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Temperature dependence of oxygen- and clumped isotope fractionation in carbonates: a study of travertines and tufas in the 6-95°C temperature range

Sándor Kele^{1,2,*}, Sebastian F.M. Breitenbach³, Enrico Capezzuoli⁴, A. Nele Meckler¹, Martin Ziegler¹, Isabel M. Millan¹, Tobias Kluge⁵, József Deák⁶, Kurt Hanselmann¹, Cédric M. John⁵, Hao Yan⁷, Zaihua Liu⁷ and Stefano M. Bernasconi¹

¹Geological Institute, ETH Zürich, Switzerland,

²Institute for Geological and Geochemical Research, Research Centre for Astronomy and Earth Sciences, Hungarian Academy of Sciences, Budapest, Hungary

³Dept. of Earth Sciences, Univ. of Cambridge, Downing Street, Cambridge CB2 3EQ, UK

⁴Dept. of Phys., Earth and Env. Sci., Univ. of Siena, Italy

⁵Dept. of Earth Sci. and Eng., Qatar Carbonate and Carbon Storage Research Centre, Imperial College, London, London, Prince Consort Road, London, SW7 2AZ, UK

⁶Gwis Ltd, Dunakeszi, Hungary

⁷State Key Laboratory of Environmental Geochemistry, Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Guiyang 550081, China

*e-mail: keles@geochem.hu

Abstract

Conventional carbonate-water oxygen isotope thermometry and the more recently developed clumped isotope thermometer have been widely used for the reconstruction of paleotemperatures from a variety of carbonate materials. In spite of a large number of studies, however, there are still large uncertainties in both $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ - and Δ_{47} -based temperature calibrations. For this reason there is a need to better understand the controls on isotope fractionation especially on natural carbonates. In this study we analyzed oxygen, carbon and clumped isotopes of a unique set of modern calcitic and aragonitic travertines, tufa and cave deposits from natural springs and wells. Together these samples cover a temperature range from 6 to 95°C. Travertine samples were collected close to the vents of the springs and from pools, and tufa samples were collected from karstic creeks and a cave. The majority of our vent and pool travertines and tufa samples show a carbonate-water oxygen isotope fractionation comparable to the one of Tremaine et al. (2011) with some samples showing higher fractionations. No significant difference between the calcite-water and aragonite-water oxygen isotope fractionation could be observed. The Δ_{47} data from the travertines show a strong relationship with temperature and define the regression $\Delta_{47} = (0.044 \pm 0.005 \times 10^6) / T^2 + (0.205 \pm 0.05047)$. The pH of the parent solution, mineralogy and precipitation rate do not appear to significantly affect the Δ_{47} -signature of carbonates, compared to the temperature effect and the analytical error. The tufa samples and three biogenic calcites show an excellent fit with the travertine calibration, indicating that this regression can be used for other

carbonates as well. This work extends the calibration range of the clumped isotope thermometer to travertine and tufa deposits in the temperature range from 6°C to 95°C.

Keywords: travertine, tufa, stable and clumped isotopes, calibration, non-equilibrium fractionation

1 Introduction

Since the early times of stable isotope geochemistry, the oxygen isotope fractionation between calcite and water is one of the most widely used methods to reconstruct the temperature at which calcite has precipitated (McCrea, 1950; Epstein et al., 1953; Kim and O'Neil, 1997; Coplen, 2007). More than 50 years of research have produced a number of theoretical, empirical and laboratory-based calibrations, but significant discrepancies still exist among them. Because laboratory calibrations are challenging, naturally precipitated carbonates are an important source of calibration materials for the oxygen isotope fractionation, provided that temperature and conditions of carbonate precipitation are well known. In this paper we use an extensive set of travertine and tufa samples, precipitated under very different geochemical conditions and in a large but well-constrained temperature range, as a natural laboratory to better understand the dominant controls on the carbonate-water isotope fractionation and on the recently developed carbonate clumped isotope thermometer.

Conventional carbonate-water paleothermometry requires knowledge of the oxygen isotope composition of the water from which the carbonate precipitated, which is often impossible to estimate. The carbonate clumped isotope thermometer (Ghosh et al., 2006a) circumvents this problem because it requires no assumptions on the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of the precipitating water (Eiler, 2007). The theoretical basis of the clumped isotope paleothermometer is the proportionality between observed excess abundance of $^{13}\text{C}^{18}\text{O}$ -bonds in carbonate relative to its stochastic distribution (defined as Δ_{47} , see below) and the carbonate precipitation temperature. This excess abundance of $^{13}\text{C}^{18}\text{O}$ -bonds is independent of the bulk carbonate isotopic composition. Clumped isotope geochemistry has already been applied to a number of materials and questions, for example to soil carbonates (Ghosh et al., 2006b; Snell et al., 2013), speleothems and cryogenic cave carbonates (Affek et al., 2008; Daëron et al., 2011; Kluge et al., 2014a), land snails (Zaarur et al., 2011), brachiopods (Came et al., 2007), and studies on diagenesis and low grade metamorphism (Huntington et al., 2011; Ferry et al., 2011; Budd et al., 2013).

One of the open questions hampering a wider use of the carbonate clumped isotope thermometer is the discrepancy between published temperature calibrations (Ghosh et al., 2006a, 2007; Guo et al., 2009; Dennis and Schrag, 2010; Tripathi et al., 2010; Eagle et al., 2010; Thiagarajan et al., 2011; Henkes et al., 2013; Grauel et al., 2013; Zaarur et al., 2013; Tang et al., 2014; Came et al., 2014; Fernandez et al., 2014). The reasons for these differences remain largely unclear. Came et al. (2014) and Fernandez et al. (2014) suggested that the different phosphoric acid reaction temperatures for the conversion of sample carbonate to CO₂ may be one of the main causes of discrepancies. However, Defliese et al. (2015) determined the phosphoric acid fractionation factors for mass-47 CO₂ for a range of reaction temperatures for calcite aragonite and dolomite, and suggested that mineralogical and acid fractionation factor differences are not likely the cause of discrepant calibrations. Other differences in the analytical procedures that could alternatively cause discrepancies are the use of common versus individual reaction vessels or the amount of sample and acid used (Wacker et al., 2013). Because with the Kiel IV- MAT 253 system operated at ETH the reaction occurs at 70°C and much less sample and acid is used compared to other setups, it is necessary to evaluate the slope resulting from this analytical system.

In addition to the discrepancies, most calibrations based on natural samples are limited to temperatures below 45°C. To improve applicability of this method it is vital to extend the range of such calibrations to higher temperatures. Laboratory experiments are challenging, and may not be representative for all naturally occurring carbonates (Henkes et al., 2013), thus, in this study we focused on natural carbonates.

Among terrestrial carbonates, clumped isotopes have not yet been applied to travertines, as they are typically considered to be non-equilibrium deposits. Indeed, deviations from the expected oxygen isotope 'equilibrium', as defined from laboratory measurements (Kim and O'Neil, 1997), have been observed in natural carbonates (Gonfiantini et al., 1968; Turi, 1986; Friedman, 1970; Fouke et al., 2000; Coplen, 2007; Kele et al., 2008). However, it is currently unclear which, if any, of the published calibrations represents true equilibrium.

The natural calcite from the Devils Hole vein which was analyzed by Coplen (2007), is often argued to be very close to equilibrium due to the very slow growth rates in this subaqueous setting. Travertines are continental carbonates composed mainly of calcium carbonate produced from CO₂ degassing of supersaturated calcium bicarbonate-rich waters, typically hydrothermal in origin. Previous case studies on travertines from Egerszalók (Kele et al., 2008) and Pamukkale and Karahayit (Kele et al., 2011) have shown that travertines precipitating very close to the vent of the springs show oxygen isotope compositions similar

to the values predicted by Coplen (2007). Significant deviations are only observed along the flow path with increasing distance from the vents where the water first emerges from the underground. Therefore, we hypothesize that a careful choice of samples collected close to vents offers the possibility to establish a robust clumped isotope calibration to higher temperatures than the range covered by the natural carbonate calibrations published so far. We use calcitic and aragonitic travertines from natural springs and artificial thermal wells covering a temperature range between 5.6 and 95°C. This is a unique sample set, because to date there are no Δ_{47} data available for natural carbonates precipitated at the Earth surface above 50°C. In addition, we analysed also a set of tufa and cave carbonate deposits from karstic waters to evaluate if these deposits would show a similar isotope fractionation. The term tufa refers to continental carbonates typical of karstic areas, composed dominantly of calcite and produced from ambient temperature, calcium bicarbonate-rich waters, containing abundant remains of micro- and macrophytes (Capezzuoli et al., 2014).

The main advantages using travertines for the calibration of the clumped isotope thermometer are: 1) Travertines grow over a wide temperature range; 2) the temperature, pH, and chemistry of the depositing water and rate of deposition can be measured in the field; 3) these carbonates represent mainly inorganic deposits and show no biological vital effect; 4) they can form different polymorphs of calcium carbonate (calcite, aragonite).

We propose a calibration equation based on vent and open air pool samples only, as they have been shown to be the least likely to be affected by kinetic fractionation effects (Yan et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014). The carbonate formed close to the vents corresponds to only a small fraction of the total available carbonate dissolved in the water because water rapidly flows away from the vent. For this reason the carbonate closest to the vent orifice records precipitation due to initial degassing of only a small fraction of the CO_2 . This may be the reason why the first precipitates may be closer to the equilibrium conditions corresponding to the temperature of the fluid before its emergence. In the case of the pools the reason may be that there is a very thick water layer, CO_2 degassing is very slow and the precipitation rate is also very low. In this case, H_2O and HCO_3^- are more likely to reach equilibrium. We then evaluate the effects of other factors besides temperature controlling clumped isotope values, such as precipitation rate, CO_2 degassing (change in pH), and evaporation. Finally, we compare the results of these inorganic samples with a set of biogenic carbonates to evaluate if the temperature- Δ_{47} relationship based on travertines is applicable to biogenic samples. Our results will help improve the confidence in paleotemperature reconstructions not only from travertines, but also from cave carbonates, diagenetic cements and biogenic carbonates.

2 Description of the sampling sites

The sampling sites are presented in Figures 1, 2 and 3. A detailed description for most of the sites is given in Chafetz and Lawrence (1994), Demény et al. (2010) and Yan et al. (2012). Below we describe the newly sampled sites and sampling strategy. The characteristics of all sampled sites are summarized in Table 1.

2.1 Travertines

2.1.1 Central Italian travertines

Central Italy is rich in travertine and tufa deposits (Capezzuoli et al., 2011). For this study, we sampled nine of these sites. The thermal spring of Palagio is located in Piacenzian marine clays about 50 km NW of Siena. Thermal water with a pH of 6.57, mean temperature of 22.7°C and a discharge of ~1 L/s (Minissale, 2004), forms a small pool with carbonate raft precipitation (Fig. 1A).

Bagnoli is located in Piacenzian marine sandy deposits about 20 km NW of Siena. Water chemistry suggests that the water circulates in an anhydrite-dolomite reservoir of Triassic age (Casagli et al., 1990). The Bagnoli water ($T_{\text{mean}} = 23.7^{\circ}\text{C}$, pH = 6.62) presently forms only a thin travertine deposit around the vent but Pleistocene tufa deposits in the area suggest that activity may have been higher in the past (Capezzuoli et al., 2008). Samples were taken at the outlet of a pipe (Fig. 1B).

The spring of Acqua Borra is located ~15 km east of Siena in Zanclean marine clays. The thermal water has a mean temperature of 36.1°C, a pH of 6.58 and a low discharge rate, presently issuing from a small pipe (Fig. 1C), where the samples were taken. The water differs from other Tuscan thermal springs for its high salt (>12 g/L, 75% NaCl) and high CO₂ content.

At Rapolano Terme located ~30 km east of Siena, two springs were sampled. *Terme San Giovanni* was the most active travertine-depositing site in the area, until the water was diverted for use in a spa in the 1990s. Calcite raft samples were taken from a small resurgence at the NE termination of a fissure-ridge (Guo and Riding, 1999) (Fig. 1D). The water is rich in calcium, bicarbonate and sulfate, with a pH of 6.53 and $T = 41.2^{\circ}\text{C}$. The second spring, *Madonna al Colle Well*, is an intermittent thermal spring ($T = 28^{\circ}\text{C}$, pH = 6.62) outflowing from a borehole drilled in the 1960s for geothermal exploration. Water flux is controlled by a

tap at the top of the borehole, but frequently overflows spontaneously due to fluid overpressure (Fig. 1E). Carbonate encrustations were sampled directly at the well.

The Il Doccia spring is characterized by a high temperature ($T = 48.3^{\circ}\text{C}$), relatively low discharge (0.3 L/s; Minissale, 2004) and $\text{pH} = 7.05$. It is located ca. 10 km south of Siena on the Northern Appennines orogenic deposits. Deposition rate is very low, forming a small travertine mound (Fig. 1F).

The Bagni di Petriolo area is located 30 km south of Siena. Several active hot springs align along a fault with a mean temperature of 42.5°C and a low-rate discharge of ca. 10 L/s (Minissale, 2004). Travertine and thermal waters ($T = 44.3^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\text{pH} = 6.45$) were taken at the *Bagni di Petriolo* thermal spa (Fig. 1G).

The Bagni San Filippo travertine is located on the eastern side of the Middle Pleistocene Monte Amiata volcano (Brogi et al., 2010). Several hot springs emerge at a maximum temperature of 52°C . The *Fosso Bianco* spring ($T = 44.6^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\text{pH} = 6.53$) located along the homonymous creek, in the eastern and lower side of the same-fissured body, was sampled (Fig. 1H).

The southern sampled area in the surrounding of Viterbo is located on Middle-to-Late Pleistocene pyroclastics and lavas. The *Piscine Carletti* spring actively precipitates travertine and it is characterized by $T_{\text{mean}} = 57.9^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\text{pH} = 5.67$ and 3.7 L/s discharge (Pentecost, 1995; Di Benedetto et al., 2011) (Fig. 2A).

2.1.2 Carbonate deposits at Hungarian thermal wells

Five travertine-depositing sites were sampled in Hungary. At Széchenyi thermal spa (Budapest), groundwater is extracted from a 1257 m deep well from the top of the Triassic aquifer. The sampled carbonate was formed in 2012 in the basement of the spa. Sample Sz.-2/2 was taken directly at a fissure of the tube (Fig. 2B), while water with a temperature of 70.9°C and pH of 6.4 was sampled at a tap on the same tube several meters away. The 2092 m deep Tura thermal well was drilled in 1963 as an oil-exploratory borehole and reached thermal karst water discharging with 95°C and $\text{pH} = 6.88$. Deposited travertines cover the whole well-head. The well was closed in 1998, but travertine and water samples were taken in 2000 at a trial-operation of the well after the travertine cover was removed. The travertine sample originates from the earliest deposition after 2000. Carbonate sample Bük-4 was collected from the outflowing water ($T = 54.9^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\text{pH} = 6.88$) of the 1282 m deep Bük-1 thermal well (W Hungary), which supplies the Bük thermal spa with thermal water of 58°C since 1960.

The water originates from Miocene porous aquifers. Travertine and water were collected at the standpipe of the well, where excess water is periodically overflowing (Fig. 2C). The spa of Igal is supplied with thermal water ($T = 75^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\text{pH} = 6.89$) of a Triassic and Cretaceous aquifer via the 651 m deep well of Igal 1. Carbonate deposits were sampled from the wall of the tube (Fig. 2D). The Köröm thermal well (NE Hungary) drilled in 1961 hit thermal water (82°C) at 1880 m depth. Travertine and water were sampled directly at the well outlet (sample Kör-13/0, $T = 79.2^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\text{pH} = 6.8$) (Fig. 2E).

2.1.3 Baishuitai travertine (China)

The Baishuitai travertine, one of the largest travertine deposits in China, is located ~100 km south of Shangri-La Town, Yunnan Province, China (Yan et al., 2012). Two travertine-depositing systems are found here: a fast-flow channel system and slow-flow pool system. The sample P5 ($T_{\text{summer}} = 12^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\text{pH}_{\text{summer}} = 8.14$ and $T_{\text{winter}} = 5.6^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\text{pH}_{\text{winter}} = 8.19$) was taken about 300 m from the vent (spring S1-1) in the pool system (Fig. 2F).

2.1.4 Narrow Gauge travertine (Yellowstone)

The GeoBio-II spring ($T_{\text{vent}} = 61.1^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\text{pH} = 6.6$) at Narrow Gauge Springs (Mammoth Hot Springs, Yellowstone, USA, Chafetz and Lawrence, 1994) was sampled. Sample NG-2 is a precipitate collected from a rope that was immersed in the water very close to the vent orifice ($T = 60.4^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\text{pH} = 6.6$; Fig. 2G) and represents the precipitation of a few hours.

2.1.5 Madre del Agua (Tenerife, Spain)

A 20 cm thick calcite encrustation sample and precipitating water were collected at the discharge point of an artificial tunnel at Madre del Agua (Canarian Island) situated in the south-eastern part of Tenerife. Water temperature at the sampling point was 33.8°C , with a pH of 7.7 and a discharge rate 5.3 L/s (Demény et al., 2010).

2.2 Tufa and cave tufa samples from Hungary and Italy

Tufa samples were collected along a 2.4 km long section in the Szalajka-valley (Szilvásvár, Bükk Mts, Hungary) where supersaturated karstic springs (average runoff is 70 l/sec)

precipitate tufa terraces, dams and cascades, further promoting CO₂ degassing and tufa precipitation. Starting from the Szalajka-spring (~8.6°C) three samples (Szal-2, Szal-6, Szal-15; Fig. 3A,B,C; Table 1) were sampled in October along the flow path downstream 413 m (T = 10.1°C, pH = 8.45), 773 m (T = 11°C, pH = 8.55) and 2462 m (T = 12.1°C, pH = 8.53) from the spring, respectively.

Three tufa samples with temperatures ranging from 11°C to 20.7°C were collected from Sarteano, Rapolano Terme (Canatoppa Creek) and La Pigna (all in Tuscany, Italy). The Sarteano tufa is located along the Fosso dei Mulini Creek in Sarteano village. Water originates from a private pool about 100 m upstream from the sampling point (T = 20.7°C, pH = 8.92) and the entire creek is carbonate-encrusted (Fig. 3D). The Canatoppa tufa (Rapolano Terme) precipitate along the Canatoppa Creek (Fig. 3E) from water with a temperature of 11°C and pH of 8.94, north of the travertine fissure ridge at the Terme San Giovanni described above. The La Pigna tufa is a perched spring tufa deposit formed from a small resurgence south of Siena. We sampled the frontal portion of the system, about 20 m from the spring point and below a 4 m-high cascade, where the temperature of the water is 12.5°C and the pH is 8.61 (Fig. 3F). In order to represent different depositional environments, a recent cave tufa (flowstone) sample precipitated from flowing water was additionally taken from the Havasok tufa (Baradla cave, Aggtelek Karst, Hungary). The Havasok tufa dam (Fig. 3G) forms from a thin, periodically flowing water film (~9.5°C).

3 Methods

3.1 Sampling and in situ analyses

In all cases only the uppermost surface of the recent travertine was sampled to ensure the collection of freshly precipitated carbonates. Water samples were collected in 100 ml glass bottles for stable oxygen isotope analyses. In situ measurements of temperature, pH and electric conductivity (EC) of water were conducted at all sampling points using various instruments: 1) At the Italian sites a Hanna HI 98130 meter was employed (precision: T = ±0.1°C, pH = ±0.01). 2) The Yellowstone site was probed with a Hach HQ40d meter (precision: T = ±0.1°C, pH = ±0.1). 3) At the Szalajka Creek a VWR EcoSense pH10 pH/Temperature Pen (precision: T = ±0.3°C, pH = ±0.02) was used, while conductivity was measured with a Eutech Digital pH/EC Pen. 4) The Hungarian thermal wells were probed

with a WTW Multi 1970i meter with automatic temperature compensation to 20°C (precision: $T = \pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$, $\text{pH} = \pm 0.01$).

At some sites the deposition rate could be calculated using the weight of carbonate deposited on plexiglass substrates. The amount of modern travertine deposited on the plexiglass substrates was determined by measuring the weight increase of the substrates. The detailed description of the calculation can be found in Liu et al. (2010) and in Yan et al. (2012). In cases where the placement of substrates was not possible the deposition rate ($\log R$) was estimated based on the size of the carbonate deposit. An annual change of the local carbonate depositional morphology imply an intensive-to-moderate precipitation rate (cm/year), while a slightly modified morphology implies a moderate-to-low precipitation rate (mm/year). Considering the high deposition rates, the ages of sampled carbonates are estimated to be at maximum several days for travertines or a few months for tufa.

3.2 X-ray diffraction, electron microprobe, and stable isotope analyses

The mineralogy of all carbonate samples was determined by X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) using a Philips PW 1710 diffractometer (with $\text{CuK}\alpha$ radiation at 45 kV and 35 mA) at the Institute for Geological and Geochemical Research, Hungarian Academy of Sciences (IGGR-HAS, Budapest). Semi-quantitative phase analysis was made on randomly oriented samples using the peak area of calcite 104 and aragonite 111 reflections (Bárdossy et al., 1980). The relative error of the quantification is 5–10%. The mineralogy of some samples has been determined at ETH Zürich using a Bruker AXS D8 Advance instrument. In order to determine the size of individual crystals from the travertine deposits, electron microprobe analyses were carried out at IGGR-HAS using a JEOL JXA-733 instrument.

All carbonate samples were powdered and homogenized using an agate mortar and pestle. Carbon and oxygen isotope analyses of bulk carbonate samples were carried out as part of the clumped isotope analyses with a Thermo Fisher Scientific Kiel IV preparation device coupled to a Thermo Fisher Scientific MAT 253 isotope ratio mass spectrometer. For oxygen and carbon isotopes the performance of the instrument was monitored with the 4 internal standards ETH-1 ($\delta^{13}\text{C} = 2.14\text{‰}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -1.87\text{‰}$), ETH-2 ($\delta^{13}\text{C} = -10.11\text{‰}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -18.76\text{‰}$), ETH-3 ($\delta^{13}\text{C} = 1.81\text{‰}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -1.77\text{‰}$) and ETH-4 ($\delta^{13}\text{C} = -10.10\text{‰}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -18.76\text{‰}$), which are measured daily to carry out the corrections for clumped isotopes (see below). The composition of these internal standards was determined using NBS 19 ($\delta^{13}\text{C} = 1.95\text{‰}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -2.2\text{‰}$) and NBS 18 ($\delta^{13}\text{C} = 5.05\text{‰}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -23.1\text{‰}$). The reference

gas used in the mass spectrometer is a commercial compressed gas tank, purity 99.99 % with a $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{VPDB}}$ value of -7.25‰ and a $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VPDB}}$ value of $+1.65\text{‰}$. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ analyses of waters were carried out at IGGR-HAS with a Thermo Fisher Scientific Delta Plus XP mass spectrometer using the CO_2 –water equilibration method (Epstein and Mayeda, 1953). In case of the water samples, the in-house laboratory standards BWS-1, BWS-2 and BWS-3 were used, which are calibrated against Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (V-SMOW) with International Certification (SMOW, GISP and SLAP). Standard BWS-1 ($\delta^{18}\text{O} = -0.60 \pm 0.1\text{‰}$) was made from seawater and locally sampled lake water; BWS-2 ($\delta^{18}\text{O} = -10.50 \pm 0.1\text{‰}$) was prepared from tap water; and BWS-3 ($\delta^{18}\text{O} = -20.00 \pm 0.1\text{‰}$) was made from snow from the Tatra Mountains and Budapest (Kármán et al., 2014). Isotopic compositions are expressed in the conventional δ notation in ‰ relative to V-PDB for carbonates and V-SMOW for water. Reproducibility was better than $\pm 0.1\text{‰}$ for carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and better than $\pm 0.2\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of waters. The fractionation between carbonate and water are calculated from measured $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carbonate}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$, where the fractionation factor is defined as $\alpha = (1 + \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{calcite}}/1000) / (1 + \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}/1000)$. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the three aragonitic travertines (Köröm, Széchenyi thermal spa, Palagio) were corrected by -0.42‰ , to account for the different phosphoric acid digestion fractionation factor for aragonite (Kim et al., 2007).

3.3 Clumped isotope analyses

Carbonate isotopologue measurements were performed using a Thermo Fisher Kiel IV preparation device coupled to a Thermo Fisher MAT 253 isotope ratio mass spectrometer as described by Schmid and Bernasconi (2010), modified to include a Porapak trap eliminating contaminants. The full procedure, including a new correction scheme, has been described by Meckler et al. (2014). Briefly, per run 8-10 aliquots of 150-220 μg of two samples were prepared and analysed in microvolume mode together with 8-10 aliquots each of 2 internal carbonate standards. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and clumped isotope composition is calculated as the average of the 8 to 10 analyses. Each analysis consisted of 6 cycles of 26 sec integration and 10 sec idle time after changeover valve switch. Initial m/z 44 beam intensities averaged around 23 V, decreasing to around 13 V after 7 cycles. The temperature-dependent mass 47 anomaly is defined as (Ghosh et al., 2006a):

$$\Delta_{47}(\text{‰}) = \left[\left(\frac{R^{47}}{R^{47*}} - 1 \right) - \left(\frac{R^{46}}{R^{46*}} - 1 \right) - \left(\frac{R^{45}}{R^{45*}} - 1 \right) \right] \times 1000 ,$$

where R^i is the abundance of the minor isotopologues relative to the most abundant isotopologue with mass 44, and the expected stochastic ratios R^{i*} are calculated based on the measured abundance of ^{13}C and ^{18}O in the sample.

The results for standards and samples were corrected offline for pressure baseline (PBL) effects (Bernasconi et al., 2013, Meckler et al., 2014) and were transferred to the absolute reference frame (Dennis et al., 2011) by means of an empirical transfer function (ETF) based on heated and equilibrated gases measured during an earlier period (Meckler et al., 2014). Afterwards, an acid fractionation correction of +0.064‰ was applied to the Δ_{47} , which results from a linear scaling of the observed offset between 25°C and 90°C acid temperature (Henkes et al., 2013) to our reaction temperature of 70°C. Subsequent correction steps for sample results were based on carbonate standards only: The results were first corrected for offsets between measured and accepted values of four in-house carbonate standards, averaged within a moving window encompassing 11 standards (~5 days of measurements). Finally, small differences in scale compression during the measurement periods compared to the initial ETF period were monitored and corrected for with a transfer function based again on the four standards, which strongly differ in bulk isotopic composition and ordering state. The “accepted” Δ_{47} of the standards used for these corrections are (in parenthesis the sample names used in Meckler et al. 2014): ETH-1 (ISO A) = 0.267‰, ETH-2 (ISO B) = 0.269‰; ETH-3 (ISO R) = 0.524‰ and ETH-4 (ISO C) = 0.705‰. Our internal Carrara marble (MS2) standard has a Δ_{47} value of 0.397‰ and NBS 19 yielded a Δ_{47} value of $0.390\text{‰} \pm 0.005$ (n = 3). Both these values are well in the range of published values for Carrara marbles and NBS 19 (Dennis et al., 2011). The four ETH carbonate samples are available as 1g aliquots upon request from S. Bernasconi.

Each sample was measured at least three times on different days (with 8-10 aliquots each). The reported results are the averages of the three or more measurements, and reported errors are standard errors of these averages. The long-term reproducibility of the method based on standards is $\pm 0.012\text{--}0.016\text{‰}$ (1 SD) (Meckler et al., 2014). The confidence intervals of the regressions were calculated according to Sachs (1984).

4 Results

4.1 Physico-chemical parameters, deposition rate and isotopic composition of thermal and karstic waters

The physico-chemical parameters of the spring waters are summarized in Table 1. For travertines, temperatures ranged from 5.6°C to 95°C, pH ranged from 5.7 to 8.2, and Electrical Conductivity (EC) varied from 1.38 to >20 mS cm⁻¹. $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$ values ranged from -17.9‰ to -4‰. Where deposition rates could be measured, they ranged from 0.05 and 28.5 mg cm⁻²d⁻¹ at the Italian Sites, and were determined as 0.44–2.5 mg cm⁻²d⁻¹ at Baishuitai (Yan et al., 2012).

The three tufa samples from Italy were precipitated from waters of 11–20.7°C; the pH varied between 8.61–8.94, while EC values ranged from 0.55 to 2.11 mS/cm. Karstic water samples from the Szalajka Creek showed temperatures between 10.1 and 12.1°C, pH between 8.45 and 8.55, EC between 0.473 and 0.503, and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$ values from -10.7 to -10.6‰.

The values reported here correspond to individual measurements at time of the sampling. However, because the travertine depositing waters are old and derive from deep geothermal circulation systems, their $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values and physico-chemical parameters do not show seasonal variations. In case of tufa sites minor seasonal changes might occur in both temperature and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$, as these are more influenced by rainfall and seasonal change of ambient temperature and insolation and they form further downstream, as in general there is no carbonate deposition in the spring's orifice. However, due to the facts that sampling has been performed mainly during dry season and that carbonate deposition is rapid (up to a few months for the tufa samples), we can assume that the temperatures, measured during sampling campaigns, adequately represent the growth temperatures of the samples.

4.2 Mineralogy

All samples are mainly composed of calcite, aragonite or their mixture (Table 1). Samples containing elemental sulfur (Il Doccio, Bagni di Petriolo, Table 1) were excluded from clumped isotope analysis as sulfur can affect the clumped isotope signal. Based on SEM analyses, individual crystal size varies not only between samples but also within samples and according to mineral phase. Travertine samples are composed mainly of complex calcite crystals (~10–100 µm), with some exhibiting a dendritic morphology. Aragonite (~100 µm) and gypsum crystals (100–150 µm) are also present in some samples (Fig. 4).

4.3 Stable isotopic composition of travertine and tufa samples

Carbon and oxygen isotope compositions of all travertine and tufa samples are reported in Table 1. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values range between -11.27‰ and $+7.45\text{‰}$ and between -24.51‰ and -5.43‰ , respectively. Tufa collected downstream from the karstic water of the Szalajka Creek show a small increase in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{tufa}}$ (from -10.2‰ to -9.43‰) and decrease in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{tufa}}$ (from -8.47‰ to -9.30‰) (Table 1). The Havasok cave tufa shows similar $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (-10.95‰) and a bit higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (-7.73‰) values compared to the Szalajka tufa samples taken from the surface (Table 1). $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the Italian tufa sites are similarly low (between -11.27‰ and 0.55‰) and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{tufa}}$ values vary from -7.39‰ to -5.66‰ . In Figure 5A we plotted the carbonate–water $1000\ln\alpha$ values against temperature. The regression through the travertines alone (diamonds and squares) shows a steeper slope than commonly observed in carbonates (e.g. Kim and O’Neil, 1997; Tremaine et al., 2011). A regression through the entire dataset including the tufa and cave carbonates (Triangles), however, defines a slope and intercept much closer to the one of Tremaine et al. (2011) (see discussion below). No significant difference is observed between aragonite and calcite samples (Fig. 5B).

4.4 Δ_{47} values of travertine, tufa, and biogenic samples

Δ_{47} values of travertine and tufa samples vary between $0.510\pm0.012\text{‰}$ and $0.760\pm0.008\text{‰}$ (Table 1). The three downstream tufa samples from the Szalajka Creek show no systematic trend and Δ_{47} values are between $0.732\pm0.008\text{‰}$ and $0.760\pm0.008\text{‰}$ (Table 1). The Havasok cave tufa shows a very similar Δ_{47} value ($0.756\pm0.01\text{‰}$). The Sarteano, Canatoppa and La Pigna tufa samples yielded Δ_{47} values between $0.703\pm0.009\text{‰}$ and $0.742\pm0.008\text{‰}$ (Table 1). When plotted against temperature (Fig. 6A, B), all samples show a very good fit in spite of the different depositional environments. In addition, we did not observe a systematic difference between calcite and aragonite samples (Fig. 6B). For comparison we also analyzed three biogenic carbonates, which were previously analyzed for Δ_{47} and described in detail by Wacker et al. (2014) (Table 2). All three samples fit very well on the regression defined by the travertines. The Δ_{47} value of $0.648\pm0.014\text{‰}$ of the ostrich eggshell compares very well with the $0.643\pm0.005\text{‰}$ obtained by Wacker et al. (2014). For *D. wyvillei* we obtained a Δ_{47} value of $0.742\pm0.009\text{‰}$, which is 0.29 higher than the $0.713\pm0.009\text{‰}$ reported by Wacker et al. (2014) and for *A. Islandica* we obtain a value of $0.759\pm0.004\text{‰}$, 0.035 higher than the value reported in Wacker et al. (2014).

5 Discussion

5.1 Oxygen isotope fractionation

The temperature dependence of the oxygen isotope fractionation in our samples is compared with that of other studies in Figure 7. The majority of our vent and pool travertines show a higher mineral-water oxygen isotope fractionation than the Kim and O'Neil (1997) study, in agreement with the results of Kele et al. (2008, 2011), and many of them fit well on the curves published by Coplen (2007), Tremaine et al. (2011) and Affek and Zaarur (2014). Our travertine data alone define a fractionation that can be expressed as $1000\ln\alpha = (20\pm2) \times 1000/T - (36\pm7)$ ($R^2 = 0.96$). This slope is steeper than the previously published curves and is strongly influenced by 5 samples with very high fractionation. The cause of these very high fractionations is not clear, and we could find no relationship with any physico-chemical parameter we have measured, but similar high fractionations have also been reported by Kele et al. (2011) in other travertines and seem to be a common feature that needs additional studies. Possible causes for changes in isotope fractionation are pH variations (e.g. Zeebe, 1999), but we do not observe a systematic positive offsets with decreasing pH as it would be expected if pH were a major controlling factor. A more comprehensive discussion of the oxygen isotope fractionation based on a much larger dataset will be published elsewhere.

In case of the Szalajka spring section the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carbonate}}$ show slight downstream increase (from -10.2 to -9.44 ‰), while the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$ is nearly constant (-10.6 ‰) (Table 1). The water temperature of the Szalajka Creek increases slightly downstream (from 10.1°C to 12.1°C , Table 1) due to radiation and contact with the atmosphere, which is warmer than the cold karstic water. This downstream temperature increase can cause the decreasing $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carbonate}}$ values along the flow path. If we include the tufa samples deposited from cold karstic waters, the regression line becomes $1000\ln\alpha = (16.8\pm1.7) \times 1000/T - (26\pm5.4)$ ($R^2 = 0.95$) (Fig. 5A), which is indistinguishable from the regression line of Tremaine et al. (2011) and the results of the surface precipitation experiments of Affek and Zaarur (2014), confirming that these regression lines are valid to temperatures of up to 95°C . In spite of the fact that travertines have generally very high precipitation rates (see below), which could lead to lower apparent oxygen isotope fractionation, no significant difference between the calcite-water and aragonite-water oxygen isotope fractionation is observed (Fig. 5B).

5.2 Temperature dependence of Δ_{47} in travertines and tufa

Figures 6A and 6B show the T- Δ_{47} relationship for the entire sample set defining an excellent correlation of Δ_{47} with the temperature of deposition. If we only use the travertine samples collected at temperatures between 5.6 and 95°C and exclude the tufa to avoid mixing of two groups of samples that potentially have different characteristics to define the T- Δ_{47} relationship, we obtain:

$$\Delta_{47} = (0.044 \pm 0.005 \times 10^6) / T^2 + (0.205 \pm 0.047) \quad R^2 = 0.96 \quad (eq. 1)$$

The tufa samples and the three biogenic samples fit well within the error of the regression, supporting the validity of the travertine calibration also for tufa formed in karstic environments.

The Δ_{47} value of the calcite raft sample collected from the Terme San Giovanni fissure ridge (Table 1, Fig. 6B) shows a positive offset compared to the empirical calibration line. If this outlier is discarded from the calibration data set, the r^2 increases to 0.99, while *eq. 1* does not change significantly. This positive offset cannot be explained by enhanced disequilibrium at the surface of the solution (Affek and Zaarur, 2014), as this would produce Δ_{47} values below the calibration line. For this sample, the water temperature was measured below the water surface, while the raft sample could record slightly lower water temperature at the water-air interface, potentially explaining a small part of the 10°C offset. Affek et al. (2014) similarly found enriched Δ_{47} in a surface raft sample from a cave pool and speculated that the reason could be reduced super-saturation of the precipitating water compared to other speleothem formation sites due to prior calcite precipitation.

For the karstic Szalajka Creek, tufa deposition only starts 400 m further downstream of the spring. Δ_{47} values of tufa deposits collected downstream show no systematic trend with distance from the discharge point and the samples scatter around the travertine regression (Fig. 6A). The lack of any systematic downstream effect on Δ_{47} may be explained by the relatively constant water temperatures along the stream and relatively low precipitation rates. This shows that there is no significant influence of kinetic fractionation effects on Δ_{47} in these tufa samples. It is also noteworthy that the three biogenic samples analyzed fit very well on the calibration line (Fig. 6A), indicating that this calibration is potentially useful also for biogenic materials.

Comparison with other published T- Δ_{47} calibrations (Fig. 8) shows that the slope of our regression line is intermediate between a group of steeper ones, derived from 25°C acid digestions (Ghosh et al., 2006a; Tripathi et al., 2010; Zaarur et al., 2013; Came et al., 2014)

and a group of shallower slopes, produced with 90°C acid digestions (Dennis and Schrag, 2010; Henkes et al., 2013; Eagle et al., 2013; Wacker et al., 2014; Kluge et al., 2015). The difference between our calibration and the one of Wacker et al. (2014) is due to the higher values we obtain for the samples grown at cold temperatures, whereas for the Ostrich eggshell formed at 38°C we obtained the same Δ_{47} value. This could be seen as further evidence for the supposed relationship between calibration slopes and carbonate acid digestion temperature of carbonates (Fernandez et al., 2014), with a stronger influence on samples with high Δ_{47} values. However, this explanation has recently been questioned by the experiments of Defliese et al. (2015). It must furthermore be noted that other effects can influence the slope of the T- Δ_{47} relationship, exemplified by two recent studies reporting shallow slopes, despite acid digestions at 25°C: The surface precipitate calibration of Affek and Zaarur (2014) and the recent calibration of Petrizzo et al. (2014). In view of these unknowns, it is important to increase the efforts to understand the origin of these differences including interlaboratory calibration exercises and studies of other possible causes for discrepancies such as the sample to acid ratio and/or factors influencing the re-equilibration of CO₂ with water during the digestion (Defliese et al., 2015). Considering the systematic differences in the slopes of the calibrations obtained with different analytical setups it is important that the calibration used to calculate temperatures was produced with a similar system as used for the samples. One advantage of the high-temperature digestions at 70 and 90°C is the increased reaction rate that improves the sample throughput and allows an automatisisation of the extraction system (e.g. Passey et al., 2010; Meckler et al., 2014) which is not possible for reactions at 25°C.

5.3. *Effects of depositional environment on the Δ_{47} values: places of equilibrium and disequilibrium*

The data presented in this study are derived from samples that were carefully chosen to minimize kinetic fractionation effects. We chose only vent and pool samples, which have been shown to be least affected by kinetic fractionation due to progressive degassing (Yan et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014). The 1000ln α values for most of the samples in this study are close to the original regression line of Kele et al. (2011) and the one of Tremaine et al. (2011), but some samples show higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values. As already noted by Affek and Zaarur (2014), rapid degassing may induce additional fractionation in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, leading to higher carbonate $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. We observe here an even larger extent of fractionation in carbonate $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ than what has been observed by Affek and Zaarur (2014). At present it is unclear what the cause of this

divergence is, but our data confirms the observations of Affek and Zaarur (2014) that these higher fractionations in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ do not seem to be reflected in the clumped isotope data.

The depositional environments for the different samples in this study are very diverse. Where CO_2 degassing rate is fast and the dissolved carbonate and calcium contents of the water are high enough, travertine deposition starts directly at the spring orifice (e.g. Fig. 2D). Sometimes, however, deposition begins only further downstream: e.g., at Pamukkale, carbonate precipitation only starts 155 m downstream from the spring (Kele et al., 2011). If the spring discharges inside a pool, deposition can take place on the surface of the pool in form of calcite rafts (Fig. 1A). Deposition can also occur at the bottom or at the pool rim. Although the mechanism and rate of precipitation in the pools is different from vents (much lower precipitation rate in the pools), Δ_{47} data of pool travertine agree well with the vent travertine calibration curve (Fig. 1A). In pools, with slow carbonate deposition, oxygen isotope exchange between dissolved bicarbonate and H_2O drives oxygen and clumped isotope values towards equilibrium. In cases of limited degassing and very slow carbonate precipitation, the DIC can approach full oxygen isotope exchange with water, leading to equilibrium $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and Δ_{47} values (Affek et al., 2008). At artificial wells, the chosen deposits are mainly carbonate encrustations on tubes (e.g. Rapolano Terme, Fig. 1E) and these fit the vent and pool data very well.

Disequilibrium growth conditions can cause significant changes in both $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and Δ_{47} . Kinetic isotope effects during rapid CO_2 degassing can lead to higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$), but lower Δ_{47} values (Guo et al., 2008; Affek, 2013). This inverse correlation was observed in modern speleothems (Daëron et al., 2011; Wainer et al., 2011; Kluge and Affek, 2012; Kluge et al., 2013), which are potentially more susceptible to kinetic isotope effects than carbonates precipitated in bulk solution (Affek et al., 2008). Theoretical calculations of Guo (2008) indicated that for each 1‰ increase in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ a reduction of 0.0175-0.029‰ in Δ_{47} should occur. Guo (2008) explained the kinetic effects as a consequence of irreversible dehydration or dehydroxylation of carbonic acid or bicarbonate (respectively), followed by outgassing of dissolved CO_2 . In Figure 9B we cross-plot the deviation of $1000\ln\alpha$ and Δ_{47} from the respective regression curves to evaluate if positive offsets in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ are systematically correlated with negative offsets in Δ_{47} . We point out that calculating the deviation from the regression line does not necessarily imply that the observed correlation represents isotopic equilibrium. However the excellent correlation with temperature strongly suggests that temperature is the dominant control on both Δ_{47} and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in our dataset. No correlation is observed if the deviation in $1000\ln\alpha$ is calculated with respect to the published curves of Kim

and O'Neil (1997) and Tremaine et al. (2011). The lack of correlation suggests that no significant kinetic isotope effect related to degassing in our sample set. The average Δ_{47} offset (0.009‰, $\approx 3.7^\circ\text{C}$) is lower than the standard error of the Δ_{47} values (0.011‰ on average; Table 1, Fig. 9B), and the average $1000\ln\alpha$ offset of travertines is 0.647‰ ($\approx 3.5^\circ\text{C}$). The mean Δ_{47} value of the slowly precipitating subaqueous Devils Hole vein calcite, which has been assumed to grow under isotopic equilibrium conditions (Coplen, 2007; Kluge et al., 2014b), locates slightly above (but within the confidence limits of) the empirical travertine curve (Fig. 6A). This offset is in line with initial results from a laboratory inter-comparison study using the four carbonate standards that suggest that Δ_{47} results at Yale University tend to be higher than at ETH (by 0.007 - 0.045‰; average = 0.025 ‰). Considering the current uncertainties in interlaboratory data comparability, these data suggest that vent and pool travertines, which are the least likely to be affected by kinetic fractionation based on previous stable isotope studies (Kele et al., 2008; Kele et al., 2011; Yan et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014), in relation to their clumped isotope composition probably represent close to equilibrium precipitation in the entire 5.6-95°C temperature range.

5.4 Effect of mineralogy (calcite-aragonite) on the Δ_{47} values

Travertine and tufa are mostly composed of inorganic calcite and aragonite and can be used to assess the effect of CaCO_3 polymorphism. Theoretical models of Schauble et al. (2006) suggested that the calcite and aragonite crystal structure and cation substitution (Mg vs. Ca) should have a modest influence of the abundance of ^{13}C - ^{18}O bonds, and theoretical calculations of Guo et al. (2009) similarly predicted different Δ_{47} -T calibration lines for calcite and aragonite for the 260-1500 (K) temperature range. The predicted difference in Δ_{47} between aragonite and calcite is between 0.017‰ (278 K) and 0.0095‰ (363 K) for the temperature range covered in our study. Our sample set contains pure calcitic, almost pure aragonitic and mixed calcitic-aragonitic samples (Table 1). The aragonite-rich samples from Palagio (22.7°C, 99% aragonite) and the other samples with aragonite contents above 80% which were precipitated at temperatures $>56^\circ\text{C}$, all fit within analytical error onto the regression line from all samples (Fig. 6B). A mixed sample with low (<35%) aragonite content (Rapolano Terme, T=28°C) is also on the calibration line. Therefore, our results suggest that aragonite and calcite exhibit a very similar Δ_{47} -T relationship. Similarly, many other studies on biogenic and synthetic carbonates did not resolve any clear mineralogical

effects (Tripathi et al., 2010; Thiagarajan et al., 2011; Zaarur et al., 2013; Henkes et al., 2013; Defliese et al., 2015; Kluge and John, 2015).

5.5 Effect of pH

pH can have an important effect on the oxygen isotopic composition of CaCO_3 since it controls the dissolved carbonate species in the travertine precipitating water, hence the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and Δ_{47} of the mineral (Usdowski et al., 1991; Zeebe 1999, 2007; Beck et al., 2005; Dietzel et al., 2009; Hill et al., 2014). The dominant DIC species at low pH (<6) is CO_2 (aq), at intermediate pH (6-9.5) HCO_3^- , while at high pH (>10.5) CO_3^{2-} becomes dominant. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and the Δ_{47} of the DIC species decrease in this sequence (Zeebe, 1999; Hill et al., 2014). Therefore, carbonates precipitated at higher pH may result in lower $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and lower Δ_{47} values due to higher proportion of CO_3^{2-} in the DIC (McCrea, 1950; Usdowski et al., 1991; Hill et al., 2014). Based on theoretical calculations of Guo (2008) CO_3^{2-} is estimated to be $\sim 0.018\%$ lower in Δ_{47} than HCO_3^- , while the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of the CO_3^{2-} is $\sim 7\%$ lower at 25°C (Beck et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2006).

It is somewhat difficult to assess the effect of pH on our sample set, because changes in pH cannot be isolated from other parameters such as T, degassing rate, and ionic strength. The pH for the travertines varies between 5.6 and 7.7, which is lower than the pH typically used for laboratory-based calibrations (Ghosh et al., 2006a; Zaarur et al., 2013), and two travertine pool samples were precipitated at a pH of 8.1. In Figure 10 we grouped the samples by pH, and the lack of systematic offsets suggests that pH has no major influence on Δ_{47} in our sample set. The experimental study of Tang et al. (2014) ($8.3 \leq \text{pH} \leq 10.5$ at 5°C , 25°C and 40°C) concluded that there are no clear effects of variable pH, ionic strength and growth rate on the measured Δ_{47} values.

5.6 Effect of precipitation rate

Recent studies by Dietzel et al. (2009), Day and Henderson (2010) and Gabitov et al. (2012) emphasized the fact that oxygen isotope fractionation between calcite and water can be affected by the precipitation rate of calcite. Their experiments showed that high carbonate precipitation rates drive $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carbonate}}$ to lower values. Deposition rate might affect the Δ_{47} values, too. Saenger et al. (2012) studied rapidly calcifying hermatypic corals and suggested that their higher than expected Δ_{47} values might be caused by fast calcification, while slowly

calcifying corals are close to or within the range of data from inorganic experiments (Ghosh et al., 2006a). Based on theoretical calculations and precipitation experiments, Tripathi and Hill (2014) suggested that the crystal may inherit the Δ_{47} value of the DIC species and thus record a disequilibrium mineral composition, when the growth rate is high, while DIC speciation effects are likely to be negligible for slow-growing crystals.

In case of the studied travertines the precipitation rate (log R) is variable. At places where log R was measured directly, it varied between 0.06 and 28.5 mg/cm²/day. The highest precipitation rate was measured at the Terme San Giovanni fissure ridge (28.5 mg/cm²/day) coinciding with the highest positive offset from our empirical calibration curve (Table 1, Figs. 6A, 11A). At other places (e.g. Bük, Narrow Gauge springs, Szalajka Creek) precipitation rates are high and Δ_{47} shows also higher values relative to the calibration line (Fig. 6A) but other samples with high precipitation rates (e.g. Tura, Köröm, Igal) plot below the calibration line. Δ_{47} offsets of all travertine and tufa samples calculated relative to water temperature using *eq. 1* show no correlation with precipitation rate (Fig. 8B). Where direct measurements were not possible we qualitatively differentiate sites with low, moderate, high, and very high (cm-to-m/year, comparable to surface corals) deposition. As can be seen in Figure 11B there is no clear correlation between the offset from the calibration regression and the precipitation rates. The morphology of deposited crystals can be affected by their precipitation rate and potentially be used to estimate precipitation rate in case of inactive travertines. However, crystal size can also vary due to several other influencing factors, such as water flow rates or solution chemistry, which can vary through time. To conclude, our data suggest that precipitation rate has no detectable or only minor effects on the Δ_{47} values of these carbonates.

Conclusions

Recent calcitic and aragonitic travertines and tufa samples precipitating from natural thermal springs and wells, as well as one cave tufa sample, were studied for oxygen and clumped isotopes. Our samples represent a wide temperature and pH range, diverse mineralogy and depositional environments with various precipitation rates from geographically different regions. The majority of our vent and pool travertine data show an oxygen isotope fractionation between the mineral-phase and water compatible with the Tremaine et al. (2011) relationship. No significant difference between the calcite-water and aragonite-water oxygen isotope fractionation could be observed.

Δ_{47} data of vent and pool travertines and tufa samples show an excellent correlation with temperature ($r^2 > 0.96$) which is described by the following equation: $\Delta_{47} = (0.044 \pm 0.005 \times 10^6) / T^2 + (0.205 \pm 0.047)$. The slope of the Δ_{47} -T travertine relationship is intermediate compared to previously published ones, and seems to support the hypothesis that a relationship exists between calibration slopes and acid digestion temperature. The Δ_{47} -T correlation is strong, indicating that factors other than temperature (pH, mineralogy, precipitation rate) have no or only minor effects on the Δ_{47} -signal of carbonates. Our calibration is the most robust available calibration from naturally precipitated inorganic carbonates and it can be used to derive the deposition temperature of ancient carbonate deposits (vent travertine, tufa, cave pool carbonate). Consistent data from three biogenic samples furthermore suggests that the calibration might also be applicable to biogenic carbonates. Using the travertine-based, empirically determined calcite-water oxygen isotope fractionation factor, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the travertine and tufa depositing waters can be calculated with more confidence.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION STATEMENT

S. K. and S. M. B. designed the project. S. K. prepared and measured most of the samples at ETH Zürich, interpreted the data and wrote the manuscript. S. M. B., I. M. M., A. N. M., M. Z., S. F. M. B. developed the method at ETH Zürich and wrote parts of the manuscript. I. M. M. prepared and measured some samples. The figures were prepared by S. F. M. B. and S.K.. T. K. and C. M. J. provided input to the analysis of the data. E. C., K. H., Z. L., H. Y. and D. J. provided samples for clumped isotope analyses and contributed to the descriptions of the sites. All co-authors contributed to discussions of this work.

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Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary material related to this article can be found online at <http://..>

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Figure and table captions

Fig. 1

Field photos of the travertine sites with the sampling points:

- A) Recent travertine deposits and thermal pool of Palagio.
- B) Sampling point at Bagnoli thermal spring (precipitation at the tube outlet).
- C) Reddish–brownish recent travertine at the discharge point of the Acqua Borra spring.
- D) Recently active part of the Terme San Giovanni fissure–ridge.
- E) Tap of the Madonna al Colle Well drilled for geothermal exploration.
- F) Small and actively forming travertine mounds indicate the discharge points of the Il Doccio spring located on the riverbank.
- G) Opened thermal spa with recent travertine deposition directly on the riverbank at Bagni di Petriolo.
- H) The outlet of the Fosso Bianco spring (Bagni San Filippo).

Fig. 2

Travertine sites with the sampling points:

- A) Vent pool at Piscine Carletti (Viterbo, Italy).
- B) Carbonate deposits in the cellar of the Széchenyi thermal spa.
- C) The Bük thermal well with its recent carbonate deposit.
- D) Carbonate encrustation within the tube of the Igal thermal well.
- E) Recent aragonitic travertine deposition at the Köröm thermal well.
- F) Terraced slope travertine deposit (P5) at Baishuitai (China).
- G) Vent pool outlet (sample NG-2) at Narrow Gauge Springs (Mammoth Hot Springs, Yellowstone, USA).

Fig. 3

Tufa deposits from karstic creeks and caves. The scale bars represents 20 cm.

- A-C) Calcareous tufa encrustations and dams (samples Szal-2, Szal-6, Szal-15) in Szalajka Creek (Hungary).
- D) Creek bed tufa encrustation at Sarteano (Italy) and at Canatoppa (E).
- F) Perched spring tufa deposit at La Pigna (Italy).
- G) Recent, periodically forming tufa deposit (Havasok tufa) from Baradla cave (Hungary).

Fig. 4

SEM photomicrographs of some selected travertine samples (**Table 1**) showing the variety of crystal shapes and sizes:

- A) Calcite crystals and extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) produced by microorganisms (Bagni San Filippo, Fosso Bianco).
- B) Dendritic structures resembling calcite "feather-like" crystals (Il Doccio).
- C) Gypsum crystals within the calcite (Bagni di Petriolo).
- D) Calcite and goethite (Acqua Borra).
- E) Diatoms within the calcitic-aragonitic travertine (well deposit) of Rapolano Terme.

- F) Dendritic calcite with gypsum crystal (Terme San Giovanni).
 G) EPS filaments and diatom like structures within calcite (Bagnoli).
 H) EPS filaments within aragonitic travertine of Palagio.

Fig. 5

A) Observed $1000\ln\alpha_{\text{CaCO}_3\text{-water}}$ values versus precipitation temperatures. The Devils Hole data point from Coplen (2007) is plotted for comparison. B) Same as A, but coded according to mineralogy. The error bars for $1000\ln\alpha_{\text{CaCO}_3\text{-water}}$ values are smaller than the size of the symbols.

Fig. 6

A) Correlation between precipitation temperature and Δ_{47} of all analyzed recent travertine, tufa and cave carbonates and three biogenic samples. The empirical Δ_{47} - T calibration is based on vent and pool travertine samples. Tufa samples are also shown, together with the Δ_{47} value of recent calcite raft and vein calcite sample from Devils Hole (Kluge et al., 2014b).

B) Δ_{47} values of vent and pool samples with different calcite/aragonite ratio versus temperature.

Fig. 7

Comparison of the $1000\ln\alpha_{\text{CaCO}_3\text{-water}}$ values determined in this study with those from Kim and O'Neil (1997), Affek and Zaarur (2014), Coplen (2007) based on Devils Hole calcite and the cave-specific calibration line of Tremaine et al. (2011).

Fig. 8

Comparison of the temperature dependence of Δ_{47} of travertines with other published studies. Note the steeper slopes obtained with acid reaction temperature of 25°C (Zaarur et al., 2013), and the lower slope for carbonates reacted at 90°C (Wacker et al., 2014). For comparison we also show the theoretical relationship of Guo et al. (2009) and the surface precipitates from Affek and Zaarur (2014).

Fig. 9

A) Observed $1000\ln\alpha$ values versus Δ_{47} values.

B) Offsets in Δ_{47} versus offsets in $1000\ln\alpha_{\text{CaCO}_3\text{-water}}$ from the respective calibration lines determined in this study do not show any significant correlation. The error bar represents the average analytical error in Δ_{47} , the analytical error in $1000\ln\alpha$ is smaller than the size of the symbols.

Fig. 10

A) Temperature dependence of Δ_{47} of travertines and tufa grouped according to pH. B) Δ_{47} offsets from the calibration line (eq. 1) versus pH. The error bar represents the average analytical error in Δ_{47} .

Fig. 11

A) Temperature dependence of Δ_{47} of travertines and tufa grouped by precipitation rate.

B) Δ_{47} offsets from the calibration line (*eq. 1*) versus precipitation rate (arbitrary scale). The error bar represents the average analytical error in Δ_{47} .

Table 1

Mineralogy, facies types, physico-chemical parameters T, pH and EC, TDS, precipitation rate, crystal size and isotopic composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{travertine}}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{travertine}}$, δ^{47} , Δ_{47} , $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$) of the studied samples. Δ_{47} data are reported in the absolute reference frame. “N” is the number of analyzed aliquots of the sample. The Δ_{47} offset is calculated with regard to Δ_{47} obtained using *eq. 1*. T_{expected} shows temperatures calculated using measured Δ_{47} data and *eq. 1*. The $1000\ln\alpha$ offset refers to the difference between the observed calcite-water oxygen isotope fractionation factor and the fractionation factors calculated using the travertine equation of this study. T and pH values of the Madre del Agua sample are from Demény et al. (2010). Data of the Baishuitai travertine samples are taken from Yan et al. (2012). $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of three aragonitic travertines (Köröm, Széchenyi thermal spa, Palagio) were corrected by -0.42‰ , according to the aragonite acid digestion fractionation factor of Kim et al. (2007).

Table 2

Mineralogy and isotopic composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, δ^{47} , Δ_{47}) of the biogenic samples. Δ_{47} data are reported in the absolute reference frame. “N” is the number of analyzed aliquots for each sample.

Table 1

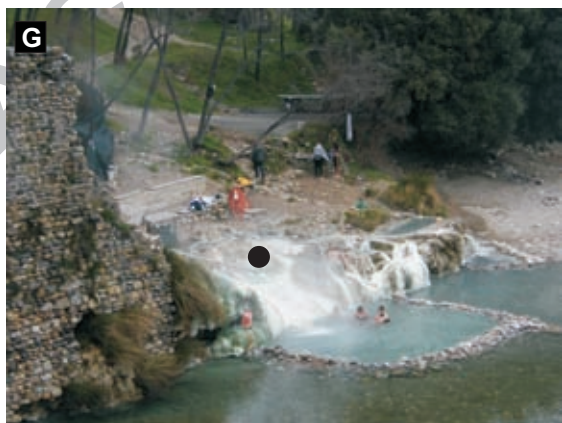
| Site name | GPS coordinates (degree, min, sec) | Sample name | material | mineralogy (%) | origin | facies | T (°C) | pH | EC (mS/cm) | log R (mg/cm ² /d) | crystal size and shape (µm) |
|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------|------------|----------------------------|------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------|------|---------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Tura | N47°36'36", E19°34'17" | Tu-4 well/2000 | travertine | 97 % cc, 3% ar | thermal well | vent | 95.0 | 6.88 | 3.04 | intensive | |
| Igal | N46°32'37", E17°56'42" | B-1/2011 | travertine | 100 % cc | thermal well | vent (tube encrustation) | 75.0 | 6.89 | 12.24 | intensive | |
| Bük | N47°22'25", E16°46'35" | Bük-4 | travertine | 98 % cc, 1% ar | thermal well | vent (tube outlet) | 54.9 | 6.88 | 12.90 | intensive | |
| Szèchenyi Spa, Budapest* | N47°31'07", E19°05'03" | SZ-2/2 | travertine | 20% cc, 80 % ar | thermal well | tube encrustation | 70.9 | 6.40 | 1.57 | intensive | |
| Köröm* | N47°59'49", E20°59'14" | Kör 13/0 | travertine | 97 % ar., 3 % cc | thermal well | vent | 79.2 | 6.80 | 1.38 | intensive | |
| Madre del Agua, Tenerife | N28°10'57", W16°35'40" | Canarian | travertine | 100 % cc | natural spring | channel discharge | 33.8 | 7.70 | n.d. | moderate | |
| Acqua Borra | N43°18'28", E11°25'41" | Acqua Borra | travertine | 85% cc, 15% goethite | natural spring | tube outlet | 36.1 | 6.58 | > 20 | 2.14 (moderate) | no crystal shape |
| Bagni di Petriolo | N43°04'45", E11°17'32" | BP | travertine | 75% cc, 12% gypsum, 10% S | natural spring | tube outlet | 44.3 | 6.45 | 4.54 | moderate | 70 (rhomb.), gypsum (100-200), |
| Bagnoli | N43°26'39", E11°03'15" | Bagnoli | travertine | 95% cc, 2% gypsum, 3% Q | natural spring | tube outlet | 23.7 | 6.62 | 2.98 | 0.06 (very low) | 30-50 (rhomb.), microbial mats |
| Bagni San Filippo, Fosso Bianco | N42°55'39", E11°42'10" | BSF- FB | travertine | 99% cc, 1%>ar, 1%>gypsum | natural spring | spring outlet | 44.6 | 6.53 | 3.54 | 1 (moderate) | 50 (dendritic) |
| Il Doccio | N43° 09'27", E11°17'08" | Il Doccio | travertine | 60% cc, 35% gypsum, 3-5% S | natural spring | vent | 48.3 | 7.05 | 8.7 | 0.1 (low) | 50-70 (dendritic) |
| Palagio* | N43°29'51", E10°52'18" | Palagio | travertine | 99% ar, 1% Q | natural spring | pool (raft) | 22.7 | 6.57 | 6.36 | 0.61 (moderate) | no crystal shape, microbial mats |
| Rapolano Terme | N43°17'58", E11°36'11" | R T-1 | travertine | 80% cc, 20% ar | thermal well | water leak of a thermal well | 28 | 6.62 | 5.72 | low | 50 (rhomb.), diatoms (10) |
| Terme San Giovanni | N43°16'43", E11°35'34" | TSG | travertine | 90% cc, 2 % ar, 8% gypsum | natural spring | small pool on a fissure ridge (raft) | 41.2 | 6.53 | 6.29 | 28.5 (very intensive) | 20-50 (dendritic), gypsum (100) |
| Piscine Carletti, Viterbo | N42°25'18", E12°03'53" | P. Carletti-8.1 | travertine | 98% cc, 1%> ar. | natural spring | closest to vent channel sample | 57.9 | 5.67 | 2.95 | low | |
| Baishuitai | N27°30', E100°02' | P5 summer | travertine | 100 % cc | natural spring | pool | 12.0 | 8.14 | 0.76 | 0.66 (moderate) | |
| Baishuitai | N27°30', E100°02' | P5 winter | travertine | 100 % cc | natural spring | pool | 5.6 | 8.19 | 0.802 | 0.44 (moderate) | |
| Narrow Gauge (M.H.S., Yellowstone) | N44°34'52", W110°25'24" | NG-2 | travertine | 95 % cc, 5% ar, S | natural spring | vent pool outlet | 60.4 | 6.6 | 1.38 | intensive | |
| Sarteano | N42°59'52", E11°53'00" | SAR | tufa | 100 % cc | karstic spring | downstream (100 m) | 20.7 | 8.92 | 2.11 | moderate | |
| Canatoppa | N43°16'41", E11°35'20" | CAN | tufa | 100 % cc | karstic spring | downstream sample | 11 | 8.94 | 1.65 | moderate | |
| La Pigna | N43°06'38", E11°15'43" | LAP | tufa | 100 % cc | karstic spring | downstream (20 m, below a cascade) | 12.5 | 8.61 | 0.55 | moderate | |
| Szalajka | N48°05'27", E20°24'09" | Szal-2 | tufa | 95 %cc, 5 % detrital min. | karstic spring | downstream tufa dam | 10.1 | 8.45 | 0.503 | intensive | |
| Szalajka | N48°05'27", E20°24'09" | Szal-6 | tufa | 96 %cc, 5 % detrital min. | karstic spring | downstream tufa dam | 11.0 | 8.55 | 0.473 | intensive | |
| Szalajka | N48°05'27", E20°24'09" | Szal-15 | tufa | 97 %cc, 5 % detrital min. | karstic spring | downstream tufa dam | 12.1 | 8.53 | 0.484 | intensive | |
| Havasok | N48°28'17", E20°29'44" | Havasok | cave tufa | 100 % cc | cave karst water | cascade/pool rim | 9.5 | n.d. | n.d. | very low | |

Table 1 contd.

| Site name | $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{trav}}$ (‰, PDB) | $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{trav}}$ (‰, SMOW) | $\delta^{18}\text{O}_w$ (‰ SMOW) | δ^{47} (‰) | Δ_{47} (‰) | S.E. ± | N | Δ_{47} calculated (using eq.1 ; ‰) | Δ_{47} offset (from eq.1 ; ‰) | T_{expected} (using eq.1) | 1000 ln α obs. (‰) | 1000 ln α calculated (using empirical eq ; ‰) | 1000 ln α offset (from emp. eq ; ‰) |
|------------------------------------|---|--|-------------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-----------|------|--|---|---------------------------------------|------------------------------|---|---|
| Tura | 3.78 | 6.89 | -12.4 | -6.648 | 0.51 | 0.012 | 30 | 0.525 | -0.015 | 104 | 19.3 | 18.33 | 1.02 |
| Igal | 0.75 | 16.84 | -4.0 | 0.474 | 0.555 | 0.013 | 30 | 0.563 | -0.008 | 79 | 20.7 | 21.45 | -0.74 |
| Bük | 2.34 | 15.27 | -9.9 | 0.507 | 0.625 | 0.016 | 27 | 0.609 | 0.016 | 49 | 25.1 | 24.97 | 0.14 |
| Szèchenyi Spa, Budapest* | 2.9 | 9.33 | -12.6 | -4.562 | 0.567 | 0.011 | 30 | 0.572 | -0.005 | 73 | 22.0 | 22.13 | -0.16 |
| Köröm* | 3.62 | 7.84 | -11.5 | -5.399 | 0.545 | 0.004 | 37 | 0.554 | -0.009 | 84 | 19.4 | 20.76 | -1.39 |
| Madre del Agua, Tenerife | 0.24 | 20.14 | -8.1 | 3.384 | 0.656 | 0.012 | 29 | 0.667 | -0.011 | 37 | 28.1 | 29.16 | -1.09 |
| Acqua Borra | 2.99 | 22.98 | -5.2 | 8.884 | 0.655 | 0.025 | 30 | 0.660 | -0.005 | 38 | 27.9 | 28.67 | -0.74 |
| Bagni di Petriolo | 3.3 | 21.23 | -6.4 | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | | n.d. | 27.4 | 27.00 | 0.43 |
| Bagnoli | 5.64 | 25.36 | -7.0 | 13.859 | 0.695 | 0.010 | 22 | 0.699 | -0.004 | 25 | 32.1 | 31.37 | 0.70 |
| Bagni San Filippo, Fosso Bianco | 7.45 | 20.74 | -7.9 | 10.931 | 0.644 | 0.004 | 30 | 0.636 | 0.008 | 42 | 28.5 | 26.94 | 1.52 |
| Il Doccio | 2.4 | 19.99 | -5.9 | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | n.d. | 0.626 | | n.d. | 25.7 | 26.22 | -0.51 |
| Palagio* | 2.47 | 24.63 | -7.0 | 10.09 | 0.696 | 0.018 | 30 | 0.703 | -0.007 | 25 | 31.4 | 31.60 | -0.24 |
| Rapolano Terme | 3.8 | 23.15 | -6.9 | 9.851 | 0.68 | 0.016 | 33 | 0.685 | -0.005 | 30 | 29.8 | 30.41 | -0.61 |
| Terme San Giovanni | 2.58 | 21.73 | -6.9 | 7.254 | 0.678 | 0.012 | 28 | 0.645 | 0.033 | 30 | 28.4 | 27.62 | 0.80 |
| Piscine Carletti, Viterbo | 7.25 | 18.18 | -6.5 | 8.109 | 0.603 | 0.007 | 30 | 0.601 | 0.002 | 57 | 24.5 | 24.41 | 0.12 |
| Baishuitai | 5.63 | 16.14 | n.d. | 4.615 | 0.741 | 0.013 | 37 | 0.741 | 0.000 | 12 | n.d. | 34.14 | n.d. |
| Baishuitai | 5.28 | 17.66 | n.d. | 5.809 | 0.749 | 0.013 | 38 | 0.766 | -0.017 | 10 | n.d. | 35.75 | n.d. |
| Narrow Gauge (M.H.S., Yellowstone) | 3.98 | 5.65 | -17.9 | -7.658 | 0.601 | 0.009 | 29 | 0.595 | 0.006 | 58 | 23.7 | 23.96 | -0.27 |
| Sarteano | 0.55 | 23.3 | -7.8 | 6.844 | 0.703 | 0.009 | 29 | 0.710 | -0.007 | 23 | 30.8 | 32.06 | -1.22 |
| Canatoppa | -3.97 | 25.32 | -6.5 | 4.517 | 0.742 | 0.008 | 29 | 0.745 | -0.003 | 12 | 31.6 | 34.39 | -2.82 |
| La Pigna | -11.27 | 25.08 | -6.8 | -2.806 | 0.73 | 0.021 | 31 | 0.739 | -0.009 | 15 | 31.6 | 34.02 | -2.43 |
| Szalajka | -10.2 | 22.19 | -10.6 | -4.616 | 0.755 | 0.006 | 27 | 0.748 | 0.007 | 8 | 32.6 | 34.61 | -2.01 |
| Szalajka | -9.86 | 21.94 | -10.6 | -4.553 | 0.732 | 0.008 | 29 | 0.745 | -0.013 | 14 | 32.4 | 34.39 | -2.03 |
| Szalajka | -9.44 | 21.33 | -10.7 | -4.719 | 0.76 | 0.008 | 23 | 0.741 | 0.019 | 7 | 31.9 | 34.11 | -2.25 |
| Havasok | -10.95 | 22.95 | -9.7 | -4.586 | 0.756 | 0.01 | 30 | 0.751 | 0.005 | 8 | 32.4 | 34.76 | -2.32 |

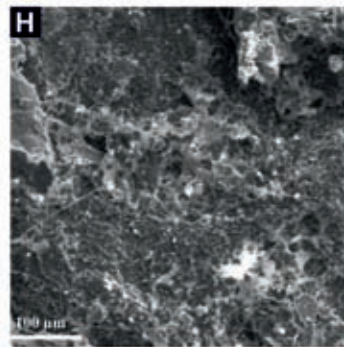
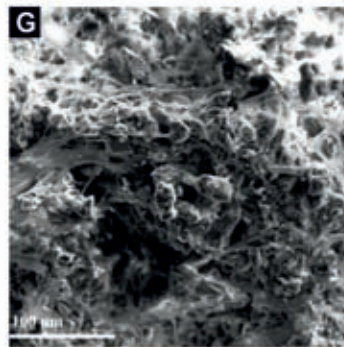
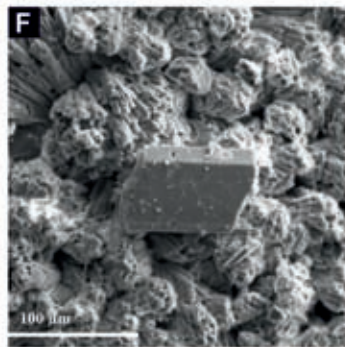
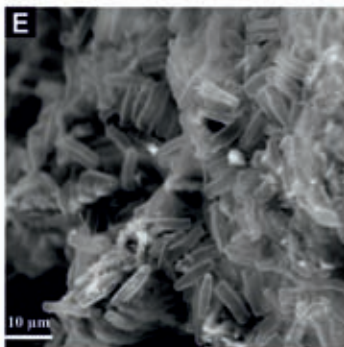
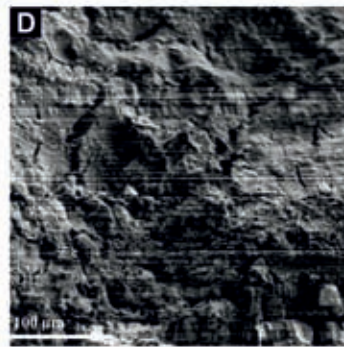
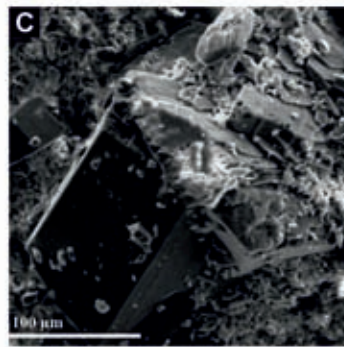
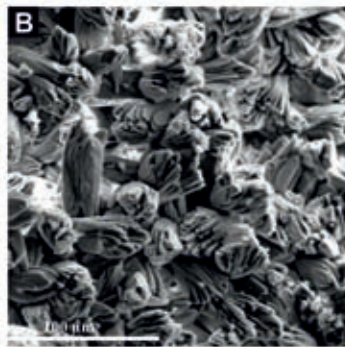
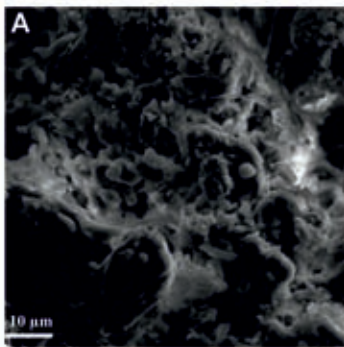
Table 2

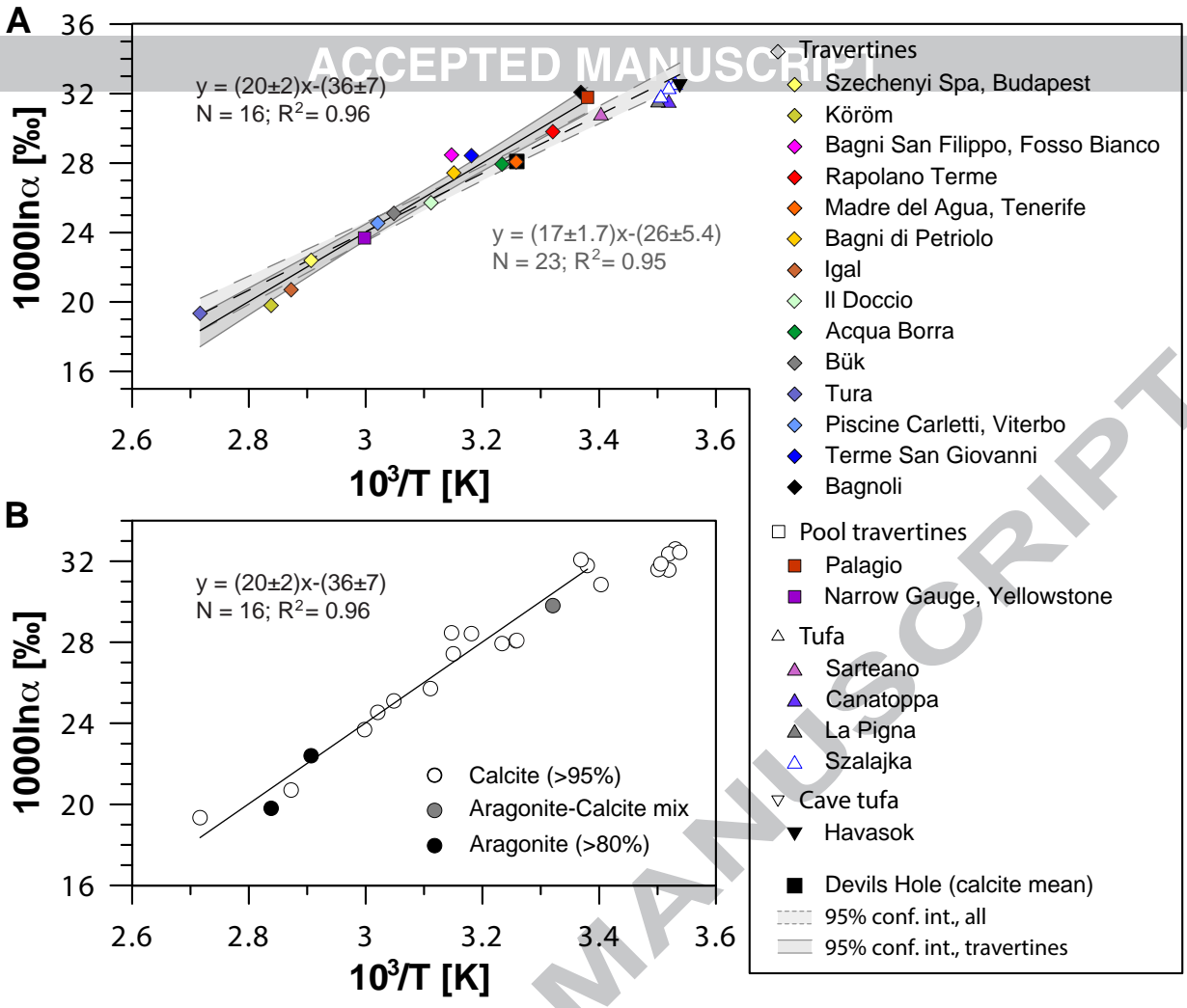
| Sample name | material | mineralogy | T (°C) | $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰, PDB) | $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cc}}$ (‰, PDB) | δ^{47} (‰) | Δ_{47} (weighted average) (‰) | SE ± | N |
|--------------------------|------------|------------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---|----------------------|---|--------------|----|
| <i>Arctica Islandica</i> | bivalve | aragonite | 6 | 1.67 | 3.48 | 19.30 | 0.759 | 0.004 | 40 |
| <i>Dyscolia wyvillei</i> | brachiopod | calcite | 10 | 2.51 | 2.47 | 19.06 | 0.742 | 0.018 | 36 |
| Eggshell of an Ostrich | eggshell | calcite | 38 | -12.68 | -3.84 | -2.34 | 0.648 | 0.014 | 36 |

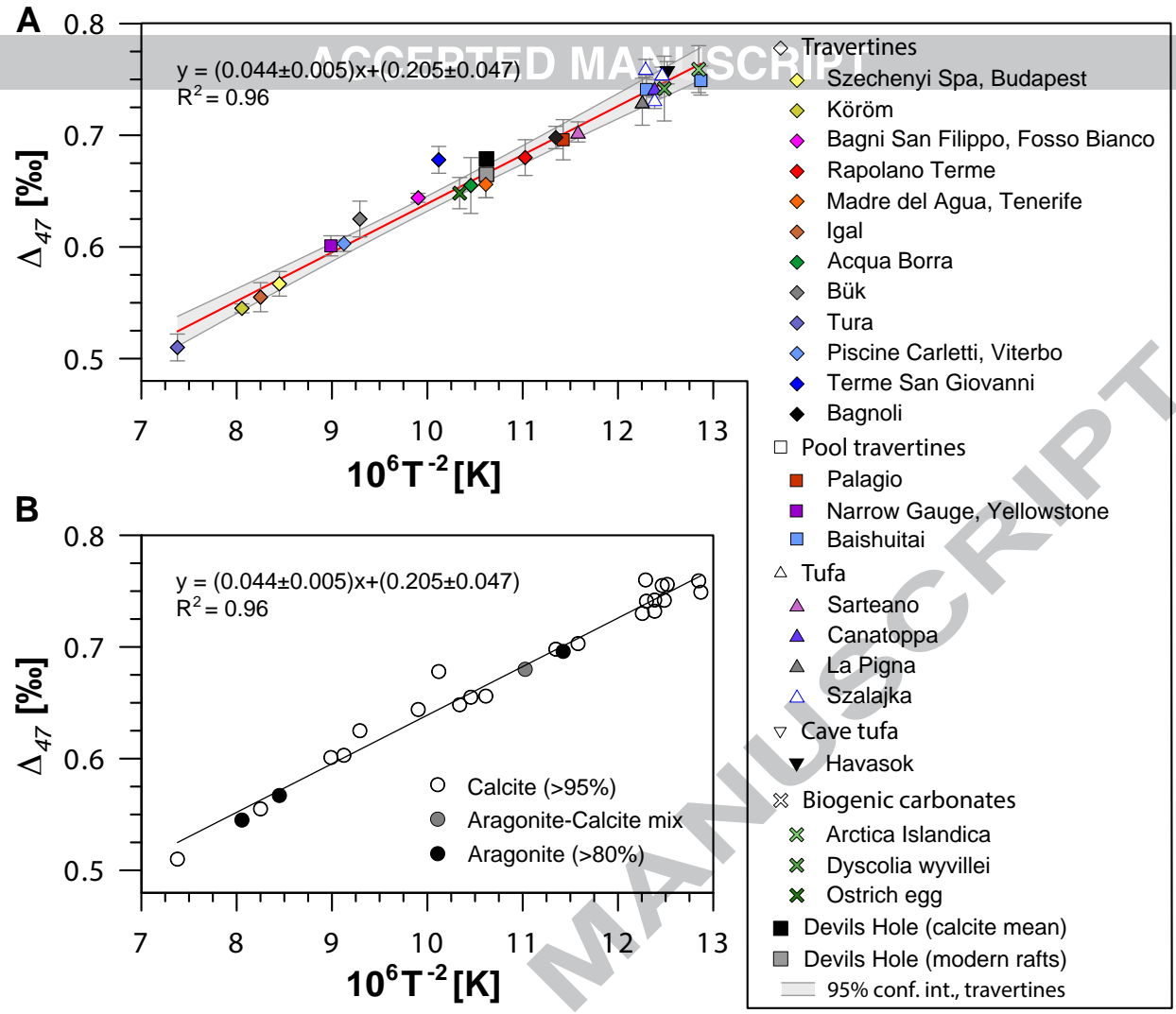












$1000\ln\alpha$ [‰]

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

$$y = (20 \pm 2.2)x - (36 \pm 6.8)$$
$$R^2 = 0.96; N = 16$$

Kim & O'Neil (1997)

Coplen (2007)

Tremaine et al. (2011)

Affek & Zaarur (2014)

◆ Vent calcite

◆ Vent aragonite

■ Pool calcite

■ Pool aragonite

△ Tufa calcite

▲ Cave calcite

95% conf. int. (travertines)

2.6

2.8

3

3.2

3.4

3.6

$10^3/T$ [K]

