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Rootless cone eruption processes informed by dissected tephra deposits and conduits

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25 consistent with decreasing water availability with time, as inferred for rootless cones described in
26 Iceland. The Ice Harbor rootless cones provide further lithological data to help distinguish
27 between rootless cone-derived tephra and tephra generated above an erupting dyke.

28

29 **Keywords:** rootless cones; basalt lava; pāhoehoe; Columbia River Basalt Province; lava-water
30 interaction.

31

32

33 1. Introduction

34 Explosive interaction between water-logged sediments (or volcaniclastic deposits) and
35 molten lava can result in the formation of rootless cones, also known as ‘pseudocraters’ (Fig. 1;
36 Thorarinsson 1953). Rootless cones are present within flow fields where the lava advanced over
37 lacustrine, marsh and fluvial environments (Fagents and Thordarson 2007; Hamilton et al. 2010a,
38 2010b). Explosions are driven by the interaction of molten lava with a water-saturated,
39 unconsolidated substrate. Explosions initiated by interaction of molten lava with substrate pore
40 water eject clasts composed of lava crust, disrupted liquid lava and substrate-derived sediment
41 onto a stationary surface of an active lava flow, thereby building a cone. Similar rootless edifices,
42 known as littoral cones, form when lava flows interact with seawater in a littoral environment
43 (Moore and Ault 1965; Fisher 1968; Jurado-Chichay et al. 1996; Mattox and Mangan 1997;
44 Jaeger et al. 2007). Rootless cone-like structures have also been observed on the surface of Mars
45 near the Martian equator (Lanagan et al. 2001; Bruno et al. 2004; Fagents and Thordarson 2007;
46 Hamilton et al. 2010a) and have been used to infer the former presence of fluids in the Martian
47 substrate.

48 Two models for rootless eruptions have been proposed; one assuming static heat transfer and
49 the other inferring dynamic heat transfer. The static heat transfer model infers rapid emplacement
50 of lava above a water-logged substrate. Water trapped beneath the lava flow is converted to steam
51 producing eruptions that are analogous to phreatic explosions (Thorarinsson 1951, 1953).

52 In contrast, the dynamic heat transfer model of Fagents and Thordarson (2007) argues that
53 the explosive interactions are driven by physical (dynamic) mixing of the lava and the water-
54 logged substrate. The model is based on observations that sediment from the substrate is
55 physically mixed into the rootless cone deposits and found between the core and the rim in
56 armoured bombs. Furthermore, the cones feature multiple layers of tephra, which increase

57 upwards in grain size from coarse ash/fine lapilli to bomb-size clasts (Fagents and Thordarson
58 2007; Hamilton et al. 2010). The presence of layering implies sustained eruptions (estimated to
59 have lasted for hours to days; Thordarson and Höskuldsson 2008), maintained by quasi-steady
60 input of molten lava to the explosion site.

61 During rootless cone activity on pāhoehoe lavas, initial sedimentation occurs from
62 explosions that produce pyroclastic density currents (PDCs) that deposit broad, sheet-like
63 platform deposits around the vent (Hamilton et al. 2010a). Later tephra jets and lava fountains
64 deposit lapilli- to bomb-sized scoria and spatter that build a cone (Thordarson et al. 1998; Fagents
65 and Thordarson 2007; Hamilton et al. 2010a). The deposits of rootless activity are usually
66 unconsolidated, except in proximal regions (Hamilton et al. 2010a). Rootless cones vary from
67 1–40 m in height and 2–450 m in basal diameter. The cones are crudely bedded, inversely
68 graded, and may contain layers of rheomorphic spatter. The degree of explosivity is thought to be
69 controlled by the explosion site geometry, the rate of lava influx, and the amount and availability
70 of external water. Tephra deposits within rootless cone fields can cover areas of up to 150 km²
71 and may exhibit complex stratigraphic relationships (Fagents and Thordarson 2007; Hamilton et
72 al. 2010a and references therein).

73 Despite the abundance of rootless cones (e.g. Greeley and Fagents 2001; Lanagan et al.
74 2001; Fagents et al. 2002; Bruno et al. 2004; Fagents and Thordarson 2007; Hamilton et al.
75 2010a, 2010b, 2010c, 2011; Keszthelyi and Jaeger 2014), there is little documentation of their
76 constituent pyroclasts and the characteristics of their host lava flows (e.g. Melchior Larsen et al.
77 2006; Hamilton et al. 2010a; 2010 b). Furthermore, rootless cones are superficially similar to
78 small scoria cones and spatter cones, both in size and componentry (e.g. Fagents and Thordarson
79 2007). They may also have a linear spatial arrangement, similar to that of edifices along a dyke
80 (e.g. Hamilton et al. 2010a). The limited knowledge of the internal stratigraphy of rootless cones

81 coupled with their similarity to other volcanic edifices means that it can be difficult to distinguish
82 rootless tephra from tephra generated during dyke-fed eruptions. This is particularly the case in
83 flood basalt provinces, where pyroclastic successions are usually poorly preserved and poorly
84 exposed (e.g. Swanson et al. 1975; Reidel and Tolan 1992; Brown et al. 2014).

85 In this paper, we document a newly discovered rootless cone field within the 8.5 Ma Ice
86 Harbor pāhoehoe lava flow field in the Columbia River Basalt Province (CRBP), USA. Erosional
87 dissection allows us to examine the tephra deposits and conduits of the rootless cones. We use
88 these features to inform on the nature of the explosions that created the rootless cones and to help
89 define criteria that distinguish the deposits of rootless cones from those of dyke-fed eruptions.

90

91 **2. Geological setting of the Columbia River Basalt Province**

92 Flood basalt volcanism in the NW USA initiated c. 17 m.y. ago in the Steens Mountain
93 region, Oregon. Over the following ~11 m.y. the volume of erupted mafic magma exceeded
94 >210 000 km³ across Oregon and Washington (now considered part of the CRBP; Camp et al.
95 2003; Reidel et al. 2013). Eruptions were fed by ~300 km-long dyke swarms from crustal magma
96 chambers under east-central Oregon/west-central Idaho (Wolff et al. 2008; Ramos et al. 2013).
97 Volcaniclastic rocks in the CRBP are generally scarce, although exceptionally preserved
98 examples of proximal tephra deposits (Swanson et al. 1975; Reidel and Tolan 1992; Brown et al.
99 2014), hyaloclastite deposits (Tolan et al. 2002), inferred rootless deposits (Thordarson and Self
100 1998) and drowned rootless cones (Keszthelyi and Jaeger 2014) are known.

101 The rootless cone deposits in this study occur in the 8.5 Ma Ice Harbor Member (Fig. 2),
102 which is composed of three pāhoehoe lava flow fields that are the youngest products ascribed to
103 the CRBP (McKee et al. 1977; Swanson et al. 1979). The lavas have been divided into three
104 chemically distinct types that were fed from a dyke system that was up to 90 km in length and on

105 average <15 km in width (Swanson et al. 1975). The lava flow field has a minimum volume of
106 1.2 km³ (Swanson et al. 1975) and individual lava flows are typically <15 m thick. The pāhoehoe
107 lavas are interbedded with the Ellensburg Formation sediments – diatomaceous muds, lacustrine
108 sands and silts, volcanoclastic silt, conglomerates, and silicic volcanic ash probably sourced from
109 eruptions of volcanoes in the NW USA. These sediments record deposition both within extensive
110 lava-dammed lakes and by ephemeral and established rivers (Schminke 1967; Smith 1988; Tolan
111 et al. 2002).

112

113 **3. Method**

114 Field studies involved detailed sedimentary logging of tephra successions, lithofacies
115 analysis, geological mapping and sampling. Locations were recorded using a handheld GPS unit
116 with an accuracy of ±5 m. Petrographic characterisation was undertaken by optical microscopy
117 on representative thin sections. Vesicle and clast dimensions and abundances were calculated
118 using the image analysis software ImageJ (<http://imagej.nih.gov/ij/>) with representative samples
119 and outcrop photographs. The crystal content of the cone deposits was calculated by point-
120 counting representative samples. Clast densities were calculated on clasts >16 mm across using
121 the method of Houghton and Wilson (1989). Grain size was determined by sieving.

122

123 **4. Ice Harbor rootless cone field**

124 The Ice Harbor rootless cone field is composed of: 1) the substrate over which the lava flows
125 were emplaced (silicic volcanic ash); 2) the host pāhoehoe lava flows; 3) rootless cone conduits
126 within the lava flows; 4) rootless cone- and platform-forming tephra deposits. The cone field is

127 inferred to have occupied an area of ≥ 1 km², based on the distribution of the conduits and
128 associated tephra. The cone field is overlain by later Ice Harbor lava flows.

129

130 4.1 Volcanic ash substrate

131 The pre-eruption substrate beneath the Ice Harbor flow field does not crop out in the study
132 area, and the nature of the substrate has been inferred from analysis of material incorporated into
133 the rootless cone tephra deposits. This material is composed of white, silicic, volcanic ash and
134 forms 10–85 vol. % of all rootless cone tephra deposits. The volcanic ash is well-sorted ($1.2 \sigma\Phi$)
135 and individual particles are platy, angular or cusped in shape and occasionally preserve vesicles.
136 The volcanic ash has a median diameter of < 0.25 mm. Smaller particles are blade shaped, whilst
137 coarser particles have complex morphologies and exhibit bubble junctures.

138

139 *Interpretation*

140 The silicic volcanic ash is interpreted as a pyroclastic fall deposit within the Ellensburg
141 Formation (e.g. Schminke 1967). The monolithologic character of the volcanic ash and the
142 absence of organic matter or detrital sediment indicate that the volcanic ash had not been
143 substantially reworked and that burial by the Ice Harbor lava may have occurred shortly after
144 fallout. We infer that the volcanic ash fell out onto a flood plain or shallow lake; common
145 features across the plateau-like CRBP during the Miocene (e.g. Schminke 1967; Smith 1988;
146 Tolan et al. 2002). These environments are conducive to the formation of rootless cones (e.g.
147 Thorarinsson 1951, 1953; Fagents and Thordarson 2007; Hamilton et al. 2010a, 2010b).

148

149 4.2 Ice Harbor lava flows

150 The rootless cone field crops out along the banks of the Snake River (Fig. 2). The flow field
151 is composed of pāhoehoe sheet lobes that reach 8 m thick and exhibit the tripartite structure
152 typical of pāhoehoe sheet lobes in the CRBP (e.g. Self et al. 1998; Thordarson and Self 1998).
153 They have lower crusts that contain distorted pipe vesicles, massive, dense cores with columnar
154 joints and vesicular upper crusts. The groundmass of the flows is composed of interstitial glass,
155 and plagioclase and pyroxene microlites. Pyroxene and rare swallow-tail plagioclase phenocrysts
156 and glomerocrysts 0.1–3 mm in diameter constitute 1–4 vol. % of the rock. Vesicles are partially
157 filled with zeolite minerals. The Ice Harbor sheet lobes that contain the rootless cones have
158 poorly vesicular cores and incipiently vesicular crusts (as defined by Houghton and Wilson 1989)
159 that exhibit hackly, entablature-style joints spaced 11–21 cm apart.

160

161 *Interpretation*

162 We infer that inflation of the flows took several weeks, based on a lava upper crust thickness
163 of ≥ 2 m and the relationship: $t = 164.8C^2$; where t = time in hours and C = crustal thickness in
164 metres (see Hon et al. 1994). The presence of entablature-style jointing in the lava indicates that
165 the flows were subjected to water enhanced cooling, implying emplacement in an environment
166 where surface water was abundant (e.g. Long and Wood 1986). The swallow tail plagioclase
167 microlites indicate that the lava cooled rapidly; this texture is also found in pillow lavas (e.g.
168 Bryan 1972; Jafri and Charan 1992).

169

170 4.3 Rootless cone conduits

171 Cliffs along the Snake River reveal funnel-shaped, upward-flaring features in the Ice Harbor
172 sheet lobes (Fig. 3). These features range from 1–4 m in diameter, are up to 4 m deep and have
173 cross-sectional areas of 8–12 m². Their walls dip inwards $\sim 60^\circ$. All the funnels appear to

174 terminate ≥ 0.5 m above the bases of the sheet lobes and sometimes form irregular, isolated
175 cavities; these are likely 2D section effects (Fig. 3). Hackly cooling joints spaced ~ 16 cm apart
176 radiate away from the funnel walls and extend up to ~ 4 m into the surrounding lava core (Fig. 3).

177 The inner surfaces of the funnels are coated with ropey-textured and bread-crust spatter
178 that is ≤ 6 cm thick. The spatter has a hypohyaline groundmass texture, contains sheared vesicles
179 and has multiple chilled rinds. The surface of the spatter has angular, hypocrySTALLINE and
180 hypohyaline clasts of upper lava crust embedded in it. These clasts cover 10–30% of each funnel
181 wall. There is a patchy, heterogeneous distribution of silicic volcanic ash across the surfaces;
182 typically $< 5\%$. These funnels are often partially filled with tephra with a similar composition to
183 the overlying cone deposits (massive spatter bombs, mSp; see below).

184 Twelve of these features have been recognised along a 450 m transect (Fig. 2); five on the
185 north bank of the river and seven on the south. The features are spaced 3–206 m apart with tephra
186 deposits exposed above them. Exposures spaced less than 5 m apart may represent irregular
187 sections through the same feature.

188

189 *Interpretation*

190 We interpret these funnel-shaped features as remnants of rootless conduits because they have
191 spatter, angular lapilli and patches of silicic ash plastered onto their inner wall which can only
192 have occurred via explosive interactions. They are also filled with lapilli- to bomb-sized tephra.
193 These features distinguish them from features described within rubbly pāhoehoe flows (e.g.
194 Duraiswami et al. 2008; Keszthelyi et al. 2009). Sheared vesicles and rope-like textures on the
195 conduit wall result from rheomorphic flow of spatter. The funnel shape of the conduits and their
196 radiating cooling joints are similar to features seen in rootless cones in Iceland (e.g. Hamilton et
197 al. 2010a).

198 Based on the abundance of conduits and the possibility that some locations represent
199 irregular cross sections through the same conduit (e.g. L16/17; L1/2/6; L12/13) we suggest that
200 the flow field hosted at least eight rootless cones. Since the size of the conduits is proportional to
201 the size of the overlying cone (e.g. Hamilton et al. 2010a), the cones were likely to have been ≥ 5
202 m in basal diameter.

203

204 4.4 Rootless cone tephra deposits

205 Proximal rootless platform and cone-forming deposits are widely exposed over a 450 m-long
206 transect along the south bank of the Snake River, and are intermittently exposed along the north
207 bank of the river (Fig. 2). The tephra deposits are composed of juvenile pyroclasts (described
208 below), silicic volcanic ash and fragmented lava crust.

209

210 4.4.1 Juvenile pyroclast types

211 The tephra deposits contain four different pyroclast types derived from the fragmentation and
212 modification of the host lava flow (Fig. 4; Table 1). These juvenile clasts are (1) sideromelane
213 ash and lapilli of both blocky and fluidal morphologies; (2) hypocrySTALLINE bombs (with both
214 ventricular and globular morphologies) and angular lapilli; (3) armoured scoria bombs and lapilli;
215 and (4) spatter bombs. All clasts have hypohyaline to hypocrySTALLINE groundmasses and are
216 mineralogically similar to the host lava. The pyroclasts are incipiently to poorly vesicular,
217 ranging between 15–36% vesicles, and are non to incipiently welded. The density of pyroclasts
218 ranges from 1700–2300 kg m⁻³. The pyroclast types and their occurrence is summarised in Table
219 1.

220

221 *Interpretation*

222 The density of the Ice Harbor rootless tephra is significantly higher than that of non-welded
223 basaltic pyroclasts produced during dyke-fed eruptions (typically 240–1440 kg m⁻³; Houghton
224 and Wilson 1989; Parcheta et al. 2013). This suggests that the pyroclasts were sourced from lava
225 that had already degassed at the source fissure and during transport to the rootless cone site. The
226 ventricular and globular bombs are atypical of the deposits of fissure eruptions (e.g. Valentine
227 and Gregg 2008); they are interpreted as water-quenched globules of lava ejected from beneath
228 the lava flow during explosive activity. These bombs were subsequently mechanically
229 fragmented into angular lapilli upon eruption and deposition, enhanced by cooling contraction
230 fractures. The spatter bombs are interpreted as proximal deposits from rootless lava fountains
231 (e.g. as observed during the 1783–1785 Laki eruptions, see Thordarson et al. 1998). Recycling
232 by intermittent fountains appears necessary to form the armoured bombs. The blocky
233 sideromelane clasts indicate cooling-contraction granulation and/or mechanical fragmentation.
234 The fluidal, elongate sideromelane clasts indicate ductile disruption of molten lava and are
235 common components of deposits from magmatic volatile driven eruptions (e.g. Walker and
236 Croasdale 1971), phreatomagmatism (e.g. Zimanowski et al. 1997; Morrissey et al. 2000; Büttner
237 et al. 2002) and peperite (see section 4.4.3; Skilling et al. 2002).

238

239 4.4.2 Pyroclastic lithofacies

240 The tephra deposits can be sub-divided into four lithofacies according to their componentry,
241 grain size and depositional structures (Fig. 5; Table 2). In general the pyroclastic lithofacies
242 appear moderately to very poorly sorted and are composed of juvenile clasts with <10–85 vol. %
243 silicic volcanic ash. Lithofacies with the largest juvenile clasts tend to have the least silicic
244 volcanic ash (Fig. 6). The lithofacies form proximal platform, cone or conduit-filling deposits.

245 Sheet deposits are not found; these are commonly unconsolidated (Hamilton et al. 2010a).
246 Contacts between the tephra deposits and underlying lavas are not exposed (Fig. 6).

247 Platform deposits include massive or normally graded lapilli-ash (m/nLAf), lenses of lapilli-
248 ash (lensLA) and cross-stratified lapilli-ash (xsLA; Table 2; Fig. 5). These deposits are 1–5.5 m
249 in thickness (Fig. 7) and are present beneath the parallel-bedded spatter (//bSp; Figs. 6 and 7).
250 Pyroclasts within the deposits are dominantly of lapilli size. They are exposed over a ~600 m
251 long transect. Bedding dips vary from 10–20°.

252 Cone deposits are composed of parallel-bedded spatter (//bSp; Table 2) that is 1–3 m thick
253 (Fig. 6) and contains predominantly bomb-sized clasts. Deposits are exposed over a ~200 m long
254 transect. The spatter varies from horizontally bedded to dipping up to 20°; whether this is towards
255 or away from a conduit is unclear (Figs. 6 and 7).

256 The conduits are partially filled with massive spatter (mSp; Table 2) and are not observed in
257 contact with overlying cone and/or platform deposits.

258

259 *Interpretation*

260 The Ice Harbor platform deposits are inferred to have been deposited from both PDCs and by
261 fallout (e.g. Hamilton et al. 2010a). The occurrence of massive/normally graded lapilli-ash
262 (m/nLAf), lenses of lapilli-ash (lensLA) and cross-stratified lapilli-ash (xsLA) beneath the
263 spatter-rich deposits (e.g. //bSp) suggests that the platform was constructed prior to cone
264 formation. Intermittent deposits of normally-graded lapilli ash (nLA) and cross-stratified lapilli-
265 ash (xsLA; Fig. 6) overlying the spatter layers suggests that the cone field is composed of
266 numerous overlapping cones formed in a sequence of rootless eruptions (e.g. Fagents and
267 Thordarson 2007). The thickness and spatial distribution of the exposures suggest that the tephra

268 platforms were ~5 m thick and were likely to be laterally extensive over 100's of metres. Cone-
269 forming and conduit-filling deposits of rootless cones commonly contain spatter-rich lithofacies
270 (Hamilton et al. 2010a), as observed in this study. These coarse-grained deposits are produced as
271 the explosivity of the eruptions decreases (Fagents and Thordarson 2007).

272

273 4.4.3 Lava-silicic volcanic ash interaction textures in tephra deposits

274 A variety of peperite-like textures are observed in the tephra deposits (Fig. 8). Fluidal
275 textures include spatter bombs that inter-finger with the silicic volcanic ash and associated
276 globular and elongate spatter lapilli and ash found intimately mixed with the silicic volcanic ash.
277 Within 2 cm of the spatter, the silicic volcanic ash is often thermally altered, becoming dark in
278 colour and fused (e.g. Schminke 1967). Where fused, the silicic volcanic ash contains vesicles ≤ 2
279 mm in diameter. Vesicles in the spatter also contain silicic ash. Blocky textures include jigsaw-fit
280 bombs; these clasts have hairline fractures filled with silicic volcanic ash. Other bombs have
281 rinds that are partially separated from their core, encapsulating a 2 mm-thick domain of silicic
282 volcanic ash between rind and core. These domains contain mm-scale globules of lava.

283

284 *Interpretation*

285 Peperite-like textures indicate interaction between hot juvenile clasts and unconsolidated
286 sediment (e.g. Skilling et al. 2002). Vesicles in the fused silicic volcanic ash indicate that gas was
287 generated during interaction (e.g. Kokelaar 1982; Skilling 2002; Squire and McPhie 2002).
288 Silicic ash-filled vesicles in the spatter indicate that the sediment was mobilised during
289 interaction (e.g. Goto and McPhie 1996; Skilling 2002 and references there-in). The fluidal and
290 blocky textures indicate variations in mechanical stress, movement of lava, lava-silicic ash
291 density contrasts and variations in lava viscosity and clast size (e.g. Skilling et al. 2002; Squire

292 and McPhie 2002). These textures may represent a failed phreatomagmatic fragmentation process
293 formed beneath the lava flow (e.g. Busby-Spera and White 1987; Hooten and Ort 2002). The
294 bombs with encapsulated silicic volcanic ash are interpreted as intrusions of lava into the
295 underlying substrate. Lava globules in the silicic volcanic ash domain indicate that the cores of
296 these bombs were molten during intrusion.

297

298 **5. Emplacement of the Ice Harbor rootless cones**

299 We infer that the Ice Harbor lava flows traversed a lacustrine or floodplain environment (Fig.
300 9). The ground was mantled by a layer of silicic volcanic ash fall derived from a major explosive
301 eruption. As the lava flows inflated they developed brittle basal crusts (Hon et al. 1994). These
302 crusts were weakened by the development of cooling fractures (Thordarson and Self 1998) which
303 created a zone of weakness along the base of the flows. Cracking and subsequent failure of the
304 crust would have been facilitated by heterogeneous subsidence of the flows during inflation (e.g.
305 Fagents and Thordarson 2007; Hamilton et al. 2010a). Failure of the basal crust allowed
306 extrusion of lava, analogous to the axial cleft of a tumulus (e.g. Walker 1991; Rossi and
307 Gudmundsson 1996; Hamilton et al. 2010a).

308 Extrusion of lava through the basal crust resulted in the intimate mixing of molten lava with
309 the water-saturated silicic volcanic ash. This mixing of the lava and sediment is evidenced by the
310 peperite-like textures and abundance of silicic volcanic ash (i.e. substrate) in the tephra deposits.
311 Lava-substrate mixing was followed by explosions. These fragmented the lower lava crust and
312 burst through the molten lava core creating transient conduits. The preservation of conduits
313 requires the cooling and solidification of the conduit walls over time to prevent pressure-driven
314 collapse of the walls between explosions. The presence of spatter lining the walls of the conduits
315 indicates that they were stabilised from both material ejected during the explosions, as well as

316 from the chilling of the molten lava core. Explosive activity deposited the massive/normally
317 graded lapilli-ash (lithofacies m/nLA (f)) on top of the lava flow. Some of the pyroclastic
318 material formed PDCs (depositing lithofacies lensLA and xsLA; Table 2). These processes
319 constructed the tephra platforms.

320 Spatter-rich lithofacies (e.g. //bSp and mSp; Table 2) were produced during rootless lava
321 fountaining and cap the rootless cone successions and fill some conduits. The coarse clast size of
322 these lithofacies indicates decreasing explosivity as water availability declined. Explosions also
323 embedded juvenile clasts and lava crust lithics into the hot and ductile conduit walls.

324 The presence of the cones on top of sheet lobes suggests that the cones developed repelled,
325 non-aligned spatial distributions (e.g. Hamilton et al. 2010a, 2010b). The cones were likely to
326 have formed in topographic lows where lava and water were most abundant, and in regions of
327 enhanced substrate compressibility (Hamilton et al. 2010a, 2010b). Exposures do not allow
328 determination of the symmetry of the cones (e.g. radial or elongate). Growth of the cones was
329 terminated by the decreasing availability of ground water, or by water being prevented from
330 gaining access to the explosion site. Continued cooling stabilised the conduit walls and over time
331 cooling joints radiated out into the core (e.g. Fig. 9).

332

333 **6. Comparison with other rootless cones**

334 The deposits in this study are comparable with the platform and cone-building deposits of
335 rootless cones in Iceland (e.g. Table 3; Fig. 10), which show a similar pattern of sediment-rich
336 PDC deposits overlain by coarse-grained fall deposits. These PDC and fall deposits are composed
337 of scoria lapilli and bombs, spatter bombs and clastogenic lava, all intimately mixed with silt- to
338 cobble-sized sediment. The coarse grainsize of the platform deposits in this study relative to
339 others described in Iceland (Hamilton et al. 2010a) may result from the proximity of the Ice

340 Harbor tephra platforms to the explosion source, or from less efficient magma-water interaction.
341 The substrate properties (e.g. grainsize distribution and thermal conductivity) may also have
342 affected explosivity (e.g. Sohn 1996; White 1996). Furthermore, the properties of the substrate
343 would have evolved during the eruptions, due to mixing of pyroclasts and silicic volcanic ash
344 beneath the lava flow. However, the role of sediment properties in governing the explosivity of
345 rootless eruptions is as-yet unknown.

346

347 **7. Conclusions**

348 The Ice Harbor tephra deposits provide insights into the construction and componentry of a
349 rootless cone field. Cross sections of conduits suggest that ≥ 8 cones were present in a cone field
350 ≥ 1 km² in area. Cone- and platform-forming deposits are composed of admixed juvenile clasts,
351 clasts from the host lava flow and silicic volcanic ash from an earlier, major explosive eruption in
352 NW USA. Construction of the cone field occurred through a combination of deposition from
353 PDCs and lava fountaining. Explosivity decreased with time as a result of decreasing water
354 availability in the underlying silicic volcanic ash. This study demonstrates that the abundance of
355 sediment (in this case, silicic volcanic ash) in the tephra, juvenile clast morphology and clast
356 density are useful criteria for distinguishing between rootless tephra and tephra produced above
357 an erupting dyke.

358

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363

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500

501 **Figure Captions**

502
503 **Fig. 1** Generalised structure of a rootless cone. The cones form on active lava flows. The conduits
504 in the host lava flow are irregular funnels that widen upwards. The upper parts of the conduits are
505 filled with tephra. Cooling joints in the host lava flow radiate from the conduit. Cone forming
506 deposits are composed of lapilli- to bomb-sized material that is often reversely graded and
507 formed by fallout. Platform and sheet deposits are formed by fallout and deposition from
508 pyroclastic density currents. Adapted from Hamilton et al. (2010a)

509
510 **Fig. 2** Location of the study area. **a** The CRBP in the NW USA, adapted from Brown et al.
511 (2014). **b** Map of the area showing the Ice Harbor fissure as described by Swanson et al. (1975)
512 and our field area on the banks of the Snake River. **c** Sites of the tephra and conduit deposits
513 described in this study

514
515 **Fig. 3** Field photographs and schematic diagrams showing the varying geometries of rootless
516 conduits. **a** Field sketch showing the upper part of a funnel-shaped conduit at location 6 (UTM
517 Nad83 zone 11T, 359 987 E/5 126 647 N). View to the southwest. **b** Field photograph of massive
518 spatter (mSp) within the conduit in **a**, composed of spatter bombs, silicic volcanic ash and
519 hypocrySTALLINE lapilli. **c** Irregular lower part of a conduit in the lava flow at location 22 (UTM
520 Nad83 zone 11T, 359 724 E/5 128 162 N) with cooling joints (white) radiating from the
521 conduit/lava core contact (outlined). The ruler is 1 m. Inset **d** shows a close up of the conduit
522 inner wall with embedded juvenile and lava crust lithic clasts. The ruler is 25 cm. Image **e** shows
523 a cross section through the conduit wall, with hypohyaline lapilli embedded into the surface. **f**
524 Interpretive sketch of **e**. **g** Plan view of a section of conduit wall, approximately 100 mm across,

525 showing clasts that are inferred to have become embedded in the conduit wall during explosions
526 (dashed outlines)

527
528 **Fig. 4** Clast types recognised in this study. **a** Folded spatter bomb with embedded lapilli (dashed
529 outline). Graticules on the scale card are 1 cm (UTM Nad83 zone 11T, 359 942 E/5 126 519 N).
530 **b** Ventricular clast (outlined). The clast has an amoeboid shape with a hypohyaline rind approx.
531 10 mm thick that grades inwards into the core. Vesicles up to 8 cm in diameter (dashed outline)
532 have angular shapes and give clasts their characteristic ventricular morphology (UTM Nad83
533 zone 11T, 359 942 E/5 126 519 N). **c** Globular bomb (outlined). The bombs have a sub-spherical
534 shape and a black hypohyaline rind ~1 cm thick that becomes more orange in colour toward the
535 core. Sub angular, dull black coloured basaltic lapilli (arrowed) are contained within the cores of
536 the bombs. Cooling joints (dashed lines) penetrate from the clast margin up to 10 mm towards the
537 core (UTM Nad83 zone 11T, 359 942 E/5 126 519 N). **d** Armoured bomb (solid outline) with 1
538 cm thick dense rind and vesicular core (dashed outline) (UTM Nad83 zone 11T, 360 015 E/5 126
539 664 N). **e** Sideromelane clast (arrowed) formed by fragmentation in a brittle state (arrowed). **f**
540 Sideromelane clast (arrowed) formed by ductile disruption of molten lava

541
542 **Fig. 5** Lithofacies found in the study area. **a** mLA with ventricular bomb (outlined) enclosing
543 laminated silicic volcanic ash. Graticules on the scale card are 1 cm (UTM Nad83 zone 11T, 359
544 881 E/5 126 506 N) **b** lensLA with hypocrySTALLINE lapilli-rich lenses. Dashed white outlines
545 indicate lenses (UTM Nad83 zone 11T, 359 868 E/5 126 485 N) **c** lensLA with silicic ash-rich
546 lenses. White outlines indicate lenses (UTM Nad83 zone 11T, 359 868 E/5 126 485 N) **d** xsLA,
547 white outlines indicate beds. The ruler is 25 cm long (UTM Nad83 zone 11T, 359 868 E/5 126

548 485 N) **e** //bSp, showing bedded spatter bombs. The ruler is 50 cm (UTM Nad 83 zone 11T, 359
549 942 E/5 126 519 N)

550
551 **Fig. 6** Lithofacies logs of tephra deposits south of the river. Clast size is shown on the top axis
552 with divisions at 32, 64, 128 and 256 mm (Location 9 uses 32, 64, 128, 256 and >1000 mm
553 divisions). Silicic volcanic ash abundance (black squares; %) is shown across the bottom axis in
554 25% graticules. Logs are shown at relative altitudes. For locations of the sections see Fig. 2

555
556 **Fig. 7** Photographs and interpretive pictures of Location 9 (UTM Nad 83 zone 11T, 359 942 E/5
557 126 519 N). **a, b** Outcrop of platform-forming admixed tephra and silicic volcanic ash. **c,d**
558 Outcrop of cone-forming tephra composed of lithofacies //bSp

559
560 **Fig. 8** Peperite-like textures produced by the interaction of juvenile clasts and silicic volcanic
561 ash. **a** Fluidal peperite with elongate and globular clasts in lithofacies //bSp (UTM Nad 83 zone
562 11T, 359 942 E/5 126 519 N). **b** Blocky peperite with jigsaw-fit fractures (circled). Graticules are
563 1 cm (UTM Nad 83 zone 11T, 360 014 E/5 126 649 N). Thin section **c** and interpretive sketch **d**
564 shows section of mingled spatter and silicic volcanic ash. The spatter clasts exhibit elongate and
565 globular morphologies. The silicic ash is thermally altered and contains vesicles. Vesicles within
566 the spatter clasts enclose silicic volcanic ash. Section of a ventricular bomb **e** and interpretive
567 sketch **f** are also shown. The hypohyaline rind is spalling from the core and has encapsulated a
568 domain of silicic volcanic ash. Fluidal basalt clasts are found within the silicic ash domain
569 (arrowed) indicating that the core of the bomb was molten when the sediment was encapsulated

570

571 **Fig. 9** Inferred eruption chronology for the cones. **a** Lava flow traverses wet ground and subsides
572 heterogeneously into the underlying silicic volcanic ash. **b** Initial mingling of lava with the silicic
573 ash results in the formation of globular and ventricular juveniles and peperite-like textures. **c**
574 Interaction between molten lava and water saturated silicic volcanic ash results in explosive
575 brecciation of the host lava flow and fragmentation of the globular and ventricular juveniles into
576 lapilli and ash sized clasts. Episodic eruptions and dilute PDC's deposit poorly sorted juveniles
577 and clasts sourced from the host lava flow, forming sheet and platform deposits (lithofacies
578 m/nLA(f), lensLA, xsLA). Minor clast recycling may occur, producing armoured bombs.
579 Substrate pore water is gradually depleted beneath the lava flow. **d** Decreasing water availability
580 results in less efficient fragmentation and lava fountains are generated. These fountains produce
581 lithofacies //bSp that builds a cone. Lapilli are also impacted into the cooling conduit walls. **e**
582 With time water availability decreases and eruptions cease. The lava flow may continue to inflate
583 and deform the conduit. Post-eruption cooling of the lava promotes the formation of cooling
584 joints that radiate from the conduit

585
586 **Fig. 10** Photographs of Leitin and Búrfell rootless cones in southern Iceland (UTM Nad 83, zone
587 27, 500 000 E/7 097 014 N; 402 187 E/7 098 548 N respectively). **a** Overlapping cone
588 stratigraphies composed of crudely bedded spatter and scoria bombs and lapilli and clastogenic
589 lava. The sequence is ~6 m thick. **b** Bomb-sized clast of sediment (outlined) within a sequence of
590 scoria and spatter. The ruler is 40 cm long. **c** Sediment-rich pyroclastic density current deposit at
591 the base of the cone forming stratigraphy. The reddish colour is given by the agglutinated
592 sediment (inferred to be a lacustrine siltstone), not oxidation of the pyroclasts. The scale card is
593 120 mm long. **d** Bomb-sized, ventricular-type pyroclast (outlined) within the bedded spatter and
594 scoria. The ruler is ~25 cm long. **e** Initial cone-forming fall deposit, composed of scoria lapilli.

595 Beds often form inversely-graded couplets. The bed indicated is ~6 cm thick. Beds thickness and
596 clast size increases up-section. **f** Cross section of the conduit wall, with lapilli sized pyroclasts
597 agglutinated to the outer wall. Cooling joints (dashed lines) radiate from the contact and are
598 perpendicular to the conduit contact. The arrow points towards the core of the lava flow. The
599 ruler is 30 cm long. **g** A lava flow affected by rootless cone formation. The lava flow can be
600 divided into a colonnade (CN) and an entablature (EN), and has an irregular upper contact that
601 forms the rootless conduit. The lava is ~10 m thick

602

603

604 **Table 1** Summary descriptions of pyroclast types

605

606 **Table 2** Summary descriptions of cone-forming and conduit deposits

607

608 **Table 3** Comparison of rootless and littoral cone structures using data from Simpson and McPhie
609 (2001); Mattox and Mangan (1997); Moore and Ault (1965); Fisher (1968); Hamilton et al.
610 (2010a); Melchior Larsen et al. (2006); Jurado-Chichay et al. (1996); and this study

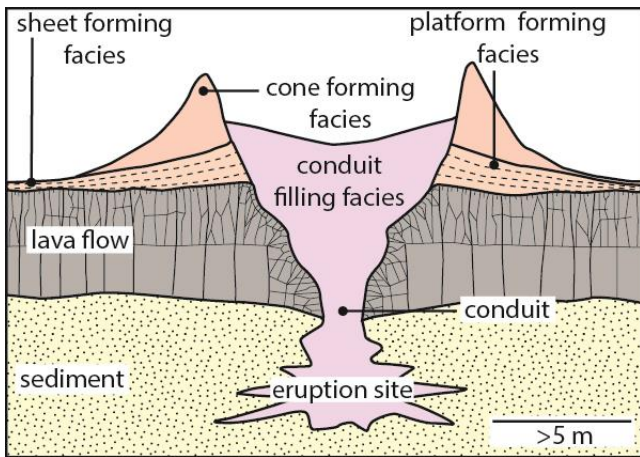


Fig. 1

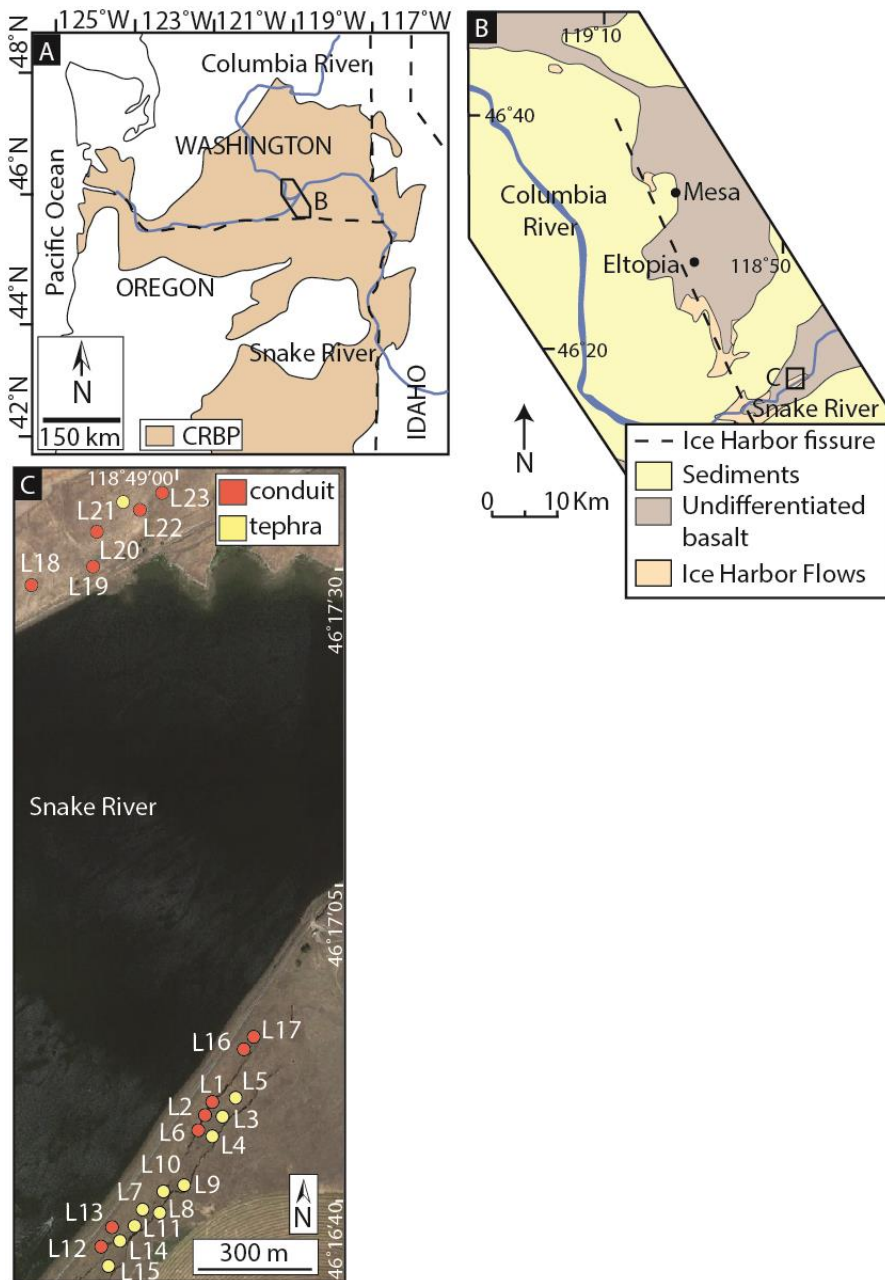


Fig. 2

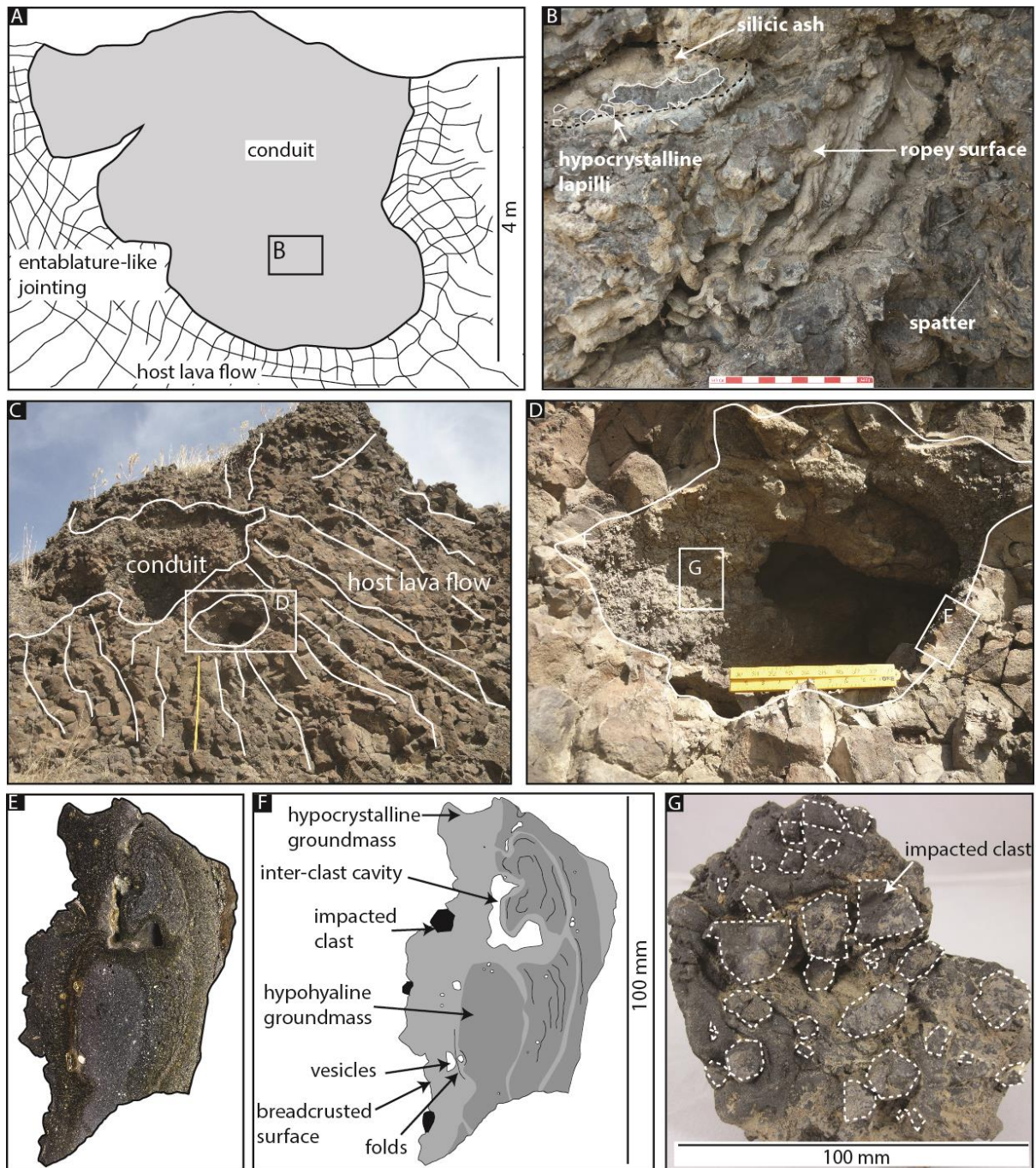


Fig. 3



Fig. 4

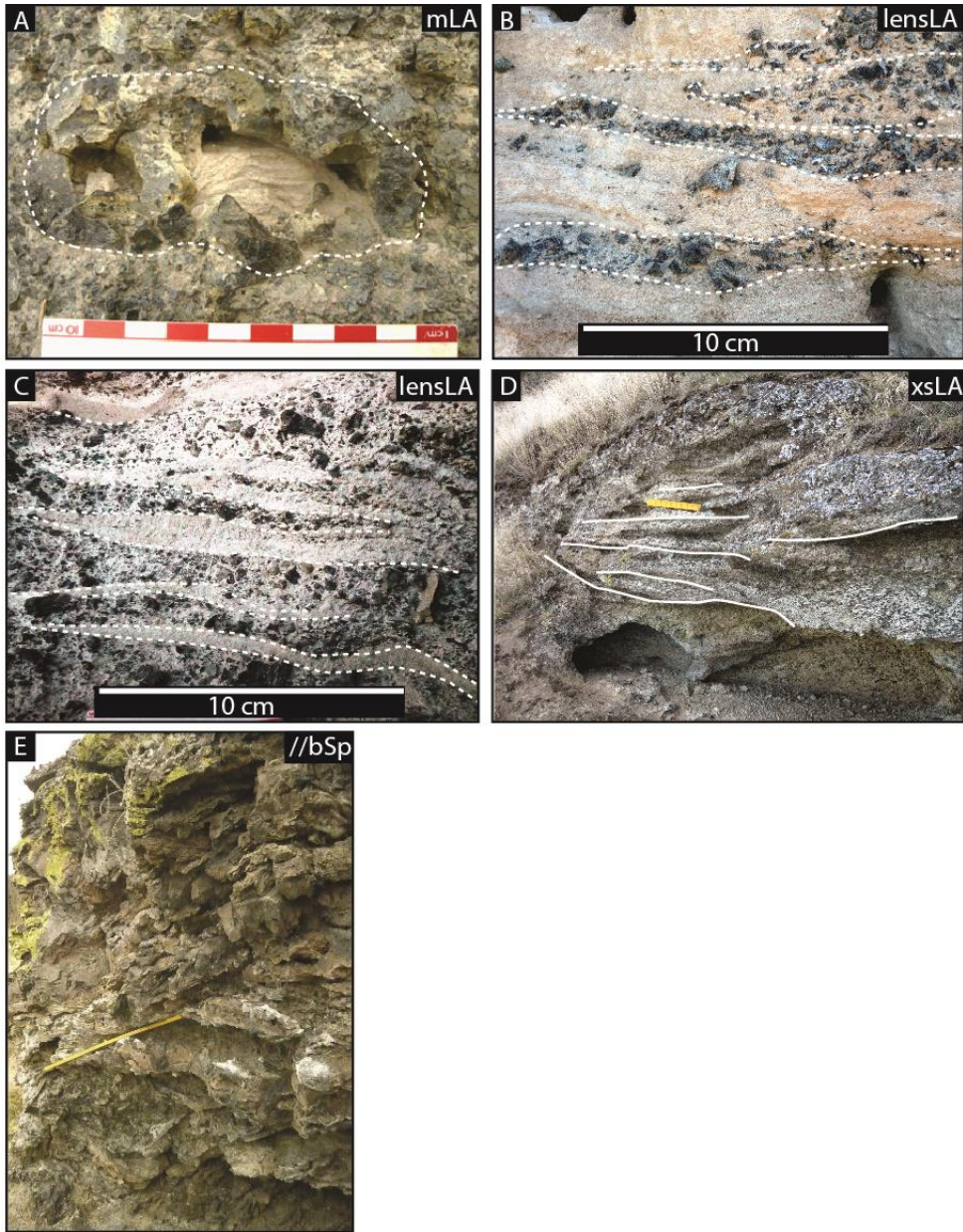


Fig. 5

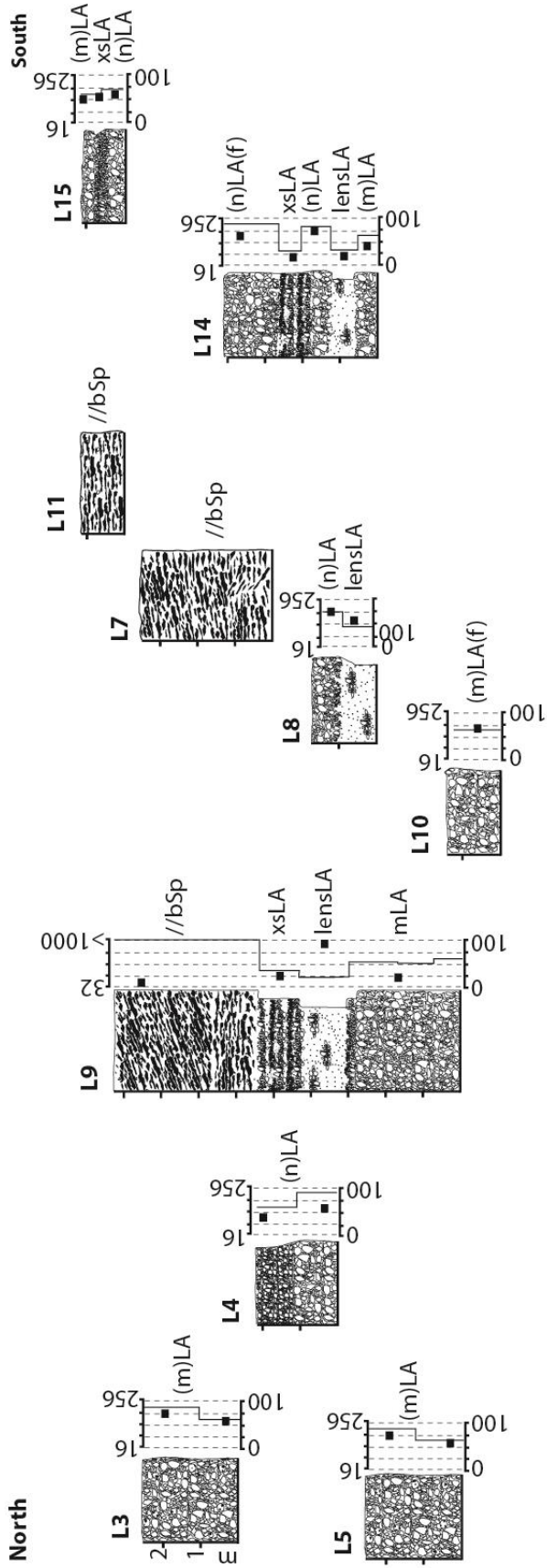


Fig. 6

KEY	
	Cone forming facies
	Platform forming facies
	Lithofacies codes
	//bSp parallel bedded spatter
	LA lapilli-ash (subfacies f: fabric, m: massive, n: normally graded)
	xsLA cross stratified lapilli ash
	lensLA lenses of lapilli ash
	L location number (see Fig. 2)

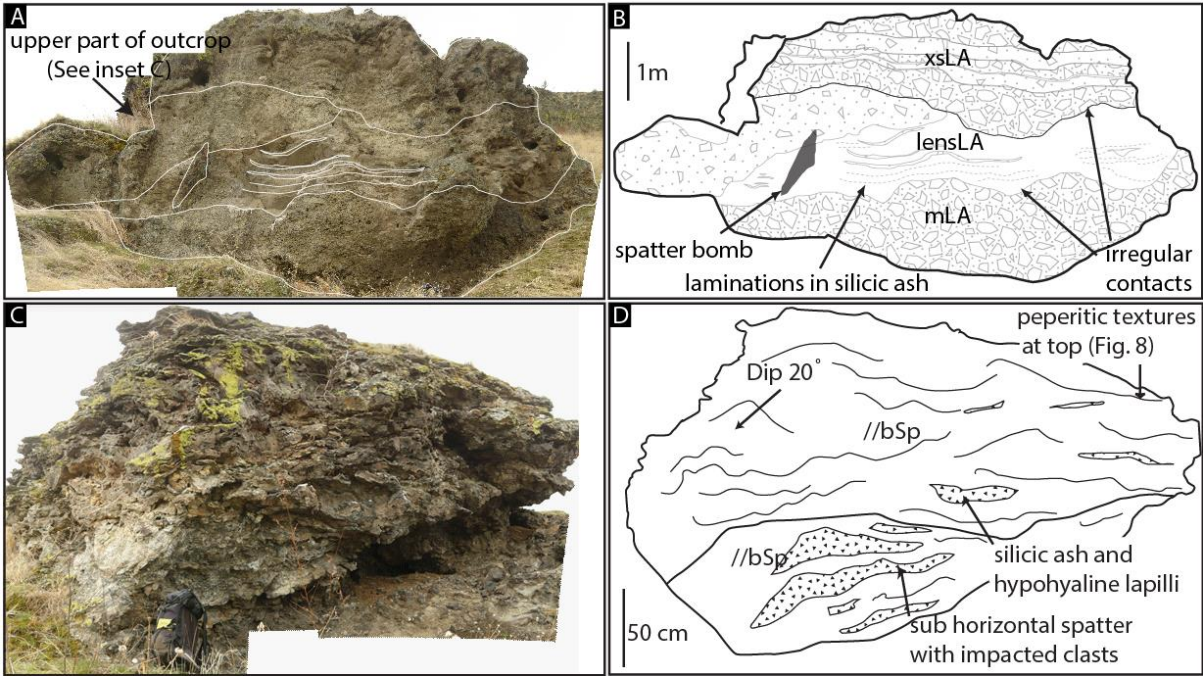


Fig. 7

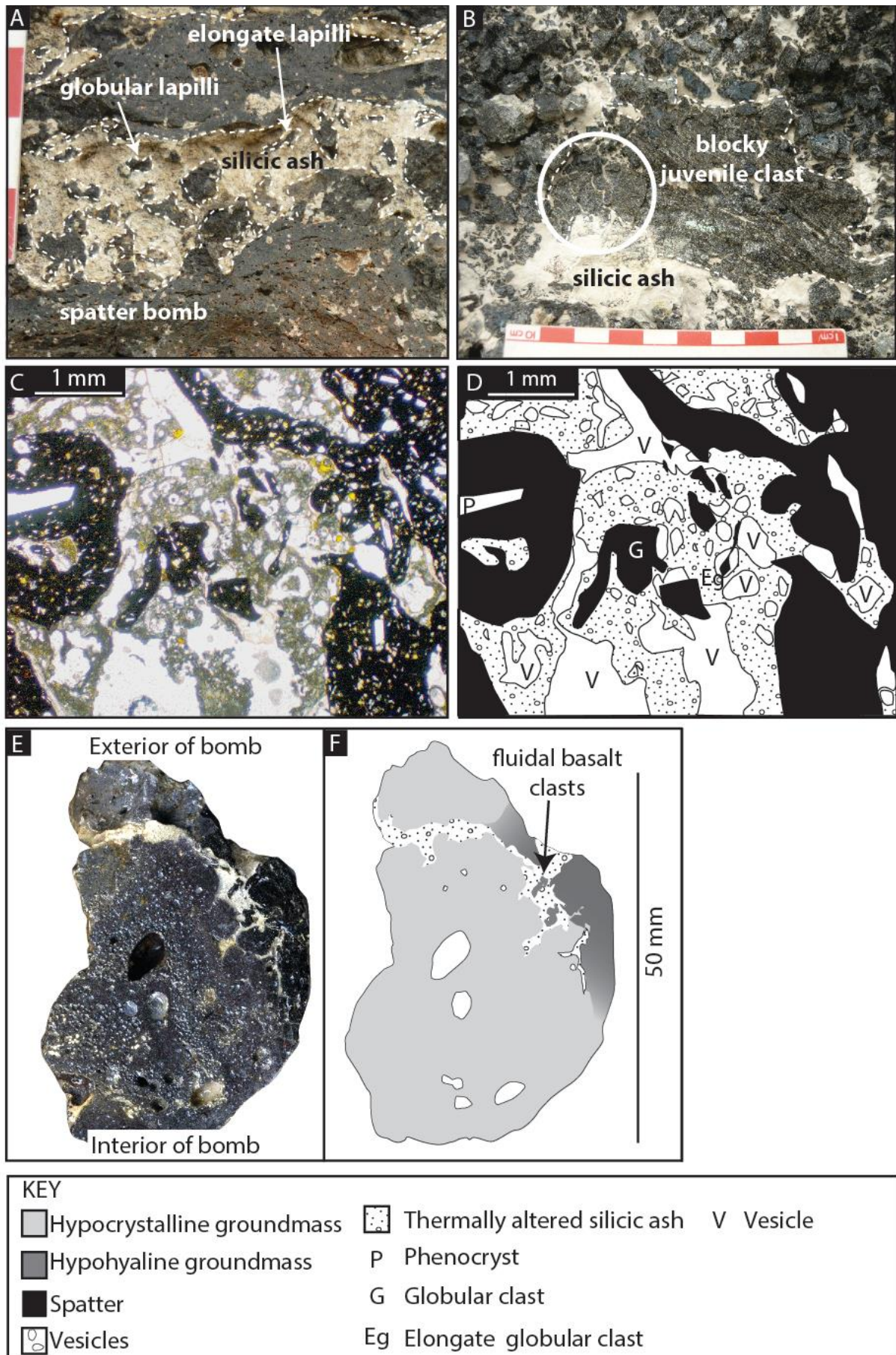


Fig. 8

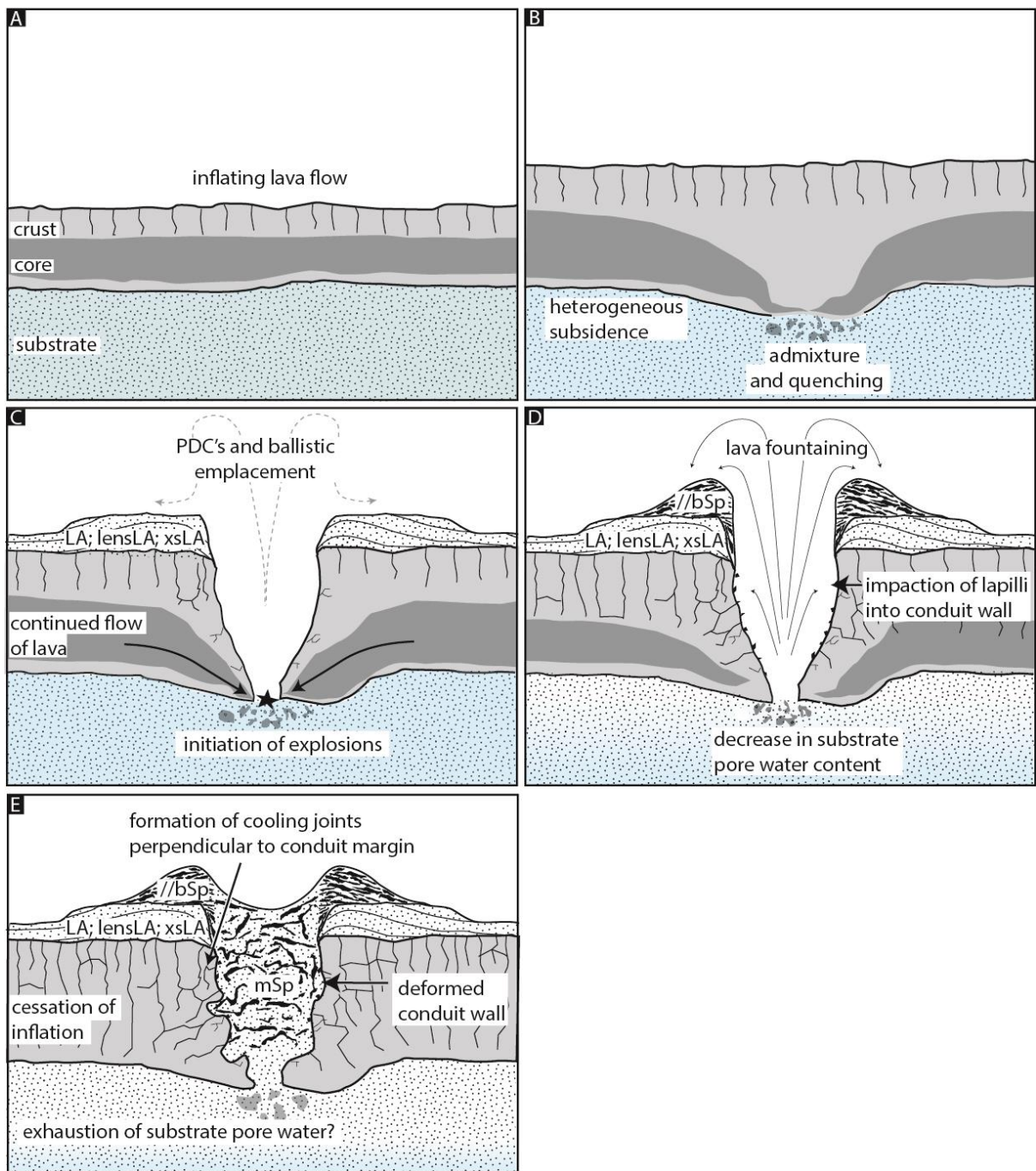


Fig. 9

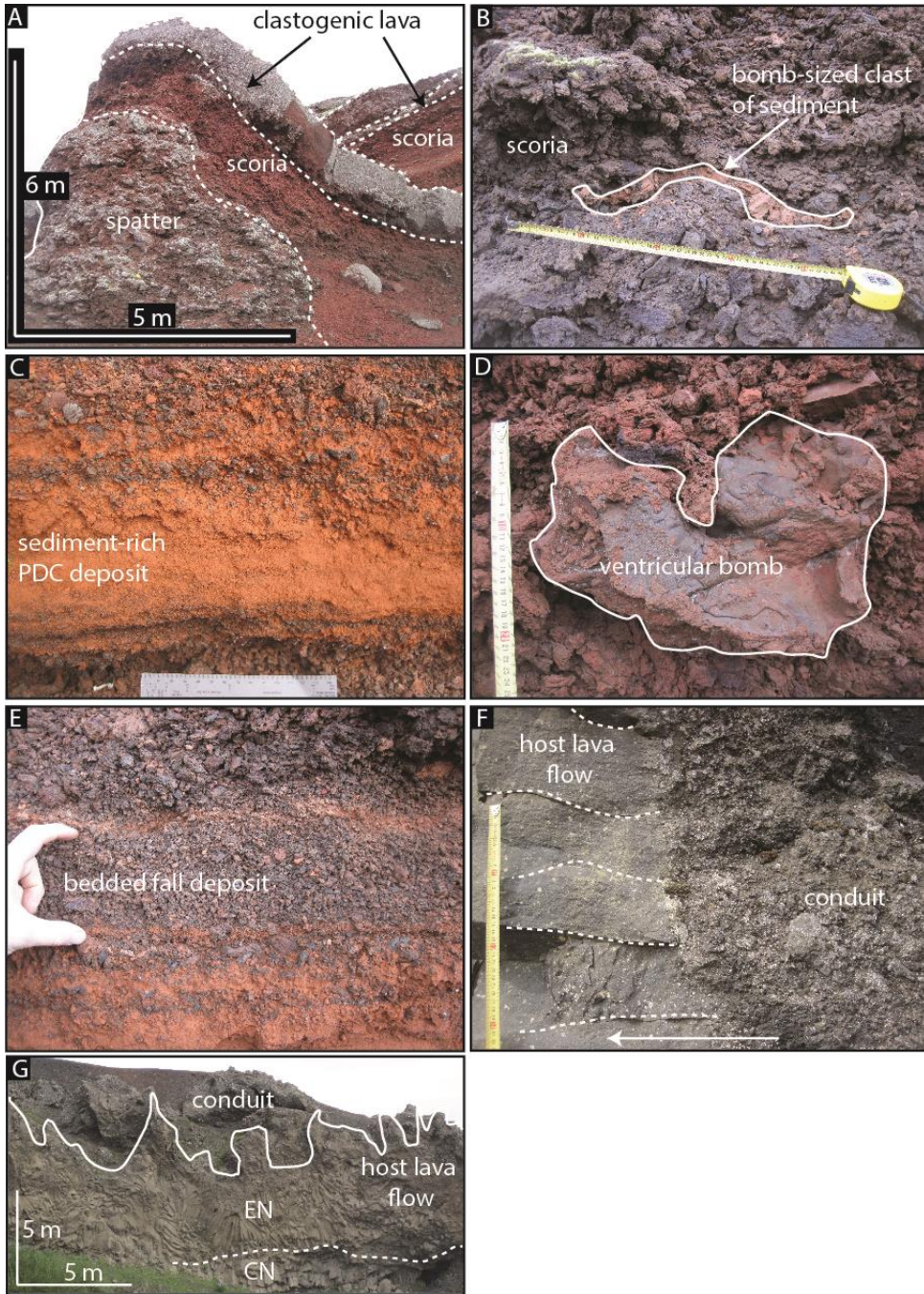


Fig. 10