



BONINITES THROUGH TIME AND SPACE: PETROGENESIS AND GEODYNAMIC SETTINGS

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Abstract: The article provides an overview of boninitic magmatism occurrences in space and time and shows that the boninite rock series were generated through the entire geological history of the Earth. In modern environments, the genesis of boninites is related to intra-oceanic subduction initiation. Boninites are typical members of suprasubduction zone ophiolite sequences in the Phanerozoic fold belts and also present in the early Precambrian greenstone belts. A comparative study on compositions of the early Precambrian and Phanerozoic boninites indicate their evolution through time due to gradual transition from the early thick-plate tectonics to the modern thin-plate tectonics. A link between subduction initiation and mantle-plume impingement at the oceanic lithosphere is discussed.

Key words: boninite; subduction initiation; mantle plume; secular changing in the Earth geodynamics

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Бониниты во времени и пространстве: петрогенезис и геодинамические обстановки образования

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Аннотация: Бониниты получили широкую известность благодаря глубоководным исследованиям преддуговых областей современных зон плитовой конвергенции Юго-Западной Пацифики. Однако они имеют широкое распространение и в оphiолитах складчатых поясов, которые традиционно рассматриваются в качестве океанической коры геологического прошлого. Поскольку бониниты не известны в срединно-океанических хребтах, неизбежно возникает вопрос о природе оphiолитов.

Общепринято, что под бонинитами понимаются вулканические породы, которые удовлетворяют следующим критическим параметрам составов (в пересчете на сухой остаток) – $\text{SiO}_2 > 52$ вес. %; $\text{MgO} > 8$ вес. % и $\text{TiO}_2 < 0.5$ вес. % [Le Bas, 2000]. Их классификация основана на различиях в химических, а не минералогических составах, и принято различать две крупные группы бонинитов – высококальциевые и низкокальциевые [Crawford *et al.*, 1989]. С бонинитами пространственно и генетически связаны примитивные островодужные низко-Ti лавы, что предопределило необходимость выделения обособленной магматической серии, известной как бонинитовая серия [Pearce, Robinson, 2010]. Собственно бониниты являются наиболее фракционированной ветвью серии, которая берет начало в пикритовых низко-Ti расплавах. Характер распределения спектра малых элементов бонинитов наглядно показывает необычайно высокую степень деплетации ман-

тийного источника при одновременных свидетельствах их надсубдукционного генезиса, например отрицательных аномалиях Nb(Ta) и Ti. Спектры малых элементов бонинитовой серии таковы, что, во-первых, исключается участие какого-либо вклада в их петрогенезис материала континентальной коры и, во-вторых, требуется плавление мантийного источника, более деплетированного по сравнению с лерцолитовой мантией, генерирующей расплавы MORB. В то же время геохимия пород бонинитовой серии демонстрирует их отчетливую связь с толеитами островных дуг – структур, в которых происходит формирование ювенильных пород континентальной коры.

В статье обобщены литературные данные по 36 объектам находок бонинитов в современных обстановках, оphiолитах и раннедокембрийских зеленокаменных поясах. Показано, что породы бонинитовой серии формировались на протяжении всей геологической истории Земли.

Петрологическая уникальность пород бонинитовой серии состоит в том, что для их генезиса требуется сочетание различных факторов, которое может реализовываться только в определенных, и очень ограниченных по месту локализации, геодинамических обстановках. Во-первых, происхождение источника бонинитовых магм требует предварительного истощения верхнемантийного резервуара одним или несколькими эпизодами экстракции базальтовых расплавов; т.е. источником являлась гарцбургитовая мантия. Во-вторых, лавы бонинитовой серии характеризуются заметной обогащенностью крупноионными литофильными элементами и легкими редкоземельными элементами по сравнению с несовместимыми высокозарядными ионами. Такие их геохимические характеристики указывают на активность водного флюида, который должен был быть инфильтрирован в мантийный источник бонинитовых расплавов. Несмотря на неопределенности в экспериментальном моделировании расплавов бонинитовой серии, составы которых зависят от многих факторов, включающих степень деплатации мантии и флюидный режим плавления, существует ясность в том, что для их генерации требуются аномально высокие температуры и присутствие водосодержащего флюида в заметном количестве. На основе современной теории декомпрессионного плавления верхней мантии были проведены расчеты условий генерации первичных расплавов бонинитовой серии различного возраста, что позволило установить отчетливый эволюционный тренд их изменений. Показано, что раннедокембрийские бонинитовые серии формировались при более высоких степенях плавления гарцбургитовой мантии (30–40 %), а формирование мантийных расплавных колонн происходило на существенно больших глубинах (3.5–4.0 ГПа), чем в фанерозойском эоне (2.5–3.0 ГПа).

Исследования современных проявлений бонинитового вулканализма демонстрируют, что они локализованы только в зонах интраокеанической плитовой конвергенции, и нет ни одного доказанного примера, свидетельствующего об иных геодинамических обстановках их формирования. Благодаря многочисленным находкам пород бонинитовой серии, в настоящее время стало очевидным, что большинство оphiолитов мира маркируют формации не древних срединно-океанических хребтов, а палеозоны спрединга в надсубдукционных обстановках на границах океанических плит геологического прошлого. Понимание геодинамической обстановки формирования бонинитовых серий было связано с тем, что оphiолиты супрасубдукционных зон связаны с начальными стадиями возникновения интраокеанических островных дуг. С физической точки зрения, главным условием для начала субдукции является возникновение гравитационной нестабильности в океанической литосфере, приводящей к ее полному расколу или коллапсу, а следовательно, к декомпрессионному плавлению верхней мантии и инициации погружения одной части плиты под другую. Это явление, как и генетическая связь бонинитов с оphiолитами, легло в основание «правила инициации субдукции» (subduction initiation rule, SIR) [Whattam, Stern, 2011].

Теоретически, коллапс литосферы может произойти в двух случаях: 1) когда в соприкосновение приходят плиты с разными термальными характеристиками, например при трансформном совмещении плит разного возраста – древней, холодной, и молодой, горячей [Stern, 2004]; 2) когда место инициации субдукции определяется плотностными неоднородностями на границах нормальной океанической литосферы и утолщенной океанической литосфере плюмовой природы, т.е. океанических плато или трассеров воздействия горячих точек – асейсмических хребтов или симаунтов [Niu et al., 2003]. Хорошо известно, что подъем мантийного плюма приводит к ослаблению прочности литосферы и может вызвать раскол континентов. Но, помимо этого явления, внедрение плюма в литосферу существенно изменяет ее плотностные характеристики. Привнос в верхние горизонты мантии и океаническую литосферу расплавов из обогащенного глубинного источника должен приводить к реферилизации ранее деплелированной мантии. По мере охлаждения такой процесс будет вести к уплотнению переработанной мантийным плюмом верхней мантии, а возникший в области переработки новый сегмент литосферы со временем может приобрести отрицательную плавучесть. Это обусловлено тем, что вулканиты OIB заметно обогащены Fe и Ti. Кроме того, хорошо известно, что Fe-Ti базальты/габбро эклогитизируются гораздо быстрее их магнезиальных эквивалентов.

По-видимому, процесс установления стационарного режима субдукции требует некоторого периода аккомодации, связанного с обрывами слэба и, как следствие, контрастностью тектонических режимов на поверхности. Причиной малоглубинного отрыва слэба могла стать плотностная неоднородность погружавшейся литосферы, например ее локальная переутяженность продуктами OIB магматизма. Важнейшими геодинамическими следствиями этого являются, во-первых, кратковременное сильное термальное возмущение над узколокализованной областью слэбового окна и, во-вторых, быстрый аплифт ее надсубдукционной области. Такой механизм хорошо объясняет кратковременность (3–5 млн лет) и большие объемы вулканализма, существенно превышающие объемы вулканализма в режимах стационарной субдукции [Stern, 2002, 2004]. Аплифт надсубдукционной области приводит к образованию на месте висячей плиты оphiолитовой «платформы» – фундамента для островодужной постройки.

В раннем докембрии бонинитовый магматизм представлен широко, а количество новых находок древних бонинитов неуклонно возрастает. Согласно недавно опубликованным оценкам, объем бонинитового магматизма в архее примерно соответствует объемам коматитов [Furnes et al., 2014]. Установление пород бонинитовой серии, ассоциирующих с фрагментами параллельных даек и метабазитами IAT-типа в древнейшем

сохранившемся комплексе Исуа, по-видимому, указывает на то, что процессы субдукции имеют корни, простирающиеся к началу геологической истории Земли. Поскольку процессы инициации субдукции требуют раскола океанической литосферы на ее полную мощность, раннедокембрийская литосфера по реологическим свойствам до ее основания должна была находиться в области хрупких или хрупко-пластических деформаций. Другими словами, такую литосферу можно рассматривать как жесткое тело, способное противостоять конвективной нестабильности, что является атрибутом плитовой тектоники [Sleep, 1992]. Мощность архейской океанической литосферы оценивается в 85–120 км, тогда как современной – примерно в 60 км.

В отличие от фанерозойских бонинитовых серий, родоначальные расплавы раннедокембрийских серий формировались на глубинах ~120–130 км, т.е. в поле стабильности алмаза. Учитывая то, что примитивные расплавы древних бонинитовых серий несут метки субдукционного влияния, можно думать о способности глубокого погружения слабов в раннедокембрийскую мантию. Таким образом, можно полагать, что в раннем докембрии действовал механизм толстоплитовой тектоники, который к неопротерозою постепенно сменился на механизм тонкоплитовой тектоники. Мантийно-плюмовое воздействие на литосферу Земли – сквозное явление на протяжении всей геологической истории, которое определяет возникновение в ней существенных плотностных неоднородностей и, как следствие, мест инициации субдукции и роста континентальной коры.

Ключевые слова: бониниты; инициация субдукции; мантийный плюм; эволюция геодинамики Земли

The heavy is the root of the light.
(Lao Tzu, *Daodejing*, 5th–4th century BC)

1. INTRODUCTION

Boninites attracted much attention at the end of the 20th century, primarily, due to deep-sea studies of forearc slopes in the modern plate convergence zones of the southwestern Pacific. At that time, however, detailed geochemical studies of many ophiolite sections revealed the presence of boninites unknown for mid-oceanic ridges, but abundant in juvenile island-arc basements. Following the common postulation that ophiolites are remnants of the ancient oceanic crust, ophiolites in fold belts were largely interpreted as relic sutures which mark sites of paleo-ocean closure. As the boninite findings were ever-growing in both the classical fragments of the ‘ancient oceanic crust’, e.g. the Troodos in Cyprus, and Semail in Oman, or ‘classical sutures’ such as, the Main Urals Fault in Russia, this inevitably raises the question on the ophiolite nature.

Another problem concerns the evolution of boninitic magmatism as boninites have been discovered in the early Precambrian greenstone belts. Until recently, it was believed that in the early stages of the Earth evolution, ‘dry’ komatiitic volcanism was predominant and then followed by ‘wet’ boninite volcanism [Hall, Hughes, 1993]. However, the komatiite abundance in the Archean seems to be well overestimated. Komatiites are lacking in many belts and constitute less than 5 % of the volcanic rocks in most Archean greenstone belts [de Wit, Ashwal, 1997]. Detailed geochemical studies of mafic-ultramafic complexes in greenstone belts show that a majority of olivine spinifex-free ‘komatiites’ and ‘komatiitic basalts’ belong in fact to the

boninite series rocks. According to [Furnes et al., 2014], boninitic magmatism has been occurred through the geological history of the Earth. However, aspects of its evolution have not been thoroughly discussed in the literature yet.

Thus, the aims of the paper are to provide an overview of the boninitic magmatism occurrences through space and time, track its evolution, and propose a geo-dynamic explanation of this highly informative phenomenon.

2. DEFINITION AND GEOCHEMICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF BONINITES AND THE BONINITE SERIES

The International Union of Geological Sciences (IUGS) classification of the high-Mg volcanic rocks defined a boninite as a volcanic rock with the following arbitral chemical composition recalculated to 100 wt %: $\text{SiO}_2 > 52$ wt %; $\text{MgO} > 8$ wt %, and $\text{TiO}_2 < 0.5$ wt % [Le Bas, 2000]. The Ti content is strongly constrained in the classification as a critical requirement because of titanium is the most incompatible among the major elements, and its low content in primitive melts indicates that their mantle source was highly depleted. Boninite definitions in many publications are very similar to the above-mentioned one. According to [Crawford et al., 1989], SiO_2 content in boninite lavas exceeds 53 wt %, and $\text{Mg\#} > 0.6$, where $\text{Mg\#} = \text{Mg}/[\text{Mg} + \text{Fe}^{2+}]$. It was recommended in [Taylor et al., 1994], to classify volcanic and hypabyssal rocks as boninites if $\text{SiO}_2 > 53$ wt %, $\text{TiO}_2 < 0.6$ wt %, and $7 < \text{Mg\#} < 25$ wt %.

The above definitions of boninites are based on chemistry, rather than on mineralogy of these rocks. Neither mineralogical nor petrographic characteristics could be included in the classical definition of boninites as the modal mineralogy of phenocrysts show highly variable compositions, and their textural patterns vary widely also. The traditional approach distinguishes between two major groups of boninites, high-Ca and low-Ca [Crawford *et al.*, 1989], characterized by $\text{CaO}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 > 0.75$ and < 0.6 , respectively. Boninites with intermediate ratios are grouped as low-Ca type 3 boninites. The upper pillow lavas of the Troodos (Cyprus) ophiolite are distinguished as the tectonic and petrographic type of high-Ca boninites. Low-Ca type 1 boninites are best represented by the Cenozoic lavas of New Caledonia. Low-Ca type 2 boninites include high-Mg andesite lavas of the Baja peninsula, California and the Shikoku Island, Japan. The latter of very special geochemical characteristics and tectonic settings have their own names, bajaites and sanukites, respectively [Rogers, Saunders, 1989; Tatsumi, Ishizaka, 1981]. Low-Ca type 3 boninites are most fully represented in the Bonin Islands, Japan where the boninites have been described for the first time at the end of the 19th century.

Despite the fact that two clearly different geochemical groups (high-Ca and low-Ca boninites) are recognized, geodynamic settings for particular types of boninitic magmatism occurrences have not been specified yet [Meffre *et al.*, 1996]. The assemblage including both high-Ca and low-Ca boninites and intermediate-Ca boninites have been reported from the Mariana island arc [Arculus *et al.*, 1992]. In other occurrences, such as the Troodos, Oman and Josephine ophiolites, only high-Ca boninites are present [Cameron, 1985; Crawford *et al.*, 1989; Ishikawa *et al.*, 2002; Harper, 2003]. Low-Ca and intermediate boninites are dominant in the Ordovician ophiolites of Newfoundland [Bédard, 1999] (Table 1).

Boninites are spatially and genetically related to primitive island-arc low-Ti lavas, thus generating a need for recognition of a separate magmatic series known as 'the boninite series' [Pearce, Robinson, 2010; and others]. The less differentiated rocks of the series are known from the literature as low-Ti tholeiites, LOTI, [Brown, Jenner, 1989] or low-Ti ophiolite basalts [Sun, Nesbitt, 1978], and they are typical of numerous ophiolites. In many cases, the boninite series volcanic rocks are represented mainly by primitive lavas ($\text{MgO} > 12$ wt %) that can be termed as picrites or mistakenly classified as komatiitic basalts or basaltic komatiites [Cameron *et al.*, 1979].

Crystallization of low-Ti tholeiite melts can be schematically given as follows: olivine → clinopyroxene → plagioclase, and the scheme for MORB melts is: olivine → plagioclase → clinopyroxene [Cameron *et al.*, 1980; Natland, 1981]. This difference is due to drastic distinc-

tions between water-saturated melts of the boninite series and dry melts of the komatiitic and tholeiitic series. The komatiitic series trend is generated by dry mantle melting and directed towards a field of MOR tholeiites, while the boninite series trend reflects the evolution of the primary composition towards the quartz apex, which is typical of wet melting at gradually decreasing temperature and pressure. Distinctions in the compositional trends of the high-Mg volcanic series are well depicted in the projection of the normative basalt tetrahedron Ol-Pl-Qt plotted by using the data on the boninite series of the North Karelian greenstone belt and the komatiitic series of the Kostomuksha greenstone belt in the Baltic Shield (Fig. 1).

The trace elements patterns of the boninites demonstrate strong depletion of the mantle source and concurrent evidences of their suprasubduction genesis, such as, for instance, negative anomalies of Nb(Ta) (Fig. 2). Different types of the boninites have spectra of the same type with distinct negative anomalies of Nb(Ta) and Ti, positive anomalies of Sr and Zr(Hf) and apparent enrichment in large-ionic lithophile (LIL) elements (Rb, Ba, Cs, U, and Th) relative to N-MORB. Such a kind of the trace elements patterns clearly suggests that (i) petrogenesis of boninite series should be excluded any and even a minimum crustal input, and (ii) melting requires a mantle source more depleted in comparison to the mantle lherzolite that generates MORB melts. In other words, melts of the boninite series seem to be derived from a depleted harzburgite mantle source [Hickey, Frey, 1982; Crawford *et al.*, 1989].

On the other hand, there is geochemical evidence that there is a direct link between the boninite series rocks and island-arc tholeiites (IAT), taking into account the commonly accepted idea that juvenile continental crust portions are generated in the island-arc zones (Fig. 3). Thus, the boninite series rocks are of crucial importance for deciphering crust-forming processes through the geological history of the Earth.

3. BONINITES IN THE GEOLOGICAL TIME AND SPACE

The global occurrences of boninite series rocks are shown on Figure 4 and at Table 2. Boninites have been discovered in all the continents, except South America, which is attributable to the fact that South America is still relatively poorly covered by geological studies. The boninite series rocks are described in various sequences through the geologically documented history of the Earth, from the most ancient Eoarchean Isua belt in the southwestern Greenland to the recent eruptions of submarine volcanoes in the northeastern Lau basin. The only lacuna in their history is the Mesoproterozoic, the period of relatively passive tectonic events, possibly

Table 1. Selected analyses representative of boninite series of different ages which are mentioned in the text and were used for the geochemical plots

Таблица 1. Представительные анализы пород бонинитовой серии разного возраста, упоминаемые в тексте и использованные для построения диаграмм

Location	Northern Tonga				Izu-Bonin-Mariana Forearc				Troodos Ophiolite				Dunzhugur Ophiolite	
	Age	2.5–2.7 Ma		48–42 Ma		90–95 Ma		Cameron, 1985		90–95 Ma		1020 Ma		
		Source	Falloon et al., 2008	Pearce et al., 1992	HCB	LCB	HCB	LCB	HCB	LCB	LOTI	LCB	ICB	LOTI
Type	SiO ₂ (wt.%)	53.32	55.59	53.47	53.00	47.23	53.80	49.81	51.74	58.09	56.69	48.75		
TiO ₂		0.24	0.22	0.20	0.25	0.31	0.31	0.19	0.19	0.18	0.18	0.14		
Al ₂ O ₃		11.45	14.87	12.05	12.46	12.06	11.40	11.22	12.47	14.41	9.97	16.94		
FeO*		9.10	8.25	7.62	6.78	7.24	7.52	8.08	7.20	6.96	7.91	7.45		
MnO		0.16	0.13	0.13	0.14	0.14	0.16	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.17	0.14		
MgO		13.37	9.19	13.04	13.08	11.40	12.54	13.92	12.74	9.46	13.5	8.9		
CaO		8.85	8.92	5.27	6.70	11.90	8.73	10.12	9.88	5.63	6.34	11.04		
Na ₂ O		2.66	1.83	3.19	2.76	2.12	1.30	0.66	1.10	1.46	0.37	2.14		
K ₂ O		0.93	0.80	0.67	0.21	0.26	0.15	0.21	0.39	2.78	3.98	0.78		
P ₂ O ₅		0.02	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.08	0.11	0.02		
Mg#	73.4	67.6	76.2	78.4	74.7		76.9	78.4	77.8	71.8	76.2	69.2		
Cr (ppm)	812	477	1036	786	762		910	980	940					
Ni	228	124	306	296	374		268	378	339					
Co			45	38.5	44.6									
Sc	44	48	29	33.7	27.1		37	40	40					
V	265	295	166	202	193		212	212	203					
Ba	119	112	47	7.6	15		12	18	45					
Rb	5.7	20.3	6.4	3.1	7.6		3	7	7					
Sr	118	74	107	136	139		62	53	62					
Nb	1.04	0.96	0.53	0.44	0.53		1	0.8	1					
Hf	0.39	0.39	0.9	0.70	0.70		0.7	0.2	0.3					
Zr	12.0	12.1	35	27	26		18	10	16					
Y	4.7	4.9	7.2	6.5	8.2		7.3	7	7					
Th	0.37	0.37	0.27	0.17	0.18									
U	0.19	0.14	0.18	0.12	0.14									
La	2.14	1.94	1.81	1.15	1.50									
Ce	4.12	3.97	3.86	2.57	3.05		0.88	0.72	1.09					
Pr	0.53	0.52	0.59	0.37	0.50		0.36	0.15	0.23					
Nd	2.32	2.32	2.84	1.97	2.61		1.91	0.58	1.02					
Sm	0.62	0.62	0.81	0.61	0.80		0.73	0.23	0.32					
Eu	0.22	0.26	0.27	0.22	0.31		0.27	0.10	0.11					
Gd	0.22	0.76	0.97	0.81	1.06		0.96	0.44	0.51					
Tb	0.12	0.12	0.16	0.15	0.20		0.20	0.10	0.11					
Dy	0.84	0.89	1.05	1.00	1.30		1.39	0.90	0.93					
Ho	0.18	0.19	0.23	0.31	0.30		0.32	0.23	0.23					
Er	0.56	0.61	0.69	0.72	0.84		1.03	0.76	0.76					
Tm	0.09	0.09	0.11	0.12	0.14									
Yb	0.61	0.62	0.80	0.75	0.87		1.04	0.84	0.84					
Lu	0.10	0.11	0.14	0.11	0.13									

Table 1 (end)
Таблица 1 (окончание)

Source	Age	Flin Flon belt			Abitibi greenstone belt			North Karelian greenstone belt			Isua greenstone belt		
		1900 Ma	2715 Ma	2800 Ma	2700–3800 Ma	2800 Ma	2700–3800 Ma	2800 Ma	2800 Ma	2700–3800 Ma	2800 Ma	2700–3800 Ma	
<i>Wyman, 1999b</i>													
Type		LCB	HCB	ICB	LOTI	LOTI	LOTI	ICB	HCB	LOTI	LCB	<i>Polat et al., 2002</i>	
SiO ₂ (wt%)	53.8	57.6	59.7	43.8	50.5	49.16	52.80	57.52	49.08	49.08	54.00		
TiO ₂	0.12	0.09	0.31	0.18	0.24	0.42	0.47	0.35	0.23	0.23	0.40		
Al ₂ O ₃	14.50	7.6	15.8	14.1	10.65	13.03	9.39	16.94	16.94	17.74			
FeO*	9.81	9.27	6.90	10.1	9.70	11.03	10.90	9.53	9.12	9.12	8.37		
MnO	0.10	0.2	0.50	0.21	0.27	0.19	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.13		
MgO	11.1	12.6	7.37	22.0	15.0	12.92	10.35	12.80	15.57	15.57	7.05		
CaO	5.0	9.6	6.59	6.7	6.18	11.37	7.37	6.86	6.82	6.82	8.39		
Na ₂ O	3.7	0.6	1.98	0.12	2.48	0.35	2.44	0.07	0.95	0.95	2.85		
K ₂ O	0.8	1.5	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.07	0.08	0.10	0.09	0.09	0.12		
P ₂ O ₅	0.01	0.02	0.06	0.03	0.03	0.13	0.10	0.08	0.01	0.01	0.02		
Mg#	68.0	71.9	69.0	80.0	74.0	71.1	66.0	71.8	77.0	77.0	63.0		
Cr (ppm)	544	1411	330	1460	1058	706	324	540	951	951	141		
Ni	155	183	210	760	499	254	187	189	376	376	69		
Co	65	59	51	74	71.3	74	53	51	63	63	35		
Sc	85	49	55	48	44	38	40	33	42	42	45		
V	319	170	250	250	160	238	339	202	192	192	195		
Ba						15.8	18	12	8	8	14		
Rb						0.92	1.2	2.7	7.1	7.1	4.3		
Sr						49	63	69.5	54	54	116		
Nb						0.88	1.01	1.06	0.15	0.15	0.55		
Hf						0.89	0.83	0.75					
Zr						34	29	26.5	16.4	16.4	27.5		
Y						10	12.2	13.9	0.17	9.2	1.3		
Th						0.09	0.13	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.23		
U						0.01	0.04	0.04	0.02				
La	1.2	0.6	1.3	0.42	0.71	0.78	1.16	1.39	0.46	0.46	1.26		
Ce	0.71	0.35	0.64	0.3	0.38	2.51	3.49	3.55	1.26	1.26	3.08		
Pr	26	14	26	12	16	34	29	26.5	20.0	20.0	0.46		
Nd	5.0	3.0	17	9	10	12.2	13.9	0.17	9.2	9.2	1.3		
Gd	0.36	0.2	0.2	0.05	0.09	0.09	0.13	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.23		
Tb	0.31	0.16	0.31	0.16	0.01	0.04	0.04	0.02					
Dy	1.78	1.21	1.46	0.49	0.72	0.78	1.16	1.39	0.44	0.44	0.91		
Eu	4.11	2.67	3.87	1.33	1.81	2.51	3.49	3.55	1.26	1.26	3.08		
Ho	0.51	0.31	0.59	0.21	0.27	0.39	0.55	0.52	0.20	0.20	0.46		
Er	0.76	0.45	1.19	0.63	0.67	1.31	1.62	1.37	0.69	0.69	1.32		
Tm	0.13	0.07	0.26	0.14	0.14	0.24	0.27	0.27	0.16	0.16	0.26		
Yb	0.89	0.43	2.54	1.32	1.22	1.77	2.03	1.78	1.33	1.33	2.04		
Lu	0.10	0.05	0.50	0.24	0.18	0.15	0.19	0.19	0.24	0.24	0.28		

Note. HCB – High-Ca boninite, ICB – intermediate-Ca boninite, LCB – Low-Ca boninite; LOTI – Low-Ti basalt/picrite. Subdivision of boninites is after [Crawford et al., 1989].

Примечание. HCB – высококальциевые бониниты, ICB – умереннокальциевые бониниты, LCB – низкокальциевые бониниты, LOTI – низкотитанистые базальты/пирократы. Разделение бонинитов по [Crawford et al., 1989].

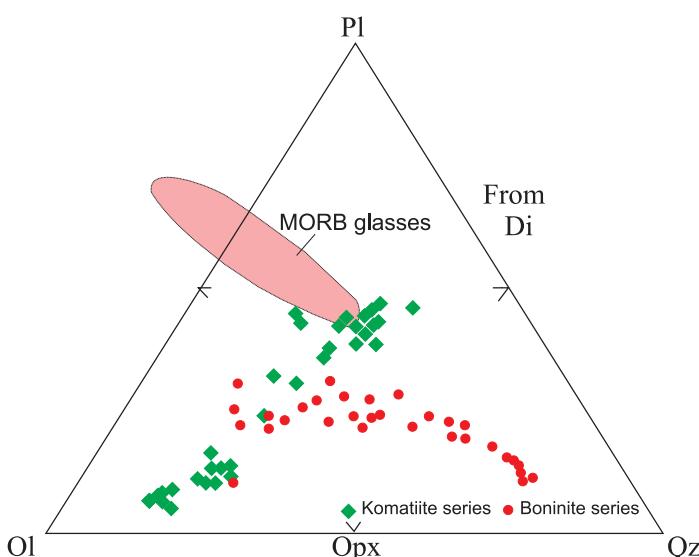


Fig. 1. A comparison between normative compositional trends of the boninite and komatiite volcanic series in ternary projection olivine-plagioclase-quartz from diopside [Walker *et al.*, 1979]. The both volcanic series are from the Archean Karelian Craton. Modified after [Shchipansky, 2008].

Рис. 1. Положение фигуративных точек состава позднеархейских высокомагнезиальных вулканитов Каельской ГЗО в проекции нормативного базальтового тетраэдра Ol-Pl-Qz из вершины диопсида (Di) [Walker *et al.*, 1979]. Обе вулканические серии из архейского Каельского кратона. Модифицировано из работы [Shchipansky, 2008].

related to the existence of the stable supercontinent Nuna [Cawood, Hawkesworth, 2014].

Contemporary settings for generation of the boninite series rocks are known in the areas of intraoceanic island-arc systems of the southwestern Pacific, specifically the Izu-Bonini-Mariana (IBM) and Tonga-Kermadec island arcs. Boninites compose mostly fore-arc slopes, forming the lowest stratigraphic levels in the island-arc architecture. These regions are natural laboratories for comprehensive studies of the boninitic magmatism coupled with geodynamic modeling of its genesis. It is noteworthy that since the Paleocene onwards there is a strong link between boninites and ophiolites, as confirmed by the data on the Cape Vogel Peninsula, Papua New Guinea (see Table 2). Actually, this genetic link has long been known [Sun, Nesbitt, 1978; Cameron *et al.*, 1979] and led to introduction of the term 'suprasubduction zone (SSZ) ophiolite' in the 1980s to acknowledge that some ophiolites are more closely related to island arcs than to ocean ridges [Pearce, 1982]. This term was readily accepted in the literature, and the majority of the known ophiolite complexes, including the largest ones with the com-

pletely preserved sequences, e.g. Troodos, Oman, were classified into the SSZ type.

According to [Sklyarov *et al.*, 2016], there are four main types of boninites in the ophiolite sequences (Fig. 5). Type 1 boninites spatially coexists with ophiolites, although compose (or belong to) other tectonic units. Type 2 boninites presents as later constituents of ophiolite sequences, such as crosscutting dikes or lavas on top of section. Type 3 includes island-arc tholeiites and basaltic andesites coupled with boninites, which are replaced by younger MORB or BABB affinities. Type 4 boninites occupies the whole mafic portion of ophiolite sequences, together with island-arc tholeiites and basaltic andesites, and all the components of such sequences (gabbro, dykes, and lavas) have clearly boninitic affinities.

These types of the boninite-bearing ophiolite sequences are recorded through the entire Phanerozoic and Neoproterozoic. The Neoproterozoic boninite

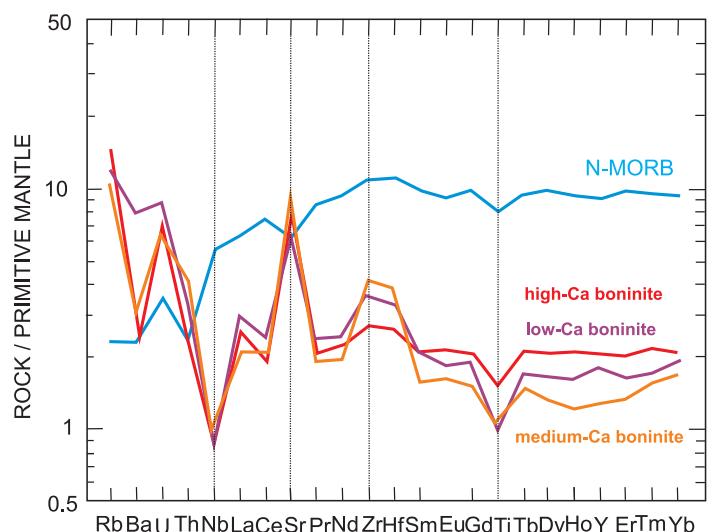


Fig. 2. Trace elements patterns of different boninite groups from Izu-Bonin arc by comparison with N-MORB.

Note the negative anomalies of Nb (Ta) and, conversely, positive anomalies of Zr (Hf) and Sr, both typical of supra-subduction zone volcanics. Strong depletion in REE and HFSE of the boninite compositions with respect to N-MORB is clearly visible. Averaged boninite compositions are from [Pearce *et al.*, 1992]. N-MORB and primitive mantle values are from [Hofmann, 1988].

Рис. 2. Мультиэлементные диаграммы разных геохимических групп бонинитов Изу-Бонинской островной дуги.

Заметим характерные для бонинитов и индикаторные для петрогенезиса вулканитов в надсубдукционных обстановках отрицательные аномалии Nb (Ta) и Ti и, наоборот, положительные Zr (Hf) и Sr. Ясно видны также геохимические различия в уровне общей деплетации некогерентными элементами между бонинитами и толеитами MORB. Составы бонинитов по [Pearce *et al.*, 1992]. Примитивная мантия и MORB по [Hofmann, 1988].

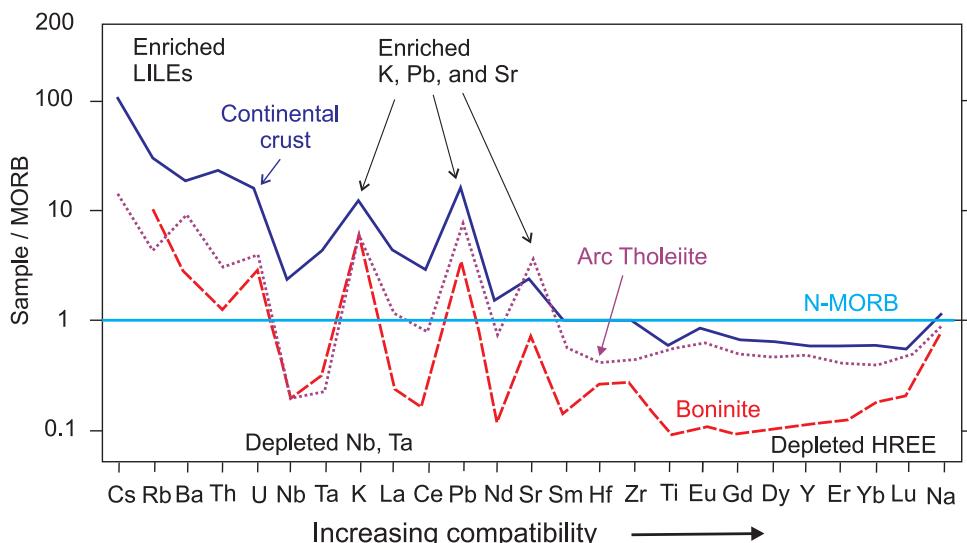


Fig. 3. Spidergram for trace-element compositions of the continental crust and juvenile arc melts (boninite, arc tholeiite), modified after [Stern, 2002].

Elements on the horizontal axis are listed in order of their incompatibility in the mantle relative to melt; elements on the left are strongly partitioned into the melt whereas those on the right are strongly partitioned into a peridotite source. Note the characteristic enrichments of subduction zone outputs relative to MORB with respect to fluid-mobile LIL elements and the relative depletion of these in HFSE, and HREE. Note also the overall similarity of continental crust to juvenile arc crust.

Рис. 3. Спайдерограмма распределения малых элементов в континентальной коре и в расплавах ювенильных островных дуг (бонинита и островодужного толеита), модифицировано из работы [Stern, 2002].

По горизонтальной оси графика элементы расположены в порядке их несовместимости в мантии относительно расплавной фазы. В левой части спектров расположены элементы, совместимые с расплавами; в правой части – совместимые с перидотитовым источником. Заметим характерное для субдукционных зон обогащение мобильными крупноионными элементами, связанное с флюидным привносом, и, наоборот, деплекцию высокозарядных ионов и тяжелых редких земель по сравнению с N-MORB. Обращает на себя внимание общее сходство геохимии континентальной коры и ювенильной коры островных дуг.

series are widely distributed in the Altai-Sayan area of the southern frame of the Siberian Craton [Simonov *et al.*, 1994; Dobretsov *et al.*, 2005]. More ancient boninite series are discovered in the Archean and Paleoproterozoic metamorphosed fold belts that are often jointly termed as ‘greenstone belts’, regardless of the metamorphic grade.

As a rule, the rock assemblages composing the greenstone belts were strongly tectonically transformed and dismembered that gives a zero chance for preservation of a complete ophiolite sequence. Nonetheless, the Early Precambrian greenstone belts maintain vestiges indicating that rock assemblages of oceanic provenance were involved in the tectogenesis of the belts [Shchipansky, 2008; Rosen *et al.*, 2008; Furnes *et al.*, 2015]. These are mainly the isotopic and geochemical signatures of the lack of crustal contamination or affiliation of the mafic-ultramafic assemblages of the greenstone belts to the ensimatic island-arc settings. In the latter case, the presence of the boninite series rocks is a critical support to the suprasubduction ophiolite interpretation of the greenstone belts sequences.

Besides the isotope-geochemical data, some boninite series from the Archean greenstone belts do preserve field evidences on the ocean lithosphere extension. We reported a fragment of the suprasubduction ophiolites with sheeted dikes in gabbroids and metalavas of the boninite series (~2.8 billion years) in the Iringora locality of the North-Karelian greenstone belt [Shchipansky *et al.*, 2001, 2004]. Later on, relics of a sheeted-dike complex were discovered in the Garbenchifer formation from the Eoarchean Isua supracrustal belt, southwestern Greenland [Furnes *et al.*, 2007, 2009]. This suggests that the boninite series rocks and the SSZ spreading have been genetically related since the early stages of the Earth's geological history.

The early Precambrian boninite series differ from the Phanerozoic ones by the presence of both boninites and komatiites in some greenstone belts, such as the Bogoin (Paleoproterozoic), Abitibi (Neoarchean), and Koolyanobbing (Mesoarchean) belts, which is related to mantle plume fingerprinting into intra-oceanic convergence zones (see Table 2). It should be noted, however, that data on the Phanerozoic boninite series often

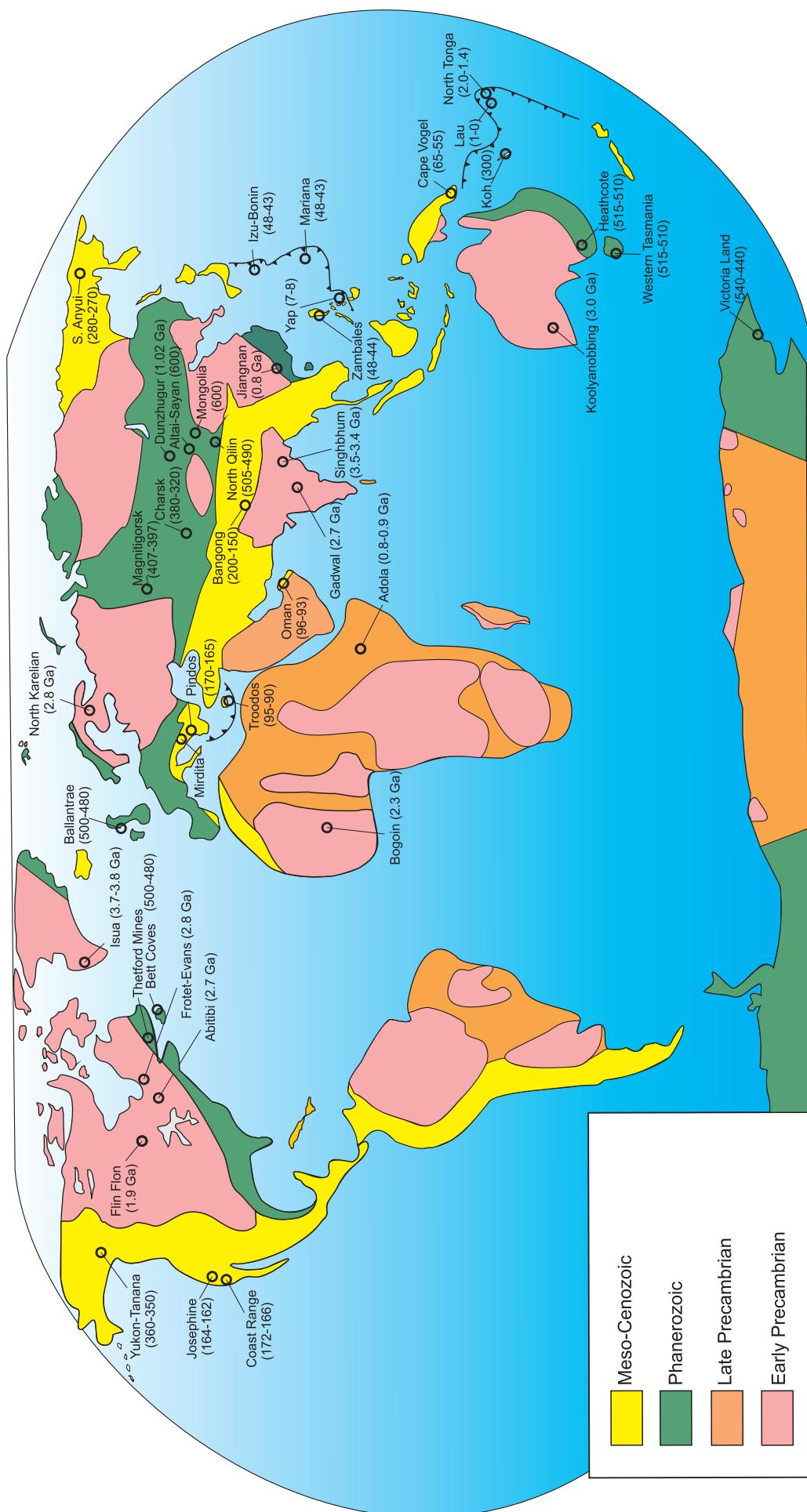


Fig. 4. Global map of boninite occurrences from which boninite series rocks have been reported and described in details. See Table 1 for references.

Рис. 4. Распространение бонинитов на земном шаре, детальное описание находок которых было приведено в литературе. См. таблицу 1, где приведены соответствующие ссылки.

Таблица 2. Распространенность вулканитов бонинитовой серии на земном шаре и краткая характеристика областей их локализации

Locality	Age	Tectonic setting	Geodynamic implication	References
NE Lau Basin	Modern submarine explosions	Multi-spreading centre	Nascent juvenile island arc above a subduction zone	Resing et al., 2011
Northern termination of the Tonga trench	2.5–2.7 Ma	Fore-arc slope	Supra-subduction extensional zone in an island arc basement	Falloon et al., 2008; Sobolev, Danyushevsky, 1994; Falloon, Crawford, 1991
Yap trench, Philippine sea	7–8 Ma	Trench slope	Supra-subduction extensional zone in a forearc setting	Crawford et al., 1986
Izu-Bonin-Mariana Island Arc	48–42 Ma	Fore-arc slope	Nascent juvenile island arc above a subduction zone	Crawford et al., 1981; Crawford et al., 1989; Stern et al., 1991;
Luzon, Philippines	48–44 Ma	Complete SSZ ophiolite sequence	Basement of an juvenile island arc	Yumul, 1996; Yumul et al., 2000
Cape Vogel Peninsula, PNG	Paleocene	Papuan Ultramafic Belt	Supra-subduction extensional zone in a forearc setting	Walker, Cameron, 1983; Crawford et al., 1989
Troodos Massif, Cyprus	90–95 Ma	Complete SSZ ophiolite sequence	Nascent juvenile island arc above a zone of subduction initiation	Sun, Nesbitt, 1978; Cameron et al., 1980; Cameron, 1985; Sobolev et al., 1993; Pearce, Robinson, 2010; Whatttam, Stern, 2011
Pindos Ophiolite Complex, NW Greece	170–165 Ma	Complete SSZ ophiolite sequence	Supra-subduction extensional zone in a forearc setting	Pé-Piper et al., 2004
Mirdita Ophiolite Complex, northern Albania	Jurassic	Complete SSZ ophiolite sequence	Supra-subduction extensional zone in a forearc setting possibly related to the MOR subduction	Bortolotti et al., 1996; Bortolotti et al., 2002
Josephine Ophiolite, Klamath Mountains, NW California	164–162 Ma	Complete SSZ ophiolite sequence	Progradation of a spreading centre from backarc basin to the forearc area of the juvenile island arc	Harper, 1984; Harper, 2003; Wallin, Metcalf, 1998; Metcalf, Shervais, 2008
Coast Range ophiolites, California	172–166 Ma	Ophiolite remnants in serpentinite matrix mélangé	Supra-subduction extensional zone in a forearc setting possibly related to the MOR centers subduction	Shervais, 2001; Shervais et al., 2004 Shervais et al., 2005
Bangong Lake ophiolite, NW Tibet	Early Jurassic	Ophiolite remnants in serpentinite matrix mélangé	Supra-subduction extensional zone in a forearc setting	Shi et al., 2004; Shi et al., 2008
South Anyui suture ophiolite, Western Chukotka	280–270 Ma	Gabbro, gabbro-pyroxenite, and resitic ultra-mafic rocks of an ophiolite sequence	Supra-subduction extensional zone in a forearc or backarc settings	Ganelin, Silantjev, 2008

Таблица 2 (continued)

Таблица 2 (продолжение)

Locality	Age	Tectonic setting	Geodynamic implication	References
Koh Ophiolite, New Caledonia	295 Ma	Upper lavas of the complete SSZ ophiolite	Progradation of a spreading centre from backarc basin to the forearc area of the juvenile island arc	Meijfe et al., 1996; Aitchison et al., 1998
Chark belt, Eastern Kazakhstan	Late Devonian – Early Carboniferous	Mafic to acid volcanics associated with dismembered ophiolites	Supra-subduction environment	Simonov et al., 2010
Yukon-Tanana terrane, SW Yukon, Canada	Pre Late Devonian	Fire Lake boninitic rocks containing volcanic-hosted massive sulfide deposits	Progradation of spreading ridge into a suprasubduction environment	Piercey et al., 2001
Magnitogorsk juvenile island arc of the Sakmar zone in the South Ural	Early Devonian	Volcanics and dykes from the SSZ ophiolite sequences	Supra-subduction extensional zone in a basement of juvenile arc	Spadea et al., 1998; Kosarev et al., 2005; Puchkov, 2010; Belova et al., 2010
Ballantrae complex ophiolite, Southwest Scotland	500–480 Ma	Volcanics from the SSZ ophiolite sequences	Fragment of an intra-oceanic island arc	Smellie et al., 1995
Theftord Mines Ohiolite, Canadian Appalachians	500–480 Ma	Volcanics from the SSZ ophiolite sequences	Supra-subduction extensional zone in a forearc setting	Page et al., 2009
Bett's Cove ophiolite, Newfoundland, Canada	500–480 Ma	Volcanics from the SSZ ophiolite sequences	Supra-subduction extensional zone in a forearc setting	Bédard et al., 1998; Bédard, 1999
Ophiolite of Western Tasmania	Early Cambrian	Lavas associated with ophiolitic ultramafic complexes	Supra-subduction extensional zone in a forearc setting	Brown, Jenner, 1989; Crawford, Berry, 1992
Heathcote Greenstone belt in the Lachlan Fold Belt, SE Australia	Early Cambrian	The oldest metavolcanics in the Lachlan Foldbelt	Supra-subduction extensional zone in an island arc setting	Crawford, Cameron, 1985
Tholeiite-boninitic terrain of the North Qilian suture zone, China	Early Cambrian	The volcanic complex of the North Qilian ophiolite belt	Nascent juvenile island arc above a subduction zone.	Xia et al., 2012
Boninite-derived amphibolites from the Lanterman-Mariner suture, Victoria Land	Cambrian – Ordovician	Boninite-derived retrogressed amphibolites within the Early Paleozoic suture zone	Juvenile island arc or backarc basin	Palmeri et al., 2012
Boninite series of the Altai-Sayan Fold Belt	Vendian-Cambrian	Lavas, dykes and gabbro of boninitic affinity from dismembered or partially preserved SSZ ophiolite sequences	Subduction initiation of the nascent juvenile island arcs	Simonov et al., 1994; Dobretsov et al., 2005
Boninite-series rocks from the ophiolites of Western Mongolia	Vendian-Cambrian (~600 Ma)	Lavas, dykes and gabbro of boninitic affinity from the Khanaltaishir and Bayannor Ranges Ophiolites	Forearc or backarc extensional basins	Zonenshain, Kuzmin, 1978; Repezhiskas et al., 1991; Khain et al., 2003
Boninite-series rocks from the Liangnan Fold Belt, SW China	850–825 Ma	Greenschist-facies boninite series rocks of the SSZ ophiolite complex from the Xuning–Shexian Fault zone	Nascent juvenile island arc above a subduction zone	Zhao, Asimov, 2014

Таблица 2 (окончание)

Locality	Age	Tectonic setting	Geodynamic implication	References
Adola boninite from the Megado ophiolitic belt, Southern Ethiopia	790 Ma	Low-grade boninite series rocks of the Megado SSZ ophiolite	Supra-subduction extensional zone in a forearc or backarc settings	Wolde <i>et al.</i> , 1996; Yibas <i>et al.</i> , 2003
Dunzhugur boninite series of the Ilchir Ophiolite Belt, Eastern Sayan, Russia	1020 Ma	Lavas, dykes and gabbro of boninitic affinity from the upper part of ophiolite sequence	Nascent juvenile island arc above a subduction zone	Dobretsov <i>et al.</i> , 1986; Khain <i>et al.</i> , 2002; Kuzmichev, 2004
Boninites of the Flin Flon greenstone belt, Trans-Hudson Orogen, Canada	1900 Ma	Low grade subaqueous lavas in the lowermost part of the island arc volcanics	Supra-subduction extensional zone in a forearc or backarc settings	Stern <i>et al.</i> , 1995; Leybourne <i>et al.</i> , 1997; Wyman, 1999a
Bogoin boninite-like rocks of the Bogoin-Boali greenstone belt, Central African Republic	2300 Ma	Upper pillowd amphibolites underlined by Al-depleted and Al-underdepleted komatiites and meta-greywackes	Accretionary complex in a convergent plate margin	Poiddevin, 1994
Boninites from the Gadwal greenstone belt, Eastern Dharwar Craton, India	2700–2500 Ma	Amphibolite-facies boninite series occurred along with pillowd metatholeiites	Subduction environments of small plate tectonics involving an interaction of mantle plume and intra-oceanic island arc	Manikyamba <i>et al.</i> , 2005; Manikyamba, Kerrich, 2012
Boninite series of the Abitibi greenstone belt	2715 Ma	Greenschist-facies volcanics Wihtney underlined by Al-depleted and Al-underdepleted komatiites Kidd-Munro	Accretionary complex emerged by interaction of mantle plume and intra-oceanic island arc	Kerrich <i>et al.</i> , 1988; Wyman, 1999a; Wyman, 1999b
Boninite series volcanics of the Frotet-Evans greenstone belt, Opatica, Superior, Canada	2790 Ma	Low-grade boninitic rocks of the lowermost part of the arc-related Assinica group sequence	Supra-subduction extensional zone in a forearc setting	Boily, Dion, 2002
Boninite series of the North Karelian greenstone belt, Baltic Shield, Russia	2804 Ma	Amphibolite-facies boninite-series rocks from the upper part of the SSZ ophiolite complex	Nascent juvenile island arc above a subduction zone	Shchipansky <i>et al.</i> , 1999; Shchipansky <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Bibikova <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Shchipansky <i>et al.</i> , 2004 Shchipansky, 2008
Boninite series of the Koolyanobbing greenstone belt, Craton Yilgarn, SW Australia	3023 Ma	Amphibolite-facies boninite-series rocks alternated with komatite-tholeiite series volcanics in the lower part of the Koolyanobbing sequence	Accretionary complex emerged by interaction of mantle plume and intra-oceanic island arc	Angerer <i>et al.</i> , 2013
Boninite series of the Older Metamorphic Group of the Singhbhum Craton, eastern India	3550–3440 Ma	Amphibolite-facies boninite-series rocks associated with metapelites and BIFs	One of the first evidences on a subduction initiation at the Archean	Manikyamba <i>et al.</i> , 2015
Boninite-series of the Isua greenstone belt, SW Greenland	3800 Ma	Amphibolite-facies boninite-series rocks of Garbenchifer Formation associated with IAT and BIFs	First evidence on a subduction initiation and oceanic lithosphere extension in the Earth history	Polat <i>et al.</i> , 2002; Polat, Hoffman, 2003; Furnes <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Furnes <i>et al.</i> , 2009

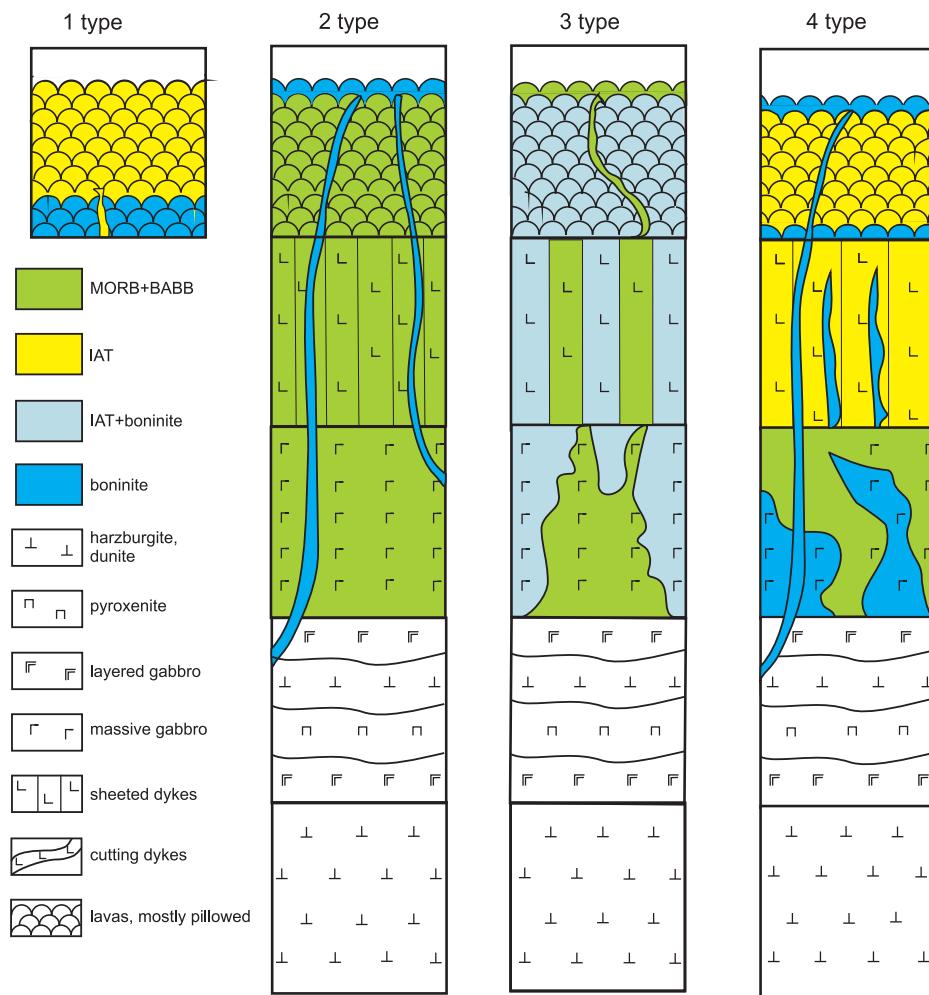


Fig. 5. Models illustrating four tectonic types of boninite occurrences in ophiolitic sections, after [Sklyarov *et al.*, 2016].

Рис. 5. Идеализированные разрезы «тектонических» типов бонинитов, по [Sklyarov *et al.*, 2016].

suggest the mantle plume involvement in their petrogenesis that will be discussed below.

4. PETROGENESIS OF THE BONINITE SERIES ROCKS, AND THEIR EVOLUTION IN TIME

The boninite series rocks are unique because of their genesis requires the set of conditions which is possible only in specific geodynamic settings within spatially limited locations. Indeed, the origin of a boninite source requires prior depletion of an upper mantle reservoir by basalt melt extraction in one or several episodes, which means that mantle harzburgite was such a source [Hickey, Frey, 1982; Sun, Nesbitt, 1978; Duncan, Green, 1980, 1987]. Boninitic melts are primitive and, at the same time, highly silicic with very low absolute concentrations of incompatible trace elements (Nb, Ta, and Ti) and rare earth elements; this suggests melting of residue peridotite at relatively shallow depths.

In fact, contents of Cr and Ni in the boninite series rocks are high. The strong and fast depletion in Cr suggests that chromite was among the main liquidus phases at the early stages of the primary melt fractionation. Depletion in Ni and simultaneously increasing contents of SiO₂ indicate that olivine played an important role in magmas fractionation to Mg#~0.70. As noted above, the subsequent crystallization phase was clinopyroxene replaced then by plagioclase.

The boninite series lavas are considerably enriched in LILE and LREE in comparison to HFSE. Such geochemical characteristics suggest active infiltration of hydrous fluid into the mantle source of the boninite melts [Pearce *et al.*, 1984, 1992; Pearce, 1982, 2003; Crawford *et al.*, 1989; Bloomer *et al.*, 1995; Stern *et al.*, 1991]. The presence of fluid water in the mantle wedge is also a prerequisite to lower the solidus melting temperature of a refractory source.

While the ideas concerning the source of the boninite series melts are commonly consistent, there is a disagreement in estimated P-T conditions for genera-

tion of parental magmas, i.e. primitive high-Mg and low-silica melts [Cameron, 1985]. In [Duncan, Green, 1980, 1987], the MgO content is estimated at 15–16 % for the primary Troodos boninite series melts generated by mantle harzburgite melting at 7–8 kbar at a temperature of 1360 °C. In [Sobolev et al., 1993], P-T estimates show larger depths and higher temperatures: 2–3 GPa; 1380–1450 °C; MgO content of 17–22 wt %. Resulting from the melt inclusion studies, the Neoproterozoic boninite series from the Altai-Sayan segment of the Central-Asian fold belt were crystallized at T~1330–1150 °C from a water-saturated (up to 3.9 wt % H₂O) primary melt at depths of about from 60 to 90 km [Dobretsov et al., 2005].

It has been experimentally determined [Kushiro, 1990] that adding 4.4–6.6 wt % H₂O into the mantle substance reduces the melting start pressure by almost 2 kbar and lowers the temperature by ~150 °C. Experiments with refractory harzburgite under anhydrous and H₂O-undersaturated conditions [Falloon, Danyushevsky, 2000] show that the high-Ca boninite petrogenesis requires temperatures as high as ~1480 °C and a pressure of about 1.5–2 GPa in the presence of 2–3 wt % H₂O.

Notwithstanding significant uncertainties in the boninite series melt models (which compositions are dependent on many factors, including the mantle depletion degree and the fluid melting mode), there is a general consensus that their genesis requires anomalously high temperatures and the presence of a water-containing fluid in considerable quantities. In this case, temperature anomalies mean temperature values considerably exceeding those in the ambient upper mantle, which are sufficient for MORB generation. In the recently introduced theory on decompression melting of the upper mantle, a potential mantle temperature (*T_p*), i.e. a temperature at the lowest point of the mantle column, is set at ~1350 °C for generation of the parental melt for N-MORB [Langmuir et al., 1992; O'Hara, Herzberg, 2002]. This melt corresponds to a picrite composition (13 wt % MgO), and MORB13 composition model is perfectly matched to the fractionation trend of tholeiitic melts forming N-MORB [Niu, O'Hara, 2009]. Figure 6 illustrates the idea that the generation conditions of the boninite series rocks and MORB are different. Comparison of the MORB and boninite compositions with similar Mg -number gives grounds to challenge the geodynamic model suggesting that boninites could form in zones of stretching above the mid-ocean ridges in supra-subduction environments (see also [Metcalfe, Shervais, 2008]). What petrogenetic conditions may be responsible for the boninite series rock genesis? Did any evolutionary changes occur in such conditions through the Earth's history?

Answers to the above questions can be derived from the theory of upper mantle decompression melting and

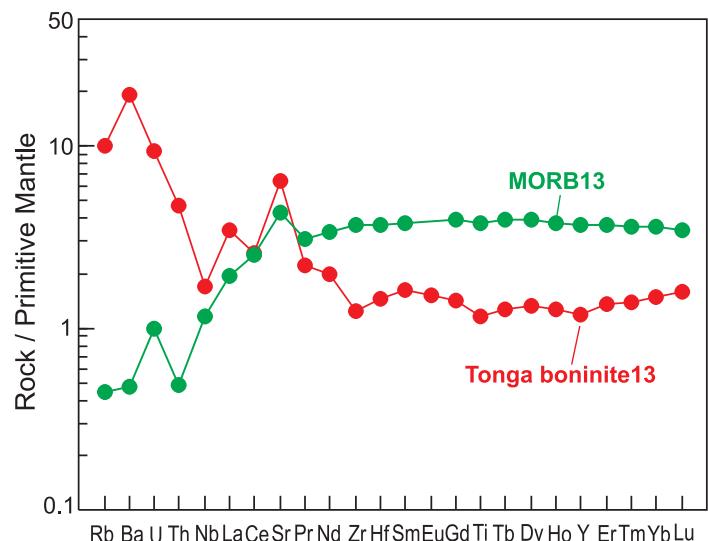


Fig. 6. A comparison between trace element compositions of the parental melt for modern MORB expressed as MORB13 [Niu, O'Hara, 2009] and the recent boninite with ~13 wt. % MgO from the Tonga fore-arc [Falloon et al., 2008].

It is clear that a petrogenesis of boninite series seems to be unrelated with an extensional environment characteristic of a MORB-forming magmatic column. Primitive mantle values are from [Hofmann, 1988].

Рис. 6. Сравнение состава малых элементов родоначального расплава современных MORB, выраженного как MORB13 [Niu, O'Hara, 2009], и современного бонинита с содержанием MgO ~13 вес. % из преддуговой области Тонга [Falloon et al., 2008].

Из рисунка следует, что петрогенезис бонинитовой серии не может быть связан с обстановками растяжения, в которых образуются расплавные колонны толеитов MORB-типа. Примитивная мантия по [Hofmann, 1988].

its key concept of accumulated fractional melting. If the latter is the case, the mantle source begins to melt in small amounts during decompression; typically, melt is extracted after 1–2 % melting by buoyancy-driven porous flow; and the residue continues to melt in small increments during decompression. This process takes place repeatedly as decompression progresses from an initial high to a final low melting pressure. The small melt fractions mix in transitional crustal magma chambers to make an aggregate primary magma melt. Each melt droplet contributing to the aggregate is in equilibrium with a specific source which composition varies from the initial relatively fertile to the depleted final composition. An aggregate fractional melt is not in equilibrium with its residue; only the final drop of the melt extracted is in equilibrium with the residue [Herzberg, Rudnick, 2012]. In solutions of the mass balance equation, mean values of residue, pressure and melt amount are used for simplicity. This facilitates solving

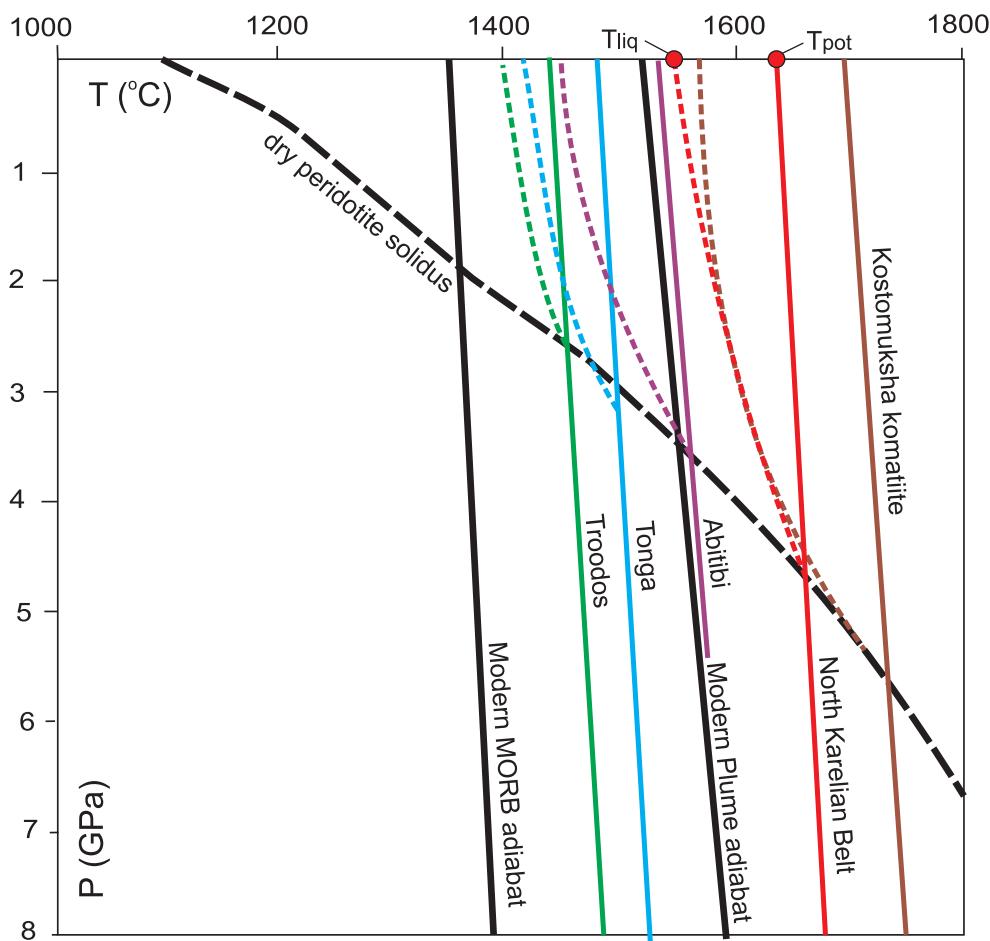


Fig. 7. A plot illustrating possible relationships between mantle potential temperatures (T_p) and primitive magma liquidus temperatures (T_{liq}) for the modern boninite series (Tonga, Troodos) and the Archean ones (Abitibi, North Karelian greenstone belt).

The diagram is simplified by showing a dry solidus applicable to both MORB and the boninite series, because a hydrous melting will take place below the dry solidus and the boninite series have a more depleted mantle solidus than MORBs. T_p and T_{liq} for boninite series rocks have been calculated from the appropriated compositions using software PRIMELT2.XLS [Herzberg, Asimow, 2008]. Data source: Troodos [Pearce, Robinson, 2010]; Tonga [Falloon et al., 2008]; Abitibi [Kerrich et al., 1998]; North Karelian greenstone belt [Shchipansky et al., 2004]. Data for the Kostomuksha komatiites were taken from [Puchtel et al., 1998].

Рис. 7. Иллюстрация соотношений между мантийными потенциальными температурами (T_p) и ликвидусными температурами (T_{liq}) примитивных магм современных (Тонга, Троодос) и архейских (Абитиби, Северо-Карельский зеленокаменный пояс) бонинитовых серий.

Диаграмма показывает упрощенные соотношения, поскольку показаны солидусы безводного плавления; в природе мокрое плавление будет понижать солидус, а источник для бонинитовых серий является более деплетированным и тугоплавким, чем источник для MORB. T_p и T_{liq} рассчитаны по выборке соответствующих условиям моделирования составов с помощью программы PRIMELT2.XLS [Herzberg, Asimow, 2008]. Источники данных: Троодос [Pearce, Robinson, 2010], Тонга [Falloon et al., 2008], Абитиби [Kerrich et al., 1998], Северо-Карельский пояс [Shchipansky et al., 2004]. Для сравнения показаны данные по коматитам Костомукши по [Puchtel et al., 1998].

general problems of decompression melting with regard to the mantle columns formed in differing, i.e. plume or mid-ocean ridge, settings. Using the data on the most primitive compositions, that are mainly controlled by olivine fractionation, it becomes possible to calculate parental melt compositions and potential mantle temperatures corresponding to the melting initiation depth of the given mantle column [Herzberg et al., 2007; Herzberg, Asimow, 2008].

Figure 7 illustrates relationships between potential and liquidus temperatures of the most primitive compositions of the modern (Tonga forearc and Troodos and upper pillow lavas) and Archean (Abitibi and North Karelian greenstone belts) boninite series. The potential mantle temperatures for their generation differ by 150–200 °C. This difference refers to the assemblages generated by mantle sources of an almost similar type (mantle harzburgite) due to its melting in the

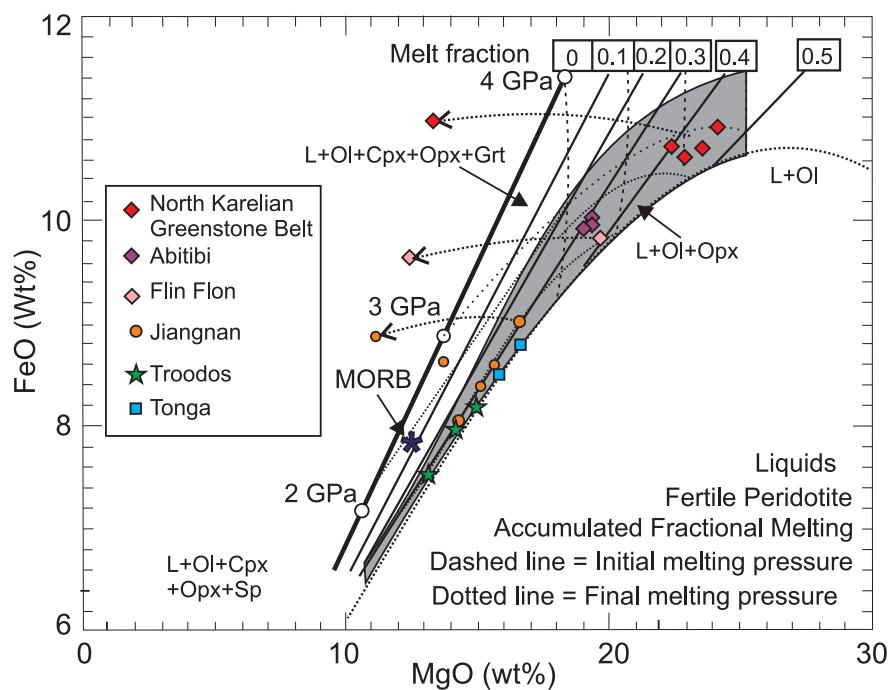


Fig. 8. Change in parental melts of boninite series compositions in time on the petrogenetic grid MgO vs. FeO [Herzberg, Asimow, 2008].

Dotted curves with arrays are fractionation paths from the primary melts to evolved boninite compositions. Data source are for Tonga [Falloon et al., 2008]; Troodos [Cameron, 1985], Jiagnan [Zhao, Asimow, 2014]; Flin Flon [Wyman, 1999a]; Abitibi [Kerrick et al., 1998]; Iringora ophiolite, North Karelian greenstone belt [Shchipansky et al., 2004]. See the text for explanations.

Рис. 8. Изменение родительских составов бонинитовых серий во времени петрогенетической сетке MgO – FeO [Herzberg, Asimow, 2008].

Точечными кривыми со стрелками показаны тренды фракционирования от первичных расплавов к бонинитовым составам. Источники данных составов: Тонга [Falloon et al., 2008]; Троодос [Cameron, 1985], Цжэцзян [Zhao, Asimow, 2014]; Флин Флон [Wyman, 1999a]; Абитиби [Kerrick et al., 1998]; Ириногорские офиолиты Северо-Карельского пояса [Shchipansky et al., 2004]. См. объяснения в тексте.

presence of hydrous fluid. So, this phenomenon may be thought of as a result of the secular cooling of the Earth. The gradient of 50–70 °C/Ga suggests evolutionary changes in geodynamic processes in the Earth's history, rather than any significant transformations in tectonic mechanisms responsible for the continental crust growth. A nearly similar difference in the potential temperatures for the plume magmatism in the Earth's history is also noteworthy [Herzberg et al., 2007].

The evolution of boninitic volcanism in the Earth's history is clearly revealed in Figure 8 with regard to the definition of potential mantle temperature, envisaging a relationship between a mantle melting degree and a depth whereat the magma column is initiated due to decompression melting. The petrogenetic grid is used to show the calculated primary melt compositions of the Late Archean (North-Karelian and Abitibi belts), Paleoproterozoic (Flin Flon belt), Neoproterozoic (Jiangnan belt) and Meso-Cenozoic (Troodos, Tonga) boninite series, and a few fractionation trends are given for illustration of differentiation paths. It is clear

that the early Precambrian boninite series were generated at higher degrees of mantle harzburgite melting (30–40 %), and the mantle melting columns occurred at considerably larger depths (3.5–4.0 GPa) than during the Phanerozoic eon (2.5–3.0 GPa). The knowledge of the P-T differences of the boninite series petrogenesis is important for understanding the evolution of geodynamic processes in the Earth's history that will be discussed below.

5. GEODYNAMIC SETTINGS OF BONINITE OCCURRENCE

Almost all the boninitic magmatism occurrences, regardless of its age, are genetically associated with intra-oceanic subduction zones (see Table 2). The modern boninitic volcanism occurrences revealed by the recent studies are localized only in the intra-oceanic plate convergence zones, and there is no proven example that would evidence any other geodynamic settings for their generation. Considerations of petrogenesis of

the boninite series rock melts also imply their emplacement above the zones wherein the oceanic lithosphere slabs are dehydrating and sinking into the mantle. It is established that in the modern intraoceanic island arcs (Izu-Bonin-Mariana, and Tonga-Kermadec), the boninite series volcanic rocks build up the peridotite-gabbro sequences of the forearc slopes and indicate the initiation and growth of juvenile island-arcs [Pearce *et al.*, 1992; Stern, Bloomer, 1992; Stern, 2004].

It should be noted that a genetic link between the boninite series and ophiolites was recognized well before the deep-sea drilling and dredging studies of the forearc slopes of the Tonga and Izu-Bonin-Mariana arcs [Miyashiro, 1973; Cameron *et al.*, 1979]. Numerous discoveries of the boninite series rocks [Pearce, 2003, 2008; Stern, 2004; Metcalf, Shervais, 2008; Sklyarov *et al.*, 2016] have given grounds to conclude that the majority of the world's ophiolites mark paleo-zones of spreading in suprasubduction environments at the ancient oceanic plate margins, rather than past spreading at ancient mid-ocean ridges. Thus, boninites are petrologically unique rocks providing a perfect indication of paleogeodynamic settings in the oceanic plate convergence zones through the Earth's history.

The new paradigm of geodynamic settings for the boninite series generation was based on the hypothesis that SSZ ophiolites are related to the initiation of intraoceanic island arcs [Stern *et al.*, 1991; Stern, Bloomer, 1992]. This raised the questions of how and where subduction zones were initiated [Stern, 2002, 2004]. In terms of mechanics, a prerequisite for subduction initiation is gravitational instability in the oceanic lithosphere, which can lead to its tearing followed by decompression melting of the upper mantle and sinking of one plate under another. This phenomenon, as well as the genetic link between boninites and ophiolites, is encapsulated as the subduction initiation rule (SIR) [Whattam, Stern, 2011].

In the model proposed in [Stern, 2004], this condition is satisfied when plates of differing temperature and density are juxtaposed across a transform fault or fracture zone, i.e. theoretically, in case of the interaction between plates of different ages, i.e. an old cold plate and a young hot plate. Along the fault, the gravitationally instability of the ancient crust makes it sink with a down-dip component of motion, while a lateral component is lacking. The model suggests that upon initiation of sinking of the slab/plate, the overlying slab/plate is subject to stretching, the partially depleted mantle is rising to melt due to its decompression, and a large input of water from the sinking slab sets up conditions for extremely high extents of fusion. Later on, the slab motion vector acquires a lateral component, which stops the decompression, and, consequently, terminates melting of the depleted mantle. Thus, a true subduction regime is established for generation of

the normal island-arc tholeiitic and calc-alkaline volcanic series.

Another subduction initiation concept is proposed in [Niu *et al.*, 2003]. It establishes a link between locations of subduction zones and density inhomogeneities at the borders of the normal oceanic lithosphere and the oceanic lithosphere thickened by mantle plume impingement, i.e. oceanic plateaus or hotspot tracers – aseismic ridges or seamounts. This concept is supported by the data on the Tonga boninites that are confined to the intersection of the aseismic ridge of the Louisville hotspot and the paleotrough of the Tonga-Kermadec arc [Turner, Hawkesworth, 1997]. There is also evidence that the initial stage of the Izu-Bonin-Mariana arc development was associated with mantle plume fingerprinting at the Manus back-arc basin [Macpherson, Hall, 2001].

The boninite series volcanic rocks often have enriched mantle-plume isotopic and geochemical signatures [Sobolev, Danyushevsky, 1994; Taylor, Nesbitt, 1998]. The involvement of the mantle-plume thickened lithosphere in the petrogenesis of boninites would thus resolve the long debate on anomalously high temperatures for the initiation of partial melting of the depleted refractory mantle harzburgite as high heat inputs can be ensured by the ascending hot mantle plumes [Fallon, Danyushevsky, 2000].

The presence of mantle-plume products is also revealed in the SSZ ophiolite sequences, which isotopic and geochemical compositions are well studied, such as the Pindos, Josephine, Koch, Magnitorsk (Southern Urals, Russia) ophiolites, etc. (see Table 2). In the early Precambrian sequences, the boninite series volcanic rocks are also associated with mantle-plume derivatives, komatiites, as well as OIB-type metavolcanic rocks [Shchipansky, 2008].

Apparently, the occurrence of mantle-plume derivatives in the intra-oceanic subduction initiation zones does not seem to be random. It is recognized that a rising mantle plume can decrease the strength of the lithosphere, which may lead to the breakup of the continents [Courtillot *et al.*, 1999]. In addition, an emplacement of mantle plume head at the lithosphere can significantly change its density characteristics. The ingress of melts generated by the enriched deep source into the upper layers of the mantle and the oceanic lithosphere would lead to refertilization of the previously depleted mantle. While cooling, the upper mantle transformed by mantle plume impingement becomes denser, and a new lithospheric segment may gradually become negatively buoyant. The reason is that OIB volcanic rocks are considerably enriched in Fe and Ti. Besides, Fe-Ti basalts/gabbros are known to be eologitized faster than their magnesium equivalents. Figure 9 shows the experimentally determined garnet stability fields for basalt compositions differing in

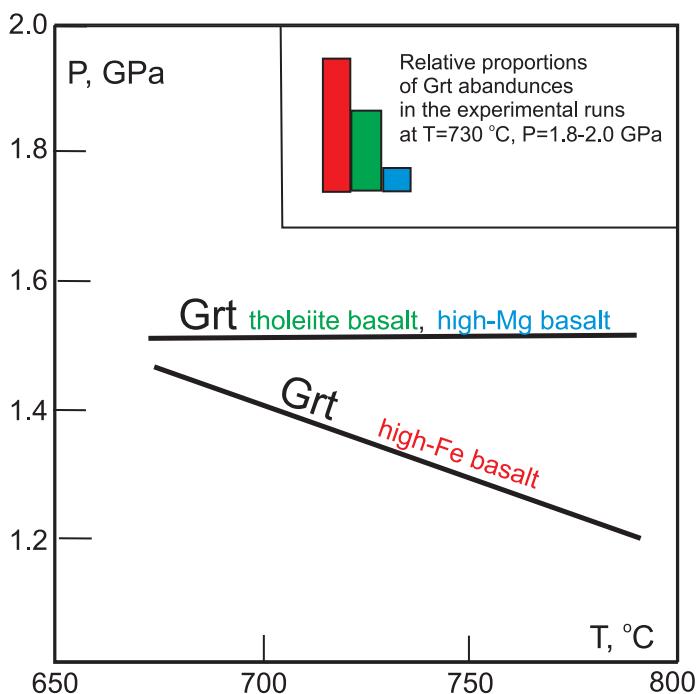


Fig. 9. Experimentally determined Grt-in curves for compositionally different basalts: Fe-rich basalt ($Mg\#=41$), olivine tholeiite ($Mg\#=55$), and high-Mg basalt ($Mg\#=69$). Note that relative abundances of garnet shown at the inset vary significantly also. Modified after data of [Molina, Poli, 2000].

Рис. 9. Экспериментально определенные поля стабильности граната для базальтов различного состава: железистого базальта ($Mg\#=41$), оливинового толеита ($Mg\#=55$) и высокомагнезиального базальта ($Mg\#=69$). Заметим, что относительные количества граната, показанные на врезке, также сильно варьируются. Модифицировано из работы [Molina, Poli, 2000].

magnesium numbers. Clearly, ferriferous compositions show the earliest occurrence of garnet in quantities considerably exceeding those in case of olivine tholeiites and, especially, high-Mg basalts. This metamorphic transformation at the crustal base of the thickened oceanic island builds seems to be a critical factor disturbing the gravitational stability of the lithosphere. Garnet is denser by almost 15 % than pyroxenes, amphiboles and olivine, which means that 'density eclogitization' can take place in the reworked lower lithosphere. In this case, even if only the lower crust is foundered, tearing of the lithosphere seems to be inevitable.

Actually, potential gravitational instability of the lithosphere seems to be directly dependent on a volume of the mantle-plume productivity and the thermal status of reworked lithosphere segment. It is not common that such factors are favorably combined; anyway, lithosphere breakup and initiation of new subduction

zones is highly probable. It is noteworthy that the polarity of subduction is predetermined by the thermal status of the lithosphere – hot lithosphere is positively buoyant, while cold lithosphere is negatively buoyant.

The model in Figure 10 shows the global-scale chemical and density inhomogeneities of the lithosphere as a result of a superplume event. The term 'superplume' was coined by Roger Larson in the early 1990's, when the author has advocated that mantle-plume volcanism was the strongest in the mid-Cretaceous time (124–83 Ma) [Larson, 1991]. This event resulted in the emergence of giant oceanic plateaus, such as the Ontong Java, Manihiki, Kerguelen, and Columbia-Caribbean. It is believed that four currently active hotspots in the Pacific Ocean, which are traceable in the oceanic seafloor, are associated with this superplume. Few other tracks seem to have been cut off in the subduction zones. Other hotspot tracks in the Pacific are younger (Paleogene–Neogene) and may be not associated with deep plumes [Clouard, Bonneville, 2001]. Accordingly the numerical simulation of a thermochemical superplume at the core-mantle boundary, protuberance emissions of the deep matter to the surface are represented by hot jets or large igneous provinces which impacts are observed even at the upper mantle [Farnetani, Hofmann, 2011]. This phenomenon may be responsible for the occurrence of the first-order chemical and density inhomogeneities and the initiation of the most extended plate convergence zones. This scenario seems to be realistic for the initiation of the Izu-Bonin-Mariana arc in the early Eocene.

Another subduction initiation scenario assumes a closer link between subduction and the geodynamics of individual hotspots. As already mentioned, the youngest boninitic magmatism occurrences in the northern Tonga are spatially associated with the Louisville hotspot track. Its forearc structure includes the Vitiaz paleo-trench (age of ~4 Ma) and the modern trench located further in the ocean at a distance of about 500 km. A unique double-subduction picture is revealed in this region by detailed seismotomographic surveys. A fragment of the younger and more gently dipping slab of the oceanic lithosphere is clearly visible above the current subduction zone [Chen, Brudzinski, 2001]. The shallow-depth slab detachment was discussed in detail in [Shchipansky, 2008] as the factor disturbing a lithospheric barrier and creating extremely favorable conditions for generation of the ophiolitic boninite series (Fig. 11).

It is quite possible that the shallow-depth slab break-off resulted from the compositional density inhomogeneity of the sinking lithosphere, such as local charging by OIB magmatism products. The key geodynamic implications of this phenomenon are, first, strong short-term thermal disturbance over the narrow slab window, and, second, fast uplift of its over-

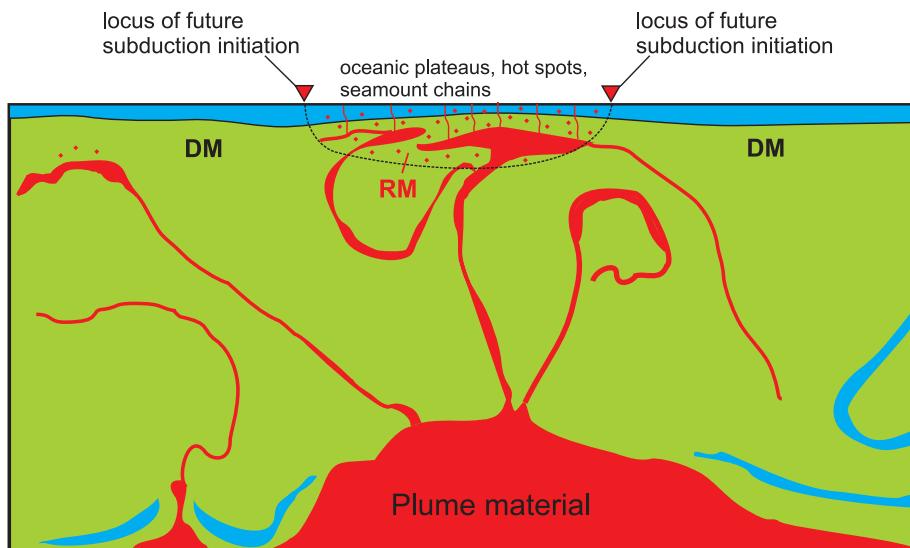


Fig. 10. Sketch illustrating an emergence of large refertilized, or reworked, mantle (RM) region due to a superplume event.

This gives rise to a creation of lateral compositional buoyancy contrast over normal oceanic lithosphere (DM) and, thus, to a subduction initiation with time. Superplume cartoon is after the numerical simulation of a thermo-chemical plume [Farnetani, Hofmann, 2011].

Рис. 10. Схема, иллюстрирующая модель образования больших объемов рефertilизированной, или переработанной, мантии (RM) в результате суперплюмового события.

В результате со временем возникает химико-плотностной контраст по отношению к нормальной океанической литосфере (DM), что и определяет места инициации субдукции. Изображение суперплюма дано по результатам численного моделирования термохимического плюма [Farnetani, Hofmann, 2011].

riding plate [van de Zedde, Wortel, 2001; Buiter *et al.*, 2002]. This mechanism provides a reasonable explanation for the short-term (3–5 Ma) volcanism which was by far more voluminous than the steady-state subduction volcanism [Stern, 2002, 2004]. Due to uplifting of

the suprasubduction plate, an ophiolite ‘platform’ replaced the hanging plate and provided a basement for the nascent island-arc build. It is essential that the uplift of the ophiolite ‘platform’ could have attained the morphological stability as the previous episode of

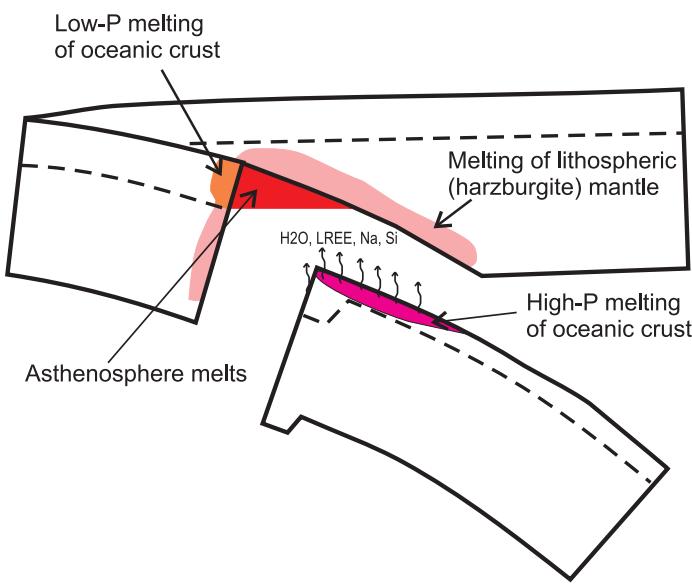


Fig. 11. Cartoon depicting a variety of the partial melting processes during shallow-level slab break-off [Shchipansky, 2008].

Note that in this case different portions of the upper mantle, i.e. lherzolitic asthenospheric and harzburgitic lithospheric, should be partially molten. Crustal part of the detached slab provides a source for aqueous fluids enriched by subduction-related chemical components. Loci of low pressure and high pressure melting of metabasic oceanic rocks are shown also.

Рис. 11. Принципиальная схема процессов частичного плавления в обстановке малоглубинного детачмента слэба. Модифицировано из работы [Shchipansky, 2008].

Обратим внимание, что в этом случае в область плавления включаются различные составляющие верхней мантии – лерцолитовая астеносферная мантия, гарцбургитовая литосферная мантия. Коровая часть оторванного слэба является поставщиком водного флюида и субдукционной компоненты. Показаны также вероятные области низкобарического и высокобарического (адакитового) плавления метабазитов океанической коры.

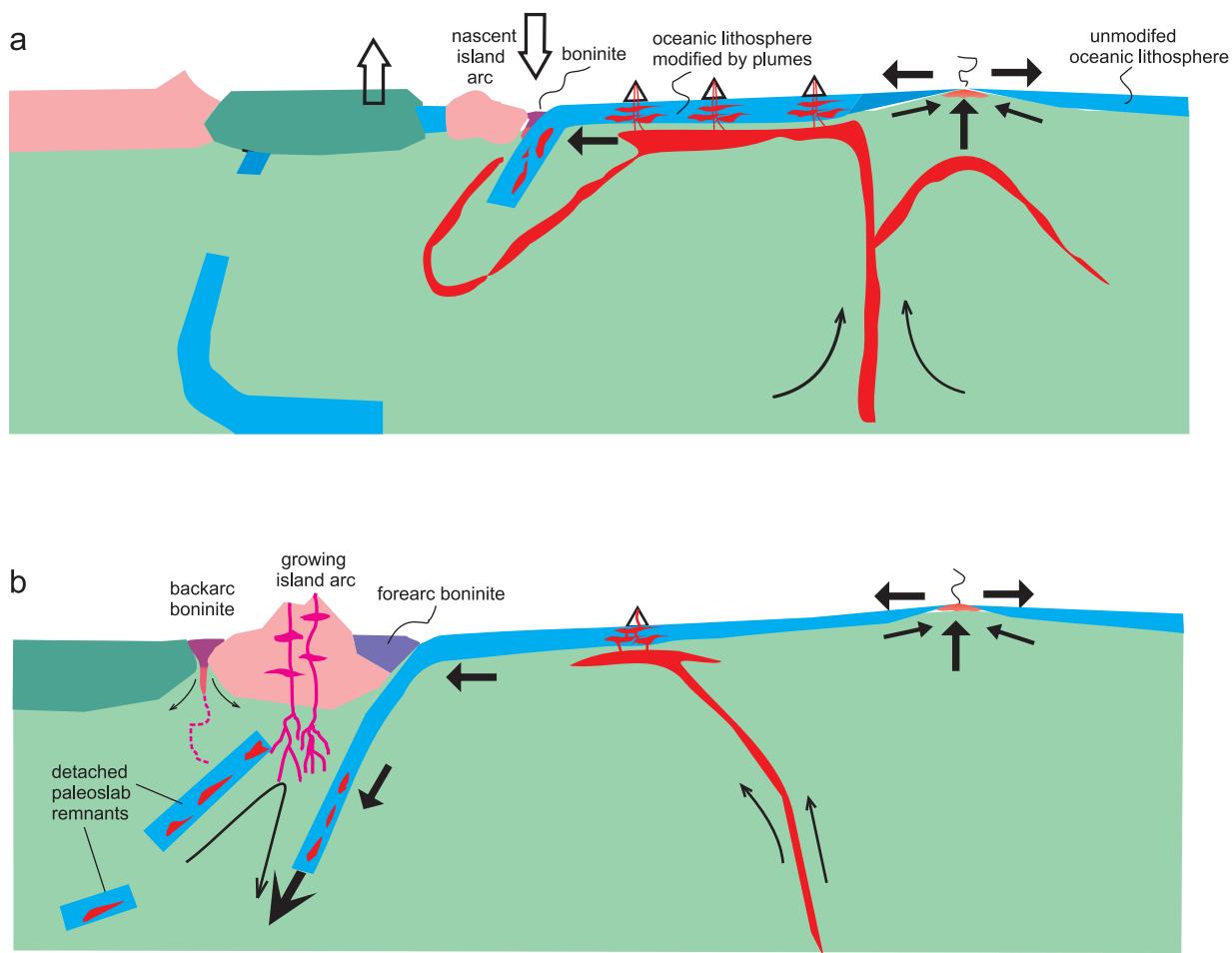


Fig. 12. An illustration of the model of boninite formation when a reworked lithosphere capped by OIB volcanics initiates a non-stationary subduction.

The model is largely based on the available data from the modern Tonga arc [Sobolev, Danyushevsky, 1994; Turner, Hawkesworth, 1997; Chen, Brudzinski, 2001; Niu et al., 2003; Falloon et al., 2007, 2008; Resing et al., 2011]: a – lithosphere charged with Fe-rich melts gets negative buoyancy as it cooled, and starts to sink. Lithosphere tearing leads to raise asthenospheric mantle and triggers intensive melting that includes boninite series melts (see fig. 10); b – as a result of the shallow level slab break-off, a new subduction should develop and, as a consequence, a new trench occurs at a distance of a few hundred kilometers oceanward from the older trench. Detached slab fragments lead to a lithosphere extension, thus forming a tight back-arc trough characterized by occurrences of local multi-spreading centers where younger boninites can also be formed. See the text for more details.

Рис. 12. Иллюстрация модели формирования бонинитов подразумевающей инициацию нестационарной субдукции при участии переработанной и нагруженной OIB вулканитами литосфера.

Модель основана на многочисленных данных по современной островной дуге Тонга [Sobolev, Danyushevsky, 1994; Turner, Hawkesworth, 1997; Chen, Brudzinski, 2001; Niu et al., 2003; Falloon et al., 2007, 2008; Resing et al., 2011]. а – литосфера, отягощенная богатыми железом расплавами, по мере охлаждения приобретает отрицательную плавучесть и начинает погружаться. Разрыв литосферы приводит к подъему астеносферной мантии и вызывает интенсивное плавление, включая генерацию магм бонинитовой серии (см. рис. 10); б – в результате малоглубинного обрыва слэба возникает новая зона субдукции, новый желоб которой располагается на расстоянии в несколько сотен километров в сторону океана от предшествующего желoba. Оторванные фрагменты палеослэба провоцируют растяжение литосферы, что вызывает формирование узкого задувового трога, характеризующегося развитием мульти-спрединговых центров, где могут формироваться более молодые бониниты. См. текст для более детальной информации.

intense mantle melting lefted the mantle strongly depleted. This resulted in the emergence of a lithospheric keel capable to resist the convective instability of the surrounding mantle.

Figure 12 shows the above-described model based on the modern geodynamics of the northern termina-

tion of the Tonga arc. The top panel shows the subduction initiation and generation of boninites in the forearc region. The bottom panel shows the modern subduction zone and paleoslab fragments under the emerging Lau basin. In the samples dredged from the Lau basin, the presence of the subduction fluid compo-

ment is evidenced by higher contents of H₂O in glasses and enrichment in large-ion lithophile (LIL) elements [Falloon *et al.*, 1992; Danushevsky *et al.*, 1993; Pearce *et al.*, 1994]. The fact that compositions of these basalts significantly differ can be explained by contribution to their petrogenesis of various mantle sources, including mantle plume input. Besides, active eruptions of boninites take place at present time [Resing *et al.*, 2011]. Thus, boninites occur in a variety of combinations in different tectonic settings in time and space, i.e. in the fore- and back-arc environments. This indicates that, firstly, it is an established phenomenon, and, secondly, the subduction initiation process may be not as simple as described by the ‘subduction initiation rule’ (SIR) model [Whattam, Stern, 2011].

It seems likely that the subduction regime should be stabilized after a certain period of accommodation associated with the slab break-off event/ or events and resultant contrasting tectonic regimes on the surface. During this period, movements caused by the frontal subduction compression are rapidly replaced by strike-slip motion, which leads to the occurrence of a complex rift system with both hot spot volcanism and volcanic seamounts [Falloon *et al.*, 2007, 2008].

Considering the ophiolite sequences worldwide, it has been noted that, although their magmatic che-mostratigraphic progression is almost similar [Pearce, Robinson, 2010; Whattam, Stern, 2011], the relationship between boninite series and other members of ophiolite sections are variable and may significantly differ from the ideal ophiolite sequence, known as a ‘penrose ophiolite’ [Sklyarov *et al.*, 2016]. In the literature, there are numerous cases showing the lateral variability of the ophiolite sequences within the local regions and therefore suggests non-stationary settings of ophiolite-forming processes. These increasingly compel the conclusion that ophiolites are commonly associated with the subduction initiation environ-

ments, rather than with spreading in the mid-ocean ridges.

6. SUBDUCTION INITIATION IN THE EARLY PRECAMBRIAN

As described above, generation of the early Precambrian boninite series was developed by mantle harzburgite melting of high degrees (30–40 %), and the mantle melt columns started at greater depth (3.5–4.0 GPa) as comparing with those from Phanerozoic eon (2.5–3 GPa). What are the geodynamic implications of these facts?

It is well known that the early Precambrian cratons are underlain by the depleted subcontinental lithospheric mantle (SCLM) or a lithospheric keel (root) extending into the diamond stability field. This phenomenon has never reoccurred in the later history of the Earth, and its origin has been widely discussed in the literature [e.g. Herzberg, Rudnick, 2012; Shchipansky, 2012, and references therein]. In the Phanerozoic, strong depletion of the upper mantle is associated with generation of the boninite series in the subduction initiation zones. The above overview of the global boninite occurrences gives abundant evidence of boninitic magmatism in the early Precambrian, and the discoveries of ancient boninites are progressively growing. Accordingly to the recently published assessment, the volumes of the Archean boninite volcanics and komatiites appear to be almost roughly similar (Fig. 13) [Furnes *et al.*, 2014]. Discovery of the boninite series rocks with fragments of sheeted dikes and IAT-type metabasites in the oldest preserved complex Isua strongly suggests that subduction dates back from the early Earth’s geological history.

A prerequisite for subduction initiation is the oceanic lithosphere breakup through its entire thickness. It follows thus from Figure 6 that, first, the early Precam-

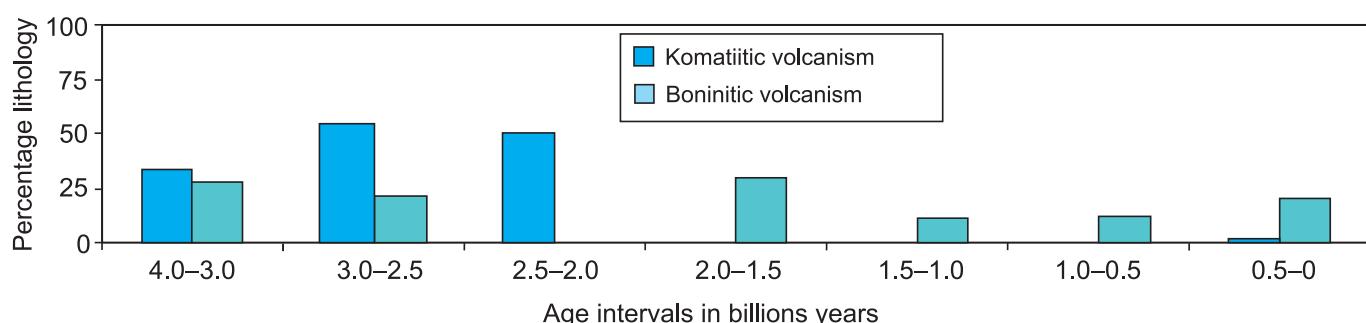


Fig. 13. Percentage lithology of komatiite and boninitic volcanism represented at given age intervals, relative to total of mafic and ultramafic magmatism in the Earth history, according to [Furnes *et al.*, 2014].

Рис. 13. Соотношения объемов коматиитового и бонинитового вулканизма в процентах от общего объема магнит-ультрамафитовых ассоциаций в истории Земли, по [Furnes *et al.*, 2014].

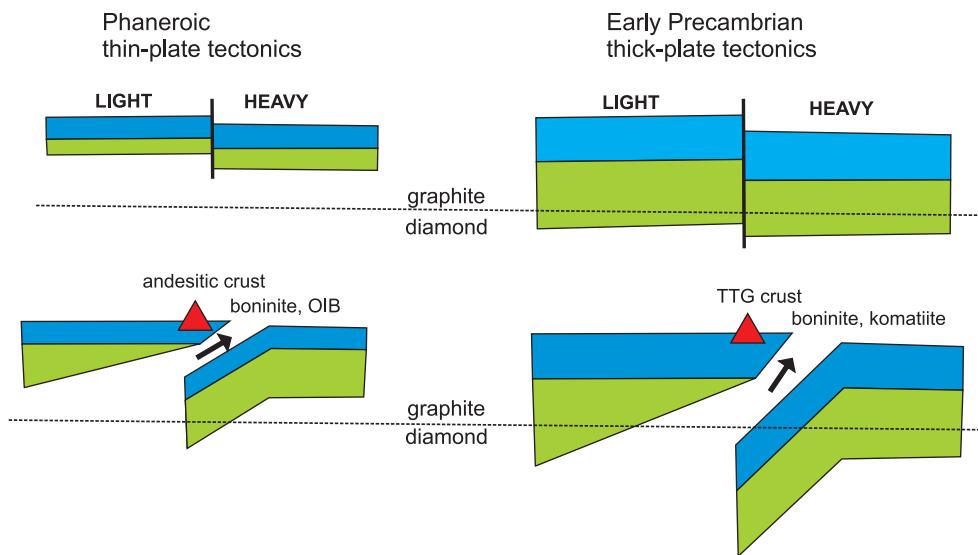


Fig. 14. Sketch illustrating distinctions between subduction initiations in modern thin-plate and Early Precambrian thick-plate tectonic settings. The dotted lines depict a conventional graphite/graphite transition relative to lithospheric mantle.

Рис. 14. Схема, иллюстрирующая различия в инициации субдукции, в обстановках современной тонкоплитовой и раннедокембрийской толстоплитовой тектоники. Точечной линией условно показано положение фазового перехода графит/алмаз относительно литосферной мантии.

brian lithosphere as a unit should have rheological properties providing for brittle or brittle-plastic deformations. In other words, such lithosphere can be considered as a rigid body capable of resisting the convective instability that is an attribute of plate tectonics [Sleep, 1992]. The Archaean oceanic lithosphere thickness is estimated at 85–120 km, whereas the modern lithosphere is ~60 km thick [Herzberg *et al.*, 2010].

Second, unlike the Phanerozoic boninite series, parental melts of the early Precambrian series were generated at depths of ~120–130 km, i.e. in the diamond stability field. Given the fact that the primitive melts of the ancient boninite series clearly have the subduction influence signatures, it is reasonable to believe that deep sinking of the slabs into the early Precambrian mantle was highly possible.

Third, extensive melting of the early Precambrian upper mantle for the period of subduction initiation implies that it was subject to strong depletion through the diamond stability field. During the accommodation stage, the new sinking slab/slabs are cut off the asthenospheric heat input thus leading to quickly cooling of overriding forearc lithosphere. This model provides an explanation of the origin and stability of the cold diamond-bearing SCLM that has not been subject to any convective perturbations, at least, since 3.0 billion years [Boyd *et al.*, 1985].

The differences between the modern and early Precambrian subduction initiation settings are schematically shown in Figure 14. The main distinction is that thin-plate tectonics covers the period from the Neopro-

terozoic to the present time, and thick-plate tectonics refers to the early Precambrian. Today, the oceanic crust is ~6–7 km thick on average, and this requires ~6–7 % melting. In general, about 1 km of oceanic crust is produced for every 1 % of partial melting (i.e. 1 km/1 % melting) [Herzberg, Rudnick, 2012]. According to available petrological estimations, the Archean MORB-type oceanic crust thickness ranges from ~20–25 km [Abbott *et al.*, 1994] to 40–60 km [Herzberg *et al.*, 2010]. In other words, the Archaean oceanic crust should have been, roughly, 3 to 6 times thicker than the modern crust. Such estimations scatter is due to the problem of validity of mantle potential temperature (T_p) computations for the ambient Archaean upper mantle as preserved off-arcs mafic volcanics of that age are very seldom [Pearce, 2008; and others].

Anyway, thickening of the Archean oceanic crust is a prerequisite for generation of tonalite-trondhjemite-granodiorite (TTG) gneisses composing the bulk Archean continental crust. Both tonalite granitoids and their high-pressure analogues (adakites) are observed in modern suprasubduction settings, although in much smaller amounts than the basalt-andesite-rhyolite series.

7. CONCLUSION

The boninite series and its most fractionated end-member, boninites, are not just a simple unit of the suprasubduction sequence, but also a vivid indicator

of initiation of intra-oceanic convergence zones. Being directly related to ophiolites, boninites and low-Ti basalts/picrites give direct evidence that the oceanic lithosphere stretching was related to subduction initiation. This means that the age of SSZ ophiolites or, more precisely, SIR ophiolites [Whattam, Stern, 2011] may show the age of paleo-oceans only in the first approximation. The oceanic lithosphere itself may be much older. Indeed, the modern boninites of the northern Tonga arc, the Eocene IBM boninites and ophiolites of Papua New Guinea cannot evidently correspond to timing of the Pacific or Indo-Australian plate life. Moreover, the Phanerozoic folded belts show multi-suturation signatures rather than mono-suture architecture.

The records of MOR-type ophiolites are very seldom as comparing with the large occurrences of the SIR ophiolites including the well-known sequences of Troodos, Semail, or Newfoundland [Shervais, 2001; and others]. The completely developed MOR-type includes ophiolites of 12–9 Ma age in the Macquarie Island located at the boundary between the Pacific and Australian plates, and the Neoproterozoic ophiolites of Gabal Gerf, the Arab-Nubian shield [Pearce, 2008; Whattam, Stern, 2011, and references therein]. A rarity of the MOR type in the ophiolite continuum stems well from the fact that physically it is almost impossible to emplace true MORB crust at a convergent plate boundary; rather sediments and fragments of seamounts may be scraped off of the sinking plate [Stern, 2004].

It is now recognized that SIR ophiolites are volumetrically major in the Earth's geological history (see Table 2 and [Furnes et al., 2014]). As shown above, a prerequisite for subduction initiation is a lateral compositional buoyancy contrast within the lithosphere

which would lead to its collapse and consequently to form zones of intra-oceanic plate convergence. An impingement of mantle plume into the pre-existing lithosphere appears to be the most obvious among the known mechanisms controlling the global geodynamics of the Earth. However, mantle plumes themselves do not seem to be responsible for continental crust growing, even in the case of Iceland plateau placed directly above the hot mantle plume head [Martin et al., 2008]. However recently subducted oceanic plateaus crust revealed the capability to produce a juvenile continental crust similar to Archean TTG via its partial hydrous melting [Hastie et al., 2010]. It is vital also, that high-pressure adakites are also found in association with the Tonga boninites related to the hot spot track [Falloon et al., 2008]. Furthermore, the mere fact that boninites tend to be compositionally close to the bulk composition of continental crust suggesting that the crustal growth processes began with the subduction initiation (see Fig. 3).

Thus, lacking direct influence on crustal growing at the intra-oceanic island-arc zones, mantle plume events could have acted as 'remote triggers' of these process and predetermined subsequent loci of subduction initiation zones. Such a kind of the self-organized geodynamic system of the Earth may have originated as early as Eoarchean, and its further evolution was mainly operated by the secular cooling of the planet.

8. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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