

1 **Sub-arc mantle fugacity shifted by sediment** 2 **recycling across the Great Oxidation Event**

3
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50 **Abstract:**

51 **The chemical exchange between the atmosphere, crust and mantle depends on**
52 **sediment recycling via subduction. However, it remains unclear how**
53 **atmospherically-modified sediment may affect mantle oxygen fugacity through**
54 **time. The Great Oxidation Event, amongst the most significant atmospheric**
55 **changes on Earth, offers an opportunity to investigate changes in magmatism**
56 **related to surface-mantle interactions. Here we use Sulphur K-edge micro-x-ray**
57 **absorption near-edge structure spectroscopy to measure the relative abundances**
58 **of S⁶⁺, S⁴⁺ and S²⁻ state in apatite inclusions hosted in 2.4-2.1 billion years old**
59 **igneous zircons from the Mineiro Belt, Brazil. The host magmas record intracrustal**
60 **melting of juvenile crust and the involvement of recycled sediments in the sub-arc**
61 **mantle wedge. Unaltered apatite inclusions reveal a change from reduced to more**
62 **oxidised magmas from pre- to post- Great Oxidation Event during the early**
63 **Proterozoic. We argue that this change is a direct result of deep subduction of**
64 **oxidised sediments, and thus evidence of mantle-atmosphere interaction across**
65 **the Great Oxidation Event. This suggests that the onset of sediment recycling in the**
66 **Archaean provided atmospheric access to the mantle, and early ‘whiffs’ of oxygen**
67 **may have already contributed to a localised increase of calc-alkaline magmatism**
68 **and related ore deposits on Earth.**

69
70 Significant accumulation of free oxygen in the atmosphere occurred between ~2.45 and
71 2.20 billion years ago (Ga)¹⁻³, with permanent atmospheric oxygenation between 2.3 and
72 2.2 Ga^{4,5}. This period is known as the Great Oxidation Event (GOE) and marks the most
73 dramatic change in Earth’s surface chemistry and habitability⁶. However, it remains
74 unclear if these major atmospheric changes affected the amount of free/ chemically-

75 available oxygen in the mantle and, consequently, the redox state of mantle-derived
76 magmas. In the modern Earth, considerable amounts of surface-oxidised components
77 infiltrate the mantle via slab fluids and subducted sediments⁷, ultimately influencing the
78 oxidation state of the mantle wedge and arc magmas^{8,9}. A better understanding of how
79 magmas changed oxidation through time would clarify ocean-atmosphere influence on
80 mantle redox potential, and whether deep-ocean oxygenation is a feature restricted to
81 the Phanerozoic^{10,11}.

82

83 Mantle oxygen fugacity (fO_2) likely changed in the early Earth as a result of metallic Fe
84 retention during core formation and further homogenization^{12,13}, but subsequent
85 variations through time are debatable. The mantle fO_2 is either described as largely
86 unchanged¹⁴⁻¹⁶ or overall having a near-constant rate of increase through time¹⁷⁻²⁰.

87

88 Common explanations for the absence of identifiable fO_2 change in the mantle are based
89 on the 'infinite reservoir' argument, given its relatively larger size compared to surface
90 reservoirs (i.e., atmosphere, hydrosphere, and crust^{6,15}). Nonetheless, mid-ocean ridge
91 basalts show an increase in the Archaean potentially linked to early 'whiffs' of
92 atmospheric oxygen¹⁸, suggesting that the upper mantle can be affected by changes in the
93 atmosphere. However, despite evidence for recycling of continental materials during at
94 least the past 3.0 Gyr (e.g., ref. ²¹), it is unclear how much this has affected the redox state
95 of the mantle, even across the GOE. Here we test the hypothesis of a change in the redox
96 state of magmas in the sub-arc mantle region via recycling processes akin to subduction
97 during the Palaeoproterozoic.

98

99

100 **Decoding recycling and oxygen fugacity in the geological record**

101 One of the recognisable changes in the magma record that can provide insights into
102 surface-mantle interactions is the transition from tonalite-trondhjemite-granodiorite
103 (TTG) to sanukitoid magmas recorded in most cratons worldwide^{22,23}. This transition
104 started in the Palaeoarchaeon and progressed with reduced occurrence to the
105 Palaeoproterozoic^{22,24,25}. TTGs are formed by partial melting at depth of (often) altered
106 basaltic rocks, whereas sanukitoids require interaction of TTG like melts and/or
107 sediments within a metasomatized mantle wedge^{22,26}. Sanukitoid petrogenesis thus
108 constitutes prima facie evidence for crustal recycling into the upper mantle via
109 'subduction'²⁷. The tectonic settings for this secular magmatic transition are still
110 debated^{23,28,29}, but all models involve a mechanism that includes a return to the mantle of
111 material that was previously at the Earth's surface (e.g., ref. ³⁰).

112

113 Magmas can contain sulphur in variable valence states (S^{2-} , S^0 , S^{4+} , S^{6+}), which are chiefly
114 controlled by melting conditions and assimilation of surface material at source^{31,32}. The
115 preferential assimilation and fugacity variation of sulphur from mantle source to crustal
116 emplacement is controlled by crystallisation and/or degassing of the magma³³. As a
117 result, whole-rock analyses of sulphur speciation may involve a large uncertainty due to
118 the volatility and instability of sulphur during and, especially, after crystallisation. This
119 problem is greatly reduced when melt or mineral phase inclusions are analysed as they
120 are protected by the host crystals and therefore more likely to preserve pristine
121 speciation through subsequent tectono-metamorphic-hydrothermal events^{34,35}.

122

123 The accessory mineral apatite has great potential to record sulphur speciation as it can
124 seamlessly incorporate both reduced and oxidised sulphur^{36,37} and so retain a proxy for

125 the oxygen fugacity of the crystallising magma^{38,39}. Unfortunately, apatite grains easily
126 recrystallise when the host rock is affected by hydrothermal fluids and/or deformation.
127 Hence our approach includes analysing the sulphur speciation of apatite inclusions
128 shielded in host zircon grains and of apatite grains present in the rock's matrix. This
129 avoids secondary alteration processes and offers a robust way to monitor the redox state
130 of the primary magmas (e.g., refs. ^{40,41,42}). Importantly, U-Pb-Hf isotopes of the host zircon
131 can be used to provide information on the age and the source (i.e., mantle or crustal
132 origin) of the magma from which they crystallised⁴³, and stable oxygen isotopes can
133 identify a supracrustal component and aqueous alteration at varying temperatures^{44,45}.
134 Zircon trace element analyses can also provide insights into the composition and redox
135 state of host magmatic rocks⁴⁶. Thus, combining a multi-isotopic and elemental study of
136 zircon host minerals with extra information on the sulphur speciation of its apatite
137 inclusions is a robust approach to study redox changes in magmas, applied here to those
138 which are primary components of the continental crust.

139

140 **A Palaeoproterozoic magmatic transition**

141 We investigate samples from two well-characterised suites of intermediate granitoids
142 from the juvenile Mineiro belt, Brazil. These magmatic suites were classified as a 2.35 Ga
143 TTG and 2.13 Ga sanukitoid based on field evidence, geochemistry and isotope studies,
144 both in whole-rock and accessory phases^{24,47-49}. They are particularly suitable for this
145 study because they record the youngest transition from TTG to sanukitoid magmatism on
146 Earth, taking place in the Palaeoproterozoic rather than in the Archaean as in many other
147 cratons^{23,24}. The transition started shortly before the global 'tectono-magmatic lull' (ref.
148 ⁵⁰) and evolved across the time period of irreversible oxygenation of Earth's atmosphere
149 (ref. ⁵).

150

151 Isotopically, both whole-rock and individual zircon analyses show that the TTGs plot
152 above the chondritic reservoir value (CHUR), and that the sanukitoids have
153 approximately chondritic values^{24,49}. This indicates that both magmatic suites have a
154 'juvenile' signature (ref. 43). Moreover, a projected crustal evolution line typical of granitic
155 crust ($^{176}\text{Lu}/^{177}\text{Hf} = 0.01$) demonstrates that the sanukitoid suite can be traced back 200
156 Myr to the TTG composition, and in turn, those two can be traced back to a depleted
157 mantle source at around 2.5 Ga (**Figure 1a**). Thus, shortly (150 Myr) after mantle
158 extraction, the mafic parental source first underwent partial melting and generated the
159 2.35 Gyr old TTGs⁴⁸. A similar mafic source was remelted ca. 200 Myr later⁴⁷, but this time
160 the magmas record increased depth of melting, as a result of steepening of the subducted
161 slab and opening of a mantle wedge²⁴. This second stage generated 2.13 Ga sanukitoid
162 magmas that contain abundant mafic enclaves, with geochemical and oxygen isotope
163 analyses suggesting the involvement of sediments²⁴ (**Figure 1b**). The absence of any
164 zircon inheritance and chondritic zircon $\epsilon\text{Hf}(t)$ values alongside substantial range in
165 zircon $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (+4.7‰ to +7.5‰), suggests that crustal assimilation is unlikely and the
166 sediments originated from the 2.13 Ga magmatic arc itself – a geological phenomenon
167 described as a 'self-feeding arc', where arc sediments form, are deposited in the adjacent
168 ocean and then are subducted²⁴ (**Figure 1c**). The high concentration of elements that are
169 strongly mobile in aqueous fluids (e.g., Ba and Sr > 1000 ppm) alongside enrichment in
170 mantle-compatible elements (Mg# c. 55, Ni c. 80 ppm and Cr c. 200 ppm; ref. 47), strongly
171 support sediment admixture in the sub-arc mantle wedge, where sanukitoid magmas
172 were sourced.

173

174 The magmas described above evolved within a geologically short duration (2.5 – 2.35 –
175 2.13 Ga) in an environment akin to intra-oceanic arcs and away from continental sources.
176 Their evolution was nonetheless long enough to witness variations in atmospheric
177 oxygenation consequent upon the GOE. In this context, the intrinsic relationship of the
178 suites as derived from a similar basaltic source remelted at different geological
179 intervals⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹ suggests that comparative changes of fugacity are feasible.

180

181

182 **Sulphur speciation in matrix apatite and inclusions**

183 We have determined the valence(s) of sulphur in apatite using the μ -XANES (X-ray
184 absorption near edge structure) technique at the European Synchrotron Radiation
185 Facility (ESRF) in Grenoble, France (see methods and Supplementary Data). We present
186 40 analyses in 26 matrix apatite grains, and 136 analyses in 20 apatite inclusions in
187 zircons. For all studied samples, we targeted crack-free apatite inclusions that show no
188 crystallographic misorientation and display a ‘hotspot’ zone in sulphur concentration
189 maps (**Figure 2**). The patterns show higher sulphur concentration in the centre of the
190 inclusions and gradual decrease towards the host zircon crystal. This core to rim zonation
191 is taken to represent sulphur incorporation and retention during early crystallisation and
192 thus records primary signatures of the crystallising magma. It is unlikely that they
193 represent sulphur exchange with the host, as zircon has negligible sulphur content and
194 extremely slow diffusion rates⁵¹.

195

196 Although many apatite inclusions from the 2.35 Gyr old TTG suite have proven to be
197 sulphur barren, six inclusions and a few matrix apatites have sufficiently high sulphur to
198 yield measurable μ -XANES spectra (**Figure 2**); these show remarkably lower S^{6+}/S_{TOTAL}
199 (i.e., they have dominant S^{2-} peak) compared to the apatite sulphur speciation in the 2.13

200 Ga sanukitoid (**Figure 3**). Matrix apatites and three out of six inclusions have much larger
201 uncertainties and S^{6+}/S_{TOTAL} between 0.4 and 0.7, while analyses of the other inclusions
202 show $S^{6+}/S_{TOTAL} < 0.1$ (**Figure 3**). As matrix apatites are more prone to recrystallisation
203 for not being shielded in zircon, we suggest that these 3 inclusions with much higher
204 S^{6+}/S_{TOTAL} were affected by post-crystallisation interaction with fluids in relative higher
205 fugacity. Moreover, these inclusions with higher S^{6+}/S_{TOTAL} have no detectable 'hotspot'
206 zoning, indicating sulphur redistribution or concentrations straddling the detection limit.
207 One of the analysed inclusions with very low S^{6+}/S_{TOTAL} is hosted by a zircon grain that
208 contains an ilmenite inclusion, reinforcing the interpretation of magmatic crystallisation
209 under possible reduced conditions (**Figure 2**). Ilmenite and magnetite occur in the
210 matrix, but magnetite is thought to have been produced during recrystallisation of the
211 host rock during deformation/metamorphism⁴⁸, a process that apparently did not affect
212 the armoured inclusions.

213
214 Our results show that matrix apatite grains from the 2.13 Gyr sanukitoid depict a
215 conspicuous oxidised pattern with dominant S^{6+} and high S^{6+}/S_{TOTAL} peak area ratio that
216 is in agreement with apatite inclusions from the same sample (**Figure 2**). The high
217 S^{6+}/S_{TOTAL} for both inclusions and apatite grains in the rock matrix suggests that if any re-
218 crystallisation event has occurred, it was similarly oxidising if compared to the primary
219 fugacity of the inclusions (**Figure 3**). Moreover, magnetite is a common opaque mineral
220 phase in these rocks, formed as isometric homogenous crystals included in hornblende⁴⁷,
221 which overall points towards primary oxidising crystallisation conditions.

222

223 **Quantifying changes in oxygen fugacity**

224 In order to determine fO_2 and ascertain the magnitude of change, we used a sulfur-in-
225 apatite experimental calibration oxybarometer that combines the fayalite-magnetite-

226 quartz buffer (FMQ) and S^{6+}/S_{TOTAL} (ref. 39) (**Figure 3a**). Additionally, we used trace
227 element analyses of the host zircons in a proxy that correlates zircon composition to
228 oxygen fugacity relative to FMQ (ref. 46). The fO_2 distance from the FMQ buffer (ΔFMQ) is
229 then plotted against the zircon U/Yb to relate to sediment input at source and/or crustal
230 contamination of the magmas (ref. 52) (**Figure 3b**).

231

232

233 Our results demonstrate that the isotopically and petrologically linked TTG and
234 sanukitoid suites in the Mineiro belt of Brazil crystallised under different redox
235 conditions (**Figure 3**). The 2.35 Gyr old TTG formed when atmospheric oxygen levels
236 fluctuated across a threshold of 10^{-5} of present atmospheric levels (PAL; ref. 53) and
237 primary apatite inclusions are reduced, with the three most precise measurements
238 ranging from $\Delta FMQ - 0.75 \pm 0.30$ to $- 0.28 \pm 0.38$ (2σ standard deviation - average of
239 several analyses within each inclusion, **Figure 3a**). The younger 2.13 Gyr old sanukitoid
240 post-dates the GOE when atmospheric oxygen levels stabilised permanently between 0.1
241 and 40 % PAL (ref. 54) and primary inclusions show oxidised sulphur speciation ranging
242 from $\Delta FMQ + 0.80 \pm 0.16$ to $+ 1.24 \pm 0.36$ (**Figure 3a**). Despite some intergrain variation,
243 trace element analyses in zircons confirm that the 2.13 Gyr old sanukitoid suite is more
244 oxidised than the 2.35 Gyr old TTG, and corroborates the sulphur speciation data in
245 apatite inclusions (**Figure 3b**). The higher U/Yb in zircons from the sanukitoid suite is in
246 agreement with elevated $\delta^{18}O$, and is attributed to surface-derived oxidised sediments
247 that metasomatized the mantle.

248

249 **An atmospheric window to the mantle**

250 Modern marine sediments can be highly oxidised compared to upper mantle-derived
251 basalts⁸. Their subduction will carry this surficial redox signature and affect the oxidation

252 state of modern arc magmas^{7,9}. The generation of a deep subduction-like setting in the
253 Palaeoproterozoic would have facilitated sediment input into the sub-arc mantle source
254 (>10% by volume; ref. ²⁴). These sediments may have carried sulphate and ferric iron into
255 the mantle wedge in a similar way to that observed in Phanerozoic arcs^{10,11}. Oxidised
256 sanukitoid magmas were then formed at 2.13 Ga during melting of a 2.5 Gyr old altered
257 oceanic slab and its sedimentary carapace (**Figure 1**). We suggest that this change in
258 tectonic style allowed the atmosphere to dramatically influence sub-arc mantle chemistry
259 through transfer of oxidised sediments (e.g., refs. ^{7,9}). The fortuitous occurrence of a TTG-
260 sanukitoid transition in the Mineiro Belt across the GOE has allowed this change in
261 oxidation state to be observed.

262

263 The global TTG-sanukitoid transitional record characterises vigorous and protracted
264 crustal recycling and mantle metasomatism in the early Earth (e.g., refs. ^{22,26}). Although
265 localised and with less magnitude than the GOE, Archaean 'whiffs' of oxygen may have
266 similarly altered the nature of subducted sediments⁵⁵, and started to modify the oxygen
267 fugacity of mantle sources in the Archaean (c.f. ref. ⁴²). It then suggests that similar
268 mantle-surface interactions could have had a major influence on magmatism and
269 metallogenic endowment since the Archaean⁵⁶, and that the oxidation of the mantle was
270 diachronous and related to the onset of global plate tectonics. The subsequent
271 irreversible step-rise of oxygen in the Palaeoproterozoic may have led to the dominance
272 of characteristically-oxidised calc-alkaline magmas in the geological record.

273

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283

284 **Author contributions**

285 H.M. and C.S. conceived the idea. H.M. performed electron probe and laser ablation
286 analyses. H.M, C.S., E.B., J.D. and B.D., wrote the synchrotron proposal and acquired XANES
287 data. M.F. provided guidance on secular magmatic evolution and sediment-mantle
288 interactions. M.C. coordinated the synchrotron session, validated methodology and data
289 reduction. E.E.V.P. developed the code and reduction protocols for XANES. F.P. provided
290 standards for XANES, conceptual guidance and interpretation of sulphur speciation
291 analysis. L.S. provided field work guidance and validation of the study. P.P. validated
292 interpretations about atmospheric interactions. Original draft was written by H.M. with
293 input and edition from all authors.

294

295 **Competing interests**

296 The authors declare no competing interests.

297

298 **Figure captions**

299 **Figure 1. Palaeoproterozoic TTG-sanukitoid magmatic transition. a,** Zircon U-Pb
300 ages versus $^{176}\text{Hf}/^{177}\text{Hf}(t)$ ratios (expressed as $\epsilon\text{Hf}(t)$ values relative to chondrite at the
301 time of crystallisation t). Zircons from TTG magmas ($n = 31$) have significantly positive

302 $\epsilon_{\text{Hf}(t)}$ whereas zircons from the sanukitoid magmas ($n = 33$) are near the chondritic
303 reservoir value (CHUR). A crustal evolution line links both suites of rocks to a depleted
304 mantle (DM) melting event at ~ 2.5 Ga. **b**, Zircon $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ ratios (expressed as $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ relative
305 to Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water) show that the basaltic crust was hydrothermally
306 altered at high temperature ($\sim 4.5\%$) before generating TTG magmas at 2.35 Ga and
307 before remelting in the metasomatized mantle wedge at 2.13 Ga. The latter event
308 generated sanukitoids that have zircons with heavier oxygen ($\sim 6.5\%$). Individual error
309 bars in **a** and **b** are shown at 2 standard errors. **c**, Tectonic model for the generation of
310 magmas in the Palaeoproterozoic pre- and post- GOE peak. SCLM: subcontinental
311 lithospheric mantle.

312

313 **Figure 2. Backscattered electron images of inclusions in zircon and sulphur**
314 **speciation spectra. a–b**, Twenty-nine μ -XANES analyses in 6 apatite inclusions from the
315 TTG sample and 108 analyses in 14 inclusions from the sanukitoid sample show that the
316 average spectra differ greatly from a reduced (high S^{2-}) speciation in TTG host zircons (**a**)
317 to an oxidised speciation (high S^{6+}) in sanukitoid host zircons (**b**). Inset diagrams show
318 the crystallographic orientation of the inclusions and their relative sulphur
319 concentration.

320

321 **Figure 3. Oxygen fugacity of the samples studied with respect to the FMQ buffer**
322 **(ΔFMQ).** **a**, ΔFMQ calculated via $\text{S}^{6+}/\Sigma\text{S}_{\text{TOTAL}}$ oxybarometer proxy. Large dark diamonds
323 are averages of μ -XANES analyses within a single inclusion (sample size as indicated in
324 Fig. 2). Averages of 15 and 25 analyses respectively in 6 matrix apatite grains from the
325 TTG sample (red) and 20 from the sanukitoid samples (blue) are plotted as smaller
326 lighter diamonds. Error bars are 2 standard deviations. **b**, ΔFMQ calculated via zircon

327 trace element proxy vs U/Yb ratios of individual zircon grains from sanukitoid (n = 20)
328 and TTG (n = 23) samples. Error bars are 2 standard errors.

329
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507

508 **Methods**

509 **Sample preparation**

510 Zircons were hand-picked and mounted on tape on a 5 × 5 mm area. A 25 mm diameter
511 round mount was then centred on top of the grains, where epoxy resin was poured and
512 dried in a vacuum chamber. The resin mounts were then polished to reveal the zircons
513 interiors. Cathodoluminescence (CL) and Backscatter Electron (BSE) images for U-Pb,
514 oxygen and Lu-Hf analyses targeting were acquired at the University of Portsmouth. They
515 show oscillatory zoning typical of magmatic grains^{24,49}. Host grains and inclusions were
516 identified using elemental mapping by scanning electron microscopy-energy dispersive
517 X-ray spectrometry (SEM-EDS). The spectral composition and 'spot' identification of the
518 different phases were determined using a silicon drift (SDD - EDS) Oxford X-max 80 mm²
519 detector attached to a SEM Zeiss EVO MA 10 LaB6 at the University of Portsmouth.

520

521 **Synchrotron data acquisition and data processing**

522 Sulphur speciation analyses were carried out using the ID21 X-ray microscopy beamline
523 at the European Synchrotron Radiation Facility (ESRF) in Grenoble, France⁵⁷. During the
524 session, the sulphur speciation (S⁻², S⁴⁺ and S⁶⁺ and their proportions) was measured in

525 both apatite grains and apatite inclusions in zircon. X-ray beam was produced using a 42
526 period undulator and the energy was selected with a double-crystal monochromator
527 (DCM). XANES spectra were acquired in the range of 2.46 to 2.53 keV, in continuous
528 mode, with steps of 0.2 eV and 0.1s/point, taking approximately 1 minute per point. The
529 calibration of the DCM was done using a gypsum reference powder (maximum of white-
530 line of the XANES spectrum at 2.48184 keV). The fine-tune and focusing was achieved
531 using a set of two Kirkpatrick-Baez (KB) mirrors with a Ni coating. The beam was reduced
532 to 0.3 μm V \times 0.4 μm H. Sample mounts were mounted vertically in the microscope, and
533 all measurements were carried out under vacuum (10^{-5} mbar). The beam was then used
534 for construction of 2D μXRF elemental maps and $\mu\text{-XANES}$ (X-ray absorption near edge
535 structure) spectra for chemical speciation. The detector used was an SGX 100mm²
536 SiriusSD silicon drift diode and a multichannel analyzer (MCA). Dead-time of the XRF
537 detector was controlled and beam intensity was attenuated so that DT was always in the
538 range of 17-22% throughout the session. XANES spectra were produced after correction
539 by beam intensity (constantly measured with a photodiode upstream the sample), and
540 the XRF deadtime. Zircon host grains were analysed a few times to assess possible
541 interferences. To separate the XRF K lines from S from the Zr L₂ and L₃ emissions lines,
542 XRF spectra were batch fitted using the PyMca software⁵⁸. Inclusions were located thanks
543 to μXRF map, and appeared as 'hotspot' domains with high sulphur contents. In order to
544 increase the signal to noise of XANES spectra, several points of interest (POI) were
545 selected over each inclusion and an average spectrum was obtained. This approach
546 enables focusing the targets/regions rich in sulphur and optimizes the time spent for each
547 sample.

548

549 The ESRF S K-edge XANES spectra inorganic database was used to identify the different
550 peak energy positions for natural minerals with distinct sulphur speciation. To identify
551 S^{6+} (~2482 eV), S^{4+} (~2478 eV) and S^{2-} (~2470 eV) we used gypsum, pyrrhotite and
552 pyrite. The high-focused beam yields high sulphur x-ray counts (in the order of ~ 6000
553 counts/s for S^{6+} when measuring gypsum and ~4500 counts/s for S^{2-} when measuring
554 pyrite). The same Durango crystal analysed by Konecke et al. (2017) was also analysed
555 during the beginning and at the end of the session and the spectra was reduced as per the
556 unknown apatites. As a similar procedure developed in Konecke et al. (2017), we
557 analysed across the grain perpendicularly to its c-axis. Those comprise 10 points
558 measured twice each, testing therefore homogeneity and beam damage. A single point at
559 the core of the crystal was further analysed 10 times and match individual
560 measurements, reassuring the minor existence of the beam damage for S^{6+} and S^{2-}
561 peaks⁵⁹. Additionally, we analysed the same grain after a rotation of 90 degrees, to assess
562 possible effect of the crystallographic orientation of the apatite. No differences were
563 noticed in the spectra. The same experiment was performed with grain AMT_03_Zr12b,
564 that contains inclusions 1 and 2. XANES data filtering and reduction was done using
565 Python scripts as well as PyMca 5.5.5 software for visualization and selection of the
566 reduction parameters. First, XANES spectra were filtered to exclude noisy spectra. Only
567 spectra with a white line intensity that were at least 2 times higher than the signal
568 measured at the pre-edge background were considered. XANES normalization values
569 were 2.47006 keV for the edge and -0.008840, -0.004420 keV for pre-edge and 0.004550,
570 0.045496 keV for the post-edge. Spectra were fitted as a linear combination of Gaussian
571 peaks, using a Python code and the advanced fitting from PyMca for Gaussians curves.
572 Finally, the script extracted the peak area ratios (S^{6+}/S_{TOTAL}). The average integrated
573 S^{6+}/S_{TOTAL} peak area ratio obtained for Durango is 0.956 ± 0.004 (2 standard error), in

574 agreement with the peak area ratio obtained by Konecke et al. (2017) (0.956 ± 0.002 ; 2
575 standard error).

576

577 **Electron Backscatter Diffraction (EBSD)**

578 EBSD analyses were performed in zircon, apatite and apatite inclusions to evaluate the
579 microstructural relationship of these phases and the possible relationship between
580 sulphur speciation and crystallographic orientation. Analyses were performed at
581 Géosciences Montpellier, France using a CamScan X500-FEG Crystal Probe. This SEM was
582 developed from its conception for high resolution crystallographic mapping by
583 backscattered electron diffraction. It thus has the particularity of having its electronic
584 column tilted at 70° , which makes it possible to keep the sample horizontal during
585 analyses, and allows backscattered electron diffraction detection of surfaces with uneven
586 polishing. The EBSD Symmetry detector of CMOS technology was used for
587 crystallographic analysis and a detector EDS UltimMax 100 was used for chemical
588 analysis. Reduction of the data was performed using the AZtec software of Oxford
589 instruments. The crystallographic data were processed using *Tango* for orientation map
590 display. Noise reduction was applied to the raw crystallographic data and the final EBSD
591 maps contain the band contrast for quality of the diffraction pattern and lattice
592 orientation of each phase analysed. Within each phase analysed, no misorientation $>3^\circ$
593 was observed, suggesting high crystallinity of individual phases and that processes of
594 recrystallization are unlikely to have occurred. The small misorientation observed is
595 possibly caused by polishing and hardness of the apatite inclusions against zircon host.
596 These features do not compromise nonetheless the refraction of part of the inclusions
597 and are sufficient enough quality to assess crystallographic orientation. We analysed

598 apatite inclusions with variable crystallographic orientations, which show no correlation
599 in their sulphur μ -XANES spectra (**Figure 2**).

600

601 **Zircon trace element analysis**

602 Trace element composition was obtained by LA-ICP-MS on distinct zircon domains.
603 Analyses were conducted using an ASI RESOLUTION Excimer 193 nm laser system, coupled
604 to an Analytik Jena PlasmaQuant Elite ICP-MS at the University of Portsmouth, UK. Laser
605 ablation settings for the first session were 30 μ m, 3 Hz and 3.5 J/cm². Analyses were
606 located on top of previous EPMA or U-Pb analyses. Oxides formation in the plasma was
607 estimated by monitoring the ThO⁺/Th⁺ and UO⁺/U⁺ on the NIST 612 standard, and tuning
608 was done to reach values below 0.3 % and 0.2 % for the ThO⁺/Th⁺ and UO⁺/U⁺ ratios,
609 respectively. Elemental fractionation was monitored through repeated measurements of
610 the ²³²Th/²³⁸U ratio in NIST 612, with variations between 0.9 and 1 observed during
611 analytical sessions. He carrier gas flow in the ablation cell was set to 0.310 L/min and
612 combined with 0.003 L/min of N₂ gas prior to introduction to the ICP. Plasma generation
613 was set at 1300 W with 10 L/min of Ar plasma flow, auxiliary gas flow of 1.65 L/min and
614 nebulizer flow between 0.89 and 0.9 L/min. The glass NIST 612 was used as a primary
615 standard and zircon reference materials 91500 (ref. ⁶⁰), GJ-1 (refs. ^{61,62}), Plešovice (ref.
616 ⁶³) and Temora-2 (ref. ⁶⁴) were used as secondary standards. The glass NIST 612 was
617 analysed four times at the beginning and at the end of the session and twice each group
618 of unknowns. Each group of unknowns consisted of a combination of four investigated
619 zircons and two secondary standards. The following isotopes were measured and had
620 integration time of 10 ms: ²⁵Mg, ²⁷Al, ²⁹Si, ³¹P, ³⁹K, ⁴³Ca, ⁴⁵Sc, ⁴⁹Ti, ⁵¹V, ⁵³Cr, ⁵⁵Mn, ⁸⁵Rb, ⁸⁷Sr,
621 ⁸⁹Y, ⁹⁰Zr, ⁹³Nb, ⁹⁵Mo, ¹¹⁸Sn, ¹²¹Sb, ¹³³Cs, ¹³⁷Ba, ¹³⁹La, ¹⁴⁰Ce, ¹⁴¹Pr, ¹⁴⁶Nd, ¹⁴⁷Sm, ¹⁵³Eu, ¹⁵⁷Gd,
622 ¹⁵⁹Tb, ¹⁶³Dy, ¹⁶⁵Ho, ¹⁶⁶Er, ¹⁶⁹Tm, ¹⁷²Yb, ¹⁷⁵Lu, ¹⁷⁸Hf, ¹⁸¹Ta, ¹⁸²W, ²⁰⁸Pb, ²⁰⁹Bi, ²³²Th, ²³⁸U. The

623 raw data were reduced and corrected for instrumental drift using the Iolite 3.4 software
624 (ref. ⁶⁵). Zirconium content was used for internal calibration and measured using a
625 Cameca SX100 electron microprobe at the University of Bristol, UK (see below), avoiding
626 using stoichiometry when normalized. NIST 610 and secondary zircon reference
627 materials yielded results within 10 - 15% in accuracy relative to the recommended
628 published values.

629

630 **Pressure and temperature dependence**

631 Experimental studies in silicate melts demonstrate that an increase in 100 °C
632 temperature imparts a $\Delta\text{FMQ} - 0.5$ deviation in the magma $f\text{O}_2$; whereas an increase in
633 0.3 GPa would impart a $\Delta\text{FMQ} + 0.2$ deviation (refs. ^{66,67}). Direct measurement of
634 temperature crystallisation via Ti-in-zircon thermometry⁶⁸ indicates that zircon grains
635 from the sanukitoid samples crystallised at 800 ± 13 °C (2 standard error) and TTG
636 samples have zircons with average crystallisation temperature of 700 ± 10 °C (2 standard
637 error), considering SiO_2 and TiO_2 activity = 1. A lower TiO_2 activity such as 0.7 yields
638 higher temperatures of crystallisation, 839 °C and 726 °C, respectively for sanukitoid and
639 TTG zircons. Al-in-hornblende oxybarometer indicates crystallisation pressures at
640 around 0.6-0.4 GPa for the sanukitoid samples⁴⁷, whereas higher pressure conditions
641 were suggested for the TTG samples (~ 0.7 GPa) based on the presence of igneous
642 almandine garnet and overall trace element modelling⁴⁸. The ~ 0.3 GPa difference in
643 pressure between these two magmatic suites is not enough to explain a >1.0 ΔFMQ
644 difference between the calculate $f\text{O}_2$ for sanukitoid and TTG magmas. Moreover, the ~ 100
645 °C difference in temperature, if considered, would amplify the contrast in fugacity
646 obtained via sulphur oxybarometry.

647

648 **Electron probe microanalysis (EPMA)**

649 Zircon grains were analysed by EPMA at the University of Bristol UK using a Cameca SX-
650 100. An electron beam of 5 µm was used with an acceleration voltage of 17 kV and 100
651 nA beam current. Element concentrations (Si, P, Y, Zr, Yb, Lu, Th and Hf) were determined
652 using TAP, LPET, LLIF and PET crystals. The 91500 zircon standard (ref. ⁶⁰) was analysed
653 during the microprobe sessions to monitor data quality. Only analyses with
654 concentrations more than the sum of the individual detection limit and the absolute 2
655 sigma error were considered. The Zr content was used for internal calibration of trace
656 element analyses presented above and vary from 47-48%.

657

658 **Data availability**

659 Supporting information for this study is available at

660 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.22738082>.

661

662 **Code availability**

663 PyMca 5.5.5 (<http://www.silx.org/doc/PyMca/dev/index.html>) and Python scripts

664 (<https://zenodo.org/deposit/7693613>) were used for data visualization and reduction.

665

666 **Methods-only references**

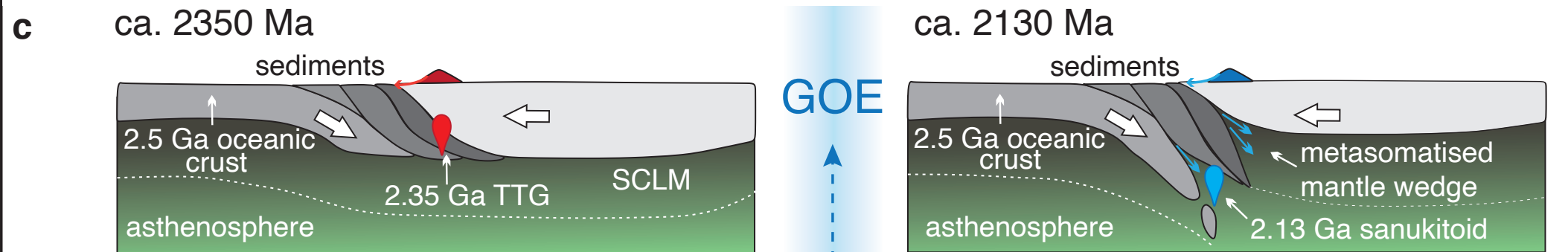
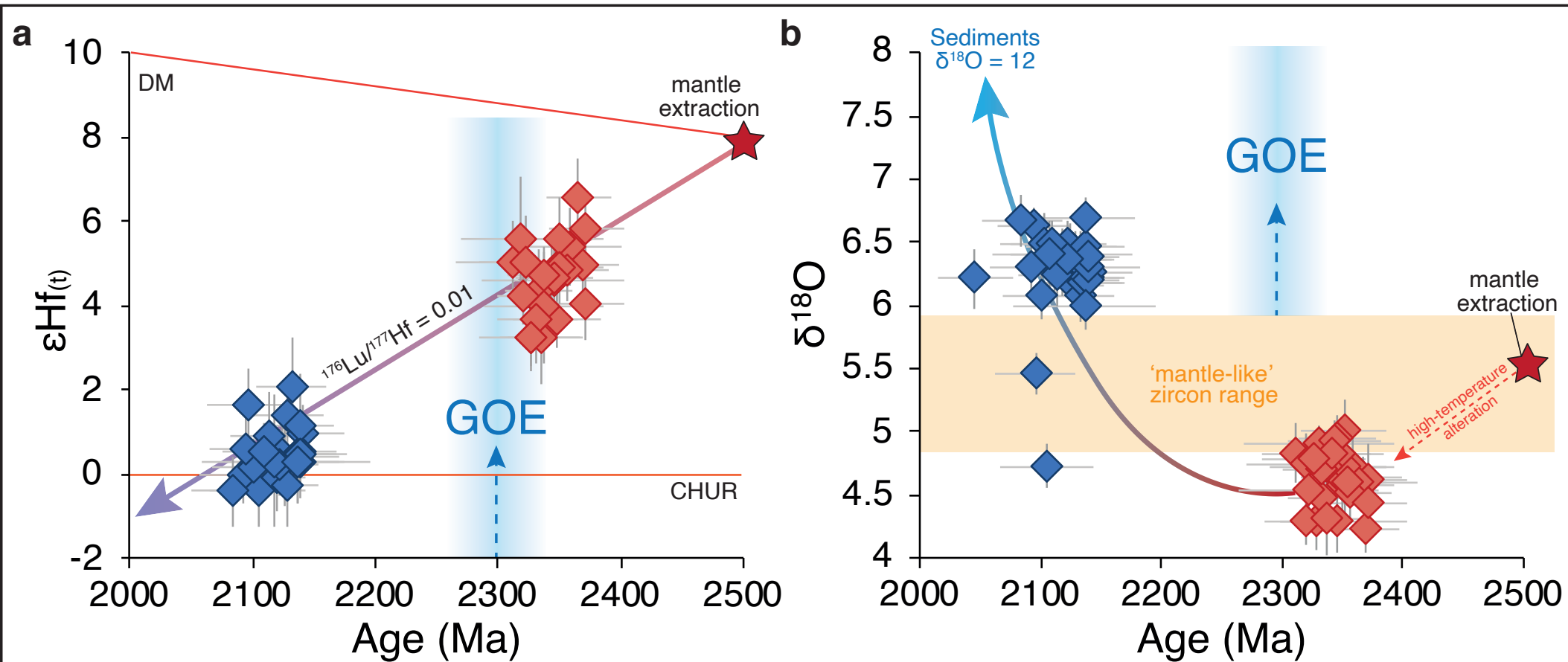
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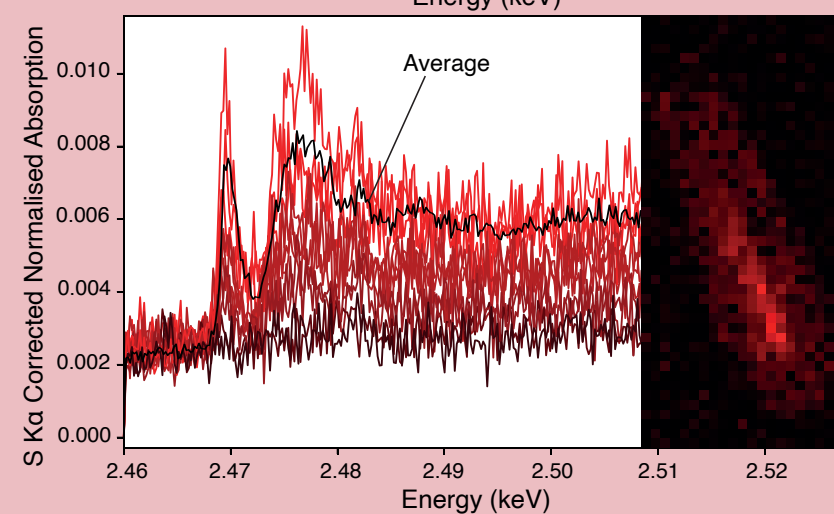
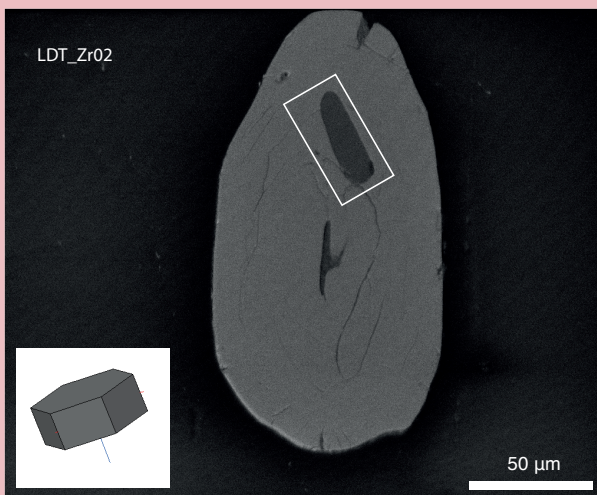
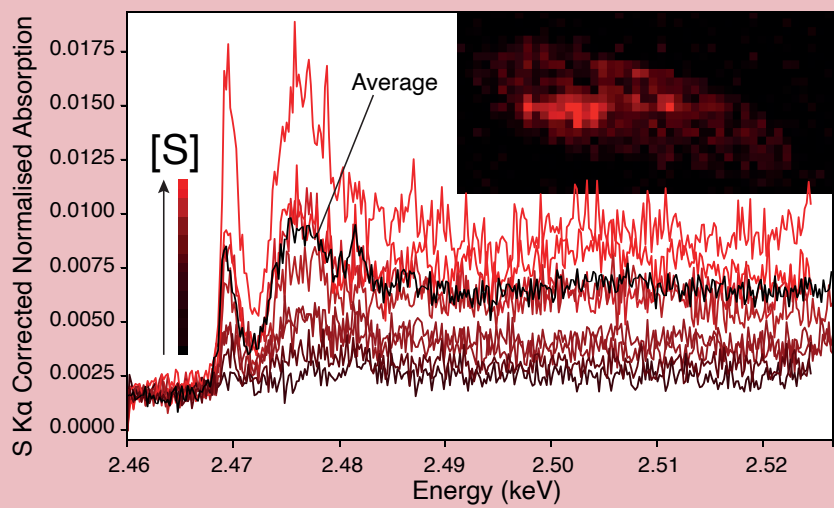
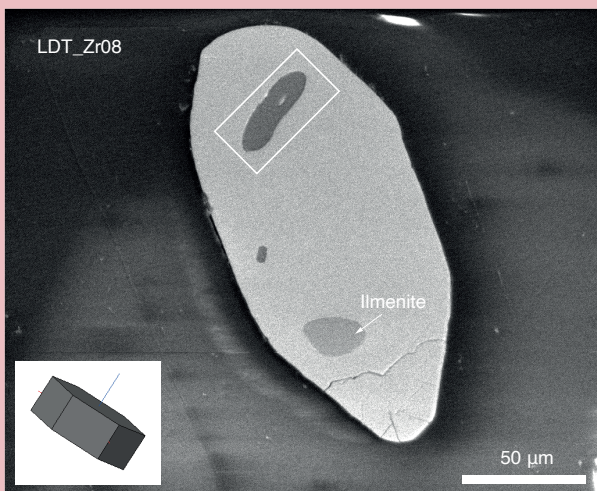
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a 2.35 Ga TTG



b 2.13 Ga Sanukitoid

