

Trace elements and cathodoluminescence of igneous quartz in topaz granites from the Hub Stock (Slavkovský Les Mts., Czech Republic)

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Summary

Igneous quartz of the late-Variscan topaz-bearing granites from the Hub Stock (Slavkovský Les, Czech Republic) was investigated by cathodoluminescence (CL) and electron probe micro-analysis (EPMA) to demonstrate the intra-granular heterogeneity of growth patterns and trace element distribution in quartz. We show that EPMA is well suited for the *in situ* study of Al and Ti in zoned quartz, because of its high spatial resolution down to 5 µm in conjunction with the ability to combine spot analyses with CL imaging. In the quartz phenocrysts of the topaz granites high Ti is associated with blue luminescent growth zones. High Ti (>40 ppm) in quartz indicates a high crystallisation temperature and pressure. The groundmass quartz of the granites which is almost free of Ti, has higher Al than the phenocrysts which may reflect an increase of lithophile elements and water content in melt during the late magmatic stage. The occurrence of similar quartz phenocrysts in most of the late-Variscan granites and rhyolites of the Krušné Hory/Erzgebirge which intruded over a period of about 40 Ma points to a similar crystallisation environment and origin of the quartz phenocrysts in the lower to middle crust.

Introduction

Because of the limited mineral void space available in the quartz lattice and the relative high stability of Si–O bonds, it was long considered that the quartz

structure bears no genetic information. Some early studies, e.g. by the famous mineralogist *Fron del* (1934), noted that there is little chance of using compositional variations in quartz for genetic interpretations. Since then a number of studies have shown that trace element contents vary significantly within zoned quartz crystals as well as in quartz crystals from different environments (e.g., *Suttner and Leininger*, 1972; *Schrön et al.*, 1988; *Blankenburg et al.*, 1994).

The *in situ* trace element analysis of zoned quartz is technically difficult, because trace element concentrations in quartz are very low. Consequently, the relationship between quartz chemistry and petrogenesis is virtually unknown. Wavelength-dispersive electron probe micro-analysis (EPMA; *Lowenstern and Sinclair*, 1996; *Morgan et al.*, 1998; *Mullis and Ramseyer*, 1999; *Van den Kerkhof et al.*, 2001; *Müller et al.*, 2000, 2002a, b, 2003), ion mass spectrometry (IMS; *Shimizu et al.*, 1978; *Rovetta et al.*, 1989; *Perny et al.*, 1992; *Watt et al.*, 1997), and laser-ablation inductively-coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (LA ICP-MS; *Larsen et al.*, 2000; *Flem et al.*, 2002) are *in situ* micro-beam techniques which are suitable for quantitative analysis of trace elements in quartz. These methods may provide *in situ* element data with a high sensitivity and good spatial resolution, allowing for the quantitative determination of element zoning within single crystals. Because of its better spatial resolution in conjunction with the ability to combine spot analyses with cathodoluminescence (CL) imaging, EPMA proved the most reliable *in situ* method for obtaining quantitative trace element data of quartz at concentrations in excess of a few 10's of ppm and at the <10 μm scale (*Müller et al.*, 2003). For that reason, in this study EPMA is applied for the determination of trace element distribution in igneous quartz.

Electron-excited luminescence, or cathodoluminescence (CL), is a sensitive method for revealing growth zoning, alteration patterns, grain shapes and different generations of quartz, which are not distinguishable in transmitted or polarised light (e.g. *Seyedolali et al.*, 1997; *D'Lemos et al.*, 1997; *Watt et al.*, 1997; *Müller et al.*, 2000, 2002a, b; *Götze et al.*, 2001; *Holness and Watt*, 2001). Spatial variations of CL properties reflect structural and chemical variations within quartz crystals, which are related to crystal growth zones or alteration patterns. CL colour and intensity in quartz are generally controlled by activator and sensitizer elements (extrinsic lattice defects), such as Al, Ti, Fe, Mn, Ge, Li, Na, and H, and intrinsic defects (e.g., oxygen and silicon vacancies) (e.g., *Sprunt*, 1981; *Waychunas*, 1988; *Perny et al.*, 1992; *Stevens Kalceff and Phillips*, 1995; *Pagel et al.*, 2000; *Götze et al.*, 2001). Al^{3+} , Ti^{4+} , Fe^{3+} , and Ge^{4+} substitute for Si^{4+} and monovalent ions, such as H^+ , Li^+ , Na^+ , and K^+ act as compensators of the electric charge at interstitial positions (e.g. *Bambauer*, 1961; *Dennen*, 1965; *Lehmann*, 1975; *Lehmann and Bambauer*, 1973; *Maschmeyer and Lehmann*, 1983; *Weil*, 1984; *Bahadur*, 1993). Therefore, CL can be an indirect indicator of trace element distributions in quartz. Despite considerable benefits of the phenomenological investigation of the CL of quartz, the relationship between CL properties, trace elements, and petrogenesis is still not understood.

Compositional variations between growth zones in igneous quartz are caused by fluctuations in growth and diffusion rates in the melt through the crystal-melt boundary layer. Growth and diffusion rates are controlled either by a self-organising

intrinsic mechanism or by an extrinsic mechanism involving physical or chemical changes within the bulk system, such as crystal settling, large-scale convection, magma mixing, ascent velocity and related temperature and pressure changes (e.g. *Sibley et al.*, 1976; *Shore and Fowler*, 1996). The challenge, however, is to relate the different patterns of zoning to specific genetic processes.

This study is focused on igneous quartz from the topaz-bearing granites of the Hub Stock hosting the Krásno Sn-W deposit (Slavkovský Les Mountains, Czech Republic). Aims of this study are:

- the high resolution ($\sim 10\ \mu\text{m}$) trace element determination within quartz crystals by electron microprobe (EPMA),
- to illustrate links between trace element distribution and CL of quartz,
- to relate quartz growth patterns identified by CL to magma genetic processes,
- to discuss the petrogenetic significance of trace element distribution,
- and finally, to present some geological implications for late-Variscan magmatism.

Geological setting and petrography

The Krušné Hory/Erzgebirge batholith extends over an area of about 6000 km² and belongs to the largest Variscan granite bodies in the Bohemian Massif (Fig. 1). Topaz-albite granites that usually form granite stocks are traditionally related to the younger intrusive complex (YIC) of the Krušné Hory/Erzgebirge batholith (*Fiala*, 1968; *Lange et al.*, 1972). However, the topaz-albite granites of the Hub Stock form part of a complicated stock structure of topaz-albite granites, which are associated with the upper part of the Krásno Sn-W ore deposit (*Jarchovský et al.*, 1994; *René*, 1998). Topaz-albite granites in this part of the Slavkovský Les Mts. are part of the Krudum massif that forms a relatively independent magmatic body in the SW part of the Krušné Hory/Erzgebirge batholith.

The emplacement of the granite stock was associated with intensive tectonic deformation of slightly migmatized biotite paragneisses in the pre-Variscan basement. Intrusive breccias described in detail by *Jarchovský and Pavlů* (1991) and *Seltmann et al.* (1992) occur in the upper part of the Hub stock. The breccias are cemented by topaz-albite microgranites (Fig. 2), which form dykes penetrating the gneiss roof up to 100 m away from the contact (*Jarchovský and Pavlů*, 1991).

Topaz-albite microgranites (sample Ju-20) are aplitic (grain size: 200–500 μm) and rarely porphyritic. The microgranitic rocks include K-feldspars that are several millimetres in size as well as bipyramidal quartz (1.5–3 mm). The groundmass of the microgranitic rocks is composed of anhedral quartz, albite, Li-mica, K-feldspar, and primary topaz. Topaz-albite granites of the Hub stock are mostly medium-grained varieties, locally accompanied by fine-grained, porphyritic topaz-albite granite.

The porphyritic topaz-albite granite (sample Ju-10) has an equigranular groundmass (50–100 μm) of anhedral quartz, albite (An_{03-05}), K-feldspar, Li-mica, topaz, muscovite, and accessory minerals (apatite, zircon, rarely monazite, Nb-Ta rutile and other accessories, see Table 1). The phenocryst population is dominated

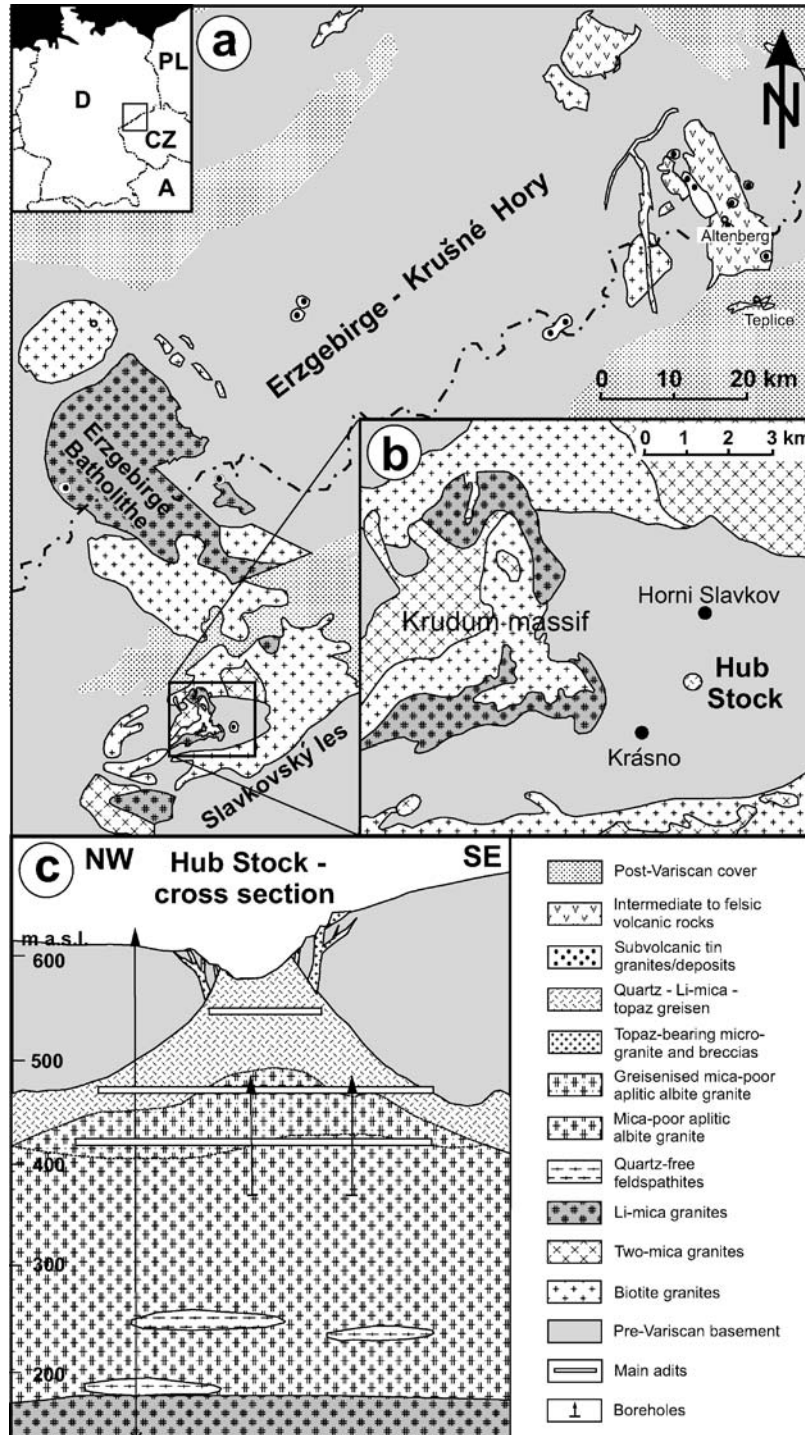


Fig. 1. Geological setting of the Hub stock. **a**, **b** Geological map of the Krušné Hory/Erzgebirge with the distribution of late-Variscan granites and the location of the Hub stock. **c** Simplified cross-section through the Hub stock according to Jarchovský (2001)

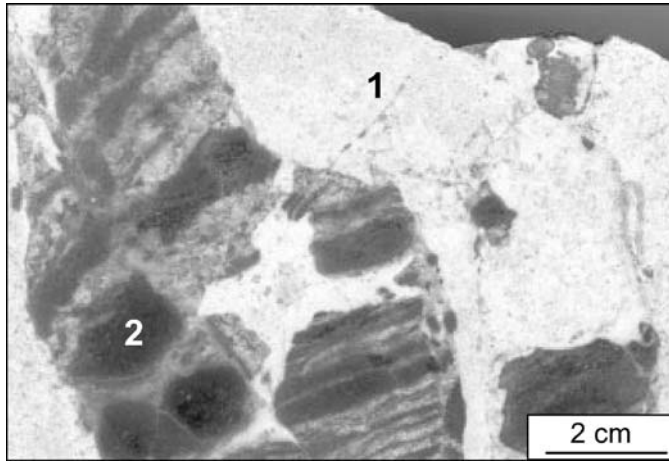


Fig. 2. Polished hand specimen of intrusion breccia from the Hub stock open pit consisting of angular gneiss fragments (2), which are cemented by leucocratic topaz-albite microgranite (1). The microgranite of small-scale apophyses is almost free of phenocrysts, because the phenocrysts could not pass the fine network of cracks

Table 1. *Mineralogical composition and petrographic features of topaz-bearing granites of the Krudum massif*

Granite types	Macroscopic features	Microscopic features	Rock-forming minerals	Accessory minerals
Topaz-albite granite of the Cista type (Ju-10)	Medium grained, equigranular to porphyric, grey, greyish white and whitish	Grainsize of individual minerals 1–3 mm, granitic texture	Quartz, albite (An _{0–10}), Li-mica, K-feldspar, topaz	<i>Apatite, Zircon, Monazite, Xenotime, Nb-Ta-rutile, Columbite, Uraninite, U-Ca-phosphate, As-crandallite</i>
Topaz-albite microgranite (Ju-20)	Very fine grained matrix of polymict intrusion breccias	Very fine to aphanitic texture	Albite, K-feldspar, quartz, Li-mica, topaz	<i>Apatite, Cassiterite, Nb-Ta-rutile, Monazite, Zircon, Xenotime, Brabantite, Gahnite, Nigerite</i>

by bipyramidal quartz (1.5–3 mm), platy Li-mica (≤ 3 mm), and sparse K-feldspar up to two centimetres in size. The two textural varieties may represent different granitic facies of approximately the same age, the origin of which was controlled by local pressure conditions during emplacement and crystallisation (René, 1998). Mineralogical composition and petrographic features of topaz-bearing granites and their whole rock chemistry are shown in Table 1 and 2, respectively.

Table 2. Chemical composition of topaz-bearing granites from the Hub stock

wt. %	Ju-10	Ju-20
SiO ₂	74.59	72.74
TiO ₂	0.15	0.04
Al ₂ O ₃	13.51	14.82
Fe ₂ O ₃	0.13	0.09
FeO	1.14	0.68
MnO	0.04	0.06
MgO	0.29	0.13
CaO	0.54	0.51
Na ₂ O	2.80	4.66
K ₂ O	5.03	3.82
P ₂ O ₅	0.14	0.32
L.O.I.	1.00	1.50
F	0.23	1.52
Total	99.59	100.89
ppm		
Ba	159	110
Rb	456	1590
Sr	44	29
Zr	111	17
Nb	15	47
Y	38	14
Zn	45	582
Sn	15	357
Th	15.4	8.7
U	22.7	9.3

Methodology

Cathodoluminescence (CL)

CL investigations were carried out using the *Simon-Neuser's* “hot-cathodoluminescence-microscope” HC2-LM (*Neuser et al., 1995*) at the GZ Göttingen. The acceleration voltage was 14 keV and the filament current 0.18 mA. CL spectra were recorded with a triple-grating (100, 1200, and 1800 lines mm⁻¹) spectrograph TRIAX 320 equipped with a liquid N₂-cooled charge coupled device (CCD) camera. The system is well suited for applications at very low signals, such as the CL of quartz. The 100-lines mm⁻¹ grating was used to detect the emitted spectra between 400 and 950 nm (3.1 and 1.4 eV), whereas the 1200 lines mm⁻¹ grating provided high-resolution spectra of 70 nm-wide sectors. The latter allows the exact energy of single CL emission bands to be detected. The integration time of spectrum acquisition was 20 s for the 100 lines mm⁻¹ grating and 30 s for the 1200 lines mm⁻¹ grating. The spectra were corrected for the total instrument response.

The peak fitting of quartz CL spectra was carried out to determine the energy and intensity of individual emission bands, which usually have a Gaussian shape if

the spectrum is plotted in energy space (eV). The position, width, and height of the Gaussian curves were calculated and adjusted in such a way that the sum of the individual components corresponds to the recorded CL spectrum. On the data base of about 200 quartz CL spectra a peak fitting procedure was developed, which allows deconvolution of the typically broad and overlapping emission bands of quartz spectra (Müller, 2000; Müller et al., 2002b). This procedure is based mainly on observations of quartz spectra and it is not a simple mathematical fitting.

The application of an electron microprobe equipped with a CL detector (SEM-CL) allows the analysis of trace element distribution in relation to CL structures. Generally, CL detectors attached to a SEM provide monochromatic (grey scale) images of the CL structures within quartz crystals. The used JEOL SM-CLD40 R712 photo-multiplier records photon emissions between 200 to 900 nm and is most sensitive at wavelengths around 600 nm. Images were collected from the JEOL system using a beam voltage of 30 kV, a filament current of 200 nA, slow beam scan rates of 20 s per image, and a image resolution of 1024×860 pixels and 256 grey levels. Examination of luminescence colours of investigated quartz by optical CL reveals that dark contrasted areas of quartz SEM-CL images correspond to red to reddish brown CL colours and bright areas correspond to blue to violet colours. SEM-CL imaging was performed prior to and after EPMA analysis. The measurement points can thus be located exactly in relation to the CL structures. The grey scale profiles along measured trace element profiles within quartz crystals were processed from the SEM-CL images using the software Optimas 6.0.

Electron probe micro-analysis (EPMA)

Trace element abundances of Al, Ti, K, and Fe in quartz were determined using a JEOL 8900 RL electron microprobe at the GZ Göttingen equipped with 5 WD detectors. The following standards were used for the analysis: synthetic Al_2O_3 (52.92 wt% Al), orthoclase, Lucerne, Switzerland (12.18 wt% K), synthetic TiO_2 (59.95 wt% Ti), and hematite, Rio Marina, Elba (69.94 wt% Fe). Raw analyses were converted into concentrations, after making appropriate matrix corrections using the phi-rho-z method of Armstrong (1991, 1995). For high precision and sensitivity, a high beam current of 120 nA, a beam diameter of 7 μm , and counting

Table 3. Limits of detection (LOD). The average background (BG) is the total acquired counts for each element using 120 seconds counting time on each side of the peak (20 kV accelerating voltage and a beam current of 120 nA)

Element	Counting time peak [s]	Each BG [s]	Average BG total [cts]	Factor (lin. calib.)	LOD by n = 54 measurements		LOD by single measurement average	
					$I_{LOD} = 2.01 * \sigma_{BG}$ [cts]	C_{LOD} [ppm]	$I_{LOD} = 3 * \sqrt{BG}$ [cts]	C_{LOD} [ppm]
Al	240	120	110600	0.013	4537	60	997	13
K	240	120	17900	0.024	376	9	401	10
Ti	240	120	40900	0.022	728	16	607	13
Fe	240	120	43360	0.024	637	15	625	15

rates of 240 s for Al, Ti, K, and Fe on the characteristic x-ray line and 120 s for each background signal were chosen. Backgrounds were measured on both sides of the peak. Curvature of the background signal for Al was taken into account.

Limits of detection (LOD) were calculated from 54 background measurements with 95% confidence utilising the Student's t -distribution according to the following equation (Table 3):

$$I_{LOD} = t_z(P; f) \sigma_{BG}$$

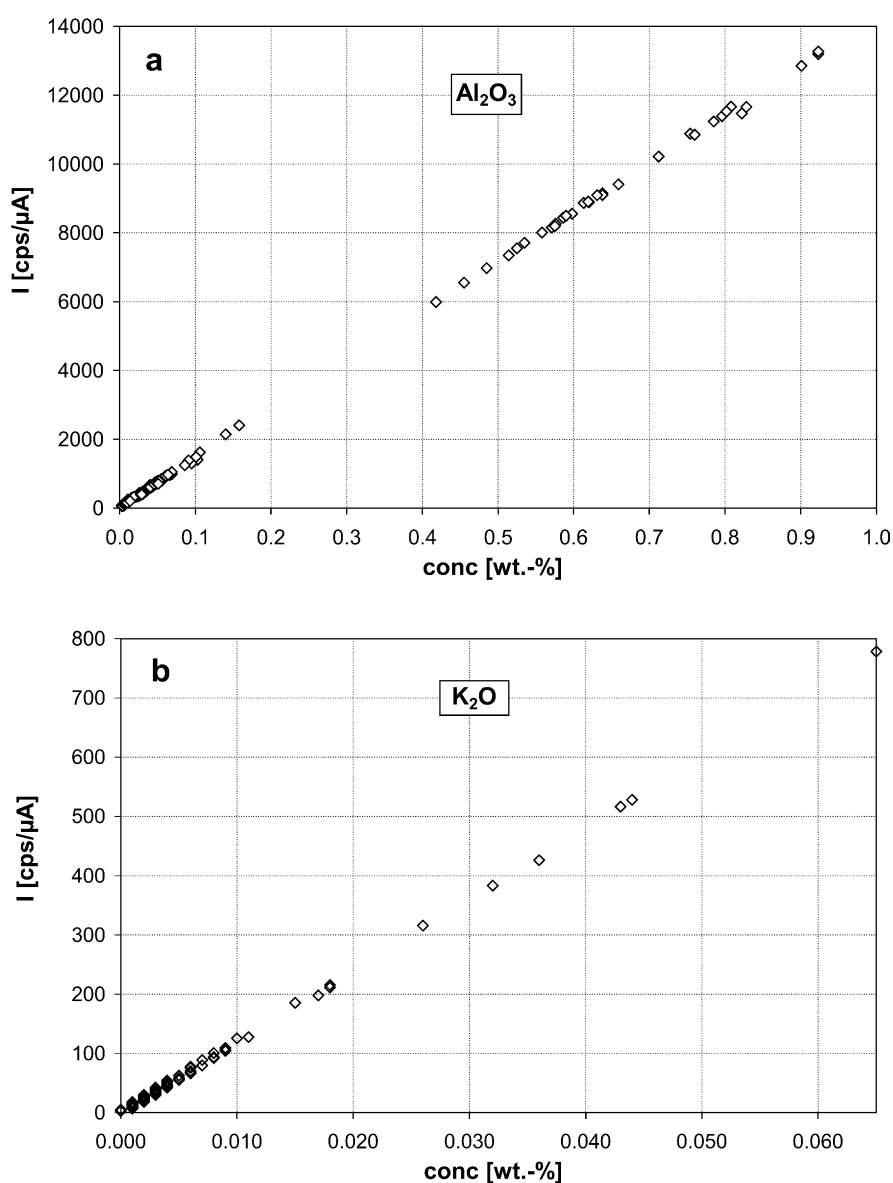


Fig. 3. Plots of the total intensity vs. concentration (wt.%) of Al_2O_3 (a) and K_2O (b) showing a good linearity. The factor of the linear calibration is used for the calculation of C_{LOD} (see Table 3)

where I_{LOD} = intensity of the LOD [cts]; σ_{BG} = standard deviation of the average background; $t_z(P; f)$ = the Student's t for binomial limitation determined by the confidence P and the degrees of freedom $f = n - 2$, where n is the number of background measurements. The Student's t with 95% confidence amounts to 2.01 for 54 background measurements.

For comparison also the common method for calculating LOD, given by:

$$I_{LOD} = 3 \cdot \sqrt{BG}$$

for a single measurement was estimated.

BG are the total accumulated counts of the background signal ("LOD by single measurement"). Both methods give comparable results, but we prefer the random sampling using Student's t -test. The latter is more sensitive to systematic errors and the occurrence of drift-phenomena. The higher value of LOD for Al by multiple background measurement is due to a different shift of the total signal during acquisition time.

The concentration of LOD C_{LOD} is calculated using the factor of the linear calibration of total intensity vs. concentration of an element (Fig. 3, Table 3):

$$C_{LOD} [\text{ppm}] = \text{factor} * I_{LOD}$$

Due to the constant composition of the matrix SiO_2 , there would be no change in the ZAF-factors, hence a linear calculation is reliable.

Detection limits are 60 ppm for Al, 16 ppm for Ti, 10 ppm for K, and 15 ppm for Fe at the primary beam conditions quoted. Trace element measurements were carried out as line scans yielding distribution profiles.

There are several reasons why the concentrations of Al, Ti, K and Fe were determined. Al^{3+} and Ti^{4+} most frequently substitute for Si^{4+} in quartz, and thus may strongly influence the CL of quartz (e.g., Ramseyer and Mullis, 1990; Perny et al., 1992; Müller et al., 2000). K^+ was selected as representative of the interstitial ions, because the detection limit of Na^+ (~80 ppm) was higher than the typical concentrations and Li^+ cannot be measured by EPMA. Müller et al. (2003) show, that K^+ , Li^+ , and Na^+ correlate positively in quartz of different origin and, therefore, K^+ is representative for the three monovalent ions. Fe and Mn are important CL activators and quenchers in silicates (Marshall, 1988). However, the concentration of Mn was far below the detection limit of 15 ppm.

Quartz growth patterns

The quartz phenocrysts (qz1) of both topaz-albite granite varieties (samples Ju-10 and Ju-20) exhibit a complex and generally similar growth pattern contrasted by different shades of blue, violet, and red-brown CL (Figs. 4a, b, d). However, there are a few large phenocrysts (>3 mm) which record a more complex growth probably reflecting a longer crystallisation history (Fig. 4c). Additionally, we identified a common population of magmatic quartz (200–500 μm in size) besides the phenocrysts (qz1) and the groundmass quartz (qz3) in the topaz-albite granite (Ju-10; Figs. 4a, 5a, 5b). Similar to the large phenocrysts, the qz2 population exhibits a dipyrmidal β -quartz habit and growth zoning. The comparison of CL colour and growth zoning shows that nucleation and growth of the microphenocrysts (qz2)

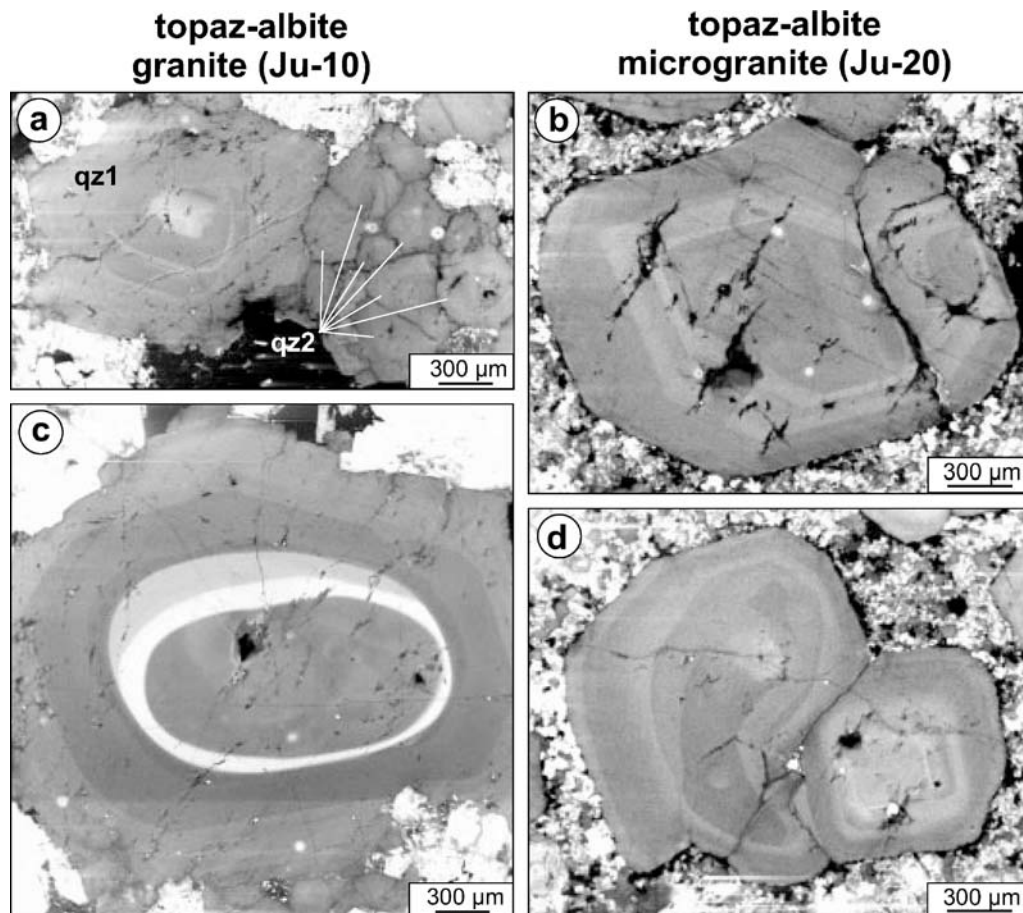


Fig. 4. SEM-CL images of quartz in the topaz-bearing granites of the Hub stock. **a** Zoned phenocryst (qz1) next to a cluster of weakly zoned microphenocrysts (qz2). **b** Zoned phenocryst in the microgranite. **c** Large phenocryst (~ 3 mm) with bright (blue), resorbed (rounded) growth zones. **d** Two adjacent phenocrysts of the microgranite. The phenocryst on the right impeded the growth of the phenocryst on the left. The small, irregular black areas in all quartz crystals are domains of post-magmatic, neocrystallised quartz

starts with the growth of the outer zone of qz1 (Figs. 5a, b). Both phenocryst populations form a maximum in the grain size distribution plot: qz1 at 2 mm and qz2 at 0.4 mm. The 0.4-mm-population microphenocryst will now be designated (qz2). Both the phenocrysts and microphenocrysts are overgrown by younger groundmass quartz.

Growth zoning in qz1 and qz2 includes step (compositional) zoning (Allègre et al., 1981) and oscillatory zoning with β -quartz habit (Fig. 4). Additionally, resorption surfaces and growth embayments occur in qz1 phenocrysts (Kozłowski, 1981; Schneider, 1993; Müller et al., 2000; Figs. 5c, d, e). Low-amplitude, fine-scale oscillatory zoning (2–20 μm width) is developed within super-ordinate, high-amplitude step zoning (50–1000 μm width). Step zones end with an abrupt change of CL colour whereby the outer oscillatory zones of the step zone or entire step zones are truncated resulting in rounding of crystals (Figs. 4c and 5c). In contrast,

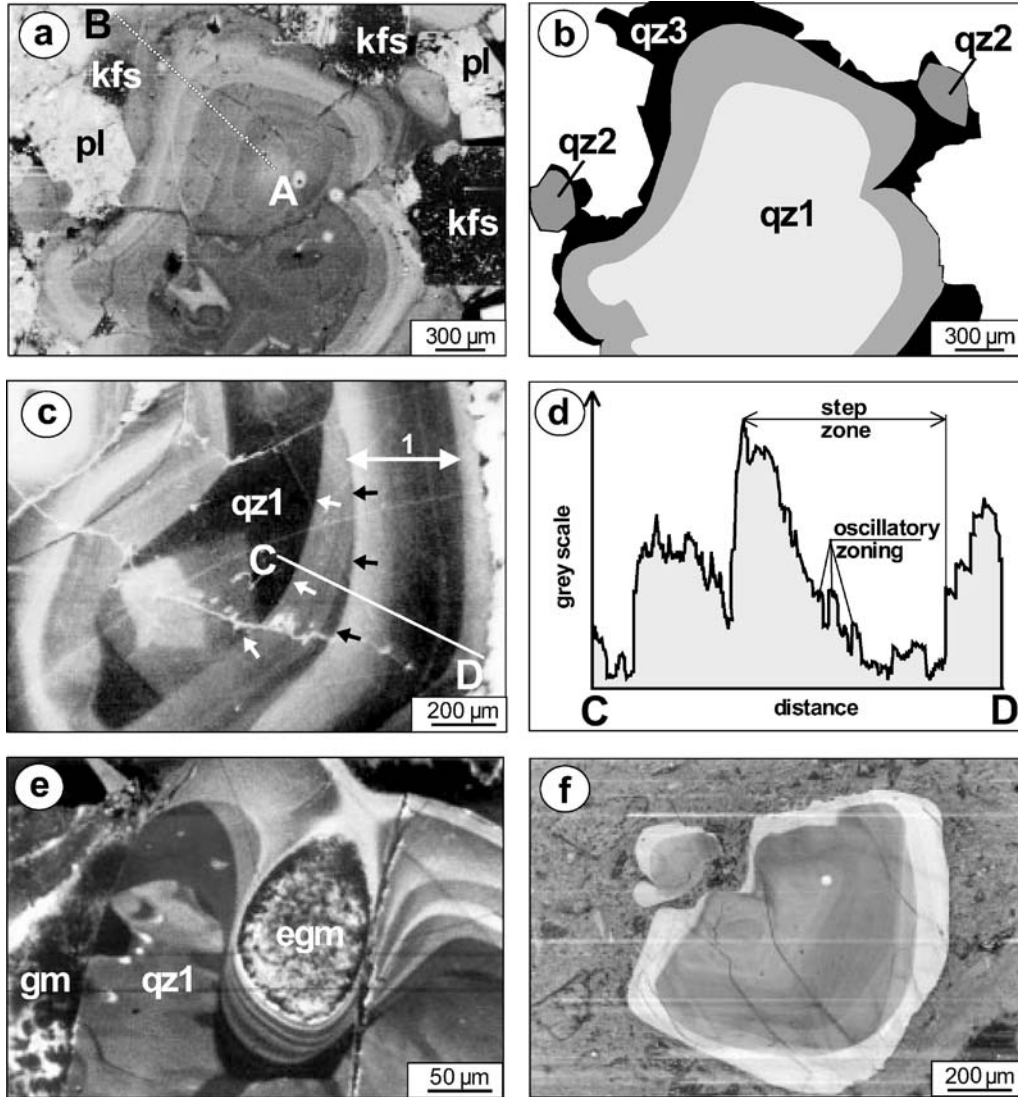


Fig. 5. **a** SEM-CL image of quartz in sample Ju-10. The line A–B shows the position of the trace element profile which is plotted in Figs. 7a, c, and e. **b** Scheme of quartz populations, distinguishable in the SEM-CL image 4a: zoned phenocryst (qz1), zoned microphenocrysts (qz2), and groundmass quartz (qz3), developed as overgrowths. Nucleation and growth of qz2 started with the growth of the outer step zone of qz1. **c** SEM-CL image of a phenocryst in sample Ju-20. The step zones (1) are bordered by resorption surfaces (arrowed). Within the step zones fine-scale oscillatory zoning is developed. Three main resorption episodes are recorded in the zoning pattern. **d** Grey scale profile across the quartz phenocryst shown in Fig. 5c (C–D). High grey scale corresponds to blue CL and low grey scale to red-brown CL. Within a step zone, the grey scale (blue CL) tends to decrease in the growth direction. **e** SEM-CL image of a phenocryst (qz1) with growth impediment. The zoning fits the shape of the lobate embayment. During further growth groundmass minerals (gm) within the embayment were enclosed (egm). **f** Zoned quartz phenocryst from the Teplice Rhyolite (Eastern Krušné Hory/Erzgebirge)

the zoning adapts to the shape of lobate and drop-like embayments (Fig. 5e). Therefore, it is traditionally interpreted as growth impediments (*Laemmlein*, 1930; *Kozłowski*, 1981; *Lowenstern*, 1995).

The existence of euhedral quartz phenocrysts in granites showing CL-contrasted growth zoning is currently not known to be common and has been described in only a few cases (*Seltmann*, 1994; *D'Lemos* et al., 1997; *Müller* et al., 2000, 2001, 2002a, b). Furthermore, the growth zoning of these granitic phenocrysts is similar to growth zoning and CL colours of phenocrysts observed in Permo-carboniferous rhyolites of the Krušné Hory/Erzgebirge (Fig. 5f). In contrast the groundmass quartz (qz3) overgrowing qz1 and qz2 is free of growth zoning and exhibits a red-brown CL (Fig. 5b).

Quartz formed during post-magmatic or late-magmatic alteration can easily be distinguished from the above-described magmatic quartz. Post-magmatic recrystallisation textures (fluid saturation textures, grain blasteses, cannibalising; e.g. *Müller* and *Seltmann*, 1999), and metasomatic quartz textures formed by hydrothermal processes show typically either weak red-brown or no luminescence. They are not the subject of this study.

Quartz CL colours and trace element distribution

The spectral response of the CL of quartz in the range of visible light is composed of 9 emission bands between 1.4 and 3.1 eV listed in Table 4 (Fig. 6). The intensity of the emission bands changes with the exposure time of electron radiation, whereby the blue emission decreases and the red emission increases, indicating the decay or creation of luminescence centres, respectively. The bluish CL colours obtained from phenocrysts within both granitic varieties are similar (Figs. 6a and b), whereas the CL spectra of groundmass quartz show a dominance of the red emission (Fig. 6c).

Growth zones with blue CL within the phenocrysts (qz1 and qz2) have up to 70 ppm Ti (Figs. 7a and b). Ti contents rise continuously with increasing blue CL (Fig. 8a). The Ti concentration varies between different luminescent growth zones, which may indicate that the Ti variation is responsible for the CL-contrasted zoning within qz1 and qz2. *Müller* et al. (2002b) show that high Ti concentrations in quartz correlate positively with the blue 2.96 eV emission band. This emission band represents the relatively stable part of the blue emissions (see Table 4). However, the electron bombardment and related thermal quenching probably cause the slight decrease of the CL signal during radiation. The distinct association between growth zones and Ti distribution suggests, that the analysed Ti is mainly structurally incorporated in the quartz lattice. Rutile micro-inclusions could not be detected by back-scattered electron imaging. However, it is generally not clear whether Ti is a CL activator or sensitizer (*Marshall*, 1988; *Götze*, 2000) and, therefore, the defect directly responsible for the 2.96 eV emission cannot be defined yet.

Phenocryst quartz (qz1 and qz2) has Al contents between 170 and 270 ppm, whereas groundmass quartz (qz3) carries 250–370 ppm (Fig. 7c). Al concentrations >400 ppm correlate with K. Non-luminescent secondary quartz of neocrystallised domains has Al contents <150 ppm (see Fig. 4). Al generally behaves

Table 4. CL emission bands between 1.4 and 3.1 eV determined in igneous quartz of the topaz-bearing granites from the Hub stock

CL band position (eV)	1.73 ± 0.02	1.84 ± 0.01	1.96 ± 0.02	2.15 ± 0.02	2.47 ± 0.02	2.58 ± 0.01	2.68 ± 0.01	2.79 ± 0.01	2.96 ± 0.02
Half width (eV)	0.3 ± 0.02	0.22 ± 0.01	0.22 ± 0.02	0.38 ± 0.01	0.3 ± 0.03	0.18 ± 0.005	0.23 ± 0.01	0.26 ± 0.01	0.3 ± 0.02
CL colour	red	red	red	yellow	green	blue	blue	blue	blue-violet

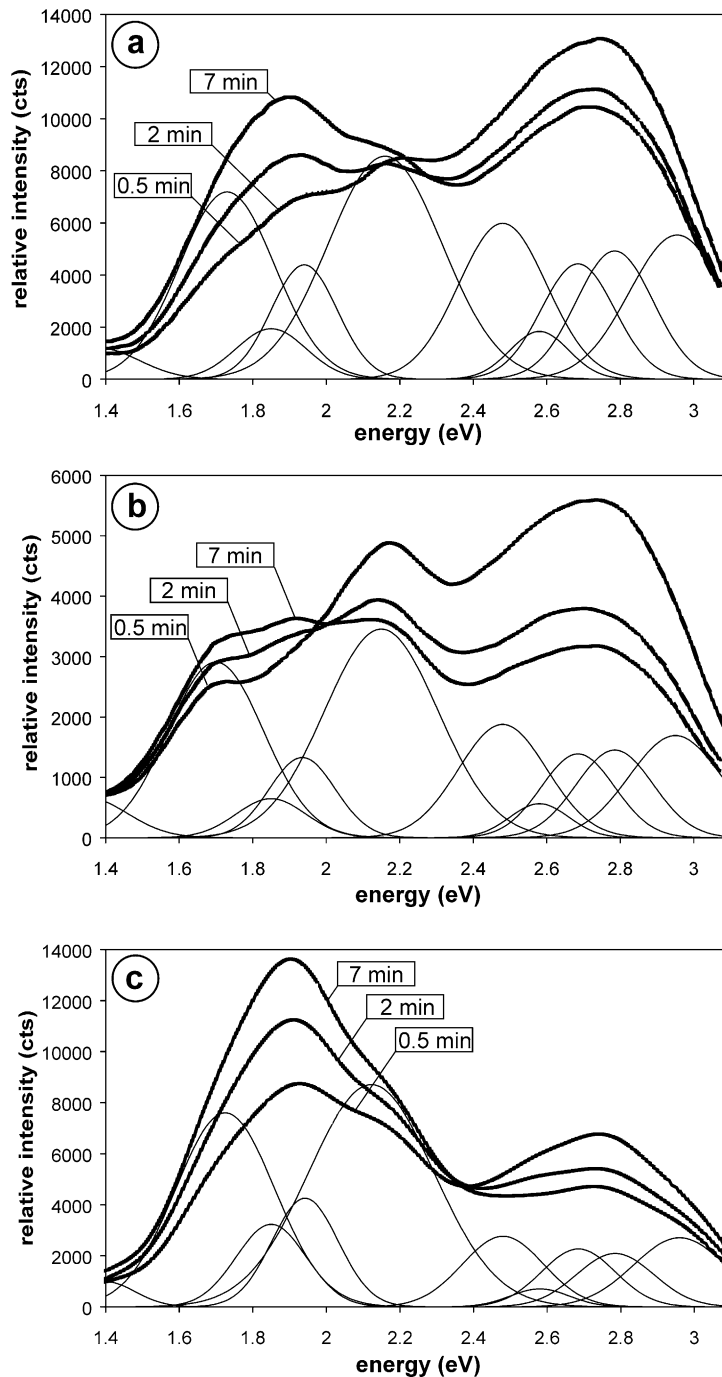


Fig. 6. CL spectra of **a** violet luminescent quartz phenocryst of sample Ju-10, **b** violet luminescent quartz phenocryst of sample Ju-20, and **c** red-brown luminescent groundmass quartz (Ju-10). The spectra were recorded after 30 s, 2 min, and 7 min electron radiation. The 7-min-spectra are fitted with Gaussian curves. Each Gaussian curve represents a single emission band

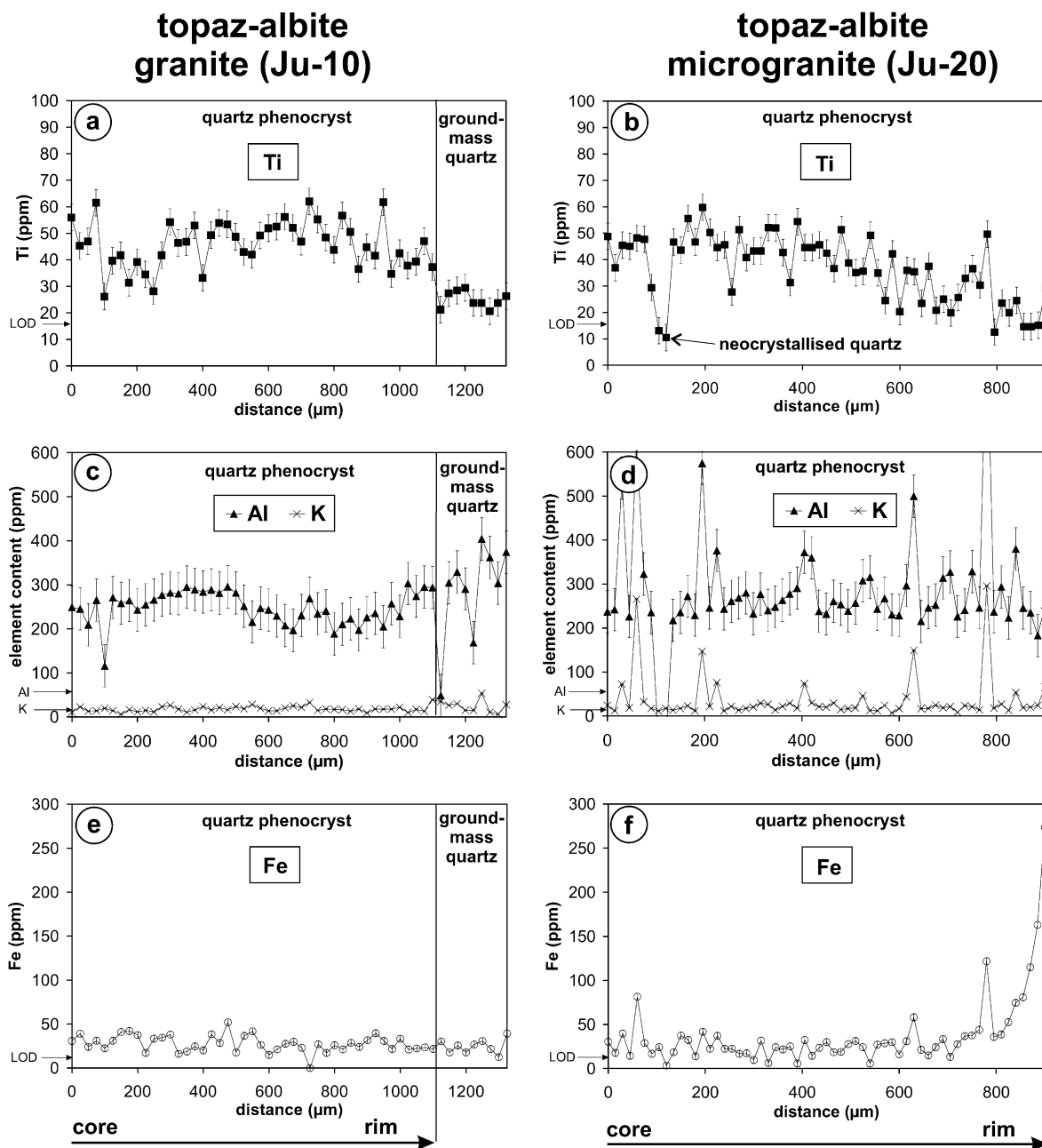


Fig. 7. Trace element line scans in quartz. Lower Ti and higher Al are characteristic for the groundmass quartz. Domains of post-magmatic neocrystallised quartz between 100 and 130 μm in **b**, **d**, and **f** are depleted in Ti, Al, Fe and K. Arrows at the axis of ordinate mark the limits of detection (LOD)

antipathetically to Ti; low and high concentrations occur in the blue and red-brown luminescent quartz, respectively. The weak red-brown luminescent groundmass quartz has the highest Al content (qz3; Fig. 8b). This observation is in contrast to CL and trace element associations of hydrothermal quartz. *Ramseyer and Mullis*

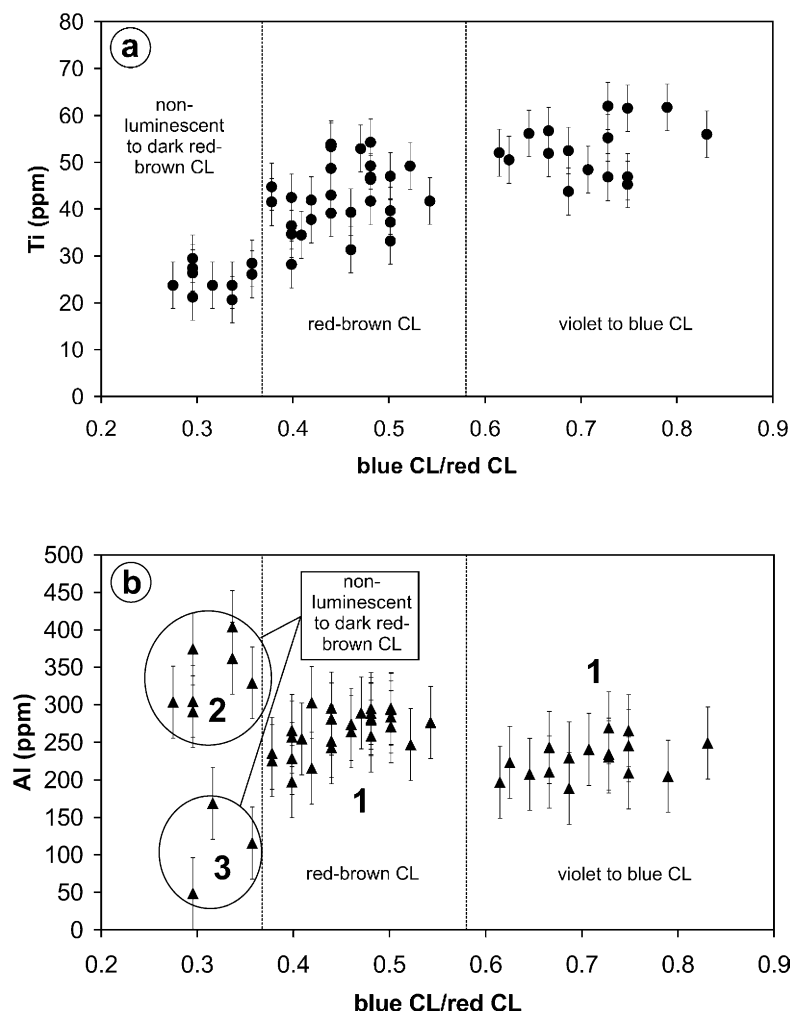


Fig. 8. **a** Ti versus CL signal plot of the zoned quartz phenocryst (qz1, Ju-10). The “red CL” is the sum of the Gaussian curve areas from the 1.73, 1.84, 1.96, 2.15 eV emissions and the “blue” CL is sum of the Gaussian curve areas from the 2.47, 2.58, 2.68, 2.79, 2.96 eV emissions. The “blue CL/red CL” ratio was interpolated for each point analysis from the grey scale obtained from the SEM-CL image (see Fig. 5a). **b** Al concentration of the quartz phenocryst (1), the groundmass quartz (2), and the neocrystallised (post-magmatic) quartz (3). The groundmass quartz has relative high Al in comparison to the quartz phenocryst and the neocrystallised quartz

(1990) and *Perry et al.* (1992) reported high Al and Li concentrations in blue luminescent zones of hydrothermal quartz, but this blue CL may not be caused by the blue 2.96 eV emission band. According to *Siegel and Marrone* (1981), *Griscom* (1985), and *Stevens Kalceff and Phillips* (1995), the red CL emission around 1.96 eV is related to non-bridging oxygen hole centre (NBOHC). OH^- and/or adsorbed H_2O are two possible precursors of the NBOHC. The increase in emission during electron radiation is explained by radiolysis of hydroxyl groups and/or adsorbed H_2O of the quartz lattice, which leads to the formation of NBOHC. Hydroxyl groups and adsorbed H_2O acting as charge compensators for

Al^{3+} defects beside Li^+ , K^+ , or Na^+ (Bambauer et al., 1963; Maschmeyer and Lehmann, 1983; Kronenberg et al., 1986; Bahadur, 1993). Stenina et al. (1988) and Stenina (1995) stated that substitutional M^{3+} (e.g., Al^{3+} and Fe^{3+}) and related compensating M^+ (Li^+ , Na^+ , and K^+) create water-bearing defects in the form of $2[\text{SiO}_3]^+ - \text{H}_2\text{O} - \text{M}^+ - 2[\text{M}^{3+}\text{O}_4]^-$. This association of Al and hydroxyl groups and/or adsorbed H_2O may explain the weak correlation of Al with the red emission. On the other hand, the complex defect structure implies that its CL emission is non-trivial and should not cause a simple correlation of Al abundance with CL emission. The correlation of high Al with relative high K fits with the general assumption that K^+ acts as charge compensator for Al^{3+} . However, the high concentrations suggest that both elements occur in sub-microscopic defect clusters. The larger ion radius of Al^{3+} ($r = 0.47 \text{ \AA}$) compared to Si^{4+} ($r = 0.34 \text{ \AA}$) explains why high amounts of structurally incorporated Al^{3+} ($> 400 \text{ ppm}$) should cause an extreme deformation and weakening of the quartz lattice.

The Fe content varies near the detection limit between 10 and 30 ppm which allows no interpretation (Figs. 7e and f). However, the Fe concentration increases up to 260 ppm towards the grain boundary, suggesting a diffusion profile of Fe in the quartz lattice. This crystal rim shows no change in CL properties. Pott and McNicol (1971) and Kempe et al. (1999a) found that high Fe^{3+} causes the 1.73 eV CL emission. In our samples however, we found no correlation between Fe concentration and the 1.73 eV band intensity. The lack of correlation may be explained by the fact that Fe occurs as divalent and trivalent ions. Fe^{2+} is assumed to produce no luminescence or act as luminescence quencher (Marfunin, 1979; Götze, personal communication, 2002).

Weak to non-luminescent, post-magmatic (secondary) quartz is depleted in Ti, Al, Fe and K (Figs. 7 and 8).

Discussion of geological implications

Topaz-bearing granites of the Hub stock hosting the Krásno Sn-W ore deposit contain three generations of igneous quartz, represented by phenocrysts (qz1), microphenocrysts (qz2), and groundmass quartz (qz3), indicating multiple crystallisation and varying crystallisation environments.

High Ti concentrations are typical for quartz formed at high temperatures ($> 500 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) and pressure, such as in granulites (Blankenburg et al., 1994; Van den Kerkhof and Müller, 1999). Interpretation of Ti variation of growth zones in the phenocrysts (qz1 and qz2) requires distinction between zoning caused by self-organised growth and zoning caused by physico-chemical changes of external factors, such as temperature, pressure, and magma composition (e.g. Allègre et al., 1981; Anderson, 1984; Fowler, 1990; Shore and Fowler, 1996). Fine-scale oscillatory zoning arises from self-organised growth without the intervention of externally imposed periodicities in the state (pressure, temperature, or composition) of the melt from which the crystal grew (e.g., Sibley et al., 1976; Allègre et al., 1981; Ortoleva, 1990; Shore and Fowler, 1996). Self-organisation of growth is controlled by cyclic competition between the crystal growth rate and the diffusion rate of silica and other elements, such as Ti, within the crystal-melt reaction zone and boundary layer. In contrast, step zoning and resorption surfaces are zoning patterns

typically caused by variations in external factors (e.g., *Bottinga et al.*, 1966; *Allègre et al.*, 1981). Step zones are often bordered by resorption surfaces, which form round interior zone boundaries and truncate pre-existing growth zones (Figs. 4c and 5c). Resorption (melting) of quartz crystal surfaces indicates local SiO₂-undersaturation of the melt, which may be caused by (1) isothermal decompression due to magma ascent, or by (2) increase in temperature due to (2a) magma mixing or (2b) crystal settling, or by combination of (2a) and (2b):

- (1) Isothermal decompression during adiabatic magma ascent can cause large-scale resorption of quartz crystals (e.g., *Johannes and Holtz*, 1996). Such adiabatic conditions are confined to rapid magma ascent in dykes. Resorption lowers the amount of suspended solids in the melt and thus the flow rate is elevated by a slight reduction of the effective viscosity (e.g., *Lejeune and Richet*, 1995). Ascent may be initiated by extension or shear in the upper crust. A suitable extensional regime was activated during the late-Variscan orogenic collapse, the time of extensive granite intrusions. The occurrence of resorption surfaces corresponds to the rapid ascent of granitic magmas by dyke formation as observed by *Clemens and Mawer* (1992), *Petford* (1996), *Johannes and Holtz* (1996), and *Clemens et al.* (1997). After a resorption episode (a presumed adiabatic magma ascent), the subsequent growth of a new zone starts with high Ti concentration (blue CL). The Ti contents decrease during further growth. In the case of adiabatic magma ascent, the initial high Ti incorporation can only be explained by a faster growth rate as the magma moved into cooler surroundings. High energy is necessary to incorporate Ti in quartz; this contradicts the assumption that Ti contents within quartz increase with progressing crystal growth rate.
- (2a) The continuous whole rock fractionation trend of the granites of the Hub Stock and Krásno area (e.g., *Jarchovský and Pavlů*, 1991; *Breiter et al.*, 1999) gives no indication of magma mixing. However, if the percentage of mafic melt input into the granite melt reservoir is very low, it is hard to prove mixing events on the basis of whole rock chemistry. Recent studies of feldspar phenocrysts show that magma mixing is widespread in late-Variscan granitic batholiths in central Europe (*Müller and Seltnann*, 2002; *Słaby and Galbarczyk-Gąsiorowska*, 2002). Therefore, multiple influx of a more mafic magma into the granite magma reservoir could be the cause of resorption episodes archived in the phenocryst growth pattern.
- (2b) The density of quartz ($\sim 2.65 \cdot 10^3 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) would have been higher than the density of the granitic melt, which was less than $2.62 \cdot 10^3 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ (average density of solidified topaz-bearing granites in the Eastern Erzgebirge; *Kopf*, 1961), when the melt contained volatiles. Therefore, quartz crystal settling may also cause quartz solution if the crystal moves into a more silica-poor environment within a zoned magma reservoir. The melt inclusion gas-saturation pressure for CO₂ in samples from the Bishop Tuff increases from quartz phenocryst core to rim (*Anderson et al.*, 2000). They assume that quartz crystal settling caused the increase in gas-saturation pressure and argue that some large quartz phenocrysts sank several kilometres through the zoned body of the Bishop Tuff magma. The outer rims of the phenocrysts which

overgrow an earlier resorption surface (see Fig. 5 in *Peppard et al.*, 2001) show blue CL (*Anderson*, personal communication, 2002) and are enriched in Ti (see Table 1 in *Peppard et al.*, 2001). Thus, both the increase in temperature and pressure favour the uptake of Ti into the quartz lattice. *Peppard et al.* (2001) stated that quartz phenocrysts grew as they sank, which is plausible because crystal settling is a relatively slow process and does not imply drastic changes in crystallisation conditions.

In conclusion, quartz resorption resulting in round surfaces was caused by magma dynamics produced either by influx of mafic magma into the granite magma reservoir or by large-scale crystal settling whereby large portions of the phenocrysts were moved into a more silica-poor environment in a zoned magma reservoir. We favour the first process, since recent studies (*Müller and Seltmann*, 2002; *Słaby and Galbarczyk-Gąsiorowska*, 2002) show that multiple influx of mafic magmas into the granite melt reservoir seems to be important during the extensional tectonics of the late-Variscan orogenic collapse. Moreover, magma mixing leads to increases in gas-saturation pressure, temperature, and Ti concentration of the magma, which initially cause the resorption of quartz and later (after local equilibration) the uptake of Ti into the quartz lattice. However, resorption which results in the final rounding of quartz phenocrysts observed in effusive silica-rich rocks (e.g., *Watt et al.*, 1997) may be caused by adiabatic magma ascent.

Growth zoning and CL properties of qz1 and qz2 in the topaz granites are generally similar to those observed in phenocrysts of rhyolites, and particularly to those in the Permocarbiniferous rhyolites of the Krušné Hory/Erzgebirge (*Müller et al.*, 2001; Fig 5f). *Thomas* (1992) calculated the maximum depth of quartz phenocryst crystallisation in topaz-bearing granites from the Krušné Hory/Erzgebirge as 25 km, based on microthermometric studies of silicate melt inclusions. This agrees with the crystallisation depth of quartz phenocrysts in Permocarbiniferous rhyolites of the Krušné Hory/Erzgebirge (*Thomas*, 1992). Moreover, most of the late-Variscan granites also contain zoned phenocrysts (*Müller et al.*, 2000, 2001, 2002a) originating from the same depth (*Thomas*, 1992). Estimations of water contents of melt inclusions in phenocrysts of granites from the Western Krušné Hory/Erzgebirge by *Thomas and Klemm* (1997) reveal 3–4 equiv.-wt% H₂O, which corresponds to a relative water-poor crystallisation environment. The late-Variscan granites and rhyolites of the Krušné Hory/Erzgebirge intruded and extruded, respectively, over a period of about 40 Ma (e.g., *Förster et al.*, 1999; *Breiter et al.*, 1999). The similarities discussed imply the presence of a long-standing, partly interconnected magma stockwork beneath the Krušné Hory/Erzgebirge region, which has been a matter of debate since *Watznauer* (1954). The magma stockwork probably consists of several spatially and temporally separated sub-reservoirs, because the growth pattern and trace element signature of quartz phenocrysts differ slightly between the granites of the Krušné Hory/Erzgebirge (*Müller et al.*, 2000, 2002a). Another indication for the long-standing magma stockwork is the occurrence of old (inherited) granitic zircons with an age of about 330 Ma (Pb/Pb single zircon, *Kempe et al.*, 1999b) in the younger Altenberg-Frauenstein microgranite (Eastern Krušné Hory/Erzgebirge),

which is dated at 307–309 Ma (Ar/Ar plateau ages of unaltered biotite, *Seltmann* and *Layer*, unpubl., in *Seltmann* and *Schilka*, 1995).

The groundmass quartz (qz3) crystallised during and after the magma emplacement at about 1.5 km depth (*Thomas*, 1994). The higher Al in the groundmass quartz may reflect the increase of water (6–9 wt% H₂O according to *Thomas* and *Klemm*, 1997) and of lithophile elements Al³⁺, K⁺, Na⁺, and Li⁺ in the late-stage melt, because Al forms water-bearing [2SiO₃–H₂O–M⁺–2AlO₄] defect cluster, where M⁺ is K⁺, Na⁺, or Li⁺ (*Müller* et al., 2002a).

Conclusions

We demonstrated that EPMA is well suited for the study of Al and Ti in zoned quartz crystals. The zoning of quartz phenocrysts from the topaz granites imaged with CL shows a clear association with the Ti distribution in quartz. We thus conclude that most of the Ti analysed is structurally incorporated. On the other hand Al in igneous quartz shows no obvious correlation with CL.

The zoned phenocrysts in the topaz granites with dominant blue CL and high average Ti crystallised from a water-poor (~3 wt% H₂O) magma in the lower to middle crust. Such phenocrysts record the early stages of magma evolution, and show features similar to phenocrysts in rhyolites. The occurrence of zoned quartz phenocrysts in most of the late-Variscan granites of the Krušné Hory/Erzgebirge, which are similar to the phenocrysts in the Hub stock granites, implies that a long-standing magma stockwork with several spatially and temporally separated sub-reservoirs existed beneath the Krušné Hory/Erzgebirge region. During the collapse of the Variscan orogen the magmas of this stockwork ascended along extensional structures.

The study shows that quartz is a resistant and generally underestimated archivist of magma evolution.

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