3.5 0.13	3.7 0.11	3.4 0.12	4.9 0.17	4.9 0.17	3.6 0.09	4.0 0.15
MgO	16.1	15.9	19.5	19.5	19.9	18.0	19.0	18.8	18.9	18.4	16.7	16.7	19.0	21.2
CaO Na ₂ O	22.7 0.07	22.8 0.07	22.1 0.09	22.0 0.07	20.8 0.05	22.4 0.07	22.1 0.08	22.4 0.07	21.3 0.09	22.0 0.09	23.6 0.06	23.6 0.06	22.3 0.07	19.3 0.03
Total ppm	100.5	100.2	101.0	101.3	101.1	100.5	100.5	101.6	101.2	101.1	100.7	100.7	101.5	101.2
Sc	96	100	30	31	41	48	41	41	63	58	101	98	48	38
Ti	546	528	171	183	230	335	219	241	444	410	1.174	1.003	238	162
V	290	291	75	80	106	136	100	100	153	141	295	262	121	85
Cr	515	574	4.354	4.724	3.150	3.202	3.470	3.625	5.969	5.811	612	616	3.001	2.362
Sr	1.9	1.9	1.2	1.5	1.2	1.4	1.3	1.2	2.1	2.1	3.9	3.9	1.2	1.0
Y	3.9	4.0	$\rm 0.8$	0.9	1.3	2.2	1.4	1.5	2.7	2.4	7.2	6.3	1.4	0.8
Zr	0.35	0.34	0.13	0.15	0.14	0.31	0.16	0.16	0.50	0.43	1.44	1.15	0.13	0.07
La	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.06	0.05	0.01	0.00
Ce	0.06	0.06	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.05	0.05	0.27	0.20	0.03	0.01
Pr	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.06	0.05	0.01	0.00
Nd	0.16	0.14	0.02	0.03	0.07	0.12	0.05	0.07	0.15	0.14	0.65	0.50	0.08	0.03
Sm	0.14	0.17	0.03	0.02	0.06	0.10	0.05	0.05	0.15	0.13	0.43	0.38	0.05	0.03
Eu	0.10	0.06	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.07	0.06	0.17	0.17	0.03	0.01
Gd Tb	0.36	0.33	0.07	0.10	0.11	0.19	0.13	0.16	0.24	0.19	0.79	0.74	0.11	0.06
Dy	0.63	0.69	0.15	0.15	0.17	0.42	0.24	0.26	0.42	0.42	1.07	1.06	0.22	0.13
Ho	0.14	0.17	0.03	0.04	0.06	0.08	0.06	0.06	0.09	0.10	0.27	0.25	0.04	0.03
Er Tm	0.42	0.52	0.11	0.10	0.14	0.26	0.17	0.16	0.31	0.26	0.76	0.86	0.14	0.10
Yb Lu	0.42	0.52	0.14	0.18	0.17	0.30	0.17	0.19	0.35	0.24	0.83	0.75	0.16	$0.10\,$

slightly more oxidised than primitive MORB. Either way, the systematic difference between the Mid-Atlantic Ridge and Troodos plutonics, with the Troodos plutonics recording oxygen fugacities slightly more than one log unit higher, is consistent with the inference of a SSZ setting based on basalt geochemistry. The larger range in fO_2 recorded by the Troodos plutonics may suggest more variation in parental melt composition than at normal MORs.

Clinopyroxene trace element characteristics

Clinopyroxene crystal cores contain a wide range of trace element abundance (e.g. from 20 ppb to 5 ppm Nd). If we are to use this variation to investigate the generation and aggregation of their parental melts then the clinopyroxene compositions must record equilibrium with their parental melt and the partitioning between melt and crystals must have been approximately constant. Equilibrium with the parental melt requires that the crystals were in equilibrium with the melt when they grew and that later volume diffusion did not modify their compositions, for example, by re-equilibration with trapped melt.

Several lines of evidence suggest that the first requirement is likely. Firstly, experimental studies have shown that surface equilibrium between melt and clinopyroxene is highly probable during crystal growth (Watson 1996). Even using the slowest available REE diffusion data in clinopyroxene at temperatures $>1,210$ °C disequilibrium growth is unlikely at natural growth rates (Van Orman et al. 2001). Secondly, disequilibrium partitioning leads to an enrichment of high charge-to-mass elements over lower charge-to-mass elements (Shimizu 1981). Thus, if variable degrees of disequilibrium lead to variations in the effective partition coefficients during the crystallisation of different samples

then elements such as Zr and Nd would be fractionated. Instead, the data show an excellent one-to-one correlation between these elements. Thirdly, disequilibrium partitioning leads to an increase in the effective partition coefficient over the equilibrium partitioning for incompatible elements with all partition coefficients tending to unity. In contrast, a key characteristic of the Troodos clinopyroxenes is their very low incompatible element concentrations and the low ratios of more-to-less incompatible elements. Fourthly, comparison of the compositions of the clinopyroxene crystals in the Troodos plutonic suite with those of cumulate clinopyroxene from the present-day oceans should allow direct comparison of the parental melt compositions (e.g. Fig. 3). This is true unless crystallisation rates were substantially different during formation of the Troodos ophiolite than they are at either the slow- or the fast-spreading Mid-Atlantic Ridge and East Pacific Rise. Finally, for disequilibrium growth to lead to the wide range of trace element crystallisation of these plutonic rocks would have had to occur at very different rates, which does not seem likely based on the similar, and coarse, grain sizes and the lack of chilled margins in the field.

Significant diffusive elemental transport within the volume of the clinopyroxene crystals post-crystallisation is unlikely to have been important in modifying the trace element compositions of clinopyroxene crystal cores as all of the trace elements analysed in this study have very slow diffusion rates (Sneeringer et al. 1984; Van Orman et al. 2001). In support of this, Coogan et al. (2000b) demonstrate that sub-solidus diffusion cannot have modified zoning profiles in clinopyroxene in plutonics from the Mid-Atlantic Ridge.

Large variations in distribution coefficients between crystals seem unlikely. This is because the variations in clinopyroxene major element compositions – the dominant control on the distribution coefficients (Wood and Blundy 1997) – are relatively small. For example, the

Table 3 Compositions of all clinopyroxene crystals analysed in this study along with sample modes (visually estimated from thin sections)

99CL															
Sample	45	47		48			49		52	53		63	54A		54B
mode	b	a	b	\rm{a}	b	$\rm c$	a	b	$\mathbf a$	a	b	b	a	b	$\mathbf c$
o1	30			50	50	50			30				85	70	70
cpx	70	20	20	25	25	25	25	25	20	50	50	50	15	15	15
opx		20	20	25	25	25	15	15	20	50	50	50		15	15
plag		60	60				60	60	30						
$wt\%$															
SiO ₂	53.4	53.5	53.8	53.9	54.2	54.1	53.1	52.3	53.0	51.4	51.9	52.4	52.5	53.9	53.8
TiO ₂	0.17	0.17	0.21	0.37	0.20	0.16	0.10	0.42	0.40	0.67	0.61	0.42	0.03	0.04	0.04
Al_2O_3	2.3	1.8	1.9	2.2	1.9	2.4	0.8	1.6	2.7	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.6	2.5
Cr ₂ O ₃	0.39	0.05	0.12	0.96	0.69	0.83	0.00	0.02	0.21	0.16	0.24	0.23	1.01	1.00	0.97
FeO	4.2	6.3	7.0	3.3	3.1	3.3	9.3	9.9	7.2	8.4	7.6	6.8	3.4	3.8	3.4
MnO	0.12	0.18	0.16	0.09	0.12	0.10	0.21	0.26	0.16	0.29	0.23	0.19	0.07	0.13	0.12
MgO	18.1	16.9	17.4	17.8	18.1	17.5	14.4	14.0	17.2	15.2	16.1	16.8	19.0	20.3	18.7
CaO	22.0	21.9	21.5	23.0	23.3	23.5	22.4	21.8	20.5	20.7	20.5	20.6	21.6	19.5	21.9
Na ₂ O	0.08	0.18	0.17	0.33	0.31	0.15	0.20	0.25	0.21	0.25	0.19	0.18	0.11	0.09	0.10
Total	100.7	101.0	102.1	101.9	101.9	102.0	100.6	100.6	101.5	99.5	99.6	99.8	100.0	101.4	101.5
ppm															
$\rm Sc$	84	90	91				166	135	118				60	57	57
Ti	727	1.030	974	1.043	386	1.806	800	2.011	1.976	3.903	2.771	1.958 263		260	271
V	183	222	220	180	102	193	234	279	303	349	299	246	155	152	154
Cr	2.220	698	700	5.592	3.882	4.530	164	119	1.316	806	1.580	1.524	6.748	6.375	6.255
Sr	3.4	4.0	3.9	3.8	5.7	4.7	4.3	6.3	4.6	5.8	5.3	5.0	2.3	1.9	1.8
Y	4.1	7.0	6.2	8.5	4.6	14.9	27.8	19.2	12.3	22.7	15.4	11.1	1.7	1.8	1.6
Zr	0.97	1.90	1.53	3.96	7.01	11.53	12.40	8.69	4.75	10.47	6.07	4.29	0.24	0.30	0.30
La	0.02	0.06	0.06	0.14	0.24	0.31	0.35	0.28	0.09	0.21	0.14	0.11	0.01	0.01	0.01
Ce	0.12	0.32	0.26	0.58	0.59	1.37	1.71	1.03	0.52	1.21	0.76	0.53	0.03	0.03	0.02
Pr	0.02	0.07	0.07	0.13	0.13	0.32	0.40	0.25	0.14	0.31	0.19	0.18	0.01	0.01	0.01
Nd	0.31	0.73	0.60	1.10	0.63	2.29	3.42	2.17	1.37	2.99	1.71	1.30	0.06	0.06	0.04
Sm	0.27	0.41	0.40	0.62	0.39	1.23	2.07	1.26	0.83	1.59	1.08	0.85	0.08	0.08	0.06
Eu	0.13	0.17	0.17	0.22	0.14	0.42	0.45	0.40	0.38	0.57	0.43	0.32	0.03	0.03	0.03
Gd	0.52	0.79	0.68	0.97	0.41	1.99	3.39	2.16	1.44	3.13	1.80	1.52	0.14	0.15	0.13
Tb				0.20	0.12	0.38				0.55	0.42	0.29			
Dy	0.75	1.14	0.98	1.31	0.75	2.70	5.02	3.40	2.16	4.38	2.60	1.86	0.28	0.31	0.29
Ho	0.18	0.26	0.22	0.29	0.18	0.59	1.06	0.77	0.50	0.88	0.56	0.43	0.07	0.07	0.07
Er	0.44	0.70	0.70	1.01	0.55	1.70	3.00	1.81	1.42	2.38	1.63	1.18	0.18	0.18	0.17
Tm				0.15	0.07	0.23				0.35	0.24	0.15			
Yb	0.51	0.75	0.56	0.86	0.58	1.84	2.79	2.24	1.39	2.58	1.98	1.06	0.24	0.24	0.14
Lu				0.09	0.07	0.21				0.29	0.22	0.15			

model of Wood and Blundy (1997) to the clinopyroxene major element compositions predicts $\langle 3\%$ variation in the distribution coefficient for Nd. Furthermore, there is no correlation between clinopyroxene Ca content and the abundance of incompatible elements despite Ca being critical to the partition coefficient (Gaetani and Grove 1995; Wood and Blundy 1997).

Spatial distribution of clinopyroxene trace element compositions

There is no consistent variation in clinopyroxene compositions between plutonics previously mapped as the early and late suites either within a single map area or across the ophiolite as a whole. The most depleted clinopyroxene trace element signatures are observed in ultramafic cumulates and these are, in general, more depleted than those of adjacent mafic plutonics even where ultramafic and mafic bodies are intermixed on a

100-m scale. However, not all primitive ultramafic cumulates contain depleted clinopyroxene and some rare primitive gabbroic samples also contain clinopyroxene with very depleted trace element compositions. No spatial ordering of clinopyroxene trace element systematics is evident on a map scale, although mappable ultramafic bodies enclosed within high-level gabbronorites (samples 99CL72 and 99CL76; Fig. 1) contain clinopyroxene crystals that are not as depleted as the clinopyroxene in most of the other ultramafic samples studied. Instead the clinopyroxene in these high-level ultramafics have compositions similar to that of clinopyroxene in the surrounding gabbronorites. Despite their high structural level, the parental melt for these bodies was primitive as shown by the high Cr content and $Mg^{\#}$ of clinopyroxene. In summary, ultramafic lithologies are more common at deeper structural levels and those found at deeper structural levels generally, but not invariably, contain more depleted clinopyroxene.

On a smaller scale, in two places clinopyroxene crystals in adjacent mafic and ultramafic layers within a layered sequence have been analysed (samples 99CL8/9/ 10 and 99CL52/3; Fig. 1). In both localities layering is on a decimetre-scale. In these instances there is no significant difference in the compositions of the clinopyroxene in the mafic and ultramafic layers. This suggests either a similar parental melt composition with, for example, layering having been formed by physical crystal separation within a magma chamber, or different parent melt compositions with post cumulus dissolutionreprecipitation reactions leading to equilibration between the adjacent layers.

Clinopyroxene trace element systematics

Chondrite-normalised spidergrams of representative clinopyroxene compositions are shown in Fig. 5. The most striking feature of these plots is the greater than two orders of magnitude variation in the abundances of the most incompatible elements. Clinopyroxenes in mafic samples have, on average, slightly higher incompatible element abundances than clinopyroxene in ultramafic samples. All clinopyroxene are characterised by a significant negative Zr anomaly and most by slight negative Ti anomalies. There is a marked positive Sr anomaly in many of the most depleted clinopyroxenes and a negative Sr anomaly in clinopyroxenes with high incompatible element abundances.

Figure 6 shows representative clinopyroxene compositions normalised to the average composition of the most primitive clinopyroxene in gabbros from the MARK area of the Mid-Atlantic Ridge (MAR). Basalts from this region of the MAR are typical NMORB and the clinopyroxene used for normalisation contains \sim 10,000 ppm Cr suggesting that it is close to being in equilibrium with an unfractionated mantle melt (Coogan et al. 2000a). This normalisation is equivalent to normalising the clinopyroxene parental melts to primi99CL

Sample	66	67			69					70		72A	72B	
mode		$\mathbf c$		\rm{a}	b	\mathbf{a}	$\mathbf b$	$\mathbf c$	\mathbf{a}	b	$\mathbf c$	$\mathbf c$	\mathbf{a}	a
ol cpx	25 70	80 20		80 20	30 65	30 65	30 65	70 30	70 30	70 30	70 30	80 20	80 20	40 60
орх plag	5				5	5	5							
$wt\%$														
SiO ₂	54.6	52.4		52.7	53.4	53.0	53.0	53.4	53.4	52.8	52.8	52.8	52.8	54.0
TiO ₂	0.02		0.07	0.12	0.17	0.13	0.18	0.03	0.01	0.07	0.05	0.16	0.15	0.17
Al ₂ O ₃	1.2		2.0	2.2	2.4	2.8	2.6	3.3	2.9	3.0	2.9	2.5	2.7	2.2
Cr_2O_3	0.57		0.95	0.80	0.42	0.93	0.68	1.23	1.03	1.05	1.10	0.93	0.87	0.71
FeO	3.7		3.3	3.7	3.9	4.3	3.9	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.3	4.1	4.0	4.2
MnO	0.11		0.11	0.11	0.13	0.12	0.15	0.11	0.11	0.11	0.11	0.12	0.09	0.15
MgO	20.3	18.4		18.2	17.5	17.6	17.5	17.4	18.2	18.3	18.4	18.2	18.1	18.3
CaO	20.6	22.3		22.0	22.9	21.7	22.0	23.0	22.4	22.0	22.0	21.3	21.2	21.5
Na ₂ O	0.10		0.11	0.08	0.16	0.13	0.15	0.11	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.12	0.12	0.12
Total	101.2	99.6		100.0	100.9	100.6	100.1	101.7	101.5	100.8	100.8	100.1	100.0	101.4
ppm	34	59		64						64	67	92	89	85
Sc Ti	140	308		417	1,053	804	781	241	228	238	261	1,037	914	867
$\mathbf V$	72	144		179	165	138	136	111	110	153	154	221	209	190
Cr	2,968	5,388		5,859	2,836	5,762	4,587	6,451	6,848	7,410	6,828	5,487	5,608	5,705
$\rm Sr$	1.6		2.1	1.9	6.4	4.6	4.8	2.0	2.1	2.5	2.1	3.6	3.2	3.0
$\mathbf Y$	0.9		2.1	2.7	5.6	4.5	4.2	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	6.5	5.7	5.4
Zr	0.14		0.35	0.44	3.11	1.54	1.56	0.31	0.35	0.32	0.31	1.49	1.20	1.14
La	0.01		0.01	0.01	0.08	0.06	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.04	0.03	0.03
Ce	0.03		0.05	0.05	0.37	0.19	0.22	0.03	0.05	0.03	0.04	0.21	0.16	0.14
\Pr	0.01		0.01	0.01	0.09	0.05	0.05	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.06	0.04	0.04
Nd	0.04		0.10	0.12	0.72	0.68	0.81	0.13	0.06	0.04	0.07	0.53	0.49	0.42
Sm	0.02		0.08	0.11	0.42	0.39	0.31	0.08	0.07	0.06	0.08	0.39	0.27	0.27
Eu	0.01		0.04	0.05	0.16	0.17	0.19	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.15	0.14	0.13
Gd	0.04		0.20	0.24	0.73	0.63	0.65	0.22	0.14	0.13	0.10	0.72	0.64	0.61
Tb					0.13	0.11	0.15	0.03	0.03					
Dy	0.14		0.38	0.40	1.14	0.77	0.76	0.26	0.21	0.27	0.32	0.99	0.88	0.83
Ho	0.03		0.08	0.12	0.23	0.17	0.16	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.06	0.24	0.21	0.20
Er	0.12		0.25	0.28	0.65	0.50	0.45	0.17	0.21	0.18	0.18	0.77	0.58	0.59
Tm					0.12	0.06	0.07	0.02	0.03					
Yb	0.06		0.28	0.36	0.69	0.57	0.36	0.18	0.27	0.12	0.21	0.72	0.53	0.55
Lu					0.07	0.08	0.06	0.03	0.04					

Table 4 Compositions of all clinopyroxene crystals analysed in this study along with sample modes (visually estimated from thin sections)

tive NMORB assuming the same distribution coefficients for both clinopyroxene. This is a reasonable assumption because the major element compositions of the pyroxenes are similar and the crystallisation temperatures are also likely to have been similar. On this basis, Fig. 6 shows that the melts parental to the Troodos plutonic suite (1) were generally more depleted than NMORB, (2) had positive Sr anomalies and (3) were commonly enriched in La and Ce with respect to the middle-REE (e.g. $La_{(n)}/Pr_{(n)} > 1$). This is consistent with the melts being generated from a depleted source into which Sr, and to a lesser extent LREE, were added.

In order to investigate the origins of the variations in incompatible element abundances and ratios Fig. 7 compares the co-variation of clinopyroxene trace element compositions with modelled melting trends and with the compositions of clinopyroxene in gabbros from normal mid-ocean ridges. Details of the modelling methodology are given in the figure caption and Table 6.

Although uncertainty in the distribution coefficients (and the approximation of these variables by single values) and starting compositions make all modelling of this kind imperfect, the comparison with the samples from present-day mid-ocean ridges demonstrates that the principal findings are likely to be robust. There is a much wider range of clinopyroxene trace element compositions, extending to much more depleted compositions, than would have crystallised from the lavas for which trace element compositions have been published. This demonstrates that the range of melts parental to the cumulates was far larger than that erupted. The parental melt compositions ranged to more depleted compositions than could be produced by \sim 30% fractional melting of a homogeneous depleted source if the melts were fully aggregated prior to clinopyroxene crystallisation. This is inconsistent with the relatively thin crust in the Troodos ophiolite (see above) and with the small range of lava compositions. Alternatively, if melts were instanta-

neously transported from their source region into the crust, where they precipitated clinopyroxene (probably preceded by an interval of olivine crystallisation) without any mixing with other melt fractions, only 5–10% melting of the depleted source would be required to explain the range of clinopyroxene compositions. Therefore, the data indicate that incompletely aggregated melts were added to the lower crust and crystallised clinopyroxenebearing cumulates and thus that melt transport within the mantle was inefficient at homogenising the diverse melt compositions generated.

The composition of the mantle source can be investigated using elements that are unlikely to be significantly effected by the addition of a slab-derived component (e.g. Cr, Y, Zr and Ti). Chromium–yttrium systematics (Fig. 7a) show that the melts parental to the Troodos plutonic complex had lower Y abundances, for a given Cr abundance, than clinopyroxene in gabbros from normal mid-ocean ridges. Also, almost all of the primitive (high Cr) Troodos clinopyroxene are more depleted in incompatible elements than in melts produced by 1– 15% melting of a fertile source such as the clinopyroxene from the MAR and EPR. Thus, the Troodos parental melts were generated from a source significantly more depleted than the MORB source (see also Fig. 3).

Titanium and zirconium, two immobile incompatible elements, are much more depleted in the Troodos plutonics than in gabbros from normal mid-ocean ridges, ranging to almost an order of magnitude lower Ti abundances and almost two orders of magnitude lower Zr abundances (Fig. 7b). Only a few samples overlap the field of clinopyroxene cores from normal mid-ocean ridges and none of these are from primitive (high Cr) clinopyroxene suggesting that their higher abundances reflect partial crystallisation rather than melting processes. As with the Cr–Y systematics, this requires melting of a more depleted mantle than the MORB source and crystallisation of incompletely aggregated melts.

 $CY4$

Table 5 Compositions of all clinopyroxene crystals analysed in this study along with sample modes (visually estimated from thin sections)

U14														
Sample mode		1345			1464		1875					1961		
	\rm{a}	\rm{a}	\mathbf{a}	\mathbf{a}	b	b	$\mathbf a$	b	$\mathbf c$	d	$\mathbf c$	\mathbf{a}	b	
_o l												20	20	
cpx	40	40	45	45	45	45	80	80	80	80	80	65	65	
opx	15	15	20	20	20	20	10	10	10	10	10			
plag	45	45	35	35	35	35	10	10	10	10	10	15	15	
$wt\%$														
SiO ₂	53.5	54.2	54.1	54.8	54.8	54.4	54.2	54.1	55.1	54.5	53.9	55.4	54.2	
TiO ₂	0.20	0.17	0.06	0.10	0.04	0.07	0.10	0.10	0.06	0.03	0.16	0.04	0.04	
Al_2O_3	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.7	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.2	1.4	2.0	2.2	1.4	1.5	
Cr_2O_3	0.10	0.19	0.08	0.08	0.27	0.25	0.52	0.54	0.69	0.62	0.53	0.50	0.69	
FeO	7.3	6.5	4.8	4.8	4.5	4.2	3.4	3.4	3.0	3.3	4.3	3.4	3.5	
MnO	0.17	0.24	0.18	0.14	0.07	0.16	0.12	0.07	0.11	0.08	0.18	0.12	0.05	
MgO	16.6	16.5	18.2	18.6	17.5	17.7	17.4	17.6	18.1	17.8	18.7	19.1	18.6	
CaO	21.3	22.1	22.3	21.8	23.0	22.8	23.7	23.5	23.3	23.3	21.7	22.3	22.7	
Na ₂ O	0.12	0.12	0.08	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.11	0.08	0.13	0.06	0.13	0.11	0.06	
Total	101.2	102.0	102.0	102.4	101.8	101.7	101.6	101.9	101.7	101.8	102.2	101.3	102.3	
ppm														
Sc	76	91	76	75	73	71	55	36	40	51	36	49	43	
Ti	897	748	365	376	299	417	436	154	162	286	166	210	273	
V	245	236	176	180	156	174	132	80	90	113	80	108	100	
Cr	2,423	1,669	579	590	1,321	875	3,369	3,677	3,428	2,998	3,695	2,991	4,116	
Sr	3.2	2.1	1.7	1.8	1.4	1.6	2.8	1.2	1.3	1.7	1.2	1.9	1.9	
$\mathbf Y$	5.0	4.8	2.2	2.1	2.1	2.4	2.4	0.9	1.0	1.9	1.1	1.2	1.5	
Zr	0.93	0.82	0.29	0.27	0.23	0.69	1.02	0.11	0.15	0.38	0.21	0.17	0.26	
La	0.04	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	
Ce	0.13	0.13	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.12	0.13	0.02	0.02	0.06	0.04	0.04	0.05	
Pr	0.03	0.04	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.01	
Nd	0.24	0.32	0.11	0.11	0.15	0.14	0.20	0.03	0.03	0.15	0.05	0.07	0.09	
Sm	0.22	0.23	0.10	0.10	0.09	0.10	0.14	0.04	0.05	0.14		0.07	0.07	
Eu	0.10	0.13	0.05	0.04	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.02		0.02	0.02	0.03	0.04	
Gd	0.53	0.59	0.19	0.20	0.21	0.24	0.24	0.07	0.18	0.19	0.15	0.15	0.20	
Tb														
Dy	0.75	0.71	0.42	0.43	0.36	0.32	0.40	0.15	0.17	0.28	0.24	0.19	0.30	
Ho	0.21	0.15	0.08	0.09	0.07	0.09	0.08	0.03	0.04	0.07	0.05	0.05	0.05	
Er	0.74	0.60	0.30	0.28	0.28	0.31	0.22	0.10	0.21	0.27	0.16	0.13	0.15	
Tm														
Yb	0.50	0.45	0.28	0.22	0.27	0.31	0.24	0.11	0.19	0.25	0.22	0.08	0.13	
Lu														

The redox conditions under which the mantle depletion occurred, prior to the melting event that formed the Troodos crust, can be investigated using the co-variation of V and Ti (Fig. 7c). This is sensitive to the oxidation state of the mantle source because of the decrease in the distribution coefficient for V (D_V) for all mantle minerals with increasing oxygen fugacity (Shervais 1982; Canil 1999; Canil and Fedortchouk 2000). Iron partitioning between plagioclase and olivine suggests that the Troodos gabbros crystallised from a magma with an $fO₂$ close to 1.5 log units above the quartz–magnetite–fayalite buffer (Fig. 4). Modelling of the co-variation of V and Ti suggests that the initial depletion of the mantle source cannot have occurred under these oxidising conditions as this would have led to lower V abundances in the clinopyroxenes than those observed. Instead, the data can be explained if the initial depletion was under relatively reducing conditions at a normal mid-ocean ridge. This would have produced an increase in the source V/Ti and subsequent remelting of this mantle under more

oxidising conditions, followed by crystallisation of clinopyroxene still under these oxidising conditions, would lead to the high V/Ti observed in the clinopyroxene compositions.

Addition of a Sr-rich slab component is suggested by the positive Sr anomalies in some of the more depleted primitive clinopyroxene (Figs. 5 and 6) and the excess Sr with respect to that predicted by modelling the co-variation in Sr and Ce (Fig. 7d). Enriching the source in Sr prior to melting to form the Troodos crust cannot explain the data as melting of the Sr-enriched source produces a depletion trend parallel to that of melting without enrichment (Fig. 7d). Instead, the Sr systematics can be modelled by the progressive addition of Sr during melting, presumably from a slab component. It should be noted that the supra-chondritic Sr/Ce, and the wide range of Sr abundances and Sr/Ce ratios in primitive $(>3,000$ ppm Cr) clinopyroxene cores, indicate that the range of Sr abundances cannot simply be related to plagioclase fractionation.

In summary, the principal observations and first order interpretations of the clinopyroxene trace element data are:

- 1. The much wider range of melt compositions parental to the Troodos plutonics than is represented in the lavas demonstrates that the diverse melts generated within the melting column were much more poorly aggregated when they were added to the crust than by the time that their fractionated derivatives were erupted on the seafloor; i.e. melt aggregation occurred, to a large extent, within the crust.
- 2. The lower incompatible element abundances in the cores of cumulus clinopyroxene crystals from the Troodos plutonics than those from normal midocean ridges indicate that the source region was significantly more depleted than the MORB source.
- 3. Vanadium systematics suggest the mantle source was initially depleted under relatively reducing conditions, such as at a normal mid-ocean ridge, followed

by oxidation prior to, or during, extraction of the Troodos lavas.

4. Strontium (and LREE) enrichments with respect to clinopyroxene in gabbros from MORs indicate addition of a slab-derived component during melting.

That so much information can be gained from the trace element compositions of the cores of cumulus clinopyroxene crystals indicates that these could be very useful in investigating tectonic settings where basalts are unavailable.

Trace element characteristics of dykes cutting the Troodos plutonics

Dykes with chilled margins cutting the plutonic section provide evidence for the composition of melts formed after the melts parental to the plutonic section. The trace

Fig. 2 Modal proportions of samples studied. Modes were estimated visually from thin sections. The plagioclase mode is proportional to the area of the symbol. The \overline{key} shows representative sizes of symbols for different plagioclase modes

element compositions of six dykes that intrude the plutonic suite collected during this study are shown in Fig. 8, along with eight dykes cutting plutonic rocks from the Amiandos Area (Ash 1990). Most of these dykes show LREE and Nb enrichment with respect to middle-REE as well as positive Sr and Pb anomalies. A LREEenrichment has been documented in some lavas from the western part of the Troodos complex (Taylor and Nesbitt 1988) as well as in, and to the south of, the Arakapas Fault Zone (e.g. McCulloch and Cameron 1983; Rogers et al. 1989). However, very depleted lava compositions (e.g. LREE $\leq 2x$ chondrite) have only been reported from south of the Arakapas Fault Zone. These depleted dykes are, however, in equilibrium with some of the depleted clinopyroxene analysed in this study (compare Figs. 6 and 8).

None of the dykes analysed in this study intrude highly depleted plutonic rocks. Their chilled margins and fine grain size do, however, suggest that they post-date all of the plutonic suite by a significant time interval. Two possible origins of these dykes are that they may represent a small volume off-axis magmatic event or they may record melts that were fed along axis from an offset spreading segment (possibly across the Arakapas Fault Zone). The orientations of dykes within the plutonic section are less systematic than in the overlying sheeted dyke complex (Table 7). This may either represent primary scatter in emplacement orientations or be due to rotations related to the uplift of Mt Olympus, which affect the plutonics more than the sheeted dyke complex.

Melt generation, extraction and aggregation beneath the Troodos spreading centre

The wide range of trace element abundances in the melts parental to the Troodos plutonics (Figs. 3, 5, 6

Fig. 3 A comparison of the major and minor element systematics of clinopyroxene in the Troodos plutonics and mid-ocean ridge gabbros (Coogan 1998; Coogan et al. 2002). Note the higher Mg# for a given Cr_2O_3 of the Troodos clinopyroxene which suggests a higher Mg# in the parental melt. Also, the lower $TiO₂$ at a given Mg# in the Troodos clinopyroxene indicates a more incompatible element depleted parental melt

and 7) demonstrate that a broad range of melt compositions crossed the Moho. The compositional variability in these melts was much greater than that in erupted lavas, and ranged to much more depleted compositions (Fig. 7), indicating that a significant amount of the aggregation of the diverse melt compositions generated within the mantle occurred within the crust. This is despite the much smaller outcrop area of the plutonics than lavas, and the much greater number of studies that have addressed the lava compositions, suggesting that sampling biases cannot explain this observation. The small scale (hundreds of metres) over which large variations in trace element signatures exist within the plutonic section suggests that the melts

Fig. 4 Oxygen fugacity plotted relative to the quartz–magnetite– fayalite (QMF) buffer determined for the Troodos plutonics (data from this study; Thy 1987; Dunsworth 1989) and compared with plutonics from the Mid-Atlantic Ridge (MAR; Coogan 1998). The $fO₂$ determinations were made using the methodology of Sungawara (2001) assuming a pressure of 1.5 kbar and a temperature $(1,045-1,145 \degree C)$ calculated from linear regression through experimental data for olivine forsterite content and temperature (Coogan 1998), although the exact temperature makes very little difference to the result. The average fO_2 of basaltic glasses from the MARK area of the MAR is 1.2 log units below QFM (Christie et al. 1986). See text for discussion

Fig. 5 Chondrite normalised (Anders and Grevesse 1989) spidergrams showing representative clinopyroxene analyses and fields of the entire dataset; a mafic samples; b ultramafic samples. Note the negative Zr anomalies and the variable (positive to negative) Sr anomalies

Fig. 6 Spidergrams showing the same analyses as in Fig. 5, but here normalised to the average (of seven analyses) composition of the most primitive clinopyroxene of Coogan et al. (2000a) from the MAR, which contains \sim 10,000 ppm Cr; a mafic samples; b ultramafic samples. Note (1) the generally lower incompatible element abundances, suggesting a parental melt with significantly lower incompatible element abundances than primitive MORB; (2) that the LREE are less depleted than expected considering the MREE and HREE depletion, and which in some cases are manifest in 'U-shaped' patterns; (3) positive Sr anomalies in many of the more depleted samples

added to the crust in any given place were quite variable. Crustal level magma plumbing, thus, did not aggregate all melts immediately they crossed the Moho because in this scenario their variability would not be preserved in the plutonic section. The compositional diversity was fairly efficiently mixed prior to eruption however, indicating that the crustal level magma plumbing effectively aggregated melts. Supplying the crust with highly variable, and generally depleted, melt compositions requires that melts are able to be extracted from the mantle without efficiently mixing with melts generated in other parts of the melting column. This suggests that the melts were extracted through conduits that tapped a limited volume of mantle and not through a perfect 'fractal tree' with efficient aggregation occurring within the mantle (Hart 1993).

It is clear that the Troodos lavas preserve much less of the compositional diversity generated within the

mantle than does the plutonic section. This has important implications for the use of lava geochemistry in interpreting mantle processes. Firstly, the continuous variation in clinopyroxene compositions demonstrate that a continuum of melt compositions were added to the crust, whereas several studies of lava chemistry have proposed the existence of multiple discrete compositions (e.g. McCulloch and Cameron 1983; Bednarz and Schmincke 1994). This implies that the diversity in lava compositions records an integrated signature that does not reflect the compositional diversity in individual melt batches added to the crust. Instead, it probably represents how these are pooled and fractionated within the crust prior to eruption. Secondly, the distribution of lava types does not necessarily reflect the distribution with which these different lava types are generated within the mantle. For example, highly depleted lavas with Ushaped spidergrams were apparently added to the entire Troodos crust (Fig. 6). In contrast, lavas with these compositions are only found in and to the south of the Arakapas Fault Zone and dykes with these compositions are only rare late features to the north of the Arakapas Fault Zone (Fig. 8). Using lava geochemistry, Murton (1989) and Rogers et al. (1989) suggest that these boninitic magmas were only generated in the mantle underlying the Arakapas Fault Zone and not in the main part of the Troodos massif due to the unusual tectonic environment. The data presented here lead to the alternative explanation that a much less robust lower crustal magma plumbing system in and to the south of the Arakapas Fault Zone simply allowed these melts to rise directly to the surface in this region, but not in the main part of the ophiolite, i.e. there is no requirement that different melt compositions were generated in the mantle beneath the Arakapas Fault Zone, instead, a different crustal magma plumbing system could simply have allowed the melts through to the surface with less mixing. The cross cutting dykes (Fig. 8) can be Fig. 7 Trace element characteristics of clinopyroxene in the Troodos plutonics: a Cr–Y showing the much lower Y, for a given Cr, of clinopyroxene in the Troodos plutonics in comparison with the cores of clinopyroxene crystals in plutonics from the MAR and East Pacific Rise (EPR). The smaller range of Y abundances in the more evolved (Cr-poor) clinopyroxenes than in the more primitive ones suggests that fractionation probably took place at the same time as mixing between magmas with different parental Y contents; b Ti–Zr showing the much lower abundances of these incompatible elements in clinopyroxene in plutonics from the Troodos ophiolite than the MAR and EPR; c V–Ti showing an offset of the Troodos clinopyroxene to higher V/Ti than clinopyroxene from the MAR and EPR. There is some uncertainty in the correct distribution coefficients to use for modelling V both because of its redox sensitivity and the importance of spinel in controlling the bulk distribution coefficient (e.g. Canil and Fedortchouk 2000). Despite this, it appears that the best explanation for the data is initial depletion of the Troodos mantle under reducing conditions, leading to a significant increase in the mantle V/Ti, followed by extraction of the Troodos parental melts under more oxidising conditions. The field of clinopyroxene in equilibrium with published Troodos lavas has been excluded for clarity and because of the uncertainties related to unknown oxygen fugacity and unknown quantities of oxide fractionation leading to V depletion. They lie in the region V: 30–160 ppm $(QFM + 1.5)$ or 90–600 ppm $(QFM-1)$ and Ti: 400– 3600 ppm; d $Ce_{(n)}-Sr_{(n)}$, where (n) denotes chondrite normalised using the values of Anders and Grevesse (1989) showing that Sr is not depleted as rapidly as Ce. Furthermore, the suprachondritic Sr/ Ce of many samples indicates addition of Sr with respect to Ce presumably from the slab. This can be modelled by progressive addition of Sr to the source during melting. In the incremental melting model shown, $0.02 \times$ chondrite Sr was added to the depleted source after each 1% melting. The absolute concentration of Sr required to fit the data depends on the starting compositions and whether any Ce is also added during melting; thus, the modelling is schematic and is not intended to quantify the amount of Sr added. Addition of Sr to the source prior to melting cannot reproduce the data as shown. The melting models show the composition of clinopyroxene in equilibrium with the aggregated melts produced by 0 to 30% fractional melting using the source compositions and distribution coefficients given in Table 6. Of course, in reality neither the source composition nor the distribution coefficients would be constant and it is likely that, if the source was depleted at a normal mid-ocean ridge, its composition would be vertically stratified. Also, small amounts of olivine crystallisation prior to clinopyroxene saturation could increase the concentrations of all elements within the melt, but this effect is insignificant compare with uncertainty in distribution coefficients and source compositions. Crystallisation trends are schematic, but crystallisation can be assumed to have had little effect on the incompatible trace element composition of clinopyroxene containing >3,000 ppm Cr. The field of clinopyroxene in equilibrium with published lava compositions is calculated using the distribution coefficients in Table 6 from the lava data presented by Rautenschlein et al. (1985), Cameron (1985), Taylor (1990), Sobolev et al. (1993), Bednarz and Schmincke (1994) and Gillis (unpublished) for lavas from north of the Arakapas Fault Zone. No lavas from south of the Arakapas Fault Zone are included as all the plutonics studied come from north of this fault and because this area has previously been suggested to have been compositionally distinct (e.g. Murton 1989). Because of the paucity of Zr and Y data, the abundances of these were estimated from Hf and HREE abundances in some instances assuming chondritic Zr/Hf and Y/HREE ratios

interpreted in the same way, either forming 'off-axis' where much less magma was generated reducing the chances of mixing, or being fed from within or south of the Arakapas Fault Zone. Thus, the lack of boninites in volcanic sequences does not necessarily mean that

boninitic melts were not generated and even added to the crust. It also indicates that the spatial distribution of depleted lava-types does not have to 'map-out' the locations where these magma-types are generated, but simply where they are able to traverse the crust without mixing with, or assimilating, less depleted magmas/rock.

An important questions is how representative of a normal mid-ocean ridge was the magma plumbing system beneath the Troodos ophiolite? Unlike at normal mid-ocean ridges melting beneath the Troodos ophiolite was, at least in part, due to the addition of a H_2O bearing subduction component. Primitive melt inclusions trapped in olivine phenocrysts in the Troodos lavas contain $1.36-2.12$ wt% $H₂O$ (Sobolev and Chaussidon 1996). Modelling using the thermodynamically based software pMELTS (Ghiorso and Hirschmann 1998) indicates that isobaric addition of 0.2 wt% H_2O to a depleted mantle composition (from Kinzler and Grove 1992) at its dry solidus, under equilibrium conditions, can produce $\sim 10\%$ melt containing $\sim 2 \text{ wt}\%$ H2O (i.e. similar to the Troodos parental melts). A similarly large increase in melt fraction due to H_2O addition is predicted by the experiments of Gaetani and Grove (1998). The thin Troodos crust (≤ 5 km) could thus be generated almost entirely through flux melting of the mantle with relatively little decompressional melting. This is consistent with the Troodos ophiolite forming during subduction initiation when mantle previously depleted at a normal mid-ocean ridge flows into the 'proto-wedge' generated by the initiation of subduction. At this stage, the mantle flow would have a large horizontal component (e.g. Fig. 6 of Stern and Bloomer 1992). This line of reasoning raises the possibility that the Troodos magma plumbing system could have been quite different from that at normal mid-ocean ridges. For example, (1) the melting region may have been defined by where addition of slab components led to melting and not by the region of adiabatically decompressing mantle, (2) the mantle viscosity is likely to have been much lower than that at a mid-ocean ridge due to the effect of H_2O on rheology (Hirth and Kohlstedt 1996; Billen and Gurnis 2001) and (3) the existence of a subsiding or subducting slab may have limited the maximum depth of melt generation and influenced mantle flow. Both a low mantle viscosity and only limited upwelling may lead to much less wellorganised melt extraction than at mid-ocean ridges. In particular, if melt focusing to the neovolcanic zone at mid-ocean ridges is influenced by the pressure gradient induced by corner flow (Spiegelman and McKenzie 1987) then the low viscosity, and limited upwelling leading to limited corner flow, will have led to much less well focused melt extraction (e.g. Hirth and Kohlstedt 1996). Poorly focused melt extraction is consistent with the extraction of a large range of melt compositions from the mantle into the lower crust as suggested by the compositions of the cores of cumulus clinopyroxene crystals in the plutonics (Figs. 6

Table 6 Starting compositions and distribution coefficients used in the modelling in Fig. 7

	Distribution coefficient		Starting composition				
	Fertile source	Depleted source	Clinopyroxene	Fertile source	Depleted source		
Cr	4.01 ^a	4.31 ^b	$10^{\rm c}$	$2,340^{\rm d}$	$2,650^e$		
	0.09 ^a	0.02 ^b	0.7°		1.0 ^e		
Ti	0.08 ^a	0.03 ^b	0.4°	$1,020^{\circ}$	216^e		
Zr	$0.03^{\rm a}$	0.01 ^b	0.12^t		0.5^e		
V QFM-1	0.50 ^g	0.34^{g}	1.47 ^g	73 [°]	63 ^e		
V QFM + 1.5	0.16 ^g	0.12 ^g	0.39 ^g	73 ^d	34^e		
Sr(n)	$0.025^{\rm h}$	0.02 ^h	0.1	4.67 ^d	0.11^e		
Ce(n)	$0.025^{\rm h}$	0.02 ^h	0.1^1	.38 ^d	0.09 ^e		

^a Pearce and Parkinson (1993; their spinel lherzolite at 1,300 °C). Based on data in Duke (1976), Dupuy et al. (1980), Hervig et al. (1986)

and Stosch (1981)
^bPearce and Parkinson (1993; their harzburgite at 1,300 °C)
^ePearce and Parkinson (1993; clinopyroxene at 1,200 °C)

^cPearce and Parkinson (1993; clinopyroxene at 1,200 °C)^dErev et al. (1985) sample 717

^dFrey et al. (1985) sample 717

^eCalculated as the residue of 15% fractional melting mixed with 1% aggregated melt to account for incomplete melt extraction fHart and Dunn (1993)

g Calculated from the distribution coefficient data of Canil and Fedortchouk (2000) for modes of 55% olivine, 1.5% spinel, 13.5% clinopyroxene and 29% orthopyroxene for the fertile source and 63% olivine, 1% spinel, 7% clinopyroxene and 28% orthopyroxene in the depleted source with 1% porosity

^hCalculated from modes given in (^g) and distribution coefficients from Hart and Dunn (1993); Beattie (1993, 1994) and Schwandt and McKay (1998)

ⁱAverage of numerous published values (e.g. Hart and Dunn 1993; Jenner et al. 1994)

Fig. 8 NMORB (Sun and McDonough 1989) normalised spidergrams of dykes intruding the plutonics. Solid lines This study; dashed lines Ash (1990). A notable characteristic of these dykes is the small variation in Nb abundances despite the large variation in LREE abundances, which leads to positive Nb anomalies in the more depleted dykes

and 7). Thus, it is possible that the magma plumbing system beneath the Troodos (and other?) ophiolite differed in several ways from that at normal mid-ocean ridges.

Summary and conclusions

Trace element analyses of the cores of cumulus clinopyroxene crystals indicate that the range of melt compositions added to the lower crust during the formation of the Troodos ophiolite far exceeded that erupted on the seafloor. This crustal level aggregation and concomitant fractionation was important in controlling the compositions erupted. Much more depleted melts, with LREE and Sr enrichments, were added to the crust than were erupted on the seafloor. Thus, the distribution of lava types does not necessarily record where different magma types are generated, but simply where they are able to traverse the magma plumbing system with limited interaction with other magma types.

In comparison to clinopyroxene crystals in the cumulates formed from normal mid-ocean ridge basalts the Troodos cumulus clinopyroxene are (1) generally depleted in incompatible trace elements, (2) less depleted in LREE than would be expected for the concomitant depletion in HREE and (3) enriched in Sr with respect to the LREE. Furthermore, the partitioning of iron between plagioclase and olivine indicates the parental magmas for the Troodos ophiolite were more oxidised than MORB. These characteristics are similar to those that can be identified using fresh basalts, indicating that there is significant promise in using clinopyroxene trace element systematics (\pm plagioclase–olivine oxygen barometry) as a fingerprint of parental melt composition and thus, potentially, a tectonic setting.

Table 7 Whole-rock trace element (ppm) compositions of dykes cutting the plutonic complex

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