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Evidence from *ab initio* and transport modeling for diffusion-driven zirconium isotopic fractionation in igneous rocks Xi Chen^{1*}, Wenzhong Wang^{2,3}, Zhe Zhang¹, Xike Nie⁴, Nicolas Dauphas¹

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Abstract

We use density functional theory (DFT) to calculate the equilibrium isotopic fractionation factors of zirconium (Zr) in a variety of minerals including zircon, baddeleyite, Ca-catapleiite, ilmenite, geikielite, magnetite, apatite, K-feldspar, quartz, olivine, clinopyroxene, orthopyroxene, amphibole, and garnet. We also report equilibrium isotopic fractionation factors for Hf in zircons, Ca-catapleiite, and ilmenite. These calculations show that coordination environment is an important control on Zr and Hf isotopic fractionation, with minerals with Zr and Hf in low coordinations predicted to be enriched in the heavy isotopes of Zr and Hf, relative to those with Zr and Hf in high coordinations. At equilibrium, zircon, which hosts Zr and Hf in 8-fold coordination, is predicted to have low ⁹⁴Zr/⁹⁰Zr and ¹⁷⁹Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf ratios compared to silicate melt, which hosts Zr and Hf in 6-fold coordination. However, our modeling results indicate that little equilibrium isotopic fractionation for Zr is expected during magmatic differentiation and zircon crystallization. We show through isotopic transport modeling that the Zr isotopic variations that were documented in igneous rocks are likely due to diffusion-driven kinetic isotopic fractionation. The two settings where this could take place are (i) diffusion-limited crystallization of zircon (DLC model) and (ii) diffusion-triggered crystallization of zircon (DTC model) in the boundary layer created by the growth of Zr-poor minerals. Fractional crystallization of zircons enriched in light Zr isotopes by diffusion can drive residual magmas towards heavy Zr isotopic compositions. Our diffusive transport model gives the framework to interpret Zr isotope data and gain new insights into the cooling history of igneous rocks and the setting of zircon crystallization.

Keywords: isotopes, equilibrium fractionation, diffusive transport, zirconium, hafnium

1. Introduction

High Field Strength Elements [HFSEs; Ti(IV), Zr(IV), Hf(IV), Nb(V), Ta(V)] have high ionic charge (Z) over radius (r) ratio. They behave incompatibly during magmatic processes, resulting in their enrichment in the continental crust relative to the bulk silicate Earth (by factors of ~3 to 24^{1,2}). They are insoluble in aqueous fluids under most circumstances, and are characterized by low concentrations and short residence times in seawater (Zr: 5600 yr, Hf: 1300 yr³, Ti: 150 yr⁴). They are highly refractory, with 50% condensation temperatures under solar nebula conditions of 1546 to 1741 K for Zr and Hf, respectively^{5,6}. Because of all these characteristics (incompatibility, insolubility in aqueous fluids, and refractoriness), they have proven to be extremely useful in geochemistry for normalizing concentrations of water-soluble^{7,8} and moderately volatile⁹ elements. HFSEs are also useful in their own right: (1) In cosmochemistry, their relative abundances in refractory inclusions are found to be fractionated by high-temperature evaporation/condensation processes $^{10-15}$. (2) The 176 Lu- 176 Hf decay system ($t_{1/2}$ = 37.8 Gyr) has been widely used as both a chronometer and a tracer of planetary differentiation processes 16-19. (3) Titanium enrichment during fractional crystallization is a feature that distinguishes tholeiitic from calc-alkaline series²⁰ (other trace HFSEs can also be used to distinguish these two series²¹). (4) The sub-chondritic Nb/Ta ratios in all the major terrestrial reservoirs (the missing Nb-paradox) points to the existence of high-temperature processes that can fractionate these twin elements at large scales^{22–27}. (5) The elevated Ti, Ta, and Nb (TITAN) concentrations in ocean island basalts with high ³He/⁴He indicates the presence of a non-primitive recycled component in the deep mantle²⁸. (6) The abundances and isotopes of these elements in terrigenous sediments can help constrain the nature (felsic or mafic) of the provenance region of the detritus^{29–31}.

Isotopic variations that depart from the laws of mass-dependent fractionation³² have been documented for Ti, Zr, and Hf. These variations arise from (1) incomplete mixing of nucleosynthetic anomalies for Ti^{33–40}, Zr^{41–43} and Hf^{42,44–46}, (2) cosmogenic neutron capture effects from irradiation of solar system materials by cosmic rays for Ti⁴⁷ and Hf^{48,49}, and (3) radioactive decay of short-lived ⁹²Nb (t_{1/2}= 34.7 Myr) for ⁹²Zr^{50–52}, and long-lived ¹⁷⁶Lu for ¹⁷⁶Hf^{16,17,53,54}. Over the past several years, considerable progress has been made in documenting the mass-dependent component of isotopic variations for Ti^{55–62} and Zr^{63–69}. Mass-dependent Ti isotopic variations in calcium-aluminum-rich inclusions (CAIs) reflect evaporation/condensation processes^{58,59}. Titanium isotopic variations have also been found in igneous rocks resulting from mantle depletion^{56,60} and magmatic differentiation^{55,57,61,62}. These variations are driven by differences in coordination between Ti in melt and minerals^{55,62,70}. Zirconium isotopic variations have more recently been documented in igneous rocks and minerals^{63–69} but the mechanism responsible for those variations is uncertain.

Much focus in recent Zr isotope studies has focused on zircon (ZrSiO₄). Zircon is an accessory mineral commonly found in igneous, metamorphic and detrital sedimentary rocks. It can be readily dated using the U-Pb system and hosts important geochemical tracers (Hf, U, Th and REE). These features, combined with the high resistance of zircon to secondary processes, have made it the focus of a wide variety of geochemical, petrological, and geological studies interrogating major questions of Earth sciences, such as the timing of mass extinctions, onset of subduction, and growth and maturation of the continental crust^{19,54,71–79}.

Zirconium has five naturally occurring stable isotopes, 90 Zr (51.45%), 91 Zr (11.22%), 92 Zr (17.15%), 94 Zr (17.38%) and 96 Zr (2.80%). Zirconium isotopic compositions are typically reported in δ^{94} Zr or δ^{194} Zr notations, which are departures in permil (‰) of the 94 Zr/ 90 Zr ratio relative to a

reference material. Zirconium stable isotope systematics is a relatively new field and there is no widespread agreement on which reference material to use. In the following, we report δ^{94} Zr values relative to NIST 3169⁶⁷. Zirconium isotopic analyses have also been reported relative to a NIST standard under development⁶⁶ and the IPGP-Zr standard^{63–69}. Converting Zr isotopic compositions from NIST 3169 to IPGP-Zr would involve shifting all δ^{94} Zr values by \sim -0.04 %^{67,69}.

The role that zircon plays in controlling Zr isotopic fractionation in igneous rocks is debated. Inglis et al.⁶⁴ measured the Zr isotopic compositions of bulk magmatic rocks from Hekla volcano and found that δ^{94} Zr increases with SiO₂ content, which is a tracer of magmatic differentiation. Combining these data with the zirconium concentrations of these rocks, they concluded that zircon crystallization within the Hekla differentiation suite was the main driver of the observed variations in the bulk samples. They argued based on coordination considerations that equilibrium isotopic fractionation could explain qualitatively why zircon would preferentially incorporate light Zr isotopes, leaving the residual melt enriched in heavy Zr isotopes (elevated δ^{94} Zr values). Feng et al.⁶⁷ and Tian et al.⁶⁹ found that among igneous rock standards, felsic rocks tend to have heavier Zr isotopic compositions than mafic rocks, which agree with the trend documented by Inglis et al. 63,64. Ibanez-Mejia and Tissot 66 measured single zircon and baddeleyite crystals from an anorthositic gabbro (FC-1) and found widespread δ^{94} Zr values ranging from -4.3 to +0.9 \%. Unlike Inglis et al.⁶⁴, they argued that their data could be explained using a distillation model if zircon and baddeleyite were isotopically heavy relative to the melt from which they crystallized, driving the residual liquid to extremely low δ^{94} Zr values. The rocks measured in these studies were different and the discrepancy illustrates the fact that the driver behind Zr isotopic fractionation in igneous rocks remains highly uncertain, which limits the usefulness of this system to draw petrogenetic inferences on zircon formation based on Zr isotopic analyses. Zhang et al.⁶⁵ analyzed the Zr

isotopic compositions in several zircons using laser ablation multiple collector inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (LA-MC-ICPMS) and found relatively constant values.

Available Zr isotopic data^{63–69} in igneous rocks hint at the possibility that they could provide

new insights into the conditions of zircon formation but there are outstanding questions that need to be addressed before Zr isotopes can be developed into a useful petrogenetic tracer. Are the measured variations the result of equilibrium fractionation between minerals and melts? If yes, is it the crystallization of zircon or other Zr-bearing phases that drives Zr isotopic fractionation measured in bulk rocks? Alternatively, are the observed variations due to kinetic processes such as diffusion? If yes, what does it tell us about magma cooling and zircon crystallization history? Hafnium has very similar chemical behavior to zirconium. It possesses six stable or long-lived (the half live of ¹⁷⁴Hf is ~2×10¹⁵ yr) isotopes ¹⁷⁴Hf (0.16%), ¹⁷⁶Hf (5.26%), ¹⁷⁷Hf (18.60%),

lived (the half live of ¹⁷⁴Hf is ~2×10¹⁵ yr) isotopes ¹⁷⁴Hf (0.16%), ¹⁷⁶Hf (5.26%), ¹⁷⁷Hf (18.60%), ¹⁷⁸Hf (27.28%), ¹⁷⁹Hf (13.62%) and ¹⁸⁰Hf (35.08%). To our knowledge, no high precision measurements of Hf stable isotopic fractionation have been reported. As discussed in the present manuscript, such data would shed light on the processes responsible for Zr isotopic fractionation in igneous rocks.

To understand what controls Zr isotopic variations in igneous rocks, we have performed *ab initio* calculations of the equilibrium isotopic fractionation factors of Zr and Hf in a variety of minerals using the technique of density functional theory (DFT). Following Farges et al.⁸⁰, Cacatapleiite (CaZrSi₃O₉ · 2H₂O) was used as a model structure for Zr in silicate melts. The Zr-rich minerals investigated here are zircon (ZrSiO₄) and baddeleyite (ZrO₂). We also investigated equilibrium isotopic fractionation for Zr in a variety of minerals where Zr substitutes other elements: ilmenite (FeTiO₃), geikielite (MgTiO₃), apatite (Ca₅(PO₄)₃F), magnetite (MgFe₂O₄), forsterite (Mg₂SiO₄), diopside (MgCaSi₂O₆), enstatite (MgSiO₃), K-feldspar (KAlSi₃O₈), quartz

(SiO₂), tremolite (Ca₂Mg₅Si₈O₂₂(OH)₂) and pyrope (Mg₃Al₂(SiO₄)₃). Besides these calculations, we have also explored how diffusion-driven kinetic isotopic fractionation during crystallization of zircon and other Zr-poor minerals could fractionate Zr isotopes in igneous rocks. We find that both (1) diffusion-limited zircon crystallization from a supersaturated liquid and (2) Zr diffusion in the liquid boundary-layer around a Zr-poor growing crystal, can explain the Zr isotopic variations that have been documented in igneous rocks. Our favored scenario is that the Zr isotopic variations documented in some zircons reflect their crystallizations in a supersaturated diffusion boundary layer, in a process of diffusion-triggered crystallization.

2. Methods

2.1. Equilibrium mass-dependent isotopic fractionation

Equilibrium mass-dependent isotopic fractionation arises from changes in vibrational frequencies caused by isotopic substitution of an element in a given system^{81,82}. Following Bigeleisen and Goeppert-Mayer⁸¹, the reduced partition function ratio β_A of an element X in Phase A, which represents the isotope fractionation factor between Phase A and an ideal gas of X atoms, can be expressed within the quasi-harmonic approximation as,

$$\beta_A = \frac{Q_h}{Q_l} = \prod_i^{3N} \frac{u_{ih}}{u_{il}} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}u_{ih}}}{1 - e^{-u_{ih}}} \frac{1 - e^{-u_{il}}}{e^{-\frac{1}{2}u_{il}}} . \tag{1}$$

where h and l represent the heavy and light isotopes respectively, i is a running index of vibrational frequency mode, N is the number of atoms in the unit cell, and Q_h and Q_l refer to the vibrational partition function for the heavy and light isotopes, respectively. A phase with N atoms has 3N vibrational modes and thus the product runs over all 3N phonon modes. u_{ih} and u_{il} are defined as,

$$u_i = \hbar \omega_i / k_B T . (2)$$

where \hbar and k_B is the reduced Planck constant and Boltzmann constant, respectively, T is

temperature in Kelvin, and ω_i is the vibrational frequency of the i^{th} mode. Equilibrium isotopic fractionation between two phases A and B in the δ -notation is readily calculated from the reduced partition function ratio using the following formula,

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$$\Delta_{A-B} \simeq 10^3 ln \alpha_{A-B} = 10^3 ln \beta_A - 10^3 ln \beta_B. \tag{3}$$

- For a given phase, $10^3 ln\beta$ can be expressed as a polynomial expansion of even powers of the inverse of the temperature^{83,84},
- $10^{3} \ln \beta = \frac{A_{1}}{T^{2}} + \frac{A_{2}}{T^{4}} + \frac{A_{3}}{T^{6}}.$ (4)
- where the coefficients A_1 , A_2 , and A_3 can be calculated from the even moments of the phonon
- density of states⁸⁴. The first term in this equation is proportional to the mean force constant $\langle F \rangle$ (in
- N/m) of the chemical bonds that the element of interest forms with the coordination atoms,

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$$A_1 = 1000 \left(\frac{1}{m_l} - \frac{1}{m_h} \right) \frac{\hbar^2}{8k_B^2} \langle F \rangle.$$
 (5)

- 169 At the high temperatures relevant to igneous system, this term is the dominant control on
- equilibrium isotopic fractionation^{84–86}. For the ⁹⁴Zr/⁹⁰Zr and ¹⁷⁹Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf ratios, we have,

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$$1000 \ln \beta (^{94} \text{Zr} / ^{90} \text{Zr}) \simeq 2081 \langle F \rangle / T^2. \tag{6}$$

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$$1000 \ln \beta (^{179} \text{Hf}/^{177} \text{Hf}) \simeq 278 \langle F \rangle / T^2. \tag{7}$$

- We follow Dauphas et al.^{84,87} and use the mean force constant $\langle F \rangle$ to discuss equilibrium isotopic fractionation factors. The virtues of this approach for non-traditional stable isotopes are:
- 175 (1) It is a number that is usually easy to remember when reported in SI unit (the same units as a spring constant), typically spanning the range 0 to ~1000 N/m.
 - (2) It does not depend on the choice of isotopes used to define isotopic fractionation, so one can compare values from different publications regardless of the choice that are made in reporting isotopic fractionation.

- (3) It allows easy comparison of isotopic fractionation between different elements. For example, when comparing Zr and Hf equilibrium isotope fractionations, the difference could result from a difference in the masses of the isotopes of the two elements, and/or from a difference in the nature of the bonds (force constant).
- (4) Bond strength is the governing factor for equilibrium isotopic fractionation, especially at high temperature. We use Eq. 4 to calculate equilibrium fractionation factors at all temperatures and recommend that this equation be used in future studies, but the truncated Eqs. 5 to 7 are adequate above ~ 300 °C.

For the reasons outlined above, we have used the mean force constant $\langle F \rangle$ in a number of publications discussing equilibrium isotopic fractionation^{84,87–91} and we encourage the community to use this quantity more broadly in non-traditional stable isotope geochemistry.

2.2. First-principle calculations

We performed first-principle calculations based on density functional theory (DFT) using VASP (Vienna Ab Initio Simulation Package) with the projector-augmented wave (PAW) method⁹². The generalized-gradient approximation (GGA)⁹³ for the exchange-correlation functional was adopted and the PAW-PBE pseudopotentials were used. The energy cutoff for all calculations was 600 eV. All mineral structures, including cell parameters and atomic positions, were well relaxed at ambient pressure. The Brillouin zone summations over the electronic states were performed at different k-point grids according to their unit cell sizes (Table S1). For all structure optimizations, the residual forces converge within 10^{-3} eV/Å. In order to estimate the β factors of 94 Zr/ 90 Zr for all phases, we performed full calculations of phonon vibration frequencies using the finite displacement method as implemented in the open-source code PHONOPY⁹⁴.

2.3. Mineral structures

The DFT approach is better suited to calculate the equilibrium isotopic fractionation for periodic crystals or small molecules. DFT can in principle tackle liquids but it is computationally challenging to run such calculations $^{90.95-98}$, and while there are good constraints to ground truth calculations involving ions in water, the structure of silicate melts remains poorly known. For those reasons, we have decided to use knowledge from X-ray Absorption Fine Structure (EXAFS) spectroscopy on the local structure of Zr in silicate melts to select a model crystal composition to simulate Zr dissolved in silicate liquid. Farges et al. 80 found that regardless of the glass investigated, Zr^{4+} at a trace level of \sim 2000 ppm in silicate glass was mainly in 6-coordinated sites and had a local structural environment similar to that in the mineral catapleiite (with a similar Zr-O bond length of \sim 2.07-2.10 Å) 80 , a 3-tetrahedra zirconium cyclosilicate (the synthetic sodium zirconium cyclosilicate Lokelma is used to treat hyperkalemia in patients 99,100). The atomic positions of H atoms in catapleiite (Na₂ZrSi₃O₉ · 2H₂O) have not been reported, and cannot be properly modeled by DFT. We have therefore selected the similar Ca-catapleiite (CaZrSi₃O₉ · 2H₂O) in which all atomic positions are well known, to use as the model structure for Zr in silicate melt.

The calculated minerals in this study include zircon, baddeleyite, Ca-catapleiite, geikielite, ilmenite, magnetite, apatite, K-feldspar, quartz, olivine, clinopyroxene, orthopyroxene, amphibole and garnet. Zirconium is a trace element in these minerals except for zircon, baddeleyite, and Ca-catapleiite.

In spinel-facies lherzolite and harzburgite, the inventories of Zr and Hf are dominated by clinopyroxene and to a lesser extent orthopyroxene¹⁰¹. In garnet lherzolite, the inventories of Zr and Hf are dominated by garnet and clinopyroxene, with again orthopyroxene playing a lesser

role¹⁰². Although major element sites in these minerals are well known, the substitution mechanisms for Zr incorporation as a minor element remain unclear. In olivine, clinopyroxene, and orthopyroxene, there are two possible Zr substitution mechanisms. One is that Zr^{4+} directly occupies the tetrahedral Si site ($^{IV}Si^{4+}\leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}$), and the other one is that Zr substitutes in the octahedral Mg site or the dodecahedral Ca site (in clinopyroxene) with charge balanced by nearby Mg vacancies ($^{VI}Mg^{2+}/^{VIII}Ca^{2+} + {}^{VI}Mg^{2+}\leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}_{Mg/Ca^{+}}$).

Olivine has one equivalent tetrahedral Si site and two nonequivalent octahedral Mg sites (M1 and M2) with M2 site being larger than M1 site. For the substitution $^{IV}Si^{4+}\leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}$, we constructed a Zr-doped olivine by replacing one Si atom with one Zr atom in a supercell of forsterite. For the substitution $^{VI}Mg^{2+}+^{VI}Mg^{2+}\leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}+$, the nearest neighbor $[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]-[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]$ pair is replaced by Zr^{4+} and a vacancy (). There are four different possible configurations for this substitution: $[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M1}-[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M1}$, $[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M1}-[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M2}$, $[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M2}-[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M1}$, and $[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M2}-[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M2}$, where we substitute the first $^{VI}Mg^{2+}$ of each pair by Zr^{4+} and the second is replaced by a vacancy. Our calculations show that the Zr-doped olivine with Zr^{4+} occupying the M2 Mg site and the charge balanced by the nearest M1 Mg vacancy ($[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M2}-[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M1}$) has the lowest total energy among all nonequivalent configurations. This configuration with the lowest energy was used for the calculation.

Orthopyroxene also has two nonequivalent Mg sites (M1 and M2) and two nonequivalent Si sites (SiA and SiB). Our calculations show that the energy difference between Zr^{4+} in the SiA and SiB sites is large, 7.6 eV for $Mg_{32}Si_{31}ZrO_{96}$ orthopyroxene, suggesting that Zr^{4+} prefers the SiB site. Thus, orthopyroxene with Zr^{4+} occupying the SiB site was used for the substitution $^{IV}Si^{4+}\leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}$. Similar to the substitution $^{VI}Mg^{2+}+^{VI}Mg^{2+}\leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}+$ in olivine, we also considered four configurations for the $Zr^{4+}+$ substitution: $[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M1}-[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M1},$ $[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M1}-[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M2},$

 $[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M2}$ - $[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M1}$, and $[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M2}$ - $[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M2}$. The Zr-doped orthopyroxene, in which Zr^{4+} occupies the M1 Mg site with the charge balanced by the nearest M2 Mg vacancy $([^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M1}$ - $[^{VI}Mg^{2+}]_{M2} \leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}$) has the lowest total energy and was used in the calculations.

Diopside, the CaMgSi₂O₆ end-member of clinopyroxene, contains four equivalent Ca atoms, four equivalent Mg atoms, and eight equivalent Si atoms. A Zr-doped clinopyroxene with the substitution ^{IV}Si⁴⁺↔Zr⁴⁺ can be produced by replacing one Si atom with one Zr atom. We also investigated the Zr-doped clinopyroxene with the substitution ^{VIII}Ca²⁺/^{VI}Mg²⁺+ ^{VI}Mg²⁺ , in which Zr⁴⁺ can substitute for any pair [VIIICa²⁺]-[VIMg²⁺], [VIIMg²⁺]-[VIIMg²⁺]-[VIIICa²⁺], or [VIMg²⁺]-[VIMg²⁺]. Our calculations show that the Zr-doped diopside with Zr⁴⁺ occupying the Mg site and the charge balanced by a vacancy in the nearest Ca site ([VIIIMg²⁺]-[VIIICa²⁺]+ →Zr⁴⁺+) has a lower total energy than the configuration with [VIIICa²⁺]-[VIMg²⁺]+→Zr⁴⁺+ (*i.e.*, -2.3 eV for Ca₇Mg₇ZrSi₁₆O₄₈), indicating that Zr⁴⁺ preferentially enters the Mg site in diopside. This is consistent with the experimental finding that Zr is located in the M1 (Mg) site in clinopyroxene¹⁰³.

Tremolite has three nonequivalent Mg sites (M1, M2, and M3) and two nonequivalent Si sites (SiT1 and SiT2). The volume of Mg-O octahedron increases in the order of M3 < M1 < M2. For the substitution IV Si⁴⁺ \leftrightarrow Zr⁴⁺, the configuration with Zr⁴⁺ occupying the larger SiT2 site has a lower energy and was used for the calculation. For the substitution VI Mg²⁺+ VI Mg²⁺ \leftrightarrow Zr⁴⁺ , tremolite has six different [VI Mg²⁺]-[VI Mg²⁺] pairs: [VI Mg²⁺]_{M1}-[VI Mg²⁺]_{M1} (3.17 Å), [VI Mg²⁺]_{M2}-[VI Mg²⁺]_{M2} (5.59 Å), [VI Mg²⁺]_{M3}-[VI Mg²⁺]_{M3} (10.27 Å), [VI Mg²⁺]_{M1}-[VI Mg²⁺]_{M2} (3.08 Å), [VI Mg²⁺]_{M1}-[VI Mg²⁺]_{M3} (3.18 Å). Here we only consider [VI Mg²⁺]-[VI Mg²⁺] pairs where the two Mg sites are in close proximity, corresponding to seven different configurations ([VI Mg²⁺]_{M1}-[VI Mg²⁺]_{M1}, [VI Mg²⁺]_{M1}-[VI Mg²⁺]_{M2}, [VI Mg²⁺]_{M2}-[VI Mg²⁺]_{M1},

- [VIMg²+]_{M1}-[VIMg²+]_{M3}, [VIMg²+]_{M3}-[VIMg²+]_{M1}, [VIMg²+]_{M2}-[VIMg²+]_{M3}, and [VIMg²+]_{M3}[VIMg²+]_{M2}) that could be replaced by Zr⁴++ . Our calculations show that the structure with Zr⁴+
 cocupying the largest M2 Mg site with the charge balanced by the nearest M1 Mg vacancy
 [[VIMg²+]_{M2}-[VIMg²+]_{M1}↔Zr⁴++) has the lowest energy and was therefore used in the calculations.
 This choice is consistent with spectroscopic evidence indicating that in arfvedsonite (a sodium amphibole mineral), Zr is in the M2 site¹0³.
- The initial structure of Zr-doped quartz was constructed through the substitution ${}^{IV}Si^{4+} \leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}$, while the Zr-doped structure for K-feldspar was constructed by substituting Zr⁴⁺ for K⁺/Al³⁺ with the charge balanced by a tetrahedral $A1^{3+}/K^+$ vacancy ($^{VIII}K^++$ $^{IV}A1^{3+} \leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}_{K}+$ and $^{IV}Al^{3+}+^{VIII}K^{+}\leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}Al^{+}$). Our calculations show that the configuration with $^{IV}Al^{3+}+^{VIII}K^{+}\leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}{}_{Al}+$ has a lower energy than $^{VIII}K^{+}+^{IV}Al^{3+}\leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}{}_{K}+$ (i.e., -4.7 eV for K₇Al₇ZrSi₂₄O₆₄). The former was therefore used in the calculations.
 - Previous work suggested that Zr could substitute for Ca in apatite 104 , we generated the initial structure of Zr-doped apatite by substituting one Zr atom for one nine-coordinated Ca atom, with the charge balanced by the vacancy in the nearest seven-coordinated Ca site ($^{IX}Ca^{2+}+$ $^{VII}Ca^{2+}\leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}_{IX-Ca}+$).
 - For geikielite (MgTiO₃) and ilmenite (FeTiO₃), the Zr-doped structures were generated by the substitution ${}^{VI}\text{Ti}^{4+}\leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}$ due to the similarity between Ti⁴⁺ and Zr⁴⁺. For MgFe₂O₄ magnetite, Zr⁴⁺ occupies the octahedral Fe³⁺ site with charge balanced by the nearest tetrahedral Fe³⁺ replaced by Mg²⁺ (${}^{VI}\text{Fe}^{3+}+{}^{IV}\text{Fe}^{3+}\leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}{}_{VI\text{-Fe}}+Mg^{2+}{}_{IV\text{-Fe}}$).
 - Pyrope, the Mg endmember of garnet, contains 160 atoms in its conventional cell with space group Ia-3d. Here we consider three possible substitution mechanisms: (1) ${}^{IV}Si^{4+}\leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}$, where Zr^{4+} occupies the tetrahedral Si site, (2) ${}^{VI}Al^{3+}+{}^{IV}Si^{4+}\leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}+Al^{3+}$, where Zr^{4+} occupies the

octahedral Al site and the original Al^{3+} occupies the nearest Si site, and (3) VIIIMg²⁺+ VIIIMg²⁺ \leftrightarrow Zr⁴⁺+, where Zr⁴⁺ occupies the dodecahedral Mg site with the charge balanced by replacement of the nearest Mg site with a vacancy. Spectroscopic data seems to support the presence of Zr in 6-fold coordination in garnet¹⁰³, which would be support of the second substitution mechanism VIAl³⁺+ IVSi⁴⁺ \leftrightarrow Zr⁴⁺+ Al³⁺.

Zirconium are present as trace element in many of these minerals. We modelled various levels of Zr dilution in olivine, orthopyroxene, clinopyroxene, tremolite, quartz, geikielite, ilmenite, apatite, K-feldspar, and magnetite by incorporating Zr into their supercells, which were generated by expanding the primitive cell along different directions. For example, the 112-atom and 224-atom supercells of olivine were obtained by expanding the primitive cell twice along the a and c directions and twice simultaneously along a, b, and c directions, respectively. Substituting one Si atom with one Zr atom in those supercells can produce olivine structures with Zr/(Zr+Si) of 1/16 and 1/32, respectively. The same approach was used to simulate dilution in other minerals (Table 1).

For the calculations of Hf equilibrium isotopic fractionation, we investigated Ca-catapleiite and zircon (Hf substituting Zr) as well as ilmenite (Hf substituting Ti). For zircon and Ca-catapleiite, we calculated the mineral structures and β -factors for different Zr/Hf ratios using a supercell approach (Table 1).

The relaxed cell parameters and volumes of zircon, baddeleyite, and Ca-catapleiite are compared with experimental measurements at 300 K in **Table S2**. Our calculations with GGA overestimate the volumes of these minerals by ~3-4%, which is typical of GGA calculations, as already noticed in previous studies^{105–108}. In general, the local density approximation (LDA) tends to underestimate the volume, while GGA tends to give a larger volume than experimental data.

DFT calculations will also give different β factors when different exchange-correlation functionals are used. However, the differences in $10^3 \ln \beta$ (*i.e.*, $10^3 \ln \alpha$ or equilibrium isotope fractionation factors between minerals), are less sensitive to the approximation adopted for the change-correlation functional $^{105-108}$. We compare the calculated frequencies of zircon and baddeleyite with experimental data in **Fig. S1**. Our results agree with experimental measurements, with a slope between calculated and measured frequencies of 0.966 ± 0.04 . Following the uncertainty analysis presented by Meheut *et al.* 109 , we estimate that the uncertainties of our calculated $\ln \beta$ and $\ln \alpha$ values at high temperature are ~ 6 and 8% relative, respectively.

3. Results

The average Zr-O bond lengths and Zr coordination numbers (CNs) in all calculated minerals are listed in **Table 1**. The average Zr-O bond length and Zr CN depend on the threshold adopted for Zr-O bond lengths. In all calculated minerals, the Zr-O distances form two populations, ranging from 1.9 Å to 2.4 Å, or greater than 3.0 Å. Here we adopted a value of 2.4 Å as the cutoff to determine Zr-O bond lengths and Zr CNs. The Zr CN ranges from 4 in silicate minerals with the substitution $Si^{4+}\leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}$ to 8 in zircon, and the average Zr-O bond length ranges from 1.960 Å in olivine with the substitution $Si^{4+}\leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}$ to 2.228 Å in zircon. In addition, within the explored compositional space (**Table 1**), there is no significant Zr concentration effect on the average Zr-O bond lengths in Zr-doped minerals.

As discussed in Section 2.1. and references therein, the main control on equilibrium isotopic fractionation is the bond strength or force constant, and at high temperature $1000 \ln \beta$ is directly proportional to $\langle F \rangle$. The Zr force constants vary from 280 to 566 N/m in the calculated minerals (Table 1). In all minerals, Zr is primarily coordinated with oxygen and as expected¹¹⁰, the main

control on the bond strength (force constant) is coordination (Fig. 1A), which is also manifested as a correlation between force constant with bond length (Fig. 1B). The average Zr force constants of minerals in 4, 6, 7, and 8 coordination are 540, 366, 323, 340 N/m respectively. Among them, ilmenite (6-fold coordination), magnetite (6), apatite (6), baddeleyite (7) and zircon (8) have weaker Zr-O bonds than that of 6-fold coordination Ca-catapleiite, the silicate melt proxy mineral. Geikielite (6-fold coordination) and most of the silicate minerals with Zr in mostly 4- and 6-fold coordination have stronger Zr-O bonds than that of 6-fold coordinated Ca-catapleiite. Pyrope with the substitution $^{VIII}Mg^{2+}+^{VIII}Mg^{2+}\leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}+$ is the only silicate mineral calculated with a weaker Zr-O bond strength than the melt.

The $1000 \ln \beta$ values of $^{94}\text{Zr}/^{90}\text{Zr}$ of all calculated minerals can be expressed as a function of temperature ($10^3 \ln \beta = A_1 x + A_2 x^2 + A_3 x^3$, where $x = 10^6/\text{T}^2$ and T is temperature in Kelvin; Eq. 4). The coefficients of this polynomial expansion are listed in **Table 1**. For many non-traditional stable isotopes systems, one can relate equilibrium fractionation at any temperature to an expansion in the even powers of $\langle F \rangle^{87,111}$. For a Debye phonon density of states (PDOS), we would have,

$$1000 \ln \beta \simeq 1000 \left(\frac{m_h}{m_l} - 1\right) \left(\frac{\gamma}{8} \frac{\langle F \rangle}{T^2} - \frac{5\gamma^2}{2016} \frac{\langle F \rangle^2}{T^4} + \frac{25\gamma^3}{326592} \frac{\langle F \rangle^3}{T^6}\right). \tag{8}$$

with $\gamma = \hbar^2/(k_B^2 m_h)$. Phonon density of states of naturally occurring minerals rarely follow a Debye profile and we can improve on this formula by writing a more general, semi-empirical equation,

359
$$1000 \ln \beta \simeq B_1 \langle F \rangle / T^2 - B_2 \langle F \rangle^2 / T^4 + B_3 \langle F \rangle^3 / T^6. \tag{9}$$

with $B_1 = 1000(1/m_l - 1/m_h) \hbar^2/(8k_B^2)$, and B_2 and B_3 constants that depend on the element and isotopes considered (and to some extent the particular PDOS, although these are second order corrections and the exact shape of the PDOS does not matter too much). We have calculated the values of B_2 and B_3 by regressing A_2 vs. $\langle F \rangle^2$ and A_3 vs. $\langle F \rangle^3$ (Figs. S2, S3) for the purpose of

evaluating the validity of the high-temperature approximation. Note that the equivalent regressions of $A_2 vs$. A_1^2 and $A_3 vs$. A_1^3 provide a rapid means of assessing the consistency of the polynomial expansion as an erroneous reporting of the coefficients would show up as an outlier in these diagrams. We find the approximate formula,

 $1000\ln\beta(^{94}\text{Zr}/^{90}\text{Zr}) \simeq 2081\langle F \rangle/T^2 - 2.5 \times 10^4 \langle F \rangle^2/T^4 + 8.5 \times 10^5 \langle F \rangle^3/T^6.$ (10)

In Fig. 2A (also see Fig. S4), we use this formula to calculate the extent to which the high-temperature approximation (truncating the polynomial to the first order; Eq. 6, 9, and 10) can approximate the true value of $1000\ln\beta$ (Eq. 4) as a function of T and $\langle F \rangle$ (see Fig. 3 of Dauphas et al.⁸⁴ for a similar figure for iron). As shown, given that the force constants of Zr bonds in all calculated minerals are between 280 and 566 N/m, we find that provided that the temperature is higher than ~300-500 °C, truncating the expansion to the first order gives a $1000\ln\beta$ value that is within 1% of the value given by the whole expansion. For most high-temperature applications in metamorphic and igneous geochemistry and petrology, the high-temperature approximation $1000\ln\beta \simeq 2081\langle F \rangle/T^2$ is therefore valid.

The Zr-doped silicate minerals with the substitution $Si^{4+} \leftrightarrow Zr^4$ have significantly larger β factors than other species. This is mainly because Zr in these silicate minerals form stiffer bonds due to the incorporation of Zr into the low-coordination (IV) tetrahedral Si site. At 1000 K, the $1000 \ln \beta$ values range from 1.17 ‰ in Zr-doped olivine (substituting Si) to 0.58 ‰ in Zr-doped ilmenite (substituting Ti). It decreases in the order of Zr-doped olivine (substituting Si), quartz, orthopyroxene, K-feldspar (substituting Al) ~ tremolite (substituting Si) ~ clinopyroxene (substituting Si) ~ pyrope (substituting Si) > pyrope (substituting Al) > geikielite (substituting Ti) ~ orthopyroxene, clinopyroxene, tremolite, and olivine (substituting Mg) > Ca-catapleiite > pyrope (substituting Mg) > zircon ~ baddeleyite > apatite (substituting Ca) ~ MgFe₂O₄ magnetite

(substituting Fe) > ilmenite (substituting Ti). The temperature dependence of the reduced partition function ratio $(1000 \ln \beta)$, as well as the equilibrium fractionation factors between minerals and melt $(1000 \ln \alpha_{mineral-melt})$; taking Ca-catapleiite as a silicate melt proxy) are shown in Fig. 3. As expected, they scale linearly with $1/T^2$.

We have also performed some *ab initio* calculations substituting Hf for Zr in several minerals showing a wide range of Zr bond strengths: zircon, Ca-catapleiite, and ilmenite (**Fig. 4**). The force constants of Hf bonds are very similar to those of Zr (**Table 1** and **Fig. 5**), defining a linear correlation,

395
$$\langle F_{\rm Hf} \rangle = (1.032 \pm 0.021) \langle F_{\rm Zr} \rangle$$
. (11)

By regressing A_2 vs. $\langle F \rangle^2$ and A_3 vs. $\langle F \rangle^3$ (Fig. S3), we derive a one-parameter approximate equation for the $1000 \ln \beta$ value of Hf,

398
$$1000 \ln \beta (^{179} \text{Hf}/^{177} \text{Hf}) \simeq 278 \langle F \rangle / T^2 - 3464 \langle F \rangle^2 / T^4 + 175551 \langle F \rangle^3 / T^6 . \tag{12}$$

As with Zr (Fig. 2A; also see Fig. S4) and Fe⁸⁴, we use this formula to calculate the extent to which truncating the formula to the first term $1000 \ln \beta (^{179} \text{Hf}/^{177} \text{Hf}) \simeq 278 \langle F \rangle / T^2$ (Eq. 7) provides an adequate approximation of the $1000 \ln \beta$ value (Eq. 4; Fig. 2B and Fig. S5). We find that provided that the temperature is higher than ~300-500 °C, truncating the expansion to the first order gives a $1000 \ln \beta$ value that is within 1% of the value given by the whole expansion. As with Zr, the first term of the polynomial gives an adequate description of equilibrium Hf isotopic fractionation for applications in igneous and metamorphic geochemistry/petrology.

Given the near-identical force constants of Zr and Hf, the ratio of equilibrium fractionation factors is directly related to the mass of the isotopes involved through (combine Eqs. 6 and 7),

$$\frac{1000 \ln \alpha (^{94} \text{Zr}/^{90} \text{Zr})}{1000 \ln \alpha (^{179} \text{Hf}/^{177} \text{Hf})} = \frac{2081}{278} = 7.5 . \tag{13}$$

4. Discussion

As we mentioned in the introduction, the use of Zr isotopic fractionation as a petrogenetic tracer of zircon formation is hampered by our lack of understanding of what controls this fractionation.

Zirconium isotopic analyses reported thus far on bulk rocks and individual zircons^{63–69} yield contradictory evidence with regard to what controls the observed Zr isotopic variations, and whether zircons are enriched in the light or heavy isotopes of Zr relative to coexisting magma. Below we use the newly established fractionation factors to show that equilibrium zircon-melt fractionation cannot account for the large Zr isotopic variations that have been documented. These fractionations are most likely explained by diffusion-driven kinetic isotopic fractionation.

4.1. Equilibrium Zr isotopic fractionation during zircon crystallization from silicate melts

Zircon is an important carrier of Zr and Hf in igneous rocks, so we start by focusing on the effects of the equilibrium crystallization of this mineral on the behavior of Zr and Hf stable isotopes during magmatic differentiation. Following Inglis et al.⁶⁴ and Ibanez-Meija and Tissot⁶⁶, we model Zr isotopic fractionation during zircon crystallization using a Rayleigh distillation model,

$$\delta^{\prime 94} Zr_{\text{melt}} = \delta^{\prime 94} Zr_0 + \Delta_{\text{Zr}}^{\text{zircon-melt}} \ln f_{Zr}. \tag{14}$$

where $\delta'^{94} Zr_{melt}$ and $\delta'^{94} Zr_0$ are the Zr isotopic compositions of the residual and starting melt respectively, expressed as $\delta'^{94} Zr = 10^3 \ln \left[(^{94} Zr/^{90} Zr)_{sample}/(^{94} Zr/^{90} Zr)_{std} \right]$, f_{Zr} is the fraction of Zr remaining in the melt, and $\Delta_{Zr}^{zircon-melt} = 1000 \ln \alpha_{Zr}^{zircon-melt}$ is the instantaneous isotopic fractionation factor of Zr between zircon and melt. The Zr isotopic composition of the instantaneous zircon crystallized from the melt can be calculated as,

$$\delta'^{94} Zr_{i,zircon} = \delta'^{94} Zr_0 + \Delta_{Zr}^{zircon-melt} (1 + \ln f_{Zr}).$$
 (15)

The zirconium isotopic composition of the cumulative zircon is obtained by mass-balance with the residual melt and initial composition,

$$\delta^{\prime 94} Zr_{c,zircon} = \delta^{\prime 94} Zr_0 - \Delta_{Zr}^{zircon-melt} \frac{f_{Zr}}{1 - f_{Zr}} ln f_{Zr}.$$
 (16)

Both Inglis et al.⁶⁴ and Ibanez-Meija and Tissot⁶⁶ derived apparent $\Delta_{Zr}^{zircon-melt}$ values from their measurements. The $\Delta_{Zr}^{zircon-melt}$ values that they calculated have opposite directions and different magnitudes. Inglis et al.⁶⁴ found that Zr in the melt becomes isotopically heavy in the course of magmatic differentiation of the Hekla volcano, meaning that zircon must be enriched in the light Zr isotopes. They were able to fit their data with an instantaneous fractionation $\Delta_{Tr}^{zircon-melt} = -0.5 \%$. Ibanez-Meija and Tissot⁶⁶ measured many zircons from an anorthositic gabbro (FC-1) and found that the statistical distribution of these δ'^{94} Zr values extended to very negative values, which they argue is more readily explained if zircon crystallizing from the melt was enriched in the heavy isotopes of Zr, and the most negative δ'^{94} Zr values resulted from crystallization from a melt that has experienced extensive distillation. By fitting their statistical distribution, they obtain $\Delta_{Zr}^{zircon-melt} = +1.06$ %. These two studies focused on different materials (bulk rocks sampling a magmatic differentiation trend in the case of Inglis et al.⁶⁴; individual zircons sampling fractional crystallization within a single rock in the case of Ibanez-Meija and Tissot⁶⁶). Based on available data, it is impossible to tell what is the cause of the discrepancy between these two studies and whether the measurements reflect equilibrium or diffusion-driven kinetic isotopic fractionation, as has been demonstrated previously for Mg and Fe in igneous rocks^{112–116}.

We have calculated Zr force constants of 335 and 369 N/m for zircon and Ca-catapleiite (the silicate melt proxy), respectively (**Table 1**). The slightly higher force constant of Ca-catapleiite

- relative to zircon is consistent with its lower coordination number (6 for catapleiite vs. 8 for zircon).
- The equilibrium Zr isotopic fractionation between zircon and melt is given by the formula,

$$\Delta^{94} Zr_{zircon-melt}^{eq} = -\frac{7.87 \times 10^4}{T^2} + \frac{1.94 \times 10^9}{T^4} - \frac{5.85 \times 10^{13}}{T^6}.$$
 (17)

At the temperatures relevant to igneous zircon crystallization of ~700-1000 °C, the equilibrium fractionation would only be -0.048 to -0.081 ‰ (Fig. 6). The lower δ'^{94} Zr value of zircon relative to silicate melt at equilibrium is due to differences in coordination numbers. The equilibrium fractionation is opposite in sign to the inferred instantaneous zircon-melt fractionation of Ibanez-Meija and Tissot⁶⁶ and is much smaller in magnitude than the values given by both Inglis et al.⁶⁴ and Ibanez-Meija and Tissot⁶⁶. Taken at face value, this would suggest that the instantaneous Zr isotopic fractionations measured in these two studies do not reflect equilibrium. A caveat to this comparison is that we used Zr in 6-fold coordination in Ca-catapleiite ($\langle F \rangle = 369$ N/m) as a proxy for Zr in silicate melt. As shown in Table 1 and Fig. 1A, Zr in 6-fold coordination in other minerals has force constants that range between 280 and 433 N/m. Using these values for Zr in melt and 335 N/m for zircon would result in zircon-melt equilibrium fractionations in the range -0.12 to +0.21 ‰ above 700 °C. These values are again much smaller than the values given in these two studies do not reflect zircon-melt equilibrium.

We further evaluate below how combining Zr isotopic compositions with Zr/Hf ratios can help identify zircons that grew in equilibrium with the melt. By equilibrium, we mean that zircon growth increments were in equilibrium with the bulk melt but distillation effects can still be present if Zr self-diffusion was too slow for the zircon interior to equilibrate with its rim, or if zircons were sequestered from the melt. The degree of isotopic fractionation in the instantaneous fraction of zircon crystallizing in equilibrium with the melt is given by (combining Eqs. 15 and 17),

478
$$\delta'^{94} Zr_{i,zircon} = \delta'^{94} Zr_0 - \frac{7.87 \times 10^4}{T^2} (1 + \ln f_{Zr}). \tag{18}$$

In Fig. 7, we plot the value of δ'^{94} Zr_{i,zircon} for different Zr fractions in zircon $(1-f_{Zr})$ and two temperatures of 700 and 1000 °C. As shown, at equilibrium the slightly lower δ'^{94} Zr value of zircon relative to the melt can drive the melt to evolve toward heavy δ'^{94} Zr values, reaching +0.25 ‰ (at 700 °C) and +0.14 ‰ (at 1000 °C) at 95% crystallization. One way to assess whether the data can be explained by equilibrium is to combine δ'^{94} Zr with Zr/Hf analyses. Indeed, these two observables should correlate in a predictable manner during equilibrium zircon crystallization as they both depend on T and f_{Zr} . Zircon is a solid solution of zircon (ZrSiO₄) and hafnon (HfSiO₄), and Hf zoning is often observed due to zircon growth while the melt composition evolves by fractional crystallization. Zirconium is more compatible than Hf in zircon, resulting in a decrease of the Zr/Hf ratio during fractional crystallization of zircon. Such Zr/Hf fractionations have been documented within zircon grains (from core to margin) and in bulk rocks^{117–119}. Similar to δ'^{94} Zr, we can model Zr/Hf fractionation using a Rayleigh distillation equation:

491
$$(Zr/Hf)_{melt} = (Zr/Hf)_0 f_{Zr}^{1-1/K_d}$$
. (19)

where $(Zr/Hf)_{melt}$ is the ratio in the melt, $(Zr/Hf)_0$ is the initial melt ratio, f_{Zr} is the fraction of the remaining Zr in melt, and K_d is the Zr/Hf exchange coefficient between zircon and melt,

$$\frac{(\text{Zr/Hf})_{\text{zircon,inst}}}{(\text{Zr/Hf})_{\text{melt}}} = K_d.$$
 (20)

We thus have,

$$(Zr/Hf)_{\text{zircon,inst}} = K_d (Zr/Hf)_0 f_{Zr}^{1-1/K_d}.$$
 (21)

The zircon Zr/Hf ratio is not only a function of the extent of fractional crystallization but also a function of temperature. Aranovich and Bortnikov¹²⁰ proposed the following formula for K_d ,

$$K_d = e^{1531/T - 0.883} (22)$$

In Fig. 8, we plot the calculated trends of Zr/Hf and δ'^{94} Zr variations in growth increments of zircon crystallized from silicate melt. The free parameters are the fraction of Zr remaining in melt (f_{Zr} from 0.99 to 0.01) and the crystallization temperature, which we keep fixed for simplicity (T from 870 to 600 °C; calculations are done using equations 15 and 17, 21 and 22). We use an initial Zr/Hf ratio of 31.1, initial δ'^{94} Zr value of -0.086 ‰ ⁶⁶, and the equilibrium isotopic fractionation factor inferred here Δ^{94} Zr $_{\rm zircon-melt}^{\rm eq} = -\frac{7.87 \times 10^4}{T^2}$ (Eq. 17). We also plot the current analytical uncertainties of Zr/Hf ratio ($\pm 1\%$) and δ'^{94} Zr isotopic composition ($\pm 0.01\%$). The δ'^{94} Zr value is mostly sensitive to the extent of crystallization, while Zr/Hf ratio depends on both temperature and extent of crystallization. By plotting Zr/Hf and δ'^{94} Zr values in zircons, ideally measured along depth profiles ^{65,68}, one will be able to compare the results with theoretical predictions, test whether zircon grew in increments in equilibrium with coexisting melt, and assess the temperature (T) and extent (f_{Zr}) of zircon crystallization.

4.2. Equilibrium Zr isotopic fractionation before the onset of zircon crystallization in melts

Within the magmatic temperature range of zircon crystallization, our *ab initio* calculation results show limited equilibrium isotopic fractionation between zircon and melt (see Fig. 6). This can explain the homogenous Zr isotope compositions of those reference zircons reported in Zhang et al.⁶⁵ and Tompkins et al.⁶⁸, but it fails to explain the observations made at the Hekla volcano⁶⁴ and zircons and baddeleyites from the FC-1 anorthositic gabbro⁶⁶. This implies that the current observed δ'^{94} Zr variations cannot be simply explained by the mechanism of equilibrium massdependent Zr isotopic fractionation between zircon and melt.

Below, we investigate whether equilibrium crystallization of other phases could have controlled Zr isotopic fractionation during magmatic differentiation. We used the Rhyolite-

MELTS program¹²¹ to calculate the evolution of Zr concentration and isotopic composition during magmatic differentiation before the onset of zircon crystallization. The melt major-element compositions and temperature at each step in the Rhyolite-MELTS run were used as input in the zircon saturation models of Waston and Harrison¹²² and Boehnke et al.¹²³ to check if zircon was saturated, as we were primarily interested here in evaluating the influence of the crystallization of non-zircon phases on the isotopic composition of Zr during magmatic differentiation (see Fig. S6).

Two starting melt compositions were used to represent calc-alkaline and tholeitic magmatic

series^{55,124}. Both crystallization processes start at the calculated liquidus temperatures and at 1 kbar for calc-alkaline and 0.6 kbar for tholeitic magma, respectively. For every 5°C temperature decrease, the major element compositions and mass of melt and crystallizing minerals are calculated using Rhyolite-MELTS. At each step the program gives the proportions of every mineral crystallizing. As a trace element, Zr is not incorporated in Rhyolite-MELTS program, but its distribution among the phases can be calculated based on partition data (Fig. 9). The Zr partition coefficients ($K_{mineral/melt}$) of each mineral in different rock matrix were compiled from the GERM database. The compiled values vary in a wide range, due in part to the dependence of partition coefficients on melt composition and temperature. We use the geometric mean of the partition coefficients as fiducial values, and also consider the maxima and minima to assess uncertainties associated with partition data. Knowing the mass fractions of minerals that crystallize, the Zr partition coefficients between bulk rock and melts are calculated at each step, and mass balance between melt and bulk crystallizing solids is then used to calculate the Zr concentration in melt at each step. We also track the evolution of the Zr/Hf ratio and Hf concentration, using literature data for the Zr/Hf exchange coefficients between minerals and melt.

Expectedly, Zr and Hf concentrations in the melt increase during fractional crystallization before zircon saturation (Fig. 10). In calc-alkaline magmas, about 16% of the total zirconium and 10% of the total hafnium are removed by crystallizing solids before zircon saturation. In tholeitic magmas, about 13% of total zirconium and 10% of total hafnium are removed (Figs. S7 and S8). These removal fractions $(1 - f_{Zr}; 1 - f_{Hf})$ depend on the values of the partition coefficients that are used and they range from 6 to 47% for Zr, and 3 to 32% for Hf in calc-alkaline magma (Fig. S7), and from 4 to 60% for Zr and 2 to 52% for Hf in tholeiltic magma (Fig. S8). In Fig. 10, we compare the modeling results for Zr and Hf concentrations with compilations of igneous rock compositions from the Andes and Iceland (compiled from GEOROC database, see also Fig. S1 in Ptacek et al.³¹), which typically follow calc-alkaline and tholeitic magma series, respectively (Fig. 10). The expected different trends of [Zr] vs. SiO₂ (or [Hf] vs. SiO₂) between calc-alkaline and tholeiitic series can be explained by the earlier crystallization of SiO₂-rich plagioclase in tholeiitic series compared with calc-alkaline series melts^{125–128}. Overall, all partition data (minimum, geometric mean, and maximum) reproduce well the trends seen in natural calc-alkaline Andes samples, while only the maximum partition data reproduce the tholeitic Iceland samples. The bulk solid-liquid Zr partition coefficient values are mainly affected by clinopyroxene and feldspar (Fig. 9).

With the same mass-balance rationale, we model the Zr isotopic evolution trends using the fractionation factors between minerals and melt from our *ab initio* calculation results. Although feldspar and clinopyroxene have the most leverage on Zr concentration, we find that iron-titanium oxides (ilmenite and magnetite) have the potential to produce non-negligible mass-dependent fractionation of Zr isotopes before the onset of zircon crystallization (see Fig. 3B). The modeling trends in Fig. 11 show that both for calc-alkaline and tholeitic magma, the δ'^{94} Zr value of the

melt evolves towards light values before zircon starts to crystallize (**Fig. 11**). The magnitudes of the isotopic fractionations are small, ranging from -0.005 to -0.160 ‰ for tholeitic series and from -0.016 to -0.165 ‰ for calc-alkaline series. These values are conservative estimates because we considered all possible substitution mechanisms (see **Table 1**) and the fractionations would have been smaller if we had solely used the substitution favored by spectroscopic observations for clinopyroxene¹⁰³. Our modeling results thus show that before the onset of zircon crystallization, magmatic differentiation is not expected to impart large Zr isotopic fractionation in the magma if equilibrium prevails.

4.3. Diffusion-driven kinetic isotopic fractionations during crystal growth from silicate melt

The discussions in the previous two sections show that magmatic differentiation processes are unlikely to be associated with significant equilibrium Zr isotopic fractionation. This suggests that the large Zr isotopic fractionations measured in bulk volcanic rocks⁶⁴ and igneous zircons and baddeleyites⁶⁶ are more likely the product of kinetic isotope effects.

While equilibrium isotopic fractionation decreases rapidly with increasing temperature, kinetic effects associated with diffusion can remain significant at magmatic temperature¹²⁹. Such diffusive fractionations have been documented in natural magmatic systems for Mg and Fe in olivine^{112–116} and Mg in melts¹³⁰. Such non-equilibrium variations in natural systems can result from diffusion-limited transport in both melts^{131–133} and crystals^{112–116}. In the case of zircon, Ibanez-Mejia and Tissot⁶⁶ pointed out that Zr diffusivity in zircon is extremely slow. If any kinetic isotopic fractionation is present in zircon and other non-zircon minerals, it is most likely due to diffusion in the melt^{131–133}.

We examine below two models of kinetic fractionation of Zr isotopes resulting from diffusion in melts (Fig. 12) that can explain the Zr isotopic variations that have been documented in igneous rocks: (i) diffusion-limited growth of zircon in a supersaturated magma and (ii) diffusion in the boundary layer formed during the growth of a Zr-poor mineral. Several studies have examined diffusive isotopic fractionation during crystal growth. Jambon¹³¹ presented the first model of isotopic fractionation of major and trace elements in magmas associated with crystal growth. They assumed a constant growth rate (dr/dt = v, with v constant) and examined a planar geometry. Watson and Muller¹³² also assumed a constant growth rate, but examined a spherical geometry and allowed for advective transport outside of a boundary layer. Dauphas and Rouxel¹³³ presented analytical equations for diffusion-limited concretion/crystal growth for both planar and spherical geometries. The main difference with Jambon¹³¹ and Watson and Muller¹³² is that the growth rate of the crystal is assumed to be limited by diffusion and therefore varies with time $(dr/dt \propto 1/\sqrt{t})$. DePaolo¹³⁴ examined Ca and Mg isotopic fractionation during carbonate formation.

The reason why isotopes can be fractionated by diffusion in magmatic systems is that light (L) isotopes tend to diffuse faster than the heavy ones (H), which is often parameterized as 129,135–139.

$$\frac{D_H}{D_L} = \left(\frac{m_L}{m_H}\right)^{\beta} \,. \tag{23}$$

where D and m stand for diffusivity and mass of the isotopes, and β is an empirical factor. No data is available documenting Zr or Hf isotopic fractionation during diffusion in silicate melts. However, Watkins et al.¹⁴⁰ recognized that β exponents correlate with the ratio of the diffusivities of the cations normalized by those of Si. The $D_{\rm Zr}/D_{\rm Si}$ and $D_{\rm Hf}/D_{\rm Si}$ ratios in rhyolite melts most relevant to zircon crystallization are close to $\sim 1^{141}$. Using the relationship established by Watkins et al.¹⁴⁰, we calculate $\beta \simeq 0.054 \pm 0.059$ for both Zr and Hf (Fig. 13). Using Eq. 23, we therefore have,

$$\frac{D_{94_{\rm Zr}}}{D_{90_{\rm Zr}}} = \left(\frac{89.905}{93.906}\right)^{0.054 \pm 0.059} = 0.9977 \pm 0.0026 \quad . \tag{24}$$

$$\frac{D_{179_{\rm Hf}}}{D_{177_{\rm Hf}}} = \left(\frac{176.943}{178.946}\right)^{0.054 \pm 0.059} = 0.9994 \pm 0.0007 \ . \tag{25}$$

The differences in diffusivities $D_{\rm 94Zr}/D_{\rm 90Zr}$ and $D_{\rm 179Hf}/D_{\rm 177Hf}$ are thus -2.3±2.6 and -0.6±0.7 %

616 (Δ_D , see Eq. A10), respectively.

4.3.1. Diffusion-limited crystallization (DLC) of zircon

The first setting where Zr isotopes could have been fractionated is during diffusion-limited growth of zircon from a supersaturated medium. The growth of zircon will deplete the surrounding medium in Zr, which has to be supplied by diffusion from the far-field medium^{142,143}. Because light isotopes diffuse faster than heavy ones, Zr delivered to the growing crystal will be enriched in the light isotopes of Zr, while the medium further away will be enriched in the heavy isotopes of Zr¹²⁹. The formalism developed by Dauphas and Rouxel¹³³ can be applied here to model isotopic fractionation during diffusion-limited growth of zircon from an infinite medium. The growth rate cannot be arbitrarily set to a constant value, as it depends on the supply of Zr to the growing crystal through diffusion. This has important consequences for isotopic fractionation. Most importantly, during diffusion-limited growth, the δ'^{94} Zr value of the growing crystal will be offset from that of the surrounding medium even when the system has reached a pseudo steady-state. The reason is that the diffusive boundary layer keeps growing as the square-root of time, so from a mass-balance point of view, the light isotopic enrichment of the growing crystal can be offset by the heavy isotopic enrichment of the diffusive boundary layer.

We used the equations provided by Dauphas and Rouxel¹³³ to calculate the Zr concentration and isotopic composition profiles in the liquid away from the interface of a spherical zircon

growing in a diffusion-limited regime and these are plotted in Fig. 14 (we also provide movies as Supporting Information SI (E) showing the evolutions of these two variables as a function of time, Mov. 1 and 2, movie titles and captions are in Supporting Information SI (D)). Very rapidly, the system reaches a pseudo steady-state whereby the concentration and isotopic profiles follow a self-similar solution that stretches as the square-root of time. Dauphas and Rouxel¹³³ derived an approximate solution for the isotopic composition of the crystal (assuming spherical geometry) that is valid up to a supersaturation of $S \simeq 5$ to 10,

$$\delta'^{94} Zr_{zircon} \simeq \left[\frac{\Delta'^{94} Zr_{eq, zircon-melt}}{S} + \left(1 - \frac{1}{S} \right) \left(\frac{D_{94} Zr}{D_{90} Zr} - 1 \right) 10^{3} \right]. \tag{26}$$

where $S = C_{\infty}/C_{sat}$ is the degree of supersaturation (C_{∞} and C_{sat} are the far-field and saturation concentrations, respectively) and $\Delta'^{94}\mathrm{Zr}_{\mathrm{eq,\,zircon\text{-}melt}}$ is the equilibrium isotopic fractionation between zircon and silicate melt. Note that diffusive fractionation associated with growth of a planar crystal is a factor of ~2 lower than that predicted for a sphere (Eq. 54 of Dauphas and Rouxel¹³³).

In Fig. 15, we plot the expected isotopic fractionation as a function of the degree of supersaturation. The δ'^{94} Zr_{zircon} here is the isotopic composition in the crystal relative to that in the far-field growth medium. With $\beta_{Zr} = 0.113$ in Eq. 24, we can reach a δ'^{94} Zr value for zircon of -4.4 ‰. This is similar to the lowest δ'^{94} Zr values of -4.278 ‰ measured by Ibanez-Meija and Tissot⁶⁶. Ibanez-Meija and Tissot⁶⁶ found a range of δ'^{94} Zr values extending to +0.905 ‰. The formula of Dauphas and Rouxel¹³³ assumes growth from an infinite medium. In practice, in a finite system¹⁴³, the diffusive enrichment in the light isotopes of the growing crystal will leave behind a residual melt that will become enriched in the heavy isotopes of Zr, so we do expect the production of zircon with positive δ'^{94} Zr values. As indicated by Eq. 26, the parameter that determines whether equilibrium or diffusive kinetic isotopic composition is expressed in a crystal is the degree

of supersaturation of the medium, which also influences the growth rate. Therefore, δ'^{94} Zr measurements of zircons could provide direct clues on the cooling and crystallization history of the host magma body. For purely diffusion-limited growth, the degree of supersaturation S influences the crystal growth rate through (derived from Eq. 56 of Dauphas and Rouxel¹³³; C_{zircon} is the Zr concentration in zircon),

$$R = \sqrt{\frac{2C_{sat}(S-1)Dt}{C_{zircon}}} . (27)$$

$$\frac{dR}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{2C_{sat}(S-1)D}{C_{zircon}}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{t}} = \frac{C_{sat}(S-1)D}{RC_{zircon}} . \tag{28}$$

$$S = 1 + \frac{dR}{dt} \times \frac{RC_{zircon}}{DC_{sat}} . {29}$$

Neglecting equilibrium isotopic fractionation in Eq. 26 and injecting Eq. 29 in Eq. 26, we thus

$$\delta'^{94} Zr_{zircon} \simeq \left[1 - \frac{1}{1 + \frac{dR}{dt} \times \frac{RC_{zircon}}{DC_{sat}}} \right] \left(\frac{D_{94Zr}}{D_{90Zr}} - 1 \right) 10^{3} . \tag{30}$$

In Fig. 16, we use this equation to plot the expected Zr isotopic fractionation in zircon $\delta'^{94} Zr_{zircon}$ as a function of growth rate dR/dt at different temperatures (different D and C_{sat} values) and different supersaturations. In Eq. 30, we consider crystals of 10, 100 μ m in radius (R). As discussed by Zhang and Xu¹⁴², zircons larger than ~10 μ m in an open magma are expected to partially grow through advection of Zr to a diffusive boundary layer. Watson and Muller¹³² investigated numerically the isotopic consequences of such a model. The zircons measured by Ibanez-Meija and Tissot⁶⁶ are less than 10 μ m in size and grew in inter-cumulus liquid pockets, where advection is most likely limited. In such settings (late crystallization of residual liquid pockets), it is conceivable that diffusive growth could play a role even for zircons larger than 10 μ m. The Zr diffusivities at different temperatures are calculated using the experimental results

from Zhang and Xu^{142} . Zirconium saturation concentrations (C_{sat}) at different temperatures are calculated using the model presented in Boehnke et al.¹²³. The Zr concentration in zircon is ~500,000 ppm. The result of our calculation (Fig. 16) shows that the extremely light δ'^{94} Zr values (-4.278 %) reported by Ibanez-Meija and Tissot⁶⁶ in ~10 µm zircons crystallized at ~850 °C can be explained if they grew in a diffusion-limited regime at a supersaturation of ~7.8, corresponding to a growth rate of ~0.4 µm/yr. We are not aware of any independent constraint on the zircon growth rate in the specific anorthositic gabbro studied by Ibanez-Meija and Tissot⁶⁶, but our inferred growth rate is in line with the results of Zhang and Xu¹⁴² who gave values in the range 0.01-1.0 µm/yr for variably hydrated rhyolitic melts. We conclude that diffusion-limited crystallization of zircon is a possible mechanism to explain the variable Zr isotopic compositions measured in zircon grains⁶⁶.

Inglis et al.⁶⁴ argued that the heavy Zr isotopic compositions of differentiated rocks from Hekla could be explained by fractional crystallization of zircon with δ'^{94} Zr values shifted by -0.5 ‰ relative to the melt. As shown in Fig. 15, such low δ'^{94} Zr values in zircon can be produced in the DLC model by growth from a melt characterized by Zr supersaturations of ~1.1 to 2.2, depending on the value of β_{Zr} . Zircons from the Hekla volcano are typically $40\times160~\mu m$ in size and were formed at temperatures of ~750-850 °C¹⁴⁴. Assuming a characteristic size of 36 μm (a sphere of 36 μm radius has the same volume as a cylinder of 20 μm radius and 160 μm length) and a temperature of 800 °C, the supersaturations of 1.1 to 2.2 correspond to growth rates of 0.0004 to 0.0044 $\mu m/yr$, which is slightly smaller than the range given by Zhang and Xu¹⁴². A caveat to this calculation is that it assumes that Zr transport is entirely diffusive. Zircons would grow faster if advective transport took place, which would also dampen kinetic isotopic fractionation. The zircon-melt isotopic fractionation calculated by Inglis et al.⁶⁴ is uncertain as it relies solely on bulk

rock measurements. Without further isotopic characterizations of the mineral carriers of Zr in Hekla, it is difficult to robustly interpret bulk rock Zr isotopic analyses. To summarize, the removal of isotopically light zircon formed by the DLC process could possibly drive residual magmas to evolve towards heavy Zr isotopic compositions, as is observed^{64,67,69}.

4.3.2. Diffusion-triggered crystallization (DTC) of zircon during the growth of Zr-poor minerals

The highly fractionated zircons measured by Ibanez-Meija and Tissot⁶⁶ are closely associated with plagioclase, clinopyroxene and ilmenite, and are interpreted to have crystallized from intercumulus liquid pockets. The second setting where diffusive isotopic fractionation could have taken place is therefore in the diffusive boundary layers formed around Zr-poor minerals, as was first described for apatite by Harrison and Watson¹⁴⁵. When Zr-poor minerals grow, Zr excluded from their crystal lattice accumulates in the liquid at the interface with the solid 146, and the concentration gradient thus formed relaxes by Zr diffusion from the solid-liquid interface to the far field. Because light isotopes diffuse faster than heavy ones¹²⁹, Zr at the interface get enriched in the heavy isotopes while the liquid further away gets enriched in the light isotopes. Zircon crystallized from liquid in this boundary layer could inherit the isotopic fractionation imparted by diffusion. Given the great incompatibility of Zr in most minerals, the concentration in the liquid at the interface of those growing crystals could be much higher than the far-field. In steady-state and planar geometry, the constant growth rate model of Smith et al. 146 predicts that the liquid at the interface can be enriched relative to the far-field by a factor of 1/K, where K is the mineral/liquid partition coefficient¹⁴⁶. Based on partitioning data for olivine, pyroxene, and feldspar (GERM database, https://earthref.org/KDD/e:40/), we calculate that the Zr enrichments at the liquid/solid interface

could reach factors of ~7-100, ~1-70, and ~2-1100, respectively. These dramatic enrichments could have led Zr concentration to exceed zircon saturation and trigger their crystallization. The zircon thus formed would inherit Zr from the diffusion boundary layer, which would have been fractionated isotopically by diffusive transport. We call this second model diffusion-triggered crystallization (DTC) (Fig. 12). Note that DTC and DLC could have occurred concurrently if the diffusive layer around Zr-poor minerals was highly supersaturated and the growth of zircon itself was diffusion-limited.

The models of Smith et al. ¹⁴⁶, Jambon ¹³¹ and Watson and Muller ¹³² are well suited to explore diffusive isotopic fractionation created by the exclusion of Zr from growing Zr-poor crystals. Using the framework of Smith et al. ¹⁴⁶ for diffusive transport away from a planar crystal growing at constant speed, we derive the analytical equations of the isotopic composition in the liquid and solid in transient and at steady-state (see **SI** (A) for details). For the concentration, Smith et al. ¹⁴⁶ give the transient liquid concentration C_l relative to the initial (and far-field) concentration C_0 as a function of (1) the distance x_l from the original interface expressed with the dimensionless variable $u = \dot{R}x_l/D$, where $\dot{R} = dR/dt$ is the growth rate and D is the diffusivity in the melt, and (2) the time t elapsed since the start of crystal growth expressed with the dimensionless variable $w = \dot{R}^2 t/D$,

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$$\frac{C_l(u,w)}{C_0} = 1 + \frac{1-K}{2K} e^{-u} \operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{u-w}{2\sqrt{w}}\right) - \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{u+w}{2\sqrt{w}}\right) + \left(1 - \frac{1}{2K}\right) e^{-(1-K)(u+Kw)} \operatorname{erfc}\left[\frac{u+(2K-1)w}{2\sqrt{w}}\right].$$
 (31)

In SI (A), we show that the isotopic composition in the melt can be written as,

$$\delta_{l,2/1} \simeq A\Delta_D + B\Delta_K \,. \tag{32}$$

with $\Delta_D = (D_2/D_1 - 1)1000$ the term describing isotopic fractionation imparted by differences in the diffusivities of the isotopes involved, and $\Delta_K = (K_2/K_1 - 1)1000 = (\alpha_{2/1} - 1)1000$ the

equilibrium isotopic fractionation between mineral and melt. *A* and *B* are given by the following formulas,

$$A = \frac{e^{-Kw - \frac{(u+w)^2}{4w}(-1+K)\left\{2e^{u+Kw}K\sqrt{w} + e^{\frac{(u+w)^2}{4w}}\sqrt{\pi}\left[-e^{Kw}u \times \operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{u-w}{2\sqrt{w}}\right) - e^{K(u+Kw)}(-1+2K)(u+Kw)\operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{u+(2K-1)w}{2\sqrt{w}}\right)\right]\right\}}}{\left\{\sqrt{\pi}\left[e^{u}K + e^{u}K \times \operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{u+w}{2\sqrt{w}}\right) - (-1+K)\operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{u-w}{2\sqrt{w}}\right) + e^{K(u+(-1+K)w)}(-1+2K)\operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{u+(2K-1)w}{2\sqrt{w}}\right)\right]\right\}}}.$$
 (33)

$$B = \frac{e^{-\frac{(u+w)^2}{4w} \left\{ 2e^{u}K(-1+2K)w + \sqrt{\pi}\sqrt{w} \left[e^{\frac{(u+w)^2}{4w}} \operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{u-w}{2\sqrt{w}}\right) - e^{\frac{1}{4}\left((2+4K)u + \frac{u^2}{w} + (1-2K)^2w\right)} \left(1+K(-1+2K)(u+(-1+2K)w)\right) \operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{u+(2K-1)w}{2\sqrt{w}}\right) \right] \right\}}{\left\{ \sqrt{\pi}\sqrt{w} \left[(-1+K)\operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{u-w}{2\sqrt{w}}\right) + e^{u}K\left(-2+\operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{u+w}{2\sqrt{w}}\right)\right) - e^{K(u+(-1+K)w)}(-1+2K)\operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{u+(2K-1)w}{2\sqrt{w}}\right) \right] \right\}}.$$
 (34)

In Fig. 17, we plot the Zr concentration and isotopic composition in the growing Zr-poor crystal and melt growth medium at three times until the crystal grows to 1 cm in size (we also provide movies as Supporting Information, Mov. 3, 4 and 5). The concentrations and isotopic compositions in Fig. 17 are normalized to those in the far-field growth medium composition. In the liquid, incompatible Zr accumulates. The concentration in the solid is always in equilibrium with the liquid at the interface where the two concentrations relate with each other by the partition coefficient $C_{s,interface} = KC_{l,interface}$. The concentration in the growing crystal $C_{s,interface}$ therefore increases as the concentration in the liquid at the interface $C_{l,interface}$ builds up until the concentration in the crystal is equal to that in the far-field and the liquid interface concentration is enriched by a factor of 1/K (Figs. 17A, 18A). The Zr that accumulates in the liquid at the interface diffuses away from that interface into the far field. Since light Zr isotopes can diffuse faster than heavy ones¹²⁹, the solid-liquid interface has high δ'^{94} Zr, which is transferred into the Zr-poor crystal as it grows. The liquid further away in the diffusive boundary layer has low δ'^{94} Zr (Fig. 17B, C). As the system evolves towards steady-state (Fig. 18; movies are provided as Supporting Information, Mov. 6, 7 and 8), the isotopic composition of the crystal and the liquid interface approach that of the far field medium but the liquid in the diffusive boundary layer keeps a low

 δ'^{94} Zr value. From a mass-balance point of view, this low δ'^{94} Zr value is balanced by the high δ'^{94} Zr value of the early crystal grown during the transient period.

As discussed above and by Harrison and Watson¹⁴⁵ for apatite, the elevated Zr concentration in the diffusive boundary layer could trigger the saturation and crystallization of zircon (DTC model). These newly-crystallized zircons would inherit some of the fractionated Zr isotopic composition of the diffusive boundary layer from which they grew, which span slightly positive and highly negative δ'^{94} Zr values (Fig. 18B, C). The most negative δ'^{94} Zr value achieved at steady state is (see derivations in SI (A)),

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$$\delta_l = 1000 \left(\frac{D_{94_{\text{Zr}}}}{D_{90_{\text{Zr}}}} - 1 \right) \times ProductLog\left[\frac{1 - K}{eK} \right]. \tag{35}$$

For clinopyroxene or plagioclase, the values of K are 0.08 and 0.004 (geometric mean values for equilibrium with basaltic melt, GERM database), and we would predict isotopic fractionations that could reach -2.8 and -7.6 ‰, respectively for $\beta_{Zr} = 0.054$ (Eq. 24; Fig. 18B and Fig. S10B), and -6.0 and -16.2 ‰, respectively for $\beta_{Zr} = 0.113$ (Eq. 24; Fig. 18C and Fig. S10C). From Eq. 35, we find that different Zr partition coefficients between minerals and melt K, different diffusive Zr isotopic fractionation factor Δ_D (or the β_{Zr} exponent in Eq. 24), and different growth timescales of the Zr-poor minerals result in a range of $\delta'^{94}Zr$ values of the liquid in the diffusive boundary layer (see Figs. 17, 18 and Figs. S9, S10) that can readily explain the values measured by Ibanez-Meija and Tissot⁶⁶. In Fig. 19, we plot the expected probability density function (PDF) of the Zr isotopic composition of Zr atoms in the diffusive boundary layer (i.e., at any given time, the fraction of Zr atoms in the diffusive boundary layer with an enrichment higher than 3 that have a certain isotopic composition) (movies Mov. 9 and 10 are provided as Supporting Information). We find more or less uniform distributions, while Ibanez-Meija and Tissot⁶⁶ found many zircons with $\delta'^{94}Zr$ values around 0-1 ‰ and a long tail of $\delta'^{94}Zr$ values extending to -4 ‰. Comparing

these PDFs is, however, fraught with difficulties as there is no compelling reason to think that Zr atoms in zircons reflect a snapshot of the diffusive boundary layer. If DTC is the correct model, the distribution of δ'^{94} Zr values could help pinpoint when and where in the development of diffusive boundary layers zircons can form.

While both positive and negative δ'^{94} Zr values are encountered in the diffusion boundary layer considered in the DTC model (Figs. 17, 18 and Figs. S9, S10), the distribution is skewed towards low δ'^{94} Zr. This is also shown in Fig. 19, where we plot the average δ'^{94} Zr value of the boundary layer where the melt is Zr-supersaturated by at least of factor of 3. The shift towards low δ'^{94} Zr values in the boundary layer is due to the removal of isotopically heavy Zr in the growing Zr-poor mineral (*e.g.*, clinopyroxene or plagioclase). At first sight, the development of low δ'^{94} Zr values in zircons formed by DTC is consistent with the -0.5 % δ'^{94} Zr fractionation calculated by Inglis et al⁶⁴ for zircon in Hekla. However, for these zircons to drive Zr isotopic fractionation in the magma, they would have to be separated from the Zr-poor minerals whose crystallization drove zircon saturation, which may be difficult to achieve. Future studies investigating Zr-poor minerals will help test if zircons formed around them were formed by diffusion-triggered crystallization.

To summarize, isotopic fractionation induced by diffusion in boundary layers around growing Zr-poor crystals (DTC model) can readily explain the range of δ'^{94} Zr values measured in zircons. An appealing aspect of this scenario is that the formation of a such a Zr-rich boundary layer could also be the trigger for zircon saturation and crystallization. As with the DLC model outlined in Sect. 4.3.1, the DTC model provides the framework to tie δ'^{94} Zr values measured in zircons to the cooling history of the host magma.

4.4. Combined Zr and Hf fractionations

One manner to distinguish between equilibrium and kinetic isotopic fractionation is, in theory, to compare δ'^{94} Zr and δ'^{179} Hf. We performed *ab initio* calculations of the equilibrium fractionation factor of Hf in a variety of minerals (**Fig. 4, Table 1**). Zirconium and hafnium form bonds of similar strengths and as discussed in the results section, at equilibrium we expect the isotopic fractionations of Zr and Hf between two phases A and B to scale as,

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$$\frac{\Delta'^{94/90}Zr_{A-B}}{\Delta'^{179/177}Hf_{A-B}} \approx \frac{\left(\frac{1}{M^{90}} - \frac{1}{M^{94}}\right)}{\left(\frac{1}{M^{177}} - \frac{1}{M^{179}}\right)} = 7.5. \tag{36}$$

Combining the diffusivity ratios of Zr and Hf isotopes (Eqs. 24 and 25), we expect to first-order that kinetic isotopic fractionation induced by diffusion will produce isotopic fractionations for Zr and Hf that scale as (see the formulas in Sio et al.^{114,115}; Dauphas and Rouxel¹³³; Watson and Muller¹³²; for a variety of diffusion geometries),

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$$\frac{\delta'^{94/90} Zr}{\delta'^{179/177} Hf} \approx \frac{1 - \frac{D^{94}}{D^{90}}}{1 - \frac{D^{179}}{D^{177}}} \approx 3.8 . \tag{37}$$

This shows that equilibrium and diffusion-driven kinetic isotopic fractionation are expected to produce very distinct $\frac{\delta'^{94}\text{Zr}}{\delta'^{179}\text{Hf}}$ values. No δ'^{179} Hf value has been reported but its combination with δ'^{94} Zr measurements should provide a diagnostic tool to tell when Zr isotopic fractionation in magmas reflects diffusive processes and use those effects to estimate the growth rate and cooling history of zircons.

4.5. Potential usage in metamorphic zircons

Zirconium stable isotopic variations can potentially help unravel the complex processes involved in metamorphic zircon formation. For example, our *ab initio* calculations show that under amphibolite conditions (500-700 °C), Zr in amphibole should be fractionated in δ'^{94} Zr by 0.22-

0.35 ‰, or 0.55-0.86 ‰ relative to Zr in ilmenite (**Table 1**, we use tremolite to approximate the fractionation in amphibole, the two ranges correspond to two substitution mechanisms for the calculations of tremolite). It is thus conceivable that metamorphic zircon formed from the decomposition of amphibole ¹⁴⁷ would inherit the Zr isotopic composition of amphibole, which we expect to be distinct from the Zr isotopic composition of the zircon formed by the breakdown of ilmenite ¹⁴⁸. Inter-mineral fractionations between zircon and co-existing Zr-bearing metamorphic minerals may also help recognizing equilibrium parageneses and inferring equilibration temperatures.

5. Conclusion

This study presents first-principle calculations of equilibrium Zr and Hf isotopic fractionation factors in a variety of Zr-rich phases as well as a large number of minerals where Zr is present at trace level in substitution with other elements. The minerals studied include Ca-catapleiite, a mineral that previous EXAFS studies showed contains Zr in a coordination environment similar to that encountered in silicate melts. We find that in the temperature range relevant to magmatic zircon crystallization, there is negligible equilibrium Zr isotopic fractionation between zircon/baddeleyite and melt. In general, equilibrium Zr isotopic fractionation between silicate minerals and melt is not significant either. Iron-titanium oxides (ilmenite and magnetite) have the potential to produce non-negligible mass-dependent fractionation of Zr isotopes. However, we show through modeling using Rhyolite-MELTS that the relatively low concentration of Zr in these Fe,Ti-oxide mineral offers limited leverage to greatly modify the melt composition during magmatic differentiation before zircon saturation.

Kinetic effects associated with diffusion-limited crystallization (DLC) of zircon can potentially produce significant light Zr isotope enrichments in zircon. Reservoir effects in the liquid would also lead to the crystallization of zircons with high δ'^{94} Zr. Diffusion-triggered crystallization (DTC) of zircon from the diffusive boundary layer developed during the growth of Zr-poor minerals can produce zircons with both positive and negative δ'^{94} Zr values. If diffusion-driven kinetic effects are the main mechanism at play, Zr isotopic analyses of zircons would provide a means of constraining the cooling history of the host magma. We show that correlating Zr and Hf isotopic measurements can help identify kinetic effects in zircons, as equilibrium and diffusive kinetic effects are expected to impart different correlations between δ'^{94} Zr and δ'^{179} Hf values.

Supporting Information

- (A) Derivation of diffusion-driven kinetic isotopic effects produced by the accumulation of an incompatible element in a diffusive boundary layer.
- 870 (B) Supplementary Figures.
- 871 (C) Supplementary Tables.
- 872 (D) Titles and captions for every movie.
- 873 (E) Movies.

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Figures and Tables

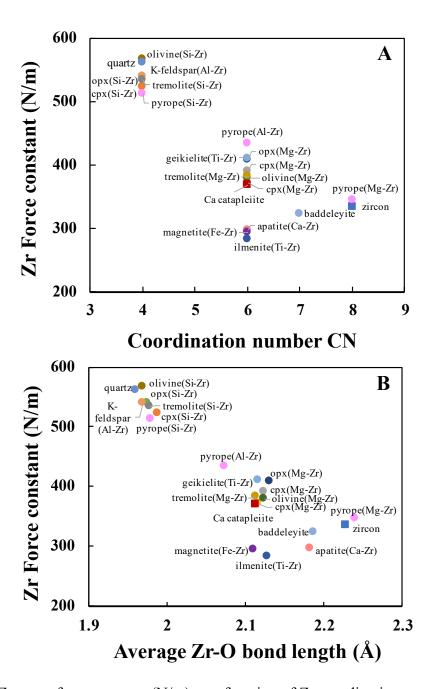


Figure 1. (A) Zr mean force constant (N/m) as a function of Zr coordination number in minerals calculated in this study. Lower coordination number generally corresponds to higher force constant (stronger bond). (B) Zr mean force constant (N/m) as a function of Zr-O bond length (Å). Shorter Zr-O bond length generally corresponds to stronger bond.

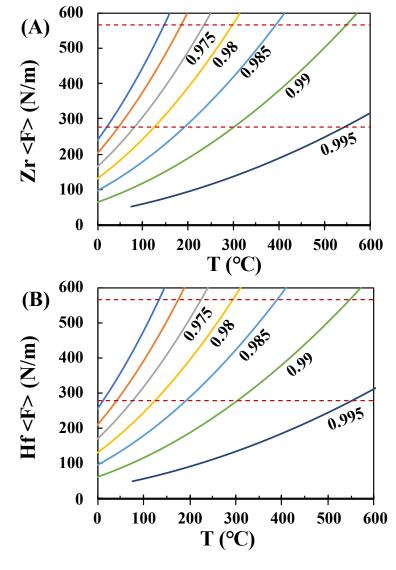


Figure 2. Relative error in the high temperature approximation $1000 ln\beta = B_1 \langle F \rangle / T^2$ (Eqs. 6, 7) calculated using the 1-parameter 3-term expansion $1000 ln\beta = B_1 \langle F \rangle / T^2 + B_2 \langle F \rangle^2 / T^4 + B_3 \langle F \rangle^3 / T^6$ (Eqs. 10, 12). The curves were calculated following Dauphas et al. 4 for different values of T and $\langle F \rangle$. (A) Relative departure from Eq. (10) when truncating the polynomial to the first order for Zr. The force constants of Zr bonds in all calculated minerals are between 280 and 566 N/m (red dashed lines). When the temperature is higher than ~300-500 °C, truncating the expansion to the first order (Eq. 6) will give a $1000 ln\beta$ value that is within 1% of the value given by the whole expansion (Eq. 4). (B) Relative departure from Eq. (12) when truncating the polynomial to the first order for Hf. When the temperature is higher than ~300-500 °C, truncating the expansion to the first order (Eq. 7) will give a $1000 ln\beta$ value that is within 1% of the value given by the whole expansion (Eq. 4). The high temperature approximation can be applied to calculate equilibrium Zr and Hf isotopic fractionation in igneous and metamorphic geochemistry/petrology without compromising accuracy.

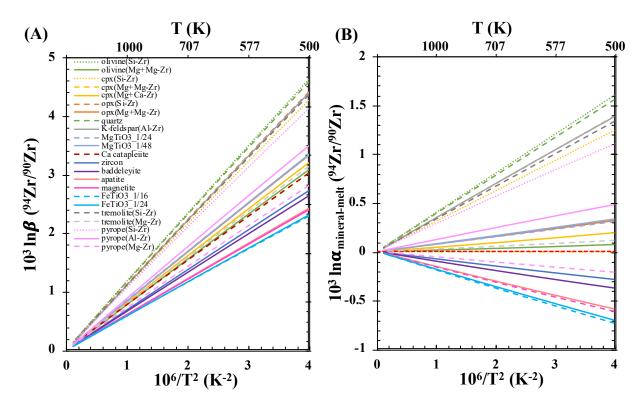


Figure 3. (A) Temperature-dependent $1000 \ln \beta$ for Zr isotopes in minerals investigated in this study. (B) Temperature-dependent $1000 \ln \alpha_{mineral-melt}$ for Zr isotopes in the same set of minerals. The fractionation factors between minerals and melt are calculated by taking the difference between each mineral and Ca-catapleiite (which we use as silicate melt proxy). The calculation results for minerals with different Zr substitution mechanisms as well as different Zr concentrations are also shown in the figure. See main text and Table 1 for details.

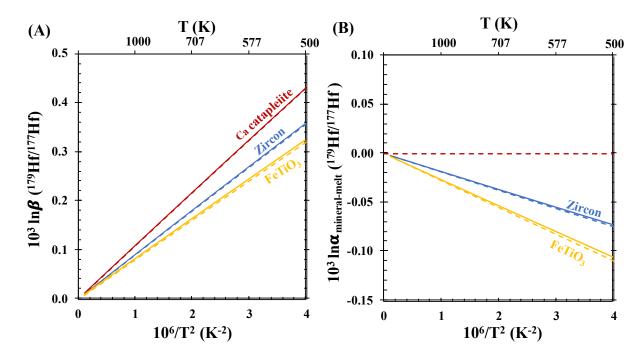


Figure 4. (A) Temperature-dependent $1000 \ln \beta$ for Hf isotopes in zircon, ilmenite and Cacatapleiite investigated in this study. (B) Temperature-dependent $1000 \ln \alpha_{mineral-melt}$ for Hf isotopes in zircon and ilmenite. As with Zr isotopes, the fractionation factors between minerals and melt are calculated by taking the difference between each mineral and Ca-catapleiite (which we use as silicate melt proxy). Solid and dash lines are calculation results for minerals with different Hf concentrations (see Table 1 for details). Our results show that Hf stable isotope fractionation during equilibrium process is very limited.

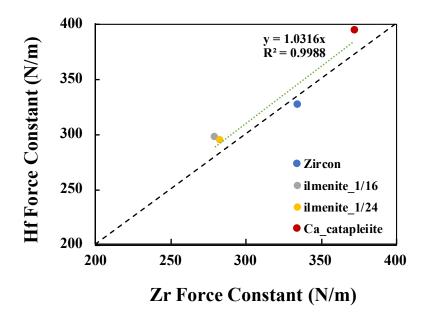


Figure 5. Zr and Hf mean force constants in several minerals (zircon, ilmenite with two concentrations, Ca-catapleiite). The current calculation results indicate that in minerals, Zr and Hf form bonds with nearly identical bond strengths. The black dashed line is the 1:1 line and the green dotted line is a regression through the data.

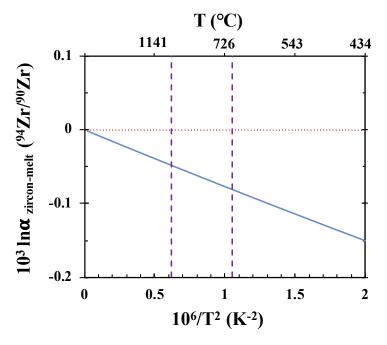


Figure 6. Zr isotope equilibrium fractionation factor between zircon and melt as a function of temperature. The two vertical dash lines bracket the temperatures relevant to igneous zircon crystallization of around 700-1000 °C.

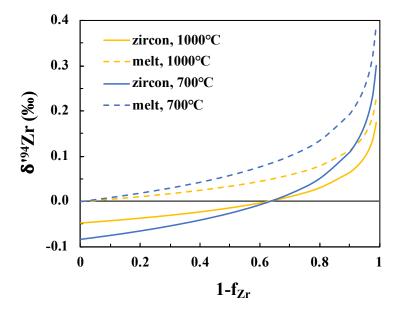


Figure 7. δ'^{94} Zr in the instantaneous zircon and melt during Rayleigh distillation process at two temperatures of 700 and 1000 °C. f_{Zr} is the fraction of Zr remaining in the melt (see Eq. 18). 1 – f_{Zr} is the fraction of Zr in zircon.

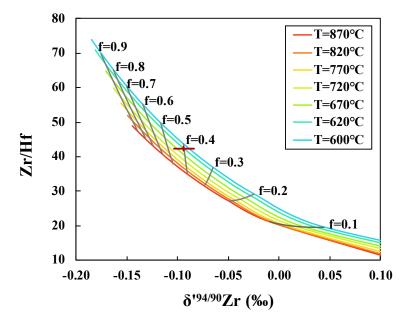


Figure 8. Calculated trends of Zr/Hf and δ'^{94} Zr variations in instantaneous zircon assuming meltzircon equilibrium at each step of a distillation. The free parameters are the fraction of Zr remaining in melt (f_{Zr} from 0.99 to 0.01) and the crystallization temperature. The calculations are done using equations 15 and 17, 21 and 22, with an initial Zr/Hf ratio of 31.1 and initial δ'^{94} Zr value of -0.086 ‰⁶⁶. The zircon-melt equilibrium isotopic fractionation factor is Δ^{94} Zr^{eq}_{zircon-melt} = $-\frac{7.87\times10^4}{T^2}$ (Sect. 4.1, Eq. 17). The red data point shows the current analytical uncertainties of Zr/Hf ratio ($\pm 1\%$) and δ'^{94} Zr isotopic composition ($\pm 0.01\%$). This figure can help test if zircon grew under equilibrium conditions.

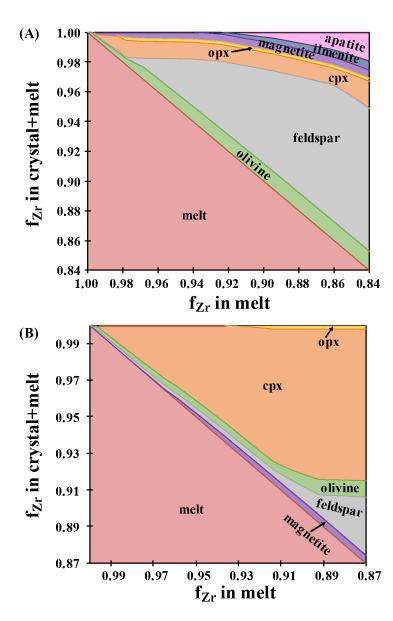


Figure 9. Mass fractions of Zr in crystallized minerals and melt as a function of the mass fraction of Zr remaining in melt for (A) calc-alkaline and (B) tholeitic magmas. Before zircon crystallization, only a small fraction of Zr is removed from the melt (mostly in clinopyroxene and feldspar), and here we use the geometric mean of the partition coefficients for each mineral. These calculations were run before zircon saturation (**Fig. S6**).

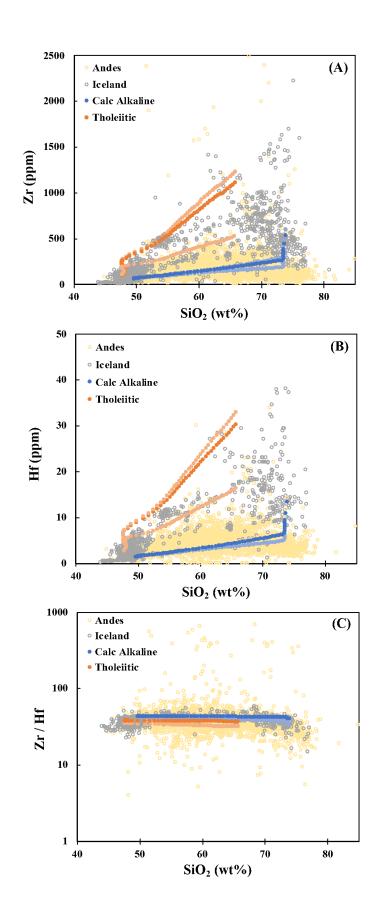


Figure 10. (A) Zr and (B) Hf concentration and (C) Zr/Hf (weight ratio) evolutions during magmatic differentiation along calc-alkaline and tholeitic series. Modeling was done using Rhyolite-MELTS and the results are compared with Andes (calc-alkaline) and Iceland (tholeitic) rocks (compiled from the GEOROC database; see Sect. 4.2. for details). The darker color trends were calculated using the geometric mean of the partition coefficients compiled in GERM database, while the bracketing lighter color trends correspond to minimum and maximum partition coefficients.

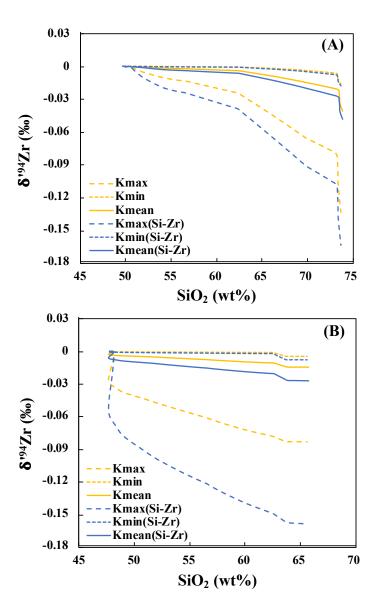
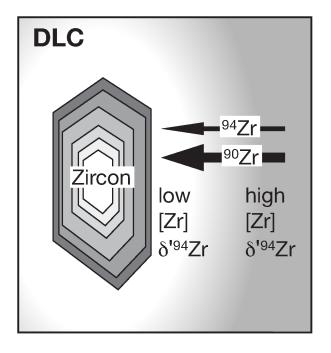


Figure 11. Modelled evolution of the Zr isotopic composition of residual melt before zircon crystallization for (A) calc-alkaline and (B) tholeiitic magmas. The Zr isotopic fractionation factors between minerals and melt from our *ab initio* calculations were used in the modeling, using results from Rhyolite-MELTS as input (**Fig. 9**). The different trends are mainly caused by two factors: (i) the various bulk Zr partition coefficients used in our calculations and (ii) the different isotopic

fractionation factors calculated using different substitution mechanisms for Zr in several silicate minerals. The blue lines labelled Si-Zr are calculated using $1000 \ln \beta$ values for olivine, cpx and opx using the IV Si⁴⁺ \leftrightarrow Zr⁴⁺ substitution with minimum, mean, and maximum mineral/melt K values. The yellow lines are calculated using $1000 \ln \beta$ values in olivine, cpx and opx using the VI Mg²⁺ + VI Mg²⁺ \leftrightarrow Zr⁴⁺ substitution with minimum, mean, and maximum mineral/melt K values. In all cases, the Zr isotopic compositions of the melts evolve towards lighter values before zircon starts to crystallize but the magnitude of this fractionation is relatively small given the current analytical precision on δ'^{94} Zr measurements (~±0.01 to ±0.04 ‰⁶⁶).



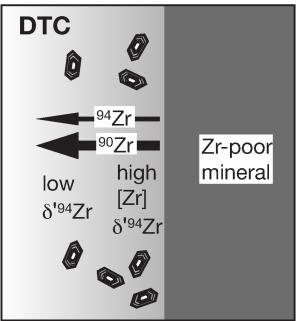


Figure 12. Schematic models of diffusive Zr isotopic fractionation during crystallization. **Left panel:** In the diffusion-limited crystallization model (DLC), the growth of zircon is limited by the diffusive supply of Zr to the surface from a far-field medium that is supersaturated. Because the light isotopes diffuse faster than the heavier ones, the liquid at the interface with the zircon will have low δ'^{94} Zr, while further away from the interface the liquid will have high δ'^{94} Zr. This model would predict zircons to have low δ'^{94} Zr but reservoir effects in the liquid would also lead to the crystallization of zircons with high δ'^{94} Zr. **Right panel:** In the diffusion-triggered crystallization model (DTC), the growth of a Zr-poor mineral would push Zr away from the interface and lead to high δ'^{94} Zr at the interface in the liquid and low δ'^{94} Zr further away. The whole diffusive boundary layer would have elevated Zr concentration. This could trigger the saturation and crystallization of zircon, which would inherit some of the fractionated Zr isotopic composition from the diffusive boundary from which they grew.

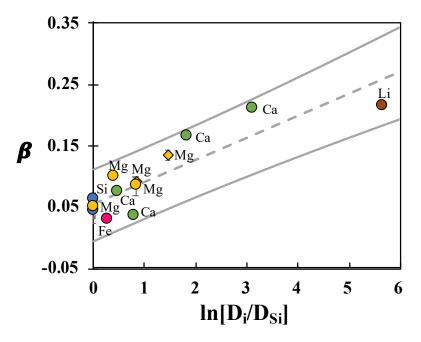


Figure 13. β exponents as a function of the ratio of cation diffusivities normalized by those of Si in silicate melt (modified from Watkins et al.¹⁴⁰). The β exponents for Zr and Hf isotopes were estimated by linearly regressing this trend to $\ln[D_{\rm Zr}/D_{\rm Si}]$ and $\ln[D_{\rm Hf}/D_{\rm Si}] \sim 0$ because the diffusivities of both Zr and Hf are close to Si¹⁴¹. The two grey lines are the 95% prediction intervals. This empirical correlation correlates the degree of diffusion-driven isotopic fractionation (β) with a measure of solute-solvent interaction $\ln[D_{\rm i}/D_{\rm Si}]^{140}$. In aluminosilicate melt, the solvent molecule is SiO₄⁴⁻, which is the reason why the quantity $\ln[D_{\rm i}/D_{\rm Si}]$ is used to describe solute-solvent interaction.

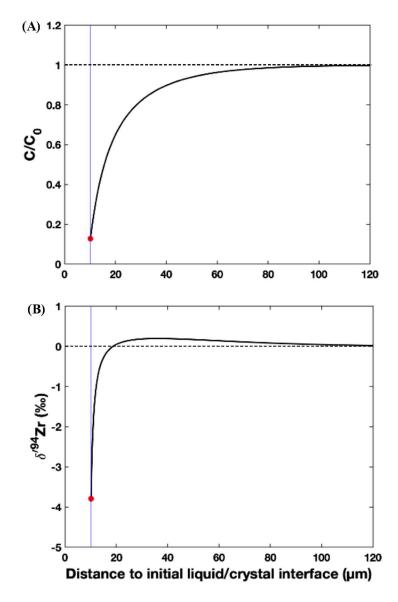


Figure 14. Zr concentration (A) and isotopic composition (B) profiles in the liquid away from the interface of a growing zircon in a diffusion-limited regime (DLC model) at the time when the zircon has reached 10 μm in size (the blue line is the liquid-solid interface). The red dot is the liquid concentration and isotopic composition at the interface. Both concentration and isotopic composition are relative to the liquid at infinity. As zircon grows from a supersaturated medium, the liquid and crystal near the liquid-crystal interface get enriched in the light isotopes of Zr due to their faster diffusion, while the liquid further away in the diffusive boundary layer gets enriched in the heavy isotopes due to their slower diffusion. The calculations were done using Eqs. 55, 49, 50 for diffusion-limited growth in a spherical geometry¹³³ with a Zr diffusivity of D = $10^{-4} \, \mu \text{m}^2/\text{s}^{142}$, Zr saturation concentrations $C_{\text{sat}} = 1806 \, \text{ppm}^{123}$, Zr concentration in zircon of 500,000 ppm, and a supersaturation $S = C_{\infty}/C_{\text{sat}} = 7.8$, a diffusive Zr isotopic fractionation factor $\Delta_D = -4.9 \, \%$ ($\beta_{Zr} = 0.113$ in Eq. 24). (A and B correspond to Movie 1 and 2).

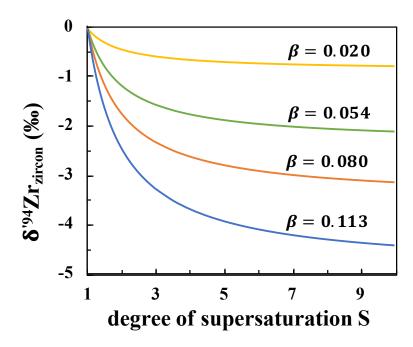


Figure 15. Expected δ'^{94} Zr variations in zircon as a function of the degree of supersaturation during diffusion-limited zircon growth from silicate melt with different diffusive β exponents for Zr isotopes (Eq. 26; see Sect. 4.3.1. for details). δ'^{94} Zr_{zircon} is the isotopic composition in the crystal relative to that in the far-field growth medium.

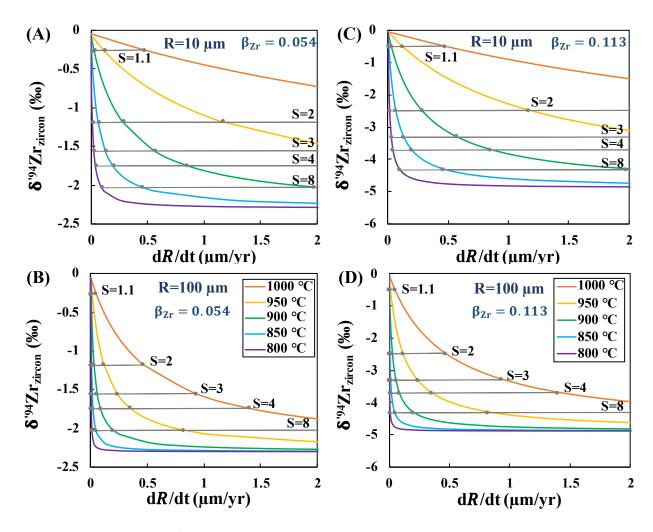


Figure 16. Expected δ'^{94} Zr fractionations in zircon as a function of growth rate at different temperatures and different supersaturations (Eqs. 26 and 30; see Sect. 4.3.1. for details). (A)-(B) use a diffusive Zr isotopic fractionation factor $\Delta_D = -2.3 \%$ ($\beta_{Zr} = 0.054$ in Eq. 24); (C)-(D) use a diffusive Zr isotopic fractionation factor $\Delta_D = -4.9 \%$ ($\beta_{Zr} = 0.113$ in Eq. 24). δ'^{94} Zr_{zircon} is the isotopic composition in the crystal relative to that in the far-field growth medium. This figure shows that measuring δ'^{94} Zr_{zircon} can help estimate the degree of supersaturation and zircon growth rate if the temperature can be independently constrained.

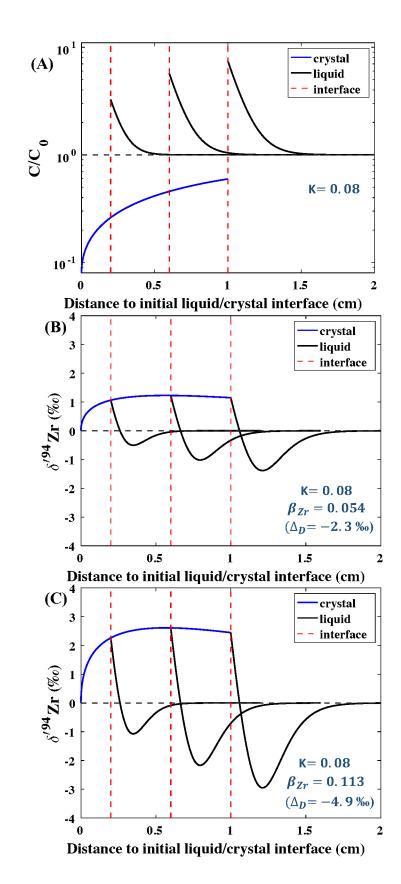


Figure 17. Evolution of the Zr concentration (A) and isotopic composition (B, C) in a growing Zr-poor crystal (blue line) and in the surrounding melt growth medium (black line) in three snapshots taken at 0.6, 1.9, and 3.2 kyr (DTC model; see Sect. 4.3.2. for details). The concentration and isotopic composition are normalized to the far-field growth medium. The diffusive boundary layer has elevated Zr concentration, which could trigger zircon saturation and crystallization, thus inheriting the isotopic composition in the diffusive boundary layer. The curves were calculated using Eqs. 31-34, and A21, A23. We used the partition coefficient of clinopyroxene K = 0.08 (the geometric mean of the values compiled in GERM database), diffusivity for Zr in melt $D = 10^{-4} \, \mu \text{m}^2/\text{s}$ at 950 °C¹⁴², a growth rate of $\dot{R} = 10^{-7} \, \mu \text{m}/\text{s}$ (so that $\dot{R}/D = 10 \, \text{cm}^{-1}$ which is in the realm of possibilities¹⁴⁰), and a diffusive isotopic fractionation factor $\Delta_D = -2.3$ and $-4.9 \, \%$ ($\beta_{Zr} = 0.054$ and 0.113 in Eq. 24, respectively). (A, B and C correspond to **Movie 3, 4 and 5**).

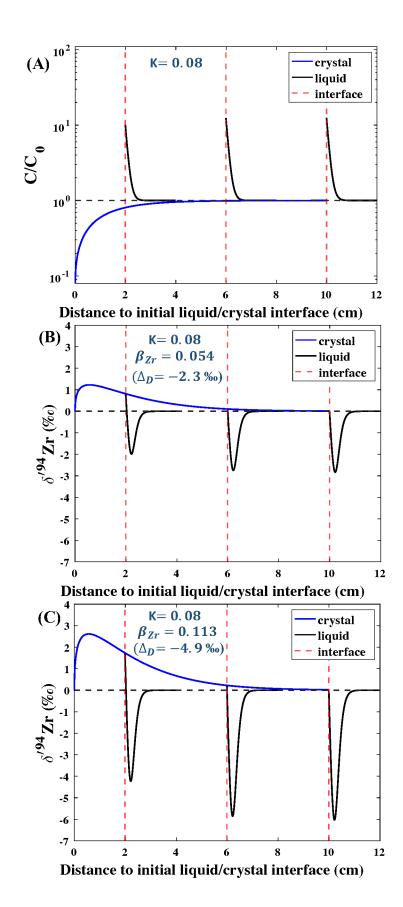


Figure 18. Same as **Fig. 17** but for a longer duration allowing the system to achieve steady-state (note that this calculation is not aimed at reproducing natural conditions as crystals would stop growing before reaching steady-state). Zr concentration (A) and isotopic composition (B, C) in the growing Zr-poor crystal (blue line) and in the melt growth medium (black line) in three snapshots taken at 6, 19, and 32 kyr. Note the difference in x-axis scale with **Fig. 17**. (A, B and C correspond to **Movie 6, 7 and 8**).

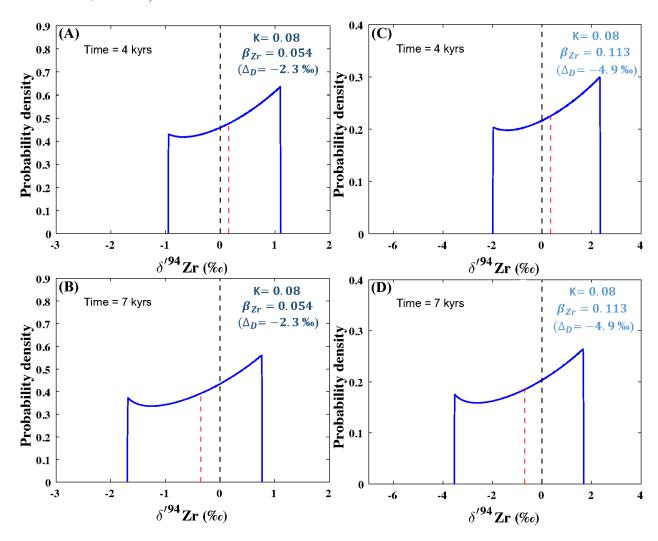


Figure 19. Expected probability density distribution functions (PDFs) of the Zr isotopic compositions of Zr atoms in the diffusive boundary layer around a low-Zr growing crystal at 4 and 7 kyr. The dashed red vertical line is the average isotopic composition of the boundary layer where the melt is Zr-supersaturated by at least of factor of 3. We only consider here locations where $C/C_0 > 3$ possibly conducive to zircon saturation. (A)-(B) use a diffusive Zr isotopic fractionation factor $\Delta_D = -2.3 \%$ ($\beta_{Zr} = 0.054$ in Eq. 24); (C)-(D) use a diffusive Zr isotopic fractionation factor $\Delta_D = -4.9 \%$ ($\beta_{Zr} = 0.113$ in Eq. 24). As the Zr-poor mineral grows (time increases from (A) to (B), or from (C) to (D)), the δ'⁹⁴Zr distributions of the diffusion-triggered crystallized (DTC) zircons shift to more negative δ'^{94} Zr values. (A, B and C, D correspond to **Movie 9 and 10**).

Table 1. Average Zr-O and Hf-O bond lengths, coordination numbers (CN), force constant of Zr and Hf in relaxed mineral structures, and polynomial expansion coefficients of the reduced partition function ratios (10³lnβ) of ⁹⁴Zr/⁹⁰Zr and ¹⁷⁹Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf of the studied minerals.

clinopyroxene	Chemical composition	Average Zr-O bond length (Å)	CN	Zr Force constant (N/m)	Polynomial expansion coefficients#		
					$\mathbf{A_1}$	A_2	A ₃
Si ⁴⁺ ↔Zr ⁴⁺	Mg ₂₄ Ca ₂₄ Si ₄₇ ZrO ₁₄₄ (2b, 3c)	1.985	4	524.3	1.09201	-5.903E-03	1.004E-04
	Mg ₃₂ Ca ₃₂ Si ₆₃ ZrO ₁₉₂ (2a, 2b, 2c)	1.989	4	522.4	1.08785	-5.880E-03	1.000E-04
*VIMg ²⁺ +VIIICa ²⁺ \leftrightarrow Zr ⁴⁺ Mg ⁺	Mg ₇ ZrCa ₇ Si ₁₆ O ₄₈ (2c)	2.124	6	390.2	0.80773	-4.366E-03	7.472E-05
	Mg ₁₅ ZrCa ₁₅ Si ₃₂ O ₉₆ (2b, 2c)	2.125	6	395.8	0.81756	-3.778E-03	4.405E-05
*VIMg ²⁺ +VIMg ²⁺ \leftrightarrow Zr ⁴⁺ Mg+	Mg ₆ ZrCa ₈ Si ₁₆ O ₄₈ (2c)	2.117	6	371.5	0.77325	-5.224E-03	9.424E-05
orthopyroxene							
$Si^{4+} \leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}$	$Mg_{32}Si_{31}ZrO_{96}(2c)$	1.976	4	538.2	1.12083	-6.059E-03	1.031E-04

	Mg64Si63ZrO192	1.975	4	540.0	1.12450	-6.078E-03	1.034E-04
	(2b, 2c)						
$^{VI}Mg^{2+}(M1)+{}^{VI}Mg^{2+}(M2)$	Mg ₃₀ ZrSi ₃₂ O ₉₆ (2c)	2.131	6	409.0	0.85185	-4.604E-03	7.833E-0
\leftrightarrow Zr ⁴⁺ +	Mg ₆₂ ZrSi ₆₄ O ₁₉₂ (2b, 2c)	2.130	6	-			
olivine							
$Si^{4+} \leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}$	Mg ₃₂ Si ₁₅ ZrO ₆₄ (2a, 2c)	1.970	4	562.3	1.17094	-6.329E-03	1.077E-0
	$Mg_{64}Si_{31}ZrO_{128} \\$	1.969	4	566.4	1.17947	-6.376E-03	1.085E-0
	(2a, 2b, 2c)						
$^{VI}Mg^{2+}(M2) + ^{VI}Mg^{2+}(M1)$	Mg ₃₀ ZrSi ₁₆ O ₆₄ (2a, 2c)	2.124	6	378.7	0.78861	-4.263E-03	7.252E-0
\leftrightarrow Zr ⁴⁺ +	$Mg_{62}ZrSi_{32}O_{128}$	2.123	6	380.1	0.79152	-4.278E-03	7.279E-0
	(2a, 2b, 2c)						
quartz							
$Si^{4+} \leftrightarrow Zr^{4+}$	Si ₈₀ ZrO ₁₆₂ (3a, 3b, 3c)	1.961	4	561.0	1.16823	-6.315E-03	1.074E-0
	Si ₉₅ ZrO ₁₉₂ (4a, 4b, 2c)	1.960	4	-			
K-feldspar							
$^{\text{IV}}\text{Al}^{3+} + ^{\text{VIII}}\text{K}^+ \longleftrightarrow \text{Zr}^{4+}\text{Al}^+$	K ₇ Al ₇ Si ₂₄ O ₆₄	1.969	4	540.1	1.12488	-8.154E-03	1.529E-0
	(2c)						
	K ₁₅ Al ₁₅ ZrSi ₄₈ O ₁₂₈	1.968	4	544.3	1.13321	-8.215E-03	1.530E-0
	(2a, 2c)						
apatite							

Ca ₃₈ ZrP ₂₄ O ₉₆ F ₈ (2a, 2b)	2.183	6	297.1	0.61798	-2.856E-03	3.330E-05
$Ca_{78}ZrP_{48}O_{192}F_{16}$	2.179	6	-			
(2a, 2b, 2c)						
Mg ₂₄ Ti ₂₃ ZrO ₇₂ (2a, 2b)	2.117	6	407.6	0.84873	-4.588E-03	7.805E-05
$Mg_{48}Ti_{47}ZrO_{144}$	2.116	6	410.0	0.85581	-4.626E-03	7.870E-05
(2a, 2b, 2c)						
Fe ₂₄ Ti ₂₃ ZrO ₇₂ (2a, 2b)	2.129	6	279.6	0.58224	-3.147E-03	5.354E-05
Fe ₄₈ Ti ₄₇ ZrO ₁₄₄	2.128	6	283.4	0.59015	-3.190E-03	5.427E-05
(2a, 2b, 2c)						
Mg ₁₇ ZrFe ₃₀ O ₆₄ (2a)	2.111	6	294.4	0.61306	-3.314E-03	5.638E-05
$Mg_{33}ZrFe_{62}O_{128}$	2.110	6	-			
(2a, 2b)						
Mg40Ca ₁₆ Si ₆₃ ZrH ₁₆ O ₁₉₂	1.978	4	533.6	1.11117	-6.006E-03	1.0218E-0
(2a, 2c)						
Mg ₁₈ ZrCa ₈ Si ₃₂ H ₈ O ₉₆	2.113	6	383.3	0.79930	-4.320E-03	7.350E-05
(2c)						
	Ca ₇₈ ZrP ₄₈ O ₁₉₂ F ₁₆ (2a, 2b, 2c) Mg ₂₄ Ti ₂₃ ZrO ₇₂ (2a, 2b) Mg ₄₈ Ti ₄₇ ZrO ₁₄₄ (2a, 2b, 2c) Fe ₂₄ Ti ₂₃ ZrO ₇₂ (2a, 2b) Fe ₄₈ Ti ₄₇ ZrO ₁₄₄ (2a, 2b, 2c) Mg ₁₇ ZrFe ₃₀ O ₆₄ (2a) Mg ₃₃ ZrFe ₆₂ O ₁₂₈ (2a, 2b) Mg ₄₀ Ca ₁₆ Si ₆₃ ZrH ₁₆ O ₁₉₂ (2a, 2c)	Ca ₇₈ ZrP ₄₈ O ₁₉₂ F ₁₆ 2.179 (2a, 2b, 2c) Mg ₂₄ Ti ₂₃ ZrO ₇₂ (2a, 2b) 2.117 Mg ₄₈ Ti ₄₇ ZrO ₁₄₄ 2.116 (2a, 2b, 2c) Fe ₂₄ Ti ₂₃ ZrO ₇₂ (2a, 2b) 2.129 Fe ₄₈ Ti ₄₇ ZrO ₁₄₄ 2.128 (2a, 2b, 2c) Mg ₁₇ ZrFe ₃₀ O ₆₄ (2a) 2.111 Mg ₃₃ ZrFe ₆₂ O ₁₂₈ 2.110 (2a, 2b) Mg ₄₀ Ca ₁₆ Si ₆₃ ZrH ₁₆ O ₁₉₂ 1.978 (2a, 2c)	Ca ₇₈ ZrP ₄₈ O ₁₉₂ F ₁₆ (2a, 2b, 2c) 2.179 6 Mg ₂₄ Ti ₂₃ ZrO ₇₂ (2a, 2b) 2.117 6 Mg ₄₈ Ti ₄₇ ZrO ₁₄₄ (2a, 2b, 2c) 2.116 6 Fe ₂₄ Ti ₂₃ ZrO ₇₂ (2a, 2b) 2.129 6 Fe ₄₈ Ti ₄₇ ZrO ₁₄₄ (2a, 2b, 2c) 2.128 6 Mg ₁₇ ZrFe ₃₀ O ₆₄ (2a) 2.111 6 Mg ₃₃ ZrFe ₆₂ O ₁₂₈ (2a, 2b) 2.110 6 (2a, 2b) 4 (2a, 2c)	Ca ₇₈ ZrP ₄₈ O ₁₉₂ F ₁₆ (2a, 2b, 2c) 2.179 6 - Mg ₂₄ Ti ₂₃ ZrO ₇₂ (2a, 2b) 2.117 6 407.6 Mg ₄₈ Ti ₄₇ ZrO ₁₄₄ (2a, 2b, 2c) 2.116 6 410.0 Fe ₂₄ Ti ₂₃ ZrO ₇₂ (2a, 2b) 2.129 6 279.6 Fe ₄₈ Ti ₄₇ ZrO ₁₄₄ (2a, 2b, 2c) 2.128 6 283.4 (2a, 2b, 2c) Mg ₁₇ ZrFe ₃₀ O ₆₄ (2a) 2.111 6 294.4 Mg ₃₃ ZrFe ₆₂ O ₁₂₈ (2a, 2b) 2.110 6 - (2a, 2b) 1.978 4 533.6 (2a, 2c) 1.978 4 533.6	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

	$Mg_{38}ZrCa_{16}Si_{64}H_{16}O_{192} \\$	2.112	6	-			
	(2a, 2c)						
pyrope							
$^{\mathrm{IV}}\mathrm{Si}^{4+}\!\!\leftrightarrow\!\!\mathrm{Zr}^{4+}$	$Mg_{24}Al_{16}Si_{23}ZrO_{96}$	1.979	4	512.7	1.06679	-9.705E-03	1.902E-0
*VI $A1^{3+}$ + IV Si^{4+} \leftrightarrow Zr^{4+} + $A1^{3+}$	$Mg_{24}Al_{16}Si_{23}ZrO_{96}$	2.074	6	433.5	0.90215	-7.151E-03	1.354E-0
$^{\text{VIII}}\text{Mg}^{2+}$ + $^{\text{VIII}}\text{Mg}^{2+}$ \leftrightarrow Zr^{4+} +	$Mg_{22}ZrAl_{16}Si_{24}O_{96}$	2.240	8	345.7	0.71955	-4.862E-03	8.769E-0
zircon	$Zr_2Si_2O_8$	2.228	8	334.7	0.69698	-3.767E-03	6.409E-0
baddeleyite	Zr_4O_8	2.187	7	323.4	0.67268	-3.109E-03	3.624E-0
Ca-catapleiite	$Ca_4Zr_4Si_{12}H_{16}O_{44}$	2.114	6	369.2	0.77571	-5.704E-03	1.226E-0
	Chemical composition	Average Hf-O	CN	Hf Force	Polynomial expansion coefficients#		
		bond length		constant	$\mathbf{A_1}$	$\mathbf{A_2}$	$\mathbf{A_3}$
		(Å)		(N/m)			
zircon	**Zr ₁₅ HfSi ₁₆ O ₆₄	2.140	8	327.3	0.09094	-4.01E-04	7.49E-06
	(2a, 2b, 2c)						
	$Zr_{31}HfSi_{32}O_{128}$	2.140	8	326.4	0.09067	-4.00E-04	7.46E-06
	(2a, 2b, 2c)			320.4	0.09007	-4.00L-04	7.40E-00
ilmenite	**Fe ₁₆ Ti ₁₅ HfO ₄₈	2.092	6	6 297.1	0.08254	-3.64E-04	6.79E-06
					0.00234	-3.0 1 L-04	
	(2a, 2b, 2c)						
	(2a, 2b, 2c) Fe ₂₄ Ti ₂₃ HfO ₇₂	2.092	6	294	0.08167	-3.60E-04	6.72E-06

Ca-catapleiite	Ca ₄ Zr ₃ HfSi ₁₂ H ₁₆ O ₄₄	2.081	6	393.3	0.10928	-4.82E-04	8.99E-06
	Ca ₈ Zr ₇ HfSi ₂₄ H ₃₂ O ₈₈ (2a)	2.082	6	394.1	0.10951	-4.83E-04	9.01E-06

represents vacancy.

"The polynomial expansion equation is: 10^3 lnβ= A_1 x+ A_2 x²+ A_3 x³, where x= 10^6 /T². T is temperature in Kelvin.

Abbreviations after chemical formulas refer to the expansion way of primitive cells to generate supercells and investigate the effect of dilution. For instance, "2a, 2b, 2c" represents the supercell is generated by expanding the primitive cell twice along a, b, and c directions.

*These substitutions are favored by spectroscopic observations 103.

**The primitive cells of zircon (Zr₂Si₂O₈) and ilmenite (Fe₂Ti₂O₆) are used to construct the supercell.

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