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1	The transition zone as a host for recycled volatiles: evidence from nitrogen
2	and carbon isotopes in ultra-deep diamonds from Monastery and
3	Jagersfontein (South Africa)
4	
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12	
13	Abstract
14	Sublithospheric (ultra-deep) diamonds provide a unique window into the deepest parts of
15	Earth's mantle, which otherwise remain inaccessible. Here, we report the first combined C- and
16	N- isotopic data for diamonds from the Monastery and Jagersfontein kimberlites that sample the
17	deep asthenosphere and transition zone beneath the Kaapvaal Craton, in the mid Cretaceous, to
18	investigate the nature of mantle fluids at these depths and the constraints they provide on the deep
19	volatile cycle.
20	Both diamond suites exhibit very light $\delta^{13}C$ values (down to -26‰) and heavy $\delta^{15}N$ (up to
21	+10.3‰), with nitrogen abundances generally below 70 at.ppm but varying up to very high
22	concentrations (2520 at.ppm) in rare cases. Combined, these signatures are consistent with
23	derivation from subducted crustal materials. Both suites exhibit variable nitrogen aggregation

states from 25 to 100 % B defects. Internal growth structures, revealed in cathodoluminescence

(CL) images, vary from faintly layered, through distinct cores to concentric growth patterns with
intermittent evidence for dissolution and regular octahedral growth layers in places.

Modelling the internal co-variations in δ^{13} C- δ^{15} N-N revealed that diamonds grew from 27 28 diverse C-H-O-N fluids involving both oxidised and reduced carbon species. The diversity of the 29 modelled diamond-forming fluids highlights the complexity of the volatile sources and the likely 30 heterogeneity of the deep asthenosphere and transition zone. We propose that the Monastery and 31 Jagersfontein diamonds form in subducted slabs, where carbon is converted into either oxidised 32 or reduced species during fluid-aided dissolution of subducted carbon before being re-33 precipitated as diamond. The common occurrence of recycled C and N isotopic signatures in 34 super-deep diamonds world-wide indicates that a significant amount of carbon and nitrogen is 35 recycled back to the deep asthenosphere and transition zone via subducting slabs, and that the 36 transition zone may be dominated by recycled C and N.

37

38 Keywords

39 Monastery and Jagersfontein diamonds, ultra-deep diamonds, transition zone, carbon and40 nitrogen, subduction, oxidised and reduced fluids.

41

42 **1. Introduction**

Exchange of volatiles such as carbon and nitrogen between the Earth's interior and the surface is key to understanding mantle-surface interactions over geological time (Dasgupta and Hirschmann, 2010, Cartigny and Marty, 2013, Barry and Hilton, 2016). Carbon and nitrogen are ubiquitous amongst Earth's volatile components and their distinct isotopic compositions in different major reservoirs make them powerful tracers of volatile recycling in the deep solid Earth (Walter et al., 2011, Cartigny and Marty, 2013, Busigny and Bebout, 2013). Numerous 49 studies provide clear evidence for recycling of crustal carbon and nitrogen into the lithospheric 50 mantle (Dasgupta et al., 2004, Halama et al., 2010, Busigny and Bebout, 2013, Mikhail et al., 51 2013, Smart et al., 2016), but little is known about the transport of C and N and their storage in 52 the deeper, sublithospheric mantle due to the scarcity of direct samples from below 250 km 53 depth. Diamond is a direct probe of this deeper segment of the Earth owing to its physical 54 robustness and chemical inertness (Stachel et al., 2002, Stachel et al., 2005, 2009; Tappert et al., 55 2005a, Bulanova et al., 2010, Walter et al., 2011, Palot et al., 2012, 2014, 2016, Harte and 56 Hudson, 2013, Kaminsky and Wirth, 2013, Burnham et al., 2015, 2016, Thomson et al., 2016a 57 and b). Mineral inclusions in diamond indicate that the majority of diamonds formed in the 58 lithospheric mantle, at depths of 150-200 km (see Stachel and Harris 2008, Shirey et al., 2013 for 59 reviews). Very rare inclusions, in so-called ultra-deep diamonds, derive from greater depths 60 within the transition zone (410-660 km) and the lower mantle (>660 km; see Stachel et al., 2005, 61 Kaminsky, 2012 and Harte and Hudson, 2013 for reviews). Diamond, therefore, represents a 62 unique opportunity to examine volatile migration within the deep asthenosphere and mantle 63 transition zone that are otherwise inaccessible for geological sampling.

64 It is now well established that the vast majority of diamonds form by metasomatic fluid 65 infiltration processes (Schrauder and Navon, 1993, Klein-BenDavid et al., 1994, Schulze et al. 66 1996, Taylor et al., 1996, Sobolev et al., 1998, Stachel et al., 2004), through redox reactions 67 involving C-H-O-N-S fluids (Haggerty, 1986). This process is best reflected by core-to-rim 68 variations of the C and N-isotopic composition within single diamonds because the progress of 69 isotopic fractionation is a function of carbon and nitrogen speciation of the fluid. Spatially 70 resolved accurate and precise in-situ analysis of both C and N isotopes in diamonds has only 71 recently become accessible by secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS; Bulanova et al., 2002, 72 Zedgenizov et al., 2014, Stern et al., 2014, Petts et al., 2016). This approach provides new constraints on the origin and nature of diamond-forming fluids. So far, only "ultra-deep" diamonds from Kankan have been investigated in this way (Palot et al., 2014). There is hence a pressing need for additional studies on ultra-deep diamonds from other localities to better understand what these special samples have to offer in constraining the nature of C and N fluxing into the Earth's transition zone and lower mantle.

78 In this study, we present the first combined C and N-isotopic data for Monastery and 79 Jagersfontein sublithospheric diamonds. We conducted infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), cathodoluminescence (CL) and in situ δ^{13} C- δ^{15} N-N analysis using SIMS on 15 ultra-deep 80 81 diamonds from these two localities. All the samples contained majoritic garnet inclusions that 82 allow their depth of origin to be constrained (Tappert et al., 2005a, b, Moore and Gurney, 1985; 83 Moore et al., 1991). For our set of Jagersfontein diamonds, Tappert et al. (2005a, 2005b) analysed bulk δ^{13} C and Ickert et al. (2015) measured the oxygen isotope composition of some of 84 85 the majorite inclusions.

86

87 **2. Sample description**

88 **2.1 Monastery**

89 The Monastery kimberlite erupted through the SE margin of the Kaapvaal Craton at ~ 90 90 Ma (Davis et al., 1980). Monastery diamonds are renowned for providing the first majoritic 91 garnet inclusions, recognized by an excess of Si over the 3 available tetrahedral sites per formula 92 unit (on the basis of 12 oxygens) (Moore and Gurney, 1985; Moore et al., 1991). Assuming 93 inclusions are syngenetic, the majorites place diamond formation within the 94 asthenosphere/transition zone at depths greater than 250 km (Moore & Gurney, 1985; Deines et 95 al., 1991; Tappert et al., 2005a, 2005b), where pyroxene dissolution in garnet becomes significant 96 (Irifune, 1987). Major and trace element analyses (Moore et al., 1991) show that these samples 97 are all eclogitic in composition. Using the majorite barometer for eclogitic compositions of
98 Wijbrans et al. (2016) which is based on Si, Na and Ca content of the inclusion, led to estimates
99 from 360 and 370 km depth for the four Monastery diamonds studied here (A4-03, B9-07, B9-15,
100 B9-17) (Table 1; Fig. 1).

Diamond samples are ~600µm to ~1.4mm fragments of the original stones. Internal
growth structures, revealed in CL (Fig. 2 and Appendix A), vary from faintly layered (A4-03, B917), through distinct core (B9-15) (Appendix A) to concentric growth patterns with intermittent
evidence for dissolution and regular octahedral growth layers in places (B9-07; Fig. 2).

105

106 **2.2 Jagersfontein**

107 The 86 Ma old Jagersfontein kimberlite also erupted through the southern margin of the 108 Kaapvaal Craton and is another kimberlite renowned for the presence of rare diamonds 109 containing majoritic garnet inclusions (Deines et al., 1991; Stachel et al., 2005). The suite of 110 majoritic garnet -bearing diamonds (11 samples) studied here was previously analysed for the major and trace element composition of their inclusions and bulk $\delta^{13}C$ of the host diamonds 111 112 (Tappert et al., 2005a, 2005b). The sample suite contains garnets with an excess of Si cations 113 ranging from 3.05 to 3.54 (Tappert et al., 2005a, 2005b). The depth of trapping of these 114 inclusions through their host diamonds is estimated to have occurred between 240 and 410 km 115 (Table 1; Fig. 1). As with the Monastery suite, all majorite inclusions in the diamonds studied 116 here belong to the eclogitic paragenesis, with <1 wt% Cr₂O₃ (Schulze, 2003), with the exception 117 of sample JF43, whose garnet composition is websteritic (i.e. transitional between the eclogitic 118 and peridotitic parageneses; Gurney et al., 1984).

All samples are < 1mm fragments of previously octahedral, dodecahedral or irregular
diamonds (Tappert et al., 2005b). Despite the loss of their original shape, cathodoluminescence

images (Fig. 2 and Appendices B1-B3) exhibit internal growth/dissolution features that help
constrain diamond structure and growth direction. Samples JF01, JF09, JF22, JF37, JF39, JF43,
JF55 and JF58 exhibit faintly layered structures, while JF42, JF44 and JF50 present concentric
growth patterns with intermittent evidence for dissolution (Appendices B1-B3).

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126

127 **3. Analytical methods**

128 Diamonds were analysed for nitrogen content and nitrogen aggregation state in the De 129 Beers Laboratory for Diamond Research at the University of Alberta, using a Thermo Nicolet 130 Nexus 470 FT-IR Spectrometer fitted with a Continuum infrared microscope. The system was 131 continuously purged with a dry nitrogen-oxygen mix. Spectra were acquired from 650-4000 cm⁻¹ in transmission mode for 200 s with a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} and an aperture size of 100 μ m. 132 133 Nitrogen concentrations and aggregation states were calculated after spectral decomposition 134 using the Excel program CAXBD97, developed by David Fisher (De Beers Technologies UK). The absorption coefficients used for the A- and B-centers at 1282cm⁻¹ were 16.5 and 79.4 135 136 at.ppm/cm (Boyd et al., 1994, 1995), respectively. Detection limits and uncertainties typically 137 range from 5 to 15 at. ppm and about 10% respectively. The uncertainty of the aggregation state 138 of nitrogen is estimated to be better than $\pm 5\%$ (2 σ).

Isotope data were determined by multicollector-secondary ion mass spectrometry (MC-SIMS, Cameca IMS 1280) at the Canadian Centre for Isotopic Microanalysis (CCIM), using methods and reference materials described by Stern et al. (2014). A tightly packed array of 16 diamonds was cast in epoxy, then ground and polished to reveal partial sections in random crystallographic orientation. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was conducted at 15 kV with a 144 Zeiss EVO MA15 equipped with a high sensitivity broadband cathodoluminescence detector 145 (ETP Semra Pty Ltd). Subsequently, the epoxy mount was trimmed to create a 5 x 5 mm block. 146 The diamond block was pressed into indium along with reference materials (RMs) S0011Cd 147 diamond and a vitreous carbon RM to form mount M1148 used for C-isotope analyses. A second 148 mount (M1192) containing the diamond block and RMs S0011Cd diamond and S0270 diamond 149 was prepared for the purpose of N-isotope analysis. Mounts were initially coated with 7 nm of 150 Au for cathodoluminescence imaging by SEM, and increased to 30 nm for SIMS analysis.

Diamonds were sputtered with a $\sim 15 \times 20 \mu m$ probe of Cs⁺ primary ions of operating at 151 152 3.0 – 5.5 nA and 20 keV. Analyses of C-isotopes was followed by N abundance measurements in 153 the same spot location, and then followed by N-isotopes from a closely-adjacent location in the 154 same CL zone. Analyses involved simultaneous detection of pairs of negative secondary ions $\binom{1^{3}C}{2^{6}} \binom{1^{4}N^{12}N}{2^{4}} \binom{1^{2}C^{12}C}{2^{7}}, \frac{2^{7}}{2^{7}} \binom{1^{5}N^{12}C}{2^{6}} \binom{1^{4}N^{12}C}{2^{7}}$ at high mass resolution to resolve 155 156 spectral interferences. C-isotope analyses utilized dual Faraday cups, N-isotopes utilized an 157 electron multiplier-Faraday combination, and N-abundances utilized both depending on 158 concentration. C-isotopic analyses of unknowns were referenced to interspersed analyses of S0011Cd diamond ($\delta^{13}C_{VPDB} = -22.58 \pm 0.10\%$) and N-isotopes referenced to S0270 diamond 159 $(\delta^{15}N_{AIR} = -0.4 \pm 0.5\%)$; Stern et al., 2014). Reported uncertainties in $\delta^{13}C_{VPDR}$ and $\delta^{15}N_{Air}$ 160 161 include those related to instrumental mass fractionation and repeatability of reference materials; 162 the absolute uncertainties in the reference materials listed above are not included. N-abundances 163 (atomic fractions, parts per million) are referenced to diamond RMs analyzed by infrared 164 spectroscopy and have an overall uncertainty of $\pm 10\%$.

165

166 **4. Results**

167

4.1 Nitrogen abundance and aggregation state by FTIR

All Monastery diamonds are of the N-bearing Type I variety, with widely varying nitrogen contents and aggregation states. Mon B9-07 is a fully aggregated Type IaB diamond with 700 at.ppm N (Fig. 3), one of the highest N-abundances recorded in ultra-deep diamonds worldwide. Mon B9-15 is also a Type IaB diamond (91%), but with nitrogen contents as low as 20 at.ppm across the sample (Fig. 3). The other two specimens, Mon B9-17 and Mon A4-03 are Type IaAB (65% of B defects) and IaB (92%) with moderate nitrogen abundances of 50 and 40 at.ppm, respectively (Fig. 3).

The Jagersfontein sublithospheric diamonds exhibit much lower N abundances, <60 at.ppm (Tappert al., 2005a), compared to the Monastery diamonds. Only six of the eleven diamonds in this suite have detectable nitrogen (Fig. 3) and they exhibit variable nitrogen aggregation states (35-100 % B defect) (Fig. 3).

179 Average mantle residence temperatures (T_{N-aggregation}) have been calculated using a second 180 order kinetic law linking the nitrogen concentration, the aggregation state of nitrogen in diamond 181 and its residence time in the mantle (Chrenko et al., 1977). We assumed a short residence time of 182 about 100 Ma (Tappert et al., 2005b) based on the occurrence of unexsolved majorite inclusions. Long-time storage and re-equilibration in the sub-continental lithospheric mantle would result in 183 184 the exsolution of the pyroxene component in the majorite inclusion (Harte and Cayzer, 2007). 185 Tappert et al. (2005) linked the genesis of these diamonds to the formation of the Cape Fold Belt 186 \sim 200 Ma ago. Diamond exhumation occurs at the time of the kimberlite emplacement (86 Ma for 187 Jagersfontein), leaving a ~100 Ma window for mantle residence. Calculated $T_{N-aggregation}$ range 188 from 1280 to 1480°C, which is systematically lower than the majorite component-derived 189 pressure and projected temperatures (T_{inclusion}) (Table 1).

191

4.2 Carbon isotopes composition and nitrogen abundances by SIMS

192 One to three profiles were analysed across each diamond in order to study the spatial 193 variation of δ^{13} C and N-abundance in individual samples (Fig. 2; Appendices A, B1-B3, C and 194 D1-D3; Tables 2 and 3).

195

4.2.1 Monastery diamonds

Monastery diamonds exhibit strongly negative δ^{13} C compositions from -14.3‰ to -18.7‰ 196 (Table 2, Appendix C). Most Monastery diamonds show only minor variability in δ^{13} C along 197 198 profiles (<2‰ internal variation), except for Mon A4-03, which varies by 3.8‰ (Table 2, 199 Appendix C). SIMS nitrogen abundances of Monastery diamonds are <70 at.ppm, except for 200 Mon B9-07, which has exceptionally high N-abundances up to 2520 at.ppm (Table 2, Appendix C). This sample exhibits a weak zonation in δ^{13} C from -15.8 to -15.0‰, with a general increase 201 of δ^{13} C values from core to rim (Fig. 4, Appendixes A and C). Nitrogen contents decrease from 202 core to rim and are negatively correlated with the δ^{13} C values (Fig. 4). Mon B9-15 is isotopically 203 homogeneous (δ^{13} C = -18.2 to -18.7‰) with Mon B9-17 being relatively so (-15.6 to -17.4) with 204 205 no obvious core to rim zonations (Appendixes A and C). Both samples have N contents < 40at.ppm with slight variation along profiles (Appendixes A and C). The δ^{13} C values of Mon A4-03 206 207 decrease from -14.3‰ (core) to -18.1‰ (rim) together with increasing N-abundance (2 to 65 208 at.ppm; Fig. 6, Appendixes A and C).

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- 210

4.2.2 Jagersfontein diamonds

The δ^{13} C values of Jagersfontein diamonds range from -15.9‰ to -25.7‰ (Table 3), which despite the vast difference in sampling scale is in close agreement with the bulk analyses of Tappert et al. (2005a, b; δ^{13} C = -17.0‰ to -24.0‰). While some of the diamonds are relatively homogeneous in δ^{13} C (JF22, JF44, JF55), others show significant (>2‰) internal 215 variations (JF01, JF09, JF37, JF39, JF42, JF43, JF50, JF58), with a maximum variation of 5.9‰ 216 (JF42) (Table 3, Appendixes D1-D3). Nitrogen concentrations also vary, although most of the 217 values are below 70 at.ppm, with a few exceptions (JF39, JF50, JF55) (Table 3). Nitrogen 218 abundances display a maximum of 308 at. ppm for JF39 (Table 3). Diamonds JF01, JF37 and JF43 present distinct core (δ^{13} C ~ -17‰, -22‰ and -23‰, respectively) and rim carbon 219 220 isotope compositions ($\sim -21\%_0$, $-20\%_0$ and $-21\%_0$, respectively) without any apparent 221 correlation with nitrogen abundances (Appendices B1, B2, C1 and C2). Diamonds JF09, JF44 and JF50 exhibit core to rim trends with increasing δ^{13} C values and decreasing N-contents (Fig. 5 222 223 and 7, Appendixes B1, B2, D1-D3). Diamond JF58 shows clear variations from inner to outer zones with a decrease of δ^{13} C together with an increase in N concentration (Fig. 6, Appendices 224 B3 and D3). All other samples exhibit either very slight or no clear δ^{13} C and N-abundance 225 226 variations along transects (Appendixes B1-B3, D1-D3).

The carbon isotopic compositions of both suites of diamonds are significantly more negative than the typical current convective mantle (Cartigny et al., 2014, their Fig. 8).

229

4.3 Nitrogen isotopes

The spatial variability in nitrogen isotope composition ($\delta^{15}N$) was determined only for the diamonds with the highest nitrogen abundances (>80 at.ppm; Mon B9-07, JF39, JF50 and JF55, Appendix Tables 2 and 3).

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4.3.1 Monastery diamonds

High nitrogen concentrations in Mon B9-07 allowed multiple analyses of δ^{15} N across this diamond (Table 1). Three detailed profiles were obtained (Appendix E). The δ^{15} N values are all positive, varying significantly in all transects from, +3.8‰ to +10.3‰ (total variation of 6.5‰). There is a negative correlation between increasing δ^{15} N and decreasing [N], which approximately corresponds to a core-rim trend (Fig. 4, Appendixes A and E). Because of the limited variations in δ^{13} C (~ 1‰), no clear trends with δ^{15} N could be determined outside of analytical uncertainty (Fig. 4). The precision of the nitrogen isotope measurements (typically < 1.5 ‰) allows us to clearly resolve that these compositions are significantly more positive than the current estimate for the convective mantle compositional range (Cartigny et al., 2014, Fig. 8).

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4.3.2 Jagersfontein diamonds

247 The low N abundances in the Jagersfontein samples made precise determination of their N 248 isotopic compositions challenging and only few determinations were performed. Four N isotope analyses were obtained on diamond JF50 (Table 3). The variations in $\delta^{15}N$ are small, with 249 250 relatively large uncertainties that are dictated by counting statistics due to the low [N] (-251 $0.8\pm2.8\%$ to $+1.1\pm3.1\%$). Nonetheless, the measurements are sufficiently precise to conclude 252 that the N isotopic compositions are slightly ¹⁵N-enriched, at the upper end of the "mantle range" (Fig. 8). Because of the limited precision and apparent variations in $\delta^{15}N$, no clear trends with [N] 253 and δ^{13} C could be determined outside of analytical uncertainty (Fig. 7). Only one analysis of δ^{15} N 254 has been performed for JF55 ($\delta^{15}N = +7.1 \pm 1.6\%$) and two for JF39 ($\delta^{15}N = +6.7 \pm 1.7\%$ and 255 +6.2 ±2.4%; Table 3). The positive δ^{15} N values for both diamonds are significantly higher than 256 257 typical mantle values (Fig. 8).

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5. Discussion
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5.1 Diamond growth associated with pulses of fluids

261 Solid state growth resulting from a direct conversion of graphite into diamond in a 262 subduction environment setting was suggested as the main diamond genesis mechanism for the Jagersfontein ultra-deep diamonds (Tappert et al., 2005a). This hypothesis is not supported by the
observations detailed below. Instead, the precipitation of ultra-deep diamonds associated with the
percolation/pulses of fluid(s) (i.e. metasomatism) is preferred (Stachel et al., 2002, Palot et al.,
2014, 2016 Pearson et al., 2014, Thomson et al., 2014, 2016, Zedgenizov et al. 2014, Burnham et
al., 2015, 2016).

Although the study of only fragments makes the interpretation of the diamond growth histories difficult, the CL images still permit some inferences to be made. Amongst the Monastery diamonds, the CL images of Mon B9-15 and B9-17 do not reveal any clear growth history, whereas Mon A4-03 possibly exhibits multiple growth episodes (Appendix A). Mon B9-07 displays regular growth layers (Fig. 2) and the growth of this diamond is interrupted by several dissolution episodes. Amongst the Jagersfontein diamonds, all but JF22 and JF58 show a clear separation into core and rim zones (Appendixes B1-B3).

275 From the textural evidence noted above, most of the studied diamonds document episodic 276 growth, identified by sharp boundaries between CL "layers" (Appendixes A, B1-B2), sometimes 277 with intermittent periods of resorption (visible truncations of growth layers). These features are 278 characteristic of diamond growth from intermittent fluid/melt pulses. The distinct dark to bright 279 CL responses may thus be interpreted in terms of diamond growth from fluid pulses with varying 280 composition or under variable pressure-temperature conditions; episodes of dissolution 281 correspond to the intermittent passage of fluids that are undersaturated in carbon or relatively 282 oxidizing. In diamonds JF39, JF42 and JF43, these CL features are associated with sharp changes 283 in isotopic composition and nitrogen abundance (Appendix D2), suggesting that each zone 284 represents a discrete phase of diamond growth during distinct pulses of fluids. In contrast, smooth 285 co-variations are often interpreted as diamond growth from an evolving fluid (Cartigny et al., 286 2014 for review, see section 5.3 below).

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288

5.2 The source of fluids forming ultra-deep diamonds

The very negative δ^{13} C values and positive δ^{15} N values for the ultra-deep diamonds 289 290 studied here depart significantly from typical mantle values (Fig. 8). In diamonds where core-rim 291 relationships can be established from growth textures, growth already begins from fluids with 292 such distinctive isotopic compositions. The consistency of this observation can only be explained 293 by diamond formation from fluids that ultimately derive from surficial material subducted into 294 the deep asthenosphere or transition zone. While alternative origins, such as diamond growth 295 from mantle-derived fluids undergoing isotopic fractionation towards "crustal-like" values are 296 possible (Palot et al., 2012, Cartigny et al., 2014), there is increasing evidence that already initial 297 growth in ultra-deep diamonds occurred from fluids with crustal signatures. This evidence 298 includes diamonds from Brazil (Walter et al., 2011, Palot et al., 2012, Burnham et al., 2015, 299 2016, Thomson et al., 2016a and b), West Africa (Palot et al., 2012, 2014), Australia (Tappert et 300 al., 2009) and southern Africa (Deines et al., 1991, Tappert et al., 2005a and b, and Ickert et al., 301 2015; this study), which collectively indicate that fractionation has a minor effect on the fluid 302 composition and that the isotopic signatures reflect original crustal sources. The clear inference is 303 that crustal carbon and nitrogen are commonly subducted to deep asthenosphere and transition 304 zone depths.

The formation of superdeep diamonds has been related to slab-derived carbonatitic melts reacting with peridotitic wall rock (Walter et al., 2008, Burnham et al., 2015, 2016, Thomson et al., 2016a and b). In this model, partial melting of former oceanic crust in the transition zone produces carbonatitic melts (the carbon filter model of Thomson et al., 2016a) and the subsequent interaction of these melts with ambient mantle is responsible for the formation of transition zone diamonds. Although such a model works well for ultra-deep diamonds from Juina, it is unlikely 311 for the Monastery and Jagersfontein diamonds based on trace elements (Moore et al., 1991, 312 Tappert et al., 1995b) and oxygen isotopic compositions (Ickert et al., 2015) of the majorite 313 inclusions. The REE_N patterns of Monastery and Jagersfontein majoritic garnets (Fig. 9) overlap 314 closely with eclogitic garnets from lithospheric diamonds and xenoliths. A positive slope across 315 the REE_N in Monastery and particularly pronounced, in Jagersfontein samples is not a feature of 316 Juina majorite inclusions, for which the Walter et al. (2008) model and subsequent variants are 317 valid. As a consequence, the REE_N patterns of Monastery and Jagersfontein majorites cannot be 318 readily explained through reaction of a slab derived carbonatitic melt with peridotitic mantle. The 319 majoritic garnets here likely originate from broadly N-MORB-like precursors that have lost some 320 LREE and possibly experienced some HREE enrichment during partial melting in the garnet stability field (Rapp and Watson, 1995; Rapp and Shimizu, 1998). The high δ^{18} O values of the 321 322 Jagersfontein majorite inclusions are also consistent with an eclogitic slab model and more 323 specifically with a hydrothermally weathered basaltic rock as a protolith (Ickert et al., 2015). 324 Hence, the preferred mechanism to form the Monastery and Jagersfontein super-deep diamonds is 325 by dissolution and re-precipitation, where subducted metastable graphite would be converted into 326 an oxidised or reduced species during fluid-aided dissolution, before being re-precipitated as 327 diamond (Ickert et al., 2015). This interpretation implies that, in this situation, carbon remains in 328 the subducting slab and is locally re-distributed to form sub-lithospheric diamonds beneath the 329 Kaapvaal Craton.

Taking into account the anomalous oxygen isotopic signatures of majorite garnets reported from Juina (Burnham et al., 2015) and Jagersfontein (Ickert et al., 2015), we concur with the numerous studies that document growth of ultra-deep diamonds from fluids derived from mixtures of subducted organic matter and either surficial carbonate or mantle carbon. The δ^{13} C values of the Monastery and Jagersfontein ultra-deep diamonds are clearly more negative than those from Juina and Kankan (Fig. 8) suggesting that their carbon source has a higher ratio of organic matter ($\delta^{13}C < -25\%$) to either carbonate ($\delta^{13}C = 0\%$) or mantle-derived carbon ($\delta^{13}C = -$ 5‰). Using formation depth estimates constrained by garnet inclusion chemistry, there is also no apparent relationship between the depth of diamond formation and their isotopic composition, making the existence of a common, homogenous parent melt generating all ultra-deep diamonds during a single event for a given locality unlikely.

The positive δ^{15} N signatures of the southern African diamonds studied here are consistent with derivation from subducted nitrogen (Cartigny et al., 2014). The relatively low nitrogen content for the majority of the samples may reflect prior devolatilization of nitrogen during subduction (Busigny and Bebout, 2013) or perhaps nitrogen partitioning into a phase such as metal (Smith and Kopylova, 2014), which appears to play a role in the formation of some transition zone diamonds (Smith et al., 2016). Low N contents may also reflect a relatively nitrogen-poor protolith such as basaltic/gabbroic oceanic crust.

348 This study illustrates that both carbon and nitrogen are cycled from the surface deep into 349 the asthenosphere and transition zone, underpinning other evidence for deep recycling of surficial 350 volatile elements within the transition zone, documented in studies of diamonds from Brazil 351 (Hutchison et al., 1999, Walter et al., 2011, Palot et al., 2012, Pearson et al., 2014 Burnham et al., 352 2015, Thomson et al., 2016), Guinea (Stachel et al., 2002, Palot et al., 2014), Jagersfontein 353 (Tappert et al., 2005a, b, Ickert et al., 2015). The preponderance of recycled crustal materials in 354 the transition zone may reflect a tendency of some subducted oceanic slabs to "pond" at this 355 depth, depending on their thermal history (e.g., Ringwood, 1982; van der Hilst et al., 1997).

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357

5.3 A diversity of diamond-forming fluids

359 Despite the fact that the ultra-deep Monastery and Jagersfontein diamonds point clearly to 360 a subducted source for the carbon and nitrogen in their parental fluids, there is also evidence of variability among these fluids. Intra-diamond variability in δ^{13} C-N- δ^{15} N provides information 361 362 about the nature of the diamond-forming fluids. In order to address this question we focus our attention on samples, which show smooth correlations of δ^{13} C-N- δ^{15} N and, based on CL-patterns, 363 most likely represent coherent growth zones formed from single pulses of fluid. In contrast, the 364 samples that exhibit complex growth layering in CL and have no apparent correlation of δ^{13} C-N-365 366 δ^{15} N will not be discussed in this section as they may result from a variety of processes (e.g. 367 locally changing $P-T-fO_2$ or multiple episodes of growth from numerous fluid pulses).

368 The core-to-rim variations of the selected diamonds (see below) are best explained by 369 equilibrium diamond growth from an evolving fluid, which underwent isotopic and elemental 370 fractionation while diamond formed (Deines, 1980, Thomassot et al., 2007, Palot et al. 2014). 371 The growth of diamond via either reduction of oxidized C-H-O-N fluid or oxidation of a reduced 372 fluid phase leads to distinct systematic trends in C- and N-isotopic composition and N-373 abundance. The progress of isotopic fractionation is mainly a function of fluid speciation and temperature. Diamond is depleted in ¹³C by a few per mill compared to oxidised carbon at the 374 375 temperatures of diamond formation (CO₂ and carbonate, Bottinga, 1969, Richet et al., 1977, Chacko et al., 1991, Polyakov and Kharlashina, 1995), leading to a core-to-rim increase in ¹³C as 376 residual fluids progressively become relatively enriched in ¹³C. In contrast, diamond is enriched 377 in ¹³C by a few per mill relative to reduced carbon species (carbide and CH₄, Richet, 1977, 378 379 Satish-Kumar et al., 2011), leading to the opposite trend. Petts et al. (2015) suggested that the 380 CN⁻ molecule may be the best analogue for nitrogen speciation in diamond based on similar 381 vibrational frequencies. At 1100°C, they estimated empirically that the nitrogen in diamond (CN 382) is depleted in ¹⁵N by -3.6‰, -1.4‰ and -2.1‰ relative to NH₄⁺, NH₃ and N₂, respectively,
383 leading to a core-to-rim increase in ¹⁵N.

Rayleigh fractionation best describes the co-variations between C-isotope composition and other tracers such as N-isotope composition or [N] (Smart et al., 2011, Wiggers de Vries, 2013, Cartigny et al., 2014, Mikhail et al., 2014). The effects of this process on δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N and [N] can be described by the following equation (see Cartigny et al., 2014 and Petts et al., 2015 for details)

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$$(\delta^{X}) = (\delta^{X})_{0} + \Delta^{X}_{\text{diam-fluid}} \times \ln f_{X}$$

where f_X is the remaining fraction of carbon/nitrogen in the diamond forming medium (in the scenario where diamond crystallizes from a fluid entirely made up of carbon species $f_C =$ fraction of fluid consumed), δ^{X_0} is the initial carbon/nitrogen isotopic composition of the fluid, and Δ^{X} is the fractionation factor of carbon/nitrogen between diamond and the fluid growth medium.

The carbon isotopic composition of the fluid is related to N-abundance (i.e. N/C) by the following equation:

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$$\ln(N/C) = \ln(N/C)_0 + \left[\frac{\left(\delta^{13}C - \delta^{13}C_0\right)}{K_C \times \Delta C}\right] \times \left(\frac{K_N}{K_C} - 1\right)$$

398 where $(N/C)_0$ is the initial nitrogen abundance in the fluid. K_N is a measure of the 399 compatibility of nitrogen during diamond growth (with $K_N < 1$ for incompatible and $K_N > 1$ for 400 compatible behaviour). K_C is the partition coefficient for carbon (in the case of diamond growth 401 Kc = 1). $\delta^{13}C_0$ is the initial carbon isotopic composition of the fluid.

402 Modelled geochemical parameters ($\delta^{13}C_0$, $\delta^{15}N_0$, N/C₀, K_N and ΔC) have been 403 determined to fit the variations in $\delta^{13}C-\delta^{15}N-[N]$ (Figs. 4-7). Comparison of the estimated 404 magnitude of isotopic fractionation of carbon and nitrogen with theoretical calculations,
405 experimental data and observation in natural diamonds therefore help us to constrain the nature of
406 the diamond-forming fluids.

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5.3.1 Diamond growth from an oxidised carbon phase

Diamonds Mon B9-07, JF09, JF44 and JF50 exhibit progressive ¹³C enrichment from core 409 to rim (Figs. 4, 5 and 7). Modelling of the δ^{13} C- δ^{15} N-[N] co-variations in these diamonds yields 410 negative fractionation factors for $\Delta C_{diamond-fluid} = -2.8$ to -1.0% (i.e. diamond is ¹³C depleted 411 412 relative to fluid; Table 4). We illustrate in Fig. 10 the ΔC of these studied diamonds together with 413 the theoretical/expected values for diamond in equilibrium with both oxidised and reduced 414 carbon species (Bottinga, 1969, Richet et al., 1977, Chacko et al., 1991, Polyakov and 415 Kharlashina, 1995). The temperatures of isotopic equilibrium have been estimated using the 416 pressure estimates of majorite formation/equilibration extrapolated to a typical mantle geotherm 417 (Katsura et al., 2010; Table 1). The exact magnitude of such fractionation factors may be 418 inaccurate if these diamonds formed in a "young", non-thermally equilibrated subducted slab that 419 foundered in the transition zone. In this case the fractionation factors would move towards more 420 negative values for oxidised carbon species and more positive values for reduced carbon forms.

Although it is not possible to constrain the exact nature of the diamond-forming fluid (pure end-member vs multi-component fluid) from the current data, it is clear that at least some diamonds from Monastery and Jagersfontein formed from oxidised fluids. The formation of ultradeep diamonds from oxidised source fluids has been suggested based on the observation of carbonate inclusions within ultra-deep diamonds from Brazil (Wirth et al., 2009, Bulanova et al., 2010) and Kankan (Brenker et al., 2005), and the growing geochemical and experimental

427 evidence for the percolation of carbonatitic melts in the deep mantle (Walter et al., 2008,428 Burnham et al., 2015, 2016, Thomson et al. 2016a and b).

Modelling the behaviour of nitrogen for these diamonds during their formation yields K_N = 6.0-10.0, with strong partitioning of nitrogen into diamond for all samples (Table 4). The magnitude of K_N appears to be independent of pressure and likely relates to fluid compositions. An exclusively compatible behaviour of nitrogen ($K_N = 4-16$) was also observed for ultra-deep diamonds from Kankan, which formed from both oxidised and reduced fluids (Palot et al., 2014).

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5.3.2 Diamond growth from reduced carbon species

Diamonds Mon A4-03 and JF58 exhibit progressive ¹³C depletion from core to rim (Fig. 6), leading to positive fractionation factors $\Delta C_{diamond-fluid} = +1.2$ and +1.5% (i.e. diamond is ¹³C enriched compared to fluid; Table 4, Fig. 10). Such values are consistent with equilibrium between diamond and reduced carbon species (Richet, 1977, Satish-Kumar et al., 2011). Again we cannot resolve whether the fluid is a pure end-member or a mix between several reduced carbon fluid species (e.g., C₂H₆ & CH₄).

442 Methane and diamond are predicted to be the dominant carbon species in the deep 443 asthenosphere (Frost and McCammon, 2008). The observation of micro-inclusions of CH₄ in 444 Marange diamonds demonstrates that CH₄-rich fluids exist even at lithospheric depths (Smit et 445 al., 2016). The discovery of carbide and native iron as inclusions in ultra-deep diamonds 446 (Kaminsky and Wirth, 2011, Kaminsky, 2012; Smith et al., 2016), including those from 447 Jagersfontein (Mikhail et al., 2014), document reducing conditions in parts of the deep mantle – 448 from the deep asthenosphere to the uppermost lower mantle. Models predict metal saturation at 449 250-300 km depth in the mantle, where carbon forms carbide in metal (e.g. Frost and 450 McCammon, 2008). The formation of diamond from carbon-iron melt may thus not be restricted 451 to the lower mantle (Kaminsky and Wirth, 2011) but may also occur (locally?) within the 452 asthenosphere/transition zone, as documented by metal-dominated mineral assemblages in large 453 ultra-deep diamonds (Smith et al., 2016). Owing to the scarcity of these assemblages in natural 454 samples, we can, however, not exclude that they may reflect extremely localised environments.

The estimated nitrogen partition coefficient between these 2 samples and their parental C-H-O-N fluids is restricted to $K_N = 0.3-0.7$. This contrasts with estimates of other diamonds supposedly in equilibrium with CH₄ fluid ($K_N = 2$ and 8 in Thomassot et al., 2007 and Palot et al., 2013 respectively).

Ultra-deep diamonds from Jagersfontein and Monastery add to the evidence provided by ultra-deep diamonds from Juina and Kankan in showing that diamonds within the deep asthenosphere and transition zone can form from both oxidised and reduced fluids, suggesting that diamond could be one of the dominant carbon species in this part of the Earth.

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5.3.3 Diamond-forming fluids involving reduced nitrogen species

Diamond Mon B9-07, which formed from oxidised fluids, also shows core-to-rim ¹⁵N 465 enrichment (Fig. 4). Modelling of the δ^{15} N-[N] variations of this diamond yields nitrogen 466 fractionation factor $\Delta N_{diamond-fluid}$ of -3.0% (Table 4, Fig. 11). Such a preferential incorporation 467 of ${}^{15}N$ in diamond over the diamond-forming fluid (i.e. negative $\Delta N_{diamond-fluid}$) has been 468 469 previously observed in lithospheric diamonds from Jericho (Petts et al., 2015) and ultra-deep 470 diamonds from Kankan (Palot et al., 2014). The isotopic equilibrium between CN⁻ (as an 471 analogue for nitrogen in diamond – see discussion in Petts et al., 2015) and reduced nitrogen species (N₂, NH₃ and NH₄⁺) has been used here in order make a self-consistent comparison. 472

At T_{inclusion} of 1550°C (majorite-derived barometry projected onto the mantle adiabat), the 473 474 empirical $\Delta N_{diamond-fluid}$ of -3.0% is in closer agreement to the theoretical fractionation factor of CN^{-} - NH_4^{+} ($\Delta_{CN-NH4} = -2.5\%$), Petts et al., 2015) than with the theoretical fractionation factor for 475 476 CN^{-} - N₂ (Δ_{CN-N2} = -1.4‰, Petts et al., 2015). If our samples formed within a colder environment 477 than convecting mantle such as a subducting slab, the Mon B9-07 point would be shifted toward the CN⁻ - NH₄⁺ curve. The magnitude of $\Delta_{Mon B9-07-fluid}$ is close to estimates for diamonds from 478 Jericho (Petts et al., 2015), where the source of nitrogen has been proposed to be NH_4^+ 479 480 molecules. However, due to the relative large uncertainty in estimating the nitrogen fractionation 481 factor here (which is not quantifiable at the present time), we cannot exclude the possibility that 482 both diamond forming-fluids contain significant amounts of NH₃ (see discussion in Petts et al., 483 2015).

484 Thermodynamic calculations (Mikhail and Sverjensky, 2014) predict nitrogen 485 predominantly in the form of N₂ in fluids existing under oxidized conditions (e.g., mantle wedges 486 at convergent plate margins, or in the carbonate melts emanating from deeply subducted slabs, e.g., Thomson et al., 2016a), or as NH_4^+ in aqueous fluids in equilibrium with more reducing 487 488 conditions (e.g. Mikhail and Howell, 2016). In a recent study, Mikhail et al., (2017) have shown 489 the relationship between pH (in addition to temperature, pressure, oxygen fugacity and chemical 490 activity) and nitrogen speciation in the mantle, illustrating the complexity of parameters that 491 control speciation. Such calculations may not be applicable to our ultra-deep samples as 492 temperatures for the Mikhail et al., (2017) calculations did not exceed 1000°C but further 493 investigation with extended temperatures and pressure would help to resolve this issue. NH_4^+ is 494 also a dominant nitrogen species in the crust because of its common substitution for K⁺ in clays, 495 micas, feldspars, clinopyroxenes and amphiboles (e.g. Watenphul et al., 2010, Busigny and 496 Bebout, 2013). This substitution of nitrogen into minerals with a large stability range establishes 497 a mechanism for transporting nitrogen into the deep mantle during subduction and strengthens498 our interpretation of a subduction origin of the studied sample suite.

Estimates of K_N ranging from 6.5 to 6 for JF50 and Mon B9-07, respectively, indicate that nitrogen is strongly concentrated in diamond, making it an important carrier for nitrogen in the asthenosphere/transition zone.

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5.2 Implication for the deep carbon and nitrogen cycle

504 The carbon and nitrogen isotopic signatures of the Monastery and Jagersfontein super-505 deep diamonds indicate the recycling of these elements in the asthenosphere/transition zone. 506 Systematic higher temperatures of ultra-deep diamond formation (T_{inclusion}) compared to time 507 averaged mantle residence temperatures (T_{N-aggregation}) (Table 1), suggest that the studied 508 diamonds have experienced short residence in the "hot" asthenosphere/transition zone. Such a 509 short mantle residence time is fully consistent with the fact that most of these diamonds are not 510 100% aggregated. Using the N systematics (35%B and 20 at.ppm N) of the least aggregated 511 diamond (Mon B9-07) and assuming a residence temperature of 1480°C (for the appropriate 512 depth in the convective mantle transition zone) this sample resided for <1Ma before exhumation 513 either to Earth's surface or to intermediate storage in a relatively "cool" lithospheric 514 environment. If these diamonds formed in a cooler slab environment, this would be a minimum 515 estimate. However, it would still require that the diamonds were picked up from the slab and 516 transported upwards fairly rapidly, before the subducted slab could thermally equilibrate with the 517 surrounding mantle. These estimates contrast with the Proterozoic Re-Os sulphide ages for 518 lithospheric eclogitic diamonds from the Jagersfontein mine (Aulbach et al., 2009), suggesting 519 that ultra-deep diamonds form in a different way than lithospheric diamonds.

520 Rapid vertical movement to shallower mantle conditions is consistent with the 521 observation of i) un-retrogressed hydrous ringwoodite in a Juina diamond (Pearson et al., 2014; 522 ii) only partially unmixed inclusions in diamonds coming from the transition zone in Kankan and 523 Juina (e.g. Harte and Cayzer, 2007) and iii) modeling of the diffusive relaxation of carbon isotope 524 heterogeneity in ultra-deep diamonds from Kankan (Palot et al., 2014). The unexsolved nature of 525 the majorite inclusions in our sample suite is consistent with these observations. Combined, these 526 observations lend strong support to the notion that some component of the transporting 527 kimberlitic magmas originates in, or below, the transition zone. It can, however, not be ruled out 528 that ultra-deep diamonds may also be transported by exceptionally vigorous convective mantle 529 flow (Palot et al., 2012, Tappe et al., 2013). The observation of ubiquitous crustal signatures in 530 the mantle transition zone raises the question of the importance of this region in terms of the 531 global carbon budget. Kelemen and Manning (2015) emphasise the efficiency of the subduction 532 zone "filter" in preventing carbon to go into the deeper convecting mantle. The ultra-deep 533 diamonds studied here and from other localities clearly indicate a provenance from crustal 534 protolith-derived fluids within the deep upper mantle and transition zone, but it is likely that this 535 inventory of crustal carbon is relatively small. Kelemen and Manning (2015) estimate the total amount of carbon in the mantle sampled by all kimberlites as $\sim 3 \times 10^5$ Mt and make the broad 536 537 assumption that this inventory reflects only recycled carbon. Nonetheless, this provides a first order estimate and translates to a mass fraction of ~ 3.3×10^{-6} of the subducted crustal carbon 538 539 reservoir. Even this may be an over-estimate for the carbon in the transition zone, but it is 540 difficult to improve on the estimate without some additional gross assumptions. If we assume 541 either that only 2% of kimberlites sample super-deep diamonds, or, that all Type II diamonds, 542 that represent ~2% of all diamonds, are of super-deep origin (Smith et al., 2016) then only ~ 6 x 10³ Mt of carbon (0.66 billionth of the crustal reservoir mass) might exist within transition zone-543

hosted diamonds. This estimate is highly uncertain but places a lower bound on the flux of recycled carbon into the deep mantle. A further complicating issue is the fact that metallic Fe in the transition zone appears to form C alloys such as cohenite (Smith et al., 2016) and some of the diamonds analysed here may have equilibrated with such alloys. In a highly reduced and moderately hydrous environment, carbon would preferentially partition into silicate melt relative to metal alloy (Li et al., 2015). Despite these complications, it seems likely that the transition zone is a carbon and nitrogen reservoir dominated by recycled crustal components.

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552 **6.** Conclusions

The systematically ¹³C depleted and ¹⁵N enriched signatures in ultra-deep Monastery and 553 554 Jagersfontein diamonds indicate that they crystallised from fluids derived from subducted 555 material. These findings illustrate deep cycling of surficial carbon and nitrogen into the 556 asthenosphere and transition zone. Combined C- and N- isotopic data across growth sections of 557 the diamonds support repeated diamond growth via metasomatic processes. Modelling of the internal co-variations in δ^{13} C- δ^{15} N-N reveals that the diamonds grew from a variety of C-H-O-N 558 559 fluids, involving both oxidised and reduced species. Our data support the idea that subducted 560 oceanic slabs tend to pond at transition zones depths, where carbon mobilized both as oxidised 561 and reduced species is re-precipitated locally as diamond. Recycled volatiles may dominate the 562 Earth's transition zone.

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Figure 1: Depth of formation of Monastery and Jagersfontein diamonds based on the Si-excess in
majorite garnets based on experimental data from Wijbrands et al. (2016). The chemical
composition data of majorites for Jagersfontein and Monastery diamonds are from Tappert et al.
(2005a) and Moore et al. (1991) respectively.

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Figure 2: Cathodoluminescence images of diamonds JF50 and Mon B9-07. Transects represent
the SIMS analyses of carbon isotopes and nitrogen abundances (dotted lines). The nitrogen
isotopes analyses were right beside those points, but not on the same spot as the δ¹³C analyses.

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Figure 3: Aggregation states (%B) and nitrogen abundances (at.ppm) by Fourier Transform infrared (FTIR) analysis of Monastery (this study) and Jagersfontein diamonds (Tappert et al., 2005a). Isotherms are based on second order kinetics for nitrogen diffusion in diamond (Chrenko et al., 1977, Taylor et al., 1990), and have been calculated for a mantle residence time of 100Ma (Tappert et al., 2005b). Accuracy for both nitrogen aggregation state and N content is generally better than $\pm 5\%$ and 15%, respectively (2 σ).

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Figure 4: Modelling of the variation between δ^{13} C- δ^{15} N-N for Mon B9-07 following a Rayleigh distillation process. Free parameters such as initial δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N, nitrogen content N/C of the fluid, the partitioning coefficient K_N and the fractionation factors Δ for C and N between diamond and diamond-forming fluid are varied for calculations to best fit to data points. The core and rim parts of the diamond are indicated. Error bars are 2σ .

Figure 5: Modelling of the variation between δ^{13} C-N for JF09 and JF44 following a Rayleigh distillation process. The parameters and methodology are identical to those reported in the Fig. 4.

Figure 6: Modelling of the variation between δ^{13} C-N for Mon A4-03 and JF58 following a Rayleigh distillation process. The parameters and methodology are identical to those reported in the Fig. 4.

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31 Figure 7: Modelling of the variation between δ^{13} C- δ^{15} N-N for JF50 following a Rayleigh 32 distillation process. The parameters and methodology are identical to those reported in the Fig. 4.

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Figure 8: δ^{13} C- δ^{15} N values of Monasterv and Jagersfontein diamonds. For comparison the 34 35 following reservoirs are reported: carbon in carbonates and organic matter (Schidlowski, 1987), 36 carbon and nitrogen in subducted material (i.e. subducted sediments, oceanic crust and 37 lithosphere) (Thomazo et al., 2009, Busigny and Bebout, 2013) and mantle-related material 38 (Cartigny and Marty, 2013). Also shown are the carbon and nitrogen isotopic composition of 39 diamonds from the lithosphere, the asthenosphere/transition zone and the lower mantle from Sao 40 Luiz (Hutchinson et al., 1999; Palot et al., 2012) and Kankan (Palot et al., 2012, 2014), the two 41 main localities providing ultra-deep diamonds. Error bars are 2σ .

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Figure 9 Chondrite-normalized (McDonough and Sun, 1995) rare earth element compositions of
majoritic garnet inclusions in diamond from Monastery (Moore et al., 1991) and Jagersfontein
(Tappert et al., 2005a, b).

Figure 10 Carbon isotope fractionation factors derived for the studied diamonds and for possible C-species in the fluid, where $\Delta C_{diamond-fluid} = 1000 \ln \alpha_{diamond-species}$. Shown are diamond-Fe₃C, diamond-CH₄, diamond-CaCO₃ and diamond-CO₂ fractionation curves which represent the main possible C-bearing phases involved in the formation diamonds. The curves are derived from theoretical calculations or laboratory and empirical measurements (Bottinga, 1969, Richet et al., 1977, Chacko et al., 1991, 2001, Polyakov and Kharlashina, 1995, Satish-Kumar et al., 2011), but data are mostly lacking at high temperatures (>1000°C) and are extrapolated here.

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56 Figure 11 Nitrogen isotope fractionation factors for diamond Mon B9-07 and possible N-species in the fluid. Fractionation curves of CN⁻-N₂, CN⁻-NH₃ and CN⁻-NH₄⁺ are reported as the best 57 possible analogue for the diamond-fluid system. This figure has been modified from Fig. 6 in 58 59 Petts et al., 2015 and the reader is referred to this study and references therein for detailed 60 discussion and data sources. Also included is the empirical fractionation factor (calculated from 61 C- and N-isotope analyses) for lithospheric diamond JDE-25 from Jericho, Canada (Petts et al., 62 2015), lithospheric diamonds from Premier, RSA (Thomassot et al., 2007) and sublithospheric 63 diamonds KK-200 and KK-204 from Kankan, Guinea (Palot et al., 2014).

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10⁶/T² (K⁻²)



1000 In lpha (Diamond – Fluid)

Table 1: Paragenesis of the Jagersfontein and Monastery diamonds and depth of formation (Moore and Gurney, 1985; Moore et al., 1991; Tappert et al., 2005a, 2005b). $T_{inclusion}$ are estimates based on majorite inclusion barometry (see Fig. 1) projected on the mantle adiabat of Katsura et al., (2010). $T_{N-aggregation}$ represent the average nitrogen aggregation temperatures in diamonds, calculated for a mantle residence time of 100Ma (Tappert et al., 2005). N.d. = non determined because of the lack of accuracy either for very low nitrogen level samples or fully aggregated diamonds. Estimated accuracy $\pm 20^{\circ}C$ (1 σ).

Sample name	Locality	Inclusions	Paragenese	Approximative Depth (km) ^a	$T_{inclusion}$ (°C)	T _{N-agg.} (°C)	$\Delta T_{inclusion}$ - T_{N-agg} (°C)
JF01	Jagersfontein	Maj Garnet	Eclogitic	260	1490	n.d.	
JF09	Jagersfontein	Maj Garnet	Eclogitic	256	1480	n.d.	
JF22	Jagersfontein	Maj Garnet	Eclogitic	413	1580	1480	100
JF37	Jagersfontein	Maj Garnet	Eclogitic	256	1480	1280	200
JF39	Jagersfontein	Maj Garnet	Eclogitic	330	1530	1315	215
JF42	Jagersfontein	Maj Garnet	Eclogitic	358	1550	n.d.	
JF43	Jagersfontein	Maj Garnet	Websteritic	325?			
JF44	Jagersfontein	Maj Garnet	Eclogitic	308	1520	n.d.	
JF50	Jagersfontein	Maj Garnet	Eclogitic	244	1480	1300	280
JF55	Jagersfontein	Maj Garnet	Eclogitic	405	1580	n.d.	
JF58	Jagersfontein	Maj Garnet	Eclogitic	269	1490	n.d.	
Mon A4-03	Monastery	Maj Garnet	Eclogitic	363	1550	1360	190
Mon B9-07	Monastery	Maj Garnet	Eclogitic	357	1550	n.d.	
Mon B9-15	Monastery	Maj Garnet	Eclogitic	371	1560	1375	185
Mon B9-17	Monastery	Maj Garnet	Eclogitic	371	1560	1300	260

^a Estimated from the majorite barometer of Wijbrans et al. (2016).

Diamond	Reference number on CL images	δ ¹³ C (VDP)	2σ (‰)	[N] at.ppm ^a	2σ	δ^{15} N (air)	2σ (‰)	[N] at.ppm ^b	2σ
	8			Transect 1					
Mon A4-03	1	-17.4	0.1	44	5				
Mon A4-03	2	-17.5	0.1	64	7				
Mon A4-03	3	-16.7	0.1	51	5				
Mon A4-03	4	-18.1	0.1	60	6				
Mon A4-03	5	-16.6	0.1	49	5				
Mon A4-03	6	-15.3	0.1	42	4				
Mon $\Delta 4_{-03}$	0 7	-14.5	0.1	2	0				
WIOII A4-03	1	-14.5	0.1	Transect 2	0				
Mon $\Delta I_{-}03$	12	-173	0.1	53	5				
Mon A4 03	12	-17.5	0.1	59	5				
Mon A4 02	13	-17.5	0.1	57	6				
Mon A4-03	14	-10.1	0.1	51	07				
Mon A4-05	15	-18.1	0.1	0.5	/				
Mar. A 4 02	0	14.2	0.1	Others	1				
Mon A4-03	8	-14.3	0.1	/	1				
Mon A4-03	9	-16.2	0.1	12	1				
Mon A4-03	10	-14.9	0.1	5.7	1				
			- · ·	Transect 1					
Mon B9-07	1	-14.9	0.1	143	15	7.2	1.5	319	32
Mon B9-07	2	-15.3	0.1	42	4				
Mon B9-07	3	-15.5	0.1	387	40	10.3	1.2	488	49
Mon B9-07	4	-15.7	0.1	2528	259	4.2	0.6	2451	245
Mon B9-07	5	-15.5	0.1	1237	128	5.5	0.7	1485	148
Mon B9-07	6	-15.5	0.1	1276	131	7.0	0.7	1631	163
Mon B9-07	7	-15.3	0.1	1119	116	4.5	0.6	2391	239
Mon B9-07	8	-15.7	0.1	2011	207	4.5	0.6	1909	191
Mon B9-07	9	-15.4	0.1	153	16	7.7	1.8	220	22
Mon B9-07	10	-15.5	0.1	1364	143	6.1	0.6	1902	190
				Transect 2					
Mon B9-07	16	-15.7	0.1	806	82	8.6	1.1	658	66
Mon B9-07	15	-15.8	0.1	683	77	9.6	0.9	851	85
Mon B9-07	14	-15.6	0.1	1438	145	4.6	0.6	1904	190
Mon B9-07	13	-15.6	0.1	1070	108	8.4	0.0	1100	110
Mon B9 07	13	15.0	0.1	1353	137	50	0.7	16/0	165
Mon B0.07	12	-15.0	0.1	2100	221	2.9	0.7	2220	222
WOII D 9-07	11	-13.7	0.1	Z190	221	5.0	0.0	2229	223
Mon D 0.07	10	15.2	0.1		66	77	2 1	74	7
WI0II D9- 07	10	-15.5	0.1	044	00	1.1	5.1	/4	/
Mon B9 07	10	15.2	0.1	581	50	60	0.0	1027	103
Mon B0.07	19	-15.2	0.1	207	59	0.9	0.9	015	01
Mon D0 07	20	-15.0	0.1	592	02 60	0.2	1.0	915	91
Mon B9-07	21	-15.5	0.1	585	00	9.5	2.1	102	10
Mon B9-07	22	-14.9	0.1	/0	8	9.7	2.4	123	12
			0.1	Others		o r	1.0	• • •	•
Mon B9-07	17	-15.6	0.1	463	47	9.5	1.9	281	28
Mon B9-07	23	-16.3	0.1	30	3				
				Transect 1					
Mon B9-15	1	-18.4	0.1	27	3				
Mon B9-15	2	-18.2	0.1	16	2				
Mon B9-15	3	-18.3	0.1	17	2				
Mon B9-15	4	-18.4	0.1	22	2				
Mon B9-15	5	-18.2	0.1	6	1				
				Others					
Mon B9-15	8	-18.7	0.1	34	4				

Table 2: Carbon and nitrogen isotope and nitrogen abundance data of Monastery diamonds

Mon B9-15	7	-18.4	0.1	33	3					
Mon B9-15	6	-18.2	0.1	31	3					
	Transect 1									
Mon B9-17	1	-17.4	0.1	40	4					
Mon B9-17	2	-17.3	0.1	18	2					
Mon B9-17	4	-16.5	0.1	36	4					
Mon B9-17	6	-16.3	0.1	8	1					
Mon B9-17	7	-16.8	0.1	27	3					
Mon B9-17	8	-15.7	0.1	28	3					
Mon B9-17	9	-15.6	0.1	27	3					
Mon B9-17	10	-15.6	0.1	28	3					
				Others						
Mon B9-17	3	-16.8	0.1	21	2					
Mon B9-17	5	-15.7	0.1	2	0					
Mon B9-17	11	-15.7	0.1	26	3					

Mon B9-1711-15.70.1a Measured with carbon isotopic analyses.b Measured with nitrogen isotopic analyses.

Diamond	Reference number on CL images	δ ¹³ C (VDP)	2σ (‰)	[N] at.ppm ^a	2σ	δ^{15} N (air)	2σ (‰)	[N] at.ppm ^b	2σ
	0			Transect 1					
JF01	1	-21.6	0.2	6	1				
JF01	2	-21.9	0.1	16	2				
JF01	3	-21.6	0.1	13	1				
JF01	4	-21.1	0.1	17	2				
JF01	5	-25.3	0.1	5	1				
JF01	6	-23.3	0.1	2	0				
JF01	7	-23.2	0.1	2	0				
JF01	8	-23.4	0.1						
JF01	9	-23.4	0.1	1	0				
	10	a a <i>i</i>	0.4	Transect 2	0				
JF01	10	-23.6	0.1	4	0				
JF01	11	-23.3	0.1	4	0				
JF01	12	-23.3	0.1	2	0				
JF01	7	-23.2	0.1	2	0				
JF01	13	-23.3	0.1	2	0				
JF01	14	-21.4	0.1	7	1				
JF01	15	-25.7	0.1		-				
JF01	16	-21.3	0.1	29	3				
				Others					
JF01	19	-25.4	0.1	4	0				
JF01	18	-21.5	0.1	2	0				
JF01	17	-21.3	0.1	7	1				_
Transect	1								
JF09	5	-20.6	0.1	1	0				
JF09	10	-20.6	0.1	0	0				
JF09	11	-20.3	0.1	1	0				
JF09	12	-22.9	0.1	18	2				
JF09	13	-23.1	0.1	32	3				
Transect 2	10	-011	011	02	U				
IF09	9	-22.0	0.1	1	0				
JE00	8	22.0	0.1	1	0				
JT-0.9	8 7	-21.4	0.1	1	0				
JF09	1	-20.9	0.1	1	0				
JF09	6	-20.6	0.1	1	0				
JF09	5	-20.5	0.1	I	0				
JF09	4	-20.1	0.1	1	0				
JF09	3	-20.0	0.1	1	0				
JF09	2	-19.8	0.1	1	0				
JF09	1	-19.7	0.1	1	0				
Others									
IEOO	14	-23.1	0.1	22	2				
JF09	14			22	Z				_
			l	No CL image					
JF22	1	-18.0	0.1	32	3				
JF22	2	-17.6	0.1	31	3				
JF22	3	-17.5	0.1	11	1				
JF22	4	-17.4	0.1	10	1				
JF22	5	-17.4	0.2	45	5				
JF22	6	-17.5	0.1	46	5				
JF22	7	-17.6	0.1	50	5				
JF22	8	-17.4	0.2	18	2				

Table 3: Carbon and nitrogen isotope and nitrogen abundance data of Jagersfontein diamonds

				Transect 1					
JF37	1	-21.9	0.1	60	6				
JF37	2	-19.7	0.1	7	1				
JF37	3	-22.9	0.1	11	1				
JF37	4	-22.7	0.1	16	2				
JF37	5	-22.6	0.1	16	2				
JF37	6	-22.7	0.1	19	2				
JF37	7	-22.5	0.1	30	3				
JF37	8	-22.7	0.1	15	2				
0107	Ũ		011	10	-				
JF37	14	-22.6	0.1	17	2				
JF37	13	-22.6	0.1	17	2				
IF37	12	-22.7	0.1	16	2				
JF37	6	-22.7	0.1	19	2				
JF37	11	-22.7	0.1	18	2				
JF37	10	_22.0	0.1	9	1				
JI 37 IF37	0	22.9	0.1	5	1				
J1 ⁻ 57	7	-22.8	0.1	5	1				
JF37	15	-22.6	0.1	6	1				
JF37	16	-22.7	0.1	3	0				
IF37	17	-22.8	0.1	6	1				
JF37	18	-22.0	0.1	13	1				
JF37	19	-23.0	0.1	5	0				
JF37	20	-20.7	0.1	47	5				
JI 37 IF37	20	-19.6	0.1		1				
JI 37 IF37	21	-17.0	0.1	31	3				
Transact 1	22	-22.2	0.1	51	5				
ITaliseet I IE20	10	18.2	0.1	125	12	68	17	330	33
JF30	10	-10.2	0.1	52	5	0.0	1./	550	55
JF30	9	-18.0	0.1	13	5				
JF39 JE20	0 7	-10.0	0.1	43	5 7				
JF39 JE20		-10.0	0.1	22	2				
JF39 JF20	5	-18.3	0.2	52	2				
JF39	5	-18.5	0.1	10	2				
JF39	4	-18.4	0.1	18	2				
JF39	3	-18.4	0.1	1/	2				
JF39	2	-16.4	0.1	4	0				
JF39	1	-18.8	0.1	52	5				
		10.0		Transect 2					
JF39	16	-18.8	0.1						
JF39	11	-18.7	0.1	17	2				
JF39	12	-18.6	0.1	14	1				
JF39	13	-18.5	0.1	13	1				
JF39	14	-18.4	0.1	20	2				
JF39	5	-18.3	0.1	16	2				
JF39	15	-18.3	0.1	13	1				
				Transect 3					
JF39	20	-18.7	0.1	43	5				
JF39	19	-18.6	0.1	39	4				
JF39	8	-18.6	0.1	43	5				
JF39	18	-18.5	0.1	44	5				
JF39	17	-18.5	0.1	62	6				
				Others					
JF39	23	-16.5	0.1	4	0				
JF39	21	-17.8	0.1	308	33	7.1	1.6	300	30
JF39	22	-19.0	0.1	55	6				
				Transect 1					
JF42	11	-15.9	0.2	23	2				
JF42	10	-16.9	0.1	49	5				

JF42	9	-17.1	0.1	18	2		
JF42	8	-17.4	0.1	3	0		
JF42	7	-16.8	0.1	52	5		
IF42	, 6	-17.3	0.1	4	0		
IF42	5	-17.4	0.1	4	õ		
JF42	5 4	_17.5	0.1	7	1		
JE42	+ 3	-17.3	0.1	2	0		
J1'42 JE40	3 1	-17.3	0.1	2	0		
JF42	2	-17.4	0.1	3 11	0		
JF42	1	-17.5	0.1		1		
1540	10	17.4	0.1	I ransect 2	1		
JF42	12	-17.4	0.1	8	1		
JF42	13	-17.3	0.1	6	I		
JF42	5	-17.4	0.1	4	0		
JF42	14	-17.4	0.1	7	1		
JF42	15	-17.3	0.1	8	1		
				Others			
JF42	19	-21.8	0.1	58	6		
JF42	16	-16.6	0.1	51	5		
JF42	20	-21.8	0.1	54	5		
JF42	17	-17.2	0.1	3	0		
JF42	18	-16.4	0.1	21	2		
				Transect 1			
JF43	6	-21.2	0.1	23	2		
JF43	5	-21.6	0.1	4	0		
JF43	4	-21.5	0.1	3	0		
JF43	3	-17.3	0.1	1	0		
JF43	2	-17.1	0.1	1	Ő		
JF43	- 1	-17.4	0.1	2	õ		
		1/11	0.1	- Transect 2	5		
JF43	7	-17.2	0.1	2	3		
JF43	, 8	-17.1	0.1	- 2	3		
JF43	2	_17.1	0.1	1	1		
JE/13	2 Q	-17 C	0.1	2	1		
JE43	2 10	-17.2	0.1	2	5		
JE/2	10	-17.1	0.1	2	5		
JF43	11	-17.2	0.1	∠ Others	J		
IE42	15	21.7	Ο 1	21	2		
JГ43 IГ42	13	-21./	0.1	21	2		
JF43 IE42	14	-20.8	0.1	ے 10	6		
JF43	13	-21.4	0.1	12	6		
JF43	12	-21.5	0.1	3	1	 	
		1	0.1	Transect 1	<u>^</u>		
JF44	1	-17.8	0.1	1	0		
JF44	2	-17.7	0.1	3	0		
JF44	3	-17.8	0.1	2	0		
JF44	4	-17.6	0.1	2	0		
JF44	5	-18.1	0.1	2	0		
JF44	6	-17.7	0.1	1	0		
JF44	7	-17.9	0.1	5	1		
JF44	8	-18.0	0.1	7	1		
JF44	16	-18.0	0.1	9	1		
JF44	9	-18.2	0.1	10	1		
JF44	10	-18.3	0.1	9	1		
JF44	11	-18.3	0.2	9	1		
		10.5	0.2	Transect 2	1		
IF44	14	-18 3	0.1	Q	1		
JF44	15	_18 1	0.1	2 Q	1		
JE 44	15	-10.1 -18 M	0.1	0	1		
JE44	17	-18.3	0.1	7	1		
JГ44	1/	-10.3	0.1	0	1		

IE44	10	10.0	0.1	Ō	1				
JF44	18	-18.2	0.1	8	1				
	10	10.0	0.1	Others	0				
JF44	12	-18.3	0.1	4	0				
JF44	13	-18.4	0.2	22	3				
				Transect 1					
JF50	1	-23.2	0.1	152	16	-0.2	2.2	149	15
JF50	2	-22.7	0.1	69	8				
JF50	3	-22.9	0.1	65	8				
JF50	4	-22.8	0.1	83	9	1.1	3.1	82	8
JF50	5	-23.3	0.1	135	15	0.3	2.6	105	10
JF50	6	-22.4	0.1	24	2				
JF50	7	-20.9	0.1	4	0				
JF50	8	-20.3	0.1	2	0				
				Transect 2					
IF50	15	-22.4	0.1	20	2				
JF 50	14	-22.1	0.1	20 9	1				
JE 50	13	22.4	0.1		1				
JI 50 JE50	12	-22.7	0.1	00	10	0.8	28	01	0
JF50	12	-22.0	0.1	88 62	10	-0.8	2.0	91	9
JF50	11	-22.5	0.1	62	/				
JF50	3	-22.7	0.1	69	8				
JF50	10	-22.6	0.1	59	6				
JF50	9	-22.9	0.1	68	7				
				Others					
JF50	16	-22.5	0.1	12	1				
JF50	17	-20.5	0.1	2	0				
				Transect 1					
JF55	1	-18.0	0.2	8	1				
JF55	2	-17.7	0.1	3	0				
JF55	3	-18.7	0.1	5	1				
JF55	4	-18.1	0.1	3	0				
JE55	5	-17.8	0.1	6	1				
JF 55	8	-17.7	0.1	5	1				
51 55	0	17.7	0.1	Transect 2	1				
IE55	11	-17 9	0.1	11	1				
JF55	12	-17.9	0.1	11	2				
JF55	12	-18.0	0.1	52	1				
JF33 1555	J 12	-17.8	0.1	0	1				
JF55	13	-17.8	0.1	10	1				
JF55	14	-18.6	0.1	6	1				
				Others					
JF55	6	-17.8	0.1	19	2				
JF55	7	-17.7	0.1	3	0				
JF55	9	-17.9	0.1	3	0				
JF55	10	-17.9	0.2	37	4				
JF55	15	-17.8	0.1	238	25	7.1	1.6	300	30
JF55	16	-17.8	0.1						
JF55	17	-18.0	0.1	29	3				
				Transect 1					
JF58	1	-21.6	0.1	74	8				
JF58	2	-20.5	0.1	53	5				
JF58	3	-16.0	0.3	47	5				
JF58	4	-19.3	0.1	44	5				
JF58	5	-19.4	0.1	46	5				
JE58	6	-193	0.1	41	4				
IF58	7	-19.8	0.1	ΔQ	5				
JE58	8	_20.3	0.1	- 1 2 61	5 7				
J1 J0	U	-20.5	0.1	Others	/				
1620	0	21.0	0.1		o				
JF30 1659	9 10	-21.8	0.1	//	ð 5				
JE30	10	-17.3	0.1	49	Э				

2	1 .1	1	. 1			
JF58	12	-19.5	0.1	51	6	
JF58	11	-19.3	0.1	54	6	

^a Measured with carbon isotopic analyses. ^b Measured with nitrogen isotopic analyses.

Table 4 Output parameters of the Rayleigh fractionation modelling of the Monastery and Jagersfontein diamonds. ΔC and ΔN = isotopic fractionation factor of carbon and nitrogen between diamond and diamond forming-fluid, K_N = nitrogen partition coefficient between diamond and the fluid, $\delta^{13}C_0$ and $\delta^{15}N_0$ = initial carbon and nitrogen isotopic composition of the fluid and N_0 = initial nitrogen content of the fluid. Temperatures are estimates based on majorite inclusion barometry (see Fig. 1) projected on the mantle adiabat of Katsura et al. (2010).

Diamond	Temperature (°C)	ΔC	K _N	$\delta^{13}C_o$	$\delta^{15}N_o$	No	ΔΝ
				Oxidized fluid	s		
Mon B9-07	1550	-1.0	6.0	-14.7	6.8	420	-3.0
JF09	1480	-2.5	7.0	-20.7		5	
JF44	1520	-2.0	10.0	-16.4		2	
JF50	1480	-2.8	6.5	-20.5		24	
				Reduced fluids	S		
Mon A4-03	1550	1.2	0.3	-15.5		27	
JF58	1490	1.5	0.7	-20.7		65	

Supplementary material



Appendix A: Cathodoluminescence images of all the studied Monastery diamonds. Transects are indicated on the CL images.



Appendix B1: Cathodoluminescence images of Jagersfontein diamonds. Transects are indicated on the CL images.

Appendix B2: Cathodoluminescence images of Jagersfontein diamonds. Transects are indicated on the CL images.

Appendix B3: Cathodoluminescence images of Jagersfontein diamonds. Transects are indicated on the CL images.

Appendix C: $\delta^{13}C$ -N-spot profiles of the Monastery diamonds. Error bars are 2 $\sigma.$

Appendix D1: δ^{13} C -N-spot profiles of the Jagersfontein diamonds. Error bars are 2 σ .

Appendix D2: $\delta^{13}C$ -N-spot profiles of the Jagersfontein diamonds. Error bars are 2 $\sigma.$

Appendix D3: δ ^{13}C -N-spot profiles of the Jagersfontein diamonds. Error bars are 2 $\sigma.$

Appendix E: $\delta^{15}N$ -N-spot profiles of Mon B9-07 diamond. Error bars are 2 $\sigma.$