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## **Trace element geochemistry of the 1991 Mt. Pinatubo silicic melts, Philippines: Implications for ore-forming potential of adakitic magmatism**

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## **Abstract**

The dacite pumice erupted from Mt. Pinatubo on June 15, 1991 (whole-rock, rhyolitic groundmass glasses and homogenized melt inclusions) has been analyzed using inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (ICP-MS), nanosecond and femtosecond laser ablation ICP-MS and secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) to evaluate its ore-forming potential. Data suggest that adakite magmas are metal-rich and concentrate ore metals during magmatic differentiation. Sulfides segregate in limited amounts under the hydrous, oxidizing conditions typical of adakitic magmas resulting in incompatible behavior for Au (6–22 ppb), Cu (26– 77 ppm), and Pb, Mo, As, and Sb in melts of dacitic to rhyolitic compositions. Metal transfer from this adakite magma to the coexisting aqueous phase was favored by the peraluminous composition of the rhyolitic melt and high aqueous chloride concentrations. Mass balance calculations suggest that the pre-eruptive aqueous phase could have extracted a minimum of 100 t Au and  $5 \times 10^5$  t Cu from the Mt. Pinatubo magma. Our data suggest that intrusives having adakitic signatures are genetically associated with Au–Cu and Cu–Mo mineralization, auriferous porphyry copper deposits, and epithermal gold veins. High  $H_2O$ , Cl, Sr/Y, Pb/Ce, Mo/Ce, As/Ce and Sb/Ce in Mt. Pinatubo melts reflect the contribution of deep fluids derived from subducted sediments and altered MORBs in the dacite genesis. The slab-derived fluids carrying mobile elements are likely responsible for the enrichment of adakite magmas in gold, associated metals and  $H_2O$ , and may explain the exceptional ore-forming potential of adakite magmatism.

## **1. Introduction**

Adakites are silicic- to intermediate-composition magmas which are commonly believed to be generated by partial melting of subducted oceanic crust (e.g., Defant and Drummond, 1990 and Sen and Dunn, 1994), although other models, such as high-pressure fractionation of hydrous basaltic magmas, have also been proposed recently for their genesis (e.g., Prouteau and Scaillet, 2003). Adakitic magmas are typically enriched in H2O (Prouteau et al., 1999) and lithophile elements such as Al, Na, Sr and LREE (Drummond and Defant, 1990 and Peacock et al., 1994). Intrusives with an adakitic signature are spatially and temporally and, perhaps, genetically associated with Au–Cu and Cu–Mo mineralization, auriferous porphyry copper deposits, and epithermal gold veins (e.g., White et al., 1995, Sajona and Maury, 1998, González-Partida et al., 2003, Reich et al., 2003, Qu et al., 2004 and Whalen et al., 2004). However, the petrological and geochemical mechanisms which are responsible for the systematic relationship between adakitic magmatic rocks and gold and associated metals concentrations remain unclear (Thiéblemont et al., 1997 and Mungall, 2002). Understanding the mechanisms that control the links between adakitic magmas and Au–Cu (and Cu–Mo) mineralization is important both for metallogenic models and associated metals exploration strategies.

In this study, we assume as a working hypothesis that adakite magmas are enriched in Au (typically  $3-7$  ppb) in comparison with non-adakitic (typically  $\leq 3$  ppb), silicic- to intermediate-composition magmas (Polvé et al., 2003, Polvé et al., 2004 and Jégo et al., 2004). Thus, adakites are able to pre-concentrate Au (with Cu and associated metals) through magmatic processes. The systematic association between adakites and Au–Cu mineralization (e.g., Thiéblemont et al., 1997) would thus result from the combination of magmatic preconcentration mechanisms with favorable hydrothermal transport and deposition processes. To investigate the magmatic pre-concentration mechanisms, we have carried out an analytical study of a typical example of adakite, the dacite pumice erupted on June 15, 1991, by the Mt. Pinatubo volcano, Philippines (Bernard et al., 1996, Prouteau et al., 1999 and Prouteau and Scaillet, 2003).

The Mt. Pinatubo dacite is strongly enriched in sulfur (e.g., Bernard et al., 1996), Cu and Zn (Pallister et al., 1996). The  $\delta^{34}S$  values for the 1991 dacite are similar to those of Cu–Au porphyry deposits of Miocene to Pliocene ages surrounding Mt. Pinatubo (Imai et al., 1993 and Imai et al., 1996). Located south of the North Luzon Au–Cu province of Miocene– Pliocene age, Mt. Pinatubo is only 19 km north of the 2.7 Ma Dizon major Cu–Au porhyry copper deposit (Malihan, 1987), and several porphyry-type prospects are known in its immediate vicinity (Imai et al., 1996; Fig. 1). Therefore, metal concentration processes in the 1991 Mt. Pinatubo magma may be representative of those occurring in the North to West-Central Luzon Au–Cu district.

The Mt. Pinatubo dacite preserves rapidly quenched silicate glasses and sulfides, allowing metal concentrations to be determined at different stages of the magmatic evolution. Previous work on melt, crystal and fluid inclusions in mineral phases of the Mt. Pinatubo white dacite pumices (Westrich and Gerlach, 1992, Gerlach et al., 1996, Pasteris et al., 1996, Rutherford and Devine, 1996 and Borisova et al., 2005), together with experimental data (Rutherford and Devine, 1996, Scaillet and Evans, 1999, Prouteau et al., 1999 and Prouteau and Scaillet, 2003) have constrained the conditions of genesis, high-pressure evolution, and pre-eruptive crystallization and degassing of the dacite magma. The chalcophile trace element chemistry of sulfide phases in the Mt. Pinatubo dacites, andesites and basalts has been investigated by Fournelle et al., 1996, Hattori, 1993 and Hattori, 1996. However, there are as yet no data on ore metal concentrations for the silicate glasses. Here, we present an in situ microanalytical study of volatiles  $(H_2O)$  and ore metals  $(Cu, Zn, Mo$  and Pb) in homogenized melt inclusions using secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS). These data are combined with microanalyses of trace elements (including Au) in matrix glasses using nanosecond and femtosecond laser ablation ICP-MS, and with analyses of the host dacite pumice using ICP-MS. The data reported here constrain the trace element chemistry of the Mt. Pinatubo melts and provide new insights into mechanisms of metal pre-concentration during adakitic magma genesis and differentiation.



Fig. 1. Geologic map showing the location of quaternary volcanoes, major porphyry copper deposits, Cenozoic intermediate to silicic intrusives, and ophiolitic rocks at Luzon, Philippines (adopted after Imai et al., 1996 and modified after Sajona and Maury, 1998). Tertiary intermediate to felsic intrusives and ophiolitic rocks are also shown. Adakite and adakite-like rocks related to gold-copper districts or provinces are shown according to Sajona and Maury (1998).

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## **2. Analytical techniques**

### **2.1. Melt inclusion and matrix preparation for analyses**

Primary melt inclusions in quartz were completely or partially homogenized at 760 °C and 200 MPa. Detailed descriptions of melt inclusion types before and after homogenization experiments and of the experimental procedures are given in Borisova et al. (2005) along with major element data on the included glass and crystalline phases. The experimental run duration of 20–24 h was chosen according to the diffusion rates of  $H_2O$  and  $CO_2$  in silicic glasses (Watson, 1994) to produce homogeneous glasses in the melt inclusions. The melt inclusions range in size from 30 to 150 μm and contain homogeneous glasses; only inclusions with minor or no bubble(s) were selected (Fig. 2). After the homogenization experiment, quartz grains were mounted in epoxy (Teflon slides, 1-in. diameter) and polished by hand with 3-, 1- and 0.5-μm diamond pastes (Hyprez, Liquid Diamond) until the melt inclusions were exposed at the surface (Borisova et al., 2005). To avoid possible surface contamination with metals like Au, Cu, Zn, As and Sb, we polished quartz grains with pure diamond pastes. Thick sections (300 μm) of dacite pumices and <0.5-mm pieces of matrix glasses were epoxymounted and polished with precautions as well to avoid surface contamination with gold and base metals.



Fig. 2. Photomicrographs of inclusions after homogenization experiment: (A) Assemblage of primary fluid inclusion, at present empty (left) and primary melt inclusion (right) homogenized at 780 °C and 185 MPa, providing evidence for two-phase entrapment of coexisting melt and supercritical fluid under pre-eruptive conditions (in transmitted light); (B) Multi-phase inclusion after experiment at 780 °C and 185 MPa containing sulfide globule (center) entrapped in ilmenite and enclosed in rhyolitic melt (in reflected light); (C) Decrepitated (H2O-poor) melt inclusion (in back-scattered electron mode); (D) Stable (H2O-rich) melt inclusion homogenized at 760 °C and 200 MPa (in back-scattered electron mode).

### **2.2. Analytical techniques**

Major elements concentrations in the inclusion glasses were determined by electron microprobe analysis (EMPA) with a fully automated CAMECA SX-100 GeoForschungsZentrum in Potsdam, Germany. X-ray were excited with a 15-kV accelerating voltage and 10 nA beam current. The acquisition time for major elements (Si, Ti Al, Fe, Mg, Ca, Na and K) was 20 s/element. A defocused beam  $(\sim 15 \mu m^2)$  was used to minimize Na loss. The following EMPA standards were used: albite (Na), periclase (Mg), wollastonite (Si, Ca), Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (Fe), rutile (Ti) and orthoclase (Al, K). Groundmass glasses and sulphide analyses were performed at the Laboratoire des Mécanismes et Transferts en Géologie (Toulouse, France) using a CAMECA SX50 microprobe with SAMx automation. The operating conditions were 15 kV of accelerating voltage and 10 nA of beam current for glasses, and 25 kV of accelerating voltage and 20 nA of beam current for sulphides. Standards were synthetic compounds and natural minerals. Following electron microprobe analysis, the epoxy mounts were slightly polished with pure  $Al_2O_3$  powder (0.3-μm) to remove the carbon coating, cleaned in ethanol (Normapur grade), dried at 80 °C for 1 h to remove surface water, and then gold coated for secondary ion mass spectrometric (SIMS) analyses.

SIMS analyses of H and selected trace elements Cu, Zn, Pb, Mo, La, Ce and Pr were performed using the CAMECA ims 6f ion probe in GeoForschungsZentrum, Potsdam. To eliminate any possible surface contamination and to remove the 35-nm gold coat, each analysis spot was pre-sputtered for 3 min with a 12-nA <sup>16</sup>O<sup>−</sup> beam which was rastered over a  $25 \times 25$  µm area. The actual analyses recorded the intensities on the  ${}^{1}H^{+}$ ,  ${}^{30}Si^{+}$ ,  ${}^{64}Zn^{+}$ ,  ${}^{65}Cu^{+}$  $25 \times 25$  µm area. The actual analyses recorded the intensities on the  ${}^{1}H^{+}$ ,  ${}^{30}Si^{+}$ ,  ${}^{64}Zn^{+}$ ,  ${}^{65}Cu^{+}$ ,  ${}^{139}La^{+}$ ,  ${}^{140}Ce^{+}$ ,  ${}^{141}Pr^{+}$ ,  ${}^{98}Mo^{+}$  and  ${}^{208}Pb^{+}$  peaks using a primary beam to a 25-μm diameter spot on the sample surface. A 120-V offset was applied to the nominally 10 kV, in conjunction with a 50-V energy bandpass, in order to suppress isobaric interferences (e.g., Hervig, 1996). Counting times for each cycle were:  $H^+(4\ s)$ ,  ${}^{30}\text{Si}^+(2\ s)$ ,  ${}^{44}Ca^+$  (2 s),  ${}^{64}Zn^+$  (8 s),  ${}^{65}Cu^+(8 \text{ s})$ ,  ${}^{98}Mo^+(30 \text{ s})$ ,  ${}^{139}La^+(8 \text{ s})$ ,  ${}^{140}Ce^+(15 \text{ s})$ ,  ${}^{141}Pr^+(15 \text{ s})$  and  $^{208}Pb^+$  (30 s). Twenty integration cycles of this peak-stepping sequence thus yielded a total analysis time of 46 min. The host quartz grains were used to estimate the water background which was consistently below 0.1 wt% H<sub>2</sub>O. The count rates from  ${}^{1}H^{+}$ ,  ${}^{64}Zn^{+}$ ,  ${}^{65}Cu^{+}$ ,  ${}^{98}Mo^{+}$ which was consistently below 0.1 wt% H<sub>2</sub>O. The count rates from  ${}^{1}H^{+}$ ,  ${}^{64}Zn^{+}$ ,  ${}^{65}Cu^{+}$ ,  ${}^{98}Mo^{+}$ ,  ${}^{139}La^{+}$ ,  ${}^{140}Ce^{+}$ ,  ${}^{141}Pr^{+}$  and  ${}^{208}Pb^{+}$  were normalized to  ${}^{30}Si^{+}$ . The intensiti  $^{64}$ Zn/ $^{30}$ Si or  $^{65}$ Cu/ $^{30}$ Si signals in some glasses decayed and attained constant values only after the first 10 cycles of data collection; in this case only the data obtained in the last 5–10 cycles were used to calculate the element abundances (Table 1). The concentrations of water and trace elements in the glass samples were determined by SIMS using calibrations with reference glasses of known concentrations (see electronic annex, Table EA1). For  $H^+$  a calibration curve was established from the nominally anhydrous NIST SRM 610 glass, a series of hydrated glasses prepared from NIST 610 and a series of hydrated andesitic glasses (see Wiedenbeck et al., 2001 and Koepke and Behrens, 2001). For the trace elements calibration we used anhydrous glasses, such as NIST SRM 610 glass, the above mentioned synthetic andesitic glass, and natural rhyolitic obsidian Macusani (or MAC3, electronic annex, Table EA1). All these reference samples were checked for homogeneity with respect to trace element contents by LA-ICP-MS, and trace element concentrations in Macusani glasses were re-analyzed by ICP-MS (electronic annex, Table EA1). Calibration curves were prepared by plotting the measured  $M^{+/30}Si^{+}$  ratios of standards against their trace element concentrations, normalizing to silicon concentrations (in ppm) known or obtained by EMPA (see electronic annex, Fig. EA1–EA8). We did not detect any dependence of the relative sensitivity factors of <sup>65</sup>Cu<sup>730</sup>Si, <sup>98</sup>Mo<sup>730</sup>Si, <sup>139</sup>La<sup>730</sup>Si, <sup>140</sup>Ce<sup>730</sup>Si and <sup>141</sup>Pr<sup>730</sup>Si for Cu, Mo and LREE as a function of water content, whereas some decrease in the relative sensitivity factors of  ${}^{64}Zn^{30}Si$  and  ${}^{208}Pb^{30}Si$  was observed in the most hydrated glasses. We have used the observed external precision (for 37 reference samples combined) to evaluate the precision of our analyses: for hydrous glasses this corresponds to  $\pm$ 5–10% of the value for low H<sub>2</sub>O concentrations (<3.87 wt%) and to  $\pm 15-20\%$  for high H<sub>2</sub>O concentrations samples ( $\geq$ 3.87 wt%) (electronic annex, Table EA1).

<b>Inclusion:</b>	Hom2a:2a	Hom2a:2b	Hom2a:4a	Hom2a:4c	Hom2a:6b	Hom2a:6c	Hom2a:8a	Hom2a:10a	Hom2a:11c	
<b>Features:</b>	$H2O$ -rich	$H2O-poor$	$H2O$ -rich	$H2O-poor$	$H2O$ -rich	$H2O$ -rich	$H2O-poor$	$H2O-poor$	$H2O$ -rich	
$SiO2 (wt0)EMPA$	73.95	77.66	75.46	77.98	74.87	75.74	78.33	77.94	75.21	
TiO <sub>2</sub>	0.11	0.11	0.07	0.09	0.12	0.14	0.13	0.08	0.11	
$Al_2O_3$	11.82	13.19	11.84	13.22	11.97	11.85	13.35	13.26	12.05	
FeO <sup>c</sup>	0.71	0.76	0.58	0.72	0.59	0.55	0.83	0.64	0.67	
MgO	0.17	0.24	0.15	0.18	0.16	0.16	0.23	0.15	0.19	
CaO	1.02	1.21	1.02	1.22	1.11	1.08	1.24	1.11	1.03	
Na <sub>2</sub> O	3.23	3.70	2.97	3.63	2.41	2.01	3.74	3.92	3.47	
$K_2O$	2.58	2.80	2.53	2.83	2.52	2.26	2.78	2.84	2.54	
Sum	93.59	99.68	94.62	99.87	93.74	93.80	100.63	99.95	95.27	
$H_2O(wt\%)_{EMPA}^a$	8.79	3.88	6.73	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.88	1.24	7.11	
$H_2O(wt\%)_{SIMS}^b$	8.67	2.84	7.03	0.10	8.74	$4.29^{\mathrm{d}}$	0.10	1.06	8.31	
$Zn$ (ppm) $_{\rm SIMS}$	51	94	d.l.	122	51	16	137	101	55	
Cu	110	118	d.l.	89	100	d.l.	47	d.1.	d.l.	
Mo	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1	1.8	1.5	$2.0\,$	2.1	1.9	

Table 1. : Major and trace element composition of two types of melt inclusions in quartz, matrix glasses and pre-eruptive and degassing rhyolitic melts





<sup>a</sup> H<sub>2</sub>O (wt%)<sub>EMPA</sub> concentrations are determined by EMPA (Borisova et al., 2005) in H<sub>2</sub>O-rich (H<sub>2</sub>O  $\geq$  5 wt%) and H<sub>2</sub>O-poor (H<sub>2</sub>O < 5 wt%) glasses of melt inclusions.  $b$  H<sub>2</sub>O (wt%)<sub>SIMS</sub> and trace element contents are determined by SIMS (this work); major element analyses of melt inclusions by EMPA were performed in GFZ. <sup>c</sup> n.a., values are not available; d.l., values are below detection limit due to either strong drift or drop in <sup>65</sup>Cu/<sup>30</sup>Si, <sup>64</sup>Zn/<sup>30</sup>Si signals and either strong variations in <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>30</sup>Si signals an analysis. The upon an analysis upon an analysis and the set of the s d Low water and trace element concentrations (italized) are due to an excess of the host quartz during the SIMS analysis. <sup>e</sup> Trace elements contents in inclusion glasses determined by SIMS and trace elements contents in matrix glasses determined by LA-ICP-MS.

<sup>f</sup> Major elements contents in pre-eruptive (H<sub>2</sub>O  $\geq 5$  wt% in inclusion glasses) and degassing (H<sub>2</sub>O < 5 wt% in inclusion glasses) rhyolitic melts are after Borisova et al. (2005), average H<sub>2</sub>O and trace element contents with standard deviations in the inclusion glasses are according to the SIMS data on Cu, Zn, Mo, Pb and LREE contents in the inclusions, and according to the LA-ICP-MS data o melt inclusions, and according to the LA-ICP-MS data on As, Sb, Cd and Au in the matrix glasses.<br><sup>8</sup> Average-major-element-contents-in-matrix-glasses (22-points) with 1*o*-standard-deviations-determined-by-EMPA-in-LMTG; av deviations determined by nanosecond (*nn*, 3 points for analysis) and femtosecond (*fm*, 6 points for analysis) LA-ICP-MS.

A quadrupole-based inductively coupled mass spectrometer (ICP-MS Elan 6000, Perkin-Elmer SCIEX), nanosecond Laser Ablation System (LSX-200, CETAC) and femtosecond Pulsar IQ Amplitude technologies were used at LMTG, Toulouse, France. The laser ablation system uses an ultraviolet Nd:YAG nanosecond laser operating at a wavelength of 266 nm in Q-switched mode (Aries et al., 2001) and the femtosecond system operates at a wavelength of 800 nm. The energy level per pulse was 6–12 mJ and the laser repetition rate was 5–10 Hz. The reference and matrix glasses were analyzed in single-point mode with a pit size diameter of 40–50 μm with the femtosecond laser and 100–140 μm with nanosecond lasers. <sup>23</sup>Na, <sup>42</sup>Ca,  ${}^{44}Ca, {}^{63}Cu, {}^{65}Cu, {}^{66}Zn, {}^{75}As, {}^{85}Rb, {}^{88}Sr, {}^{89}Y, {}^{90}Zr, {}^{93}Nb, {}^{95}Mo, {}^{114}Cd, {}^{121}Sb, {}^{133}Cs, {}^{138}Ba, {}^{139}La,$ <sup>140</sup>Ce, <sup>141</sup>Pr, <sup>172</sup>Yb, <sup>181</sup>Ta, <sup>197</sup>Au, <sup>208</sup>Pb, <sup>232</sup>Th and <sup>238</sup>U mass peaks were measured with dwell times of 10-20 ms. The acquisition time for one complete analysis was 1.5–2 min. Plasma RF power was 1200–1300 W and other operating conditions and acquisition parameters of the Perkin-Elmer Elan 6000 ICP-MS were similar to those used by Aries et al. (2001). The data obtained for all silicate glasses have been processed with the GLITTER 4.0 software package. The internal standard was  $^{42}$ Ca because it successfully reproduces the acquired element contents in NIST 610 and 612 standards within  $\pm 10\%$  as compared to the certified values (electronic annex, Table EA1). LA-ICP-MS determined concentrations of Zn, Mo, As, Sb, Pb, Rb, Sr, U and Ta in Macusani glass were within ±25% of the solution-mode values obtained on the bulk-rock Macusani obsidian glass. NIST 610 and 612 were used as the external standards for calibration of LA-ICP-MS analyses. Detection limits for the glass analyses were 14 ppb for Au, 0.01–0.3 ppm for Sr, Mo, Sb, REE, Y, Rb, Zr, Nb, Cs, Ba, Pb, Th, U, Ta and 0.3–5 ppm for Cu, Zn and As, Sb and Cd.

Dust-free chips of the white dacite pumice investigated by Scaillet and Evans, 1999 and Borisova et al., 2005 were cleaned in distilled water, dried and crushed to powder in an agate mortar, previously cleaned with pure quartz sand. To insure complete dissolution of zircon, a fusion—mode dissolution was chosen instead of acid dissolution. About 100 mg of pumice powder were fused together with  $600 \text{ mg }$  LiBO<sub>2</sub> as a flux. Then 100 ml of bi-distilled 10% HNO3 were added to dissolve the fused glass. After its complete dissolution, a 10 ml aliquot of this solution was furthermore treated so that the final solution  $(30 \text{ ml}, \text{HNO}_3 \, 0.37 \text{ N})$  had a dilution factor of 1000 compared to the rock. Indium was used an internal standard. ICP-MS analyses were performed with a Perkin-Elmer Elan 6000 inductively coupled mass spectrometer equipped with a standard cross-flow nebuliser-Scott spray chamber and an automatic sampler. Between every sample the whole system was washed with a  $HNO<sub>3</sub> 0.37 N$ solution to prevent cross-contamination and memory effects. Multi-element standard solutions were run every five samples. REE were analyzed with RSD < 5%. We used our in-house developed special procedure for oxide and hydroxide interference corrections (Aries et al., 2000) which ensures good accuracy and reproducibility as demonstrated by repeated analyses of the adapted Certified Reference Materials.

## **3. Results**

### **3.1. Chemistry of the Mt. Pinatubo silicic melts**

### **3.1.1. Chemistry of homogenized melt inclusions, matrix glasses and sulfides**

Major and trace element compositions of glasses of 15 homogenized melt inclusions and groundmass are listed in Table 1. The results show excellent agreement with previous EMPA

analyses (Gerlach et al., 1996 and Borisova et al., 2005). Average  $SiO_2$  (78.8 wt%) and  $Al_2O_3$ (12.9 wt%) contents recalculated to the volatile-free basis in inclusion glasses (Table 1) are similar to those previously determined in melt inclusions of the same sample (79.1 wt%  $SiO<sub>2</sub>$ ) and 12.5 wt%  $\overrightarrow{A}$ <sub>12</sub>O<sub>3</sub>; Borisova et al., 2005). The average H<sub>2</sub>O content (4.3 wt%) of homogenized melt inclusions determined by SIMS (Table 1) is similar to that obtained with the same technique for untreated melt inclusions  $(4.4 \text{ wt\% H}_2O)$ ; Gerlach et al., 1996). It is slightly lower than the average value found in melt inclusions previously determined with the "by-difference" technique in the same sample  $(5.4 \text{ wt\% H}_2O;$  Borisova et al., 2005). However, if the water contents in the H<sub>2</sub>O-poor and H<sub>2</sub>O-rich inclusions, as defined by Borisova et al. (2005), are averaged separately, the agreement between the SIMS and the "bydifference" data is in fact very good (for example,  $1.7$  vs.  $2.0$  and  $7.3$  vs.  $7.2$  wt%, for  $H_2O$ poor decrepitated primary melt inclusions and H2O-rich stable primary melt inclusions), except when the H<sub>2</sub>O contents drops below 1 wt% (Table 1). The difference between these groups of primary inclusions is their size and the decrepitation character for the largest melt inclusions (>80 μm, Borisova et al., 2005). Major element compositions of groundmass glasses determined by EMPA in this work overlap those previously determined by Gerlach et al. (1996).

Copper and zinc concentrations are characterized by a substantial variability, both in the  $H_2O$ rich (22–110 ppm Cu; 44–55 ppm Zn) and H<sub>2</sub>O-poor (31–118 ppm Cu; 30–137 ppm Zn) inclusions (Table 1). Other trace elements exhibit less variable concentrations. LREE and Mo concentrations are indistinguishable in H<sub>2</sub>O-rich (15.9  $\pm$  1.8 ppm La; 16.7  $\pm$  3.0 ppm Ce;  $1.4 \pm 0.3$  ppm Pr;  $1.9 \pm 0.14$  ppm Mo) and H<sub>2</sub>O-poor ( $18.8 \pm 1.7$  ppm La;  $21.2 \pm 2.7$  ppm Ce;  $1.9 \pm 0.3$  ppm Pr;  $2.1 \pm 0.05$  ppm Mo) inclusions within the precision of SIMS analysis. Therefore, the available data show that the trace element contents of the  $H_2O$ -rich and  $H_2O$ poor melt inclusions overlap. Lead concentrations could be determined in the  $H<sub>2</sub>O-poor$ inclusions only  $(15.7 \pm 2.4$  ppm Pb, Table 1). Except for volatile H<sub>2</sub>O the decrepitation process at 13–24 MPa should not change the major and trace element contents of the primary melt inclusions (e.g., Borisova et al., 2005). Average values of matrix glass LREE, Mo and Pb concentrations by LA-ICP-MS  $(15 \pm 0.7 \text{ ppm} \text{ La}; 28 \pm 1.1 \text{ ppm} \text{ Ce}; 2.3 \pm 0.12 \text{ ppm} \text{ Pr};$  $1.5 \pm 0.3$  ppm Mo;  $16 \pm 0.6$  ppm Pb) are similar to melt inclusion SIMS values (Table 1). Cu and Zn contents in the matrix glass  $(35.6 \pm 4$  ppm Cu;  $113 \pm 20$  ppm Zn) are also similar to those of the inclusion averages (71  $\pm$  36 ppm Cu and 73  $\pm$  35 ppm Zn). The matrix glass analyses yield average As and Sb contents of  $18.7 \pm 3.5$  and  $1.4 \pm 0.35$  ppm, respectively; and one analysis of matrix glass yields  $22 \pm 8$  ppb of Au. Based on the data on LREE, Mo and Pb we conclude that the matrix glass has trace element concentrations very close to the inclusions taken as a whole (Table 1). This indicates that syn-eruptive degassing (Borisova et al., 2005) has little influence on the trace element chemistry of the analyzed silicate glasses. Major and trace element compositions of chalcopyrite with high concentrations of Fe, Cu and Zn (30.0– 30.4 at% Fe,  $26-28$  at% Cu and 0.67-0.76 at% Zn, respectively, Table 2) are close to those previously published by Hattori (1993).

Table 2. : Major and trace element compositions of the Mt. Pinatubo parental dacitic and the pre-eruptive rhyolitic melts and the estimated compositions of equilibrium aqueous fluids according to the available experimental partition coefficients





<sup>a</sup> Parental dacitic melt composition is average bulk rock analyses of the Mt. Pinatubo white dacite pumice obtained in this work for Mo, Pr and Au and published data (with  $1\sigma$ standard deviations) from Bernard et al., 1996, Fournelle et al., 1996, Luhr and Melson, 1996 and Pallister et al., 1996; Variable S contents in white dacite pumices are explained by secondary alteration of magmatic anhydrite (e.g., Bernard et al., 1996). Variable Cu could be due to desulfidization process; Au in ppb.

<sup>b</sup> Composition of aqueous fluid in equilibrium with dacitic melt is calculated according to fluid/melt partitioning of Webster (1992a) for Cl, Cl mol/kg or HCl ppm contents of the fluid and metal fluid/melt partitioning.<sup>f</sup>

 $\degree$  The Mt. Pinatubo pre-eruptive rhyolitic melt composition is average major and trace element composition for melt inclusions homogenized at 760  $\degree$ C and 200 MPa (major elements, Cu, Zn, Pb, Mo, La, Ce and Pr, Table 1) and matrix glasses (Sr, Y, As, Sb and Au measured by LA-ICP-MS, Table 1) with standard deviations; S and Cl contents are from Borisova et al. (2005); Au in ppb; The fractions of rhyolitic glass in dacite is after Luhr and Melson, 1996 and Bernard et al., 1996.

<sup>d</sup> Composition of fluid in equilibrium with rhyolitic melt is determined based on fluid/melt partitioning of Webster (1992b) for Cl, [Cl] mol/kg or HCl ppm contents of the

fluid and metal fluid/melt partitioning.<sup>f</sup>

 $\degree$  Sulfide phase composition is chalcopyrite analyzed by EMPA in this work. The estimate of 0.05–2.0 wt% fraction of sulfides in dacite pumices is made using the data on Cu and Zn concentrations in rhyolitic melt, sulfide and the host dacite magma and the fraction of rhyolitic melt in the magma.

<sup>f</sup> Metal fluid/melt partitioning of Urabe (1985) for Na, Pb and Zn; Carron and LaGache (1980) for Sr; Holland (1972) for Mg and Ca; Candela and Holland (1984) for Mo and Cu based on Cu content 56 ppm of Pallister et al., 1996, Frank et al., 2002 and Hanley et al., 2005 for Au (in ppm), [Cl] (in mol/kg) and HCl (in ppm).

#### **3.1.2. Chemistry of the bulk-rock white dacite pumices**

Average major and trace element data for the bulk dacite pumices are listed in Table 2 and enrichment/depletion patterns relative to N-MORB are illustrated in Fig. 3. The new ICP-MS data for white dacite pumice yield 28.3 ppm Cu, 11.3 ppm Pb, 4.3 ppm As, 0.8 ppm Sb, 13.0 ppm La, 30.6 ppm Ce, 577.1 ppm Sr and 13.6 ppm Y. These values are in close agreement with literature data (Table 2). The Au (6.4 ppb), Mo (0.91 ppm) and Pr (3.7 ppm) concentration data are reported for the first time for the Pinatubo dacite (Table 2).



Fig. 3. N-MORB-normalized pattern of the parental dacitic melt and the pre-eruptive rhyolitic melt. Data on the composition of the dacitic melt are those of the white dacite pumices (Bernard et al., 1996, Fournelle et al., 1996, Luhr and Melson, 1996 and Pallister et al., 1996), original data for Au, Mo and Pr, (Table 2). The pre-eruptive melt composition is according to original data (Table 1 and Table 2). Enrichment in Cs, Rb, Ba, Th, U, K, Pb, Sr, Mo and Sb relative to "adjacent" REE and depletion in Ta, Nb and Ti relative to "adjacent" REE are highlighted by arrows. Normalization to N-MORB composition of Sun and McDonough (1989) is applied. ICP-MS analysis of white dacite pumice in this work yields the following trace element contents: 0.908 ppm Mo, 11.3 ppm Pb, 13 ppm La, 30.6 ppm Ce, 577 ppm Sr, and 13.6 ppm Y (and Table 2). LA-ICP-MS analysis of rhyolitic glasses of groundmass yields the following trace element contents:  $98.57 \pm 4.31$  ppm Rb,  $7.66 \pm 0.4$  ppm Cs,  $719 \pm 63$  ppm Ba,  $0.36 \pm 0.04$  ppm Ta,  $5.14 \pm 0.28$  ppm Nb,  $7.93 \pm 0.35$  ppm Th,  $3.88 \pm 0.23$  ppm U, 59.17  $\pm$  3.05 ppm Zr, 6.94  $\pm$  0.45 ppm Nd, 0.89  $\pm$  0.19 ppm Sm, 0.26  $\pm$  0.05 ppm Eu, 0.75  $\pm$  0.15 ppm Gd,  $0.1 \pm 0.02$  ppm Tb,  $0.48 \pm 0.09$  ppm Yb,  $0.1 \pm 0.02$  ppm Lu (and Table 1 and Table 2).

Differences in major element contents between the bulk rock dacite and rhyolitic glasses of the matrix and inclusions are represented by Ti, Al, Fe, Mg, Ca and Na enrichment in the dacite, and Si, K enrichment in the rhyolitic glasses. In addition, Sr, Y and REE (except for La) are enriched, and Cs, Rb and Ba are depleted in the dacite relative to the inclusion and matrix glasses (Fig. 3). Au (6.4 vs. 22 ppb), Cu (28 vs. 71 ppm), Pb (10 vs. 16 ppm), Mo (0.9 vs. 2.0 ppm), As (3.4 vs. 11 ppm), and Sb (0.3 vs. 1.1 ppm) are enriched in the rhyolitic glasses relative to the bulk dacite. For Zn, the concentrations are similar.

## **4. Discussion**

## **4.1. Adakite magma differentiation and metal concentration**

### **4.1.1. Significance of the Mt. Pinatubo dacite and related rhyolitic glasses**

Mt. Pinatubo is one of numerous active volcanoes in the West Central Luzon volcanic chain which are associated with eastward subduction of the Eurasian plate along the Manila trench (Fig. 1). The high  $Al_2O_3$  (15–17 wt%), high Sr (474–608 ppm) and low Y (11–14 ppm) contents (Table 2), very low Rb/Sr (0.06–0.10) and K/Rb (264–338) ratios together with high LREE enrichment and a lack of any Eu anomaly in the Mt. Pinatubo dacites are typical features of the high-Al adakites (Drummond and Defant, 1990 and Bernard et al., 1996). Recent experimental data indicate that the most plausible mechanism for the genesis of the Mt. Pinatubo dacite magma is high-pressure fractionation of hydrous, oxidizing, primitive basalt that crystallized amphibole and garnet upon cooling (Prouteau and Scaillet, 2003). The steep negative slopes of the N-MORB-normalized patterns (Fig. 3) are consistent with the fractionation of amphibole and garnet phases. The Ta, Nb and Ti depletion in the N-MORBnormalized patterns (Fig. 3) also confirms the presence of hornblende and/or magnetite during high-pressure crystallisation.

The experimental work of Rutherford and Devine, 1996 and Scaillet and Evans, 1999 at 220 MPa (which is in the range of  $190 \pm 50$  MPa, the total pressure of dacite magma crystallization just prior to eruption, Borisova et al., 2005) has essentially reproduced both the phase assemblage and composition of the Mt. Pinatubo dacites, with the exception of the rare high-Al hornblende cores and calcic plagioclase which together represent <1% of the phenocryst volume (Prouteau and Scaillet, 2003). These data imply that the dacite magma arrived in a nearly molten state in the pre-eruptive reservoir where major crystallization occurred (e.g., Prouteau et al., 1999 and Prouteau and Scaillet, 2003). We suggest, therefore, that the bulk composition of the dacite pumice closely reflects the chemistry of the parental dacitic melt. In the same way, the composition of rhyolitic melt inclusions and matrix glass reflects the chemistry of the residual melt which results from crystallization of the dacite at its pre-eruptive storage level. These parental–residual relationships offer the opportunity to discuss the behaviour of metals during differentiation of adakitic magma.

### **4.1.2. Metal concentrations**

The concentrations of ore metals in the residual rhyolitic melt  $(Au = 22 \pm 8$  ppb, and average  $Cu = 71 \pm 36$  ppm,  $Pb = 16 \pm 2$  ppm,  $Mo = 2.0 \pm 0.1$  ppm,  $As = 11 \pm 1.9$  ppm, Sb = 1.1  $\pm$  0.2 ppm) are by a factor of 2–3 higher than those in the parental dacitic melt (Au  $\sim$ 6.4 ppb, Cu  $\sim$  28 ppm, Pb = 10 ± 1.8 ppm, Mo  $\sim$  0.9 ppm, As  $\sim$  3.4 ppm and Sb  $\sim$  0.33 ppm). Note however that the Zn concentration in the pre-eruptive rhyolitic melt  $(73 \pm 35 \text{ ppm})$  is not distinguishable within error from that of the parental dacitic melt  $(53 \pm 3 \text{ ppm})$ . Overall, these data reflect the incompatible behaviour of ore metals during dacite magma crystallization and differentiation (Fig. 4). The increase in Au, Cu, Pb, Mo, As and Sb in silicic melts is accompanied by an increase in chlorine content (474–1033 ppm) and a dramatic decrease in sulphur contents (1361–74 ppm) during crystallization of the dacite magma (Fig. 4).



Fig. 4. Chemistry of hydrous melts and equilibrium aqueous fluids. Temperature (°C)–pressure (MPa) conditions of the Mount Pinatubo magma crystallization, together with trace element compositions in co-existing melts and fluids versus SiO<sub>2</sub> contents in melts. The high-pressure crystallization stage of the parental dacitic melt at 950 °C. 960 MPa and the pre-eruptive crystallization of the rhyolitic melt at 750 °C and total pressure of 190  $\pm$  50 MPa are shown. Adakite magma and slab-derived fluid at 800–1100 °C and 1–3 GPa are illustrated. Trace element data of the melts and fluids are from Table 2 and Table 3.

Highly oxidizing conditions during magma differentiation are favorable for concentrating ore metals in the residual melt, because high oxygen fugacity eliminate the early segregation of sulfides (e.g., pyrrhotite) which may act as a sink for Cu, Zn and Au (e.g., Candela, 1989). At least two phases controlled the ore metals chemistry of the dacite magma at the pre-eruptive conditions, chalcopyrite ( $\leq 2$  wt%) with high concentrations of Cu, Zn and rhyolitic melt (43– 45 wt%) which forms the groundmass (Table 2). Chalcopyrite globules occur as multiphase inclusions in dacite phenocrysts (Fig. 2) and resorbed chalcopyrite segregations are found in the rhyolitic glass matrix (Table 2). The magma differentiation occurred at oxidizing conditions, above NNO + 1, at conditions where sulfate species  $[SO_4]$  dominate over sulfide complexes  $[S]^2$  in the hydrous melts (Fig. 5). This significantly reduces sulfide phase

formation and fractionation. A limited amount of titanomagnetite  $(\leq 4 \text{ wt\%})$ , crystallized under the Mt. Pinatubo high-pressure conditions (Prouteau and Scaillet, 2003), which may explain why the dacite magma was finally enriched in Zn and Mo (Fig. 3).



Fig. 5. Log  $f_{O2}$  versus temperature (°C) showing redox conditions for the Mt. Pinatubo crystallization stages. The high-pressure redox conditions are according to Prouteau and Scaillet (2003) and the pre-eruptive redox conditions are from Borisova et al., 2005 and Scaillet and Evans, 1999. *T*–*f*<sub>O2</sub> conditions for the Galeras andesites related to Au/Cu deposits are from Goff et al. (1994). Thin solid curves, hematite–magnetite and magnetite–quartz–fayalite equilibria; thick solid curve,  $f_{02}$  corresponding to NNO + 1. This curve also delimits the predominance of sulfate  $[SO_4]^{2-}$  versus sulfide  $[S]^2$  in the hydrous silicic melts (Carroll and Rutherford, 1987, Andersen and Lindsley, 1988 and Clemente et al., 2004). Au, Cu in melt versus Au in sulfide boundary are according to Mungall (2002) and corresponding to NNO + 1. Dashed curve corresponds to a 1:1 SO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S ratio in the fluid, according to the reaction  $H_2S + 1.5O_2 = SO_2 + H_2O$  (Carroll and Rutherford, 1987).

### **4.1.3. Constraints on the chemistry of aqueous fluids**

Although an aqueous fluid phase was trapped in rare inclusions in quartz (Pasteris et al., 1996), most fluid inclusions were decrepitated and the fluid was not retained (Fig. 2). The chemistry of the primary fluid (e.g.,  $SO_2$ ,  $H_2S$ , HCl, trace element contents) should depend on the chemistry of the associated hydrous melts and pressure-temperature and redox conditions  $(P-T-f<sub>O2</sub>)$ . The high Cl concentrations, above 500–1000 ppm, in the silicic melts imply these melts were close to saturation with chlorine (Metrich and Rutherford, 1992). The experimentally established empirical correlations between Cl mol% or HCl wt% contents and trace element concentrations in magmatic fluids (e.g., Candela and Holland, 1984, Urabe, 1985 and Frank et al., 2002) put reliable constraints on Cl content in the fluid. We used data on Cl contents in melts (Table 2) and available experimental data on Cl partitioning at 800– 1000 °C and 200–800 MPa for silicic melts (Table 2; Metrich and Rutherford, 1992, Webster, 1992a and Webster, 1992b). The parental dacitic melt and the pre-eruptive rhyolitic melt are highly peraluminous with  $A/NK = Al/(Na + K)$  of 1.5–1.8 and  $N/NK = Na/(Na + K)$  of 0.6– 0.7 mol%. Unfortunately, no experimental data exist on the Cl partitioning for such melts. We assume Cl partitioning for the parental dacitic melt to be similar to that of subaluminous melts with lower A/NK (1.02–1.04) and similar N/NK (0.67–0.68) at 800 °C/800 MPa and Cl<sub>melt</sub> contents of 300–700 ppm (Webster, 1992a) and  $D_{Cl}$  (D<sub>Cl</sub> = concentration of Cl in fluid/concentration of Cl in melt) to be equal to 185 (Table 2). These data yield 2.5 mol/kg of chloride in the fluid in equilibrium with the parental dacitic melt at 800 °C and 800 MPa. Similarly, we expect Cl concentrations in the pre-eruptive fluid in equilibrium with the residual rhyolite melt to be similar to those of peraluminous melts with lower A/NK (1.2) and similar N/NK (0.7) (at 800 °C/210 MPa and  $Cl_{melt}$  contents 1180 ppm; Webster, 1992b) and to be equal to  $\sim$ 1.1 mol/kg. Thermodynamic calculations indicate that SO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>S/HCl species existed in comparable amounts in the Mt. Pinatubo pre-eruptive fluid (e.g., Gerlach et al., 1996 and Scaillet et al., 1998). The soft chalcophile metals (Au, Cu) form much more stable complexes with soft ligands like HS<sup>−</sup> than with moderately hard Cl<sup>−</sup> and OH<sup>−</sup>/H<sub>2</sub>O in aqueous fluids (e.g., Pokrovski et al., 2005). However, the abundant anhydrite crystallization in melt and fluid (e.g., Pasteris et al., 1996) should result in a decrease of the fluid-phase sulfur contents, causing Cu, Au, Pb and Zn complexation with the far more abundant Cl<sup>−</sup> in the preeruptive fluid, whereas As, Sb and Mo are expected to form soluble hydroxide complexes (e.g., Wood and Samson, 1998, Pokrovski et al., 2005 and Pokrovski et al., 2002).

High-Al adakitic magmas related to Au/Cu and Cu/Mo mineralization are peraluminous (González-Partida et al., 2003, Reich et al., 2003, Qu et al., 2004 and Whalen et al., 2004). Most of these magmas contain early phenocrysts of hydrous minerals such as hornblende and biotite, implying early magma saturation with an aqueous fluid (Sajona and Maury, 1998). The peraluminous compositions of the hydrous dacitic and rhyolitic melts saturated with an aqueous fluid suggest partitioning for Au, Cu, Zn, Pb and Mo in favor of the fluid phase (Candela and Holland, 1984, Urabe, 1985, Hoosain and Baker, 1996 and Hanley et al., 2005). To estimate Au, Cu, Zn, Pb, Mo and Na contents in aqueous fluids in equilibrium with the Mt. Pinatubo pre-eruptive rhyolitic and the parental dacitic melts, we used the available experimental partitioning coefficients for synthetic melts at 750–800 °C/140–200 MPa for the pre-eruptive rhyolitic melt, and at 800–1250 °C/350–900 MPa for high-pressure dacitic melt (Fig. 4, Table 2). Our estimations show that the Mt. Pinatubo aqueous fluids could contain 0.3–0.4 ppm of Au, 770–1300 ppm of Cu, 830–3100 ppm of Zn and 44–140 ppm of Pb, 2– 5 ppm of Mo, and 6–11 wt% of NaCl (Table 2). Higher Au fluid contents (37–130 ppm) could be obtained using partitioning coefficients of Hanley et al. (2005) for a peraluminous system. Because at least  $100-500$  Mt of  $H<sub>2</sub>O$  was liberated from the pre-eruptive magma as aqueous fluid (Gerlach et al., 1996), the calculated fluid composition suggests that the pre-eruptive fluid might have extracted a minimum of  $15 \times 10^5$ t of Cu and 100 t of Au from the differentiated dacite magma. Provided that metal transport and precipitation mechanisms are efficient, the estimated Au and Cu amounts are sufficient to form a typical porphyry-type deposit and thus demonstrate that the degassing adakitic magma is likely to be the primary source for ore metals in porphyry–epithermal environments of subduction zones.

### **4.2. Role of slab-derived fluid in defining the geochemistry of the Mt. Pinatubo adakite melts**

The very high sulfur content of the Mt. Pinatubo dacite pumices (reaching up to 2200 ppm, Bernard et al., 1991), high Se and Se/S ratio in primary sulfides of the dacites (Hattori, 1993 and Hattori, 1996) indicate that a component enriched in S and Se was involved in the genesis of the dacite. High Se/S ratios are observed in marine sediments (Goldschmidt, 1954) and the involvement of subducted sediments in the genesis of the Mt. Pinatubo dacite is also confirmed by Be isotope signatures (Bernard et al., 1996). Moreover, high Cl contents in the bulk dacitic and rhyolitic melts (Table 2), and in apatite inclusions (Borisova et al., 2005) strongly support an involvement of subducted components (sediments or metabasalts altered with seawater, Ito et al., 1983) in the genesis of the Mt. Pinatubo dacitic magma. Water contents of the Mt. Pinatubo primary melts could be as high as 10–15 wt%, provided the melt saturation with an aqueous fluid occurs at high-pressure conditions (Fig. 4); such high  $H_2O$ contents imply water derivation from the dehydrated oceanic slab.

The high Au contents (6.4 ppb) of the Mt. Pinatubo dacitic pumices relative to regular calcalkaline magmas (maximum of 2–3 ppb Au; Connors et al., 1993 and Polvé et al., 2004), along with the existence of strong positive anomalies of Sb, Pb and Mo relative to "adjacent" REE in the N-MORB-normalized patterns of the bulk dacite pumices and rhyolitic melt (Fig. 3), clearly demonstrate an enrichment of the Mt. Pinatubo adakitic magma in these ore metals. Sulfide melt or mineral phases are the main sink for trace chalcophile metals like Au, Cu, Zn and Pb. However, high Au and associated metals contents in dacite pumices and rhyolitic melts (Table 2) suggest that sulfide phases must be absent from their sources, and possible interactions with the overlying mantle wedge should be limited (e.g., Mungall, 2002). The high Pb/Ce, Mo/Ce, As/Ce and Sb/Ce ratios in the pre-eruptive rhyolitic and the parental dacitic melts (Table 2) are close to those of subduction zone magmas near the volcanic front (Noll et al., 1996) where the possible interaction with the mantle wedge is expected to be minimal (McCulloch and Gamble, 1991).

The calculated Pb/Ce and As/Ce ratios in the oceanic slab and adakitic magmas (Table 3) suggest that, in addition to the slab, a fluid phase is likely to be responsible for the observed ore metal enrichment in the adakitic magmas. Indeed, the enrichment in Pb, Mo, As and Sb relative to Ce in the melts is likely to be a result of fluid-melt fractionation rather than crystalmelt fractionation (Noll et al., 1996). Pb and Cu enrichment relative to REE and Y is documented in slab-derived fluid during dehydration of subducting oceanic crust (e.g., Kogiso et al., 1997). Such a fluid derived from the dehydrated oceanic slab is likely to be important in the ore metal enrichment of the adakitic magmas. Because of the highly oxidizing conditions during adakite magma differentiation which destabilize sulfide phases, these metals are easily mobilized likely in the form of chloride complexes by Cl-bearing aqueous fluids (Keppler and Wyllie, 1991, Stolper and Newman, 1994, Keppler, 1996, Frank et al., 2002 and Pokrovski et al., 2005) derived from descending, dehydrated oceanic crust. Moreover, the  $SO_2$  ligand which becomes the dominant sulfur species at the expense of H<sub>2</sub>S in the oxidized fluid might also form soluble complexes with chalcophile metals and, thus, further facilitate their mobility.

To estimate major and trace element compositions of the slab-derived fluid, we used the available data on trace element partitioning between slab and fluid, and eclogite mineral and fluid (Table 3). The estimated composition of the slab-derived fluid is enriched in Pb and alkaline earth elements relative to REE (Fig. 3). The calculated contents of Sr, Au, Cu, Zn, Pb and Mo in the slab-derived fluid overlap those of the aqueous fluid in equilibrium with the Mt. Pinatubo dacitic magma at high-pressure conditions (Fig. 4, Table 2 and Table 3). These findings support the idea that the saturation of the Mt. Pinatubo adakitic melt with metalbearing fluid promoted the enrichment of the adakitic magmas in gold and associated metals and H<sub>2</sub>O (Table 2). <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>87</sup>Sr ratios approaching 0.704 in the Mt. Pinatubo adakitic magmas (e.g., Bernard et al., 1996) are typical of the oceanic slab (McCulloch and Gamble, 1991), and their high Sr/Y ratio (between 45 and 48) could indicate that the chemistry of these magmas was controlled by supercritical fluids rich in Sr and derived directly from the dehydrated oceanic slab.



Table 3. : Major and trace element compositions of subducting oceanic slab (MORB and sediments), slab-derived fluid, and adakite magma



<sup>a</sup> Average unaltered MORB data are from: Sun et al. (2004) for Au; Hertogen et al. (1980) for Zn, Sb and Au; Doe (1994) for Cu, Pb; Jochum and Verma (1996) for Sb, Pb. Sr, Y and LREE; Hofmann (1988) for major elements, La, Ce; Onishi and Sandell (1955) for As; Au and Sb are in ppb. <sup>b</sup> Maximal contents of major and trace elements in altered MORB and MORB glasses are after Alt and Emmermann, 1983, Frey et al., 1974, Humphris and Thompson, 1978a, Humphris and Thompson, 1978b and Staudigel et al., 1981 for major elements, Cu, Sr, Y, LREE and Pb; Jochum and Verma (1996) for La, Ce, Pr, Pb and Sb; Pichler et al. (1991) for Mo, Sr; Böhlke et al. (1981) for H2O, Cu and Zn; Onishi and Sandell (1955) for As; Nesbitt et al. (1987) for Au; Au and Sb in ppb.  $\degree$  The global subducting sediment composition (GLOSS) is after Plank and Langmuir (1998); model sediment data for As, Sb and Mo (in ppm) are from Noll et al., 1996 and Onishi and Sandell, 1955; Au (in ppb) is after Crocket et al. (1973). <sup>d</sup> The slab composition is estimated as 5 wt% sediment (GLOSS), 5 wt% altered MORB and 90 wt% unaltered MORB; enrichment factors is maximal ratios of slab concentrations to the those those of fresh MORB. MORB. <sup>e</sup> Composition of slab-derived fluid (or supercritical fluid) is after Tatsumi and Kogiso (1997) for Cl, H<sub>2</sub>O, Na<sub>2</sub>O, K<sub>2</sub>O, Sr, Y and Pb; the fluid composition is calculated after slab composition and slab/fluid partitioning for Pb, Sr, Y, La and Ce of Ayers (1998) and eclogite/fluid partitioning of Brenan et al. (1995) for Pb and Sr; H<sub>2</sub>O-rich component of Stolper and Newman (1994) for Cl, Cu, Zn and Pb is also used; Au (ppb) contents in amphibolite-derived fluid are after Loucks and Mavrogenes (1999); As, Sb, Mo,  $f$  Adakite magma composition is major and trace element (La, Ce, Sr and Y) composition of Cenozoic adakites after Drummond and Defant (1990) and H<sub>2</sub>O content is after Prouteau et al. (1999); Chalcophile element contens are average of those of young adakite-like magmas related to ore deposits (González-Partida et al., 2003 and Qu et al., 2004).

### **4.3. Concluding remarks: Ore-forming potential of adakite magmatism**

Oxidizing conditions above  $NNO + 1$  during the high-pressure and pre-eruptive crystallization stages of the Mt. Pinatubo magma caused the predominance of sulfate over sulfide in the hydrous magmas. In turn, this limited the segregation of chalcopyrite and promoted Au- and associated Cu, Zn, Pb, As and Sb-enrichment in the residual adakite melts. A limited amount of titanomagnetite crystallized under the Mt. Pinatubo high-pressure conditions (Prouteau and Scaillet, 2003), explaining why the adakite magma was finally enriched in Zn and Mo (e.g., Hedenquist and Lowenstern, 1994).

The Mt. Pinatubo hydrous adakite melts were fluid-saturated and had peraluminous compositions with  $A/NK > 1.0$ . Other high-Al adakitic magmas related to Au/Cu and Cu/Mo mineralization are peraluminous as well. Most of these magmas contain early phenocrysts of hydrous minerals such as hornblende and biotite, implying early magma saturation with an aqueous fluid (Sajona and Maury, 1998). The peraluminous composition of the adakitic magmas favors the concentration of metal into an aqueous fluid phase. Although the soft chalcophile metals (Au, Cu) are known to form very stable complexes with reduced sulfur ligands  $(SO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S)$ , the effective scavenging of sulfur from melt and fluid due to abundant anhydrite crystallization rendered sulfide complexes less abundant than those with chloride which was present at much higher concentrations. Thus, the aqueous chloride-rich fluids liberated upon magma differentiation could have efficiently extracted hundreds of tones of metals with the potential to create a hydrothermal ore deposit (auriferous porphyry copper deposit or epithermal gold veins), provided that the residual magma was not erupted and that the necessary conditions for subsequent ore deposition prevailed (e.g., Loucks and Mavrogenes, 1999).

In the Philippines adakitic magmas related to Au/Cu deposits are located in the volcanic fronts of the subducting zones. The petrogenesis of the adakitic magmas was largely controlled by fluid-present melting of the subducting slab; and their location in the volcanic front is likely due to liberation of slab-derived aqueous fluids. Thus, the Mt. Pinatubo adakitic magmas are enriched in H<sub>2</sub>O, Au, Cu, Zn, Pb, Mo, As, Sb, Sr, LREE and Cl due to an important contribution of deep slab-derived fluids.

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