

1 **Quantitative chemical mapping of plagioclase as a tool for the interpretation of volcanic**
2 **stratigraphy: an example from Saint Kitts, Lesser Antilles**

3

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10 TO **EarthArXiv**. THIS ARTICLE IS CURRENTLY SUBMITTED FOR REVIEW IN
11 **Earth and Planetary Science Letters**.

12

13 **Social Media Affiliations**

14

15 @MAGEvolcano @NatHazTom @LucaCaricchi

16

17 **Keywords**

18

19 magma; image segmentation; zoning; crystal population; microprobe

20

21 **Funding**

22

23 O. H., T.S and L. C. received funding from the European Research Council (ERC) under the
24 European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation program (Grant agreement 677493-
25 FEVER).

26 **Abstract**

27

28 Establishing a quantitative link between magmatic processes occurring at depth and volcanic
29 eruption dynamics is essential to forecast the future behaviour of volcanoes, and to correctly
30 interpret monitoring signals at active centres. Chemical zoning in minerals, which captures
31 successive events or states within a magmatic system, can be exploited for such a purpose.
32 However, to develop a quantitative understanding of magmatic systems requires an unbiased,
33 reproducible method for characterising zoned crystals. We use image segmentation on thin
34 section scale chemical maps to segment textural zones in plagioclase phenocrysts, and then
35 correlate these zones throughout a stratigraphic sequence from Saint Kitts, Lesser Antilles.
36 Both segmented phenocrysts and unsegmented matrix plagioclase are chemically decoupled
37 from whole rock geochemical trends, with the latter showing a systematic temporal progression
38 towards less chemically evolved magma (more anorthitic plagioclase). By working on a
39 stratigraphic sequence, it is possible to track the chemical and textural complexity of segmented
40 plagioclase in time, in this case on the order of millennia. In doing so, we find a relationship
41 between the number of crystal populations, deposit thickness and time. Thicker deposits
42 contain a larger number of crystal populations alongside an overall reduction in this number
43 towards the top of the deposit. Our approach provides quantitative textural parameters for
44 volcanic and plutonic rocks, including the ability to measure the amount of crystal fracturing.
45 In combination with mineral chemistry, these parameters can strengthen the link between
46 petrology and volcanology and pave the way towards a deeper understanding of the magmatic
47 processes controlling eruptive dynamics.

48

49 **1. Introduction**

50

51 The interplay between the chemical and physical processes experienced by magma within the
52 crust are intimately linked to the style and frequency of eruptions observed at the surface (Baker
53 and Holland, 1973; Gertisser and Keller, 2003). Volcanic stratigraphy provides a snapshot of
54 these chemical and physical processes and holds a plethora of opportunities to collect
55 qualitative and quantitative data within a temporal context: changes in mineral chemistry
56 (Sisson and Vallance, 2009) and modal mineralogy (Luhr and Carmichael, 1982); whole-rock
57 geochemical variation (Gertisser and Keller, 2003); textural quantification in the form of
58 crystal size distributions (Higgins and Roberge, 2003). Magmatic minerals can also be
59 exploited for temporal geochemical studies by fingerprinting the state of a magmatic system as
60 they grow (Ginibre et al., 2007; Wallace and Bergantz, 2002). Together, volcanic stratigraphy
61 and mineral chemistry can be effectively combined to integrate physical volcanology and
62 petrology in a temporal framework (e.g. Kahl et al., 2013), improve our understanding of open
63 system processes in volcanic arcs (Humphreys et al., 2006; Viccaro et al., 2010), and further
64 our ability to use correlation of mineral zoning as a tool for geological mapping and
65 tephrostratigraphy (e.g. Wiebe, 1968).

66 Plagioclase provides a robust crystal record due to its near ubiquitous occurrence in
67 magmas, and compositional sensitivity to temperature, melt composition and melt water
68 content (Sisson and Grove, 1993). Minerals record the temporal evolution of their conditions
69 of growth (Davidson et al., 2007) as chemical and textural zoning, which can exhibit a wide
70 variety of styles including normal, reverse, oscillatory and patchy zonation (Ginibre et al.,
71 2007; Viccaro et al., 2010). Quantifying the chemical and textural variability of plagioclase is
72 challenging due to “petrological cannibalism” whereby injected magma may scavenge
73 thermally, chemically and spatially disparate crystals from the plutonic sub-system that
74 underlies a volcano and amalgamate them into a final erupted product (Cashman and Blundy,
75 2013; Davidson et al., 2007; Reubi and Blundy, 2008). As a result, individual samples may

76 contain numerous crystal populations that are chemically and texturally distinct from each
77 other, as well as single crystals that record several chemo-physical magmatic states in their
78 zoning patterns (Kent et al., 2010). When considering an entire eruptive sequence, crystal
79 populations may appear and disappear in time between erupted products, reflecting recurring
80 magmatic processes. Young (≤ 1 Ma), arc volcanoes in particular (e.g. the Lesser Antilles)
81 generally erupt magmas with highly composite whole rock and crystal textures, notably the
82 case for plagioclase (e.g. Humphreys et al., 2013; Reubi and Blundy, 2009). This is reflective
83 of the often-complex nature of volcanic plumbing systems where magma may be stored and
84 evolve at different depths (Melekhova et al., 2017) and experience mixing (Kent et al., 2010)
85 and/or mingling (Howe et al., 2015).

86 Past attempts to quantify plagioclase textural and chemical variability can be divided
87 into crystal-scale and sample-scale methods. Crystal-scale methods employ multiple crystal
88 transects, using a variety of mathematical approaches to identify discrete populations (Caricchi
89 et al., 2020; Probst et al., 2018; Wallace and Bergantz, 2002). Transects are commonly acquired
90 on selected, large ($> 300 \mu\text{m}$) crystals using an Electron Probe Micro-analyser (EPMA). These
91 analyses are highly accurate ($\leq 1\%$ relative error) and rapidly acquired (~ 3 minutes per point).
92 However, recording the full range of 2D zoning patterns and their relative importance, i.e. their
93 areal extent, using transects alone is clearly difficult owing to stereological constraints and
94 under sampling (Probst et al., 2018). Quantifying sample-scale variation has more commonly
95 been approached using back-scattered electron (BSE) maps of thin sections (Cheng et al., 2017;
96 Humphreys et al., 2013), for example by calibrating BSE greyscale images with the punctual
97 determination of anorthite content (Ginibre et al., 2002). Sheldrake and Higgins (2021)
98 presented a method using image segmentation of x-ray maps to classify texturally constrained
99 zones of similar chemical composition. This allows single plagioclase crystals to be split into
100 multiple zones, which can then be correlated within and between samples.

101 This study centres on a well-exposed volcano-stratigraphic section on an island arc
102 volcano (Saint Kitts, Lesser Antilles) that represents a millennial timescale of eruptive history.
103 Given its ubiquity throughout the stratigraphy, we use plagioclase to provide us with a
104 “crystals-eye view” of the magmatic plumbing system, using a series of quantified chemical
105 maps to interrogate mineral chemistry. Our results show that the systematic investigation of
106 plagioclase chemistry can reveal temporal trends not evident in whole rock geochemistry alone.
107 Using the method of Sheldrake and Higgins (2021) we quantify the evolution of textural
108 complexity of plagioclase in time. Using this method we also measure the degree of crystal
109 fracturing with a new textural parameter (Fracture Index), which has the potential to provide
110 quantitative information on magma decompression rates (Miwa and Geshi, 2012).

111

112 **2. Geological Setting**

113

114 The island of Saint Kitts is located in the north of the Lesser Antilles island arc, the surface
115 manifestation of the slow, westward subduction of the North American plate beneath the
116 Caribbean plate at an estimated convergence rate of 2 – 4 cm/year (Shepherd, 1984; **Fig. 1a**).
117 The Lesser Antilles is renowned for its chemical diversity both along the arc (Macdonald et
118 al., 2000) and within single islands (e.g. Stamper et al., 2014), with the whole rock
119 compositions of volcanic and plutonic rocks spanning almost the entire global arc array
120 (Melekhova et al., 2019). Eruptions are predominantly Plinian and Subplinian with interspersed
121 periods of lava dome growth, as seen most recently on Saint Vincent but also noted on Saint
122 Kitts, Montserrat, Dominica and Martinique (Baker, 1968; Loughlin et al., 2010).

123 Saint Kitts is host to four main volcanic centres (**Fig. 1b**). Volcanic activity has
124 migrated from the Salt Pond Peninsula centre in the south (2.3 Ma; Baker, 1968) to the active
125 Mt Liamuiga centre in the north (Baker, 1968). Parasitic Peléan domes outcrop across the

126 island around each of the four main centres. There are no dacites on Saint Kitts and the only
127 example of rhyolite crops out on Scotch Bonnet, a promontory at the south-eastern end of the
128 Salt Pond Peninsula. The central and south-eastern parts of the island are composed mostly of
129 pyroxene-andesite lava flows, domes and agglomerates (Baker and Holland, 1973). Saint Kitts
130 provides a useful end member for the northern Antilles with respect to its trace element
131 variation and low K₂O content in the erupted products (Macdonald et al., 2000).

132 Mt Liamuiga is the active stratovolcano in the north of the island. Activity initiated at
133 ~ 42 ka (Roobol et al., 1981), with no confirmed reports of eruptions after its European
134 settlement in 1624 despite continued fumarolic activity. Eruption products are typically basaltic
135 and basaltic-andesite lava flows, pyroclastic flows and fall deposits (this study; Toothill et al.,
136 2007). The volcanic units of Mt Liamuiga are grouped into the Mansion Series, first described
137 by Baker (1968), which is one of the best preserved volcanic sequences of any Lesser Antilles
138 island. It derives its name from the type locality in a ravine below Mansion village (**Fig. 1b**),
139 with a new type locality proposed at Phillips Gut after the covering of lower strata by a local
140 rubbish tip (Roobol et al., 1985). The original sub groupings of the Mansion Series from Baker
141 (1968) were revised by Roobol et al (1981) to consist of 6 main groups (Units A – F). The
142 oldest deposits, the focus of this study, are the Lower Green Lapilli (A) and Upper Green
143 Lapilli (C) which are separated by the Cinder Unit (B). The Green Lapilli layers consist
144 primarily of grey-green, angular, aphyric, micro-vesicular lapilli of andesitic composition, a
145 rock type not noted elsewhere in the Lesser Antilles. They have been interpreted by Baker
146 (1980) as fragments of volcanic bombs due to their faceted, rhomboidal form, and by Roobol
147 et al (1985) as phreatomagmatic deposits due to their lack of vesicles and angularity. The
148 eruptive sequence resumes at 4270 BP ± 140 until 2070 ± 150 (Baker, 1985) with units D – F.
149 They comprise of interbedded ash, pumice fall deposits and pyroclastic flows, along with
150 intercalations of the Steel Dust Series fall deposits on the western flanks of Mt Liamuiga.

151

152 **3. Methods**

153

154 *3.1. Fieldwork*

155 Samples were collected from a 6.8 m, well-exposed stratigraphic section on the east coast of
156 Saint Kitts (17.38725, -62.76276; halfway between the villages of Mansion and Tabernacle;
157 **Fig. 2**). This section encapsulates the “Pre-Mansion Series pyroclastic deposits” (> 43000 BP)
158 and Mansion Series units A – C (> 41420 to > 41730 BP) which have been dated using ¹⁴C
159 (Harkness et al., 1994; Roobol et al., 1981). The outcrop was first cleaned with a shovel to
160 reach a fresh surface. Thicknesses between units were measured and representative samples of
161 juvenile material collected for chemical analysis. Juvenile material was considered as pumice,
162 mafic scoria or volcanic ash. Palaeosoils were distinguishable by colour, texture, fragments of
163 disaggregated pumiceous material, and the presence of Cerion (a genus of tropical land snail).
164 Beds were sampled at clear changes in deposit form or macroscopic mineralogy in order to
165 capture the full variability of the sequence. Basic field observations are summarised in
166 **Supplementary Table 1.**

167

168 *3.2. Whole Rock Major and Trace Elements*

169 Selected samples were cleaned and dried in an oven at 60 °C for 24 hours. The dried samples
170 were then crushed, sieved to < 500 µm and milled to a fine, homogeneous powder using an
171 agate mill. Glass beads were made from the resulting powder using a PANalytical EAGON-2
172 fusion machine on a pre-set silicate programme at the University of Geneva. Major element
173 analysis was performed on the glass beads by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) using a PANalytical
174 AXIOS MAX with a rhodium anode tube at 4W at the University of Lausanne. DA-12, NIM-
175 N and NIM-G standards were used for quality control. A suite of trace elements was measured

176 on the glass beads by Laser Ablation Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (LA ICP
177 MS) at the University of Lausanne using a Quadrupole Agilent 7700 spectrometer interfaced
178 to a GeoLas 200M 193nm excimer ablation system. The NIST SRM 612 external standard was
179 measured at the beginning and end of every four unknowns. Data was reduced using the SILLIS
180 data reduction software (Guillong et al., 2008) with SiO₂ (wt%) from XRF analysis used as the
181 internal standard. Major element whole rock measurements and selected trace elements for the
182 samples used in this study are found in **Supplementary Table 2**.

183

184 *3.3. Electron Probe Micro-analyser (EPMA)*

185 In-situ mineral analyses of plagioclase were performed on 30 µm polished thin sections using
186 a JEOL 8200 Superprobe at the University of Geneva and a JEOL JXA-8530F at the University
187 of Lausanne. Both microprobes were equipped with a five-channel wavelength-dispersive
188 spectroscopy system (WDS) and were operated at an accelerating voltage of 15 keV, a beam
189 current of 15 nA, and a beam diameter of 5 µm. Quantitative analyses were made using a
190 variety of internal standards (orthoclase [Si, K], andalusite [Al], albite [Na], forsterite [Mg],
191 fayalite [Fe], wollastonite [Ca], Mn-Ti-oxide [Mn, Ti], Cr-oxide [Cr]). Mineral analyses were
192 targeted to span the full variability of plagioclase zoning in a given thin section, typically using
193 transects. X-ray maps were measured on a representative part of 9 selected thin sections using
194 a 20 µm pixel size to map a total area of $\geq 100 \text{ mm}^2$ (≥ 250000 pixels) with an analysis time of
195 ~ 21 hours per sample (10 elements, 2 passes). Analysis conditions were 15 keV, 100 nA, 150
196 ms dwell time and a 5 µm beam.

197

198 *3.4. Textural segmentation*

199 Phase separation was performed using a finite mixture model on the EPMA counts maps of all
200 10 measured elements (Sheldrake and Higgins, 2021). This produced a phase map of all silicate

201 and oxide minerals, as well as the matrix of microlites and silicate glass (**Supplementary Fig.**
202 **1**). Plagioclase was then isolated from the phase map for textural segmentation. For each
203 plagioclase crystal in turn, spatially constrained regions of pixels with similar chemical
204 composition (superpixels) were identified (Sheldrake & Higgins, 2021). Superpixels were
205 initiated around a grid of regularly spaced central pixels (centroid). The algorithm then
206 iteratively searches in a grid around each superpixel centroid, calculating a spatial-chemical
207 distance between each pixel in the grid and the respective centroid. The spatial-chemical
208 distance is a weighted function based on the spatial difference (i.e., in X and Y coordinates)
209 and chemical difference (i.e., in normalised counts of Na and Ca). We used the default weights
210 presented in Sheldrake and Higgins (2021). If the new spatial-chemical distance is smaller than
211 the previous iteration the given pixel is assigned into that superpixel. Superpixels within the
212 crystal were then compared using an Affinity Propagation (AP) algorithm, which generates a
213 similarity matrix and groups together similar superpixels. These groups of superpixels are
214 spatially and chemically defined and their shape and distribution match with zoning patterns
215 observed in the crystal (e.g., high anorthite core, low anorthite rim). In order to compare
216 crystals (from the same and different samples) the chemical counts maps were calibrated. This
217 uses a series of quantitative EPMA points, analysed in the same analytical session, to produce
218 anorthite maps (where anorthite number, An# = $[Ca^{2+} / Ca^{2+} + Na^{+} + K^{+}] * 100$). Error on
219 anorthite calibrations are typically ≤ 2 mol%, comparable to errors from calibrated BSE images
220 (Ginibre et al., 2002). Each segmented zone can then be defined by an anorthite distribution.
221 In this study segmentation generates crystals that are divided into between 1 and 4 unique
222 chemical zones per crystal (**Fig. 3a – c**; although this number is not user determined *a priori*).
223 To correlate the chemical zones, we calculate the median distance between their respective
224 anorthite distributions. (Sheldrake and Higgins, 2021). Using hierarchical clustering we
225 classify 13 zoning groups which are defined as spatial-chemical regions that share comparable

226 anorthite distributions. Crystal populations are then defined as groups of crystals that contain
227 the same combination of zoning group(s) as determined by the segmentation method.

228

229 **4. Results**

230

231 *4.1. Stratigraphic whole rock geochemistry*

232 The whole rock SiO₂ content varies between 50.6 to 63.3 wt% (**Fig. 4**), spanning much of the
233 total variability on the island (47.5 to 65.4 wt% SiO₂, excluding the rhyolite at Scotch Bonnet;
234 this study; Baker, 1968; Toothill et al., 2007). In general, no clear pattern in whole rock
235 chemistry emerges in time. SiO₂ broadly decreases from a maximum at the base (63.6 wt%) to
236 a minimum at 500 cm (50.6 wt%), followed by a resurgence to andesitic values. The silica
237 minimum is followed by a 70 cm thick palaeosoil layer. This sequence is punctuated by non-
238 systematic oscillations between ~56 wt% and ~62 wt% SiO₂. SiO₂ and CaO variations on Saint
239 Kitts are remarkably well correlated, not only for this sequence but all lava and pyroclastic
240 samples on the island. FeO has a negative correlation with SiO₂ accordant with Saint Kitts'
241 classification as tholeiitic – calc-alkaline transitional (Macdonald et al., 2000). There is a
242 notable minimum in iron at 500 cm, consistent with a ~4 cm layer of dark, basaltic (Fe-rich)
243 scoria.

244

245 *4.2. Mineralogy*

246 Mineral phase abundances for all mapped samples (expressed in volume percent) can be seen
247 in **Fig. 5**. Olivine is present only in SK391 and SK392, forming rounded phenocrysts and
248 monomineralic clots as well as in a reaction relationship with clinopyroxene and orthopyroxene
249 (SK392). In SK392 (a basaltic scoria) olivine has marked normal zoning in some phenocrysts.
250 Plagioclase is a dominant phenocryst throughout (54 – 83 vol%), showing no correlation

251 between phase abundance and whole rock SiO₂. Clinopyroxene is only saturated in those
252 samples that contain olivine (SK391, SK392), typically associated with orthopyroxene as clots.
253 Orthopyroxene is easily identified by its pale green – pale brown colour in plane polarised light
254 (ppl) and the coprecipitation of Fe-oxides growing as inclusions in the rim and, less commonly,
255 in the core. It is typically unzoned but may exhibit weak oscillatory or reverse zoning (SK408).
256 The presence of orthopyroxene results in amphibole becoming subordinate as a mafic phase
257 (**Fig. 5**). Amphibole is a common phenocryst phase in the pyroclastic rocks, and plutonic and
258 cumulate inclusions erupted on Saint Kitts, but is rare to absent in the lava and dome rocks
259 (Baker, 1980; Melekhova et al., 2017; Toothill et al., 2007). Phenocrysts are generally fresh,
260 showing no signs of decompression induced breakdown or reactions. Oxides are found in all
261 samples excluding SK385. Quartz occurs solely in SK408 as large (< 2.1 mm), rounded
262 crystals, commonly with randomly orientated fractures and embayments. Matrix (including
263 glass and microlites) ranges from 70 – 95 vol%. The matrix proportion does not vary
264 systematically with silica, with the most basaltic sample (SK392) containing a notable
265 abundance of phenocryst phases (70 vol % matrix).

266

267 *4.3. Plagioclase*

268 Plagioclase varies in its chemistry (expressed as An#) and texture both within and between
269 erupted samples. The area fraction of An# for each sample is plotted in **Fig. 6**. We divide
270 plagioclase into two groups: (i) phenocryst plagioclase that were used for zone segmentation
271 with crystal areas $\geq 1620 \mu\text{m}^2$ (81 pixels); and (ii) matrix plagioclase, with crystal areas < 1620
272 μm^2 (81 pixels). Importantly, by using the method of Sheldrake and Higgins (2021) we ensure
273 that mixed pixels (between plagioclase and another phase) do not contribute to the plagioclase
274 chemical distributions in **Fig. 6**. Phenocrysts are typically euhedral and tabular with broken

275 crystals evidenced by discontinued zoning patterns in An#. Matrix plagioclase is present as
276 acicular (e.g., SK385) as well as stubby, prismatic crystals (e.g. SK387).

277 The mean An# of all plagioclase crystals (phenocrysts + matrix) broadly increases
278 vertically through the stratigraphy (55 – 87), with units in the upper half displaying more
279 pronounced bimodality in An# distributions (**Fig. 6a**). Whole rock chemistry (**Fig. 4**) and mean
280 An# of all plagioclase are decoupled throughout such that samples with near identical whole
281 rock SiO₂ (e.g. SK391 [61.8 wt%] and SK385 [61.4 wt%]; **Fig. 6a**) have contrasting An#
282 distributions. Conversely, samples with different whole rock SiO₂ (e.g. SK392 [50.6 wt%] and
283 SK394A [60.3 wt%]; **Fig. 6a**) can exhibit similar mean and range of An#. Phenocryst
284 plagioclase chemistry is also decoupled from whole rock chemistry (**Fig. 4; Fig. 6b**), with the
285 mean An# of phenocrysts consistently higher than the distributions of all plagioclase (**Fig. 6a,**
286 **b**). Bimodality is still present in phenocryst plagioclase distributions and, in some cases,
287 becomes more pronounced with respect to the distributions obtained considering all plagioclase
288 (SK387, SK394A, SK394C; **Fig. 6a, b**). The sawtooth phenocryst distributions for SK385,
289 SK386B and SK387, are a result of the smaller number of phenocrysts large enough for
290 segmentation (**Supplementary Fig. 2**). Rims of phenocrysts (defined as the outermost pixel of
291 each crystal) are also translated towards higher An# and show wide, rather than unimodal,
292 distributions that restrict in range towards the top of the section (**Fig. 6c**). Phenocryst rims do
293 not converge towards a single value (or tighter range of values) compared with phenocryst
294 plagioclase for a given eruption. Instead, wider phenocryst An# distributions produce
295 proportionally wide phenocryst rim distributions, potentially reflecting exposure of
296 disequilibrium cores and mantles in thin section due to crystal fracturing (see **Discussion**). In
297 contrast to phenocrysts, matrix plagioclase show unimodal distributions of An# with the
298 exception of some wider tails up to An# 95 (**Fig. 6d**). Mean An# is consistently increasing with
299 stratigraphic height, reaching a stable value of An# ~85 in the upper three units. SK408 An#

300 distributions remain similar for both phenocryst and matrix plagioclase, retaining the tail to
301 higher An#.

302 The complex, bimodal phenocryst distributions (**Fig. 6b**) reflect the composite
303 phenocryst textures that vary widely between samples. The basal unit (SK408) contains
304 euhedral phenocrysts, which are oscillatory zoned in the core and normally zoned in the rim,
305 as well as normally zoned microphenocrysts (An# 50 – 90). SK385 has sparse phenocrysts
306 (An# 70 – 90) that are predominantly weakly zoned with a sieve textured core. SK386B and
307 SK387 show similar textural and chemical features in plagioclase. Both samples have an
308 alignment of the acicular matrix plagioclase (An# 50 – 70), likely a result of bubble expansion
309 during ascent (Degruyter et al., 2019). Phenocrysts are normally zoned, ranging from An# 70
310 – 95, with sieve texture in the mantle of some larger crystals. SK390 represents a transition to
311 a larger proportion of high An# (90 – 98) plagioclase phenocrysts which exhibit normal zoning
312 and a sieve textured mantle. SK391 has plagioclase with numerous melt inclusions and cracks,
313 giving a “shredded” appearance in the phase maps (**Supplementary Fig. 1**). Oscillatory
314 zoning, occasionally initiating from an anorthitic core (85 – 90), is common. Unzoned high
315 An# crystals are also present. SK392 contains abundant melt inclusions which are typically
316 concentrated in the core or mantle but can be pervasive throughout the crystal. Phenocrysts
317 have a wide variety of textures despite a relatively limited span of An# (75 – 95). Crystals can
318 be homogeneous, as well as displaying both normal and oscillatory zoning. Generally, the
319 oscillatory zoned mantle – rim is smaller in areal extent than the homogeneous, high anorthite
320 cores where they are present. SK394A has normally zoned, An# 80 – 95 plagioclase, with wide,
321 high An# cores in the largest phenocrysts. However, in SK394C, the cores are on average lower
322 in An# (85 – 90) compared with SK394A (excluding rare excursions to an An# ~95 mantle)
323 and lower in the rims (An# 75 as opposed to An# 80).

324 Complex textures and zoning features that reappear frequently throughout the sequence
325 suggest that plagioclase zoning may be correlated between samples. **Fig. 7** shows the results
326 of the image segmentation technique whereby individual crystals are divided into chemical and
327 textural zones. Each zone is then assigned to a zoning group on the basis of their similar An#
328 distributions (e.g. **Fig. 3d**). Samples vary with respect to the number of zoning groups present:
329 some samples (e.g., SK408, SK391) are dominated by specific zoning groups whereas other
330 samples (e.g., SK392, SK385) contain a wider array of zoning groups (**Fig. 7**). Zoning groups
331 that include numerous samples (e.g., 2, 5, 7) are consistently higher in mean An#: likely these
332 compositions reflect the dominant conditions of crystal growth within the magmatic system,
333 which is ultimately revealed in the recurrence of samples containing the same zoning groups.
334 Zoning group 10 is made up mostly of high An# cores found in rare phenocrysts of SK387,
335 SK391, SK392, SK394A and SK394C (**Fig. 7**). Those samples with crystals which belong to
336 multiple zoning groups (SK408, SK385, SK390, SK391) have appreciably wider An#
337 distributions of phenocryst plagioclase (**Fig. 6b**).

338 Crystal populations can be defined as groups of crystals that contain the same
339 combination of zoning group(s) (**Fig. 8**). Thus, a single population represents crystals that have
340 likely experienced the same growth conditions within the magmatic system. There is an overall
341 reduction in the number of populations per sample from the bottom to the top of the
342 stratigraphy, with crystals comprised solely of zoning group 2 becoming more abundant with
343 time. Each deposit contains a unique combination of populations, with some overlap in
344 populations between samples. In general, the thicker deposits (e.g., SK391, SK390) comprise
345 a higher number of populations than thinner deposits (e.g., SK385, SK394A; **Fig. 8**). The
346 thickest deposits (including the basal flow which was > 3m thick with no base visible) contain
347 a larger number of crystal populations composed of three and four zoning groups (orange and
348 red boxes in **Fig. 8**).

349

350 **5. Discussion**

351

352 *5.1. Whole rock – anorthite decoupling*

353 Stratigraphic whole rock plots (e.g. **Fig. 4**) can highlight temporal geochemical patterns, which
354 can be linked to volcanic and geochemical processes such as progressive or cyclical
355 differentiation (e.g. Gertisser and Keller, 2003) or changes in eruptive style (e.g. Baker and
356 Holland, 1973). However, for the stratigraphic section we investigated, no regular pattern in
357 the whole rock chemistry can be observed (**Fig. 4**). Whole rock trends instead show short
358 wavelength cyclicity, largely uncorrelated with matrix or phenocryst plagioclase An# (**Fig. 4,**
359 **6**). Such a decoupling is unsurprising in the case of phenocrysts (**Fig. 6b**) considering that
360 crystals in magmatic systems can experience contrasting, and often complex, histories before
361 being incorporated into the same erupted magma volume prior to eruption (Davidson et al.,
362 2007; Humphreys et al., 2006). Phenocrysts may have a hybrid origin, whereby part of the
363 crystal is antecrystic (a crystal in equilibrium with an earlier pulse of magma which is
364 incorporated into later pulses) and is then overgrown from the melt in which it is entrained.
365 Unravelling the histories of these crystals requires extensive experimental work and/or
366 thermodynamic modelling which can still recover non-unique P-T-X-H₂O pathways (Cashman
367 and Blundy, 2013).

368 The disconnect between whole rock and phenocryst chemistry is noted in a variety of
369 systems and for a range of mineral phases (e.g. Kahl et al., 2013). However, matrix plagioclase
370 crystals generally crystallise during the magma's final assembly and ascent to the surface
371 (Hammer and Rutherford, 2002) and are hence more likely to be in equilibrium with the melt.
372 The anorthite content of plagioclase is largely modulated by changes in the temperature and
373 water content of the melt, with hotter and wetter melts producing more An-rich plagioclase

374 (Sisson and Grove, 1993). Moving up the stratigraphy, distributions of the matrix An# become
375 tighter and mean values increase (**Fig. 6d**). This implies a progressive increase of temperature
376 and thermal homogenisation within the magmatic plumbing system, noting the caveat that melt
377 water content may also influence plagioclase chemistry. The large-volume basal unit (SK408;
378 Pre-Mansion Pyroclastics) in the stratigraphy contains a wide range of phenocryst
379 compositions, potentially reflecting the eruption of a large portion of an evolved magmatic
380 reservoir. Hence, we suggest the lower units (A-C) of the Mansion series, that overlay SK408,
381 result from continued replenishment of the subvolcanic system of Saint Kitts. This has driven
382 thermal and chemical homogenisation (Annen et al., 2006), and a progressive increase in the
383 proportion of mafic compositions in the subvolcanic reservoir (Weber et al., 2020) (**Fig. 5; Fig.**
384 **6**).

385 The high An# tails in the chemical distribution of matrix plagioclase (**Fig. 6d**) may
386 either represent entrained crystals, mixed populations of matrix plagioclase, or be the
387 consequence of fragmentation of the more anorthitic phenocrysts. The latter is consistent with
388 both the fragmented nature of pyroclastic rocks in general (Miwa and Geshi, 2012) and the
389 wide distributions of phenocryst rims (**Fig. 6c**), potentially reflecting exposure of mantles and
390 cores not in equilibrium with the matrix glass. To explore this further, we quantify the degree
391 of fragmentation of the phenocrysts for each sample which first requires a validation of the
392 image segmentation method followed by an analysis of the phenocryst zoning patterns.

393

394 *5.2. Intra-unit correlation*

395 The robustness of the segmentation technique was explored using sample SK392, a mafic (50.6
396 wt% SiO₂) scoria layer. In order to map a total area of > 100 mm², three separate scoria pieces
397 from the deposit were individually scanned, effectively representing three random samples of
398 the same eruption. Segmentation identified the same five zoning groups in all three scoriae

399 independently (**Fig. 7**), despite their small scan areas (50 mm², 25 mm², and 25 mm²
400 respectively), as well as several commonalities in crystal populations (**Fig. 8**). All scoriae are
401 similar in both their populations present and the abundances of each population. SK394A, a
402 subsequent eruption, has plagioclase composed of most of the same zoning groups as SK392.
403 However, SK394A has fewer populations (5; **Fig. 8**) than SK392, despite some overlap in
404 certain populations between the two samples (e.g., population 2,5 and population 2,10).
405 SK394A is dominated by homogeneous population 2 crystals and many crystal populations
406 composed of multiple zoning groups contain zoning group 2 (**Fig. 8**). In contrast, SK392 has
407 notably more populations composed of two zoning groups per crystal compared to SK394A,
408 although homogeneous population 2 crystals are also present in SK392.

409 The reproducibility of both zoning groups and populations for a single eruption
410 (SK392A – C) as well as the contrasting populations observed in a subsequent event (SK394A)
411 suggests that the crystal populations present, and their proportions provide a unique fingerprint
412 for samples of a given volcanic eruption (**Fig. 8**). Hence, the segmentation approach we present
413 here may also prove useful for the correlation of tephra layers between outcrops. We would
414 expect the similarity between samples of the same eruption to converge as the scan area
415 increases i.e., more crystals quantified. Furthermore, duplication of crystal textures between
416 scoriae from the same sample (SK392) implies a reproducible process that is collecting a
417 unique combination of zoned crystals from within the magmatic plumbing system prior to
418 eruption. This supports the current understanding of a lensed magmatic system composed of
419 pockets of melt and crystals whereby one eruption is derived from a given melt lens
420 (Christopher et al., 2015). Some crystals may be obtained from the melt lens itself and some
421 may be entrained during ascent to the surface, but this process is duplicatable and likely path
422 dependent for a given event. These lenses may each be variably differentiated and mixed before
423 final shallow storage and eruption (e.g. Cooper et al., 2019).

424

425 *5.3. Variability in the complexity of plagioclase phenocrysts between eruptive units*

426 Following the verification of the method for a single sample, we can now examine how crystal
427 populations change through time between eruptions. **Fig. 8** demonstrates that populations are
428 shared between multiple volcanic units, and that certain populations may disappear and
429 reappear throughout the stratigraphy. There exists no volcanic unit which is represented by a
430 single population despite the segmentation algorithm theoretically allowing this, supporting
431 the idea that phenocrysts have experienced multiple thermo-chemical conditions of growth
432 prior to eruption.

433 Considering the number of populations present in a given sample (**Fig. 8**) as a proxy
434 for textural complexity reveals an evolution throughout the stratigraphic sequence that is not
435 evident from whole rock data alone. In conjunction with An# distributions (**Fig. 6**), this serves
436 to identify dominant crystal assemblages. The progressive increase in matrix An# (**Fig. 6d**) is
437 coupled with a broad decrease in the overall textural complexity of plagioclase phenocrysts in
438 time, with 20 populations present in the basal unit and only 7 at the top of the sequence (**Fig.**
439 **8**). Additionally, there is a transition from crystals distributed between multiple populations
440 (SK408) to homogeneous population 2 crystals becoming by far the most dominant (SK394A
441 and SK394C; **Fig. 8**). In fact, population 2 crystals are the most common for the sequence as a
442 whole (**Fig. 8**), present in 5 of the 9 stratigraphic units. We suggest that population 2 crystals
443 reflect the injected magma based on their ubiquity throughout the sequence as well as their
444 high abundance and homogeneity in the upper units, which contain the most anorthitic
445 plagioclase. These upper units are mineralogically “clean” in that they contain tight chemical
446 distributions of matrix plagioclase, and phenocryst rims that match closely to matrix chemistry
447 (**Fig. 6c, 6d**).

448 Superimposed on this overall reduction in complexity is a dependence between the bed
449 thickness and the textural complexity, such that thicker beds (SK390, SK391, SK408) contain
450 the highest number of crystal populations. Additionally, the thickest units (SK390, SK391,
451 SK408) contain the highest number of populations composed of three and four zoning groups
452 per crystal (e.g. population 5,9,10 and population 2,4,6,9; **Fig. 8**). Hence there appears to be a
453 combination of two competing effects influencing the textural complexity of crystals in the
454 erupted products. One is the chemical and physical heterogeneity within the pre-eruptive
455 storage region sampled by an eruption. The other is the erupted volume, assuming that bed
456 thickness is proportional to eruption magnitude, with larger eruptions sampling greater regions
457 of the magmatic plumbing system and hence a greater variety of crystals (phenocrysts or
458 antecrysts). The occurrence of larger events midway through the stratigraphy (SK390, SK391)
459 implies that eruption magnitude is not controlled by the progressive thermal evolution observed
460 in An# (Discussion, above), at least at millennial timescales.

461

462 *5.4. Integrating physical volcanology and petrology using mineral zoning patterns*

463 A key aim of igneous petrology is to use chemical and textural information from rocks and
464 minerals to infer magmatic processes occurring at depth. In addition to our approach to segment
465 mineral zoning patterns, another parameter we can extract from our data is a quantification of
466 crystal fracturing. A consequence of stereology is that, irrespective of the cut orientation of a
467 crystal, the outermost zone should occupy the whole exterior of a crystal (Fig. 3 of Cheng et
468 al., 2017). The thickness of this rim is unlikely to be uniform due to cut orientation as well as
469 preferential growth on certain crystallographic faces (Holness, 2014). Many phenocrysts from
470 Saint Kitts with two or more zoning groups show incomplete growth of a single exterior zoning
471 group and, in many cases, the cutting of zoning patterns is evident in An# maps as well as thin
472 section (**Fig. 3**). A prime example can be seen in the inset of **Fig. 10** where a broken crystal

473 from SK408 would show a continuous exterior zoning group if it was not split in half. Hence
474 the rim of every crystal should, in theory, be represented by a single zoning group as per the
475 segmentation method. Deviation from this geometry can be related to crystal fracturing or
476 disequilibrium textures such as incomplete late-stage resorption of outer zones. As such we
477 have defined the fracture index (FI) as:

478

$$479 \text{ FI} = 100 - X_r \quad (1)$$

480

481 where X_r is the percentage of the outer rim that is assigned to the most abundant zoning group
482 (i.e., the higher FI the more fractured the crystal, where the rim is the outermost pixel of the
483 phenocryst from the chemical maps).

484 In all samples FI and the rim An# interquartile range are positively correlated,
485 suggesting that fracturing exposes the inner portions of the phenocrysts, effectively increasing
486 the compositional range of the outer rims (**Fig. 6c, Fig. 10**). There is also a relationship between
487 the presence of tails in matrix An# distributions (**Fig. 6d**) and the phenocryst sample mean
488 values in **Fig. 10** (large diamonds). SK390 and SK387 (higher FI, more fractured) have wide
489 matrix tails whereas SK394A, SK394C and SK386B (lower FI, less fractured) have narrower
490 distributions. This suggests fragments of phenocrysts are producing these tails and that the
491 modal value of An# rather than the range of its distribution is more representative of the matrix
492 plagioclase chemistry. Potential mechanisms of crystal fracturing include a brittle response to
493 stress perturbations in the magmatic system, melt inclusion decrepitation, bubble expansion,
494 or shearing in the conduit (van Zalinge et al., 2018).

495

496 **6. Conclusions**

497 The quantified chemical mapping of plagioclase has allowed us to interrogate magmatic
498 processes with a greater statistical significance compared to whole rock chemistry and EPMA
499 spot analyses alone. Further subdividing crystals on the basis of their size and textural
500 relationships (phenocryst, matrix, rim; **Fig. 6b – d**) reveals a clear disparity between phenocryst
501 plagioclase and matrix plagioclase. Matrix plagioclase present a progressive transition to less
502 evolved compositions (higher An#; **Fig. 6d**), likely driven by magma injection and
503 replenishment of the sub-volcanic reservoir. Understanding the timescales over which this
504 progressive increase and eventual saturation at high An# is repeated on Saint Kitts could be
505 used as a predictive metric for the length of eruption cycles. This pattern is largely independent
506 of whole rock trends which reveal more chaotic fluctuations (**Fig. 4**).

507 The 2D textural segmentation of phenocrysts has identified 13 different zoning groups
508 throughout the stratigraphy and 61 crystal populations (**Fig. 7, 8**). Populations of phenocrysts
509 are dispersed in time throughout the volcanic sequence, although homogeneous and high-
510 anorthite population 2 crystals become increasingly abundant towards the top (**Fig. 6, 8**).
511 Through the segmentation of zoning, we also show how the textural complexity of plagioclase
512 decreases toward the top of the section. Together, these quantitative parameters suggest the
513 contribution of mafic material injected from depth to the erupted magma increases
514 progressively through the sequence, resulting in the evolution towards a more mafic and more
515 homogeneous subvolcanic reservoir (**Fig. 6, 8**). Additionally, textural complexity correlates
516 with deposit thickness, such that the thickest deposits have the highest complexity, intimating
517 that higher volume eruptions have a propensity to sample larger, more heterogeneous regions
518 of the magmatic plumbing system.

519 In the future, fully quantifying the proportion of antecrystic versus phenocrystic crystal
520 populations (e.g. Neave et al., 2017) may be possible by combining the results of this study
521 with a similar analysis of plagioclase from the concomitant plutonic nodules erupted on Saint

522 Kitts (Macdonald et al., 2000; Melekhova et al., 2017). In general, applying the segmentation
523 method to plutonic systems may be useful to understand the dynamics in the roots of active
524 volcanoes as phenocryst zoning patterns tend to be better correlated in plutonic, compared to
525 volcanic, environments (Pietranik et al., 2006). Further information may be gained by coupling
526 the results of major element segmentation with zoning patterns from trace element mapping
527 (Ubide et al., 2015).

528 The ubiquity of plagioclase in volcanic rocks means this method could become a
529 powerful and widely applicable tool for tephrostratigraphy and mapping of volcanic units that
530 are difficult to correlate via conventional methods. However, this would require robust testing
531 to understand the statistical reproducibility of the populations using variations in scan area and
532 crystal number. Furthermore, applying the segmentation approach to other volcanoes could
533 provide new insights into relationships between textural complexity, fracture index and
534 eruptive dynamics. Understanding how these parameters vary within a stratigraphic context
535 could impart essential information to appreciate temporal dynamics of magmatic systems and
536 better anticipate the eruptive behaviour of volcanoes.

537

538

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703

704 **Figure Captions**

705

706 **Fig. 1. (a)** Map of the Lesser Antilles island arc modified after Toothill et al. (2007). The arc
707 is divided into the active Volcanic Caribbees (west) and inactive Limestone Caribbees (east).
708 Saint Kitts, the field area for this study, is located at the northern tip of the Volcanic Caribbees
709 **(b)** Geological map of Saint Kitts, Lesser Antilles, modified after Martin-Kaye (1959). The
710 island consists of four volcanic centres which young towards the NW. Peléan Style volcanic
711 domes of various ages outcrop across the island (e.g., Baker, 1968). Study locality is a sea cliff
712 showing a well-exposed pyroclastic sequence between the villages of Mansion and Tabernacle.

713

714 **Fig. 2. (a)** Stratigraphic sequence that is the focus of this study. A basal pyroclastic flow
715 separates the Lower Mansion Series (Unit A – C according to Roobol et al., 1981). Strata are

716 sub horizontal and show no signs of reworking. (b) Material was excavated to retrieve a fresh
717 surface for sampling and field measurements. (c) A land snail (genus: Cerion) inside a
718 palaeosoil layer.

719

720 **Fig. 3.** Example of image segmentation of plagioclase zoning inside exemplar crystals from
721 sample SK408. White areas within a crystal represent mixed pixels (e.g., containing melt
722 inclusions, cracks, etc). In this example segmentation splits plagioclase crystals in to up to three
723 distinct spatial-chemical zones (a – c). Zoning patterns from segmentation match well with
724 observations from Ca and Na zoning in chemical maps. The An# distribution of all segmented
725 zones from all crystals within the stratigraphy are compared using hierarchical clustering to
726 produce zoning groups in which An# distributions are comparable (d).

727

728 **Fig. 4.** Variation of selected major and trace elements of the Saint Kitts Lower Mansion Series
729 as a function of stratigraphic height (relative age). Samples chosen for quantitative mapping
730 are indicated by large, coloured symbols. Different deposits (see **Supplementary Table 1** for
731 details) are separated with horizontal lines. Palaeosoil horizons are shown in light brown.

732

733 **Fig. 5.** Modal mineralogy of crystals in volume % for all chemically mapped samples in
734 stratigraphic order (youngest at the base). Matrix volume % is shown as grey dots. Whole rock
735 wt% SiO₂ is reported for each unit on the right of each bar.

736

737 **Fig. 6.** An# distributions of plagioclase for all chemically mapped samples. Panels from left to
738 right are (a) all plagioclase, (b) phenocryst plagioclase that has been included in the textural
739 segmentation (with a crystal area ≥ 81 pixels or $1620 \mu\text{m}^2$), (c) phenocryst rims (outermost
740 pixel of all phenocrysts), and (d) matrix plagioclase (unsegmented plagioclase). Vertical black

741 dashed lines are the mean An# for each distribution. Grey points are whole rock wt% SiO₂.
742 Phenocrysts generally show bimodal distributions which reflect composite zoning patterns in
743 plagioclase phenocrysts. Matrix plagioclase show unimodal distributions with slight tails to
744 higher An# in places e.g. SK390. Matrix plagioclase An# correlates more strongly with whole
745 rock chemistry than phenocryst plagioclase. Distributions considering all plagioclase show
746 wider unimodal distributions that capture features from both segmented and matrix plagioclase.
747 Grey bar in 6(d) shows An# ~85 where mean of the anorthite distributions for matrix
748 plagioclase becomes invariant at the top of the sequence.

749

750 **Fig. 7.** An# distributions of all segmented crystals, divided into 13 zoning groups. Zoning
751 groups are ordered by decreasing abundance of crystals present in each group and coloured by
752 sample. Dashed lines signify the interquartile range of each An# distribution. Three pieces of
753 scoria were scanned for sample SK392 (A, B, C; upper x axis labels).

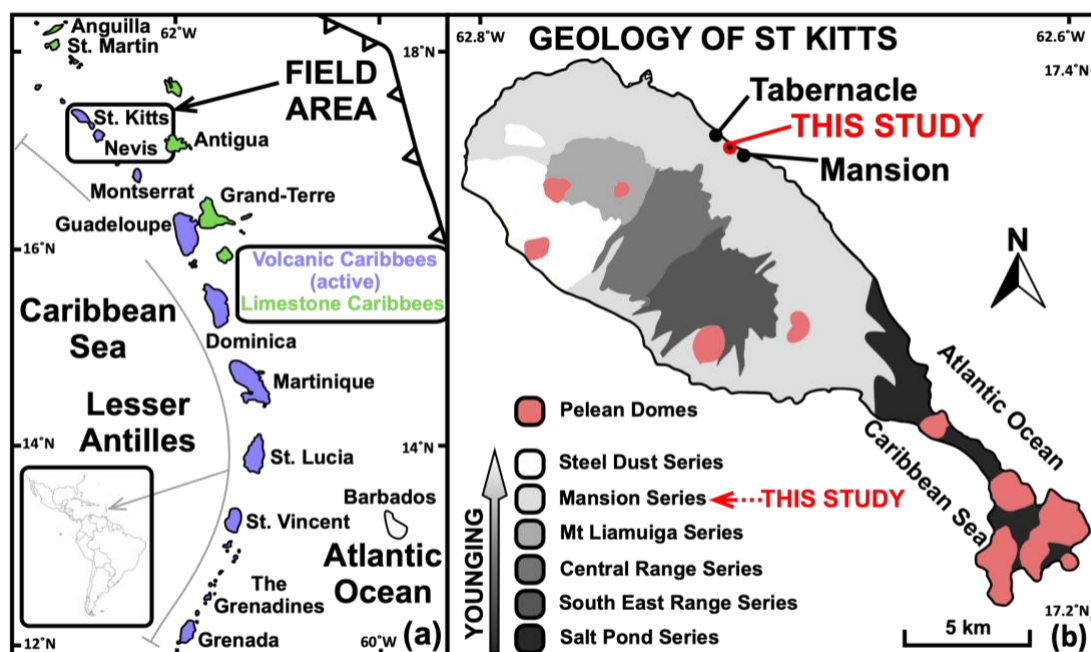
754

755 **Fig. 8.** Population abundance for each sample plotted in stratigraphic order. A population is
756 defined as crystals with the same combination of zoning groups e.g. “1, 13” would be crystals
757 composed of zoning group 1 + zoning group 13. Green, yellow, orange and red boxes denote
758 1, 2, 3 and 4 zonings group(s) per crystal respectively. The interiors of boxes are shaded for
759 abundance (% of crystals). SK394A and SK394C have amongst the lowest number of
760 populations, with homogeneous crystals of zoning group 2 dominating in both samples. Right
761 margin labels show volcanic deposit thickness (cm). In general, thicker deposits have a higher
762 number of crystal populations. Note that the three samples of SK392 contain near identical
763 crystal populations even using relatively small scan areas ($\leq 50 \text{ mm}^2$) for the chemical maps.

764

765 **Fig. 9.** Fracture index (FI) vs rim An# interquartile range of all phenocrysts (crystals subjected
 766 to zone segmentation). Crystals growing with concentric zoning patterns should have their
 767 youngest zone surrounding the crystal margin irrespective of cut section effects (Figure 3 of
 768 Cheng et al., 2017). One mechanism for this condition not being satisfied is that the crystal is
 769 fractured, exposing core or mantle zones on the outer margin of the crystal. This process is
 770 evident in thin section and chemical maps from the samples from Saint Kitts, as well as in the
 771 exemplar crystal from SK408 (inset of this figure). The fracture index is defined as 100 minus
 772 the percentage of the most abundant zoning group that occupies the crystal rim of each crystal
 773 (Eq. 1). The rim is defined as the outermost pixel of each crystal. The greater the fracture index
 774 the higher the likelihood of crystal fracturing. Those crystals with FI = 0 are all single zoning
 775 group crystals (crystals with FI = 0 have been jittered in the Y direction for clarity and lie
 776 within the grey shaded area). There is a correlation between the mean FI (diamonds) and the
 777 rim An# interquartile range, suggesting scatter in An# of phenocryst rims (Fig. 6c) is largely
 778 being controlled by crystal fracturing. Numbers inside diamonds relate to relative stratigraphic
 779 order of the samples (1 = oldest, 9 = youngest).

Figure images (with short captions for reference)



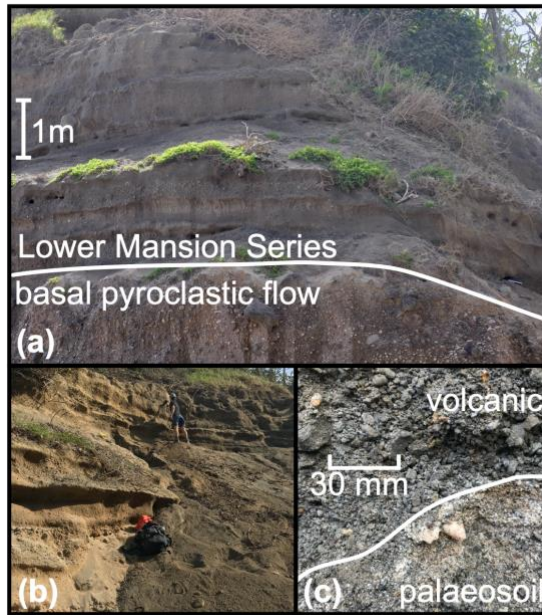


Fig. 2. Stratigraphic sequence that is the focus of this study.

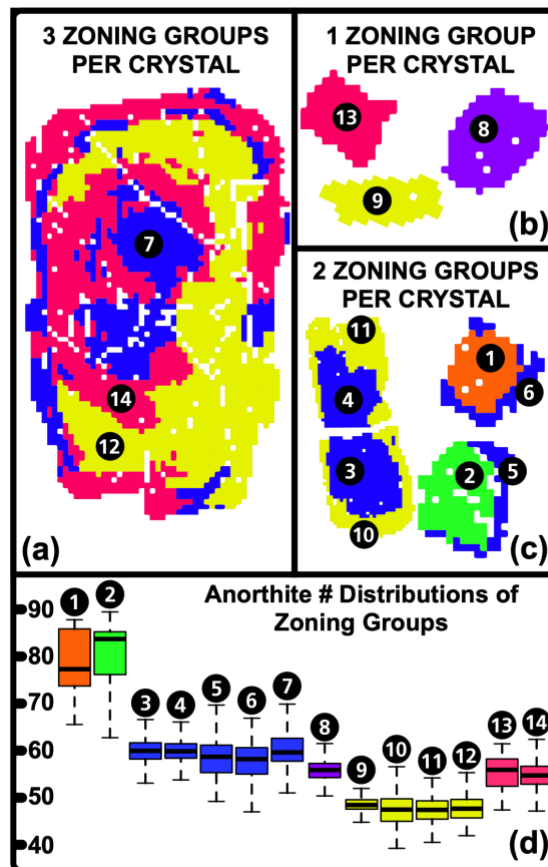


Fig. 3. Example of image segmentation of plagioclase zoning inside exemplar crystals from sample SK408.

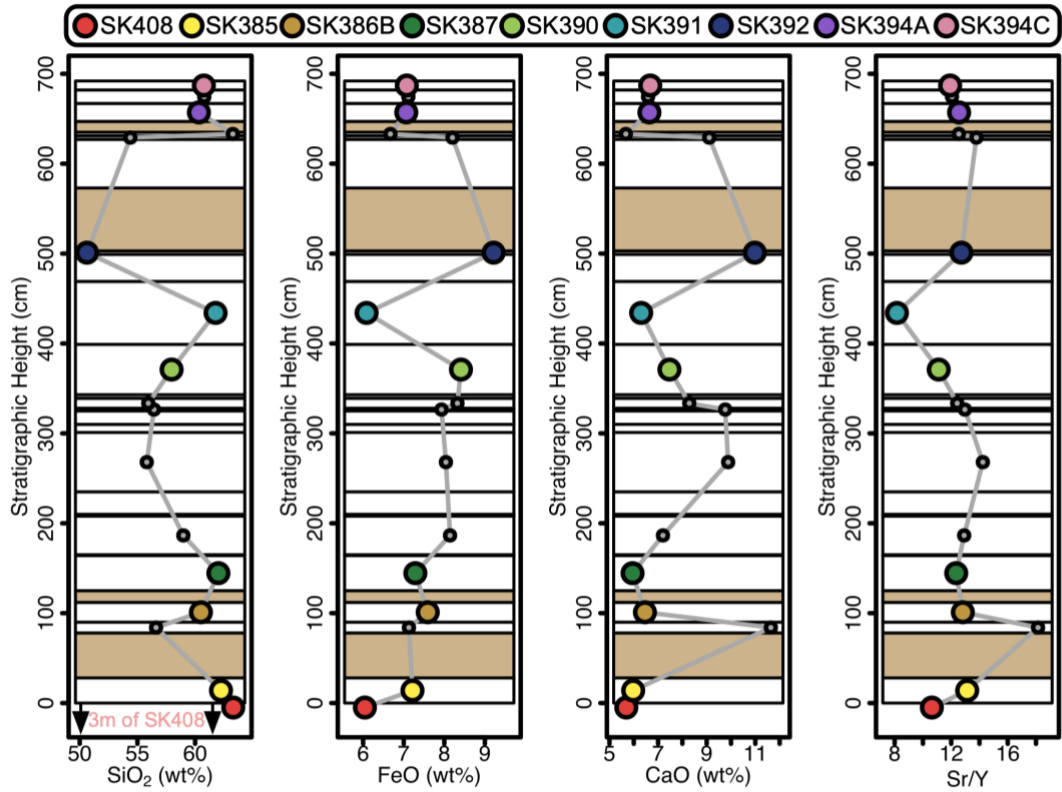


Fig. 4. Variation of selected major and trace elements of the Saint Kitts Lower Mansion Series as a function of stratigraphic height (relative age).

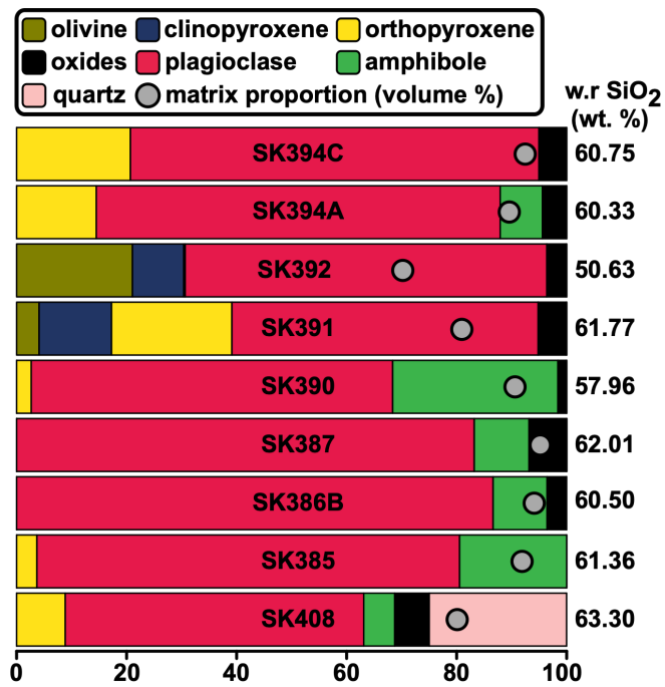


Fig. 5. Modal mineralogy of crystals in volume % for all chemically mapped samples in stratigraphic order (youngest at the base).

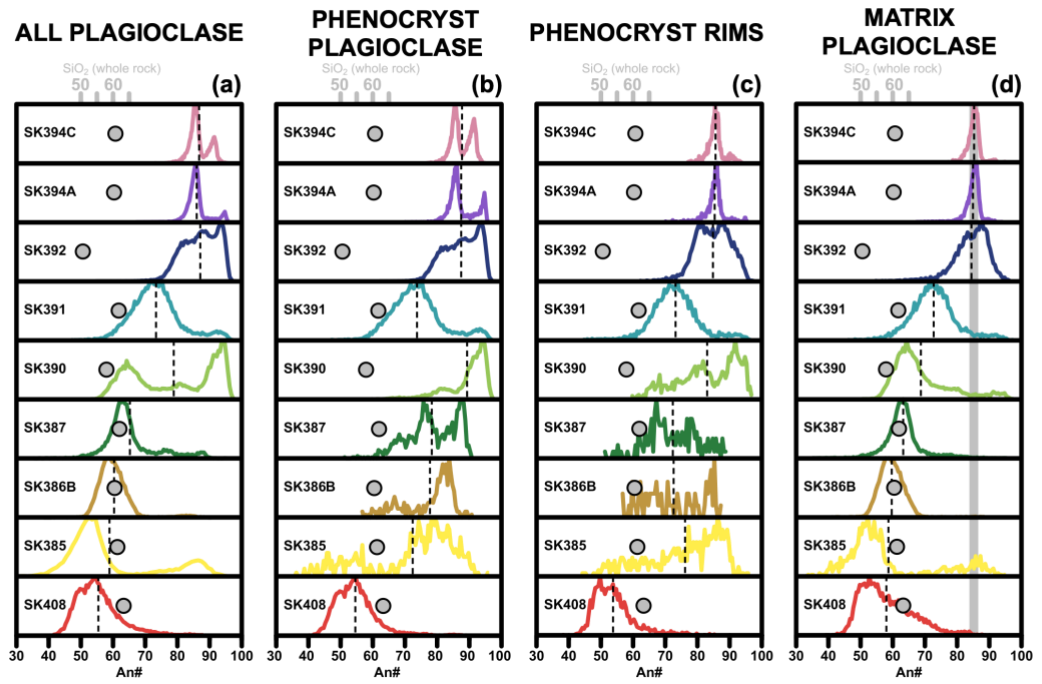


Fig. 6. An# distributions of plagioclase for all chemically mapped samples.

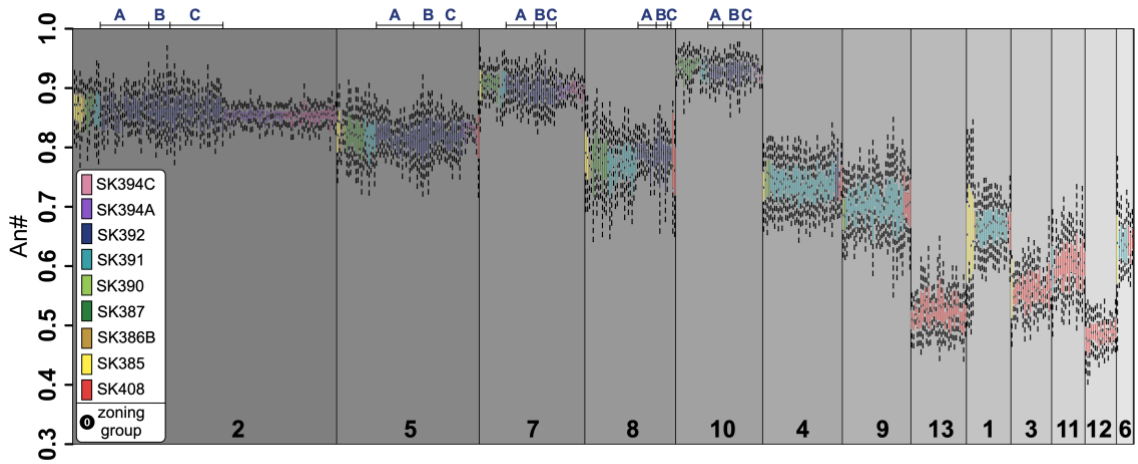


Fig. 7. An# distributions of all segmented crystals, divided into 13 zoning groups.

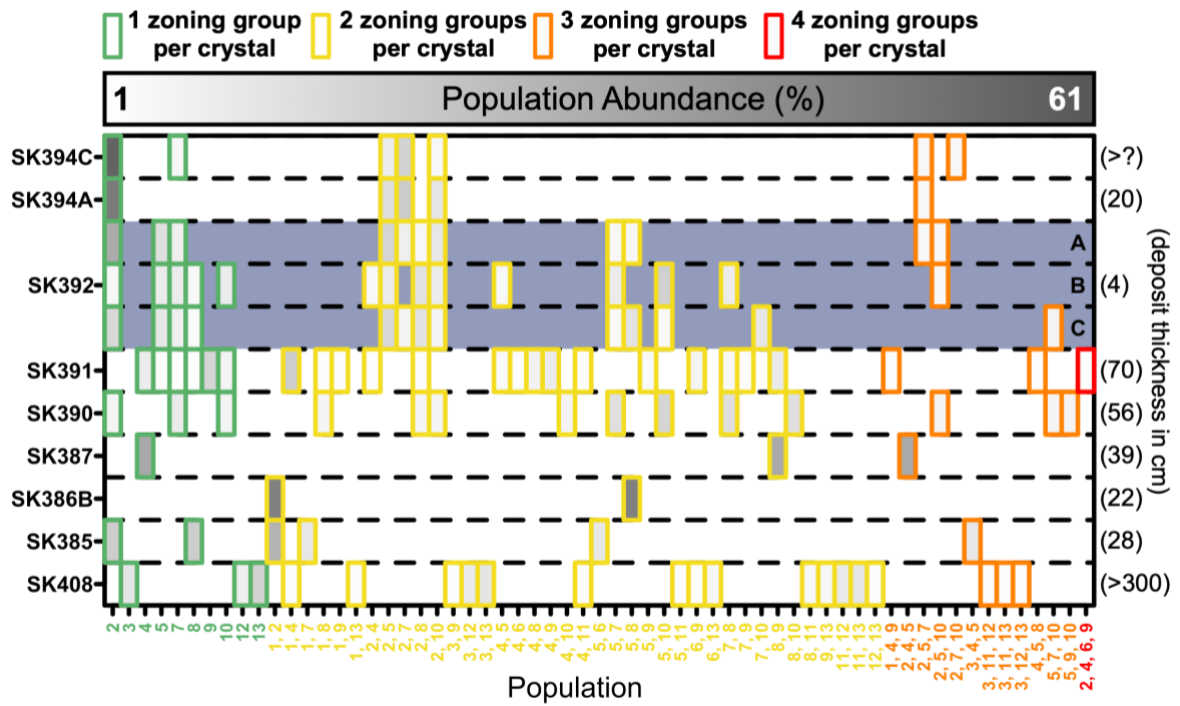


Fig. 8. Population abundance for each sample plotted in stratigraphic order.

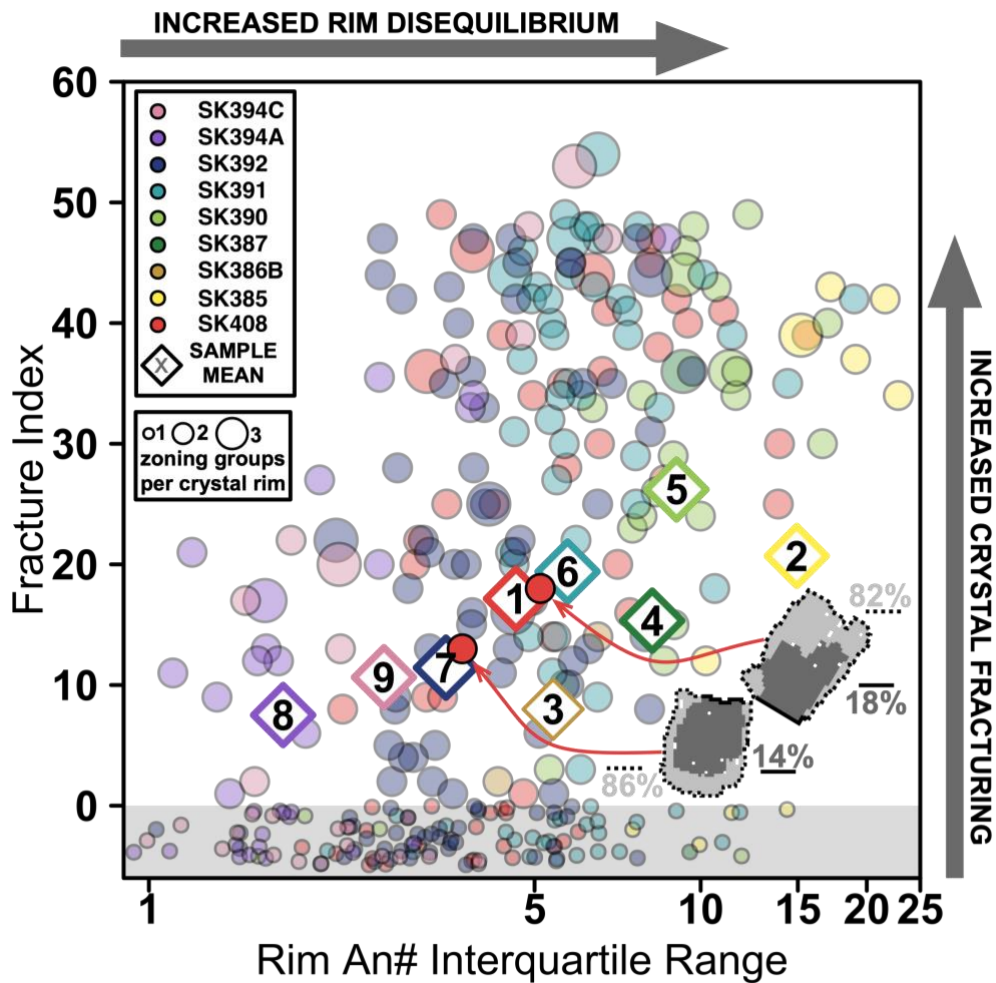


Fig. 9. Fracture index (FI) vs rim An# interquartile range of all phenocrysts (crystals subjected to zone segmentation).