Comments on "Dehydration of hot oceanic slab at depth 30–50 km: Key to formation of Irankuh-Emarat Pb-Zn MVT belt, Central Iran" by Mohammad Hassan Karimpour and Martiya Sadeghi

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15 Abstract

The Malayer-Esfahan Metallogenic belt (MEMB), in the southwestern Iran, contains 16 numerous different types of the sediment-hosted Zn-Pb (±Ba±Ag), volcanic-17 sediment hosted Zn-Pb±Ba. sideritic Fe-Mn-Pb (±Ba±Cu), barite 18 and mineralizations. These deposits are hosted mostly in Jurassic shales and 19 sandstones and in Early to Late Cretaceous carbonates and siltstones with minor 20 volcanic rocks. In contrast to the orogenic-related Mississippi Valley type (MVT) 21 deposits, the MEMB deposits formed in an extensional back-arc environment and 22 23 are characterized by their stratabound and stratiform orebodies. In these deposits, silicification and dolomitization (± sericitization) are the main wall-rock alteration 24 styles. The presence of primary laminated sulfides, fine-grained disseminated 25 sphalerite and galena in association with framboidal pyrite, sedimentary structures in 26

sulfide laminae and bands, and the association of some tuffaceous and volcanic 1 2 rocks with sulfide mineralizations, along with replacement ore textures in the MEMB 3 deposits are not compatible with orogenic-related MVT model for these mineralization. These characteristics in the Cretaceous MEMB deposits are more 4 compatible with a sub-marine hydrothermal system with sub-seafloor replacement 5 6 mineralization (e.g., Irish type). Some deposits also share characteristics between Irish type and volcanogenic massive sulfide (VMS) deposits, called VSHMS in this 7 paper. The main argument against the MVT model of Karimpour and Sadeghi (2018) 8 9 is that this model is not acceptable for the MEMB deposits and could not explain metallogenic aspects of the Zn-Pb (±Ba±Ag) and other mineralizations in this belt. 10

11 Keywords:

Malayer-Esfahan Metallogenic belt (MEMB), Mississippi Valley Type (MVT) deposits, back-arc basin, sediment-hosted Zn-Pb (±Ba±Ag), sub-seafloor replacement

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The Malayer-Esfahan Metallogenic belt (MEMB) in southwestern Iran (Figs. 1a and 2) 16 contains an enormous accumulation of different types of the sediment-hosted Zn-Pb 17 (±Ba±Ag), Fe-Mn-Pb (±Ba±Cu) and barite mineralizations (Rajabi et al., 2012; Hou and 18 Zhang, 2015). We appreciate the effort and contribution of Karimpour and Sadeghi 19 (2018) on the origin of the sediment-hosted (SH) Zn-Pb (±Ba±Ag) deposits in Malayer-20 21 Esfahan metallogenic belt (MEMB), Sanandaj-Sirjan tectonic zone (SSZ). Karimpour and Sadeghi (2018) proposed a genetic model for these deposits, based on field work 22 23 and Pb isotope geochemistry on galena in some selected deposits and presented a discussion on the role of dehydration of hot oceanic slab in the formation of MVT 24 25 deposits. However, we have been working on the MEMB for more than 20 years (especially by third author, Rastad), resulting in twenty-four MSc and PhD theses and 26 dissertations on the mineralization in this belt. Based on our geological field 27 experiences, mineralogical and geochemical data, we wish to comment on the 28

conclusions of Karimpour and Sadeghi (2018) and would like to address the following
 arguments:

- Most of the SH Zn-Pb (±Ba±Ag) deposits in the MEMB are formed in an
 extensional back-arc environment (Rajabi et al., 2012).
- 2) These deposits are not typical orogenic-related Mississippi valley type (MVT)
 deposits introduced by Bradley and Leach (2003), but they are compatible with
 sub-marine hydrothermal system as sub-seafloor replacement (e.g., Irish type or
 Red Dog?) mineralization, and some of them are transitional between Irish type
 and volcanogenic massive sulfide (VMS) deposits, we call them VSHMS in this
 paper.
- 3) Slab was supposedly 35 to 45 degrees dipping (Fig. 14 in Karimpour and Sadeghi, 2018) and such a steep angle have induced slab roll-back (and far-field rifting and high heat flow). Therefore, the low radiogenic Pb isotopes (Mirnejad et al., 2011; Haghi et al., 2019) in these deposits also can indicate that they had a mantle source and were contaminated by continental rocks in an extensional back-arc environment due to a slab roll-back.

17 **First**, Karimpour and Sadeghi (2018) claim that the SH Zn-Pb (±Ba±Ag) mineralizations in the MEMB are linked to the orogenic thrust zones and formed in a forearc tectonic 18 setting without discussing the geology or the tectonic setting of the SSZ, MEMB and 19 these deposits during the Mesozoic. Karimpour and Sadeghi (2018) propose that these 20 deposits occurred in the early stage of Neo-Tethys subduction (Late Cretaceous?, 21 22 abstract, line 20), whereas many researchers believe that subduction initiated in the 23 Jurassic or even Late Triassic (Stampfli and Borel, 2002; Ghasemi and Talbot, 2006; Bagheri and Stampfli, 2008; Mohajjel and Fergusson, 2014). Recent observations from 24 25 the ophiolites (Fig. 1a) and igneous rocks show that the suture zone between the SSZ and CIM is, in fact, a complex structure formed by an ocean-crustal floored back-arc 26 27 basin (Shahabpour, 2005; Bagheri and Stampfli, 2008; Moghadam et al., 2009; Mohajjel and Fergusson, 2014) that is known as the Malayer-Esfahan (or Nain-Baft) super basin. 28 29 The development of the SSZ is related to the generation of the Neo-Tethys Ocean in the Permian to Triassic and its subsequent destruction due to the convergence and 30

continental collision between the Arabian and Iranian plates during the Eocene to lower 1 Miocene time (Mohajjel et al., 2003; Agard et al., 2005; Ghasemi and Talbot, 2005). 2 Subduction of the Neo-Tethys oceanic crust beneath the southern margin of the Iranian 3 Plate (including the SSZ) occurred in the Late Triassic (Bagheri and Stampfli, 2008; 4 Moghadam et al., 2009). Subduction led to the development of arc magmatism in the 5 SSZ from Late Triassic to the Cretaceous (Azizi and Jahangiri, 2008; Mohajjel and 6 Fergusson, 2014) and obduction of Neo-Tethys ophiolite preserved in the Sarv-Abad, 7 Kermanshah and Neyriz areas (Ghazi et al., 2003; Moghadam et al., 2010; Moghadam 8 and Stern, 2011). The convergence between the Arabian and Iranian plates (Fig. 1b, 9 1c) also led to the opening of the Malayer-Esfahan and Nain-Baft basins between the 10 SSZ and Central Iranian Microcontinent (CIM) (Fig. 1c) and deposition of related 11 extensive Early Cretaceous sediments (Shahabpour, 2005; Bagheri and Stampfli, 2008; 12 Moghadam et al., 2009). During the Late Cretaceous, the north and north-eastward 13 14 migration of the SSZ arc, the Nain-Baft oceanic crust began to subduct under the CIM (Ghasemi and Talbot, 2005; Moghadam et al., 2009). The closure of the back-arc basin 15 16 generated the Late Cretaceous to Palaeocene ophiolitic melanges in the Shahr-e-Babak, Dehshir, Nain and Baft areas (Fig. 2) (Bagheri and Stampfli, 2008). Therefore, if 17 18 the formation of MVT deposits is related to the "dehydration of hot oceanic slab during the early stages of subduction", as suggested by Karimpour and Sadeghi (2018), we 19 20 would expect to see these deposits in the Triassic or Jurassic rocks, not within the Early Cretaceous units. 21

Second, the main assumption of Karimpour and Sadeghi (2018) in their paper is that 22 the SH Zn-Pb (±Ba±Ag) deposits of the MEMB are orogenic-related MVT without 23 providing sufficient geological, mineralogical and textural evidences and discussion. But 24 detailed geological investigation on some of these deposits (e.g., Irankuh and Tiran 25 mining district, Robat, Khanabad, Ahangaran, Eastern Haft-Savaran, Darrehnoghreh, 26 Salehpeyghambar, Kuhkolangeh, Lakan, Shamsabad and Sarchal deposits) indicates 27 that most of these deposits are really different from orogenic-related MVT. Here we 28 would like to mention some points that are not compatible with the model suggested by 29 30 Karimpour and Sadeghi (2018):

A) The SH Zn-Pb (±Ba±Ag) deposits of the MEMB occur in several different stratigraphic horizons/positions (Figs. 3 and 4). This emphasizes that the host strata (the host basin) is the significant ore controlling factor in the formation of these deposits, not the younger thrust faults. Moreover, many of these mineralizations occur adjacent to syn-sedimentary normal faults and their formation is not related to the thrust belts.

- B) Leach et al. (2005, 2010) proposed that MVT deposits form in relation to the 7 development of foreland basins in front of an orogeny in a carbonate platform 8 (Fig. 5a), and have no obvious genetic association with igneous rocks and 9 activities (see Figures 2 and 3 in Leach et al., 2010). But detailed geological 10 studies in the MEMB indicate that many of the SH Zn-Pb (±Ba±Ag) deposits in 11 12 this belt are associated with minor submarine volcanism (Figs. 3 and 4) within the Early Cretaceous sedimentary sequence (e.g., Tiran Mining 13 District. Yarmohammadi et al., 2016; Irankuh Mining District, Boveiri et al., 2017; 14 Golpaygan Mining District, Fadaei, 2018; Fadaei et al., 2016; Eastern Haft-15 16 Savaran deposit, Mahmoodi, 2018). Moreover, some of them are hosted directly by the Early Cretaceous volcanic or volcano-sedimentary rocks (e.g., 17 18 Darrehnoghreh deposit, Rajabi et al., 2012; Fadaei et al., 2016: Salehpeyghambar deposit, Fadaei, 2018), and some of the Fe-Mn-Pb (±Ba±Cu) 19 20 deposits (e.g., Ahangaran, Shamsabad and Sarchal, Rajabi, 2015; Akbari, 2017; Peernajmodin, 2018) are hosted within the Early Cretaceous siltstones, 21 sandstones and tuffaceous rocks. 22
- C) Barite is typically minor or absent in MVT deposits (Leach et al., 2005; p. 563),
 but this mineral is an important gangue mineral in the MEMB, replaced by
 coarse-grained galena and sphalerite (e.g., Irankuh and Tiran mining districts,
 Robat and Kuhkolngeh deposits) and some of the barite ores are economic (e.g.,
 Robat II deposit).
- D) Dolomitization is the most important alteration in MVT deposits but silicification is
 rare or absent (Leach et al., 2005; Sangster D.F., pers. comm.). However,
 silicification is one of the major hydrothermal alterations in the MEMB deposits.
 Also unlike to what Karimpour and Sadeghi (2018) assumed in their article,

- silicification is the major hydrothermal alteration at the Emarat (Ehya et al.,
 2010), Lakan, Robat, Kuhkolangeh (Peernajmodin et al., 2018; Haghi et al.,
 2019), Khanabad and Eastern Haft-Savaran deposits (Mahmoodi, 2018).
- E) MVT deposits are typically Cu-poor (Leach et al., 2005), while in most of the
 MEMB deposits chalcopyrite and tetrahedrite are abundant (Boveiri et al., 2015;
 2017; Yarmohammadi et al., 2016), even more than in SEDEX deposits from the
 CIM (Rajabi et al., 2015a,b).
- F) The ore fluids in MVT deposits are basinal brines with ~10 to 30 wt. % NaCl 8 equiv. and temperatures of ore deposition typically from 75° to about 200°C. 9 Fluid inclusion studies on the MEMB SH Zn-Pb (±Ba±Aq) deposits indicate high 10 temperature ore fluids, in the range of 100° to ~325°C with salinity from 2 to 24 11 wt. % NaCl equiv. (Yarmohammadi et al., 2016; Boveiri et al., 2017; Boveiri and 12 Rastad, 2018; Haghi et al., 2019), which is not consistent with MVT ore fluids and 13 is more compatible with sub-marine hydrothermal mineralization formed via 14 replacement. 15
- 16 G) Detailed mineralogical and textural studies on the MEMB SH Zn-Pb (±Ba±Ag) deposits generally indicate two (or three in some deposits) main paragenetic 17 types of sulfides that are common in most of these deposits (e.g., Irankuh and 18 Tiran mining districts, Robat, Eastern Haft-savaran, Lakan and Khanabad 19 20 deposits): (1) deposition of volumetrically minor, early, fine-grained, disseminated (to laminated in some of them, Fig 6d, e) sulfides and euhedral barite in 21 unconsolidated sediments at or near the seafloor (Rajabi et al., 2012; Boveiri et 22 al., 2017; Mahmoodi et al., 2019), which in most deposits are associated with 23 24 large content of framboidal pyrite (Yarmohammadi et al., 2016; Boveiri et al., 2017; Mahmoodi et al., 2018; Peernajmodin et al., 2018; Rajabi and Mahmoodi, 25 2018). These sulfides and barite are followed by (2) the main coarse-grained 26 sulfide mineralization and extensive sub-seafloor replacement of barite, 27 carbonates and early sulfide laminae/bands by sulfides, and hydrothermal 28 minerals such as quartz, dolomite and siderite within the host siltstone and/or 29 limestone units. (3) A last generation of sulfide minerals is observed in some 30 deposits (e.g., Irankuh and Tiran mining districts; Yarmohammadi, 2015; Boveiri 31

et al., 2017) and includes coarse-grained sphalerite and galena with minor pyrite concentrated in some reverse fault zones due to the later orogenic movements. In these faults, both sulfide minerals and the host rocks show signs of intense deformation.

The fine-grained nature of sulfides at the beginning of mineralization (type 1) 5 reflects rapid crystallization sub-seafloor in unconsolidated mud, likely caused by 6 mixing of seawater with ascending metalliferous fluids (Herzig and Hannington, 7 1995; Kelley et al., 2004a,b; Kelley and Jennings, 2004). Textures and mineral 8 assemblages similar to type 1 sulfides have also been described in the CIM 9 SEDEX deposits (Rajabi et al., 2015a,b). Similar textures also have been 10 reported at the Red Dog deposits, Alaska, USA (Kelley et al., 2004a,b; Kelley 11 12 and Jennings, 2004); however, they have been interpreted as the result of the sulfide deposition mainly at the subsurface by impregnation in unconsolidated 13 organic-rich muds. 14

- H) Except the SH Zn-Pb (±Ba±Ag) deposits, there are several unusual Fe-Mn-Pb 15 16 (±Ba±Cu) deposits in the northwestern part of the MEMB that are hosted in both siliciclastic and volcanic rocks (e.g., Ahangaran, Sarchal, Fig. 6c; Shamsabad, 17 18 Ghezeldar and Saki deposits) and that represent transitional characteristics between SEDEX and volcanogenic massive sulfide deposits (Rajabi, 2015; 19 20 Akbari, 2017; Peernajmodin, 2018). In these deposits Fe-bearing carbonates (siderite and ankerite) are the most important hydrothermal minerals that are 21 associated with barite, chalcopyrite, pyrite and galena (e.g., Ahangaran, Sarchal 22 and Shamsabad deposits). Presence of such abundant Fe carbonates 23 24 associated with barite and sulfides is not common in MVT deposits, but can form by sub-seafloor replacement mineralizations in an extensional environment, with 25 associated submarine volcanism, and are most common in sideritic Fe-Mn-Pb 26 (±Ba±Cu) ore deposits. 27
- I) Fe-rich dolomite (or ankerite) is one of most frequent carbonate alteration
 observed in the MEMB deposit (Mahmoodi et al., 2019; Boveiri and Rastad,
 2018). This carbonate may have formed as the typical alteration of sub-marine
 hydrothermal sediment-hosted hydrothermal deposits (Lydon, 1996).

- J) MVT deposits are hosted mainly by dolostone, limestone and rarely sandstone (Leach et al., 2005), while most of the MEMB deposits occur in carbonate and siltstones or shales. Moreover, in some cases they are hosted by tuffaceous rocks or associated to submarine volcanic rocks (Fig. 4).
- K) Detailed tectonic studies and measurement of kinematic indicators in Tiran and 5 Irankuh mining districts and also in Eastern Haft-Savaran, Shamsabad and Ab-6 Bagh II deposits suggest that the formation of these deposits are related to syn-7 sedimentary normal faults of the Early Cretaceous (Yarmohammadi et al., 2016; 8 Boveiri et al., 2016; Mahmoodi, 2018; Peernajmodin, 2018; Movahednia et al., 9 2018), some of which were subsequently reactivated as reverse faults after the 10 Late Cretaceous tectonic event (Nakini, 2013; Boveiri, 2016; Yarmohammadi, 11 12 2015). Yarmohammadi (2015) reported some igneous components, sedimentary breccias and debris flows adjacent to the normal fault at the Vejin-Paein deposit. 13 14 Debris flows and sedimentary breccias abruptly increase in thickness toward the normal faults. Interfingering of debris flows with fine-grained sediments, along 15 16 with abrupt lateral changes in facies and thickness, indicate the proximity of a synsedimentary faults (Goodfellow, 2004; Rajabi et al., 2015a). 17
- 18 L) In addition to the Early Cretaceous SH Zn-Pb (±Ba±Ag) and Fe-Mn-Pb (±Ba±Cu) deposits, there are enormous shale-hosted SEDEX-type deposits hosted in the 19 20 Late Jurassic black shales, siltstones and sandstones, which also are related to back-arc extension (e.g., Hossein-Abad, Gol-e-Zard, Ab-Bagh I, Western Haft-21 Savaran; Mahmoodi et al., 2018; Movahednia et al., 2018). In addition, many 22 volcanogenic massive sulfide deposits are identified in the Jurassic rocks (e.g., 23 24 Bavanat, Sargaz and Chahgaz deposits; Mousivand et al., 2011; 2018) and in the Cretaceous rocks (e.g., Barika and Abdolsamadi deposits; Yarmohammadi, 25 2006; Mousivand et al., 2018) of the SSZ. The presence of these ore deposits in 26 the same basin, along with the Early Cretaceous deposits indicate a complex 27 tectonic and metallogenic history of the SSZ which is not explainable with the 28 model of Karimpour and Sadeghi (2018). 29
- M) Some of the MEMB SH Zn-Pb (±Ba±Ag) deposits occur concordantly within the silicified and dolomitized limestone (Fig. 6a,b), at the contact between the Early

Cretaceous massive orbitolina-bearing limestone and the Upper Shale and marl 1 units (e.g., Emarat, Robat, Kuhkolangeh, Lakan and Muchan), which show 2 tabular shapes (Fig. 6a,b,c; also see figure 3 in Ehya et al., 2010). However, they 3 are stratabound, since their shapes are concordant with the host layers and 4 experienced the same folding systems due to the post ore compressional 5 6 tectonism. In addition, some mineralizations, such as the Sarchal Fe-Mn-Pb (±Ba±Cu) deposit, are completely tabular and hosted in Early Cretaceous 7 siltstones and tuffaceous rocks (Fig. 6c). This indicates that orebodies formed 8 before the compression and that are not related to the thrust fault systems. 9

10 **Third**, Lead geochemistry:

Another major assumption of Karimpour and Sadeghi (2018) in their paper is based on 11 lead isotope dating of galena by Liu et al. (2015), which suggests an age of 66 Ma for 12 the Irankuh mineralization. Subsequently, based on this dating, they concluded that "the 13 age of Irankuh-Emarat Pb-Zn deposits is related to early stage of Neo-Tethys oceanic 14 subducted slab". As we said before, there are at least three sulfide generations at the 15 most of the MEMB SH Zn-Pb (±Ba±Ag) deposits. Therefore, isotope composition of ore 16 deposits can be extremely complicated to interpret. The first question about the isotope 17 dating by Liu et al. (2015, 2018) is that which generation of galena and pyrite were 18 analyzed. A quick look at the paragenetic sequence of the Irankuh mining district on 19 figure 6 in Karimpour and Sadeghi (2018) and on Liu et al. (2015; 2018) show that they 20 did not separate different sulfide generations in their studies; so, it is impossible to fully 21 22 evaluate the accuracy of the lead isotope dating of Liu et al. (2015) and model obtained 23 by Karimpour and Sadeghi (2018). Furthermore, it is often difficult to determine the absolute age of galena directly with precision, and several analyses of galena from one 24 deposit can give different ages (Rasskazov et al., 2010a,b; Dickin, 2018). Lead model 25 age of galena can be older or younger than their geological ages, even some have 26 27 model age in the future (Allegre et al., 2008; Dickin, 2018). Therefore, due to the mobility of Pb during geological processes, the galena method is largely discredited as 28 a dating tool, although it may provide powerful constraints on the Earth's evolution 29 (Tosdal et al., 1999; Allegre et al., 2008). 30

2 Other comments:

- a) On Table 2, Karimpour and Sadegi (2018) introduced a limited number of Zn-Pb
 deposits, which are presented as MVT deposits. However, mineralogy, fluid
 inclusions, host rocks, ore textures and sulfide paragenesis and even
 geochemistry of these deposits differ from MVT mineralization.
- b) Parallelism of the SSZ and Urumieh-Dokhtar (UD) magmatic belt is not a reason
 that supports genetic relationships between ore deposits in these belts, inasmuch
 as these zones are different in tectonic environment and metallogenic history.
 The SSZ experienced Jurassic arc magmatism and the Late Jurassic to Early
 Cretaceous back arc environments, whereas the UD is denoted by Tertiary arc to
 post orogenic magmatism.
- c) Contrary to what Karimpour and Sadegi (2018) claim, many outcrops of volcanic
 rocks have been reported from Irankuh mining district (Boveiri et al., 2017), Tiran
 mining District (Yarmohammadi et al., 2016), Golpaygan Mining District (Fadaei
 et al., 2016, Fadaei, 2018), Ahangaran (Akbari, 2017) and Sarchal areas.
- d) The Early Cretaceous-hosted SH Zn-Pb (±Ba±Aq) deposits occur around the 17 Nain-Baft and Sabzevar suture zones, far from the Zagros thrust zone (ZTZ i.e. 18 the collision suture between the Arabian and Iranian plates; Figs. 1a,b, 2, 5c). If 19 Early Cretaceous-hosted Zn-Pb deposits formed due to the collision of the 20 Arabian and Iranian plates, or dehydration of a Neo-Tethys oceanic subducted 21 slab under the SSZ (in a forearc environment), it is so difficult to explain the 22 23 presence of numerous Early Cretaceous SH Zn-Pb (+Ba+Ag) and other VHSMS deposits in the MEMB and also the YAMB (Yazd-Anarak metallogenic belt in the 24 CIM), in both sides of the Malayer-Esfahan super-basin (Figs. 2, 5b,c; for a 25 detailed explanation see Rajabi et al., 2012). 26
- e) According to the presence of VSHMS deposits in the MEMB (e.g.,
 Darrehnoghreh and Salehpeyghambar), it is possible that slab fluids resemble
 VSHMS-forming fluids. Therefore, what triggered mineral precipitation must have

been T and pH changes near the seafloor, which differs from a mineralizing
 process in a forearc setting.

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In conclusion, Karimpour and Sadeghi's paper (2018) has abundant omissions in the 4 geological data and their interpretation, besides that suggestions and conclusions 5 are ambiguous and over interpretative. The model they presented is speculative and 6 7 based on incomplete data. In their paper, the authors established weak interpretations of the Irankuh to all MEMB deposits, without studying other deposits 8 9 from this belt. The prerequisite of introducing a metallogenic model for a region or a mineralizing belt is to study all geological and geochemical aspects of all deposits 10 11 and specially check all previous studies accomplished there. The lack of discussion on the data in previous studies (e.g., different deposit types in the MEMB) in this 12 paper undermines the credibility of the proposed model. 13

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3 Figure Captions

Fig. 1: a) Simplified structural map of Iran (after Aghanabati, 1998; and Rajabi et al., 4 5 2015b) and location of major metallogenic belts of the Cretaceous sediment-hosted Zn-Pb (Ag±Cu±Ba) deposits of Iran. ophiolite belts: (1) Sarv-Abad, (2) Kermanshah, (3) 6 7 Neyriz, (4) Shahr-e-Babak, (5) Dehshir, (6) Nain). b) Simplified terrene map of the western Tethysides (modifies after Rajabi et al., 2012, 2015b). Note the location of the 8 9 Iranian Plate between the Arabian and Eurasia (Turan) plates. c) Geodynamic reconstruction model of the Iranian plate (dark grey) from the Early to Late Cretaceous 10 (modified after Rajabi et al. (2012) based on Stampfli and Borel (2002); Bagheri and 11 Stampfli (2008); Ghasemi and Talbot (2005); Moghadam et al. (2009)) and Zn-Pb 12 (Ag±Cu±Ba) mineralizations around the Nain-Baft suture zone. See Rajabi et al. (2012) 13 for more explanation. A, Alborz ranges; CIM, Central Iranian Microcontinent; NB, Nain-14 Baft extensional back-arc basin; Sb, Sabzevar back-arc basin (indicated by ophiolites); 15 SC, South Caspian basin; SSZ, Sanandaj-Sirjan zone. 16

Fig 2: Distribution map of the Cretaceous sediment-hosted Zn–Pb (±Ag±Cu±Ba) deposits in the MEMB, SSZ, and the YAMB in the Yazd block. Most of the deposits occur on both sides of the southern portion of the CIGS transitional zone and in the Nain-Baft back-arc super basin that is characterized by ophiolites (Rajabi et al., 2012).

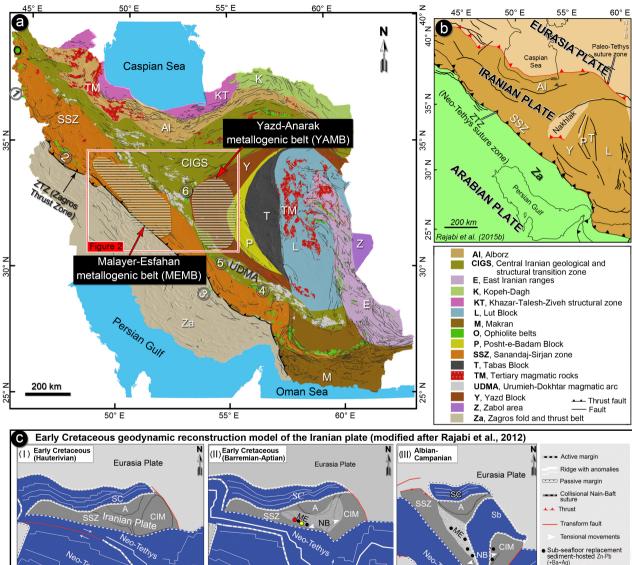
Fig. 3: Generalized schematic columnar section of the Early Cretaceous sequence of
the MEMB and western CIGS gradual zone, with the main ore-bearing (sedimenthosted Zn–Pb (±Ag±Cu±Ba)) strata (modified after Momenzadeh (1976) and Rajabi et
al. (2012)).

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Fig. 4: Generalized lithostratigraphic columnar sections of selected mining districts inthe MEMB, SSZ.

Fig. 5: Comparison of tectonic setting models for (**a**) the typical orogenic-related MVT deposits (Leach et al., 2005; 2010) and (**b** and **c**) the Cretaceous-hosted sedimenthosted Zn–Pb (±Ag±Cu±Ba) deposits in the MEMB and YAMB of Iran (c modified after Rajabi et al., 2012). These deposits are concentrated around the Nain-Baft suture zone in the Iranian plate. 1: YAMB; 2: MEMB. CIM: Central Iranian Microcontinent; SSZ: Sanandaj-Sirjan zone; ZTZ: Zagros thrust zone.

Fig. 6: **a** and **b**) Sheeted like stratabound Zn-Pb+Ba mineralization in the uppermost of 19 the KI unit (silicified and dolomitized limestone, KIsd), best developed concordantly 20 21 under the marls of the Ks unit, Robat deposit. c) Stratiform sideritic Fe-Mn-Pb (±Ba±Cu) mineralization in the Early Cretaceous tuffaceous siltstones and sandstones, Sarchal 22 deposit. d) Laminated barite, pyrite, galena and sphalerite (Py + Gn + Sph) in organic 23 matter-bearing limestone, Ravanj deposit. e) Laminated framboidal sulphides (light 24 25 grey), algal-laminated dolomite (dark grey), and sulfide-bearing dolomite (light). Folded dolomitic ore-bearing layers show typical convolute bedding texture. f, g and h) 26 27 Microscopic photographs (reflected light) of fine-grained laminated (f and h) and disseminated sulfides in sulfide-rich bands (g), hosted in silty limestone, Gushfil deposit. 28 29 Sp: sphalerite, Py: pyrite, Om: organic matter, Gn: galena.



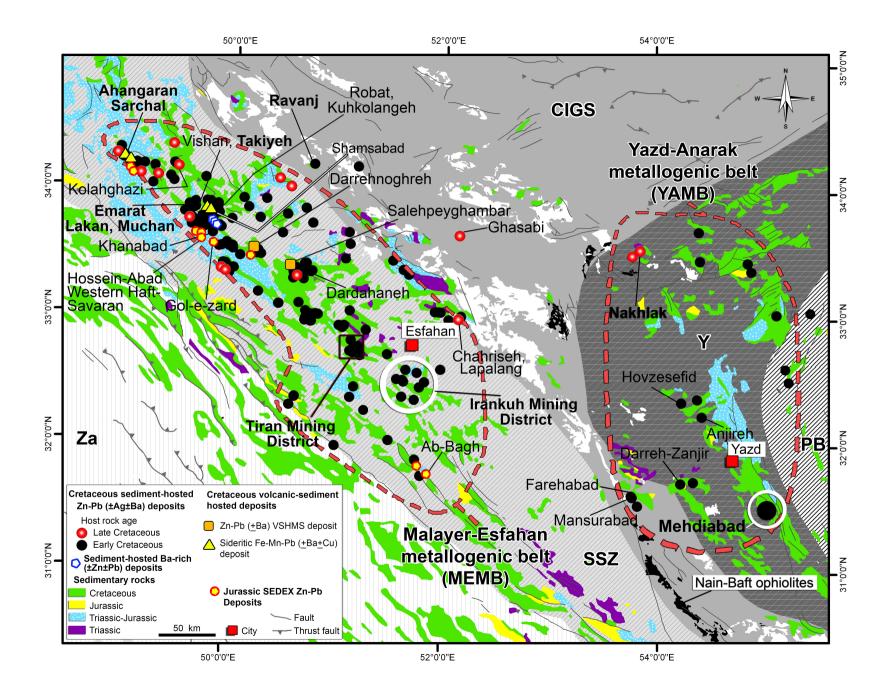
Neo-Tethys

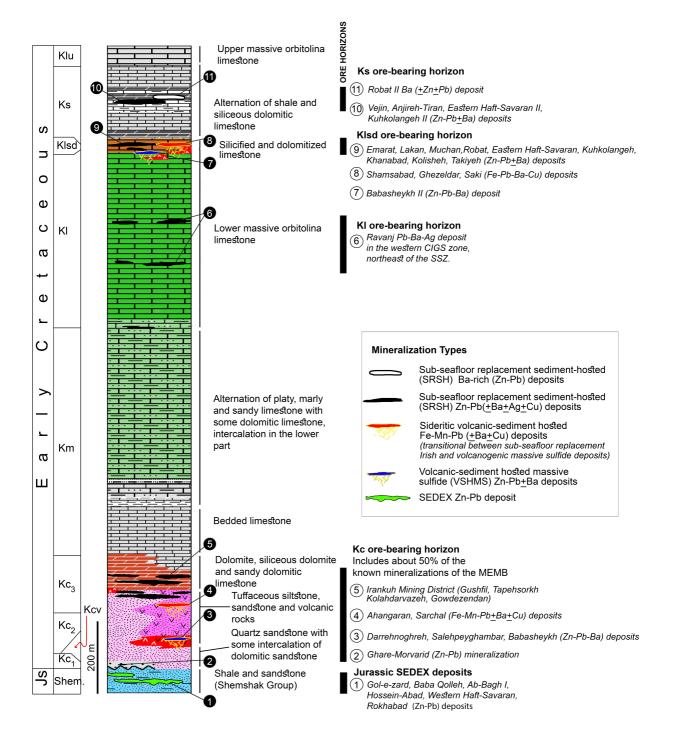


replacement volcanic-sediment hosted Fe-Mn-Pb (<u>+Ba+</u>Cu) Volcanic-sediment hosted massive sulfide (VSHMS) Zn-Pb-Ba (<u>+</u>Cu)

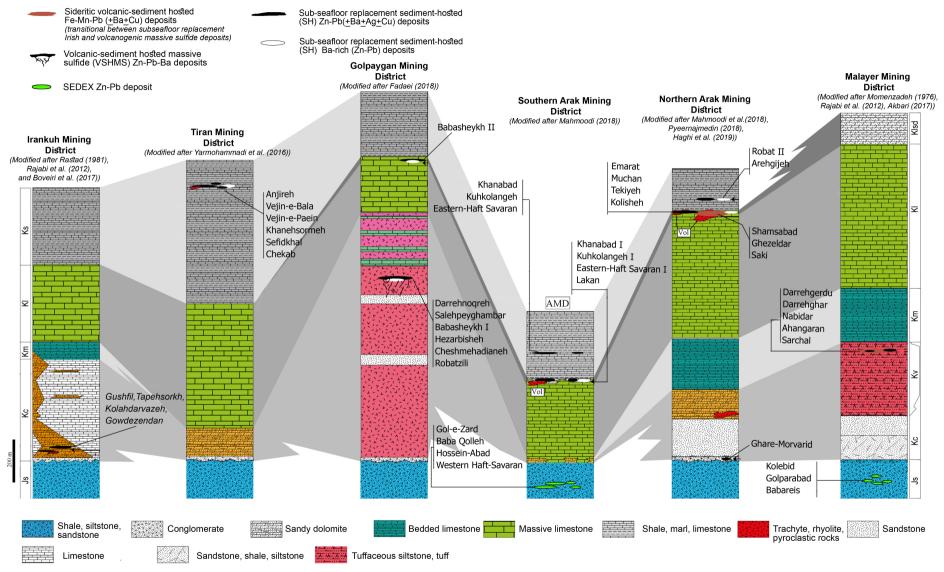
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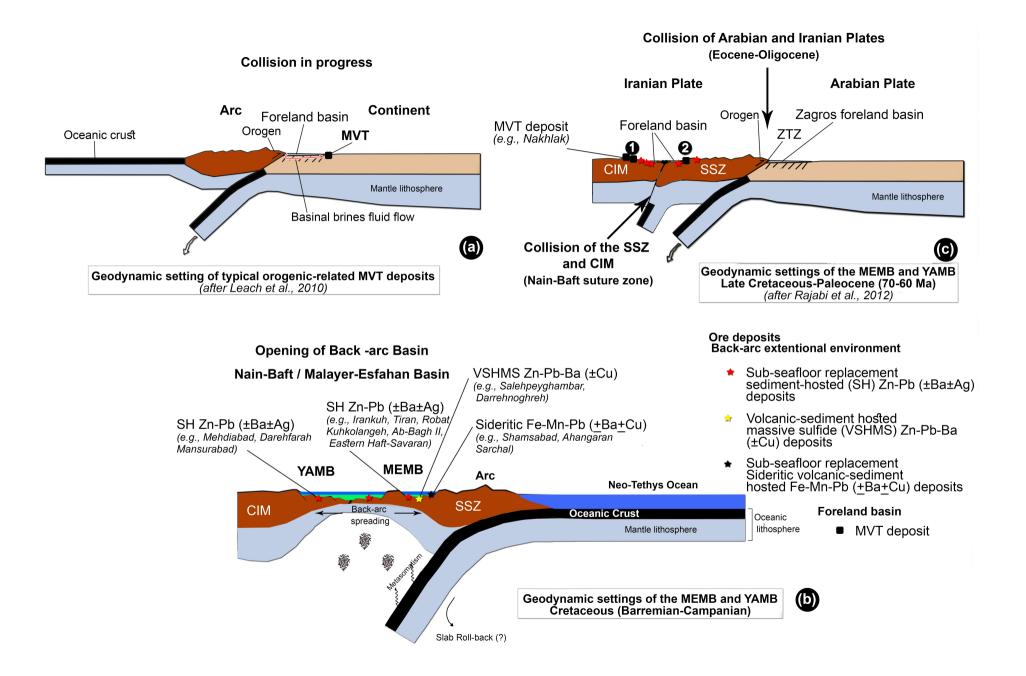
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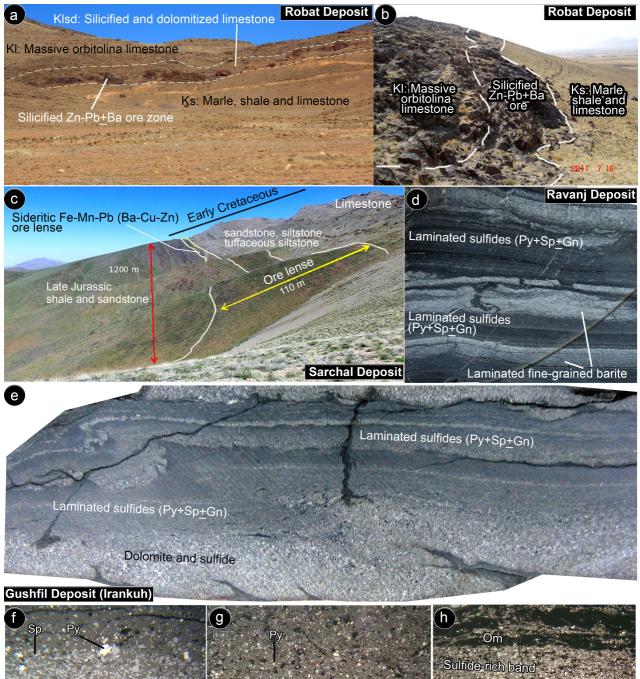




Malayer-Esfahan Metallogenic Belt (MEMB)







Laminated sphalerite