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- 3 Nanostructure reveals REE mineral crystallization mechanisms in
- 4 granites from heavy-REE deposit, South China
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23 ABSTRACT

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Weathering crusts after granites are the most important source of heavy rare-earth elements (HREE) worldwide. Although HREE in these deposits are known to be inherited from parental rocks, the origin of HREE enrichment and reasons why it is rare outside of China remain unclear. Here, we report the occurrence of variably organized nanoparticles of Ce-poor (<0.2 wt.%), Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) and associated cerianite in parental granites from a HREE deposit, South China. The mineral contains high HREE abundances (up to 13 wt.% Y₂O₃). Synchrotron radiation-induced X-ray diffraction and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy analyses suggest that the mineral grew as disordered nanocrystals, and coaligned, or nearly coaligned nanoparticle aggregations, thus supporting "nonclassical" crystallization mechanisms by particle attachment under hydrothermal conditions. The nanocrystalline Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) precipitated at rapidly decreasing temperature related to the influx of externally derived fluids, which caused CO₂-H₂O immiscibility and REE supersaturation. This interpretation is supported by petrographic data and microthermometric analysis of fluid inclusions in quartz. Unusually high $f(O_2)$ resulted in Ce oxidation and decoupling from trivalent lanthanides, producing polycrystalline mineralization, which decomposed easily during late weathering stages to release HREE.

Keywords: Ce-poor and Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La), nanoparticles, crystallization by particle attachment, oxygen fugacity, REE deposits, South China granite

INTRODUCTION

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The rare-earth elements (REE), generally defined as the lanthanides plus yttrium (Y), are considered critical raw materials because of their extensive applications in renewable energy solutions and modern technologies (Kalvig and Machacek 2018). Recently, concerns over the perceived imbalance between the increasing demand for these resources and their supply shortages have led to a surge in REE exploration worldwide, since China, the largest REE producer in the past 30 years, reduced its REE export quota (Gulley et al. 2018). Heavy REE (HREE = Gd-Lu + Y) are much less abundant than light REE (LREE = La-Eu) and are anticipated to be associated with the highest supply risk in the foreseeable future (Balaram 2019). The majority of economically exploitable HREE resources are associated with regolith-hosted ion-adsorption deposits (IAD) in South China (Martin et al. 2020). The HREE are adsorbed as ionic complexes onto clay minerals in weathering crusts developed over igneous, mostly granitoid rocks (Bao et al. 2008). These deposits account for about 80% of the global HREE supply (Bernhardt and Reilly 2020). The forms of REE adsorption on clays reported to date primarily

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include readily leachable eightfold- to ninefold-coordinated outer-sphere hydrated complexes, which are dominantly attached to the clays kaolinite and halloysite (Borst et al. 2020). Although weathering of granitoids under warm and humid conditions plays an important role in REE fractionation and enrichment, this process is expected to yield high LREE/HREE ratios in IAD because LREE are hosted in phases relatively more susceptible to weathering in comparison with HREE-enriched phases (Estrade et al. 2019; Prameswara et al. 2021). Geologically similar IAD were identified elsewhere in Southeast Asia (Sanematsu et al. 2013) and Madagascar (Janots et al. 2015), and these deposits generally exhibit stronger enrichment in LREE than HREE. The extent of relative enrichment and fractionation among leachable REE is believed to be controlled by the nature of the precursor bedrock and REE-hosting minerals in that rock (Martin et al. 2017; Estrade et al. 2019). Therefore, one essential question that needs to be addressed to understand the origin of IAD is how HREE-rich minerals form in their precursor granitoid rocks. Xu et al. (2017) reported three types of previously unidentified, Ce-poor, LREE- and HREE-enriched minerals in the South China granites. The weathering profiles inherited the REE signature of their parental granites, reflecting the depletion in Ce and enrichment in both LREE and HREE. Different horizons within the weathering profile show variable enrichment

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levels in LREE and HREE. Uncommon REE minerals were interpreted to have served as the principal source of HREE incorporated in the mineralized weathering crusts (Xu et al. 2017); however, the exact nature and genesis of these minerals were not very clear. Understanding their origin and paragenetic role in the parental granites has become a priority in explaining why HREE-rich clays are particularly abundant in South China. This work also has practical implications for mineral exploration as it provides criteria for the identification of similar HREE-rich IAD elsewhere. Here, we report unusual nanostructures observed in a Ce-poor, REE fluorocarbonate mineral [referred to hereafter as Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La)] from the Zhaibei granites, which weathered to give rise to the famous HREE deposits of South China (also known as "South China clays"). Our results provide evidence for a crystallization mechanism novel among REE minerals, which involves crystal growth by oriented and disoriented attachment of nanoparticles, and further supports the idea that HREE enrichment in the parental granites was related to rapid crystallization in a highly oxidized environment.

GEOLOGICAL BACKGROUND

Vast quantities of granitic rocks, associated with subordinate gabbros and basalts, were emplaced in the South China Block during the Mesozoic. Mao et al. (2008) suggested that these rocks were products of three episodes of

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magmatic activity: Late Triassic (230-210 Ma), Middle-Late Jurassic (170-150 Ma), and Early Cretaceous (134-90 Ma). The Early Mesozoic intrusions were confined mostly to intracontinental areas, whereas the Cretaceous granites were distributed mainly towards the South China Sea coast (Fig. 1). Many studies identified subduction of the Paleo-Pacific plate beneath the Eurasian plate as responsible for the Mesozoic granitic magmatism in the region (Li and Li 2007; Zhou et al. 2006; Zhou et al. 2015). The Triassic episode produced voluminous S-type granites with high modal contents of Al silicates, in particular muscovite, garnet, and tourmaline (Wang et al. 2013). Jurassic granites are widespread in the Nanling region and primarily composed of biotite and two-mica varieties. These rocks include calc-alkaline I-type, alkaline A-type, and subordinate S-type granites (Zhou et al. 2015). Cretaceous granites are mostly of A- and I-types, and tend to occur closer to the coast (Sun et al. 2015). Ore deposits are quite abundant in the South China granitic belt and include W, Sn, Sb, Bi, Cu, Pb, Zn, Nb, Ta, and REE targets. More than 90% of the HREE-rich IAD are located in Jiangxi, Guangdong and Guangxi provinces (Fig. 1). The examined weathering profiles in Zhaibei, southern Jiangxi, have a thickness ranging from 5 to 30 m, and are developed after Middle-Jurassic peraluminous biotite and muscovite granites (Li et al. 2003; Wang et al. 2015). The mineralized laterites show moderate LREE enrichment levels and

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negative Ce and Eu anomalies; their REE budget (215-1334 ppm) is made up of ~30-50% HREE (57-542 ppm; Xu et al. 2017). The Jurassic (188 Ma; Xu et al. 2017) granites intruding Paleozoic granitoids have intrusive contacts with Jurassic volcanic rocks in the western part of the study area, and are separated by a fault from Cambrian metamorphic rocks in its northern part. The parental rock of the Zhaibei REE-rich clays is medium- to coarse-grained and composed of alkali feldspar (25-30%), plagioclase (25-32%), quartz (30-35%), biotite (3-10%), and muscovite (< 2%) (Online Material¹ Fig. S1). The accessory mineral assemblage includes REE phases, zircon, fluorapatite, magnetite and ilmenite. The REE minerals are represented by monazite-(Ce). xenotime-(Y), Ca-REE fluorocarbonates, allanite-(Ce), cerianite-(Ce) and three HREE-rich minerals described in our earlier work as "REE-1, 2, 3" (Xu et al. 2017). Both REE-1 and REE-2 apparently formed by alteration of fluorapatite, which is highly susceptible to fluid-induced chemical and textural changes under natural and experimental conditions (Fig. 2a; Harlov and Forste 2003; Harlov 2015; Chakhmouradian et al. 2017). The Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) ("REE-3") occurs as fracture fillings in feldspar. Disseminated anhedral grains, up to 200 µm in size, developed interstitially to quartz, biotite and feldspar (Fig. 2b, c). Cavities/vugs in samples contain thin encrustations of Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) lining the cavities (Fig. 2c). This mineral did not form at an early stage of the weathering event, and is in

direct contact with biotite, quartz, and feldspar, or separated from them by a rim of unidentified hydrous Al-Fe-rich silicate (Fig. 2c, d) in the fresh parental rock. Cerianite veinlets are observed in the granite, where they are intimately intergrown with an unidentified hydrous Al-Fe-rich silicate (Fig. 2e). Ilmenite in this granite was partially converted to hematite, which was confirmed by Raman microspectroscopy (Fig. 2f and Online Material¹ Fig. S2).

ANALYTICAL METHODS

Mineral analysis

The major-element compositions of mineral phases in the granites were analyzed by wavelength-dispersive X-ray spectrometry (WDS) using a JEOL JXA-8230 electron microprobe at the East China University of Technology, Nanchang, China. According to the chemical composition and grain size of the individual minerals, each of them was analyzed with a set of appropriate matrix-specific standards (both natural and synthetic) and optimized instrumental conditions (detector type, beam settings, and counting statistics). The standards used during WDS analyses included sanidine (Si, K), plagioclase (Ca), rutile (Ti), magnetite (Fe), rhodonite (Mn), fluorite (F), jadeite (Na, Al), apatite (P), biotite (Mg), metallic Nb and Ta (Nb, Ta), uraninite (Th, U, Pb), monazite (La, Ce, Pr, Nd), and synthetic REE phosphates (Y, Sm, Eu, Gd, Dy, Ho, Er, Tm, Yb). The measurements were performed at an accelerating

voltage of 15 kV and a beam current of 20 nA, with an electron beam ranging 1-5 μ m in diameter. For the analysis, K α analytical lines were used for all elements except La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Nb, and Ta (L α lines for all), and Sm (L β line). For REE-bearing minerals, raw WDS data were corrected using empirical interference values for REE and other elements potentially interfering with the REE signals, from well-characterized synthetic glass and phosphate standards. All raw data were corrected with standard ZAF correction procedures. Repeated analysis of the standards showed that the precision of the WDS measurements was ± 2 % or better for most elements.

Synchrotron radiation-induced X-ray diffraction (SR-XRD)

In-situ SR-XRD analysis of Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) was performed on polished thin sections at the 4W2 beamline of Beijing Synchrotron Radiation Facility, Beijing, China. The wavelength of the monochromatic X-ray beam was 0.6199 Å and the beam size was 20 × 30 µm². During the measurement, the silicate minerals surrounding Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) were covered with a copper sheet with a hole 150 µm in diameter, which is close to the size of the analyzed fluorocarbonate grains. The thin section was continuously rotated from -20° to 20° about the X-ray beam axis at ambient conditions, and the collecting time was 300 s. The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were acquired using an image plate detector

(MAR-345), calibrated with a CeO₂ standard, and then integrated to generate conventional one-dimensional profiles using the Fit2D program (Hammersley 1997).

High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM)

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Electron-transparent foils of representative Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) grains for HRTEM analysis were prepared using the focused ion beam technique (FIB, Online Material Fig. S3) on a Zeiss Auriga Compact dual beam instrument equipped with an Omniprobe AutoProbe 200 micromanipulator at the Institute of Geology and Geophysics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China. Final thinning and polishing were done using an ion beam at a voltage of 5-30 kV and beam current of 0.05-2 nA. The FIB section was ~100 nm in thickness. HRTEM images of the foils were obtained with an aberration-corrected scanning transmission electron microscope (FEI Titan Cubed Themis G2 300 at Peking University, Beijing, China), which was operated at an accelerating voltage of 300 kV and a beam current of ~2 nA. In addition, high-angle annular dark-field (HAADF) scanning transmission electron microscopy images and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) maps were recorded at an accelerating voltage of 300 kV and beam currents of ~50 pA and ~100 pA, respectively (Rice et al. 1990). EDS analyses were done in scanning transmission electron microscopy

(STEM) mode to avoid mass loss during data acquisition. High-resolution lattice fringe images were used to calculate fast Fourier-transformed (FFT) patterns (Chen et al. 2020). The measurement of *d*-spacings was performed using Digital Micrograph software.

Fluid inclusion analysis

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Raman micro-spectroscopy was used to determine the composition (both fluid and gas phases) of individual fluid inclusions and to identify different mineral phases at ambient conditions. For this purpose, we employed a HORIBA Jobin Yvon LabRAM HR Evolution confocal micro-Raman system equipped with an Olympus microscope and a frequency-doubled Nd:YAG green laser (532 nm) at Peking University, Beijing, China (Cui et al. 2020). The micro-Raman system is equipped with a 20X long-working distance objective (NA = 0.25), and a stigmatic 800 mm spectrometer with a 1800 groove/mm diffraction grating. The spectrometer was calibrated using a mirror-polished synthetic Si standard. The laser power at the source was 100 mW. The confocal hole was set at 500 µm and the corresponding spectral resolution was ±0.7 cm⁻¹. The laser beam was focused on fluid inclusions close to the upper surface of the thin sections and Raman spectra between 100 and 4000 cm⁻¹ were recorded. Data acquisition times for fluid inclusions varied between 30 s and 60 s depending on the morphological and compositional

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characteristics of each inclusion and its location. For mineral phases, Raman spectra between 100 and 1300 cm⁻¹ were recorded for 10 to 15 seconds and were checked against a common standard database.

Microthermometric measurements were performed at Peking University, Beijing, China, using a LINKAM THMS 600 heating-freezing stage operating in a temperature range of -196 °C to +600 °C. Accuracy of the measurements was ensured by calibration at -56.6 °C and 0 °C using synthetic fluid inclusion standards and pure water. The measurement precision ranged from ±0.1 °C between -120 and -70 °C, to ±0.2 °C between -70 and 100 °C, and ±1 °C between 100 and 600 °C. During each round of measurements, the temperature was first decreased to -120 °C, and then gradually ramped up. The heating rate was reduced to 0.2-0.5 °C min⁻¹ close to the phase transitions. Ice-melting temperatures and total homogenization temperatures of the fluid inclusions were measured at a heating rate of 0.5 °C min⁻¹. Melting temperatures of solid CO₂ and clathrate, and homogenization temperatures of CO₂ phases were observed at a heating rate of 0.2-0.5 °C min⁻¹. Salinities of the NaCl-H₂O inclusions were calculated using the final ice-melting temperatures (Bodnar 1993). For tri-phase CO₂-rich inclusions (H₂O-NaCl-CO₂ system), salinities were calculated using the clathrate melting temperatures in combination with liquid-vapor equilibria (Bakker 1997). Program DENSITY and Chueh and Prausnitz's (1967) equation of state were chosen for these

calculations.

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255 RESULTS

Mineral chemistry

Fresh granite samples are comprised of abundant K-feldspar (Ab₂₋₆Or₉₄₋₉₈) and plagioclase (An₂₋₁₀Ab₈₈₋₉₇Or_{<1}). Minor albite is also present as exsolution lamellae in K-feldspar. Biotite is a volumetrically significant (up to 10 vol.%) constituent of these rocks, occurring as clusters of platy crystals up to 4 mm across. It contains high FeO and TiO₂ contents (29.8-31.1 and 3.1-3.7 wt.%, respectively) and low MgO levels (3.1-4.0 wt.%, Online Material¹ Table S1). Some biotite crystals contain inclusions of "REE-1" and "REE-2", which correspond to REE-phosphates with high La₂O₃ and Y₂O₃ contents (4-12 and 10-51 wt.%, respectively; Xu et al. 2017). Both these minerals are characterized by low Ce abundances, at or below its detection limit by electron-microprobe analysis. Cerium-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) is a fluorocarbonate containing <0.2 wt.% Ce. Its total REE content is high and dominated by La, Nd and Y (up to 30.6, 20.7 and 12.9 wt.% respective oxides, Table 1). To our knowledge, this mineral has not previously been reported in the granites of South China, which generally contain normal bastnäsite-(Ce) and parisite-(Ce) with high Ce but low Y abundances (20-30 wt.% and <4 wt.% respective oxides: Wang et al. 2015; He et al. 2017; Martin et al. 2017). The

composition of cerianite could not be determined with accuracy because of its intimate association with hydrous silicates (Online Material¹ Table S1).

Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) structural analysis

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The SR-XRD analysis of representative grains of Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) demonstrates that it is composed of randomly oriented crystals (Fig. 3). The collected SR-XRD pattern consists of sharp and narrow diffraction peaks, whose full-width-at-half-maximum values indicate particle sizes of <1 μm (Monshi et al. 2012). The measured d-spacings (1.137-4.847 Å) are close to, but slightly smaller than, those of Y-poor bastnäsite-(La) (1.149-4.859 Å, Online Material¹ Table S2). This is probably due to the relatively large proportion in the La site of such small cations as Y³⁺ and heavy lanthanides. Examination of the Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) with high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) reveals that its aggregates contain very small crystallites ranging from 5 to 10 nm across (Fig. 4a). The acquired nanoscale compositional maps (including C, O, F, La, Nd and Y) are uniform and show no compositional variation whatsoever (Fig. 4b-g). The boundaries between nanoparticles and larger grains, imaged by HRTEM (Fig. 5 and Online Material Fig. S4), show a gradual transition from crudely aligned nanoparticles to submicrometer-sized grains. The degree of crystallinity within

a specific region of the HRTEM foil is directly related to variations between the

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random and aligned aggregation states of the nanoparticles. Four representative states have been recognized on the basis of the HRTEM images (Fig. 6), described in further detail below.

The first type, represented by randomly aggregated nanoparticles, is characterized by randomly oriented lattice fringes and diffraction rings in fast FFT patterns (Fig. 6a). The aggregation state of Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) nanoparticles in this case is similar to that of some synthetic examples produced by rapid crystallization: for example, poorly ordered Cu oxalate (Soare et al. 2006) and akaganeite (Nielsen et al. 2014). The second type of aggregate represents a mixture of randomly oriented and crudely aligned nanoparticles (Fig. 6b). They are characterized by FFT patterns featuring both diffraction spots and rings, indicative of ordered and disordered aggregation, respectively. The third type shows parallelism of most lattice fringes and FFT patterns comprising mostly diffraction spots with some fuzzy diffraction rings (Fig. 6c). These features demonstrate that most of the nanoparticles are aligned, although some misoriented lattice fringes indicate that the process of re-arrangement and recrystallization to eliminate the imperfections of the initial aggregation has not finished yet (De Yoreo et al. 2015). In the fourth type of aggregate, nanoparticles are assembled into submicrometer-sized crystallites showing well-defined diffraction patterns (Fig. 6d). Notably, adjacent crystals are separated from one another by areas

composed of disordered nanoparticles, indicating that an oriented aggregation was initiated at multiple sites simultaneously (Banfield et al. 2000). The polycrystalline nature of the Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) suggests that the orientation adopted by one crystal is unrelated to those of the adjacent crystals. Atomic plane spacings of about 2.0, 2.9, 3.3, 3.6 and 4.8 Å were observed in lattice fringe images (Fig. 6) and show reasonable agreement with the values measured by SR-XRD (2.0, 2.8, 3.3, 3.5 and 4.8 Å; Online Material¹ Table S2).

Fluid inclusions

Two main types of fluid inclusions, CO_2 - H_2O -dominated and pure H_2O , were recognized in quartz adjacent to the Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) (Fig. 7 and Online Material¹ Fig. S1) using Raman microspectroscopy. The CO_2 - H_2O inclusions are pervasive and occur both as primary and secondary inclusions forming a compact three-dimensional network and confined to healed fractures. The gas/liquid filling ratio of these inclusions varies widely (Fig. 7a).

Two subtypes were distinguished among them. Subtype IA includes three-phase inclusions (Fig. 7b) with an aqueous fluid, liquid CO_2 (20-60 vol.% of the inclusion), and CO_2 gas (10-25 vol.% of the inclusion). The melting temperature of the CO_2 phase in these inclusions ranges from -57.2 to

-58.3 °C. Clathrate melting temperatures range from 3.5 to 8.2 °C, corresponding to salinities of 3.2 to 11.6 wt.% NaCl equivalent (Bakker 1997). These inclusions mostly homogenized to an aqueous phase between 307 and 372 °C, and to a gas phase between 349 and 386 °C (Table 2). Subtype IB is represented by CO₂-rich two-phase inclusions composed of an aqueous fluid and a gas bubble, whose volume accounts for 20-70 % of the inclusion. Small daughter crystals of calcite were also observed in some cases (Fig. 7c). The pure H₂O inclusions of Type II are interpreted as secondary in origin (Fig. 7d). The melting temperatures of the ice were measured to range between -4.8 and -7.3 °C, indicating low salinity values from 7.6 to 10.9 wt.% NaCl equivalent (Bodnar 1993). These inclusions homogenize to a liquid phase between 168 and 347 °C (Table 2).

DISCUSSION

Crystallization by particle attachment under REE supersaturation

Classical nucleation theory, including terrace-ledge-kink and dislocation growth models, has served as the prevalent conceptual basis for describing crystal nucleation and growth since the 1950s (Burton et al. 1951; Kashchiev 2003). However, in the past 30 years, an increasing number of studies have provided convincing evidence for crystallization by particle attachment (CPA) (Penn and Banfield 1999; Zhang et al. 2010; Li et al. 2012; Boneschanscher et

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al. 2014; De Yoreo et al. 2015). The classical theory works well for the precipitation of low-solubility phases from dilute solutions, but it is not applicable at high degrees of supersaturation (Ivanov et al. 2014). Thermodynamically, the nucleation energy barrier and critical nucleus size should decrease with progressive deviation of the system from equilibrium for example, due to supersaturation (Ivanov et al. 2014). At low degrees of supersaturation, crystals are expected to grow in accord with the classical nucleation theory because the free-energy barrier is still relatively large (Kashchiev 2003; Wallace et al. 2013). At high levels of supersaturation, the free energy barrier is comparable with thermal energy, and nuclei may be generated in sufficiently large numbers at multiple sites so as to counteract supersaturation (Bray 2002; Scheifele et al. 2013). The particle density will reach a level where a high particle collision rate will facilitate crystal growth by CPA (Cölfen and Antonietti 2008). Multiple intermediate states of atom-to-crystal evolution have been recognized, from simple ions to bulk crystals assembling together by CPA, and involving multi-ionic complexes, oligomers, and nanoparticles (De Yoreo et al. 2015). Recent experiments have shown that atoms in nanoscale nuclei (clusters of ordered atoms or ionic groups) may fluctuate reversibly between ordered and disordered states (Jeon et al. 2021). Similarly, fast crystal growth by CPA does not always lead to a well-formed single crystal, but to an

aggregate of slightly misaligned domains (Huang et al. 2004; Soare et al. 2006; Nielsen et al. 2014). Such nanoscale misalignment can be eventually eliminated by reaction with a solution to reduce surface energy (Huang et al. 2004; Nielsen et al. 2014).

We postulate that crystals of Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) in the Zhaibei granites developed from initially disordered nanocrystals that assembled into submicrometer-sized particles through CPA (Fig. 6). The examined grains formed aggregates and were not re-arranged to form discrete, structurally uniform single crystals. This indicates that the Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) precipitated rapidly from a supersaturated solution, but did not undergo subsequent recrystallization.

REE mineralization under highly oxidized conditions

Supersaturation reported for natural aqueous systems is usually related to microbial activity (Banfield et al. 2000; Penn et al. 2001). However, the temperature of fluids responsible for the REE enrichment in the Zhaibei granites is too high (~170-390 °C) for any microorganism to survive (Brock 1985). Notably, CO₂-rich and aqueous fluid inclusions commonly coexist in these rocks. The gas/liquid volume ratio in such inclusions is variable, but their homogenization temperatures are similar, suggesting CO₂-H₂O immiscibility in their parental fluid (Yardley and Bottrell 1988). The loss of a low-salinity,

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CO₂-rich phase would increase the pH value of the residual fluid, reduce carbonate activity and increase solute concentrations in the H₂O-dominant fraction (Bowers and Helgeson 1983). Thus, CO₂-H₂O immiscibility should lead to REE supersaturation in the aqueous phase, triggering precipitation of such low-solubility phases as cerianite and REE fluorocarbonates (Xiong 2015; Migdisov et al. 2016). The very different Nd isotopic signature of Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) [ϵ Nd_(t) = 0.9 ± 0.8], in comparison with primary monazite and apatite [$\varepsilon Nd_{(t)} = -11.5 \pm 0.5$] in the parental granite (Xu et al. 2017), indicates an external fluid contribution. Although its source has not been ascertained yet owing to the lack of isotopic data for other rock types in the study area, the addition of an externally derived fluid would have certainly resulted in rapid cooling of the hydrothermal system (Carrigan 1986). Thus, we hypothesize that a sudden drop in temperature promoted CO₂-H₂O immiscibility and ultimately triggered the precipitation of Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) nanoparticles at multiple nucleation sites. The CPA documented in the present work occurred under moderate-temperature hydrothermal conditions, in contrast to the previously reported cases in synthetic, biogenic and low-temperature geological environments (Banfield et al. 2000; Penn et al. 2001; Hochella et al. 2005), or rapidly guenched melt pockets in Martian meteorites (Zhang et al. 2019).

The studied Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) is characterized by high

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LREE and HREE levels, but extremely low Ce contents. The presence of cerianite and hematitization of ilmenite (Fig. 2f) indicate a high-fO₂ regime. The oxidation of Ce³⁺ to Ce⁴⁺ is clearly responsible for the observed fractionation between Ce⁴⁺ and larger and more mobile REE³⁺ cations; e.g., ^[8]La³⁺ is 18% larger than [8]Ce⁴⁺ (Shannon 1976). Owing to the low solubility of CeO₂ in fluids (Xiong 2015), cerianite was precipitated as veinlets associated with the hydrous Al-Fe-rich silicate mineral (Fig. 2e). The logfO2 values of Jurassic to Early Cretaceous granites in South China range from -0.83 to +4.22 relative to the Ni-NiO buffer (Li et al. 2017), which is too low for Ce oxidation (Burnham and Berry 2014). The possible sources of oxidizing components could be the incursion of external fluids into the granites at the subsolidus stage, derived either from dehydrated lithospheric material, which subducted beneath the amalgamated China continent in the early Jurassic (Liu et al. 2017), or from meteoric sources. The fO₂ levels in arc magmas are estimated to have been insufficient for Ce oxidation (Kelley and Cottrell 2012; Burnham and Berry 2014). Incursion of meteoric water into the subsolidus granites could result in high f(O₂) values and oxidation of Ce³⁺ to Ce⁴⁺ while not affecting the rest of the REE budget. This process could have also triggered a rapid temperature drop and the precipitation of nanocrystalline HREE-rich carbonates with a strong Ce depletion.

The poly-crystalline Ce-poor, HREE-rich minerals with a poorly-ordered

structure and numerous defects and dislocations readily decompose during weathering (Wilson 2004), resulting in REE removal from the precursor granite. Aqueous complexes can readily fractionate HREE from LREE during intense weathering. In particular, HREE form stronger complexes with carbonate and fluoride ligands than LREE at ambient temperature (Wood 1990; Haas et al. 1995; Tropper et al. 2011, 2013; Mair et al. 2017), thereby increasing the concentration of the former in the fluid and promoting their transport and adsorption onto clay minerals. This mechanism may explain the anomalous HREE enrichment of some South China IAD.

IMPLICATIONS

The detailed HRTEM study of Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) presented above documented several successive steps in the aggregation of nanoparticles to form submicrometer-sized crystallites. The observed morphological evolution is best explained by CPA under supersaturated conditions, as there is no HRTEM evidence for crystal-growth by terrace or dislocation-constrained mechanisms. Cerium oxidation and its decoupling from trivalent REE, which produced Ce-poor, HREE-rich minerals, and hematitization of ilmenite attest to the high fO_2 values in the fluid. We infer that the interaction of the hydrothermal system with external meteoric fluids led to a sudden drop in temperature and CO_2 -H₂O immiscibility, which triggered REE

supersaturation and the deposition of nanocrystalline Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) and cerianite in the Zhaibei granites. This process has far-reaching implications for the understanding of the precursors and prerequisite conditions involved in the development of HREE-rich IAD. Nano-mineralization of the type described in the present contribution could be a "missing link" between magmatic REE hosts, which have low solubility in fluids, and ion-exchangeable phases in the weathering profile. The polycrystalline nano-aggregates of REE minerals are clearly more susceptible to weathering than primary monazite, zircon, or apatite (Fu et al. 2019). A detailed mineralogical study of precursor igneous rocks is thus essential for constraining the HREE exploration potential of IAD and for developing a comprehensive REE metallogenic model for these deposits.

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- 735 105, 122-139.

736 **Endnote:** 737 ¹Deposit item ##, Online Materials. Deposit items are free to all readers and 738 739 found on the MSA website, via the specific issue's Table of Contents (go to 740 http://www.minsocam.org/MSA/AmMin/##). 741 742 FIGURE CAPTIONS FIGURE 1. Distribution of granites in southeastern China and the location of 743 744 the Zhaibei granite (modified after Wang et al. 2017). 745 746 **FIGURE 2.** Representative photomicrographs of minerals from the Zhaibei granites. (a) As-yet unidentified phases "REE-1" and "REE-2" formed by 747 748 alteration of magmatic fluorapatite (Ap). (b) Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) 749 [Bast (La)] in fractures cross-cutting K-feldspar (Kfs) and plagioclase (PI). (c) Encrustations of Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) lining a cavity interstitial to 750 751 quartz (Q). (d) Hydrous Al-Fe-rich silicate at the contact between Ce-poor and 752 Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La), biotite (Bt), and K-feldspar. (e) Veinlet of cerianite 753 intergrown with an unidentified hydrous Al-Fe-rich silicate. (f) Ilmenite (Ilm) partially converted to hematite (Hem). 754 755 FIGURE 3. In-situ synchrotron radiation-induced X-ray diffraction analysis of 756

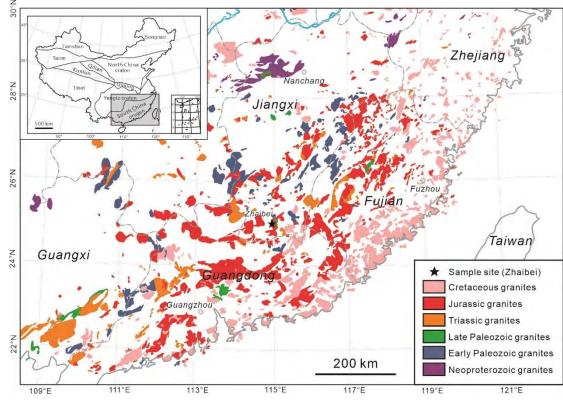
757 Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) [Bast (La)]. (a) Location of the analyzed 758 area within a 75-μm circle. (b) X-ray diffraction pattern and diffraction rings.

FIGURE 4. High-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF STEM) image showing nanoparticles of Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) (a) and nano-scale compositional maps (b-g) showing a uniform distribution of C, O, F, La, Nd and Y within the nanoparticles.

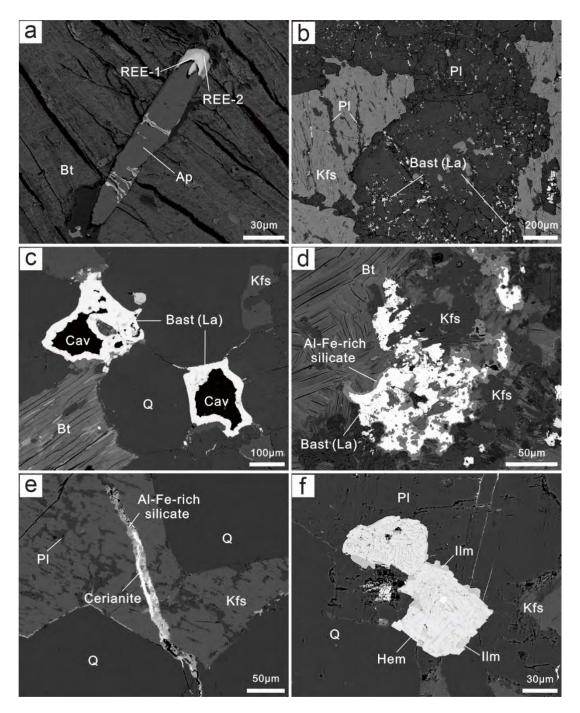
FIGURE 5. HRTEM image of an irregular boundary between submicrometer-sized particles and nanoparticles of Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La).

FIGURE 6. HRTEM images of Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La). (a) Nanoparticles of randomly aggregated Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La). Their FFT pattern shows diffraction rings. (b) Nanoparticles partially aggregated by oriented attachment with FFT pattern exhibiting diffraction spots and rings. (c) Advanced stage of nanoparticle assembly with some local misalignment in particle orientation (red circles). Note regular diffraction spots in the FFT pattern. (d) Aggregated nanoparticles showing a near-perfect alignment and a well-defined diffraction pattern.

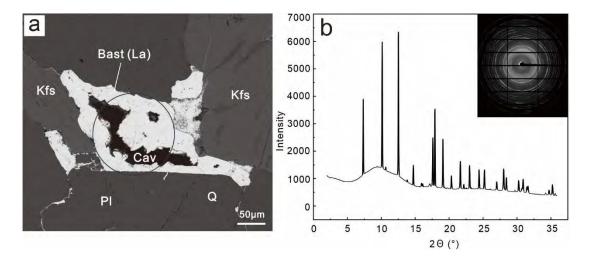
FIGURE 7. Representative photomicrographs of fluid inclusions in quartz. (a) CO₂-H₂O inclusions (Type I) with various gas/liquid filling ratios. (b) Three-phase CO₂-H₂O type inclusions. (c) Calcite daughter crystal (Cal) in a fluid inclusion. (d) CO₂-rich inclusions coexisting with aqueous (Type II) fluid inclusions.



791

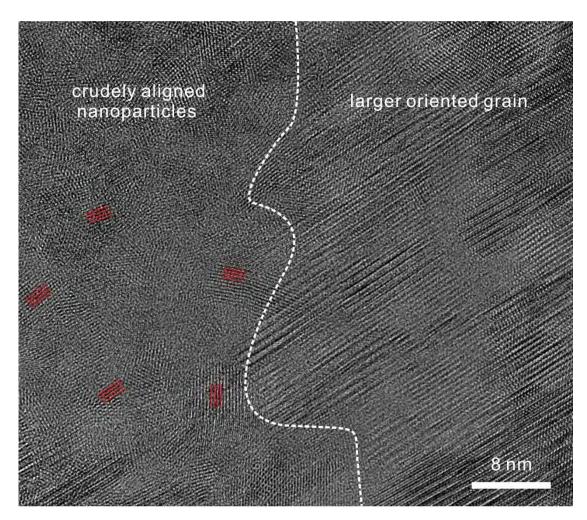


794

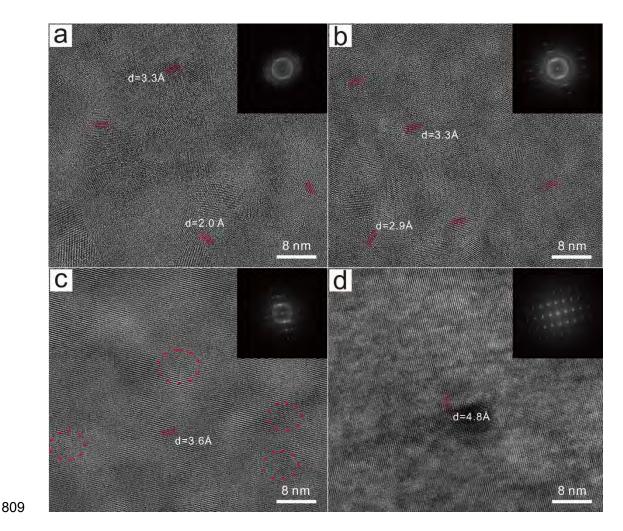


10 nm

FIGURE 4



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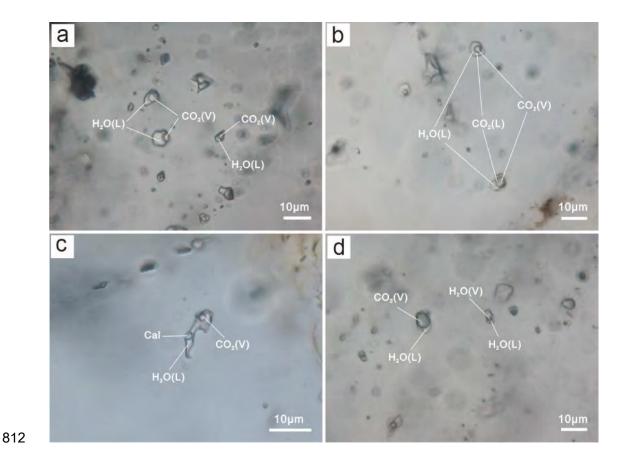


Table 1. Compositions (wt.%) of Ce-poor, Nd-Y-rich bastnäsite-(La) in the Zhaibei granites

Sample	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
P_2O_5	0.28	0.37	0.25	0.28	0.23	0.17	0.41	0.12	0.46	0.11
SiO ₂	0.02	0.03	0.06	0.04	0.02	0.05	0.13	0.08	bdl	0.01
ThO_2	bdl	0.01	bdl	bdl	bdl	bdl	0.07	0.03	bdl	bdl
Al_2O_3	bdl	0.06	bdl	bdl	bdl	0.01	0.09	bdl	0.02	0.03
Y_2O_3	9.98	6.03	9.36	9.75	11.36	9.88	7.58	10.72	9.36	9.61
La_2O_3	29.62	29.67	29.45	29.44	30.01	29.29	29.51	29.68	30.06	29.71
Ce_2O_3	0.11	bdl	0.15	0.01	0.24	bdl	bdl	0.24	0.15	0.05
Pr_2O_3	5.11	6.24	5.24	5.29	4.71	5.07	5.13	5.11	4.83	5.15
Nd_2O_3	17.74	20.68	17.97	18.15	17.00	18.27	19.14	17.35	18.08	18.04
Sm_2O_3	3.75	4.25	3.88	3.80	3.76	3.99	4.01	3.97	4.03	4.06
Eu_2O_3	0.36	0.56	0.52	bdl	0.40	0.63	0.51	0.25	0.11	0.23
Gd_2O_3	2.97	2.46	3.06	2.84	3.41	3.08	2.74	3.10	3.13	3.10
Dy_2O_3	2.05	1.81	1.84	1.96	2.24	1.97	1.88	2.25	2.01	2.06
Ho_2O_3	1.48	1.57	1.26	1.09	1.24	1.12	1.48	1.41	1.55	1.57
Er_2O_3	0.11	0.26	bdl	0.06	0.27	bdl	0.27	0.16	0.37	0.32
Tm_2O_3	bdl	bdl	0.07	0.18	0.05	bdl	bdl	0.02	bdl	bdl
Yb_2O_3	0.54	0.44	0.39	bdl	0.03	0.19	0.23	0.02	0.19	0.30
CaO	0.52	0.52	0.54	0.53	0.48	0.55	0.51	0.66	0.47	0.54
FeO	bdl	0.02	0.05	0.08	0.10	0.05	bdl	0.01	bdl	0.01
K ₂ O	bdl	0.02	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.05	0.01	0.03	bdl	0.01
F.	5.66	5.56	5.24	6.04	5.13	5.68	8.02	4.98	4.77	5.52
CO_2	21.27	20.94	21.12	21.04	21.72	21.31	20.81	21.71	21.22	21.32
H ₂ O	1.67	1.65	1.83	1.44	2.01	1.65	0.47	2.06	2.09	1.73
O=F	-2.38	-2.34	-2.21	-2.54	-2.16	-2.39	-3.38	-2.10	-2.01	-2.32
O–r Total	100.86	100.81	100.08	-2.34 99.49	102.25	100.62	-3.38 99.62	102.07	100.89	101.16
	ased on 1 cation		100.08	99.49	102.23	100.02	99.02	102.07	100.89	101.10
ronnunae oa P	0.008		0.007	0.000	0.007	0.005	0.012	0.002	0.012	0.002
	0.008	0.011 0.001	0.007	0.008 0.001	0.007	0.005	0.012	0.003	0.013	0.003
Si	0.001		0.002		0.001	0.002	0.005	0.003	0.000	0.000
Th		0.000	0.000	0.000 0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000
Al	0.000	0.002	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.004	0.000	0.001	0.001
Y	0.183	0.112	0.173	0.181	0.204	0.181	0.142	0.193	0.172	0.176
La	0.376	0.383	0.377	0.378	0.374	0.373	0.382	0.371	0.382	0.378
Ce	0.001	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.003	0.002	0.001
Pr	0.064	0.080	0.066	0.067	0.058	0.064	0.066	0.063	0.061	0.065
Nd	0.218	0.258	0.223	0.226	0.205	0.225	0.240	0.210	0.222	0.222
Sm	0.045	0.051	0.046	0.046	0.044	0.047	0.049	0.046	0.048	0.048
Eu	0.004	0.007	0.006	0.000	0.005	0.007	0.006	0.003	0.001	0.003
Gd	0.034	0.029	0.035	0.033	0.038	0.035	0.032	0.035	0.036	0.035
Dy	0.023	0.020	0.021	0.022	0.024	0.022	0.021	0.025	0.022	0.023
Но	0.016	0.017	0.014	0.012	0.013	0.012	0.017	0.015	0.017	0.017
Er	0.001	0.003	0.000	0.001	0.003	0.000	0.003	0.002	0.004	0.003
Tm	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.002	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Yb	0.006	0.005	0.004	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.003
Ca	0.019	0.019	0.020	0.020	0.017	0.020	0.019	0.024	0.017	0.020
Fe	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.003	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
K	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000
F	0.617	0.615	0.576	0.666	0.548	0.620	0.891	0.534	0.520	0.602
C	1.001	1.000	1.001	1.001	1.002	1.004	0.998	1.004	0.998	1.004
Н	0.383	0.385	0.424	0.334	0.452	0.380	0.109	0.466	0.480	0.398

826 Table 1. Continued

14010 1. 0	ommaca										
Sample	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
P_2O_5	0.06	0.15	1.38	0.45	0.12	bdl	0.03	0.04	0.06	0.35	
SiO_2	0.04	0.07	0.08	0.03	0.51	bdl	0.04	0.05	0.03	0.07	
ThO_2	bdl	0.05	bdl								
Al_2O_3	bdl	0.04	bdl	0.01	0.06	bdl	0.01	bdl	bdl	0.02	
Y_2O_3	10.21	7.45	12.92	9.85	10.73	8.10	8.07	8.55	8.60	8.49	
La_2O_3	29.14	29.16	27.82	30.62	29.50	29.06	29.88	29.20	29.34	30.39	
Ce_2O_3	0.07	0.04	bdl	bdl	bdl	0.01	bdl	bdl	bdl	bdl	
Pr_2O_3	5.06	5.60	4.69	5.05	5.05	5.61	5.51	5.33	5.40	5.65	
Nd_2O_3	17.82	20.02	16.10	18.31	17.48	19.68	20.05	20.25	19.46	19.13	
Sm_2O_3	3.81	4.50	3.19	3.96	3.80	4.23	4.37	4.36	4.27	4.16	
Eu_2O_3	0.25	0.24	0.02	0.56	0.28	0.68	0.52	0.73	0.71	0.49	
Gd_2O_3	3.26	2.92	3.01	3.14	2.76	2.93	2.77	2.65	3.03	2.59	
Dy_2O_3	2.10	1.73	2.36	2.05	2.43	1.89	1.87	1.81	1.95	1.84	
Ho_2O_3	1.59	1.14	1.85	1.07	1.38	1.17	1.48	1.48	1.35	1.07	
Er_2O_3	0.14	0.26	0.37	0.14	0.31	0.25	0.23	0.07	0.14	0.17	
Tm_2O_3	bdl	bdl	bdl	bdl	bdl	bdl	bdl	bdl	bdl	bdl	
Yb_2O_3	0.36	0.19	0.62	0.22	0.14	0.39	0.39	0.02	0.41	0.30	
CaO	0.54	0.51	0.49	0.55	0.65	0.57	0.63	0.54	0.60	0.59	
FeO	bdl	bdl	0.01	0.03	0.06	0.04	0.01	0.06	bdl	bdl	
K_2O	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.17	0.01	0.01	0.01	bdl	0.01	
F	5.71	5.87	5.51	5.09	5.32	5.19	5.51	5.85	5.54	6.13	
CO_2	21.26	20.87	21.74	21.72	22.06	21.07	21.44	21.29	21.32	21.38	
H_2O	1.63	1.48	1.91	2.04	1.98	1.83	1.75	1.56	1.72	1.47	
O=F	-2.41	-2.47	-2.32	-2.14	-2.24	-2.18	-2.32	-2.46	-2.33	-2.58	
Total	100.65	99.85	101.76	102.77	102.55	100.53	102.25	101.39	101.60	101.72	
Formulae b	ased on 1 catio	n									
P	0.002	0.004	0.039	0.013	0.003	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.010	
Si	0.001	0.002	0.003	0.001	0.017	0.000	0.001	0.002	0.001	0.002	
Th	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
Al	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	
Y	0.188	0.139	0.228	0.177	0.190	0.151	0.147	0.157	0.158	0.155	
La	0.372	0.378	0.340	0.380	0.363	0.375	0.378	0.372	0.373	0.384	
Ce	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
Pr	0.064	0.072	0.057	0.062	0.061	0.071	0.069	0.067	0.068	0.071	
Nd	0.220	0.252	0.191	0.220	0.208	0.246	0.246	0.250	0.240	0.234	
Sm	0.045	0.055	0.036	0.046	0.044	0.051	0.052	0.052	0.051	0.049	
Eu	0.003	0.003	0.000	0.006	0.003	0.008	0.006	0.009	0.008	0.006	
Gd	0.037	0.034	0.033	0.035	0.030	0.034	0.032	0.030	0.035	0.029	
Dy	0.023	0.020	0.025	0.022	0.026	0.021	0.021	0.020	0.022	0.020	
Но	0.017	0.013	0.020	0.011	0.015	0.013	0.016	0.016	0.015	0.012	
Er	0.002	0.003	0.004	0.001	0.003	0.003	0.002	0.001	0.002	0.002	
Tm	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
Yb	0.004	0.002	0.006	0.002	0.001	0.004	0.004	0.000	0.004	0.003	
Ca	0.020	0.019	0.017	0.020	0.023	0.021	0.023	0.020	0.022	0.022	
Fe	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.002	0.001	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.000	
K	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.007	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
F	0.625	0.653	0.578	0.542	0.561	0.574	0.598	0.639	0.605	0.664	
C	1.004	1.003	0.985	0.999	1.004	1.006	1.005	1.005	1.004	1.000	

Н	0.375	0.347	0.422	0.458	0.439	0.426	0.402	0.361	0.395	0.336
11	0.575	0.547	0.422	0.436	0.737	0.420	0.402	0.501	0.575	0.550

CO₂ in the mineral is calculated using charge balance method. H₂O is calculated assuming a full (F,OH) site. bdl, below determination limits.

Table 2. Summary of fluid inclusion data from the Zhaibei granites

Inclusion Type	Size (µm)	Tm CO ₂ (°C)	Tm C (°C)	Th CO ₂ (°C)	Tm	Salinity (wt.%)	Th (°C)
L_1+L_2+V	8	-58.1	4.2	30.1		10.2	307-L
L_1+L_2+V	5	-57.6	4.1	30.9		10.4	313-L
L_1+L_2+V	7	-57.6	5.7	30.2		7.5	327-L
L_1+L_2+V	7	-57.6	5.1	30.1		8.6	339-L
L_1+L_2+V	9	-57.7	5.8	29.8		7.3	343-L
L_1+L_2+V	8	-58.3	8.2	28.1		3.2	349-G
L_1+L_2+V	9	-57.2	5.2	29.7		8.4	356-L
L_1+L_2+V	8	-57.8	4.9	30.5		9.0	356-L
L_1+L_2+V	7	-57.5	5.4	28.9		8.0	361-L
L_1+L_2+V	8	-57.4	3.5	30.7		11.6	362-G
L_1+L_2+V	6	-58.2	6.3	30.2		6.4	362-L
L_1+L_2+V	8	-58.2	4.9	30.1		9.0	372-L
L_1+L_2+V	9	-58.2	7.9	28.5		3.8	386-G
L+V	7				-7.3	10.9	168
L+V	9				-5.6	8.7	174
L+V	11				-6.3	9.6	182
L+V	9				-4.9	7.7	210
L+V	8				-4.8	7.6	211
L+V	14				-6.4	9.7	218
L+V	5				-5.9	9.1	220
L+V	6				-6.4	9.7	253
L+V	5				-6.1	9.3	276
L+V	10				-5.4	8.4	313
L+V	7				-5.3	8.3	326
L+V	6				-4.8	7.6	345
L+V	9				-5.8	8.9	347

 CO_2 melting temperatures (Tm CO_2); Clathrate melting temperatures (Tm C); Partial homogenization temperatures (Th CO_2); ice-melting temperatures (Tm); homogenization temperatures (Th); The letter behind homogenization temperature represents the form of homogenization: L = homogenize to the liquid, G = homogenize to the gas.

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