

1 Imaging trace element zoning in pyroxenes using synchrotron XRF 2 mapping with the Maia detector array: benefit of low incident energy

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9 Abstract

10 Trace element zoning in igneous phenocrysts and cumulus phases is an informative record of
11 magmatic evolution. The advent of microbeam X-ray fluorescence (XRF) mapping has allowed rapid
12 chemical imaging of samples at thin section to decimetre scale, revealing such zoning patterns.
13 Mapping with synchrotron radiation using multidetector arrays has proved especially effective,
14 allowing entire thin sections to be imaged at micron scale resolution in a matter of hours. The
15 resolution of subtle minor element zoning, particularly in first row transition metals, is greatly
16 enhanced in synchrotron X-ray fluorescence microscopy (XFM) images by scanning with input beam
17 energy below the Fe K α line. In the examples shown here, from a phenocryst rich trachybasalt from
18 Mt Etna (Italy) and from a Ni-Cu-PGE ore-bearing intrusion at Norilsk (Siberia), the zoning patterns
19 revealed in this way record aspects of the crystallisation history that are not readily evident from XFM
20 images collected using higher incident energies and that cannot be obtained at comparable spatial
21 resolutions by any other methods within reasonable scan times. This approach has considerable
22 potential as a geochemical tool for investigating magmatic processes and is also likely to be
23 applicable in a wide variety of other fields.

24 Introduction

25 Trace element zoning patterns in igneous phenocrysts and cumulus minerals are useful recorders of
26 magmatic histories within subvolcanic plumbing systems (Ubide and Kamber, 2018). They have been
27 used as evidence for supercooling (Mollo et al., 2013), multi-stage cooling histories (Ubide et al.,
28 2019), crystal residence times in magmatic reservoirs (Costa and Morgan, 2011) and assimilation of
29 country rocks in magmatic sulfide hosting intrusive systems (Barnes et al., 2016a; Mao et al., 2019).
30 These patterns have been imaged by a variety of different techniques including laser ablation –
31 inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (LA-ICPMS) mapping (Lynn et al., 2018; Ubide and
32 Kamber, 2018; Ubide et al., 2015, 2019), time-of-flight LA-ICP-TOFMS mapping (Ubide et al.,

33 2019b), wavelength dispersive electron microprobe mapping (Welsch et al., 2013), Nano-scale
34 Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry (Nano-SIMS) (Seitz et al., 2018) and various techniques of
35 microbeam X-ray fluorescence microscopy (XFM) (Barnes et al., 2016a; Barnes et al., 2016b; Barnes
36 et al., 2018; Mao et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019). The latter technique has been enhanced by the
37 advent of the Maia multidetector array coupled with synchrotron microbeam sources (Paterson et al.,
38 2011; Ryan et al., 2014a; Ryan et al., 2014b). This combination of a multi-detector array and an ultra-
39 bright collimated source enables a combination of high spatial resolution (~2 microns), sensitivity to
40 concentrations in the hundreds to low thousands of ppm range and rapid data collection, such that cm²
41 areas can be scanned in a matter of a few hours. Numerous studies have revealed a range of types of
42 trace element distributions, not only in igneous minerals but also in a wide range of other geological
43 and non-geological applications (Cleverley et al., 2012; Dyl et al., 2014; Ryan et al., 2014b; Fisher et
44 al., 2015; Barnes et al., 2016b; Holwell et al., 2016).

45 Igneous pyroxenes are especially informative recorders of magmatic histories, in that they crystallise
46 over a wide range of conditions and incorporate a range of elements with different geochemical
47 characteristics into their crystal structure (Putirka, 2017). Trace elements in individual pyroxene
48 grains have been mapped by laser ablation – ICPMS in recent studies (Ubide et al., 2015, 2019; Ubide
49 and Kamber, 2018), showing the presence of sector zoning in Ti and oscillatory zoning in Cr in the
50 same grain. These elements appear to be particularly susceptible to zoning on account of their
51 relatively slow diffusion rates compared with divalent transition metals such as Ni and Mn (Cherniak
52 et al., 2010).

53 Trace element zoning in pyroxenes associated with magmatic sulfide ore deposits in ultramafic-mafic
54 intrusions has been investigated using Maia detector based XFM at the Australian Synchrotron
55 (Barnes et al., 2016b; Mao et al., 2019). As in the Mt Etna studies (Ubide et al., 2015, 2019; Ubide
56 and Kamber, 2018), the usually non-divalent elements Cr and Ti appear to be the most informative.
57 Their non-divalent character results in slow diffusion rates, as it is necessary to break Si-Al bonds in
58 the host pyroxene structure to accommodate charge balance. This property allows subtle zoning to be
59 retained even in slowly-cooled intrusions emplaced in the mid-crust (Taranovic et al., 2019).
60 However, even with the benefits of the Maia-XFM method, effective detection limits restrict the
61 usefulness of the method to either products of relatively primitive magmas, to generate sufficiently
62 high Cr contents in pyroxenes, or products of evolved magmas where Ti contents are higher but Cr
63 contents are generally too low to be detectable, using the conventional mapping technique with beam
64 energies high enough to excite all of the first row transition elements.

65 In this contribution, we report results of a modified synchrotron XFM approach involving input
66 energies just below the Fe K absorption edge. By eliminating the very high-yield Fe K α X-rays, this
67 modification allows greatly enhanced sensitivity for elements lighter than Fe, particularly Cr and Ti.

68 We show examples of the benefits of this technique applied to samples of Mt Etna trachybasalts and
69 pyroxene-bearing dolerites from the Norilsk region in Siberia. In both cases the additional sensitivity
70 of the technique reveals details at spatial scales not previously attainable even with synchrotron
71 radiation using the conventional approach.

72 Samples

73 Sample 15RC017 is a basaltic bomb from the 1974 flank eruption at Mt Etna (Sicily, Italy). The 1974
74 flank eruption is an archetypical example of ‘eccentric’ or ‘deep-dyke-fed’ eruption, tapping deep,
75 pre-degassed magma through pathways that bypass the central conduits of the volcano (Corsaro et al.,
76 2009; Ubide and Kamber, 2018). The bomb belongs to the second phase of the eruption (11-29 March
77 1974; Corsaro et al., 2009 and references therein) and was sampled at the base of the Mount De Fiore
78 II scoria cone, at UTM 33S 493347 4177339. The sample is a mildly vesicular and microporphyritic
79 trachybasalt, with <5 vol.% microphenocrysts of clinopyroxene that are commonly sector-zoned and
80 associated into glomerocrysts. Clinopyroxene typically occurs together with titanomagnetite and less
81 commonly with olivine. The rock groundmass is dominated by plagioclase microlites and glass. The
82 sample was previously investigated as part of clinopyroxene studies focused on the interpretation of
83 magmatic processes recorded in oscillatory zoning (Ubide and Kamber, 2018) and sector zoning
84 (Ubide et al., 2019).

85 Sample 24-93.6 comes from the Norilsk 1 intrusion, an ore-bearing high-level subvolcanic sill
86 forming part of the Siberian Large Igneous Province (Ryabov et al., 2014; Sluzhenikin et al., 2014).
87 The sample, from a drill hole close to the Medvezhy Creek open pit Ni-Cu-PGE mine, at UTM 45W
88 546400 7686100, is a Cr-spinel rich olivine dolerite from the upper zone of the intrusion. The zone is
89 characterised by low-S, high-PGE mineralisation, highly heterogeneous textures with abundant
90 sedimentary xenoliths and irregular oxide-rich clots a few mm in size consisting of clusters of Cr-
91 magnetite and chromite, amygdales and widely dispersed platinum group element minerals (Ryabov
92 et al., 1982; Ryabov et al., 2014). Clinopyroxene occurs as a poikilitic to interstitial phase in the
93 gabbroic matrix, and growing inward from the walls of segregation vesicles (Barnes et al., 2019)
94 associated with the spinel-rich clots.

95 Method

96 Maia-XFM data were collected at the XFM beamline of the Australian Synchrotron using the
97 Kirkpatrick Baez mirror microprobe end-station. This provides a monochromatic 2 µm beam spot size
98 for energies in the range 4–20 keV. Equipped with the Maia 384 detector array, the XFM beamline
99 can acquire data at 2 µm resolution from 384 detectors simultaneously over areas of several square
100 centimetres with count rates of 4–10 M/s, and energy resolution of around 260 eV (Kirkham et al.,
101 2010; Ryan et al., 2010; Paterson et al., 2011; Ryan et al., 2014b). Data are acquired in event mode

102 (Ryan et al. 2014b) with each detected X-ray event tagged by detector number in the array and X, Y
103 scan pixel coordinate in records tagged by accumulated flux and transit time per pixel. The data are
104 analyzed, event by event, using the Dynamic Analysis (DA) method for real-time spectral
105 deconvolution, which accumulates element concentration maps with the effects of spectral overlap,
106 pileup and background removed (Ryan 2010). The DA method uses a standardless approach based on
107 a fundamental parameter model (Kirkham et al., 2010; Ryan et al., 2010; Paterson et al., 2011; Ryan
108 et al., 2014b) implemented in the GeoPIXE software package. Maps were collected using incident
109 beam energies of 7.05 and 18.5 KeV for the low- and high-energy scans respectively, at spatial
110 resolution of 2 μm and a scanning velocity of 5 mm/s, giving an effective dwell time of 0.4 ms per
111 pixel. Yield corrections were calculated from a major element composition of clinopyroxene obtained
112 by electron microprobe analysis using the Jeol instrument at CSIRO Mineral Resources, Clayton.
113 Minor element data from microprobe analyses were also determined for comparison.

114 Results

115 Mt Etna sample

116 A composite RGB map of the Etnean trachybasalt (Red-Cr, Green-Ti, Blue-Ca; Figure 1A-D)
117 highlights the mineral assemblage composed of micro-phenocrysts of clinopyroxene (light blue, high
118 Ca-Ti), olivine (red, low Ca-Ti), magnetite (yellow, high Ti-Cr), and microlites of plagioclase (blue,
119 moderate Ca) embedded in a glassy groundmass. The internal zonation of clinopyroxene crystals is
120 particularly complex and interesting. Many of the clinopyroxenes show concentric enrichments in Cr
121 associated with depletion in Ti. These zones were previously shown to be enriched in Mg and
122 transition metals and depleted in incompatible elements, reflecting growth after new injections of
123 mafic melt into the crystallising reservoir (Ubide and Kamber, 2018). The XFM map presented here
124 allows a rapid statistical evaluation on the occurrence of Cr-rich zones. It is also evident from Fig. 1A
125 that complex zoning is a consistent feature of all pyroxene phenocrysts in the sample, with the nature
126 of the pattern depending on the crystallographic orientation relative to the section plane. Cr-rich zones
127 often overgrow previous cores, but also commonly occur in the centre of grains marking the position
128 of original nuclei formed upon magma recharge. In addition, the map reveals the frequent occurrence
129 of sector zoning in the clinopyroxene crystals, clearly distinguished by the relative abundance of Ti in
130 prism sectors (high Ti) relative to hourglass sectors (low Ti; Figure 1D, 1F). As shown in Ubide et al.
131 (2019), the striking decoupling of minor and trace elements into sectors vs. concentric zones is related
132 to the ionic potential of each cation (cation charge relative to the squared radius of the
133 crystallographic site it occupies in the clinopyroxene lattice) which, in turn, controls the efficiency of
134 the cation in charge balance mechanisms. This explains why titanium (Ti^{4+}) is strongly sector zoned,
135 whereas chromium (Cr^{3+}), which also partitions into the M1 site, is preliminarily distributed along
136 concentric growth zones (Figure 1D-F). Sector and/or oscillatory zoning are observed in most

137 clinopyroxene crystals, reflecting conditions of magma undercooling and mafic recharge, respectively
138 (Ubide et al., 2019).

139 *Figure 1 Etna sample 15RC017 maps.*

140 Norilsk sample

141 Clinopyroxenes in the gabbroic rocks of the Norilsk-Talnakh intrusions record the crystallisation of
142 the liquid component of the sills, which in most cases represents the trapped intercumulus liquid
143 interstitial to cumulus silicates and oxides. In the example studied here, the clinopyroxene grows from
144 the liquid “matrix” to an assemblage of Cr-spinel clusters or small rafts, along with minor amounts of
145 locally skeletal olivine. The sample mapped in Fig. 2 is representative of the unusual PGE-rich,
146 sulfide poor upper taxitic zone of the Norilsk 1 intrusion, and is characterised by the presence of cm-
147 scale clumps or mats of Cr-spinel and Cr-magnetite with distinctive cusped morphologies, interpreted
148 as the result of the former presence of gas bubbles (Barnes et al., 2019; Le Vaillant et al., 2017). The
149 spinel clumps appear to be selectively attached to bubble walls, probably because of physical
150 collection of spinel grains by rising bubbles within the upper part of the sill, analogous to a model
151 previously proposed for podiform chromitites (Matveev and Ballhaus, 2002) or due to selective
152 nucleation of bubbles within spinel mats owing to surface tension effects (Plese et al., 2019). The
153 silicate matrix to the clumps is a heterogeneous gabbro, with typical ophitic texture and a common
154 occurrence of zoned clinopyroxenes growing away from the cluster walls (Figure 2B-E) and also in
155 many cases (Figure 2F) growing inward from the walls of what are now segregation vesicles, i.e.
156 former voids now occupied by inward-leaking silicate melt (Barnes et al., 2019). Clinopyroxenes, as
157 typical throughout the intrusion, are characteristically normally zoned with respect to Cr, reflecting
158 the high compatibility of Cr³⁺ in clinopyroxene and the consequent progressive depletion in the
159 residual liquid component as clinopyroxene crystallises. Based on currently available data from high-
160 energy synchrotron XFM mapping (Barnes et al., 2019) this zonation is usually regular, concentric
161 and monotonic. However, the new data collected at low incident beam energy reveal a more complex
162 pattern of oscillatory zoning with a sharp boundary to a low Cr rim, coupled with a sharp internal
163 interface in the upper right corner of the grain defined by both Cr and Ti, probably reflecting sector-
164 zoning (Figure 2). Evidently the partitioning of Cr into the pyroxene was either limited by diffusion,
165 or was modified by fluctuating external conditions such as volatile release. An external control would
166 result in correlatable patterns of zoning among different grains in the same sample, testable by more
167 extensive mapping of multiple grains on thin section scale.

168 *Figure 2 Sample 24-39.3B from Upper Taxite of Norilsk 1 intrusion.*

169 Comparison of low and high energy scans

170 The contrast between the quality of the X-ray spectra collected at low and high energy is shown in
171 Figure 3; aside from the change in elastic and inelastic scatter energies associated with the beam,

172 differences are evident largely in a thirty-fold improvement in signal (and hence sensitivity) at low
173 energy for Ti and Cr.

174

175 *Figure 3 Comparison of spectra*

176 The improvement in precision is especially evident in comparing measured concentrations along a
177 line traverse through the oscillatory zoned pyroxene in the Norilsk sample (Figure 4). The analytical
178 precision is improved by an order of magnitude in the low-Energy scan. The subtle intermediate peak
179 visible in the low-Energy scan is lost in the noise in the high-Energy scan.

180 *Figure 4. Comparison of linear traverses*

181 Implications

182 These results demonstrate that the resolution of subtle minor element zoning in igneous samples,
183 particularly in Ti and Cr, is greatly enhanced in synchrotron XFM images by scanning below the Fe K
184 edge. In the examples shown here, the zoning patterns reveal aspects of the crystallisation history that
185 are not evident from conventional XFM images.

186 The advantages of Maia-XFM mapping over other techniques are largely related to the high spatial
187 resolution (2 μm) coupled with analytical precision at 100 ppm levels at short dwell times,
188 particularly for transition metals. Laser ablation – ICPMS mapping has higher sensitivity to more
189 elements at lower detection limits (down to sub-ppm), but the spatial resolution is typically poorer, of
190 the order of tens of μm , and only a small number of grains can be analysed in a reasonable time with
191 regular quadrupole MS set-ups (e.g., Ubide et al., 2015, 2019a, 2019b). The individual grain LA-
192 ICPMS images in Fig. 1 E and F took an hour and ten minutes to collect, compared with two hours for
193 the roughly twenty times larger area in XFM image B. The Maia-XFM method allows entire thin
194 sections to be imaged in a matter of hours, identifying particular grains of interest that can then be
195 followed up by other geochemical methods, if required. However, the information obtained directly
196 from the XFM maps is sufficient in itself to reveal magmatic histories. One particular advantage is
197 that the method can generate quantitative diffusion profiles across every compositional boundary in
198 the image, enabling true-width profiles to be identified by finding the steepest concentration gradients
199 representing sections orthogonal to the grain boundary. We recommend this approach for reading
200 magmatic processes from crystal cargoes in a wide variety of volcanic and intrusive settings, with
201 applications to determination of crystal residence times and potentially to the assessment of
202 prospectivity of mafic intrusions for magmatic ore deposits.

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331

332 Figure captions

333 Figure 1: Mapping of Etna sample 15RC017. A, B, Maia XFM images collected at 7050 eV (A) and
334 18500 eV incident beam energy (B). Image size 15000 x 5764 pixels, acquisition time was 2 h. C,D,
335 enlargement of selected pyroxene grains showing concentric zonation in Cr and sector zoning in Ti.
336 E,F, laser ablation – ICPMS element maps of pyroxene D (acquisition time was 1 h and 10 min).
337 Colour scales indicate concentrations in ppm (Cr up to 1000 ppm, Ti to 10,000 ppm) in
338 clinopyroxene; concentrations in other phases occurring as inclusions or in the groundmass are semi-
339 quantitative.

340 Figure 2: Sample 24-39.3B from Upper Taxite of Norilsk 1 intrusion. A) high-energy scan (18500 eV)
341 of domain showing a large cluster of Cr-spinel with smooth concave margins interpreted as original
342 vapour bubble walls, now infilled by mix of plagioclase-pyroxene (right) and amygdale-filling
343 chlorite and other fine grained phases (lower left). Note ingrowth of Cr-Ti zoned clinopyroxene from
344 original bubble wall (centre) (sqr indicates square root of count rate). B, low-energy scan (7050 eV)
345 showing details of complexly zoned clinopyroxene with rim of relatively Ti-enriched replacive
346 amphibole, and fine radiating acicular Mn-bearing phase (green) in amygdale (left). C, same area,
347 scanned at high energy (18500 eV); no lack of detail compared with low-E scan. D,E, low energy
348 scan (7050 eV) of same area, single-element concentration maps of Cr and Ti. Image size 1750 x
349 1426 pixels, acquisition time 10 mins. F, different area from same sample showing clinopyroxene
350 growing into a segregation vesicle from inner wall of thin Cr-magnetite bubble rind (Cr abundance in

351 shades of yellow (combined red and green), Ti blue, showing combination of sector and oscillatory
352 zoning.

353 Figure 3 Comparison of spectra from low and high energy scans of the Etna sample (integrated over
354 area indicated by white dashed line). Red = smoothed spectrum, green = raw data, purple = best fit
355 background.

356 Figure 4. Comparison of quantified Cr concentration along linear traverse from core to rim of zoned
357 clinopyroxene in Norilsk sample (Fig. 2) for low and high energy scans – average plus 2-sigma error
358 bars. White-line profile on lower plot is Cr data from electron microprobe along a closely adjacent
359 traverse.

360 Supplementary material:

361 Fig Supp1 – Maia-XFM map of Etna sample 15RC017, low incident energy, Cr (red) – Ti (green) –
362 Ca (blue) RGB image at full resolution (corresponding to Fig 1A).

363 Fig Supp2. Maia-XFM map of Etna sample 15RC017, low incident energy, Cr concentration map,
364 square root scale, full resolution (corresponding to detailed area in Fig 1, D,E,F).

365 Fig Supp3. Maia-XFM map of Etna sample 15RC017, low incident energy, Ti concentration map, log
366 scale, full resolution (corresponding to detailed area in Fig 1, D,E,F).

367

Figure 1

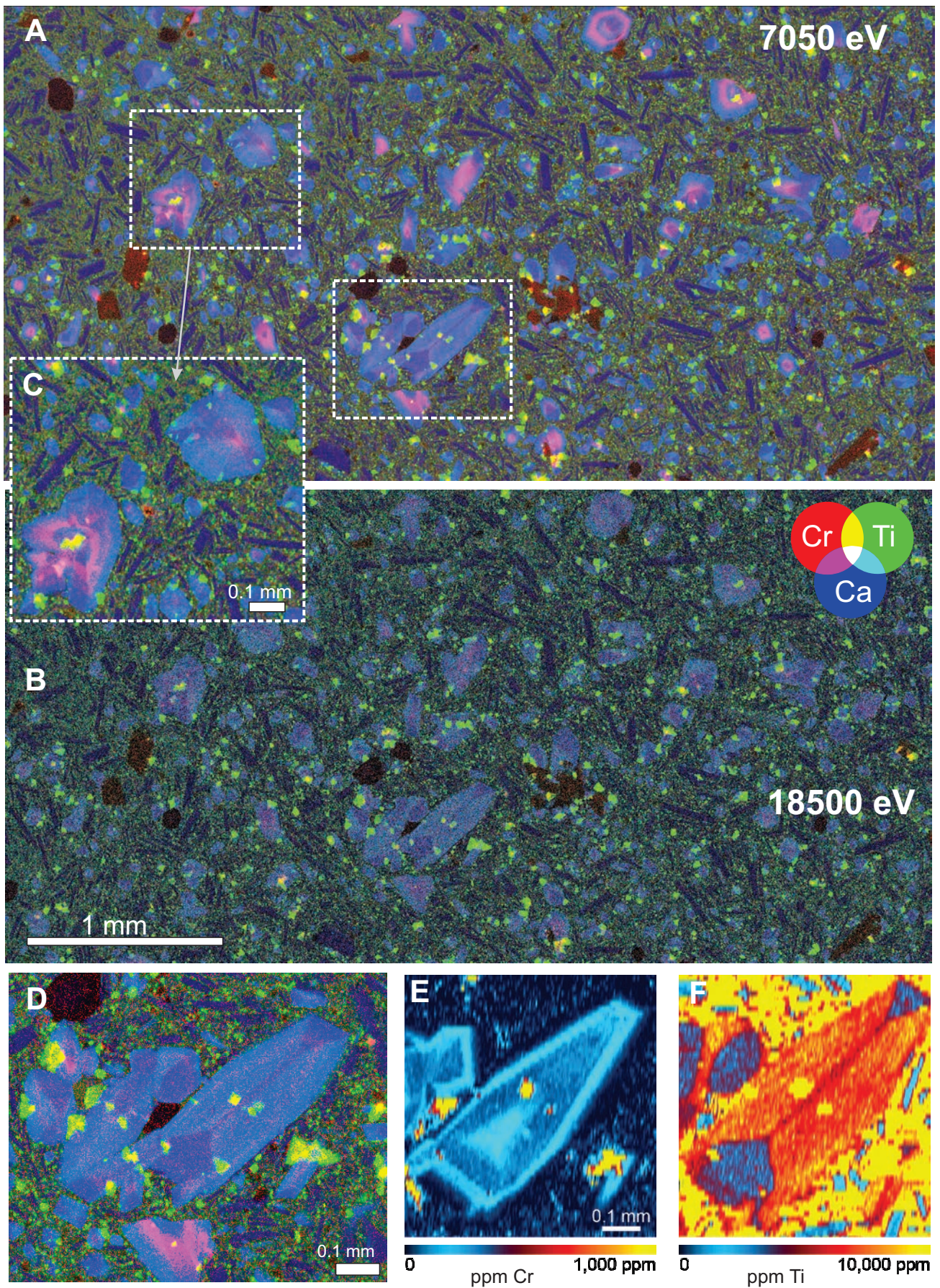


Figure 2

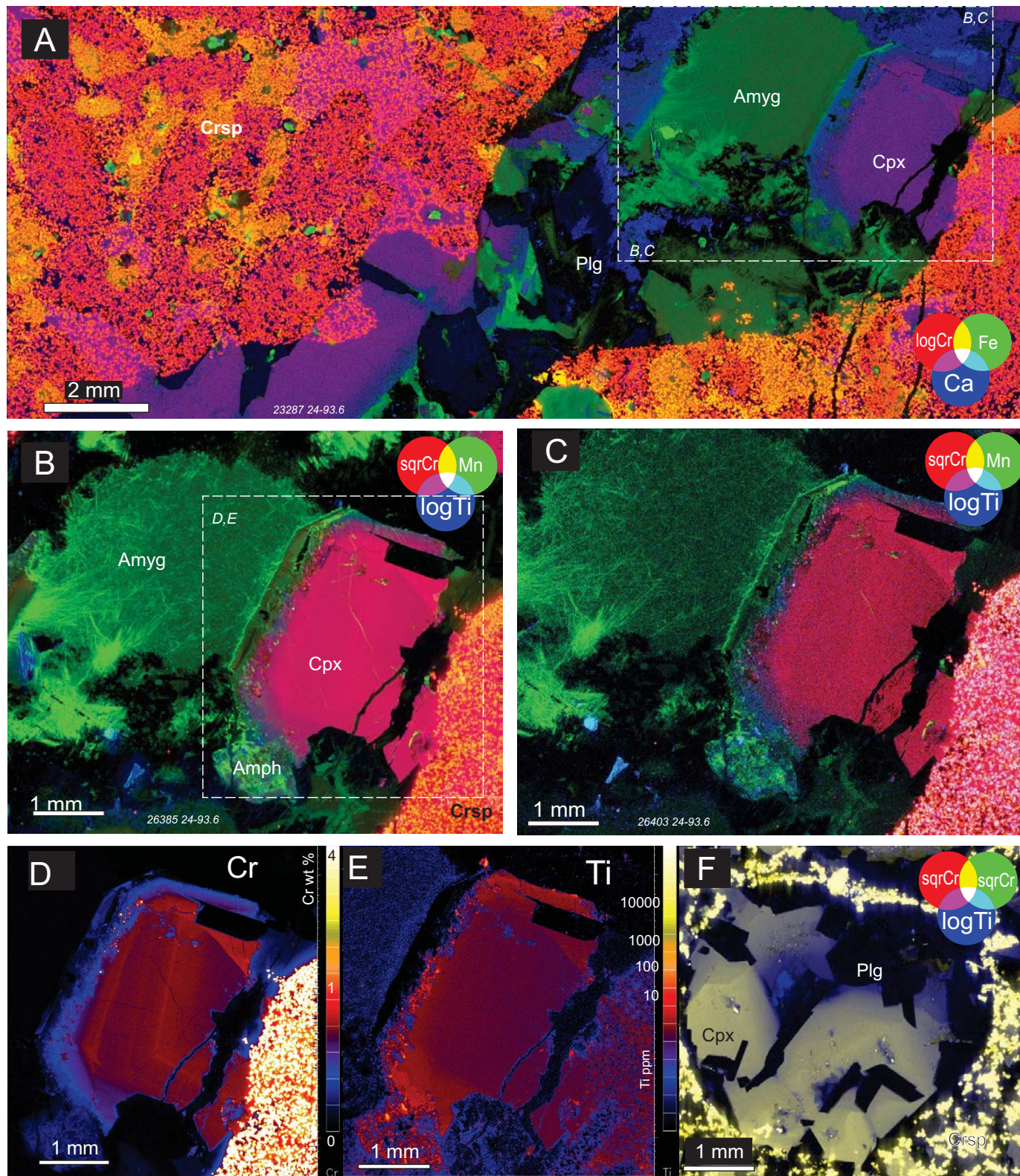


Figure 3

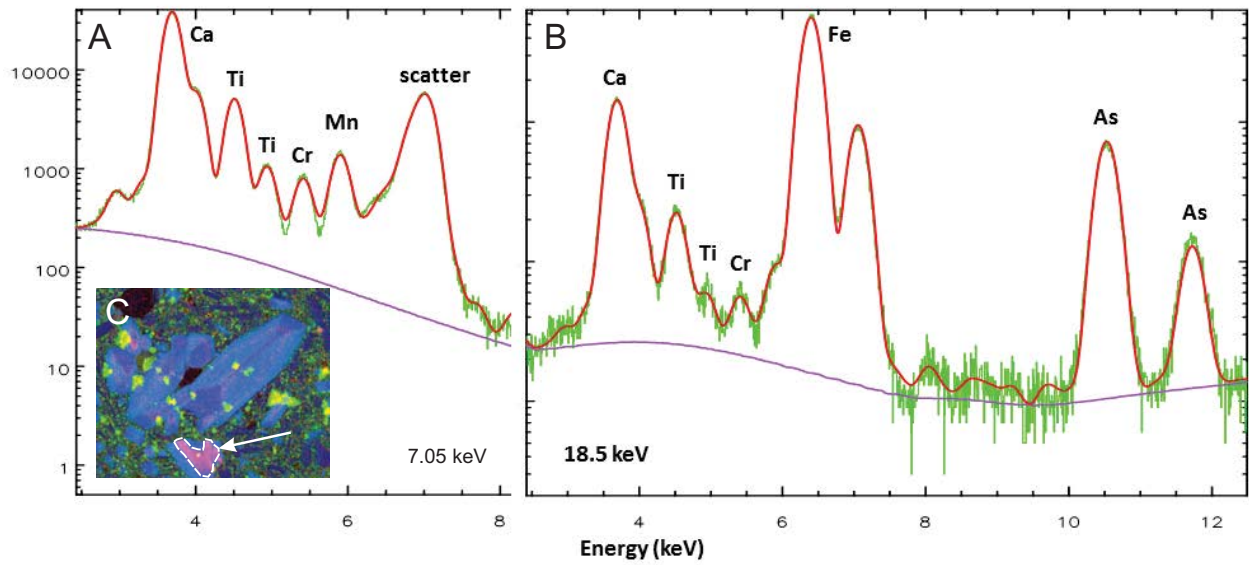


Figure 4

