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3 **Mixing of cogenetic magmas in the Cretaceous Zhangzhou calc-alkaline granite**
4 **from SE China recorded by in-situ apatite geochemistry**

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12

Abstract

13 Mixing of cogenetic magmas represents an important process in granite
14 petrogenesis but is difficult to identify, and is consequently often overlooked, due to
15 the absence of obvious isotopic distinctions between the mixed melts. We have
16 conducted *in-situ* elemental and O isotope analyses on apatite from Cretaceous
17 Zhangzhou calc-alkaline granite in SE China. We integrated these data with
18 microanalyses on other minerals (plagioclase, zircon and titanite) as well as
19 whole-rock geochemistry to decipher the mixing history of this granitic complex. The
20 apatite occurs as an early crystallizing phase forming inclusions in biotite, plagioclase
21 and titanite, and is characterized by core-rim zonation textures with a dark core and
22 bright rims in back-scattered images. The core domains have remarkably higher SO₃
23 and Li concentrations but much lower SiO₂, REE, and Y concentrations than the rim
24 domains. However, both the cores and rims show geochemical compositions similar
25 to that from typical I-type granite and also have mantle-like O isotope compositions
26 (the core has $\delta^{18}\text{O} = 5.3\text{-}6.8\text{‰}$ and the rim has $\delta^{18}\text{O} = 5.2\text{-}6.4\text{‰}$, respectively),
27 indicating crystallization from granitic melts derived from newly accreted crust. The
28 combined major and trace element and O isotope compositions of apatite and
29 whole-rock geochemistry suggests that compositional evolution of the Zhangzhou
30 granite involved mixing between two cogenetic magma batches, with variable degrees
31 of subsequent differentiation. Batch I magma was a low-SiO₂ and high-SO₃ melt,
32 whereas Batch II magma was a high-SiO₂ and low-SO₃ melt that experienced

33 devolatilization. The high S content in apatite cores further suggests the parental
34 magma of the Zhangzhou granite likely originated from a sulfur-rich source
35 comprising mainly newly accreted arc crust in response to subduction of the
36 paleo-Pacific Ocean. The geochemical records of these magmatic processes are rarely
37 observed in coeval zircon, titanite and plagioclase. Our study therefore demonstrates
38 that apatite geochemistry is potentially a more suitable monitor of complex magmatic
39 evolution, including devolatilization and mixing of isotopically indistinguishable
40 magmas.

41 **Keywords:** Apatite geochemistry; mixing; devolatilization; cogenetic magmas;
42 Cretaceous; SE China

43 **Introduction**

44 Granitic rock (hereafter simply referred to as granite) is a major constituent of
45 the upper continental crust and contains abundant mineral resources essential for
46 sustained economic development. The compositions of granite vary extensively and
47 can be broadly divided into I-, S-, M- and A-type based on geochemical features and
48 melting sources (Chappell and White 1974; Whalen et al. 1987). Many petrogenetic
49 hypotheses, e.g., fractional crystallization, assimilation via fractional crystallization
50 (AFC, DePaolo 1981), and magma mixing (Griffin et al. 2002), have been proposed
51 to interpret the geochemical diversity of granite. Nevertheless, it remains difficult to
52 fully understand the magmatic evolution of granite since clear geochemical evidence

53 for many hypothesized petrogenetic processes is lacking.

54 Recent techniques in studying chemistry and isotopic composition of minerals
55 such as plagioclase, titanite, zircon and apatite have become widely used petrogenetic
56 tools in supplementing or even replacing conventional bulk-rock analyses (e.g., Streck
57 2008; Lisowiec et al. 2015; Nathwani et al. 2020). However, the sensitivity or
58 applicability of these minerals in tracking magmatic processes is extremely variable
59 because they each partition (or exclude) elements (or isotopes) of specific
60 geochemical behavior and are typically relevant to only parts of a given crystallization
61 sequence. Minerals that indelibly record geochemical proxies of changing magma
62 compositions over a wide crystallization interval are rare.

63 Apatite is one such mineral, containing measurable concentrations of a range of
64 elements of various geochemical behavior, including halogens, S, rare earth elements
65 (REEs), Sr, Y (Ayers and Watson 1993; Pan and Fleet 2002; Marks et al. 2012; Harlov
66 2015; Webster and Piccoli 2015; Bruand et al. 2017), that are sensitive to specific
67 magmatic/petrogenetic processes. For example, the textural and compositional
68 variations in apatite from the Pingtan complex in SE China records both magmatic
69 evolution and post-crystallization fluid activity regardless of a narrow range in Nd
70 isotopic composition (Zhang et al. 2020). As a near-liquidus phase, apatite crystallizes
71 early in metaluminous felsic magma (Piccoli and Candela 2002; Webster and Piccoli
72 2015) and hence records early high-temperature magma compositional variations.
73 Subsequent changes in magma composition can be reflected in compositional
74 zonations of apatite because of the insignificant intracrystalline elemental diffusion

75 rates, especially for REE, S and Si (e.g., Dowty 1980; Tepper and Kuehner 1999;
76 Cherniak 2010). Accordingly, apatite may have significant advantages in terms of
77 deciphering magmatic evolution trends and processes compared with other commonly
78 used minerals such as plagioclase, titanite and zircon.

79 In this contribution, we present detailed petrographic observations and
80 systematic *in-situ* geochemical analyses (major and trace element compositions and O
81 and Sr isotopes) on apatite, zircon, titanite and plagioclase from granite of Zhangzhou
82 igneous complex, SE China. These new data, together with whole-rock geochemistry,
83 provide a fresh perspective on the role of mixing between cogenetic magmas involved
84 in the generation of Zhangzhou calc-alkaline granite and show the advantage of using
85 apatite geochemistry to track the magmatic evolution of granitoid batholiths.

86

87 **Geological backgrounds**

88 The geology of South China consists of Yangtze block in the northwest and
89 Cathaysia block in the southeast, which were amalgamated in the Neoproterozoic
90 along the Jiangnan Orogenic Belt (Fig. 1; Zhang et al. 2013). It underwent extensive
91 tectonic and magmatic activity associated with the subduction of paleo-Pacific Ocean
92 during Mesozoic (Zhou et al. 2006). The distribution of Mesozoic igneous rocks in SE
93 China is mainly controlled by several large-scale NE-trending faults such as the
94 Zhenghe-Dafu and Changle-Nan'ao faults. The magmatism consists of predominant

95 felsic lavas with minor intrusive mafic rocks (Zhou et al. 2006; Xu et al. 2020).
96 Granitic rocks exposed in this region are mainly shallow-level, calc-alkaline, I-type
97 granitoids that range from granodiorite, monzogranite to alkali-feldspar granite (Zhou
98 et al. 2006; Li et al. 2014). These rocks also show hybrid geochemical signatures
99 reflecting crust-mantle interaction that are typically observed at subduction zones (e.g.,
100 Griffin et al. 2002; Zhou et al. 2006; Guo et al. 2012; Xu et al. 2020). The
101 contemporaneous mafic intrusive rocks are mainly hornblende gabbros, which show
102 geochemical features similar to mafic arc cumulates (e.g., Li et al. 2014; Zhang et al.
103 2019).

104 The Zhangzhou batholith is located in the coastal region of Fujian province, SE
105 China. Previous studies showed emplacement ages of this batholith ranging from 97
106 to 107 Ma (Chen et al. 2013). The calc-alkaline granite occurs as the main body of the
107 batholith, consisting of granodiorite and monzogranite. In the field, abundant mafic
108 microgranular enclaves (MMEs) occur in the monzogranite and both show a sharp
109 contact relationship (Fig. 2a and b). The granodiorite is equigranular and consists of
110 plagioclase (~45 vol.%), K-feldspar (~25 vol.%), quartz (~20 vol.%) and biotite (5-8
111 vol.%), with accessory zircon, apatite, titanite, allanite and epidote. The major
112 minerals in the monzogranite are K-feldspar (~35 vol.%), quartz (~30 vol.%),
113 plagioclase (~ 25 vol.%) and biotite (~5 vol.%), with accessory zircon, apatite,
114 allanite and Fe-Ti oxides. The MMEs consist of plagioclase, biotite and quartz, with
115 or without K-feldspar, and accessory minerals include apatite, zircon, titanite, allanite,

116 and Fe-Ti oxides (Chen et al. 2013). In the granite, apatite occurs as euhedral
117 inclusions hosted in biotite, plagioclase and titanite (Fig. 2c-f). Based on field
118 observations and geochemical studies, Chen et al. (2013) proposed that the
119 calc-alkaline granite in the Zhangzhou batholith was formed by mixing between
120 mantle- and crust-derived magmas.

121 **Analytical methods**

122 **Whole-rock geochemical analyses**

123 Whole-rock major oxides were determined by wavelength X-ray fluorescence
124 spectrometry (XRF) at the Sample Solution Analytical Technology Co., Ltd., Wuhan,
125 China. About 0.5g of powder was thoroughly mixed with 3.6g $\text{Li}_2\text{B}_4\text{O}_7$, 0.4g LiF, 0.3g
126 NH_4NO_3 , and minor LiBr in a platinum crucible. It was then melted in a furnace to
127 form a glass disk for major element analysis. Trace element concentrations of the
128 samples were determined by a Perkin-Elmer ELAN 6000 inductively coupled plasma
129 mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) after acid digestion in high-pressure Teflon bombs at
130 Guangzhou Institute of Geochemistry (GIG), Chinese Academy of Sciences (CAS).
131 This involved mixing ~50 mg sample powder with 1 mL HF and 0.5 mL HNO_3 in a
132 Teflon beaker. Then the Teflon beaker was sealed in a stainless-steel bomb and heated
133 at 190°C for 48 hours. The detailed analytical procedure was reported by Liu et al.
134 (1996). The analytical errors were 5% for rare earth element (REE) and high field
135 strength element (HFSE), and 5 to ~ 10% for the other elements, based on repetitive

136 analyses of USGS standards GSR-1 (granite), GSR-2 (andesite) and GSR-3 (basalt).

137 Whole-rock Sr and Nd isotope analyses were performed with a Finnigan
138 Neptune multi-collector ICP-MS at the GIG-CAS, following the analytical procedures
139 described by Li et al. (2006). The REE and Sr were separated via cation columns, and
140 Nd fractions were further separated by HDEHP-coated Kef columns. The procedural
141 blanks were less than 200 pg for Sr and about 30 pg for Nd. The measured $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$
142 and $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ ratios were normalized to $^{86}\text{Sr}/^{88}\text{Sr} = 0.1194$ and $^{146}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd} =$
143 0.7219 , respectively. The reported $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ and $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ ratios were adjusted to
144 the NBS SRM 987 standard ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} = 0.710247 \pm 8, 2\sigma$) and the JNdi-1 standard
145 ($^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd} = 0.512115 \pm 4, 2\sigma, n=4$), respectively. Repeated analyses of NBS SRM
146 987 standard and the Shin Etsu JNdi-1 standard separately yielded mean values of
147 0.710247 ± 9 and 0.512115 ± 6 ($2\sigma, n = 3$). During whole-rock Sr-Nd isotope
148 analyses, the USGS reference BHVO-2 (basalt) yielded $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} = 0.703475 \pm 8$ ($2\sigma,$
149 $n = 6$), $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd} = 0.512981 \pm 5$ ($2\sigma, n = 6$), consistent with the recommended
150 values reported in Weis et al. (2005).

151 **Electron microprobe (EMP) analysis**

152 Backscattered electron (BSE) and cathodoluminescence (CL) images were
153 performed with a SUPRA 55 SAPPHIRE equipped with a secondary electron and
154 energy-dispersive X-ray spectrometry (EDS) detector. The concentrations of major
155 elements in apatite, titanite, and plagioclase were determined by a Cameca SX FiveFe
156 electron microprobe and JOEL JXA-8100 electron microprobe at the GIG-CAS. The

157 operating conditions were 15 kV accelerating voltage, 20 nA probe current, and 5 μm
158 spot diameter. The standards for adjustment include apatite for Ca and P, fluorite for F,
159 sodalite for Cl, albite for Na, sanidine for K, Si and Al, pyroxene for Mn, Fe, and Mg,
160 and rutile for Ti respectively. The analytical errors were within 1%.

161 **LA-ICP-MS trace element analysis**

162 Trace-element analyses of apatite, titanite and zircon were performed with a
163 Resolution M-50 laser ablation (LA) system coupled to an Agilent 7900a type
164 inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) at the GIG-CAS. The
165 detailed analytical procedure was reported in Tu et al. (2011). The diameter of the
166 laser beam was 31 μm for zircon, apatite and titanite (with 80 mJ laser energy, 6 Hz
167 ablation frequency). Helium gas carrying the ablated sample aerosol is mixed with
168 argon carrier gas prior to introduction into the ICP-MS. Each analysis included
169 approximately 20 s of background acquisition (from a gas blank) followed by 45 s of
170 data acquisition. ^{43}Ca was used as the internal standard for apatite and titanite and ^{29}Si
171 was used as the internal standard for zircon. The content of CaO in apatite and titanite
172 was measured by EMPA and SiO_2 in zircon was assumed to be stoichiometric in
173 zircon with a concentration of ca. 32.8 wt%. NIST SRM 610 and 612 were employed
174 as external standards, respectively, which were analyzed twice after every 8 sample
175 analyses. Data reduction was performed off-line by the ICPMSDataCall software (Liu
176 et al. 2008). The corresponding mean element concentrations of standards during this
177 study are listed after the trace element concentrations for apatite, zircon and titanite

178 respectively.

179 ***In-situ* Sr isotopic analysis of plagioclase**

180 All *in-situ* Sr isotope analyses in this study were performed on a Neptune Plus
181 MC-ICP-MS (Thermo Scientific), coupled with a RESOLUTION M-50 193 nm laser
182 ablation system (Resonetics) at the GIG-CAS. The laser parameters were set as follow:
183 beam diameter, 112-155 μm ; repetition rate, 6 Hz; energy density, $\sim 4 \text{ J cm}^{-2}$. Each
184 analysis consisted of 250 cycles with an integration time of 0.262 s per cycle. During
185 the first 30s, the gas blank of the system was monitored with the laser beam off. In the
186 following 30s, the signals of ablated plagioclase were collected with the laser beam on.
187 The gas blank of ^{83}Kr and ^{88}Sr were less than 2.5 mv and 0.5 mv during the
188 measurement of this study. The interferences of ^{84}Kr and ^{86}Kr on ^{84}Sr and ^{86}Sr were
189 corrected by subtracting gas blank from the raw time-resolved signal intensities. The
190 mass bias of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ was normalized to $^{86}\text{Sr}/^{88}\text{Sr} = 0.1194$ with an exponential law.
191 The detailed data reduction procedure is reported in Zhang et al. (2015). Repeated
192 analyses of the external standard NKT-1G yielded a weighted $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ value of
193 0.70355 ± 0.00003 (2SD, $n = 7$), which is consistent with the reference value
194 (0.70351 ± 0.00002 , Elburg et al. 2005). The corresponding standard data during this
195 study are listed after the Sr isotope of plagioclase.

196 ***In-situ* O isotope analyses of apatite and zircon**

197 *In-situ* oxygen isotope compositions of apatite were obtained using the Cameca

198 IMS-1280 SIMS at the Institute of Geology and Geophysics, CAS. Separated apatite
199 grains were embedded in epoxy disks together with apatite standards (Qinghu and
200 Durango apatite). The Cs^+ primary ion beam was accelerated at 10 kV, with an
201 intensity of ~ 2 nA, with spot sizes of about 20 μm in diameter. The normal-incidence
202 electron flood gun was used to compensate for the charge at the surface of the
203 gold-coated samples. Oxygen isotopes were measured using multi-collection mode on
204 two off-axis Faraday cups. The analytical procedures of apatite were similar to those
205 used for zircon oxygen isotopes as described by Li et al. (2010). *In-situ* oxygen
206 isotopes of zircon were also obtained using the Cameca IMS-1280 HR SIMS at the
207 GIG-CAS. The analytical procedures of zircon are described by Xia et al. (2019).
208 Measured $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ ratios were normalized by using Vienna Standard Mean Ocean
209 Water and compositions ($V_{\text{VSMOW}}, ^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O} = 0.0020052$), reported in standard per mil
210 notation, and corrected for the instrumental mass fractionation factor (IMF). The IMF
211 was obtained using the Durango fluorapatite and Penglai zircon as references for
212 apatite and zircon, respectively. The average value of measured $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of Durango
213 apatites was 10.15‰ (2SD = 0.56, n = 26), which is similar to the result in Trotter et
214 al. (2008). The Qinghu apatite was also analyzed as an external reference for apatite,
215 with a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of 5.59‰ (2SD = 0.52, n = 31). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the Durango and
216 Qinghu apatite and Penglai and Qinghu zircon are listed after the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values for
217 apatite and zircon, respectively.

218

219

Results

220 **Whole-rock geochemistry**

221 Whole-rock compositions are listed in Supplementary Table S1. The rocks of the
222 Zhangzhou batholith show large variations in SiO₂ contents. The gabbro and diorite
223 together have SiO₂ ranging from 49.9 to 60.1 wt% with relatively high Mg-number
224 (Mg # = 48 to 52). The calc-alkaline granites (monzogranites and granodiorites) span
225 a SiO₂ range from 63.0 to 71.0 wt%, with a Mg-number ranging from 34 to 43. The
226 granites are metaluminous with A/CNK between 0.92 and 0.99. Monzogranites
227 (Sample No. 17ZZ05 and 17ZZ06) generally contain higher SiO₂ content than the
228 granodiorites (67.8 -71.0 wt% vs. 63.0-66.8 wt%), Σ REE (212-309 ppm vs. 135-235
229 ppm) and K₂O (3.59-4.51 wt% vs. 2.83-3.50 wt%) but lower CaO (2.22 to 2.87 wt%
230 vs. 3.86-4.79 wt%) and MgO (0.79-1.12 vs. 1.33-2.07 wt%). In contrast, the alkali
231 feldspar granite has the highest SiO₂ content with a range from 76.4 to 77.6 wt% and
232 the lowest Mg-number (Mg# = 16 to 22). All rock types have similar initial ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr
233 ratios, ranging from 0.70602 to 0.70742. The mafic rocks have ε_{Nd}(t) values ranging
234 from -2.7 to -2.8, while the felsic rocks have slightly lower ε_{Nd}(t) values between -3.2
235 and -4.2 (Supplementary Table S1). Thus, the mafic and felsic rocks together form an
236 igneous complex with almost similar isotope compositions.

237 **Texture and geochemistry of apatite**

238 Representative BSE images for apatite from the calc-alkaline granite are

239 presented in Fig. 3. These apatite grains are mostly prismatic with sizes ranging from
240 100 to 200 μm (Figs. 2c-f and 3). They commonly occur as inclusions hosted in the
241 major mineral phases (Fig. 2c-f), indicating apatite was an early crystallizing phase.
242 Most of the apatite grains exhibit a core-rim zonation texture with a dark core and
243 bright rims in the BSE images (Fig. 3). The dark core spans a range of 30-100 μm in
244 size and the bright rims range from 20 to 40 μm in width (Fig. 3).

245 The compositions of the analyzed apatite are listed in Supplementary Table S2.
246 Both the apatite core and rim domains are fluorapatite with $F > 2.5 \text{ wt}\%$ and F/Cl
247 ratio > 11.5 (Fig. 4a and b). They show similar P_2O_5 (41.1-43.3 wt%), CaO (53.4-57.9
248 wt%), FeO (0.01-0.12 wt%) and MnO (0.16-0.29 wt%). However, the apatite core
249 domains generally contain higher SO_3 (0.28-1.00 wt% vs. 0.10-0.42 wt%), Na_2O
250 (0.08-0.30 wt% vs. 0.02-0.11 wt%) and lower SiO_2 (0.01-0.20 wt% vs. 0.26-0.58 wt%)
251 contents than the rim domains. Also, the core domains generally have higher Li
252 concentrations (2.0 to 19.2 ppm vs. 0.6 to 4.3 ppm) but lower REE ($\sum\text{REE} = 3989$ to
253 9743 ppm vs. 9380 to 16417 ppm) and Y (Y = 259 to 894 ppm vs. 517 to 1781 ppm)
254 concentrations than the rim domains. Nevertheless, all apatite domains have relatively
255 high Ce/Y ratios, within the compositional fields of apatite from ‘I-type granitoids’
256 (Fig. 4c, Laurent et al., 2017), and show right-declined chondrite-normalized REE
257 patterns with similar Ce/Ce* and Eu/Eu* ratios (Fig. 4d). Major and trace element
258 analyses from a profile across a representative zoned apatite grain show abrupt
259 compositional variations (Fig. 5, Supplementary Table S2). From core to rim, the SO_3
260 concentration decreases from 0.73 to 0.16 wt% and Cl decreases from 0.11 to 0.05

261 wt%, whereas SiO₂ increases from 0.27 to 0.70 wt% (Fig. 5b-d). The apatite rims
262 have 6587 to 7009 ppm Ce and 866 to 1017 ppm Y, up to three times the
263 concentrations in the core domain (Ce = 2354 to 2874 ppm, Y = 338 to 428 ppm, Fig.
264 5f and g). The apatite rims also have higher Sr (Sr = 223 to 230 ppm vs. 135 to 166
265 ppm, Fig. 5h). In contrast, the apatite cores contain 5.1-7.4 ppm Li and 0.11-0.18 wt%
266 Na₂O, much higher than those in the rims (Li = 1.3-3.0 ppm, Na₂O = 0.03-0.04 wt%,
267 Fig. 5e and i).

268 The O isotope compositions of apatite are listed in Supplementary Table S2 and
269 plotted in Fig. 6. Both the apatite core and rim domains have mantle-like O isotopic
270 compositions regardless of their difference in Σ REE (Fig. 6). The core domains have
271 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values ranging from 5.3 ‰ (2SE = 0.28) to 6.8 ‰ (2SE = 0.26) with an average
272 of 6.0 ‰ (n = 21), and the apatite rim domains have $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values ranging from 5.2 ‰
273 (2SE = 0.32) to 6.4 ‰ (2SE = 0.37) with an average of 5.8 ‰ (n = 21).

274 **Textures and geochemistry of other minerals**

275 **Zircon.** The compositions of zircon are listed in Supplementary Table S3. Zircon
276 is hosted in main mineral phases such as plagioclase and biotite. It exhibits a euhedral
277 prismatic form, ranges from 50 to 200 μm in diameter with length/width ratios from
278 2:1 to 3:1, and typical igneous oscillatory zoning in CL images (Supplementary
279 Materials, Fig. S1). The Hf concentration of zircon ranges from 7695 to 11489 ppm, is
280 negatively correlated with the concentrations of Ti (3.1 to 16.7 ppm) and P (332 to
281 696 ppm) and with Th/U (0.54 to 1.48) and Eu/Eu* (0.4 to 1.2), but is positively

282 correlated with Yb/Gd (7.9 to 27.8). The Ti-in-zircon ($T_{\text{Ti-Zr}}$) thermometer yields
283 values ranging from 674 to 835°C (Supplementary Table S3) using the equations of
284 Ferry and Watson (2007). Zircon also has mantle-like $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values ranging from 5.3 ‰
285 to 6.9 ‰ with an average of 5.8 ‰ (SD = 0.44, n = 20).

286 **Titanite.** The compositions of titanite are listed in Supplementary Table S4.
287 Titanite crystals always display continuous and oscillatory zoning in BSE images,
288 showing small intracrystalline compositional changes. Some titanite crystals show an
289 obvious zoned texture with a bright core and dark rim. The bright core often shows
290 fir-tree and oscillatory zonation. The dark rim shows a uniform texture and is
291 occasionally surrounded by bright domains (Supplementary Materials, Fig. S2).
292 Titanite frequently contains inclusions of the zoned apatite (Fig. 2e). Titanite from the
293 granites has weakly variable SiO_2 (29.02–30.74 wt%), TiO_2 (34.04–36.81 wt%), CaO
294 (26.37–29.33 wt%), Al_2O_3 (1.02–1.65 wt%) and FeO (1.48–2.49 wt%) and F
295 (0.05–0.42 wt%). However, the total REE concentrations of titanite varies greatly
296 from 1.7 wt% to 2.9 wt%. The bright domains generally have much higher REE
297 concentrations than the dark parts.

298 **Plagioclase.** The compositions of plagioclase are listed in Supplementary Table
299 S5. Plagioclase crystals in the granite show complex textures and zoning patterns.
300 Some grains have a strong dissolution texture, with sodic patches in the dissolved
301 calcic cores and less calcic rims (Supplementary Fig. S3). The dissolved core has a
302 sieved texture and higher Ca contents (An_{38} - An_{48}), whereas the dark patches in the
303 core and the rim have lower Ca contents (An_{14} - An_{30}). Such a compositional zonation

304 might be caused during decompression of the magma. Twelve analytical spots on
305 plagioclase from the granite show a narrow variation of initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios from
306 0.7064 to 0.7067 with an average of 0.7066 ($n = 12$). This value is quite similar to the
307 host bulk rock ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_{(i)} = 0.7066$).

308

309

Discussion

310 **Core-rim zonation texture in apatite: a record of magma mixing**

311 The apatite in Zhangzhou granite is characterized by textural and compositional
312 zonation with abrupt core to rim increases in SiO_2 and REE concentrations and
313 decreases in SO_3 and Li (Figs. 3 and 5). Compositional zoning of minerals in igneous
314 rocks results from various processes including fractional crystallization, AFC
315 processes, post-crystallization hydrothermal activity and magma mixing. In the
316 following, we discuss the possible effects of these processes on the compositional
317 variations observed in the apatite from Zhangzhou granite.

318 (1) Fractional crystallization plays an important role in progressive mass and
319 ionic exchange between magma and minerals. Compositional zonation in the
320 crystallizing phase typically follows “normal” igneous trends (i.e., increases in
321 incompatible elements and decreases in compatible elements from core to rims, Gao
322 et al. 2007; Guo et al. 2007; Streck 2008). Since REEs behave as incompatible
323 elements in plagioclase, biotite and quartz (Nash and Crecraft 1985) – the major

324 mineral assemblage in the Zhangzhou granite, fractionation of these minerals would
325 lead to increasing REE concentrations in the crystallizing apatite. Biotite-dominated
326 fractionation may also cause halogen variation in a crystallizing magma and possibly
327 results in Cl/F zonation in apatite (Teiber et al. 2014; Ansberque et al. 2019).
328 Fractionation of biotite + plagioclase + quartz might explain the core to rim increases
329 in REE concentrations and decreasing Cl/F in zoned apatite from the Zhangzhou
330 granite, but it cannot explain the observed rim to core trends to higher SiO₂ and Sr
331 concentrations (Fig. 5b and h) and similar Fe concentrations. Fractional crystallization
332 of significant amounts of apatite might explain progressive core to rim decreases in
333 REE concentrations in zoned apatite (e.g., Bruand et al. 2014) because REEs are
334 compatible in apatite (e.g., Prowatke and Klemme 2006). However, such trends
335 contrast with the abrupt increase in concentration from the core to rim that we observe
336 (Fig. 5f and g). In any case, fractional crystallization is a continuous process which
337 likely forms continuous compositional zonations, or predictable changes reflected in
338 changing modal mineral assemblages, e.g., a progressive increase of La in
339 clinopyroxene from core to rim during fractional crystallization (Gao et al. 2007).
340 Therefore, it is clear that the sharp core to rim compositional variations in apatite of
341 the Zhangzhou granite could not be generated by fractional crystallization alone (Figs.
342 5 and 7).

343 (2) Similar to fractional crystallization, AFC processes also generally result in
344 the crystallization of minerals with normal compositional zonation (e.g., Jung et al.
345 1999). However, in the Zhangzhou granite, there are weak correlations between the

346 $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_{(i)}$ and $\varepsilon_{\text{Nd}}(t)$ and SiO_2 ($\text{SiO}_2 = 67.8\text{-}71.0$ wt%, $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_{(i)} = 0.7062\text{-}0.7066$,
347 and $\varepsilon_{\text{Nd}}(t) = -3.0$ to -4.2 , Supplementary Table S1). The plagioclase in these granites,
348 with variable An contents, has a uniform Sr isotope composition (An=16-48,
349 $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_{(i)} = 0.7064\text{-}0.7067$, Supplementary Table S5), similar to the whole rock value
350 ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_{(i)} = 0.7066$). Apatite core and rim domains as well as zircon have similar
351 oxygen isotope compositions (Supplementary Table 3). All these geochemical features
352 do not support a significant role for crustal contamination or assimilation.

353 (3) Hydrothermal fluids have been shown to leach REE from apatite, resulting in
354 substantial decreases in REE concentrations and variations in LREE/HREE ratios as
355 well as O isotopes in apatite with the formation of new REE-phosphates such as
356 monazite and xenotime (e.g., Rae et al. 1996; Harlov and Förster 2003; Harlov et al.
357 2005; Broom-Fendley et al. 2016; Zeng et al. 2016; Birski et al. 2019). Whilst apatite
358 crystals in the Zhangzhou granite have REE-poor cores, it is unlikely that this
359 compositional zonation resulted from post-crystallization hydrothermal activity
360 because the apatite core domains have La/Sm ratio and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value similar to the rim
361 domains (Figs. 4d and 6), and coexisting secondary mineral phases are absent (Figs.
362 2c-f and 3).

363 (4) Magma mixing can produce textural and compositional zoning in apatite
364 (Tepper and Kuehner 1999; Słaby et al. 2012; Bruand et al. 2014; Laurent et al. 2017),
365 accounting for sharp compositional variations like those observed in apatite from the
366 Zhangzhou granite. Experimental results have shown nonlinear element exchange
367 between the interacting magmas due to variations in diffusion behavior (De Campos

368 et al. 2008; Perugini et al. 2008). The direction of compositional change in mineral
369 compositions is largely a reflection of the new bulk magma composition after each
370 mixing step and might reverse trends expected from fractional crystallization (with or
371 without crustal contamination) alone. In the case of the Zhangzhou granite, magma
372 mixing is strongly supported by the presence of MMEs and granodiorite inclusions in
373 the monzogranite, at the locality from which the samples were taken (Fig. 2a and b).
374 Mixing is also reflected in abrupt Σ REE variations in the zoned titanite
375 (Supplementary Materials). Thus, magma mixing is our preferred model in explaining
376 the composition zonations that we see in apatite from the Zhangzhou granite.

377 **Composition of end-member melts during magma mixing**

378 The rapid core to rim increases in SiO₂, REE and Y concentrations and decreases
379 in SO₃ and Li of apatite from the Zhangzhou granite can probably be attributed to
380 abrupt changes in bulk melt composition and/or the resultant change in partition
381 coefficients during the apatite crystallization (Fig. 5). For simplicity, we assume a
382 single mixing event and name the magma that crystallized the apatite cores as Batch I,
383 and the mixed magma that crystallized the apatite rims as Batch II.

384 Previous studies have demonstrated that the REE contents in apatite are
385 primarily controlled by magma composition and mineral/melt partition coefficients (*D*)
386 (Sha and Chappell 1999; Prowatke and Klemme 2006). Increasing SiO₂ content in a
387 fractionating melt is expected to promote the coupled substitution reaction:
388 $\text{REE}^{3+} + \text{SiO}_4^{4-} = \text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{PO}_4^{3-}$ (Pan and Fleet 2002), and to further increase the degree

389 to which REE preferentially partition into apatite rather than melt (i.e., increasing D
390 $_{\text{REE}}^{\text{Ap/melt}}$) (Prowatke and Klemme 2006). Experimental results have also shown that $D_{\text{REE}}^{\text{Ap/melt}}$
391 values depend largely on the composition of magma, showing a strong positive
392 correlation with silica content of magma (e.g., Watson and Green 1981; Prowatke and
393 Klemme 2006; Laurent et al. 2017). This is consistent with the previous investigations
394 on apatite from a wide range of magmatic suites, which found that REE
395 concentrations in apatite increase from the primitive to evolved rocks (Sha and
396 Chappell 1999; Belousova et al. 2002; Chu et al. 2009; Zhang et al. 2020). Therefore,
397 apatite crystallized from a high-SiO₂ magma tends to contain high SiO₂ and REE
398 concentrations (Ladenburger et al. 2016). Given that the ΣREE and SiO₂
399 concentration of apatite rims can be three times higher than cores (Fig. 5b, f and g),
400 we suggest that the SiO₂ content of Batch II magma was relatively high, with a
401 correspondingly high $D_{\text{REE}}^{\text{Ap/melt}}$.

402 Theoretically, sulfur concentration in apatite depends largely on the S content of
403 the melt and it can be used as a proxy to track the sulfur evolution of magma (Parat et
404 al. 2002, 2011; Van Hoose et al. 2013; Brounce et al. 2019). The partition coefficient
405 of sulfur in apatite ($D_{\text{S}}^{\text{Ap/melt}}$) is additionally controlled by complex physio-chemical
406 conditions, including oxygen fugacity ($f\text{O}_2$) and temperature (Peng et al. 1997; Parat
407 and Holtz 2004). Both apatite core and rim domains show similar Eu/Eu* and Ce/Ce*
408 (Fig. 4d), probably suggesting crystallization under similar oxidizing conditions (e.g.,
409 Sha and Chappell 1999; Cao et al. 2012). On the other hand, because the apatite cores
410 and rims occur in the same samples, the similar apatite saturation temperature should

411 have little effect on $D_S^{Ap/melt}$. Therefore, the high S content in apatite cores, which can
412 be four times higher than the apatite rims, is likely attributed to higher sulfur
413 concentration in Batch I magma (Figs. 5c and 7).

414 **Constraints on the magma source**

415 Both core and rim domains in apatite from the Zhangzhou granite exhibit
416 mantle-like $\delta^{18}O$ values in equilibrium with the coeval zircon (Fig. 6, Supplementary
417 Table S3). The granites have whole-rock $^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr_{(i)}$ and $\epsilon_{Nd}(t)$ values similar to those
418 of MMEs and mafic rocks in the Zhangzhou batholith (Chen et al. 2013). These
419 geochemical features suggest derivation of the Zhangzhou granite from newly
420 accreted crust.

421 As mentioned early, the core and rim domains in apatite from the Zhangzhou
422 granite have distinct chemical compositions, especially the high SO_3 content (up to
423 1.00%) in the core domain. Apatite incorporates sulfur in multiple oxidation states
424 (i.e., S^{6+} , S^{4+} and S^{2-}) via complex substitutions (Piccoli and Candela 2002; Konecke
425 et al. 2017; Brounce et al. 2019). However, previous studies have shown that apatite
426 favors coupled substitution mechanisms involving oxidized S (Streck and Dilles 1998;
427 Kim et al. 2017) and S-rich apatite always crystallizes at a high oxygen fugacity (e.g.,
428 Parat et al. 2011; Chelle-Michou and Chiaradia 2017). This is consistent with the
429 oxidized nature of the I-type, or magnetite-series, Zhangzhou granite (e.g., Ishihara
430 1977; Carmichael 1991; Blevin and Chappell 1995).

431 At subduction zones, seawater sulfate can be absorbed by the sediments

432 overlying the mafic oceanic crust during seafloor hydrothermal alteration. During
433 subduction of the oceanic crust and overlying sulfate-bearing sediments, oxidized
434 sulfur is released into the mantle wedge (e.g., Sasaki and Ishihara 1979; de Hoog et al.
435 2001; Wallace and Edmonds 2011). Arc mafic magmas derived from the mantle
436 wedge metasomatized by sulfate-bearing sediments should correspondingly contain
437 high S (e.g., Sharma et al. 2004), consistent with previous experiments that oxidized
438 arc mafic magmas have a high capacity to contain sulfur (Jugo et al. 2005). For
439 instance, olivine-hosted melt inclusions from the arc mafic magmas can contain high
440 S content up to 7000 ppm (Wallace and Edmonds 2011). An oxidized mafic melt can
441 transport large amounts of sulfur from the mantle to shallow crustal levels and even to
442 the atmosphere (e.g., de Hoog et al. 2004; Richards 2015; Zellmer et al. 2015).
443 Underplated mafic magmas might be the source of high-S arc crust formed during the
444 subduction of paleo-Pacific Ocean in the Cretaceous. Previous studies have also
445 suggested that mafic intrusions might supply sulfur to long-lived felsic magma
446 chambers (Edmonds et al. 2010; Wallace and Edmonds 2011), in which high-S apatite
447 crystallizes (Van Hoose et al. 2013). Thus, underplated mafic magmas releasing S-rich
448 fluid and/or resultant melting of the high-S arc crust could have been the source of the
449 high-S felsic Batch I magma that crystallizes the cores of apatite in the Zhangzhou
450 granite.

451 **Devolatilization of Batch II magma**

452 Liquid-vapour fractionation is considered to be an important process of

453 magmatic differentiation where a separate vapor phase coexists with a magma
454 (Webster and Vivo 2002; Baker and Alletti 2012). This process can cause geochemical
455 variations related to difference in element partitioning between the coexisting vapor
456 and magma. In the case of the Zhangzhou granite, liquid-vapour fractionation
457 probably contributes to the large variations in concentrations of fluid-mobile elements
458 such as S, Cl and Li in the apatite.

459 As discussed above, Batch II magma had higher SiO₂ but lower S than Batch I
460 magma. Considering the evidence, based on tightly constrained isotopic variations,
461 that both magma batches shared a common source, there must have been an additional
462 geological process that rapidly decreases the S content during the evolution of Batch
463 II magma. Possible mechanisms to reduce the S content of magma include: (1)
464 fractionation of sulfide and sulfate (e.g., anhydrite and pyrite); and (2) devolatilization
465 (evaporation of magmatic H₂S and/or SO₂-rich fluid exsolution). Since anhydrite and
466 pyrite are not observed in the studied samples, it seems unlikely that the granitic
467 magma was saturated in sulfide or sulfate minerals. Hence, the reduced S content is
468 unlikely to be supplied by sulfate and sulfide fractionation. Therefore, SO₂
469 disproportionation in an exsolved fluid (e.g., Mavrogenes and Blundy 2017) and/or
470 direct degassing as magmatic H₂S (e.g., Oppenheimer et al. 2011), might be realistic
471 alternative means of lowering the S content in Batch II magma. The oxidation state of
472 I-type granitic magma implies that the majority of S in the magma existed as SO₄²⁻
473 instead of H₂S (Baker and Moretti 2011; Richards 2015), suggesting a more important
474 role of fluid exsolution than degassing of H₂S during magmatic evolution.

475 Since Cl preferentially partitions into fluids but F is soluble in melts (Baker and
476 Alletti 2012; Webster et al. 2018), devolatilization can also lead to a decrease in Cl
477 concentration of a melt, and in any crystallizing apatite, without significantly
478 affecting F concentrations (e.g., Piccoli and Candela 2002; Webster 2004; Aiuppa et
479 al. 2009; Balcone-Boissard et al. 2010; Zhang et al. 2012; Teiber et al. 2014; Wang et
480 al. 2018). Apatite rims have lower Cl content and Cl/F than the core for any given
481 zoned apatite, consistent with the effect of devolatilization (Fig. 5d and
482 Supplementary Table S2). The indistinguishable ranges in F and Cl concentrations of
483 all apatites (Fig. 4a) are probably due to variable crystallization conditions (Boyce et
484 al. 2014).

485 Devolatilization is also evidenced by the lower Li concentration in the apatite
486 rims (Fig. 5i). Since Li preferentially enters aqueous fluid rather than the silicate melt,
487 devolatilization would lead to a Li decrease in both the melt and crystallizing apatite
488 (Webster et al. 1989; Duan and Jiang 2018). Collectively, Barch II magma
489 experienced strong devolatilization, which is consistent with the previous
490 observations that exsolved fluids have the capacity to sequester Li, Cl and S away
491 from the magmatic systems (e.g., Bai and Koster van Groos 1999; Kamenetsky et al.
492 1999; Webster 2004; Zajacz et al. 2008; Pokrovski et al. 2013).

493 **Petrogenetic implications**

494 It is commonly assumed that elevated $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}(t)$ or $\epsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values in granitoids implies
495 mixing by mantle-derived magma, whereas more constant isotopic compositions in

496 granite reflects the predominant role of fractional crystallization. For example, various
497 degrees of mixing between mantle-derived mafic and crust-derived felsic magmas
498 result in a wide $\epsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ range of the calc-alkaline felsic rocks in SE China (Griffin et al.
499 2002; Guo et al. 2012). However, in many magmatic systems and tectonic
500 environments, interaction of cogenetic magmas is also inevitable as magma chambers
501 are incrementally, or episodically, filled by magma batches from common sources
502 over time (Taylor 2004; Annen 2009; Farina et al. 2012). In such cases, important
503 magmatic processes such as crystal-melt segregation, liquid-vapor fractionation and
504 self-mixing in crustal magma chamber can be difficult to monitor by traditional
505 bulk-rock geochemical analyses (Turner and Campbell 1986; Couch et al. 2001; Alves
506 et al. 2009; Edmonds and Woods 2018; Sun et al. 2019; Yan et al. 2020). Mixing of
507 cogenetic granitic magmas and devolatilization process, as shown here for the
508 Zhangzhou granite, have occurred with little or no isotopic variation.

509 More recent studies on granite petrogenesis have benefited from advances in
510 analytical techniques that enable *in-situ* analysis of minerals for stable and radiogenic
511 isotopes, including O, S, Rb-Sr, Sm-Nd and Lu-Hf systems (e.g., Griffin et al. 2002;
512 Yang et al. 2014; Economos et al. 2017; Bruand et al. 2019; Cao et al. 2019). Such
513 studies have shown that *in-situ* geochemical analysis on minerals (e.g., apatite,
514 plagioclase, zircon and titanite) has many advantages over whole-rock chemistry in
515 petrogenetic discussion (e.g., Yu et al. 2018; Gros et al. 2020; Zhang et al. 2020).
516 Apatite performs particularly well as a recorder of petrogenetic processes and our
517 study provides an example illustrating the advantages of using compositional

518 zonations in apatite to track obscure magma processes such as mixing of cogenetic
519 granitic magmas and devolatilization. There is no doubt that *in-situ* compositional and
520 isotopic analysis of apatite will provide significant advances in the range of data
521 available for understanding igneous petrogenesis.

522

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886

887 **List of figure captions**

888 **Fig. 1** Simplified geological maps showing tectonic setting (after Zheng et al.
889 2013), and the distribution of Mesozoic granites in the coastal region of SE China
890 (after Zhou et al., 2006).

891 **Fig. 2** (a-b) Field photos showing the contact relationship between the host
892 granite (monzogranite) and mafic microgranular enclaves. (c-d) Columnar apatite
893 inclusions occurring in biotite and plagioclase. (e-f) BSE images showing zoned
894 apatite hosted in titanite and biotite.

895 **Fig. 3** Representative BSE images of apatite from the Zhangzhou calc-alkaline
896 granite. Most crystals show a core-rim zonation texture.

897 **Fig. 4** Plots of Cl vs. F (a), Cl-OH-F (b), Y vs. Ce (ppm) (c) of apatite, and
898 chondrite-normalized REE patterns of apatite (d). In (b) the concentrations of volatile
899 components (atomic proportions) in apatite is estimated by using the method by
900 Piccoli and Candela (2002). In (c), the variation fields of apatite in S-type and I-type
901 granite are from Laurent et al. (2017). Normalization values (d) are from McDonough
902 and Sun (1995).

903 **Fig. 5** Core-to-rim profiles of major and trace element compositions of a zoned
904 apatite crystal from the Zhangzhou calc-alkaline granite. (a) The BSE image showing
905 the core-to-rim analyzed profiles. (b-e) EPMA analysis, variations in SiO₂ (b), SO₃ (c),
906 Cl (d) and Na₂O (e) across the profile. (f-i) LA-ICPMS analysis, variations in Ce (f),
907 Y (g), Sr (h) and Li (i) across the profile.

908 **Fig. 6** Plot of Σ REE (ppm) vs. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, the bars denote the analytical errors given as
909 2σ .

910 **Fig. 7** Plots of SiO₂ (wt%) vs. SO₃ (wt%).

911 **Supplementary Tables**

912 **Table 1** Whole-rock major and trace elements and Sr-Nd isotopic compositions
913 of Zhangzhou Complex, SE China

914 **Table 2** *In-situ* elemental and O isotopic compositions of apatite from
915 Zhangzhou granite

916 **Table 3** *In-situ* elemental and O isotopic compositions of zircon from
917 Zhangzhou granite.

918 **Table 4** *In-situ* major and trace elements compositions of titanite from
919 Zhangzhou granite.

920 **Table 5** *In-situ* elemental and Sr isotopic compositions of plagioclase from

921 Zhangzhou granite.

922

Fig 1

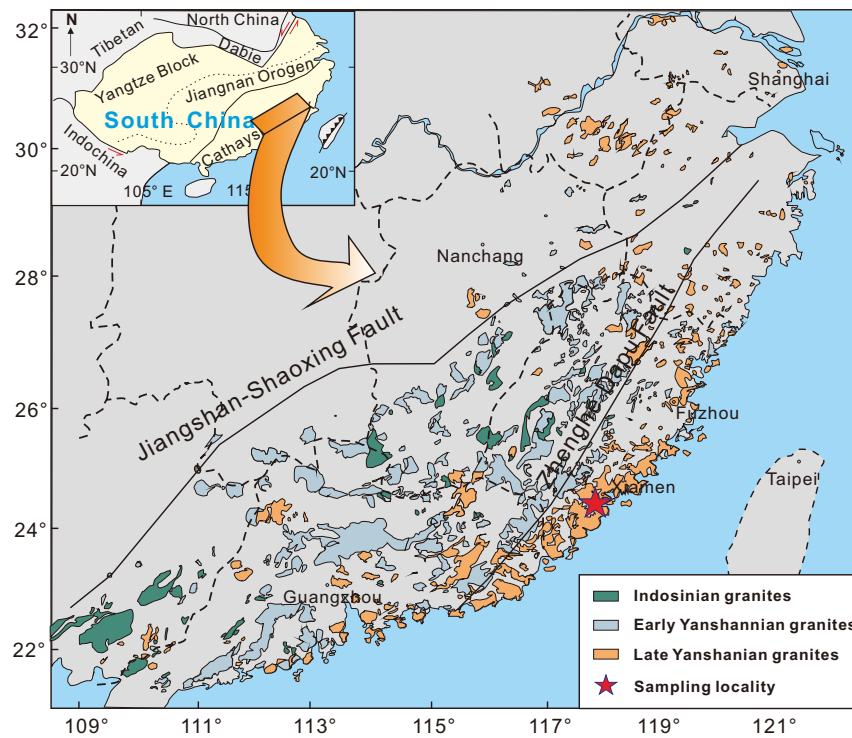


Fig 2

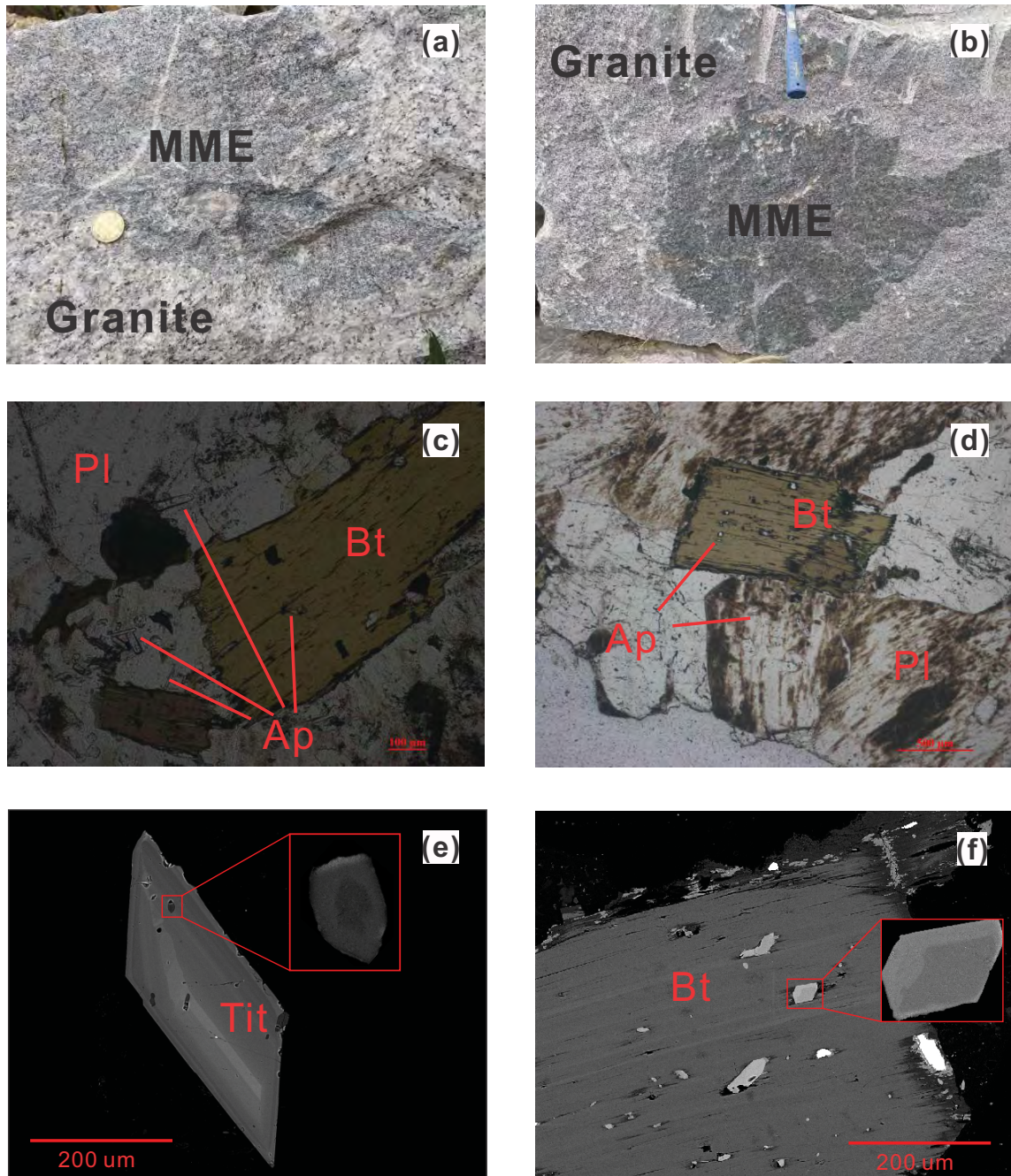


Fig 3

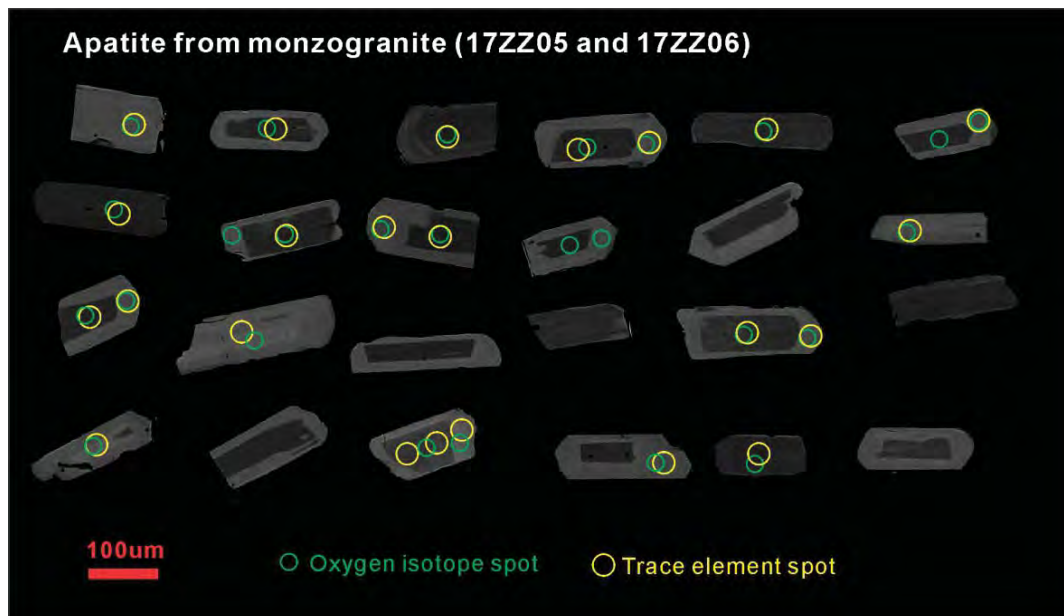


Fig 4

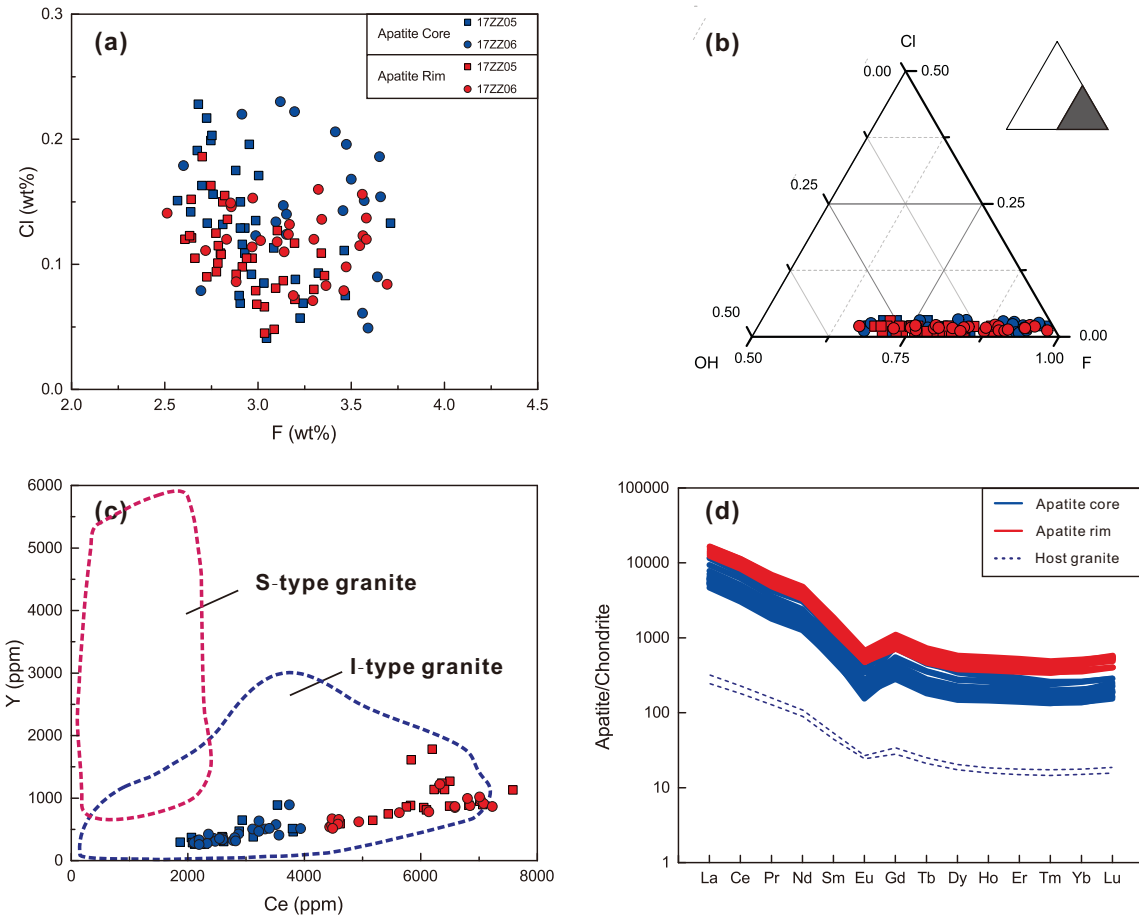


Fig 5

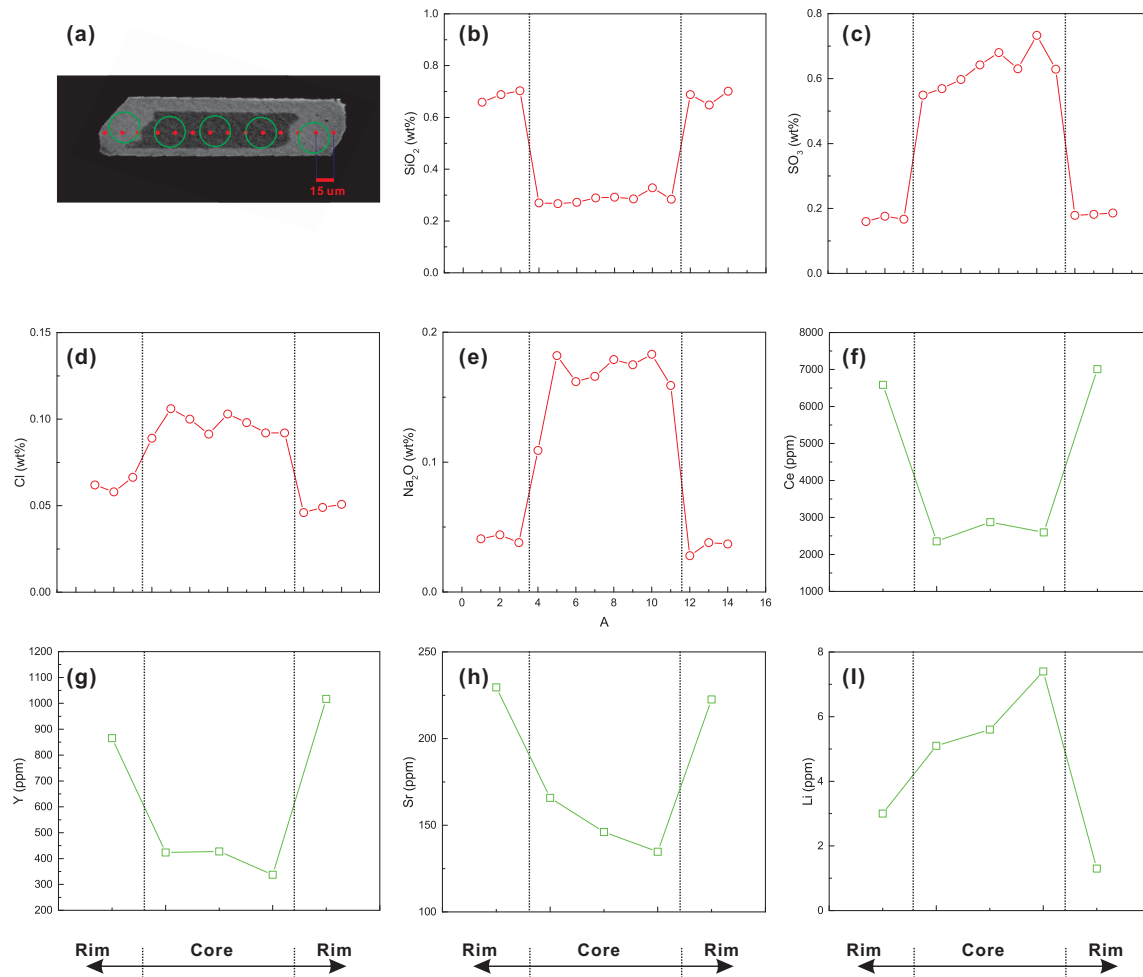


Fig 6

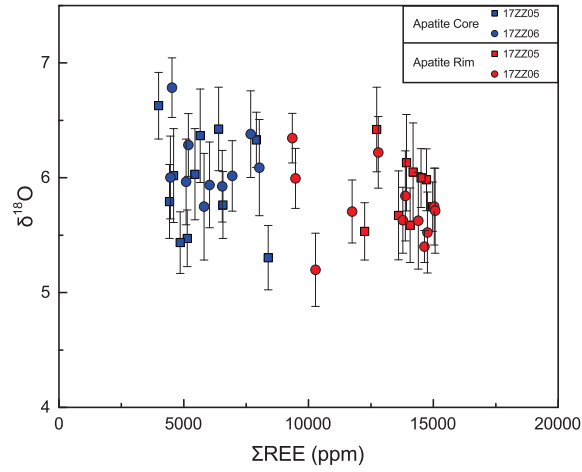


Fig 7

