RESEARCH ARTICLE



# The 2012–2016 eruptive cycle at Copahue volcano (Argentina) versus the peripheral gas manifestations: hints from the chemical and isotopic features of fumarolic fluids

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Abstract This study presents the chemical and isotopic compositions of hydrothermal gases from fumaroles discharging around Copahue volcano (Argentina). Gas samples, including those from two fumaroles at the active summit crater, were collected during 13 surveys carried out by different research teams from 1976 to February 2016. The time-series of  $H_2$ , CO and light hydrocarbons showed episodic increases related to the main events of the last eruptive cycle that started on 19 July 2012. Concentration peaks were likely caused by enhanced input of hot magmatic fluids affecting the hydrothermal reservoir. These data contrast with the temporal variations shown by  $Rc/Ra$  and  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> values in 2012–2014, which indicated an increasing input from a crustal fluid source. In 2015–2016, however, these isotopic parameters showed opposite trends; their composition became closer to that of the two summit fumaroles, which possibly corresponds to that of the deep magmatic-related end-member. The delayed and reduced compositional changes in the peripheral hydrothermal fluid

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discharge in response to the 2012–2016 eruptive events suggest that geochemical surveys of these emissions are unlikely to provide premonitory signals of volcanic unrest if the volcanic activity remains centered in the main crater. Instead, an instrument which is able to provide measurements of volcanic gases in the air (e.g. MultiGAS) may be used to detect changes at the summit crater. Otherwise, monitoring of seismic activity and ground deformation, as well as the periodic measurement of the chemistry of the water in the Rio Agrio, which is fed by thermal discharge from the summit crater, seem to represent the most reliable means of monitoring at Copahue. However, the relative compositional stability of the hydrothermal reservoir is a great advantage in terms of geothermal resource exploitation and could encourage new investments in the Copahue geothermal project which was abandoned in the 1990s.

Keywords Geochemical monitoring  $\cdot$  Copahue volcano  $\cdot$ Fluid geochemistry . Hydrothermal system . Active volcano

# Introduction

Fumarolic gases discharging from hydrothermal reservoirs hosted in quiescent volcanoes carry sensitive compounds (e.g.  $H_2$ , CO, CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O) that provide the means for investigating the chemical-physical conditions of the deep environment (e.g. Giggenbach [1987,](#page-12-0) [1996](#page-12-0); Chiodini and Marini [1998](#page-12-0)). Noble gas isotopic signatures are useful tracers for identifying fluid source regions, especially in subduction zones (e.g. Poreda and Craig [1989](#page-13-0); Giggenbach et al. [1993;](#page-12-0) Fischer et al. [2002;](#page-12-0) Hilton et al. [2002,](#page-12-0) [2010;](#page-12-0) Shaw et al. [2003;](#page-13-0) Sano and Fischer [2013\)](#page-13-0). Accordingly, fluid discharge is periodically monitored to assess the degassing behavior of magmatic bodies (e.g. Menyailov et al. [1986;](#page-13-0) Tassi et al. [2016\)](#page-13-0) and changes in volcanic activity (e.g. Chiodini et al.

[1995;](#page-12-0) Fischer et al. [1996,](#page-12-0) [2015](#page-12-0); Symonds et al. [1996;](#page-13-0) Vaselli et al. [2010](#page-13-0); Melián et al. [2012](#page-13-0)). On the other hand, innovative remote sensing techniques, able to continuously acquire chemical data of gases, provide valuable insights into the behavior of active volcanoes and eruption forecasting (e.g. Aiuppa et al. [2009\)](#page-12-0). Although the monitoring of magmatichydrothermal fluids has for many decades been considered a robust prognostic tool for detecting rejuvenation of volcanic activity (e.g. Stoibert and Rose [1970](#page-13-0)), it is not surprising that long-term geochemical time-series datasets are available for only a relatively small number of volcanic systems. This is particularly true for volcanoes located in developing countries, where logistic and economic problems often hinder the development of long-term research projects, which are frequently operated and funded by western countries.

The geochemistry of fluids discharged from geothermal wells and natural emissions located in the surroundings of the main cone of Copahue volcano (Argentina) has been investigated since the 1970s within the framework of geothermal exploration projects carried out by private companies (Mas and Mas [2016](#page-13-0) and references therein). Geochemical studies were performed on this system from 2006 to 2012, with the aim of constructing a comprehensive conceptual geochemical model describing the primary fluid sources and the secondary processes controlling the chemistry of the fluid discharge (Agusto et al. [2013](#page-12-0); Tassi et al. [2016](#page-13-0)). A new eruptive cycle, which began on 19 July 2012 (after 12 years of quiescence), was characterized by occasional phreatic and phreatomagmatic eruptions (Caselli et al. [2016a\)](#page-12-0); it promoted further surveys, providing the opportunity to upgrade and improve the geochemical database of fluids emitted from this volcano.

In this paper, we present both new and previously published chemical and isotopic ( ${}^{3}$ He/<sup>4</sup>He and  $\delta^{13}$ C in CO<sub>2</sub>) data for gases from the main fluid discharge sources of Copahue volcano. This unique geochemical dataset covers, albeit discontinuously, a 40-year observation period (from 1976 to 2016) and is used to describe the relationships between the ongoing volcanic activity and the temporal evolution of the hydrothermal reservoir feeding the surficial emissions. In addition, the chemistry of two fumaroles sampled in March 2013, which are currently to the best of our knowledge the only available gas samples from the volcano's summit crater, is also reported.

#### Geological and volcanological settings

Volcanism in the Southern Andean Volcanic Zone (SAVZ) is related to the subduction of the Nazca Plate beneath the South American Plate (Pesicek et al. [2012](#page-13-0) and references therein). Copahue volcano belongs to the Caviahue-Copahue Volcanic Complex (CCVC, 38°S-71°W; Argentina-Chile) that is located at the transition between the southern strike-slip Liquiñe-Ofqui and the northern compressive Copahue-Antiñir Fault systems (Fig. [1a](#page-2-0)) (Cembrano et al. [1996,](#page-12-0) [2002;](#page-12-0) Stern [2004;](#page-13-0) Radic [2010\)](#page-13-0). Early Pliocene basaltic-andesitic eruptions associated with extensional and/or transtensional processes ended in the latest Pliocene-early Pleistocene, with the formation of a series of calderas which discharged large amounts of ignimbrite (Folguera et al. [2016\)](#page-12-0). The construction of the CCVC volcanic edifice, which has an elongated NE-SW shape and lies on basement consisting of volcanic sequences belonging to the Cola de Zorro Formation, began  $\sim$  1.23 Ma in the western sector of one of the Caviahue Caldera. This relatively young stratovolcano was intruded by the 1 Ma dacitic Pucón Mahuida dome, whose volcanic products were covered by pre-glacial lavas, ignimbrites and tuffs (1–0.7 Ma; Copahue Stage 1) and syn- and post-glacial pillow lavas (700–15 ka; Copahue Stage 2). Volcanic products of Copahue Stage  $3 \leq 15$  ka) consist of lavas erupted from post-glacial vents located along the northern slope and the highest, most easterly crater of the stratocone (Melnick et al. [2006\)](#page-13-0).

The 200 m-wide easternmost crater of the Copahue summit, which has nine N60°E-aligned craters, has experienced 13 phreatic and low-magnitude phreatomagmatic eruptive episodes over the last 260 years in 1750, 1759, 1867, 1937, 1944, 1960, 1961, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 2000 and 2012– present (Caselli et al. [2016b](#page-12-0) and references therein).

## The 2012–2016 eruptive cycle

Precursory signals for the 2012–2016 eruptive cycle mainly consisted of enhanced high- and low-frequency seismic activities, which followed the Mw 8.8 Maule earthquake (February 27, 2010) (Forte et al. [2012](#page-12-0)). At the end of 2011, a 200–300 m-high column of dense vapor was produced by the summit crater, followed by a progressive increase in seismic signals (INPRES, Araujo, personal communication). Significant changes in temperature, pH and chemical composition of the hyperacidic lake located within the summit crater were also recorded. On 17 July 2012, a small-scale phreatic explosion from the crater lake was observed, followed two days later by phreatomagmatic eruptions that produced a small E-SE-oriented plume of about 18 km in length (Caselli et al. [2016a](#page-12-0)). In August–November 2012, the fumarolic activity in the summit crater was persistently intense, causing a decrease in the lake water level of  $\sim$  20 m. On 22 December 2012 at 12:05 (GMT), an 800 m-high white vapor column was emitted from the active crater that, in a few hours, caused the complete evaporation of the crater lake. Ash columns and incandescent material which was distributed over an area of  $\sim 8700 \text{ km}^2$  to the SE were produced during the following phreatomagmatic and strombolian eruptions

<span id="page-2-0"></span>

Fig. 1 (a) Schematic map of the northern transitional and central segments of the Southern Andean Volcanic Zone with location of the main active volcanoes and Caviahue-Copahue Volcanic Complex

(Petrinovic et al. [2014;](#page-13-0) Caselli et al. [2016a](#page-12-0)). In 2013, no significant volcanic events were observed. This pause allowed, by the end of 2013, the refilling of the crater lake, although its volume was significantly smaller than that recorded before the summer of 2012. This period of quiescence lasted until July 2014, when a phreatic explosion generated lahars on the eastern flank of the volcanic edifice. In early October 2014, the lake once again dried out due to the occurrence of a phreatomagmatic eruption with the emission of ash and volcanic bombs, containing sulfur particles and quenched liquid sulfur, respectively (Caselli et al. [2016a](#page-12-0) and references therein). In January–February 2015, the presence of a new crater lake was observed. In October 2015, a strong phreatomagmatic to magmatic eruption occurred. After this event, a small new crater lake, which was still present during the sampling fieldtrip carried out in February 2016, formed again.

(CCVC); (b) map of CCVC area with location of the gas sampling sites (modified from Agusto et al. [2013](#page-12-0))

# Conceptual model of the Copahue hydrothermal-magmatic system

Varekamp et al. [\(2004](#page-13-0), [2006\)](#page-13-0) suggested that a magmadominated brine was feeding the crater lake, the latter receiving fluids from a magma batch at  $\sim$  4–5 km depth (Velez et al. [2011](#page-13-0)). The strong relationship between (a) the lake's geochemical features and volume and (b) the rate of magmatic gas inputs was recently confirmed by Agusto and Varekamp [\(2016\)](#page-11-0), who based their assessment on 15 years (1997–2012) of periodical observations. The release of magmatic fluids from the Copahue crater even during periods of quiescence was confirmed in March 2013 by both the analysis of two crater fumaroles, included in the present paper, and a variety of in situ and remote sensing measurements carried out in March 2014, which identified a plume released from the crater lake which was discharging up to  $\sim$  1400 t/day of SO<sub>2</sub> (Tamburello et al. [2015\)](#page-13-0).

There are five distinct areas around the volcanic edifice, where thermal fluid emissions, consisting of fumaroles and boiling-bubbling water and mud pools occur: Las Máquinas (LM), Las Maquinitas (LMM), Termas de Copahue (PC), Anfiteatro (AF) and Chancho Co (CC) (Fig. [1b](#page-2-0)). The origin of the fluids discharged from these peripheral emissions was firstly investigated within the framework of geological, geochemical and geophysical surveys carried out since 1974 for a preliminary evaluation of the area's geothermal potential (Jurío [1977](#page-12-0); Panarello et al. [1988](#page-13-0); Panarello [2002](#page-13-0); JICA [1992](#page-12-0)). The chemical and physical characteristics of fluids from four wells drilled at different times (1976, 1981 and  $1998$ )  $\sim$  5 km NW of the volcano summit (Mas and Mas [2016](#page-13-0) and references therein) indicated the occurrence of two main hydrothermal aquifers located at 800–1000 and > 1400 m depth. The latter had a temperature of up to 250 °C, as also confirmed by geothermometric estimations in the  $H_2O-CO_2-CH_4-C_3H_6-C_3H_8$  system (Tassi et al. [2016](#page-13-0)). This multi-layer peripheral reservoir was found to have been produced by the interaction between magmatic gases and meteoric water (Agusto et al. [2013\)](#page-12-0). This process is responsible for (a) the dissolution of strongly acidic gases from magma degassing  $(SO<sub>2</sub>, HCl$  and HF) and (b) the production of the typical hydrothermal gases, i.e.  $H_2$ ,  $H_2S$ , CO, CH<sub>4</sub> and light hydrocarbons.

## Gas sampling and analytical methods

Gas samples were collected from selected fumaroles (LM, LMM, PC, AF and CC) in the five main hydrothermal areas (Fig. [1](#page-2-0)b). No fumarolic emissions had been seen at the summit crater over the last few decades, due to the presence of the crater's lake. However, in March 2013, the lake almost completely dried out due to the high discharge rate of magmatic fluids, allowing access to the crater bottom, where two fumaroles (CR1 and CR2) were sampled (Tamburello et al. [2015\)](#page-13-0).

The sampling and analytical procedures adopted for the gases constituting the new dataset (from December 2012 to March 2016) were similar to those used to produce most of the previous data (from November 2006 to March 2012; Agusto et al. [2013\)](#page-12-0). The gas sampling line consisted of a 1 m-long titanium tube ( $\varnothing$  = 2.5 cm) and Pyrex glass-dewared pipes connected to pre-weighted and pre-evacuated 50-mL glass Thorion®-tapped flasks filled with 20 mL of a 4 N NaOH and  $0.15$  M Cd(OH)<sub>2</sub> suspension (Montegrossi et al. [2001\)](#page-13-0). This technique allows  $SO<sub>2</sub>$  to be separated in situ and then dissolved in the alkaline solution with water vapor and acidic gases  $(CO<sub>2</sub>, HCl, HF)$ . The  $H<sub>2</sub>S$  forms insoluble CdS, whereas low-solubility gas species  $(N_2, O_2, CO, H_2, He, Ar, CH_4$  and light hydrocarbons) are trapped in the flask headspace. Steam condensates (for the analysis of the  $\delta^{18}$ O and  $\delta$ D ratios in

water vapor) and dry gases (for the analysis of the  $^{13}C/^{12}C$ ratios in  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  and He isotopes) were collected using a watercooled condenser connected to the soda flask sampling line.

Inorganic ( $N_2$ , Ar,  $O_2$ , H<sub>2</sub>, He and CO) and organic ( $C_1-C_3$ ) hydrocarbons) gases from the flask headspace were analyzed at the Laboratory of Fluid Geochemistry of the University of Florence (Italy) by gas chromatography (GC Shimadzu 15A, Shimadzu 14 and Thermo Focus). The liquid and the solid phases of the suspension were separated by centrifuge, to analyze for  $CO_2$ ,  $SO_2$ , HCl and HF, in the form of  $CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>$  (by acidimetric titration, AT; Metrohm Basic Titrino),  $SO_4^2$ <sup>-</sup>,  $Cl^-$  and F<sup>−</sup> (by ion chromatography, IC; Metrohm 761), respectively. The CdS precipitate was dissolved by oxidation with  $H_2O_2$  in order to analyze  $H_2S$  as SO4 <sup>2</sup><sup>−</sup> by IC. The analytical error for GC, AT and IC analyses was  $< 5\%$ .

The analysis of <sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C of CO<sub>2</sub> (expressed as  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> % vs. V-PDB) was carried out at the CNR-IGG laboratory of Stable Isotopes (Pisa, Italy) using a Finnigan MAT252 mass spectrometer after standard extraction and purification procedures of the gas mixtures (Evans et al. [1998](#page-12-0)) performed at the Department of Earth Sciences of Florence (Italy). Carrara and San Vincenzo marbles, as well as international NBS18 and NBS19 standards, were used to estimate the external precision. The analytical error and the reproducibility were  $\pm$  0.05 and  $\pm$  0.1‰, respectively.

The  $R/Ra$  (where R is the <sup>3</sup>He/<sup>4</sup>He measured ratio and Ra is the <sup>3</sup>He/<sup>4</sup>He ratio in the air 1.39  $\times$  10<sup>-6</sup>; Mamyrin and Tolstikhin [1984](#page-13-0)) and  ${}^{4}$ He $/{}^{20}$ Ne ratios were determined at the INGV laboratories in Palermo (Italy) by separately introducing He and Ne into a split-flighttube mass spectrometer (GVI Helix SFT) after performing standard purification procedures (e.g. Rizzo et al. [2015](#page-13-0)). The analytical error was  $\pm$  1%. The measured  $R/Ra$  values were corrected for air contamination using the  ${}^{4}$ He/ ${}^{20}$ Ne ratios (Poreda and Craig [1989\)](#page-13-0), as follows:

$$
Rc/Ra = [(R/Ra)-r]/(1-r)
$$
\n(1)

where  $r = ({}^4\text{He}^{\prime20}\text{Ne})_{\text{air}}/({}^4\text{He}^{\prime20}\text{Ne})_{\text{meas}}$ , the  $({}^4\text{He}^{\prime20}\text{Ne})_{\text{air}}$  ratio being that in the atmosphere (0.318; Ozima and Posodek [1983\)](#page-13-0) and the  $(^{4}$ He/<sup>20</sup>Ne)<sub>meas</sub> ratio that measured in the gas sample.

The  $^{18}O/^{16}O$  and  $^{2}H/^{1}H$  ratios of water vapor (expressed as  $δ$ <sup>18</sup>O-H<sub>2</sub>O and δD-H<sub>2</sub>O ‰ vs. V-SMOW, respectively) were analyzed at the Department of Physics and Earth Sciences of the University of Parma (Italy) using a Thermo-Finnigan HDO equilibrator coupled to a Thermo-Finnigan Delta Plus mass spectrometer with double entry system. The analytical errors were  $\pm$  0.05 and  $\pm$  1‰ for  $\delta^{18}$ O-H<sub>2</sub>O and  $\delta$ D-H<sub>2</sub>O, respectively.

#### Results

#### Chemical composition

Outlet temperatures, chemical composition (dry fraction) and steam concentrations (in mmol/mol for the main species, in  $\mu$ mol/mol for all hydrocarbons except CH<sub>4</sub>) of the fumarolic gases collected from December 2012 to March 2016 are reported in Table [1.](#page-5-0) Data from the literature for gases collected from the emissions in 1976 (Jurío [1977](#page-12-0)), 1986 (Panarello [2002](#page-13-0)), 1997 (Martini et al. [1997](#page-13-0)), November 2006– March 2012 (Agusto et al. [2013\)](#page-12-0) and January 2014 (Tardani et al. [2016](#page-13-0)) are also listed in Table [1.](#page-5-0)

The LM, PC, AF and CC fumaroles were characterized by outlet temperatures  $\leq 97$  °C, whereas those of LMM ranged from 130 °C (in 1986) to 160 °C (in March 2012). The CR1 and CR2 outlet temperatures were 431 and 102 °C, respectively. The chemical composition of the five distal discharges was typical of hydrothermal fluids (e.g. Giggenbach [1987](#page-12-0); Chiodini and Marini [1998\)](#page-12-0), mainly consisting of water vapor  $\geq$  960 mmol/mol) with a dry gas fraction dominated by  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ (up to 974 mmol/mol) and variable concentrations of  $H_2S$  (2.5) to 155 mmol/mol),  $N_2$  (3 to 169 mmol/mol),  $H_2$  (1 to 105 mmol/mol) and CH<sub>4</sub> (0.68 to 55 mmol/mol). He, Ar and CO were present in minor amounts (up to 0.089, 0.31 and 0.018 mmol/mol, respectively). The  $C_2-C_3$  hydrocarbons, whose total content was up to 52 μmol/mol, mostly consisted of ethane  $(C_2H_6$ , up to 47  $\mu$ mol/mol) and propane  $(C_3H_8, \text{ up})$ to 5.1 μmol/mol), with minor concentrations of propene  $(C_3H_6,$  up to 0.0081  $\mu$ mol/mol).

The chemical features of the CR1 and CR2 fumaroles were very different compared to those of the hydrothermal-type emissions, since the former were characterized by (a) significant concentrations of magmatic-related acidic gases, such as  $SO<sub>2</sub>$  (165 and 120 mmol/mol, respectively), HCl (5.1 and 3.8 mmol/mol, respectively) and HF (2.9 and 2.6 mmol/mol, respectively); (b) relatively low concentration of  $CH_4$ ,  $C_2H_6$ and  $C_3H_8$  (< 0.5 mmol/mol and  $\leq$  0.66 and  $\leq$  0.012  $\mu$ mol/mol, respectively) and (c) presence of ethene  $(C_2H_4; 0.13$  and 0.11 μmol/mol, respectively).

# $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> and *Rc/Ra* values

The  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub>,  $Rc/Ra$ , <sup>4</sup>He/<sup>20</sup>Ne,  $\delta^{18}$ O-H<sub>2</sub>O and  $\delta$ D-H<sub>2</sub>O values of the fumarolic gases collected from December 2012 to March 2016 are reported in Table [2.](#page-7-0) In addition to the literature data from the authors cited above, isotopic data for one gas sample collected in 2003 (Varekamp et al. [2006](#page-13-0)) are also included.

The  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> values ranged from − 9.6 to − 6.7‰ vs. V-PDB, with no significant differences between the different gas emissions. On the contrary, the Rc/Ra values of the LM, LMM, PC and CR1 gases were higher (5.89 to 7.96) with respect to those of the AF and CC gases (4.04 to 5.35). The high  ${}^{4}$ He/<sup>20</sup>Ne ratios (23 to 2445) indicate that the effect of air contamination on the  $Rc/Ra$  values was negligible. The  $\delta^{13}C-$ CO<sub>2</sub> value of the CR1 fumarole (−  $9.6\%$  vs. V-PDB) was at the lowest limit of the range shown by the hydrothermal discharges ( $-6.9$  to 9.6‰ vs. V-PDB), whereas its  $Rc/Ra$  value (7.75) was one of the highest measured at Copahue volcano.

The values of  $\delta^{18}O-H_2O$  and  $\delta D-H_2O$  in the condensate samples of LM, LMM, CC, AF and PC ranged from  $-11.8$ to  $-8.2\%$  and from  $-92$  to  $-75\%$  vs. V-SMOW, respectively, with the only exception being the AF gas sample collected in March 2012 that had more negative values (− 17.9 and − 109‰ vs. V-SMOW, respectively). On the contrary, the CR1 and CR2 fumaroles showed less negative values (− 3.5 and  $-$  66‰ and  $-$  3.6 and  $-$  70‰ vs. V-SMOW, respectively).

## **Discussion**

#### Temporal evolution of the chemical composition of the gas

Hydrothermal systems typically occur around active volcanoes, since they are produced by the interaction of hot fluids released from the magmatic bodies and shallow aquifers. This process implies that the most reactive magmatic volatiles  $(SO<sub>2</sub>, HCl and HF)$  dissolve when entering the liquid reservoir. Thus, they are commonly not identified in the hydrothermal fluid discharges. However, increasing inputs of heat and magmatic gases are expected to cause a strong perturbation in the hydrothermal-magmatic system, allowing the most soluble species, although partially scrubbed, to be released from the fumarolic discharge. Accordingly, geochemical monitoring of fumarolic fluids, including those from peripheral hydrothermal-type emissions, may record precursory signals related to physical-chemical changes occurring at depth prior to a new phase of volcanic activity. This was the case at Turrialba volcano (Costa Rica), where  $SO_2$  was firstly detected in low temperature fumaroles of the summit craters in September 2001, after three consecutive years of observations. This event was interpreted as being precursory to a volcanic crisis (Tassi et al. [2004](#page-13-0)), which actually happened almost 10 years later (Vaselli et al. [2010](#page-13-0)) and is still ongoing (de Moor et al. [2016a\)](#page-12-0). Similarly, in the four months following the impressive gas burst that occurred on 3 November 2002 (Capaccioni et al. [2005](#page-12-0)), the submerged fumaroles located next to Panarea Island, a dormant volcano in the Aeolian Archipelago (southern Italy), discharged  $SO_2$ -bearing gases that had never previously been detected in these fumaroles (Capaccioni et al. [2007](#page-12-0) and references therein), revealing the temporary consumption of the liquid-dominated aquifer feeding the submarine fumarolic field likely due to a magmatic gas pulse from depth. On the other hand, experimental

<span id="page-5-0"></span>



Table 1 (continued)

(continued)

(Capaccioni et al. [2016](#page-12-0)) and empirical (Tamburello et al. [2015;](#page-13-0) de Moor et al. [2016b](#page-12-0)) investigations, as well as theoretical computations (Symonds et al. [2001](#page-13-0)), have demonstrated that magmatic gas dissolution in liquid water can be negligible at low pH and relatively high temperature. Hence, the occurrence of significant compositional changes in the hydrothermal emissions of Copahue volcano during the new eruptive cycle which started in 2012 was taken seriously. On the contrary, no clues of the typical magmatic gases  $SO<sub>2</sub>$ , HCl and HF were detected in the investigated distal fumaroles during the whole observation period, whereas these gases were found in significant concentrations in the fluids at the two summit crater fumaroles (Table [1\)](#page-5-0). Therefore, the geothermal aquifers surrounding the volcano efficiently scrubbed these highly soluble gases after the 2012 eruptive activity, despite the fact that the magmatic input at the root of the aquifer was likely increasing (Tassi et al. [2016](#page-13-0)). The outlet temperatures of most fumaroles were at the boiling point of water at the vent altitude, being likely controlled by the presence of a liquid phase at shallow depth  $\sim$  90 °C; Table [1](#page-5-0)). Thus, it is not surprising that they remained constant during the observation period, apart from those at LMM, where a superheated steam ( $T > 100$  °C) showed a significant temperature increase (20–25 °C; Table [1](#page-5-0)) in March– December 2012.

The concentrations of  $H_2S$  in all the investigated hydrothermal fluid discharges did not follow any specific temporal trend (Fig. [2](#page-8-0)a). Similarly, CH <sup>4</sup> showed wide variations randomly distributed in time (Fig. [2b](#page-8-0)). The N 2/Ar ratios oscillated around that measured at the CR1 fumarole, mostly ranging between those of air and a deep component (DC) (Fig. [2](#page-8-0)c), the latter having an  $N_2/Ar$  ratio up to 3500 (Agusto et al. [2013](#page-12-0)) likely related to sediments derived from the slab rather than continental crust (Tardani et al. [2016](#page-13-0)). Thus, no evident effects related to the last eruptive phase were shown by the behavior of  $H_2S$ ,  $CH_4$ ,  $N_2$  and Ar, at least with this sampling frequency. Molecular hydrogen is commonly used as a geo-indicator to estimate temperature and redox conditions regulating the chemistry of hydrothermal fluids, since it reacts rapidly to physical and chemical changes (e.g. Giggenbach [1987\)](#page-12-0). Prior to February 2007, the H 2 concentrations were relatively low and constant, whereas in March 2012, a first concentration peak was observed, followed in January 2013 by a second peak, which only occurred at CC, LM and PC. The March 2013 – March 2014 period was marked by decreasing trends, whereas a new phase of increase was recorded during the last two years of observation (Fig. [2d](#page-8-0)). A relationship between the  $H<sub>2</sub>$  temporal patterns and the main phreatic and phreatomagmatic eruptive events is clearly shown, especially considering that the gas discharges displayed synchronous variations. The January 2013 peak and the sharp increase during the last observation period were also found

<span id="page-7-0"></span>**Table 2**  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> (‰ vs. V-PDB),  $Rc/Ra$ , <sup>4</sup>He<sup>20</sup>Ne,  $\delta^{18}$ O-H<sub>2</sub>O (‰ vs. V-SMOW) and  $\delta$ D-H<sub>2</sub>O (‰ vs. V-SMOW) values, and CO<sub>2</sub>/<sup>3</sup>He of the CCVC gas discharges. References (1)–(5) as in Table [1;](#page-5-0) (6) Varekamp et al. [\(2006\)](#page-13-0)

Acronym	Reference	Date	$\delta^{13}$ C-CO <sub>2</sub>	Rc/Ra	$\mathrm{^4He/^{20}Ne}$	$CO_2$ <sup>3</sup> He( $\times$ 10 <sup>9</sup> )	$\delta^{18}$ O-H <sub>2</sub> O	$\delta$ D-H <sub>2</sub> O
${\rm LM}$	$\overline{c}$	1986					$-10.6$	$-85$
${\rm LM}$	6	2003	$-8.3$	7.50	729			
${\rm LM}$	$\overline{4}$	$Nov-06$	$-8.2$	7.72	1898	3.3		
LM	4	Feb-07	$-8.8$					
${\rm LM}$	$\overline{4}$	$Mar-12$	$-7.3$	7.04	1215	6.2	$-11.2$	$-90$
${\rm LM}$		$Dec-12$	$-6.9$	6.67	115	$8.5\,$		
${\rm LM}$		$Jan-13$	$-7.1$	6.48	333	9.6		
${\rm LM}$		Mar-13	$-7.9$	6.43	485	8.9	$-8.6$	$-76$
${\rm LM}$	5	$Jan-14$	$-$ 8.0 $\,$	7.52	68	$8.2\,$		
${\rm LM}$		Mar-14	$-8.6$	7.60	571	7.5	$-10.6$	$-87$
${\rm LM}$		$Mar-15$	$-9.6$	7.65	1025	5.9	$-10.7$	$-90$
LM		Feb-16	$-9.4$	7.71	845	$6.2\,$	$-10.3$	$-92$
<b>LMM</b>	2	1986					$-10.8$	$-84$
${\rm LMM}$	$\overline{4}$	$Nov-06$	$-7.7$	7.94	1679	3.1		
${\rm LMM}$	$\overline{4}$	$Mar-12$	$-7.1$	6.97	1330	5.2	$-10.8$	$-88$
${\rm LMM}$		$Mar-13$	$-7.8$	5.89	354	$\ \, 8.0$	$-8.8$	$-78$
<b>LMM</b>		$Mar-14$	$-8.2$	7.67	420	$8.1\,$	$-10.5$	$-90$
${\rm LMM}$		$Mar-15$	$-8.3$	7.71	644	6.7	$-10.8$	$-91$
${\rm LMM}$		Feb-16	$-\,8.1$	7.68	512	5.7	$-10.6$	$-92$
${\rm P}{\bf C}$	6	2003	$-8.3$	7.60	1228			
${\rm P}{\bf C}$	4	$Nov-06$	$-7.7$	7.36	1957	1.5		
${\rm P}{\bf C}$	$\overline{4}$	$Mar-12$	$-7.0$	7.01	1048	$8.8\,$	$-11.8$	$-91$
${\rm P}{\bf C}$		Mar-13	$-6.7$	6.79	505	$8.5\,$	$-8.2$	$-80$
${\rm P}{\bf C}$		$Mar-14$	$-7.5$	7.74	785	$8.1\,$	$-9.8$	$-88$
${\rm P}{\bf C}$		$Mar-15$	$-8.2$	7.96	1045	$4.0\,$	$-9.9$	$-89$
${\rm P}{\bf C}$		Feb-16	$-8.7$	7.94	913	5.2	$-9.6$	$-86$
$\rm AF$	$\overline{4}$	Feb-07	$-6.8$	5.01	2445	$1.4\,$		
$\rm AF$	$\overline{4}$	$Mar-12$	$-7.0$	4.93	1996	4.3	$-17.9$	$-109$
$\rm AF$		$Mar-13$	$-7.6$	4.63	23	7.7	$-8.6$	$-79$
$\rm AF$		$Mar-14$	$-8.5$	5.12	216	$8.4\,$	$-8.5$	$-80$
$\rm AF$		$Mar-15$	$-8.5$	5.09	254	6.8	$-8.7$	$-82$
$\rm AF$		Feb-16	$-$ 8.8 $\,$	5.16	217	$7.5\,$	$-8.5$	$-83$
CC	4	Feb-07	$-8.3$	5.02	914	3.8		
$\rm CC$	$\Lambda$	$Mar-12$	$-8.1$	4.04	1058	8.5	$-8.6$	- 89
$\rm CC$		$Dec-12$	$-7.8$	4.21	144	12		
$\rm CC$		$Jan-13$	$-8.3$	4.07	84	9.0		
$\rm CC$		$Mar-14$	$-8.8$	5.35	75	9.1	$-8.3$	$-78$
$\rm CC$		$Mar-15$	$-9.3$	5.12	217	7.5	$-8.2$	$-75$
$\rm CC$		Feb-16	$-9.2$	5.22	186	6.8	$-8.4$	$-77$
CR1		Mar-13	$-9.6$	7.75	458	$3.0\,$	$-3.5$	$-66$
CR <sub>2</sub>		$Mar-13$	$-9.5$				$-3.6$	$-70$

in the CO concentrations (Fig. [2e](#page-8-0)) and the  $C_3H_6/C_3H_8$  ratios (Fig. [2f](#page-8-0)). These data suggest that the magmatic pulses likely causing the volcanic events at Copahue volcano also affected the hydrothermal system, increasing its temperatures and, consequently, enhancing the formation of both  $H_2$ , CO and  $C_3H_6$ . The significant temperature increase that affected the hydrothermal reservoir in 2015–2016 is clearly shown in Fig. [3,](#page-9-0) where the redox independent gas geothermometer proposed by Chiodini and Marini ([1998](#page-12-0)) is reported.

<span id="page-8-0"></span>

Fig. 2 Time-series of (a)  $H_2S$ , (b) CH<sub>4</sub>, (c) N<sub>2</sub>/Ar, (d) H<sub>2</sub>, (e) CO, and (f)  $C_3H_6/C_3H_8$  from 1976 to February 2016 of gases from the LM (red line), LMM (blue line), PC (green line), AF (yellow line) and CC (magenta line) fluid discharges. The main phreatic (dash-dotted line) and

# Temporal evolution of the  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub>, Rc/Ra,  $\delta^{18}$ O-H<sub>2</sub>O and  $\delta$ D-H<sub>2</sub>O values

The Copahue fluids are marked by a high He isotopic ratio (Varekamp et al. [2006](#page-13-0); Agusto et al. [2013\)](#page-12-0). It is the highest one measured in the SAVZ (Tardani et al. [2016](#page-13-0) and references therein) and fits into the MORB field  $(8 \pm 1 \text{ Ra})$ ; Farley and Neroda [1998;](#page-12-0) Graham [2002](#page-12-0)). This peculiar feature is likely related to crustal attenuation and upwelling of mantle asthenosphere caused by the transtensional tectonics that caused the

phreatomagmatic (dash line) eruptions, as well as the CR1 fumarole (black dotted line), are also reported. In (c), the  $N_2/Ar$  ratios of air and a deep component (DC) are also depicted

CCVC pull-apart basin (Folguera et al. [2007\)](#page-12-0). As highlighted by Agusto et al. [\(2013\)](#page-12-0) and Tassi et al. ([2016](#page-13-0)), the CC and AF gases are characterized by a relatively high degree of crustal contamination, possibly due to shallow fluids permeating through the normal fractures affecting this sector of the volcano (Folguera et al. [2016\)](#page-12-0). In March 2012, i.e. just before the last eruptive cycle, the Rc/Ra values progressively decreased in all the investigated fluid discharges. In March 2013, the  $Rc/Ra$  values were 1–2 units lower than those measured in 2003–2007, whereas since March 2014, synchronous

<span id="page-9-0"></span>

**Fig. 3** Log[( $X_{\text{CO}}/X_{\text{CO2}}$ ) – log( $X_{\text{H2}}/X_{\text{H2O}}$ )] vs. 3log[( $X_{\text{CO}}/X_{\text{CO2}}$ ) +  $log(X_{\rm CO}/X_{\rm CH4})$ ] binary diagram for the CCVC fumaroles. The theoretical values for a single saturated vapor phase (vapor) and single saturated liquid phase (liquid) are shown. Gases are grouped on the basis of their sampling date: 2012–2014 (red squares); 2015–2016 (blue triangles)

increasing trends have been recorded. In February 2016, the Rc/Ra values were comparable to, or even higher than, those measured prior to 2012 and those of CR1 (Fig. 4a). The simultaneous variations of the  $Rc/Ra$  values in the studied fumaroles are further evidence for a common deep source of He, notwithstanding the relatively high crustal contamination shown by the gases from CC and AF with respect to the other hydrothermal fluid discharges.



Fig. 4 Time-series of (a)  $Rc/Ra$  and (b)  $\delta^{13}C\text{-}CO_2$  (‰ vs. V-PDB) from 2003 to February 2016 of gases from the CCVC fumaroles. Symbols as in Fig. [2](#page-8-0)

Contrasting temporal patterns were given by the  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> values, which in 2012 were significantly less negative than those from 2003 to 2007, apart from at AF where the carbon isotope composition in  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  showed a decreasing trend over the whole observation period (2007–2016). From 2013, the  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> values of the LM, LMM and CC discharges also started to decrease, whereas the PC fumarole showed an increasing trend that lasted until March 2013 and then abruptly decreased. The  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> values in 2015–2016 were the lowest among those measured for these five fumaroles (Table [2\)](#page-7-0), approaching those of CR1 and CR2 (Fig. 4b).

The  $Rc/Ra$  and  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> temporal patterns (Fig. 4a,b) produced two distinct trends in the  $CO_2$ <sup>3</sup>He vs.  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> binary diagram (Fig. [5\)](#page-10-0): trend A, including those gases that were marked by significant  $CO_2$ <sup>3</sup>He and  $\delta$ <sup>13</sup>C-CO<sub>2</sub> increases in  $2006-2013$ ; and trend B, delineated by the gases whose  $CO_2$ <sup>3</sup>He and  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> values, after the period of increase, progressively approached those measured in 2006–2007. An enhanced degassing of the hydrothermal reservoir may theoretically produce an increase in the  $CO_2$ <sup>3</sup>He ratio, due to the higher  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  solubility in water with respect to that of He (CRC) [2001\)](#page-12-0). If we assume that this process was related to the eruption occurring at the active crater, then the increase in the reservoir temperature, suggested by the behavior of the gas species most sensitive to temperature changes (Fig. [2](#page-8-0)), is not surprising. However, an increasing rate of gas release from the hydrothermal reservoir would decrease the gas-liquid  ${}^{13}C^{-12}C$ fractionation, leading to a decrease in  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> values (Deines et al. [1974\)](#page-12-0) towards the CR1–CR2 values, i.e. the opposite of what is observed in 2012–2014 (Fig. 4b). Hence, this process cannot completely explain trend A.

As far as trend  $B$  is concerned, an increase in magma degassing causes a preferential loss of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  with respect to He, the latter having a higher solubility in the melt than the former, thus producing gases characterized by a progressive decrease in both the  $CO_2$ <sup>3</sup>He and  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> values (Javoy et al. [1978;](#page-12-0) Hilton et al. [1998](#page-12-0)). This would explain, at a first approximation, the changes of these two parameters which occurred after 2014 (Fig. [5](#page-10-0)). An enhanced contribution of magmatic gases is consistent with the increase in the Rc/Ra values observed in 2015–2016 (Fig. 4a), but it seems to be in contradiction with the Rc/Ra decrease observed in 2012– 2014, when the last intermittent eruptive cycle, representing the clearest expression of renewed magmatic activity, had already begun. The  $Rc/Ra$  evolution unequivocally indicates that in 2012–2014 the hydrothermal fumaroles received a significant contribution of crustal-type fluids. Overall, the occurrence of an anomalous input of  ${}^{4}$ He- and  ${}^{13}$ C-rich fluids to the hydrothermal fumaroles in 2012–2014 is the only hypothesis able to reconcile the variations in  $Rc/Ra$ ,  $CO_2$ <sup>3</sup>He and  $\delta^{13}C$ - $CO<sub>2</sub>$  values, although it is in apparent contradiction with the evolution of the volcanic activity. Differential SAR Interferometry (DInSAR) measurements showed that, after a

<span id="page-10-0"></span>



long deflation phase (Velez et al. [2011](#page-13-0)), Copahue volcano underwent an inflation process from February 2011 to at least January 2013 (no data are available afterward) (Veléz et al. [2016\)](#page-13-0). This inflation, which was interpreted as being related to magma input into the deep (7.5–9 km) chamber that likely promoted the 2012–2016 eruptive cycle, may have caused tensional stress at the surface, favoring the permeation of shallow fluids that affected the chemistry of the uprising hydrothermal gases. The mixing between deep and shallow components, a process that is also responsible for the relatively low Rc/Ra values characterizing the CC and AF fumaroles (Table [2\)](#page-7-0), almost completely masked the increasing heat released from the magmatic system to the root of the hydrothermal reservoir until 2014. The  $H_2$ , CO and  $C_3H_6/C_3H_8$  peaks shown in January 2013 by most fumaroles (Fig. [2](#page-8-0)e–f) were likely caused by the enhanced interaction between the magmatic and hydrothermal fluids. The opposite trends shown by the  $Rc/Ra$  and  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> values in 2012–2013 (Fig. [4a](#page-9-0),b, respectively) may have an alternative explanation. Under the stress related to the intense seismic activity that occurred prior to the 2012 eruptive events, crustal  $(^{4}$ He- and  $^{13}$ C-rich) fluids may have been released, a process that is commonly considered as being precursory to earthquakes (Khilyuk et al. [2000\)](#page-13-0). Strong variations in He isotopes associated with seismic crisis have also been described by other authors (e.g. Padron et al. [2013\)](#page-13-0). The inversion of the  $Rc/Ra$  and  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> trends which occurred in 2013 (Fig. [4](#page-9-0)a,b) indicates that the crustal gas contribution (from permeation of shallow fluids and/or gases released from crustal rocks) started to decrease, allowing the progressive increase of the magmatic gas fraction. Accordingly, the  $Rc/Ra$ ,  $CO_2$ <sup>3</sup>He and  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> values characterizing the hydrothermal discharges in 2006–2007, as well as the CR1 fumarole, were almost completely restored in 2015–2016. Further evidence for this process is the remarkable increase in  $H_2$  $H_2$  and CO concentrations (Fig. 2e,d) and C3H6/C3H8 ratios (Fig. [2f](#page-8-0)). It is worth noting that CR1 showed a  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> value which was more negative than the lower limit of the range of values for both MORB and high-temperature volcanic gases  $(-6.5 \pm 2.2 \text{ and}$  $-5.5 \pm 2.2\%$  vs. V-PDB, respectively; e.g. Sano and Marty [1995;](#page-13-0) Sano and Williams [1996\)](#page-13-0), and a  $CO_2$ <sup>3</sup>He ratio lower than that related to global arc-like values  $(1.5 \pm 1.1 \times 1010)$ ; e.g. Sano and Williams [1996\)](#page-13-0). Hence, assuming that the chemical features of this high-temperature fumarole (sampled in March 2013) approached those of the magmatic fluids, the latter seem to have suffered a certain degree of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ -He and  $13^1$ C- $12^1$ C fractionation processes, which were likely produced by the enhanced magma degassing related to the 2012 eruptive events. Evidences of magmatic fluids in the hydrothermal discharges were also traced by the  $\delta^{18}$ O-H<sub>2</sub>O and  $\delta$ D-H<sub>2</sub>O values. When only those of the March 2012 samples were considered, they provided an indication of 18O enrichment caused by water-rock interaction processes (Fig. [6](#page-11-0); Agusto et al. [2013\)](#page-12-0). On the contrary, according to the new complete dataset, a convergence with the CR1 and CR2 samples was shown (Fig. [6](#page-11-0)), suggesting a significant contribution of andesitic water (Taran et al. [1989;](#page-13-0) Giggenbach [1992](#page-12-0)).

# **Conclusions**

The geochemical monitoring carried out over the last 40 years at Copahue volcano, although discontinuous, has provided useful insights into the mechanisms regulating the chemical

<span id="page-11-0"></span>

Fig. 6  $\delta^{18}$ O-H<sub>2</sub>O (‰ vs. V-SMOW) vs.  $\delta$ D-H<sub>2</sub>O (‰ vs. V-SMOW) binary diagram of gases from the CCVC fumaroles. In the inset, the binary diagram is reported at different  $x$  and  $y$  scales. The isotopic compositions of local meteoric water (MW), the Global Meteoric Water Line (GMWL; Craig [1961](#page-12-0)) and the "andesitic" water field (Taran et al. [1989;](#page-13-0) Giggenbach [1992](#page-12-0)) are also reported. Hydrothermal fumaroles: red circle; active crater fumarole: black square

and isotopic changes that affected the hydrothermal fluid discharges during the  $2012-2016$  eruptive cycle. The H<sub>2</sub> and CO concentrations, as well as the ratio between the  $C_3$  alkenealkane pair, showed occasional peaks (in March 2012, January 2013 and in 2015–2016; Fig. [2](#page-8-0)), indicating episodes of disturbance of the fumarolic fluids in correspondence with the main volcanic events that occurred at the active crater. The behavior of these geochemical parameters revealed that the enhanced input of hot magmatic fluids at the root of the hydrothermal reservoir related to the volcanic activity produced, albeit with a time delay, a detectable signal at the surface. On the contrary, the temporal evolution of the  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub>, Rc/Ra and  $CO_2$ <sup>3</sup>He values in 2006–2014 was unexpected, since they clearly indicated a significant decrease in the magmatic fluid contribution over a period in which several eruptions occurred. The two most reliable hypotheses for this behavior are based on (a) the effect of the inflation process, affecting the volcano since early 2011, on ground permeability that favored the mixing between the uprising hydrothermal fluids and a shallow  $^{13}$ C-rich and  $^{3}$ He-poor end-member and (b) an enhanced release of gases from crustal rocks associated with the earthquakes that occurred prior to the 2012 eruptive activity. Only since 2013 have the  $\delta^{13}$ C-CO<sub>2</sub> and *Rc/Ra* values evolved towards a progressive increase in the magmatic component.

Overall, the interpretation of this large time-series of geochemical data highlighted that the hydrothermal fluids discharged from the peripheral vents did not show any

precursory signals of the new incoming eruptive phase; heat and magmatic gases were efficiently buffered by the hydrothermal reservoir. Hence, the compositional changes of the fluids discharged at the surface were smoothed and delayed. Moreover, a frequent (e.g. monthly) sampling of these gases is difficult due to the adverse meteorological conditions that characterize the area for most part of the year. To forecast rejuvenation of volcanic activity, which in this volcano typically occurs at the active crater (Caselli et al. [2016b\)](#page-12-0), the installation of a geophysical array (Caselli et al. [2016c](#page-12-0) and references therein) combined with ground deformation measurements from satellites (Veléz et al. [2016](#page-13-0)), as well as geochemical monitoring of the stream (namely Rio Agrio) fed by the hot and hyperacidic springs located close to the rim of the active crater (Agusto and Varekamp 2016), seems the most appropriate approach. A MultiGAS instrument could be placed at the summit crater rim to provide medium-to-longterm (on the scale of months) data series of selected geochemical parameters (e.g.  $CO<sub>2</sub>/Ar$ ,  $H<sub>2</sub>/Ar$ ), possibly able to detect changes in the volcanic gas emission rate from the central degassing system even during quiescent periods. On the other hand, the relative stability of this hydrothermal system, persisting even during a volcanic crisis, represents a fundamental advantage for geothermal exploitation, which may cause renewed interest in this resource following the first promising attempts carried out over the past few decades. However, the increase in  $H<sub>2</sub>$  and CO concentrations and that of the  $C_3H_6/C_3H_8$  ratio observed after March 2015 deserves particular attention. A new period of unrest at Copahue volcano followed by new volcanic events may indeed significantly modify the geochemical composition of the peripheral gas emissions since in this case the presence of magmatic fluids in these discharges cannot be completely ruled out. Consequently, periodic geochemical monitoring should be performed independent of further developments of geothermal projects.

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