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- Autor(en): **Gartzos, Eutheme / Dietrich, Volker J. / Davis, Eleventheria**
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# Amphibole-plagioclase fractional crystallisation and magma mixing as major differentiation processes in the Akrotiri Volcanic Complex, Santorini, Greece

by Eutheme Gartzos<sup>1</sup>, Volker J. Dietrich<sup>2</sup> and Elevtheria Davis<sup>1</sup>

#### Abstract

The Pleistocene Akrotiri Volcanic Complex (AVC) builds up the southern part of the island of Thera and comprises the oldest volcanic rocks of the Santorini volcanic islands with ages probably ranging from 1.6 to 0.5 Ma. The lowvolcanic sequence starts mainly with rhyodacitic magmas, continuing with the production of heterogeneous dacites and terminating this first cycle with andésites

The rhyodacitic magmas are results of fractional crystallisation of amphibole- and plagioclase-nch cumulates from <sup>a</sup> water-bearing basaltic melt with island arc characteristics. The andesitic to dacitic magmas, in contrast, are mainly products of mechanical mixing (mingling) between rhyodacitic and basaltic to andesitic melts. These differentiation processes can be inferred from phenocryst and xenocryst chemistry as well as from basic to intermediate inclusions, which occur in various proportions in the dacitic and rhyodacitic lavas. The inclusions are interpreted as undercooled and quenched ("pillowed") products, which were formed by injection of vapor-rich hybrid-melts of basaltic to andesitic composition into cooler dacitic to rhyodacitic magmas. Such injections are seen as trigger anism, which started the ascent of silicic magmas from deep-seated crustal magma reservoirs.

The upper and younger volcanic sequence of the AVC is composed of high-alumina basalts and basaltic andésites and erupted after <sup>a</sup> period of magmatic quiescence Complete magma mixing is present in the late Pleistocene Cape Mavrorachidi eruptive centre, producing cinder, scoriae and lavas of basaltic andésite composition. Textural patterns and mineral chemistry of the larger phenocrysts (xenocrysts) exhibit significant evidence of magma mixing between an evolved andesitic melt and a basaltic melt.

Keywords: volcanism, magma mingling, magma mixing, fractional crystallisation, amphibole, magmatic inclusions, Akrotiri Volcanic Complex, Santorini.

#### 1. Introduction

The islands of Santorini mark the central part of the south Aegean island arc which extends over <sup>a</sup> distance of approximately 500 km from Corinth in the Saronic Gulf bordering Attica and the Peloponnisos to the islands of Kos and Nisyros near the Turkish coast. The arc is regarded as <sup>a</sup> matic expression of the still-active subduction of the African plate beneath the Aegean plate, which started around 4 Ma at the beginning of Pliocene (Fytikas et al., 1976 and 1984).

The base of the volcanic arc rests on normal and partially thinned continental crust and under-

went several stages of deformation and metamorphism during the Alpine orogeny from Cretato Late Tertiary. The main volcanic fields in the central and eastern parts of the area are ciated with major tectonic lineaments and active NE trending faults (PERISSORATIS et al., 1995). All volcanic products, from basalt to rhyolite, belong to the calc-alkaline series. In the western sector (e.g. Corinth, Aegina, Methana, Poros) the presence of numerous domes and lava flows of andesitic to dacitic composition dominate the volcanic edifice. Pyroclastics are subordinate or miss-(Dietrich et al. 1988,1994,1995; Mitropou-LOS and TARNEY, 1992). These intermediate rock

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Institute of Mineralogy and Geology, Agricultural University of Athens, GR-11855 Athens, Greece <egartz@auadec.aua.gr>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Institute of Mineralogy and Petrography, ETH Zürich, CH-8092 Zürich, Switzerland. Corresponding author <wumme@erdw.ethz.ch>

types are probably derived from <sup>a</sup> water bearing basaltic parent by magma crystal-liquid fractionation involving mainly olivine, clinopyroxene, plagioclase, amphibole, biotite and Ti-magnetite, as well as by magma mixing and mingling processes in deep crustal magma reservoirs (DIETRICH et al.,

1988). Large central volcanoes with summit calderas and hydrothermal systems (FYTIKAS et al., 1984 and 1986) dominate the central and eastern sectors of the arc (e.g. Milos, Santorini, Kos, Nisyros). Pyroclastic rocks of rhyodacitic to rhyolitic composition are predominant. Water-



 $Fig. 1$  Santorini islands and eruption centres. Bathymetry after PERISSORATIS et al., 1995.

bearing minerals are subordinate or absent. This indicates relatively large shallow crustal magma chambers, which allowed further crystal fractionation and crustal contamination, finally leading to highly explosive activity and Plinian eruptions.

Magmatic activity and the depth of the magma reservoirs in the different sectors of the Aegean volcanic arc seem to be related to the complexity of the lithospheric stress field (Papazachos et al., 1992; Papazachos and Panagiotopoulos, 1993). The western sector of the arc seems to have experienced a lesser extensional regime than the cenand eastern sectors. Upwelling of the asthenosphere, partial melting, uprise of primitive basaltic melts and the generation of shallow magma chambers beneath Milos, Santorini and Nisyros is favoured today by <sup>a</sup> pronounced tensional regime.

In contrast, the Akrotiri volcanic complex, the oldest volcanic edifice of the Santorini islands, is very similar to the volcanic edifice in the western sector (Davis et al., 1996). A major shift of the tectonic regime may have occurred a few hundred thousands years ago, leading to the large pyroclastic eruptions of the "Main Volcanic Series" and formation of large calderas (DRUITT, 1996; DRUITT et al., 1998; DRUITT and FRANCAVIGLIA, 1992), typical for the central and eastern sectors.

However, from 1649 to 1650 a new volcano (Columbos, Fig. 1) erupted only <sup>a</sup> few kilometres north-east of Santorini, producing rhyodacitic pumice and andesitic lavas, which contain matic inclusions and amphibole as major mafic phase, again very similar to those in the Akrotiri volcanic complex (Vougioukalakis et al., 1996).

The objectives of this study are to describe the bulk-rock composition of the Akrotiri lavas as well as the mineral chemistry of phenocrysts, xenocrysts, groundmass minerals, and glass positions in coexisting inclusions and host lava pairs in order to discuss the following processes:

1) bulk-rock crystal fractionation;

2) magma mixing or mingling between rhyodacite and basaltic to andesitic melts, forming magmatic inclusions as well as the compositionally heterogeneous andésites and dacites;

3) magma mixing between andesitic and basaltic melts; and to construct a model of a stratified magma chamber which may account for the above processes during periods of replenishment.

Amphibole/plagioclase fractional crystallisamagma mixing and mingling are discussed to explain the difference of the magmatic processes and eruption modes between the oldest and younger volcanic cycles of the Santorini islands.A better understanding of the eruption behaviour of the Aegean arc volcanism could be helpful to predict volcanic eruptions.

#### 2. Geological setting of Akrotiri Volcanic Complex

The Akrotiri Volcanic Complex (AVC) forms the southern part of the Santorini islands (Fig. <sup>1</sup> and Tab. 1). It is bordered from all other volcanic plexes as well as from the metamorphic crystalline and sedimentary Mesozoic basement rocks by a depression along <sup>a</sup> N-S trending fault and graben zone. The Akrotiri complex is composed of the oldest volcanic rocks on the islands of Santorini with ages probably ranging from 1.6 to 0.5 Ma (Fouqué, 1879; Fytikas et al., 1976; Seward et al., 1980; FYTIKAS et al., 1984; SEIDENKRANTZ and Friedrich, 1992).

A reconstruction of the Plio- to Pleistocene volcanic history of the Akrotiri Volcanic Complex (Fig. 2) is very difficult for the following reasons:

- The younger pyroclastic deposits (< 350'000 a) cover large parts of the entire area: e.g. the Cape Therma eruptions; the lower, middle and upper pumice; the upper scoriae; the Cape Riva deposits and finally, the Minoan pumice. These pyroclastic rocks are not shown on figure 2. Only the actually outcropping volcanics of the AVC are drawn.

- The northern parts of the AVC have been destroyed during the formation of the large Santorini calderas (DRUITT, 1985, 1996; DRUITT et al., 1998; Druitt and Francaviglia, 1992).

- The southern and southwestern parts of the AVC are broken off, now forming the sea floor. Their volumes can only be estimated considering the sea floor morphology and lithology (Perissoratis et al., 1995).

- Weathering and erosion have drastically affected the original volcanic morphology.

However, <sup>a</sup> few eruption centers of the Akrotiri volcanic complex are evident (Fig. 2):

1) Rhyodacitic eruption centers (fissures) at the Castle within the village of Akrotiri as well as at Cape Akrotiri.

2) Andesitic to dacitic plugs and fissures are present at Cape Mavros and at Cape Vounia.

3) Basaltic to andesitic fissure eruptions and cinder cones aligned along N-S trending faults at Cape Kokkinopetra, Cape Balos and Cape Mavrorachidi.

4) From morphology along the southern coast and cliffs of the Akrotiri peninsula, and from thymetry, a large eruption centre can be inferred southwest of Cape Vounia (Fig. 1).

Shallow marine basaltic to rhyolitic volcanism at Santorini began about 1.6 Ma ago and contin-

< 200'000 a 360-300'000 a 300'000 a	Thera Volcanic Complex Cape Therma pumice Erosional surface ? time interval	
VOLCANIC <b>CENTRES</b>	N: Cape Akrotiri/Loumaravi S: Cape Mavros/Arkhangelos	Cape Balos/Kokkinopetra <b>Cape Mavrorachidi</b>
? 350'000	Andesites and dacites Domes, flows (submarine)	Basaltic andesite (high-Mg) Cinder cones, dykes, lava Basalts $(IAT, + pyroxene)$ Cinder cones, dykes, lava
? 600'000 a	? time interval Erosional surface Andesites $(+$ amphibole relics) Cinder cones, dykes, lava Dacitic domes, flows (submarine)	
2.1 Ma ? 1.6 Ma	Rhyodacites (+ amphibole) Partly submarine pyroclastics tuffs, tuffites, pumice Minor submarine Basalts to andesites (+ amphibole)	Rhyodacites $(+$ amphibole)
$? > 2$ Ma	Pliocene shallow marine sediments No volcanoclastic detritus!	(Metamorphic basement)

Tab. <sup>1</sup> Volcanological evolution of the Akrotiri Volcanic Complex (AVC).

ued until at least 580'000 a (DRUITT, 1996). The products are hornblende bearing rhyodacitic lavas and tuffs, which form the hills of theAkrotiri peninsula. Abundant amphibole distinguishes the Akrotiri volcanic rocks from the younger Santorini volcanics, which generally lack amphibole.



Fig. 2 Geological map of the Akrotiri volcanoes with sample locations; geology in parts after PICHLER and KUSS-MAUL, 1980.

Within the Upper Pliocene sediments from the Arkhangelos hill, approx. 1.6 Ma, according to Foraminifera ages (SEIDENKRANTZ and FRIEDRICH, 1992), basaltic and andesitic detritus occurs, partly as fragments of pillow lavas and hyaloclastites. Amphibole appears as <sup>a</sup> very nostic volcanic mineral in the tuffaceous sediments (Fig.  $3$ ).



Fig. 3 Green and brown amphiboles in shallow water sandy marls (Pleistocene age) from Mt. Arkhangelos base; figure size: 2.6 mm across.

Prolonged eruption on the sea floor generated <sup>a</sup> rhyodacitic complex with an original basal ameter exceeding 4 km and a height exceeding 200 m (Fig. 2). In the Loumaravi-Arkhangelos area, submarine domes, pillow lavas dominate the volcanic successions. Hyaloclastite aprons calate with submarine vitric tuffs, pumice breccias, and epiclastic flows. At higher elevations, lavas may have erupted subaerially. The occurrence of submarine vitric tuffs, foraminiferous- or spongebearing marine sediments, and (at Cape Mavros) hyaloclastite up to heights of <sup>100</sup> m or more above present day sea level implies considerable postformational volcano-tectonic uplift of these early centers.

The initial volcanic phase was followed by larger eruptions of rhyodacitic to dacitic pyroclastics (tuffs, pumice, and in <sup>a</sup> few places ignimbrite) and lavas from vents close to Paleokastro (village of Akrotiri) and in the vicinity of Cape Akrotiri (Fig. 2).

The area between Mt. Loumaravi, Mt. Arkhangelos, Cape Vounia and Cape Mavrorachidi is mainly covered with the silicic lavas and pyroclastics, in parts heavily weathered, hydrothermally altered and eroded. Within the southwestern slopes of Mt. Loumaravi and the N-S depression east and southeast of Mt. Arkhangelos, numerous andesitic dikes crosscut the older silicic volcanics. These dikes are also

heavily weathered and altered. They exhibit mainporphyric textures. The appearance of black opacitic amphibole and the high abundance of quartz ocelli (see chapter 3) are very significant.

Similar andésites and andesitic dacites are also found as components within the pumice-rich clastic rocks (in parts lahars), which overlay a peneplained yellowish beach conglomerate derneath the lighthouse (Faros) at Cape Akrotiri, approximately 80 m above the present day sea level. The latter feature indicates a large time terval of intensive erosion, probably coupled with uplift.

The andesitic to dacitic domes, sills, flows and pyroclastics of Cape Mavros and Cape Vounia seem to belong to <sup>a</sup> younger volcanic generation. The dacites show partly intrusive contacts as well as lavas, which reached the submarine environment generating pillows and hyaloclastic breccias.

The youngest volcanic phase in the Akrotiri volcanic complex is represented by basaltic to desitic extrusions (dikes and cinder cones) at Cape Balos, Cape Kokkinopetra and Cape Mavrorachidi. The latter one seems to be nected with the Cape Balos eruptive centre along an N-S striking fault.

At broadly the same time that the Peristeria stratocone (DRUITT, 1996) was active in northern Santorini (Fig. 1), "strombolian eruptions" in the south formed cinder and spatter cones at Capes Balos, Kokkinopetra, and Mavrorachidi. These cones may have originated from mafic monogenetic vents on the southern flank of the Peristeria edifice. All three cones overlie tuffs and lavas of the early rhyodacitic centers, but underlie the pyroclastic deposits of Cape Therma. The latter relation can clearly be seen at Cape Balos (Fig. 2).

#### 3. Petrography

#### 3.1. LAVAS AND PYROCLASTICS

Table 2 summarises the petrographic and mineralogical characteristics of the Akrotiri lavas in stratigraphie order from bottom (oldest lavas) to top (youngest lavas).The localities of the analysed rock samples as well as their bulk chemical positions are shown on figure 2 and given in the Appendix.

Basalts and basaltic andésites are massive to slightly vesicular porphyritic rocks. Macrophenocrysts are olivine, plagioclase and subordinate augite in an intersertal to intergranular, partly fluidal groundmass of plagioclase laths, granular pyroxenes, olivine, Ti-magnetite and interstitial glass.



Tab. 2 Summary of petrographic and mineralogical characteristics of the Akrotiri lavas in stratigraphic order (from bottom to top). P = phenocryst; M = microphenocryst; X = xenocryst; I = inclusions in phenocryst phases; () = rare occurrences.

Basalts of Cape Balos occur as pyroclastics (scoria) at the base of the Balos plug and as massive lavas or sills. They are slightly vesicular and weakly porphyritic. Macrophenocrysts are olivine, plagioclase and subordinate augite in an intersertal to intergranular, partly fluidal groundmass of plagioclase laths, granular pyroxenes, olivine, Ti-magnetite and interstitial glass.

The *basaltic andesites* can be distinguished from the basalts by the presence of clinopyroxene and plagioclase xenocrysts with inverse compositional zoning.

The *andesites* are strongly porphyritic with normally zoned plagioclase macrophenocrysts and subordinate augite and hypersthene. Olivine is altered. The pilotaxitic matrix consists of andesine laths, prismatic pyroxenes, magnetite and terstitial altered glass.

Andesitic dacites and dacites: According to the bulk chemical classification (see chapter 5; e.g. the differentiation index D.I) these volcanic rocks should be named andesites. However, the partially high abundance (e.g. 30-50 vol.%) of basic magmatic inclusions and xenocrysts (e.g. plagioclase  $An_{86-75}$  and amphibole) as well as the rhyodacitic to rhyolitic groundmass glass justifies the terminology andesitic dacite or dacite.

These rocks often contain a glassy, flow banded, hyalopilitic groundmass with large amounts of isolated plagioclase (often rich in melt inclusions and sieve textures) and augite phenocrysts, glomeroporphyritic clots of euhedral, weakly zoned plagioclase  $(An_{64-50})$ , orthopyroxene  $(En_{71-64})$ , augite, and magnetite, and glass. Andesine laths,

acicular pyroxenes and apatite occur as microphenocrysts. In the andesitic dacites and dacites of Cape Mavros and Cape Vounia the matrix glass is in parts fairly fresh, amphibole is missing as phenocrysts as well as xenocrysts.

The *rhyodacites* are generally glassy and flow banded rocks, often with <sup>a</sup> felsitic or vitrophyric matrix. Plagioclase (phenocrysts  $An_{55-40}$ ), amphiboles (cores: tschermakitic rimmed by magnesio hornblende) and orthopyroxene ( $En_{69-65}$  in rhyolitic components  $En_{45-42}$ ) occur as macrophemagnetite and ilmenite as microphenocrysts. The glass has rhyodacitic to rhyolitic composition. Figure 4 shows a typical rhyodacite as a microscopic drawing by Fouqué (1879). Empty spaces in the rhyolitic groundmass glass are partially filled with calcite and zeolites.

Flows of entirely rhyolitic composition are missing.

#### 3.2. AMPHIBOLE - PLAGIOCLASE INCLUSIONS

One of the most striking features of the dacitic and dacitic lavas is the irregular distribution of dark mafic xenolithic inclusions, mainly consisting of hastingsitic amphibole and plagioclase in a porous glassy groundmass. These clots and spheres vary in size from <sup>a</sup> few millimetres to approximately 20 centimetres in diameter; the erage dimension is  $5$  to 10 cm. The flow banding of the rhyodacitic lava aligns with the orientation of their geometry. Blocky and fragmented inclusions with subangular surfaces are very subordinate.

 $\frac{1}{2}$  ,  $\frac{1}{2}$ 

The distribution of the inclusions in the lavas is highly variable. They are more abundant in the lower rhyodacites and dacites of the first volcanic cycle. An estimation of their volume percentage is very difficult. There are portions of the flows with 10 to 20 vol.% of inclusions, but in general the variation ranges between <sup>1</sup> and <sup>3</sup> vol.%. In the dacites and andésites of the second volcanic phase the inclusions decrease to less than <sup>1</sup> vol.%.

In general, the inclusions in the andesitic dacites and dacites of the first volcanic phase show distinct differences in textures and composition to those from the basaltic andésites and andésites of the second cycle, and they are almost absent in the basaltic andésites of Cape Mavrorachidi.

In the dacites, several types of inclusions can be distinguished:

Type A: Basaltic inclusions with typical porphyritic and intersertal textures and olivine, clinopyroxene (rimmed by amphibole), plagioclase in <sup>a</sup> basaltic groundmass glass. They are very rare and rather small in size  $(0.1$  to 2 cm in diameter; e.g. sample Cakro 5, bulk chemical composition in table  $A3$ , Appendix).



Fig. 4 Magnesio-hornblende, plagioclase and orthopyroxene in rhyodacite (Cape Akrotiri); rhyolitic groundmass glass partly filled with carbonate and zeolites. Figure size <sup>3</sup> mm across. Drawing from Fouqué (1879).

Type B: Cumulates are very sparse. These rocks are rather small in size, generally not ceeding 5 cm in diameter.

Type C: Pseudocumulates with partly resorbed (remolten) cumulate minerals such as Mg-rich hastingsitic amphibole and anorthite-rich plagioclase in an interstitial glass rich in silica, K, Rb, Sr, Ba. They are also very rare.

Types D, E and F: Coarse-grained acicular clusions (Fig. 7), mainly made up of amphibole and plagioclase in a glassy (chemical composition in Tab. A3, Appendix) but highly porous matrix, are very abundant. The composition varies from basaltic to andesitic.

Type D inclusions are by far the most common ones. They also contain fragments or inclusions of type B cumulates and type C pseudocumulates. The rounded and elliptical shapes may be caused by rapid undercooling during injection of hot basaltic and andesitic melts into a magma reserfilled with cooler dacitic to rhyodacitic melt (Eichelberger, 1980; Bacon, 1986; Dietrich et al., 1988; Dietrich, 1989; Feeley and Dungan, 1996). Therefore, the xenolithic inclusions can also be regarded as important witnesses with spect to magmatic processes in deep-seated reservoirs, and in particular to the generation of highly differentiated basalts and andésites.

#### 4. Mineralogy

#### 4.1. MINERAL CHEMISTRY

The mineralogical characteristics of the Akrotiri lavas are summarised in table 2; the mineralogical compositions of the analysed rock-samples are given in table 3.

Special emphasis has been given to the mineral chemistry of clinopyroxenes, amphiboles, Fe-Ti oxides and Cr-spinels, and of groundmass glass. The selected microprobe mineral analyses are listed in tables 4 to 7.

The general crystallisation sequence in the early Akrotiri lavas appears to be olivine + Crspinel, plagioclase, clinopyroxene, Mg-hastingsitic amphibole, Ti-magnetite, orthopyroxene, apatite and zircon. In the late Akrotiri lavas it is plagioclinopyroxene, tschermakitic hornblende, magnesio hornblende, magnetite, ilmenite, thopyroxene, apatite and zircon. Alkali feldspar and quartz occur sporadically in the rhyolitic pumice.

Plagioclase is present in all rocks as the most abundant phenocryst phase and forms euhedral crystals up to <sup>a</sup> few millimetres in size. The positions are given in terms of anorthite content in the rock description and range from  $An_{85}$  in the basalts to  $An_{29}$  in the rhyodacites. The phenocryst

	Cape Balos high-alumina olivine basalt	Cape Mavrorachidi high-Mg basaltic andesite	andesites	Cape Vounia Cape Mavros andesites to dacites	Akrotiri rhyodacite	Akrotiri rhyolites	Akrotiri basic inclusions in rhyodacite
Plagioclase macro- phenocryst. micro- phenocryst.	$An_{85-74}$ $An_{69-63}$	$An_{60-52(c)}$ $An_{74-68(r)}$ $An_{73-70}$	$An_{75-64(c)}$ $An_{49-37(r)}$ $An_{40-37}$	$An_{49-45}$ $An_{65-49}$	$An_{(65)55-49}$ $An_{45-40}$ and $An_{31-29}$	$An_{51-45}$ and $An_{54-36}$ $An_{31-29}$	$An_{86-81(c)}$ $An_{77-60(inter)}$ $An_{46-60(r)}$
Olivine	$\text{Fo}_{85-82}$	$\text{Fo}_{84-77}$	$\rm{Fo}_{80-75}$				
Clino- pyroxene	$xMg$ , $(Fe_{tot})$ $= 0.80 - 0.68$	$xMg$ , $(Fe_{tot})$ $= 0.75 - 0.69(c)$ $xMg$ , $(Fetot)$ $= 0.83 - 0.84(r)$	$xMg$ , $(Fetot)$ $= 0.78 - 0.74$	$xMg$ , $(Fe_{tot})$ $= 0.78 - 0.74$	$xMg$ , $(Fetot)$ $= 0.78 - 0.74$		very rare (e.g. Cakro5, $xMg$ , $(Fetot)$ $= 0.80 - 0.75$
Ortho- pyroxene	$En_{72-69}$	$En_{67-66}$	$En_{71-64}$	$En_{69-66}$	$En_{68-64}$ and $En_{47}$	$En_{45-42}$	$En_{58-55}$
Amphibole		relicts	relicts	Tsch	Tsch(c) $Mg-Ho(r)$	Tsch(c) $Mg-Ho(r)$	Mg-Hst Tsch
Cr-spinel	in olivine	$(in \text{Cpx or Ol})$ –					
Fe-Ti oxides	Ti-magnetite	$(in \text{ Cpx or Ol})$ grd-ilmenite	Ti-magnetite grd-ilmenite	Ti-magnetite and ilmenite	Ti-magnetite and ilmenite	Ti-magnetite and ilmenite	Ti-magnetite
Xenocrysts Plag / Opx	n.a. Plag, Opx	$An_{88}$ , $Fo_{90}$ , $Cpx$ , $xMg = .88$	$An_{87-75}$	$An_{85-82}$	$An_{82-78}$ and $An_{93-92}$	$An_{85-82}$ $\mathrm{En}_{69-66}$	$An_{85-82}$

Tab. 3 Minerals compositions within the Akrotiri volcanics (Mg-Hst = Magnesio-hastingsite; Tsch = Tschermakite;  $Mg-Ho = Magnesio-hornblende; r = rim, inter = intermediate, c = core; grd = groundmass; n.a. = not analysed).$ 

Tab. 4 (A) Selected clinopyroxene compositions in Cape Balos basalt (Bal 8) and  $15$ ) and in Cape Mavros andesite (Mavro 2). (B) Selected clinopyroxene compositions in high-Mg basaltic andésite Cape Mavrorachidi (Cmav 2). (C) Selected clinopyroxene compositions in andesite Cape Vounia (Cvun 7).

(A)		C. Balos basalt phenocrysts		C. Mayros macro-phenocrysts				
$wt\%$				core	rim	rim	core	rim
	178	185	186	230	229	228	241	232
SiO <sub>2</sub>	50.65	50.16	49.47	51.72	51.46	49.52	52.17	49.74
TiO <sub>2</sub>	0.84	0.91	1.18	0.44	0.73	0.94	0.49	0.86
AI <sub>2</sub>	3.38	3.88	4.97	1.65	2.46	3.86	1.77	3.60
$Cr_2O_3$	0.40	0.52	0.80	0.01	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.06
$Fe_2O_3$	1.03	1.62	0.26	3.24	2.63	3.52	2.79	3.69
FeO	7.13	6.67	7.27	6.44	7.06	6.28	5.75	5.38
MnO	0.16	0.25	0.16	0.45	0.44	0.29	0.43	0.31
<b>NiO</b>	0.08	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01
MgO	15.86	16.25	14.74	16.01	15.14	14.70	16.31	14.74
CaO	20.01	19.39	20.66	19.78	20.34	20.14	20.44	20.88
Na <sub>2</sub> O	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.31	0.35	0.32	0.29	0.32
$K_2O$	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01
Total	99.55	99.71	99.54	100.09	100.64	99.57	100.44	99.61
$xMg(Fe_{tot})$	0.80	0.78	0.78	0.75	0.74	0.74	0.78	0.75
<b>Wo</b>	0.351	0.328	0.350	0.363	0.364	0.342	0.371	0.357
En	0.440	0.450	0.410	0.443	0.417	0.409	0.447	0.410
Fs	0.111	0.103	0.113	0.100	0.109	0.098	0.088	0.084
(B)			macro-phenocrysts					micro-phenocrysts
$wt\%$	core	rim	core	rim	core	rim		
	141	142	104	106	137	147	82	83
SiO <sub>2</sub>	51.31	51.31	51.36	51.82	51.40	50.64	51.25	51.93
TiO <sub>2</sub>	0.69	0.53	0.69	0.42	0.80	0.78	0.40	0.33
$\rm Al_2O_3$	2.10	3.98	2.39	3.70	1.88	3.92	3.96	2.90
	0.06	0.58	0.17	0.87	0.04	0.37	0.76	0.42
$Cr_2O_3$ Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	2.29	2.11	2.85	2.95	2.43	3.72	2.58	2.70
FeO	9.73	4.38	8.15	2.80	10.05	4.73	3.31	4.17
MnO	0.40	0.11	0.27	0.12	0.45	0.26	0.12	0.17
<b>NiO</b>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.08	0.05
MgO	14.51	16.91	15.67	17.23	14.89	16.15	16.89	17.66
CaO	18.95	20.31	18.81	21.32	18.20	20.36	20.56	19.91
Na <sub>2</sub> O	0.36	0.25	0.34	0.29	0.38	0.30	0.36	0.21
$K_2O$	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.03
Total	100.41	100.49	100.71	101.53	100.56	101.23	100.27	100.47
xMg(Fe <sub>tot</sub> )	0.69	0.83	0.72	0.85	0.75	0.78	0.84	0.83
Wo	0.346	0.340	0.332	0.352	0.333	0.333	0.343	0.340



Fs 0152 0.067 0.126 0 071 0.157 0 072 0 050 0.064

compositions in the basic clusions range from  $An_{86}$  in the cores to  $An_{44}$  in the rims. The phenocrysts in the basaltic andesites show reversed, in the andesites nor-(Fig. 5), but complex compositional zoning. Sievetextures and resorption nomena are also common in the latter. Plagioclase xenocrysts are very frequent in the dacites, rhyodacites and rhyolites. They often hibit rounded, dusty cores with bytownitic compositions  $An_{93-75}$  overgrown by optically clear and distinctive rims of intermediate positions. Microphenocryst laths range in composition from  $An_{74-63}$  in the basalts and basaltic andesites,  $An_{65-37}$ in andesites,  $An_{45-29}$  in dacites, rhyodacites and rhyolites (Fig. 5).

Alkali feldspar with 8-12 mol% orthoclase as well as quartz occur in small quantities in the rhyolites.

Olivine phenocrysts and microphenocrysts are common in the Akrotiri basalts and basaltic andésites. The crystals are relatively small  $(< 1$  mm) and exhibit euhedral, anhedral and quenched shapes. Their compositions range from  $F_{\text{O}_{85}}$  to  $F_{\text{O}_{82}}$  in the basalts,  $F_{\text{O}_{84}}$  to  $F_{\text{O}_{87}}$  basaltic andesites and  $F_{\text{O}_{80}}$  to  $F_{\text{O}_{75}}$  in the andésites. The Ni- and Mn-contents vary proportionally to the iron enrichment in the olivine (e.g. in the basalts:  $NiO = 0.22$  to 0.14 wt%, MnO =  $0.21$  to  $0.25$  $wt\%$ ).

Clinopyroxene (Tab. 4) is a common phenocryst phase in all rocks except in the rhyolitic pumice and rhyolitic components in the lower-Akrotiri pyroclastics. The xMg values range from 0.80 to 0.68 in the basalts and  $0.76 - 0.72$  in the andesites,

dacites and rhyodacites. The general decrease of MnO in the rhyodacites and rhyolites is noteworthy. The clinopyroxenes in the basaltic desites exhibit reverse zoning (Fig.  $6$ , xMg = 0.75 to 0.69 in the cores;  $xMg = 0.83$  to 0.84 in the rims) which is thought to indicate magma mixing. This is clearly expressed in their Cr- and Mncontents: the cores are low in  $Cr_2O_3$ up to 0.2 wt% but high in MnO up to  $0.45 \text{ wt\%}$ , whereas the rims are high in  $Cr_2O_3$  up to 0.9 wt% and low in MnO between 0.11 and 0.17wt%.

Orthopyroxene is also <sup>a</sup> common phenocryst phase in all rocks. It occurs subordinate as resorbed xenocrysts rimmed by clinopyroxene in basaltic andésites and andésites. All crystals show <sup>a</sup> restricted compositional range and only weak zonation:  $En_{72-69}$  in the basalts,<br> $En_{69-66}$  in the andesites,  $En_{68-64}$  in the dacite to rhyodacites, and  $En_{45-42}$  in the rhyolites.

Fe-Ti oxides (Tab. 5) are common as euhedral to anhedral phenocrysts, as inclusions in other phenocryst phases, and as reaction products withand between amphiboles and clinopyroxenes (Fig. 8 and 9). Ti-magnetite occurs in basalts and

Fig. 5 High-Mg basaltic andésite (Cmav2, Cape

Mavrorachidi); figure size: 2.6 mm across. Plagioclase with reverse compositional gap indicating mixing: core  $(An_{63-52})$ , transitional dusty zone  $(An_{67-70})$ , clear rim  $(An_{70-75}).$ 





in basaltic andesites, but is rather rare. It only occurs within larger clinopyroxene xenocrysts (Tab. 5C). Instead, ilmenite is present in the ground-



Fig. 6 High-Mg basaltic andesite (Cmav 2, Cape Mavrorachidi); figure size: 2.6 mm across. Clinopyroxene: core  $xMg(Fe_{tot}) = 0.75-0.69$ ; euhedral rim  $xMg(Fe_{tot}) = 0.83-$ 0.84 in a basaltic groundmass of plagioclase  $(An_{73-70})$ , forsteritic olivine and Fe-Ti oxides. Note that the inner part of the clinopyroxene shows and opaque mixture of fine aggregates that might be interpreted as decomposition products of a former amphibole.







mass. In contrast, Ti-magnetite is always abundant in andésites and dacites and varies in composition from  $Usp_{43}$  in the andesites (Tab.  $5C$ ) to Usp<sub>19</sub> in rhyodacites and rhyolites (Tab. 5A). IImenite mainly occurs in the evolved rhyodacites to rhyolites. Ti-magnetite is also always present in the gabbroic clinopyroxene-plagioclase clusters as well as in the basic inclusions in the dacitic and rhyodacitic lavas. positional variation:  $USp_{41-21}$ with high  $Al_2O_3$  contents up to 6.9 wt%;Tab. 5B).

Cr-spinel has only been detected as inclusions in olivine and rarely as hercynitic inclusions in anorthitic plagioclase (Tab. 5C).

#### 4.2. AMPHIBOLES AS PHENOCRYSTS AND XENOCRYSTS

Amphiboles are the most common mafic minerals in the volcanic rocks from the Akrotiri volcanoes. They cur as pheno- and xenocrysts in rhyodacitic and dacitic rocks. However, the amphiboles show a large variation

in mineral chemistry from Mg-rich hastingsite through evolved hastingsite to hornblende (Tab. 6). Mg-rich hastingsitic amphibole and anorthitic plagioclase are present in various proportions as the two major xenocryst phases in most of the lavas and therefore play <sup>a</sup> key role with respect to fractional crystallisation processes (DIETRICH et al., 1996).

The amphibole compositions, using the nomenclature of Leake (1978), were normalised by assuming (i) fixed  $Fe^{3+}/(Fe^{3+}+ Fe^{2+})$  ratio of 0.2 and 23 oxygens, and (ii) cations  $-$  Ca $-Na-K = 13$ . In the rhyodacites the amphiboles display greenish to light brownish pleochroic colours and ideal euhedral shapes (Fig.  $7$ ). They have opacitic reaction rims in a few cases. Their compositions (Tab. 6A and B) vary from tschermakites and magnesio-tschermakites ( $Al_2O_3 = 10.4-10.8$  wt%,  $TiO_2 =$ 2.4–2.9 wt% and  $K_2O = 0.28$ –0.39 wt%) to magnesio-hornblende  $(Al_2O_3 = 7.8-8.8 \text{ wt\%}, TiO_2 =$ 



 $Fig. 7$  Large magnesio-hastingsite amphiboles, plagioclase in a porous glass-rich groundmass of rhyolitic composition (black). Coarse grained acicular inclusion (Cakro 11) in rhyodacite (Cape Akrotiri); figure size 5 mm across.





CAKRO 11, 12: Cape Akrotiri

BAL3: Cape Balos; lowermost rhyodacite pyroclastics

RDC1 C Akrotin; lowermost rhyodacite pyroclastics

 $Mg-Hst = Magnesio-hastingsite$ ; Tsch = Tschermakite; Mg-Ho = Magnesio-hornblende

amphiboles ranges from temperatures of up to 950 °C and pressures between <sup>1</sup> and 20 kbar (SCHMIDT, 1992). Using the  $Al_{(tot)}$  content in the amphiboles and barometric calibrations (at approx. 700 °C, solidus temperatures), the crystallisation for the magnesio-hastingsites would take place at 20 to 25 km depths. However, this applies for a situation under the ditions of a buffered system with the mineral paragenesis amphibole, plagioclase, biotite, feldspar, quartz, titanite, Fe-Ti-oxides, melt and water. Deep-seated magma reservoirs, such as beneath Santorini, must be regarded as open, unbuffered systems. Thus, the stability fields of the amphiboles might have been rather different. In trast to the magnesio-hastingsites it seems that the magnesio-hornblende in the rhyodacite with  $Al_2O_3 = 8$  to <sup>10</sup> wt% may have tallised during the ascent of the melts at lower pressures.

> 4.3 AMPHIBOLE DECOMPOSITION AND REACTIONS

1.9–2.5 wt% and  $K_2O = 0.29$ –0.36 wt%), the latter ones as rims or microphenocrysts.

In contrast, the euhedral amphiboles within the xenolithic inclusions are magnesio-has-(Fig. 7) with higher Al,Ti, Ni and Na but lower Mn and K contents than the amphiboles in the rhyodacites. They display strong brownish to red brownish pleochroitic colours. They often are normally zoned with Fe-enrichment towards the rims.

The hastingsitic amphiboles (Tab. 6A:  $Al_2O_3 =$ 12.7 to 13.8 wt%,  $TiO<sub>2</sub> = 2.6$  to 2.8 wt%, Na<sub>2</sub>O = 2.5 to 2.6 wt% and  $K_2O = 0.18$  to 0.2 wt%) crystallised from water-rich melts of basaltic to andesitic composition. According to experimental data within tonalites, the stability field of similar

Andesitic lavas and dikes ten contain relics of hastingsitic amphibole xenocrysts, which show all steps of decomposition and reactions with the groundmass matrix or glass (Figs 8 and 9). These textural phenomena are also present in a sparse variety of magmatic inclusions (Type C: pseudocumulates), where the brownish groundmass glass has rhyodacitic to rhyolitic composition (Tab. 7).

The first step of decomposition (Fig. 8) is marked by dusty to black very fine grained Fe-Ti oxides (partly magnetite) starting from the rim (Fig. 8A), and at more advanced stages, by nucleation growth of the oxides, penetrating the whole crystal (Fig. 8B and 9).The euhedral shapes of the amphiboles show no distortion at these stages. This effect may only be attributed to syn- and post-eruptive oxidation and penetration by late

Tab. 6 (A) Amphibole compositions in amphibole-plagioclase inclusions. (B) Amphibole compositions in rhyodacite (Akrotin volcanoes)

hydrothermal fluids and vapour. The following step (Fig. 8C) is marked by a decomposition reaction becomposition reaction tween the amphibole and the groundmass or former melts to produce fine grained aggregates of clinopyroxene, magnetite, melt and vapour. This step progressively leads to crystal growth of coarser clinopyroxene-magnetite aggregates, similar to metamorphic reactions producing cristalloblastic aggregates under ideal equilibrium ditions.

During the final step (Fig. 8D) the euhedral rims of the clinopyroxenes grow in librium with the surrounding phases and the remaining melt. These reactions lead to fully recrystallised single crystals as well as to glomeroporphyritic clots of<br>clinopyroxene, plagioclase clinopyroxene. and magnetite. Often, minor opacitic relics of amphibole can be recognised in the cores of well-shaped "pseudo-phenocrysts" of clinopyroxene.

The process may be explained either by complete mixing of early cumulate phases with partially remolten amphibole-rich mulates with evolved rhyodacitic melts in deep-seated reservoirs, or during ascent

and decompression of differentiated or hybrid basaltic and andesitic magmas.

#### 5. Chemical composition of the Akrotiri volcanic rocks

<sup>55</sup> samples of lavas, their inclusions and of pyroclastic components from the Akrotiri volcanoes have been analysed for <sup>a</sup> nearly complete range of major, minor and trace element compositions, listed in the Appendix, tables A1 to A3.

The bulk compositions of all Akrotiri lavas overlap entirely with the field of the "Main Santorini Volcanic Series" (Fig. 10). It is very significant that the andesites match in composition com-

Tab. 7 (A) Glass compositions in amphibole-plagioclase inclusions and rhyodacite lava (Cape Akrotiri) (B) Glass compositions of pumice and andesite/dacite lava (Capes Balos, Akrotiri and Mavro) (C) Glass compositions in glomeroporphyntic andésites (Cape Vounia).







pletely with the andesitic products (lavas, inclusions and pyroclastics) from the 1650 Columbos eruption (Vougioukalakis and Francalanci, 1996; Vougioukalakis et al., 1996).

The chemical characteristics of the Akrotiri lavas and pyroclastics, which form a compositional range from basalt to rhyolite, are typical calc-alkaline, low to medium potassic trends in island arcs.

The rocks can be classified according to their differentiation index (D.I.: felsic normative minerals,  $Q + Or + Ab + Ne + Kp + Lc$ ; Thornton and TUTTLE, 1960) into basalts with  $<$  30; basaltic andesites 35-50; andesites 50-65; dacites 65-80 and rhyodacites > 80. Another chemical approach ing bulk chemical composition is the classification



Fig. <sup>8</sup> Amphibole decomposition and reactions. A: Amphibole with opacitic rim of Fe-Ti oxide aggregates. B: Amphibole penetrated by opacitic Fe-Ti oxides. C: Decomposition and reaction of amphibole to form clinopyroxene-magnetite and melt plus vapor. D: gressive crystal growth of clinopyroxene.



Fig. 9 Amphibole relics after decomposition and reacin andesitic dyke from Mt. Loumaravi (Arhan 3). Reaction aggregates comprise clinopyroxene and netite. Figure size: 2.6 mm across.

of Peccerillo and Taylor (1976), figure 10. Such <sup>a</sup> nomenclature does not take into account the high amount of xenolithic material within the rhyolites, rhyodacites and dacites, which shifts the chemical bulk composition and, therefore the ferentiation index towards apparently more basic compositions.

The overall chemical compositions and variations of the Akrotiri lavas and pyroclastics are mainly controlled by fractional crystallisation of the observed phenocryst phases olivine, plagio-



Fig. 10 Bulk chemical composition (SiO<sub>2</sub> vs K<sub>2</sub>O in wt%) and classification of the Akrotiri volcanics compared to the "Main volcanic series" of Santorini, the Kameni lavas and to the Columbos 1649/50 eruptive products.  $C.P. = Columbos$  pumice (data from NICHOLLS, 1971; Huijsmans et al., 1988; Vougioukalakis and FRANCALANCI, 1996).



Fig. 11 Glass compositions within the Akrotiri volcanics.

clase, clinopyroxene, amphibole,Ti-magnetite and apatite as well as by variable processes of magma mixing (chemical homogenisation) and magma mingling (mechanical blending).

Figure <sup>11</sup> shows the glass compositions of lavas and pumice. The difference between the erage total wt% of oxides of these glasses and 100% ranges between <sup>4</sup> and 6%, which is preted to be due to volatiles dissolved in the glass. This gives <sup>a</sup> first estimate about the water content in the Akrotiri magmas. Two major groups of glasses can generally be distinguished: glasses with low- to medium K and glasses with high-K concentrations. The groundmass glasses (Fig. 11) of the rhyodacitic lavas indicate the general ferentiation trend, expressed in the bulk chemical composition of the lavas. Therefore, these glasses represent the ultimate residual liquids of the Akrotiri magmatic series.The groundmass glasses of the andesitic dacites (e.g. those from Cape Mavro) have more basic concentrations, indicat-



Fig. 12 Spider diagrams of the bulk chemical composition of the Akrotiri volcanic rocks, normalised to normal N-type Mid-Ocean Ridge (MORB) basalt composition (Sun et al., 1979; Pearce, 1982; Saunders and Tarney, 1984).

ing magma mixing effects between andesitic and rhyodacitic magmas. In contrast, the high-K glassare distributed in the plagioclase/clinopyroxene/magnetite clusters and inclusions in plagioclase macrophenocrysts of the glomeroporphyritic andésites, as well as in the interstices of the porous amphibole/plagioclase basic inclusions. These glasses appear to be the products of reactions between cluster phenocrysts and their surrounding melts (Fig. 8D). They also represent residual liquids. This is the case in the basaltic to andesitic magmatic inclusions, which were formed by undercooling and quenching during the ascent into rhyodacitic magmas. Therefore, each inclusion has to be regarded to as <sup>a</sup> small isolated magmatic system, rapidly crystallising amphibole / plagioclase / magnetite assemblages and leavhighly differentiated  $ing$ residual liquids behind (Fig. 7).

The general chemical characteristics of the Akrotiri lavas and their inclusions are summarised in figure 12 (spider diagrams). The selected diagnostic major and trace ement compositions are normalised against normal-type "Mid Ocean Ridge Basalt" (N-MORB).

The basalts of Cape Balos and Cape Kokkinopetra can be classified as high alumina olivine basalts with typical island arc characteristics (IAT). They are enriched up to ten times in the more-hygromagmatophile or low field strength elements (LFS) such as K, Rb, Ba, Th, U, and the light rare earth elements (LREE) as well as to <sup>a</sup> lesser extent Sr. Hf and Zr. In trast, the basalts are depleted in the less-hygromag-mathophile or high field strength ements (HFS), such as Nb, Ti,

Y, and the heavy rare earth elements (HREE).

The patterns of the basalts and inclusions are very similar, which shows the close magmatic lationship between the basaltic magmas reaching the surface and their inferred counterparts from the magma reservoirs.

The compositions of the intermediate and evolved lavas, such as the dacites and rhyodacites are enriched up to hundred times MORB.

Positive correlation of K, Rb and Ba with Th is evident. This also holds for Nb, Zr, Hf, Ta, U and the LREE, whereas the compatible minor and trace elements Cr (incl. Ni, Co), V, and Sc display <sup>a</sup> negative correlation withTh. In this respect, the Akrotiri lavas do not significantly differ from the younger "Main Volcanic Series" on Santorini (Nicholls, <sup>1971</sup> and 1978; Mann, 1983; Barton and HUIJSMANS, 1986; MITROPOULOS et al., 1987; Huijsmans et al., 1988; Fytikas et al., 1990; Kalogeropoulos and Paritsis, 1990).

However, all Akrotiri volcanic rocks have much lower concentrations in the hygromag-

Akrotiri volcanic complex Origin of basic inclusions in dacite and rhyodacite (lower part of convective magma chamber)



Fig. <sup>13</sup> Differentiation processes in the Akrotiri volcanic complex. Model of amphibole- and plagioclase-dominated fractional crystallisation and the origin of basic xenolithic inclusions in silicic magmas within deep-seated crustal magma reservoirs.

matophile elements than the equivalent volcanic rocks in all other islands of the Aegean arc (Aegina, Poros and Methana: DIETRICH et al., 1988; Kos and Nisyros, GUELEN et al., 1987; WYERS and BAR-1989; Guelen, 1990). Using Sr/Th variations, the Akrotiri lavas and pyroclastics show very little crustal contamination (Briqueu et al., 1986).

At <sup>a</sup> closer look, chemical irregularities appear within the intermediate volcanics, the basaltic andesites, andesites, andesitic dacites, and dacites (Figs <sup>12</sup> A, C, D, and F) for K, Rb, Ba. Nb, REE, P. Zr, Hf, Ti, Y, Sc and Cr. These features cannot be explained by simple fractionation processes of anhydrous phases (i.e. plagioclase, pyroxenes, olivine, magnetite and apatite) from basalt to odacite, as proposed for the "Main Volcanic Series" (MANN, 1983). The early crystallisation of plagioclase, amphibole and Ti-magnetite together with clinopyroxene is evidence for a discontinuous differentiation process leading to evolved rhyodacitic melts.

The spider diagrams exhibit these characteris-

tics very clearly. Extreme fractional crystallisation is indicated in the Akrotiri rhyolite (Fig. 12E), expressed by the depletion of most of the rare earth elements, Sc and Cr.

In addition, magma mixing processes, generated by replenishment of primitive basaltic melts into <sup>a</sup> pre-existing magma reservoir with evolved melt have to be envisaged, in order to explain othbulk chemical irregularities. Magma mixing can explain the basaltic andésites of Cape Mavrorachidi (Fig. 12A), while mechanical mixing gling) can be seen in the spider diagrams of andesites, andesitic dacites, dacites, and rhyodacites (Fig. 12 C, D, and F).

#### 6. Magmatic processes in the Akrotiri Volcanic Complex (3-step model)

Davis et al. (1996) has previously introduced the evolution of the Akrotiri Volcanic Complex and its magmatic processes. The lower Akrotiri canic sequence, which started mainly with silicic magmas and continued with the production of heterogeneous dacites, ended with andesites. Af<sup>a</sup> period of magmatic quiescence, andésites and dacites appeared again followed by high mina basalts and basaltic andesites. The inverse occurrence of eruptive products within the Akrotiri complex can be explained by a series of complex magmatic processes (Davis et al., 1996; DIETRICH et al., 1996; GARTZOS et al., 1996):

A 3-step model (Fig.  $13$ ) is proposed to illustrate the magmatic evolution of the Akrotiri Volcanic Complex. Steps I and II represent the major magmatic processes for the generation of the Akrotiri magmas, while step III is only regarded to as <sup>a</sup> process within magma reservoirs of greater crustal depths, maybe even close to the mantle/crust boundary. The latter mechanism may help to explain the basic magmatic inclusions within evolved dacitic and rhyodacitic magmas as injected and quenched (pillowed) hybrid melts. It is also regarded as the fundamental trigger within an instable, stratified magma reservoir leading to its turnover, degassing and ascent of the melts to <sup>a</sup> shallow crustal reservoir or to the surface.

#### 6.1. STEP I: FRACTIONATIONAL CRYSTALLISATION

#### 6.1.1. Early crystal fractionation

Early fractional crystallisation led to the formation of olivine basalts from an inferred primary, calc-alkaline basaltic melt.

The primary composition of the basaltic magmas has been discussed previously (NICHOLLS, <sup>1971</sup> and 1978; Barton and Huijsmans, 1986). A primitive basaltic composition was derived by adding 12 wt% olivine  $(Fo_{90})$ , 4 wt% clinopyroxene and 0.5 wt% Cr-spinel to the least evolved basalt (Nicholls, 1978). A similar primitive basaltic composition is used in the proposed tional crystallisation model as starting melt composition, which has been calculated by adding olivine, clinopyroxene and Cr-spinel to the average Balos basalt composition (DIETRICH et al., 1996). Tracers of this process are forsterite-rich olivine and Cr-spinel xenocrysts in the high mina basalts. The early olivine  $(Fo_{90})$  phenocrysts must have formed from <sup>a</sup> water-bearing, primitive low-Ti basaltic melt ( $xMg = 0.74$ ,  $K_2O = 0.5$  wt%,  $TiO<sub>2</sub> = 0.8 wt\%, Ba = 80 ppm, La = 6 ppm, Eu =$ 15 ppm,  $Yb = 2$  ppm,  $Y = 10$  ppm,  $Sc = 35$  ppm). Besides olivine and Cr-spinel, minor amounts of clinopyroxene must have been involved in this fractionation process:

Primary basaltic melt  $(xMg = 0.73-0.74)$ 

- (olivine, clinopyroxene, Cr-spinel)

 $=$  high alumina basalt (xMg  $= 0.70$ )

#### 6.1.2. Amphibole - plagioclase fractional crystallisation

The main crystal fractionation is marked by the crystallisation of Al, Ti, Na and K-rich Mg-hastingsitic amphibole, clinopyroxene, plagioclase  $(An_{90-85})$ , and magnetite:

- High Al-basalt
- (plagioclase, clinopyroxene, amphibole,
	- Ti-magnetite)
- $=$ rhyodacite

The depth of fractional crystallisation can only be estimated from experimental studies. Hastingsitic amphiboles seem to be rather stable at high pressures and temperatures since they all show signs of decomposition and reaction during ascent into shallow reservoirs or to the surface. This implies deep crustal conditions for their original crystallisation, probably close to the mantlecrust boundary. The extraction of these minerals, in particular amphibole with its complex composition, drastically changes the composition of the remaining melt by extracting Mg, Ti, Fe, AI, Ca and other elements, leaving a depleted but silicaenriched rhyodacitic melt.

Model calculation

- High Al-basalt
- (plagioclase, clinopyroxene, amphibole,
- Ti-magnetite)
- $=$ rhyodacite

Fractional crystallisation can also be defined as a mixing process, and therefore can be treated by using <sup>a</sup> two-stage computer based calculation (WRIGHT and DOHERTY, 1970).

The rhyodacitic magmas are a result of crystallisation of Fo-rich olivine  $(+)$  chromian spinel), An-rich plagioclase, augite, amphibole and titanomagnetite from water bearing basaltic melts (Tab. 8). A primitive basaltic composition with island arc tholeiitic (IAT) affinities was chosen for the mixing calculations, listed in table 8 (low in  $K_2O =$ 0.6 wt%,  $TiO<sub>2</sub> = 0.9$  wt% but high in MgO = 11.98 wt%).

The mixing calculations (Tab. 8) show that the calculated basaltic composition is very similar to the input basaltic composition. <sup>21</sup> wt% of evolved rhyodacitic magma can be derived by discontinuously fractionating approximately 60% cumulates, composed mainly of amphibole-plagioclase and smaller amounts of olivine (15%). Flere, we have to admit that for the olivine only an average composition of  $Fo_{83}$  was chosen, which gives the best solution. A more precise solution can be tained involving a series of calculations with small differentiation intervals and starting fractionating olivine  $F_{\text{O}_{90}}$ .

Tab. 8 Amphibole fractionation model. Input data: primitive melt (DIETRICH et al., 1996); amphibole and plagioclase from coarse grained basic inclusion Cakro <sup>11</sup> in rhyodacitic matrix Cakro 18; calc. comp. culated basaltic composition after least square fitting.

			amphibole plag An <sub>ss</sub>			oliv. Fo <sub>s3</sub> rhyodacite
	calc.	prim.	Cakro 11	Cakro 11		Cakro 18
	comp.	melt				
$wt\%$						
SiO <sub>2</sub>	48.55	50.02	41.56	46.48	39.32	72.60
TiO <sub>2</sub>	0.96	0.89	2.40	0.04	0.00	0.38
AI <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	16.97	16.23	13.98	33.72	0.00	14.32
FeO	7.84	8.07	12.91	0.64	16.42	2.40
MnO	0.12	0.12	0.19	0.04	0.20	0.04
MgO	11.98	11.90	14.58	0.07	43.91	0.30
CaO	9.29	9.65	11.35	17.47	0.15	2.60
Na <sub>2</sub> O	2.44	2.52	2.81	1.53	0.00	4.82
K,O	0.62	0.61	0.23	0.01	0.00	2.54
Total	98.78	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Solutions						
$wt\%$	99.00		36.00	26.00	15.00	21.00

#### Bulk chemical trace element modelling

The compositions of 12 selected basic xenoliths from rhyodacites of Cape Akrotiri are listed in Appendix, table A3. These porous acicular clusions belong mainly to  $D$ ,  $E$  and  $F$  types with chemical compositions from differentiated, low Mg high-alumina basalt to basaltic andésite. One inclusion (Cakro 5) with normal basaltic composition is also shown (type  $A$ ). The chemical characteristics are expressed with the help of spider agrams normalised to N-type MORB in figure 12B. These inclusions derived from slightly saturated (hypersthene normative) melts which were already enriched in the more-hygromagmatophile elements but highly depleted in Mg, Cr and Ni with respect to the olivine basalt lavas of Cape Balos and Cape Kokkinopetra.

In order to demonstrate the fractional crystallisation of amphibole, plagioclase and magnetite from basaltic melts in terms of their bulk chemical composition, two diagrams have been chosen (Figs 14 and 15). Cakro <sup>5</sup> represents the composition of olivine basalt melt, similar to the composition of the Balos basalts. The very grained amphibole-plagioclase inclusions Cakro 9 and 12 (type D) are so far the best candidates to



Fig. 14 Amphibole-plagioclase fractionational tallisation in Akrotiri basaltic magmas. Normalisation to N-type Mid-Ocean Ridge (MORB) basalt composition (Sun et al., 1979; PEARCE, 1982; SAUNDERS and Tarney, 1984).



Fig.  $15$  Amphibole-plagioclase fractionation in Akrotiri basaltic magmas; displayed in the rare earth element (REE) distribution patterns. Normalisation to Cl-chondrites (Evensen et al., 1978).

represent cumulate compositions. The latter lection is based on the assumption that these inclusions crystallised from vapor-rich hybrid basic melts, which were derived by partial melting of amphibole- and plagioclase-rich cumulates.

The following conclusions can be drawn from the two diagrams (Figs 14 and 15). During tional crystallisation of amphibole, plagioclase, magnetite and to <sup>a</sup> minor amount clinopyroxene and apatite, the incompatible elements (K, Rb, Ba, Th, and to <sup>a</sup> lesser extent Zr) are portioned into the evolved rhyodacitic to rhyolithic melts. All rare earth elements, Sr, Hf, Ti, Sc and Cr behave compatibly, being drastically extracted from the melt by the crystallisation of the cumulate phases.

The inclusions chosen do not represent ideal cumulates. The 10 to 15% enrichment of K, Rb, Ba, LREE, Hf and Th can be attributed to the mixing process of the partially molten cumulates with rhyodacitic melt prior to or during injection of the hybrid melts into the rhyodacitic magmas. The enrichment of Ti, Y and HREE accounts for the incorporation of these elements into the mafic cumulate phases.

#### 6.2. STEP II: GENERATION OF DACITES BY MINGLING PROCESSES (MECHANICAL MIXING)

The dacites built up large volumes during both volcanic cycles in the Akrotiri volcanic complex. All dacites contain variable amounts of basic magmatic inclusions and xenocrysts. The macroscopic diversity goes down to microscopic scale. Small sized (1-5 mm) magmatic inclusions and xenocrysts occur in <sup>a</sup> rhyodacitic matrix. The xenocryst compositions in the dacites are identical with the minerals fractionated in the second step, whereas the phenocrysts compositionally match the phenocrysts from the rhyodacites. Only weak normal zonations are recorded in the macrophenocrysts (amphibole and plagioclase). The complex textural diversity of the dacites is also reflected in the bulk chemical composition, which changes from one extrusion site to another, and often within one flow or plug.

Mingling of xenocrysts and magmatic inclusions with the rhyodacitic melt can derive spread in the bulk chemical variation from andesitic dacites through dacites to rhyodacites. Leastsquare modelling (not shown in this paper) has been utilised to test all steps of mingling. The process of mingling is regarded to as <sup>a</sup> mechanical process, which can be achieved during turnover in the stratified magma chamber (Fig. 13).

#### 6.3. STEP III: MAGMA MIXING

Magma mixing is understood as <sup>a</sup> homogenisation process involving at least two magmas of different chemical compositions and rheologies (McBirney, 1980). Such a process can occur under the lowing conditions:

- Replenishment of <sup>a</sup> pre-existing magma reservoir containing differentiated melts with new basaltic melt;

- turnover of an instable zoned or layered magma reservoir filled with chemically and logically different melts;

- during ascent and emplacement of compositionally different magmas;

- during multiple intrusion and cooling of melts at shallow crustal depths (i.e. dike swarms).

In island arc and continental margin environments, replenishment of magma reservoirs with hot undifferentiated melt and magma mixing seem to be common phenomena and have been intensively discussed (e.g. EICHELBERGER, 1975; Eichelberger et al., 1985; Koyagushi, 1986; FEELEY and DUNGAN, 1996). In addition, a significant melting process may accompany these mixing processes. OBERHÄNSLI et al. (1985 and 1989) and DIETRICH et al. (1986) have described partial melting effects of cumulates, observed in magmatic inclusions in basaltic andesites and andesites from Aegina and Methana. These coarsegrained amphibole/plagioclase cumulates show signs of partial melting, probably initiated by jection of hot basaltic melts into cumulate-rich magma reservoirs and generating small portions of hybrid, water-rich, foamy melts of basaltic to andesitic composition.

#### 6.3.1. Incomplete magma mixing

If magma mixing was incomplete and rapid cooling or quenching of the melts occurred, then the mixing process can still be recognised by the existence of unmixed portions of the different magmas or in different phenocrysts compositions; i.e. inverse zonation or compositional gaps.

However, it is difficult to reconstruct such <sup>a</sup> mechanism, if the process was nearly complete. Only the chemical modeling using bulk rock position, phenocryst compositions and isotopic ratios remain as useful tools.

In the case of intermediate volcanics in the "Akrotiri Volcanic Complex", the first description of incomplete magma mixing by FouquÉ (1879) is <sup>a</sup> classical example (Fig. 16). A dike south of Mt. Loumaravi clearly shows mixing phenomena of three compositionally different types of basic to



Fig. 16 Incomplete magma mixing in a basaltic andesite dike from Mt. Loumaravi; photomicrograph from FOUQUÉ (1879), crossed polars, figure size approx. 10 mm across.

intermediate melts: a glass-rich, clinopyroxene bearing dacitic melt, <sup>a</sup> glass- and plagioclase-rich andesitic melt and <sup>a</sup> fine-grained plagioclase/ clinopyroxene basaltic melt with eutectic (intersertal) textures. All three components are embedded into an interstitial pilotaxitic plagioclase-rich, high-alumina basaltic melt. Similar phenomena have been reported from basaltic andésites of the Skaros volcano in the much younger "Main Volcanic Series" of Santorini (HUIJSMANS and BAR-TON, 1983; WYERS et al., 1987; HUIJSMANS et al., 1988).

#### 6.3.2. Complete magma mixing

Partial melting by replenishment of primitive basaltic melts into magma reservoirs and complete magma mixing can explain the appearance of the small volumes ( $\sim$  5% of the total volcanic edifice) of high-alumina basalt, basaltic andésite and hypersthene bearing andésite during the first groundmass glass of dacitic to rhyodacitic composition.

#### 6.4. MAGMA MIXING BETWEEN BASALTIC AND ANDESITIC MELTS: THE GENERATION OF THE CAPE MAVRORACHIDI BASALTIC ANDESITE

Simple magma mixing also occurred in the Akrotiri Volcanic Complex, involving two endmember melt compositions besides complex mixprocesses such as partial melting of cumulates or incomplete mixing due to periodic replenishment and turnover of magma reservoirs.

#### 6.4.1. Model calculation

The hypersthene bearing andésites of the second volcanic cycle (i.e. those at Cape Mavrorachidi) are in texture and mineral compositon fairly ho-

volcanic cycle of the Akrotiri complex.

The basaltic andesites and andesites exhibit typical features of resorption, position, reactions and melting of amphibole and plagioclase (see chapter 4. Fig. 8). In the andésites, amphibole is not <sup>a</sup> phenocryst phase but always <sup>a</sup> Mghastingsitic xenocryst phase partly transformed into black opacitic aggregates. The amphiboles show all steps of resorption<br>and reaction from and reaction Mg-hastingsite (in some cases) including forsteritic olivine to diopsidic augite, magnetite, plagioclase, and glass. Further reaction leads to the recrystallisation of these clinopyroxene aggregates to form clinopy-"pseudo-phenocrysts". The groundmass phenocrysts are andesine. hypersthene and olivine  $(Fo_{65})$  in a mogeneous and show only <sup>a</sup> few almost pletely resorbed amphibole relics. These features cannot be explained by simple fractional crystallisation of olivine, spinel, clinopyroxene and plagioclase from <sup>a</sup> primitive basaltic melt alone, but by <sup>a</sup> simple mixing process between pre-existing dacitic melt with an olivine basalt magma (DIET-RICH et al., 1996). This can be demonstrated by compositional gaps in the macrophenocrysts of plagioclase and clinopyroxene. Although minor amounts of older plagioclase xenocrysts occur, we assume two endmember melt compositions to be responsible for the mixing process, olivine basalt magma from Cape Balos and andesitic to dacitic melts similar to that from Cape Mavros.

Major-element modelling (using the leastsquare calculation program by WRIGHT and Doherty, 1970) of binary mixing of basalt from Cape Balos with andesitic dacite was performed in der to test the assumption of magma mixing in the Cape Mavrorachidi basaltic andésites. The bulk chemical compositions of these volcanic rocks are listed in the Appendix, table  $A1$ . A small percentage of olivine  $(F_{\Omega_{86}})$  had to be added to the average basalt composition. The calculation (Tab. 9) clearly shows that approximately two thirds of basaltic melt and one third of andesitic to dacitic melt is required to produce the basaltic andésites of Cape Mavrorachidi.

Tab. 9 Magma mixing model. Input data: bulk rock compositions of basaltic andésite Cmav 3, ol-basalt Bal 15 and andesite Mavro 4; calc. comp.  $=$  calculated basaltic andésite composition after least square fitting.

	calc.	basalt.	ol-basalt	olivine	andes.
	comp.	and	<b>Bal 15</b>	$\text{Fo}_{86}$	dac.
		Cmay 3			Mayro 4
$wt\%$					
SiO,	53.75	53.93	49.91	39.45	62.36
TiO,	0.78	0.81	0.86	0.03	0.70
$\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$	16.50	16.01	17.65	0.03	16.14
FeO	7.32	7.57	8.11	13.26	5.22
MnO	0.13	0.14	0.15	0.21	0.08
MgO	7.45	7.44	7.58	46.83	2.96
CaO	8.94	9.11	11.22	0.19	5.65
Na <sub>2</sub> O	4.07	3.82	3.94	0.00	4.73
K,O	1.08	1.16	0.56	0.00	2.15
Total	100.02	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Solutions					
$wt\%$	100.20		62.54	3.64	33.84

6.4.2. Bulk chemical trace element modelling

Magma mixing processes can also be demonstrated with the help of trace element modelling. Normally, variation diagrams or ratio-ratio plots, considering incompatible ratios such as  $Zr/Y$  vs  $K/Rb$ or Rb vs Rb/K are used. These plots, although not



Fig. 17 Magma mixing in Cape Mavrorachidi basaltic andésite. Normalisation to N-type Mid-Ocean Ridge (MORB) basalt composition (Sun et al., 1979; Pearce, 1982; SAUNDERS and TARNEY, 1984).



Fig. 18 Magma mixing in Cape Mavrorachidi basaltic andésite displayed in the rare earth element (REE) distribution patterns. Normalisation to Cl-chondrites (Evensen et al, 1978).

given here, show hyperbolic data distributions, typical of mixing trends. In order to involve as many elements as possible, the normalised "spider diagram" (Fig.  $17$ ) and the normalised rare earth distribution diagram (Fig. 18) have been chosen.

On the spider diagram, almost all elements, compatible as well as compatible, clearly show mixing in the basaltic andesites of Cape Mavrorachidi. The minor differences in Sr, P and Ti may be explained in sampling artefacts, i.e. spatial tribution of apatite, Fe-Ti-oxides and small amounts of plagioclase xenocrysts in the andesitic dacites and in the basaltic andesites. The relatively higher Cr contents compared to Balos basalt indicates that the endmember of olivine basaltic composition should have had higher chromium

content. This effect already appeared in the major element mixing calculation, where <sup>a</sup> small amount of 3.6 wt% of olivine was added, in order to fit the perfect binary mixing. In contrast, the rare earth element distribution patterns (Fig. 18) unambiguously show mixing.

#### 7. Discussion

#### 7.1. ORIGIN OF BASALTIC MELTS AND DEPTH OF MAGMA RESERVOIRS

The discussion about the source of the Akrotiri basaltic magmas will be related to the existing erature about Santorini (NICHOLLS, 1978; HUIJSmans et al., 1988). All data, especially the trace element compositions (e.g. those of Ta, Th, Hf, U) and the rare earth elements, suggest for the mary Akrotiri basaltic magma a very similar source as for the basaltic magmas of the "Main Volcanic Series ".

The primary high alumina basaltic melts may have originated by <sup>a</sup> large percentage of partial melting from <sup>a</sup> rather depleted mantle wedge at approximately 120 to 130 km depth. Such a manthe is enriched in water and in hygromagmatophile elements K, Rb, Ba, Sr,Th, U, and LREE, derived from the breakdown of subducted high-pressure phases antigorite, phlogopite etc. from altered and metamorphosed oceanic crust (Ulmer and Trommsdorff, 1995). During ascent through the lithosphère, the primary magmas underwent highpressure fractional crystallisation of olivine, clinopyroxene and Cr-spinel under open system oxygen buffered conditions (Osborn, 1976; OSBORN and RAWSON, 1980).

Mg-rich hastingsitic amphibole and anorthitic plagioclase are present in various proportions as the two major xenocryst phases in most of the Akrotiri lavas, and therefore appear to be important "magmatic index fossils" with respect to the chemical irregularities observed in the intermediate volcanics and the fractional crystallisation processes. The crystallisation of plagioclase, phibole and Ti-magnetite together with clinopyroxene manifests a discontinuous differentiation process leading to evolved rhyodacitic melts. In addition, magma mixing and mechanical mingling processes have been recognised within the Akrotiri volcanics to play important roles in the generation of dacites and hybrid andésites.

Amphiboles, in particular hornblende, tschermakite and hastingsite, crystallise within a large stability field, ranging from approximately 2 kbar at 1025 °C (Sisson and Grove, 1993 a and b) to high-pressures between <sup>10</sup> and <sup>18</sup> kbar (Allen et al., 1975; ALLEN and BOETTCHER, 1978; SEMET and ERNST, 1981). These results would explain the disappearance of amphibole in high-crustal magma chambers. The depths of reservoirs at deeper crustal levels are still in dispute. Experimental studies on Santorini basalts and basaltic andésite (OSBORN and RAWSON, 1980) suggest crystallisation of the observed anhydrous phases plagioaugite, olivine and magnetite in deep-seated magma reservoirs > 30 km, close to the base of the Aegean crust. In the Akrotiri lavas, a composigap between magnesio-hornblende and tschermakitic hornblende in the rhyodacites and the magnesio-hastingsites in the basic inclusions and pseudocumulates exists, which lacks mental explanation. The best argument for crystallisation of amphiboles at greater depths comes from the composition of the whole volcanic edifice and its structural characteristics. The oldest andesitic to rhyodacitic Akrotiri lavas which conamphibole-rich inclusions are not associated with thick pumice deposits and lack large caldera structures. This feature is equivalent with the canic edifices on the islands of Aegina, Poros and Methana.

The volcanologie and petrologic evidence for deep seated magma chambers and rapid ascent of magmas through the crust is also supported by  $87/86$ Sr,  $\delta^{207/204}$ Pb and  $\delta^{143/144}$ Nd isotopic ratios (GUElen et al., 1987; Wyers et al., 1987; Mitropoulos et al., 1987), which indicate very little signs of crustal contamination.

#### 7.2. MAGMATIC AND VOLCANIC EVOLUTION OF THE AKROTIRI VOLCANIC COMPLEX

The Akrotiri Volcanic Complex represents the early stages of volcanic evolution of the Santorini volcanic islands. Field evidence shows that no clear remnants of an old large caldera structure within this complex exist. The flows and pyroclastic deposits were mainly deposited subaerially from fissures and cinder cones, later filled with necks and plugs. In a few cases they erupted within submarine environment.

The beginning of volcanic activity can only be estimated from volcanic detritus in the upper Pliocene volcanoclastic sediments. No other volcanic relics have been found from this early riod.

The lower part of the Akrotiri volcanic edifice is formed by dacitic to rhyodacitic flows, pumice layers, pyroclastic and epiclastic flows which were subsequently intruded by numerous andesitic dikes. Amphiboles are the most common mafic minerals in these volcanic rocks. They occur as pheno- and xenocrysts in rhyodacites, dacites and andésites and exhibit <sup>a</sup> large variation in mineral chemistry from Mg-rich hastingsite through evolved hastingsite to hornblende.

The early stages of the silicic volcanic activity in the Akrotiri complex ended with <sup>a</sup> magmatic pause accompanied by extensive uplift and sion leading to peneplanation of the Akrotiri area. The exact timing is still unclear, but it may have occurred around 600'000 to 500'000 years ago.

Magmatic reactivation started with the eruption of amphibole-free andesites and dacites and terminated with the appearance of basalts and basaltic andésites along N-S trending fault zones. It can only be assumed that <sup>a</sup> tensional tectonic regime took over in the southern Aegean arc and back arc region, due to major changes of the Mediterranean plate motions, leading to horstgraben structures (e.g. the Christiana-Santorini-Amorgos ridge). A new SW-NE trending lineament with perpendicular tensional movements parallel to the Andros basin and the Santorini-Anafi graben system seems to have developed (Perissoratis et al., 1996). This major tectonic change may have caused decompression on the mantle beneath the Santorini islands, leading to upwelling of the asthenosphere and thinning of the subcontinental lithosphere, increasing the volume and degree of partial melting.

Along the intersection between the Plio-/ Pleistocene N-S fault system and the younger SW-NE faults, larger volumes were able to rise from greater crustal depth to the surface. The major change of the tectonic regime was also accompanied by a northward shift of the volcanic eruption centres;  $(Fig. 1)$ , expressed even in the recent volcanic activity of the Kameni and Columbos volcanoes.

This whole process could also explain both the smaller magmatic volumes within the Akrotiri volcanic complex and the crystallisation of phiboles at deep crustal reservoirs. This is due to a thicker lithosphere prior to the tectonic change, and the appearance of large volumes of the younger "Main Volcanic Series" and their continfractional crystallisation processes after that change. The four major rhyodacitic pumice erupand large caldera collapses require at least six times their erupted volumes of primitive basaltic magmas, at least an order of magnitude of several 100 km3.

The major conclusion for the generation of the Akrotiri magmas can be drawn from the appearance of amphiboles within the rhyodacites and dacites as well as from their basic amphibole-plagioclase inclusions. Amphibole crystallisation seems to be controlled by the presence of waterrich basaltic melts as well as by a large stability field within thick sialic crust. The variable depths of the magma reservoirs have to be assumed cording to the stability fields of different amphibole compositions.

Therefore, discontinuous fractionation cesses involving large quantities of amphibole might have taken place at great crustal depth, leading to evolved rhyodacitic magmas and to an instable stratified layered magma reservoir. plenishment of fresh, hot primitive basaltic melts from the mantle provided enough heat and led to partial melting of amphibole-rich cumulates, generating water-rich hybrid basaltic to andesitic melts, and therefore triggering the turnover of this layered instable system with subsequent eruptions.

Petrographic, mineralogical and chemical criteria were used to demonstrate magma mixing of basaltic and andesitic to dacitic melts in the Akrotiri Volcanic Complex. Mixing must have curred in a way such that primitive olivine basaltic melts, similar in composition to that of Cape Balos, were injected into <sup>a</sup> reservoir still filled to some extent with andesitic to dacitic melts. The fact that basaltic andésites of Cape Mavrorachidi are relatively homogeneous and that the groundmass consists of typical olivine basalt mineral composition  $(An_{74-68}$  and forsteritic olivine), indicates a lag time between onset of the mixing process and eruption.

#### 7.3. ERUPTION MECHANISMS

Eruption mechanisms are dependent on magmatprocesses in magma reservoirs as well as on their size and position at different crustal levels. In the Aegean island arc <sup>a</sup> major difference in the eruption mechanism seems to exist. The younger "Main Volcanic Series" of the Santorini islands as well as the most recent volcanics of Milos, Kos, Yali, and Nisyros are highly evolved rhyodacites and rhyolites, which erupted violently forming large pyroclastic deposits. The "Plinian-type" eruptions were followed by caldera collapses, which indicate large mass deficiencies at rather shallow crustal environments of a few kilometres depth. According to phenocryst assemblages and the absence of amphibole in the volcanic products, those magmas were subjected to low-pressure fractionation prior to eruption. As a consequence, hydrothermal systems could develop, which is demonstrated by hydrothermally altered volcanic products and fumarolic activity today. "Late stage volcanism" (eruptions after the major

volcanic climax) can lead to the final discharge of the largely degassed remaining magma chambers The Kameni lavas in the Santorini caldera (Fig.  $1$ ), which were erupted between 197 B.C. and 1950 seem to demonstrate such a mechanism. The fact, that the low-temperature fumarolic activity and the low-enthalpy hydrothermal waters do not show any chemical changes during the last decades, indicates no recent magmatic replenishment of the reservoir.

In contrast, the volcanic islands of the western sector of the Aegean arc (Aegina, Methana, Poros) as well as the Akrotiri Volcanic Complex of the Santorini islands lack large quantities of pyroclastic rocks and caldera structures Amphibole and biotite are the dominant hydrous phases sent in all volcanic products.

The fact that large amounts of amphibole-rich basic inclusions and amphibole xenocrysts have been reported from the Columbos volcano by Vougioukalakis and Francalanci (1996) and by Vougioukalakis et al. (1996) indicates magmatic processes similar to those discussed for the Akrotiri volcanic complex, e.g. discontinuous crystal fractionation and magma mixing

Amphibole and biotite bearing andesitic to dacitic magmas, which are not subjected to lowpressure fractionation, must be derived from deeper crustal levels These magmas do not seem to announce their ascent with long term (several months) magmatic precursors. Such rather rapid eruption mechanisms have been described in the 200 B.C. eruption of the Methana Kameni Chora andésite volcano and in the 1649/50 Columbos eruption northeast of Santorini. This latter most hazardous and largest historical eruption in the Aegean arc started on the seafloor in 300 m depth after a short time of seismic unrest in the spring of 1649 and finished after emission of approx.  $2 \text{ km}^3$ of lavas and pyroclastics end of September 1650 A similar situation is indicated today between the Nisyros and Yali volcanic islands.

Replenishment of hot basaltic melt into cooling reservoirs at great crustal depth can partially remelt cumulates, trigger <sup>a</sup> turnover of <sup>a</sup> layered differentiated magma chamber and lead to ascent of the magmas

Degassing of magmas, although not discussed within this paper, is <sup>a</sup> continuos process present in all magmas In subduction related environments magmatic fluids and gases, such as  $H_2O$ ,  $CO$ ,  $CO_2$ ,  $CH_4$ , SO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S, N<sub>2</sub> etc. contribute to all magmatic processes. In the lavas the fluids are mainly concentrated in hydrous phases as amphibole and biotite

The combination of noble gas ratios <sup>3</sup>He/<sup>4</sup>He,  $^{20}Ne/^{22}Ne$  and  $^{40}Ar/^{36}Ar$  compared to stable isotope ratios of C, H and O allows an appropriate discussion on the mantle and magmatic origin of the noble gases, the amount of atmospheric, teoric and hydrothermal contamination, as well as the determination of equilibrium temperatures in the hydrothermal systems It is known, that the noble gases are more sensitive and precise as dicators of changes of the magmatic regime (e.g. replenishment of new melts into magma reservoirs or emplacement of magmas from deep crustal levels to the surface) or changes of major tectonic processes (e.g. rapid extensional movements or crustal displacements). The <sup>3</sup>He/<sup>4</sup>He ratios reflect well the high amount of mantle derived primordial 3He in the Nisyros and Santorim marolic condensates as well as in some geothermal waters from Milos (DIETRICH et al., 1998). These results suggest that for the island of Nisyros, mantle-derived helium may be related to degassing of magmas, probably located at great crustal depth close to the mantle/crust boundary

In order to detect such a deep seated magmatprocess and to predict <sup>a</sup> new eruptive phase it is necessary to locate the size and depth of such <sup>a</sup> magma reservoir This can be achieved by detailed seismic profiling and tomographic evaluation as well as by chemical and isotopic monitoring of fu marolic gases and hydrothermal waters

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#### Appendix

#### SAMPLE LOCALITIES

Cape Balos high-alumina olivine basalt (bulk chemistry in Tab. Al)

Bal 8:

Cape Balos (lower most pyroclastic layer, basaltic scoria).

Bal 10:

Cape Balos (basaltic scoria, base of plug). eralogy same as Bal 8.

Bal 12:

Cape Balos Chapel (basaltic scoria, base of flow).

Bal 15:

Cape Balos Plug (internal part). Basalt; mineralogy same as Bal 12.

Kok 2:

Cape Kokkinopetra (bomb from scoria). Basalt; mineralogy: plagioclase, clinopyroxene, and orthopyroxene; similar as Balos basalt.

Cape Mavrorachidi high-Mg basaltic andésite (bulk chemistry in Tab.Al)

Rdch2:

Cape Mavrorachidi (bomb from scoria). Basaltic andesite with magma mixing phenomena. Mineralogy same as Cmav2 and 3.

Cmav2:

Cape Mavrorachidi (base of lava flow behind chapel). Basaltic andésite with magma mixing phenomena.

Cmav3:

Cape Mavrorachidi (front of lava flow). Basaltic andésite.

Basaltic andesites and andesites (bulk chemistry in Tab. A1)

Messa 2:

E of Mt. Arkhangelos (altered basaltic desite dike). Porphyritic texture. Mineralogy: plagioclase, clinopyroxene (partly corroded and as clusters), opaques.

Messa 8:

SW of Mt. Loumaravi (altered basaltic desite dike). Porphyritic texture. Abundant quartz oicelli with clinopyroxenitic reaction rims. Mineralogy: plagioclase, clinopyroxene, Ti-magnetite. Xenocrysts: Plagioclase, decomposed opacitic phibole.

Arhan 7:

SE of Mt. Arkhangelos road (altered basaltic andésite dike). Texture and mineralogy similar to Messa 8.

Arhan 2:

E slope Mt. Arkhangelos (altered dolerite component in epiclastic flows). Intersertal ture. Mineralogy: plagioclase, calcite and chlorite (pseudomorph after clinopyroxene), Ti-magnetite.

Cakro 21:

SE Cape Arkrotiri, sea level (Andesite components in lowermost 23 and 24 pumice rich epiclastics). Mineralogy: plagioclase, clinopyroxene, hypersthene, opaques, and glass.

Cakro 33:

Cape Akrotiri, E of lighthouse (andesitic ponents in pumice-rich 34 and 36b epiclastics above beach conglomerate). Glass rich, porous, vitrophyric andésites. Mineralogy: phenocrysts of plagioclase, clinopyroxene and orthopyroxene. Xenocrysts: anorthitic plagioclase, olivine rimmed by clinopyroxene, clinopyroxene and pseudomorphic aggregates of clinopyroxene; opaques, clinopyroxene and glass aggregates pseudomorph after amphibole. Magma mixing phenomena.

Kast 6a:

Foothill of Castello (village of Akrotiri). Same textures and mineralogy as in Cakro 33-36.

Kast 2:

<sup>S</sup> of village of Akrotiri (black andesitic dacite component in rhyodacitic pumice). Same textures and mineralogy as in Cakro 33-36.

Andesitic dacites and dacites (bulk chemistry in Tab. A2)

WHB 3:

Cliff at sealevel, SW of Mt. Arkhangelos (dacitic sill in hydrothermally altered epiclastics). Cvun 7:

E of Cape Vounia, sea level (andésite). phyritic and glomeroporphyritic textures; rich in plagioclase-clinopyroxene clusters. Xenocrysts: plagioclase.

Cvun 9:

W of Cape Vounia at sea level (andésite plug and pyroclastics equivalent to monolithos or obelisk). Mineralogy similar as Cvun 7.

Cvun 1:

E of Cape Vounia, sea level. Dacitic component in rhyodacitic pyroclastics.

Cvun 2:

E of Cape Vounia, sea level. Andesitic component in rhyodacitic pyroclastics. Mineralogy same as Cvun 1.

Mavro 1:

W part of Cape Mavros, sea level (lowermost

hyaloclastic dacitic part). Mineralogy same as in Mavro 2.

Mavro 2:

W part of Cape Mavros: (andesitic to dacitic plug, main phase). Porphyritic and glomeroporphyritic textures; rich in plagioclase-clinopyroxene clusters. Xenocrysts: plagioclase.

Mavro 5:

E part of Cape Mavros, sea level. Mineralogy same as in Mavro 2.

Mavro 6:

E part of Cape Mavros, sea level (dacite). Texture and mineralogy similar to Mavro 2.

Mavro 4:

E part of Cape Mavros, sea level (dacite). Glass rich variety of Mavro 5.

Cvun la:

E of Cape Vounia, sea level. High-Ti andésite as component in rhyodacitic pyroclastics.

Arhan 9:

<sup>S</sup> of Mt. Arkhangelos (100 m altitude). Relict of small cinder cone. Welded scoria. High-Ti desite.

Rhodacitic lavas (bulk chemistry in Tab. A2) Bal 3:

E of Cape Balos (white rhyodacite component in lowermost pumice rich rhyodacitic pyroclastic flows.

Rdch 1:

Beach W of Cape Mavroachidi (white rhyodacite component in pumice rich epiclastic flows).

Akro 1: Rhyodacite flow <sup>S</sup> of village of Akrotiri.

Glassy matrix. Mineralogy very similar to Rdch 1. Cakro 1:

Cape Akrotiri (rhyodacitic flow, glassy trix).

Cakro 17:

SE Cape Akrotiri, sea level (pumice component from base of rhyodacitic Akrotiri flows). Mineralogy similar as Cakro 1.

Cakro 20:

SE Cape Akrotiri, sea level (glass rich clastic base of rhyodacitic Akrotiri flows). Mineralogy similar as Cakro 1.

Cakro 36a:

Cape Akrotiri, E of Lighthouse (dacitic ponent in pumice rich epiclastics above beach conglomerate). Rhyodacitic groundmass taining green magnesio hornblende) with numersmall (1-3 mm in diametre) dacitic inclusions (Type Cakro 33 and 34) and plagioclase xenocrysts.

Cvun 3:

E of Cape Vounia, sea level (dacitic ponent from oldest rhyodacitic pyroclastics). Texture and Mineralogy very similar to Cakro 36a).

#### Basic Inclusions in Rhyodacite: Cape Akrotiri (bulk chemistry in Tab. A3)

Cakro 3:

Amphibole-plagioclase inclusion. Texture: fine-grained acicular, porous. Plagioclase and greenish amphibole, traces of clinopyroxene. Compositions very similar to Cakro 12.

Cakro 4:

Basaltic inclusion similar in texture and eralogy to Cakro 5.

Cakro 7:

Amphibole-plagioclase inclusion. Texture: medium-grained (amphibole up to  $5 \text{ mm}$ ), acicular, porous. Mineralogy: plagioclase, clinopyroxcoarse brownish amphibole (magnesio-hastingsite), Ti-magnetite, glass.

Cakro 8:

Amphibole-plagioclase inclusion. Texture and mineralogy similar to Cakro 7.

Cakro 10:

Amphibole-plagioclase inclusion. Texture coarse-grained acicular, very porous. Mineralogy similar to Cakro 11.

Cakro 11:

Amphibole-plagioclase inclusion. Texture: coarse-grained (amphibole up to <sup>1</sup> cm), acicular, porous. Mineralogy: plagioclase  $An_{86-81}$  (centres),  $An_{69-61}$  (intermediate),  $An_{46-44}$  (rims); amphibole (magnesio-hastingsite, high in  $Al_2O_3$  (up to 14) wt%), Ti-magnetite, rhyolitic glass.

Cakro 12:

Amphibole-plagioclase inclusion. Texture: medium-grained, acicular, porous. Mineralogy: plagioclase  $An_{77-62}$ , magnesio-hastingsitic amphibole, orthopyroxene  $En_{58-55}$  rhyolitic glass (SiO<sub>2</sub>) up to  $84$  wt%), Ti-magnetite, interstitial glass partly of anorthoclase/alkalifeldspar composition.

Cakro 6:

Amphibole-plagioclase inclusion. Texture: fine-grained, acicular, porous. Mineralogy similar to Cakro 3: plagioclase, clinopyroxene rimmed by amphibole. Ti-magnetite, glass.

Cakro 9:

Glass-rich amphibole-plagioclase inclusion. Mineralogy: plagioclase, glass, clinopyroxene-Timagnetite aggregates, large amphiboles sio-hastingsite).

Cakro 25:

SE of Cape Akrotiri, sea level. Basaltic ponents in lowermost pumice-rich and 26: rhyodacitic epiclastic flows.

Cakro 5:

Basaltic component. Texture: fine-grained vesicular and very porous. Mineralogy: plagioclase  $An_{75-60}$ , clinopyroxene rimmed by magnesiohastingsitic amphibole; Ti-magnetite.

Rhyolites (components and pumice in lower-Akrotiri pyroclastics, e.g. Cakro 19)

Cakro 18

SE Cape Akrotiri, sea level (red rhyolitic components in lowermost and 19 pumice rich epiclastic flows).

Bal 9:

Cape Balos (rhyolitic xenolith in lowermost Balos scoria). Mineralogy similar as Cakro <sup>18</sup> and 19.

#### ANALYTICAL TECHNIQUES

#### Mineral chemistry

A Cameca SX50 microprobe with <sup>5</sup> crystal trometers was used for the analyses. To minimise the excitation volume the beam was set to 12 kV and 20 nA. A slightly defocused electron beam was used to prevent the beam from affecting the sample during the total counting time of 96 seconds. Eleven elements were measured with variable peak counting times of 10 sec (Si, Al, Ca, Mg, Na, K), 24 sec (Fe, Mn, Ti, Cr, Ni). Data were processed with PAP-correction, which is a modified ZAF correction procedure.

Amphibole compositions were normalised by assuming (i) fixed  $Fe^{3+}/(Fe^{3+} + Fe^{2+})$  ratio of 0.2 and 23 oxygens, and (ii) cations  $-$  Ca-Na-K = 13. Clinopyroxenes were normalised with <sup>a</sup> slightly modified scheme, obtaining cation-sums from 3.97 to 4.04, a deviation from the "ideal" value of 4.00 which lies within the range of instrumental errors of microprobe analyses.

#### Bulk rock chemistry

Major-element bulk chemical composition was determined by the X-ray fluorescence (XRF) analysis (Tabs Al to A3) of glass beads; the glass beads were fused from ignited powders plus  $Li_2B_4O_7$  ( $1/5$  ratio) in a gold-platinum dish at  $1150 \text{ °C}$  (DIETRICH et al., 1984). The XRF analyses were performed with an automated Philips sequential spectrometer (PW 1404) at the Eidgenössische Materialprüfungsanstalt, EMPA, Dübendorf, Switzerland. The data were corrected for drift, background, and matrix effects. Twelve USGS reference rock samples were used for bration. FeO content was determined colorimetrically. Nb, Zr, Y, Sr, U, Rb, Th, Pb, Ga, Zn, Cu, Ni, Co, Cr, V, Ce, Nd, Ba, La, Sc, and S trace-element abundances were also analysed by using X-ray orescence; 10-g powder samples were analysed by using the synthetic background method, in which major-element contents are known. A computer program was used to calculate background, ference, and mass absorption effects as well as standard deviations (NISBET et al., 1979). The USGS reference samples were used for calibration. The resulting accuracy was  $\pm$  10 to 20% at <sup>10</sup> ppm. A chromium tube was used; detection limits were around 3 to 5 ppm for most trace elements.

The trace elements Nb, Be, Li, Hf, Ta, Th, and U (Tabs A1 to A3) as well as the Rare Earth Elements were analysed from sample solutions using an inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) ELAN 5000 (Perkin-Elmer, Sciex) at the EMPA, Dübendorf, Switzerland, calibrated with pure standard solutions; detection limits approx. 1-10 ppb.

wt%	<b>Bal 12</b>	Bal 15								Kok 2 Rdch 2 Cmav 2 Messa 2 Messa 8 Cakro 21 Cakro 23 Cakro 24 Cakro 33 Cakro 34		
SiO <sub>2</sub>	49.93	49.23	50.88	53.08	53.25	54.09	54.95	57.17	58.98	55.5	57.11	58.02
TiO <sub>2</sub>	0.85	0.85	0.86	$0.8\,$	$0.8\,$	1.01	0.73	0.91	0.82	1.01	0.61	0.59
$Al_2O_3$	18.02	17.41	17.75	15.87	15.81	16.17	17.67	16.99	17.34	17.66	16.94	16.68
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	7.72	6.14	8.97	1.01	1.78	2.16	6.83	2.83	2.98	0.82	6.01	6.13
FeO	1.15	2.55	0.3	6.6	5.87	6.05	0.45	4.4	1.97	5.4	0.45	0.35
MnO	0.16	0.15	0.16	0.14	0.15	0.17	0.12	0.15	0.09	0.13	0.13	0.13
MgO	6.14	7.48	7.29	7.52	7.35	5.35	4.95	3.58	2.68	3.57	4.49	4.57
CaO	11.55	11.07	10.78	9.16	9	9.18	9.7	7.48	7.02	8.53	8.62	8.37
Na <sub>2</sub> O	2.64	3.89	1.71	3.28	3.77	3.52	2.58	3.74	4.36	3.64	2.65	2.62
$K_2O$	0.36	0.47	0.45	1.16	1.3	1.12	0.69	1.15	1.44	1.19	1.07	1.09
$P_2O_5$	0.09	0.12	0.13	0.12	0.13	0.16	0.11	0.17	0.15	0.14	0.09	0.09
$H_2O^+$	0.52	0.61	0.5	0.97	0.61	0.93	1.48	1.59	1.89	2.01	1.28	1.1
Total	99.15	99.99	99.81	99.77	99.87	99.93	100.27	100.16	99.72	99.6	99.46	99.77
D.I.	28.4	34.3	25.6	34.6	39.6	39.1	38.1	49.7	57.1	43.7	43.8	45
Nb	$\overline{4}$	$\overline{4}$	$<$ 3	$\tau$	6	$\tau$	$\lt$ 3	$\overline{7}$	8	$\overline{7}$	5	$<$ 3
Be	0.45	0.38	0.44	0.69	0.79	0.77	0.58	1.06	1.05	0.9	0.5	0.63
Zr	52	53	74	112	114	128	87	133	115	99	97	105
Y	13	11	12	13	13	21	16	18	11	16	$\boldsymbol{9}$	9
$S_{\rm{I}}$	212	211	268	150	150	185	321	224	222	236	184	184
Ba	88	91	155	187	199	182	326	317	316	284	190	199
Rb	$8\,$	10	10	28	30	26	23	25	31	26	22	21
Li	4.54	3.19	2.92	8.31	5.25	7.85	5.14	3.9	5.57	3.49	7.76	10.2
Hf	1.71	1.66	2.13	2.91	3.39	3.79	2.54	3.54	3.32	3.12	2.88	3.05
Ta	0.13	0.25	0.1	0.53	0.59	0.3	0.3	0.58	0.53	0.44	0.16	0.18
Th	1.1	1.23	0.9	5	6.5	5.5	5.4	6.2	8.17	5.99	4.11	4.64
$\mathbf U$	0.29	0.11	0.49	1.79	1.88	1.98	1.85	2.11	3.64	2.55	1.13	1.25
Ga	12	12	12	11	13	12	12	13	11	13	10	11
Zn	56	59	60	66	60	70	55	74	61	81	56	54
Cu	41	34	20	54	49	28	55	8	$<$ 3	15	$\overline{4}$	$\boldsymbol{9}$
Co	28	38	21	27	149	17	7	5	$<$ 3	$<$ 3	$<$ 3	$\lt$ 3
V	259	224	234	231	197	215	247	242	145	250	178	162
Ni	52	64	73	101	96	39	26	$\leq$ 3	12	14	25	32
Cr	142	128	223	309	268	135	51	4	20	20	62	147
Sc	36	33	34	34	30	32	26	26	16	28	22	22
$\boldsymbol{\mathrm{F}}$	$<$ 30	$<$ 30	$<$ 30	235	138	142	412	165	258	198	$< 30$	$<$ 30
La	6.97	6.17	9.35	12.9	17.5	14	17.1	19.8	21.2	16.7	11.9	13.9
Ce	15	14.1	21	28	32.5	30.3	32.8	37.8	40	32.9	22.5	24.8
Pr	2.23	1.96	2.79	3.07	3.91	3.86	4.37	4.36	4.4	3.83	2.84	3.14
Nd	10.8	8.91	11.7	12.3	15.9	16.7	17.7	17.3	17.3	15.7	10.9	11.9
Sm	3.19	2.55	2.8	2.92	3.75	4.62	3.78	4.04	4.14	4.12	2.29	2.48
Eu	$\mathbf{1}$	0.83	0.98	0.69	0.96	1.29	1.12	1.14	1.28	1.32	0.8	0.85
Gd	3.7	3.5	3.32	3.24	4.34	5.5	4.2	4.4	4.57	4.85	2.6	2.78
Tb	0.58	0.51	0.55	0.47	$0.6\,$	0.86	0.67	0.65	0.63	0.62	0.45	0.45
Dy	3.65	3.34	3.54	3.1	3.91	4.87	4.18	4.34	4.2	4.37	3.13	3.13
Ho	0.78	0.72	0.76	0.68	0.87	1.04	0.89	0.93	0.87	0.94	0.7	0.69
Er	2.39	2.04	$2.2\phantom{0}$	1.97	2.57	3.26	2.46	2.7	2.65	2.88	1.95	2.1
Tm	0.35	0.32	0.33	0.29	0.39	0.47	0.4	0.42	$0.4\,$	0.41	0.32	0.32
Yb	2.3	$\overline{2}$	2.06	1.92	2.35	2.85	2.48	2.48	2.37	2.72	2.05	2.02
Lu	0.32	0.29	0.31	0.27	0.36	0.44	0.37	0.39	0.36	0.38	0.3	0.3

Tab. A1 Bulk chemical compositions of basalts, basaltic andesites and andesites from Akrotiri volcanoes.

# MAGMA DIFFERENTIATION IN THE AKROTIRI VOLCANIC COMPLEX, 261 SANTORINI, GREECE





wt%			Cakro 7 Cakro 11 Cakro 12 Cakro 9 Cakro 25 Cakro 5			
SiO <sub>2</sub>	50.44	49.33	51.75	54.74	50.32	50.27
TiO <sub>2</sub>	1.06	1.09	1.06	0.90	0.92	0.82
AI <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	18.08	19.04	18.00	17.83	17.80	18.12
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	5.73	8.12	7.08	4.01	5.86	4.42
FeO	4.40	2.80	3.05	4.50	3.57	4.05
MnO	0.20	0.21	0.21	0.20	0.17	0.15
MgO	4.80	3.95	4.63	3.47	5.09	5.35
CaO	8.51	9.10	8.44	7.38	10.25	11.58
Na <sub>2</sub> O	4.20	3.54	3.81	4.61	3.39	2.88
$K_2O$	0.80	0.44	0.57	0.58	0.52	0.37
$P_2O_5$	0.23	0.17	0.13	0.26	0.15	0.12
	1.59	1.99	1.07	1.46	1.46	1.26
$H2O+$						
Total	100.04	99.78	99.80	99.94	99.51	99.43
D.I.	40.30	36.70	40.70	48.00	34.90	29.60
Nb	6	6	6	6	16	5
Be	1.00	n.d.	0.97	0.96	0.60	0.87
Zr	136	127	143	169	90	72
Y	27	21	25	29	16	15
Ba	214	198	212	220	101	130
Sr	351	403	357	336	274	245
<b>Rb</b>	11	7	8	11	10	8
Li	$\overline{\mathbf{4}}$	3	4	$\overline{c}$	$\boldsymbol{2}$	3
Hf	3.53	n.d.	3.67	4.33	3.50	1.96
Ta	0.15	n.d.	0.10	0.32	1.20	0.28
			4.76	6.32	2.55	5.15
Th U	5.17	n.d.				
	0.27	n.d.	0.42	0.65	0.16	0.47
Ga	15	16	15	15	12	12
Zn	81	84	75	75	83	88
Cu	10	15	13	14	12	14
Co	9	26	13	$<$ 3	6	33
V	236	234	231	140	148	264
Ni	14	16	$<$ 3	$<$ 3	19	28
Cr	< 6	7	< 6	< 6	27	296
Sc	33	29	34	23	22	39
DF	121	137	170	256	310	180
La	21.30	n.d.	22.30	19.10	11.90	9.80
Ce	41.50	n.d.	42.80	35.00	28.10	19.00
Pr	5.57	n.d.	5.93	5.04	3.98	2.70
Nd	23.70	n.d.	24.90	20.90	18.20	11.20
Sm	5.62	n.d.	5.87	4.65	4.60	2.89
Eu	1.61	n.d.	1.73	1.31	1.49	0.87
Gd	6.33	n.d.	6.24	5.10	4.98	3.36
Tb	0.90	n.d.	0.90	0.70	0.64	0.47
Dy	5.92	n.d.	5.51	4.59	3.77	3.23
Ho	1.25	n.d.	1.18	1.00	0.69	0.69
Er	3.59	n.d.	3.44	3.01	1.80	2.05
Tm			0.50	0.44	0.23	0.31
	0.54	n.d.				
Yb	3.20	n.d.	3.19	2.52	1.25	1.95
Lu	0.49	n.d.	0.47	0.39	0.18	0.29

Tab. A3 Bulk chemical compositions of basic inclusions in Cape Akrotiri rhyodacite