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REVISION 1

Assimilation of xenocrystic apatite in peraluminous granitic magmas

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ABSTRACT

Apatite is a ubiquitous phase in granite plutons and in most adjacent country rocks, thus contamination of a granite magma with wall-rock material results in two genetic types of apatite in the magma: cognate and foreign. These two textural and chemical varieties of apatite undergo textural and compositional changes to reach physical and chemical equilibrium (perfect assimilation) in the melt. Our experiments replicate the conditions in such contaminated granites. The starting materials consist of a peraluminous synthetic $\text{SiO}_2\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Na}_2\text{O-K}_2\text{O}$ (SANK 1.3) granite gel with A/NK of 1.3, synthetic F-apatite, synthetic Cl-apatite, and natural Durango apatite. Initial experiments in cold-seal hydrothermal pressure vessels at magmatically realistic temperatures of 750 °C and pressures of 200 MPa produced negligible reactions, even after run times of 2000 h. Instead, we used an argon-pressurized internally heated pressure vessel with a rapid-quench setup at temperatures of 1200 °C, pressures of 200 MPa, and run durations of 192 h. An advantage of this high temperature is that it exceeds the liquidus for quartz and feldspar; therefore, apatite is the only solid phase in the run products. The starting composition of each run was 90 wt.% SANK 1.3 granite gel and 10 wt.% crushed apatite (consisting of one, two, or three varieties), with and without 4 wt.% added H_2O . Run products were examined by SEM for texture and by EMPA and LA-ICP-MS for composition. The starting synthetic granite composition contains no Ca, F, Cl, or REEs thus, in every run, apatite was initially undersaturated in the melt. In all experiments, most large apatite grains consisted of anhedral shards with rounded corners, most small apatite grains were round, and a small proportion of apatite grains developed one or more crystal faces. In experiments with two or three apatite compositions, the run-product apatite grains had compositions intermediate between those of the starting-material grains, and they

were homogeneous with respect to Cl, and probably F, but not with respect to REEs. The processes to reach textural equilibrium consist of dissolution until the melt is saturated in apatite, followed by Ostwald ripening to eliminate small grains and to develop crystal faces on larger ones. The processes to reach chemical equilibrium consist of dissolution of apatite, diffusion of cations (Ca, P, REE) and anions (F, Cl, OH) through the silicate melt, and solid-state diffusion in the undissolved apatite grains. The halogens approached chemical equilibrium in all experiments, but in the experiments containing Durango apatite, the REEs have not. Models involving radial diffusion into spherical apatite grains at the temperatures of the experiments show complete re-equilibration of the halogens, but changes in the REE concentrations affecting only the outer few micrometers. We conclude that the rate of chemical equilibrium for the halogens is greater than the rate of physical equilibrium for texture, which in turn is greater the rate of chemical equilibrium for REEs. We illustrate these processes with a natural example of contaminated granite from the South Mountain Batholith in Nova Scotia. Given that all granites are contaminated rocks, we propose that future petrogenetic studies focus on developing techniques for a minerals-based quantitative estimation of contamination (QEC).

Keywords: apatite, granite, chlorine, fluorine, REE, diffusion, equilibration, South Mountain Batholith

Running Title: Assimilation of xenocrystic apatite in peraluminous granitic magmas

INTRODUCTION

In forensic science, Locard's Principle states that any physical contact between two objects necessitates a transfer of material between them. In geological science, all granites are in physical contact with their wall rocks, *ergo* all granites must have exchanged material with the wall rocks, to varying extents. Country-rock xenoliths, country-rock xenocrysts, and new peritectic phases in the granites all represent physical manifestations of this contamination. If these physically distinct contaminants are included in whole-rock chemical analyses, there clearly must be a country-rock component in those measured compositions. If the contaminants have been completely assimilated, with no physical evidence remaining, again the whole-rock chemical composition will contain a country-rock component.

The uniformly peraluminous South Mountain Batholith (~375 Ma) of southwestern Nova Scotia (MacDonald, 2001; Clarke, 2019) is a perfect natural laboratory in which to study the effects of contamination. It is enveloped along more than 95% of its surface by 10-km thick metagreywackes and metapelites of the Cambro-Ordovician Meguma Supergroup. The 15 most abundant mineral species in the country rocks are identical to the 15 most abundant mineral species in the batholith, but the proportions, compositions, and textures of these minerals are, of course, significantly different. When mineral phase X from the country rock joins mineral phase X in the granite magma, the two varieties of X undergo physical and chemical changes to reach physical and chemical equilibrium by chemical exchange through the medium of the silicate melt (Clarke, 2007). Ideally, to fully understand the contamination history of a granite, it is preferable that the system has *not* reached equilibrium so that the contaminants are still physically and chemically recognizable.

Over the last two decades, we have systematically studied the contamination in the South Mountain Batholith from a mineralogical standpoint, one phase at a time, including garnet (Lackey et al., 2011), cordierite (Erdmann et al., 2004), andalusite (Clarke et al., 2005), rutile (Carruzzo et al., 2006), ilmenite (Clarke and Carruzzo, 2007), sulphides (Clarke et al., 2009), and apatite (Jähkel, 2010).

The dual purposes of this study are to conduct experiments that simulate the contamination of an apatite-bearing granite magma with foreign apatite, and to illustrate the contamination and assimilation processes with an example from the South Mountain Batholith. We demonstrate that a detailed assessment of the role of contamination, as revealed through a careful examination of the mineralogy of individual phases, is essential to understand the petrogenesis of granites.

EXPERIMENTAL AND ANALYTICAL PROCEDURES

Apatite – peraluminous granite melt experiments

We prepared a synthetic peraluminous $\text{SiO}_2\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Na}_2\text{O-K}_2\text{O}$ (SANK 1.3) granite gel using tetra-ethyl orthosilicate (TEOS) and Al-Na-K nitrates (Hamilton and Henderson, 1968; Rizkalla et al., 1991). In this gel, the nominal $\text{K}_2\text{O/Na}_2\text{O}$ ratio is 1.2, and the nominal peraluminosity $\text{A/NK} \approx 1.3$. Of special note is that this unfused starting gel contains none of the chemical components of apatite (Ca-P-F-Cl-REE), similar to the apatite dissolution experiments of Wolf and London (1994). The unfused SANK 1.3 gel was stored permanently in a drying oven at 110 °C, but it may initially have contained some H_2O , considering that it is extremely

hygroscopic, and it could have gained more H₂O from the atmosphere during weighing, grinding, and loading.

The apatite used in the experimental runs consisted of grains of synthetic fluorapatite APS-64 (F-Ap), synthetic chlorapatite APS-65 (Cl-Ap), and natural Durango apatite (D-Ap). The synthetic apatite compositions were synthesized using a variation of the molten flux method outlined by [Schettler et al. \(2011\)](#) (see also [Cherniak, 2000](#)). [Xu et al. \(2020\)](#) reported the mean major-element composition of the Durango apatite as (wt%): CaO 54.19; P₂O₅ 40.78; SiO₂ 0.43; FeO 0.04; Na₂O 0.25; F 3.09; Cl 0.42; SO₃ 0.33.

We conducted two types of experiments ([Table 1](#)). The ‘dry’ experimental runs contained 90% SANK 1.3 gel, and equal amounts of two or three different apatite types ground together in an agate mortar before loading into either 1 cm long, 3 mm wide Au capsules (low temperature experiments) or Pt capsules (high temperature experiments), which were arc-welded shut. The ‘wet’ experimental runs were identical to the ‘dry experiments’ except for containing an additional 4 wt% H₂O ([Table 1](#)). The H₂O was loaded first before the solids. The Au or Pt capsules were checked for leaks by weighing, heating in a 105 °C oven overnight, and then weighed again. Any capsule that showed weight loss was discarded.

Trial experiments at natural granite magma conditions were first run in standard, cold seal, 6 mm bore autoclaves on a hydrothermal line at 750 °C and 200 MPa for 2000 hours with H₂O as the pressure medium. These experiments were buffered at approximately the Ni-NiO oxygen buffer resulting from the presence of Ni metal filler rods, which occupied the bore of the autoclave not occupied by the Pt capsules. Temperatures were measured externally by a thermocouple tip inserted into the end of autoclave near the Pt capsules. Thermocouples are

accurate to within ± 3 °C. No variation in temperature was observed during each run. The maximum temperature gradient along the length of a capsule was approximately 5 °C. Pressure on the hydrothermal line was calibrated against a pressure transducer calibrated against a Heise gauge manometer for which the quoted pressure is accurate to ± 5 MPa. The autoclaves were quenched after the run using compressed air, reaching temperatures of ca. 100 °C within 1 minute.

These experiments produced little or no detectable physical or chemical changes in the apatite compositions. After some further trials, experiments at 1200 °C, 200 MPa, 192 h were run in an internally heated gas pressure vessel (IHPV) at the GeoForschungsZentrum (GFZ) in Potsdam, Germany. The two advantages of these run conditions are that apatite is the only solid phase, and that physical-chemical equilibration is still only partial. The IHPV used is a Harwood argon-pressurized vessel at the GeoForschungsZentrum (GFZ) in Potsdam, Germany, which can reach a maximum pressure and temperature of 1 GPa and 1250 °C, respectively. [Holloway \(1971\)](#) and [Berndt et al. \(2002\)](#) provided general descriptions of IHPVs and rapid quench sample holder setups. The pressure vessel consists of several components: an autoclave, an intensifier, a pre-pressure pump, and an electrical switchboard. The GFZ autoclave is a tool-steel cylinder surrounded by H₂O-cooled copper-tube windings, where a resistance furnace together with a sample holder is inserted from the bottom and fixed onto a closure head sealing the vessel. The thermal gradient inside the sample holder is controlled by two internal S-type (Pt-Pt90Rh10) thermocouples connected to two separate heating loops (molybdenum wires), which are hooked up to a EUROTHERM program controller. Temperature variations along the length of the capsules are less than 5 °C. Pressure is measured *in-situ* with a pressure gauge (measurement

accuracy: 1 MPa), while pressure variations were less than 5 MPa, being automatically adjusted throughout the experimental run duration.

Experimental run-conditions were kept constant at 1200 °C and 200 MPa for 192 h utilizing two middle thermocouples in contact with the samples (Table 1). Each run consisted of a Pt basket suspended by a Pt wire holding up to six Pt capsules (maximum length 30 mm). Isobaric, rapid quench (~150 °C/sec) was achieved by melting the Pt wire such that the Pt basket dropped into the lower ceramic falling tube part of the sample holder which was kept at room temperature (Berndt et al., 2002).

After quench, the capsules were extracted, carefully examined, cleaned, weighed, and opened. The capsules were then dried at 105 °C overnight. A portion of the extracted experiment was mounted in epoxy and polished for back scattered electron (BSE) imaging and electron microprobe (EMP) analysis.

Scanning electron microscope observation

The backscattered electron (BSE) images and preliminary chemical analyses were performed on TESCAN Mira3 LMU field emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM) at St. Mary's University. It is equipped with an Oxford Instrument X-Max 80 mm² large-area silicon drift detector energy-dispersive X-ray spectrometer. Operating conditions were 20 kV with an electron beam spot size of about 5 nm.

Electron microprobe (EMP) analysis

Chemical analyses of apatite crystals were performed using the JEOL Hyperprobe JXA-8500F and 8530F+ microprobes at GFZ Potsdam with five wavelength dispersive spectrometers. The samples were coated with a 20 nm thick carbon film and analysed for major and trace elements using an accelerating voltage of 15 kV and a spot size of 10 μm . Standards and operating conditions for EMP analysis of the three apatite types and the peraluminous granite glasses are contained in [Tables 2](#) and [3](#), respectively. To increase the count statistics for trace elements, but minimize volatile (F, Cl) diffusion ([Stormer et al., 1993](#); [Goldoff et al., 2012](#)), a current of 20 nA was applied. Volatiles were measured first.

Problems in measurement of F in apatite grains include: (i) count rates are low for low atomic number elements; (ii) concentrations of F are low (maximum F = 3.77 wt% in fluorapatite); (iii) volatilization of F can occur under the electron beam, resulting in decreasing count rates with time; (iv) the count rate on F, and thus apparent concentration of F, varies as a function of the orientation of the apatite grain ([Stock et al., 2015](#); [Stormer et al., 1993](#); [Wudarska et al., 2021](#)); and (v) secondary fluorescence effects. Because of these problems, the error bars for F are large, and we report only the means in the subsequent tables and figures. This error in F measurement translates over to the estimation of OH on the halogen site for an assumed apatite formula of $\text{Ca}_5(\text{PO}_4)_3(\text{F,Cl,OH})$, because it is a calculated value based on the assumption that the halogen site is fully occupied by F, Cl, and OH, and that the total charge on the halogen site is -1.

For quantitative chemical analyses of the peraluminous granite glasses, a 15 kV, 20 nA, 20 μm diameter electron beam was applied to achieve an acceptable current density of 0.06 nA/ mm^2 ([Morgan and London, 2005](#)). Under such conditions, the Na loss could be 5%, which is on average 0.18 wt% Na_2O . Further specifications regarding the calibration material and

counting times are given in **Table 3**. Volatiles such as F and Na were measured first, using the L-type variants of necessary crystals to achieve the maximum count rate within the shortest measurement time. Although peaks are narrow, L-type crystals show much higher counting rates than former J-type crystals and are therefore more suitable for trace element concentrations. Minimum detection limits at 3-sigma above mean background are in the range of 0.01 to 0.06 wt% for all analysed elements except for REE₂O₃ (0.09 wt%) and F (0.12 wt%).

Qualitative line scans were done using the JXA 8500F with 15kV and 5nA. For grains larger than 10 µm the stage scan was used. For smaller grains the beam scan was used. Dwell times varied from 0.5-2s and probe size from ~0.5 to 1µm.

Laser ablation inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS)

Trace-element concentrations in the Durango apatite starting material and run-product glasses were determined using the laser ablation inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS) facility located in the Health and Environments Research Centre (HERC) Laboratory at Dalhousie University. The system employs a frequency quintupled Nd:YAG laser operating at 213 nm, coupled to a Thermo Scientific iCAP Q ICPMS quadrupole mass spectrometer with He flushing the ablation cell to enhance sensitivity (Eggins et al., 1998a,b). Samples were analysed using a laser repetition rate of 10 Hz, spot size of 25 µm, and laser output of ~5 J/cm². All samples were analysed by rastering the beam across the sample surface. Factory supplied time resolved software (Qtegra) was utilized for the acquisition of individual analyses. A typical analysis involved 20 seconds of background acquisition with the ablation cell being flushed with He, followed by laser ablation for 60 seconds, then 40 to 60 seconds of cell washout. Analyses were collected in a sequence in which two analyses were done on the NIST 610 standard reference material at the start of the acquisition cycle, then after every 20 analyses

on the unknowns. All LA-ICP-MS data reduction was done off-line using the Iolite version 4.0 software package (Paton et al., 2011). Ablation yields were corrected by referencing to the EPMA-measured concentration of Ca in the apatite and the glass.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, we present the results, and discuss, sequentially, all our observations on the chemical compositions of the run-product apatite grains, the glass compositions, the diffusion rates, the textural appearance of the run-product apatite grains, and an example of apatite contamination from the South Mountain Batholith. In our analysis of the results, we consider only stoichiometric $\text{Ca}_5(\text{PO}_4)_3(\text{F}, \text{Cl}, \text{OH})$, with no consideration of a possible oxyapatite component.

Chemical Composition of Run-Product Apatite Grains

Preliminary experiments at 750 °C, 200 MPa, and 2000 h. To determine the rate of chemical and textural equilibration of the fluorapatite and Durango apatite in a peraluminous granitic melt, a set of experiments containing these two apatites plus SANK 1.3 gel experiments plus water were first conducted at geologically reasonable operating conditions, i.e., 750 °C, 200 MPa, and 2000 h. Both of the starting apatite compositions showed little textural change, except for slight rounding of the corners of the shards. The Durango fluorapatite appears to show some evidence of diffusion of Cl out of the solid grain with presumably some exactly reciprocal diffusion of OH into the apatite grain (Figure 1).

After a set of additional experiments at 1000 °C, 200 MPa, and 72 h, in the IHPV, utilizing Pt capsules, produced results similar to the 750 °C experiments, we then decided to run the experiments at 1200 °C, 200 MPa, and 192 h as a final attempt to obtain an approach to chemical equilibrium between some of the components in the melt and apatites, as well as an approach to textural equilibrium.

Experiments at 1200 °C, 200 MPa, and 192 h with two starting apatite compositions. Here the two starting apatites consisted of the three possible pairs of synthetic fluorapatite (F-Ap), synthetic chlorapatite (Cl-Ap), and natural Durango apatite (D-Ap) (Table 1). The principal chemical differences between the apatite starting materials are in the halogens and the REEs. The starting synthetic fluorapatite has 3.77 wt% F, but no Cl or REEs; the starting synthetic chlorapatite has 6.81 wt% Cl, but no F or REEs; and our measured starting Durango apatite has means of 3.39 wt% F, 0.43 wt% Cl, and 0.91 wt% Σ REEs ($\text{La}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{Ce}_2\text{O}_3$). Table 4 shows the mean halogen compositions for the apatite run products in the six experimental runs, including the starting compositions. Figure 2 shows a mol proportion F-Cl plot of those apatite grains. The composition of the run product apatite should be the average of the two starting material apatites, minus the amounts of F and Cl variously taken up in the melt and separate fluid phase (if present).

Run-product apatite grains in AA-11 and AA-14 have low F/Cl, as in the Cl-Ap + D-Ap starting material (Table 4). Run-product apatite grains in AA-10 and AA-13 have high F/Cl, as in the F-Ap + D-Ap starting material. Run-product apatite grains in AA-9 and AA-12 have inexplicably high F/Cl, unrelated to the F-Ap + Cl-Ap starting material. The only difference is

the absence of Durango apatite and REEs. The question then arises as to whether the REEs somehow stabilize the F/Cl ratio in the run products.

Calculating by difference from [Figure 2](#), apatite grains in the AA-9 ‘dry’ run have 13 mol% OH, whereas those in the AA-12 ‘wet’ run have 19 mol% OH, an increase of 1.46 times. Similarly, apatite grains in the AA-10 ‘dry’ run have 9 mol% OH, whereas those in the AA-12 ‘wet’ run have 16 mol% OH, an increase of 1.78 times. Finally, apatite grains in the AA-11 ‘dry’ run have 24 mol% OH, whereas those in the AA-14 ‘wet’ run have 46 mol% OH, an increase of 1.91 times. Apparently, the higher the concentration of Cl in the starting materials, the greater is the loss and replacement by OH ([Kusebauch et al., 2015](#)).

Only runs AA-10, AA-11, AA-13, and AA-14 contain the Durango apatite, and therefore REEs, in the starting materials ([Table 1](#)). If the run-product apatite grains had reached equilibrium for the rare-earth elements, their compositions should be the average of the two starting material apatites, minus the (minor) amounts of La_2O_3 and Ce_2O_3 taken up in the melt. [Figure 3](#) shows that the ΣREE contents in the run-product apatites span the entire range from the Durango apatite to each of the synthetic apatites, suggesting that the system had not yet reached chemical equilibrium for ΣREEs at these run conditions. Instead, the spread in ΣREE concentrations in the run-product apatite grains is a combination of Durango losing ΣREE and the synthetic fluorapatite or chlorapatite gaining ΣREE , but in no case has the system reached chemical equilibrium for the ΣREEs .

Experiments at 1200 °C, 200 MPa, and 192 h with three starting apatite compositions. Runs AA-15 to AA-18 contain all three apatites (synthetic fluorapatite, synthetic chlorapatite, natural Durango apatite) as starting materials (**Table 1**). As in the experiments with two apatite starting materials, the ratio of apatite/(apatite + SANK 1.3) = 0.10. **Table 5** shows the mean halogen compositions for the apatite run products, and **Figure 4** shows a mol proportion F-Cl plot of these grains. As above, the composition of the run-product apatite grains should be the average of the three starting material apatites, minus the amounts of F and Cl taken up in the melt and separate fluid phase (if present).

Unlike the runs containing two apatite compositions, the presence of Durango apatite in these four runs does not appear to stabilize F/Cl in the starting materials and run products. The ‘dry’ runs (AA-15, AA-17) have a low (OH) component; the ‘wet’ runs (AA-16, AA-18) have a high (OH) content, but the run apatite grains in these experiments did not acquire as much (OH) as in the two-apatite experiments.

As in the runs with two apatite starting compositions, if the run-product apatite had reached equilibrium for the REE, their compositions should be the average of the three starting material apatites, minus the (minor) amount of La₂O₃ and Ce₂O₃ taken up in the melt and separate fluid phase (if present). **Figure 5** shows that the ΣREE (La₂O₃ + Ce₂O₃) contents in the run-product apatites span almost the entire range from the Durango apatite to each of the synthetic apatites, suggesting again that the system had not reached chemical equilibrium for ΣREEs at the chosen run conditions. Also, relative to the results involving two-apatite starting compositions, the compositions of analysed grains in the three-apatite runs are skewed towards low concentration of REEs. This skewness possibly reflects a combination of the 2:1 ratio of

REE-free to REE-bearing apatite in the starting materials and the coarser grain sizes in runs AA-17 and AA-18 that inhibit equilibration by chemical diffusion.

Chemical composition of run-product glasses

London et al. (2012) cautioned that finely-ground starting materials absorb atmospheric H₂O onto their surfaces, and that it remains there under desiccation. The starting SANK 1.3 gel, was kept dry in a drying oven at 105 °C. However, in an experiment where a sample of the gel was placed in a crimped platinum capsule and heated it to 1000°C for 2 hours, the weight loss was 3.6%. Thus, the starting material for the ‘dry’ runs may contain approximately 4% H₂O, and the starting material for the ‘wet’ runs, with 4% added H₂O, may contain approximately 8% H₂O. To facilitate comparison of the compositions of the glasses, we report their compositions as anhydrous (Table 6).

Major Elements in Runs AA-9 and AA-12. Runs AA-9 and AA-12 contained F-Ap and Cl-Ap and were ‘dry’ and ‘wet’, respectively. Glass AA-9 contained some small bubbles, whereas glass AA-12 contained many larger bubbles (Figure 6); thus, both melts appear to have been saturated with H₂O vapor.

Table 6 reports the compositions of the starting gel and the glasses in runs AA-9 and AA-12. The starting gel, SANK 1.3, contains no components other than SiO₂-Al₂O₃-Na₂O-K₂O. Any other component in the run glasses has come from dissolution of apatite, namely CaO, P₂O₅, F and Cl; however, the concentration of F is below the EMP lower limit of detection, because it has been strongly partitioned into apatite (Webster et al., 2009; Li and Hermann, 2017). Also, the

REEs are absent because there was no Durango apatite in the starting materials. There are several implications arising from the compositions of the glasses in runs AA-9 and AA-12.

First, the CaO/P₂O₅ wt% ratio in stoichiometric apatite is 1.34, but this ratio is 2.47 ± 0.10 in the ‘dry’ AA-9 glass and 3.36 ± 0.15 in the ‘wet’ AA-12 glass. If apatite had simply dissolved congruently in the SANK 1.3 melt, the CaO/P₂O₅ ratio in the glass should be 1.34. Alternatively, if the apatite had dissolved incongruently, there should be a new solid phase in the run products (e.g., [Wolf and London 1995](#)), but apatite is the only solid present. The remaining explanation for the ‘missing’ P₂O₅ is that it partitioned into the fluid as either H₃PO₄ or as one or more sodium phosphate complexes ([London et al., 1993](#); [Keppler, 1994](#)). For run AA-12, which contains more water, these additional fluids could have extracted more P₂O₅ from the glass (resulting in a higher CaO/P₂O₅ ratio in the glass) than in run AA-9. Assuming that, in our experiments, CaO is a more reliable indicator of apatite solubility than P₂O₅, we can use our measured CaO and P₂O₅ _{meas} concentrations in the glasses to calculate adjusted values of P₂O₅ _{adj} (Table 6) so that the CaO/P₂O₅ ratio in the glass is also 1.34.

Second, except for the appearance of the dissolved apatite components, the glass compositions in the two runs are similar to that of the starting gel (Table 6); however, the peraluminosity (A/CNK) is significantly different. Clearly, apatite dissolution has introduced CaO into the melt and has lowered its A/CNK from an initial value of 1.3 to ≈ 1.0 .

Solubility of apatite is always expressed in terms of some function of P₂O₅ content. We can compare our apatite solubility data, as indicated by P₂O₅ _{meas} or P₂O₅ _{adj}, at 1200 °C, 200 MPa, and 75% SiO₂, with other determinations, as follows:

(a) No agreement with the dependence of apatite solubility, as determined by P_2O_5 in the melt, on peraluminosity using the empirical relationship

$$P_2O_{5\text{melt}} = -3.4 + 3.1 \cdot (A/CNK)_{\text{melt}} \quad (1)$$

of [Wolf and London \(1994\)](#). However, their experiments were done at the much lower temperature of 750 °C, and apatite solubility is strongly dependent on temperature ([Harrison and Watson 1984](#)).

(b) Potential agreement with the dependence of apatite solubility on peraluminosity, as determined by P_2O_5 in the melt ([Pichavant et al. 1992; Fig. 2](#)), but requiring an extrapolation well beyond their experiments at 1000 °C.

(c) Good fit with the dependence of the apatite solubility parameter, as determined by $\ln((P_2O_5)^{1.5} \cdot (CaO)^5)$, on melt SiO_2 [$P_2O_{5\text{ meas}} = 2.40$ and $P_2O_{5\text{ adj}} = 3.66$ are within the range reported by [Tollari et al. \(2006; Fig. 10\)](#) for 80.57 and 82.40 mol% SiO_2 , respectively].

(d) Reasonable fit with the dependence of apatite solubility on melt SiO_2 , as determined by $\ln D_P^{\text{apatite/melt}} [= 4.2 \text{ for } P_2O_{5\text{ meas}} \text{ and } 3.4 \text{ for } P_2O_{5\text{ adj}} \text{ compared with } 4.0 \text{ for } ($ [Harrison and Watson 1984; Fig. 3](#) $) \text{ at } 1200^\circ\text{C}$.

(e) Better fit for mean $P_2O_{5\text{ meas}}$ (0.66 wt %) than for mean $P_2O_{5\text{ adj}}$ (1.40 wt %) for the dependence of apatite solubility on temperature ([Green and Watson \(1982; Fig. 2\)](#), who report P_2O_5 concentrations of 0.5 to 1.0 wt % in melts with 75 wt% SiO_2 at temperatures between 1080 and 1165 °C.

In summary, given the differences in temperature-pressure-composition conditions, the solubility of apatite in our experiments is broadly compatible with a wide range of previous work.

Third, the concentration of CaO in the ‘wet’ glass of AA-12 is slightly higher than in the ‘dry’ glass of AA-9 (Table 6), suggesting that H₂O might have some positive effect on apatite solubility.

Fourth, in our experiments, the starting melt has A/CNK=1.3, but as apatite begins to dissolve, the A/CNK of the melt decreases, and apatite solubility contrarily decreases (Wolf and London 1994; Pichavant et al. 1992). Ultimately, apatite dissolution stops because the melt becomes saturated. In our runs, the apatite grains stopped dissolving when the A/CNK of the melt reached approximately 1.0 (i.e., neither peraluminous nor metaluminous). Further dissolution of apatite would take the composition of the melt into the metaluminous (A/CNK < 1) domain where apatite solubilities are less well documented.

Fifth, our experimental run products consist solely of apatite + glass ± vapor ± saline fluid. The concentration of Cl in the ‘dry’ and ‘wet’ glasses is identical, meaning that equilibrium had been reached between the melt and apatite, regardless of the existence or proportion of a separate fluid phase. From Tables 4 and 6, the apatite in ‘dry’ run AA-9 has 1.34 ± 0.04 wt% Cl and the glass has 0.21 ± 0.01 wt% Cl. The apatite in ‘wet’ run AA-12 has 0.59 ± 0.05 wt% Cl and the glass has 0.21 ± 0.01 wt% Cl. Thus, in the ‘dry’ run, AA-9, the average $Cl_{ap}/Cl_{gl} = 6.38 \pm 0.36$, i.e., Cl is strongly partitioned into the apatite and the minor fluid phase. In the ‘wet’ run, AA-12, the average $Cl_{ap}/Cl_{gl} = 2.81 \pm 0.27$, i.e., Cl is less strongly partitioned into the apatite, presumably preferring the more abundant free fluid phase, and OH must replace the Cl leaving the apatite. As evidence of the partitioning of Cl into the fluid phase, small crystals of NaCl occur in some of the bubbles in the glasses.

Finally, Webster (1992, Fig. 5) and Webster et al. (2015) used the concentration of Cl in haplogranitic melts to estimate the concentration of Cl in coexisting fluid phases. By this simple metric, our glasses with 0.21 wt% Cl would coexist with a fluid containing ~10 wt% Cl. Alternatively, Webster and Piccoli (2015, Fig. 4) used the partitioning of Cl between apatite and glass to infer the concentration of Cl in a coexisting aqueous fluid phase. By this more complex metric, the fluid phase in ‘dry’ run AA-9 should have contained ~68 wt% Cl, and the coexisting fluid in ‘wet’ run AA-12 should have contained ~23 wt% Cl. Given these uncertainties in the Cl concentration in the fluids, and the unknown proportions of the run products (apatite-glass-fluid), calculating a mass balance for Cl between starting materials and run products is not possible.

Rare-Earth Elements in Runs AA-10 and AA-13. Runs AA-10 and AA-13 contained synthetic fluorapatite and natural Durango apatite and were ‘dry’ and ‘wet’, respectively. As above, the starting granite gel contained only SiO₂-Al₂O₃-Na₂O-K₂O, so all other elements must have come from the dissolution of apatite, including REEs from the Durango apatite. Table 7 shows the concentrations of the REEs in the glasses and the Durango apatite. The first generalization is that the concentrations of REEs in the ‘dry’ AA-10 glass and ‘wet’ AA-13 glass are very similar, suggesting that system H₂O content, at least for concentrations under 10%, is not important in the dissolution of these trace elements. The second generalization is that, for the REEs, the homogeneous glasses contain about 1% of the REE concentrations present in the heterogeneous Durango apatite.

Modeling diffusive re-equilibration of Cl and REE

Measured elemental abundances in apatite from the series of experiments done at 1200 °C for 192 hours reveal generally homogeneous levels of Cl, but a significant range for the REE (i.e., Figures 3 and 5). The exception to this homogeneity is the variation in Cl concentrations in

apatite from experiment AA-17 (and to a lesser extent AA-18), which show a level of variation of up to 30%, exceeding the typical analytical uncertainty of <10%. In each experiment, large compositional gradients in Cl and the REEs were induced using apatite starting materials that have initial concentration levels that are higher or lower than equilibrium values. Whereas wholesale dissolution and reprecipitation would serve to homogenize both the halogens and REE (which likely occurred on a limited scale as evidenced by crystal faceting), differences in the volume diffusion properties of these elements could result in the variable degrees of homogeneity. As summarized by Cherniak (2010), diffusion coefficients in apatite for the anions (OH, F, Cl and O) all show directional anisotropy (faster parallel to c) and are 1-3 orders of magnitude more rapid than the fastest diffusion trace element cations (Sr and Pb) at geological temperatures. In contrast to the cation sites, the anion columns in apatite therefore represent highly directional, rapid transport pathways through the apatite structure.

Cherniak (2000) documented several diffusion mechanisms for the REE in apatite, depending on the substitution mechanism involved. Diffusion coefficients are similar to other divalent cations if simple isovalent REE exchange is involved (e.g., Ce diffusion into apatite that already contains Ce and other LREEs), but more than 10 times slower if a coupled exchange of either $\text{REE}^{+3} + \text{Si}^{+4} \rightarrow \text{Ca}^{+2} + \text{P}^{+5}$ or $\text{REE}^{+3} + \text{Na}^{+1} \rightarrow 2\text{Ca}^{+2}$ is involved to maintain charge balance in the lattice (Pan and Fleet, 2002). Thus, if the REE move by solid state diffusion in the lattice they must couple with a Na or a Si ion as well. This constraint dramatically reduces the diffusion rate, even at high temperatures (cf. Cherniak, 2010). The most efficient means by which REE can be moved in or out of the apatite would be via a coupled dissolution-reprecipitation process where REE movement would be facilitated by fluids in an interconnected porosity in the metasomatized areas of the apatite and the possible formation of monazite

inclusions or rim grains (see [Harlov et al., 2002, 2005](#); [Harlov and Förster, 2003](#)). Such a dissolution-reprecipitation process was apparently not the case here because no apatites from the experiments show metasomatized textures nor the formation of monazite inclusions or rim grains. Instead, the granitic melt interacted with the apatite in such a manner that promoted the exchange of REE between the melt and apatite, based solely on solid state diffusion of REE in the apatite and REE diffusion in the melt. This deduction indicates that the granitic melt was not chemically reactive with either the fluorapatite (synthetic or Durango) or chlorapatite. Rather, each of the three apatite types experienced only some dissolution in, and partial recrystallization from, the melt.

To test the hypothesis that highly variable diffusion rates explain the differences in halogen and REE equilibration in the apatite grains, we calculated model diffusion profiles to simulate re-equilibration of spherical apatite grains using halogen and REE diffusion parameters reported in previous studies ([Table 8](#)). The choice of a spherical grain model is a simplification, but given the wide variability in the shape of grains introduced as powders ([Figures 1, 8, and 9](#)), it serves as a useful approximation for a radial diffusive flux. The solution to Fick's Second law for diffusion into a sphere of radius, a , having an initial solute concentration, C_i , and a concentration at $r = a$ (the crystal-melt interface) fixed at C_o is ([Crank, 1975](#); equation 6.18):

$$\frac{C - C_i}{C_o - C_i} = 1 + \frac{2a}{\pi r} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \sin \frac{n\pi r}{a} \exp \left(-\frac{Dn^2\pi^2 t}{a^2} \right) \quad (2)$$

where D is the diffusion coefficient in m^2/second , t is time in seconds, and r is the radial distance ($r = 0$ is the centre of the sphere, $r=a$ is the outer margin). With the corresponding solution at short times as ([Crank, 1975](#); equation 6.21):

$$\frac{C-C_l}{C_o-C_l} = \frac{a}{r} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left\{ \operatorname{erfc} \frac{(2n+1)a-r}{2\sqrt{(Dt)}} - \operatorname{erfc} \frac{(2n+1)a+r}{2\sqrt{(Dt)}} \right\} \quad (3)$$

in which erfc is 1-erf, and erf is the error function. Values of the diffusion coefficient at a particular temperature were calculated using the Arrhenius equation:

$$D = D_o \exp(-E_a/RT) \quad (4)$$

in which D_o is the pre-exponential factor (m^2/s), E_a is the activation energy (kJ/mol), and R is the gas constant (J/K/mol). Each of the apatite re-equilibration experiments involved apatite starting materials having different initial concentrations of the halogens and REE, in turn imposing differences in C_l . Values of C_o are dictated by the equilibrium apatite/melt partition coefficient and would, therefore, be the same for each apatite grain, regardless of the initial internal composition. The direction of the diffusive flux is variable as well; Cl will diffuse out and F diffuse in for the Cl-apatite starting material, with the opposite sense for the F-apatite starting material. In terms of the REE, both Cl-apatite and F-apatite are REE-free, requiring uptake of REEs to approach equilibrium. The situation is less clear for the Durango apatite starting material, which contains elevated, but somewhat variable levels of the REE (~0.6 to 1.7 wt% $\text{La}_2\text{O}_3+\text{Ce}_2\text{O}_3$; Figure 5). A value for the equilibrium C_o for the REE can be estimated using the apatite/melt partitioning data of Watson and Green (1981) who measured $D_{\text{Sm}}^{\text{apatite/melt}}$, the apatite/melt partition coefficient for Sm, as a function of the melt SiO_2 concentration, yielding an interpolated value of ~15 at the SiO_2 concentration of the melt used in this study. The REE content of the melts from experiments AA-10 and AA-13, both containing Durango apatite, is ~0.013 wt% $\text{La}_2\text{O}_3+\text{Ce}_2\text{O}_3$, yielding an equilibrium C_o of ~0.20 wt% for those experiments. Other experiments with Durango apatite are assumed to have similar levels of REE in the melt, and therefore C_o . Estimating values of C_o for the halogens is complicated by differences in the

proportions of the different apatite types, as well as melt water content, and the fact that apatite-melt partitioning cannot be modeled by a simple Nernst-type partition coefficient, but instead requires the full mass balance involving F-OH, Cl-OH and Cl-F exchange (e.g. McCubbin et al. 2015; Li and Costa 2020; Piccoli and Candela, 1992; Webster et al., 2017). Alternatively, a value of C_o can be estimated by the concentration of the halogens in the run-product apatites, as their homogeneity likely represents melt-crystal equilibrium achieved over the entire grain-scale, an assumption that is borne out by the diffusion models.

Model diffusion profiles for Cl at 1200 °C used the diffusion parameters for F-OH-Cl exchange reported by Brennan (1994; listed in Table 8) for diffusion parallel to the c-axis. Brennan (1994) also report diffusion coefficients measured parallel to the a-axis that are ~100 times slower, therefore the predominant diffusive flux for re-equilibration will be along the c-axis (anisotropy in the diffusion of the REE has not, to our knowledge, been measured or reported (Cherniak, 2010). Diffusion profiles are calculated for durations of 2, 10, and 50 hours, thus less than the 192 hour run-times of the experiments. The profiles presented in Figure 7a were calculated with equation 2. The model simulates diffusion in a 50 μ m radius grain of Durango apatite with a value for C_i of 0.43 wt% Cl (average reported in Table 4), with C_o pinned at the value corresponding to experiment AA-14 (concentrations from other experiments would yield the same overall result in terms of extent of equilibration). As is clear from Figure 7a, complete homogenization of the grain at 1200 °C is essentially complete after 50 hours. For this grain size, employing the diffusion coefficient for Cl measured by Li et al (2020) would yield a similar result, but requiring 100 hours for complete homogenization. The Cl diffusivity reported in Li et al. (2020) corresponds to a “tracer diffusivity”, meaning that it applies to diffusion in the absence of OH or F counter fluxes and is, therefore, expected to be larger than the value applicable to F-

Cl-OH apatite solutions, thus the re-equilibration time modeled using the [Li et al \(2020\)](#) data is probably a minimum time. Inspection of [Figures 1, 8, and 9](#) show that most apatite grain sizes are generally less than 50 μm , indicating that an experiment duration of 192 hours at 1200 °C is sufficient to completely homogenize the initial gradients in halogen concentration, consistent with the experimental results. However, some larger ($> 100 \mu\text{m}$) grains are also evident, as shown in [Figure 9](#) for experiment AA-17. Diffusion model results for grains with radii greater than 150 μm indicate homogenization timescales of more than 200 hours. Therefore, analysis of the central portions of these larger grains, such as in AA-17, would yield Cl concentrations either above or below the equilibrium concentration, depending on the identity of the original apatite precursor.

Model curves for the diffusive loss of the REE simulated for a grain of assumed Durango apatite initial composition are shown in [Figure 7b](#). In this case, equation 2 is unstable for such small values of the diffusion coefficient for the durations considered, and equation 3 was employed instead. Unlike the case for Cl, the diffusion profiles for the REE show only limited penetration into the apatite grain, extending to only $\sim 3 \mu\text{m}$ after 200 hours. Random microprobe analyses of initial Durango apatite grains resulting from experiments subject to these conditions would therefore yield total $\text{La}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{Ce}_2\text{O}_3$ concentrations ranging from C_1 (~ 0.6 to 1.7 wt\%) to C_o ($\sim 0.2 \text{ wt\%}$). Cl-apatite and F-apatite grains that were initially REE-free would yield concentrations ranging from a C_o of $\sim 0.2 \text{ wt\%}$ to undetectable. This range of concentrations is indeed observed in the analyses of run-product apatite, consistent with the limited extent of diffusive re-equilibration predicted by the diffusion model. We conclude that the large difference in the level of homogeneity exhibited by Cl and the REE is a product of diffusion-controlled re-equilibration.

Textural Modifications of Run-Product Apatite Grains

Figure 8 shows the apatite grain sizes and shapes in each of the six runs containing two starting apatite compositions. All grains began as angular shards, but after the runs, they are all rounded, and some show development of crystal faces. Theoretically, from the standpoint of the surface/volume ratio, the many small irregular apatite shards in the starting materials should be the first to become rounded as they all dissolve in the silicate melt, or disappear entirely depending on the grain size, until the melt is saturated with apatite. With longer run times, the remaining apatite grains should gradually develop crystal faces until all the grains become euhedral as a continuation of the Ostwald ripening effect. Measurement of the attainment of textural equilibrium are only qualitative, nevertheless we can make some statements about the progress in this direction based on the development of crystal faces.

Figure 9 shows the apatite grain sizes and shapes in the four runs containing three starting apatite compositions. The run-product apatite grains appear to retain more of their initial angular shapes than in the two-apatite experiments above, and there are fewer grains developing crystal faces. Figure 10 shows a schematic representation of what these experiments have shown regarding how chemical and textural equilibrium is approached in a granitic melt. The physical appearances of the grains can be deceptive. Euhedral grains of apatite, and all other minerals, can be purely magmatic, peritectic, or of overgrown xenocrystic in origin. The default origin for a euhedral grain is magmatic, because we expect that a mineral growing unrestrictedly in a silicate melt, especially an early-saturated phase such as apatite, would develop unimpeded crystal faces, at least up to the point where crystals interfere with each other. Peritectic grains are particularly problematic, because they appear to be magmatic (e.g., andalusite - Clarke et al. (2005);

cordierite - [Erdmann et al. \(2009\)](#); K-feldspar - [MacDonald and Clarke \(2017\)](#)), despite their constituent chemical components being foreign. Some euhedral grains are suspect magmatic, because they are not common minerals in granites (andalusite, cordierite), and others are particularly deceptive because they are also common as purely magmatic phases (K-feldspar). Furthermore, two adjacent euhedral grains of the same mineral in the same rock can have completely different origins. Only some combination of physical and chemical parameters can reveal the correct interpretation of their origins.

A Natural Example of Apatite Assimilation

Apatite mineralogy and compositions

[Jähkel \(2010\)](#) investigated phosphate mineral relations along both sides of the contact of the contaminated, post-tectonic, peraluminous South Mountain Batholith ([MacDonald, 2001](#); [MacDonald and Clarke, 2017](#)) with metasedimentary rocks of the Meguma Supergroup. One granite sample (P7G3) contains a chain of apatite grains extending in both directions from a small xenolith into the enclosing granite (sample P7G3, [Figures 11a,b,c](#)), representing a microcosm of the contamination process discussed in this paper. In simple terms, this natural sample contains two distinct types of apatite, analogous to our synthetic experiments. The apatite grains in the xenolith are small and anhedral; the apatite grains in the granite are large and subhedral to euhedral. In the same granite sample, remote from the xenolith, are many other apatite grains ([Figure 11d](#)), and in the adjacent country rocks, apatite occurs as ultra-fine-grained bands ([Figure 11e](#)). [Table 9](#) shows the chemical compositions for these apatite grains in granite sample P7G3, and [Figure 12](#) shows chemical variation diagrams for Ce-Y and Fe-Mn.

F-Cl Relations

All apatite grains (**Table 10**), regardless of their occurrence in the xenolith or in the granite, and regardless of whether core or rim, have identical halogen compositions, within analytical error. These results suggest that the halogens have reached chemical equilibrium in this contaminated granite. We can deduce from our trial experiments at 750 °C, 200 MPa, and 2000 h, where halogen equilibrium was not reached, that this P7G3 natural system, at ca. 750 °C and 300 MPa, clearly must have taken much longer than 2000 h (~ 3 months) to achieve its chemical equilibrium for F-Cl. Our diffusion modeling shows that, at 750 °C, it would take 80 years to homogenize Cl in a 50 µm radius apatite grain, and 6000 years in a 500 µm radius apatite grain.

Ce₂O₃-Y₂O₃ and FeO-MnO Relations

In the P7G3 natural apatite system, the concentrations of La are below our EMP analytical lower limit of detection, but the Ce and Y concentrations are measurable. Thus, we use Ce-Y in the natural system as a proxy for comparing with the La-Ce results in the synthetic system. Also, except for minor Fe and Mn in the Durango apatite, our synthetic system contained no first transition series elements, but almost all natural systems do, so we can examine them as well (**Figure 12**). We make the following observations:

(i) The apatite grains show an extremely wide range of concentrations of Ce₂O₃ (0.03–0.26 wt%), Y₂O₃ (0.05–0.39 wt%), FeO (0.05–0.81 wt%), and MnO (0.28–0.97 wt%) in a single thin section; (ii) the green ellipses enclose the tight element distribution in the apatite cores (grains A-4, A-5, A-6, A-7) in the xenolith; and (iii) every apatite grain is zoned, but the core-rim vectors do not point to a single composition.

Interpretation

In general, accessory minerals (apatite, monazite, zircon, magnetite, ilmenite, rutile, allanite, titanite) in granites contain a wealth of petrogenetic information about age, temperature, F/Cl ratios in the melt and coexisting fluid (if any), contamination, magma differentiation and evolution as captured in zoning, etc. ([Stokes et al., 2019](#); [Wolf and London, 1994](#); [Lux et al., 2006](#); [Webster and Piccoli, 2015](#); [Kusebauch et al., 2015](#); [Wones, 1989](#); [Anderson, 1996](#); [Hoshino et al., 2007](#); [Carruzzo et al., 2006](#); [Jung et al., 2000](#)). In addition, textural evidence ([Clarke et al., 2021](#)), supported by experimental work ([Wolf and London, 1994](#)), shows that apatite may saturate early in peraluminous granite magmas such as the South Mountain Batholith. If so, under such conditions of high T and low crystallinity, these early-formed apatite grains might be expected to be homogeneous in composition, but apparently this is not the case.

Granite sample P7G3 is contaminated, clearly containing xenoliths of country rock. Locard's Principle applied to this sample, namely the exchange of materials after physical contact, indicates that the dual processes of attaining chemical and textural equilibrium (assimilation) were still under way when this assemblage of cognate and foreign materials reached its thermodynamic solidus temperature ([Clarke, 2007](#)). All the apatite grains in P7G3 have equilibrated, i.e., assimilated, with respect to F and Cl, but not for Ce-Y or Fe-Mn in the granite magma that crystallized this rock. The wide chemical variation for Ce-Y and Fe-Mn in all the apatite grains indicates that the rates of cooling above, and perhaps also below, the solidus, were too rapid to achieve chemical equilibrium by diffusion. Likewise, the textural assimilation is, at best, only partial. We deduce that, on the centimeter scale of the thin section, and even on the micrometer scale of the single grains, the apatite grains in granite sample P7G3 have

probably had more than the two obvious sources (foreign from the one visible xenolith, and cognate from the granite magma), as observed in other granites (Lux et al., 2006; Sun et al., 2021, and references therein).

It is possible that the streaks of ultra-fine-grained apatites in country rock sample P6C1 (Figure 11e) were the precursors for the coarsened apatite chain in granite sample P7G3. Specifically, however, any apatite grain in the xenolith almost certainly has a metamorphic origin, but any apatite grain in the granite can be purely magmatic or modified xenocrystic in origin, and those xenocrysts may be different from those in the one xenolithic source observable in granite sample P7G3. The physical and chemical processes that may have been operating in granite sample P7G3 include:

- (i) fractional crystallization, to explain some of Ce-Y and Fe-Mn zoning in single crystals, however zoning directions are not uniform, suggesting additional disequilibrium processes such as magma recharge, magma mixing, and a wide range of xenocrystic apatite compositions, all recorded by the apatite grains;
- (ii) local conditions, e.g. apatite is included in, or proximal to, biotite, and an ability to exchange with nearby, but much rarer, monazite or xenotime;
- (iii) Ostwald ripening, including dissolution of small grains and overgrowth on large grains, to explain some of the cases of reverse zoning of Ce-Y and Fe-Mn, as well as the textural changes in apatite from small and anhedral to large and euhedral; and
- (iv) diffusion of F-Cl through the silicate melt, including melt along grain boundaries in the small xenolith, and through all the solid apatite grains to achieve chemical equilibrium for the halogens.

Because the halogens have reached chemical equilibrium in granite sample P7G3, we deduce that the time the natural system remained active for F-Cl exchange was on the order of the modeled 80-6000 years noted above. [Bea \(2010\)](#) showed that the cooling rates of batholiths to their solidus temperatures are on the order of thousands to tens of thousands of years. The implication would then be that, however long the natural system took to crystallize, in this case of the South Mountain Batholith, it was insufficient to equilibrate Ce-Y, or even Fe-Mn between the melt and the apatite.

IMPLICATIONS

Contrary to the elementary textbook tripartite classification of rocks, granites are not strictly igneous rocks, but rather hybrids. Granted, their principal component was a siliceous silicate melt, but that melt had been in contact with foreign rocks from the time of its ascent out of the source region to the time of its emplacement. Those foreign components can variously join the initial silicate melt as xenoliths, xenocrysts (including restites), peritectic grains, and melt. The more physically and chemically anomalous the solid foreign material is to the magmatic crystallization products, the easier it is to identify as foreign (e.g., staurolite). The more physically and chemically similar the solid foreign material is to the magmatic crystallization products, the harder it is to identify as foreign (e.g., quartz). Between these extremes are minerals, such as our natural apatite grains in sample P7G3, that show attainment of chemical equilibrium for F and Cl, but not for Fe, Mn, Ce, and Y, and only some indication of attainment of textural equilibrium. Granitic rocks would be much less revealing about their origins if they had always reached physical and chemical equilibrium. In such a scenario, there would be no

textural or chemical information preserved about the past histories of their constituent minerals.
Consequently, *every mineral grain* in a granite must be interrogated about its origin.

As our experiments on, and natural example of, apatite have shown, foreign material will
undergo various degrees of physical and chemical equilibration with cognate material. In the rare
event of perfect physical and chemical equilibration of cognate and foreign material, only whole-
rock geochemistry can detect the former contamination. Otherwise, physically and/or chemically
identifiable relics of contamination remain, and this must be the case for most granites.

For 50 years, traditional whole-rock geochemistry (majors, traces, isotopes) and
application of assimilation-fractional crystallization (AFC) models have reached a petrogenetic
limit, and new approaches are needed. Given that all granites are contaminated rocks, we
propose that future petrogenetic work should begin to focus instead on a minerals-based
quantitative estimate of contamination (QEC). Such work would begin with a detailed inventory
and characterization of the minerals in the country rocks to establish the physical and chemical
properties of the contaminants, and continue the same characterization in the minerals of the
granite. Then apply a range of discriminant techniques, ranging from simple histograms to
multivariate statistics, for each quantifiable physical and chemical parameter in minerals of the
granite and country rock to arrive at independent quantifiable estimates of contamination (QEC)
for each phase.

Much of the otherwise tedious data collection can be automated. For example, [Clarke et al. \(2021\)](#) examined the spatial association of >15,000 accessory mineral grains in three granite
samples, except that limited study needs to go further to assess the cognate or foreign origin for
every grain in the granite sample to get a minimum estimate for the extent of contamination,

given that some foreign grains may have completely equilibrated by dissolution, melting, or
diffusive ion exchange (Clarke, 2007).

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Figure Captions

Figure 1: Preliminary experiments at 750 °C, 200 MPa, and 2000 h. (a) large grain of Durango apatite showing Cl diffusion gradient over a distance of 20 µm toward its margin. The apatite grain boundary with the silicate melt is not detectable on the Cl line scan. The apatite appears to be losing Cl to the silicate melt and is presumably gaining OH because the F profile appears unchanged. (b) Even this small apparently detached satellite apatite grain is not homogenized with respect to Cl. White lines in both images highlight the microprobe line scan.

Figure 2: Plot of apatite run products as a function of F and Cl for experimental runs with two starting apatite compositions. Apatite compositions in ‘wet’ runs have lower Cl and higher OH concentrations than those in the corresponding ‘dry’ runs. Stoichiometric Cl-Ap has 0.192 mol Cl, stoichiometric F-Ap has 0.198 mol F, and stoichiometric OH-Ap has 0.195 mol OH. For representational simplicity, all these mol fractions are rounded to 0.200 in [Figures 2](#) and [4](#).

Figure 3: REE concentrations in 30 run-product apatite grains from each experiment containing two starting apatite compositions, including the Durango apatite. The wide range of ΣREE in the Durango apatite is a measure of its inhomogeneity; the wider range of ΣREE in the experimental run apatites is a measure of the failure of the system to attain chemical equilibrium with respect to the REE.

Figure 4: Plot of apatite run products as a function of F and Cl for experimental runs containing three starting apatite compositions. Apatite compositions in the ‘wet’ runs have lower Cl concentrations than those in the corresponding ‘dry’ runs. The effect of added H₂O is to increase the concentration of OH in the apatite and to lower the Cl/F ratio in the apatite run products, suggesting that Cl is preferentially partitioned into a separate fluid phase.

Figure 5: REE concentrations in 30 run-product apatite grains for all experiments containing three starting apatite compositions. The wide range of Σ REE in the Durango apatite is a measure of its inhomogeneity; the wider range of Σ REE in the experimental run apatites is a measure of the failure of the system to attain chemical equilibrium with respect to the REE. The greater scatter in Cl concentrations for apatites from the ‘dry’ runs than from the ‘wet’ runs suggests that a separate fluid phase may be responsible for increasing the rate of anion exchange.

Figure 6: Images of experimental glasses. (a) ‘Dry’ run AA-9 with some small bubbles. (b) ‘Wet’ run AA-12 with abundant large bubbles. The only solid phase is apatite.

Figure 7. Diffusion Profiles. (a) Calculated concentration as a function of distance for the diffusive uptake of Cl into a spherical grain of apatite with a radius of 50 μ m. Model curves are calculated for a temperature of 1200 °C using the diffusion parameters (D_o , E_a) measured by Brenan (1994) assuming an initial Cl concentration of 0.43 wt% and an equilibrium concentration of 2.2 wt%. The initial value corresponds to the average Durango apatite starting material, and the equilibrium concentration is assumed to be the final concentration of apatite in

experiment AA-14. Curves are labelled according to the time in hours. (b) Calculated concentration as a function of distance for the diffusive uptake of REE (sum of $\text{La}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{Ce}_2\text{O}_3$) into a spherical grain of apatite with a radius of 50 μm (note the change of x-axis scale compared to Figure 7a (above). Model curves are calculated for a temperature of 1200 °C using the diffusion parameters (D_o , E_a) reported by Cherniak (2000) assuming an initial $\text{La}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{Ce}_2\text{O}_3$ concentration of 0.998 wt% and an equilibrium concentration of 0.2 wt%. The initial value corresponds to the average Durango apatite starting material and the equilibrium value at the crystal margin is calculated assuming a $D^{\text{apatite/melt}}$ of 15 and a melt $\text{La}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{Ce}_2\text{O}_3$ concentration of 0.013 wt%. Curves are labeled according to the time in hours.

Figure 8: BSE images of experimental run products from experiments AA-9 through AA-14 involving two starting apatite compositions. Apatite grains in each of the six runs show significant rounding of their original shard shapes, presumably caused by chemical dissolution. Some of the apatite grains show the development of crystal faces (white arrows), probably as epitaxial overgrowths on the original anhedral grains, which serves as evidence of their approach to textural equilibrium. In addition, many grains show slightly lighter-colored rims that may indicate diffusion-controlled compositional differences prior to reaching either chemical or textural equilibrium.

Figure 9: BSE images of run products from experiments AA-15 through AA-18 involving three starting apatite compositions. Runs AA-15 and AA-16 are ‘dry’ and ‘wet’, respectively, and all starting materials were finely ground. Runs AA-17 and AA-18 are ‘dry’ and ‘wet’, respectively,

and the SANK 1.3 gel was the only finely ground starting material. Run AA-18 contains rare euhedral grains (white arrow), and some clusters of either skeletal/quench apatite grains or apatite grains that have undergone differential dissolution, outlining a rough apatite shape (white arrows with question marks).

Figure 10: Schematic representation of the physical and chemical approaches to equilibrium. In the experiments, and in nature, the processes behind the attainment of chemical equilibrium involve dissolution into the silicate melt, diffusion through the silicate melt, followed by chemical exchange and solid-state diffusion in the apatite grains. Physical/textural equilibrium is attained by changes in shape from shards to round to euhedral, from many to few by Ostwald ripening, and from anhedral to euhedral by epitaxial overgrowth.

Figure 11: Naturally occurring apatite grains in granite sample P7G3 representing a microcosm of the contamination process. (a-c) Chain of apatite grains extending in both directions from within a small xenolith (dashed outline) into the enclosing granite. Apatite grains in the xenolith are small and anhedral. Apatite grains in the granite are large and more euhedral. (d) Four large, subhedral to euhedral, and texturally apparently magmatic, apatite grains in granite sample P7G3 outside the chain. (e) CCL image of country-rock sample P6C1 showing a band of ultra-fine-grained apatite. PPL – plane polarized light; BSE – backscattered electrons; CCL – color cathodoluminescence.

959 **Figure 12:** Apatite grain compositions in granite sample P7G3, showing cores and rims (joined
960 by arrows) with respect to Ce_2O_3 vs. Y_2O_3 (a), and FeO vs. MnO (b). The dashed green ellipses
961 contain the cores of the smallest and most anhedral metamorphic apatite grains (A-4 to A-7) in
962 the xenolith (as in Figures 11a,b,c). Boxes summarize core-rim vector quadrants: UL – up left;
963 UR – up right; DL – down left; DR – down right.

Table 1. Experimental conditions

Run	T (°C)	P (MPa)	t (hours)	SANK1.3 (mg)	F-Ap (mg) ^a	Cl-Ap (mg) ^b
AA-9	1200	2	192	21.82	1.09	1.09
AA-10	1200	2	192	21.82	1.09	
AA-11	1200	2	192	21.82		1.09
AA-12	1200	2	192	20.94	1.05	1.05
AA-13	1200	2	192	20.94	1.05	
AA-14	1200	2	192	20.94		1.05
AA-15	1200	2	192	21.82	0.73	0.73
AA-16	1200	2	192	20.91	0.71	0.71
AA-17	1200	2	192	18.50	0.53	0.62
AA-18	1200	2	192	17.46	0.54	0.59

a - synthetic fluorapatite APS-64; b - synthetic chlorapatite APS-65; c - Durango fluorapatite
 * - ratio of amount of apatite relative to starting granitic gel by mass.

D-Ap (mg) ^c	Added H ₂ O (mg)	Ap/Gel*
	0.00	0.10
1.09	0.00	0.10
1.09	0.00	0.10
	0.96	0.10
1.05	0.96	0.10
1.05	0.96	0.10
0.73	0.00	0.10
0.71	0.96	0.10
0.57	0.00	0.10
0.5	0.80	0.10

e.

Table 2. Operating conditions for electron microprobe analysis of apatite

Element	Calibration Material	Source	Spectral Line/Diffracting Crystal
Ca, P	Apatite, natural	Durango	K α /PETJ
F	Fluorite, natural	Astimex	K α /LDE1
Cl	Tugtupite, natural		K α /PETH
La	LaPO ₄ , synthetic	Smithsonian	L α /LIF
Ce	CePO ₄ , synthetic		

Counting Time (s) Peak/Background
10/10
10/10
40/60

Table 3. Operating conditions for electron microprobe analysis of peraluminous granite g

Element	Calibration Material	Source	Spectral Line/Diffracting Crystal
Ca, P	Apatite, natural	Durango	K α / PETL/ PETH
Cl	Tugtupite, natural		K α / PETH
Mn	Rhodonite, natural		K α / LIFL
Si	Quartz, natural	Astimex	K α / TAP
Na	Albite, natural		K α / TAPL
F	Fluorite, natural		K α / LDE1L
Al, K	Orthoclase, natural	GeoMK	K α / TAP/ PETL
Fe	Hematite, natural		K α / LIFL
Ce	CePO ₄ , artificial	Smithsonian	L α / LIF
La	LaPO ₄ , artificial		

lasses

Counting Time (s)
Peak/Background
20 / 20, 30/ 30
20 / 20
10/10
30 / 30

Table 4. Mean compositions of run-product apatite grains in experiments with two starting apatite compo

Run	Start	n	F (wt%)	1 σ	Cl (wt%)	1 σ	F (mol)	Cl (mol)
AA-9	F-Ap + Cl-Ap	36	2.49	0.15	1.34	0.04	0.131	0.038
AA-10	F-Ap + D-Ap	30	3.33	0.13	0.09	0.01	0.175	0.003
AA-11	Cl-Ap+ D-Ap	31	1.08	0.13	3.23	0.06	0.057	0.091
AA-12	F-Ap + Cl-Ap	32	2.70	0.22	0.59	0.05	0.142	0.017
AA-13	F-Ap + D-Ap	31	3.09	0.14	0.05	0.01	0.162	0.001
AA-14	Cl-Ap+ D-Ap	32	0.84	0.11	2.17	0.07	0.044	0.061
Stoich F-Ap	*	*	3.77	*	0.00	*	0.198	0.000
Stoich Cl-Ap	*	*	0.00	*	6.81	*	0.000	0.192
D-Ap	*	13	3.39	0.15	0.43	0.04	0.178	0.012
Initial 9-12	F-Ap + Cl-Ap	*	1.89	*	3.41	*	0.099	0.096
Initial 10-13	F-Ap + D-Ap	*	3.58	*	0.22	*	0.188	0.006
Initial 11-14	Cl-Ap+ D-Ap	*	1.70	*	3.62	*	0.089	0.102

Apatite analyses are of randomly oriented grains in the experimental run. Part of the spread in F concentration is due to grain orientation (Stormer et al. 1993). The most reliable halogen parameter is Cl. F-Ap – synthetic F-apatite; Cl-Ap – synthetic Cl-apatite; D-Ap – synthetic D-apatite.

ositions

OH Diff (mol)	F (mol %)	Cl (mol %)	OH (mol %)
0.026	67.24	19.40	13.36
0.017	89.77	1.35	8.87
0.047	29.16	46.77	24.07
0.036	72.77	8.58	18.65
0.031	83.29	0.71	16.00
0.089	22.77	31.37	45.86
-0.003	101.77	0.00	-1.77
0.003	0.00	98.51	1.49
0.004	91.51	6.22	2.27
0.000	50.88	49.25	-0.14
0.000	96.64	3.11	0.25
0.004	45.75	52.36	1.88

rations is EMPA analytical error, and another part is apatite
 Cl-Ap – synthetic Cl-apatite; D-Ap – natural Durango apatite

Table 5. Average compositions of initial and run-product apatite grains in experiments with three start

Run	n	F (wt%)	1 σ	Cl (wt%)	1 σ	F (mol)	Cl (mol)	OH Diff (mol)
AA-15	31	2.72	0.16	1.20	0.06	0.143	0.034	0.018
AA-16	31	2.16	0.12	0.96	0.04	0.114	0.027	0.054
AA-17	31	2.53	0.17	1.37	0.14	0.133	0.039	0.023
AA-18	34	2.54	0.13	0.72	0.03	0.134	0.020	0.041
F-Ap	11	3.77	0.29	0.00	0.01	0.198	0.000	-0.003
Cl-Ap	9	0.00	0.00	6.81	0.11	0.000	0.192	0.003
D-Ap	13	3.39	0.15	0.43	0.04	0.178	0.012	0.004
Initial Bulk		2.39		2.41		0.13	0.07	0.00

ting apatite compositions

F (mol %)	Cl (mol %)	OH (mol %)
73.42	17.40	9.18
58.43	13.87	27.70
68.29	19.77	11.93
68.46	10.46	21.08
101.77	0.00	-1.77
0.00	98.51	1.49
91.51	6.22	2.27
64.42	34.91	0.67

Table 6. Mean major-element compositions of glasses
from runs AA-9 'dry' and AA-12 'wet'

	SANK 1.3* (wt%)	AA-9** (wt%)	1 σ	AA-12** (wt%)	1 σ
n		10		10	
SiO ₂	77.56	74.25	0.95	74.25	1.33
Al ₂ O ₃	14.25	14.49	0.11	14.47	0.19
CaO	0.00	1.83	0.04	1.93	0.01
Na ₂ O	3.72	4.00	0.11	3.89	
K ₂ O	4.47	4.47	0.04	4.65	0.04
P ₂ O ₅ meas	0.00	0.74	0.03	0.57	0.02
P ₂ O ₅ adj***		1.37		1.44	
F	0.00	0.00		0.00	
Cl	0.00	0.23	0.01	0.23	0.01
Total	100.00	101.38		101.43	
A/CNK****	1.30	0.98		0.97	

*Nominal.

**Normalized to anhydrous.

*** P₂O₅ adj = CaO/1.34. Explanation in text.

**** A/CNK = mol (Al₂O₃)/(CaO+Na₂O+K₂O).

Table 7. Rare earth element concentration in run-product glasses and Durango apatite (mg/g)

Experiment	n	La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu
AA-10 1 σ	4	48.03 8.32	66.18 6.33	3.69 0.75	9.63 2.36	1.18 0.37	0.19 0.04	1.18 0.29	0.12 0.05	0.80 0.23	0.19 0.06	0.44 0.22	0.067 0.015	0.48 0.12	0.059 0.009
AA-13 1 σ	3	48.61 2.11	67.06 3.94	4.03 0.12	10.76 0.77	1.51 0.49	0.15 0.03	1.32 0.06	0.13 0.02	0.83 0.13	0.21 0.07	0.63 0.14	0.08 0.00	0.58 0.10	0.05 0.00
Durango 1 σ	7	3658.45 184.16	4772.30 269.08	346.93 14.62	1107.07 55.23	158.08 8.21	15.92 1.26	151.99 9.54	18.05 1.26	105.35 7.21	20.82 1.22	57.75 4.15	7.02 0.54	38.75 2.60	4.75 0.26

Table 8. Model parameters

Species	D_0 (m ² /s)	E_a (kJ/mol)	apatite/melt partition coefficient	D 1200°C (m ² /s)	references
REE	2.60E-07	-324	15	8.44E-19	a,b
Cl-F-OH	1.60E-04	-284	---	1.36E-14	c
Cl	7.00E-05	-294	---	2.63E-15	d

Notes:

a: Values are for La diffusion reported by Cherniak (2000).

b: Partition coefficient for Sm estimated from the variation in apatite/melt partitioning with melt SiO₂ concentration from Watson and Green (1981).

c: Values parallel to c-axis from Brenan (1994).

d: Values for Cl self diffusion reported by Li et al (2020).

Table 9. Compositions (wt %) for cores and rims of the apatite grains from granite sample P7G3

Apatite	Core/Rim	SO ₃	P ₂ O ₅	SiO ₂	Y ₂ O ₃	La ₂ O ₃	Ce ₂ O ₃	Pr ₂ O ₃
A1	Core	0.01	42.26	0.12	0.35	0.02	0.26	0.00
A2	Core	0.00	42.58	0.01	0.17	0.01	0.06	0.06
A3	Core	0.31	39.89	0.10	0.30	0.02	0.09	0.00
A4	Core	0.01	42.06	0.16	0.28	0.07	0.15	0.00
A5	Core	0.00	41.97	0.10	0.30	0.00	0.15	0.01
A6	Core	0.00	42.18	0.09	0.34	0.02	0.14	0.08
A7	Core	0.00	42.12	0.14	0.33	0.00	0.15	0.06
A8	Core	0.00	41.98	0.15	0.39	0.07	0.17	0.13
A9	Core	0.01	42.65	0.15	0.34	0.00	0.15	0.00
A10	Core	0.01	42.08	0.10	0.36	0.06	0.07	0.02
A12	Core	0.00	42.04	0.14	0.32	0.06	0.11	0.00
A11R	Core	0.13	41.65	0.28	0.29	0.05	0.13	0.02
G1	Core	0.00	42.53	0.02	0.08	0.02	0.04	0.00
C1	Core	0.00	42.05	0.07	0.34	0.01	0.13	0.01
C2	Core	0.00	41.90	0.14	0.27	0.02	0.10	0.09
D1	Core	0.00	42.82	0.10	0.32	0.02	0.11	0.00
Mean	Core	0.03	42.05	0.12	0.30	0.03	0.13	0.03
1σ		0.08	0.65	0.06	0.08	0.03	0.05	0.04
A1	Rim	0.01	42.25	0.06	0.29	0.04	0.18	0.00
A2	Rim	0.00	42.47	0.04	0.09	0.00	0.08	0.00
A3	Rim	0.25	40.03	0.13	0.17	0.00	0.04	0.16
A4	Rim	0.01	42.00	0.11	0.24	0.06	0.06	0.00
A5	Rim	0.00	42.22	0.11	0.27	0.00	0.04	0.07
A6	Rim	0.00	41.99	0.10	0.33	0.06	0.13	0.00
A7	Rim	0.01	42.02	0.14	0.32	0.00	0.12	0.20
A8	Rim	0.00	42.19	0.06	0.23	0.02	0.12	0.03
A9	Rim	0.00	42.43	0.08	0.33	0.00	0.13	0.00
A10	Rim	0.01	41.93	0.15	0.29	0.09	0.13	0.02
A12	Rim	0.02	42.04	0.10	0.24	0.05	0.08	0.00
G1	Rim	0.01	42.38	0.04	0.05	0.01	0.03	0.09
C1	Rim	0.01	42.15	0.03	0.29	0.06	0.11	0.04
C2	Rim	0.00	42.06	0.13	0.30	0.00	0.13	0.02
D1	Rim	0.00	42.34	0.11	0.25	0.04	0.11	0.00
Mean	Rim	0.02	42.01	0.09	0.25	0.03	0.10	0.05

1σ

0.07

0.60

0.04

0.09

0.03

0.04

0.07

* - estimated by charge balance on the halogen site.

Nd ₂ O ₃	MgO	CaO	MnO	FeO	Na ₂ O	F	Cl	H ₂ O*
0.19	0.10	53.59	0.92	0.63	0.22	3.36	0.14	0.33
0.01	0.06	54.48	0.84	0.45	0.11	3.40	0.12	0.32
0.14	0.04	50.66	0.70	0.53	0.53	2.84	0.11	0.67
0.11	0.04	54.50	0.82	0.42	0.18	3.40	0.11	0.31
0.07	0.04	54.44	0.82	0.46	0.26	3.46	0.08	0.26
0.12	0.05	54.04	0.93	0.42	0.20	3.40	0.13	0.30
0.06	0.06	54.44	0.84	0.43	0.19	3.56	0.10	0.16
0.18	0.06	53.72	0.94	0.67	0.16	3.42	0.15	0.26
0.18	0.05	53.87	0.97	0.38	0.22	3.26	0.09	0.48
0.07	0.03	54.28	0.86	0.43	0.21	3.32	0.09	0.39
0.08	0.05	54.34	0.76	0.55	0.15	3.51	0.10	0.20
0.04	0.04	54.20	0.71	0.81	0.16	3.63	0.06	0.10
0.00	0.01	55.86	0.28	0.05	0.05	3.92	0.02	
0.10	0.05	54.08	0.94	0.43	0.22	3.51	0.13	0.18
0.07	0.05	54.35	0.74	0.52	0.10	3.49	0.07	0.23
0.07	0.01	54.98	0.69	0.26	0.21	3.55	0.09	0.22
0.09	0.05	54.11	0.80	0.46	0.20	3.44	0.10	0.27
0.06	0.02	1.06	0.17	0.17	0.10	0.22	0.03	
0.08	0.07	53.78	0.87	0.48	0.22	3.24	0.12	0.46
0.10	0.05	54.88	0.68	0.42	0.05	3.40	0.11	0.33
0.08	0.04	51.82	0.69	0.63	0.21	3.04	0.12	0.50
0.04	0.04	54.68	0.72	0.48	0.17	3.56	0.11	0.15
0.03	0.05	54.69	0.72	0.44	0.18	3.66	0.06	0.09
0.08	0.04	54.25	0.86	0.45	0.21	3.54	0.09	0.17
0.10	0.06	54.29	0.77	0.55	0.20	3.53	0.07	0.20
0.06	0.08	54.15	0.94	0.61	0.21	3.46	0.15	0.23
0.09	0.06	54.01	0.88	0.42	0.11	3.45	0.10	0.27
0.12	0.08	54.23	0.77	0.51	0.22	3.46	0.08	0.26
0.09	0.05	54.66	0.74	0.55	0.06	3.61	0.09	0.11
0.04	0.00	55.86	0.28	0.04	0.00	3.82	0.02	
0.08	0.05	53.99	0.84	0.46	0.08	3.47	0.10	0.23
0.11	0.04	54.29	0.74	0.61	0.18	3.42	0.06	0.31
0.11	0.05	54.93	0.64	0.26	0.20	3.73	0.06	0.03
0.08	0.05	54.26	0.75	0.48	0.15	3.48	0.09	0.23

0.03

0.02

0.87

0.16

0.14

0.08

0.18

0.03

Sum	F=O	Cl=O	Total
102.49	1.41	0.03	101.04
102.69	1.43	0.03	101.23
96.62	1.20	0.02	95.40
102.63	1.43	0.02	101.17
102.43	1.46	0.02	100.95
102.43	1.43	0.03	100.97
102.64	1.50	0.02	101.12
102.44	1.44	0.03	100.97
102.80	1.37	0.02	101.41
102.37	1.40	0.02	100.95
102.42	1.48	0.02	100.92
102.17	1.53	0.01	100.62
102.88	1.65	0.01	101.23
102.24	1.48	0.03	100.73
102.14	1.47	0.02	100.66
103.44	1.49	0.02	101.92
102.17	1.45	0.02	100.70
102.13	1.36	0.03	100.74
102.71	1.43	0.02	101.25
97.68	1.28	0.03	96.37
102.43	1.50	0.03	100.91
102.64	1.54	0.01	101.09
102.28	1.49	0.02	100.77
102.58	1.49	0.02	101.07
102.54	1.46	0.03	101.05
102.36	1.45	0.02	100.88
102.33	1.46	0.02	100.86
102.47	1.52	0.02	100.93
102.65	1.61	0.00	101.04
102.00	1.46	0.02	100.51
102.40	1.44	0.01	100.95
102.87	1.57	0.01	101.29
102.08	1.46	0.02	100.60

Table 10. Average halogen concentrations (wt %) in all apatite grains in granite P7G3, regardless of apparent origin (magmatic or xenocrystic)

	n	Core	1 σ	Rim	1 σ
F	16	3.44	0.22	3.53	0.22
Cl	15	0.10	0.03	0.09	0.03

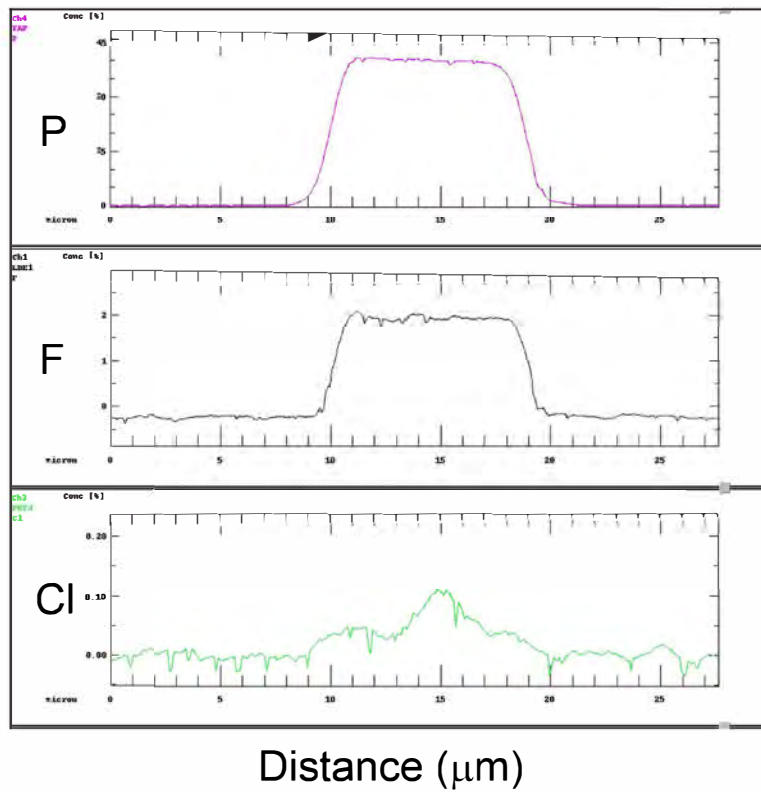
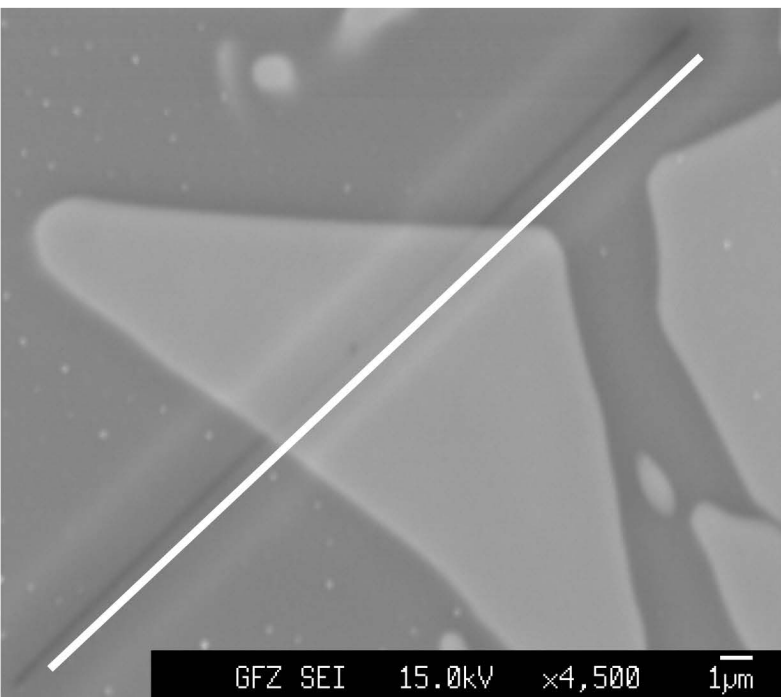
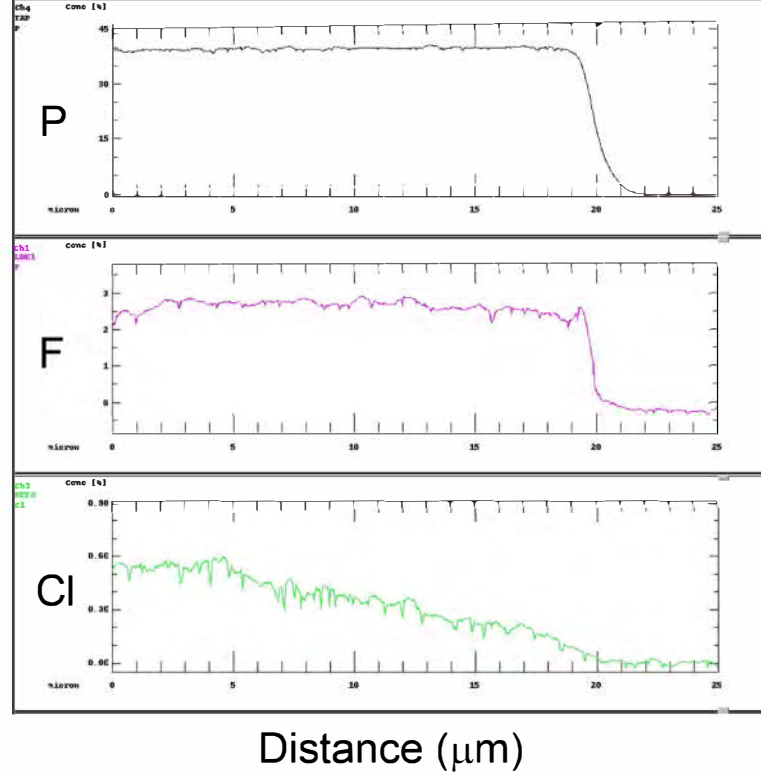
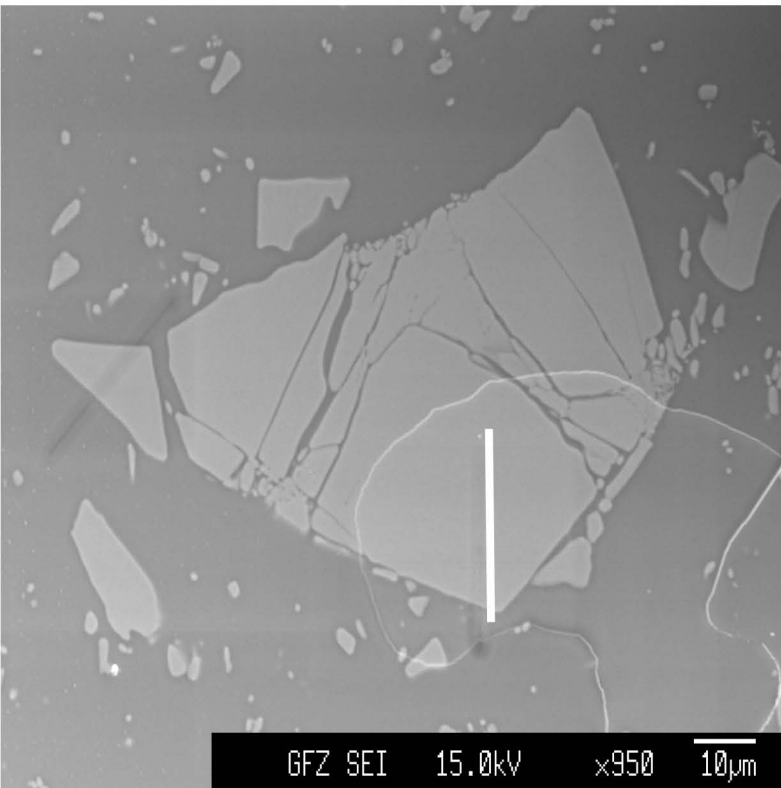


Figure 1

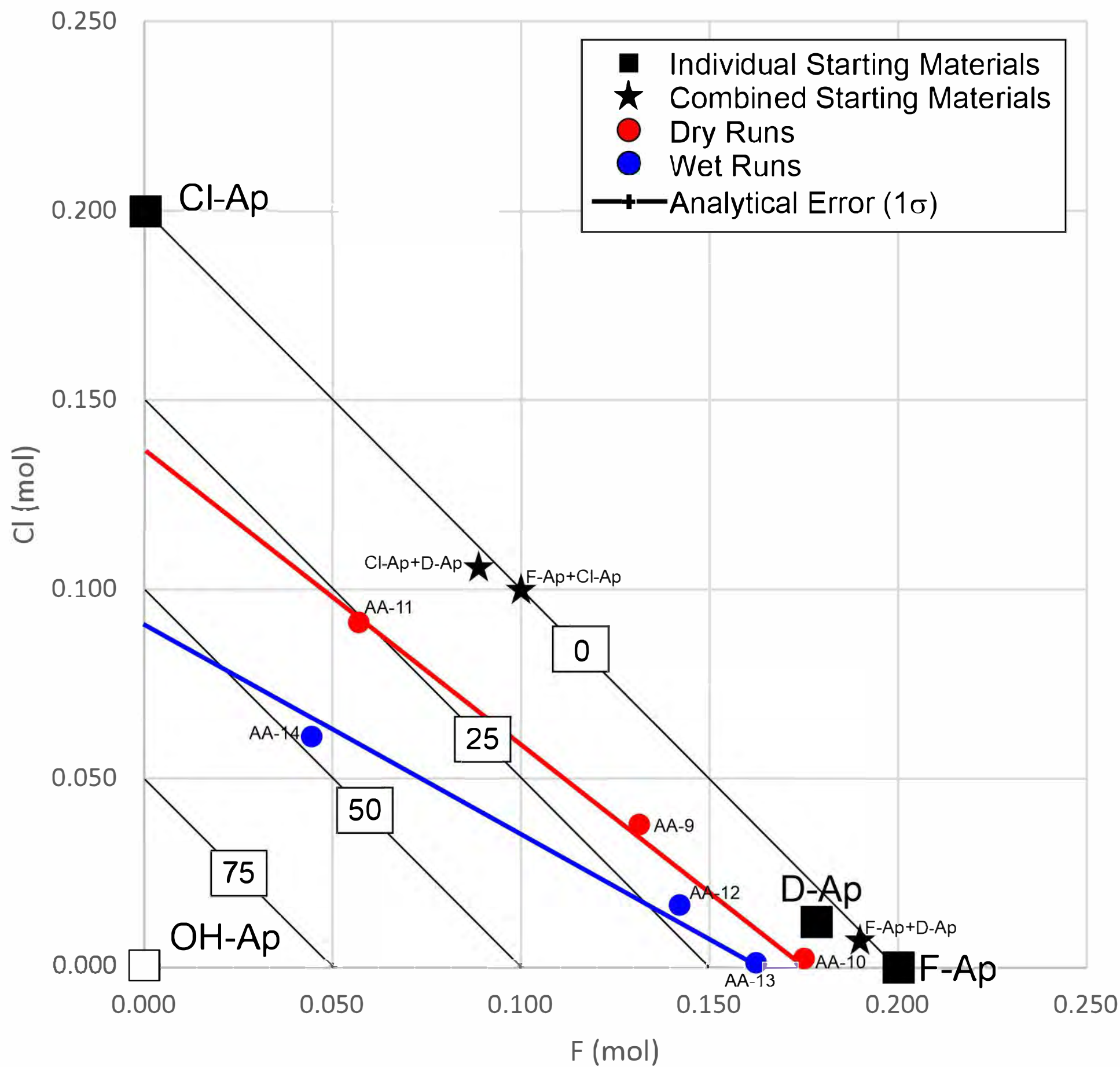


Figure 2

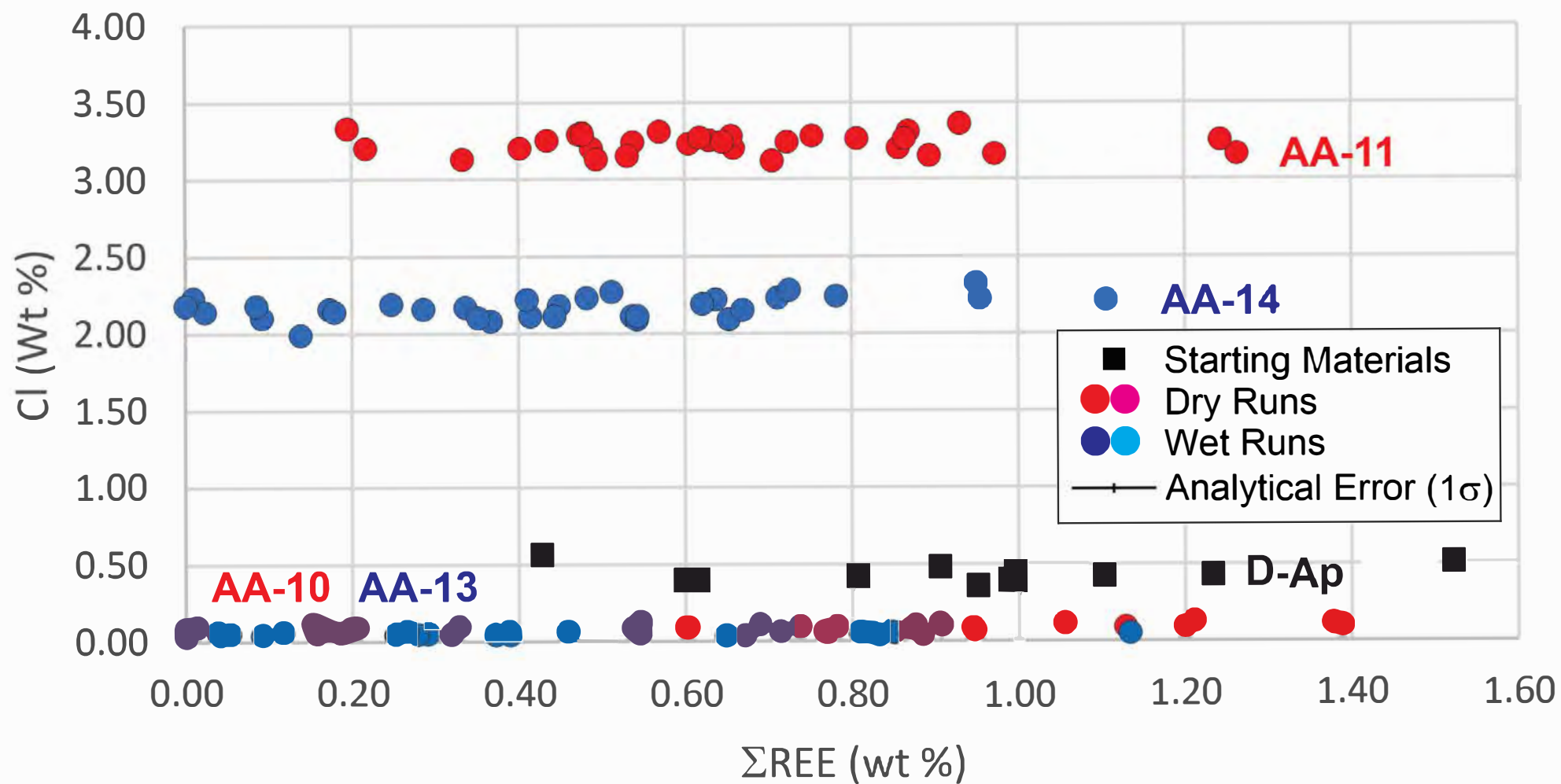


Figure 3

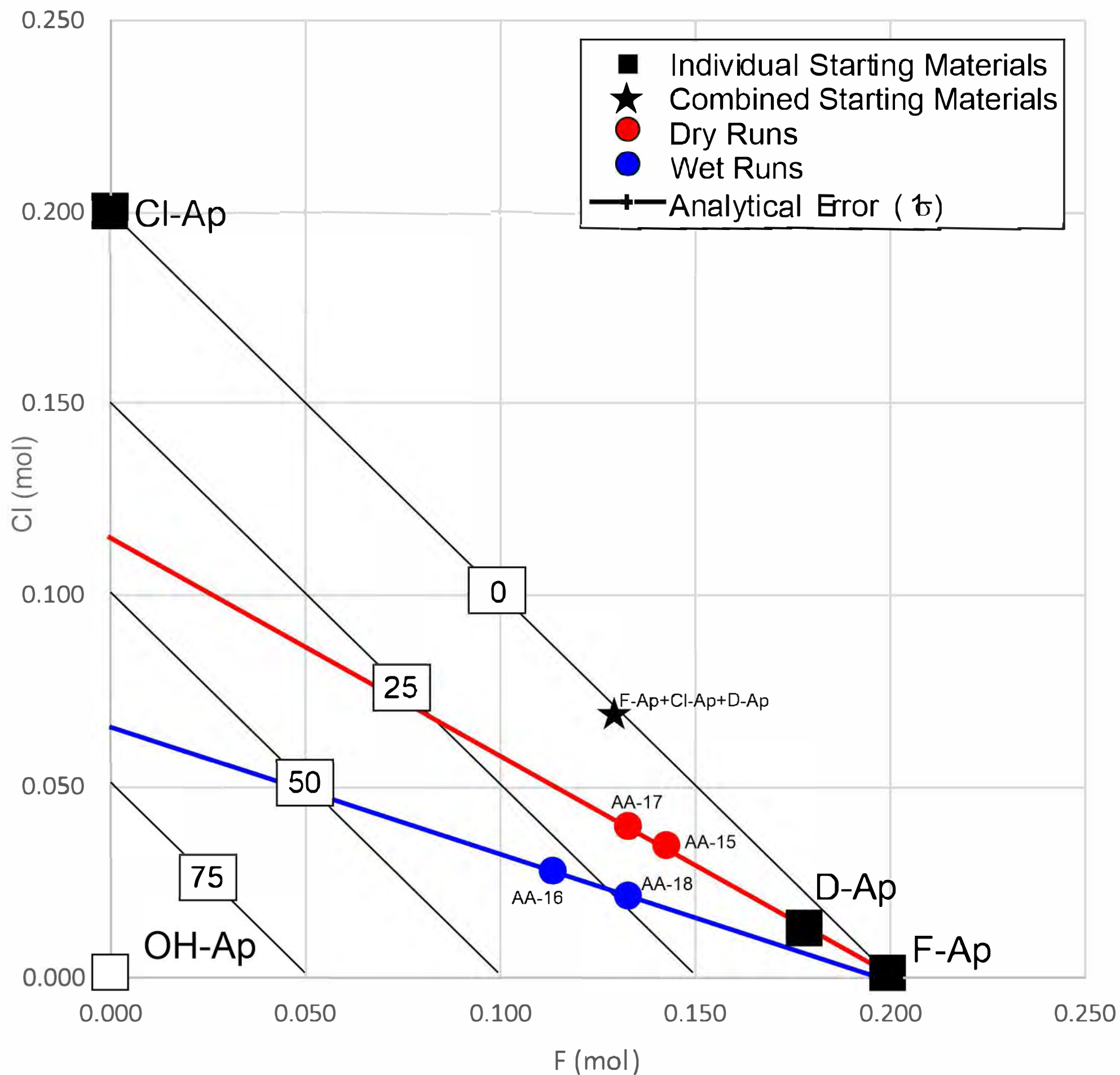


Figure 4

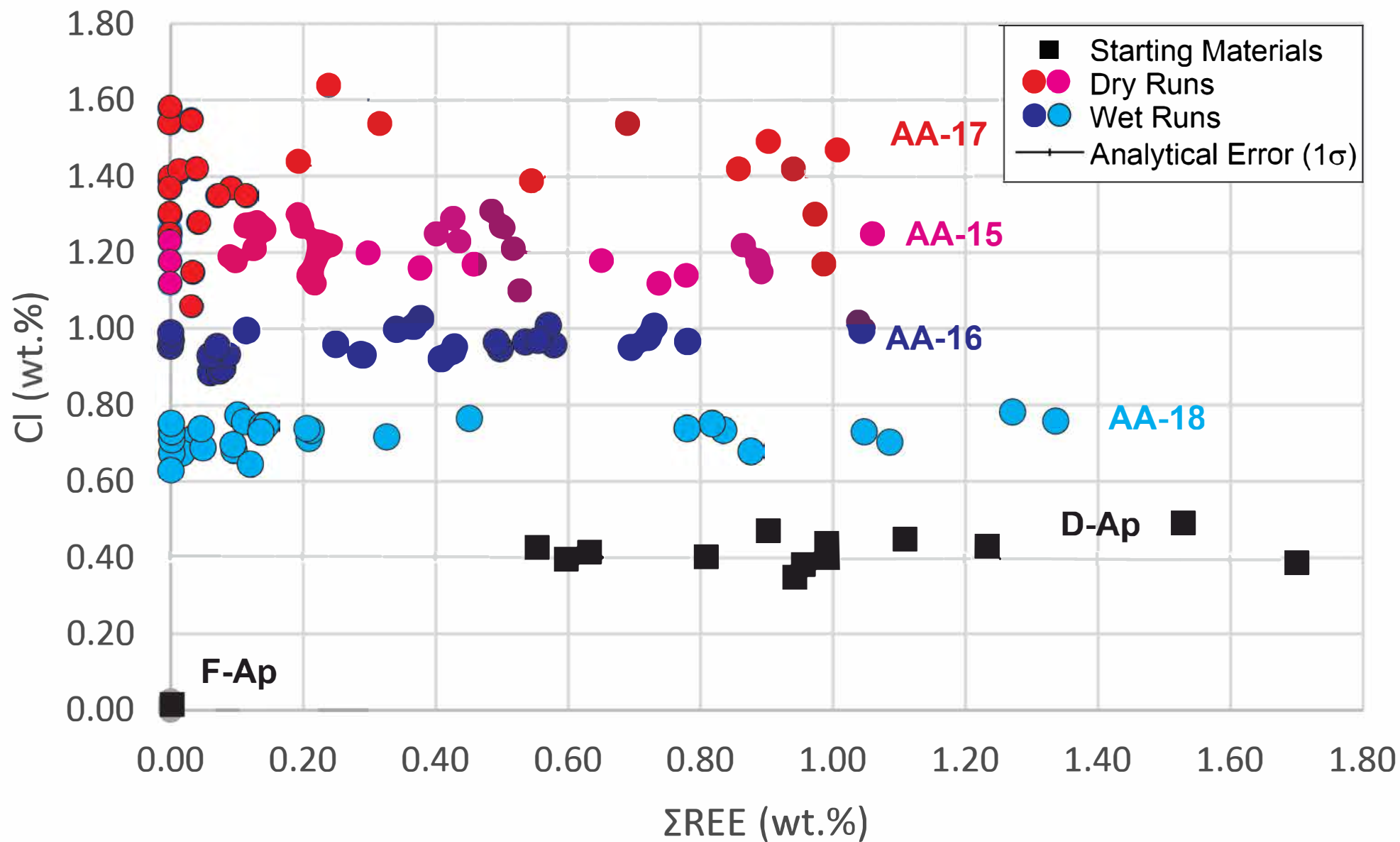


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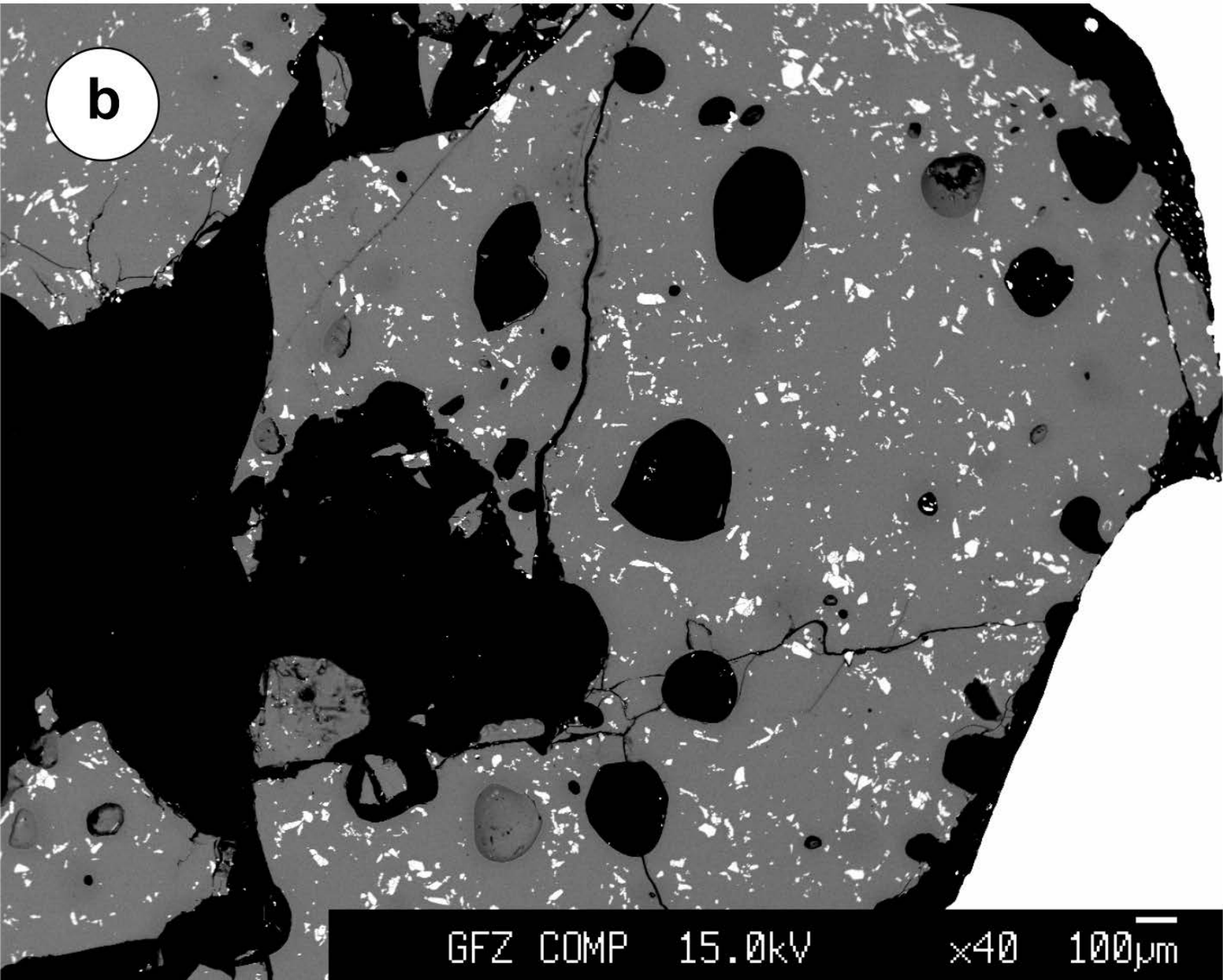
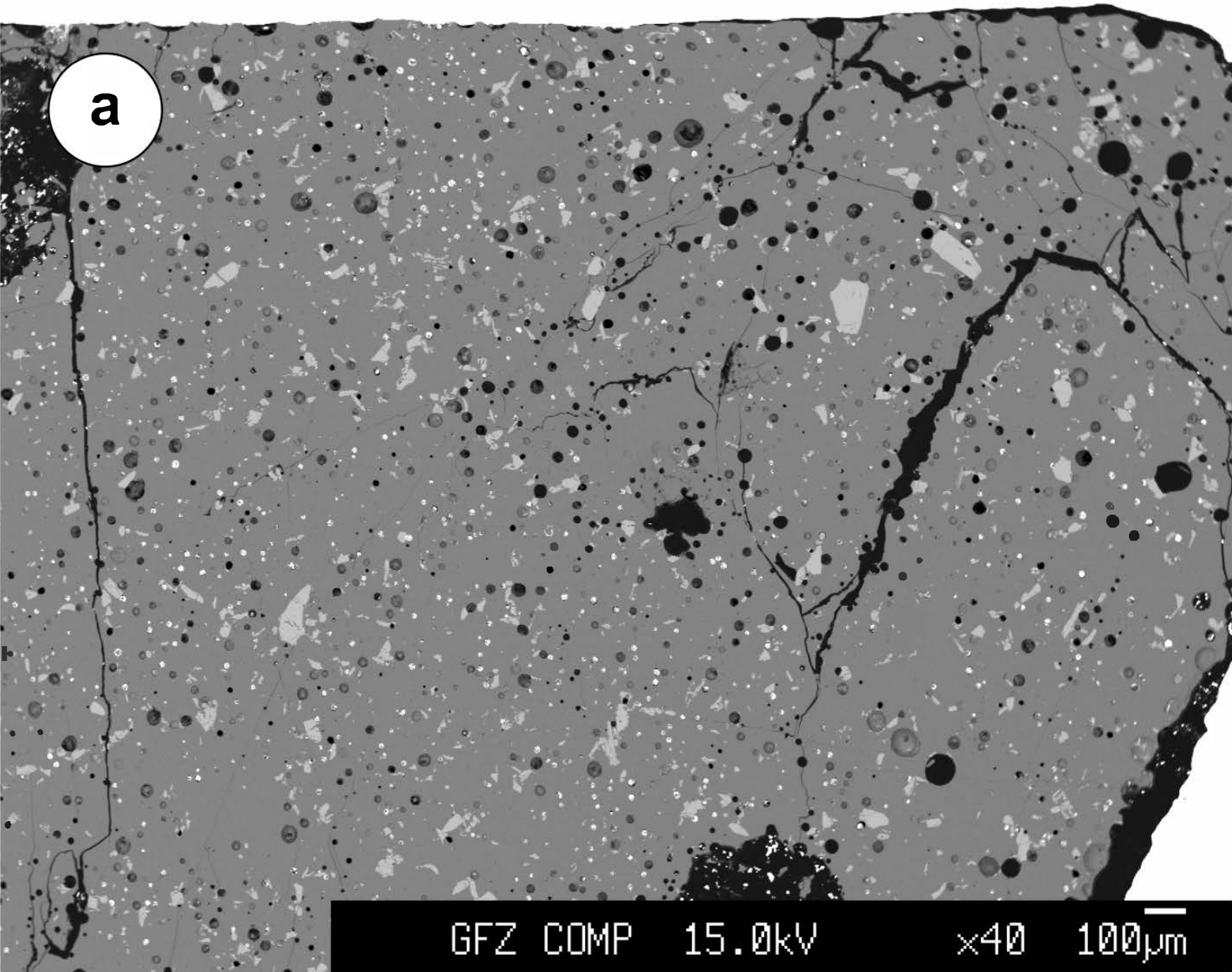


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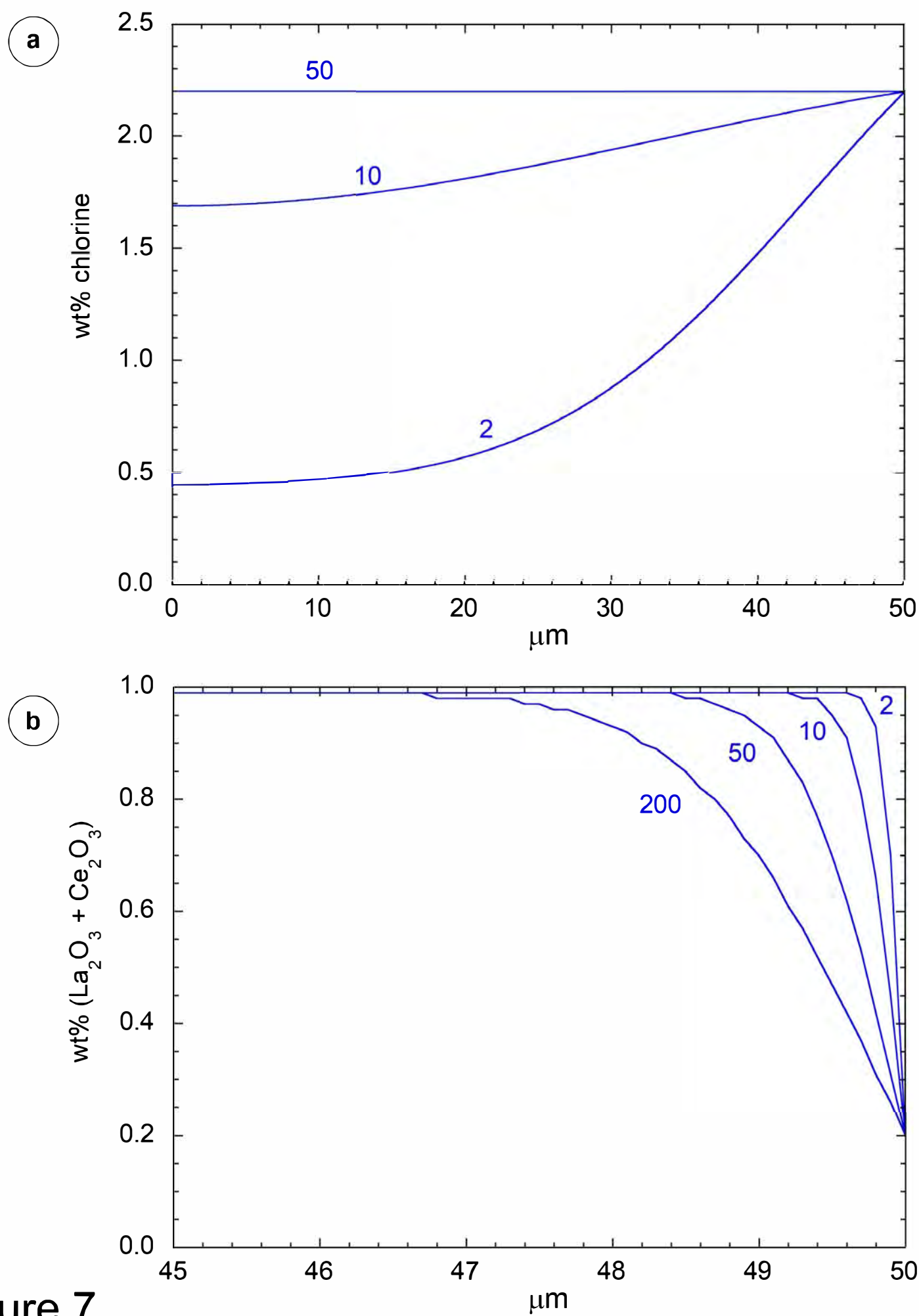


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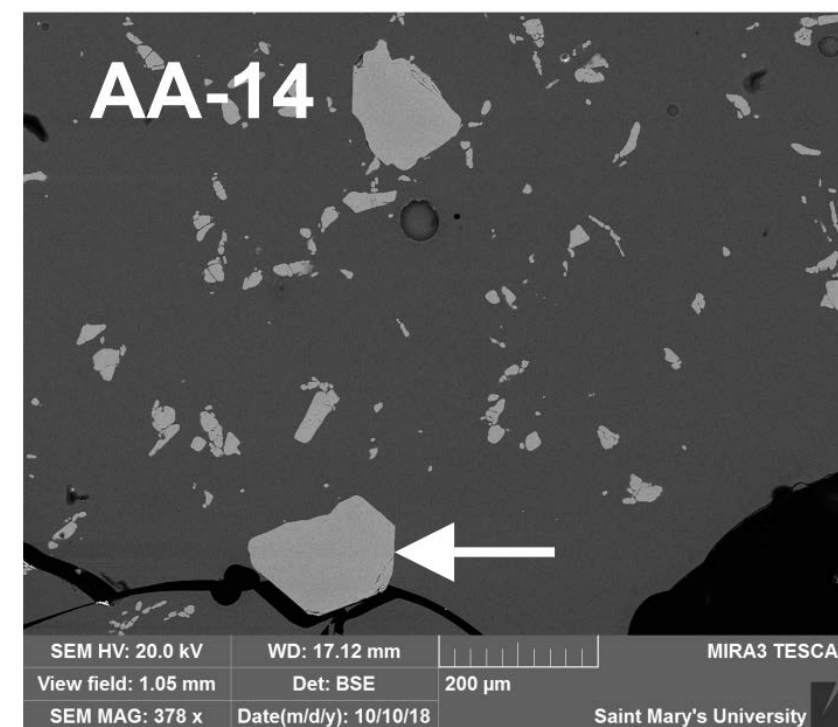
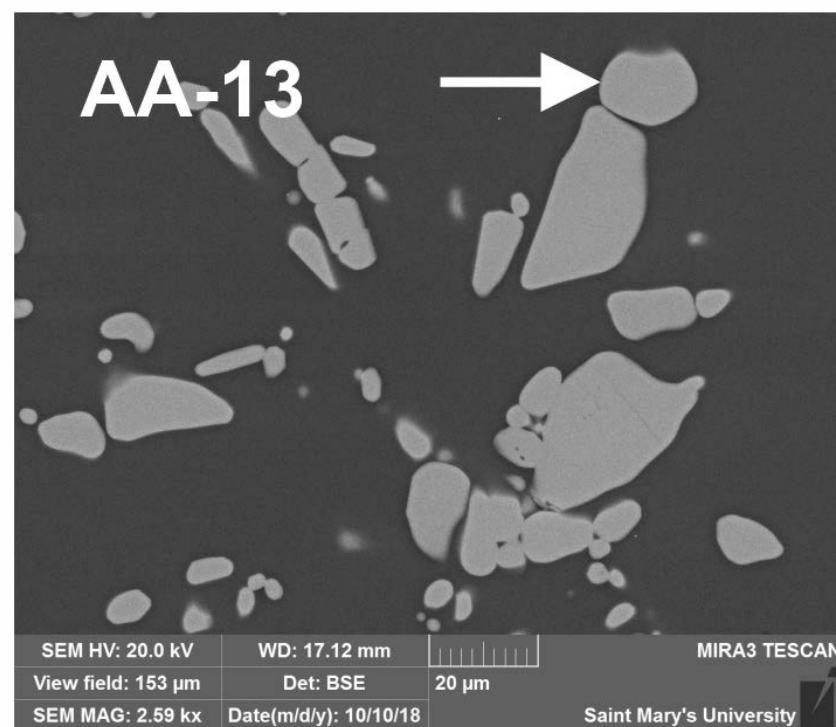
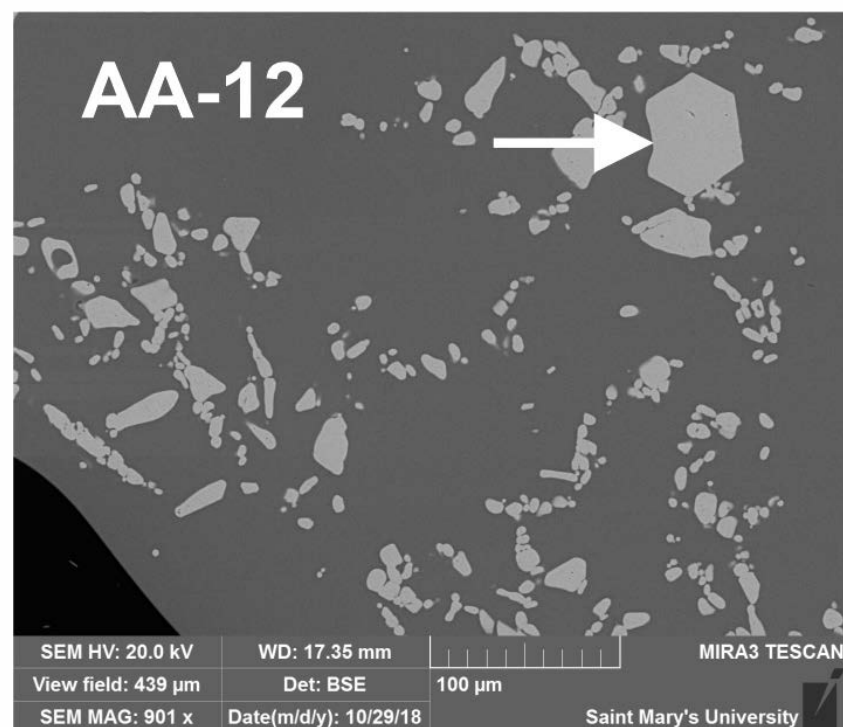
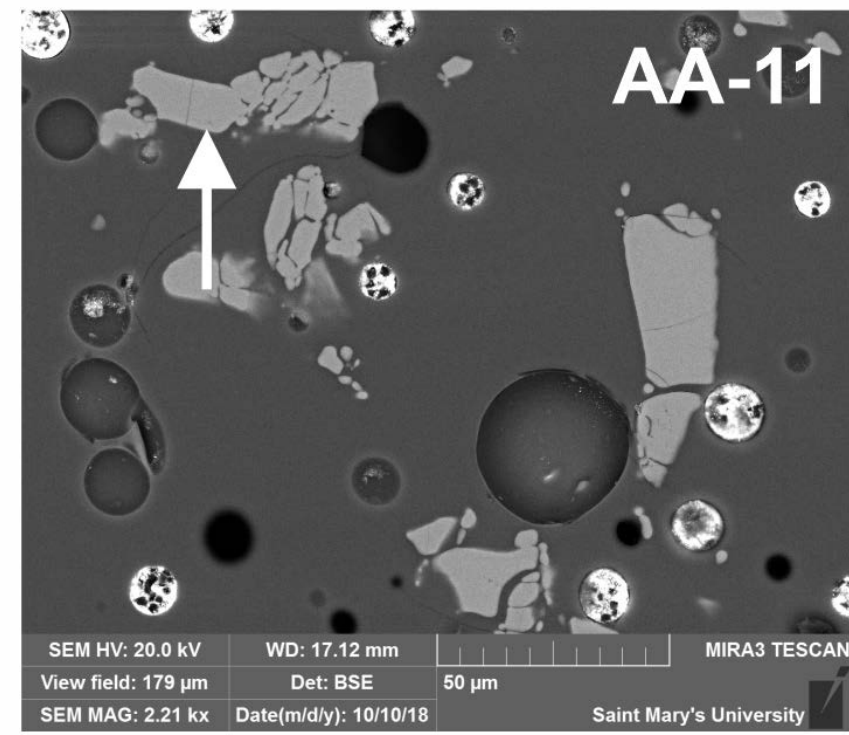
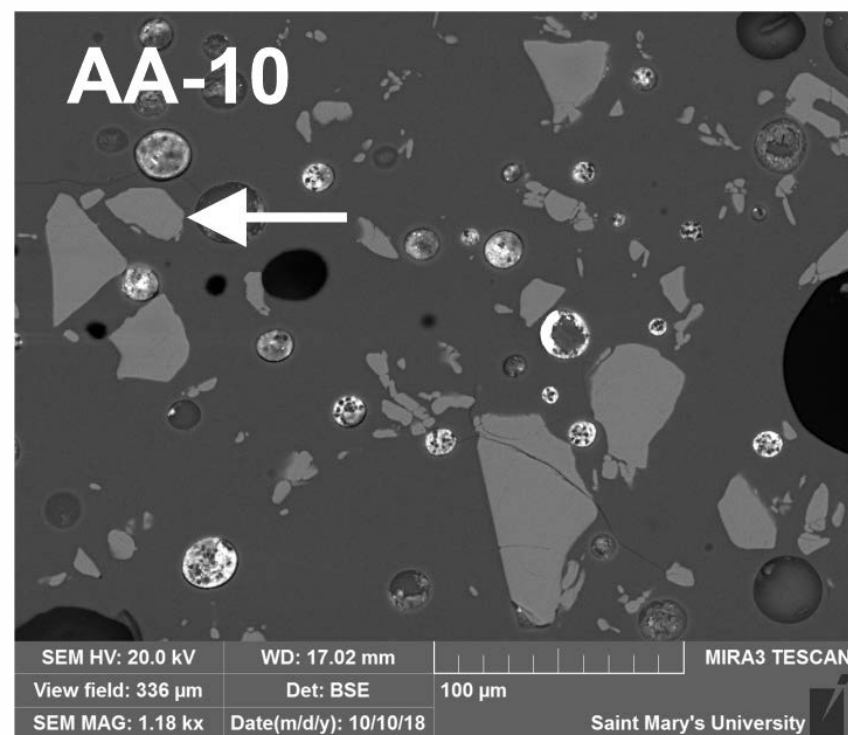
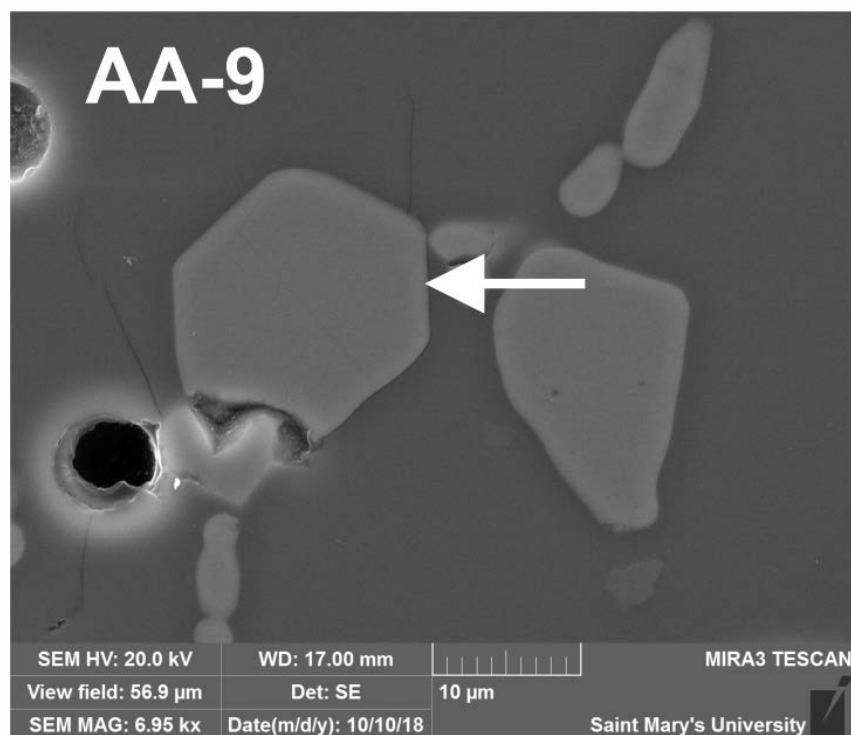


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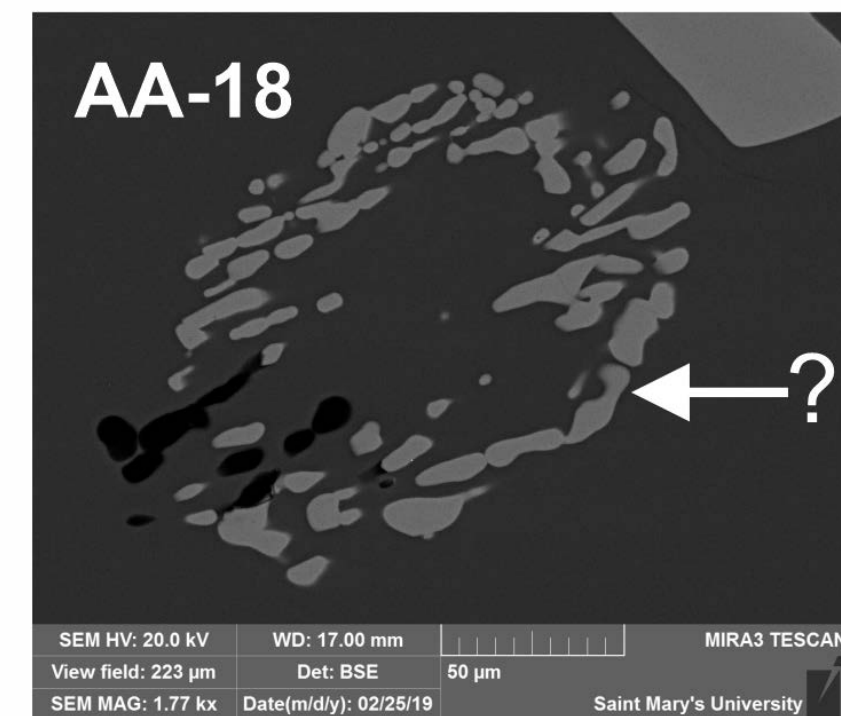
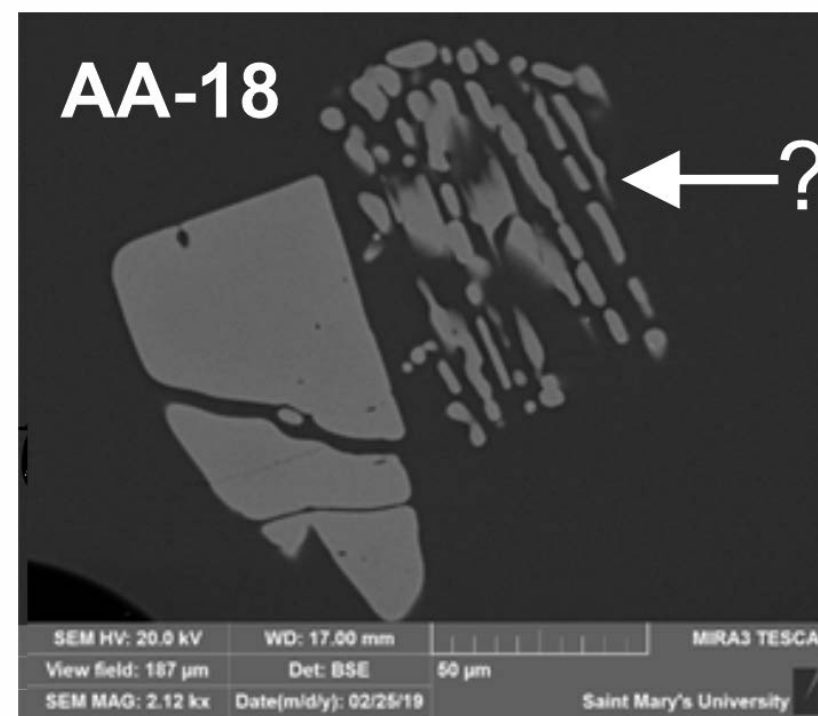
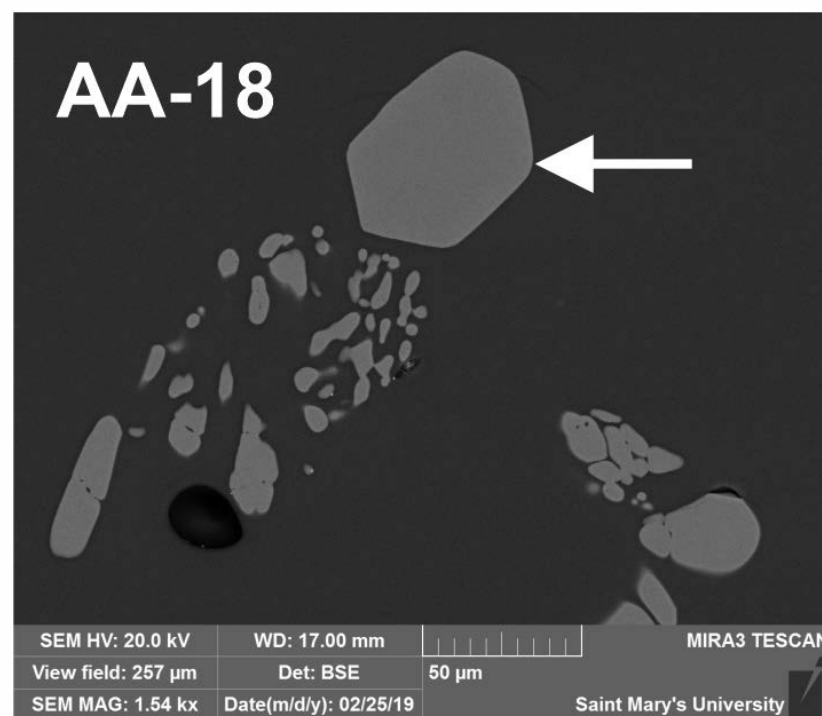
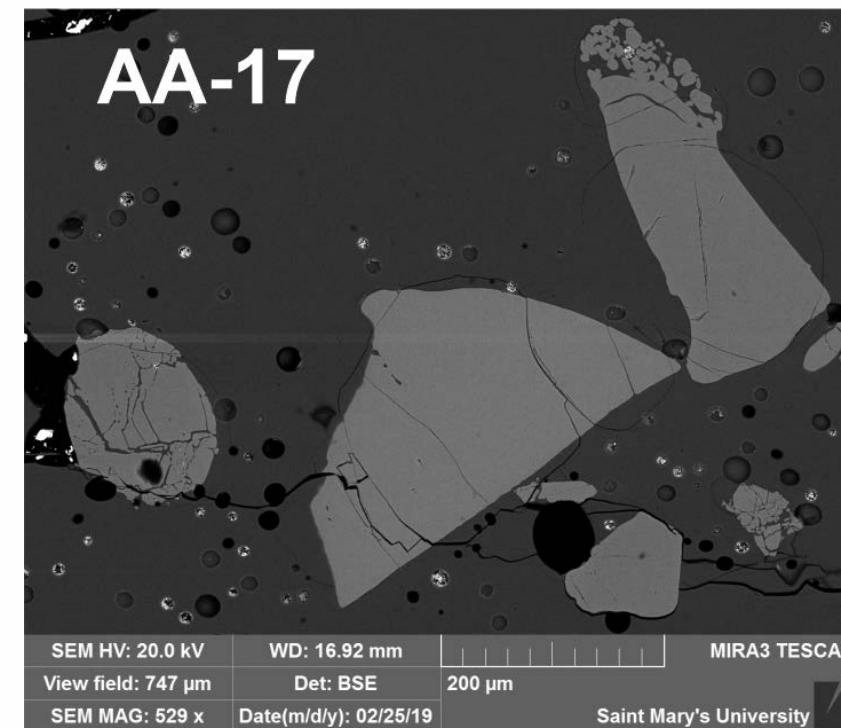
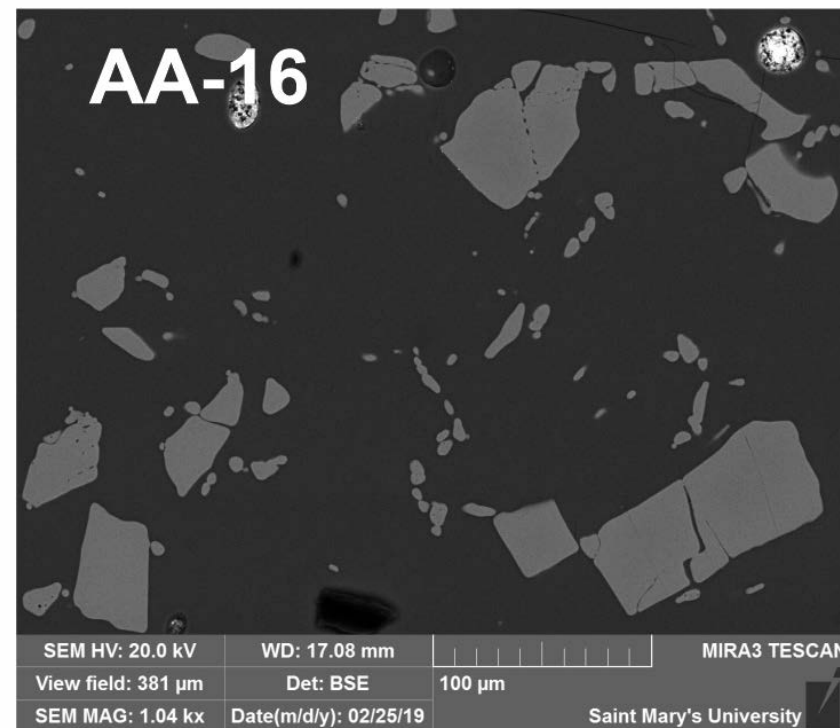
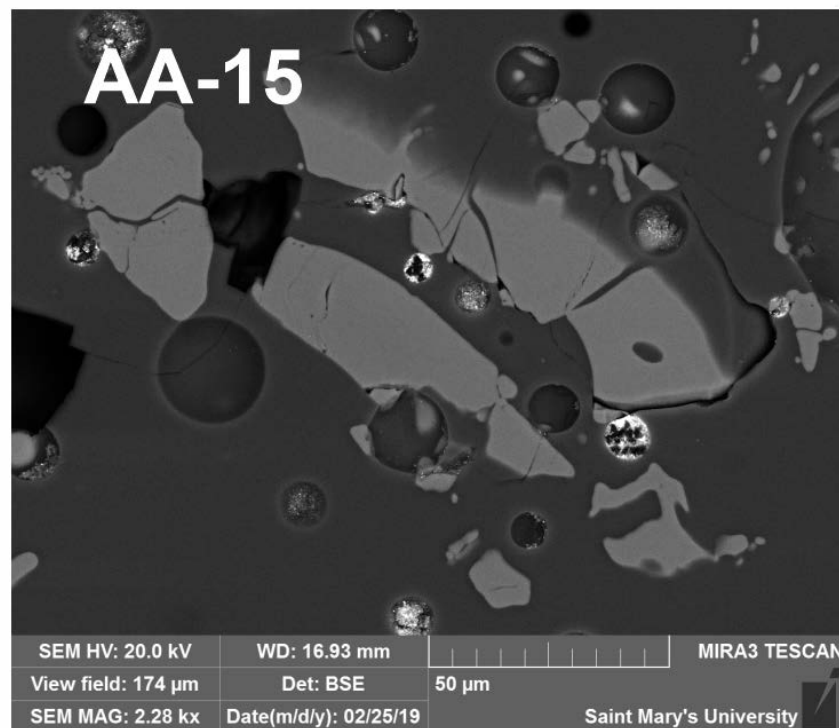


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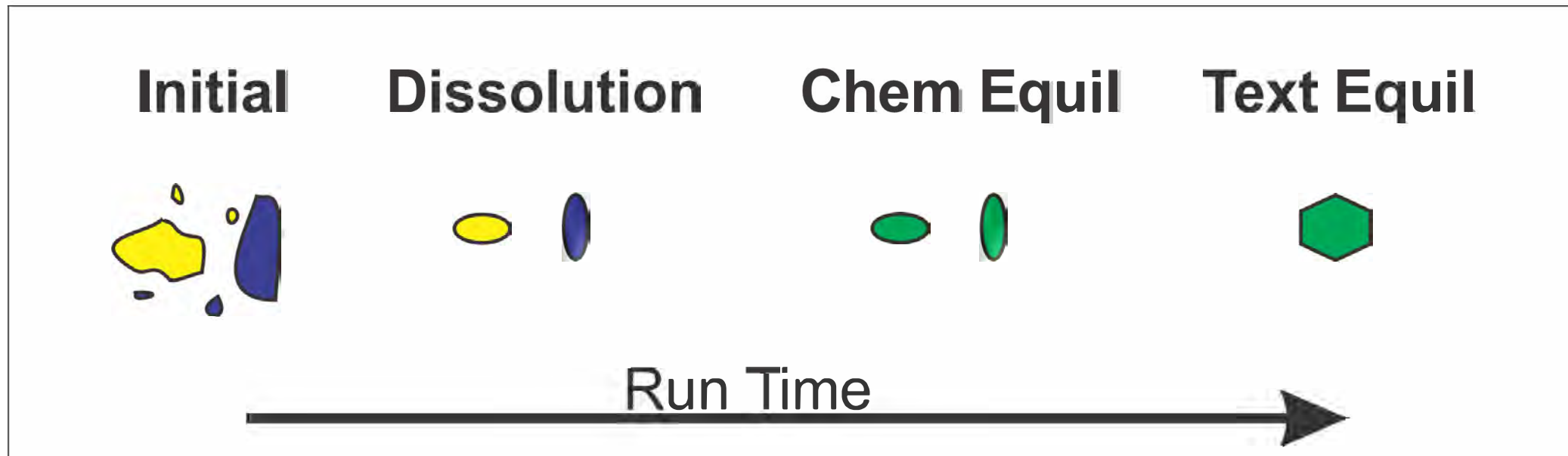


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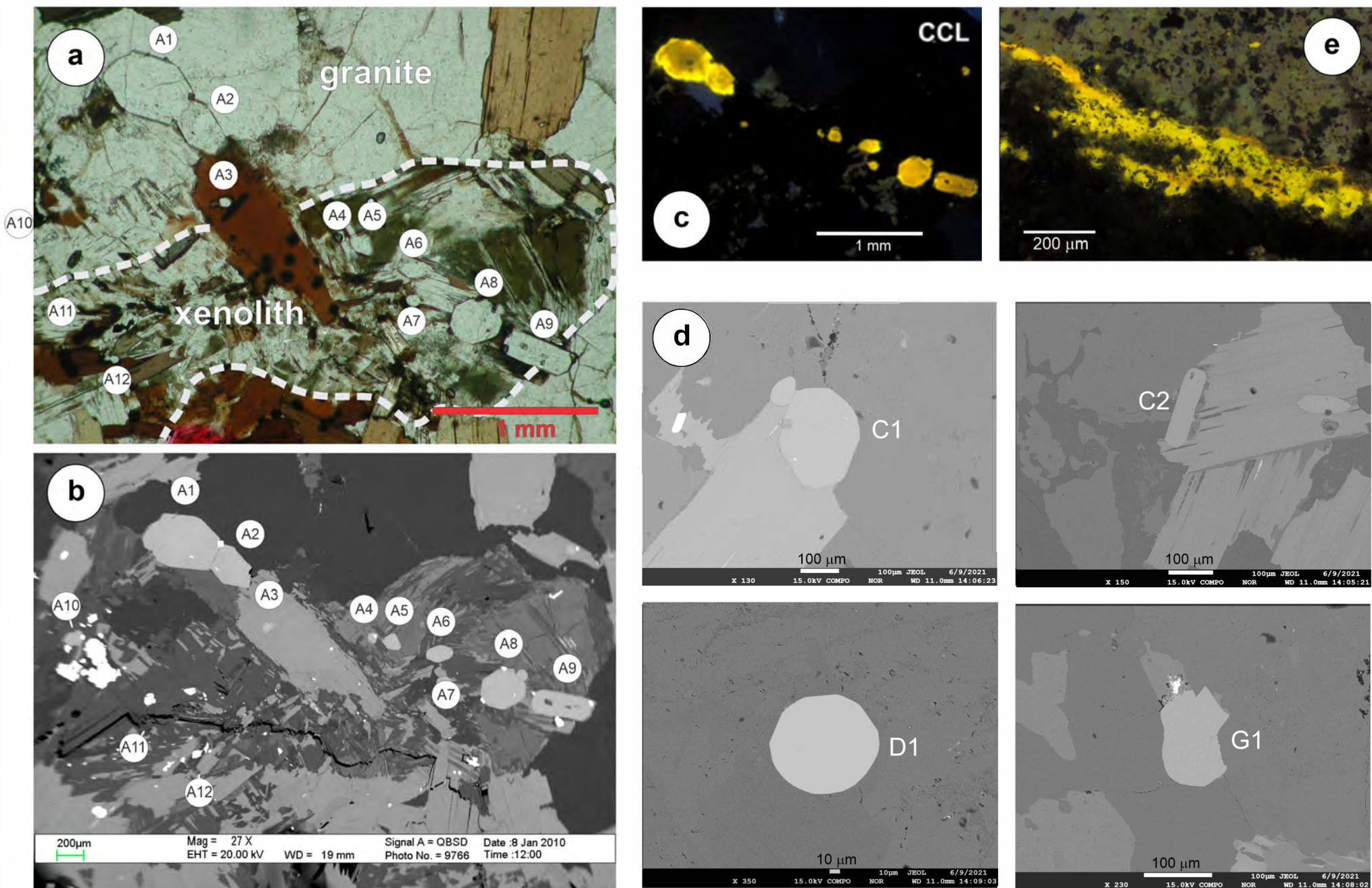


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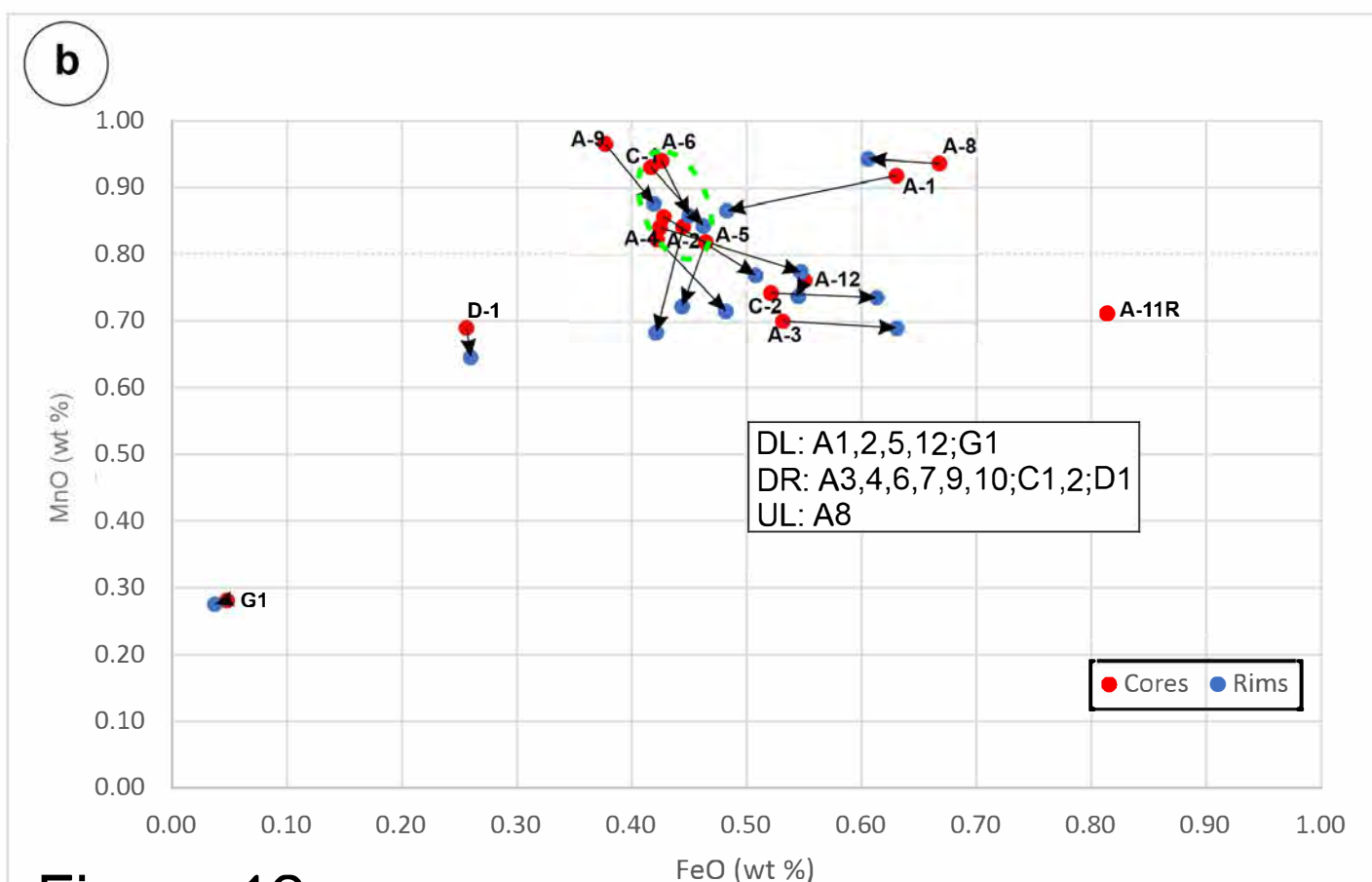
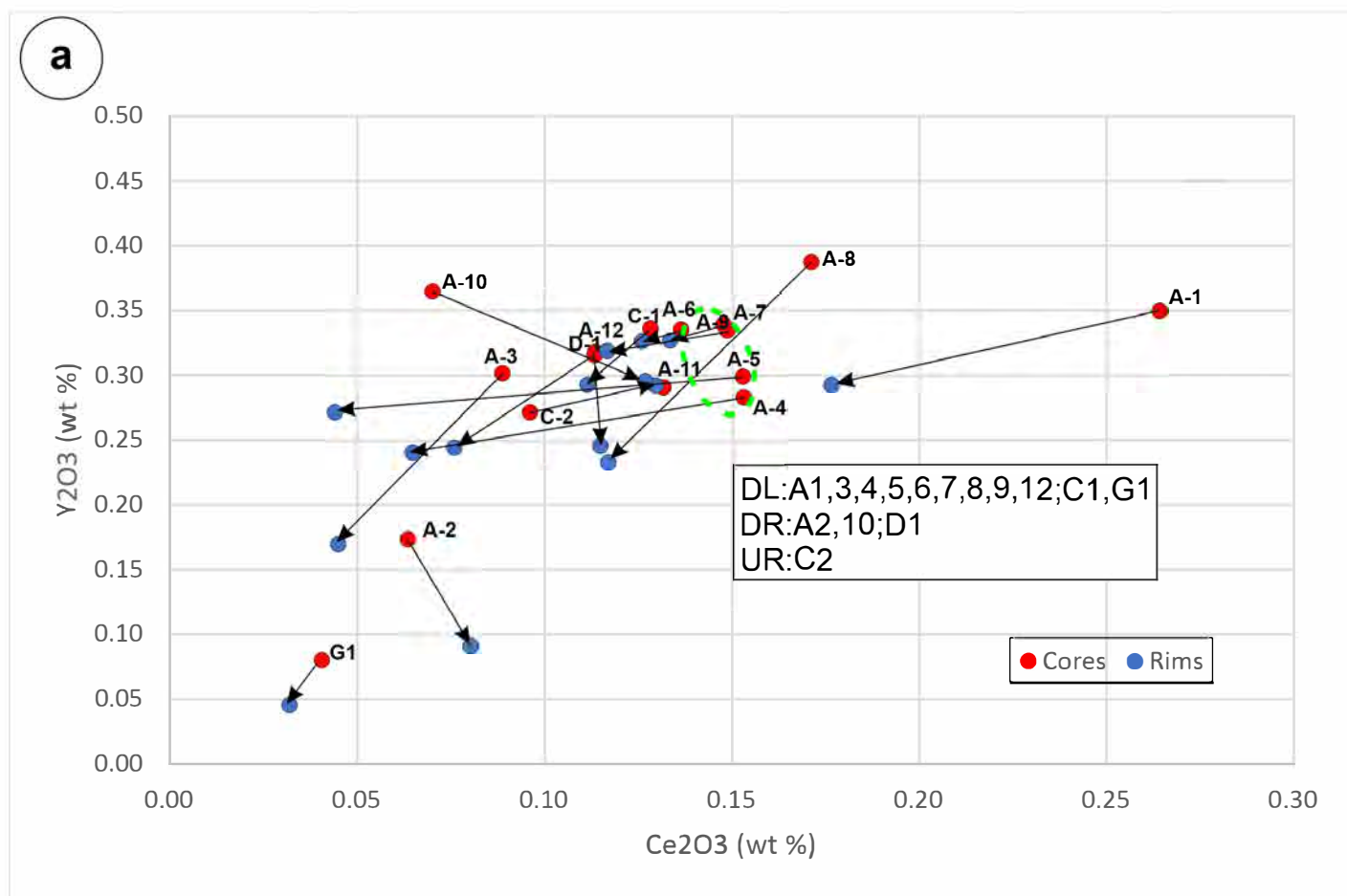


Figure 12.