

1 Revision 1

2 **Grain-boundary diffusion rates inferred from grain-size variations of quartz in**
3 **metacherts from a contact aureole**

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11 Running title: Grain-boundary diffusion in quartz aggregates

12

13 **ABSTRACT**

14 We evaluate a temperature-dependent coefficient for grain-boundary diffusion in
15 quartz aggregates using grain size data from a contact aureole, based on the coupling of a
16 numerical model for the temperature–time history of the contact aureole with a model for
17 the kinetics of diffusion-controlled grain growth. The metachert samples were collected
18 from the contact aureole of the Hanase–Bessho quartz diorite at Hanase Pass, Kyoto,
19 Japan. The quartz grain sizes vary systematically with distance from the quartz diorite.
20 We calculated the temperature–time history using a one-dimensional thermal model,
21 validated by peak metamorphic temperature estimates that are based on the degree of
22 graphitization of carbonaceous material in metapelites, as characterized by Raman
23 microspectroscopy. To minimize the sum of the squares of the errors between the
24 measured and calculated grain sizes, based on the normal grain growth law together with
25 the temperature–time history, we estimated the activation energy and pre-exponential
26 factor in the α -quartz field to be 208 kJ/mol and $1.1 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$, respectively, assuming a
27 grain boundary width of 1 nm. The grain-boundary diffusion rates for temperatures in the
28 greenschist and amphibolite facies are similar to those determined in natural or laboratory
29 grain coarsening experiments, but differ significantly from those determined in diffusion
30 experiments. During grain-size-sensitive deformation, ‘effective’ grain-boundary

31 diffusion rates may be intermediate between the rates of diffusion along and across the
32 grain boundary, and would be higher than the grain-boundary diffusion rates estimated by
33 grain coarsening experiments, and lower than those by tracer diffusion experiments.

34 **Keywords:** Grain-boundary diffusion, quartz aggregates, grain sizes, contact aureole,
35 normal grain growth

36

37 **INTRODUCTION**

38 Understanding and predicting the rheological behavior of many common crustal rocks
39 requires knowledge of the mechanical properties of quartz crystals and aggregates,
40 because quartz is one of the most abundant rock-forming minerals in the Earth's
41 continental crust. Diffusion contributes to most of the important deformation mechanisms,
42 including grain-size-sensitive diffusion creep/grain-boundary sliding and insensitive
43 dislocation creep (e.g., Okudaira and Shigematsu 2012). In order to evaluate the relative
44 importance of these different mechanisms for quartz deformation, the diffusion kinetics
45 of the major ionic species in quartz crystals and aggregates must first be known.

46 The grain-boundary (or bulk) diffusion coefficients of Si or O have been estimated
47 from tracer diffusion experiments (Farver and Yund 1991a, 2000a), and from natural or
48 laboratory grain-coarsening experiments (Joesten 1983, 1991; Tullis and Yund 1982).

49 According to Farver and Yund (2000a), based on the data obtained by isotopic tracer
50 (^{30}Si) and standard step-scan analysis using an ion microprobe, the temperature
51 dependence of silicon bulk diffusion in novaculite for hydrothermal experiments at
52 600–800 °C and 150 MPa confining pressure, and dry experiments at 800–1100 °C and 1
53 atm (in a stream of dry N_2), respectively, is described by the Arrhenius parameters $D_0 =$
54 $3.7 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ and $E = 137 \pm 18 \text{ kJ/mol}$, and $D_0 = 6.2 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ and $E = 178 \pm 38$
55 kJ/mol . Assuming volume diffusion to be negligible (i.e., type C kinetics; Saal et al.
56 1990), the measured bulk diffusion rates (D_{bulk}) can be related to grain-boundary diffusion
57 rates (D_{gb}) through the expression $D_{bulk} = \tau D_{gb} \delta/d$, where τ , the tortuosity factor,
58 represents the ratio of the true path length to the length of the measured profile (e.g.
59 Watson 1991), δ is the grain-boundary width, and d the average grain size. The value of τ
60 depends on the grain geometries, and estimates typically range from 1.5 to 2.0 (e.g.,
61 Farver and Yund 2000a).

62 On the other hand, variations in the grain-sizes of quartz in five nodular chert samples
63 from the Christmas Mountains contact aureole were matched by a normal grain growth
64 model in which the temperature dependence of the Arrhenius function, along a
65 temperature–time history, was calculated by one-dimensional thermal modeling (Joesten
66 1983). Assuming a grain boundary width of 1 nm, the data permit the coefficient for the

67 grain-boundary diffusion of oxygen in quartz aggregates to be estimated as $D = 8.07 \times$
68 $10^{-10} \exp(-210 \times 10^3/RT)$ for the temperature range of 600–1000 °C. Tullis and Yund
69 (1982) determined grain growth rates for quartz aggregates between 800 °C and 1000 °C
70 at 200–1500 MPa, and based on the data from a grain-growth experiment of Tullis and
71 Yund (1982), Joesten (1991) recalculated the values of D_0 and E as $5.23 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ and
72 282 kJ/mol, respectively.

73 The values of the grain-boundary diffusion coefficients extrapolated to the conditions
74 of greenschist to granulite facies (~300–900 °C) are $\sim 10^{-19}$ to $10^{-12} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ (wet experiment
75 of Farver and Yund 2000a), $\sim 10^{-21}$ to $10^{-13} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ (dry experiment of Farver and Yund
76 2000a), $\sim 10^{-29}$ to $10^{-19} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ (Joesten 1983), and $\sim 10^{-30}$ to $10^{-18} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ (Joesten 1991, based
77 on the data of Tullis and Yund 1982); there is a significant difference between the
78 coefficients for a quartz aggregate calculated from diffusion and grain-coarsening
79 experiments.

80 The phenomenological, isothermal kinetic grain-growth equation is given by

81

$$82 \quad d^n - d_0^n = K_0 \exp(-E / RT)t \quad (1)$$

83

84 where d is the average grain size (m) at time t (s), d_0 is the initial grain size, n is the kinetic

85 grain-growth exponent, K_0 is a pre-exponential constant (m^n/s), E is the activation energy
86 for grain growth (J/mol), R is the gas constant ($J/mol/K$), and T is temperature (K). Where
87 pores and impurities are absent, theoretical considerations predict a value of $n = 2$ in a
88 pure single-phase system, and the grain growth is controlled by the diffusion of atoms
89 across the grain boundary (e.g., Joesten 1991 and references therein). Thus, grain growth
90 is a diffusional process, and the analysis of natural or laboratory coarsening experiments
91 can yield values for the grain-boundary diffusion coefficients.

92 The intrusion of a quartz diorite (2.6×1.6 km in surface area) in the Hanase–Bessho
93 area, Kyoto, Japan, produced an extensive contact aureole (Fig. 1; Kiji et al. 2000;
94 Kimura et al. 1998, 2001). Thermally metamorphosed rocks derived from chert,
95 mudstone, and sandstone crop out along a roadside, and extend 1600 m normal to the
96 contact with the quartz diorite. The average grain-size of quartz in the cherts increases
97 systematically towards the quartz diorite contact. In our study of these cherts, similar to
98 the analysis of Joesten (1983), we evaluate the temperature-dependent coefficient for
99 grain-boundary diffusion in the quartz aggregates, using grain-size data from the contact
100 aureole. We also couple a numerical model of the temperature–time history of the contact
101 aureole with a model of the kinetics of diffusion-controlled grain growth.

102

103 **METHODS AND SAMPLES**

104 **Method**

105 Isothermal grain growth in a single-phase aggregate can be described by an equation
106 of the following form (Joesten 1983, 1991; Rubie 1986):

107

108
$$d^2 - d_0^2 = \frac{8\gamma V_m D_0}{RT \delta} \exp(-E / RT)t \quad (2)$$

109

110 where γ is the surface energy (J/m^2), V_m is the molar volume (m^3/mol), D_0 is the
111 pre-exponential factor (m^2/s), and δ is the grain-boundary width (m). When temperature
112 is a function of time, such as in a contact aureole, rocks at any point in the aureole
113 experience a heating-cooling cycle, the magnitude and duration of this cycle are
114 functions of the distance from the intrusive contact, and all terms in T are included within
115 the time integral, so that

116

117
$$d^2 - d_0^2 = \frac{8\gamma V_m D_0}{R \delta} \int_{t_0}^t \frac{1}{T(t)} \exp(-E / RT(t)) dt \quad (3)$$

118

119 The grain size at a given distance from the intrusive contact is a function of both
120 temperature and time. For thermally activated grain growth, all the information relating to

121 the temperature dependent behavior of the system is included within the
122 temperature–time integral. The temperature–time integral at a given distance from the
123 contact can be evaluated numerically using a thermal model for the contact aureole.
124 Assuming a constant duration of grain growth of quartz at any distance from the intrusive
125 contact, the average temperature at a given distance from the contact can be calculated by
126 dividing the T – t integral by the duration of grain growth; i.e., the average temperature
127 over time. If the grain-growth exponent of 2 is independent of temperature, it can be used
128 to obtain first-order approximations of the activation energy and the pre-exponential
129 factor for quartz grain growth, which can be determined from the slope of an Arrhenius
130 plot of $\ln[(d^2 - d_0^2)T]$ versus $1/T$. In this case, T means the average temperature at a given
131 distance from the intrusive contact, as defined by dividing time-integrated temperatures
132 by a particular period at any point in the aureole. Furthermore, we calculate the values of
133 the activation energy and pre-exponential factor more precisely, to minimize the sum of
134 the squares of the errors between the measured and calculated grain sizes, using Equation
135 3 along with the temperature–time history.

136 We evaluate the temperature–time history of the contact aureole with a
137 one-dimensional thermal model, assuming a sheet-like shape for the intrusion. A
138 one-dimensional heat transfer equation can be written as

139

$$140 \quad \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \frac{K}{\rho_m C_m} \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{A}{\rho_m C_m} \quad (4)$$

141

142 where ρ_m is the density of the rock (kg/m^3), C_m is the specific heat of the rock (J/kg/K), K

143 is the thermal conductivity (W/m/K), x is a horizontal coordinate (m) measured from the

144 center of the quartz diorite body, and A is the heat produced by radioactive elements

145 (W/m^3). Equation 4 was solved numerically using an explicit finite-difference method

146 with an array spacing (Δx) of 10 m and a time step (Δt) of 3.15×10^7 s. The production of

147 heat during crystallization of the magma (i.e., latent heat) has been calculated to be

148 continuous linear functions of temperature during the interval of crystallization between

149 the liquidus and solidus temperatures. The production of heat was incorporated into the

150 numerical model using an effective heat capacity (C^*) and an effective thermal diffusivity

151 (κ^*) for rocks undergoing these reactions (e.g., Hanson and Barton 1989). The effective

152 thermal diffusivity is then calculated from

153

$$154 \quad \kappa^* = \frac{K}{\rho_m C^*} \quad (5)$$

155

156 where C^* is defined by

157

158
$$C^* = C_m + \left[\Delta H_{\text{magma}} / (T_{\text{liq}} - T_{\text{sol}}) \right] \quad (6)$$

159

160 where ΔH_{magma} is the enthalpy of the crystallizing magma (J/kg), T_{liq} is the liquidus
161 temperature, and T_{sol} is the solidus temperature. The values of parameters used in the
162 numerical simulation are listed in Table 1. In this study, we assumed no magmatic
163 convection or recharge.

164

165 **Samples**

166 We collected metachert samples from the contact aureole around the Late Cretaceous
167 Hanase–Bessho quartz diorite (Kiji et al. 2000). The quartz diorite is massive and
168 medium-grained, and it is composed mainly of plagioclase, quartz, hornblende, biotite,
169 and K-feldspar, with minor amounts of titanite, opaque minerals, and apatite. The SiO₂
170 content of the bulk-rock is ~66–67 wt.% (Kiji et al. 2000). The quartz diorite has steeply
171 dipping contacts with country rocks (Kimura et al. 2001), and is likely to be a sheet-like
172 or tabular intrusion. The contact aureole has a width of up to around 1 km, and it is
173 recognized on the basis of the occurrence of metamorphic biotite in the metasediments.
174 Away from the contact aureole, the rocks are characterized by the mineral assemblage

175 muscovite + chlorite. Samples next to the intrusive contact (<~180 m) contain cordierite
176 that is partially or totally pinitized, and the characteristic assemblage is cordierite +
177 biotite. Along the road where our samples were taken, biotite is present up to 710 m from
178 the intrusive contact. We could not collect metachert samples close to the intrusive
179 contact along the main road, and for this reason, the four samples closest to the intrusive
180 contact had to be collected from a different area.

181

182 **Grain size analysis**

183 The grain sizes of the recrystallized quartz were measured using the image analysis
184 software ImageJ. Each grain size was calculated as the equivalent circular diameter of a
185 grain, and the mean grain size was calculated as the arithmetic mean of the log of grain
186 sizes, or in other words, the geometric mean grain size. We analyzed optical
187 photomicrographs to measure the grain sizes of quartz in sample A. The grain boundaries
188 of minerals were manually traced on photomicrographs taken under plane and
189 crossed-polarized light. To measure the grain sizes of fine-grained quartz in some
190 samples, we analyzed secondary-electron images obtained with a scanning electron
191 microscope (SEM) at the Department of Geosciences, Osaka City University, Japan. We
192 used 200–900 grains in each sample to measure the mean grain size of the quartz. The

193 modal amounts of minerals were also determined during the analysis, and the analytical
194 results are listed in Table 2.

195

196 **RESULTS**

197 **Results of thermal modeling**

198 Results of the thermal modeling are shown in Figure 2; the temperature profiles are
199 shown for each elapsed time, as well as the maximum temperature experienced by a rock
200 at any position in the aureole. The results of the thermal modeling have been verified by
201 temperature estimates based on the degree of graphitization of carbonaceous material in
202 the metapelites using Raman microspectroscopy (e.g., Aoya et al. 2010; Beyssac et al.
203 2002). The degree of graphitization of the carbonaceous material is not affected by
204 retrogression, and it records the peak metamorphic conditions. The spectroscopy was
205 carried out with the laser Raman spectrometer (JASCO NRS-3100) at Kyoto University,
206 Japan, using the 514.5 nm line of an Ar-ion laser at $20\text{--}30 \times 10^{-3}$ W, and a spot size of 1
207 μm on the sample surface. We analyzed the relative area of the defect band, i.e., the
208 $D1/(G + D1 + D2)$ peak area ratio (R2 ratio), where D1, D2, and G bands occur at 1350,
209 1620, and 1580 cm^{-1} , respectively, and calculated the peak temperature with the equation
210 $T\text{ (}^\circ\text{C)} = -445 \times R2 + 641$ (Beyssac et al. 2002). Although the degree of graphitization of

211 carbonaceous material would be affected by not only the temperature but also the
212 duration of the temperature, the relationship between temperature and the degree of
213 graphitization of carbonaceous material for regional metamorphic rocks (Beysac et al.
214 2002) is applicable to contact metamorphic aureoles (Aoya et al. 2010). The calculated
215 temperatures for the metapelites (see Table 3) are 570 ± 32 °C (182 m from the contact),
216 536 ± 34 °C (573 m), 471 ± 25 °C (1136 m), and 470 ± 32 °C (1400 m). The results (see
217 Fig. 2b) are comparable to the maximum temperatures obtained by thermal modeling,
218 indicating that the temperature profiles calculated by the model are suitable for studying
219 the thermal structure and temperature–time ($T-t$) history of the rocks around the
220 Hanase–Bessho quartz diorite. In this thermal model, the duration of the
221 high-temperature conditions is a minimum estimate, because we do not consider
222 magmatic convection or recharge. Consequently, the diffusion rates estimated for the
223 inferred $T-t$ history are maximum estimates.

224

225 **Results of grain size analysis**

226 The quartz grains studied are polygonal and equigranular (Fig. 3a), and there are no
227 microstructures indicative of internal plasticity. The grain size distributions of the quartz
228 in the metacherts are log-normal (Fig. 3b), and the results of quartz grain-size

229 measurements are shown in Figure 4 and Table 2. The quartz grain size increases towards
230 the intrusive contact, but the observed data do not fit the expected exponential variation
231 with distance from the contact, and the grain growth of quartz near the contact seems to
232 have been inhibited. The modal amounts of second-phase minerals (mainly sheet silicates
233 and carbonaceous materials) in the metacherts near the contact are approximately 3–4
234 vol.% (Table 2), slightly more than in the other samples, except for sample 110331-22.
235 This result suggests that the presence of second-phase minerals has an effect on the grain
236 growth kinetics of the first-phase quartz, resulting in the pinning or dragging of quartz
237 grain boundaries, with the pinning process ensuring that the grain size remains small. The
238 grain size of the first-phase mineral is strongly dependent on the grain size (d_p in microns)
239 and volume fraction (f_p) of the second-phase minerals: the ratio d_p/f_p is referred to as the
240 Zener parameter or Zener ratio, Z (e.g., Brodhag et al. 2011; Herwegh et al. 2011). At low
241 Z values, grain growth of the first-phase mineral is controlled by the pinning effect of the
242 second-phase minerals (i.e., second-phase controlled coarsening regime) and the upper
243 limit of Z values of this regime increases with increasing temperature. The effect of the
244 second-phase minerals on normal grain growth of the first-phase mineral is smaller at
245 lower temperatures than at higher temperatures. In samples collected farther from the
246 intrusion contact, the second-phase minerals are several microns in size, and their Z

247 values are calculated to be $\sim 10^2\text{--}10^3$ μm , suggesting a negligible effect of the second
248 phases on grain growth of the first phase (e.g., Herwegh et al. 2011; Okudaira et al. 2010).
249 In samples from near the intrusion contact, the grain sizes of the second-phase minerals
250 are large (up to $\sim 10\text{--}20$ μm) and the calculated Z values are $\sim 10^2\text{--}10^3$ μm , which are
251 similar to the Z values of samples collected farther from the contact. Because the Z values
252 of samples from near the intrusion contact (i.e., high-temperature samples) may fall
253 within the field of the second-phase controlled coarsening regime, the effect of the second
254 phases on grain growth of the first-phase quartz would be higher than in other samples,
255 although to an unknown degree.

256

257 **DISCUSSION**

258 **Estimates of activation energy and the pre-exponential factor**

259 To obtain first-order approximations of the values of the activation energy and the
260 pre-exponential factor, we have constructed an Arrhenius plot of $\ln[(d^2 - d_0^2)T]$ for
261 metachert data and reciprocal temperatures, as shown in Figure 5. The growth period in
262 this case is 25×10^3 years, a figure that was chosen arbitrarily as the period during which
263 the temperatures at the center of the intrusion fell to 500 °C (see Fig. 2), after which time
264 the temperature profiles are nearly constant. The solid line in this figure is a linear least

265 squares fit for the 17 data given by $\ln[(d^2 - d_0^2)T] = 11.123 - 19698/T$ ($r^2 = 0.87772$). The
266 activation energy for quartz grain growth is 163.8 ± 15.8 kJ/mol. Assuming a grain
267 boundary width of 1 nm, the pre-exponential factor is estimated to be 1.2×10^{-11} m²/s.
268 Excluding three samples (open circles in Fig. 5) near the intrusion contact when
269 estimating the activation energy and the pre-exponential factor, a linear least squares fit
270 for the remaining 14 data points yields $\ln[(d^2 - d_0^2)T] = 17.919 - 24638/T$ ($r^2 = 0.91442$).
271 The activation energy and the pre-exponential factor are 204.8 ± 18.1 kJ/mol and $1.1 \times$
272 10^{-8} m²/s, respectively.

273 To estimate the values of the activation energy and the pre-exponential factor more
274 precisely, we calculated quartz grain sizes using Equation 3, together with the
275 temperature–time history, in order to make comparisons with measured grain sizes (Fig.
276 6). To minimize the sum of the squares of the errors between the calculated and measured
277 grain sizes, the values of the activation energy and pre-exponential factor, respectively,
278 should be 132 kJ/mol and 4.8×10^{-14} m²/s. We obtained a grain-boundary diffusion rate of
279 $D_{gb} = 4.8 \times 10^{-14} \exp(-132/RT)$. The value of the activation energy agrees with the value
280 of 137 ± 18 kJ/mol, determined by Farver and Yund (2000) for the bulk diffusion of
281 silicon or grain-boundary diffusion in wet quartz aggregates. The pre-exponential factor
282 differs significantly from the figure of 2.2×10^{-6} m²/s that is given by Farver and Yund

283 (2000a) for experimental grain-boundary diffusion in wet quartz aggregates, assuming a
284 tortuosity factor $\tau = 1.7$ and a ratio of grain-boundary width to grain size $\delta/d = 0.0001$.
285 Excluding three samples (open circles in Fig. 6) near the intrusion contact, the activation
286 energy and pre-exponential factor are 208 kJ/mol and $1.1 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$, respectively. The
287 value of the activation energy agrees with the value of 210 kJ/mol reported by Joesten
288 (1983).

289 The values for the activation energy and pre-exponential factor of quartz grain
290 coarsening that we have determined may be controlled by silicon grain-boundary
291 diffusion. When water is present, Farver and Yund (2000a) suggested that grain-boundary
292 diffusion accommodated processes in quartz aggregates will most likely be rate-limited
293 by the transport of silicon, because the rate of oxygen grain-boundary diffusion is greater
294 than silicon grain-boundary diffusion by a factor of about 2. The metachert samples
295 studied here contain small amounts of sheet silicates (muscovite, chlorite, and/or biotite),
296 and therefore at least trace amounts of water or water-related species were present at the
297 time of contact metamorphism.

298 The volume diffusion coefficients of O in α - and β -quartz under hydrothermal
299 conditions are significantly different (Fig. 7; Farver and Yund 1991b; Giletti and Yund
300 1984), and then the grain-boundary diffusion coefficients of Si may be different between

301 the stability fields of α - and β -quartz. In the present study, quartz in samples from near the
302 intrusion contact (within \sim 180 m) does not show the expected exponential variation in
303 grain size with distance from the contact. Given that the temperature conditions of the
304 α - β transition in quartz at a confining pressure of 200–300 MPa are 630–650 °C (Shen et
305 al. 1993), at least near the metamorphic peak, the growth of quartz grains in these samples
306 must have occurred in the β -quartz field. The suppression of grain growth may have
307 resulted from the fact that the grain-boundary diffusion coefficients for the β -quartz field
308 are different from those for the α -quartz field. In the β -quartz field, the volume diffusion
309 rates of O calculated using diffusion coefficients for β -quartz are slower than those
310 calculated using diffusion coefficients for α -quartz, because the extrapolated volume
311 diffusion rates of O in α - and β -quartz for the entire temperature range, as calculated from
312 diffusion rates for experimental temperature range (see Fig. 7), cross over near the
313 temperature of the α - β transition (Farver and Yund 1991b; Giletti and Yund 1984).
314 Therefore, in the β -quartz field, the grain-boundary diffusion rates of Si calculated using
315 grain-boundary diffusion coefficients for β -quartz are likely to be slower than those
316 calculated using diffusion coefficients for α -quartz. The grain size of quartz in β -quartz
317 aggregates is larger when calculated using the grain-boundary diffusion coefficients for
318 the α -quartz field, than when calculated with diffusion coefficients for the β -quartz field.

319 This means that the difference between the grain size of quartz in samples from near the
320 intrusion contact and the expected exponential variation with distance from the contact
321 can be attributed to the difference in the grain-boundary diffusion coefficients of Si in the
322 α - and β -quartz fields. However, because no previous experiment has considered
323 grain-boundary diffusion in the α -quartz field, we cannot conclude that the
324 grain-boundary diffusion coefficient of Si differs between the α - and β -quartz fields.

325 The calculated grain size variations, using the T - t history and different diffusion rates,
326 are shown in Figure 6 in order to compare them with the measured grain size variations.

327 The calculated grain size variations, using the values for D_0 and E for the bulk diffusion of
328 silicon, given by Farver and Yund (2000a), are much larger than the measured grain size
329 variations, suggesting that the Farver and Yund (2000a) values of D_0 and E cannot be
330 applicable to the grain coarsening of quartz in natural quartz aggregates under the
331 conditions of the greenschist and amphibolite facies.

332

333 **Grain-boundary diffusion rates in quartz aggregates**

334 Figure 7 shows the diffusion rates for quartz aggregates estimated in this study and
335 previous studies. In this figure, the grain-boundary width is assumed to be 1 nm. Using
336 our estimated values of the activation energy and pre-exponential factor, the

337 grain-boundary diffusion rates for temperatures in the greenschist and amphibolite facies
338 are similar to those of Joesten (1983), as well as those of Tullis and Yund (1982), whose
339 values have been recalculated by Joesten (1991), but they differ significantly from those
340 of Farver and Yund (2000a) (Fig. 7). The grain-boundary diffusion rates estimated from
341 studies of grain coarsening (Joesten 1983; Tullis and Yund 1982; this study) are about
342 four to six orders of magnitude smaller than the silicon grain-boundary diffusion rates
343 determined by Farver and Yund (2000a). The difference between the measured silicon
344 grain-boundary diffusion rates and the values obtained from grain coarsening studies may
345 be due to several factors.

346 The results from experimental studies typically yield a grain coarsening exponent
347 significantly greater than 2, indicating that abnormal grain growth has occurred, possibly
348 because of grain-boundary drag due to the presence of secondary phases, pores, or
349 contaminants, or possibly because the coarsening is by an Ostwald ripening mechanism
350 instead of normal grain growth (Farver and Yund 2000a). In either case, the apparent
351 grain-boundary diffusion rates estimated from the grain coarsening experiments would be
352 much slower than the true value. However, judging from the values of the coefficient of
353 determination (r^2) for least squares regression to fit the data, a kinetic grain-growth
354 exponent (n) of 2 is the most suitable for the present data set, rather than $n = 3$ or 4,

355 suggesting that normal grain growth is the most likely control of quartz grain sizes in the
356 contact aureole.

357 As described above, the volume diffusion rate of O is much lower in α -quartz than in
358 β -quartz (Fig. 7; Farver and Yund 1991b; Giletti and Yund 1984). The grain-boundary
359 diffusion rates estimated by Farver and Yund (2000a) were measured in the β -quartz field,
360 whereas those of the present study were estimated mainly in the α -quartz field.
361 Consequently, the difference between the two sets of grain-boundary diffusion rates can
362 be attributed to differences in the diffusion coefficients in the α - and β -quartz fields.
363 However, if the grain-boundary diffusion rates in the β -quartz field are much higher than
364 those in the α -quartz field, then we would expect the grain size of quartz in samples from
365 near the intrusion contact to be much larger than in samples farther from the contact, yet
366 this is not the case. Furthermore, the difference in grain-boundary diffusion rates between
367 Farver and Yund (2000a) and the present study is much larger than the difference in the
368 volume diffusion rate of O between α - and β -quartz. The grain-boundary diffusion rates
369 measured in the β -quartz field, in grain-coarsening experiments (Joesten 1991; Tullis and
370 Yund 1982), differ significantly from those of Farver and Yund (2000a). Thus, the
371 difference between the grain-boundary diffusion rates of Farver and Yund (2000a) and
372 those of the present study cannot be attributed to differences in the grain-boundary rates

373 between α - and β -quartz.

374 Dohmen and Milke (2010) summarized Si grain-boundary diffusion data for quartz
375 (Farver and Yund 2000a), Mg_2SiO_4 polymorphs (Farver and Yund 2000b; Shimojuku et al.
376 2009), and MgSiO_2 perovskite (Yamazaki et al. 2000). While the diffusion properties of
377 grain boundaries in Mg_2SiO_4 and MgSiO_3 high-pressure phases are nearly identical when
378 pressure dependence is considered, the data for quartz are strikingly different, with
379 grain-boundary diffusion rates of quartz being 4–5 orders of magnitude higher than those
380 of Mg_2SiO_4 and MgSiO_3 high-pressure phases. This difference may be related to the
381 different grain-boundary structures and the diffusion mechanism of Si (due to the
382 presence of Mg), or related to effectively wet grain boundaries even in nominally dry
383 studies. Dohmen and Milke (2010) reported that the water contents of the natural
384 novaculite samples analyzed by Farver and Yund (2000a) were not measured before or
385 after the experiments. Even in the dry experiment (in a N_2 stream), water might have
386 initially been present along grain boundaries in the samples, thereby influencing Si
387 diffusivity. Since hydrogen is an incompatible element in most minerals, it is likely to
388 become concentrated along grain boundaries, strongly affecting the grain boundary
389 structure. In fact, based on the experimentally determined growth rates of wollastonite
390 reaction rims between quartz and calcite (where small amounts of water are always

391 present), the grain boundary diffusion rates of SiO₂ are 10⁻¹⁶ to 10⁻¹⁴ m²/s at 850 to
392 1000 °C, assuming a grain boundary width $\delta = 1$ nm (Milke and Heinrich 2002). These
393 rates are comparable to those reported for Si bulk diffusion in dry and wet experiments
394 performed by Farver and Yund (2000a), whereas Milke and Wirth (2003) reported
395 diffusion rates of 10⁻¹⁶ to 6×10^{-18} m²/s (950 to 850 °C) for SiO₂ in wollastonite rims
396 from completely dry experiments in a CO₂ atmosphere, being almost two orders of
397 magnitude lower than the rates obtained by Milke and Heinrich (2002). However, in the
398 metachert samples studied here, small amounts of sheet silicates are observed (e.g.,
399 muscovite, chlorite, and/or biotite), suggesting that at least trace amounts of water or
400 water-related phases were present at the time of contact metamorphism. Thus, the
401 difference between the grain-boundary diffusion rates of Farver and Yund (2000a) and
402 those of the present study cannot be attributed to differences in the amount of water at
403 grain boundaries.

404 In natural rocks, the grain-boundary width ranges from several to tens of nanometers
405 (Nakashima 1995). The effective grain boundary width is a poorly constrained measure
406 that acts in opposite directions in the derivation of diffusion coefficients from grain
407 coarsening or diffusion experiments. Grain-boundary diffusion rates depend on the factor
408 D_{gb}/δ in grain coarsening experiments, whereas the grain-boundary diffusion coefficient

409 is estimated by the relation $D_{bulk} = \tau D_{gb} \delta / d$ in tracer diffusion experiments. When the
410 grain boundary width is 10 nm, D_{gb} for grain coarsening experiments increases by an
411 order of magnitude, and that for tracer diffusion experiments decreases by an order of
412 magnitude; consequently, the difference in diffusion rate between them decreases by two
413 orders of magnitude. The rate-limiting jump distance is greater across the boundary than
414 along the boundary, which means that D_{gb} for transport perpendicular to the boundary
415 may be much smaller than D_{gb} parallel to the boundary (Farver and Yund 2000a; Ricoult
416 and Kohlstedt 1983). Diffusion rates measured in grain coarsening experiments are
417 controlled by diffusion in a moving boundary (diffusion across the boundary), whereas
418 the rates obtained from tracer diffusion experiments are related to diffusion along the
419 grain boundary (Ricoult and Kohlstedt 1983). In other words, the diffusion rates inferred
420 from coarsening experiments (Joesten 1983, 1991; Tullis and Yund 1982; this study) are
421 lower than those in tracer diffusion experiments (Farver and Yund 2000a).

422 In the Ag/Au system, the ratio of diffusion rate along the grain boundary to that across
423 the grain boundary varies according to the misorientation angles between neighboring
424 grains, and is less than ~20 (Ma and Balluffi 1993). Based on an analysis of spinel
425 formation between single crystals of periclase and sapphire, Keller et al. (2010) reported
426 that ionic mobility in a polycrystal depends on grain-boundary structures, such as

427 misorientations between neighboring grains, and that diffusion rates should be low at
428 low-angle grain boundaries with misorientation angles of $<15^\circ$. They suggested that grain
429 boundary diffusion in spinel varies by one order of magnitude as the misorientation
430 changes from 0° to 60° . For metals and silicates, since the ratio of diffusion rate along the
431 grain boundary to that across the grain boundary varies by one order of magnitude, it
432 seems that anisotropic diffusion at grain boundaries is an important factor in explaining
433 the large difference between the measured silicon grain-boundary diffusion rate and that
434 obtained from grain coarsening studies, although other factors also contribute to the
435 difference.

436 Grain-size-sensitive creep (diffusion creep or grain-boundary sliding) is governed by
437 diffusion along grain boundaries, which depends on $D_{gb}\delta$ (e.g., Poirier 1985), and is rate
438 limited by the diffusion of Si along the grain boundary, if the slowest-diffusing species is
439 rate controlling (Raj 1982). During deformation, grain-size-sensitive creep and grain
440 growth occur simultaneously (e.g., Platt and Behr 2011), suggesting that diffusion across
441 grain boundaries operates effectively. If the difference between grain-boundary diffusion
442 rates estimated by grain coarsening experiments and by diffusion experiments is caused
443 mainly by the difference in diffusion rates across and along grain boundaries, then grain
444 growth and deformation would be governed by the different temperature-dependent

445 coefficients for grain-boundary diffusion in quartz aggregates. In this case, the ‘effective’
446 grain-boundary diffusion rate may be intermediate between the rates of diffusion along
447 and across the grain boundary, and would be higher than the grain-boundary diffusion rate
448 estimated by grain coarsening experiments, and lower than that estimated by tracer
449 diffusion experiments.

450

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458

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- 563

564 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

565 **FIGURE 1.** Geological map for the Hanase–Bessho quartz diorite and surrounding
566 areas. The map was compiled during this study with the help of data from Kimura et al.
567 (1998, 2001). Localities of metachert samples (solid circles) and metapelite samples
568 (open circles) are shown. Numbers with a dash denote samples 120322-#, and those
569 without a dash, samples 110331-#.

570 **FIGURE 2.** Temperature profiles showing the thermal evolution in and around the
571 Hanase–Bessho quartz diorite after its intrusion. (a) Temperature profiles from 0 to 24
572 kyr (2 kyr intervals). (b) Maximum temperatures experienced after the intrusion. The
573 temperatures are estimated from the degree of graphitization of carbonaceous material in
574 metapelites, using Raman microspectroscopy.

575 **FIGURE 3.** Microstructures of the metacherts. (a) Photomicrographs of samples
576 120322-02 (crossed-polarized light) and 110331-15 (back-scattered electron image,
577 shadow mode). (b) Grain size distribution of quartz grain sizes for samples 120322-02
578 and 110331-15.

579 **FIGURE 4.** Grain size variation plotted against the distance from the intrusive contact.

580 **FIGURE 5.** Arrhenius plot of $\ln[(d^2 - d_0^2)T]$ versus $1/T$. The solid lines (1) and (2) are
581 linear least squares fits for 17 data points (solid circles + open circles) and for 14 data

582 points (solid circles), respectively. See the text for details.

583 **FIGURE 6.** Calculated and measured grain size variations. $D_{Si, bulk}$ (wet, FY00), $D_{Si, bulk}$
584 (dry, FY00), D_{gb} (J83), and “this study” represent, respectively, the grain size variations
585 using the values of activation energy and pre-exponential factor from Farver and Yund
586 (2000a) for hydrothermal and dry experiments, Joesten (1983), and as estimated by us in
587 this study. The curves (1) and (2) show calculated grain size variations using the values of
588 17 metachert samples and of 14 samples that excluded three samples near the intrusion
589 contact (open circles), respectively.

590 **FIGURE 7.** Comparison of grain-boundary or bulk diffusion rates for quartz aggregates
591 obtained in the present study and in previous studies. $D_{Si, gb \text{ or } bulk}$ (wet, FY00), $D_{Si, gb \text{ or } bulk}$
592 (dry, FY00), D_{gb} (TY82), D_{gb} (J83), and “this study” denote, respectively, the diffusion
593 rates calculated using the values of activation energy and pre-exponential factor from
594 Farver and Yund (2000a) for hydrothermal and dry experiments, Tullis and Yund (1982),
595 with their values recalculated by Joesten (1991), Joesten (1983), and as estimated by us in
596 this paper. Silicon grain-boundary diffusion rates ($D_{Si, gb}$) were estimated using the
597 relation $D_{Si, bulk} = \tau D_{Si, gb} \delta / d$, where $D_{Si, bulk}$ is the silicon bulk diffusion rate, τ is the
598 tortuosity factor (1.7), δ the grain-boundary width (1 nm), and d the average grain size (10
599 μm). Diffusion rates represented by thick lines are those calculated for the experimental

600 temperature range, and those represented by thin lines are the extrapolated rates for the
601 entire temperature range. The labels “this study, 17” and “this study, 14” represent
602 diffusion rates calculated using the activation energy and the pre-exponential factor
603 estimated based on 17 metachert samples and on 14 samples (excluding three samples
604 from near the intrusion contact), respectively. Also shown are the volume diffusion rates
605 of O in α - and β -quartz under hydrothermal conditions (Farver and Yund 1991b; Gilletti
606 and Yund 1984), and of Si in β -quartz (Béjina and Jaoul 1996).

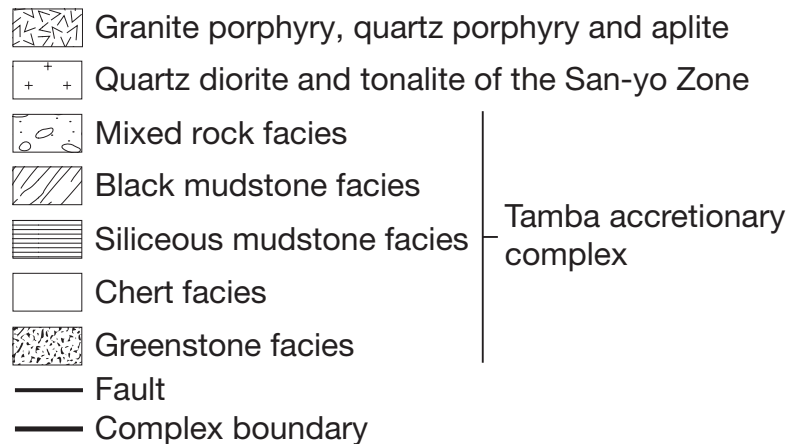
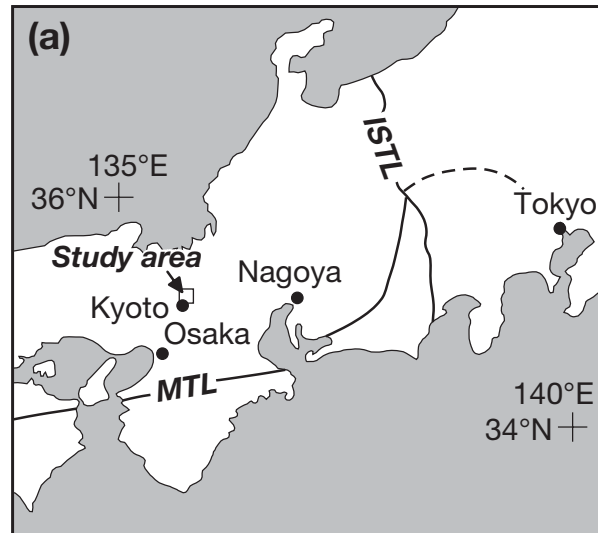
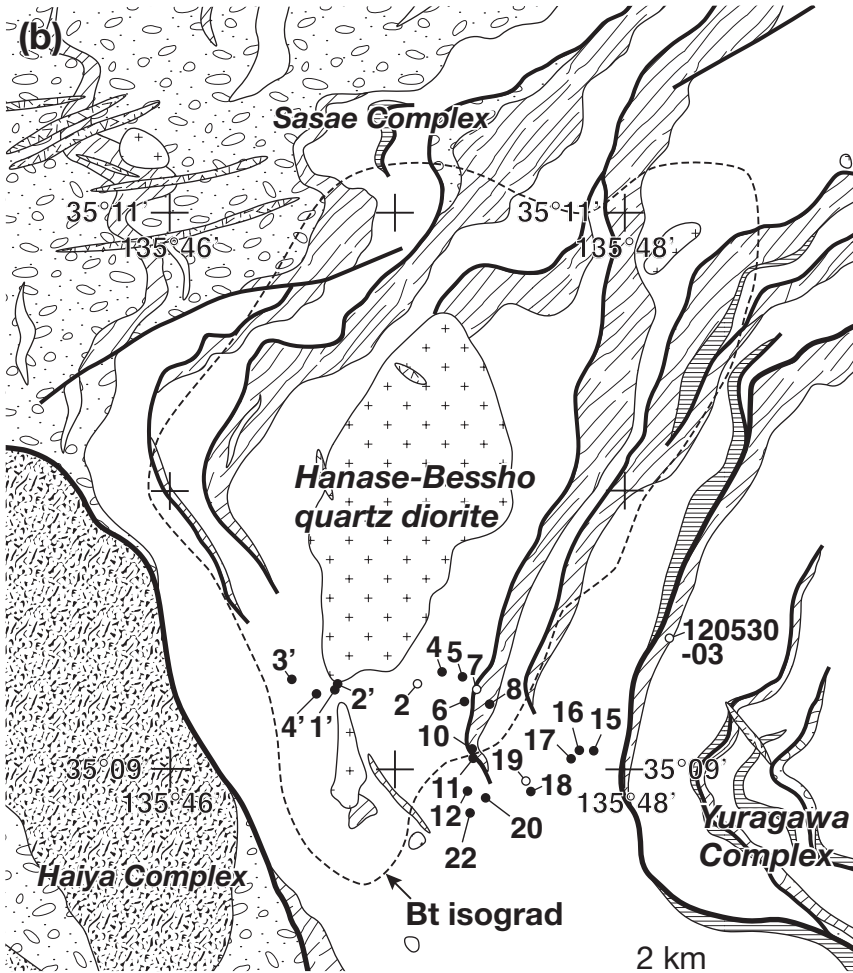


Figure 1

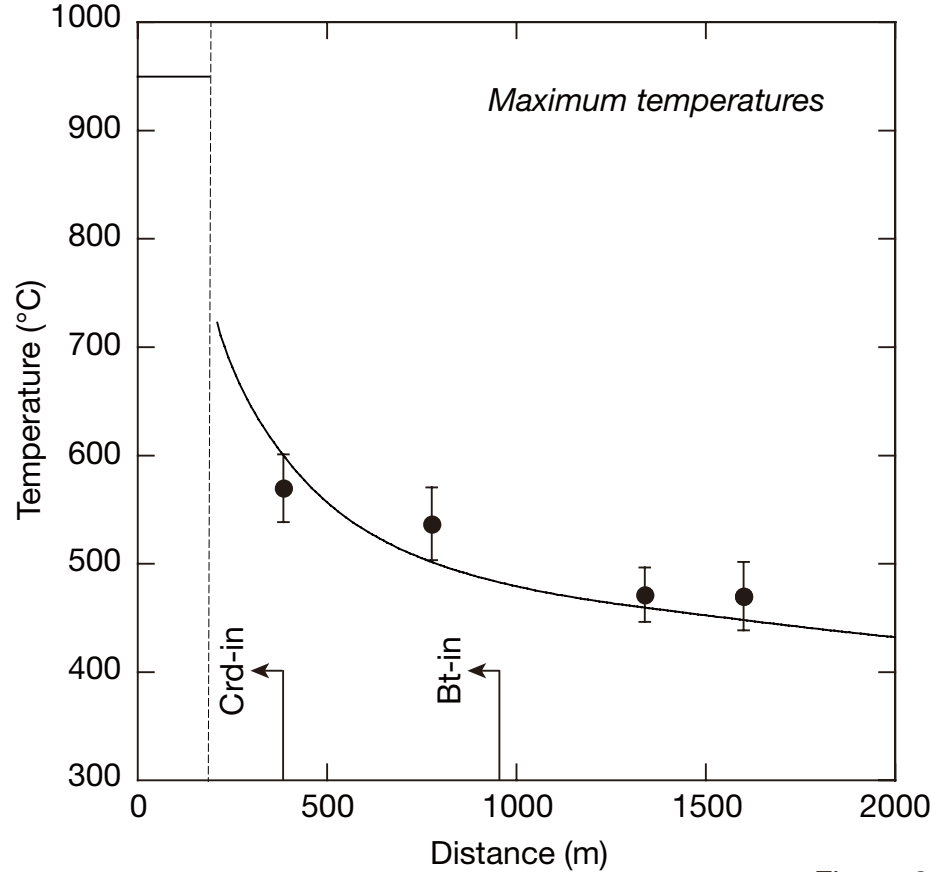
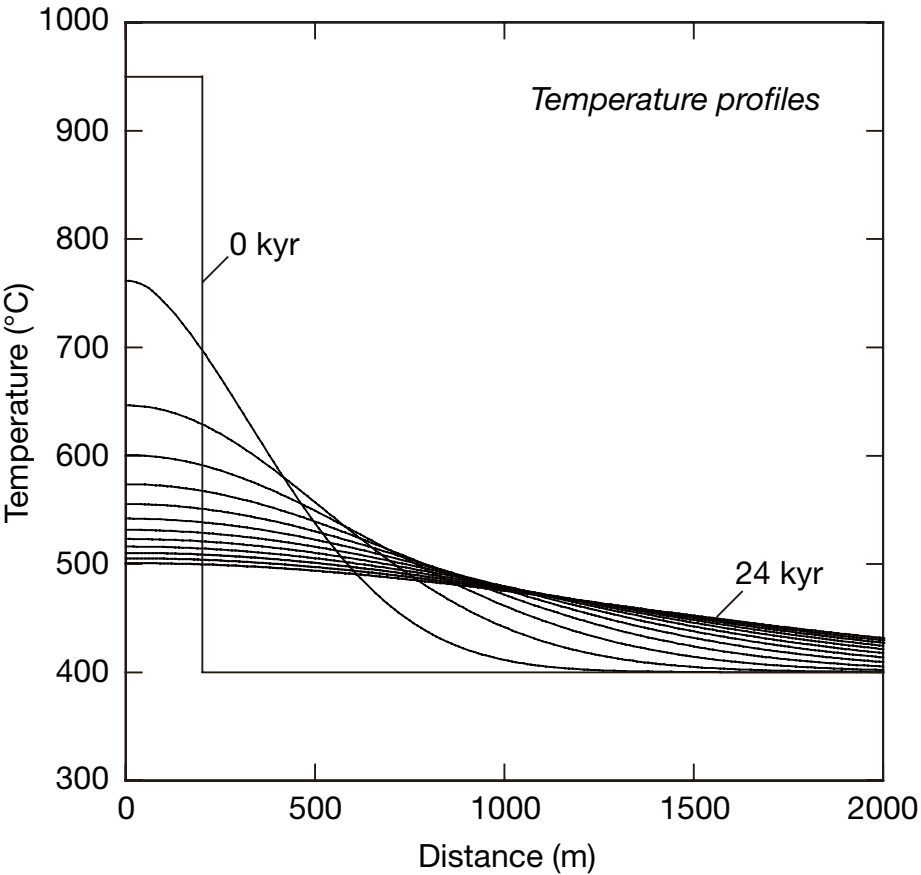
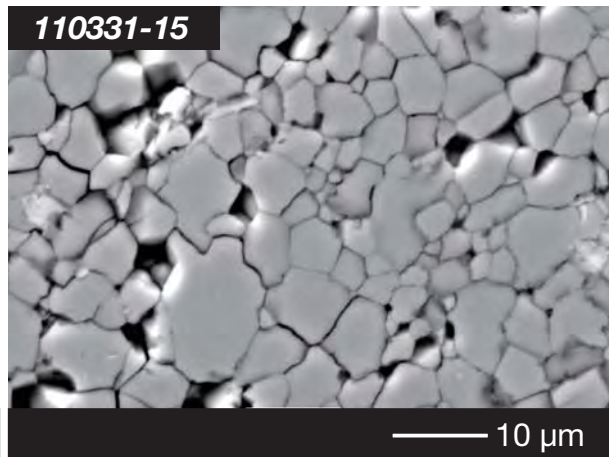
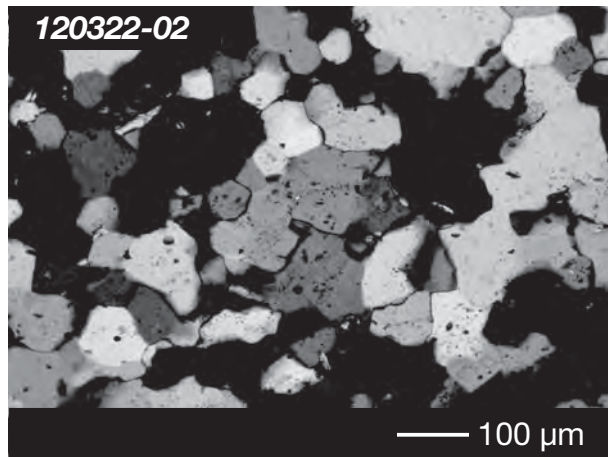


Figure 2

(a) Microstructure



(b) Grain size distribution

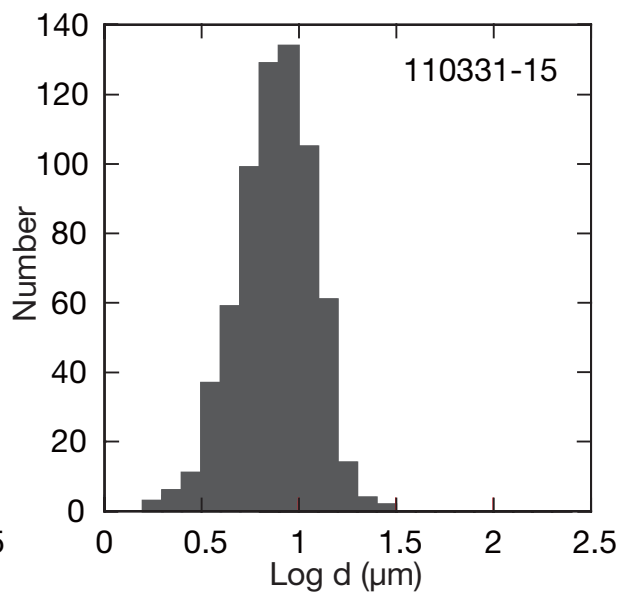
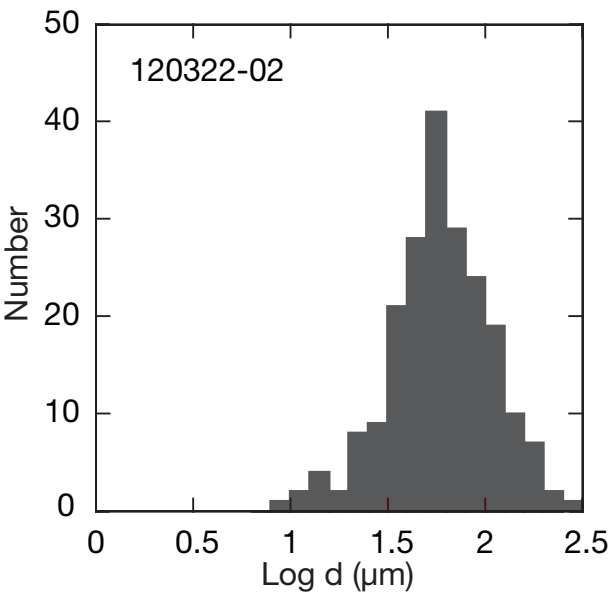


Figure 3

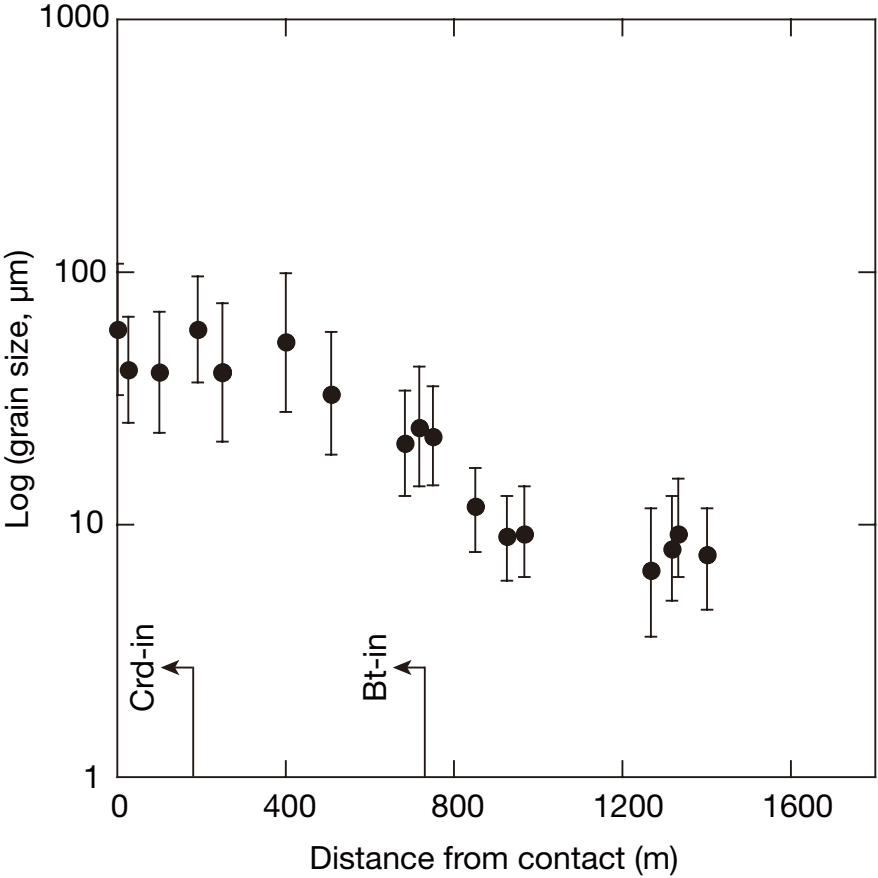


Figure 4

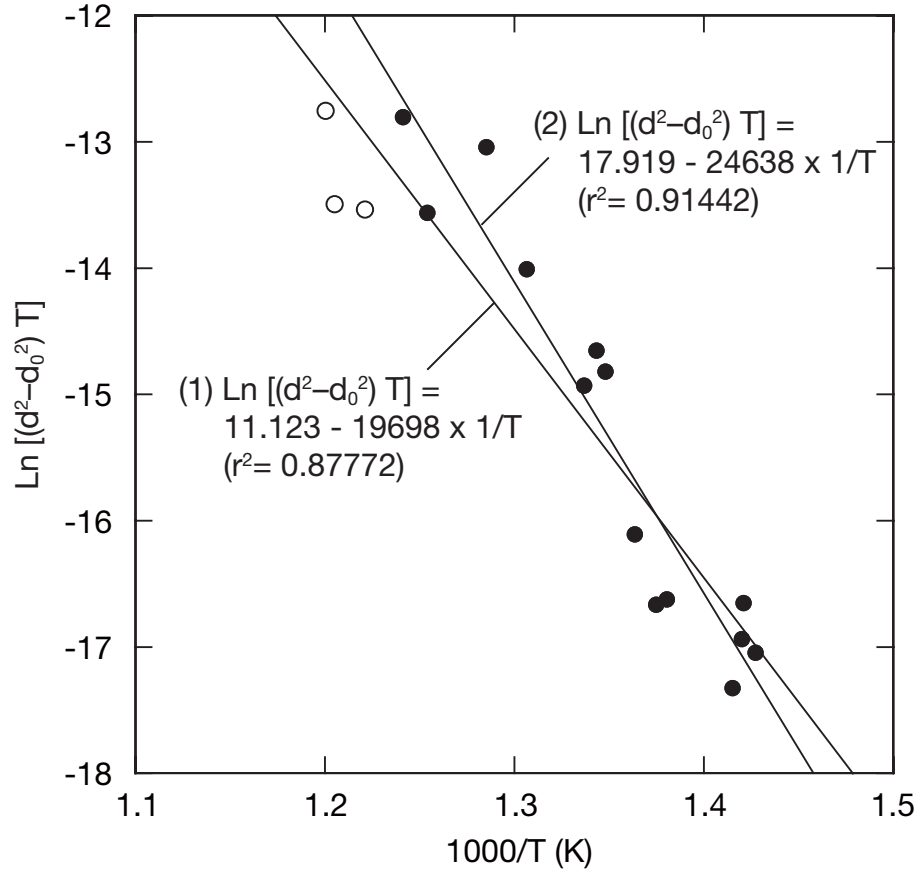


Figure 5

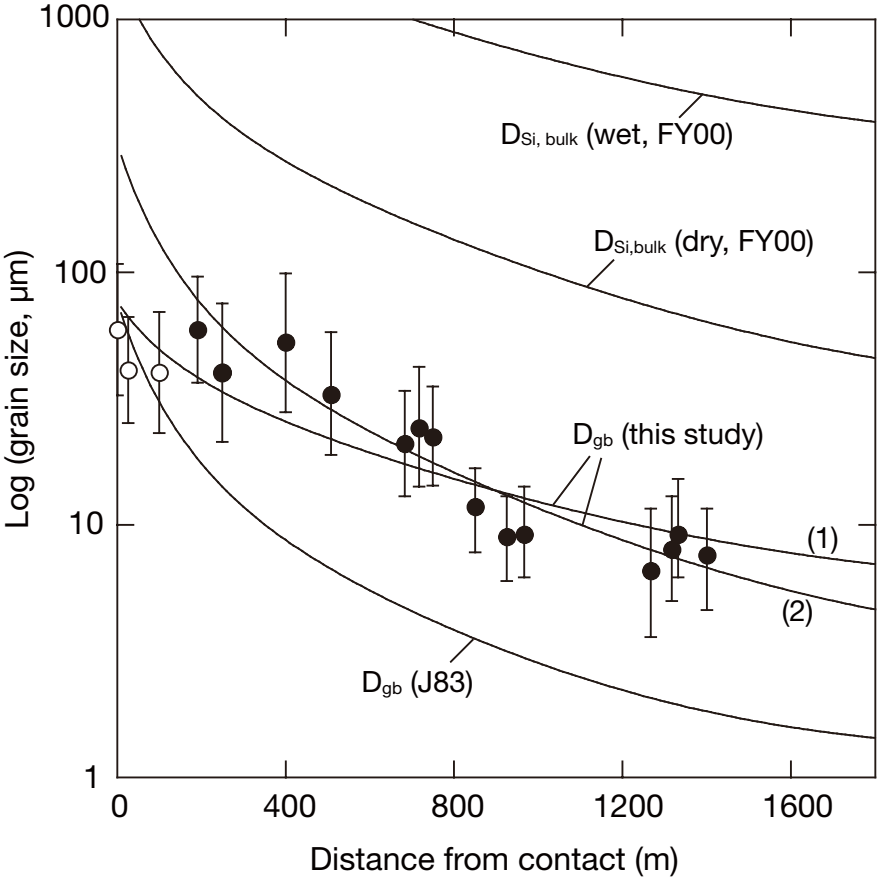


Figure 6

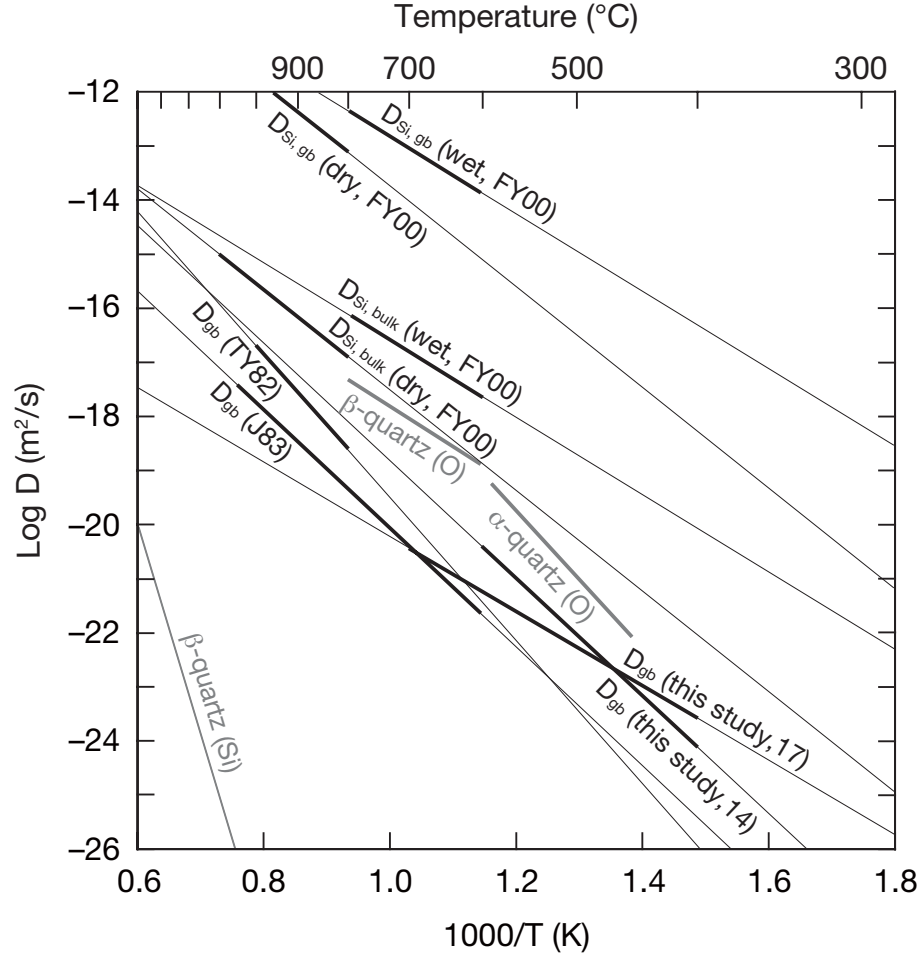


Figure 7

1 **TABLE 1.** Parameters used in numerical simulations for the thermal modeling and grain
 2 growth modeling

| | | |
|----|--|--|
| 3 | Parameters used in the thermal modeling | |
| 4 | Density of rock (ρ_m) | 2750 kg/m ³ [1] |
| 5 | Specific heat of rock (C_m) | 880 J/kg/K [1] |
| 6 | Thermal conductivity (K) | 2.8 W/m/K [1] |
| 7 | Heat produced by radioactive elements (A) | 2.64×10^{-6} W/m ³ [1] |
| 8 | Initial temperature of the intrusion (T_{int}) | 950 °C |
| 9 | Solidus temperature of the intrusion (T_{sol}) | 750 °C [2] |
| 10 | Liquidus temperature of the intrusion (T_{liq}) | 1050 °C [2] |
| 11 | Initial temperature of the country rocks | 350 °C |
| 12 | Enthalpy of crystallizing magma (ΔH_{magma}) | 3.35×10^5 J/kg [3, 4] |
| 13 | | |
| 14 | Parameters used in the grain growth modeling | |
| 15 | Surface free energy (γ) of quartz | 0.4 J/m ² [5] |
| 16 | Molar volume (V) of quartz | 2.269×10^{-5} m ³ /mol [6] |
| 17 | Grain-boundary width (δ) | 1×10^{-9} m |
| 18 | References: [1] Turcotte and Schubert (1982); [2] Piwinski (1973); [3] Wells (1980); [4] | |
| 19 | Hanson and Barton (1989); [5] Parks (1984); [6] Holland and Powell (1998) | |

20

21 **TABLE 2.** Results of quartz grain size analysis

| 22 | Sample | Distance* (m) | N | Grain size (μm) | $-1 \sigma/+1 \sigma$ | 2nd-phases (vol.%) |
|----|-----------|---------------|-----|------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| 23 | 120322-02 | 1 | 208 | 59.0 | 26.6/4836 | 3.0 |
| 24 | 120322-01 | 27 | 356 | 40.9 | 15.4/24.9 | 4.2 |
| 25 | 120322-04 | 100 | 356 | 40.3 | 16.0/26.6 | 2.3 |
| 26 | 120322-03 | 191 | 298 | 58.6 | 22.6/36.7 | 0.9 |
| 27 | 110331-04 | 250 | 617 | 40.3 | 18.7/34.7 | 0.5 |
| 28 | 110331-05 | 400 | 856 | 52.9 | 24.7/46.4 | 0.1 |
| 29 | 110331-06 | 508 | 509 | 32.9 | 14.1/24.7 | 1.9 |
| 30 | 110331-08 | 683 | 625 | 21.0 | 8.0/13.1 | 1.4 |
| 31 | 110331-10 | 717 | 533 | 24.2 | 10.3/17.8 | 0.3 |
| 32 | 110331-11 | 750 | 499 | 22.3 | 8.4/13.4 | 0.7 |
| 33 | 110331-12 | 850 | 671 | 11.8 | 3.7/5.5 | 0.8 |
| 34 | 110331-22 | 925 | 614 | 9.0 | 3.0/4.4 | 7.2 |
| 35 | 110331-20 | 967 | 881 | 9.2 | 3.2/4.9 | 1.7 |
| 36 | 110331-18 | 1267 | 700 | 6.6 | 3.0/5.5 | 1.6 |
| 37 | 110331-17 | 1317 | 475 | 8.0 | 3.1/5.0 | 0.2 |
| 38 | 110331-16 | 1333 | 564 | 9.2 | 3.5/5.6 | 0.8 |
| 39 | 110331-15 | 1400 | 665 | 7.6 | 2.7/4.3 | 0.1 |

40 * Distance is measured from the intrusion contact.

41

42 **TABLE 3** Mean R2 values and estimated temperatures by Raman spectral analysis

| 43 | Sample | Distance* (m) | N | R2 ratio ($\pm 1 \sigma$) | $T^{[1]}$ ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) | $T^{[2]}$ ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) |
|----|-----------|---------------|----|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 44 | 110331-02 | 182 | 28 | 0.138 \pm 0.073 | 570 \pm 32 | 578 \pm 41 |
| 45 | 110331-07 | 573 | 28 | 0.222 \pm 0.076 | 536 \pm 34 | 537 \pm 38 |
| 46 | 110331-19 | 1136 | 13 | 0.375 \pm 0.057 | 471 \pm 25 | 463 \pm 27 |
| 47 | 120530-03 | 1400 | 26 | 0.376 \pm 0.071 | 470 \pm 32 | 461 \pm 33 |

48 * Distance is measured from the intrusion contact.

49 References: [1] Beyssac et al. (2002); [2] Aoya et al. (2010)