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# Trace element composition of scheelite in orogenic gold deposits — Source link 🔀

Marjorie Sciuba, Georges Beaudoin, Donald Grzela, Sheida Makvandi

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Trace element composition of scheelite

- 2 Marjorie Sciuba<sup>1,2</sup>, Georges Beaudoin<sup>1,2</sup>, Donald Grzela<sup>1,2</sup>, Sheida Makvandi<sup>1,2,3</sup>
- 3 Marjorie Sciuba
- 4 Marjorie.Sciuba.1@ulaval.ca
- 5 Georges Beaudoin
- 6 Georges.Beaudoin@ggl.ulaval.ca
- 7 1 Département de Géologie et Génie Géologique, Université Laval, Québec (QC) G1V 0A6, Canada
- 8 2 Centre de recherche sur la géologie et l'ingénierie des ressources minérales (E4m)
  - 3 COREM, 1180 Rue de la Minéralogie, Québec, Canada, G1N 1X7

Abstract Scheelite from twenty-five representative orogenic gold deposits from various geological settings was investigated by EPMA (Electron Probe Micro-Analyzer) and LA-ICP-MS (Laser Ablation-Inductively Coupled Plasma-Mass Spectrometer) to establish discriminant geochemical features to constrain indicator mineral surveys for gold exploration. Scheelite from orogenic gold deposits displays five REE patterns including a bell-shaped pattern with a (i) positive or (ii) negative Eu anomaly; iii) a flat pattern with a positive Eu anomaly and, less commonly, iv) a LREE enriched pattern, and v) a HREE enriched pattern. The REE patterns are interpreted to reflect the source of the auriferous hydrothermal fluids and, perhaps, co-precipitating mineral phases. Scheelite from deposits formed in rocks metamorphosed at upper greenschist to lower amphibolite facies have low contents in REE, Y, and Sr, and high contents in Mn, Nb, Ta and V, compared to scheelite formed in rocks metamorphosed below the middle greenschist facies. Scheelite from deposits hosted in sedimentary rocks has high Sr, Pb, U and Th, and low Na, REE and Y, compared to that hosted in felsic to intermediate rocks. Statistical analysis including elemental plots and multivariate statistics with PLS-DA (Partial Least Square-Discriminant Analysis) reveal that the metamorphic facies of the host rocks, as well, as the regional host rock composition exert a strong control on scheelite composition. This is a result of fluid-rock exchange during fluid flow to gold deposition site. PLS-DA and elemental ratio plots show that scheelite from orogenic gold deposits have distinct Sr, Mo, Eu, As and Sr/Mo, but indistinguishable REE signatures, compared to scheelite from other deposit types.

**Keywords** scheelite, orogenic gold deposits, trace elements, cathodoluminescence, principal component analysis, partial least square-discriminant analysis

# Introduction

The association between gold and scheelite in orogenic gold deposits has long been recognized. Goldfarb et al. (2005) review the characteristics of orogenic gold deposits. In many deposits, scheelite predates and/or is contemporaneous with gold deposition, such as in the Val-d'Or district, Canada (Beaudoin and Pitre 2005), at Mt. Charlotte, Australia (Mueller 1991) or Charmitan, Uzbekistan (Graupner et al. 2010). Scheelite is a major mineral in greisen and skarn (Xiong et al. 2006; Ren et al. 2010; Song et al. 2014; Guo et al. 2016; Poulin 2016; Poulin et al. 2016; Poulin et al. 2018), and a minor mineral in Cu-(Mo-Au) porphyry deposits (Poulin 2016; Poulin et al. 2016; Sun and Chen 2017; Poulin et al. 2018), where it occurs in veins or disseminated in altered rocks. Scheelite is also an accessory mineral in aplite, pegmatite and metamorphosed sedimentary exhalative Fe-Mn (Brugger et al. 1998; Uspensky et al. 1998) and volcanogenic massive sulphides deposits (Poulin 2016; Poulin et al. 2016; Poulin et al. 2018).

The indicator mineral technique is used in exploration using overburden sediments for several deposit types. Discriminant geochemical features in major, minor and trace elements of indicator minerals may be used to recognize a deposit type. For instance, Cr-rich spinel and Cr-rich garnet are indicators for diamond-bearing kimberlite (Gurney 1984; Fipke et al. 1995; McClenaghan and Kjarsgaard 2007), and Ni-Cu mineralization (Aumo and Salonen 1986; Peltonen et al. 1992; Somarin 2004), whereas magnetite has been shown to be useful to fingerprint various mineral deposit types (Dupuis

Fipke et al. 1995; McClenaghan and Kjarsgaard 2007), and Ni-Cu mineralization (Aumo and Salonen 1986; Peltonen et al. 1992; Somarin 2004), whereas magnetite has been shown to be useful to fingerprint various mineral deposit types (Dupuis and Beaudoin 2011; Boutroy et al. 2014; Dare et al. 2014). Scheelite is considered an indicator mineral for orogenic gold (McClenaghan and Cabri 2011) and tungsten deposits (Lindmark 1977; Toverud 1984; Johansson et al. 1986). In indicator

mineral surveys, scheelite is recovered from the heavy mineral fraction or overburden sediments, but the deposit type at the

source of the scheelite grains cannot, currently, be determined.

Scheelite (CaWO<sub>4</sub>) and powellite (CaMoO<sub>4</sub>) form a partial solid solution where Mo<sup>6+</sup> substitutes for W<sup>6+</sup> (Tyson et al. 1988). Pure scheelite is bluish under short wave fluorescent light, whereas Mo-rich scheelite is typically yellow in color (Van Horn 1930; Shoji and Sasaki 1978). Scheelite is luminescent under an electron beam allowing to study textural zonation and successive scheelite generations in relationship with their trace element composition. The REE, Y, As, and Sr content in scheelite have a minor effect on the cathodoluminescence (CL) response (Brugger et al. 2000a; MacRae et al. 2009; Poulin 2016; Poulin et al. 2016), whereas Mo variation is associated with CL zoning, (Poulin 2016; Poulin et al. 2016). The CL zoning may result from primary crystallization or from multi-stage evolution (Brugger et al. 2000a).

Replacement of W by Mo and Ca by Sr, Pb, Fe, Mn, Ba and REE have been reported (Cottrant 1981; Raimbault et al. 1993; Ghaderi et al. 1999) and traces of Na, V, Nb, Ta, S, As, Pb, U, Th, Mn, Fe, Au, Ba, B, Co, Cr, K, Ni, Sb Sc, Zn, Bi,

Cu, Sn, Zn, Li, Ti and Rb have been measured in variable amounts in scheelite from various types of deposits (Anglin 1992; Eichhorn et al. 1997; Zhigang et al. 1998; Ghaderi et al. 1999; Brugger et al. 2000a; Brugger et al. 2000b; Brugger et al. 2002; Xiong et al. 2006; Liu Yan et al. 2007; Dostal et al. 2009; Graupner et al. 2010; Peng et al. 2010; Ren et al. 2010; Song et al. 2014; Hazarika et al. 2016; Poulin 2016; Poulin et al. 2016; Fu et al. 2017; Sun and Chen 2017). The high REE concentrations (~10-5,000 ppm; Uspensky et al. 1998) in scheelite have been used for Sm-Nd geochronology in order to date the gold mineralization (Anglin 1992; Anglin et al. 1996; Frei et al. 1998; Uspensky et al. 1998; Kempe et al. 2001; Roberts et al. 2006) whereas the Sr and Nd isotopic compositions have been used to constrain the sources and the pathway of auriferous hydrothermal fluids (Bell et al. 1989; Mueller et al. 1991a; Kent et al. 1995; Darbyshire et al. 1996; Frei et al. 1998). Most of the studies on Sr and Nd isotopic composition of scheelite from orogenic gold deposits conclude that the fluids are derived from the mantle and/or the lower crust (Bell et al. 1989; Mueller et al. 1991a; Darbyshire et al. 1996; Voicu et al. 2000), with the exception of the Muruntau gold deposit where Kempe et al. (2001) concluded that fluids were most probably derived from the local host rocks. Calcium is likely derived from the regional host rocks, whereas, W is considered to be derived from the hydrothermal fluids (Goldfarb and Groves 2015). Isotopic studies of scheelite have shown that Sr is partly derived from the local host rocks (Mueller et al. 1991a; Darbyshire et al. 1996; Ghaderi et al. 1999; Brugger et al. 2002), whereas Pb and Nd have more complex sources at the local and regional scales (Brugger et al. 2002). Poulin (2016) discriminated the trace element signatures of metamorphic scheelite to that from magmatic and hydrothermal settings using the Eu anomaly vs Mo/Sr. Previous studies, however, do not provide a common, comprehensive, set of minor and trace elements contents in orogenic gold deposit scheelite.

Defining the texture, luminescence properties, and trace element composition of scheelite from orogenic gold deposits could be used to identify and track these deposits in overburden sediments. In this study, we present textural and chemical characteristics of scheelite from 25 orogenic gold deposits, including 13 world-class examples, that represent a large variation in host rock composition and age, metamorphic facies and mineralization age, in order to characterize scheelite from this deposit type. Mineral texture was investigated by CL and composition was determined by Electron Probe Micro Analyzer (EPMA) for major and minor elements, and by Laser Ablation-Inductively Coupled Plasma-Mass Spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS) for minor and trace elements. Discriminant binary and ternary diagrams, box plots and multivariate statistics including Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Partial Least Square-Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA) are used to characterize scheelite composition from various geological settings within the orogenic gold deposit type. Furthermore, we compare the chemical composition of scheelite from orogenic gold deposits to that from other deposit types in order to define discriminant criteria that would be useful to identify the source of scheelite in indicator mineral surveys.

#### Geological settings of the selected orogenic gold deposits

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Typical samples of gold mineralization were selected from 13 world-class (Goldfarb et al. 2005) and 12 additional orogenic gold deposits and districts (ESM 1a). The set of samples is considered to represent largely the variability of orogenic gold deposit characteristics. The origin of the Kumtor, Canadian Malartic and Young Davidson deposits is still debated, but we follow Goldfarb et al. (2005) and consider they belong to the orogenic type. Mueller (1997) and Mueller et al. (2004) considered the Nevoria gold deposit as a skarn, whereas Eilu et al. (1999) and Goldfarb et al. (2005) classified it as an orogenic gold deposit. In the following, Nevoria is described with the other orogenic gold deposits. In addition, we report on the Crusader deposit that has been interpreted to be intrusion-related (Jowitt et al. 2014). Deposits were selected to provide a representative range of geological settings (ESM 1a). Host rocks consist of sedimentary (clastic, black shale, banded-iron formation), volcanic (basalt, komatiite) and plutonic rocks (syenite, granite, granodiorite, tonalite, diorite, gabbro). The selected gold deposit host rocks are metamorphosed from the lower greenschist (e.g., Paddington, Sigma-Lamaque) to the mid-amphibolite facies (e.g., Marvel Loch, Edward's Find). To simplify comparison, deposits hosted in lower greenschist facies rocks and below are labelled low metamorphic, deposits in mid-greenschist facies rocks are considered moderate metamorphic and deposits in upper greenschist to lower amphibolite facies rocks are labelled high metamorphic. Scheelite has not been described in orogenic gold deposits hosted in higher grade metamorphic rocks such as Challenger, Griffin's Find, or Renco. Most of the deposits selected formed during the Archean (e.g., Hutti) but our selection includes deposits formed during the Proterozoic (e.g., Essakane), the Paleozoic (e.g., Kumtor) and the Mesozoic (e.g., Macraes). Host rock ages range from Archean to Paleozoic (ESM 1a). In the selected deposits, scheelite occurs in the mineral assemblage of the gold mineralization.

#### Scheelite texture and mineral assemblages

Scheelite is commonly pinkish to whitish beige at the macroscopic scale. Scheelite occurs most commonly as centimeter-size aggregates of massive anhedral grains free of inclusions such as at Beaufor, Sigma, Dome, Canadian Malartic, Cuiaba (Fig. 1a), Essakane, Macraes, and Crusader. Scheelite locally forms isolated subhedral grains at Canadian Malartic (Fig. 1b) and Paddington. Scheelite is finely disseminated (50-500 µm) at Rosebel, Kochkar (Fig. 1d), Kumtor, Navachab, Buzwagi and Transvaal. Grain aggregates locally form veinlets at Kumtor (Fig. 1e). At Hutti, scheelite shows a polygonal fabric typical of dynamic recrystallization (Fig. 1c).

Mineral associations are detailed for each deposit in ESM 1b. Scheelite is most commonly associated with quartz, carbonates, amphiboles, tourmaline, sericite, muscovite, feldspar, clinopyroxene, magnetite, pyrite and arsenopyrite. Accessory minerals associated with scheelite are rutile, titanite, hematite, chalcopyrite and pyrrhotite. Native gold forms inclusions in pyrite which is in textural equilibrium with scheelite at Paddington and Tarmoola (Fig. 1h). At Crusader, native gold is in textural equilibrium with scheelite, in association with magnetite and muscovite (Fig. 1i). At Rosebel and Hutti, scheelite occurs in the same sample as native gold but is not in textural equilibrium. At Norseman, coarse-grained scheelite aggregates are intergrown with minor sphalerite, galena and rare native gold (Mueller 1990). All scheelite grains display homogeneous blue fluorescence under UVC light, with the exception of samples from the Crusader and Nevoria deposits, which exhibit a yellow colour.

# **Analytical methods**

#### Sample preparation

Scheelite-bearing samples were collected from the selected deposits, or donated by researchers or mining companies (ESM 1a). Thirty-seven polished thin sections from 25 deposits were studied using the petrographic microscope. An additional five samples, from the Hollinger, Dome, Young Davidson, Sigma and Cuiaba deposits were disaggregated by Electrical Pulse Disaggregation (EPD) at Overburden Drilling Management (Ottawa) to recover ultra-trace scheelite. Scheelite grains were hand-picked under the binocular microscope and UVC light from the non-magnetic, heavy (SG > 3.3), 0.25-0.5 mm and 0.5-1.0 mm grain size fractions. Scheelite was recovered from the EPD samples from Hollinger, Young Davidson and Sigma, whereas, samples from the Dome and Cuiaba deposits contained no scheelite. Scheelite grains recovered by EPD were mounted in epoxy polished sections. Scheelite grains from Marvel Loch (Mueller 1991; Mueller et al. 1991b), Nevoria (Mueller 1997; Mueller et al. 2004), Edward's Find (Schwebel et al. 1995), Mount Pleasant (Cassidy and Bennett 1993), Mt. Charlotte (Mueller 2015), Paddington (Hancok et al. 1990) and Norseman (Australia; Mueller 1992) were donated by A. Mueller (ESM 1a) and mounted in epoxy polished section.

#### **Electron Probe Micro-Analysis (EPMA)**

We analysed 145 spots from 25 deposits by EPMA (ESM 2b). The major and minor element composition of scheelite was measured at Université Laval using a CAMECA SX-100, equipped with five wavelength-dispersive spectrometers (WDS). Major elements W and Ca were measured with a beam current of 20 nA with an accelerating voltage at 15 kV, for 20 s for

the peak and 10 s for the background, using a beam diameter of 10 µm. Metal tungsten (W-ATX) and diopside were used as standards for W and Ca. Concentrations of Na, Sr, Mo, Y and Fe were measured with a 10 µm diameter beam with a current of 100 nA, an accelerating voltage of 15 kV, and counting times of 120 s for the peak and 30 s for the background. Metal molybdenum (Mo-ATX) for Mo, celestite for Sr, YPO<sub>4</sub> for Y, hematite for Fe and albite for Na were used as standards (ESM 2a). Carbonates were measured for major and minor elements including Ca, Fe, Mg, Mn and Sr using a beam diameter of 10 µm, a current of 20 nA and an accelerating voltage at 15 kV. Cathodoluminescence imaging was performed at 15 kV and 20 nA with a CAMECA cathodoluminoscope. The CL was recorded as grey-scale images to document textures and zonation in scheelite.

# Laser Ablation-Inductively Coupled Plasma-Mass Spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS)

We conducted 146 analyses, including 125 lines and 35 spots, and 7 maps from 24 deposits (ESM 2d) by LA-ICP-MS at LabMaTer, Université du Québec à Chicoutimi (UQAC) using a RESOlution M-50 Excimer 193 nm laser coupled to an Agilent 7700x ICP-MS with a frequency of 10 Hz and a power of 5.4 mJ.cm<sup>-2</sup>. The beam size was set at 44 µm for lines and spots and 33 µm for maps. Line analyses are preferred to spots for large grains. The background was counted for 30 s and the acquisition time was 60 s. Scan speed was fixed at 20 mm/s for the large grains, spots and maps and 10 mm/s for grains less than ca. 300 µm wide. The reference material NIST-610, NIST-612, GSD-1g-A, GSE-1g-A (Jochum et al. 2005) and Gprobe6-A were used for calibration. NIST-610, GSD-1g-A and Gprobe6-A were analysed before and after a run. NIST-612 and GSD-1g-A were measured every hour during analytical sessions. Details for external standards are provided in ESM 2c. Calcium<sup>44</sup> was used as the internal standard and fixed at 13.90 wt. %, based on the average EPMA composition. Data were reduced using the Iolite software. Detection limits (DL) are summarized in ESM 2c.

Electron Probe Micro-Analysis and LA-ICP-MS analyses give the chemical composition at two different scales and are therefore complementary (10 µm beam size for EPMA versus about 1000x40 µm for LA-ICP-MS line analysis). Ablation lines allow to document zonation and are more representative of the bulk composition of the grain, whereas EPMA analyses provide spatially resolved chemical composition. Comparison between EPMA and LA-ICP-MS data (ESM 3a) shows a good correlation between the two instruments, except close to the detection limit. Scheelite does not contain inclusions at the microscope scale, however, peaks in Fe-Mg-Si correlated with a sharp decrease in W and Ca in the LA-ICP-MS spectra, and shows that scheelite contain locally Fe-Mg-Si-rich sub-microscopic inclusions that were excluded in data reduction.

#### Statistical analysis

Data were investigated using both basic and multivariate statistics such as Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Partial Least Square-Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA). Electron probe microanalysis and LA-ICP-MS datasets are typically censored because they contain non-detects that are below the detection limit (Helsel 2005). Censored compositional data were imputed using the k-nearest neighbor function with the Aitchison distance (robCompositions package in R; Hron et al. 2010; Makvandi et al. 2016b). Geochemical data, summed to 100%, can lead to spurious correlations, inherent to all compositional datasets (Aitchison 1986; Whitten 1995). Data were transformed using centered-log ratio (clr; Thió-Henestrosa and Martín-Fernández 2005) that is a suitable method for multivariate statistical analysis (Aitchison 1986; Egozcue et al. 2003; Makvandi et al. 2016b)

Silica, Cr, Sn and Ag were excluded from the PCA and PLS-DA because more than 40 % of the data are below detection limit (DL). Both methods plot highly positively correlated variables together in same quarter in the principal components diagram, whereas, inversely correlated variables plot in opposite quarters. PCA is a non-supervised statistical method that captures the maximum variance among the data set, whereas PLS-DA is a supervised statistical method of classification that uses labeled data (de Iorio et al. 2007). In PLS-DA, a series of orthogonal components relate to the X (N × K) and Y (N × M) matrices by maximizing the covariance between the two. Loadings biplots (qw\*1-qw\*2) indicate the correlation among different elements, and the relationship between the variables and different sample classes (e.g., host rock composition). The loading values show the impact of elements on the model, and the sign of the value indicates the positive or negative correlation between the elements. As a result, elements that plot in the vicinity of each other in the PLS-DA loadings space show strong positive correlation, and they are inversely correlated to those in an opposite quadrant. The correlation among variables and sample classes control the distribution of samples in the score scatter plot (t<sub>1</sub>-t<sub>2</sub>). The origin of score scatter plots represents the mean composition of the whole dataset (Makvandi et al. 2016b). The Variable Importance on Projection (VIP) plots are used to indicate the impact of different variables on the sample classification, where VIP values equal and/or larger than 1 are the most important in the classification (Eriksson et al. 2001).

#### Results

# Cathodoluminescence and trace elements variation

Scheelite from orogenic gold deposits commonly exhibits homogeneous cathodoluminescence (Fig. 2a), with brighter local patches in rare samples, whereas, sub-grains can be distinguished within a larger grain (Fig. 2b). Scheelite from the Macraes

deposit consists of at least two generations: (1) a first generation that forms most of the grain, (2) younger veinlets with darker CL that cut the first scheelite (Fig. 3b). The two generations of scheelite from the Macraes deposit differ in the trace element composition (Fig. 3). The early, bright CL scheelite, has high Sr, Na, Mg, Mn, Th and U, and low REE and Y contents (Fig. 3b). The second generation of vein and breccia scheelite is darker in CL and associated with low Sr, Na, Mg, Mn, Th, and U and high REE and Y contents (Fig. 3b). Dark CL breccia cuts the edge of scheelite grains from Macraes, Crusader (Fig. 2f) and Mount Pleasant (Fig. 2e). Scheelite veinlets cut older scheelite at the Tarmoola deposit (Fig. 2d). Growth zoning in scheelite at Kochkar (Fig. 2g) and Kumtor, where oscillatory zoning is associated with large variations in Sr, Pb, Y, Th and U contents and small variations in As, Na and V. However, the small grain size (ca. 450 µm) and the narrow zones (20 to 150 µm) compared to the laser beam diameter (44 µm) complicate the trace element quantification of each zone. Scheelite from the Crusader and Essakane deposits show both sector and oscillatory zoning under CL (Fig. 2i). The oscillatory zoning in Crusader shows a dark zone with high contents in Na, V, As, Nb, REE and Y, and a low Mo, whereas, bright zones have low Na, V, As, Nb, REE and Y and high Mo contents (ESM 3d). Laser ablation-ICP-MS maps of grains with homogeneous CL show little-to-no variation in trace element compositions (Fig. 4).

#### **Trace element composition**

Strontium, Si, S and Y have median concentrations over 100 ppm, whereas, Na, Ce, Nd, Dy, Fe, Eu, Gd, Pb, Er, Sm and Yb have median concentration over 10 ppm (ESM 3b). Lanthanum, K, As, Mg, Pr, Ho, Mn, Tb, Cr, Mo, Tm, Nb, Lu and B have median concentration between 1 and 10 ppm. Zinc, Ba, Li, Cu, Ti, V, Sn, U, Th, Ta, Ag and Co have median concentrations between 1 and 0.01 ppm. More than 40% of Si, Cr, Sn, Cr and Ag analyses are below detection.

#### Rare earth elements and yttrium

Rare Earth Element (REE) patterns for each deposit are shown in ESM 3e and f. Rare earth elements display five patterns with a scheelite/chondrite ratio from 0.2 to 4000, but most are near 100 (Fig. 5): 1) a bell-shaped pattern with a positive (Fig. 5a) or 2) a negative Eu anomaly (Fig. 5c); 3) a flat pattern with a positive Eu anomaly (Fig. 5b); 4) a LREE enriched pattern with small positive to no Eu anomaly (Fig. 5d) and 5) a HREE enriched pattern with positive to no Eu anomaly (Fig. 5e). Rare earth elements normalized to the North American Shale Composite (NASC; Fig. 5; Gromet et al. 1984) show a ratio varying from 1 to 100 order of magnitude. Few analyses show a weak depletion in Middle REE (MREE) that are marginally distinct from the flat pattern and, are here included with the flat pattern group in this description (ESM 3e). Most scheelite grains show a single REE pattern (ESM 3e and f). The bell-shaped and flat patterns represents, 33 % and 40 % of the analyses, respectively. Scheelite from Paddington, Tarmoola, Norseman, Mt. Charlotte and Macraes, displays

both bell-shaped and flat patterns with positive Eu anomalies (ESM 3e and f). In the Macraes deposit, early scheelite has a flat pattern, whereas, the later breccia scheelite shows a bell-shaped pattern, both with a positive Eu anomaly (Fig. 3c). Scheelite from deposits hosted in low metamorphic facies rocks commonly present positive Eu anomalies (Essakane, Paddington, Macraes; ESM 3e and f). Several deposits hosted in moderate to high metamorphic grade rocks show strong variations of Eu anomalies, such as Tarmoola, Norseman, Mt. Charlotte (ESM 3f).

The LREE-enriched pattern is found in scheelite from the Young Davidson, Kochkar and Kumtor deposits (Fig. 5; ESM 3e). Kochkar scheelite is associated with calcite and has a lower REE content than scheelite in samples free of carbonates (ESM 3c and e). However, both have similar LREE-enriched pattern (ESM 3e). Scheelite from Young Davidson and Canadian Malartic have a LREE-enriched pattern in addition to the more common bell-shaped pattern (ESM 3e). The LREE-enriched pattern has a shape similar to that of NASC (Fig. 5d). Scheelite from the Crusader deposit and the Type-II scheelite at Hutti (Hazarika et al. 2016) have HREE-enriched patterns (Fig. 5e; ESM 3e). The REE pattern of scheelite from the Crusader deposit is similar in both CL zones (ESM 3d). Scheelite from Nevoria exhibits a REE pattern different from that of other orogenic gold deposits, with a flat REE pattern and a scheelite/chondrite ratio of about 10 and no Eu anomaly (Fig. 5f).

Binary plots of  $(La/Sm)_{CN}$  vs.  $(Gd/Yb)_{CN}$  allows easy comparison of LREE- and HREE-enrichment patterns (Fig. 6a). Scheelite from orogenic gold deposits plots along a line with a negative slope in that diagram. Scheelite with bell-shaped REE patterns and negative Eu anomaly have low  $(La/Sm)_{CN}$  (median 0.03) and high  $(Gd/Yb)_{CN}$  (median 10). Scheelite with bell-shaped REE patterns with a positive Eu anomaly have intermediate  $(La/Sm)_{CN}$  (median 0.2) and high  $(Gd/Yb)_{CN}$  ( $\sim 5$ ). Scheelite with a flat REE pattern has  $(La/Sm)_{CN}$  and  $(Gd/Yb)_{CN}$  ratios near 1 (median 0.9 and 1, respectively). Scheelite with HREE-enriched patterns has low  $(La/Sm)_{CN}$  (median 0.12) and  $(Gd/Yb)_{CN}$  (median 1.6), whereas, scheelite with LREE-enriched patterns has high  $(La/Sm)_{CN}$  (median 1) and  $(Gd/Yb)_{CN}$  (median 10; Fig. 6a). REE patterns with a negative Eu anomaly are characterized by high Na content (median 156 ppm; Fig. 7b).

Yttrium concentration ranges from 2.14 to 1680 ppm. Yttrium displays a correlation with the REE (Fig. 7h). Scheelite from deposits formed during the Archean, Proterozoic and Phanerozoic have comparable  $\Sigma$ REE and Y contents (Fig. 7h). Scheelite from deposits hosted in felsic to intermediate rocks have high  $\Sigma$ REE (median 645 ppm and 1164 ppm, respectively) and Y contents (median 348 ppm and 605 ppm, respectively), whereas, scheelite from deposits hosted in sedimentary rocks have lower  $\Sigma$ REE (median 195 ppm) and Y contents (median 113 ppm). Scheelite from deposits hosted in mafic to ultramafic rocks overlap the scheelite composition from deposits hosted in felsic to intermediate rocks, and in sedimentary rocks ( $\Sigma$ REE: 5-3900 ppm and Y: 5-1700 ppm; Fig. 7h). The Eu anomaly is typically negative or close to zero for scheelite hosted in felsic to intermediate composition rocks (Fig. 7b). Scheelite from deposits in low and moderate metamorphic grade rocks have

higher  $\sum$ REE (median 334 ppm and 632 ppm, respectively) and Y (median 145 ppm and 253 ppm, respectively) contents compared to scheelite from deposits in high metamorphic grade rocks (median  $\sum$ REE 101 ppm and Y 37 ppm; Fig. 7h).

#### Strontium and lead

Strontium in scheelite from orogenic gold deposits ranges from 83 to 7300 ppm, with a mean of 1244 ppm and a median of 653 ppm (Fig. 8a). The EPMA concentrations for Sr are commonly lower than the LA-ICP-MS values when approaching the EPMA detection limit (ESM 3a). Scheelite from Phanerozoic sedimentary host rocks has higher Sr concentrations (median 3160 ppm) than those from Proterozoic and Archean host rocks (median 2478 ppm and 576 ppm respectively; Fig. 7d and e). Scheelite from deposits hosted in sedimentary and felsic rocks has high Sr contents (median 2890 ppm and 811 ppm, respectively) compared to deposits hosted in mafic and ultramafic rocks (median 548 ppm). Scheelite hosted in low and moderate metamorphic grade rocks have Sr contents (median 661 ppm and 1278 ppm, respectively), higher than those hosted in higher metamorphic grade rocks (median 442 ppm; Fig. 7d). Scheelite from Crusader has low Sr concentrations compared to scheelite from the other deposits studied (median 121 ppm). Strontium and Pb data show a positive correlation (Fig. 7f), such that scheelite Pb composition similarly varies with the metamorphic grade of the host rocks, except for Macraes deposit which has low Pb concentrations (median 6 ppm) compared to other low metamorphic grade sedimentary rock hosted deposits (median 28 ppm). The binary diagram  $\sum REE+Y$  vs. Sr (Fig. 7d) allows the discrimination of scheelite from low and moderate metamorphic facies host rocks, which typically have higher  $\sum REE+Y$  and Sr contents, than scheelite hosted in high metamorphic grade rocks.

#### Molybdenum

Molybdenum concentrations in scheelite from orogenic gold deposits does not vary significantly in terms of host rock composition, metamorphic grade and age of mineralization. High Mo scheelite from Crusader and Nevoria display a yellow colour under UVC light (median 6.3 wt % and 1.3 wt % Mo, respectively; Fig. 8b). Scheelite from the Canadian Malartic, Kochkar and Kumtor deposits has a relatively high Mo content and are more whitish under UVC light, (median 1395 ppm; 383 ppm and 203 ppm, respectively, ESM 2b and d).

#### **Sodium**

Sodium concentrations by EPMA and LA-ICP-MS covary moderately ( $R^2$ =0.37; ESM 3a). EPMA data for Na are commonly higher than LA-ICP-MS data (Fig. 8) perhaps due to sample heterogeneity at the scale of the laser beam spot, as reference material monitoring is good and Na varies in zoned scheelite. Sodium concentration by LA-ICP-MS is highly variable in scheelite from Kochkar (x=133 ± 256 ppm; n=19) and in scheelite from Beaufor (x=183 ± 94 ppm; n=23).

Sodium shows a positive correlation with  $\sum$ REE+Y (Fig. 7a), and a negative correlation with the Eu anomaly (Fig. 7b). The Na content is higher in scheelite from deposits hosted in felsic to intermediate rocks (median 120 ppm and 194 ppm, respectively), and lower in deposits hosted in sedimentary rocks (median 53 ppm). Sodium in scheelite from deposits hosted in mafic to ultramafic rocks plots across the range of Na values (4-379 ppm; Fig. 7e).

#### Vanadium, niobium, tantalum and arsenic

Vanadium, Nb, Ta and As have low concentration in scheelite from orogenic gold deposits with medians of 0.42 ppm, 8.41 ppm, 0.13 ppm and 11 ppm, respectively. At Crusader, V, Nb, Ta and As are higher in concentration in the dark CL zone compared to the lighter CL zone (ESM 3d). Niobium and Ta show a positive correlation in all deposits (Fig. 7c). Niobium+Ta+V contents display a positive covariation with REE+Y, forming two broad sub-parallel arrays, with an array for deposits hosted in low and moderate metamorphic facies rocks at lower Na+Ta+V values compared to deposits hosted in high metamorphic facies rocks. In the binary diagram (Sr+Na) / (Sr+Na+10x(Nb+Ta+V+As)) vs. ((REE+Y)+10x(Nb+Ta+V+As)) / (Sr+(REE+Y)+10x(Nb+Ta+V+As)), scheelite from deposits hosted in low to moderate metamorphic facies rocks plots along a vertical trend at (Sr+Na)/(Sr+Na+10x(Nb+Ta+V+As)) ~ 1 (Fig. 9a). Scheelite from deposits hosted in rocks at high metamorphic grade plot typically along a curve from upper left to lower right corners of the diagram (Fig. 9a).

#### Magnesium, manganese and iron

Correlated peaks in Mg, Mn and Fe, that do not show peaks in Si and S, in LA-ICP-MS spectra indicate submicroscopic inclusions, perhaps oxides. Other inclusions contain Si or S suggesting silicates and sulfides. In scheelite, Mg and Fe are highly correlated ( $r^2$ = 1), whereas, Mn shows wide covariation with Mg or Fe. Scheelite from deposits hosted in clastic sedimentary rocks has higher Fe and Mg concentrations ( $\sim$  29 ppm and  $\sim$  14.8 ppm, respectively) than scheelite from deposits hosted felsic to intermediate rocks (median Fe 23 ppm and 22 ppm, respectively; median Mg 5 ppm and 8 ppm). Iron, Mg and Mn contents are not distinctive for deposits hosted in mafic to ultramafic rocks. The ternary Fe-Mn-Mg diagram (Fig. 9b) shows that scheelite from deposits hosted in low to moderate metamorphic facies rocks have higher Mg, Fe and Mn contents (median Mg 6.5 ppm and 8.6 ppm, respectively; median Fe 27.7 ppm and 26.4 ppm, respectively; median Mn 2.9 ppm and 3.4 ppm, respectively), compared to scheelite in deposits hosted in high metamorphic facies rocks (5.4 ppm,  $\sim$  22 ppm and 9 ppm, respectively; Fig. 9b). A similar distribution of Fe-Mn-Mg is found for carbonates associated with scheelite, with the exception of the high metamorphic facies Transvaal deposit, which has low Mn and high Mg (Fig. 9c).

#### **Uranium and thorium**

Scheelite from deposits hosted in Proterozoic and Phanerozoic rocks have higher Th (median 0.94 ppm and 0.85 ppm, respectively) and U (median 4.87 ppm and 1.21 ppm, respectively) concentrations compared to scheelite from deposits hosted in Archean rocks (median Th 0.02 ppm and U 0.02 ppm; Fig. 7i). Thorium and U contents are higher in scheelite from deposits hosted in sedimentary rocks (median 0.88 ppm and 1.8 ppm, respectively), and lower in scheelite from deposits hosted in intermediate plutonic rocks (median 0.01 ppm and 0.01 ppm, respectively). Scheelite from Kochkar has the highest concentrations in Th and U (median 0.98 ppm and 0.6 ppm, respectively). Scheelite from deposits hosted in mafic to ultramafic rocks have Th and U concentrations similar to values for the other deposits (0-1.50 ppm and 0-8.90 ppm, respectively). There is no systematic change in U and Th contents with increasing metamorphic grade of host rocks.

#### Multivariate statistics of scheelite trace element composition

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Principal Component Analysis and PLS-DA of scheelite LA-ICP-MS data (Na, Mg, S, Ti, V, Mn, Fe, Co, As, Sr, Y, Nb, Mo, Ba, SREE, Eu anomaly (Eu\*), Ta, Pb, Th and U) for orogenic gold deposits are used to investigate the relations between composition and age of mineralization, host rock composition, and metamorphic facies of the host rocks (Fig. 10 and ESM 3g). Scheelite from Nevoria has controversial affinity and a trace element composition different to that from the other orogenic gold deposits. For this reason, scheelite from Nevoria is not included from the PLS-DA (Fig. 10). The REE suite has been reduced to SREE to facilitate the discussion and emphasize other trace element variations without changing the PCA and PLS-DA results significantly. Data from the Crusader deposit were excluded from both analyses because of its controversial origin, and because it has distinct geochemical features compared to the other orogenic gold deposits. The principal components PC1, PC2 and PC3 represent 20.4 %, 14.1 % and 10.2 %, respectively, of the total variance of the dataset (ESM 3g). PC1 is defined by positive contributions of Nb,  $\Sigma$ REE, Y, As, Ta, V and Na (loading > 0.2) and negative contributions of Eu\*, Sr, U, Th, Fe, Mg and Ba (loading < -0.2), in decreasing order of importance. PC2 is defined by positive contributions of K, Na, Cu, Zn, Pb, ∑REE, B and Y (loading > 0.2) and negative contributions of Th, U and As (loading < -0.2). PC3 is defined by positive contributions of Mn, Eu\*, S, K, Ta and Zn (loading > 0.2) and negative contributions of ∑REE, Mg, Ti, Co, Y and Na (loading < -0.2). In PC1-PC2 and PC1-PC3 spaces (ESM 3g), scheelite from deposits formed during the Proterozoic and Phanerozoic, with the exception of Meliadine (Canada), forms two groups, both with negative PC1 scores. Scheelite from Proterozoic deposits has PC2 and PC3 scores close to 0, whereas, those from Phanerozoic deposits has negative PC2 and PC3 scores. In PC2-PC3 space (ESM 3g), scheelite from Meliadine plots with the Proterozoic deposits, forming a steep array. Scheelite from Archean deposits overlap with that from Proterozoic and Phanerozoic deposits in PC1-PC2, PC1-PC3 and PC2-PC3 spaces (ESM 3g). PLS-DA classifies scheelite by age of mineralization (Fig. 10a and b). Archean deposits

are characterized by positive  $t_1$  (positive contributions of Cu, Y, Na and  $\sum$ REE) and Proterozoic deposits by negative  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  values (negative contributions of Pb, Zn, Eu\*, U), whereas, Phanerozoic deposits have negative  $t_1$  and positive  $t_2$  values (positive contributions of Ba, Mo, As, Mg).

Scheelite from deposits hosted in sedimentary rocks have negative PC1 scores, and PC2 and PC3 scores near 0 (ESM 3g). Scheelite from deposits hosted in felsic to intermediate rocks, with the exception of Kochkar, have positive PC1, positive PC2, and slightly negative PC3 scores. Scheelite from deposits hosted in felsic to intermediate rocks, with the exception of Kochkar, form an array distinct from that of scheelite from deposits hosted in sedimentary rocks in PC1-PC2 and PC1-PC3 (ESM 3g). Scheelite from deposits hosted in mafic to ultramafic rocks overlap with that from deposits hosted in sedimentary and felsic to intermediate rocks in PC1-PC2, PC1-PC3 and PC2-PC3 spaces (ESM 3g). PLS-DA yields marginally improved classification of orogenic gold deposit scheelite according to the composition of the host rocks (Fig. 10c and d). Deposits hosted by ultramafic and mafic rocks overlap slightly with deposits hosted in intermediate rocks and mainly with deposits hosted in sedimentary rocks. Deposits hosted by ultramafic and mafic rocks have low t<sub>2</sub> values, defined by Zn, K, S, Eu\*, Fe, B and Cu, whereas, deposits hosted by felsic and sedimentary rocks with positive t<sub>1</sub> values (Mo, Th, V, As; Fig. 10d). Deposits hosted by rocks of intermediate compositions are well classified with negative t<sub>1</sub> values defined by Cu, Y, Na,  $\sum$ REE and Mo (Fig. 10c and d).

Scheelite from deposits hosted in low and moderate metamorphic grades rocks have positive to negative PC1, mostly positive PC2, and negative PC3 scores. Scheelite from deposits hosted in high grade metamorphic rocks have positive to negative PC1, mostly negative PC2, and positive PC3 scores. Thus, scheelite from deposits hosted in low and moderate metamorphic grades rocks form a group that partly overlaps with scheelite from deposits in high grade metamorphic rocks in PC2-PC3 space (ESM 3g). Classification of scheelite according to the metamorphic grade of the host rocks by PLS-DA yields well separated deposits hosted by high grade metamorphic rocks with positive t<sub>1</sub> values defined by Mn, As, Nb and Ta (Fig. 10e and f). Deposits in low grade metamorphic rocks have negative t<sub>1</sub> and t<sub>2</sub> values (Eu\*, U, S, Th), whereas, deposits hosted in intermediate grade metamorphic rocks with low t<sub>1</sub> values are not classified by t<sub>2</sub>, overlapping with deposits hosted in low grade metamorphic rocks with negative t<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 10e and f).

#### 355 **Discussion**

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#### Trace element substitution

- Cation substitution in scheelite has been discussed for minor elements (Nassau 1963; Nassau and Loiacono 1963; Cottrant 1981; Burt 1989; Raimbault et al. 1993; Brugger et al. 2002; Brugger et al. 2008). Brugger et al. (2008) developed a formal thermodynamic analysis of the controls on Eu<sup>2+</sup>/Eu<sup>3+</sup> uptake by hydrothermal scheelite. Rare Earth Elements are common in concentrations between 10-5000 ppm in scheelite (Uspensky et al. 1998) and substitute in the Ca site (Raimbault et al. 1993):
- $362 3Ca^{2+} = 2REE^{3+} + \Box Ca$  (Eq. 1)
- The substitution can also be coupled either with Na or Nb to balance the charges (Nassau 1963; Burt 1989; Brugger et al. 2002):
- 365  $2Ca^{2+} = (REE, Y)^{3+} + Na^{+}$  (Eq. 2)
- The correlation between ∑REE+Y and Na (Fig. 7a) is indicative of the coupled substitution mentioned in Eq. 2

  (Nassau 1963; Nassau and Loiacono 1963; Cottrant 1981; Burt 1989; Raimbault et al. 1993; Brugger et al. 2002). The coupled substitution from Eq. 2 is considered a major substitution in scheelite (Nassau and Loiacono 1963; Cottrant 1981; Burt 1989; Raimbault et al. 1993; Brugger et al. 2002).
- Octohedral 6-coordinated Ta (V) and V (V) have similar radius (Ta: 78 pm, V: 68 pm) to Nb (78 pm). This, combined with the positive correlation between ∑REE+Y and Nb+Ta+V (Fig. 7g) and Eq. 2, suggest that Ta and V may substitute for W in the following coupled substitution such as:
- 373  $Ca^{2+} + W^{6+} = REE^{3+} + (Nb, Ta, V)^{5+}$  (Eq. 3)
- The ionic radius of some elements, such as Fe (II, 106 pm), Pb (II, 143 pm) and Mn (II, 110 pm) differ by less than
  15 %, in 8-coordination, with that of ionic radius of Ca (II) of 126 pm. This suggests that the following substitutions are
  permissive:
- 377  $Ca^{2+} \leftrightarrow Eu^{2+}, Sr^{2+}, Fe^{2+}, Pb^{2+} \text{ or } Mn^{2+}$  (Eq. 4)
- In contrast Ba (II, 156 pm) and Mg (II, 103 pm) have more than 15 % difference with Ca<sup>2+</sup> 8-coordination ionic radius, which perhaps explains the low Ba content in scheelite.

The trace element composition of scheelite depends on several factors including the hydrothermal fluid composition, host rock composition, temperature, pressure, pH and Eh, as well as, the partition coefficients between fluid, scheelite, and co-precipitating minerals. The auriferous hydrothermal fluids forming orogenic gold deposits are mixed aqueous-carbonic fluid with a low salinity with a low variance in composition (Goldfarb et al. 2005). Garofalo et al. (2014) showed that the fluids contain Na, subordinate K and B, and minor amounts of trace elements including Cu, As, Li, Sr, Rb, Ba, Cs, Sb and Au. Calcium is absent on this list, consistent with fluid inclusion data as reviewed in Goldfarb et al. (2005), and despite common formation of calcium carbonates (calcite, ankerite) and tungstate (scheelite) in the veins. The low variance in hydrothermal orogenic gold deposit fluid compositions is in contrast to the variations measured in the trace element composition of scheelite, which varies with the metamorphic facies and the host rock composition (Fig. 7, 9 and 10).

Manganese concentration in scheelite is lower in low to moderate grade metamorphic rocks, whereas it is higher in deposits hosted in high grade metamorphic rocks (Fig. 9b, 10e). A similar trend is observed for Mn concentrations in carbonates: low to moderate Mn concentration is characteristic for deposits in low and moderate grade metamorphic rocks, whereas moderate to high Mn concentrations are typical for deposits hosted in high grade metamorphic rocks, with the exception of Transvaal (Fig. 9c; ESM 3c). An experimental study of phase transitions of Ca-Mn carbonates by Shi et al. (2012) shows an increase in concentration of MnCO<sub>3</sub> in carbonates with increased pressure, which is consistent with the Mnrich carbonates in deposits hosted by high grade metamorphic rocks (Fig. 9c). We suggest that the increased Mn contents in scheelite hosted in high grade metamorphic rocks, similarly, may be pressure-related.

#### Age and host rock composition

The progressive increase of Sr concentration in scheelite from deposits formed during the Archean to the Phanerozoic (Fig. 7d and e) mimics the enrichment in Sr in shales during the Earth cratonization (Condie 1993). Thus, it is likely that the Sr content in scheelite is largely inherited from Sr concentrations in the host rocks. This result corroborates with those of Brugger et al. (2002) who showed that Sr in scheelite from the Mt. Charlotte orogenic gold deposit is partly derived from the felsic units in the host rocks. Brugger et al. (2002) also suggested that Mt. Charlotte scheelite Nd and Pb were derived either locally or regionally from the greenstone belt host rocks. Scheelite from deposits hosted in sedimentary rocks commonly has high concentrations in Pb, U and Th, also shown by Scanlan et al. (2018), compared to scheelite from deposits hosted in other rock types (Fig. 7f and i). Shales commonly have high Pb, U and Th compared to other rock types (Condie 1993), which suggests that a Pb, U and Th signature in scheelite is also inherited from the sedimentary host rocks. This corroborates the results of Mortensen et al. (2010) who showed the Pb isotope compositions of sulfides are similar to those from the sedimentary rocks that host the gold mineralization in the Otago Schist (New Zealand). Scheelite from deposits hosted in

sedimentary and felsic to intermediate rocks, with the exception of Kochkar, plot as two groups in PC1-PC2 and PC1-PC3 spaces (ESM 3g), and in t<sub>1</sub>-t<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 10d), indicating that the host rock compositions exert a control on the fluid trace element composition, likely as a result of the reaction and exchange between hydrothermal fluids and host rocks, a well-documented process (Ridley and Diamond 2000; Goldfarb et al. 2005; Goldfarb and Groves 2015). Overlap of scheelite compositions, classified by host rock types (Fig. 10d), likely reflects the complex lithological packages hosting the deposits, compared to the simplified lithological classification used in our PLS-DA. For example, the Cuiaba deposit is attributed to the mafic volcanic host rock class because this is the dominant lithology, but the lithological package also comprises Fe-carbonate facies BIF, perhaps explaining the PC1-PC2 scores overlapping the sedimentary and mafic volcanic class fields (ESM 3g). The Meliadine deposit represents an interesting case documenting the influence of the host rock composition on the geochemistry of scheelite. Meliadine is hosted by Archean rocks, but mineralization is Proterozoic in age (Lawley et al. 2015). This could explain why Meliadine scheelite plots with Archean deposits in PC1-PC2 space (ESM 3g) and when projected on t<sub>1</sub>-t<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 10b), thus suggesting that the composition is determined, at least in part, by secular change in composition of the cratonic host rocks.

Chemical elements that are important in classification of orogenic gold deposits by dominant host rock lithology likely were leached by hydrothermal fluids from the regional country rocks. These elements (Fig. 10) are Sr, Ba Th, U in sedimentary rock-hosted, Mo in felsic rock-hosted, Cu, Na, ∑REE, Y in intermediate rock-hosted, and Eu\*, Fe, K, S, Zn in mafic rock-hosted deposits, whereas ultramafic-rock hosted deposits plot near the origin of the loadings biplot indicating lesser quality classification (Fig. 10c). In contrast, some elements (Co, Mg, Pb, Ti) consistently have low VIP values in classifying orogenic gold deposits with respect to the dominant host rock lithology. Some of these elements (Co, Ti) have a low solubility in hydrothermal fluids and their concentrations could be less modified by exchange with the country rocks, but this is not the case for Mg and Pb, as shown by the variation in Pb isotope composition in scheelite (Brugger et al. 2002).

#### **REE** patterns

A comparison of scheelite REE patterns with those of the host rocks from the deposits (ESM 3e and f) shows no systematic trend. This is in agreement with Brugger et al. (2000b) and Brugger et al. (2002) who showed that scheelite exerts a strong crystallographic control on the REE incorporation. Brugger et al. (2008) advocated closed-system crystallization of scheelite to explain the change in REE patterns at Mt. Charlotte. The various REE patterns in orogenic gold deposits are not commonly found in the same grains, such that a closed-system process is not applicable to most scheelite from orogenic gold deposits. Scheelite has REE patterns similar to those of the country rocks at Kochkar, Kumtor, Hollinger and Mt. Charlotte (Kerrich

and Fryer 1978; Condie 1993; Kolb et al. 2005; Mueller 2015), which may indicate a local source for the REE, or that the host rocks are equivalents of the source rocks, but just at different crustal depths. In other deposits (Meliadine, Sigma, Lamaque, Young Davidson, and Crusader), scheelite REE patterns differ from those of host rocks, perhaps indicating that the REE signature was not acquired by simple exchange with local country rocks for which the REE patterns are known. The various REE patterns in scheelite do not correlate with the metamorphic grade of the host rocks, consistent with lack of change of REE patterns of rocks during prograde metamorphism (Spandler et al. 2003). The range of REE patterns in scheelite suggests that REE fluid-scheelite partitioning is not the dominant process controlling scheelite composition, but, instead, that the REE patterns are controlled by the composition of hydrothermal fluids (Sylvester and Ghaderi 1997; Ghaderi et al. 1999; Brugger et al. 2000b; Dostal et al. 2009; Peng et al. 2010; Song et al. 2014) and, perhaps, the partition coefficient of coprecipitating minerals, although we do not have adequate data to discuss this hypothesis. For instance, Song et al. (2014) and Zhao et al. (2018) assumed, based on the HREE enriched patterns in garnet and amphibole, that the LREE enriched patterns in skarn scheelite resulted from crystallization garnet and amphibole, which left the residual fluid depleted in HREE. Similarly, Cave et al. (2016) suggested that early crystallization of epidote, titanite and apatite, which have LREE enriched patterns, may be responsible for the HREE enriched patterns in syn-metamorphic scheelite from the orogenic gold deposits of the Otago Schist (New Zealand). The fact that the gold-bearing hydrothermal fluids display limited compositional variation between orogenic gold provinces (Goldfarb et al. 2005), suggests that the variation in REE patterns in scheelite reflects the sources of hydrothermal fluids with some modifications by reaction with the deposit country rocks.

The flat and bell-shaped patterns have previously recognized at Drysdale, Mt. Charlotte (Brugger et al. 2000a; Brugger et al. 2000b), Björkdal (Roberts et al. 2006), and the Kambalda and Norseman districts (Ghaderi et al. 1999). Both patterns are found in several additional orogenic gold deposits, which suggests similar fluid sources or similar fluid compositions (ESM 3e and f). Several studies showed that scheelite from orogenic-gold deposits can exhibit two REE patterns in one grain, more commonly evolving from a bell-shaped pattern to a flat and MREE-depleted pattern, with positive Eu anomalies (Sylvester and Ghaderi, 1997; Ghaderi et al., 1999; Brugger et al., 2000). Brugger et al. (2000a; 2002) showed that subtle CL zoning in Mt. Charlotte scheelite correlates with a change from a bell-shaped to a flat REE pattern and interpreted that change as varying amounts of REE fractionated by scheelite crystallisation in closed system reflecting the dynamics of the hydrothermal system. A change in REE patterns from flat to bell-shaped, associated with CL zoning, is also documented at Macraes and Mt Pleasant (Fig. 2e and 3). The flat and bell-shaped REE patterns are commonly found in the same deposit or in the same scheelite grain (Fig. 5 and ESM 3e and f). At Macraes, the flat pattern predates the bell-shaped pattern, which

suggests a change in fluid composition between the two scheelite stages (Dostal et al. 2009; Ghaderi et al. 1999; Brugger et al. 2000b).

Scheelite in the Kochkar, Kumtor and Muruntau (first generation scheelite, Kempe et al. 2001) orogenic gold deposits have LREE-enriched patterns, and yet are hosted in different rock types in different tectonic terranes (Mao et al. 2004; Kolb et al. 2005). The scheelite REE patterns from each of these deposit share similarities with the REE pattern of their respective host rock (ESM 3e and f; Kempe et al. 2001). The Kumtor scheelite REE pattern, hosted in carbonaceaous phyllite and diamictite (Mao et al. 2004) is similar to those of Phanerozoic shales (ESM 3e; Condie 1993). Based on Sr, Sm and Nd isotope compositions at Muruntau, Kempe et al. (2001) concluded that the most probable source of Sr and Nd in both generations of scheelite (LREE-enriched and bell-shaped patterns) was from the metasedimentary host rocks through intensive fluid-rock exchange.

The Crusader and Hutti deposits have HREE-enriched patterns (Fig. 5e) similar to that of syn-metamorphic scheelite from the Otago schist (Type-A scheelite; Cave et al. 2016). The positive-slope REE pattern at Hutti (Type II in stage 2 scheelite) has been interpreted to be derived from a different hydrothermal event, at a different temperature and pressure, than scheelite with the bell-shape pattern (Hazarika et al. 2016). Cave et al. (2016) explained the Otago schists scheelite HREE-enriched patterns by partitioning of LREE in the co-precipitating Ca-rich silicates.

### Eu anomaly

The incorporation of REE<sup>3+</sup> in scheelite is controlled by coupled substitutions, whereas Eu<sup>2+</sup> can substitute directly for Ca in scheelite (eq. 4; Nassau 1963; Nassau and Loiacono 1963; Cottrant 1981; Burt 1989; Raimbault et al. 1993; Ghaderi et al. 1999; Brugger et al. 2008). The most important factors controlling the Eu anomaly include: initial Eu<sup>2+</sup>/Eu<sup>3+</sup> ratio in hydrothermal fluid, redox state, temperature, as well as the relative abundance of sites for Eu<sup>2+</sup> and Eu<sup>3+</sup> substitution in the structure of scheelite (Ghaderi et al. 1999). High abundance of Eu<sup>2+</sup> may also derive from feldspar alteration by hydrothermal fluids (Alderton et al. 1980).

Strong positive Eu anomalies are predominantly associated with flat REE patterns that have low  $\sum$ REE content, whereas, weak positive to negative Eu anomalies are characteristic of scheelite with higher  $\sum$ REE content (Fig. 5 and 6b). Similar to Ghaderi et al. (1999), some deposits hosted in greenschist facies rocks display small variations of the magnitude of the positive Eu anomaly associated with a variation in the concentrations of the other REE (e.g. Essakane, Paddington, Macraes; ESM 3e and f). However, some deposits hosted in moderate to high grade metamorphic rocks show large variations of the size of the Eu anomaly associated with small variations of Eu concentrations (e.g. Tarmoola, Marvel Loch, Norseman, Mt. Charlotte; ESM 3f). In the Kalgoorlie-Norseman region, Ghaderi et al. (1999) proposed that at greenschist facies, high

Na activity was caused by buffering of the fluids by mafic rocks, whereas low Na activity is characteristic of high metamorphic grades. However, as shown on Figure 7b, the increase in scheelite Na concentrations correlates with a change from a strong positive to a negative Eu anomaly, but it does not correlate with a change in metamorphic grade. The high Na concentration associated with negative Eu anomaly in scheelite is characteristic of deposits hosted by felsic to intermediate host rocks (Fig. 7b; e.g. Young Davidson, Beaufor, Sigma, Lamaque, Canadian Malartic), which suggests that high Na concentrations in hydrothermal fluids precipitating scheelite may be due to fluid exchange with Eu-poor albite.

Based on the metamorphic grade of host rocks, and estimated P-T conditions of gold mineralization (ESM 1), Eu should occur predominantly in the divalent state (>250°C, Sverjensky 1984;Liu et al. 2017) in deposits hosted in moderate and high grade metamorphic rocks. However, the P-T conditions of hydrothermal fluids from which scheelite crystallized are not well constrained for all the studied deposits. Therefore, Eu<sup>3+</sup> may be dominant in deposits formed at the lower end of temperatures recorded for orogenic gold deposits. In addition, Brugger et al. (2008) showed that the Eu<sup>2+</sup>/Eu<sup>3+</sup> ratio is controlled by pH, whereas, Liu et al. (2017) showed the aqueous species have a significant impact on the oxydation state of Eu in hydrothermal fluids. As mentioned above, various mechanisms such as direct substitution of Eu<sup>2+</sup> for Ca and coupled substitutions of Eu<sup>3+</sup> may also affect Eu<sup>3+</sup>/Eu<sup>2+</sup> ratios in REE patterns of scheelite. In addition to the temperature dependence of Eu<sup>3+</sup>/Eu<sup>2+</sup> ratios (Sverjensky 1984), high Na concentrations associated with variations in the Eu anomaly (Fig. 7b), support the work of Brugger et al. (2008) that suggested the coupled substitution  $2Ca^{2+} = REE^{3+} + Na^+$  plays an important role controlling REE<sup>3+</sup> substitution during scheelite crystallization from hydrothermal fluids.

### Comparison to scheelite from other types of deposits

# Trace element composition

Previous studies show that scheelite from several orogenic gold deposit have similar  $(Gd/Yb)_{CN}$  and  $(La/Sm)_{CN}$  ratios (Fig. 6a) and similar  $\sum$ REE and Eu anomaly (Fig. 6b) to those reported in our study. Scheelite from other gold, porphyry-related, breccia, greisen, skarn and polymetallic vein deposits have similar  $(Gd/Yb)_{CN}$  and  $(La/Sm)_{CN}$  ratios (Fig. 6c) and similar  $\sum$ REE and Eu anomaly (Fig. 6d) compared to scheelite from orogenic gold deposits. Thus, the REE patterns including the  $(Gd/Yb)_{CN}$  and  $(La/Sm)_{CN}$  ratios,  $\sum$ REE and the Eu anomaly do not discriminate orogenic gold deposit scheelite from that from other types of deposits. Scheelite from orogenic gold deposits commonly have high Sr content, high Sr/Mo ratio, large Eu anomaly, and low Mo and As contents compared to scheelite from other deposit types (Fig. 11), such that Sr, Mo, and As, combined with the Eu anomaly are useful to distinguish orogenic gold deposit scheelite from that from other types of mineral deposits.

Strontium, Mo, Y and the REE, with the exception of Lu, are used in PCA and PLS-DA of orogenic gold deposit scheelite against other types of deposits including gold, skarn, porphyry-related, greisen, breccia and polymetallic veins (Fig. 12 and ESM 3h). These elements were selected for the PCA and the PLS-DA, because they are more commonly reported. The PCA yields PC1 with 56.0 %, PC2 with 19.4 % and PC3 with 11.4 % of the total variance (ESM 3h). PC1 is defined by high positive contributions of the HREE including Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er, Tm, Yb and Y, and high negative contributions of the LREE including La, Ce, Pr and Nd. PC2 shows similar variation than PC1 and is defined by high negative contributions of the HREE and Y and high positive contributions of the LREE. PC3 is defined by high positive contributions of Eu and Sr and high negative contribution of Mo. Orogenic gold deposit scheelite has PC1 scores more similar to those from the other deposit types (ESM 3h). Orogenic gold deposit scheelite commonly has positive PC3 scores, whereas scheelite from the other deposit types commonly has negative PC3 scores. Thus, the PC1-PC3 space allows orogenic gold deposit scheelite to be distinguished from scheelite from other deposit types (ESM 3ESM 3h). In the PC1-PC3 space, scheelite from Kochkar, Kumtor, Canadian Malartic and Nevoria forms an intermediate group and overlaps with some greisen, skarn and polymetallic vein scheelite (ESM 3h). Using PLS-DA (Fig. 12), qw\*1 is defined by positive contributions of Mo, La, Ce and Pr, and negative contributions of Y, Sr and Eu, Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er and Tm, whereas qw\*2 is defined by positive contributions of Mo and negative contributions of Sr and Eu. Orogenic gold deposit scheelite has positive Eu and Sr, and negative Mo, contributions. Scheelite from other types of deposits commonly has negative contributions of Eu and Sr, and positive contributions of Mo. The qw\*1qw\*2 loadings display distinct trace element compositions between orogenic gold deposit scheelite and that from the other deposit types, which causes the sharp separation in t<sub>1</sub>-t<sub>2</sub> space (Fig. 12). Strontium, Mo and Eu commonly have VIP greater than 1 for each class (Fig. 12c), which shows that they are the main elements that contribute to deposit type discrimination. On the other hand, REE and Y commonly have VIP lower than 0.8 (Fig. 12c), which shows that they do not contribute significantly to deposit type discrimination. A combination of binary plots (Fig. 11), PCA (ESM 3ESM 3h), and PLS-DA (Fig. 12), thus shows that the main elements that discriminate scheelite from orogenic gold deposits from that from other deposit types are Sr, Mo, As and Eu. PCA and PLS-DA, combined with (Gd/Yb)<sub>CN</sub> vs (La/Sm)<sub>CN</sub> and ∑REE vs Eu\*, show that REE are not discriminant for orogenic gold deposit scheelite compared to that from the other deposit types. We conclude that trace elements Sr, Mo, As, and Eu have high potential to discriminate orogenic gold deposit scheelite from that from other deposit types. Thus, scheelite trace element composition has potential to orient exploration using indicator mineral surveys. However, trace element data other than REE are not well characterized in scheelite from other deposit types, which constrains the number of discriminant elements that can be studied here.

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Nevoria has been ascribed to the orogenic gold deposit type by several authors (Eilu et al. 1999; Goldfarb et al. 2005) but skarn by others (Mueller 1997; Mueller et al. 2004). Scheelite from the Nevoria gold deposit shows a different trace

element composition compared to scheelite from the other orogenic gold deposits including yellowish UVC colour, high Mo concentration (Figs 8 and 11), low Sr/Mo ratio (Fig. 11), and a flat REE pattern without an Eu anomaly (Fig. 5). Scheelite from Nevoria plot within the field associated with the other deposit types in PLS-DA (Fig. 12) and PCA (ESM 3h). This shows that Nevoria's scheelite has a composition with a skarn affinity, consistent with the interpretation of Mueller 1997; Mueller et al. 2004), providing a proof of concept for the scheelite chemical discrimination method.

# **Conclusions**

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Orogenic gold deposit scheelite is typically homogeneous in CL and exhibits a blue colour under short wave UVC light, a characteristic of Mo-poor scheelite. Scheelite exhibits rare sector or oscillatory zoning and breccia texture that indicate precipitation from hydrothermal fluids with different trace element compositions. Rare earth elements display five patterns with a scheelite/chondrite average ratio near 100: a bell-shaped pattern with a i) positive or ii) negative Eu anomaly, iii) a flat pattern with a positive Eu anomaly, and less commonly iv) a LREE-enriched pattern, and v) a HREE-enriched pattern. The variation of REE patterns in scheelite suggests that scheelite-fluid REE fractionation is not the dominant processes controlling scheelite composition, but, instead, that REE patterns are most probably controlled by the source of the hydrothermal fluid. The bell-shaped and flat patterns are found in most of the orogenic gold deposits suggesting fluids with similar chemistry, due to similar sources for the hydrothermal fluids. The Eu anomaly likely reflects the temperature of scheelite crystallization. the substitution mechanism and the Na activity during crystallization. Scheelite from deposits hosted in low and moderate metamorphic facies rocks commonly have high \( \sumes REE+Y \), Sr and Na, and low Mn and Nb+Ta+V contents, whereas scheelite from deposits hosted in high metamorphic facies rocks commonly have low \( \sum REE+Y \), Sr and Na, and high Mn and Nb+Ta+V The binary (Sr+Na)/(Sr+Na+10x(Nb+Ta+V+As))contents. diagram vs. ((REE+Y)+10x(Nb+Ta+V+As))/(Sr+(REE+Y)+10x(Nb+Ta+V+As)) enables scheelite from deposits hosted in low and moderate metamorphic facies to be differentiated from scheelite from deposits hosted in high metamorphic facies rocks. As well, PLS-DA allows scheelite from deposits hosted in low and moderate metamorphic facies rocks to be separated from those from deposits hosted in high metamorphic facies rocks (Fig. 10e and f). Scheelite from deposits hosted in felsic to intermediate rocks commonly have high \( \sum\_{REE} \), Y and Na, and low Pb, Sr, U and Th concentrations, and a negative Eu anomaly, whereas, scheelite from deposits hosted in sedimentary rocks have low SREE, Y and Na, and typically high Pb, Sr, U and Th concentrations. PLS-DA separates scheelite from deposits hosted in felsic to intermediate rocks from that from deposits hosted in sedimentary rocks. Both groups overlap partially with scheelite from deposits hosted in mafic-ultramafic rocks. The overlap likely reflects the complex lithological packages hosting the deposits. Orogenic gold deposit scheelite REE patterns cannot be distinguished from those of scheelite from other deposit types. Trace element composition, PCA, and PLS-DA show a distinct trace element signatures in Sr, Mo, Eu, As and Sr/Mo for orogenic gold deposit scheelite, compared to scheelite from other deposit types.

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#### Figures captions

Fig. 1. Scheelite texture and mineral associations in orogenic gold deposits **a** aggregate of anhedral scheelite grains (Cuiaba, Brazil), **b** subhedral scheelite grains (Canadian Malartic, Abitibi), **c** dynamic recrystallization of scheelite at Hutti (India), **d** fine grains disseminated scheelite (Kochkar, Russia), **e** scheelite veins (Kumtor, Kyrgyzstan), **f** scheelite associated with hydrothermal and metamorphic minerals such as clinopyroxene (Navachab, Namibia), **g** scheelite in association with tourmaline (Essakane, Burkina Faso), **h** scheelite is associated with pyrite with gold inclusion at Tarmoola, Eastern Goldfields, **i** scheelite with native gold, magnetite and hematite (Crusader, Australia).

Fig. 2. Cathodoluminescence (CL) images of scheelite show **a** homogeneous CL (Dome, Abitibi; the halo effect is an artefact due to camera resolution), **b** sub-grains within larger scheelite (Essakane, Burkina Faso), **c** homogeneous fine grains (Hutti, India), **d** homogeneous scheelite cut by thin veinlets (Tarmoola, Yilgarn), **e** brecciated (Mount Pleasant, Southern Cross) **f** brecciated structure at the edge of the grain (Crusader, Australia), **g** oscillatory zoning (Kochkar, Russia), **h** homogeneous CL (Rosebel, Suriname), **i** oscillatory zoning (Crusader, Agnew district).

- Fig. 3. Variation of the trace elements composition with the CL zonation in scheelite from the Macraes deposit, New Zealand.
- a The CL shows two generations: the first generation labelled "1" is brecciated by the second generation labelled "2". b LA-
- 607 ICP-MS profile shows the trace element variation within the different scheelite generations. The first generation is
- 608 characterized by high Sr, Na, Mg, Mn, Th and U, and low Y and ΣREE content, whereas, the second generation is
- 609 characterized by low Sr, Na, Mg, Mn, Th and U, and high Y and SREE content. Zones 2a and 1b are too small to be quantified.
- 610 **c** The first generation is characterized by a flat REE pattern and the second generation is characterized by a bell-shaped REE
- pattern, both with positive Eu anomalies.
- 612 Fig. 4. Images of scheelite a reflected light, b cathodoluminescence and trace elements LA-ICP-MS maps in c Sr, d Mo, e
- Na, f Y, g Nb, h As, i Eu, j Gd and k Pb, show homogeneous composition typical for scheelite from orogenic gold deposits
- 614 (Dome, Abitibi).
- Fig. 5. Rare earth element patterns in scheelite from orogenic gold deposits. a bell-shaped pattern with positive Eu anomaly,
- 616 **b** flat pattern with positive Eu anomaly, **c** bell-shaped with negative Eu anomaly, **d** LREE-enriched pattern, **e** HREE-enriched
- 617 pattern, **f** flat pattern without Eu anomaly. Data are normalized to chondrite from McDonough and Sun (1995). The North
- American Shale Composite (NASC) values are from Gromet et al. (1984).
- Fig. 6. Binary plots for REE contents in scheelite a (Gd/Yb)<sub>CN</sub> vs (La/Sm)<sub>CN</sub> and b \( \subseteq REE vs Eu\* from orogenic gold deposits,
- 620  $\mathbf{c}$  (Gd/Yb)<sub>CN</sub> vs (La/Sm)<sub>CN</sub> and  $\mathbf{d}$   $\Sigma$ REE vs Eu\* from various deposit types. Data for orogenic gold deposits from literature
- 621 include Ghaderi et al. (1999); Brugger et al. (2000b); Roberts et al. (2006); Xiong et al. (2006); Liu Yan et al. (2007); Dostal
- 622 et al. (2009); Song et al. (2014); Cave et al. (2016); Hazarika et al. (2016); Poulin (2016). Abbreviations: Bell + : bell-shaped
- 623 pattern with positive Eu anomaly; Bell -: bell-shaped pattern with negative Eu anomaly; Bell Ho + : bell-shaped pattern
- 624 centered in Ho with positive Eu anomaly as described in Dostal et al. (2009); Bell Ho : bell-shaped pattern centered in Ho
- with negative Eu anomaly as described in Dostal et al. (2009).
- 626 Fig. 7. LA-ICP-MS trace element binary plots for scheelite from orogenic gold deposits **a** ΣREE+Y vs Na; **b** Eu anomaly
- 627 (Eu\*) vs Na; c Nb vs Ta; d \( \subseteq \text{REE+Y vs Sr; e Na vs Sr, data for Rosebel are from EPMA; f Pb vs Sr; g \( \subseteq \text{REE+Y vs Nb+Ta+V}; \)
- h ∑REE vs Y; i U vs Th. Data from the literature include Ghaderi et al. (1999) andDostal et al. (2009).
- Fig. 8. Scheelite composition from orogenic gold and other deposit types for a Sr, b Mo, c Y and d Na. Literature data for
- orogenic gold deposits are from Anglin et al. (1996); Ghaderi et al. (1999); Brugger et al. (2000b); Dostal et al. (2009);
- Graupner et al. (2010); Hazarika et al. (2016); Poulin 2016; Poulin et al. (2016). Data for skarn deposits are from Eichhorn et

- 632 al. (1997); Zhigang et al. (1998); Liu Yan et al. (2007); Peng et al. (2010); Song et al. (2014); Poulin (2016); Poulin et al.
- 633 (2016). Data for Greisen and VMS are from Poulin (2016). Abbreviation: Can. Malartic: Canadian Malartic.
- Fig. 9. LA-ICP-MS trace element diagrams for scheelite in orogenic gold deposits a (Sr+Na)/(Sr+Na+10x(Nb+Ta+V+As))
- 635 vs (REE+Y+10x(Nb+Ta+V+As))/ (Sr+REE+Y+10x(Nb+Ta+V+As)); **b** Fe-Mn-Mg scheelite composition measured by LA-
- 636 ICP-MS; c Fe-Mn-Mg carbonate composition associated with scheelite in orogenic gold deposits, measured by EPMA.
- Fig. 10. Partial Least Square-Discriminant Analysis of LA-ICP-MS data for scheelite in orogenic gold deposits. a qw\*<sub>1</sub>-qw\*<sub>2</sub>
- and **b**  $t_1$ - $t_2$  scores for mineralization age; **c**  $qw_1^*$ - $qw_2^*$  and **d**  $t_1$ - $t_2$  scores for host rock compositions; **e**  $qw_1^*$ - $qw_2^*$  and **f**  $t_1$ - $t_2$
- scores for metamorphic facies of the host rocks. The qw\*1-qw\*2 plots show the correlation between elements and the element
- 640 contribution to each group. The t1-t2 plots show the distribution of scheelite sample according to each preselected grouping.
- Fig. 11. LA-ICP-MS trace element binary plots for scheelite from orogenic gold deposits and other deposits types a Sr vs Eu
- anomaly (Eu\*), **b** Sr/Mo vs Eu\*, **c** Mo vs As, and **d** Sr/Mo vs As. Data for orogenic gold deposits: Ghaderi et al. (1999);
- Dostal et al. (2009); Cave et al. (2016); Hazarika et al. (2016); Poulin (2016). Data for skarn deposits: Xiong et al. (2006);
- Ren et al. (2010); Song et al. (2014); Guo et al. (2016); Poulin (2016); Fu et al. (2017), and for porphyry-related deposits:
- 645 Poulin (2016) and Sun and Chen (2017).

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- Fig. 12. Partial Least Square-Discriminant Analysis of LA-ICP-MS data for scheelite from different deposit types. a The
- 647 qw\*<sub>1</sub>-qw\*<sub>2</sub> loadings plot shows correlations among elemental variables and deposit types. **b** The t<sub>1</sub>-t<sub>2</sub> scores plot shows the
- distribution of scheelite samples in the qw\*<sub>1</sub>-qw\*<sub>2</sub> space. c Variable importance of the projection (VIP) per deposit types
- shows the detailed element contribution per deposit. Data for orogenic gold deposits: Ghaderi et al. (1999); Dostal et al.
- 650 (2009); Hazarika et al. (2016) and Poulin (2016), for skarn deposits: Song et al. (2014) and Poulin (2016) and for porphyry-
- related deposits: Poulin (2016) and Sun and Chen (2017).

## **Electronic Supplementary Materials captions**

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655 ESM 2. (a) Analytical conditions for trace element analyses in scheelite by EPMA; (b) EPMA elements composition in scheelite from orogenic gold deposits; (c) Analytical conditions for trace element analyses in scheelite by LA-ICP-MS; (d) 656 657 LA-ICP-MS trace elements composition in scheelite from orogenic gold deposits ESM 3. (a) Comparison between LA-ICP-MS and EPMA analyses for a Sr, b Mo, c Y and d Na. Red line – 1:1 ratio; 658 659 abbreviation: DL: Detection limit of the electron microprobe; (b) Trace elements concentrations sorted by median scheelite composition for orogenic gold deposits, measured by LA-ICP-MS; (c) Carbonate coloration of samples with scheelite for 660 deposits hosted in a low grade metamorphic facies rocks b moderate grade metamorphic facies rocks c high grade 661 662 metamorphic facies rocks; (d) Variation of the trace elements composition with a the oscillatory zoning shown by CL in 663 scheelite from the Crusader deposit, Agnew district (Australia). Zone 1 is characterized by a darker CL and high content in 664 Na, V, As, Nb, Ta, Y and REE, and low Mo in b. Zone 2 is brighter CL and low content in Na, V, As, Nb, Ta, Y and REE, 665 and higher Mo. c Both zones have a similar positive-slope REE pattern.; (e) Rare earth elements patterns from LA-ICP-MS data in scheelite from a Dome and Hollinger (Timmins, Canada); b Young Davidson (Matachewan, Canada); c Malartic 666 (Canada), d Val-d'Or camp (Canada); e Meliadine (Canada); f Cuiaba (Brazil); g Buzwagi (Tanzania) and Essakane (Burkina 667 Faso), h Hutti (India); i Kochkar (Russia); j Kumtor (Kyrgyzstan); (f) Rare earth elements patterns from LA-ICP-MS data in 668 669 scheelite from a Marvel Loch (Australia); b Nevoria (Australia); c Edward's Find (Australia); d Crusader (Australia); e 670 Tarmoola (Australia); f Paddington (Australia); g Mt Pleasant (Australia); h Norseman camp (Australia); i Mt. Charlotte 671 (Australia); j Macraes (New Zealand); (g) Principal Component Analysis of LA-ICP-MS data for scheelite in orogenic gold 672 deposits. Rare Earth Elements are reduced to  $\Sigma$ REE and Eu anomaly (Eu\*). a PC1-PC2, b PC1-PC3 and c PC2-PC3 with emphasis on the mineralization age, d PC1-PC2, e PC1-PC3 and f PC2-PC3 with emphasis on the host rock composition, g 673 674 PC1-PC2, h PC1-PC3 and i PC2-PC3 with emphasis on the metamorphic facies of the host rock; (h) Principal Component 675 Analysis of LA-ICP-MS data for scheelite from different deposit types. Data from the literature for orogenic gold deposits: 676 Dostal et al. (2009); Hazarika et al. (2016) and Poulin (2016), for skarn deposits: Song et al. (2014) and Poulin (2016), and 677 for porphyry related deposits: Poulin (2016) and Sun and Chen (2017).

ESM 1. (a) Geological settings of the gold deposits; (b) Scheelite characteristics in the studied orogenic gold deposits

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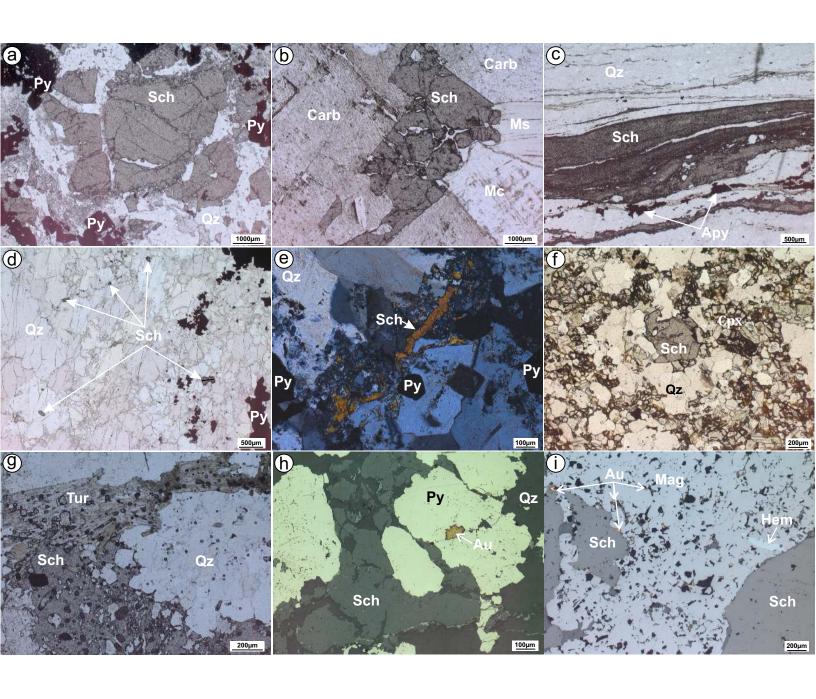
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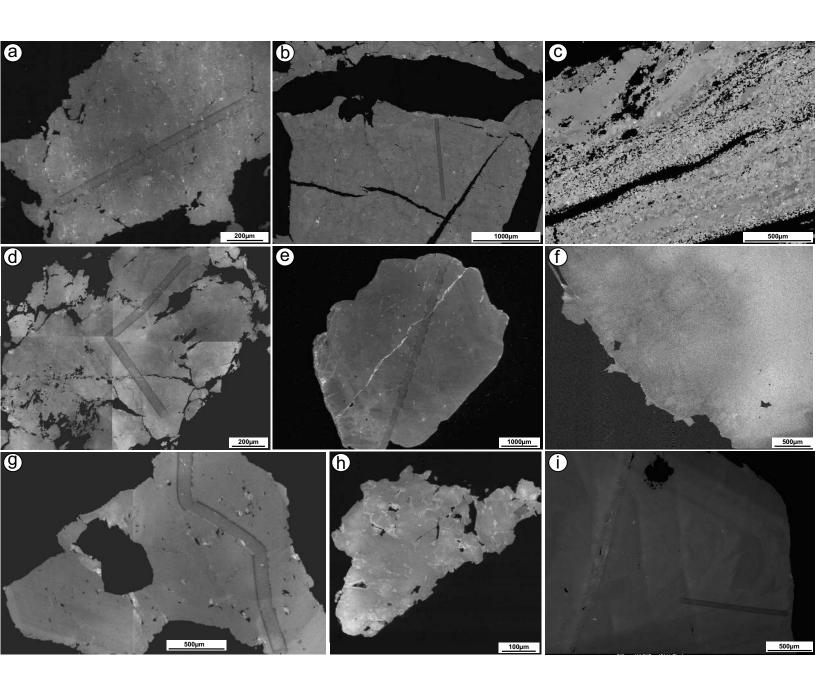
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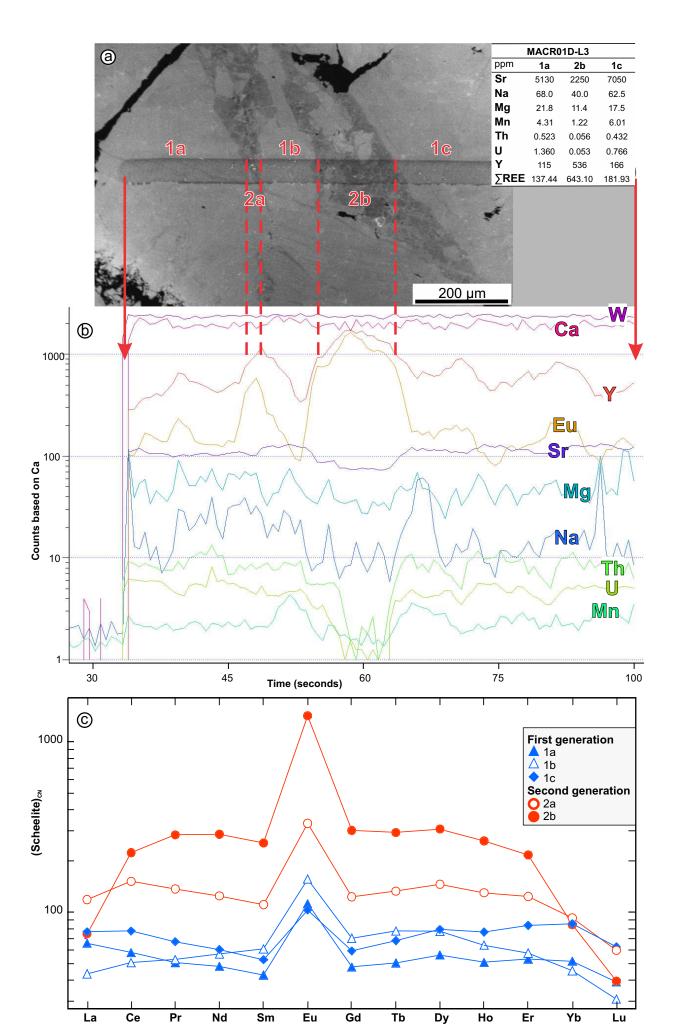
# Figure 1

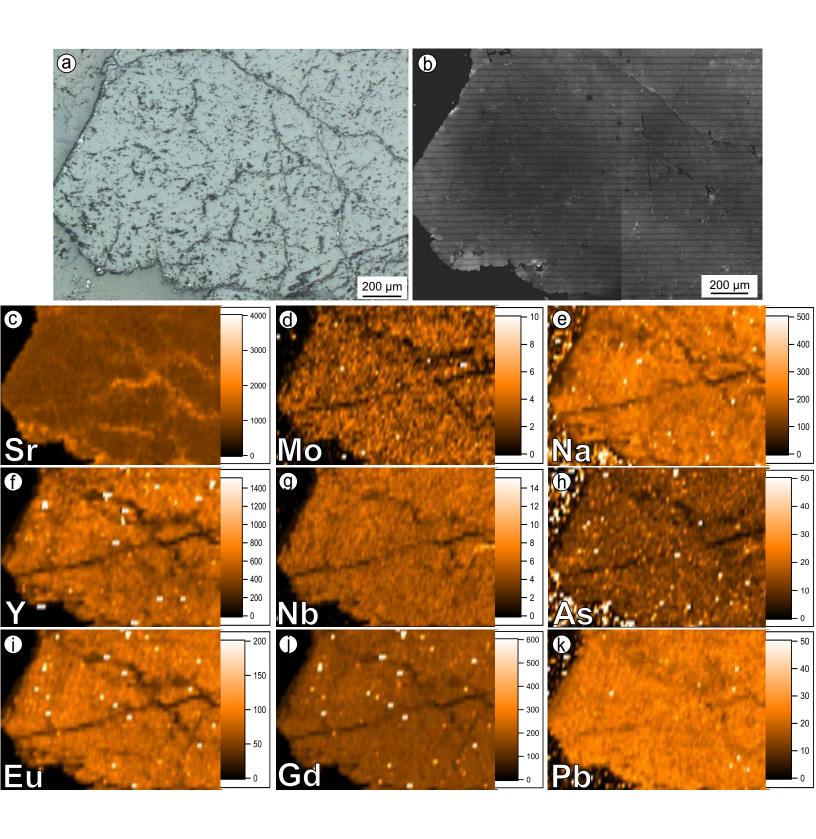


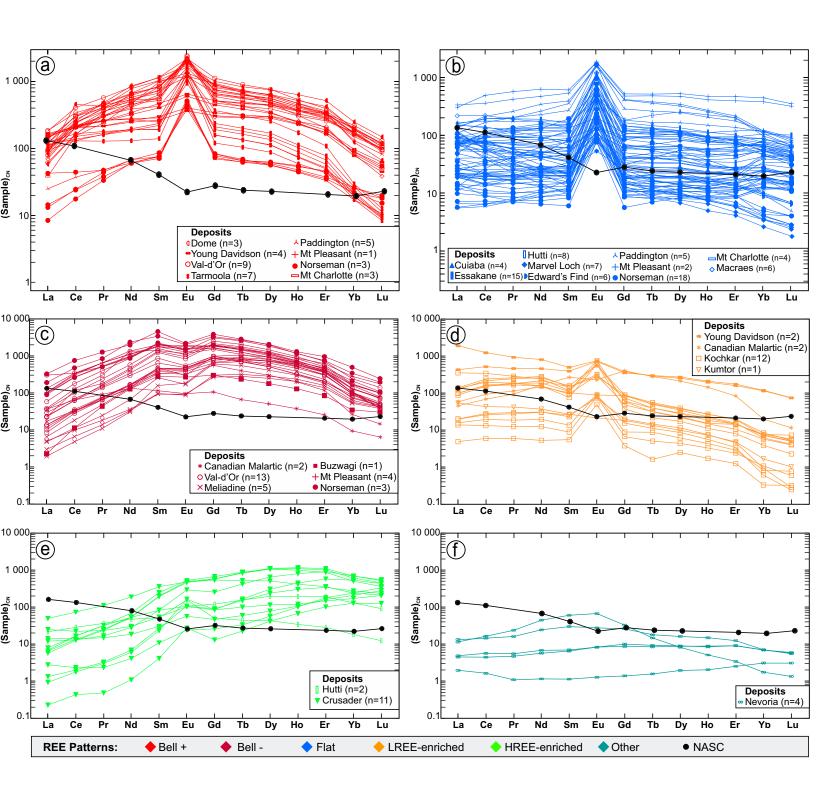
# Figure 2

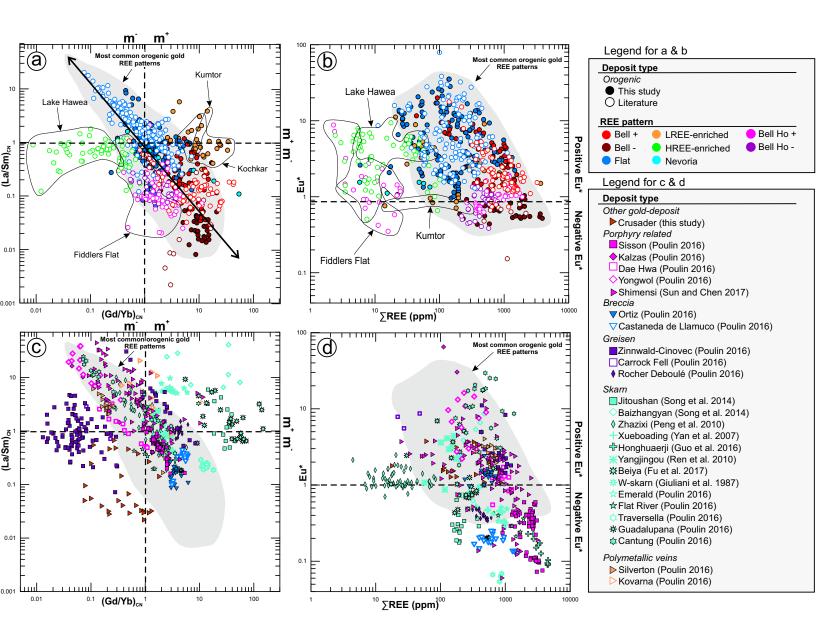


# Figure 3









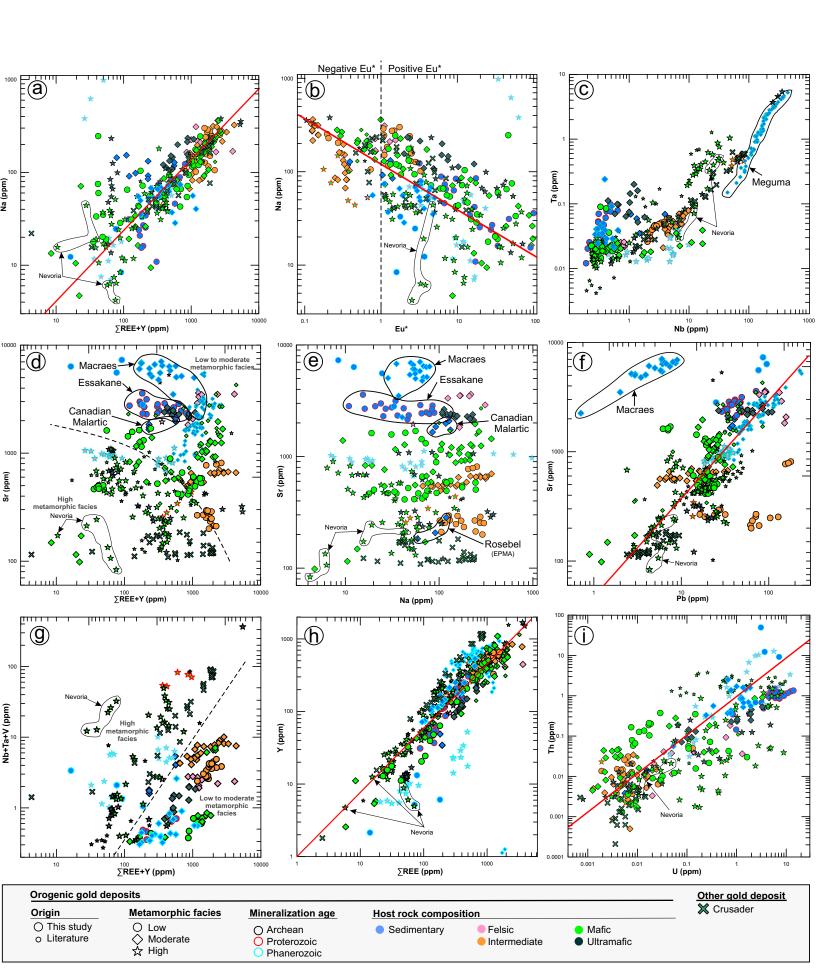
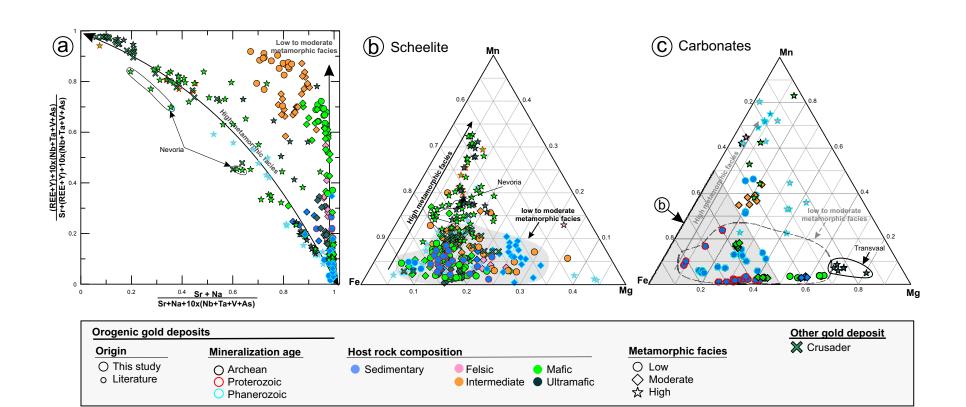
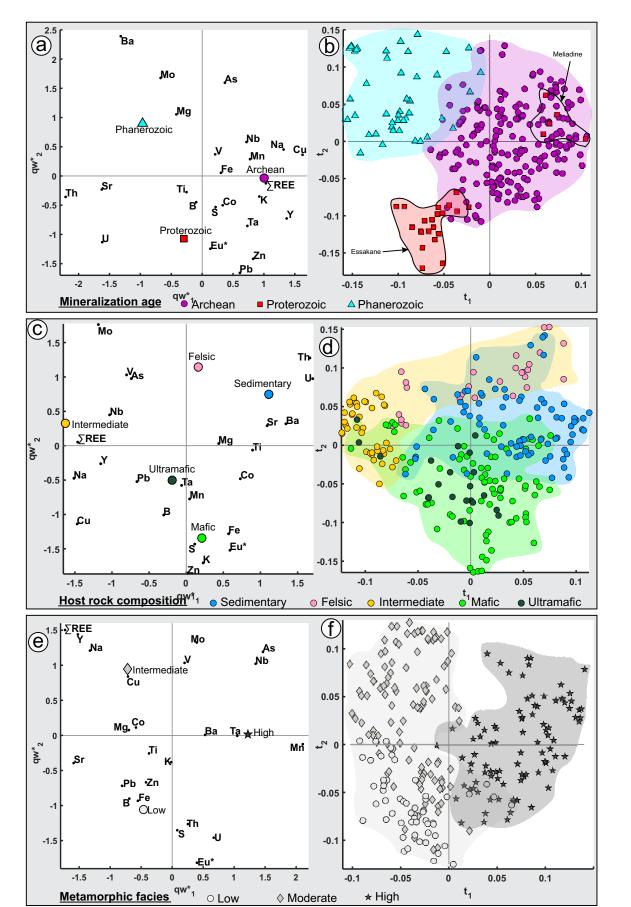
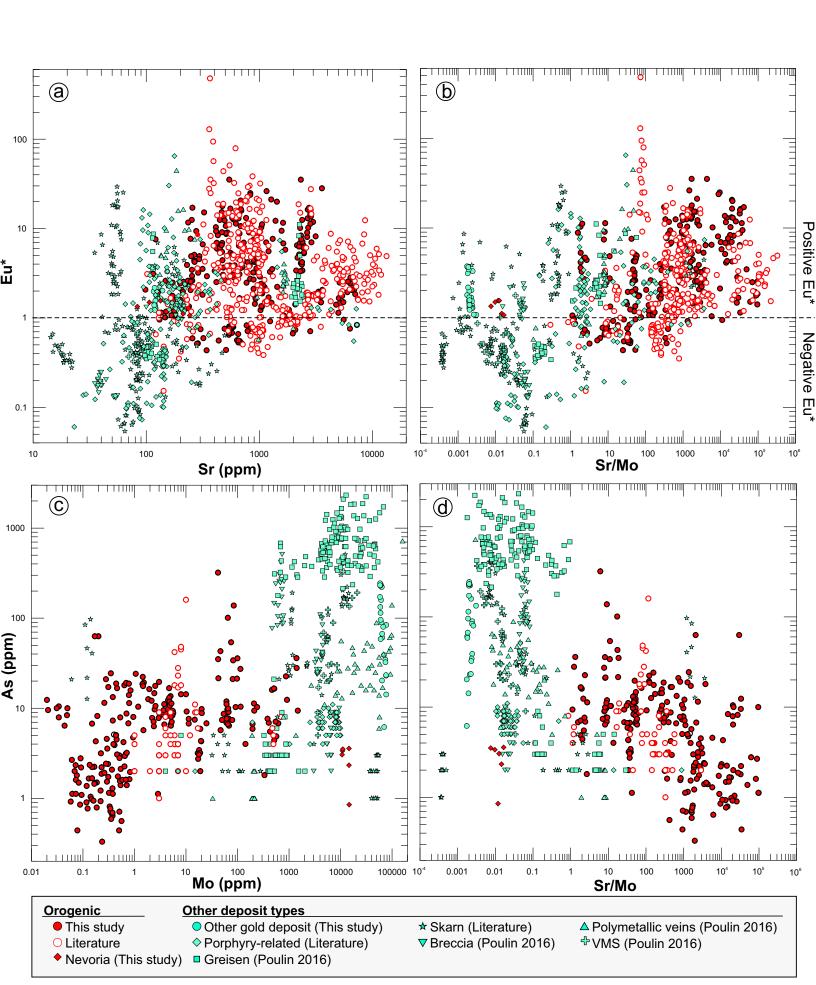
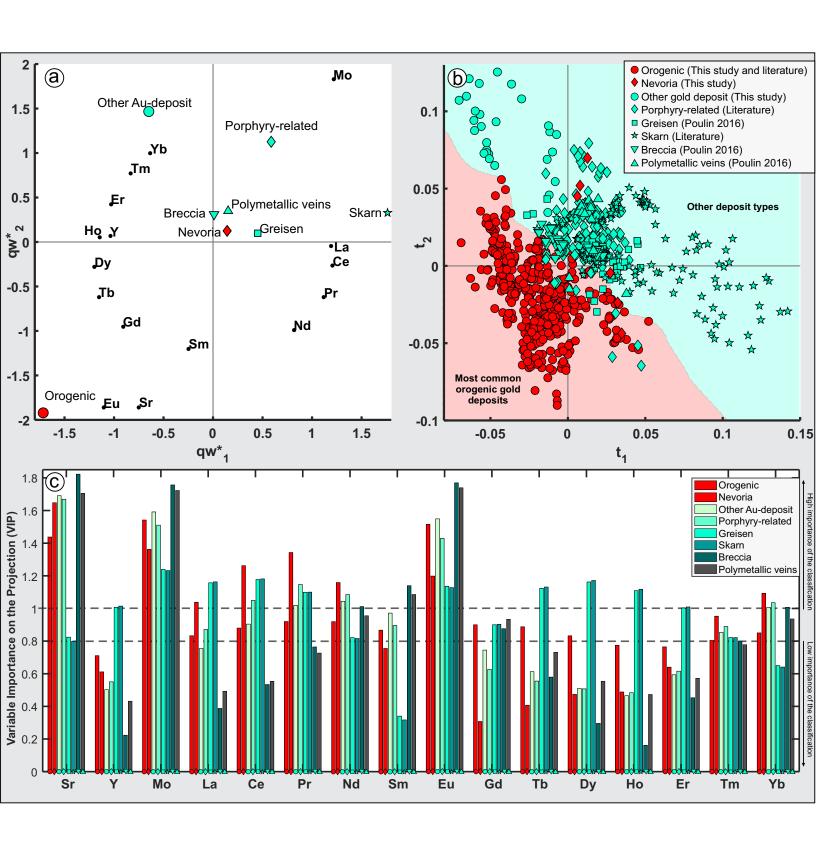


Figure 8









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