



Geological relationships of basalts, andesites and sand injectites at the base of the Paraná volcanic province, Torres, Brazil

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ABSTRACT

The Cretaceous interaction of the heated, giant Guarani aquifer with lavas, dikes and sills of the Paraná volcanic province is here evaluated based on the description of the large exposures in Torres, southernmost Brazil. Chalcedony silicified sandstone dikes, sills and breccias containing volcanic clasts in a sandstone matrix are common in the Paraná volcanic province. Sandstone layers mark either the contact between lava flows or the base of the vertically-jointed, massive core. In Torres, one basaltic andesite and one andesite lava flow of the low-Ti Gramado type, and basalt and basaltic andesite sills and dikes, are correlated over 10 km with rocks in the Graxaim quarry. Scintillometric emission rates vary systematically with contents of K, Th and U and are characteristic of each lava or intrusive rock. Major and trace elements are also characteristic of each lava. Three large outcrops of breccias display angular, amygdaloidal volcanic clasts immersed in a silicified sandstone matrix. No evidence was found of high temperature (1150 °C) interaction of the lava with the loose, erg of the Botucatu Formation, such as fluidal volcanic clasts, quenched rims or thermal recrystallization of the sand; only a thin (5 mm) layer of thermally modified sand is present on top of a paleodune in Torres.

In Torres, the interaction of andesite with wet sand occurred after degassing of the lava, because the breccia clasts are amygdaloidal. All evidence points to hydrothermal processes for the formation of the breccias, such as lozenge fractures filled with silicified sandstone, preserved detrital characteristics of the sandstone grains and cold (below 130 °C) contact between the volcanic rock and the sand. Most significant is the timing of sand intrusion, because thin (1 mm) dikes of silicified sandstone cut fractures in the rock and the zeolite-filled amygdaloids. The sandstone dikes, sills and breccias are interpreted as a result of the ascent of over-pressured heated water and its vapor from the huge, underlying Guarani aquifer, carrying fluidized sand and continuously silicifying the intruded sand. The three breccias are sills intruded into cold lava flows. The description and correlation of the magmatic bodies and the field relationships of the silicified sandstones establish the stratigraphy of the Paraná volcanic province in Torres and elucidate the processes responsible for the injection and effusion of sand in the Cretaceous.

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1. Introduction

The Paraná volcanic province is a giant, bimodal basalt–rhyodacite sequence that comprises the Serra Geral Group located in southeastern South America. The province evolution poses major questions that require investigation, including the sequence and correlation of magmas generated in the beginning of magmatism and the interaction of a large number of small-volume sand injectites and extrudites (nomenclature of Hurst et al., 2011) along the entire volcanic stratigraphy. Magmatic processes are not evaluated here; they are related to variable extents of melting of lithospheric and asthenospheric mantle, followed by crustal contamination and magma fractionation (e.g., Hartmann et al., 2010a and references therein).

The discovery of the geological controls for sand mobilization and injection in volcanic rocks (Hartmann et al., 2012) in the Cretaceous Paraná volcanic province (~135 Ma; Pinto et al., 2011a; Janasi et al., 2011) of South America indicates that water and its vapor from the huge Guarani aquifer attained 130 °C during lozenge fracturing of the lava flows and sand fluidization with accompanying hydrothermal breccia intrusion. Sand dikes are common in this volcanic province and in the underlying sedimentary Paraná basin (e.g., Arioli et al., 2008; Perinotto et al., 2008; Machado et al., 2009).

Comparable continental flood basalt provinces in the world are underlain by weak aquifers and only display minor sand mobilization, e.g., Columbia River (USA), Karoo (South Africa) and Deccan (India). The Paraná volcanic province offers a unique opportunity to study the tectonic and hydrothermal interaction of two large geological structures, the Guarani aquifer and the Serra Geral Group of basalts and rhyodacites.

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The dynamic interaction of loose sand with overlying seal layers is a common process in offshore petroleum basins, resulting in the injection of large volumes of fluidized sand as dikes and sills into the overlying claystones and extrudites at the sea bottom (e.g., Huuse et al., 2010; Vétel and Cartwright, 2010; Hurst et al., 2011). It is also a significant process in continental basins where sand is mobilized by water. For instance, large-scale erg sand injection into overlying Jurassic units in Idaho included the ascent of meter-sized clasts of sedimentary rocks (Huuse et al., 2005). The entire set of sand bodies can be designated “sand injectites” and includes sand dikes, sills, lopoliths, cups, volcanoes, flows and breccias (Hurst et al., 2011).

The fluid in the offshore basins is commonly at 20–70 °C and the injected sand bodies remain highly porous; e.g., Schwab et al. (2011) observed that “the injected sands are an excellent reservoir with consistently high porosity and permeability” in offshore Norway basins. A mudstone is the most common caprock because this abundant rock type constitutes the impermeable seal that is required for the development of overpressure in the fluid (commonly water or oil).

In the Paraná volcanic province, sand dikes, sills and breccias are common features over the entire extent of the province and along most of the stratigraphic column of the Serra Geral Group (1800 m at depocenter, 300 km to the northwest of the studied area), which has ~120 lava flows (e.g., Pinto and Hartmann, 2011; Pinto et al., 2011b; Hartmann et al., 2012). In the central region of the province, Waichel et al. (2007) registered the occurrence of numerous breccias containing basalt clasts in a sandstone matrix and considered the rocks as peperites formed by the interaction of hot lava with wet sand. In the presently studied region, sand dikes were described by Petry et al. (2007), whereas Arioli et al. (2008) described numerous sand dikes and layers in the state of Paraná, located 600 km to the northwest of Torres. The breccias in the Torres hills were considered by Petry et al. (2007) as dry peperites. It is also novel that the caprocks for sand intrusion in this continental province are basalt lava flows (also andesite, rhyodacite) and not mudstones as in offshore basins (e.g., Schwab et al., 2011) and in most environments that display sand intrusion. It is also significant that the sand bodies in the Paraná volcanic province are intensely silicified and have very low porosity, in strong contrast with the sand injection complexes of offshore petroleum basins.

Numerous sandstone dikes, sills and breccias are well-exposed at the sea cliffs of Torres, Brazil (Petry et al., 2007), intrusive into lava flows of the Serra Geral Group (Fig. 1).

We propose a model of sand injection by low-temperature hydrothermal processes into basaltic rocks from Torres, opposed to a previous hypothesis (Petry et al., 2007) that proposed high-temperature lava–sediment interaction for the same outcrops. Field observations are the basis of this novel hypothesis, supported by gamma-ray scintillometry and geochemical analyses of rocks. We also establish the stratigraphy and correlation of lava flows, sills and dikes in this basal portion of the Paraná volcanic province.

This is a case-study in Torres of the general process registered over the entire ~1,000,000 km² area covered by the volcanic sequence of the Serra Geral Group in Brazil, Paraguay, Argentina and Uruguay.

2. Methodology

The observation of satellite images was followed by field trips to the Torres region, particularly the sea cliff exposures in the hills. The Graxaim quarry is named after a local mamifer resembling a fox, and was also studied due to the relationship of sandstone dikes with zeolite-filled amygdaloids and their association with the two lava flows present. The quarry is situated ~300 m from the BR-101 highway, 10 km southwest of the Cabras hill in Torres (Fig. 2a). The Torres hills and Graxaim quarry are here designated “Torres region”.



Fig. 1. Geological map displaying the area of occurrence of the Serra Geral Group and sedimentary cover of Paraná basin (Peate et al., 1992). The Torres town, where the studied region is located, is indicated by an arrow.

The detailed study of the exposures during field work was integrated with scintillometric (gamma-spectrometric) measurements and rock geochemistry to reach a better understanding of the unique relationships of hot water and its vapor with loose, desert dune sand buried by volcanic caprocks. A portable gamma ray scintillometer model GR0110G, by SAIC Exploranium, was used for the emission rates measurements. Measurements ($n=10-15$, cps = counts per second) were registered in all visited outcrops. This is the total gamma-ray rate of emission from radioactive elements, mostly K, U and Th.

Selected rock samples from the four studied hills and from the Graxaim quarry were analyzed for major and trace elements in the ACME laboratory, Canada, using analytical procedures named by ACME as “Group 4A and Group 4B”. Group 4A analyses used LiBO₂ fusion/dilute nitric digestion then ICP-ES for major oxides plus minor elements; LOI is weight loss on ignition. Group 4B analyses of rare earths and refractory elements used ICP-MS. All data were integrated and interpreted with the support of computers at Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, using Excel and GCDKit software. Because the major element composition of the rocks was strongly modified by hydrothermal processes, we used a mixed classification of major and less-mobile trace elements to classify the rocks. The geochemical alteration is indicated by positive or negative correlation of the oxide (or element) with LOI. A major elements (e.g., TAS) diagram was used for a general evaluation of rock classification in low-LOI (less than 2.0 wt.%) analyses, but emphasis was placed on the Nb/Y versus Zr/TiO₂ diagram.

3. Geological relationships

The Paraná volcanic province (e.g., Peate et al., 1992; Hartmann et al., 2010a,b) in South America (Fig. 1) is near the top of the

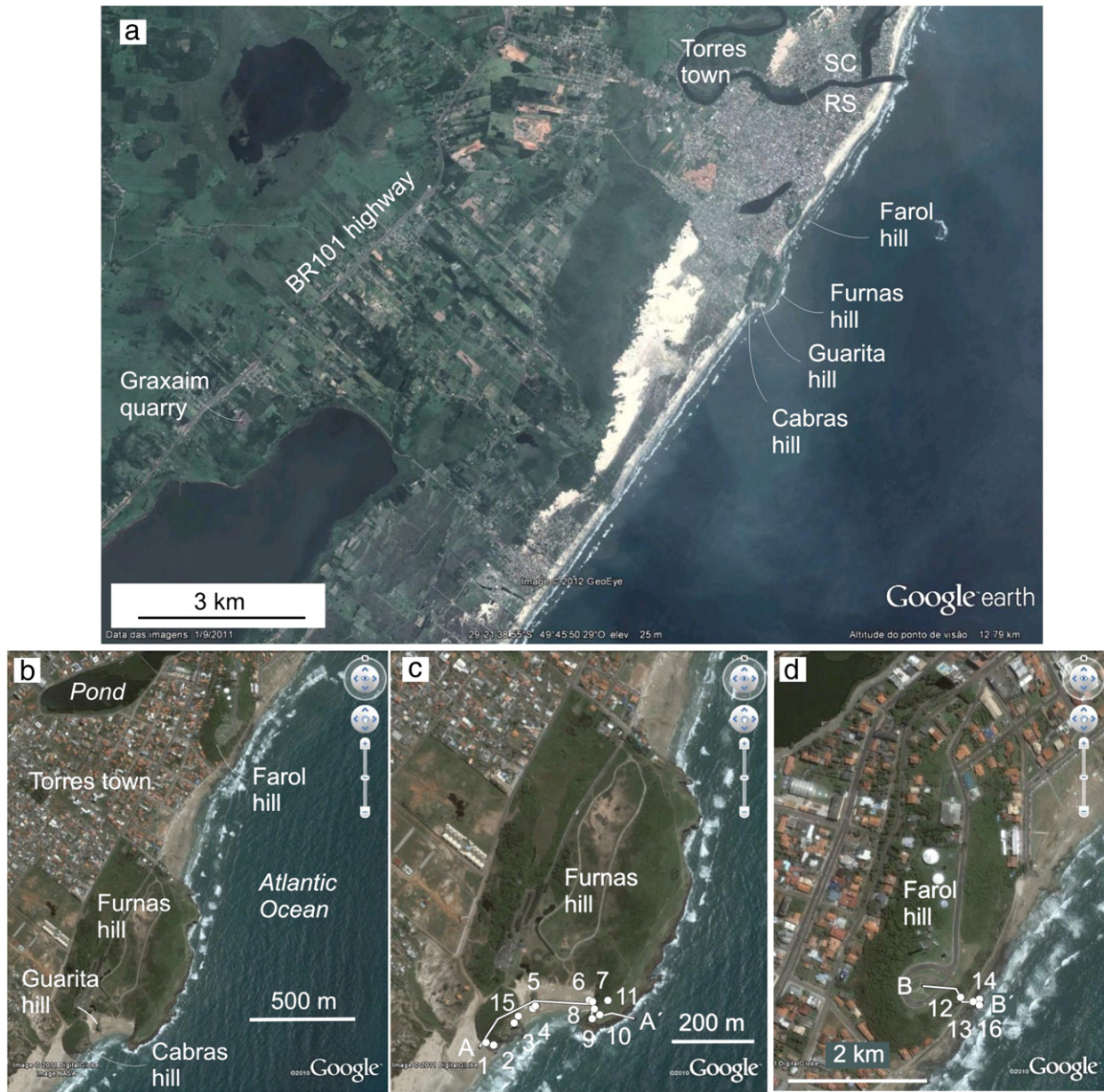


Fig. 2. Satellite images of studied region. (a) Graxaim quarry and studied hills in Torres town = Farol, Furnas, Guarita, Cabras hills; (b), (c) and (d) Location of geological sections A and B (Fig. 3) and of analyzed samples. Codes for samples: 1 = T1A; 2 = T1B; 3 = T3; 4 = T2A; 5 = T2B, T2C; 6 = T4A; 7 = T4B, B1A, B1B, B1C; 8 = T4C; 9 = T4D, B2A, B2B, B2C; 10 = T4E, T4E1; 11 = T4F, T4F1; 12 = T5A, T5A1; 13 = T5B, T5B1, T5B2; 14 = T5C, T5C1; 15 = T1C; 16 = T5D, T5 E, T5F.

7000 m Paraná basin, only partly covered by the Bauru Group of sedimentary rocks (Zalán et al., 1991) and has mostly basalts, basaltic andesites, andesites, rhyodacites and dacites included in the Serra Geral Group. Some remarkable features are present in the exposures of volcanic rocks in the Torres region (Figs. 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9) and

deserve description, including the fault structure of the volcanic rocks, the presence of the underlying Botucatu Formation sandstone at the beach level, the sandstone–andesite breccias, the silicified sandstone layer on top of a breccia, the dikes and sills of silicified sandstone, the presence of silicified sandstone in lozenge fractures

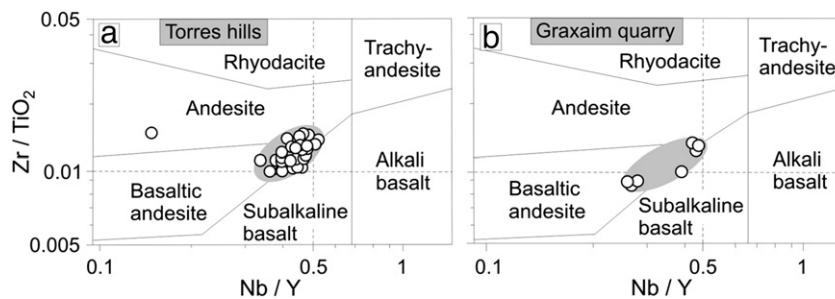


Fig. 3. Chemical classification of volcanic rocks from Torres and Graxaim quarry showing predominance of basaltic andesites, but basalt and andesite also present.

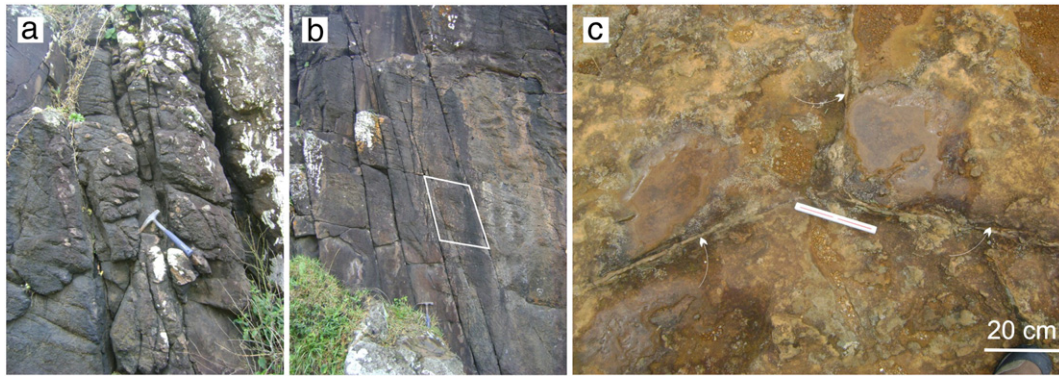


Fig. 4. Field photos of Viola sill in the Cabras hill. (a) Subvertical, brittle fault zone that cuts the older lozenge fractures; (b) lozenge fractures; (c) plan view of silicified sandstone dikes in fractures of andesite, at the top of Cabras hill, indicated by three white arrows.

of the andesite, the crosscutting relationship of thin sandstone dikes with zeolite-filled amygdalae, and the presence of 10–20 cm-size quartz geodes. All these features are here described and require an integrated model for the understanding of the geological evolution of the region in the Cretaceous.

3.1. Geology of Torres hills

Four extensive outcrops were described in four hills in Torres town (Fig. 2a, b, c and d). The hills rise up to 50 m above sea level and are directly hit by normal and storm waves, resulting in large, fresh rock exposures. Humid climate (cold winter – 0–10 °C, hot summer – 25–35 °C) resulted in thick soil with grass and shrub cover with few rock exposures, except at the cliffs. Some of the main features of the geological units are presented in Table 1.

Two lava flows were recognized from field relationships, geochemistry and scintillometry. The rocks were initially classified based on major element compositions of samples with the lowest loss on ignition, but the strong hydrothermal alteration prohibits the procedure. Trace element compositions of less-mobile elements

are used and are close to the limits between subalkaline basalt, basaltic andesite and andesite (Fig. 3).

The Cabras hill is made up of massive, fine to medium-grained andesite. No lower or upper amygdaloidal crusts are exposed; the lower contact is below sea level and the top of the hill displays cross-sections of columnar joints indicating erosion of the upper contact. Several subvertical, brittle fault zones cut the hill (Fig. 4a), and are part of the large-scale transcurent fault system that is present along the eastern border of the Paraná basin (Jacques et al., 2010). Many vertical fractures form 0.5–2.0 m size blocks; these are reminiscent of cooling joints, particularly in the upper part of the hill, but the integrated set of vertical and inclined fractures results in lozenge-shaped blocks in the lower and middle portion of the hill (Fig. 4b). The inclined fractures cut across the contacts of the subvertical blocks, so they are not cooling structures of the lava. On top of the Cabras hill, many thin (0.1–1.0 mm) nearly vertical, dikes and some thin (0.1–1.0 mm) sills of silicified sandstone are present. Only at the top of the hill are silicified sandstone dikes observed that intrude fractures (Fig. 3c). Neither breccia nor Botucatu Formation sandstone is present at the base of this hill.

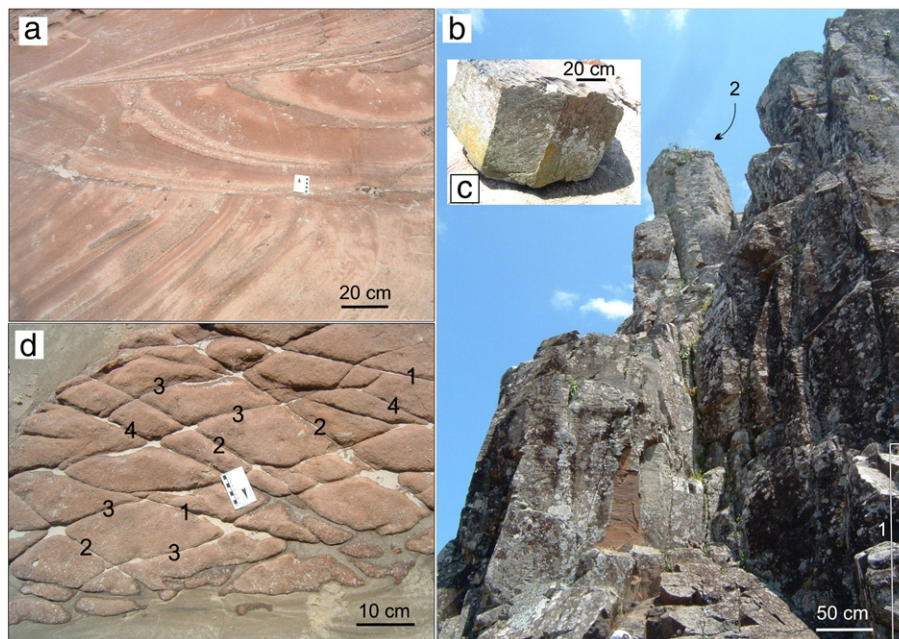


Fig. 5. Field photos of sandstones of the Guarita and Viola sills. (a) High-angle cross-bedding in sandstone of the Botucatu Formation; (b) Rock cliff of Guarita hill, displaying massive, lozenge-fractured, core type I at base (indicated by 1) and hexagonal cooling prisms in core type II, top of hill (hexagonal prism indicated by 2); (c) fallen block of hexagonal prism; (d) lozenge fractures (four families) in the upper surface of a silicified sandstone layer (20 cm thick).

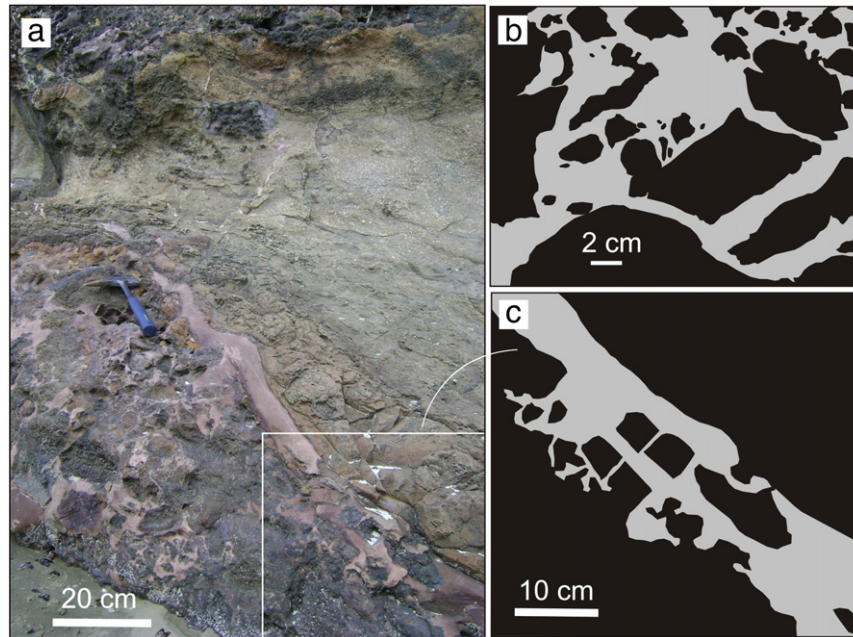


Fig. 6. Breccia 1 at the southern base of Furnas hill. (a) Amygdaloidal crust disrupted by brecciation; (b) and (c) sketch of angular shape of andesite clasts in this outcrop.

A smaller andesite remnant (Guarita hill) overlies a cross-bedded, poorly cemented, multiple-set sandstone of the Botucatu Formation (Fig. 5a). The andesite is fine- to medium-grained, massive, with no visible lower or upper amygdaloidal crusts. In the upper portion of the volcanic exposure (Fig. 4b, c), vertical, approximately hexagonal, columns are well-developed, similar to structures formed during lava cooling. This is considered a sill because no evidence was encountered of lava flow structures, such as lower or upper crust or horizontal jointing near the base.

No structural evidence of subaerial effusion of lava was observed in the Cabras and Guarita hills, such as upper and lower amygdaloidal crusts or horizontal jointing at the base or top of the igneous unit. The Guarita hill has a lower core type I without columnar jointing displaying lozenge fractures and an upper core type II with columnar jointing. Silicified sandstone was only observed in one thin dike in this outcrop. There is no amygdaloidal crust or horizontal jointing present in the basal portion of the Guarita hill near the contact with the Botucatu Formation sandstone.

The 500 × 1000 m Furnas hill has more varied geological features. From south to north, along a cross section from the beach to the top of the hill, a 20-cm thick layer of medium silicification sandstone, displaying lozenge fractures at the surface (Fig. 5d) is at the beach level. Only horizontal layering is present in this sandstone, contrasting with

the cross-bedding of the nearby Botucatu Formation (Fig. 5a). A remarkable 50 m long, 5 m thick, andesite–sandstone breccia overlies the sandstone. This breccia, named breccia 1 (Fig. 6a), is made up of angular clasts (5–50 cm) of amygdaloidal andesite in medium silicified sandstone matrix. The breccia is usually clast-supported, with a few matrix-supported portions and is intrusive into the amygdaloidal crust of the flow. Jig-saw structures are common in the breccia which has mostly angular blocks (Fig. 6b, c). The main characteristics of the breccia are presented in Table 2.

An outstanding feature of the Furnas hill section is the presence of a thick, irregular, ~10 m thick, andesite–sandstone breccia between the lower core type I (no vertical cooling joints) and upper core type II (with vertical cooling joints) of the andesite flow (Fig. 7a, b, c). Below the core type I, flat lying lozenge fractures are present and more inclined lozenge fractures occur higher up (Fig. 8a, b, c). It is followed by a massive andesite with quartz geodes and sand dikes; lozenge fractures are present and many of them are filled with silicified sandstone dikes (Fig. 8b). A one-meter thick irregular layer of amygdaloidal rock is present inside the lower core. At the top of the hill, the erosional remnant of a massive volcanic unit is present and poorly exposed, and only massive rock was observed.

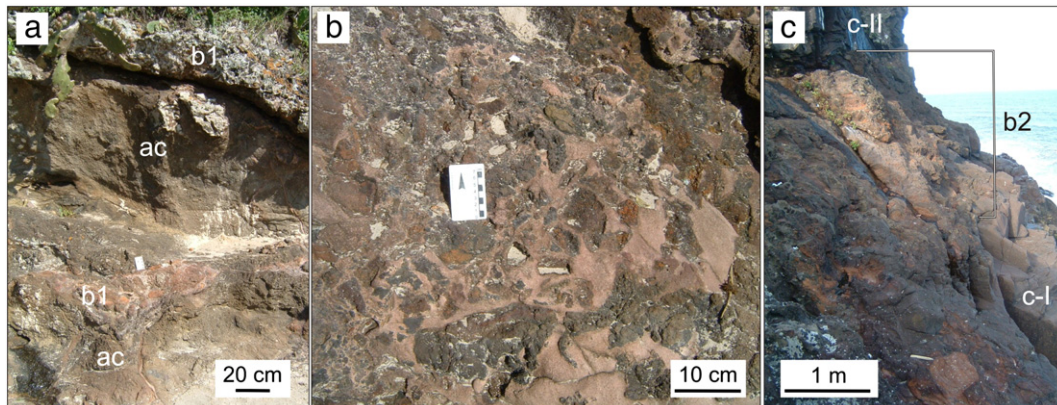


Fig. 7. Field photos of breccias 1 and 2 from the Furnas hill. (a) Breccia 1 (indicated as b1), containing andesite clasts and disrupted amygdaloidal crust (ac) of andesite; (b) angular shapes of andesite clasts of breccia 1; (c) position of breccia 2 (indicated as b2) between cores type I (c-I) and type II (c-II) of Arraia flow (andesite).

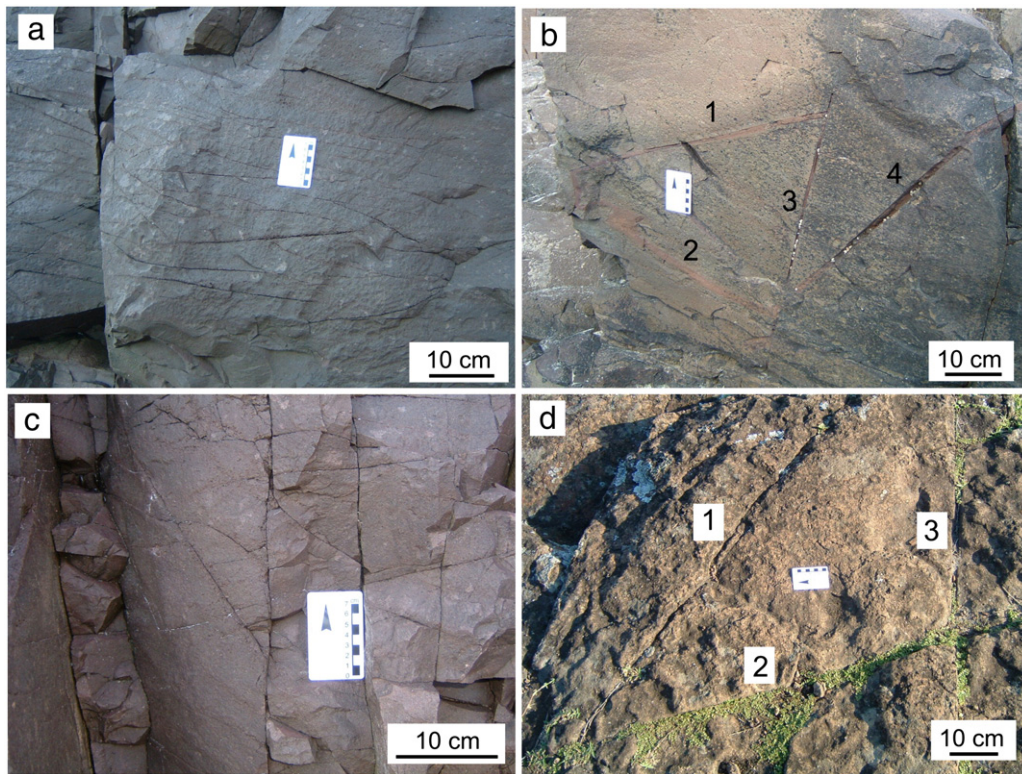


Fig. 8. Field photos of lozenge fractures in Arraia flow (andesite). (a) Lower portion of the type I core, close to contact with underlying breccia 1; (b) vertical face in middle portion of type I core, displaying four silicified sandstone dikes in lozenge fractures of andesite; (c) lozenge fractures in upper portion of core type I; (d) plan view of three lozenge fractures in the upper exposed surface of type II core. Some of the fractures contain silicified sandstone dikes.

The Farol hill is 100 × 500 m in area. A 100 × 50 m fresh outcrop of sandstone–basaltic andesite breccia 3 occurs in the Gruta da Santinha, near sea level (Table 2; Fig. 9a, b, c, d). The breccia has lava crust below and in lateral contact and is made up of fragments of basaltic andesite (10–50 cm large) in moderately silicified sandstone matrix. At the base of the cliff, the breccia evolves upward into massive sandstone containing a few, large (50 cm) angular clasts of basaltic andesite and then passing into a massive sandstone without clasts; a few uppermost, large (30 cm) clasts are immersed in sandstone.

Two basalt sills and one dike of similar composition (51.5 wt.% SiO₂) are exposed in the Gruta da Santinha (Farol hill), here designated the Gruta sills and dike. At sea level, a sill is exposed and continues underwater, intruded into the amygdaloidal basaltic andesite of the Santinha flow. A 10 cm thick basalt dike intrudes the amygdaloidal crust. At the vertical rock cliff of Gruta da Santinha, a sharp contact is present between a basalt sill (2-m thick, vertical jointing) and the thick, massive basaltic andesite with columnar jointing (core type II).

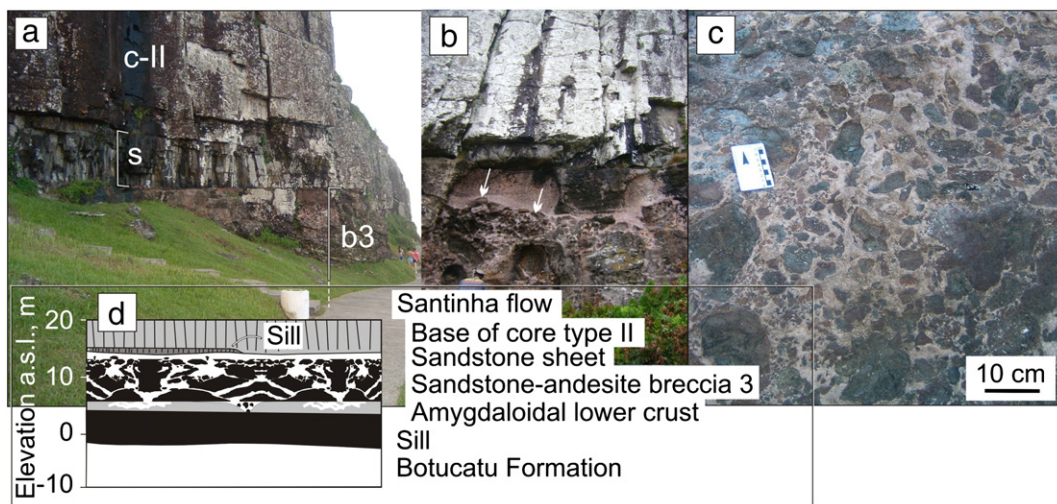


Fig. 9. Field photos and geological sketch of Santinha flow, Farol hill. (a) Breccia 3 (indicated as b3) showing sharp upper contact with basaltic sill (indicated as s) intruded into the Santinha flow core type II (indicated as c-II); (b) silicified sandstone sheet at the base of type II core, with up to 30 cm-large angular basaltic andesite clasts in the upper part; (c) angular basaltic andesite clasts in sandstone-supported breccia 3 at the beach level; (d) sketch of geological relationships of breccia 3.

Table 1

Selected characteristics of the Cretaceous geological units from Torres hills and Graxaim quarry. (–) = not applicable; (Est.) = estimated; Fm. = Formation; amygd. = amygdaloidal; cps values where available. “Breccia present” only refers to magmatic bodies. SiO₂ and TiO₂ cannot be estimated in Breccia 3 because of extreme modification of composition by hydrothermal processes. Only an estimative of SiO₂ composition of the analyzed rocks can be made because of strong hydrothermal alteration. “Sandstone dike, sill” were not analyzed chemically; it is a sill that turns into a dike along its length.

Unit number, name (cps)	Rock classification	Internal structure	Est. SiO ₂ (wt.%)	TiO ₂ (wt.%)	Sandstone dike, sill	Breccia present
Breccia 3, 90	Sandstone matrix Basaltic andesite clast	Mostly clast supported	– 52	– 1.20	Yes Yes	–
Breccias 1 and 2, 90	Sandstone matrix andesite clast	Mostly clast supported	54	1.75	Yes	–
Sand dike, sill	Silicified sandstone	Horizontal layering, silicified	–	–	–	–
Viola sill, 120	Andesite	Massive, no crust	57	1.56	Yes	No
Sill 2 + dike	Basaltic andesite	Massive, jointed	52.3	1.47	No	No
Gruta sills and dikes	Basalt	Massive, columnar joints	51.5	1.44	No	No
Arraia flow, 130	Andesite	Crusts poorly developed, core with lozenge fractures	60	1.39	Yes	Yes, at base
Santinha flow, 110	Basaltic andesite	Lower crust, core type II	54	1.30	Yes	Inside lower amygd. crust
Botucatu Fm., 100	Sandstone	High-angle cross-bedding	85	0.10	–	No

Table 2

Main characteristics of breccias from the Torres hills. Breccia 1 from the base of the southern cliff of the Furnas hill; breccia 2 from the middle of the cliff, Furnas hill; breccia 3 from Gruta da Santinha, Farol hill.

Location	Size of exposure	Position in flow	Structure	Sandstone	Matrix	Clast size (m)	Clast rock type	Clast shape
Breccia 1	30 m long, 2–5 m thick	Amygdaloidal crust	Mostly clast supported	At the base	Silicified sandstone	0.1–2.0	Andesite	Angular
Breccia 2	~15 m long, 1–5 m thick	Internal, center of core type I	Mostly clast supported	No	Silicified sandstone	0.1–1.0	Andesite	Angular
Breccia 3	50 m long, 3–10 m thick	Lower amygdaloidal crust, below core type II	Either matrix or clast supported	0.5–2.0 m thick, massive at the top, silicified	Silicified sandstone	0.1–0.8	Basaltic andesite	Angular

3.2. Geology of Graxaim quarry

The large (200×200 m in plan, 60 m high) Graxaim quarry has one basaltic andesite and one andesite flow and two sills (basaltic and basaltic andesite), in addition to disrupted sandstone layers (Fig. 10; Table 1). Overall outcrop structure is made up of basaltic dikes and sills. The oldest unit is a restricted and intensely disrupted amygdaloidal crust, probably composing the upper crust of an underlying basaltic andesite flow. It is overlain by an andesite flow with massive core, upper and lower crusts, and containing poorly cohesive sandstone layers up to 1 m thick and 10 m long. Vertical, hexagonal cooling columns are common in the core. A 30 m thick basalt sill displays apophyses intrusive into the overlying sandstone. Thin (1–10 mm) silicified sandstone dikes cut the andesite flows but do

not penetrate the basaltic sill. A younger basaltic andesite intrusion formed a composite sill and dike. Late brittle faults contain thin (~1 mm) veneers of calcite. No lozenge fractures or blocks were observed in the quarry. Hexagonal cooling columns are common in the sills.

Field relationships in the Torres region indicate therefore contacts of the lava flows, dikes and sills with sandstones of the Botucatu Formation. The main structures in the volcanic rocks are either related to cooling of the lava such as amygdaloidal crusts and core type II with hexagonal cooling joints or to tectonic processes acting on solid rock resulting in faults and fractures, some of them with lozenge shapes. The position of the breccias in the lower crust and in the core of lava flows, along with sandstone dikes and sills, requires an integrated, consistent explanation.

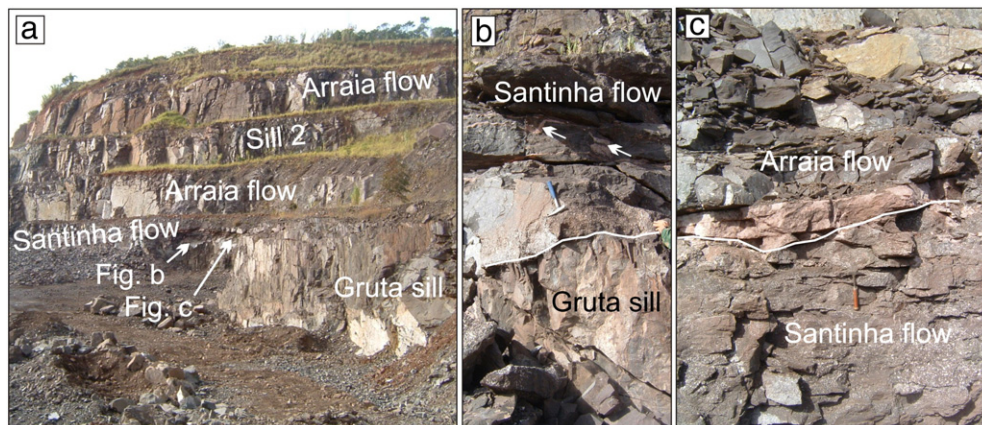


Fig. 10. Field photos of Graxaim quarry. (a) General view showing the position of the Santinha flow below the Arraia flow and of two sills; (b) Gruta sill intrusive into the base of upper amygdaloidal crust of Santinha flow, with sandstone injectites indicated by white arrows; (c) close view of the contact between amygdaloidal upper crust of the Santinha flow and massive overlying Arraia flow, with a sandstone layer (flow) above the top of the Santinha flow. The top of the flow is marked by a white line.

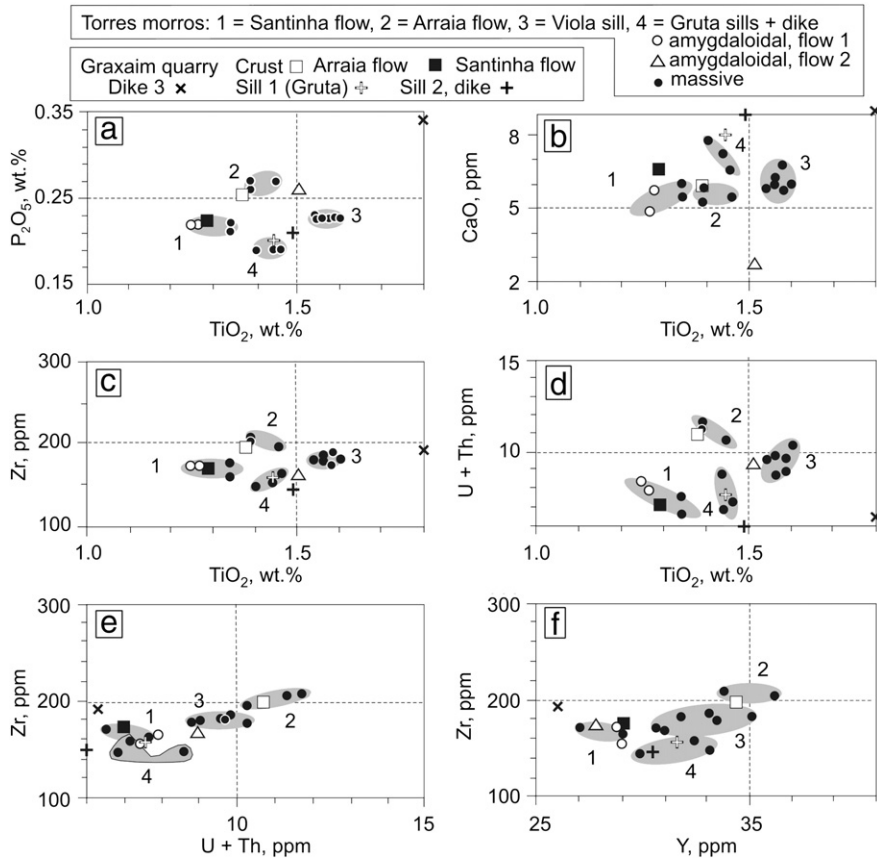


Fig. 11. Trace element diagrams displaying the presence of two lava flows in the Torres region. Correlation of flows, dikes and sills between Graxaim quarry and Torres indicated.

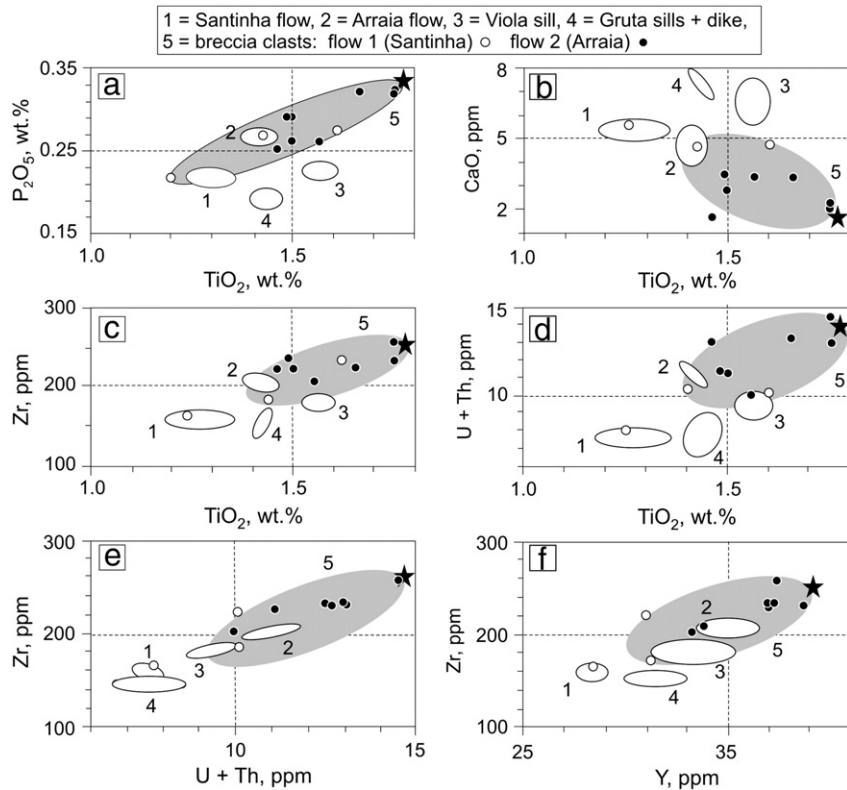


Fig. 12. Trace element diagrams of Torres breccia clasts, indicating geochemical mobility of elements during hydrothermal alteration. Compositional fields of rocks from Fig. 11 indicated as blank, circled areas.

Table 6

Scintillometric measurements in outcrops of volcanic rocks from Torres hills. (–) = not measured; cps = counts per second (total emission rate from U, Th, K); n = number of measurements; av. = average; s.d. = standard deviation; sample numbers correspond to location of measurement; T1C – northern top of Morro das Cabras; T4G – amygdaloidal breccia 1; T5D – sill at sea level at the Gruta da Santinha; T5F – sill above Gruta da Santinha.

Outcrops	Rock type	n	av. (s.d.)
Cabras hill			
T1A, T1B	Andesite	12	114 (8.7)
T1C	–	12	128 (13.5)
Guarita hill			
T2A	Sandstone	6	95 (2.2)
T2B	Sandstone	12	122 (9.2)
Furnas hill			
vT4A	Sandstone	12	62 (1.8)
T4B	Andesite	11	98 (5.0)
T4C	Andesite	12	138 (10.3)
T4D	Andesite	10	99 (7.9)
T4E	Andesite	11	127 (31.9)
T4F	Basaltic andesite	13	69 (4.5)
T4G	–	12	120 (2.6)
Farol hill			
T5A	Basaltic andesite	10	101 (3.9)
T5B	Basaltic andesite	11	81 (7.0)
T5C	Basaltic andesite	11	103 (7.6)
T5D	Basalt	14	85 (2.8)
T5F	Basalt	12	95 (4.9)

the lava stratigraphy, particularly after the geochemical analyses of the rocks (Fig. 13).

5. Interpretation

The integrated knowledge acquired from field relationships, rock geochemistry and scintillometry leads to a better understanding of the Cretaceous geological evolution of the Torres region, particularly the sequence of volcanic processes and the hydrothermal interaction of buried, loose, desert dune sand with basaltic rocks in a low-temperature environment. The hydrothermal breccias were formed by hydrofracturing of cold volcanic rocks by highly pressured

hydrothermal fluids, as conceptually summarized in New World Encyclopedia (www.newworldencyclopedia.org/entry/Breccia). Breccia 2 is here interpreted as a breccia sill forcefully intruded into the cold core of the Arraia flow.

Only a thin portion of the top (5 m) of the Botucatu Formation (commonly 100 m thick) is exposed in Torres and is directly in contact with the injected Viola sill. However, drilling is required to test the alternative hypothesis that the paleodunes are part of an intertrap unit, not the top of the Botucatu Formation. The high-angle, cross-bedding of the sandstones at the base of the Guarita hill outcrop indicates the eolian, desert origin of the paleodune (Scherer, 2000; Petry et al., 2007). This formation, and to a lesser degree the underlying Guarani Formation, constitutes since the Cretaceous the huge Guarani aquifer (Araújo et al., 1999), that extends under the entire extent of the Serra Geral Group, encompassing approximately 1,200,000 km² with few gaps. This aquifer is one of the largest in the world. The presence of this aquifer makes the Paraná volcanic province unique, because the other large continental volcanic provinces (e.g., Columbia River in the USA, Karoo in South Africa, Deccan in India) have weak aquifers below the volcanic rocks. For comparison, one of the largest and most productive aquifers within the United States is the eastern Snake River Plain aquifer, Idaho, contains voluminous basalts but has a complex structure and is predominantly unconfined (Mazurek, 2004).

The water table is close to the surface in present-day deserts, e.g., Sahara and Kalahari. Filling of the aquifer after burial by the first lava flow probably occurred in a short time, perhaps thousands of years (Hartmann et al., 2012). Heating of the aquifer by residual heat from every individual volcanic pulse established the scene for the intense hydrothermal processes that left their imprint in the Serra Geral Group, including the Torres rocks. More extensive evaluation of the protracted processes of lava sealing and fault-valve action of the aqueous fluid flow can be found in Hartmann et al. (2012).

The large variation in chemical composition of clasts from the three breccias is interpreted as variable shrinking of the clasts by large volume loss of a few major elements; e.g., CaO, K₂O. The observed enrichment of the clasts in less mobile elements (e.g., Ti, P, Zr, U, Th) is interpreted as caused by leaching of major elements during hydrothermal alteration. As commonly observed in metassomatic rocks, the chemical composition of the clasts tends to become more homogeneous. This is indicated by the star in Fig. 12, a model of the ultimate composition attained by altered clasts. Element mobility seems more extreme than in altered andesitic volcanoes, where Th, Zr, Hf and LREE remain immobile (Salaün et al., 2011).

The crosscutting relationship of the silicified sandstone dikes with the zeolite-filled amygdaloids in the Graxaim quarry is definitive evidence that sand mobilization occurred in the Torres region after the liquid lava had cooled to less than 130 °C. This concurs with the observations made by Hartmann et al. (2012) over a large extent of the Paraná volcanic province, where the sand intrusions (dike, sill, flow, breccia) are observed to intrude amygdaloidal crusts. Thin (~1 mm) sedimentary dikes are observed to cut amygdaloids filled with zeolites, so the dikes are younger than the zeolites. Sand injection did not occur during lava effusion (~1150 °C), therefore. Clinoptilolite–heulandite and mordenite are common in Serra Geral Group amygdaloids (Duarte et al., 2009; Hartmann et al., 2012); in Iceland, this hydrothermal assemblage yields temperatures of 110–120 °C (Neuhoff et al., 2006).

The lack of evidence in the Torres region for high-temperature interaction of the dry dune sand with the lavas does not support the interpretations of Petry et al. (2007) who considered the breccias as peperite-like rocks. Phreatomagmatic breccias (e.g., peperites) are formed in situ (Brown and Bell, 2007) by disintegration of magma intruding and mingling with unconsolidated or poorly consolidated, wet sediments. These magma–sediment mixtures are classified as peperites where they occur at the margins of intrusions or at the base of lava flows, as the result of phreatomagmatic processes. Fluidal

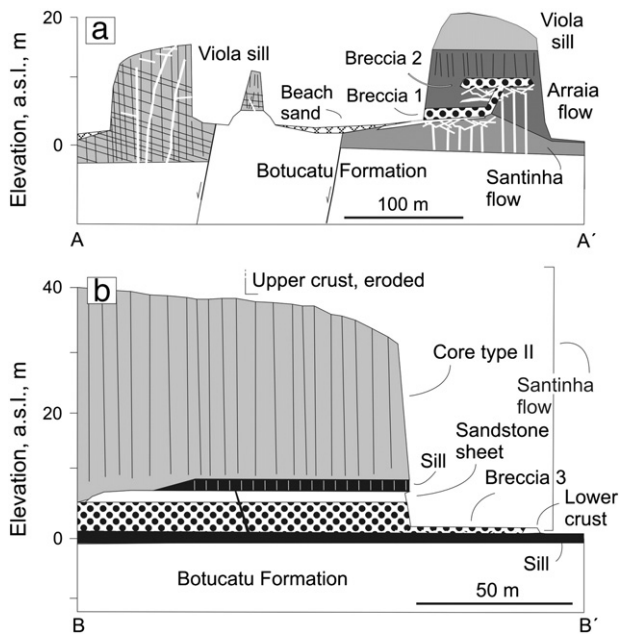


Fig. 13. Two stratigraphic sections, as located in Fig. 2. Unconstrained extension below land or sea surface. (a) Botucatu Formation, Guarita sill, several lava flows and breccias 1 and 2; (b) lava flows and position of breccia and massive sandstone between amygdaloidal lower crust and the base of core type II.

clasts in peperites tend to dominate the basal facies. It is also known that phreatomagmatic explosions are common in basaltic effusions over water-saturated sediments (e.g., Belousov et al., 2011). Glassy or quench-textured rims occur in clasts of classical peperites, and these were neither described nor encountered in the Torres breccias. Contact metamorphic effects are expected (Mazurek, 2004), because “most of the peperitic packages ... contain amoeboid basalt clasts with fluidal margins ... floating in a hard, baked sediment matrix. The fluidal margined basalt clasts along gradational contact margins with sedimentary interbeds are amoeboid-looking to the naked eye...”.

In the absence of water-saturated sediments to form peperites, breccias similar to those here described can be generated by hydrothermal (phreatic) processes. Sand can be mobilized into a caprock after it is fluidized in water or oil (Hurst et al., 2011); in the present case, water and its vapor. Dry sand cannot be mobilized upwards into an overlying, cool lava flow because of friction resistance. Presently-observed sand dikes, sills and flows were actually water dikes, sills and flows. After turbulent flow ceased, the sand settled out of the water. Sedimentary structures similar to other water-laid sand bodies can be formed, such as cross-bedding, layering and graded bedding. The volumetric proportion is commonly 30% sand which is fluidized in 70% water. The mechanical properties of sand-carrying water are comparable to basaltic lavas, and this explains the great similarity in geological relationships of dikes and sills of sand and basalt.

In active systems in Israel that may be comparable to the sand intrusion processes in the Torres region, analytical models indicate that clastic dikes are propagated under turbulent flow conditions and velocities of 4–65 m/s and driving pressures of 1–2 MPa (Levi et al., 2011). Experimental studies indicate that sand is mobilized by turbulent flow at minimum velocities 0.3–0.4 m/s (Johari and Taib, 2007). After turbulent flow ceased in Torres, the sand was deposited in the water-filled, open cavities; water later dissipated, only sand remaining as a dike. Continued fluid flow in Torres during the Cretaceous caused the intense silicification of the dike into a hard sandstone. The availability of a large volume of water in the Guarani aquifer led to the intense silicification of the injected sandstone dikes.

Thermal recrystallization would be expected to occur in loose sand composed of approximately 82% quartz, 16% feldspar, 2% lithic fragments (Petry et al., 2007), 2.75 wt.% K₂O (this work) when it is immersed and remains in close contact for a few months with andesite lava at 1150 °C. In the studied region, the silicified sandstone from dikes and breccias is made up of unrecrystallized detrital grains;

quartz is partly corroded and immersed in a chalcedony cement. No evidence of thermal metamorphism is observed, such as recrystallization of the detrital grains. Thus, the presented data lead us to interpret that the sandstone, which was a loose sand at the time of volcanism, was not exposed to the high temperatures in the interior of liquid andesite lava (1150 °C).

The geology of Torres consists mostly of two lava flows of basaltic andesite and andesite composition, which were affected by intense hydrothermal alteration after solidification and cooling to less than 130 °C (Table 7). These hydrothermal (H) processes are overall similar to those described by Hartmann et al. (2012). Three events (H1, H2, H3) occurred in sequence, intercalated by the formation of two seals. For instance, sealing of faults may occur in two years, as measured in Iceland (Claesson et al., 2007). Immediately after cooling, the lava flows had high porosity (~30 vol.%) and permeability due to the presence of vesicles (event M, magmatic) and fractures. The hot water and vapor originated in the Guarani aquifer (Gilg et al., 2003; Morteani et al., 2010; Duarte et al., 2011; Hartmann et al., 2012) caused the initial alteration of the rocks and the precipitation of zeolites (including clinoptilolite) and smectites in the vesicles and fractures (H1 event). This process sealed the lava flow (seal 1), leading to an increase in the pressure exerted by water vapor and to the generation of related structural features of sand injection (H2). Conditions were thus reached for the formation of hydrothermal breccias, because the presence of an impermeable caprock horizon (a seal) is required for brecciation (Jébrak, 1997; Tamas and Milési, 2003). The continued percolation of hot fluid again sealed the porosity (seal 2) and led to overpressure of vapor, with concomitant ballooning of the smectite andesite forming quartz geodes (e.g., Arraia flow); this event H3 was not intense in the region.

As described by Tamas and Milési (2003), “the fragments participation exceeds the matrix participation in the case of hydrothermal breccias. The most common hydrothermal breccia facies is the clast supported one”, although some portions are matrix-supported. The three breccia units in Torres are mostly clast-supported, although some portions are sandstone-supported. The matrix of the breccias, and also the sandstone dikes and sills, are variably cemented by chalcedony; as mentioned by Tamas and Milési (2003), “cement is ubiquitously present in hydrothermal breccias.” These authors also mention the close genetic and spatial relationship between boiling and hydrothermal brecciation, because brecciation occurs at the level of boiling of water. In our interpretation, the breccias were formed in Torres in the Cretaceous whenever the ascending hot water and its vapor made

Table 7

Evidence from this investigation or (quotation marks) reinterpreted from Petry et al. (2007) that favor a phreatic origin of the sand dikes, sills and breccias from the Torres hills.

Evidence	Present interpretation
“The horizontal jointing does not propagate into the clastic dike”	Intrusion of sand occurred after the formation of the horizontal jointing in the brittle rock
“Sand intruded the vertically-jointed andesite along the joints”	Lava core was already solid to sustain a sand dike; therefore, brittle
Breccia 1 inside lower amygdaloidal crust	Intrusive phreatic breccia
Breccia 2 below core type II	Intrusive phreatic breccia
Breccia 3 inside and at the top of lower amygdaloidal crust, below core type II	Phreatic origin; phreatomagmatic breccias (e.g., peperite) typically occur at the base of lava flows
Angular clast shape	Phreatic breccia, brittle rock
Mostly clast-supported breccia	Phreatic breccia
Clast rims texturally similar to core, not quenched	Low-temperature contact of clast with sand and water
Clasts are amygdaloidal	Brecciation occurred after degassing of lava; rock was solid; breccia is phreatic
Sand grains spherical, detrital	Grains did not recrystallize during thermal event
Sand grains corroded	Grain corrosion by hot water
Sandstone cement made up of chalcedony	Low-temperature silica precipitation
Sandstone dikes cut zeolite-filled amygdales	Sand was injected at low temperature, after the amygdales were filled with zeolites
Sandstone partly fills zeolite-filled amygdales	Low-temperature fluid dissolved zeolites and carried sand into the amygdale
Quartz geodes in Arraia flow	Low-temperature, hydrothermal process
Lozenge fractures in Viola sill (Cabras and Furnas hills); sand dikes in fractures	Sill was sealed by hydrothermal event (H1) through zeolite and clay mineral precipitation
Narrow (1 cm), sand sills in the Cabras hill	Sand intrusion after doming caused by water vapor overpressure
Vertical cooling joints in Guaritas sill (Guarita hill); few sand dikes	Lifting of hangingwall andesite by water vapor overpressure
Sandstone dikes in lozenge fractures in Arraia flow (Furnas hill)	Water vapor escaped through joints; no overpressure generated for sand fluidization
Jig-saw clasts in breccia 1	Sand intrusion after doming and lozenge fracturing of rock by water vapor overpressure
	Phreatic brecciation

direct contact with atmospheric pressure, either by doming and fracturing 5–20 m thick overburden or by reaching the base of vertically-jointed, massive core type II.

One feature is the formation of sand dikes and sills, another is the lozenge-shaped fracturing of the sealed flow or sill, and a third is the formation of sandstone–andesite breccias. The breccias were formed in two different positions in the flows, inside the amygdaloidal lower crust (breccia 1) and below the vertical cooling joints of core type II in breccias 2 and 3. Similar breccias below the fracture-permeable core type II were described in the Los Catalanes gemological district and the Quaraí mining district by Hartmann et al. (2012). This may be similar to the description of Tamas and Milési (2003) that “structural control is frequently responsible for the location of phreatic breccia structures”.

During its ascent, the hydrothermal breccia may intrude the country rock, similar to diatremes, so the clasts will have the composition of the underlying volcanic rock affected by brecciation (Tamas and Milési, 2003). We interpret the presence of breccia 2 below the core type II of the Arraia flow as caused by upward injection of hydrothermal breccia that was generated along with breccia 1. Breccia 2 is thus interpreted as a breccia sill.

The cavities (now silicified sandstone dike, sill, breccia and massive sandstone layer) and clastic infills (sand) present in the Torres volcanic rocks may have originated by similar fluid overpressure processes as those described by Walker et al. (2011) in Tertiary basalts in the NE Atlantic margin. They describe “0.1–0.6 m thick sub-horizontal clastic units displaying internal features consistent with deposition from flowing water passing through complex open subterranean cavity systems within fractured basalts and anastomosing millimeter-scale and planar decimeter-scale clastic intrusion features mobilized and emplaced during transient, fault-related overpressuring events along pre-existing fractures cutting the surrounding volcanic units.” In the Santinha breccia 3, the massive sandstone that overlies the breccia is here interpreted as formed in a similar “open subterranean cavity system” generated by fluid overpressure.

The third hydrothermal event (H3) occurred after the lava flow and sill (and sand dikes) were sealed at the end of the second event. H3 also caused continued intense alteration of the andesite into smectite and zeolite. The quartz geodes observed at the top of Furnas hill were formed and filled during H3, in a process described by Hartmann et al. (2012). In the NE Atlantic margin examples of Walker et al. (2011), cavities were opened in volcanic rocks that remain permeable, because sealing of the clastic infills did not occur. H3 in the Torres rocks had weak intensity, because the injected sandstone in the three breccias and the overlying layer at Santinha were poorly silicified.

This interpretation of the geological evolution of the Torres region incorporates all field evidence, integrated with geochemical and scintillometric data, into a single, continuous model of magmatism and sequential hydrothermal alteration. It particularly sheds light into the tectonic processes caused by water vapor overpressure on seal layers, represented in Torres by basaltic andesite and andesite flows. Different from offshore petroleum basins, where the fluids (oil or water) carrying fluidized sand are at a temperature of 20–70 °C, the tectonic processes related to the heated Guarani aquifer occurred at a much higher temperature near 130 °C. At this temperature, water vapor can lift 5–20 m of andesite to generate the observed breccias at the base of the flows, or keep the core type II lifted to make room for an underground river of water (+ sand) and so deposit a sand layer above the breccia.

We have thus described a novel process of loose-sand aquifer interaction with seal basaltic lavas at a much higher hydrothermal temperature than the descriptions in the review of the subject by Hurst et al. (2011). The Paraná volcanic province is one of the largest volcanic sequences in the continents, is underlain by a major sand sea converted into an aquifer and was affected by systematic, flow-by-

flow injection of hot water and its vapor. The result is a large number of sand injectites (dikes, sills) and extrudites over the entire vertical and horizontal extent of the province, as here exemplified for the Torres region.

6. Conclusions

The main conclusion of this investigation is that initially dry, desert sand can be mobilized and injected upwards into a sealed volcanic rock after the loose sand had the pores filled with hot water and its vapor. Seismic activity may be required to trigger the fluidization of the sand and the intrusion processes. Sequential heating by pulses of volcanism generated vapor and related tectonic processes such as doming with associated lozenge fracturing of the overlying seal with accompanying sand dike and sill formation. Also, sandstone–andesite breccias were formed by explosion of the vapor at the amygdaloidal lower and upper crusts of the flow and even inside the flow below the vertically-jointed, massive core. Similar to diatremes, hydrothermal breccias intruded overlying flow units as dikes and laterally as sills.

In the Torres region, the two southern hills are the Cabras and Guarita hills, both made up of the Viola sill. The Furnas hill to the north is a sequence of one lava flow (Arraia flow) and the Viola sill on top. The northernmost Farol hill is made up of one lava flow (Santinha flow) and the Gruta sills and dike.

The interaction of heated Guarani aquifer water with cold Paraná volcanic province rocks explains the geological features observed in Torres including the sandstone–andesite breccias, the silicified sandstone layer on top of breccia 3, the dikes and sills of silicified sandstone, the presence of silicified sandstone in lozenge fractures of the andesite, the crosscutting relationship of thin sandstone dikes with zeolite-filled amygdales and the presence of 10–20 cm quartz geodes. No evidence of phreatomagmatic brecciation was observed in Torres. The breccias were formed by phreatic processes at the boiling point of water close to the surface (probably less than 20 m). All three breccia bodies in Torres are hydrothermal, intrusive into two different lava flows.

This is a significant contribution to the understanding of the geological relationships generated in a large continental flood basalt province by hot water and its vapor originated by the repeated heating of a huge freshwater aquifer.

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