



Magma evolution leading to veinlet-disseminated tungsten mineralization at the Muguayuan deposit: *In-situ* analysis of igneous minerals

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ABSTRACT

Whole rock geochemistry combined with spatially resolved geochemistry of zircon, apatite, biotite and plagioclase allows us to uncover the magmatic processes leading to ore formation at the Muguayuan deposit. The Sanxiamba granite, associated with the Muguayuan veinlet-disseminated scheelite deposit, is located in the middle of the Jiangnan Orogen. Whole rock Sr and Nd isotopes, and zircon Lu-Hf isotopes suggest it might originate from the Neoproterozoic Banxi group strata. The Rb element modeling shows that, after ~35% of partial melting, the Banxi group metasandstone can generate the primary Sanxiamba melt with 164 ppm Rb and 21 ppm W. The intra-/intercrystal texture and compositions of zircon and plagioclase indicate that W and other elements such as HREE, Th, U, Nb, Ta, and P increase in the melt during fractional crystallization. The water content in the early Sanxiamba magma, calculated through the plagioclase-hydrometer, is ~4.4 wt%, and its enrichment in the melt is reflected by the increasing water content in biotite with fractionation. F content in the early apatite is relatively high and invariable but further elevated in the late apatite. Chlorine, LREE and Na contents in the early apatite also present an enrichment trend. When H₂O and Cl start to be saturated with the magma fractionation in the deep magma chamber, Cl-, Na-, and LREE-rich but W-poor fluid exsolves from the melt, resulting in the albitization and chloritization of feldspar and biotite phenocrysts, respectively. The subsequent decrease of Cl, Na₂O and La₂O₃ in the late apatite record this first fluid exsolution. Fluorine, P, H₂O and W continue to enrich in the evolved melt with fractionation after the Cl-rich fluid exsolution. These fluxing components reach oversaturation during the shallow-ward emplacement of the magma, forming the F-, P- and W-rich fluids. The apex of the intrusion cools and forms a solid barrier, which prevents the escape of fluids. The exsolved fluids from the underlying magma continuously supply upward and react with the apex along fractures, resulting in greisenization and phyllitic alteration. During alteration, Ca is released from calcium-rich plagioclase and combines with tungsten in the fluids to form scheelite mineralization. Magma evolution leading to the tungsten mineralization may be also the general scenarios in the other granite-related veinlet-disseminated scheelite deposits.

1. Introduction

Magmatic-hydrothermal tungsten deposits are the primary sources for tungsten. They typically exhibit a spatial and temporal association with shallow, porphyritic or variably textured intrusions with relatively highly fractionated compositions, and a wealth of evidence has revealed that ore-forming fluids and tungsten are derived from these intrusions during magma degassing (Černý et al., 2005; Linnen and Cuney, 2005; Mao et al., 2013; Pirajno, 2009; Zhao et al., 2017a; 2017b). Tungsten belongs to high-field-strength elements (HFSE), and is concentrated in

residual melt during magma differentiation (Černý et al., 2005; Linnen and Cuney, 2005). Volatiles (like H₂O and F) are also highly incompatible during magma fractionation (London, 1997; Pyle and Mather, 2009; Webster et al., 2004). Once over-saturated, fluids exsolve and sequester the tungsten from the evolved melt (Audébat et al., 2000; Keppler and Wyllie 1991; Zajacz et al. 2008), forming magmatic-hydrothermal tungsten deposits (Audébat et al., 2000; Hedenquist and Lowenstern, 1994; Pirajno, 2009 and reference therein). Hence, volatiles and tungsten enrichment during the fractionation of ore-bearing granite is vital for tungsten mineralization (c.f. Audébat et al., 2000;

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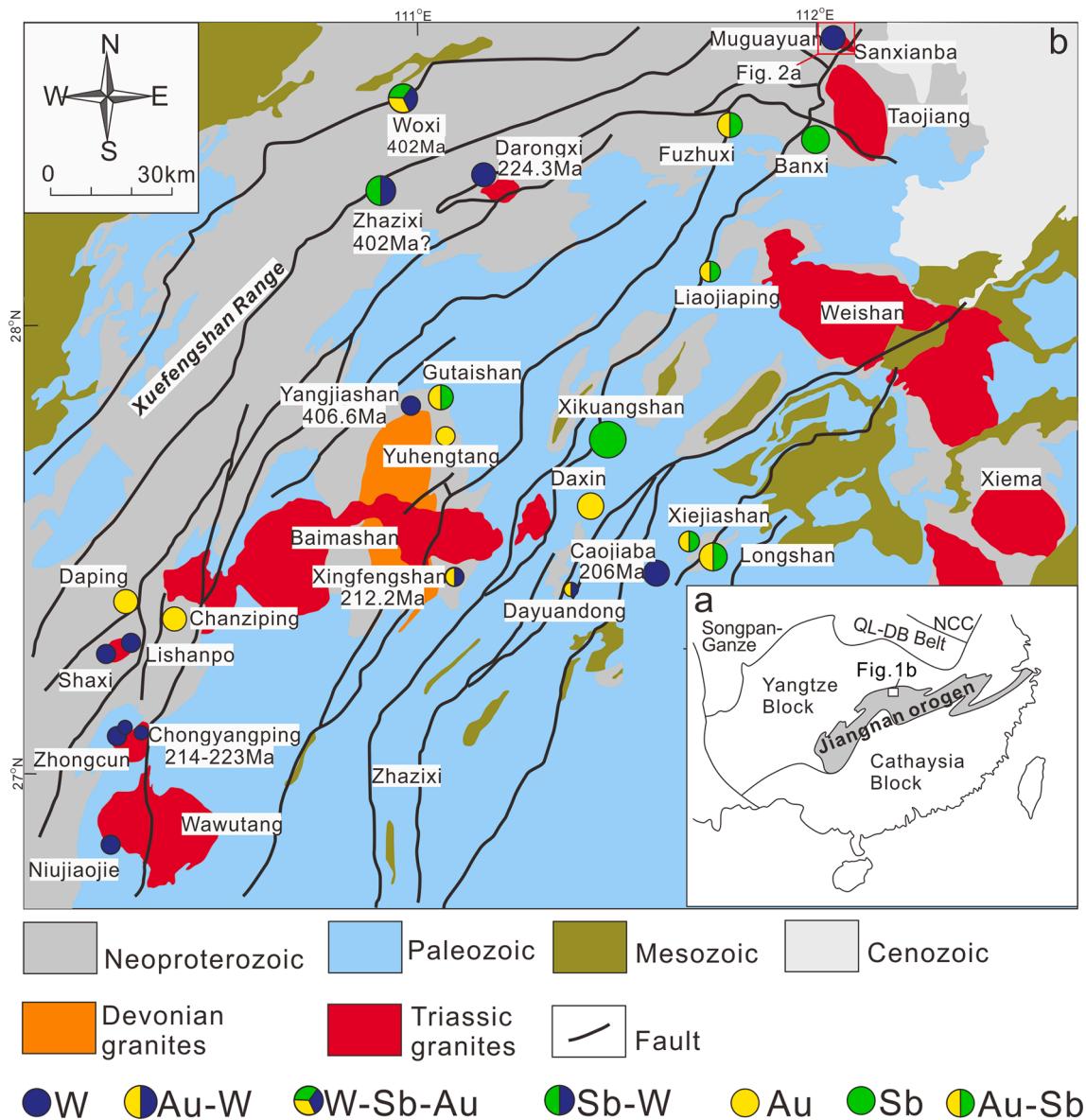


Fig. 1. The regional geological map of the Central Hunan Metallogenic Province (CHMP) in the middle of the Jiangnan Orogen (JNO), South China (modified after Xie et al., 2018a). Inset a shows tectonic framework of JNO including the location of CHMP.

Manning and Hill, 1990; Pollard et al., 1987; Webster et al., 2004). Due to the elusive behavior of volatiles and tungsten during the magmatic and magmatic-hydrothermal evolution, whole rock geochemistry usually fails to give the detailed record (c.f. London, 1997). Melt inclusions may provide important constraint on the evolution of volatiles and W during the fractionation of the magma (c.f. Audétat et al., 2000; Audétat, 2019; Webster et al., 2004). However, these studies are restricted by the accessibility, developmental and preservation situation, as well as representativeness of inclusions (c.f. Portnyagin et al., 2008; Wilkinson, 2001). The volatiles and tungsten enrichment trend during the fractionation of magma can be recorded by the compositions of the coexisting minerals (c.f. Berni et al., 2017; London, 1997). In recent decades, accurate *in-situ* composition analysis and high-resolution electronic imaging of minerals have made great progress (Brugger et al., 2000, 2008; Zhang et al., 2018), which makes it possible to decipher the volatile and tungsten enrichment process during magmatic and magmatic-hydrothermal fractionation (c.f. Berni et al., 2017; Breiter et al., 1997; Li et al., 2015). Mica and apatite are the main hydrous minerals in granite, and can provide solid constraints on the budget of volatiles and their

evolution in granite (c.f. Rasmussen and Mortensen, 2013; Zhang et al., 2016). Trace elements of mica can also serve as diagnostic fertility indexes of tungsten for granite (c.f. Azadbakht et al., 2020). Zircon is a refractory mineral that can resist alteration during the metasomatism of the rock, which make it a powerful tracer for the evolution of magma (c. f. Large et al., 2018) and diagnostic fertility index of ore elements in granite (c.f. Nie et al., 2020). Combining high-resolution electronic imaging with accurate *in-situ* compositional analysis of these minerals, one can uncover the volatiles and tungsten enrichment process during the magmatic and magmatic-hydrothermal fractionation.

Veinlet-disseminated scheelite deposits occur mainly in granitic rocks and have previously been considered to be sub-economic (Seedorff et al., 2005; Sinclair et al., 2011). However, in the past decade, several large veinlet-disseminated scheelite deposits, such as the giant Dahutang, and the large Dongyuan tungsten deposits, have been discovered in the Jiangnan Orogen, South China (Huang and Jiang, 2014; Wang et al., 2017), making it one of the most important tungsten metallogenic belts in the world. Some pioneering studies on granite petrogenesis (Huang and Jiang, 2014; Mao et al., 2017), fluid origin (Wang et al., 2017; Sun

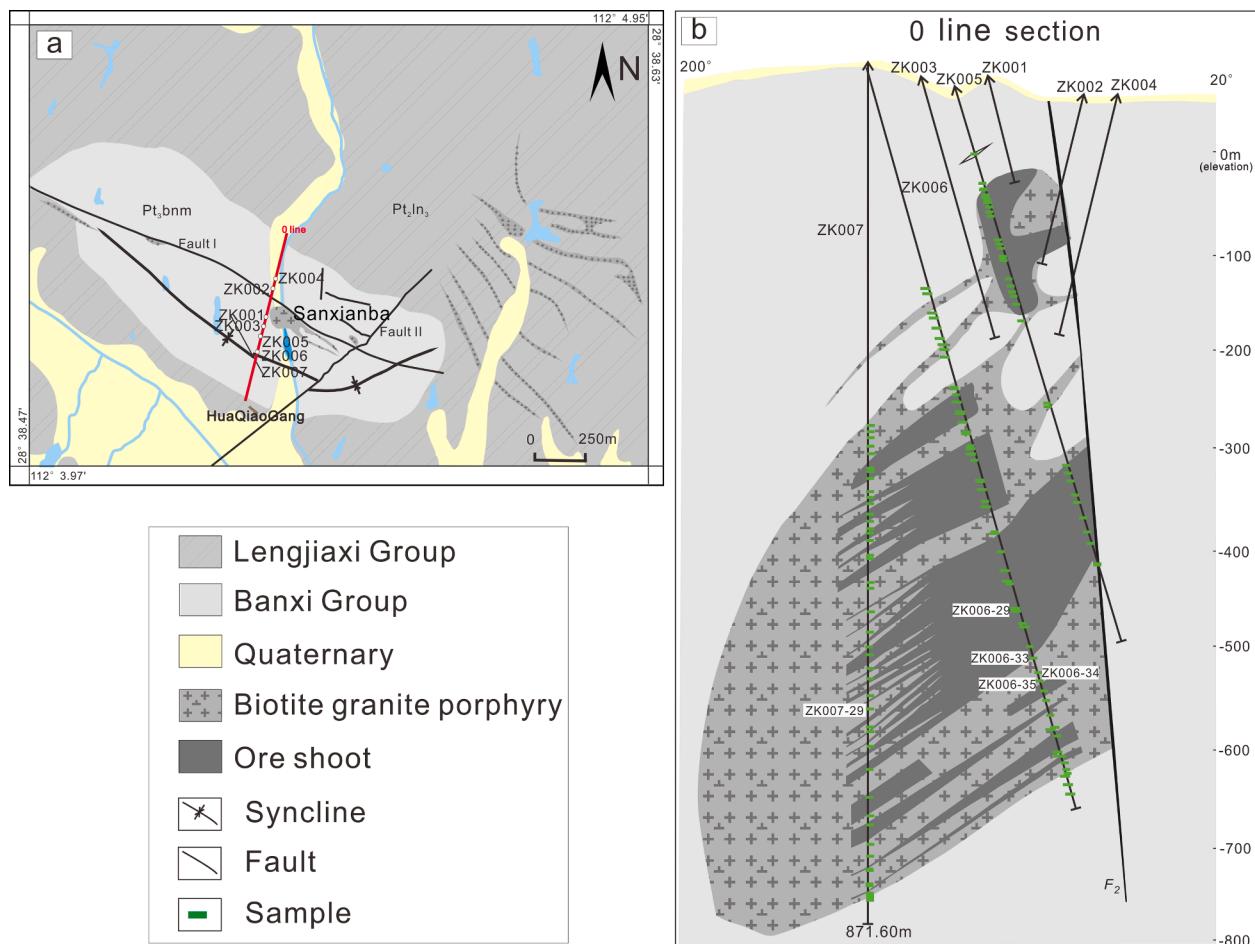


Fig. 2. Geological sketch map of the Muguyuan W deposit (a) and the 0 line drill section profile (b) (modified after No. 418 Geological Team, unpublished report and Li et al., 2018). In b, the samples selected to conduct whole rock and in-situ mineral analysis are specially labeled with their numbers.

and Chen, 2017) and mineralization process (Li et al., 2018) of these deposits have been conducted. However, the enrichment process of volatiles and tungsten during the magma fractionation are still poorly understood.

The Muguyuan deposit located in the middle Jiangnan Orogen is a typical veinlet-disseminated scheelite deposit (Li et al., 2018). The tungsten mineralization in the Muguyuan is associated with the Sanxianba granite and related to alteration within the Sanxianba granite. Ore minerals are dominant by scheelite with minor wolframite and molybdenite in the Muguyuan deposits. Previous studies on ore geology, geochronology, and in-situ composition of scheelite of the Muguyuan deposit have been conducted (Li et al., 2018; Luo and Shu, 2017; Shan et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2016), and the timing of magmatism and mineralization, evolution processes of ore-forming fluids have been preliminarily understood. However, the genesis and evolution of the ore-forming granite, especially the enrichment process of volatiles and tungsten during the magma evolution, are still poorly constrained. In this study, we conduct *in-situ* U-Pb dating and Lu-Hf isotopes analysis on zircon and *in-situ* composition analysis of plagioclase, biotite, zircon, and apatite, combined with trace element modeling, to constrain the volatile and tungsten enrichment process during the magma evolution and its role for tungsten mineralization in the Sanxianba granite.

2. Geological background

The Jiangnan Orogen (JNO) is located between the northwest Yangtze Block and the southeast Cathaysia Block (Fig. 1a). The strata in the JNO mainly comprise pre-Sinian rocks, interpreted as the basement

to the southeast Yangtze Block, and a cover sequence of Sinian (0.8–0.57 Ga) and post-Sinian sedimentary strata of neritic and terrestrial facies (c.f. Wang et al., 2004, 2007; Xu et al., 2007). Since the Neoproterozoic, multi-stage granitic magmatism and related W-(Sn) mineralization took place in the JNO (Chen, 2016; Huang and Jiang, 2014; Xie et al., 2018a, b; Zhang et al., 2019), forming the world-class Jiangnan Orogen tungsten metallogenic belt (Mao et al., 2019).

The basement in the middle of JNO consists of Neoproterozoic clastic metasediments and volcanic rocks of the Lengjiaxi and Banxi Groups (Fig. 1b, Wang et al., 2007a; Xu et al., 2007). The granitoids in this district are mainly biotite monzogranite/granodiorite and biotite granite with subordinate two-mica or muscovite granite (Chu et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2007b). These granitoids are mainly late Triassic, with a few early Devonian (Fig. 1b; Chu et al., 2012; Xie et al., 2018b). Many veinlet-disseminated, skarn scheelite and quartz vein deposits are spatially and/or genetically related to these granitic rocks (Xie et al., 2018a, b; Zhang, 2013).

The Muguyuan veinlet-disseminated scheelite deposit is hosted in the Sanxianba granite stock with a resource of 25,300 t WO₃ grading 0.12 wt% (Tang et al. 2016; Luo and Shu 2017). The Sanxianba stock, with the total outcrop area of around 200 m², was emplaced near the axis of the Huaqiaogang syncline (Fig. 2a). Several contemporary granite porphyry dikes outcrop to the east of the stock (Fig. 2a), but do not show any ore mineralization associated with them (No. 418 Geological Team, unpublished report). Drill cores show that the underground portion of the Sanxianba stock has a faulted wall rock contact (F2) to the north-north-east, but the extension to the south-south-west is unclear (Fig. 2b). The outcrop portion is intensely weathered, and the

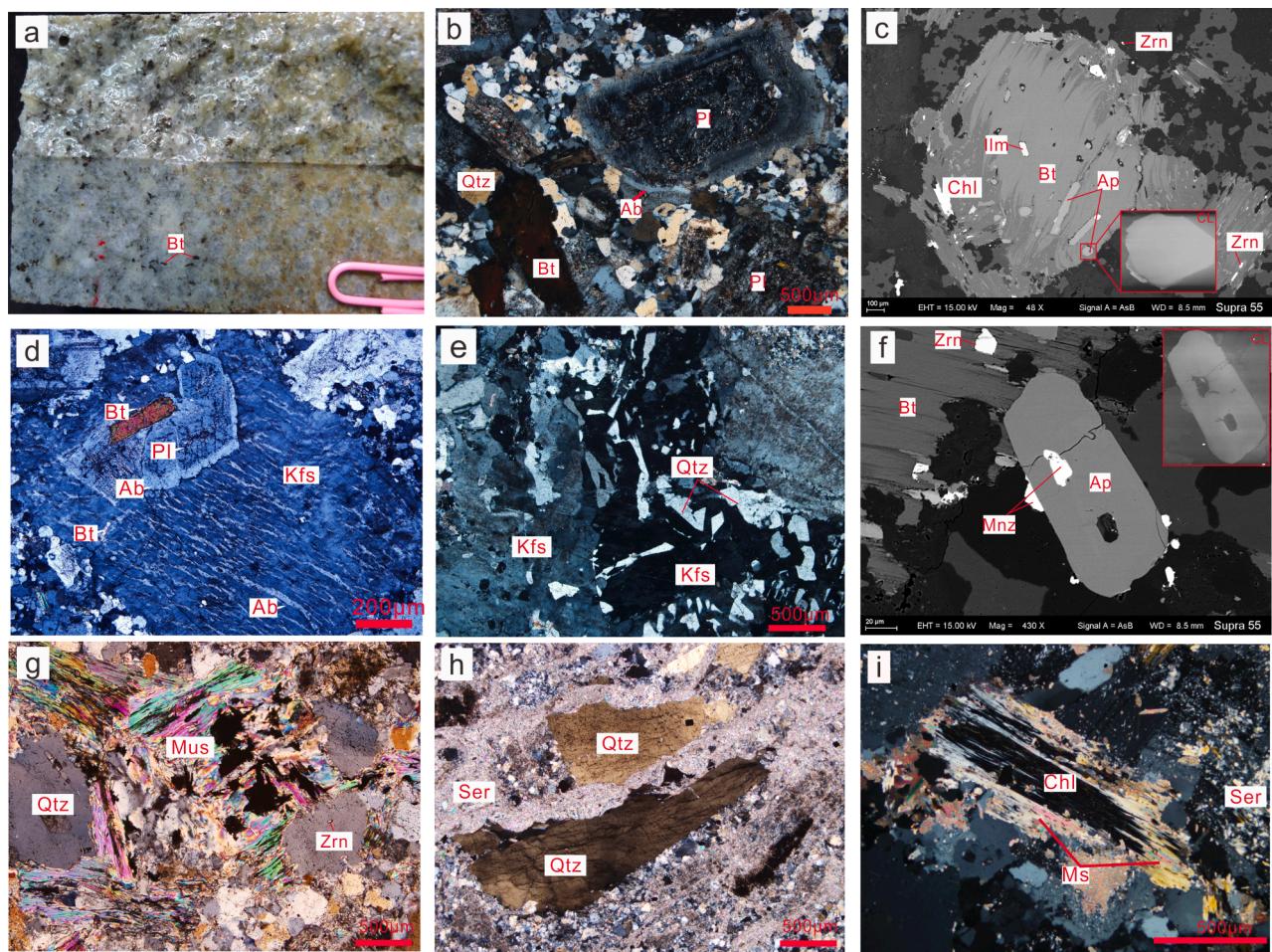


Fig. 3. The mesoscopic images of the representative hand samples (a), and photomicrographs and BSE images showing the petrography (b-i) of the Sanxianba stock. In which d and g are modified after Li et al. (2018). a: Biotite-bearing granite porphyry. The right is overprinted by alteration. ZK007-24, -530 m deep. b: Porphyritic texture. The plagioclase phenocryst is euhedral and zoned, with a hydrothermal albite overgrowth rim. ZK007-24, -530 m deep. c: Biotite phenocryst rim is replaced by chlorite. Relatively small-grained euhedral apatite (Ap-earlier) and zircon are included in the biotite phenocryst. There is also zircon grain in the matrix. ZK007-29, -570 m deep. d: The paragenesis of biotite, plagioclase and K-feldspar. Biotite is hosted by the plagioclase, and they both are enveloped by K-feldspar. K-feldspar are altered by albite veinlet. ZK007-4, -300 m deep. e: Quartz and K-feldspar are in characteristic angular intergrowths to form granophytic texture. ZK005-04, -20 m deep. f: Apatite, associated with monazite, occurs as isolated crystal in the matrix. ZK006-35, -540 m deep. g: Greisenization consumes nearly all rock-forming minerals. h: Phyllitic alteration in which sericite replaced all early minerals. i: Biotite is replaced by chlorite firstly and the latter is replaced by muscovite from rim during greisenization. Insets in the (c) and (f) are CL images of apatite. Ab: albite, Ap: apatite, Bt: biotite, Chl: chlorite, Kfs: K-feldspar, Ilm: ilmenite, Mnz: monazite, Pl: plagioclase, Qtz: quartz, Zrn: zircon.

underground part shows various degree of alteration. Scheelite mineralization is closely related with alteration in the Sanxianba granite, and major stages of mineralization and veining are identified at the Muguayuan (Li et al., 2018) as follows: Pre-ore albitization and chloritization; stage I disseminated-veinlet scheelite mineralization consisting of scheelite \pm wolframite \pm molybdenite \pm pyrite \pm arsenopyrite \pm rutile and quartz + muscovite \pm apatite \pm ankerite; stage II veinlet scheelite mineralization composed of scheelite \pm pyrite \pm arsenopyrite and quartz + sericite \pm apatite \pm ankerite; post-ore sulfide (pyrite \pm galena \pm sphalerite) and quartz + calcite \pm pyrite veinlets.

3. Sampling and analytical methods

Hand specimens were collected from three drill holes (ZK005, ZK006, and ZK007, Fig. 2b). After systematic core cataloging and petrographic observation, we found no further intrusions or sharp lithological change in the Sanxianba stock (see below). ZK006-35 and ZK007-29 are the least-altered, and hold the primary structure and mineral assemblage of the Sanxianba granite to the greatest extent, thus we selected them to conduct whole rock geochemistry and Sr and Nd

isotope analyses. Polished thin sections for samples ZK006-29, ZK006-33, ZK006-34, ZK006-35 and ZK007-29 were prepared to conduct scanning electron microscopy (SEM) observation and *in-situ* mineral analysis. Zircon grains were separated from ZK006-35 using conventional techniques of density and magnetic separation. Representative zircon grains were handpicked under a binocular microscope, mounted in epoxy resin, and polished, so as to conduct microscope observation and *in-situ* analyses. Cathodoluminescence (CL) images of zircon and apatite were taken using a Carl Zeiss Supra 55 field-emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM) coupled to a GATAN MonoCL4 detector at the State Key Laboratory for Mineral Deposits Research in Nanjing University, China.

Major element analysis of whole rock was carried out through wet chemistry methods at the Analysis Center of No. 230 Research Institute of the China National Nuclear Corporation, Changsha, following the procedures described in the China National Standards GB/T 14506.3-2010-GB/T14506.14-2010. The analytical precision for all elements was better than $\pm 5\%$. Trace elements and rare earth element analysis of whole rock were carried out at the FocuMS Laboratory (Nanjing, China) using the Agilent Technologies 7700x quadrupole ICP-MS (Hachioji,

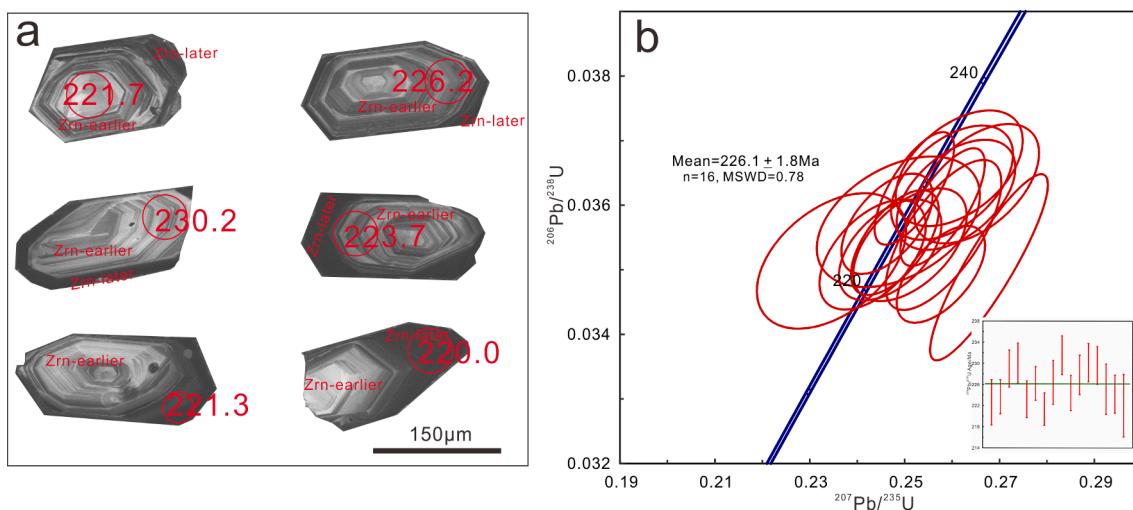


Fig. 4. The cathodoluminescence (a) and U-Pb age (b) of zircons from the Sanxianba granite. The red circles and numbers on the zircons in (a) represent the analyzed spots and corresponding U-Pb ages (in Ma), respectively. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Table 1

Whole rock geochemistry and Sr and Nd isotopes compositions of the Sanxianba granite.

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	Fe ₂ O ₃	FeO	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	H ₂ O	LOI	Total	ASI	CIA	
ZK006-35	wt. %	71.80	0.33	13.73	0.57	1.79	0.04	1.11	1.83	2.79	4.14	0.09	0.53	0.89	99.62	1.11	52.54
ZK007-29		71.14	0.32	14.22	1.44	1.19	0.04	1.07	1.98	3.04	4.00	0.10	0.42	0.75	99.69	1.10	52.37
F																	
ppm	1030	52.2	58.2	18.6	193	138	18.1	159	8.97	4.43	493	37.0	71.1	7.65	26.1	4.65	
	1070	48.6	63.1	19.2	183	166	18.1	127	8.32	3.56	532	41.4	78.2	8.39	28.7	4.95	
Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu	Hf	W	Ta	Th	U	Zr/Hf	Th/U	Nb/Ta	Tzr(°C)
0.702	3.82	0.585	3.28	0.649	1.83	0.269	1.72	0.252	4.75	45.0	0.990	22.6	5.93	33.47	3.81	9.06	809
0.781	3.97	0.594	3.21	0.619	1.76	0.255	1.61	0.231	3.77	69.7	0.787	24.0	4.09	33.68	5.87	10.57	791
87Sr/86Sr	1 Std Error	87Rb/86Sr	(87Sr/86Sr)i		143Nd/144Nd	1Std Error	147Sm/144Nd	(143Nd/144Nd)i		εNd(226)	T _{DM} (Ma)	T _{2DM} (Ma)					
0.731138	0.000004	4.053177947	0.718363196	0.512055	0.000002	0.107694	0.511899	-8.85		1574		1719					
0.729154	0.000004	3.201509501	0.719064179	0.512064	0.000002	0.104352	0.511913	-8.58		1513		1697					

Tokyo, Japan). Deviation was better than $\pm 10\%$ for the elements exceeding 10 ppm and better than $\pm 5\%$ for the elements exceeding 50 ppm. Strontium and neodymium isotope compositions were measured at the FocuMS Laboratory (Nanjing, China) using Nu Plasma II MC-ICP-MS (Wrexham, Wales, UK) through Teledyne Cetac Technologies Aridus II desolvating nebulizer system (Omaha, Nebraska, USA). The sample preparation and isotope analysis procedure followed the description of Muhtar et al. (2020).

Zircon U-Pb and Lu-Hf isotopes were analyzed at the FocuMS Laboratory (Nanjing, China) using the Teledyne Cetac Technologies Analyte Excite laser-ablation system (Bozeman, Montana, USA) coupled with an Agilent Technologies 7700x ICP-MS (Hachioji, Tokyo, Japan) and the Australian Scientific Instruments RESolution LR laser-ablation system (Canberra, Australian) attached to Nu Instruments Nu Plasma II MC-ICP-MS (Wrexham, Wales, UK), respectively. The analysis procedure is similar to the methods of Cong et al. (2019).

Electron microprobe analysis (EMPA) on feldspar, biotite, and apatite were conducted using a JEOL JXA-8100 microprobe at the State Key Laboratory for Mineral Deposits Research at Nanjing University, China. The standard sets for feldspar and mica are same as Huang and Jiang (2014), and for apatite are same as Li et al. (2015). All data were corrected with standard ZAF correction procedures. *In-situ* compositions of biotite and zircon were measured with a Photon Machines Excite 193 nm laser ablation system coupled to an Agilent 7700x ICP-MS at the FocuMS Laboratory, Nanjing, China. The details of measurement are

similar with the description in Li et al. (2018).

4. Results

4.1. Petrology of the Sanxianba stock

Careful core cataloging and petrographic observation have been conducted for the collected samples. The Sanxianba stock is composed of single phase of biotite granite porphyry (Fig. 3a) without other intrusion sequence in the stock. The O line drill section (Fig. 2) is taken as the window to describe the main petrologic characteristics of the Sanxianba stock. The phenocrysts in the stock mainly comprise plagioclase (20–30 vol%), K-feldspar (30–40 vol%), quartz (30–40 vol%), and biotite (~5 vol%) (Fig. 3b-e), and the groundmass is mainly quartz and feldspar. Plagioclase phenocrysts are euhedral, with a zoned texture (Fig. 3b). Biotite phenocrysts are flaky with ragged edges (Fig. 3c). Sometimes, the relatively fresh biotite is hosted in the plagioclase, and they both are enveloped by K-feldspar (Fig. 3d). Quartz is subhedral, sometimes with embayed rims. Near the intrusion margin, quartz and K-feldspar can be in characteristic angular intergrowths to form granophytic texture (Fig. 3e). The accessory minerals mainly include zircon, apatite, ilmenite, and monazite (Fig. 3c, f). Apatite occurs as mineral inclusions (Ap-earlier) in biotite phenocryst (Fig. 3c), or isolated euhedral grains (Ap-later) in the groundmass (Fig. 3f). The Ap-earlier occurs as small euhedral crystal with no mineral inclusion, while the Ap-later is

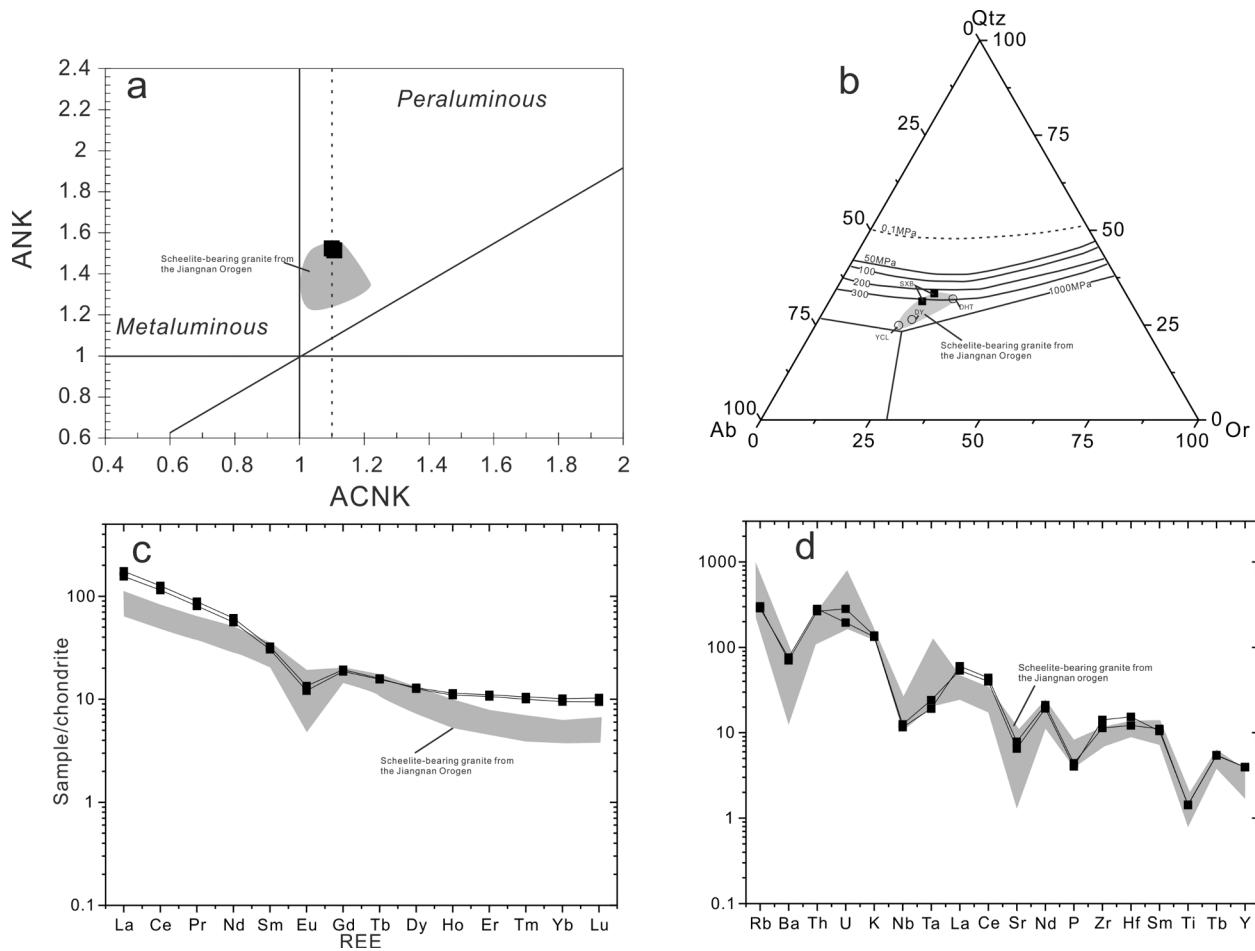


Fig. 5. Major and trace elements of the Sanxianba granite. **a:** ACNK vs. ANK. **b:** Projection of quartz (Qtz), albite (Ab), and orthoclase (Or) contents of the Sanxianba granite (SXB, this study), the Yangchuling granite (YCL, Mao et al., 2017), the Dongyuan granite (DY, Wang et al., 2007b), the Dahutang granite (DHT, Huang and Jiang, 2014) onto the Qz-Ab-Or ternary (after Blundy and Cashman, 2001). **c:** Chondrite-normalized REE pattern of the Sanxianba granite. **d:** Primitive mantle-normalized trace element of the Sanxianba granite. Chondrite and primitive mantle compositions are from Sun and McDonough (1989). The data range for scheelite-bearing granite from the Jiangnan Orogen is according to Huang and Jiang (2014), Wang et al. (2007b) and Mao et al. (2017).

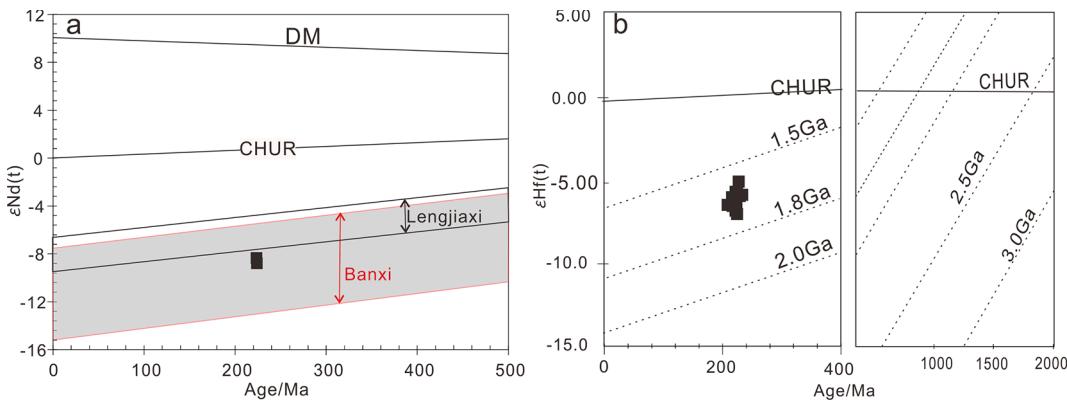


Fig. 6. Whole rock Sr, Nd, and *in-situ* zircon Hf isotopic compositions of the Sanxianba granite. **a:** $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}(t)$ - $t(\text{Ma})$ diagram, the Nd isotopic evolution region of the Neoproterozoic basement of the district are outlined according to the data of Li and McCulloch (1996) and Wang et al. (2010). **b:** $\epsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ - $t(\text{Ma})$ diagram.

relatively larger than Ap-earlier and may envelope felsic mineral inclusions (Fig. 3f). Under CL, the apatite are relatively homogeneous, without obvious textural and/or compositional zoning (insets in Fig. 3c, f). A few anhedral monazites are associated with apatite in the groundmass (Fig. 3f). Zircons are transparent prismatic crystals and disseminated in the Sanxianba stock, as inclusions in phenocrysts (e.g. biotite) and/or isolated grains in groundmass (Fig. 3c, f, g). The

alteration types are mainly albitization, chloritization, greisenization, and phyllitic alteration (Fig. 3g-i). The former two are usually constrained to the feldspar and biotite phenocrysts, respectively (Fig. 3b-d). The latter two are widespread and overprint the albitization and chloritization (Fig. 3g-i).

Table 2

EPM compositions (in wt. %) for the feldspar from the Sanxianba granite.

Sample	ZK006-33										ZK006-29								
	phenocryst										phenocryst				phenocryst				
Spot No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	19	20	21	11	12	13			
SiO ₂	53.89	58.49	59.73	58.42	59.07	58.72	58.88	57.17	58.02	54.91	59.69	58.90	58.63	64.26	63.40	62.91			
TiO ₂	b.d.	0.07	0.05	0.02	0.03	0.08	0.03	0.02	b.d.	0.09	0.05	0.01	0.03	b.d.	0.04	b.d.			
Al ₂ O ₃	28.96	26.65	26.19	26.94	25.59	27.12	26.68	26.52	25.63	28.83	26.84	26.09	26.02	18.66	18.23	18.24			
FeO	0.07	0.09	0.08	0.09	0.10	0.05	0.09	0.08	0.08	0.12	0.09	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.03	0.06			
MnO	0.03	b.d.	0.03	0.02	b.d.	b.d.	0.00	0.01	0.01	b.d.	b.d.	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.00	0.03			
MgO	0.02	0.03	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	0.02	b.d.	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.05	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.			
CaO	10.96	8.10	7.69	8.42	7.86	8.40	8.17	8.29	7.28	10.41	7.90	6.52	7.96	0.22	0.03	0.02			
Na ₂ O	5.30	6.52	6.67	6.64	6.47	6.42	6.61	7.16	7.52	5.68	6.59	7.68	6.64	0.39	1.70	1.34			
K ₂ O	0.19	0.38	0.43	0.38	0.40	0.36	0.35	0.37	0.36	0.23	0.30	0.62	0.33	14.91	14.38	14.77			
SrO	b.d.	0.04	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	0.01	0.03	b.d.	b.d.	0.04	0.01	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	0.02			
Total	98.53	98.15	96.70	97.83	101.09	100.43	97.38	99.71	98.92	100.30	101.47	99.95	99.71	98.53	97.83	97.38			
An/%	52.74	39.80	37.92	40.34	39.21	41.10	39.75	38.22	34.16	49.65	39.16	30.80	39.06	1.16	0.15	0.08			
Ab	46.18	57.97	59.54	57.50	58.44	56.82	58.23	59.75	63.81	49.06	59.08	65.72	59.00	3.76	15.23	12.12			
Or	1.08	2.22	2.54	2.16	2.35	2.08	2.02	2.03	2.03	1.29	1.76	3.49	1.94	95.08	84.62	87.80			
*KD _(An-Ab) ^{pl-liq}	0.07	0.12	0.13	0.12	0.13	0.12	0.12	0.13	0.16	0.08	0.13	0.18	0.13						
T/°C	838	830	840	836	843	839	833	833	833	833	838	837	837						
H ₂ O/wt.%	4.44	4.61	4.40	4.49	4.34	4.43	4.54				4.44	4.44	4.44						

b.d.: below detection limit.

*: after Putirka (2008).

4.2. Zircon U-Pb geochronology

The Sanxianba granite has euhedral prismatic zircons (Fig. 4a). We have examined CL images of more than 200 zircons and found no inherited cores which show rounding and other resorption features (Corfu et al., 2003; Miller et al., 2003; Watson, 1996). Under CL, the inner of zircons (Zrn-earlier) is relatively bright and show distinct oscillatory zone, while the outer (Zrn-later) is relatively black without obvious oscillatory zone (Fig. 4a). Fourteen Zrn-earlier and two Zrn-later with no inclusions were selected to analyze U-Pb isotopes, and the results are listed in Appendix Table A. All the age data are identical within analytical error and yield a weighted mean $^{238}\text{U}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ age of 226.1 ± 1.8 Ma (Fig. 4b).

4.3. Whole rock geochemistry

Whole rock geochemistry results are listed in Table 1. The calculated CIA values (chemical index of alteration: molar ratios of $[\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3]/(\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{CaO} + \text{Na}_2\text{O} + \text{K}_2\text{O}) * 100$) are 52.37–52.54 (Table 1), within the common range of fresh granite (Nesbitt and Young, 1982). It belongs to high-K calc-alkaline series and strong peraluminous granite with ASI value of 1.10–1.11 (Fig. 5a). The normalized Qz-Ab-Or composition of the Sanxianba granite suggests that the magma pressure is near 300 Mpa (Fig. 5b, after Blundy and Cashman, 2001). It has right-dipped REE_N patterns, with medium Eu negative anomalies ($\text{Eu/Eu}^* = 0.51 - 0.54$) (Fig. 5c), and relatively high Th, U, but low Ba, Sr and Ti contents (Fig. 5d), similar with the W-bearing granites from the Jiangnan Orogen (Huang and Jiang, 2014; Mao et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2007b). Fluorine content is 1030–1070 ppm, and Cl is 48.6–58.2 ppm. Calculated Zr-saturation temperature (T_{Zr} , Watson and Harrison, 1983) is 809–791 °C.

4.4. Whole rock Sr and Nd isotopes and zircon Lu-Hf isotopes

The Sanxianba granite has relatively radioactive Sr isotope composition, with initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of 0.71836–0.71906 (Table 1). It also has relatively enriched Nd isotope compositions, with $\epsilon\text{Nd}(226 \text{ Ma})$ of $-8.58 - -8.85$ (Fig. 6a) and Nd model age (T_{DM2}) of 1.70–1.72 Ga.

The Lu-Hf isotope compositions of zircon are listed in Appendix Table B. Zircon from the Sanxianba granite has relatively enriched Hf isotopes, with $\epsilon\text{Hf(t)}$ of $-5.12 - -7.05$, and Hf model ages of 1.6–1.7 Ga (Fig. 6b).

4.5. In-situ composition of mineral

4.5.1. Feldspar

The EMPA results for feldspar are listed in Table 2. Plagioclase phenocrysts are mainly andesine ($\text{An} = 30.80 - 41.10$), and sometimes have the labradorite in the core ($\text{An} = 49.65 - 52.74$) (Fig. 7a). They have normal-zoned texture, with decreasing CaO and increasing Na₂O rimward (Fig. 7b). K-feldspar phenocrysts have low contents of CaO (0.02–0.22 wt%) and Na₂O (0.39–1.70 wt%), with Or fraction of 84.62–95.08 (Fig. 7a). Temperature and water contents of magma when plagioclase crystallizes are calculated via methods of Putirka (2005) and Waters and Lange (2015), respectively (Table 2). Whole rock composition is viewed as the melt composition when calculation, and the early plagioclase ($\text{An} = 41.1 - 37.9$) gives the temperature of 830–843 °C and water content of 4.40–4.61 wt%. The labradorite core and rim plagioclase ($\text{An} < 36$) are out the equilibrium with melt (after the method of Putirka, 2008) (Table 2) and thus don't give meaningful results.

4.5.2. Biotite

The in-situ compositions of biotite are listed in Table 3. The biotite has 2.04–2.36 wt% TiO₂, 18.43–20.43 wt% FeO, 0.18–0.27 wt% MnO, and 10.66–11.46 wt% MgO, belonging to magnesia biotite (Fig. 7c). Al₂O₃ in biotite is relatively high ($\text{Al} > 2.80 \text{ apfu}$ in formula unit), and plotted in the compositional range of biotite from peraluminous granite (Fig. 7d). It contains relatively high F content from 1.14 to 1.54 wt% and low Cl content from 0.076 to 0.095 wt%. The intercept values of IV(F), IV(Cl), and IV(F/Cl) of biotite is calculated after Munoz (1984) to obtain the relative degree of halogen enrichment in biotite (Table 3). The biotite has low IV(F) and thus is relatively enriched in fluorine, which is comparable to IV(F) of biotite from the scheelite-bearing granite (Fig. 7e). Calculated water content in the biotite after Tindle and Webb (1990) is 3.30–3.42 wt% (Fig. 7f). Biotite has 579–833 ppm Rb, 1837–4454 ppm Ba, 34.9–50.8 ppm Nb, and 1.08–2.18 ppm Ta, with Rb/Ba ratios 0.15–0.45 and Nb/Ta ratios 23.26–32.31 (Fig. 7g). It also has 14.4–17.9 ppm Sn, and 1.12–3.37 ppm W (Fig. 7h).

4.5.3. Apatite

Apatite from the Sanxianba granite has relatively high contents of FeO, MnO, F, but low Cl, similar with those from the tungsten-bearing granite (Table 4, Fig. 8a-b). FeO (0.400–0.913 wt%) and FeO/MnO ratios (0.98–4.06) of the Ap-earlier are relatively high, while those of the Ap-later lower (0.15–0.359 wt% and 0.410–1.04, respectively) (Fig. 8). Their MnO contents are comparable (Fig. 8a). The Ap-earlier has

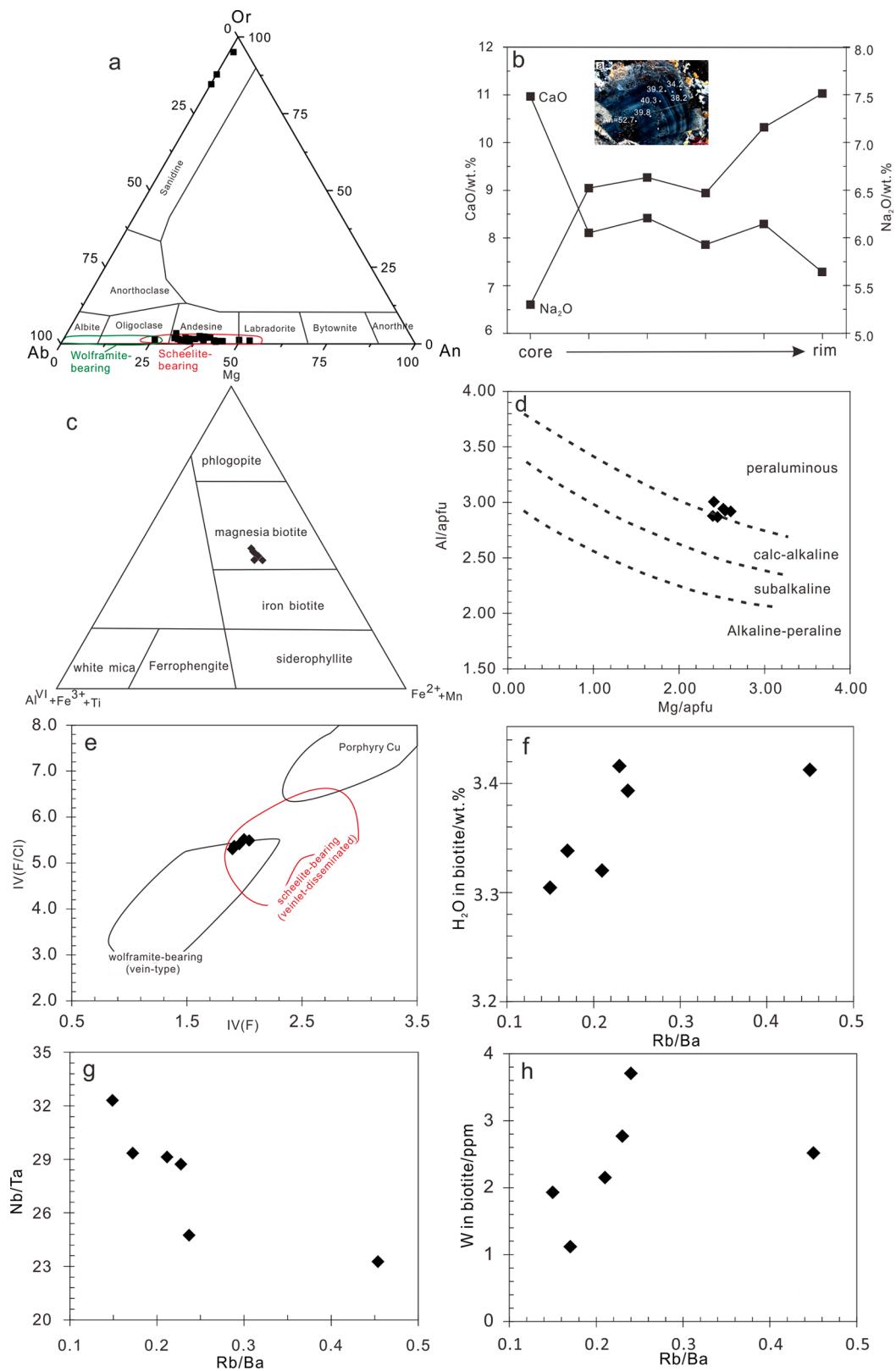


Fig. 7. The *in-situ* mineral compositions of feldspar (a-b) and biotite (c-h) in the Sanxianba granite. **a:** An-Ab-Or triangle diagram of feldspar. The plagioclase compositions of both the wolframite-bearing granite and scheelite-bearing granite are according to Zhang et al. (2017), and Mao et al. (2017) and Xie et al. (2018b), respectively. **b:** Compositional profiles of Na_2O and K_2O in a normal-zoned plagioclase phenocryst. **c:** Classification of biotite (after Foster, 1960). **d:** Al-Mg diagram for biotite (after Stussi and Cuney, 1996). **e:** Intercept value $\text{IV}(\text{F}/\text{Cl})$ plots against $\text{IV}(\text{F})$ for biotite. The biotite compositions for porphyry Cu, scheelite-bearing granite and wolframite-bearing granite are from Munoz (1984), Mao et al. (2017) and Zhang et al. (2016), and Jiang et al. (2005) and Li et al. (2013), respectively. **f:** H_2O vs. Rb/Ba , **g:** Nb/Ta vs. Rb/Ba , and **h:** W vs. Rb/Ba in biotite.

Table 3

EMP (in wt. %) and LA-ICP-MS (in ppm) compositions of the biotite from the Sanxianba granite.

sample analyse No.	ZK007-29				ZK006-33	
	01	02	03	04	06	07
(wt. %)						
SiO ₂	36.41	36.44	35.25	36.39	36.78	36.92
TiO ₂	2.29	2.27	2.04	2.36	2.14	2.24
Al ₂ O ₃	16.58	16.19	16.57	16.58	16.75	16.24
FeO	20.03	20.43	20.34	19.27	18.96	18.43
MnO	0.27	0.25	0.26	0.27	0.27	0.27
MgO	11.2	10.66	10.5	11.38	11.34	11.46
CaO	0.01	bd.	0.02	0.00	0.06	0.03
Na ₂ O	0.22	0.25	0.22	0.33	0.32	0.27
K ₂ O	9.56	9.05	9.44	9.35	9.28	9.29
F	1.22	1.15	1.14	1.44	1.28	1.54
Cl	0.09	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.1	0.08
H ₂ O*	3.42	3.41	3.34	3.30	3.39	3.32
O = F, Cl	0.50	0.62	0.54	0.50	0.56	0.67
Total	101.30	100.18	99.21	100.75	100.67	100.09
(ppm)						
Li	566	661	642	634	662	665
Sc	64.8	65.2	59.1	62.3	67.4	63.2
V	506	420	566	441	433	419
Cr	345	250	284	347	316	299
Co	39.6	49.3	36.8	40.1	26.5	44.3
Ga	50.8	50.5	47.3	52.1	59	51.7
Rb	791	833	579	663	756	696
Sr	0.35	0.21	0.5	0.25	0.32	0.22
Nb	42	50.8	38.8	34.9	53.1	42
Sn	16.6	14.4	15.5	16.8	15.5	17.9
Cs	33	34.1	20.2	43.3	29.4	37.9
Ba	3478	1837	3367	4454	3193	3289
Ta	1.46	2.18	1.32	1.08	2.15	1.44
W	2.77	2.52	1.12	1.93	3.71	2.15
Nb/Ta	28.73	23.26	29.35	32.31	24.74	29.13
Rb/Ba	0.23	0.45	0.17	0.15	0.24	0.21

b.d.: below detection limit.

* after Tindle and Webb (1990).

3.035–3.578 wt% F, 0.01–0.05 wt% Cl, 0.06–0.15 wt% Na₂O, and no >0.13 wt% La₂O₃ (Fig. 8c-f). Fluorine content in the Ap-later is up to 4.05 wt%, but Cl, Na₂O and La₂O₃ contents are <0.05 wt%, 0.15 wt% and 0.07 wt%, respectively (Fig. 8c-f).

4.5.4. Zircon

In-situ LA-ICP-MS compositions of zircon are listed in Appendix Table C. All the zircons have left-dipped REE_N patterns with negative Eu-anomaly and positive Ce-anomaly (Fig. 9a). From Zrn-earlier to Zrn-later, P and REE + Y increase (Fig. 9b), while the Eu/Eu* and (Sm/Yb)_N ratios decrease (Fig. 9c). Thorium, U, Nb and Ta contents gradually increase in the zircons with fractionation, but Th/U ratios decrease (Fig. 9d-e; Appendix Table C). The Nb/Ta ratios of the zircons decrease in the Zrn-earlier, and have a faint increase in the Zrn-later (Fig. 9e). The tungsten contents in the Zrn-earlier (<0.05 ppm) are mostly below the detection limit, while the Zrn-later has relatively high contents of W (0.03–2.81 ppm) (Fig. 9f). The calculated crystallization temperature of the zircons (T_{Zrn-Ti}) after Ferry and Watson (2007) are from 808°C to 527 °C (Fig. 10). The calculated oxygen fugacity using zircon oxybarometer of Loucks et al. (2020) is below FMQ buffer (Fig. 10).

5. Discussion

5.1. Petrogenesis of the Sanxianba granite

The Sanxianba granite is strongly peraluminous, and has relatively high contents of Si and Rb, but low Ba, Sr and Ti (Fig. 5), similar to the typical compositions of S-type granite (Champion and Bultitude, 2013; Chappell and White, 1992, 2001; Clemens, 2003; Wu et al., 2003; 2017) and the W-bearing granite from the Jiangnan Orogen (Fig. 5; Huang and

Jiang, 2014; Mao et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2007b). It also has the typical crust-derived Sr-Nd-Hf isotope compositions (Table 1, Fig. 6). The apatite and zircon have compositions similar to those from S-type granites (Burnham and Berry, 2017; Sha and Chappell, 1999; Fig. 8a-b, 9b) and W-Sn-bearing granites (Fig. 8a-b; Ding et al., 2015; Rasmussen and Mortensen, 2013).

Assessing temperatures of magma that solidified to form plutonic rock can provide important enlightenment for its petrogenesis (Chappell et al., 2004; Miller et al., 2003). The zircon saturation temperature (T_{Zr}, Watson and Harrison, 1983) can serve as the minimum estimates of temperature if the magma is lacking inherited zircon (Miller et al., 2003). The Sanxianba granite is inheritance-poor and thus the T_{Zr} indicates the temperature of the Sanxianba magma is no less than the 809 °C (Table 1). This result is consistent with the calculated crystallization temperature of the early plagioclase (up to 843 °C; Table 2) and T_{Zrn-Ti} (up to 808 °C; Fig. 10). Thus the Sanxianba granite belongs to “hot granites” of Miller et al. (2003), and might have originated from biotite dehydration melting in the crust. The relatively high CaO/Na₂O ratios (0.65–0.66) and low Al₂O₃/TiO₂ ratios (41.6–44.4) of the Sanxianba granite suggest it may be derived from high-temperature partial melting of the biotite-rich psammitic rocks (Patiño Douce and Johnston, 1991; Patiño Douce and Beard, 1995; Skjerlie and Johnston, 1996; Sylvester, 1998 and references therein). The whole rock Nd isotope data indicates it may originate from the Neoproterozoic Banxi group strata (Fig. 6a). The Banxi Group is a series of tuffaceous-bearing clastic sediments, in which metasandstone is relatively rich in CaO and TiO₂ with average ~88 ppm Rb (Gu et al., 2003) and 8.2 ppm W (Yang, 1992). The Sanxianba stock emplaced at ~226 Ma (Fig. 4). The contemporaneous mafic rocks are also found in the district (c.f. Dai et al., 2008; Jin et al., 2017). Thus mafic magma underplating might have taken place during this period in the South China (Wang et al., 2007b; Zhao et al., 2017b), and provided heat for the high-temperature partial melting of the Banxi Group metasandstone to generate the Sanxianba magma.

Here we select the Banxi Group metasandstone as the source rock and use the partial melting model of Shaw (1970) to model the origin of the Sanxianba magma. Biotite-dehydration melting (biotite + feldspar + aluminous silicate + quartz = melt + garnet, Nabelek and Bartlett, 2001) is selected as the melting reaction. Rubidium mainly partitions into mica and feldspar, rather than accessory minerals (c.f. Blundy and Wood, 1991) and thus is used here to model melting process. The modal abundance of minerals in source rock (see Appendix Table D) is calculated through mass balance using the whole rock composition (after Li et al., 2020). The Rb content of the primary magma of the Sanxianba (164 ppm) is calculated through the Rb content of the earliest biotite (579 ppm) enveloped in plagioclase (see Appendix Table D for more details). The modeling shows that ~35% partial melting of the Banxi Group metasandstone can produce primary magma of the Sanxianba granite (Appendix Table D Fig. 11a) and that its tungsten content is ~21 ppm, comparable to the tungsten contents in the W-bearing granites in South China (Fig. 11b; Huang and Jiang, 2014; Mao et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2007b; Zhang et al., 2017; See the Appendix Table D for more details). Similar partial melting modeling was conducted by Simons et al. (2016) and their results also indicated that ~30% biotite-dehydration melting of the metagreywacke can produce the W-Sn-bearing granite in the Cornubian Batholith.

5.2. Tungsten enrichment during magma evolution

Major mineral phases may be important carriers of specific trace elements (e.g. Sr and Eu in plagioclase and Rb in biotite), however the budget of most other trace elements (e.g. REE, Th and U) in silicic magmas is controlled by crystallization of accessory minerals such as apatite and zircon due to their high and distinct partition coefficients (c. f. Bachmann et al., 2005; Rubatto and Hermann, 2007). Relatively protracted timescales of zircon, combined with its compositions, gives it a potential proxy to record the evolution of an ore-forming magma

Table 4

EMP compositions (in wt. %) of the apatite from the Sanxianba granite.

Type	Ap-earlier (inclusions in biotite)							ZK006-35			
sampl	ZK006-34							ZK006-35			
spot	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	16	17	18	19
P ₂ O ₅	40.04	41.26	40.50	39.84	40.72	40.35	40.42	40.01	41.96	41.38	42.04
SiO ₂	b.d.	b.d.	0.05	0.25	0.24	0.27	0.17	0.18	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.
TiO ₂	b.d.	0.02	0.04	0.07	0.03	0.05	0.02	0.01	b.d.	0.01	0.04
Al ₂ O ₃	b.d.	0.03	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	0.01	0.02
FeO	0.91	0.51	0.59	0.84	0.68	0.65	0.59	0.46	0.40	0.43	0.47
MnO	0.49	0.48	0.27	0.22	0.20	0.16	0.35	0.22	0.41	0.13	0.25
CaO	53.55	55.34	54.26	53.65	53.94	53.95	53.92	53.95	54.64	53.96	54.32
Na ₂ O	0.09	0.13	0.13	0.10	0.07	0.06	0.12	0.12	0.15	0.12	0.12
Ce ₂ O ₃	0.21	0.28	0.15	0.13	0.31	0.19	0.25	0.13	0.07	0.12	0.11
La ₂ O ₃	0.11	0.13	0.05	0.07	b.d.	0.03	0.13	0.03	0.06	0.05	b.d.
F	3.04	3.58	3.23	3.27	3.16	3.10	3.22	3.34	3.41	3.24	3.36
Cl	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.01	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.02	0.04
O = F,Cl	1.29	1.52	1.37	1.38	1.34	1.31	1.36	1.42	1.45	1.37	1.42
Total	97.14	99.93	97.94	97.04	97.97	97.56	97.68	97.04	99.72	98.14	99.41
FeO/MnO	1.87	1.07	2.19	3.82	3.40	4.06	1.69	2.09	0.98	3.31	1.88
occurrence	Ap-later (isolated grain in the matrix)										
sample	ZK007-29							ZK006-35			
spot	8	9	10		11	12	13	14	15		
P ₂ O ₅	40.36	41.28	40.89		41.96	41.57	41.77	42.59		41.75	
SiO ₂	b.d.	0.05	0.00		b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.		b.d.	
TiO ₂	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.		0.00	b.d.	b.d.	0.00		0.01	
Al ₂ O ₃	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.		0.01	b.d.	0.01	0.00		0.02	
FeO	0.26	0.31	0.28		0.23	0.17	0.27	0.15		0.36	
MnO	0.25	0.32	0.32		0.38	0.40	0.38	0.37		0.45	
CaO	56.06	55.29	54.16		55.58	54.95	55.41	55.67		55.58	
Na ₂ O	0.08	0.10	0.07		0.09	0.11	0.14	0.15		0.09	
Ce ₂ O ₃	0.11	0.16	0.11		0.12	0.27	0.19	0.13		0.19	
La ₂ O ₃	0.05	0.03	b.d.		b.d.	0.02	0.07	0.01		0.07	
F	3.17	3.68	3.37		3.20	3.71	3.67	3.86		4.05	
Cl	0.02	0.02	0.06		0.03	0.04	0.04	0.04		0.05	
O=F,Cl	1.34	1.55	1.43		1.35	1.57	1.55	1.63		1.72	
Total	99.10	99.51	97.85		100.39	99.37	100.17	101.19		100.64	
FeO/MnO	1.04	0.97	0.88		0.62	0.43	0.71	0.41		0.80	

b.d. : below detection limit.

chamber from zircon saturation through to emplacement and solidification (Large et al., 2018).

REE can enter the zircon lattice through substituting for Zr (Hoskin and Schaltegger, 2003). Controlled by the proximity of their radii and valence state to zirconium's, the REE in igneous zircon is characterized by a steeply-rising normalized pattern from the LREE to the HREE with a positive Ce-anomaly and negative Eu-anomaly (Hoskin and Schaltegger, 2003; Loader et al., 2017). Both Zrn-earlier and Zrn-later from the Sanxianba granite have characteristic REE patterns of magmatic zircon (Fig. 9a), indicating a magmatic-origin. The nearly 1:1 relation between concentrations of P and REE + Y in them (Fig. 9b) indicates the dominant "xenotime" substitution mechanism ((Y, REE)³⁺ + P⁵⁺ = Zr⁴⁺ + Si⁴⁺, Hoskin and Schaltegger, 2003) for REE. During the evolution of the Sanxianba magma, zircons record a decreasing crystallization temperature and the relatively constant oxygen fugacity (Fig. 10), indicating progressive cooling and crystallization of a magma reservoir that remained unaffected by any chemical or thermal rejuvenation (c.f. Large et al., 2018). The normal compositional zones of the plagioclase phenocrysts also show progressive cooling (Winter, 2012, Fig. 7b).

Europium anomalies in the zircons can be influenced by the redox conditions (c.f. Loader et al., 2017; Trail et al., 2012) and/or by co-crystallization of Eu-bearing mineral phases like plagioclase (c.f. Deering et al., 2016) and titanite (Loader et al., 2017). The oxygen fugacity of the Sanxianba magma is relatively constant (Fig. 10), hence it does not lead to the decreasing Eu/Eu^{*} ratios in zircons. Magmatic titanite is not found in the Sanxianba granite. Thus, the negative Eu-anomaly variation in zircons probably reflects the co-crystallization of plagioclase. The (Sm/Yb)_N ratios in zircons also decrease with the fractionation (Fig. 9c).

indicating the co-crystallization of apatite which preferentially incorporates Sm over Yb (Deering et al., 2016). With the Sanxianba magma fractionation, Th and U will gradually increase. This process is recorded by the zircon (Fig. 9d). The Zrn-later has elevated Th and U contents (Fig. 9d), indicating a relatively fractionated later melt. The decreasing Th/U ratios in zircons with fractionation (Fig. 9d) reflect the greater incompatibility of U than Th in crystallizing mineral assemblage.

Tantalum and niobium are incompatible lithophile elements and normally show an increase accompanied by a decrease of the Nb/Ta ratio during the magma fractionation (c.f. Dostal and Chatterjee, 2000; Stepanov et al., 2014). The enrichment trend of Nb and Ta in the Sanxianba magma with fractionation is recorded by the increasing Nb and Ta contents in the zircons (Appendix Table C, Fig. 9e). The decreasing Nb/Ta ratios in the Zrn-earlier (Fig. 9e) may reflect the co-crystallization of biotite which preferentially incorporates Nb over Ta (Stepanov et al., 2014). While the faint increase of Nb/Ta ratios in the Zrn-later (Fig. 9e) cannot be explained by the continuous crystallization. One possible explanation is that there is Cl-rich fluid exsolution. The Cl-rich fluid will preferentially sequester Ta over Nb (Keppler, 1996) and thus the residual melt will have increased Nb/Ta ratios. Both Nb and Ta are generally not likely to partition into fluid ($D_{\text{fluid/melt}} < 1$, Keppler, 1996), and hence fluid exsolution will not interrupt their enrichment trend in the fractionated melt.

Experiments show that tungsten solubility in granitic melt is more than 1000 ppm WO₃ (Štemprok, 1990), and can be up to 2.68 wt% in fluxing-rich evolved melts (Che et al., 2013). Tungsten is incompatible in most rock-forming minerals and thus will concentrate in evolved melt during differentiation (Černý et al., 2005; Linnen and Cuney, 2005). The

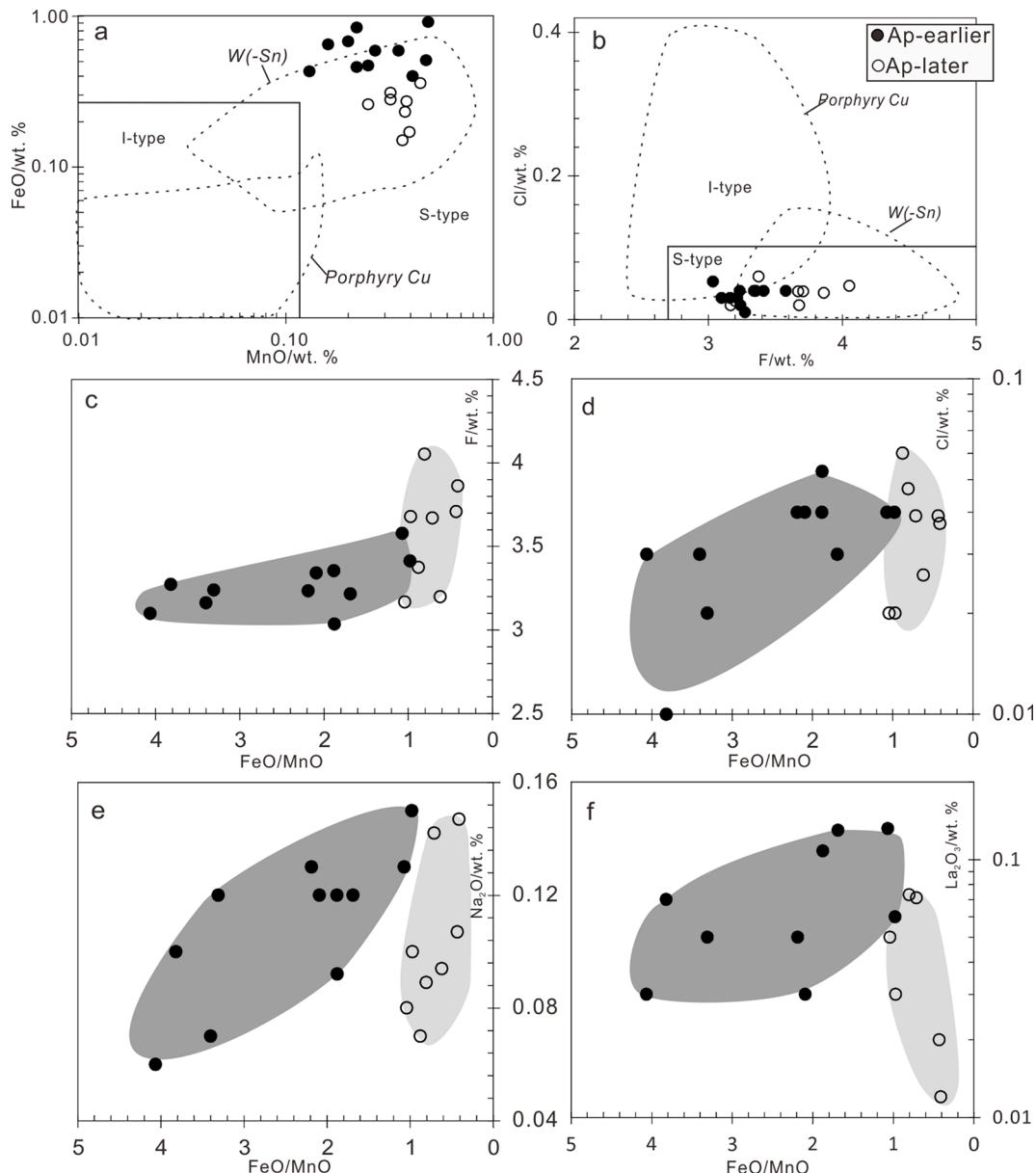


Fig. 8. Compositions of the apatite in the Sanxianba granite. **a:** MnO vs. FeO; **b:** F vs. Cl; **c:** FeO/MnO vs. F; **d:** FeO/MnO vs. Cl; **e:** FeO/MnO vs. Na₂O; **f:** FeO/MnO vs. La₂O₃. Data sources in **a** and **b**: the compositional ranges of apatite from the S- and I-type granite (Sha and Chappell, 1999), the porphyry Cu deposit (Pan et al., 2016), and the W(-Sn) deposit (Ding et al., 2015; Rasmussen and Mortensen, 2013).

tungsten contents in the zircons show an enrichment trend with crystallization fractionation (Fig. 9f), and the similar trend is also recorded by the phenocryst biotite (Fig. 7h). This suggests a gradual enrichment of tungsten in the magma with fractionation. Although the partition coefficient of tungsten between zircon and melt is not available, the experimental studies show that the partition coefficient of tungsten between minerals and basaltic melts has limited variation with different temperature and pressure (Adam and Green, 2006). Hence, it is speculated that the partition coefficient of tungsten between zircon and melts might have also been nearly constant. Thus, the variation of W in the melt can be estimated based on the concentration of W in the zircon. If so, increase of W in zircon from early 0.05 ppm to later 2.81 ppm (Fig. 9f) implies that the tungsten contents in the evolved melt can increase by about fifty times.

5.3. Fluxing components (H_2O , F, Cl, P) in the Sanxianba magma

The water content of granitic magma can be deduced from the crystallization sequence of hydrous minerals. Experiments show that in the H_2O -poor melt (e.g. <1.5 wt%) biotite is a late-saturated mineral facies after both the K-feldspar and quartz (Maaløe and Wyllie, 1975), whereas in the H_2O -rich melt (>4 wt%) biotite is a precursor earlier than plagioclase (Naney, 1983). Some of the biotites in the Sanxianba granite occur as mineral inclusions wrapped in plagioclase (Fig. 3d), suggesting an early-saturated biotite mineral phase in the magma. Thus, the water contents in the early Sanxianba magma will be no less than 4 wt%. This inference is consistent with the calculated water contents using the plagioclase hygrometer (~4.4 wt%, Table 2). The water enrichment trend in the magma with fractionation is recorded by the water contents in biotite (Fig. 7f).

The Sanxianba granite has high F contents (1030–1070 ppm) and low Cl contents (48.6–58.2 ppm), which suggest it may be relatively F-

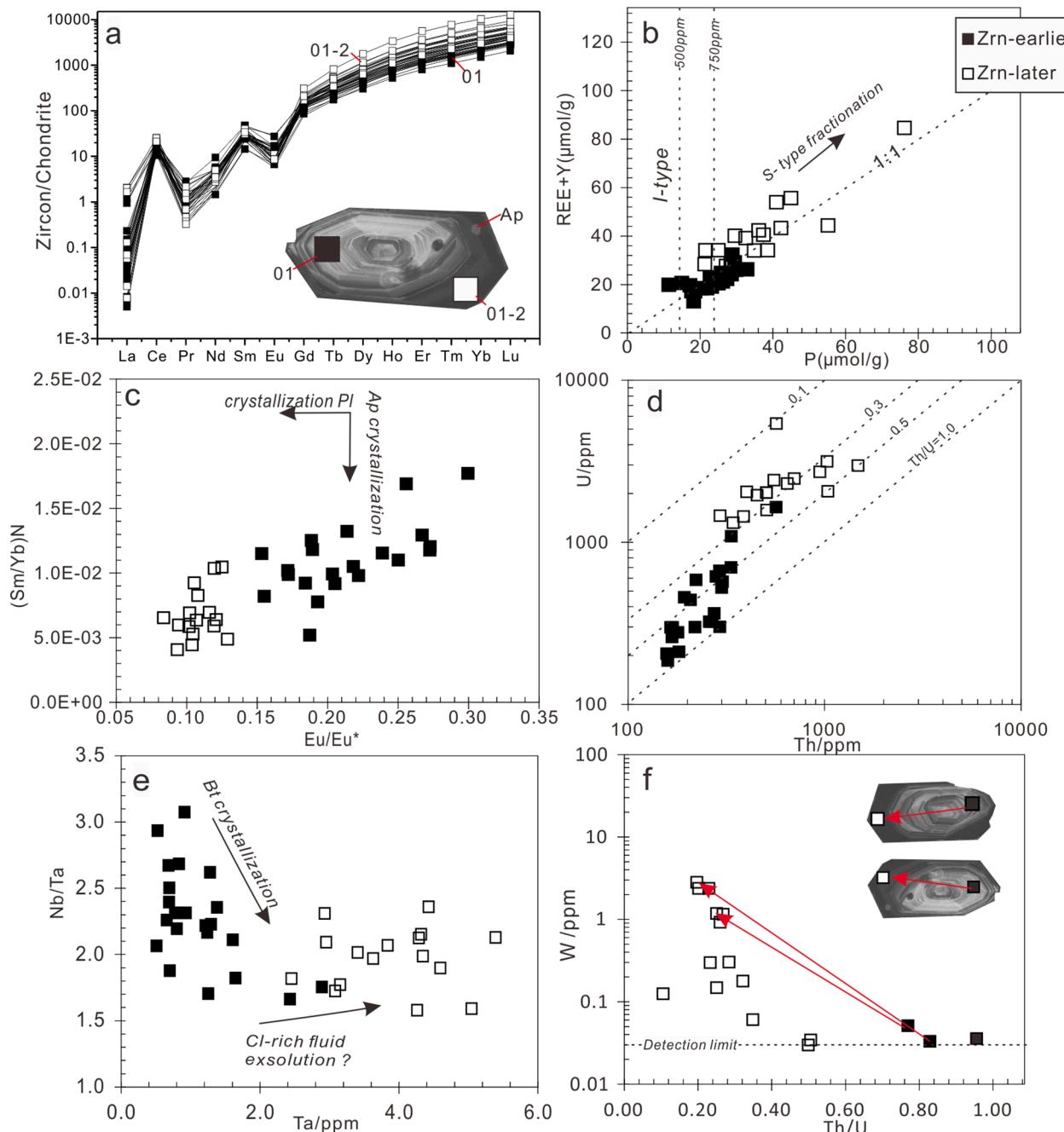


Fig. 9. Textures and *in-situ* REE and trace elements of zircons from the Sanxianba granite. **a:** Chondrite-normalized REE patterns, inset shows the representative texture of zircon under CL, and squares on it are analyzed spots. **b:** Molar concentrations of REE + Y vs. P in zircon. **c:** Eu/Eu* vs. $(\text{Sm}/\text{Yb})_{\text{N}}$; **d:** Th vs. U; **e:** Ta vs. Nb/Ta; **f:** Th/U vs. W. Chondrite values are from Sun and McDonough (1989). The I- and S-type granite trend/range in (b) is according to Burnham and Berry (2017).

rich but Cl-poor. This is consistent with the halogen compositions of both the biotite and apatite in the Sanxianba granite (Figs. 7, 8). In the muscovite- and fluorite-free granitoids, most (70 to 90%) of the F is contained in biotite, with the remainder being in apatite, and biotite is also the main sink of Cl (Grabezkev et al., 1979; Teiber et al., 2014). Chloritization of biotite may release significant amounts of F and Cl (Teiber et al. 2014) and cause the whole rock halogen content lower than its true value. Biotite suffered from a different degree of chloritization in the Sanxianba granite (Fig. 3c), thus the whole rock F and Cl content in the granite may be a minimum estimate of actual content.

It has been experimentally confirmed that F and Cl are compatible in apatite (c.f. Doherty et al., 2014; Mathez and Webster, 2005). Thus, the actual budget of F and Cl in the magma can be recorded by the halogen

concentrations of apatite. The Ap-earlier records a process of Cl enrichment (Fig. 8d) during the magma evolution. Chlorine can complex with Na and LREE in the melt (Webster, 1992, 1997), thus the elevated Cl contents in melt will facilitate the enrichment of Na and LREE (Webster and Rebbert, 2001), just as recorded by the Ap-earlier (Fig. 8e-f). In the Ap-later, the Cl enrichment is terminated (Fig. 8d), suggesting the Cl content in the later melt decreases. There may be fluid exsolution during the later period of magma evolution. The exsolved fluid sequesters the Cl from the melt ($D_{\text{Cl}}^{\text{fluid/melt}} > 1$, Villemant and Boudon, 1999) to lead to Cl decrease in the melts. The exsolved Cl-rich fluids may also sequester the Cl-complexed elements from the melt, like Na (Audétat et al., 2000) and LREE (Migdisov et al., 2016; Tsay et al., 2014). This can explain why the Na_2O and LREE (La_2O_3) contents in the

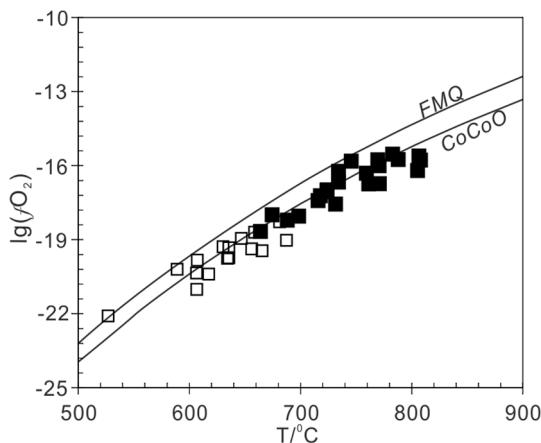


Fig. 10. Calculated temperature (after Ferry and Watson, 2007) and oxygen fugacity (after Loucks et al., 2020) of the Sanxianba magma using the zircon compositions. Quartz-fayalite-magnetite (FMQ) and CoO-Co-O₂ (CoCoO) buffers shown are from Frost (1991).

Ap-later decrease (Fig. 8e-f).

Fluorine and P are more compatible in the melt than in fluid ($D_F^{\text{fluid/melt}} < 1$, Villemant and Boudon, 1999), and hence further concentrated in the evolved melt, just as recorded by both the Ap-later (Fig. 8c) and Zrn-later (Fig. 9b). High F and P contents in the melt can increase the H₂O solubility in the melt (Audéat et al., 2000; Holtz et al., 1993). Thus water, F and P will increase in the evolved melt until they reach oversaturation to generate ore-forming fluids.

5.4. Tungsten mineralization in the Muguayuan deposit

Fluxing components like H₂O, F and P are essential for the formation of magmatic-hydrothermal ore deposits as they can greatly influence the crystallization fractionation, ore elements enrichment, subsequent fluid exsolution and ore elements transport in the fluid, all of which are important processes in ore formation (Audéat and Simon, 2012; Candela, 1997; Candela and Piccoli, 2005; Hedenquist and Lowenstern, 1994; Williams-Jones and Migdisov, 2014). Fluorine, P and H₂O enrichment is a common scenario in the W-Sn rare metal granites and can promote the differentiation of magma (c.f. Bea et al., 1992; Che et al., 2013; Linnen and Cuney, 2005; Webster et al., 1998). High H₂O, F and P in the melt can effectively increase the amount of non-bridging oxygen through depolymerizing the melt structure, and thus enhance the compatibility of tungsten and other rare metal elements in melts (Candela, 1992; Dostal and Chatterjee, 2000; Keppler, 1993; Rickers

et al., 2006; Timofeev and Williams-Jones, 2015; Timofeev et al., 2017; Webster et al., 1998). In the Sanxianba granite, F, P and H₂O are continuously enriched in the evolved melt during the magma fractionation. The elevated fluxing components in the evolved melt may lower the solidus temperature of hydrous granitic systems (Fig. 10) and prolong the magma fractionation time to promote further enrichment of tungsten in the evolved melt.

Magma related to ore deposits usually has relatively high contents of water (>4 wt%; Sillitoe, 2010). However, Chiaradia (2020) proved that oversaturation of H₂O would lead to the Cl-rich exsolution of fluid at early fractionation stage. The Sanxianba granite originates from the ~35% partial melting of the Banxi Group metasandstone, with ~21 ppm tungsten in the primary melt (see modeling in Appendix Table D, Fig. 11). The water content in the early Sanxianba magma is ~4.4 wt%, within the range of common fertile magma for ore deposit (4–6 wt%, Chiaradia, 2020; Sillitoe, 2010). When H₂O starts to be saturated with the magma fractionation in the deep magma chamber, Cl-rich and W-poor fluids will exsolve from the melt (c.f. Audéat et al., 2000), resulting in the early albitization and chloritization of feldspar and biotite phenocryst, respectively.

During the shallow-ward emplacement, their solubility in the melt will decrease due to decompression (Audéat et al., 2000; Lowenstern, 1994; Sparks et al., 1994), triggering the exsolution of F-, P-, and W-rich fluids. Following emplacement, the apex of the intrusion cools and crystallizes first, forming a solidified shell (c.f. Burnham, 1985, 1997; Kirwin, 2005). The exsolved fluids from the underlying magma continuously supply upward, react with the early-formed shell along fractures and then result in greisenization and phyllitic alteration. During these alteration, decomposition of calcium-rich plagioclase (Fig. 7a) releases calcium (Ca²⁺) into fluids (Hemley and Jones, 1964; Jiang et al., 2015; Li et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018). Calcium combines with tungsten in the fluids to precipitate scheelite in those fractures during the evolution of fluids, leading to veinlet-disseminated scheelite mineralization (Li et al., 2018).

6. Conclusions

1. The Sanxianba granite shows affinity to S-type, which is derived from a W-rich melt originated by high-temperature partial melting of the Banxi Group metasandstone.
2. During the magma evolution, W, F, P, H₂O and other incompatible elements are gradually concentrated and form a W-rich evolved melt.
3. The exsolved fluids from the W-rich evolved melt react with granite, forming greisenization and phyllitic alteration, and veinlet-disseminated scheelite mineralization.

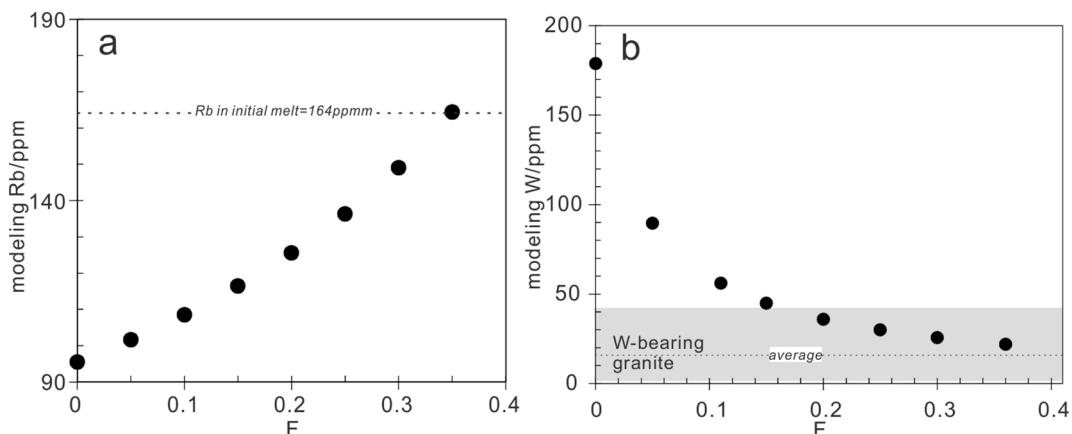


Fig. 11. The trace element modeling results of the Banxi Group metasandstone. **a:** Rubidium content in modeling melt. **b:** Tungsten content in modeling melt. The range of tungsten contents in the W-bearing granites is according to Huang and Jiang (2014), Mao et al. (2017), Wang et al. (2007b) and Zhang et al. (2017).

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oregeorev.2021.104406>.

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