Geochemistry and mineralogy of fumarolic deposits, Valley of Ten Thousand Smokes, Alaska: Bulk chemical and mineralogical evolution of dacite-rich protolith

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ABSTRACT

Samples from a fossil fumarole originating in the 1912 ash-flow tuff in the Valley of Ten Thousand Smokes have been analyzed to ascertain chemical changes resulting from high-temperature fumarolic alteration and subsequent cooling and weathering of the protolith. Samples of the underlying, dominantly leached, dacite-rich portion of the ash-flow tuff adjacent to the fumarolic conduit and samples of encrusted fallout from the shallow part of the fossil fumarole were interpreted using the isocon method of Grant (1986). The results show that, relative to unaltered 1912 dacite, chosen as a standard composition for the protolith in this fossil fumarole, mass was conserved during the alteration reactions for most of the system, but mass gains of 14-20% were determined for three samples in the leached ash-flow tuff. Relative to unaltered dacite protolith, significant enrichments occurred in SO₄, LOI (~H₂O), Cl, F, Zn, Pb, Cu, Sn, Cr, Ni, As, Sb, Au, Br in various parts of the fossil fumarole. Some of these were during the high-temperature part of the alteration, and some were during cooling processes when acid alteration becomes prominent. The REEs indicate some depletion in highly altered samples relative to dacite protolith and differential mobility of Eu²⁺ relative to trivalent REEs. This is manifested by positive Eu anomalies in REE patterns normalized against REE in the dacite protolith.

Mineral phases introduced in the alteration assemblages include alunite reflecting high SO₄ activity, hydrated aluminum hydroxy-fluoride (a ralstonite-like phase) and fluorite reflecting high F activity, smectite, magnetite, hematite, and goethite reflecting oxidation and hydration reactions. Opal and a portion of the α-cristobalite reflect SiO₂ mobility; however, the abundance of α-cristobalite is formed from pumice leached during high-temperature vapor-phase processes and devitrification of the altered glass.

INTRODUCTION

Spectacular fumaroles developed in the ash-flow sheet emplaced during the 6-8 June 1912 eruption from Novarupta, causing Robert F. Griggs, who discovered the steaming valley in 1916, to name the Valley of Ten Thousand Smokes (VTTS) (Griggs, 1922). Early studies of the active fumaroles of VTTS were reported by Shipley (1920), Allen and Zies (1923), and Zies (1929). Fumarole temperatures as high as 645 °C were recorded in 1919 (Allen and Zies, 1923), and these have cooled dramatically since initial activity. Ramdohr (1962) studied samples of newly deposited magnetite collected in 1919 from fumarole no. 148 of Zies (Allen and Zies, 1923) in the mid-valley region using reflected light, and he documented a variety of microscopic sulfides included in the magnetite. Lovering (1957) conducted a geochemical study on a suite of samples from fumarole no. 1 of Zies (Allen and Zies, 1923), in which he concluded that halogen-acid alteration differs from S-acid alteration chiefly in the greater loss of silica relative to alumina. Keith (1983, 1984, 1991) interpreted the origin and distribution of fumaroles in the VTTS, in
part drawing upon observations of Allen and Zies (1923). Heat to generate and sustain fumaroles was provided by the ash-flow sheet. Abundant meteoric H2O flowing into and over the ash-flow sheet helped sustain the fumaroles and also hastened their cooling. The fumarolic fluids also included exsolved magmatic gases (Allen and Zies, 1923). Most of the fumaroles cooled and died out by the mid-1930s except in the Novarupta vent region, where residual fumaroles remain with temperatures as hot as 90 °C (Keith, 1991).

We have initiated a project to study the geochemistry and mineralogy of the VTTS fossil fumaroles (Papike et al., 1989, 1990a, 1990b, 1990c, 1991). Our major objectives are to (1) assess chemical losses and gains in ash-flow and fallout deposits that host the fumaroles, (2) determine mineralogical changes and reaction paths, and (3) determine chemical and crystal-chemical aspects of phenocryst alteration. This paper describes the bulk chemical and mineralogical evolution of a well-exposed, typical fossil fumarole (site 212) in the midvalley region (Fig. 1).

Studies of deposits at active fumaroles in other parts of the world (e.g., Stoiber and Rose, 1974; Symonds et al., 1987, 1990; Quisefit et al., 1989; Kodosky and Keskinen, 1990) have greatly increased our understanding of the geochemistry and mineralogy of these complex deposits. In contrast, our studies of VTTS fossil fumaroles do not provide as simple a picture of the processes operative in fumaroles as these referenced studies but instead characterize ejecta that have been subjected not only to high-temperature fumarolic activity but also to alteration during cooling and weathering (Keith, 1991). The samples we are studying represent an integrated history of process and time as depicted schematically in Figure 2.

**GEOLOGIC SETTING**

The 1912 eruption of Novarupta in the Katmai region (Fig. 1) is regarded by many as the outstanding igneous event of this century (Eichelberger and Hildreth, 1986). During June 6–8, 1912, approximately 12 km³ of magma erupted from the Novarupta vent at the head of the Valley of Ten Thousand Smokes (VTTS), Alaska, producing ~17 km³ of fallout, 11 ± 4 km³ of ash-flow tuff, and ~1 km³ of heterogeneous proximal fallout within ~60 h (Hildreth, 1983, 1987, 1990). Curtis (1968) first separated out the 1912 eruptive stratigraphy and described the fallout deposits as A–H layers, and Hildreth (1983) presented detailed initial petrologic studies of the 1912 deposits. Initial composition of the ash-flow sheet was rhyolite (77% SiO₂), and increasing amounts of dacite (66–64.5% SiO₂) and andesite (61.5–58.5% SiO₂) were introduced later in the eruptive sequence (Hildreth, 1983). The exposures of the ash-flow sheet presently filling the VTTS are rhyolite rich and nonwelded at the distal end ~15–20 km from the vent; exposures in the middle and upper VTTS are sintered and consist of varying proportions of rhyolite, dacite, and andesite with minor amounts of banded pumice and lithic fragments (Hildreth, 1983; Fierstein and Hildreth, in preparation). Andesitic scoria is common in the near-vent, thin ash-flow layers and fallout. Maximum thickness of the ash-flow tuff is unknown but is likely ~200 m in the upper River Lethe area and almost as thick in the upper Knife Creek area (Curtis, 1968; Kienle, 1970).

Phenocrysts of plagioclase, orthopyroxene, titanomagnetite, ilmenite, and trace amounts of apatite and pyrrhotite are present in all pumice compositions, although rhyolitic pumice has only 1–2% total phenocryst content and dacite and andesite may have as much as 45% (Hildreth, 1983). Clinopyroxene is common in dacite and andesite; quartz and scarce amphibole occur in rhyolite; andesite contains scarce olivine (Hildreth, 1983). The initial fall unit underlying the ash-flow sheet is 100% rhyolite, fall unit B on top of the ash-flow sheet is mixed upward with increasing dacite and andesite relative to rhyolite, and fall units C–H on top of the ash flows are >98% dacite (Fierstein and Hildreth, 1990, and in preparation).

Configuration and distribution of fumaroles throughout the VTTS was controlled by the degree of welding of the ash-flow sheet, which in turn controlled fracturing and permeability (Keith, 1991). Hotter, longer-lived fumaroles occurred in the upper VTTS closer to the vent where the ash-flow sheet was thicker, more indurated, and more mafic (dacite and andesite) in contrast to thinner nonwelded rhyolitic tuff in the distal part of the ash-
fumarolic incrustations exposed in the VTTS consist of magnetite or hematite depending on fO2 and temperature of deposition. Hematite and goethite also formed from altered magnetite during cooling processes. Fumarolically deposited α-cristobalite coexists with magnetite in high-temperature fossil fumaroles. The outer, cooler parts of a fossil fumarole typically have a relatively impermeable shell consisting of several of the following minerals: alunite, AHF (hydrated aluminum hydroxy-fluoride, a ralstonite-like phase described by Desborough and Rostad, 1980), fluorite, α- and β-cristobalite, opal, pyrite, S, kaolinite, illite, goethite, and amorphous hydrous Fe oxide (limonite). A large volume of unstable fumarolic deposits were removed by dissolution while the fumaroles were active (Keith, 1991).

The fumarole selected for this study is part of an extinct high-temperature, fissure fumarole (Keith, 1991) exposed on the northeast side of River Lethe in the midvalley region (Fig. 1). The upper 2 m of the ash-flow sheet at the fumarole site is composed mainly of dacite with sub-

flow sheet. The distribution of high-temperature fumaroles prevalent in the middle and upper VTTS was controlled by fractures in the ash-flow sheet.

Keith (1991) determined that high-temperature fossil fumarolic incrustations exposed in the VTTS consist mostly of fall deposits encrusted mainly with either magnetite or hematite depending on fO2, and temperature of deposition. Hematite and goethite also formed from altered magnetite during cooling processes. Fumarolically deposited α-cristobalite coexists with magnetite in high-temperature fossil fumaroles. The outer, cooler parts of a fossil fumarole typically have a relatively impermeable shell consisting of several of the following minerals: alunite, AHF (hydrated aluminum hydroxy-fluoride, a ralstonite-like phase described by Desborough and Rostad, 1980), fluorite, α- and β-cristobalite, opal, pyrite, S, kaolinite, illite, goethite, and amorphous hydrous Fe oxide (limonite). A large volume of unstable fumarolic deposits were removed by dissolution while the fumaroles were active (Keith, 1991).

The fumarole selected for this study is part of an extinct high-temperature, fissure fumarole (Keith, 1991) exposed on the northeast side of River Lethe in the midvalley region (Fig. 1). The upper 2 m of the ash-flow sheet at the fumarole site is composed mainly of dacite with sub-

ordinate amounts of andesite, rhyolite, banded pumice, and lithic fragments (Hildreth, 1983; Fierstein and Hildreth, unpublished pumice count data, 1991). Below 2 m in the ash-flow sheet, the composition decreases in amount of dacite and increases in amounts of andesite and rhyolite (Hildreth, 1983). The fall deposits overlying the ash-flow sheet at fumarole 212 are of mixed andesite, dacite, and rhyolite at the base and grade quickly upward into >98% dacite (Curtis, 1968; Hildreth, 1983; Fierstein and Hildreth, 1990).

A vertical joint in the ash-flow sheet was the fumarole conduit for vigorously rising, hot fluids that leached and sintered the adjacent tuff in the deeper parts of the fumarolic system (Keith, 1991). Upon contact with the loose, permeable fallout overlying the ash-flow sheet, a state of disequilibrium was caused by rapid cooling and changes in gas fugacities that resulted in sublimation of mineral components carried in the vapor phase, forming incrustations on fallout clasts. Other chemical components were transported into the atmosphere. Depending on proximity to the hot fumarolic fluids, various states of alteration of the ash-flow sheet and fall deposits occur. Phenocrysts and pumice clasts in the fall deposits were partly shielded from fumarolic alteration where fumarolic minerals enclosed the clasts and where the clasts were not in the main path of hot, rising fumarolic fluids. Alteration during subsequent cooling, particularly that caused by the condensation of fumarolic fluids and mixing of fumarolic gases with surface H2O at the upper and outer parts of the fumarole, resulted in acid alteration of both primary tephra and earlier deposited fumarolic minerals.

Samples for the present study are bulk samples, consisting of large fist-sized pieces of the altered ash-flow tuff and golfball-sized pieces of encrusted fallout, that were collected systematically from the leached and depositional parts of the fumarolic system (Fig. 3). The ash-flow tuff is leached progressively less away from the fumarole conduit (Fig. 3b); sample J is adjacent to the conduit and is the most leached, whereas sample O is the farthest from the conduit and was expected to be unaltered. Samples A through H (Fig. 3a) are from dacite-rich fall deposits encrusted with fumarolic minerals. Samples A and B are from the outer, cooler part of the encrusted fallout and C through H are from the inner part near the conduit where fumarolic gases reached the surface.

**Sample preparation and analytical methods**

Powders for X-ray diffraction (XRD), X-ray fluorescence (XRF), and instrumental neutron activation analysis (INAA) were prepared in a Spex hardened steel ball mill, with XRD powders being further ground by hand to approximately 10 μm in a ceramic mortar and pestle. Powders for Fe2+/Fe3+ determinations were ground in a corundum mortar. Samples for F analysis were powdered in a Spex hardened steel puck mill.

Whole-rock powders were analyzed for major oxides and trace elements by energy dispersive X-ray fluores-
cence (EDXRF) and atomic absorption spectroscopy (AAS) at Battelle, Pacific Northwest Laboratories, Richland, Washington. Analyses of U.S. Geological Survey standards AGV-1, BCR-1, and G-2 (Flanagan, 1967, 1969, 1973) indicate precisions of better than 3% for Si, Ti, Al, Fe, Mg, Ca, K, and Zn, 5% for Na, V, Y, and Pb; 10% for Mn, Nb, Cu, and Ga. The elements Rb, Ba, Zr, Sr, As, Sb, and REE were analyzed at Battelle, Pacific Northwest Laboratories, by sequential INAA using a high-efficiency 130 cm³ Ge(Li) detector (25% FWHM 1.8 keV for 1332 keV of 60Co), a 4096 channel analyzer, and coincidence-noncoincidence Ge(Li) = NaI (Tl) counting systems (Laul, 1979; Laul et al., 1984). H₂O was determined indirectly by loss on ignition (LOI) at Battelle, Pacific Northwest Laboratories.

Whole-rock F was measured at South Dakota School of Mines and Technology using a fluoride ion-selective electrode technique (Bodkin, 1977), and Fe²⁺ was determined using an HF dissolution and potassium dichromate titration technique of Goldich (1984). Whole-rock Cl was determined at the U.S. Geological Survey, Branch of Geochemistry Laboratory in Menlo Park, California by ion selective electrode (Aruscavage and Campbell, 1983).

XRD procedures and modal determinations

X-ray diffraction, reference intensity method (XRD-RIM) modes were determined by the method described by Shearer et al. (1988).

Finely ground powders were loaded onto Whatman GF/C glass-fiber filters using an aerosol suspension technique that significantly decreases preferred orientation (Davis, 1986). Direct beam X-ray transmission analysis was done on both blank and loaded filters to provide sample mass absorption coefficients. The filters were then mounted in the spinning stage of a Philips diffractometer and scanned from 5 to 60° 2θ using 0.02° steps and 1.5 s count per step (0.8°/min). Monochromatic CuKα radiation at 40 kV and 20 mA and a graphite monochromator were used for diffraction and transmission scans.

The reference intensity ratio (RIR) method of Chung (1974a, 1974b) modified by Davis (1984) was used for quantitative mineral analysis of the samples. Samples A through H were each mixed with an equal weight of Al₂O₃ (synthetic corundum; a = 4.758 Å, c = 12.991 Å) as an internal standard. Integrated peak intensities were adjusted for the use of automatic divergence slits, and the sample mass absorption coefficient was used in adjusting for sample transparency and matrix effects on the loaded filter. Adjusted intensities (Iⱼ) of samples A through H were then used, along with the RIR (kⱼ), in the relation

\[ Wⱼ = \frac{W_x Iⱼ}{I_c kⱼ} \]  

where \( Wⱼ \) is the weight fraction of each crystalline component in the sample; \( W_x \) and \( I_c \) refer to the added weight fraction and integrated intensity of the corundum standard (Chung, 1974a). The addition of an internal stan-

dard allows the independent calculation of the weight fraction of each phase; thereby the total amorphous weight fraction can be found by difference. By subtracting the crystalline contribution of the mass absorption from that of the sample, the contribution of one or two amorphous phases may be calculated from the remainder. However, optical studies of the fumarole 212 samples indicate that as many as three amorphous phases (pumice, opal, and limonite) can be present. In that case, one phase must be determined optically from grain mounts, which is usually limonite as it is readily distinguishable from most other phases.

Optical estimates could be made for the crystalline/amorphous ratio for the leached samples J through O,
TABLE 1. XRD modal analyses of 212 traverse

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Crystalline fraction</th>
<th>Amorphous fraction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Alunite</td>
<td>Obsidian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>212A</td>
<td>29.09</td>
<td>5.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>212B</td>
<td>12.59</td>
<td>5.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>212C</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>4.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>212D</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>3.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>212E</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>1.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>212F</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>212G</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>212H</td>
<td>22.95</td>
<td>10.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>212J</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>212L</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>212M</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>212N</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>212O</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Samples A–H, amorphous phases calculated; J–O amorphous/crystalline ratio estimated optically.

Since they contained no isotropic minerals. Therefore the weight fractions for these samples were calculated using a slightly different procedure in which no internal standard is added, but the RIR is used in the relation from Chung (1974b):

\[ W_j = \left( \frac{k_j}{I_j} \sum_k \frac{I_k}{k_k} \right)^{-1}. \]

Further details of both techniques can be found in Davis (1984). All \( W_j \) sum to unity, and the relative weight fractions of the crystalline components are correct with respect to the total crystalline fraction of the sample. When one amorphous phase is present, the crystalline/amorphous ratio can be easily determined from the mass absorption coefficient; however, where two or three amorphous phases exist, the ratio is found optically, whereas only the limonite component was optically determined in the previous calculations for samples A through H. The weight fractions of pumice and opal are then calculated by summing the weight fractions of amorphous and crystalline components times their respective mass absorption coefficients such that the total is equal to the measured sample mass absorption coefficient. Modal analyses using a combination of both methods are presented in Table 1.

RIR factors have been tabulated by Davis et al. (1989) for all of the mineral species present except for AHF ([Al\(_6\)(F,OH)\(_{12} \cdot 12\)–15 H\(_2\)O]). XRD and scanning electron microscope studies show that AHF is complexly intergrown with altered pumice from which it is derived and with other incrustation material; therefore, it is difficult to separate AHF into the pure mineral necessary for RIR measurements. An impure separate of the compound was processed from sample 212A by light crushing and screening and was mixed with an equal weight of corundum. The intensity of the strong XRD peak of AHF was then mathematically corrected for pumice, \( \alpha \)-cristobalite, and labradorite impurities present to obtain an RIR measurement of 0.85. Although plagioclase phenocrysts in our samples were in various stages of alteration, microprobe analyses of the freshest samples gave labradorite as a reasonable plagioclase composition to use in our models. Hildreth (1983) determined that in the rhyolite pumice, plagioclase is oligoclase; in dacite pumice, plagioclase ranges in composition from \( \text{An}_{10} \) to \( \text{An}_{20} \) but \( \text{An}_{30-50} \) is most common; and in andesite pumice, plagioclase composition ranges from \( \text{An}_{50} \) to \( \text{An}_{60} \) with \( \text{An}_{40-70} \) the most common. Because of the mixed composition of the ash-flow tuff protolith, a wide range of compositions was probably involved.

**Chemical mass balance**

Chemical losses and gains resulting from alteration within and adjacent to fossil fumarole 212 were estimated using the isoon method of Grant (1986). This method is a graphical application of Gresens' (1967) procedure. Measured rock densities are not required, an advantage when studying porous pumiceous samples. The chemical data for fossil fumarole 212 samples (encrusted fallout A–H and leached ash-flow tuff J–O) and an unaltered dacite ash-flow tuff protolith sample (VTTS-D) for comparison are presented in Table 2.

Isocon diagrams for selected samples of fumarole 212 are illustrated in Figures 4 and 5. In these diagrams, the concentrations of specific major and trace elements in the original unaltered rock (C\(_1\)) are plotted against those in the altered rock (C\(_2\)). If there is no detectable alteration, the data points define a line with a slope of 1, representing constant mass. In most cases, a linear array is defined by some combination of the components (e.g., Al\(_2\)O\(_3\), TiO\(_2\), Ga, Y, Zr, Nb, REE, Hf, Ta, Th) commonly considered to be relatively immobile during vapor phase/hydrothermal alteration of volcanic rock (Lesher et al., 1986; Sturchio et al., 1986). This is exemplified in Figures 4 and 5 for samples 212E from the encrusted fallout and 212L from the leached ash-flow tuff. Best-fit isocons to these data arrays were calculated using linear regression analysis (Table 3). The slopes of best-fit isocons, \( M^f/M^a \) (mass original/mass altered), were used to assess possible changes...
in rock mass that occurred during alteration. Isoclon slopes for samples A-H in the encrusted fallout and J, N, and O in the leached tuff deviate very little from 1 (Table 3), indicating that rock mass was essentially conserved during alteration processes. The isoclon slopes for samples K, L, and M correspond to mass increases of 20%, 16%, and 14%, respectively.

The gains and losses of major oxides, F and LOI (\sim H_2O), calculated for the two chemical profiles documented in Table 2 are reported in Table 4. The mass exchange determined for major oxides approximates the mass exchange indicated by the isocrons. This is an independent check on the method because the slope of the isocron is based on immobile trace elements, not entirely on major oxides. The values reported in Table 4, along with the results of trace-element mass balance calculations, are normalized to the original unaltered rock content of each component and presented on enrichment-depletion diagrams in Figure 6. These diagrams illustrate that for samples A-H: SO_2, F, LOI (\sim H_2O), Cl, Zn, As, Cu, Pb, Br, Ni, V, Sn, Cr, Cs, Sb, and Au are enriched, and SiO_2, Na_2O, K_2O, Zr, U, Th, Ba, and Rb are depleted. Total Fe as FeO, MnO, MgO, CaO, Sr, and Sc generally show erratic and insignificant variations. Along the
Isocon diagrams plotted according to the method of Grant (1986). Major oxides in weight percent; trace elements in ppm except Au in ppb. Numbers above components i: 18

Fig. 4. Isocon diagram for sample 212E showing an example of constant mass relationships in the encrusted fallout part of the fossil fumarole. Explanation as for Figure 4.

Fig. 5. Isocon diagram for sample 212L showing an example of mass gain in the leached ash-flow tuff part of the fossil fumarole. Explanation as for Figure 4.

Table 3. Isocon definitions

| Sample | R  | M²/M³ | Isocon components
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.981</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>Al, Ti, Nb, La, Ce, Nd, Sm, Gd, Tb, Tm, Yb, Lu, Hf, Ta, Th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>0.976</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>Al, Ti, Y, Nb, La, Ce, Sm, Gd, Tb, Tm, Yb, Lu, Hf, Ta, Th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>0.995</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>Al, Ti, Ta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>Ti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>0.987</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>Al, Ti, Ga, Y, Nb, La, Ce, Sm, Gd, Tb, Ho, Tm, Yb, Lu, Hf, Ta, Th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>0.995</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>Ti, Sm, Gd, Tb, Ho, Tm, Yb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>0.992</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>Al, Ti, Nb, Ce, Sm, Gd, Tb, Ho, Tm, Yb, Lu, Hf, Ta, Th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>0.990</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>Al, Ti, Y, Nb, Ce, Sm, Gd, Tb, Ho, Tm, Yb, Lu, Hf, Ta, Th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>0.992</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>Ti, Cr, Nb, Hf, Ta, Th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>0.977</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>Al, Ti, Y, La, Ce, Sm, Gd, Tb, Ho, Tm, Yb, Lu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>0.978</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>Ti, Y, Zr, Nb, La, Ce, Sm, Gd, Tb, Ho, Tm, Yb, Lu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>0.979</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>Ti, Zr, Nb, La, Ce, Sm, Gd, Ho, Tm, Yb, Lu</td>
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<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>0.989</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>Al, Ti, Y, Nb, La, Ce, Sm, Gd, Ho, Tm, Yb, Lu, Hf, Th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>0.983</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>Al, Ti, Ga, Nb, Hf, Ta, Th</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: R = correlation coefficient; M²/M³ = isocon slope; N.A. = not applicable.* Elements used to define isocorns.

REE SIGNATURES

Eleven REE were determined for 14 samples from fumarole 212 and for a sample of unaltered dacite pumice (VTTS-D) (Table 2). Hildreth (1983, p. 34) presented REE data for unaltered rhyolite, dacite, and andesite pumice samples and high-purity glass separates. The fumarolically encrusted dacite-rich fallout samples (A–H; Fig. 7) show variable REE patterns indicating redistribution as a result of fumarolic alteration. Samples E and H are similar to the dacitic protolith; samples F and G are less so. However, samples A, B, C, and D illustrate some total REE depletions and, more significantly, positive Eu anomalies. Michard (1989) has shown that chondrite-normalized REE concentrations of high-temperature acidic H₂O (pH < 6; T > 230 °C) have high positive Eu anomalies. Thus a reasonable interpretation of the positive Eu anomaly is that Eu³⁺ has been mobilized and enriched relative to the trivalent REE. Hot acidic solutions transported Eu³⁺ preferentially to the other REE and deposited it in the more altered samples.

REE patterns in fossil fumaroles in rhyolite-rich protolith (fumaroles 63 and 64) in the lower VTTS (Papke et al., 1991) indicate that high-temperature fumarolic alteration that cooled rapidly and was not subjected to superficial acid alteration resulted in a small amount of REE movement except for Eu (fumarole 64). However, fumarole 63, which was subjected to extensive acid alteration, showed highly variable REE values and especially enrichment of Eu in altered samples relative to unaltered rhyolite pumice. Thus REE pattern disturbances might be an effective means of evaluating the degree of alteration of VTTS fumarolic incrustations, particularly the effect of acid alteration.

In samples J–O (Fig. 8) from the leached ash-flow sheet,
the most altered sample (J) adjacent to the fumarole conduit shows Eu depletion that is consistent with the significant loss of plagioclase by high-temperature fumarolic leaching (Table 1, Fig. 9). Sample O, which has the highest modal plagioclase (21%, Table 1) and is the least altered, has the greatest positive Eu anomaly. Hildreth (1990, and personal communication) suggests that an additional factor that may cause variable REE concentrations and, specifically, Eu⁴⁺ is mechanical sorting of plagioclase during tephra deposition.

**Discussion**

Interpretation of fossil fumarole mineralogy and geochemistry is complicated by weathering superimposed on the complex leaching and depositional processes of active fumarolic evolution from high-temperature vapor-phase processes through cooling processes. In addition, the complex fine-grained intergrowths and thin depositional coatings of sublimes and secondary minerals superimposed upon primary glasses and phenocrysts in various stages of alteration (depending upon position in the area affected by the fumarole) make the interpretations of the data difficult. An additional consideration of the complexity of the system is that during fumarolic activity, a substantial volume of unstable compounds, which contain as much as several weight percent of trace metals, are formed (Keith et al., 1981, 1989). These compounds include chlorides and sulfates of all the major constituents except Ti and many minor elements (Shipley, 1920; Keith, 1991). Therefore, substantial amounts of elements leached by fumarolic gases are removed from the area by dissolution within hours and days of deposition (Keith et al., 1989). As fumaroles cool and die out, late-stage minerals are deposited in pore spaces where earlier leaching occurred.

Given that this study is based on bulk samples rather than discrete mineral phases, we are of the opinion that our study provides unique understanding of the bulk chemical leaching and depositional processes in high-temperature fumaroles at the VTTS. Caution must be used in assessing rock masses and associated chemical gains and losses in these bulk samples because both leaching and deposition have occurred in many places because of the processes described above. Also the composition used for original protolith is only an approximation.

To understand the chemical systematics of our results, the mineral assemblages and alteration textures must be considered. The major mineral modal analyses along with some of the chemical data are illustrated in Figure 10. Crystalline phases introduced in the alteration assemblages by fumarolic alteration and subsequent cooling reactions include alunite reflecting high SO₄ activity; AHF and fluorite reflecting high F activity; smectite, magnetite, hematite, and goethite reflecting oxidation and hydration; and opal and some of the α-cristobalite reflecting SiO₂ mobility. Although the encrusted fallout (A–H) shows great chemical and mineralogical diversity, the leached ash-flow tuff (J–O) shows some systematics. For the leached part of the system (note Fig. 9), the modal data and thin sections show that plagioclase, pyroxene, magnetite, and ilmenite phenocrysts are removed adjacent to the fumarole conduit and are less altered away from the conduit. The abundance of α-cristobalite increases toward the conduit.

Comparing the chemical data shown on Figures 6 and 10, substantial enrichments in some elements occur in encrusted fallout samples A–H compared to the leached ash-flow, e.g., Zn, Cu, F, Cl, CaO, Fe₂O₃ as FeO. Also, note the enrichments are localized, particularly in samples F and C. The F enrichments clearly correlate with increases in AHF and fluoride in sample A. Although the associated mineralogy does not always indicate where these enriched elements might be concentrated, referring to Figure 3a, the most enriched samples come from the near surface part of the system and near the conduit where these elements would have been sublimated from fumarolic fluids. Although primary dacite-rich fall clasts remain in various stages of alteration in the encrusted fallout, certain elements are clearly enriched over the content of the primary clasts, i.e., dacite protolith.

Overall chemical relationships illustrated in Figure 6 are determined as follows:

1. The sample adjacent to the conduit, J, is heavily leached of most elements except LOI (~H₂O), Cl, SiO₂, SO₃, Zr, As, Au, Sb, Cu, Pb, Ni, Cr, Hf, and U.

2. Leached from the ash-flow tuff and deposited in the fallout or deposited directly from the volcanic vapor phase are FeO, MgO, CaO, Cl, F, Sr, V, Sc, and Cs.

3. Relatively enriched in the leached ash-flow tuff and depleted in the fallout are SiO₂, K₂O, Ba (except adjacent to the conduit were it is strongly depleted), Zr, Th, Rb, Hf, U, and Ta.

4. Enriched in both parts of the fossil fumarolic system are SO₃, LOI (~H₂O), F, Zn, As, Cr, Pb, Br, Ni, Sn, Sb, and Au. Al₂O₃ and Ga are slightly enriched in both parts of the system except for strong depletion adjacent to the conduit in the leached ash-flow tuff.

5. Depleted in both parts of the system are Na₂O, MnO, Y, Nb, and REE.

6. TiO₂ is close to constant in both parts of the system but is slightly enriched or depleted in individual samples without any pattern indicating that it is relatively stable under the various conditions that have affected this fossil fumarole. The variability is most likely a result of variable protolith composition.

The enrichments and depletions are similar to those for fumarolically altered and incrusted tephra in the distal, rhyolite-rich part of the ash-flow sheet (Papke et al., 1991). Major oxides and trace elements enriched in fossil fumarolic incrustations in both the dacite-rich protolith (fumarole 212) and the rhyolite-rich protolith (fumaroles 63, 64, 69; Papke et al., 1991) are FeO, MgO, CaO, SO₃ (except 64), LOI (~H₂O), Sr, Zn, Cu, Br, and F. In addition, enrichments in incrustations from fumarole 212 and at least one rhyolite-rich protolith fumarole are Ni, Cr, As, Au, Sn, and Pb. Depletions of Na₂O occur in all
TABLE 4. Compositional gains and losses compared to 100 g of unaltered dacite

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>H</th>
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four fossil fumaroles. Although the masses of individual components moved in fumaroles in different protoliths vary, the similarities in the chemical species that are enriched and depleted suggests that the fumarolic gas composition is the most critical factor in determining which components are moved, regardless of protolith. Thus we conclude that in both parts of the fossil fumarole we are dealing with the shallow part of the fumarole system. The most visible component, Fe₂O₃, along with MgO, CaO, Cl, F, Sr, V, Sc, and Cs, was leached from the ash-flow sheet and deposited in the fallout (Fig. 6). The com-

![Fig. 6. Enrichment and depletion diagram for fumarole 212. Samples A–H are from the encrusted fallout part of the fossil fumarole; locations as in Figure 3a. Samples J–O are from the leached ash-flow tuff as shown in Figure 3b with J, adjacent to the fumarole conduit, being the most leached.](image1)

![Fig. 7. REE patterns for samples from the encrusted fallout part of fumarole 212 normalized against dacite protolith REE concentrations.](image2)
ponents enriched in both parts of the system were transported during high-temperature fumarolic alteration but also during cooling processes and became fixed in more stable solids so as to be resistant to further alteration. As, Sb, and Au are a well-known association in shallow epithermal deposits (White and Heropoulos, 1983; Hedenquist and Henley, 1985; Berger, 1985; Romberger, 1988). Pb, Zn, and Cu are also a common association in shallow parts of epithermal systems and volcanic exhalative deposits (Sillitoe and Bonham, 1984; Berger, 1985). Sn and F are a common association in high-silica rhyolites that yield cassiterite ore deposits (Burt and Sheridan, 1987; Duffield, 1990). SO₃ and H₂O are added during cooling and acid alteration.

**CONCLUSIONS**

This study looked at the upper part of a fossil fumarolic system in which ash-flow tuff of mixed rhyolitic, dacitic, and andesitic pumice was leached by high-temperature fluids that carried chemicals upward, where they were sublimated onto permeable dacite-rich fallout and subjected to further alteration, particularly surficial acid alteration, as the fumarole cooled and died out.

![REE patterns for samples from the leached ash-flow tuff part of fumarole 212 normalized against dacite protolith REE concentrations.](image)

**Fig. 8.** REE patterns for samples from the leached ash-flow tuff part of fumarole 212 normalized against dacite protolith REE concentrations.

![Variation of modal proportions of crystalline phases from the conduit (sample J) outward in the lower, leached ash-flow tuff part of the system. Depletion of plagioclase and pyroxene from high-temperature vapor-phase and later hydrothermal alteration and crystallization of α-cristobalite from altered pumice adjacent to the conduit are clearly demonstrated.](image)

**Fig. 9.** Variation of modal proportions of crystalline phases from the conduit (sample J) outward in the lower, leached ash-flow tuff part of the system. Depletion of plagioclase and pyroxene from high-temperature vapor-phase and later hydrothermal alteration and crystallization of α-cristobalite from altered pumice adjacent to the conduit are clearly demonstrated.
Studies of mineralogy and chemical composition of whole-rock samples of fossil fumarole 212 show important characteristics for understanding and interpreting fossil fumarolic systems. These studies address the entire sequence of alteration processes from high-temperature, vapor-phase fumarolic alteration through cooling processes during which fumarolic minerals and their chemical constituents are subjected to secondary alteration. Finally, they also record weathering processes that include dissolution of unstable and metastable deposits.

This study illustrates the usefulness of the isocon method of Grant (1986) to interpret a complex alteration system, providing that the geologic constraints are carefully evaluated.

Fig. 10. Schematic modal and selected chemical data for fumarole 212. Samples A–H are from the encrusted fallout part of the fossil fumarole; samples J–O are sequentially outward from the leached fumarolic conduit in the ash-flow tuff. Chemical data in parentheses are taken from Table 2. Relative thickness of bars represents relative abundance of phase in upper part of diagram and abundance of selected major oxides and trace elements in lower part.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS
This research was funded by NSF grant EAR-8907712 (J.J.P.), the U.S. Geological Survey (T.E.C.K.), and DOE Contract DE-AC06-76RLO-1830 (J.C.L.). We gratefully acknowledge this support. We thank D. Tully for collecting much of the XRD data.

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