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Petrology and mineralogy of granulite-facies mafic xenoliths (Sardinia, Italy): Evidence for KCl metasomatism in the lower crust

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Abstract

Here new mineralogical data is presented on the occurrence of K-feldspar in granulite-facies metagabbronorite xenoliths found in recent alkaline lavas from Western Sardinia, Italy. The xenoliths originated from the underplating of variably evolved subductionrelated basaltic liquids, which underwent cooling and recrystallisation in the deep crust ($T= 850-900 \degree C$, $P= 0.8-1.0$ GPa). They consist of orthopyroxene + clinopyroxene + plagioclase porphyroclasts (An = 50–66 mol%) in a granoblastic, recrystallised, quartzfree matrix composed of pyroxene + plagioclase $(An = 56-72 \text{ mol\%}) + Fe$ -Ti oxides \pm K-feldspar \pm biotite \pm fluorapatite \pm Ti-biotite. Texturally, the K-feldspar occurs in a variety of different modes. These include: (1) rods, blebs, and irregular patches in a random scattering of plagioclase grains in the form of antiperthite; (2) micro-veins along plagioclase–plagioclase and plagioclase–pyroxene grain rims; (3) myrmekite-like intergrowths with Ca-rich plagioclase along plagioclase–plagioclase grain boundaries; and (4) discrete anhedral grains (sometimes microperthitic). The composition of each type of K-feldspar is characterized by relatively high albite contents (16–33 mol%). An increasing anorthite content in the plagioclase towards the contact with the K-feldspar micro-vein and myrmekite-like intergrowths into the K-feldspar along the plagioclase–K-feldspar grain boundary are also observed. Small amounts of biotite (TiO₂= 4.7–6.5 wt.%; F=0.24–1.19 wt.%; Cl=0.04–0.20 wt.%) in textural equilibrium with the granulite-facies assemblage is present in both K-feldspar-bearing and K-feldspar-free xenoliths. These K-feldspar textures suggest a likely metasomatic origin due to solid-state infiltration of KCl-rich fluids/melts. The presence of such fluids is supported by the fluorapatite in these xenoliths, which is enriched in Cl (Cl=6–50% of the total F+Cl+OH). These lines of evidence suggest that formation of Kfeldspar in the mafic xenoliths reflects metasomatic processes, requiring an external K-rich fluid source, which operated in the lower crust during and after in-situ high-T recrystallisation of relatively dry rocks. © 2006 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Granulite mafic xenoliths; Lower crust; Potassic (KCl) metasomatism; Sardinia

1. Introduction

Mafic and ultramafic xenoliths in alkaline volcanic rocks are generally thought to represent current samples of inaccessible upper mantle and lower crustal lithologies. In particular, granulite-facies xenoliths, which have been brought quickly to the surface by volcanic eruptions, are a unique source of information on the nature and processes active in the present-day lower, continental crust. Concurrently, there are obvious limitations to a thorough knowledge of the source area of the xenoliths, given the random

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nature of their sampling by the host magmas, their typically small size, and the general lack of a mesoscopic relationship between different lithologies. In contrast, however, unambiguously recognized lower crustal terrains emplaced by tectonic processes are relatively rare (e.g., [Mezger,](#page-20-0) [1992; Percival et al., 1992\)](#page-20-0) and are usually characterized by retrograde metamorphism as well as deformation related to their exhumation history.

Several previous studies have been published on different occurrences of lower crustal xenoliths in Northern and Central Europe (see the reviews of [Griffin and](#page-19-0) [O'Reilly, 1987; Downes, 1993](#page-19-0)). These include regions unaffected by Alpine orogenic events and characterized by crustal domains consolidated both during Precambrian (e.g., East European Craton, NW Scotland) and Phanerozoic times (e.g. French Central Massif, North Hessian Depression, or Eifel, Ireland). Considerable advances in the knowledge of the lower crust beneath these regions have been achieved in the last decades through petrological and geophysical studies of their xenoliths. In contrast, samples from the present-day lower crust beneath Alpine Europe are extremely rare. Subsequently, the age and composition of this lower crust are poorly known, with the exception of the Pannonian Basin in Hungary (e.g. [Kempton et al., 1997; Embey-Isztin et al., 2003\)](#page-19-0). In addition, while convergent margins are well assessed to be a major site of lower crustal accretion through different mechanisms including basaltic underplating at the base of the crust and subduction–accretion ([Kay and Kay, 1984;](#page-19-0) [Weber et al., 2002](#page-19-0) and references therein), very few examples of lower crustal xenoliths coming from active continental margins have been reported on (e.g. [Selverstone](#page-20-0) [and Stern, 1983; Kempton et al., 1997; Weber et al., 2002](#page-20-0)).

One example of lower crust that includes both Hercynian Europe as well as lying along an active continental margin can be found beneath the island of Sardinia. Here, mantle xenoliths are common in many of the Pliocene alkaline volcanics covering the island and, subsequently, have been extensively studied (e.g. [Dostal and Capedri,](#page-18-0) [1976; de Albuquerque et al., 1977; Beccaluva et al., 1989,](#page-18-0) [2001](#page-18-0)). In contrast, only a few granulite-facies mafic xenolith studies exist of the lower crust beneath Sardinia (e.g. [Rutter, 1987; Beccaluva et al., 1989](#page-20-0)). Consequently, in order to assess compositional and mineralogic variability of the present-day lower crust beneath an active continental margin, as well as to understand both lower crust formation and evolution, we present mineralogical and geochemical data for selected samples from a suite of 42 granulite-facies metagabbronorite xenoliths enclosed in basanite flows of Pliocene age from Western Sardinia. Remarkably, these mafic rocks commonly contain small amounts of K-feldspar and apatite, whose textural and

compositional characters will be discussed and interpreted as evidence of KCl brine metasomatism operating in the lower crust.

2. Regional geology, sample localities, and host rock description

The Sardinia crystalline basement consists of Late Precambrian and Palaeozoic rocks [\(Carmignani et al.,](#page-18-0) [1994](#page-18-0)) [\(Fig. 1\)](#page-2-0). The western part of the crystalline basement is buried under a thick cover of Cenozoic volcanic and sedimentary rocks. The crystalline basement represents a segment of the southern European Hercynian chain and is composed of coalescent granitoid plutons and metamorphic terrains. The metamorphic terrains are characterized by a progressively increasing grade from SW (non-metamorphic/subgreenschist) to NE (amphibolite-facies rocks, migmatites and rare eclogitic relics). No granulite-facies rocks are exposed. Structural evidence, as well as stratigraphic and lithologic similarities, indicates that the Sardinian crystalline basement was linked to the Provencal and Massif Central basement at the end of the Hercynian cycle.

During the Mesozoic and Paleocene, Sardinia was part of the southern margin of the European plate sharing the geological history of the Iberian peninsula—Southern France up to Burdigalian, when anticlockwise rotation and formation of the Provencal Basin began [\(Montigny et al.,](#page-20-0) [1981; Speranza et al., 2002\)](#page-20-0). Starting in the late Oligocene, Sardinia become part of a rift system extending from Germany to Northern Spain [\(Lecca et al., 1997; Monag](#page-19-0)[han, 2001](#page-19-0); [Fig. 1\)](#page-2-0). Extensional tectonics was associated with volcanic activity ranging in age between 32 and 13 Ma [\(Savelli et al., 1979; Beccaluva et al., 1985](#page-20-0)) that was related to the formation of NNW-dipping subduction zone off the present eastern coast of the island [\(Fig. 1](#page-2-0)). Volcanic rocks included large volumes of silicic lavas and pyroclastics with a calc-alkaline affinity, high-K calc-alkaline andesites, high-alumina basalts, and arc tholeiites [\(Coulon,](#page-18-0) [1977; Dostal et al., 1982; Assorgia et al., 1995; Lecca et al.,](#page-18-0) [1997; Morra et al., 1997; Downes et al., 2001](#page-18-0)), all related to northwest-directed subduction of oceanic lithosphere of the Western Tethys. Eastward retreat of the Adria plate finally induced counter-clockwise rotation and separation of Sardinia (along with Corsica) from southern Europe, most probably between 19 and 16 Ma [\(Speranza et al.,](#page-20-0) [2002](#page-20-0)).

In this complex tectonic framework a new volcanic phase took place in Western Sardinia between ca. 5.0 and 0.1 Ma ([Beccaluva et al., 1985\)](#page-18-0). These Pliocene–Pleistocene volcanics consist of mafic and differentiated rocks belonging to alkaline, transitional and tholeiitic series and were erupted in a within-plate extensional setting

Fig. 1. (a) Simplified structural sketch and paleogeographic reconstruction of the Western Mediterranean area during Early Miocene (after Lecca et al., [1997](#page-19-0)); (b) geologic map of Sardinia showing the extent of the Oligocene–Miocene and Pliocene-Quaternary volcanism; (c) geologic sketch map of the Montiferro volcanic complex (1: quaternary sediments, 2: upper basanites, 3: phonolites and trachytes, 4: basalts, 5: lower basanites, 6: Oligo-Miocene calc-alkaline volcanic rocks, modified after Di [Battistini](#page-18-0) et al., 1990) and xenolith sampling locality (asterisk).

[\(Beccaluva et al., 1977; Lustrino et al., 2002\)](#page-18-0). The volcanic rocks from this period contain both ultramafic along with minor granulite-facies mafic xenoliths. The granulitefacies xenoliths, i.e. spinel-rich metagabbros [\(Montanini](#page-20-0) [et al., 1992\)](#page-20-0) and the metagabbronorites of this study, are well represented only in basanitic lavas from the Montiferro volcanic complex, which has been one of the most active sites of Tertiary volcanic activity in Sardinia. Felsic lithologies are completely absent among the xenoliths. The Montiferro products consist of (i) calc-alkaline lava flows and pyroclastics belonging to the older Oligo-Miocene volcanism [\(Gallo et al., 1974](#page-19-0)) and (ii) lava flows of Pliocene age with dominantly alkaline affinity [\(Beccaluva](#page-18-0) [et al., 1977; Di Battistini et al., 1990\)](#page-18-0).

The metagabbronorite xenoliths are enclosed in basanitic lava flows occurring at the base of the Montiferro volcanic succession ("Lower Basanites", [Fig 1\)](#page-2-0). Other associated xenoliths consist of mica megacrysts and rare phlogopite–(±amphibole)-bearing pyroxenites with igneous textures that indicate they likely crystallized from the basanitic magma at depth. Peridotite xenoliths are absent. The host basanitic lavas, erupted around 3.9 Ma [\(Beccaluva](#page-18-0) [et al., 1985](#page-18-0)), contain olivine + clinopyroxene+Ti-rich phlogopite phenocrysts in a groundmass composed of plagioclase + clinopyroxene + olivine + globular analcite and minor amounts of micas, Fe–Ti oxides, K-feldspar and fluorapatite.

3. Analytical techniques

3.1. Electron microprobe analysis

Electron microprobe (EMP) analyses of pyroxenes, feldspars, amphibole, and oxides were carried out using a JEOL-6400 electron microprobe, equipped with Oxford Instruments ISIS energy-dispersive microanalytic system at the University of Parma, and a JEOL JXA-8600 electron microprobe, equipped with a Tracor Northern Series II 5600 wavelength-dispersive analytical system, at the IGG-CNR Institute in Florence. In the case of the JEOL-6400, operating conditions were 15 kV accelerating voltage, 0.62 nA current, a spot diameter of $1-2 \mu m$, and counting time of 100 s. Biotite analyses were obtained on the JEOL JXA-8600. Here analytical conditions consisted of 15 kV accelerating voltage and a beam current of 0.20 nA. In both cases, synthetic and natural mineral standards were used for the calibration.

Apatite analyses as well as additional biotite and feldspar analyses were obtained on the CAMECA SX50 and SX100 at the GeoForschungsZentrum Potsdam. Analytical conditions for the silicates consisted of a 15 kV acceleration voltage, 20 nA beam current, and counting

times of 10–30 s depending on the element. Beam spot size was 5 μm for biotite and amphibole and 15 μm for feldspar and fluorapatite. Silicate and oxide standards were taken from both the CAMECA and Smithsonian standard sets [\(Jarosewich et al., 1980](#page-19-0)). The CAMECA PAP program was used for matrix correction ([Pouchou and Pichoir, 1985\)](#page-20-0). For fluorapatite, counting times were 20 to 120 s depending on the relative amount of the element. Technique and counting times for $(Y + \text{REE})$ are described in [Harlov et al.](#page-19-0) [\(2002\)](#page-19-0). Standards for the REE were taken from synthetic REE phosphates prepared by [Jarosewich and Boatner](#page-19-0) [\(1991\)](#page-19-0), with the remaining standards taken from the Durango fluorapatite and the Smithsonian oxide and silicate standard set [\(Jarosewich et al., 1980](#page-19-0)). EMP measurement of Cl and F in fluorapatite were made according to guidelines outlined in [Stormer et al. \(1993\)](#page-20-0). For all analyses, unless otherwise specified, only mineral cores were analysed and mineral rims avoided. Feldspar, pyroxene and fluorapatite analyses are contained in [Tables 1, 2](#page-4-0) [and 4,](#page-4-0) respectively whereas both biotite and amphibole analyses are contained in [Table 3](#page-6-0).

3.2. Whole-rock analysis

Whole-rock chemical analyses were obtained after carefully removing the margins of the metagabbronorite xenoliths by sawing in order to reduce possible infiltration effects by the host basanite magma. Major and trace (Ni, Co, Cr, V, Sc, Cu, Zn, Ga) elements were determined by conventional X-ray fluorescence (XRF) techniques at the University of Parma. Rare earth elements (REE), U, Th, Cs, Rb, Ba, Sr, Zr, Nb, Y, Ta, and Hf abundances were determined by ICP-MS spectrometry at "Activation Laboratories" (Ancaster, Ontario). Precision and accuracy of XRF and ICP trace element analyses are usually within 5–10%. Whole-rock analyses are contained in [Table 5](#page-12-0).

4. Xenolith petrology, mineralogy and whole-rock chemistry

4.1. Petrography and mineral chemistry

The metagabbronorite xenoliths are sub-rounded fragments with diameters ranging between 5 and 15 cm. They are medium-grained rocks with variable degrees of recrystallisation and deformation. Examination of 42 metagabbronorite xenoliths in thin section indicate that textures vary from nearly isotropic (predominantly granoblastic with straight grain boundaries) to foliated. Deformed rocks display a discontinuous foliation defined by lenticular plagioclase- and pyroxene-rich domains. They consist of plagioclase $(64-27 \text{ vol.%)}$, clinopyroxene $(15-39$

(-) not analized; italics values are standard deviations; $p = pophyproclast$, $n = neoblast$, $c = core$, $r = rim$.

vol.%), orthopyroxene (12–36 vol.%), Fe–Ti oxides $(1-8 \text{ vol.}\%) \pm \text{biotic} (\leq 6 \text{ vol.}\%) \pm \text{brown}$ amphibole \pm K-feldspar \pm olivine \pm yellow-orange fluorapatite \pm green spinel.

The metagabbronorite xenoliths are commonly characterized by relatively large (up to 8–10 mm in length) porphyroclasts of orthopyroxene (and more rarely, clino-

pyroxene) in a granoblastic, recrystallised matrix principally composed of pyroxenes, plagioclase, and Fe–Ti oxides [\(Fig. 2a](#page-7-0)). The pyroxene porphyroclasts display well developed mutual exsolution lamellae and blebs. They may show evidence of plastic deformation, i.e. bending, kinking and undulose extinction. In places, plagioclase occurs as large subhedral grains with undulose extinction

Table 2

and curved multiple twins. The pyroxene porphyroclasts and the former plagioclase can be viewed as textural relics of the original igneous assemblage. Olivine has been found only in two out of 42 samples examined in thin section. It occurs as irregular-shaped crystals included into orthopyroxene or as small polygonal grains included into domains of recrystallized pyroxenes. Symplectitic intergrowths of

ween plagioclase and former olivine. Strongly pleochroic, reddish-brown to yellow-brown biotite is present as small $($ 1 mm) flakes and lamellae parallel to the foliation ([Fig. 2c](#page-7-0)) or, less commonly, as larger crystals of irregular shape. Brown amphibole, coexisting with biotite, is rare and occurs as crystals with straight boundaries forming 120° triple junctions with adjacent granulite-facies minerals. Fe–Ti oxides usually form small polygonal grains and, rarely, interstitial crystals or subhedral grains enclosed into pyroxenes and plagioclase. Small amounts (from traces up to ca. 2 vol. %) of K-feldspar have been observed in about half of the examined xenoliths (see Section 4.2.).

clinopyroxene+ orthopyroxene+ green spinel in contact with plagioclase [\(Fig. 2b](#page-7-0)) likely represent a reaction bet-

No apparent infiltration of basanitic melt or hydrothermal alteration have been found in the metagabbronorite xenoliths. However, mineralogical transformations due to heating and, possibly, also to reaction with the host magma have been observed in some samples. Primary olivine is completely converted to dark red-orange iddingsitic products. Orthopyroxene may show opaque oxidized rims (e.g. [Selverstone and Stern, 1983](#page-20-0)) or, more rarely, coronas made up of secondary olivine + clinopyroxene + K-feldspar. Biotite locally breaks down to fine-grained K-feldspar+ ilmenite + orthopyroxene, but most micas are stable or show only thin opaque rims. Amphibole is largely replaced by cryptocrystalline semi-opaque aggregates.

Pyroxenes [\(Table 1](#page-4-0)) can be classified as ferroan diopside and ferroan enstatite according to IMA classification system ([Rock, 1990](#page-20-0)). Both porphyroclastic and neoblastic pyroxenes have low TiO₂ (0.3–0.6% in clinopyroxene, negligible in orthopyroxene) and moderate Al_2O_3 (4.9– 2.4 wt.% in clinopyroxene, 3.4–1.9% in orthopyroxene) and Cr₂O₃ (\leq 0.3%) contents. Mg# (=100 Mg/(Mg+Fe²⁺)) varies between 81.7–64.6 and 78.2–58.5 for clino- and orthopyroxene, respectively. The restricted solid solution between Ca-poor and Ca-rich pyroxenes, as shown by the low CaO content of orthopyroxene $(0.4-0.8 \text{ wt.})\%$ indicates slow cooling from magmatic temperatures. The Al^{VI}/Al^{IV} ratios of the clinopyroxenes are typical of granulite-facies xenoliths according to the classification system of [Aoki and Kushiro \(1968\)](#page-18-0). Both pyroxenes show a moderate trend of enrichment in Fe into the pyroxene quadrilateral (not shown). A slight core-to-rim Al

calculated assuming that the site (Cl,F,OH) is filled.

Blank ⁼ below EMP detection limit.

⁎ total Fe as FeO. # calculated by charge balance.

depletion, sometimes accompanied by an increase in Na, is observed in the clinopyroxene porphyroclasts. A similar Al decrease is recorded by the recrystallized clinopyroxenes ([Table 1](#page-4-0)).

Biotite is Mg-(Mg# = 71.6–63.3) and Ti-rich (TiO₂ = 4.7–6.3 wt.%) [\(Table 2\)](#page-5-0). Such elevated $TiO₂$ contents greatly enhance the biotite thermal stability under high-T granulite-facies conditions [\(Patiño Douce, 1993](#page-20-0)). Low

Fig. 2. Photomicrographs of the metagabbronorite textures. (a) orthopyroxene porphyroclast with clinopyroxene exsolution lamellae and blebs; (b) primary olivine (dark, completely iddingsitized) showing development of pyroxene+Al-rich spinel rims and symplectitic intergrowths at the interface with plagioclase; (c) biotite flakes aligned along the granulitic foliation; (d) trail of small rounded to polygonal apatite grains, (e) myrmekite-like plagioclase– plagioclase intergrowths associated with K-feldspar (1) and incipient development of K-feldspar micro-vein (2); (f) discrete microperthitic K-feldspar.

Cl $(0.04-0.20 \text{ wt.})$ and low to moderate F $(0.24-$ 1.19 wt.%) have been observed.

Amphibole can be classified as Ti-pargasite ([Table 2](#page-5-0)) according to the nomenclature of [Leake et al. \(1997\).](#page-19-0)

Fe–Ti oxides consist of magnetite, sometimes relatively Cr-rich (Cr₂O₃ up to ∼3 wt.%), and ilmenite, whereas the occurrence of Al-rich Cr-poor hercynitic spinel is restricted to the olivine-plagioclase reaction zones.

Fluorapatite ([Fig. 2d](#page-7-0)) is a common accessory mineral in 10 of the 42 metagabbro xenoliths included in this study ([Table 3\)](#page-6-0). Transmitted light microscopy, as well as back scattered electron (BSE) imaging, indicate that fluorapatite is completely free of inclusions. Generally, the fluorapatite grains show a variable F and Cl content per sample (Table 4). Fluorine and Cl contents in the fluorapatite range from 1.66 to 3.24 wt.% and 0.26 to 1.46 wt.%, respectively. These halogen content implies a calculated $H₂O$ content ranging from 0.22 to 1.63 wt.

Table 4 Representative EMP analyses (wt.%) of K-feldspar and plagioclase

% though this does not preclude the possibility that a portion, or perhaps all, of this presumed $H₂O$ component consists a possible $CO₂$ component (cf. [O'Reilly](#page-20-0) [and Griffin, 2000](#page-20-0)).

4.2. Feldspar textures and composition

About half of the 42 metagabbronorite xenoliths examined are characterized by a series of peculiar feldspar textures associated with K-feldspar. These include:

(1) Antiperthite-like rods, blebs, and irregular patches of K-feldspar $(Ab_{24-29}Or_{78-72}An_{2-1})$ in a random scattering of plagioclase grains, [\(Fig. 3\)](#page-9-0). An element line scan across one of these blebs indicates enrichment in Na in the plagioclase at the K-feldsparplagioclase grain boundary interface followed by enrichment in Ca going outward into the plagioclase [\(Fig. 4\)](#page-10-0).

(-) not analized; italics values are standard deviations; $p =$ porphyroclast, $n =$ neoblast, $c =$ core, $r =$ rim.

Fig. 3. BSE (back-scattered electron images) of replacement anti-perthite in plagioclase grains.

- (2) Micro-veins of K-feldspar $(Ab_{11-33}Or_{84-65}An_{6-1})$ along plagioclase–plagioclase and plagioclase– pyroxene grain rims. These micro-veins sometimes show evidence of recrystallisation [\(Fig. 5](#page-10-0)).
- (3) Myrmekite-like intergrowths of K-feldspar (Ab_{17-28}) $Or_{82-67}An_{4-1}$) with plagioclase $(Ab_{37-45}Or_{5-8}$ An56–46) along plagioclase–plagioclase grain boundaries ([Figs. 2e](#page-7-0), [and 6](#page-11-0)).
- (4) Discrete anhedral grains of K-feldspar (Ab_{16-23}) $Or_{82-75}An_{2-1}$ of which a random number of grains are microperthitic [\(Fig. 2f](#page-7-0)). This last texture is especially seen in the largest K-feldspar crystals, which are usually characterized by tiny elongate albite exsolutions.

The K-feldspar associated with the late coronas around orthopyroxene (see Section 4.1) is albite-rich $(Ab_{45-47}Or_{47-42}An_{5-1})$ and contains significant amounts of Ba (BaO up to 2.4 wt.%).

The plagioclase feldspars show a relatively wide range of compositions between An_{76} and An_{46} . Plagioclase porphyroclasts, in K-feldspar-free samples or in K-feldsparbearing rocks far from the K-feldspar micro-veins, are usually characterized by a thin rim enriched in anorthite. Recrystallized plagioclase is also enriched in anorthite with respect to the plagioclase porphyroclast core [\(Table 2\)](#page-5-0). The reverse zoning and Ca enrichment in neoblastic plagioclase is most likely related to granulite-facies recrystallization, suggesting a subsolidus equilibration at relatively high pressure, through a reaction between plagioclase and clinopyroxene: Albite (plagioclase)+Ca–Tschermak (clinopyroxene)= Jadeite (clinopyroxene)+ Anorthite (plagioclase) (see [Kushiro, 1969; Kay and Kay, 1984; Rudnick](#page-19-0) [and Taylor, 1987\)](#page-19-0).

Fig. 4. Elemental line scans for Ab, Or and An across an exsolution lamella in replacement antiperthite (cf. [Fig. 3d](#page-9-0)).

Plagioclase close to the K-feldspar micro-veins is usually slightly depleted in Na in a zone some tenths of a micron in width. Plagioclase intergrown with K-feldspar

is relatively Na-rich, whereas Ca enrichment is observed in the plagioclase close to the intergrowths. This is in contrast to plagioclase close to the K-feldspar rods and blebs, in which enrichment in Na, coupled with depletion in Ca, is seen along a thin rim at the plagioclase– K-feldspar grain boundary interface (cf. [Figs. 3b](#page-9-0), d, and 4). This enrichment is contrasted with Na depletion in the plagioclase further away from the K-feldspar bleb. No zoning is observed in the plagioclase along the grain boundary interface with the largest discrete K-feldspar crystals though a slight enrichment in Na is seen.

4.3. Geochemistry of the metagabbronorite xenoliths and host rocks

The metagabbronorite xenoliths have predominantly basic $(SiO₂=48.1-53.2 \text{ wt.})$ compositions [\(Table 5\)](#page-12-0). Most rocks are slightly oversaturated (normative quartz \leq 3 wt.%); the only exceptions are the olivine-

Fig. 5. BSE (back-scattered electron images) of micro-veins of apparently recrystallised K-feldspar along plagioclase–plagioclase and plagioclase– pyroxene grain rims. Note regions of Ca-enriched plagioclase associated with the K-feldspar micro-veins.

bearing sample NB312 and the low-silica, Fe–Ti oxiderich sample NB271 that contain moderate amounts of normative olivine $(7-8 \text{ wt.})$ %). The xenoliths have a wide range of Mg#, i.e. 77–56, where Mg#=100 Mg/ $(Mg + Fe^{2+})$. Most samples have Mg# and SiO₂/Al₂O₃ values plotting within the field of primitive basaltic liquids ([Fig. 7\)](#page-14-0), thus excluding a significant role for cumulus processes in the origin of their protoliths.

The Mg# shows a positive correlation with compatible trace elements Ni $(=240-20 \text{ ppm})$, Cr $(970-$ 8 ppm), Co (57–30 ppm) and a negative correlation with TiO₂ (0.33–1.28 wt.%), Al₂O₃ (12.1–20.1 wt.%), Na₂O $(0.89-2.70 \text{ wt.})$ and Sr $(157-321 \text{ ppm})$ [\(Fig. 8\)](#page-15-0). A tholeiitic enrichment trend in Fe is also seen in the AFM diagram (not reported). Incompatible minor and trace elements show low to moderate abundances $(K_2O =$ 0.2–1.0 wt.%, Rb \leq 24 ppm, Ba=60–300 ppm, Y=10–

20 ppm, La \sim 14–60 ppm) and are not well correlated with a fractionation index like the Mg# or $SiO₂$ [\(Table 5](#page-12-0)). There is moderate LREE fractionation (La_N) $Sm_N = 1.1 - 3.6$) and LREE enrichment over HREE (La_N/ $Yb_N~2$ –7), nearly flat HREE, and general absence of Eu anomaly or a slight enrichment in the samples with the lowest $SiO₂/Al₂O₃$ ratios (NB313, NB5) ([Table 5](#page-12-0); [Fig. 9a](#page-16-0)). LILE-enrichment (with a peak at Ba) and prominent HFSE depletion are seen in the MORBnormalized patterns of the incompatible elements [\(Fig. 9b](#page-16-0)).

The basanitic host lavas ([Table 5\)](#page-12-0) are strongly undersaturated rocks (normative nepheline = $12-15$ wt.%), with remarkable enrichment in Nb, Zr, Ti, and LREE $(La_N/Sm_N~30)$. The low Rb and K contents have been significantly altered during secondary analcite formation ([Di Battistini et al., 1990\)](#page-18-0).

300 um

700 µm

200 µm

Fig. 6. BSE (back-scattered electron images) of myrmekite-like intergrowths of plagioclase with Ca-enriched plagioclase associated with K-feldspar along plagioclase–plagioclase grain boundaries.

Table 5 Whole-rock analyses of the metagabbronorite xenoliths (Gn) and host rock (Bn = basanite)

Sample	NB26 Gn	NB316 Gn	NB322 Gn	NB312 Gn	NB325 Gn	NB321 Gn	NB12 Gn	NB9 Gn	NB323 Gn	NB7 Gn	N _{B6} Gn	NB319 Gn	NB11 Gn	NB8 Gn	NB324 Gn	NB313 Gn	NB271 ${\rm G} {\rm n}$	NB ₅ Gn	NB216 Bn
		Major (wt.%) and trace element (ppm) abundances by X-ray fluorescence analyses																	
SiO ₂	50.5	51.2	53.2	48.1	51.8	51.7	52.8	51.6	49.5	51.5	50.1	50.8	50.5	52.0	51.7	48.5	49.1	49.4	45.4
TiO ₂	0.36	0.47	0.48	0.33	0.52	0.49	0.46	0.64	0.47	0.65	0.50	0.57	0.50	0.75	0.80	0.95	1.28	0.91	2.86
Al ₂ O ₃	11.9	13.4	14.1	12.59	13.2	13.8	14.7	13.1	15.1	12.9	14.4	13.0	15.6	17.1	16.9	18.3	15.4	20.1	16.5
Fe ₂ O ₃	8.92	9.07	8.29	10.35	9.37	9.52	8.49	9.49	9.66	9.60	8.87	10.75	9.57	8.21	8.97	10.45	12.16	8.65	10.54
MnO	0.17	0.18	0.17	0.18	0.18	0.18	0.18	0.20	0.17	0.21	0.22	0.20	0.21	0.16	0.18	0.14	0.29	0.14	0.18
MgO	13.29	12.18	10.70	13.25	11.22	10.99	9.53	10.31	10.47	10.35	9.44	10.54	8.30	7.07	6.25	7.13	7.94	4.98	5.49
CaO	11.43	10.41	9.22	11.76	10.75	10.05	9.83	11.51	11.93	11.34	12.61	11.27	11.69	10.57	10.19	11.03	9.44	11.99	8.97
Na ₂ O	0.92	0.98	1.99	0.89	1.16	1.60	2.01	1.62	0.96	1.83	1.29	1.35	1.67	2.04	2.61	1.59	2.69	2.24	5.11
K_2O	0.33	0.61	0.78	0.11	0.53	0.47	0.74	0.46	0.18	0.46	0.24	0.28	0.24	1.02	0.87	0.25	0.34	0.49	1.00
P_2O_5	0.04	0.09	0.11	0.04	0.09	0.04	0.09	0.06	0.03	0.04	0.07	0.06	0.04	0.21	0.20	0.04	0.01	0.06	0.70
LOI	1.12	0.43	0.07	1.52	0.09	0.09	0.28	0.00	0.44	0.00	1.30	0.00	0.59	0.00	0.30	0.41	0.36	0.10	2.63
	99.02																		
mg#	77.4	75.5	74.8	74.6	73.3	72.6	72.0	71.4	71.3	71.2	70.9	69.2	66.6	66.4	61.5	61.0	60.0	56.9	52.8
Ni	240	241	199	222	182	197	157	61	138	138	144	133	119	58	55	54	21	23	51
Co	55	57	43	53	52	48	45	30	46	47	44	45	45	29	35	37	35	30	29
Cr	912	939	680	967	714	671	569	206	509	517	494	536	508	203	181	175	8	56	52
Sc	44	41	35	48	45	$\overline{}$	38	49	50	47	38	50	46	35	37	36	\equiv	26	19
V	209	175	167	156	186	213	171	186	290	298	194	244	218	184	210	585	177	357	200
Cu	17	13	8	20	18	16	12	41	45	39	30	28	20	42	18	66	100	26	$\overline{}$
Zn	80	71	75	233	82	85	78	79	176	80	89	93	69	73	82	72	111	55	$\overline{}$
Ga	5	12	14	12	13	14	15	14	10	13	16	14	18	20	21	22	16	24	$\qquad \qquad -$
		Trace element abundances (ppm) by ICP-MS																	
Cs	< 0.1	0.9	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.1	< 0.1	0.4	< 0.1	0.2	0.3	0.9	< 0.1	0.5	0.4	< 0.1	< 0.1	$\overline{}$
Ba	86	135	166	68	172	134	189	110	61	118	261	93	92	240	308	101	118	148	2341
Rb	6	24	20	$7\overline{ }$	9	9	13	6	10	τ	$\overline{4}$	8	$\overline{4}$	17	13	6	<1	14	86
Sr	157	194	209	210	190	216	233	209	220	211	271	205	283	226	258	307	286	321	1274
Zr	31	65	51	29	43	30	44	30	18	31	34	28	19	43	41	20	64	21	670
Nb	2.0	2.5	2.9	1.0	2.0	1.4	1.8	0.9	0.6	0.9	1.6	1.1	0.7	4.5	4.4	1.3	7.8	1.8	87.0
Y	11.0	15.6	17.1	14.6	20.3	14.0	18.3	18.7	11.1	19.5	18.9	18.5	13.3	18.6	19.8	9.9	22.2	10.1	35.0
La	3.40	8.79	9.11	6.22	8.21	4.79	9.33	5.06	4.58	5.21	7.81	5.01	4.90	14.27	12.42	10.00	7.62	6.00	78.0
Ce	7.90	18.90	19.00	7.37	19.10	10.50	19.80	12.20	$\overline{}$	12.50	20.20	12.10	9.26	28.60	26.00	15.60	16.20	11.90	146.0
Pr	1.11	2.36	2.26	1.77	2.51	1.40	2.45	1.75	1.28	1.82	2.75	1.69	1.38	3.34	3.21	1.63	2.12	1.43	
Nd	5.69	10.60	10.30	7.38	12.10	6.89	11.20	9.14	6.20	9.44	13.00	8.48	6.83	14.60	14.40	7.12	10.40	6.62	59.0
Sm	1.69	2.58	2.59	2.02	3.19	1.97	2.91	2.75	1.72	2.93	3.36	2.57	1.94	3.38	3.45	1.72	2.96	1.69	8.60
Eu	0.52	0.60	0.79	0.696	0.79	0.71	0.89	0.86	0.59	0.91	1.00	0.87	0.74	0.96	1.04	0.66	1.02	0.81	2.59
Gd	1.85	2.24	2.27	2.33	3.09	2.11	2.65	3.06	1.95	3.19	2.96	2.77	2.08	2.54	2.81	1.73	3.21	1.54	7.22
Tb	0.32	0.42	0.46	0.4	0.58	0.39	0.51	0.57	0.32	0.57	0.52	0.50	0.37	0.49	0.52	0.28	0.63	0.30	1.02
Dy	2.12	2.74	3.00	2.42	3.77	2.45	3.23	3.44	2.08	3.61	3.34	3.29	2.40	3.34	3.61	1.90	3.94	2.01	4.72
Ho	0.43	0.55	0.59	0.49	0.74	0.50	0.64	0.68	0.40	0.71	0.66	0.65	0.48	0.66	0.70	0.36	0.84	0.40	

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5. Thermobarometric constraints

Equilibration temperatures have been calculated employing the two-pyroxene geothermometer of [Wells](#page-20-0) [\(1977\)](#page-20-0). Because of the large uncertainty in recalculating ferric iron, Fe^{2+} has been assumed to be Fe_{tot}. As a consequence, calculated temperatures represent maximum estimates. The obtained values for pairs of unexsolved clinopyroxene–orthopyroxene porphyroclasts and neoblasts are similar (respectively 902 ± 28 to $914 \pm$ 39 °C). Application of the [Brey and Kohler \(1990\)](#page-18-0) geothermometer gives temperatures about 50 °C lower than that of [Wells \(1977\)](#page-20-0). However, the geothermometer of [Brey and Kohler \(1990\)](#page-18-0) tends to underestimate the equilibration temperature if it is applied to minerals with higher Fe contents than those employed for the actual calibration of the geothermometer. The orthopyroxenebiotite geothermometer of [Sengupta et al. \(1990\)](#page-20-0) tends to give lower values for the temperature, i.e. $850 \pm$ 10 °C .

The lack of garnet prevents accurate thermobarometry. However, an upper pressure limit of 1.0–1.2 GPa can be estimated by combining the calculated temperatures and the garnet-in curves for mafic compositions [\(Green and Ringwood, 1967; Wood, 1987\)](#page-19-0). On the other hand, a lower pressure limit (∼0.8 GPa) can be inferred from the occurrence of opx–cpx–spinel symplectites at the grain boundary interface between plagioclase and primary olivine ([Johnson and Essene, 1982\)](#page-19-0).

6. Source region of the metagabbronorite xenoliths

6.1. Deep-seated origin of the xenoliths and interactions with the host magmas

It has been pointed out [\(Rudnick, 1992](#page-20-0)) that caution must be used in the straightforward interpretation of metagabbronorite xenoliths as a direct sampling of the lower crust at the time of eruption. This is because granulite-facies rocks could have been transported to shallower levels by tectonic emplacement. However, a number of lines of evidence are consistent with a deep crustal provenance for the xenoliths: (i) the inferred $P-T$ conditions of equilibration (T∼900 °C, P∼0.8– 1.0 GPa) obviously record equilibration in the deep crust; (ii) no retrograde mineral changes (predictable in tectonically uplifted granulites) have been found; (iii) the highest grade terrains of the Palaeozoic basement (exposed in north-eastern Sardinia) do not exceed amphibolite-facies ([Carmignani et al., 1994\)](#page-18-0), and (iv) no upper crustal rocks (metamorphic rocks of lower grade, granites) have been sampled by the host lava.

The fine-grained coronas of olivine-clinopyroxene-Kfeldspar surrounding the orthopyroxene likely result from reaction with an infiltrating alkali-rich silica-undersaturated melt. They are also observed at the xenolith-lava boundary and are very similar to the domains with pyrometamorphic textures described by [Beccaluva et al. \(2001\)](#page-18-0) for the peridotite xenoliths from the same locality as the metagabbronorite xenoliths. However, extensive infiltration by a basanitic melt, in addition to in-situ crystallization and/ or reaction with the xenolith constituents, is unlikely. The xenoliths showing corona reactions around orthopyroxene (i.e. samples NB9, NB26), do not display the anomalous abundances of trace elements (LREE, Nb, Zr) expected from significant contamination by the host magma.

6.2. Nature of the magmatic protoliths

Major and trace element composition of the xenoliths overall matches those of relatively undifferentiated subalkaline basaltic rocks [\(Table 5](#page-12-0); Figs. 7–9). None of the xenoliths show the typical strong depletion in incompatible elements observed in cumulitic rocks because of small amounts of trapped liquid. The REE distribution gives further support to this view, because most patterns do not display features typically controlled by a cumulus of plagioclase or clinopyroxene, i.e. positive Eu anomaly or LREE-depletion with a convex upward shape. Finally, if we attempt to model the liquids in equilibrium with the xenoliths, assuming that they may represent cumulates, unrealistically high concentrations of incompatible elements and a marked Eu depletion are obtained, requiring evolved, silica-rich parent liquids [\(Fig. 10](#page-16-0)), which are not consistent with the observed high Mg#, Cr, and Ni of the bulk rock and generally high Mg# of both pyroxenes. However, those samples characterized by the highest Mg# and $SiO₂/$ Al_2O_3 ratios coupled with high Cr (>600 ppm) may be affected by some accumulation of pyroxenes (Fig. 7; [Table 5\)](#page-12-0). Likewise, the low $SiO₂/Al₂O₃$ associated with the small positive Eu anomaly in samples NB313 and NB5 (Figs. 7 and 9, [Table 5\)](#page-12-0) likely reflect some enrichment in plagioclase, possibly due to metamorphic segregation. We can therefore reasonably conclude that most whole-rock compositions of the xenoliths correspond to frozen basaltic melts. The observed major and trace element variation trends may be consistent with a tholeiitic differentiation trend mainly controlled by removal of plagioclase + pyroxenes, whereas olivine crystallization (occurring only in one sample), was suppressed at an early stage.

The LILE-enriched and HFSE-depleted patterns of incompatible elements normalized to MORB, the low

Ti/V (≤ 20) , as well as the Ti, Zr, and Y abundances [\(Pearce and Norry, 1979; Shervais, 1982\)](#page-20-0) strongly argue for subduction-related basalts (low-K arc tholeiites) as parental magmas of the gabbronorite protoliths. The xenoliths display striking geochemical analogies ([Fig.](#page-16-0) [9](#page-16-0)) with the rare primitive basaltic rocks erupted during the Miocene in Sardinia ([Morra et al., 1997; Downes et](#page-20-0) [al., 2001\)](#page-20-0). In addition, they have Sr–Nd isotopic compositions $(^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr = 0.70578 - 0.70647$, $^{143}Nd/^{144}Nd =$ 0.51240–0.51250; [Montanini et al., 2002\)](#page-20-0), which overlap the isotopically less enriched Tertiary basalts ([Downes et](#page-18-0) [al., 2001](#page-18-0)). Previous studies (e.g. [Morra et al., 1997](#page-20-0)) have pointed out that the rarity of erupted primary basaltic magmas in the Tertiary calc-alkaline volcanism of Sardinia, compared to the high volumes of silicic ignimbrites and intermediate lavas, required ponding and differentiation of mafic liquids at lower to intermediate crustal levels. The metagabbronorite xenoliths are therefore potential key-rock types for testing petrogenetic models for the origin of the voluminous Miocene ignimbrites of Western Sardinia as well as characterization of the new crust added by Tertiary subduction-related magmatism. Alternatively, the xenoliths could be older, subductionrelated rocks (possibly related to the Variscan orogeny), which underwent subsolidus recrystallization in the lower crust and likely reheating due to the protracted magmatic activity of Sardinia during Tertiary times. In both cases, the occurrence of the olivine-plagioclase reaction leading to pyroxene-spinel symplectitic intergrowths suggests that at least one stage of near-isobaric cooling has occurred during the subsolidus history of these rocks [\(Griffin and Heier, 1973; Johnson and Carlson, 1990\)](#page-19-0).

Fig. 7. Plot of whole-rock $Mg#$ and SiO_2/Al_2O_3 values for the metagabbronorite xenoliths. Fields of primitive basaltic magmas and compositional vectors produced by accumulation of pyroxene, plagioclase and Fe–Ti oxides after [Kempton and Harmon \(1992\).](#page-19-0)

6.3. Implications for the lower crust composition beneath Sardinia and comparison with the geophysical data

At pressure of 0.8–1.0 GPa, mean temperatures of 850–900 °C indicate subsolidus equilibration under granulite-facies conditions. The temperatures estimated for the metagabbronorite xenoliths are consistent with those inferred for peridotite xenoliths from the uppermost mantle of Sardinia (∼1000 °C, [Zerbi et al., 1978; Rutter,](#page-20-0) [1987](#page-20-0); 870–1000 °C, [Beccaluva et al., 2001\)](#page-18-0). In general, temperatures in excess of 900 °C are common among lower crustal xenoliths originating in rift zones or areas of

recent magmatic activity. Such temperatures are generally higher than those calculated for most xenoliths originating from Hercynian Europe [\(Downes, 1993\)](#page-18-0). One exception are the temperatures estimated for the xenoliths from two areas characterized by high heat-flow (Pannonian basin: [Kempton et al., 1997; Embey-Isztin et al., 2003](#page-19-0) and Northern Hessian Depression: [Mengel, 1990](#page-19-0)), i.e. two crustal sections affected by the Alpine orogenesis and by continental rifting, respectively.

Geophysical studies of the Sardo–Corsican microplate ([Egger et al., 1988; Peruzza et al., 1990\)](#page-19-0) have shown a normal continental structure beneath Sardinia,

Fig. 8. Plot of whole-rock Mg# vs. TiO₂, Al₂O₃, Na₂O (wt.%), Ni, Cr and Sr (ppm) for the metagabbronorite xenoliths.

Fig. 9. (a) Chondrite-normalized whole-rock REE abundances of the metagabbronorite xenoliths (normalizing values after [Anders and](#page-18-0) [Grevess, 1989\)](#page-18-0); (b) MORB-normalized incompatible trace element abundances diagram for the metagabbronorite xenoliths (normalizing values after [Sun and McDonough, 1989](#page-20-0)). Data for Tertiary subductionrelated basaltic rocks from Sardinia after [Downes et al. \(2001\)](#page-18-0) and [Morra et al. \(1997\)](#page-20-0).

relatively unmodified by Miocene drifting away from the European continental margin, with a crustal thickness of 30–32 km beneath the central-western sector. An estimate of the seismic P-wave velocity in the xenoliths has been carried out and the resulting values have been compared with those measured for the deep crust in order to test the likelihood that these rocks are samples of the lower crust. V_p can be obtained by combining the modal composition of the rocks with the experimental V_p values of each mineral taken from the literature [\(Christensen,](#page-18-0) [1989](#page-18-0)) and assuming that the porosity at high pressure is negligible. To this purpose, a simplified four-phase assemblage with the average modal composition of the investigated xenoliths (plagioclase: 48.1%, clinopyroxene: 25.5 vol.%, orthopyroxene: 21.6%, magnetite: 4.5 vol.%) has been adopted. The employed temperatures and pressure derivatives for the seismic velocity are

given in [Furlong and Fountain \(1986\)](#page-19-0). Corrections have been made for $P=1$ GPa and $T=600$ °C which represents the present-day temperature, calculated from heat flow data, for the lowermost crust beneath Sardinia [\(Dalla](#page-18-0) [Vedova et al., 1995\)](#page-18-0). The resulting V_p (7.12 km s⁻¹) are in good agreement with the values reported for centralwestern Sardinia by seismic refraction surveys, i.e. V_p progressively changes from 6.75 to 7.3 km s^{-1} at depths of between 25 and 30 km ([Peruzza et al., 1990](#page-20-0)). The gabbronorite xenoliths may be thus considered as plausible constituents of the Sardinia lower crust.

7. Origin of K-feldspar and high-grade KCl-rich fluid metasomatism

The possible origin of these K-feldspar textures in the xenoliths through magmatic crystallization or as a result of closed-system metamorphic reaction (e.g. biotite breakdown) cannot be a priori excluded. However, textural and geochemical evidences argue against these hypotheses and point to a role for metasomatic alteration. The preservation of K-feldspar as microveins and as myrmekite-like textures at plagioclase– plagioclase grain boundary interfaces in extensively recrystallized and foliated metaigneous rocks cannot be obviously explained by magmatic crystallization. For example, there is no evidence for a significant correlation between $SiO₂$ and $K₂O$ as would be expected

Fig. 10. REE modelisation of the parental liquid compositions from the sample NB12 considered as a plagioclase+orthopyroxene+clinopyroxene cumulate rock (phase proportions in the solid: plagioclase=60%, clinopyroxene=20%, orthopyroxene=20%) with variable amounts of trapped residual melt. Calculations were carried out according to the procedure of [Bedard \(1994\)](#page-18-0) that is based on whole-rock trace element concentrations. Numbers on the patterns refer to trapped melt percentages used for the calculations. Partition coefficient for plagioclase, ortho- and clinopyroxenes taken from [Bindeman et al. \(1998\)](#page-18-0), [Dunn and Sen \(1994\)](#page-19-0) and [Hart and Dunn \(1993\)](#page-19-0).

from an ordinary magmatic fractionation trend. Also, Kfeldspar formation due to either biotite dehydration or dehydration melting is not tenable for the following reasons: (i) Ti-rich biotite occurring in several xenoliths gives all indication of being stable (only locally, might heating of this biotite in the host magma yield finegrained breakdown products including K-feldspar + ilmenite + orthopyroxene, see Section 4.1); (ii) K feldspar is commonly associated with plagioclase and it does not show inclusions or intergrowths with other phases possibly derived from biotite + plagioclase reaction (e.g. garnet, orthopyroxene, Fe–Ti oxides, see [Patiño Douce and Beard, 1995](#page-20-0)). In contrast, the occurrence of K-feldspar as micro-veins, myrmekitic intergrowths with plagioclase, and randomly distributed antiperthites ("replacement antiperthites", c.f. [Griffin, 1969\)](#page-19-0) is consistent with a metasomatic origin and requires an external K-rich fluid source.

A number of workers have documented and subsequently speculated as to the role of KCl brines or K-rich fluids in the lower crust and upper mantle. This documentation includes high grade rocks exposed by erosion ([Hansen et al., 1995; Newton et al., 1998; Harlov](#page-19-0) [et al., 1998; Harlov and Förster, 2002; Fiannacca et al.,](#page-19-0) [2005](#page-19-0)), xenoliths from the lower crust and upper mantle (e.g. [Perchuk et al., 2002; Harlow and Davies, 2004;](#page-20-0) [Kressig and Elliott, 2005\)](#page-20-0), kimberlites [\(Kamenetsky et al.,](#page-19-0) [2004](#page-19-0)), as well as brine-rich inclusions in diamonds [\(Izraeli](#page-19-0) [et al., 2001; Klein-benDavid et al., 2004; Izraeli et al.,](#page-19-0) [2004](#page-19-0); see also [Tomlinson et al., 2004\)](#page-20-0). While the presence of apatite (nominally fluorapatite) has been generally noted in samples of rock from both the lower crust and upper mantle, which are known to have undergone some form of metasomatism (e.g., [King et al., 2003; Seyler et al., 2004](#page-19-0)), less attention has been paid to its composition though, when analysed by EMP, such 'fluorapatites' tend to show very high levels of both Cl and OH and, when analysed using IR, possible high levels of $CO₂$ as well (e.g. [O'Reilly](#page-20-0) [and Griffin, 2000; Carswell and van Roermund, 2005](#page-20-0)). This suggests that they either formed in the presence of $Na-K-Ca-brines/CO₂-rich fluids or else were metasoma$ tised by such fluids.

In the metagabbronorite xenoliths of the present study, the textural occurrence of K-feldspar and its associated geochemical features, coupled with the high Cl and OH content of the fluorapatites, could be explained as being due to metasomatism by a K-rich brine with probable minor Na and Ca components. This metasomatism could have occurred both during as well as after granulite-facies recrystallization of the xenoliths. In such a scenario, the passage of K-rich brines, through that area of the lower crust from which these xenoliths originate, first resulted in

the formation of K-feldspar–plagioclase intergrowths along plagioclase–plagioclase and plagioclase–pyroxene grain boundaries ([Fig. 6\)](#page-11-0). Continued passage of the K-rich brines was subsequently followed by the formation of true K-feldspar micro-veins. At some later stage, local, partial recrystallization of these micro-veins occurred resulting in thicker more massive mineral grains, though still forming apparent veins throughout the rock [\(Fig. 5](#page-10-0)). During the formation of the K-feldspar micro-veins, diffusion of K into random plagioclase grains led to the nucleation of Kfeldspar blebs and rods within the interior of the plagioclase grain resulting in replacement antiperthite along with its characteristic enrichment in Ca along the rim of the lamellae [\(Figs. 3 and 4\)](#page-9-0). The randomness of this texture suggests that it was mainly controlled by the composition of a metasomatising fluid, e.g. $Albite+K+(fluid)=Ortho$ clase+Na+ (fluid). Discrete, more isolated, anhedral grains of K-feldspar could have resulted from the further enlargement and then recrystallization of the K-feldspar micro-veins into discrete crystals surrounded by plagioclase showing 120° triple junctions with the adjacent minerals [\(Fig. 2f](#page-7-0)). The presence of albite exsolution lamellae in the K-feldspar could be indicative of a Na component in the infiltrating brine coupled with some cation exchange with the surrounding plagioclase (cf. [Table 4](#page-8-0)). It is also probable that the formation of these Kfeldspar micro-veins and replacement anti-perthite could have been the result of several stages or pulses of K-rich fluid infiltration.

The presence of a K-, Na-, and Ca-bearing metasomatic brine is also strongly supported by the high Cl and OH content in the fluorapatite [\(Table 3\)](#page-6-0). It should be cautioned that a portion or perhaps all of the calculated OH component in the fluorapatite could be $CO₂$ (cf. [O'Reilly and](#page-20-0) Griffin, 2000) since neither OH nor $CO₂$ was directly measured. Experimentally, it has been demonstrated that fluorapatite gains copious amounts of Cl in the presence of even minor concentrations of CaCl₂ brines under conditions quite similar to those under which these xenoliths were metasomatised (cf. [Harlov and Förster, 2003\)](#page-19-0).

As to the origin of these metasomatising fluids, they could be highly saline residual brines given off during the solidification of mafic bodies underplating the lower crust (and providing the heat necessary for granulite-facies metamorphism), as originally proposed by [Harlov and](#page-19-0) [Förster \(2002\)](#page-19-0) for the Ivrea–Verbano Zone granulites (see also [Franz and Harlov, 1998\)](#page-19-0). However, a deep-seated provenance from the underlying lithospheric mantle may be also envisaged. Though, in retrospect, it is unlikely that metasomatic processes associated with recent alkaline magmatic activity on Sardinia could be responsible for these K-feldspar features. This is because, the partial to extensive textural equilibration of these metasomatically induced K-feldspar features would argue against the probable short time span between the actual metasomatic event and subsequent eruption. An exception to this could be the fine-grained coronas with olivine + clinopyroxene + Ba-rich K-feldspar that were probably formed by reaction with an alkaline silicate melt related to the Pliocene activity. These coronas are comparable to the pyrometamorphic textured domains within the mantle xenoliths that are considered to be later than the cryptic LREE and isotope enrichment in the clinopyroxene. Whether mantle xenoliths from this region also show the same type of metasomatism is uncertain. For example, in studies of shallow mantle xenoliths from Sardinia (Beccaluva et al., 2001), fluorapatite of metasomatic origin has never been reported. The metasomatic imprint, as evidenced by LREE enrichment and Sr–Nd isotopes in clinopyroxene, has been attributed to alkaline mafic melts with EM-like characteristics migrating through the lithosphere. However, this is not a definite argument against metasomatising brines originating in the lithospheric mantle since sampling of the mantle by xenoliths is at best random.

In conclusion, the various lines of evidence presented in this study support the premise that formation of K-feldspar in these mafic xenoliths and enrichment of fluorapatite in Cl is a reflection of metasomatic processes, which required an external K-rich fluid source. This fluid source probably took the form of a K-bearing brine with minor Na and Ca components, which operated in the lower crust beneath Sardinia during and after in-situ re-equilibration of mafic igneous rocks under granulite-facies conditions.

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