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Provenance and magmatic-tectonic setting of Campanian-aged volcaniclastic sandstones of the Kannaviou Formation in western Cyprus: evidence for a Southern Neotethyan continental margin volcanic arc

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Abstract

Regionally developed late Cretaceous subduction-related magmatism in the eastern Mediterranean records progressive closure of the Southern Neotethys. In western Cyprus the late Cretaceous (c. 90 Ma) Troodos ophiolite is depositionally overlain by volcaniclastic sandstones (up to 750 m thick) that are dominated by redeposited pyroclastic fallout, interbedded with both non-calcareous and calcareous radiolarian-bearing mudstones. The sands were mainly deposited by channelised mass flow processes and to a lesser extent by turbidity currents in a deep-water forearc basin. The succession was folded and locally thrust-deformed related to latest Cretaceous emplacement of adjacent Mesozoic continental margin and oceanic units (Mamonia Complex). SIMS U-Pb analysis of euhedral to subhedral magmatic zircon crystals yielded a weighted mean $^{206}Pb/^{238}U$ age of 80.1±1.1 Ma (Campanian). Sandstone petrography including compositional framework ($Q_{12}F_{21}L_{67}$) suggests sediment supply from a volcanic arc. Subordinate continentally derived detritus suggests

a continental margin arc setting for the mafic to felsic fallout ash. SIMS analysis of little-altered volcanic glass indicates high Th/Nb and Th/La ratios that suggest the involvement of continental crust and/or subducted terrigenous sediments in magma genesis. Whole-rock chondrite-normalised REE patterns have comparable trends to modern and ancient forearc basin volcaniclastic sands and sandstones (e.g., northwest Pacific region). Trace element chemistry, although scattered towards the continental island arc fields on some geochemical diagrams (e.g., Th-Sc-Zr), mainly suggests an oceanic island arc source for the Kannaviou Formation sandstones, with variable enrichments in V-Cr-Ni-Sc, depletion in Nb-Ta, and relatively low trace element ratios (e.g., La/Co, Th/Co, La/Sc, Th/Sc). An explanation for this apparent discrepancy is that the volcaniclastic sandstones were derived from a relatively primitive arc constructed on previously depleted, rifted (thinned) Neotethyan continental crust. The inferred continental margin arc developed during early-stage northward subduction of Southern Neotethys beneath a Tauride microcontinent to the north. Large volumes of volcanic ash were derived from continental margin arc volcanism, probably in the vicinity of the Kyrenia Range in northern Cyprus.

Keywords: late Cretaceous, volcaniclastic sediments, continental margin arc, provenance analysis, Southern Neotethys, Cyprus

1. Introduction

Volcanic edifices are commonly localised and may be concealed or eroded, whereas their volcaniclastic products are commonly widely disseminated and easily recognisable in the stratigraphic record (e.g., Fisher and Schmincke, 1984; Yamamoto, 2009; Carey and Schneider, 2011). Volcaniclastic sediments (either primary or reworked) preserve petrographic and geochemical evidence that is indicative of magma genesis and tectonic setting of eruption.

Here, we present and discuss the results of a comprehensive study on the late Cretaceous volcaniclastic sandstones of the Kannaviou Formation in western Cyprus. We utilise a combination of field-based sedimentology, structural geology, thin-section petrography, and geochemical studies (whole-rock composition, mineral and glass composition) together with U-Pb dating of zircon, in the light of the regional geological setting. The main driver, building on previous studies, is to provide geochemical data for the volcaniclastic sandstones and to date the timing of the related volcanism, both of which are essential to understand the regional tectonic-magmatic setting. For example, it was unknown whether the volcanism relates to either continental or oceanic arc volcanism, and whether or not the source volcanism and the background depositional ages are synchronous. Specifically our objectives are: (1) to understand the deposition of the volcaniclastic sediments, taking account of the stratigraphy, structure and field sedimentary features; (2) to determine the magmatic setting of the source rocks using a combination of petrographic, mineralogical and geochemical studies; (3) to determine the absolute age of the related arc volcanism using U-Pb zircon dating; (4) to compare the Kannaviou Formation with modern and ancient counterparts; and (5) to propose

a new magmatic-tectonic model for the late Cretaceous magmatism in the context of the Southern Neotethys in the eastern Mediterranean region. Taken together, the results allow a significant advance in understanding in the tectonic-magmatic development of the Southern Neotethys in the eastern Mediterranean, with implications for comparable volcaniclastic sediments and tectonic settings elsewhere.

The most noteworthy feature of the Southern Neotethys in the eastern Mediterranean region is the late Cretaceous Troodos ophiolite (92-90 Ma) (Mukasa and Ludden, 1987). This is generally accepted to have formed during initial stages of northward subduction of the Southern Neotethys (Gass, 1968; Moores and Vine, 1971; Robinson and Malpas, 1990; Robertson, 1990, 2002; Robertson and Xenophontos, 1993; Pearce and Robinson, 2010). The volcaniclastic sedimentary rocks of the Kannaviou Formation depositionally overlie the Troodos ophiolite in the west of the island (Lapierre, 1968, 1975; Robertson, 1977a) and are therefore critical to interpretation of the regional tectonic setting (Fig. 1). Previous studies of the Kannaviou Formation provided field observations, whole-rock analysis, some mineral chemical analysis (Lapierre, 1975; Robertson, 1977a; Gilbert and Robertson, 2013) and paleontological dating (Urquhart and Banner, 1994; Lord et al., 2000). However, this is the first study to include evidence of geochemistry and volcanic source age. The source area of the Kannaviou Formation was previously suggested to be in the Kyrenia Range of northern Cyprus (Robertson, 1977a; Gilbert and Robertson, 2013) (Fig. 1a), a hypothesis that is tested here using new U-Pb dating of detrital zircons.

2. Geological setting

Below, we outline key features of the geology of Cyprus that are specifically relevant to an understanding of the late Cretaceous volcaniclastic sediments.

2.1. Setting of the Kannaviou Formation relative to the Troodos ophiolite

The Troodos Massif in central and southern Cyprus comprises the late Cretaceous Troodos ophiolite and its *in situ* sedimentary cover including the Kannaviou Formation. Based on paleomagnetic evidence, the Troodos ophiolite and its sedimentary cover underwent anticlockwise rotation of up to c. 90°, between the late Campanian and early Eocene (Clube et al., 1985; Clube and Robertson, 1986; Morris, 1996; Inwood et al., 2009). The Kannaviou Formation has to be rotated by 90° clockwise when interpreting its regional tectonic-magmatic formation.

The ophiolite is overlain, first by Fe-Mn-rich metalliferous sediments (umbers) of the Campanian Perapedhi Formation (up to c. 10 m thick) (Robertson and Hudson, 1974; Robertson, 1975). In western Cyprus, the Perapedhi Formation begins with localised umbers, as elsewhere in Cyprus (Robertson, 1977a), and passes upwards first into radiolarian mudstones, and then into volcaniclastic sandstones that represent the base of the Kannaviou Formation (Robertson, 1977a; Urquhart and Banner, 1994; Gilbert and Robertson, 2013).

The Kannaviou Formation mainly crops out around the western periphery of the Troodos Massif, from near Kannaviou village, the type area, northwards to around Istinjo and Kinousa (Lapierre, 1968) (Fig. 1b). The formation comprises alternating bentonitic claystone, radiolarian mudstone and

volcaniclastic sandstone, up to 750 m thick (Robertson, 1977a; Gilbert and Robertson, 2013) (Fig. 2). A Campanian-early Maastrichtian age has been determined mainly using radiolarians (Urquhart and Banner, 1994; Bragina and Bragin, 1995; Lord et al., 2000). In its type area, the Kannaviou Formation passes upwards into submarine debris-flow deposits, known as the Kathikas Formation (Swarbrick and Naylor, 1980) (Fig. 2). Local interbeds of pelagic chalk are dated as late Maastrichtian (Swarbrick and Naylor, 1980; Urquhart and Banner, 1994; Lord et al., 2000). The Kannaviou Formation and/or the Kathikas Formation in different local areas are conformably overlain by deep-sea pelagic carbonates of the Lefkara Formation, ranging in age from Maastrichtian to Oligocene (Robertson, 1976; Lord et al., 2000) (Fig. 2). Lateral facies equivalents of the Kannaviou Formation along the southern margin of the Troodos Massif are restricted to bentonitic clays and radiolarian siltstone, c. 160 m thick (Moni Member) (Robertson, 1977b; Swarbrick and Robertson, 1980). In contrast, the formation is entirely absent along the northern and eastern margins of the Troodos Massif (Robertson and Hudson, 1974), which has a bearing on the regional tectonic setting.

2.2. Mamonia Complex

The Mamonia Complex of western Cyprus is relevant here because it represents a likely source of terrigenous sediment to the late Cretaceous Kannaviou Formation. The Mamonia Complex is dominated by two different tectono-stratigraphic units (Fig. 1b) of late Triassic to early Cretaceous age: (1) Sandstone gravity-flow deposits, pelagic and redeposited limestone, chert, mudstone and radiolarite of the sedimentary Ayios Photios Group (Lapierre, 1975; Robertson and Woodcock, 1979; Swarbrick and Robertson, 1980; Torley

and Robertson, 2018); and (2) basaltic volcanics, together with volumetrically subordinate shallow-water carbonate, hemipelagic calcilutite, chert and mudstone of the Dhiarizos Group (Lapierre, 1975; Robertson and Woodcock, 1979; Swarbrick and Robertson, 1980; Malpas et al., 1992; Lapierre et al., 2007). The two stratigraphic groups are separated by tectonic contacts, and the Mamonia Complex as a whole has been juxtaposed with the Troodos Massif by a combination of thrusting and strike-slip faulting along steep arcuate fault lineaments during the late Cretaceous (Robertson and Woodcock, 1979; Swarbrick, 1980; Robertson, 1990; Morris et al., 1990; Bailey et al., 2000). The Mamonia Complex is restored as a part of the earliest-formed oceanic crust (Dhiarizos Group) and adjacent passive margin (Ayios Photios Group) of the Southern Neotethys that rifted from the northern margin of Gondwana (Robertson and Woodcock, 1979; Torley and Robertson, 2018). The volcanic rocks are also relevant to the composition of the source mantle lithosphere that may have affected the composition of subsequent arc magmatism in the region.

2.3. Transform faulting

Oceanic transform faulting is relevant to the Kannaviou Formation because it is inferred to have created a sea-floor topography that greatly influenced the deposition of the Kannaviou Formation during the late Cretaceous. The Troodos ophiolite in central-south Cyprus is cut by the east-west-trending South Troodos Transform Fault Zone, up to c. 15 km wide (Moores and Vine, 1971; Murton, 1986; MacLeod, 1990; Morris et al., 1990; MacLeod and Murton, 1993) (Fig. 1a). Transform faulting was active during the late Cretaceous genesis of the Troodos ophiolite at a spreading axis (Murton and Gass, 1986; MacLeod and Murton, 1993). Critically, the transform fault extends westwards beneath

the late Cretaceous-Cenozoic sedimentary cover and links with the arcuate fault-bounded lineaments in western Cyprus (Robertson, 1977a; Malpas et al., 1992, 1993; Morris et al., 1998) (Fig. 1b). The lineaments entrain fragments of late Cretaceous ophiolitic rocks and their sedimentary cover including the Kannaviou Formation (Robertson, 1977a; Gilbert and Robertson, 2013), together with slivers of late Cretaceous amphibolite facies and greenschist facies metamorphic rocks (Lapierre, 1975; Swarbrick, 1980, 1993; Malpas et al., 1992). The Troodos Massif including the Kannaviou Formation was tectonically juxtaposed with the Mamonia Complex during the late Cretaceous (pre- to syn-Maastrichtian) (Robertson and Woodcock, 1979; Swarbrick, 1980, 1993; Malpas et al., 1992, 1993; Morris et al., 1998; Bailey et al., 2000).

2.4. Cenozoic-recent development

The post-depositional geological development needs to be taken into account to understand the sedimentary development of the Kannaviou Formation. In particular, western Cyprus was affected by extension along a c. north-south axis during late Miocene to recent, related to formation of the Polis graben (Robertson, 1977c; Payne and Robertson, 1995, 2000; Balmer et al., 2019). The main Kannaviou Formation outcrop lies within the eastern part of the graben. The formation together with the Troodos Massif as a whole was uplifted and exposed mainly during the Pleistocene (Robertson, 1977c; Poole and Robertson, 1998; Morag et al., 2016). The effects of the Cenozoic faulting (e.g., relative movement of fault blocks) and the Pleistocene uplift (e.g., landslipping) were taken account of when interpreting the Kannaviou Formation.

2.5. Kyrenia Range

The Kyrenia Range in northern Cyprus is mentioned in this paper mainly because it is a possible source of the volcaniclastic sands that supplied the Kannaviou Formation. If correct, the tectonic setting of the Kyrenia Range during the late Cretaceous has a direct bearing on the provenance and tectonic-magmatic setting of the volcanism represented by the Kannaviou Formation. The Kyrenia Range is dominated by Triassic-Cretaceous platform carbonates that were metamorphosed under greenschist facies conditions during the late Cretaceous (Baroz, 1979). Late Cretaceous felsic volcanics (Fourkovouno (Selvilitepe) Formation) (Robertson and Woodcock, 1986; Huang et al., 2007; Robertson et al., 2012; Chen, 2018) have been suggested as the source of the Kannaviou Formation volcaniclastic sediments (Robertson, 1977a; Gilbert and Robertson, 2013). The succession continues with Maastrichtian-early Cenozoic basaltic volcanics and both pelagic and redeposited carbonates. The Kyrenia Range is interpreted as part of the northern active continental margin of the Southern Neotethys (Robertson and Woodcock, 1986; Robertson et al., 2012) that was juxtaposed with the Troodos Massif, possibly by the late Eocene and certainly by the late Miocene (Robertson et al., 2012, 2014). The Kyrenia Range escaped the major anticlockwise tectonic rotation of the Troodos Massif (Morris et al., 2015), and effectively forms the southern limit of Tauride continental crust (Fig. 1a).

213 # 3. Methods

214 ## 3.1. Fieldwork and sampling

215 Previous geological maps (Lapierre, 1975; Robertson, 1977a) were compared
216 and field checked. The type area of the Kannaviou Formation was remapped
217 to illustrate the structure and sediment distribution (Fig. 3). More northerly
218 exposures in the Sarama-Peristerona and Kinousa areas, and in the southern
219 part of the Akamas Peninsula, were studied for comparison (see
220 Supplementary material) (Robertson, 1977a). In addition, sedimentary logs of
221 well-exposed local successions were measured to shed light on depositional
222 processes and to aid sampling (Fig. 4). Fault distribution and kinematic studies
223 were carried out to determine regional stress regimes during different time
224 periods (see Supplementary material). During this study we used a combination
225 of new and previously collected samples (n=20 and 18, respectively), and also
226 new and existing laboratory data, as summarised in Table 1.

227 ## 3.2. Petrography

228 Sandstones of medium to coarse grain size were studied using an optical
229 microscope to determine their mineralogy and petrography. Scanning electron
230 microscopy (SEM) was used to study grain fabric and texture. Fourteen
231 medium-grained sandstones with well-preserved textures were selected for
232 point counting (Table 1). At least 400 points was counted for each sample using
233 a Swift Automatic point-counter, which gave a statistically meaningful result with
234 95% confidence limits (Van der Plas and Tobi, 1965). The Gazzi-Dickinson
235 point-counting method was utilised to maximise source rock data while
236 minimising the effects of grain size variation (Graham et al., 1976; Dickinson
237 and Suczek, 1979; Ingersoll et al., 1984). The recorded components (with

238 explanatory notes) are listed in Table 2. The raw data (by percentage), and the
239 calculated framework parameters are given in the Supplementary material.

240 3.3. Whole-rock major, trace, and rare earth element geochemistry

241 Whole-rock major and trace element concentrations of the sandstones (both
242 new and previous samples) were analysed by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) at the
243 School of GeoSciences, University of Edinburgh, using the methods of Fitton
244 et al. (1998) and Fitton and Godard (2004) (see Table 1). Accuracy and
245 precision estimates are comparable to those of these authors.

246 Ten newly collected samples (Table 1) were analysed at the ACME
247 Laboratories, Vancouver for trace and rare-earth elements (REEs) by
248 inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer, following lithium
249 metaborate/tetraborate fusion and nitric acid digestion. As an indication of
250 precision, the major intra-lab standard (Reference Material STD SO-18/19) was
251 analysed together with the samples, resulting in standard deviations (≤6%) for
252 all trace and rare earth elements. For further information on the procedures,
253 geostandards and precision for the elements analysed see http://acmelab.com.
254 All of the analytical data for the major, trace and rare earth elements are listed
255 in the Supplementary material.

256 3.4. Glass and mineral chemistry

257 Two polished thin sections (nos. 1074 and 2164 of Robertson, 1977a) that
258 contain abundant well-preserved undevitrified volcanic glass and feldspar were
259 selected for analysis of major elements, using a Cameca SX100 electron
260 microprobe (EMPA) at the School of GeoSciences, University of Edinburgh.
261 Previous analyses of glass, feldspar and pyroxene used the same method
262 (Gilbert and Robertson, 2013) (Table 1). Details of the analytical conditions and

methods are given by Hayward (2011) and by Hartley and Thordarson (2013). The accuracy of major element determinations is better than ±1 % of total value. All analytical data for glass, feldspar and pyroxene are given in the Supplementary material.

Trace-element analyses of undevitrified volcanic glass were performed on four new polished thin sections (nos. 14-11, 14-14, 16-20, 16-22) (Table 1) using a Cameca IMS-4f ion probe at the School of GeoSciences, University of Edinburgh. The analytical data, standardization protocols and errors are given in the Supplementary material.

3.5. U-Th-Pb secondary ion microscopy (SIMS) geochronology

Zircon crystals were selected from the 50-125 μm fraction that was extracted from c. 20 kg of medium to coarse-grained sandstone (sample nos. 14-04, 14-11, 14-14) (Table 1). A Wilfley table, Frantz Isodynamic magnetic separator and a high density solution (lithium polytungstate; 2.85 g/ml) were used to aid separation. Zircon grains (n=18) were randomly picked under a binocular microscope and finally mounted in epoxy resin and polished down to expose the grain interior. Internal structures were studied with the SEM using cathodoluminescence (CL) at the School of GeoSciences, University of Edinburgh. U-Pb analysis was then performed on a Cameca ims-1270 SIMS at the School of GeoSciences, University of Edinburgh, using the methods detailed by Kelly et al. (2008) and Ustaömer et al. (2012). Errors on the reported ages are ±1σ. Geochronological plots were produced using the Excel Macro program ISOPLOT (Ludwig, 2012). Analytical results are listed in the Supplementary material.

4. Results

4.1. Field relationships

4.1.1. Structure

Structural analysis was required to understand the stratigraphy of the Kannaviou Formation. The main part of the outcrop southeast of Kannaviou village is deformed into a large-scale syncline with a c. east-west-trending axis, as inferred by the presence of outcrops of ophiolitic basement both to the north and south (Fig. 3a-b). The core of the fold is made of variably folded mudstones and volcaniclastic sandstones, typically up to hundreds of metres in scale. Locally, the sandstone is structurally inverted, as indicated by overturned cross-bedding and normal grading. West of Kannaviou village, the succession is deformed into a large anticline (Fig. 3c). The core of this structure comprises thick-bedded, medium to coarse-grained volcaniclastic sandstone, siltstone and calcareous claystone. The Troodos ophiolitic lavas north of Kannaviou village (near Ezousa River) are affected by top-to-the northeast thrusting (Fig. 3). In the south, the main Kannaviou Formation outcrop is overthrust by arcuate lineaments of highly sheared ophiolitic serpentinite, as well exposed west of Statos (Fig. 3). Also, in the south of the Akamas Peninsula, ophiolitic rocks are thrust westwards over the Kannaviou Formation (Lapierre, 1975; Robertson, 1977a) (Fig. 1b).

The Kannaviou Formation is affected by two main generations of faulting. Overall, compression-related faulting relates to latest Cretaceous (Maastrichtian) emplacement of the Mesozoic continental margin and oceanic rocks of the Mamonia Complex (Robertson, 1977a; Swarbrick and Naylor, 1980). This was followed by mainly extensional faulting related to formation of

313 the Neogene Polis graben (Payne and Robertson, 1995, 2000). Mapping and
314 kinematic analysis (see Supplementary material) show that faulting offsets
315 parts of the succession but does not greatly disrupt the stratigraphy of the
316 Kannaviou Formation.

317 4.1.2. Sedimentary succession

318 The lower part of the Kannaviou Formation (c. 100 m) is dominated by non-
319 calcareous to variably calcareous claystone (Fig. 4a-b), interbedded with thin-
320 bedded volcaniclastic mudstone (Figs. 4c, 5a). Several fine-grained, lenticular
321 volcaniclastic sandstone packages, up to 10 m thick, are locally present (Figs.
322 4a-d, 5b). Bioturbation (<3 cm long) is commonly well developed (Fig. 5c). The
323 mudstone and sandstone locally contain basalt, hyaloclastite breccia and/or
324 palagonite clasts, 3-45 cm in diameter, with a matrix-supported fabric, as seen
325 near the Troodos extrusive rock contact (Figs. 4b, 5d).

326 The middle part of the succession is characterised by thick-bedded,
327 medium to coarse-grained volcaniclastic sandstone (Fig. 4a, e-h). The
328 individual sandstone depositional unit is much thicker (up to 30 m), more
329 massive and virtually structureless compared to those beneath. A prominent c.
330 25 m thick nearly homogeneous tabular sandstone northeast of Kannaviou
331 village (Fig. 4a) exhibits occasional planar lamination, low-angle cross
332 lamination and indistinct normal grading. Convolute lamination (up to 25 cm
333 thick) and evidence of slumping occur locally (Figs. 4h, 5e). Cross-bedding
334 measurements from small outcrops (e.g., near Istinjo) show a general preferred
335 orientation of foreset lamination towards the southeast (Robertson, 1977a).
336 This is consistent with the absence of the Kannaviou Formation farther east,

where pelagic chalks of the Lefkara Formation directly overlie the Perapedhi Formation or the Troodos ophiolitic lavas (Robertson, 1977a).

The upper part of the succession is dominated by claystone and volcaniclastic mudstone (Fig. 4e-g, i-j). Lenticular sandstone units (up to 20 m thick) are interbedded with structureless claystone and weakly-bedded volcaniclastic mudstone, for example around Sarama-Lasa (Figs. 4e-f, 5f). Sandstone, where present, is generally thin to medium-bedded, and forms lenses up to c. 300 m long. Individual sandstones are fine to medium-grained, well-laminated and normal-graded. Elsewhere, low-angle cross-bedding, planar cross-bedding and horizontal stratification are present. Mud rip-up clasts are locally present near the base of individual beds, and some beds are rich in plant material (i.e., branches, twigs and leaf debris). Dark epiclastic grains of basalt are commonly visible in hand specimen (<1 mm in size).

4.2. Petrography and detrital modes

Framework grains are characterised by sub-angular to sub-rounded morphologies and poorly to moderately-sorted fabrics. Quartz (2-18 modal %) and feldspar (6-21 modal %; up to 1200 μm) are common. Abundant volcaniclastic material is present, mostly as transparent volcanic glass with only rare phenocrysts (see Section 4.2.2). In contrast, volcanic grains (mostly angular) range in composition from mafic to intermediate (dark coloured; <4%), to felsic (pale coloured; 2-15%) and commonly contain phenocrysts (see Section 4.2.2) (Fig. 6a). Grains of pyroxene (<3%, up to 500 μm), biotite (<2%) and hornblende (<2%) occur variably. Clasts of radiolarian chert, mica-schist and foraminiferal pelagic limestone also occur locally (Fig. 6b-c). Microfossils are widespread, mostly radiolarians, planktic foraminifera and sponge spicules

(Fig. 6d). The sandstones are generally matrix-supported and carbonate-cemented. The matrix constitutes 6-48 modal %, and mainly comprises clay minerals, together with minor tiny detrital fragments of volcanic glass, feldspar and mica.

4.2.1. Compositional variation

The sandstones show considerable compositional variation from the base of the succession upwards. The lowermost sandstones (sample nos. 14-14, 19.1) are relatively fine-grained (c. 150-300 μm), generally non-calcareous, rich in quartz (including polycrystalline quartz; QFL%Q=17-19) but low in feldspar (QFL%F=13-15). Mica-schist is common and also locally chert. A medium to coarse-grained sandstone sample (no. 18.5) from near the Paleomylon River contains abundant feldspar (QFL%F=24) and lithic fragments (QFL%L=70) that are mostly of volcanic origin (97%). Where the Kannaviou Formation is exposed along the arcuate tectonic lineaments (Fig. 1b) only the base of the succession is exposed restricted to fine-grained, thin-bedded sandstone (Gilbert and Robertson, 2013). A typical sandstone (no. 14.5) from the lineament south of Episkopi is fine to medium-grained, carbonate-bearing litharenite with abundant polycrystalline quartz and metamorphic lithics (e.g., mica-schist).

In the middle part of the succession (sample nos. 14-12, 14-13, 21.2, 22.1), the grain size of the sandstone is typically c. 180-250 μm but reaches 400 μm locally (e.g., south of Kannaviou village; no. 22.1). Quartz (including polycrystalline quartz) decreases (QFL%Q=6-13), whereas feldspar increases (QFL%F=10-32). Volcanic lithics slightly increase and chert becomes common. Dolomite and carbonate cements become more abundant. Sandstones from the upper part of the succession (sample nos. 14-11, 23.1) are generally

coarse-grained (c. 300-500 μm) with more abundant volcanic lithics (LmLvLs%Lv=96-99). Polycrystalline quartz and mica-schist are sparse. Devitrified volcanic glass and recrystallised limestone are rarely present.

Four medium-grained, thick-bedded sandstones from the middle to upper part of the succession in the Sarama-Lasa area are characterised by marked compositional variation, with generally low textural maturity. Two sandstones (nos. 2124, 2158) have abundant lithic fragments (QFL%L=72-80) but few quartz grains (QFL%Q<5). Two other sandstones (nos. 2141, 2156) have a higher abundance of quartz, especially polycrystalline quartz (QFL%Q=15-20) and subhedral feldspar (QFL%F=26) but less lithic fragments (QFL%L=54-59). Volcanic lithics predominate (LmLvLs%Lv=92-96) in these two sandstones, with subordinate metamorphic (no. 2141; LmLvLs%Lm=6) and sedimentary (no. 2156; LmLvLs%Ls=4) fractions.

4.2.2. Glass morphology

The grain size is typically c. 100-700 μm but reaches 1200 μm locally (Fig. 7). Colourless glass is mainly felsic (Robertson, 1977a; Gilbert and Robertson, 2013), constituting over 75% of the grains analysed (see Section 4.3.1). Pinkish or brownish glass is of mafic to intermediate composition (Robertson, 1977a) (see Supplementary material). Taken together, the relative abundances of glass morphologies, glass colour (related to composition), textures and vesicle abundances allow four general glass groups to be recognised (Fig. 7): (1) transparent, highly vesicular pumiceous glass with a common fluid-like or rarely frothy texture; (2) colourless glass as blocky shards, cuspate bubble wall, and rarely tubular or spindle-shaped glass, all of up to moderate vesicularity; (3)

411 pinkish glass composed of generally vesicular cuspate shards and blocky
412 shards; and (4) brownish glass with a microlitic texture.

413 4.2.3. Modal proportions

414 On the QFL diagram of McBride (1963) (Fig. 8a), sandstones from all sample
415 localities are feldspathic litharenite. An undissected arc basin is indicated on
416 the QFL diagram (e.g., Dickinson et al., 1983) (Fig. 8b) as the dominant
417 provenance, especially for the Kannaviou and Paleomylon River area
418 sandstones. Two samples from Sarama-Lasa (nos. 2141, 2156) and one from
419 south of Episkopi (no. 14.5) plot in the transitional arc field. Plotted on the QFL
420 and LmLvLs diagrams of Marsaglia and Ingersoll (1992) (Fig. 8c-d), the
421 Kannaviou and Paleomylon River area samples plot in the continental arc field.
422 The average Kannaviou Formation composition falls in the continental arc field
423 ($Q_{12}F_{21}L_{67}$) (Fig. 8c) or the overlapping field of intra-oceanic and continental
424 arcs ($Lm_2Lv_{94}Ls_4$) (Fig. 8d).

425 4.3. Glass and mineral chemistry

426 4.3.1. Volcanic glass

427 Volcanic glass of different morphology and from different localities shows
428 considerable compositional variation (Fig. 9). The volcanic glass analysed
429 (n=102) is divisible into two main chemical groups according to silica content:
430 i.e., mafic/intermediate (<57 wt. % SiO_2), and felsic (>70 wt. % SiO_2). All of the
431 glass samples have moderate Na_2O+K_2O contents (2.3-8.1 wt. %), typical of
432 the subalkaline/tholeiitic series (Fig. 9). Glass from the Lempa (no. 4.2),
433 Paleomylon (no. 18.5) and Sarama-Lasa (no. 2164) areas is felsic. Glass from
434 the Kannaviou area (nos. 19.1, 21.1, 21.2, 23A.1) is largely felsic (91%), rarely

435 trending towards intermediate/mafic (9%). Glass from the Akamas area (no.
436 1074) is bimodal, mostly mafic (88%) and to a lesser extent felsic (12%).

437 Oxides such as TiO_2, Al_2O_3, CaO and FeO are tightly grouped and exhibit
438 positive correlations with MgO (see Supplementary material). MgO contents
439 cluster around 0-1 wt. % and 4-6 wt. %. FeO exhibits a wide range (0.6-13.7
440 wt. %), as does CaO (0.7-10.9 wt. %). Al_2O_3 content is relatively high (c. 10.1-
441 19.5 wt. %), whereas TiO_2 is typically low (0.1-1.6 wt. %). Na_2O, K_2O and P_2O_5
442 are scattered.

443 The trace-element composition of the glass was also plotted on a normal
444 mid-ocean ridge basalt (N-MORB)-normalised multi-element spider diagram
445 (Fig. 10). Glass from near Kannaviou (nos. 14-11, 14-14) and from south of
446 Lapithiou (nos. 16-20, 16-22) is compositionally similar, characterised by
447 relative enrichment in Ba and Th (10-200×N-MORB), and also in Ta, Nb and
448 La (1-10×N-MORB). Concentrations of Zr and Sm lie nearly parallel to N-MORB.
449 Ti and Y are relatively depleted at 0.05-1×N-MORB concentrations.

450 4.3.2. Feldspar

451 Eighty-one feldspar grains were analysed from samples from five different
452 localities (Table 1) (Fig. 11a). All of the feldspar grains have low orthoclase
453 contents (<4.8%). Feldspar from the Akamas area (no. 1074; n=9) shows a
454 wide range in anorthite content (55-91%; labradorite-bytownite to anorthite),
455 whereas feldspar grains from the Kannaviou area (nos. 19.1, 21.1, 21.2, 23A.1;
456 n=37) are more variable (40-95%; andesine-anorthite). A bimodal distribution
457 of feldspar compositions exists in samples from the Lempa (no. 4.2; n=10),

458 Paleomylon (no. 18.5; n=12) and Sarama-Lasa (no. 2164; n=13) areas, with
459 anorthite contents of mainly 30-50% (andesine) and 70-90% (bytownite).

460 4.3.3. Clinopyroxene

461 Forty-two clinopyroxene grains were analysed from the Kannaviou (nos. 19.1,
462 21.1, 21.2, 23A.1; n=24), Lempa (no. 4.2; n=8) and Paleomylon (no. 18.5; n=10)
463 areas. Clinopyroxene grains show relatively uniform compositional proportions
464 and are mainly augite (Morimoto, 1988) with one exception from the Lempa
465 area (Fig. 11b).

466 4.3.4. Amphibole

467 Eight grains of amphibole from the Kannaviou (nos. 19.1, 21.1, 23A.1), Lempa
468 (no. 4.2) and Paleomylon (no. 18.5) areas have relatively uniform
469 magnesiohornblende compositions (Leake et al., 1997) (Fig. 11c).

470 4.4. Zircon U-Pb dating

471 Zircon grains are generally sparse and commonly poorly preserved. Most are
472 euhedral and 50-100 μm long (Fig. 12). The crystals display variable internal
473 structures including magmatic oscillatory zoning (zircon 1), inherited
474 (xenocrystic) cores (zircon 5) and metamict structures (zircon 8). The zircon
475 grains have high Th/U ratios (0.18-1.47), suggestive of a magmatic origin
476 (Rubatto, 2002). The 18 analysed zircon grains have concordance levels
477 ranging from 99-106%. The calculated $^{206}Pb/^{238}U$ age with the generally lowest
478 possible error was used for age determination.

479 Zircon grains from the Armou area (no. 14-4; n=6) have a dominant age
480 population of 81.9-85.7 Ma (n=5) (Fig. 13a), together with one grain of 578.9
481 Ma (zircon 6). Zircon grains from sandstones near Kannaviou village (nos. 14-

12, 14-14; n=12) have a significant zircon population of 78.1-83.6 Ma (n=11) (Fig. 13b). One grain was dated at 560.8 Ma (zircon 12). The only concordant or near concordant data (99-102%) within the dominant (relatively young) age distribution are represented by magmatic-textured euhedral zircon grains (nos. 4, 7, 9, 10, 13, 14, 16, 17) (Fig. 13c). These analyses yield a mean weighted mean $^{206}Pb/^{238}U$ age of 80.1±1.1 Ma (MSWD=1.7) (Fig. 13d), which is assumed to be the maximum age of the sandstone deposition, and also the probable age of the volcanic source.

Some of the zircon age data were excluded from the weighted age for the following reasons: The older zircon grains (nos. 6, 12) are rounded with a patchy xenocrystic texture that is suggestive of recycled origin (Fig. 12). Five zircon grains (nos. 1, 3, 8, 15, 18) show slightly reverse discordance, possibly due to slight loss of U and/or variable excess radiogenic Pb (e.g., Söderlund et al., 2010). Zircon grains 2 and 11 have relatively high common ^{204}Pb at 2.9 and 3.5 ppb, respectively. Zircon grain 5 that has an inherited core with a slightly older age (85.7 Ma) and zircon 7 with a relatively old age (83.6 Ma) were also excluded.

4.5. Whole-rock geochemistry

4.5.1. Major-element variation

The Kannaviou Formation sandstones show a wide compositional range (SiO_2 contents of 32-63 wt. %) (Fig. 14), characterised by low TiO_2 (<0.7 wt. %), Na_2O (0.9-2.9 wt. %), K_2O (0.4-1.8 wt. %) and Fe_2O_3 (2.8-5.4 wt. %). Al_2O_3 values are relatively high (typically 11-18 wt. %), as are CaO (5.0-26.6 wt. %) (see Supplementary material). Loss on ignition values are high (3-22 wt. %), as

506 expected given the common carbonate cement. As a result, we focus on trace
507 element contents and inter-element ratios.

508 4.5.2. Trace-element variation

509 Selected trace element concentrations for the Kannaviou Formation
510 sandstones are shown in multi-element diagrams (Fig. 15), normalised to upper
511 continental crust (UCC). Patterns of sandstones from Armou, Lempa, Sarama-
512 Lasa and south of Lapithiou are similar. Their trace element concentrations are
513 well below UCC with the exceptions of Y, Tm and Yb. The Armou, Sarama-
514 Lasa and south of Lapithiou area sandstones are mainly highly depleted in Th,
515 U, Nb and La, whereas the Lempa samples (nos. 4.1, 4.2) are relatively
516 enriched in these elements (with a more restricted range). In addition, one
517 sample (no. 21.1) from the Kannaviou area is characterised by positive
518 anomalies of Th, U, La and Ce but pronounced depletions in Ba and Sr,
519 whereas others (e.g., nos. 14-12, 19.1, 23A.1) are similar to Lempa (no. 4.2) or
520 Sarama-Lasa (no. 16-39). In contrast, the Paleomylon River area sandstones
521 are highly depleted in all trace elements, with pronounced positive anomalies
522 of Sr and wide ranges of U, K, Nb and La. However, Sr and probably also Y
523 (no. 16-04) are slightly enriched. A sample from near Ezousa River (no. 16-30)
524 is strongly depleted in U and has moderate negative anomalies of Ba, Sr and
525 Zr.

526 Positive anomalies generally exist compared to UCC, especially for Sr, Ba
527 and probably also for K, controlled by feldspar and/or K-bearing clay mineral
528 content (e.g., illite, mica) (Nesbitt et al., 1980; McLennan et al., 1983; Feng and
529 Kerrich, 1990). In contrast, negative anomalies of Zr, Hf, Th and U can be
530 explained by a reduced detrital heavy mineral fraction (Taylor and McLennan,

1985) and/or relatively mafic provenance (Bauluz et al., 2000). The generally positive anomalies of Y and probably also of P, especially from the Sarama-Lasa area samples (nos. 16-33, 16-34), imply weathering enrichment of Y related to phosphatic clay and/or a detrital heavy minerals (Wronkiewicz and Condie, 1987).

4.5.3. Rare earth element variation

Chondrite-normalised rare earth element (REE) patterns of selected sandstones from the Kannaviou Formation and reference data from UCC (Rudnick and Gao, 2003; Hu and Gao, 2008) and deep-sea sands from various settings (McLennan et al., 1990) are shown in Figure 16. Sandstones from the Kannaviou area (nos. 14-11, 14-12, 14-14) show moderately fractionated REE patterns with $(La/Yb)_N$=1.83-3.93 and $(Gd/Yb)_N$=0.99-1.16, generally negative Eu anomalies (0.73-1.0) and relatively low total REE contents (45.1-67.9 ppm). Sandstones from the Paleomylon River area (nos. 16-04, 16-13, 16-14) are comparatively enriched in LREE, have negative Eu anomalies (0.81-0.83) and flatten out towards HREEs. Sandstone from Sarama-Lasa (no. 16-34) has a fractionated REE pattern with a moderate $(La/Yb)_N$=2.01, a negative Eu anomaly (0.71) and relative HREE enrichment. Sandstones from south of Lapithiou (nos. 16-22, 16-23, 16-29) are similar to the Kannaviou area, but with considerably more pronounced REE fractionation and lower HREE concentrations. In contrast, the reference data (McLennan et al., 1990) show much less variation. In general, the average Kannaviou Formation sandstone parallels average forearc basin sand composition.

555 # 5. Discussion

556 ## 5.1. Local geological influences

557 The thickness and facies variation of the sandstone, especially in the lower part
558 of the Kannaviou Formation, were strongly influenced by the contemporaneous
559 sea-floor topography. The northeasterly limit of the Kannaviou Formation
560 coincides with the tectonically controlled relief that was created by the westward
561 extension of the c. east-west-trending South Troodos Transform Fault
562 (Robertson, 1977a) (Fig. 17). The transform fault zone formed a bathymetric
563 depression with a strongly rising fault-controlled topography to the north and
564 northeast of the type area around Kannaviou. Fault scarp-derived (epiclastic)
565 lava breccia and relatively coarse-grained, thick-bedded sandstone and minor
566 conglomerate accumulated near the northern limit of the transform, as seen in
567 the Paleomylon River valley (Fig. 4b). After its accumulation during the
568 Campanian (c. 80 Ma) the Kannaviou Formation was affected by north to
569 northeast-directed compression in its type area around Kannaviou. The
570 compression relates to docking of the relatively allochthonous Triassic-
571 Cretaceous continental margin and oceanic rocks of the Mamonia Complex
572 (Robertson and Woodcock, 1979; Malpas et al., 1992; Bailey et al., 2000) (Fig.
573 4d). During the Paleogene, the Kannaviou Formation was covered by the
574 pelagic chalks of the Lefkara Formation (Figs. 3, 4e). The formation was later
575 transected by c. northwest-southeast-trending steep extensional faults related
576 to the Polis graben during late Miocene-Pliocene (Payne and Robertson, 1995,
577 2000; Balmer et al., 2019) (see Supplementary material). The present-day
578 exposure is locally influenced by landsliding, triggered by the Pleistocene uplift
579 of Cyprus and related earthquakes (Mercier et al., 1973; Robertson, 1977c;

580 Poole and Robertson, 1998; Morag et al., 2016). It was necessary to take
581 account of all of these features to understand the primary deposition of the
582 volcaniclastic sediments.

583 5.2. Deposition of the volcaniclastic sandstone

584 The non-calcareous claystone and radiolarian mudstone in the lower part of the
585 succession (e.g., Fig. 4a-b) accumulated relatively slowly, near or beneath the
586 carbonate compensation depth (CCD) based mainly on the carbonate and
587 microfossil content of the interbedded fine-grained sediments (Robertson,
588 1977a). The near-basal matrix-supported basaltic clasts and occasional
589 lenticular, amalgamated sandstone packages with composite bedding (Figs. 4b,
590 5b) are indicative of relatively rapid, channelised emplacement by mass flows.
591 The petrographic evidence of basaltic epiclasts near the base of the succession
592 (no. 18.5) (Fig. 4b), partially degraded hyaloclastite (Gilbert and Robertson,
593 2013), and the high abundance of fine-grained matrix (see Supplementary
594 material), indicate derivation from the adjacent, then submerged Troodos
595 ophiolite.

596 Upwards, the increased occurrence of calcareous claystone, mudstone
597 and volcaniclastic sandstone, with local evidence of convolute lamination,
598 record relatively high sedimentation rates and common tectonic instability (see
599 Section 4.1.2) (e.g., Figs. 4h, 5e). Sporadic, indistinct planar and low-angle
600 cross-lamination are indicative of subordinate turbidity current deposition in
601 parts of the succession (Robertson, 1977a) (Fig. 4a). The relatively coarse
602 grain size, the increase in subhedral feldspar grains, and the occurrence of
603 subangular chert and mica-schist grains (see Section 4.2.1), together suggest
604 that source lithologies were being rapidly degraded and reworked.

605 The relatively thick (up to 20 m thick by c. 300 m long), lenticular
606 volcaniclastic sandstones, locally rich in mud rip-up clasts (see Section 4.1.2)
607 are indicative of rapid, pulsed, channelised accumulation (Robertson, 1977a),
608 similar to that reported from comparable sediments elsewhere (e.g., Nishimura
609 et al., 1991). The appearance of locally abundant although fragmentary plant
610 material indicates input from land (see Section 4.1.2). The upward presence of
611 calcareous mudstone interbeds (e.g., Fig. 4e-g, i-j) with calcareous microfossils
612 indicates a change to deposition above the CCD.

613 The vast amount of vesicular pyroclastic material (Fig. 7) is interpreted to
614 have originated from explosive volcanic eruptions (Robertson, 1977a; Gilbert
615 and Robertson, 2013), similar to many volcaniclastic deposits elsewhere
616 (Schindlbeck et al., 2013; Kutterolf et al., 2014). Excellent examples were
617 recently documented from the northwest Pacific region (Busby et al., 2017;
618 Kutterolf et al., 2018; Robertson et al., 2018). The restriction of the pyroclastic
619 material to sand-sized or smaller (see Section 4.2.2) points to initial explosive
620 eruption, followed by dominantly aeolian ash transport. The eruptions are likely
621 to have been subaerial but could also have been in shallow water (< c. 300 m)
622 where hydrostatic pressure was insufficient to prevent explosive release of ash
623 into the atmosphere. Such phreatic eruptions are for example known from the
624 1965 eruption of Taal Volcano, Philippines (Moore et al., 1966), and the 1975-
625 1977 activity of La Soufrière de Guadeloupe (Lesser Antilles) (Boichu et al.,
626 2011). After initial ash fallout, and probable local current reworking, the
627 volcaniclastic sediment represented by the Kannaviou Formation was carried
628 downslope by mass flows in submarine channels, individually up to 25 m deep
629 by up to 300 m wide (Figs. 4b, 5f). Sequences of repeated turbidites are not

developed in contrast to many deep-sea successions in modern and ancient forearc basins (Dickinson, 1995; Pickering and Hiscott, 2016). Also, undisturbed primary ash fallout deposits are effectively absent. The lack of conglomeratic or pyroclastic debris-flows deposits within the Kannaviou Formation hints at long-distance aeolian transport that left such coarse-grained material behind. Alternatively, a topographic barrier (e.g., ocean floor fault zone) (Fig. 17) could have isolated the depositional area from coarser-grained supply. The dominance of thick, channelised mass-flow (Fig. 4), relative to classical turbidites points, points to relatively proximal deposition in an upper to mid-fan setting (Howell and Normark, 1982). It is therefore unlikely that the sands were transported very long distances (hundreds to thousands of km) by axial flow as in some modern trench settings, such as the Peru-Chile trench (Schweller et al., 1981) or the Aleutian trench (Piper et al., 1973). However, initial long-distance sediment transport by wind and currents is not precluded, as discussed further below.

5.3. Factors affecting sandstone composition

5.3.1. Alteration of mineral and glass grains

In thin section, calcium is relatively abundant in the form of foraminifera, calcite spar (cement), clay minerals and feldspar (up to 14.5 modal %). Relatively high values of CaO, together with positive correlations of CaO and loss on ignition (LOI) values, are consistent with the carbonate content (Fig. 18a). Dissolved feldspar grains are relatively common. Some detrital pyroxene grains show superficial alteration to chlorite. In places, secondary porosity including small late-stage cracks is infilled by clay minerals or calcite spar. Only rarely are glass

654 shards partly devitrified, in which case they typically have thin clay or carbonate
655 cement coatings.

656 The relatively unaltered nature of the glass (c. 86% of the grains) is
657 supported by the analytical totals of typically >92 wt. % (see Supplementary
658 material). A few glass grains, mainly from Sarama (no. 2164), gave totals of 89-
659 91 wt. %. The typically high average totals of c. 95 wt. % are similar to those
660 reported from a range of Pleistocene deep-sea sediments, including tephra
661 from the Mediterranean Sea (90-99 wt. %) (Clift and Blusztajn, 1999), Central
662 America (c. 93 wt. %) (Kutterolf et al., 2008a, b), New Zealand (92-99 wt. %)
663 (Lowe et al., 2008) and also Neogene tephra from the northwest Pacific (90-
664 100 wt. %) (Bryant et al., 2003; Kutterolf et al., 2018). A possible explanation of
665 the relatively unaltered nature of the Kannaviou Formation sandstones,
666 especially the volcanic glass, is because of the protective effects of diagenetic
667 carbonate cement (e.g., Ulmer-Scholle et al., 2015).

668 A few glass grains (especially two from the Kannaviou area) have
669 unusually low analytical totals (89-90 wt. %) and high silica contents (61-71
670 wt. %); this could have several explanations: (1) loss of Na and K during
671 analysis (Nielsen and Sigurdsson, 1981; Clift and Fitton, 1998); (2) relatively
672 high eruptive volatile contents, following crystal fractionation (Burnham and
673 Jahns, 1962); and (3) secondary hydration (Clift and Dixon, 1994). The majority
674 of the glass grains have high silica contents similar, for example, to
675 Mediterranean tephra (Clift and Blusztajn, 1999). The relationship between
676 measured volatile-loss (100%-Total) and silica content (Clift and Dixon, 1994)
677 (Fig. 18b) suggests that little secondary hydration of the Kannaviou Formation
678 glass has generally taken place.

679 5.3.2. Grain-size, weathering, sorting and recycling

680 Several factors can affect sandstone chemical composition, including grain-size
681 variation, weathering, sorting and recycling (e.g., Wronkiewicz and Condie,
682 1987; Cullers, 1995). Some elemental concentrations and ratios can be
683 selectively affected by grain-size variation. However, MnO, CaO, K_2O and Sr
684 concentrations, and also La/Co, Th/Co, La/Ni and Th/Cr ratios are normally not
685 much affected (Cullers, 1995). Finer-grained fractions typically comprise
686 relatively homogeneous detritus and therefore generally have relatively
687 consistent elemental concentrations and ratios (Cullers, 1995, 2000). These
688 fractions are typically characterised by relatively high Al_2O_3, Fe_2O_3, MgO, TiO_2,
689 Th, Sc, Nb, Y and REE, low SiO_2, Na_2O and Ba, and relatively low Eu/Eu*,
690 La/Sc and Th/Sc (Taylor and McLennan, 1985; Cullers, 1995). In the Kannaviou
691 Formation sandstones Na_2O (correlation coefficient r=0.83), TiO_2 (r=0.67), Sc
692 (r=0.68), Be (r=0.61), Ga (r=0.92), Hf (r=0.70), V (r=0.47), Zr (r=0.48), Eu
693 (r=0.90) and HREE (r=0.4-0.6) all correlate with Al_2O_3 (see Supplementary
694 material), which suggests a clay mineral influence (e.g., clayey matrix, illite,
695 kaolinite) on chemical composition (e.g., Roser and Korsch, 1986; Feng and
696 Kerrich, 1990). To overcome these effects, trace element ratios, namely La/Co,
697 Th/Co, Th/Cr, Eu/Eu*, La/Sc, Th/Sc, Zr/Sc and La/Th were used to characterise
698 provenance and tectonic setting (Taylor and McLennan, 1985; Bhatia and
699 Crook, 1986; Condie and Wronkiewicz, 1990; Cullers, 1995, 2000). However,
700 caution is required because some plots (e.g., La-Th-Sc, Th-Sc-Zr) can be
701 influenced by local sorting, and by mafic/heavy mineral variation (Bhatia and
702 Crook, 1986; Floyd et al., 1991).

703 Th/U ratios can indicate source area weathering and sedimentary recycling
704 (e.g., Taylor and McLennan, 1985; McLennan et al., 1993). The majority of the
705 Kannaviou Formation sandstones have Th/U ratios of 1.83-4.0, generally
706 similar to active margin-derived turbidites (McLennan et al., 1990). The low
707 values suggest derivation from little weathered magmatic arc-related source
708 rocks (McLennan et al., 1993). In contrast, relatively elevated Th/U ratios (5-28)
709 in some samples (nos. 16-16, 16-20, 16-25, 16-39, 21.1) point to enhanced
710 subaerial weathering.

711 The absence of significant zircon enrichment (37-99 ppm) precludes
712 marked sediment recycling or sorting effects (McLennan et al., 1993). The
713 depositional age from microfossils (Campanian-early Maastrichtian; 84-72 Ma)
714 (Urquhart and Banner, 1994; Bragina and Bragin, 1995) is broadly coeval with
715 the related volcanism as indicated by zircon geochronology (c. 80 Ma). This
716 evidence rules out chemical differentiation resulting from long-term
717 sedimentary recycling.

718 5.4. Source rock characteristics

719 5.4.1. Petrographic constraints

720 The QFL diagram (Fig. 8b) illustrates entire grain populations and emphasises
721 grain stability, weathering, transport mechanisms and source rocks. All of the
722 samples plot near the lithic apex with the main contribution being from volcanic
723 glass, consistent with a magmatic arc source (e.g., Dickinson et al., 1983).
724 Sandstones from south of Episkopi (no. 14.5) and near Sarama-Lasa (nos.
725 2141, 2156) cluster towards the recycled field, with relatively high quartz
726 abundances (especially polycrystalline quartz at 2-3 modal %). These clastic
727 materials were probably supplied from petrographically similar quartzose

sandstones in the adjacent Mamonia Complex, especially those of late Triassic age (Robertson, 1977a). The mean composition of the Kannaviou Formation plots in the area of overlapping fields (Fig. 8d) in the LmLvLs diagram is explained by the high volcanic glass content (15-47 modal %). Despite this, the relatively high average quartz content (QFL%Q=12) in the Kannaviou Formation sandstones supports input from a continental margin arc (Marsaglia and Ingersoll, 1992; Marsaglia et al., 2016).

5.4.2. Constraints from glass composition

The volcanic glass has relatively low abundances of Na_2O (1.9-4.4 wt. %), K_2O (0.2-4.6 wt. %), TiO_2 (0.1-1.6 wt. %) and P_2O_5 (<0.2 wt. %), typical of incipient subduction-related volcanism (Woodhead et al., 1993; Straub, 2003). Enrichment in Ba and Th, together with depletion in Ti and Nb, support an arc origin (e.g., Pearce, 1983). The glass compositions plot close to the tholeiitic trend on the ternary Na_2O+K_2O-FeO-MgO (AFM) diagram (Fig. 19a). The trend towards the alkaline apex likely represents arc magmatic maturity (Kuno, 1966; Geringer et al., 1986), and is consistent with differentiation of a single parental basaltic magma (Gilbert and Robertson, 2013).

Volcanic glass composition is critical to evaluate continental versus oceanic sediment provenance (Bryant et al., 2003; Kutterolf et al., 2014). Elevated U/Th, Ba/La and Sm/La ratios indicate pelagic sediment and/or fluid influence on magmatic composition (Patino et al., 2000; Straub and Layne, 2003; Plank, 2005; Carr et al., 2007). Elevated ratios of Th/La, Rb/Hf and Th/Nb suggest continental crust and/or subducted terrigenous sediment influence (Hannah et al., 2002; Bryant et al., 2003; Stern et al., 2003). The relatively elevated Th/Nb and Th/La ratios in the Kannaviou Formation glass (Fig. 19b-c)

753 therefore support the involvement of continental crust and/or subducted
754 terrigenous sediment in magma genesis.

755 5.4.3. Constraints from mineral analysis

756 The dominance of augite, with one rare diopside (Fig. 11b), suggests a mafic
757 igneous source (Deer et al., 2013). The clinopyroxene compositions, as shown
758 in the ternary TiO_2-MnO-Na_2O discriminant plot (after Nisbet and Pearce, 1977)
759 (Fig. 19d), indicate a volcanic arc affinity for all of the grains analysed. In
760 addition, the two Ediacaran zircon grains (560 and 578 Ma) originated from
761 older continental crust. The Triassic-Cretaceous sedimentary succession of the
762 adjacent Mamonia Complex is a likely source for the grains of these ages based
763 on detrital zircon geochronology (Chen, 2018).

764 5.4.4. Constraints from whole-rock geochemistry

765 The relatively uniform ratios of La/Co, Th/Co and Th/Cr, together with La/Sc
766 and Th/Sc in the Kananviou Formation sandstones, are consistent with
767 derivation from predominantly mafic source rocks, with a subordinate variable
768 input from felsic rocks (Cullers, 1995, 2000) (Table 3). Sandstones with unusual
769 La/Sc or Th/Sc represent locally increased detrital felsic input (e.g., feldspar,
770 muscovite) or reduced mafic contribution (Taylor and McLennan, 1985; Condie
771 and Wronkiewicz, 1990; Cullers, 2000). Th/Sc vs. Zr/Sc and La/Th vs. Hf
772 diagrams indicate similar compositional variations (Fig. 20a-b).

773 Moderately fractionated REE patterns, low ΣREE abundances (45-79 ppm)
774 and low $(La/Yb)_N$ (1.8-6.2), together indicate dominant derivation from mafic to
775 intermediate-composition rocks. Slight HREE enrichment in one sample (no.
776 16-34) from directly beneath the Kathikas Formation in the Sarama-Lasa area
777 (Fig. 4f) probably resulted from heavy mineral enrichment (e.g., zircon) and/or

778 input of relatively degraded fine-grained material (Taylor and McLennan, 1985),
779 both of which could have been derived from the Mamonia Complex. Negative
780 Eu anomalies of 0.71-1.00 are slightly higher than those in craton-derived post-
781 Archean Australia Shale (PAAS) (0.66; Taylor and McLennan, 1985) and UCC
782 (0.70; Rudnick and Gao, 2003). These ratios are comparable to those of
783 sandstones derived from mafic sources (0.71-0.95; Cullers, 2000) and/or
784 magmatic arcs (0.79-1.04; Bhatia, 1985) associated with active margin settings
785 (McLennan et al., 1990). Overall, the linear array of sandstone data (Fig. 20c)
786 is consistent with a mixture of compositionally variable young arc-derived
787 material and upper crust-sourced material (e.g., McLennan and Taylor, 1984)
788 that was probably derived from the adjacent Mamonia Complex.

789 5.5. Provenance

790 The trace element ratios of the volcanic glass, coupled with the presence of
791 some terrigenous sediment, support a continental arc affinity (Fig. 19b-c).
792 Despite this, the trace-element ratios of the sandstones generally fingerprint an
793 oceanic island arc setting. Specifically, the ratios of La/Sc (0.58±0.18), Th/Sc
794 (0.17±0.06) and La/Th (4.08±0.77) are generally comparable to those of
795 sandstones derived from an oceanic island arc setting (0.55±0.22, 0.15±0.08,
796 4.26±1.2). However, several ratios (e.g., Eu/Eu*) suggest a continental
797 contribution. The scattering towards the continental island arc field is consistent
798 with locally reduced mafic contribution or increased felsic input (Bhatia and
799 Crook, 1986; Cullers, 1995, 2000; Cullers and Podkovyrov, 2000). On the
800 ternary Th-Sc-Zr diagram (Bhatia and Crook, 1986) (Fig. 21a) all of the
801 sandstones plot in or near the oceanic island arc field.

802 The average Kannaviou Formation sandstone has negative Nb-Ta
803 anomalies compared to the UCC-normalised multi-element patterns of average
804 greywacke from several different tectonic environments (Floyd et al., 1991) (Fig.
805 21b). The negative anomalies are comparable to those of oceanic island arc-
806 sourced greywackes, suggestive of sediment sources involving subduction-
807 related magmatic rocks (Floyd et al., 1991). The variable enrichments in V-Cr-
808 Ni-Sc and the slightly positive Ti anomalies are also consistent with arc
809 provenance (either continental or oceanic). In addition, the pronounced
810 depletion in Zr and Hf precludes significant enrichment in heavy minerals (e.g.,
811 zircon). The patterns are generally consistent with a source composed
812 predominantly of subduction-related rocks of oceanic island arc affinity, plus a
813 minor continental input (McLennan et al., 1990, 1993; Floyd et al., 1991).

814

815 5.6. Tectonic-magmatic setting

816 5.6.1. Continental arc magmatism on thinned, depleted continental crust?

817 The most likely explanation of the apparent discrepancy between the
818 continental margin arc setting inferred from the glass trace element chemistry
819 and the mainly oceanic arc origin suggested by the trace and REE data is that
820 the arc magmas represented by the Kannaviou Formation were not extracted
821 from fertile asthenosphere above normal-thickness continental crust. Arc-type
822 signatures could instead result if magma was extracted from crust that was
823 relatively thin and/or depleted by previous melt extraction (Fitton et al., 1997;
824 Condie, 2003). In the case of the Kannaviou Formation, both of these situations
825 are likely to have occurred because the region was affected by Triassic rift-
826 related magmatism to form the Southern Neotethys. Early spreading of this

827 ocean basin is represented by the late Triassic MORB (Dhiarizos Group) of the
828 Mamonia Complex (Robertson and Woodcock, 1979; Malpas et al., 1992, 1993;
829 Chan et al., 2008). Active continental margins in several other regions are
830 known to have relatively primitive oceanic arc-type signatures, as indicated by
831 the chemistry of derived volcaniclastic sediments and related tuffaceous
832 deposits, for example the Brook Street Terrane in southern New Zealand
833 (Robertson et al., in press).

834 5.6.2. Arc-volcaniclastic sediment comparisons

835 Despite their inferred continental margin arc provenance, as mainly inferred
836 from the glass composition, the Kannaviou Formation sandstones accumulated
837 on oceanic crust. Examples of volcanic arc-sourced successions overlying
838 oceanic crust are well represented in the southwest and north Pacific regions
839 (e.g., Horn et al., 1969; Marsaglia, 1992; Clift et al., 1998; Kutterolf et al., 2018;
840 Robertson et al., 2018). Ancient examples of oceanic arc-derived volcaniclastic
841 sediments that accumulated on oceanic crust include the late Cretaceous
842 Nindam Formation in northwest India (Robertson and Degnan, 1994; Clift et al.,
843 2000, 2002), the Jurassic Talkeetna Volcanic Formation in Alaska (Plafker et
844 al., 1989; Clift et al., 2005; Greene et al., 2006), the Permian Takitimu Group in
845 southern New Zealand (Houghton and Landis, 1989; Spandler et al., 2005;
846 Robertson and Palamakumbura, in press; Robertson et al., in press), the
847 Jurassic Gran Cañon Formation (Critelli et al., 2002; Busby, 2004) and the
848 Cretaceous Alisitos Group (Busby et al., 2006; Marsaglia et al., 2016) in Mexico.
849 In addition, there are many instances of arc-derived successions overlying
850 continental crust (Dickinson, 1995), to name one well-documented example,

851 the late Cenozoic Central American Volcanic Arc (Carr, 1984; Kutterolf et al.,
852 2008a, b; Schindlbeck et al., 2016).

853 A key requirement for the genesis of the Kannaviou Formation sandstones
854 is for supra-subduction zone oceanic lithosphere, represented by the Troodos
855 ophiolite, to collide with an adjacent continental margin arc, following
856 subduction of intervening Neotethyan oceanic crust. The tectonic-magmatic
857 setting of the Kannaviou Formation can be broadly compared to the intersection
858 of the Mariana-Bonin forearc (counterpart of the Troodos ophiolite) with the
859 Japanese continental island arc, as exposed in the Miura and Boso Peninsulas
860 (Ogawa et al., 1985, 2008). However, no exact counterpart is known elsewhere
861 for the complex microplate setting of Cyprus during the latest Cretaceous.

862 5.6.3. Implications for late Cretaceous arc magmatism in the eastern
863 Mediterranean

864 The previously suggested source (Robertson, 1977a; Gilbert and Robertson,
865 2013) of the Kannaviou Formation is the Fourkovouno (Selvilitepe) Formation
866 of the Kyrenia Range. This is characterised by a c. 400 m thick late Cretaceous
867 subduction-related volcanogenic succession that encompasses felsic
868 tuffaceous rocks, felsic debris-flow deposits and rhyolitic lava flows (Moore,
869 1960; Poisson, 1977; Baroz, 1979, 1980; Robertson and Woodcock, 1986;
870 Huang et al., 2007; Robertson et al., 2012; Chen, 2018). However, there are
871 differences between the Kannaviou Formation source volcanism and that of the
872 Kyrenia Range continental margin arc magmatism: (1) the Kannaviou
873 Formation sandstones were derived from an incipient continental margin arc,
874 whereas the Kyrenia Range volcanic rocks represent a more evolved Andean-
875 type active continental margin; and (2) the Kannaviou Formation volcanism is

significantly older (80.1±1.1 Ma) than that of the Kyrenia Range ($^{206}Pb/^{238}U$ age of 72.9±1.0 Ma) (Chen, 2018). A possible explanation for these differences is that older, immature arc volcanism originally existed in the Kyrenia Range area but has been concealed by subsequent subduction and/or continental collision, consistent with the evidence of southward thrusting during the Middle Eocene and Late Miocene-earliest Pliocene (Baroz, 1979; Robertson et al., 2012, 2014; McCay and Robertson, 2013; Robertson and Kinnaird, 2016).

The northerly active continental margin of the Southern Neotethys, represented in north Cyprus by the Kyrenia Range (Robertson et al., 2012), extended eastwards through the Misis-Andırın lineament of southern Turkey into southeast Turkey (e.g., Robertson, 2002) (Fig. 1a). Late Cretaceous continental margin arc magmatism in southeast Turkey is also interpreted to relate to northward subduction of the Southern Neotethys beneath a northerly-located Tauride continental unit (e.g., Robertson, 2002; Parlak, 2006; Rızaoğlu et al., 2009; Robertson et al., 2006, 2007, 2012). There are two potential sources of felsic ash in southeast Turkey: (1) tholeiitic oceanic arc magmatism dated at 83-75 Ma (Aktaş and Robertson, 1984, 1990; Robertson et al., 2007; Karaoğlan et al., 2013); and (2) I-type, calc-alkaline Andean-type intrusive rocks, dated at 88-82 Ma (Santonian-Campanian) (Parlak, 2006; Robertson et al., 2006; Rızaoğlu et al., 2009; Karaoğlan et al., 2016). Unfortunately, any extrusive equivalents of the continental arc magmatism were eroded or are not exposed. Of the two occurrences of arc magmatism, based on the geochemical evidence, only the continental margin arc volcanism could be a source for the Kannaviou Formation volcanic ash, assuming long-distance transport by winds and/or currents. Prevailing easterly winds and currents have been modelled for

the late Cretaceous (e.g., Hay, 2011), such that a source well to the east of Cyprus should be considered.

5.6.4. Pyroclastic fallout dispersal efficiency

Pyroclastic fallout components such as glass shards, feldspar crystals, mafic crystals, lithic grains and pumice can be dispersed substantial distances by wind (Carey and Sigurdsson, 1982, 2000; Fisher and Schmincke, 1984; Pyle, 1989). In general, the dispersal distance is mainly controlled by a combination of grain size, prevailing wind strength and eruptive volume (i.e., column height) (Pyle, 1989; Carey, 1996). Relatively recent (<0.5 Ma) ash of grain size 32-500 µm that was derived from the continental margin Japan arc can be correlated with tuffaceous sediments of the oceanic Izu-Bonin forearc, up to 1000 km away (Kutterolf et al., 2018). Maximum grain size versus distance from source relationships are, for example, known for ash layers that were produced by the Toba eruption in Sumatra (75 ka; Ninkovich et al., 1978), the Campanian ignimbrite eruption in Italy (33 ka; Cornell et al., 1983) and the Minoan eruption of Santorini (1620 B.C.; Watkins et al., 1978). The maximum sizes of the feldspar/glass crystals and the mafic crystals (e.g., pyroxene) of the Kannaviou Formation sandstones are up to 1200 µm and c. 500 µm, respectively. Assuming the crystals were sourced from a common eruptive centre, these sizes are compatible with eruptions on the approximate scale of the Minoan eruption of Santorini (28 km^3; Watkins et al., 1978), with a likely distance of c. 100 km from the source arc (Fig. 22). This distance is significantly less than that of the known continental margin arc volcanism in southeast Turkey (c. 300 km). Also, to achieve the up to 750 m thickness of the Kannaviou Formation, repeated Santorini-scale eruptions would be needed over a relatively short time

926 period (c. 0.3 Ma), followed by channelised sediment transport of up to c. 300
927 km (e.g., Mason et al., 2004; Deligne et al., 2011). The volcaniclastic
928 sandstones are found only in western Cyprus and not overlying the Troodos
929 ophiolite as a whole, which points to a relatively local source, followed by
930 bathymetrically controlled (channelised) deposition. The most likely scenario is
931 that the Kannaviou Formation source eruptions were located close to the
932 Kyrenia Range but have since been concealed tectonically, as a result of the
933 crustal contraction that took place in response to subduction or collision.

934 5.6.5. Tectonic-magmatic model

935 Our proposed model (Fig. 23) builds on a previously proposed double
936 subduction scenario (e.g., Robertson, 2002; Parlak, 2006; Karaoğlan et al.,
937 2016), in which the Troodos ophiolite formed above an intra-oceanic subduction
938 zone (c. 90 Ma) (Mukasa and Ludden, 1987), and then moved northwards
939 related to subduction beneath Tauride microcontinent crust. Resulting early-
940 stage (incipient) continental margin arc volcanism supplied pyroclastic fallout
941 deposits to a deep-marine forearc basin to the south, coupled with gravity flow
942 reworking. In addition, terrigenous sediment, mostly siliciclastic and
943 recrystallised carbonate, was supplied from the adjacent continental margin,
944 represented by the Triassic-Cretaceous terrigenous-derived sedimentary rocks
945 of the Mamonia Complex (Robertson and Woodcock, 1979; Torley and
946 Robertson, 2018).

947

6. Conclusions

In this study we have used a combination field-based sedimentology and structural geology, optical petrography, whole-rock, glass and mineral chemistry, and also U-Pb zircon dating to infer that the late Cretaceous (80.1±1.0 Ma) arc volcanism of the Kannaviou Formation in western Cyprus was derived from an incipient continental margin arc. A similar integrated multi-technique approach has the potential to shed new light on a range of modern and ancient arc-related sediments elsewhere. The presence of terrigenous material within some of the volcaniclastic sandstones initially suggested a continental margin arc setting. The SIMS trace element analysis of relatively unaltered volcanic glass confirmed a continental influence. Despite this, several conventional trace element tectonic discriminant diagrams point to an oceanic arc source. The likely solution of this apparent discrepancy is that the continental margin arc was constructed on magmatically depleted lithosphere that was thinned during regional late Permian-early Jurassic rifting of the Southern Neotethys. Effective interpretation of comparable arc-derived volcaniclastic sandstones elsewhere therefore depends on a multi-technique approach, especially glass trace element analysis (where possible) and should not rely on interpretation of whole-rock chemical data alone.

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1833 Listing of Supplementary material

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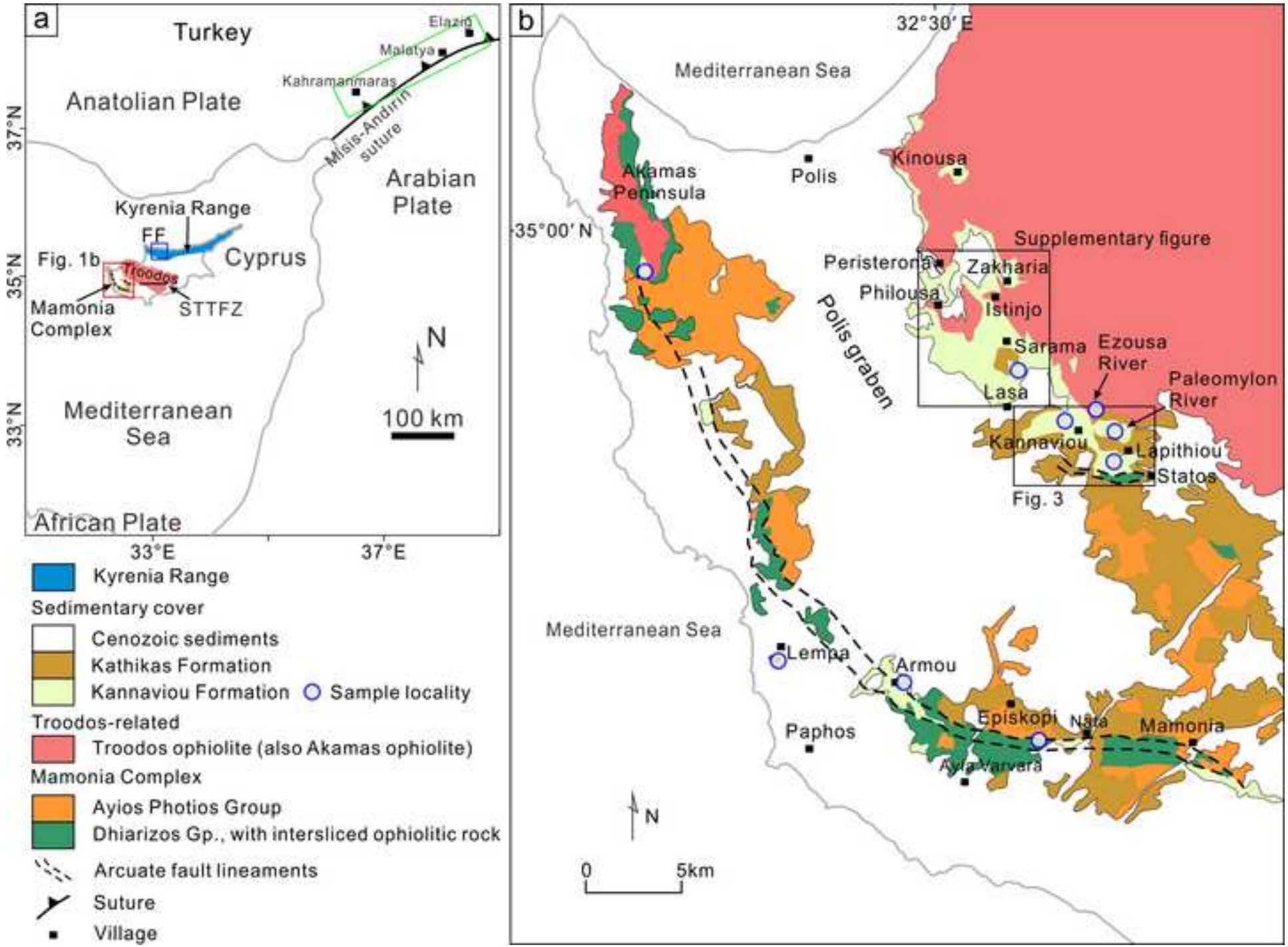

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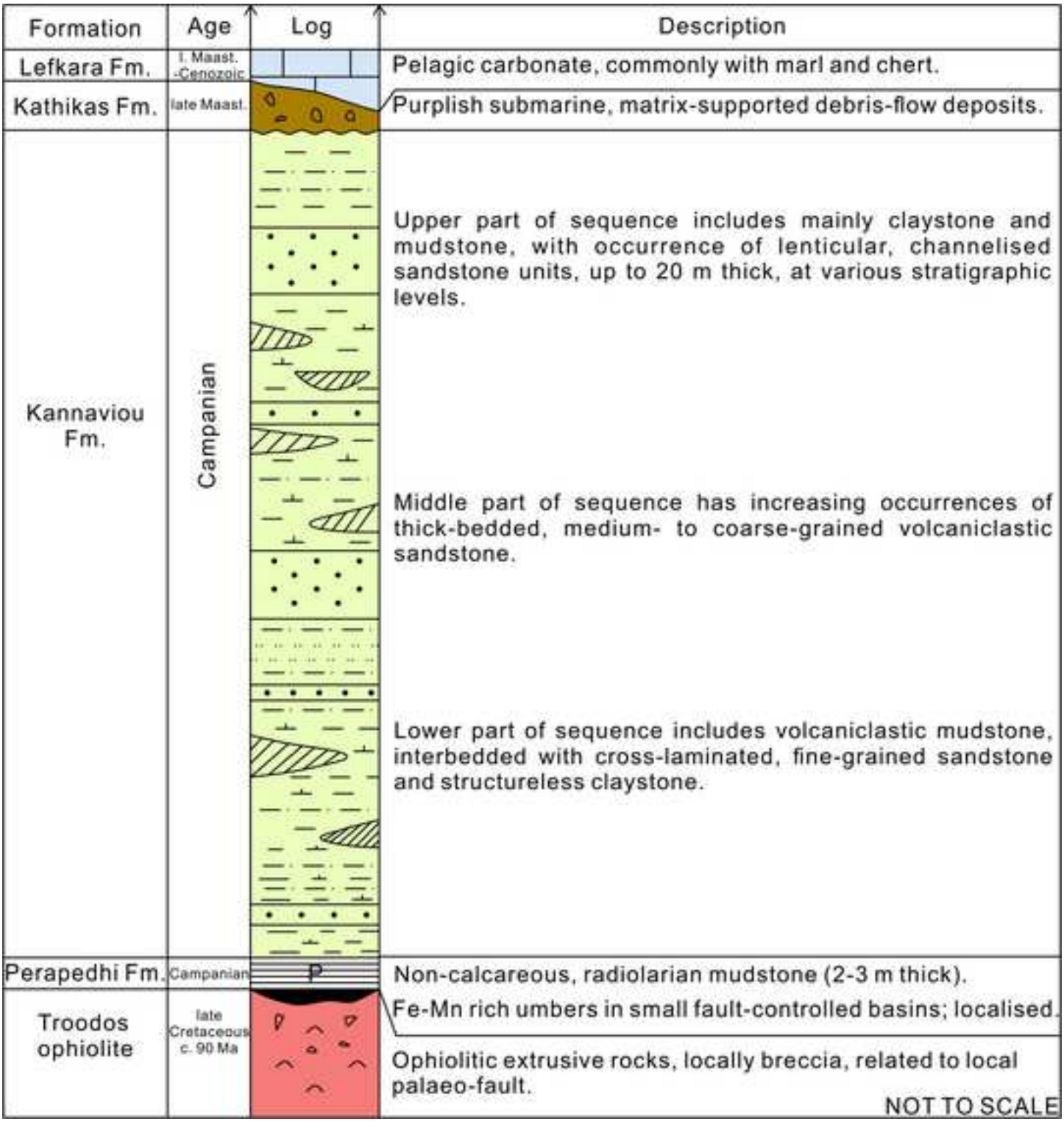

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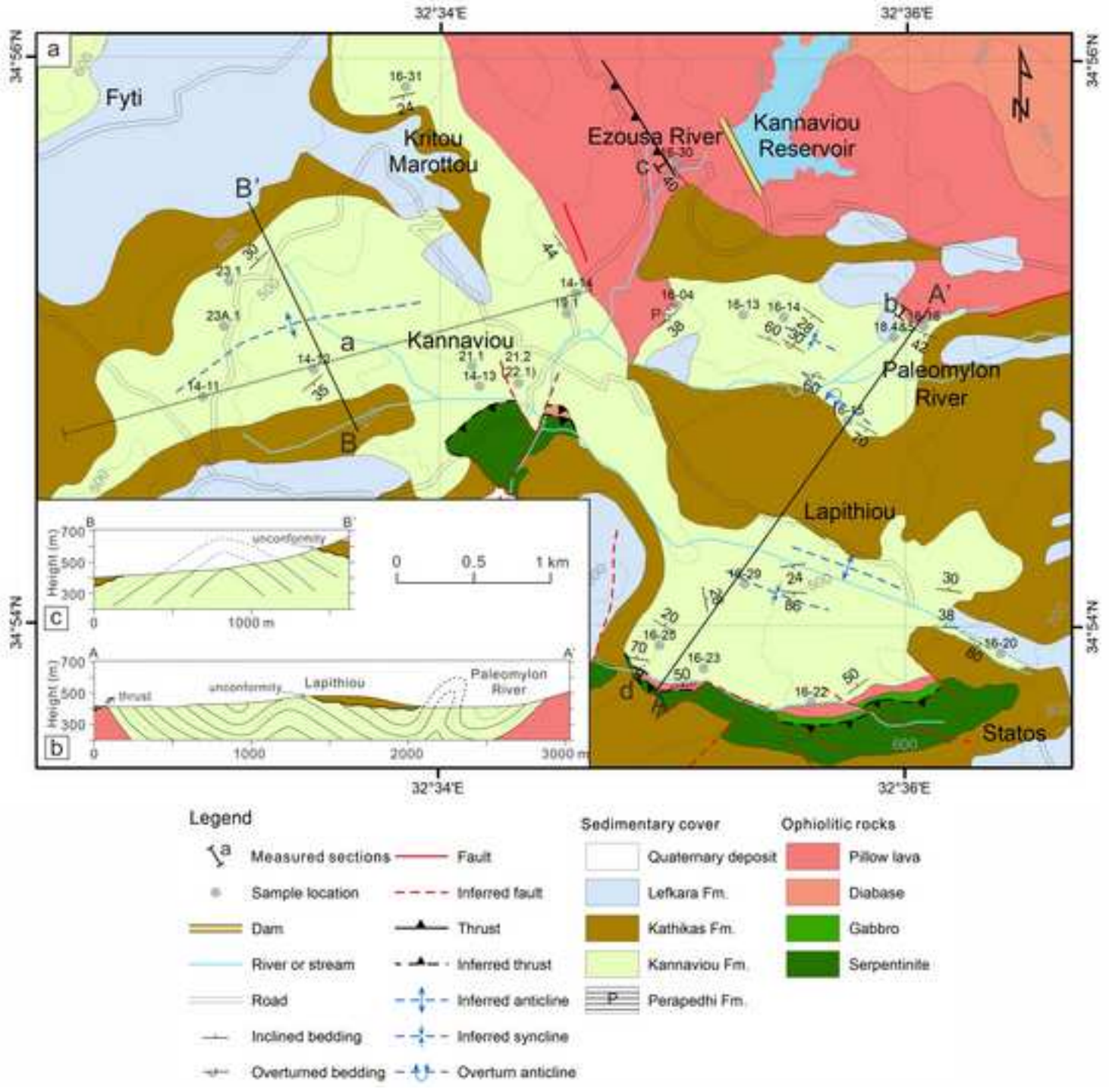

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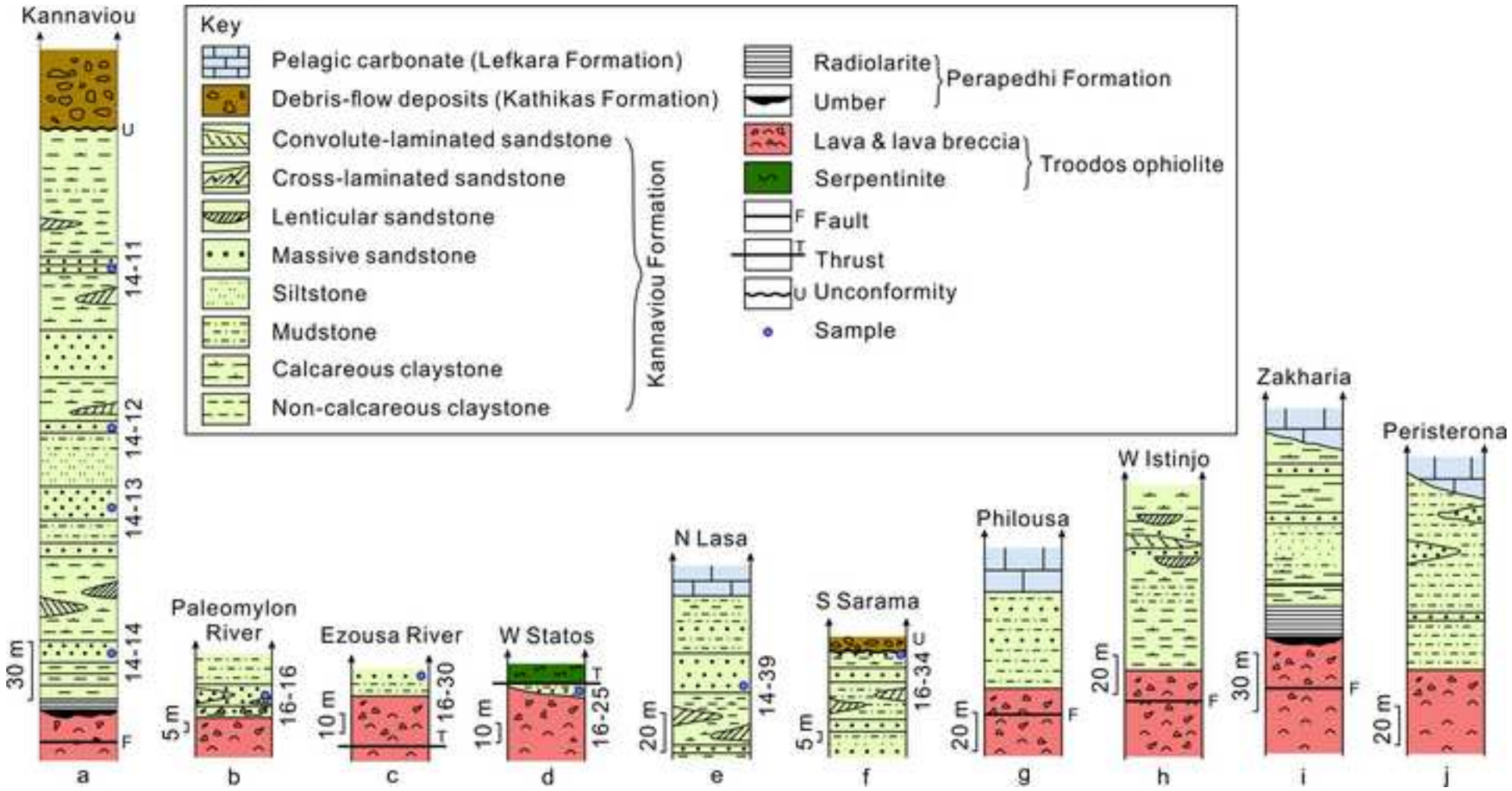

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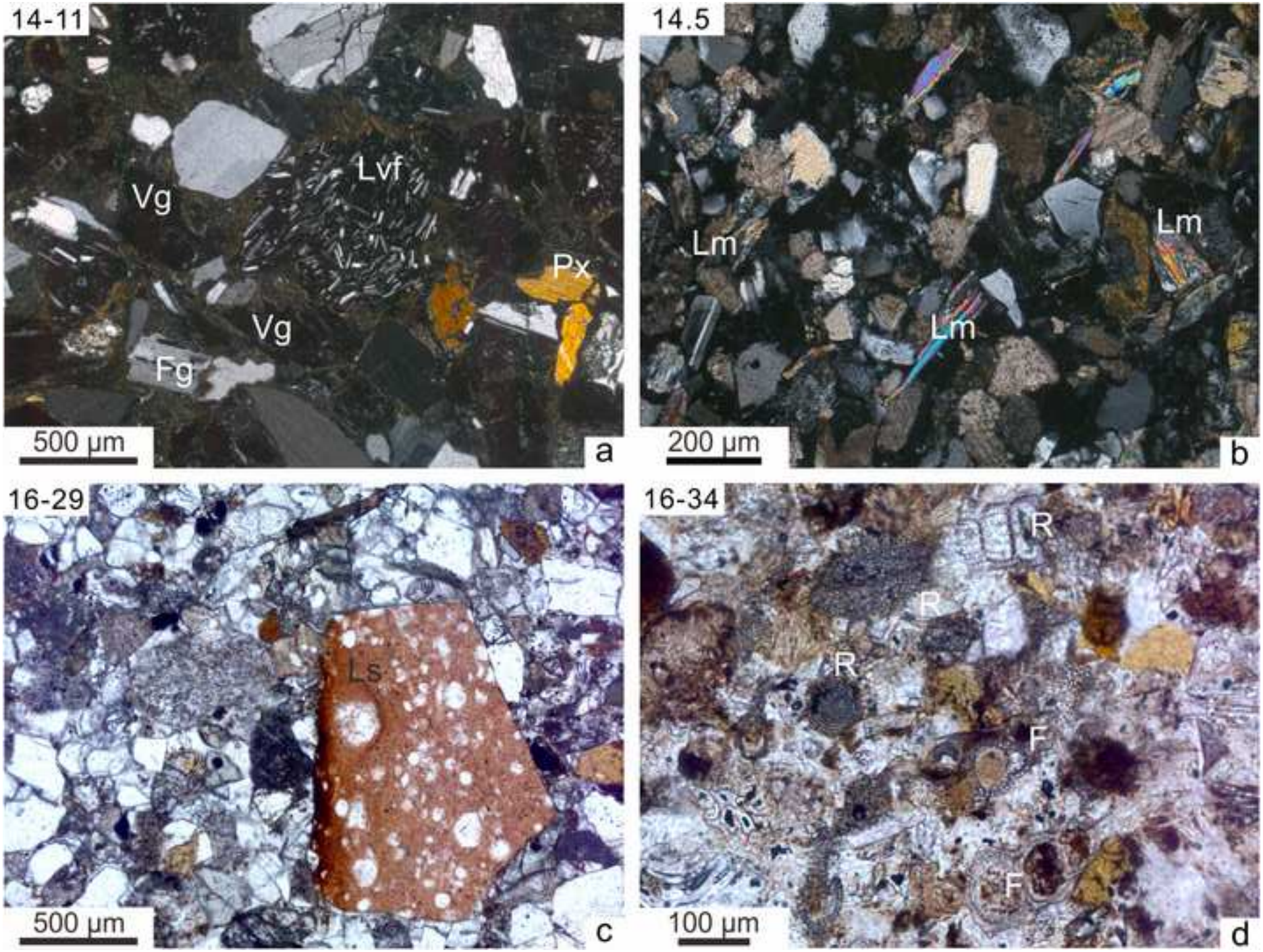

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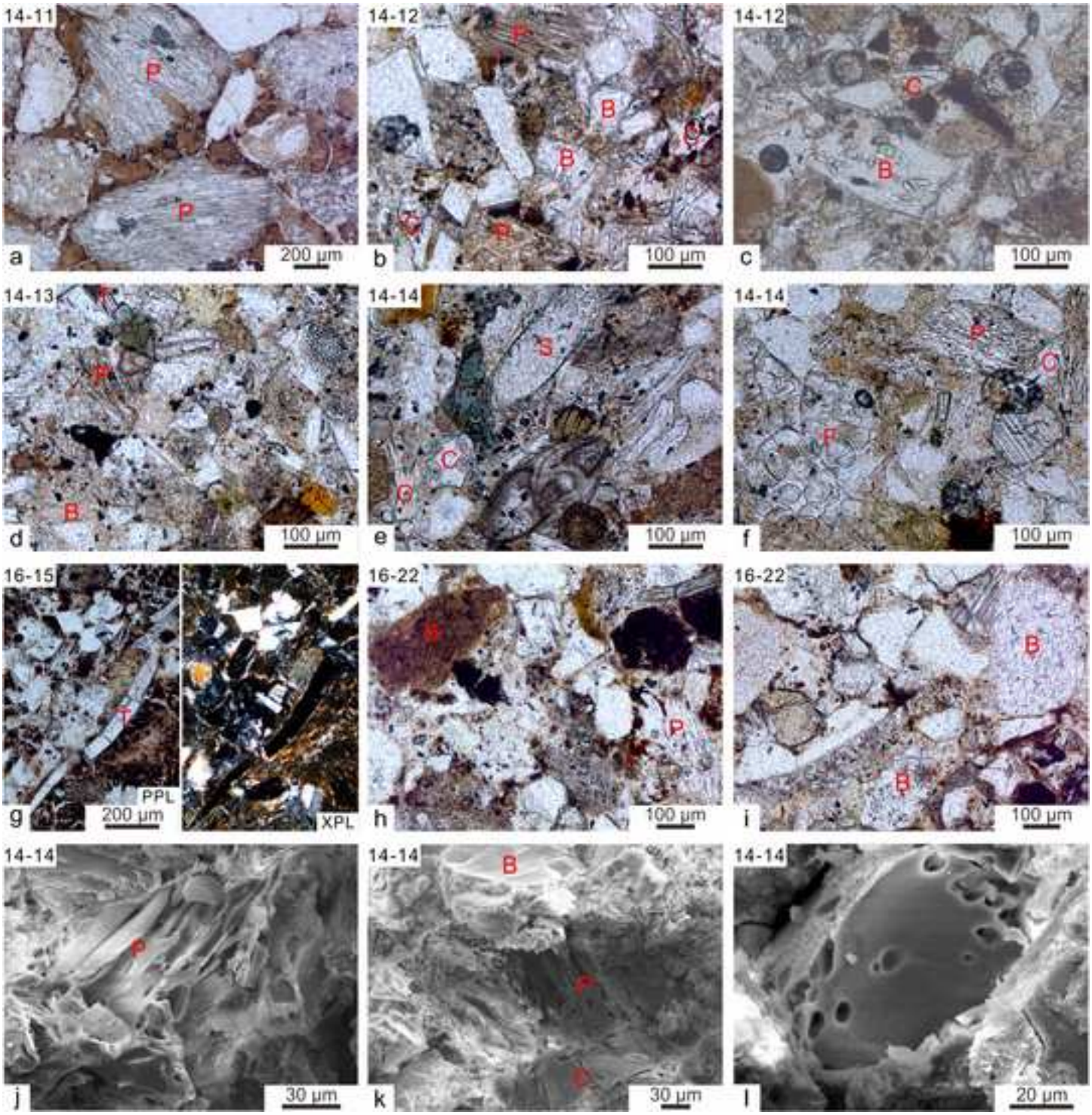

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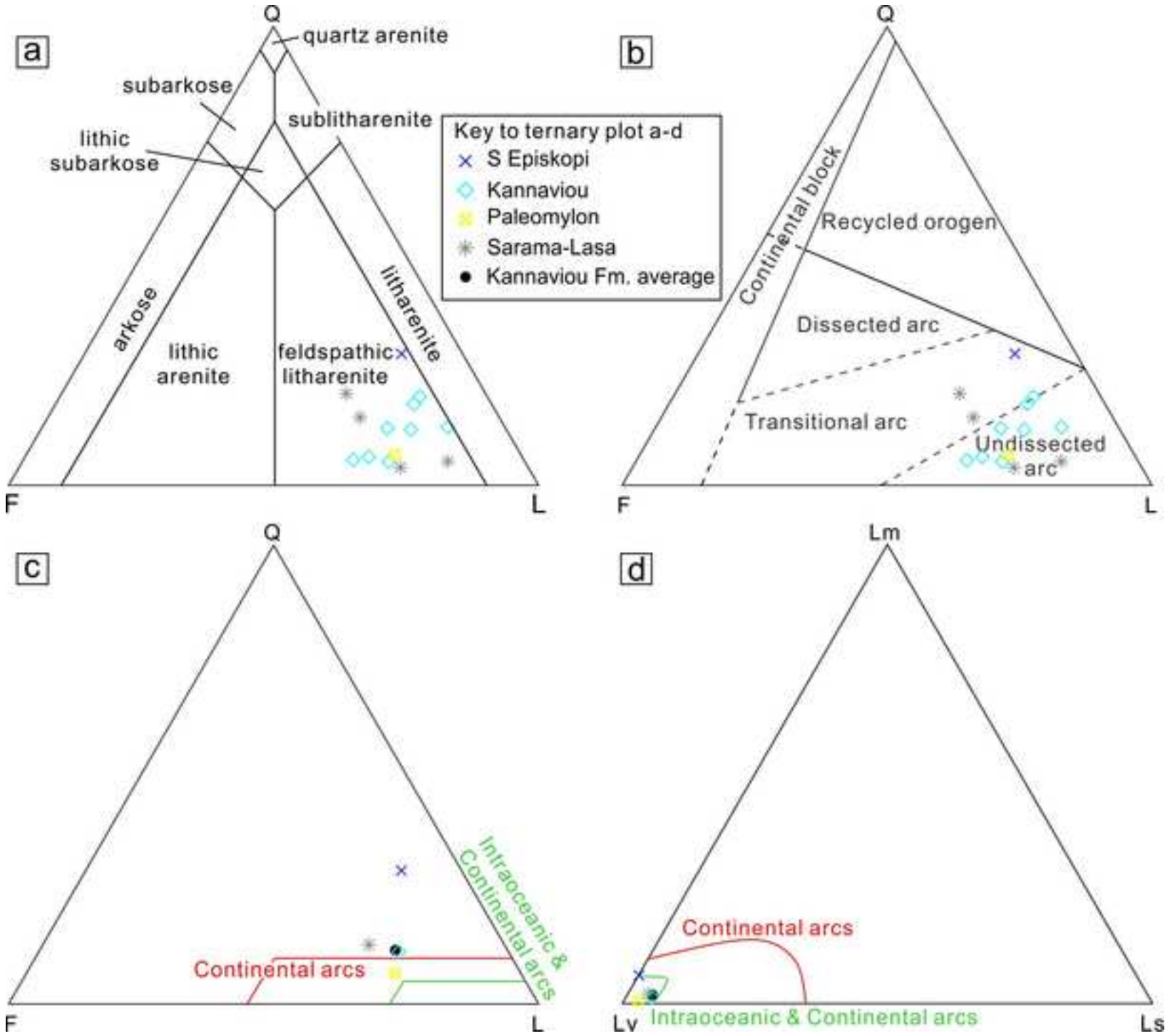

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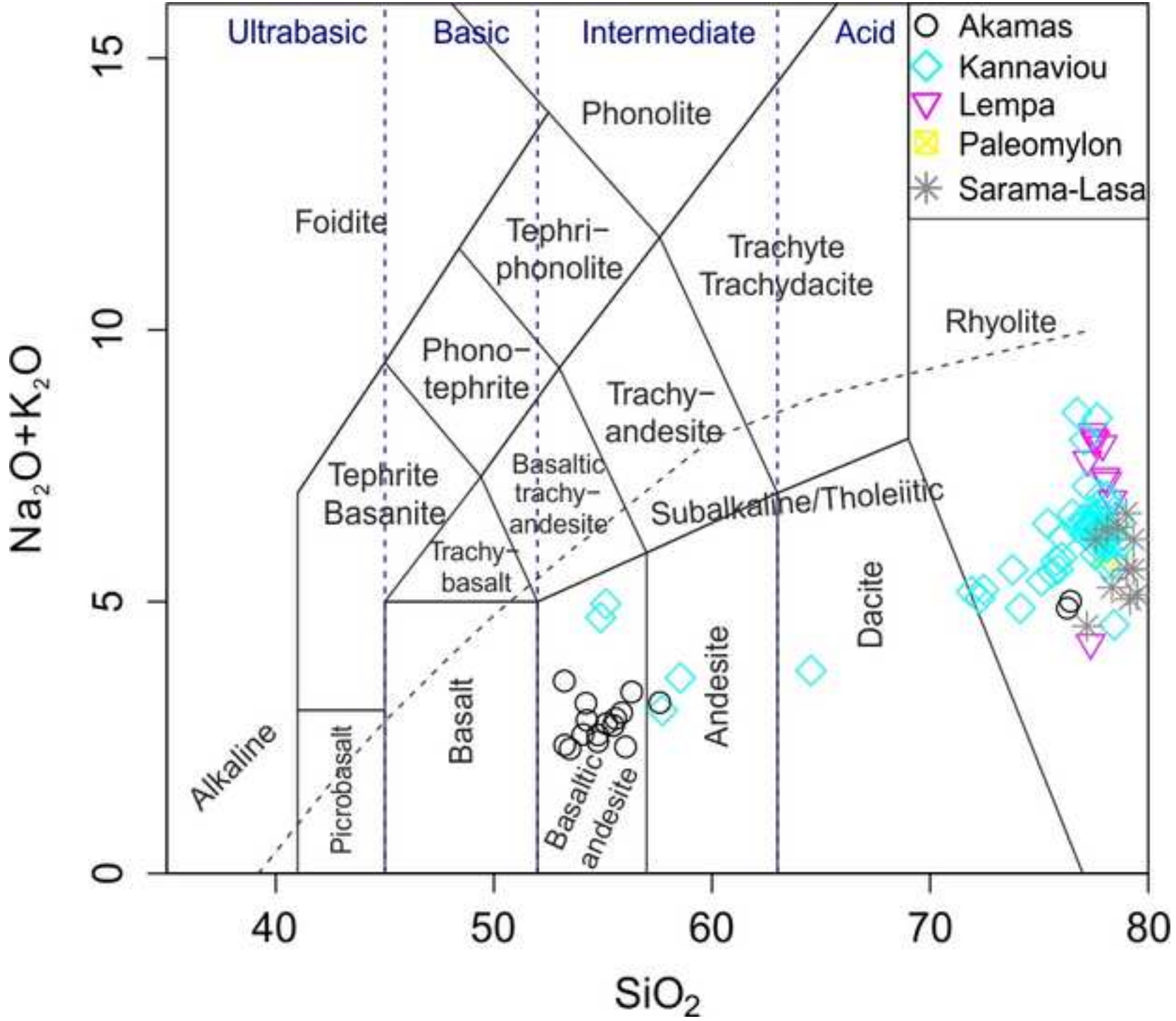

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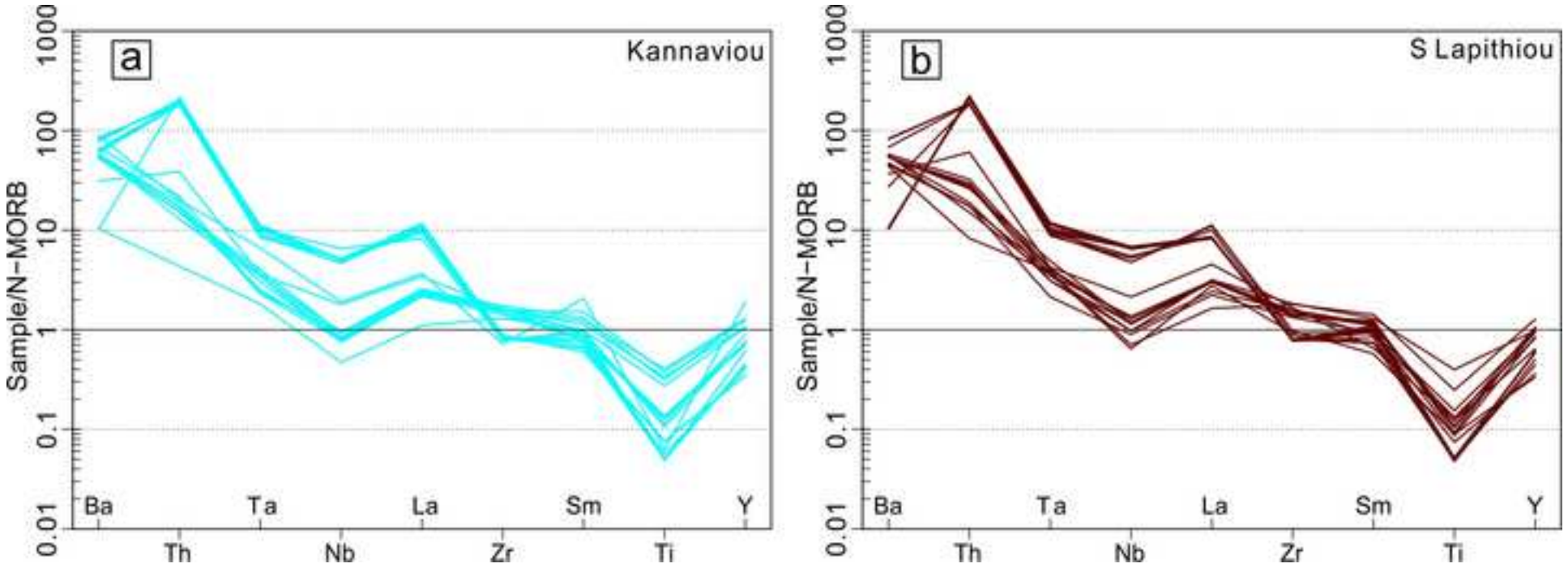

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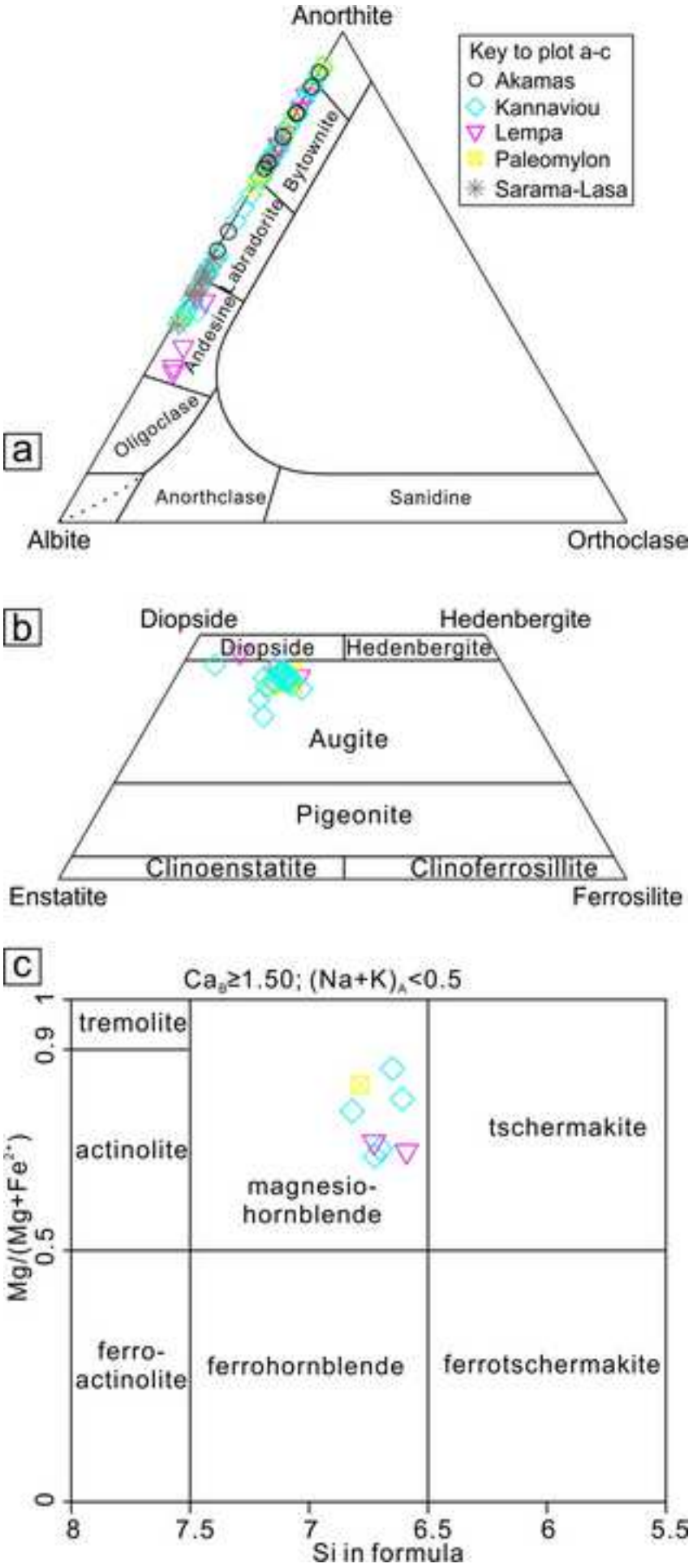

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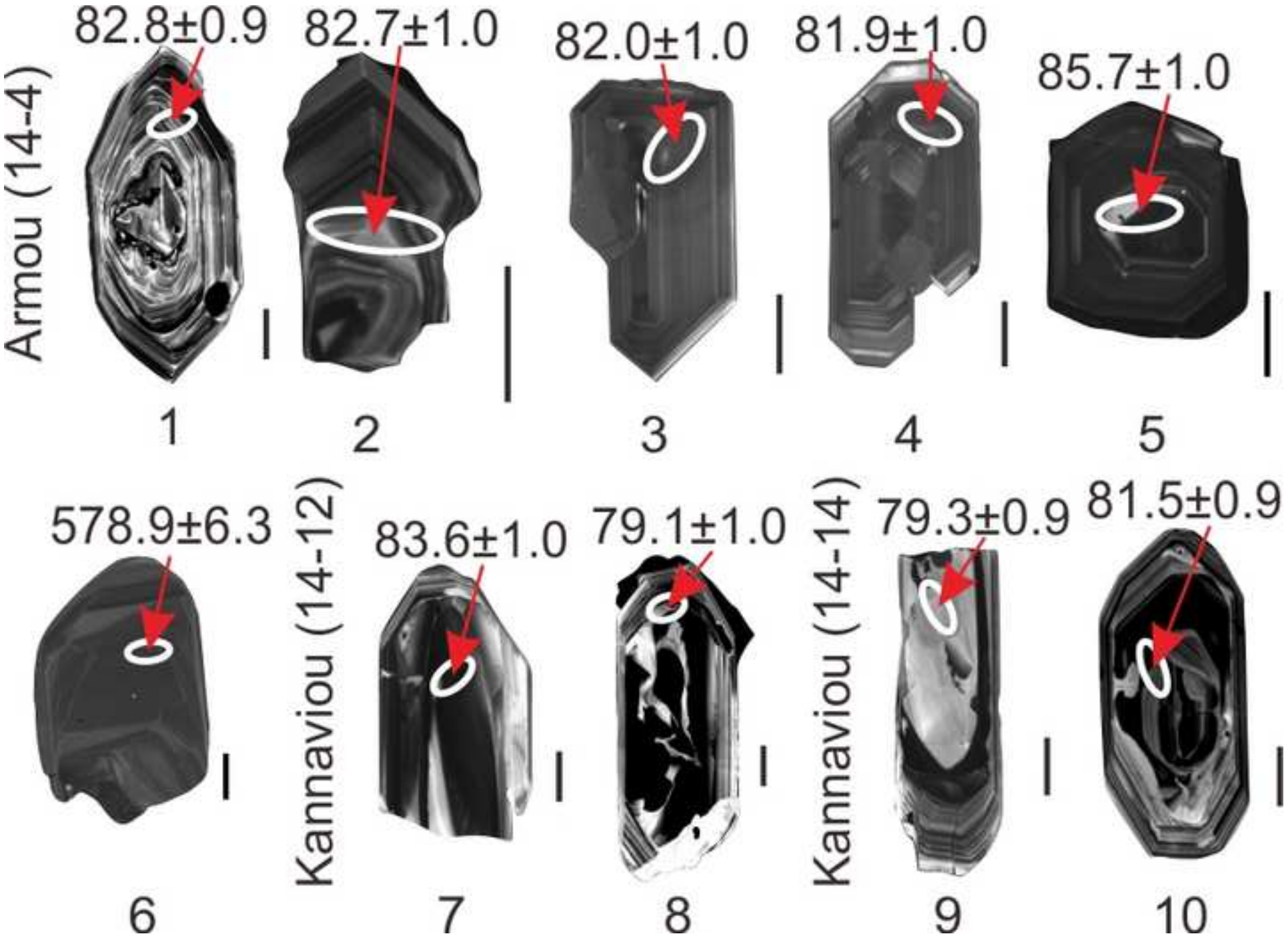

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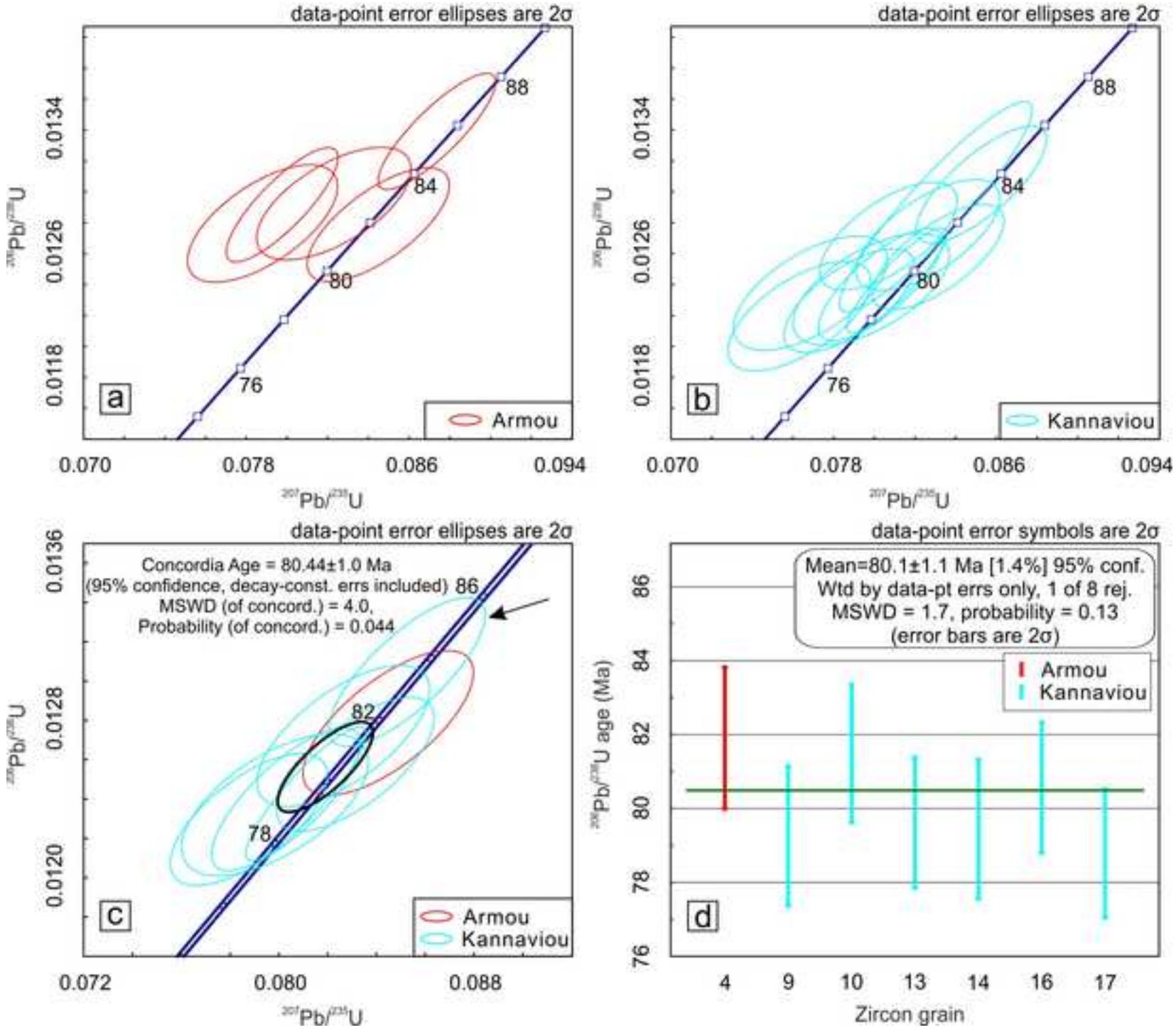

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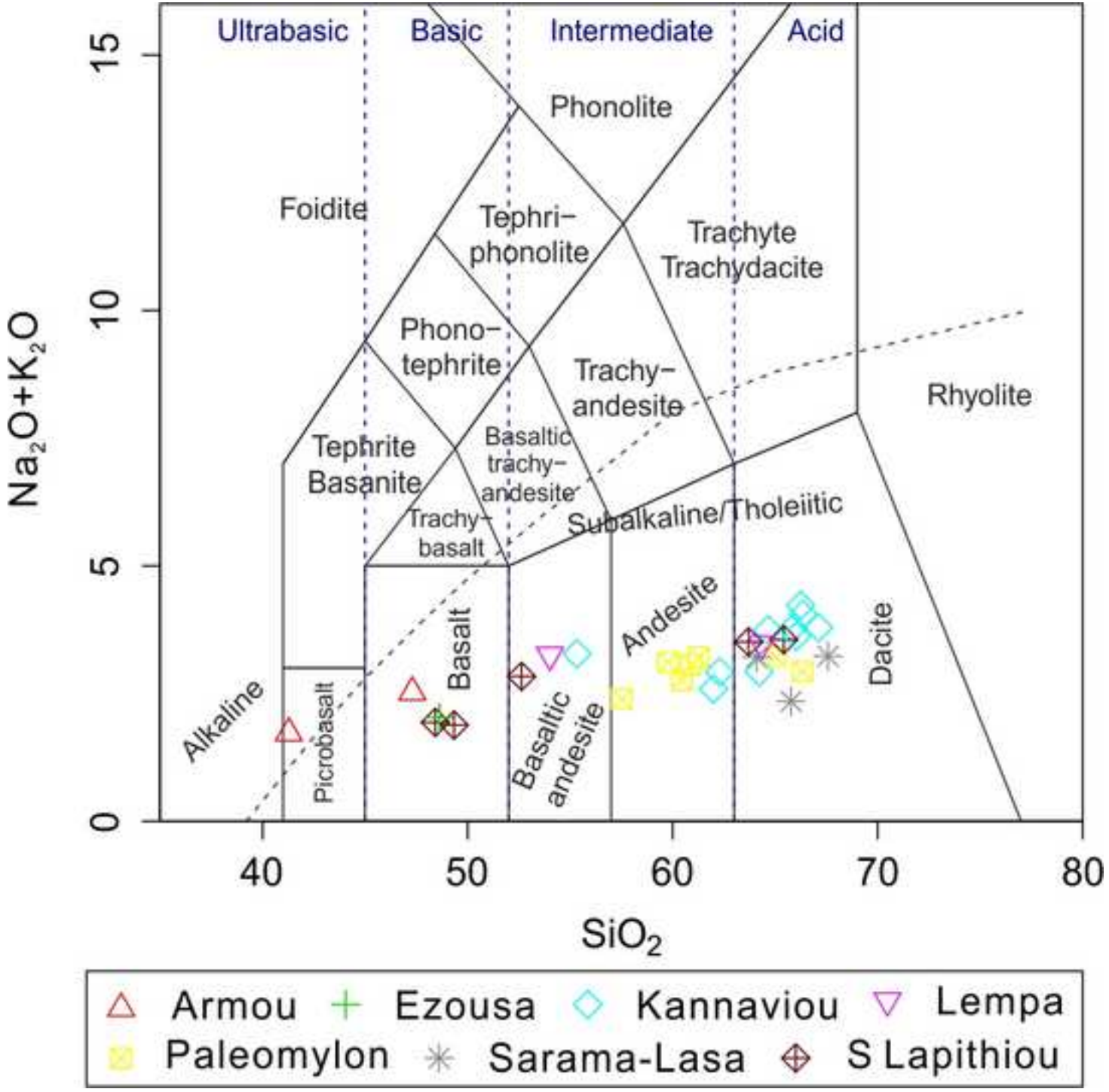

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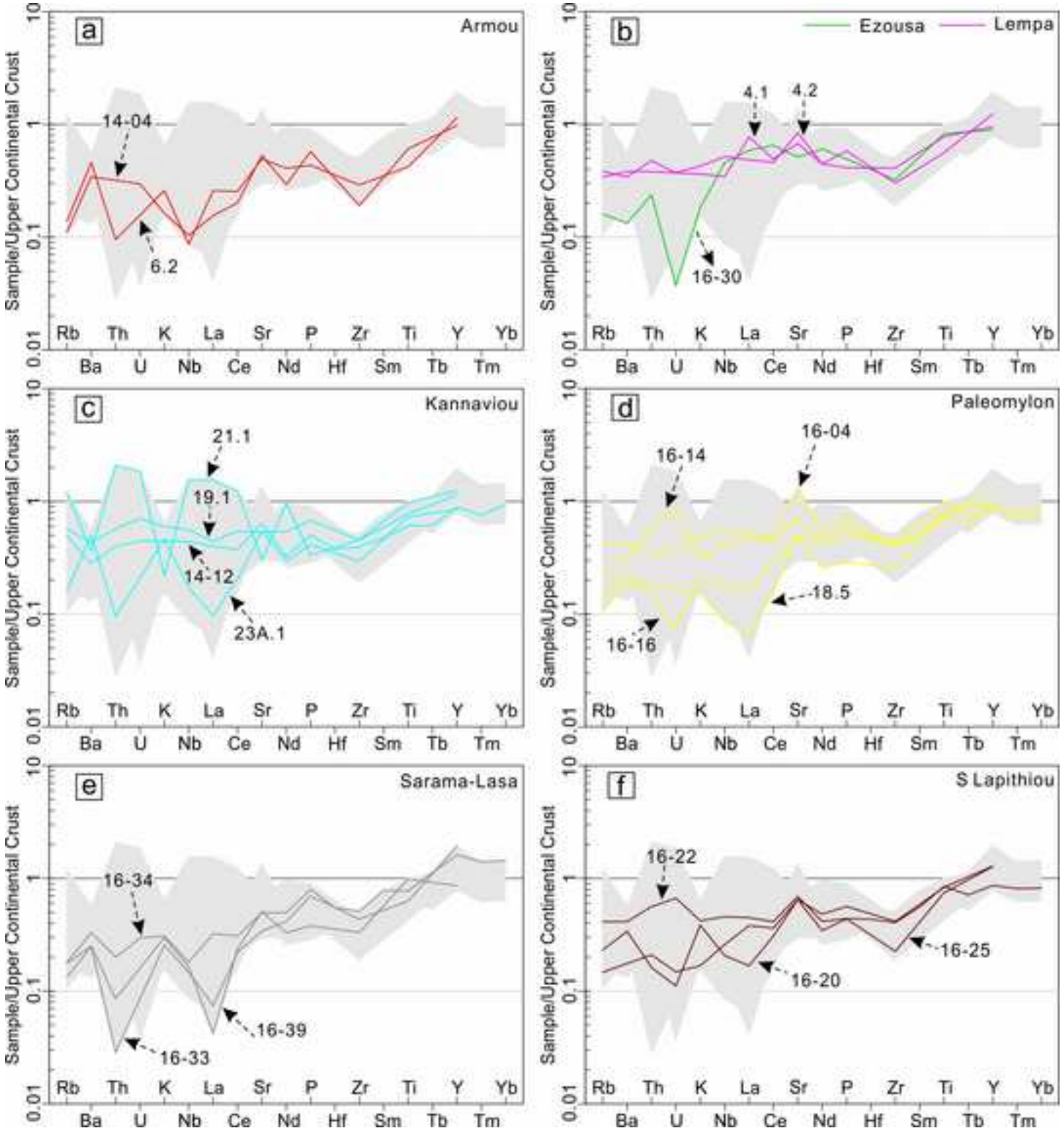

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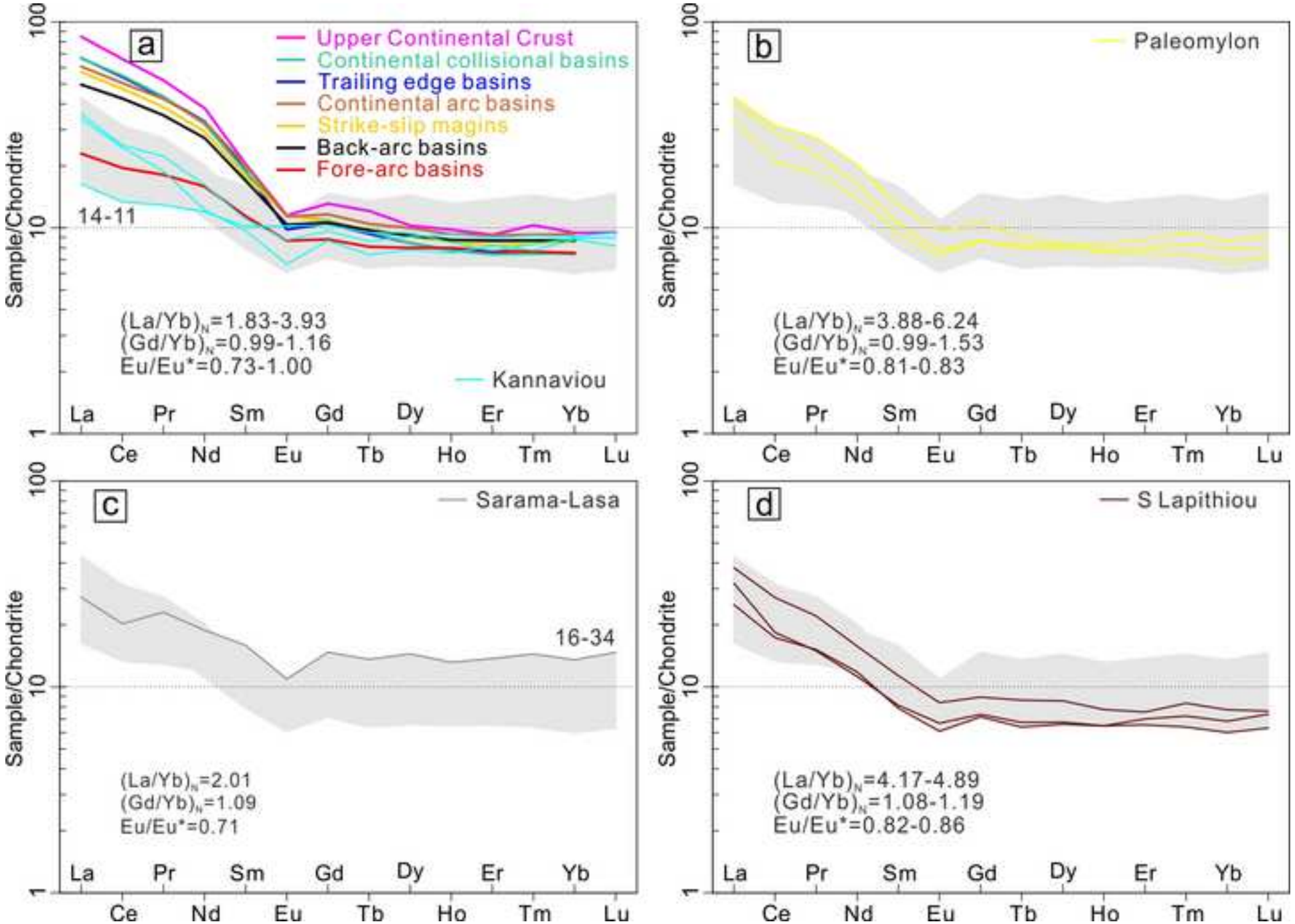

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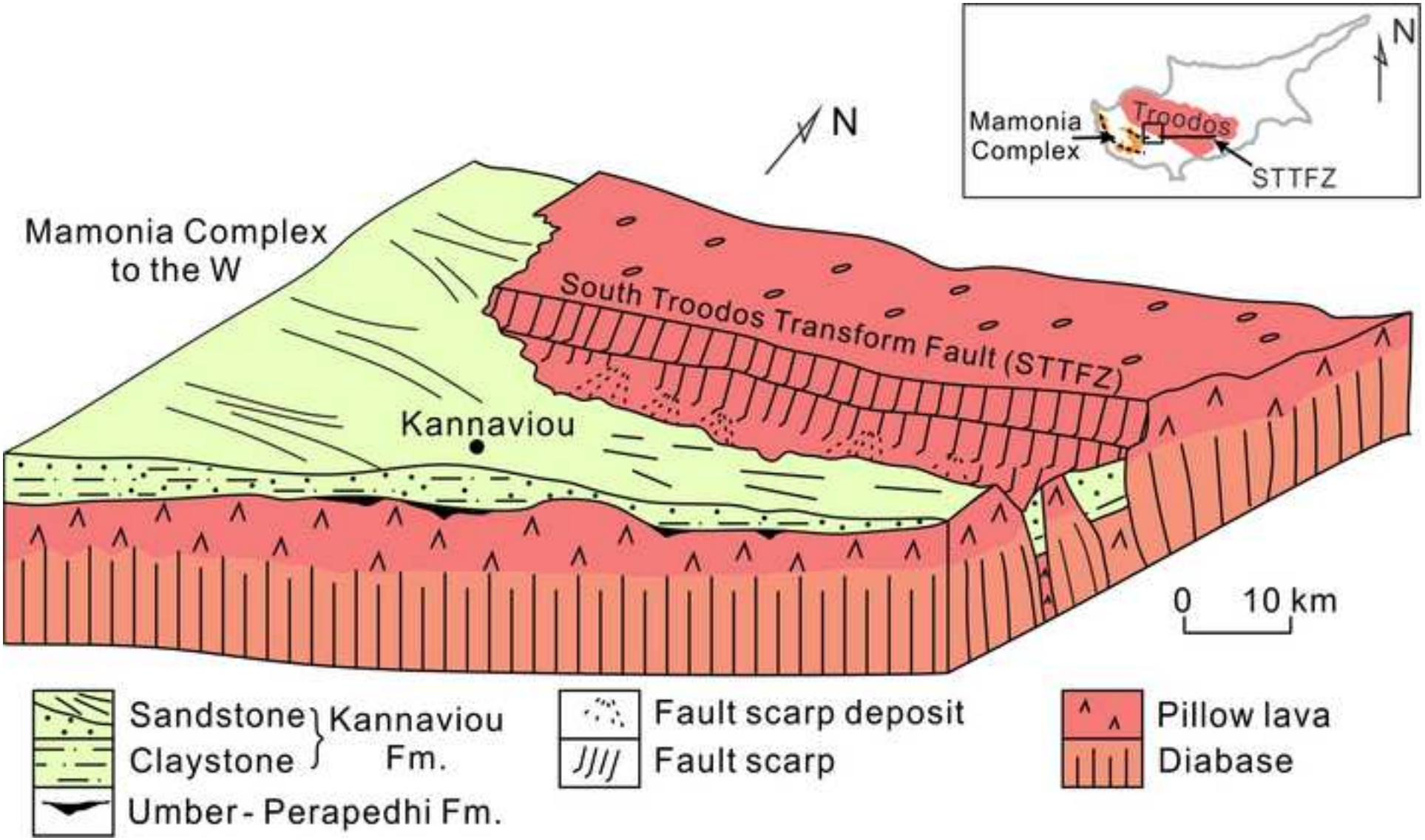

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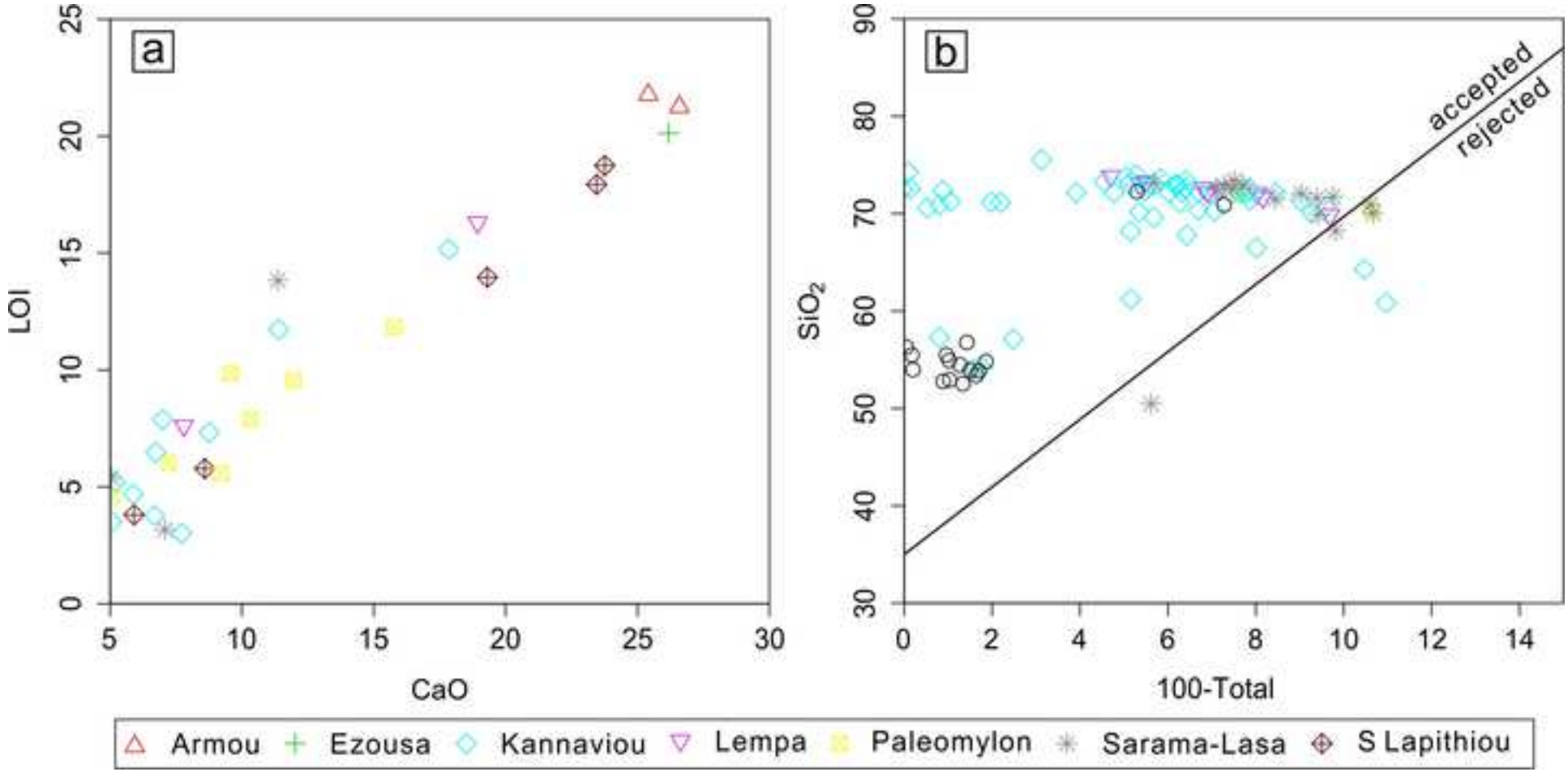

Fig. 19

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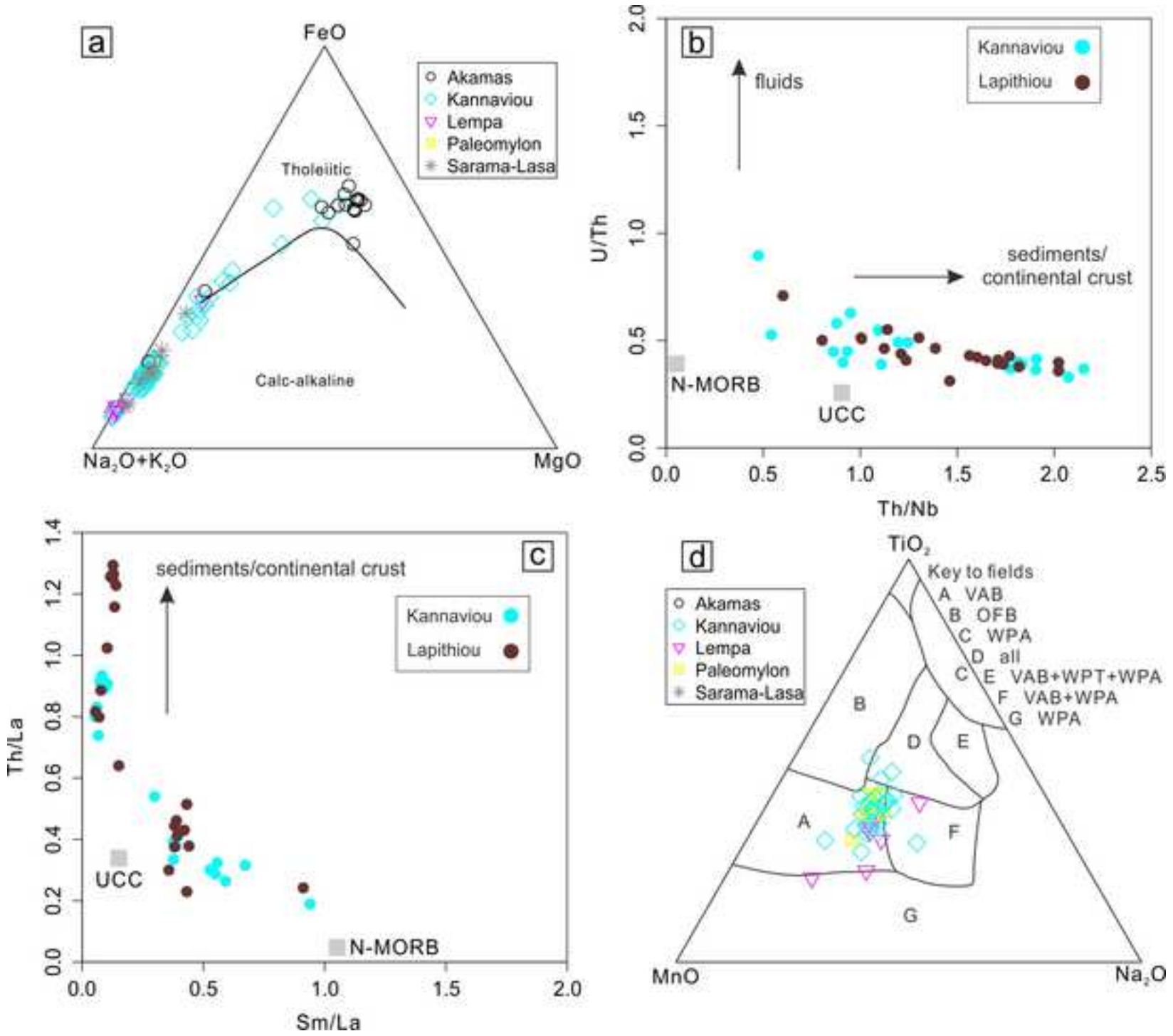

Fig. 20

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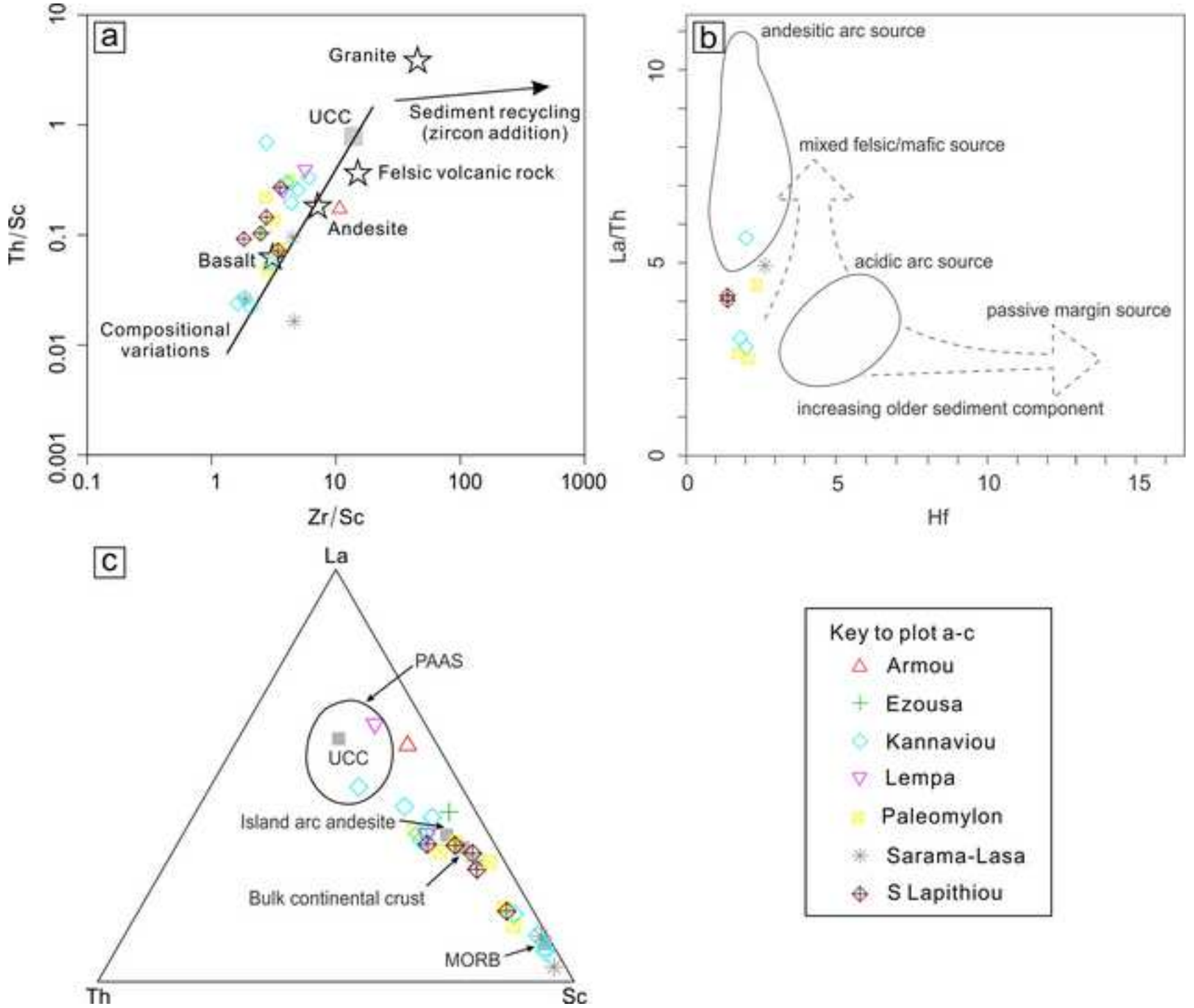

Fig. 21

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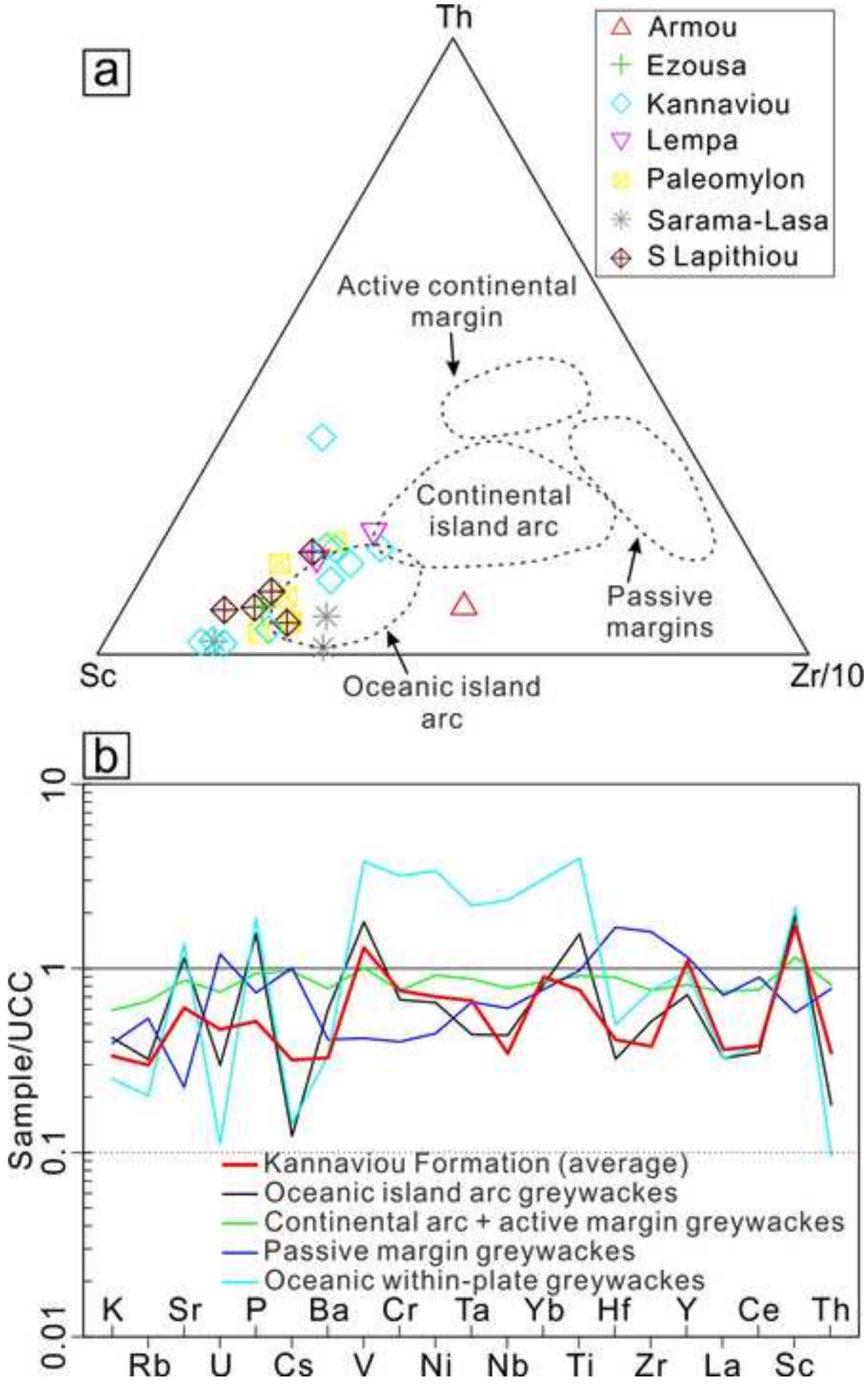

Fig. 22

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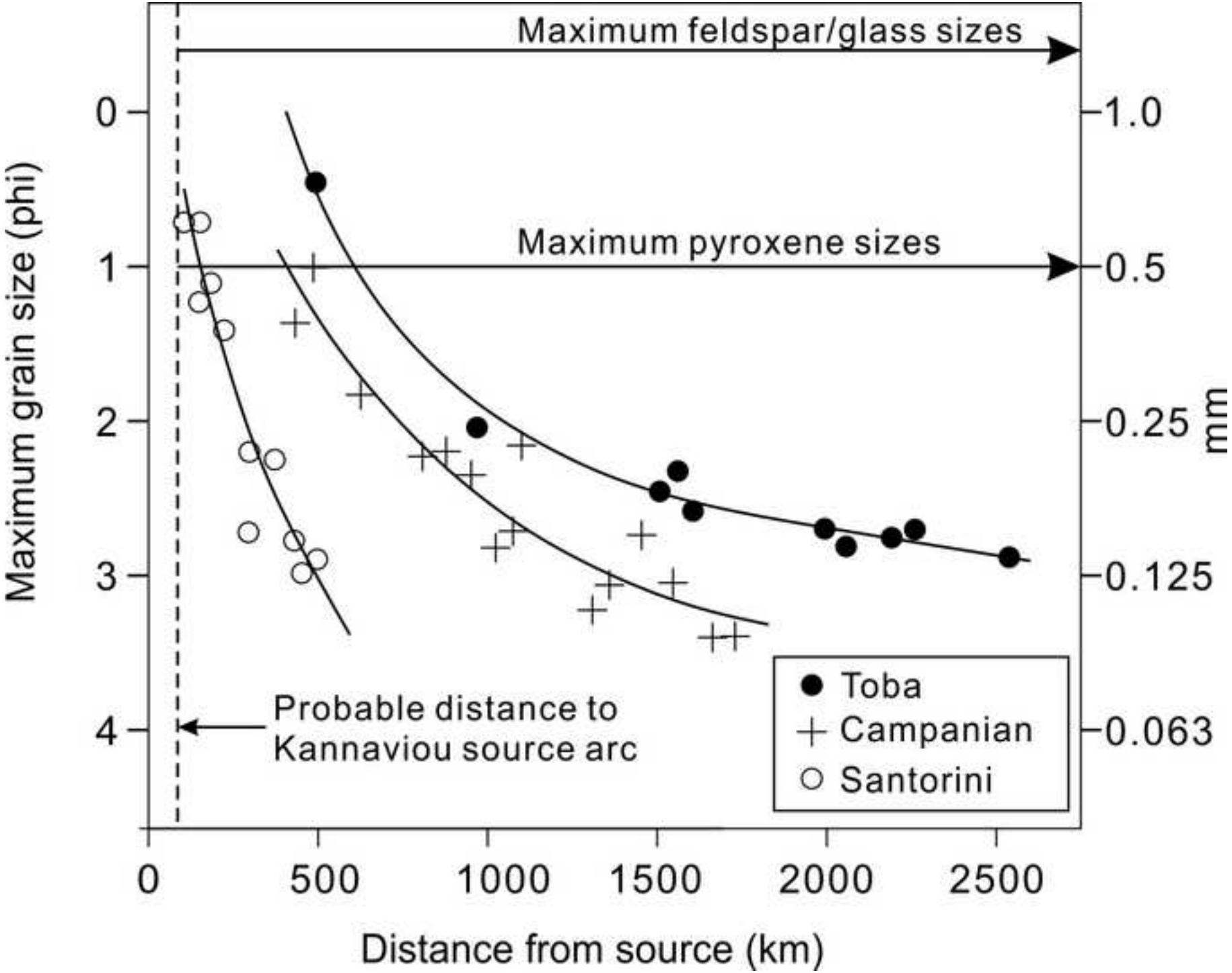

Fig. 23

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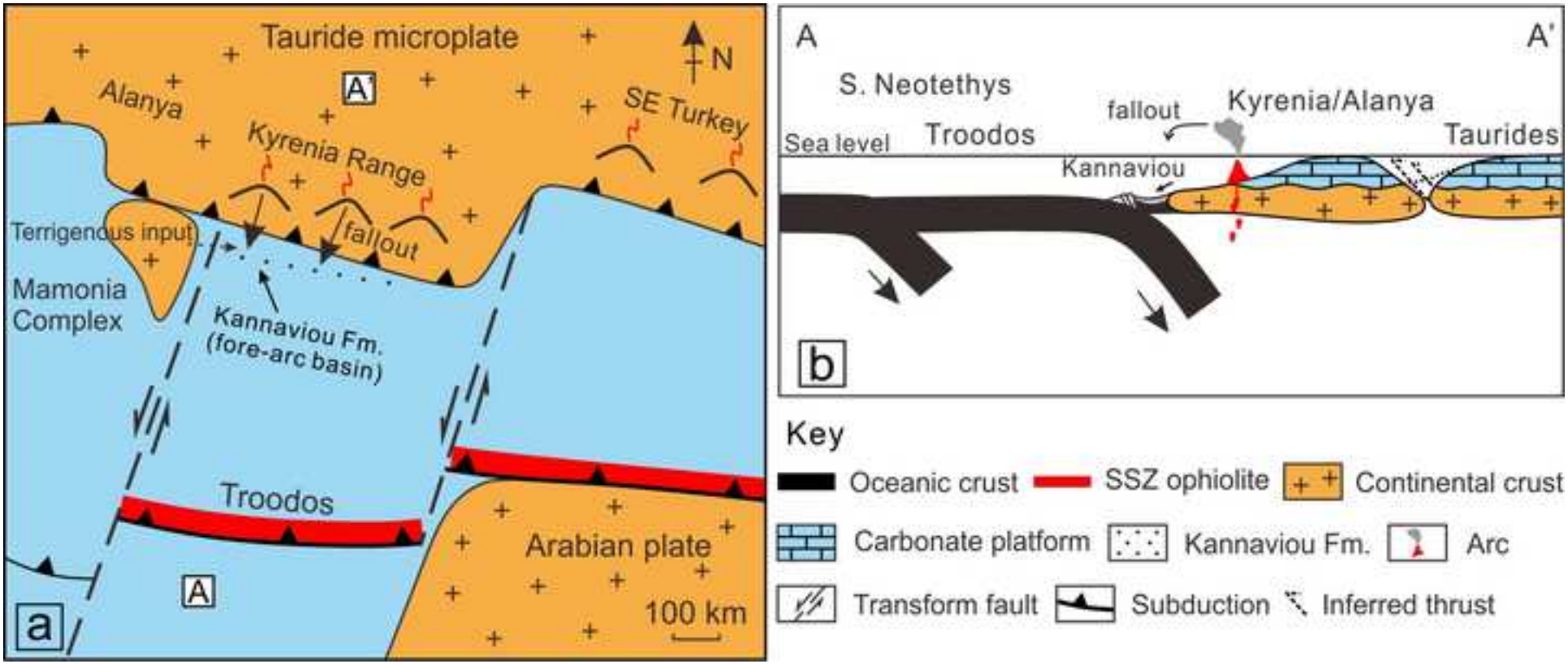

Table 1

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Sample	Geographic location	Geographic coordinates	QFL	XRF[a]	ICP-MS	EMPA[a]	IMS-4f	U-Pb	Note[b]
14-04	Armou	34°47'40"N, 32°28'19"E		X				X	
14-11	Kannaviou	34°54'48"N, 32°32'59"E	X	X	X		X		
14-12	Kannaviou	34°54'53"N, 32°33'29"E	X	X	X			X	
14-13	Kannaviou	34°54'53"N, 32°34'16"E	X	X					
14-14	Kannaviou	34°55'20"N, 32°34'34"E	X	X	X		X	X	
16-04	Paleomylon	34°55'08"N, 32°35'01"E		X	X				
16-13	Paleomylon	34°55'06"N, 32°35'18"E		X	X				
16-14	Paleomylon	34°55'02"N, 32°35'29"E		X	X				
16-15	Paleomylon	34°54'44"N, 32°35'44"E		X					
16-16	Paleomylon	34°55'03"N, 32°36'03"E		X					
16-20	south of Lapithiou	34°53'55"N, 32°36'25"E		X			X		
16-22	south of Lapithiou	34°53'44"N, 32°35'36"E		X	X		X		
16-23	south of Lapithiou	34°53'50"N, 32°35'07"E		X	X				
16-25	south of Lapithiou	34°53'54"N, 32°34'51"E		X					
16-29	south of Lapithiou	34°54'09"N, 32°35'19"E		X	X				
16-30	Ezousa River	34°55'36"N, 32°35'00"E		X					
16-31	Kannaviou-Kri. Marottou	34°55'50"N, 32°33'53"E		X					
16-33	Sarama	34°57'25"N, 32°32'28"E		X					
16-34	Sarama	34°56'52"N, 32°32'02"E		X	X				
16-39	Lasa	34°55'47"N, 32°31'51"E		X					Newly collected
4.1	Lempa	34°48'52"N, 32°24'08"E		X[a]					
4.2	Lempa	34°48'52"N, 32°24'08"E		X[a]		X[a]			
6.2	Armou	34°47'43"N, 32°28'22"E		X[a]					
14.5	south of Episkopi	34°46'08"N, 32°32'28"E	X						
18.4	Paleomylon	34°55'02"N, 32°36'00"E		X[a]					
18.5	Paleomylon	34°55'02"N, 32°36'00"E	X	X[a]		X[a]			
19.1	Kannaviou	34°55'07"N, 32°34'33"E	X	X[a]		X[a]			
21.1	Kannaviou	34°54'53"N, 32°34'10"E		X[a]		X[a]			
21.2	Kannaviou	34°54'48"N, 32°34'20"E	X	X[a]		X[a]			
22.1	Kannaviou	34°54'48"N, 32°34'20"E	X						
23.1	Kannaviou	34°55'14"N, 32°33'09"E	X	X[a]					
23A.1	Kannaviou	34°55'03"N, 32°33'05"E		X[a]		X[a]			Gilbert and Robertson (2013)
1074	Akamas	34°59'31"N, 32°19'56"E				X			
2124	Lasa	NA	X						
2141	Sarama	NA	X						
2156	Sarama	NA	X						
2158	Sarama	NA	X						
2164	Sarama	NA				X			Robertson (1977a)

QFL: petrographic thin section study for point counting;
XRF: major and trace element analysed by X-ray fluorescence spectrometry;
ICP-MS: trace and rare earth element analysed by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry;
EMPA: mineral chemistry analysed by electron microprobe;
IMS-4f: glass trace element analysed by ion microprobe;
U-Pb: zircon U-Pb geochronology analysed by secondary-ion mass spectrometry;

[a] Data from Gilbert and Robertson (2013);

[b] Thin section, polished section source.

Table 2

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Main parameter		*Calculated parameter*	
Qm	Monocrystalline quartz	Q	Total quartz grains (=Qm+Qp)
Qp	Polycrystalline quartz	F	Total feldspar grains (=Fg)
Fg[a]	Feldspar grains	Lv	Volcanic lithics (=Vg+Lvm+Lvf)
Fl	Feldspar in lithics	Lsm	Sedimentary and metamorphic lithics (=Ls+Lm)
Vg[b]	Volcanic glass	L	Total unstable lithic fragments (=Lv+Lsm+Lo+Fl)
Lvm[c]	Intermediate to mafic volcanic lithics	Lt	Total lithic fragments (=L+Qp)
Lvf[d]	Felsic volcanic lithics		
Ls	Sedimentary lithics		
Lm	Metamorphic lithics		
Lo	Other lithics		
Px	Detrital pyroxenes		
Am	Detrital amphiboles		
Bt	Detrital biotite grains		
Ms	Detrital muscovite flakes		
Cal	Carbonate grains		
Bio	Bioclastic detritus		
M	Matrix		
C	Cement		

[a] no differentiation of feldspar;

[b] volcanic glass (relatively pure, with very minor phenocrysts);

[c] dark coloured volcanic lithics, with common pyroxene and opaque crystals;

[d] pale coloured volcanic lithics with common quartz and feldspar laths.

Table 3

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	Kannaviou Formation							Sediment from felsic sources[a]		Sediment from mafic sources[a]	
	Armou	Ezousa	Kanaviou	Lempa	Paleomylon	Sarama-Lasa	S Lapithiou	Coarse fractions	Fine fractions	Coarse fractions	Fine fractions
La/Co	-	-	0.24-0.84	-	0.69-1.13	0.59	0.67	1.8-13.8	1.4-22.4	0.14-0.38	-
Th/Co	-	-	0.05-0.31	-	0.16-0.44	0.12	0.21	0.67-19.4	0.3-7.5	0.04-1.4	-
Th/Cr	0.03	0.01	0.03-0.71	0.08	0.03-0.12	0.02-0.05	0.05	0.13-2.7	0.067-4.0	0.018-0.046	0.002-0.045
La/Sc	0.27-1.58	-	0.08-1.52	0.70-2.30	0.04-0.77	0.04-0.45	0.47	2.5-16.3	0.7-27.7	0.43-0.86	0.4-1.1
Th/Sc	0.17	-	0.69	0.26-0.39	0-0.32	0.02-0.10	0.14	0.84-20.5	0.64-18.1	0.05-0.22	0.05-0.4
Eu/Eu*	-	-	0.73-1.00	-	0.81-0.83	0.71	0.81-0.86	0.40-0.94	0.32-0.83	0.71-0.95	0.7-1.02

[a] data from Cullers (1995, 2000)

Supplementary Appendix A

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Supplementary Table 6

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