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The morphology and spectroscopy of diamonds recovered from the Prairie Creek lamproite in Arkansas, USA.

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#### **Abstract**

Diamonds are found occasionally in the United States of America. Diamonds from the Prairie Creek lamproite in Arkansas, USA occur within a north to south corridor of Neoproterozoic to mid-Cretaceous magmatism that extends across North America. These diamond bearing lamproites are unusual because they intrude adjacent to sutured and strongly thinned lithosphere rather than stable within-plate settings and the diamonds themselves provide physical evidence of processes related to diamond formation at the cratonic margin. Indeed, a review of previously published geophysical data, isotopic compositions, inclusion suites and inclusion geochemistry suggest most diamonds were formed in subducted and eclogitic rocks within a highly localized diamondiferous lithosphere beneath the cratonic margin. The morphology and spectroscopic character of 155 diamonds from the Prairie Creek lamproite suggest typical diamond formation

conditions in an otherwise thinned continental lithosphere. Most diamonds examined during this study have spectroscopic features indicating strong nitrogen aggregation, a history of thermal perturbation and plastic deformation. Nitrogen contents range up to 1882 ppm and the diamonds preserve ~ 70% aggregated nitrogen in the B aggregation state. Furthermore, inclusion elastic barometry and time averaged mantle residence temperatures suggest most Arkansas diamonds formed at  $5.2\pm0.2$  GPa and  $1205\pm63$  °C (1 $\sigma$ ). However, a subpopulation ~ 4% of relatively large and inclusion free, colourless, flattened-to-irregular habit Arkansas diamonds are Type IIa with <5 at.ppm nitrogen. Those stones size, morphology, colour and N content might warrant their inclusion in the class of Cullinan-like, Large, Inclusion-Poor, Pure, Irregular and Resorbed or "CLIPPIR" diamonds. Other diamonds examined commonly exhibit physical evidence of plastic deformation, including brown body colour and deformation lamellae.

**Keywords:** Diamonds, Prairie Creek, North American Craton, kimberlite, lamproite.

#### **Introduction**

North America hosts numerous diamond deposits (Figure 1), with the most productive being in the northern regions of Canada. Many of these diamonds are sourced directly from kimberlites whereas others come from secondary glacial till deposits (e.g. Kjarsgaard and Levinson 2002). Though not as prolific as Canadian deposits, diamond occurrences found within the United States have yielded  $\sim$  27,000 cts to-date. About 25% of those stones have been gem quality. Although most diamonds have been  $\leq 2$  ct, stones range up to 41 carats (Hausel 1994; Hausel 1998; Worthington 2007; Howard 2017; Wallace Jr 2017). Notable faceted gems include the 12.40 ct faint pinkish brownish, "M" colour grade 'Uncle Sam' diamond from Arkansas,

currently on display at the Smithsonian Institution in Washington DC. Another notable diamond is the 16.87 ct faint yellow, "L" colour grade 'Freedom' diamond from Colorado (Figure 2).

Diamonds from Arkansas are not a strong economic resource, but they drive significant tourism at the Crater of Diamonds State Park (Bassoo and Befus 2020). These diamonds are also important scientific resources, because they are ancient minerals from the mantle that are useful to infer mantle conditions and tectonic processes operating beneath the southern edge of the North American Craton. In the scientific literature, Arkansas diamonds are also known as Prairie Creek diamonds, referring to the Prairie Creek lamproite. No comprehensive studies exist that characterize the physical and spectroscopic characteristics of a large collection of Arkansas diamonds. Here, we review published isotopic and elemental compositions of these diamonds as well as their mineral inclusions. We then supplement this information with new data on the crystal morphology, infrared spectroscopy, elastic thermobarometry, optical cathodoluminescence, visible-near infrared absorption and photoluminescence spectroscopy of 155 diamonds from the Prairie Creek lamproite in Arkansas, which inform us of formation and deformation processes. We present new evidence indicating that diamonds from Arkansas formed in highly heterogeneous lithospheric mantle and subsequently underwent internal deformation. These processes may be characteristic of primary diamond occurrences along cratonic margins, as opposed to the more common kimberlite occurrences within cratons.

# **Geologic setting**

Diamonds from the USA are found in placers and in Neoproterozoic to mid-Cretaceous-aged kimberlites and lamproites. Placer diamonds occur in the USA within Eocene to recent conglomerates and glacial moraines coincident with the proposed maximum extent of the

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Laurentide glacial ice-sheet (Hobbs, 1899; Levinson et al., 1992; Hausel et al., 1994, Hausel and Bond 1994). Whereas the majority of global diamond-bearing igneous rocks typically penetrate through the thick, cold roots beneath ancient cratons, diamonds found in Arkansas lamproites occur in a distinct tectonic setting along the edge of the North American lithosphere. Recent geophysical studies indicate the lithosphere thins significantly to less than 150 km towards the south and southwest into the United States (Foster et al., 2013; Schaeffer and Lebedev 2014; Kjarsgaard et al., 2017). This is an atypical tectonic environment for diamond formation. Typically, old and thick cratons overlie Archean lithospheric roots that extend to 150 to 200 km in depth. Igneous rocks within these cratonic roots are depleted in Al, Ca, Fe, K, Th and U and are therefore relatively buoyant and cooler than the convecting mantle at similar depths (Jordan 1978; Pollack and Chapman 1977). These conditions raise the graphite to diamond phase transition to shallower depths, making the cratonic root favorable for diamond formation and storage (Stachel and Harris 2008). Outside of this narrow diamond stability field, we do not expect diamonds to form and/or reside for very long periods before turning to graphite. Consequently, diamondiferous kimberlites are typically found inside the oldest and thickest portions of cratons, where they transect the cratonic root and entrain diamonds (Smith 1983; Zurevinski et al., 2011; Stachel and Harris 2008). Kimberlites and lamproites that intrude along the margin of cratons should be devoid of diamonds because they do not transect this root zone (Kjarsgaard et al., 2022). Notable exceptions include the Buffalo Head Hills kimberlites in Canada, the Pimenta Bueno and Juína kimberlites in Brazil, and the Argyle and Ellendale lamproites in Australia (Jacques et al., 1989; Carlson et al., 1999; Bulanova et al., 2008; Luguet et al., 2009; Smit et al., 2010; Stachel et al., 2018; Jacques et al., 2018; Cabral-Neto et al., 2024). Diamondiferous lamproites in Arkansas are additional examples of primary diamondiferous

rocks which occur along craton margins. These lamproites occur above the extent of the subducting Farallon slab, within a tentative mid-Cretaceous to Neoproterozoic corridor that extends from Somerset Island in Arctic Canada through central Saskatchewan and Alberta to Prairie Creek in Arkansas (Figure 1) (Sharp 1974; Heaman et al., 2003; 2004; Currie and Beaumont 2011; Duke et al., 2014; Kjarsgaard et al. 2017).

#### **Primary diamonds from Arkansas**

In 1842 an unexpected outcrop of "peridotite rock" was reported by geologist W.B. Powell crosscutting Lower Cretaceous sedimentary units in Southwestern Arkansas near the confluence of Prairie Creek and the Little Missouri River (Miser and Ross, 1923). Diamonds were occaisionally reported in Arkansas subsequently during the late 1800s, but the discovery locations were kept secret. The 'Prairie Creek peridotite', now known to be a lamproite, was examined by geologist J.C. Branner in the late 1880s but no diamonds were found (Branner and Brackett, 1889). Diamonds were first formally discovered in 1906 at this locality when local farmer J.W. Huddleston found 2 stones, a  $\sim$ 3.0 ct white and a  $\sim$ 1.5 ct yellow, although accounts of this discovery vary (Henderson, 2002). Announcement of the discovery produced a speculative mining rush to the Prairie Creek area and led to the first scientific descriptions of Arkansas diamonds (e.g., Kunz and Washington, 1907). Decades of ensuing exploration and financially unsuccessful mining ventures at the Prairie Creek lamproite and in the surrounding area revealed additional lamproites, including the Twin Knobs #1, Twin Knobs #2, Black Lick, American and American North pipes. Each of these lamproites contain diamonds but they have not been economic to mine because of low diamond grades and sizes. The Prairie Creek lamproite had the highest diamond grade, but mining operations there, also never returned a

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profit. In 1972, the State of Arkansas purchased the land the Prairie Creek lamproite occurs within and developed the Crater of Diamonds State Park. The state park is the only place in the world where the public can prospect a primary diamond deposit. Tourist and local artisanal miners recover ~600 stones per year, but only 3.5% are larger than 1 ct. The Prairie Creek lamproite which hosts these diamonds is located tectonically positioned between the Cenozoic Gulf Coastal Plain and the Paleozoic Ouachita Mountains (Dunn, 2003). They intrude the Upper Early Cretaceous Trinity Group of sediments and are unconformably overlain by the Lower Late Cretaceous Tokio Formation. Such stratigraphic constraints are confirmed by phlogopite  $^{40}Ar^{39}Ar$  ages of 99 $\pm$ 2 Ma and 108 $\pm$ 3 Ma, which indicate Cretaceous emplacement and crystallization of the lamproite (Zartman, 1977; Gogineni et al. 1978). Furthermore, radiogenic Sr (0.7069-0.771) suggest derivation from the sub-continental lithospheric mantle (SCLM) (Alibert and Albarède 1988; Heaman 1989; Lambert et al., 1995; Duke et al., 2024).

The reported lamproites have a variety of hypabyssal to subaerially-deposited facies, including magmatic, bedded volcanic breccias and tuffs and epiclastic deposits (Scott-Smith and Skinner, 1984; Walker 1991). All units are olivine lamproite and generally preserve an assemblage of olivine (Fo92), clinopyroxene, poikilitic phlogopite, priderite, K-richterite, garnet, diamond, chromite and ilmenite. Much of the groundmass in all facies is thoroughly serpentinized. All facies contain abundant crustal xenoliths, as well as less common mantle eclogite, harzburgite, lherzolite and websterite xenoliths. Most diamonds are small (<2.0 mm); they have dodecahedral habits, but rare octahedral, tetrahexahedral and macle crystal habits are also found. The crystals can be colourless, light brown, or yellow. Diamonds frequently display fine hillocks and lowrelief surfaces indicating intense or prolonged resorption (Waldman et al., 1987; McCandless et al., 1989). Isotopically, macro-diamonds from the Prairie Creek lamproite have mean  $\delta^{13}C \sim$  -

6.5±2.8 ‰ which suggests formation from fluids derived from peridotitic rocks (McCandless et al., 1991; Cartigny 2005). Microdiamonds from Praire Creek lamproite with  $\delta^{13}$ C values of -25.2 and -26.1 ‰ may indicate diamond crystallization from websteritic or eclogitic rocks (Deines and Harris, 2004; Ickert et al., 2013; Stachel et al. 2022).

## **Materials and Methods**

Diamonds unearthed within the United States are either in inaccessible personal collections or are very expensive to acquire, even for stones with little value in the jewelry trade. Our collection of 155 diamonds from the Prairie Creek lamproite includes 7 diamonds that we found by personally mining on-site at the state park, 16 diamonds purchased from diamond dealer K. Glasser (Diamond Rough<sup>TM</sup>) and 132 lent to us for study by local Arkansas miners/collectors, including Troy Savage, Glenn Worthington, Scott Kreykes, Sam Johnson, Don Roeder, Dennis Dunn and Tom Paradise.

The morphology and optical character of the diamonds was examined using a Zeiss AXIO petrographic microscope. These petrographic observations were used to characterize crystal shape, dissolution textures and abrasion. Additional visual inspection revealed diamond colour, colour distribution and presence/absence of mineral inclusions.

Infrared absorbance (IR) of the diamonds measured at GIA was accomplished using a ThermoFisher Scientific Nicolet iN10 FTIR spectrometer. Analyses were performed across 675- 4000 cm<sup>-1</sup> in cooled transmission mode using a 200 x 200  $\mu$ m aperture size, 64 to 128 scans and a spectral resolution of  $4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . Some collectors preferred that their diamonds remain in their possession. For these 23 stones we used a transportable ThermoFisher Scientific IS5 FTIR. These analyses were performed across 675-4000 cm<sup>-1</sup> at room temperature and a spectral

resolution of  $4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . For all samples nitrogen concentrations and aggregation state were calculated from individual spectra by applying the Beer-Lambert law and absorption values of the nitrogen bands at 1365, 1284 and 1175  $cm^{-1}$ , using the least-squares fitting approach (Boyd et al., 1994; Boyd et al., 1995; Kiflawi et al., 1994; Howell et al. 2012a; 2012b). Individual total N concentration (at.ppm) vs.  $\mathcal{N}_{\rm B}$  (degree of nitrogen aggregation from A to B centers) ratios were used to calculate mean residence temperatures using the kinetics of the nitrogen A-B center aggregation reaction (e.g., Taylor et al., 1990, 1996). Infrared spectra were also used to characterize diamond optical defects following Shigley and Breeding (2013).

Optical cathodoluminescence of diamonds was observed using a Nikon LV UEPI microscope equipped with a low vacuum Reliotron III cathodoluminescence system operated at 7.5-9 kV and 0.3-0.5 amps. For each diamond the luminescence colour response, or lack thereof, was documented during cathodoluminescence. The visible-near-infrared (vis-NIR) absorption spectra of diamonds were acquired by a GIA vis-NIR system at 77 K. Photoluminescence spectra of diamonds were acquired using a Renishaw inVia Raman microscope at 100% laser power, 5-10X magnification,  $a \sim 2 \mu m$  spot size, a full-resolution grating and with 457, 514, 633 and 830 nm laser excitations. The samples were kept at ~77 K during analyses.

Raman spectra of diamond-hosted inclusions were collected at Baylor University using a ThermoFisher Scientific DXR Raman microscope equipped with a 532 nm laser operating at 8 mW, a  $\sim$  2 µm spot and a high-resolution grating (1800 lines mm<sup>-1</sup>). Petrographic inclusion identification was confirmed with Raman spectra by matching peak positions and heights of the inclusions' spectra with those in the RRUFF spectral database (e.g., Lafuente et al., 2016). The Raman spectra of diamond-hosted inclusions were also used to calculate their entrapment pressures using elastic thermobarometry following Angel et al. (2017) and the thermobarometry calculator provided by Befus and Cisneros (2020). Briefly, the shape and position of Raman spectra are a consequence of the mineral's crystal lattice environment. The positions of Raman bands, or peaks, in the spectra of a mineral are also proportional to the residual pressure preserved within the inclusion. Variations in residual pressure preserved in fully entrapped or liberated inclusions will cause a "peak shift" to higher or lower wavenumbers (e.g., Izraeli et al., 1999). Such peak shifts have been calibrated to calculate residual pressures in mantle minerals (McSkimin and Andreatch, 1972; Liu et al., 1991; Izraeli et al., 1999; Kohn, 2014). As a diamond is transported to the surface, the reduced pressure and temperature conditions cause inclusions to change volume and may impart an elastic strain against the rigid diamond. The rigid covalent bonding in diamond accounts for its extreme hardness and high incompressibility with a bulk modulus of 440 GPa at 300 K (Oganov et al., 2013). Diamond will therefore have a negligible volume change, making it a very rigid host and excellent recorder of entrapment pressures. Entrapment pressure is calculated from the measured residual pressure using an elastic model that accounts for the thermal expansivity and compressibility of diamond host and inclusion (e.g., Izraeli et al., 1999; Angel et al., 2017).

We analyzed forsterite and coesite inclusions in colourless diamond interiors, far from surface cracks. Peak shifts of entrapped inclusions were measured against the Raman spectra of the reference standard San Carlos olivine, ~Fo<sub>90</sub> (Abramson et al., 1997). We also assume that the reference peak position of synthetic coesite is  $521 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $466 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $427 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $355 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Hemley et al., 1984; Sobolev et al., 2000). We recognize a more precise residual pressure might be estimated by comparing to the measured peak position of a liberated coesite inclusion, but sample destruction was not possible for diamonds loaned for study. The resulting uncertainty in the calculated inclusion pressures has a  $1\sigma$  standard error of ~0.6 GPa, which is controlled by the

1 cm<sup>-1</sup> resolution of the Raman spectrometer. We acknowledge that diamond hosts may also have been plastically deformed, which can manifest as homogenous or banded pink-to-brown body colours and/or deformation "strain" lamellae. However, we did not acquire inclusion spectra from diamonds that exhibit these deformation traits, from locations near fractures, or close to the edge of the diamond surface. The selected inclusions were cubo-octahedral in shape. (e.g., Eaton-Magaña et al., 2018).

## **Results**

#### *Morphology and inclusions*

Prairie Creek lamproite diamonds from Arkansas used in this study range in mass from ≤0.1 to 8.66 cts (mean 0.45±1.1 cts). Collectively, these diamonds were of colourless (59%), brown (30%), or yellow (11%) body colours (Figure 3). Many of these diamonds are fragments and their original morphology is unknown (30%). The remaining are dodecahedral to flattened dodecahedral (61%), combination (10%) and octahedral (3%) habits (Table 1). Approximately 20% of all diamonds preserve deformation lamellae which penetrate the crystal. A subset of 4% of diamonds from Arkansas are colourless, strongly resorbed, relatively larger and irregular to flattened in habit. Hillocks and terraces on crystal surfaces are common (Figure 4). Other dissolution features include flat-bottomed dissolution pits such as trigons and trapezoids, which account for 21% of diamonds examined. Diamonds from Arkansas also preserve flat-bottomed hexagon dissolution pits accounting for 5% of the population. Point bottom dissolution features were observed in one diamond. A quarter of the diamonds have frosted surfaces with corrosion sculptures or have visible microdisc swarms (9%). Diamonds from Arkansas have large cavities and minor edge abrasion (24%). Mineral inclusions were identified with Raman spectra.

Inclusions occur in 7% of Arkansas diamonds and are in order of decreasing abundance; diopside, rutile, magnetite, forsterite and coesite. Epigenetic graphite and grey to black with metallic luster sulfide inclusions also occur. However, no silicate inclusions were observed in the colourless, strongly resorbed, relatively larger and irregular to flattened in habit sub population of diamonds.

## *Cathodoluminescence*

We applied optical cathodoluminescence to a group of 87 Arkansas diamonds. These diamonds cathodoluminesce green-blue, green and blue (53%, 24% and 15%, respectively). The remaining 8% of Arkansas diamonds are inert (Figure 5).

# *Photoluminescence and Visible-Near Infrared Absorption*

Photoluminescence (PL) spectral peak positions of diamonds are associated with nitrogen content and aggregation state as well as various atomic-level structural defects, including interstitial carbon atoms, carbon vacancies, nitrogen impurities, nickel impurities, radiation damage and plastic deformation (Figure 6, Table 2). Complex nitrogen defects are pervasive in the photoluminescence spectra of all diamonds which are dominated by H4 (four substitutional nitrogen atoms surrounding two vacancies) and H3 (two substitutional nitrogen atoms separated by a vacancy) defects. Most diamonds have H3, NV (nitrogen-vacancy defect with negative charge) and  $NV^0$  (nitrogen-vacancy with neutral charge state) defects. Nickel-related defects occur in almost half the diamond population. No more than 40% of diamonds preserve defects commonly associated with exposure to natural sources of radiation, with 38% having detectable GR1 740.9 and 744.4 nm (vacancy with neutral charge state) and 23% having 488.9 nm

(carbon/nitrogen-related interstitial) defects. More than 45% of diamonds have PL peaks related to defects caused by plastic deformation, including peaks at 490.7 nm and 576 nm. About 14% of Arkansas diamonds have Cape spectrum features and these stones never have detectable H3 defects (Table 3). More than 70% of Arkansas diamonds have featureless visible spectra (Figure 6). Only two Arkansas diamonds have a 550 nm absorption band.

## *Infrared spectroscopy*

The nitrogen concentration in diamonds from Arkansas ranges between trace  $\ll$  5 at.ppm  $\sim$ nominally Type IIa) and 1882 at.ppm, with a mean of 344 at.ppm (Table 1). As a whole, approximately 53% of the diamonds are Type IaAB with fewer Type IaA (20%), Type IaB stones (12%) and Type Ib stones (2%). Type IIa diamonds account for 12% of the diamond population. Of these Type IIa diamonds,  $4\%$  ( $n = 6$ ) are larger ( $>0.7$  cts), colourless, strongly resorbed and irregular. Infrared spectroscopy can be used to calculate the proportion of nitrogen A centers  $(N_A,$  pairs of substitutional nitrogen) relative to more aggregated or complex nitrogen B centers  $(N_B,$  four substitutional nitrogen surrounding a vacancy), using the absorption coefficients of N<sub>A</sub> and N<sub>B</sub> centers at 1282 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1175 cm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Arkansas diamonds have a wide range of nitrogen aggregation states from weakly to strongly aggregated. The majority of the studied diamonds have  $>50\%$  N<sub>B</sub> (Figure 7A).

More than 85% of Arkansas diamonds have a hydrogen-nitrogen-vacancy defect center absorption at  $3107 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (e.g., N3VH; Goss et al., 2014). The integrated absorbance at that wavenumber ranges from below detection (<0.05 cm<sup>-2</sup>) to 13.9 cm<sup>-2</sup> with a mean of  $1.0\pm2.0$  cm<sup>-2</sup> (Table 1). When plotted against N<sub>B</sub> concentrations our diamonds have integrated 3107 cm<sup>-1</sup> peak areas much lower than the proposed "upper limit" of  $3107 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  areas (Figure 7B), which

correspond to the number of infrared-active N3VH centers (three substitutional nitrogen atoms surrounding a vacancy and a hydrogen atom). These defects are created as a by-product during  $N_A$  to  $N_B$  aggregation (Melton 2013).

The nitrogen aggregation state of diamonds can be used to calculate the temperature of the ambient mantle during diamond residence. Nitrogen A centers convert or aggregate to more complex B centers by diffusion over geologic time and at elevated temperature (e.g., Taylor et al., 1990, 1996). We determined mean diamond residence temperatures of  $1205\pm63$  °C and a range from  $1124 - 1321$  °C assuming a mean formation age of 1.4 Ga between 1.6 Ga and 1.2 Ga or analogous to the inferred age of the SCLM of the Yavapai-Mazatzal terrane (Alibert and Albarède 1989, Lambert et al., 1995; Duke et al., 2014), and therefore a calculated residence time of 1.3 Ga. Varying the formation age between 1.6 Ga and 1.2 Ga varies the residence temperature by 1-3% (e.g. Channer 2001; Bassoo et al., 2021).

Many diamonds plot along isotherms  $\sim$ 1145 – 1190 °C (Figure 8) which is expected of cratonic diamonds (Stachel and Harris 2009). However, a sub-population of diamonds plot along warmer isotherms ~1215 – 1245 °C. Arkansas diamonds also have a small population of strongly aggregated IaB diamonds which indicate minimum residence temperatures of  $\sim 1320 \pm 0.4$  °C, assuming 99%  $N_B$  aggregation (Figure 8).

#### *Elastic thermobarometry*

Previous studies of olivine and coesite inclusions in diamond indicate preserved residual pressures that range from ~2.8 to ~0.9 GPa respectively at room temperature. These residual pressures indicate inclusion entrapment pressures at depth from ~ 4.4 to 5.7 GPa at cratonic mantle temperatures (Izraeli et al., 1999; Sobolev et al., 2000; Bassoo et al., 2021b). Combined Raman spectroscopic analyses and diamond residence temperatures of forsterite and coesite inclusions in Arkansas diamond inclusions record residual pressures from ~ -0.22 to 2.61 GPa. The single coesite inclusion records both negative and positive residual pressures indicating both tension and compression within it. We therefore assume anisotropy of coesite and do not extrapolate entrapment pressures. Forsterite inclusions indicate entrapment at 5.21±0.21 GPa and 1163±58 °C (Table 4). Such pressures and residence temperatures plot best along paleogeotherms between 40 and 43 mW/m<sup>2</sup> (Figure 9).

## **Discussion**

## *Tectonic setting*

The "North American Craton" is a complex assemblage of Archean terranes sutured together by Proterozoic orogens (Hoffman 1988). Arkansas lamproites erupted through cratonic rocks of the 1.55 to 1.35 Ga Granite-Rhyolite Province, just to the south of the Mazatzal Province and north of the Grenville orogen (Figure 1) (Griffin et al., 2011). Diamond formation and storage within the subcontinental lithospheric mantle (SCLM) of the Yavapai-Mazatzal terrane seems unlikely because it generally does not exceed 150 km thickness. There are however, local seismic anomalies which may approach 200 km in depth today (Schaeffer and Lebedev 2014). Indeed, the Praire Creek lamproite at the time of eruption was likely underlain by a thick lithosphere which was at most 190 km. This is postulated to be the result of tectonic stacking of subcontinental lithospheric mantle rocks during terrane accretion and stabilization between 1.80 and 0.95 billion years ago beneath the southern edge of the Yavapai-Mazatzal terrane that has since thinned to its current depth (Griffin et al., 2004; Dunn, 2004; Whitmeyer and Karlstrom 2007).

Primary diamond occurrences along cratonic margins are rare but can be prospective to plastically deformed and fancy coloured pink, brown and violet diamonds, as is the case for the Ellendale and Argyle mine in northwestern Australia and the Bunder lamproite field in India (Hall and Smith, 1985; Jacques et al., 1989; Bulanova et al., 2008; Luguet et al., 2009; Gaillou et al., 2010; Smit et al., 2010; Eaton-Magaña et al., 2018; Smith et al. 2018; Stachel et al., 2018). Cratonic margins coincident with subducting slabs may create an environment favorable for plastic deformation of diamond and thus lead to the occurrence of diamonds with brown to pink colours. The transition between relatively thick and thinned lithosphere is conducive to the formation of edge-driven convection cells, generated by subducting and descending oceanic slabs (Elder 1976; King and Anderson 1998; Usui et al., 2003; Kjarsgaard et al., 2017). This dynamic tectonic environment in a highly viscous upper mantle could be the mechanism that deforms diamonds along the southern margin of the North American Craton. In some cases, upward migration of kimberlite and lamproite melts might also be facilitated by the leading edge of a subducting slab in an edge driven convection cell to then entrain diamonds from the lithosphere during their ascent to the surface (e.g. Barron et al., 1996; Griffin et al., 1998; Stachel et al., 2018). Indeed, Arkansas lamproites have emplacement ages which coincide with the Mesozoic subduction of the Farallon slab (Liu et al., 2008). However, it should be noted that diamondiferous rock associations with subduction may be entirely coincidental. We document physical and spectroscopic characteristics of Arkansas diamonds which may have formed in such mantle conditions and highlight a previously undescribed subpopulation of Arkansas diamonds which share traits in common with the CLIPPIR suite of diamonds.

#### *Literataure review of Arkansas diamond-hosted inclusion compositions*

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Mineral inclusions within diamonds have compositions that reflect their mantle sources. We review previously published results in the context of our new analysis to better constrain diamond formation beneath the southern edge of the North American craton (Table 5). Inclusions suites from primary diamonds from Arkansas are predominantly eclogitic, including metallic sulphides with a minor proportion of peridotitic diamonds (Newton et al., 1977; Pantaleo et al., 1979; McCandless et al., 1991). Geochemical data for the inclusions is limited to single data points (Table 5). One low-Cr clinopyroxene inclusion in an Arkansas diamond had an Mg# of 87, which was lower than that expected for clinopyroxene derived from lherzolite and harzburgite (Newton et al. 1997). This inclusion also has relatively elevated concentrations of elements that are typically incompatible in mantle peridotite, including Na, K and Ti, when compared to global occurrences (Table A1). The presence of clinopyroxene, magnetite, psuedobrookite, magnetite inclusions and the sole clinopyroxene composition suggest an eclogitic paragenesis. Additionally, coesite and rutile cannot form in equilibrium with olivine in peridotitic mantle. Their presence as inclusions in Arkansas diamonds support the presence of subducted, metamorphosed and silica-oversaturated meta-basalts within the diamondiferous mantle beneath Arkansas (Schulze et al., 2013). The single olivine inclusion analyzed was low in Ca and preserved a Mg# of 93, placing it within the range expected for peridotitic rocks worldwide (McCandless et al., 1991; Stachel et al., 2022a). Additionally, only four olivine inclusions are recognized in three Arkansas diamonds thereby providing evidence for peridotite as a minor diamond host.

Isotopically,  $\delta^{13}$ C values for diamonds from Arkansas have a mean  $\delta^{13}$ C ~ -6±5 ‰ and is within the range expected of both eclogitic and peridotitic diamond  $\delta^{13}$ C values (Figure 10) (Stachel et al., 2022). Two diamonds with strongly depleted  $\delta^{13}C < -21\%$  plot away from mantle

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values. Previous modeling suggests values <-14 ‰ cannot be achieved by Rayleigh fractionation and are more likely related to recycled oceanic crust (Smart et al., 2011; Lai et al., 2022; Stachel et al., 2022b). Diamond composition, inclusion suites and geochemistry suggest subductioninfluenced formation from eclogitic and possibly oceanic protoliths mixed with peridotitic rocks beneath the cratonic margin.

## *Formation and residence*

Dodecahedral habits and common hillocks are physical features that indicate Arkansas diamonds experienced significant mantle and melt resorption. Most diamonds have flat bottomed dissolution, microdisc and corrosion sculpture textures which collectively indicate most diamonds were exposed to melts with a relatively high  $H_2O$  to  $CO_2$  ratio (Tappert and Tappert, 2011; Fedortchouk, 2015). Hexagonal dissolution pits observed on one Arkansas diamond suggest at least some diamonds were also exposed to fluid compositions with  $CO_2/(CO_2+H_2O)$ >0.9 during their ascent to the crust (Fedortchouk, 2019). About 30% of Arkansas diamonds preserve deformation lamellae and brown body colours, indicating they experienced plastic deformation in the mantle (Orlov 1977; Robinson et al., 1979; McCallum et al., 1991; Gaillou et al., 2010).

#### *Paleo-thermobarometry of Diamond Formation*

The diamonds examined in this study are from precious personal collections and we were not permitted to extract inclusions for study. Raman and infrared spectroscopy therefore offer alternative, non-destructive ways to calculate entrapment conditions where coexisting mineral pairs and assumptions of thermodynamic equilibrium are unavailable (e.g. Izraeli et al., 1999;

Angel et al., 2019, Stachel et al., 2022a). Forsterite and coesite inclusions in Arkansas diamonds record entrapment pressures  $\sim$  5 GPa. Nitrogen aggregation suggests residence temperatures ranging from 1100 to 1220 °C. Pressure-temperature conditions estimated from inclusions in diamonds from Arkansas indicate typical formation conditions expected of cratonic diamonds globally (Stachel and Harris 2008). This is unexpected because independent geophysical studies corroborate formation within the craton margin and relatively shallow tectonic environments suggesting general thermal regimes unfavorable for diamond stability within the graphite field (Figure 8) (Foster et al., 2013; Schaeffer and Lebedev 2014; Kjarsgaard et al., 2017). However, pressure estimates ≥4.6 GPa from garnet lherzolite mantle xenoliths and garnet xenocrysts suggest the lithosphere beneath Arkansas may have been at most 190 km and possibly more laterally extensive, at the time of eruption of the Prairie Creek lamproite. (Dunn 2002, Griffin et al., 2004; Dunn 2004). Additionally, the timing of eruption is coincident with the subduction of the Farallon slab during the Mesozoic (Alibert and Albarède 1988; Heaman 1989; Lambert et al., 1995; Dunn 2002; Liu et al., 2008; Duke 2014). Subduction, therefore, may have played a role in subsequent thinning of the lithosphere beneath Arkansas to its current observable depth and lateral distribution. Hydrous partial melting during subduction could weaken the base of cratonic roots creating favorable conditions for delamination and lithospheric thinning (e.g., Liu et al., 2018; Shi et al., 2021). This is similarly observed at Argyle, Australia where diamonds are thought to form in a subduction-related tectonic regime (Figure 8) (Jaques et al., 2018; Timmerman et al., 2019).

## *Preservation of defects and diamond deformation*

Photoluminescence, infrared and visible spectroscopy can be used to reveal diamond defects

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related to formation conditions and subsequent tectonic activity, including deformation. Diamond is composed of carbon but intrinsic and extrinsic impurities can form during diamond growth, mantle residence, entrainment into ultramafic magmas and during lower-temperature residence in the crust. Impurity and vacancy related defects specifically inform us of diamond formation and residence.

Diamonds from Arkansas record spectroscopic evidence of Ni impurities. These impurities may have been incorporated during Ni-rich metasomatism of lithospheric mantle (Giuliani et al., 2013). Arkansas diamonds are nominally colourless, but <10% have a yellow colour caused by the presence of nitrogen (Shigley and Breeding, 2013). More than 25% of diamonds have complex nitrogen defects, and more than 50% of diamonds have >200 at.ppm N. They also tend to be more strongly aggregated in nitrogen than those at Argyle, which are also known to be derived from the craton margin (Figure 7A) (Bulanova et al., 2018). Indeed, based on nitrogen aggregation, a subpopulation of Arkansas diamonds record minimum residence temperatures  $\sim$ 1320 °C, indicating residence at very high temperatures for millions or billions of years, such as those that prevail in the base of the lithospheric mantle or uppermost asthenospheric mantle (Leahy and Taylor, 1997). In addition, most diamonds from Arkansas have a narrow range of N3VH peak area per  $N_B$  aggregation which is lower than that expected of diamonds from within craton settings, such as those analyzed from the Slave and Superior cratons, and is lower than Argyle (Figure 7B). Arkansas diamonds did not experience the maximum N3VH center creation as a consequence of A to B center aggregation (Melton 2013; Stachel et al., 2018; Bulanova et al., 2018). Diamonds from Arkansas instead indicate a lower concentration of available infraredactive hydrogen to accommodate N3 center creation (Melton 2013). These observations may suggest  $N_A$  to  $N_B$  aggregation is more efficient than the production of N3VH defects, which

might be caused by enhanced diffusion of nitrogen in diamond during plastic deformation and/or exposure to high thermal changes (Wood 1986; Evans 1992; Evans et al., 1995). Indeed, Arkansas diamonds preserve moderate incidences of plastic deformation related defects and a subpopulation of IaB diamonds which likely experienced exposure to high thermal perturbations (Evans et al., 1995).

About 30% of diamonds from Arkansas are brown with deformation lamellae and more than 45% have spectral features indicating that they experienced plastic deformation (Table 1; Table 2). Brown and pink colour in diamonds can manifest as a more uniform body colour or be concentrated within parallel narrow bands termed deformation lamellae. Brown colouration in diamond is related to vacancy clusters along the {111} plane and are interpreted to have formed by plastic deformation (Hounsome et al., 2006; Fisher et al., 2009; Gaillou et al., 2010; Eaton-Magaña et al., 2018). Applied stress altered the atomic structure of the diamond and created vacancies (Gaillou et al., 2010). Diamond defects responsible for brown body colours were likely acquired during their long residence up to 1 billion years and within the shallow lithospheric mantle at ~100 km (Collins 1982; Drury and Fitzgerald 1998; Collins et al., 2000; Gaillou 2010; Smith et al., 2010; Shirey and Shigley 2013). Furthermore, a population of 4% of Arkansas diamonds are relatively large  $(>0.7 \text{ cts.})$ , inclusion poor, Type IIa with  $<$  5 at.ppm N, irregular to flattened in habit, strongly resorbed and colourless. Similarly non-faceted, large, colourless and irregular diamonds historically have been recovered from the Prairie Creek lamproite including the ~40 carat Uncle Sam and the ~15 carat Star of Arkansas (Leiper 1957). The relatively large size, strongly resorbed and irregular morphology, absence of colour and very low nitrogen content are traits shared by so-called CLIPPIR diamonds, which are inferred to be derived from sub-lithospheric depths and possibly as deeply as the transition zone or uppermost lower mantle

(Smith et al., 2016). Globally, CLIPPIR diamonds are rare, and comprise a small percentage of diamond populations. Of diamonds submitted to GIA for example, inclusion bearing CLIPPIR diamonds comprise 0.0001%. Examples of CLIPPIR diamonds have been recovered from the Premier and Letseng kimberlites, and potentially also the Argyle lamproite (Smith et al., 2016; Pay 2017; Smith et al., 2017; Stachel et al., 2018; Shirey et al., 2024).

 $\bullet$ 

#### **Conclusions**

Arkansas has moderate incidences of plastically deformed and potentially sub-lithospheric diamonds exposed to high temperature perturbations. Subduction processes may cause plastic deformation of a diamond entrained in a highly viscous and dynamic upper mantle. In this way subduction-driven tectonic settings may be more favorable for plastically deformed pink to brown diamonds along the margin of cratons. This has been similarly suggested for the Argyle mine, where diamonds might have originated from and deformed within the lithosphereasthenosphere boundary (Stachel et al., 2018).

The Yavapai-Mazatzal terrane has isolated "pockets" of diamondiferous lithosphere and cratonic roots may have been more laterally extensive and extended to 190 km depth in the past (Griffin et al., 2004; Dunn 2004; Whitmeyer and Karlstrom 2007). A review of geochemical and geophysical data suggests that subsequent thinning of the lithosphere has left behind highly localized zones of mantle heterogeneity, depleted lithosphere and relatively thick mantle roots but within surrounding thinned lithosphere along the Southern margin of what constitutes the North American craton.

Arkansas has a sub-population of diamonds which are relatively large, largely inclusion free, strongly resorbed and Type IIa. These morphological and spectroscopic traits are shared with

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sub-lithospheric CLIPPIR diamonds. Future studies to identify inclusion species and compositions within these diamonds could confirm CLIPPIR diamond occurrences in Arkansas.

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# **List of Figures**

Figure 1. Kimberlite, lamproite and reported diamond occurrences in North America overlain with the maximum extent of the Laurentide ice-sheet, the Yavapai-Mazatzal terrane, Archean terranes and the eastern edge of the subducting Farallon slab at 100 and 90 Myr ago (Hoffman, 1988; Hausel 1998; Krajick 2011; Kjarsgaard et al., 2017; Czas 2018). Most diamond occurrences in the USA appear to be spatially coincident with the extent of the Laurentide ice sheet during the last glacial maximum (Pielou 1991; Dalton et al., 2022).



Figure 2. Famous diamonds found in the USA include the A) 16.87 ct. Colorado "Freedom", B) 4.25 ct. Arkansas "Kahn Canary" set within a design by Henry Dunay and famously worn by Hillary Clinton, C) 12.40 ct. Arkansas "Uncle Sam" and D) a suite of six diamonds mined from the Prairie Creek lamproite by one of the most prolific local Arkansas diamond miners, James Archer and set within a brooch commissioned by Sue John Anthony. Photo credits to Smithsonian National Museum of Natural History for photographs of the Colorado Freedom and Uncle Sam, Glenn Worthington for the Kahn Canary and Nathan Renfro for the Sue John Anthony jewelry piece.





Figure 3. Selected diamonds from A) the Prairie Creek lamproite, Arkansas, including B) large colourless Type IIa varieties.





Figure 4. Surface textures and inclusions typical of diamonds from Arkansas.



Figure 5. Cathodoluminescence colours and proportions observed in a subset of 87 Arkansas diamonds.







Figure 7A)  $N_A$  versus  $N_B$  concentration obtained by calculation from infrared absorption spectra. Most diamonds examined for this study preserve more B aggregation and thus plot above the

A=B aggregation line. 7B) Integrated area of absorbance at 3107 cm<sup>-1</sup> versus N<sub>B</sub> concentration. Note most diamonds from the USA always plots below the expected upper limit for a given  $N_B$ concentration of diamonds from a global database (thin line) (e.g. Melton 2013; Stachel et al., 2018). Diamond aggregation state could indicate exposure to elevated mantle temperatures.



Figure 8. Total nitrogen (at.ppm) versus  $%N_B$  with model isotherms calculated from the aggregation of diamond A aggregates to B aggregates and an assumed age of formation of 1.4

Ga (assuming a mean formation age of 1.4 Ga between 1.6 Ga and 1.2 Ga or analogous to the inferred age of the SCLM of the Yavapai-Mazatzal terrane (Alibert and Albarède 1989, Lambert et al., 1995; Duke et al., 2014) and an eruption age of 110 Ma. White diamond symbols represent IaB diamonds (100% B aggregation) and assume 99% B aggregation, which plot along a minimum ~1290 °C isotherm (Naeser and McCallum 1977; Zartman 1977, Gogineni et al., 1978; Westerlund et al., 2006).



Figure 9. Elastic thermobarometry of forsterite and coesite entrapment conditions in Arkansas diamonds and previous thermobarometric estimates of diamond inclusions and Cr-diopside

mantle xenocrysts from Argyle, Australia (Jaques et al., 1989; Jaques et al., 1994; Stachel et al., 2018; Jaques et al., 2018; Sudholz et al., 2023) and garnet lherzolite and websterite xenoliths from Prairie Creek, USA (Dunn 2002). Also included are estimated paleo-geotherms of the Slave (Kopylova et al., 1999) and Siberian Craton (Dymshits et al., 2020), using the parameters of Hasterok and Chapman (2011).  $1\sigma$  standard error of ~0.6 GPa. Graphite to diamond transition line modified from Day (2012). Adiabat based on mantle potential temperatures of 1300-1400°C



Figure 10.  $\delta^{13}$ C compositions of diamonds from the Arkansas compared to those from Argyle (Stachel et al., 2022 and references therein). Peridotite and eclogite ranges adapted from



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Table 1. Summary of physical, infrared, and luminescence characteristics of Arkansas diamonds

- Sample	Locat 10 <sub>n</sub>	Habit	Colo	Tv pe	1 Y A $\mathbf{r}$ (pr m)	$N_B$ (pp m	$\ddot{\phantom{1}}$ Nc (pp m	total (ppm)	0/ 7 U $N_B$	0/ $N_c$ -4	3107 cm peak area (cm	Resid ence m $\sim$ $\sim$	~ ◡◡ response color	Inclusions
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Nitrogen concentration was calculated from individual spectra by applying the Beer-Lambert law and absorption values of nitrogen bands at 1365, 1284, and 1175 cm<sup>-1</sup>, using the least-squares fitting approach combined with °C, and a mean assumed formation age of 1.4 between 1.6 and 1.4 Ga or the inferred age of Yavapai-Mazatzal terrane (Alibert and Albarede 1989, Lambert et al., 2014), and therefore residence time of 1.3 Ga.. Italized rows r residence temperatures assuming a 99% B aggregation state. Inclusions were identified by comparing Raman spectra with known representatives in the Ruff Database (LaFuente et al.,2016) and supplemented with morphology, color, texture, and other optical properties

Peak position (nm)	% of diamonds	Defect	<b>Defect Species</b>	Impurity/Cause	
415.2	14%	$N_3V$	Cape	Nitrogen <sup>1</sup>	
503.2	0%	$(NVN)^{0}$	H <sub>3</sub>	Nitrogen <sup>2</sup>	
550	6%	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$	550 nm band	Plastic deformation <sup>1,3</sup>	
741	0%	$V^0$	GR1	Radiation <sup>4</sup>	
835	0%		H-band	Hydrogen $^{1,5}$	
	72%		Featureless		

Table 2. Percentage of Arkansas diamonds with select vis-NIR emission features

N - Nitrogen, C - Carbon, V $^0$  - neutral vacancy,  $^1$ Zaitsev, 2010 and references therein,  $^2$ Sobolev and Lisoivan, 1971,  $^3$ Bokii et al., 1986, <sup>4</sup>Shigley and Breeding, 2013, <sup>5</sup>Breeding et al., 2018

Table 3. Summary of residual pressures of forsterite, coesite, and diopside inclusions in Arkansas diamonds

Sample	Location	Minera	Lengt h $(\mu m)$	Widt h $(\mu m)$	Entrapp ed peaks $\rm (cm^{-1})^1$	Residu al $P$ $(GPa)^2$	Mean Mantle residenc e T $({}^0C)^3$	Entrapmen t P(GPa)
ARM4_incl		forsteri						
01	Arkansas	te	8	5	855.17	0.26	1205	5.00
ARM5_incl		forsteri						
01	Arkansas	te	20	20	856.33	0.64	1320	5.42
					528.58	2.61		
$20$ incl $01$	Arkansas	coesite	50	50	467.70	2.58	1152	
					426.90	$-0.22$		
					354.25	$-0.17$		

<sup>1</sup>relative to 854.36 cm<sup>-1</sup> of San Carlos olivine Fo<sub>90</sub> (Abramson et al., 1997) for forsterite, relative to 521 cm<sup>-1</sup> of synthetic coesite (Sobolev et al., 2000), <sup>2</sup>Assuming a 3.09 cm<sup>-1</sup> per GPa (Wang et al., 1993) for forserite and 2.9 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 0.66 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 0.45 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 0.44 cm<sup>-1</sup> per GPa for the Raman bands 521 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 466 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 427 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 355 cm<sup>-1</sup> respectively (Hemley et al., 1984; Sobolev et al., 2000) for coesite,  ${}^{3}2\sigma = 62 \text{ °C}$ , assuming an eruption age of 102 Ma (Zartman, 1977, Gogineni et al., 1978), and a mean assumed formation age of 1.4 between 1.6 and 1.4 Ga or the inferred age of Yavapai-Mazatzal terrane (Alibert and Albarede 1989, Lambert et al., 1995; Duke et al., 2014), and therefore residence time of 1.3 Ga. Nitrogen concentration was calculated from individual spectra by applying the Beer-Lambert law and absorption values of nitrogen bands at 1365, 1284, and 1175 cm<sup>-1</sup>, using the least-squares fitting approach combined with a basic linear correction in the DiaMap excel spreadsheet (e.g., Howell et al., 2012a, 2012b).

Oxide $(wt.\%)$	E type cinopyroxene <sup>1</sup>	P type $\frac{1}{2}$ clinopyroxene <sup>1</sup>	Arkansas clinopyroxene <sup>3</sup>				
Na <sub>2</sub> O	$4.62 \pm 1.89$	$1.32 \pm 1.20$	2.85				
$K_2O$	$0.29 \pm 0.29$	$0.18 \pm 0.23$	0.15				
TiO <sub>2</sub>	$0.45 \pm 0.21$	$0.14 \pm 0.26$	0.31				
$Na/(Na+Ca)^3$	$0.38 \pm 0.14$	$0.11 \pm 0.09$	0.27				
<sup>1</sup> Stachel et al 2022 and references therein, <sup>2</sup> Newton et al., 1977, <sup>3</sup> Clarke and Papike							

Table A1. Incompatible elements in an Arkansas clinopyroxene compared to global sources

1968