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Effect of deformation on helium storage and diffusion in polycrystalline forsterite

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1 Abstract

2 Although recent studies have investigated He behavior in undeformed mantle minerals, the effect of defects generated by plastic deformation on He storage and transport remains 3 4 unconstrained. For this purpose, synthetic dense aggregates of fine-grained iron-free forsterite 5 were deformed under 300 MPa confining pressure at 950, 1050, and 1200 °C using a Paterson 6 press. Three deformed samples and one undeformed sample were then doped with He under 7 static high-pressure (1.00 \pm 0.02 GPa) and high-temperature (1120 \pm 20 °C) conditions for 24 8 h in a piston cylinder. Uraninite was used as a source of noble gases. The samples were 9 subsequently analyzed using a cycled step heating protocol coupled with noble gas mass 10 spectrometry to investigate He storage and diffusion in the deformed polycrystalline forsterite 11 aggregates. Results show complex diffusive behaviors that cannot be fitted by a single linear regression. Nevertheless, individual step heating cycles can be fitted by several linear 12 13 regressions determined by a F-test, suggesting that diffusivities follow Arrhenius law within 14 the given temperature ranges. Our results highlight the complex diffusive behavior of He in 15 deformed forsterite aggregates, which is due to the competition between several diffusion 16 mechanisms related to different He storage sites (Mg vacancies, interstitial sites, dislocations, and grain boundaries). Diffusion parameters (activation energy E_a and pre-exponential factor 17 D_0) for He diffusion in grain boundaries were refined from literature data ($E_a = 36 \pm 9 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^-$ 18 ¹ and $D_0 = 10^{-10.57 \pm 0.58} \text{ m}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$), and those of He diffusion in interstitials ($E_a = 89 \pm 7 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ 19 and $D_0 = 10^{-8.95 \pm 1.16} \text{ m}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ and Mg vacancies ($E_a = 173 \pm 14 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ and $D_0 = 10^{-5.07 \pm 1.25}$ 20 $m^2 \cdot s^{-1}$) were defined from our results and literature data. Furthermore, we determined $E_a = 56$ 21 $\pm 1 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ and $D_0 = 10^{-9.97 \pm 0.37} \text{ m}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ for He diffusion along dislocations. These results 22 23 suggest that a maximum He fraction of only 1.2% can be stored along dislocations in mantle 24 minerals, which is negligible compared to 22% in grain boundaries as reported by previous 25 studies. This implies that bulk lattice diffusivities are barely affected by the presence of

dislocations, whereas the proportion of He stored in grain boundaries can significantly 26 27 enhance the bulk diffusivities of mantle rocks. Thus, deformation processes can significantly 28 increase He storage capacity by decreasing grain size (i.e., via dynamic recrystallization), but 29 will not sufficiently increase the dislocation density to induce a change in He storage and 30 mobility within the crystallographic lattice. Furthermore, rapid redistribution of He between 31 the mineral lattice and grain boundaries could enhance the bulk He concentrations of 32 deformed peridotites upon equilibration with nearby undeformed (or less-deformed) 33 peridotites.

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35 Keywords: helium, diffusion, storage, deformation, dislocation, forsterite

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37 1. Introduction

38 The behavior of noble gases in the Earth's mantle provides important information and 39 essential time constraints on chemical and isotopic mantle heterogeneities. Indeed, noble 40 gases have both primordial and radiogenic isotopes and behave as both incompatible and 41 volatile elements. Although they are not expected to be easily recycled during subduction 42 processes (Moreira and Raquin, 2007; Staudacher and Allègre, 1988), several studies have 43 reported evidences for noble gas recycling in the mantle (e.g., Holland and Ballentine, 2006; 44 Parai and Mukhodopahdvay, 2015; Kendrick et al., 2018; Smye et al., 2017). Nevertheless, 45 differences in noble gas concentrations and isotopic ratios are still observed between mid-46 oceanic ridge basalts (MORBs) and ocean island basalts (OIBs), reflecting their different 47 mantle sources (see Moreira, 2013, for a review). Helium (He) is a reliable tracer of mantle 48 heterogeneities since its concentration is higher in MORBs than in OIBs (e.g., Moreira and Kurz, 2013), and the ³He/⁴He ratio (*R*) normalized to the atmospheric ³He/⁴He ratio (*Ra*) is 49 homogeneous in MORBs (i.e., R/Ra = 7-9; e.g., Barfod et al., 1999), but varies from 4 (e.g., 50

Farley et al., 1991; Moreira et al., 1999) up to almost 50 in OIBs (e.g., Hilton et al., 1997; Hiyagon et al., 1992; Honda et al., 1993; Kaneoka et al., 1983; Kurz et al., 1982, 1983; Rison and Craig, 1983; Starkey et al., 2009; Stuart et al., 2003; Valbracht et al., 1997). This dichotomy between MORBs and OIBs highlights the presence of at least two different sources in the Earth's mantle: (i) a primitive, less degassed source with low $U/{}^{3}$ He and high *R/Ra* ratios as the source of OIBs, and (ii) a more degassed source with higher $U/{}^{3}$ He as the source of MORBs (e.g., Moreira and Kurz, 2013).

58 Although macroscopic models have been developed to explain the existence of these 59 reservoirs by isolating the OIB source from mantle convection (Allègre, 1987; Bouhifd et al., 60 2013; Coltice et al., 2011; Labrosse et al., 2007; Porcelli and Halliday, 2001), the fundamental 61 physical behavior of He in mantle minerals (e.g., storage sites, diffusion mechanisms) 62 remained poorly understood despite recent improvements. Helium can be stored in various 63 atomic defects within the crystal structure, such as 0-dimension defects (i.e., Mg vacancies and interstitial sites in olivine; Delon et al., 2018), 1-dimension defects (dislocations), 2-64 65 dimensions defects (i.e., interfaces and grain boundaries; Baxter et al., 2007; Burnard et al., 66 2015; Delon et al., 2018), and 3-dimensions defects (i.e., inclusions; Trull and Kurz, 1993). 67 The storage of He in multiple sites induces a complex diffusive behavior due to the 68 competition between different diffusion mechanisms related to each storage site. This 69 complex diffusive behavior is shown schematically in Figure 1 by considering site-specific 70 diffusion rates depending on the relative degree of disorder of the crystalline structure in each 71 site (i.e., faster diffusion in more disordered sites). Regarding 1-dimension defects, Piazolo et 72 al. (2016) showed using atom probe tomography that incompatible elements are preferentially 73 stored along dislocations in zircon. Nevertheless, their transport along dislocations remains 74 poorly constrained.

75 storage and transport in deformed minerals has been investigated in Ar thermochronological studies, which showed that bulk diffusivities increase with deformation, 76 77 thus decreasing Ar retention and producing younger Ar-Ar ages (Dunlap and Kronenberg, 2001; Heizler et al., 1997; Kramar et al., 2001; Mulch et al., 2002; Reddy et al., 1996, 1999, 78 79 2001). Recent studies have reported abnormally high concentrations of Ar near crystal 80 surfaces for several minerals including quartz and feldspar (Baxter et al., 2006; Clay et al., 81 2010; Kelley et al., 2008; Watson and Cherniak, 2003), olivine and pyroxene (Thomas et al., 82 2008; Watson et al., 2007), and plagioclase (Wartho et al., 2014). These high Ar 83 concentrations imply very low diffusivities that have been interpreted as representative of Ar 84 lattice diffusivities, although recent bulk degassing experiments suggest a surface effect (e.g., 85 Burnard et al., 2015; Cassata et al., 2011; Delon et al., 2019). Such surface effects in mechanically prepared samples are in agreement with the study of Pinilla et al. (2012), who 86 87 showed that diffusivities observed in the near-surface are not representative of bulk 88 diffusivities due to the effect of interface adsorption, trapping Ar in dislocations, voids, and 89 channels.

Although these results confirm the storage of noble gases in 1-dimension defects, abnormally high surface concentrations of He have only been observed in apatite (Van Soest et al., 2011), and the behavior of He in deformed minerals remains unconstrained. In this study, synthetic fine-grained polycrystalline iron-free forsterite was deformed at different temperatures, then experimentally doped with He at high pressure and high temperature. We analyzed the samples by step heating experiments to investigate He storage sites and diffusion in mantle olivine.

97

98 2. Materials and methods

99 2.1. Starting materials and deformation experiments

100 Forsterite samples used in this study were synthetized at the Earthquake Research Institute 101 (Tokyo, Japan) from synthetic nano-powder made from colloidal SiO₂ (30 nm grain size) and 102 Mg(OH)₂ (50 nm grain size). The sintering procedure was previously described by Koizumi et 103 al. (2010) and is briefly summarized here. The powders were dispersed and mixed by ball 104 milling for one day at a rate of ~250 rpm using 10-mm nylon-covered balls with iron cores 105 and high-purity ethanol as a solvent. The samples were then dried at ~60 °C while stirring. 106 The resulting powder was calcinated using an alumina tube furnace at 960 °C for 3 hours 107 under an oxygen flow to remove decomposed products (H₂O and CO₂). The samples were 108 pulverized with an agate mortar and pelletized using tungsten carbide dies to obtain disc-109 shaped samples, which were wrapped in a rubber sleeve and evacuated with a rotary pump. 110 The compacted samples were then dropped into a water-medium pressure vessel and cold-111 pressed at 200 MPa for 10 min to produce pellets. The pellets were placed on a platinum 112 crucible or plate in an alumina tube furnace with a vacuum diffusion pump and sintered at 113 1260 °C for 2–3 h. The sintering conditions were carefully selected to maximize densification 114 and minimize grain growth. The final porosity of the pellets was well below 1 vol.% (for further details, see Koizumi et al., 2010). The final products contained a low proportion 115 116 (<2%) of iron-free enstatite to buffer the silica activity, but this abundance is too low to 117 significantly modify the bulk diffusivities obtained during the subsequent step heating 118 experiments (see section 4.1).

After sintering, the four cylindrical samples (NF_SM, NF_1200-1, NF_1050-1, and NF_950-1) had diameters of 4.5–4.8 mm and lengths of 7.25–10.55 mm. Three of them (NF_1200-1, NF_1050-1, and NF_950-1) were used in deformation experiments performed at Geosciences Montpellier (University of Montpellier, France) in a gas-medium high pressurehigh temperature apparatus (Paterson press; Paterson, 1990; Thieme et al., 2018). These samples were fit into metal sleeves (NF_1200-1, NF_1050-1, and NF_950-1) into nickel,

125 copper, and silver sleeves, respectively), placed between alumina and zirconia pistons 126 (Demouchy et al., 2014; Mei and Kohlstedt, 2000), and the assembly was encapsulated in an 127 iron jacket. Deformation experiments were performed under uniaxial compression in an 128 isostatic Ar pressure of 300 MPa at temperatures of 1200, 1050, and 950 °C for NF 1200-1, 129 NF 1050-1, and NF 950-1, respectively. Mechanical data and texture characterizations are 130 fully reported in Gasc et al. (2019). After the deformation experiments, the samples were 131 hand-polished to remove the metal sleeve and cut with a slow speed saw into millimeter-sized 132 cubes. A first part of the recovered deformed fine-grained forsterite was used as starting 133 material for doping experiments at high pressure and high temperature, and a second part was 134 prepared for scanning electron microscopy (SEM), electron backscattered diffraction (EBSD) 135 and transmission electron microscope (TEM) analyses for post-deformational grain size 136 quantification and textural and microstructural characterization.

SEM and EBSD analyses were performed at Geosciences Montpellier with a CamScan 137 138 X500FE Crystal Probe (see Demouchy et al., 2012) equipped with an EBSD system. Sample 139 sections were prepared using a standardized polishing protocol (e.g., Thieme et al., 2018) and 140 a final polishing step was performed using colloidal silica on a vibrating plate to obtain a 141 high-quality polish for EBSD observation. Operating conditions were 15-18 kV and 6 or 10 142 nA (for exposure times of 48 and 24 ms, respectively) at a working distance of 24-25 mm 143 under low vacuum conditions (5 Pa of gaseous nitrogen) to avoid charging on the sample. 144 Samples were carbon-coated and surrounded by copper-carbon conductive tape for EBSD 145 analyses. EBSD maps were acquired with a step size of 0.2 or 0.4 µm, allowing the grain size 146 distributions to be determined after data treatment (Demouchy et al., 2014; Gasc et al., 2019).

For TEM analyses, post-deformation pre-doped samples were doubly polished to obtain
30-μm-thick thin sections, and glued on a Cu grid before ion milling at 5 kV under a low
beam angle of 15° to reach electron transparency. The resulting foils were carbon-coated and

observed in a FEI® Tecnai G2-20 twin microscope operating at 200 kV at Unité Matériaux et
Transformations (University of Lille, France).

152

153 2.2. Doping experiments

The deformed (NF_1200-1, NF_1050-1, and NF_950-1) and undeformed (NF_SM) 154 samples were doped at high pressure and high temperature in the presence of a ⁴He source 155 156 following a similar protocol described in Burnard et al. (2015), which was developed to 157 mimic sub-solidus mantle conditions at low to medium noble gas partial pressure. In this study, the ⁴He source was uraninite powder from Mistamisk, Canada (for details, see Kish and 158 159 Cuney, 1981). Doping experiments were performed at the Laboratoire Magmas et Volcans 160 (Université Clermont Auvergne, Aubière, France) in a 3/4" piston cylinder. The samples were 161 hand-polished to fit in 9-mm-long Pt capsules with an outer diameter of 5 mm and an inner 162 diameter of 4.5 mm. Each sample was placed in a Pt capsule and separated from the uraninite 163 powder by two Pt discs to avoid contamination of the samples by the He source, and any 164 empty space was filled with San Carlos olivine powder, as shown in Fig. 2. The capsule was 165 then closed by welding two Pt lids at each end, loaded in a Pyrex cylinder with two MgO 166 cylinders at each end, and surrounded by MgO powder. The assembly was slid into a graphite 167 furnace and placed in a Pyrex cylinder and a NaCl sleeve to ensure efficient pressure 168 transmission and inhibit the occurrence of water (Fig. 2). Temperature was controlled and 169 monitored using a W_5 Re/ W_{26} Re thermocouple (C-type) at the base of the Pt capsule (Fig. 2). 170 External calibrations show a temperature gradient of less than 20 °C along the Pt capsule. The 171 samples were annealed at 1120 ± 20 °C and 1.00 ± 0.02 GPa for ~24 h, and were quenched at 172 high pressure. This long annealing stage at T>1100 °C and 1 GPa ensures complete collapse 173 of residual porosity (from hot press at 300 MPa), closing up potential open grain boundaries 174 (from grain sliding, see Gasc et al., 2019) and providing further dense sintering. At 1100 °C 175 and after 24 h only, intracrystalline ductility features are expected to be preserved (Farla et, 176 2011). After the doping experiments, the samples were extracted from the capsules and cut 177 into millimeter-sized cubes. For each sample, a single cube from the core was carefully 178 selected to ensure that residual uraninite was not present during the subsequent noble gas 179 analyses. Experimental conditions are summarized in Table 1.

180

181 *2.3. Helium analyses*

182 Helium analyses were performed using a cycled step heating protocol coupled with noble 183 gas mass spectrometry, as detailed in Delon et al. (2018). Samples were annealed at different 184 temperature steps and the gas extracted during each heating step was analyzed to obtain the 185 molar quantity of He released, which permits calculation of the fractional gas loss and thus of 186 the diffusion coefficient (D) as a function of the square of the radius of the diffusion domain 187 (a). The corresponding equations were modified from Crank (1975), Fechtig and Kalbitzer 188 (1966), and McDougall and Harrison (1999), and are presented in detail in Delon et al. (2018). Since D is related to temperature (T) by an Arrhenius equation, D = f(1/T) (or D/a^2 if 189 190 a is unknown) permits to obtain (i) the activation energy (E_a) , and (ii) the pre-exponential factor (D_0 or D_0/a^2 if a is unknown). Although the equations used to determine D were 191 192 developed considering a homogeneous initial concentration in the sample, Delon et al. (2018) 193 have already redeveloped them for heterogeneous initial concentration profiles. They reported 194 no major change in the resulting diffusion parameters (within the error bars). Thus, even if 195 samples were only partially doped, it does not impact the diffusion parameters calculated in 196 this study.

197 Step heating analyses were performed at the Centre de Recherches Pétrographiques et 198 Géochimiques (CNRS, Université de Lorraine, Nancy, France) using a Helix MC mass 199 spectrometer, which was calibrated using aliquots (~0.3 cc, ~ 1.57×10^{-8} mol) of an in-house

He standard (for further details, see Matsuda et al., 2002). The ⁴He signal was collected on a 200 Faraday cup coupled with a $10^{11} \Omega$ amplifier. A standard analysis was performed between 201 each sample analysis, and the analytical sensitivity was calculated and used to obtain the 202 203 molar quantity of He extracted during each heating step. The external error determined from 204 these sensitivities was less than 8%, which represents a maximum external error of ± 0.04 on the resulting $\log(D/a^2)$ values. Samples were loaded into a filament furnace, which consists of 205 206 four alumina-coated tungsten evaporation baskets welded to two nickel rods as described in 207 Bekaert et al. (2018). The furnace was calibrated by the melting points of tin, aluminum, 208 copper and nickel, and the calibration curve (temperature as a function of the current) was 209 obtained by second-order polynomial regression on the melting points. Before sample 210 loading, the filament was degassed at ~1600 °C under high vacuum for 1 h to remove any 211 adsorbed atmospheric gases. A blank analysis was performed at ~1400 °C before sample introduction (releasing 8.69×10^{-15} mol of He), and a cold blank analysis was performed for 212 213 each sample: the molar quantities extracted during cold blank analyses represented less than 10% (~ 2.90×10^{-15} mol) of those extracted during each heating step. Because of high blank 214 215 signals, sample NF 1200-1 was degassed under vacuum for 1 h at 800 °C before the step 216 heating experiments to remove any gas adsorbed onto the sample surface, which greatly 217 improved the blank signals. During this degassing step, He was lost and not analyzed, which 218 can modify the initial He concentration profile of the sample. Nevertheless, a change in the 219 initial concentration profile does not modify the resulting diffusion parameters (Delon et al., 220 2018). At each heating step, the temperature was held for 30 min, and the extracted gas was 221 purified and analyzed, background and blank corrections were performed. Step heating 222 experiments were cycled, meaning that each sample underwent several step heating sequences 223 (cycles). A cycle consists in increasing the temperature between two heating steps, whereas 224 the temperature is decreased at the end of a cycle to perform a second cycle on the same

sample, and so on. This protocol is used in thermochronology to identify diffusion domains that are not replenished (e.g., Reiners and Farley, 1999; Reiners et al., 2004) and has proved efficient for characterizing He storage sites in polycrystalline olivine (Delon et al., 2018). Individual step sequences are presented in Table 1. At the end of the cycled step heating experiments, the samples were fused at above 2000 °C and the extracted gas was analyzed to determine the total amount of He stored in the corresponding sample, and to back-calculate the fractional gas loss during each temperature step.

232

233 *3. Results*

3.1. Textures and microstructures

235 Representative SEM and TEM images of pre-doped samples are displayed in Fig. 3, and 236 additional images are available in Gasc et al. (2019). The average grain sizes determined from 237 EBSD maps are reported in Table 1 and only slightly decreased during the deformation 238 experiments. Grain size variations are expected to be negligible during the doping 239 experiments since the diffusion length of silicon is only 0.56 nm in dry olivine (Dohmen et 240 al., 2002) and 47 nm in wet olivine (Costa and Chakraborty, 2008) at the conditions of the 241 doping experiments (i.e., 1120 °C and 24 h). SEM images of the four pre-doped samples 242 show granoblastic textures with equilibrated triple junctions (Fig. 3a-d). Grain boundaries are 243 mostly straight in samples NF_SM, NF_950-1, and NF_1050-1, whereas they are 244 occasionally slightly curved in NF_1200-1. All samples have low porosities. Porosity appears 245 to be more important in samples deformed at low temperature because they show grain 246 boundaries opened by sliding, which creates voids during the deformation experiments (Gasc 247 et al., 2019). If preserved during annealing at 1GPa, these 3-dimensions defects can trap noble 248 gases during doping experiments, and their release can significantly impact the calculated 249 diffusivities obtained during the step heating experiments. However, no gaps and voids are

expected to subsist under 1 GPa (e.g., German, 2014). Furthermore, several grains in the
deformed samples showed internal contrast variations, highlighting the formation of subgrain
boundaries (i.e., walls of dislocations), demonstrating that intracrystalline ductile deformation
occurred (Fig. 3b–d).

254 TEM images show microstructures typical of deformed samples (i.e., straight dislocations, 255 few dislocation loops, sub grain boundaries, Fig. 3e-h). These microstructures are mainly 256 heterogeneous and due to microplasticity. Rare nanobubbles were also observed, which could 257 act as a trap for He during doping experiments. In summary, the deformation experiments 258 successfully involve 1-, 2-, and 3-dimensions defects (i.e., dislocations, subgrains, grain boundaries, and nanobubbles, respectively). We calculated the dislocation density (ρ in m⁻², 259 i.e., total length of dislocations in a unit volume of a crystal) for each deformed sample using 260 261 Ham's (1961) method, which consists in drawing straight lines of cumulative length L in 262 random directions on a TEM image and counting the number of dislocations (N) intersecting 263 these lines. Using the sample thickness e (i.e., ~200 nm), dislocation density is estimated as:

$$\rho = \frac{2N}{L \cdot e} \quad . \tag{1}$$

We applied this method for four TEM images for sample NF_950-1, one for NF_1050-1, and three for NF_1200-1, which were selected as being characteristic of the samples. The results confirm high dislocation densities for each deformed sample with mean values of $2.3 \pm 1.2 \times$ 10^{13} m⁻² for NF_950-1, 8.1×10^{13} m⁻² for NF_1050-1, and $5.8 \pm 1.5 \times 10^{13}$ m⁻² for NF_1200-1.

269

3.2. Helium diffusivity

Helium diffusivities are reported in Fig. 4 and the detailed data treatment is provided in supplementary file. The results show diffusive behavior that does not follow a single Arrhenius law since abrupt changes in slope occur in each Arrhenius diagram. Thus, our data 274 cannot be fitted with only one linear regression, suggesting different diffusion mechanisms at 275 different temperature ranges. The best fit of our data by one, two, or three linear regressions 276 and the associated transition temperatures were determined using F-tests on each cycle. 277 Further details and results of the *F*-tests are available in supplementary material. The *F*-test is 278 used to compare two models, and if the resulting F value is greater than the critical F value 279 (available in F tables), the model with the fewest parameters is rejected. Otherwise, we chose 280 the simpler model with the fewest parameters to fit our data (e.g., Box, 1953; Chow, 1960; 281 Hahs-Vaughn and Lomax, 2013). For each cycle, we performed a F-test between a single 282 linear regression (model 1) and all possible fits with two linear regressions (model 2, 283 excluding all linear regressions fitted with less than three data points as irrelevant). If model 1 284 was rejected, we compared the best-fit model with two linear regressions to models with three 285 linear regressions, and so on. In the case where several models resulted in rejecting the 286 comparative model, we chose the model with the greatest F value as the comparative model in 287 subsequent tests or as the best fit to our data.

288 The linear regressions resulting from the F-tests are plotted in Fig. 4. The resulting diffusion parameters (E_a and D_0 as a function of a^2) are reported in Table 2 and vary widely: 289 E_a varied from 3 ± 6 to 330 ± 29 kJ·mol⁻¹ and log(D_0/a^2) (D_0 in m²·s⁻¹ and a in m) from -9.44 290 291 \pm 0.82 to 7.98 \pm 1.29. This variation suggests a complex behavior of He diffusion in 292 polycrystalline forsterite, with competition between different diffusive processes. However, 293 since models with several linear regressions can fit our data, we can reasonably assume that 294 diffusivities follow Arrhenius equations over the temperature ranges determined from the F-295 tests. These results were obtained by excluding some data points (open symbols in Fig. 4) at 296 very low temperature (one each for NF SM and NF 950-1) and at very high temperature (one 297 for NF_950-1 and two for NF_1050-1) because they were considered as being distinctly 298 different from the trend described by the nearby points.

299

300 4. Discussion

301 *4.1. Mechanisms of He diffusion*

302 The results of the *F*-tests show that models with several linear regressions for each cycle 303 are the most relevant to fit our data. Thus, He diffusivity in our samples is complex, arising 304 via competition between different diffusion mechanisms. Several hypotheses may explain 305 why the diffusivities do not follow a single Arrhenius law: (i) the presence of a multi-306 diffusion domain (e.g., Harrison and Lovera, 2014; Lovera, 1992; Lovera et al., 1989), (ii) a 307 competition between intrinsic and extrinsic diffusion at the atomic scale (e.g., Chakraborty, 308 1997, 2008; Dohmen, 2008; Dohmen and Chakraborty, 2007), or (iii) a contribution of 309 different diffusion mechanisms related to different storage sites, as has been observed for 310 hydrogen (Demouchy, 2010; Mackwell and Kohlstedt, 1990; Padrón-Navarta et al., 2014; 311 Thoraval and Demouchy, 2014), He, and Ar diffusion in undeformed polycrystalline olivine (Burnard et al., 2015; Delon et al., 2018, 2019). Because Ea values vary among linear 312 313 regressions and transition temperatures differ between samples and even cycles, we favor the 314 third hypothesis (see also Delon et al., 2018).

315 To confirm this hypothesis, we compare the diffusion parameters calculated from this 316 study (E_a and $\log D_0$) to those obtained for the different diffusive mechanisms observed in 317 Burnard et al. (2015) and Delon et al. (2018) in Fig. 5. To calculate $\log D_0$, a was chosen as 318 half the sample size during the step heating experiments (i.e., 1 mm in this study), as was 319 previously demonstrated in Delon et al. (2018). We follow the same usage as Delon et al. 320 (2018) with LAT-high referring to diffusion in Mg vacancies, LAT-low to diffusion in 321 interstitial sites, LAT to diffusion in the crystal lattice (i.e., LAT = LAT-high + LAT-low), 322 and GB to grain boundary diffusion; when bulk diffusion is controlled by diffusion in several 323 storage sites (co-governance), the implicated diffusions are separated by the + sign. The 324 formalisms of these different diffusive mechanisms are displayed in Table 3. The above 325 studies showed that He diffusion in polycrystalline olivine occurs via LAT-high, LAT-high + 326 LAT-low, and LAT + GB mechanisms, and we show the mean values (and the standard deviations) over which those mechanisms were reported to occur in Fig. 5. Most of the E_a and 327 328 $\log D_0$ values from this study plot within those ranges, suggesting that LAT-high, LAT-high + 329 LAT-low, and LAT + GB mechanisms were also observed in our diffusion experiments. 330 Thus, the apparent non-Arrhenian behavior is due to diffusion mechanisms related to different 331 storage sites, and transitions occurred upon the depletion of He in a storage site.

332 However, some diffusion parameters obtained herein clearly differ from those of the LAT-high, LAT-high + LAT-low, and LAT + GB mechanisms. Some E_a values are below the 333 LAT + GB range (i.e., $<11 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$); these values seem to agree with those reported by 334 335 Burnard et al. (2015) for Ar surface diffusion in olivine. Although the species are different, comparison between He and Ar surface diffusion is relevant in terms of E_a , but not in terms of 336 337 D_0 . Indeed, the E_a for He surface diffusion is expected to be lower than that for LAT + GB 338 mechanisms since He is only retained by Van der Waals bonds (i.e., low-energy interactions) 339 at the sample surface. Furthermore, a low E_a value and one consistent with LAT + GB 340 diffusion were obtained at lower and higher temperatures, respectively, during the same cycle (NF_1050-1, cycle 1, Figs. 4 and 5), demonstrating that this low E_a mechanism (surface 341 342 diffusion) is distinct from the LAT + GB mechanisms, and not simply LAT + GB diffusion 343 with an abnormally low E_a .

Two E_a values (NF_SM, cycle 1, and NF_950-1, cycle 2) are near the lower limit of the LAT-high range. Instead of interpreting these as the LAT-high mechanism, we rather propose that the corresponding linear regressions were influenced by both the LAT-high and the LAThigh + LAT-low mechanisms. Indeed, Delon et al. (2018) demonstrated that a single regression encompassing these two mechanisms induced E_a and $\log D_0$ values between those

for the LAT-high and LAT-high + LAT-low mechanisms (as in Blard et al., 2008; Cherniak 349 350 and Watson, 2012), whereas performing two linear regressions on the same data points (one at 351 lower temperature and another at higher temperature) returns values in agreement with those 352 of the separate LAT-high and LAT-high + LAT-low mechanisms. We tested this by 353 reprocessing these data points using three linear regressions instead of two (detailed results 354 are reported in Table 2). Although the two-linear regression models presented for these 355 samples in Fig. 4 were not rejected by the F-tests, the models with three linear regressions 356 seem more suitable since the reprocessed data show diffusion parameters consistent with the 357 distinct ranges of LAT-high and LAT-high + LAT-low mechanisms.

358 Diffusion parameters calculated from cycle 4 of sample NF_SM do not seem to correlate 359 with data from previous studies. This cycle was characterized by an abrupt increase of He release, inducing first a high E_a (~330 kJ·mol⁻¹) then a moderate E_a (~120 kJ·mol⁻¹). A 360 361 similar burst in noble gas release was observed for Ar in pyroxenes and occurs upon early partial melting of the sample (Cassata et al., 2011). However, early partial melting of olivine 362 363 has never been reported below 1100 °C (under a pressure of 1-atm, Jaoul et al., 1987). 364 Alternatively, He trapped in 3-dimensions defects (i.e., pores, voids) could significantly 365 increase the release of He (and thus the resulting diffusivities), especially at high temperature. 366 Indeed, the high E_a reported by Trull and Kurz (1993) for He diffusion in olivine has been 367 interpreted as an energy of remobilization of He trapped in melt inclusions (e.g., Blard et al., 368 2008; Cherniak and Watson, 2012; Tolstikhin et al., 2010), highlighting the high-temperature 369 dependency of this release. Thus, a minor contribution of He trapped in pores can 370 significantly increase the apparent He release at high temperature and thus the resulting 371 diffusivities, as observed in the diffusivities obtained for cycle 4 of sample NF SM (Fig. 4). 372 A similar event could also explain the abnormal E_a values obtained for sample NF_1200-1; two values are well above the LAT-high range, and another obtained at the highest 373

374 temperature range is abnormally low and thus does not actually correspond to LAT-high + LAT-low mechanisms. Another possibility to explain these abnormal diffusion parameters is 375 376 the presence of enstatite in our samples. Indeed, orthopyroxene is more Ar-retentive than 377 olivine since Ar diffusivities in orthopyroxene are significantly smaller than those in olivine 378 (e.g., for orthopyroxene, see Cassata et al., 2011; for olivine, see Futagami et al., 1993; Delon 379 et al., 2019), and this difference decreases with increasing temperature: for Ar, at 400 °C, $\log D \sim -19.92$ in olivine and -30.03 in orthopyroxene, whereas at 1200 °C, $\log D \sim -12.93$ 380 and -14.40 in olivine and orthopyroxene, respectively, with D in $m^2 \cdot s^{-1}$). We note that similar 381 382 diffusive behavior is expected for He in olivine and orthopyroxene, and thus a relatively small 383 He release from enstatite is predicted at low temperature whereas enstatite can significantly 384 contribute to the He release at high temperature, resulting in enhanced calculated diffusivities, 385 as shown in Fig. 4. A final explanation to interpret these high activation energies could be the 386 absence of iron in our samples compared to those in Delon et al. (2018). Indeed, the 387 incorporation of iron was proposed to impact the strength of olivine and the incorporation of 388 hydrogen in olivine at pressure below 1 GPa (Zhao et al., 2001, 2009). The substitution of Mg by Fe³⁺ should create additional vacancies and enhance transport properties such as ionic 389 390 diffusion (Nakamura & Schmalzried, 1984). Thus, it should decrease the activation energy. 391 Although some activation energies are higher in this study than in Delon et al. (2018) for 392 diffusion in Mg-vacancies, this is not systematically true, suggesting that an increase in 393 activation energy is not due to the absence of iron the crystal lattice. An explanation for the 394 consistent absence of iron effect could be that the number of defects created by the 395 substitution of magnesium by iron is too low to significantly modify the mean distance 396 between two Mg-vacancies and thus, the activation energy.

A last set of diffusion parameters observed only in deformed samples (NF_950-1,
 NF_1050-1, and NF_1200-1) remains unexplained. The values of these diffusion parameters

are similar among the three samples, with mean values of $E_a = 56 \pm 1 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ and $\log D_0 = -1$ 399 9.97 ± 0.37 (D_0 in m²·s⁻¹). Although the pre-exponential factors are in the LAT-high + LAT-400 low range, the E_a values plot between the LAT-high + LAT-low and LAT + GB ranges. As 401 402 these diffusion parameters occurred only in deformed samples, they are interpreted as 403 corresponding to the combined contribution of lattice diffusion and diffusion along 404 dislocations (LAT + DIS). Indeed, the E_a values suggest that the corresponding storage site is 405 less retentive than the crystal lattice but more than grain boundaries, and are thus associated 406 with dislocations that occur in deformed samples. To investigate the He amount stored along 407 dislocations in our samples, the approximation that He extracted during heating steps, which expressed the LAT + DIS mechanisms, can be done. It yields that 5.79×10^{-13} , 1.86×10^{-11} , 408 and 1.99×10^{-12} mol of He are stored along dislocations for NF_950-1, NF_1050-1, and 409 NF 1200-1, respectively. Nevertheless, since each sample was doped separately with 410 411 different starting amount of He, it is difficult to determine if these amounts represent solely a 412 difference in dislocation density or results also from the experimental run conditions. For 413 these reasons, He storage as a function of the absolute density in dislocations in our samples 414 will not be discussed any further.

- 415
- 416 *4.2. Diffusion along dislocations*

Here, we extract the diffusivities along dislocations from the bulk diffusivities expressed in the LAT + DIS temperature range for deformed samples. Similar to grain boundary diffusion, bulk diffusivities resulting from the combined contribution of lattice diffusion and diffusion along dislocations can express three kinetic regimes (e.g., Harrison, 1961; Lee, 1995): the A-regime is mainly controlled by diffusion in the crystal lattice, the C-regime is controlled only by diffusion along dislocations, and the B-regime is the intermediate case (for further details on these kinetic regimes applied to grain boundary diffusion, see Dohmen and 424 Milke, 2010; Joesten, 1991; Mishin and Herzig, 1995, 1999). These kinetic regimes evolve 425 with diffusion time from the type C to the type B and ultimately to the type A regime. Thus, it 426 is important to constrain which kinetic regime occurred in our diffusion experiments to 427 identify the diffusion mechanism controlling the bulk diffusivities. The A-regime occurs for 428 diffusion times (*t*) significantly higher than the boundary time (t_d), defined as:

$$t_{\rm d} = \frac{l_{\rm d}^2}{4D^{\rm LAT}} \quad , \tag{2}$$

where l_d is the mean spacing between dislocations $(l_d = \sqrt{1/\rho})$ and D^{LAT} the lattice diffusion 429 coefficient. In our samples, $l_d = 209$, 111, and 131 nm in NF_950-1, NF_1050-1, and 430 431 NF_1200-1, respectively. At 400 °C (the lowest temperature step), these dislocation spacings yield $t_d = 78$, 22, and 31 s for NF_950-1, NF_1050-1, and NF_1200-1, respectively, by 432 433 considering the mean values of the lattice diffusion parameters obtained by Delon et al. 434 (2018) and herein for the LAT-high + LAT-low mechanisms. Thus, t_d is significantly shorter 435 than the extraction duration during a heating step (1800 s), which means that the A-regime 436 always occurred in the step heating experiments when the LAT + DIS mechanisms was expressed. In the A-regime, the bulk diffusion coefficient D^{bulk} can be calculated as a function 437 of the diffusion coefficient along dislocations (D^{DIS}) and the lattice diffusion coefficient as: 438

$$D^{\text{bulk}} = g \cdot D^{\text{DIS}} + (1 - g) \cdot D^{\text{LAT}} \quad , \tag{3}$$

439 where *g* is the fraction of the diffusing atoms that are located along dislocations. However, 440 this equation was first derived by Hart (1957), but was developed assuming an equilibrium 441 model in which the transfer of the diffusing species is in equilibrium at a local scale (Lee, 442 1995). Since our samples were partially doped, this assumption may not hold, and we will not 443 extract D^{DIS} using Eq. (3).

Although theory predicts that the A-regime is expressed during the step heating experiments, the consistency of the E_a and $\log(D_0)$ values expressed by the deformed samples in the LAT + DIS temperature range suggests that diffusion is mainly controlled by a single 447 mechanism here, diffusion along dislocations. To verify this hypothesis, we compared the 448 mean values of E_a and $\log D_0$ expressed in the LAT + DIS temperature range with those of 449 diffusion along grain boundaries, in interstitial sites and in Mg vacancies (Fig. 6). Grain 450 boundary diffusion parameters are from Delon et al. (2018), obtained using the same method, 451 except that we performed a linear regression on four data points (instead of five) because the 452 lowest temperature diffusivity of their sample RDPC150 does not describe the same trend as 453 the other diffusivities expressing grain boundary diffusion: this reprocessing of the two data sets (Delon et al., 2018 and this study) yields $E_a = 36 \pm 9 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ and $\log D_0 = -10.57 \pm 0.58$. 454 455 For diffusion in interstitial sites and in Mg vacancies, we use the mean values of the diffusion 456 parameters expressed in the LAT-high + LAT-low and LAT-high temperature ranges, respectively, from Delon et al. (2018) and herein, leading to $E_a = 89 \pm 7 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ and $\log D_0 =$ 457 -8.95 ± 1.16 for diffusion in interstitials and $E_a = 173 \pm 14 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ and $\log D_0 = -5.07 \pm 1.25$ 458 459 for diffusion in Mg vacancies. The diffusion equations corresponding to each diffusion 460 mechanism are displayed in Table 3. According to Fig. 6, the diffusivities expressed in the 461 LAT + DIS temperature range are bracketed between grain boundary and lattice diffusivities for temperatures between 400 °C (i.e., below mantle temperatures) and 1400 °C (the highest-462 463 temperature boundary of the olivine stability field; e.g., Akaogi et al., 1989). Only at high 464 temperature do Mg vacancy diffusivities exceed those of the other mechanisms. Thus, the 465 diffusivities obtained in the LAT + DIS temperature range are characteristic of a diffusion 466 mechanism in a storage site with a level of structure/disorder comprised between those of 467 point defects (i.e., interstitials, Mg vacancies) and 2-dimensions defects (i.e., grain 468 boundaries). Then, the logical possibility for this storage site is dislocations (1-dimension 469 defects) in the deformed samples. We thus interpret the diffusion coefficients obtained in the 470 LAT + DIS temperature ranges as representative of diffusion along dislocations with the mean diffusion parameters $E_a = 56 \pm 1 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ and $\log D_0 = -9.97 \pm 0.37$. The enhancement 471

472 of He diffusion along dislocations is very modest as shown by Figure 6, except at very low 473 temperature (below ca. 600 °C). Dislocations are often considered to be short circuit diffusion 474 paths. Indeed, a recent measurement of impurity diffusivity along a single dislocation in 475 aluminum has demonstrated a diffusivity enhancement of almost three orders of magnitude as 476 compared with bulk diffusion (Legros et al. 2008). However, the situation varies strongly 477 from a system to another since in SrTiO₃, Marrocchelli et al. (2015) report no significant pipe 478 diffusion of oxide ions at dislocation cores. In olivine, little data are available. Wolfenstine 479 (1990) has interpreted low temperature creep data in single crystal of dry olivine based on the 480 role of pipe diffusion. Gérard and Jaoul (1989) found no enhancement of oxygen diffusion by 481 dislocations in San Carlos olivine, however, Yurimoto et al. (1992) reported diffusivities along dislocations for oxygen 10^4 times faster than lattice diffusivities in forsterite. To date, 482 483 no diffusivity data are available for the role of dislocations on silicon diffusion, which is 484 expected to be the creep rate limiting species. Our measurements represent the first indication 485 of the role of dislocations on impurity diffusion in forsterite with a small effect on He 486 diffusion, except at very low temperatures.

487 Nevertheless, at high temperature, diffusion in Mg vacancies shows higher diffusivities 488 than the other diffusion mechanisms, contrary to what is expected. Diffusion in Mg vacancies 489 might be more affected by increased pressure than the other diffusion mechanisms. Although 490 no pressure effect has been observed up to 2.7 GPa for He lattice diffusion in olivine 491 (Cherniak and Watson, 2012), first-principles calculations predict an influence up to 14 GPa 492 (Wang et al., 2015), resulting in decreased diffusivity with increasing pressure. These results 493 are in agreement with changes in Ni and Mn diffusivities in olivine with increasing pressure 494 reported by Holzapfel et al. (2007). Since the compressibility of polyhedra increases with 495 their size in the olivine lattice (e.g., Andrault et al., 1995), a similar assumption can be made for He storage sites in the olivine lattice. Thus, Mg sites should be more affected by 496

497 compression than interstitial sites, implying a greater decrease of He diffusivities via Mg498 vacancies with increasing pressure than via interstitials.

499

500 *4.3. Implications for the Earth's upper mantle*

To assess the implications of He storage along dislocations within the olivine stability field (i.e., until 410 km depth; Akaogi et al., 1989; Katsura et al., 2004) and assuming that dislocation creep controls olivine plastic deformation in the entire upper mantle, we have calculated the amount of He stored in dislocations compared to that stored in the crystal lattice. This proportion (*g*) can be defined as a function of the partition coefficient between dislocations and the lattice ($K^{dis/lat}$) and the volume fraction of dislocations (v^{DIS}) as demonstrated by Lee (1995):

$$g = \frac{K^{\text{dis/lat}} \cdot v^{\text{DIS}}}{(K^{\text{dis/lat}} - 1) \cdot v^{\text{DIS}} + 1} \quad . \tag{4}$$

Although $K^{\text{dis/lat}}$ is not known, it must be greater than 1 since He is an incompatible element 508 (e.g., Heber et al., 2007; Jackson et al., 2013) and less than 10^5 (the highest value of the He 509 510 partition coefficient between a silicate melt and the olivine lattice, see Delon et al., 2018). 511 Thus, to obtain the maximum fraction of He stored along dislocations, we chose the maximum value of 10^5 for $K^{\text{dis/lat}}$. The value of v^{DIS} can be determined from the dislocation 512 density (ρ), which is between 10¹⁰ and 10¹² m⁻² in the deformed lithospheric mantle (e.g., 513 Gueguen and Darot, 1980; Wallis et al., 2019), and the radius of the dislocation core (r) as 514 $v^{\text{DIS}} = \rho \cdot \pi r^2$ (Lee, 1995). For lithospheric mantle conditions, the maximum fraction of He 515 stored along dislocations can be calculated for $\rho = 10^{12} \text{ m}^{-2}$. This yields a maximum value of 516 g of 1.2% for r = 2 Å (e.g., Durinck et al., 2007; Mahendran et al., 2017), meaning that only a 517 negligible fraction of He (<1.2%) can be stored along dislocations in the Earth's upper 518 519 mantle.

Concerning diffusion, the maximum value of t_d is obtained from Eq. (2) by considering a 520 521 temperature of 900 °C (a realistic minimum lithospheric mantle temperature) and a low ρ value. However, ρ is only available in the literature for deformed peridotites with a minimum 522 value of 10^{10} m⁻² (e.g., Gueguen and Darot, 1980). Nevertheless, at 900 °C, t_d is greater than 523 1 yr for $\rho < 10^6$ m⁻² and $t_d > 1$ kyr for $\rho < 10^3$ m⁻². Thus, we can conclude that at geological 524 525 time scales, the A-regime (which is expressed for durations greater than t_d) always prevails in the Earth's mantle. Equation (3) can then be used to estimate bulk diffusivities in mantle 526 minerals as a function of ρ and $K^{\text{dis/lat}}$. The influence of $K^{\text{dis/lat}}$ is reported in Fig. 7 for a 527 maximum value of ρ of 10^{12} m⁻², and the influence of ρ on bulk diffusivities is shown in the 528 supplementary material for a reasonable $K^{\text{dis/lat}}$ value of 10⁴. Bulk diffusivities increase with 529 both $K^{\text{dis/lat}}$ and ρ , but even at the maximum value of ρ observed in natural deformed 530 peridotite (i.e., 10^{12} m⁻²), $K^{\text{dis/lat}}$ must be greater than 10^5 to significantly increase bulk 531 532 diffusivities relative to lattice diffusivities. Moreover, the difference between bulk and lattice 533 diffusivities decreases with increasing temperature, suggesting that bulk diffusivities are 534 similar to lattice diffusivities in deformed mantle minerals.

535 Furthermore, Delon et al. (2018) demonstrated that a significant amount of He can be 536 stored in grain boundaries (~22% at a grain size of 1 mm), enhancing the bulk diffusivities of 537 mantle rocks. These results are highly dependent on grain size, implying that mantle 538 deformation could significantly modify both the He storage capacity and bulk He diffusivities by grain size sensitive processes such as dynamic recrystallization (e.g., Kurz et al., 2009; 539 540 Recanati et al., 2012). Indeed Kurz et al., (2009) reports a striking increase of He 541 concentration as a function of the textures (from protogranular to mylonite) in rocks from St 542 Paul Archipelago. However, the resulting dislocation density is not high enough to influence 543 the storage and diffusive behavior of He in the mineral lattice of mantle rocks. Thus, the 544 potential grain size reductions induced by dynamic recrystallization could result in a 545 redistribution of He between the mineral lattice and the grain boundary network to preserve a segregation factor of around 10⁵ between grain boundaries and crystal lattice (Baxter et al., 546 547 2007; Delon et al., 2018). Two processes could play a role in such a He redistribution: (i) the 548 diffusion of He through the crystal lattice and (ii) the motion of He-rich dislocations toward grain boundaries. At 800 °C, the velocity of He in olivine by diffusion process is around 50 549 550 $nm \cdot s^{-1}$, significantly higher than the mobility of dislocations under stresses characteristic of 551 deformed peridotites (i.e., stresses between 10 and 200 MPa; e.g., Gueguen and Darot, 1980), which is less than 10 $\text{nm}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (Idrissi et al., 2016). Therefore, diffusion is the dominant process 552 553 redistributing He between the olivine lattice and grain boundaries during plastic deformation. 554 This process is very efficient since grain boundaries are equilibrated with olivine lattice in 555 less than 3 hours at 800 °C at a grain size of 1 mm.

556 Nevertheless, the potential increased storage capacity of grain boundary network induced 557 by dynamic recrystallization and grain size reduction does not imply an increase of bulk 558 concentration, but only a redistribution of He between grain boundaries and the crystal lattice 559 with respect to the segregation factor. To increase bulk concentrations, a homogenization 560 must occur between the concentrations in grain boundaries (and thus in the crystal lattice to 561 preserve the segregation factor) of rocks affected by dynamic recrystallization and those of 562 nearby undeformed peridotites. To test this hypothesis in upper mantle rocks, we refer to 563 Recanati et al. (2012), who studied the He abundance in protomylonites from a mantle shear 564 zone (Josephine Peridotite, Oregon, USA) considered to be the remnant of a back-arc basin 565 (e.g., Harper, 1984) or a fore-arc setting (e.g., Kelemen and Dick, 1995). The authors 566 observed an abnormally high He concentration in a sample with a reduced grain size (~285 567 μm) compared to adjacent rocks (average grain size of 710 μm). They interpreted this high He 568 concentration as resulting from a higher volume fraction of grain boundaries, suggesting that the sample was in equilibrium with coarser-grained peridotites (i.e., with similar He 569

570 concentrations in grain boundaries and the crystal lattice). To calculate the lattice (C^{LAT}) and 571 grain boundary (C^{GB}) concentrations in these two rocks of different grain size, we perform a 572 mass balance calculation by considering that the total He amount is equal to the combined 573 amount of He stored in the crystal lattice and in grain boundaries. Based on the segregation 574 factor between grain boundaries and the crystal lattice (*s*), and the volume fraction of grain 575 boundaries (ν^{GB}), we obtain:

$$C^{LAT} = \frac{C^{bulk}}{1 + sv^{GB}} \quad . \tag{5}$$

The value of s is taken as 10^5 , as observed by Baxter et al. (2007) in diopside and suggested 576 by Delon et al. (2018) in olivine, and $v^{GB} = 2.84 \, \delta/d$ with $\delta = 0.75$ nm being the grain 577 578 boundary width and d the grain size of the sample (Hiraga and Kohlstedt, 2009). We obtain $C^{\text{LAT}} = 1.69 \pm 0.40 \times 10^{-12} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ for protomylonites with a grain size of 710 µm and $C^{\text{LAT}} =$ 579 $2.98 \pm 0.20 \times 10^{-12} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ for the sample with a grain size of 285 µm (for respective C^{bulk} 580 values of $2.20 \pm 0.52 \times 10^{-12}$ and $5.20 \pm 0.35 \times 10^{-12}$ mol·g⁻¹). Thus, the crystal lattice of the 581 582 sample with a reduced grain size is enriched in He by almost a factor of two compared to the 583 other samples, suggesting that dynamic recrystallization followed by homogenization with 584 nearby rocks is not the sole mechanism responsible for the observed He enrichment. Even if this process can enhance bulk concentrations, a value of s around 10^6 is required to observe 585 586 the increased concentration reported by Recanati et al. (2012). Instead, fluid percolation 587 coupled with deformation could better explain the observed He enrichment. Indeed, fluid 588 circulation is expected in back-arc basins and fore-arc settings, and it is reasonable to assume 589 that this circulation occurs preferentially in deformed zones where percolation is easier due to 590 the higher volume fraction of grain boundaries.

591

592 5. Conclusions

593 The diffusivities we obtained on three deformed samples and one undeformed sample 594 allow new constraints on He storage and mobility in polycrystalline rocks.

Diffusivities cannot be explained by a single linear regression, suggesting that they do not 595 596 follow a single Arrhenius law in deformed polycrystalline forsterite. However, each step 597 heating cycle can be fitted by several linear regressions depending on the temperature 598 range (and constrained by a F-test), highlighting that diffusivities follow Arrhenius law 599 over limited temperature ranges. Thus, the diffusive behavior of He in deformed 600 polycrystalline forsterite is complex due to the competition of several diffusion mechanisms that are preferentially expressed in different temperature ranges. These 601 602 different diffusion mechanisms are related to various storage sites since (i) the transitions 603 between the temperature ranges where different diffusion mechanisms are expressed were 604 different between cycles and samples, and (ii) the calculated E_a show large variations 605 within individual cycles.

By comparison with literature data, we identified different diffusion mechanisms that 606 607 were expressed for each linear regression: (i) the LAT-high mechanism (i.e., diffusion in 608 Mg vacancies), (ii) the LAT-high + LAT-low mechanisms (i.e., the co-governance of 609 diffusion in Mg vacancies and interstitial sites), (iii) the LAT + GB (i.e., the co-610 governance of diffusion in the crystal lattice and along grain boundaries), and (iv) surface 611 diffusion. Moreover, we observed a new diffusion mechanism in deformed forsterite, interpreted as the LAT + DIS mechanisms (i.e., the co-governance of diffusion in the 612 613 crystal lattice and along dislocations).

• We have refined grain boundary diffusion parameters for He in polycrystalline olivine: E_a = 36 ± 9 kJ·mol⁻¹ and $D_0 = 10^{-10.57 \pm 0.58}$ m².s⁻¹. Based on our results and literature data, we have refined those of He diffusion in Mg vacancies ($E_a = 173 \pm 14$ kJ·mol⁻¹ and $D_0 = 10^{-10.57 \pm 0.58}$ = 5.07 ± 1.25 m²·s⁻¹) and in interstitial sites ($E_a = 89 \pm 7$ kJ·mol⁻¹ and $D_0 = 10^{-8.95 \pm 1.16}$ m²·s⁻¹).

Furthermore, we report $E_a = 56 \pm 1 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ and $D_0 = 10^{-9.97 \pm 0.37} \text{ m}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ for He diffusion along dislocations.

620 By applying these results to Earth's upper mantle, we showed that only a small fraction of 621 He is stored along dislocations in the crystal lattice (<1.2%), which is negligible compared 622 to the He fraction stored in grain boundaries (~22% for a grain size of 1 mm; Delon et al., 623 2018). Thus, the presence of He along dislocations does not strongly influence bulk 624 diffusivities, which are very close to lattice diffusivities, and only the existence of a 625 significant amount of He in grain boundaries could enhance the bulk diffusivities of mantle rocks. Nevertheless, potential grain size reduction induced by dynamic 626 627 recrystallization would involve a redistribution of He between the crystal lattice and grain 628 boundaries, which can increase bulk concentrations upon re-equilibration of grain boundaries in deformed rocks with those in nearby undeformed peridotites, thus 629 630 enhancing bulk He diffusivities.

631

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649	
650	Research data
651	Original data of this study are available in the supplementary file.
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991 Figure captions

Fig. 1. Schematic representation of diffusion mechanisms related to storage sites in
polycrystalline rocks undergoing doping by diffusion (e.g., chemical flux). The kinetic regime
represented here is the B-regime (following the classification of Harrison, 1961) to highlight
the different diffusion rates related to each storage types (point defects, dislocations, grain
boundaries). Dislocation forests are local entanglement of linear defects and dislocation cores
are the distortion of the lattice (inducing an extra strain energy) around a dislocation (e.g.,
Hull and Bacon, 1984). An indicative scale is the cube edge = 10 mm.

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1000 Fig. 2. Experimental sample assembly for doping experiments in piston cylinder.

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Fig. 3. SEM images of post-deformation pre-doping polycrystalline olivine (a) sample NF_SM, which is the starting material (b) sample NF_1200-1, (c) sample NF_1050-1, and (d) sample NF_950-1. TEM images of microstructures in post-deformation pre-doping polycrystalline olivine (e) sample NF_1200-1 and (f–g) sample NF_950-1.

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Fig. 4. Arrhenius diagrams of He diffusion coefficients obtained from step heating analyses of (a) undeformed sample NF_SM and deformed samples (b) NF_950-1, (c) NF_1050-1, and (d) NF_1200-1. Multiple linear regressions were performed on each heating cycle, and the bestfit model for each cycle was selected based on the results of *F*-tests (see text and supplementary material). Gray dotted lines are the exceptions to *F*-tests, which were preferentially chosen to better fit the data (see text for more details). The numbers of the regressions correspond to the labeled data points in Fig. 5.

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Fig. 5. Compilation of (a) the logarithm of the pre-exponential factors and (b) the activationenergies for samples from this study. Results are compared with Ar surface diffusion

1017 (Burnard et al., 2015), bulk He diffusion when lattice and grain boundary diffusion are 1018 expressed (LAT + GB; Burnard et al., 2015; Delon et al., 2018), bulk He lattice diffusion 1019 where diffusion in interstitial sites and Mg vacancies are expressed (LAT-high + LAT-low; 1020 Delon et al., 2018), and He diffusion in Mg vacancies (LAT-high; Delon et al., 2018). Grey 1021 points indicate data for the corresponding cycles that were reprocessed using three linear 1022 regressions instead of two (see text). The numbers of the data points correspond to the 1023 numbered linear regressions shown in Fig. 4.

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Fig. 6. Arrhenius diagram of He grain boundary diffusion (reprocessed from Delon et al.,
2018), diffusion in interstitial sites and Mg vacancies (data from this study and Delon et al.,
2018), and combined diffusion in the crystal lattice and along dislocations (i.e., LAT + DIS
mechanisms, this study).

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Fig. 7. Bulk lattice diffusivities (black dotted lines) calculated from Eq. (3) as a function of temperature for different values of $K^{\text{dis/lat}}$ and the maximum value of ρ in the Earth's mantle (10^{12} m^{-2}). Diffusion along dislocations (green line) and diffusion in interstitials (orange line) are shown for comparison.

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1035 Table captions

1036 Table 1. Experimental conditions for deformation, doping, and step heating experiments.1037 Average grain sizes were determined from SEM-EBSD maps.

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1039 Table 2. He diffusion parameters, $\log(D_0/a^2)$ and E_a , obtained from each linear regression, 1040 which were defined using *F*-tests for each heating step cycle. Data from two cycles were

reprocessed to fit the data using three linear regressions instead of two as we favored thismodel instead of the results of the *F*-tests (see text for more details).

- 1044 Table 3. Diffusion equations defining helium diffusion in polycrystalline olivine from this
- 1045 study and Delon et al. (2018).

Type of experiment	Temperature	Pressure	Duration	Strain	Sample	Mass	Average
							grain size
	°C	MPa		%		mg	μm
Deformation							
<i>experiments</i>	1200 - 25	200 - 10	21.02	10.0	NE 1000 1		2.1
Paterson Press	1200 ± 25	300 ± 10	3003	10.0	NF_1200-1	-	3.1
Paterson Press	1050 ± 25	300 ± 10	3h31	10.4	NF_1050-1	_	2.9
Paterson Press	950 ± 25	300 ± 10	2h48	3.1	NF_950-1	_	2.7
Doping experiments							
Piston cylinder	1120 ± 20	$1\ 000\pm 20$	24 h	-	NF_SM	47	3.1
					Uraninite	16	_
Piston cylinder	1120 ± 20	$1\ 000 \pm 20$	24 h	_	NF_1200-1	46	3.1
					Uraninite	11	-
Piston cylinder	1120 + 20	1 000 + 20	24 h	_	NF 1050-1	96	29
i istoli cylinder	1120 ± 20	1 000 ± 20	27 11		Uraninite	10	_
					Crumite	10	
Piston cylinder	1120 ± 20	$1\ 000 \pm 20$	24 h	_	NF_950-1	69	2.7
					Uraninite	12	_
Cycled step heating exper	riments						
Helix MC	Every 50 or 100 °C	around 10^{-12}	30 min per step	-	NF_SM	9.3	3.1
	Cycle 1: 400-800 °C						
	Cycle 2: 600-650 °C						
	Cycle 3: 400-650 °C						
	Cycle 4: 650-1300 °C						
Helix MC	Every 50 or 100 °C	around 10^{-12}	30 min per step	_	NF_1200-1	8.0	3.1
	Cycle 1: 400-750 °C						
	Cycle 2: 500-1200 °C						
Helix MC	Every 50 or 100 °C	around 10 ⁻¹²	30 min per step	_	NF_1050-1	8.8	2.9
	Cycle 1: 400-1100 °C						
	Cycle 2: 400-1000 °C						
Helix MC	Every 50 °C	around 10 ⁻¹²	30 min per step	_	NF_950-1	3.6	2.7
	Cycle 1: 400-950 °C		- -				
	Cycle 2: 400-1000 °C						

Table 1

Sample	Temperature range	Activation energy	$Log(D_c/a^2)$
Sample	°C	kI mol ⁻¹	$m^{2} s^{-1}/m^{2}$
NF SM		NJ IIIOI	m .o /m
Cycle 1	401-556	6 + 12	-9.44 ± 0.82
Oyele 1	602-805	146 + 11	-0.89 ± 0.57
	002 005	170 ± 11	0.07 ± 0.57
Cycle 1 (reprocessed)	401-509	2 ± 24	-9.70 ± 1.70
	556-649	88 ± 8	-4.25 ± 0.47
	695-805	173 ± 17	0.50 ± 0.87
Cycle 2			
5	602–649	11	-8.22
Cycle 3			
5	509-649	89 ± 10	-3.80 ± 0.58
Cycle 4			
5	852–946	330 ± 29	7.98 ± 1.29
	993-1295	120 ± 8	-1.01 ± 0.29
NF_950-1			
Cycle 1	447–649	10 ± 7	-5.47 ± 0.42
	695–946	89 ± 8	-1.45 ± 0.39
Cuala 2	602 758	68 + 6	-3.07 ± 0.36
Cycle 2	805 946	150 ± 1	1.0 ± 0.01
	800-940	150 ± 1	1.0 ± 0.01
Cycle 2 (reprocessed)	602-695	56 ± 1	-3.76 ± 0.02
	695-805	96 ± 3	-1.63 ± 0.17
	852–946	150 ± 1	1.00 ± 0.03
NF_1050-2	401 (00		5.52 . 0.42
Cycle I	401-602	3 ± 6	-5.52 ± 0.42
	649-805	22 ± 5	-4.64 ± 0.22
	852–993	77 ± 4	-1.82 ± 0.15
Cycle 2	401-494	20 + 16	-6.04 ± 1.18
Office 2	556-993	55 ± 2	-3.76 ± 0.13
	556 775	<i>35</i> <u>-</u> 2	5.76 - 0.15
NF_1200-1			
Cycle 1	401-602	100 ± 6	-2.96 ± 0.41
	649–758	228 ± 1	$4.45\pm0.0.2$
	101 (10	57	4.40 - 0.14
Cycle 2	494-049	$5/\pm 2$	-4.40 ± 0.14
	693-803	201 ± 2	3.29 ± 0.12
	899–1199	88 ± 1	-1.89 ± 0.06

N.B. Activation energies are calculated with a = 1 m as activation energies do not depend on the value of a (see Burnard *et al.*, 2015 for further details)

Table 2

Diffusion mechanism	Formal notations	Diffusion equation	References	
Diffusion via Mg vacancies	LAT-high	$D = 10^{-5.07 \pm 1.25} \exp\left[-(173,000 \pm 14,000)/RT\right]$	Delon et al., 2018 This study	
Diffusion via interstitials	LAT-low	$D = 10^{-8.95 \pm 1.16} \exp\left[-(89,000 \pm 7,000)/RT\right]$	Delon et al., 2018 This study	
Diffusion along dislocations	DIS	$D = 10^{-9.97 \pm 0.37} \exp\left[-(56,000 \pm 1,000)/RT\right]$	This study	
Diffusion via grain boundaries	GB	$D = 10^{-10.57 \pm 0.58} \exp\left[-(36,000 \pm 9,000)/RT\right]$	Delon et al., 2018	

Table 3



Figure 1







Figure 3







Figure 5



Figure 6



Figure 7