

Melt network reorientation and crystallographic preferred orientation development in sheared partially molten rocks

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September 11, 2023

Abstract

As partially molten rocks deform, they develop melt preferred orientations, shape preferred orientations, and crystallographic preferred orientations (MPOs, SPOs and CPOs). We investigated the co-evolution of these preferred orientations in experimentally deformed partially molten rocks, then calculated the influence of MPO and CPO on seismic anisotropy. Olivine-basalt aggregates containing 2 to 4 wt% melt were deformed in general shear at a temperature of 1250°C under a confining pressure of 300 MPa at shear stresses of $\tau = 0$ to 175 MPa to shear strains of $\gamma = 0$ to 2.3. Grain-scale melt pockets developed a MPO parallel to the maximum principal stress, s_1 , at $\gamma < 0.4$. At higher strains, the grain-scale MPO remained parallel to s_1 , but incipient, sample-scale melt bands formed at $\sim 20^\circ$ to s_1 . An initial SPO and CPO were induced during sample preparation, with [100] and [001] axes girdled perpendicular to the long axis of the sample. At the highest explored strain, a strong SPO was established, and the [100] axes of the CPO clustered nearly parallel to the shear plane. Our results demonstrate that grain-scale and sample-scale alignments of melt pockets are distinct. Furthermore, the melt and the solid microstructures evolve on different timescales: in planetary bodies, changes in the stress field will first drive a relatively rapid reorientation of the melt network, followed by a relatively slow realignment of the crystallographic axes. Rapid changes to seismic anisotropy in a deforming partially molten aggregate are thus caused by MPO rather than CPO.

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Melt network reorientation and crystallographic preferred orientation development in sheared partially molten rocks

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Key Points

1. When a partially molten rock is stressed, its microstructural melt pockets reorient much more quickly than its crystallographic axes.
2. Individual melt pockets orient parallel to the loading direction at the onset of deformation.
3. Rapid changes to seismic anisotropy in a deforming partially molten rock can be attributed to reorientation of melt pockets.

25

26 **Abstract:**

27 We investigated the co-evolution of melt, shape, and crystallographic preferred
28 orientations (MPOs, SPOs and CPOs) in experimentally deformed partially molten rocks, from
29 which we calculated the influence of MPO and CPO on seismic anisotropy. Olivine-basalt
30 aggregates containing 2 to 4 wt% melt were deformed in general shear at a temperature of
31 1250°C under a confining pressure of 300 MPa at shear stresses of $\tau \leq 175$ MPa to shear strains
32 of $\gamma \leq 2.3$. Grain-scale melt pockets developed a MPO parallel to the loading direction by $\gamma <$
33 0.4. At higher strains, the grain-scale MPO remained parallel to the loading direction, while
34 incipient, sample-scale melt bands formed at $\sim 20^\circ$ to the grain-scale MPO. An initial SPO and
35 CPO were induced during sample preparation, with [100] and [001] axes girdled perpendicular to
36 the long axis of the starting material. At the highest explored strain, a strong SPO was
37 established subperpendicular to the loading direction, and the [100] axes of the CPO clustered
38 nearly parallel to the shear plane. Our results demonstrate that grain-scale and sample-scale
39 alignments of melt pockets are distinct. Furthermore, the melt and the solid microstructures
40 evolve on different timescales: in planetary bodies, changes in the stress field will drive a
41 relatively rapid reorientation of the melt network and a relatively slow realignment of the
42 crystallographic axes. Rapid changes to seismic anisotropy in a deforming partially molten
43 aggregate are thus caused by MPO rather than CPO.

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47 Plain language summary:

48 We studied the influence of melt alignment and crystal alignment on the properties of partially
49 melted regions in planetary bodies. Molten and crystalline elements within the rocks in these
50 layers can deform and reorient in response to stress, but it is difficult to predict how the effect of
51 realignment of each phase affects seismic properties of the rocks. Reorientation of melt
52 networks during deformation of partially molten rocks is not well constrained, as experiments
53 and computational models disagree on the most favorable alignment of melt pockets. Here, we
54 measured the angles and shapes of melt and crystals in experimentally deformed partially molten

55 rocks, then calculated seismic properties of the deformed rocks. We found that melt pockets
56 change orientation and shape quickly, but crystallographic axes take longer to reorient. This
57 observation indicates that immediate changes to seismic properties after a sudden change in
58 stress field are caused by melt, rather than by crystals. Our results show that when stress fields
59 abruptly change in Earth and other planetary bodies, melt pocket orientation controls seismic
60 properties and is the best instantaneous indicator of stress changes.

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64 1. Introduction

65 Partial melting often occurs alongside sites of rapid deformation in Earth's lithosphere. In
66 response to deformation, the molten and crystalline components of partially molten rocks align,
67 leading to anisotropies in mechanical, transport, and seismic properties (Blackman & Kendall,
68 1997; Daines & Kohlstedt, 1997; Holtzman et al., 2003; Holtzman & Kendall, 2010; Long &
69 Becker, 2010; Savage, 1999; Taylor-West & Katz, 2015). The influence of microstructure on
70 seismic properties, in particular, is often considered only in terms of the crystalline components,
71 but this approach may not be sufficient for interpreting the effects of deformation in partially
72 molten regions. Melt is known to change the physical properties of an aggregate even in small
73 concentrations, as the molten and solid rock components have distinct seismic properties. The
74 orientations of both phases therefore contribute to the seismic anisotropy observed in Earth's
75 upper mantle and crust (Almqvist & Mainprice, 2017; Hansen et al., 2021; Lyakhovskiy et al.,
76 2021). Laboratory experiments provide an important tool for determining melt and
77 crystallographic preferred orientations in deformed partially molten mantle rocks. However,
78 experimental results and modeling assumptions often disagree on the orientation of the melt
79 network. Previous experimental studies reported alignment of the long axes of melt pockets at
80 20° to the direction of the inferred maximum principal stress (Zimmerman et al., 1999, Soustelle
81 et al., 2014, Daines and Kohlstedt, 1997) and, with increasing strain, the formation of melt-rich
82 "bands" at a similar orientation (Holtzman et al., 2003; King et al., 2010; see Kohlstedt &
83 Holtzman, 2009 and Daines & Pec, 2015 for comprehensive reviews of observed melt alignment
84 in experiments). In contrast, some viscoelastic models and theories assume grain-scale melt

85 alignment parallel to the direction of the maximum principal stress, σ_1 (Hier-Majumder, 2011;
86 Takei & Holtzman, 2009c; Taylor-West & Katz, 2015), an orientation of melt alignment which
87 has also been reported using ultrasonic measurements in experiments on analog materials (Takei,
88 2001). To resolve differences between modeling, nature, and experimental results, we
89 reexamined microstructures of deformed partially molten samples.

90 The present study investigates the microstructural behavior of several partially molten
91 olivine + basalt aggregates deformed in general shear experiments. The sample-scale behavior of
92 one set of samples was previously reported in Zimmerman et al. (1999). In addition, the behavior
93 of two additional samples deformed at higher stress conditions was examined. We characterize
94 the co-evolution of melt preferred orientation (MPO) of the liquid network and crystallographic
95 and shape preferred orientations (CPOs and SPOs) of the solid phase, from which we infer the
96 influence of stress and strain on CPO, SPO and MPO development in the deformed samples. We
97 then use our experimental results to calculate predicted seismic anisotropy in these samples.
98 Finally, we discuss the relative importance of the orientations of melt pockets and
99 crystallographic axes on seismic anisotropy in samples deformed to small strains.

100

101 **2. Methods**

102 *2.1 Experimental deformation and imaging details*

103 Samples of olivine \pm orthopyroxene and 2-4 wt% mid-ocean ridge basalt (MORB) were
104 created by hot pressing cold-pressed powders in a gas-medium deformation apparatus (Paterson,
105 1990) at 1250°C at 300 MPa for \sim 3 h. At these temperature and pressure conditions, MORB
106 inclusions melted, while solid olivine crystals did not, thus forming a dense, chemically
107 equilibrated partially molten aggregate (Cooper & Kohlstedt, 1984). Samples were then cored
108 and sliced from the hot-pressed cylinders and placed between thoriated-tungsten pistons pre-cut
109 at a 45° angle, as illustrated in Figure 1. These samples were subsequently deformed in general
110 shear at the University of Minnesota in the gas-medium deformation apparatus at 1250°C and
111 300 MPa confining pressure. Under strain rates of 10^{-6} - 10^{-4} s $^{-1}$, samples reached shear stresses of
112 $\tau = 50$ -175 MPa and strains of $\gamma = 0.32$ -2.3. A summary of the experimental conditions and
113 resultant MPO and SPOs presented in Table 1.

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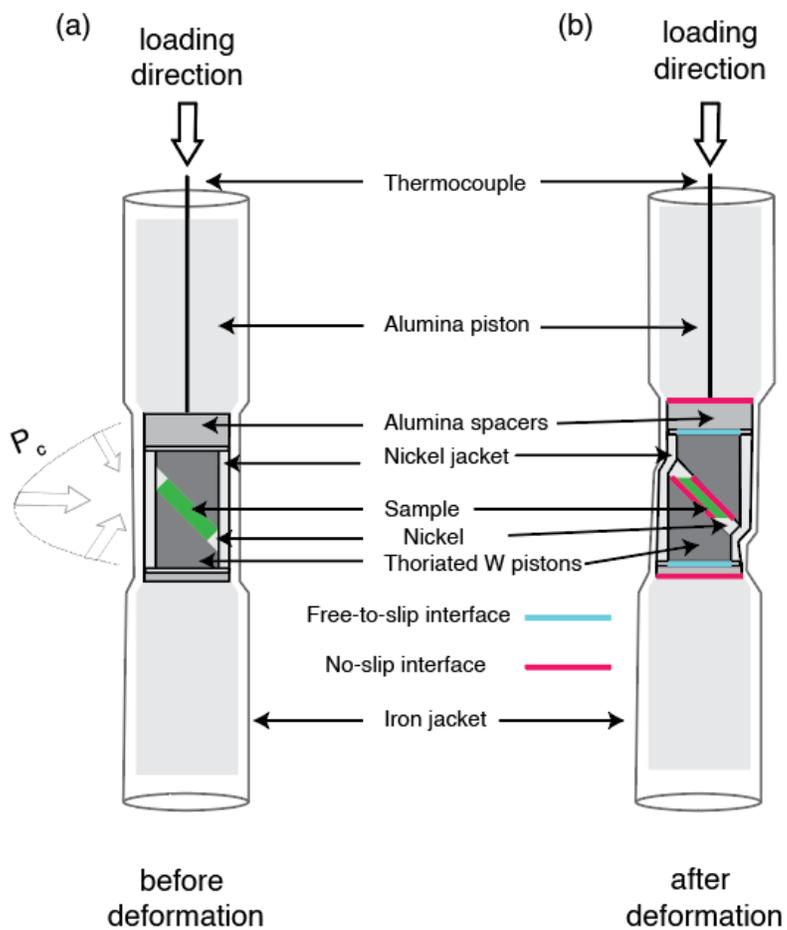
#	T (°C)	γ_{meas}	$\dot{\gamma}$ (s ⁻¹)	$\sigma_{\text{effective}}$ (MPa)	τ_{final} (MPa)	initial thickness (mm)	final thickness (mm)	MPO α_p (°)	MPO b/a	SPO α_p (°)	SPO b/a	W_k
starting material	1250	-	-	-	-	-	-	160	0.97	20	0.88	-
PI-281	1250	0.32	1.7×10^{-8}	110	55	0.65	0.61	135	0.8	13	0.94	-
PI-277	1250	0.4	6.5×10^{-5}	132	66	0.82	0.8	134	0.72	11	0.89	0.99
PI-334	1250-1290	0.77	*	350	175	0.8	0.66	112	0.74	30	0.89	0.97
PI-314	1250	0.84	4×10^{-5}	300	150	0.81	0.71	130	0.82	31	0.93	0.92
PI-274	1250	1.3	2.7×10^{-5}	100	50	0.83	0.72	132	0.77	32	0.79	0.96
PI-273	1250	2.3	4.0×10^{-4}	180	90	0.93	0.76	134	0.77	26	0.73	0.98

115
116 Table 1: Experimental parameters for starting material and six deformed samples. Here, γ
117 indicates strain, τ_{final} is the inferred shear stress, and W_k denotes the kinematic vorticity number,
118 expressing the ratio of simple shear to pure shear (see Section 4.2). The initial thickness of PI-
119 281 was measured, but not its initial width, so its kinematic vorticity could not be calculated.

120

121

122 After deformation, samples were cut perpendicular to the shear plane and parallel to the
123 shear direction, as indicated in Figure 2. A Zeiss Merlin scanning electron microscope (SEM) in
124 the MIT Materials Research Laboratory was used to create backscattered electron (BSE) images
125 at 15 – 20 kV accelerating voltage of these 2-D flat sections. In addition, electron backscattered
126 diffraction (EBSD) maps and energy dispersive spectra (EDS) maps were collected using a
127 Camscan X500FE CrystalProbe at the Université Montpellier 2 at an acceleration voltage of 20
128 kV and a step size of 0.2 – 0.6 μm .

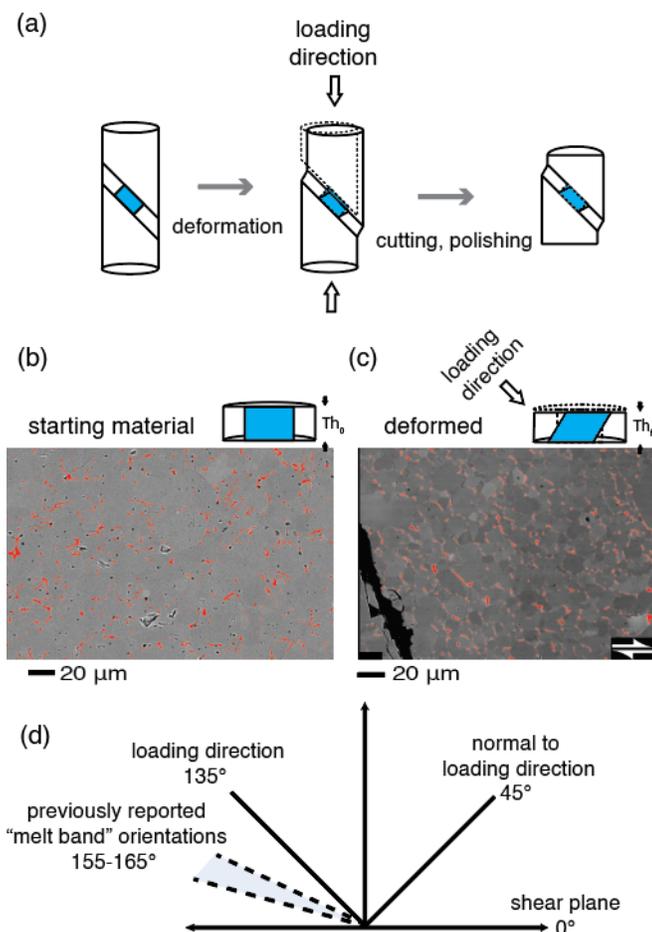


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Figure 1: Schematic drawing of the sample setup for deformation experiments.



132
 133 Figure 2: Sample preparation after deformation and orientation of cuts. (a) Experimental
 134 workflow for deformation and creation of 2-D sections. SEM images of orientation and
 135 appearance of the olivine-melt aggregates (b) prior to deformation, at initial thickness Th_0 , and
 136 (c) after deformation, at final thickness Th_f , with melt highlighted in red. (d) Angle conventions
 137 used throughout this paper.

138 139 2.2 Quantitative image analysis methods

140 We used the PARTicle ORientation method (PAROR; Heilbronner and Barrett, 2014,
 141 Chapter 14) to analyze the grain-scale MPOs and SPOs. This method yields the direction of the
 142 longest and shortest projections of particle elements. In contrast to the more common ellipse-
 143 fitting method of determining orientation of short and long axes, PAROR does not require the
 144 shortest and longest projection directions to be perpendicular to each other and is therefore well

145 suited for analyzing shapes of irregular objects such as melt pockets. Any shape with long axis a
 146 and short axis b is characterized by a projection function at a range of angles α , such that

$$147 \quad P(\alpha) = 2\sqrt{a^2 \cos^2(\alpha_i + \alpha_r) + b^2 \sin^2(\alpha_i + \alpha_r)} \quad , \quad (1)$$

148 where α is constructed by starting at an initial orientation α_i and incremented by α_r over a range
 149 of angles. This projection is symmetric around 180° . $P(\alpha)$ will be largest at the same orientation
 150 as a , and smallest at the orientation of b . For aggregates of shapes, the distribution function at
 151 each value of α is characterized by the sum of the values of $P(\alpha)$, then scaled such that $\Sigma P(\alpha)_{\max}$
 152 $= 1$.

153 The preferred orientation angle, α_p , is then calculated relative to the shortest projection
 154 direction α_{\min} such that

$$155 \quad \alpha_p = 90^\circ - \alpha_{\min} \quad . \quad (2)$$

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 157
 158 As values of α_p are symmetric around 180° , for $\alpha_{\min} > 90^\circ$, negative values are converted
 159 to their positive conjugate (i.e., -30° is the same as 150°). Angles are measured counterclockwise
 160 from 0° (east) to 180° (west) throughout this manuscript, as illustrated in Figure 2d.

161 We described the orientations of grains and melt pockets using an orientation distribution
 162 function (ODF) visualized as rose diagrams, normalized such that the longest axis is 1 and the
 163 shortest axis is reported as a percentage relative to the longest axis, as illustrated in Figure 3.

164 The strength of the preferred orientation is quantified by its bulk aspect ratio, b/a , a
 165 comparison of the longest, a , and the shortest, b , projections of all the analyzed melt pockets.
 166 The ratio is defined from 0 to 1, such that a b/a ratio close to 1 indicates that little difference
 167 exists between the shortest and longest axes and that the shape is close to isotropic. In contrast, a
 168 smaller value of b/a indicates a stronger preferred orientation. We also calculated the size of
 169 segmented objects as an equivalent area circle with diameter d_{equ} . Because both melt pocket size
 170 and grain size distributions frequently follow a log-normal distribution, we report the mode of
 171 the log-normal probability distribution as the most common size for melt pockets or grains in
 172 each sample.

173 We analyzed the orientation of a sample-scale melt network with the autocorrelation
 174 function (ACF; Heilbronner and Barrett, 2014, Chapter 20). The autocorrelation function
 175 quantifies the orientation and spatial frequency of the patterns in an image without the

176 segmentation of individual features. For a given feature defined by the gray value function
177 $G(x,y)$ at coordinates (x, y) , reoccurring at a displacement (x', y') , the ACF is defined as the
178 convolution of $G(x,y)$ with itself such that

179

$$180 \quad G(x,y) * G(x,y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(x',y') \cdot G(x + x',y + y') dx'dy' \quad . \quad (3)$$

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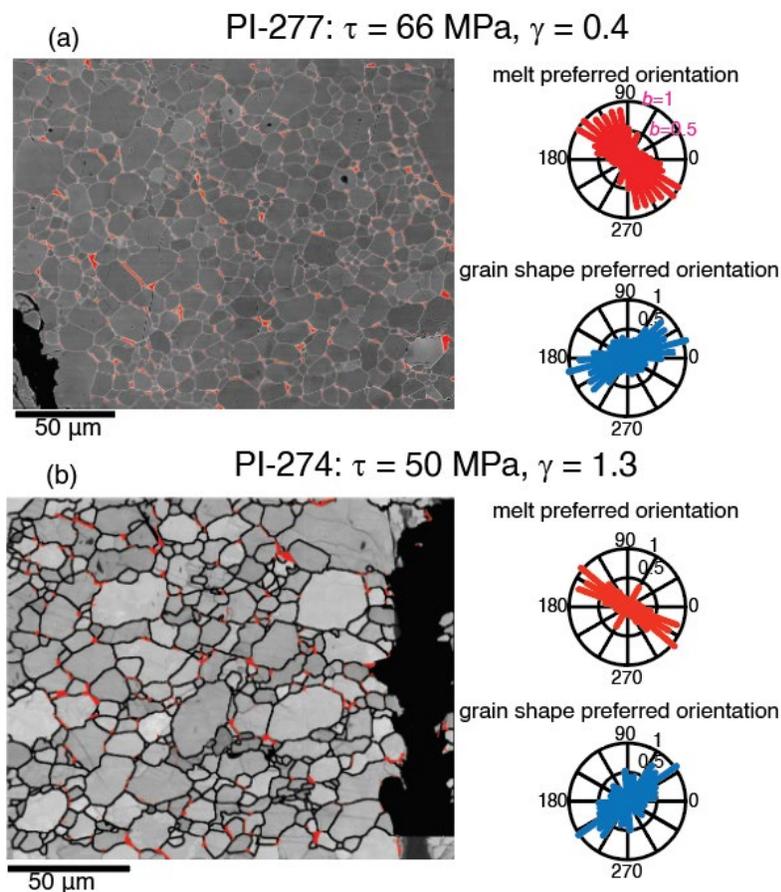
182 The output of the ACF shows the orientation of features, as well as the length scale over
183 which they repeat themselves. This approach is therefore well suited for analyzing large-scale,
184 fine-feature patterns.

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190 Figure 3: 2-D maps of two samples, one deformed to (a) low strain and the other to (b)

191 high strain. The grains are outlined in black and melt pockets are highlighted in red. The melt

192 and grain preferred orientations obtained from these images are represented as rose diagrams in

193 red and blue, respectively.

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2.3 Melt network image analysis

196 Melt pockets, which are 2-D sections through a 3-D melt network, were analyzed at the

197 grain scale, where individual melt pockets are well resolved in the image (typically $\sim 2000\times$

198 magnification), and at the sample scale, over which larger patterns become apparent (typically

199 $\sim 200\times$ magnification). To measure grain-scale MPO, individual pockets were traced from SEM-

200 BSE, EDS, and band-contrast images such as those in Figure 3 and Figures 4a and 4b. These

201 traced images were then converted to binary, black and white images for segmentation. Only
202 pockets above a minimum size of 10 pixels (at pixel resolutions of 0.02 – 0.4 μm) were analyzed
203 to avoid effects from poorly defined small melt pockets. We quantified the MPO and strength of
204 alignment in a sample based on two factors, orientation (α_p) and bulk aspect ratio (b/a), as
205 described above.

206 To identify larger-scale melt patterns, we used EDS composition maps of calcium, an
207 element present at sufficient concentration within the basaltic melt but not in the olivine used for
208 these experiments. We segmented these maps to create binary images of individual melt pockets,
209 which we analyzed using the ACF method over the entire sample imaged.

210

211 2.4 *Grain-shape preferred orientation and crystallographic preferred orientation analyses*

212 The shape preferred orientation was obtained from manual tracing of grains on SEM
213 maps of the 2-D slices as well as from EBSD data. We characterize the shape preferred
214 orientation of the grains in the same manner as the grain-scale MPO described above.
215 Representative data are displayed in Figure 3.

216 EBSD data were collected at two scales, analogous to the melt network analyses. A low-
217 resolution map (0.6- μm step size) covered large parts of the whole sample, and a high-resolution
218 map (0.2- μm step size) focused on the intracrystalline deformation features, highlighted in
219 Figures 4c-d. The EBSD data were analyzed using the MTEX toolbox () to characterize the 3-D
220 orientation of the crystallographic axes. The crystallographic preferred orientation is defined by
221 an ODF describing the direction of the three mutually perpendicular crystallographic axes in the
222 olivine crystals in each sample. This ODF is represented graphically as a pole figure depicting
223 multiples of uniform density (M.U.D.) in an equal-area, upper hemisphere projection, contoured
224 by areas of high and low concentrations of each of the three crystallographic axes of olivine, as
225 indicated in Figures 4e-f. We also collected the misorientations of the subgrains in the high-
226 resolution EBSD maps, defined by the difference in internal pixel orientations from the mean
227 orientation of an entire grain, which allowed us to examine internal deformation of grains.

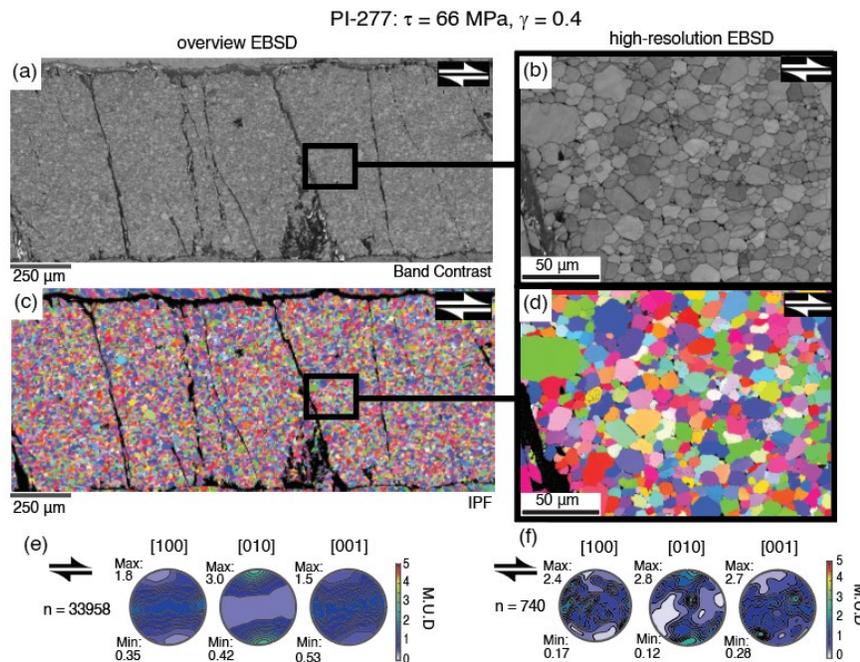
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229 2.5 *Calculation of seismic anisotropy*

230 To constrain the microstructural contributions of MPO and CPO to the generation of
231 seismic anisotropy in olivine-melt aggregates, we followed the Gassman poroelastic differential

232 effective medium method as applied in a Matlab model, GassDEM (Kim et al., 2019). This
 233 method uses the Voigt elastic tensor calculated from the CPO, then treats melt inclusions as an
 234 oriented fluid-filled crack.

235 We modeled melt pockets as penny-shaped ellipsoids, per Faul et al. (1994). The axes of
 236 these ellipsoids were defined as $1:b/a:1$, where b/a is the shortest projection length of the melt
 237 pocket normalized by the longest projection length (equivalent to the b/a reported for all MPOs),
 238 and using the orientations of our MPOs such that the azimuth of an inclusion is the angle at
 239 which b is oriented with $0^\circ = E$ and $90^\circ = N$. These orientations were rotated during input into
 240 the GassDEM interface, which takes $0^\circ = N$ and $90^\circ = W$. We took the high-frequency elastic
 241 constants of the resultant tensor calculated with 2.5 wt% melt.



242
 243 Figure 4: (a), (b) Band contrast images and (c), (d) orientation maps for sample PI-277.
 244 Pole figures are equal-area projections scaled as multiples of uniform distribution (M.U.D.). (e)
 245 Overview EBSD pole figures correspond to a larger number of crystals, while (f) high-resolution
 246 EBSD pole figures include a smaller number of crystals in greater detail, resulting in more
 247 pronounced point maxima.

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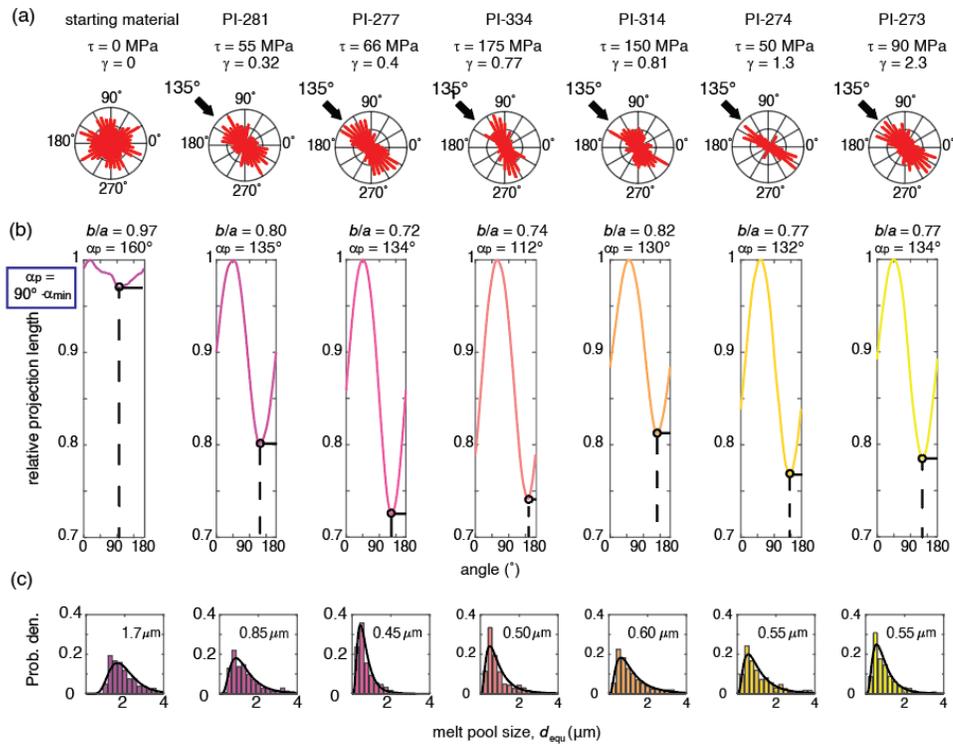
249 3. Results

250 3.1 MPO - Melt preferred orientation

251 3.1.1 Grain-scale melt alignment

252 Melt pockets reached a steady state-state orientation after a low degree of strain. The
253 orientations of all individual melt pockets (“grain-scale” MPO), which were collected for all
254 analyzed samples, are summarized in Figure 5. The melt preferred orientation in the starting
255 material is very weak, with the b/a aspect ratio of 0.97 from all aggregated individual melt
256 pockets indicating a nearly isotropic shape. The strength of the MPO increased at the onset of
257 deformation and was fully established by $\gamma \approx 0.5$, with melt pockets oriented close to the loading
258 direction at 135° . The values of α_p of these deformed samples were essentially independent of
259 strain (per linear fitting to establish a first-order relationship, $R^2 = 0.02$, $p = 0.77$) such that the
260 grain-scale MPO, once established, varied by only $\pm 5^\circ$ from parallel to the loading direction.
261 There was a moderate dependence of orientation on stress ($R^2 = 0.64$, $p = 0.06$) within the
262 studied range, with much of the variation due to the rotation of MPO in the highest stress test.
263 The strongest alignment, a b/a ratio of 0.72, formed by a strain of $\gamma = 0.4$ (Figure 5b). Once
264 established, b/a was insensitive to increasing strain ($R^2 = 0.008$, $p = 0.95$) and stress ($R^2 = 0.003$,
265 $p = 0.90$).

266 Melt pocket sizes also converged to a common value at a low strain and did not evolve
267 further with increasing strain, as demonstrated in Figure 5c. Melt pocket size in the starting
268 material was $d_{equ} \approx 2 \mu\text{m}$, while melt pocket size shrank to $d_{equ} \approx 0.9 \mu\text{m}$ by $\gamma = 0.4$ and
269 converged to $d_{equ} \approx 0.5 \mu\text{m}$ by $\gamma > 0.4$ in a manner that did not significantly depend on strain (R^2
270 $= 0.28$, $p = 0.22$) or stress ($R^2 = 0.42$, $p = 0.11$)



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3.1.2 Sample-scale melt alignment

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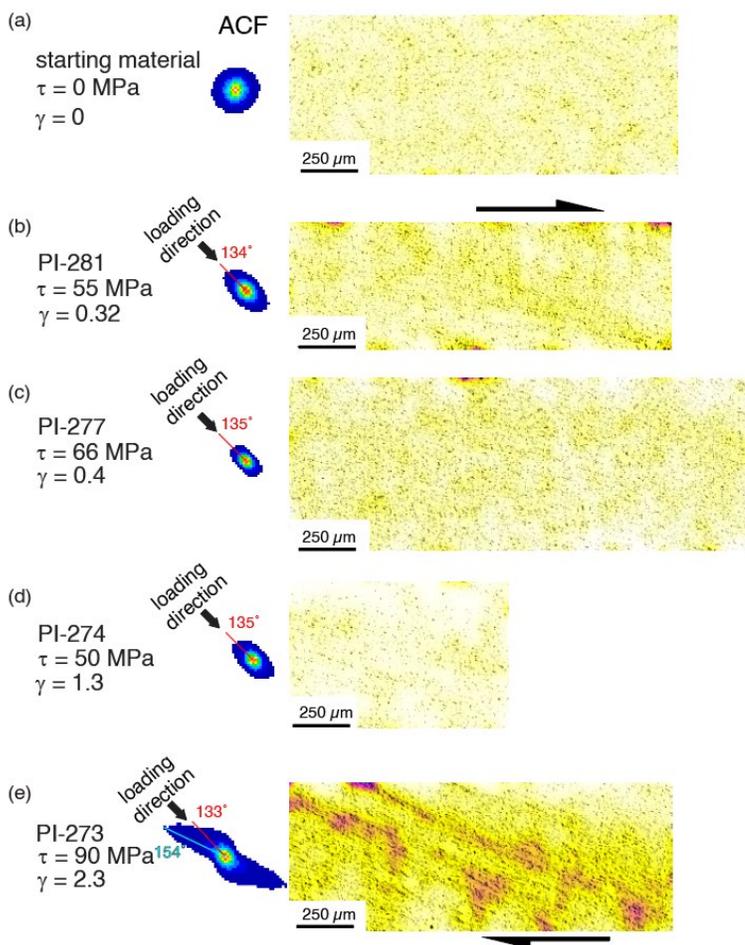
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Figure 5: Evolution of MPO as a function of strain. (a) Rose diagrams from orientation of longest axes of each individual melt pocket. (b) Projection functions based on equation (1) with minima (shortest projection axis) and the corresponding preferred orientation labeled. (c) Melt pocket size histograms with log-normal fit overlain. The mode of the distribution is labeled.

In addition to the grain-scale alignment, we observed larger patterns occurring over the spatial scale of the sample. The initial orientations and spatial distributions of all melt pockets at the “sample scale” were isotropic, as revealed by the ACF analyses of the binary images in Figure 7. At low strains, the spatial distribution of the melt remained isotropic, but the network of melt pockets developed a preferred orientation parallel to the loading direction at the sample scale, in agreement with the orientation of melt observed at the grain scale. In the samples deformed to the highest strain, melt began to segregate into relatively melt-rich and melt-poor regions, and a secondary orientation at long correlation length scales (i.e., the spatial distance over which a feature can be correlated with itself) began to form at $\sim 155^\circ$ ($\sim 20^\circ$ to the loading direction). Short-correlation length scales (i.e., those close to the origin on the ACF plot) still retained an orientation sub-parallel to the loading direction.

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290

291 Figure 6: Sample-scale melt network analyzed by the autocorrelation function (ACF).
 292 Conditions of our (a) hot-pressed starting material and (b)-(e) four deformed samples with each
 293 corresponding ACF (central column) and binary melt map contoured from low melt density, in
 294 white, to high melt density, in purple (rightmost column). The distance from the center of an
 295 ACF represents the length scale over which a feature can be correlated (i.e., closer to center of an
 296 ACF = shorter-scale feature correlation, while further away from the center of the ACF = longer-
 297 scale feature correlation).

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299 3.2 Grain shape and crystallographic preferred orientation (SPO & CPO)

300 3.2.1 SPO - Shape preferred orientation

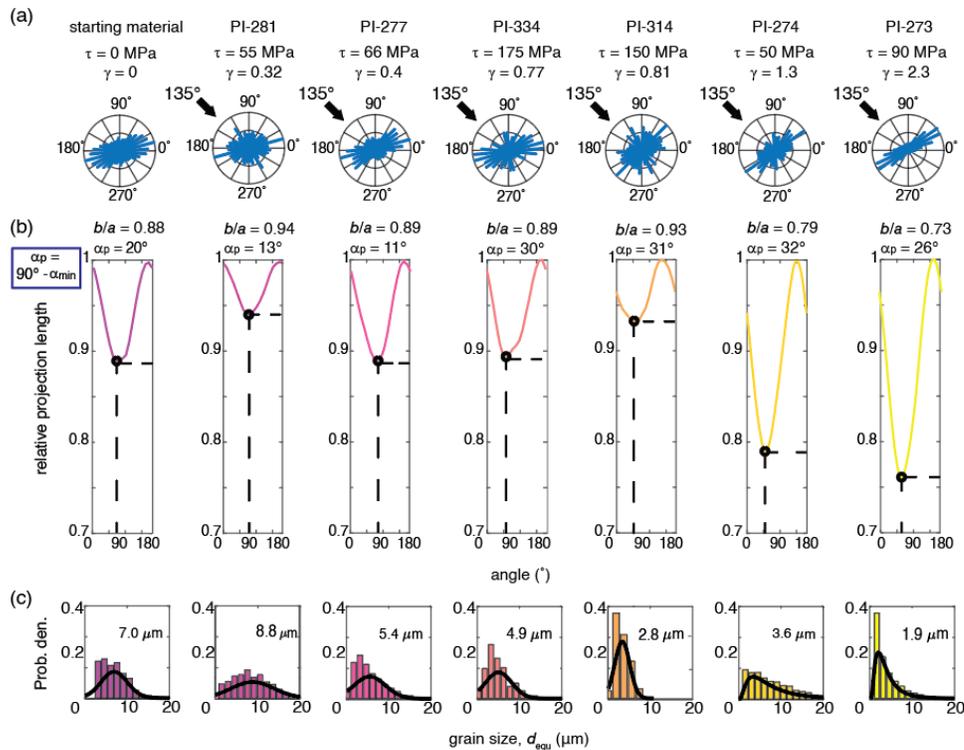
301 Grains in the deformed samples established an SPO with increasing strain, but did not
 302 reach a steady state-state orientation over the range studied here. The SPO of all grains is

303 reported in Figure 7. The long axes of grains were oriented at 10-20° from the shear plane of the
304 sample at low strains and rotated to ~30° from the shear plane for $\gamma > 0.8$.

305 There was no clear dependence of the angle of preferred orientation, α_p , on either strain
306 (per linear fitting to establish a first-order relationship, $R^2 = 0.26$, $p = 0.30$) or stress ($R^2 = 0.26$, p
307 $= 0.30$). However, the bulk grain shape aspect ratio, b/a , did depend on strain ($R^2 = 0.72$, $p =$
308 0.016), but not stress ($R^2 = 0.02$, $p = 0.76$). The aspect ratios remained close to isotropic (with a
309 minimum of 0.88 at $\gamma = 0$ and a maximum of 0.94 at $\gamma = 0.3$) for all but the sample deformed to
310 the highest strain. A stronger SPO, indicated by a b/a of 0.79, formed by $\gamma = 1.3$, as long axes of
311 the deforming grains began to align.

312 Grain size generally decreased with increasing stress ($R^2 = 0.66$, $p = 0.026$) and was less
313 sensitive to strain ($R^2 = 0.32$, $p = 0.16$). The distribution of grain sizes in the starting material
314 (Figure 7c) peaked between $d_{\text{equ}} \approx 5\text{-}10 \mu\text{m}$ after hot-pressing for 3 h. At $\gamma = 0.3$, grains exhibited
315 a normal distribution curve with a peak at $d_{\text{equ}} \approx 9 \mu\text{m}$, while all samples deformed to higher
316 strain had a log-normal distribution curve of grain sizes peaking at $d_{\text{equ}} \approx 2\text{-}4 \mu\text{m}$.

317 Grain sizes, aspect ratios, and shape fabrics wavered were roughly independent of strain
318 at low strains ($\gamma < 1.3$); at the highest strains examined here, both aspect ratios and grain sizes
319 showed a decrease. The strength of the SPO was dependent on strain, but the orientation was not
320 systematically dependent on stress or strain. SPO thus required higher strains to develop a steady
321 state state orientation and was less sensitive to the early stages of deformation than MPO.



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328 3.2.2 CPO – Crystallographic preferred orientation

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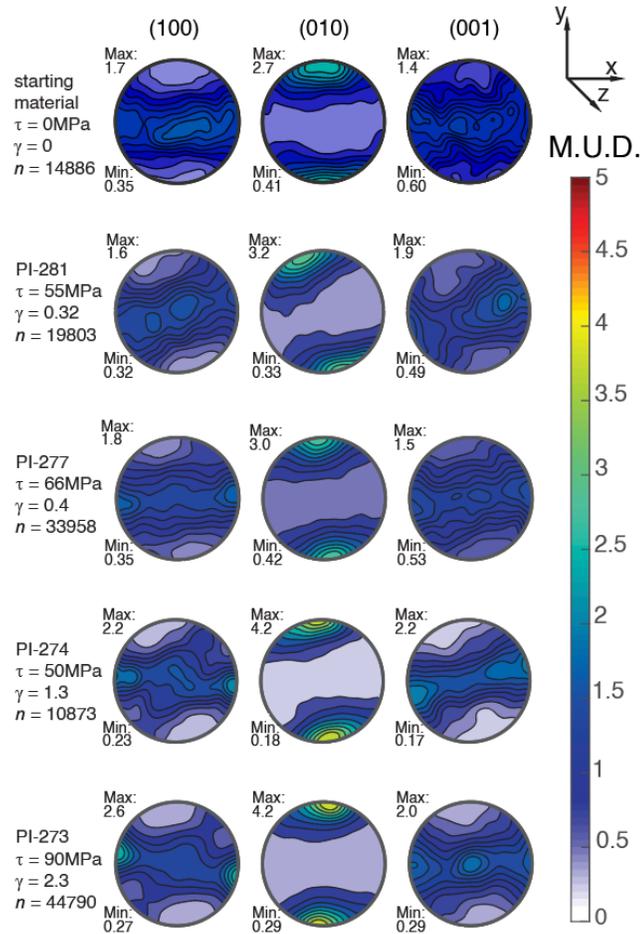
Figure 7: Grain SPO evolution as a function of strain. (a) Rose diagrams from orientation of longest axes of individual grains. (b) Projection functions based on equation (1) with minima (shortest projection axis) and the corresponding preferred orientation labeled. (c) Grain size distribution with normal or log-normal fit overlain. The mode of the distribution is labeled.

The CPOs of deformed samples in Figure 8 evolved with increasing strain. The CPO was well-developed in the starting material with [010] axes aligned perpendicular to the shear plane of the sample and the [100] and [001] axes in weak girdles in the shear plane. As strain increased, alignment of the [010] axes increased in strength, while the [100] and [001] axes remained girdled. At low strains, the orientations rotated antithetically away from the shear plane, such that the [010] axes were 90-115° from the shear plane and the [100] and [001] axes girdled within 5° of the shear plane. At the highest strain reached in our experiments, $\gamma = 2.3$, the [100] axes began to cluster in the shear direction, while the [001] axes began to cluster in the center of the pole figure. A secondary maximum orientation of the [100] axes developed roughly perpendicular to the loading direction.

339 The density and misorientation of subgrains increased as strain increased, and the effect
340 of increasing strain on intracrystalline structure is illustrated in Figure 9. As seen in Figure 9a,
341 the subgrain density was low and misorientation angles were small ($<10^\circ$) within subgrains in
342 the starting material, while subgrains with relatively high misorientations ($>10^\circ$) were present in
343 nearly every grain in the sample deformed to $\gamma = 2.3$. Inverse pole figures of the misorientations
344 in Figure 9 demonstrate that, with increasing strain, rotation around the [001] axis became
345 increasingly common. The development of a subordinate maximum also suggests rotation around
346 the [010] axis.

347 Similar to SPOs, CPOs did not change significantly in the early stages of deformation
348 (Figure 8). The orientations of the crystallographic axes shifted only slightly, as the [010] planes
349 first rotated antithetically to the shearing direction and then rotated into the shear plane. At
350 strains of $\gamma = 1.3 - 2.3$, the [010] planes were rotated slightly synthetic to the imposed shear
351 direction. The strength of the CPO generally increased as strain increased.

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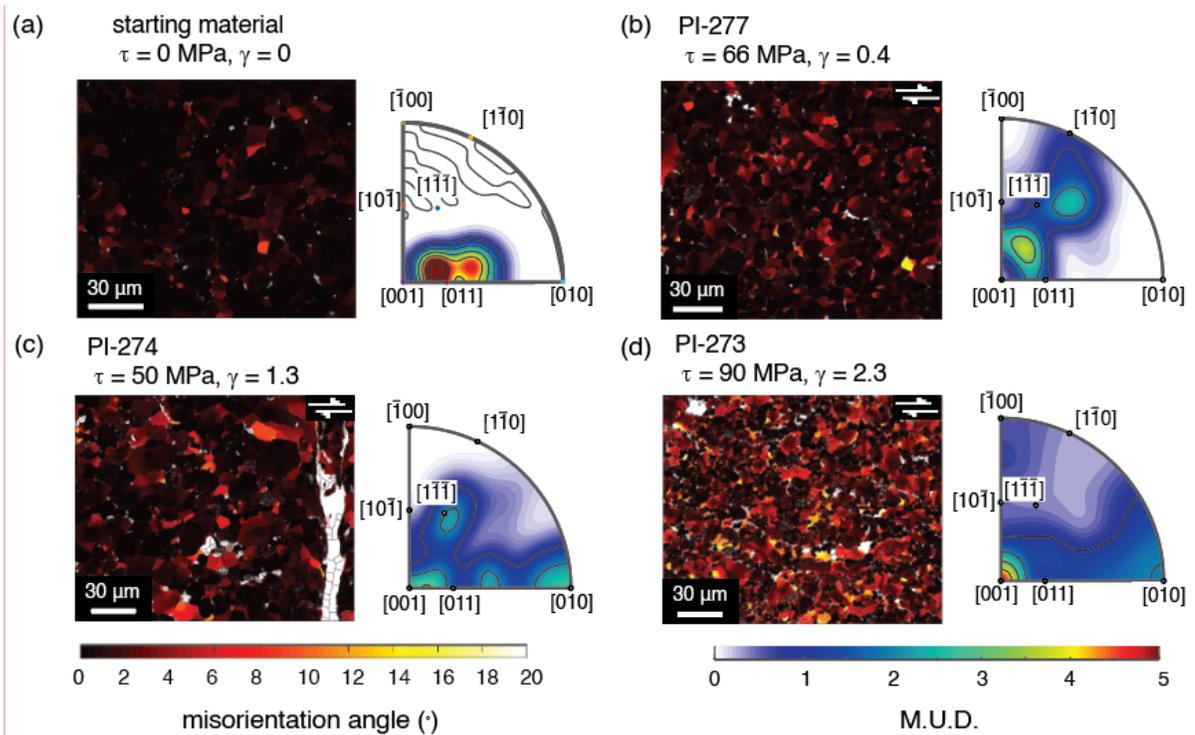
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Figure 8: CPO evolution with increasing strain. Minima and maxima are reported as multiples of uniform distribution, M.U.D.; n is the number of grains surveyed in each map.

358



359

360 Figure 9: Misorientation maps and inverse pole figures of misorientation axes in the
 361 crystallographic reference frame from (a) the starting material, (b) a sample sheared to low
 362 strain, and (c)-(d) two samples deformed to high strain. All images are at the same scale.

363

364 3.3 Calculation of seismic anisotropy

365 We calculated seismic properties for each of our partially molten rocks, characterized in
 366 Figure 10 as the distribution of P wavespeed (V_p), the distribution of the normalized difference
 367 between the fast and slow S wavespeeds (V_{S1} and V_{S2}), and the magnitude and polarization of
 368 V_{S1} . We used three measures of seismic anisotropy, indicated as percentages within each tensor:

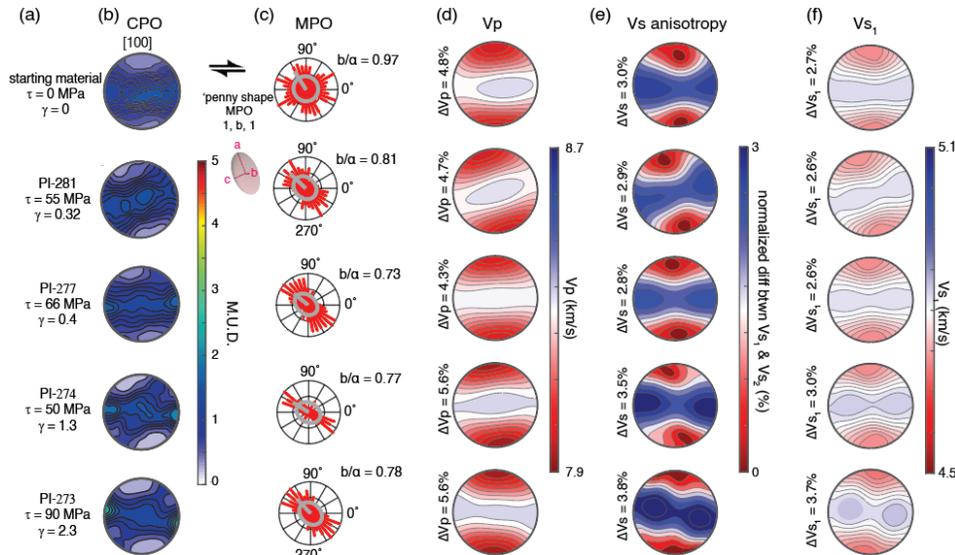
369 1) The normalized difference between the largest and the smallest values of P wavespeed

370 (V_p), expressed in percent, calculated as $AV_p = 200 \frac{(V_{Pmax} - V_{Pmin})}{(V_{Pmax} + V_{Pmin})}$,

371 2) the % difference in fast (V_{S1}) and slow (V_{S2}) S waves, calculated as the greatest
 372 difference between V_{S1} and V_{S2} within the tensor, and $AV_s = 200 \frac{(V_{S1} - V_{S2})}{(V_{S1} + V_{S2})}$ for every point in
 373 the tensor, with the maximum AV_s reported;

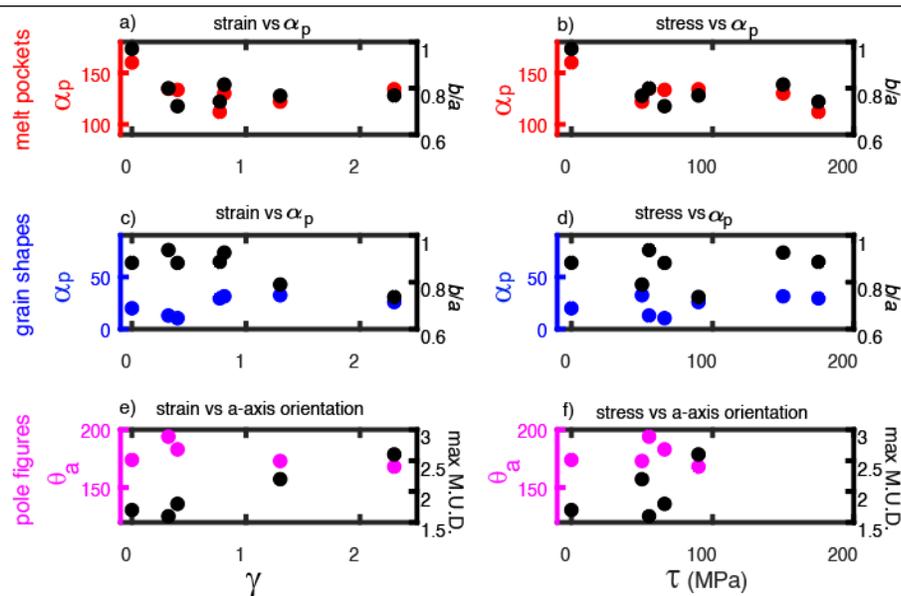
374 3) the normalized difference between the largest and the smallest values of V_{S1} ,
 375 calculated as $AV_{S1} = 200 \frac{(V_{S1\max} - V_{S1\min})}{(V_{S1\max} + V_{S1\min})}$.

376 The seismic anisotropy calculated in our deformed samples evolved over the studied
 377 strain intervals. Over a small increment of strain, the calculated values for the three indicators of
 378 the seismic anisotropy decreased. However, for samples deformed to $\gamma \gtrsim 1$, the calculated values
 379 of seismic anisotropy increased with increasing strain. This behavior parallels the development
 380 of MPOs and CPOs with increasing strain. At low strains, the CPO was weak, and the MPO was
 381 oriented antithetic to the shearing direction and parallel to the loading direction. The melt
 382 orientation was oblique to the orientation of the crystallographic axes, which were aligned in a
 383 girdle parallel to the shear plane. The anisotropy determined for our lower strain tests reflects a
 384 competition between MPO and CPO. As a result, inclusion of melt decreased the CPO-generated
 385 anisotropy with respect to a theoretical melt-free sample based on the same CPO. As strain
 386 increased, the strength and direction of the preferred orientation of the melt network did not
 387 change, but the CPO became stronger and the [100] axes became more aligned parallel to the
 388 shear plane. At higher strains, the seismic anisotropy of V_p , V_s , and V_{S1} all steadily increased.
 389 As the MPO remained at a steady state strength and orientation at these strains, this increase is
 390 due to the effect of CPO strengthening.



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Figure 10. Calculated seismic anisotropy from our CPO and MPO data. (a) Individual experiment numbers and associated conditions, (b) a-axis orientation pole figures, and (c) MPO visualized in rose diagrams. The mean melt inclusion shape and orientation is represented as a gray ellipsoid superimposed on the rose diagrams. (d) V_p , (e) V_s anisotropy (normalized difference between orthogonally polarized V_{s1} and V_{s2}), and (f) V_{s1} magnitude and polarization.



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Figure 11. Summary of microstructural data. (a) Preferred orientation of melt pockets (from $0^\circ = E$) as a function of strain. (b) Preferred orientation of melt pockets as a

402 function of stress. (c) Preferred orientation of grain shapes as a function of strain. (d)
403 Preferred orientation of grain shapes as a function of stress. In (a – d), Preferred
404 orientation is reported as α_p , and the strength of the preferred orientation is indicated by
405 the aspect ratio b/a of the fabric. (e) Orientation of the girdle formed by olivine [100] axes
406 (θ_a) as a function of strain. (f) Orientation of the girdle formed by olivine [100] axes (θ_a)
407 as a function of stress. In (e-f), the strength of the preferred orientation is reported as peak
408 multiples of uniform distribution, such that a higher M.U.D. represents a higher
409 concentration of axes aligned at this orientation. Note that CPO data are not available for
410 the two tests carried out at the highest stresses.

411

412 **4. Discussion**

413 *4.1 MPO formation on the grain scale and on the sample scale*

414 Our results demonstrate that MPO evolves much more quickly in response to shear
415 deformation than either SPO or CPO of the solid grains, as summarized in Figure 11. A clear
416 grain-scale MPO is evident in our lowest-strain sample deformed to $\gamma = 0.32$; however, a change
417 in CPO and SPO is not apparent until $\gamma > 1$.

418 Previous examination of some of the samples used in this study with lower resolution
419 optical images (tests PI-277, PI-281, PI-274, and PI-273, as reported in Zimmerman et al., 1999),
420 led to the conclusion that the MPO is inclined at $\sim 160^\circ$ to the shear plane, antithetic to the shear
421 direction (i.e., at $\sim 25^\circ$ to the loading direction). Likewise, analyses of low-resolution optical
422 images of samples deformed in coaxial compression indicated that the MPO also formed at an
423 angle of $\sim 20^\circ$ to the loading direction (Daines & Kohlstedt, 1997; Kohlstedt & Zimmerman,
424 1996; Zimmerman et al., 1999).

425 In contrast, our high-resolution SEM data demonstrate that the grain-scale melt pockets
426 in these samples are aligned parallel to the loading direction. The MPO alignment in our tests is
427 in agreement with observations on an analog material (Takei, 2005) and is consistent with the
428 MPO needed to produce melt rich “bands” inclined $160 - 165^\circ$ to the shear plane on the sample
429 scale within the framework of two-phase flow theory with viscous anisotropy (Katz & Takei,
430 2013; Takei & Holtzman, 2009c, 2009b, 2009a; Takei & Katz, 2013; Taylor-West & Katz,
431 2015). Local variations in melt network orientation do exist, as seen in Figure 6; the orientation
432 of larger melt pockets, perhaps as an aggregation of several smaller pockets, can produce local

433 sub-maxima in orientation close to 155° in higher-strain samples in which incipient melt
434 segregation is observed.

435 The scale of observation and the method of analysis (projection-based and
436 autocorrelation-based methods vs. ellipse-fitting methods) may influence estimates of melt
437 orientation. We propose that individual melt pockets at the grain scale align subparallel to the
438 loading direction, while aggregated melt pockets on the sample scale form an en echelon pattern
439 aligned at a lower angle with respect to the loading direction (Figure 6). This observation
440 explains the discrepancy between experimentally obtained values of $155\text{-}165^\circ$ for melt
441 orientation and model assumptions of sub-parallel orientation with respect to applied maximum
442 principal stress: both are correct, just at different observation scales.

443 Only our highest-strain sample developed incipient bands, similar to those in other
444 experimentally sheared samples with a short compaction length that required strains of $\gamma \geq 1$ for
445 bands to form (King et al., 2010; Kohlstedt & Holtzman, 2009). The emergence of these bands
446 may then be the result of viscous anisotropy induced by grain-scale alignment of melt and
447 decreasing compaction length as grains recrystallize to a smaller grain size, documented in
448 Figure 7c. These observations again agree with predictions from the viscous anisotropy theory
449 framework and the experiments designed to test this theory (Katz & Takei, 2013; Qi et al., 2015;
450 Quintanilla-Terminel et al., 2019; Takei & Holtzman, 2009c)

451

452 *4.2 Stress state in general shear experiments*

453 We observed that, in response to an applied stress, individual melt pockets relatively
454 quickly established a preferred orientation, which remained essentially constant with increasing
455 strain. The preferred orientation for the individual melt pockets formed parallel to the loading
456 direction, which is often assumed to coincide with the maximum principal stress (σ_1).

457 However, as general shear experiments include an element of thinning, it is possible that
458 the σ_1 direction may not be aligned with the loading direction. Since stress state is not directly
459 observed during our high-pressure experiments, we used strain as a proxy for understanding the
460 contribution of thinning within the imposed stress field. This thinning provides insight into the
461 relationship between the orientation of the effective σ_1 and that of the loading direction. If all the
462 deformation were simple shear, σ_1 would remain oriented at 135° , parallel to the applied load.

463 As the contribution from pure shear increases, the maximum principal compressive stress would

464 rotate away from the loading direction. We quantified the imposed finite strain geometry by
465 measuring the sample thickness before and after deformation and calculating the kinematic
466 vorticity number (W_k), which quantifies the degree of pure ($W_k \approx 0$) vs. simple ($W_k \approx 1$) shear
467 during deformation (Fossen & Tikoff, 1993; Passchier, 1987). In our highest-stress test, $W_k =$
468 0.92; for all other experiments, W_k was >0.96 (see Table 1), indicating that the strain was close
469 to simple shear. Throughout this paper, we have presented examples mostly from low-strain
470 experiment PI-277 ($\gamma = 0.4$, $W_k = 0.99$) and high-strain experiment PI-273 ($\gamma = 2.3$, $W_k = 0.98$),
471 both of which deformed primarily by simple shear. Additionally, the calculation of the W_k
472 assumes that thinning is consistent throughout deformation. Based on examination of samples
473 annealed at high temperature and pressure but not deformed (e.g., starting material), most
474 thinning occurs during the annealing and pressurization stage of experimental setup, and does not
475 co-occur with shear deformation. The W_k values therefore represent the lowest possible degree
476 of simple shear, and the deformation experienced by the samples is probably closer to 100%
477 simple shear (and thus, nearly no rotation of the σ_1 should occur). This result indicates that the σ_1
478 orientation is indeed close to the loading direction, at 135° , consistent with the MPO.

479 Small-scale variations in MPO do occur, which may be related to the degree of pure vs
480 simple shear in our experiments. The kinematic vorticity number, W_k was lowest in our highest-
481 stress test, indicating that this sample experienced a higher degree of pure shear than all others.
482 In this high-stress test, the MPO rotated $\sim 20^\circ$ from the loading direction (synthetic to the sense
483 of shear). A similar misalignment between loading direction and σ_1 was observed in $\text{qtz} +$
484 feldspar samples deformed in general shear with a substantial thinning component; in these
485 experiments, the stress orientation could be inferred via the development of Dauphiné twins in
486 quartz (Pec & Al Nasser, 2021). Based on our observations, we propose that the grain-scale
487 orientation of melt pockets can be used as an effective proxy for the orientation of the maximum
488 principal stress.

489

490 *4.3 Grain SPO and CPO formation*

491 SPO and CPO evolve over higher strain intervals than MPO. Grains in the starting
492 material had a SPO and a CPO that developed during hot pressing of the starting material.
493 Individual olivine grains tend to be elongated along the [100] and [001] axes with the longest
494 straight grain boundaries lying in the [010] plane (Miyazaki et al., 2013; Qi et al., 2018). Axial

495 compression of these elongated crystals aligns the long axes of the SPO in a girdle perpendicular
496 to the loading direction. This process results in a SPO-induced CPO, characterized by girdles in
497 [100] and [001] axes oriented perpendicular to the loading direction and clusters in poles of
498 [010] planes parallel to the loading direction, as seen in Figure 8.

499 The strength of CPO alignment increased visibly with increasing strain for $\gamma > 1$,
500 consistent with numerical models (Boneh et al., 2015) and other experimental results (Boneh &
501 Skemer, 2014; Hansen et al., 2014; Qi et al., 2018). Although the alignment strength increased,
502 the evolution of grain size and shape fabric still did not depend systematically on strain or stress
503 at low strains. The pole figure geometry also did not change significantly until a strain of $\gamma > 2$.

504 The CPO of the deformed samples is commonly observed in sheared aggregates of melt-
505 bearing olivine. This CPO may develop if grains preferentially grow along the [001] direction
506 and then align under the imposed kinematic boundary conditions; the relative fabric strength thus
507 reflects competition between SPO-induced and dislocation-induced CPOs (Qi et al., 2018).
508 Misorientation axes (Figure 9) also dominantly aligned with [001] with a subordinate maxima
509 around [010], indicating that (010)[100] is the dominant slip system in our rocks, given that the
510 subgrain walls have a tilt character (Prior et al., 2002).

511 The CPOs of our higher strain samples are similar to that of an A-type fabric, indicative
512 of the easy slip system (010)[100] accommodating deformation in the shear plane (Karato et al.,
513 2008; Zhang & Karato, 1995). The CPO-generating mechanisms (SPO-induced CPO and
514 dislocation-induced CPO) are likely competing at low strains; at higher strains, the more
515 prominent cluster in [100] axes alignment in the shear direction, together with large intragranular
516 misorientations, indicate that dislocation glide is dominant in formation of the CPO.

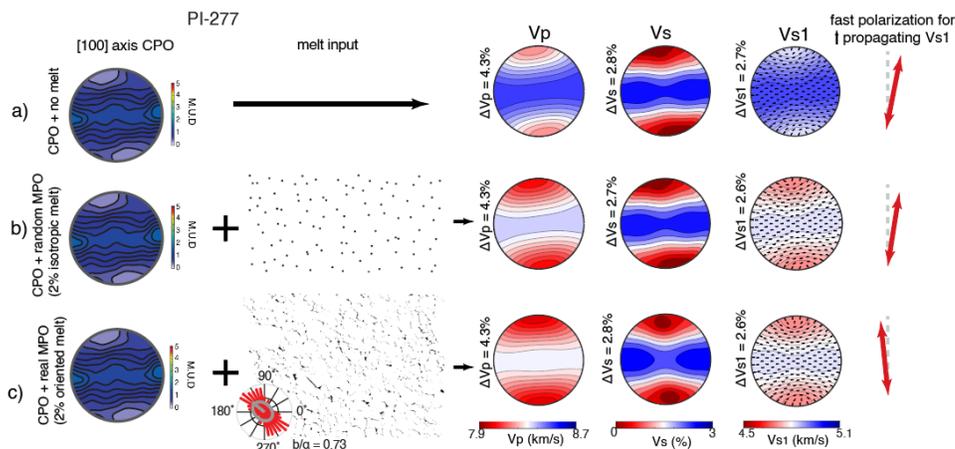
517 In the highest strain experiments, a secondary cluster in [100] axes orientations forms.
518 This secondary maximum, though relatively common in A-type fabrics, is not well understood.
519 Although Zhang et al. (2000) explained this secondary maximum as a signature of non-
520 recrystallized grains in a matrix otherwise undergoing dynamic recrystallization, the grains with
521 this orientation in our sample do not have substantially different misorientations from the bulk
522 sample. They do, however, have a flatter and weaker SPO than all other grains in the sample.

523

524 *4.4 Contributions to seismic anisotropy*

525 The CPO alignment strengthens, but remains relatively static in orientation angle in
 526 samples sheared to strains of $\gamma \lesssim 2.5$. In contrast, the grain-scale melt network develops a
 527 distinct preferred orientation over a very small strain interval, and the strength and angle of this
 528 orientation persists with increasing strain. The strength of the melt alignment saturates at low
 529 strains and does not increase with increasing strain or stress, as can be observed in Figure 5.

530 It follows that at early strain increments of deformation within the Earth, changes in the
 531 orientation of the melt network will cause changes in seismic anisotropy. The CPO, which
 532 evolves more slowly than MPO, will not contribute significantly to the seismic anisotropy until
 533 larger strains are reached. Previous studies of seismic anisotropy caused by an aligned melt
 534 network in a rock with an isotropic CPO determined the strength of anisotropy caused purely by
 535 melt orientation (Lee et al., 2017). In a series of calculations with the GassDEM model that
 536 covered a range of hypothetical MPOs and crystalline fabrics, we found that the interplay of
 537 MPO and CPO is crucial to modeling actual seismic anisotropy. As an example, we present
 538 theoretical seismic properties for deformed sample PI-277 in Figure 12.



539 Figure 12: Seismic properties for deformed sample PI-277 using (a) the CPO alone, (b)
 540 the CPO and isotropic melt (idealized as circular melt inclusions), and (c) the CPO and aligned
 541 melt to create the elastic tensors. P wavespeeds (V_p), V_s anisotropy, and fast S-wave speeds
 542 (V_{s1}) are shown in each case, along with the fast polarization direction for the V_{s1} wave
 543 traveling vertically through the sample.
 544

545
 546 The addition of isotropic (equiaxial) melt pockets reduces seismic velocities and CPO-
 547 induced anisotropies but does not interact with the CPO-generated anisotropy (as in Figure 12b),
 548 and so its effect is less pronounced than that of oriented melt (Figure 12c). The presence of

549 aligned melt alone reduced seismic wavespeeds and influenced seismic anisotropies (Figure
550 12c), but the relative alignment of the MPO and CPO determined the extent and magnitude of
551 this change. The [100] axes of olivine and the angle of the MPO each indicate a likely fast
552 direction, so seismic anisotropy is highest if the [100] axes and the MPO are in a similar
553 orientation. Seismic velocities and anisotropies both decrease at the onset of deformation caused
554 by a change in stress; when the stress changes and a MPO forms or reforms, the new fast
555 direction induced by the MPO competes with the steady state state [100] alignment. However,
556 calculated seismic anisotropy increases above $\gamma \approx 0.8$, as the CPO strengthens and the MPO
557 remains unchanged (Figures 10 and 11). The magnitude of this effect depends on melt fraction as
558 well, as the effect of co-aligned MPO and CPO increases with increasing melt fraction.
559 Anisotropy in P wavespeed (V_p), relative travel times of V_s , and V_{S1} all followed the trend
560 described here, with V_{S1} anisotropy being particularly sensitive to the effect of melt fraction.

561 The polarization of a vertically propagating S-wave (not necessarily a vertically *polarized*
562 S-wave; here, we use V_{S1} rather than V_{SH} or V_{SV}) is also particularly sensitive to the orientation
563 of melt: the addition of isotropic melt does not change this polarization direction, but the
564 orientation of the same degree of melt can rotate the fast direction by over 15° . Studies of CPO
565 within the Earth, which invoke vertically propagating waves to explain seismic anisotropy thus
566 may significantly mispredict the orientation of olivine axes.

567

568 *4.5 Application to natural settings*

569 Measurements of seismic anisotropy in the Earth's lithosphere are traditionally
570 understood to result from CPOs, such that seismologists can use anisotropy measurements to
571 infer the direction of flow in the mantle (Long & Becker, 2010). However, this approach does
572 not sufficiently account for the presence and orientation of melt (Holtzman and Kendall, 2010;
573 Mainprice, 1997).

574 Our results demonstrate that CPOs and MPOs evolve over distinct characteristic timescales,
575 complicating the interpretation of observed seismic anisotropy in terms of oriented mantle flow.
576 Natural strain rates are much slower than laboratory experiments, and the process of overprinting
577 extant CPOs during deformation likely involves a long transient interval (Boneh et al., 2015).
578 MPOs, however, require very small strain intervals to change, so the MPOs forming due to
579 changing stress will compete with established, steady state-state CPOs.

580 As such, abrupt changes to local stress field, such as those caused for example by an
581 earthquake or volcanic eruption, would only be visible in short-term perturbations to seismic
582 anisotropy as a result of readjustment of the orientation of the melt network. The almost
583 instantaneous development of MPO in response to an applied differential stress also means that
584 MPO is a more reliable indicator of instantaneous changes in stress than the CPO. This behavior
585 of melt may be useful for observing results of stress changes within the Earth or for
586 understanding melt distribution in rapidly evolving planetary settings dominated by orbital tidal
587 stresses.

588 We can look to seismic studies of the Earth's crust for confirmation. Some crustal
589 seismic anisotropy is thought to result from the orientation of magmatic intrusions (Frothingham
590 et al., 2023; Hammond, 2014) and fluid-filled microcracks (Crampin, 1987; Crampin &
591 Zatsepin, 1997; Elkibbi et al., 2005) that form parallel to the local maximum compressive stress
592 (Gerst & Savage, 2004; Johnson, 2015). Within geophysically observable timescales, microscale
593 crystallographic orientation is considered to be relatively static. Volcanically active crustal
594 regions undergo short-term changes to magnitude and orientation of shear wave anisotropy
595 during episodes of melt infiltration (Araragi et al., 2015; Illsley-Kemp et al., 2018; Johnson et
596 al., 2015), allowing researchers to track the local stress and deformation fields using anisotropy
597 measurements as a tracer for movement of melt.

598 Treating a small amount of melt as an oriented inclusion with distinct poroelastic
599 properties is a tested approach to interpreting seismic anisotropy in rapidly deforming regions.
600 Our results indicate possible similarities in the seismic signatures of the melt-intruded crust and
601 partially molten mantle, suggesting that tomographic techniques used to infer near-surface stress
602 and deformation could be applied to signals from deeper in the Earth. Studies of fast-deforming
603 zones in Eastern Africa have previously inferred that melt alignment contributes noticeably to
604 seismic anisotropy in the shallow upper mantle (Bastow et al., 2010; Chambers et al., 2021;
605 Hammond, 2014; Kendall et al., 2005), and this framework may also be applicable to evolving
606 seismic anisotropy in subduction zones and mid-ocean ridges.

607

608

609 **5. Conclusions**

610 As a partially molten olivine-basalt aggregate deforms,

- 611 • Grain-scale melt alignment forms parallel to the loading direction at relatively
612 low strain ($0 < \gamma < 0.3$) and persists to the highest strains studied here. Strain does
613 not affect the orientation or strength of this grain-scale melt alignment above this
614 interval.
- 615 • A *grain-scale* melt preferred orientation forms parallel to the inferred local
616 maximum compressive principal stress (σ_1), which may rotate away from the
617 applied σ_1 with increasing shear stress or thinning.
- 618 • A distinct *sample-scale* melt preferred orientation forms at 155° (20° oblique to
619 the loading direction) at higher strain due to an echelon arrangement of grain-
620 scale melt pockets and incipient melt segregation.
- 621 • The CPO that developed during hot pressing does not change significantly in
622 orientation during subsequent deformation. However, the strength of the CPO
623 increases steadily with increasing strain.
- 624 • The relatively weak SPO produced during hot-pressing randomized at low to
625 intermediate strains $0.3 < \gamma < 1.3$, and grains develop a moderately strong SPO
626 oriented at $\sim 30^\circ$ to the shear plane at high strains ($\gamma > 1.3$).
- 627 • A MPO is established more quickly in response to changes in the stress field than
628 is a CPO or SPO.
- 629 • Once established grain-scale MPO does not change with increasing strain, but the
630 sample-scale melt network coalesces into bands with a distinct orientation. At
631 higher strains, the dislocation-induced CPO strengthens and contributes more to
632 seismic anisotropy than does the MPO.
- 633 • Immediately after a change in stress field, seismic anisotropy will be more
634 affected by changes to the MPO than by changes to the CPO. At small strains or
635 over short observable timescales, the MPO thus provides insight into the
636 orientation of the stress field in quickly deforming regions of the Earth's upper
637 mantle in ways that CPO-induced anisotropy cannot.

638

639 Acknowledgments:

640 We thank Benjamin Holtzman for commentary and discussion in earlier stages of this project,
641 Rüdiger Kilian for support with MTEX, Fabrice Barou for providing EBSD maps, and David

642 Mainprice for connecting us with Eunyoung Kim who provided support with GassDEM. This
643 work benefited strongly from the suggestions of Richard Katz and an anonymous reviewer. We
644 thank Hamed O’Ghaffari for developing COMSOL models to study the stress orientations in the
645 experiments. This work was supported by NSF-EAR 1753482 and NASA-SSW-
646 80NSSC20K0465, with laboratory technician support funded by NSF-EAR 2054414. C.S. also
647 received support from the MIT MathWorks Science Fellowship.
648

649 Data availability:

650 Melt maps, EBSD, and analyzed bulk MPO/SPO data are available at
651 10.5281/zenodo.7647271 (Seltzer, 2023).
652

653

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