

1 **Magma chamber dynamics in a silicic LIP revealed by quartz: the Mesoproterozoic Gawler**
2 **Range Volcanics**

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7 **Abstract**

8 Silicic-dominated large igneous provinces (SLIP) represent vast amounts of magma ($\geq 10^5$ km³)
9 erupted onto the Earth's surface or injected into the crust over short time spans, and are important
10 components of the continental crust. The conditions of formation and evolution of these large
11 magmatic provinces and their magma chambers is still poorly constrained. In this contribution, we
12 examine cathodoluminescence textures and trace element (Al, Ti, Fe) zoning of quartz in a
13 Mesoproterozoic SLIP, the Gawler Range Volcanics (GRV), South Australia. We describe intra-
14 granular textures such as truncation of growth textures and reverse zoning (rimwards increase of
15 Ti content). These characteristics of quartz, together with remelting of already crystallised portions
16 of the magma chamber (felsic enclaves), suggest a complex history of crystallisation and
17 resorption, and fluctuating magma temperature. Titanium-in-quartz geothermometry indicates that
18 adjacent quartz zones record temperature variations (ΔT) up to 70°C in volcanic units. We also
19 report contrasting (non-correlatable) zoning patterns among quartz crystals, each indicating
20 different crystallisation conditions. The juxtaposition of quartz crystals with contrasting zoning
21 patterns are consistent with a dynamic regime (convection, stirring, overturning) of the GRV
22 magma chamber. These results point to pulsating magmatic conditions, compatible with a non-
23 linear evolution of the GRV magma chamber. Heat, necessary to explain both intra-granular and
24 infra-granular textural variations, may have been provided in different pulses by underplating of
25 mafic magma.

26

27 Keywords: quartz, crystal stratigraphy, cathodoluminescence, rhyolite, silicic large igneous
28 province, Australia

29 **1. Introduction**

30 Crystal zoning and other disequilibrium textures (mineral rims, resorption textures) are evidence of
31 the occurrence of crystal-melt reactions, and have been used to gain insight into the history of a
32 magma (e.g. Anderson, 1976, 1984; Ginibre et al., 2002). Crystal zoning of different mineral
33 species represents a response to changing conditions, and the succession of growth zones
34 defines a "crystal stratigraphy" (Wiebe, 1968) which yields information on the relative timing of
35 magmatic processes. For example, such textures have been used to infer processes of magma
36 mixing and crustal contamination – considered to occur in the formation and evolution of many
37 intermediate and felsic magmas – even where mixing is complete (hybridisation) or where the
38 magmas involved were similar in composition (e.g. Davidson et al., 2007; Shane et al., 2008;

39 Streck, 2008; Tepley et al., 2000).
40 In silicate magmas, quartz is stable under a wide range of compositions and P-T conditions.
41 Despite its abundance, it has not been commonly used as a source of petrological information
42 because quartz has a single end-member composition, and does not readjust its stoichiometric
43 substitutions with changing P-T-X conditions during crystallisation. However, a wealth of
44 information can be recorded in a variety of characteristics of quartz, including habit, non-
45 stoichiometric substitutions in growth zones, inclusions and coronas (e.g. Müller et al., 2003, 2005;
46 Peppard et al., 2001; Sato, 1975; Smith et al., 2010; Wark et al., 2007). The main advantages of
47 quartz in comparison with other minerals are its chemical stability and physical strength. In ancient
48 and altered rocks, quartz may be the only well preserved mineral.
49 A point of longstanding discussion in the study of silicic-dominated large igneous provinces (SLIP)
50 is the nature of crustal magma storage, including magma chamber geometry and dynamics, and
51 residence time of crystals before eruption. Recent studies have proposed complex models
52 involving zoned magma chambers with variable melt to solid ratio and non-continuous (“waxing
53 and waning”) production of melt (Hildreth, 1981; Lipman et al., 1997; Hildreth, 2004; Charlier et al.,
54 2005). Addition of heat and new magma from the mantle can result in “rejuvenation” of the magma
55 chamber (e.g. Hildreth and Wilson, 2007), causing temperature increase, magma mixing, and
56 remelting of crystal mush (largely solid marginal portions of plutons). These variations in magma
57 composition and temperature are potentially recorded by zoned crystals (e.g. Streck, 2008;
58 Vazquez and Reid, 2002).
59 This study is focussed on the characterisation of quartz populations in the Mesoproterozoic Gawler
60 Range Volcanics of South Australia on the basis of texture, cathodoluminescence, and trace
61 element content. The study involves a wide array of quartz occurrences in different, but genetically
62 associated, volcanic and intrusive rocks (lavas, ignimbrites, shallow and deeper intrusions) to
63 assess the implications of the characteristics of quartz for the magma dynamics in this large
64 igneous province.

65 **2. Geological setting**

66 The Gawler Range Volcanics (GRV) and co-magmatic Hiltaba Suite (HS) granite represent a
67 silicic-dominated large igneous province (the Gawler SLIP) with an outcrop extent of more than 25
68 000 km² and a total estimated volume of 100 000 km³ (Fig. 1). Although less common than their
69 mafic counterparts, SLIP are being increasingly recognised worldwide. Examples are the Sierra
70 Madre Occidental of Mexico (Bryan and Ernst, 2008; Cameron et al., 1980; Ferrari et al., 2002),
71 the Trans-Pecos volcanic field of the USA (Henry et al., 1988), the Chon-Aike Province of South
72 America and Antarctica (Pankhurst et al., 1998, 2000; Riley et al., 2001) the Snake River Plain of
73 the USA (Branney et al., 2008), and the Whitsunday Volcanic Province of Australia (Bryan, 2007;
74 Bryan et al., 2000). The GRV include several medium- to large-volume (tens to several hundreds
75 of km³) felsic lavas and ignimbrites (Allen et al., 2008; Blissett et al., 1993) and minor mafic and
76 intermediate units. The Gawler SLIP was emplaced in an intracontinental setting, during the

77 Laurentian supercontinent assembly (Allen and McPhie, 2002; Allen et al., 2008; Betts and Giles,
78 2006; Blissett et al., 1993; Creaser, 1995; Giles, 1988) and is coeval with the 1.3 – 1.6 Ga
79 anorogenic magmatic event throughout Laurentia and Baltica (Anderson and Morrison, 2005;
80 Rämö and Haapala, 1995). U-Pb zircon dating of the volcanic units has yielded a narrow age
81 range of 1591-1592 Ma (Creaser, 1995; Creaser and Cooper, 1993; Fanning et al., 1988),
82 whereas ages of the HS granites range from 1583±7 to 1598±2 Ma (Flint, 1993). The Gawler SLIP
83 is associated with a major metallogenic event that affected most of the Gawler Craton (Budd and
84 Fraser, 2004; Fraser et al., 2007; Skirrow et al., 2007; 2002) (Fig. 1).

85 The GRV have been subdivided into lower and upper sequences (Blissett et al., 1993). The lower
86 GRV consist of thick (up to 3 km) successions, erupted from several discrete volcanic centres.
87 Evenly porphyritic felsic lavas are interbedded with ignimbrites and very minor volcanogenic
88 sedimentary facies. Several units have been intruded by felsic porphyritic dykes. The Chitanilga
89 Volcanic Complex at Kokatha (Blissett, 1975, 1977a, 1977b; Branch, 1978; Stewart, 1994) and
90 Glyde Hill Volcanic Complex at Lake Everard (Blissett, 1975, 1977a, 1977b; Ferris, 2003; Giles,
91 1977) are the two best exposed parts of the lower GRV and are the subject of this study. The
92 upper GRV are composed of three large-volume (>500 km³) evenly porphyritic felsic lavas (Allen
93 and McPhie, 2002; Allen et al., 2008; McPhie et al., 2008). The GRV are essentially undeformed
94 and unmetamorphosed and primary textures are well preserved, in spite of the moderate, although
95 widespread alteration of feldspar. The GRV sequence is cross-cut by numerous porphyritic,
96 rhyolite and, less abundant andesite, dykes. These dykes are up to 100 m wide and 10-20 km
97 long, and mostly trend northwest to north-northeast (Blissett et al., 1993). The Moonamby Dyke
98 Suite (Giles, 1977) includes quartz-feldspar-phyric dykes that intruded the lower GRV at Lake
99 Everard. The Hiltaba Suite includes large batholiths and smaller intrusions of granite and minor
100 quartz monzodiorite and quartz monzonite (Flint, 1993). Typical of much of the Hiltaba Suite is
101 medium-grained, locally porphyritic pink granite composed of quartz, alkali-feldspar, minor
102 plagioclase, biotite, apatite and fluorite.

103 **3. Methods and analytical techniques**

104 *Whole-rock analysis*

105 Samples were crushed in a WC mill for X-ray fluorescence (XRF) and inductively coupled plasma
106 mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) whole-rock analysis at the University of Tasmania. Major and some
107 trace elements (V, Cr, Ni, Cu, Zn, Rb, Sr, Y, Zr, Nb, Ba, and La) were measured by XRF, trace
108 elements were analysed by ICP-MS. Samples were digested in HF/H₂SO₄ with the PicoTrace high
109 pressure digestion equipment and analysed with an Agilent 4500 ICP-MS. XRF analyses were
110 made on a Philips PW1480 X-ray Fluorescence Spectrometer. Detection limits for trace elements
111 in ICP-MS are ≤0.01 ppm (REE) and ≤0.5 ppm for other elements, except As (5 ppm). Comparison
112 of XRF and ICP-MS trace element data indicates a good correlation between the two methods, the
113 difference being <20 % for all elements analysed by both methods, except Ba.

114

115 *Scanning electron microscope cathodoluminescence (SEM-CL) imaging*
116 Cathodoluminescence (CL) images were obtained with a FEI Quanta 600 scanning electron
117 microscope (SEM) operated at 10 kV and equipped with a Gatan PanaCLF CL detector. All CL
118 images are polychromatic (including all wavelengths) 8 bit bitmap (grey scale values in the range
119 0-255). Core-to-rim CL intensity profiles were obtained by measuring the local grey value in an
120 area approximately 20 X 20 μm . CL profiles were obtained in areas free of healed fractures,
121 inclusions and surface irregularities.

122

123 *Quartz trace element analysis*

124 Trace element concentrations in quartz were determined by a Cameca SX-100, 5 detector-
125 equipped electron microprobe operating at 15 kV and 200 nA, 5 μm beam diameter and 720 s
126 counting time. Analyses were performed for Al, Ti and Fe along core-to-rim traverses. Corundum,
127 hematite and rutile were used as standard minerals. In order to test the repeatability of the
128 measurements, each traverse was repeated in two closely spaced parallel lines. Detection limits,
129 calculated from counting statistics, are: Al 9 ppm, Ti 14 ppm, Fe 23 ppm; standard deviations are:
130 Al 8 ppm, Ti 12 ppm, Fe 19 ppm.

131 **4. Sample description** (Table 1)

132 **4.1 Volcanic units**

133 Three evenly quartz-phyric volcanic units (Wheepool Rhyolite, Waurea Pyroclastics and Lake
134 Gairdner Rhyolite) are present in the Glyde Hill and Chitanilga Volcanic Complexes of the lower
135 GRV. Quartz occurs as subhedral (bipyramidal) to anhedral (round and embayed) crystals or as
136 angular fragments, up to 2 mm in size.

137 The Wheepool Rhyolite (samples GH06, 23, 24c, 59) includes massive or flow-banded
138 porphyritic lavas. Phenocrysts (~10 vol.%) comprise euhedral to subhedral plagioclase (albite)
139 and K-feldspar (perthite), and minor (≤ 1 vol.%) subhedral to anhedral quartz, mostly ≤ 1 mm in
140 diameter. The microcrystalline to micropoikilitic groundmass (<10 to 50 μm) is mainly composed
141 of quartz, K-feldspar and albite (Fig. 2a).

142 The Lake Gairdner Rhyolite (samples GH51, 87) contains massive to eutaxitic, fiamme-bearing
143 ignimbrite with quartz, K-feldspar (perthite) and plagioclase (albite) crystals and crystal
144 fragments (≤ 2 mm, ~20 vol.%), and minor lithic fragments in a fine grained, eutaxitic-textured
145 matrix. Quartz crystals are sub- to euhedral (bipyramidal). The matrix is mainly composed of
146 platy and cusped devitrified glass shards, <0.5 mm in size.

147 The Waurea Pyroclastics (samples GH13, 95) include several different pyroclastic facies that
148 vary in grain size, composition and texture. The observed samples are from one of these facies,
149 composed of violet to pale grey, relatively poorly-sorted crystal tuff. It contains quartz as a major
150 component (5-10 vol.%), other than K-feldspar, minor plagioclase (albite), and lithic fragments
151 (<5 vol.%). Quartz occurs as anhedral (round to lobate) to subhedral crystals and angular crystal
152 fragments, ≤ 1 -2 mm in diameter, and is present as separate crystals or included in lithic

153 fragments. The matrix is fine grained (≤ 0.3 mm) and mainly composed of devitrified glass
154 shards.

155 **4.2 Dykes**

156 The Glyde Hill Volcanic Complex is intruded by the Moonamby Dyke Suite (samples GH15, 70,
157 70B, 92). The dykes are up to tens of metres wide, show mostly homogeneous texture and
158 contain medium- to coarse-grained phenocrysts (≤ 30 mm) of K-feldspar, quartz and minor sodic
159 plagioclase (Fig. 2b). The quartzo-feldspathic groundmass is microcrystalline (grain size ≤ 50 μm)
160 to poikilitic. Quartz phenocrysts are anhedral and deeply embayed (or “vermicular”).

161 **4.3 Hiltaba Suite granite**

162 The Hiltaba Suite (samples GH37, 38) at Kokatha consists of leucocratic, equigranular to seriate
163 granite, mainly composed of quartz, K-feldspar, plagioclase and biotite. The granite is medium to
164 coarse-grained (≤ 10 mm, sample GH37), and locally finer grained (\leq a few mm, sample GH38).
165 Quartz and K-feldspar show mutual inclusion relationships and intergrowth (granophyric)
166 textures are also present.

167 **4.4 Felsic enclaves**

168 Enclaves of granite (sample GH29, 32) included in some of the volcanic units are centimetres to
169 several metres in size, and unfoliated. They contain mm-scale crystals of K-feldspar and
170 amoeboid quartz, separated by a microcrystalline quartz +K-feldspar +albite groundmass (Fig.
171 2c). Feldspar phenocrysts are surrounded by a granophyric rim, up to 0.5 mm thick, formed by
172 an intergrowth of K-feldspar and quartz crystals oriented perpendicular to the margins of
173 phenocrysts (Fig. 2d). These intergrowths make up 10-20 vol.% of the groundmass. The
174 enclaves occur in several felsic lava units and have round and gradational margins with the host
175 rock. Around the enclaves, the host rock contains scattered anhedral quartz and K-feldspar
176 crystals.

177 **4.5 Geochemistry**

178 The Gawler SLIP has a wide SiO_2 compositional range (Fig. 3, Table 2; Giles, 1988); with a
179 sharp predominance of felsic rocks ($> 90\%$ in outcrop, Allen et al., 2008). The rocks are
180 characterised by high K_2O (up to 7-8 wt.%), are calc-alkalic to alkali-calcic in the modified alkali-
181 lime plot (Frost et al., 2001), and are metaluminous to mildly peraluminous (aluminium saturation
182 index ≤ 1.1 -1.2). Locally higher aluminium saturation index values are interpreted as due to
183 alteration. Rare earth elements, Y, and Zr increase with silica and peak at ~ 70 wt.% SiO_2 . Other
184 high field strength elements (Nb, Ta, and Th) and Rb increase even in the most silica-rich
185 compositions. All samples used in this study plot in the rhyolite field in the total alkalis vs silica
186 diagram (Fig. 3). Primitive mantle-normalised plots (Fig. 3) have similar trends with Ba, Sr, Ti, P,
187 and Eu negative spikes, and slightly decreasing rare earth element distributions ($\text{La}_N/\text{Yb}_N =$
188 12 ± 3.5 , $n = 12$).

189 **5. Intra-granular textures and zoning of quartz**

190 **5.1 Quartz cathodoluminescence**

191 CL images can highlight cryptic intra-granular textures, undetectable in both optical and back-
192 scattered electron (BSE) microscopy. These textures include: 1) growth-related textures (growth
193 zones), twinning, grain shapes and growth modes (e.g. D'Lemos et al., 1997); 2) resorption-
194 related textures, indicated by intersection relationships between growth surfaces
195 (“unconformity”); 3) healed brittle deformation structures. Other than being an intrinsic
196 characteristic of each mineral, CL is strongly dependent on defects in the crystal lattice,
197 particularly point defects induced by trace element substitutions, or “activators”. Therefore, CL
198 can be used as a proxy for trace element distribution (e.g. Müller et al., 2000; Perny et al., 1992;
199 Watt et al., 1997).

200 CL textures are referred to as primary and secondary, in reference to textures formed during and
201 after crystallisation, respectively. Among primary textures, oscillatory and step zones are defined
202 by similarity with compositional zones in plagioclase (Sibley et al., 1976; Watt et al., 1997).
203 Oscillatory zones are periodic, small-scale (μm -scale) and small-amplitude variations in CL and
204 are considered to be due to slow, diffusion-controlled crystallisation under conditions of low
205 oversaturation (Bottinga et al., 1966; Shore and Fowler, 1996; Sibley et al., 1976). These
206 conditions are possible in a relatively static magma which preserves diffusive boundary layers at
207 the crystal-liquid interface (Allègre et al., 1981; Sibley et al., 1976). Thus, oscillatory zones are
208 interpreted to be the result of local self-organisation of trace elements at the interface between
209 melt and crystal. Conversely, step zones are defined as wide, non-periodic and larger-scale
210 (\geq tens of μm) variations in CL intensity. Unlike oscillatory zones, step zones are interpreted to be
211 due to “external” or “extrinsic” factors independent of local crystallisation and reflect variations in
212 intensive parameters (P, T) and magma composition caused by processes such as crystal
213 settling, magma convection, mixing, and reservoir replenishment (Shore and Fowler, 1996).
214 The most common secondary textures are healed fractures, healed radial cracks around melt
215 and fluid inclusions, and modifications (“smudging”) of primary zones due to redistribution of
216 lattice defects (e.g. Boiron et al., 1992; Götze et al., 2005; Müller et al., 2010).
217 Comparison of CL images allows groups of crystals with similar zoning patterns to be identified;
218 zones can be correlated among crystals in the same group. The classification of CL textures is
219 subjective. The following classification criteria have been adopted: presence of step zones and
220 oscillatory zones, intersection between CL textures, CL intensity and shape of step zone
221 margins. Crystals from each unit show one or more CL zoning patterns.

222 223 *5.1.1 Volcanic units (samples GH06, 23, 59, 13, 95, 51, 87)*

224 Comparison of approximately 120 grains reveals three main CL step zones (1-3, Fig. 4).
225 Observed crystals consist of one (2, 3) or two zones (1, 3; 2, 3). Zone (1) is CL-dark,
226 homogeneous or progressively darker towards the rim, and locally oscillatory zoned. Zone (1)
227 occurs as anhedral crystal cores rimmed by zone (3). The contact between zones (1) and (3)

228 discordantly truncates internal growth (oscillatory) zones. Zone (2) is CL-bright and oscillatory
229 zoned. Zone (2) has round margins and either occurs as cores discordantly surrounded by zone
230 (3) or forms the whole crystal. Zone (3) is relatively CL-bright, oscillatory zoned, and has
231 euhedral to subhedral concordant margins. Zones (1) and (2) were not found in contact. Crystals
232 apparently formed by zone (3) only (Fig. 4c, g) may be artefacts of sectioning. Oscillatory zones
233 in zones (1), (2), and (3) are mostly planar and parallel, indicating that the crystals maintained
234 euhedral shapes throughout most of their growth. In addition to zones (1) to (3), thin (<100 µm),
235 irregular-bordered bright rims are locally present around phenocrysts (Fig. 4a). These rims have
236 similar CL characteristics to the groundmass quartz.

237

238 5.1.2 *Dykes* (samples GH15, 70, 70B, 92)

239 Approximately 120 CL images of more than 70 quartz grains from three different dykes of the
240 Moonamby Dyke Suite were compared. Unlike in the volcanic units, the main step zones are
241 similar and can be correlated between crystals in each dyke, although significant differences can
242 be seen among different dykes (Fig. 5). Step zones are evident in two of the dykes and are
243 superimposed by planar (euhedral) to irregular and convoluted oscillatory zones (Fig. 5a-d).
244 Numerous quartz grains have lobate growth surfaces (oscillatory zones). Some lobes extend
245 outwards and define embayments at the grain margin or have been overgrown, resulting in the
246 formation of melt inclusions (Fig. 5c, d).

247 In dyke 1 (samples GH70, 70B), three main CL step zones, separated by sharp boundaries, can
248 be distinguished (core, mantle, rim; Fig. 5a-c). The core is bright and anhedral and has lobate
249 margins. The core is surrounded by a CL-dark mantle, in which oscillatory zones overall
250 decrease in luminescence towards the rim. Both the core-mantle and the mantle-rim boundaries
251 discordantly truncate the internal textures. In a few cases, the mantle-rim boundary cuts through
252 the mantle and into the core (Fig. 5b). The rim is relatively bright and homogeneous. In addition
253 to these three step zones, phenocrysts are locally overgrown by a bright, thin (<20 µm), and
254 homogeneous external layer of quartz. This layer has similar characteristics to the
255 microcrystalline groundmass quartz.

256 In dyke 2 (GH15), two or three broadly concentric step zones (Fig. 5d) are separated by
257 transitional contacts. Wavy or lobate growth surfaces (oscillatory zones) are mainly limited to
258 discrete intervals, mostly occurring in the rim and, occasionally, in the core. Minor truncations
259 surfaces, not associated with abrupt CL changes, occur within different step zones.

260 In dyke 3 (sample GH92), phenocrysts show weakly contrasted oscillatory zones without step
261 zones. The “smudging” of oscillatory zones makes the relationship between habit and growth
262 textures unclear (Fig. 5e).

263

264 5.1.3 *Hiltaba Suite granite* (sample GH37)

265 Comparison of 15 quartz grains shows a weakly contrasted CL emission with rather irregular

266 distribution. Two zoning patterns were distinguished. The first pattern (Fig. 6a) has two nearly
267 concentric step zones (core and rim). The core is bright and homogeneous; the rim is oscillatory
268 zoned and becomes progressively darker towards the grain margin. The core-rim boundary is
269 gradational. The core does not show internal textures, whereas the rim contains weakly
270 contrasted oscillatory zones. The anhedral grain margins cut across the oscillatory zones in the
271 rim. The second pattern is characterised by a weakly contrasted to homogeneous, non-
272 concentric luminescence. The growth zones are weakly defined and do not allow detailed
273 characterisation (Fig. 6b).

274

275 *5.1.4 Felsic Enclaves* (samples GH29, 32)

276 In felsic enclaves, quartz crystals are characterised by weakly contrasted zones without step
277 zones. Weakly contrasted oscillatory zones are cross-cut by the grain margin (Fig. 6c). In some
278 crystals, CL textures are “smudged” and no concentric zones were observed. A thin CL-bright
279 overgrowth, showing similar characteristics to the groundmass, discontinuously rims the quartz
280 phenocrysts.

281

282 *5.1.5 Secondary textures*

283 Healed fractures are clearly distinguishable in CL as low emission (dark grey-black) bands, up to
284 a few tens of μm wide. In the granite and some of the dykes, healed cracks form a dense
285 network throughout quartz crystals. Trails of fluid inclusions are aligned along fracture traces.
286 Weakly luminescent areas, characterised by irregular shape and sharp margins, are present in
287 several samples (Fig. 5e, 6b-c). These areas are not spatially related (discordant) to the primary
288 concentric zones and appear to be at least partially related to fractures and grain boundaries.
289 Apparently similar textures were reported by (D'Lemos et al., 1997; Van den Kerkhof and Hein,
290 2001).

291 **5.2 Quartz trace element content**

292 Trace element concentrations in different CL zones were determined in core-to-rim microprobe
293 profiles (Fig. 7, Table 3). The different CL zones are characterised by different trace element
294 contents (Fig. 8). The total range in Ti concentration is approximately 20 to 130 ppm and Ti
295 abundance shows a positive correlation with CL intensity (Fig. 7, 8). The correlation between Ti
296 concentration and the blue $\sim 420\text{-nm}$ CL emission has been found in other studies (e.g. Müller et
297 al., 2002) This is a prominent emission that dominates panchromatic images, and justifies the
298 use of CL brightness as a proxy for Ti distribution (e.g. Müller et al., 2005; Wark and Watson,
299 2006). Iron content is in the range 10-330 ppm; Al is in the range 100-680 ppm and in places it is
300 above 3000 ppm. Aluminium and Fe abundances are not correlated with CL, and no clear
301 correlation was found between trace elements. Abundances of Ti in adjacent analyses along
302 parallel traverses are very similar, the differences being comparable with, or less than, analytical
303 error. Iron abundances are also similar in adjacent analyses. Conversely, Al content locally is

304 significantly different, in the order of several tens to hundreds of ppm. Such differences may be
305 due to the presence of microinclusions or surface contamination introduced during the polishing
306 process with alumina powder.

307 **6. Discussion**

308 ***6.1 Crystallisation history of quartz recorded by crystal stratigraphy***

309 When interpreting compositional zones of crystals, comparisons are made on core-to-rim profiles
310 and between crystals or crystal populations. When analysing single profiles, stepped profiles,
311 commonly associated with dissolution and indicating compositional breaks, are contrasted with
312 smooth profiles, indicating gradual changes of intensive parameters or composition. When
313 comparing zones of different crystals, the following combinations can be envisaged: 1) crystal
314 cores and rims are similar (correlatable), 2) cores are similar, but rims are different, 3) cores are
315 different, but rims are different, and 4) cores and rims are different (e.g. Wallace and Bergantz,
316 2005).

317 Planar and parallel CL growth zones (Fig. 4) indicate that the crystals were euhedral and their
318 facets remained parallel during crystallisation. Wavy and lobate CL growth zones (Fig. 5c, d)
319 indicate that growth was “disturbed” and the crystals did not maintain a euhedral habit
320 throughout. Lobes preserved at the crystal margin define embayments, and are especially
321 abundant in dykes in the lower GRV. Deeply embayed (“vermicular”) quartz has been reported in
322 other shallow intrusions (e.g. Chang and Meinert, 2004). Embayments have been mostly
323 interpreted as evidence of resorption resulting from temperature increase, depressurisation or
324 compositional variations (magma mixing) (e.g. Bachmann et al., 2002; Nekvasil, 1991).
325 However, the fact that some embayments reflect CL growth textures, rather than truncating
326 them, indicates that resorption is not always responsible, as also suggested by other studies
327 (e.g. Lowenstern, 1995; Müller et al., 2000).

328 Growth-related irregular or lobate textures may be due to a physical impediment such as a
329 mineral or fluid phase stuck on the surface of the quartz crystal (Fig. 4e). However, in most
330 cases shown in this study, no impediment is apparent (Fig. 5). During growth in the magma,
331 crystals can depart from a flat geometry and develop bulges, depending on the degree of
332 undercooling (oversaturation; MacLellan and Trembath, 1991). These “topographic” highs on the
333 crystal surface will grow preferentially because of their higher degree of exposure to the
334 elements necessary for crystallisation. Therefore, small irregularities in the surface, once
335 created, may be enhanced by further crystallisation and evolve into wavy and lobate textures.
336 Although quartz embayments are not always due to resorption, there are other indicators of
337 quartz resorption. Discordance between CL growth zones and grain margins (Fig. 4, 6c) indicate
338 that quartz phenocrysts underwent multiple resorption episodes, implying that the magma shifted
339 between silica-saturated and silica-undersaturated conditions.

340 ***6.2 Evidence for temperature increase***

341 Assuming equilibrium crystallisation, trace element uptake of quartz is controlled by 1) magma
342 composition, and 2) trace elements' quartz-melt distribution coefficients ($K_{Qtz/melt} = C_{Qtz}/C_{melt}$), in
343 their turn influenced by the intensive parameters (P, T) and bulk melt composition. Therefore,
344 progressive changes in trace element content of quartz may be expected as a consequence of
345 normal compositional and thermal evolution, even in a magma crystallising as a closed system.
346 Titanium content, in particular, is controlled by the equilibration temperature of quartz (Ti-in-
347 quartz "TitaniQ" geothermometer; Wark and Watson, 2006) according to the equation:
348 $T(K) = -3765/[\log(X_{Ti}/a_{Ti})-5.69]$,
349 where X_{Ti} is the content of Ti in quartz in ppm, and a_{Ti} is the activity of Ti in the coexisting melt.
350 This relationship between Ti content and crystallisation temperature, and the correlation between
351 CL intensity and Ti content (Fig. 7, 8) allow CL characteristics of each quartz grain to be used as
352 an indicator of the crystallisation history of quartz.
353 Although the geothermometer was calibrated in Ti-saturated conditions (in the presence of
354 rutile), it can also be applied to rutile-free magmas, provided that the activity of Ti is known. Most
355 rhyolitic magmas are Ti-undersaturated, and a_{Ti} is typically in the interval 0.5-1 (e.g. Hayden
356 and Watson, 2007; Wiebe et al., 2007). In the lower GRV, Ti oxide occurs 1) as an exsolution
357 phase in Fe-Ti oxide; 2) in late-crystallised 'pockets' of minerals, together with zircon and apatite;
358 and 3) as anhedral grains interstitial between groundmass crystals. Therefore, Ti oxide is not
359 considered in equilibrium with the melt, implying $a_{Ti} < 1$. Under these conditions, application of
360 the geothermometer for $a_{Ti} = 1$ would give underestimated (minimum) temperatures.
361 Titanium activity can be estimated based on experimental work (Hayden and Watson, 2007) if an
362 independent estimate of temperature is available. The zircon saturation model (Watson and
363 Harrison, 1983) can be applied to felsic whole-rock samples and quartz-hosted melt inclusions
364 (Agangi et al., under revision) to estimate magmatic temperatures (Table 2). We calculated Ti
365 saturation concentration (ppm) using the model of Hayden and Watson (2007) at zircon
366 saturation temperatures, and then obtained Ti activity by assuming Henrian behaviour, or $a_{Ti} =$
367 $Ti(\text{measured})/Ti(\text{saturation})$. This calculation yields average activity values of $a_{Ti} \sim 0.60$ (Fig. 9,
368 Table 2).
369 Temperature estimates based on zircon saturation of the magma and on Ti content of quartz
370 (Wark and Watson, 2006) overlap only partially (Fig. 9). Such mismatch of T estimates may be
371 partially due to sampling bias (differences within and between units), and to the effect of
372 pressure on Ti intake of quartz (Thomas et al., 2010). Further uncertainty can be added by the
373 effect of F on the solubility of zircon (Keppler, 1993).
374 Despite the uncertainty in the application of the method, abrupt variations of Ti concentration in
375 quartz crystals (step zones) are not consistent with a continuous compositional and thermal
376 evolution of the magma. They reflect discrete events, and require sudden changes in the
377 crystallisation conditions.
378 Although a_{Ti} has a profound influence on the estimates of crystallisation temperature, it only has

379 a minor effect on the temperature difference between zones (ΔT , Fig. 10). Some quartz
380 phenocrysts show bright CL rims around dark cores (e.g. Fig. 4a, e). These luminescent rims
381 cross-cut internal growth zones and are associated with a rimwards increase in Ti content
382 (reverse zoning). Under the assumption of constant pressure and a_{Ti} during crystallisation (the
383 latter condition is achieved if TiO_2 was buffered by the crystallisation of Fe-Ti oxide), and
384 assuming a value of $a_{Ti} = 0.5$, the measured Ti increase corresponds to a core-rim temperature
385 increase of up to $+70^\circ C$ for the volcanic units (zones 1 to 3, Table 3). In the Moonamby Dyke
386 Suite, core-mantle and mantle-rim maximum ΔT can be estimated in $-150^\circ C$ and $+110^\circ C$,
387 respectively. Temperature differences between quartz zones of $>100^\circ C$ have been reported
388 previously (Smith et al., 2010; Wark et al., 2007).

389 Trace element diffusion profiles can be used to estimate residence time of crystals at high
390 temperature (diffusion clock; Chakraborty, 2008). The largest Ti gradient measured between
391 step zones is ~ 60 ppm over short distances of $\leq 10-20 \mu m$ (analyses 2-3, grain 70-14 line 1,
392 Table 3). Assuming an initial step-like profile and considering Ti diffusivity in quartz (in the order
393 of $10^{-22} m^2/s$ at $800^\circ C$; Cherniak et al., 2007), this gradient implies short residence time at high
394 temperature ($\leq 10^2-10^3$ years) after crystallisation. Thus, the volcanic units and the dykes
395 experienced rapid cooling by eruption and shallow emplacement shortly after quartz
396 crystallisation, which prevented diffusion of Ti and allowed preservation of CL zones. Sharp CL
397 zones and Ti gradients in volcanic units and dykes contrast with granite samples. We interpret
398 the “smudged” CL zones of granite quartz as the result of slow cooling of these rocks.

399 **6.3 Coexisting quartz populations with different crystallisation histories: magma chamber** 400 **dynamics**

401 One of the most prominent characteristics emerging from the study of quartz in the volcanic units
402 of the lower GRV is the coexistence, in the same unit and even in the same sample, of crystal
403 populations showing contrasting zoning patterns and trace element content (Fig. 4, 8). This
404 observation suggests that quartz crystals formed under different conditions and were later
405 mixed, and therefore implies a dynamic regime in the magma chamber (Fig. 11). In the volcanic
406 units, CL-dark low-Ti (zone 1) and bright high-Ti (zone 2) quartz must have crystallised
407 separately. Subsequently, quartz crystals underwent partial resorption (truncation of growth
408 zones), either independently or after being juxtaposed. Finally, some of the resorbed crystals of
409 quartz (1) and (2) underwent Si-(over)saturated conditions and crystallisation was resumed
410 (zone 3).

411 The question can be asked whether these quartz populations were carried by melts with different
412 origins and compositions that mixed in the lower GRV magma chamber. Resorption and
413 disequilibrium textures have been widely used as evidence for magma mixing and crustal
414 assimilation (e.g. Streck, 2008). Reverse zoning in quartz has been interpreted as evidence for
415 an increase in either Ti and/or crystallisation temperature due to the injection of mafic magma
416 into the magma chamber (Müller et al., 2005; Shane et al., 2008; Wark et al., 2007; Wark and

417 Watson, 2006; Wiebe et al., 2007).

418 Magma mixing and open-system processes have been shown to be common place in many
419 felsic magmas on the basis of isotopic data showing crystal-melt disequilibrium (e.g. Charlier et
420 al., 2007; Davidson et al., 2007; Martin et al., 2010), and injection of mafic magma at the base of
421 felsic intrusions has been proven on the basis of field relationships (e.g. Turnbull et al., 2010;
422 Wiebe et al., 2004). Basalt and basaltic andesite cropping out in the lower GRV (Blissett et al.,
423 1993) and mafic igneous inclusions described in the upper GRV (Allen et al., 2003; Stewart,
424 1994), together with considerable variations of crystallisation temperatures between quartz
425 zones, suggest the involvement of mafic magmas. On the other hand, mixing with a more mafic
426 magma would cause an increase in Ca-femic components, and this would be expected to be
427 reflected on the Fe content of quartz. This is not apparent from the microprobe analyses of
428 quartz as Fe content does not correlate with Ti (Fig. 8). Therefore, although the data presented
429 cannot give conclusive evidence of open-system processes in the GRV, mixing of mafic magma
430 may have occurred in the rocks described here.

431 As an explanation for these features, we propose re-heating and convective stirring and
432 overturning of the magma chamber (self-mixing; Couch et al., 2001). According to this model,
433 hot mafic magma is intruded at the base of a silicic crystal-rich magma chamber; heat transfer
434 forms a layer of hot and buoyant silicic magma that becomes unstable and rises in plumes. The
435 rising plumes cause convection in the magma chamber, accounting for the coexistence of
436 phenocrysts with different crystallisation histories. The temperature increase – possibly
437 accompanied by magma contamination – explains resorption textures and the reverse zoning.
438 In contrast to the volcanic units, quartz zones and textures can be correlated among crystals
439 within single dykes. This relationship implies common crystallisation conditions and shared
440 crystallisation history, and indicates that quartz in dykes crystallised in a relatively stable, non-
441 convecting portion of the magma, possibly roughly in situ (in the dykes).

442 One implication of this textural and compositional difference between extrusive and shallow
443 intrusive units is that the dykes cannot be the “feeders” of the volcanic units. They may have fed
444 units that are not any longer preserved in the area, or may represent injections of magma that
445 never reached the surface.

446 Modern models of felsic igneous systems agree on the fact that magma chambers are mostly
447 composed of largely solid crystal mush with interstitial melt (e.g. Bachmann and Bergantz,
448 2008), mostly incapable of bulk flow (Vigneresse et al., 1996). Large crustal intrusions are
449 assembled incrementally, via successive injections of magma and do not exist as large volumes
450 of molten rock at one time (Glazner et al., 2004; Lipman, 2007). Geophysical studies and drilling
451 campaigns have failed to identify large pools of molten rock underneath volcanic systems
452 (Detrick et al., 1990). Popular models of felsic magma chambers propose a zoned structure with
453 largely solid margins, an intermediate crystal mush, and a melt-rich core-top (Hildreth, 2004;
454 Hildreth and Wilson, 2007). Boundaries between these zones shift inwards and outwards, or

455 “wax and wane”, according to the thermal regime (Bachmann et al., 2002).
456 The mechanism proposed for the lower GRV is only apparently in conflict with existing models.
457 In fact, mixing of crystal populations does not need the entire magma chamber to be largely
458 molten at one time, and may occur locally in hotter volumes of magma located at the top or core
459 of the chamber or in hot, rising plumes. A similar mechanism has been also applied to large
460 felsic magma chambers to explain contrasting mineral textures (e.g. Fish Canyon Tuff;
461 Bachmann et al., 2002).

462 **6.4 Felsic enclaves: melting of a plutonic precursor**

463 The felsic enclaves have similar mineralogical, textural, and compositional characteristics, in
464 terms of both major and trace elements (Fig. 3), to the Hiltaba Suite granite and the GRV.
465 Therefore, these enclaves are interpreted to be the product of partial re-melting of an early-
466 crystallised portion of the GRV-HS magma, followed by a rapid cooling. Evidence of partial
467 melting includes anhedral and lobate textures of quartz and K-feldspar, truncation of growth
468 zones in quartz, and the presence of fine-grained groundmass (Fig. 6c). Rapid crystallisation of
469 the partial melt is indicated by the granophyric rims (quenching coronas) on K-feldspar and the
470 microcrystalline groundmass (Fig. 2c, d). Granophyric rims indicate eutectic growth of quartz and
471 K-feldspar under conditions of moderate-high oversaturation (MacLellan and Trembath, 1991),
472 most likely during eruption of the host lavas. Growth under conditions of high-oversaturation
473 (quenching) may result from cooling at the surface and/or from increase of solidus temperature
474 due to decompression. Similar textures in the Fish Canyon Tuff and the Alid volcanic field have
475 been explained by rapid depressurisation and devolatilisation (Lipman et al., 1997; Lowenstern
476 et al., 1997). Similar enclaves have been found in the upper GRV (Allen et al., 2003; Garner and
477 McPhie, 1999), suggesting that the process of re-melting of granite continued during the second
478 stage of the volcanic history of the province. Processes of re-melting of mostly or completely
479 solid portions of the earlier granitoid magma and recycling of crystals have been inferred for
480 other intermediate to silicic magmas (e.g. Bachmann et al., 2002, 2007; Charlier et al., 2005;
481 Murphy et al., 2000).

482 **7. Conclusions**

483 Succession of quartz zones (step zones) with different compositions and textures (“crystal
484 stratigraphy”) records information on the crystallisation history. Primary (syn-crystallisation) CL
485 textures in quartz are better preserved in rapidly cooled volcanic units and dykes of the lower
486 GRV than in slowly cooled granite samples. Preservation of sharp Ti profiles suggests short
487 residence time of quartz crystals at high temperature: eruption (or shallow emplacement of
488 dykes) occurred shortly (10^2 - 10^3 years) after quartz crystallisation.

489 Different degrees of complexity can be observed in primary CL textures of quartz phenocryst.
490 The simplest case occurs in the dykes, where zones can be correlated among quartz
491 phenocrysts. The homogeneity of quartz populations in single dykes is interpreted as evidence

492 that quartz crystals shared the same crystallisation history and probably crystallised largely after
493 isolation of these small magma batches in intrusions. Embayments are common in quartz in the
494 dykes and are mirrored by CL textures, suggesting that, in many cases, embayments had a
495 primary (growth-related, rather than resorption-related) origin.

496 In the volcanic units, multiple quartz populations coexist in the same sample. Each of these
497 populations records a complex history of crystallisation and resorption events. The volcanic units
498 tapped a larger part of the magma characterised by a dynamic regime, which resulted in
499 juxtaposition of different quartz populations, each with different crystallisation histories.

500 Geothermometric estimates based on Ti content of quartz zones suggest significant differences
501 of quartz crystallisation temperatures (ΔT up to 70°C in volcanic units) between adjacent zones.
502 Alternating events of crystallisation and resorption (truncation of growth textures), reverse zoning
503 (rimwards increase in Ti content) of quartz, and melting of already crystallised portions of the
504 magma chamber (felsic enclaves) are consistent with non-monotonous thermal evolution of the
505 GRV-HS magma and suggest the occurrence of different thermal “pulses”.

506 The described textural and microchemical features are best explained by re-heating and
507 convective stirring of the magma chamber (self-mixing; Couch et al., 2001). Heat input
508 represented both the “engine” for convection and the cause of re-melting of previously
509 crystallised magma, and was possibly supplied by underplating of mafic magma. Open-system
510 processes (injection of mafic magma and mixing with the felsic magma) may have played a role.

511 **Acknowledgments**

512 This research was funded by ARC-CODES grants to the authors. Field and logistical support was
513 provided by the Primary Industries and Resources of South Australia (PIRSA). Dr. Karsten
514 Gömann, Philip Robinson and Katie McGoldrick (University of Tasmania) are thanked for analytical
515 assistance. The manuscript was significantly improved by the comments of two anonymous
516 reviewers.

517

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Fig. 1. Interpreted geology of the Gawler Craton (after Daly et al., 1998; Betts and Giles, 2006, Hand et al., 2007). Inset shows the location of the Gawler Craton.

Fig. 2. Sample textures in the lower GRV. a Wheepool Rhyolite (sample GH23, GR 0517647-6488394). b Moonamby Dyke Suite (sample GH15, GR 0509965-6502023). c, d Felsic enclave (sample GH29, GR 0 524305-6495515). The enclave was included in the Whyeela Dacite (host not shown). d Granophyric rim around K-feldspar crystal in felsic enclave. All photomicrographs are in plane polarised transmitted light. GR: Grid reference GDA94. Abbreviations: Ab albite, Kfs K-feldspar, Qtz quartz.

Fig. 3. Whole-rock composition of the Gawler SLIP. Major oxides recalculated to 100% anhydrous and plotted as wt.%, trace elements as ppm. MALI: modified alkali-lime index, $\text{Na}_2\text{O}+\text{K}_2\text{O}-\text{CaO}$ (Frost et al., 2001); ASI: alumina saturation index, $\text{Al}/(\text{Na}+\text{K}+\text{Ca})$, mol. Normalising values in primitive mantle-normalised plots after Sun and McDonough (1989). Small symbols in Harker diagrams: data from Giles (1988); Stewart (1994); Ferris (2001); PIRSA (2006). (*) From Agangi et al. (2010).

Fig. 4. Cathodoluminescence textures in the volcanic units of the lower GRV. a, b Quartz in the Wheepool Rhyolite (sample GH23). A thin bright overgrowth is locally present (arrowed). c, d Fractured crystals in the Waurea Pyroclastics (sample GH13, GR 0515415-6501451). e-g Quartz in the Lake Gairdner Rhyolite (sample GH51, GR 0524145-6542610). A sulfide grain constituted a mechanical growth impediment for the quartz crystal (e). For e-g growth textures are highlighted. Zones (1), (2) and (3) were not found together in the same grain. Growth textures (oscillatory zones) are parallel to subhedral grain margins in zone (3), except where fractured (top of f), but are truncated by round zone boundaries or grain margins in zones (1) and (2).

Fig. 5. Cathodoluminescence textures in dykes of the lower GRV. a Round mantle-rim boundary truncates the internal growth textures (arrowed). b The core is surrounded by a discontinuous mantle. c, d Disturbances of growth (wavy CL zones) coincide with melt inclusions or embayments. e Smudged CL; the crystal is crossed by CL-dark areas related to healed cracks (arrowed). a-c sample GH70 (GR 0491376-6490439); d sample GH15; e sample GH92 (GR 0486550-6489826).

Fig. 6. Cathodoluminescence textures in the Hiltaba Suite granite (a, b) and felsic enclaves in the lower GRV (c). a "Smudged" CL zones, Hiltaba Suite (sample GH37, GR 0517317-6546439). b Dark homogeneous areas with sharp borders are partly related to cracks (sample GH37). c Quartz grain from a felsic enclave in the Whyeela Dacite showing weak oscillatory zones (dashed lines) cross-cut by grain margin, dark lobate areas associated with fractures, and a thin discontinuous bright rim (sample GH29).

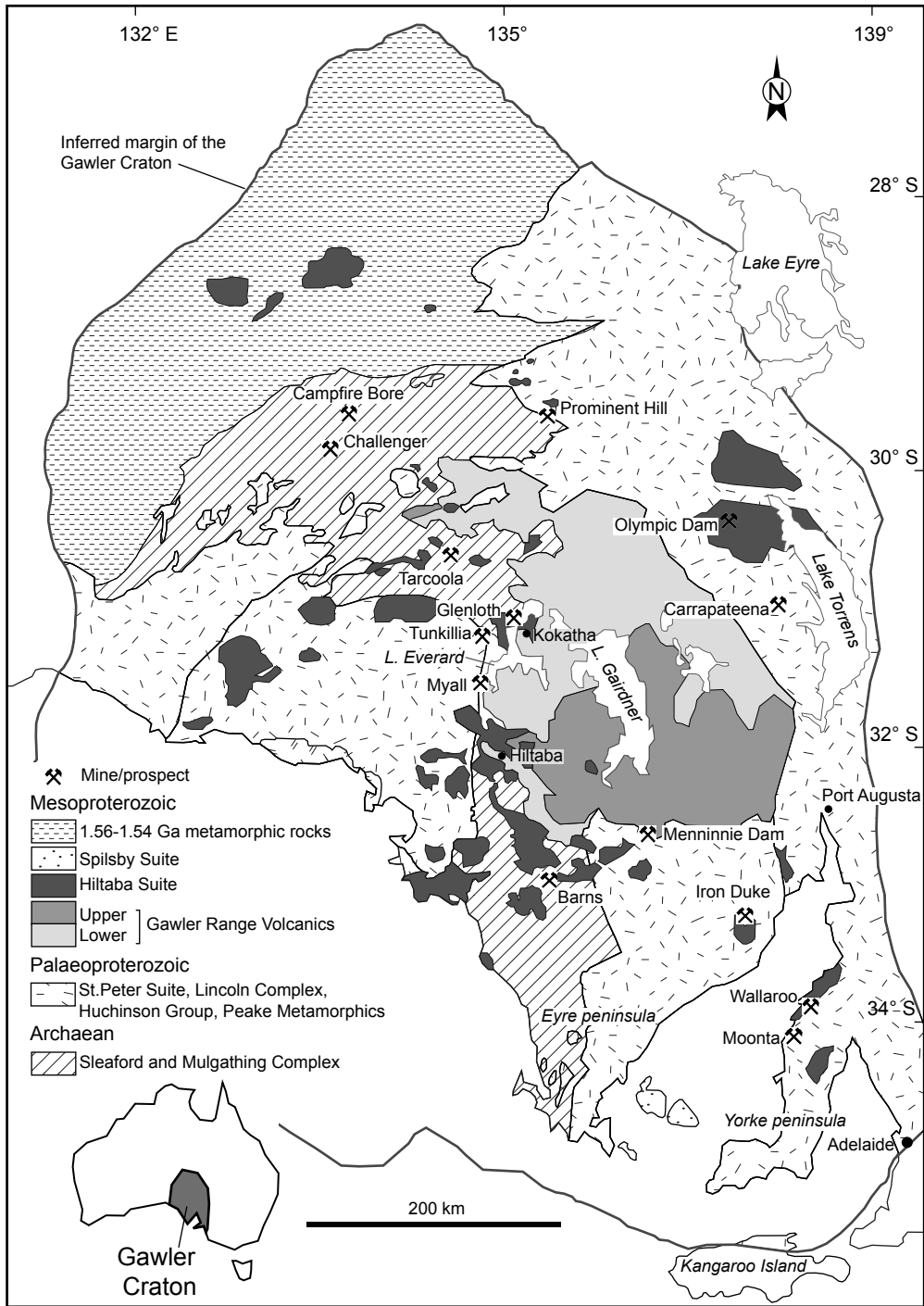
Fig. 7. Trace element concentrations in zones of quartz phenocrysts of the Moonamby Dyke Suite (a) and Lake Gairdner Rhyolite (b) compared with CL intensity. Titanium values show good correlation with CL emission. Trace element compositions are average analyses of parallel traverses and are expressed as ppm, CL as panchromatic 0-255 grey scale.

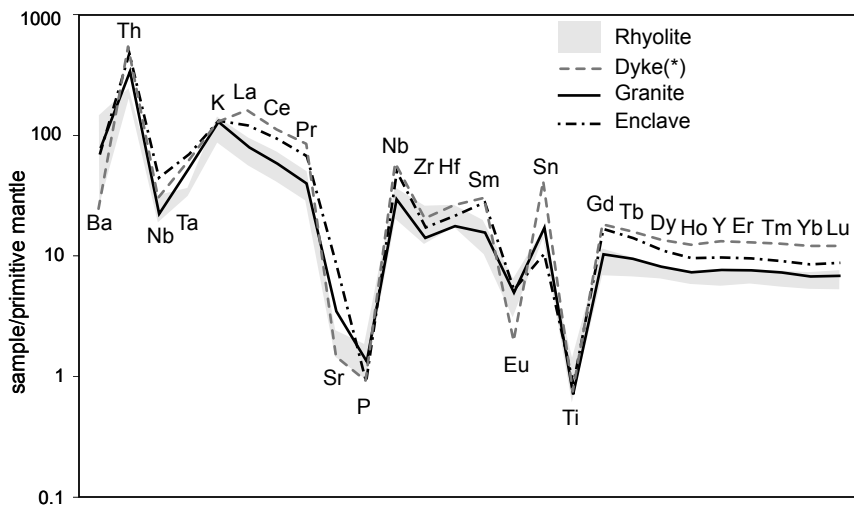
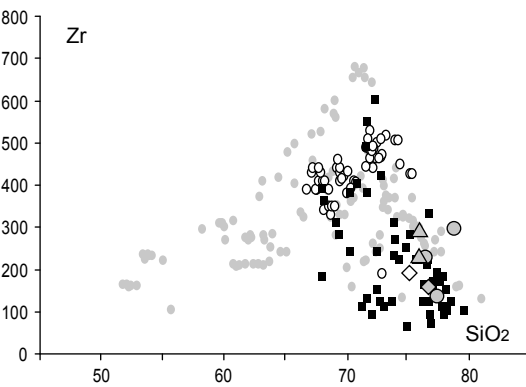
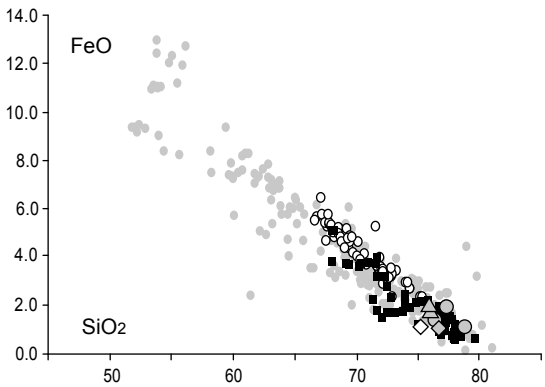
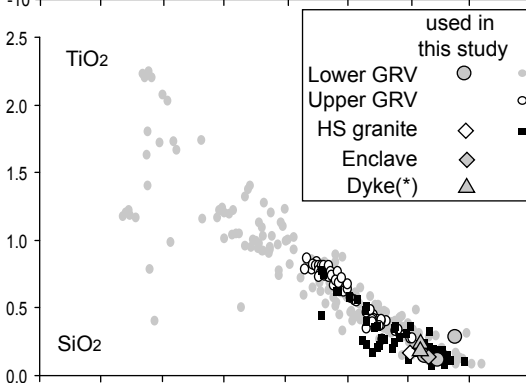
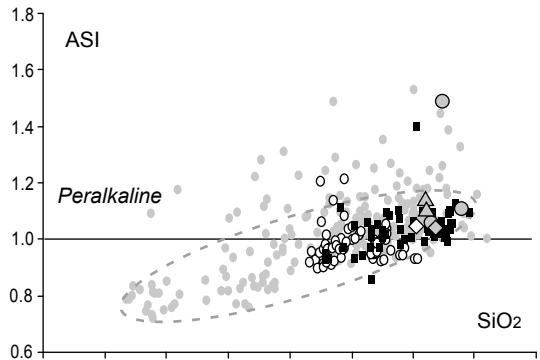
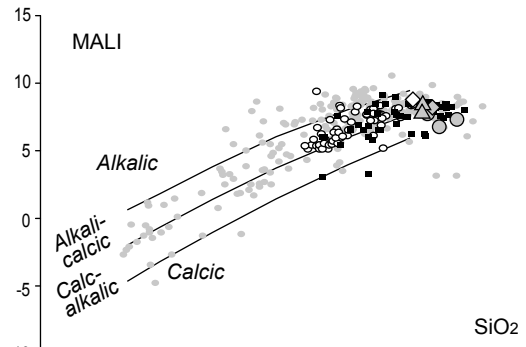
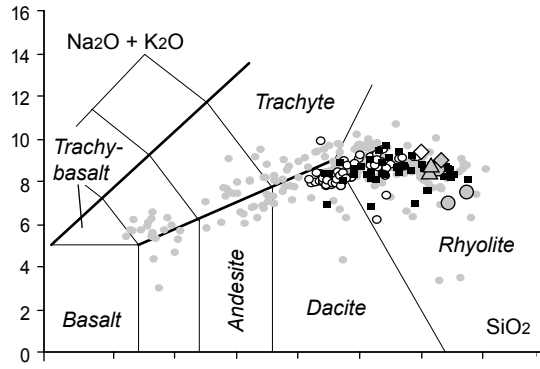
Fig. 8. Trace element composition and CL relative intensity of quartz in the volcanic units and the Moonamby Dyke Suite. Elements as ppm, CL as 0-255 grey scale. Standard deviation for Al less than symbol size. LGR Lake Gairdner Rhyolite, WP Waurea Pyroclastics, (1)-(3) quartz zones (see text).

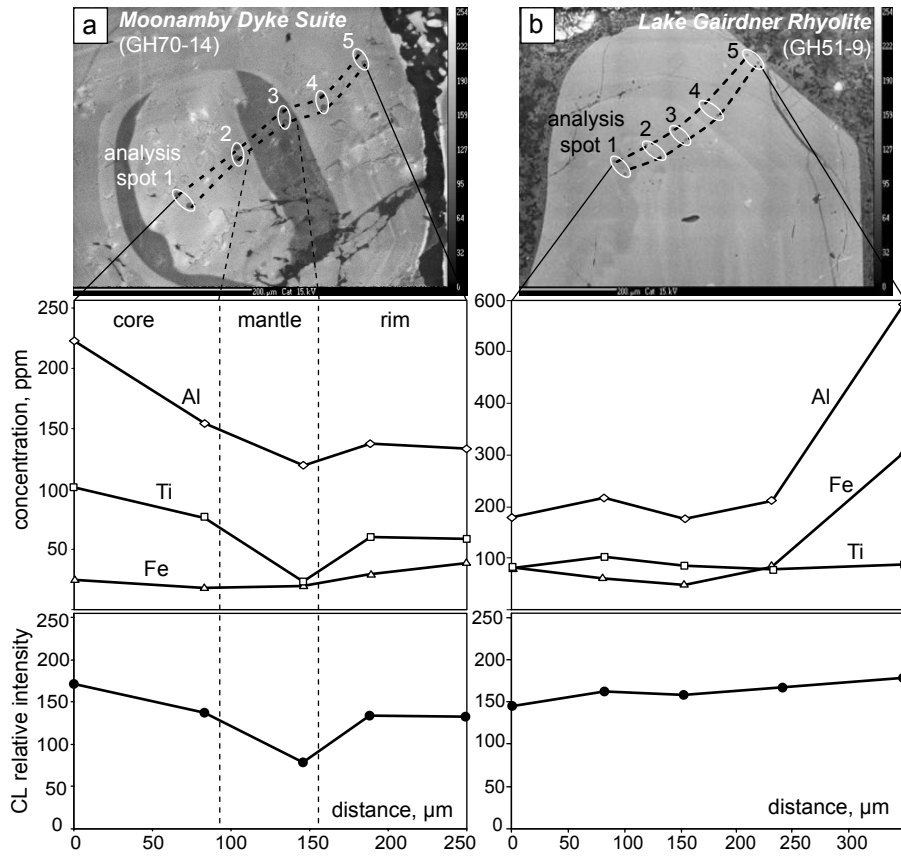
Fig. 9. Quartz crystallisation temperature (TitaniQ geothermometer; Wark and Watson, 2006) compared with rutile solubility model (Hayden and Watson, 2007). Quartz crystallisation temperature modelled Ti activity $a_{\text{Ti}} = 0.6$ in the melt. Whole-rock and melt inclusion data from Table 3.

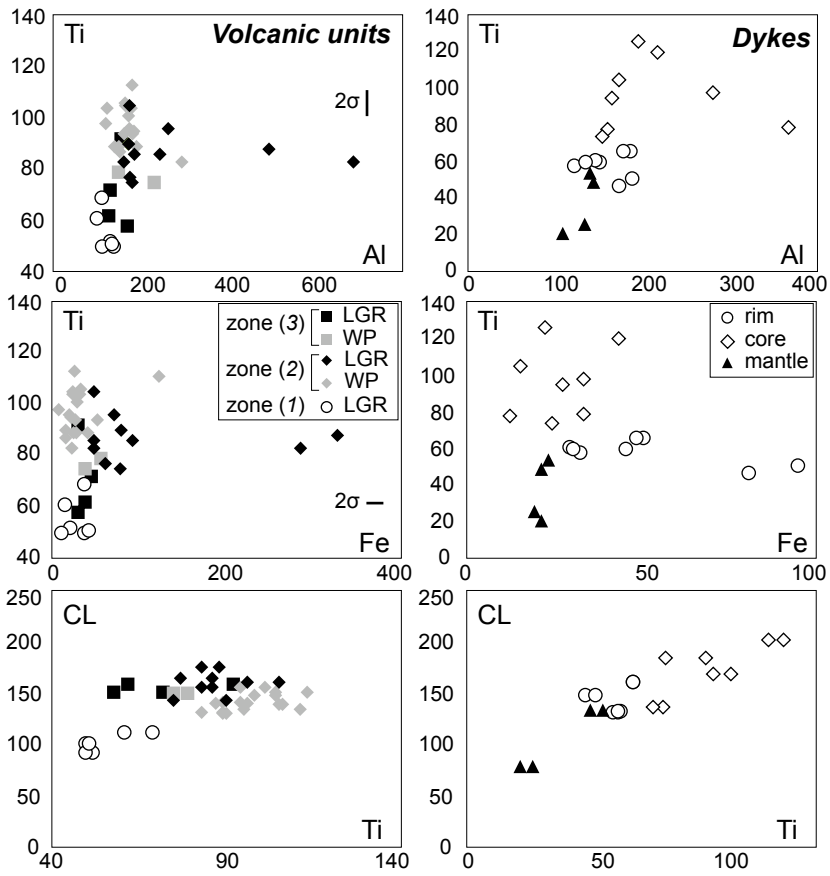
Fig. 10. Influence of Ti activity (a_{Ti}) on Ti-in-quartz geothermometry (TitaniQ geothermometer, Wark and Watson, 2006). Ti activity has significant influence on estimates of crystallisation temperature (a), but only minor influence on ΔT between crystal zones (b). Moonamby Dyke Suite, sample GH70, quartz grain 70-10.

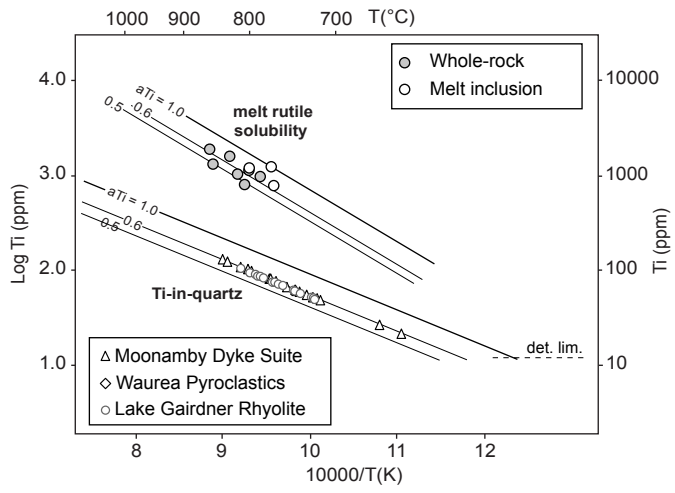
Fig. 11. Conceptual model for the crystallisation of quartz in the lower GRV magma chamber.

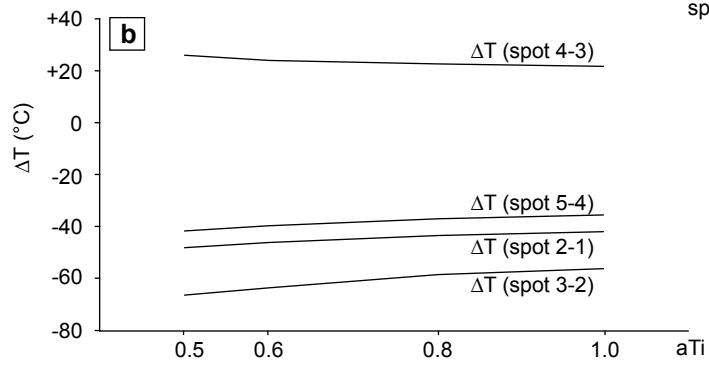
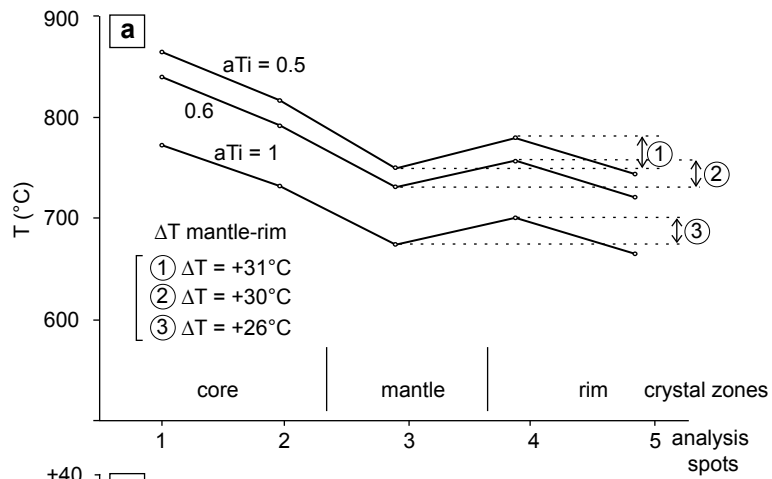


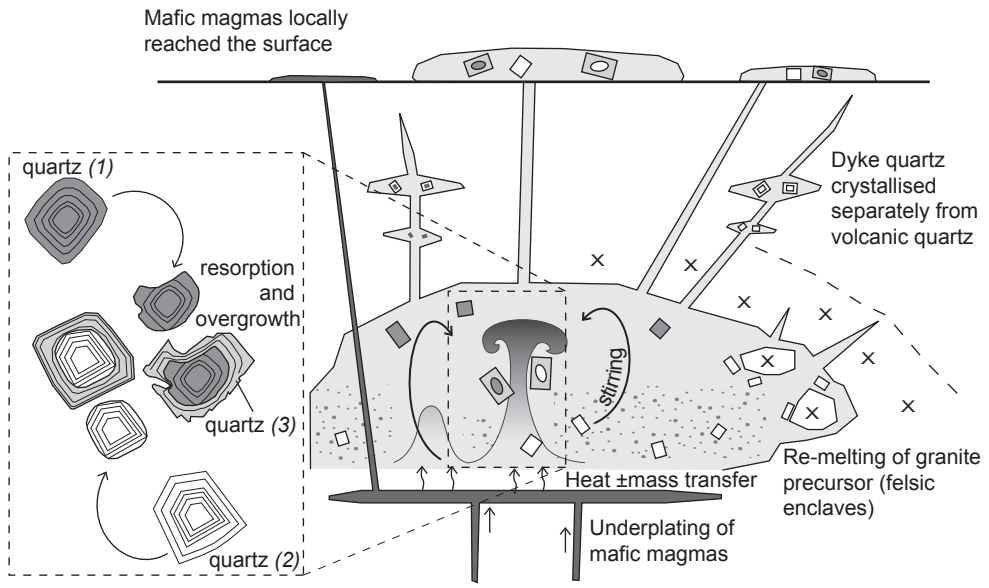












- Quartz trace elements and cathodoluminescence as a record of magmatic conditions
- Ti-in-quartz geothermometry indicates large T variations between quartz zones
- Resorption textures and reverse zoning indicate pulsating temperature conditions

Table 1: Textural and compositional characteristics of selected quartz-bearing units in the lower GRV

Unit	Wheepool Rhyolite	Lake Gairdner Rhyolite	Waurea Pyroclastics	Yantea Rhyolite- dacite	Whyeela Dacite	Moonamby Dyke Suite	Hiltaba Suite
Locality	Lake Everard	Kokatha	Lake Everard	Lake Everard	Lake Everard	Lake Everard	Kokatha
Emplacement mode	lava	ignimbrite	ignimbrite	lava	lava	shallow intrusion	intrusion
Texture	porphyritic	massive-eutaxitic	massive-eutaxitic	porphyritic	porphyritic	porphyritic	equigranular- seriate
Max grain size	≤5 mm	≤2 mm	≤2 mm	≤5 mm	≤2 mm	≤3 cm	≤10 mm
Phenocrysts/ crystals	Ab, Kfs, Qtz	Qtz, Kfs, Ab	Kfs, Qtz, Ab	Ab, ±Qtz	Ab, ±Qtz	Qtz, Ab, Kfs	Qtz, Kfs, Ab, Bt
Groundmass/matrix	Qtz, Kfs, Ab	Kfs, Qtz, Fe ox	Qtz, Kfs	Ab, Kfs, Qtz	Ab, Kfs, Qtz	Qtz, Ab, Kfs	
Accessory minerals	Ap, Zrn, Fe-Ti ox, ±REE-F-Cb, ±Mnz, ±Ti ox	Ttn, Zrn, Fe-Ti ox	Fe ox, Ti ox, Fl, Zrn	Fe ox, Ap, Zrn, Ti ox, ±REE-F-Cb	Fe-Ti ox, Ap, Fl, Zrn	Fe ox, Ti ox, Fl, Ap, Zrn, REE-F- Cb	Fe ox, Fl, Zrn, Ap
Groundmass/matrix texture	microcrystalline (< 50 µm)	vitriclastic (≤ 500 µm)	vitriclastic (≤ 300 µm)	microcrystalline- micropoikilitic (≤ 50 µm)	microcrystalline- granophyric (≤ 50 µm)	microcrystalline (≤ 100 µm), poikilitic Qtz	–
Phenocryst abundance/ crystal proportion	10%	20%	<20%	10%	<10%	20-30%	–
Quartz abundance	≤1% (phenocryst)	10% (crystal)	5-10% (crystal)	<1% (uneven distribution)	<1% (uneven distribution)	5-10% (phenocryst)	20-30%
Felsic enclaves	-	-	-	X	X	-	-

Abbreviations: Ab albite, Am amphibole, Ap apatite, Bt biotite, Cb carbonate, Cpx clinopyroxene, Fl fluorite, Kfs K-feldspar, Mag magnetite, Mnz monazite, ox oxide, Qtz quartz, Ttn titanite, Zrn zircon.

Table 2. Whole-rock and average melt inclusion compositions

Sample		GH06	GH13 vvaurea	GH51 Lake	GH15*	GH70*	GH37
Unit	detectio n limits	Wheepool Rhyolite	Pyroclastic s	Gairdner Rhyolite	Moonamby Dyke Suite	Moonamby Dyke Suite	Hiltaba Suite
SiO ₂ (wt.%)		78.16	74.85	75.67	75.60	75.16	76.25
TiO ₂		0.29	0.12	0.19	0.16	0.23	0.15
Al ₂ O ₃		11.23	11.93	12.10	11.88	12.19	12.12
Fe ₂ O ₃		1.24	2.10	2.20	1.56	2.03	1.21
MnO		0.03	0.03	0.11	0.06	0.01	0.02
MgO		0.53	0.83	0.24	0.44	0.34	0.23
CaO		0.11	0.17	0.46	0.69	0.14	0.60
Na ₂ O		3.47	1.04	1.87	2.54	2.93	2.91
K ₂ O		4.00	5.68	6.61	5.95	5.63	5.83
P ₂ O ₅		0.04	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.05	0.03
BaO		0.12	0.03	0.19	0.07	0.19	0.10
loss(inc S-)		0.97	2.81	0.44	1.37	1.00	0.50
Cl							
F							
S		<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	0.01	<0.01
Total		100.19	99.62	100.10	100.34	99.90	99.95
Li (ppm)	0.016	9.99	14.46	5.74	12.99	7.56	10.69
Be	0.008	2.00	2.41	2.30	4.35	3.64	3.27
B							
Sc	0.038	4.63	3.31	6.10	3.43	4.05	2.69
Ti	1.203	1805.33	766.69	1259.09	985.65	1509.00	930.95
V (XRF)	1.5	14.10	5.70	4.40	1.50	8.60	2.00
Cr (XRF)	1	2	2	4	2	3	1
Mn	0.410	230.66	203.42	930.83	457.51	100.51	171.85
Ni (XRF)	1	4	3	4	5	5	4
Cu (XRF)	1	1	3	6	2	2	4
Zn (XRF)	1	29	43	49	37	28	23
Ga	0.025	10.63	13.56	17.25	15.29	14.91	16.71
As	5	<5	10.36	<5	<5	<5	<5
Rb	0.044	117.36	211.03	226.47	312.05	271.64	266.91
Sr (XRF)	1	51	31	50	31	78	71
Y	0.005	33.68	29.24	26.22	60.37	44.09	35.00
Zr	0.035	299.49	138.58	292.85	231.02	232.69	161.66
Nb (XRF)	1	19	22	14	22	20	16
Mo	0.023	0.14	0.54	0.66	1.11	0.46	0.82
Ag	0.010	0.03	0.05	0.10	0.04	0.05	0.08
Cd	0.024	<0.23	<0.23	<0.23	<0.23	<0.23	<0.23
Sn	0.011	2.87	2.50	2.63	7.21	4.19	2.94
Sb	0.053	0.21	0.54	<0.06	0.44	0.11	0.21
Te	0.091	<0.37	<0.37	<0.37	<0.37	<0.37	<0.37
Cs	0.004	1.27	3.33	4.23	3.47	2.38	3.67
Ba (XRF)	4	584	199	1067	175	983	568
La	2	39.80	40.41	66.98	111.97	79.90	58.57
Ce	0.012	130.97	71.51	131.76	202.50	164.71	98.74
Pr	0.002	10.99	8.05	14.59	23.62	17.63	11.87
Nd	0.009	43.26	27.67	51.47	79.99	58.78	41.65
Sm	0.007	8.85	4.76	8.21	13.70	9.89	7.12
Eu	0.002	1.00	0.52	1.14	0.33	0.87	0.85
Gd	0.006	7.04	4.20	6.33	10.96	8.09	6.37
Tb	0.001	1.08	0.76	0.93	1.73	1.33	1.03

Dy	0.004	6.12	4.85	5.13	10.14	7.80	6.08
Ho	0.001	1.23	1.02	0.98	2.05	1.56	1.21
Er	0.003	3.79	3.28	2.90	6.21	4.90	3.65
Tm	0.003	0.57	0.53	0.42	0.94	0.76	0.55
Yb	0.003	3.66	3.58	2.63	5.97	5.05	3.46
Lu	0.003	0.57	0.56	0.40	0.91	0.78	0.53
Hf	0.004	8.40	5.59	7.87	8.21	7.59	5.54
Ta	0.002	1.51	1.28	1.29	2.50	2.35	2.26
Tl	0.010	0.64	1.01	1.12	1.43	1.25	1.40
Pb (XRF)	1.5	10	11	42	7	8	37
Bi	0.010	0.16	0.01	0.12	0.06	0.09	0.67
Th	0.002	17.82	21.78	19.35	47.07	45.68	27.09
U	0.002	2.69	1.31	3.84	9.17	2.47	1.75
Zrn sat T(°C)**		858	809	852	820	829	787
aTi		0.63	0.45	0.45	0.48	0.68	0.66

Major elements by XRF, trace elements by ICP-MS, except where XRF is indicated, melt inclusion
* from Agangi et al. (2010)

** Zircon saturation temperature (Watson and Harrison, 1983)

	inclusion average	inclusion average	inclusion average
GH32			
Felsic enclave	Moonamby Dyke Suite	Pyroclastic s	Wheepool Rhyolite
74.66	76.41	77.46	73.25
0.17	0.19	0.16	0.17
12.95	12.07	12.66	14.22
1.25	1.28	0.55	0.92
0.05	<dl	<dl	<dl
0.31	0.02	<dl	0.11
0.54	0.58	0.29	0.47
3.22	4.11	3.33	3.88
6.08	4.86	5.25	6.15
0.02	<dl	<dl	<dl
0.10	<dl	<dl	<dl
0.82			
	0.11	0.07	0.07
	0.31	0.09	0.65
<0.01	<dl	<dl	<dl
100.17	99.94	99.87	99.89
5.17	13.71	28.14	15.49
3.72	6.03	<dl	4.41
	26.55	<dl	21.24
4.19			
1112.93	1163.37	740.53	1241.44
4.10			
1			
421.01			
4			
2	55	1154	234
18	43	53	55
17.00	16.71	14.95	16.14
9.12			
259.29	367.17	303.91	311.11
169	12	0	15
45.30	52.33	18.12	34.25
193.87	209.03	119.80	143.02
32	24	27	25
16.38			
1.52			
<0.23			
1.75	9.58	4.26	5.22
0.10			
<0.37			
3.40	9.63	8.02	10.10
456	62	2	115
83.29	86.87	17.56	46.74
163.53	191.05	36.04	104.08
18.46	17.88	3.03	10.39
67.47	65.89	9.25	36.11
12.37	10.31	1.86	6.78
0.87	0.39	<dl	0.60
10.05	10.16	1.29	5.84
1.53	1.43	0.38	0.98

8.26	9.10	2.19	5.71
1.57	1.86	0.47	1.12
4.50	5.70	2.15	3.56
0.66	0.89	0.34	0.59
4.09	5.51	2.75	3.84
0.62	0.85	0.29	0.59
6.77	7.17	5.14	5.40
2.84	1.76	1.62	1.64
1.31			
21	46	41	41
0.01			
40.86	43.04	19.08	26.69
0.93	10.32	5.33	6.76
802	801	771	774
0.66	0.69	0.68	1.03

i data (EPMA and LA-ICP-MS) from Agangi et al. (under revision)

Table 3. Quartz trace element analyses (EPMA, ppm) and crystallisation temperatures

Quartz grain	analysis # (centre- rim)	Unit	Al	Fe	Ti	CL relative intensity	Quartz zone	T, °C (aTi=1)
Qtz 13-13 line1	1	WP	3347	123	111	136	2	760
	2	WP	167	25	105	141	2	753
	3	WP	125	25	104	150	2	752
	4	WP	174	30	101	158	2	748
	5	WP	232	39	75	152	3	714
Qtz 13-13 line2	1	WP	186	23	95	136	2	741
	2	WP	166	34	106	141	2	754
	3	WP	122	9	98	150	2	745
	4	WP	183	28	94	158	2	740
	5	WP	151	57	79	152	3	719
Qtz 13-6 line1	1	WP	173	17	90	132	2	734
	2	WP	180	33	104	153	2	752
	3	WP	154	17	87	142	2	730
	4	WP	142	26	89	133	2	733
	5	WP	152	42	89	143	2	733
Qtz 13-6 line2	1	WP	192	29	89	132	2	733
	2	WP	182	27	113	153	2	762
	3	WP	176	21	96	142	2	742
	4	WP	295	24	83	133	2	725
	5	WP	164	53	94	143	2	740
Qtz 51-9 line1	1	LGR	174	80	90	145	2	734
	2	LGR	264	72	96	163	2	742
	3	LGR	163	49	83	158	2	725
	4	LGR	245	93	86	167	2	729
	5	LGR	685	284	83	178	2	725
Qtz 51-9 line2	1	LGR	182	79	75	145	2	714
	2	LGR	176	49	105	163	2	753
	3	LGR	187	49	86	158	2	729
	4	LGR	177	62	77	167	2	716
	5	LGR	493	326	88	178	2	732
Qtz 51-4 line1	1	LGR	102	16	61	113	1	691
	2	LGR	132	22	52	93	1	674
	3	LGR	114	38	50	102	1	670
	4	LGR	157	31	92	161	3	737
	5	LGR	171	31	58	153	3	685
Qtz 51-4 line2	1	LGR	113	38	69	113	1	704
	2	LGR	140	12	50	93	1	670
	3	LGR	136	43	51	102	1	672
	4	LGR	129	39	62	161	3	693
	5	LGR	132	46	72	153	3	709
Qtz 70-14 line1	1	MDS	278	33	98	171	core	745
	2	MDS	158	12	78	138	core	718
	3	MDS	107	21	21	79	mantle	588
	4	MDS	133	30	60	134	rim	689
	5	MDS	120	32	58	133	rim	685
Qtz 70-14 line2	1	MDS	171	15	105	171	core	753
	2	MDS	152	24	74	138	core	712
	3	MDS	132	19	26	79	mantle	607
	4	MDS	144	29	61	134	rim	691
	5	MDS	149	45	60	133	rim	689
Qtz 70-10 line1	1	MDS	193	22	126	205	core	776
	2	MDS	364	33	79	187	core	719

	3	MDS	138	23	54	135	mantle	678
	4	MDS	176	48	66	163	rim	699
	5	MDS	171	80	47	150	rim	664
Qtz 70-10 line2	1	MDS	215	43	120	205	core	769
	2	MDS	163	27	95	187	core	741
	3	MDS	142	21	49	135	mantle	668
	4	MDS	184	50	66	163	rim	699
	5	MDS	186	94	51	150	rim	672
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Avg								716
Max								776
Min								588

WP: Waurea Pyroclastics, LGR: Lake Gairdner Rhyolite, MDS: Moonamby Dyke Suite

T, °C (aTi=0.6)	T, °C (aTi=0.5)
827	853
819	845
818	843
814	839
774	798
805	830
820	846
809	835
804	829
781	805
798	823
818	843
794	818
797	821
797	821
797	821
829	855
807	832
787	812
804	829
798	823
807	832
787	812
792	816
787	812
774	798
819	845
792	816
778	802
795	820
749	771
730	752
725	747
801	826
743	765
764	787
725	747
728	749
751	773
769	793
809	835
779	803
634	652
747	769
743	765
819	845
773	796
655	674
749	771
747	769
845	872
781	805

734	756
758	781
718	739
838	864
805	830
723	744
758	781
728	749
<hr/>	
778	801
845	872
634	652