

Sulfate brines in fluid inclusions of hydrothermal veins:

Compositional determinations in the system H₂O-Na-Ca-Cl-SO₄

Benjamin F. Walter^{1*}, Matthew Steele-MacInnis², Gregor Markl¹

¹Department of Geosciences, University of Tübingen, Wilhelmstrasse 56, 72074 Tübingen, Germany

²Department of Geosciences, The University of Arizona, 1040 E 4th St., Tucson AZ 85721 USA

*Corresponding author: benjamin.walter@uni-tuebingen.de, Tel: 004972072/2973155

ABSTRACT

Sulfate is among the most abundant ions in seawater and sulfate-bearing brines are common in sedimentary basins, among other environments. However, the properties of sulfate-bearing fluid inclusions during microthermometry are as yet poorly constrained, restricting the interpretation of fluid-inclusion compositions where sulfate is a major ion. The Schwarzwald mining district on the eastern shoulder of the Upper Rhinegraben rift is an example of a geologic system characterized by sulfate-bearing brines, and constraints on the anion abundances (chloride versus sulfate) would be desirable as a potential means to differentiate fluid sources in hydrothermal veins in these regions. Here, we use the Pitzer-type formalism to calculate equilibrium conditions along the vapor-saturated liquidus of the system H₂O-Na-Ca-Cl-SO₄, and construct phase diagrams displaying the predicted phase equilibria. We combine these predicted phase relations with microthermometric and crush-leach

analyses of fluid inclusions from veins in the Schwarzwald and Upper Rhinegraben, to estimate the compositions of these brines in terms of bulk salinity as well as cation and anion loads (sodium versus calcium, and chloride versus sulfate). These data indicate systematic differences in fluid compositions recorded by fluid inclusions, and demonstrate the application of detailed low-temperature microthermometry to determine compositions of sulfate-bearing brines. Thus, these data provide new constraints on fluid sources and paleo-hydrology of these classic basin-hosted ore-forming systems. Moreover, the phase diagrams presented herein can be applied directly to compositional determinations in other systems.

Keywords: *hydrothermal fluid; ore deposition; sedimentary basin, fluid mixing, basinal brine, sulfate*

Continental rift systems and large sedimentary basins commonly exhibit pronounced compositional heterogeneity between crystalline and sedimentary rocks. Clastic (arkoses, sandstones, conglomerates, claystones) and chemical sediments (limestones, dolostones, gypsum rock, and halides) commonly reach formation thicknesses of thousands of meters in such basins. Examples include the South East Basin, France (Aquilina et al., 2011), the Maestrat basin, Spain (Boiron et al., 2010), the St. Lawrence rift, Canada (Carignan et al., 1997) and the North German basin, Germany (Lüders et al., 2010). These are large-scale systems containing diverse lithologies of source rocks, typically characterized by notable compositional variability among formation fluids (e.g. Carpenter et al., 1974; Lüders et al., 2010; Göb et al., 2013; Kolchugin et al., 2016; Walter et al., 2016;). To understand the chemical evolution, modification and migration of the different fluids is of both fundamental and economic interest. Migration of fluids in these systems is of relevance to geothermal energy production, mobilization and transport of chemical components, and the genesis of ore deposits (Kendrick et al., 2002; Heijlen et al., 2008; Mercandier et al., 2010; Richard et al., 2010; Fusswinkel et al., 2013). Nevertheless, at present the diversity, circulation and chemical evolution of different fluids in such basins is still only partially understood (e.g. Lorenz, 2002 and references therein).

Over the last decades, numerous publications have dealt with fluid modification and provenance based on measured fluid composition especially on source tracers like metal contents and mass ratios Ca/Na, Cl/Br, Rb/Cs etc. (e.g. Stober & Bucher 1999, Möller et al. 1997; Bucher and Stober, 2010; Loges et al., 2012; Fusswinkel et al., 2013; Göb et al., 2013; Burisch et al., 2016a; Walter et al., 2016). One of the most widely used source tracers is the Cl/Br mass ratio. Highly saline basement brines typically show Cl/Br mass ratios <100. In contrast, brines that acquired their salinity by halite dissolution show Cl/Br mass ratios much higher than that those of seawater (Cl/Br = 288). During surficial halite precipitation in evaporitic settings, the residual bittern brines show progressively decreasing Cl/Br ratios (288-34) with increasing degree of evaporation (Frape and Fritz, 1987; McCaffrey et al., 1987; Edmunds and Savage, 1991; Banks et al., 2000; Stober and Bucher, 2004; Möller et al., 2005; Yardley, 2005; Walter et al., 2016). Furthermore, water-rock interaction with crystalline rocks can result in low Cl/Br mass ratios (Bucher and Stober, 2002). In addition,

Burisch et al. (2016b) showed that fluids with salinities above 20 wt.% and low Cl/Br ratios can only be formed by involving an externally derived bittern brine. Hence, the Cl/Br mass ratio is an effective tool for defining the provenance of basement and formation fluids. Analogously, for modern fluids it is possible to distinguish between different sources according to Cl/Br, Ca/Na and SO₄/Cl ratios (e.g. Göb et al., 2013 and references therein). However, for paleofluids in geologic formations, methods are required to estimate SO₄/Cl ratios of the paleofluids for provenance studies.

Microthermometry of fluid inclusions trapped in veins is an important tool to study the physical and chemical properties of paleofluids (Roedder, 1984). Commonly, the microthermometric properties of basinal fluids trapped as inclusions are interpreted according to the phase equilibria of the binary NaCl-H₂O system, or less commonly the ternary NaCl-CaCl₂-H₂O or NaCl-H₂O-CH₄ systems (Goldstein and Reynolds, 1994; Becker et al., 2010; Fall et al., 2015; Steele-MacInnis et al., 2011; Steele-MacInnis et al., 2016). Quaternary systems are much less characterized, but compositions in the system H₂O-NaCl-CaCl₂-MgCl₂ have been deduced in few studies in order to interpret saline groundwaters and basinal brines (Crawford et al., 1979; Steele-MacInnis et al., 2016).

In contrast to the aforementioned systems, very little has been published regarding the concentrations and effects of sulfate in aqueous fluid inclusions by microthermometry (Steele-MacInnis et al., 2016), despite the recognition by Roedder (1984) that SO₄²⁻ is commonly one of the most abundant solutes in natural inclusions. Sulfate is the second most abundant anion in modern seawater, and becomes enriched in the liquid during seawater evaporation (McCaffrey et al., 1987). Sulfate is also among the most abundant ions in saline groundwater in some, but not all environments (Hem, 1985). Thus, we expect that sulfate may reach significant concentrations in fluid inclusions from some environments, but solidus-liquidus relations appropriate for interpreting sulfate-bearing fluid compositions from microthermometry are mostly lacking. The liquidus phase diagram for the system H₂O-NaCl-Na₂SO₄ was perhaps first constructed by Borisenko (1977; see also Hurai et al., 2015, p. 36). Samson et al. (1995) constructed a liquidus phase diagram for the system H₂O-NaCl-Na₂SO₄ based on experimental data from Linke (1958) and Seshadri and Lobo (1957). Zen (1960) also constructed a partially schematic, partially quantitative liquidus projection of the system H₂O-NaCl-

CaSO₄. Harvie and Weare (1980) used a Pitzer-type approach to model solubilities of various minerals in aqueous solution from 0-25 °C, including sulfate minerals.

Sulfate in fluid inclusions has been previously detected by various microanalytical techniques such as Raman spectroscopy (Frezzotti et al., 2012 and references therein; Hurai et al., 2017) and crush-leach analysis (e.g. Meere & Banks, 1997; Vandeginste et al., 2009; Burisch et al., 2017, Walter et al., 2016). Sulfur, likely in the form of sulfate, has also been analyzed by decrepitate-mound analysis (e.g., Pandur et al., 2014), and laser ablation (LA)-ICPMS (e.g. Burisch et al., 2016a, Prokopyev et al., 2016). Nevertheless, the effect(s) of sulfate during microthermometric measurements remain of key interest for several reasons. Firstly, microthermometry remains the most commonly employed, routine method for analyzing aqueous inclusions (Steele-MacInnis et al., 2016). Secondly, methods such as LA-ICPMS of individual fluid inclusions and crush leach (IC and TXRF) rely on an accurate value of a known, internal-standard concentration (typically [Na⁺] or chlorinity) to convert element ratios into absolute concentrations, and the internal-standard concentration is most commonly inferred via microthermometry (Allan et al., 2005; Leisen et al., 2012; Steele-MacInnis et al., 2016). This remains a significant challenge for fluids that contain sulfate, as the potential effects of sulfate on microthermometric properties are commonly ignored. Furthermore, inclusions containing appreciable sulfate apparently exhibit a tendency to metastable behavior (Kotel'nikova and Kotel'nikov, 2007).

For this contribution we focus on fluid inclusions in hydrothermal veins from the Schwarzwald mining district in SW Germany. The Schwarzwald is a well-investigated area. Numerous previous studies include: studies of the regional geology (Ziegler, 1990, Geyer and Gwinner, 2011 and references therein); detailed mineralogical and fluid inclusion microthermometric studies of specific ore deposits (e.g. Baatartsogt, 2006, 2007; Fußwinkel et al., 2013; Markl et al., 2006; Pfaff et al., 2010; Schwinn et al., 2006; Staude et al., 2007, 2009, 2010a, 2011a, 2012a, b; Ströbele et al., 2012; Walter et al., 2015, 2016); trace-element studies of common ore minerals of the district, such as fahlore (tetrahedrite-tennantite) and sphalerite (Staude et al., 2010b; Pfaff et al., 2011); stable isotope analyses (Staude et al., 2011a, 2012a, 2012b; Walter et al., 2015) and age-dating (Pfaff et al., 2009, and references therein); studies on the composition of modern thermal, mineral and formation waters (Stober & Bucher 1999, 2010; Möller et al. 1997; Loges et al., 2012; Göb et al.,

2013); paleo-hydrological modeling (Pfaff et al., 2010; Staude et al., 2011a; Bons et al., 2014; Walter et al., 2015, 2016) and also hydrogeological/hydraulic investigations (Stober & Bucher 2004) as well as experimental rock leaching studies (Bucher and Stober, 2002; Burisch et al., 2016a). Recently, Walter et al. (2016) reported that fluid inclusions in certain vein generations and host minerals contain appreciable sulfate, which may reflect fluid source. Sulfate containing inclusions were recognized on primary growth zones. These fluid signature alternates with NaCl-CaCl₂-H₂O type fluids on several growth zones within one host mineral crystal. They were recognized by the presence of three solid phases. Besides ice, one of these solids shows an incongruent dissolution at about -22°C and two other greenish solids were still present at positive temperatures, which make it easy to detect this fluid type.

In this study, we document the predicted liquidus relations in the quaternary system H₂O-Na-Ca-Cl-SO₄ and its sub-systems, with application to estimating compositions of saline, sulfate-bearing brine inclusions in hydrothermal veins and hence, with attention to the chloride/sulfate endowments of these fluids.

2. GEOLOGICAL SETTING

The Schwarzwald (Fig. 1) in SW-Germany mainly consists of crystalline basement rocks, dominantly metasedimentary gneisses, migmatites and granites, that were metamorphosed during Carboniferous (Variscan) collisional processes (Geyer and Gwinner, 2011). These metamorphic rocks were intruded between 335 and 315 Ma by post-collisional granites (Todt, 1976; Altherr et al., 2000; Hann, 2003). These crystalline basement rocks were covered by a Paleozoic and Mesozoic sedimentary sequence atop the Permian erosion surface (Geyer and Gwinner, 2011; and references therein).

During the Permian (Rotliegend), the basins (thickness ≤500m) received sedimentation of redbeds (arkoses, conglomerates, evaporites; Jenkner, 1986; Nitsch and Zedler, 2009; Geyer and Gwinner, 2011). Since Lower Triassic, distal quartzitic Buntsandstein units were deposited and reached a thickness of ≤400m in the northern and <50 m in the southern Schwarzwald. The

Buntsandstein is locally separated from the Middle Triassic by the Rötton clay aquitard in the north. Middle Triassic (Muschelkalk) units, including limestones, shales and evaporites (carbonates, anhydrite, gypsum and halite) reach thicknesses from 160 to 220 m (Stober & Bucher, 2014) in SW Germany. During the Upper Triassic (Keuper), dominantly clastic sediments and evaporitic gypsum formations were deposited, with thickness varying between about 300 m in the north to <100 m in the south. During the Jurassic, an approximately 1100 m thick unit of mostly marine carbonates and claystones was deposited (Geyer and Gwinner, 2011). No Cretaceous sediments are preserved owing to tectonic uplift and erosion.

Since the breakup of the Upper Rhinegraben rifting (see Fig 1), Paleogene to Quaternary sediments of locally up to 4000 m thickness were deposited in the Upper Rhinegraben, including Oligocene halite-sylvite bearing evaporates, anhydrite, gypsum and organic-rich claystones (Geyer and Gwinner, 2011 and references therein, Stober & Bucher, 2014).

2.1. Hydrothermal veins in the Schwarzwald

About 1000 hydrothermal veins are known in the Schwarzwald (Metz et al., 1957; Blüedner & Martin, 1986; Staude et al., 2009, Walter et al., 2016). Most of the veins consist of quartz, fluorite, barite and carbonates with a wide range in modal amounts of base and precious metal oxides, sulfides and arsenides (Fe-Mn, Cu-Pb-Zn and Ag-Bi-Co-Ni-U) (Metz et al., 1957). Five maxima of hydrothermal activity which are related to events of vein formation are known in the Schwarzwald, starting in late-Carboniferous with quartz-tourmaline veins; followed by Permian quartz veins with rare Au-Sb mineralization; then barren Triassic-Jurassic quartz-hematite veins; then Jurassic-Cretaceous fluorite-barite-quartz-carbonate veins with (sub-) economic amounts of Pb-Zn-Cu, Fe-Mn and or rarely Ag-Bi-Co-Ni-U ores; and finally post-Cretaceous quartz-barite-fluorite ± carbonate veins with variable mineralogy and Pb±Zn±Cu± (As) mineralization (Staude et al., 2012; Pfaff et al., 2009, Walter et al., 2016). All the veins studied herein belong to the latter, post-Cretaceous group and are related to the opening of the Upper Rhinegraben.

2.2. Hydrology of the Schwarzwald and Upper Rhinegraben

Data on water chemistry from numerous drill holes and wells show that a vertical fluid stratification is present in the Schwarzwald basement (Bucher & Stober, 2010). Representative fluid data is presented in table 1. Shallow bore holes (<1 km depth) contain Ca-Na-HCO₃ type fluids with low TDS of <2 wt.%. Below 3 km, the fluid composition changes to CO₂-bearing Ca-Na-HCO₃-SO₄ type fluids, in which the high SO₄ content probably relates to oxidation of sulfides in the host rock. In the transition zone between oxidized to reduced fluid conditions, the sulfate and CO₂ content in the fluid decreases continuously with increasing chlorinity. The deepest fluids known today (down to about 8 km depth in the Urach HDR drilling) are high-TDS (total dissolved solids) Na-Ca-Cl fluids (~200 g/L) with Cl/Br mass ratios ~80-100 and a low SO₄/Cl mole ratio of ~0.014 typical of deep seated brines worldwide (Bucher and Stober, 2010; Edmunds and Savage, 1991; Emmermann et al., 1995; Frape and Fritz, 1987; Frape et al., 1984; Köhler, 1992; Kozlovsky, 1984; Sanjuan et al., 2010). This vertical fluid stratification is interpreted to be a result of successive infiltration of surface derived waters into the crust over time (Agemar et al., 2013; Bons et al., 2014; Walter et al., 2016 and references therein).

2.2.1. Sedimentary cover (Permian-Jurassic)

The various sedimentary cover rocks show a wide range in compositions and permeabilities that are reflected by variable fluid compositions. Fluids from Permian redbeds are typically Na-Ca-(K)-Cl fluids with a maximum TDS of 124 g/L (Pauwels et al., 1993). The Permian sedimentary basins are only locally present and hence, not significant aquifers in the study area (Geyer & Gwinner, 2011).

Lower Triassic (Buntsandstein) formation waters are Na-Ca-HCO₃-Cl-(SO₄) type fluids with a maximum TDS of 207 g/L and Cl/Br mass ratios of 165-327 and SO₄/Cl mole ratios ($\frac{[SO_4]}{[SO_4] + [Cl]}$) of 0.009-0.010 (Pauwels et al., 1993, Ludwig et al., 2011). Formation waters in the middle Triassic (Muschelkalk) limestone-gypsum-halite formation show a wide range in composition, depending of the specific lithological facies. Those from the dolomite and sulfate (gypsum/anhydrite)

lithologies are Na-Ca-(Mg)-Cl-HCO₃-SO₄ and Ca-Mg-Na-HCO₃-SO₄-Cl fluids of low to moderate TDS (6 g/L), a Cl/Br mass ratio of 25-725 and a SO₄/Cl mole ratio of 0.2 – 0.77 (He et al., 1999; Göb et al., 2013). However, those which interacted with the halite formation are Na-(Ca)-Cl fluids with a TDS up to 246 g/L (He et al., 1999; Göb et al., 2013) and show high chlorinity and high Cl/Br mass ratios up to 9900 with a SO₄/Cl mole ratios of 0.015-0.017 (Stober and Bucher, 1999; Göb et al., 2013).

Fluids in the upper Triassic (Keuper) clay-, sand- and marlstone formations are of the Ca-Na-HCO₃-SO₄-Cl type with TDS ($\leq$ 2.5 g/L), high Cl/Br mass ratios of 405-533 and SO₄/Cl mole ratios of 0.375-0.875 (Göb et al., 2013) (Köhler et al., 1992; Göb et al., 2013). Previous studies show that the Keuper rocks are of minor importance as aquifers (Stober and Bucher, 2014).

The Lower Jurassic (Lias) clay formation is an aquitard rather than an aquifer and the pore fluids of this strata are negligible. In the Rhinegraben valley, the Middle Jurassic (Dogger, Hauptrogenstein Fe-rich limestones) contains a karst aquifer for thermal waters with two different types of fluids: a Na-Ca-Cl fluid with SO₄/Cl mole ratios of 0.077-0.933 with Cl/Br mass ratios of 234-338 and a Ca-Mg-HCO₃-SO₄ water with a SO₄/Cl mole ratio of 0.777 and a Cl/Br mass ratio of 72 (He et al., 1999).

2.2.2. Tertiary and Quaternary sediment fillings in the Upper Rhinegraben

The Tertiary filling above the Jurassic strata in the Upper Rhinegraben dominantly consists of evaporite sequences (sulfates and halides) that are interlayered with limestone and locally occurring organic-rich shales (Pechelbronn formation). Quaternary sediments on the Tertiary surface are mainly gravel formations. Below the Tertiary sediments in the Upper Rhinegraben, tilted blocks of the former sedimentary cover (Triassic-Jurassic) are known. Fluids hosted in these lithologies are discussed above. Hydrothermal sulfates in fractures (dominantly anhydrite and gypsum,) are related to Ca-SO₄-rich fluids of presumably high SO₄/Cl ratio, derived from an about 400 m thick sulfate-bearing formation in the rift (Lorenz, 2002). Fluids that have interacted with Oligocene halite are Na-dominated, have a high TDS and high Cl/Br ratios up to 2400 (Stober and Bucher, 1999) and a

presumably low SO_4/Cl mole ratio. Furthermore, fluids that are related to the 600m thick Oligocene gypsum-anhydrite-halite-sylvite Pechelbronn formation in the rift are expected to have a $\text{CaSO}_4\text{-NaCl-KCl}$ signature with a high SO_4/Cl mole ratio (Borchert, 1959).

2.3. Sample material

To investigate the sulfate-bearing brines that were involved in ore formation, five locations have been investigated in detail. All of these five veins are situated in fractures of the Upper Rhinegraben fault system (SSW-NNE and NW-SE trending). Hence, all veins are of post-Cretaceous age and belong to the same hydrothermal maximum (Walter et al., 2015; 2016). The centimetre-sized quartz samples (Fig. 2A-E) contain primary fluid inclusions which decorate macroscopically visible growth zones (defined by fluid inclusions and clay minerals on the former crystal surfaces). In two localities the selected euhedral quartz crystals represent the youngest precipitates. The Böschlisgrund (Fig. 2A) Karl August Mine (Fig. 2B) and Kropbach Hof (Fig. 2D)samples contain primary fluid inclusions in the ore-stage quartz. All the localities are located within a few kilometres (<5km) of each other.

The Karl-August quartz vein (sample BO66, see Fig. 2B) is situated 2 km east of the Rhinegraben boundary fault in the Münstertal. The vein follows the boundary of a granitic dyke in the paragneiss unit and contains massive sphalerite associated with grey fine-grained quartz overgrown by large euhedral quartz crystals.

The Riggerbach (samples BO29, Fig. 2C) and Böschlisgrund veins (Fig. 2A, BO98) show an early quartz-galena-sphalerite stage followed by a younger siderite stage with massive Cu-Ni ores. Euhedral, large quartz crystals are the latest assemblage and overgrow the former paragenetic sequence (Pb-Zn and Ni-Cu stages). The Riggerbach mine (Fig. 2C) is situated in the Münstertal, about 4 km East of the Rhinegraben boundary fault, whereas the Böschlisgrund vein (Fig. 2A) crops out northeast of the town of Sulzburg about 5 km east of the Rhinegraben boundary fault.

The Wildsbach West (Fig. 2D) and Kropbach Hof mines (Fig. 2E) are mined a few hundred meterto the east and west of the Karl-August Mine (Fig. 2B) respectively in the Münstertal. An early galena-sphalerite-fahlore quartz stage is overgrown by barren euhedral, centimetre-sized quartz crystals.

3. METHODS

3.1. Microthermometry

Cross sections through selected hydrothermal quartz crystals with up to two doubly polished thick sections (150 to 350 μ m) were prepared. The chronological sequence of fluid inclusions (fluid inclusion assemblages, FIA, Goldstein and Reynolds, 1994) was determined by optical microscopy. Fluid inclusions were classified as primary (p), pseudo-secondary (ps), secondary (s), isolated inclusions (iso) and clusters of inclusions with no geometrical relation to former crystal surfaces or fractures (c) (Walter et al., 2015). Microthermometric analyses were performed using a Linkam stage (model THMS600). Each fluid inclusion was analyzed by low-temperature microthermometry to determine the final melting temperature of various solids: ice ($T_{m,ice}$), hydrohalite ($T_{m,hh}$), halite ($T_{m,hal}$), mirabilite ($T_{m,mir}$) as well as an additional sulfate phase (presumably gypsum, $T_{m,gyp}$) and the homogenization temperature (T_h). Synthetic H₂O, H₂O-NaCl and H₂O-CO₂ standards were used for calibration. The precision of the measurements is less than 0.1°C. Fluid inclusion assemblages with strong deviation in salinity ($> \pm 2$ wt.% NaCl + CaCl₂) within a homogeneous trail were excluded for discussion, since this behavior suggests that the inclusions may have been modified by post-entrapment processes. Volume fractions were estimated by optical microscopy (Shepherd et al., 1985; Bakker and Diamond, 2006) and were described in the volume fraction notation based on their phase assemblage at room temperature (L_x , numerical subscription refers to the volume percentage of aqueous liquid), carbonic liquid (L_c), vapor (V) and solid (S)). A pressure correction (Bodnar and Vityk, 1994) was applied assuming hydrostatic conditions with a depth of the water column inferred from paleo-depth. Uncertainties of this approach are discussed in Walter et al. (2015). For the high salinity fluid inclusions of the Schwarzwald, pressure corrections have only a negligible effect on the

estimated trapping temperature.

3.2. Micro-Raman spectroscopy

Micro-Raman measurements were performed with a Renishaw InVia Reflex confocal Raman spectrometer at the University of Tübingen to detect and identify volatile components and sulfate in representative fluid inclusion assemblages. All measurements were carried out with a laser wavelength of 532nm using a laser output of 50%. The x50 objective used has a numerical aperture of 0.55 with an opening angle of 66.7°. The slit diaphragm was regulated and corrected automatically. The focus diameter was approximately 2µm, the measurement time was 30 seconds with three accumulations. To correct any influence from the matrix, measurements in the host mineral were performed under identical conditions and orientation. As far as possible (depending on inclusion size), separate measurements focusing on liquid and on vapour were performed. For qualitative evaluation, the Raman database for fluid inclusions of Frezzotti et al. (2012) was used.

3.3. Crush-leach analysis

From 6 samples that contained only one fluid type (as determined by petrography and microthermometry prior to crush-leach analysis), about 3 g of quartz, (grain size of 2.5 to 5 mm) were separated by hand to avoid visible impurities. The analyses were performed at the University of Tübingen following the method of Köhler et al. (2009) and Walter et al. (2016). These separates were first washed for 3.5 hours in HNO₃ at 60-70°C and subsequently washed for one week with ultrapure water, changing the water twice a day. These samples were then dried and crushed in an agate mortar. Subsequently, 10 ml of ultrapure water were added, which was acidified with suprapure HNO₃ to suppress adsorption of doubly-charged cations (especially Ca²⁺; Köhler et al., 2009). The loaded solutions were injected into a Dionex ICS 1000 ion chromatography systems, equipped with an IonPac AS 9-HC 2mm column for quantification of anions (F, Cl, Br, PO₄ and SO₄) and an IonPac CS 12-A column for cations (Li, Na, K, Mg, Ca, Ba, Sr). For injection of the solutions, disposable syringe filters CROMAFILE® Xtra RC-20/25 and CROMAFILE® Xtra PVDF-20/25 for anions and cations,

respectively, were used (Ladenburger 2012, and Ladenburger et al., 2012). Blank runs were carried out after each analysis, and standard solutions were regularly analysed to monitor the reproducibility and precision of the measurements. Uncertainties were usually smaller than 15% (thus, <30% for the element ratios) and effective detection limits were generally <10 mg/L. Absolute concentrations were calculated based on the salinity determined by microthermometry using Cl as internal standard (Allan et al., 2005).

The complete dataset is presented in the electronic supplement. All of the crush-leach solutions contain dissolved carbonate (presumably HCO_3^-) from fluid inclusions (as indicated by the presence of CO_2 based on Raman spectroscopy) and we assume that the positive deviations from electrical neutrality can be ascribed to carbonate species (e.g. Bottrell et al., 1988; Banks et al., 2000; Dolnischek et al. 2014). Contamination of the leachates by dissolution of host minerals is not relevant for quartz.

3.4. Numerical modeling: The system Na-Ca-Cl-SO₄

The solidus-liquidus phase equilibria were calculated in binary, ternary and quaternary compositional space within the system $\text{H}_2\text{O-Na-Ca-Cl-SO}_4$ using procedures similar to those described by Steele-MacInnis et al. (2016). Briefly, we used the Pitzer-type ion interaction model to compute the activities of solutes and H_2O , using interaction parameters tabulated by Marion and Kargel (2008). The model of Pitzer (1973) and Pitzer and Mayorga (1974) allows computation of the activities of ions (as well as non-electrolyte solutes) and solvent by parameterizing and invoking all potential two-way (binary) and three-way (ternary) interactions in a solution. The parameters for ion interactions are temperature functions (Marion and Kargel, 2008). Equilibrium between liquid and solid is attained with the appropriate ion activity product is equal to the solubility product of a given mineral. The solubility products are also described by temperature functions (Marion and Kargel, 2008), permitting calculation of solid-liquid equilibria over a range of temperatures. This model has been previously applied to compute solidus-liquidus phase diagrams for some binary systems by Spencer et al. (1990), and for binary, ternary and quaternary systems in which chloride is the only anion by Williams-Jones and Samson (1990) and Steele-MacInnis et al. (2016).

In this study, we focus on solidus-liquidus equilibria at vapor saturation of binary and ternary subsystems, and one quaternary (reciprocal) system, described in detail below. For the binary systems, Gibbs' phase rule specifies that three-phase coexistence (solid-liquid-vapor) is univariant, thus forming liquidus lines in temperature-composition space. The univariant lines intersect at invariant four-phase point(s). The locus of points along the three-phase univariant lines are determined by solving, at each temperature, the concentration of salt that satisfies equality between the ion activity product and the solubility product for the given mineral. Invariant points are determined by the intersections of univariant lines. For the ternary systems, the univariant lines represent the four-phase coexistence of liquid, vapor and two solids. As such, these lines are determined by adjusting the concentrations of two solutes at each temperature, to satisfy the equality of ion-activity product and solubility product of two solids simultaneously. Ternary invariant points occur at the intersection of four-phase curves, and five phases (liquid, vapor and three solids) are in equilibrium at these points, which also represent the intersection between the liquidus and solidus. In the quaternary system the univariant lines represent equilibrium of five phases (liquid, vapor and three solids), and thus three solid-liquid equilibria must be satisfied simultaneously.

The systems modeled here are as follows: Binary systems modeled are H_2O - NaCl and H_2O - CaCl_2 (from Steele-MacInnis et al., 2016), plus H_2O - Na_2SO_4 and H_2O - CaSO_4 . Ternary systems modeled are H_2O - NaCl - CaCl_2 (from Steele-MacInnis et al., 2016), H_2O - NaCl - Na_2SO_4 , H_2O - CaCl_2 - CaSO_4 , and H_2O - Na_2SO_4 - CaSO_4 . Notice that the ternary systems included here always contain either a common cation or a common anion between the two salt components. This ensures that the compositional space sampled is strictly ternary, i.e. not involving precipitation of solid phases whose compositions lie outside of the compositional space. For example, the system H_2O - Na_2SO_4 - CaCl_2 is not a true ternary system, but rather pseudoternary (quaternary) because of gypsum/anhydrite precipitation – as these two minerals lie outside of the H_2O - Na_2SO_4 - CaCl_2 compositional space. The quaternary system modeled here is the reciprocal system H_2O - Na - Ca - Cl - SO_4 . Although this notation suggests that the latter is a system of five components, the system occupies quaternary compositional space because we can only specify the amount of H_2O plus three ions independently, whereas the concentration of the remaining (fourth) ion is always constrained by the requirement of charge

balance. Stated differently, we can fully describe any composition in this system terms of H₂O plus three salts by writing the fourth salt as a linear combination of the other three (albeit with negative stoichiometries; Clibbens, 1920) such as: $\text{CaCl}_2 = \text{CaSO}_4 + 2\text{NaCl} - \text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$. For convenience, we can also describe compositions in this quaternary system in terms of coordinates within a square-based pyramid of compositional space (rather than a tetrahedron, as used for quaternary systems involving three salts of a common ion; Steele-MacInnis et al., 2016). Importantly, by projecting from the H₂O apex of the compositional pyramid onto the plane of four salts, we can represent the ice+vapor-saturated liquidus surfaces on a two-dimensional plane (Clibbens, 1920; Crawford et al., 1979; Steele-MacInnis et al., 2016). In the case of a reciprocal system such as H₂O-Na-Ca-Cl-SO₄, the projection from the H₂O apex can be represented as a compositional square, of which one axis represents mole fraction of anions (e.g., $[\text{SO}_4^{2-}] / ([\text{Cl}^-] + [\text{SO}_4^{2-}])$) and the other axis represents mole fraction of cations (e.g., $[\text{Na}^+] / ([\text{Na}^+] + [\text{Ca}^{2+}])$). This projection is sometimes referred to as Jänecke's method (Clibbens, 1920).

4. RESULTS

4.1. Microthermometry

Detailed petrography (optical microscopy and microthermometry) of fluid inclusion assemblages (FIAs) enables their classification according to their relative age. Major differences between primary and secondary fluid inclusions analyzed in this study can be summarized as follows: Primary inclusions along crystal growth zones are typically smaller (<5-15 μm) than secondary inclusions and pseudosecondary assemblages (<5-80 μm), which mostly occur along (partly) sealed fractures and crosscut the primary structures often exhibiting angular shapes. We used the temporal relationships between FIAs to construct the relative temporal sequence of fluid inclusions (p, s, ps, iso) analyzed here.

In general, veins situated directly on the Rhinegraben boundary fault or on conjugate faults (related to the boundary fault) show complex, temporally alternating fluid signatures within one host mineral crystal involving low-, medium- and high-salinity fluid inclusion assemblages of variable temperatures (Walter et al., 2015, 2016). Figure 3A illustrates the primary occurrence of sulfate

bearing fluids on a growth zone. Veins situated on faults farther away from the Rhinegraben boundary fault typically do not show such complex sequences. For this study only the sulfate bearing fluids are reported, because the focus is on these fluids. The complete raw data is presented in the electronic supplement. The following section deals with the characteristics of the natural sulfate-bearing fluids from the Münstertal mining district in SW-Germany, which serves as a representative example of the types of microthermometric observations characteristic of sulfate brines.

Two types of sulfate-bearing fluids were recognized, hereafter referred to as type A and type B. The type A inclusions show a freezing point depression between -40 and -80°C and final melting of ice from -0.1 to -12.9°C. In many inclusions, an equant dark green solid phase dissolves between +22.3 and +24.0°C. In some inclusions, a long prismatic, lime green solid SO₄-phase melts between +44.2 and +66.8°C. One distinguishing characteristic of these type B inclusions is the observation of hydrohalite (NaCl·2H₂O) dissolution between -22.3 and -26°C which is identified by a peritectic reaction to XXX. Homogenization temperatures show variations between 107°C and 223°C with L₉₀(LV)₁₀ to L₈₀(LV)₂₀. The main defining attribute of type B is a clearly visible double bubble, suggesting a CO₂-bearing fluid. Melting of solid CO₂ in these inclusions occurs between -56.4 and -56.8°C. The CO₂-rich phases within the inclusions homogenizes to the vapor phase (L_{aq}L_{car}V → L_{aq}V) between +21.3 and +31°C. Clathrate is observed in some FIAs, finally melting at +1.4°C to +6.4°C. Micro-Raman data confirm both SO₄ and CO₂ bands. Based on the measured CO₂ homogenization temperature (to the vapor phase, indicating low CO₂ density) and the visually estimated volume fractions, we infer that the CO₂ mole fraction, X_{CO2}, is between about 2 to 5 mol% in the inclusions. Figure 3B-E illustrates the microthermometric observations of this fluid type within a large fluid inclusion. Figure 3F and G report the presence of SO₄ in the fluid phase by Micro-Raman and LA-ICPMS.

Fluids of type B were found in one sample only: BO66. These inclusions solidified around -70 to -100 °C. First melting occurred above -45°C. Final ice melting was detected between -10.9 and -15°C, at which temperature the inclusions were observed to contain a mixture of two greenish solids (plus liquid plus vapour). Final dissolution of the first of these, an equant, dark green solid phase, was reached at +21.8 to +24°C. Final dissolution of the second greenish solid, a lime green, long prismatic

solid phase occurred at +44.2° to +66.8°C (see green solids in Fig. 3B-E). Homogenization temperatures vary within an assemblage (between 8° and 40°C) and range from 107 °C to 220 °C between different assemblages. Inclusion sizes vary from <5 µm to >100 µm with volume fractions of L₉₀V₁₀ to L₉₀V₅ (i.e., 5-10 vol% vapour).

4.2. Crush-leach analyses

In total, 6 crush leach analyses of 6 veins were performed. The complete dataset is presented in the electronic supplement (HCO₃ is derived by charge balance). In accordance with the microthermometric results, these analyses record the presence of SO₄, with SO₄/Cl mole ratios of 0.192-0.594 in the two recognized fluid types: Na-Ca-Cl-SO₄, and Na-Ca-Cl-SO₄-HCO₃. The calculated HCO₃ content (based on charge balance) is in the range of 435-3800 (meq/l).

4.3. Phase relations on the vapor-saturated liquidus

4.3.1. Binary systems

For compositional determinations based on microthermometric observations, it is instructive to start by interpreting binary phase diagrams, and subsequently combine these systems to investigate higher-order systems. Therefore Fig. 4 shows the vapor-saturated liquidus relations for four binary systems: H₂O-NaCl, H₂O-CaCl₂, H₂O-Na₂SO₄ and H₂O-CaSO₄. The two former, chloride-bearing systems have been described in detail previously (Spencer et al., 1990; Bodnar and Vityk, 1994; Oakes et al., 1990; Baumgartner and Bakker, 2000; Steele-MacInnis et al., 2016). Briefly, both systems are characterized by eutectic points separating the ice-stable liquidus from the liquidus of salt hydrate (hydrohalite in the system H₂O-NaCl, and antarcticite, CaCl₂·8H₂O, in the system H₂O-CaCl₂). Peritectic points separate the liquidus lines of hydrohalite from halite in the former system (Fig. 4A), and separate three hydrates of calcium chloride (antarcticite, sinjarite, and Ca-dihydrate) as well as anhydrous calcium chloride (not shown on Fig. 4B). The eutectic temperature in the system H₂O-NaCl is approximately -21.2 °C, and the eutectic liquid composition 23.3 wt% NaCl (Hall et al., 1988). The

eutectic temperature in the system $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CaCl}_2$ is approximately $-50\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, and the eutectic liquid composition $\sim 31\text{ wt}\%$ CaCl_2 (Yanatieva, 1946).

Binary phase diagrams of sulfate-bearing systems are shown in Fig. 4C and 4D, and differ markedly from the chloride-bearing systems in several ways. Firstly, both systems, $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$ and $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CaSO}_4$, exhibit only modest freezing-point depression of ice to the eutectic temperature (and concomitantly, relatively dilute eutectic liquid compositions), as well as retrograde solubility of salts and/or salt hydrates (Fig. 4C and 4D). In the system $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$, the predicted eutectic temperature is approximately $-1.1\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, with a liquid of $3.9\text{ wt}\%$ Na_2SO_4 coexisting with ice plus mirabilite. Mirabilite decomposes to thenardite (anhydrous Na_2SO_4) plus liquid at a peritectic point located at about $+32.5\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and a liquid composition of $31.8\text{ wt}\%$ Na_2SO_4 . Thenardite exhibits retrograde solubility on the liquidus over the range of temperature investigated here, such that by $+55\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, the liquid salinity in equilibrium with thenardite has decreased to $24.7\text{ wt}\%$ Na_2SO_4 (Fig. 4C).

The liquidus in the system $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CaSO}_4$ is notably different from both the chloride-bearing binaries and from the system $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$, as a consequence of the exceptionally low solubilities of both gypsum and anhydrite (Fig. 4D). The predicted eutectic point, at which ice is in equilibrium with gypsum, occurs at approximately $-0.02\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and a liquid composition of $0.13\text{ wt}\%$ CaSO_4 . The gypsum liquidus is nearly vertical (i.e., solubility shows little temperature dependence) over the range of temperature investigated here. In detail, gypsum shows prograde solubility up to approximately $+33\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, above which the solubility is retrograde. Over the range of temperature analyzed here, anhydrite is always metastable (Fig. 4D). The predicted metastable eutectic between ice and anhydrite is located at $-0.07\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ at a liquid salinity of $0.38\text{ wt}\%$ CaSO_4 . The metastable anhydrite liquidus shows retrograde solubility, such that this curve will intersect the gypsum liquidus at just above $+55\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (just beyond the maximum on the y-axis of Fig. 4D). The crossover point between the liquidi of gypsum and anhydrite is a peritectic point, at which gypsum decomposes to anhydrite plus liquid during heating.

4.3.2. Ternary systems

Figure 5 shows the vapor-saturated liquidus relations of the system $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{NaCl}-\text{CaCl}_2$ (Vanko et al., 1988; Schiffries et al., 1990; Oakes et al., 1990; Steele-MacInnis et al., 2011; Steele-MacInnis et

al., 2016). This system is characterized by wide stability fields of ice and halite on the liquidus, separated by a swath of hydrohalite stability. The stability fields of antarcticite and other calcium salts are limited to a thin sliver at very Ca-rich compositions, owing to the salting-out of halite by soluble calcium salts (Steele-MacInnis et al., 2016). These features of the liquidus phase diagram for H₂O-NaCl-CaCl₂ are nearly identical to those of other systems of H₂O, NaCl and divalent-cation chlorides (e.g., MgCl₂ and FeCl₂; Lecumberri-Sanchez et al., 2015; Steele-MacInnis et al., 2016). The eutectic in this system is located at approximately -50 °C, at which point a very CaCl₂-rich liquid is in equilibrium with ice, hydrohalite and antarcticite. For most geologic fluid compositions, antarcticite is the first solid to melt, followed by hydrohalite, with ice melting last; in this case, the hydrohalite melting temperature provides a constraint on the NaCl:CaCl₂ ratio, whereas the ice melting temperature constrains the bulk salinity (Steele-MacInnis et al., 2011; Schlegel et al., 2012; Steele-MacInnis et al., 2016).

Figure 6 shows the vapor-saturated liquidus surface in the system H₂O-NaCl-Na₂SO₄, predicted in the present study. This diagram is consistent with the phase diagram constructed by Samson et al. (1995) using the empirical data of Seshadri and Lobo (1957) and Linke (1958). The first most obvious difference in this system, compared to the systems with NaCl and divalent cation chlorides such as CaCl₂ (Fig. 5), is the large stability field of mirabilite and the concomitant collapse of the ice-liquidus field to a thin wedge near the H₂O-NaCl join. The hydrohalite field is also reduced to a thin sliver near the H₂O-NaCl join, and as such, the eutectic point in this system (at which ice, hydrohalite and mirabilite are in equilibrium) is located very close to the binary H₂O-NaCl eutectic at -21.5 °C. The stability field of thenardite also encroaches on the formerly extensive halite liquidus. All of these features can be rationalized in terms of the relatively low solubility of sulfate salts. The reduced extent of the ice and hydrohalite fields imply significantly different sequence of melting temperatures for inclusions containing even modest sulfate concentrations: Firstly, hydrohalite is unlikely to be the second-to-last solid phase to melt in such inclusions and, rather, hydrohalite is commonly the first phase consumed at the eutectic. Secondly, for a wide range of compositions, ice is the second-to-last (rather than last) phase to melt, followed by mirabilite as the last phase to melt.

Systems containing CaSO_4 (Figs. 7 and 8) exhibit liquidus relations dominated by the stability field of gypsum, owing to the very low solubility of the latter phase. As such, all of the univariant curves are compressed towards the CaSO_4 -free binary join when plotted in ternary mass-fraction space. In order to better display the unvariant boundaries, we therefore recast the projection by multiplying the CaSO_4 concentration (wt%) by 50x, and renormalizing to 100% with respect to the sum of H_2O , CaCl_2 and 50x CaSO_4 (Fig. 7) or with respect to the sum of H_2O , Na_2SO_4 and 50x CaSO_4 (Fig. 8).

The liquidus of the system H_2O - CaCl_2 - CaSO_4 is dominated by the stability field of gypsum, with the ice liquidus and antarcticite liquidus each occupying a relatively thin sliver near the H_2O - CaCl_2 join. The eutectic in this ternary system is thus approximately coincident with that in the H_2O - CaCl_2 system. The gypsum liquidus surface exhibits a very steep temperature-salinity trajectory, analogous to that in the binary system H_2O - CaSO_4 . As such, the isotherms on the gypsum liquidus cluster very close to the ice-gypsum cotectic curve (Fig. 7)

The liquidus of the system H_2O - Na_2SO_4 - CaSO_4 is also dominated by the gypsum stability field, but although not as much as in the system H_2O - CaCl_2 - CaSO_4 because of the competing mirabilite stability field (Fig. 8). The ice liquidus is restricted to very close to the H_2O apex, and the eutectic point between ice, mirabilite and gypsum is located at just above -1°C , with a liquid composition of ca. 1.3 wt% Na_2SO_4 and 0.1 wt% CaSO_4 . These data suggest that for wide ranges of composition in this system, ice will be the first phase consumed at the eutectic. The liquid composition will then evolve along the mirabilite plus gypsum cotectic curve until one of those two phases is consumed second-to-last, and the other will melt last. The H_2O - Na_2SO_4 - CaSO_4 system also differs from the preceding systems in that an intermediate salt appears on the liquidus: glauberite, $\text{Na}_2\text{Ca}(\text{SO}_4)_2$. The glauberite stability field appears to be limited to relatively high salinities and intermediate salt ratios, between the stability of thenardite and gypsum.

4.3.3. Quaternary system

Figure 9 shows a projection from the H_2O apex onto the ice+vapor saturated liquidus of the system H_2O -Na-Ca-Cl- SO_4 , plotted in a compositional square according to Jänecke's method

(Clibbens, 1920). Ion fractions in this diagram are reported based on molal concentrations. In this projection, similarly to in the ternary systems involving CaSO_4 , we have multiplied the sulfate concentration by 50x, and we have multiplied the calcium concentration by 10x, in order to better display the main features. Each divariant field represents the mutual stability of ice plus one other solid phase, in equilibrium with liquid plus vapor. Three solid phases are in equilibrium on the cotectic curves, and the invariant points represent the equilibrium of four solid phases plus liquid plus vapor.

The cotectic surfaces of ice plus sulfate minerals are the dominant features on the H_2O -Na-Ca- Ca-SO_4 quaternary diagram, when projected from H_2O onto the plane of four salts (Fig. 9). The field of gypsum occupies almost half of the diagram, for compositions to the calcium-rich side of the diagram (if the multiplication factors 50x and 10x are omitted from the y- and x-axes, then the ice+gypsum field takes up almost the entire diagram). The field of mirabilite occupies the majority of the sodium-rich side. The fields of sodium and calcium chlorides (hydrohalite and antarcticite, respectively) are comparatively smaller, again owing to the low solubilities of sulfate minerals compared to chlorides. The subsolidus assemblage in low-salinity H_2O -Na-Ca- Ca-SO_4 fluids is either ice+hydrohalite+antarcticite+gypsum, or ice+hydrohalite+mirabilite+gypsum, depending on the bulk composition. Assemblages containing both mirabilite and antarcticite are forbidden, according to the phase equilibria (Fig. 9). This feature is typical of reciprocal quaternary phase diagrams, in which two salts or salt hydrates are referred to as the "stable pair" (in this case, gypsum plus hydrohalite) whereas two are referred to as the "unstable pair" (here, mirabilite plus antarcticite; Clibbens, 1920). Incidentally, the fact that mirabilite plus antarcticite is the unstable pair furthermore confirms that the system H_2O - Na_2SO_4 - CaCl_2 is not ternary, but rather quaternary, owing to gypsum precipitation.

Arrows on the univariant curves in Fig. 9 point down temperature, and the estimated temperatures at the invariant points are labelled. According to these results, the invariant point *p* is a peritectic point, at which hydrohalite and mirabilite/gypsum melt incongruently. Specifically, during heating, inclusions that contain ice+hydrohalite+gypsum will undergo incongruent dissolution of hydrohalite to produce mirabilite+liquid at point *p*. Also note that during cooling, mirabilite initially precipitated along the liquidus must be re-dissolved in order for the liquid composition to depart from point *p* along the ice+hydrohalite+gypsum cotectic line. The predicted temperature of this peritectic

point is -22 °C. The invariant point of ice+hydrohalite+gypsum+antarcticite is a eutectic point, with the estimated eutectic temperature of -52 °C (similar to that in the H₂O-NaCl-CaCl₂ system).

In practice, unlike the case for ice-saturated cotectic surfaces, it is not straightforward to project the relevant phase relations onto a convenient 2D plane at saturation of a specific salt or salt-hydrate. In the present study, most of our inclusions have gypsum as the last solid phase to melt, and thus it would be of interest to project from the composition of gypsum onto a 2D plane. Options include projecting from gypsum onto the H₂O-Na₂SO₄-CaCl₂ plane, or onto the NaCl-Na₂SO₄-CaCl₂ plane, but both of these projections yield incomplete information on salt ratios and salinity, and therefore these projections are not included here.

5. DISCUSSION

5.1. Fluid chemistry of the sulfate bearing brines

The modeled phase equilibria described in Section 4.3 provide a guide for our interpretations of the microthermometric observations of fluid inclusions from the Schwarzwald and Upper Rhinegraben veins. Specifically, these calculations permit us to tentatively identify the unknown, sulfate-bearing phases in the fluid inclusions, to rationalize the relative sequence of phase changes observed, and to estimate bulk compositions of the fluid inclusions based on the measured melting temperatures. In this section, we combine these data in order to derive compositional estimates, and especially to compare/contrast the Type A and Type B inclusions in the Schwarzwald and Upper Rhinegraben samples.

Not surprisingly, the predicted phase equilibria corroborate that a calcium sulfate mineral – either gypsum or anhydrite – is the most likely solid phase to melt last during heating, for a wide range of compositions. At thermodynamic equilibrium, gypsum would be the expected calcium-sulfate phase on the liquidus up to ca. +60°C (Fig. 4D), whereas anhydrite would be metastable. Hardie (1967) reported that at ambient pressure, gypsum is the first solid phase to precipitate throughout a range of

temperatures, including both the gypsum-stable part of the liquidus up to the anhydrite-stable part of the liquidus. In the experiments of Hardie (1967), formation of metastable gypsum rather than stable anhydrite was common, whereas formation of metastable anhydrite rather than stable gypsum was not. As such, we suspect that the calcium sulfate daughter mineral observed in our inclusions is gypsum – the stable calcium sulfate phase at the conditions of our microthermometric observations. The melting temperature of this phase is on the order of +40 to +70°C in both the Type A and the Type B inclusions, which near the crossover temperature between the gypsum and anhydrite portions of the liquidus (i.e., the gypsum-anhydrite peritectic point; Fig. 4D).

In all inclusions analyzed here, the last melting of a calcium sulfate phase (presumably gypsum) is preceded by second-to-last melting of an equant, greenish solid phase at around +19 to +25 °C. According to the predicted liquidus relations described above, this solid is most likely mirabilite. Mirabilite is a monoclinic phase, but forms crystals "like pyroxene in habit and angles" (Winchell, 1927). Thus, the appearance of this phase in our inclusions –equant, apparently cubic – is consistent with the habit of monoclinic mirabilite. We would expect that mirabilite would show birefringence (in fact, anomalous interference colors without extinction; Winchell, 1927), which is not observed in our samples, but this may be a consequence of the very small crystal size within the inclusions. The range of melting temperatures of this phase is consistent with the mirabilite liquidus (Figs. 1C, 3). Thenardite (orthorhombic) may also be an option, stable down to 15°C in NaCl-bearing solutions (Fig. 6), but is less likely as a second-to-last phase to melt before gypsum (Fig. 6).

Excluding CO₂-clathrate, which is present in the Type B inclusions, ice is the third-to-last solid phase to melt in our inclusions. Ice melting temperatures are on the order of -15 to -10 °C for inclusions of Type A, and -13 to -0.1 for inclusions of Type B. In both inclusion types, ice melting represents the departure from the ice-saturated quaternary cotectic surface shown in Fig. 9.

Prior to ice melting, inclusions of Type A show only the first melting, or eutectic event, which occurs at >-45°C. The fact that first melting occurs at temperatures greater than -52°C suggests that these inclusions do not contain antarcticite in the subsolidus assemblage. Thus, based on this observation, we infer that the likely subsolidus assemblage in these inclusions is

ice+hydrohalite+mirabilite+gypsum. In this case, hydrohalite is the first solid phase to be fully consumed at the first-melting temperature (predicted to be ca. -27°C), which also explains why we did not measure a hydrohalite melting temperature in these inclusions. Upon hydrohalite melting, the liquid phase in these inclusions of Type A would evolve along the ice+mirabilite+gypsum cotectic line, until ice is consumed at -15 to -10 °C, after which the liquid composition moves onto the mirabilite+gypsum plane (not shown in Fig. 9, but extending from the mirabilite+gypsum cotectic in Fig. 8). Mirabilite is consumed at ca. +19 to +25 °C, after which the liquid composition evolves towards gypsum dissolution until gypsum is consumed.

Inclusions of Type B undergo a different sequence of melting events compared to inclusions of Type A. Firstly, the observations of hydrohalite dissolution implies that hydrohalite is not the first phase consumed at the eutectic temperature in these inclusions. Therefore, we infer that the subsolidus assemblage in these inclusions is probably ice+hydrohalite+antarcticite+gypsum, and that antarcticite is the first solid phase consumed at the eutectic. This inference further implies that these inclusions are more enriched in Ca than the Type A inclusions (Fig. 9). After antarcticite dissolution, the liquid composition will evolve along the ice+hydrohalite+gypsum cotectic line until hydrohalite is consumed at -22.3 to -26 °C. Among these Type B inclusions, after hydrohalite is fully consumed, some inclusions exhibit two remaining solid phases, mirabilite+gypsum, whereas some have only mirabilite and lack gypsum. For the inclusions of Type B that exhibit mirabilite as second-to-last to melt, and gypsum last, we infer that hydrohalite is consumed at the peritectic point (ca. -22 °C in the model system) by reaction to form mirabilite, either in the presence or absence of excess gypsum. For the inclusions of Type B that exhibit mirabilite as the last phase to melt, we infer either that gypsum never formed in these inclusions, or that gypsum was consumed prior to hydrohalite at the peritectic point.

Based on the interpretations described above, we estimated the compositions of the Type A and Type B inclusions from the Schwarzwald and Upper Rhinegraben samples as follows. Firstly, for Type A inclusions, lack of detectable hydrohalite dissolution suggests first melting at the quaternary peritectic point as noted above, which implies that the bulk composition falls within the ice+hydrohalite+mirabilite+gypsum tetrahedron (i.e., the composition is antarcticite undersaturated).

For inclusions of Type B, first melting appears to occur at the quaternary eutectic point, suggesting that the bulk composition is more Ca-rich than for the Type A inclusions. In principle, third-to-last melting of ice and second-to-last melting of mirabilite constrain the ratios of salts, whereas last melting of gypsum constrains the bulk salinity. However, in practice, the precise last melting temperature of gypsum has little effect on the estimated salinity because the gypsum liquidus surface has an extremely steep temperature-salinity slope (see Fig. 4D). Furthermore, salt ratios from third-to-last and second-to-last melting temperatures are difficult to portray graphically for inclusions in which ice is not the last solid phase to melt (as in the case of our inclusions), because the ice-saturated projection is no longer suitable and because the salt ratios vary continuously from first to last melting. As such, the salinity determination is best accomplished numerically, by solving for the bulk fluid composition that yields the correct sequence and temperatures of equilibrium freezing/melting events. This was done using the same numerical methods as described above for computing phase relations for the phase diagram constructions, using Pitzer's equations. Results are shown in Figure 10 and tabulated in the Supplementary Materials.

Bulk compositions of both the Type A and Type B inclusions indicate salinities of broadly ~20-30 wt% total salt. Type A inclusions are significantly enriched in sodium with respect to calcium but show somewhat variable sulfate/chloride ratios, the latter of which appears to vary systematically according to location: The most sulfate-rich inclusions are from the Kropbach Hof samples, and the most chloride rich are from Riggensbach. The sublinear trend exhibited by the Type A inclusions on Figure 10 roughly corresponds to the projection of the mirabilite-gypsum cotectic surface onto the plane of four salts. The Type B inclusions show a different overall trend, limited to more modest sulfate fraction and extending to significantly higher calcium-to-sodium ratios. This trend is expected based on the measured hydrohalite melting temperatures, which suggest that the Type B inclusions undergo first melting at the antarcticite-bearing quaternary eutectic point. Notice that these results indicate enrichment in sulfate only in the calcium-poor (Type A) inclusions, and calcium-enrichment only in inclusions (Type B) containing relatively modest sulfate fractions (Fig. 10). This observation likely reflects that calcium and sulfate enrichments are mutually exclusive, owing to the low solubility of gypsum and anhydrite.

It must be noted that from the crush-leach analyses, we know that these inclusions also contain some bicarbonate ion. It is likely that the Type B inclusions, especially, contain some significant bicarbonate concentrations. This in turn is also consistent with the observation of double bubbles in the inclusions, as well as melting of solid CO₂ and CO₂-clathrate. Thus, the Type B inclusions would likely be better represented by the quinary H₂O-Na-Ca-Cl-SO₄-HCO₃ system. Nevertheless, the liquidus relations modeled here provide reasonable constraints on the Na/Ca and Cl/SO₄ ratios in these inclusions, and indicate significant differences from the Type A inclusions.

5.2 Mole fractions as indicators of fluid sources

Based on our model, which allows to calculate ion SO₄/Cl mole ratios from microthermometric data, we are able to compare our calculated fluid compositions to modern fluids in the Upper Rhinegraben rift. Walter et al. (2016) showed that fluids and related aquifers get modified by water/rock interaction over time. However, the fluids in this study are archived in very young veins that are situated on fractures that are related to the Neogene strike-slip tectonics of the Upper Rhinegraben rift (Werner and Franzke, 2001). The work of Walter et al. (2016, 2017) indicates that the primary fluid composition of the original aquifers is archived over a time period of millions years. Hence, we assume that effect of fluid-rock interaction by short living aquifers is negligible. Furthermore, the modern fluids show typical signatures (e.g. Na/Ca ratios, TDS, Cl/Br ratios, Cl/SO₄ ratios) which are directly related to their source rocks (Göb et al., 2013 and references therein). For example, the middle Triassic Muschelkalk halite formation has a high TDS, high Cl/Br ratios and very high Na/Ca ratios. In addition, numerous authors have concluded that fluid mixing was important for the hydrothermal vein mineralization in the Schwarzwald mining district (e.g. Baatartsogt et al., 2007, Staude et al., 2009; Fusswinkel et al., 2013; Bons et al., 2014; Burisch et al., 2016a; Walter et al., 2015, 2016). Hence, the previous work allows us to discuss the measured fluid composition (in hydrothermal veins) as a mixed hydrothermal fluid from different aquifers that are similar to the observed fluids in modern aquifers in the Schwarzwald and Upper Rhinegraben.

Fluid type A that is observed in the Böschlisgrund, Kropbach Hof, Wildsbach West, Riggensbach and Karl August mine and shows an absolute salinity of 24.3-27.9 wt% which requires high-salinity sources. The fluid signature shows a dominance of Na with very low Ca contents ($[Ca]/([Ca] + [Na])$ of 0.03-0.04. Hence, a sodium rich fluid source is required. The observed Cl/Br mass ratios of 88-120 show that the NaCl-rich fluids from the middle Triassic halite formation (Cl/Br 9900) are an unlikely source. The high SO_4/Cl mole ratio of 0.22 to 0.60 in our samples imply fluid mixing between a sulfate dominated aquifer and a Cl rich source.

The high-salinity Na-Cl rich, SO_4 -depleted fluid is presumably a continental basement brine, which is the most important fluid source and base-metal carrier for all veins in the Schwarzwald mining district (Staude et al., 2009; Fußwinkel et al., 2013; Bons et al., 2014; Walter et al., 2015, 2016 and references therein). The second mixing endmember is presumably derived from the Middle Triassic sulfate facies aquifer which contains fluids that show high SO_4/Cl mole ratios up to 0.77 with a low Cl/Br mass ratio and a moderate salinity. In addition, one fluid signature was observed by He et al., (1999) in the Hauptrogenstein with a SO_4/Cl mole ratio up to 0.77 and a low Cl/Br mass ratio with moderate salinity that could be a possible source. All the other aquifers are either depleted in SO_4 like the Buntsandstein or are significantly elevated in Cl/Br and Ca content like the Keuper fluids (Göb et al., 2013).

In contrast to fluid type A, the similar fluid type B is only present in the Karl August vein and shows an equal salinity to fluid type A. However it has a relative depletion in SO_4 and an higher Ca content related to low Cl/Br mass ratios. Again the high Cl/Br reservoirs seemed not to have been an important source. There are two models that could explain the variation relative to fluid type A, by changes in the fluid mixing ratio or by an additional Ca-enriched fluid source (Fig. 10), which is also described for the Karl August vein (Walter et al. 2016).

For both fluid types, the high SO_4 content implies a dominant fluid influx from the Muschelkalk sulfate-facies aquifer and requires high mixing ratios of sedimentary brine over basement brine. This correlation was also recognized by Walter et al. (2017) in Jurassic-Cretaceous veins of the Schwarzwald mining district. Furthermore, this inference is consistent with the regional

geology (Fig. 1). All these veins are situated on conjugate faults of the Upper Rhinegraben rift in the paragneiss unit close to the main offset fault (Schwarzwaldrandverwerfung) that borders the plains of the rift against the rift shoulders. Furthermore, tilted blocks of the former sedimentary overburden (with the significant Muschelkalk-sulfate-facies and Hauptrogenstein thermal aquifer) are directly juxtaposed at the Schwarzwaldrandverwerfung to the gneiss unit that hosts the veins. Additionally, no clays can be recognized in the veins, which, if present, would have sealed the fluid pathways. Hence, fluid migration from Muschelkalk and Hauptrogenstein aquifers in the Upper Rhinegraben into the first km of the gneiss unit of the rift shoulder seems to be plausible. The fact that there are several spas with thermal waters along the Schwarzwaldrandverwerfung that are derived from Muschelkalk and Hauptrogenstein also supports the argument for a Muschelkalk and Hauptrogenstein provenance for the SO_4 fluid endmember in our mixed fluid.

In summary, the numerical model based on the Pitzer-type ion interaction theory for computing the activities of solutes especially for SO_4 and H_2O that is presented in this study improved the ability to interpret microthermometric data of SO_4 -containing fluid inclusions and has the capacity to significantly improve the knowledge of fluid provenance.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The new thermodynamic model for microthermometry that is presented in this contribution for the system H_2O -Na-Ca-Cl- SO_4 shows a significant potential in the investigation of sulfate brines that are common in numerous sedimentary basins worldwide. This model allows to calculate accurate corrections for further major and trace element methods in fluid research like LA-ICPMS on single inclusions and/or crush-leach analyses, that will help to illuminate sulfate concentrations of brines. Furthermore, the model yields SO_4/Cl mole ratios and Ca/Na mole ratios that are an effective tool as source tracers. As discussed above, the combination of fluid tracers like Ca/Na, Cl/Br and SO_4/Cl permits differentiation between several natural aquifers.

744

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

745 We acknowledge the very detailed and constructive comments by the reviewers Alfons van den
 746 Kerkhof, Iain Samson, an anonymous reviewer and the editorial guidance by Jeff Alt. Furthermore, we
 747 thank Gabi Stoschek and Bernd Steinhilber for their help with crush-leach analyses. Melanie Keuper is
 748 thankful acknowledged for help with the Raman analyses. Furthermore, we thank Simone Schafflick
 749 and Peer Jeiseke for sample preparation. We thank John Ridley for discussions on identifying and
 750 interpreting melting points of various solid phases in complex inclusions. This study was supported by
 751 the German Research Foundation (DFG), grant Ma2135/20-1.

752

753

REFERENCES

- 754 Allan M. M., Yardley B. W. D., Forbes L. J., Shmulovich K. I., Banks D. A. and Shepherd T.
 755 J. (2005) Validation of LA-ICP-MS fluid inclusion analysis with synthetic fluid
 756 inclusions. *American Mineralogist*, **90**, 1767–177.
- 757 Altherr R., Holl A., Hegner E., Langer C. and Kreuzer H. (2000) High-potassium, calc-
 758 alkaline I-type plutonism in the European Variscides: northern Vosges (France) and
 759 northern Schwarzwald (Germany). *Lithos* **50**, 51-73.
- 760 Agemar T., Brunken J., Jodocy M., Schellschmidt R., Schulz R. and Stober, I. (2013)
 761 Untergrundtemperaturen in Baden-Württemberg. *Zeitschrift der Deutschen*
 762 *Gesellschaft für Geowissenschaften*, **164**, 49–62.
- 763 Aquilina L., Boulvais P., and Mossmann, J.-R. (2011) Fluid migration at the
 764 basement/sediment interface along the margin of the Southeast basin (France):
 765 implications for Pb–Zn ore formation. *Mineralium Deposita*, **46**, 959-979.
- 766 Baatartsogt B., Schwinn G., Wagner T., Taubald H., Beitter T. and Markl, G. (2007)
 767 Contrasting paleofluid systems in the continental basement: a fluid inclusion and

768 stable isotope study of hydrothermal vein mineralization, Schwarzwald district,
 769 Germany. *Geofluids*, **7**, 123-147.

770 Bakker R. J. and Diamond L. W. (2006) Estimation of volume fractions of liquid and vapor
 771 phases in fluid inclusions, and definition of inclusion shapes. *American Mineralogist*,
 772 **91**, 635–657.

773 Banks D., Green R., Cliff R., and Yardley B. (2000) Chlorine isotopes in fluid inclusions:
 774 determination of the origins of salinity in magmatic fluids. *Geochimica et*
 775 *Cosmochimica Acta*, **64**, 1785-1789.

776 Baumgartner M. and Bakker R. J. (2010) Raman spectra of ice and salt hydrates in synthetic
 777 fluid inclusions. *Chemical Geology*, **275**, 58–66.

778 Beccaleto L., Capar L., Cruz-Mermy D., Rupf I., Nitsch E., Oliviero G., Elsass P., Perrin A.
 779 and Stephane M. (2010) The GeORG project – Geological Potential of the Upper
 780 Rhine Graben - Situation, goals and first scientific results. – *Abstractes, 23ème*
 781 *Réunion des Science*. Bordeaux, France, HAL Id : hal-00642768.

782 Becker S. P., Eichhubl P., Laubach S. E., Reed R. M., Lander R. H. and Bodnar R. J. (2010)
 783 A 48 m.y. history of fracture opening, temperature, and fluid pressure: Cretaceous
 784 Travis Peak Formation, East Texas basin. *Geological Society of America Bulletin*, **122**,
 785 1081-1093.

786 Bliedtner M. and Martin M. (1986) Erz- und Minerallagerstätten des Mittleren
 787 Schwarzwaldes. Geologisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg, Freiburg im Breisgau,
 788 Germany, 782p.

789 Bodnar R. J. and Vityk M. O. (1994) Interpretation of microthermometric data for H₂O-NaCl
 790 fluid inclusions. In: De Vivo B, Frezzotti ML (eds) Fluid inclusions in minerals,
 791 methods and applications. Virginia Tech, Blacksburg. pp. 117-130.

792 Bons P. D., Fusswinkel T., Gomez-Rivas E., Markl G., Wagner T. and Walter, B. F. (2014)
 793 Fluid mixing from below in unconformity-related hydrothermal ore deposits. *Geology*,
 794 **42**, 1035-1038.

795 Boiron M. C, Cathelineau M. and Richard A. (2010) Fluid flows and metal deposition near
 796 basement/cover unconformity: lessons and analogies from Pb–Zn–F–Ba systems for
 797 the understanding of Proterozoic U deposits. *Geofluids*, **10**, 270-292.

798 Borchert H. (1959) Ozeane Salzlagerstätten: Grundzüge der Entstehung und Metamorphose
 799 ozeaner Salzlagerstätten sowie des Gebirgsverhaltens von Salzgesteinsmassen, Gebr.
 800 Borntraeger, p. 237.

801 Borisenko A. S. (1977) Study of salt composition of fluid inclusions in minerals using
 802 cryometric technique. *Geologiya i Geofizika***8**, 16–27 (in Russian).

803 Bottrell S. H., Yardley B. W. D. and Buckley F. (1988) A modified crush-leach method for
 804 the analysis of fluid inclusion electrolytes. *Bulletin de Mineralogie*, **111**, 279-290.

805 Bucher K. and Stober I. (2002) Water-rock reaction experiments with Black Forest gneiss and
 806 granite. *Water Science and Technology Library*, **40**, 61-95.

807 Bucher K. and Stober I. (2010) Fluids in the upper continental crust: *Geofluids*, **10**, 241-253.

808 Burisch M., Walter B. F., Wälle M. and Markl G. (2016a) Tracing fluid migration pathways
 809 in the root zone below unconformity-related hydrothermal veins: Insights from trace
 810 element systematics of individual fluid inclusions. *Chemical Geology*, **429**, 44-50.

811 Burisch M., Marks M. A., Nowak M. and Markl G. (2016b) The effect of temperature and
 812 cataclastic deformation on the composition of upper crustal fluids — An experimental
 813 approach. *Chemical Geology*, **433**, 24-35.

814 Burisch M., Gerdes A., Walter B. F., Neumann U., Fettel M. and Markl G. (2017) Methane
815 and the origin of five-element veins: Mineralogy, age, fluid inclusion chemistry and
816 ore forming processes in the Odenwald, SW Germany. *Ore Geology Reviews*, **81**, 42-
817 61.

818 Carignan J., Gariépy C. and Hillaire-Marcel C. (1997) Hydrothermal fluids during Mesozoic
819 reactivation of the St. Lawrence rift system, Canada: C, O, Sr and Pb isotopic
820 characterization: *Chemical Geology*, **137**, 1-21.

821 Carpenter A. B., Trout M. L. and Pickett E. E. (1974) Preliminary report on the origin and
822 chemical evolution of lead-and zinc-rich oil field brines in central Mississippi.
823 *Economic Geology*, **69**, 1191-1206.

824 Clibbens D. A. (1920) The principles of the phase theory: Heterogeneous equilibria between
825 salts and their aqueous solutions. MacMillan and Co., London, 883 pp.

826 Crawford M.-L., Kraus D. W. and Hollister L. S. (1979) Petrologic and fluid inclusion study
827 of calc-silicate rocks, Prince Rupert, British Columbia. *American Journal of Science*,
828 **279**, 1135–1159.

829 Dolníček Z., René M., Hermannová S. and Prochaska W. (2014) Origin of the Okrouhlá
830 Radouň episyenite-hosted uranium deposit, Bohemian Massif, Czech Republic: fluid
831 inclusion and stable isotope constraints. *Mineralium Deposita*, **49**, 409-425.

832 Edmunds W. M. and Savage D. (1991) Geochemical characteristics of groundwater in
833 granites and related crystalline rocks. Applied Groundwater Hydrology, a British
834 Perspective (eds DowningRA, WilkinsonWB), 199-216.

835 Emmermann R., Althaus E., Giese P., and Stöckhert B. (1995) KTB Hauptbohrung results of
836 geoscientific investigation in the KTB field laboratory, final report: 0-9101 m: *KTB*
837 *Report*, **95**, 215 pp.

838 Fall A., Eichhubl P., Bodnar R. J., Laubach S.E. and Davis, J. S. (2015) Natural hydraulic
839 fracturing of tight-gas sandstone reservoirs, Piceance Basin, Colorado. *Geological*
840 *Society of America Bulletin* **127**, 61-75.

841 Frezzotti M. L., Tecce F. and Casagli A. (2012) Raman spectroscopy for fluid inclusion
842 analysis. *Journal of Geochemical Exploration*, **112**, 1-20.

843 Frape S. and Fritz P. (1987) Geochemical trends for groundwaters from the Canadian Shield.
844 *Geological Association of Canada Special Papers*, **33**, 19-38.

845 Frape S., Fritz P. and McNutt R. T. (1984) Water-rock interaction and chemistry of
846 groundwaters from the Canadian Shield: *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **48**,
847 1617-1627.

848 Fusswinkel T., Wagner T., Wälle M., Wenzel T., Heinrich C. A. and Markl G. (2013) Fluid
849 mixing forms basement-hosted Pb-Zn deposits: Insight from metal and halogen
850 geochemistry of individual fluid inclusions. *Geology*, **41**, 679-682.

851 Geyer O. F. and Gwinner M. P. (2011) Geologie von Baden -Württemberg. – 5., völlig neu
852 bearbeitete Auflage. Schweizerbart'sche Verlagsbuchhandlung (Nägele u.
853 Obermiller), Stuttgart, 627pp.

854 Göb S., Loges A., Nolde N., Bau M., Jacob D. E. and Markl G. (2013) Major and trace
855 element compositions (including REE) of mineral, thermal, mine and surface waters in
856 SW Germany and implications for water-rock interaction. *Applied Geochemistry*, **33**,
857 127-152.

858 Goldstein R. H. and Reynolds T. J. (1994) Systematics of Fluid Inclusions in Diagenetic
859 Minerals. SEPM Short Course 31 Society for Sedimentary Geology, Tulsa OK 199 pp.

860 Hall D. L., Sterner S. M. and Bodnar R. J. (1988) Freezing point depression of NaCl-KCl-
861 H₂O solutions. *Economic Geology*, **83**, 197-202.

862 Hann H. P., Chen F., Zedler H., Frisch W. and Loeschke J. (2003) The rand granite in the
863 southern Schwarzwald and its geodynamic significance in the Variscan belt of SW
864 Germany. *International Journal of Earth Sciences*, **92**, 821-842.

865 Hardie L. A. (1967) The gypsum-anhydrite equilibrium at one atmosphere pressure: *American*
866 *Mineralogist*, **52**, 171–200.

867 Harvie C. E. and Weare J. H. (1980) The prediction of mineral solubilities in natural waters:
868 the Na-K-Mg-Ca-Cl-SO₄-H₂O system from zero to high concentrations at 25 °C.
869 *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **44**, 981–997.

870 He K., Stober I. and Bucher K. (1999) Chemical evolution of thermal waters from limestone
871 aquifers of the Southern Upper Rhine Valley. *Applied Geochemistry*, **14**, 223–35.

872 Heijlen W., Banks D. A., Muchez P., Stensgard B. M. and Yardley B. W. (2008) The nature
873 of mineralizing fluids of the Kipushi Zn-Cu deposit, Katanga, Democratic Republic of
874 Congo: quantitative fluid inclusion analysis using laser ablation ICP-MS and bulk
875 crush-leach methods. *Economic Geology*, **103**, 1459-1482.

876 Hem J. D. (1985) Study and interpretation of the chemical characteristics of natural water. *US*
877 *Geological Survey Water-Supply Paper* **2254**. 263 pp.

878 Hurai V., Huraiová M., Slobodník M. and Thomas R. (2015) Geofluids: Developments in
879 Microthermometry, Spectroscopy, Thermodynamics, and Stable Isotopes. Elsevier,
880 Amsterdam, 485pp.

881 Hurai V., Paquette J. L., Huraiová M., Slobodník M., Hvožd'ara P., Siegfried P., Gajdošová
882 M. and Milovská S. (2017). New insights into the origin of the Evate apatite-iron
883 oxide-carbonate deposit, Northeastern Mozambique, constrained by mineralogy,
884 textures, thermochronometry, and fluid inclusions. *Ore Geology Reviews*, **80**, 1072-
885 1091.

- 886 Jenkner B. (1986) Ein Vorschlag zur Neugliederung des sedimentären Oberrotliegenden in
887 der Baden-Badener Senke und ihrer nordöstlichen Fortsetzung (Nordschwarzwald).
888 *Jahrbuch des Geologischen Landesamtes Baden-Württemberg*, **28**, 49-159.
- 889 Kendrick M. A., Burgess R., Leach D. and Pattick R. A. D. (2002) Hydrothermal fluid
890 origins in Mississippi valley-type ore districts: combined noble gas (He, Ar, Kr) and
891 halogen (Cl, Br, I) analysis of fluid inclusions from the Illinois-Kentucky fluorspar
892 district, Viburnum Trend, and Tri-State districts, midcontinent United States.
893 *Economic Geology*, **97**, 453-469.
- 894 Kolchugin A. N., Immenhauser A., Walter B. F., Morozov V. P. (2016) Diagenesis of the
895 palaeo-oil-water transition zone in a Lower Pennsylvanian carbonate reservoir:
896 Constraints from cathodoluminescence microscopy, microthermometry, and isotope
897 geochemistry. *Marine and Petroleum Geology*, **72**, 45-61.
- 898 Köhler W. R. (1992) Beschaffenheit ausgewählter, nicht direkt anthropogen beeinflusster
899 oberflächennaher und tiefer Grundwasservorkommen in Baden-Württemberg:
900 *Tübinger Geowissenschaftliche Arbeiten*, **10**, 144 pp.
- 901 Köhler J., Schönenberger J., Upton B. and Markl G. (2009) Halogen and trace-element
902 chemistry in the Gardar Province, south Greenland: subduction-related mantle
903 metasomatism and fluid exsolution from alkali melts. *Lithos*, **113**, 731-747.
- 904 Kotel'nikova Z. A. and Kotel'nikov A. R. (2007) Metastability at Cryometry of Sulfat-
905 Containing Synthetic Fluid Inclusions. *Doklady Earth Science*, **420**, 524-526.
- 906 Kozlovsky Y. (1984) The world's deepest well: *Scientific American*, **251**, 106-112.
- 907 Ladenburger, S. (2012) Crush-Leach Analysen an Flüssigkeitseinschlüssen von
908 hydrothermalen Erzlagerstätten des Schwarzwaldes. BSc Thesis, Tübingen, 134p.

909 Ladenburger S., Marks M. and Markl, G. (2012) Analysis of crush leach solutions from
 910 hydrothermal ore deposits by combining ion chromatography (IC) and total reflection
 911 X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy (TXRF). European Mineralogical Conference
 912 abstracts, **1**, EMC2012-223-1.

913 Lecumberri-Sanchez P., Steele-MacInnis M., and Bodnar R. J. (2015) Synthetic fluid
 914 inclusions XIX. Experimental determination of the vapor-saturated liquidus of the
 915 system H₂O-NaCl- FeCl₂. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **148**, 34–49.

916 Leisen M., Dubessy J., Boiron M.-C., Lach P. (2012) Improvement of the determination of
 917 element concentrations in quartz-hosted fluid inclusions by LA-ICP-MS and Pitzer
 918 thermodynamic modeling of ice melting temperature. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica*
 919 *Acta*, **90**, 110–125.

920 Linke W. F. (1958) Solubilities, Inorganic and Metal Organic Compounds: A Compilation of
 921 Solubility Data from the Periodical Literature. Fourth ed. Van Nostrand, Princeton NJ,
 922 1287 pp.

923 Loges A., Wagner T., Kirnbauer T., Göb S., Bau M., Berner Z. and Markl, G. (2012) Source
 924 and origin of active and fossil thermal spring systems, northern Upper Rhine Graben,
 925 Germany. *Applied Geochemistry*, **27**, 1153-1169.

926 Lorenz G. D. (2002) Diagenese der känozoischen Sedimente des Oberrheingrabens als
 927 Hinweis der tertiären Fluidentwicklung. P.h.D. thesis, Heidelberg, 131 pp.

928 Lüders V., Plessen B., Romer R. L., Weise S. M., Banks D. A., Hoth P., Dulski P. and
 929 Schettler, G. (2010) Chemistry and isotopic composition of Rotliegend and Upper
 930 Carboniferous formation waters from the North German Basin. *Chemical Geology*,
 931 **276**, 198-208.

932 Ludwig F., Stober I., and Bucher K. (2011) Hydrochemical groundwater evolution in the
 933 bunter sandstone sequence of the Odenwald mountain range, Germany: a laboratory
 934 and field study. *Aquatic Geochemistry*, **17**, 165-193.

935 Markl G., Lahaye Y., Schwinn G. (2006) Copper isotopes as monitors of redox processes in
 936 hydrothermal mineralization. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **70**, 4215-4228.

937 Marion G. M. and Kargel J. S. (2008) Cold Aqueous Planetary Geochemistry With
 938 FREZCHEM: From Modeling to the Search for Life at the Limits. Springer-Verlag,
 939 Berlin. DOI 10.1007/978-3-540-75679-8

940 McCaffrey M., Lazar B. and Holland H. (1987) The evaporation path of seawater and the
 941 coprecipitation of Br^- and K^+ with halite. *Journal of Sedimentary Research*, **57**, 928-
 942 937.

943 Meere P. A. and Banks D. A. (1997) Upper crustal fluid migration: an example from the
 944 Variscides of SW Ireland. *Journal of the Geological Society*, **154**, 975-985.

945 Mercadier J., Richard A., Boiron M. C., Cathelineau M. and Cuney M. (2010) Migration of
 946 brines in the basement rocks of the Athabasca Basin through microfracture networks
 947 (P-Patch U deposit, Canada). *Lithos*, **115**, 121-136.

948 Metz R., Richter M. and Schürenberg H. (1957) Die Blei-Zink-Erzgänge des Schwarzwaldes.
 949 *Beiheft Geologisches Jahrbuch*, **29**, 277.

950 Möller P., Stober I. and Dulski P. (1997) Seltenerdelement-, Yttrium-Gehalte und Bleiisotope
 951 in Thermal- und Mineralwässern des Schwarzwaldes. *Grundwasser*, **2**, 118-132.

952 Möller P., Woith H., Dulski P., Lüders V., Erzinger J., Kämpf H., Pekdeger A., Hansen B.,
 953 Lodemann M. and Banks D. A. (2005) Main and trace elements in KTB-VB fluid:
 954 composition and hints to its origin. *Geofluids*, **5**, 28-41.

- 955 Nitsch E. and Zedler H. (2009) Oberkarbon und Perm in Baden-Württemberg. *LGRB-*
956 *Information*, **22**, 7-102.
- 957 Oakes C. S., Bodnar R. J. and Simonson J. M. (1990) The system NaCl-CaCl₂-H₂O: 1. The
958 ice liquidus at 1 atm total pressure. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **54**, 603–610.
- 959 Pandur K., Kontak D. J. and Ansdell K. M. (2014) Hydrothermal evolution in the Hoidas
960 Lake vein-type REE deposit, Saskatchewan, Canada: Constraints from fluid inclusion
961 microthermometry and evaporate mound analysis. *The Canadian Mineralogist*, **52**,
962 717-744.
- 963 Pauwels H., Fouillac C. and Fouillac A.-M. (1993) Chemistry and isotopes of deep
964 geothermal saline fluids in the Upper Rhine Graben: Origin of compounds and water-
965 rock interactions: *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **57**, 2737-2749.
- 966 Pfaff K., Romer R. L. and Markl G. (2009) U-Pb ages of ferberite, chalcedony, agate, 'U-
967 mica' and pitchblende: constraints on the mineralization history of the Schwarzwald
968 ore district. *European Journal of Mineralogy*, **21**, 817-836.
- 969 Pfaff K., Koenig A., Wenzel T., Ridley I., Hildebrandt L. H., Leach D. L. and Markl G.
970 (2011) Trace and minor element variations and sulfur isotopes in crystalline and
971 colloform ZnS: Incorporation mechanisms and implications for their genesis.
972 *Chemical Geology*, **286**, 118-134.
- 973 Pitzer K. S. (1973) Thermodynamics of electrolytes. I. Theoretical basis and general
974 equations. *The Journal of Physical Chemistry* **77**, 268–277.
- 975 Pitzer K. S. and Mayorga G. (1973) Thermodynamics of electrolytes. II. Activity and osmotic
976 coefficients for strong electrolytes with one or both ions univalent The Journal of
977 Physical Chemistry. **77**, 2300–2308.

978 Pitzer K. S. and Mayorga, G. (1974) Thermodynamics of electrolytes. III. Activity and
979 osmotic coefficients for 2-2 electrolytes. *Journal of Solution Chemistry* **3**, 539–546.

980 Richard A., Pettke T., Cathelineau M., Boiron M. C., Mercadier J., Cuney M., Derome D.
981 (2010) Brine–rock interaction in the Athabasca basement (McArthur River U deposit,
982 Canada): consequences for fluid chemistry and uranium uptake. *Terra Nova*, **22**, 303-
983 308.

984 Prokopyev I. R., Borisenko A. S., Borovikov A. A. and Pavlova G. G. (2016) Origin of REE-
985 rich ferrocarbonatites in southern Siberia (Russia): implications based on melt and
986 fluid inclusions. *Mineralogy and Petrology*, 1-15.

987 Roedder E. (1984) Fluid inclusions. *Reviews in Mineralogy*, **12**, 644 pp.

988 Samson I. M., Liu W., Williams-Jones A. E. (1995) The nature of orthomagmatic
989 hydrothermal fluids in the Oka carbonatite, Quebec, Canada: Evidence from fluid
990 inclusions. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **59**, 1963-1977.

991 Samson I. M. and Walker R. T. (2000) Cryogenic Raman spectroscopic studies in the system
992 NaCl-CaCl₂-H₂O and implications for low-temperature phase behavior in aqueous
993 fluid inclusions. *The Canadian Mineralogist*, **38**, 35–43.

994 Sanjuan B., Millot R., Dezayes C., and Brach M. (2010) Main characteristics of the deep
995 geothermal brine (5km) at Soultz-sous-Forêts (France) determined using geochemical
996 and tracer test data: *Comptes Rendus Geoscience*, **342**, 546-559.

997 Schiffries C. M. (1990) Liquid-absent aqueous fluid inclusions and phase-equilibria in the
998 system CaCl₂-NaCl-H₂O. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **54**, 611–619.

999 Schlegel T., Wälle M., Steele-MacInnis M. and Heinrich C. A. (2012) Accurate and precise
1000 quantification of major and trace element compositions of calcic-sodic fluid inclusions

1001 by combined microthermometry and LA-ICPMS analysis. *Chemical. Geology*, **334**,
1002 144–153.

1003 Schwinn G., Wagner T., Baatartsogt B. and Markl G. (2006) Quantification of mixing
1004 processes in ore-forming hydrothermal systems by combination of stable isotope and
1005 fluid inclusion analyses. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **70**, 965-982.

1006 Shepherd T. J., Rankin A. H. and Alderton D. H. (1985) A practical guide to fluid inclusion
1007 studies. Blackie Glasgow, 239 pp.

1008 Seshadri K. and Lobo J. (1957) Polytherm of the quaternary system sodium chloride-sodium
1009 sulphate-sodium carbonate-water. *Journal of Scientific and Industrial Research*, **16**.
1010 531-538.

1011 Spencer R. J., Møller N. and Weare J. H. (1990) The prediction of mineral solubilities in
1012 natural waters: a chemical equilibrium model for the Na-K-Ca-Mg-Cl-SO₄-H₂O
1013 system at temperatures below 25 °C. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **54**, 575–590.

1014 Staude S., Bons P. D. and Markl G. (2009) Hydrothermal vein formation by extension-driven
1015 dewatering of the middle crust: An example from SW Germany. *Earth and Planetary
1016 Science Letters*, **286**, 387-395.

1017 Staude S., Dorn A., Pfaff K. and Markl G. (2010) Assemblages of Ag–Bi sulfosalts and
1018 conditions of their formation: the type locality of schapbachite (Ag_{0.4} Pb_{0.2} Bi_{0.4} S)
1019 and neighboring mines in the Schwarzwald ore district, Southern Germany. *The
1020 Canadian Mineralogist*, **48**, 441-466.

1021 Staude S., Mordhorst T., Neumann R., Prebeck W. and Markl G. (2010) Compositional
1022 variation of the tennantite–tetrahedrite solid solution series in the Schwarzwald ore
1023 district (SW Germany): The role of mineralization processes and fluid source.
1024 *Mineralogical Magazine*, **74**, 309-339.

- 1025 Staude S., Göb S., Pfaff K., Ströbele F., Premo W. R. and Markl G. (2011) Deciphering fluid
1026 sources of hydrothermal systems: a combined Sr-and S-isotope study on barite
1027 (Schwarzwald, SW Germany). *Chemical Geology*, **286**, 1-20.
- 1028 Staude S., Werner W., Mordhorst T., Wemmer K., Jacob D. E. and Markl, G. (2012) Multi-
1029 stage Ag–Bi–Co–Ni–U and Cu–Bi vein mineralization at Wittichen, Schwarzwald,
1030 SW Germany: geological setting, ore mineralogy, and fluid evolution. *Mineralium*
1031 *Deposita*, **47**, 251-276.
- 1032 Staude S., Mordhorst T., Nau S., Pfaff K., Brüggmann G., Jacob D. E. and Markl, G. (2012)
1033 Hydrothermal carbonates of the Schwarzwald ore district, southwestern Germany:
1034 Carbon source and conditions of formation using $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$, and fluid
1035 inclusions. *The Canadian Mineralogist*, **50**, 1401-1434.
- 1036 Steele-MacInnis M., Bodnar R.J., Naden J. (2011) Numerical model to determine the
1037 composition of H_2O - NaCl - CaCl_2 fluid inclusions based on microthermometric and
1038 microanalytical data. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, **75**, 21–40.
- 1039 Steele-MacInnis M., Ridley J., Lecumberri-Sanchez P., Schlegel T. U. and Heinrich C. A.
1040 (2016) Application of low-temperature microthermometric data for interpreting
1041 multicomponent fluid inclusion compositions. *Earth-Science Reviews*, **159**, 14-35.
- 1042 Ströbele F., Staude S., Pfaff K., Premo W. R., Hildebrandt L. H., Baumann A., Pernicka E.
1043 and Markl G. (2012) Pb isotope constraints on fluid flow and mineralization processes
1044 in SW Germany. *Neues Jahrbuch für Mineralogie-Abhandlungen: Journal of*
1045 *Mineralogy and Geochemistry* **189**, 287-309.
- 1046 Stober I. and Bucher K. (1999) Deep groundwater in the crystalline basement of the Black
1047 Forest region. *Applied Geochemistry*, **14**, 237-254.
- 1048 Stober I. and Bucher K. (2004) Fluid sinks within the earth's crust. *Geofluids*, **4**, 143-151.

1049 Stober I (2014) Hydrochemical properties of deep carbonate aquifers in the SW German
 1050 Molasse basin. *Geothermal Energy*, **2**, 1-20.

1051 Todt W. (1976) Zirkon U/Pb-Alter des Malsburg-Granits vom Südschwarzwald. *Neues*
 1052 *Jahrbuch für Mineralogie / Monatshefte*, **12**, 532-544.

1053 Vandeginste V., Swennen R., Gleeson S. A., Ellam R. M., Osadetz K., Roure F. (2009)
 1054 Thermochemical sulphate reduction in the Upper Devonian Cairn Formation of the
 1055 Fairholme carbonate complex (South-West Alberta, Canadian Rockies): evidence
 1056 from fluid inclusions and isotopic data. *Sedimentology*, **56**, 439-460.

1057 Vanko D.A., Bodnar R.J. and Sterner S.M. (1988) Synthetic fluid inclusions: VIII.
 1058 Vaporsaturated halite solubility in part of the system NaCl-CaCl₂-H₂O, with
 1059 application to fluid inclusions from oceanic hydrothermal systems. *Geochimica et*
 1060 *Cosmochimica Acta*, **52**, 2451–2456.

1061 Walter B. F., Immenhauser A., Geske A., Markl G. (2015) Exploration of hydrothermal
 1062 carbonate magnesium isotope signatures as tracers for continental fluid aquifers,
 1063 Schwarzwald mining district, SW Germany. *Chemical Geology*, **400**, 87-105.

1064 Walter B. F., Burisch M. and Markl G. (2016) Long-term chemical evolution and
 1065 modification of continental basement brines—a field study from the Schwarzwald, SW
 1066 Germany. *Geofluids*, **16**, 604-623.

1067 Walter B.F., Burisch M., Marks M.A.W., Markl G. (2017) Major element and trace metal
 1068 systematics of fluid inclusions in hydrothermal veins: metal provenance and the
 1069 reconstruction of eroded sedimentary units, Mineralium Deposita, doi:
 1070 10.1007/s00126-017-0719-7

- 1071 Werner W. and Franzke H. J. (2001) Postvariszische bis neogene Bruchtektonik und
1072 Mineralisation im südlichen Zentralschwarzwald. *Zeitschrift der Deutschen*
1073 *Geologischen Gesellschaft*, **152**, 405-437.
- 1074 Williams-Jones A. E. and Samson I. M. (1990) Theoretical estimation of halite solubility in
1075 the system NaCl-CaCl₂-H₂O; applications to fluid inclusions. *The Canadian*
1076 *Mineralogist*, **28**, 299-304.
- 1077 Winchell A. N. (1927) The Optic and Microscopic Characters of Artificial Minerals.
1078 University of Wisconsin at Madison, Madison WI. 215 pp.
- 1079 Yanatieva O. K. (1946) Solubility polytherms in the systems CaCl₂-MgCl₂-H₂O and CaCl₂-
1080 NaCl-H₂O. *Russian Journal of Applied Chemistry* **19**, 709-722.
- 1081 Yardley B. W. D. (2005) Metal concentrations in crustal fluids and their relationship to ore
1082 formation. *Economic Geology*, **100**, 613-632.
- 1083 Ziegler P. A. (1990) Geological Atlas of Western and Central Europe, Shell Internationale
1084 Petroleum Maatschappij BV/Geological Society of London.
- 1085 Zen E-A. (1960) Early stages of evaporite deposition. *US Geological Survey Professional*
1086 *Paper* **400**, 458.
- 1087
- 1088

1089

FIGURE CAPTIONS

1090

Figure 1

1091 Geological map of the study area, showing the Rhinegraben rift shoulders and the rifting
1092 related hydrothermal veins . Based in part on GeoRG data after Beccaletto et al. (2010). The
1093 numbers refer to the mineralizations: 1. Karl August mine near Kropbach, 2. Böschlisgrund,
1094 3. Riegenbach, 4. Kropbach Hof and 5. Wildsbach West.

1095

1096

Figure 2

1097 Samples: A) siderite-quartz-chalcopyrite Böschlisgrund vein, B) zoned quartz I is overgrown
1098 by a quartz +sphalerite generation from the Karl August mine, C) euhedral zoned quartz
1099 overgrows clast of gneiss, D and E) zoned quartz II contains galena from the Kropbach Hof
1100 and Wildsbach West mine.

1101

1102

Figure 3

1103 A) image illustrates primary occurrence of sulfate bearing fluid inclusions on a quartz growth
1104 zone. B-E) microthermometry of sulfate brine bearing fluid inclusions from the Karl August
1105 mine near Kropbach. Note green equant and green acicular solids that finally dissolve at
1106 positive temperatures. B) At -24.1°C three solids (ice + two green solids) are present with
1107 H₂O liquid and vapor. C) At -13.7°C ice is closely to final melting. An incongruent melting
1108 of one green solid happened at about -22°C. D) At + 24.4°C two green solids (probably
1109 mirabilite and gypsum) with liquid and vapor is present. E) above +36°C only one green
1110 (acicular) solid is present with liquid and vapor. F) Microraman analyses of the fluid inclusion
1111 in figure B-E at room temperature indicate high sulfate contents in the liquid. Signals of the

two greenish solids are too low for doubtless phases determinations. G) LA-ICPMS signals of single fluid inclusion (not detailed in this study) show the temporal distribution of S, Cl and Na. During ablation several inclusions were ablated on the growth zone. Note that S, Cl and Na simultaneously crest when the inclusion is ablated and hence, S was inside the fluid inclusion and not a contamination by host mineral solid inclusions.

Figure 4

Binary vapor-saturated liquidus diagrams for H_2O -NaCl (A), H_2O - CaCl_2 (B), H_2O - Na_2SO_4 (C) and H_2O - CaSO_4 (D). I = ice; HH = hydrohalite; H = halite; Ant = antarcticite; Mb = mirabilite; Th = thenardite; Gp = gypsum; Anh = anhydrite; L = liquid.

Figure 5

Ternary vapor-saturated liquidus diagram for the system H_2O -NaCl- CaCl_2 , after Steele-MacInnis et al. (2016). Axes are in mass fraction (wt%). Isotherms (grey lines) are in 5°C increments.

Figure 6

Ternary vapor-saturated liquidus diagram for the system H_2O -NaCl- Na_2SO_4 . Axes in mass fraction (wt%). Isotherms (grey lines) are in 5 °C increments.

Figure 7

Ternary vapor-saturated liquidus diagram for the system H_2O -NaCl- CaSO_4 . Axes in mass fraction (wt%), with CaSO_4 concentration multiplied by a factor of 50x. Isotherms (grey lines) are in 5 °C increments. Dotted isotherms represent the projection of the gypsum field to

higher temperature, but plot above the ice field owing to the retrograde solubility of gypsum. The dotted cotectic curve between ice and anhydrite is metastable (projected from below the gypsum liquidus surface).

Figure 8

Ternary vapor-saturated liquidus diagram for the system $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4-\text{CaSO}_4$. Axes in mass fraction (wt%), with CaSO_4 concentration multiplied by a factor of 50x. Isotherms (grey lines) are in 5 °C increments. Dotted isotherms represent the projection of the gypsum field to higher temperature, but plot above the mirabilite field owing to the retrograde solubility of gypsum. The dotted cotectic curves between ice, mirabilite and anhydrite are metastable (projected from below the gypsum liquidus surface).

Figure 9

Ice-bearing, vapor-saturated liquidus projection of the quaternary system $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{Na}-\text{Ca}-\text{Cl}-\text{SO}_4$, projected from the H_2O apex onto the plane of reciprocal salt pairs (Jänecke's method; Clibbens, 1920). Axes in mole fraction (mol%), with $[\text{SO}_4]$ multiplied by 50x and $[\text{Ca}]$ multiplied by 10x. Arrows on the cotectic curves point down temperature, and temperatures of the invariant points are labelled in °C in the ellipses. I = ice; HH = hydrohalite; Mb = mirabilite; A = antarcticite; *e* = eutectic; *p* = peritectic.

Figure 10

Cation and anion charge fractions of fluid inclusions in the Schwarzwald samples, calculated according to the quaternary liquidus relations described in this study. See text for details.

