# **Travertines of the Northern Caucasus**

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**Abstract**—Mineralogical and isotope-chemical characteristics of carbonate travertines of the Greater Caucasus are investigated. It is shown that concentrations of many chemical elements, which predominantly precipitate together with iron hydroxides, decrease along the strike of the travertine dome. At the same time,  $\delta^{13}C$  and  $^{18}O$ values in carbonates systematically increase due to kinetic effects of isotope fractionation. This leads to the formation of isotopically heavy calcite ( $\delta^{13}C$  up to 16.3‰) near the travertine dome base. Concentrations of other elements (Mg, Sr, Ba, Na, S, and Li), which form a isomorphic part of calcite crystal lattice, almost do not change along the strike of the dome. Comparison of concentrations of these elements in travertines and initial water solutions makes it possible to get ideas on trends of their redistribution in the carbonate–water system. Correlations found in this work define not only TDS content and concentration of some ions, but also REE spectra and formation temperatures of ancient fluid systems.

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Travertines (or calcareous tufas) are carbonate sediments formed in places of groundwater discharge. They are most frequently encountered in the fields of development of cold and thermal  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ -rich (sometimes with  $N<sub>2</sub>$ ) mineral waters.

Travertines are of interests from different points of view. It is known that cold and thermal  $CO_2$ -rich and  $N_2$ - and CO<sub>2</sub>-rich waters are related to mobile belts of the Earth, i.e., to the regions with high activity of tectonomagmatic processes (Disler, 1971). Therefore, the findings of travertine domes or their fragments in ancient sediments can mark the periods of tectonomagmatic activation. Travertine accumulations can also be considered a source of information about paleoseismic events that are not recorded by other methods (Disler and Avtandilova, 1991; Zilberman *et al.,* 2000). During strong earthquakes, fractures and displacements appear on the surface of travertine cones. After the earthquake, mineral spring vents frequently change their position, giving rise to new travertine domes. Investigation of travertines also allows us to reconstruct the chronology of paleoclimatic events (Poage *et al.,* 2000).

However, travertines are most interesting as the basis for paleohydrogeological reconstructions. They form predominantly by the chemogenic process. Therefore, we can expect that they inherit some chemical and isotopic ( $\delta^{13}C_{CO_2}$  and  $\delta^{18}O_{H_2O}$ ) peculiarities of the initial gas–water solutions. The fluid regime can vary with time (we understand the term "fluid regime" as a complex of physicochemical characteristics of gas–water fluid (chemical and isotopic compositions of waters and gases, temperature of water formation, and so on) that can change depending on conditions of fluid circulation in the Earth's crust). In this case, travertines (and, possibly, vein bodies as well) remain the unique sources of information about ancient fluids. However, in order to use travertines in this capacity, we should know the pattern of redistribution of chemical elements in the travertine–water system and the scale of natural variations in their isotope-chemical composition along the strike of travertine dome.

Travertines of mineral waters in the Greater Caucasus were studied just from these positions.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

More than 40 recent travertine domes are known in the Greater Caucasus. In the central sector of this mountain system, all travertine domes are related to issues of  $CO_2$ -rich waters; at the periphery (eastern and western Caucasus and Kura Basin), to the discharge of methane- and  $CO_2$ -rich fluids. The majority of travertine-accumulating springs are formed in Paleozoic and Mesozoic sediments (Fig. 1, Table 1). Travertines are seldom found at outcrops of Lower Paleozoic crystalline rocks in the core of the Greater Caucasus. They are more frequently confined to Paleozoic–Mesozoic sedimentary and volcanosedimentary complexes.

In general, areas of travertine domes in the Greater Caucasus are small (from tens to a few hundreds of square meters). The largest domes are known on the northern slope of the Greater Caucasus near Pyatigorsk (on slopes of Mt. Mashuk), in the vicinity of the Elbrus Volcano (Upper Tokhana Spring and Upper Baksan Settlement), near the Kazbek Volcano (Upper Karma-



**Fig. 1.** Distribution of travertines in the Greater Caucasus. (1) Outcrops of Paleozoic basement; (2–6) rock complexes: (2) Jurassic, (3) Cretaceous, (4) Paleogene, (5) Neogene, (6) Quaternary; (7) sites of travertine sampling; (8) sites of sampling (in insets): (*a*) travertines, (*b*) carbonate veins and limestones, (*c*) opalites.

don springs), and in Lashtrak (Pkhei or Kislye) spring area situated at upper reaches of the Bol'shaya Laba River. On the southern slope, large travertine domes are observed on the Kel'sk volcanic plateau (Suna and Britata springs).

In total, we investigated 37 mineral springs that accumulate travertines. Coordinates of the majority of sampling sites are given in Table 1. We also studied 21 samples of old travertines. A part of these samples was taken from ancient domes (in situ). Another part was taken from alluvial, terminal moraine, and slope deposits. The last group includes not only clastic carbonate travertines, but also hydrothermally altered rocks (opalites) an insignificant admixture of carbonates. For the sake of comparison, we also studied several fragments of carbonate veins from granite gneisses of the Main Ridge and Upper Cretaceous limestones of the eastern Caucasus.

Chemical composition of travertines was determined in acidic extracts by plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) with a PlasmaQuard device (VG, Great Britain) and plasma-emission spectrometry (ICP-AES) with an ICAP-61 device (Thermo Jarrel Ash, United States) at the Institute of Microelectronic Technology and Ultrahigh-Purity, Russian Academy of Sciences (IPTM, Chernogolovka). The acidic extract was prepared by dissolving weighed samples of ground carbonate (200 mg) in hot 10% hydrochloric acid. The weight of insoluble residue was recorded. It should be noted that not only calcium carbonates, but also iron hydroxides are transferred to the solution in this procedure.

The  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O values in CaCO<sub>3</sub> were determined in the same samples.  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  was separated in accordance with the standard method (McCrea, 1950) in orthophosphoric acid  $(H_3PO_4)$ . The isotopic composition was determined with a MI-1201V mass spectrometer. The accuracy of  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O determinations was 0.25‰. The  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O values are given in ‰ relative to the PDB and SMOW standards, respectively.

The chemical composition of travertine-depositing waters was also studied. The pH values, Cl and  $HCO<sub>3</sub>$ concentrations, and dry residue were determined in line with standard methods. Concentrations of the remaining components were determined in water samples con-

No. in Fig. $1$	Sample no.	Mineral springs (sampling site)	$N^{\circ}$	$\mathbf{E}^{\circ}$	Altitude, m
<b>Elbrus</b> area					
1	$8 - 2/01$	Irik-narzan Spring	43.26392	42.63558	2100
$\overline{2}$	176/99	Upper Baksan Settlement, nizhii narzan	43.31514	42.75667	1575
26	10/01	Upper Baksan Settlement, upper narzan	43.30444	42.73894	1538
6	17/98	Malka River, narzan	43.43344	42.47092	2200
7	$T-2/01$	Tokhana River, Upper Tokhana narzan	43.46864	42.44283	2709
10	K3/00	Kizilkol River, right bank, old travertine	43.43697	42.47889	2813
11	K4/00	Kizilkol River, right bank, well	43.43344	42.47092	2674
12	$K5-1/00$	Kizilkol River, right bank, old travertine	43.43536	42.47031	2804
13	K6/00	Kizilkol River, right bank, old travertine	43.43281	42.46414	2820
14	K7/00	Kizilkol River, right bank, narzan	43.43772	42.49981	2686
15	4/98	Biitiktebe River, upper narzan in riverbed, 200 m upstream of Dzhilysu	43.40372	42.35222	2632
16	7/98	Biitiktebe River, narzan, about 2.5 km downstream of Dhzilysu	43.41661	42.31317	2300
17	22/01	Uchkulanichi River, narzan in upper reaches	43.36089	42.09708	2515
18	17/01	Amankol River, old aragonite nodule	43.68072	42.25036	1700
19	20/00	Ingushli River, Lower Ingushli narzan	43.52875	42.52767	1997
20	7/01	Gerkhodzhan River, right tributary of Baksan River (Tyrnyauz area), old travertine	43.37364	42.95506	~1500
21	$148 - 4*$	Ullu-Kam River, upper reaches, travertine from terminal moraine	43.31814	42.39025	3130
<b>Opalites (Elbrus area)</b>					
22	$o-1/00$	Kizilkol River, opalite fragment from alluvium	43.40286	42.48317	2900
23	$o-2/00$	Terminal moraine of the Terskol Glacier, opalite fragment	43.30383	42.50964	3259
Northwestern Caucasus (upper reaches of the Verkhnyaya Laba River)					
28	29-2/01	Pkhiya River (Lashtrak and Kislye springs)	43.47906	40.91536	1860
<b>Northern Ossetia</b>					
29	23/99	Tanadon River, right tributary of the Urukh River, Kubus narzan	42.88311	43.59433	2061
30	33/00	Zrug-don River, Khasiev Spring	42.59369	44.00783	1805
31	$33 - 1/00$	Tsmiakom-don River (right tributary of the Ardon River), narzan	42.69622	43.99656	1785
32	35/00	Well Tib 1	42.67536	43.92403	1772
33	8/03	Chel'diev narzan	42.65000	43.81231	2069
34	9/03	Karta Spring	42.64917	43.80286	2206
35	10/03	Lower Zgil Spring	42.65406	43.82092	2058
36	13/03	<b>Bubu Spring</b>	42.67547	43.80519	2347
37	38-1/00	Upper Karmadon springs $(CO_2$ -rich)	42.75469	44.48094	2330
<b>Southern Ossetia</b>					
39	18-03	Sba Spring	42.57242	44.17303	1752
40	19-03	Suna Spring	42.60647	44.18986	2045
41	$26-03$	Lower Britata Spring (on the left bank)	42.52058	44.19461	1862
42	27-03	Upper Britata Spring (on the right bank)	42.50631	44.19025	1942
43	28-03	Middle Britata Spring (on the right bank)	42.51783	44.19761	1870
44	$31-03$	Kesel'ta Spring	42.48064	43.92644	1101
<b>Eastern Caucasus (Dagestan)</b>					
45	135/90	Thermal spring in the Adzhi Channel	42.33303	48.08553	$-15$
46	206/02	Berikei, Well 10 (A. Nobel)	42.25825	48.11861	$-9$
47	229/02	Kuan narzan, left bank of the Andiiskii Koisu River	42.40633	45.94975	1312
48	217/02	Left tributary of the Samur River, Chakh-Chakh Spring area, outcrop of old travertines	41.51017	48.09172	718
49	D6/02	Quarry near the Talgi Settlement, carbonate vein in Upper Cretaceous limestones	42.86661	47.46003	150

**Table 1.** Coordinates of some sites of travertine sampling

Note: \*Sample presented by V.M. Gazeev. The Caucasian term "narzan" designates "vigorously bubbling spring."



Fig. 2. PAAS-normalized REE distribution in  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ -rich waters of the Greater Caucasus. (1) Typical spectrum characterized by the growth of HREE concentrations (Uchkulanichi Spring no. 17); (2) spectrum with prominent Eu maximum (Irik-narzan Spring no. 1).

served with the nitric acid by the ICP-MS and ICP-AES methods in the chemical laboratory of the IPTM.

During the analysis of chemical compositions of travertines versus water interrelations, data on mineral waters and travertines from eastern Chukotka were also examined for the sake of comparison. In contrast to travertines of the Greater Caucasus, their counterparts in eastern Chukotka are formed exclusively from thermal waters (*T* from ~20 to 95°ë) (Cheshko *et al.,* 2004; Polyak *et al.,* 2004). These data permit the appraisal of the role of regional factors (temperature and salt composition) in the correlation of compositions of waters and travertines.

## GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF TRAVERTINE-DEPOSITING MINERAL SPRINGS OF THE GREATER CAUCASUS

In the Greater Caucasus, approximately  $300 \text{ CO}_2$ rich springs are known, but carbonates are precipitated in only a minor part of them (about 40). Almost all of the springs are cold  $(4-15^{\circ}C)$ . Higher temperatures  $(50–60\degree C)$  are noted only in the Verkhne-Karmadon (northern slope of the Kazbek Volcano) and Proval springs (Mt. Mashuk in the Caucasian Mineral'nye Vody area).

The travertine-depositing  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ -rich waters have a variable composition (*Uglekislye…*, 1963). Their TDS content changes from 1.5 to 12.9 g/l (average 2–4 g/l). These waters belong to  $HCO<sub>3</sub>-Ca$ , more rarely Cl–  $HCO<sub>3</sub>–Na–Ca$  types. Waters of travertine domes are distinguished from other  $CO_2$ -rich springs of the Greater Caucasus by higher concentrations of potassium (more than 200 mg/l) (Table 2).

Despite a relatively low TDS content, mineral waters of the Caucasus often contain high concentrations of the following elements: Li, Be, Fe, B, Si, Sr, Ba, and As (Lavrushin *et al.,* 2003a). Concentrations of rare earth elements in the waters are very low (frequently, below the limit of detection by the ICP-MS). Therefore, we can judge about their complete spectra only on the basis of separate analyses. The majority of REE spectra are rather uniform. They are characterized by relatively higher concentrations of HREE. The growth of concentration usually starts with Sm and Eu and continues up to Lu (Fig. 2). In general, these spectra are typical of waters saturated with carbon dioxide (Balashov, 1976).

However, REE distribution in waters from Irik-narzan no. 1 (hereafter, numbers of springs correspond to those in first columns of tables and in Fig. 1), Upper Tokhana no. 7, Sba no. 39, and Sunna no. 40 are distinguished by high Eu concentrations (Fig. 2). In contrast to other REEs, Eu can pass into bivalent state under reductive conditions and become more mobile. Therefore, one can expect that waters of these springs formed under highly reductive conditions, possibly, at the presence of  $H_2S$ . The other possible reason is leaching of Eu from Neogene–Quaternary volcanogenic rocks that crop out in the immediate vicinity of these springs.

### MORPHOLOGICAL AND MINERALOGICAL ZONATION OF TRAVERTINE BUILDUPS

The travertine domes represent a complex interrelation of chemogenic and biogenic formations. The chemogenic sediments are represented by carbonates and iron hydroxides; the biogenic ones, by colonies of blue-green and diatom algae. Travertines also often contain fragments of terrestrial plants (moss, tree leaves, and grass stems).

Carbonates and iron hydroxides are not simultaneously precipitated from mineral waters. Therefore, a certain mineralogical zonation is formed in sediments of travertine-depositing springs. Let us consider its peculiarities with travertine domes of the Upper Tokhana Spring (no. 7) as an example. Here, we can distinguish four consecutive zones located at different distances from the outlet of mineral waters on the surface.

*Zone of intense ferrugination (A)* is confined to the center of mineral water discharge and extends over a few tens of meters. The zone is characterized by intense precipitation of amorphous iron hydroxides that impart bright red-brown color to the discharge area.

Carbonates in this zone sporadically form only along the coastline or on stones rising above the level of mineral water. The thickness of carbonate crust does not exceed a few millimeters. The crust includes not only fine- and microcrystalline calcite, but also spicular crystals of aragonite that sometimes form radiatefibrous aggregates. They fill pores and caverns in carbonate crusts left after decayed algae (Fig 3a). Colonies







LAVRUSHIN *et al* .

142

LITHOLOGY AND MINERAL RESOURCES Vol. 41 No. 2 2006



**Fig. 3.** Photomicrographs of carbonate travertines. (a) Spicular crystals of aragonite (zone B); (b) micritic crystals of calcite (zone B); (c) zonal travertines (zone C); (d) macrocrystalline zonal travertines (zone D).

of blue-green algae are widespread near the spring. Their filaments are covered by a loose layer of iron hydroxides.

*Zone of ferrugination and incipient travertine formation (B)* is traced from the lower boundary of zone A over a distance of 10–15 m (approximately 15–30 m from the spring). In this zone, carbonate sediments start to form in the mineral water stream, and the rate of iron hydroxide precipitation decreases. Sediments of this zone are most frequently porous and loose (more rarely, sediments of medium compactness).

Calcium carbonates precipitate in this zone in all places. They are represented by microcrystalline, frequently micrite calcite (Fig. 3b). In numerous pores, probably left after algae films, interlayers and nests of spicular aragonite crystals are encountered. The darkbrown color of carbonates is related to iron hydroxides. Ferruginous sediments sometimes make up separate interlayers. The thickness of carbonate-ferruginous deposits on the stream bottom reaches a few centimeters and increases toward the lower boundary of the zone.

Thus, zone B is transitional between the mass precipitation zone of iron hydroxides (A) to the zone of intense travertine formation (C).

*Zone of intense travertine formation (C)*. This zone is characterized by the largest volume of travertine accumulation. Here, the travertines attain the maximum thickness (from a few to several tens of meters) and form the central part of the travertine dome. This zone is approximately 150 m long in the Upper Tokhana dome, and the maximum thickness of travertine accumulations can reach a few tens of meters.

In contrast to zones A and B, mineral water in Zone C spills in the form of a wide front on the dome surface, because the stream of mineral water is constantly blocked due to the intense settling of carbonates.

Here, carbonate sediments are bright and almost white (sometimes, slightly turned by iron hydroxides to yellow-orange, cream, or pink tints). The travertines are massive, hard, and distinctly zonal (Fig. 3c). Their surface is irregular and decorated with traces of the wave ripple type. The travertines are made up of elongate ingrowths of large calcite crystals separated by interlayers of fine-crystalline calcite. The alternation of such interlayers forms the zonation (layering) typical of travertines. Large calcite crystals have show wavy extinction. In cavities between crystals, one can see mineralized filaments of blue-green algae and diatom shells. Aragonite is absent in this zone.

*Zone of retarded travertine formation (D)* is located at the base of the travertine dome. This zone corresponds to the final stage of precipitation of calcium carbonate from water. On the Upper Tokhana dome, its boundary is recorded by the perceptible thinning of travertines to several meters. By this moment, the water is completely free of carbonate excess. Therefore, travertines are accumulated very slowly.

Compact zonal travertines are formed in zone D. The surface of dry travertines has yellow-orange color owing to iron hydroxides. Algae in the stream give them a green color. They differ from travertines of zone C by a higher rate of calcite crystallization: the crystals are larger and elongate, like in Zone C (Fig. 3d). Fragments and outcrops of old weathered travertine accumulations are frequently found at the foot of travertine dome. Aragonite is absent in this zone as well.

Analogous zonation can also be traced in other springs. However, sometimes the zonation is not completely manifested. This depends on many factors, such as the degree of water saturation with calcium carbonate, concentration of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  in water, temperature of water and ambient media, velocity of water flow, and others. If water has small concentrations of calcium (<250 mg/l), massive travertines (zones C and D) are not formed. For instance, the Upper Baksan (no. 26) and Uchkulanichi (no. 17) springs incorporate only thin algal–carbonate, intensely ferruginated crusts that cement terrigenous material on the stream bottom. In this case, one can talk only about incipient stages of travertine formation corresponding to zones A and B.

In thermal springs, such as the Proval Spring in Pyatigorsk (no. 27) and springs of the Verkhne-Karmadon area (no. 38), the travertine domes have a slightly different zonation. Because of high temperature, travertines begin to settle in them immediately, i.e., at outlets of mineral waters. Here, the zone of large-scale precipitation of iron hydroxides (A) coincides with the zone of massive travertines (C). Carbonates formed near the outlets of hot waters are often poorly crystallized and frequently characterized by the micritic structure. Layering in the travertines is less expressed and is documented only in lower parts of the travertine dome.

In general, the mineralogical investigations show that the bulk volume of the travertine dome is composed of calcite. Calcite crystals become larger toward the base of the dome. Aragonite precipitates sporadically and only near the spring, i.e., near the upper boundary of travertine formation (zones A and B). There is an impression that its crystallization postdates the travertine formation, because aragonite crystals are confined to pores in travertines and are absent on their surface.

### GEOCHEMICAL ZONATION OF TRAVERTINE DOMES

We investigated spatial variations of chemical elements in the travertine domes at the following springs: Upper Tokhana, Irik-narzan, and Lashtrak (Tables 3 and 4, nos. 7, 1, and 28). Here, we took travertine samples for chemical analysis at different distances from the outlet of mineral water.

Morphological zonation of the travertine dome is naturally reflected in the chemical composition of travertines. First of all, this concerns the relationship between iron hydroxides and calcium carbonates. Generally, precipitation of iron compounds from solutions starts (and finishes) earlier than that of carbonates. Therefore, the Fe content in travertines is an order of magnitude lower toward the base of the dome. This is accompanied by the simultaneous decrease in concentrations of many other elements. The majority of these elements (Mn, Ni, As, Zn, Cu, Cr, V, Sc, K, P, Si, Al, REE, Th, U, Cs, Zr, Y, Be, and Ba) precipitate together with iron hydroxides. Rates of their precipitation in sediments are different. For example, Th is removed from water more rapidly than U. Hence, despite the general trend of decrease of concentrations of these elements along the dome strike (i.e., away from the spring), the U/Th ratio does not remain constant and increases five to seven times near the base of the dome. The Sr/Ba ratio also changes in a similar way. For the same reason, the Fe/Mn ratio can be almost 10 times lower toward the base of the dome. Such a high variability of chemical composition and some geochemical coefficients makes them unfit for reconstruction of the initial fluid composition.

In contrast to Fe, Mn, Th, U, and Ba, concentrations of REE change synchronously (Table 4, nos. 1, 7, and 28). Therefore, Y/Ho, Yb/Ho, Sm/Ru, and other ratios virtually do not change along the strike of the travertine dome. Correspondingly, the REE spectra do not change either (Fig. 4).

Concentrations of Na, Li, Mg, Sr, and S show a more conservative pattern. They remain almost stable or even increase (Sr and S) toward the base of the dome (Table 3, nos. 1, 7, and 28). Correspondingly, ratios of their concentrations in different parts of the travertine dome remain practically constant. Therefore, only these elements can be used for the reconstruction of specific features of salt composition in initial waters.

### INTERRELATION OF CHEMICAL COMPOSITIONS OF CARBONATES AND WATERS

The aim of reconstruction of paleofluid regime is the determination of physicochemical characteristics of fluid: TDS content, predominant components of salt composition, redox conditions, temperature conditions of mineral precipitation, and base temperatures of water formation. We understand the "base" or "stratal"



**Fig. 4.** PAAS-normalized REE spectra of (1) water and (2–4) travertines from the Upper Tokhana Spring. Travertines were taken at different distances from the spring: (2) 25 m (Sample T-3/01, zone B); (3) 50 m (Sample T-4/01, zone C); (4) 250 m (Sample T-6/01, zone D).

temperature as the formation temperature of salt composition in watermass (at maximal depths of water circulation). This temperature depends on the water circulation depth and local geothermal conditions. Correspondingly, the base temperature is always higher than water temperature in the spring. Therefore, the base temperature is not equivalent to the temperature of travertine formation. To resolve the problems formulated above, we have several approaches, e.g., the analysis of fluid inclusions in secondary minerals, study of the paragenesis of authigenic minerals and their chemical composition, and others.

Disler and Konovalova (1989) attempted to reconstruct specific features of the chemical composition of mineral waters based on the composition of travertines at springs of the Pamir. In particular, they proposed to use the silica concentration and Fe/Mn ratio for the reconstruction of temperature and redox conditions of fluids. However, these works were not continued because of a limited number of determined components.

Having results of the polycomponent chemical analysis of travertines and waters (Tables 2 and 3) at our disposal, we obtained the possibility to analyze a wider spectrum of chemical elements.

Since the Cl concentration in carbonates was not determined, TDS content of waters can be inferred from the concentration of alkaline metals that are present as admixture. Sodium is most suitable for this purpose. In the salt composition of waters, Na often represents the dominating cation. Therefore, knowing its concentration in water, one can also roughly estimate the TDS content in the solution (Fig. 5).

Comparison of Na concentrations in water (Table 2) and travertines (Table 3) shows that this problem can be



**Fig. 5.** Relationship between Na and Cl concentrations in mineral waters of the Caucasus region.

resolved (Fig. 6a). Hence, using the regression equation cited in the figure, it is possible to calculate Na concentration in the solution and, finally, to obtain an idea about the degree of water mineralization (Fig. 5).

It should be noted that the most precise Na-based appraisal of mineralization can be made only for waters with the TDS content of more than 10 g/l (Fig. 5). If the TDS content is lower (especially, less than 2 g/l), scatter of data points increases and, consequently, the precision of TDS content determination diminishes. It is evident that the role of ions  $(Ca^{2+}, Mg^{2+}, HCO_3^-)$ , and  $SO_4^{2-}$ ) having larger molecular mass than Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> increases in weakly mineralized waters.

Thus, small changes in water mineralization (up to 100*n* mg/l) cannot be recorded by this method. It is evident that this method can only be used to distinguish carbonates formed from more contrast mineralized waters, i.e., with low  $(<2-3$  g/l), intermediate  $(3-$ 20 g/l), or high (more than 20 g/l) content of salts.

In addition to Na, Li can also be used for the determination of TDS content. Analogous correlations in the carbonate–water system are established for this element (Fig. 6b). However, results of the determination of water mineralization by this method seem to be less reliable.

Investigations of microcomponents in travertines make it also possible to get some ideas about the composition of host rocks. In this respect, Be is the most informative element. According to (Krainov *et al.,* 1966),  $CO_2$ -rich waters formed in crystalline rocks (granite gneisses) are characterized by a high Be concentration. The Be concentration in them sharply decreases when they contact with sedimentary rocks due to sorption on clay minerals.



**Fig. 6.** Comparison of concentrations of (a) Na, (b) Li, (c) Be, and (d) Mg in travertine (t) and water (w). (1) Cold  $CO_2$ -rich waters of the Caucasus; (2) thermal  $N_2$ - and  $CO_2$ -rich waters of eastern Chukotka.

In mineral waters of the Greater Caucasus, maximal Be concentrations (1 to 5–30  $\mu$ g/l) occur in CO<sub>2</sub>-rich waters of the Main Ridge confined to crystalline massifs of Lower Paleozoic granite gneisses. In  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ -rich waters of the Front Ridge and southern slope of the Greater Caucasus confined to Early–Middle Jurassic sedimentary complexes, the Be concentration sharply decreases to 0.05–0.5 µg/l. At foothills of the eastern and western Caucasus, Ciscaucasia, and Transcaucasia,  $N<sub>2</sub>$ -rich and methane waters formed in weakly lithified Mesozoic–Cenozoic are distinguished by even lower Be concentrations  $\langle 0.05 \mu g / \rangle$ . Hence, the correlation of Be concentrations in carbonates and waters can give an insight into the parental reservoir rocks.

Beryllium concentrations in the water–carbonate system have a ratio of approximately 1 : 1 (Fig. 6c). The Be concentration in the initial solution can be easily established on the basis of these estimations.

Analysis of the travertine–water system also allows the reconstruction of concentrations of other bivalent cations (Mg, Sr, and Ba) in the solution (Figs. 6d, 7a, and 7b). Similarly, one can appraise the sulfur concentration in water correlated with the concentration in travertine as approximately 1 : 10 (Fig. 7c). In mineral waters of the Greater Caucasus, sulfur in water is represented almost completely by sulfate ion  $(H_2S)$  is absent or its concentration is negligible). Therefore, these calculations provide ideas about the concentration of  $SO_4^{2-}$  ion in fluid.

Spectra of REE, which are present in water and travertines, are generally similar (Fig. 4). Like in  $CO_2$ -rich waters, the majority of travertine samples demonstrate a relative increase of normalized concentrations from Sm–Eu to Lu. Moreover, the maximum normalized concentration is found in travertines in the Eu-enriched regions, such as the Sba and Sunna springs of southern Ossetia (nos. 39 and 40, respectively). Correspondingly, one can use chemogenic carbonates for the reconstruction of REE distribution in initial solutions. It is evident that the REE distribution in waters can also be investigated on the basis of chemical compositions of iron hydroxides that accumulate in springs more frequently than travertines. However, this problem is outside the framework of our investigations. The issue of utilization of chemogenic carbonates for paleoreconstruction is also topical for mineral waters, because REE concentrations in them are frequently lower than the limit of detection by the ICP-MS method.

Thus, studying chemical composition of travertines, one can assess some specific features of salt composition of the initial fluid (Na, Li, Mg, S, Sr, Ba concentrations and TDS content) and the type of host rocks (based on the Be content).

Comparison of cold springs of the Caucasus and thermal waters of Chukotka (Figs. 6 and 7) shows that thermal and regional features of mineral waters generally do not affect the pattern of redistribution of chemical elements in the carbonate–water system. Magnesium is probably the sole exclusion (Fig. 6d). Hightemperature (50–95°C)  $N_{2}$ - and CO<sub>2</sub>-rich waters are especially prominent in the common group of data points. They are characterized by ultralow Mg concentrations (<10 mg/l). In contrast, warm (~20 $^{\circ}$ C) CO<sub>2</sub>rich waters of Chukotka and their sediments are similar to springs and travertines of the Caucasus in terms of Mg concentrations. In this case, not only temperature conditions of carbonate precipitation, but also regional features of salt composition in waters can play a significant role.

## POSSIBILITY OF THE USE OF TRAVERTINES FOR THE RECONSTRUCTION OF THE BASE TEMPERATURE OF FLUID GENERATION

Silica concentrations, as well as Li/Na, Li/Mg, and Na/K ratios in water solutions depend on temperature conditions of interaction in the water–rock system. Therefore, they are traditionally used as geothermometers for the determination of base temperatures of fluid generation of ground waters (Fournier and Truesdell, 1973; Fournier and Potter, 1979; Kharaka and Marner, 1989; Fouillac and Michard, 1981; and others). These geothermometers record the maximum temperature, at which fluid was formed in deep horizons of Earth's crust.

We have already discussed the problem of the choice of preferable geothermometer in our previous works devoted to the estimation of temperatures of fluid generation in mineral springs in the Elbrus and Kel'sk-Kazbek areas of the Greater Caucasus (Lavrushin and Polyak, 2001; Lavrushin and Makovozov, 2004). It was shown that the Na–Li geothermometer is more suitable for  $CO_2$ -rich waters of mountain regions, because the Si and Mg–Li temperatures can be distorted, e.g., due to the dilution of mineral waters with atmospheric precipitation. For more mineralized waters of sedimentary basins (>15 g/l), the Mg–Li geothermometer is more suitable for use (Lavrushin *et al.,* 2003b).



**Fig. 7.** Comparison of concentrations of (a) Sr, (b) Ba, and (c) S in travertine (t) and water (w). See Fig. 6 for legend.

We attempted to estimate the possibility of calculation of base temperatures of fluid generation from the data on chemical compositions of travertines.

Correlations for the water–carbonate system can be established almost for all chemical elements (Fig. 6) or their ratios (Figs. 8a–8c) involved in the calculations. This allows us to estimate concentrations of Li, Na,



**Table 3.** Chemical composition of carbonate travertines in the Greater Caucasus (concentrations are given in Table 3. Chemical composition of carbonate travertines in the Greater Caucasus (concentrations are given in µg/l)

LITHOLOGY AND MINERAL RESOURCES Vol. 41 No. 2 2006

148

LAVRUSHIN *et al*.

TRAVERTINES OF THE NORTHERN CAUCASUS 149





150

**Table 3.** (Contd.)

LITHOLOGY AND MINERAL RESOURCES Vol. 41 No. 2 2006



Table 3. (Contd.) **Table 3.** (Contd.)

![](_page_15_Picture_1114.jpeg)

Table 4. Concentrations of rare earth elements ( $\mu$ g/g) in travertines and vein carbonates of the Greater Caucasus  $\mu$ g/g) in travertines and vein carbonates of the Greater Caucasus **Table 4.** Concentrations of rare earth elements (

152

LAVRUSHIN *et al*.

LITHOLOGY AND MINERAL RESOURCES Vol. 41 No. 2 2006

![](_page_16_Picture_1122.jpeg)

![](_page_16_Picture_1123.jpeg)

LITHOLOGY AND MINERAL RESOURCES Vol. 41 No. 2 2006

**Table 4.** (Contd.)

Mg, and Si in the initial solution based on chemical compositions of travertines. The values obtained can be used in already known formulas for the calculations of base temperatures with the help of hydrochemical geothermometers (Fournier and Truesdell, 1973; Fournier and Potter, 1979; Kharaka and Marner, 1989; Fouillac and Michard, 1981, and others). The Na–K geothermometer is the sole exclusion, because the reconstruction of K concentration in solution based on the chemical composition of travertine does not give satisfactory results.

The base temperature of water formation can also be appraised by comparing values of Li/Mg, Li/Na or Si in travertines with values of base temperatures calculated from the available chemical analyses of water (Table 2). Analytical expressions that connect the calculated water temperature and ratios (or concentrations) of elements in travertines are given in Figs. 8d–8f.

Comparison of chemical compositions of travertines with base temperatures calculated from chemical analyses of cold and thermal waters of the Greater Caucasus and Chukotka shows that regional peculiarities of water composition formation and temperature conditions of travertine formation almost do not affect the estimates based on Na–Li and Li–Mg geothermometers (Figs. 8d, 8e). According to the Si geothermometer, springs in these two regions appreciably differ, particularly, high-temperature springs of Chukotka (Mechigmen springs, up to 95°C) (Fig. 8f). Hence, estimations of base temperatures based on the Si geothermometer are least precise.

The base temperatures determined for different parts of travertine domes in cold springs (Upper Tokhana, Irik-narzan, and Lashtrak) showed that they change along the strike of the travertine dome. This is particularly evident on a large dome of the Upper Tokhana Spring. Here, Na–Li and Mg–Li temperatures decrease almost by a factor of two from the summit to bottom of the dome. At the same time, water samples taken from the stream at different distances from the spring are virtually similar with respect to base temperatures. It is evident that estimations of base temperatures from travertine analyses are affected by the carbonate precipitation rate. If the precipitation is intense, the carbonates contain more admixtures (including Li and Na).

However, this trend is less prominent on small domes extending over a few tens of meters (Irik-narzan, Upper Baksan, and Lashtrak), and readings of geothermometers in upper and lower parts of the dome at a distance of up to 20–30 m are almost similar (the discrepancy does not exceed 5–15°C).

Thus, data on the chemical composition of travertines allow us to estimate the base temperatures of fluid generation. The best results can be achieved during investigations of small domes, whose size does not exceed a few tens of meters. As linear size of the dome increases, the precision of such estimations diminishes.

### PECULIARITIES OF ISOTOPIC COMPOSITION OF TRAVERTINES

The  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O values in travertines of the Greater Caucasus vary from  $-6.8$  to  $+16.3\%$  (average  $+ 5.8\%$ <sub>o</sub>,  $n = 66$ ) and from  $+16.4$  to  $+28.1\%$  (average  $+23.5\%$ <sub>0</sub>,  $n = 66$ ) respectively (Table 5). Thus, travertines are often appreciably heavier in terms of  $\delta^{13}$ C than marine carbonates  $(\sim 0\%)$ . Isotopically heavy carbonates are often encountered in travertines from other mountain systems: the Alps, Andes, Kamchatka, and others (Gonfiantini *et al.,* 1968; Chafetz *et al.,* 1991; Valero-Garces *et al.,* 1999; Naboko *et al.,* 1999). Isotopically light (in terms of  $\delta^{13}$ C) carbonates formed from waters with methane gas constituent are sharply different.

Isotopic characteristics of travertines are dictated by many factors, for instance, by isotopic composition of the initial carbon dioxide, temperature conditions of carbonate precipitation, and the rate of oversaturation of waters with calcium carbonates.

In springs of the Main Ridge of the Greater Caucasus,  $\delta^{13}$ C values in the spontaneous CO<sub>2</sub> change from –8 to −5‰ (Lavrushin *et al.,* 2001b). Virtually all carbonates are in disequilibrium with such carbon dioxide in terms of  $\delta^{13}$ C values. Generally, difference between  $\delta^{13}$ C values in  $CaCO<sub>3</sub>$  and  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  is 11–14‰, reaching in some cases 24‰ (Upper Tokhana Spring) (Table 5, no. 7).

Figure 9 shows that  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O values in carbonates are directly correlated both within the entire Caucasus region and in separate domes (Irik-narzan no. 1 and Lower narzan no. 2) in the Upper Baksan Settlement, Upper Tokhana no. 7, and Lashtrak no. 28). This can be explained by the mixing of fluids with different isotopic compositions of carbon and oxygen. The proposed hypothesis is valid for the explanation of changes in isotope characteristics of carbonates within the entire Caucasus region, i.e., it takes into consideration the regional variations in isotopic composition of the spontaneous  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  (Lavrushin *et al.*, 2001b, 2003a). However, this mechanism cannot be applied for the interpretation of  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O values in separate domes. In the last case, the mixing of fluids of different ages, which provoke intense variations in  $\delta^{13}C(O_2)$ , is unlikely. In the Elbrus area, carbon isotopic composition in the spontaneous  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  is rather stable both in area (–8 to  $-5\%$ ) and time. The range of variations  $\delta^{13}C(CO_2)$  values during the controlled sampling period does not exceed 0.5–1.0‰.

Sampling of travertine domes along the strike showed that  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O values always change regularly: with increasing distance from the center of mineral water discharge, carbon and oxygen isotopic compositions of carbonates become heavier (Table 5, nos. 1, 2, 7, 27–29, and 37). This trend is most prominent in the Upper Tokhana Spring (Figs. 10a, 10b). Here,  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O values change from +3.8 to  $+16.3\%$  and from  $+24.6$  to  $+28.1\%$ , respectively, over a distance of approximately 350 m.

![](_page_18_Figure_1.jpeg)

**Fig. 8.** Interrelations of values of (a) Li/Na, (b) Li/Mg and (c) Si concentration in travertine (t) and water (w) and their relationship with base temperatures of water formation calculated on the basis of (d) Na–Li, (e) Mg–Li, and (f) Si geothermometers. See Fig. 6 for legend.

Similar trends noted in travertine accumulations of the Yellowstone Park and Pyrenees were explained by kinetic effects of the fractionation of carbon and oxygen isotopes (Gonfiantini *et al.,* 1968; Friedman, 1970; Dandurand *et al.,* 1982).

A thermodynamic model of travertine formation was developed to test this hypothesis and appraise the scale of influence of C and O isotope fractionation on  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O values (Bychkov *et al.*, 2006). The calculations showed that the  $\delta^{13}$ C value in the water–cal-

# LAVRUSHIN *et al*.

![](_page_19_Picture_285.jpeg)

156

# **Table 5.** (Contd.)

![](_page_20_Picture_285.jpeg)

# **Table 5.** (Contd.)

![](_page_21_Picture_321.jpeg)

![](_page_22_Figure_1.jpeg)

**Fig. 9.** Oxygen and carbon isotopes in travertines of (1–6) the Greater Caucasus and (7) eastern Chukotka. (1–4) Samples from travertine domes: (1) Upper Tokhana; (2) Lashtrak; (3) Irik-narzan; (4) Upper Baksan, lower narzan; (5) isolated samples of travertines of the Greater Caucasus; (6) carbonates from mud volcano breccia of Taman Peninsula and Georgia; (7) travertines from thermal (20–95°C) springs of eastern Chukotka (Babushkiny Ochki, Lorino, and Mechigmen springs); (8) trends for series of samples (1–4); (9) area of data points for thermal springs of eastern Chukotka.

cite system is regulated exclusively by the process of isotope fractionation during the degassing of mineral water oversaturated with  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ . This process dominates and significantly exceeds the role of kinetic processes accompanying the precipitation of calcite from solution.

However, this model does not render the universal explanation for the variability of  $\delta^{18}$ O values. In the framework of this model, the  $\delta^{18}$ O value can increase only when carbonate precipitates at low temperatures  $(\sim 0^{\circ}C)$ . Considering significant altitudes (>1500–2000 m) of the majority of springs (Table 1), this probability does exist. At altitudes of more than 1500 m, the warm period (with average day temperature exceeding +5 to  $+10^{\circ}$ C) lasts only 3–4 months. However, all of the springs were sampled during the warm period (July– September), and carbonate chips were taken from sample surfaces for the isotope analysis of fresh travertines, whenever possible. Therefore, such explanation is unsatisfactory.

Another process that can provoke similar changes in  $\delta^{18}$ O can be water evaporation, which becomes particularly intense during summer periods and, probably, can partially or completely compensate the temperature effect of oxygen isotope fractionation in the carbonate– water system.

In general, analysis of variations in the carbonate isotopic composition in separate domes demonstrate

![](_page_22_Figure_8.jpeg)

**Fig. 10.** Variations in (a)  $\delta^{13}$ C and (b)  $\delta^{18}$ O values along the strike of travertine dome from the Upper Tokhana Spring (Northern Caucasus, Elbrus area).

that  $\delta^{18}$ O and, particularly,  $\delta^{13}$ C values can change within a wide range and increase toward the base of domes. The scale of these variations depends on the dome size. In large domes, such as Upper Tokhana, the maximal  $\delta^{13}C$  (CaCO<sub>3</sub>) value can reach 12.5‰.

Considering the data on other domes (Upper Baksan no. 2, Irik-narzan no. 1, and Lashtrak no. 28), the specific change of  $\delta^{13}$ C along the dome strike is roughly  $(0.3-0.6)$ % per each 10 m. The specific change of  $\delta^{18}O$ is sufficiently lower  $((0.08-0.1)\%$  per 10 m).

At first glance, these data show that natural variations in  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O values in the domes may be so large that they cannot be used for the reconstruction of  $\delta^{13}$ C in the initial CO<sub>2</sub> and all the more of paleoclimatic conditions (using  $\delta^{18}O$ ). First of all, this uncertainty concerns large travertine domes with an extent of more than 100 m. Here, carbonates from zones B and D would be the most contrasting in terms of isotopic composition. However, the bulk volume of  $CaCO<sub>3</sub>$  (~80–85 vol %) settles in Zone C, and precisely travertines from this zone are preserved for the longest period during the destruction of domes. Judging from the modeling data (Bychkov *et al.*, 2006), the range of  $\delta^{13}$ C variations in travertines of the central zone (C) is significantly lower  $(-4\%)$ than in the entire dome (12.5‰).

These data give an idea about the precision of reconstruction of isotopic composition of  $\delta^{13}C(CO_2)$  of fluid (apparently, not better than ±4‰ for large domes). For small domes, the precision of our estimations increases to  $\pm 2\%$ .

![](_page_23_Figure_1.jpeg)

**Fig. 11.** Ratio of (a)  $\delta^{13}$ C in travertine and spontaneous CO<sub>2</sub> and (b)  $\delta^{18}O$  in carbonate and altitudes of spring vents. (1) Cold  $CO_2$ -rich springs; (2) springs with increased TDS content of water; (3) Upper Karmadon thermal springs; (4) opalites; (5) line of trend (except for the Upper Tokhana Spring 7 in Fig. 11a); (6) field of data points for cold  $CO_2$ rich springs where  $\delta^{18}$ O values correlate with spring altitudes. Numbers in the figure correspond to numbers of sampling sites in the first column of Table 5.

Comparison of  $\delta^{13}$ C values in CO<sub>2</sub> and CaCO<sub>3</sub> shows that it is possible to establish the relationship between these two characteristics (Fig. 11a). However, the relationship will only be valid for small domes (with an extent of not more than 50–100 m) and cold springs.

Oxygen in travertines demonstrates a more conservative behavior, because its isotopic composition is buffered by water. The content of oxygen in water significantly exceeds the volume of 18O removed from the solution by  $CaCO<sub>3</sub>$  and  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ . Correspondingly, the  $\delta^{18}O$ value depends primarily on the isotopic composition of mineral water and temperature conditions of carbonate precipitation. Indeed, carbonates precipitating in thermal springs (Upper Karmadon and Proval) are distinguished by lower  $\delta^{18}$ O values (Table 5).

We do not have a sufficient number of determinations of  $\delta^{18}O$  in travertine-forming springs. Therefore, interrelation between the initial isotopic composition of water and  $\delta^{18}O$  (CaCO<sub>3</sub>) values can only be established by an indirect way. It is known that the share of atmospheric precipitation in the feeding of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ -rich springs of mountain areas of the Northern Caucasus makes up no less than 95 vol % of total water (Lavrushin *et al.,* 2001a, 2003a). Thermal activity related to centers of young volcanism does not significantly affect isotope characteristics of the springs. Therefore, the isotopic signature ( $\delta$ D and  $\delta$ <sup>18</sup>O) of mineral water may include traces of altitude zoning that is characteristic of atmospheric precipitation in mountain areas at different altitudes. Correspondingly, the shortage of determinations of  $\delta^{18}$ O in waters of travertine-depositing springs can be supplemented to a certain extent by the data on altitudes of water vents.

Indeed, if we compare the altitudes of spring vents and  $\delta^{18}$ O values in travertines, excluding thermal water flows and brackish springs at the Upper Baksan Settlement from the total sample array, the  $\delta^{18}$ O versus altitude relationship can be defined by a straight line for the remaining samples (Fig. 11b).

Thus, investigation of the isotopic composition of travertines from cold springs shows that  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O values generally depend on the isotopic composition of the initial carbon dioxide ( $\delta^{13}$ C) and  $\delta^{18}$ O value in water. However, because of kinetic effects of isotope fractionation,  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O values do not remain constant, but increase toward the base of travertine domes. In addition, the correlation of  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O values in the carbonate–water–carbonic acid system are significantly influenced by temperature conditions of carbonate precipitation. All these factors significantly lower the precision of reconstructions of the isotopic composition of initial gaseous–water fluids and sometimes make them impossible at all.

### PECULIARITIES OF PALEOFLUID REGIME IN SOME AREAS OF THE GREATER CAUCASUS

For the time being, we do not have a sufficient number of different-aged samples of carbonate material in order to compile an integral image of fluid regime variations at different stages of evolution of the Greater Caucasus. The majority of sampled travertines, with the exclusion of vein deposits from the Talgi quarry (Dagestan, eastern Caucasus, no. 49) and the Elbrus area (no. 24), are located in Quaternary sediments; i.e., they are young (in most cases, Holocene). Therefore, the samples studied can only provide insights into the degree of transformation of geochemical characteristics of mineral springs in the Caucasus during the Holocene–terminal Pleistocene.

### *Variations in the Chemical Composition of Water in Active Springs*

The tested mineral springs include some areas where travertine is not formed at present, but layers of old travertines are observed (Table 3, nos. 5, 19, 33, 39, 43, 46, and 48).

Estimations of the TDS content (based on Na and Li in travertines) show that, in many springs (Middle Shaukol no. 5, Chel'diev no. 33, Sba no. 39, and Middle Britata no. 43), the TDS content in waters, from which travertines precipitated (0.5–2 g/l), roughly corresponded to the present-day value (Table 2).

Only in a few cases, the calculated TDS content differed from the observed one. For example, estimation of the TDS content for the Lower Ingushli Spring (no. 19) shows that travertines here were formed from waters with a significantly higher TDS content (~20 g/l), relative to our sampling data (Table 2, no. 19,  $\sim$ 4 g/l). It is known that a highly mineralized spring (Spring no. 91, ~20 g/l) existed here until the 1930s (*Uglekislye…*, 1963). This spring was not detected during the testing in the 1950s–1990s, probably, because the vent was gradually overlapped by travertines. Thus, vents of freshened waters situated along the periphery of travertine accumulations were studied during the later testing.

Mineral spring no. 46 (Fig. 1), which appeared at the site of the emergency Nobel Well 20 (Berikei Settlement, southern Dagestan), yielded opposite values of the TDS content. Presently, brines with the TDS content of 72 g/l flow out here. Reconstruction of the salt composition shows that crusts of old travertines, which cover shores of the saline water body formed by the spring in some places, precipitated from less mineralized waters  $(\sim 9 \text{ g/l})$ . One can suppose that the sedimentary section contains several gas-saturated water reservoirs with different TDS contents and water compositions. Travertines precipitate only during the exposure of less mineralized waters, in which the gases include carbon dioxide (at present, methane predominates in the composition of spontaneous gases).

### *Travertines of Withered Springs and Opalites of the Elbrus Area*

Mineral springs of the Elbrus area were investigated in more detail than, for example,  $CO_2$ -rich springs on the southern slope of the Greater Caucasus (Kel'sk-Kazbek region). Therefore, the majority of findings of old travertines are apparently related to the Elbrus Caldera identified on the basis of geomorphological indicators (Bogatikov *et al.,* 1998a). Samples of carbonate-bearing material are rather diverse: some samples are taken from old travertine domes on the right bank of the Kizilkol River (Table 3, nos. 9–13), while other samples represent separate fragments of travertines (Tables 3 and 5, no. 21) and hydrothermally altered volcanics (opalites) (Table 5, nos. 22 and 23) found in alluvium and terminal moraines of the Elbrus glaciers.

Six small travertine domes were found in an approximately 3-km-long sector on the right bank of the Kizilkol River valley. All of them are situated on slopes of the recent river valley and characterized by a relatively good preservation (they are not virtually affected by river erosion). Their size varies from 10–20 to 50–100 m and the thickness reaches 3–5 m. The high rate of travertine accumulation  $(-1-3 \text{ cm/yr})$  suggests that the formation of domes during a relatively short time span  $(100-400 \text{ yr})$ .

Many domes are partially covered by soil. The thickness of soil cover sometimes reaches 5–10 cm. However, considering the wide distribution of colluvial sediments, it is difficult to estimate the age of domes based on the rate of soil formation. Similar modes of occurrence, degrees of the preservation of carbonate material, and patterns of soil cover suggest an almost simultaneous formation of all domes. It is probable that the synchronous formation of  $CO_2$ -rich springs in the Kizilkol River valley was related to a vigorous seismic event that revived the conduits of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ -rich waters. It is difficult to make any supposition about the time of their origination, but their age is likely to range from some hundreds to a few thousands of years. Probably, the onset of their formation coincides in time with the last eruption of the Elbrus Volcano dated at I–II century A.C. (Gushchenko, 1979; Bogatikov *et al.*, 1998b).

Reconstruction of the geochemical characteristics of fluids (see equations in Figs. 6 and 7) shows that travertines in the Kizilkol River valley precipitated from low-mineralized waters (0.5–2.5 g/l). Judging from low calculated concentrations of Na, Mg, S, Sr, and Ba, these waters were analogous to the present-day  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ -rich springs in the Kizilkol, Tokhana, and Malka river valleys (*Uglekislye…*, 1963; Lavrushin *et al.,* 2001b). Reconstruction of stratal temperatures based on the Na–Li geothermometer showed that the base temperatures of waters approximately corresponded to the base temperatures  $(150-250^{\circ}\text{C})$  in the present-day springs of the Elbrus area (Lavrushin *et al.*, 2001a). According to the isotope characteristics ( $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O), travertines in the Kizilkol River valley (nos. 9–13) do not virtually differ from samples of fresh travertines in this region of the Caucasus (Table 5).

In terms of  $\delta^{13}$ C values in CaCO<sub>3</sub>, opalites taken from terminal moraines of the Elbrus Volcano (Table 5, nos. 22 and 23), are similar to recent travertines. One of the samples (no. 23) differs only by a lower  $\delta^{18}O$  value, probably, indicating the precipitation of carbonates at higher temperatures. Obviously, altered volcanics (lavas) were carbonatized mainly at the final stages of fumarole activity at relatively low temperatures.

In general, analysis of the findings of old travertines in the Elbrus Volcano area shows that radical changes in isotopic and chemical compositions of gaseous–liquid fluids did not take place at least during the Holocene.

#### *Veined and Sedimentary Carbonates*

This series includes samples taken in the Elbrus area (no. 24) and northeastern Caucasus (Talgi quarry, Dagestan, no. 49). For the sake of comparison, Paleozoic and Cretaceous limestones were analyzed in both cases (Table 5, nos. 25 and 49). Samples of veined carbonates are of interest from different points of view.

The sample from a carbonate vein in Paleozoic granites taken in the Elbrus area (upper reaches of the Biitiktebe River) differs from Paleozoic travertines and limestones (Table 5, no.24) by a relatively low  $\delta^{13}$ C value  $(-3.2\%)$ . These data allow us to resolve the contradiction noted previously (Lavrushin *et al.*, 2001b):  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ -rich gases in the Elbrus area are identical to gases of the upper mantle (MORB) in terms of their isotope characteristics ( $\delta^{13}$ C and  ${}^{3}$ He/<sup>4</sup>He values), but they are characterized by  $CO<sub>2</sub>/He$  values that are several orders of magnitude higher than the value in the MORB reservoir (Marty and Tolstikhin, 1998). The latter fact indicates that an additional amagmatic source of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  with isotopically light composition of carbon  $(-7 \text{ to } -5\%)$ participated in their formation. It is evident that Paleozoic limestones (Table 5, no. 25) can serve as such source. It is possible that precisely the thermal breakdown of veined carbonates in contact zones served as the source of the isotopically light  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ .

Fractionation of carbon isotopes during the formation of carbonate veins can be the other possible process leading to the concentration of the isotopically light  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  in thermal-metamorphic gases. In this case, precipitation of calcite would be accompanied by the concentration of light carbon isotope in carbon dioxide dissolved in water.

We also studied vein mineralization in younger sediments, e.g., in Upper Cretaceous limestones in the Talgi quarry (Dagestan, northeastern Caucasus, Sample 49) (Lavrushin *et al.*, 2003c). Here, limestone massifs are crosscut by two systems of apparently different fractures. One system is filled with massive well-crystallized calcite that completely seals the fractures (Sample D7/02). The other system is filled with macrocrystalline calcite druses, whose surface is colored by oil in black-brown (samples D4/02, D6/02, and D13/02). In the second type of veins, massive aggregates of sulfides and caverns with liquid oil are also encountered.

Comparison of compositions of these carbonates shows that they were formed from sharply different fluids. Carbonates from the massive vein are distinguished by higher concentrations of Na and Li (Table 3, no. 49, Sample D7/02). Hence, they originated from waters with TDS ~2–3 g/l that are also enriched in Ba relative to Sr  $(Sr/Ba = 8)$ . Calcites associated with bitumen and sulfides precipitated from waters with a lower mineralization (~0.5 g/l) and higher Sr/Ba values (34–39). In addition, fluids of both vein generations were characterized by low concentrations of  $SO_4$  (<100 mg/l).

The base temperatures of the veined systems are also different. According to the Na–Li geothermometer, the massive vein formed from waters with a higher temperature of fluid generation  $(208^{\circ}C)$  than the bitumenbearing fluids  $(158-168^{\circ}C)$ . Veined deposits also sharply differ by the isotopic composition of carbonates (Table 5, no. 49, samples D6/02, D7/02, and D13/02). Calcites from the massive veins are distinguished by the lowest  $\delta^{13}C$  (–13.6‰) and  $\delta^{18}O$  (+17.6‰) values in comparison with other samples from the Talgi quarry.

In general, these data show that massive veins fluids were characterized by the circulation of fluids containing the isotopically light  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ . Additionally, in contrast to carbonates impregnated with bitumen, the massive veins probably formed at higher temperatures (or from isotopically light waters). The latter fact is indirectly confirmed by the lower  $\delta^{18}$ O values and higher estimates of the base temperatures.

Thus, the vein mineralization of the Talgi structure can be divided into two stages that sharply differ in terms of fluid regime (composition and temperatures of fluid generation). It is difficult to judge about their succession, because we failed to trace the relationship of veins in the section. However, we suppose that the massive (high-temperature) veins predated the bituminous ones. It is possible that they were contemporaneous with a large pluton that was emplaced at the base of the Talgi structure according to the helium isotope data (Polyak *et al.,* 2000).

#### **CONCLUSIONS**

Investigations of carbonate travertines showed that their appearance, crystalline structure, and chemical composition change along the strike of the travertine dome. The greatest variation is observed in chemical elements that precipitate together with iron hydroxides (Mn, Ni, As, Zn, Cu, Cr, V, Sc, K, P, Si, Al, REE, Th, U, Cs, Zr, Y, Be, and Ba). Rates of fixation of these elements in sediments are often different. Therefore, ratios of their concentrations can also vary along the strike of the dome (U/Th increases and Fe/Mn decreases toward the base). Hence, these elements or ratios of their concentrations are unsuitable for the reconstruction of chemical composition of fluid, on the one hand, but the trend cited above allows us to determine the direction of water movement. The latter implication can be important, for example, for the investigation of vein systems.

For other elements, e.g., REEs having similar chemical properties, concentration ratios, and pattern of distribution along the strike of the travertine dome virtually do not change. The REE spectra in travertines are analogous to their counterparts in the initial fluids. This opens perspectives for the study of REE pattern in mineral waters with the use of chemical compositions of travertines.

The travertines also include a group of elements (Na, Li, Mg, Sr, and S), concentrations of which do not virtually change along the strike of the travertine dome. Comparison of chemical compositions of travertines and water shows that one can find correlations between the elements mentioned above that can make it possible to reconstruct their concentrations in the initial fluid. In addition, Mg/Li and Na/Li values in travertines correlate with the base temperatures based on the hydrochemical geothermometers. Hence, these data provide insights into temperature conditions of the formation of fluid system in the past.

Travertines of the Greater Caucasus differ from marine and diagenetic carbonates by higher  $\delta^{13}$ C values (up to 16.3‰). The  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O values appreciably change within the dome and increase toward its base. This is dictated by kinetic effects of the fractionation of isotopes of carbon and oxygen in the water–atmosphere–calcite system. These effects are best manifested in large (>100 m) domes. Therefore, reconstruction of the isotope characteristics of fluid ( $\delta^{18}$ O in H<sub>2</sub>O and, particularly,  $\delta^{13}$ C in CO<sub>2</sub>) based on carbonate samples taken from large travertine domes or based on solitary samples from alluvium seems to have no future.

Thus, although this work is devoted to the investigation of terrestrial formations (travertines), some results presented here can likely be considered during the study of vein mineralization. First of all, this concerns the reconstruction of chemical compositions of waters and their base temperatures. Estimations of isotope characteristics ( $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O) of fluid systems in vein systems, obviously, must be viewed more carefully, because effects of the isotope fractionation during carbonate precipitation in this case, in contrast to travertines, are regulated not by the degassing of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ . A more probable mechanism is the formation of carbonate veins under the influence of other processes, such as changes of temperature in the water–rock system or mixing of waters with different chemical compositions. In this scenario, spatial variation trends of carbonate isotopic composition can be different in the vein systems. Here, in contrast to travertine domes, one should expect the decrease of  $\delta^{13}$ C value along the direction of fluid movement. However, specific  $\delta^{13}$ C values for these effects are difficult to estimate so far.

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