

1 **The mobility of Nb in rutile-saturated NaCl- and NaF-bearing aqueous fluids from 1-6.5**
2 **GPa and 300-800 °C**

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12 **ABSTRACT**

13 Rutile (TiO₂) is an important host phase for high field strength elements (HFSE) such as Nb in
14 metamorphic and subduction zone environments. The observed depletion of Nb in arc rocks is
15 often explained by the hypothesis that rutile sequesters HFSE in the subducted slab and
16 overlying sediment, and is chemically inert with respect to aqueous fluids evolved during
17 prograde metamorphism in the forearc to subarc environment. However, field observations of
18 exhumed terranes, and experimental studies, indicate that HFSE may be soluble in complex
19 aqueous fluids at high pressure (i.e., > 0.5 GPa) and moderate to high temperature (i.e., > 300
20 °C). In this study, we investigated experimentally the mobility of Nb in NaCl- and NaF-bearing
21 aqueous fluids in equilibrium with Nb-bearing rutile at pressure-temperature conditions
22 applicable to fluid evolution in arc environments. Niobium concentrations in aqueous fluid at
23 rutile saturation were measured directly by using a hydrothermal diamond anvil cell (HDAC)
24 and synchrotron x-ray fluorescence (SXRF) at 2.1 to 6.5 GPa and 300-500 °C, and indirectly by
25 performing mass loss experiments in a piston-cylinder (PC) apparatus at ~1 GPa and 700-800
26 °C. The concentration of Nb in a 10 wt% NaCl aqueous fluid increases from 6 to 11 μg g⁻¹ as
27 temperature increases from 300 to 500 °C, over a pressure range from 2.1 to 2.8 GPa, consistent
28 with a positive temperature dependence. The concentration of Nb in a 20 wt% NaCl aqueous

29 fluid varies from 55 to 150 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ at 300 to 500 °C, over a pressure range from 1.8 to 6.4 GPa;
30 however, there is no discernible temperature or pressure dependence. The Nb concentration in a
31 4 wt% NaF-bearing aqueous fluid increases from 180 to 910 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ as temperature increases from
32 300 to 500 °C over the pressure range 2.1 to 6.5 GPa. The data for the F-bearing fluid indicate
33 that the Nb content of the fluid exhibits a dependence on temperature between 300 and 500 °C at
34 ≥ 2 GPa, but there is no observed dependence on pressure. Together, the data demonstrate that the
35 hydrothermal mobility of Nb is strongly controlled by the composition of the fluid, consistent
36 with published data for Ti. At all experimental conditions, however, the concentration of Nb in
37 the fluid is always lower than coexisting rutile, consistent with a role for rutile in moderating the
38 Nb budget of arc rocks.

39 INTRODUCTION

40 Arc magmas bear a characteristic geochemical trace element signature consisting of a
41 depletion of high field strength elements (HFSE) and enrichment in large ion lithophile elements
42 (LILE) and light rare earth elements (LREE) relative to mid-ocean ridge basalts (Gill, 1981;
43 Hawkesworth et al., 1991). Three working hypotheses have been developed to explain the
44 geochemical signature of arc magmas. The *first* hypothesis is that ascending aqueous fluids from
45 the slab are enriched in LILE and LREE, relative to HFSE, and thus transfer this signature to
46 partial melts produced in the mantle. This hypothesis suggests that mineral phases (e.g.,
47 clinopyroxene) in the mantle control the HFSE budget of mantle-derived silicate melt
48 (Hawkesworth, 1993a,b; Kelemen et al., 1990; Foley et al., 2000, Audétat and Keppler, 2005).
49 The *second* hypothesis is that melt extraction from the mantle at a back-arc spreading center
50 depletes the mantle in HFSE prior to its interaction with slab-derived fluid at the base of the arc
51 volcano plumbing system (McCulloch and Gamble, 1991; Woodhead et al., 1993). This

52 hypothesis requires the mantle wedge to be re-fertilized by fluids during melt extraction. The
53 downward motion of the subducted slab drags this depleted mantle material into the mantle
54 wedge above the slab, yielding a strong depletion of HFSE during subsequent partial melting of
55 the depleted mantle.

56 The *third* and most widely accepted hypothesis is that specific minerals in the subducted slab
57 retain the HFSE during slab dehydration; for example, rutile moderates Nb and Ta, and zircon
58 moderates Zr and Hf partitioning of the fluids that may ascend into the mantle (Saunders et al.,
59 1980; Green, 1981; Brophy and Marsh, 1986; Ryerson and Watson, 1987; Morris et al., 1990).
60 The resulting trace element abundance patterns are preserved in arc magma owing to the very
61 low abundances of the HFSE in the mantle and slab-evolved fluid. Experimental studies of rutile
62 solubility in pure H₂O support this hypothesis (Audétat and Keppler, 2005; Tropper and
63 Manning, 2005). However, Manning (2004) emphasized that slab-derived fluids are not pure
64 H₂O, but rather contain significant amounts (i.e., up to and exceeding 10 wt% dissolved solutes)
65 of alkalis (Na, K), halogens (Cl, F) and aluminosilicate components (i.e., Si, Al). Experimental
66 data generated at 0.5-2 GPa and 700-1100 °C demonstrate that the addition of these solutes to
67 aqueous fluid increases the solubility of pure rutile in the fluid by several orders of magnitude
68 relative to pure water (Audétat and Keppler, 2005; Antignano and Manning, 2008; Manning et
69 al., 2008; Rapp et al., 2010; Hayden and Manning, 2011). For example, at 800 °C and 1 GPa, the
70 solubility of pure rutile in aqueous fluid increases from $18 \pm 5 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ Ti in pure water to 152 ± 5
71 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ Ti in aqueous fluid that contains 3.162 – 2.423 wt% dissolved silicate (Antignano and
72 Manning, 2008). Rapp et al. (2010) reported that at 800 °C and 0.5 GPa, the solubility of pure
73 rutile in aqueous fluid increased from $212 \pm 18 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ Ti in pure water to $11,912 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ Ti in fluid
74 that contains 10 wt% dissolved NaF. These experimental data evince that the solubility of pure

75 rutile in aqueous fluid varies with fluid chemistry. However, existing experimental data do not
76 overlap with the pressure-temperature paths for subduction zones (Figure 1; Hacker, 2008) and
77 require extrapolation when applied to the conditions of fluid evolution during prograde
78 metamorphic devolatilization, which begins in the forearc at temperatures as low as 300 °C (cf.
79 Bebout et al., 1999; Hacker, 2008). Notably, all of the aforementioned studies used the solubility
80 of pure rutile in aqueous fluid as a proxy to predict the fluid mobility of all HFSE. It has been
81 shown that this may be appropriate for Zr (Kelemen et al., 1990). However, Jenner et al. (1994)
82 reported much higher rutile / tonalite melt partition coefficients for Nb ($D_{Nb}^{rutile/fluid} = 52.6$) and Ta
83 ($D_{Ta}^{rutile/fluid} = 99.5$) than for Zr ($D_{Zr}^{rutile/fluid} = 4.76$), indicating the potential error of inferring the
84 mobility of Nb and Ta based on Ti.

85 The enhanced fluid compatibility of Ti in complex aqueous solutions suggests that Nb may
86 be dissolved and transported in such fluids. There is an absence of data that constrain the
87 mobility of HFSE such as Nb in aqueous fluid. Brenan et al. (1994) and Stalder et al. (1998)
88 experimentally investigated the partitioning of Nb between rutile and aqueous fluid at 1-5 GPa
89 and 900-1100 °C. These pressures overlap with those in the forearc to subarc region, but the
90 temperatures are higher by several hundred degrees than those obtained during subduction
91 (Figure 1). The experimental assemblage of Stalder et al. (1998) contained only pure H₂O,
92 whereas Brenan et al. (1994) added 3 wt% SiO₂, in addition to HCl, NaCl and Al, to the fluid in
93 three separate experiments. Brenan et al. (1994) reported that the addition of NaCl, HCl and Al
94 to the fluid-rutile assemblage affected the value of $D_{Nb}^{rutile/fluid}$. For example, at 900 °C and 1 GPa,
95 the value of $D_{Nb}^{rutile/fluid}$ ($\pm 1\sigma$) was 193 ± 44 for water with 3 wt% SiO₂, and increased to 217 ± 72
96 with the addition of 1m HCl-fluid; 325 ± 107 with the addition of 1m NaCl-fluid; and 484 ± 140
97 for fluid that contained 300 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ Al. Similar results were reported for Ta (Brenan et al., 1994).

98 These results indicate that the compatibility of HFSE in pure H₂O and dilute aqueous fluid in
99 equilibrium with rutile is generally quite low, and that the partitioning of HFSE from rutile to
100 aqueous fluid actually decreases with increasing complexity of the aqueous fluid. However, this
101 latter finding is not consistent with the solubility data for pure rutile in complex aqueous fluids as
102 mentioned above (Audétat and Keppler, 2005; Antignano and Manning, 2008; Manning et al.,
103 2008; Rapp et al., 2010; Hayden and Manning, 2011).

104 To quantitatively evaluate the fluid mobility of HFSE in light of the more recent
105 experimental studies mentioned above that support a strong role of fluid chemistry in dissolving
106 rutile (i.e., up to 1 wt% Ti in the fluid), and presumably other HFSE, there is the critical need to
107 assess experimentally the effects of prograde metamorphic devolatilization and the relationship
108 between fluid chemistry and trace element mobility at pressures and temperatures where fluids
109 evolve during subduction (Figure 1). In this study, new experimental data are presented that
110 quantify the mobility of Nb in rutile-saturated NaCl- and NaF-bearing aqueous fluids at 1 to 6.5
111 GPa and temperatures of 300 to 800 °C, pressure and temperature conditions appropriate for
112 prograde devolatilization paths in cold to hot subduction zones (Figure 1).

113 EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

114 **Rutile Synthesis and Characterization**

115 The synthetic Nb-doped rutile (Nb-TiO₂) crystals used in this study were prepared following
116 the method described in Hanchar et al. (2001). High-purity TiO₂ and Nb₂O₅ were weighed to
117 achieve 6 mol% TiO₂ and 0.09 mol% Nb₂O₅, then mixed in an HNO₃-cleaned agate mortar and
118 pestle under absolute ethanol and allowed to dry. Once dried, the powders were mixed under
119 absolute ethanol with the fluxing agents Li₂MoO₄ and MoO₃ in the following proportions: 84
120 mol% MoO₃ and 10 mol% Li₂MoO₄; and the remaining TiO₂ - Nb₂O₅ mixture, mentioned above,

121 then allowed to dry. The mixture was then transferred to an HNO₃-cleaned Pt crucible with a
122 tightly fitted Pt lid. The crucible was lowered into the “hot spot” of a preheated (1200 °C)
123 Deltech MoSi₂ vertical tube furnace and held at constant temperature for seven days, permitting
124 the flux to evaporate. Using a type S control thermocouple, the temperature in the hot spot was
125 measured to be stable within ±5 °C. When rutile saturation was reached, the rutile crystals began
126 to grow in the residual flux. Upon completion of the synthesis, no residual flux remained in the
127 crucible. The crystals were removed from the Pt crucible with tweezers and cleaned in
128 concentrated HNO₃. Powder x-ray diffraction was done to ensure that the rutile structure was
129 obtained and not the TiO₂ polymorphs brookite or anatase.

130 The concentrations of Nb, Ti and Mo in the starting rutile were quantified by using
131 wavelength dispersive spectroscopy on a Cameca SX100 electron probe microanalyzer (EPMA)
132 and laser ablation inductively coupled mass spectroscopy (LA-ICP-MS). For EMPA, a beam
133 current of 50 nA (calibration and analysis) and an accelerating voltage of 15 kV were used.
134 Counting times (30 s at the peak) yielded detection limits for Nb, Ti, and Mo of approximately
135 330, 590 and 300 μg g⁻¹, respectively. Standard ZAF techniques were used for the matrix
136 corrections. The standards used included pure rutile (TiO₂), Nb₂O₅, and pure Mo metal. A
137 different crystal and detector combination was used for each element: LIF for Ti; and LPET for
138 Nb and Mo. Each crystal was imaged by using back-scattered electrons (BSE), and then a EMPA
139 line traverse across the length of the sample was done to evaluate chemical homogeneity. The
140 concentrations of Nb and Mo of starting crystals were 0.95 ± 0.1 wt%, and 0.02 ± 0.03 wt%,
141 respectively; Mo is sourced from the flux used during mineral synthesis. Some crystals displayed
142 zoning in BSE images, and for these crystals an analytical line traverse from the rim to the core
143 of the crystal. The beam spot measured 5 μm and the step size for the rim to core line traverse

144 was 2 μm (Figure 2 a, b). All totals summed to $100 \pm 1\%$. Depth profiles of the Nb concentration
145 through starting (Figure 2c, d, Figure 3a) and piston cylinder run-product (Figure 3b) crystals
146 were also obtained by using LA-ICP-MS, by drilling perpendicular to crystal growth surfaces
147 and integrating single pulses individually. The ablation rate of a single pulse amounted to about
148 0.10 μm depth. The LA-ICP-MS analyses were performed following the analytical method
149 outlined in Pettke (2006) and Pettke et al. (2012). The data indicate that the starting crystals
150 contain an average of $1.03 \pm 0.2 \text{ wt}\%$ Nb, which is consistent with the EMPA results. The LA-
151 ICP-MS data also indicate that some starting crystals have a rim (of several μm thickness) that is
152 enriched in Nb and Mo (Figures 2c, d and 3a). For example, the LA-ICP-MS depth profile
153 shown in Figure 2d indicates that the concentration of Nb at the rim of this starting rutile crystal
154 was $\sim 8 \text{ wt}\%$, and decreased to $\sim 1 \text{ wt}\%$ over a distance of 2 μm into the center of the crystal. This
155 Nb-enriched rim likely reflects either a quench-effect during synthesis, or the kinetics of Nb
156 incorporation into rutile during synthesis.

157 **SXRF experiments**

158 The HDAC (Bassett et al., 1993) used in the current study was equipped with two
159 opposing 500 or 800 μm culet diamonds. Molybdenum wires, coiled around a tungsten carbide
160 seat that supported each diamond anvil, provided resistive heating. Two K-type (NiCr-NiAl)
161 thermocouples, one on each diamond, were used to measure temperature. The HDAC was heated
162 resistively by using variable transformers that facilitated flexible heating rates and allowed us to
163 maintain temperature stability to $\sim 5 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. The HDAC was calibrated up to 800 $^\circ\text{C}$ by observing
164 the melting point or phase transition temperature of NaNO_3 , CsCl , and NaCl , and measured
165 temperatures were systematically lower by $\sim 0.85\%$ relative to the actual melting point or phase
166 transition (Kerrigan, 2011). A 1% H_2 -Ar gas mixture flowed constantly through the HDAC

167 during the measurements to prevent corrosion of the diamonds and the heaters.

168 A gold-lined rhenium gasket was pre-indented to a thickness of ~ 120 μm and a hole of
169 200 μm or 400 μm diameter was drilled for 500 and 800 μm diamond culets, respectively. A Nb-
170 rutile crystal, measuring approximately $40 \times 40 \times 20$ μm by using a optical microscope, was loaded
171 into the sample chamber. Fluids were prepared by adding known masses of NaCl and NaF to
172 deionized, lab grade water in calibrated volumetric flasks to make either 10 wt% NaCl, 20 wt%
173 NaCl or 4 wt% NaF aqueous solution. The fluid was then added by using a micro syringe and the
174 HDAC was immediately sealed and pressurized to ~ 0.5 GPa. There was no evaporation during
175 loading and no observed halite precipitation during any of the experiment runs; hence, the
176 salinity of the added fluid represents that added to the cell. Further, as described below, an on-
177 line microscope was used to make visual observations of the experimental sample chamber
178 during runs, and the presence of a salt crystal was never detected. The phase assemblage, based
179 on visual observation, consisted only of fluid and rutile crystal. Thus, we are confident that the
180 salinity of the fluid at all pressure-temperature conditions was equal to the salinity of the fluid
181 added to the sample chamber.

182 The SXRF experiments were done at undulator beamline 16-IDD (HPCAT) at the
183 Advanced Photon Source (APS) synchrotron facility at Argonne National Laboratory. The
184 incident beam energy was 27 keV. The beam was focused to a spot size of 35×50 μm full-width
185 at half maximum (FWHM) by using a pair of Kirkpatrick-Baez mirrors. A 100 μm round pinhole
186 was used before the HDAC to reduce the tails of the incident beam, which contained a flux of
187 1.14×10^{12} photons/s. The incident beam was projected into the sample chamber through the
188 diamonds of the HDAC. The fluorescence from the sample was collected in a 170°
189 backscattering geometry by using a Vortex-EX silicon drift detector that was positioned ~ 0.8 m

190 from the sample. To reduce the background, a pair of large collimating slits were placed before
191 the detector. The energy channels of the multi-channel analyzer were calibrated with ^{55}Fe , ^{57}Co ,
192 and ^{109}Cd radioactive sources. The position and aperture of the detector was optimized by using
193 the SXRF peak for pure Nb metal. There was no Nb contamination from any component of the
194 HDAC, which was confirmed by SXRF analyses of an empty cell.

195 SXRF spectra of the empty HDAC ($0 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ Nb) and the same HDAC containing
196 standard solutions of 300, and $1000 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ Nb were collected before each experimental run and
197 used to build a calibration curve to determine the Nb concentration of experimental fluids,
198 similar to the process described in Tanis et al. (2012) and shown in Figure 5. The Nb-rutile
199 crystal position was found visually by using an online optical microscope and confirmed by
200 SXRF. The beam was then positioned $\geq 50 \mu\text{m}$ away from the crystal and the HDAC was rotated
201 5° to ensure no signal contamination from the crystal. The HDAC was heated from room
202 temperature to 300°C , and the pressure inside the sample chamber was determined by using
203 XRD patterns from the Au gasket liner. The XRD data were collected by using a MAR 165
204 CCD detector placed in the forward scattering direction, and pressure was monitored throughout
205 the run by collecting XRD patterns from the Au gasket liner. The variation of the Au lattice
206 parameters change with pressure and, thus, act as an internal pressure standard. The XRD
207 patterns showed no evidence of grain growth and displayed well-defined Debye rings at all
208 temperatures. The XRD patterns were integrated and corrected for geometric distortions by using
209 Fit2D (Hammersley, 1997). A NIST standard CeO_2 pattern was collected and used for the XRD
210 calibration. Gold pressure was determined by using the method of Dorogokupets and Dewaele
211 (2007). The diamonds used in the cell assembly did not contain any modifications, such as a
212 recess for SXRF collection (e.g. Schmidt and Rickers, 2003) which allowed measurements to be

213 made at pressures higher than published studies in the HDAC and to collect SXRF data in a 170°
214 backscattering geometry.

215 Fluorescence spectra for Nb were collected iteratively in 300 s intervals. Steady state was
216 assessed by evaluating the time-dependence of the fluorescence signal. Once the Nb peak, at a
217 unique pressure and temperature condition, became time-invariant, it was interpreted to reflect
218 the attainment of steady-state conditions. This took approximately 30–40 minutes at each unique
219 pressure-temperature point. The time to reach steady state is consistent with observations
220 reported by Sanchez-Valle et al. (2003), Schmidt et al. (2007), Manning et al. (2008), and Louvel
221 et al. (2014). Once steady-state conditions were achieved, spectra were collected in 300 s
222 intervals for ~3 h. The temperature was then increased to 400 °C, and subsequently to 500 °C,
223 and the data collection procedure was repeated at each temperature (Figure 6). Steady state
224 conditions were further assessed after the experiment by looking at the integrated spectra for
225 each time step. Only experiments that contained an average standard deviation over the entire
226 time range of less than 15% were considered; afterwards, a fit of the data was made to ensure
227 that the R^2 value was <0.1 , essentially time invariant. For example, in Figure 6, the integrated,
228 unnormalized, raw data as a function of time for Runs 20110804 (top) and 20110805 (bottom)
229 are shown. During Run 20110804, at 300 °C there were large variations (average standard
230 deviation $>12\%$) in the signal, due to major beam fluctuations, therefore only 300°C data in the
231 later time frame (where R^2 of the fit <0.02) was used.

232 The experimental run conditions and results are reported in Table 1. Increasing the
233 temperature of the HDAC results in a change in the pressure of the sample chamber, owing to
234 relaxation of the Re-Au gasket. Pressure at each run temperature was quantified by using XRD
235 patterns of Au as previously described, which allowed us to monitor changes in pressure before

236 and after each sequence of fluorescence data were collected. The reported pressure is the average
237 of starting and final pressure. The fluorescence spectra from the standard solutions (Figure 5)
238 and high P-T experiments were separately summed, and normalized to the intensity of the
239 incoming beam. Peak intensities were corrected for absorption in the by fluid using the fluid
240 composition and density, following the procedure described in Sanchez-Valle et al. (2003),
241 Schmidt et al. (2007), Manning et al. (2008), and Louvel et al. (2014). A linear background was
242 subtracted and the area of the Nb fluorescence peak was fit and integrated by using the program
243 Fityk (Wojdyr, 2010). The integrated peak area was then normalized to time (Tanis et al., 2012).
244 The density of the aqueous fluid was calculated after the experiment based on the experimental
245 pressure and temperature of the run conditions by using the EOS of NaCl-H₂O fluids from
246 Mantegazzi et al. (2013). There are no published EOS data for NaF-bearing aqueous fluid;
247 hence, the EOS of a 4 wt% NaCl- H₂O fluid was used as a proxy for the NaF-bearing aqueous
248 fluid. Uncertainties for the Nb concentration of the fluids measured in the SXRF experiments at
249 high pressures and temperatures were calculated based on the fitting errors of the summed
250 spectra, and also include propagating the fitting errors from the standard calibration.

251 The iterative nature of the SXRF experimental technique (i.e., loading one fluid-crystal
252 assemblage and collecting fluorescence data at multiple P-T points during a single run)
253 combined with the small size of the loaded crystal, prevented recovering and analyzing the rutile
254 crystal from each unique P-T condition. Thus, partition coefficients for Nb between fluid and
255 rutile were not determined. The experimentally determined diffusion coefficient of Nb in rutile
256 ranges from $D = 5.6 \times 10^{-19}$ to 3×10^{-21} m²/s at 800°C (Sheppard et al., 2007; Marschall et al.,
257 2013), and extrapolation indicates that Nb is effectively immobile in rutile at the experimental
258 conditions of this study. Over the timescales of the experiments (t<10 hrs) the diffusion distance

259 would be less than $0.14 \mu\text{m}$. Therefore, it can be assumed that the Nb:Ti ratio of the rutile did not
260 change during the experiments, and that the Nb concentration of the fluid is controlled by rutile
261 solubility. However, the presence of Nb-enriched rims on rutile crystals disallowed the use of
262 Nb/Ti ratios of the starting crystals in order to use the measured Nb content of the fluid to
263 calculate apparent Ti values of the fluid. The data reported in the present study for the
264 concentration of Nb in NaCl- and NaF-aqueous fluids demonstrate the strong effect of dissolved
265 halogens on increasing the Nb concentration of aqueous fluid.

266 **SXRF Mapping**

267 For experimental run 20130205 (4 wt% NaF, 300-600 °C, 2.13-3.07 GPa), data were
268 collected by using a SXRF mapping technique. The cell was positioned in direct line of the
269 detector (versus angled to hide the crystal signal) to maximize Nb count rate. The position of the
270 HDAC was moved in steps of $25 \mu\text{m}$ in the x (horizontal) and y (vertical) directions and SXRF
271 spectra were taken at each x-y position, as well as, the values of the incoming and out going
272 beam intensity. Figures 6a and b demonstrate how the sample chamber was mapped in 2-D (x
273 and y position, where the color scale is beam intensity) and in 3-D (x and y position, where the z-
274 axis and color scale are intensity), respectively. Figures 6c and d are similar 2-D and 3-D figures
275 that show how the spatial position of the Nb-rutile crystal was constrained. The concentration of
276 Nb in the fluid was determined by summing and integrating the normalized spectra, significantly
277 away ($50\text{-}75 \mu\text{m}$) from the Nb-rutile crystal spectra. A SXRF map of the HDAC containing 300
278 and $600 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ Nb standard were also collected for calibration.

279 **Piston Cylinder Mass Loss Experiments**

280 The mass loss experiments were done in a Griggs-type modified piston-cylinder
281 apparatus. Piston cylinder run conditions and results are provided in Table 2. Temperature

282 gradients were modeled by using the “CellAssembly” thermal modeling program (Hernlund et
283 al., 2006), and confirmed by using two thermocouples placed on each side of the capsule. The
284 temperature gradient was a maximum of 5 °C across all dimensions (~7 mm long, 5 mm outer
285 diameter) of the capsule. Confining pressure on the sample was derived from the oil pressure in
286 the piston cylinder ram, which was measured with an Omegadyne pressure transducer. The
287 nominal sample pressure was calculated by dividing the load exerted by the ram by the area of
288 the confining pressure piston. The nominal sample pressure can deviate from the actual pressure
289 by up to 10% owing to frictional effects (Bose and Ganguly, 1995; Burnley and Getting, 2012),
290 which are more pronounced at low pressure. The experimental charges each contained a single
291 crystal of Nb-rutile and 30 µg fluid in a platinum capsule. The capsule design was made by
292 cutting a ~7 mm length piece of Pt tubing and welding a circular disk “lid” onto the bottom and
293 top (after the crystal and fluid were loaded). The capsule was weighed before and after welding
294 to ensure no fluid was lost. The starting crystal was weighed 4 times by using a Mettler XP26
295 DeltaRange balance, and the values averaged for accuracy, before being loaded into the capsule.
296 The hot piston-in technique of Manning and Boettcher (1994) was used to cold compress to ~50
297 MPa and then heating and compressing in alternating increments to minimize compression and
298 expansion of the capsule relative to other sample assembly parts. Conditions were maintained for
299 ≥8 hours once the desired pressure and temperature were attained. The sample was quenched by
300 shutting off power to the apparatus, which results in a temperature drop to <30 °C in <30 s. This
301 minimizes, if not eliminates, back-reaction between the crystal and fluid during quench
302 (Antignano and Manning, 2008). After quench, the capsule was cleaned and weighed, then
303 punctured and dried at 120 °C for 1 hour. The capsule was weighed again, opened, and the
304 crystal was removed. Comparison of the total capsule weight before and after the experiments

305 showed no fluid was lost during the experiment. The crystal was cleaned with isopropanol,
306 weighed 4 times, and then averaged to determine the mass loss during the experiment.

307 Piston cylinder run products included the partially dissolved starting crystal and fine-
308 grained quench “roe” crystals (ca. 20 μm diameter, run 20130522), consistent with crystals that
309 formed during quench (cf. Antignano and Manning, 2008). In experiment 20130527, broken
310 crystal fragments (ca. 0.5 mm) were recovered along with the primary crystal. Final
311 concentrations of Nb and Mo of rutile crystals recovered from the mass-loss experiments were
312 determined by using EMPA and LA-ICP-MS, as previously described (Table 2). The EMPA and
313 LA-ICP-MS (Figure 3b) results demonstrate that run-product crystals were homogeneous with
314 respect to Nb and Ti, and contained no detectable Mo. Uncertainties for Nb concentrations in the
315 fluid from the mass loss experiments reflect propagation of weighing errors, the analytical error
316 from the EMPA and LA-ICP-MS analysis, as well as consideration of the thin Nb-enriched rim
317 on the starting rutile crystal. To account for the starting crystal containing a Nb-enriched rim, a
318 minimum value of mass loss was calculated by using the final (bulk) Nb concentration of the
319 recovered rutile crystal from each experiment, determined by using LA-ICP-MS, and a
320 maximum value assuming 8 wt% Nb (Table 2). For example, in experiment 20130314 the mass
321 loss is 24 μg . If a spherical crystal is assumed, this corresponds to a radius difference of $\sim 5 \mu\text{m}$,
322 which is on the order of the rim distance for some of the starting crystals. Therefore, it can be
323 assumed that if the crystal is homogeneous, the minimum amount of Nb dissolved into the fluid
324 based on the final composition (0.9 wt%) is 11 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$. The maximum amount of Nb dissolved
325 into the fluid if 8 wt% Nb is assumed, is 95 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$.

326 RESULTS

327 The concentration data for Nb in a 10 wt% NaCl - H₂O fluid, 20 wt% NaCl - H₂O fluid,
328 and 4 wt% NaF - H₂O fluid are provided in Tables 1 (HDAC) and 2 (piston cylinder),
329 respectively. Niobium concentrations in the fluid as a function of: a) temperature; b) pressure;
330 and c) density are presented in Figure 7. Lines in Figure 7 are to provide qualitative insight to the
331 general trends of the data and are not statistical best fits.

332 Niobium concentrations in 10 wt% NaCl-bearing aqueous fluid at 2.1-2.8 GPa range
333 from 6 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ at 300 °C to 11 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ at 500 °C (Table 1; Figure 7), and at 1 GPa from 11-95 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$
334 (minimum to maximum calculated owing to Nb-enriched rims) at 700 °C, to 80-600 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$
335 (minimum to maximum) at 800 °C (Table 2; Figure 7a). The data indicate a positive temperature
336 dependence for the concentration of Nb in the 10 wt% NaCl-bearing aqueous fluid, and a
337 negative pressure and density dependence (Figure 7). The concentration of Nb in a 20 wt%
338 NaCl-bearing aqueous fluid over the temperature range of 300 to 600 °C varies from 55 to 150
339 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$, which is an increase of 2 to 3 times that of the 10 wt% NaCl-bearing fluid. There is no
340 apparent temperature, pressure, or density dependence observed for the 20 wt% NaCl-bearing
341 aqueous fluid. Visual observation of the sample chamber for the experiments with 20 wt% NaCl-
342 bearing fluid indicated that only fluid and Nb-rutile were present; i.e., no salt crystal was
343 observed that could have modified the salinity of the fluid phase. The Nb concentration of the 4
344 wt% NaF-bearing fluid ranges from 180 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ to 980 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ from 300 °C and 2.13 GPa to 500
345 °C and 3.07 GPa, and is 220-1715 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ (minimum to maximum) at 700 °C and 1 GPa. Thus, the
346 addition of NaF to the aqueous fluid increases the concentration of Nb in the fluid by 1 to 2
347 orders of magnitude relative to the addition of NaCl. The concentration of Nb in the 4 wt% NaF-
348 bearing fluid exhibits a positive temperature dependence between 300 and 500 °C at >2 GPa, and
349 no pressure or density dependence. Overall, the new data presented here indicate that the

350 concentration of Nb and rutile solubility in saline fluids is strongly dependent on the nature and
351 concentration of the predominant anion (i.e., Cl vs. F) of the fluid.

352 DISCUSSION

353 In Figure 7, the experimentally determined Nb concentrations of rutile-saturated aqueous
354 fluids from two published studies are plotted with data from the current study for comparison.
355 Stalder et al. (1998) equilibrated a solid assemblage of clinopyroxene and rutile with pure H₂O at
356 5 GPa and 1000 °C; the clinopyroxene:rutile ratio was 9:1 and 1:1 in the two experiments. They
357 reported that the fluid contained 10.9 μg g⁻¹ and 37.6 μg g⁻¹ in the two assemblages, respectively,
358 and that the value of $D_{Nb}^{rutile/melt}$ decreased from 0.12 to 0.05, respectively. Brenan et al. (1994)
359 equilibrated rutile and aqueous fluid at 1 and 2 GPa and 900 and 1100 °C. The experimental
360 fluids in that study all contained ~3 wt% dissolved SiO₂, and varied from pure SiO₂-bearing H₂O,
361 to 3.6 wt% HCl-bearing H₂O, to 5.8 wt% NaCl-bearing H₂O, and one experiment with ~300 μg
362 g⁻¹ dissolved Al. Their data indicate that the concentration of Nb in the fluid phase varies by one
363 order of magnitude, from ~20 to 300 μg g⁻¹, for pure H₂O, and was ~30 μg g⁻¹ for a 5.8 wt%
364 NaCl-bearing fluid.

365 The data for pure H₂O from Brenan et al. (1994) and Stalder et al. (1998) indicate that the
366 concentration of Nb in rutile-saturated H₂O exhibits a positive temperature dependence over the
367 range 900 to 1100 °C (Figure 7a). This is consistent with the new data presented here for the
368 concentration of Nb in a 10 wt% NaCl- and 4 wt% NaF-bearing aqueous fluid (Figure 7a). These
369 observations suggest that temperature has a strong effect on (Ti, Nb)-Cl and (Ti, Nb)-F
370 complexes at moderate to high temperature. However, at higher dissolved salt concentrations, the
371 anion abundance dominates over temperature. This is demonstrated by comparing the data for
372 pure H₂O to the data for 10 and 20 wt% NaCl-bearing aqueous fluids. The apparent temperature

373 dependence decreases as the salinity of the fluid increases, until there is an absence of, or at best
374 a very weak, temperature dependence for the 20 wt% NaCl-bearing aqueous fluid. The reduced
375 effect of temperature on the concentration of Nb in fluid as the salinity increases from 10 to 20
376 wt% NaCl most likely reflects the effect of salting out, wherein the concentration of a sparingly
377 soluble metal in aqueous fluid is effected by the strong hydration complexes that form between
378 H₂O and dissociated Na⁺, Cl⁻ and associated NaCl, as the ionic strength of the fluid increases.
379 These hydration complexes effectively reduce the amount of free H₂O molecules available to
380 solvate neutral Nb-Cl complexes. The temperature dependence of Nb in 4 wt% NaF-bearing
381 fluid is also not as pronounced as in pure water or 10 wt% NaCl. It is possible that at lower
382 concentrations of dissolved NaF in aqueous fluid, the relative effect of temperature may be
383 stronger than observed in the present study. These observations are consistent with data in
384 published studies of metal dissolution in NaCl-bearing aqueous fluid (e.g., Hanley et al., 2005),
385 as well as studies of SiO₂ and TiO₂ solubility (Ayers and Watson, 1993; Manning and Boettcher,
386 1994), which have determined experimentally that the influence of temperature on mineral
387 solubility was negligible compared to the effects of fluid composition (Knauss et al., 2001; Rapp
388 et al., 2010; and Wu and Konga, 2013).

389 The data from Brenan et al. (1994) for the concentration of Nb in pure H₂O also indicate
390 that the concentration of Nb in the fluid decreases with pressure (Figure 7b) and density (Figure
391 7c). This is consistent with the results presented here for the concentration of Nb in 10 wt%
392 NaCl-bearing aqueous fluid. This suggests that the stability of the (Ti, Nb)-Cl complex(es) in the
393 fluid decreases with pressure – either in total or by replacement of the dominant complex at low
394 pressure by a different complex at high pressure, which does not complex with Ti or Nb as
395 strongly. The data for 4 wt% NaF- and 20wt% NaCl -bearing fluids do not exhibit any pressure

396 dependence. This can be rationalized as a pressure-invariant stability of (Ti, Nb)-halogen
397 complexes. However, it does also imply that these complexes may be different than those
398 dominant in the 10 wt% NaCl -bearing fluid, or that the strong hydration complexes between
399 H₂O and halogens effectively reduce the ability of the fluid to solvate neutral Nb-halogen
400 complexes at higher halogen concentrations. The absence of a temperature dependence of Nb-
401 solubility for the 20 wt% NaCl-bearing fluid and the weak dependence of the solubility on the 4
402 wt% NaF-bearing fluid are consistent with this. The new experimental data presented here
403 demonstrate that at temperatures of 300 to 800 °C and pressures ≥ 1 GPa, the addition of NaCl
404 and NaF to rutile-saturated aqueous fluid increases the concentration of Nb in the fluid to values
405 higher than predicted from down-temperature extrapolations of experimental data for pure H₂O
406 (Figure 7a). These new results for Nb are consistent with Rapp et al. (2010), who reported that
407 the solubility of pure rutile in aqueous fluid, at 800-1000 °C and 0.5 GPa, increased by
408 approximately two orders of magnitude in aqueous fluid that contained 10 wt% NaCl and 10
409 wt% NaF, relative to pure H₂O. The new data suggest that Ti and Nb are complexed as (Ti, Nb)-
410 chloride and (Ti, Nb)-fluoride in the NaCl-bearing and NaF-bearing experimental fluids,
411 respectively. The determination that NaF enhances the solubility of rutile in aqueous fluid is
412 consistent with predictions based on hard acid – soft base (HASB) considerations (Pearson,
413 1963), and observations from natural systems that Ti and Nb are hydrothermally transported
414 during the evolution of ore deposits associated with alkaline magmatic systems (e.g.,
415 carbonatites; Singer, 1986; Verplanck and Van Gosen, 2011).

416 Timofeev et al. (2014) measured experimentally the solubility of Nb-oxide in F-bearing
417 aqueous fluids at temperatures of 150 to 250 °C and saturated water vapor pressure (SWVP). The
418 activity of fluoride ($a(\text{F})$) and pH were varied from $\sim 10^5$ to 10^{-2} mF and 2.1 to 2.4, respectively.

419 They reported that at low $a(\text{F})$, the concentration of Nb in the fluid was pH dependent,
420 interpreted to indicate that Nb-fluoride complexes are present in the fluid. The concentration of
421 Nb in the fluid increased with increasing $a(\text{F})$, independent of pH, which was interpreted to
422 indicate that Nb in the fluid was present as a hydroxyfluoride complex. The relative strength of
423 Nb-halide complexes was assessed computationally by Siegbahn (1993) who performed ab initio
424 calculations to constrain the binding energies of Nb-halide complexes. Siegbahn (1993) reported
425 that the binding energy of Nb-F (135 kcal/mol; bond distance of 1.97 Å) is greater than Nb-Cl
426 (101 kcal/mol; bond distance of 2.46 Å), which is consistent with the measured increase of Nb in
427 the F-bearing aqueous fluid relative to the Cl-bearing aqueous fluid in the present study. In
428 general, binding energies for metal-halide complexes increase in the order $\text{Y} > \text{Zr} > \text{Nb} > \text{Mo} >$
429 $\text{Tc} > \text{Ru} > \text{Rh} > \text{Pd}$, which is also consistent with findings for the strongly enhanced
430 concentration of Y in Cl-bearing aqueous fluids at pressure-temperature conditions similar to
431 those in the present study (Tanis et al., 2012). Siegbahn (1993) found that the increased strength
432 of Nb-F relative to Nb-Cl is related to the interaction between the $4d_x$ orbital and the lone pairs of
433 halides, which yields a symmetry that is conducive to attraction by electron donation. The
434 consistency among experimental data sets reported by Timofeev et al. (2014) and Rapp et al.
435 (2010), as well as the ab initio results reported by Siegbahn (1993), with the new data presented
436 in this study, seems to convincingly demonstrate that Nb is fluid-mobile as a Nb-halide complex
437 in saline aqueous fluids.

438

IMPLICATIONS

439 The new data presented in this study have implications for the mobility of HFSE in
440 aqueous fluids evolved during prograde metamorphic dehydration reactions that occur during
441 subduction. Brouwer et al. (2012) reported an order of magnitude variation in the concentration

442 of Nb in eclogites from the Franciscan Complex (California) and the Monviso Complex
443 (Western Alps Lago Superiore region). These exhumed terranes equilibrated at a pressure of 1.05
444 GPa and 600 and 500 °C, respectively. Brouwer et al. (2012) invoked the composition of the
445 fluid and degree of fluid-rock interaction as the cause of the order-of-magnitude variation in
446 measured Nb concentrations of the residual rock. The new data presented here indicate that
447 moderately saline aqueous fluid could affect the variability observed in the Franciscan and
448 Monviso Complexes.

449 Spandler et al. (2011) reported that high-pressure veins that cut through eclogite facies
450 (~2 GPa, ~600 °C) Fe-Ti metagabbros in the Monviso Lago Superiore region record subsolidus
451 influx of multiple generations of internally- and externally-derived fluid. The veins contain
452 rutile, garnet, talc and accessory zircon, and the authors reported that rutile grains exhibit zonation
453 of Nb similar to that displayed by other trace elements (e.g., Cr). They also reported extreme Nb
454 enrichment of other minerals such as high-Cr omphacite and garnet, which were assumed to co-
455 precipitate from aqueous fluid. They concluded that the composition of the externally derived
456 fluid responsible for the precipitation of these Cr-rich and Nb-bearing vein minerals (e.g.,
457 omphacite, garnet and rutile) was not only rich in Cr, but also rich in Ni, B, As, Sb and
458 LREE/MREE. The authors noted that Nb might also have been enriched in the fluid phase,
459 although they did not rule out that crystal-chemical effects might dominate Nb incorporation into
460 rutile. Dehydration of serpentinite was invoked as the most plausible source of fluid that would
461 provide multiple episodes of fluid influx and produce the chemistry of the veins (Spandler et al.,
462 2011). Serpentinite dehydration can liberate up to 90% of Cl, more than 80% of B and about
463 50% of Sr from the serpentinite into the fluid, and such fluids can be enriched in Nb, Zr, and
464 LREE (Spandler et al., 2009; Kodolányi and Pettke, 2011). While Nb and other elements such as

465 Ti, Zr, Hf, Cr and Ni, are generally regarded as fluid-immobile in subduction zone environments,
466 Spandler et al. (2011) pointed out that the chemical signatures of the veins at Monviso require
467 fluid mobility of Nb and these other elements. Elevated Cl abundances in aqueous fluid would
468 favor scavenging and transport of Nb, as indicated by the data presented in the current study. In
469 fact, high salinity fluid inclusions have been reported for the Monviso gabbros, consistent with
470 the presence of a saline fluid during prograde metamorphism (Barnicoat and Cartwright, 1997;
471 Philippot et al., 1998).

472 Gao et al. (2007) reported the presence of rutile crystals in hydrothermal veins located at
473 the contact between blueschist and eclogite in exhumed rocks in the Tian Shan complex,
474 northwest China. These hydrothermal veins were interpreted by Gao et al. (2007) as evidence for
475 local (i.e., cm to m) transport of HFSE in aqueous fluid evolved during prograde metamorphic
476 dehydration. The eclogite records conditions of ~1.9 GPa and 500 to 600 °C, and the vein records
477 conditions of 1.9 GPa and 490 to 580 °C. These authors reported the presence of aqueous fluid
478 inclusions with salinities of 1.57 to 4.49 wt% NaCl equivalent, and concluded that Nb, Ti and Ta
479 were scavenged by an aqueous fluid during the dehydration of blueschist to eclogite. The new
480 experimental data presented here indicate that Nb would be mobile in a fluid of this composition.
481 Gao et al. (2007) reported that fluid evolution and migration fractionated Nb, Ti and Ta from Zr
482 and Hf, which were sequestered by titanite. Gao et al. (2007) reported that rutile and apatite co-
483 precipitated in the hydrothermal veins. Precipitation of Cl- and F-bearing apatite would result in
484 rapid depletion of these halogens in the fluid, resulting in destabilization of HFSE-fluorine
485 and/or HFSE-chlorine complexes in the fluid. In turn, this would result in precipitation of rutile,
486 which would sequester Nb and other HFSE from the fluid.

487 The sum of observations from natural and experimental systems demonstrate that HFSE

488 are mobile in aqueous fluid, and that hydrothermal transport is a function of fluid composition,
489 temperature, and for fluids with ≤ 10 wt% NaCl equivalent, also dependent on pressure and fluid
490 density. Even in assemblages where rutile is a stable residual phase during prograde fluid
491 evolution, effective mass transfer of Nb to the fluid phase can occur. This was demonstrated by
492 Kessel et al. (2005) who equilibrated aqueous fluid and basaltic eclogite at 4 and 6 GPa and 700
493 to 1200 °C, and reported that $D_{Nb}^{fluid/solid}$ varies by less than a factor of about 5 between rutile-
494 absent and rutile-present assemblages. Kessel et al. (2005) reported that the key parameter, at a
495 given pressure, influencing the fluid mobility of the HFSE in aqueous subcritical fluids, melts
496 and supercritical liquids is temperature. The new data reported here suggest that the findings of
497 Kessel et al. (2005) could represent conservative behavior, and that by adding F and Cl to the
498 aqueous fluid, the mobility of Nb (and thus most of, if not all HFSE) is increased (Figure 7),
499 consistent with observations from exhumed terranes.
500

501 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

502 We acknowledge NSF EAR 1264560 to Simon, Tschauner and Burnley. Portions of this work
503 were performed at HPCAT (Sector 16), Advanced Photon Source (APS), Argonne National
504 Laboratory. HPCAT operations are supported by DOE-NNSA under Award No. DE-NA0001974
505 and DOE-BES under Award No. DE-FG02-99ER45775, with partial instrumentation funding by
506 NSF. HiPSEC provided the HDACs and part of the beamtime. HiPSEC is supported by the
507 National Nuclear Security Administration through DOE Cooperative Agreement #DE-
508 NA0001982. APS is supported by DOE-BES, under Contract No. DE-AC02-06CH11357. We
509 acknowledge COMPRESS and GSECARS for the use of the laser drilling system. J.M.H. thanks
510 the Canadian Natural Sciences and Research Council (NSERC) for partial support for this
511 research in the form of a Discovery Grant, and Memorial University of Newfoundland, for
512 additional financial support for this project.

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664

665 FIGURE CAPTIONS

666 **Figure 1.** The experimental P-T conditions for the current study are plotted with respect to
667 subduction paths for cold and hot subduction (cf. Hacker et al., 2008). The P-T conditions for
668 published experimental data for the solubility of pure rutile in pure H₂O (circles, Tropper and
669 Manning, 2005; Audéat and Keppler, 2005; Antignano and Manning 2008; Rapp et al., 2010),
670 NaCl-aqueous fluids (triangles, Rapp et al., 2010) and NaF-aqueous fluids (diamonds, Rapp et
671 al., 2010). The P-T conditions for studies of Nb partitioning between rutile and aqueous fluid and
672 silicate melt are also plotted (pentagons; Brenan et al., 1994, Stalder et al., 1998, Foley et al.,
673 2000).

674

675 **Figure 2.** EPMA-determined Nb (squares) and Mo (triangles) concentrations (wt%) of polished,
676 randomly selected starting crystals as a function of distance from the rim towards the center of
677 the crystal (a, b), and LA-ICP-MS depth profiles into the crystals perpendicular to the growth
678 surface (c, d). The error is within the size of the symbol.

679

680 **Figure 3.** The LA-ICP-MS depth profiles of ⁴⁹Ti (blue circles) and ⁹³Nb (red squares)
681 concentrations in the (a) starting crystal and (b) run-product crystal from the piston cylinder-
682 mass loss experiment 20130314. Gas background is measured for the first 30-40 seconds at
683 which time the laser is turned on and used to ablate the crystal. The elevated Nb signal duration
684 in (a) corresponds to several μm thickness ablated at the LA-ICP-MS conditions employed.

685

686 **Figure 4.** The normalized experimental spectra of the 1000 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ Nb standard.

687

688 **Figure 5.** The Nb standard calibration. The normalized integrated peak area of SXRF spectra
689 from the 300 and 1000 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ Nb standard plotted against concentration to demonstrate linearity
690 of the calibration.

691

692 Figure 6. The integrated, unnormalized, raw data as a function of time for Runs 20110804 (top)
693 and 20110805 (bottom) are shown. Experimental data that contained an average standard
694 deviation over the entire time range of less than 15% were used in further analysis. A fit of the
695 data was made to ensure that the R^2 value was <0.1 , essentially time invariant. During Run
696 20110804, at 300 °C there were large variations (average standard deviation $>12\%$) in the signal,
697 due to major beam fluctuations, therefore only 300°C data in the later time frame (where R^2 of
698 the fit <0.02) was used.

699

700 SXRF maps of the sample chamber. a) (top left) and b) (top right) 2-D and 3-D, respectively,
701 false-color maps of x-ray beam intensity that passed through sample chamber. c) (bottom left)
702 and d) (bottom right) 2-D and 3-D false-color maps, respectively, of the Nb signal intensity from
703 the sample chamber. The color bar is based on beam (for a and b) or Nb intensity (for c and d).
704 Red colors are high intensity and purple colors are low intensity. The scale is divided into 4000
705 count increments for beam intensity and 10 count increments for Nb intensity.

706

707 **Figure 7.** Nb concentrations in experimental aqueous fluids plotted as a function of (a)
708 temperature, (b) pressure, and (c) fluid density. Also plotted are published data from Brenan et
709 al., (1994) and Stalder et al., (1998). Uncertainties for Nb ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$) are discussed in the text. The

710 bars without symbols represent the piston cylinder data (1 GPa, 700 and 800 °C) minimum and
711 maximum Nb concentrations as described in the text.

712

713 Table 1: HDAC-SXRF experimental conditions and results

Experiment ^a	Fluid Type (wt%)	Temperature (°C)	Pressure (GPa) ($\pm 1\sigma$)	Fluid Density (g/cm ³)	$\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ Nb in the fluid ($\pm 1\sigma$) ^{b,c}
20110801	10% NaCl	300	2.10(0.1)	1.25	6(1)
20110801	10% NaCl	400	2.80(0.1)	1.28	8(1)
20110801	10% NaCl	500	2.80(0.1)	1.25	11(2)
20110804	20% NaCl	300	2.05(0.1)	1.38	140(20)
20110804	20% NaCl	400	2.62(0.1)	1.41	150(20)
20110804	20% NaCl	500	4.56(0.2)	1.54	150(20)
20110804	20% NaCl	600	6.36(0.2)	1.63	140(20)
20110805	20% NaCl	300	1.80(0.1)	1.21	75(7)
20110805	20% NaCl	400	2.60(0.1)	1.27	65(7)
20110805	20% NaCl	500	4.50(0.2)	1.38	55(7)
20120802	4% NaF	308	5.14(1.1)	1.50	190(25)
20120802	4% NaF	401	5.19(1.1)	1.49	560(65)
20120802	4% NaF	503	6.53(1.4)	1.54	700(70)
20130202	4% NaF	300	3.21(0.4)	1.39	200(40)
20130202	4% NaF	400	3.48(1.0)	1.37	420(80)
20130205	4% NaF	300	2.13(0.6)	1.29	180(20)
20130205	4% NaF	400	2.48(0.3)	1.30	910(90)
20130205	4% NaF	500	3.07(0.4)	1.32	980(50)

714 ^aEach experimental SXRF run allows us to measure the concentration of Nb in aqueous fluid at
 715 multiple P-T conditions. Rutile crystals are not recovered at each unique PT point; thus, partition
 716 coefficients are not reported.

717 ^bThe reported uncertainty for the SXRF data reflects propagation of error from the standard
 718 calibration and peak fitting.

719 ^cCorrected for absorption and density as described in the text.

720

721

722

Table 2: Piston cylinder experimental conditions and results

Experiment ID	20130314	20130522	20130527 ^b
Fluid Composition (wt%)	10% NaCl	10% NaCl	4% NaF
Time (h)	8:31	27:15	12:00
Temperature (°C) ($\pm 1\sigma$)	687(2)	793(11)	692(7)
Pressure (GPa) ($\pm 1\sigma$)	1.09(0.06)	1.04(0.02)	0.97(0.02)
Fluid (mg)	23.4	31.2	29.5
Fluid Density (g/cm ³)	1.06	1.01	0.91
^a Crystal weight in (μg) ($\pm 1\sigma$)	547(12)	887(5)	1088(1)
^a Crystal weight out (μg) ($\pm 1\sigma$)	523(6)	734(5)	651(162)
Mass loss (μg)	24	153	437
^c Wt% Nb in product crystal	0.9307(.04)	1.0456(0.06)	1.0275(0.22)
^d $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ Nb in Fluid min ($\pm 1\sigma$)	11(1)	80(5)	220(50)
^e $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ Nb in Fluid max ($\pm 1\sigma$)	95(5)	600(35)	1715(370)

723

724

^aThe crystal was weighed four times and the average mass is reported. The one sigma standard deviation of the average mass is provided in parentheses.

725

726

^bRun products contained broken crystal fragments as well as the primary crystals.

727

^cWt% Nb for final run products are from LA-ICP-MS analysis.

728

^dMinimum Nb concentration in the fluid calculated by using the final wt% Nb from LA-ICP-MS.

729

Error is calculated by propagating the error from weighing and the analytical error from the LA-ICP-MS.

730

731

^eMaximum Nb concentration in the fluid is calculated by using 8 wt% Nb (see text for

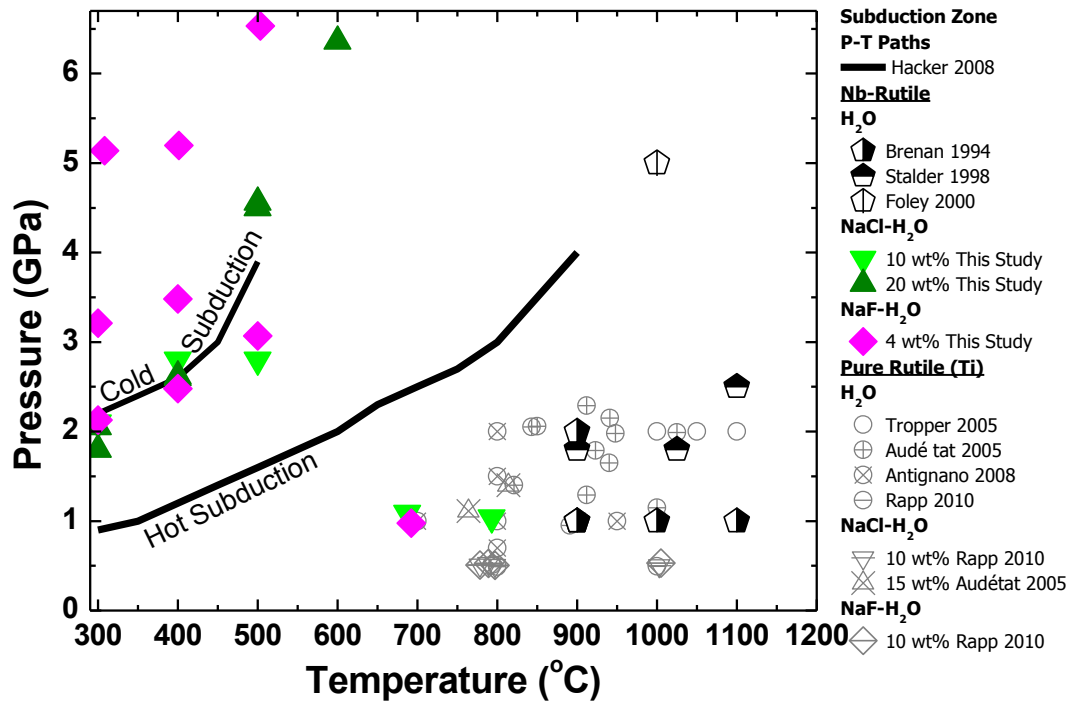
732

discussion).

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734 FIGURES

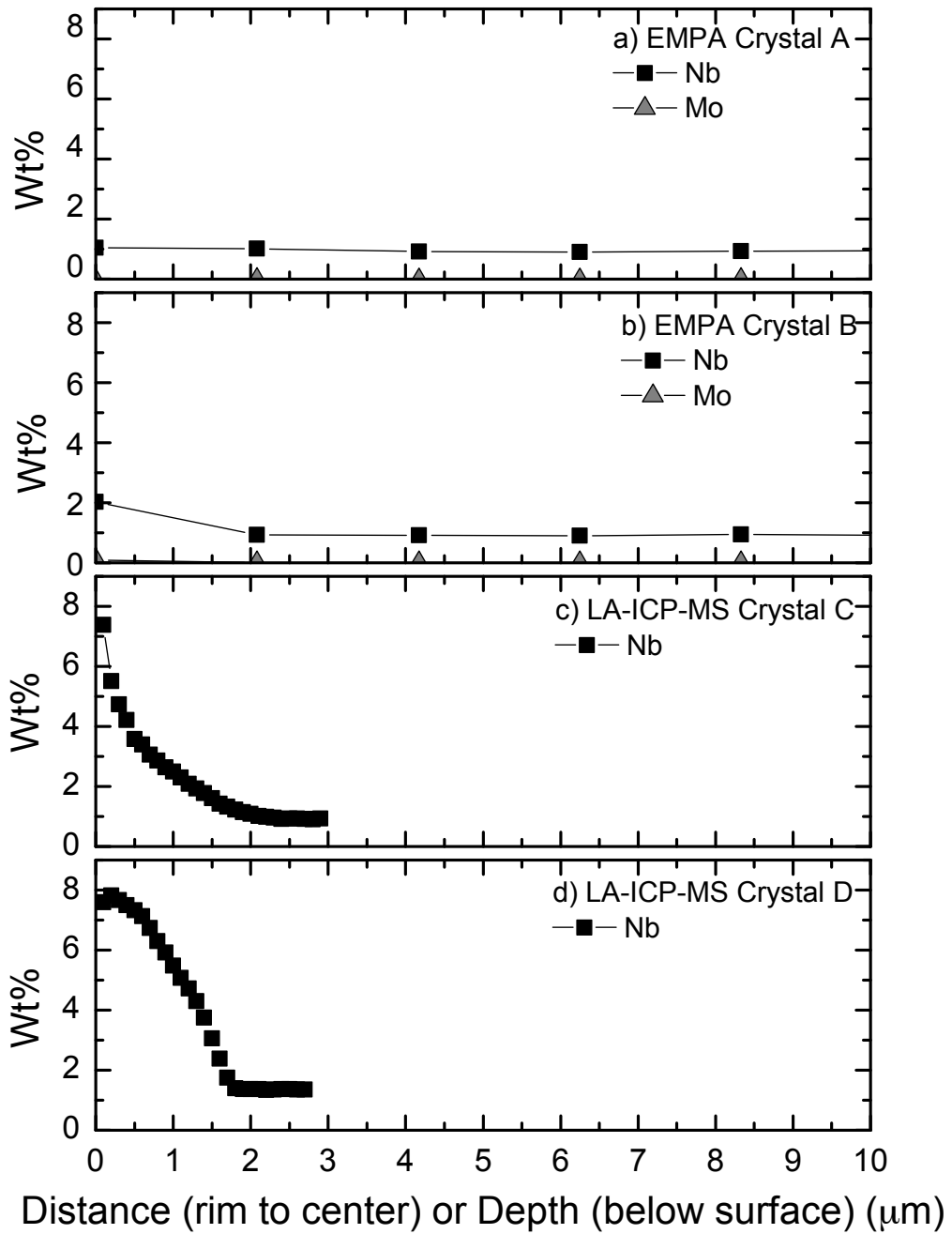
735 Figure 1.



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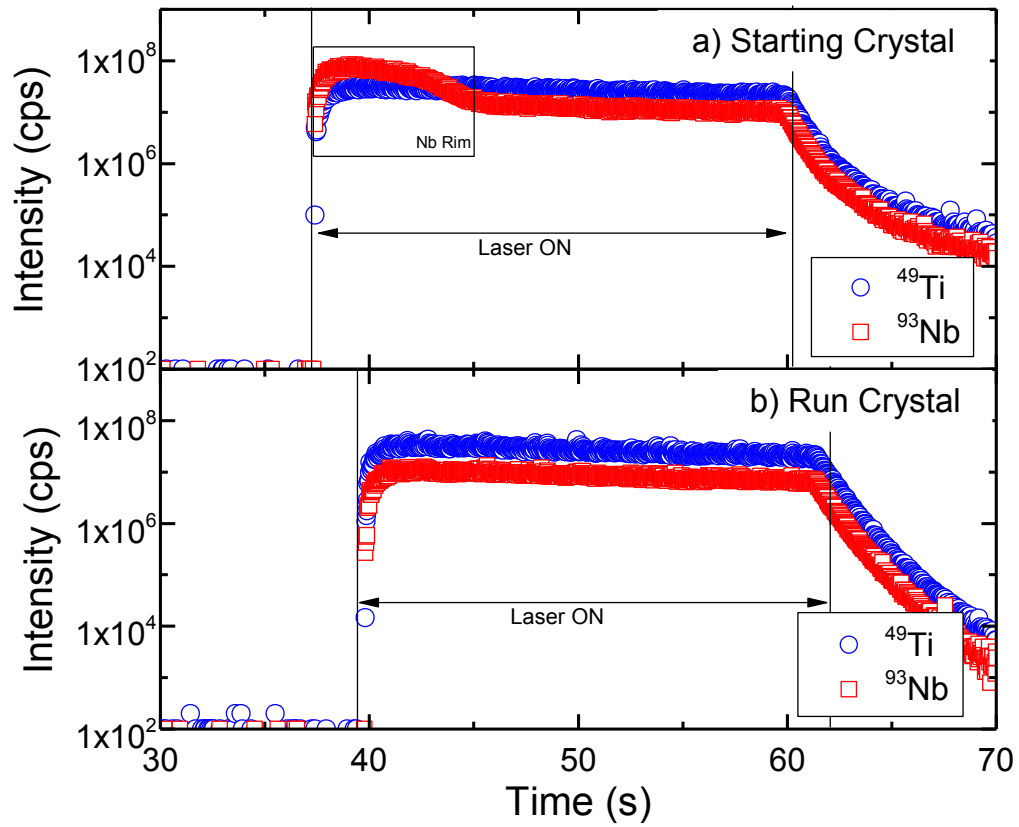
738 Figure 2



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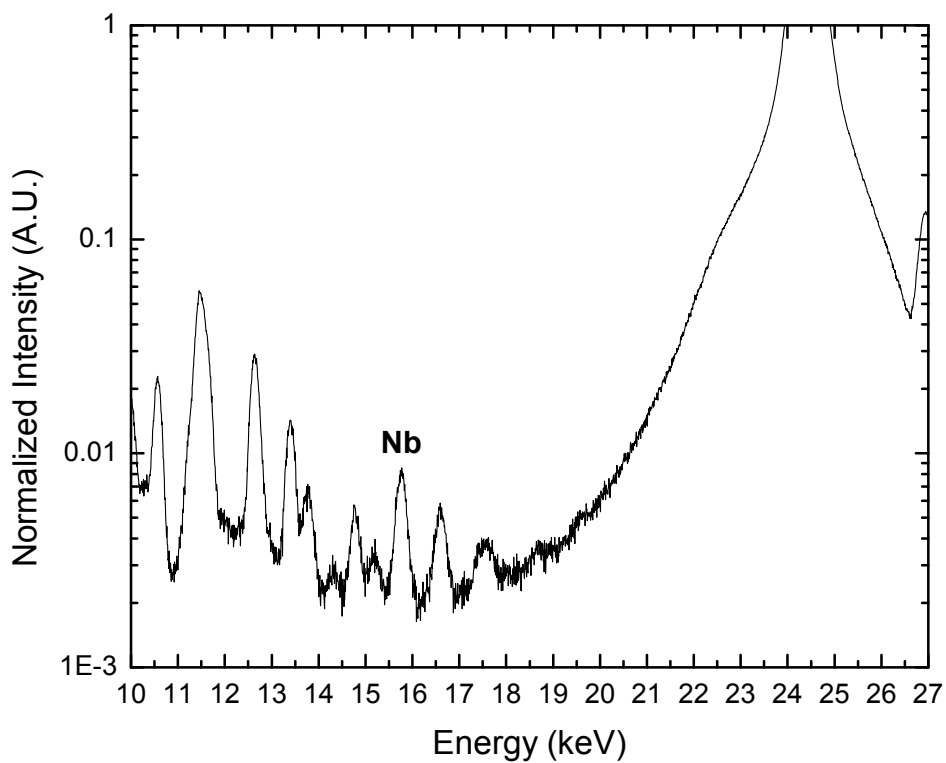
740 Figure 3



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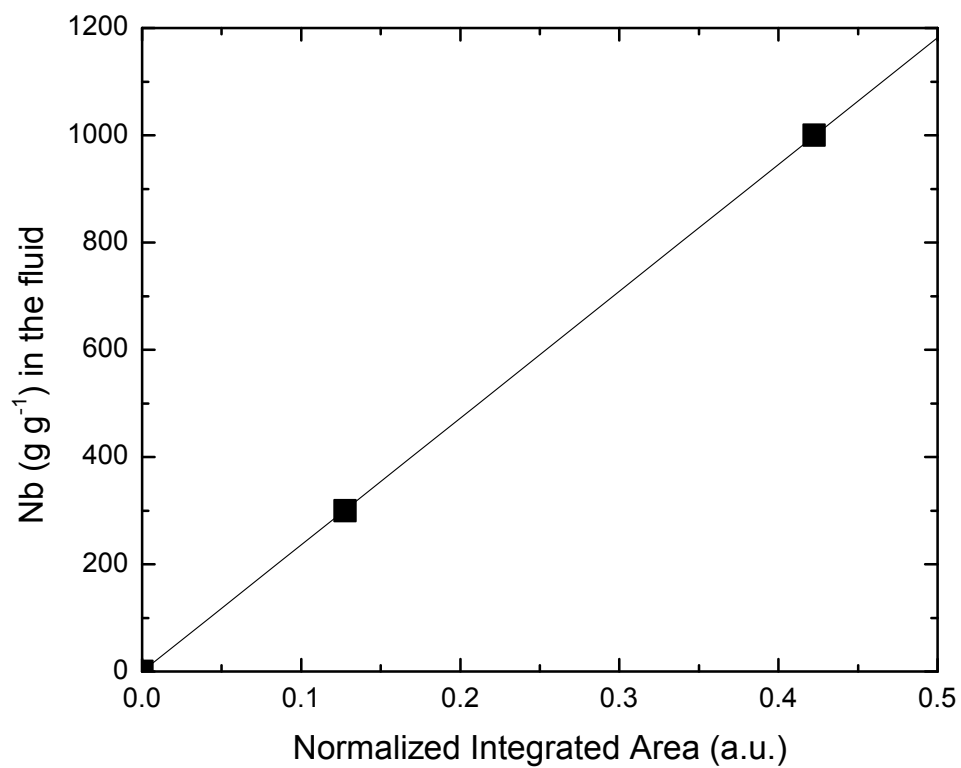
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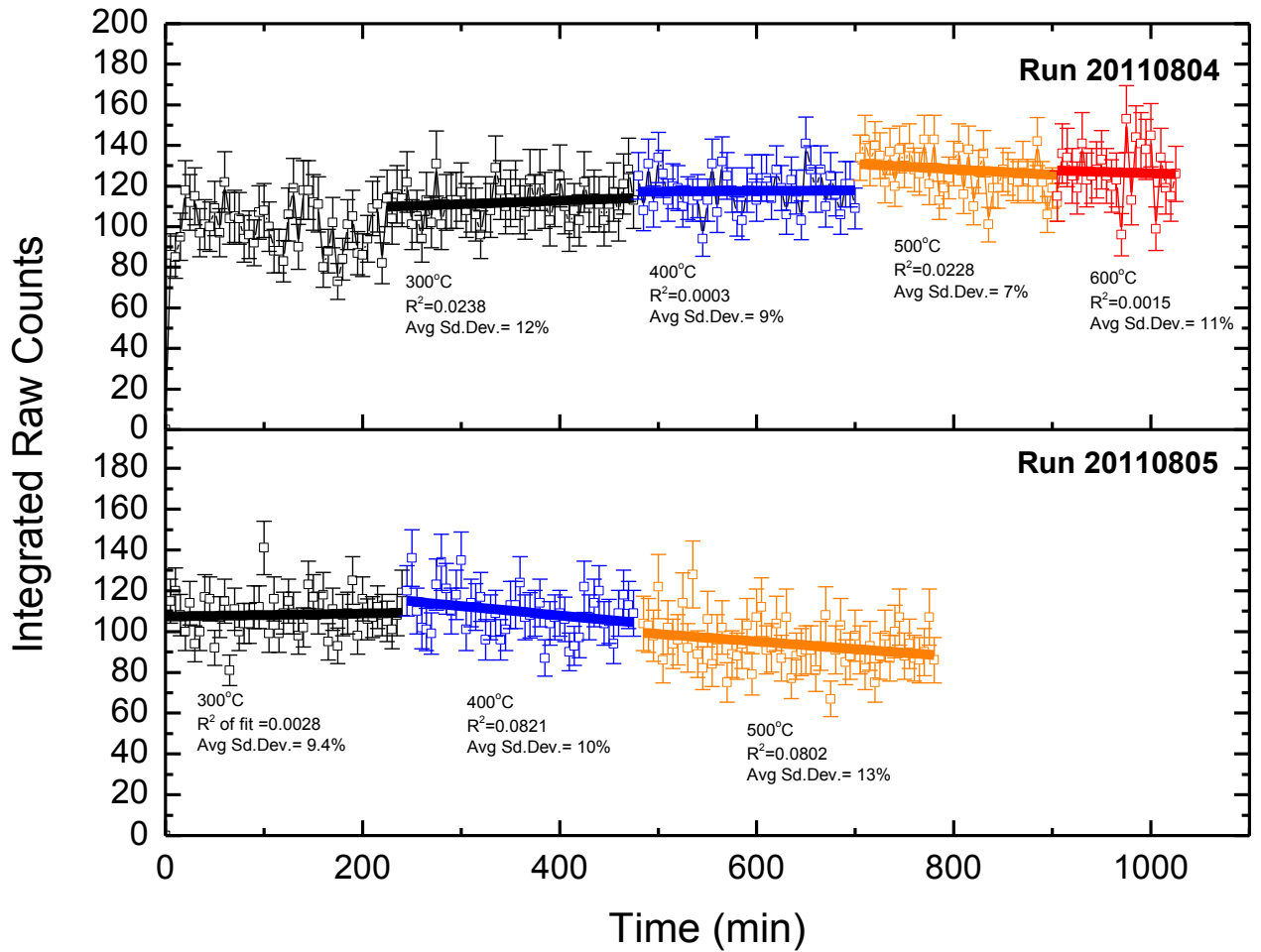
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747 Figure 5:
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753 Figure 6

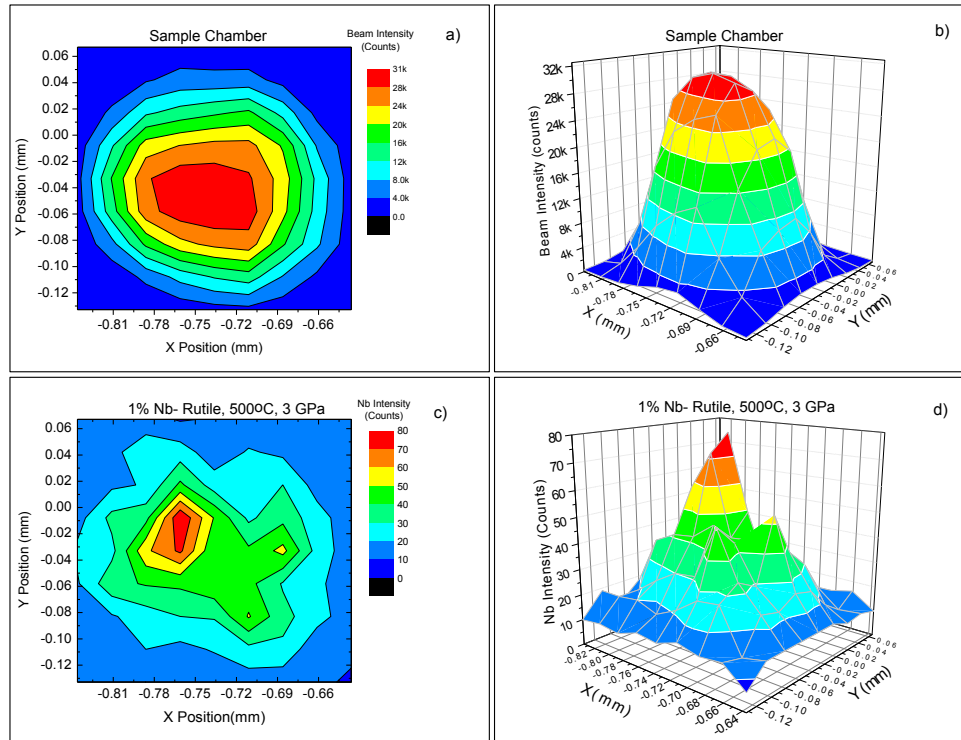
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757 Figure 7



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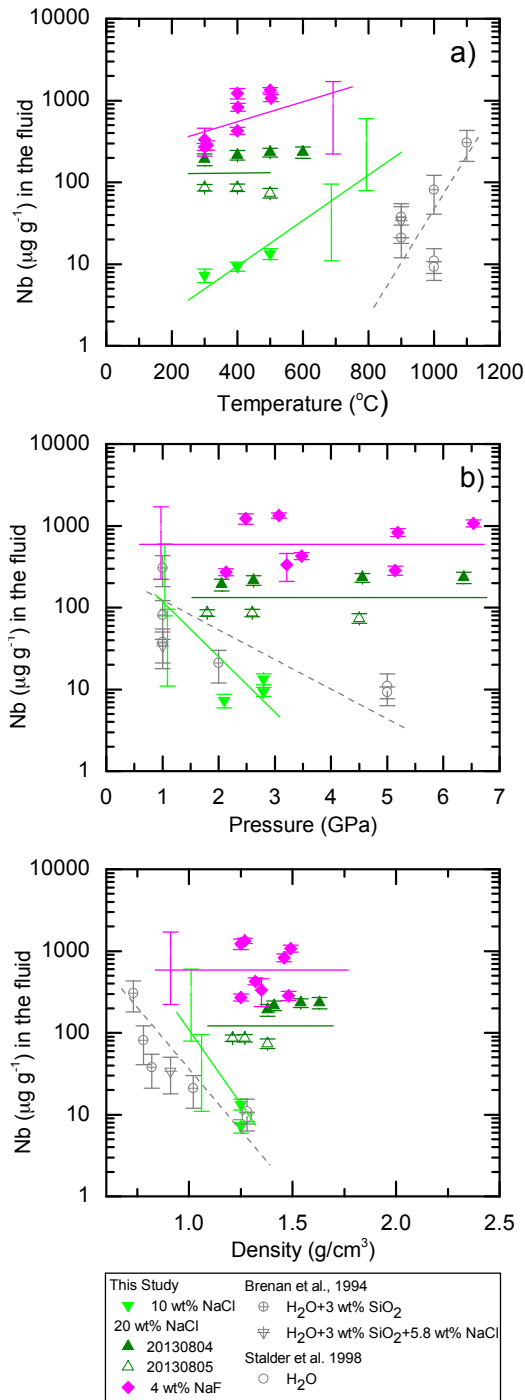
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769 Figure 8



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