

# Thermal profiles inferred from fluid inclusion and illite geothermometry from sandstones of the Athabasca basin: Implications for fluid flow and unconformity-related uranium mineralization



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## ABSTRACT

The Proterozoic Athabasca basin and underlying basement host numerous unconformity-related uranium deposits that were formed from extensive fluid circulation near the basement-cover interface. Although it is generally agreed that the mineralizing fluids were basinal brines, it is still unclear what driving forces were responsible for the circulation of the basinal fluids. Because different fluid flow driving forces are associated with different thermal profiles, knowing the basin-scale distribution of paleo-fluid temperatures can help constrain the fluid flow mechanism. This study uses fluid inclusions entrapped in quartz overgrowths and authigenic illite in sandstones from three drill cores (WC-79-1, BL-08-01, and DV10-001) in the central part of the Athabasca basin as thermal indicators of paleo-fluids in the basin. A total of 342 fluid inclusions in quartz overgrowths were studied for microthermometry. The homogenization temperatures ( $T_h$ ) range from 50° to 235 °C, recording the minimum temperatures in various diagenetic stages. Temperatures estimated from illite geothermometry (121 points) range from 212° to 298 °C, which are systematically higher than (partly overlapping) the  $T_h$  values, suggesting that illite was precipitated in hotter fluids following the formation of quartz overgrowths. Neither the fluid inclusion  $T_h$  values nor the illite temperatures show systematic increase with depth in individual drill cores. This, together with the high illite temperatures that cannot be explained by burial at a normal geothermal gradient (35 °C/km), is interpreted to indicate that basin-scale fluid convection took place during the diagenetic history of the basin. Prolonged fluid convection is inferred to be responsible for delivering uranium (extracted from the basin or the upper part of the basement) to the unconformity, where uranium mineralization took place due to redox reactions associated with fluid-rock interaction or structurally controlled fluid mixing.

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## 1. Introduction

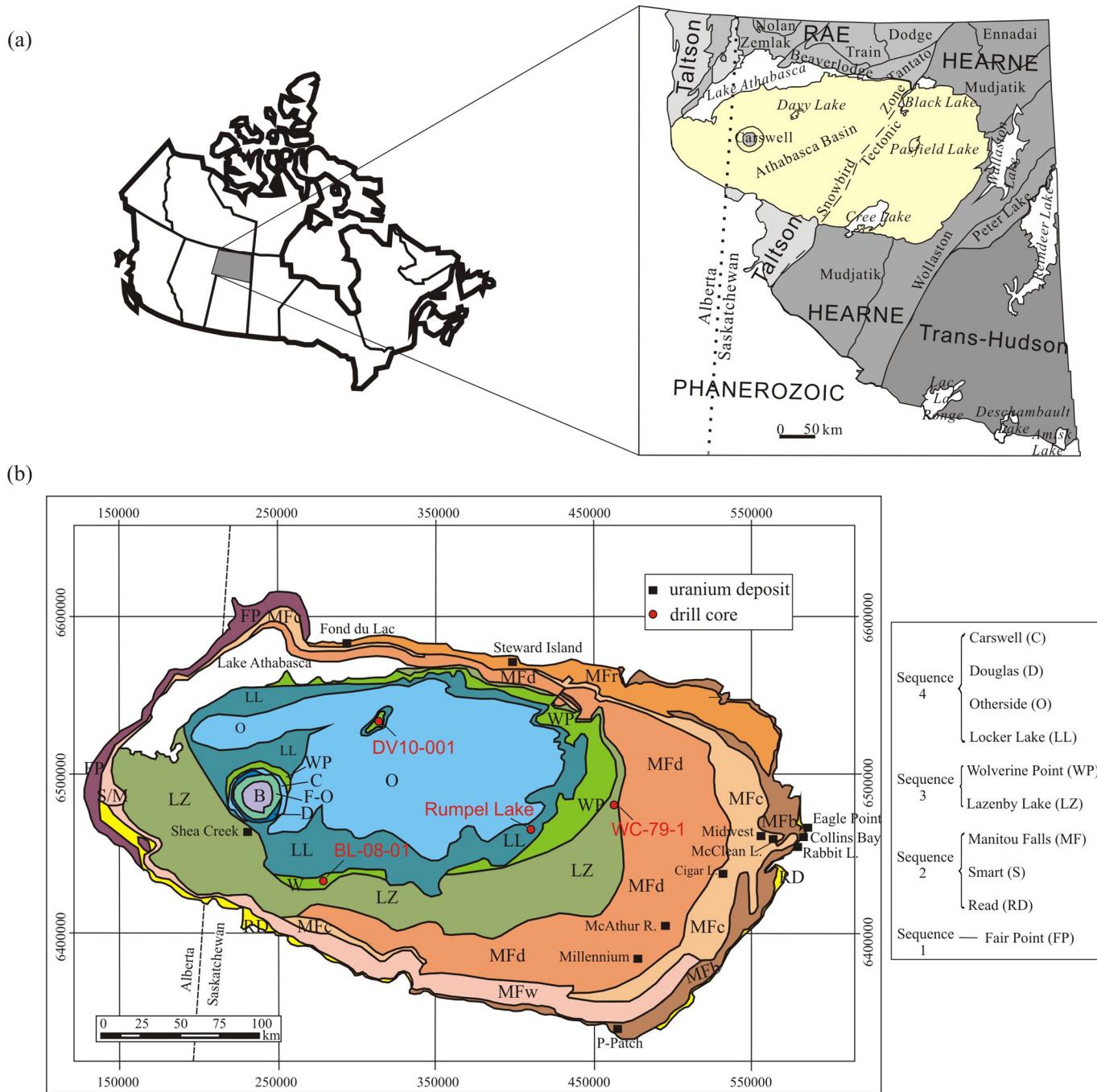
Basin-scale fluid flow in sedimentary basins played a significant role in the formation of many mineral and petroleum deposits (Bethke and Marshak, 1990; Garven and Raffensperger, 1997; Cathles and Adams, 2005). The mechanism of such fluid flow, for example that responsible for the formation of Mississippi Valley-type (MVT) Zn-Pb deposits, has been a subject of scientific debates for over three decades, one of the focuses being whether or not a given fluid flow model can explain the heat anomaly observed in the deposits (Cathles and Smith, 1983; Anderson and Macqueen, 1988; Bethke and Marshak, 1990; Garven et al., 1993; Garven and Raffensperger, 1997; Cathles and Adams, 2005). This is understandable because fluid flow is always associated with heat transport, and different fluid flow mechanisms may result in different thermal profiles (Duddy et al., 1994; Deming, 1994; Jessop and Majorowicz, 1994; Phillips, 2009; Ingebritsen and Appold, 2012; Chi, 2015). Thus, the study of thermal profiles in sedimentary basins is

important for constraining fluid flow models. Fluid flow mechanisms related to the formation of sedimentary basin-hosted (especially unconformity-related) uranium deposits have also been extensively studied (Sanford, 1992; Raffensperger and Garven, 1995a, b; Chi et al., 2011, 2013, 2014; Cui et al., 2010, 2012a, b; Chi and Xue, 2014), but so far little attention has been paid to the thermal effects of the fluid flow as was done for the MVT deposits.

The unconformity-related uranium (URU) deposits, which are best developed in Proterozoic basins in northern Canada and northern Australia, especially the Athabasca basin in northern Saskatchewan (Canada; Fig. 1a), represent the richest uranium deposits in the world (Jefferson et al., 2007; Fayek, 2013). The formation of these deposits has been related to circulation of large amounts of basinal fluids, facilitated by high permeabilities due to dominance of sandstones in the basins (Hoeve and Sibbald, 1978; Hoeve and Quirt, 1984; Wilson and Kyser, 1987; Kotzer and Kyser, 1990; Hiatt and Kyser, 2000; Cuney et al., 2003; Kyser et al., 2000; Richard et al., 2011, 2014; Mercadier et al., 2012). However, the driving forces controlling fluid flow are still controversial. Large-scale convection related to a normal geothermal gradient was proposed by Hoeve and Sibbald (1978) and Boiron et al.

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**Fig. 1.** (a) Location of the Athabasca basin in the regional tectonic framework (after Card, 2012). (b) Regional geological map of the Athabasca basin showing each formation, major uranium deposits, and the location of drill holes WC-79-1, BL-08-01, DV10-001, and Rumpel Lake (modified from Ramaekers et al., 2007; Jefferson et al., 2007; Bosman et al., 2011, 2012). B – basement; FP – Fair Point; S/M – undifferentiated Smart and/or Manitou Falls; RD – Read; MF – Manitou Falls (b – Bird; r – Raibl; w – Warnes; c – Collins; d – Dunlop); LZ – Lazenby Lake; W – Wolverine Point; LL – Locker Lake; O – Otherside; D – Douglas; C – Carswell; F-O – undivided Fair Point to Otherside formations. Note the UTM coordinate is used.

(2010) as the main mechanism responsible for fluid flow related to URU mineralization in the Athabasca basin, and was shown to be plausible using numerical modeling (Raffensperger and Garven, 1995a, b; Cui et al., 2010, 2012a, b). Topography-driven fluid flow was implied in some schematic models (Derome et al., 2005; Hiatt and Kyser, 2007; Boiron et al., 2010) and proposed to be responsible for URU mineralization in the Athabasca basin (Alexandre and Kyser, 2012). Both thermal convection and topography-driven flow are consistent with the near-hydrostatic fluid pressure regime in the Athabasca basin, as demonstrated by numerical modeling (Chi et al., 2013, 2014). Compaction-driven fluid flow was implied in hydrostratigraphic studies of sandstones of the Athabasca basin (Hiatt and Kyser, 2007), but it has been shown that

such fluid flow was too slow to result in any significant thermal disturbance in the basin (Chi et al., 2013, 2014). Furthermore, based on the observation that most unconformity-related uranium deposits are spatially associated with faults crosscutting the unconformity, it was demonstrated that fluid flow related to uranium mineralization may be related to deformation along fault zones (Cui et al., 2012a), and mixed or alternative convection and deformation-driven fluid flow models have been advocated (Hoeye and Quirt, 1984, 1987; Raffensperger and Garven, 1995b; Cui et al., 2012a; Li et al., 2015). The uncertainties on fluid flow models related to URU mineralization are in part related to the poor understanding of thermal profiles related to fluid flow either at the basin scale or the deposit scale.

Various temperatures (ranging from 60° to 250 °C) have been estimated from fluid inclusions in quartz overgrowths, quartz veins and euhedral quartz for the basinal fluids and the mineralizing fluids in the Athabasca basin in previous studies (Pagel, 1975; Pagel et al., 1980; Kotzer and Kyser, 1995; Derome et al., 2005). However, most of these studies were focused on areas of mineralization, and the background temperatures of the basin, the ambient temperatures in the host rocks near the sites of mineralization and the temperatures of the actual mineralization fluids were not well distinguished. Ore-forming fluids were inferred to be hotter than the background diagenetic fluids in some studies (e.g., Kotzer and Kyser, 1995), and cooler in other studies (e.g., Derome et al., 2005). Few studies were carried out about the background thermal regime of the Athabasca basin. Pagel (1975) studied fluid inclusions entrapped in quartz overgrowths in sandstones from two long drill cores penetrating a major part of the stratigraphy of the Athabasca basin, and estimated that the burial temperature reached 180°C at the base of the Rumpel Lake drill core near the central part of the basin (Fig. 1b), and 220 °C at the base of and the MP-73-183 core near the Carswell structure in the central-west part of the basin. He further deduced a thermal gradient of 35 °C/km based on the assumption of a lithostatic pressure regime, a maximum burial depth of 4.8 km at the site of the Caswell structure, and a thickness of 3.2 km of eroded strata above the top of the Rumpel Lake drill core. Scott and Chi (2014) studied fluid inclusions in quartz overgrowths and illite in the sandstones from the Rumpel Lake drill core, and obtained higher maximum temperatures than those reported by Pagel (1975), mostly from 200° to 250 °C. Furthermore, they did not find the systematic increase of temperature with depth as inferred by Pagel (1975). Maximum burial temperatures of ~160° to 200 °C were obtained through a vitrinite reflectance study of the Douglas Formation near the top of the current Athabasca basin by Stasiuk et al. (2001), which are also hotter than those predicted by Pagel (1975)'s study (<130 °C).

In view of the controversies on basinal fluid flow models and discrepancies on burial temperatures and geothermal gradients in the Athabasca basin, a study of basin-wide distribution of paleo-temperatures both in horizontal and vertical directions is required. Such a study is best carried out in barren areas away from mineralization, so that the results represent the background thermal regime of the basin and can be used as a reference for comparison with the temperatures of the hydrothermal fluids in the mineralization areas. In this study, we collected 164 samples from three drill holes (WC-79-1, BL-08-01, and DV10-001) in the central part of the basin (Fig. 1b), which are widely spaced, far away from known mineralization and penetrate into the basement, and used fluid inclusion (in quartz overgrowths) microthermometry and illite (in interstitial space) geothermometry to characterize the paleo-temperatures during the diagenetic evolution of the sandstones. The results were used to construct vertical thermal profiles at different localities of the basin, to compare the thermal profiles from different localities, and to infer the fluid flow mechanisms that may explain the observed thermal profiles. Furthermore, the significance of the results for URU mineralization, in terms of fluid flow and metal extraction from source rocks, was explored.

## 2. Geological settings

The Athabasca basin in northern Saskatchewan and Alberta in Canada is located in the western Churchill Province between the eroded remnants of two major orogenic belts: the Taltson magmatic zone and Thelon tectonic zone in the west, and the Trans-Hudson Orogen in the east (Card, 2012; Fig. 1a). The crystalline basement rocks include the Taltson magmatic zone, the Rae Province, and the Hearne Province. The latter two are separated by the Snowbird tectonic zone (Hoffman, 1988; Card et al., 2007) beneath the center of the Athabasca basin. The Taltson magmatic zone, which separates the Rae Province from the Slave Province to the west (Hoffman, 1988), is composed of a variety of 1.99–1.92 Ga plutonic rocks and 3.2–2.14 Ga metamorphic complexes

of amphibolites to granitic gneiss (Card et al., 2007). Both the Rae and Hearne provinces in Saskatchewan contain Archean granitoid gneiss (ca. 3.0 Ga) and supracrustal belts (>2.6 Ga), Paleoproterozoic metasedimentary rocks (1.8–2.45 Ga), and together with mafic to felsic intrusions, that were affected by the 2.0 to 1.9 Ga Thelon-Taltson and the 1.9 to 1.8 Ga Trans-Hudson orogenies (Card et al., 2007).

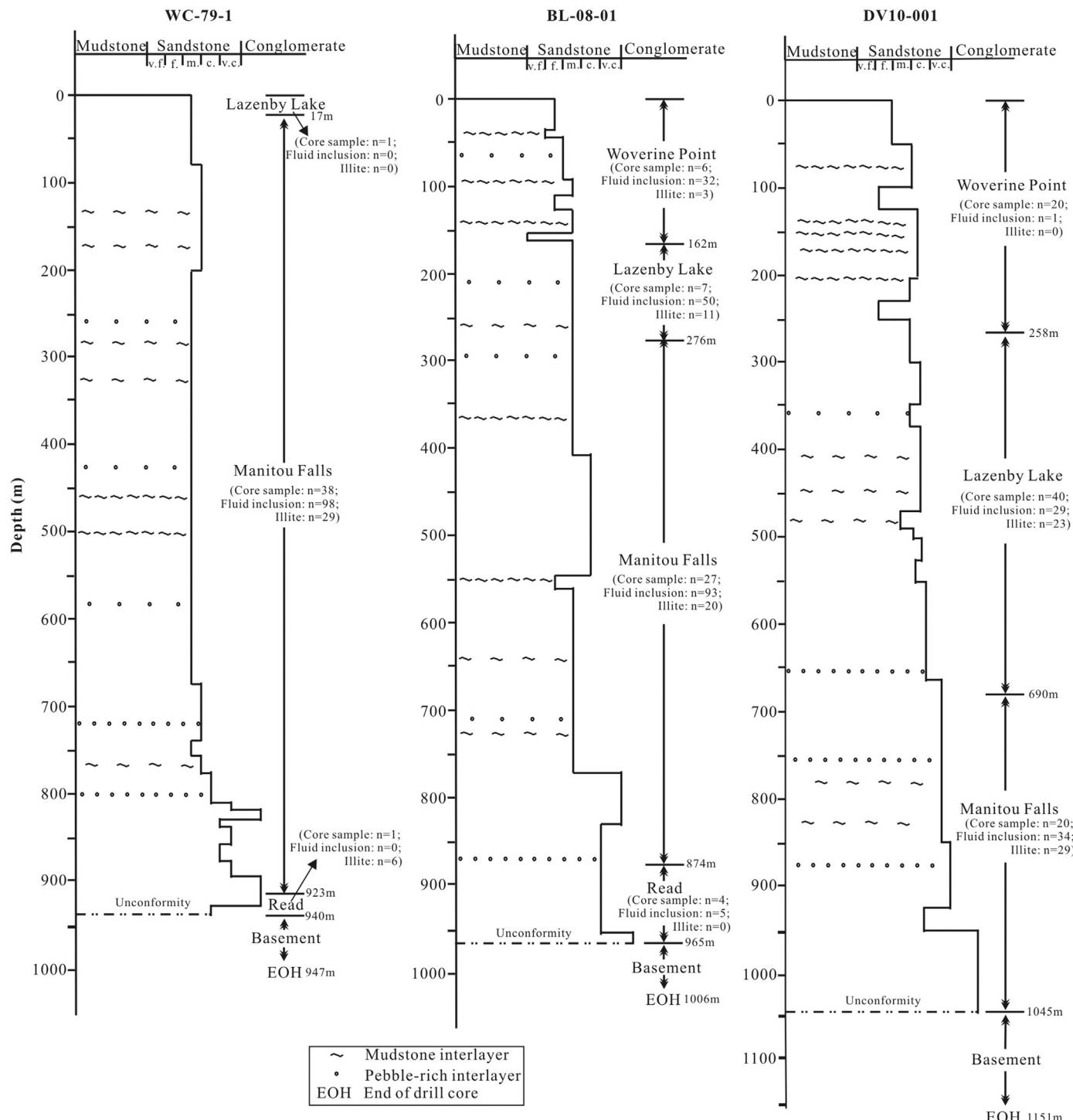
The non-metamorphosed sedimentary rocks in the Athabasca basin belong to the Athabasca Group, which are divided into four sequences separated by basin-wide unconformities (Hiatt and Kyser, 2007; Ramaekers et al., 2007; Fig. 1b). Sequence 1 (Fair Point Formation) and Sequence 2 (Read, Smart, and Manitou Falls formations) consist of conglomerate and quartz arenite, with minor mudstone. Sequence 3 (Lazenby Lake and Wolverine Point formations) is composed of sandstone, siltstone, and mudstone, and Sequence 4 (Locker Lake, Otherside, Douglas, and Carswell formations) comprises conglomeratic quartz arenite, quartz arenite, and pebbly quartz arenite in the Locker Lake and Otherside formations, mudstone and fine to very fine quartz arenite in the Douglas Formation, and carbonates with siliciclastic interbeds in the Carswell Formation (Ramaekers et al., 2007). The sedimentation in the Athabasca basin is inferred to have started after ca. 1750 Ma based on thermo-geochronological data of the Trans-Hudson Orogen (Annesley et al., 1997; Orrell et al., 1999; Alexandre et al., 2009; Kyser et al., 2000), which may represent the maximum age of the Fair Point Formation (Ramaekers et al., 2007). An age of 1740–1730 Ma has been proposed for the Manitou Falls Formation (Alexandre et al., 2009; Rainbird et al., 2006); a  $1644 \pm 13$  Ma age was reported for igneous zircon in tuffaceous units in the Wolverine Point Formation (Rainbird et al., 2007), and a Re–Os isochron age of  $1541 \pm 13$  Ma was obtained for carbonaceous shales in the Douglas Formation (Creaser and Stasiuk, 2007). The strata of the Athabasca basin are cut by the Mackenzie diabase dikes, which have been dated at ca. 1267 Ma (LeCheminant and Heaman, 1989).

Uranium deposits in the Athabasca basin occur near the sub-Athabasca unconformity, and are commonly associated with reactivated basement faults that cut and displace the unconformity (Hoeve and Sibbald, 1978; Hoeve and Quirt, 1984; Jefferson et al., 2007; Kyser and Cuney, 2008; Fayek, 2013). Uranium mineralization can be strictly basement-hosted (e.g. Rabbit Lake, P-Patch, Eagle Point, Millennium), unconformity-hosted (e.g. Midwest, Collins Bay, Cigar Lake), perched in the sandstones (e.g. Stewart Island, Fond du Lac), or a combination of two or more of these mineralization styles or locations (e.g., Shea Creek: basement + unconformity + perched; McArthur River: basement + unconformity; McClean Lake: unconformity + perched) (Jefferson et al., 2007; Fig. 1b). Primary uranium mineralization is inferred to have occurred at around 1590 Ma, based on LA-ICP-MS U–Pb dating of uraninite and Ar–Ar dating of syn-mineralization illite (Alexandre et al., 2009). The most important uranium deposits discovered so far are concentrated in the eastern margin of the basin, especially along the northeast-trending transition zone between the Mudjatik and Wollaston basement domains (Jefferson et al., 2007; Kyser and Cuney, 2008).

## 3. Drill cores examined and sampling

Three drill cores (WC-79-1, BL-08-01, and DV10-001) from the central part of the Athabasca basin (Fig. 1b) were selected for this study. The drill cores were logged in details to record lithological changes (Fig. 2), and a total of 164 core samples (40 from WC-79-1, 44 from BL-08-01, and 80 from DV10-001) from various depths were collected for petrographic and paleo-thermometric studies.

The WC-79-1 core, located near Pasfield Lake, was drilled by E&B Exploration in 1979 (Bosman et al., 2011). This 947 m deep drill penetrates the Lazenby Lake, Manitou Falls, and Read formations, and intersects the basement at a depth of 940 m. The thin basal Read Formation is mainly comprised of conglomeratic sandstone, and minor mudstone. The overlying Manitou Falls Formation consists of medium to coarse sandstone



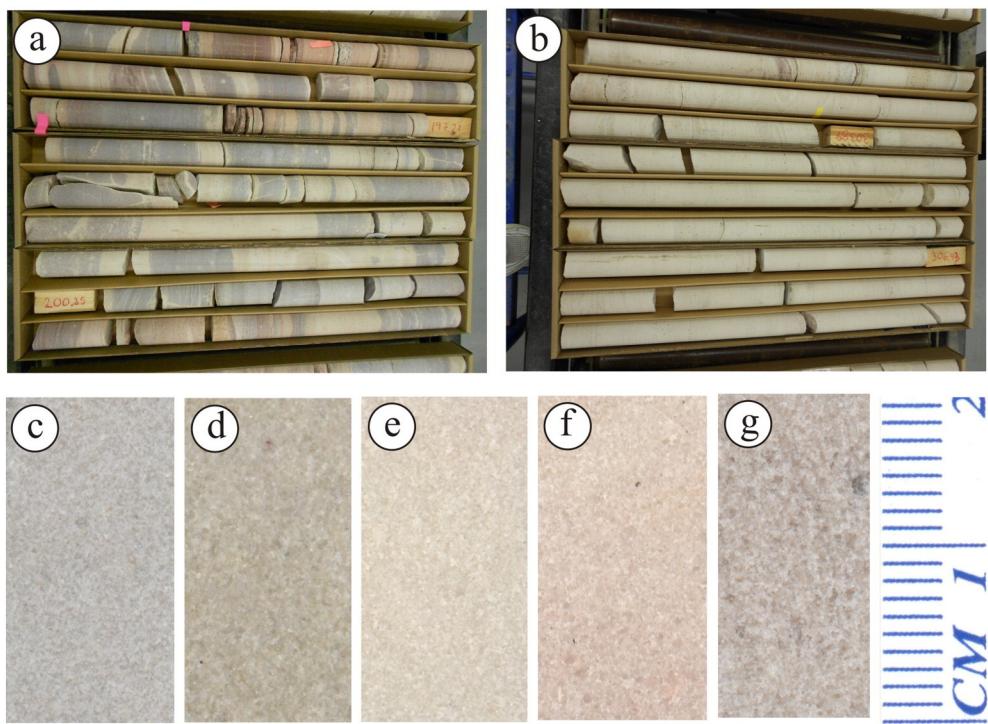
**Fig. 2.** Core logging of WC-79-1, BL-08-01, and DV10-001 drill holes (division of the formations is after Bosman et al., 2011, 2012), also showing the numbers of core samples, fluid inclusions examined and illite analyzed in each formation. v.f. = very fine grained; f. = fine grained; m. = medium grained; c. = coarse grained; v.c. = very coarse grained.

with variable amounts of conglomerate, mudstone intraclasts, and intercalated mudstone. The Lazenby Lake above is only about 10 m thick and consists of medium sandstone and minor intercalated mudstone.

The BL-08-01 core, located to the southeast of the Carswell Structure (Fig. 1b), was drilled by Bayswater Exploration in 2008 (Bosman et al., 2012). This core penetrated the Wolverine Point, Lazenby Lake, Manitou Falls, and Read formations from top to bottom with a total depth of 1006 m. The basement was intersected at a depth of 956 m. The Read Formation contains coarse to very coarse sandstone with variable

amounts of conglomerate. The Manitou Falls Formation mainly consists of medium to coarse sandstone, with variable amounts of conglomerate, mudstone interclasts and intercalated mudstone. The Lazenby Lake Formation is composed of medium sandstone with minor mudstone and pebbly sandstones. The Wolverine Point Formation is made of fine to medium sandstone, with variable amounts mudstone intraclasts and intercalated mudstone, and minor pebbly sandstones.

DV10-001 is an exploration hole near Davy Lake drilled by Fission Energy Corp. in 2010 (Fission Energy Corp., 2012). It is approximately



**Fig. 3.** Core samples from the WC-79-1, BL-08-01, and DV10-001 drill holes. a – light-colored intervals between dark gray or purple layers; b – massive light-colored layers; c – fine-grained, gray, sandstone from WC-79-1 drill core (sample 1409); d – medium-grained, yellow, sandstone from BL-08-01 drill core (sample 1452); e – coarse-grained, white, sandstone from BL-08-01 drill core (sample 1478); f – coarse-grained, pink, sandstone from DV10-001 drill core (sample 1250); g – coarse-grained, gray, sandstone from BL-08-01 drill core (sample 1455). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

40 km away from any previous drill hole in the basin and is the closest hole to the center of the basin (Bosman et al., 2012; Fig. 1b). The drill core is 1151 m deep in total, penetrates the Wolverine Point, Lazenby Lake, and Manitou Falls formations, and intersects the sub-Athabasca unconformity at a depth of 1045 m (Bosman et al., 2012). Based on core logging, the Manitou Falls Formation consists mainly of coarse to very coarse sandstone, with significant amounts of conglomerate near the base, and minor amounts of mudstone intraclasts and intercalated mudstone in the middle and upper part. The Lazenby Lake Formation comprises medium to coarse sandstone with intercalated conglomerate and mudstone, whereas the Wolverine Point Formation consists of fine to medium sandstones with variable amounts of mudstone.

Overall, the strata penetrated by these three drill holes mainly consist of sandstones with variable amounts of mudstones and conglomerates. More mudstones were observed in the Wolverine Point Formation, while more pebbly layers and conglomerates were found in the Manitou Falls and Read formations (Fig. 2). Sandstones are fine to coarse grained and characterized by widespread redbed layers (purple, brown, red or dark red; Fig. 3a). A significant proportion of these redbeds layers were bleached to relatively light colors (pink, yellow, buff or gray; Fig. 3b–g) because of bleaching or removal of iron oxides and/or hydroxides (IOH; Chu et al., 2015). Bleaching likely took place at a late diagenetic stage after significant compaction, as reflected by the sharp boundaries between the redbeds and bleached parts (Fig. 3a). The bleached parts tend to be slightly better cemented than the non-bleached parts (Chu et al., 2015). Sandstone samples from different formations and depths (Fig. 2), including redbed and bleached parts, were collected and examined in this study.

#### 4. Analytical methods

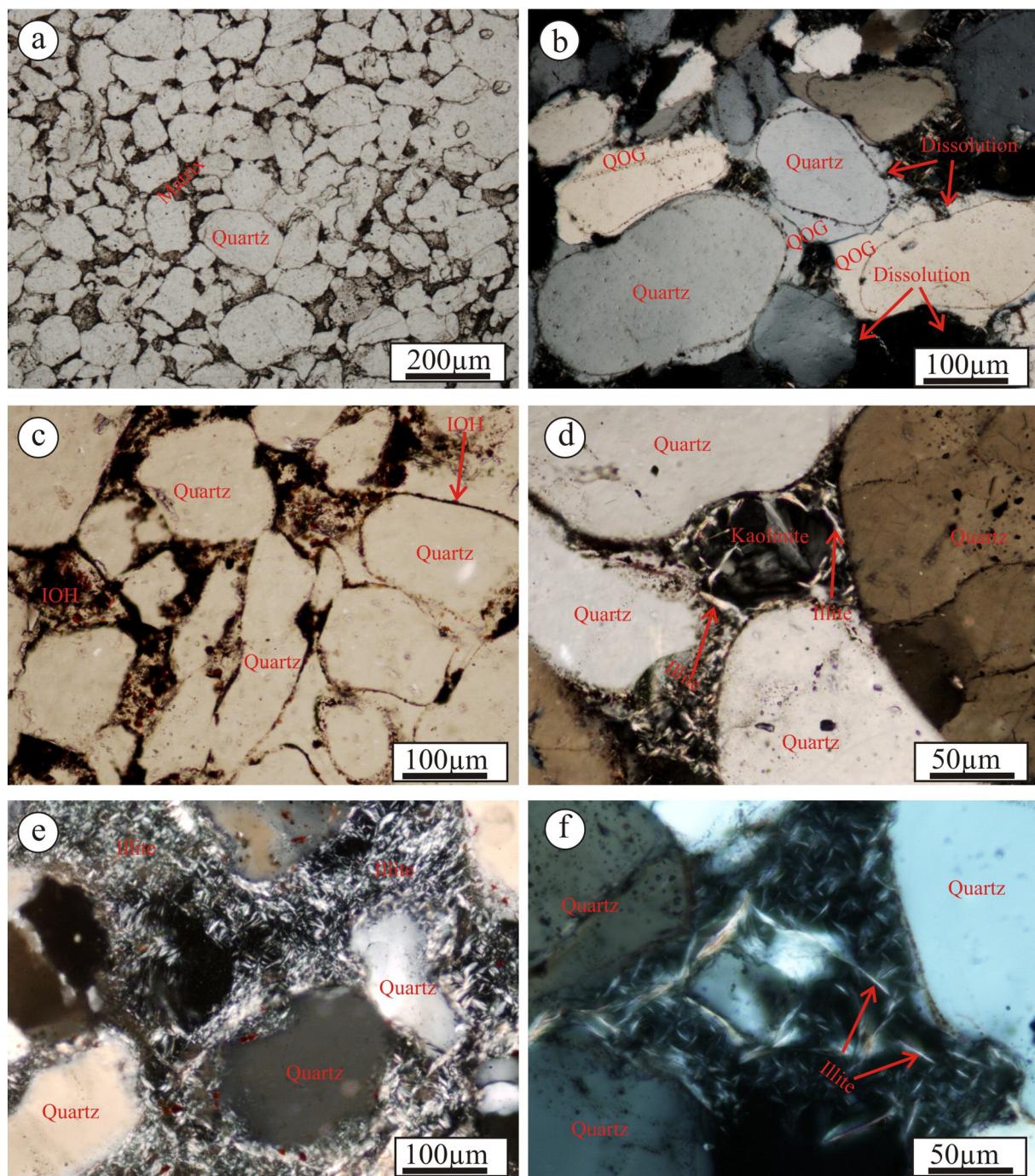
This study uses fluid inclusion microthermometry and illite geothermometry to evaluate the paleo-temperatures of basinal fluids in the diagenetic records. Homogenization temperatures of fluid

inclusions represent the minimum entrapment temperature (Roedder, 1984), and illite crystal structure and composition can be used to estimate the formation temperature (Essene and Peacor, 1995). Polished thin sections were used for petrographic observation and illite analysis, and doubly-polished sections were used for fluid inclusion studies.

All thin sections were examined by conventional transmitted light and reflected light microscopes for petrographic studies. Scanning electron microscope–energy dispersive spectroscopy (SEM-EDS) was used as an auxiliary tool to check some unknown minerals. The HF staining method was applied to discern quartz and potential feldspars (Bailey and Stevens, 1960).

Fluid inclusion microthermometry was conducted at the Geofluids Laboratory, University of Regina, using a Linkam THMGS600 heating-freezing stage, which was calibrated using synthetic fluid inclusions of known compositions. Homogenization temperatures ( $T_h$ ), halite-melting temperatures ( $T_{m\text{-halite}}$ ), and ice-melting temperatures ( $T_{m\text{-ice}}$ ) were measured with a precision (reproducibility) of  $\pm 1$  °C,  $\pm 1$  °C, and  $\pm 0.1$  °C, respectively. Homogenization temperatures were measured before cooling runs to avoid the effect of potential artificial stretching due to ice crystallization. Ice-melting temperatures were used to calculate the salinities of liquid-vapor fluid inclusions using the equations of Chi and Ni (2007), whereas halite-melting temperatures together with ice-melting temperatures were used to estimate salinities of halite-bearing fluid inclusions according to the program by Steele-MacInnis et al. (2011).

Individual illite crystals filling interstitial space in sandstones were analyzed for major element composition with electron microprobe analysis (EMPA) technique at the University of Manitoba. A CAMECA SX100 electron microprobe was used with a Princeton Gamma Tech Energy Dispersive Spectrometer (PGT EDS) and five wavelength dispersive X-ray spectrometers (WDS). Operation conditions were set at a voltage of 15 kV and a beam current of a 20 nA. Element calibration standards were diopside for Si and Ca, andalusite for Al, albite for Na, orthoclase for K, olivine for Mg, and fayalite for Fe. The values of the element oxides



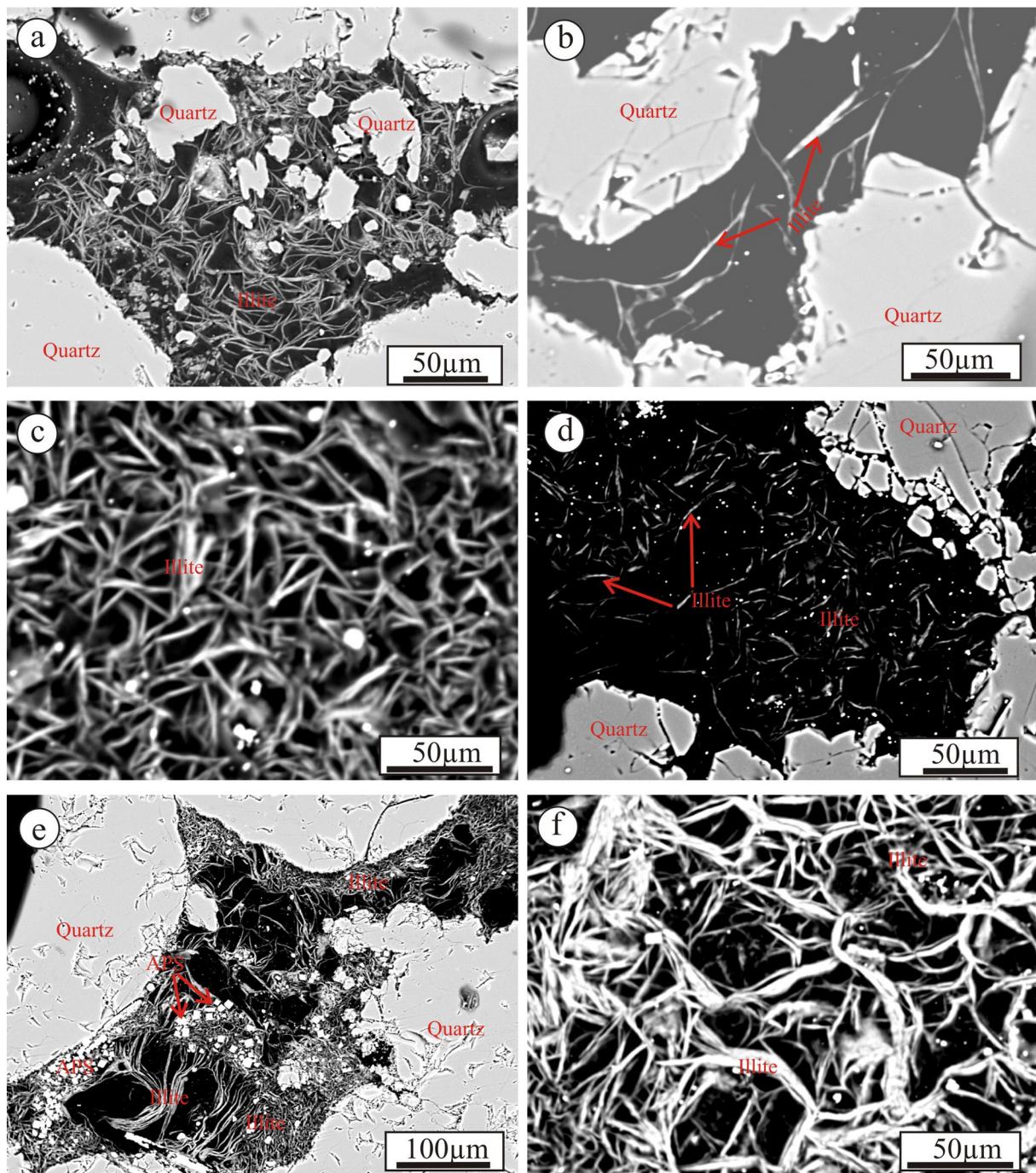
**Fig. 4.** Photomicrographs of sandstones showing occurrence of quartz and illite. a — typical sandstone composed of quartz with minor matrix, sample 1469 from BL-08-01 drill core; b — detrital quartz and quartz overgrowth (QOG), also showing dissolution of quartz overgrowth, sample 1217 from DV10-001 drill core; c — early iron oxide-hydroxides (IOH) in the dustline coating the detrital quartz and late IOH dispersed between quartz grains, sample 1226 from DV10-001 drill core; d — illite replacing kaolinite, sample 1227 from DV10-001 drill core; e — aggregates of illite (cement and replacement) filling interstitial space between detrital quartz grains, sample 1354 from DV10-001 drill core; f — illite crystals (cement) filling pores between quartz grains, sample 1414 from WC-79-1 drill core.

were converted into structural formulas of illite ( $K, Na, Ca$ ) ( $Al, Mg, Fe$ )<sub>2</sub> ( $Si, Al$ )<sub>4</sub>O<sub>10</sub>(OH)<sub>2</sub>. K, Na, and Ca were all allocated to the interlayer site, whereas Si and Al were assigned to the tetrahedral layer. The remainder of the Al, together with all Mg and Fe were assigned to the octahedral layer. The proportions of six end-member minerals, muscovite, paragonite, Ca-paragonite, Fe-celadonite, Mg-celadonite, and pyrophyllite were calculated following the method of Cathelineau (1988), and the crystallization temperatures of illite were estimated using the equation  $X_{Pyroph} = -0.0025 T (\text{°C}) + 0.7928$  derived by Cathelineau (1988). Illite formation temperatures were also calculated using an alternative

equation  $T (\text{°C}) = 267.95x + 31.50$ , (where  $x = K + |Fe-Mg|$ ) from Battaglia (2004) for comparison.

## 5. Petrography and paragenesis

Petrographic studies indicate that the sandstones from the three examined drill cores are mainly composed of detrital quartz grains (Fig. 4a-b), with minor amounts of muddy matrix, iron oxide-hydroxide (IOH) (Fig. 4c), and clay minerals (Figs. 4d-f). Zircon and tourmaline grains were observed locally. No K-feldspar or plagioclase grains



**Fig. 5.** BSE images illustrating the occurrences of authigenic illite. a – very thin illite crystals filling the pore space between quartz grains, sample 1411 from WC-79-1 drill core; b – isolated thin illite crystals distributed in the pore space, sample 1414 from WC-79-1 drill core; c – densely intergrown thin illite crystals in pore space, sample 1457 from BL-08-01 drill core; d – very thin illite crystals randomly dispersed in the pore space, sample 1479 from BL-08-01 drill core; e – curved illite crystals associated with disseminated APS particles, sample 1360 from DV10-001 drill core; f – thin and thick illite crystals tangling together, sample 1360 from DV10-001 drill core.

were found in any of the samples examined. The sandstones are mostly well compacted and cemented, with long and convex-concave grain-to-grain contacts.

Authigenic quartz overgrowths, separated from the detrital grains by the dustlines (Figs. 4b–c), are well developed in most stratigraphic intervals. Early diagenetic micro-quartz cements reported by other researchers (Hiatt et al., 2007) are rare in the samples examined. The thicknesses of quartz overgrowths range from a few micrometers to more than one hundred micrometers (Fig. 4b–c). Both detrital quartz grains and quartz overgrowths commonly show dissolution features, such as embayments (Fig. 4e) and incomplete edges (Fig. 4b–c), but

no discontinuity related to dissolution can be discerned within individual quartz overgrowths.

Clay minerals (kaolinite/dickite and illite) commonly filled interstitial spaces (Figs. 4d–f and 5). Illite occurs as replacement of previous kaolinite (Fig. 4d) and detrital muscovite, and as cements filling interstitial space (Figs. 4e–f and 5). All the illite crystals are needle-like, either as isolated crystals (Figs. 4f, 5b and d) or aggregates (Figs. 4e, 5a, c, and f). Most illite crystals are less than 1 µm thick, and some of them can reach about 1–2 µm (Fig. 5f). Minor amounts of aluminum phosphate-sulfate (APS) were locally found disseminated among illite crystals (Fig. 5e).





the same dustline, however, only a few of them are workable. The inclusions along the dustlines and the isolated inclusions are considered to be primary, and those in clusters or short trails within quartz overgrowths are likely pseudo-secondary. The fluid inclusion assemblage (FIA) concept (Goldstein and Reynolds, 1994) was applied to verify the validity of the microthermometric data, thus the variation of the homogenization temperatures of neighboring fluid inclusions in the same group (a dustline or a cluster) are limited to  $<15^{\circ}\text{C}$ , beyond which the fluid inclusions are considered to have experienced post-trapping stretching and the entire FIAs were eliminated. For isolated fluid inclusions, the FIA method cannot be strictly applied, but comparison of microthermometric data between neighboring inclusions was still made to minimize the adoption of fluid inclusions that may have been potentially stretched (Chi and Lu, 2008).

Homogenization temperatures ( $T_h$ ) of all the fluid inclusions analyzed range from  $50^{\circ}$  to  $235^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Table 1; Fig. 7), mainly from  $60^{\circ}$  to  $180^{\circ}\text{C}$ . For the WC-79-1 drill core, the  $T_h$  values are all higher than  $100^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $103^{\circ}$ – $192^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) in the upper part of the Manitou Falls Formation, and range from  $50^{\circ}$  to  $218^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the lower part (Table 1; Fig. 7a). In contrast, for BL-08-01, the  $T_h$  values in the upper part of the drill core (the Wolverine Point Formation, Lazenby Lake Formation, and upper Manitou Falls Formation) fall in a range from  $50^{\circ}$  to  $199^{\circ}\text{C}$ , whereas those from the lower Manitou Falls Formation and Read Formation are more scattered and range from  $70^{\circ}$  to  $235^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Table 1; Fig. 7b). For the DV10-001 drill core, relatively low  $T_h$  values were obtained for all the formations, ranging from  $65^{\circ}$  to  $202^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Table 1; Fig. 7c).

Ice-melting temperatures ( $T_{\text{m-ice}}$ ) were measured for one-third of the biphasic inclusions that have been measured for homogenization temperatures, the other two-thirds being either unable to freeze (after cooling to  $-185^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) or too small for accurate measurement. Overall, the  $T_{\text{m-ice}}$  values range from  $-9.2^{\circ}$  to  $-48.6^{\circ}\text{C}$ , the majority being lower than the eutectic temperature of the  $\text{H}_2\text{O-NaCl}$  system ( $-21.2^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) (Table 1). Assuming a  $\text{H}_2\text{O-NaCl}$  system for the fluid inclusions with  $T_{\text{m-ice}} > -21.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and a  $\text{H}_2\text{O-NaCl-CaCl}_2$  system for those with  $T_{\text{m-ice}} < -21.2^{\circ}\text{C}$ , the salinities were estimated to be from 13.1 to 30.7 wt.%. Six halite-bearing inclusions were observed in these three drill cores. Their halite-melting temperatures ( $T_{\text{m-halite}}$ ) range from  $141^{\circ}$  to  $218^{\circ}\text{C}$ , which are higher than the corresponding homogenization temperatures, and salinities were calculated from 31.0 to 32.9 wt.% (Table 1). Similar to the homogenization temperature distribution, no systematic variation of salinities with depth can be discerned (Fig. 8).

## 7. Illite geothermometry

A total of 121 pore-filling illite crystals (35 from WC-79-1, 34 from BL-08-01, and 52 from DV10-001; Fig. 2) were selected for electron microprobe analysis for major element compositions, which were used to calculate the formation temperatures. Pore-filling rather than replacement illite was analyzed in order to minimize the influence of precursor minerals, and isolated crystals were chosen for analysis to avoid contamination from neighboring minerals.

The EMPA results (Table 2) indicate that the major constituents  $\text{SiO}_2$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{FeO}$ ,  $\text{MgO}$ ,  $\text{CaO}$ ,  $\text{Na}_2\text{O}$ , and  $\text{K}_2\text{O}$  account for 70–94 wt.% in total (Table 2). These results were normalized to 100% and used to calculate site occupancy and fractions of end-member minerals (Table 2). No systematic differences in illite composition can be discerned between samples from different locations (Table 2).

The formation temperatures of illite were calculated using the site occupancy and end-member mineral data (Table 2) and the equations of Cathelineau (1988)'s and Battaglia (2004). The calculation results are shown in Table 2 and illustrated in Fig. 9. For the WC-79-1 drill core, calculated temperatures mainly range from  $220^{\circ}$  to  $260^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Table 2; Fig. 9a and d). The highest values are located at 339 m and the lowest value at 425 m (Fig. 9a and d). For the BL-08-01 drill core, the calculated temperatures mainly range from  $230^{\circ}$  to  $270^{\circ}\text{C}$ , with the lowest in the Lazenby Lake Formation and highest

in the bottom of Manitou Falls Formation (Table 2; Fig. 9b and e). For the DV10-001 drill core, the calculated temperatures mainly range from  $240^{\circ}$  to  $280^{\circ}\text{C}$  using the equations of Cathelineau (1988) and from  $240^{\circ}$  to  $260^{\circ}\text{C}$  with those of Battaglia (2004) (Table 2; Fig. 9c and f).

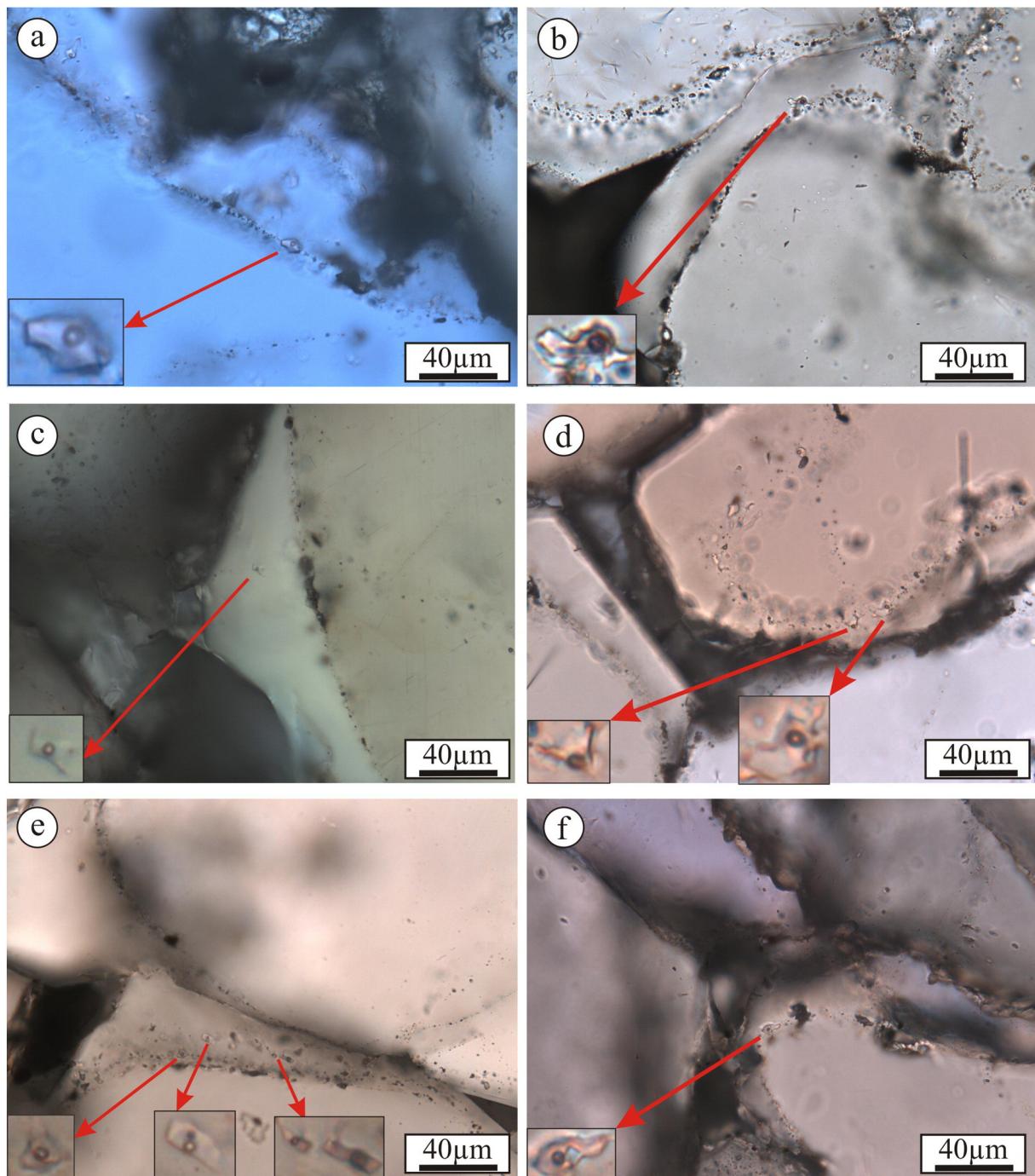
Overall, illite crystallization temperatures calculated using the equations of Cathelineau (1988) range from  $212^{\circ}$  to  $298^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and using Battaglia (2004)'s method range from  $228^{\circ}$  to  $298^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Table 2). The discrepancies between the two methods for individual samples are generally within  $10^{\circ}\text{C}$ . No obvious trends can be discerned in the temperature-depth diagrams for each drill core, and there is no significant difference between drill cores. In comparison with fluid inclusion homogenization temperatures, the calculated illite crystallization temperatures using the methods of both Cathelineau (1988) and Battaglia (2004) are systematically higher (with limited overlap) (Table 2; Fig. 10).

## 8. Discussion

A few notable characteristics of the fluid inclusion and illite geothermometric study results emerge from this study. Firstly, homogenization temperatures of fluid inclusions from quartz overgrowths cover a wide range at any given depth, and they do not show a systematic increase with depth (Fig. 7). Secondly, the calculated illite crystallization temperatures are systematically higher than the fluid inclusion homogenization temperatures, and they do not show an obvious trend of increase with depth either (Figs. 9 and 10). Thirdly, the ice-melting temperatures of fluid inclusions are mostly lower than  $-21.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  (the eutectic point for the  $\text{H}_2\text{O-NaCl}$  system), suggesting that the fluids may be approximated by the  $\text{H}_2\text{O-NaCl-CaCl}_2$  system, and there is no systematic change of fluid salinities with depth (Fig. 8). Finally, there are no systematic differences in fluid inclusion homogenization temperatures, illite crystallization temperatures, and fluid compositions between the studied drill cores from different parts of the Athabasca Basin (Fig. 10). The significance and implications of these basin-scale fluid characteristics for basinal fluid flow and uranium mineralization are discussed below.

### 8.1. Range of fluid inclusion homogenization temperatures

The wide range of homogenization temperatures of fluid inclusions within quartz overgrowths documented in this study, mainly from  $60^{\circ}$  to  $180^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Table 1 and Fig. 7), is interpreted to indicate that the quartz overgrowths were precipitated over a wide range of thermal conditions during the long diagenetic history of the Athabasca basin, as is common in many sedimentary basins (e.g., Chi et al., 2003; Hiemstra and Goldstein, 2005). The application of the fluid inclusion assemblage concept (Goldstein and Reynolds, 1994) suggests that the variation of fluid inclusion homogenization temperatures within individual quartz overgrowths is not a result of post-trapping modification of the fluid inclusions; post-trapping modification would result in variation of homogenization temperatures within individual fluid inclusion assemblages, in which case the data were rejected. Similar ranges of homogenization temperatures have also been reported in previous studies of fluid inclusions in quartz overgrowths in the Athabasca basin (Pagel, 1975; Kotzer and Kyser, 1995; Scott and Chi, 2014), although the homogenization temperature values of Pagel (1975) are relatively low compared to those of other studies. The interpretation of quartz cementation over a wide range of thermal conditions is also consistent with the wide range of oxygen isotope data of quartz overgrowths from the Athabasca basin (Hiatt et al., 2007). For sedimentary basins with a simple burial history, it may be expected that the part of quartz overgrowth close to the dustline was precipitated at a relatively shallow and cool environment, whereas the part filling the center of the interstitial space was formed in a relatively deep and hot environment. However, for a basin with a complex burial and uplifting



**Fig. 6.** Photomicrographs of different types of fluid inclusions in quartz overgrowths (all in plane polarized light). a – L-V (liquid–vapor) fluid inclusions along the dustline, sample 1454 from BL-08-01 drill core; b – a L-V fluid inclusion near the dustline in the quartz overgrowth, sample 1422 from WC-79-1 drill core; c – an isolated L-V fluid inclusion in quartz overgrowth away from the dustline, sample 1337 from DV10-001 drill core; d –L-V fluid inclusions along the dustline, sample 1436 from WC-79-1 drill core; e – L-V fluid inclusion trails in quartz overgrowth, sample 1404 from WC-79-1 drill core; f – a halite-bearing fluid inclusion along the dustline, sample 1442 from BL-08-01 drill core.

history like the Athabasca basin, such a regular thermal pattern may not be seen. In fact, many of the fluid inclusions close to the dustline have fairly high homogenization temperatures, suggesting that quartz overgrowths do not necessarily start precipitation at shallow burial. Conversely, some fluid inclusions away from the dustline show relatively low homogenization temperatures, suggesting that the late phase of quartz overgrowth was not necessarily formed at higher temperatures than the early phase. Overall, the range of homogenization temperatures of fluid inclusions in quartz overgrowths reflects the range of thermal conditions that the strata

experienced, and the maximum homogenization temperatures do not necessarily represent the maximum burial conditions.

#### 8.2. Difference between fluid inclusion homogenization temperatures and calculated illite temperatures

The observation that illite crystallization temperatures (mainly from 220° to 270 °C) are higher than the fluid inclusion homogenization temperatures (mainly from 60° to 180 °C) (Fig. 10) may be attributed to the fact that fluid inclusion homogenization temperatures only represent

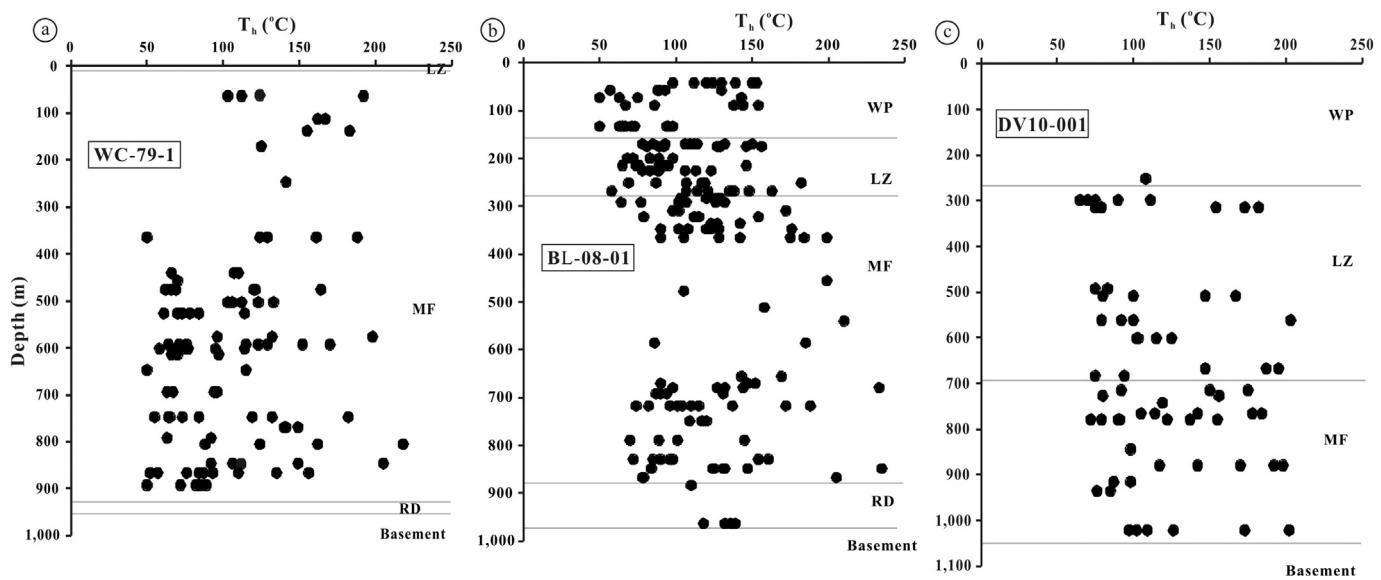


Fig. 7. Distribution of fluid inclusion homogenization temperatures along depth from the WC-79-1, BL-08-01, and DV10-001 drill cores.

the minimum trapping temperatures and that illite was not co-precipitated with quartz overgrowths. Furthermore, different types of illite have been reported in the Athabasca basin, and the illite examined in this study may not cover all the types.

It is well known that the homogenization temperatures of fluid inclusions are generally lower than the trapping temperatures except in the cases of fluid boiling or immiscibility (Roedder, 1984). No evidence of fluid boiling or immiscibility has been found in our study, and therefore the homogenization temperatures need to be “pressure-corrected” in order to obtain the trapping temperatures. To make this correction, the fluid pressures need to be independently determined, and the isochores of the fluid inclusions need to be constructed. The isochores were calculated with the computer program ‘FLUIDS 1’ of Bakker (2003): the bulk fluid density was first calculated with the ‘BULK’ program, using the empirical equations of state of Oakes et al. (1990) and Zhang and Frantz (1987), and then used to calculate the isochores with the ‘ISOC’ program, using the empirical equations of state of

Bodnar and Vityk (1994) and Knight and Bodnar (1989) as implemented in the computer programs (Bakker, 2003). Although there are significant uncertainties about the thickness of sedimentary rocks that have been eroded above the currently preserved strata, the erosion is likely less than 5 km (Pagel, 1975). Assuming a maximum erosion of 5 km and a hydrostatic pressure regime (Chi et al., 2013), and applying the fluid pressures to the isochores, it was found that maximum temperature correction is only 31 °C. Even if this temperature is added to all the homogenization temperatures, the resulting “pressure-corrected” temperatures are still lower than the illite temperatures, as can be seen from Fig. 10.

As discussed above, the wide range of fluid inclusion homogenization temperatures reflects variable thermal conditions in which the quartz overgrowths were formed, and the maximum homogenization temperatures, even after pressure correction, do not necessarily represent the maximum thermal conditions. In fact, petrographic studies indicate that illite precipitation partly overlaps with, and generally postdates,

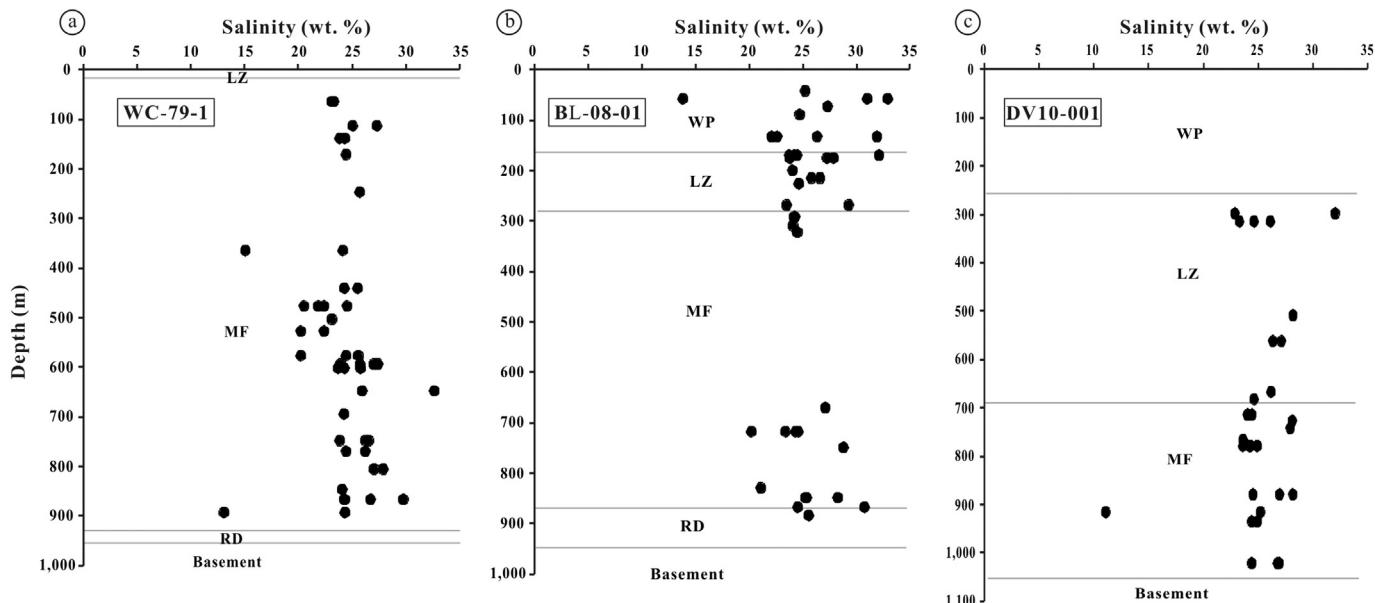


Fig. 8. Distribution of salinities of fluid inclusions along depth of the WC-79-1, BL-08-01, and DV10-001 drill cores.





Scott and Chi (2014), cannot be explained with Pagel's (1975) burial model.

Pagel's (1975) estimation of geothermal gradient and maximum burial depth is based on the assumption of a lithostatic fluid pressure system in the Athabasca basin and that the melting temperatures of halite in fluid inclusions represent the trapping temperatures. Numerical modeling of sediment compaction has shown that fluid pressures in intracratonic basins are likely to be close to hydrostatic values due to slow sedimentation over a prolonged geological time (Bethke, 1985), as is the case for the Athabasca basin (Chi et al., 2013). The sandstone dominated nature of the Athabasca basin further contributes to the development of a hydrostatic fluid pressure system rather than lithostatic (Chi et al., 2013). As to the melting temperatures of halite in fluid inclusions, it has been shown that halite crystals can be accidentally trapped in fluid inclusions, rather than having formed a daughter mineral (Becker et al., 2008), in such situations the halite-melting temperatures cannot be used to represent trapping temperatures. In fact, if the halite is treated as daughter mineral, and if we accept the assumption of a hydrostatic fluid pressure regime, the calculation of fluid pressures with Pagel's (1975) data would lead to an estimation of 11 km of erosion and a geothermal gradient of 12 °C/km, both difficult to reconcile with the geological condition of the Athabasca basin.

An examination of the depth-temperature profiles coupled with different geothermal gradient-erosion thickness combinations (Fig. 10) reveals that the outlines of maximum fluid inclusion homogenization temperatures and minimum illite temperatures are close to the trends assuming 5 km erosion and 35 °C/km geothermal gradient or 3 km erosion and 55 °C/km geothermal gradient. This observation, together with uncertainties about erosion thickness and geothermal gradient as discussed above, indicates that either the fluid inclusion homogenization temperatures and the illite temperatures are not accurate enough to define geothermal gradients given the limited vertical extent being examined, or the geothermal gradients are small, as suggested by the broadly vertical distributions of the temperature data (Figs. 7, 9, 10a, and c). Furthermore, the high illite temperatures cannot be explained with a simple burial model unless an erosion of >5 km or a geothermal gradient much higher than 35 °C/km is assumed (Fig. 10).

Taking all these together, we postulate that the Athabasca basin experienced extensive thermal disturbance during its diagenetic history, which heated various parts of the basin to higher-than-normal temperatures and masked any regular geothermal patterns that might have existed. Thermal disturbances have been recognized in many types of mineralizing systems (especially MVT and SEDEX) in sedimentary basins, and has been related to various driving forces, including topographic relief, fluid overpressure, and thermal convections (Cathles and Smith, 1983; Anderson and MacQueen, 1988; Bethke and Marshak, 1990; Garven et al., 1993; Duddy et al., 1994; Deming, 1994; Garven and Raffensperger, 1997; Cathles and Adams, 2005; Ingebretsen and Appold, 2012; Chi, 2015). In the case of the Athabasca basin, overpressure-driven fluid flow may be excluded because the fluid pressures were likely to be near hydrostatic due to the sandstone-dominated nature and slow sedimentation (Chi et al., 2013), whereas the topography-driven fluid flow model lacks supports from unidirectional temperature change (suggested by the thermal profiles in this study) and streamline configurations (suggested by the numerical modeling results in Cui et al., 2010) related to fluid flow away from the mountains, as documented for the classical MVT deposits in North America (Bethke and Marshak, 1990; Garven et al., 1993; Garven and Raffensperger, 1997). Several numerical modeling studies (Raffensperger and Garven, 1995a; Cui et al., 2012a, b; Li et al., 2015) have indicated that free convection may have been developed in the Athabasca basin under normal geothermal gradients, in part due to the high permeabilities due to its sandstone-dominated nature. Furthermore, the presence of ca. 1644 Ma volcanic rocks in the Wolverine Point Formation within the Athabasca basin (Rainbird et al., 2007) and the ca. 1267 Ma post-Athabasca Mackenzie diabase dikes (LeCheminant and

Heaman, 1989) indicate that forced convection may have also been locally developed in relation to heat anomalies.

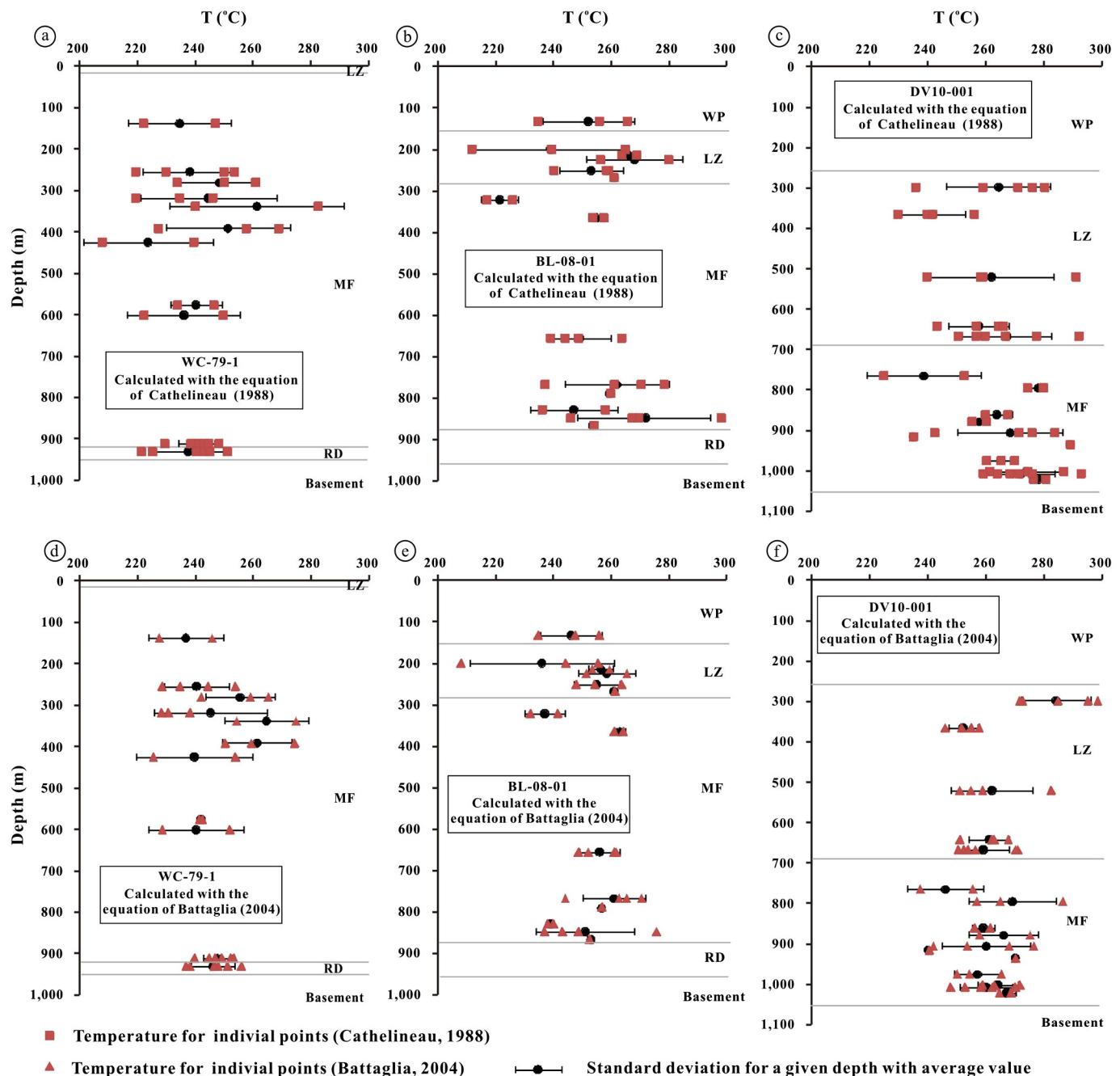
The high illite temperatures and quasi-absence of thermal gradients in the vertical direction observed in this study may be best explained by fluid convection in the basin, as high fluid temperatures and steep isotherms are characteristic of the upwelling limbs of individual convection cells (Raffensperger and Garven, 1995a; Cui et al., 2012a, b; Li et al., 2015). On the other hand, lower-than-normal temperatures are expected to be developed in the downwelling limbs. The similarity of thermal profiles between different drill cores examined in this study (Fig. 10) may suggest that these localities are coincident with the sites of upwelling convection. Alternatively, it may be explained by shifting of convection cells through time, as illustrated in Fig. 11. A "low temperature" site associated with downwelling flow at one time may evolve into a "high temperature" site associated with upwelling flow at another time (Fig. 11). As a result, any part of the basin may have experienced both "high" and "low" temperatures in the diagenetic history, which may also explain the wide ranges of temperatures as discussed above. According to Cui et al. (2010), multiple layers of convection may be developed due to presence of low-permeability layers in the sedimentary sequence, which may also explain the overall homogeneous distribution of high fluid temperatures in the basin. In addition to the thermal effects, fluid convection may also explain the nearly uniform distributions of fluid salinities with depths (Fig. 8), as fluids of different initial salinities may be mixed during convection.

#### 8.4. Implications for unconformity-related uranium mineralization

The fluid convection models discussed above have important implications for URU mineralization in the Athabasca basin, both in terms of fluid flow mechanisms and uranium sources. Although fluid convection has been proposed in previous studies as a plausible mechanism for fluid flow related to URU mineralization (Raffensperger and Garven, 1995a; Cui et al., 2012a, b; Li et al., 2015), these studies are based solely on numerical modeling. The results from this study provide the first independently obtained evidence that supports fluid convection in the Athabasca basin. Although not all the fluid convection cells are related to mineralization, the recognition of fluid convection in the central part of the Athabasca basin suggests that there is potential to find URU deposits in this part of the basin, as long as other conditions of mineralization (e.g., geochemical traps) are met.

Another issue regarding URU ore genesis is about the sources of uranium. There are two schools of thought: one believes that uranium was derived from the basin (Hoeve and Sibbald, 1978; Hoeve and Quirt, 1984; Kotzer and Kyser, 1995; Komninou and Sverjensky, 1996; Fayek and Kyser, 1997; Kyser et al., 2000), and the other advocates sources from the basement (Dahlkamp, 1978; Annesley and Madore, 1999; Hecht and Cuney, 2000; Cuney et al., 2003; Richard et al., 2010; Mercadier et al., 2013). Although it is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss the pros and cons of each school of thought, it is worth elaborating on the potential significance of basin-scale fluid convection for metal sources.

Two types of brines have been found in URU deposits, i.e., a Na-rich brine and a Ca-rich brine (Derome et al., 2005; Richard et al., 2010), and the Ca-rich brine has been interpreted to have resulted from reaction between an originally Na-rich basinal brine with the Ca-rich lithologies in the basement, which is further taken to support that uranium was sourced from the basement (Derome et al., 2005; Richard et al., 2010). This interpretation is based in part on the assumption that the lithologies in the Athabasca Basin were originally Ca-poor as they are today (mainly quartz arenite). However, the abundance of fluid inclusions in quartz overgrowths with ice-melting temperatures significantly lower than the eutectic point of the H<sub>2</sub>O-NaCl system (~21.2 °C), as documented in this study (Table 1) and by Scott and Chi (2014), indicates that Ca-rich brines were well developed within the Athabasca basin, and not limited to the URU deposits. This may be taken to argue that

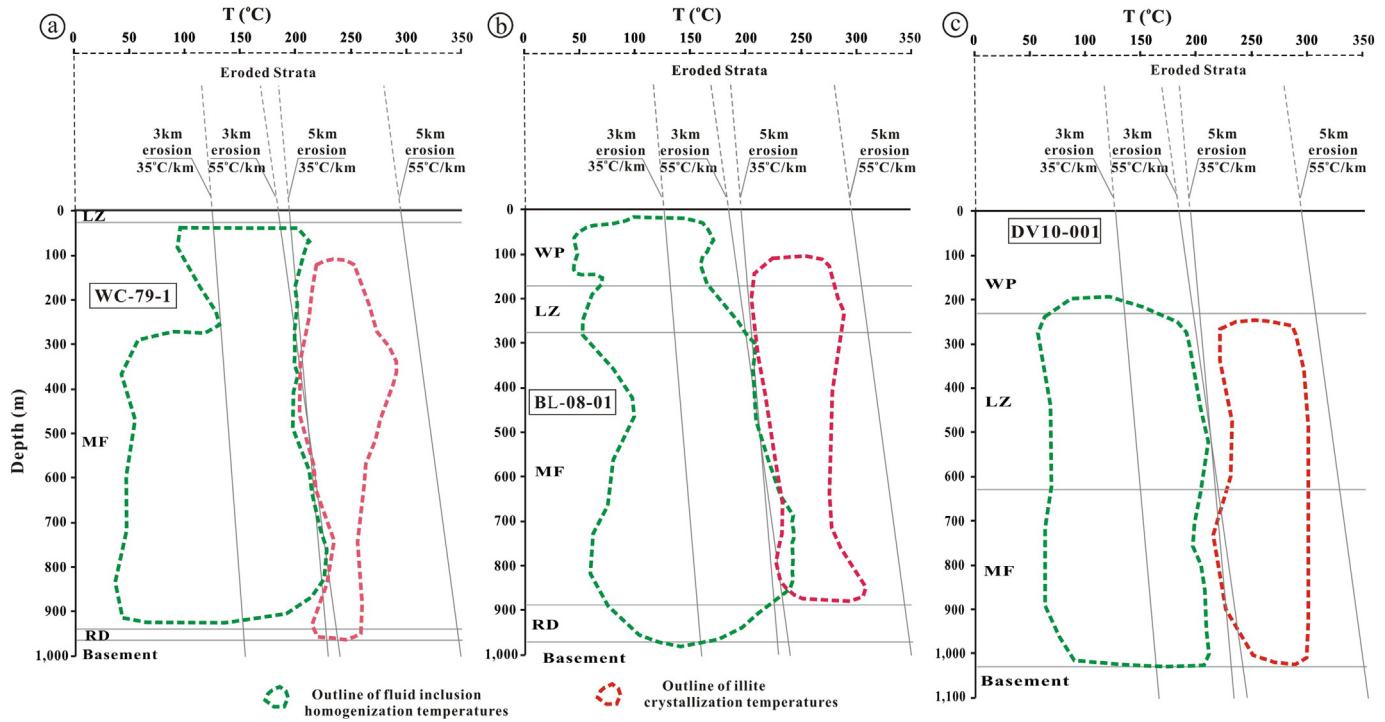


**Fig. 9.** Distribution of illite crystallization temperatures along depth from the drill cores WC-79-1, BL-08-01, and DV10-001. a, b, c – temperatures calculated using Cathelineau (1988)'s method; d, e, f – temperatures calculated using Battaglia (2004)'s method.

the lithologies of the Athabasca strata were originally more Ca-rich than today, and that Ca may have been released into the basinal fluids during diagenesis through fluid-rock interaction, as is proposed for the origin of most Ca-rich brines in sedimentary basins (Hanor, 1994). Alternatively, the development of Ca-rich brines in the basin may be used as evidence that fluid convection penetrated into the basement, as suggested by Cui et al. (2012b). Thus, Na-rich basinal brines infiltrated into the basement along the downwelling sites of convection cells, reacted with basement rocks and picked up Ca, and flowed back into the basin along the upwelling sites. The interpretation may explain the widespread bleaching of redbeds in the Athabasca basin, which is associated with dissolution of iron oxides and hydroxides due to introduction of relatively reducing fluids into the basin (Chu et al., 2015): these relatively reducing fluids

may represent those returning from the basement driven by fluid convection.

Regardless of whether U and Ca were derived from the basement or the basin, the fluid convection processes will have facilitated fluid-rock interaction and metal extraction, as has been proposed in many sedimentary basins (Wood and Hewett, 1982, 1984; Bjorlykke et al., 1988; Bjorlykke, 1994; Bjorlykke and Gran, 1994; Metcalfe et al., 1994). Such fluid convection could have maintained for several millions of years by recycling the same amount of fluids (Cassan et al., 1981; Wood and Hewett, 1982, 1984; Davis et al., 1985). Although the timing and duration of fluid convection in the Athabasca basin are difficult to determine, and the exact role that fluid convection may have played in the formation of individual URU deposits is unknown, the development of



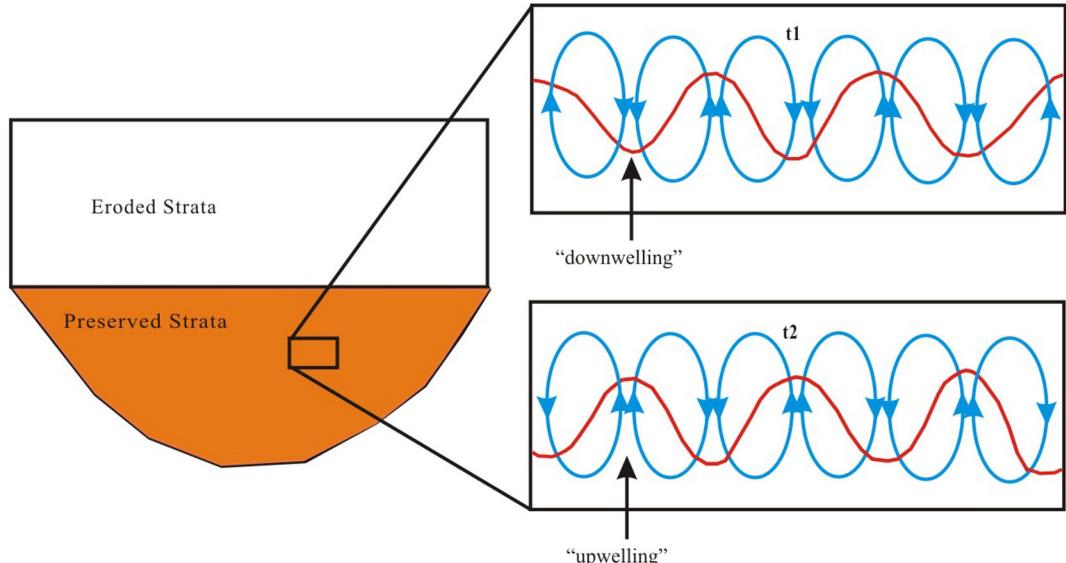
**Fig. 10.** Thermal profiles showing the outlines of fluid inclusion homogenization temperatures and illite crystallization temperatures (calculated using Cathelineau (1988)'s method) along depth of the WC-79-1, BL-08-01, and DV10-001 drill cores. Also shown are linear thermal profiles assuming thermal gradients of 35 °C/km and 55 °C/km, erosion thicknesses of 3 km and 5 km, and surface temperature of 20 °C.

basin-wide fluid convection processes, as suggested in this study, may be considered as a favorable indication of uranium mineralization for the basin as a whole, both in terms of the ground preparation (metal extraction and perhaps permeability enhancement) and fluid circulation required for mineralization.

## 9. Conclusions

Fluid inclusions in quartz overgrowths, and illite in interstitial space in sandstones from three drill cores (WC-79-1, BL-08-01, and DV10-

001) located in the central part of the Athabasca basin, were studied to estimate the paleo-temperatures of basinal fluids in the diagenetic history of the basin. The fluid inclusions show homogenization temperatures from 50° to 235 °C, ice-melting temperatures from –9.2° to –48.6 °C (corresponding to salinities from 13.1 to 30.7 wt.%), and the illite crystallization temperatures range from 212° to 298 °C. The homogenization temperatures cover a wide range at any given depth, and do not show a systematic increase with depth. The illite temperatures are systematically higher than the fluid inclusion homogenization temperatures, and also do not show an obvious trend



**Fig. 11.** A sketch showing how the whole basin may have been heated to higher-than-normal temperatures through shifting of fluid convection cells. A low temperature site associated with "downwelling" flow at one time ( $t_1$ ) may be overprinted by higher temperatures associated with "upwelling" flow at another time ( $t_2$ ).

of increase with depth. The ice-melting temperatures of fluid inclusions are mostly lower than  $-21.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and there is no systematic change of fluid salinities with depth. There are no systematic differences in fluid inclusion homogenization temperatures, illite crystallization temperatures, and fluid compositions between the studied drill cores.

These results are interpreted to indicate that the Athabasca basin experienced thermal disturbances that raised the temperatures above those expected for a normal geothermal gradient ( $35^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{km}$ ) during the long and complex diagenetic history. The quasi-absence of thermal gradients indicated by the thermal profiles documented in this study can be best explained by thermal convection. Although fluid convection has been proposed for the unconformity-related uranium deposits in the Athabasca basin in many previous studies, these studies are based solely on numerical modeling, and this study provide the first independently obtained evidence for fluid convection in the basin. The low ice-melting temperatures of fluid inclusions in the quartz overgrowths suggest that Ca-rich brines were developed in the basin, which may be interpreted to indicate either basin lithologies that were originally more Ca-rich than today, or that the fluid convection cells penetrated into the basement where Ca was extracted. Uranium required for unconformity-related uranium deposits may have been similarly derived either from the basin or the basement. In either case, fluid convection is considered favorable for uranium mineralization in terms of ground preparation (metal extraction and permeability enhancement) or fluid circulation.

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