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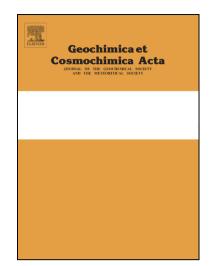
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Trisulfur radical ion; disulfur radical ion, molecular sulfur; hydrothermal fluid; experiment; sulfur isotopes;
 mass dependent fractionation (MDF); mass independent fractionation (MIF).

28 29

30 Abstract:

This study is aimed to evaluate the role played by the sulfur radical ions (S_3 and S_2) and molecular sulfur 31 (S⁰) on sulfur isotope fractionation and to investigate if these species may leave an isotope fingerprint in 32 hydrothermal systems. For this purpose, we combined i) experiments using a hydrothermal reactor with 33 aqueous $S_3^{-}(S_2^{-})$ -S⁰-sulfate-sulfide fluids and pyrite across a wide range of temperatures (300-450°C), 34 pressures (300-800 bar), fluid acidity (4<pH<8) and with elevated total sulfur concentrations (0.1-1.0 mol/kg 35 36 fluid) favorable for formation of those polymeric sulfur species, ii) precise quadruple S isotope analyses of the different S-bearing aqueous species in sampled fluids and in-situ precipitated pyrite, and iii) 37 thermodynamic modeling of sulfur aqueous speciation and solubility. Our results quantitatively confirm both 38 equilibrium and kinetic SO₄-H₂S and pyrite-H₂S mass dependent fractionation (MDF) factors previously 39 40 established using extensive experimental and natural data from more dilute fluids in which polymeric sulfur 41 species are negligible. MDF signatures of S⁰ measured in the sampled fluids of this study reveal different S⁰forming pathways such as i) breakdown on cooling of S_3^- (and S_2^-) and other chain-like S⁰ polymers only 42 stable at high temperature and being isotopically identical to H_2S ; ii) cyclooctasulfur (S_8^0 , liquid or solid) 43 precipitating by recombination of sulfate and sulfide and/or by exchange with polysulfide dianions (S_n^{2-}) on 44 cooling and being slightly ³⁴S-enriched compared to H₂S (by ~2 ‰ of δ^{34} S); and iii) a different type of S⁰ 45 resulting from thiosulfate irreversible breakdown and being highly ³⁴S-depleted (by ~12 %) relative to H₂S. 46 47 Our data do not show any significant mass independent fractionation (MIF) of ³³S and ³⁶S, with Δ^{33} S and Δ^{36} S values of any S aqueous species and pyrite being within ± 0.1 ‰ and ± 1.0 ‰, respectively. Therefore, 48 under the investigated experimental conditions, the radical S_3 ion is unlikely to generate significant MIF in 49 the hydrothermal fluid phase and in pyrite and native sulfur precipitated therefrom. Our study supports the 50 existing interpretations of small Δ^{33} S and Δ^{36} S variations between sulfide/sulfate-bearing fluid and pyrite as 51 52 MDF in terms of reaction kinetics, different reaction pathways, and mass conservation effects such as mixing 53 of S reservoirs or Rayleigh distillation. Our data extend, across a wider range of sulfur concentration and chemical speciation, the existing multiple S isotopes models that exploit such variations as a complement to 54 the traditional δ^{34} S tracer to monitor the approach to equilibrium and evolution of hydrothermal fluids. 55 56

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58 Highlights:

- Isotope signatures of sulfur species and pyrite have been studied in hydrothermal fluids.
- MDF equilibrium and kinetic SO_4 -H₂S and pyrite-H₂S factors are quantified.
- No MIF anomalies are detected in the presence of sulfur radical ions.
- 62 Isotope signature of molecular sulfur fingerprints the different mechanisms of S⁰ formation.
- Several environments offer potential for MIF generation in fluid-mineral systems.

65

1. INTRODUCTION

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Fractionation among the four stable isotopes of sulfur (³²S, ³³S, ³⁴S, and ³⁶S) has been used for tracing 67 various geological processes since 1960's (e.g., Thode et al., 1961; Hulston and Thode, 1965). In most 68 chemical and biological reactions, the sulfur isotope ratios obey mass-dependent fractionations (MDF); 69 however, significant mass-independent fractionation (MIF) anomalies $(\Delta^{33}S > 0.2\%)^1$ were identified in 70 pyrite and barite from Archean sedimentary rocks likely caused by SO₂ photolysis in the atmosphere (e.g., 71 Δ^{33} S \approx -4 to +14 ‰; Farguhar et al., 2000; Johnston, 2011; Philippot et al., 2012), and also in sulfide minerals 72 73 from a number of younger magmatic, hydrothermal and metamorphic rocks (e.g., Farquhar et al., 2002; Bekker et al., 2009; Thomassot et al., 2009; Cabral et al., 2013; Young et al., 2013; Delavault et al., 2016; 74 Ripley and Li, 2017; LaFlamme et al., 2018a,b; Smit et al., 2019), which were interpreted as the 75 reworking/recycling of Archean supracrustal rocks. These anomalies contrast with very small Δ^{33} S values, 76 which are likely generated through MDF processes in low-temperature biological and inorganic sulfur redox 77 reactions in solution or at the mineral surfaces (typically <0.15‰, Farquhar and Wing, 2003; Ono et al., 78 2006, 2007; Farquhar et al., 2007; Johnston, 2011). These MDF processes are quite well understood and 79 result from mass-conservation effects (mostly mixing and Rayleigh distillation). Earlier theoretical work 80 using quantum-chemistry modeling suggested that MIF could be generated by heterogeneous reactions 81 (Lasaga et al., 2008), which was, however, not supported by a subsequent study (Balan et al., 2009). 82

In most hydrothermal fluids studied so far in nature (e.g., Kamyshny et al., 2014; Stefansson et al., 83 2015; McDermott et al., 2015) and laboratory (e.g., Ohmoto and Lasaga, 1982; Syverson et al., 2015; 84 Meshoulam et al., 2016), relevant to active seafloor or surface geothermal systems and different shallow-85 crust hydrothermal deposits, sulfur isotope fractionation between the different inorganic sulfur species such 86 as sulfate, sulfide, native sulfur, thiosulfate, and some organic thiol species has been interpreted by both 87 equilibrium and kinetic MDF. This type of fractionation can only generate small deviations of ³³S isotope 88 abundance from the classical MDF dependence (Δ^{33} S <0.05 ‰). In contrast, large Δ^{33} S anomalies (from -1.1 89 to +13.0‰) were reported in thermochemical sulfate reduction (TSR) reactions in hydrothermal experiments 90 in the presence of amino-acids (Watanabe et al., 2009; Oduro et al., 2011). TSR phenomena were also 91 invoked to explain the Δ^{33} S record in Paleoproterozoic black shales at Talvivarra, Finland (-0.6 $\leq \Delta^{33}$ S $\leq 1.3\%$, 92 Young et al., 2013). 93

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In the light of the large variety of sulfur isotope fractionation patterns exemplified above, detailed 95 knowledge of sulfur chemical speciation in the fluid phase is required for understanding sulfur isotope

¹ Variations of S isotope ratios (normalized to the most abundant 32 S isotope) are conventionally expressed in the δ -notation relative to the V-CDT standard (Vienna-Cañon Diablo Troilite meteorite: Ding et al., 2001):

 $[\]delta^{3x}S$ (in ‰) = [(${}^{3x}S/{}^{32}S$)_{sample}/(${}^{3x}S/{}^{32}S$)_{V-CDT} - 1]×1000, where x denotes 3, 4 or 6 for ${}^{33}S$, ${}^{34}S$, and ${}^{36}S$, respectively.

MDF means that isotope ratios are proportional to the mass difference between isotopes yielding the relationships: $\delta^{33}S \approx$ $(0.515\pm0.005)\times\delta^{34}$ S, and δ^{36} S \approx $(1.89\pm0.02)\times\delta^{34}$ S (e.g., Urey, 1947). MDF refers to isotope compositions deviating from this mass scaling law (i.e. $\Delta^{33}S \approx \delta^{33}S - 0.515 \times \delta^{34}S$; see section 2.5 for details and rigorous equations).

fractionation, both MDF and MIF, in natural processes involving fluids. The major chemical forms of sulfur 96 are known to be sulfate and sulfide (and sulfur dioxide and hydrogen sulfide in gas phase), which have been 97 extensively studied over the last decades. However, recent discoveries of the sulfur radical ions S_3 and S_2 . 98 in geological fluids (Pokrovski and Dubrovinsky, 2011; Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015) may lead to re-99 100 evaluate our vision of a number of geochemical processes in which sulfur is involved. For example, sulfur radicals enhance gold and platinum solubility in hydrothermal fluids involved in porphyry and orogenic 101 102 deposit genesis (Pokrovski et al., 2015; 2019; Laskar et al., 2019). These radicals could also contribute to redox changes in the subcontinental lithospheric mantle by slab-liberated S-bearing fluids in subduction 103 zones thereby affecting the sulfur release and metallogenic potential of the arc magmas (e.g., Rielli et al., 104 2017; Frimmel, 2018; Colin et al., 2020). At shallow-crust conditions, the S₃⁻⁻ ion was hypothesized to be a 105 reaction intermediate controlling the kinetics of TSR processes and associated sulfur isotope fractionations 106 (Truche et al., 2014; Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015; Barré et al., 2017). The particular properties of S₃⁻⁻ make 107 it different from the 'traditional' sulfur species and, therefore, might be responsible for MIF ³³S anomalies 108 found in sulfides from hydrothermal settings and during TSR phenomena evoked above. This is because S_3 . 109 exhibits a magnetic moment due to a free electron, potentially enabling MIF, contrary to traditional sulfur 110 molecules and ions (Buchachenko, 2001). Furthermore, S_3^{-1} is a structural and electronic analog of ozone 111 (O₃) and its radicals exhibiting large ¹⁷O MIF anomalies due to symmetry effects (e.g., ¹⁶O¹⁶O¹⁶O vs 112 $^{16}O^{17}O^{18}O$), which is a general quantum-level control potentially applicable to other triatomic molecules and 113 radicals (Gao and Marcus, 2001; Babikov et al., 2003; Chakraborty et al., 2013; Reinhardt and Robert, 2013). 114 The major challenge in studying S_3^{+} and S_2^{+} is that they are only stable and sufficiently abundant in aqueous 115 116 solution at elevated temperatures and are not preserved on cooling/quench by very rapidly decomposing into traditional sulfur species such as sulfide, sulfur, polysulfides, and/or sulfate (Chivers and Elder, 2013; 117 Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015 and references therein). 118

Along with S_3^{-} and S_2^{-} , another previously disregarded sulfur species in hydrothermal fluids, is a 119 form of polymeric molecular sulfur (S_n^0) , where n is undetermined number of uncharged S atoms in chain-120 like polymers), which has been identified by solubility and in-situ Raman spectroscopy measurements in S-121 rich solutions at >200°C (Dadze and Sorokin, 1993; Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015; Barré et al., 2017), but 122 its effect on both sulfur redox kinetics and isotope fractionation remains unexplored. This form of molecular 123 sulfur is different from the previously recognized aqueous cyclo-octasulfur S_8^0 (e.g., Kamyshny, 2008; 124 Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015). Similarly to S_3 , S_n^0 is not preserved on cooling in its original state, by 125 transforming to native sulfur, molten or solid (S_(s,l), composed of S₈ rings), which is a common low-126 temperature (<150°C) product of S-bearing fluids both in laboratory and natural hydrothermal-volcanic 127 settings. Therefore, native sulfur may potentially record, through its isotope signature, processes of sulfur 128 species transformation in fluids under elevated T-P conditions inaccessible to direct observation/sampling. 129 Such processes include disproportionation of magmatic SO2 (e.g., Kusakabe et al., 2000; Kouzmanov and 130 Pokrovski, 2012), TSR reactions (Barré et al., 2017), or S_3^{-} and S_n^{0} transformations on cooling (e.g., 131

132	Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015). In this article, these different uncharged polymeric molecular sulfur forms
133	are collectively termed as 'S ⁰ '.
134	In an attempt to bring quantitative constraints on the role played by the trisulfur (and disulfur) radical
135	ion and polymeric molecular sulfur on S isotope fractionation in hydrothermal environments, we combined
136	<i>i)</i> experiments in $S_3^{-}(S_2^{-})$ -S ⁰ -sulfate-sulfide hydrothermal fluids, <i>ii)</i> precise analyses of the multiple sulfur
137	isotope ratios in the different sulfur aqueous forms (sulfate, sulfide and S ⁰) and coexisting pyrite, and <i>iii</i>)
138	thermodynamic modeling of sulfur aqueous speciation and solubility. The results contribute to better
139	understanding of complex sulfur isotope fractionation processes in both ancient and modern hydrothermal
140	systems relevant to various types of metal ore deposits formed by S-bearing fluids within the Earth's crust.
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142	2. MATERIALS AND METHODS
143	2.1. Experimental strategy and conditions
144	
145	Four experiments were conducted in synthetic aqueous sulfate-sulfide fluids from 300 to 450°C and
146	from ~300 to ~700 bar to investigate both kinetic and equilibrium sulfur isotope fractionation over a wide
147	range of S_3 - concentrations (from <0.0001 to ~0.1 moles S per kg of fluid (m), Table 1). Aqueous thiosulfate
148	solutions K ₂ S ₂ O ₃ (-HCl-KOH) served as the source of sulfur, following the same approach as recent in-situ
149	Raman spectroscopy studies that identified S_3^{-} , S_2^{-} and S^0 (Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015). Potassium was
150	preferred to Na which forms at elevated temperatures a poorly soluble Na ₂ SO ₄ solid compared to K ₂ SO ₄
151	(Linke and Seidell, 1965). Thiosulfate breaks down in aqueous solution on heating above 150°C, producing
152	dominantly sulfate and sulfide
153	$S_2O_3^{2-} + H_2O = SO_4^{2-} + H_2S $ (1)
154	Adding acid (HCl) or base (KOH) allows enhanced formation of protonated (HSO ₄ ⁻) or deprotonated (HS ⁻)
155	species, respectively, enabling acidity buffering
156	$SO_4^{2-} + H^+ = HSO_4^-$ (2)
157	$H_2S = HS^- + H^+ \tag{3}$
158	Alternatively, acidity buffering at slightly acidic pH values may also be achieved by using alkali
159	aluminosilicate mineral assemblages, such as quartz-muscovite-microcline, which was used in one of our
160	experiments (m22, see below). Furthermore, equilibria between sulfate and sulfide at elevated temperatures
161	impose oxygen fugacity (f_{02}), which typically ranges, depending on pH, from HM-2 to HM+2 (where HM
162	denotes the $log f_{O_2}$ value of the conventional hematite-magnetite mineral buffer):
163	$H_2S + 2 O_2 = SO_4^{2-} + 2 H^+ $ (4)
164	The formation of S_3^{-} in such sulfate-sulfide solutions can be formally described by the reaction
165	$19 H_2 S + 5 SO_4^{2-} + 2 H^+ = 8 S_3^{-} + 20 H_2 O $ (5)
166	This reaction implies that the abundance of S_3 ⁻ is controlled by total S concentration (S _{tot} , which is
167	proportional to the sum of the dominant sulfate and sulfide), solution pH, and the H_2S/SO_4 ratio (and therefore

5

- 168 oxygen fugacity), with a maximum abundance at a given set of *T*, S_{tot} and pH at a $H_2S/SO_4^{2^-}$ ratio of 19/5. 169 Note that this formal reaction in no way reflects the mechanisms of S_3^{-} formation and breakdown, but only 170 illustrates the fundamental thermodynamic controls on the S_3^{-} equilibrium concentration in solution. In 171 addition to the above S species produced by reactions (1) to (5), and depending on S and K total content, pH 172 and *T-P* conditions, variable amounts of sulfate and sulfide ion pairs with K⁺, SO₂, S_8^{0} (both aqueous and 173 molten), disulfur ion S_2^{-} , and polysulfide dianions $S_n^{2^-}$ will also form.
- The concentrations of all these species can be estimated using available thermodynamic data (see 174 section 2.6 and Table A2.1 for discussion and data sources). Figure 1 shows the calculated equilibrium 175 distribution of the different sulfur species, using the best up-to-date thermodynamic data (but see section 176 2.6), in K₂S₂O₃ aqueous solutions over the *T-P*-S_{tot}-pH-redox range of this study, and Table 1 overviews the 177 composition and different steps of the conducted experiments. In this manuscript, all pH values are 178 thermodynamically calculated at the corresponding *T-P*-composition. Two exploratory runs (m22 and m29) 179 at 350°C in acidic (pH ~4.5 at experimental T-P) and alkaline (pH ~7.3) solutions were designed to examine 180 S isotope fractionation in a S_3^- -rich (~0.07 m S in the form of S_3^-) and S_3^- -poor (<0.001 m S) fluids, 181 respectively. A more elaborated experiment (m32) consisted of two succeeding steps in slightly alkaline S₃-182 - poor conditions (~0.005 m S) at two contrasting temperatures, 300 and 450°C, followed by an acidification 183 of the fluid at 450°C to increase S_3 ⁻⁻ concentration by a factor of 10 (~0.04 m S). In addition, the S_2 ⁻⁻ may 184 also be present at such elevated temperatures (Fig. 1b; Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015; Pokrovski et al., 2019). 185 The last step of the three experiments above was conducted in the presence of pyrite (plus barite in m22) 186 whose precipitation was induced by injecting, in-situ into the reactor, an FeCl₂ (plus BaCl₂ in m22) aqueous 187 solution, thus simulating pyrite precipitation in natural hydrothermal fluids. Finally, a fourth experiment 188 (m33) was conducted at 300°C at near-neutral pH (~5.3) by progressively diluting with water the initial 189 $K_2S_2O_3$ -bearing fluid leading to a decrease of S_3 ⁻ concentration by a factor of 10 (from ~0.07 to 0.008 m S), 190 to examine the effect of changing of S_3 - abundance on sulfur isotope fractionation. 191
- Our experimental systems offer a good analog for natural S-rich fluids in arc-related magmatic-192 hydrothermal systems hosting porphyry, skarn and epithermal Cu-Au-Mo deposits, which are characterized 193 by typical temperatures of 250-500°C, pressures of 100-1000 bar, a wide pH (3-8) and redox (HM±2) ranges, 194 typical salinities of 5-15 wt% of NaCl+KCl, the coexistence of sulfate and sulfide in a wide range of 195 concentrations (from ~0.01 to a few wt% S), and the ubiquitous presence of pyrite (Einaudi et al., 2003; 196 Kouzmanov and Pokrovski, 2012). Furthermore, the isotope fractionation patterns obtained in this study are 197 also relevant to other hydrothermal settings and ore-deposit contexts that are all characterized by the presence 198 of S-bearing fluids and iron sulfide minerals (e.g., seafloor geothermal systems, orogenic and sedimentary 199 basin metal deposits). 200
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202 **2.2. Experimental setup**

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The runs were conducted using a Coretest reactor (Fig. 2) equipped with a flexible gold inner cell 204 with a Ti 2-µm frit filter in its head, i.e. analogous to Seyfried et al. (1987) and Rosenbauer et al. (1993) and 205 recently adapted to multicomponent and S-rich systems as described previously (Pokrovski et al., 2015; Kokh 206 et al., 2017). The gold cell (120-180 cm³ of initial volume) is inserted into a high-pressure vessel (~1000 cm³ 207 208 volume, type 316 SS, stainless steel), which is filled with water as a pressure medium controlled by a gasdriven pump, and placed into an electrically heated $(\pm 1^{\circ}C)$ rocking furnace. An ultrafast sampling device, 209 210 analogous to that of Seewald and Seyfried (1990), consists of a titanium tube attached to two high-pressure titanium valves and a rigid titanium vial ($\sim 2.5 \text{ cm}^3$) tightly assembled to the second valve. The device enables 211 an almost instantaneous (<1 s) transfer into the vial of a portion of the fluid phase pushed by the internal 212 pressure from the reactor. This design prevents sulfur precipitation or degassing (see Kokh et al., 2017 for 213 details), which would have inevitably occurred in S-bearing systems using traditional sampling procedures. 214 Prior to experiments, the gold cell was cleaned with HNO₃ and annealed at 380°C for 1 h to allow for a 215 greater malleability and deformation. 216

During an experiment, fluids were periodically sampled and processed as described in sections 2.3 217 and 2.4. In the course of experiments m32 and m33, aqueous HCl or pure water were injected into the cell, 218 initially loaded with a thiosulfate solution, using a calibrated capstan pump (total volume = 12 cm^3). This 219 injection allows controlled changes of the fluid pH and Stot concentration and, consequently, the sulfur 220 speciation (in particular, the amount of S⁰ and S₃, see Table 1 and Fig. 1). Precipitation of pyrite (together 221 with barite in m22), in the final stage of three experiments (m22, m29 and m32), was induced by injection 222 into the reactor of an FeCl₂ (-BaCl₂) aqueous solution in amounts not exceeding those of aqueous sulfide. 223 224 Then the fluid composition continued to be monitored by periodic sampling, and the solid was finally recovered upon complete cooling of the reactor. 225

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227 2.3. Chemical analyses of sampled fluids

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Because the complex sulfur speciation at elevated T-P strongly evolves upon fluid cooling (Fig. 1d), 229 the original species identity and distribution cannot be adequately recovered in quenched samples. Therefore, 230 special procedures are required for separation and preservation of the different sulfur forms for chemical and 231 isotope analyses. These procedures are based on improved methods developed in our previous studies of S-232 rich fluid systems (e.g., Pokrovski et al., 2008; Kokh et al., 2016). Each sampling session comprised multiple 233 samples of the fluid phase (usually 5, amounting 0.5 to 1.0 g each), directly taken into specific aqueous 234 reagents (concentrated solutions of I₂, Cd(CH₃COO)₂, Zn(CH₃COO)₂, NH₃) placed in the sampling vial to 235 allow for quantitative recovery and preservation of the different forms of sulfur, as well as dissolved chloride, 236 potassium, iron and gold (Table A1.1). Total aqueous sulfur (S_{tot}) was analyzed in samples taken into aqueous 237 ammonia (28 wt% NH₃) by inductively coupled plasma - atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES) and high-238 performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) after complete oxidation by hydrogen peroxide (30 wt% 239 aqueous H₂O₂) of all S forms to sulfate. Total aqueous chloride was also analyzed by HPLC in the same NH₃ 240

and H₂O₂-treated samples. Total reduced sulfur (S_{red} , comprising H₂S/HS⁻/KHS, S_n^{2-} and, eventually, SO₂ 241 and unreacted thiosulfate) was trapped in HCl aqueous solution containing an excess of iodine over sampled 242 sulfur, and quantified by titration of the remaining I₂ by a standard thiosulfate solution, since all these reduced 243 244 S species react with I₂ (e.g., Charlot, 1966; Dadze and Sorokin, 1993). Sulfide-type sulfur (S_{sulfide}, comprising H₂S, HS⁻ and KHS) was separated from the other sulfur forms by sampling the fluid into a cadmium acetate 245 solution of near-neutral pH (~6), which results in quantitative precipitation of all sulfide species as poorly 246 soluble Cd sulfide (CdS solubility is <µmol Cd/kg fluid), followed by iodometric titration in an I₂-HCl 247 solution. Oxygen gas in the air space of the vial before sampling is less than 0.001 mmol/L, compared to 10s 248 to 100s mmol/L of potentially oxidizable S species in the fluid (e.g., H₂S), so that oxidation by air is 249 negligible. Sulfate-type aqueous sulfur (S_{sulfate}, comprising SO₄²⁻, HSO₄⁻, and their K⁺ ion pairs, existing at 250 experimental T-P conditions, Fig. 1) was quantified by HPLC as the SO_4^{2-} ion in water-diluted near-neutral 251 pH acetate solutions, after removal of sulfide as CdS precipitate by centrifugation. The presence of thiosulfate 252 in the supernatant was also checked by HPLC, but could not be quantified. 253

Molecular sulfur was separated from other S species as hexane extracts (hereafter S⁰_{hexane}) collected 254 from samples trapped into Cd acetate solution followed by removal of CdS via centrifugation. The hexane 255 fraction was then analyzed for S⁰ by UV spectrometry at a wavelength of 264 nm calibrated using reference 256 257 solutions prepared by dissolving a given amount of native sulfur in hexane. The analytical uncertainty on the 258 S^0 concentration determination in our systems is typically $\pm 50\%$, mostly because impurities common in our chemically complex samples (including acetate and its decomposition products that may partition into 259 hexane) absorb in the same UV range. All vials and tubes were also rinsed with hexane after recovery of each 260 sampled solution, and analyzed for S⁰, which has always been found below the detection limit (<0.0001 m 261 S). An independent way for estimating S⁰ concentrations in the sampled fluid was using sulfur mass balance 262 between S_{tot} and the sum of sulfate and reduced sulfur (hereafter $S_{balance}^0$), because S^0 does not react with 263 iodine and does not precipitate with Cd or Ba acetate. 264

Concentrations of potassium, gold and iron were determined by ICP-AES and, selectively, by flame 265 atomic absorption spectrometry (FAAS), after the NH₃ sample treatment with aqua regia. This treatment 266 consists of i) gentle evaporation of the sample on hot plate (60-80°C) in a cleaned Teflon vial (Savilex ®), 267 ii) reaction of the residue with 2 g of hot aqua regia in the closed vial (at 120°C for 2h), followed by iii) 268 gentle evaporation of solution (at 60-70°C) to 0.2-0.3 g, and iv) dilution of the remaining solution by ultra-269 pure 0.5 wt% HCl - 1.5wt% HNO3 in water. More details on the chemical procedures and associated 270 271 uncertainties are given in Kokh et al. (2016, 2017). The results of fluid analyses are reported in Table 2 and 272 shown as a function of run duration in Fig. 3.

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274 **2.4.** Processing of sampled fluids for sulfur isotope analyses

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The sulfur isotope ratios were analyzed (depending on the experiment) in the initial thiosulfate and sampled aqueous sulfate, sulfide and molecular sulfur (if available), and in the precipitated pyrite recovered

after the run. Like for the chemical analyses described above, the challenge was to accurately separate the different sulfur forms on sampling to avoid, as much as possible, both chemical recombination and isotope exchange/mixing among these forms in our S-rich systems on cooling. The fluid sample treatment is described as follows and summarized in Table A1.1.

282 In an exploratory experiment (m22), sulfur samples were taken into an aqueous solution of zinc and barium acetate, resulting in simultaneous precipitation of ZnS and BaSO₄ in the sampling vial. However, 283 difficulties were encountered when converting ZnS to H₂S from the fine-grained ZnS-BaSO₄ mixture that 284 prevented ZnS, being armored by BaSO₄, to quantitatively react with the HCl solution, resulting in low yields. 285 Consequently, the experimental protocol was changed in the subsequent experiments. In runs m29, m32, and 286 m33, aqueous sulfide was trapped as ZnS by placing 1.0-1.5 mL of 1 m zinc acetate solution into the sampling 287 vial. The formed ZnS precipitate was centrifuged (3800 rpm for 15 min) to separate it from the solution, 288 washed with deionized water and dried at 90°C for subsequent isotope analyses. After centrifugation, the 289 supernatant solution was reacted with 1.5 mL of 1 m barium acetate to precipitate BaSO₄, which was then 290 centrifuged, washed, dried similarly to the ZnS precipitate, and reserved for isotope analyses. 291

Molecular sulfur S⁰ was separated by extraction into hexane after precipitating H₂S as CdS when 292 sampling the fluid directly into a 1 mL of 1 m cadmium acetate solution. This procedure prevents *i*) isotope 293 exchange between S⁰ and H₂S/HS⁻ prone to rapid re-equilibration, and *ii*) possible recombination of sulfate 294 and sulfide to form additional S⁰. Despite all these precautions, native sulfur might still partly precipitate, 295 especially in S-rich acidic solutions, during the fluid passage through the sampling tubes and valves before 296 reaching the vial with the trapping reagent, and thus get transferred into the vial together with the fluid. 297 Although the different origins and formation mechanisms of S⁰ in the sampled fluid cannot be distinguished 298 by bulk S⁰ chemical analyses, their isotopic composition is expected to reflect those mechanisms. The 299 supernatant containing sulfate and S⁰ was separated from the CdS precipitate by centrifugation (3800 rpm 300 for 15 min), filtered (0.45 µm) and placed into a glass flask with 30 mL of hexane and 10 mL of glycerol (the 301 latter was used to protect the eventually remaining thiosulfate from oxidation that might lead to additional 302 formation of molecular sulfur; Dadze and Sorokin, 1993). The aqueous solution and the hexane phase were 303 allowed to react for at least 48 h to enable the complete extraction of S⁰ into the hexane phase, as checked by 304 time-dependent analyses. The S⁰-bearing hexane fraction was then recovered and analyzed for S⁰ by UV-Vis 305 spectrometry (section 2.3). After the UV analysis, the hexane was gently evaporated at 50°C and the 306 307 precipitated sulfur was saved for isotope analyses.

The sulfur isotope composition of the initial thiosulfate was measured separately in its sulfane (S^{2–}) and sulfonate (S⁶⁺) parts according to the slightly modified protocols of Uyama et al. (1985) and Syverson et al. (2015). An aqueous 0.1 m AgNO₃ solution was used to precipitate the sulfane sulfur as Ag₂S from an aqueous 0.05 m K₂S₂O₃ solution. The supernatant was separated from the precipitate by centrifugation and reacted with an excess of barium acetate to precipitate the sulfonate part as BaSO₄, which was then recovered after centrifugation.

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315 2.5. Quadruple sulfur isotope analyses and isotope standardization and notation

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Measurements of the four stable sulfur isotope ratios were realized with a gas source Ion Ratio Mass 317 Spectrometer (IRMS) Thermo Finnigan MAT 253 at the Institut de Physique du Globe de Paris (IPGP) as 318 described by Labidi et al. (2012). Samples of ZnS, BaSO₄ and S⁰ were converted to solid silver sulfide (Ag₂S) 319 using established techniques (Thode et al., 1961; Canfield et al., 1986; Labidi et al., 2012). The obtained 320 Ag₂S was in turn quantitatively converted to sulfur hexafluoride gas (SF₆) purified cryogenically by 321 distillation and by gas chromatography before being introduced into the spectrometer (Appendix A1 for 322 details). Procedural blanks, associated with sulfur conversion into Ag₂S and subsequent Ag₂S fluorination 323 and purification, are too low to be quantified (nano-molal levels). The S isotope composition of $SF_6(g)$ was 324 analyzed at mass-to-charge ratio values of 127, 128, 129, and 131 corresponding to the $S^{32}F_5^+$, $S^{33}F_5^+$, $S^{34}F_5^+$, 325 and $S^{36}F_{5^+}$ ions, respectively (note that fluorine has a single stable isotope, ¹⁹F, which avoids any mass 326 interference). Typical analytical errors of our measurements in a single session (2 standard deviations, 2 SD) 327 are 0.05 ‰, 0.01 ‰, and 0.18 ‰ for δ^{34} S, Δ^{33} S and Δ^{36} S, respectively. Typical external reproducibility on 328 δ^{34} S, Δ^{33} S, and Δ^{36} S among different sessions (conducted over >1 year and by several analysts) and parallel 329 chemical treatments of the same sampled fluid are 0.6 ‰, 0.02 ‰, and 0.35 ‰ (2 SD), respectively, as 330 estimated by four independent measurements of the pyrite sample from experiment m29. 331

All δ^{34} S, Δ^{33} S and Δ^{36} S data obtained in this study are reported relative to the V-CDT standard, which 332 is a virtual S isotope reference adopted instead of the previously used natural Cañon Diablo Troilite (CDT) 333 meteorite, that was found to be slightly isotopically heterogeneous (Ding et al., 2001). The V-CDT standard 334 was defined on the base of a homogeneous synthetic standard, IAEA-S-1 (Ag₂S), with a δ^{34} S value of -0.30% 335 relative to V-CDT (Ding et al., 2001; references therein). Because there is presently no international standard 336 for δ^{33} S and δ^{36} S, in this study we anchored our ³³S and ³⁶S data to the V-CDT reference scale, for consistency 337 with the recent studies (Ono et al., 2007) assuming that $\delta^{33}S_{V-CDT} = -0.055 \pm 0.14$ ‰, $\delta^{36}S_{V-CDT} = -1.37 \pm 0.5$ ‰, 338 $\Delta^{33}S_{V-CDT} = 0.100 \pm 0.003$ ‰, and $\Delta^{36}S_{V-CDT} = -0.8 \pm 0.1$ ‰ (see also Geng et al., 2019 for a recent inter-339 comparison). Note that this normalization has no consequences on calculations of isotope fractionation 340 341 factors between different sulfur species. Values of Δ^{33} S and Δ^{36} S were calculated according to Farquhar and Wing (2003): 342

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$$\Delta^{33} \mathbf{S}_{\text{V-CDT}} = \delta^{33} \mathbf{S}_{\text{V-CDT}} - 1000 \times \left[(1 + \delta^{34} \mathbf{S}_{\text{V-CDT}} / 1000)^{\lambda 33} - 1) \right]$$
(6)

 $\Delta^{36} S_{V-CDT} = \delta^{36} S_{V-CDT} - 1000 \times \left[(1 + \delta^{34} S_{V-CDT} / 1000)^{\lambda 36} - 1) \right]$ (7)

where $\lambda 33$ and $\lambda 36$ are adopted as 0.515 and 1.889, respectively (note that these values may vary by a few % in different equilibrium and kinetic isotope exchange reactions, Young et al., 2012). Isotope fractionation between the different sulfur forms (here given for δ^{34} S) is expressed relative to aqueous sulfide analyzed as ZnS:

 $1000 \times \ln \alpha_i \approx \delta^{34} \mathbf{S}_i - \delta^{34} \mathbf{S}_{\text{sulfide}}$

(8)

- where *i* denotes sulfate sulfur (collectively termed as SO₄), molecular sulfur (S⁰) or pyrite (Py), and α_i is the conventional isotope fractionation factor between *i*-species and sulfide, $({}^{34}S/{}^{32}S)_i/({}^{34}S/{}^{32}S)_{sulfide}$. The results of S isotope analyses obtained in this study are reported in Tables 3 and 4 and plotted in Figs 5 to 8.
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2.6. Chemical equilibrium calculations of aqueous sulfur speciation and solubility

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Sulfur speciation and solubility in the fluid phase of the experimental systems were modelled using available thermodynamic data, and the results were compared with the measured S species concentrations. Calculations were performed using the HCh software package and associated Unitherm database, allowing chemical equilibrium simulations in fluid-mineral systems (Shvarov, 2008; 2015), and accounting for nonideality of the fluid using the extended Debye-Hückel equation (Helgeson et al., 1981). The selection of thermodynamic data sources was discussed in detail elsewhere (Pokrovski et al., 2015, 2019; Kokh et al., 2017), and will be only briefly summarized here.

The thermodynamic properties of the minerals, major fluid components, and most aqueous ionic 363 sulfur species were taken from the updated SUPCRT (Johnson et al., 1992), JANAF (Chase, 1998), and 364 USGS (Robie and Hemingway, 1995) databases, complemented by recent data for ionic sulfur forms 365 including S_3^- (Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015; references therein) using the revised and extended HKF 366 (Helgeson-Kirkham-Flowers) equation of state (Oelkers et al., 2009; Sverjensky et al., 2014; references 367 therein). The thermodynamic properties of the aqueous 'gas-like' sulfur nonelectrolytes, H₂S, SO₂, as well 368 as H₂ and O₂, were adopted from Akinfiev and Diamond (2003) whose model provides a more accurate 369 description of such species over the T-P range relevant to our study (300-450°C; <1 kbar) than the SUPCRT 370 database, which was based on a more limited experimental dataset for derivation of the HKF model 371 coefficients for those species. The thermodynamic properties of the polysulfide ions $(S_n^{2-}, where n is between$ 372 2 and 6) and aqueous S_8^0 at 300-450°C were taken from Pokrovski and Dubessy (2015); both types of species 373 374 were found to be negligible in the fluid at the elevated temperatures of our experiments (<0.001 m S; Fig. 1). The S_2 radical ion, with a stability constant at 450°C and 700 bar from Pokrovski et al. (2019), was predicted 375 376 to account for ~0.01 m S in experiment m32, which is comparable to S_3^{-} (Fig. 1b). However, the uncertainties on such predictions are large (of an order of magnitude); furthermore, the S_2 ion is expected to be negligible 377 in our lower-T experiments since it has not been detected by Raman resonance spectroscopy below 450°C 378 (Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015). The sources of thermodynamic properties of solid phases and aqueous 379 species used in the modeling are summarized in Table A2.1 and the results of calculations for typical 380 conditions of our experiments are shown in Fig. 1. 381

The missing species in these calculations are molecular sulfur polymers S_n^0 forming around 300°C as detected by in-situ Raman spectroscopy (Pokrovski et Dubessy, 2015; Barré et al., 2017) and protonated polysulfides (HS_n^-), for which no thermodynamic data are currently available at elevated temperatures. Estimations of Pokrovski and Dubessy (2015) suggest that S_n^0 equilibrium concentrations in thiosulfate solutions more concentrated than those of our study ($S_{tot} \sim 2$ m), attain maximum values of the order of 0.1-

0.2 m S around 300°C, and show sharply decreasing amounts with increasing *T* and/or decreasing S_{tot} concentration. However, considering the large errors of such estimates and possible multiple and likely outof-equilibrium origins of molecular sulfur found in the experiments of this study, quantification of S⁰ equilibrium concentrations cannot confidently be made at present. Similarly, the amount of HS_n^- cannot be quantitatively assessed, but the absence of H-S vibrations in the Raman spectra of Pokrovski and Dubessy (2015) and Barré et al. (2017) strongly suggests that their concentrations at *T-P*-pH conditions of our experiments are likely to be too small to affect sulfur mass and isotope balance.

New data obtained in the course of this study allowed estimations of the amount and origin of S⁰ at elevated temperatures based of S⁰ isotope signatures, and a revision of the stability of the major sulfatebearing species, KSO_4^- (Fig. 1) based on the observation of $K_2SO_4(s)$ precipitation in one experiment at 450°C (m32; section 4.1.1 and Appendix A3). The revised calculations, with corrected KSO_4^- stability constants, of equilibrium aqueous sulfate and sulfide concentrations for each experimental step will be compared with their experimental counterparts (Fig. 4) and help to better constrain the interpretation of the S isotope patterns.

3. RESULTS

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3.1. Sulfur chemical speciation in the fluid phase

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406 *3.1.1. Experiments at 350°C (m22, m29)*

Two experiments have been conducted at 350°C and 300-400 bar in acidic (0.5 m K₂S₂O₃-0.14 m 407 HCl, pH_{350°C} ~4.5, run m22) and less concentrated slightly alkaline (0.2 m K₂S₂O₃-0.09 m KOH, pH_{350°C} ~7.3, 408 run m29) solutions, corresponding to S₃⁻-rich (~0.07 m S) and S₃⁻-poor (~0.002 m S) compositions, 409 respectively. The concentrations of S species measured in these experiments are reported in Table 2 and their 410 evolution with time is shown in Fig. 3a,b. In both experiments, before FeCl₂ injection, sulfate and sulfide 411 represent the major fraction of dissolved sulfur. Reduced sulfur (S_{red}) is slightly higher than sulfide, by 0.01 412 to 0.04 m S, in the acidic experiment (m22); the difference might be due to the presence of minor quantities 413 of SO₂ which is titrated by iodine together with sulfide. Reduced sulfur concentrations in the alkaline 414 experiment (m29) are identical to those of sulfide. There are no discernable changes of the species 415 concentration with time, suggesting that a chemical steady state is reached at this temperature within less 416 than a few days. Total S concentrations (Stot) analyzed in the less concentrated alkaline-pH run (m29) match 417 the sum of S_{sulfate} and S_{red} concentrations, implying an insignificant contribution of other S species that might 418 419 have been omitted by our analytical protocols (<0.03 m S). In contrast, significant imbalance (up to 0.3 m S) between S_{tot} and the sum of S_{red} and S_{sulfate} is apparent in the more concentrated acidic run (m22). This 420 imbalance (S⁰_{balance}) is attributed to the presence of molecular sulfur S⁰ in the sampled fluid, which can react 421 422 neither with iodine nor with cadmium or barium acetate. This S⁰_{balance} may have multiple origins that will be

- discussed in section 4. In the next step of both experiments, after the injection of $FeCl_2$ (m29) and KCl-FeCl₂-BaCl₂ (in m22), S_{tot} becomes largely dominated by sulfate given that a major part of reduced sulfur precipitated as pyrite. Concentrations of S_{tot} are similar within errors to S_{sulfate} in m29, and are slightly higher than S_{sulfate} in m22, likely due to the presence of minor amounts of SO₂ favored by acidic pH (Fig. 1).
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428 *3.1.2. Experiment at 300 and 450°C (m32)*

429 More complete information about sulfur speciation has been gained in a subsequent experiment conducted at 300 and 450°C (m32), with the development of a protocol for molecular sulfur analysis (see 430 section 2.3). This experiment was started in alkaline solution (0.5 m K₂S₂O₃-0.3 m KOH pH_{300°C} ~7) at 300°C, 431 500 bar and run for 13 days (step m32/1); then the temperature was raised to 450°C and kept for 14 days 432 (pH_{450°C} ~8, m32/2). In a next step lasting 8 days (m32/3), an HCl solution was injected into the reactor 433 resulting in acidification (pH_{450°C} \sim 7), allowing a better identification of S₃⁻⁻ whose abundance is predicted 434 to increase at more acidic pH (Table 1, Fig. 1). In the final step (m32/4, lasting 8 days), a FeCl₂ solution was 435 injected, resulting in pyrite precipitation and further fluid acidification (pH_{450°C} ~6). Total K and S 436 concentrations steadily decrease at a molar K/S ratio close to 2 with time during the 300°C step (Fig. 3c and 437 A3.1). This decrease suggests the precipitation of $K_2SO_4(s)$, which is known to have a retrograde solubility 438 with temperature (Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015). Further decrease of S and K concentrations is observed as 439 the temperature was raised to 450°C, following by stabilization for ~1 week, suggesting an attainment of 440 steady state concentrations. The retrograde solubility of K₂SO₄(s) was apparent at the 450°C stage during a 441 temporary heating regulation problem before sample #6 (Table 2, Fig. 3c), causing the temperature to 442 443 decrease to $\sim 260^{\circ}$ C, and before sample #7, causing the temperature to increase to $\sim 460^{\circ}$ C. The solubility of $K_2SO_4(s)$ rapidly responded to these temperature changes by increasing above and then decreasing below the 444 steady-state values obtained in 2 previous samples #4 and #5 (Table 2; Fig. 3c, A3.1). 445

During the 300°C stage (m32/1), measured concentrations of sulfate and sulfide remained constant 446 over ~1 week, but their sum was inferior to that of S_{tot} by a factor of ~2 (Table 2, Fig. 3c), demonstrating the 447 presence of analytically unreactive molecular sulfur ($S^{0}_{balance}$). Concentrations of $S^{0}_{balance}$ decreased by ~50% 448 accompanied by an increase in both sulfate and sulfide (in the 2nd week), reflecting a slow and complex 449 kinetics of thiosulfate transformation. A fourth species contributing to aqueous S is the thiosulfate ion, S₂O₃²⁻, 450 which was detected by HPLC analyses in sample #1 solution after separation of ZnS. The presence of 451 undecomposed $S_2O_3^{2-}$ and/or its possible intermediate decomposition products (SO₃²⁻) at this stage is also 452 independently confirmed by the systematically higher measured concentrations of S_{red} compared to S_{sulfide}, 453 since both thiosulfate and sulfite are titratable by iodine, but do not precipitate with Cd or Zn. 454

The *T* rise to 450°C after that step resulted in a drop of $S^{0}_{balance}$ concentrations by a factor of 5 to 10 as compared to the preceding sampling at 300°C (Fig. 3c). It should be noted that the S⁰ values exhibit a large scatter due to both analytical difficulties for measuring S⁰ in hexane extracts (S⁰_{hexane}) and the use of massbalance relations (S⁰_{balance}) for deriving close-to-zero values (~0.01 m S). Yet, despite the scatter, the S⁰_{hexane} concentrations appear, on average, quite similar to the S⁰_{balance} ones (Fig. A4.3), yielding a mean value of

460 $0.04\pm0.02 \text{ m S}$ (1 SD) for S⁰ concentration for the whole set of datapoints over the three steps at 450°C 461 (m32/2, 3, 4). Both types of S⁰ data do not show any clear tendency as a function of elapsed time (Fig. 3c).

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463 *3.1.3. Experiment at 300°C and near-neutral pH (m33)*

A fourth experiment was conducted at 300°C and 500 bar in 0.5 to 0.2 m K₂S₂O₃ solution at near-464 neutral pH (pH_{300°C} \sim 5.3). This experiment was designed to better explore the effect of dilution resulting in 465 large changes in S_3 (and S^0) concentrations without much changing the overall solution chemistry and 466 acidity. At the initial stage (~0.5 m K₂S₂O₃, m33/1), sulfate and sulfide account for >60% of S_{tot} (Table 2). 467 There are no systematic changes within errors of their concentrations with time, suggesting that a chemical 468 steady state is reached. Likewise, there is no systematic difference between measured Sred and Ssulfide 469 concentrations, suggesting the absence of significant amounts (>0.02 m S) of reduced species other than 470 H₂S/HS⁻ (e.g., polysulfide ions, SO₂, or undecomposed thiosulfate). In contrast, there is yet significant 471 imbalance (up to 30% Stot) between Stot and the sum of Ssulfide and Ssulfate, due to the presence of molecular 472 sulfur (S^{0}_{balance} , Table 2), as was also confirmed by direct analyses of S^{0}_{hexane} . After the first injection of water, 473 this imbalance is significantly reduced as a result of dilution (to ~15% S_{tot}). After the second injection of 474 water, the S⁰ fraction further decreased to become <5% S_{tot} after 1 week (Table 2, Fig. 3d). Like in experiment 475 m32, both types of S⁰ datapoints (S_{hexane} and S_{balance}) are quite scattered, but without any systematic trends 476 between them (Fig. A4.3). 477

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479 **3.2.** Sulfur isotope ratios in the fluid phase and pyrite

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In two exploratory experiments (m22 and m29), only a limited dataset could be obtained on S isotope ratios of the different species (Table 3, Fig. A4.1 and A4.2). Most isotope data have been obtained on S_{sulfide} (trapped as ZnS) and S⁰ (analyzed by the CRS treatment of the ZnS-BaSO₄ mixture in m22; Appendix A1). Only few data points could be collected from S_{sulfate} (trapped as BaSO₄) due to imperfections in separating ZnS from BaSO₄. The δ^{34} S_{sulfide} and δ^{34} S_s⁰ values are consistently more negative, by 14-21 ‰, than the δ^{34} S_{sulfate} values; however, the paucity of the BaSO₄ data does not allow the identification of any systematic trends with time.

A more extensive sulfur isotope data set has been obtained in experiment m32 (Table 3, Fig. 5a and 488 6). The isotope composition of sulfonate (O_3 -S-) and sulfane (-S) sulfur of the initial thiosulfate (which 489 decompose respectively to sulfate and sulfide according to reaction 1), evolves upon heating to 300°C, with 490 sulfate and sulfide becoming through time ³⁴S-enriched and ³⁴S-depleted, respectively. In other words, the 491 difference in $1000 \times \ln \alpha_{SO4}$ ($\delta^{34}S_{sulfate} - \delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$) at each given moment increases with time, yet without 492 reaching a steady state at 300°C (Fig. 5c). This evolution is mainly controlled by the increase in $\delta^{34}S_{sulfate}$, 493 whereas $\delta^{34}S_{\text{sulfide}}$ remains constant within errors (Fig. 5a); this clearly indicates that at least a third S isotope 494 pool is being formed. After the temperature rise to 450°C, $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ values stay constant while $\delta^{34}S_{sulfate}$ values 495

increase slightly (by <2‰ over 30 days), yielding a value $1000 \times \ln\alpha_{SO4}$ of 15.0 ± 1.0 ‰ for the two last data 496 points after pyrite precipitation. Only three isotope compositional data points could be obtained for S⁰_{hexane} 497 in this experiment. One data point from the first sample taken just after T change to 450° C (sample #4, Table 498 3) has an anomalously light isotope signature relative to sulfide ($1000 \times \ln \alpha_{s^0} = -11.6$ %). Such a low value 499 is unlikely to be an analytical artifact, since it is in good agreement with that calculated using sulfur mass 500 and isotope balance on sulfate and sulfide (Fig. 5a, Appendix A5). The two other S^0 isotope data points, 501 502 obtained in samples #8 and #9 taken respectively 2 and 5 days after the HCl injection at 450°C (stage m32/3), show $1000 \times \ln \alpha_{s^0}$ values tending to zero. The isotope composition of the precipitated pyrite in this experiment 503 is similar to that of the aqueous sulfide fraction within 0.4 % of δ^{34} S (Table 4). 504

Sulfur isotope data obtained in experiment m33 (Table 3, Fig. 5b,d) confirm the major isotope trends for the SO₄-H₂S pair observed in m32. The isotope composition of sulfonate (O₃-S-) and sulfane (-S) sulfur of the initial thiosulfate rapidly evolves upon heating to 300°C, with sulfate and sulfide becoming with time ³⁴S-enriched and ³⁴S-depleted, respectively. The resulting 1000×ln α_{SO4} value is almost constant over the run duration, yielding a steady state value of 20.1±1.5 ‰ (Fig. 5d).

In all performed experiments, the values of Δ^{33} S for all species vary between -0.02 ‰ and +0.08 ‰, 510 and do not show any systematic trends (Fig. 6, 7, A4.2). The values of Δ^{36} S vary between -1‰ and +1‰ 511 512 without displaying any systematic trends amongst sulfide, sulfate and S^0 , and overlapping with those of the initial thiosulfate. The scatter is mostly due to analytical issues because the analysis of δ^{36} S would commonly 513 be affected by a small contribution of fluorocarbon compounds that shifts measured δ^{36} S towards more 514 positive values (Rumble and Hoering, 1994). Nevertheless, these relatively small variations imply that there 515 is no significant sulfur mass independent fractionation on both ³³S and ³⁶S; however, they do provide 516 additional insight into both equilibrium and kinetic processes affecting mass-dependent fractionation among 517 the sulfur species as will be discussed in section 4.2.4. 518

519 520

4. DISCUSSION

521 4.1. Solubility and chemical speciation of sulfur

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Sulfur solubility and species concentrations measured in this study can be compared with equilibrium 523 thermodynamic calculations. In all experiments, four major types of S chemical forms predicted by the 524 available thermodynamics (Table A2.1) are aqueous sulfate (SO₄²⁻, HSO₄⁻, KSO₄⁻, and KHSO₄⁰), sulfide 525 (H₂S, HS⁻, and KHS⁰), radical ions (S₃⁻ at all T, and S₂⁻ at 450°C), and pyrite (FeS₂). In addition, in m22 526 aqueous SO₂ and three other phases, $S_{(s,l)}$, at step m22/1, and barite (BaSO₄) and alunite (KAl₃(SO₄)₂(OH)₆) 527 at step m22/2 after pyrite precipitation were predicted to form (Table 1). All other known solid phases are 528 predicted to be largely undersaturated in our experiments. Other types of aqueous species, such as thiosulfate, 529 S_8^0 , and traditional polysulfide ions, represent a negligibly small amount of S_{tot} at equilibrium (<0.1%). 530

Comparisons between calculated and measured concentrations of sulfate, sulfide, SO₂ and S⁰/ S₃⁻⁻/ S₂⁻⁻ are shown in Fig. 4; they reveal several interconnected points of discrepancy regarding the precipitation of the K₂SO₄ solid (in m32), sulfate-sulfide-pyrite equilibration, and the formation of S⁰, which are discussed below.

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536 $4.1.1. K_2 SO_4(s)$ precipitation

537 The precipitation of K₂SO₄(s) was inferred in run m32 (0.5 m K₂S₂O₃-KOH-HCl, at 300 and 450°C with in-situ changes in pH induced by HCl injection), through observation of concomitant decrease of total 538 dissolved potassium and sulfur concentrations through time (Fig. 3c, Appendix A3). The precipitation of 539 $K_2SO_4(s)$ is, however, not consistent with equilibrium calculations using the thermodynamic properties of 540 $K_2SO_4(s)$, K^+ and sulfate aqueous species from available data sources (Table A2.1). The calculations predict 541 $K_2SO_4(s)$ to be undersaturated in the fluid by a factor of 10. The likely reason for this discrepancy is poor 542 constraints on the thermodynamic parameters of the dominant KSO_4^- ion pair (Fig. 1), which are based on 543 HKF-model extrapolations relying on limited experimental data at low temperatures. To account for 544 $K_2SO_4(s)$ formation, a correction to the value of the formation constant of KSO_4^- from K⁺ and SO_4^{2-} at 450°C 545 and 700 bar has been made to match the measured solubility of K₂SO₄(s) at each 450°C step of experiment 546 m32 (log $K_{450^{\circ}C, 700 \text{ bar}} = 3.4 \pm 0.5$; Appendix A3). This correction does not exceed 1 log unit compared to the 547 SUPCRT original value (log $K_{450^{\circ}C, 700 \text{ bar}} = 4.4$). The difference is within realistic uncertainties of HKF model 548 549 predictions for such ion pairs at elevated temperatures (e.g., Pokrovski et al., 1995; Scheuermann et al., 2019). The 300°C step of this experiment does not allow direct reliable corrections for KSO₄⁻ formation constant, 550 because no steady state has been attained (Fig. 3c). Therefore, we have corrected the fluid composition at the 551 300°C step of m32 by subtracting manually the mass-balance deduced amount of precipitated K₂SO₄, but 552 this correction has again a minor effect (Fig. A3.2). Nevertheless, to maintain consistency, in the following 553 discussion both 300°C and 450°C corrections were included when modeling equilibrium S speciation in 554 experiment m32 (Fig. 4c). 555

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557 4.1.2. Aqueous sulfate and sulfide and pyrite

Before the pyrite precipitation stage, a decent agreement between measured and calculated S_{sulfide} 558 values is observed for the least-concentrated experimental compositions in m29/1 (0.2 m K₂S₂O₃, pH \sim 7.3, 559 350°C) and m33/3 (0.2m K₂S₂O₃, pH ~5.3, 300°C). The other experimental compositions show 560 systematically lower measured S_{sulfide}, which is due to the presence of S⁰, as directly confirmed by mass 561 balance calculations and analyses of hexane extracts (discussed in section 4.1.3 below). Another potential 562 cause of the difference between measured and calculated S_{sulfide} in the highest-temperature run (450°C, 563 564 m32/2,3) might be an underestimation of the thermodynamically predicted amount of S_2^- forming at the expense of H₂S. The measured S_{sulfate} concentrations in experiments m22, m29, m33 (and m32 at 450°C, after 565 correction for $K_2SO_4(s)$) agree within errors with the calculated ones, which further confirms that S⁰ forms 566 567 more at the expense of sulfide than sulfate. An exception to this trend is stage m32/1 at 300°C and alkaline

568 pH that still shows significant underestimation of measured $S_{sulfate}$, which is due to lack of equilibrium and 569 the slowness of thiosulfate decomposition.

In the final stages of experiments m22, m29 and m32 with precipitated pyrite (and barite and alunite 570 571 in m22), calculations predict almost complete scavenging of the injected Fe (and Ba) amounts by the solid phase, which is in excellent agreement with both low Fe dissolved concentrations (<0.002-0.02 m, Table 2) 572 573 and the differences in S_{sulfide} concentrations measured before and after the FeCl₂ injection. However, for all 574 three experiments in the presence of pyrite, the measured aqueous S_{sulfide} concentrations are somewhat lower than those predicted using equilibrium thermodynamics (Fig. 4a-c). The difference between measured and 575 predicted S_{sulfide} concentration values in equilibrium with pyrite (0.05-0.1 m S) suggests that pyrite, once 576 precipitated, may not fully chemically re-equilibrate with the solution within the short time frame of these 577 experimental stages (<10 days). 578

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580 *4.1.3. Molecular sulfur formation*

Molecular sulfur was clearly identified in three from the four runs conducted in this study. The 581 exception is run m29 at 350°C with the lowest S_{tot} concentration (0.4 m S), which was the simplest from the 582 point of view of aqueous S speciation, with dominant sulfate and sulfide and negligible amounts of S3-583 (<0.001 m S). The small imbalance between S_{tot} and [S_{sulfide} + S_{sulfate}] in this experiment before pyrite 584 precipitation (<0.03m S, Table 2) is comparable with the uncertainties of the species concentrations. In 585 586 contrast, experiment m22, conducted at the same temperature but in a more concentrated and more acid solution, is predicted to contain at equilibrium, along with sulfate and sulfide, significant S_3 - concentrations 587 (0.067 m S; Table 1, Fig. 4a). The major difference between the analytical data and thermodynamic 588 predictions for this experiment is the presence of large amounts of S⁰ (~0.3 m S) as clearly apparent from 589 mass balance between measured Stot and the sum of Ssulfate and Ssulfate (Table 2). Such elevated S⁰ 590 concentrations are not accounted for by thermodynamics, which predicts <0.001 m of S₈⁰ (aq) at equilibrium 591 using the thermodynamic data sources from Table A2.1 (Fig. 1). The contribution from breakdown of S_3^{-1} to 592 molecular sulfur on cooling during sampling can be estimated by the reaction: 593

594 $2 S_3^{-} + 2 H^+ = 5 S^0 + H_2 S$

(9)

Molecular sulfur and H₂S are the most reactive S species that are known to easily form during rapid cooling 595 of hydrothermal fluids (Giggenbach, 1997; Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015). The formation of sulfate is 596 kinetically too slow to occur during the sampling in our experiments (e.g., Ohmoto and Lasaga, 1982). The 597 formation of polysulfide dianions, such as S_6^{2-} that is known to form by recombination of two S_3^{+-} in non-598 aqueous solvents (e.g., Chivers and Elder, 2013; Steudel and Chivers, 2019), is negligible at our acidic pH 599 (Fig. 1a). Therefore reaction (9) is likely to control the S_3 breakdown in this experiment. Yet, the maximum 600 produced amount of S^0 by S_3^{-} breakdown in experiment m22, according to reaction (9), is 0.056 m S, which 601 is not enough to account for the difference $[S_{tot} - (S_{sulfate} + S_{sulfide})]$ in this experiment (~0.3 m S, Fig. 4a). It 602 is thus very likely that the major part of S⁰ observed in sampled fluids from this experiment has a different 603 604 origin. As shown by Pokrovski and Dubessy (2015) by in-situ Raman spectroscopy on similar solutions,

another type of S⁰ is present at the *T*-*P* conditions of this experiment and is likely represented by chain-like 605 polymeric molecules in equilibrium with sulfate, sulfide and S_3 ion. Furthermore, part of S⁰ found in 606 sampled solutions in this experiment may be produced by a very fast precipitation of the native sulfur phase 607 (S⁰ liquid at >115°C and solid at lower T) during the sampling when the fluid is transferred from the hot 608 reactor (350°C) to the cold sampling vial (<100°C). Indeed, thermodynamic predictions suggest that, if solid-609 solution equilibrium for sulfur is attained at 100°C during sampling, >30% of S_{tot} would precipitate as native 610 sulfur before reaching the trapping iodine or zinc acetate solution in the vial. Even through such rapid 611 attainment of equilibrium at low temperatures within the sampling time frame is unlikely (e.g., Ohmoto and 612 Lasaga, 1982), this potential artifact of S precipitation could not be completely excluded, in particular in 613 acidic systems in which sulfur solubility is lower (Fig. 1a,d), and thus may also contribute to the S^0 614 615 concentrations found in this experiment.

Further insight into the origin of molecular sulfur is gained from step m32/1 at lower *T* (300°C) and more alkaline pH (7.2). Under these conditions, sulfur solid/liquid phase precipitation during sampling on cooling is not favorable because of the greater S solubility in alkaline solutions (Fig. 1a) and much slower redox kinetics (e.g., Ohmoto and Lasaga, 1982). Thermodynamic calculations predict negligible amounts of S_{8^0} (<0.001 m S) and fairly small amounts of S_3^- (0.004 m S). These relatively small concentrations cannot account for the major fraction of S⁰ observed at this stage (50% of S_{tot}, Table 2, Fig. 3c). This different type of S⁰ is likely to originate from irreversible thiosulfate breakdown on heating:

623

 $S_2O_3^{2-} = S^0 + SO_3^{2-}$

(10)

(12)

This reaction is the most straightforward and kinetically easiest one, since it requires only breaking the S-S bond of the thiosulfate ion with minimal electron transfer between the two S atoms. With time, both S⁰ and SO₃²⁻ undergo transformation to H₂S and SO₄²⁻, which are thermodynamically stable at these conditions:

627

$$4 \operatorname{SO}_{3^{2-}} + 2 \operatorname{H}^{+} = \operatorname{H}_{2} \operatorname{S} + 3 \operatorname{SO}_{4^{2-}}$$
(11)

628

$$4 S^{0} + 4 H_{2}O = 3 H_{2}S + SO_{4}^{2-} + 2H^{+}$$

This interpretation is supported by *i*) systematic positive difference between S_{red} and $S_{sulfide}$ at this stage (Table 2) pointing to the presence of an iodine-titratable S form such as SO_3^{2-} , in line with reaction (10); *ii*) decrease of the $S^0_{balance}$ concentration; and *iii*) increase of $S_{sulfate}$ and $S_{sulfide}$ with time at 300°C (Table 2, Fig. 3c) in line with reactions (11) and (12). With the *T* rise to 450°C, this type of S⁰ becomes negligible, since both analyzed and mass-balance derived S⁰ (0.045 m S on average, Table 2) is in excellent agreement with the amount that may be produced via collective breakdown of S_3^{+} according to reaction (9) and S_2^{+} according to an analogous reaction:

636

$2 S_2^{-} + 2 H^+ = 3 S^0 + H_2 S$ (13)

In contrast, in experiment m33 at lower T (300°C) and near-neutral pH, S⁰ concentration that could be produced by S₃⁻⁻ breakdown is ~5 times lower than the concentration obtained using mass balance between measured S_{tot} and sulfate plus sulfide (0.065 vs 0.3-0.5 m S at stage m33/1). This imbalance indicates the presence of far more significant amounts of S⁰, confirmed by direct analyses of hexane extracts (Table 2; Fig. 4d). This additionally formed S⁰ observed in the sampled fluids may potentially be due to precipitation

of liquid/solid S⁰ on cooling via partial recombination of sulfate and sulfide via the reversal of reaction (12), 642 and/or via the breakdown of the polysulfide dianions (S_n^{2-}) : 643

644

 $S_n^{2-} + 2H^+ = (n-1) S_{s,l}^0 + H_2 S$ (14)Indeed, S_n^{2-} ions, being negligible at our experimental temperatures of $\geq 300^{\circ}$ C (<0.001m S), are predicted 645 to form in increasing amounts upon equilibrium cooling for this experimental composition (up to 0.1m S at 646 <100°C, Fig. 1d). It is impossible, however, to evaluate the exact extent of both reactions (12) and (14), 647 which are unlikely to attain equilibrium during the fast sampling and cooling of the fluid. Subsequent dilution 648 with water yielded a significant decrease in both S⁰_{hexane} and S⁰_{balance} concentrations, but they are still 649 systematically higher than the S⁰ concentrations that may be produced on cooling from thermodynamically 650 predicted S_3^- amounts (reaction 9). The second dilution with water further decreased the observed S^0 651 652 concentrations that became with time almost identical to those predicted from S_3 at the end of the last stage of this experiment (~0.01 m S, Table 1). 653

In summary, molecular sulfur found in our experiments is only significant at rather high S_{tot} 654 concentrations (>0.4-0.5 m) and moderate temperatures (<350°C). It may stem from multiple contributions, 655 as summarized in Fig. 9: i) equilibrium chain-like S⁰ forming at elevated temperatures as found by in-situ 656 Raman spectroscopy; *ii*) S⁰ formed by the fast breakdown of S₃⁻ (and S₂⁻) during cooling (reactions 9 and 657 13); *iii*) liquid or solid $S_{s/l}^0$ directly precipitated during fluid extraction from the reactor before reaching the 658 sample vial, probably by reverse of reaction (12) and/or by reaction (14); and iv) S⁰ as an intermediate 659 forming at the initial stages of the thiosulfate breakdown (reaction 10). In contrast, at lower Stot concentrations 660 (<0.4 m) and/or higher temperatures (450°C), the S_3^- (and potentially S_2^-) is the major source of the 661 measured S⁰ in our guenched samples (reactions 9 and 13). These different types of S⁰ may be expected to 662 have distinct isotope signatures, which may allow their better identification, as discussed below. 663

664

4.2. Sulfur isotope fractionation and comparison with literature data 665

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The experimental and modelled data on S speciation in our experiments allow the interpretation of S 667 isotope fractionation between the major aqueous and solid species, and the evaluation of the effect of the 668 radical ions and S⁰ on this fractionation. 669

670

4.2.1. Sulfate and sulfide 671

In all experiments, sulfate is systematically enriched in ³⁴S compared to the coexisting sulfide, in 672 agreement with general concepts of isotope fractionation that more oxidized S atoms such as in SO₄²⁻ having 673 stronger chemical bonds are enriched in the heavier isotope compared to more reduced and more weekly 674 bonded S atoms such as H₂S (e.g., Urey, 1947). Isotope fractionation between sulfate and sulfide, 675 $1000 \times \ln \alpha_{SO_4} = \delta^{34} S_{sulfate} - \delta^{34} S_{sulfide}$, is 20.3±1.5 ‰ (m33, 300°C), between 14 and 21‰ (m22 and m29, 676 350°C), and 15.1±0.2‰ (m32/2-4, 450°C). These values are in agreement with literature data at equilibrium 677

from both theory and experiment (Ohmoto and Rye, 1979; Ohmoto and Lasaga, 1982; Ono et al., 2007; Otake 678 et al., 2008; Syverson et al., 2015; Eldridge et al., 2016; references therein), which are in the range 20-24 679 (300°C), 17-20 (350°C), and 13-16 ‰ (450°C). In contrast, at 300°C and alkaline conditions (m32/1, 680 pH=6.9) after 13 days of reaction, the value of $1000 \times \ln \alpha_{SO_4}$ is only ~12 ‰, which is much smaller than its 681 equilibrium counterpart of 20-24 ‰. Whereas the $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ (ZnS) value becomes constant after 3 days of 682 reaction, the corresponding $\delta^{34}S_{sulfate}$ (BaSO₄) value continues to steadily increase over the duration of this 683 step (Table 3), causing $1000 \times \ln \alpha_{SO_4}$ values to increase (Fig. 5a,c). A similar trend is observed at the same T 684 (m33) but more acidic pH (5.3), with a faster reach of a steady state (Fig. 5b,d). The increasing $\delta^{34}S_{sulfate}$ 685 values through time while $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ remained constant imply another S isotope reservoir in this system that 686 687 is being depleted in 34 S. Such a reservoir is consistent with the detection of significant amounts of S⁰. The kinetic isotope patterns observed here are in agreement with the generally slow rates of isotopic equilibration 688 of sulfate (Ohmoto and Lasaga, 1982; references therein), and attest for much higher chemical and isotope 689 reactivity of H₂S and the associated reduced S species (S⁰, S₃⁻; Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015). Using the 690 rate law of Ohmoto and Lasaga (1982), the rate constant $\log_{10}k_r$ (in hour⁻¹) for an isotope exchange reaction 691 between sulfide and sulfate at 300°C in these experiments was estimated to be -2.4±0.2 and -1.9±0.3 at pH 692 6.9 and 5.3, respectively (Fig. 5c,d and Appendix A5). The small difference in the k_r values with pH is 693 consistent with faster kinetics of sulfate-sulfide redox exchange rates in more acidic solutions (Ohmoto and 694 Lasaga, 1982; Kusakabe et al., 2000). Furthermore, our absolute k_r values are similar, within the uncertainties, 695 to those predicted by Ohmoto and Lasaga (1982) based on a large set of compiled experimental data from 696 dilute H_2S-SO_4 solutions (<0.2 m S_{tot}) at 300°C and near-neutral pH (pH_{300°C} ~5 to 7) in which both S⁰ and 697 S₃⁻ are negligible ($\log_{10}k_r \sim -3\pm 1$). Despite rather large errors associated with both measured and predicted 698 $k_{\rm r}$ values that depend on the fluid pH, ionic strength, and the presence of alkalis, this comparison does not 699 700 reveal any significant effect of S^0 and S_3^{-} on the sulfate-sulfide chemical and isotope exchange rates.

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702 *4.2.2. Molecular sulfur and radical ions*

This study reports the first experimental data on the S isotope composition, including both major (32 S and 34 S) and minor (33 S and 36 S) isotopes, of intermediate-valence aqueous sulfur species, radical sulfur ions and molecular sulfur of different origin in hydrothermal fluids. We will hereafter discuss the S⁰ isotope data in terms of S⁰-H₂S fractionation, which is expected to be much less affected by kinetic constraints than fractionations involving sulfate (e.g., Robinson et al., 1973; Kusakabe et al., 2000; Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015).

In experiments at acidic to neutral pH (m33/2,3 at 300°C, m22/1 at 350°C, and m32/3,4 at 450°C), the measured $\delta^{34}S_{S^0}$ values are fairly close to those of sulfide (despite some data scatter caused by analytical uncertainties of the measurements of micro quantities of S⁰, Table 3), yielding a mean isotope fractionation factor 1000×ln α_{S^0} of 0±1 ‰ for the most robust data points. The absence of significant fractionation between S⁰ and sulfide is confirmed by the few available literature data for both solid/liquid and aqueous S⁰. For

example, Robinson (1973) did not observe any significant δ^{34} S changes (<0.4‰) during hydrolysis of 714 orthorhombic sulfur (α -S₈) in water at 200-320°C, with the resulting H₂S being only slightly enriched in ³⁴S 715 (by <2‰). Kamishny et al. (2014) investigated multiple sulfur isotope fractionations in Yellowstone 716 hydrothermal springs (<100°C) and found that S⁰ had values of δ^{34} S and δ^{33} S identical to or slightly heavier 717 than those of H_2S (by <1%). Rare existing theoretical studies and data compilations predict equilibrium 718 values of $1000 \times \ln \alpha_{s^0}$ close to zero at our high-temperature conditions (-0.3±0.5‰, Ohmoto and Rye, 1979; 719 -0.7±0.1‰, Otake et al., 2008), as would be expected considering the small differences in redox state and 720 bonding between the two compounds. Higher-order polysulfide dianions S_n^{2-} with n>4 were reported to be 721 ³⁴S-enriched compared to HS⁻ in alkaline solutions at ambient T-P (by up to 7%; Amrani et al., 2006). 722 However, these anions are very minor at our conditions (Fig. 1) and the amplitude of fractionation is expected 723 to tend closer to zero at the elevated temperatures of our experiments. More recently, the S₃⁻ fractionation 724 factor compared to H_2S ($\delta^{34}S_{S_3} - \delta^{34}S_{H_2S}$), has been reported to be about -1.0 ‰ at 450°C from quantum-725 chemical calculations on gas phase (Tossell, 2012). Even though associated with some simplifications, these 726 calculations support the idea that the isotope signatures of S_3 , S^0 and H_2S would be similar within 1 ‰ at 727 hydrothermal conditions. Thus, molecular sulfur produced in the sampled fluids from these experiments is 728 consistent with being derived from S₃⁻⁻ (and S₂⁻⁻ and chain-like S⁰ detected by Raman spectroscopy at high 729 *T*). 730

An exception to this pattern is molecular sulfur produced via slow irreversible thiosulfate breakdown 731 in experiment m32 at 300°C and early stages at 450°C in alkaline solution. This particular type of S⁰ exhibits 732 an anomalously low fractionation factor, $1000 \times \ln \alpha_{s^0}$, of -11.6 ‰ (Table 3, Fig. 5a). Despite the single S⁰ 733 isotope compositional value that could directly be measured at the early stages of this experiment, the trend 734 of $\delta^{34}S_{s^0}$ to depletion with time shown in Fig. 5a is confirmed by sulfur mass and isotope balance 735 (Appendix A5). At present, we do not have a sound physical-chemical explanation of this unique isotope 736 signature, very different from the close-to-zero S⁰-H₂S isotope equilibrium fractionation value supported so 737 far by the few available experimental and theoretical data. Thus, the anomalously light S⁰ observed during 738 thiosulfate breakdown is a new finding that may be related to previously un-recognized kinetic controls 739 operating at far-from-equilibrium conditions and favoring enrichment of S⁰ produced by irreversible reaction 740 (10) in the lighter, i.e. generally more reactive, isotope ³²S. We note also that Δ^{33} S values show large 741 variations at this step (Fig. 8a) confirming an out-of-equilibrium regime. In contrast, molecular sulfur from 742 later stages of this experiment at more acidic pH (m32/3, samples #8 and #9, Table 3, Fig. 5a) has a δ^{34} S 743 value identical within 1 % to that of the coexisting aqueous sulfide. As it was shown above, the latter type 744 of S⁰ fraction is likely to originate from S_3^{-} (and S_2^{-}) breakdown to S⁰ and H₂S upon fluid quench according 745 to reactions (9) and (13). Indeed, if no isotope exchange occurs during these fast reactions, the resulting 746 measured S⁰ should carry a δ^{34} S value similar to that of the radical ions. 747

Finally, an additional contribution to S⁰ might result from direct precipitation of solid/liquid sulfur on cooling via recombination of H₂S and SO₄²⁻ according to the reverse of reaction (12) and/or via S_n²⁻

breakdown via reaction (14), both leading to formation of $S_{s,l}^0$. This was likely the case for the early stage of 750 experiment m33 before dilution with water (m33/1, samples #2 and #3, Tables 2 and 3, Fig. 5d). The two 751 measured 1000×ln α_{s^0} values are ~2.7 ‰, which may suggest a contribution from the isotopically heavier 752 sulfate to the S⁰ formation in this run. Indeed, combining an average value for $\delta^{34}S_{H_2S}$ and $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ of -7 and 753 +15 ‰, respectively, for these samples with the stoichiometry of reaction (12), and assuming that no isotope 754 exchange has time to occur during quenching, yields $1000 \times \ln \alpha_{s^0} = +2 \%$, in fair agreement with the measured 755 values (Fig. 5d). Similarly, polysulfide ions that were shown to be 34 S enriched compared to H₂S and S⁰ at 756 ambient conditions (by ~3 ‰, Amrani and Aizenshtat, 2004; Amrani et al., 2006) may partly be responsible 757 for the slightly heavier S⁰ isotope signatures, but their exact contribution is impossible to quantify because 758 the extent of reaction (14) during the fast fluid sampling is not known. With further dilution by water in this 759 experiment, the degree of supersaturation with respect to $S^{0}_{(s,l)}$ in the sampled fluid is significantly reduced, 760 making both reactions (12) and (14) less favorable. Consequently, the measured $1000 \times \ln \alpha_{s^0}$ values (for most 761 robust analytical data points) tend to zero at these steps (m33/2,3), since this type of S₀ is mostly produced 762 by decomposition of S₃⁻ on cooling, similar to experiment m32 at 450°C discussed above. A schematic 763 764 summary of S⁰ isotope signatures resulting from different formation pathways is shown in Fig. 9. Thus, the isotope signature of S⁰ formed in a cooling hydrothermal fluid may directly reflect sulfur chemical speciation 765 at high T-P and the dynamics of speciation changes upon fluid evolution. 766

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768 *4.2.3. Pyrite*

Sulfur isotope systematics of the precipitated pyrite exhibits a significant variability among the 769 experiments, which may reflect the differences in aqueous S speciation, fluid acidity, temperature and 770 duration. All these factors potentially affect both equilibrium and kinetic fractionation and pathways of FeS₂ 771 precipitation, even though the interpretation is complicated by the impossibility to sample precipitated pyrite 772 for simultaneous measurement of both aqueous sulfur and pyrite isotope values. Other issues add to this 773 complexity such as i) relatively short durations of the post-precipitation stage (6-14 days), ii) paucity of 774 isotope data for early experiments (m29), and *iii*) variations of $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ in the course of the runs likely due 775 to analytical issues. In the light of these limitations, we have chosen to use the average value of the $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ 776 777 data points analyzed in sampled fluids before and after pyrite precipitation (where available) in the discussion 778 of the pyrite-aqueous sulfide fractionation factors in each experiment, as summarized in Table 4.

The average values of the pyrite-sulfide fractionation factor $1000 \times \ln \alpha_{Py}$ found in the two 350°C experiments, range from -0.5±1.3 ‰ (m22, pH change upon pyrite precipitation from 4.5 to 3.7) to 1.5±0.9 ‰ (m29, pH change upon pyrite precipitation from 7.3 to 5.3), whereas in the 450°C experiment (m32, pH change from 6.8 to 5.9) it is close to zero, 0.3 ± 0.7 ‰ (Table 4). Equilibrium $1000 \times \ln \alpha_{Py}$ values reported in the literature on the basis of theoretical estimations within the range 350-450°C (Ohmoto and Rye, 1979; Otake et al., 2008; Blanchard et al., 2009; Eldridge et al., 2016) are in the range 0.5-1.0 ‰ for the Py-H₂S pair and 2.4-3.3 ‰ for the pyrite-HS⁻ pair, with aqueous H₂S being slightly enriched in ³⁴S compared to HS⁻,

as also confirmed by recent direct experiments at ambient temperatures (Sim et al., 2019). Thus, our measured 786 1000×lna_{Pv} value of 1.5 ‰ from the higher-pH experiment at 350°C (m29) with comparable fractions of H₂S 787 and HS⁻ in the fluid before pyrite precipitation, is in reasonable agreement with those predictions. In contrast, 788 for a more acidic (i.e. H_2S -dominated) and S^0 and S_3 -richer experiment at the same temperature (m22), the 789 mean 1000×ln α_{Pv} value of -0.5 ‰ is by ~2 ‰ lower than the theoretical estimations above for the pyrite-790 H₂S pair. However, these differences should be interpreted with caution because of the large uncertainty 791 caused by variations of the $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ values in the fluid before and after pyrite precipitation (Tables 3 and 4). 792 For the 450°C experiment (m32) at near-neutral pH, our 1000×lna_{Py} value of 0.3 ‰ is identical within 793 794 analytical errors to the theoretical predictions $(0.5\pm0.5 \text{ }\%)$.

The 1000×ln α_{Pv} values of -0.5 to 0.3 ‰ for the H₂S-dominated runs (m22, m32) are only ~1 ‰ 795 higher on average than those reported by Syverson et al. (2015) from long-duration (>100 days) fluid-pyrite 796 exchange experiments in more dilute and more acidic (pH<2) H₂S-HSO₄⁻ solutions, in which both S⁰ and 797 798 S_3 are negligible. Their experimental approach used 3-isotope systematics, convincingly demonstrating attainment of isotope equilibrium between pyrite and H₂S, with $1000 \times \ln \alpha_{Pv}$ of -1.9±0.8 ‰ at 350°C and -799 1.0±0.5 ‰ at 450°C (the latter value is estimated in this study by extrapolation assuming a T-dependence for 800 $1000 \times \ln \alpha_{Pv}$ as in Ohmoto and Rye, 1979). The 1 % difference between our and Syverson et al.'s (2015) 801 experimental values may be due to multiple factors, such as *i*) lack of pyrite-fluid isotope equilibrium in our 802 803 short-duration experiments, and *ii*) different reaction pathways of pyrite formation caused by differences in S aqueous speciation and fluid pH (this study and Ohmoto and Lasaga, 1982), or degree of solution 804 oversaturation with respect to pyrite that may lead to different crystal morphology (e.g., Murowchick and 805 Barnes, 1986, 1987) and, potentially, S isotope fractionation during crystal growth of different 806 crystallographic faces. All these factors may potentially cause variations of isotope signatures in pyrite 807 compared to the coexisting fluid from which it forms. Unfortunately, our dataset is too meagre to draw more 808 definitive conclusions or to attempt to discriminate amongst the different pyrite formation pathways amply 809 debated in the literature (e.g., Schoonen and Barnes, 1991; Butler et al., 2004; Ono et al., 2007; Rouxel et 810 al., 2008; Saunier et al., 2011). 811

Likewise, the existing theoretical estimates of pyrite-aqueous sulfide fractionation factors may be 812 affected by limitations arising from the use of different approaches for calculating β -factors of aqueous 813 species from one hand and of solid phases from the other hand (Saunier et al., 2011 and references therein). 814 An additional limiting factor is imperfections of the theoretical models for estimating hydration energies of 815 ions versus uncharged aqueous species (e.g., HS⁻ versus H₂S; Syverson et al., 2015) and, more generally, by 816 inaccuracies in assessing thermodynamic properties of aqueous non-electrolytes, such as H_2S , in high T-P 817 fluids (e.g., Oelkers et al., 2009; Akinfiev et al., 2015; references therein). Nevertheless, despite those 818 experimental and theoretical limitations and the paucity of direct pyrite-fluid isotope exchange data over a 819 wide range of temperature, acidity, and solution compositions, the main conclusion arising from this 820

discussion is that our results do not reveal any detectable effect of S_3^- and S^0 on pyrite-fluid isotope exchange rates and resulting pyrite isotope signatures.

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824 4.2.4. $\Delta^{33}S$ and $\Delta^{36}S$ systematics

The data obtained on the minor S isotopes, ³³S and ³⁶S, in S-rich hydrothermal fluid-pyrite systems 825 of this study do not provide evidence for significant mass-independent fractionation. First, our δ^{33} S vs δ^{34} S 826 data plot on a commonly reported MDF fractionation line with a slope of 0.515±0.001 (95% confidence 827 level) for all experimental compositions and temperatures (Fig. 6a, 7a, A4.2a). Second, the majority of our 828 Δ^{33} S values plot within the area outlining potential variations of the λ 33 value (Fig. 6b, 7b, A4.2b) predicted 829 among different sulfur aqueous species at equilibrium using Density Functional Theory (DFT) calculations 830 (0.505< λ 33<0.517, Otake et al., 2008; Eldridge et al., 2016) and those recorded in biological and inorganic 831 reactions among traditional S species both in nature and experiments (0.508<\lambda33<0.519; LaFlamme et al., 832 2018a and references therein). Similarly, the most reliable Δ^{36} S values plot within the area of the theoretical 833 λ36 slopes for MDF fractionation among S aqueous species (Fig. 6c, 7c, A4.2c; 1.88<λ33<1.96; Otake et 834 al., 2008; Eldridge et al., 2016). Third, our Δ^{36} S- Δ^{33} S data do not plot on the MIF Archean array (Fig. 6d, 7d 835 and A4.2d). 836

Thus, within the experimental uncertainties, our data on ³³S and ³⁶S may be treated in terms of MDF, 837 and therefore may provide additional constraints on both kinetics and equilibrium of sulfur isotope exchange 838 reactions. We followed the approach based on the assumption that the difference of $\Delta^{33}S$ and $\Delta^{36}S$ values 839 between the different S species, being initially at disequilibrium, should tend to close-to-zero values when 840 841 approaching equilibrium (Ono et al., 2007; Syverson et al., 2015; Dauphas and Schauble, 2016), provided there is no additional MIF contributions. Indeed, the most recent theoretical work of Eldridge et al. (2016) 842 predicts equilibrium Δ^{33} S <0.01 ‰ for the SO₄²⁻-HS⁻ pair at 300°C and even smaller values (<0.001 ‰) for 843 other ionic S species. Our analysis here is limited by consideration of sulfate and sulfide, since no such 844 theoretical predictions exists for S⁰, radical ions or pyrite. 845

Figure 8 shows the difference in Δ^{33} S and Δ^{36} S values between aqueous sulfate and sulfide (defined 846 hereafter as $\Delta^{33}S_{sulfate-sulfide}$ and $\Delta^{36}S_{sulfate-sulfide}$) as a function of time in each stage of experiments m32 and 847 m33. It can be seen that at 300°C during the initial thiosulfate breakdown (m32), the $\Delta^{33}S_{sulfate-sulfide}$ and 848 $\Delta^{36}S_{sulfate-sulfide}$ values increase with time, consistent with the absence of equilibrium at this first stage as shown 849 by the temporal changes of both S chemical speciation and $1000 \times \ln \alpha_{SO4}$ values (Fig. 5). The temperature rise 850 to 450°C (m32) results in a decrease of Δ^{33} S_{sulfate-sulfide} and Δ^{36} S_{sulfate-sulfide} values, most of which being between 851 0.00 and 0.02 ‰ (Fig. 8a,b). Even though our first data are not precise enough to fully support those 852 calculated by Eldridge et al. (2016), our trend is in line with the tendency for isotope equilibration at higher 853 T shown by the 1000×ln α_{SO4} evolution during the following stages (Fig. 5). Thus, our $\Delta^{33}S$ data provide 854 855 additional support for the attainment of sulfate-sulfide (-pyrite) equilibrium in this experiment as independently inferred from the $\delta^{34}S$ data (Fig. 5a, A4.2). The values of $\Delta^{36}S_{sulfate-sulfide}$, which have been 856

obtained for the first time on such S-bearing hydrothermal systems, also indicate a tendency of approaching
zero with time in the 450°C stages of experiment m32, in spite of the intrinsically large uncertainties (Fig.
8b).

Values of Δ^{33} S in the experiment at 300°C at near-neutral pH (m33) show roughly similar amplitude 860 and pattern as in run m32, by tending towards zero during breakdown of the initial thiosulfate within the first 861 2 weeks (Fig. 8c). Injection of water results in a 'perturbation' of Δ^{33} S values, likely caused by partial 862 decomposition of S_3 and S^0 upon dilution. Values of $\Delta^{36}S$ in this experiment are more scattered, but yet 863 indicate a similar pattern upon water injection. Thus, our study confirms previous experimental and natural 864 findings (e.g., Ono et al., 2007; Syverson et al., 2015; McDermott et al., 2015) that Δ^{33} S and, potentially, 865 Δ^{36} S systematics may reflect the dynamics of sulfur species transformation and exchange in hydrothermal 866 fluids. 867

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5. GEOCHEMICAL SIGNIFICANCE AND PERSPECTIVES

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871 5.1. Implications for tracing hydrothermal processes

The present study is the first experimental investigation of the effect of intermediate-valence polymeric sulfur species on S isotope fractionation involving the four stable S isotopes at conditions typical of hydrothermal S-bearing fluid circulation and metal ore formation in the shallow crust (<2-3 km) leading to various types of deposits. Our findings have several implications for using S isotopes as tracers of hydrothermal processes in the Earth's crust.

First, our data on S-rich fluids in the system pyrite-sulfide-sulfate quantitatively confirm the massdependent equilibrium fractionation amplitudes and kinetic patterns among these major sulfur chemical forms, previously established on the basis of extensive experimental and natural data obtained from more dilute S-poor fluids in which these polymeric sulfur species are negligible. Thus, with the available dataset, our results do not support recent hypotheses that the presence of S_3 ⁻⁻ (and S⁰) could increase the rates of thermochemical sulfate reduction (Truche et al., 2014) or control kinetic mechanisms of sulfate-sulfide exchange reactions in hydrothermal solution at acidic and neutral pH (Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015).

Second, our study highlighted different origins of molecular sulfur in hydrothermal fluids, which 884 may result not only from breakdown of S_3^{-} (and S_2^{-}), but also from partial recombination of sulfate and 885 sulfide or isotope exchange between polysulfide dianions and H₂S on cooling out of equilibrium yielding 886 formation of liquid or solid sulfur $(S_{(s,l)})$, or by irreversible thermal decomposition of thiosulfate (S^0_{thios}) . The 887 sulfur radical ions and S⁰ have isotopic signatures indistinguishable from aqueous H₂S. The S_(s,l) phase may 888 be slightly ³⁴S-enriched (by 2-4 ‰) compared to H₂S thereby reflecting the contribution of SO₄²⁻ or S_n²⁻ in 889 the reaction of $S_{(s,l)}$ precipitation. In contrast, S_{thios}^0 is strongly ³⁴S-depleted compared to H_2S (by as much as 890 -12 ‰). As a result, isotope analyses of S⁰ in natural hot spring discharges, which are commonly out of 891

equilibrium owing to fast temperature changes, may actually bear information about the evolution ofhydrothermal fluids upon their cooling and rise to the surface.

- 894 *Third*, our study confirms the interpretations of small Δ^{33} S and Δ^{36} S variations (< ±0.1 and < ±1 ‰, 895 respectively) in inorganic sulfur-bearing fluid - mineral (pyrite) systems as MDF in terms of reaction kinetics 896 and mixing of S reservoirs (e.g., Ono et al., 2006; Stefansson et al., 2015; Syverson et al., 2015; McDermott 897 et al., 2015; Gunnarsson-Robin et al., 2017). These variations are thus an efficient complement to the 898 traditional δ^{34} S tracer to monitor the approach to equilibrium and evolution of hydrothermal fluids and 899 mineralization in a wide range of temperatures and S concentration and chemical speciation.
- Finally, our data do not reveal any systematic mass-independent fractionation (MIF) of ³³S in the 900 experimental S-bearing fluid-pyrite systems over a wide range of S concentrations (0.1-1 m), pH (4-8) and 901 temperatures (300-450°C), with Δ^{33} S values of any S species being 0.0±0.1 ‰. Such values fall well within 902 the traditionally accepted general MDF threshold of ± 0.2 % (Farquhar and Wing, 2003) and the known 903 variations of λ 33 MDF slope values (e.g., Otake et al., 2008; Eldridge et al., 2016; LaFlamme et al., 2018a). 904 Thus, our results do not confirm expectations raised in a number of recent studies (e.g., Truche et al., 2014; 905 Pokrovski et Dubessy, 2015; Selvaraja et al., 2017; LaFlamme et al., 2018a,b) that S₃-, being a radical, might 906 generate a significant mass-independent fractionation, in addition to the widely recognized processes of SO₂ 907 and other gaseous S species photolysis that shall still be considered as the primary cause of sulfur MIF 908 signatures. Thus, at the current state of our knowledge, $\Delta^{33}S$ rock record continues to serve as an efficient 909 chemically conservative isotopic tracer of Archean sediment contributions as has been widely used in 910 sedimentary and ore deposit geochemistry over the last 20 years. 911
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913 5.2. Can reactions involving sulfur radical ions generate MIF in fluid-mineral systems?

The data obtained in this study account neither for findings of MIF ³³S signatures in some post-914 Archean magmatic-metamorphic sulfides (e.g., Farquhar et al., 2002; Bekker et al., 2009; Cabral et al., 2013; 915 Young et al., 2013; LaFlamme et al., 2018b) nor in experiments of sulfate reduction by amino-acids in 916 hydrothermal solution (Watanabe et al., 2009; Oduro et al., 2011) or liquid-phase photolysis of particular 917 organic thiol compounds (e.g., Kopf and Ono, 2012). Therefore, the question yet remains open as to whether 918 or not reactions of sulfur radical ions may generate MIF signatures in fluid-mineral systems. Several specific 919 environments in the Earth's crust may offer potential for MIF-generating reactions involving S radical 920 species. The first is TSR processes in sedimentary/metamorphic settings in which S_3^{-} is expected to be 921 abundant enough above 150°C (e.g., Truche et al., 2014; Pokrovski et Dubessy, 2015; Barré et al., 2017). 922 Until now, however, no unambiguous evidence of anomalous S isotope signatures in TSR phenomena other 923 than those in the presence of amino-acids (such as glycine, Watanabe et al., 2009; Oduro et al., 2011) is 924 available so far. But experimental data at relevant T-P conditions are lacking in the presence of hydrocarbon 925 compounds (C_xH_y), a type of organic matter which is the most abundant in sedimentary basins. Such 926 environments may offer a large range of chemical pathways and reaction rates involving, in addition to S_3 , 927

different organic S-bearing radical species (e.g., Lewan, 1998). The particularly rich chemistry of such 928 settings enlarges the probability to find a subtle favorable interplay of kinetic factors and dynamic parameters 929 of reactions (not too fast and not too slow; e.g., Buchachenko, 2001; 2013), and reaction mechanisms 930 involving radical-radical pairs, molecular cages (e.g., Kopf and Ono, 2012; references therein) or specific 931 mineral surfaces (e.g., Lasaga et al., 2008). All these factors are expected to favor magnetic isotope effects 932 (MIE) on the nuclear-spin possessing ³³S. Another natural environment that might meet some of the MIE 933 requirements is ultramarine minerals of the zeolite group that host a plethora of S species, from S^{2-} to SO_4^{2-} , 934 including S⁰ and the radical ions, stabilized in Si/Al network structure cages (e.g., Reinen and Lindner, 1999; 935 Tauson et al., 2011), as well as S₃⁻⁻bearing blue fluorites (Müller, 2018). Such minerals form in a wide range 936 on hydrothermal-metamorphic conditions and may provide an efficient structural trap for S aqueous species 937 allowing preservation of their anomalous isotope signatures. A third possible environment for MIF-938 generating reactions might be in magmatic-hydrothermal settings due to the presence of another radical ion, 939 S_2^{-} , which forms at the expense of S_3^{-} in S-rich fluids containing sulfate and sulfate at temperatures from 940 450°C to at least 800°C as demonstrated by in-situ Raman spectroscopy (Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015; 941 Colin et al., 2018, 2020; Pokrovski et al., 2019). Having a magnetic moment similarly to S₃⁻, S₂⁻ might 942 potentially be capable of producing, in fluid-magma systems, MIF anomalies at least on ³³S, provided other 943 factors required for MIE have been met. In addition, an improved analytical resolution on the ³⁶S non-944 magnetic isotope may also help discriminating the factors leading to MIF. For example, the $\Delta^{33}S/\Delta^{36}S$ ratio 945 has been used to differentiate the Archean MIF array from the kinetic MDF array (e.g., Johnston, 2011; 946 LaFlamme et al., 2018a). Verifying the hypotheses evoked above, both in nature and laboratory, would 947 require a judicious combination of in-situ time-resolved experiments with highly sensitive analytical methods 948 for different sulfur species and the four S isotopes in the high T-P fluid phase, thus posing a formidable 949 challenge for future research in sulfur isotope geochemistry. 950

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 sulfate reduction. *Science* 324, 370-373.
- 1222

12231224 Table 1. Summary of the experiments conducted in this study.

1225

Run/step	Experimental system composition at each step	рН _{<i>т-Р</i>} а	рН ⁰ _{Т-Р} ^b	<i>Т,</i> °С	P range,	Duration,	Injected	Predicted	Solid phases
	(moles of substance/kg fluid)				bar	of step,	aqueous	concentration	precipitated
						days	solution	of S₃•⁻,	
								mol S/kg fluid	
m22/1	K ₂ S ₂ O ₃ (0.49), HCl(0.14), QMM ^c	4.5	5.7	350	335-370	10	-	0.067	native sulfur
m22/2	K ₂ S ₂ O ₃ (0.38), HCl(0.11), KCl(0.10), FeCl ₂ (0.18), BaCl ₂ (0.09)	3.8	5.7	350	360-380	14	KCI-FeCl ₂ -BaCl ₂	0.0005	pyrite, barite, alunite
m29/1	K ₂ S ₂ O ₃ (0.19), KOH(0.091)	7.3	5.7	350	400-405	13	-	0.0004	-
m29/2	K ₂ S ₂ O ₃ (0.16), KOH(0.075), FeCl2(0.059)	5.3	5.7	350	380-410	6	FeCl ₂	0.0002	pyrite
m32/1 ^d	K ₂ S ₂ O ₃ (0.50), KOH(0.30)	6.9	5.5	300	430-480	13	-	0.004	-
m32/2	K ₂ S ₂ O ₃ (0.50), KOH(0.30)	7.9	6.0	450	690-725	14	-	0.007	-
m32/3	K ₂ S ₂ O ₃ (0.41), KOH(0.20), HCl (0.17)	6.8	6.0	450	705-710	8	HCI	0.037	-
m32/4	K ₂ S ₂ O ₃ (0.34), KOH(0.17), HCl (0.14), FeCl2(0.051)	5.9	6.0	450	695-720	8	FeCl ₂	0.020	pyrite
m33/1	K ₂ S ₂ O ₃ (0.48)	5.3	5.5	300	410-565	15	-	0.065	-
m33/2	K ₂ S ₂ O ₃ (0.32)	5.3	5.5	300	430-550	18	H ₂ O	0.024	-
m33/3	K ₂ S ₂ O ₃ (0.21)	5.3	5.5	300	380-505	8	H ₂ O	0.008	-

1226

1227 ^a Calculated pH of the fluid at each injection step at indicated *T-P*.

1228 ^b Calculated pH of the neutrality point of water at indicated *T-P* as $a[H^+] = a[OH^-] = 0.5 \times \log_{10} K_w$, where $K_w = 1/(a_{H^+} \times a_{OH^-})$ is the water dissociation constant, and *a* is H⁺ or OH⁻ activity.

1229 ^c Quartz-Muscovite-Microcline mineral assemblage.

1230 ^d The pH and S_3 ⁻ concentration values will be slightly refined in the course of this study for experiment m32/1-4 after correction for K₂SO₄ precipitation (section 4.1.1, Fig. 4c, Appendix 1231 A3).

1232

1234 Table 2. Fluid composition and sulfur speciation measured in sampled fluids from the experiments of this study.	
1235	

.35															
N D	ouration,	Т,	Ρ,	S _{tot}	S_{red}	S_{sulfide}	$S_{sulfate}$	S ⁰ hexane	S ⁰ balance ^a	К	Cl	Fe	K ₂ SO ₄	Pyrite	m fluid
	days	°C	bar				nol/kg fluid						mol	mol	g
m22:	K ₂ S ₂ O ₃ (0.	.49 m)-H	Cl (0.14 n	n), Quartz-	Muscovite-I	Microcline	mineral as	semblage							
1	1	350	370	1.01	-	0.31	0.41	-	0.29	1.00	0.13	104	-	-	150.00
2	3	350	335	1.09	-	0.31	0.43	-	0.35	1.02	0.13	2x10 ⁻⁵		-	142.72
3	7	350	370	0.96	0.34	0.30	0.42	-	0.21	0.92	0.13	2x10 ⁻⁵	-	-	136.87
4	10	350	370	0.98	0.33	0.30	0.40	-	0.26	0.97	0.13	10-5	-	-	130.05
Injecti	on of KCl-B	aCl ₂ -FeCl ₂													
5	14	350	380	0.27	0.02	<0.01	0.23	-	<0.03	0.86	0.74	0.027	-	0.028	153.19
6	17	350	370	0.28	0.02	<0.01	0.22	-	<0.04	0.88	0.74	0.023	-	0.028	144.80
7	24	350	360	0.27	0.02	<0.01	0.21	-	<0.04	0.86	0.75	0.014	-	0.028	136.83
m29:	$K_2S_2O_3$ (0	.19 m) - I	KOH (0.0	91 m)											
1	7	352	400	0.37	0.18	0.17	0.17	-	<0.02	0.48	0.02	4x10 ⁻⁵	-	-	65.62
2	13	352	405	0.34	0.16	0.14	0.15	-	<0.03	0.48	<0.01	5x10 ⁻⁵	-	-	57.57
Injecti	on of FeCl ₂														
3	16	352	410	0.13	<0.005	<0.01	0.14	-	<0.01	0.39	0.20	<0.002	-	0.0039	59.51
4	19	352	380	0.11	<0.005	<0.01	0.10	-	<0.01	0.39	0.19	<0.002	-	0.0039	51.73
m32:	$K_2S_2O_3$ (0	.50 m) - I	KOH (0.3	0 m)											
1	3	302	480	0.94	0.28	0.20	0.18	-	0.48	1.15	-	-	0.0083	-	111.23
2	8	301	430	0.89	0.31	0.20	0.17	-	0.41	1.11	-	-	0.0095	-	101.69
3	13	299	440	0.86	0.28	0.25	0.24	-	0.34	1.06	-	-	0.011	-	96.16
Тетре	erature rise	to 450°C													
4	16	451	695	0.71	0.31	0.40	0.32	0.062	< 0.01	0.79	-	-	0.023	-	90.72
5	20	451	685	0.69	0.28	0.35	0.24	0.005	0.10	0.78	-	-	0.022	-	84.36
6 ^d	23	453	725	0.75	0.53	-	-		-	0.93	-	-	0.014	-	78.02
7 ^d	27	452	690	0.59	0.33	0.37	0.28	0.006	< 0.01	0.60	-	-	0.026	-	75.57
Injecti	on of HCl														
8	29	452	710	0.62	0.20	0.20	0.35	0.008	0.07	0.74	0.20	-	0.012	-	84.82
9	32	451	710	0.57	0.19	0.19	0.31	0.060	0.07	0.68	0.18	-	0.014	-	79.26
10	35	452	700	0.54	0.19	0.25	0.32	0.117	<0.01	0.61	0.22	-	0.015	-	72.16
Injecti	on of FeCl ₂														
11	37	452	720	0.43	0.09	0.13	0.33	0.023	<0.01	0.68	0.27	-	0.0063	0.0041	79.48
12	41	452	710	0.47	0.10	0.11	0.28	0.032	0.08	0.76	0.29	-	0.0027	0.0041	70.14
13	44	451	695	0.48	0.03	0.084	0.30	-	0.10	0.75	0.28	-	0.0028	0.0041	63.31
m33:	$K_2S_2O_3$ (0	.48 m)													
1	<1	300	570	0.96	0.20	0.28	0.40	0.87 ^b	0.28	0.99	-	-	-	-	83.65
2	2	300	470	0.98	0.30	0.25	0.44	0.60 ^b	0.24	1.02	-	-	-	-	70.28
Injecti	on of K ₂ S ₂ C)3													

3	5	300	510	1.11	0.26	0.26	0.42	0.61	0.43	1.01	-	-	-	-	76.11
4	15	300	410	1.15	0.16	0.21	0.38	0.034 ^c	0.56	1.07	-	-	-	-	64.99
Inject	ion of H₂O														
5	21	300	545	0.62	0.20	0.21	0.28	0.39	0.13	0.60	-	-	-	-	84.60
6	26	300	490	0.64	0.21	0.22	0.27	0.31	0.15	0.64	-	-		-	77.73
7	33	300	425	0.60	0.16	0.21	0.26	0.15	0.13	0.63	-	-	-	-	69.42
Inject	ion of H ₂ O														
8	35	300	505	0.42	0.15	0.14	0.19	0.14	0.08	0.44	-	-	-	-	81.00
9	37	300	440	0.42	0.12	0.16	0.19	0.013	0.07	0.43	-	-	-	-	72.71
10	41	300	380	0.38	0.13	0.14	0.22	0.005	0.02	0.39		-	-	-	64.87
	error	±2	±15	±10%	±10%	±20%	±15%	±50%	±30%	±5%	±10%	±10%			

1236 "-" means not analyzed or not applicable.

1237 Sred includes S species other than sulfate and molecular sulfur, which all react with iodine (sulfide, radical ions, polysulfide ions, sulfite, thiosulfate).

1238

^a $S_{0}^{0}_{\text{balance}} = S_{\text{tot}} - (S_{\text{red}} + S_{\text{sulfate}})$; if $S_{\text{red}} < S_{\text{sulfide}}$ or not available then S_{sulfide} was used instead of S_{red} . ^b Likely overestimated because of the S⁰ UV signal contamination by organic impurities from the acetate decomposition. 1239

1240 ^c Underestimated because of insufficient time of reaction with hexane.

^d Temperature instability due to heat regulation failure around samples #6 and #7 (see Appendix A3 for details). 1241

Ν	Duration, days	$\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$	$\delta^{34}S_{S^0}$	1000×ln α_{s0}	$\delta^{34}S_{\text{sulfate}}$	1000×ln α_{SO_4}	$\Delta^{33}S_{sulfide}$	$\Delta^{33}S_{S^0}$	$\Delta^{33}S_{sulfate}$	$\Delta^{36}S_{sulfide}$	$\Delta^{36}S_{S0}$	$\Delta^{36}S_{sulfate}$
m22: K		-HCl (0.14 m)	. Ouartz-M	uscovite-Potas	sic feldspar	mineral buffe	r					
1	1	-13.84	-13.87	-0.03	-	-	0.017	0.011	-	-0.51	0.16	-
2	3	-14.13	-14.15	-0.02	-	-	0.015	0.022	-	-0.39	-0.31	-
3	7	-13.86	-13.75	-0.10	-	-	0.013	0.031	-	-0.23	-0.83	-
4	10	-14.71	-14.16	0.54	-0.60 ^a	14.10	0.023	0.052	0.042ª	0.71	-0.73	-0.05 ^a
Injectio	on of KCl-BaCl ₂ -	-FeCl ₂										
5	14	-12.05	-11.80	0.24	-	-	0.036	0.054	-	0.17	-0.78	-
6	17	-11.89	-13.14	-1.26	-	-	0.020	0.035	-	-0.72	-0.67	-
7	24	-12.92	-12.68	0.25	7.75	20.68	0.024	0.046	-0.024	-	0.76 ^e	-
m29: K	(0.19 m)	- КОН (0.091	. m)									
1	7	-14.58	-	-	3.95	18.53	0.028		-	-0.72	-	-0.41
2	13	-15.01	-	-	-	-	0.034	-)	-	-0.79	-	-
Injectio	on of FeCl ₂											
3	16	-	-	-	6.85	-		-	0.029	-	-	0.13
4	19	-	-	-	2.17	-	-	-	0.052	-	-	-0.58
m32: k	2S₂O₃ (0.50 m)	- KOH (0.30)	m)									
	2-2-3 (300°C	,									
0	0	7.18 ^b		-	-1.26 ^c	N/A	0.004 ^b		0.061 ^c	-0.09 ^b		-0.25 ^c
1	3	-3.45	2.00 ^f	5.45 ^f	4.56	8.01	-0.001	-	0.013	-0.44	-	-0.41
2	8	-3.25	-0.50 ^f	2.75 ^f	8.42	11.67	0.001	-	0.051	-0.48	-	-0.40
3	13	-2.40	-4.40 ^f	-2.00 ^f	9.68	12.08	-0.022	-	0.069	-0.29	-	0.15
Тетре	rature rise to 4	150°C										
4	16	-2.36	-13.96	-11.61	10.41	12.76	0.020	0.065	0.035	-0.44	-0.80	-0.23
5	20	-2.34	-	-	10.75	13.09	0.018	-	0.033	-0.53	-	-0.27
6	23											
7	27	-2.31	-	-	-	-	0.024	-	-	-0.46	-	-
Injectio	on of HCl											
8	29	-2.11	-1.00	1.11	-	-	0.017	-0.016	-	-0.47	-0.02	-
9	32	-2.41	-2.40	0.01	11.30	13.71	0.013	-0.003	0.026	-0.52	-0.27	-0.19
10	35	-2.50	-		11.98	14.48	0.020	-	0.023	-0.48	-	-0.18
Injectio	on of FeCl ₂											
11	37	-1.26	-	-	11.24	12.50	0.011	-	0.042	-0.49	-	-0.30
12	41	-1.57	-	-	13.03	14.60	0.018	-	0.020	-0.43	-	-0.18

Table 3. Isotopic composition (in ‰) of sulfate (as BaSO₄), sulfide (as ZnS) and molecular sulfur (S⁰, where available) analyzed in
 sampled fluids from the experiments of this study.

13	44	-1.27	-	-	13.85	15.13	0.021	-	0.022	-0.33	-	-0.16
	- /- ·-											
m33: K ₂ S ₂	₂O₃ (0.48 m)										
0	0	5.37 ^b	-	-	5.08 ^{a,c}	-	0.012 ^b	-	0.028 ^{a,c}	0.45 ^b	-	0.45 ^{a,c}
1	<1	-4.93	-	-	12.93	17.86	0.004	-	0.053	0.04	-	0.11
2	2	-6.61	-3.87	2.74	11.50	18.11	0.010	0.034	0.054	0.61 ^d	-0.47	-0.07
Injection of	of $K_2S_2O_3$											
3	5	-7.51	-4.78 ^e	2.73 ^e	16.61 ^e	24.13ª	0.022	0.080 ^e	0.047 ^e	0.28	3.51 ^e	0.24 ^e
4	15	-6.04	-		16.46 ^e	22.50	0.025	-	0.026 ^e	0.72 ^d	-	5.01 ^e
Injection of	of water											
5	21	-6.73	-7.27	-0.54	13.70	20.43	0.035	0.029	0.037	1.02 ^d	-0.51	0.17
6	26	-6.32	-3.35 ^e	2.97 ^e	12.35	18.67	0.013	0.023 ^e	0.045	-0.25	0.97 ^e	0.09
7	33	-7.10	-6.59	0.51	13.41	20.51	0.031	0.004	0.050	-0.38	-0.53	0.61
Injection of	of water											
8	35	-7.38	-	-	11.44 ^e	18.82	0.041	-	0.087 ^e	-0.26	-	3.76 ^{d,e}
9	37	-7.23	-2.41 ^e	4.82 ^e	14.29	21.52	0.025	0.011 ^e	0.055	0.28	-0.14 ^e	0.66
10	41	-8.04	-8.61	-0.57	12.37	20.40	0.024	0.010	0.027	0.13	-0.04	0.05
Error, ‰		±0.05	±0.05	±0.10	±0.05	±0.10	±0.010	±0.020	±0.02	±0.20	±0.20	±0.20

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1247 Note that two different sources of thiosulfate have been used for experiments m22 plus m29 and m32 plus m33, resulting in different δ^{34} S values relative to V-CDT.

1248 "-"not available or analysis was judged to be unreliable.

1249 ^a Chemical yield <10%.

1250 ^b Ag_2S fraction of the initial $K_2S_2O_3$ corresponding to the isotope composition of the sulfane group.

1251 $^{\circ}$ BaSO₄ fraction of the initial K₂S₂O₃ corresponding to the isotope composition of the sulfonate group.

1252 ^d Error (1 SD) >0.5‰.

1253 ^e Micro-volume measurement (\leq 30 µg of S).

1254 ^f Calculated values using mass and isotope balance (see Appendix A5).

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Table 4. Sulfur isotope composition (in ‰) of precipitated pyrite, and pyrite-aqueous sulfide fractionation factors in the experiments of this study.

Run	T, ℃	N _{pyrite} pts	$\delta^{34}S_{pyrite}{}^a$	$\Delta^{33}S_{pyrite}$	$\Delta^{36}S_{pyrite}$	N _{sulfide} pts	$\delta^{34} S_{\text{sulfide}}{}^{\text{b}}$	$\Delta^{33}S_{sulfide}$	$\Delta^{36}S_{sulfide}$	1000× Inα _{Py} c	$\Delta^{33}S_{pyrite}$ - $\Delta^{33}S_{sulfide}$	$\Delta^{36}S_{pyrite}$ - $\Delta^{36}S_{sulfide}$
m22	350	2	-13.8±0.5	0.036±0.010	-0.22±0.25	6	-13.3±1.2	0.022±0.008	-0.1±0.6	-0.5±1.3	0.014±0.013	-0.13±0.60
m29	350	4	-13.3±0.5	0.046±0.007	-0.81±0.26	2	-14.8±0.8	0.031±0.004	-0.8±0.1	1.5±0.9	0.014±0.008	-0.05±0.30
m32 ^d	450	1	-1.5±0.5	0.010±0.010	-0.30±0.18	6	-1.9±0.6	0.017±0.004	-0.5±0.1	0.3±0.7	-0.006±0.011	0.15±0.30

^a $\delta^{34}S_{pyrite}$ is the average of N_{pyrite} independent IRMS measurements for the same sample (error is 1SD of the mean). ^b $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ corresponds to the $\delta^{34}S$ value of the ZnS fraction in the sampled fluid, calculated as the average of the indicated $N_{sulfide}$ number of samples taken before and after FeCl₂ injection for experiments m32 and m22 (3 samples before and 3 after), and before FeCl₂ injection for experiment m29 (2 samples).

^c $\alpha_{Pv} = \delta^{34} S_{pvrite} - \delta^{34} S_{sulfide}$.

^d A different source of thiosulfate has been used in m32 resulting in different δ^{34} S values relative to V-CDT compared to m22 and m29.

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Figure captions

Fig. 1. Sulfur species concentrations in aqueous $K_2S_2O_3$ -bearing fluids representative of this study, predicted 1270 using thermodynamic modeling with available data sources (Table A2.1), at the indicated compositions as a 1271 function of pH (adjusted by adding KOH or HCl) at 300°C, 500 bar (A) and 450°C, 700 bar (B), total sulfur 1272 1273 (S_{tot}) concentration at 300°C, 500 bar (C), and temperature at 700 bar (D). Vertical dashed lines in (A) and (B) indicate the pH of the neutrality point of water at the given T and P; vertical dotted lines show approximate 1274 compositions of our experiments (see Table 1 and Fig. 4 for calculations at specific compositions of each 1275 1276 experimental step; note that experiments m22 and m29 carried out at 350°C are indicated in (A) for the sake 1277 of completeness). The oxygen fugacity is indicated relative to the hematite-magnetite buffer (HM, in log units).

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1279 Fig. 2. Sequence of the experimental procedures of this study using the flexible-cell hydrothermal reactor.

1281Fig. 3. Evolution of sulfur speciation in the fluid with time in experiments performed in this study (m22, m29,1282m32, and m33). S_{total} , $S_{sulfide}$, $S_{sulfate}$ and S^0_{hexane} denote analyzed concentrations whereas $S^0_{balance}$ is the difference1283in S concentration between measured S_{tot} and $(S_{red} + S_{sulfate})$. Dashed vertical lines show the time of in-situ1284injection into the reactor of the indicated aqueous solutions (see Table 1 and 2 for the exact fluid compositions).1285

Fig. 4. Comparisons between experimentally measured aqueous sulfate and sulfide concentrations and the corresponding thermodynamically predicted values, and between mass-balance derived molecular sulfur (S^0_{balance}) and thermodynamically predicted S_3^- (plus S_2^- at 450°C), at each sampling point of the four conducted experiments. Calculations for m32 (C) take into account corrections for K₂SO₄ precipitation and stability constant of KSO₄⁻ (see Appendix A3).

Fig. 5. Values of $\delta^{34}S$ (‰) of the indicated aqueous S species and pyrite and the corresponding isotope 1292 fractionation factor (α , relative to sulfide) of sulfate, S⁰ and pyrite as a function of time in experiment m32 (A 1293 1294 and C) and m33 (B and D). The dotted curve and 4 cross symbols in (A) show the evolution of S⁰ isotope composition calculated using sulfur mass and isotope balance (see Appendix A5). The dotted curves $(\pm 1 \text{ SD})$ 1295 in (C and D) show a fit of experimental points at 300°C using the rate law from Ohmoto and Lasaga (1982): 1296 $2.303 \times \log_{10}((\alpha_e - \alpha)/(\alpha_e - \alpha_0)) = -k_r \times t \times ([\Sigma SO_4^{2-}] + [\Sigma S^{2-}])$, where t is the reaction time (in days); α_0 , α and α_e are 1297 the fractionation factors of sulfate, respectively, at t=0 (initial condition), during the course of reaction, and at 1298 equilibrium; and $[\Sigma SO_4^{2-}]+[\Sigma S^{2-}]$ is the sum of concentrations of sulfate and sulfide species. The equilibrium 1299 fractionation factor (1000×ln α_e = 20.2 ‰) was taken from Ohmoto and Lasaga (1982). The fractionation 1300 factors $1000 \times \ln\alpha_0$ at t=0 for m32 and m33 are 6.0±1.0 and 17.5±1.0 ‰, respectively, as estimated from time-1301 1302 series fractionation data points regressed to zero. Fitting the 3 data points (m32) and 9 data points (m33, by excluding a single outlier from this trend, $1000 \times \ln \alpha_{SO_4} \sim 24$ ‰, sample #3, which might be due to analytical 1303 issues related to a low SF₆ fluorination yield) at 300°C for α yields a log₁₀k_r value (in hour⁻¹) of -2.4±0.2 (pH 1304 6.9, m32) and -1.9±0.3 (pH 5.3, m33), respectively. 1305 1306

Fig. 6. Isotope composition of the indicated sulfur species in samples from experiment m32 (K₂S₂O₃-KOH-1307 HCl; 300 and 450°C). Uncertainties of the coefficients of the linear regression equation in (A) are given for 1308 1309 95% confidence level (2 SD). The lower and upper limits of the reported λ 33 (from 0.505 to 0.519) and λ 36 1310 (from 1.88 to 1.96) MDF slopes that encompass both equilibrium ab-initio calculated (Otake et al., 2008, for λ 33 and λ 36) and experimental and natural equilibrium and kinetic (LaFlamme et al., 2018a; references 1311 therein, for λ 33) variations are shown in (B) and (C) by the blue area within which most of datapoints fall 1312 (except only few outliers for sulfate and sulfonate S that are very likely to be related to analytical difficulties 1313 1314 of BaSO₄ conversion). The MDF Δ^{36} S vs Δ^{33} S array (*MDF-S*, slope of -9 to -7) and the Archean MIF array (MIF-S, slope of -2 to -1) according to Johnston (2011) are shown in (D). 1315

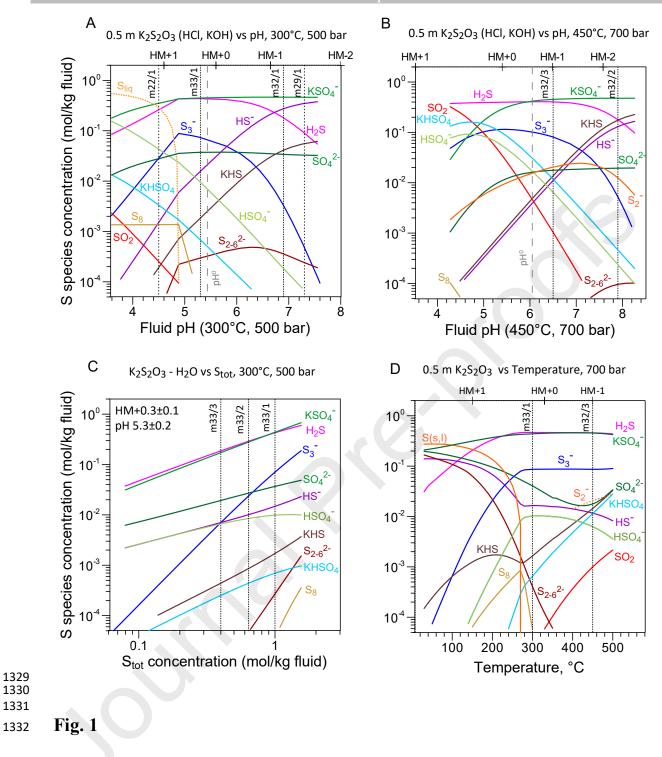
Fig. 7. Sulfur isotope compositions of the indicated species in samples from experiment m33 ($K_2S_2O_3$; 300°C). See Fig. 6 caption for details about the plots.

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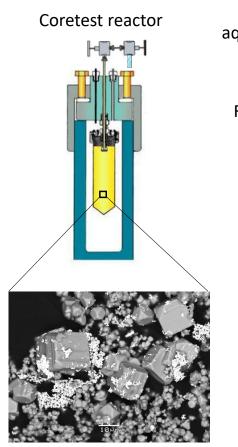
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- **Fig. 8.** The difference of Δ^{33} S and Δ^{36} S values for the sulfate-sulfide pair as a function of time in experiments m32 and m33. Gray symbols at time 0 indicate the difference values for the sulfonate-sulfane pair in the initial thiosulfate.
- 1323 tinosul
- 1324 Fig. 9. Schematic summary of the formation mechanisms of molecular sulfur in hydrothermal fluids
- and associated sulfur isotope fractionation between the resulting S⁰ and aqueous sulfide ($1000 \times ln\alpha_{S^0} \approx$
- 1326 $\delta^{34}S_{S^0} \delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$) identified in this study. Blue and red arrows indicate, respectively, fluid cooling and
- 1327 heating.









Starting system composition: aqueous $K_2S_2O_3$ (-KOH-HCl-mineral pH buffer) Fluid sampling and S species separation Chemical and isotope analyses Injection of aqueous FeCl₂ (-HCl-BaCl₂) Pyrite precipitation

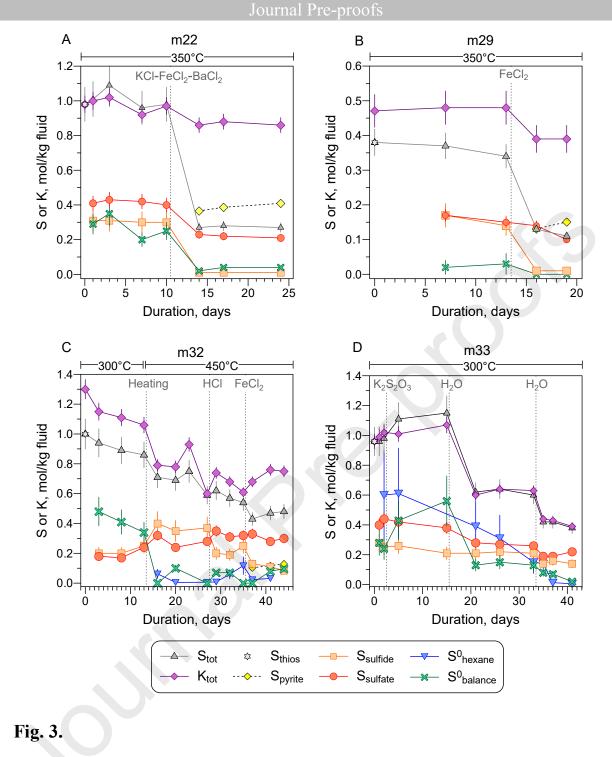
Fluid sampling and S species separation

Pyrite recovery after experiment

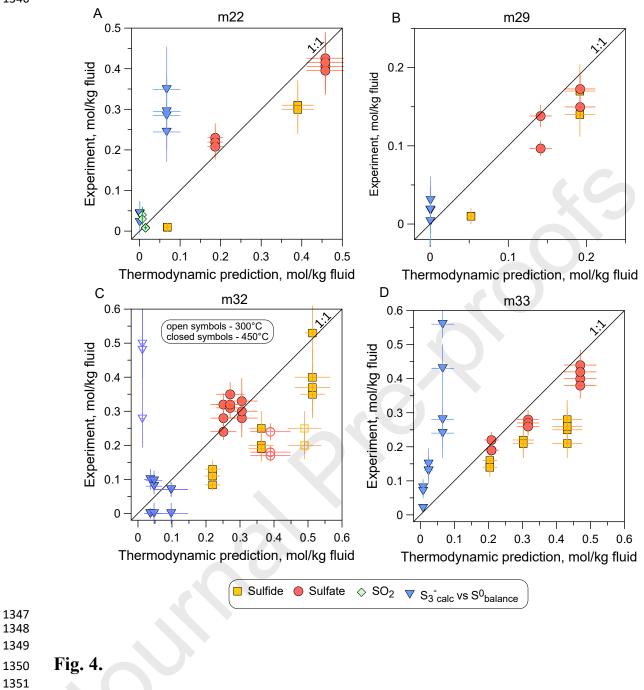
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Fig. 2 1338



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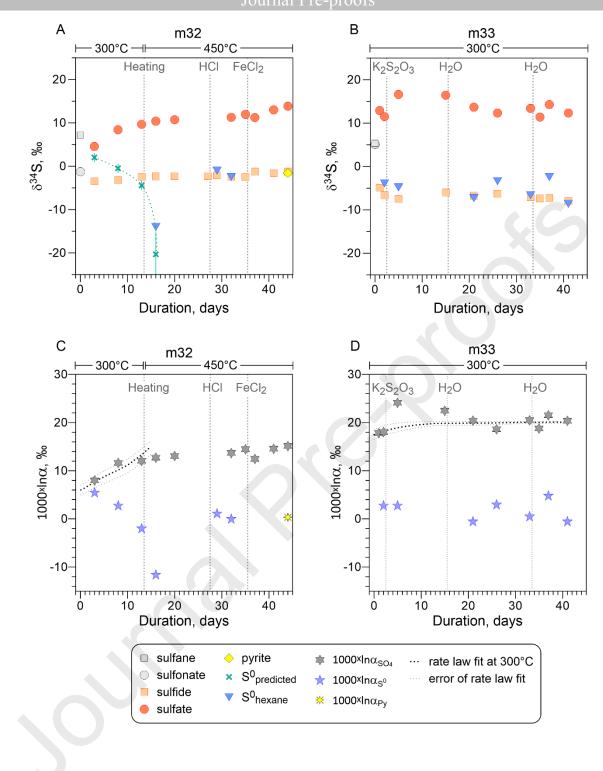
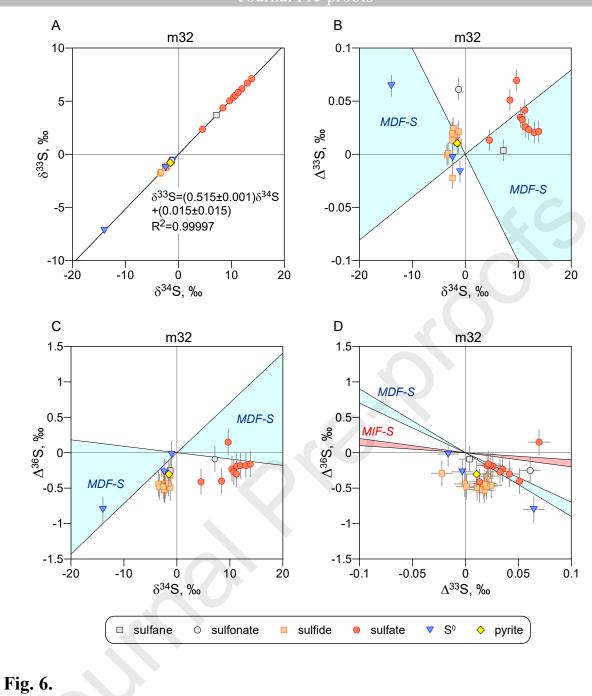
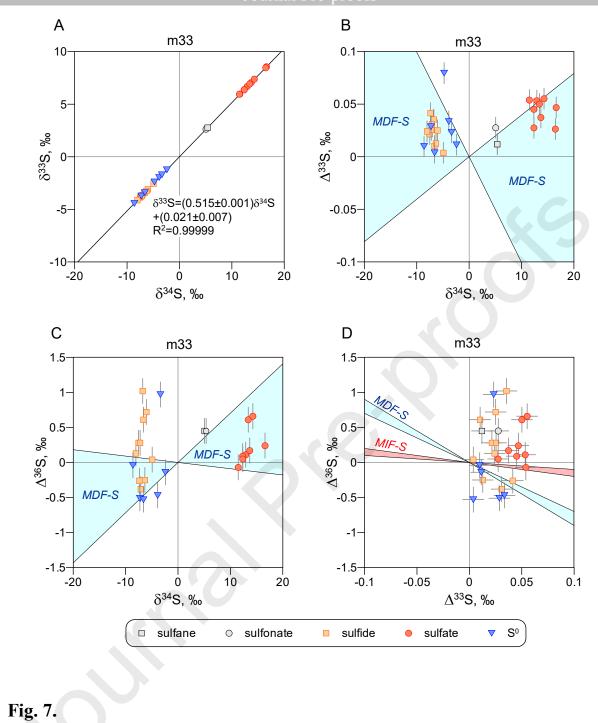


Fig. 5. Journal Pre-proo

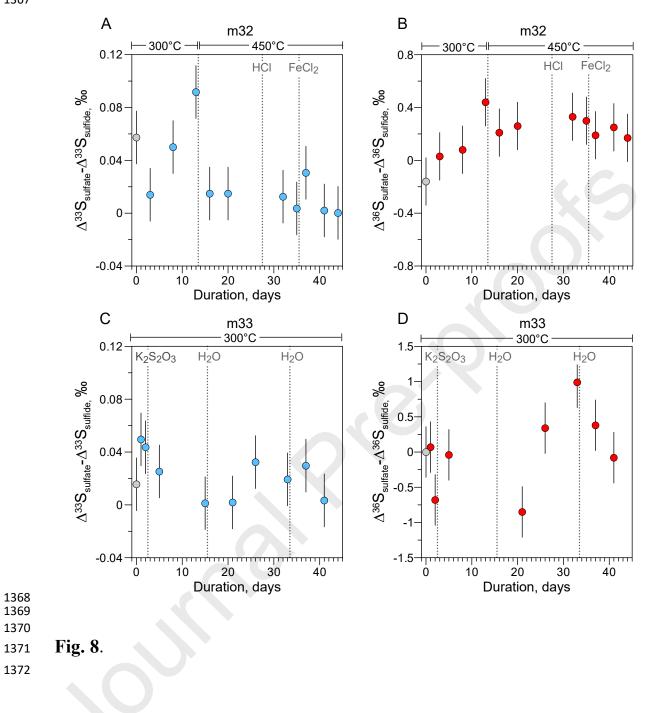


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