1	Revision 1
2	
3	Origin of Monte Rosa whiteschist from in-situ tourmaline and quartz oxygen
4	isotope analysis by SIMS using new tourmaline reference materials
5	
6	Katharina Marger ⁽¹⁾ , Cindy Luisier ⁽¹⁾ , Lukas P. Baumgartner ⁽¹⁾ , Benita Putlitz ⁽¹⁾ , Barbara L. Dutrow ^(1,2) ,
7	Anne-Sophie Bouvier ⁽¹⁾ , Andrea Dini ⁽³⁾
8	
9	(1) Institute of Earth Science, University of Lausanne, CH-1015, Switzerland
10	(2) Department of Geology and Geophysics, Louisiana State University, Louisiana 70803, USA
11	(3) Istituto di Geoscienze e Georisorse, Area di Ricerca del CNR, I-56124 Pisa, Italy
12	

Abstract

14 A series of tourmaline reference materials are developed for in-situ oxygen isotope analysis by 15 secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS), which allow to study the tourmaline compositions 16 found in most igneous and metamorphic rocks. The new reference material was applied to 17 measure oxygen isotope composition of tourmaline from metagranite, meta-leucogranite and 18 whiteschist from the Monte Rosa nappe (Western Alps). The protolith and genesis of 19 whiteschist is highly debated in the literature. Whiteschists occur as 10 to 50 meters tube-like 20 bodies within the Permian Monte Rosa granite. They consist of chloritoid, talc, phengite and 21 quartz, with local kyanite, garnet, tourmaline and carbonates.

22 Whiteschist tourmaline is characterized by an igneous core and a dravitic overgrowth $(X_{Mg} >$ 23 0.9). The core reveals similar chemical composition and zonation as meta-leucogranitic tourmaline (X_{Mg} : 0.25, δ^{18} O: 11.3-11.5‰), proving their common origin. Dravitic overgrowths 24 25 in whiteschists have lower oxygen isotope compositions (8.9-9.5%). Tournaline in metagranite 26 is an intermediate schorl-dravite with X_{Mg} of 0.50. Oxygen isotope data reveal homogeneous 27 composition for metagranite and meta-leucogranite tourmalines of 10.4-11.3‰ and 11.0-28 11.9%, respectively. Quartz inclusions in both meta-igneous rocks show the same oxygen 29 isotopic composition as the quartz in the matrix (13.6-13.9%). In whiteschist the oxygen 30 isotope composition of quartz included in tourmaline cores lost their igneous signature, having 31 the same values as quartz in the matrix (11.4-11.7%). A network of small fractures filled with 32 dravitic tourmaline can be observed in the igneous core and suggested to serve as connection 33 between included quartz and matrix, and lead to recrystallization of the inclusion. In contrast, 34 igneous core of the whiteschist tourmaline fully retained its magmatic oxygen isotope signature, 35 indicating oxygen diffusion is extremely slow in tourmaline. Tourmaline included in high36 pressure chloritoid shows the characteristic dravitic overgrowth, demonstrating that chloritoid 37 grew after the metasomatism responsible for the whiteschist formation, but continued to grow 38 during the Alpine metamorphism. Our data on tourmaline and quartz show that tourmaline-39 bearing whiteschists originated from the related meta-leucogranites, which were locally altered 40 by late magmatic hydrothermal fluids prior to Alpine high-pressure metamorphism.

41 Keywords: Tourmaline reference materials, SIMS, oxygen isotopes, whiteschist – tourmaline,
42 quartz, Monte Rosa

- 43
- 44

Introduction

45 Whiteschists are high pressure talc and kyanite-bearing metamorphic rocks (Schreyer 1973). 46 They became famous after the discovery of the ultra-high pressure (UHP) coesite and pyrope-47 bearing whiteschist of Dora Maira in the Alps by Chopin (1984), and are also found in nearby 48 rocks of Gran Paradiso and Monte Rosa nappes. Their unusual chemistry (high Mg and Al 49 content) is suggested to be produced by metasomatism of crustal protoliths (Franz et al. 2013). 50 However, there are disagreements as to which protolith: a sedimentary origin (Schreyer 1977; 51 Chopin 1981; Chopin and Monié 1984) or an igneous origin (Pawlig and Baumgartner 2001). 52 Several hypotheses have been put forward for the nature of the metasomatic fluids as well as 53 the timing of fluid-rock interaction responsible for whiteschist formation in the western Alps. 54 Some authors proposed an Alpine water-rock interaction during subduction by slab derived 55 fluids produced by serpentinite dehydration (Sharp et al. 1993; Ferrando et al. 2009). On the 56 other hand, Pawlig and Baumgartner (2001) presented a genetic model for the Monte Rosa 57 whiteschist in which the metagranite was altered into a sericite-chlorite-quartz assemblage 58 during late hydrothermal alteration of the Permian granite prior to Alpine orogeny. Subsequent 59 Alpine high-pressure metamorphism led to the mineralogy of the whiteschist.

60 To constrain the igneous, hydrothermal, and metamorphic history of the Monte Rosa 61 whiteschist, we use oxygen isotope analyses of zoned tourmaline crystals and their quartz 62 inclusions. Tourmaline is a common accessory mineral in the Monte Rosa granite and a minor 63 constituent of leucogranites and aplitic dikes. It is also present locally in the whiteschist. 64 Tournaline is known to retain its chemical and isotopic compositions through different growth 65 stages in changing environments, due to its very slow volume diffusion (e.g. Henry and Dutrow 66 1996; van Hinsberg et al. 2011a). Oxygen isotopes are excellent tracers of fluid-rock interaction 67 (e.g. Baumgartner and Valley 2001). They can also be used for estimating temperature 68 conditions, e.g. when applied to quartz in conjunction with a refractory accessory mineral 69 (RAM-thermometry; see Valley 2001) like with alumosilicate (Putlitz et al. 2002), garnet 70 (Quinn et al. 2016) or with tourmaline (Matthews et al. 2003).

71 Oxygen isotopes were measured in-situ by secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) in order to 72 explore quartz inclusions and distinct growth zones in tourmaline. A new set of reference 73 materials for in-situ SIMS analysis in tournaline has been calibrated. The development 74 procedure of reference materials is described in detail in the first part of the study, and in the 75 second part an application is presented. Here, oxygen isotopes data of tourmaline and quartz, 76 combined with major element compositions on samples of metagranite, meta-leucogranite and 77 whiteschist from the Monte Rosa nappe allow characterization of different growth events of 78 tourmaline and provide information on the formation of the whiteschist.

- 79
- 80

Geological setting

81 The Monte Rosa nappe is a middle Penninic tectonic unit of the Western Alps (Fig. 1a). It
82 belongs to the internal crystalline massifs, together with Gran Paradiso and Dora Maira. These

units are attributed to the Briançonnais microcontinent and represent the southernmost pieces of
the European continental crust involved in the Alpine orogeny (Steck et al. 2015).

The Monte Rosa nappe consists of Variscan and older, polymetamorphic paragneisses (Bearth 1952). It was intruded by granitic to granodioritic rocks dated by U-Pb SHRIMP on zircons at 270 \pm 4 Ma (Pawlig 2001). The intrusions consist mainly of porphyritic biotite granite with some leucogranitic bodies, crosscut by numerous aplite and pegmatite dikes (Fig. 1c). The granite locally contains 10 to 50 meter-sized bodies of whiteschist (Bearth 1952).

90 In this paper we focus on the whiteschist occurrence described by Pawlig and Baumgartner 91 (2001), in the Mezzalama area, upper Ayas Valley, northern Italy. Here, Alpine metamorphism 92 is heterogeneously recorded and tightly related to the deformation intensity (Steck et al. 2015). 93 In low strain domains, the Alpine high-pressure parageneses are preserved in metagranite and 94 whiteschist, whereas in high strain domains they are partially to completely overprinted by 95 greenschist facies assemblages. A sample of metagranite was collected from an undeformed 96 region and a meta-leucogranite from a slightly deformed region of the intrusion, north of the 97 Mezzalama refugio. The studied whiteschist outcrop is located at the base of the Piccolo 98 Ghiacciaio di Verra, within a weakly deformed metagranite (Fig. 1b). Here, the whiteschist is 99 approximately 10 to 20 meters wide. Its western limit with the metagranite is cut by a SW 100 dipping, sinistral shear zone. Shearing imposed a strong greenschist-facies foliation on the 101 western edge of the whiteschists and in adjacent paragneisses (Pawlig and Baumgartner, 2001). 102 The whiteschist texture is characterized by dark porphyroblasts of chloritoid in a beige-greyish 103 matrix of talc, white mica, quartz and chlorite (Fig. 1d).

104

Methodology

105 Major element analysis by electron microprobe (EMP)

106 Major element analyses of tournalines from Monte Rosa and those used as reference materials 107 were obtained by electron microprobe using a JEOL JXA-8350F at the University of Lausanne. 108 The instrument is equipped with a Schottky field emission gun and with five wavelength-109 dispersive X-ray spectrometers. The operating conditions were 15 kV acceleration voltage at 15 110 nA beam current with a beam size of 5 μ m or 1 μ m, depending on the width of the zone to 111 analyze. Reference tourmaline grains were also analyzed using a JEOL JXA-8230 at Louisiana 112 State University, USA. Analyses were performed at 15 kV and 20 nA, with a 5 µm spot size 113 using well-characterized mineral standards and a tourmaline as secondary standard. Counting 114 times on peak and on background, detection limits as well as standards used for each element 115 are listed in the supplementary data (Tab. S1).

Six to eight grains of each tourmaline reference material were analyzed, with 10 to 25measurements per grain, to evaluate their homogeneity.

118 Mineral formula of tourmaline was calculated as suggested by Henry et al. (2011), based on 119 fixed number of cations (15) for Y + Z + T sites. Because neither Li nor B were analyzed, Li 120 was estimated from an average of mineral formula normalization based on Si = 6 and the 121 formula of Pesquera et al. (2016). Boron was calculated by iteration resulting in 3 atoms of B 122 per formula unit (pfu). Hydrogen was obtained by charge balance.

To visualize chemical variations of the tournalines from Monte Rosa samples, chemical maps of Al, Si, Fe, Mg and Na were acquired at 15 kV acceleration voltage and 50 nA beam using dwell times of 60-100 ms with the FEG-EMPA at the University of Lausanne. Same minerals served as standards as were used for quantitative major element analysis (Tab. S1).

127 Oxygen isotope analysis by laser heating fluorination (LF)

Oxygen isotope compositions of tourmaline reference materials were determined at the stable
isotope laboratory of the University of Lausanne using a CO₂-laser fluorination technique. The
analyses followed the method initially described by Sharp (1990); for the detailed procedure see
Lacroix and Vennemann (2015).

During each analytical session, tourmaline aliquots of 1.5-2.3 mg were measured together with the NBS-28 quartz reference material (accepted value 9.64‰, Coplen et al. (1983)). Tourmaline data were corrected to the session value of the NBS-28 quartz and given in conventional δ notation, relative to Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW). The daily uncertainty of NBS-28 quartz was typically better than $\pm 0.12\%$ (1SD = standard deviation). The measurement repeatability over six analytical sessions (January to November 2017) was 0.06‰ (1SD) with a measurement bias of 0.04‰ (1SD).

139 Secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS)

140 The Cameca IMS 1280HR secondary ion mass spectrometer (SIMS) at the SwissSIMS facility 141 (University of Lausanne) was used to investigate the homogeneity of the oxygen isotope 142 composition of the tourmaline reference materials. Two to seven randomly chosen grains of 143 each tourmaline sample were analyzed by placing six to twelve points per grain. The 144 instrumental mass fractionation (IMF) was determined for the Fe-Mg and Li tourmaline 145 compositions common in metamorphic and igneous rocks. SIMS was also used to obtain in-situ 146 analyses of oxygen isotope ratios of tourmaline and quartz in samples from the Monte Rosa 147 metagranite, meta-leucogranite and whiteschist.

A Cesium-source was used to produce positive ions and to generate a primary high-density
Gaussian beam of 1.5-2 nA. The beam was accelerated through a potential of 10 kV and
focused on the sample to a diameter of about 10 μm. Secondary ions were extracted from the

sample and accelerated as O⁻ ions through a potential of -10 kV into a mass spectrometer. An electron gun compensated the surface charge of the sample. Both ¹⁶O and ¹⁸O were measured simultaneously by Faraday cup detectors at intensities of $1.0 - 2.0 \times 10^9$ cps (counts per second) and of $2.0 - 3.5 \times 10^6$ cps, respectively. A calibration of the mass, the Faraday cups and of the background was performed at the beginning of each session. No effects on the reproducibility of the reference materials were found between sessions with or without raster. The measurements followed the analytical protocol given by Kita et al. (2009).

The time for a single analysis was about 3.5 min, including a pre-sputtering (45 sec, to remove gold coating and potential surface impurities), an automated centering of the secondary beam in contrast and field apertures (60 sec), and an acquisition time of 100 seconds (20 cycles of 5 sec). The within-spot reproducibility ($2SE = 2 \times standard error$) was generally between 0.15‰ and 0.25‰.

163 The in-situ oxygen isotope analyses of tourmaline required development of new reference 164 materials. Detailed description of development procedure for the new set of tourmaline 165 reference materials is given below.

The compositions of the Monte Rosa tourmalines lie on a solid-solution join between schorl and dravite. Therefore, reference materials for each analytical session included a schorl, IAEA-B-4, and a dravite, UNIL-T2. Reference material for quartz was UNIL-Q1 (Seitz et al. 2016) . All three standards also served to monitor the instrument stability and to perform drift corrections, when necessary. During all sessions the reproducibility (2SD = 2 x standard deviation of the mean of all analyses within a session) of each of the three reference materials was better than 0.27‰, after applying a linear drift correction.

174

Development of tourmaline reference material for in-situ oxygen isotope analysis

175 Here we present the first set of tourmaline reference materials for in-situ oxygen isotope ratio 176 determination in tourmaline. Initially 16 natural tourmalines were selected to determine their 177 usability for reference materials. Tournalines fulfilling the following criteria were retained for 178 a detailed study: (1) the material was homogeneous in major element composition; (2) the 179 samples cover the chemical range of most common tourmaline compositions; (3) and a 180 minimum amount of about 1 gram of material was available. Ideally, major element 181 compositions close to end-members, as well as intermediate solid solutions, are required to 182 establish the IMF. Of the 16 tested samples, seven tourmaline samples were homogeneous in 183 chemical and oxygen isotope compositions. These tourmalines are presented here as suitable 184 tourmaline reference material for in-situ oxygen isotope measurements by SIMS.

185 **Sample preparation**

186 The tourmaline samples IAEA-B-4, UNIL-T1, UNIL-T4, UNIL-T5 were obtained as crushed 187 material. The samples UNIL-T2, UNIL-T3 and UNIL-T6 were received as single crystals. The 188 latter were optically screened for zonations and different zones were carefully separated using a 189 wire saw. Afterwards, the separates were crushed into small pieces. Crushed grains were sieved 190 into several size fractions. The fractions $> 300 \,\mu\text{m}$ were used for in-situ analyses (EMP, SIMS) 191 and fractions $< 300 \ \mu m$ for LF. Grains used for LF analysis were carefully examined under 192 binocular to exclude grains containing inclusions or intergrowth with other minerals and an 193 aliquot of 20 to 50 grains has been prepared for each sample. The new tourmaline reference 194 materials are available on request at the SwissSIMS facility.

For in-situ measurements two to seven grains were chosen arbitrarily and mounted in epoxy resin. Attention was paid to place the grains within 8 mm of the central part of the mount in order to avoid possible analytical artifacts (Peres et al. 2013). After grinding to expose the
grains, they were polished using diamond paste, progressively decreasing the diamond
granulometry from 15 to 0.5 µm.

In addition to the grains, stripes were prepared to investigate potential, optically not visible, zoning of the crystal UNIL-T2, using a technique presented by Seitz et al. (2016). Three stripes were separated from top, middle and bottom of the crystal (perpendicular to c-axes) and one stripe covering the core to rim transect (parallel to c-axes). The stripes were polished as described previously, cut out of the epoxy and pressed in indium. All mounts were scanned with a white light interferometer to ensure that the local relief has less than 5 µm topography; essential for SIMS analyses (Kita et al. 2009).

207 Description and chemical classification

The reference material set includes seven tourmaline samples: UNIL-T1 to UNIL-T6, first characterized in this study as reference materials, and the IAEA-B-4, a well-established reference material for boron isotopes, certified by the International Atomic Energy Agency. A short description of the tourmaline samples, as well as information on their origin and literature references, where available, are given in Table 1.

The chemical composition of reference material was determined on randomly selected grains. Profiles, perpendicular and parallel to c-axes, were measured in sample UNIL-T2 to evaluate potential zoning. The results are given as mean values and their standard deviation (SD) in Table S2 of supplementary material. Recommended values are presented in Table 2.

The chemical variability is assessed through the standard deviation of the mean, which is typically below 0.5 wt.% for major elements and below 0.1 wt.% for minor elements. A slight

zonation in Al and Fe is observed for UNIL-T1 schorl (0.73 wt.% and 0.82 wt.%, respectively).

The analytical results from two laboratories (University of Lausanne and Louisiana State University) are in good agreement (Tab. S2). For the majority of elements, the differences are less than 1 wt.%.

223 Tournaline classification schemes are based on the occupancy of the different crystallographic 224 sites in the generalized structural formulae $XY_3Z_6(T_6O_{18})(BO_3)_3V_3W$ (e.g. Henry et al. 2011). The X-site is filled by Na⁺, Ca²⁺ or vacancies, but may also have negligible K⁺. The Y-site is 225 occupied by mono-, di-, tri- or tetravalent cations, i.e. Li⁺, Mg²⁺, Fe²⁺, Al³⁺, Ti⁴⁺. The Z-site is 226 mostly filled by Al^{3+} , but can also contain Fe^{3+} , Mg^{2+} , Cr^{3+} or V^{3+} . The tetrahedral site (T) is 227 occupied primarily by Si^{4+} , with deficiencies made up by Al^{3+} . B^{3+} is exclusively allocated to 228 229 the B-site. The V and W sites are occupied by anions: V-site is dominated by OH⁻ and 230 subordinately by O_2 , W-site contains F, OH^- and O_2 .

231 The reference material set includes alkali-group tournalines with Na⁺ as the dominant X-site 232 cation (Fig. 2a; Table 2). Based on the W-site anions (secondary classification), the reference 233 materials are comprised of four hydroxy-, two oxy- and one fluor-species (Fig. 2b; Table 2). 234 The available reference material set has compositions on the schorl/foitite-dravite solid solution 235 and contains also three Al-Li-dominated tournalines (Fig. 2c; Table 2). These tournalines 236 cover the typical compositional range of tourmalines from most granitic rocks as well as 237 metamorphic rocks (Fig. 2c). The reference materials IAEA-B-4, UNIL-T1 and UNIL-T3 are 238 chemically close to foitite (Fig. 2d). However, because Na fills more than half of their X-site 239 (Table 2), they are classified as alkali-group tourmalines and with Fe dominant as schorl and 240 not as foitite. Tournaline UNIL-T2 is close in composition to the end-member dravite (Fig. 241 2d). The tournalines UNIL-T4 and UNIL-T5 were described by Tonarini et al. (1998) as 242 elbaites, but according to the updated nomenclature, they are darrellhenryites. This new Libearing tourmaline species was described by Novák et al. (2013) and approved by the
International Mineralogical Association's Commission on New Minerals, Nomenclature and
Classification in 2012. It is closely related to elbaite, but has higher aluminum and lower
lithium contents and belongs to the oxy-tourmaline series (Fig. 2c).

247 Oxygen isotope composition and in-situ homogeneity tests by SIMS

The oxygen isotope reference values for each tourmaline were obtained from at least four replicates using the laser fluorination technique. Each replicate comprised of 1 to 3 grains, selected randomly from a previously prepared aliquot (see 'sample preparation'). The results are presented in Table 3. The reproducibility is between 0.04 and 0.10‰ (1SD) for all tourmaline samples indicating that these tourmalines are homogeneous within 0.10‰.

253 The potential reference materials were evaluated for homogeneity in oxygen isotopes using 254 SIMS. A typical analysis session was less than 12 h. Blocks of 4-to-6 spot analyses in potential 255 tourmaline reference material followed by two analysis of a reference grain. The quartz UNIL-256 Q1 (Seitz et al. 2016) was used as reference to monitor instrument stability and drift. Drift was 257 found to be mostly linear, and corrections were made accordingly. The measurement 258 repeatability of UNIL-Q1 over an entire session was typically < 0.30% (2SD), after drift 259 correction. The measurement repeatability of each reference material is listed in Table 3 as 260 2SD. For all tested materials the measurement repeatability on a single grain was better than 261 0.3‰ (2SD) and the overall repeatability (all grains of a reference material) during one session 262 was better than 0.4‰ (2SD), with exception of IAEA-B-4 on 17 December 2016. Most likely 263 the reason for a bad reproducibility is the position of the analyzed grains on the mount because 264 two of the six grains of IAEA-B-4 analyzed during this session were slightly outside of the 265 recommended 8 mm circle (Kita et al. 2009). By considering only the four grains within the

circle a measurement repeatability of 0.29‰ (2SD) was obtained. Only two grains of UNIL-T3 were measured because of the small amount of material available. Nevertheless, this tourmaline is necessary to constrain the IMF as a function of chemical composition on the schorl-dravite join as it has an intermediate composition (X_{Mg} of 0.24). UNIL-T5 and UNIL-T6 have the best external reproducibility of < 0.21‰ (2SD).

Four profiles were investigated in dravite UNIL-T2 (see 'sample preparation'). Top, middle and bottom stripes were measured during the same analytical session with a measurement reproducibility of 0.34‰ (2SD). For the core to rim profile, a reproducibility of 0.32‰ (2SD) was achieved, confirming the homogeneity of the crystal.

275 Instrumental mass fractionation

276 Any oxygen isotope ratio obtained by SIMS needs to be corrected for instrumental mass 277 fractionation (IMF). The IMF results both from the composition and structure of the analyzed 278 material and from the instrumental tuning and configuration (Eiler et al. 1997). The later issues 279 are caused by transmission of secondary ions (Shimizu and Hart 1982) as well as by electronic 280 and physical effects during ion detection (Lyon et al. 1994). These processes are sample 281 independent and can be easily corrected with one standard. However, the sample dependent 282 fractionation is more complex. Sputtering and ionization processes are strongly affected by 283 mineral matrix and thus vary with changing mineral structure and composition (e.g. Schroeer et 284 al. 1973; Williams 1979; Yu and Lang 1986). Studies have shown that IMF can vary 285 systematically by over 10‰ (Eiler et al. 1997; Riciputi et al. 1998; Page et al. 2010; Ickert and 286 Stern 2013; Sliwiński et al. 2016). The functional dependence of IMF on mineral composition 287 can be linear, as in biotite (Siron et al. 2016) or more complex, as in garnets (Ickert and Stern 288 2013) or carbonates (Śliwiński et al. 2016).

IMF can be expressed in α-notation as the ratio of absolute value of a reference material(measured e.g. by LF) and the value determined by SIMS:

291
$$\alpha_{IMF} = \alpha_{LF} / \alpha_{SIMS} \tag{1}$$

This equation can be approximated for small isotopic fractionations of a few permille observedhere (Rumble 1982):

$$IMF = \delta^{18}O_{SIMS} - \delta^{18}O_{LF} \tag{2}$$

where $\delta^{18}O_{SIMS}$ is the oxygen isotope ratio of a reference material obtained in a SIMS analytical session and $\delta^{18}O_{LF}$ is the corresponding reference value measured by LF.

The measurement uncertainty of the IMF considers both the measurement repeatability of SIMS analyses $(2SD_{SIMS} \text{ of all measurements obtained for one reference material during one$ $analytical session) and the uncertainties on the laser fluorination analyses <math>(2SD_{LF} \text{ of the}$ reference value composite from all corrected laser fluorination measurements for the same reference material):

302

$$s_{IMF} = \sqrt{(2SD_{SIMS})^2 + (2SD_{LF})^2}$$
(3)

To investigate how chemical composition of tourmalines influences the IMF, three analytical sessions were performed, in which all reference materials were analyzed together in a single mount. The results are summarized in Table 4. IMF as a function of composition varies for these tourmalines between 1.8‰ and 2.7‰, depending on the individual analytical session.

A priori it is not clear which elements will influence the IMF; hence several different elements and selected combinations were tested to describe the observed IMF using a weighted leastsquare fit. The selected procedures were guided by the criteria of simplicity and ease of use. The combination of Fe and Al, given in atoms per formula unit (apfu), provided the most satisfactory IMF correction procedure for the compositional space investigated here. A typical fit is shown in Figure 3a, where measured IMF is plotted against calculated IMF for each reference material using Fe and Al as parameters. The quality of the fit is given by the reduced γ^2 per point and is 1.050.

315 The variation of IMF with the composition is shown in Figure 3b. A linear correlation is present 316 between IMF and Fe on the schorl-dravite solid solution and between IMF and Al from schorl 317 or dravite towards Al-rich compositions. IMF decreases by about 2‰ with decreasing Fe 318 content, more precisely from schorl to dravite. This Mg-Fe exchange related IMF is also known 319 from other minerals forming Mg-Fe solid solutions, for example for olivine and Ca-poor 320 pyroxenes (Valley and Kita 2009) as well as for biotite (Siron et al. 2016). A slight decrease of 321 IMF (< 0.6%) with increasing Al content can be observed on the schorl-elbaite-darrellhenryite 322 solid solution. In contrast, IMF increases with increasing Al content by about 2‰ along dravite-323 elbaite-darrellhenryite line, however this solid solution is not continuous.

324 It is important to note, that the absolute IMF values change for different sessions. This is due to 325 small changes in analytical conditions (e.g. primary current intensity, pressure of the analytical 326 chamber). Therefore, for every analytical session, we recommend the use of bracketing 327 tourmaline compositions, e.g. to use IAEA-B-4 or UNIL-T1 (schorl end-member) and UNIL-328 T2 (dravite end-member) as reference material while analyzing tournaline of chemical 329 composition lying between schorl/foitite and dravite. For tournalines with more than 7 apfu Al, 330 one of the three Al-rich reference materials should be analyzed in addition to schorl and dravite 331 reference materials.

332

333

Application to tourmaline of the Monte Rosa nappe

Sample description and petrography

We investigated five samples from the Monte Rosa nappe: one metagranite (15MR40), one meta-leucogranite (15MR34) and three whiteschist samples (16MR36, 16MR39, 16MR44) (Fig. 1b) in order to approach the origin and chronological history of the Monte Rosa whiteschist.

339 Sample 15MR40 is a porphyritic undeformed **metagranite**, containing igneous K-feldspar, 340 plagioclase, biotite and quartz (Fig. 4a). K-feldspar defines a magmatic foliation and forms 341 crystals up to five centimeters in length. Most plagioclase has been pseudomorphosed to fine-342 grained zoisite, albite and white mica. However, polysynthetic twinning remains visible in 343 some crystals. Similarly, some biotite is replaced by phengite, titanite, and minor garnet (Fig. 344 4b). These pseudomorphic assemblages reflect the Alpine high-pressure metamorphism (Luisier 345 2018). A greenschist-facies overprint is recorded by chlorite, which locally replaces relict 346 biotite, and albite-zoisite pseudomorphs are locally recrystallized into Fe-rich clinozoisite, 347 albite and white mica. Accessory phases are tourmaline, titanite, zircon, apatite, monazite and 348 ilmenite.

Tourmaline is rare and is mostly included in K-feldspar. The grains are smaller than one millimeter in size (Figs. 4a - 4c) and form idiomorphic to hypidiomorphic crystals with orangebrown cores and a thin dark blue rim (Fig. 4c). Typically, the core shows a patchy zonation. Oscillatory zoning of the core, observed as green-to-orange color zoning, is less common and present only in crystals > 250 μ m. The thickness of the rim varies from 2 to 70 μ m, depending on which crystal faces the overgrowth was formed (Fig. 4c).

355 Sample 15MR34 is a coarse-grained, weakly deformed meta-leucogranite containing igneous
356 K-feldspar (mostly microcline), plagioclase, white mica, quartz, tourmaline and garnet (Fig.
357 4d). K-feldspar forms centimeter-size crystals while other minerals are plurimillimetric.

358 Plagioclase is partially pseudomorphosed by a fine-grained sericite, albite and clinozoisite 359 assemblage. Quartz shows recrystallization textures, such as irregular grain boundaries and sub-360 grain domains. Accessory phases are rutile, ilmenite, apatite and zircon. The volume portion of 361 tourmaline in this sample is about 5%. Tourmaline has well developed idiomorphic to 362 hypidiomorphic forms. The crystals display a bright greenish euhedral inner zone and an 363 orange-to-greenish brown outer zone surrounded by a dark-blue rim, similar to those observed 364 in metagranite (Figs. 4d and 4e). The size of tournaline crystals varies from a few hundred 365 micrometers up to a few centimeters. Larger tournaline crystals are typically fractured or even 366 broken apart and the dark blue overgrowth develops also on fracture sites (Figs. 5d and 5e). 367 Quartz inclusions in tourmaline are rare and usually do not exceed 20 µm.

Sample 16MR39 is a coarse-grained, undeformed **whiteschist**, made up of plurimillimetric chloritoid, talc, white mica, chlorite and quartz (Fig. 4h). A fine-grained chlorite and sericite assemblage partly replaces chloritoid. The fine-grained matrix is formed by unoriented, talc, phengite and retrograde chlorite and sericite. Tourmaline is present in the matrix and as inclusions in chloritoid.

Sample 16MR44 is a foliated whiteschist containing quartz, phengite, sericite and chlorite (Fig.
4g). Chlorite and sericite nearly completely replace chloritoid, forming well visible
pseudomorphs. White micas and quartz define a pronounced schistosity. Elongated tourmaline
crystals follow the schistosity, whereas small roundish tourmaline grains are randomly
distributed.

Sample 16MR36 is a quartz-rich, fine-grained and strongly foliated whiteschist (Fig. 4f). It
 consists mainly of quartz, phengite and chloritoid. White mica is deflected around chloritoid
 porphyroblasts and defines the schistosity. Quartz is recrystallized forming lobate grain

boundaries. Chlorite and sericite partially replace chloritoid. Tourmaline crystals are typicallyassociated with white mica and in some cases are following the schistosity.

In all whiteschist samples, accessory phases include apatite, allanite, monazite, zircon, rutile,and ilmenite.

385 Sample 16MR36 has the lowest tournaline content (1 to 2 Vol.%), sample 16MR39 has 3 to 4 386 Vol.% and sample 16MR44 has the highest tourmaline content (up to 5 Vol.%). Common in all 387 whiteschist samples is the size of tourmaline grains: 10 to 20% of all tourmaline grains are 388 larger than 500 μ m, whereas the remaining 80 to 90% are clearly smaller (< 200 μ m). 389 Tournaline shows similar colors and zoning patterns in all whiteschist samples: A blue inner 390 zone, a yellowish-green outer zone with oscillatory zoning, surrounded by a light yellowish-391 beige overgrowth (Figs. 4f - 4k). The light rim can be observed in tourmaline in the matrix as 392 well as in tournaline included in other minerals, such as white mica or chloritoid (Fig. 4h). The 393 rim of tourmaline associated with white mica and talc is typically thicker (50 – 200 μ m) than 394 the rim of tourmaline within quartz-rich domains or tourmaline included in chloritoid (< 20 μ m) 395 (Figs. 4f - 4k). Tourmaline cores are xenomorphic and strongly resorbed, while the overgrowth 396 is idiomorphic to hypidiomorphic (Fig. 4k). Tournaline cores are commonly fractured, forming 397 a micro-crack-network. In contrast, the rims do not show signs of fracturing (Figs. 4i - 4k). 398 Quartz inclusions, up to 200 µm in size, are mostly present in the tourmaline cores (Fig. 4j), but 399 they are smaller ($< 20 \,\mu$ m) and rarely observed in the rim.

400 Cher

Chemical composition of tourmaline

The tourmaline compositions are essentially on the binary Fe-Mg join, with slight deviations in Al (Fig. 5). In general, tourmaline cores are Al-rich and close to oxy-schorl/foitite in their compositions (dark symbols), whereas tourmaline rims are slightly depleted in Al (bright 404 symbols) and plot closer to schorl-dravite join. Remarkably, tournaline cores from meta-405 leucogranite and from three whiteschist samples are very similar in chemical compositions and 406 plot close to Fe-rich foitite/oxy-schorl. The core of metagranitic tourmaline is different and has 407 an intermediate composition between oxy-schorl and oxy-dravite. Tournaline rims are clearly 408 distinct in chemistry from their corresponding cores. In metagranite and meta-leucogranite the 409 tourmaline rims are, compared to the cores, depleted in Al, while the Fe-Mg ratio remains 410 almost the same. However, the depletion in Al is more pronounced in metagranite than in meta-411 leucogranite. Larger differences in chemistry between core and rim are present in whiteschist 412 samples. Here, tourmaline cores are Fe-rich, whereas the rims are close to the dravite end-413 member chemistry and therefore dominated by Mg.

414 The X-ray maps of Mg together with major element profiles best illustrate the main differences 415 between the samples as well as between distinct growth zones within a crystal (Fig. 6). 416 Representative rim and core compositions of tourmalines from all studied samples are presented 417 as supplementary data in Table S3. Metagranitic tournaline is slightly higher in Mg compared 418 to tourmaline cores from meta-leucogranite and whiteschist, although the whiteschist 419 tourmalines rim, as well as small fractures within its core, reveal the highest Mg content (Fig. 420 6). A patchy zoned core with a homogeneous rim characterizes the tourmaline from 421 metagranite, whereas in tournaline cores of meta-leucogranite and whiteschist oscillatory 422 zoning is present. This oscillatory zoning is well displayed by chemical mapping. Tournalines 423 of meta-leucogranite and whiteschist show similar zoning patterns within their cores: A small 424 inner zone, in general homogeneous in composition and slightly depleted in Na; and an outer 425 zone, typically showing small alternating variations (orders of a few $\mu g/g$) (Figs. 6b and 6c). 426 Tournaline rim compositions from meta-leucogranite and whiteschist are however clearly

427 different. Tourmaline in whiteschist develops a dravitic overgrowth on strongly resorbed cores 428 (Figs. 4i, 5 and 6). Here, Mg increases from 0.5 apfu, and Na from 0.6 apfu in the core up to 2.8 429 apfu and 0.8 apfu in the rim, respectively. These changes are compensated by a decrease in Fe 430 (by 1.5 apfu) and Al (by 0.9 apfu). In contrast, the rims of meta-leucogranitic tournaline are 431 characterized by a thin overgrowth on an almost idiomorphic core. Na and Fe slightly decrease 432 from core to rim, while Mg slightly increases. Here, all chemical changes from core to rim are 433 less than 0.25 apfu. Similarly, the tourmaline from metagranite shows small chemical changes 434 from core to rim. Na and Ca increase by 0.2 apfu each, Fe as well as Mg by about 0.5 apfu, 435 while Al decreases by about 0.8 apfu.

436 Consequently, the tournaline cores of meta-leucogranite and whiteschist are not only similar in 437 composition but also show similar zoning patterns. However, their rims record completely 438 different chemistry. Tournaline from metagranite is clearly different in its chemistry and 439 zoning from meta-leucogranite and whiteschist tournalines.

440 **Oxygen isotope composition of tourmaline and quartz**

The oxygen isotope compositions of tourmaline grains from each sample were investigated by in-situ SIMS analysis using the reference material presented previously. δ^{18} O values were also determined in quartz from the matrix and quartz included in tourmaline. Profiles were obtained from each tourmaline grain and several quartz grains in order to evaluate potential zonations.

The oxygen isotope ratios of quartz are in the range of 11.0‰ to 14.3‰, while tourmaline varies between 8.6‰ and 11.9‰ (Fig. 7). Quartz defines a narrow range of 0.9‰ within each sample, but distinct differences are observed between the rock types. Values of 13.1-14.0‰ and 13.4-14.3‰ were obtained from metagranite and meta-leucogranite, respectively. However, in the whiteschists, quartz has lower δ^{18} O values, covering the range of 11.0‰ to 12.2‰. The 450 quartz-rich whiteschist samples (16MR36 and 16MR44) yield similar ranges for quartz (11.3-

451 11.9‰ and 11.3-12.2‰, respectively). The quartz-poor sample 16MR39 has slightly lower 452 δ^{18} O values (11.0-11.9‰).

In Figure 7, oxygen isotope ratios of tourmaline in metagranite and meta-leucogranite show narrow ranges (10.4-11.3‰ and 11.0-11.9‰, respectively), with slightly lower values in metagranite. Within the whiteschists, tourmaline yield two distinct δ^{18} O compositional ranges: 10.7-11.9‰, similar to those reported from granitic and leucogranitic tourmalines, and a range of lower δ^{18} O values of 8.6-9.8‰. A small shift to isotopically lighter oxygen compositions, similar to those reported for quartz-poor sample 16MR39, is also observed for tourmaline.

The spatial distribution of measured δ^{18} O values is shown in Figure 8. No zonation in oxygen isotopes for individual quartz grains was observed in any sample. Similar values were obtained for quartz inclusions from tourmaline core and rim (Fig. 8c). Within all samples, δ^{18} O values obtained from quartz included in tourmaline and quartz in the matrix are similar (Figs. 8a; 8c; 8d).

Despite the variations in major elements in the tourmaline cores, there is no zonation in oxygen isotopes (Fig. 8). Furthermore, the rim and core δ^{18} O values of metagranitic and metaleucogranitic tourmaline are the same (Figs. 8a and 8b). In whiteschist, the differences between core and rim are not only reported in major elements but also in oxygen isotopes: higher values are measured in tourmaline cores, whereas dravitic tourmaline rims are up to 2‰ lower (Figs. 8c and 8d).

470 **Discussion**

471 Oxygen isotopes equilibrium and thermometry. Quartz-tourmaline pairs can be used to
472 estimate temperatures (Kotzer et al. 1993; Zheng 1993; Jiang 1998; Matthews et al. 2003).

473 Figure 9 shows the distribution of oxygen isotopic values for quartz-tourmaline pairs from 474 granite, leucogranite and whiteschist. The isotherms are plotted using the equation of Matthews 475 et al. (2003). The oxygen isotope ratios of quartz-tourmaline pairs from metagranite and meta-476 leucogranite plot in a narrow range, suggesting tournaline could be close to equilibrium with 477 quartz. This contrasts with data from whiteschist; here only the tournaline rims are close to 478 equilibrium with the quartz (both matrix- and inclusion-quartz) whereas the tournaline cores 479 are not. The later preserved the igneous isotope signature, similar to values reported from 480 metagranite and meta-leucogranite. Apparently, quartz included in tourmaline was completely 481 recrystallized and show the same isotopic ratios as matrix quartz. It seems to have equilibrated 482 with dravitic tourmaline present in rims and fractures. At first glance, this result is surprising, as 483 it is to be expected that inclusion is in equilibrium with its host and is protected against 484 metasomatic alteration or metamorphism. Nevertheless, as discussed above a fine micro-485 fracture-network is a typical feature of the studied tourmaline cores (Figs. 4 and 6). Elemental 486 X-ray maps reveal the micro-cracks to be filled with tournaline of the same composition as the 487 rim (well visible by the red color in Figure 10). The micro-fractures build a connection between 488 quartz inclusions and the exterior of the core. Linked to the matrix, quartz inclusions could 489 easily recrystallize and change their oxygen isotopic composition. Apparently, tournaline cores 490 could not serve as a closed container to retain the igneous signature of its inclusions. In a study 491 on oxygen isotope thermometry using quartz inclusions in garnet, Quinn et al. (2016) 492 demonstrated that armored quartz inclusions and their garnet hosts can be used to obtain 493 metamorphic temperatures, provided that the quartz inclusion is primary and there is no 494 indication of fractures within the host.

495 The quartz-tourmaline pairs from metagranite and meta-leucogranite give a temperature range 496 between 500°C and 600°C (Fig. 9), indicating equilibration of the two minerals clearly below 497 the water-saturated granite solidus of 650°C (e.g. Johannes and Holtz 1996). This is a known 498 phenomenon observed in studies on granitic rocks using oxygen isotope fractionation factors 499 between quartz and its coexisting minerals (e.g. O'Neil et al. 1977). Numerical model for 500 intercrystalline stable isotope diffusion (Eiler et al. 1992), confirmed by natural studies (e.g. 501 Putlitz et al. 2002) show the importance of mineral modes and grain size distribution within the 502 rock as well as diffusional characteristics of each constituent while evaluating temperatures obtained from mineral pairs. The small difference in δ^{18} O values of quartz between quartz-rich 503 504 and quartz-poor whiteschists could reflect the modal abundances or simply slight changes in 505 fluid-rock interaction. The present study shows that tourmaline, once formed, does not 506 exchange with other minerals. Apparently, the exchange is slow to negligible. It is not affected 507 by alteration or metamorphism.

508 Nevertheless, quartz is known to exchange to lower temperatures (e.g. Eiler et al. 1993) as there 509 are other constituents in the granitic rock. Thus, quartz continues to exchange with other fast-510 diffusion minerals, like micas and feldspars, during cooling and subsequent metamorphic 511 events. For example, Quinn et al. (2016) concluded in their study that fractionation factors 512 between garnet and matrix quartz are inappropriate when applied to a rock containing 513 significant amount of minerals which exchange to lower temperatures. Therefore, the low 514 temperatures obtained in this study from tourmaline-quartz oxygen isotope thermometry in 515 metagranite and meta-leucogranite could not be interpreted as intrusion temperatures, but are 516 most probably reset.

517 In whiteschist, only the tournaline rim is in apparent equilibrium with quartz, revealing a large 518 temperature range between 495°C and 715°C. The higher temperatures (> 600°C) are restricted 519 to the sample 16MR36, a quartz-rich whiteschist, whereas white mica and talc dominated 520 samples 16MR39 and 16MR44 give temperatures below 615°C. All whiteschist samples are 521 from the same outcrop, and hence they did not experienced different peak metamorphic 522 temperatures. These large temperature variations are probably related to the modal abundances 523 of coexisting minerals in the rock. As reported by Eiler et al. (1993) minerals modes play an 524 important role during isotope fractionation and thus rocks with the same coexisting minerals, 525 but different mineral modes may display different apparent temperatures. Finally, the 526 calibration of the quartz-tourmaline fractionation is based on schorl-rich tourmaline 527 compositions. Hence, it might not be appropriate for dravite-quartz fractionation. Several 528 studies have shown that elemental substitutions can have a significant effect on isotope 529 fractionation factors (Chacko et al. 2001). Tourmaline is a complex mineral with a number of 530 coupled substitutions and it is very likely that there are significant differences between isotope 531 fractionation factors for different end-members, but experimental data is lacking.

The mean of the temperature range (~ 600°C), reported here from oxygen isotope fractionation
between tourmaline and quartz in whiteschist samples, are slightly higher than peak
metamorphic temperature of 570°C, reported from thermodynamic calculations (Luisier 2018).

535 Growth stages of the tourmaline. Textural and chemical observations suggest at least two 536 distinct growth episodes of tourmaline in the studied rocks. The first stage is recorded in the 537 tourmaline core, which can be optically and chemically subdivided into an inner and outer zone.

538 The rim represents the second growth episode.

539 The small inner roundish zones, mostly observed in meta-leucogranite and whiteschists, 540 represent the initial growth stage of tourmaline (Figs. 4d, 4i, 4j, 6). They are blue-greenish in 541 plane-polarized light (ppl) and show a homogeneous chemical composition with slightly higher 542 Al content when compared to the outer zone (Fig. 6b). The outer zone is optically homogeneous 543 (Figs. 4d, 4i and 4j), but elemental maps reveal fine-scale oscillatory zoning (Figs. 6 and 8). 544 The zoning patterns are sharp and euhedral, indicating either a continuous growth in a system 545 with slight changes in physical or chemical conditions (e.g. Norton and Dutrow 2001), or a 546 crystal growth linked to kinetics and driven by depletion or enrichment haloes surrounding the 547 crystal. Similar characteristics were described by London et al. (1996) for disseminated primary 548 tourmaline from granite and pegmatite. No differences in oxygen isotopes were detected 549 between inner and outer zone, or among fine zones of the outer portion of the igneous core. 550 Even though tourmaline in metagranite lacks a distinct aluminous core and oscillatory zoning is 551 scarce, the fact that they are included in magmatic minerals, such as K-feldspar and plagioclase, 552 as well as their similarity in isotopic signature with the leucogranitic tourmaline confirms their 553 igneous origin. They crystallized prior to or during intrusion and emplacement of the Monte 554 Rosa granite approximately 270 ± 4 Ma years ago (Pawlig 2001).

The igneous growth stage is followed by a dissolution event documented by the resorption of tourmaline. The extent of resorption is small to negligible in the metagranite and metaleucogranite, whereas it is well pronounced in whiteschist. This dissolution can be attributed to the chemical alteration of the granite during the fluid-rock interaction event leading to the chemistry of the whiteschist. Dissolution pre-dated the precipitation of all dravite rims. However, alteration did not affect all plutonic rocks of the Monte Rosa massif to the same extent, but was localized in specific zones. Indeed, Pawlig and Baumgartner (2001) and more

562 recently Luisier (2018) showed that pervasive alteration by fluids occurred preferentially along 563 reaction enhanced, finger-like structures and thus affected only a small part of the granitic body. 564 Furthermore, intense fracturing is present within the tourmaline cores (Figs. 4, 6, 8 and 10). 565 Tourmalines from leucogranite and whiteschist show a well-pronounced fracture network (see 566 for example Figs. 4d, 4e, 4i, 8b, 8d and 10) which post-dates resorption of tourmaline. 567 Fracturing is almost lacking in small granitic tourmaline and only rarely present in bigger ones 568 (Figs. 4c and 8a). The reasons are probably due to the small grain size and the protection by 569 igneous minerals, like K-feldspar and plagioclase, which commonly host tourmaline as 570 inclusion. In contrast, tourmaline in meta-leucogranitic and whiteschist are rarely included in 571 other minerals. In metagranite and meta-leucogranite, the fractures are overgrown by dark 572 tourmaline of the same composition as the rim (Figs. 4c, 4d and 4e). In whiteschist, the 573 fractures are filled with the same dravitic tourmaline, which encloses the igneous core (Figs. 4i, 574 6, 8c, 8d and 10). This is clear evidence that the formation of the fracture-network took place 575 before the tourmaline rim started to growth.

576 The second growth stage of tourmaline is represented by the rim and is different in each rock 577 type. In metagranite, the thin overgrowth is characterized by a decrease in Al and vacancies, 578 accompanied by a slight increase in Mg and Fe as well as Na and Ca (Fig. 6). These changes 579 are most probably related to the breakdown of biotite (release of Mg and Fe) and plagioclase 580 (release of Na and Ca) during the prograde Alpine metamorphism. In contrast to tournaline in 581 the metagranite, tourmaline in the meta-leucogranite shows only minor changes from core to 582 rim (< 0.2 apfu). On the X-site, Na decreases while vacancies increase and on the Y-site, Fe 583 decreases while Mg increases (Fig. 6). The lack of pronounced differences in chemistry 584 between igneous core and metamorphic rim in the meta-leucogranite is likely due to the small

585 modal abundances of sheet silicates and the absence of biotite. Metamorphic reactions are 586 mostly recorded in plagioclase by the presence of fine-grained sericite and clinozoisite. There 587 are no differences recorded in oxygen isotope ratios between the core and the rim, neither in 588 metagranite nor in meta-leucogranite. This indicates, that during Alpine metamorphism, 589 reactions occurred in a closed system and oxygen isotope composition was buffered by the 590 igneous protolith. Isotope compositions are similar since the fractionation changes only slightly 591 between the metamorphic and the igneous temperatures, which is hidden by the variation of the 592 observed data (see Fig. 9).

593 In whiteschist, the second growth stage is represented by the formation of a sizeable dravitic 594 overgrowth (Figs. 4, 5 and 6). The Fe and Al content as well as vacancies decrease from core to 595 rim, while Mg and Na almost completely fill the Y- and X-sites, respectively. It is known, that 596 in metamorphic rocks, tournaline, compared to other minerals, prefers to incorporate Mg and 597 Na (Henry and Guidotti 1985; Grew et al. 1990, 1991; von Goerne et al. 2011; Berryman et al. 598 2016). The distinct differences in composition between tourmaline core and rim in the 599 whiteschists mirror the drastic increase of the X_{Mg} of the bulk rock. The chemistry of the 600 whiteschists requires an enrichment in Mg and a depletion, among others, in Na and Ca (Pawlig 601 and Baumgartner 2001). Part of the source for boron to subsequently grow tourmaline was 602 likely stored within this metasomatized rock in sheet silicates or clay minerals. Indeed, sericite 603 can contain up to 2000 μ g/g (Harder 1970). Previous data suggest that chlorite can also contain 604 substantial boron (Henry and Dutrow 1996), although recent in-situ analyses reveal lower 605 amounts for mantle derived chlorite (McCaig et al. 2018). The boron released during the early 606 stages of sericite-to-white-mica recrystallization is suggested to have been incorporated in the 607 newly forming Mg-rich tourmaline overgrowth. During the Alpine metamorphism, sericite and 608 chlorite break down to form talc, chloritoid, and white mica, and the available boron from 609 reacting sericite and chlorite breakdown induced the overgrowths of the tourmaline. Those 610 tourmaline rims with an $X_{Mg} > 0.85$ clearly mirror the new Mg-rich composition of its host 611 environment. The changes are also recorded in the oxygen isotope composition. The values of 612 the core shift from igneous values, similar to those reported from meta-leucogranites, to lower 613 values within the rim. This is clear evidence for the presence of external fluid in the rock and 614 thus an open system.

615 **Origin of the whiteschist.** The present study unequivocally identifies the protolith of the 616 whiteschist from the Monte Rosa nappe. As the major element composition reported in the 617 tourmaline cores within the whiteschists is similar to those investigated from meta-leucogranitic 618 tourmaline grains (Figs. 5 and 6), one concludes that they are inherited from the same protolith. 619 In addition, the fine oscillatory zoning, typical for igneous tournaline, can be observed in both 620 the whiteschist and meta-leucogranite tournalines (Fig. 6). Further, the histograms in Figure 7 621 report the same oxygen isotope signature for tourmaline cores in all studied rock types. In 622 contrast, the chemical composition of granitic tourmaline is too different from that reported 623 from whiteschist (Figs. 5 and 6). In addition, the modal abundance of tourmalines within the 624 studied whiteschists (about 2-5 Vol.%) is similar to that observed in meta-leucogranite, while 625 in the metagranite tournaline is typically present as an accessory phase. Based on the 626 arguments listed above we conclude that the tourmaline-bearing whiteschists from the Monte 627 Rosa nappe originated from the leucogranitic parts of the magmatic complex. The tourmaline-628 poor whiteschists, in contrast, can easily be derived from the Monte Rosa granite, as proposed 629 by Pawlig and Baumgartner (2001) based on geochemistry and field arguments. Hence, the protolith of the whiteschists are clearly hydrothermally altered rocks of the granitic Monte Rosasuite.

Due to its slow volume diffusion and resistance to alteration processes, igneous tourmaline cores within the whiteschist remained chemically unaffected by the metasomatic event responsible for the formation of a strongly altered rock – the precursor of the whiteschist. Tourmaline shows only dissolution textures as reaction to this event. However, other minerals reacted and recrystallized due to a strong bulk rock chemistry change in response to infiltration of late magmatic to hydrothermal fluids (Pawlig and Baumgartner 2001). Tourmaline adapted its composition to the new rock chemistry by forming a dravitic overgrowth.

639 Relative timing of dravite rim growth and acquisition of whiteschist chemistry and 640 mineralogy. The presence of a dravitic overgrowth on the igneous tourmaline included in 641 chloritoid is the key observation constraining the chronology of the metasomatic alteration 642 relative to high-pressure Alpine metamorphism. An example is shown in Figure 11, where the 643 broken and resorbed igneous tourmaline core is overgrown by a thin dravitic rim and is 644 included in chloritoid. We suggest that tourmaline was included in chloritoid after the formation 645 of dravitic rim. Chloritoid likely grew in the whiteschist on the prograde leading to Alpine high-646 pressure metamorphism, at the expense of a low-grade assemblage of chlorite, mica and quartz 647 (Chopin and Schreyer 1983; Franz 2013). As shown in Figures 11a and 11b, chloritoid is 648 partially replaced by a retrograde assemblage consisting of chlorite and white mica. The fact 649 that the small fractures in chloritoid show no retrograde alteration suggests that they formed 650 even later during retrogression. Detailed X-ray maps reveal no dravite on these fractures. In 651 addition, dravitic rim formation around tourmaline is not geometrically linked to these late 652 fractures.

All of these observations demonstrate that metasomatic alteration must have occurred before the onset of high-pressure metamorphism. Hence, our results support the interpretation of Pawlig and Baumgarner (2001), who suggested a late magmatic hydrothermal origin for the acquisition of the whiteschist chemistry. The presently recorded whiteschist paragenesis is the result of the high-pressure metamorphism of the previously established alteration assemblage.

- 658
- 659

Implications

660 A new set of tourmaline reference materials presented here allows in-situ analysis of oxygen 661 isotope compositions with the SIMS. A wide range of tourmaline with chemical compositions 662 of the schorl-dravite solid solution series as well as Al-rich tournalines towards the elbaite end-663 member can be analyzed. The IMF is determined to be a function of Fe on the schorl-dravite 664 solid solution and of Al from schorl or dravite towards Al-rich compositions. To properly 665 correct oxygen isotope values of unknown samples we recommend, depending on chemical 666 composition of unknown sample, to mount at least two reference materials bracketing the 667 compositions of the unknowns and to analyze them regularly during the session.

Large number of studies used zoned tourmaline as a powerful tool to decipher a rock origin and history, or to monitor evolving fluids (e.g. Henry and Dutrow 1996; Dutrow and Henry 2000; Marschall and Jiang 2011; van Hinsberg et al. 2011b; Berryman et al. 2017) because tourmaline is known to be one of the most retentive minerals, present in a wide range of natural rocks. The possibility to determine oxygen isotope composition in tourmaline in-situ, by using the new reference material set, and to decipher precise information from each tourmaline zone, could expand the applicability of this mineral.

675 The present work provides an example of how in-situ oxygen isotope analyses in tourmaline, 676 complemented with major element chemistry and textural observations, can help to decipher the 677 debated origin of Monte Rosa whiteschist and give insights on relative timing of formation. The 678 protolith of the whiteschist are the associated granitic rocks of the Monte Rosa massif, as was 679 previously proposed by Pawlig and Baumgartner (2001). Tourmaline retained its igneous 680 composition in the core despite intense bulk composition alteration and subsequent high-681 pressure Alpine metamorphism. These environmental changes are reflected by the formation of 682 tourmaline overgrowths with a new chemical composition and isotopic signature. The ability of 683 tourmaline to retain its chemical and boron isotopic composition throughout strongly changing 684 conditions was already demonstrated in previous studies (e.g. Henry and Dutrow 1996; 685 Marschall et al. 2008; Marschall and Jiang 2011; van Hinsberg et al. 2011b; Berryman et al. 686 2017). Here we show for the first time, that this is also the case for oxygen isotopes. These 687 features elucidate once again the advantage of slow volume diffusion of tourmaline over fast 688 diffusion minerals, like quartz. In this study, we also show that quartz completely changes its 689 isotopic signature with changing conditions. Even where it is included in the igneous core of a 690 tourmaline, through small fractures it is able to exchange and to equilibrate with the matrix.

691

692

Acknowledgments

We gratefully acknowledge funding by the Swiss National Science Foundation (grants 200020-153094 and 200020-172513 supported research by KM and 200021-165756 supporting research by CL. BD gratefully acknowledges the support of the Herbette Foundation and the Swiss National Science Foundation - International Short Visit program which facilitated her sabbatical research on tourmaline and SIMS work at University of Lausanne, and the NSF

EAR-1551434 which facilitated portions of this study. We thank Torsten Vennemann for generous access to the stable isotope laboratory. We thank Laurent Nicod for preparation of excellent thin sections. Martin Robyr assisted us with the EMP and Pierre Vonlanthen with the SEM. We also thank Florence Bégué and Florent Plane for their help with the tuning of the SIMS. Darrell Henry is thanked for providing input on various aspects of this project and for suggesting the quartz inclusion in tourmaline study. Thoughtful and constructive reviews by Horst Marschall and Simon Harley improved the manuscript and are gratefully acknowledged. 705 References 706 Baumgartner, L.P., and Valley, J.W. (2001) Stable isotope transport and contact metamorphic 707 fluid flow. Reviews in Mineralogy and Geochemistry, 43, 415–467. 708 Bearth, P. (1952) Geologie und Petrographie des Monte Rosa. Beitraege zur Geologischen 709 Karte der Schweiz Lf., 96, 1–94, (in German). 710 Berryman, E.J., Wunder, B., Rhede, D., Schettler, G., Franz, G. and Heinrich, W. (2016) P -711 T - X controls on Ca and Na distribution between Mg - Al tourmaline and fluid. 712 Contributions to Mineralogy and Petrology, 171:31. 713 Berryman, E.J., Kutzschbach, M., Trumbull, R.B., Meixner, A., van Hinsberg, V., Kasemann, 714 S.A., and Franz, G. (2017) Tourmaline as a petrogenetic indicator in the Pfitsch 715 Formation, Western Tauern Window, Eastern Alps. Lithos, 284, 138–155. 716 Chacko, T., Cole, D.R., and Horita, J. (2001) Equilibrium Oxygen, Hydrogen and Carbon 717 Isotope Fractionation Factors Applicable to Geologic Systems. Reviews in Mineralogy 718 and Geochemistry, 43, 1-81. 719 Chopin, C. (1981) Talc-Phengite: a Widespread Assemblage in High-Grade Pelitic 720 Blueschists of the Western Alps. Journal of Petrology, 22, 628-650. 721 Chopin, C. (1984) Coesite and pure pyrope in high-grade blueschists of the Western Alps: a 722 first record and some consequences. Contributions to Mineralogy and Petrology, 86, 723 107–118. 724 Chopin, C., and Monié, P. (1984) A unique magnesiochloritoid-bearing, high-pressure assemblage from the Monte Rosa, Western Alps: petrologic and ⁴⁰Ar-³⁹Ar radiometric 725 726 study. Contributions to Mineralogy and Petrology, 87, 388–398.

- Chopin, C., and Schreyer, W. (1983) Magnesiocarpholite and magnesiochloritoid; Two index
 minerals of pelitic blueschists and their preliminary phase relations in the model system
 MgO-Al₂O₃-SiO₂-H₂O. American Journal of Science, 283-A, 72–96.
- Coplen, T.B., Kendall, C., and Hopple, J. (1983) Comparison of stable isotope reference
 samples. Nature, 302, 236–238.
- Dal Piaz, G.V. (2001) Geology of the Monte Rosa massif: historical review and personal
 comments. Schweizerische Mineralogische und Petrographische Mitteilungen, 81, 275–
 303.
- Dutrow, B.L., and Henry, D.J. (2000) Complexly zoned fibrous tourmaline, Cruzeiro mine,
 Minas Gerais, Brazil: A record of evolving magmatic and hydrothermal fluids. Canadian
 Mineralogist, 38, 131–143.
- Eiler, J.M., Baumgartner, L.P., and Valley, J.W. (1992) Intercrystalline stable isotope
 diffusion: a fast grain boundary model. Contributions to Mineralogy and Petrology, 112,
 543–557.
- Eiler, J.M., Graham, C., and Valley, J.W. (1997) SIMS analysis of oxygen isotopes: matrix
 effects in complex minerals and glasses. Chemical Geology, 138, 221–244.
- Eiler, J.M., Valley, J.W., and Baumgartner, L.P. (1993) A New Look at Stable-Isotope
 Thermometry. Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta, 57, 2571–2583.
- Ferrando, S., Frezzotti, M.L., Petrelli, M., and Compagnoni, R. (2009) Metasomatism of
 continental crust during subduction: the UHP whiteschists from the Southern Dora-Maira
 Massif (Italian Western Alps). Journal of Metamorphic Geology, 27, 739–756.
- 748 Franz, L., Romer, R.L., and de Capitani, C. (2013) Protoliths and phase petrology of

749

whiteschists. Contributions to Mineralogy and Petrology, 166, 255–274.

- 750 Gonfiantini, R., Tonarini, S., Gröning, M., Adorni-Braccesi, A., Al-Ammar, A.S., Astner, M.,
- 751 Bächler, S., Barnes, R.M., Bassett, R.L., Cocherie, A., Deyhle, A., Dini, A., Ferrara, G.,
- 752 Gaillardet, J., Grimm, J., Guerrot, C., Krähenbühl, U., Layne, G., Lemarchand, D.,
- 753 Meixner, A., Northington, D.J., Pennisi, M., Reitznerová, E., Rodushkin, I., Sugiura, N.,
- Surberg, R., Tonn, S., Wiedenbeck, M., Wunderli, S. Xiao, Y., and Zack, T. (2003)
- 755 Intercomparison of Boron Isotope and Concentration Measurements. Part II: Evaluation756 of Results. Geostandards Newsletter, 27, 41-57.
- Grew, E.S., Chernosky, J.V., Werding, G., Abraham, K., Marquez, N., and Hinthorne, J.R.
 (1990) Chemistry of Kornerupine and Associated Minerals, a Wet Chemical, Ion
 Microprobe, and X-Ray Study Emphasizing Li, Be, B and F Contents. Journal of
 Petrology, 31, 1025–1070.
- Grew, E.S., Pertsev, N.N., Boronikhin, V.A., Borisovskiy, S.Y., Yates, M.G., and Marquez,
 N. (1991) Serendibite in the Tayozhnoye deposit of the Aldan Shield, eastern Siberia,
 U.S.S.R. American Mineralogist, 76, 1061–1080.
- Harder, H. (1970) Boron content of sediments as a tool in facies analysis. Sedimentary
 Geology, 4, 153–175.
- Henry, D.J., and Dutrow, B.L. (1996) Metamorphic tourmaline and its petrologic
 applications. (L.M. Anovitz, Ed.)Reviews in Mineralogy and Geochemistry, 33, 503–
 557.
- Henry, D.J., and Guidotti, C.V. (1985) Tourmaline as a petrogenetic indicator mineral- An
 example from the staurolite-grade metapelites of NW Maine. American Mineralogist, 70,
 1–15.

Henry, D.J., Novák, M., Hawthorne, F.C., Ertl, A., Dutrow, B.L., Uher, P., and Pezzotta, F.
(2011) Nomenclature of the tourmaline-supergroup minerals. American Mineralogist, 96,
895–913.

775 Ickert, R.B., and Stern, R.A. (2013) Matrix Corrections and Error Analysis in High-Precision

SIMS 18O/16O Measurements of Ca–Mg–Fe Garnet. Geostandards and Geoanalytical
Research, 37, 429–448.

- Jiang, S.-Y. (1998) Stable and radiogenic isotope studies of tourmaline: an overview. Journal
 of the Czech Geological Society, 43, 75–90.
- Johannes, W., and Holtz, F. (1996) Petrogenesis and Experimental Petrology of Granitic
 Rocks, 1 p. (P.J. Wyllie, A. El Coesy, W. von Engelhardt, & T. Hahn, Eds.) Vol. 22.
 Springer Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg.
- Kita, N.T., Ushikubo, T., Fu, B., and Valley, J.W. (2009) High precision SIMS oxygen
 isotope analysis and the effect of sample topography. Chemical Geology, 264, 43–57.
- Kotzer, T.G., Kyser, T.K., King, R.W., and Kerrich, R. (1993) An empirical oxygen- and
 hydrogen-isotope geothermometer for quartz-tourmaline and tourmaline-water.
 Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta, 57, 3421–3426.
- Lacroix, B., and Vennemann, T. (2015) Empirical calibration of the oxygen isotope
 fractionation between quartz and Fe–Mg-chlorite. Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta,
 149, 21–31.
- London, D., Morgan, G.B., VI, and Wolf, M.B. (1996) Boron in granitic rocks and their
 contact aureoles. Reviews in Mineralogy and Geochemistry, 33, 299–330.
- The The Terror T

thesis, University of Lausanne, Switzerland.

- Lussier, A.J., Aguiar, P.M., Michaelis, V.K., Kroeker, S., and Hawthorne, F.C. (2009) The
 occurrence of tetrahedrally coordinated Al and B in tourmaline: An 11B and 27Al MAS
 NMR study. American Mineralogist, 94, 785–792.
- Lussier, A.J., Hawthorne, F.C., Michaelis, V.K., Aguiar, P.M., and Kroeker, S. (2011)
 Elbaite-liddicoatite from Black Rapids glacier, Alaska. Periodico Di Mineralogia 80, 57–
 73.
- Lyon, I.C., Saxton, J.M., and Turner, G. (1994) Isotopic Fractionation in Secondary
 Ionization Mass-Spectrometry. Rapid Communications in Mass Spectrometry, 8, 837–
 803 843.
- Marschall, H.R., Altherr, R., Kalt, A., and Ludwig, T. (2008) Detrital, metamorphic and
 metasomatic tourmaline in high-pressure metasediments from Syros (Greece): intra-grain
 boron isotope patterns determined by secondary-ion mass spectrometry. Contributions to
 Mineralogy and Petrology, 155, 703–717.
- Marschall, H.R., and Jiang, S.-Y. (2011) Tourmaline Isotopes: No Element Left Behind.
 Elements, 7, 313–319.
- Matthews, A., Putlitz, B., Hamiel, Y., and Hervig, R.L. (2003) Volatile transport during the
 crystallization of anatectic melts: oxygen, boron and hydrogen stable isotope study on the
 metamorphic complex of Naxos, Greece. Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta, 67, 3145–
 3163.
- McCaig, A.M., Titarenko, S.S., Savov, I.P., Cliff, R.A., Banks, D., Boyce, A., Agostini, S.
 (2018) No significant boron in the hydrated mantle of most subducting slabs. Nature

816 Communications, 9, 1–10.

- 817 Norton, D.L., and Dutrow, B.L. (2001) Complex behavior of magma-hydrothermal
 818 processes: role of supercritical fluid. Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta, 65, 4009–4017.
- 819 Novák, M., Ertl, A., Povondra, P., Galiova, M.V., Rossman, G.R., Pristacz, H., Prem, M., 820 Giester, G., Gadas, P., R. and Skoda, (2013)Darrellhenryite, 821 Na(LiAl2)Al6(BO3)3Si6O18(OH)3O, a new mineral from the tourmaline supergroup. 822 American Mineralogist, 98, 1886–1892.
- O'Neil, J.R., Shaw, S.E., and Flood, R.H. (1977) Oxygen and hydrogen isotope compositions
 as indicators of granite genesis in the New England Batholith, Australia. Contributions to
 Mineralogy and Petrology, 62, 313–328.
- Page, F.Z., Kita, N.T., and Valley, J.W. (2010) Ion microprobe analysis of oxygen isotopes in
 garnets of complex chemistry. Chemical Geology, 270, 9–19.
- Pawlig, S. (2001) Geological Evolution of the Monte Rosa: Constraints from Geochronology
 and Geochemistry of a Talc-Kyanite-Chloritoid Shear Zone within the Monte Rosa
 Granite (Monte Rosa Nappe, Italian Western Alps), 149 p. Ph.D. thesis, University of
 Lausanne, Switzerland.
- Pawlig, S., and Baumgartner, L.P. (2001) Geochemistry of a talc-kyanite-chloritoid shear
 zone within the Monte Rosa granite, Val d'Ayas, Italy. Schweizerische Mineralogische
 und Petrographische Mitteilungen, 81, 329–346.
- Peres, P., Kita, N.T., Valley, J.W., Fernandes, F., and Schuhmacher, M. (2013) New sample
 holder geometry for high precision isotope analyses. (E. Napolitani, D. Giubertoni, M.
 Bersani, M. Anderle, & A. Licciardello, Eds.)Surface and Interface Analysis, 45, 553–

838 556.

- Pesquera, A., Gil-Crespo, P.P., Torres-Ruiz, F., Torres-Ruiz, J., and Roda-Robles, E. (2016)
 A multiple regression method for estimating Li in tourmaline from electron microprobe
 analyses. Mineralogical Magazine, 80, 1129–1133.
- Putlitz, B., Valley, J.W., Matthews, A., and Katzir, Y. (2002) Oxygen isotope thermometry of
 quartz–Al₂SiO₅ veins in high-grade metamorphic rocks on Naxos island (Greece).
 Contributions to Mineralogy and Petrology, 143, 350–359.
- Quinn, R.J., Kitajima, K., Nakashima, D., Spicuzza, M.J., and Valley, J.W. (2016) Oxygen
 isotope thermometry using quartz inclusions in garnet. Journal of Metamorphic Geology,
 35, 231–252.
- Riciputi, L.R., Paterson, B.A., and Ripperdan, R.L. (1998) Measurement of light stable
 isotope ratios by SIMS: Matrix effects for oxygen, carbon, and sulfur isotopes in
 minerals. International Journal of Mass Spectrometry, 178, 81–112.
- Rumble, D. (1982) Stable isotope fractionation during metamorphic devolatilization
 reactions. Reviews in Mineralogy and Geochemistry, 10, 327–353.
- Schreyer, W. (1973) Whiteschist: A High-Pressure Rock and its Geologic Significance. The
 Journal of Geology, 81, 735–739.
- Schreyer, W. (1977) Whiteschists: Their compositions and pressure-temperature regimes
 based on experimental, field, and petrographic evidence. Tectonophysics, 43, 127–144.
- 857 Schroeer, J.M., Rhodin, T.N., and Bradley, R.C. (1973) A quantum-mechanical model for the
- ionization and excitation of atoms during sputtering. Surface Science, 34, 571–580.

- 859 Seitz, S., Baumgartner, L.P., Bouvier, A.-S., Putlitz, B., and Vennemann, T. (2016) Quartz
 860 Reference Materials for Oxygen Isotope Analysis by SIMS. Geostandards and
 861 Geoanalytical Research, 41, 69-75.
- Sharp, Z.D. (1990) A laser-based microanalytical method for the in situ determination of
 oxygen isotope ratios of silicates and oxides. Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta, 54,
 1353–1357.
- Sharp, Z.D., Essene, E.J., and Hunziker, J.C. (1993) Stable isotope geochemistry and phase
 equilibria of coesite-bearing whiteschists, Dora Maira Massif, western Alps.
 Contributions to Mineralogy and Petrology, 114, 1–12.
- Shimizu, N., and Hart, S.R. (1982) Isotope fractionation in secondary ion mass spectrometry.
 Journal of Applied Physics, 53, 1303–1311.
- Siron, G., Baumgartner, L.P., Bouvier, A.-S., Putlitz, B., and Vennemann, T. (2016) Biotite
 Reference Materials for SIMS 18O/16O Measurements. Geostandards and Geoanalytical
 Research, 41, 243–253.
- Steck, A., Masson, H., and Robyr, M. (2015) Tectonics of the Monte Rosa and surrounding
 nappes (Switzerland and Italy): Tertiary phases of subduction, thrusting and folding in
 the Pennine Alps. Swiss Journal of Geosciences, 108, 3–34.
- Śliwiński, M.G., Kitajima, K., Kozdon, R., Spicuzza, M.J., Fournelle, J.H., Denny, A., and
 Valley, J.W. (2016) Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry Bias on Isotope Ratios in
 Dolomite–Ankerite, Part I: δ180 Matrix Effects. Geostandards and Geoanalytical
 Research, 40, 157–172.
- 880 Tonarini, S., Dini, A., and Pezzotta, F. (1998) Boron isotopic composition of zoned

- 881 (schorlelbaite) tourmalines, Mt. Capanne Li-Cs pegmatites, Elba (Italy). European
 882 Journal of Mineralogy, 10, 941–951.
- Tonarini, S., Pennisi, M., Adorni-Braccesi, A., Dini, A., Ferrara, G., Gonfiantini, R.,
 Wiedenbeck, M., and Gröning, M. (2003) Intercomparison of Boron Isotope and
 Concentration Measurements. Part I: Selection, Preparation and Homogeneity Tests of
 the Intercomparison Materials. Geostandards and Geoanalytical Research 27, 21–39.
- 887 Valley, J.W. (2001) Stable Isotope Thermometry at High Temperatures. Reviews in
 888 Mineralogy and Geochemistry, 43, 365–413.
- 889 Valley, J.W., and Kita, N.T. (2009) In situ oxygen isotope geochemistry by ion microprobe.
- In M. Fayek, Ed., MAC Short Course: Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry in the Earth
 Sciences Vol. 41, 19–63.
- van Hinsberg, V., Henry, D.J., and Dutrow, B.L. (2011a) Tourmaline as a Petrologic Forensic
 Mineral: A Unique Recorder of Its Geologic Past. Elements, 7, 327–332.
- 894 van Hinsberg, V., Henry, D.J., and Marschall, H.R. (2011b) Tourmaline: an ideal indicator of
- its host environment. The Canadian Mineralogist, 49, 1–16.
- von Goerne, G., Franz, G. and van Hinsberg, V.J. (2011) Experimental determination of Na-
- 897 Ca distribution between tourmaline and fluid in the system CaO-Na₂O-MgO-Al₂O₃-SiO₂-
- B2O₃-H₂O. The Canadian Mineralogist, 49, 137–152.
- Williams, P. (1979) The sputtering process and sputtered ion emission. Surface Science, 90,
 588–634.
- Yu, M.L., and Lang, N.D. (1986) Mechanisms of atomic ion emission during sputtering.
 Nuclear Instruments and Methods in Physics Research Section B: Beam Interactions with

903

- Materials and Atoms, 14, 403–413.
- 2 Zheng, Y.-F. (1993) Calculation of oxygen isotope fractionation in hydroxyl-bearing
 silicates. Earth and Planetary Science Letters, 120, 247–263.

906

- 907
- 908

Figure captions

Figure 1. (a) Location map placing the Monte Rosa nappe within the Western Alps framework (modified after Dal Piaz (2001) and Steck et al., (2015)). (b) Sketch of the whiteschist outcrop, illustrating the relationship between metagranitie and whiteschist. A late greenschist facies shear zone overprinted the whiteschist (see Pawlig and Baumgartner (2001)). Red stars present the location of whiteschist samples in the outcrop. (c) Metaleucogranitic dikes crosscut porphyritic K-feldspar metagranite; both contain tourmaline. (d) Whiteschist, with dark chloritoid crystals in a matrix of talc, white mica and quartz.

916

917 Figure 2. The chemistry of tourmaline reference materials plotted in tourmaline classification 918 diagrams of Henry et al. (2011) and Henry and Guidotti (1985). (a) Ternary system for the 919 primary tourmaline group classification based on X-site occupancy. All reference tourmalines 920 belong to the alkali-group. (b) Ternary system for general tourmaline series classification 921 based on W-site occupancy. The reference material set contains two oxy-, four hydroxy- and 922 one fluor tourmaline. (c) Ternary diagram for Li- and Mn-bearing tourmaline species based 923 on Y-site occupancy, assuming X-site is Na+K dominant and Z-site is fully occupied by Al. 924 Note that Al-rich tourmalines are two darellhenryites and one elbaite. (d) Ternary system for 925 tourmaline species classification based on Y+Z-site occupancy. The chemical range of 926 reference materials covers most important metamorphic and igneous tourmaline
927 compositions, e.g. schorl-dravite-elbaite. Black squares represent end-member compositions.
928

Figure 3. (a) The instrumental mass fractionation (IMF) is a linear function of Fe (apfu) and Al_{tot} (apfu). This is illustrated in the excellent correlation in measured versus calculated IMF obtained for an individual SIMS session (see text for further explanations). (b) Illustration of the variation of IMF with chemical parameters: Fe (apfu) (solid solution dravite-schorl) and Al_{tot} (apfu) (solid solution schorl-elbaite-darrellhenryite). Note that the effect on IMF of Fe-Mg exchange is larger than the Al₁Li₁-Fe₂ exchange. Error bars are uncertainties of the IMF (s_{IMF}) determined as described in the text. Black squares represent end-member compositions.

936

937 Figure 4: Photomicrographs in plane-polarized light (ppl) showing representative textures of 938 studied samples. (a) - (c) Metagranite (15MR40). (a) Tournaline occurs as small crystals 939 included in K-feldspar. Igneous plagioclase is mostly replaced by zoisite, albite and white 940 mica. (b) The high-pressure assemblage of phengite, titanite and garnet completely or 941 partially replaced igneous biotite. (c) Tourmaline within the metagranite displays an orange-942 brownish core with a darker grey-blue overgrowth (viewed parallel to the c-axes); the 943 tourmaline in the upper left corner illustrates a cut nearly perpendicular to the c-axes. A 944 quartz inclusions and thin overgrowths can be observed. (d) - (e) Meta-leucogranite 945 (15MR34). (d) Typical assemblage in the meta-leucogranite sample contains large tourmaline 946 crystals, which are part of K-feldspar, plagioclase, white mica, and quartz matrix. Rare 947 igneous garnet is present. The igneous tourmaline core displays a rounded, lighter blue-green 948 inner zone and a greenish outer zone. Note the tiny fractures fragmenting the tourmaline. (e) 949 Tourmaline cut parallel to c-axes, displays igneous green-brownish zones (see Fig. 4d). A 950 small, distinct dark-blue overgrowth covers the outside and the fracture walls of the

951 tourmaline. (f) – (k) Whiteschists. (f) The deformed whiteschist sample 16MR36 is composed 952 mainly of quartz, white mica and chloritoid. The greenschist facies assemblage, chlorite and 953 white mica, partially replace chloritoid and is associated with deformation. Dashed lines 954 represent the foliation. Zoned tourmaline grains are present in the matrix. (g) Chlorite and 955 sericite nearly completely replace chloritoid in the quartz-rich, deformed whiteschist sample 956 16MR44, suggesting that the deformation occurred during greenschist facies overprint. (h) 957 The whiteschist sample 16MR39 shows only minor retrogression. A matrix of talc, white 958 mica, chlorite, sericite and quartz contains large grains of chloritoid. Tourmaline is found in 959 the matrix and as inclusions in chloritoid. (i) Tourmaline from the whiteschist 16MR36 960 illustrates the typical zonation: igneous core with a light blue roundish inner core and a 961 slightly irregular and resorbed dark greenish-blue outer zone. It is overgrown by a pale beige-962 yellowish rim. The dashed line follows the outer border of the crystal. Fractures are filled with 963 the same beige-yellowish tourmaline. (j) Zoned tourmaline grain with inclusions of quartz 964 (whiteschist 16MR44). Small elliptic spots are locations of SIMS analysis. (k) Examples of 965 greenish-blue resorbed tourmaline cores and hypidiomorphic pale beige-yellowish metamorphic overgrowth. Mineral abbreviations: ab - albite, bt - biotite, chl - chlorite, cld -966 967 chloritoid, czo – clinozoisite, grt – garnet, kfs – K-feldspar, ph – phengite, pl – plagioclase, qz 968 - quartz, ser - sericite, tlc - talc, ttn - titanite, tur - tourmaline, wm - white mica, zo - zoisite.

969

970

Figure 5: Tourmaline compositions plotted in an Al-(Fe+Mn)-Mg diagram. Cores of tourmaline crystals from meta-leucogranite and whiteschist plot in the same place. Note that cores and rims have distinct chemical compositions: tourmaline core (dark symbols) and tourmaline rim (light symbols) for all studied samples. The compositions of the reference material used for oxygen isotope analysis are shown for comparison. The diagram is modified

976 after Henry and Guidotti (1985): A – granitic rocks, B – metamorphic rocks, C – Fe³⁺-rich
977 rocks. Black squares represent end-member compositions.

978

Figure 6: Mg-X-ray maps and major element profiles of representative tourmalines from the three studied rock types (i.e. metagranite, meta-leucogranite and whiteschist). Note the similarity in composition and zoning of tourmaline cores from whiteschist and metaleucogranite. Tourmaline in metagranite shows different zoning and composition. Tourmaline rims in whiteschist are dravite (red). The fractures are also filled with the same Mg-rich tourmaline.

985

Figure 7: Histograms of δ^{18} O values for quartz and tourmaline from metagranite, meta-986 987 leucogranite, and three whiteschists samples are plotted. The oxygen isotope composition of 988 quartz reveals a similar, narrow range for metagranite and meta-leucogranite. The average 989 values are 13.6‰ and 13.9‰, respectively. The average oxygen isotope composition of 990 quartz in the whiteschist is lower at 11.5%. The average oxygen isotope ratios of tourmalines 991 in metagranite and meta-leucogranite define a narrow range of 11.0‰ and 11.5‰, respectively. The δ^{18} O values of whiteschist tournaline show two distinct oxygen isotope 992 993 signatures: an average of 11.3‰ for the core and 9.3‰ for the rim.

994

Figure 8: Locations and values of oxygen isotope SIMS analysis are plotted on backscatter electron images (BSE). White diamonds are δ^{18} O values measured on tourmaline and circles represent values for quartz. (a) Metagranite (15MR40): The igneous tourmaline crystal is homogenous in δ^{18} O despite chemical zonation observed (see BSE image and Figure 6a). No difference in δ^{18} O is observed between quartz in the matrix and quartz included in

1000 tourmaline. (b) Meta-leucogranite (15MR34): Tourmaline (core and rim) and quartz are 1001 homogeneous in their respective oxygen isotope signature. (c) Whiteschist (16MR39): The dravitic rim (black) has up to 2‰ lower δ^{18} O values than the igneous core. Quartz inclusions 1002 1003 within the tourmaline core show the same oxygen isotope composition as quartz in the 1004 matrix. (d) The inner part of the tourmaline is homogeneous in oxygen isotopes despite visible zonations. Quartz inclusions have the same δ^{18} O values as quartz in the matrix. Note 1005 1006 abundant fractures (arrows) within the tourmaline core, which are filled with dravite (black) 1007 of the same composition as the rim. The error of measurements is $\pm 0.3\%$ (2SD).

1008

1009 **Figure 9:** The δ - δ plot illustrates the distribution of in-situ oxygen isotopic analyses for 1010 quartz-tourmaline pairs. The isotherms plotted are based on the equation of Matthews et al. 1011 (2003). Tourmaline-quartz pairs in metagranite and meta-leucogranite yield equilibrium 1012 temperatures of 500° to 650°C. Tournaline rims (bright symbols) and quartz pairs in 1013 whiteschists also define a quite narrow range along the isotherms. Finally, igneous 1014 tourmaline cores (dark symbols with white dots) in whiteschist were paired with their quartz 1015 inclusions. Tourmaline maintained its igneous composition, while quartz inclusions re-1016 equilibrated with matrix quartz.

Figure 10: Detailed Mg-X-ray map of a whiteschist tourmaline (16MR44) reveals abundant fracturing of the old igneous tourmaline core. Fractures are filled with dravite of the same composition as the rim (red), demonstrating that the fracture network predates dravite growth. Black diamonds are oxygen isotope values obtained for tourmaline; white circles are δ^{18} O values of quartz. The network of micro-fractures connected the quartz inclusions with the matrix promoting isotopic exchange. The error of measurements is $\pm 0.3\%$ (2SD). Mineral abbreviations are the same as in Figure 4. 1024

1025 Figure 11: (a) Plane-polarized light (ppl) photomicrographs and (b) line drawing showing an 1026 example of tourmaline grains included in relict chloritoid in a whiteschist. The alteration 1027 zone around chloritoid is composed of sericite and chlorite. It formed during retrogression to 1028 greenschist facies after the Alpine high-pressure event. Fine vertical lines highlight the 1029 cleavage and the sub-horizontal partings. (c) - (d) X-ray maps calculated using the intensity 1030 of Mg+50*Na to highlight the locations of dravite (yellow). Dravite was precipitated on the 1031 rim and on fracture walls of the igneous tourmaline. In contrast, no dravite is observed in 1032 cleavages or partings of chloritoid. These observations show that a) fracturing of tourmaline 1033 occurred prior to dravite growth; b) tourmaline included in chloritoid always has dravitic 1034 overgrowths; and c) dravite growth is not linked to the cleavage or partings of the chloritoid. 1035 Hence dravite growth started prior to inclusion in the chloritoid, hence pre-peak high-1036 pressure. For further implications for timing of metasomatism and metamorphism see text. 1037 Mineral abbreviations are the same as in Figure 4.

1038

1039

1040

Table 1. Source and description of the tourmaline reference materials

IAEA-B-4

Schorl, black prismatic crystals, 2-3 cm long, from Rosina pegmatite dyke hosted in a monzogranite, San Piero in Campo, Elba Island. A certified tourmaline reference material for boron isotopes from the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA). Described in Tonarini et al. (2003) and Gonfiantini et al. (2003). Provided by A. Dini as crushed grains as well as crystals.

UNIL-T1

Schorl, black to dark bluish, 2 cm long, overgrowth of an elbaite, from a cordierite- and tourmaline-bearing leucogranite, Catri, Elba Island. Described in Tonarini et al. (1998) as N2b. Provided by A. Dini as crushed grains.

UNIL-T2

Dravite, 3 x 4 cm, honey-brown, translucide euhedral zoned crystal, with a bright core (1 cm) and a darker overgrowth, containing minor rutile and quartz inclusions. Only the overgrowth was established as reference material. Origin is Nepal. Purchased from HAUSEN Mineraliengrosshandel GmbH.

UNIL-T3

Schorl, black thin prismatic crystal, 3-5 cm long, from North Pakistan. Provided by B. Dutrow as a single crystal.

UNIL-T4

Darrellhernryite, pale pink, 1.5-2 cm long, overgrown by a schorl, from a cordierite- and tourmaline-bearing leucogranite, Catri, Elba Island. Contains minor quartz inclusions. Described in Tonarini et al. (1998) as N2a elbaite. Provided by A. Dini as crushed grains.

UNIL-T5

Darrellhernryite, pale green to yellow, 2.5-3 cm long, from S.Silvestro dike hosted in monzogranite, San Piero in Campo, Elba Island. Described in Tonarini et al. (1998) as N1c/a elbaite. Provided by A. Dini as crushed grains.

UNIL-T6

Fluor-Elbaite, light pink euhedral core overgrown by green liddicoatite rim, 2 x 1.5 cm slice, from Black Rapids glacier, Alaska. Described as AT6 in Lussier et al. (2009) and Lussier et al. (2011). Provided by B. Dutrow as a 1 cm thick slice.

		IAEA-B-4	UNIL-T1	UNIL-T2	UNIL-T3	UNIL-T4	UNIL-T5	UNIL-T6
		schorl	schorl	dravite	schorl	darrellhenryite	darrellhenryite	fluor-elbaite
# grains (# a	analyses)	6 (n = 78)	7 (n = 87)	6 (n = 84)	8 (n = 99)	6 (n = 85)	6 (n = 84)	7 (n = 102)
$B_2O_3^{*}$		10.30	10.16	10.80	10.33	11.03	10.84	10.97
SiO ₂		34.61	34.04	36.46	35.07	37.38	36.77	37.59
Al ₂ O ₃		34.86	34.56	33.73	33.53	44.78	42.55	41.99
TiO ₂		0.31	0.02	0.37	0.10	b.d.l. ^a	0.06	b.d.l. ^a
FeO		13.47	14.30	0.81	12.99	b.d.l. ^a	0.16	0.02
MnO		0.43	0.78	b.d.l. ^a	0.12	0.10	3.17	0.05
MgO		0.68	b.d.l. ^a	10.72	2.22	b.d.l. ^a	b.d.l. ^a	b.d.l. ^a
Li ₂ O*		0.13	0.10		0.10	1.23	0.94	1.88
CaO		0.10	0.12	0.22	0.17	0.05	0.03	1.56
Na ₂ O		1.56	1.57	2.56	1.67	1.78	1.94	1.58
K ₂ O		0.03	0.02	0.08	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01
F		0.15	0.12	0.21	0.05	0.36	0.62	0.94
H ₂ O*		3.30	3.38	3.58	3.48	3.21	2.96	3.23
O=F **		-0.06	-0.05	-0.09	-0.02	-0.15	-0.24	-0.39
Total		99.89	99.11	99.45	99.84	99.77	99.83	99.43
			Normalization b	ased on 15 Y+Z+	r cations - order	red formula		
B site:	В*	3.000	3.000	3.000	3.000	3.000	3.000	3.000
T site:	Si	5.840	5.865	5.912	5.899	5.886	5.893	5.953
	Al	0.160	0.135	0.088	0.101	0.114	0.107	0.047
Z site:	AI	6.000	6.000	6.000	6.000	6.000	6.000	6.000
Y site:	Al	0.775	0.774	0.320	0.546	2.209	1.935	1.791
	Ti	0.041	0.006	0.048	0.013		0.007	
	Fe	1.906	2.100	0.105	1.798		0.021	0.003
	Mn	0.061	0.092		0.017	0.014	0.432	0.008
	Mg	0.171		2.527	0.559			
	Li*	0.045	0.028		0.067	0.777	0.604	1.197
X site:	Са	0.019	0.021	0.038	0.031	0.009	0.006	0.265
	Na	0.511	0.520	0.797	0.545	0.543	0.604	0.485
	К	0.007	0.004	0.017	0.005	0.001	0.002	0,002
	×	0.463	0.455	0.149	0.419	0.446	0.388	0.248
V site:	OH*	3.000	3.000	3.000	3.000	3.000	3.000	3.000
W-site:	OH*	0.727	0.783	0.780	0.906	0.205	0.089	0.290
	F	0.077	0.056	0.109	0.024	0.233	0.345	0.469
	0*	0.196	0.161	0.110	0.070	0.561	0.566	0.241
Al (total)		6.934	6.910	6.408	6.647	8.323	8.042	7.839
		0.08	0.00	0.96	0.24	-	-	-

 Table 2. Chemical composition of tourmaline reference materials (oxides in wt.%).

^a b.d.l. - below detection limit

	Laser fluorination (LF)				SIMS homogeneity tests				
Sample	δ^{18} O (‰) ^a	1SD (‰)	n	date	2SD (‰)	# grains	n		
	11.00	0.08	G	17-Dec-16	0.45	6	36		
IALA-D-4	11.09	0.08	O	12-Apr-17	0.35	2	12		
UNIL-T1	10.82	0.04	4	17-Dec-16	0.35	7	39		
				14-Apr-17	0.38	3	24		
UNIL-T2	7.63	0.10	8	21-Oct-17	0.34	3 profiles	35		
				21-Oct-17	0.32	core-rim profile	29		
UNIL-T3	10.37	0.08	4	14-Apr-17	0.33	2	18		
UNIL-T4	11.32	0.04	4	17-Dec-16	0.37	6	33		
UNIL-T5	11.29	0.05	4	17-Dec-16	0.21	4	20		
UNIL-T6	12.43	0.09	4	12-Apr-17	0.21	4	48		
Notes : n = numbe	r of roplicatos (LE)	or number of spot	te (SINAS)						

Table 3. Oxygen isotope reference values determined by laser fluorination (LF) and reproducibility of oxygen
isotopes evaluated by secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS). LF: Uncertainties refer to 1 standard deviation
(1SD) of the mean. SIMS: Reproducibility expressed as double standard deviations (2SD) of the mean.

Notes : n = number of replicates (LF) or number of spots (SIMS)

 a Data are corrected and normalized to quartz NBS-28 (accepted $\,\delta^{18}$ O value is 9.64‰ relative to VSMOW)

Table 4. Results of three calibration sessions to investigate the dependence of the instrumental mass fractionation (IMF) on the chemical compositions of tourmaline.

	IAEA-B-4	UNIL-T1	UNIL-T2	UNIL-T3	UNIL-T4	UNIL-T5	UNIL-T6
16-Apr-17							
SIMS value ^a (‰)	6.61	6.36	4.18	6.08	6.32	6.50	7.93
IMF (‰)	4.48	4.46	3.45	5.24	4.05	4.79	4.50
s _{IMF} ^b (‰)	0.12	0.15	0.14	0.24	0.09	0.09	0.18
n	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
26-Nov-17							
SIMS value ^a (‰)	8.94	8.37	7.20	8.37	9.04	9.06	10.42
IMF (‰)	2.15	2.45	0.43	2.95	1.33	2.23	2.01
s _{IMF} ^b (‰)	0.13	0.08	0.11	0.11	0.10	0.12	0.13
n	14	14	9	14	14	15	11
05-March-18							
SIMS value ^a (‰)	9.80	9.27	7.95	8.94	-	9.61	11.03
IMF (‰)	1.29	1.55	-0.32	2.38	-	1.68	1.40
s _{IMF} ^b (‰)	0.10	0.12	0.16	0.15	-	0.25	0.12
n	6	3	14	3	-	3	7

Notes: n = number of measurements done during analytical session

^aaverage of all measurements; ^bmeasurement uncertainty of the IMF, calculated as described in text







Figure 4





Figure 6



Figure 7





• $\delta^{18}O$ quartz (± 0.3 ‰)

 $\Diamond \delta^{18}$ O tourmaline (± 0.3 ‰)

Figure 9









Mg + 50*Na (cps)