

1 **Revision 1**

2 **Vapor-phases as Cu transport agents for the shear-zone-hosted**
3 **mineralization system: A perspective from H–O–S–Cu isotopes**

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ABSTRACT

28 Elucidating metal transport agents is the key to understanding the genesis of deposits and
29 tracking the locations of concealed orebodies. Here, we integrate H–O–S–Cu isotopic data
30 from the shear-zone-hosted Lingyun Cu deposit, China as means to fingerprint metal
31 transport agents. Sulfide mineralization can be divided into early and late stages, which
32 consist of chalcopyrite + bornite + quartz veins and chalcopyrite + bornite + ankerite veinlets,
33 respectively. Both $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{fluid}}$ and δD values of fluid inclusions hosted by quartz ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{fluid}}$: 0.5‰
34 to 9.9‰, δD : –103.9‰ to –60.1‰) and $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values of sulfides (–1.85‰ to +0.39‰) from
35 the early stage progressively decrease from the southeastern to northwestern portions of the
36 Lingyun deposit, whereas sulfide $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ simultaneously shifts toward heavier values (–14.4‰
37 to 5.0‰). The $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ and $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values of sulfides from the late stage have restricted ranges
38 from –11.2‰ to –9.3‰ and –0.30‰ to 0.05‰, respectively. The possibilities of meteoric
39 water addition, water–rock interaction, inter-mineral Cu partitioning, diffusion and oxidation
40 could be ruled out as reasons for having caused systematic H–O–S–Cu isotope variations.
41 Vapor–liquid separation resulted in preferential incorporation of light Cu, H, and O isotopes
42 into the vapor phase. The decrease in oxygen fugacity in the fluids resulted in a shift toward
43 heavier $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values as fluid flowed outward. Vapor-phases are the dominant transport agents
44 for Cu in the Lingyun deposit, which may be widely applicable to shear-zone-hosted deposits.
45 The direction of progressively increasing $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$, δD , and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values and decreasing $\delta^{34}\text{S}$
46 values allows identification of potential locations of concealed orebodies.

47 **Keywords:** H–O–S–Cu isotopes; Cu transport agent; Shear-zone-hosted deposit; Tianshan

48

49

INTRODUCTION

50 Hydrothermal ore deposits serve as a primary resource of metals ([Zajacz et al. 2017](#)),
51 which can be transported by both vapor and liquid phases ([Williams-Jones and Heinrich 2005](#);
52 [Williams-Jones and Migdisov 2014](#)). Elucidating metal transport agents is the key to
53 understanding the genesis of deposits. The liquid and vapor phases exhibit rather different
54 physical properties (e.g., temperature, pressure, and density), with the liquid phase
55 concentrating in the hydrothermal center and vapor phase moving to the margin
56 ([Williams-Jones and Heinrich 2005](#); [Heinrich 2007](#); [Gruen et al. 2014](#)). Utilizing such
57 constraints provides a framework to track the locations of concealed orebodies reliably.

58 Direct approaches for the estimation of Cu transport agents in mineralization systems
59 include fluid inclusion studies and experimental works. The microanalysis of fluid inclusions
60 indicated that vapor phases contained higher Cu concentrations than coexisting liquid (e.g.,
61 [Heinrich et al. 1992, 1999](#), [Heinrich 2005](#); [Williams-Jones and Heinrich 2005](#)). However, this
62 point of view has been challenged due to the possibility of Cu diffusion through quartz
63 crystals ([Lerchbaumer and Audétat 2012](#); [Seo and Heinrich 2013](#)). The pioneering
64 experimental research has mainly focused on the Cu speciation and partition between vapors
65 and liquids in porphyry mineralization systems at temperatures $>450^{\circ}\text{C}$, with strong
66 preferential partitioning of Cu in vapor phases (e.g., [Pokrovski et al. 2008](#); [Migdisov et al.](#)
67 [2014](#); [Zajacz et al. 2017](#); [Audétat 2019](#)). It still needs to be clarified for the Cu transport
68 agents in medium-low temperature ($<400^{\circ}\text{C}$) Cu mineralization systems.

69 The medium-low temperature ($<400^{\circ}\text{C}$) shear-zone-hosted Cu deposits are a recently
70 discovered type of mineralization (e.g., [Zheng et al. 2012](#); [Kitt et al. 2016](#); [Höhn et al. 2017](#);

71 [Zhao et al. 2018](#)), which provides an appropriate target to clarify Cu transport agents for this
72 system. However, experimental studies are unavoidably hampered due to the knowledge gap
73 for this still poorly constrained mineralization system. The application of H–O–S stable
74 isotopes has significantly enhanced our understanding of the hydrothermal mineralization
75 systems (e.g., [Ohmoto 1986](#); [Rye 1993](#); [Sheppard and Gustafson 1976](#); [Taylor 1997](#); [Hoefs](#)
76 [2009, 2018](#)). Copper isotopes have been used to track diverse geological processes, such as
77 fluid extraction from the source ([Zhou et al. 2013](#); [Guo et al. 2020](#)), vapor–liquid separation
78 ([Seo et al. 2007](#); [Rempel et al. 2012](#); [Gregory and Mathur 2017](#)), fluid flow pathways (e.g., [Li](#)
79 [et al. 2010](#); [Mathur et al. 2013](#); [Wu et al. 2017](#)), and mineral precipitation ([Li et al. 2010](#);
80 [Maher and Larson 2007](#)). Thus, integrating H–O–S–Cu isotopic data can provide alternative
81 and reliable insights into metal transport agent. The shear-zone-hosted Lingyun Cu deposit is
82 located in the Tianshan orogenic belt, providing an appropriate target to clarify Cu transport
83 agent for this type of deposit. Our findings suggest that integrating H–O–S–Cu isotopic
84 analyses in concert with geochemical modeling reveals vapor-phase as the dominant metal
85 transport agent in a metamorphic geological environment.

86

87 **GEOLOGICAL SETTING**

88 The Central Asian Orogenic Belt (CAOB) extends from the Pacific Ocean to the
89 European Craton ([Fig. 1A](#), [Sengör et al. 1993](#); [Windley et al. 2007](#); [Xiao et al. 2009](#); [Jiang et](#)
90 [al. 2014](#)), which is composed of a series of ancient microcontinents, volcanic rocks, and
91 passive margin sequences ([Pirajno 2010](#); [Pirajno et al. 2011](#)). Tianshan is situated along the
92 southern margin of the CAOB. The Chinese portion can be further subdivided into the

93 Yili–Kazakhstan Block (YKB), the North Tianshan Orogenic Belt (NTOB), the Central
94 Tianshan Terrane (CTT), and the South Tianshan Orogenic Belt (STOB) (Fig. 1B; Gao et al.
95 2009; Jiang et al. 2014; Qian et al. 2009; Wang et al. 2016a, b, c, 2018). Rotation of the
96 Siberian and Tarim blocks resulted in extensive strike-slip shear activities along the
97 boundaries of the YKB, NTOB, CTT, and STOB, with the development of steeply dipping
98 mylonitic foliations (Fig. 1A, B; Wang et al. 2007; Pirajno 2010, 2011). Systematic Ar–Ar
99 and U–Pb ages indicate that extensive shearing of the main suture zone in Tianshan occurred
100 during late Carboniferous to Permian (310–260 Ma, Xu et al. 2011; Cai et al. 2012;
101 Konopelko et al. 2007, 2009). The extensive shearing was accompanied by the development
102 of Au mineralization along the boundaries of YKB, NTOB, CTT, and STOB (e.g.,
103 Sawayaerdun, Wangfeng, Kangguer, Matoutan and Shiyingtian, Chen et al. 2012a,b; Zhang et
104 al. 2003, 2004; Han et al. 2006; Mao et al., 2005).

105 Ductile to brittle shear zones along the northern margin of the STOB control the
106 formation of shear-zone-hosted Au–Cu mineralization systems (e.g., Baijianshan,
107 Wolonggang and Yanxingshan, Yakubchuk et al. 2002; Zhao et al. 2018; Xue et al. 2020).
108 The Lingyun deposit contains 4.73 million tonnes of ore with 1.3 wt% Cu (Chen 2008; Zhao
109 et al. 2018), which has been mined since 2009. The Permian Lingyun deposit is hosted by the
110 Devonian Aerbishibulake Formation with greenschist-facies metamorphism (Fig. 1C, e.g.,
111 Chen 2008). The silicate minerals and coexisted sulfide assemblages develop linear fabrics
112 (Fig. 2A–D), both of which parallel to the regional shear zones. Silicification, sericitization,
113 and carbonatization are well developed around the orebodies and shear zones, and these
114 alteration types are spatially associated with Cu mineralization (Fig. 2A–C). The Cu

115 mineralization (Chalcopyrite Re–Os dating, 297.9 ± 3.4 Ma) developed coevally with
116 metamorphic and deformation events in the area (Sericite Ar–Ar dating, 292.3 ± 2.4 Ma)
117 (Zhao et al. 2018). No igneous intrusions have been discovered other than a few diorite dikes
118 crosscutting the wall rocks and orebodies (Fig. 1C).

119 Resource evaluation drillings have been widely utilized to constraint the grade, tonnes
120 and mining/metallurgical characteristics of the potential orebodies (Marjoribanks, 2010). A
121 prospect line consists of several drill holes, parallel to the trend of the orebodies (e.g.,
122 prospecting line 136, Fig. 1D). In the Lingyun deposit, the prospect lines are numbered from
123 southeast to northwest (prospecting line 140 to 90, Fig. 1C). Twelve variably sized orebodies
124 have been discovered in the Lingyun mine area, among which ~85% Cu resource occur from
125 prospecting line 138 to line 124. The distribution and orientation of orebodies are closely
126 controlled by the regional shear zone, striking toward west and dipping toward south (Fig.
127 1D). Detailed geological survey elucidates that the volume of alteration minerals and spatial
128 extent of alteration zones decreases laterally and vertically away from prospecting line 138 to
129 line 90 (Fig. 1C). The paragenetic stages of primary sulfides recognized based on
130 crosscutting relationships are: (1) early-stage fault-controlled chalcopyrite- and
131 bornite-bearing quartz veins and lenses aligned parallel to the foliation within the crystal tuff,
132 which comprises albite + sericite \pm epidote assemblages (Fig. 2A, C–F); and (2) late-stage
133 assemblages of ankerite + chalcopyrite + bornite within veinlets (Fig. 2B). The early-stage
134 mineralization provides 80–90% Cu resource in the Lingyun deposit. Primary sulfide
135 minerals are mainly chalcopyrite and bornite with minor pyrite and pyrrhotite (Fig. 2A–E).
136 Chalcopyrite and bornite commonly coexist (Fig. 2D, F). Pyrite occurs as inclusions within

137 chalcopyrite and gangue minerals (Fig. 2E). Secondary Cu-bearing minerals precipitated in
138 supergene environments include chalcocite, digenite, and covellite (Fig. 2D, F). The fresh
139 samples were collected from open pits of the 1100 m, 1150 m, 1170 m and 1190 m levels (at
140 depths of 10 m, 30 m, 50 m and 100 m below surface, respectively) from prospecting line 138
141 to line 90 (Table 1 and 2, Fig. 3). The coexisting sulfide mineral pairs in the same sample are
142 in textural contact of equilibrium (Table 2, Fig. 2F).

143

144 **SAMPLES AND ANALYTICAL METHODS**

145 **Analysis of hydrogen and oxygen isotopes**

146 Hydrogen isotope ratios of fluid inclusions hosted by quartz ($n = 37$) and oxygen isotope
147 ratios of quartz grains ($n = 37$) of the early-stage veins were analyzed by a Finnigan
148 MAT-253 mass spectrometer at the Beijing Research Institute of Uranium Geology, China.
149 Oxygen was liberated by reaction with BrF_5 (Clayton and Mayeda 1963), and converted to
150 CO_2 on a platinum-coated carbon rod for O isotope analysis. The water of the fluid inclusions
151 in early-stage quartz veins was released by heating the quartz grains to >500 °C and then
152 reacted with chromium powder at 800 °C to obtain H for isotope analysis (Coleman et al.
153 1982). The isotope data were reported in standard δ -notation in per mil (‰) deviation relative
154 to Standard Mean Ocean Water (SMOW). The analytical precisions are ± 2 ‰ for δD and \pm
155 0.2‰ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$.

156

157 **Analysis of sulfur isotopes**

158 Sulfur isotope compositions were measured at the Beijing Research Institute of Uranium

159 Geology. Approximately 15 mg of sulfide minerals (<80 mesh) from the early and late stage
160 veins ($n = 50$) or 30 mg of whole-rock powders (<200 mesh) from wall rocks ($n = 6$) without
161 mineralization and hydrothermal alteration were mixed with 150 mg Cu_2O and heated at
162 1050 °C under vacuum to extract SO_2 . The collected SO_2 were analyzed for S isotope
163 compositions using a Finnigan MAT-253 mass spectrometer. The results were expressed as
164 $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ per mil (‰) relative to the Vienna Canyon Diablo Troilite (V-CDT), with analytical
165 precision better than $\pm 0.2\%$.

166

167 **Analysis of copper isotopes**

168 Sulfide ores selected from the early and late stage veins were crushed to <80 mesh, from
169 which chalcopyrite and bornite were separated by conventional heavy liquids, then carefully
170 handpicked under a binocular microscope to reach a purity of better than 95%. The detailed
171 procedures for sample digestion, chemical purification, and isotope measurement followed
172 those presented by [Liu et al. \(2014a, b, 2015\)](#) modified from [Maréchal et al. \(1999\)](#).

173 Sulfide mineral separates (<0.1 mg, $n = 50$) and wall-rock powders without
174 mineralization and hydrothermal alteration (25 mg, $n = 6$) were digested in mixed solutions
175 of purified HNO_3 and HCl at 130 °C. After dissolution, 1 ml of 8 N HCl + 0.001% H_2O_2 was
176 added to the beaker and heated to dryness. This process was repeated three times to convert
177 all cations into chloride species. Copper was purified by ion-exchange chromatography using
178 the anion resin AG-MP-1 M. The Cu recovery and procedural blank were >99.7% and <2 ng,
179 respectively.

180 Copper isotope measurements were performed using a Neptune plus MC-ICP-MS

181 instrument at the Isotope Geochemistry Laboratory of the China University of Geosciences,
182 Beijing, China. A sample–standard bracketing method was utilized for instrumental mass
183 fractionation and drifting correction (Zhu et al. 2002; Liu et al. 2014a). A measurement is
184 composed of 4 blocks of 40 cycles, yielding each value with an average of 160 ratios. Copper
185 isotopic data are reported against SRM NIST976 in δ -notation in per mil (‰), where $\delta^{65}\text{Cu} =$
186 $((^{65}\text{Cu}/^{63}\text{Cu})_{\text{sample}} / (^{65}\text{Cu}/^{63}\text{Cu})_{\text{standard}} - 1) \times 1000$. The external reproducibility for $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$
187 measurements based on repeated analyses of reference standards (BHVO-2, United States
188 Geological Survey) was better than $\pm 0.05\%$ (2SD). The solutions for Cu isotope analysis
189 were also measured for Cu/Fe ratios using an ICP–OES to test the purity of sulfides, and the
190 analytical precision was better than 5%.

191

192

RESULTS

193 Hydrogen and oxygen isotope ratios

194 The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{quartz}}$ values range from 5.8‰ to 15.6‰ with a mean of $12.0 \pm 0.80\%$ ($n = 37$).

195 The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{fluid}}$ values were estimated by the equilibrium equation from Clayton et al. (1972)

196 (Equation 1).

$$197 \quad 1000\ln\alpha_{\text{quartz–fluid}} = 3.38 \times 10^6 \times T^{-2} - 3.40 \quad (1);$$

198 where homogenization temperatures (T) were obtained by microthermometry of fluid

199 inclusions (Table 1; Fig. 4). The mean homogenization temperatures of each sample were

200 used to calculate the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{fluid}}$ values of fluid inclusions, with a range of 0.5‰ to 9.9‰ (Table

201 1; Figs 3 and 4). The δD values range from -103.9% to -60.1% (Table 1; Figs 3 and 4).

202 Both $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{fluid}}$ and δD values progressively decrease from prospecting line 138 to line 90

203 (Table 1; Figs 3 and 4).

204

205 Sulfur isotope ratios

206 The $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values of sulfide minerals from the early stage in the Lingyun deposit range
207 from -14.4‰ to 5.0‰ with a mean of -5.6‰ ($n = 44$, Fig. 3). The $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values of sulfides
208 from the late stage have a restricted range from -11.2‰ to -9.3‰ ($n = 6$, Fig. 3). The wall
209 rocks have much heavier S isotopic compositions than those of the sulfides, ranging from
210 3.3‰ to 6.6‰ ($n = 6$, Fig. 3). The $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values of chalcopyrite are similar to those in
211 coexisting bornite (within $\pm 0.6\text{‰}$, Fig. 3), a much smaller variation than the S isotopic
212 variations at the scale of the orebody (8.3‰ , Fig. 3). The $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ shifts toward heavier values
213 from prospecting line 138 to line 90 (Table 2; Fig. 3).

214

215 Copper isotope ratios

216 The Cu/Fe ratios of chalcopyrite and bornite from the early stage in the Lingyun deposit
217 show a restricted range from 0.96 to 1.16 and 4.93 to 5.05, consistent with the stoichiometric
218 ratios of the minerals (Cu/Fe = 1 for chalcopyrite and Cu/Fe = 5 for bornite). The $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$
219 values of the sulfide minerals have a wide range from -1.85‰ to $+0.39\text{‰}$ ($n=50$, Fig. 3),
220 with a mean of $-0.79\text{‰} \pm 0.44\text{‰}$ (1σ). In contrast, the $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values of the wall rocks show a
221 narrow range from -0.67‰ to -0.63‰ ($n=6$, Fig. 3). Coexisting chalcopyrite and bornite
222 exhibit similar Cu isotopic compositions (within $\pm 0.3\text{‰}$, Fig. 6). The $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values shift
223 toward lighter values from prospecting line 138 to line 90 (Table 2; Fig. 3).

224

225

DISCUSSION

226 **Mechanisms for developing systematic variations in H–O–S–Cu isotopic compositions**

227 The volume of alteration minerals, spatial extent of alteration zones, and
228 homogenization temperatures of fluid inclusions decrease and vapor/liquid ratios of fluid
229 inclusions increase from prospecting line 138 to line 90 (Fig. 1C, Table 1, Zhao et al. 2018),
230 both of which are indicative of the pathway of hydrothermal fluids flowing outward from the
231 hydrothermal center to peripheral regions. The changes of physicochemical conditions as
232 fluids flowing trigger mineralization as well as develop systematic variations in H–O–S–Cu
233 isotopic compositions.

234 **Hydrogen and oxygen isotopes.** In general, the H–O isotopic compositions of fluids are
235 commonly influenced by the isotopic composition of the initial fluid and wall rocks, as well
236 as temperature and the water/rock ratio (W/R) (Ohmoto 1986; Taylor 1997; Hoefs 2009,
237 2018). Simple mass-balance calculations (Equation 2–4; Taylor 1974) indicate that addition
238 of meteoric water or water–rock interaction may have occurred in the Lingyun deposit (Fig.
239 4A, B).

$$240 \quad W \times \delta_{\text{water}}^i + R \times \delta_{\text{rock}}^i = W \times \delta_{\text{water}}^f + R \times \delta_{\text{rock}}^f \quad (2)$$

$$241 \quad W/R = (\delta_{\text{rock}}^f - \delta_{\text{rock}}^i) / [\delta_{\text{water}}^i - (\delta_{\text{rock}}^f - \Delta)] \quad (3)$$

$$242 \quad \Delta_{\text{rock-water}} = \delta_{\text{rock}}^i - \delta_{\text{water}}^f \quad (4)$$

243 where i = initial value, f = final value after exchange, W = atomic percent of fluid, and R =
244 atomic percent of exchangeable rock; The mass ratio of water to rock was calculated using
245 $w(W)/w(R) = 0.5 \times W/R$ for the calculation of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $w(W)/w(R) = 0.01 \times W/R$ for δD .

246 However, the significant input of meteoric water cannot cause the progressively

247 decreasing of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{fluid}}$ and δD values from the prospecting line 138 to line 90 (Fig. 3).
248 Water–rock interaction would have resulted in Cu and S isotopic compositions in the sulfides
249 similar to those of the wall rocks. However, the Cu isotopic compositions of the sulfides
250 show a much wider range than that of the wall rocks (Fig. 3), and their $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values are much
251 lower than those of the wall rocks, indicating negligible influence on isotopic compositions
252 by water–rock interaction.

253 Vapor (e.g., H_2O , CH_4 , and CO_2)–liquid separation is another means of fractionating
254 H–O isotopes, in which the vapor is relatively enriched in lighter O isotopes (Horita and
255 Wesolowski 1994; Zheng 1993). Experimental results have shown that water vapor
256 preferentially incorporates more deuterium than liquid water at 230–350 °C (Horita and
257 Wesolowski 1994). Homogenization temperatures for early-stage fluid inclusions
258 are >230 °C (Zhao et al. 2018), and should have caused enrichment in deuterium in the water
259 vapor. However, CH_4 , a common vapor phase in the Lingyun deposit (e.g., Zhao et al. 2018),
260 would incorporate deuterium (Fig. 6C; Richet et al. 1977; Hoefs 2009, 2018). The Rayleigh
261 distillation equations (Equation 5–6; Sharp 2017) were used to simulate H–O isotope
262 fractionation caused by vapor–liquid separations. The isotope fractionation factors for H_2O
263 and CH_4 were estimated by the equations of Horita and Wesolowski (1994) (Equation 7–8)
264 and Richet et al. (1977) ($\alpha_{\text{vapor-liquid}} = 0.8772$), respectively.

$$265 \quad \delta X_{\text{vapor}} (\text{‰}) = (\delta X_{\text{vapor}}^i + 1000) \times F^{(\alpha-1)} - 1000 \quad (5)$$

$$266 \quad \delta X_{\text{liquid}} (\text{‰}) = 1/\alpha \times (\delta X_{\text{vapor}} + 1000) - 1000 \quad (6)$$

$$267 \quad 10^3 \ln \alpha_{\text{vapor-liquid}} (\text{D}) = 1158.8 \times (T^3/10^9) - 1620.1 \times (T^2/10^6) + 794.84 \times (T/10^3) - 161.04$$
$$268 \quad + 2.9992 \times (10^9/T^3) \quad (7)$$

$$10^3 \ln \alpha_{\text{vapor-liquid}} (^{18}\text{O}) = -7.685 + 6.7123 \times (10^3/T) - 1.6664 \times (10^6/T^2) + 0.35041 \times (10^9/T^3) \quad (8)$$

where δX_{vapor} is the isotopic composition of the vapor for a given value of F , δX_{liquid} is the isotopic composition of the liquid, $\delta X_{\text{vapor}}^i$ is the isotopic composition of the initial vapor, α is the fractionation factor between the product of reaction and the substrate of reaction, F is the fraction of vapor remaining, and T is Kelvin temperature.

Furthermore, the H–O isotopic compositions of cumulative and instantaneous liquids and vapor during vapor liquidation were calculated based on Rayleigh equations (Equation 9–11; [Guo et al. 2020](#)).

$$\delta X_{\text{evolved phase}} = (\delta X_{\text{initial phase}} + 1000) \times f^{\alpha-1} - 1000 \quad (9)$$

$$\delta X_{\text{instantaneous product}} = (\delta X_{\text{initial phase}} + 1000) \times \alpha \times f^{\alpha-1} - 1000 \quad (10)$$

$$\delta X_{\text{cumulative product}} = (\delta X_{\text{initial phase}} + 1000) \times (f^\alpha - 1) / (f - 1) - 1000 \quad (11)$$

Where $\delta X_{\text{initial phase}}$ refers to the isotope ratios of the initial vapor; $\delta X_{\text{evolved phase}}$ refers to the isotope ratios of the evolved vapor; $\delta X_{\text{instantaneous product}}$ is the isotope ratios of instantaneous liquid; $\delta X_{\text{cumulative product}}$ represents the isotope ratios of cumulative liquid that reaches isotope equilibrium again; α is the isotope fractionation factor between vapor and liquid; f is the fraction of H and O remaining in vapor.

Our calculations indicate that vapor–liquid separation likely contributed to the observed H–O isotopic variation of the Lingyun deposit ([Fig. 4C](#) and [4D](#)). By contrast, vapor liquidation cannot solely produce the H–O isotopic variation ([Fig. 4E](#) and [4F](#)). If so, the vapor phase that incorporated light H and O isotopes migrated away to a greater distance than liquid, consistent with decreasing $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{fluid}}$ and δD values from prospecting line 138 to line 90

291 (Fig. 3).

292 **S isotopes.** The S isotopic compositions of sulfides that precipitated from hydrothermal fluids
293 are controlled by numerous factors, including: (1) the isotopic composition of the
294 hydrothermal fluids, (2) physicochemical conditions (e.g., temperature, pH, and fO_2), and (3)
295 the mineral assemblages that precipitates from the fluid (e.g., Hoefs 2009, 2018). Coexisting
296 chalcopyrite and bornite have similar S isotopic compositions (Fig. 3), precluding the
297 possibility of significant isotope exchange between these minerals. Numerical modeling
298 indicates that the $\delta^{34}S$ of sulfides precipitated from a common hydrothermal fluid shift toward
299 lighter values with cooling, irrespective of fO_2 (e.g., Rye 1993; Wilson et al. 2007), which
300 contrasts with our observations from the Lingyun deposit (Fig. 3).

301 Reactions between CO_2 -bearing hydrothermal fluids and wall rock that lead to the
302 formation of Ca–Mg–Fe carbonates (e.g., ankerite) can cause oxidation of the fluid (McCuaig
303 and Kerrich 1998). Hydrothermal oxidation can also occur during vapor–liquid separation
304 owing to preferential partitioning of reduced volatile species (e.g., H_2) into an immiscible
305 H_2O – CO_2 \pm CH_4 -rich phase (Drummond and Ohmoto 1985; Golding et al. 1990; Palin and
306 Xu 2000). The physicochemical conditions (e.g., alteration, mineral assemblages, $\log fO_2$, and
307 pH) were estimated (Fig. 3) from phase stability relationships using the software SUPCRT92
308 (Johnson et al. 1992) with the database provided by Zimmer et al. (2016). The early-stage
309 chalcopyrite + bornite + sericite + albite assemblages indicate constant intermediate pH
310 conditions, with a decrease in fO_2 as the fluids cooled (Fig. 3). At intermediate temperatures,
311 pressures, and pH, the main reduced and oxidized S species in hydrothermal fluids (Fig. 2)
312 relate to the equilibrium reaction of $H_2S + 4H_2O = HSO_4^- + H^+ + 4H_2$ (Palin and Xu 2000).

313 Oxidized S species tend to incorporate heavy S isotopes relative to reduced species
314 under equilibrium, with ^{34}S and ^{32}S enrichment in HSO_4^- and H_2S , respectively (Fig. 5).
315 Preferential enrichment of the sulfides in lighter S isotopes relative to the wall rocks (Fig. 3)
316 can be explained by hydrothermal oxidation. As the hydrothermal fluids flowed laterally and
317 vertically, precipitation of Cu-bearing sulfides would facilitate the reaction $\text{HSO}_4^- + \text{H}^+ + 4\text{H}_2$
318 $= \text{H}_2\text{S} + 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and a decrease in $f\text{O}_2$ (Fig. 5). Rayleigh equations (Equation 9–11; Guo et al.
319 2020) were used to simulate the S isotope ratios during sulfide precipitation (Fig. 6).
320 Modeling results indicate that $f\text{O}_2$ variation as the fluids cooled needed to be invoked to
321 explain the $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ range in the Lingyun sulfides (Figs. 3 and 6). The Cu-bearing sulfides that
322 were precipitated from evolved hydrothermal fluids preferentially incorporated heavier S
323 isotopes compared with the original fluids (Fig. 3).

324 **Copper isotopes.** Possible mechanisms that may lead to significant Cu isotope fractionation
325 in hydrothermal systems include inter-mineral Cu partition, diffusion, oxidation, fluid mixing,
326 water-rock interaction, Cu mobilization from source to fluid, Cu transport, and deposition of
327 Cu-bearing minerals (e.g., Li et al. 2010; Mathur et al. 2010; Maher et al. 2011; Rempel et al.
328 2012). The Cu isotopic compositions are similar between coexisting bornite and chalcopyrite
329 ($<0.3\%$ for $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$, Fig. 6), much smaller than the isotopic variations on the orebody scale
330 ($\sim 1.5\%$ for $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$, Fig. 6).

331 Diffusion can result in significant Cu isotope fractionation (Williams and Archer 2011),
332 which is driven by chemical and thermal gradients (e.g., Zhao et al. 2017). However, at least
333 two lines of evidence exclude the diffusion-driven $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ variation in the Lingyun deposit (Fig.
334 3). First, Cu transport in liquids and vapors is much faster than the diffusion rate of Cu (e.g.,

335 [Li et al., 2010](#)). Second, diffusion-driven processes would enrich the locations with high Cu
336 concentrations and temperatures in heavy Cu isotopes ([Williams and Archer 2011](#)). However,
337 the orebodies with highest Cu contents (Lines 128–130) have Cu isotopic compositions that
338 are similar to those of the sulfide mineral-poor wall rocks ([Fig. 3](#)).

339 Recent experiments ([Guo et al. 2020](#)) indicate that fluid phases preferentially
340 incorporate heavy Cu isotopes relative to coexisting silicates at 800 to 850 °C, depending on
341 Cu speciation. Redox-related Cu isotope fractionation seems more plausible in the Lingyun
342 deposit, as the temperature for the metamorphic event (greenschist facies, <500 °C, [Zhao et al.](#)
343 [2018](#)) is much lower than the temperature range of the water-saturated solidus in igneous
344 rocks ([Guo et al. 2020](#)). Thus, metamorphic devolatilization enriched the exsolved fluids
345 (Lines 134–138, [Fig. 3](#)) in heavier Cu isotopes relative to the wall rocks due to redox
346 reactions (−0.65‰ to −0.05‰, [Fig. 3](#)). Similarly, synorogenic mineralization hosted by
347 greenschist that was driven by metamorphic fluids has $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ ranges of −0.26‰ to 0.36‰ and
348 −0.44‰ to 0.08‰ in the Kupferberg deposit ([Höhn et al. 2017](#)) and the Archaean Hattu
349 schist belt ([Molnár et al. 2016](#)), respectively. Significant water–rock interaction will shift the
350 $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ of fluids toward similar values with wall rocks. However, the $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values of the
351 sulfide minerals (−1.85‰ to +0.39‰) have a much wider range than the wall rocks (−0.67‰
352 to −0.63‰, [Fig. 3](#)). Although the mixing of meteoric water would change the Cu isotopes
353 toward isotopically heavy values, this process may occur when vapor-like fluids dominated
354 the Cu isotope shifts toward low values. The locations with inclusions exhibiting high
355 vapor/liquid ratios (prospecting line 90) have low $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values ([Fig. 3](#)), which precludes the
356 possibility of mixing of meteoric water causing significant $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ variation.

357 In the liquid phase, Cu is present mostly as CuHS over a wide pH range (from ~4.5 to
358 ~11) at temperatures of 200 °C to 350 °C (Williams-Jones and Migdisov 2014). In the vapor
359 phase, Cu occurs predominantly as CuHS or Cu(HS)(H₂S) (Pokrovski et al. 2008; Seo et al.
360 2009; Etschmann et al. 2010; Rempel et al. 2012), with minor chloride species (Rempel et al.,
361 2012). Experimental and theoretical considerations indicate that the stoichiometries of
362 chalcopyrite and bornite are dominated by Cu⁺Fe³⁺S₂²⁻ (Klekovkina et al. 2014) and
363 Cu₅⁺Fe³⁺S₄²⁻ (Van der Laan et al. 2002; Ding et al. 2005), respectively. In summary, Cu
364 occurs as +1 valence in hydrothermal liquids, vapor, and primary sulfides (bornite and
365 chalcopyrite, Goh et al. 2006; Pearce et al. 2006), ruling out the possibility of redox-driven
366 Cu isotope fractionation during Cu transport and precipitation for the Lingyun deposit.

367 Theoretical calculations indicate that the aqueous fluids consist of up to 80%–90% vapor
368 in boiling hydrothermal systems (Cline and Bodnar 1991; Landtwing et al. 2010). Copper is
369 highly volatile in hydrothermal systems (Li and Audétat 2012, 2015), and thus can be
370 transported in significant quantities in vapor phases ($D_{\text{Cu}}^{\text{vapor/fluid}} = 0.2\text{--}0.7$, Simon et al. 2006;
371 Pokrovski et al. 2008; Rempel et al. 2012). Quantum chemical calculations indicate that ⁶⁵Cu
372 tends to concentrate in vapor phases as Cu₃Cl₃ (Seo et al. 2007). In contrast, experimental
373 studies suggested that ⁶³Cu is preferentially enriched in vapor phases as CuHS (Maher et al.
374 2011; Rempel et al. 2012; Guo et al. 2020), which is the common compound in nature
375 (Heinrich et al. 1999; Pokrovski et al. 2008). Furthermore, extensive experimental studies on
376 other metal isotopes, such as Hg (Estrade et al. 2009; Zambardi et al. 2009), Fe (Wang et al.
377 2001), Mg (Wang et al. 2001; Richter et al. 2007), and Ca (Wombacher et al. 2008), have
378 suggested that vapor phases tend to incorporate lighter isotopes than liquids. Thus, we

379 suggest that the vapor phase was more likely enriched in ^{63}Cu relative to ^{65}Cu as CuHS. The
380 Rayleigh distillation equations (Equation 5–6; [Sharp 2017](#)) were utilized for simulating Cu
381 isotope variation during vapor–liquid separations, which can produce the Lingyun $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$
382 ranges ([Fig. 7A](#)).

383 Thermodynamic estimations ([Fig. 5](#)) indicate that Cu was dissolved dominantly as
384 CuHS, with or without minor CuCl_2^- , in the Lingyun deposit ([Williams-Jones and Migdisov](#)
385 [2014](#)). Quantum chemical calculations indicate that Cl^- and HS^- exhibit a similar degree of
386 fractionation of Cu isotopes ([Seo et al. 2007](#)). Thus, Cu transport by liquids as CuHS and
387 CuCl_2^- will not cause systematic Cu isotopic variations. The Cu isotope fractionation factor
388 during chalcopyrite precipitation has been experimentally determined minimal
389 ($\alpha_{\text{liquid-chalcopyrite}}$ from 0.9998 to 1, [Maher et al. 2011](#)). The evolution of $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values of
390 different phases in the shear-zone-hosted mineralization system has been modeled by
391 Rayleigh fractionation equations (Equation 9–11; [Guo et al. 2020](#)). Numerical calculations
392 indicate that the final precipitation of Cu-bearing minerals in the peripheral regions results in
393 a limited isotopic shift ([Fig. 8B](#)), as Cu is strongly chalcophile and expected to inherit the
394 isotopic compositions of the ore-forming liquids.

395

396 **The models for H–O–S–Cu isotope fractionation in the shear-zone-hosted Lingyun Cu** 397 **deposit**

398 Ductile to brittle shear zones have long been recognized as sites for epithermal mineral
399 deposition ([Sibson et al. 1975; Sibson 1986, 1987, 2004](#)). The formation of shear-zone-hosted
400 deposits commonly involves three stages ([Chen et al. 2004, 2006; Heinrich 2007; Phillips and](#)

401 [Powell 2009, 2010; Précigout et al. 2017](#)): (1) metamorphic devolatilization and metal
402 mobilization, (2) transport of metal by vapor and liquid, and (3) precipitation of the metal as
403 sulfides. During stage 1, wall rocks underwent syncollisional deformation and metamorphism,
404 during which large amounts of CO₂-rich fluids generated ([Zhao et al. 2018](#)) and migrated
405 upward in the Lingyun area ([Fig. 9](#)). Reaction of these CO₂-rich fluids with the wall rocks
406 resulted in the formation of Fe-carbonates (e.g., ankerite) and caused oxidation of the fluids
407 ([Palin and Xu 2000](#)). The metamorphic affinity of the fluids, as indicated from the H–O
408 isotopic data ([Figs 3, 4, and 9](#)), remobilized and extracted Cu and S from the wall rocks
409 during upward migration. The exsolved fluids preferentially incorporated lighter S and
410 heavier Cu isotopes relative to the wall rocks owing to oxidation of the fluids ([Figs 3 and 9](#)).
411 In contrast, the change in oxidation state did not cause significant H–O isotope fractionation,
412 as H and O isotopes have exclusive ionic valences (H⁺ and O²⁻, respectively).

413 When the Cu-bearing fluids reached the brittle–ductile transition, a substantial amount
414 of Cu was precipitated as a result of fracturing and associated drops in pressure ([Figs 3 and 9](#);
415 [Zhao et al., 2018](#)). These sulfides inherited the Cu and S isotopic compositions of the
416 instantaneous equilibrium fluids in prospecting line 138 ([Figs 3 and 9](#)). A significant decrease
417 in pressure would also have resulted in vapor–liquid separation ([Zhao et al. 2018](#)), with vapor
418 phases incorporating lighter Cu isotopes than liquids ([Figs 3 and 9](#); [Pokrovski et al. 2008](#);
419 [Rempel et al. 2012](#)). Within the temperature range of the Lingyun deposit, enrichment in
420 reduced volatile species (e.g., H₂O, CH₄, and CO₂) within the vapor phase would have
421 resulted in preferential incorporation of isotopically lighter H–O relative to liquids ([Figs 3](#)
422 [and 9](#)).

423 The Cu-bearing vapor and liquids moved outward both laterally and vertically from
424 prospecting line 138 toward line 90 (Fig. 9), of which vapor was more abundant. Copper was
425 transported in significant quantities in the vapor relative to coexisting liquids (Simon et al.
426 2006; Pokrovski et al. 2008), and the vapor preferentially incorporated light Cu isotopes (Fig.
427 9). Thereafter, cooling would have promoted progressive condensation of the Cu-bearing
428 vapors, shifting the $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ of the sulfides toward lighter values from prospecting line 138 to
429 90 (Figs 3 and 9).

430 Similarly, preferential enrichment in light H and O isotopes within the vapor phase and
431 its subsequent condensation on migration would have brought about decreasing $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{fluid}}$ and
432 δD values in the condensed liquids (Figs 3 and 9). The progressive precipitation of
433 Cu-bearing sulfides as the liquids moved outward (Figs 3 and 9) would have caused
434 $\text{HSO}_4^-/\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ratios in solution to increase. The reduced volatile species (e.g., H_2 , CO_2 , and
435 CH_4) dissolved in the evolved liquids in the peripheral regions (e.g., prospecting line 90) of
436 the deposit would have contributed to more reducing conditions (Fig. 5). Both the
437 precipitation of sulfides and dissolution of volatile species would have resulted in progression
438 of the reaction $\text{H}^+ + 4\text{H}_2 + \text{HSO}_4^- = \text{H}_2\text{S} + 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$. In this way, sulfides that formed at the
439 margins of the deposit preferentially incorporated heavy S isotopes (Figs 3 and 9). The $\delta^{34}\text{S}$
440 and $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values of sulfides from the late stage have restricted ranges without systematic
441 spatial variations, which potentially indicate a liquid-phase-dominated transport for Cu in this
442 stage (Figs 3 and 9).

443

444

IMPLICATIONS

445 Elucidating metal transport agents is the key to understanding the genesis of deposits
446 and further tracking the concealed orebodies ([Williams-Jones and Heinrich 2005](#); [Heinrich](#)
447 [2007](#); [Gruen et al. 2014](#); [Zajacz et al. 2017](#)). It is conventionally suggested that the onset of
448 boiling triggers significant metal precipitation ([Zajacz et al. 2017](#); [Zhao et al. 2018](#)). On the
449 other hand, fluid boiling in hydrothermal systems would significantly separate vapor and
450 liquid phases, among which vapor phases serve as important transport agents for Cu in
451 shear-zone-hosted deposits. Subsequently, Cu-bearing vapors move outward from the
452 hydrothermal center to peripheral regions.

453 Shear-zone-hosted deposits have generally undergone multiple stages of metamorphism,
454 accompanied by extensive shearing along the main suture zone (e.g., [Chen et al. 2004, 2006](#);
455 [Goldfarb et al. 2004, 2005](#); [Pirajno 2009, 2010](#); [Phillips and Powell 2009, 2010](#)). Ductile to
456 brittle shear zones provide channels for metal-bearing vapor and liquids flowing outward.
457 Successive fluid boiling is triggered as metal-bearing liquid flow promotes the gradual sulfide
458 deposition and further generations of vapors. From this perspective, metal precipitations can
459 occur along the shear zone over a long distance, because vapor phases can move outwards
460 promptly. Thermodynamic modeling indicates that Cu can be extracted from metamorphic
461 rocks by autogenous fluids upon crossing the greenschist–amphibolite facies boundary
462 ([Zhong et al., 2015](#)). Vapor phases may widely serve as important transport agents for Cu in
463 greenschist–amphibolite facies metamorphism systems. The integrating H–O–S–Cu isotopic
464 data can be regarded as a reliable tracer for tracking metal transport agents and provide new
465 insights for mineral exploration.

466

467

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- 840

841

Figure Captions

842 **FIGURE 1** **A.** Simplified tectonic map of the Central Asian Orogenic Belt (modified from
843 [Sengör et al., 1993](#)). **B.** Geological map of the Chinese Tianshan with orogenic Au deposits
844 indicated (modified from [Gao et al., 2009](#); [Jiang et al., 2014](#)). **C.** Geological map of the
845 Lingyun deposit with cross-section A–A' (**D**) indicated. Modified from the First Geological
846 Team of the Xinjiang Bureau of Geology and Mineral Resources ([2008](#)).

847

848 **FIGURE 2** Photographs and photomicrographs showing ore-bearing veins and sulfide
849 mineral textures. **A.** Early-stage sulfide–quartz veins parallel to the foliation. **B.** Late-stage
850 chalcopyrite–bornite–ankerite vein cutting the early-stage foliation. **C.** Early-stage sulfide
851 mineral assemblages and silicate minerals showing a similar orientation. **D.** Sulfide mineral
852 assemblages showing elongated shapes, with secondary chalcocite occurring at the edges of
853 bornite. **E.** Inclusions of pyrite within chalcopyrite. **F.** The coexistence of chalcopyrite and
854 bornite, with minor chalcopyrite exsolving from bornite. Secondary chalcocite occurs at the
855 margins of, and fractures within, bornite. Abbreviations: Qtz = quartz, Ank = ankerite, Ser =
856 sericite, Chl = chlorite, Ccp = chalcopyrite, Bn = bornite, Py = pyrite, Sil = silicate minerals,
857 Sulf = sulfide minerals.

858

859 **FIGURE 3 (A–B)** Profile from prospecting line 90 to 146 showing the thickness of the
860 orebody (**A**) and Cu grade (**B**); sample locations are indicated. (**C–F**) The variation in δD (**C**),
861 $\delta^{18}O$ (**D**), $\delta^{34}S$ (**E**), and $\delta^{65}Cu$ (**F**) values from prospecting line 90 to line 138. The H–O
862 isotopic compositions for metamorphic water are from [Taylor \(1974\)](#). The main geological

863 processes (red and green arrows and text) and key factors contributing to multiple isotope
864 fractionations (black text) are indicated.

865

866 **FIGURE 4** (A) Calculated $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{fluid}}$ versus $\delta\text{D}_{\text{fluid}}$ for early-stage quartz in the Lingyun
867 deposit. Data for primary magmatic water, metamorphic water, and meteoric water are from
868 [Taylor \(1974\)](#). The data for meteoric water from Tianshan are represented by H–O isotopic
869 compositions in mid-latitude areas ([Hoefs, 2009, 2018](#)). (B) H–O isotopic composition and
870 water–rock isotope exchange evolutionary curves of the Lingyun deposit. The δ_{rock}^i ^{18}O and
871 δ_{rock}^i D values were set at 16‰ and –60‰ for the wall rocks, similar to the H–O compositions
872 of spilite ([Hoefs, 2009, 2018](#)). (C) Modeling for vapor–liquid-separation-derived H isotope
873 fractionation at variable temperatures. (D) Modeling of O isotope fractionation during
874 vapor–liquid separation at variable temperature. (E–F) The H–O isotopic compositions of
875 cumulative and instantaneous liquids and vapor under based on Rayleigh equations. The H–O
876 isotope fractionation factors at 250 °C were estimated by the equations of [Horita and](#)
877 [Wesolowski \(1994\)](#) (Equation 7–8). It was assumed that the H–O isotope fractionation factor
878 remained constant during vapor liquidation. A histogram of the H–O isotope ratios for
879 early-stage quartzes is also provided along the vertical axis for comparison.

880

881 **FIGURE 5** Physiochemical modeling of hydrothermal assemblages in the Lingyun
882 Fe–Cu–S–O–H mineralization system at (A) 350 °C, 200 bars (activities: Na 0.156, K 0.045,
883 and Cl 0.201), (B) 300 °C, 200 bars (activities: Na 0.135, K 0.040, and Cl 0.182), and (C)
884 250 °C, 200 bars (activities: Na 0.127, K 0.035, and Cl 0.162). All diagrams were calculated

885 with $\alpha_S = 0.1$, $\alpha_{Ca} = 0.0001$, and $\alpha_{Mg} = 0.0004$. Activities of Na, K, and Cl were calculated
886 using the HCh modeling software (Shvarov and Bastrakov, 1999).

887

888 **FIGURE 6** The S isotopic compositions of cumulative and instantaneous sulfides and fluid
889 under reduced and oxidized conditions based on Rayleigh equations. The S isotope
890 fractionation factors at 250 °C were estimated by the equations of Ohmoto and Rye (1979). It
891 was assumed that the S isotope fractionation factor remained constant during sulfide
892 precipitation. A histogram of the $\delta^{34}S$ range for sulfides is also provided along the vertical
893 axis for comparison.

894

895 **FIGURE 7** Plot of $\delta^{65}Cu$ values for coexisting chalcopyrite and bornite pairs in early-stage
896 sulfide mineral-bearing quartz veins.

897

898 **FIGURE 8 (A)** Rayleigh distillation model of vapor-liquid partitioning of Cu isotopes
899 showing the evolution of the liquid with $\delta^{65}Cu_{vapor} = -3\text{‰}$ and $\alpha_{vapor-liquid} = 0.998$ (Yao et al.,
900 2016). **(B)** The Cu isotopic compositions of cumulative and instantaneous chalcopyrite and
901 fluids based on Rayleigh equations. It was assumed that the Cu isotope fractionation factor
902 remained constant during vapor-liquid separation and chalcopyrite precipitation. A histogram
903 of the $\delta^{65}Cu$ range for sulfides and wall rocks are also provided along the vertical axis for
904 comparison. Abbreviations: Early = Early-stage sulfides, Late = Late-stage sulfides.

905

906 **FIGURE 9 (A)** Schematic diagram showing fluid-flow pathways and associated H–O–S–Cu

907 isotopic compositions of the Lingyun deposit. The location of the cross-section for **Fig. 9B** is
908 indicated. **(B)** Physiochemical conditions of fluids during their migration (see text for
909 details).
910

911 **TABLE 1.** Hydrogen isotope ratios of fluid inclusions hosted by quartz and oxygen isotope
 912 ratios of quartz grains from the early-stage sulfide mineral-quartz veins in the Lingyun
 913 deposit, Eastern Tianshan, China.

Sample no.	Prospecting line no.	Fluid type	Vapor/liquid ratios	δD (‰)	$\delta^{18}O$ (‰)	Homogenization temperatures (°C)	Calculated $\delta^{18}O_{\text{fluid}}$ (‰)
L90-1	90	C, M	3:1–5:1	–100.5	10.8	240–279	1.6
L90-2	90	C, M	3:1–5:1	–102.4	10.9	248–275	1.8
L93-1	93	C, M, W	3:1–5:1	–100.5	11.9	240–275	2.8
L93-2	93	C, M	3:1–5:1	–95.6	10.5	249–279	1.4
L100-1	100	C, M	3:1–5:1	–100.8	11.1	245–260	2.3
L100-2	100	C, M, W	3:1–5:1	–103.9	10.6	245–265	1.5
L110-1	110	C, M	3:1–5:1	–82.5	10.5	255–275	1.9
L110-2	110	C, M	3:1–5:1	–92.4	10.3	251–276	1.7
L112-1	112	C, M	1:1–5:1	–80.3	10.8	255–270	2.4
L112-2	112	C, M	1:1–5:1	–90.7	10.3	250–270	1.8
L114-1	114	C, M	2:1–5:1	–88.3	12.2	250–268	3.7
L114-2	114	C, M, W	2:1–5:1	–96.5	8.9	255–270	0.5
L116-1	116	C, M	2:1–4:1	–78.3	13.2	258–270	4.9
L116-2	116	C, M	2:1–4:1	–88.5	10.5	245–288	1.9
L118-1	118	C, M, W	2:1–4:1	–84.3	13.4	245–289	4.9
L118-2	118	C, M, W	2:1–4:1	–87.6	11.1	248–268	2.5
L120-1	120	C, M, W	2:1–4:1	–85.2	12.9	245–275	4.2
L120-2	120	C, M, W	2:1–4:1	–86.8	12.1	255–278	3.6
L122-1	122	C, W	2:1–4:1	–80.3	13.9	250–275	5.3
L122-2	122	C, M, W	2:1–4:1	–79.5	12.2	255–295	3.7
L124-1	124	C, M, W	2:1–4:1	–82.9	13.7	245–275	5.2
L124-2	124	C, W	2:1–4:1	–84.5	13.2	254–277	4.5
L126-1	126	C, M, W	2:1–3:1	–74.7	14.9	255–290	6.3
L126-2	126	C, M, W	2:1–3:1	–81.8	14.3	265–285	6.2
L128-1	128	C, M, W	2:1–3:1	–75.4	13.4	265–295	5.7
L128-2	128	C, M, W	2:1–3:1	–77.2	14.4	275–300	7.0
L130-1	130	M, W	2:1–3:1	–71.7	14.9	280–320	8.0
L130-2	130	C, M, W	1:1–3:1	–68.9	13.5	305–329	7.2
L132-1	132	M, W	1:1–3:1	–70.2	12.9	309–337	6.9
L132-2	132	M, W	1:1–3:1	–68.9	13.2	310–335	7.0
L134-1	134	M, W	1:1–2:1	–60.5	13.9	326–339	8.1
L134-2	134	C, M, W	1:1–2:1	–63.5	14.5	306–335	8.5
L136-1	136	M, W	1:1–2:1	–62.2	14.9	305–345	9.3
L136-2	136	M, W	1:1–2:1	–63.1	15.6	316–349	9.9
L138-1	138	M, W	1:1–2:1	–61.5	14.5	320–357	8.8

L138-2	138	M, W	1:1–2:1	–61.2	14.0	310–365	8.7
L138-3	138	M, W	1:1–2:1	–60.1	14.8	305–369	9.7

914 Notes: The homogenization temperature of some fluid inclusions for calculating $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{fluid}}$ is from [Zhao et al. \(2018\)](#).
915 New data were analyzed following the same procedures. Secondary inclusions were carefully checked and avoided.
916 The Lingyun deposit is composed of aqueous (liquid water and vapor water, W-type), mixed aqueous-carbonic (H_2O ,
917 CO_2 and minor N_2 phases, M-type) and pure carbonic (CO_2 with minor H_2O liquid and N_2 vapor, C-type) inclusions
918 ([Zhao et al., 2018](#)).
919

TABLE 2. Copper and S isotopic compositions and Cu/Fe ratios of sulfide minerals and Cu and S isotopic compositions of wall rocks from the Lingyun deposit, Eastern Tianshan, China.

Sample no.	Sample types	Analyzed targets	Mineralization stage	Prospecting line no.	Elevation (m)	$\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ (‰)	2SD	Cu/Fe ratios	$\delta^{34}\text{S}$ (‰)
L1-15	wall rock	whole-rock powder	–	124	1150	–0.63	0.06	n.d.	3.3
L1-11	wall rock	whole-rock powder	–	124	1150	–0.67	0.06	n.d.	5.0
L1-13	wall rock	whole-rock powder	–	128	1150	–0.64	0.06	n.d.	3.7
L1-18	wall rock	whole-rock powder	–	130	1150	–0.67	0.06	n.d.	6.6
L1-21	wall rock	whole-rock powder	–	100	1170	–0.65	0.06	n.d.	5.7
L1-23	wall rock	whole-rock powder	–	93	1170	–0.65	0.06	n.d.	6.1
L90-1	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	90	1190	–1.85	0.05	0.95	5.0
L90-2	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	90	1190	–1.65	0.05	0.96	2.0
L93-1	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	93	1190	–1.55	0.05	0.98	2.2
L93-2	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	93	1190	–1.62	0.05	0.96	3.7
L100-1	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	100	1190	–1.52	0.05	0.95	4.6
L100-2	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	100	1190	–1.45	0.05	0.97	2.9
L110-1	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	110	1170	–1.45	0.05	0.97	–3.3
L110-2	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	110	1170	–1.78	0.05	1.02	–7.2
L112-1	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	112	1150	–1.34	0.05	1.04	–4.2
L112-2	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	112	1150	–1.51	0.06	1.04	–8.0
L114-1	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	114	1150	–1.16	0.06	0.97	–1.8
L114-2	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	114	1150	–1.39	0.05	0.96	–5.5
L116-1	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	116	1150	–1.38	0.05	1.02	–5.2
L116-2	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	116	1150	–1.64	0.06	1.05	–1.2
L118-1	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	118	1150	–0.91	0.05	5.00	–6.1
L118-2	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	118	1150	–1.39	0.05	1.03	–8.1
L120-1	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	120	1150	–1.54	0.07	0.96	–4.3
L120-2	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	120	1150	–1.22	0.05	0.98	–7.2
L122-1	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	122	1150	–1.48	0.06	1.05	–4.6
L122-2	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	122	1150	–1.01	0.05	0.99	–8.1
L122-3	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Late	122	1150	0.05	0.05	0.93	–9.9
L124-1	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	124	1150	–1.15	0.06	0.92	–9.0
L124-2	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	124	1150	–0.95	0.05	0.98	–6.1

922

Table 2. Continued

Sample no.	Sample types	Analyzed targets	Mineralization stage	Prospecting line no.	Elevation (m)	$\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ (‰)	2SD	Cu/Fe ratios	$\delta^{34}\text{S}$ (‰)
L124-3	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	124	1150	-1.22	0.05	0.96	-6.7
L126-1	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	126	1150	-1.12	0.05	0.95	-6.6
L126-2	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	126	1150	-1.05	0.05	0.97	-6.9
L126-3	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Late	126	1150	-0.05	0.05	0.97	-9.8
L128-1	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	128	1150	-1.02	0.05	0.97	-7.3
L128-2	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	128	1150	-0.88	0.05	1.02	-7.1
L128-3	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Late	128	1150	-0.15	0.06	0.99	-9.4
L130-1c	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	130	1150	-0.44	0.05	1.04	-7.8
L130-1b	sulfide ores	bornite	Early	130	1150	-0.27	0.06	5.04	-7.2
L130-2c	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	130	1150	-0.76	0.06	0.97	-8.8
L130-2b	sulfide ores	bornite	Early	130	1150	-0.39	0.05	4.96	-8.5
L132-1c	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	132	1150	-0.28	0.05	1.02	-6.6
L132-1b	sulfide ores	bornite	Early	132	1150	-0.33	0.06	5.05	-7.2
L132-2	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Late	132	1150	-0.15	0.05	0.98	-9.3
L134-1	sulfide ores	bornite	Early	134	1100	0.10	0.05	5.00	-9.1
L134-2c	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	134	1100	0.39	0.05	1.03	-8.7
L134-2b	sulfide ores	bornite	Early	134	1100	0.04	0.07	4.96	-9.3
L134-3	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Late	134	1100	-0.30	0.06	1.01	-11.2
L136-1c	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	136	1100	-0.32	0.05	0.98	-10.2
L136-1b	sulfide ores	bornite	Early	136	1100	-0.18	0.06	5.05	-10.6
L136-2c	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	136	1100	-0.01	0.05	0.99	-10.1
L136-2b	sulfide ores	bornite	Early	136	1100	0.05	0.05	4.93	-9.9
L138-1	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	138	1100	-0.28	0.05	1.03	-14.2
L138-2c	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Early	138	1100	-0.32	0.05	0.95	-14.1
L138-2b	sulfide ores	bornite	Early	138	1100	0.27	0.05	5.04	-14.3
L138-3	sulfide ores	bornite	Early	138	1100	-0.31	0.05	5.00	-14.1
L138-4	sulfide ores	chalcopyrite	Late	138	1100	-0.01	0.05	1.01	-10.8

Notes: The samples with the same number but different labels (e.g., L130-1c and L130-1b) represent the coexisting sulfide pairs. n.d. = not detected.

923

Fig. 1

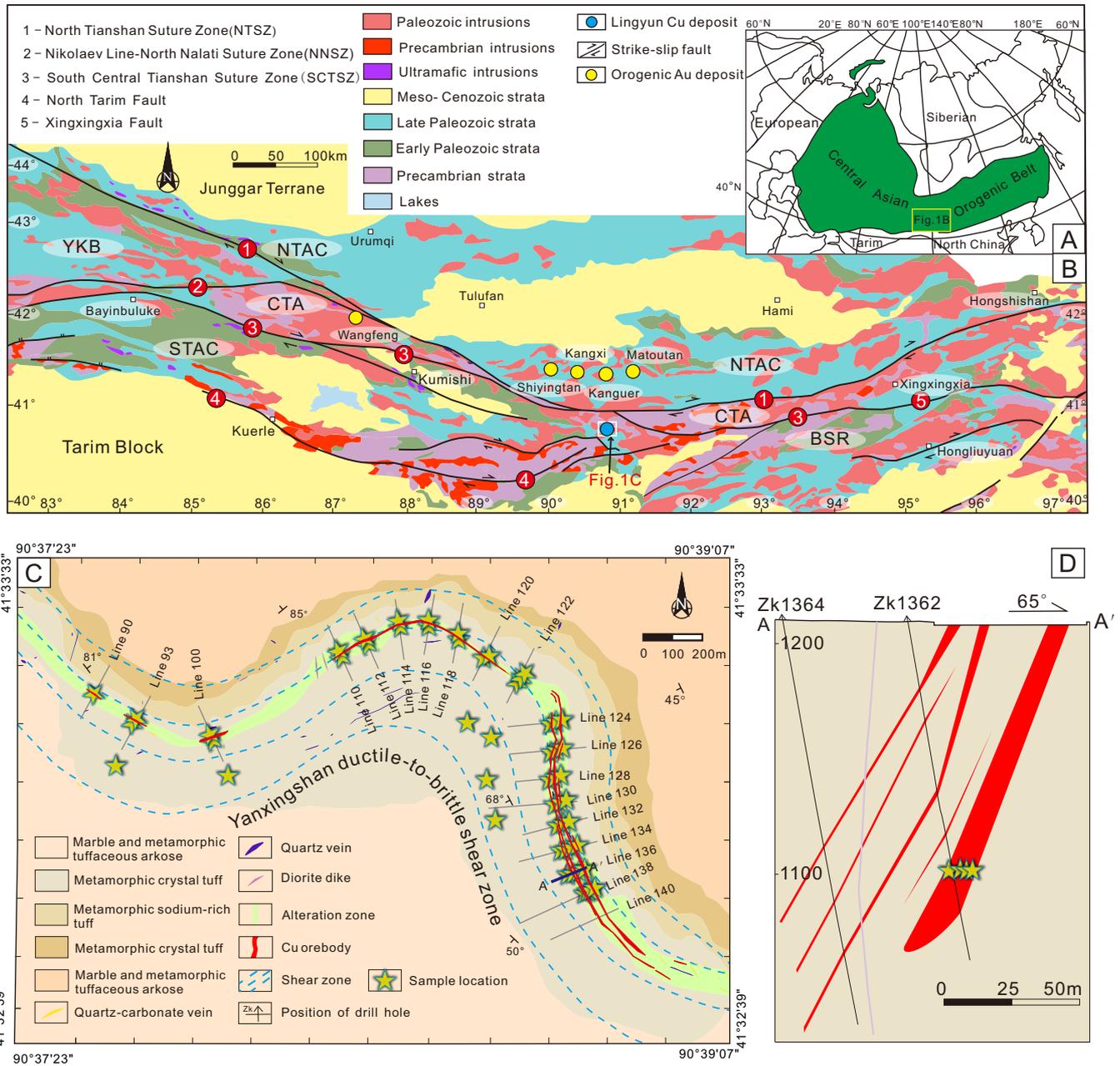


Fig. 2

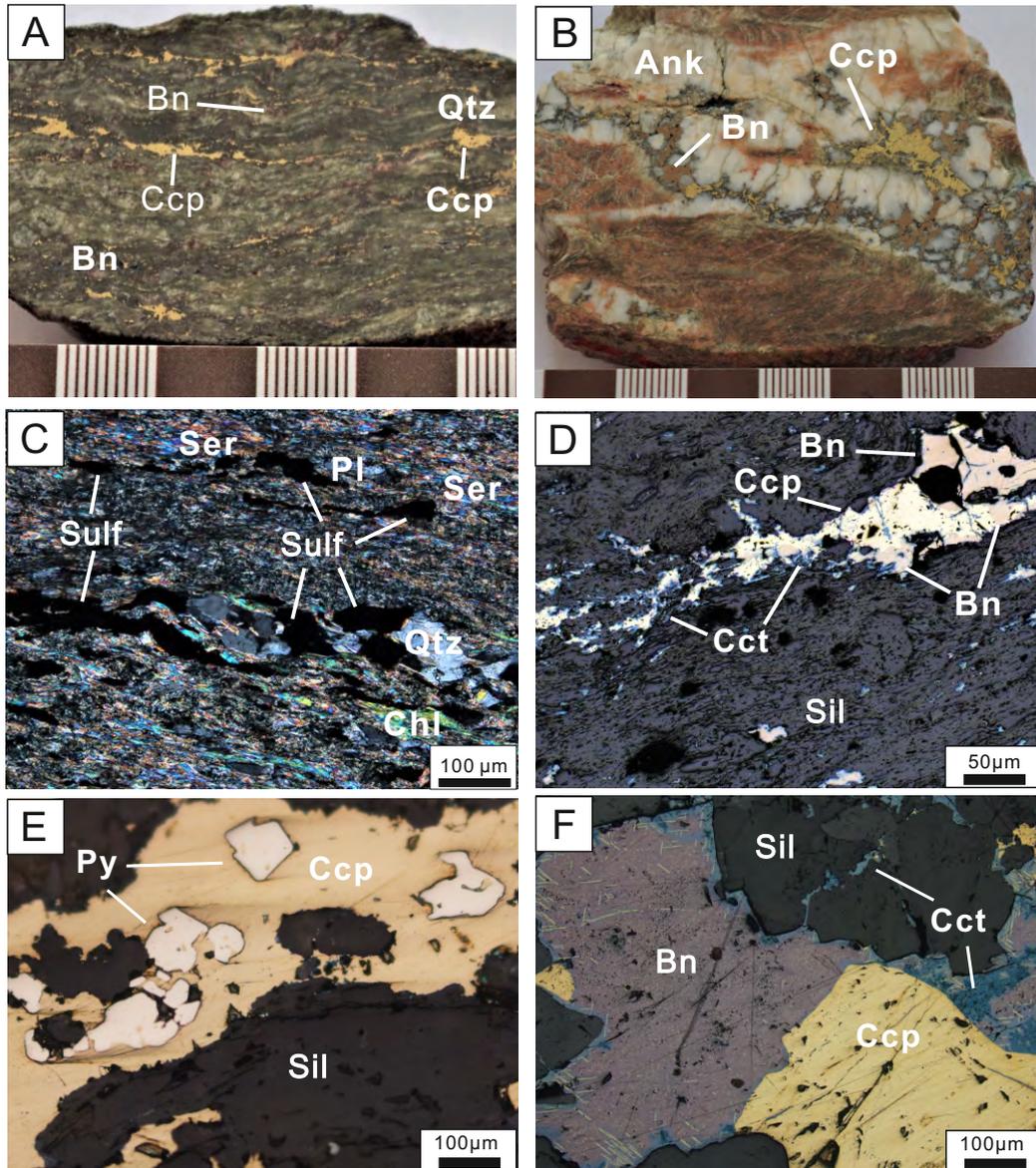


Fig. 3

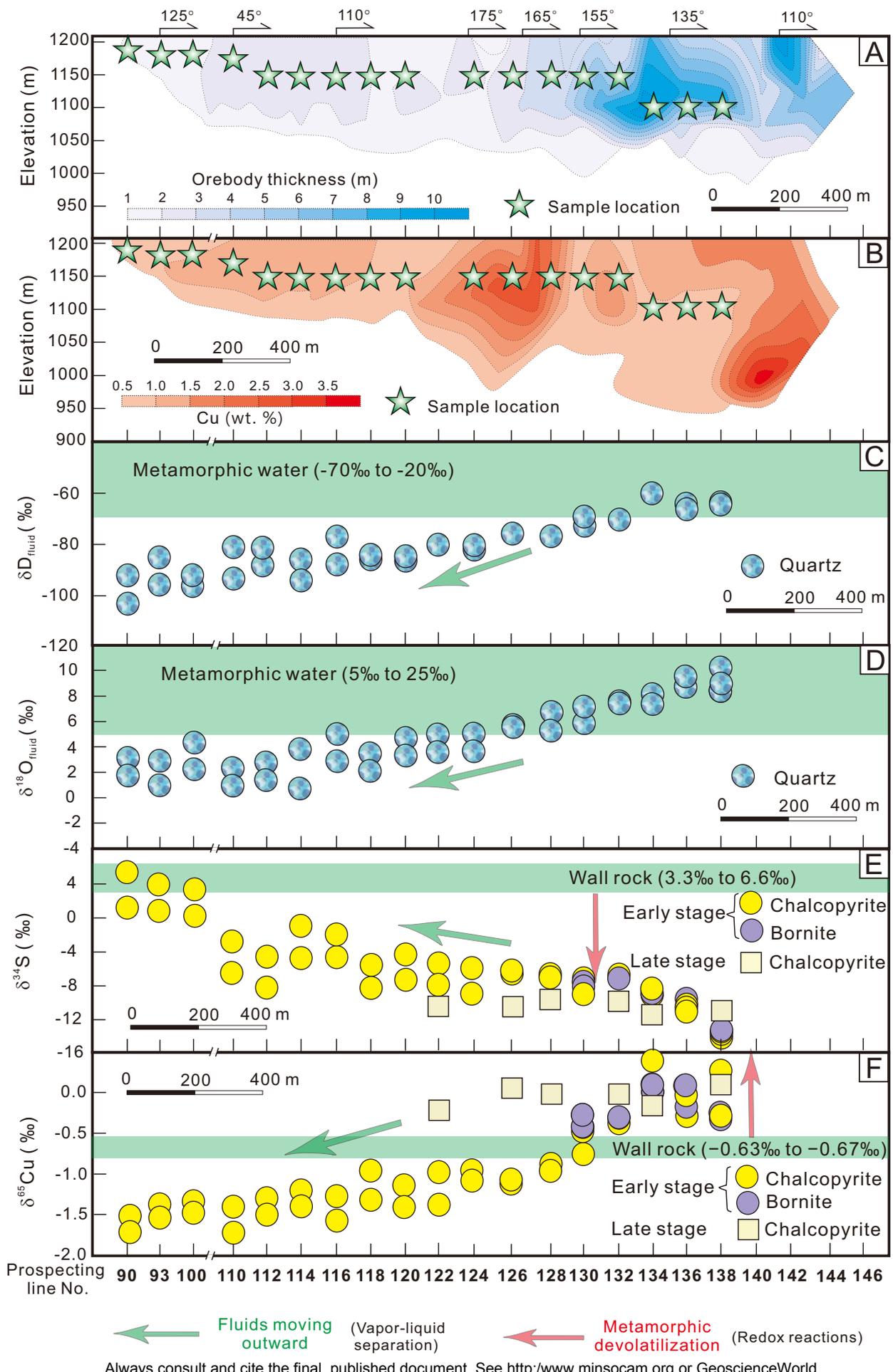


Fig. 4

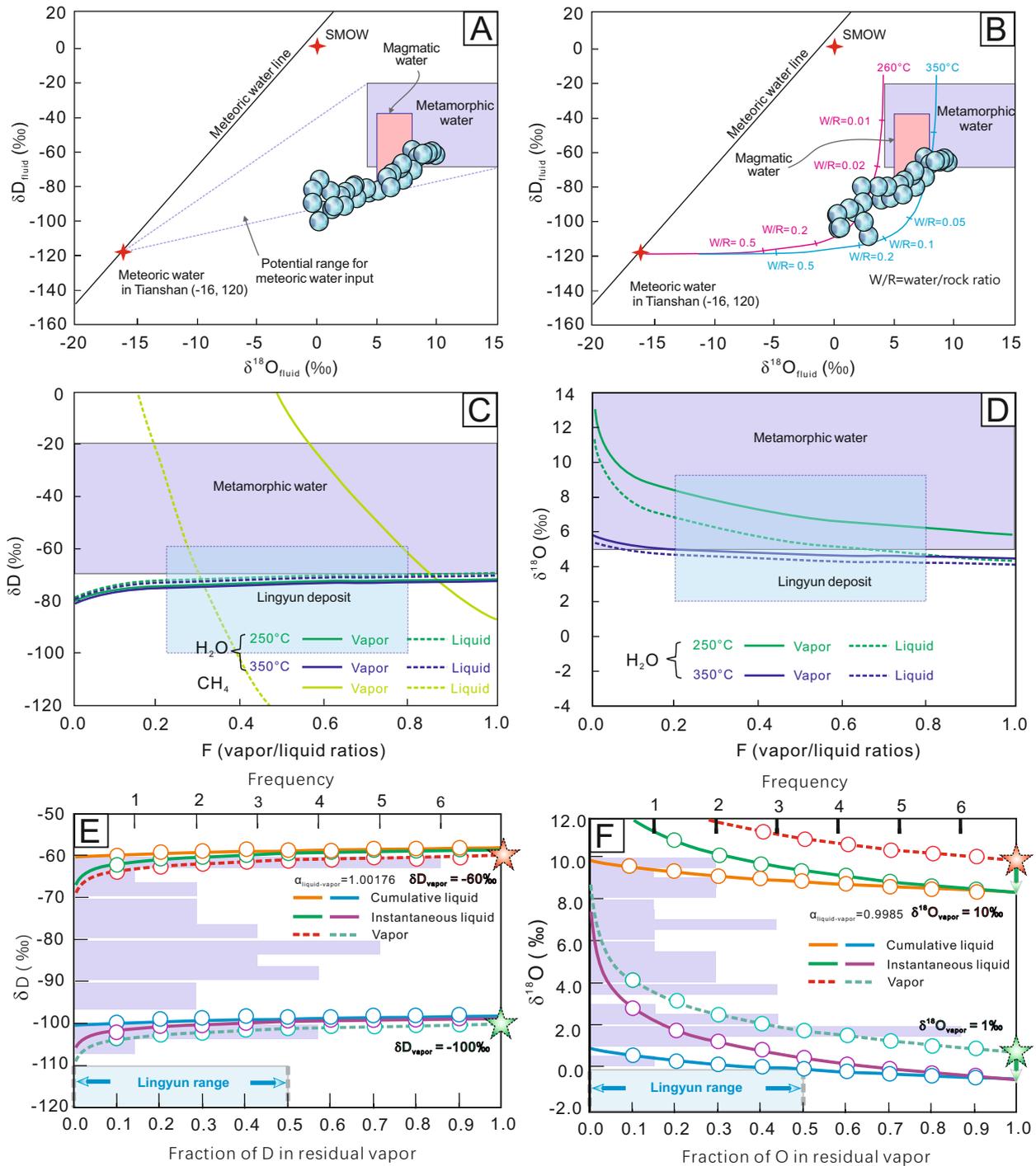


Fig. 5

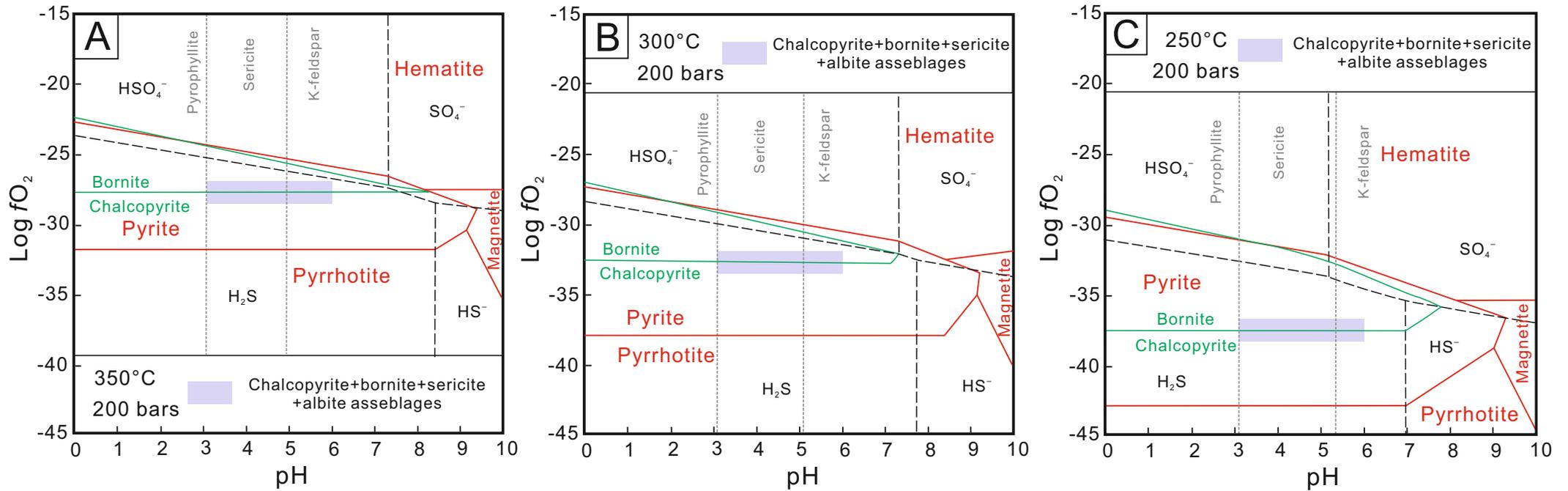


Fig. 6

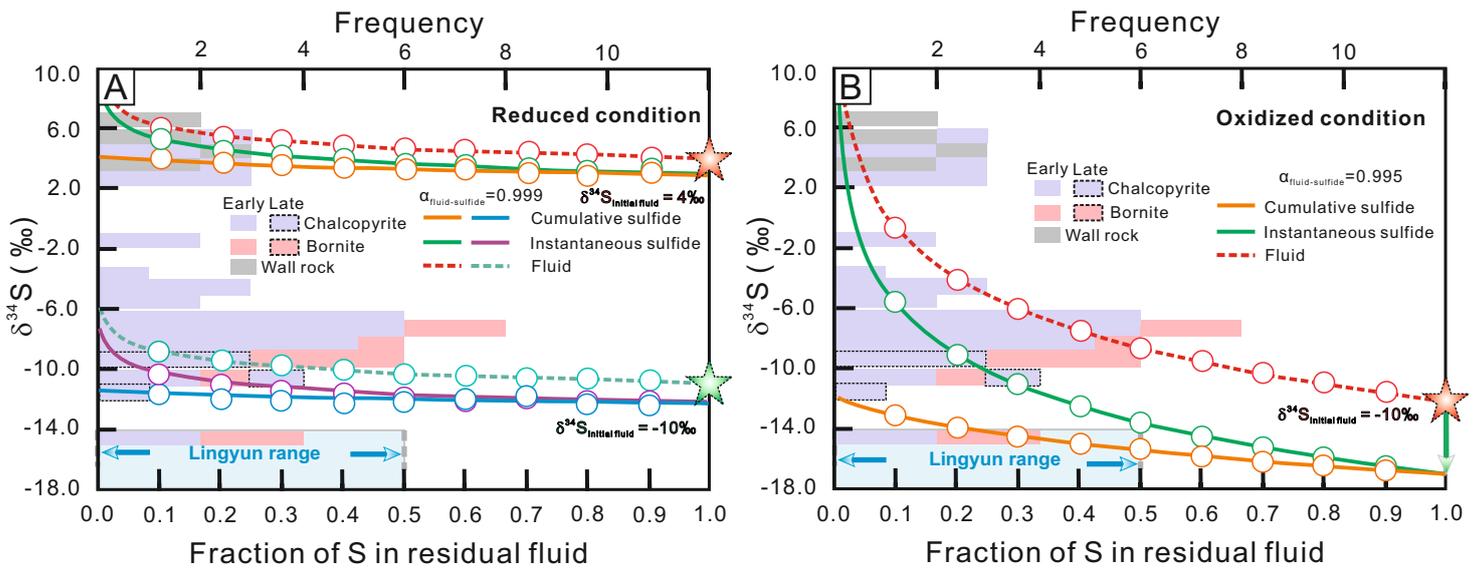


Fig. 7

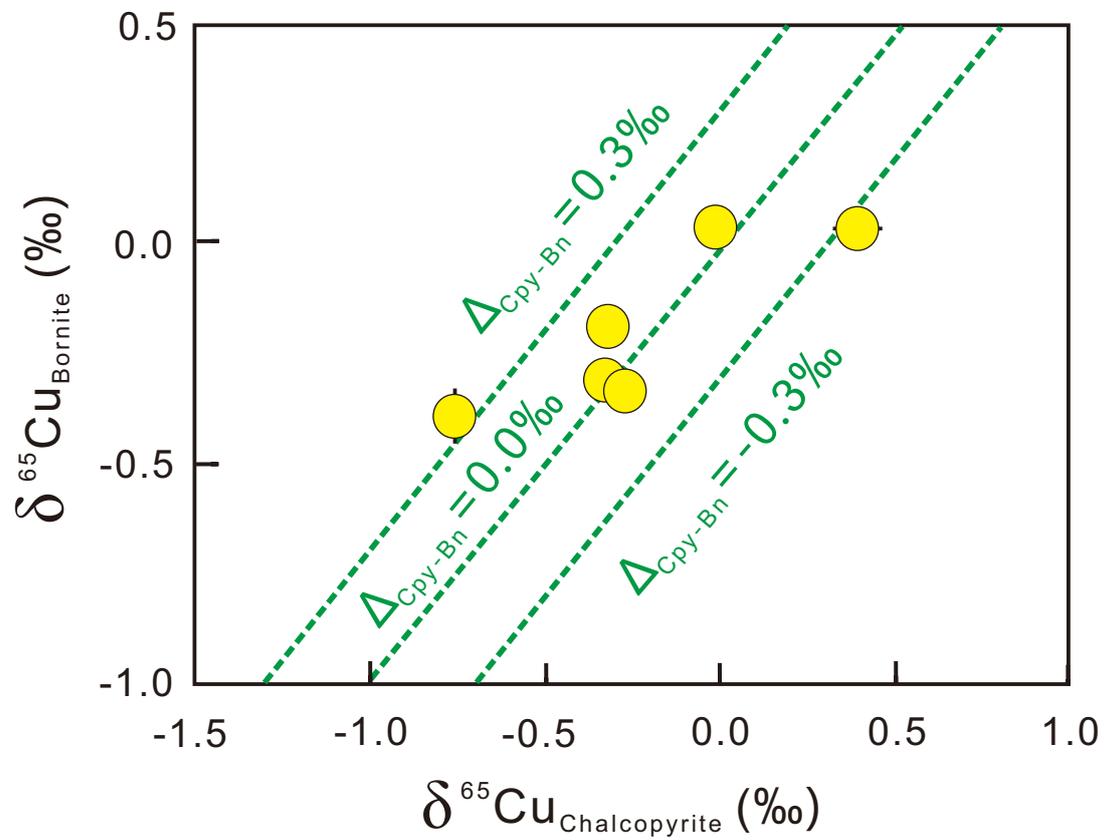


Fig. 8

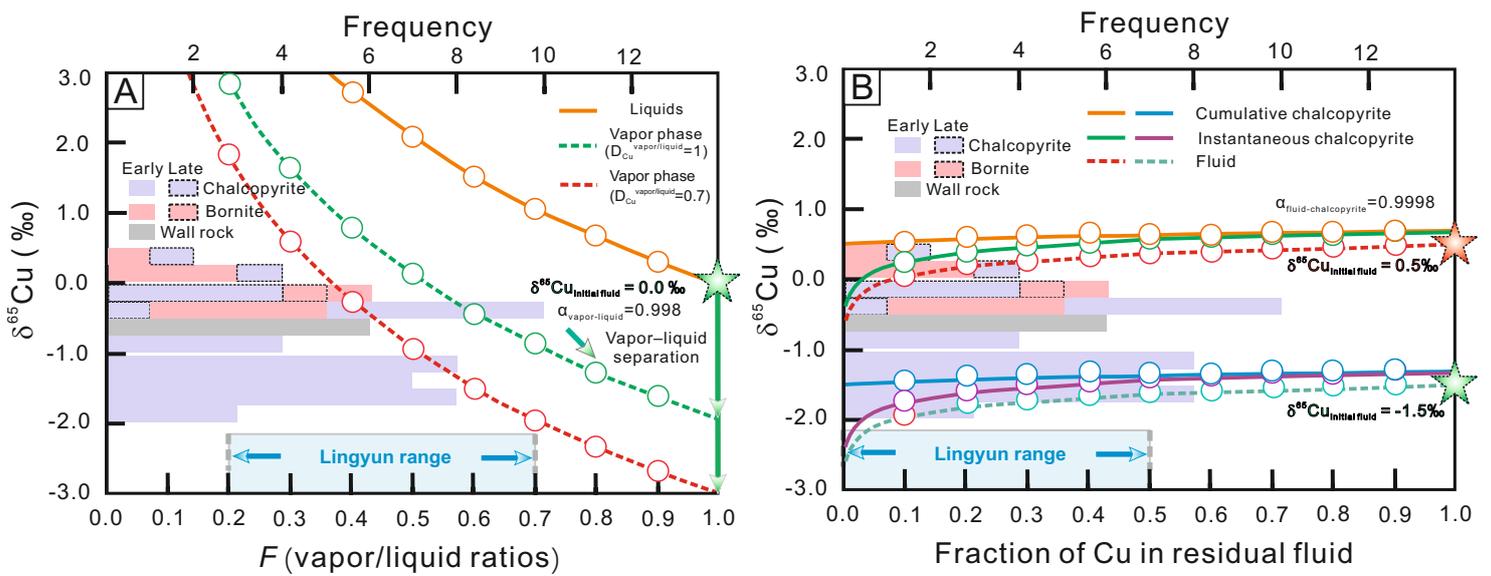


Fig. 9

