GEOLGY AND MINING HISTORY OF THE BARTON GARNET MINE, GORE MT.
AND THE NL ILMENITE MINE, TAHAWUS, NY WITH A TEMPORAL EXCURSION
TO THE MACINTYRE IRON PLANTATION OF 1857

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INTRODUCTION

This field trip examines the geology and history of mining at two types of ore deposits, one a metal and one an
industrial mineral. Both are strongly identified with the Adirondack Mountains of New York and both have histories
that extend for more than a century. While mining activities began at both in the nineteenth century, only the Barton
garnet mining venture has remained in continuous operation. Attempts, successful and unsuccessful, to exploit the ore
at Tahawus occurred sporadically through the nineteenth and twentieth century. During this time the minerals that were
the target and gangue at Tahawus essentially reversed roles.

BARTON GARNET MINE, GORE MT.

The Barton Mines Corporation open pit mine is located at an elevation of about 800 m (2600 ft) on the north
side of Gore Mountain. For 105 years, this was the site of the world's oldest continuously operating garnet mine and the
country's second oldest continuously operating mine under one management. The community at the mine site is the
highest self-sufficient community in New York State. It is 16 km (10 mi) from North Creek and 8 km (5 mi) from NY
State Route 28 over a Company-built road that rises 91 m (300 ft) per mile. This road, like others in the vicinity, is
surfaced with coarse mine tailings. About eleven families can live on the property. The community has its own water,
power, and fire protection systems. On the property are the original mine buildings and Highwinds, built by Mr. C.R.
Barton in 1933 as a family residence.

The garnet is used in coated abrasives, glass grinding, metal and glass polishing, and even to remove the red
hulls from peanuts. Paint manufacturers add garnet to create non-skid surfaces and television makers use it to prepare
the glass on the interior of color picture tubes prior to the application of the phosphors. Barton sells between 10,000
and 12,000 tons of technical-grade garnet abrasive annually. About 40% of the company's shipments are to foreign
countries. All current U.S. production of technical-grade garnet is limited to the Barton Mines Corporation. The
product is shipped world wide for use in coated abrasives and powder applications (Austin, 1993a,b).

Garnet has been designated as the official New York State gemstone. Barton produces no gem material but
collectors are still able to find rough material of gem quality. Stones cut from Gore Mountain rough material generally
fall into a one to five carat range. A small number of stones displaying asterism have been found. Garnets from this
locality are a dark red color with a slight brownish tint. Special cutting schemes have been devised for this material in
order to allow sufficient light into the stone.

HISTORY

The early history of the Barton garnet mine has been compiled by Moran (1956) and is paraphrased below.
Mr. Henry Hudson Barton came to Boston from England in 1846 and worked as an apprentice to a Boston jeweler.
While working there in the 1850's, Barton learned of a large supply of garnet located in the Adirondack Mountains.
Subsequently, he moved to Philadelphia and married the daughter of a sandpaper manufacturer. Combining his
knowledge of gem minerals and abrasives, he concluded that garnet would produce better quality sandpaper than that
currently available. He was able to locate the source of the Adirondack garnet stones displayed at the Boston jewelry
store years before. Barton procured samples of this garnet, which he pulverized and graded. He then produced his first
KELLY AND DARLING

garnet-coated abrasive by hand. The sandpaper was tested in several woodworking shops near Philadelphia. It proved to be a superior product and Barton soon sold all he could produce.

H.H. Barton began mining at Gore Mountain in 1878 and in 1887, bought the entire mountain from the State of New York. Early mining operations were entirely manual. The garnet was hand cobbled i.e. separated from the waste rock by small picking hammers and chisels. Due to the obstacles in moving the ore, the garnet was mined during the summer and stored on the mountain until winter. It was then taken by sleds down to the railroad siding at North Creek whence it was shipped to the Barton Sandpaper plant in Philadelphia for processing. The "modern" plant at Gore Mountain was constructed in 1924. Crushing, milling, and coarse grading was done at the mine site. In 1983, the Gore Mountain operation was closed down and mining was relocated to the Ruby Mountain site, approximately 6 km (4 mi) northeast, were it continues at present.

MINING AND MILLING

The mine at Gore Mountain is approximately one mile in length in an ENE-WSW direction. The ore body varies from 15 m (50 ft) to 122 m (400 ft) and is roughly vertical. Mining was conducted in benches of 9 m (30 ft) using standard drilling and blasting techniques. Oversized material was reduced with a two and one-half ton drop ball. The ore was processed through jaw and gyratory crushers to liberate the garnet and then concentrated in the mill on Gore Mountain. Garnet concentrate was further processed in a separate mill in North River at the base of the mountain. Separation of garnet was and is accomplished by a combination of concentrating methods including heavy media, magnetic, flotation, screening, tabling and air and water separation. Processes are interconnected and continuous until a concentrate of 98% minimum garnet for all grades is achieved (Hight, 1983). Finished product ranges from 0.6 cm to 0.25 micron in size.

CHARACTERISTICS OF GORE MOUNTAIN GARNET

The garnet mined at Gore Mountain is a very high-quality abrasive. The garnets display a well-developed tectonic parting that, in hand specimen, looks like a very good cleavage. This parting is present at the micron scale. Consequently, the garnets fracture with chisel-like edges yielding superior cutting qualities. The garnet crystals are commonly 30 cm in diameter and rarely up to 1 m with an average diameter of 9 cm (Hight, 1983) The composition of the garnet is roughly 43% pyrope, 40% almandine, 14% grossular, 2% andradite, and 1% spessartine (Levin, 1950; Harben and Bates, 1990). Chemical zoning, where present, is very weak and variable (Luther, 1976). The garnet has been so well analyzed isotopically that it is frequently used as an $^{18}O$/$^{16}O$ standard (Valley et al., 1995). Typical chemical analyses of the garnet are presented in Table 1. Hardness of the garnet is between eight and nine and the average density is 3.95 gm/cm³.

Table 1. Electron Microprobe analyses of Gore Mt. garnet (almandine-pyrope) normalized to 8 cations and 12 anions. * Calculated by charge balance (Kelly and Petersen, 1993).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Oxide Weight Percent</th>
<th>#29</th>
<th>#41</th>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al₂O₃</td>
<td>21.40</td>
<td>21.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TiO₂</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FeO*</td>
<td>22.80</td>
<td>24.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe₂O₃*</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>0.72</td>
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<tr>
<td>MgO</td>
<td>10.65</td>
<td>9.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MnO</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CaO</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Na₂O</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>K₂O</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.09</td>
<td>100.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The garnet mine is entirely hosted by a hornblende-rich garnet amphibolite unit along the southern margin of an olivine meta-gabbro body (Fig. 1). The garnet amphibolite grades into garnet-bearing gabbroic meta-anorthosite to the east. To the south the garnet amphibolite is in contact with a meta-syenite; a fault occurs parallel to this contact in places.

Figure 1. Geologic maps of Barton garnet mine (A. modified from Bartholome, 1956, B. Goldblum & Hill, 1992)

The olivine meta-gabbro bordering the ore zone is a granulite facies lithology with a relict subophitic texture. Preserved igneous features, faint igneous layering, and a xenolith of anorthosite have been reported in the meta-gabbro (Luther, 1976). Prior to metamorphism, the rock was composed of plagioclase, olivine, clinopyroxene and ilmenite. During metamorphism, coronas of orthopyroxene, clinopyroxene and garnet formed between the olivine and the plagioclase and coronas of biotite, hornblende and ilmenite formed between plagioclase and ilmenite (Whitney & McLelland, 1973, 1983). The contact between the olivine meta-gabbro and the garnet amphibolite ore zone is gradational through a narrow (1 to 3 m wide) transition zone. Garnet size increases dramatically across the transition zone from less than 1 mm in the olivine meta-gabbro, to 3 mm in the transition zone, to 50 to 350 mm in the amphibolite (Goldblum and Hill, 1992). This increase in garnet size coincides with a ten-fold increase in the size of hornblende and biotite, the disappearance of olivine, a decrease in modal clinopyroxene as it is replaced by hornblende, and a change from green spinel-included plagioclase to white inclusion-free plagioclase (Goldblum and Hill, 1992). Mineralogy in the garnet amphibolite ore zone is mainly hornblende, plagioclase and garnet with minor biotite, orthopyroxene, and various trace minerals. In both the olivine meta-gabbro and the garnet amphibolite, garnet content averages 13 modal percent, with a range of 5 to 20 modal percent (Luther, 1976; Hight, 1983; Goldblum, 1988). The garnet amphibolite unit is thought to be derived by metamorphism of the southern margin of the granulite facies olivine meta-gabbro. At the west end of the mine, a garnet hornblendite with little or no feldspar is locally present. This rock may represent original ultramafic layers in the gabbro (Whitney et al., 1989). In the more mafic portions of the ore body, the large garnet crystals are rimmed by hornblende up to several inches thick. Elsewhere, in less mafic ore, the rims contain plagioclase and orthopyroxene. Chemical analyses of the olivine meta-gabbro and garnet amphibolite show
that the garnet ore was derived by isochemical metamorphism, except for an increase in the H$_2$O and fO$_2$ of the olivine
meta-gabbro (Table 2; Luther, 1976).

A strong, consistent lineation and weak planar fabric coincide with the zone of large garnet crystals and are an
important feature of the garnet ore zone (Goldblum and Hill, 1992). The lineation is defined by parallel alignment of
prismatic hornblende crystals, elongate segregations of felsic and mafic minerals, plagioclase pressure shadows, and
rare elongate garnet. The foliation is defined by a slight flattening of the felsic and mafic aggregates.

ORIGIN OF GARNET

Although the garnet crystals in the ore zone at Gore Mountain are atypical in size, the modal amount of garnet
is not unusually high for Adirondack garnet amphibolites. Garnet amphibolite that is texturally and mineralogically
similar occurs elsewhere in the Adirondacks, usually on the margins of gabbroic rock bodies. The ore at the currently
operating Barton Corporation mine at Ruby Mountain, for example, is of the same tenor but the garnets rarely are larger
than 2.5 to 5 cm.

Petrologic studies (Buddington, 1939, 1952; Bartholome, 1956, 1960; Luther, 1976; Sharga, 1986; Goldblum,
1988; Goldblum and Hill, 1992) have agreed that the growth of the large garnets is related to a localized influx of water
along the margin of the granulite facies olivine meta-gabbro body. The Gore Mountain garnets are chemically
homogeneous suggesting that (a) the garnets grew under conditions in which all chemical components were
continuously available and the (b) temperature and pressure conditions were uniform during the period of garnet
formation. A zone of high $f$$_{H_2O}$ along the southern margin of the original gabbro body may have enhanced diffusion
and favored growth of very large garnets and thick hornblende rims at the expense of plagioclase and pyroxene. Luther
(1976) speculates that physical and chemical conditions were favorable for the growth of garnet but poor for the
nucleation of garnet so that the garnet crystals that did nucleate grew to large size. The presence of volatiles,
particularly H$_2$O, promotes the growth of large crystals by aiding transport of components. The formation of the
garnets has been dated at ca. 1050 (Mezger, et al., 1992).

Recognition that the garnet ore body and deformation fabric coincide with the southern margin of the olivine
meta-gabbro body led Goldblum and Hill (1992) to hypothesize that the high fluid flow required for growth of large
garnet crystals was the result of ductility contrast at a lithologic contact during high-temperature shear zone
deformation. The olivine meta-gabbro is a granulite facies rock with a poorly developed foliation and little evidence
for ductile deformation. In the transition zone between the olivine meta-gabbro and the garnet amphibolite, increased
ductile deformation resulted in grain-size reduction of plagioclase and pyroxene. Microstructures in plagioclase in the
transition zone indicate plastic deformation, and the concurrent modal increase in hornblende indicates an influx of
fluid. Fabric development and hydration are most apparent in the garnet amphibolite of the ore zone. According to
Goldblum and Hill (1992), the olivine meta-gabbro remained competent and initially deformed by brittle processes
along its southern margin while the adjacent feldspar-rich meta-syenite and gabbroic meta-anorthosite deformed
plastically during deformation at amphibolite facies conditions. Initial grain-size reduction by cataclasis along the
margin of the meta-gabbro allowed hydration and metamorphism to produce the garnet amphibolite. As the hydrated
ore body replaced the olivine meta-gabbro, ductile deformation mechanisms replaced cataclasis. During
metamorphism, the garnet amphibolite was likely a high-strain zone of reaction-enhance ductility. Eventually,
metamorphic reactions apparently outpaced the rate of deformation and grain coarsening impeded ductile deformation
processes (Goldblum and Hill, 1992).

INCLUSIONS IN GORE MOUNTAIN GARNET

Gore Mountain garnet hosts a number of inclusion types. The most common of which is acicular rutile. Many
rutile needles are crystallographically controlled and the asterated specimens (Figure 2a) described earlier are most
likely due to the orientation of these inclusions perpendicular to {111}. Other solid inclusions include pyrite,
plagioclase, pyroxene, hornblende, ilmenite, apatite, and biotite (Valley, et al, 1993). Fluid inclusions are rare in Gore
Mountain garnet despite the importance of water in the formation of garnet amphibolite as well as large crystal sizes.
Ironically, the most common fluid inclusion in Gore Mountain garnet is CO$_2$-rich and is texturally secondary. These
inclusions, like those in many other Adirondack rocks, most likely formed along the retrograde path following peak
metamorphic conditions.
Darling et al. (1997) report a most unusual type of multiple solid inclusion containing the low pressure, very high temperature SiO$_2$ polymorph, cristobalite (Figure 2b). This phase is accompanied by albite and a small quantity of ilmenite. The cristobalite is easily recognized by its inherent fractures, formed by the 5% volume decrease upon transforming from the beta-phase at temperatures between 260 and 270°C. Darling et al. (1997) propose the cristobalite + albite + ilmenite inclusions began as small water-rich melt inclusions which then experienced diffusive loss of water. This led to an internal pressure decrease (under nearly isochoric, isothermal conditions) to the point where cristobalite, instead of quartz, crystallized in the melt inclusions. It should be noted that identical cristobalite-bearing multiple-solid inclusions also occur at the former Hooper and North River Mines (Charles et al., 1998) so their formation is not unique to Barton Mine garnet. The most remarkable outcome is that the cristobalite never reconstructively transformed to quartz even during protracted cooling from starting conditions of approximately 800°C. Darling et al. (1997) infer the absence of water was the primary reason for the preservation of cristobalite.
HISTORY

The history of mining operations in the vicinity Tahawus extends from the early nineteenth century to the end of the twentieth. The following account is drawn from Stephenson (1945) and National Lead Company literature (Anon. 1963). Gradual expansion of industrial development in the United States in the nineteenth century drove exploration for mineral resources into increasingly "back-country" locations. Such was the case when the iron ore in the region around Sanford and Henderson Lakes was discovered by white men in 1826. They were purportedly led to the deposit by a Native American over what is now the Indian Pass Trail. The ore mineral sought was magnetite. The original discoverers were not initially aware of the presence of ilmenite in the ore. Since 1826, great sums of money have been spent in attempts to bring the resource into production. The first and ultimately unsuccessful try was made by the original discoverers, Archibald MacIntyre, Duncan and Malcom MacMartin, and David Henderson. Their first blast furnace was built in 1838 and a "new" furnace was constructed in 1854. However, the venture completely failed owing to a number of circumstances including the accidental killing of Henderson in 1845, a flood in 1856, an economic recession in 1857 and, most importantly, the presence of titanium in the ore and transportation difficulties.

Beginning in 1894, another attempt was made to exploit the ore as a source of iron. The MacIntyre Iron Company planned a railroad (never constructed) and did extensive diamond drilling. A crushing plant and concentrator were constructed in 1912-13 and ore was hauled over very bad roads to blast furnaces in Port Henry. However, there was insufficient interest in the deposit and it languished.

In 1941, the deposit was acquired by National Lead Company (later NL Industries, Inc.). Production began in 1942. The target mineral in this case was ilmenite. Iron (magnetite) was a co-product. In 1908, a French metallurgist working for the MacIntyre Co. discovered that titanium dioxide made and excellent white paint pigment. With the advent of World War II, TiO₂ became a critical strategic resource. It was used in paint, paper, rubber and ceramics but it was an essential raw material in chemical smoke screens. To bring the mine into production required the construction of 8.5 miles of road, a 42 mile power line from Ticonderoga, 29 miles of railroad from North Creek, housing for 180 families and 160 single men, schools, fire department, medical services, and recreational facilities. Over the years, 4,564 men and women worked at the mine.

The mine continued in production until 1982 when the closure of the NL ilmenite processing plant in New Jersey led to the closure of the mine. Magnetite concentrates continued to be shipped from stockpile until 1989. Attempts were made to use the magnetite as blast furnace feed stock but these were not particularly successful. The bulk of the magnetite was sold as ballast, for ferrocement, and most importantly, to coal producers for use in a slurry to separate coal from waste rock. Currently, a skeleton crew staffs the operation for a variety of purposes. A total of more than 141 million tons of rock were removed during the course of mining to process sixty million tons of ore. From this ore, more than twelve million tons of ilmenite and seventeen million tons of magnetite were extracted. Thirty-one million tons of ilmenite and twenty-one million tons of magnetite remain.

MINING AND MILLING

The ore in the most recent operation was blasted in forty-foot high benches, hauled to the mill in Euclid trucks where it was reduced from run-of-the-mine size (pieces up to four feet) to minus 7/16 inches by jaw and cone crushers. This product was further reduced into twenty-eight mesh by six foot by twelve foot rod mills. Magnetic separators then removed some of the magnetite which was sent to a sintering plant or stockpile. The ilmenite and remaining gangue minerals were sent to reciprocating tables which retained the heavy ilmenite behind riffles and discharged the lighter (silicate) particles as waste. This ilmenite concentrate was dried and subjected to a final magnetic separation after which it was sent to storage bins or loaded directly onto railroad cars for shipment to a titanium pigment plant. The very fine grained fraction of the ground ore was separated by froth flotation. In this process, reagents in water are added to the feed stock in a processing tank which is agitated by air. The reagents coat the ilmenite only and cause the ilmenite particles to adhere to air bubbles and rise to the surface while the uncoated waste particles fall to the bottom of the tank and are removed. This fine grained ilmenite is collected in the froth on the top of the tank, then dried, loaded or stored.
CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TAHAWUS ORE

The ore deposits of the Tahawus region consist of roughly equal amounts of titaniferous magnetite and hematite-ilmenite with ilmenite being slightly more abundant. Lamellae of ilmenite in magnetite originated via subsolidus oxidation-exsolution (Buddington and Lindsey, 1964). Pleonaste spinel is a common exsolution phase in magnetite. Iron sulfides occur as accessory phases. Gangue minerals include plagioclase (10-20%), garnet (gros-almandine) 3-8%, ortho-and clinopyroxene (4-7%), hornblende (1-3%), biotite (≤ 1%) Heyburn, 1960. Other minor phases include apatite, prehnite, barite, orthoclase, scapolite, "leucocore", epidote and quartz (Gross, 1968). Both titanomagnetite and hemo-ilmenite form abundant, small, rod-like inclusions in the plagioclase, making the feldspar appear black in hand specimen. The average composition of the titanomagnetite is Mt_{81}UsP_{19} and of the hemo-ilmenite is Ilm_{59}Hem_{41} (Kelly, 1979).

The Sanford Lake District ores occur in two major modes: (1) as lean or disseminated ore in gabbro (gabbroic ore) and (2) as rich ore generally located in anorthosite but locally in gabbro (anorthositic ore). The lean ore within gabbro displays a gradational contact with the host rock with which it is commonly conformably layered (Ashwal, 1978) while in anorthosite, the massive, rich ore has a sharp crosscutting relationship. The gabbro, which bears the lean ore, also has a crosscutting relation to the anorthosite. With the exception of nelsonite rocks near Cheney Pond (discussed below), the P_{2}O_{5} concentration is very low. Whole rock chemical analyses are given below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Tahawus gabbro</th>
<th>Tahawus massive ore</th>
<th>Woolen Mill gabbro</th>
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<td>TiO₂</td>
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GEOLOGY AND ORIGIN OF THE ORE

Open pit mining and diamond drilling have demonstrated that the ore is concentrated in westward dipping lenses measuring 600-700 meters long and 150-300 meters wide. This configuration could be the result of crystal settling, intrusion, or accumulation of immiscible oxide-rich liquid. Late differentiates of the anorthosite liquid tend toward enrichment in iron-titanium oxides giving rise to rocks of increasingly ferrogabbroic composition along with mafic cumulates. The gabbro at Tahawus is similar to the Woolen Mill gabbro and other gabbros, which are typical of late anorthosite differentiates (Bohlen. et al. 1992). This suggests that the ores at Tahawus are the result of progressive differentiation from a gabbroic anorthosite parent and that, late in the differentiation process, the magma became so enriched in Fe and Ti that they either precipitate oxide cumulates (Ashwal, 1978) or a (presumably immiscible) Fe-Ti liquid forms (Stephenson, 1945, Kelly, 1979). In the former case, the conformable oxide-rich layers represent cumulates and the cross cutting ore represents mobilized cumulates. In the later case, both the conformable and crosscutting ore is due to oxide liquid. A third possibility is that magnetite and ilmenite begin to precipitate along with the silicate minerals that form the gabbro but continued fractionation might still result in an oxide liquid at a very late stage.
It has long been argued that liquid immiscibility could not have occurred in the Tahawus ore because of the lack of apatite in the rock (except at Cheney Pond, see below). However, Lindsley (1991) noted that phosphate and Fe-Ti oxides mutually enhance their solubility in silicate liquids. Apatite may not necessarily travel with the immiscible oxide liquid. The key role of apatite, then, may have been to enhance the concentration of an Fe-Ti-rich phase of the residual liquid until immiscibility occurs. The absence of apatite in the resulting ore may not be proof of the lack of immiscibility. Furthermore, it has been shown experimentally that the melting temperatures of Fe oxides are significantly reduced in the presence of carbon (Weidner, 1982). Consequently, the formation of liquid oxide melt at geologically reasonable temperatures is possible.

**CHENEY POND NELSONITE**

Kolker (1980, 1982) describes an occurrence of nelsonite hosted by gabbro just southwest of the Cheney Pond test pit, 2 km west of the Tahawus mill site. This is one of two occurrences of nelsonite in the Adirondacks; the other is located 110 km to the southwest in the village of Port Leyden (Darling and Florence, 1995). Nelsonite near Cheney Pond contains approximately 44-52% magnetite, 4-18% ilmenite, and 24-31% apatite and is the same orebody as that described by Stephenson (1945) except the "gangue silicates" are properly identified as apatite (Kolker, 1982). The host gabbro contains plagioclase, orthopyroxene, clinopyroxene, garnet and abundant magnetite and ilmenite. It is petrogenically similar to oxide-apatite gabbro norites (OAGN) described by Owens and Dymek (1992). Nelsonites are believed to form by magmatic immiscibility (Philpotts, 1967; 1981) or by cumulate processes (Owens and Dymek, 2001), but in both cases the source rocks are either anorthosites or OAGNs. Both rocks occur in the Cheney Pond area but the chemical relationships between the anorthosites, OAGN's, and nelsonites, have not been determined.

**CHRONOLOGY OF TAHAWUS ORES**

The Tahawus magnetite-ilmenite ores were dated by Silver (1969) and gave an essentially concordant age of 1000 +/- 13 Ma. Chiarenzelli and McLellan (pers. comm.) dated a concentration of magnetite-ilmenite on Forest Road that passes along the north shore of Upper Saranac Lake and got a nearly concordant age of 998 +/- 10 Ma. Recent SHRIMP dating by Bickford and McLellan (pers. comm.) have revealed the presence of abundant ca. 1000 Ma zircon overgrowths in ca. 1150 Ma anorthositic-gabbroic rocks. Overgrowths in granitoid rocks are generally not so young and cluster around 1050 Ma. McLellan suggests that the explanation for the 1000 Ma ages in the mafic rocks rests upon the fact that they - and the ores - are rich in ilmenite in which Zr is a proxy for Ti.

When ilmenite crystallizes from magma, it accepts small quantities of Zr as a substitute for Ti. Titaniferous pyroxene behaves similarly. Upon cooling from magmatic temperatures, the Zr will tend to reside metastably in the ilmenite unless a pulse of activation energy occurs. Post-1150 Ma there were two such pulses: Hawkeye Granite heating at ca. 1100 Ma followed by the Ottawa Orogeny at 1090-1030 Ma. Both of these were high temperature events and tectonism may have been insufficient to promote widespread exsolution at these high temperatures. Notwithstanding, the common occurrence of 1050 rims and discrete metamorphic grains attests to liberation of Zr either by exsolution or more likely by the reaction plag+px (mgt-iln) = gt + px + SiO2 (McLellan, Appendix A, IGCP-304 Guidebook, 1992, Bohlen ed.). The involvement of ilmenite as a reactant releases Zr that combines with the SiO2 to form zircon. In ilmenite-rich rocks, especially the ores, the plagioclase and orthopyroxene are scarce so this reaction is a minor factor and Zr remains fixed. After 1050, the area cools down and Zr becomes increasingly metastable in the ilmenite. At ~ 1000 Ma a late orogenic but low relatively temperature pulse hits the area and Zr exsolution takes place, probably in the presence of SiO2-bearing hydrothermal solutions. It is at this time that the 1000 Ma overgrowths form. This late pulse is recorded on the Grenville Front Tectonic Zone, in the Green Mts. (Stamford Granite), and in the eastern Grenville Belt where it is referred to as the Rigolet Pulse (Rivers, 1997). McLellan (pers. comm.) proposes that the ilmenite-rich rocks are dating this event due to the factors described above.

**ADIRONDACK IRON AND STEEL COMPANY**

THE "NEW FURNACE" AT TAHAWUS

The word "plantation" connotes to most people a large antebellum agricultural operation located in the southeastern United States where cotton or sugar cane might have been the principal product. However, the term can
equally be applied to certain isolated, more or less self-contained, communities built around iron production in the Pennsylvania, New York and elsewhere. One such example is the community of Tahawus and the operations of the Adirondack Iron and Steel Company from about 1830 until 1857. The requirements of blast furnace technology of the era dictated that ore, water power and vast amounts of fuel be located in close proximity. This generally dictated that the facilities be located in rural, if not remote, areas. The Adirondack Iron and Steel Company works were located on 106,000 acres of forested land, forty-five miles west of Lake Champlain near the source of the Hudson River but over 100 miles north of the limit of navigability. The Town of Tahawus was built entirely by the Company. It consisted of a church and school, twenty-five houses, a massive boarding house, ice house, carpenter shop, blacksmith shop, saw mill, grist mill and power house (Seely, 1978, 1981). Two farms provided some of the staples needed by the residents such as hay, barley, potatoes, sheep and cattle but due to the climate, flour, salt pork and everything else to supply the community had to be imported from Albany. The ore deposits were at the surface of the earth, actually outcropping in the Hudson River and surrounding the community. The ore was mined by open-pit methods. The blast furnace(s) were supported by charcoal kilns, a puddling furnace, magnetic and wet ore separators, and a not-very-successful cast-crucible steel plant (Seely, 1981).

Two blast furnaces were constructed, both charcoal fueled, fed by wooden charging bridges. The first was in operation in 1844 and the second was constructed in 1854. The second furnace, the "new furnace", was sixty feet (including chimney) high and had a hotter blast than the first, a requirement necessitated by the titanium content of the ore. This furnace featured ore stamps on the bridge to reduce the size of the feed stock and a hot blast stove to preheat the blast air stream (Fig. 3). Water power was used at both installations (Fig.4). A dam was key to increase storage capacity. The new furnace had a dam 180 feet long across the Hudson River that stood twenty-five feet high. Because of the large loss of power in line-shaft transmission, the furnace has to be close to the water wheel.

All of these features, the community, the materials, the power supply and the layout of the operation are characteristic of a charcoal iron works of the 19th century. The Adirondack Iron and Steel Company was a true iron plantation. The owners spent about $500,000 on the project and lost it all. The titanicferous quality of the ore and the ever-envisioned, never-built railroad connection to the property contributed greatly to their downfall.

Figure 3. Partially restored sectional view of the "new" furnace and wheel house.
The second of the two blast furnaces built by the Adirondack Iron and Steel Company stands in outstanding condition. It is the most intact iron furnace in the northeastern United States and arguably, in the world (Youngken, 1989). While the iron industry in general has a long history of consuming its past (old technology is fed to the furnace as new technology is introduced) the circumstances of the failure and closing of this operation led to much better preservation. In a short span of time three events transpired which were fatal to the company. First, one of the principal and very active owners, David Henderson, was accidentally killed by an abdominal gunshot wound. Secondly, a flood destroyed the dam at the "lower works" allowing an artificial lake to drain. This lake had been used to move supplies and pig iron by water for several miles downstream from the furnace site. Finally, a "financial panic", i.e. an economic recession, in 1857 caused the mine and furnace to cease operations. The furnace was idled. The community dissipated. The facility stood, essentially undisturbed and un-scraped, for nearly 150 years.

Even though the Adirondack Iron and Steel Company was located in a very remote part of the mountains, the owners clearly kept abreast of iron technology innovations that occurred in Britain and elsewhere in the United States. Some of these innovations, such as a hot blast stove, were added to the Company's equipment within just few years introduction into the US from England. The new furnace shows many such technological improvements (Fig. 5).
Many of these first appeared in iron furnaces using mineral fuels in Pennsylvania. Although the owners of the Adirondack Iron and Steel Company recognized that the importation of coal was impossible, they did adapt their charcoal-burning furnaces with up-to-date improvement. First of all, the height of the stack new furnace was forty-five feet with a brick chimney topping that. The old furnace probably was originally constructed at twelve to fifteen feet, and eventually increased to thirty to thirty-five feet. The bosh diameter of the new furnace is twelve feet (seven feet in old furnace). The new furnace had a top-mounted hot-blast stove to increase the temperature of the blast air from ambient to 400-600°F. The old 1844 furnace had a hot blast stove sitting beside it on the ground, then located on top in 1845. This idea was only introduced in US from Britain in 1840, demonstrating the company's commitment to new technology. Not surprisingly, the introduction of one new technological development drives others. The hotter furnace caused damage to the cast iron tuyeres so these had to be water cooled. The downcomer pipe, carrying hot air from the stove, had to be upgraded to inch-thick cast iron from galvanized sheet metal to accommodate the hot blast. The stack was reinforced with wrought iron bars to improve stability. These bars doubtless enhanced the preservation of the stack. In order to increase the pressure of the blast air, double acting cylinders were installed with adjustable cranks that could vary the stroke from thirty-six to sixty-six inches.

A visit to the site of the new furnace offers a glimpse into an industry that flourished a century ago. The site of the new furnace was cleared and documented in the late 1970s under the auspices of the Historic American Engineering Record Program. NL Industries was closely involved in this study. Although the forest has begun to reclaim the site, much of the equipment is still well exposed. Visible at the present time are the furnace stack, tuyere arches and tuyeres, casting arch, slag piles, and the entire contents of the wheel house with cross-heads, blowing tubs, and manifold more or less intact and in working position. Of the dam, wooden water wheel and casting house, little remains.
REFERENCES


Austin, G.T., 1993a, Garnet: Mining Engineering, v. 45, no. 6, p. 569-570.


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Kolker, Allan, 1980, Petrology, geochemistry and occurrence of iron-titanium oxide and apatite (nelsonite) rocks: MS Thesis, Univ. of Massachusetts, 156p.


KELLY AND DARLING


ROAD LOG

The Gore Mountain mine of the Barton Mines Corporation is generally open seasonally for visitors. However, it is suggested that visitors call in advance to be sure the mine is open. Arrangements for group tours at any time should be made through Barton Mines Corp., North Creek, NY 12853, (518) 251-2296. The mine at Tahawus and the development pit at Cheney Pond, currently owned by Kronos, Inc., Houston TX, are not open to visitors without prior permission. For information, call (518) 582-2601. Do NOT attempt to visit this mine without permission.

This trip log begins at the Warrensburg exit (23) of the Northway, Route 87. From Lake George Village, travel north on Rt. 87 to reach Exit 23.

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Travel north on Rt. 87 to Warrensburg, Exit 23
Go to end of exit ramp, turn left
Go to traffic light at NYS Rt. 9 north, turn right
Travel through Warrensburg on Rt. 9
Traffic light, go straight
Traffic light at Rt. 418, go straight
Traffic light at fork, fork to right on Rt. 9
Travel Rt. 9 north to intersection with NYS Rt. 28,
Turn left on Rt. 28 west
Blinker at Rt. 8 intersection, go straight
Intersection with Rt. 28N, go straight
Turn left on Barton Mine Road
Travel to end of Barton Mine Road
Note: the intersection of Barton Mine Road and Rt. 28 is marked by a small cluster of buildings. Among these are a Mom 'n' Pop general store with gas pumps and Jasco's mineral shop. On the east side of Rt. 28 facing south there is a sign opposite Barton Mine Road indicating the Barton Mine (Gore Mt.) mineral shop.

STOP 1. BARTON MINES, GORE MT. (1.5-2 hours) Note: there is a charge of $1.00 per pound of material collected, payable at the mineral shop.

Travel back to Rt. 28
5 36.8
Turn right at stop sign, go to Rt 28N at North Creek
6.6 43.4
Turn left on Rt 28N, go straight at 4-way stop
0.1 43.4
Turn right at Blue Ridge Road
21.5 64.9

Note: Sign for NL Ind., MacIntyre Development and sign for High Peaks Wilderness Area

Turn left at Tahawus Road
1.1 66
Turn left at Upper Works Road
6.5 72.5
Proceed to dirt road to Cheney Pond
0.6 73.1
Boulders on right, gate on left

STOP 2. KRONOS, INC., CHENEY POND DEPOSIT (1.5-2 hours)

Proceed north on Upper Works Road
2.0 75.1
Furnace stack is on the right, by the edge of the road, wheel house is close to the river.

STOP 3. ADIRONDACK IRON AND STEEL CO. "NEW" FURNACE (1 hour)

Please take only photographs at this stop. Do not take artifacts as souvenirs.