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Magma genesis and crustal contamination of continental intraplate lavas in northwestern Syria

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Abstract The Miocene to Quaternary lavas of northwestern Syria range from basanite, alkali basalts, and tholeiites to basaltic andesites, hawaiites, and mugearites. Crustal assimilation and fractional crystallization processes (AFC) modified the composition of the mantle derived magmas. Crustal assimilation is indicated by decreasing Nb/U (52.8-17.9) and increasing Pb/Nd (0.09-0.21) and by variable isotopic compositions of the lavas (${}^{87}Sr$; 0.7036-0.7048, ${}^{143}Nd$ / ${}^{144}Nd$: 0.51294-0.51269, ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb: 18.98–18.60) throughout the differentiation. Modeling of the AFC processes indicates that the magmas have assimilated up to 25% of continental upper crust. The stratigraphy of the lavas reveals decreasing degrees and increasing depths of melting with time and the strongly fractionated heavy rare earth elements indicate melt generation in the garnet stability field. Modeling of melt formation based on trace element contents suggests that 8-10% melting of the asthenospheric mantle source produced the tholeiites,

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Introduction

Incompatible element and radiogenic isotopic compositions of continental primitive volcanic rocks often differ from lavas erupted in oceanic settings indicating the presence of other magma sources like the asthenosphere or deep mantle plumes. It has been suggested that continental magmas form from sources in the lower part of the subcontinental thermal boundary layer due to adiabatic melting or due to lowering of the solidus by volatiles (e.g., Gallagher and Hawkesworth 1992). Furthermore, magmas from the asthenosphere may react with the subcontinental lithospheric mantle as they rise to the surface (e.g., Ellam and Cox 1991; Wilson and Downes 1991). The subcontinental lithospheric mantle possibly contains regions that have been metasomatized by small degree melts or fluids during previous magmatic episodes and magmas from these portions may have geochemical compositions that significantly differ from asthenospheric melts. Alternatively, the continental intraplate magmas may be modified by the assimilation of crustal wallrocks as well as by crystal fractionation during their ascent. Several and partly energy-dependent thermodynamic models have been developed to model these processes (DePaolo 1981; Aitchenson and Forrest 1994; Spera and Bohrson 2001). Thus, the study of intracontinental basalts may reveal different petrogenetic processes than the study of basalts in oceanic settings.

In this contribution we provide new geochemical and petrological data for a Cenozoic lava suite from northwestern (NW) Syria in order to investigate their petrogenesis within the large scale geological framework. This study shows that fractional crystallization and crustal contamination were important processes during the magma genesis of the volcanic rocks in NW Syria. Two chemically different groups of magmas were generated from the same mantle source which is probably situated in the asthenosphere. We interpret the volcanic activity in NW Syria to be related to a slab-breakoff process that occurred in this region, where the Arabian plate converges Eurasia, and coincided with the eruption of the lavas.

Geological setting

Large parts of western Arabia are covered by Cenozoic basaltic lava fields related to the formation of the Red Sea, beginning in Miocene times and to the development of the Miocene/Pliocene Dead Sea fault (DSF) system (Bohannon et al. 1989; Nasir and Safarjalani 2000). The evolution of the western Arabian rift system is accompanied by extensive magmatism and several models have been proposed to explain the intraplate magmatic activity in Israel, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, Syria, and southern Turkey. For example, Camp and Roobol (1992) suggested that the volcanism is caused by hot asthenospheric material either channeled northwards from the Afar plume or that another mantle plume exists beneath western Arabia. Alternatively, Stein and Hofmann (1992) suggested that an old plume head was stored beneath the subcontinental lithosphere and that volcanism was triggered during periods of lithospheric extension. In contrast, Keskin (2003) favored a model of slab steepening and breakoff during the collision of the Arabian plate with Eurasia to explain the magma genesis in Eastern Anatolia.

699

Syria is located at the NW flank of the Arabian peninsula and is covered by several volcanic fields of Miocene to Quaternary age (Fig. 1). Volcanic rocks are concentrated in the western part of Syria in the vicinity of the Dead Sea fault, but other volcanic fields are spread across the whole country (Fig. 1). The present tectonic situation in Syria is the result of the interaction of the Cenozoic plate boundaries with older intraplate features (McBride et al. 1990). Based on Bouguer gravity anomalies Syria can be divided into three major areas: the Rutbah Uplift in the south is separated by the Palmyride Fold Zone from the northern Aleppo Plateau which is covered by relatively undeformed Palaeozoic and Mesozoic sedimentary rocks (Best et al. 1990; Searle 1994; Sharkov et al. 1994). Seismic studies have shown that the depth of the metamorphic basement beneath the plateau is about 6 km and that a crustal thickness of about 40 km is reached in Syria similar to Jordan and Saudi Arabia (El-Isa et al. 1987; Best et al. 1990; Sandvol et al. 1998; Walley 1998; Kumar et al. 2002). Furthermore, geophysical and geochemical data indicate an upper crustal layer of presumably granitic rocks, ranging in depths from about 5 to 20 km and a lower crust, composed of mafic rocks, at depths of about 20-27 km for the NW Arabian plate and southern Syria (Nasir 1992; Nasir and Safarjalani 2000).

The samples for the present study were collected in the NW part of Syria close to the northern termination of the Dead Sea Fault system and its transition into the East Anatolian Fault zone (Fig. 1). The volcanic units in this region are part of a broader volcanic belt occurring on both sides of the Eastern Anatolian Fault zone.

Fig. 1 Location map of northwestern (NW) Syrian volcanic fields with samples locations. Numbers beneath sample locations refer to samples names completely listed in Table 2. The *inset* shows the NW part of the Arabian peninsula with active fault zones simplified from Yurtmen et al. (2000). DSF Dead Sea Fault, EAFZ East Anatolian Fault Zone, AP Aleppo Plateau, PFZ Palmyride Fold Zone, RU Rutbah Uplift. The map is based on geological maps of Ponikarov et al. (1963)



The largest volcanic field located in this part of NW Syria forms the mountain range Jabal El-Hass, with a maximum relief of 300 m and altitude of 640 m (Fig. 1). The volcanic field consists of several lava flows of Miocene age, reaching a total thickness of about 50 m and lying on Paleogene and Neogene sediments (Ponikarov et al. 1963). Single flows vary in thickness from 1 to 10 m and some are separated by thick layers of limestone. Other major volcanic fields, composed of several lava flows, are situated near the villages of Qirata on the eastern side of the Euphrates and around Aazaz and El Wakif (Fig. 1). A lava sequence of about 350 m thickness occurs north of the town Bulbul and was sampled stratigraphically in order to study temporal changes in the petrogenesis (Fig. 1). Petrographically the sequence at Bulbul can be divided into two parts which are separated by a soil horizon suggesting a longer period of volcanic quiescence. Even though Ponikarov et al. (1963) suggested that most of the NW Syrian volcanic units are of upper Pliocene age, Lower Quaternary volcanism occurred around Qirata as indicated by Ar-Ar ages of the upper and lower lavas north of Bulbul yielding Miocene ages between 12 and 10 Ma (Krienitz et al., unpublished data).

Analytical methods

After sawing the freshest parts from each sample, the pieces were washed with deionized water in an ultrasonic bath for 15 min, crushed to coarse sand size with a screw press and washed again. For chemical analysis samples containing fresh glass were handpicked under a binocular microscope. Whole rock samples were reduced to powder in an agate ball mill for major and trace element as well as for radiogenic isotope analysis. Several samples were studied petrographically in thin section and mineral phases were analyzed with a JEOL JXA 8900 electron microprobe operating in wavelength dispersive mode with a beam current of 15 mA (10 mA for glass measurements) and an accelerating voltage of 15 kV. The beam diameter was usually 2 µm and was defocused for feldspar and glass analyses. The measurements were calibrated with mineral standards for the specific elements, and representative mineral and glass analyses are listed in Table 1. Other electron microprobe data of the Syrian samples are given in Electronic Supplementary Material (Table 1).

Major and selected trace (Cr, Ni, Zn, Rb, Sr) elements in Table 1 were analyzed at the Universität Kiel with a Philips PW 1400 XRF using international rock standards for calibration and data quality control. A total of 0.6 g of sample powder was mixed with 3.6 g of flux (lithiumtetraborate) and melted to glass tablets. The accuracy of standard analyses relative to reference values is generally better than 3% for most of the major and trace elements. Only Na₂O and P₂O₅ show higher deviations (8 and 3%, respectively). Replicate measurements of the BHVO-1 standard gave a precision better than 0.30% (SD) for all major elements and generally better than 7.5% (SD) for trace elements (Table 2).

A total of 100 mg of sample material was used for trace and rare earth element (REE) analyses. Measurements were made at the Universität Kiel with an upgraded PlasmaQuad PQ1 ICP-MS following the method of Garbe-Schönberg (1993). Comparison of duplicate digestions of the same sample gave a precision generally better than 1% (SD). The accuracy of the data based on the international rock standard BHVO-1 is better than 7% except for Nb, Ta (<9%), Sc, Cs and Th (>9%) and can be estimated from the standard analyses shown in Table 2. A complete list of major, trace, and rare earth element data of the Syrian sample set is given in Electronic Supplementary Material (Table 2).

Most isotope analyses were performed at the Zentrallaboratorium für Geochronologie in Münster using a VG Sector 54 multicollector mass spectrometer operated in dynamic mode for Sr and Nd, and in static mode for Pb isotope ratios (Table 3). A few samples were analyzed in static mode at the GEOMAR Research Center for Marine Geoscience in Kiel for Pb on a Finnigan MAT 262 RPQ2+ and for Sr and Nd on a Finnigan Triton mass spectrometer. For isotopic determinations, about 100 mg of powdered sample material and standard ion exchange techniques were used to separate Sr, Nd and Pb from the matrix. The isotope ratios were corrected for fractionation using ${}^{86}Sr/{}^{88}Sr = 0.1194$ and 146 Nd/ 144 Nd = 0.7219. Multiple measurements of the Sr isotope standard NBS 987 in Münster gave 0.710299 (2SD = 0.000026, n = 16) and in Kiel 0.710273 (2SD =0.000005, n = 8). All Sr isotope analyses were normalized to NBS 987 = 0.710250. The Münster ¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd standard runs gave La Jolla: 0.511862 (2SD = 0.000024, n = 14) while in Kiel repeated analysis of the Nd Spex standard yielded 0.511710 (2SD = 0.000005, n = 5) corresponding to a La Jolla value of 0.511828 on the same instrument. The Nd isotope data of the samples were recalculated to a La Jolla value of 0.511850. In Münster, the Pb isotopes were measured in static mode and multiple analyses of the NBS 982 standard were used to correct Pb isotopic ratios for mass fractionation. Standard runs (n=10) gave ${}^{206}\text{Pb}/{}^{204}\text{Pb} = 36.646$, ${}^{207}\text{Pb}/{}^{204}\text{Pb} = 17.101$, and ${}^{208}\text{Pb}/{}^{204}\text{Pb} = 36.593$ with a precision of ± 0.022 , ± 0.014 , and ± 0.038 (2SD), respectively. In Kiel standard runs (n = 28) gave ${}^{206}\text{Pb}/{}^{204}\text{Pb} = 16.903$, ${}^{207}\text{Pb}/{}^{204}\text{Pb} = 15.447$, and $^{206}Pb/^{204}Pb = 16.903,$ 208 Pb/ 204 Pb = 36.558 with a precision of ± 0.018 , ± 0.024 , and ± 0.075 (2SD), respectively. Procedural blanks in both laboratories were generally better than 0.2, 0.1, and 0.04 ng for Sr, Nd, and Pb, respectively.

Results

Classification

According to the total alkali-silica diagram (Le Bas et al. 1986) samples of NW Syria can be classified as

Phase Sample	PLAG SY-127	CPX SY-127	OL SY-127	MGT SY-127	PLAG SY-069	PLAG SY-080	CPX SY-080	CPX SY-088	PLAG SY-033	PLAG SY-028	PLAG SY-028	CPX SY-039	OL SY-028	OL SY-039	GL SY-023gl	GL SY-02	4gl
Host rock	AB	AB	AB	AB	L	BA	BA	L	H	W	M·	H	M	H	BA	ΒA	
	maurix	matrix	core	maurix	maurix	maurix	matrix	maurix	maurix	core		maurix	matrix	maurix	(Mean, $n = 13$) SD	Mean	n = 13) SD
SiO_2^a	51.59	46.03	40.15	0.07	51.58	52.56	53.30	51.72	52.04	52.95	53.60	51.09	35.69	34.31	55.26 0.2	7 55.28	0.39
TiO_{2}	I	3.85	0.05	28.46	0.11	Ι	0.60	0.99	Ι	I	Ι	1.38	0.14	Ι	2.05 0.0	4 2.04	0.06
${ m Al}_2 { m ilde{O}}_3$	30.94	6.81	0.04	2.83	30.33	30.03	1.08	1.63	29.98	29.76	28.97	2.23	0.03	0.05	14.67 0.0	9 14.65	0.21
FeO^{T}	0.51	8.20	14.47	64.65	0.59	0.51	11.57	10.60	0.64	0.48	0.59	9.97	33.85	45.82	10.30 0.1	5 10.31	0.13
MnO	I	0.13	0.16	0.61	0.04	I	0.33	0.25	Ι	I	Ι	0.29	0.52	0.83	0.12 0.0	4 0.12	0.05
MgO	Ι	11.36	44.98	2.08	0.12	Ι	17.95	13.96	Ι	Ι	Ι	14.08	28.47	18.95	4.72 0.0	8 4.74	0.11
CaO	13.15	21.99	0.23	0.06	12.84	12.86	14.47	20.00	12.80	12.56	11.53	20.01	0.32	0.47	8.07 0.0	8 8.02	0.08
Na_2O	3.70	0.56	I	0.04	3.90	3.95	0.20	0.52	4.10	4.15	4.60	0.33	0.01	I	3.26 0.1	7 3.40	0.09
$K_2 \bar{O}$	0.24	0.03	I	0.01	0.19	0.12	0.01	Ι	0.26	0.22	0.25	I	I	I	0.0 0.0	3 0.97	0.04
P_2O_5	I		I		I	I	I	I	Ι	I	I	I	I	I	0.32 0.0	4 0.31	0.02
Cr_2O_3	I	0.04	0.02	0.01	0.04	Ι	0.15	0.04	Ι	I	Ι	0.14	0.06	0.02	0.05 0.0	4 0.05	0.04
NiO	I		I		I	I	I	Ι	I	I	Ι	I	I	0.03	1	Ι	I
Total	100.13	99.00	100.10	98.83	99.74	100.03	99.66	99.71	99.82	100.11	99.54	99.52	99.09	100.48	99.91 0.3	7 100.00	0.44
Albite	33				35	35			36	37	41						
Anorthite	65				64	64			62	62	57						
Orthoclase	1				1	1			-	1	1						
Enstatite		36					52	41				41					
Ferrosilite		14					19	17				16					
Wollastonite		50					30	42				42					
Forsterite			85										09	42			
Ulvöspinel				83													
PLAG nlagic	clase CF	Y clinon	Vroxene	OI olivin	ne MGT	maonetit	e GI als	6 <i>4 B</i> 3 30	lbali haea	It BA h	sealtin an	dacita H	' homoiite	num M	annita Ttholaiita		

Table 1 Representative microprobe analyses of glasses and minerals of Syrian lavas

ມົ j n า มิ ົ້ г, г ŝ 20 D ŝ ing. ົ ິ J J J ^aMajor elements in wt%

	BHVO-1 (ICPMS)	Standard		Ι	I	I		Ι	I		I	I	4.45 26.7	20.7 332	293	43.9 115	132	101	22.2 0 56	24.7	0.094	390 133	168	4.50 17.7	1.13	2.10	0.425	15.2	37.9 5 34	24.4	6.16 2.03	6.11	$\begin{array}{c} 0.933\\ 5.30\\ 0.979\end{array}$
	BHVO-1 (XRF)	Standard	50.00 2.79	13.86	12.26	0.17	11.54	2.43	0.53	0.20	101.09	I	I		291	- 110		104	1 =	11	- 101	401	I		Ι	I		I		I		I	
	SY-127 36°37'35'' 37°19'46''	392 AB	44.29 2.68	12.59	13.21	0.18	2.72 10.61	2.68	1.38	0.22 1.95	99.81	0.63	6.09 71.7	21.2 239	283	56.4	211 57.8	108	21.9 10.3	19.6	0.200	091 308	182	4.22 41 7	2.71	2.39	0.789	25.6	54.1 6.35	25.9	5.84 2.01	5.65	0.799 4.20 0.737
	SY-067 36°06'56'' 37°13'40''	538 BA	50.16 1.66	13.87	11.55	0.15	96.6	3.27	0.45	0.20 2.47	100.08	0.56	10.1	0.01	279	44.5 222	74.2	112	20.4 6.74	20.5	0.155	295 1533	86.7	2.43 9.97	0.608	1.69	0.331	8.13	18.1 2 30	10.9	3.32 1 26	3.92	$\begin{array}{c} 0.642 \\ 3.89 \\ 0.730 \end{array}$
	SY-031 36°46′44″ 36°48′53″	1058 H	49.78 2.22	15.01	12.47	0.17	8.82	3.67	1.33	1.00	100.56	0.51	7.58		258	42.5 01	32.7	121	22.5 27.8	26.6	0.293	0/0 360	164	4.04 31.7	1.76	4.88	1.09	33.4	67.5 8 73	33.2	7.12 2.16	6.73	0.937 5.16 0.939
	SY-028 36°46′44″ 36°48′53″	1125 M	51.08 1 93	16.02	11.72	0.14 1 85	4.00 8.14	3.82	1.35	0.49 1.20	100.74	0.49	6.72 20.4	205 205	171	36.2 70.5	25.9	109	24.2 30 0	24.5	0.470	371 371	158	3.48 23.8	1.18	5.10	1.15	31.0	62.6 7 16	28.0	5.88 1 95	5.71	$\begin{array}{c} 0.807 \\ 4.41 \\ 0.815 \end{array}$
n samples	SY-027 36°45′30″ 36°50′12″	680 BAS	44.23 2.52	14.23	13.45	0.18	9.35	3.48	1.55	1.17	100.60	0.62	8.20	11.7	242	48.7 170	67.6 67.6	105	- 10 0	21.8	0.328	980 458	230	5.93 59.7	3.51	4.43	2.69 2.69	69.69	122 17 8	46.7	8.65 2.66	8.11	1.05 5.42 0.944
s of the Syria	SY-014 36°36'34" 37°04'26"	603 BA	52.12 1 74	14.84	10.73	0.13	9.61	3.31	0.83	0.22 2.15	100.85	0.53	2.35	109	176	26.3 65.3	29.2	76.0	- 10 1	19.6	0.654	568 568	114	3.68 12.6	0.956	3.56	0.748	14.4	30.4 4.02	17.2	4.45 1 46	4.79	0.789 4.60 0.871
-MS) analyse	SY-010 36°29'03'' 37°02'18''	488 AB	45.69 1 95	14.81	11.53	0.15	11.48	3.50	0.96	0.47 2.39	98.15	0.51	10.7		211	41.3 877	02.2 37.5	98.4	- 16.6	20.3	0.191	712	127	3.77	1.36	2.95	0.553	26.9	55.6 6.63	26.9	5.86 1.87	5.80	0.832 4.66 0.861
race element (XRF, ICF	SY-004 36°37'29'' 37°28'09''	530 T	49.92 139	14.39	11.64	0.14	9.28	3.21	0.54	1.19	99.61	0.61	8.84 10.4	17.4	283	48.0 200	58.0 58.0	98.2	- 11 0	16.8	0.265	279 365	86.1	2.57 9.01	0.625	1.54	1.44 0.442	8.68	19.3 2 54	11.3	3.13 1 12	3.62	0.588 3.56 0.679
	SY 01/23 36°47'08'' 36°49'07''	875 T	49.96 1 90	15.79	11.63	0.16 5 77	8.42	3.77	1.00	0.29	98.65	0.48	9.56 20.6	220 220	215	38.2 63 e	32.9	113	30.5 14 1	23.3	0.187	423 237	137	3.81 16.2	0.910	3.93	0.646	16.8	35.5 4 57	19.6	4.90 1.62	5.14	0.817 4.76 0.923
(XRF) and	SY 01/12 36°46'57" 36°49'48"	897 M	50.80 2.02	16.16	11.37	0.14	8.12	3.66	1.31	0.70	98.74	0.43	9.34 20.0	223	162	35.6 40.0	40.3 26.2	111	34.1 26.5	25.4	0.412	208 298	161	4.30 22.6	1.21	5.07	1.02	24.9	48.3 6 37	26.4	6.06 1 91	6.12	0.943 5.37 1.03
ntative major	SY 01/10 36°47'13" 36°49'27"	989 H	49.43 7.73	14.73	12.03	0.14 5 87	2.02 8.47	3.61	1.33	0.75	99.03	0.50	8.06	221 221	266	40.0	35.4	126	35.2 78.6	23.7	0.360	012 355	164	4.36 29.6	1.59	5.02	4.40 1.06	30.8	60.4 7.65	31.3	6.81 2 13	6.48	0.953 5.20 0.953
Table 2 Represei	Sample Latitude (°N) Longitude (°E)	Elevation (m) Rock type	SiO ^a TiO	Al_2O_3	$\mathrm{Fe_2O_3^T}$	MnO	CaO	Na_2O	K ₂ O	LOI LOI	Total	Mg no ^b	s, Li	20	Cr	CO V CO	Cu	Zn	Ga Rh	Y	cs	ы Ва	Zr	Ht	Ta	Pb	n U	$\overset{\mathrm{La}}{\ldots}$	P.Ce	PN	Sm Fu	Gd	Tb Dy Ho

Sample Latitude (°N) Longitude (°E)	SY 01/10 36°47'13" 36°49'27" 080	SY 01/12 36°46′57″ 36°49′48″	SY 01/23 36°47'08'' 36°49'07'' 875	SY-004 36°37′29′′ 37°28′09′′ 530	SY-010 36°29′03″ 37°02′18″	SY-014 36°36'34" 37°04'26"	SY-027 36°45'30″ 36°50'12″ 680	SY-028 36°46'44" 36°48'53"	SY-031 36°46'44" 36°48'53"	SY-067 36°06'56" 37°13'40" 53°	SY-127 36°37'35'' 37°19'46'' 302	BHVO-1 (XRF)	BHVO-1 (ICPMS)
Rock type	H	Ň	C/0 L	T	AB	BA	BAS	W	H H	BA	AB	Standard	Standard
Er	2.42	2.68	2.41	1.75	2.20	2.28	2.31	2.16	2.35	1.85	1.77	I	2.47
Tm	0.318	0.364	0.336	0.235	0.300	0.309	0.297	0.320	0.312	0.244	0.232	I	0.323
Yb	2.00	2.30	2.09	1.52	1.88	1.92	1.79	1.93	1.91	1.48	1.40		1.98
Lu	0.276	0.330	0.303	0.217	0.269	0.274	0.254	0.264	0.265	0.203	0.185	Ι	0.273
Averages of ans <i>BAS</i> basanite, \checkmark ^a Major elements ^b Mg no = Mg/(lyses of the s <i>HB</i> alkali basa in wt%, trac (Mg + Fe ²⁺)	tandard BHN ult, <i>BA</i> basalt se elements in), assuming F	VO-1 (XRF: i tic andesite, E n ppm $3eO = 0.85Fe^{T}$	i = 7; ICP-N 3AS basanite,	IS: $n = 9$) al H hawaiite,	re also given <i>M</i> mugearit	e, T tholeiite						

 Table 2 (Contd.)

basalts and one basanite as well as basaltic andesites, hawaiites, and mugearites (Fig. 2). Basaltic samples include both nepheline- and hypersthene-normative compositions and can thus be further classified as alkali basalts and tholeiites.

Petrography

Alkali basalts and basanite

All analyzed Si-undersaturated samples have porphyritic textures and phenocrysts make up to 20 vol.%. The groundmass consists of plagioclase (An₆₅₋₄₄), clinopyroxene (Wo₅₀₋₄₇-En₄₁₋₃₆), olivine (Fo₆₀₋₅₆), and Ti-magnetite (Table 1). Some samples show calcite vesicle fillings. Olivine is the most common phenocryst phase and is more abundant than clinopyroxene. Most olivine phenocrysts are subhedral to skeletal and all show iddingsite rims or are completely altered. The olivine composition indicate that the alkali basalts represent melts that are already fractionated and that the most primitive rocks of the investigated samples are probably not primary melts. One sample contains a clinopyroxene cumulate with resorbed and mostly broken crystals. Sample SY-127 contains an agglomerate of spherical olivine crystals (Fo_{85-82}) that are interpreted as xenocrysts (Table 1).

Tholeiites and basaltic andesites

Plagioclase (An₆₄₋₁₂), clinopyroxene (Wo₄₄₋₃₀-En₅₂₋₄₁), Ti-magnetite, and rarely olivine (Fo₇₅₋₇₃) occur in the groundmass of tholeiites and basaltic andesites (Table 1). Some contain vesicles filled with calcite. The samples SY-023 and SY-024 are glass-breccias containing fresh glass fragments of basaltic andesitic compositions in a calcareous matrix (Table 1). The samples contain different amounts of olivine (Fo₈₂₋₅₅), clinopyroxene (tholeiite: Wo45-44-En44-46), and plagioclase (An_{65-29}) phenocrysts (Table 1). In the tholeiites olivines are the most abundant phenocryst phase (<10 vol.%). In contrast, basaltic andesites contain only up to 5 vol.% phenocrysts and partly resorbed xenocrysts. Plagioclase phenocrysts (5-10 vol.%) dominate in most cases over olivine. Cumulate aggregates of plagioclase and clinopyroxene and minor amounts of olivine are observed in both the tholeiites and the basaltic andesites.

Hawaiites and mugearites

The groundmass of hawaiites and mugearites is composed of plagioclase laths (An₆₂₋₂₀), clinopyroxene (Wo₄₅₋₄₂-En₄₁₋₃₈), Ti-magnetite, and rare olivine (Fo₆₀₋₄₂) (Table 1). Resorbed quartz crystals occur as xenocrysts in several samples (e.g., SY-028). Plagioclase phenocrysts (An₆₅₋₄₈) form euhedral to subhedral, lath-shaped crystals and make up to 5–20 vol.% and in most samples samples of the Syrian lavas

704

Sample	${}^{87}{ m Sr}/{}^{86}{ m Sr}$ (2 σ)	143 Nd/ 144 Nd (2 σ)	$^{206}{\rm Pb}/^{204}{\rm Pb}$	$^{207}{\rm Pb}/^{204}{\rm Pb}$	$^{208}{\rm Pb}/^{204}{\rm Pb}$
SY 01/09	0.704749 (10)	0.512732 (13)			
SY 01/10	0.704592 (11)	0.512749 (12)			
SY 01/12	0.704882 (14)	0.512699 (14)	18.844	15.686	38.974
SY 01/23	0.704878 (18)	0.512706 (07)			
SY 01/25	0.704526 (22)	0.512752 (05)			
SY 01/28	0.704378 (12)	0.512819 (11)			
SY 01/29	0.704855 (13)	0.512732 (14)	18.952	15.704	39.050
SY 01/32	0.704745 (22)	0.512749 (06)			
SY-010	0.704066 (03)	0.512803 (03)	18.975	15.671	39.057
SY-028	0.704843 (16)	0.512703 (15)			
SY-033	0.704570 (17)	0.512721 (11)			
SY-037	0.704310 (11)	0.512895 (17)	18.935	15.691	39.036
SY-038	0.704600 (19)	0.512799 (11)			
SY-067	0.704215 (10)	0.512899 (12)	18.605	15.656	38.547
SY-074	0.704747 (10)	0.512781 (13)	18.987	15.648	38.818
SY-082	0.704276 (03)	0.512786 (03)	18.666	15.675	38.516
SY-088	0.703947 (13)	0.512899 (10)	18.828	15.657	38.724
SY-123	0.704223 (12)	0.512795 (11)	18.784	15.652	38.875
SY-127	0.703697 (10)	0.512909 (15)	18.843	15.622	38.767
SY-129	0.703882 (11)	0.512940 (11)	18.778	15.610	38.667

are more abundant than olivine (Fo₈₃₋₅₀) and clinopyroxene (Wo₄₆₋₄₁-En₄₈₋₃₈) which together make up only 5–10 vol.%. The subhedral to skeletal olivine phenocrysts always show iddingsite rims or are totally altered. Some calcite vesicle fillings are observed and several samples contain cumulate aggregates of clinopyroxene and plagioclase crystals.

Chemical alteration

Weathering may cause chemical alteration of rocks affecting especially the mobile elements (e.g., Cs, Rb, K, and U) and leading to a loss of these elements and to elevate H_2O (i.e., loss on ignition = LOI) contents.



Fig. 2 Total alkali–silica diagram of Le Bas et al. (1986) with rock type discrimination after Le Maitre et al. (1989) for the classification of NW Syrian samples. *Filled symbols* refer to high-P group and *open symbols* to low-P group samples (see text for details)

Concentrations of mobile elements in the whole sample suite do not correlate with MgO contents and LOI. Some alkali basalts, tholeiites, and basaltic andesites have LOI values > 2 wt% (up to 3.55 wt%, Table 2) and show the lowest K₂O and U concentrations. If alteration processes have affected these samples, they should have high Nb/U ratios with respect to fresh lavas (Fig. 5a). However, samples with low U concentrations are indistinguishable from the rest of the sample suite in terms of Nb/U ratios. Thus, chemical alteration plays no important role and generally did not affect the mobile elements and has no significant influence on variations of other major and trace elements.

Geochemistry

Based on their P_2O_5 contents (Fig. 3a) the whole sample suite can be divided into two groups: (1) a high-P group including most of the alkali basalts and mugearites, hawaiites and some of the tholeiites and (2) a low-P group including most of the tholeiites and basaltic andesites and some of the alkali basalts and mugearites (Fig. 2). Although the basanitic sample lies off the trends shown in Fig. 3a, the major and trace element compositions of the basanite are similar to samples of the high-P group (Figs. 3, 4) and thus the basanite will be included in the high-P group. On average samples of the high-P group also have higher TiO₂ and K₂O for a given MgO compared to the low-P group. Even though there is some overlap in terms of SiO₂ contents between the two groups most of the high-P group lavas have lower SiO_2 for a given MgO (Fig. 3). The MgO concentrations of the whole sample suite range from about 10 to 4 wt%. Both lava series generally exhibit negative correlations of Al₂O₃ and Na₂O versus MgO whereas FeO^T, K₂O, and P₂O₅ concentrations are relatively constant over the whole MgO range (Fig. 3). For the low-P group samples



Fig. 3 Selected major element variation diagrams versus MgO. Arrows indicate individual fractionation trends of olivine (ol), clinopyroxene (cpx), and spinel (sp). Also shown are results for fractional crystallization modeling using the software program

MELTS of Ghiorso and Sack (1995) with input parameters listed in Table 4. Fractional crystallization trends for high-P group samples are given by continuous lines and for low-P group samples by dashed lines

12





Fig. 4 Plots of the trace elements Ni, Cr, and Nb versus MgO. *Arrows* indicate individual fractionation trends of olivine (ol), clinopyroxene (cpx), and spinel (sp)

 TiO_2 concentrations are negatively correlated with MgO, whereas a positive correlation is shown by the high-P group samples.

The compatible trace elements such as Cr and Ni correlate positively with MgO and Cr contents of the

Fig. 5 Variation of **a** K₂O versus Nb/U, **b** chondrite-normalized La/Sm [(La/Sm)_N] versus MgO, and **c** Nb/U versus SiO₂ for the NW Syrian lavas. Note that the lavas show no correlation between K₂O and Nb/U, that the high-P lavas have higher (La/Sm)_N and that both lava series show a negative correlation of Nb/U with SiO₂. The *gray field* displays the variation of Nb/U in oceanic lavas (Hofmann et al. 1986). Average continental crustal compositions of lower and upper crust are from Rudnick and Fountain (1995)

high-P group samples decrease sharply below 6 wt% MgO (Fig. 4a, b).

The high-P group samples are enriched in highly incompatible elements and, for example, Nb concentrations are on average twice as high in high-P lavas compared to the low-P group (Fig. 4c). Samples of the high-P group also have chondrite-normalized La/Sm $[(La/Sm)_N]$ ratios > 2.5. In contrast, the low-P lavas have $(La/Sm)_N$ generally < 2.5 (Fig. 5b). Nb/U ratios of the sample suite from NW Syria range from values typical of oceanic basalts (Hofmann et al. 1986) which were not contaminated with continental crustal material to values characteristically of average continental lower crust (Nb/U = 25) and also show a trend to low Nb/U ratios as representative of continental upper crustal rocks (Nb/U = 8.93) (Rudnick and Fountain 1995). The Nb/U ratios correlate negatively with SiO₂ (Fig. 5c). Most of the primitive samples yield high Nb/U ratios and have low SiO₂ contents. In contrast, the most evolved lavas of the two groups, i.e., the basaltic andesites and the mugearites, with high SiO₂ concentrations, show low Nb/U and high (La/Sm)_N ratios trending to upper continental crustal compositions (Figs. 5, 6).

Due to the young age of the NW Syrian lavas (<12 Ma) (Krienitz et al., unpublished data) age-corrections of the measured isotope ratios are insignificant and were not performed. ${}^{87}\text{Sr}/{}^{86}\text{Sr}$ and ${}^{143}\text{Nd}/{}^{144}\text{Nd}$ compositions define a negative linear trend (Fig. 7a) and basaltic samples of both groups have lower Sr and higher Nd isotopic compositions compared to the evolved lavas. The NW Syrian basalts have higher ${}^{87}\text{Sr}/{}^{86}\text{Sr}$ for a given ${}^{143}\text{Nd}/{}^{144}\text{Nd}$ relative to rocks from the Arabian lithospheric mantle and lavas from Saudi



Fig. 6 Plot of $(La/Sm)_N$ versus Nb/U showing different trends for the two lava groups. The range of Nb/U in oceanic lavas (*gray field*) is from Hofmann et al. (1986). Note that the high-P lavas show a trend from uncontaminated magmas toward the average composition of the upper continental crust whereas the lower crust has a very high Nb/U. Average continental crustal compositions of lower and upper crust are from Rudnick and Fountain (1995)



Fig. 7 Diagrams of a ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr versus ¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd, b ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb versus ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁴Pb, and c ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb versus ²⁰⁸Pb/²⁰⁴Pb for the NW Syrian samples compared with Arabian crustal data, clinopyroxene analyses representative of Arabian lithospheric mantle, lavas from the Red Sea region and Saudi Arabia, and with lava compositions which are related to two different Afar mantle plume components (i.e., high ³He/⁴He lavas and lavas with ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb > 19.3). *Data sources:* Arabian lithospheric mantle: Altherr et al. (1990), Henjes-Kunst et al. (1990), Blusztajn et al. (1995); Red Sea: Dupré et al. (1988), Eissen et al. (1989), Schilling et al. (1992); Saudi Arabia and southern Syria: Bertrand et al. (2003); Afar mantle plume: Marty et al. (1996), Pik et al. (1999), Bertrand et al. (2003)

Arabia and the Red Sea. Compared to the intraplate lavas from southern Syria the investigated sample suite lies on a steeper linear trend in the Sr and Nd isotopes extending toward the compositions of upper crustal samples from Jordan (Jarrar et al. 2003) and Saudi Arabia (Hegner and Pallister 1989) (Fig. 7a). The Pb isotope compositions of the high-P samples appear to lie on trends of increasing ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁴Pb and ²⁰⁸Pb/²⁰⁴Pb with increasing ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb whereas the low-P samples from NW Syria show no clear trend (Fig. 7b, c). The NW Syrian lavas trend toward the Saudi Arabian lavas with $\log \frac{206}{Pb}/\frac{204}{Pb}$ of about 18.6. The $\frac{206}{Pb}/\frac{204}{Pb}$ and ²⁰⁸Pb/²⁰⁴Pb compositions of the NW Syrian samples overlap with the compositions of magmas from the Red Sea but lie outside the range representative for the Arabian lithospheric mantle (Fig. 7c). The NW Syrian lavas have higher Sr isotope ratios for a given ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb compared to the Saudi Arabian and Red Sea lavas and to isotopic compositions of the Arabian lithospheric mantle (Fig. 8a). Similarly, most of the NW Syrian lavas have lower Nd isotope ratios for a given ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb, even though the most primitive samples partly overlap with the Saudi Arabian lavas. The NW Syrian sample suite appears to trend to upper crustal compositions and only the high-P lavas form a negative trend (Fig. 8b). The investigated samples exhibit a negative correlation between Pb/Nd and ¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd as well as a negative correlation between Nb/U and ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ranging between oceanic basaltic and crustal compositions (Fig. 9a, b). With respect to the $(La/Sm)_N$ ratios the lavas within each group display a slightly negative correlation with their isotopic composition (Fig. 9c).

Discussion

Fractional crystallization and depths of stagnation of the NW Syrian magmas

Primitive, mantle derived magmas in equilibrium with mantle olivine have Mg-numbers of 0.68–0.72 and Ni concentrations in the range of 300-500 ppm (Frey et al. 1978). Although some tholeiites and alkali basalts from NW Syria have relatively primitive Mg-numbers, ranging from 0.65 to 0.60, and Ni concentrations of about 300 ppm (Table 2), most of the rocks show lower values. The decreasing MgO contents in combination with decreasing Ni and Cr contents (Fig. 4a, b) imply crystal fractionation of olivine, clinopyroxene, and spinel. However, the different incompatible element compositions (Fig. 4c) and especially the different $(La/Sm)_N$ (Fig. 5b) of the high-P and the low-P lava series indicate that both groups formed from different parental magmas and cannot be related by fractional crystallization. The observed range of MgO contents within each lava series suggests that each series roughly lies along one liquid line of descent and the lavas from each rock suites are most likely related by crystal fractionation processes.



Fig. 8 Diagrams of **a** 206 Pb/ 204 Pb versus 87 Sr/ 86 Sr, and **b** 206 Pb/ 204 Pb versus 143 Nd/ 144 Nd for the investigated NW Syrian samples. Additionally shown is a field of lavas from Israel. *Data source*: Stein and Hofmann (1992); other fields and data sources as in Fig. 7

Olivine and clinopyroxene extraction causes the increase in Al₂O₃ (Fig. 3d) and the positive correlation of CaO/ Al₂O₃ ratios with decreasing MgO (not shown) in the residual melt. The increasing SiO₂ and decreasing Cr at MgO 6 wt% suggests increasing spinel fractionation. Positive Sr anomalies [average Sr/Sr* = 1.34; Sr/ Sr*=Sr_N/SQR (Pr_N × P_N)], the lack of Eu anomalies [average Eu/Eu* = 1.00; Eu/Eu*=Eu_N/SQR (Sm_N × Gd_N)], and constantly rising Al₂O₃ concentrations indicate that low pressure plagioclase fractionation did not play a major role in the petrogenesis of the NW Syrian magmas.

In order to estimate the pressure-temperature range of the crystallization of the NW Syrian lavas we use the clinopyroxene-melt thermobarometer of Putirka et al. (1996). The high-P group samples reveal pressure conditions between 0.7 and 0.4 GPa corresponding to depths of 25–14 km using a crustal density of 2.8 g/cm³, but mostly give a range of 0.6–0.5 GPa (21–18 km) for



Fig. 9 Plots of a ¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd versus Pb/Nd, b ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr versus Nb/U, and c ¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd versus (La/Sm)_N. The compositions of the uncontaminated magmas can be estimated based on the nearly constant Pb/Nd and Nb/U ratios in mantle melts (Hofmann et al. 1986; Mahoney et al. 1994). Data sources for Red Sea MORB as in Fig. 6

the crystallization process. In contrast, clinopyroxene crystallization of the low-P group takes place at shallower depths of about 0.3 GPa (\sim 11 km). Thus, the

crystallization pressure conditions indicate that the high-P group magmas stagnated deeper in the crust than the low-P group but both magma series crystallized within the uppermost ~ 20 km of the continental crust but below the sediment cover (~ 6 km thickness). These estimates are similar to observations made by Baker et al. (1997) for lavas from western Yemen which have undergone polybaric fractionation of olivine, clinopyroxene, plagioclase, and Fe-Ti oxides.

For quantitative modeling of fractionation processes the software MELTS from Ghiorso and Sack (1995) was used and the results for two parental magmas are shown in Table 4 and Fig. 3. Although the low-P lava series can be matched reasonably well, the fit of the model to the high-P lava series is poor due to the scatter of the lavas within this group. According to the MELTS model the most evolved lavas from the low-P group have fractionated about 22% clinopyroxene and 8% plagioclase. In contrast, the high-P group has fractionated about 37% clinopyroxene, 6% olivine, 3% plagioclase, and 7% spinel to evolve from an alkali basalt to a mugearite (Table 4). The removal of plagioclase as suggested by the model do not agree with the observed positive Sr anomalies and the lack of Eu anomalies in lavas indicating that other processes in addition to fractional crystallization have affected the composition of lavas. However, the model results are consistent with the mineral phases observed in thin sections with the exception of olivine which occurs in larger amounts than suggested by the model. The fractionation of olivine at even greater depth may account for the generation of the primitive alkali basalts the compositions of which were used in the MELTS software to model the fractional crystallization trends of the Syrian lavas. The results for high-P lavas are similar to Pleistocene volcanic rocks from Israel that have undergone up to 30% of mainly clinopyroxene and olivine fractionation and only minor amounts of other phases (Weinstein et al. 1994).

Crustal contamination

Both groups of the NW Syrian lavas show similar but variable ranges of Sr and Nd isotope ratios and highly incompatible element ratios versus isotopes implying that more than one end member is involved in magma genesis (Figs. 7a, 9). The presence of quartz xenocrysts in some of the basaltic lavas suggests a reaction of the ascending magmas with country rocks. Hofmann et al. (1986) showed that oceanic magmas have Nb/U ratios of 49 ± 10 implying that this range represents the Nb/U of the upper mantle. In contrast, the average upper continental crust has a Nb/U of 9 and the lower crust of 25 (Rudnick and Fountain 1995). The decrease of the Nb/ U ratios observed during magmatic differentiation of the NW Syrian magmas cannot be achieved by crystal fractionation only because the removal of mineral phases would not fractionate these elements. Consequently, the negative correlation between SiO₂ and Nb/U

	Input values			Initial values	recalculated by MELTS
	Low P-group	High P-group		Low P-group	High P-group
T range (°C)	1,300-850	1,300-850	T_{liquidus} (°C)	1,239	1,268
P (kbar)	3	3	P (kbar)	3	3
$\log_{(10)} fO_2$	0	0	$\log_{(10)} fO_2$	-6.87	-6.57
QFM	+1	+1	QFM	+1	+1
SiO_2 (wt%)	49.62	43.79	SiO_2 (wt%)	50.57	45.78
TiO_2 (wt%)	1.68	2.50	TiO_2 (wt%)	1.71	2.61
Al_2O_3 (wt%)	13.34	12.30	Al_2O_3 (wt%)	13.59	12.86
FeO^{T} (wt%)	10.45	11.50	FeO^T (wt%)	10.88	12.29
MnO (wt%)	0.14	0.17	MnO (wt%)	0.14	0.18
MgO (wt%)	8.66	10.16	MgO (wt%)	8.83	10.62
CaO (wt%)	9.54	10.49	CaO (wt%)	9.72	10.97
Na_2O (wt%)	2.80	2.34	$Na_2O(wt\%)$	2.85	2.45
K_2O (wt%)	0.64	1.00	K_2O (wt%)	0.65	1.05
P_2O_5 (wt%)	0.23	0.35	P_2O_5 (wt%)	0.23	0.37
H_2O (wt%)	0.50	0.50	$H_2O(wt\%)$	0.51	0.52
CO_2 (wt%)	0.30	0.30	\tilde{CO}_2 (wt%)	0.31	0.31
Total (wt%)	97.90	95.40	Total (wt%)	99.99	100.01
Low P-group	as at	Dhase	····•••0/		Composition
Fractionated phas	es at	Phase	Wt%		Composition
Т	1,119°C	срх	21.56		Di 29, En 22, He 22, Jd
MgO	3.92 wt%	plag	8.43		Ab 38, An 61, Sa 1.1
		Total	29.99		
High P-group					
Fractionated phas	es at	Phase	wt%		Composition
Т	1,108°C	ol	6.28		Fo 79
MgO	3.67 wt%	cpx	36.96		Di 36, En 18, He 17, Jd
		plag	2 93		Ab 37 An 61 Sa 17
		spinel	6.86		$U_{sn} 31 Mt 47 Sn 51$
		Total	53.03		Cop 51, Int 47, 5p 5.1
		i oturi	55.05		

indicates the crustal contamination of the magmas (Fig. 5c). Assimilation of continental crust is also indicated by the isotopic compositions of the lavas (Fig. 7) and the trends of Pb/Nd versus $^{143}Nd/^{144}Nd$ and Nb/U versus ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr (Fig. 9a, b). Especially the most evolved samples exhibit Nd and Sr isotope compositions clearly outside the fields of any mantle source in the region but trend toward the composition of the upper continental crust (Figs. 7a, 8). The observed correlations between Pb/Nd and Nb/U ratios and isotopic compositions throughout the differentiation trends are interpreted as the combined effects of assimilation and fractional crystallization (AFC) in the NW Syrian magmas (Fig. 9a, b). However, even though the AFC processes can also account for the observed negative correlation between Nd isotopes and (La/Sm)_N within each group of lavas (Fig. 9c), the differences between the high-P and the low-P group cannot be due to the contamination but must have formed during the magma genesis in the mantle. Because both the high-P and the low-P group share an isotopically similar mantle source the observed differences in incompatible element enrichment between

both groups are caused either by variable degrees of partial melting or by a relatively young depletion or enrichment event of parts of this source which did not affect the radiogenic isotopes (Figs. 3, 4, 5, 9).

Based on Sr and Nd isotopic compositions of the NW Syrian lavas AFC-processes were modeled using the energy-constrained assimilation-fractional crystallization (EC-AFC) model of Spera and Bohrson (2001). Because the clinopyroxene-melt thermobarometry indicates magma stagnation at upper crustal levels, the assimilants were most likely the upper crustal rocks. The composition of the assimilant with high $(La/Sm)_N$, Pb/Nd, and low Nb/U also supports an upper crustal, i.e., granitic component rather than mafic lower crustal material (Figs. 6, 9). Thus, in the model we used assimilant compositions similar to upper crustal rocks and an average Sr and Nd isotopic composition of hypothetical parental magmas which can be estimated on the basis of the relatively constant Pb/Nd and Nb/U ratios in mantle melts (Hofmann et al. 1986; Mahoney et al. 1994) and EC-AFC parameters for the "standard" upper crustal case as given by Bohrson and Spera (2001) (Table 5, Fig. 9a, b). Figure 10 shows that the isotopic and incompatible element variations of the two different Syrian lava groups can be modeled by the EC-AFC processes using two different parental magma compositions. These two parental magmas have approximately similar Sr and Nd isotopic compositions but very different Sr and Nd concentrations, i.e., the high-P group is much more enriched than the low-P group lavas. The model indicates that the evolved high-P group lavas have fractionated between 40 and 60% and have assimilated between <5 and about 25% of upper crustal material but suggests higher assimilation rates of up to 45% on the basis of Nd versus 143 Nd/ 144 Nd (Fig. 10b). In contrast, only <10% assimilation and 45-50% fractionation are needed to produce the isotopic composition of the low-P group lavas (Fig. 10). The results of the EC-AFC modeling are in accordance with the quantitative modeling of the crystallization processes using MELTS (Table 4, Fig. 3), although the results of the EC-AFC calculations are slightly higher for the low-P group samples. The contamination of an alkali basalt with \sim 48 wt% SiO₂ by 45% of upper crustal material with \sim 68 wt% SiO_2 (Jarrar et al. 2003) produces lava compositions with about 63 wt% SiO₂. Thus, the modeled assimilation rates of 45% appear too high for the high-P group, because only lavas with silica contents < 56 wt% can be observed in NW Syria (Fig. 2). However, an exact quantification of AFC processes is limited due to: (1) the unknown incompatible element concentrations of the parental magmas, (2) the heterogeneous geochemical nature of the crust, and (3) the uncertainties of the bulk distribution coefficients of Sr during assimilation and fractional crystallization.

Deep seismic refraction data of El-Isa et al. (1987) and geochemical studies of crustal rocks and xenoliths (Nasir 1992; Nasir and Safarjalani 2000; Jarrar et al. 2003) have shown that the upper crust in NW Arabia consists of mafic and intermediate to presumably felsic rocks while the lower crust below 20 km depth is more mafic. Since magmas of the two NW Syrian groups stagnated in the upper crust at maximum depths of < 20 km, it is likely that the magmas have assimilated upper crustal material. Although the EC-AFC model yields realistic results for the assimilation of upper crustal rocks, the possibility to generate low-P group samples by addition of a felsic crustal component to primitive high-P group magmas can be excluded. For example, the assimilation of felsic upper crustal rocks (e.g., granitic crust of southern Jordan; Jarrar et al. 2003) could account for the relatively high SiO_2 concentrations in the low-P group lavas (Fig. 3b), but the K contents of the melts from granitic upper crust $(>3.4 \text{ wt}\% \text{ K}_2\text{O}, \text{ Jarrar et al. 2003})$ would lead to high K₂O concentrations in melts whereas the low-P lavas have relatively low K contents (Fig. 3h). However, concerning lavas with alkali basaltic and tholeiitic compositions, the results of this study gave similar masses of assimilation for the NW Syrian magmas compared to basanites and alkali basalts of Jordan, which have assimilated up to 20% of upper crust (Shaw et al. 2003).

 Table 5 Input parameters for EC-AFC computations

Thermal parameters	T (°C)		
Magma liquidus temperature Magma initial temperature Assimilant liquidus temperature Assimilant initial temperature Solidus temperature Equilibration temperature	1,300 1,300 1,000 350 900 1,030	Isobaric specific heat of magma Isobaric specific heat of assimilant Crystallization enthalpy Fusion enthalpy	1,484 J/kg K 1,370 J/kg K 396,000 J/kg 270,000 J/kg
Compositional parameters		Sr	Nd
Magma A Magma initial concentration (ppm) Magma isotope ratio Magma trace element distribution coefficient		600 0.7035 0.7	15 0.51305 0.25
Magma initial concentration (ppm) Magma isotope ratio Magma trace element distribution coefficient		330 0.7035 0.7	7 0.51305 0.25
Assimilant Assimilant initial concentration (ppm) Assimilant isotope ratio Assimilant trace element distribution coefficient		63 0.7220 0.08	22 0.5123 0.25

Computations were performed using the computer program EC-AFC as cited in Spera and Bohrson (2001)



Fig. 10 Results for EC-AFC modeling. **a** Sr versus ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr, **b** Nd versus ¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd and **c** ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr versus ¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd. *Continuous lines* refer to calculated curves for high-P group samples (Magma A, Table 5) and *dotted lines* to low-P group samples (Magma B, Table 5) using the software program EC-AFC of Spera and Bohrson (2001). *Italic numbers* give the amount of fractional crystallization and *other numbers* the percentage of anatectic melt assimilated

The mantle sources of the NW Syrian magmas

Sr and Nd isotope ratios and highly incompatible element ratios versus isotope ratios of both lava series define similar trends implying that the sources of the high-P and low-P magmas must have been similar in

terms of isotopic and highly incompatible element ratios (Figs. 7a, 9a, b). It is suggested that the least contaminated high-P lavas lie close to the isotopic composition of the mantle source and on the basis of the contamination (AFC) trends (Figs. 7a, 9, b) we suggest that this source must have 87 Sr/ 86 Sr = 0.7035, 143 Nd/ 144 Nd = 0.51305, and ${}^{206}\text{Pb}/{}^{204}\text{Pb} = 18.6$ and thus resembles the depleted mantle component C2 in the Ethiopian lavas studied by Pik et al. (1999). The voluminous volcanism in the Red Sea region probably reflects the presence of the Afar deep mantle plume which has also been detected by seismic tomography studies (Daradich et al. 2003). Two different sources appear to reside in this plume and have been observed in lavas in NE Africa and on the Arabian Peninsula; (1) an ocean island basalt-like mantle component in high-Ti magmas of the Ethiopian flood basalt province with high ³He/⁴He ratios (Marty et al. 1996; Pik et al. 1999), and (2) a source with ${}^{206}Pb/{}^{204}Pb$ isotope ratios > 19.3 which occurs in lavas from Saudi Arabia (Bertrand et al. 2003) and the southern Red Sea and Gulf of Aden (Schilling et al. 1992). Both of these plume sources are different from the source of the NW Syrian lavas and thus there is no evidence for an inflow of Afar plume material from the south as has been suggested by Camp and Roobol (1989) (Figs. 7, 8). Stein and Hofmann (1992) proposed that the volcanism in Israel may be the result of lithospheric extension and melting of a fossil plume head beneath the base of the lithosphere. However, the lavas from Israel have lower ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and more radiogenic ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb ratios compared to NW Syrian lavas implying that such a fossil plume component does not contribute to the mantle source of Syrian lavas (Fig. 8a). In terms of Nd and Pb isotope compositions the source of the NW Syrian magmas lies at the relatively enriched end of the Red Sea MORB field but it has higher ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr than Red Sea MORB (Figs. 7, 8). Consequently, it may represent an enriched component of the lower part of the continental thermal boundary layer in accordance with Pik et al. (1999), or the asthenosphere beneath NW Syria contains enriched portions with a higher Sr isotope composition than Red Sea MORB. Interestingly, higher ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr for a given ¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd is observed in basalts from the northernmost Red Sea deeps compared to MORB from the southern Red Sea (Haase et al. 2000), indicating an increasing ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr in the upper mantle toward the northern Red Sea. The lavas from Red Sea MORB with the lowest ¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd have $(La/Sm)_N$ of up to 1.3 (Fig. 9c) suggesting that they formed from a source with only little depletion or even enrichment relative to primitive mantle (Haase et al. 2000). We propose that the NW Syrian magmas may have formed from relatively enriched portions of the asthenosphere beneath this region.

Magma generation and its causes beneath NW Syria

 P_2O_5 as well as Nb concentrations are twice as high in the high-P group compared to lavas of the low-P group (Figs. 3, 4), suggesting that low-P lavas may have formed from a mantle source which was depleted in incompatible elements relative to the high-P group. However, in the volcanic succession sampled near Bulbul the high-P lavas lie above low-P lavas implying that increasing depletion of the mantle source with time cannot explain the generation of the magmas (Fig. 11). Rather, the chemical evolution of the two compositional groups at Bulbul suggests that the observed differences are controlled by variable degrees of partial melting. Because the enrichment of incompatible elements increases by a factor of two the decrease of partial melting must be of the order of 50%. Since garnet has a large distribution coefficient for heavy rare earth elements (HREE), melting of a garnet-bearing mantle source would fractionate those from light rare earth elements (LREE) resulting in higher LREE/HREE ratios (e.g., Ce/Yb) compared to middle REE/HREE ratios (e.g., Sm/Yb). Therefore, the variations of the REE ratios



Fig. 11 Plots of a P_2O_5 versus height and b (La/Sm)_N versus height for the Bulbul lava succession. The two lava series are separated by a soil horizon suggesting that there was a major break in the volcanism between the eruption of the two series

shown in Fig. 12 indicate that melting occurred in the garnet stability field. Assuming an enriched mantle source the early low-P magmas can be generated by about 8% of melting and the younger high-P lavas by about 4% melting of an identical source (Fig. 12).

The SiO₂ contents of uncontaminated primitive magmas for the high-P and low-P lava series are 44 and 48 wt%, respectively (Figs. 3b, 5b). The SiO_2 content of magma is indicative for pressure conditions during partial melting (Hirose and Kushiro 1993) and we estimate average melting pressures on the basis of the algorithm developed by Haase (1996). According to this model melting of NW Syrian magmas occurred at pressures of about 3.9 GPa for high-P lavas and at about 2.2 GPa for low-P lavas, corresponding to average melting depths of about 120 and 70 km, respectively. Based on xenolith data McGuire and Bohannon (1989) place the lithosphere-asthenosphere boundary in W Arabia at a depth of about 75 km. Assuming a similar lithospheric thickness for NW Syria, the calculated depths of the Syrian lavas indicate that first stage melting occurred at the lower boundary of the lithosphere and during the second stage (high-P group lavas) partial melting occurred in the asthenosphere. The lava succession at Bulbul suggests that during the first melting stage relatively large degree melts were formed in the shallow mantle and during the second stage lower degree



Fig. 12 Diagram of chondrite-normalized Sm/Yb and Ce/Yb ratios showing the primitive uncontaminated lavas of each group and a melting curve for non-modal fractional melting of garnet and spinel lherzolite. Garnet lherzolite composition: 0.598 olivine, 0.076 clinopyroxene, 0.211 orthopyroxene, 0.115 garnet. Melting proportions of garnet lherzolite: 0.05 olivine, 0.3 clinopyroxene, 0.2 orthopyroxene, 0.45 garnet. Spinel lherzolite composition: 0.578 olivine, 0.119 clinopyroxene, 0.27 orthopyroxene, 0.033 spinel. Melting proportions of spinel lherzolite: 0.10 olivine, 0.50 clinopyroxene, 0.27 orthopyroxene, 0.13 spinel. Enriched mantle source composition (relative to the mantle source composition of average mid-ocean ridge basalts from Hofmann 1988): Ce 1.56 ppm, Sm 0.39 ppm, and Yb 0.41. Distribution coefficients used are from Kelemen et al. (1993) and Johnson (1998). Numbers give the degree of melting and chondrite values are from McDonough and Sun (1995)

melts were produced at greater depths. At a normal potential mantle temperature of 1,280 °C the lithosphere should be stretched by a factor of ~ 2 to generate partial melts from dry mantle (McKenzie and Bickle 1988). However, there are no indications for extensional processes during the magmatic activity in NW Syria and hence volcanism cannot be a consequence of lithospheric extension. Several of the NW Syrian volcanic units, like the Bulbul lavas, belong to a belt of alkaline volcanoes extending across the Eastern Anatolian Fault zone (Fig. 1). Keskin (2003) suggested that this volcanism may be due to the slab-breakoff which occurred at



Fig. 13 Schematic cross sections showing magma generation in NW Syria and Eastern Anatolia by slab break-off. a The tectonic situation before the slab break-off process commences. b Steepening and rifting of the subducting plate cause upwelling of the surrounding asthenosphere. At \sim 12 Ma the return flow of hot asthenosphere under northwestern Arabia induces melt generation in the asthenosphere in depths of about 70 km producing the low-P lavas. c As the slab sinks deeper into the mantle a deep return flow of asthenosphere leads to melt production in depths of about 120 km generating the high-P lavas between 11 and 9 Ma

11-10 Ma ago and thus coincides with the eruption of the Bulbul lavas (Krienitz et al., unpublished data) (Fig. 13). Asthenospheric upwelling above the sinking slab could then generate melts. Magmatism caused by slab-breakoff has been suggested by Davies and von Blankenburg (1995) but these authors proposed that the hot asthenosphere upwelling leads to melting of the metasomatized lithosphere of the upper plate of a former subduction zone. This cannot be the case in NW Syria and eastern Turkey because the lavas are clearly alkaline and do not show an enrichment of the fluidmobile elements which would be expected from lithospheric mantle above a former subduction zone. We propose that the NW Syrian magmas were formed by melting of an enriched and possibly volatile-rich portion of upwelling asthenospheric mantle which was triggered by sinking of the slab (Fig. 13). This could also explain the different depths of melting because upwelling will proceed to greater depths with time as the slab sinks deeper and deeper into the mantle.

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