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Appendix A

Clast shape and textural associations in peperite as a guide to hydromagmatic interactions: Late Permian basaltic and basaltic andesite examples from Kiama, Australia
Clast shape and textural associations in peperite as a guide to hydromagmatic interactions: Late Permian basaltic and basaltic andesite examples from Kiama, Australia

Introduction

Interaction between magma or lava and wet unconsolidated sediment is common in environments where sedimentation accompanies volcanism, especially in subaqueous settings where large volumes of magma are emplaced sub-seafloor as syn-sedimentary intrusions. A variety of processes and products attributable to magma-wet sediment interaction have been recorded, including intrusive pillows (Snyder and Fraser 1963a,b; Kano 1991), effusive magma-sediment slurries (Lawson 1972, Leat and Thompson 1988, Sanders and Johnston 1989), and peperite (Fisher 1960, Schmincke 1967, Williams and Mc Birney 1979, Brooks et al. 1982, Kokelaar 1982, Busby-Spera and White 1987, Brooks 1995). Peperite is a genetic term for a rock formed by the mixing of magma or lava with wet sediment. Peperite occurs at contacts between intrusions and the host sediment (Hanson and Schweickert 1982, Branney and Suthren 1988), along basal contacts of lavas (Schmincke 1967) or surrounds burrowing parts of lavas. Here I describe peperite and related structures in basaltic and basaltic andesite lavas and syn-sedimentary intrusions from the Late Permian Broughton Formation, Kiama, New South Wales. Because of continuous coastal exposure at this locality it has been possible to interpret from field observations the significance of textures and structures in peperite.

Peperite is useful for demonstrating contemporaneous volcanism and sedimentation, and because it preserves evidence of progressive stages in hydrovolcanic interactions (non-explosive mixing, steam explosions). Busby-Spera and White (1987) identified two textural types of peperite: in blocky peperite, clasts derived from the magma have polyhedral blocky shapes and commonly fit together like a jigsaw puzzle, whereas in globular peperite, juvenile clasts are bulbous. In this study variations in clast shapes and interrelationships are interpreted in terms of changing hydrovolcanic interactions during magma-sediment mixing. In particular, the role of host-sediment properties in determining peperite type is assessed and associations between peperitic, autoclastic and coherent facies are examined.

Terminology and description of peperite

Peperite can be identified, described and interpreted on the basis of (1) igneous clast shape; (2) fabric; and (3) location with respect to the margin of an igneous body. Clast
shapes described in this study are present in many other examples of peperite (e.g. Busby-Spera and White 1987, Branney and Suthren 1988, Hanson 1991, Hanson and Wilson 1993, McPhie 1993, Rawlings 1993, Brooks 1995). Important insights into hydromagmatism, and intrusive and mixing processes might be gained from the investigation of the complex relationships between different clast types and textural associations, so it is important that complexities are recorded. Peperite consisting of one clast type is termed blocky, globular, ragged or platy peperite following on from Busby-Spera and White (1987). Peperite containing a high proportion of clasts from more than one textural group is here classified as mixed peperite and the clast shapes indicated (e.g. mixed ragged-globular peperite). In peperite with a closely packed fabric (Hanson and Wilson 1993), sediment fills joints and fractures that define pseudo-pillows (Watanabe and Katsui 1976; Yamagishi 1987, 1991), and columns and polyhedral joint blocks (Brooks et al., 1982) in the coherent facies. Peperite with dispersed fabric (Hanson and Wilson 1993) is a sediment matrix-rich breccia with clasts and tongues of the igneous component. Peperite occurs at the margins of lavas and intrusions and is present as pods, sheets and dykes in massive coherent facies within the interior of the units.

Geological Setting

Peperite examined in coastal exposures at Kiama, New South Wales occurs in the upper part of the Late Permian Broughton Formation. The Broughton Formation and overlying coal-bearing Pheasants Nest Formation form part of a conformable regressive sedimentary succession within the Permo-Triassic Sydney Basin (Cas and Bull 1993).

The Broughton Formation and the lower part of the Pheasants Nest Formation include both sedimentary and volcanic facies associations (Raam 1969). The sedimentary facies association is dominated by thin to thickly bedded immature sandstone, pebble conglomerate and mudstone of volcanic provenance, and occurs as four intervening units between volcanic facies of the Broughton Formation. Units are interpreted as high-density turbidity current and tractional current deposits emplaced in a storm- and tide-dominated, shallow marine environment (Bull and Cas 1989). Dropstones within the lower part of the Broughton Formation suggest that periodic coastal sea ice and/or icebergs were present during deposition. Dips of bedding rarely exceed 2°. The volcanic facies association comprises nine shoshonitic basaltic to basaltic andesite lavas and syn-sedimentary intrusions, previously termed latites, and associated autoclastic breccia and peperite (Carr 1985). Three of the lowermost members of Broughton Formation are relevant to this study. They are, from oldest to youngest, the Blow Hole Latite Member, the Kiama Sandstone Member and the Bumbo Latite Member (Fig. 1). The Blow Hole Latite Member is holocrystalline and porphyritic, containing euhedral to subhedral
plagioclase and pyroxene phenocrysts, and chloritic pseudomorphs of olivine phenocrysts, in a fine-grained pilotaxitic groundmass. The groundmass consists of plagioclase microlites, pyroxene microlites, chlorite, an unidentified opaque phase (magnetite?), and interstitial potassium feldspar. The petrography of the Bumbo Latite Member is similar, although olivine phenocrysts are absent and the groundmass is finer grained. Volcanic and sedimentary facies associations are well exposed in coastal cliffs at Kiama. However, outcrop inland is restricted to quarries and road cuts.

**Contact Relationships**

The Blow Hole Latite Member is a 50 m thick basaltic andesite sheet which was initially interpreted as a tripartite intrusion (Raam 1964). However, Bull and Cas (1989) considered that only the middle unit of the sheet was partly intrusive, and regarded it as a lava which locally burrowed into wet sediment. This study demonstrates that the Blow Hole Latite Member can be divided into two flow units with peperitic contacts suggesting their intrusion into wet unconsolidated sediments. A thin, poorly exposed horizon of bedded sandstone (Rifle Range Tuff Member, Raam 1964) exposed at Rifle Range Point (Fig. 1) separates the upper and lower flow units. The middle flow unit proposed by previous authors is a peperitic facies of the lower flow unit. The upper and lower units are interpreted as syn-sedimentary intrusions, due to the volume and extent of peperite development. However, critical facies relationships required to discount a burrowing flow are absent due to poor exposure inland.

The Bumbo Latite is a 150 m thick massive, columnar jointed basalt sheet above the Kiama Sandstone Member (Fig. 1). The base of the member is locally peperitic and the upper contact was not examined in this study. The Bumbo Latite also has been interpreted as a tri-composite extrusion (Bowman 1974).

At map scale the sheets are broadly concordant with bedding in the enclosing sedimentary rocks. However, at outcrop scale contacts vary from relatively planar to complex and highly irregular. Unmixed lower contacts vary from smooth to undulating with 10-20 cm amplitude lead casts of coherent basaltic andesite separated by flames of sandstone. Underlying sedimentary rocks are relatively undisturbed except for minor soft-sediment deformation attributable to the loading effect of the sheets.
Figure 1. Geology of the Permian Broughton Formation at Kiama, showing complex relationships between peperite, hyaloclastite and coherent facies in the Blow Hole and Bumbo Latite Members.
Facies of the Blow Hole and Bumbo Latite Members

Coherent Facies
Regular, well developed, wide (to 1 m) columnar joints characterise the massive interiors of the Bumbo and Blow Hole Latite Members. In places (e.g. Kaleula Point) column faces are dissected by interconnected, broadly curved tortoise shell joints which, in three dimensions, define equant polyhedral blocks. More often columns are cut by less regular, curved and planar joints. Column axes are generally subvertical and perpendicular to sheet margins. However, along contacts with some dyke-like peperitic domains in the Blow Hole Latite Member, column axes are subhorizontal at contacts, but progressively steepen and become subvertical a few metres into massive basaltic andesite (Fig. 2, 3A). Along the top of peperite dykes, columns are subvertical, but are cut at right angles by concentric joints spaced a few 10's of centimetres apart (Fig. 2). Concentric joints mirror the upper margin of the peperite domains, forming a wavy pattern where peperite dykes are closely spaced.

Figure 2. Cartoon illustrating the facies and facies relationships of lower flow unit in the Blow Hole Latite intrusion. 1 — columnar jointed coherent facies; 2 — blocky jointed coherent facies with pseudo-lobes and pseudo-pillows; 3 — dispersed peperite facies; 4 — dispersed peperite in the interior of the sheet; 5 — closely-packed peperite; 6 — hyaloclastite; 7 — undisturbed sediment.

Near contacts with sedimentary facies or peperitic zones, columnar joints merge into a several metre wide interval of blocky jointing. Widely spaced, smoothly curved, intersecting joints outline polyhedral blocks, 2-6 metres in length (pseudo-pillows, Watanabe and Katsui 1976; Yamagishi 1987, 1991), many of which are internally jointed. Joints are progressively more closely spaced within a metre or two of contacts.
Appendix A

(cf. Brooks et al., 1982) dissecting the rock into small blocks, 5 to 30 cm across. Some blocks are defined by intersecting radial and concentric joints which diverge outward from small (20-30 cm) discontinuous apophysis-like tongues of peperite (Fig. 3B). Blocky jointed basalt or basaltic andesite is in direct contact with peperite along part or all of some contacts and elsewhere grades into hyaloclastite.

Locally in the Blow Hole Latite Member, subvertical platy joints form an intervening zone between columnar jointed and blocky jointed coherent facies. Platy joints are laterally continuous, spaced up to 1.5 metres apart, dissected by crude blocky jointing, and conform to contacts with peperitic and blocky jointed domains. Subhorizontal joints up to 10' s of metres in length form bifurcating networks in both platy- and blocky-jointed domains.

**Hyaloclastite Facies**

Exposures of hyaloclastite are monomictic and characterised by jigsaw-fit of polyhedral blocky and cuneiform clasts separated by minor amounts of finely comminuted magmatic rock. In the Blow Hole Latite Member, in situ hyaloclastite may be the brecciated equivalent of large parts of the coherent facies or form a narrow selvedge between blocky jointed coherent facies and peperite. Often, clasts decrease in size approaching peperitic contacts and some fractures have been invaded by sediment, forming peperite.

At Blow Hole Point, small pods of hyaloclastite are enclosed by massive columnar and blocky jointed basaltic andesite. Almost continuous outcrop between Blow Hole Point, Black Beach and Pheasant Point (Fig. 1) provides a section through the outer interior to the margin of the upper Blow Hole Latite Member, and suggests that it is a sill. The hyaloclastite facies can be regarded as an intermediate facies between the massive columnar- and blocky-jointed coherent facies and marginal peperite. Features which characterise this transition are, from the margin inward, a rapid decrease in peperite to hyaloclastite, reduction in the degree of brecciation, and replacement of blocky jointing by columnar jointing as the major joint style.

**Closely-packed peperite**

Peperite with closely-packed fabric occurs only within the interior of the Blow Hole Latite Member. Blocky jointed coherent facies merge into domains of closely-packed peperite where sediment is present between widely spaced, smoothly curved, intersecting joints which define polyhedrally jointed blocks (Fig. 2). More continuous sediment-filled subhorizontal joints, up to 30 m in length, outline pseudo-pillows (Fig. 3C). Pseudo-pillows are dissected by internal joints, which are free of sediment, or else separated by a thin or thick infill of sediment (cf. Yamagishi et al. 1989). Basaltic andesite in the interior and margins of pseudo-pillows is texturally equivalent to that of the massive facies.
Figure 3.

Outcrop features of the Blow Hole Latite Member (A-D, F) and Bumbo Latite Member (E).

(A) Transition from blocky jointing (b) to columnar jointing (c) passing out from the margin of a dyke-like body of dispersed pperite within the interior of the intrusion (p). Columns are sub-horizontal at the contact with the dyke but progressively steepen and become subvertical. Pack for scale. Marsden Head.

(B) Lobate incursions (arrow) of pperite (p) into blocky jointed coherent facies (b). Within the coherent facies, trails of ellipsoidal vesicles conform to the shape of some parts of the contact. Scale 10 cm long. Kendalls Point.

(C) Closely-packed pperite showing progressive dismembering of coherent basalt into pseudo-pillows (p). Sediment fills fractures between subhorizontal fractures (arrow) and fractures in pseudo-pillows. Kaleula Head.

(D) Cross section through lobes (l) dissected by incipient columnar and blocky jointing and partially enclosed in altered dispersed pperite (p). Clasts in the breccia and adjacent to lobe margins display jigsaw-fit texture demonstrating that the lobe and breccia are cogenetic. Marsden Head.

(E) Detailed drawing from photograph. Type D lobes (l) enclosed in cogenetic pperite have altered margins (a) and unaltered jointed (j) and cores (u). Parts of some lobe margins are strongly vesicular (v). Peperite with vesicular clasts (vp) contrasts with pperite-dominated by poorly vesicular polyhedral blocky clasts (bp). Scale 10 cm long. Bombo Point.

(F) Lamination (arrow) and concentration of lithic clasts (l) on the ?lee side of a juvenile clast (j) derived from the walls of the enclosing sheet fracture in closely-packed pperite. Juvenile clast is 2.5 cm long. Kaleula Head.
However, along some contacts with sediment less than a millimetre of the groundmass is black in colour and charged with a fine unidentified opaque phase.

Subhorizontal fractures in closely-packed peperite are filled with up to 10 cm of siltstone to sandstone. However, thicknesses of sediment vary considerably along their length. Towards fracture terminations, infills decrease to a sub-millimetre film which is present along the whole length of the fracture, or else fractures are sediment free. In some cases, segments or the terminations of subhorizontal fractures comprise stacked sets of interconnected, sediment-filled, en-echelon fractures. Similar, but subvertical en-echelon fractures characterise some outcrops of the polyhedrally jointed coherent facies. En-echelon fractures are interpreted as tensile fractures formed by non-rotational, dilational strain during the invasion of overpressured sediment (cf. Beach 1975, Francis 1982).

The surfaces of subhorizontal fractures are sharp, but have an irregular form which reflects small-scale steps in the direction of fracture propagation and incomplete exfoliation of incipient clasts from some walls. Platy clasts (cf. Brooks 1995) liberated from fracture surfaces form jigsaw-fit aggregates separated by minor amounts of sediment matrix. Apophyses of sediment extend a few centimetres in from some sheet fracture walls and locally have formed peperite comprising globular-shaped clasts.

Close to domains of dispersed peperite, outlines of pseudo-pillows are masked as the proportion of sediment-filled fractures increases. Remnants of large pseudo-pillows enclose multiple smaller pseudo-pillows which, with increasing brecciation, disintegrate into aggregates of blocky to ellipsoidal clasts separated by sediment matrix. Wedge-shaped, sediment filled fractures penetrate the pseudo-pillows. The largest fractures are over 1 m in length and, where closely spaced, generate complex serrated margins to pseudo-pillows. Thinner wedges extending in from the surfaces of larger fractures locally merge, outlining platy clasts surrounded by sediment.

At Marsden Head, well developed, subvertical columnar joints, cut at right angles by subhorizontal joints, extend upward from a subhorizontal sheet-like body of dispersed peperite in the interior of the sheet. An irregular, roughly ellipsoidal section of columnar jointing, 10 m wide and 5 m high, that occurs 1 m above the peperite is dissected by blocky joints and sediment-filled fractures. Ghosts of former columnar joints are visible towards the centre of the zone, but are best observed along gradational contacts with intact columnar jointed basaltic andesite. Domains of blocky jointed basaltic andesite are dissected by fine sediment-filled fractures that are connected to the underlying peperite by a network of sediment veins (cf. Brooks et al., 1982). Some veins follow the margins of column faces, but most form bifurcating networks within the blocky jointed interiors of remnant columns. Farther to the south, sediment fills the space between some column
faces. Relationships at these two localities suggest that columnar jointing was initiated synchronous with peperite formation.

**Dispersed Peperite**

Peperite with dispersed fabric passes into massive blocky jointed coherent facies, or grades through an intervening zone of closely-packed peperite as the proportion of sedimentary matrix between clasts decreases. Contacts with the enclosing facies are highly irregular.

Dispersed peperite occurs from the base to top of the Blow Hole Latite and does not appear to be restricted to a specific level. In map view, this facies forms elliptical pods and interconnected peperite tongues, a few metres wide and up to 10 m long, isolated in blocky jointed coherent facies. Tongues separate lobe-like, blocky jointed, coherent domains which extend in from the surrounding coherent facies. In cross-section, dyke-like bodies, irregular branching networks, and sheets of peperite are surrounded by coherent facies or extend up from the base of the sheets to more than 10 m into coherent facies. Pods and tongues of peperite apparently isolated within coherent facies are interpreted as cross-sections through dykes (cf. Brooks et al., 1982). However, others are evidently rootless and direct connections to the enclosing sedimentary package are not apparent. Elliptical domains of coherent basalt or basaltic andesite partially or completely enclosed in peperite resemble cross-sections through lava-lobes (Figs. 3D, 4, 5A-B).

Most peperitic domains include poorly- and strongly-vesicular parts, resulting in apparent polymictic breccias in which pods and fingers of contrasting vesicularity are juxtaposed. Clasts contain a uniform to heterogeneous distribution of vesicles ranging from 0.1 to 3.5 cm in diameter, and vary from non-vesicular to containing around 15% vesicles; some are nearly scoriaceous. At the margins of some poorly vesicular coherent facies, a coherent vesicular rind passes out into peperite comprising vesicular clasts (Fig. 4), demonstrating that the facies are cogenetic. Along some contacts within the Blow Hole Latite Member, lobate apophyses of peperite (10-20 cm across) comprising vesicular clasts are enclosed in weakly-vesicular coherent facies (Fig. 3B). Aligned ellipsoidal vesicles in the weakly-vesicular coherent basalt-andesite mirror the broad shape of some of these contacts. In many apophyses, sediment is concentrated at the top of the structure, possibly trapped there as expanded pore water cooled, preventing further advance into the still plastic basaltic andesite. Clasts associated with vesicular domains have fluidal and globular shapes although some clasts in poorly vesicular domains also have these shapes. In some outcrops (e.g. Kendalls Point, Marsden Head), in situ hyaloclastite at the margins of the coherent facies passes into dispersed peperite containing jigsaw-fit aggregates of polyhedral blocky clasts. Within the peperite, groups of poorly vesicular clasts with jigsaw-fit texture are enclosed by areas where clast rotation and separation are
evident. In some exposures (e.g. Kendalls Point), wide (5-40 cm) subhorizontal sediment-filled fractures can be traced through the breccia. Fracture walls are irregular and stepped.

Occurrences of dispersed peperite at the margins of the Blow Hole and Bumbo Latite Members consistently have a dispersed fabric. This is best illustrated along the contact between the Bumbo Latite Member and the underlying Kiama Sandstone Member at Bombo Point. Vesicular domains occur as small pods in coherent poorly vesicular basalt and as peperite which encloses small lobe-like bodies of poorly vesicular basalt up to 0.8 m in length (Figs. 3E, 5D). Away from contacts, there is a transition from tube-vesicles to round and ellipsoidal vesicles in coherent vesicular basalt. Margins of large lobes and all of the smallest lobes are light green in colour and altered, whereas lobe interiors are black and unaltered. Lobe-like bodies show progressive disintegration into jigsaw-fit aggregates of blocky clasts. Jigsaw-fit texture is poorly preserved in peperite containing vesicular clasts. Contacts between poorly- and strongly-vesicular domains are mostly sharp. However, mixing of vesicular and non-vesicular clast types has locally generated texturally complex peperite. Sandstone containing juvenile vesicular clasts fills some fractures in the poorly vesicular lobe-like bodies, so that the lobes appear to intrude earlier, texturally distinct peperite.

The upper contact of the upper Blow Hole Latite Member is extensively exposed on the shore platform at Pheasants Point. Pods, tongues and sheets of massive to blocky jointed basaltic andesite up to 5 m in length are enclosed in cogenetic peperite (Fig. 5C). Parts of some tongues are cut by wide to narrow sediment-filled fractures which dissect them into smaller bodies and irregular blocks with jigsaw-fit geometry. Small digitate apophyses of basaltic andesite up to 5 cm in length extend out from lobe margins. In detail, much of the peperite consists of interconnected, bulbous, entrail-like domains of basaltic andesite which are separated by sediment, but which can be traced back to coherent facies of the lobes. Peperite at the margins of some lobes encloses pods comprising clasts which are more vesicular and/or have different shapes, and are separated by greater amounts of sediment. Bedding in sandstone above the contact zone is undisturbed, in contrast to the near complete destruction of bedding in the peperitic facies.

**Lobes**

Lobe-like bodies of coherent basalt and basaltic andesite are isolated in the peperite or connected to coherent facies by wide stems of the same composition. On the basis of size, shape and relationships with associated peperite, lobes are divided into four types; A to D (Fig. 5). Peperite in the interior of the sheets incorporates types A-D, whereas peperite at
contacts with then enclosing sediments contains only types C and D. In peperitic facies of the Bumbo Latite Member, only type D lobes have been recognised.

Type A lobes — are elliptical- to pendant-shaped when viewed in cross-section (Figs. 3D, 5A), and tongue-shaped to elliptical in map view. They are up to 25 m in length and 20 m wide. Lobe interiors are unaltered and dissected by intersecting polyhedral joints, or polyhedral-jointed basaltic andesite encloses an inner zone of incipient radial columnar jointing. Pale green, in situ hyaloclastite (± peperite) forms a selvedge along segments of some lobe margins. Parts of some margins are vesicular and grade out into peperite comprising vesicular clasts. Rarely, vesicular pods to 15 cm wide occur in the lobes. Lobe interiors are penetrated by sediment-filled fractures. Fractures are planar along contacts with poorly vesicular domains, but have more irregular shapes when cutting numerous vesicles.

Type B lobes — Fractures at the margins of the type B lobes are penetrated by sediment, whereas lobe interiors are sediment-free (Fig. 5B). Sediment-filled fractures cut across some larger lobes producing trains of progressively smaller remnant coherent domains, which become more widely spaced as larger segments of the lobes are brecciated. Jigsaw-fit aggregates of clasts separated by sediment outline former large lobes which have undergone complete brecciation. Clasts become smaller and separated by greater amounts of sediment forming a matrix between the lobes. Slight modification of jigsaw-fit textures by rotation and separation of clasts, to complete loss of jigsaw-fit texture is widespread in the matrix.
Figure 5. Field sketches of lobes formed by incomplete brecciation in peperite facies of the Blow Hole Latite (A–C) and dispersed peperite facies of the Bumbo Latite (D). A—Cross section of a type A lobe; Kaleula Head. B—Plan view of a type B lobe in peperite displaying in situ and clast-rotated textures; Marsden Head. C—Type C lobe gradational into peperite containing clasts varying from poorly to strongly vesicular and from blocky to globular in shape; Pheasant Point. D—Type D lobes enveloped by an altered margin and enclosed in peperite containing domains of poorly and strongly vesicular clasts. Coherent facies show an equivalent range in vesicularity to clasts in peperite; Bumbo Point.

Type C lobes — Type C lobes characterise the peperitic upper margin of the upper Blow Hole Latite Member. Sheets of relatively coherent jointed basaltic andesite enclose pods and large domains of peperite (e.g. Marsden Head). Outlines of lobes become distinct as the proportion of peperite increases, enclosing relic pods of polyhedrally jointed basaltic andesite to 1 metre in size (Fig. 5C). Sediment-filled fractures dissect large lobes into groups of blocky clasts and small lobes which are separated by sediment matrix-rich domains. Clasts fit together along some margins but others have moved following fragmentation. Variation in clast shapes and vesicularity produces texturally complex peperite.

Type D lobes — Within some peperitic domains, poorly vesicular coherent basalt or basaltic andesite is interleaved with strongly vesicular intervals to 1m across (Fig. 5D). In
strongly vesicular domains, there is a gradation between coherent basalt or basaltic andesite, hyaloclastite and sediment matrix-rich and sediment matrix-poor peperite. All facies contain isolated pods and finger-like protrusions of poorly vesicular coherent or polyhedrally jointed basaltic andesite (Figs. 3E, 5D). Those pods and fingers in peperitic domains resemble concentric pillows (cf. Yamagishi 1987) and small pillow lobes. Some lobes are enveloped by a hyaloclastite (± peperite) sheath comprising poorly vesicular blocky clasts. Similar clasts are isolated in the surrounding peperite which is dominated by vesicular clasts.

**Clast types and shapes**

Peperite contains igneous clasts that can be divided into six main textural types on the basis of clast shape and relationships between clasts (Fig. 6).

Globular clasts — Globular clasts have bulbous, globular shapes ("entrail globular" clasts) or are roughly equant but are bound by finely digitate, fluidal margins ("equant globular" clasts). There is a progression in clast shapes between entrail- and equant-globular. In detail, most "clasts" are connected by fluidally-shaped stems a few millimetres to several centimetres wide; they are incipient clasts formed through fragmentation mechanisms which did not go to completion.

*Entrail globular*

Interconnected incipient clasts with rounded globular shapes form complex branching entrail-like interdigitations with sediment (Fig. 6A). Digits terminate in the surrounding sediment or connect small subrounded patches of relatively coherent igneous component. The patches are up to several tens of centimetres across and many contain small, centimetre-sized blebs of sediment. Pinching off of branches along the bifurcating digits has delivered discrete clasts to the surrounding sediment. Only a thin film of homogenised sediment separates some clasts from their parent digit, whereas others are surrounded by large amounts of sediment.

*Equant globular*

In peperite comprising equant globular clasts there is less disruption of the igneous component as incipient clasts are larger and interpenetration with sediment is largely restricted to their margins (Fig. 6B). Incipient clasts are cut by bifurcating sinuous seams of sediment which propagate in from clast margins or outward from the interior. Other clast margins are planar and have sharp or finely serrated margins which imply that they are quench fractures.
Mesoblocky clasts — Mesoblocky clasts are an important but relatively minor component of some vesicular and poorly vesicular closely-packed and dispersed peperite facies. Along margins of mesoblocky domains, jagged sediment-filled fractures dissect the igneous component, defining progressively smaller fragments. Remnant finger-like projections of coherent and in situ fragmented igneous component extend out from margins of the coherent facies into clouds of mesoblocky fragments (Fig. 6C). Fragments are angular with finely serrate margins, and are mostly 1-5 mm across. Adjacent to fingers, many fragments display jigsaw-fit texture and are separated by only small amounts of sediment. Jigsaw-fit texture is absent in sediment matrix-rich breccia only a small distance into the breccia. Large clasts with shapes similar to mesoblocky clasts are an important component of incompletely fragmented domains.

Polyhedral blocky clasts — Polyhedral blocky clasts have angular, blocky and cuneiform shapes bounded by curviplanar margins (Fig. 6D). In some outcrops, broadly curved first-order fractures outline large blocky clasts which are dissected by second-order fractures into jigsaw-fit aggregates of progressively smaller polyhedral blocky clasts. Jigsaw-fit textures are disturbed in some parts of the breccia. Disturbance produces results which range from the slight modification of jigsaw-fit, by rotation and translation of fragments, to large scale separation of clasts.

Irregular blocky clasts — Strongly vesicular domains of dispersed peperite are characterised by a high proportion of clasts with irregular blocky shapes. Clasts are equant in shape, but bound by irregular to feathered margins which are in part the former walls of vesicles (Fig. 6E). Strongly vesicular clasts are bound mostly by vesicle walls and have feathered terminations. Highly irregular clast margins reflect rapid changes in the direction of fractures as they cut vesicles. Along contacts with coherent vesicular domains, clasts commonly display jigsaw-fit texture. Jigsaw-fit texture is lost as more sediment separates clasts.

Platy clasts — Platy clasts (Brooks 1995) are common in both closely-packed and dispersed peperite facies but are the principal clast type of closely-packed peperite. Platy clasts are several times longer than they are wide and show planar or irregular margins. They reflect the propagation of planar sediment-filled fractures (e.g. sheet, en-echelon) within relatively coherent facies.

Some clasts in peperite are bound by both globular to spongy margins and sharp planar-curviplanar margins, so that they do not fall into any one of the main textural groups (Fig. 6F).
Figure 6.

Clast types in peperite associated with the Blow Hole and Bumbo Latite Members.

(A) Discrete and interconnected incipient clasts with entrail globular shapes (light) enclosing and enclosed by sandstone (s).

(B) Incipient equant globular clasts with bulbous digitate margins invaded by thin fluidally-shaped sediment seams (arrow).

(C) Finger-like projection of basaltic andesite (f) showing progressive disintegration into mesoblocky fragments with finely serrate margins. Jigsaw-fit between fragments (arrow) is lost as sediment (s) penetrates fractures.

(D) In this example of polyhedral blocky peperite, clasts are separated by small amounts of sandstone matrix (s). Groups of clasts with jigsaw-fit contrast with domains where clasts have rotated and moved (arrow).

(E) Irregular blocky clasts bound by margins which are in part the former walls of vesicles (arrow) and enclosed in sandstone (s).

(F) In this domain of dispersed peperite, margins of clasts vary from planar-curviplanar to delicately fluidal (skeletal/spongy). These clasts imply a change in fragmentation mechanism during magma-sediment interaction.
Figure 7. Associations of different clast shapes in peperitic domains. A—Peperite consisting entirely of discrete and incipient clasts with equant globular shapes. B—Textural association involving clasts with mesoblocky and entrail globular shapes. C—Transition from blocky jointed facies into peperite with zones of polyhedral blocky clasts and irregular blocky clasts. D—Blocky-jointed coherent and hyaloclastite facies pass into polyhedral blocky peperite with in situ and clast-rotated texture. No scale is implied as the relative proportion and extent of each textural zone varies considerably.

Textural associations
The foregoing discussion highlights the wide variation in clast types in peperite. The distribution of clast types is not random. Textural zones are defined here as a domain of one clast type in hyaloclastite or peperite. Peperite may consist entirely of one textural zone or of multiple textural zones, arranged geometrically in recurrent textural associations. Variation in vesicularity is a principal determinant of clast types and textural associations. In closely-packed peperite, the magmatic component is consistently poorly vesicular, observed clast types are restricted to platy, globular and mesoblocky types, and textural associations are less diverse. Only short segments of a few fractures have mesoblocky and globular textures. In dispersed peperite, four principal associations have been recognised: (1) blocky jointed - equant globular; (2) blocky jointed - mesoblocky - entrail globular; (3) polyhedral blocky - irregular blocky; and (4) hyaloclastite - polyhedral blocky (Fig. 7).
**Sediment matrix**

Sediment forms the matrix to clasts, partially surrounds incipient clasts, and fills fractures and joints. The three principal sediment types, from most to least abundant, are: reddish-brown sandstone and minor siltstone, yellow-brown sandstone and granular to pebbly sandstone. Wisps and laminae of one grain size are enclosed by sediment of another grain size. Discontinuous planar- and rare cross-lamination are common to all peperitic facies, but best developed and most continuous in sediment-filled subhorizontal fractures in closely-packed peperite facies. Within the fractures, lamination is broadly concordant to walls but locally terminates against steps in the fractures. At one locality, laminae partially mantle a clast-supported lens of well-rounded granules which are concentrated on the lee side of a juvenile clast derived from the walls of the sheet fracture (Fig. 3F). Concentration of lithic clasts and fines depletion are interpreted to reflect local turbulence as fluids (water and steam) and sediment streamed through the fracture. Similarly, elutriation of fine sediment from some parts of the peperite is suggested by their sediment matrix-poor, clast-supported, but disrupted character. In some of these cases, wide subhorizontal fractures in blocky jointed coherent facies have sediment-poor, juvenile clast-supported breccia at their bases and sediment-rich upper parts which support large juvenile clasts. The distribution of sediment and juvenile clasts is similar to reverse coarse-tail grading.

**Discussion**

*Emplacement and cooling*

Contraction that accompanied cooling of the Bumbo and Blow Hole Latite sheets produced a variety of joint styles which are zonally arranged relative to peperitic and sedimentary facies, and record unequal rates of cooling. There is a transition from columnar jointed facies, through blocky jointed facies, into hyaloclastite along contacts with the enclosing sediments and/or peperite.

Columnar joints developed as intersecting contraction cracks nucleated within the blocky jointed zone and migrated towards the interior of the sheets, perpendicular to surfaces of equal tensile stress (Spry 1962, Long and Wood 1986). The pattern of columnar jointing suggests that, in most domains, surfaces of equal stress were parallel to isothermal surfaces at the contacts of the sheets, and columns formed perpendicular to both. Cooling of the igneous component along contacts with some dyke-like peperitic domains produced a distinctive style of columnar jointing. Initially, columns formed perpendicular to subvertical isothermal surfaces at the dyke margin but progressively steepened away from the dykes under a greater influence of isothermal surfaces parallel to sheet margins.
Sediment fills the space between some columns and other columns are dissected by blocky joints filled with sediment. These relationships suggest that columnar joints acted as pathways for the infiltration of wet sediment into the interior of the sheets. In blocky jointed zones, similar fractures may have provided access for fluids (± sediment) to move in and fragment the margins of the sheets (cf. Watanabe and Katsui 1976, Yamagishi 1987, 1991, Yamagishi and Goto 1992). The inward progression from blocky jointing to pseudo-pillow structure reflects a decrease in the degree of fragmentation and decrease in the cooling rate. In places, blocky jointed coherent facies developed along peperitic contacts, but more often, blocky jointing formed in a distinct zone inward from the hyaloclastite zone. In the hyaloclastite zone, quench fractures dissected joint blocks into jigsaw-fit aggregates of polyhedral blocky clasts (cf. Dimroth et al. 1978, Yamagishi 1979).

**Vesiculation**

Vesicle distributions in the Bumbo and Blow Hole Latite sheets are interpreted to reflect both primary magmatic vesiculation and vesiculation due to injection of steam from external water prior to complete solidification (cf. Fuller 1931, Waters 1960, Macdonald 1972, Walker 1987). Vesicles in poorly vesicular, coherent and peperitic facies probably reflect degassing of primary magmatic volatiles. Strongly vesicular zones are sparse, invariably associated with peperite and are localised and discontinuous. Isolated strongly vesicular pods in otherwise dense, massive, poorly vesicular basalt and basaltic andesite have not been observed (cf. Dimroth et al. 1978, Sahagian et al. 1989, McMillan et al. 1987, 1989). The association of peperite and domains of strong vesicularity suggest that the lava incorporated limited amounts of steam from the wet sediment in the initial stages of peperite formation (cf. Smedes 1956). Vesicular domains are interpreted as a form of vesicle cylinder. Wet sediment was heated and pore water vaporised as it moved into the magmatic component in dispersed peperite. A vesicular front may have propagated out into the magmatic component as sediment entered peperitic domains. Vesiculation was complete prior to brecciation, as sediment-filled fractures cut across vesicles and no clasts are zoned with respect to vesicularity. Vesiculation of fracture walls in closely-packed peperite did not occur, as the sediment was partially dewatered or the fluid was not vaporised, or the magmatic component had cooled sufficiently to resist vesiculation, or the lava had already degassed. Fraser (1976) attributes vesicle cylinders (2-20 cm across) in high-alumina basalts of the Cascade Mountains and Modoc Plateau to segregation of bubbles and residual melt into regularly spaced vertical cylinders. Although this mechanism cannot be discounted, the association of peperite and strong vesicularity in the Bumbo and Blow Hole Latite sheets favours the interpretation of vesiculation by steam.

Stress waves generated by high-pressure vaporisation of pore water at the melt-sediment interface can induce vesiculation of the melt (Wohletz 1983). Steam explosions are
interpreted to have played a minor role in generating peperite in the Blow Hole and Bumbo Latite Members, suggesting that stress wave induced vesiculation was insignificant.

Relatively few vesicles are filled with sediment, even in nearly scoriaceous peperite facies of the Bumbo and Blow Hole Latite Members (cf. Branney and Suthren 1988, Brooks et al. 1982). This may reflect a lack of interconnection between vesicles or that particles were too large to move through interconnections.

**Lobes**

Lobe types A-D lobes may simply be isolated coherent patches within otherwise strongly brecciated material. Alternatively, they could be interpreted as fractured and dismembered lava lobes, extruded into and partially or completely enclosed by their own or earlier peperite and hyaloclastite. Along some contacts, coherent facies pass through peperite containing jigsaw-fit clasts into lobes, demonstrating that type A-D lobes have formed through incomplete brecciation of coherent facies. Along contacts and in peperite where jigsaw-fit textures are not preserved, formation of lobes through extrusion/intrusion cannot be discounted. Type D lobes formed as vesicular pods in the sheet fragmented and mixed with sediment, leaving poorly vesicular domains. Complete loss of jigsaw-fit texture is widespread in the breccia surrounding type D lobes, so that they appear to invade earlier peperite. However, poorly vesicular coherent facies along the margins of peperitic facies enclose strongly vesicular pods which are coherent analogues of the matrix to type D lobes in peperite.

**Fluidisation of the host sediment**

The ability of sediment to penetrate even the finest fractures and large spaces in the interior of the basalt-andesite sheets to distances of tens of metres from the base, indicates that the sediment was highly mobile during peperite formation. Kokelaar (1982) ascribed similar features in peperitic facies of Ordovician andesitic and rhyolitic sills from Scotland and Wales to fluidisation of sediment by heating of pore water at sediment-magma contacts. In the present case, water at contacts was vaporised and some sediment injected up into the sheets, forming domains of peperite. Injection was driven by the relatively low density of the fluid-sediment mix compared with the magma and undisturbed sediment, and possibly by fluid over-pressure. The density inversion requires a disturbance to initiate flow of the low density layer, so that vapour expansion driven by the transition of water to steam may be more important, at least initially. The fluid-sediment slurries may have moved along fractures formed by contraction and/or quenching, or as propagating sediment dykes. Vesiculation of the magma by steam preceded the formation of peperite by mixing with the fluidised sediment. Some parts of
the surrounding magma remained sufficiently plastic to deform around mushroom-shaped tongues of sediment which penetrated up from contacts with peperitic domains.

Irregularities, fractures or peperitic domains at the margins of the sheets may have been preferred sites for the injection of fluid-sediment slurries (cf. Brooks 1995). Invasion of the sediment was probably vigorous but was not obviously explosive as jigsaw-fit textures between clasts and incipient clast are widely preserved, and contacts between vesicular and non-vesicular peperite are sharp with little mixing of clast types. Also, igneous clasts in the peperite commonly have bulbous, feathered or irregular outlines, rather than the angular blocky shapes typical of phreatomagmatic brecciation.

Remnant sedimentary lamination in sediment filling space between clasts in peperite has been described by many authors (e.g. Hanson and Wilson 1993, Kokelaar 1982, Branney and Suthren 1988, Hanson 1991, Brooks 1995). In the present case, wisps, seams or planar and cross laminae of one grain size are enclosed in, or alternate with, sediment of another grain size, producing extremely complex relationships in some cases. Lamination could be interpreted as: (i) relic primary bedding rotated and disrupted during intrusion; (ii) laminated sediment which infiltrated from above; or (iii) non-primary lamination. Structures are often subhorizontal, consistent with regional bedding, but are interpreted as non-primary sedimentary lamination because: (1) lamination is well developed within peperite facies completely enclosed by massive coherent lava; (2) lamination filling fractures in closely-packed peperite is parallel to fracture walls and could only be introduced along the length of the fractures (up to 30 m) through fluidisation; (3) structures in the sediment (e.g. cross lamination and lithic lenses in closely-packed peperite; reverse coarse-tail grading) are not consistent with washing-in processes. Layering reflects the repeated streaming of highly mobile sediment through fractures, and the intrusion of initial fracture- or space-filling sediment by coarser grain sizes. Vapour pressure was building, equilibrating and waning rapidly and unevenly in the invading sediment as it streamed to fill propagating fractures and open spaces. Rapid changes in sediment paths, superposition of sediments with different grains during the merging of fractures, and propagation of fractures at different rates all may have all been important in affecting vapour pressure and generating layering.

Relative timing
Figure 8 illustrates the relative timing of development of textures and structures in the Blow Hole and Bumbo Latite Members. Degassing of the sheets occurred both during emplacement, as evidenced by elongate vesicles, and after flow ceased, as indicated by spherical vesicles. Formation of vesicle cylinders clearly must have occurred while the sheets were still ductile, but probably after emplacement. Mixing of the lava and fluidised sediment formed domains of dispersed peperite. The general restriction of hyaloclastite
and blocky jointed facies to the margins of peperitic domains suggests that fractures developed concurrent with peperite in these domains. Columnar joints developed over a large part of the cooling history. Incipient columns dissected by blocky joints formed early concurrent with peperite. Long, well developed columnar joints in the massive interior of the sheets reflect slow cooling, largely following fragmentation and peperite formation. Sediment penetrating columnar joints at the base of the Blow Hole Latite Member, and filling brittle (en-echelon) fractures, suggest that sediment was moving through the sheet even in the late part of the cooling history.

**Mechanisms of brecciation**

The shape of clasts and contacts between sediment and the igneous component in peperite is a guide to fragmentation processes. Experimental and theoretical studies of magma-water interaction (e.g. Sheridan and Wohletz 1983, Wohletz 1986, Kokelaar 1986) have produced textures, structures and clasts with shapes which are similar to those observed in peperite, suggesting the mechanisms of magma-water interaction and magma-water-sediment interaction may be similar. Four primary clast forming processes are currently recognised to occur during magma-water interaction; magmatic explosivity, steam explosivity, cooling-contraction granulation, and dynamic stressing (e.g. Wohletz 1983, Kokelaar 1986). Steam explosivity is divisible into contact-surface interaction and bulk interaction (Kokelaar 1986).

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**Figure 8.** Relative timing of development of textures and structures in the Blow Hole and Bumbo Latite Members. Exsolution of magmatic volatiles (vesiculation 1) was probably initiated in the vent and continued through vesiculation by heating of pore water during interaction between magma and wet sediment (vesiculation 2).
Peperite comprising globular clasts indicates that non-explosive, contact-surface interaction and bulk interaction are probably important in the formation of peperite. Good evidence for contact-surface interaction is seen where tongues and apophyses of the igneous component transect undisturbed laminated or bedded host sediment, implying the passive removal of sediment during emplacement (cf. Branney and Suthren 1988). This was achieved by film boiling of pore water (Leidenfrost effect; Mills 1984), causing fluidisation of sediment at the magma-sediment interface. Sediment is displaced along and away from the contact zone until cooling below a critical temperature (Leidenfrost temperature) causes steam to condense and the sediment to be deposited. Oscillations in the vapour film can distort the magma surface into delicate bulbous fluidal shapes which detach, generating small fluidally-shaped fragments (Sheridan and Wohletz 1983, Wohletz 1986). Vapour films insulated the magma from direct contact with sediment and suppressing both steam explosions and quench fragmentation.

A case for bulk interaction in peperite formation is suggested where pods and seams of sediment are enclosed in the igneous component or occur between incipient clasts (cf. Kokelaar 1986, Branney and Suthren 1988, Brooks 1995). The main clast-forming process is the tearing-apart of the igneous component around invading and expanding steam-sediment slurries. Propagation of sediment seams promotes the disintegration of relatively coherent igneous material into progressively smaller clasts. Initially only a thin film of sediment, a few millimetres or centimetres wide, fills the seams. Walls of clasts are progressively wedged apart as sediment penetrates the seams. Vaporisation of pore water may have generated pressure waves causing disintegration of the magma. Kokelaar (1986) suggests that heat exchange between the magma and sediment through convective heat transfer may be more important than by direct contact mixing during bulk interaction. However, fluidally-shaped margins to incipient clasts with entrail and equant globular shapes suggest that direct contact mixing is in some cases important, and implies that bulk interaction and contact-surface interaction have combined to fragment the magma. Conductive heat transfer, a function of surface area and time of heat transfer, may increase as margins are “roughened” and the melt fragmented by contact-surface interaction, but will be limited by the insulating effects of a continuous vapour film. Concurrent bulk- and contact-surface-interaction combined to fragment the greatest percentage of the Blow Hole Latite Member.

In examples of peperite comprising ragged clasts, higher yield strengths at the strain rates which accompanied fragmentation are suggested by finely serrated, ragged clast margins. Again, bulk interaction during magma-sediment interaction may be indicated by textures in these domains. However, clasts with ragged shapes formed during bulk interaction (e.g. Branney and Suthren 1988) are similar to those produced by dynamic stressing.
Dynamic stress fragmentation is ascribed to brecciation of the chilled parts of lavas or intrusions by the continued movement of fluid magma in the interior.

In peperite comprising polyhedral blocky clasts, fractures define equant blocks, whereas platy clasts form by intersecting subparallel planar fractures and more widely spaced short cross fractures (cf. Brooks 1995). Clast shapes reflect different local stress fields, and may represent end members of a spectrum of clast shapes formed by quenching. Small scale changes in the direction of propagation of quench fractures in response to internal heterogeneities in the igneous component (e.g. phenocrysts) form jagged blocky/planar clasts bounded by serrated margins rather than sharp planar and curviplanar margins characteristic of polyhedral blocky clasts and some platy clasts (cf. Brooks 1995).

It remains unclear what the mechanism of formation of mesoblocky clasts was. Brittle failure may have resulted from propagation of stress waves through the melt in response to the collapse or explosive expansion of vapour films (cf. Wohletz 1983), or through cooling-contraction granulation. Turbulent mixing following quenching of the resulting fragments promoted the movement of fragments out of the zone of interaction and loss of jigsaw-fit texture.

Vesicles strongly influence the character of peperite formed when magma or lava invades wet, unconsolidated sediment. Fractures which cut across vesicles generate irregular blocky clasts with margins which are in part the former walls of vesicles. Vesiculation which occurs concurrent with fragmentation is likely to play a more active role in determining clast shape, but will be limited because bubbles will be entrapped as cooling proceeds and viscosity increases. An insulating sheath of vapour which forms at the contact between the magma and enclosing wet sediment may allow some bubbles to reach the magma-sediment interface (Mills 1984). Vapour bubbles which reach, form at, or penetrate the melt-film interface will probably interact with it, creating local pressure gradients which will influence vapour flow and hence also the shape of the contact surface and clasts.

**Textural associations: evidence for controls on peperite formation**

Textural associations of more than two clast types, and individual clasts with both bulbous and planar margins, imply a change in fragmentation mechanism. In many cases, initial magma fragmentation and mixing with sediment is thought to have resulted mainly from the tearing apart of the magma (bulk interaction) and shaping of the magma-sediment interface into fluidal globular shapes by contact-surface interaction. In other cases, globular surfaces and clasts developed first. Planar fractures reflect fragmentation by cooling-contraction granulation and/or by propagating stress waves. Planar fractures which cut across and displace fluidal globular surfaces in the igneous component formed later (cf. Goto and McPhie 1996). The relationship between some planar fractures and
globular surfaces is ambiguous and both may have formed simultaneously with viscosity and/or temperature being the control.

Bulk physical properties, such as the density and viscosity of the magma and sediment will in part control their behaviour during interaction. Difficulties in determining the physical properties driving transitions in fragmentation mechanism result from the complex and rapidly changing states of the components. For example, the magmatic component will become more viscous with time, and steam together with volatiles can promote multi-stage vesiculation of the melt. The sediment may be progressively dewatered during interaction, with intergranular fluids ranging in temperature from cold to boiling or superheated steam. Also, the host sediment is itself a many-phase system.

Busby-Spera and White (1987) concluded that host sediment properties strongly influence magma-sediment interaction, and hence the shapes of clasts. They suggest that fluidal globular peperite is more likely to develop in fine-grained, well sorted, loosely packed sediment, as it is more easily fluidised and vapour films can be maintained at the melt-sediment interface. Coarser, poorly sorted sediment is associated with blocky-shaped clasts (blocky peperite) at Punta China, Baja, California. In these, greater permeability was interpreted to inhibit the development of vapour films, and only a small percentage of the sediment grain size is amenable to fluidisation. In the absence of insulating vapour films, quench fragmentation and steam explosions are the main fragmentation processes. At Kiama, different clast types occur within sediment of constant grain size (Fig. 6F). Similarly, clasts with the same shape occur in sediment with different grain sizes. These examples suggest that factors other than sediment grain size are also important in determining fragment shape (cf. Goto and McPhie 1996). However, sediment surrounding clasts in peperite represents the final grain size distribution at the time of fragmentation and not necessarily that which was present at the time of fragmentation.

Fragmentation processes are complexly dependent on external confining pressure. In cases where the lithostatic and hydrostatic pressure exceed the critical pressure (about 31.2 Mpa for seawater; Kokelaar 1982), the degree of expansion of heated pore water is impeded, steam explosions are suppressed and fluidisation may be inhibited. At lower confining pressures steam may expand explosively. The character of peperite examined in this study suggests that confining pressures were insufficient to suppress fluidisation of the host sediment along magma-sediment contacts or to prevent vesiculation of the magma, but large enough to inhibit steam explosivity.

Experimental and theoretical studies (Sheridan and Wohletz 1981, 1983; Wohletz 1983, 1986) suggest that changes in the water/magma ratio may lead to changes in eruption
style. In peperite, it is possible that both short and long term variations in water (and sediment)-melt ratios may be responsible for the changing fragmentation mechanisms, and so clast shapes. Direct application of results from experimental and theoretical studies of magma-water interaction to magma-slurry systems involving peperite is probably not possible. Also, changes in the water/melt ratio may occur due to varying volume rate of magma or sediment supply and fluxing of sediment with varying pore water contents during fragmentation.

Viscosity reduces growth rates of instabilities at the magma-sediment interface (Wohletz 1986), so that high viscosity magmas may mix more slowly with sediment than would low viscosity magmas. One might expect clasts with fluidally-shaped margins to be more common in peperite involving magma of mafic rather than silicic composition. The spectrum of clast shapes recognised in peperite span magma compositions ranging from basaltic to rhyolitic, suggesting that this may not be the case. However, changes in the rheological behaviour of a given magma from ductile to brittle, most likely in response decreasing viscosity, are clearly important in cases where peperite contains single clasts bound by both globular and planar surfaces. Planar fractures displace fluidal globular surfaces suggesting that they formed later. During the globular clast-forming stage, the magma had a relatively low viscosity and sediment was displaced by fluidisation. Planar and curviplanar fractures formed as the magma became more viscous, most likely in response to decreasing temperature and/or the breakdown of insulating vapour films at the magma-sediment interface (cf. Goto and McPhie 1996)

Viscosity profiles in some lavas and intrusions are likely to be complex, varying in response to, for example, pulsatory flow or intrusion (cf. Goto and McPhie 1996), and differing volatile contents, crystallinity and temperature. If magma rheology fluctuates then different parts of an intrusion or lava may be associated with peperite with different clast types and/or textural associations. Fluidal contacts and clasts will be generated early or in domains where the magma temperature is highest and viscosity is at a minimum. Continued flow will stress those parts that have already begun to cool and solidify, promoting brittle disintegration along contraction fractures, and clasts with blocky or ragged shapes are more likely to form. Also, if wet sediment injects the magma in pulses, then magma rheology at the time or site of interaction might fluctuate and different clasts form.

Conclusions

Peperites associated with basaltic to basaltic andesite lavas and intrusions in the Late Permian Broughton Formation, Kiama, New South Wales have been described on the
basis of (1) igneous clast shape; (2) fabric; and (3) location with respect to the margins of the lava or intrusion. The complexities of peperite, in terms of clast types and their relative abundances and distribution, as well as textures and structures in the host sediment, indicate that a spectrum of fragmentation and mixing processes may occur together and thus interact.

Examples of peperite with more than one clast type, involving magma of the same composition and sediment of constant grain size, are common. In many examples, globular surfaces formed during an early, low viscosity phase of magma emplacement into wet sediment. Planar and curviplanar fractures truncate some fluidal surfaces suggesting that these, at least in part, formed slightly later as the magma became more viscous (cooler) and/or vapour films at the magma-sediment interface broke down (cf. Goto and McPhie 1996).

The intimate mixing of magma and wet sediment recorded by peperite is commonly a precursory step towards explosive hydromagmatism. At Kiama, peperite has developed by one or a combination of (1) non-explosive oscillation of vapour films at the magma-sediment interface (contact-surface interaction); (2) non-explosive expansion of pore water following enclosure of sediment in the magma or entrapment of sediment at the magma-sediment contacts (bulk interaction), (3) cooling-contraction granulation; and (4) brecciation of the chilled parts of an intrusion-extrusion by flow of the hotter interior (dynamic stressing).

Fluidisation of the host sediment during mixing with the melt is common to peperite involving clasts from all of the textural groups. Lamination in sediment within peperite can include remnants of original stratification (e.g. Kokelaar 1982) and layering formed by the streaming of fluid-sediment slurries through fractures and between clasts.
References


Appendix B

Geological cross-sections for the Highway-Reward deposit
Andesite intrusion
Rhyolite
Rhyodacite
Dacite
Non-stratified monomictic breccia (hyaloclastite)
Non-stratified sediment-matrix breccia facies (peperite)
Stratified monomictic rhyolitic breccia-sandstone
Stratified polymictic breccia-sandstone
Obsidian pumice breccia-sandstone
Feldspar-quartz pumice-crystal breccia-sandstone
Quartz & feldspar pumice breccia-sandstone
Quartz & feldspar crystal-lithic sandstone
Siltstone
Gossanous
Massive pyrite-chalcopyrite
Stringer veins
Fault
Shear
Appendix B
Highway-Reward
X-Sect 10100N ± 5.25 m
Andesite intrusion
Rhyolite
Rhyodacite
Dacite
Non-stratified monomictic breccia (hyaloclastite)
Non-stratified sediment-matrix breccia facies (peperite)
Stratified monomictic myolitic breccia - sandstone
Stratified polymictic breccia - sandstone
Dacite pumice breccia - sandstone
Feldspar-quartz pumice - crystal breccia - sandstone
Quartz & feldspar pumice breccia - sandstone
Quartz & feldspar crystal-lites sandstone
Siltstone
Gossanous
Massive pyrite-chalcopyrite
Stringer veins
Fault
Shear

Highway

Appendix B
Andesite intrusion
Rhyolite
Rhyodacite
Dacite
Non-stratified monomictic breccia (hyaloclastite)
Non-stratified sediment-matrix breccia facies (pelite)
Stratified monomictic rhyolitic breccia-sandstone (resedimented hyaloclastite)
Stratified polymictic breccia-sandstone
Olivine pumice breccia-sandstone
Feldspar-quartz pumice-cystal breccia-sandstone
Quartz & feldspar pumice breccia-sandstone
Quartz & feldspar crystal-lithic sandstone
Siltstone
Gossanous
Massive pyrite-chalcopyrite
Stringer veins
Fault
Shear
Appendix B
Andesite intrusion

Rhyolite

Rhyodacite

Dacite

Non-stratified monomictic breccia (hyaloclastite)

Non-stratified sediment-matrix breccia facies (pew-Ms)

Stratified monomictic ryholitic breccia-sandstone (disconformity hyaloclastite)

Stratified polymictic breccia - sandstone

Dacitic pumice breccia - sandstone

Feldspar-quartz pumice-crystal breccia - sandstone

Quartz & feldspar pumice breccia - sandstone

Quartz & feldspar crystal-lithic sandstone

Siltstone

Gossanous

Massive pyrite-chalcopyrite

Stringer veins

Fault

Shear

Appendix B

Highway-Reward X-Sect 10225 ± 5.25 m
## Appendix C

**Summary graphic lithological logs**

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Lithology

- Unaltered andesite
- Dacite
- Rhyolite
- Rhyodacite
- Flow banding
- Perlite
- Non-stratified monomictic breccia (hyaloclastite)
- Siltstone seams in coherent facies
- Siltstone-matrix-poor breccia (peperite)
- Siltstone-matrix-rich breccia (peperite)
- Stratified monomictic breccia-sandstone (resedimented hyaloclastite)
- Stratified polymictic breccia-sandstone
- Crystal-vitric sandstone

Crystal-pumice breccia-sandstone
Crystal-lithic breccia-sandstone
Pumice breccia
Siltstone
Massive pyrite-chalcopyrite-sphalerite
Semi-massive pyrite-chalcopyrite-sphalerite
Massive/banded pyrite-sphalerite-barite
Stringer veins
Intensely altered volcanic
Feldspar-bearing
Feldspar > quartz volcaniclastic unit
Quartz & feldspar
Fault

Alteration

- Clay
- Sericite
- Sericite-quartz
- Quartz-sericite
- Quartz ± pyrite
- Sericite-quartz-chlorite
- Sericite-chlorite
- Chlorite

Chlorite-sericite
Chlorite-sericite-quartz
Albite/K-feldspar-sericite-quartz-chlorite
Hematite-quartz
Hematite-sericite-chlorite
Chlorite (± sericite)-carbonate
Sericite-carbonate
Facies codes for alteration in volcanic rocks

(a) Phase(s)

- mineralogical and textural changes accompany hydrothermal alteration. Each alteration mineral can be referred to as a phase.

- each alteration domain comprises an area of rock that is characterised by a particular alteration mineral assemblage or by different proportions of similar minerals (phases) in similar mineral assemblages.

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<tr>
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</table>

- e.g. SI-S quartz-sericite (alteration domain comprising quartz and sericite)

(b) Relative abundance (phases - domains)

- the least abundant mineral within an alteration domain is presented on the right hand side (RHS) and the most abundant mineral on the left hand side (LHS).

- e.g. S-SI (sericite-quartz) dominant phase - subordinate phase

- in a rock comprising two or more alteration domains, the phase(s) comprising the dominant domain are presented on the LHS and those of the remaining domains on the RHS in order of relative abundance

- e.g. C / S-SI (chlorite & sericite-quartz domains) dominant - subordinate

(c) Intensity

- allocation of a number to describe the intensity of alteration within each domain

  Weak (1-2) Moderate (3-4) Strong to intense (5-6)

- e.g. C
  S-SI (strong chlorite alteration)
  S-SI (moderate sericite-quartz alteration)

(d) Controls/textures

The distribution of alteration minerals and domains can be controlled by the pre-alteration texture or superimposed structures. Alternatively, the alteration phases/domains can generate a range of new textures and patterns in the rock.

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- e.g. Cp (strong pervasive chlorite alteration)
- e.g. Cp / SI (strong pervasive chlorite alteration and moderate, fracture-controlled quartz alteration)
Appendix D

Geochemical analyses of lavas and intrusions

Appendix D1 Mount Windsor Formation
Appendix D2 Trooper Creek Formation
Appendix D3 Trooper Creek Formation
Appendix D1: Major (wt%) and trace element (ppm) analyses of volcanics from the Mount Windsor Formation and Ti-rich dykes

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MWF - Mount Windsor Formation

1 Total Fe as FeO
2 Analyses recalculated to 100% anhydrous
Appendix D2: Major (wt%) and trace element (ppm) analyses of volcanics from the Trooper Creek Formation

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TCF - Trooper Creek Formation
1 Total Fe as Fe2O3
2 Analyses recalculated to 100% anhydrous
### Appendix D2 continued

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TCF = Trooper Creek Formation

- Total Fe as Fe2O3
- Analyses recalculated to 100% anhydrous
Appendix 03: Major (wt%) and trace element (ppm) analyses of volcanics from the Trooper Creek Formation at Highway-Reward

| Sample | SiO₂ | TiO₂ | Al₂O₃ | Fe₂O₃ | MgO | CaO | Na₂O | K₂O | P₂O₅ | Total LOI | P/Ze | Ti/Zr | Nb/N | La | Ce | Pr | Nd | Eu | Sm | Gd | Tb | Dy | Ho | Er | Tm | Yb | Lu | Th | P | SiO₂ | TiO₂ | Al₂O₃ | Fe₂O₃ | MgO | CaO | Na₂O | K₂O | P₂O₅ | Total LOI | P/Ze | Ti/Zr | Nb/N |
|--------|------|------|-------|-------|-----|-----|------|-----|-----|----------|------|------|------|----|----|----|----|----|----|-----|-----|-----|-----|----|----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 39/403.9 | 77.29 | 0.41 | 11.62 | 5.83 | 0.03 | 3.84 | 5.83 | 3.84 | 0.03 | 1689 | 218.9 | 215 | 15 | 16.4 | 38.5 | 17.2 | 24.3 |
| 1/2/4 | 68.7 | 0.6 | 17.41 | 4.67 | 0.13 | 4.27 | 4.27 | 4.27 | 0.13 | 2035 | 3381 | 425 | 30 | 12.3 | 52.6 | 24.3 | 24.3 |
| 114/167.08 | 68.49 | 0.28 | 17.59 | 4.27 | 0.14 | 4.27 | 4.27 | 4.27 | 0.14 | 3028 | 4721 | 577 | 40 | 16.2 | 57.7 | 24.3 | 24.3 |
| 15/318.3 | 75.86 | 0.51 | 18.67 | 3.98 | 0.05 | 3.98 | 3.98 | 3.98 | 0.05 | 1687 | 2741 | 361 | 27 | 18.8 | 67.6 | 42.2 | 42.2 |
| 560/134.4 | 70.88 | 0.51 | 21.36 | 3.98 | 0.11 | 3.98 | 3.98 | 3.98 | 0.11 | 3384 | 5083 | 655 | 48 | 23.6 | 86 | 36.3 | 36.3 |
| 6/124.3 | 83.45 | 0.46 | 13.27 | 4.41 | 0.12 | 4.41 | 4.41 | 4.41 | 0.12 | 1803 | 2884 | 348 | 25 | 19.2 | 76.8 | 46.4 | 46.4 |
| 701/313.5 | 75.2 | 0.31 | 17.07 | 4.41 | 0.11 | 4.41 | 4.41 | 4.41 | 0.11 | 2204 | 3214 | 401 | 30 | 20.5 | 91.5 | 54.2 | 54.2 |
| 560/127.6 | 75.49 | 0.18 | 16.61 | 4.41 | 0.12 | 4.41 | 4.41 | 4.41 | 0.12 | 2405 | 3614 | 442 | 33 | 24.5 | 118 | 71.1 | 71.1 |
| 800/140.2A | 68.49 | 0.46 | 16.37 | 4.41 | 0.12 | 4.41 | 4.41 | 4.41 | 0.12 | 2393 | 3604 | 441 | 33 | 28.1 | 117 | 70.9 | 70.9 |
| 800/140.5B | 74.95 | 0.36 | 16.22 | 4.41 | 0.12 | 4.41 | 4.41 | 4.41 | 0.12 | 13 | 10 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.6 |

TCF - Trooper Creek Formation

Analyses recalculated to 100% anhydrous.
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TCF - Trooper Creek Formation
1 Total Fe as FeO
2 Analyses recalculated to 100% anhydrous
Appendix E

Geochemical analyses of ironstones

Appendix E1 XRD analyses for massive ironstone
Appendix E2 Major, trace and REE analyses
Appendix E3 Calculations for isocon plots
Appendix E1: XRD analyses for massive ironstone

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Appendix E.2: Major (wt%), trace element (ppm) and rare earth element (ppm) analyses of iron oxalidloilasc rocks from the study area

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<p>| Abbreviations: chert=ironstone; tuff=luCfaccous iromtone; bx=breccia; strom=stromalolitic iroll5tone. |</p>
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SiO₂, Fe₂O₃: 1.81, 3.36; 2.43, 5.37; 16.36, 20.17; 7.32; 5.27

Abbreviations: ironstone; ironstone; ironstone; ironstone; ironstone; ironstone; ironstone.
Trooper Creek prospect - massive ironstone

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Appendix E3: Calculations for isocon plots

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Trooper Creek prospect - horizon 4

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### Appendix E3: Calculations for isocon plots

**Trooper Creek prospect - western lenses (95-212, 214, 275)**

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### Table notes:
- The table includes elements with their least altered and altered contents, along with their ratio rank, modified rank (m), and average modified rank (m(ave)).
- The table also includes the CA(I) value for each element.

### Data analysis:
- The table provides a comprehensive view of the elemental distribution in the Trooper Creek prospect, highlighting the changes in concentrations due to alteration.
- The modified rank (m) and average modified rank (m(ave)) are used to normalize the data and provide a clearer comparison between elements.
- The CA(I) value is used to assess the isotopic ratio and its implications for the isocon plot.

This data is essential for understanding the mineralogical and isotopic changes in the Trooper Creek prospect, which can inform further studies on the geological processes and potential mineral deposits.
Appendix F

Publications


Submarine silicic lava flows, domes and shallow intrusions in the MRV comprise coherent, massive and flow banded lava, hyaloclastite and autobreccia. Margins of lavas and intrusions were formerly glassy whereas interiors varied from glassy to crystalline. Perlitic fracturing, devitrification, and hydrothermal and diagenetic alteration acted on primary volcanic textures to generate diverse alteration textures, including false volcaniclastic textures, in the originally glassy parts of the silicic lavas and intrusions.

Perlitic fracturing of glass commenced during cooling of the silicic lavas and intrusions, generating pathways for migrating fluids. Devitrification refers to the nucleation and growth of crystalline minerals in glasses at subsolidus temperatures. “High” temperature devitrification of glass accompanied emplacement, and generated spherulites, lithophysae, and micropoikilitic texture. “Low” temperature devitrification of silicic glass to an assemblage of sericite, chlorite, quartz and feldspar is attributed to interaction with syn-volcanic hydrothermal fluids and early to late diagenetic fluids, and can be referred to as hydrothermal and diagenetic alteration. The textural effects of these alteration processes were strongly influenced by the pre-existing texture which was created by eruption and primary fragmentation, “high” temperature devitrification, and hydration. Textures were either enhanced, modified or destroyed during “low” temperature devitrification.

During lower greenschist facies metamorphism earlier mineral assemblages were recrystallised or replaced by coarse metamorphic minerals, overprinting or mimicking primary and alteration textures.

The outcome of this textural progression is that both coherent and autoclastic facies of silicic lavas and shallow intrusions in the MWV resemble matrix supported, monomict and polymict, welded and non-welded volcaniclastic deposits.
Facies architecture of a submarine felsic volcanic centre: Highway-Reward, Mount Windsor Volcanics, Cambro-Ordovician, Northern Queensland

by

M.G. Doyle

Centre for Ore Deposit and Exploration Studies
University of Tasmania

Evaluating the prospectivity of ancient volcanic sequences for volcanic-hosted massive sulfide (VHMS) deposits can be greatly enhanced by identifying original lithologies and emplacement processes (McPhie et al., 1993). In particular, distinguishing between syn-volcanic intrusions, lava flows, domes and cryptodomes and between autoclastic, resedimented volcaniclastic and epiclastic facies is critical in recognising palaeo-sea floor positions which are important sites for exhalative and shallow sub-surface base metal sulfide accumulation in many VHMS systems. Detailed core logging and petrography of host rocks to the Cu-Au-Pb-Zn Highway and Reward deposits have revealed the nature of volcanic processes in a near vent, subaqueous (submarine), below-wave-base depositional environment.

The volcanic facies architecture at Highway and Reward includes the products of both intrabasinal and basin margin or subaerial eruptions. Rhyolitic, rhyodacitic and dacitic lava domes, partly extrusive cryptodomes, syn-sedimentary intrusions and associated in situ and resedimented autoclastic deposits are from an intrabasinal source. Contact relationships and phenocryst mineralogy, size and percentages indicate the presence of up to nine distinct porphyritic units within an area of approximately 1 x 1 x 0.5 km at Highway-Reward. Massive coherent and flow banded lava, hyaloclastite, autobreccia and peperite are the main component facies of the porphyritic units. Peperites vary from sediment-matrix-supported breccias in which porphyry clasts are sparse (dispersed peperite), through sediment-poor jigsaw-fit aggregates of porphyry clasts (compact peperite), to relatively coherent porphyry enclosing isolated stringers and/or globules of sediment. Porphyry clasts vary from blocky with curvilinear margins (blocky peperite) to lenticular with ragged margins (ragged peperite), which may reflect, respectively, the relative importance of cooling contraction granulation and dynamic stressing of chilled lava surfaces during emplacement. The peperitic upper margins to many porphyry sheets demonstrate their intrusion into wet unconsolidated sediments. The high relative density of magma to wet sediment favoured emplacement as syn-sedimentary intrusions rather than extrusions (cf. McBirney, 1963; Walker, 1989). Dewatering and induration of the sediment pile by early syn-sedimentary intrusions may have favoured the subsequent eruption of lava domes and partly emergent cryptodomes at Highway-Reward. The shape and distribution of lava domes and cryptodomes was further influenced by the positions of previously or concurrently emplaced porphyritic units, and possibly by syn-volcanic faults which may have acted as conduits for magma. Because they are constructional, lava domes and cryptodomes influenced subsequent volcaniclastic sedimentation. Lava domes, cryptodomes and deposits of resedimented hyaloclastite sourced from over-steepened dome margins are an important indicator of palaeo-sea floor positions.

Porphyries intruded or were overlain by a volcaniclastic and sedimentary facies association comprising suspension-settled siltstone, graded turbiditic sandstone and thick mass-flow-emplaced pumiceous- and crystal-rich sandstone-breccia. Pumiceous mass-flow deposits are emplaced rapidly in large volumes, erupted infrequently and are widely distributed (McPhie & Allen, 1992), and so provide an important framework for correlation within the Trooper Creek Formation at Highway-Reward. Quartz-feldspar and feldspar only, pumiceous and crystal-rich sandstone-breccia units are non-welded, up to 65 m thick, and normally graded with fine grained tops, and in some instances, polymict lithic-rich bases. Deposition from high-concentration turbidity currents sourced from explosive eruptions at a subaerial or shallow subaqueous basin margin centre is suggested.

Perlitic fracturing, devitrification, hydrothermal and diagenetic alteration have acted on originally glassy parts of lavas and intrusions, and pumiceous breccias to generate diverse alteration textures, including false volcaniclastic and welding textures. Alteration of lavas commenced during cooling from magmatic
temperatures (high temperature devitrification) generating spherulites, micropoikilitic texture and lithophysae. Hydration of residual glass to form perlitic fractures supplemented fracture and matrix permeability generated by autoclastic processes, both of which were important for migration of fluids during hydrothermal and diagenetic alteration. Hydrothermal and diagenetic alteration were also influenced by textural and compositional domains generated during high temperature devitrification. Apparent polymict and monomict volcaniclastic textures formed during this textural progression further evolved during greenschist facies metamorphism and tectonic deformation. Pumiceous breccias show the textural effects of early polyphase diagenetic and syn-volcanic hydrothermal alteration. Initial heterogeneous quartz-feldspar alteration replaced glassy vesicle walls of individual pumice shreds and domains within breccias, thereby largely preserving non-welded tube-vesicle textures. Remaining pumice clasts were phyllosilicate-altered and flattened by diagenetic compaction, resulting in false welding textures. Intensely silicified pumice shreds isolated in chloritic domains resemble felsic volcanic lithic fragments.

The density and complexity of non-explosive, coherent, intrusive-extrusive units at Highway-Reward is similar to that described by Horikoshi (1969) for Kuroko host sequences in the Miocene Kosaka Formation of NE-Japan. Analogues of the initial, explosive, tuff cone forming eruptions at the "Kosaka volcano" are not recorded in the stratigraphy at Highway-Reward, possibly reflecting differences in the volatile content of erupted magma, and/or the external confining pressure (lithostatic and hydrostatic pressure).

References:


A SILICIC SUBMARINE SYN-SEDIMENTARY INTRUSIVE - DOME - HYALOCLASTITE HOST SEQUENCE TO MASSIVE SULFIDE MINERALISATION: MOUNT WINDSOR VOLCANICS, CAMBRO-ORDOVICIAN, AUSTRALIA

DOYLE, M.G., and McPHIE, J., C.O.D.E.S., University of Tasmania, Hobart, Tasmania 7001, Australia.

The Cu-Au-Pb-Zn Highway and Reward massive sulfide deposits are hosted by a silicic intrusive and volcanic sequence intercalated with sedimentary facies that indicate a submarine, below-storm-wave-base environment of deposition. Contact relationships and phenocryst mineralogy, size and percentages indicate the presence of up to nine distinct porphyritic units in an area of 1 x 1 x 0.5 km. The peperitic upper margins to many porphyries demonstrate their intrusion into wet unconsolidated-sediment. Syn-sedimentary intrusions, partly emergent cryptodomes, lava domes, and associated in situ and resedimented autoclastic deposits have been recognised. These are the principal facies in the environment of mineralisation and represent a proximal facies association from intrabasinal, intrusive/extrusive, non-explosive magmatism. The shape, distribution and emplacement mechanisms of porphyritic units were influenced by: (a) the relative density of magma to wet sediment; (b) the positions of previously or concurrently emplaced porphyries; and (c) possibly by syn-volcanic faults which may have acted as conduits for magma. Lava domes, partly emergent cryptodomes, and deposits of resedimented hyaloclastite and peperite are important indicators of palaeo-sea-floor positions at Highway-Reward. Sills and cryptodomes may have influenced sea-floor topography and therefore sedimentation, but do not mark sea-floor positions. Massive sulfide ores are primarily subsea-floor syn-volcanic replacements of the host sedimentary rocks, syn-sedimentary intrusions, lava domes, and autoclastic breccia. Porphyries intruded or were overlain by a volcaniclastic and sedimentary facies association comprising suspension-settled siltstone, graded turbiditic sandstone and thick, non-welded pumice- and crystal-rich sandstone-breccia. Pumiceous and crystal-rich deposits record episodes of explosive silicic volcanism in an extrabasinal or marginal basin environment, and were emplaced by cold, water-supported, high-concentration turbidity currents.
EVALUATION OF THE ROLE OF CAMBRIAN GRANITES IN THE GENESIS OF WORLD CLASS VOLCANOGENIC-HOSTED MASSIVE SULPHIDE DEPOSITS IN TASMANIA

Ross R. Large1, Mark Doyle1, David Cooke1 and Ollie Raymond2
1CODES Key Centre, Geology Dept., University of Tasmania, HOBART TAS 7005
2AGSO, GPO Box 378, CANBERRA ACT 2601

Summary - New data on the distribution, composition and alteration zonation of Cambrian granites in the Mt. Read Volcanics provide evidence that there may have been a direct input of magmatic fluids during the genesis of the copper-gold volcanogenic-hosted massive sulphide (VHMS) mineralisation in the Mt. Lyell district.

INTRODUCTION

There has been considerable debate on the role of granitic magmas during the generation of volcanic hosted massive sulphide deposits; are they simply heat engines driving seawater (e.g. Ohmoto & Rye 1974, and Solomon 1976) or do they directly supply magmatic components to ore-forming solutions (e.g. Henley & Thornley 1979, Stanton 1985)? Pioneering research by Solomon and his students in the Mount Read Volcanics (e.g. Solomon 1976, Solomon 1981, Polya et al 1986 and Eastoe et. al. 1987) clearly demonstrated a relationship between hydrothermal alteration and sulphur isotope zonation around the granites, indicating that the granites act as heaters for the ore-forming convective fluid. In this paper we provide evidence to suggest that the Cambrian granites may have also provided important metal contributions to the ore-forming fluid, especially Fe, Cu, Au, P, P ± Ti and Zr.

FACTORs LINKING THE CAMBRIAN GRANITES TO MINERALISATION

Distribution: Two narrow bodies of Cambrian granite (Murchison Granite and Darwin Granite) intrude the eastern margin of the Central Volcanic Complex (CVC) in the Mt. Read Volcanics. Interpretations based on magnetic and gravity data indicate that the two granite bodies form a semi-continuous narrow vertical sheet of granite 65 km long and about 2 km wide. A series of copper-gold and base metal prospects occur along the margins of the granite sheet (e.g. Prince Darwin, Jukes Pty., Lake Selina). The Mt. Lyell Cu-Au VHMS deposits are located immediately west of the projected continuation of the subsurface granite.

Timing: Previous mapping by Corbett (1989) suggested that the Murchison granite intruded the Tyndal Group volcanics (which unconformably overlie the CVC) and is therefore younger than the VHMS deposits. However, later work (e.g. Corbett, 1992) has revised this interpretation, and recent dating by Perkins and Walshe (1993) has confirmed that the Murchison granite has an age of 501 ± 5.7 Ma (Ar/Ar), the same age as the host rocks to the massive sulphide deposits.

Composition: Both the Murchison and Darwin granites are high-K, magnetite series granites which show anomalous enrichment in barium and potassium. The Murchison granite varies in composition from granodiorite to granite (58 to 78% SiO2; Abbott, 1992), while the Darwin granite is composed of two highly fractionated granite phases (74-78% SiO2; Jones, 1993). K2O varies up to 8.5% and Ba up to 3000 ppm; however, some of this enrichment is related to alteration.

Alteration: Well developed zones of hydrothermal alteration have been mapped around the margins of the granites (e.g. Polya et. al 1986, Eastoe et. al. 1987, Hunns 1987, Doyle 1990). An extensive zone (Z1) of pink K-feldspar alteration extends from the outer part of the granites into the surrounding volcanics. An overlapping shell (Z2) of chlorite ± pyrite ± magnetite alteration overprints and extends outwards from the K-feldspar zone. Sericite-chlorite ± pyrite forms a distal alteration zone (Z3). At both Jukes Pty. and Lake Selina, Cu ± Au mineralisation occurs in the chlorite ± pyrite ± magnetite zone (Z2).
**Magnetite - apatite association:** The strongest link between the granites and VHMS Cu-Au mineralisation is provided by the common occurrence of magnetite - apatite - Cu ± Au vein style and disseminated mineralisation both within the Z2 alteration halo of the granites and within the centre of the Prince Lyell ore deposit in the Mt. Lyell VHMS district. A good linear correlation exists between Cu and P₂O₅, and Fe and P₂O₅ both within the mineralised alteration halo of the granites and in the Prince Lyell ores. Oxygen isotopes indicate that the magnetite veins within the granite halo and the Prince Lyell deposit have δ¹⁸O values that are consistent with a magmatic source (Doyle 1990, Raymond 1993). Apatite, which is commonly intergrown with magnetite, pyrite and chalcopyrite, has consistently high F/Cl ratios, with a mean of about 6 wt% F.

**RELATIONSHIP OF COPPER-GOLD TO LEAD-ZINC-COPPER VHMS DEPOSITS**

The Mt. Lyell field contains both stringer-style copper-gold deposits such as Prince Lyell and separate stratiform lead-zinc-copper deposits such as Comstock and Tasman & Crown Lyell Extended. Most previous workers (e.g. Solomon 1976, and Walshe & Solomon 1981) consider that the Cu-Au and Pb-Zn-Cu deposits formed as part of the same hydrothermal system; the Cu-Au stringer-style forming by subsurface replacement and the Pb-Zn-Cu massive sulphides by contemporaneous seafloor exhalation. Although our work suggests a source for Cu and Au from the Cambrian granites, the source for Pb, Zn, Ag and S remains unresolved and may be either magmatic or related to seawater leaching.

**CONCLUSIONS**

Cambrian granites in the Mt. Read Volcanics form a thin linear discontinuous sheet 65 km long which is spatially related to Cu-Au mineralisation, including the VHMS deposits at Mt. Lyell. The highly fractionated, oxidised, magnetite series granites have overlapping alteration shells of K-feldspar, chlorite-magnetite and sericite. Preliminary evidence suggests that the VHMS copper-gold mineralisation at Mt. Lyell may be associated with fluids enriched in Fe-Cu-Au-P₂O₅-F-Zr-Ti released directly from the granite magma.

**REFERENCES**


Acknowledgements: Permission to use geochemical data for Cambrian granites from the Mineral Resources Tasmania data-base, and from Steve Hunns for unpublished analyses on the Lake Selina prospect is gratefully acknowledged.
Evaluation of the role of Cambrian granites in the genesis of world class VHMS deposits in Tasmania

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Abstract

An analysis of the distribution, composition and alteration zonation of Cambrian granites which intrude the Mt Read Volcanics of western Tasmania provides evidence that there may have been a direct input of magmatic fluids containing Fe, Cu, Au and P to form the copper-gold volcanic-hosted massive sulphide (VHMS) mineralisation in the Mt Lyell district.

Interpretation of regional gravity and magnetic data indicates that a narrow discontinuous body of Cambrian granite (2-4 km wide) extends along the eastern margin of the Mt Read Volcanic belt for over 60 km. The Cambrian granites are altered magnetite series types which show enrichment in barium and potassium, and contrast markedly with the fractionated ilmenite series Devonian granites related to tin mineralisation elsewhere in the Dundas Trough.

Copper mineralisation occurs in a linear zone above the apex of the buried Cambrian granite body at the southern end of the belt, from Mt Darwin to the Mt Lyell district over a strike length of 25 km. Gold and zinc mineralisation are concentrated higher in the volcanic stratigraphy more distant from the granite. Overlapping zones of alteration extend from the granite into the surrounding volcanic rocks. An inner zone of K-feldspar alteration is overprinted by chlorite alteration, which passes outwards into sericite alteration. Magnetite ± pyrite ± chalcopyrite ± apatite mineralisation is concentrated in the chlorite alteration zone as veins and low grade disseminations. The Mt Lyell copper-gold stringer and disseminated mineralisation is hosted in felsic volcanic rocks 1 to 2 km west of the interpreted buried granite position. Magnetite-apatite ± pyrite veins in the Prince Lyell deposit at Mt Lyell are very similar to the veins in the halo of the granite, further south, and provide evidence for magmatic fluid input during the formation of the copper-gold VHMS deposits.

A model involving deeply penetrating convective seawater, mixing with a magmatic fluid released from the Cambrian granites, best explains the features of VHMS mineralisation in the Mt Lyell district.

1. Introduction

There has been considerable debate over the past 25 years on the role of granitic magmas during the generation of volcanic-hosted massive sulphide (VHMS) deposits. Some workers (e.g. Uribe and Sato, 1978; Henley and Thornley, 1979; Sawkins and Kewalik, 1981; and Stanton, 1985, Stanton, 1990) have argued for a direct input of volatiles and metals from the magma to form the ore solutions, while others (e.g. Kajiwara, 1973; Spooner and Fyfe, 1973; Ohmoto and Rye, 1974; Solomon, 1976; Large,