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16	

17 Abstract

Time constraints on igneous processes related to eruption triggering, e.g., magma mixing or 18 19 ascent in the conduit, are needed in any risk mitigation attempt. In this context, magma 20 ascent rate and kinetics are key parameters as they may correspond to the response time available to civil protection during volcanic unrest. Several tools available to quantify such 21 durations include diffusion chronometry, isotopic geochemistry, and hydrous mineral 22 23 destabilization related to magma degassing during ascent through the conduit. Here I discuss 24 the possible limitations of the widely used hydrous mineral destabilization chronometry applied to minerals within large lava bodies that cool relatively slowly (over days or weeks) 25 such as thick lava flows and lava domes. Based on the type case of the Sarcoui dome (Chaîne 26 27 des Puys, France) and its associated phreatomagmatic outbreak deposits, I suggest that hydrous mineral destabilization rims may, in some cases, develop at the surface during dome 28 29 emplacement. From this perspective, preeruptive timescales calculated based on disequilibrium kinetics will be greatly underestimated, leading to a serious issue in the 30 reconstruction of the eruption dynamics and its possible applications to emergency 31 32 management for future eruptions. More generally, hydrous mineral destabilization 33 chronometry should be used with great caution. Nevertheless, it remains a choice tool to quantify magma ascent rates for eruptions during which magmas quench upon arrival at the 34 35 surface (e.g., Plinian, Vulcanian, or phreatomagmatic eruptions), with pumiceous textures 36 being a good indicator of quenching. In the case of lava dome emplacement, I suggest that the minerals embedded in pumiceous clasts emitted during explosive phases are more 37 38 reliable candidates for chronometry studies than crystals within the dome itself as those 39 clasts might represent the fresh magma that triggered the explosion.

40 • Introduction

Understanding the mechanisms and quantifying the time scales and kinetics 41 42 associated with volcanic unrest, eruption triggering, and magma ascent to the surface 43 remain some of the holy grails of modern volcanology and igneous petrology. This has particular societal impact in the case of silica-rich magmas associated with the most 44 explosive and destructive eruptions, for which risk mitigation requires such time constraints. 45 46 In addition to the information provided by seismic and geophysical monitoring (e.g., Endo et 47 al. 1981; Gudmundsson et al. 2014; Sigmundsson et al. 2014), igneous rocks record the various stages of their evolution, offering the potential for time constraints (e.g., Spiegelman 48 & Elliott 1993; Rutherford 2008; Druitt et al. 2012). The main chronometric tools available 49 are diffusion chronometry (e.g., Demouchy et al., 2006; Boudon et al. 2015; Shea et al. 2015; 50 Ferguson et al., 2016; Costa et al., 2020), U-Th disequilibrium series (Girard et al. 2017), and 51 52 mineral destabilization chronometry (Rutherford & Hill 1993; Faure et al., 2001; Browne & Gardner, 2006). 53 Since the pioneering study of Rutherford & Hill (1993), who quantified the ascent rate 54 55 of Mount St. Helens dacite magmas in both dome forming eruptions, and large explosive Plinian to Subplinian eruptions, hundreds of studies have used their experimentally 56 calibrated approach. Their method relies on the advancement of the destabilization reaction 57 58 that affects hydrous minerals (e.g., pyroxene-oxide-plagioclase rims around amphibole) during magma degassing. Although initially calibrated for amphibole, similar destabilization 59 reactions are reported for other hydrous minerals like biotite (Venezky & Rutherford, 1999; 60 61 Underwood et al., 2012). This reaction is usually considered to occur during magma ascent as volatile solubility decreases dramatically upon decompression. Alternatively, it has been 62 proposed and demonstrated experimentally that the reaction may occur when a more 63

64 primitive hotter magma intrudes a differentiated and partially cooled magma chamber (e.g., Feeley & Sharp, 1996; Plechov et al. 2008; De Angelis et al., 2015). Decompression-related 65 dehydration drives hydrous minerals (e.g., amphibole or mica) to unstable conditions 66 (Rutherford 2008), forming a reaction rim whose width is directly correlated to the duration 67 between the onset of mineral destabilization and the final quenching of the lava. It is 68 69 generally assumed that magmas are volatile saturated at mid-crustal or shallow magma 70 chamber depths and that degassing starts as soon as magma begins its ascent (as an 71 example, Métrich & Wallace, 2008). Thus, the depth of the magma chamber and the duration of degassing obtained from destabilization rims can be converted into an ascent or 72 decompression rate. Nevertheless, volatile saturation of magmas at magma chamber depth 73 74 should be demonstrated for each case study, as volatile-undersaturated melts would start to 75 degas at shallower levels in the conduit, leading to over-estimated ascent rates. More generally any process with the potential to destabilize hydrous minerals should be carefully 76 77 explored before proposing an ascent rate of magmas. As an example, during the cooling of large lava effusions or extrusions at the surface (e.g., thick lava flows or lava domes), the 78 79 temperature of the lava may remain largely above the solidus temperature for several days 80 or weeks (as an example, Dzurisin et al., 1990), enhancing the destabilization of hydrous minerals and prolonging the development of the destabilization rim (Garcia & Jacobson, 81 82 1979; Devine et al., 1998); such a process would lead to under-estimated ascent rates. Based on the type case of the Sarcoui dome (Chaîne des Puys, France) destabilized 83 biotite crystals, I show here that in some cases the destabilization rims may develop after 84 85 magma ascent and during lava dome emplacement. I then explore more generally the utility 86 of hydrous mineral destabilization rims in estimating the ascent rates of explosive and 87 effusive or extrusive eruptions.

89 • Geological context

90	The Chaîne des Puys (CdP) is situated in the French Massif Central to the west of the
91	Oligocene Limagne rift and borders the city of Clermont-Ferrand, a metropolitan area with
92	~480,000 inhabitants (Figure 1). The CdP is a 30-km-long north-south alignment of around a
93	hundred monogenic cones, domes, and maars emplaced between ~100 and 6.7 \pm 0.1 ka
94	(Figure 1; Juvigne 1992; Boivin et al. 2009). French Massif Central magmatism is related to
95	asthenospheric upwelling (Hoernle et al. 1995; Granet et al. 1995) and melting of a strongly
96	metasomatized HIMU-type mantle (Lustrino & Wilson 2007; Hamelin et al. 2009; France et
97	al. 2015; Gu et al. 2016, 2018; the HIMU isotopic signature likely documenting the influence
98	of a recycled component in the mantle source, Zindler & Hart, 1986). Volatile- and silica-rich
99	magmas, like the trachyte lavas forming the Sarcoui edifice studied herein (~12.5 \pm 0.5 ka;
100	Miallier et al. 2017), formed through protracted differentiation, and ~5%–10% crustal
101	contamination (Villemant et al. 1980; Condomines et al. 1982; Hamelin et al. 2009; Martel et
102	al. 2013; France et al. 2016). Recently, it has been proposed that the CdP plumbing system
103	may still contain some residual melt, although any potential eruption would require an
104	unlikely mush rejuvenation (France et al. 2016) as described for large silicic eruptions
105	(Bachmann & Bergantz, 2003; Hubert et al., 2010).

Sarcoui volcano is a lava dome of ca. 1 km in diameter and of ca. 150 m high; it is composed of massive trachyte lava containing biotite and alkali feldspar phenocrysts (wholerock compositions available in Martel et al. 2013; Table 1). The lava dome has suffered several destabilization events and is bordered by several block-and-ash deposits (BAD) that are locally buried below massive trachyte lavas, highlighting that destabilization occurred during dome growth (Miallier et al. 2017).

113 • *Methods*

114 Field work was conducted to reconstruct the stratigraphy, field relations between the 115 various facies, and sample the key lithologies. Major element mineral compositions and backscattered electron images (BSE) were determined using a CAMECA SX100 electron 116 probe (SCMEM; Université de Lorraine, France) equipped with five spectrometers and the 117 118 "Peak sight" operating system. Data were obtained using a 12 kV acceleration potential, a 119 static (fixed) beam, K α emissions from all elements, and a matrix correction based on Pouchou & Pichoir (1991). Crystals were analyzed with a beam current of 10 nA, a focused 120 121 beam, and counting times of 20 s on background and 40 s on peak. 122 • Results: Stable and destabilized biotite at Sarcoui volcano 123 Field evidence of an initial explosive phase followed by lava dome emplacement 124

At various outcrops located in the two northeast quarries, pyroclastic deposits are 125 126 recognized below the dome deposits (Figure 2), and attest of an initial explosive phase for 127 which fragmentation could have been phreatomagmatic. Samples for the present study were collected in two old quarries (45°48'54.4"N, 2°59'15.9"E, and 45°48'58.9"N, 128 129 2°59'09.9"E; Table S1). Both outcrops contain dark and roundish, relatively dense (in 130 comparison to the massive dome trachyte lava) trachyte lapilli and blocks with a quenched aspect that can be classified as cauliflower bombs (Figures 2a, b). Also present are angular 131 132 accidental blocks of basalt and gneiss (full thin sections presented in Figures 2c and d, 133 respectively) embedded in an ash matrix. Most of the trachyte lapilli and blocks display a banded texture with vesicle-poor and -rich bands that seems to preserve conduit-related 134 shearing (Shea et al. 2012; France et al. 2016). The characteristics of the pyroclastic deposits 135

136 related to this initial explosive phase, and more specifically the presence of cauliflower 137 bombs, and of angular accidental blocks of basalt and gneiss embedded in an ash matrix suggest that the fragmentation could have been phreatomagmatic. Although the origin of 138 fragmentation should be considered with caution (White & Valentine, 2016), based on those 139 evidences, and relying on previous volcanological studies in the Chaîne des Puys area (e.g., 140 141 De Goer et al., 1992; Miallier et al., 2004; Boivin et al., 2009), I will hereafter name this pyroclastic unit "phreatomagmatic deposits". This phreatomagmatic deposit may 142 143 correspond to units SU2 and SU3 from Miallier et al. (2017), although they did not identify the accidental angular and fragmented material. Similar to their observations, no paleosol or 144 erosion features have been observed between the phreatomagmatic deposits and the 145 146 overlying dome lavas or pyroclastic density currents related BADs (Figure 2). Thermoluminescence dating of the phreatomagmatic deposits, and ²³⁸U-²³⁰Th dating of 147 dome samples give similar ages (12.6 \pm 3 ka, and 12.8 \pm 1.4 ka, respectively, 2 σ errors; 148 Miallier et al. 2004). Field evidence and geochronology therefore support a model in which 149 the phreatomagmatic stage represents the initial breakout that was directly followed by 150 151 dome emplacement, in agreement with early detailed field studies (De Goër et al. 1991). 152 Petrography and phase compositions 153

The similar mineral assemblages and the perfect match of mineral compositions of the dome and initial phreatomagmatic products presented below, highlight that both eruptive phases were fed by the same trachyte magma. Both trachyte magmas display porphyritic textures with 5 to 10% phenocrysts of plagioclase (2 × 0.6 mm) and biotite (~1.5 mm) with no difference observed between the phenocryst fraction of dome and phreatomagmatic samples (point counting estimates). Martel et al. (2013) showed that this 160 mineral assemblage in the Sarcoui magma had an equilibrium temperature of ~800°C. 161 Plagioclase is zoned, and biotite displays skeletal morphologies (Figure 3). The matrix is 162 composed of microlites of plagioclase with potassic feldspar rims, biotite, and iron oxide. Microphenocrysts (~100 µm) of apatite and zircon are recognized throughout the matrix and 163 included in the biotite and plagioclase phenocrysts. Crystallites, the smallest microlites, are 164 165 also similar in composition and assemblage (potassic feldspar, biotite, and iron oxide) 166 between the dome and phreatomagmatic samples, but are ~2 times larger in dome samples. 167 Phenocrysts and microlites are oriented in the same direction in all samples; in the cauliflower bombs, this highlights that the larger microlites had already crystallized when the 168 trachyte magma was migrating through the conduit. Crystallites are only locally oriented. In 169 170 dome samples, all biotite crystals are rimmed by dark, oxide-rich, in average 20 µm large 171 destabilization coronas that contain potassic feldspar, Ti-magnetite, plagioclase, and rare ilmenite (Figures 3, 4). Only rare Mg-rich clinopyroxene is present suggesting that in a 172 similar way as for amphibole destabilization, the reaction is not equilibrated, and thus have 173 likely proceeded with melt present (Rutherford & Hill, 1993). Several examples of reaction 174 175 rims are presented in Figure 4 along with an attempt of mass balance based on compositions 176 presented in Table 1. The estimated reaction is 0.5 biotite + 0.5 melt => 0.63 K-feldspar + 0.18 titanomagnetite + 0.12 plagioclase + 0.04 clinopyroxene + 0.03 ilmenite + melt₂ (with 177 178 melt₂ enriched in both Mg and K, and depleted in Fe). Similar to the pioneering work of 179 Rutherford & Hill (1993), the mass balance residuals are relatively high, suggesting that the 180 reaction proceeded with melt present before and after an increment of reaction. In contrast, 181 no destabilization features are observed in phreatomagmatic samples (Figure 3). The 182 matrices of phreatomagmatic samples contain micro-vesicle-rich and -poor bands, consistent with the low densities of the bombs (1.5-2 g/cm³; France et al. 2016; Miallier et al. 183

2017), whereas dome sample matrices contain widespread vesicles, consistent with the
 lower densities locally observed in the dome lavas (~1.3 g/cm³; France et al. 2016; Miallier et
 al. 2017).

Mineral compositions are very similar in the dome and phreatomagmatic samples
(Figure 5). Biotite contains 5.5 wt% TiO₂, 14 wt% Al₂O₃, and 12.5 wt% MgO with no
compositional difference between the massive dome trachyte lava and the dense cauliflower
bombs (Table 1). Feldspar compositions (Figure 5; Table 1) vary from andesine (An₃₁Ab₆₄Or₅)
to alkali feldspar (An₁Ab₄₉Or₅₀). Phenocryst cores are more Ca-rich (andesine to oligoclase)
than microlite and crystallite cores (oligoclase to anorthoclase). The rims of all feldspar
grains display more evolved compositions that range from Or₃₃ to Or₅₀.

Oxygen isotopes measured in zircon grains record crustal contamination at magma chamber depth, but display no variation between the dome and phreatomagmatic samples (France et al. 2016).

197

198 • Discussion

199

Development of biotite destabilization rims at Sarcoui lava dome

200 The various petrographic and geochemical features described herein and in the literature show that the same magma, which experienced similar magma chamber and 201 202 conduit processes, is responsible for the dome and phreatomagmatic eruptions at Sarcoui. 203 Those various results highlight that the lava dome was emplaced immediately after the 204 phreatomagmatic outbreak. To summarize, these main features are: 1) the lack of a paleosol 205 between the phreatomagmatic deposits and dome ones (dome lavas or BAD; Figure 2); 2) 206 the similar ages between the two facies; 3) the similar mineral cargo charges, and thus a 207 similar influence on magma viscosity; and 4) the identical phase compositions of phenocrysts

208 that document magma chamber processes, microlites that seem to document conduit 209 processes, and crystallites that document the very last stages of crystallization at or near the 210 surface (Figure 5). The strong similarity in crystal proportion and mineral composition down to the smaller crystallites implies that each of the various generations of crystals crystallized 211 212 in similar conditions and from similar melts during the dome and phreatomagmatic stages. 213 Although the density of dome trachyte lavas varies slightly due to their micro-vesicularity 214 that developed late during dome emplacement, both dome and phreatomagmatic samples 215 are relatively dense and incipiently to poorly vesicular according to Houghton & Wilson (1989) classification (e.g., no pumice texture observed). In the case of the initial 216 phreatomagmatic stage, this implies that most of the eruption's explosive energy came from 217 218 water-magma interaction, and not from 'dry' explosive magma fragmentation. Therefore, 219 the only difference between the phreatomagmatic and dome-extrusion phases was the duration of shallow crystallization (or rate of cooling), which was long (slow) for dome lavas 220 and short (quenched) for phreatomagmatic samples, consistent with the biotite-221 222 destabilization rims and larger crystallites observed in the dome samples. These different 223 emplacement modes are related to an external parameter: the presence (phreatomagmatic 224 outbreak stage) or lack (dome stage) of a water table or abundant infiltrated basement fluids 225 that could trigger phreatomagmatic fragmentation when the magma:water ratio is optimal 226 (White & Valentine, 2016). Consequently, there is no indication of any difference between 227 the phreatomagmatic and dome stages prior to the water-magma interaction, and similar 228 ascent conditions are therefore likely. In that case, most, if not all, of the biotite 229 destabilization rims are related to destabilization at depths shallower than the melt-water 230 interactions of the phreatomagmatic stage, and thus very close to the surface or during 231 dome emplacement. Similar conclusions were reached for some destabilization rims of

232 amphibole at Soufriere Hill, and in the Cascades (Garcia & Jacobson, 1979; Devine et al., 233 1998). This also implies that a relatively quick conduit ascent should be considered for both the phreatomagmatic and dome stages with striking implications for risk mitigation. 234 However, the ascent rate cannot yet be quantified, as only amphibole destabilization 235 236 experiments are available; none have been reported for biotite. Once the kinetics of biotite 237 destabilization upon magma ascent, or at surface conditions will be quantified with future 238 experiments, the biotite destabilization rims in dome samples may be used to obtain 239 minimum ascent rates, and an overall cooling rate of the dome lava. As a comparison, a lack of destabilization rim for amphibole crystals would document an ascent of magmas from 240 reservoir to surface in less than 4 days, when a 20 µm destabilization rim would develop in a 241 242 lava dome at surface conditions in tens of days (Rutherford & Hill, 1993). According to 243 Underwood et al. (2012) biotite destabilization is likely to develop faster than amphibole destabilization due to the higher diffusivity of H in biotite, suggesting that those duration 244 estimates would be maximum values. Those authors also documented that biotite and 245 246 amphibole are more extensively reacted in the core of the Lassen Peak dome (US) where 247 cooling rates are lower than in its external parts, suggesting that the development of 248 destabilization rims at surface conditions is not restricted to Sarcoui dome, and should be 249 seriously considered in any study.

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- 251

General implications and conclusions

The results described herein support a model in which magma ascent conditions in the conduit were similar for the phreatomagmatic (prior to water-magma interaction) and dome-extrusion phases at Sarcoui. It is therefore likely that the biotite destabilization rims observed exclusively in dome samples developed during dome emplacement, and should not

256 be used to quantify trachyte magma ascent rates in the conduit. If those were mistakenly used for purposes of ascent kinetics estimates, the latter would be greatly underestimated, 257 258 implicating serious issues in the development of risk mitigation plans. My results suggest that the approach of Rutherford & Hill (1993) should be applied with caution when 259 considering samples that may have cooled slowly (days to weeks) at the surface, e.g., thick 260 261 lava flows, domes, and lava lakes. Samples that quenched upon arrival at the surface, i.e., 262 juvenile ejecta from explosive eruptions (scoria, pumice, phreatomagmatic bombs), 263 nevertheless remain perfectly suitable to apply this method. Dome samples are not always unsuited to this method, but a detailed petrographic study is required to prove that 264 destabilization rims formed during magma ascent through the conduit and not during dome 265 266 emplacement at the surface. To apply Rutherford & Hill's (1993) method to domes, it seems 267 that the best samples are those that are strongly vesiculated and associated with dilute pyroclastic density currents (PDCs; e.g., explosive dome eruptions), as they represent the 268 quenching of fresh magma injected within the dome and the triggering of the explosive 269 270 eruption (Boudon et al. 2015). This was for example the case for strongly vesiculated pyroclasts from BAD related to PDC from the 1991-1995 Unzen eruption (Holtz et al., 2005; 271 272 Browne et al., 2006). There destabilization rims can confidently be attributed to magma 273 mixing or destabilization upon ascent, and may be used as chronometers. One striking 274 difference between Unzen volcano biotite destabilization rims, and the ones studied herein 275 is the presence of amphibole as a destabilization product at Unzen (Browne et al., 2006). As 276 initially suggested by Feeley & Sharp (1996), the presence of amphibole may thus represent 277 an indicator or rims formed upon ascent by opposition to rims formed at surface during 278 dome cooling like in the present study where such a hydrous mineral is lacking. This will 279 nevertheless have to be confirmed by future experimental constraints. Less-vesiculated and

- rather degassed magmas associated with PDCs may rather represent the slowly cooled and
 degassed rigid dome carapace that fragments during the explosive eruption (Boudon et al.
 2015), and should not be used.
- 283

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419 *Figure captions:*

Figure 1: Simplified maps of the study area modified after France et al. (2016). The location
of Chaîne des Puys in France is shown, and the location and geological map of Sarcoui
volcano is presented (from Boivin et al. 2009). Red arrows and asterisks document the block
and ash deposit location and flow directions. Numbers in rectangles refers to the
determined ages.

425

Figure 2: Characteristics of the phreatomagmatic outcrops from the NE quarries of Sarcoui 426 427 dome (Figure 1). The reddish ash and cauliflower bombs characteristic of a phreatomagmatic 428 deposit (a-b) is overlaid by a block-and-ash deposit (BAD) characteristic of the Sarcoui dome pyroclastic density currents (PDC). Note in a) the lack of any paleosol in between 429 430 phreatomagmatic deposit and the Sarcoui dome related BAD. c) and d) present full thin 431 section images of accidental clasts that are part of the phreatomagmatic deposit. c) presents a basalt clast thin section under plane-polarized light; d) presents a gneiss clast under both 432 433 plane- and cross-polarized light.

434

Figure 3: Microphotographs of trachyte lava from the Sarcoui phreatomagmatic stage
(without biotite reaction rim; left microphotographs), and the Sarcoui dome (with a
noticeable reaction rim around biotite; right microphotographs). Top pictures are under
plane-polarized light, and bottom pictures under cross-polarized light. Bt: biotite, Pl:
plagioclase. Backscattered electron images of the biotite grain from the lava dome sample
are presented in Figure 4b-c.

442	Figure 4: Characteristics of the biotite destabilization rims at Sarcoui lava dome. a-k panels
443	are backscattered electron images, with h-i images obtained by modifying contrast and
444	colors to better highlight phase relations. An attempt of reaction mass balance is presented
445	(0.5 biotite + 0.5 melt => 0.63 K-feldspar + 0.18 titanomagnetite + 0.12 plagioclase + 0.04
446	clinopyroxene + 0.03 ilmenite + melt ₂), it highlights that melt is present before and after the
447	reaction, and that melt $_2$ is enriched in both Mg and K, and depleted in Fe. Representative
448	compositions of the related phases are presented in Table 1. The high Mg# of the Cpx
449	produced by the reaction is consistent with $melt_2$ being enriched in Mg. Panels b-c document
450	the lava dome biotite grain presented in Figure 3.

451

Figure 5: Feldspar compositions in the studied dome and phreatomagmatic bomb (phreato)
samples for Sarcoui dome. Left panel compare all data from the dome samples to all data
from the phreatomagmatic bombs. Right panel compare the composition of phenocrysts,
microlites, and crystallites.

456

Figure 6: Evolutionary model for Sarcoui volcano. Magma feeding both the phreatomagmatic and dome stages followed the same evolution and ascent conditions up to the shallow depth at which magma interacted with water during the phreatomagmatic stage. The optimal water:magma ratio triggering phreatomagmatic fragmentation is here schematized by the representation of a water-rich porous layer named "water table"; see White & Valentine (2016) for a discussion on this optimal ratio. The magma was quenched during

463	phreatomagmatism, whereas it slowly cooled during lava dome emplacement, resulting in
464	extended magma degassing and associated hydrous mineral (biotite) destabilization.
465	
466	Table 1: Representative analysis of feldspar, biotite, and of the minerals forming the
467	breakdown reaction rims of biotite from Sarcoui samples. phreato: phreatomagmatic
468	bombs; FdK potassic feldspar; ilm: ilmenite; TiMgt: titanomagnetite; Cpx: clinopyroxene;
469	melt (800SAR2): melt used in the mass balance calculation as a reactant from Martel et al.
470	(2013) experiments at 800°C. The buck-rock composition provided by Martel et al. (2013) is
471	also presented.
472	
473	Table S1: Sample list, type, and coordinates.



Figure 1



Figure 2





Figure 4









Figure 6

			n	SiO ₂	Al_2O_3	TiO ₂	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	MnO	MgO	FeO	Cl	Total	#Mg	An	Ab	0
Feldspar	Dome	phenocryst core	8	62.3	22.9	-	5.0	7.7	1.3	-	0.0	0.3	-	99.4		24.5	67.9	7
		+/-		0.6	0.6		0.8	0.2	0.4		0.0	0.1				3.6	1.5	2
		microlite core	16	63.3	22.0	-	4.0	7.8	2.0	-	0.0	0.3	-	99.4		<i>19.6</i>	69.0	1
		+/-		1.4	1.0		1.2	0.3	0.8		0.0	0.1				5.7	2.1	4
		crystallite core	7	64.3	21.4	-	3.3	7.9	2.4	-	0.0	0.4	-	99.7		16.0	69.7	1
		+/-		1.4	0.8		0.9	0.3	0.7		0.0	0.1				4.4	1.6	4
		microlite rim	10	66.3	18.7	-	0.6	6.4	6.9	-	0.0	0.4	-	99.4		3.0	56.9	4
		+/-		0.5	0.5		0.2	0.3	0.8		0.0	0.1				1.2	3.2	4
		crystallite rim	6	67.1	18.4	-	0.5	6.3	7.1	-	0.0	0.6	-	100.0		2.3	56.1	4
		+/-		0.3	0.5		0.3	0.6	0.9		0.0	0.1				1.3	4.7	5
	phreato	phenocryst core	14	61.5	23.4	-	5.7	7.6	1.0	-	0.0	0.3	-	99.5		27.7	66.5	5
		+/-		0.4	0.4		0.4	0.2	0.1		0.0	0.1				1.7	1.3	0
		microlite core	9	63.5	21.6	-	3.8	7.8	2.2	-	0.0	0.3	-	99.2		18.4	68.9	1
		+/-	_	0.9	0.8		0.8	0.1	0.7		0.0	0.1				4.0	1.2	3
		microlite rim	7	63.8	21.6	-	3.4	7.5	2.9	-	0.0	0.3	-	99.5		16.5	66.2	1
		+/-		1.2	1.3		1.4	0.8	2.1		0.0	0.1				6.8	6.5	1
		crystallite rim	2	66.8	18.6	-	0.7	6.4	6.4	-	0.0	0.6	-	99.4		3.5	38.4	5
		+/-		0.1	0.2		0.3	0.0	1.0		0.0	0.1				1.7	2.9	4
Biotite	dome		14	35.8	14.3	5.41	0.0	0.76	8.8	0.59	12.5	17.2	0.17	95.6	56.4			
				0.5	0.6	0.12	0.0	0.06	0.2	0.15	0.2	0.5	0.10	0.5	0.9			
	phreato		14	35.7	14.0	5.37	0.0	0.77	8.7	0.53	12.6	17.6	0.24	95.6	56.1			
	+/-			0.4	0.3	0.29	0.0	0.05	0.1	0.10	0.2	1.2	0.42	0.8	1.8			
Representat	ive	FdK		64.9	18.5	0.3	0.6	5.6	6.9	0.1	0.0	1.5		98.4				
composit	ions of	ilm		0.2	1.0	33.5	0.1	0.0	0.1	1.7	3.5	48.6		88.8				
biotite's rim minerals		TiMgt		0.1	1.3	11.2	0.0	0.1	0.1	3.6	4.9	68.5		89.7				
		Срх		54.9	0.7	0.3	19.4	1.2	0.1	2.9	17.6	3.8		100.8	89.2			
		melt (800SAR2)		66.6	17.3	0.4	1.6	6.8	4.7	0.2	0.3	2.2		100.0				
Pulk rock (from Martal et al. 2012)		(5.5	17.0	0.4	17	6.0	47	0.2	0.5		0.04	007						

Table 1: