

1 **Revision 3**

2 **New petrological, geochemical and geochronological perspectives**
3 **on andesite-dacite magma genesis at Ruapehu volcano, New**
4 **Zealand**

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ABSTRACT

22 Time-composition relationships in eruptive sequences at composite volcanoes can
23 show how the ongoing intrusion of magmas progressively affects the lithosphere at
24 continental convergent margins. Here, new whole-rock and microanalytical major and trace
25 element data from andesite-dacite lava flows are integrated with previous studies and existing
26 isotopic data, and placed within the framework of a high-resolution chronostratigraphy for
27 Ruapehu volcano (southern Taupo Volcanic Zone, New Zealand). The geochemical evolution
28 of lavas erupted over the ~200 kyr lifetime of the exposed edifice reflects variable degrees of
29 fractionation and systematic changes in the type of crustal assimilation in the Ruapehu
30 magma system. Lavas erupted from ~200–150 ka have previously been distinguished from
31 those erupted <150 ka based on Sr-Nd isotopic characteristics, which indicate that the oldest
32 lavas were sourced from magmas that assimilated oceanic crust. Such source rocks underlie
33 the regionally widespread Mesozoic meta-sedimentary greywacke-argillite basement, which
34 was conversely assimilated by <150 ka magmas. New results from this work reveal that since
35 150 ka, an upper limit of magma differentiation occurred from ~50–35 ka. High K₂O (~6 wt.
36 %) and Rb contents (~270 ppm) in melt inclusions, interstitial glass, and glass from *in situ*
37 quenched melts of partially fused crustal xenoliths are reported for andesite-dacite lavas
38 erupted during this period. In addition to crystal fractionation, selective partial melting and
39 assimilation of K- and Rb-rich mineral phases (e.g. biotite, K-feldspar) that are significant
40 components of the meta-sedimentary basement rocks is inferred to explain these geochemical
41 characteristics. These processes coincided also with the effusion of high-MgO andesite-dacite
42 lavas that display petrological evidence for mixing between andesite-dacite and more mafic
43 magmas. An influx of hotter mafic magma into the system explains why the extent of crustal
44 assimilation recorded by Ruapehu lavas peaked during the ~50–35 ka eruptive period. From
45 26 ka to the present, andesite lavas have reverted to more mafic compositions with less

46 potassic melt inclusion and whole-rock compositions when compared to the ~50–35 ka lavas.
47 We suggest that the younger lavas assimilated less-enriched melts because fertile phases had
48 been preferentially extracted from the crustal column during earlier magmatism. This
49 scenario of bottom-up heating of the lithosphere and exhaustion of fertile phases due to the
50 progressive intrusion of magma explains the geochemical evolution of Ruapehu lavas. This
51 model may be applicable to other long-lived composite volcanoes of the circum-Pacific
52 continental arcs.

53

54 **Keywords:** Ruapehu; andesite; dacite; petrogenesis; arc magma; crustal contamination; high-
55 Mg andesite

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INTRODUCTION

58 The compositional ranges of eruptive products generated at continental arc volcanoes
59 often display linear compositional arrays that extend from basalt to dacite and, occasionally,
60 rhyolite (e.g. Hildreth et al. 2003; Price et al. 2005; Hora et al. 2007; Singer et al. 2008;
61 Hildreth and Fierstein 2012). The time-sequenced geochemical variations of eruptive
62 products are typically non-systematic, however, and do not necessarily reflect the long-term
63 evolution of a common magma source by simple progressive fractionation and assimilation
64 (cf. Eichelberger et al. 2006). The timescales of compositional heterogeneity specified by the
65 products of short-lived eruptive episodes (<1–20 yr; e.g. Clynne 1999; Coombs et al. 2000,
66 2013) or preserved in lava flow sequences (1–10 kyr; Gamble et al. 1999, 2003; Dungan et al.
67 2001; Frey et al. 2004), indicate that magmas with diverse parentage are generated and
68 erupted relatively frequently. As such, compositional variations within lava flow sequences
69 are likely to reflect the eruption of discrete batches of magma that have followed unique

70 pathways of differentiation in the crust (e.g. Hobden et al. 1999; Gamble et al. 2003; Frey et
71 al. 2004; Eichelberger et al. 2006; Sisson et al. 2013).

72 Beneath arc volcanoes, the processes of crustal anatexis, magma mixing, and crystal
73 fractionation are the primary agents of magma differentiation (e.g. Price et al. 2012; Kent
74 2013; Lee and Bachmann 2014). Two commonly documented signatures of intermediate arc
75 magmas that arise from these processes are: (a) the generation and entrapment of melts that
76 are substantially more silicic than their host whole-rock compositions (see compilations by
77 Reubi and Blundy 2009; Kent 2013), and (b) disequilibrium petrographic textures that reflect
78 mixing between felsic and mafic components and their crystal cargoes, together with
79 evolving intensive parameters such as pressure, temperature and degassing (e.g. Clyne 1999;
80 Dungan and Davidson 2004; Kent et al. 2010; Koleszar et al. 2012). Because the felsic and
81 mafic end-members seldom erupt independently at composite volcanoes, their cryptic
82 existence within crustal magma systems is recorded within mineral-hosted melt inclusions
83 and interstitial glass (e.g. Reubi and Blundy 2008) and the crystal cargo of the derivative
84 intermediate composition magmas (e.g. Eichelberger 1975; Streck et al. 2007). Thus, the
85 nature and origin of felsic and mafic sources, and the processes by which they interact, may
86 be elucidated by microanalytical investigations (Davidson et al. 2007). Constraining these
87 magma sources and the subsequent mixing parameters and processes is critical to
88 understanding the assembly of arc magmas.

89 Compositions of eruptive products from arc volcanoes record not only snapshots of
90 crustally dominated magma processes, but also the cumulative effect of progressive heating
91 and “conditioning” of the lower, middle, and upper crust in response to the magmas that have
92 passed through these regions. How magmatic sources and processes vary throughout time and
93 what controls those variations represent fundamental questions for understanding
94 petrogenesis at and the eruption potential of arc volcanoes. Critical to addressing these

95 questions is the collection of high-resolution eruptive histories for arc volcanoes that are
96 constrained by field studies and radiometric age data so that eruptive products can be
97 accurately sequenced (e.g. Dungan et al. 2001; Frey et al. 2004). Here, we apply this
98 approach to Ruapehu volcano in the southern Taupo Volcanic Zone (TVZ; New Zealand).
99 We combine a revised chronostratigraphy of Ruapehu volcano (Conway et al. 2016) with
100 detailed geochemical sequencing of lava flow compositions in order to investigate the genesis
101 of andesite-dacite magmas at this volcano throughout the ~200 kyr lifetime of the exposed
102 edifice.

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104

GEOLOGICAL SETTING

105 The Taupo Volcanic Zone (TVZ; Fig. 1) is a zone of continental magmatism in the
106 North Island of New Zealand related to the subduction of the Pacific Plate beneath the
107 Australian Plate (Cole 1990). The basement geology of the TVZ comprises greywacke-
108 argillite meta-sedimentary rocks of the Torlesse Terrane, which are exposed to the east of the
109 volcanic area (Adams et al. 2009; Fig. 1). Waipapa Terrane meta-sedimentary rocks crop out
110 to the west of the TVZ (Fig. 1), but are not considered to play a significant role in TVZ
111 magmatism (e.g. Price et al. 2015). Caldera-forming rhyolitic eruptions have dominated the
112 style of volcanic activity within the TVZ for 2 Myr, however, the northern and southern
113 extents of the rifted arc are marked by the active andesite-dacite stratovolcanoes of White
114 Island and Ruapehu (Wilson et al. 1995; Fig. 1).

115 Ruapehu volcano is a ~150 km³ complex composite edifice primarily composed of
116 stacked sequences of lava flows and associated breccias, intercalated with till and subsidiary
117 volumes of proximal pyroclastic flow and fall deposits (Hackett and Houghton 1989). The
118 exposed edifice has a lifetime of ~200 kyr, although volcanism in the area may have started

119 as early as ~340 ka (Gamble et al. 2003; Tost and Cronin 2015). Ruapehu lavas were grouped
120 by Hackett (1985) into four formations that represent the main phases of edifice growth
121 (Table 1): Te Herenga (200–150 ka), Wahianoa (160–115 ka), Mangawhero (50–15 ka), and
122 Whakapapa (<15 ka). The absolute ages and durations of these formations were first
123 constrained by Gamble et al. (2003), who primarily concentrated on the ~300 m-thick stack
124 of Wahianoa Formation lavas exposed on the southeast flank of Ruapehu. Their data were
125 recently combined with new $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ ages by Conway et al. (2016) to provide a new
126 geological map (summarised in Fig. 2) and to outline the revised edifice construction history
127 summarised here. Sub-glacial to ice-marginal effusive eruption of medium-K basaltic-
128 andesites and andesites constructed the northern portion of the exposed edifice between ~200
129 and 150 ka (Te Herenga), and a wide southeast planèze as well as parts of the northern,
130 eastern and western flanks between ~160 and 80 ka (Wahianoa). No lava flows on the edifice
131 have ages in the range of 80–50 ka, however, $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ eruption ages measured for lava clasts
132 within debris flow deposits indicate that there were some effusive eruptions during this
133 period (Tost and Cronin 2015). The lack of dated lavas on the edifice for this period is likely
134 to be the result of erosion and burial of lavas and/or syn-eruptive glacial conveyance of lava
135 flows as debris to the ring-plain (Conway et al. 2016). In addition to bridging the apparent
136 hiatus and extending the maximum age for volcanism at Ruapehu, other $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ ages for
137 clasts within distal debris flow deposits generally overlap with the timing of effusive
138 volcanism recorded by in situ lavas of the Te Herenga and Wahianoa formations (Tost and
139 Cronin 2015). From ~50–15 ka edifice growth occurred via effusive eruptions onto the
140 glaciated flanks of the volcano, resulting in construction of ice-bounded planèzes and ridges
141 (Mangawhero). Large-scale retreat of flank glaciers since ~15 ka has resulted in intra-valley
142 lava flow emplacement at elevations below ~1500 m on the edifice. Conway et al. (2016)
143 reported the first $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ eruption ages for lava flows of the post-glacial Whakapapa

144 Formation in addition to 25 ages for lavas of the Mangawhero Formation, which together
145 provide a comprehensive volcanic sequence to investigate time-composition relationships.

146 The greatest volume of lava flows on Ruapehu are plagioclase and pyroxene phyric
147 andesites, however, basaltic-andesites and dacites have also been erupted at Ruapehu.
148 Complex crystal and lithic cargoes are found throughout the eruptive products, which have
149 been described in detail by Clark (1960), Cole (1978), Graham (1987), and Graham and
150 Hackett (1987). The last authors defined six petrographically and geochemically distinct lava
151 types with corresponding models of magma formation. These models accounted for the crust-
152 like geochemical and isotopic composition of Ruapehu lavas by invoking partial melting and
153 assimilation of mid-upper crustal greywacke-argillite basement during magma genesis (see
154 also Graham 1987).

155 The overall development of the magma system beneath Ruapehu was later explored
156 within stratigraphic contexts by Donoghue et al. (1995), Gamble et al. (1999, 2003), Waight
157 et al. (1999, 2017) and Price et al. (2005). A model for the polybaric generation of derivative
158 magmas by independent episodes of melting, mixing, assimilation and fractionation within an
159 open magmatic system was generated from these studies (Price et al. 2012 for summary).
160 This model allows for the non-systematic geochemical and isotopic variations observed over
161 timescales ranging from short-lived explosive episodes and cycles (1–50 yr; Gamble et al.
162 1999; Auer et al. 2013; Kilgour et al. 2013) to successive lava flow emplacement phases (1–
163 10 kyr; Waight et al. 1999; Gamble et al. 2003). Over the 200 kyr lifetime of the exposed
164 Ruapehu edifice, however, a general progression towards more evolved compositions with
165 time was proposed based on whole-rock geochemical variations using the available
166 stratigraphic constraints (Graham and Hackett 1987; Price et al. 2012). In addition, the oldest
167 exposed lavas (Te Herenga Formation) have distinct $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ – $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ characteristics that
168 set them apart from all subsequent lavas (Price et al. 2005). On this basis, Graham et al.

169 (1990) and Price et al. (2005, 2012) argued that Te Herenga Formation lavas were
170 contaminated by Mesozoic oceanic basaltic rocks of the lower crust, whereas post-Te
171 Herenga lavas assimilated partial melts of the basement greywacke-argillite sequence in the
172 mid-upper crust.

173 Within the context of prior studies there are three key topics that we address here:

174 1. *Time-composition relationships.* Incomplete sampling of the edifice and a lack of
175 chronological control hampered previous studies of the geochemical evolution of the
176 Ruapehu magma system. Complex stratigraphic relationships as a result of lava-ice
177 interaction (Conway et al. 2015) and sparse radiometric eruption age constraints previously
178 precluded accurate definition of the relative and absolute ages for lava flows of the
179 Mangawhero and Whakapapa formations that form much of the edifice. Combined with
180 previous dating constraints by Gamble et al. (2003), new $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ ages for Ruapehu lava
181 flows have provided a high-resolution framework with which to interrogate geochemical data
182 (Conway et al. 2016). By using geochemical data acquired for the same samples that have
183 been directly dated and collected within chronostratigraphic constraints, we are able to assess
184 the long-term evolution of magmatism at Ruapehu within closely defined spatial and
185 temporal contexts, as has been done at other arc stratovolcanoes globally (e.g. Dungan et al.
186 2001; Hora et al. 2007; Jicha et al. 2012). Data from lava clasts in distal deposits and tephra
187 in pyroclastic deposits have been integrated into this study where it is appropriate and
188 possible to do so.

189 2. *Nature and origin of silicic melts.* Melt inclusion and matrix glass data
190 compositions ranging from dacite to rhyolite have previously been described from Wahianoa
191 Formation lavas, and Whakapapa Formation and historical lavas and pyroclasts (Donoghue et
192 al. 1995; Gamble et al. 1999; Price et al. 2005; Kilgour et al. 2013; Pardo et al. 2014). In this

193 contribution we present the first glass geochemistry data for Te Herenga Formation eruptive
194 products and a number of spatially distinct packages identified within the Mangawhero
195 Formation. These new data contribute to models of magma genesis at Ruapehu.

196 3. *Felsic-mafic interactions*. In light of the abundance of rhyolitic melt compositions,
197 is there evidence for mafic recharge in the generation of intermediate (andesite) magmas, as
198 postulated from local (Donoghue et al. 1995; Nakagawa et al. 2002) and global (e.g. Kent et
199 al. 2010) studies? Is this a common process involved in the generation of magnesian
200 andesites and continental crust at volcanic arcs globally? Petrological and geochemical
201 characteristics of a suite of high-MgO lavas are presented here to explore these concepts.

202

203

SAMPLES AND METHODS

204 Samples used in this study were collected from lava flows on Ruapehu between 2012
205 and 2015. A full sample list is available in the Electronic Supplementary Material.

206 Petrographic descriptions for Ruapehu lava flows have been presented by Cole (1978),
207 Graham (1987), Graham and Hackett (1987), Graham et al. (1990), and Price et al. (2012).
208 Brief descriptions are provided for the sample suite used here for completeness and because
209 new portions of the edifice have been sampled. Ruapehu lava flows are in general moderately
210 to highly porphyritic, with only rare examples with <10 % phenocrysts (term used herein to
211 define macrocrystals with sizes >100 μm , but generally in the range of 0.3–1.0 mm).

212 Plagioclase phenocrysts occur in all samples examined and most commonly have sieved
213 cores with complexly zoned rims. Orthopyroxene, clinopyroxene and olivine phenocrysts are
214 present throughout Ruapehu lavas in varying proportions. For the basaltic-andesite lavas of
215 the Te Herenga and Whakapapa formations, clinopyroxene and orthopyroxene are equally
216 abundant. Orthopyroxene is the major ferromagnesian phase in lavas of the Mangawhero

217 Formation. Amphibole occurs within Mangawhero dacite lavas studied here only as rare
218 pseudomorphs that are replaced by symplectite assemblages of plagioclase, pyroxene, oxides
219 and glass. The groundmasses of Ruapehu lavas typically consist of felted aggregates of
220 microlites (i.e. <100 μm) of plagioclase and orthopyroxene with volumetrically minor but
221 ubiquitous oxide phases and small patches of glass. Magnetite is the dominant oxide phase
222 present throughout the groundmass of Ruapehu lavas, although rare ilmenite and spinel are
223 also present. Patches of glass in microlite-free areas $\sim 5\text{--}10\ \mu\text{m}$ -wide are present only in
224 samples acquired from the margins of rapidly chilled ice-bounded Mangawhero Formation
225 flows and some glassy Whakapapa Formation flows.

226 Meta-sedimentary and meta-igneous xenoliths are present in all collected samples and
227 are particularly common in lavas of the Mangawhero and Whakapapa formations. Meta-
228 sedimentary types are typically fine-grained assemblages of plagioclase, orthopyroxene and
229 magnetite, which are likely to be metamorphic equivalents (or refractory residua) of the
230 greywacke crust beneath Ruapehu (Price et al. 2005). Some meta-sedimentary fragments also
231 contain glass and biotite (e.g. Graham 1987). Meta-igneous granulite xenoliths are composed
232 of plagioclase, orthopyroxene and ilmenite with minor clinopyroxene and olivine and display
233 relict igneous or cumulate textures (Graham et al. 1990). A summary of the mineral
234 chemistry data acquired for this study is presented in Table 2. Typical zoning features of the
235 major mineral phases are displayed in Fig. 3. Further petrographic descriptions and full
236 mineral chemistry data are provided in the Electronic Supplementary Material.

237 Fresh interiors of samples were acquired by using a diamond saw to cut away any
238 remaining weathered surfaces. Samples were crushed and then milled using an agate or
239 tungsten-carbide ring mill. Major element compositions for 238 whole-rock powder samples
240 were determined using an ARL[®] 8420+ dual goniometer wavelength dispersive X-ray
241 fluorescence (XRF) spectrometer at the Open University, United Kingdom. These XRF data

242 have been presented by Conway et al. (2016) for the purposes of defining chronostratigraphic
243 eruptive packages, and are used here to investigate magmatic processes. A subset of 73
244 whole-rock powders used for major element analysis was selected for trace element analysis
245 and prepared at Victoria University of Wellington (VUW). Trace element analysis was
246 carried out by solution inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS), on a
247 Thermo-Fisher Element2 sector-field ICP-MS equipped with an ESCI auto sampler at VUW
248 using methods similar to those of Eggins et al. (1997). Major element compositions for
249 minerals and glass in 15 lava samples were analysed by electron probe microanalysis
250 (EPMA) using the JEOL JXA 8230 instrument at VUW. Thin sections were prepared from
251 lava samples and carbon coated before analysis. Analysis of crystal phases was performed
252 using a focussed electron beam (~1 µm-wide) at a current of 12 nA and accelerating voltage
253 of 15 kV. The beam was defocussed to a width of 5 µm during analysis of melt inclusion and
254 groundmass glasses. Due to the commonly small sizes of melt inclusions and interstitial glass
255 patches, a 5 µm spot was used (rather than 10 µm). Only melt inclusions in pyroxene hosts
256 were analysed; plagioclase-hosted inclusions were not well-enough preserved for viable
257 analysis. The current was reduced to 8 nA and counting times for Na were reduced to 15
258 seconds on the peak and 10 seconds for the background to minimise potential
259 devolatilisation. Laser ablation ICP-MS analyses of interstitial glass and xenolith-hosted
260 glass in dacite lava sample CC415 were carried out at VUW using a Resonetics
261 RESOLUTIONS155-SE laser ablation system equipped with an ATL ArF Excimer laser
262 (wavelength 193 µm), coupled to an Agilent 7500CS ICP-MS. Additional details of sample
263 preparation and analysis can be found in the Electronic Supplementary Material and in
264 Conway (2016).

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266

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

267 This section presents new geochemical data that are placed within the context of a
268 revised chronostratigraphy and existing data for Ruapehu, as well as regional and global
269 studies of arc volcanism. As such, the results are presented together with a discussion of their
270 relevance. New whole-rock major and trace element data are presented in Figs. 4–7, and
271 existing whole-rock isotopic data from Price et al. (2012) are displayed in Fig. 8. New glass
272 major element data are presented in Fig. 9 and compared to existing data from Ruapehu and
273 Taupo volcanoes. The extended sample coverage and improved chronological sequencing of
274 lava flows presented here makes it possible to advance more detailed models of the evolution
275 of the Ruapehu magmatic system, and bring to light several key questions for global studies
276 of arc volcanism, including:

- 277 • What are the scales of temporal and spatial variability in magma composition at
278 continental composite volcanoes?
- 279 • Do long-term time-composition trends recorded in arc lavas reflect density filtering of
280 magmas via edifice loading and sector collapse?
- 281 • What is the nature and origin of felsic (rhyolitic) melts that are captured in
282 intermediate arc lavas?
- 283 • What effect does the progressive throughput of magma have on the crustal
284 contamination of continental arc magmas?
- 285 • Are high-MgO andesites-dacites erupted at continental arc volcanoes the products of
286 mantle melting processes, or magma mixing during transit through the crust?

287

288 **Compositional diversity of lavas in time and space at Ruapehu**

289 Composite volcanoes are the surficial structures of polygenetic magmatism (Davidson
290 and de Silva 2000). Volcanic maps and stratigraphies that are coupled with geochemical data
291 can constrain the temporal and spatial scales of compositional heterogeneity within
292 polygenetic magma systems that feed composite volcanoes (e.g. Frey et al. 2004; Hora et al.
293 2007). A summary of whole-rock compositions for Ruapehu volcano lava flows was
294 presented by Price et al. (2012), however, the major and trace element variations between and
295 within formations are re-evaluated here in light of the extended sampling coverage and
296 improved geochronological control. Compositional heterogeneity within the Ruapehu magma
297 plumbing system is investigated in this section, with a particular focus on the time window
298 between 50 and 35 ka. Ruapehu lava whole-rock major and trace element bivariate diagrams
299 are shown in Fig. 4, and a representative suite of analyses is presented in Table 3. A complete
300 list of whole-rock major and trace element data is available in the Electronic Supplementary
301 Material.

302 Te Herenga lavas exhibit a relatively narrow compositional range for all major and
303 trace elements that is generally distinct from younger lavas, excepting some overlap with the
304 Wahianoa Formation (Fig. 4). The most mafic lava flow sampled on Ruapehu volcano
305 (CC348: 53.8 wt. % SiO₂, 6.75 wt. % MgO) was erupted at 186.2 ± 6.8 ka (2 s.d.: Conway et
306 al. 2016). A notable characteristic of Te Herenga lavas is their low K₂O contents (Fig. 4)
307 when compared to younger lavas, and incompatible trace element contents are essentially
308 constant over their ~3 wt. % SiO₂ range (Fig. 4). Wahianoa Formation lavas are basaltic-
309 andesites and andesites that exhibit slightly elevated SiO₂, and incompatible trace element
310 contents when compared with Te Herenga Formation lavas (Fig. 4). Previously un-sampled
311 lavas erupted from ~100–80 ka have major element compositions that generally match ~166–
312 100 ka lavas of the Wahianoa Formation. Within the Wahianoa Formation, a distinct group of
313 flows is identified by low-MgO and high-Al₂O₃ contents consistent with higher modal

314 abundances of plagioclase relative to pyroxene (Graham and Hackett 1987). Mangawhero
315 Formation lavas are separated on the basis of the age data into early (50–35 ka), middle (35–
316 26 ka) and late (26–15 ka) divisions in this contribution. Lavas of the ~50–35 ka suite are
317 compositionally diverse, covering an 8.2 wt. % range in SiO₂ from basaltic-andesite to dacite.
318 These flows show strong positive trends for incompatible trace element abundances and a
319 distinct trend toward higher K₂O and Rb contents when plotted against SiO₂ and compared to
320 older and younger lavas (Fig. 4).

321 Despite the broadly linear relationship between SiO₂ and incompatible trace elements,
322 lavas erupted between 50 and 35 ka can be further grouped into high- and low-MgO types.
323 Reasons for the high-MgO compositions are discussed in a later section of the discussion, but
324 their features are described here. The high-MgO trend is defined by lavas of the
325 Mangaehuehu and Te Kohatu eruptive packages, and low-MgO andesites and dacites are
326 grouped within the Ngahuinga and Mangaturuturu eruptive packages (Fig. 6). The Mananui
327 dacite package, which consists of a spatially isolated flow on the northern flank of Ruapehu,
328 has an intermediate MgO content. High-MgO andesites (Mg#_{60–69}, where Mg# = 100Mg/[Mg
329 + Fe]) and dacites (Mg#_{54–57}) also exhibit relatively high Ni and low Al₂O₃ contents at
330 equivalent SiO₂ values when compared to all other eruptive products from Ruapehu volcano
331 (Figs. 4, 5). The timing of eruption for these high-MgO andesites, which span a 5.2 wt. %
332 range in SiO₂ contents, is constrained by maximum and minimum ages of 45.4 ± 2.0 ka and
333 41.8 ± 1.8 ka (Conway et al. 2016). This is a noteworthy feature when considering that a
334 comparable range of ~4.8 wt. % SiO₂ is defined by the ~300 m-thick sequence of Wahianoa
335 Formation lavas exposed on southeast Ruapehu, which reflects a much longer period of
336 volcanism from ~160–115 ka (Gamble et al. 2003). The trends defined by our new data imply
337 that at least four geochemically distinctive magma types (high-MgO andesite; high-MgO
338 dacite; mid-MgO dacite; low-MgO andesite and/or low-MgO dacite) were feeding spatially

339 dispersed lava flow packages with volumes of several km³ to the south, west and north flanks
340 of Ruapehu during the period from ~50–35 ka (Conway et al. 2016). This implies that magma
341 batches with volumes substantially greater than those tapped by historical pyroclastic
342 eruptions were able to remain compositionally isolated in the crust beneath Ruapehu (Gamble
343 et al. 1999; Kilgour et al. 2013).

344 Lava flows emplaced on the western flank of Ruapehu volcano from ~35 to 26 ka
345 exhibit SiO₂, K₂O and trace element contents that are intermediate between the low-MgO
346 andesites and dacites erupted at 50–35 ka. Late Mangawhero Formation lava flows erupted at
347 ~26–15 ka are andesites and rare dacites. These flows define a less steep trend for K₂O and
348 incompatible trace elements (e.g. Rb, Zr) plotted against SiO₂ when compared to middle
349 (~35–26 ka) and early (~50–35 ka) Mangawhero Formation lavas (Fig. 4). The major and
350 trace element compositions of ~26–15 ka andesites generally overlap with younger flows of
351 the Whakapapa Formation (Fig. 4), which are andesites and basaltic-andesites. Numerous
352 eruptive packages within the Whakapapa Formation that were sourced from discrete vents
353 and summit cones have been defined (Price et al. 2012; Conway et al. 2016). Taken together,
354 Whakapapa Formation lavas define a SiO₂–K₂O trend contiguous with ~26–15 ka
355 Mangawhero Formation lavas (Fig. 4) and broadly overlap with post-glacial Plinian eruptive
356 deposits (see Pardo et al. 2014; Conway et al. 2016).

357 Previously published bivariate major element plots showed a scatter of overlapping
358 data for lavas of variable age (e.g. Fig. 10 in Price et al. 2012), however, the data presented
359 here allows some key discriminations to be made between lavas of different ages. Pre-80 ka
360 lavas do not show strong linear trends towards a unique end-member, but are tightly clustered
361 around relatively low SiO₂ and K₂O values (Fig. 4). Lavas that were erupted between ~50
362 and 26 ka and <26 ka define distinct SiO₂-K₂O compositional trends: Te Kohatu package
363 dacite (sample CC508; 37.6 ± 1.4 ka) forms a silicic end-member for 50–26 ka lava flows,

364 whereas Whakapapaiti package member dacite (sample CC513; 25.7 ± 3.8 ka) forms a silicic
365 end-member for <26 ka lavas (Fig. 4). Although the preserved portion of the Whakapapaiti
366 package dacite flows is volumetrically minor (see Fig. 10 in Conway et al. 2016), their
367 eruptions delineate a change in the nature of magma differentiation after ~26 ka, which is
368 addressed in the following sections.

369

370 **Potential role of density filtering of magma compositions**

371 The eruptive products of composite volcanoes can cover the compositional spectrum
372 from basalt to rhyolite. Although time-sequenced trends generally do not follow unique
373 pathways of progressive evolution toward the silicic end of the spectrum (cf. Eichelberger et
374 al. 2006), a common concept is that magma systems evolve toward producing more silicic
375 eruptive products over long time periods (>100 kyr). This idea is founded on the association
376 of non-evolved (mafic) eruptive products with stratigraphically old portions of volcanic
377 edifices, and the eruption of more evolved lavas and, in some cases, the incidence of
378 climactic explosive eruptions of silicic magma later in the history of composite volcanoes
379 (e.g. Bacon and Lanphere 2006; Hora et al. 2007; Singer et al. 2008; Escobar-Wolf et al.
380 2010). Throughout the cycle of volcanism represented by the eruptive products, the
381 corresponding development of evolved, relatively low-density intrusive complexes in the
382 crust will impede higher-density, more mafic magmas from reaching the surface. This
383 provides a feedback loop that may explain general trends toward more evolved magma
384 compositions over time at some volcanoes (e.g. Bacon and Lanphere 2006). An alternative
385 consideration is that the load imparted on a magma source region during the construction of a
386 surficial volcanic edifice allows only the eruption of progressively more buoyant magmas as
387 the load increases with cumulative growth of the volcano (Pinel and Jaupart 2000; Hora et al.
388 2007). With time the density of magmas will be lowered via crystal fractionation, enabling

389 them to overcome the critical density threshold imposed by loading of the edifice in order to
390 ascend and ultimately erupt (Pinel and Jaupart 2000). Conversely, unloading of an edifice via
391 deglaciation, erosion or sector collapse will reduce the confining pressure on magma
392 reservoirs and enable relatively dense magmas to ascend to the surface (Pinel and Jaupart
393 2005; Rawson et al. 2016). In this way, a composite volcano acts as a density filter for
394 eruptible magma compositions.

395 The time-sequenced variation of Ruapehu lava compositions provides a type study for
396 assessing whether density filtering affected erupted magma compositions, by using time-
397 composition plots (Fig. 6) and multi-element diagrams (Fig. 7) for illustration. For the latter,
398 whole-rock trace element contents have been normalised to values for average continental
399 crust (Rudnick and Gao 2003) in order to reflect the extent of crustal contamination. Existing
400 isotope data for Ruapehu lavas from Price et al. (2012) are also reviewed in this section (Fig.
401 8). Ruapehu lavas display a general increase in SiO₂, K₂O, and the incompatible trace
402 element ratio Rb/Zr from ~200 to 50 ka (i.e. lavas of the Te Herenga and Wahianoa
403 formations; Figs. 6, 7). A key difference between lavas of the Te Herenga and Wahianoa
404 formations is their Sr-Nd isotopic characteristics (Price et al. 2005, 2012). ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr isotopic
405 compositions of Wahianoa Formation lavas overlap with the most radiogenic Te Herenga
406 Formation samples (~0.7050), however they have distinctly lower ¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd ratios (Fig. 8).
407 Eruptive compositions show extreme diversity between ~50 and 35 ka (Fig. 6). Lava
408 compositions range from basaltic-andesite to dacite during this period, and display a wide
409 range in incompatible trace element contents, which extend to the most continental crust-like
410 values for Ruapehu samples (Figs. 6, 7). Similarly, ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr values are highest in dacites of
411 this period (Fig. 8). High Rb/Zr values for these dacites likely indicate addition to derivative
412 magmas of Rb from a potassic phase because Zr is unlikely to be fractionated by the mineral
413 assemblage. Lavas that have erupted since ~35 ka, however, define a trend opposite to that of

414 the earlier volcanic history: ~35–26 ka lava flows have a relatively narrow range of
415 compositions intermediate within the range defined by ~50–35 ka lavas, and younger flows
416 (<26 ka) exhibit progressively less silicic compositions with time (Fig. 6). Trends for K₂O
417 contents and Rb/Zr values display the same decreasing pattern as SiO₂ for post-26 ka lavas,
418 which also generally have lower ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr values than 50–35 ka lavas (Fig. 6, 8).

419 In light of the hypothesised consequences of density filtering of magmas at growing
420 volcanic edifices, three observations within the geochemical evolution of Ruapehu lavas are
421 significant. First, the effusion of dacite following >150 kyr of edifice construction by
422 eruption of basaltic-andesites and andesites of the Te Herenga and Wahianoa formations.
423 Second, the reversion after ~18 kyr to more mafic lava compositions, which broadly overlaps
424 with the timing of deglaciation of the edifice, as well as Holocene sector collapse events
425 (Eaves et al. 2015; Conway et al. 2016). Third, more evolved samples generally have more
426 crust-like ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr values.

427 With respect to the first observation, the 50–35 ka effusive episode occurred after the
428 construction of a composite edifice comprising the Te Herenga and Wahianoa formations that
429 contributed ≥110 km³ of total eruptive products to the surface above the Ruapehu magmatic
430 system, during which time lava compositions generally became gradually more evolved (Fig.
431 6; Conway et al. 2016). Mangawhero Formation dacite lavas were erupted at ~40 ka, possibly
432 indicating that lower density magmas were able to overcome the critical density threshold
433 imposed by loading of the edifice in order to ascend and ultimately erupt. However, basaltic-
434 andesites were also erupted at the beginning of the 50–35 ka eruptive period with SiO₂
435 contents comparable to pre-80 ka lavas. The eruption of basaltic-andesite thus contradicts the
436 premise that a density filter biased the eruptible magma compositions at this time.

437 With respect to the second observation, there is a clear trend toward more mafic lavas
438 erupted since ~26 ka, and Holocene lava flows are andesites to basaltic-andesites with SiO₂
439 contents ≤59 wt. % (excepting one late Holocene flow with 61.5 wt. % SiO₂). Although not
440 exactly coincident with the onset of this compositional change, wholesale glacial retreat on
441 Ruapehu from ~18 ka is inferred from regional paleoclimate records (Newnham et al. 2003),
442 and corroborated by local moraine geochronology (Eaves 2015) and lava-ice interaction
443 features (Conway et al. 2015). Furthermore, sector collapse of the northwest summit and
444 upper flank at ~10.5 ka (Palmer and Neall 1989; Eaves et al. 2015) and the southeast summit
445 at ~4.6 ka (Donoghue and Neall 2001) would have also contributed to a reduction of the
446 vertical stress on the sub-volcanic system. The models of Pinel and Jaupart (2000, 2005)
447 suggest that the reduction of the confining pressure on the magma reservoirs would have
448 enabled relatively dense magmas to be erupted at Ruapehu since 18 ka. However, the loss of
449 ice cover and the volume of material removed from the edifice during the sector collapse
450 events (~1 km³) is minor when compared to the total edifice volume (~150 km³).

451 With respect to the third observation, the matching trends for the different elements
452 suggest that some common process, or combination of processes, have controlled the
453 compositional variation through time (Fig. 6). The general trend of more evolved lavas
454 tending to have higher ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr values (Fig. 8) indicates that assimilation of basement meta-
455 sedimentary crust had a primary role, along with crystal fractionation, in the compositional
456 development of post-Te Herenga Formation magmas (Graham and Hackett 1987; Price et al.
457 2012). Crust-normalised multielement diagrams also reflect this trend (Fig. 7). These
458 relationships do not preclude the influence of a density filter, but are interpreted here to
459 reflect a coupling between magma diversity and crustal assimilation, which relates more to
460 the thermal condition of the lithosphere than the load imposed by construction (or
461 destruction) of the volcanic edifice. Flux of melt from the mantle and tectonic activity are

462 also key controls of the timescales of magma generation, residence and eruption (e.g.
463 Schmidt and Grunder 2009). Data are not available to quantify the effect of these factors for
464 this study, however, because (1) past mantle-derived melt flux rates cannot be constrained by
465 surficial volcanic records, and (2) fault slip rate data are unable to resolve volcano-tectonic
466 processes on timescales of ~5–10 kyr in the Ruapehu Graben (Rowland et al. 2010; Gómez-
467 Vasconcelos et al. 2017).

468 In summary, it is considered unlikely that systematic trends within geochemical
469 evolution of Ruapehu lavas studied here were influenced primarily by near-surface processes.
470 Eruptions tapped magmas that had experienced variable degrees of differentiation in the crust
471 via crystal fractionation and crustal assimilation (Price et al. 2012). Thus, despite evidence
472 for compositional heterogeneity within eruptive sequences on annual to 10 kyr timescales
473 (e.g. Gamble et al. 1999, 2003), this study has defined a broadly coherent geochemical trend
474 for Ruapehu eruptive products over the ~200 kyr lifetime of the exposed edifice (Fig. 6). The
475 mechanisms of magma differentiation and the reasons for their varied influence through time
476 are now considered.

477

478 **Nature and origin of silicic melts in Ruapehu lavas**

479 Silicic glass compositions (often rhyolitic) for groundmass and melt inclusions in
480 phenocrysts of arc andesite-dacite volcanic rocks have been widely reported (e.g. Reubi and
481 Blundy 2009; Kent 2013; Lee and Bachmann 2014). Silicic melts can originate via one or
482 more of: assimilation of plutonic crystal cumulate roots (e.g. Reubi and Blundy 2008); partial
483 melting of subducted oceanic lithosphere and sediment (e.g. Tatsumi 2001); partial melting of
484 crustal rocks (e.g. Jackson et al. 2003); or fractionation of mantle-derived primary basaltic
485 magmas (e.g. Sisson et al. 2005). We focus on the latter two processes through the

486 compositions of glasses that represent trapped portions of melt from the Ruapehu magma
487 system. Dacite to rhyolite compositions (~67–78 wt. % SiO₂) were measured for Ruapehu
488 lava groundmass glass and pyroxene-hosted melt inclusions in this study (Fig. 9) and are
489 compared to data from Ruapehu pyroclasts (Pardo et al. 2014) and Taupo volcano (Barker et
490 al. 2015). Representative major element (Table 4) and trace element data (Table 5) are
491 provided here, and full data are available in the Electronic Supplementary Material.

492 The silicic composition of Te Herenga Formation melt inclusions may not be a
493 surprising result considering the ubiquity of such inclusion compositions in younger Ruapehu
494 lavas (Price et al. 2005) and arc volcanic rocks globally (Reubi and Blundy, 2009). However,
495 the low-K₂O contents are notable, given that Te Herenga Formation lavas also have low-K₂O
496 whole-rock compositions (Figs. 4, 9). Melt inclusion and groundmass glasses within the high-
497 MgO andesites and dacites of the early Mangawhero Formation have significantly higher
498 K₂O contents in comparison to Te Herenga samples (Fig. 9). Discordance between melt
499 inclusion and groundmass glass compositions in the high-MgO andesite lavas may reflect
500 late-stage magma mixing processes (see next section). K₂O contents of up to 5–6 wt. % were
501 measured for groundmass glasses, melt inclusions and xenolith-hosted glasses within dacite
502 lavas. The pattern of the quenched melt network in the xenolith fragment within dacite
503 sample CC415 that was analysed indicates that the melt was derived from partial melting of
504 the xenolith (Fig. 3). This glass is also characterized by Rb contents of up to 270 ppm (Table
505 5). Melt inclusions in Whakapapa Formation lava flows exhibit a range of compositions that
506 return to lower K₂O contents (Fig. 9). The compositions presented here are broadly consistent
507 with groundmass glass and melt inclusion data for historically erupted samples (Gamble et al.
508 1999; Kilgour et al. 2013) and previous analyses from Whakapapa Formation lavas (Price et
509 al. 2012) and pyroclastic deposits (Pardo et al. 2014). Furthermore, the glass data are

510 intersected by the lower SiO₂–K₂O trends defined by <26 ka lava whole-rock compositions
511 when compared to earlier Mangawhero Formation lavas (Fig. 9).

512 Glass data for the different formations broadly align with their respective whole-rock
513 trends that are age-constrained (Fig. 9), and therefore represent the products of different
514 patterns of assimilation and fractional crystallization (AFC: DePaolo, 1981). The distinctive
515 whole-rock ¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd isotopic compositions of Te Herenga lavas (Fig. 8; Price et al. 2005,
516 2012) have been inferred to reflect an early stage of the thermal evolution of the magma
517 conduit system beneath Ruapehu attended by assimilation of mafic oceanic crust, which is
518 considered to form the lower crust underlying the meta-sedimentary greywacke-argillite
519 Torlesse Terrane sequence of middle to upper crustal rocks (Graham 1987; Price et al. 2012;
520 Waight et al. 2017). Despite the limited amount of data, the distinct compositions of Te
521 Herenga glasses support the idea that melts and magmas were generated by distinct
522 petrogenetic processes during the ~200–150 ka time period when compared to subsequent
523 magmatism. The role of assimilation of continental crust in the genesis of younger magmas
524 has been previously documented, and high ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr values for Mangawhero Formation
525 dacites indicate that evolved magmas at Ruapehu experienced more mid-upper crustal
526 contamination (Graham and Hackett 1987; Price et al. 2005, 2012; Fig. 8).

527 When compared to younger lavas, the high-K₂O nature of glasses within the high-
528 MgO lavas of the Mangawhero Formation is also considered here to represent AFC
529 processing that involved relatively greater assimilation of mid-upper crust. This inference is
530 supported by the observed Rb/Zr trends (Fig. 6): elevated values for evolved lavas would
531 require addition of Rb from a crustal source given that Zr is unlikely to be fractionated by the
532 phases observed in these samples. Metasedimentary crust assimilation is corroborated by
533 radiogenic isotope data (Price et al. 2012; Waight et al. 2017), and evidence of this process
534 was fortuitously captured by the analysis of a partially fused xenolith in sample CC415 (Fig.

535 3). We interpret that the entrained glass represents an *in situ* partial melt of a meta-
536 sedimentary crustal rock with a significant contribution from melting of K-bearing minerals
537 (such as biotite and K-feldspar) that are known to occur within the Torlesse Terrane basement
538 rocks (Graham and Hackett 1987; Graham et al. 1990; Adams et al. 2009; Price et al. 2012).
539 Published whole-rock $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ - $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ systematics (Price et al. 2012; Waight et al.
540 2017) and trace element data indicate that Whakapapa Formation lavas were derived from
541 magmas that were contaminated by continental crust, although to a lesser degree than the 50–
542 35 ka Mangawhero Formation lavas (Figs. 7, 8).

543 Modelled chemical evolution pathways are presented in Fig. 10 in order to replicate
544 these distinct conditions of magma differentiation. The La/Sm ratio is used to indicate the
545 degree of evolution, and should be insensitive to compositional changes caused by crystal
546 fractionation. Plotted against this ratio, Rb/Zr values should generally increase due to crystal
547 fractionation because Rb is more incompatible than Zr. Significant differences in Rb/Zr
548 versus La/Sm trends between lavas of different ages, however, will reflect variable addition
549 of Rb from potassic phases in crustal rocks during assimilation. In general, post-26 ka lavas
550 lie along a flatter trend than 50–35 ka lavas, which extend to higher Rb/Zr values at higher
551 La/Sm values (Fig. 10). These broadly high and low trends for whole-rock Rb/Zr versus
552 La/Sm variations are seen in lavas erupted from (1) 50–35 ka and (2) <26 ka, respectively.
553 These trends can then be compared against modelled compositions for AFC evolution that
554 involve: (1) a relatively high Rb/Zr contribution from a high-K crustal assimilant; and (2) a
555 relatively low Rb/Zr contribution from a low-K crustal assimilant (Fig. 10). The compositions
556 of the assimilants are constrained by *in situ* analyses of glass within meta-sedimentary
557 xenoliths in lavas of the Mangawhero Formation (this study) and Whakapapa Formation
558 (Price et al. 2005). Thus, assimilants were chosen because they have been observed and
559 analysed within glasses in the host lavas of interest.

560 While there is overlap between lavas of the different periods, the modelled pathways
561 aid the interpretation of two key features of the dataset. Firstly, the highest Rb/Zr values,
562 which are observed for dacite lavas erupted from 50–35 ka, cannot be produced by AFC
563 involving a low-K assimilant. Secondly, the low Rb/Zr values for post-26 ka lavas over a
564 range of La/Sm values are best-approximated by magma differentiation via AFC involving a
565 low-K assimilant. Post-26 ka magmas were likely generated during differentiation in a crustal
566 melting scenario that was more advanced than at ~40 ka beneath Ruapehu due to the
567 continued flux of magma through the lithosphere. In this regard, our modelling suggests that
568 post-26 ka magmas interacted with crust that was relatively depleted in elements such as K
569 and Rb when compared with those that fed the ~50–35 ka lavas. The difference is inferred to
570 have been due to the progressive heating and partial melting of the crustal column, which is
571 interpreted to have led to either or both of: (1) the exhaustion of fertile, K- and Rb-rich
572 mineral phases that were consumed during earlier (50–35 ka) stages of upper crust
573 assimilation; and (2) dilution effects reflecting the higher degrees of partial melting as
574 magma flux continued through the crust beneath Ruapehu.

575

576 **A case for mafic recharge recorded in high-Mg andesite-dacites at Ruapehu**

577 High-magnesian andesites (HMAs) are intermediate arc volcanic rocks (54–65 wt. %
578 SiO₂) with high Mg# (≥ 50) and Cr and Ni concentrations (Kelemen et al. 2003a). At an
579 extreme, the eruption of primitive HMAs with Mg# ~70, although rare, is of particular
580 importance because such magmas may be produced by partial melting of hydrous mantle
581 peridotite (e.g. Grove et al. 2002, 2005; Wood and Turner 2009) and therefore play a
582 fundamental role in the genesis of arc magmas and continental crust (Kelemen et al. 2003b).
583 Other models for the petrogenesis of HMAs invoke equilibration of slab-derived melts with

584 ultramafic mantle wedge material (e.g. Kay 1978; Shimoda et al. 1998; Tatsumi 2001;
585 Yogodzinski et al. 2001) and felsic- mafic magma mixing combined with entrainment of
586 ultramafic crystal material within arc lithosphere (e.g. Kawabata and Shuto 2005; Streck et al.
587 2007). HMAs have been studied at Mt Shasta in the Cascade arc (Anderson 1973; Grove et
588 al. 2002; Streck et al. 2007) and the Setouchi volcanic belt in southwest Japan (Shimoda et al.
589 1998; Kawabata and Shuto 2005). New Zealand examples have erupted at White Island
590 (Mg#₇₀: Heyworth et al. 2007), Pukeonake (Mg#₅₀: Graham and Hackett 1987; Beier et al.
591 2017) and Hauhungatahi (Mg#₇₀: Cameron et al. 2010). Ruapehu high-MgO lavas were
592 described by Graham and Hackett (1987), but corresponding models of their generation
593 lacked the chronostratigraphic context (Conway et al. 2016) and microanalytical data
594 discussed here.

595 Andesite and dacite lavas of the Mangaehuehu and Te Kohatu eruptive packages,
596 respectively, are HMAs with whole-rock Mg# for the lavas ranging from 60–69 (andesites)
597 and 54–57 (dacites). Mangaehuehu package andesites exhibit high MgO contents over a ~5
598 wt. % SiO₂ range, and Te Kohatu package dacites (~65 wt. % SiO₂) have MgO contents that
599 are notably higher than other Ruapehu dacite lavas (Fig. 4). The Ruapehu HMAs also show
600 high Ni contents (up to 148 ppm) compared to other Ruapehu lavas at equivalent SiO₂
601 contents (Fig. 4). A petrographic feature that distinguishes these HMA lavas from lower-
602 MgO flows at Ruapehu is their high proportions of resorbed orthopyroxene that are mantled
603 by euhedral rims with high Mg# values (~85–90: Fig. 3). The HMAs also contain
604 metasedimentary xenoliths, indicating that their source magmas interacted with and
605 assimilated crustal rocks. The petrographic and geochemical characteristics indicate that
606 derivative magmas underwent substantial fractionation and assimilation processes in the
607 lithosphere and do not represent near-primary melting products of the mantle wedge.

608 Comparisons are made in Fig. 5 between the composition of Ruapehu lavas and the
609 relatively primitive Waimarino and Kakuki basalts from the central Taupo Volcanic Zone to
610 the north (Gamble et al. 1993), as well as the Pukeonake and Ohakune andesites, which were
611 erupted from peripheral vents located ~20 km from the summit of Ruapehu (Figs. 1, 2, 5).
612 Eruptive activity at the Ruapehu peripheral vents pre-dates the Oruanui tephra (25.4 ka;
613 Vandergoes et al. 2013) as indicated by stratigraphic relations (Hackett, 1985; Froggatt and
614 Lowe, 1990), and is likely to have occurred within the period ~40–30 ka,
615 penecontemporaneous with the high-Mg lavas from Ruapehu (50–35 ka). The high-MgO
616 suite of Ruapehu lavas trends toward the composition of Waimarino basalt, and is
617 approximately intercepted by the composition of Pukeonake and Ohakune andesites (Fig. 6).
618 Low-MgO lavas erupted from 50–35 ka define a trajectory from Mangaturuturu package
619 dacite toward Kakuki basalt, which is broadly intercepted by all post-35 ka and pre-80 ka
620 lavas from the Ruapehu edifice.

621 Pukeonake lavas have been described as hybrid andesites and their compositions can
622 be modelled by mixing between dacite and Waimarino basalt (Graham and Hackett 1987;
623 Beier et al. 2017). Ruapehu HMAs are similarly interpreted here to have been produced via
624 mixing between a deeper-sourced mafic magma and a mid- to upper crustal-level felsic
625 magma. Clusters of orthopyroxene preserved in the HMAs display high-MgO rims only on
626 the outermost exposed margins of the crystal clots (Fig. 3), indicating that the mafic magma
627 encountered a crystal-rich magma and interacted with crystal margins that were in contact
628 with the mafic magma during disaggregation of the crystal assemblage (cf. Nakagawa et al.
629 2002; Fig. 3). Subsequent crystal growth occurred within the hotter magma and accounts for
630 the higher MgO rims around the resorbed cores. Evidence for interaction between recharging
631 higher temperature magmas and stagnant, more felsic magmas has also been reported in the
632 ~11 ka Pourahu (Donoghue et al. 1995) and 1995-1996 Ruapehu eruptives (Nakagawa et al.

633 2002). Whole-rock Mg# values of ~60 for such samples are not as high as for Ruapehu
634 HMAs with equivalent SiO₂ contents reported in this study, which may reflect a greater
635 contribution from the mafic end-member within the Mangawhero Formation HMAs. The
636 comparable crystal zonation features are interpreted to reflect a similar process for older lavas
637 and younger examples, however, and has been documented elsewhere. In particular, similar
638 pyroxene zoning features and magma mixing processes have been described for HMAs from
639 Mt Shasta (Streck et al. 2007, figure 2) and the Setouchi volcanic belt (Kawabata and Shuto
640 2005, figure 7).

641 Constraining the nature of primitive magmas in the southern end of the Taupo
642 Volcanic Zone is difficult because even relatively primitive basaltic-andesites have generally
643 undergone textural and chemical modification in the crust (Waight et al. 2017). The reverse-
644 zoned crystal cargo of HMAs provides only a cryptic record of mafic magma intrusion into
645 the crust beneath Ruapehu. Comparison to regional primitive lavas, however, yields insight
646 into the spatial distribution of such an end-member with respect to regional volcanism. The
647 shared petrogenetic origin of hybrid andesites at Ruapehu and within its periphery
648 (Pukeonake and Ohakune) may indicate the presence of a common mafic end-member within
649 the Tongariro Volcanic Centre as well as the broader Taupo Volcanic Zone.

650

651 **IMPLICATIONS**

652 We have presented new whole-rock, mineral and glass compositions for edifice-
653 forming lavas within a high-resolution eruption chronology for Ruapehu volcano. Together
654 with existing isotopic data and petrogenetic models, these data further clarify the evolution of
655 the Ruapehu magma system and provide a case study for continental arc volcanism. The
656 long-term compositional variability of lava flows during the ~200 kyr lifetime of the exposed

657 Ruapehu edifice offers snapshots into the crustal dynamics of an evolving arc magmatic
658 system. Major implications are as follows.

- 659 • The broadly coincident effusion of at least 4 compositionally distinct lava flow
660 packages during the ~50–35 ka time window at Ruapehu indicates the existence of a
661 compositionally heterogeneous central magma system. Reconstructed vent locations
662 for each lava package indicates that discrete magma batches were spatially and
663 compositionally distinctive despite (in some cases) being vented within 2 km of each
664 other. These results indicate that relatively large-scale heterogeneities can exist within
665 the magma systems feeding composite volcanoes, as well as the more commonly cited
666 small-scale heterogeneities that are tapped by explosive eruptions of relatively low-
667 volume and ephemeral magma batches at Ruapehu (e.g. Gamble et al. 1999; Auer et
668 al. 2013; Kilgour et al. 2013).
- 669 • The systematic geochemical evolution of Ruapehu lavas is unlikely to have been
670 influenced primarily by density filtering of eruptible magma compositions due to
671 loading and unloading of the edifice. Instead, eruptions tapped magmas that had
672 undergone variable degrees of differentiation in the crust via crystal fractionation and
673 crustal assimilation. The effect of crustal assimilation on magma compositions was
674 greatest for the period from ~50–35 ka, due to the progressive advection of heat
675 through the lithosphere leading to partial melting and assimilation of mid- to upper
676 crustal meta-sedimentary country rocks. Post-26 ka magmas are interpreted to have
677 assimilated less enriched melts due to the prior consumption of fertile phases in the
678 crustal column and/or higher degrees of partial melting of continental crust associated
679 with ongoing magma and heat flux through the magma system. A similar ~200 kyr
680 time-composition trend has been shown for Volcán Paríacota (Hora et al. 2007).

- 681 • The compositional similarity between the groundmass glass of a dacite lava and a
682 xenolith-hosted partial melt within that lava (sample CC415) confirms the importance
683 of crustal assimilation in the geochemical characteristics of eruptive products at
684 continental arc volcanoes. However, to better constrain the processes involved, further
685 work is required to characterise the mineralogy and isotopic composition of the
686 crustal lithologies beneath Ruapehu volcano, as well as the composition of the
687 primary magmas.
- 688 • High-MgO andesites and dacites that were erupted between ~50 and 35 ka at Ruapehu
689 were produced via interaction between felsic and mafic magmas. Clusters of pyroxene
690 were entrained from the more felsic magma reservoirs by the influx of hotter, more
691 mafic magma, and were then resorbed and overgrown by Mg-rich rims. Ruapehu
692 high-Mg andesites and dacites represent magmas resulting from middle to upper
693 crustal-level assimilation and mixing processes rather than being primary magmas
694 derived directly by mantle melting.

695

696

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706

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989 Table 1. Summary of chronostratigraphic formations and eruptive packages for edifice-
 990 forming lava flows at Ruapehu volcano (modified from Conway et al. 2016).

Formation	Eruptive Package
Whakapapa (<15 ka)	Crater Lake Iwikau Saddle Cone Tureiti Paretetaitonga Rangataua Turoa
Mangawhero late (26-15 ka)	Makotuku Waitonga Te Piripiri Horonuku Whakapapaiti
Mangawhero middle (35-26 ka)	Manganuiotaeo
Mangawhero early (50-35 ka)	Mananui Te Kohatu Mangaturuturu Mangaehuehu Ngahuinga
Wahianoa (160-80 ka)	Undifferentiated
Te Herenga (200-150 ka)	Undifferentiated

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1001 Table 2. Summary of EPMA data for major mineral phases in Ruapehu lavas.

Sample Information				Whole-rock		Phenocryst compositional range (rim)			
Number	Fmtn	Package	Age (ka)	SiO ₂ (wt.%)	Mg#	Opx (Mg #)	Cpx (Mg #)	Plg (An %)	Ol (Mg #)
CC281	WH	SC	10	56.0	56	62-77 (68-80)	65-85 (59-81)	52-81 (67-80)	73-75
CC260	WH	TR	12	57.4	52	63-68 (68-78)	67-81 (71-75)	50-90 (56-73)	na
CC335	WH	PT	15	58.5	51	61-77 (65-70)	69-84 (71-73)	54-89 (58-88)	70-72
CC193	WH	RT	15	59.3	47	61-69 (65-71)	70-74 (71-73)	50-87 (53-79)	na
CC415	MA	TK	38	64.2	55	59-86 (58-90)	72-77 (67-86)	38-64 (45-62)	72-75
CC479	MA	TK	38	64.9	54	59-86 (58-73)	70-87 (67-88)	40-70 (42-63)	na
CC313	MA	TK	42	64.4	57	49-85 (54-74)	67-83 (66-88)	38-81 (33-65)	na
CC069	MA	ME	42	59.3	65	68-90 (68-85)	72-88 (72-85)	48-82 (40-70)	82-84
CC077	MA	ME	42	60.1	65	65-84 (69-90)	68-89 (72-87)	50-83 (52-60)	na
CC154	MA	ME	42	60.9	64	69-82 (61-89)	70-85 (74-80)	42-76 (46-61)	78-80
CC089	MA	ME	43	58.7	66	70-78 (77-89)	72-78 (69-87)	53-68 (51-70)	78-80
CC125	MA	ME	44	56.8	69	69-90 (67-89)	72-86 (80-84)	48-60 (55-63)	na
CC308	TH	-	170	57.0	54	67-70 (60-61)	71-83 (70-71)	56-82 (40-67)	na
CC326	TH	-	170	55.2	53	65-72 (54-60)	70-74 (72-74)	61-82 (78-79)	69-70
CC348	TH	-	187	53.8	59	67-76 (66-77)	63-86 (73-84)	68-86 (49-70)	70-85

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1003 Notes. Formation abbreviations are WH (Whakapapa), MA (Mangawhero), and TH (Te
 1004 Herenga). Package abbreviations are SC (Saddle Cone), TR (Turoa), PT (Paretetaitunga), RT
 1005 (Rangataua), TK (Te Kohatu) and ME (Mangaehuehu). SiO₂ (in weight %) and values of
 1006 Mg# [100Mg/(Mg + Fe)] are shown for whole-rock lava. Ranges of Mg# values determined
 1007 by EPMA are shown for orthopyroxene (Opx), clinopyroxene (Cpx) and olivine (Olv)
 1008 phenocrysts and their rims (in parentheses). Anorthite % shown for analyses of plagioclase
 1009 (Plg) phenocrysts and rims (in parentheses). NA indicates not analysed. Full data are in the
 1010 Electronic Supplementary Material.

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1017 Table 3. Whole-rock major and trace element data for representative Ruapehu lavas.

Sample	GL1983	GL1030	CC335	CC130	CC226	CC364	CC408	CC143	CC513	CC462	CC547
Package	CL	IW	PT	TR	MK	TP	MK	WT	WH	MG	MG
Age (ka)	0±2	6±2	15±3	15±2	18±2	21±6	21±3	23±2	26±4	31±2	31±5
SiO₂	61.45	57.30	58.51	60.08	61.37	58.29	60.87	62.26	65.61	60.73	62.46
TiO₂	0.72	0.68	0.73	0.70	0.89	0.70	0.78	0.67	0.62	0.86	0.81
Al₂O₃	15.71	16.71	17.09	15.91	17.25	16.08	17.28	16.20	14.88	16.87	17.00
Fe₂O₃	6.41	7.57	7.51	6.59	6.03	7.57	6.42	5.84	5.02	6.49	5.74
MnO	0.10	0.12	0.12	0.10	0.09	0.12	0.10	0.10	0.08	0.10	0.09
MgO	3.94	5.20	3.96	4.95	2.52	5.22	2.64	3.58	3.43	3.23	2.44
CaO	6.03	7.67	7.16	6.51	5.91	7.34	6.02	5.59	4.50	6.10	5.15
Na₂O	3.25	3.21	3.22	3.25	3.68	3.00	3.75	3.56	3.69	3.41	3.56
K₂O	2.23	1.39	1.57	1.76	2.07	1.54	1.97	2.03	2.06	2.03	2.56
P₂O₅	0.16	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.18	0.14	0.17	0.17	0.11	0.19	0.19
LOI	-0.13	0.12	-0.15	0.01	-0.17	-0.07	-0.10	0.05	0.36	-0.16	0.24
Total	99.19	100.41	99.63	99.44	99.95	98.92	99.08	99.89	100.25	100.00	99.49
Li	22.1	19.9	15.9	20.7	22.2	13.6	25.7	26.7	27.0	21.6	31.3
Sc	19.7	25.2	24.4	22.1	17.2	27.2	17.9	17.7	15.4	19.6	15.8
V	159	194	199	161	195	205	172	128	120	172	144
Ni	34.7	65.2	18.2	66.8	13.4	41.0	7.7	52.4	49.9	19.0	14.5
Cu	21.6	34.6	26.3	33.3	14.6	50.8	32.7	29.9	18.4	28.9	23.5
Zn	61.5	66.3	77.5	59.3	58.8	68.4	66.7	59.9	73.1	68.2	60.6
Ga	17.0	18.3	19.2	17.6	18.8	16.9	19.4	18.1	17.4	18.5	18.6
Rb	86.3	46.8	59.2	62.7	78.4	57.4	69.0	75.5	84.7	72.6	110.2
Sr	251	299	257	264	304	225	305	266	229	305	258
Y	19.7	17.9	21.2	16.8	20.8	19.8	19.6	20.0	13.7	21.9	23.2
Zr	151	96	119	123	153	113	136	133	149	153	172
Nb	5.86	4.03	4.81	5.31	6.17	4.54	5.13	6.23	6.77	6.53	7.18
Cs	3.68	1.79	2.02	2.70	2.62	2.07	2.13	2.80	3.45	2.66	2.96
Ba	408	337	338	355	452	311	417	409	410	425	454
La	15.0	10.0	13.7	12.5	16.0	12.2	14.9	15.6	8.7	17.9	19.9
Ce	32.9	22.2	29.4	26.7	35.1	26.7	32.9	34.7	17.7	38.7	41.6
Pr	4.03	2.77	3.64	3.29	4.35	3.35	3.95	4.26	2.21	4.74	5.27
Nd	15.8	11.9	14.7	13.1	17.1	13.6	16.1	17.1	9.1	19.0	21.0
Sm	3.52	2.97	3.38	3.02	3.77	3.12	3.58	3.69	2.21	4.22	4.48
Eu	0.90	0.87	0.92	0.86	1.01	0.85	0.97	0.90	0.71	1.08	1.05
Gd	3.78	2.94	3.62	3.05	3.82	3.51	3.72	3.71	2.31	4.33	4.68
Tb	0.55	0.49	0.57	0.47	0.57	0.53	0.54	0.58	0.37	0.63	0.66
Dy	3.39	2.99	3.59	2.97	3.46	3.38	3.44	3.42	2.34	3.82	4.07
Ho	0.69	0.61	0.74	0.59	0.73	0.71	0.70	0.68	0.50	0.77	0.81
Er	2.04	1.77	2.14	1.76	2.10	2.07	1.99	2.02	1.48	2.23	2.38
Tm	0.30	0.27	0.32	0.27	0.30	0.30	0.30	0.30	0.22	0.32	0.33
Yb	2.02	1.78	2.13	1.75	2.05	2.03	1.94	1.86	1.47	2.07	2.26
Lu	0.29	0.27	0.33	0.26	0.30	0.30	0.29	0.27	0.22	0.31	0.33
Hf	4.06	2.71	3.26	3.44	4.12	3.12	3.63	3.62	4.01	4.02	4.49
Pb	12.8	7.15	9.27	10.5	10.2	7.49	9.47	17.1	12.0	10.5	9.83
Th	8.12	4.34	5.67	5.97	7.32	5.35	6.46	6.43	6.42	7.24	8.85
U	2.21	1.22	1.43	1.60	1.85	1.42	1.63	1.73	1.91	1.76	2.41

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1020 Table 3 (continued).

Sample	CC508	CC570	CC125	CC216	CC424	CC470	CC562	CC209	CC213	CC326	CC348
Package	TK	MN	ME	ME	NG	MT	WA	WA	WA	TH	TH
Age (ka)	38±1	40±2	43±1	43±1	40±3	41±2	88±6	121±4	121±3	170±8	186±7
SiO ₂	65.03	63.57	56.80	60.19	59.34	63.49	57.55	58.36	58.40	55.24	53.79
TiO ₂	0.71	0.85	0.70	0.77	0.76	0.83	0.62	0.68	0.70	0.65	0.67
Al ₂ O ₃	15.27	15.84	14.25	15.00	16.81	16.74	16.51	19.70	17.25	17.21	16.62
Fe ₂ O ₃	4.74	5.51	7.44	6.55	6.52	5.27	7.38	6.06	7.40	9.16	9.20
MnO	0.07	0.08	0.12	0.10	0.10	0.08	0.12	0.09	0.12	0.15	0.15
MgO	2.86	2.80	8.61	5.53	4.22	2.21	5.60	2.34	4.36	5.30	6.75
CaO	4.45	4.87	7.67	6.36	6.81	4.87	7.82	7.49	6.89	8.42	9.17
Na ₂ O	3.42	3.50	2.85	3.28	3.48	3.64	3.37	3.92	3.31	3.12	2.82
K ₂ O	3.27	2.78	1.41	2.05	1.80	2.68	0.93	1.22	1.44	0.66	0.71
P ₂ O ₅	0.18	0.20	0.14	0.18	0.16	0.20	0.11	0.13	0.13	0.09	0.11
LOI	0.10	-0.02	-0.10	-0.02	-0.11	0.20	-0.09	0.06	0.11	0.01	-0.25
Total	100.28	99.44	99.89	100.20	99.07	99.62	99.54	100.16	99.90	99.27	99.39
Li	36.7	31.0	19.5	23.6	20.0	24.8	14.9	13.6	21.7	10.2	8.34
Sc	14.3	15.8	27.1	21.6	19.9	16.0	27.0	16.8	23.9	32.0	34.5
V	121	143	191	164	170	146	196	175	188	233	249
Ni	30.4	36.7	175.9	123.3	49.2	12.1	54.9	15.4	30.1	28.6	54.7
Cu	27.9	39.1	39.2	88.5	37.4	12.3	47.6	93.8	43.1	74.0	38.3
Zn	30.2	68.0	61.8	59.2	60.8	66.5	70.1	64.6	81.0	87.1	81.4
Ga	17.8	18.6	15.5	17.3	18.4	19.0	17.8	20.9	18.8	17.9	17.5
Rb	144	111	52.8	79.7	61.8	105	25.4	36.2	44.9	16.6	17.5
Sr	203	232	227	241	252	243	289	327	250	211	226
Y	23.2	23.5	17.5	21.8	18.5	21.3	14.6	19.1	19.2	18.9	18.7
Zr	215	199	114	150	130	186	69.3	92.8	101	59.4	58.5
Nb	9.00	8.36	4.16	6.26	4.58	7.22	3.00	3.79	4.46	1.83	1.89
Cs	5.15	3.83	2.32	2.38	2.00	3.30	0.61	1.07	1.56	0.42	0.37
Ba	552	509	302	404	345	495	236	316	332	184	222
La	20.9	20.2	10.6	16.7	12.8	16.6	6.23	11.0	11.4	5.44	6.01
Ce	45.3	44.0	23.5	35.7	28.4	36.5	14.5	22.8	25.7	11.3	13.5
Pr	5.43	5.31	2.90	4.40	3.50	4.53	1.93	3.00	3.29	1.69	1.94
Nd	21.0	21.5	12.0	18.1	14.6	18.0	8.43	12.7	13.5	7.67	8.97
Sm	4.53	4.56	2.95	3.92	3.29	4.01	2.10	3.05	3.22	2.17	2.38
Eu	0.91	1.01	0.82	0.93	0.87	1.03	0.71	0.92	0.87	0.74	0.81
Gd	4.59	4.60	3.08	4.09	3.40	4.18	2.29	3.12	3.27	2.55	2.81
Tb	0.64	0.66	0.48	0.62	0.50	0.59	0.39	0.49	0.52	0.45	0.46
Dy	3.88	4.11	2.92	3.75	3.22	3.67	2.58	3.11	3.29	3.09	3.08
Ho	0.80	0.82	0.60	0.75	0.65	0.74	0.53	0.65	0.68	0.68	0.67
Er	2.23	2.35	1.78	2.18	1.83	2.16	1.51	1.90	1.94	1.97	1.98
Tm	0.32	0.34	0.26	0.33	0.27	0.32	0.23	0.28	0.30	0.30	0.29
Yb	2.15	2.23	1.67	2.08	1.78	2.15	1.52	1.80	1.95	1.99	1.92
Lu	0.32	0.33	0.25	0.31	0.26	0.32	0.24	0.28	0.29	0.31	0.30
Hf	5.40	5.30	2.97	4.17	3.41	4.92	1.99	2.57	2.85	1.73	1.73
Pb	17.1	17.5	7.69	12.4	12.4	12.8	4.99	7.37	27.3	6.00	3.63
Th	12.1	10.0	4.91	7.08	5.82	9.82	2.36	3.39	4.15	1.40	1.63
U	3.58	2.70	1.29	2.02	1.49	2.59	0.65	0.93	1.10	0.44	0.43

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1022 Notes. Major oxide values are in weight % and are normalised to anhydrous totals (100 wt.
 1023 %) with LOI (loss on ignition) and original analytical totals displayed. Trace elements

1024 contents are in ppm. Package and Formation abbreviations are: Crater Lake (CL);
1025 Paretetaitonga (PT); Tureiti (TR); Makotuku (MK); Waitonga (WT); Whakapapaiti (WH);
1026 Manganuioteao (MG); Te Kohatu (TK); Mananui (MN); Mangaehuehu (ME); Ngahuinga
1027 (NG); Mangaturuturu (MT); Wahianoa Formation (WA); Te Herenga Formation (TH). Full
1028 data are in the Electronic Supplementary Material. Ages are $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ weighted mean plateau
1029 ages from Conway et al. (2016).

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1045 Table 4. Summary of melt inclusion and xenolith and groundmass glass compositions.

Group	Value	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	Total
WH mi n=45	avg	74.0	0.5	14.9	1.1	1.9	3.6	3.8	99.6
	max	77.0	1.4	19.0	2.2	3.6	4.5	5.6	100.5
	min	70.3	0.2	13.0	0.5	1.0	0.8	1.8	98.4
	2sd	3.7	0.4	2.6	0.8	1.4	1.3	2.2	1.3
WH gms n=16	avg	73.8	1.2	12.2	3.1	1.0	3.4	5.0	99.7
	max	75.1	1.4	12.5	3.8	1.1	4.1	5.2	100.3
	min	73.3	1.0	11.7	2.5	0.7	3.2	4.1	98.1
	2sd	1.0	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.2	0.4	0.5	1.4
TK mi n=67	avg	73.0	0.7	13.7	2.1	1.3	3.3	5.4	99.9
	max	75.6	1.2	16.2	3.3	2.8	4.2	6.2	100.8
	min	70.0	0.2	12.1	1.0	0.7	1.0	4.0	98.5
	2sd	3.0	0.5	2.5	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.1
TK i/x n=17	avg	73.8	1.0	12.7	2.3	1.0	3.0	5.8	98.0
	max	75.2	1.3	15.5	2.8	1.4	3.7	6.3	99.0
	min	70.5	0.7	12.1	1.7	0.9	2.7	5.5	97.1
	2sd	2.7	0.4	1.9	0.6	0.2	0.4	0.4	1.1
TK gms n=13	avg	74.4	0.8	12.6	2.2	1.2	3.0	5.5	101.0
	max	75.4	0.8	15.1	2.7	2.3	3.8	5.9	101.8
	min	71.7	0.6	12.0	1.7	0.8	2.7	4.4	100.3
	2sd	2.1	0.1	1.7	0.4	0.9	0.6	0.8	0.8
ME mi n=30	avg	72.8	0.6	15.1	1.3	1.8	4.0	4.2	100.0
	max	67.6	0.1	13.0	0.4	0.6	3.0	3.2	99.0
	min	76.6	1.9	17.5	3.0	3.6	7.2	5.6	100.6
	2sd	4.9	1.0	2.0	1.4	1.6	1.4	1.1	0.8
ME gms n=13	avg	69.4	1.7	13.0	5.1	2.5	4.5	3.0	99.9
	max	70.1	1.8	13.8	5.8	2.9	5.0	3.4	100.4
	min	69.0	1.6	12.3	4.3	2.4	4.1	2.6	99.3
	2sd	0.7	0.1	0.8	0.8	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.5
TH mi n=24	avg	72.7	0.5	15.9	1.5	2.4	4.3	2.4	100.4
	max	78.7	1.1	17.8	2.1	3.4	5.9	3.5	101.8
	min	69.7	0.1	12.9	0.6	1.3	1.6	1.7	98.1
	2sd	5.6	0.8	3.0	0.8	1.1	1.6	0.8	2.0

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1047 Notes. Major oxide values are in weight % and are normalised to anhydrous totals (100 wt.
 1048 %). Table is divided into groups of analyses from melt inclusions (mi), groundmass glass
 1049 (gms), and interstitial and xenolith glass (i/x) from within different formations or packages:
 1050 Whakapapa Formation (WH), Te Kohatu package, Mangawhero Formation (TK),
 1051 Mangaehuehu package, Mangawhero Formation (ME), Te Herenga Formation (TH). From
 1052 multiple analyses of glass within each group, values are displayed for average (avg),
 1053 maximum (max), minimum (min) contents for each element, as well as 2 s.d. compositional
 1054 variability. Full data are in the Electronic Supplementary Material.

1055 Table 5. LA-ICPMS trace element data for xenolith and interstitial glass.

Sample	X1-1	X2-1	X2-2	IG40-1	IG12 (n=7)
Sc	11.6	11.1	9.9	10.6	12 ± 2
V	64.6	52.6	32.7	70.3	57 ± 28
Zn	40.7	33.2	46.9	50.9	50 ± 7
Rb	255	274	273	272	271 ± 12
Sr	56.3	57.4	49.5	90.5	55 ± 6
Y	35.5	36.1	31.9	31.4	39 ± 4
Zr	402	435	420	397	486 ± 22
Nb	13.1	13.7	14.8	11.8	15 ± 2
Cs	18.0	17.8	18.3	17.4	18 ± 2
Ba	789	786	741	1410	834 ± 44
La	33.9	35.5	30.8	35.2	41 ± 5
Ce	73.2	74.5	69.4	77.6	86 ± 9
Pr	8.3	9.2	8.0	8.2	9 ± 1
Nd	32.1	31.3	29.3	29.7	37 ± 4
Sm	7.0	7.8	5.7	9.1	8 ± 2
Eu	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.0	1 ± 0.5
Gd	7.5	7.6	3.7	8.5	8 ± 3
Tb	0.9	0.7	0.6	1.2	1 ± 0.2
Dy	6.6	4.9	5.8	5.3	6 ± 2
Ho	1.4	1.0	0.6	1.0	1 ± 0.2
Er	3.6	2.8	2.9	2.5	4 ± 1
Tm	0.7	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.5 ± 0.3
Yb	2.6	2.9	2.2	4.2	4 ± 1.5
Lu	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.5 ± 0.2
Hf	12.2	12.4	11.9	11.8	14 ± 3

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1057 Notes. Values are in ppm. Sample prefixes are: X = xenolith glass; IG = interstitial glass. X2-

1058 1 and X2-2 are analyses on different spots from the same xenolith. Average values ± 2 s.d.

1059 compositional variability are shown for 7 analyses from IG12.

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1066 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

1067 **Figure 1.** Location of the Taupo Volcanic Zone (TVZ) and associated features within the
1068 North Island of New Zealand. TVZ basement rock outcrops for the Torlesse and Waipapa
1069 terranes have been modified from Price et al. (2015). Locations for features referred to in the
1070 text are shown for White Island (WI), Kakuki basalt (K), Taupo volcano (TV), Waimarino
1071 basalt (W), Pukeonake (P), Tongariro (T), Hauhangatahi (H), Ruapehu (R) and Ohakune
1072 craters (O).

1073 **Figure 2.** Geological map of chronostratigraphic formations at Ruapehu, modified from
1074 Conway et al. (2016). Marginal ticks and numbers are those of the NZTM 2000 grid, in
1075 meters; a reference point for latitude and longitude is marked in the top right of the map.

1076 **Figure 3.** Petrographic features of representative Ruapehu lava flows. Red numbers indicate
1077 Mg# ($[100\text{Mg}/(\text{Mg} + \text{Fe})]$) of EPMA spots. (a) Clinopyroxene in Te Herenga Formation
1078 basaltic-andesite sample CC348. (b) Cluster of zoned plagioclase crystals in Whakapapa
1079 Formation andesite sample CC281. (c) Reverse-zoned orthopyroxene in Mangawhero
1080 Formation (Mangaehuehu package) andesite sample CC077. (d) Cluster of reverse-zoned
1081 orthopyroxene crystals in Mangawhero Formation (Mangaehuehu package) andesite sample
1082 CC089. (e) Resorbed olivine crystal, with symplectite of magnetite (mt) and orthopyroxene
1083 overgrowth, in Whakapapa Formation sample CC335. (f) Quenched glass (gl) in fragment of
1084 feldspathic xenolith (plag) within Mangawhero Formation (Te Kohatu package) dacite
1085 sample CC415. For sample details and locations, see Conway (2016).

1086 **Figure 4.** Bivariate plots of whole-rock K_2O , Al_2O_3 , MgO , Ni, Rb and Zr versus SiO_2 .

1087 Values of 2 s.d. uncertainty from XRF and ICP-MS analyses are smaller than the size of the
1088 symbols. Sample and standard data are in the Electronic Supplementary Material.

1089 Abbreviations for end-member samples referred to in the text are Te Kohatu package, high-K

1090 dacite (TK), Whakapapaiti package, low-K dacite (WH) and Mangaehuehu package, high-
1091 MgO andesite (ME). Gray dots are data from Price et al. (2012). Type 2 plagioclase-phyric
1092 andesites of the Wahianoa Formation (Graham and Hackett, 1987) are the green diamonds
1093 labelled T2. Lines of best fit have been drawn in panel (a) and its inset plot to show the
1094 distinct trends for 50–35 ka lavas compared to <26 lavas. Arrows point towards
1095 representative mineral compositions to indicate azimuths of crystal accumulation (opposite
1096 direction indicates fractionation).

1097 **Figure 5.** Whole-rock compositional characteristics (a) and spatial distribution (b) of early
1098 Mangawhero Formation lava flows. (a) MgO and versus SiO₂ plot for lavas erupted from 50–
1099 35 ka. Colour key for lava packages is shown in (b). Shaded fields show compositional
1100 ranges for pre-80 ka Ruapehu lavas (i), post-35 ka Ruapehu lavas (ii), and the ~26 ka
1101 Whakapapaiti dacite package (WH). Lines of best fit (dashed) for the low- and high-MgO
1102 suites are extended towards possible mafic end-members K (Kakuki basalt) and W
1103 (Waimarino basalt): basalt compositions are from Gamble et al. (1993). Average
1104 compositions of P (Pukeonake andesite) and O (Ohakune andesite) shown for comparison;
1105 data are from Cole (1978) and Hackett (1985). Locations of P and O are labelled in (b).

1106 **Figure 6.** Time-composition relationships for Ruapehu lavas (after Conway et al. 2016).
1107 Lava ages are ⁴⁰Ar/³⁹Ar weighted mean plateau ages (WMPA) with associated 2 s.d.
1108 uncertainties shown by bars. Both ages and whole-rock compositions were determined for the
1109 same sample. The timing of the onset of deglaciation (light grey bar) and the sector collapse
1110 of the northern flank (dark grey bar) are shown on each panel. Data are also shown for lavas
1111 dated by Gamble et al. (2003) and lava clasts by Tost and Cronin (2015). Geochemical data
1112 for lava clasts is from Tost et al. (2016).

1113 **Figure 7.** Multielement diagrams for Ruapehu lavas. Whole-rock trace element
1114 concentrations are normalised to average values of continental crust from Rudnick and Gao
1115 (2003). Grey line repeated in all panels is Te Herenga basaltic-andesite sample CC348.
1116 Approximate eruption age is labelled for each sample.

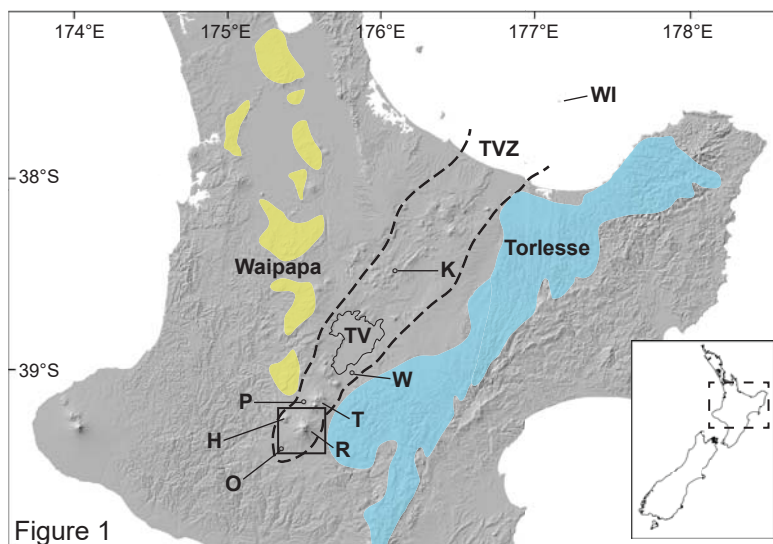
1117 **Figure 8.** Whole-rock $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ and $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ isotopic compositions and SiO_2 contents for
1118 Ruapehu lavas with the samples allocated to the formations and age data from Conway et al.
1119 (2016). Isotopic data from Price et al. (2012). Note that 50–35 ka lavas with highest $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$
1120 values do not appear in (a) because they do not have Nd isotopic data.

1121 **Figure 9.** SiO_2 - K_2O compositional variations for whole-rock and glass compositions for
1122 Ruapehu lavas. Symbols are compositions for whole-rock (wr: coloured diamonds), melt
1123 inclusions (mi: open diamonds), groundmass glass (gm: coloured crosses) and xenolith glass
1124 (xg: open blue circles). Data are in the Electronic Supplementary Material. Fields are shown
1125 for Taupo volcano glass, post-Oruanui (TV) based on data from Barker et al. (2015), and
1126 pyroclast glass from post-glacial Ruapehu Plinian eruptions (RP) based on data from Pardo et
1127 al. (2014). Lines of best fit are shown for whole-rock data.

1128 **Figure 10.** Plot of Rb/Zr variation with La/Sm for whole-rock lavas compared against
1129 inferred chemical evolution pathways (dotted lines, 10 % increments of fractionation).
1130 Trajectories represent AFC models for Ruapehu magmas using lava samples CC125 and
1131 GL1030 as starting compositions for 50-35 ka and <26 ka lavas, respectively. Following
1132 Price et al. (2012), a fractionating assemblage of plagioclase (0.59), clinopyroxene (0.25),
1133 orthopyroxene (0.16) was used to constrain bulk distribution coefficients (D) of 0.04 (Rb),
1134 0.38 (Zr), 0.11 (La) and 0.29 (Sm) that were calculated using the values available at the Earth
1135 Reference Data and Models website (EarthRef: <http://www.earthref.org>), as collated in the
1136 Electronic Supplementary Material. High-K (6 wt. % K_2O) and low-K (4 wt. % K_2O) crustal

1137 assimilants with corresponding ratios of assimilation to fractionation (R) of 0.5 and 0.25 were
1138 used. The trace element compositions of the assimilant were constrained by analyses of
1139 xenolith glass from metasedimentary fragments within a 40 ka dacite lava (this study;
1140 CC415-X2) and within a Whakapapa Formation lava (Price et al. 2005; 104x). Modelling
1141 was performed using the PetroGraph software program (Petrelli et al. 2005). See text for
1142 discussion.

1143



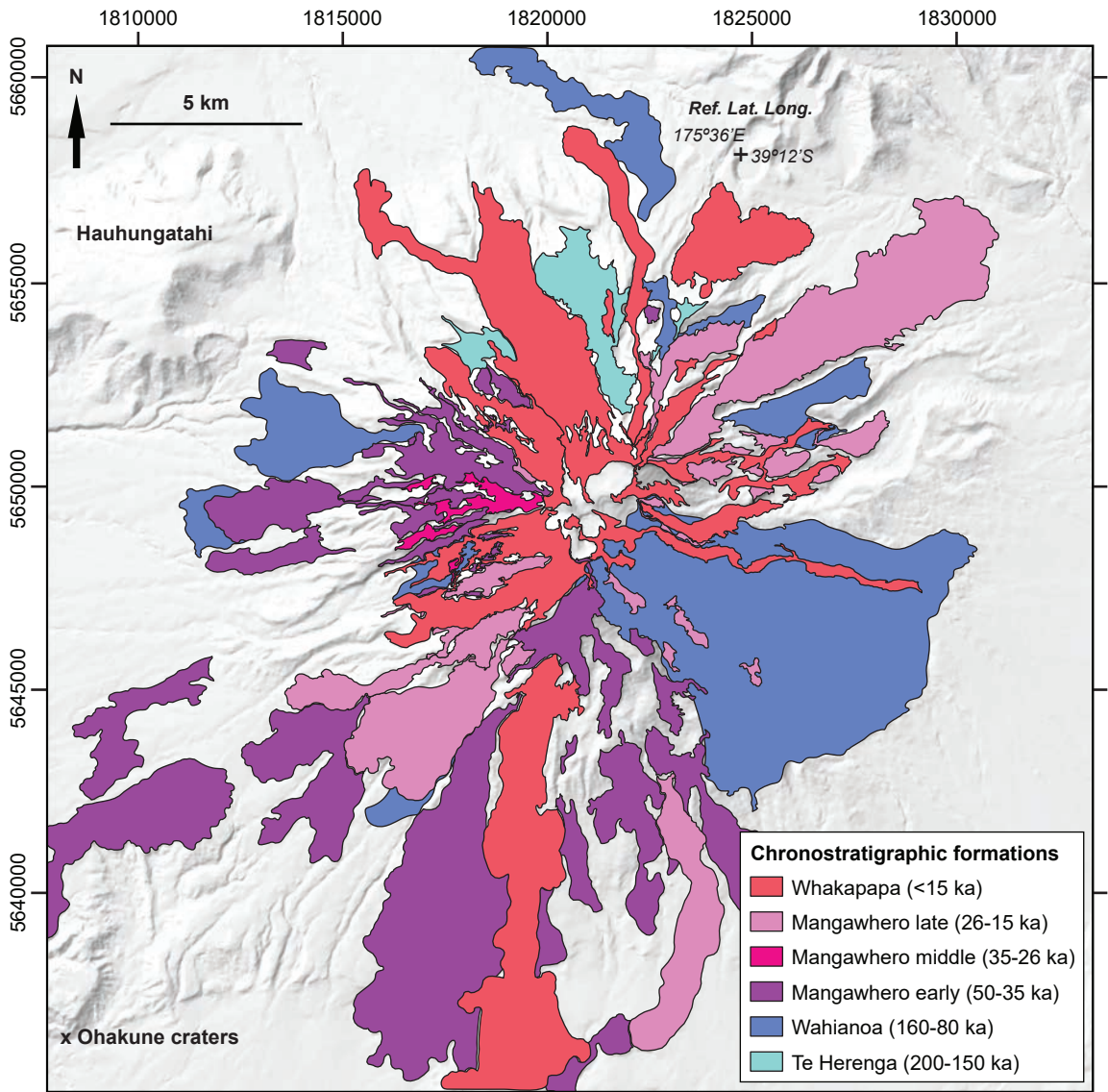
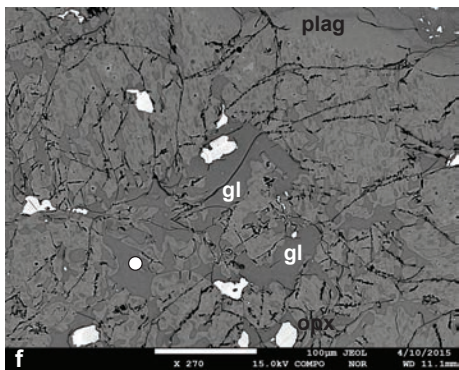
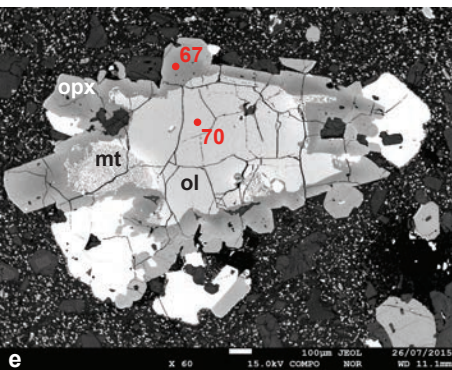
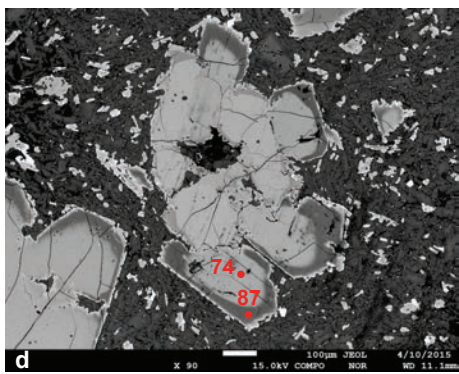
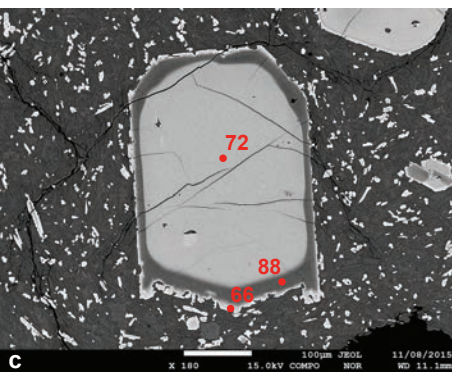
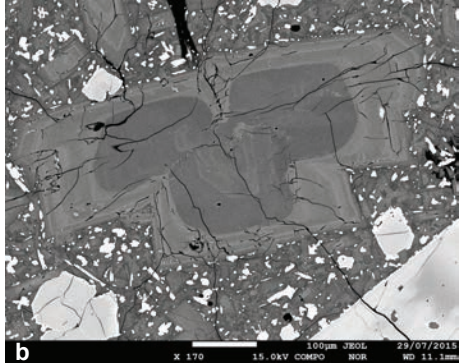
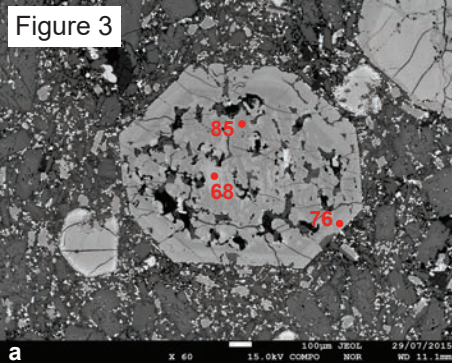


Figure 2

Figure 3



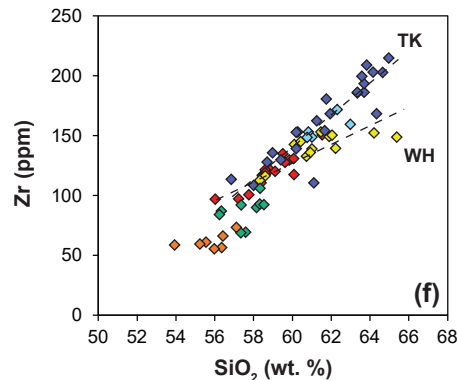
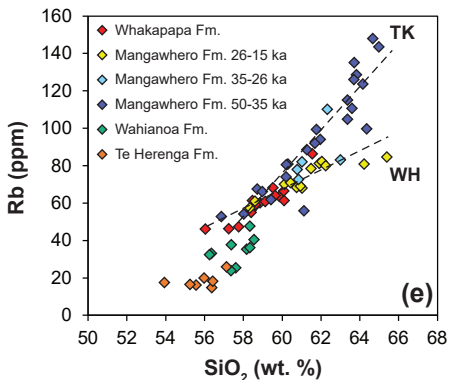
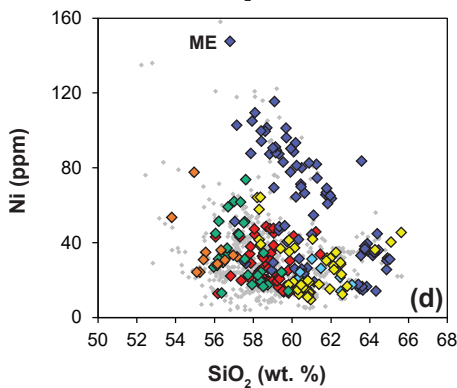
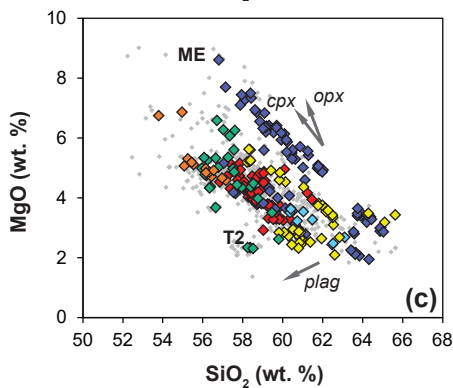
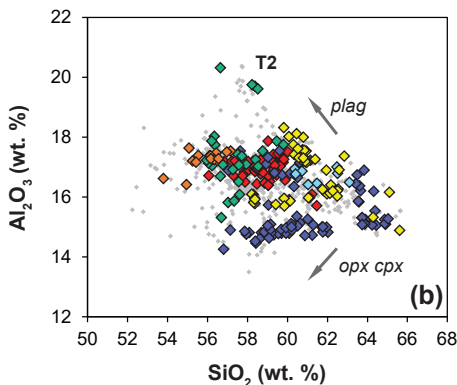
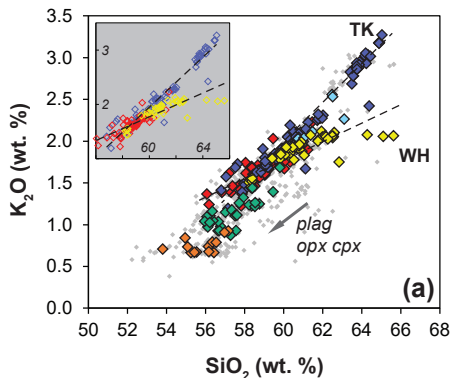
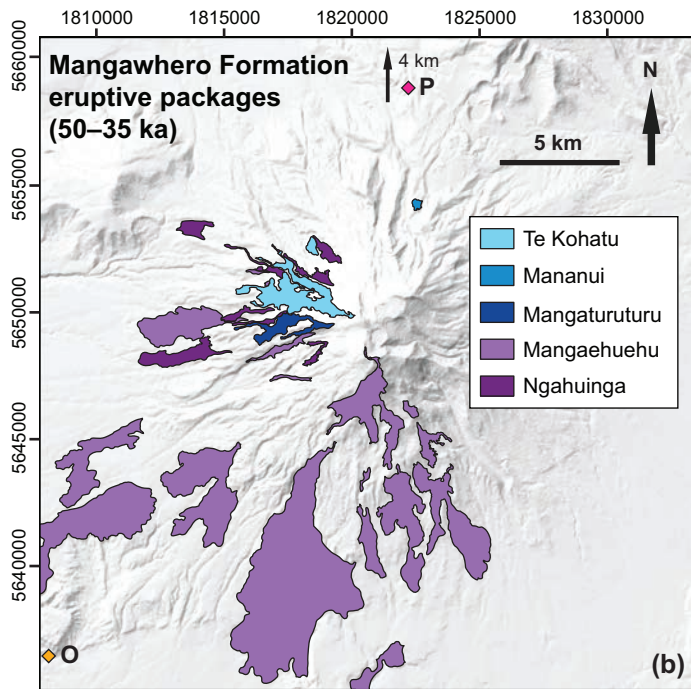
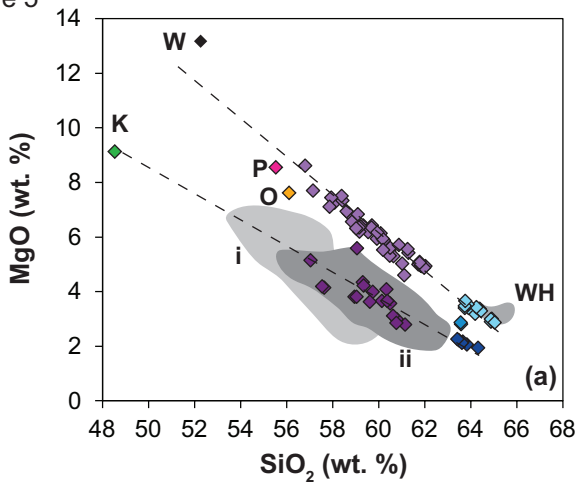


Figure 5



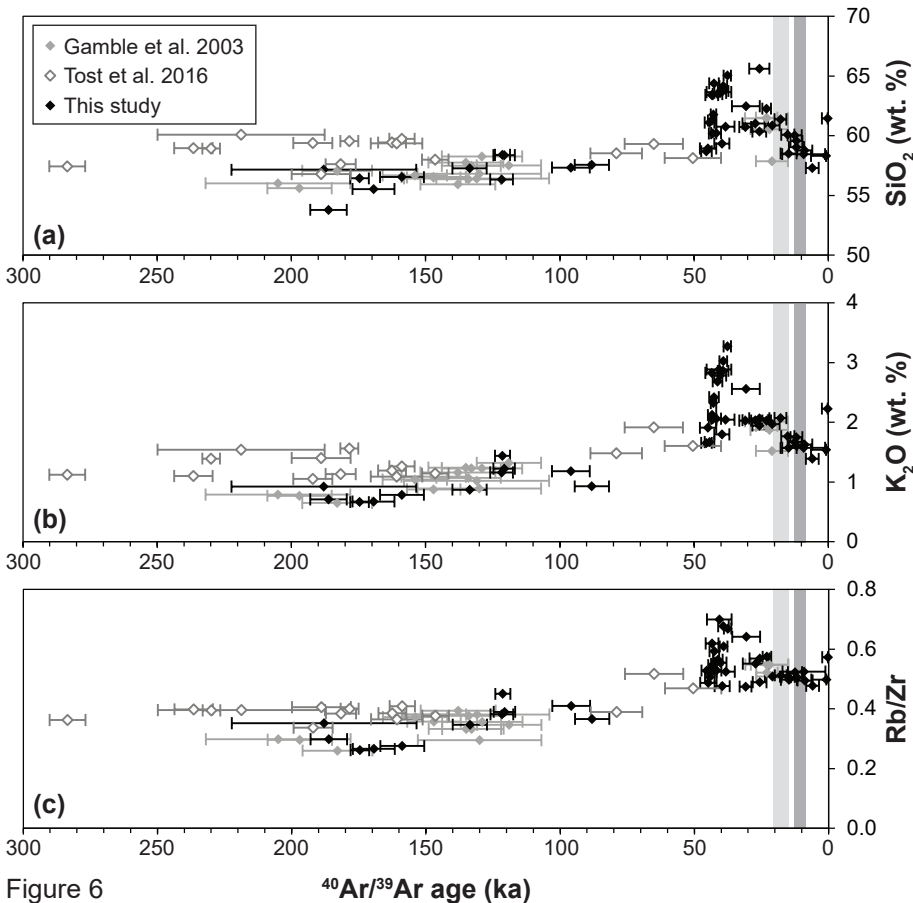
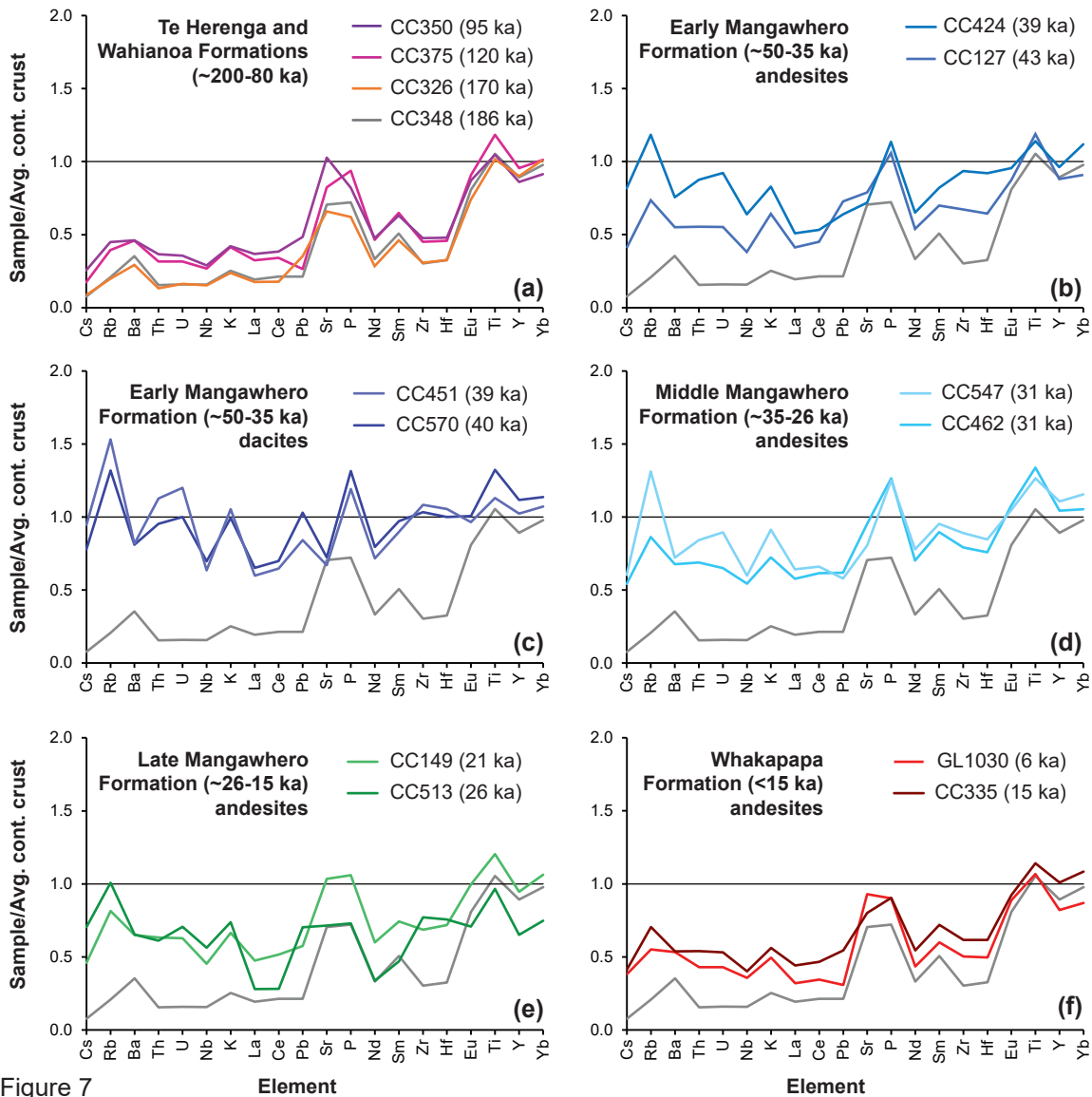


Figure 6

$^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ age (ka)



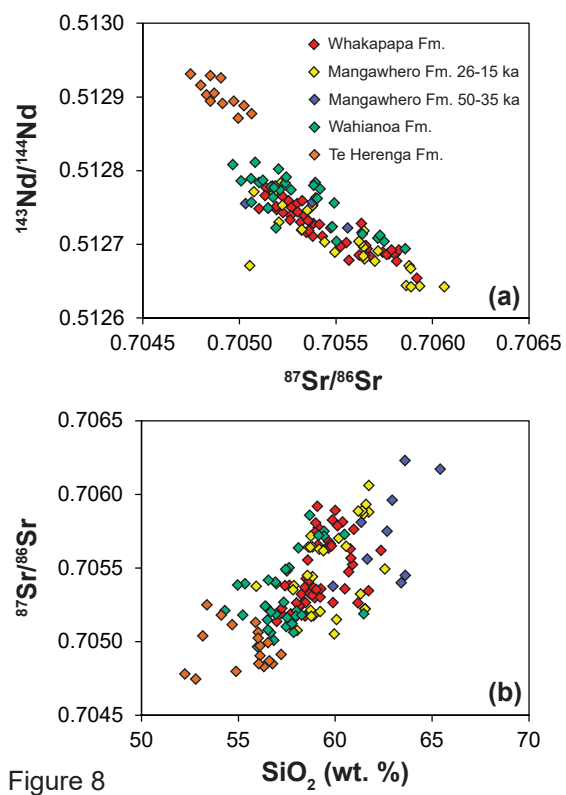


Figure 8

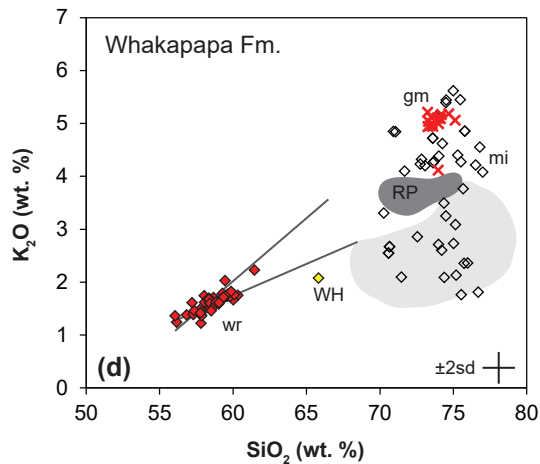
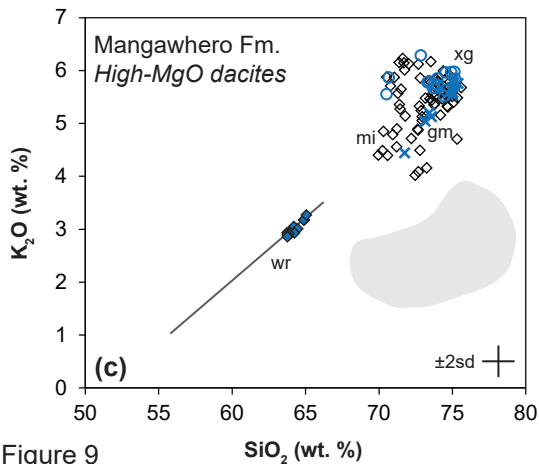
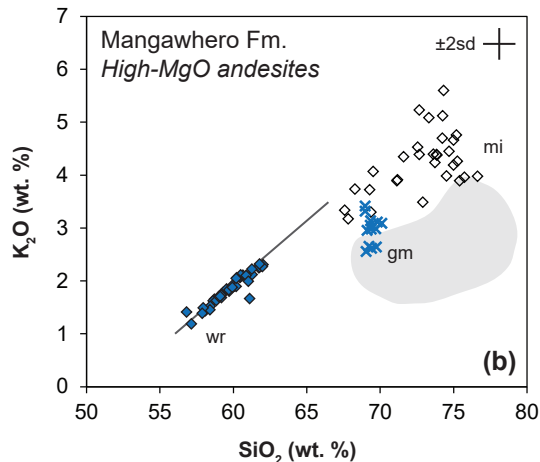
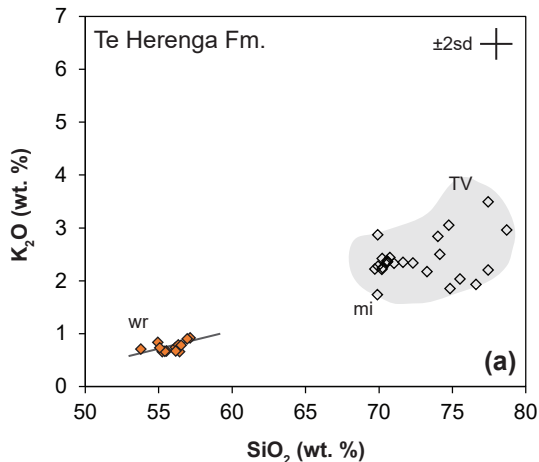


Figure 9

