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**Redox-controlled dissolution of monazite in  
fluids and implications for phase stability  
in the lithosphere**

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## Abstract

Monazite is an important host of rare earth elements in the lithosphere, including redox-sensitive Ce, which may occur as trivalent and tetravalent in terrestrial environments. Here, monazite solubility is explored as a function of oxygen fugacity through a series of dissolution experiments in alkali-rich and H<sub>2</sub>O fluids at 925 °C and 1.5 GPa. The oxygen fugacity was controlled with 7 different solid-state buffers, and ranged from about the iron-wüstite to above the magnetite-hematite equilibrium reactions. The solubility of natural monazite increases monotonically at oxygen fugacities equal to or higher than the fayalite-magnetite-quartz equilibrium. Electron microscopy reveals incongruent dissolution at Ni-NiO and above, where Ce-oxide is observed with monazite as a stable phase. Solubility experiments were also conducted with synthetic crystals (CePO<sub>4</sub>, LaPO<sub>4</sub>, Th+Si-doped monazite). End-member CePO<sub>4</sub> exhibits profound changes to the surface of the crystal under oxidized conditions, with erosion of the crystal surface to depths of ~100 μm or greater, coupled with precipitation of Ce-oxide. In contrast, the solubility of LaPO<sub>4</sub> shows no sensitivity to the redox state of the experiment. The addition of Th (~3 wt%) and Si (~0.3 wt%) to monazite promotes crystal stability under oxidizing conditions, though small ThO<sub>2</sub>-CeO<sub>2</sub> (5-10 μm) crystals are present on the surfaces of these crystals, whose abundance increases at higher oxygen fugacities. In aggregate, these experiments show that the stability and solubility of monazite is affected by oxygen fugacity, and that the redox state of a fluid may be partially responsible for redistribution of rare earth elements and phosphorus in the crust. Lithospheric fluids with oxygen fugacities at or above the fayalite-magnetite-quartz equilibrium may contribute to some of the complex textures, variable chemistry, and age relationships observed in natural monazite. (279 words)

64

## Introduction

65 Monazite is a major host of actinide and light rare earth elements (LREEs) in the crust, and  
66 is of considerable interest in geochronology because it grows over a broad P/T range in  
67 metamorphic terrains (Spear and Pyle 2002; Harrison et al., 2002; Kohn et al., 2004; Catlos, 2013).  
68 Thorium oxide (1-10%) and ~1 wt% UO<sub>2</sub> are common components due to high partition  
69 coefficients for actinide elements (Stepanov et al. 2012; Xing et al. 2013), though crystal chemistry  
70 can be highly variable even within a single grain (Catlos et al., 2002; Pyle and Spear, 2003; Kohn  
71 et al., 2004). While monazite is amorphized due to displacive radiation effects, it recovers an  
72 ordered structure at relatively low temperatures, and is therefore generally considered to be  
73 resistant to radiation damage (Meldrum et al., 1997, 2000). It is also extremely resistant to  
74 diffusive loss of U, Th, and Pb from the lattice, with closure temperatures for these elements  
75 approaching 900 °C or higher for 10 μm grains and a cooling rate of 10°C/Ma (Cherniak et al.  
76 2004; Cherniak and Pyle, 2008). These properties make monazite a potential host for nuclear  
77 waste disposal (e.g., Ewing and Wang, 2002).

78 Monazite is also utilized as a geothermometer through application of mineral-mineral or  
79 mineral-fluid equilibrium reactions. For instance, Pyle et al. (2001) presented trace element  
80 partitioning data for monazite, xenotime, and garnet in prograde pelitic rocks, and showed that Y  
81 partitioning between garnet and monazite is related to temperature. Plank et al. (2009) suggested  
82 that monazite (and allanite) solubility in hydrous silicic fluids can be used to estimate subduction  
83 slab temperatures. Principally, this involves a comparison of the temperature-dependent H<sub>2</sub>O/Ce  
84 ratio in fluids and melts in the presence of a LREE-buffering phases derived from 2.5–4.5 GPa  
85 experiments (Hermann and Rubatto, 2009), with the H<sub>2</sub>O/Ce of mineral melt inclusions from arc  
86 magmas (Plank et al., 2009; Ruscitto et al., 2012; Cooper et al., 2012).

87 Key to the above applications is the P-T-X dependent stability and solubility of monazite.  
88 There are numerous studies which have investigated the alteration, stability, and solubility of  
89 monazite as a function of P,T, fluid and/or silicate melt composition (e.g., Ayers and Watson,  
90 1991; Poitrasson et al. 1996; Spear and Pyle, 2002; Ayers et al., 2002; Hermann, 2002; Hermann  
91 and Rubatto, 2009; Klimm et al., 2008; Hetherington et al., 2010; Harlov et al., 2011; Budzyn et  
92 al., 2011; Skora and Blundy, 2012). Yet, there is no experimental work that has explored the  
93 stability and solubility of monazite as a function of oxygen fugacity ( $f_{O_2}$ ). The goal of this  
94 contribution is to help facilitate the interpretation of monazite geochronology and  
95 geothermometry, through simple limited-component experiments that assess monazite stability  
96 dominantly as a function of oxygen fugacity and monazite chemistry. Experiments reveal a  
97 relationship between both these variables.

98

## 99 **Experimental strategy and design**

100 Cerium is present as a trivalent and tetravalent cation in natural samples, where the valence  
101 is often inferred based on anomalous partitioning of this element compared to La and Pr. For  
102 example, zircon LREE patterns often show positive Ce anomalies, reflecting the higher  
103 compatibility of  $Ce^{4+}$  over  $Ce^{3+}$  in the zircon lattice (e.g., Hinton and Upton, 1991; Trail et al.,  
104 2012). More direct valence inferences are possible through measurements of Ce valence in  
105 experimental or natural samples by X-ray Absorption Near Edge Structure (XANES) spectroscopy  
106 (Burnham et al., 2014; Trail et al., 2015). In rare cases,  $Ce^{4+}$  exists as a primary component of the  
107 mineral formula. Schlüter et al. (2009) identified the mineral stetindite, with an ideal formula of  
108  $Ce^{4+}SiO_4$ , in the Stetind pegmatite, northern Norway, whereas monazite is expected to contain  
109 mostly or only  $Ce^{3+}$ . Since Ce is redox sensitive and the most abundant REE in monazite, it is

110 reasonable to expect that monazite stability and solubility will be influenced by the oxidation state  
111 of the system. Experiments were designed to test this hypothesis.

112

### 113 **Starting materials**

114 Monazite solubilities vs.  $f_{O_2}$  were explored with combination of natural and synthetic  
115 crystals. Natural monazite samples consisted of single crystals from the Llallagua tin-porphyry  
116 deposit (Bolivia). Llallagua monazite has a mineralization age of ~20 Ma (Kempe et al., 2008;  
117 Kohn and Vervoort, 2008), and low actinide concentrations (average U+Th contents ~300 ppm;  
118 Catlos and Miller, 2017). Synthetic mm-size monazite crystals were grown by the flux method  
119 (e.g., Cherniak and Pyle, 2008) to explore some of the possible changes in mineral solubility as a  
120 function of crystal chemistry, and to isolate trivalent from trivalent/tetravalent LREEs. The  
121 starting flux mix composition consisted of a ~60 gram mixture of  $Li_2CO_3$ - $MoO_3$ . Lithium  
122 carbonate and  $MoO_3$  were added in a 1:3 ratio by mole. This was divided into three equal fractions,  
123 and to this different monazite starting compositions were mixed. The first and second batches  
124 contained respective additions of ~1.5 grams of  $LaPO_4 \times H_2O$  or  $CePO_4$ . The final batch contained  
125 1.5 grams total of  $LaPO_4 \times H_2O$  and  $CePO_4$  with trace additions of  $ThO_2$  and  $SiO_2$ . The latter two  
126 components imply the coupled substitution  $Th^{4+} + Si^{4+} \leftrightarrow (REE)^{3+} + P^{5+}$ , placing the final crystal  
127 composition along the monazite-huttonite join. Starting mixes were packed into Pt crucibles,  
128 covered with a Pt lid, and suspended in a 1 atm pre-heated vertical tube furnace at ~1350 °C. The  
129 starting material was soaked for ~3 hours, and then cooled to ~900 °C at a rate of 3°/h. Following  
130 synthesis, monazite crystals were freed of residual flux material by ultrasonic cleaning. About  
131 half of the experiments were conducted with synthetic phosphates.

132 Initial characterization of the monazite crystals was carried out with a Photon Machines  
133 193 nm G2 laser ablation (LA) system equipped with a HelEx 2-volume sample chamber  
134 connected to an Agilent 7900 inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) quadrupole  
135 at the University of Rochester. A laser fluence of 5 J/cm<sup>2</sup> with pulse rate of 10 Hz was used for  
136 15 seconds of total ablation time using a 35 or 50 μm spot. The HelEx 2-volume sample chamber  
137 He flow rates were 0.6 liters per minute within the sample chamber (MFC1) whereas the He flow  
138 in the HelEx arm was set to 0.2 liters per minute (MFC2). The data were reduced using the Iolite  
139 3.1 software package (Paton, et al., 2011), P was used as an internal standard, and concentrations  
140 were calculated by standardizing against NIST610 glass. **Table 1** presents a summary of LA-ICP-  
141 MS results, with the averages of measured elements reported. Llallagua monazites typically  
142 contain sub-ppm Th and a few hundred ppm of U (single spot data can be found in the  
143 supplementary information). These observations are in broad agreement with a recent study that  
144 reported chemical information for Llallagua monazites by LA-ICP-MS (Catlos and Miller, 2017).

145

## 146 **Experiments**

147 Monazite solubility vs. oxygen fugacity was explored in a 2 N NaOH fluid and in H<sub>2</sub>O  
148 deionized to a resistivity of 18.2 MΩ·cm with a milli-Q water filtration system. The alkali-rich  
149 fluid composition was chosen after the study of Hetherington and Harlov (2008), and after  
150 experiments conducted in the same fluid composition reported by Harlov et al. (2011). These  
151 workers proposed that altered, metasomatized regions of natural monazite were caused by  
152 interactions with alkali-dominated fluids. Single crystals or crystal fragments were dried, carefully  
153 weighed, and then placed in Ag or Pt capsules with a known amount of fluid.

154 **Figure 1** presents schematics of the different capsule configurations and the pressure cell.  
155 Most of the experiments were conducted in the capsule configuration presented in Figure 1a. The  
156 capsule well hosting the monazite has a low profile (~5 mm) and thick wall (~2 mm), which  
157 mitigates against thermal gradients and vapor transport/recrystallization of dissolved solutes. In  
158 these experiments, the oxygen fugacity was controlled with solid state metal-metal oxide or  
159 mineral oxide buffers placed in a separate container (Trail et al., 2012; Figure 1a). The buffer was  
160 separated from the monazite-hosted capsule by an H<sub>2</sub> permeable membrane of Pd metal because  
161 most buffers are soluble in aqueous solutions at high temperature. In one case, the Ru-RuO<sub>2</sub> buffer  
162 – see Figure 1b – was directly added to the capsule because this metal-metal oxide buffer is  
163 expected to be insoluble in aqueous solutions at the experiment conditions. Figure 1c presents  
164 the configuration for a Ni-NiO buffered experiment. In this case, the Ni metal bucket was oxidized  
165 in a muffle furnace at ~1000°C for 24 h, followed by insertion of Ni+NiO powder and a Pt capsule.  
166 All capsules were pressure sealed with a metal gasket or lid with one of seven solid state  
167 *f*<sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub> buffers. The *f*<sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub> buffers cover a range of 12 log units (**Table 2**). The most reduced experiment  
168 was conducted at 4 log units below the fayalite-magnetite-quartz buffer (FMQ-4) while the most  
169 oxidized reached ~8 log units above the FMQ equilibrium (Ru-RuO<sub>2</sub>). Samples were heated to  
170 925°C, at a pressure of 1.5 GPa, and the temperature was controlled using calibrated 25%WRe–  
171 3%WRe thermocouple wire, with an accuracy of ±3 °C. Pressure was monitored using a 20 cm  
172 Heise pressure gauge. The duration for most experiments was ~48 h, though it ranged from 24 to  
173 188 h. These time series experiments were used to evaluate apparent changes in solubility as a  
174 function of experiment duration. Experiments were quenched by cutting power to the transformer.  
175 The presence of all phases participating in the buffering reaction were verified at the completion  
176 of each experiment. Fluid in the buffer chamber (i.e., for designs presented in Figure 1a,c) was

177 also verified. Monazite crystals were removed from the capsules, washed, dried, and re-weighed.  
178 Crystals were mounted in epoxy, polished, and imaged using a Zeiss Auriga Scanning Electron  
179 Microscope (SEM) to explore the near surface morphologies of heat-treated crystals. Some  
180 crystals were placed on carbon tape and imaged with secondary electrons using the same  
181 instrument.

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## Results

184 The experimental information, which consists of T,P,t, $f_{O_2}$ , crystal type, fluid composition,  
185 and calculated solubilities, is reported in **Table 3**. The percent mass loss to solution is calculated  
186 by taking the difference in crystal mass before and after the experiment, and expressing this as a  
187 percentage of the total fluid added at the start of the experiment.

188

### Natural monazite

190 Plotting the percent of crystal dissolved in the alkali fluid vs.  $f_{O_2}$  shows that Llallagua  
191 monazite exhibits higher solubilities for experiments that exceed the FMQ buffer (**Figure 2**). For  
192 the 7 experiments conducted at or below the FMQ buffer, the average solubility in the fluid is 0.17  
193  $\pm 0.03$  wt %. While the lowest recorded solubility among the alkali-rich fluid suite is observed  
194 under the most reduced conductions (FMQ-4), a second experiment conducted with the same set  
195 of intensive variables yielded values closer to the average solubility calculated for experiments  
196 conducted at or below the FMQ buffer. Thus, at oxygen fugacities from FMQ-4 to FMQ, there is  
197 no detectable change in the solubility for natural monazites. At FMQ+0.8 (NNO), the first clear  
198 evidence for a change in solubility is detected. Experiments more oxidizing than FMQ reveal a  
199 monotonic increase in solubility as a function of oxygen fugacity, with a maximum value of  $\sim 0.5\%$



200 at RRO, which is about 2 log units above the magnetite-hematite buffer. In the most extreme  
201 comparison, the solubility of monazite in fluid with  $f_{O_2}$  buffered at the RRO equilibrium is almost  
202 300% higher than experiments buffered at FMQ.

203 The results of two RRO-buffered experiments presented in Figure 2 were conducted using  
204 different capsule configurations. First, the inverted buffer capsule configuration was used, which  
205 involved separating the sample chamber from the buffer with Pd foil (e.g. Fig 1a). Because Ru  
206 and  $RuO_2$  are both expected to be insoluble in aqueous fluids, these two phases were added directly  
207 to the capsule in a second experiment (e.g. Fig. 1b). The statistically identical solubilities provide  
208 additional confidence that the buffer readily exchanges  $H_2$  through the Pd membrane to the sample  
209 chamber thereby fixing the oxygen fugacity in both chambers. Besides results presented for alkali-  
210 rich fluids, a single experiment buffered at RRO in pure  $H_2O$  (MD22; 925°C, 1.5 GPa) yields only  
211 a modest solubility ( $0.03\% \pm 0.02\%$ ).

212 Calculated solubilities do not exhibit a strong dependence on experiment duration (**Figure**  
213 **3**). For example, FMQ-buffered experiments from 24 to ~200 hours, yield statistically identical  
214 solubilities. Thus, solubilities reach a maximum in 24 h or less, consistent with monazite  
215 solubility experiments determined by *in situ* techniques (Schmidt et al., 2007). No strong time  
216 dependent trends for RRO-buffered experiments are evident, though subtle changes in solubility  
217 for the shortest MMO experiment exist (MD14). No evidence for mobility and recrystallization  
218 of secondary phases in the bottom of the capsule or along the capsule walls was observed.

219 Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) images of natural monazites from alkali-rich fluids,  
220 post-experiment, reveal secondary phases indicating incongruent crystal dissolution in some  
221 experiments (**Figure 4**). At  $f_{O_2}$ s of FMQ+0.8, the monazite is accompanied by small, 2-5  $\mu m$   
222 britholite-(Ce) crystals, identified by EDS, attached to the surface. At and above the Re- $ReO_2$

223 buffer – that is,  $\geq$  FMQ+2.8 – analysis of the images reveals Ce-oxide near the surface, or encased  
224 to depths of 5  $\mu\text{m}$  or greater within the monazite. Under the most oxidized conditions (RRO),  
225 pervasive alteration of the crystal surface is evident, and the abundance of the Ce-oxide phase is  
226 higher. A monazite experiment buffered at RRO in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  did not show the same evidence of  
227 incongruent dissolution despite the high  $f_{\text{O}_2}$  imposed.

228

### 229 **Synthetic monazite**

230 The relationship between solubility and crystal chemistry vary quite dramatically as a  
231 function of  $f_{\text{O}_2}$  (**Figure 5**). The most soluble synthetic monazite at elevated  $f_{\text{O}_2}$ s is  $\text{CePO}_4$ , which  
232 has implied solubilities – based on weight loss of the crystal – of  $\sim 2.5$  wt%. Like the trend observed  
233 for natural crystals, there is a monotonic increase in solubility from FMQ to RRO. In contrast,  
234 synthetic  $\text{LaPO}_4$  exhibits no change in solubility vs.  $f_{\text{O}_2}$ . For experiments buffered at FMQ to  
235 RRO, the solubilities in the alkali-rich fluid is statistically identical to those reported for natural  
236 monazites ( $\sim 0.17\%$ ). Even though the Th+Si-doped crystals contains  $\sim 30\%$  Ce, which is  
237 comparable to natural Llallagua monazites (Table 2), they show no evidence for elevated  
238 solubilities at high  $f_{\text{O}_2}$ s. For instance, experiments buffered at FMQ and RRO reveal calculated  
239 solubilities that are also statistically identical to those obtained for natural samples at oxygen  
240 fugacities  $\leq$  FMQ. Also, the solubilities are identical to experiments conducted using synthetic  
241  $\text{LaPO}_4$ .

242 The SEM images of post-experiment synthetic monazites reveal intriguing characteristics  
243 (**Figure 6**). As with natural samples, evidence for incongruent dissolution is present in synthetic  
244  $\text{CePO}_4$  crystals, though the first appearance of Ce-oxide occurs at the FMQ buffer (compared to  
245 FMQ+0.8 for Llallagua monazites). In oxidized fluids (RRO) the dissolution features penetrate to

246 depths of ~100  $\mu\text{m}$  into the interior of the crystals. Secondary Electron (SE) images of  $\text{CePO}_4$   
247 reveal convoluted “pillars” of monazite/Ce-oxide attached to the host crystal, that are almost  
248 always terminated by Ce-oxide. In contrast, synthetic  $\text{LaPO}_4$  show no occurrences of La-oxides  
249 from FMQ- or RRO-buffered experiments. The Si+Th doped monazite contain distinct crystals  
250 of  $\text{ThO}_2\text{-CeO}_2$  on the surface. The  $\text{ThO}_2\text{-CeO}_2$  phase forms a solid solution (Whitfield et al., 1966;  
251 Aidhy, 2016). When the Si+Th doped crystals are viewed in polished cross section, small sub- $\mu\text{m}$   
252  $\text{ThO}_2\pm\text{CeO}_2$  phases are present in the outer 5  $\mu\text{m}$  of both FMQ- and RRO-buffered experiment  
253 products. All features are only found at the termination of the experiment; that is, untreated Si+Th-  
254 doped monazite inspected by SEM do not contain  $\text{ThO}_2\pm\text{CeO}_2$  phases.

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## Discussion

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258 The results strongly imply that the mechanism of monazite dissolution varies as a function  
259 of crystal chemistry and oxygen fugacity. A few possible reactions are presented as  
260 generalizations, but are probably only broadly analogous to those occurring at experimental  
261 conditions. One possible dissolution reaction is:

262



264

265 which represents congruent dissolution without dissociation, where the constant of this dissolution  
266 reaction does not depend on  $f_{\text{O}_2}$ . This dissolution mechanism was proposed by Rapp and Watson  
267 (1986) for silicate melts. This was based on calculated P diffusivities that were nearly identical to  
268 the LREEs, suggesting association of these two cations in the melt. Also, consider the reaction:

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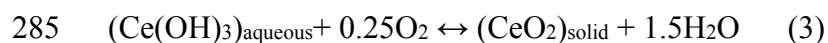


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272 which represents dissolution of dissociated species (e.g., Cetiner et al., 2005). The REE and  
273 phosphate ions may also complex with OH and H/Na, respectively (e.g., Devidal et al., 1998;  
274 Poitrasson et al., 2004; Cetiner et al., 2005; Pourtier et al., 2010; Tropper et al., 2011), where  
275 complexing with OH (e.g.,  $\text{REE}(\text{OH})_3$ ) may increase the solubility of monazite (Ayers et al.,  
276 2004). Given the high activity of  $\text{OH}^-$  in the starting solution, phosphate ions are probably more  
277 likely to complex with  $\text{Na}^+$  than  $\text{H}^+$ . The above possibilities are reasonable approximations for the  
278 dominant mechanisms of dissolution for natural monazite crystals from FMQ-4 to  $\sim$ FMQ. These  
279 possibilities also apply, independent of oxygen fugacity, to synthetic crystals comprised of end-  
280 member  $\text{LaPO}_4$ .

281         However, the SEM images presented in Figures 4 and 6 show that dissolution can also  
282 occur incongruently with changes in oxygen fugacity, monazite chemistry, and fluid composition.  
283 A reaction that may occur at  $f_{\text{O}_2\text{s}}$  equal to or above FMQ is:

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287 where tetravalent Ce in solid Ce-oxide is inferred based on the lack of evidence for solid REE-  
288 oxides at high  $f_{\text{O}_2\text{s}}$  that exclusively occur as trivalent. In other words, the additional solute at high  
289  $f_{\text{O}_2\text{s}}$  is likely to be dominated by  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  (aqueous) – with or without  $\text{Na}^+$  complexing – given the  
290 presence of Ce-oxide in the experimental products. No evidence for reaction (3) is observed for  
291 solubility experiments conducted in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (MD22) at elevated  $f_{\text{O}_2\text{s}}$ , highlighting the importance of

292 the NaOH solution. While reaction (3) may explain the presence of CeO<sub>2</sub> and CeO<sub>2</sub>-ThO<sub>2</sub> phases,  
293 it is not meant to imply that Ce<sup>4+</sup> complexes are completely insoluble in solution.

294 It is also important to mention that Ce±Th-oxide crystals found on the surface – for  
295 example, Fig. 6f,g – do not have morphologies similar to quenched products. In particular, they  
296 have well-defined crystal habits and low aspect ratios. Moreover, several examples of CeO<sub>2</sub> and  
297 CeO<sub>2</sub>-ThO<sub>2</sub> are found encased within the monazite host crystals, which is also evidence that these  
298 phases formed during the experiment (Fig. 4c, 6e). The experiments conducted at FMQ with  
299 synthetic CePO<sub>4</sub> results in a small increase in solubility when compared to the three FMQ  
300 experiments conducted on natural crystals. The former experiment also contains CeO<sub>2</sub>,  
301 demonstrating that Ce<sup>4+</sup> is present at FMQ.

302 The solubility results obtained for synthetic Th+Si doped monazites (that is, LaPO<sub>4</sub> +  
303 CePO<sub>4</sub> crystals doped with ThO<sub>2</sub> and SiO<sub>2</sub>, see Table 2) cannot be completely explained by  
304 reactions (1-3). Surface phases of CeO<sub>2</sub>-ThO<sub>2</sub> are broadly consistent with reaction (3), but the  
305 solubility of monazite in the fluid does not change with  $f_{O_2}$  as it does for Llallagua monazites,  
306 which have nearly identical Ce concentrations. One crystal chemical difference is that these  
307 synthetic monazites do not contain LREEs Pr, Nd, Sm, etc. found in natural monazite. However,  
308 this should not result in differences in solubilities as other LREEs are expected to have broadly  
309 identical behavior to La. The ~3 wt% Th added to these synthetic crystals is significantly higher  
310 than the <100 ppm Th present in the Llallagua crystals; Th may thus impede redox-induced  
311 dissolution of monazite. These results are consistent with the observations of Schmidt et al. (2007)  
312 whose experiments indicate lower mobility of Th compared LREE. Other studies have also  
313 identified Th as a stabilizing component in monazite (Oelkers and Poitrasson 2002; Breiter et al.

314 2009). Additional experiments in the solid solution ternary  $\text{ThSiO}_4\text{-Ca}_{0.5}\text{Th}_{0.5}\text{PO}_4\text{-LREEPO}_4$  may  
315 help explain this further.

316  
317

## 318 **Implications**

### 319 **Hydrothermal alteration of monazite**

320 Solubility studies of accessory minerals have been used to elucidate fluid transport and  
321 redistribution of trace elements in the crust (Ayers and Watson, 1991; Ayers and Watson, 1993;  
322 Tropper et al., 2011, 2013; Hermann et al., 2013; Budzyń et al., 2013). However, most  
323 experimentally determined solubilities of monazite in aqueous fluids are typically very low over a  
324 wide range of hydrothermal, metamorphic, and igneous conditions (e.g., Rapp and Watson, 1986;  
325 Devidal et al., 1998; Poitrasson et al., 2004; Cetiner et al., 2005; Schmidt et al., 2007; Tropper et  
326 al., 2011, 2013; Pourtier et al., 2010).

327 This contrasts with field observations, where monazite often contains complex zoning that  
328 develops in response to fluid alteration. Cherniak and Pyle (2008) documented “perforated” rims  
329 in hydrothermally altered monazite, from the amphibolite facies quartzofeldspathic gneiss from  
330 the SE Pennsylvania, and Hetherington and Harlov, (2008) observed partially metasomatized  
331 monazite megacrysts from granite that contained thorite and uraninite inclusions. Many other  
332 examples of destabilized crystal surfaces, patchy zoning, and subsurface inclusions have been  
333 documented in natural monazites (e.g., Poitrasson et al., 1996, 2000; Rolland et al., 2003; Ayers  
334 et al., 2006; Hetherington and Harlov, 2008; Crowley et al. 2008; Bosse et al., 2009; Harlov and  
335 Hetherington, 2010; Kelly et al. 2012; Janots et al. 2012; Seydoux-Guillaume et al., 2012).

336 A major, first order implication of this work is that monazite stability and solubility are  
337 sensitive to the  $f_{\text{O}_2}$  of the fluid, and consequently the mobility of P and LREEs in the crust may be

338 profoundly affected by these fluids under certain conditions. The formation of residual Ce-oxide  
339 under oxidizing conditions results in excess  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  in solution. In simple systems, analogous to the  
340 experiments presented here, the phosphate concentration will thus be higher, and P more mobile  
341 in oxidized environments. In more complex systems, additional phosphate ions in solution due to  
342 dissolution of monazite in oxidized fluids may result in the formation or growth of other phosphate  
343 phases, such as apatite. The connection between fluid oxidation state and the stability of monazite  
344 has also been made in natural samples by Ayers et al. (2013), who argued that the stability of  
345 monazite in the country rock of the Searchlight Pluton, Southern Nevada was adversely affected  
346 by interaction with oxidized fluids.

347 Experiments were conducted in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and 2N NaOH fluids, where only the latter resulted  
348 in incongruent dissolution under oxidized conditions, so the fluid composition must also be  
349 important. The alkali fluid used here may be common in some scenarios (Hetherington and Harlov  
350 2008; Harlov et al. 2011), though alkali-halide brines and temperature may also play a prominent  
351 role in oxide and phosphate dissolution reactions (e.g., Ayers and Watson, 1991; Rapp et al., 2010;  
352 Tropper et al., 2011; 2013), and are thus worth evaluating in  $f_{\text{O}_2}$ -buffered experiments as well.

353

## 354 **Geochronology**

355 Hydrothermal alteration of monazite has received continued attention because of concerns  
356 over how it will affect U–Th–Pb ages (e.g., Poitrasson et al., 1996; Harlov et al., 2011; Williams  
357 et al., 2011; Grand’Homme et al., 2016). Experiments conducted with synthetic Th+Si doped  
358 monazite contain  $\text{ThO}_2$ - $\text{CeO}_2$  inclusions on the surface. While the weight loss differences of Th+Si  
359 doped monazite experiments could not discern the difference in solubility for FMQ and RRO-  
360 buffered experiments, the occurrence of  $\text{ThO}_2$ - $\text{CeO}_2$  inclusions on the surfaces of the crystal is

361 more common at elevated oxygen fugacities (e.g., RRO). In some experimental products, ThO<sub>2</sub>  
362 and Ce-oxide appears encapsulated as inclusions within the original monazite in 2D sections (e.g.,  
363 Fig.4c, Fig. 6e). These phases are absent in pre-treated crystals and therefore develop during the  
364 experiments. This transport is not possible by lattice diffusion because the diffusivities of  
365 tetravalent cations in monazite are too low (e.g., Cherniak and Pyle, 2008) and therefore must be  
366 related to a dissolution–reprecipitation migration front through the crystal. Such observations may  
367 partially explain why monazites have complicated ages patterns, where interior domains may yield  
368 younger ages than the rims of crystals (e.g., Catlos, 2013). In settings with high silica activity, the  
369 Th-rich oxides documented here would likely react to form thorite (Hetherington and Harlov 2008;  
370 Harlov et al., 2011) or huttonite. Monazite compositions closer the huttonite end-member of the  
371 join may form in more oxidizing environments. Furthermore, huttonite may contain Ce<sup>4+</sup>, the  
372 concentration of which is likely to be a function of the oxygen fugacity at the time of  
373 crystallization.

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375

### 376 **Repository for radioactive waste**

377 The ability of monazite to incorporate a range of other actinide elements such as Pu, Am,  
378 Cm, Bk, Cf, and Es, while not accumulating lattice damage due to radioactive decay, has led to  
379 the suggestion that monoclinic phosphates may be ideal for nuclear waste storage (e.g., Ewing and  
380 Wang 2002; Montel et al., 2006; Dacheux et al., 2013). The results of this study show that  
381 oxidizing fluids can induce significant dissolution-reprecipitation and the occurrence of secondary  
382 phases, the magnitude of which broadly depends on the abundance of multivalent Ce in the  
383 monazite structure. Importantly, LaPO<sub>4</sub> is not more susceptible to oxidizing fluids. In a study by  
384 Veilly et al. (2008) rates of monazite dissolution increased by about two orders of magnitude when



385 multivalent  $U^{4+}$  was added to the monazite in place of  $Th^{4+}$ . The decrease of chemical durability  
386 could be due to the oxidation of  $U^{4+}$  to some  $U^{6+}$  aqueous species at the solid-solution interface,  
387 resulting in weakening of the lattice (Veilly et al., 2008). The effects observed for Th-doped  
388 crystals broadly agree with the observations made here.

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390

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## Figure Captions

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613 **Figure 1.** Capsule configurations and experimental cell. **(a)** The most common capsule  
614 configuration separates the oxygen fugacity buffer from experimental sample by 0.15 mm thick  
615 H<sub>2</sub> permeable Pd foil. Capsules are thick walled, to minimize the thermal gradient and to prevent  
616 re-precipitation of the dissolved crystal though monazite is not prone to vapor-phase transport like  
617 rutile (Tropper and Manning, 2005). **(b)** A fluid insoluble oxygen fugacity buffer (Ru-RuO<sub>2</sub>) was  
618 added directly to the capsule in a single experiment. **(c)** The capsule configuration used to buffer  
619 the oxygen fugacity at the Ni-NiO equilibrium. This buffer was implemented in a similar fashion  
620 to that described in Ayers et al. (1992). The Ni metal bucket was oxidized in a muffle furnace at  
621 ~1000 °C for 24 hours, and additional Ni-NiO powder and H<sub>2</sub>O was added to the bottom of the Ni  
622 bucket before inserting the 5 mm Pt capsule. **(d)** The experimental cell consists of a 19 mm NaCl+  
623 borosilicate glass, with crushable MgO on either side of the capsule+buffer. No pressure  
624 correction was made for this cell design (Holland, 1980). The borosilicate glass acts as a thermal  
625 insulator; additional details about the thermal structure of the NaCl-borosilicate cell are explored  
626 in Watson et al. (2002).

627

628

629 **Figure 2.** Solubility of Llalagua monazite in 2N NaOH solution represented as wt% monazite  
630 dissolved in the fluid (wt. loss of crystal/ wt. of fluid×100). Solubilities increase at oxygen  
631 fugacities above the FMQ buffer. The x-axis represents the difference in log units from the FMQ  
632 equilibrium buffer. The iron-wüstite (IW) and magnetite-hematite (MH) buffers are included for  
633 reference.

634

635 **Figure 3.** Solubility of monazite in 2N NaOH fluid compared to experiment duration for three  
636 different oxygen fugacities, which reveals no systematic change with time, suggesting the absence  
637 of vapor transport/recrystallization of dissolved solutes.

638

639 **Figure 4.** SEM images (SE = secondary electron; BSE backscattered electron) of Llallagua  
640 monazite showing various types of dissolution features; see Table 1 for oxygen fugacity buffer  
641 abbreviations. **(a)** Monazite experimental product buffered at MMO in 2N NaOH fluid showing  
642 the presence of xenotime. Also present, but not shown in the image, are  $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$  REE-silicates near  
643 the surface of the crystal, likely allanite. Xenotime was not observed in any other experiment,  
644 including other MMO runs and is suspected to have been present at the start of the experiment.  
645 **(b)** MD16, also buffered at MMO. **(c)** Monazite experimental product after buffering at FMQ (2N  
646 NaOH). **(d)** An experiment buffered at FMQ+2.8 with NaOH fluid shows evidence of incongruent  
647 dissolution resulting in Ce-oxide precipitates close to the surface of the crystal. **(e)** Buffering the  
648 experiment at RRO in a solution of 2N NaOH results in pervasive Ce-oxide associated with the  
649 monazite at depths greater than  $50 \mu\text{m}$  from the original surface of the crystal. **(f)** In contrast to  
650 **(e)**, no incongruent dissolution of monazite is evident at RRO in a fluid of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ .

651

652 **Figure 5.** Solubility of synthetic monazite crystals in 2N NaOH change as a function of chemical  
653 composition. For reference, the grey line defines the solubility for natural monazite presented in  
654 Figure 2. Synthetic  $\text{CePO}_4$  exhibits enhanced solubilities at elevated oxygen fugacities. Synthetic  
655  $\text{LaPO}_4$  and Th+Si doped monazite (see Table 2 for compositions) exhibit no change in solubility  
656 as a function of oxygen fugacity. Error bars are smaller than the symbols.

657

658 **Figure 6.** SEM images of synthetic monazite crystals labeled with sample ID,  $f_{O_2}$  buffer, and  
659 image type (SE = secondary electron; BSE = backscattered electron). The first row are images of  
660 synthetic  $CePO_4$ , the second row is Si-Th doped monazites. **(a)** Flux-grown monazite, untreated.  
661 **(b)** Ce-oxide inclusions present on the surface of the crystal after an experiment buffered at FMQ.  
662 **(c-d)** Deep penetration of Ce-oxide after a RRO-buffered experiment; the surface was imaged first  
663 (c), followed by mounting and polishing of the crystal (d). **(e-g)** Precipitates of  $CeO_2$ - $ThO_2$   
664 extending to depths of  $\sim 5 \mu m$  within the crystal, and on the surface. The  $CeO_2$ - $ThO_2$  phase is more  
665 prevalent for the more oxidized experiment (g), and has higher abundances of  $CeO_2$  as determined  
666 by EDS.

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678 **Table 1**  
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**Table 1.** Compositions of phosphates used in solubility experiments.

Sample ID	n	(wt%)														Th	U	
		Ca	Si	La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Sm	Th	U								
Llallagua grain 1	9	0.4	0.2	n.m.	19.0	0.9	33.4	1.1	3.4	0.2	12.3	1.1	1.8	0.2	101 ppm	303	404 ppm	681
Llallagua grain 2	10	0.6	0.2	n.m.	17.2	1.5	31.9	0.9	3.5	0.1	11.8	0.9	1.8	0.1	0.05 ppm	0.04	132 ppm	63
Llallagua grain 3	11	0.3	0.1	n.m.	18.2	0.8	31.9	0.7	3.3	0.0	12.9	0.3	1.7	0.1	0.04 ppm	0.12	291 ppm	194
Th-Si mzt (synth)	5			0.3	0.03	42.6	0.8	30.1	0.5	0.0	0.0	n.m.		n.m.	2.94 wt%	0.21	n.m.	
LaPO <sub>4</sub> (synth)	5			0.1	0.04	74.7	2.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	n.m.		n.m.	0.00 ppm	0.00		
CePO <sub>4</sub> (synth)	5	b.d.l.		n.m.		0.0	0.0	76.4	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	n.m.	n.m.		b.d.l.	

n = number of analyses; additional spot data included in the supplementary information.

b.d.l = below detection limit

n.m. = not measured

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**Table 2**

**Table 2** solid state oxygen fugacity buffers used in this study.

$fO_2$ buffer equil. reaction	abbreviation, ref.	$\Delta FMQ$	Capsule configuration
$Mo + O_2 = MoO_2$	Mo-MoO <sub>2</sub> (MMO), 1	-4.00	Fig 1(a)
$W + O_2 = WO_2$	W-WO <sub>2</sub> (WWO), 2	-2.70	Fig 1(a)
$[6/(4x-3)]Fe_xO + O_2 = [2x/(4x-3)]Fe_3O_4$	WM, 3	-2.12	Fig 1(a)
<b><math>3Fe_2SiO_4 + O_2 = 2Fe_3O_4 + 3SiO_2</math></b>	<b>FMQ, 4</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>Fig 1(a)</b>
$2Ni + O_2 = 2NiO$	Ni-NiO (NNO), 2	0.80	Fig 1(c)
$Re + O_2 = ReO_2$	Re-ReO <sub>2</sub> (ReRO), 5	2.78	Fig 1(a)
$Ru + O_2 = RuO_2$	Ru-RuO <sub>2</sub> (RRO), 6	7.97	Fig 1(a,b)

<sup>1</sup>O'Neill (1986); <sup>2</sup>O'Neill and Pownceby (1993) ; <sup>3</sup>Myers and Eugster (1983);

<sup>4</sup>O'Neill (1987) ; <sup>5</sup>Pownceby and O'Neill (1994) ; <sup>6</sup>O'Neill and Nell (1997)

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713 **Table 3**

**Table 3** experiment conditions and results.

Exp ID	T (°C)	P (GPa)	capsuleconfig.	t(h)	fo <sub>2</sub>	ΔFMQ	crystal type	fluid comp.	initial crystal wt. (mg)	fluid added (μL)	final crystal wt. (mg)	solubility (%) <sup>a</sup>	1 s.d. <sup>b</sup>
MD01	925	1.5	Fig 1a	70	RRO	7.97	Llallagua	2N NaOH	6.41	51	6.16	0.45	0.03
MD02	925	1.5	Fig 1a	70	FMQ	0.00	Llallagua	2N NaOH	4.15	33.2	4.08	0.20	0.03
MD03	925	1.5	Fig 1a	189	FMQ	0.00	Llallagua	2N NaOH	4.43	35.4	4.36	0.18	0.03
MD04	925	1.5	Fig 1a	24	FMQ	0.00	Llallagua	2N NaOH	10.01	40	9.93	0.19	0.03
MD06	925	1.5	Fig1b	24	RRO	7.97	Llallagua	2N NaOH	4.67	75	4.27	0.49	0.02
MD08	925	1.5	Fig 1a	46	WVO	-2.70	Llallagua	2N NaOH	4.86	45	4.77	0.19	0.02
MD09	925	1.5	Fig 1a	46	ReRO	2.78	CePO <sub>4</sub> (synth)	2N NaOH	8.94	45	8.27	1.38	0.02
MD10	925	1.5	Fig 1a	46	ReRO	2.78	Llallagua	2N NaOH	8.76	45	8.60	0.33	0.02
MD11	925	1.5	Fig 1a	48	WM	-2.12	Llallagua	2N NaOH	8.10	60	8.00	0.15	0.02
MD14	925	1.5	Fig 1a	48	MMO	-4.00	Llallagua	2N NaOH	13.25	60	13.17	0.12	0.02
MD15	925	1.5	Fig 1a	48	MMO	-4.00	CePO <sub>4</sub> (synth)	2N NaOH	2.50	60	2.40	0.15	0.02
MD16	925	1.5	Fig 1a	99	MMO	-4.00	Llallagua	2N NaOH	6.92	60	6.80	0.19	0.02
MD17	925	1.5	Fig 1a	48	FMQ	0.00	CePO <sub>4</sub> (synth)	2N NaOH	1.45	60	1.29	0.25	0.02
MD19	925	1.5	Fig 1a	48	RRO	7.97	CePO <sub>4</sub> (synth)	2N NaOH	6.37	60	4.69	2.59	0.02
MD20	925	1.5	Fig 1a	48	RRO	7.97	LaPO <sub>4</sub> (synth)	2N NaOH	4.77	60	4.66	0.17	0.02
MD21	925	1.5	Fig 1a	47	FMQ	0.00	LaPO <sub>4</sub> (synth)	2N NaOH	2.15	60	2.04	0.17	0.02
MD22	925	1.5	Fig 1a	48	RRO	7.97	Llallagua Th-Si mzt	H <sub>2</sub> O	2.67	60	2.65	0.03	0.02
MD25	925	1.5	Fig 1a	46	RRO	7.97	(synth) Th-Si mzt	2N NaOH	5.47	60	5.37	0.15	0.02
MD28	925	1.5	Fig 1a	48	FMQ	0.00	(synth)	2N NaOH	3.83	60	3.73	0.15	0.02
MD34	925	1.5	Fig 1c	24	NNO	0.80	Llallagua	2N NaOH	3.76	60	3.58	0.28	0.02

<sup>a</sup> solubility represented as wt% monazite dissolved in the fluid (wt. loss of crystal/ wt. of fluid×100), using a density of 1.08 g/ml for 2N NaOH

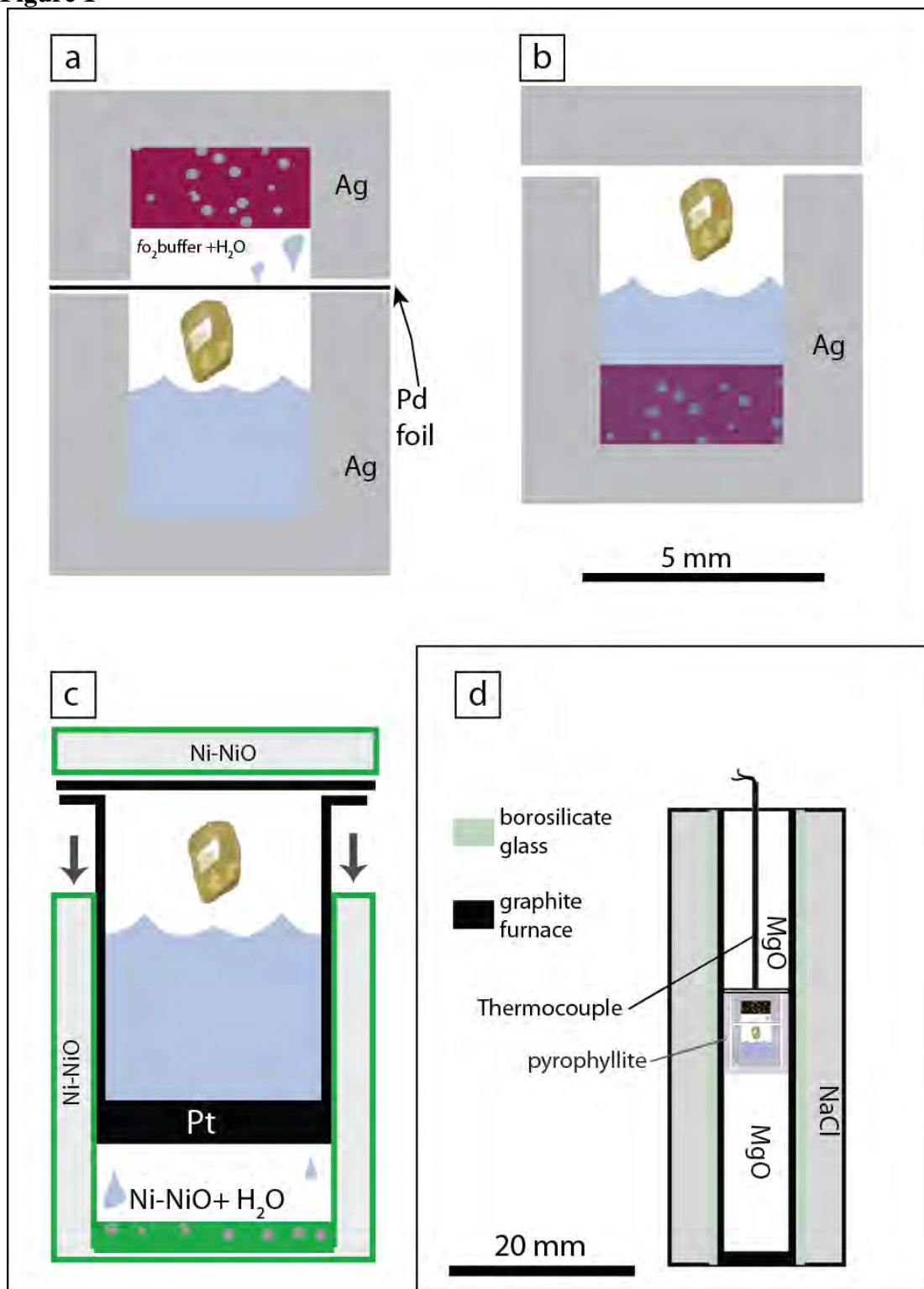


<sup>b</sup> propagated uncertainty based on 3-7 repeated measurements of initial and final crystal weight

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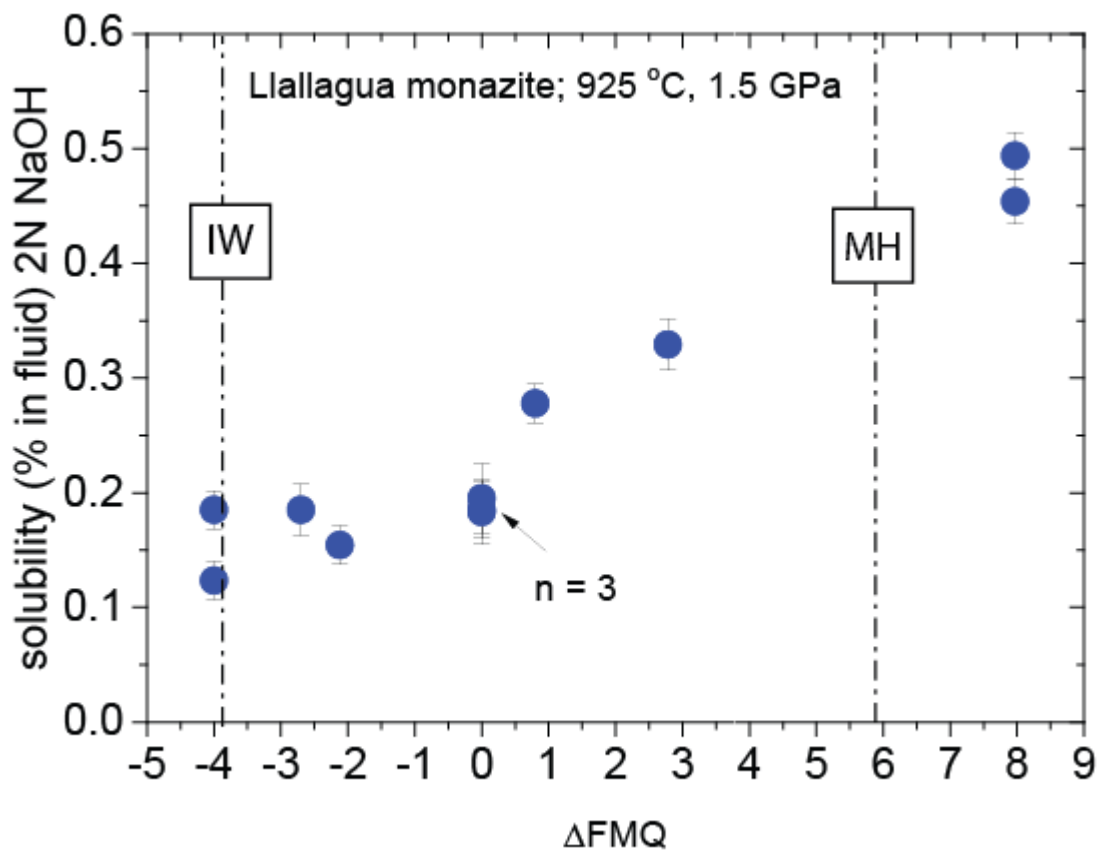
**Figure 1**



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739 **Figure 2**



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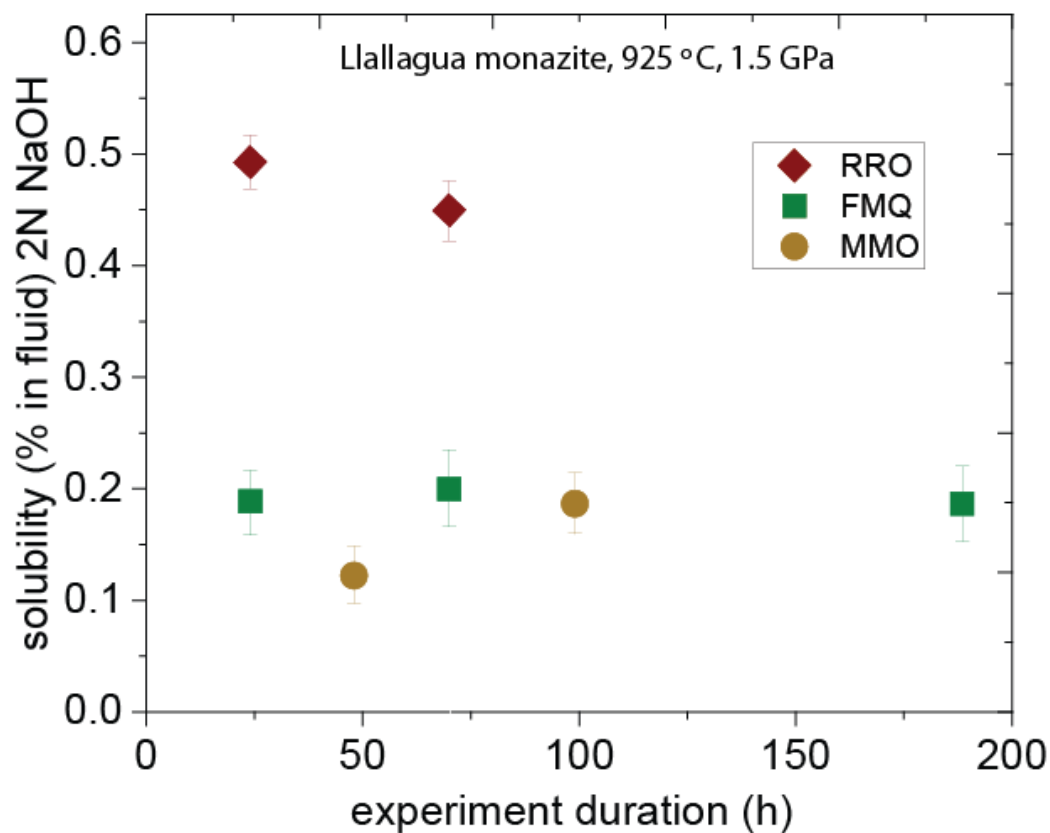
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751 **Figure 3**



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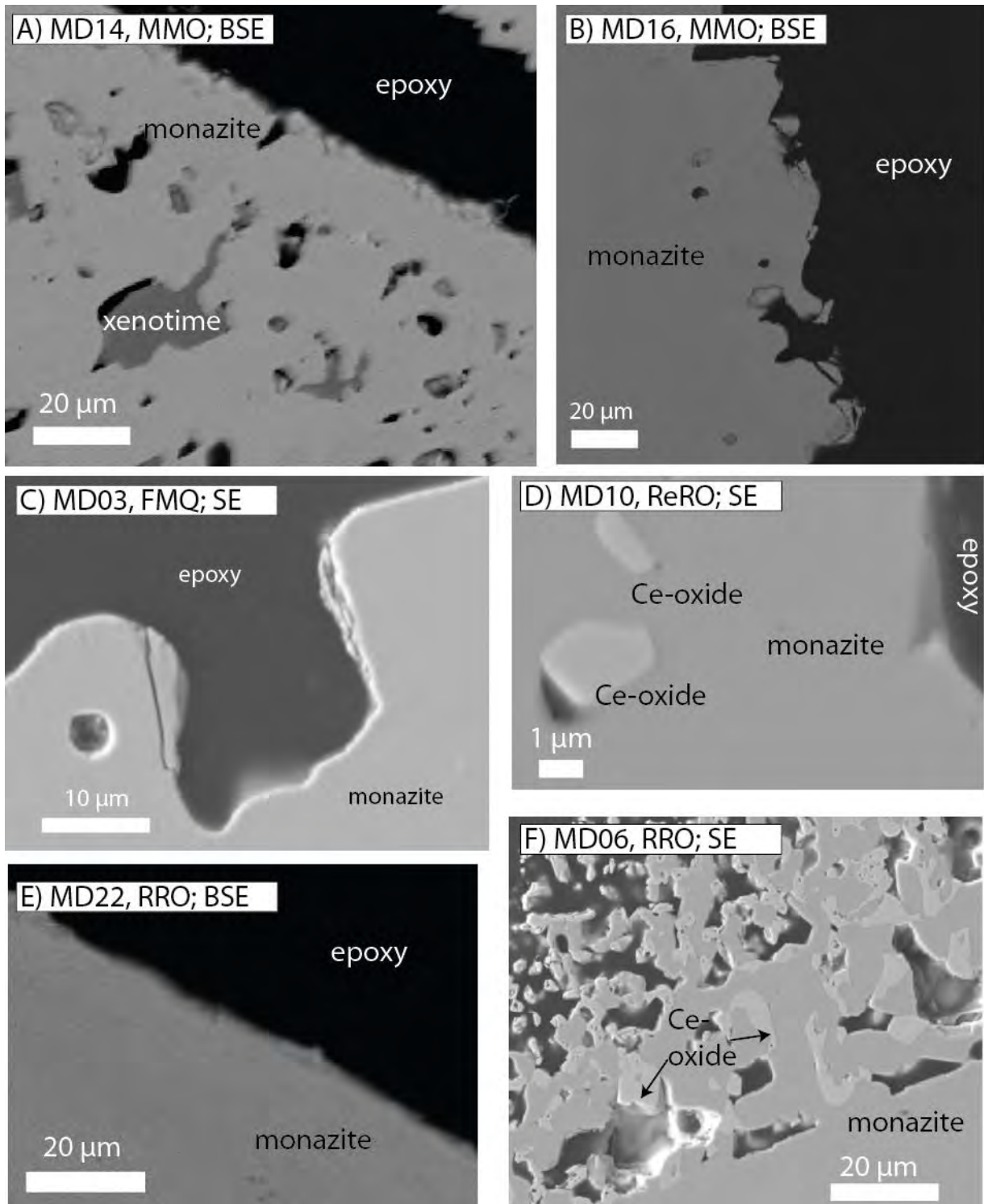
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763 **Figure 4**

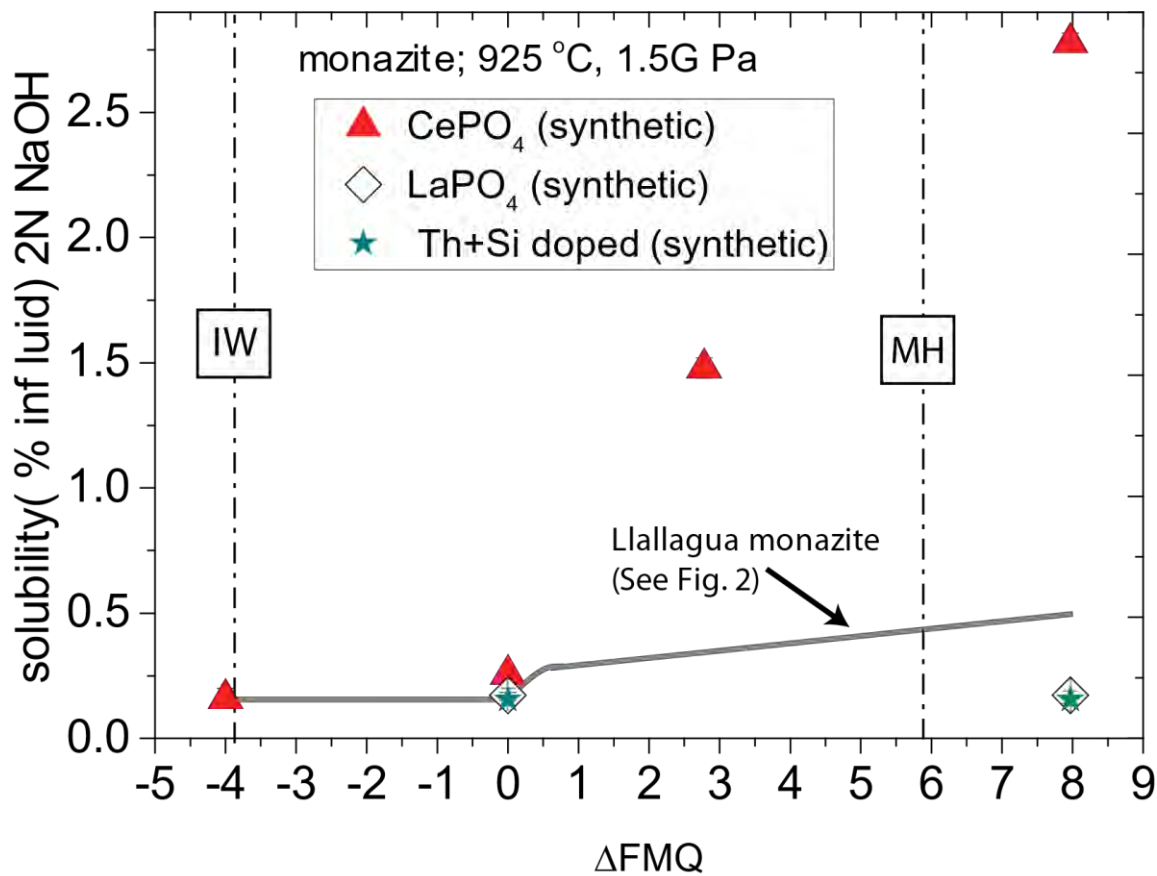


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767 **Figure 5**



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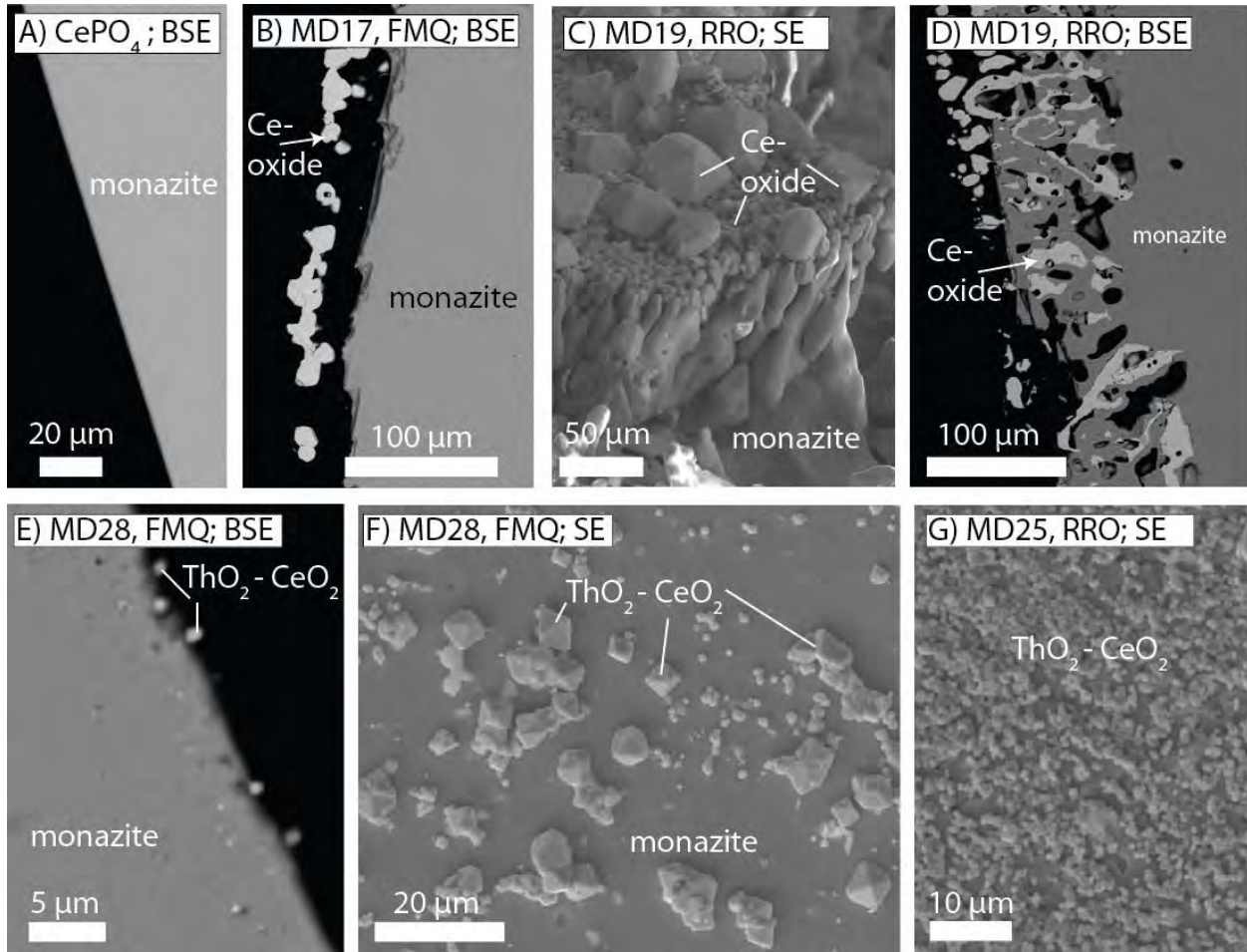
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779 **Figure 6**



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