



The Xitieshan volcanic sediment-hosted massive sulfide deposit, North Qaidam, China: Geology, structural deformation and geochronology



Jiangang Fu^{a,b}, Xinquan Liang^{a,*}, Ce Wang^a, Yun Zhou^c, Ying Jiang^a, Chaohe Dong^a

^a State Key Laboratory of Isotope Geochemistry, Guangzhou Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences, 511 Kehua Street, Tianhe District, Guangzhou, China

^b Chengdu Institute of Geology and Mineral Resources, China Geological Survey, Chengdu, Sichuan, China

^c College of Earth Sciences, Guilin University of Technology, Guilin, Guangxi, China

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ABSTRACT

The Xitieshan deposit (~64 Mt at 4.86% Zn, 4.16% Pb, 58 g/t Ag, and 0.68 g/t Au) is hosted by the Middle to Late Ordovician Tanjianshan Group of the North Qaidam tectonic metallogenic belt, NW China. This belt is characterized by island arc volcanic, ultra-high pressure (UHP) metamorphic and ophiolitic rocks. The Tanjianshan Group constitutes a succession of metamorphosed bimodal volcanic and sedimentary rocks, which are interpreted to have formed on the margin of a back-arc ocean basin between the Qaidam block and the Qilian block.

Four stratigraphic units are identified within the Ordovician Tanjianshan Group. From northeast to southwest they are: 1) unit a, or the lower volcanic-sedimentary rocks, comprising bimodal volcanic rocks (unit a-1) and sedimentary rocks (unit a-2) ranging from carbonates to black carbonaceous schist; 2) unit b, or intermediate-mafic volcanoclastic rocks, characterized by intermediate to mafic volcanoclastic rocks intercalated with lamellar carbonaceous schist and minor marble lenses; 3) unit c, a purplish red sandy conglomerate that unconformably overlies unit b, representing the product of the foreland basin sedimentation during the Early Silurian; 4) unit d, or mafic volcanic rocks, from base to top, comprising the lower mafic volcanoclastic rocks (unit d-1), middle clastic sedimentary rocks (unit d-2), upper mafic volcanoclastic rocks (unit d-3), and uppermost mafic volcanic rocks (unit d-4). Unit a-2 hosts most of the massive sulfides whereas unit b contains subordinate amounts.

The massive stratiform lenses constitute most of the Xitieshan deposit with significant amount of semi-massive and irregularly-shaped sulfides and minor amounts in stringer veins. Pyrite, galena and sphalerite are the dominant sulfide minerals, with subordinate pyrrhotite and chalcopyrite. Quartz is a dominant gangue mineral. Sericite, quartz, chlorite, and carbonate alteration of host rocks accompanies the mineralization.

U-Pb zircon geochronology yields three ages of 454 Ma, 452 Ma and 451 Ma for the footwall felsic volcanic rocks in unit a-1, sedimentary host rocks in unit a-2 and hanging-wall unit b, respectively. The Xitieshan deposit is considered to be coeval with the sedimentation of unit a-2 and unit b of the Tanjianshan Group. The Xitieshan deposit has been intensely deformed during two phases (main ductile shear and minor ductile-brittle deformation). The main ductile shear deformation controls the general strike of the ore zones, whereas minor deformation controls the internal geometry of the ore bodies. ⁴⁰Ar-³⁹Ar age of muscovite from mylonitized granitic gneisses in the ductile shear zone is ~399 Ma, which is interpreted to date the Xitieshan ductile shear zone, suggesting that Early Devonian metamorphism and deformation post-dated the Tanjianshan Group.

The Xitieshan deposit has many features similar to that of the Bathurst district of Canada, the Iberian Pyrite Belt of Spain, the Wolverine volcanogenic massive sulfide deposit in Canada. Based on its tectonic setting, host-rock types, local geologic setting, metal grades, geochronology, temperatures and salinities of mineralizing fluid and source of sulfur, the Xitieshan deposit has features similar to sedimentary exhalative (SEDEX) and VMS deposits and is similar to volcanic and sediment-hosted massive sulfide (VSHMS) deposits.

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1. Introduction

The Xitieshan Pb-Zn deposit is located in the eastern part of Qinghai province, approximately 80 km southeast of town Dachaidan, NW China

* Corresponding author at: Guangzhou Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences, 511 Kehua Street, Tianhe District, Guangzhou 510640, Guangdong Province, China.
E-mail address: liangxq@gig.ac.cn (X. Liang).

(Fig. 1A). It is one of the largest Pb-Zn deposits in China. The deposit contains 64 million tonnes (Mt) of ore in reserves and geologic resources, at an average grade of 4.86% Zn, 4.16% Pb, 58 g/t Ag, and 0.68 g/t Au (Hou et al., 1999; Wang et al., 2013). The main orebody is approximately 150–250 m long, 50 m wide, at least 3–4 m (locally up to 30 m) thick. The deposit is hosted in the Ordovician Tanjianshan Group, and located in the middle part of the North Qaidam tectonic belt (Fig. 1A and B), which is one of the major Paleozoic polymetallic

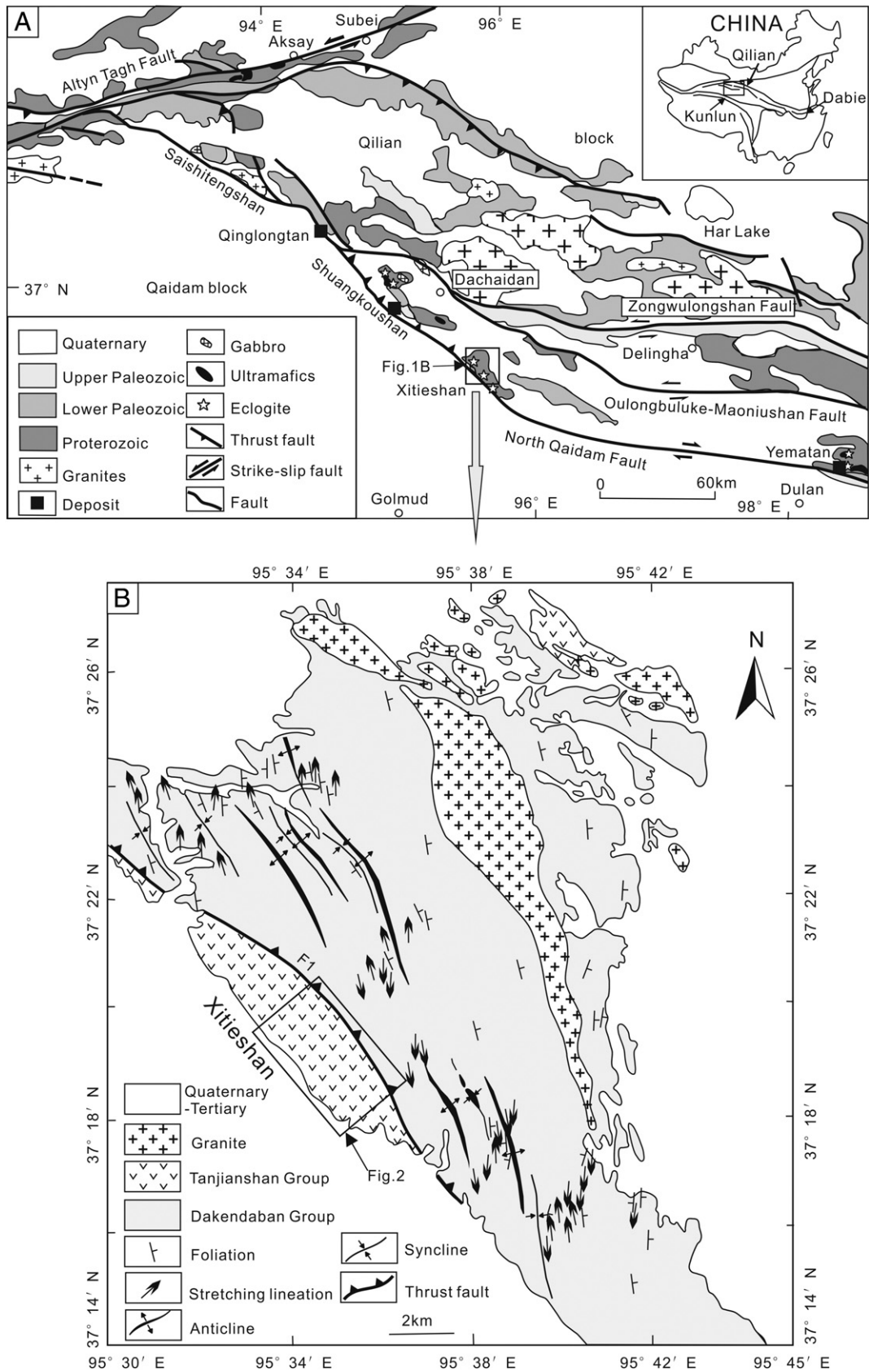


Fig. 1. A. Simplified regional geologic map, showing the location of the study area in the northwestern China. B. Map showing the distribution of the Tanjianshan and Dakendaban groups, and the location of Fig. 2. Map modified from Xu et al. (2006) and Zhang et al. (2009).

metalogenic belts of the Tibetan Plateau in NW China (Wang et al., 2003).

In recent years, several general reviews of the Xitieshan VMS deposit were published. These works included studies of stratigraphy, geologic setting, and genesis of the deposit (Feng et al., 2010; Wu et al., 1987; Wu et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2005), a study of the genesis and exploration significance of hydrothermal sedimentary rocks (Li et al., 2009), and the sources of ore-forming fluid (Wang et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2008; Zhu et al., 2010). However, detailed descriptions are limited, and many geologic parameters, critical for ore formation, are unknown. Poor knowledge of the stratigraphy, absence of precise U-Pb chronology, and poor understanding of the deformation history (especially the age of the shear zone formation), are typical for the Xitieshan deposit. These aspects also have implications for exploration for similar deposits elsewhere in North Qaidam.

The objectives of this paper are: 1) to provide a descriptive field-based geologic database of the Xitieshan deposit, to enable comparison with other mid-Paleozoic VMS deposits in North Qaidam and elsewhere in the world; 2) to understand the timing of Xitieshan VMS mineralization in the volcanic-sedimentary rocks; 3) to provide temporal constraints on the ductile shear deformation and associated mineralization in the Xitieshan district; 4) to elucidate the relationship among the sedimentation, mineralization and volcanism in the Xitieshan deposit; and 5) to provide insight into the genesis of the Xitieshan deposit.

2. Regional geologic setting

The North Qaidam tectonic belt is located at the northeastern margin of the Tibetan Plateau, NW China (Fig. 1A). It is characterized by the development of Paleozoic island arc volcanic rocks, HP-UHP metamorphic rocks and ophiolite complexes (Shi et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2006). The belt extends for about 400 km long in a NNW direction, which is in fault contact with the Qaidam block to the southwest and the Qilian block to the northeast, along the North Qaidam fault and Zongwulongshan fault, respectively (Fig. 1A). The North Qaidam tectonic belt is offset by the sinistral Altyn Tagh fault in the northwest (Fig. 1A), and is cut by the Elashan fault in the east (Tang et al., 2002). A Cenozoic intra-continental sedimentary basin (Qaidam basin) overlain the Precambrian crystalline basement and the Paleozoic fold belt (part of the Qaidam block) (Bureau of Geology Mineral Resources of Qinghai Province, 1991). The Qilian block consists predominantly of Precambrian orthogneiss, paragneiss, schist and marble, and overlying Paleozoic sedimentary rocks, with depositional contact (locally faulted) (Wan et al., 2001).

The North Qaidam tectonic belt is comprised predominantly of Precambrian orthogneiss and paragneiss, amphibolite, mafic granulite and marble intercalated with minor slices of eclogite and garnet peridotite (Zhang et al., 2008). They are in fault contact with the lower Paleozoic Tanjianshan Group and intruded by the Silurian granite (ca. 428 Ma) (Meng et al., 2005). The Tanjianshan Group occupies a northwest trending band, approximately 1–2 km wide, which discontinuously distributes in Saishitengshan, Shangkoushan, Xitieshan and Dulan areas from northwest to northeast (Fig. 1A). It is mainly composed of deformed and metamorphosed, lower greenschist to amphibolite facies metasedimentary and metavolcanic rocks (Fig. 1; Wu et al., 1987).

The North Qaidam orogen is one of the most important polymetallic belts in the northwest of China (Mao et al., 2003). Many massive sulfide deposits are hosted in the lower Paleozoic volcanic-sedimentary rocks of the Tanjianshan Group in this belt, such as the Qinglongtan, Shuangkoushan and Xitieshan Pb-Zn massive sulfide deposits (Fig. 1A).

3. Local geologic setting

In the Xitieshan district, the Dakendaban Group in the northeast is in structural contact with underlying younger volcanic-sedimentary rocks of the Tanjianshan Group in the southwest (Figs. 1B and 2). The

Tanjianshan Group, hosting most of the Xitieshan massive sulfide deposits, has been divided into four informal units from northeast to southwest; they are: 1) unit a, or the lower volcanic-sedimentary rocks, comprising bimodal volcanic rocks (unit a-1) and sedimentary rocks (unit a-2); 2) unit b, or intermediate-mafic volcanoclastic rocks; 3) unit c, a purplish red sandy conglomerate; 4) unit d, or mafic volcanic rocks, from base to top, comprising the lower mafic volcanoclastic rocks (unit d-1), middle clastic sedimentary rocks (unit d-2), upper mafic volcanoclastic rocks (unit d-3), and uppermost mafic volcanic rocks (unit d-4) (Figs. 2, 3 and 4) (Wu et al., 1987; Zhang et al., 2005). The tectonic setting of the Tanjianshan Group was interpreted to be either a Middle-Late Ordovician intra-continental rift (Wu et al., 1987), as well as island arc and/or back-arc basin (Wu et al., 2010). The Dakendaban Group is laterally extensive and mainly composed of Neoproterozoic para- and orthogneiss (Fig. 3), with minor amphibolite, mafic granulite, marble, and locally eclogite and garnet peridotite (Zhang et al., 2009).

The area of the Xitieshan mine was strongly deformed during Middle Paleozoic times (about 440–400 Ma) (Guo, 2000; Wang et al., 2000). Two obvious deformation phases have been recognized: early main ductile deformation and late minor brittle-ductile deformation. Predominant ductile deformation resulted from the oblique continent-continent collision between the Qaidam and Qilian blocks, and produced a regional ductile shear in North Qaidam. It was then overprinted by minor brittle-ductile deformation. This regional deformation event resulted in the oblique subduction of the Tanjianshan Group from SW to NE, which underlie the Dakendaban Group (Fig. 3), and the formation of the Xitieshan ductile shear zone.

The sequence of the Tanjianshan Group in the Xitieshan mining area was exposed to low- to moderate-grade regional metamorphism ranging from lower greenschist to middle amphibolite facies, with mineral assemblage of sericite, actinolite, albite, chlorite, amphibole, and biotite. Four main alteration styles were recognized at the Xitieshan deposit, including silica (quartz), carbonate, chlorite, and sericite alteration. Hydrothermal alteration zones occur beneath, lateral to, and within massive and stringer vein sulfide zones. However, the hydrothermal alteration model related to mineralization has not been clearly established.

4. Deposit stratigraphy

The sequence of the Tanjianshan Group overall includes two volcanic-sedimentary cycles from bottom to top: the first cycle consists of units a and b, whereas the second cycle is unit d. The Xitieshan deposit is confined to the lower part of the Tanjianshan Group (Figs. 3, 4). The main characteristics of each unit in the Tanjianshan Group are summarized as follow, from northeast to southwest:

4.1. Unit a, lower volcanic-sedimentary rocks

4.1.1. Unit a-1, mafic-felsic bimodal volcanic rocks

Owing to the late structural deformation, unit a-1 structurally underlies granitic gneiss of the Dakendaban Group (Fig. 3). Unit a-1 is subdivided into three parts from base to top (Fig. 5) and is characterized by bimodal volcanic rocks (Fig. 6A). The lower part, about 40 m thick, is composed of meta-mafic volcanic rocks, volcanoclastic rocks, fine-grained quartz sandstone and lamellar exhalite (barite, quartz and minor calcite) with minor carbonaceous argillite at the bottom. The middle part of unit a-1 comprises predominantly rhyolite porphyry (Fig. 6A, B, C and D), interbedded with chlorite schist, and siliceous rock. Potassium feldspar-phyric rhyolite bodies, ranging in thickness from 5 to 8 m, occur approximately 300 m below the massive sulfide lenses in this unit. Potassium feldspar, plagioclase, and minor quartz phenocrysts are present, all somewhat elongated because of deformation effects (Fig. 6C). These felsic volcanic rocks are calc-alkaline dacite and rhyolite, and their geochemical characteristics are similar to that of FI1-type rhyolite in the other VMS deposits elsewhere (Gaboury and Pearson, 2008; Hart et al., 2004; Lentz, 1998; Lesher et al., 1986; Sun

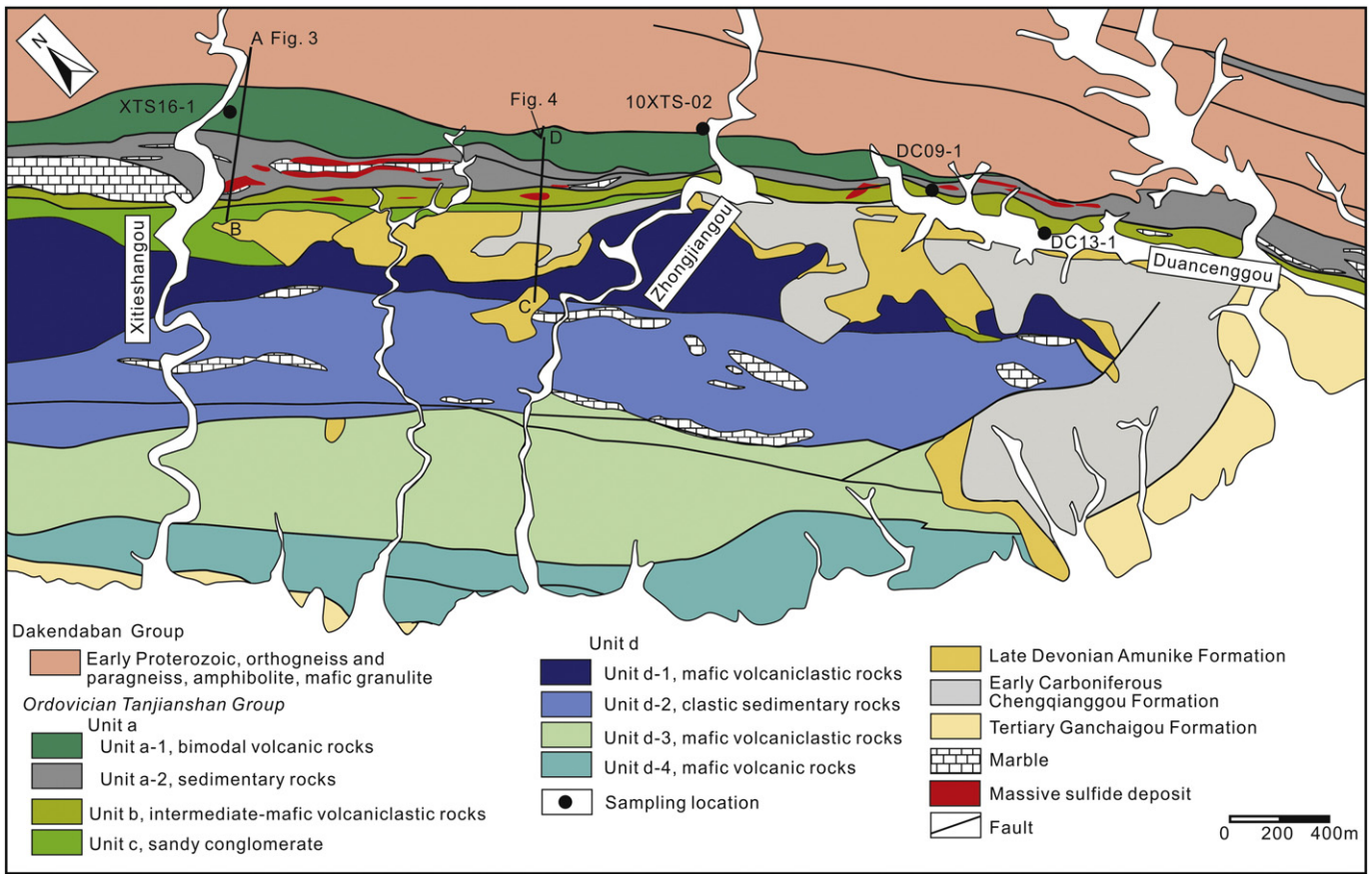


Fig. 2. Geologic map of the Xitieshan deposit area, showing the distribution of rock units with respect to the massive sulfide deposits. Map modified from the Xitieshan prospecting report (2009) (unpublished map).

et al., 2012). The upper part of unit a-1, several meters in thickness, is composed of thinner black carbonaceous argillite, interbedded with mafic volcanic rocks (Fig. 6A, E) and minor fine grained sandstone.

4.1.2. Unit a-2, sedimentary rocks

This unit is the principal host rock for mineralization. It is predominantly composed of black carbonaceous argillite, marble and massive sulfide lenses, veins, with minor chlorite schist and volcaniclastic rocks at the top and exhalite at the base (Fig. 5). The thickness of unit a-2 is greatest near the center of the deposit; it decreases towards the sides and along strike, which is consistent with the massive sulfides thickness, speculating that the thickest host rocks maybe correspond

to the center of the sedimentary basins or the location of a syngenetic fault (Zhang et al., 2005). Excluding the massive sulfides, unit a-2 contains three main rock types: schists, marble, and hydrothermal sedimentary rocks.

The schists include calcareous schist, carbonaceous schist, quartz schist, and chlorite-amphibole schist. The calcareous schist is characterized by a light gray color, lepidoblastic texture, and schistose structure. It consists of calcite, chlorite, and minor quartz. The carbonaceous schist is composed of quartz, sericite, chlorite and plagioclase, about 100 m thick, overall black green in color, and commonly has disseminated pyrite. The quartz schist is dominantly composed of quartz, plagioclase, sericite, and chlorite with subordinate actinolite and epidote. The

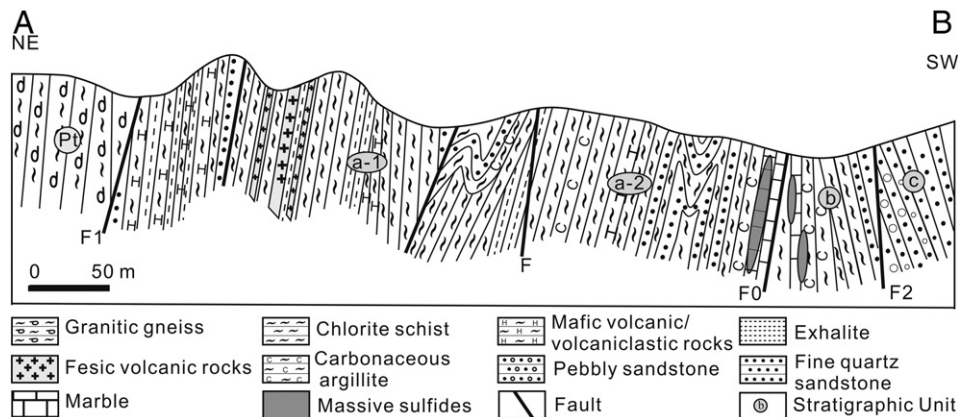


Fig. 3. Geologic cross section (A-B, location shown in Fig. 2) through the Xitieshangou zone of the Xitieshan deposit.

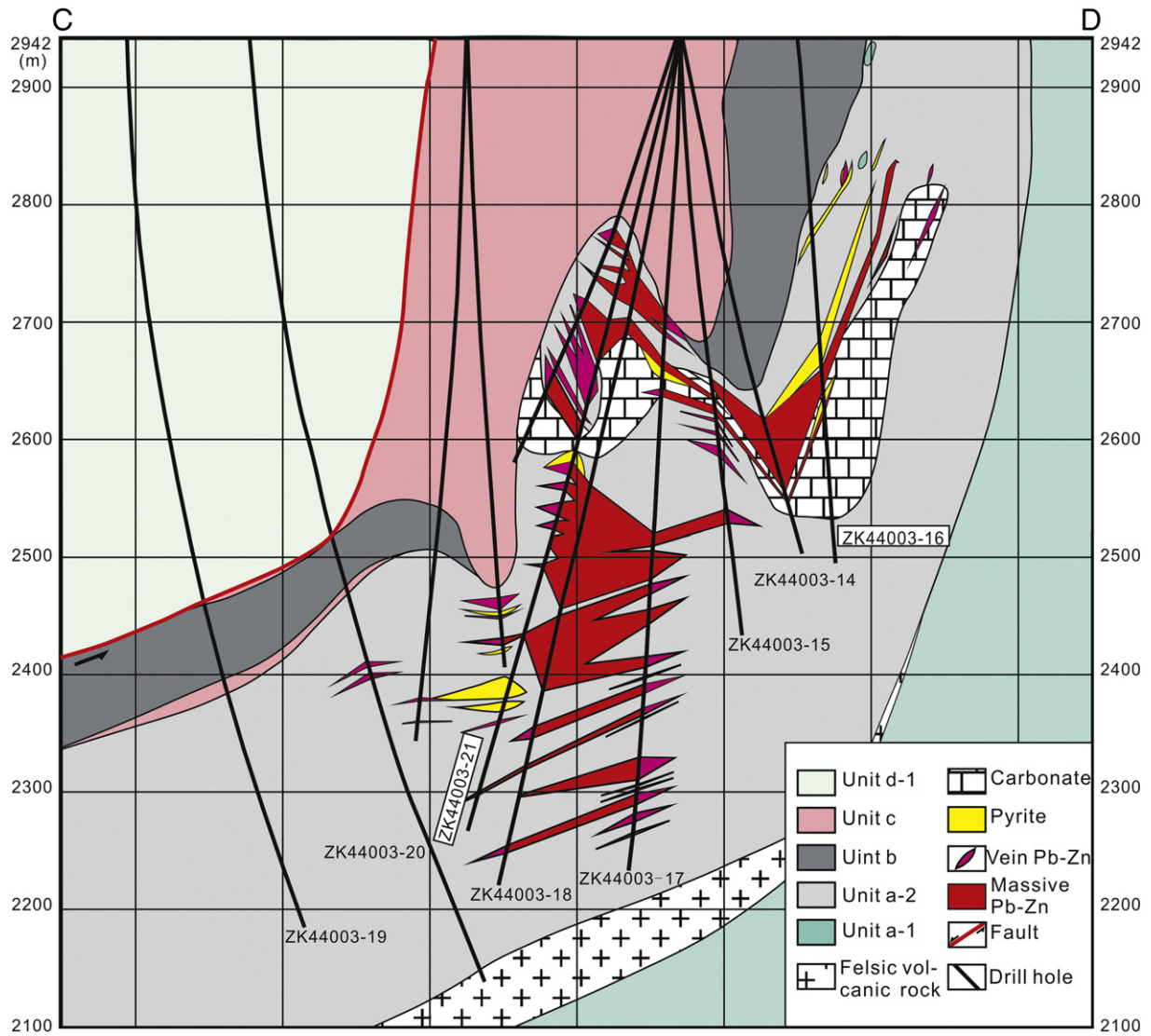


Fig. 4. Geological section along O3 exploration line of the Xitieshan Pb-Zn deposit, location in Fig. 2, showing the relationship between the felsic volcanic rocks and massive sulfide deposits, the morphology of ore body was transformed by the late ductile shear deformation, resulting in a series of variational lenticle forms. All the drill holes were opened at the level 2942 m. Diagram modified from the Xitieshan prospecting report (2009) (unpublished sections).

chlorite-amphibole schist is minor, and is composed of amphibole, chlorite, and minor quartz.

The marble is grayish white, and made of fine grained, lamellar, or banded carbonates. It exhibits mosaic or granoblastic texture, and consists of calcite (ca. 90%) and minor quartz. Quartz particles, typically characterized by the clastic structure, are rounded, cemented by calcite, and likely deposited in a shallow sea sedimentary environment. Iron-manganese marble occurs extensively in the northwest of the deposit.

Hydrothermal sedimentary rocks extensively occur in unit a-2 and include five types: siliceous marble, siliceous rocks, cryptoexplosion breccias, zinc-rich siderite and gypsum rocks, and rhodochrosite-rich rocks. Most siliceous marble occurs under the ore horizon. It is light gray-white in color, and composed predominantly of fine-grained calcite and quartz laminae (ca. 0.1–0.3 cm thickness). Siliceous rocks, occurring as banded iron-manganese chert formation (Fig. 6F) in both the hanging wall and footwall, are gray to grayish-green in color, 3 to 25 cm in thickness, and contain minor chlorite and carbonaceous matter. Cryptoexplosion breccias comprise angular fragments of siliceous rock, carbonaceous schist, chlorite schist, quartz and fine-grained marble (Fig. 7A). The fragments are cemented by sulfides, siliceous, argillaceous, and carbonate matter (Fig. 7A, B). Based upon the multi centre, beaded distribution of cryptoexplosion breccias in a NW direction in

unit a-2, hydrothermal-exhalation is inferred to have been controlled by a NW trending syndepositional fault. Zinc-rich siderite and gypsum veinlets, containing zinc-rich siderite and microcrystals of gypsum, mainly occur between stratiform massive sulfides and the marble host rocks, but also as veinlets in schist; these veinlets can be several mm to tens of mm in thickness. Overall, from bottom to top, the sequence of hydrothermal sedimentary rocks consist of cryptoexplosion breccia, siliceous rock, lamellar carbonate and gypsum, banded pyrite interlayered with siliceous rock, and banded sulfides, respectively (Zhang et al., 2005).

4.2. Unit b, intermediate-mafic volcanoclastic rocks

This unit is the minor ore-hosting rock. It contains marble with massive sulfides, carbonaceous argillite, mafic volcanic rocks, volcanoclastic rocks, sericitic quartzo-feldspathic clastic rocks, chlorite schist and carbonaceous argillite from base to top. The marble is characterized by lamellar and banded calcite, interbedded with banded chlorite, carbonaceous schist and biotite. Hydrothermal sedimentary rocks are not present either above or below of the massive sulfides in this minor host. This host rock, to a great extent, is similar to unit a-2, with

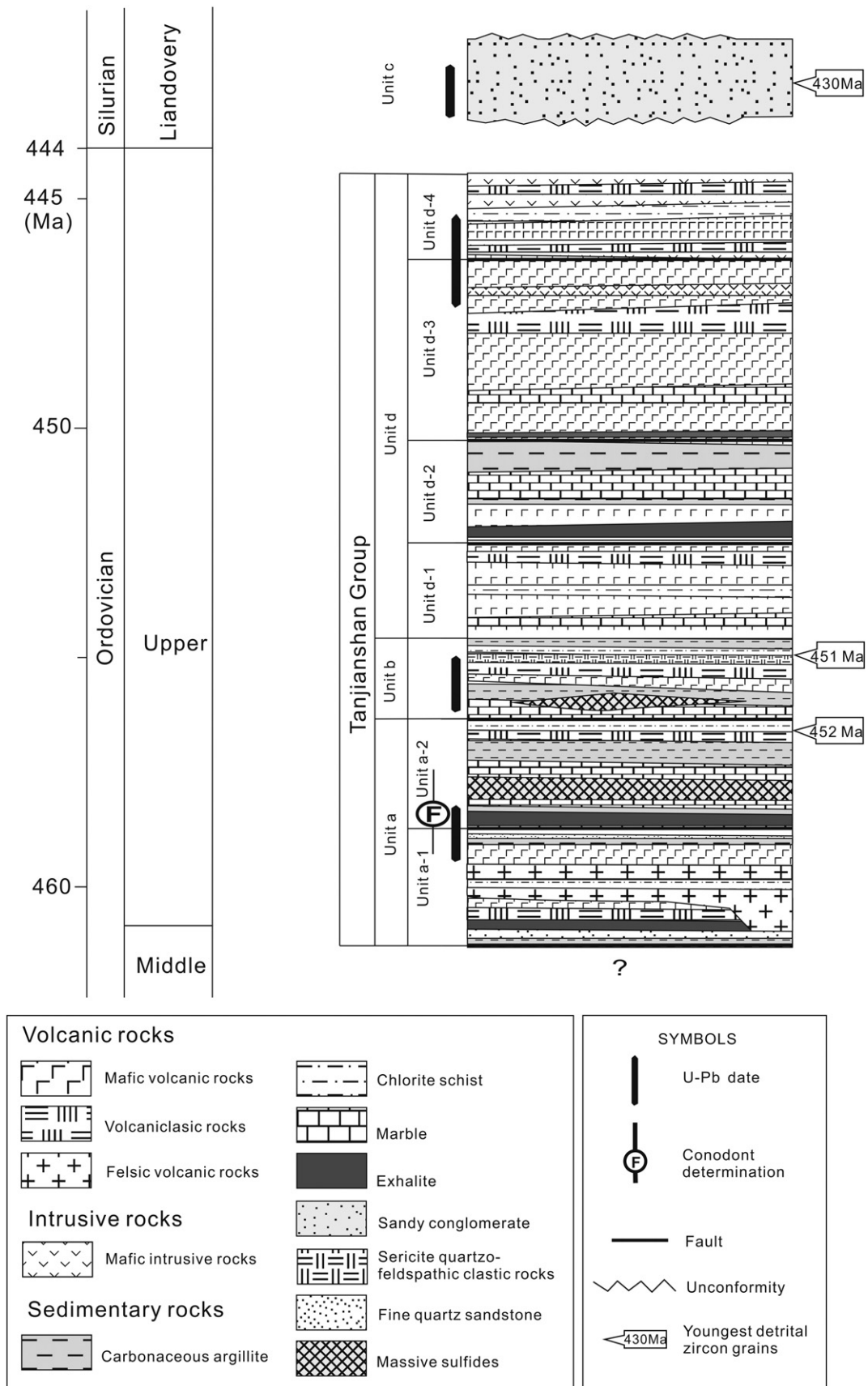


Fig. 5. Schematic stratigraphic column of the Tanjianshan Group in the Xitieshan district.

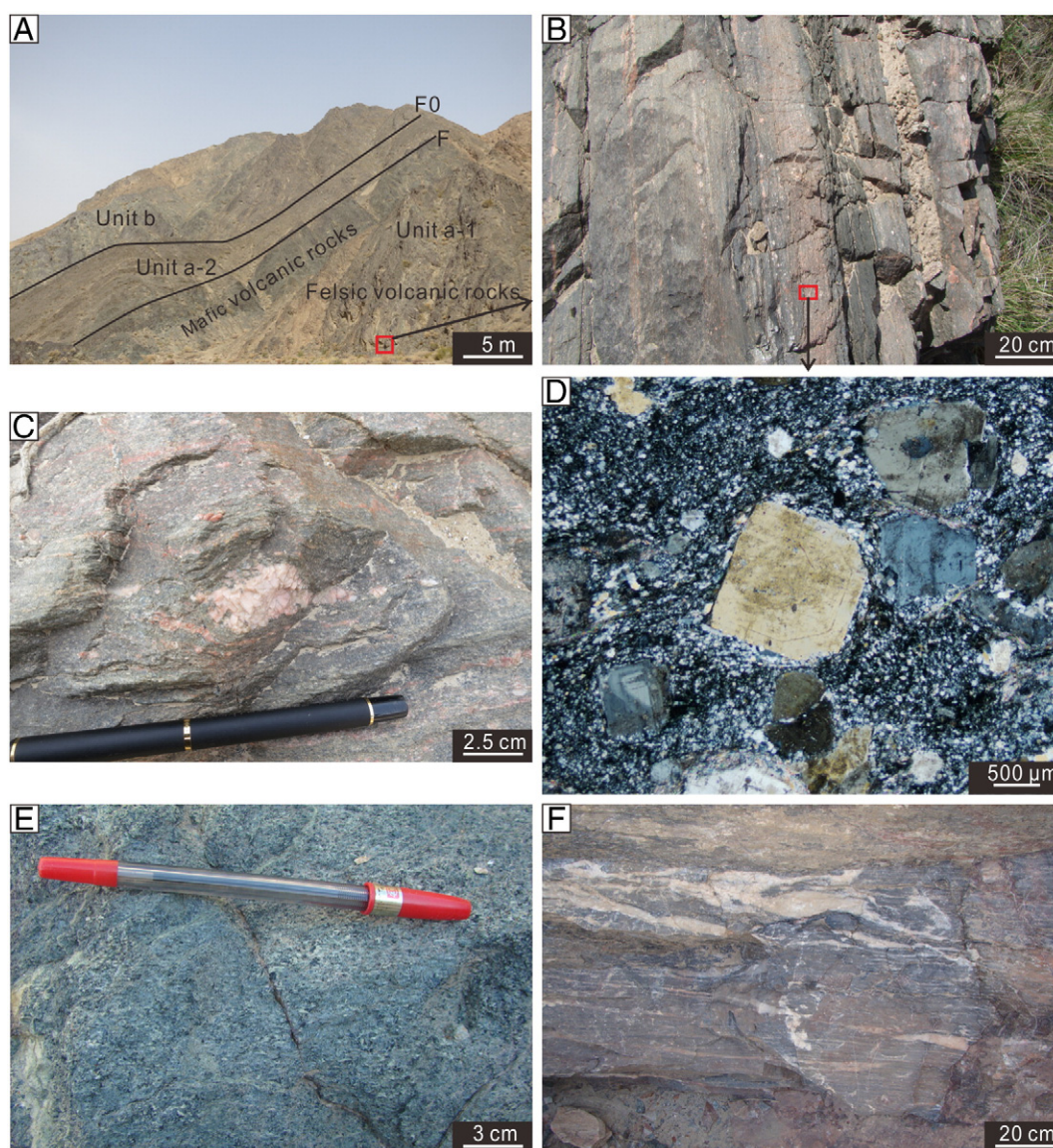


Fig. 6. A. The overall outcrop of the lower Tanjianshan Group, including units a-1, a-2 and b. B. Rhyolite porphyry that is interbedded with chlorite schist in unit a-1. C. The rotated and elongated feldspar phenocryst in rhyolite porphyry, unit a-2. D. Micrograph of the rhyolite porphyry in unit a-1 (X-polarized light). E. Mafic volcanic rock in unit a-1. F. Banded iron-manganese chert iron formation, interbedded with lamellar white marble in unit a-2.

the exception of the more volcanoclastic rocks than meta-sedimentary rocks, and higher content of chalcopryite and gold.

4.3. Unit c, sandy conglomerate

Unit c crops out between units b and d, and appears to be a younger tectonic slice or unconformable block. It is mainly composed of weakly metamorphosed grayish-purple conglomerate, pebbly sandstone, feldspath-quartz sandstone and siltstone (Fig. 7C). The grain size of this conglomerate decreases from base to top, up to several centimeters to decimeters near the base. The clasts are poorly sorted and angular, and are composed of volcanic rocks, marble, and carbonaceous slate. This unit is locally overlain by the molassoid Late Devonian Amunike Formation (D_3a). In addition, we have dated the detrital zircons from unit c using the U-Pb LA-ICP-MS. The result suggests that the maximum sedimentary age is younger than 430 Ma (Fu et al., 2014), indicating that this unit is younger than the Tanjianshan Group and should be removed from the Tanjianshan Group (Fu et al., 2014). To some extent, it is interpreted as a product of the Early Silurian foreland sedimentary basin (Du et al., 2004).

4.4. Unit d, mafic volcanic rocks

4.4.1. Unit d-1, lower mafic volcanoclastic rocks

This unit unconformably overlies unit c. It is subdivided into a lower and an upper part. The lower part is composed of mafic volcanic rocks, chlorite schist, and thin marble. The chlorite schist has always suffered chlorite and sericite altered. The upper part is composed predominantly of meta-mafic volcanic rocks with minor volcanoclastic rocks near the top, which contains amphibole, actinolite, chlorite, and sericite. The geochemistry of unit d-1 corresponds to the oceanic island arc basalt (OIB) (Sun et al., 2012).

4.4.2. Unit d-2, clastic sedimentary rocks

This unit is predominantly composed of carbonaceous argillite, exhalite, marble and minor mafic volcanic rocks. Siliceous rocks and Fe-Mg chert occur near the base of this unit. In outcrops, unit d-2 is similar to unit a-2 in color, composition and lithological association. The mafic volcanic rocks of unit d-2 are tholeiitic in composition and very similar to MORB (Sun et al., 2012).

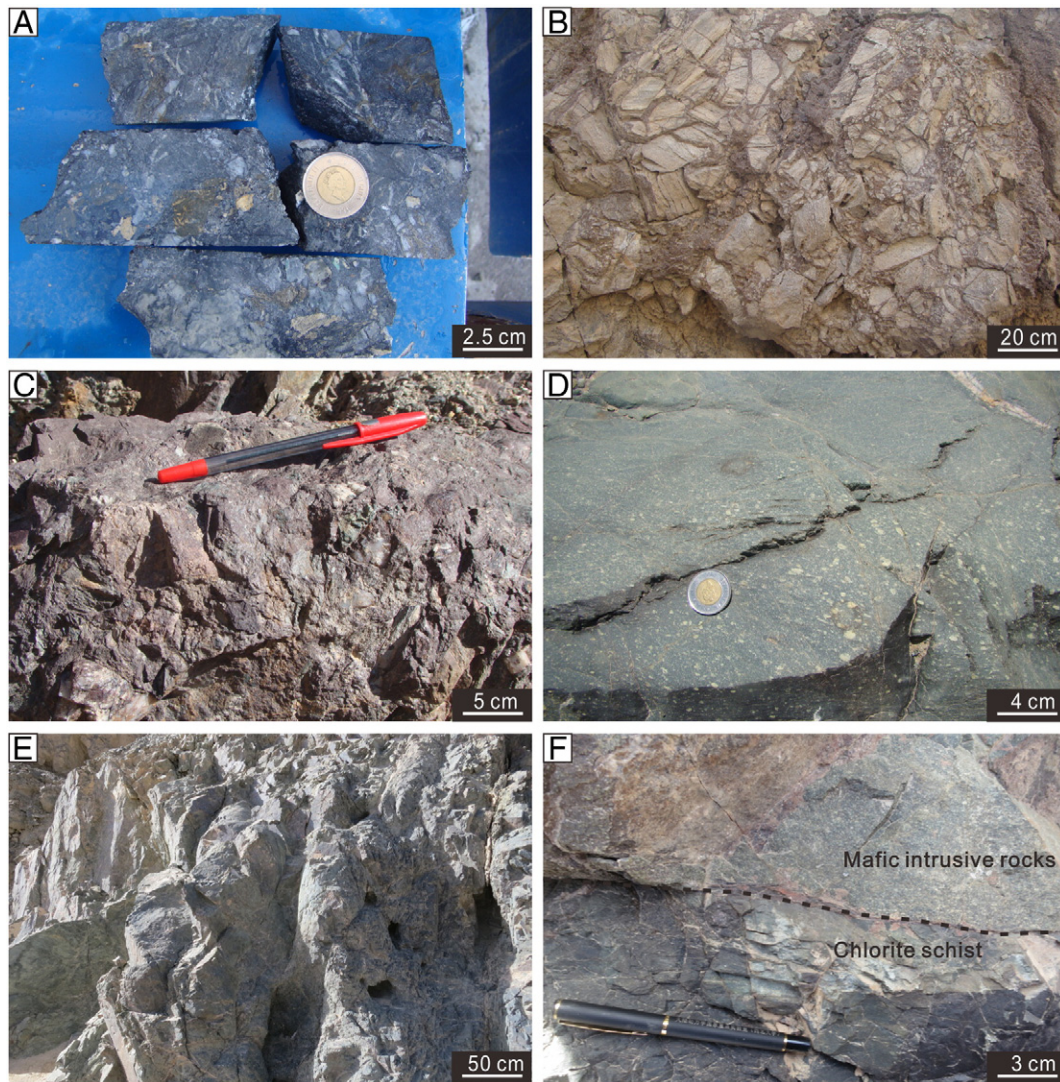


Fig. 7. A. Cryptoexplosion breccias from drill core ZK041-11 in unit a-2. B. Hydrothermal breccias in unit a-2. C. Purplish red conglomerate near the bottom of unit c. D. Mafic volcanic rocks with the amygdaloidal structure in unit d-3. Coin is 2.8 cm in diameter. E. Pillow structure of the volcanic lava in unit d-4. F. The late mafic intrusive rock invaded into the chlorite schist in unit d-4, the photo has been rotated 90° counterclockwise.

4.4.3. Unit d-3, upper mafic volcanoclastic rocks

Unit d-3 is predominantly composed of the dull gray-green mafic volcanic rocks, volcanoclastic rocks, exhalite, minor gray-green gabbro, and locally interlaid with minor banded marble. This unit is the thickest in the Xitianshan area, ranging from 300 to 650 m. The mafic volcanic rocks locally exhibit the amygdaloidal structure (Fig. 7D) and contain various amounts of amphibole, chlorite, biotite, feldspar and sericite. This unit is characterized by the presence of mafic volcanic rocks associated with gabbro, consistent with the second volcanic sedimentary circle, with volcanism gradually increased while the sedimentation quickly decreased during this period. It resulted in the presence of volcanoclastic rocks which were going to transform into the sedimentary rocks. The geochemistry of unit d-3 suggests a back-arc depositional environment (our unpublished data), which is somewhat between OIB and N-MORB (Hollings et al., 2000; Stolz, 1995; Taylor and Martinez, 2003).

4.4.4. Unit d-4, top mafic volcanic rocks

Generally, this unit, about 200 m in thickness, is similar to unit d-3 except for local pillow basalt (Fig. 7E). Unit d-4 is mainly composed of gray-green mafic volcanic rocks, volcanoclastic rocks, mafic intrusive

rocks, and chlorite schist. Unit d-4 is also intruded by the late mafic intrusive rocks at the top (Fig. 7F), which ranges in thickness from several tens of centimeters to ca. 40 m.

5. Massive sulfide lenses

5.1. Massive stratiform sulfides

Massive stratiform sulfide lenses, comprising of 60 to 70 vol.% fine-grained (0.5–1 mm) sulfide minerals and ranging from several centimeters to 20 cm in thickness (Fig. 8A), are parallel to the S_1 foliation, within marble near the contact with unit b. Pyrite is the dominant sulfide mineral, with subordinate pyrrhotite, chalcocopyrite, galena and sphalerite. Pyrite typically occurs as euhedral, subhedral, anhedral fine or coarse-grained porphyroblasts (Fig. 8B), ranging from 1 to 8 mm in size. Galena and sphalerite mainly occur as disseminations, cloddy, or intercalated with pyrite, pyrrhotite, silicalite, marble and schist. Quartz is the dominant gangue mineral, with subordinate carbonate. Fine-grained, reddish brown sphalerite form wispy bands parallel to the S_1 foliation, likely resulting from late tectonic deformation, and locally associated with subhedral pyrite and sporadically distributed chalcocopyrite and galena (Fig. 8C). Most pyrite layers are deformed.

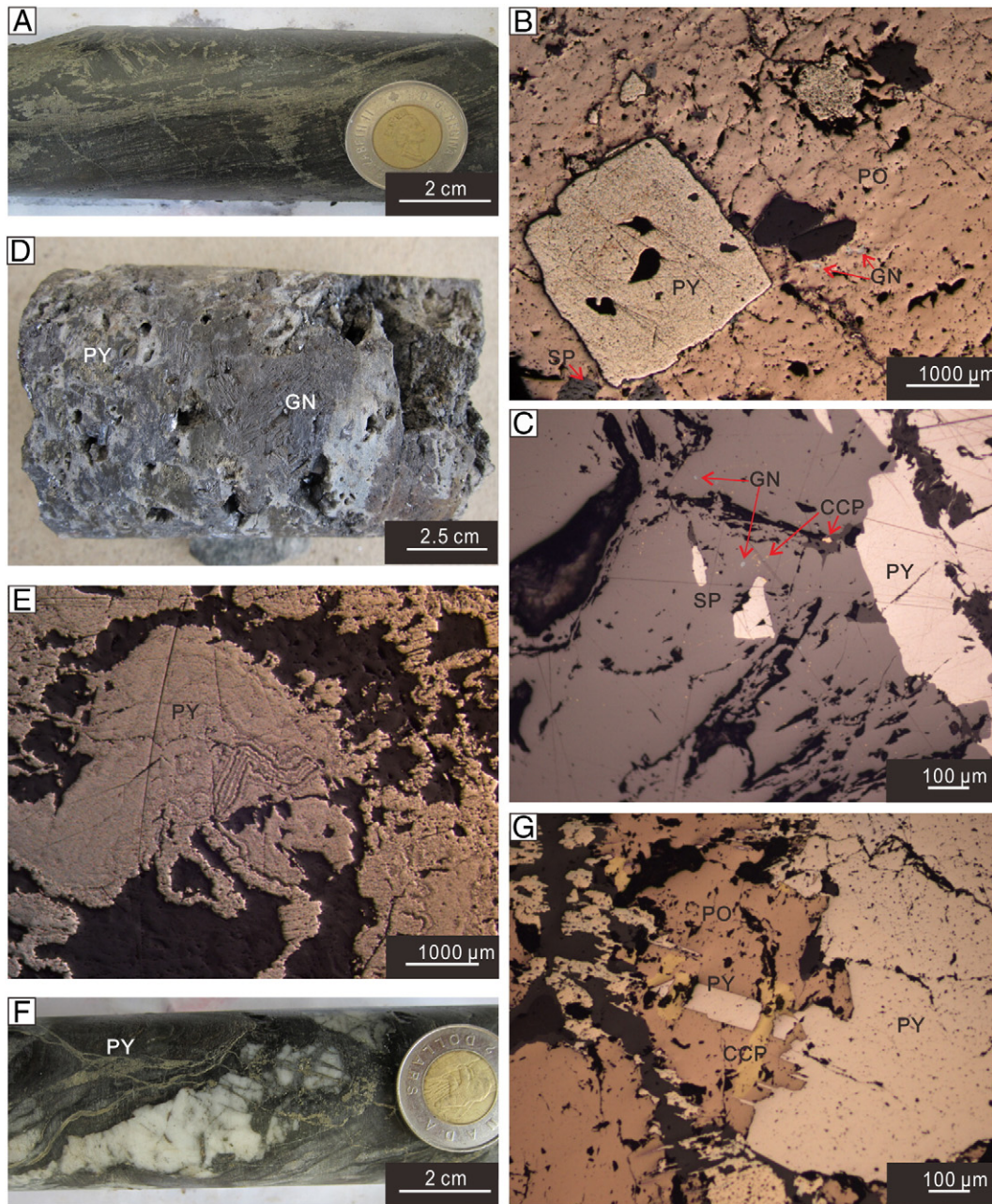


Fig. 8. A. Pyrite layers in drill core ZK041-11. Coin is 2.8 cm in diameter. B. Micrograph showing euheedral, coarse-grained pyrite in pyrrhotite in drill core ZK44003-18 (Nonpolarized, reflected light). C. The subhedral pyrite and sporadically distributed chalcopyrite and galena in sphalerite in drill core ZK44003-18. D. Massive sulfides with vesicular structure in drill core ZK81-12. E. Micrograph showing the typical structure of pyrite in drill core ZK44003-21 (Nonpolarized, reflected light). F. Stringer vein sulfides in drill core ZK041-11. Coin is 2.8 cm in diameter. G. Micrograph showing pyrite, pyrrhotite and chalcopyrite in drill core ZK44003-18 (Nonpolarized, reflected light). Abbreviations as follow: PY = pyrite, SP = sphalerite, CCP = chalcopyrite, PO = pyrrhotite, and GN = galena.

In unit a-2, bands of massive sulfides are intercalated with schist, over approximately 20–60 m in total thickness. Pyrrhotite is the dominant sulfide mineral, with lesser pyrite. Pyrite is fine-grained and loose in structure, probably representing product of recrystallization of colloform pyrites. It is locally replaced by sphalerite, forming the island-shape. In places pyrite forms cube-shaped porphyroblasts and aggregates of small phenocrysts, suggesting that massive sulfide deposit had been metamorphosed and hydrothermally altered. Galena and sphalerite display either irregular blebs or disseminations, together with subordinate pyrrhotite. This style of mineralization is commonly associated with the alteration minerals sericite and ankerite, which are best developed distal to the massive sulfide lenses.

5.2. Semi-massive and irregular nodular sulfides

Semi-massive and lenses of irregular nodular to framboidal sulfides in marble breccias constitute the main lens of the Xitieshan deposit currently. These orebodies range in size from several centimeters up to 10 m, and exhibit typically vesicular structure (Fig. 8D) which likely resulted from the late hydrothermal leaching. Pyrite, galena and sphalerite are the dominant sulfide minerals, with subordinate pyrrhotite, magnetite, marcasite, chalcopyrite, arsenopyrite and magnetite, and few electrum and stannite. Sphalerite occurs as coarse-grained euheedral porphyroblasts, which are not likely resulted from tectonic deformation. Pyrite is characterized by the embayment shape in the marble

(Fig. 8E), with $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values ranging from 3.8 to 5.4 per mil (Zhu et al., 2010). Calcite is the common gangue mineral, with the high estimated salinities (12–18 wt.% NaCl equiv.) in carbonate rocks (Wang et al., 2009). There is a clear boundary between irregular nodular ore and the host marble. The marble commonly has embayed boundaries and locally forms residual islands in the sulfide. Replacement pieces of marble occur as anhedral in the sulfide orebodies, forming the concave embayment. Metal zoning occur near the boundary marble, from galena in the inner part, through sphalerite in transition to outer pyrite. Pyrite generally displays earlier precipitation than sphalerite and galena under acidic condition (Large, 1992). Whereas an acidic fluid is neutralized by the dissolution of carbonate, lead and zinc will be precipitate before iron sulfides.

5.3. Stringer vein sulfides

The sulfide-stringer veins are always associated with small faults or fractures in the rocks of the lower Tanjianshan Group, with great thickness in the east increasing with depth. Multiple stringer veins occurred at the different places, and formed the coalesced hydrothermal vent sites under the massive sulfide deposit. Stringer-sulfide zones in unit b are predominantly comprised of pyrite, with subordinate galena, sphalerite, chalcopyrite and pyrrhotite (Fig. 8F). The pyrite phenocryst was interrupted and replaced by the younger chalcopyrite (Fig. 8G). An average $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ value of 0.8 per mil CDT in pyrite represents the deep source of the ore-fluid as well (Zhu et al., 2010). Quartz is the dominant gangue mineral. The host rocks are altered, including silicification and carbonate alteration inside stringer veins, chloritization and sericitization near the host rocks. Ore-bearing quartz veins are elongated along the direction of schistosity, and form boudins or boudinage structure. On the other hand, stringer vein sulfides in unit a-2 are nearly vertical, range in width from 5 to 80 mm. They either intersect the bedding at a high angle or are parallel to it. Silicification is the dominant hydrothermal alteration, with subordinate chlorite and sericite alteration, and relatively weak carbonate alteration. Galena and sphalerite are the dominant sulfide minerals, with subordinate pyrrhotite and pyrite. Pyrrhotite includes both hexagonal and monoclinic varieties that are typical of hydrothermal deposits. The early pyrrhotite and recrystallized pyrite were always replaced by galena and sphalerite when the vein cuts the strata.

6. Deformation in the Xitieshan deposit area

Two generations of deformation were identified: 1) early main ductile deformation, mainly forming the mylonitized schistosity (Fig. 9A), small and intermediate size fold (Fig. 9B and C) and mullion structure (Fig. 9D); 2) late minor brittle-ductile deformation, forming kink bands (Fig. 9E) or two conjugate fracture cleavages (Fig. 9F).

6.1. Main ductile deformation

The main ductile deformation event, responsible for the formation of the main fabrics developed in the Xitieshan area and elsewhere, is attributed to regional deformation which resulted in the formation of the Xitieshan ductile shear zone between the lower Tanjianshan Group and the Dakendaban Group, which was overprinted by the late brittle fault F1 (Figs. 1B and 3). It trends NWW and dips at high angle to NE.

In the Xitieshan mining area, the coarse-grained granitic gneiss at the bottom of the Dakendaban Group has become granitic mylonite, super-mylonite or mylonite schist (Figs. 9A, 10A). These mylonites are characterized by a well-developed, penetrative schistosity and a conversion of feldspars to muscovite and quartz, muscovite replacement of biotite, and biotite replacement of amphibole. In the Tanjianshan Group, greenschist facies rocks in units a and b are overall interpreted as mylonite which include felsic (Fig. 10B), calcic and amphibolic

mylonite (Feng et al., 1997). S-C fabric, the snapped (Fig. 10C), δ type and rotated phenocrysts (Fig. 10D and E), and shear lenses (Fig. 10F) are commonly present in these rocks. Different shear actions caused the imbalance of strain strength in the ductile shear zone, formed both strongly and weakly deformed regions (Fig. 11A and B), and exhibited the grid and/or podiform tectonic patterns (Fig. 11C and D). These different strain zones not only controlled the orebodies scales and forms, but also resulted in the change of the orebodies type (i.e. marble-hosted, schist-hosted, and transitional-hosted) (Fig. 11D, E and F). However, the formation age of this shear zone in the mining area is unknown so far. Both northwest and southeast-trending stretching lineations are commonly present in the schistosity plane, with a dominant northwest-trending (Figs. 1B and 12). The schistosity mostly parallels to the bedding in the Tanjianshan Group, trends north-west and dips steeply southwest or northeast (Fig. 12). The main schistosity intersects with bedding only at the hinge zone of a fold, and mostly coplanar with the bedding. Many small and intermediate size folds and mullion structures extensively occur in the main ductile deformation zone (Fig. 9B, C and D), and range from several centimeters to meters. These folds are generally confined to corridors as asymmetric or symmetric small tight folds, S- and sometimes Z-shaped folds, in which the axial plane is either coplanar to the cleavage or parallel to the schistosity.

Dynamic evidences for the ductile shear deformation, including the asymmetric folds, S-C fabric, rotated phenocrysts, mica fish structures, flattening and/or stretching of geologic markers, suggest that it is kinematically characterized by dextral compressional shear, and the Dakendaban Group obliquely thrust from northeast to southwest. This main deformation event controlled the general shape of the ore zones at the Xitieshan deposit, which exhibit a series of lenses.

6.2. Minor brittle-ductile deformation

The minor brittle-ductile deformation is characterized by kink bands and two groups of conjugate brittle or brittle ductile fractures (Fig. 9E and F), likely originated from the Early to Middle Devonian orogeny (Guo, 2000). One group trends southeast and plunges to the northeast, whereas other group trends northwest and steeply dips. The intersecting line between two groups of ductile shear foliation represents the nearly horizontal intermediate stress axes (σ_2), northeast-trending, about 45° , while the subhorizontal compress stress axes (σ_1) trend northwest. This shows that the minor deformation resulted from superimposed subhorizontal compression from northwest to southeast, although the amount of compression is limited. The minor structural deformation controlled the internal geometry of the ore bodies, as exemplified by the cleavage and the conjugate fractures, and resulted in the change of the continuity of individual orebodies inside (Wang et al., 2000).

7. Geochronology

7.1. Host assemblage ages

The Rhenium (Re) content in pyrite is too low (only up to ppb levels) to be directly used for the Re-Os dating (our unpublished data). In order to better constrain the formation age of the Xitieshan deposit, three samples from the lower Tanjianshan Group in the mine area were selected for U-Pb zircon geochronology. They are rhyolite porphyry (sample XTS16-1 from unit a-1) and clastic sedimentary rocks (sample DC09-1 from unit a-2 and sample DC13-1 from unit b). The locations of the samples are shown in Fig. 2. The analytical method for U-Pb geochronology is outlined in Appendix A. The results of isotopic measurements on zircon (all errors are given at the 1σ level) are listed in Table 1 and are shown in conventional U-Pb concordia plots in Fig. 13.

Sample XTS16-1 rhyolite porphyry (from unit a-1) contained colorless to brownish prismatic zircons with aspect ratio from 1 to 2 and oscillatory magmatic zoning. The ratios of Th/U range from 0.31 to 0.86

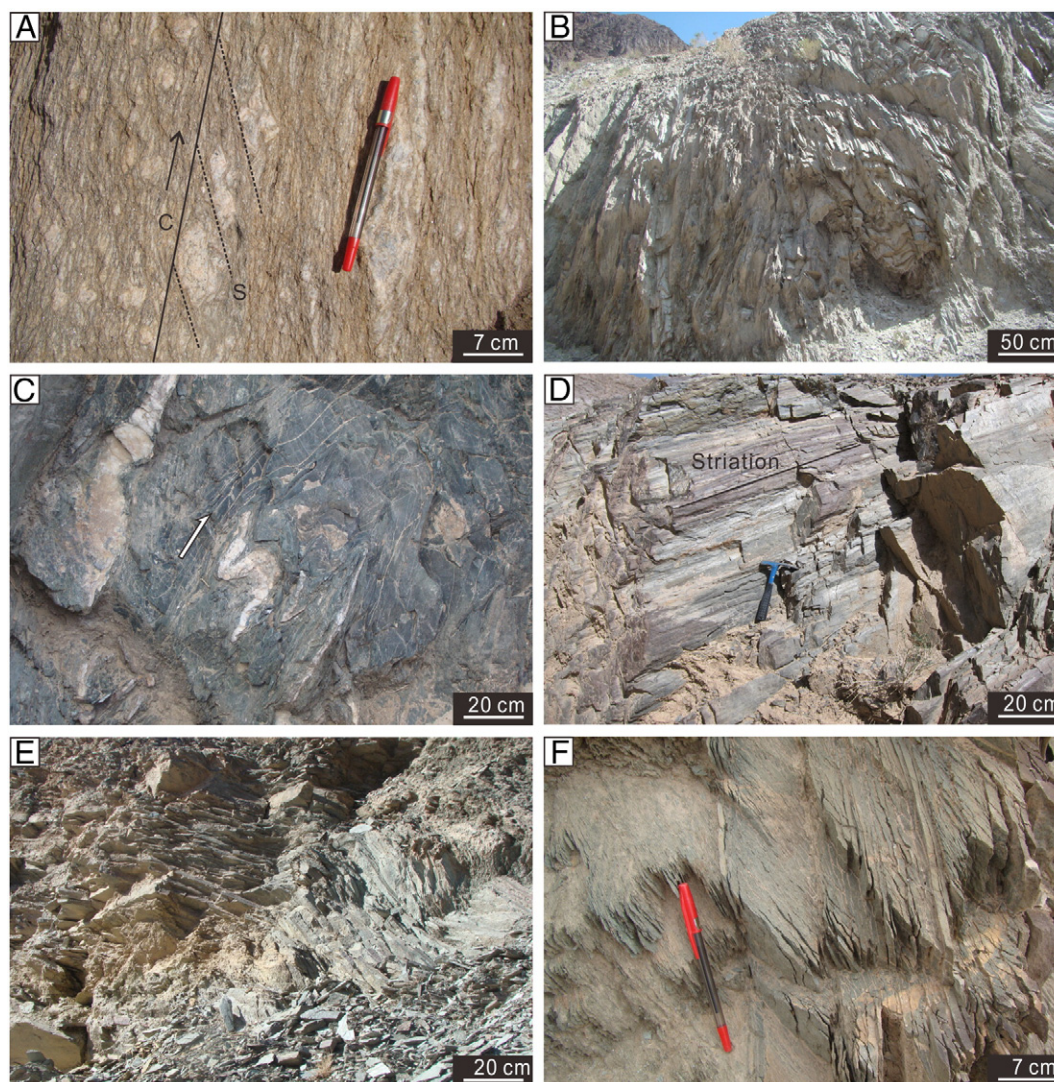


Fig. 9. A. An S-C fabric in granitic gneiss, indicates the dextral shear deformation in the Dakendaban Group. B. The medium-scale folds in unit d-1. C. S- type fold of the calcite vein, indicate the dextral shear deformation, unit d-3. D. Mullion structure and striation on the plane, indicate obliquely thrust extrusion, unit d-1. E. Kink-band structure of the chlorite schist, indicate the dextral shear deformation, unit d-3. F. Two conjugate fracture cleavages in unit d-3.

(Table 1), also characteristic of the magmatic zircon (Möller et al., 2003; Rubatto and Gebauer, 2000). Twenty-five analyses of small single euhedral grains were carried out, and all of them plot on the concordia (Fig. 13A). Their ages range from 450 ± 12 Ma to 456 ± 12 Ma and mutually overlap; the weighted average of these $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ ages is 454.1 ± 4.2 Ma (MSWD = 0.02) (Fig. 13B), which define an age of crystallization of rhyolite porphyry in unit a-1.

Sample DC09-1 clastic sedimentary rock (from unit a-2), contained many zircons, most of them colorless to brownish in color and generally prismatic in shape. The ratios of Th/U range from 0.08 to 0.95 (Table 1). Twenty-five selected grains were analyzed and gave concordant data with a wide range of $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ or $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{Pb}$ ages (from 452 ± 7 to 1759 ± 74 Ma) (Table 1) (Fig. 13C, D, E, F). With the exception of the five grains that are lower than the 95% confidence level, the major peak value is 917 Ma (Fig. 13D, F), which is the protolith age of granitic gneiss in the Dakendaban Group (Zhang et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2006), suggesting zircon inheritance. The presence of inherited zircons within the 917 Ma clastic sedimentary rocks that host the Xitieshan deposit strongly suggests that unit a was deposited on an older crust that included ca. 917 Ma components. Furthermore, one inherited Paleoproterozoic zircon (1759 Ma) (Table 1) also suggests the presence of even older basement to the area. The younger age group includes four

grains ranging from 452 ± 7 to 453 ± 8 Ma with a mean value of 452 ± 8 Ma (Fig. 13E). This younger age is interpreted to be the maximum age of deposition for unit a-2 volcanoclastic rocks and overlaps the ages for unit a-1.

Sample DC13-1 is a clastic sedimentary rock from unit b, collected in the Duancenggou area. The sample contained colorless to brownish automorphic and prismatic zircons. Thirty grains were analyzed; with the exception of three grains that are lower than the 95% confidence level, the ages range from 451 ± 8 to 3350 ± 14 Ma (Table 1) (Fig. 13G, H). The minimum peak value of the 451 ± 8 Ma was obtained from four grains (Fig. 13I), representing the maximum age for deposition of unit b. The age of other inherited zircons (i.e. 918 Ma) (Fig. 13J) within the clastic sedimentary rocks of unit b suggests their source is mainly from the nearby Dakendaban Group to the northeast.

7.2. Age of the ductile shear deformation

In the Xitieshan area, the main northwest-southeast trending ductile shear zone occurs at the contact between the Dakendaban Group in the basement and the Tanjianshan Group. In order to determine the formation age of the ductile shear zone, we dated muscovite from granitic mylonite in the Xitieshan dextral transpression ductile shear zone.

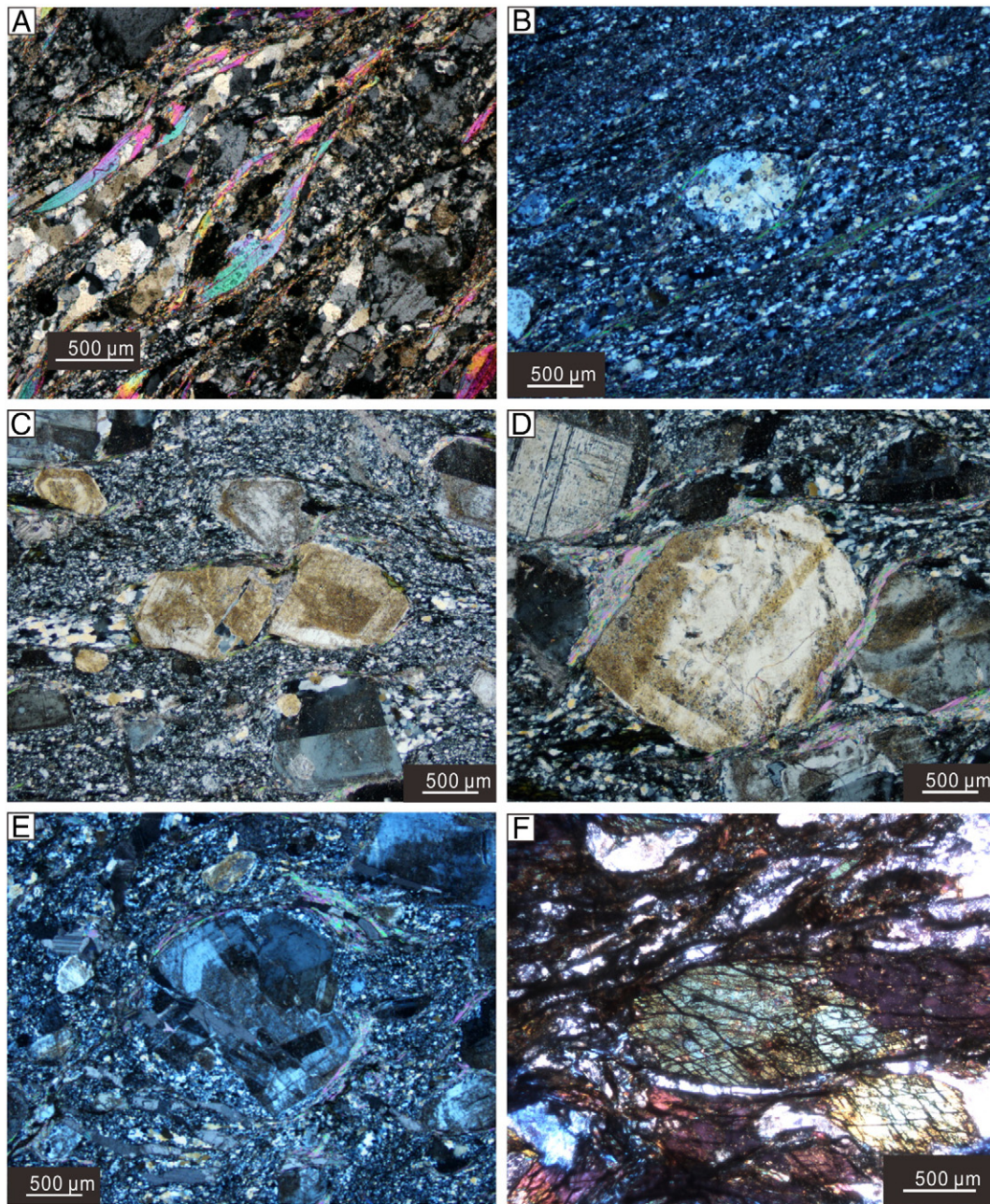


Fig. 10. A. Micrograph showing the kinked and lengthened mica of the mylonitization granitic gneiss in the Dakendaban Group (X-polarized light). B. Micrograph showing strong mylonitization felsic volcanic rocks in unit a-1 (X-polarized light). C. Micrograph showing the snapped feldspar porphyroblast of rhyolite porphyry in unit a-1 (X-polarized light). D. Micrograph showing the δ type feldspar phenocryst of rhyolite porphyry in unit a-1 (X-polarized light). E. Micrograph showing phenocryst rotation structure in unit a-2 (X-polarized light). F. Micrograph showing the lenticular amphibole phenocryst in unit a-1 (X-polarized light).

Sample 10XTS-02 was collected from the mylonitized granitic gneisses of the lower ductile shear zone at the bottom of Zhongjiangou in the Xitieshan area (Fig. 2). The analytical method for ^{40}Ar - ^{39}Ar dating is outlined in Appendix A.

The muscovite ages from the mylonitized granitic gneisses (sample 10XTS-02) range from 391 ± 2 Ma to 405 ± 2 Ma, obtained through 20 heating steps (Table 2), and yielded a very good plateau age of 398 ± 4 Ma (Fig. 14A). The inverse isochronal age is 399 ± 4 Ma (Fig. 14B), in good agreement with the plateau age. Given the mylonitized granitic gneisses in the ductile shear zone, the muscovite closure temperature is about 350 ± 50 °C, which explains muscovite growth under the relatively low temperatures (Xu et al., 2006). Therefore, the inverse isochronal age of 399 ± 4 Ma is considered to be the age of

mylonitization, which is also the formation age of the dextral ductile shear zone in the Xitieshan area.

8. Discussion

8.1. Timing of VMS mineralization in the Tanjianshan Group

Based on the stratigraphic, mineralogical, geochemical and structural context of the Xitieshan mine area, the Xitieshan deposit has been interpreted to have formed during a period of active felsic volcanism and sedimentation within a back-arc marine basin in Middle to Late Ordovician times along the continental margin (Sun et al., 2012). The presence of the island arc volcanic rocks, carbonaceous schist, carbonate and

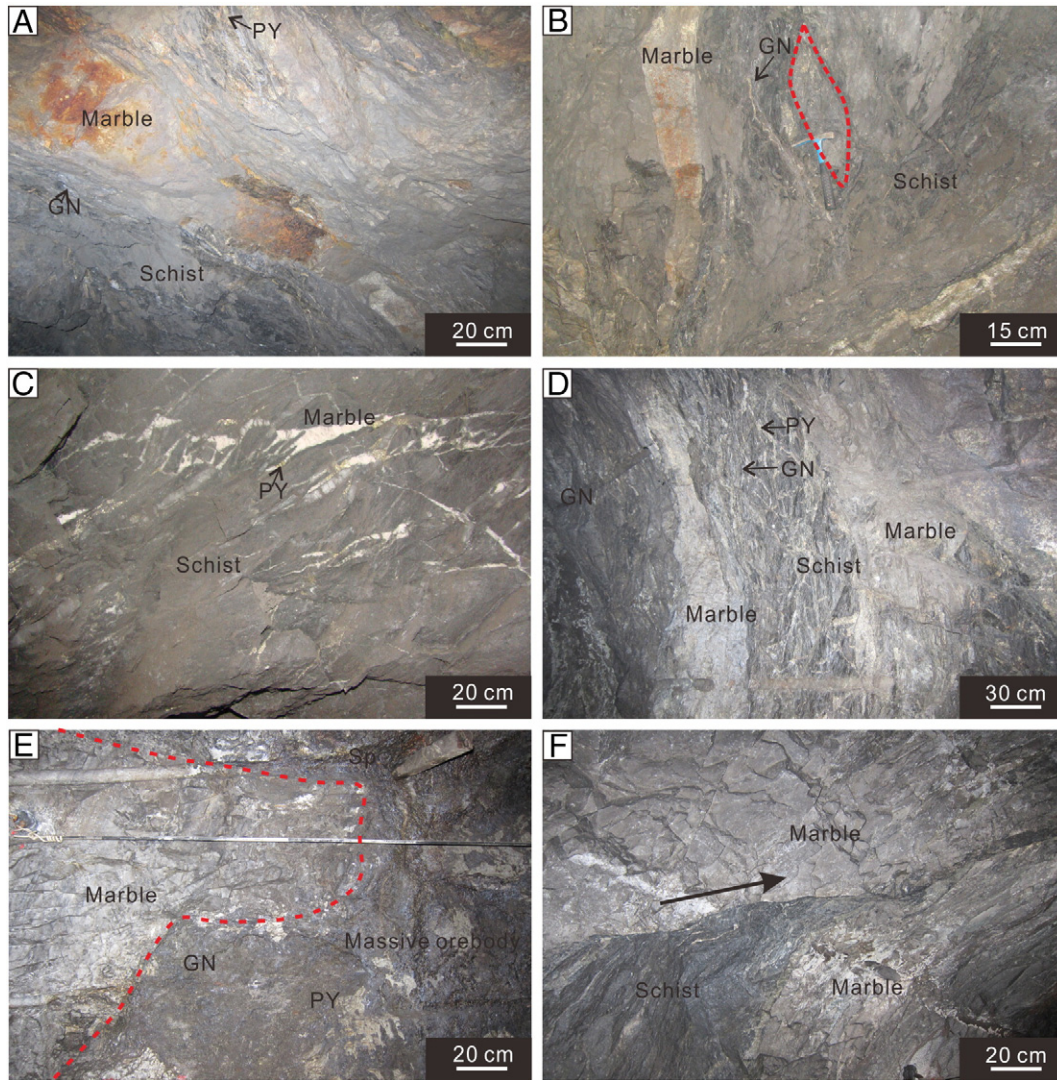


Fig. 11. The underground macrophotographs from the Xitieshan deposit. A. Marble has undergone strong shear deformation at the contact with carbonaceous schist, display a series of lens in different scales, boudinage structure, massive sulfides distribute both the ends of the lens. B. Marble occurs as the form of lens in the carbonaceous schist, the massive sulfides always fill the structure extensional space (the arrow). C. Marble stringer veins with the carbonaceous schist, obviously offset by the late shear deformation, two ends of the stringer veins are filled with the sulfides. D. Marble interlayer with the carbonaceous schist, strong developed foliated, the foliated space was filled the sulfides. E. Massive sulfides distribute in the end of the lens. F. Carbonaceous schist is sandwiched in marble, suffered ductile shear deformation. PY = pyrite, GN = galena, SP = sphalerite.

the VMS deposit suggests that this marine basin formed on the arcward-facing margin of the ensialic back-arc basin between the arc and continental margin.

The formation age of the Tanjianshan Group was debated for a long time. In ca. 1980, the coral (*Favistella* and *Paleadithostrotion* sp.) and brachiopod fossils were found firstly in the marble of the lower Tanjianshan Group (unit a) during the regional mapping, suggesting that the formation age of the Tanjianshan Group is Late Ordovician. Zhao et al. (2003) obtained the single zircon U-Pb age of 483 ± 13 Ma from the felsic volcanic rocks in unit a-1, and further interpreted that they formed in the continental-rift environment during the Early Ordovician. Li et al. (2007) speculated that the Tanjianshan Group formed from 496 to 440 Ma, in the entire Ordovician based on comprehensive analysis of the field geological features, paleontological association, isotope ages and volcanic sedimentary evolution. On the other hand, there are also three genetic types in the Xitieshan deposit: 1) hydrothermal metasomatism (Zhang et al., 1995); 2) volcanogenic massive sulfide deposit (Wu et al., 1987); and 3) SEDEX-type (Zhang et al., 2005). The Xitieshan massive sulfide deposits are hosted by the volcanic sedimentary rocks, in which hydrothermal fluids played an important role, and the Rhenium (Re) content in pyrite is very low, only up to ppb levels.

Therefore, both the magmatic zircons from the felsic rhyolite and detrital zircons from sedimentary rocks were analyzed firstly by using U-Pb LA-ICP-MS to help establish the temporal and stratigraphic relationship between volcanism of unit a-1 and sedimentation of unit a-2 and unit b at the early volcanic sedimentary cycle, and further constrain the mineralization of the Xitieshan deposit. Our new isotopic ages from units a and b of the Tanjianshan Group (454 to 451 Ma) are in good agreement with the fossil evidence, suggesting that there are at least two periods of mineralization during the early volcanic sedimentary cycle, and both are in the Late Ordovician.

The timing of felsic volcanism is defined by a concordia age of 454 ± 0.9 Ma (Fig. 13A), which is taken as the primary igneous age of the felsic VMS host rock that resulted from the ocean crust subduction, characterized by the island arc volcanic rocks (Sun et al., 2012). Both sedimentary host rocks of unit a-2 and unit b have maximum ages of ca. 452 Ma and 451 Ma, respectively. The results show that the immediate host rocks formed in Late Ordovician time.

Based on these age data and the assumption that the Xitieshan deposit is of syngenetic nature (VMS or SEDEX), it is proposed that bimodal volcanic rocks formed at ca. 454 Ma, in a back-arc extensional environment associated with plate subduction; the magmatism

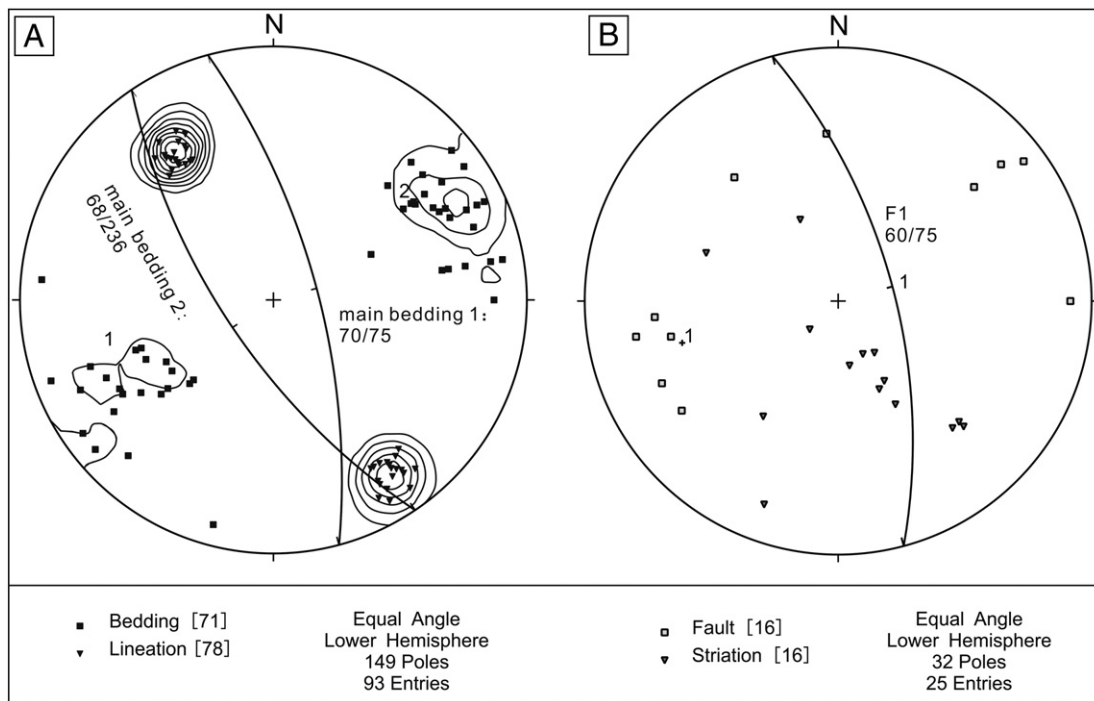


Fig. 12. A. Stereographic projection (Wulff lower hemisphere) of fabrics related to the early ductile deformation event and the bedding. B. Stereographic projection (Wulff lower hemisphere) of fabrics related to the brittle fault.

provided abundant heat and the ore-forming material for the formation of the Xitieshan deposit. From 454 to 452 Ma, felsic magmatism and sedimentation took place simultaneously and in alternation, and hydrothermal mineralization continued. In the local oxygen-deficient basin environment (e.g. abundant black carbonaceous schist), the carbonaceous schist and carbonate resulted from the sedimentation, and became the best host rocks for the Xitieshan mineralization. Subsequently, at about 451 Ma, volcanism weakened, whereas sedimentation continued and strengthened, and hydrothermal activities were manifested by the development of the iron-manganese carbonate horizon, as well as minor exhalative deposits in unit b.

Therefore, the formation ages of unit a-2 and unit b are the best estimate for the relative age of mineralization in the Xitieshan district, as VMS hydrothermal systems are commonly synchronous with the volcanism that produced their host rocks, or nearly so (Barrie and Hannington, 1999). The main mineralizing events followed the eruption and deposition of unit a-1 silicic magmas and are synchronous with sedimentation of unit a-2 and unit b at the onset of back-arc volcanism.

8.2. Relationship between the deposit and the ductile shear zone

The formation age of the Tanjianshan Group in North Qaidam ranges from 514 Ma to 440 Ma, overall belonging to the Late Cambrian–Ordovician (Li et al., 2007; Shi et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2003), and predominantly concentrating at ca. 450 Ma in the Xitieshan area from the above discussion. ^{40}Ar – ^{39}Ar age for muscovite from the mylonitized granitic gneisses in the ductile shear zone is ~399 Ma, which represents the formation age of the Xitieshan ductile shear zone, suggesting that metamorphism and deformation post-dated the Tanjianshan Group and is Early Devonian in age.

The major ore-bearing stratum at the bottom of the Tanjianshan Group (units a and b) in the Xitieshan mining area is close to the ductile shear zone (Fig. 2), and is characterized by strong shear-compression deformation, well-developed schistosity and medium-grade metamorphism. The massive sulfide deposit is hosted by the metasedimentary

rocks that mainly include the marble, schist and transitional zone between the marble and schist (Fig. 4), corresponding to three types of the deposits, marble-hosted, schist-hosted, and transitional-hosted, respectively (Zhang et al., 2005).

Based on the field observations (Fig. 11) and drill hole data (Fig. 4), the ore-bearing strata have been broken into the two parts during the later ductile shear deformation: one is the greenschist facies, incompetent rocks which experienced strong ductile deformation, and the another is the tectonic lens of marble, competent rocks which undergone relatively weak shear deformation (Figs. 4, 11) (Wang et al., 2000). Both ends of the structural lens of the marble experienced the strongest compressional deformation. Different deformation fields resulted in the different scales, shapes and types of orebodies (Figs. 4, 11). In the strong deformation zones, the deformation is characterized by the complete structural replacement function and high homogenization. Both the marble and orebodies were elongated due to the strong shearing action, became thinner, and basically parallel with the mylonite foliation (Fig. 11A). The orebodies have small thickness, discontinuous distribution, low grade, and its morphology is relatively consistent (Fig. 11B, C and D). However, within the weak deformation zones, the deformation is characterized by incomplete structural transposition, lesser homogenization, and primary controlling structures of the orebodies are well preserved (Fig. 11E, F). The massive sulfide ore bodies that are hosted in the marble of the weak deformation reveal large thickness, good continuity, high grade, and the forms of the orebodies are variable. Marble is characterized by variation in size, and formed a series of overlapping tectonic lenses. The Xitieshan deposit was modified during deformation, and predominantly hosted in the tension crack of the marble tectonic lenses and structural collapse transitional zone between the marble and greenschist (Fig. 4). In addition, the inclined column type distribution of the orebodies, the presence of the complex fold and the expansion of the massive orebodies that were thinned, abrupt and offset by the fault in the structural extension zone (Fig. 4), these appearances are caused by the late tectonic movement. Therefore, it is obvious that the Xitieshan deposit was controlled by the post-mineral deformation.

Table 1 (continued)

Sample	Pb ^T	²³² Th	²³⁸ U	Th/U	²⁰⁷ Pb/ ²⁰⁶ Pb	²⁰⁷ Pb/ ²³⁵ U	²⁰⁶ Pb/ ²³⁸ U	²⁰⁷ Pb/ ²⁰⁶ Pb	²⁰⁷ Pb/ ²³⁵ U	²⁰⁶ Pb/ ²³⁸ U	Concordance						
Date spot	(ppm)	(ppm)	(ppm)		Ratio	1σ	Ratio	1σ	Ratio	1σ	Age (Ma)	1σ	Age (Ma)	1σ	Age (Ma)	1σ	
DC13-119	221.4	316	378	0.83	0.18598	0.0048	12.41261	0.3569	0.47962	0.0084	2707.1	43.1	2636.1	27.0	2525.6	36.7	95%
DC13-123	134.0	152	258	0.59	0.17247	0.0054	11.71758	0.4038	0.48548	0.0098	2583.3	53.6	2582.1	32.3	2551.1	42.7	98%
DC13-103	257.2	328	503	0.65	0.17932	0.0053	12.48581	0.4196	0.49844	0.0092	2646.6	48.3	2641.7	31.6	2607.1	39.4	98%
DC13-114	103.3	147	128	1.14	0.27746	0.0024	23.63245	0.3290	0.61729	0.0078	3350.0	13.6	3253.4	13.6	3099.1	31.3	95%

8.3. Analogues to the Xitieshan district

The Xitieshan deposit exhibits many key geological and geochemical features, including 1) a combination of sedimentary and volcanic rocks indicating a back-arc environment along the passive continental margin during the Middle Ordovician; 2) carbonates and carbonaceous schist as major host rocks suggesting an anoxic shallow water environment; 3) typical bimodal volcanic rocks

underlying the massive sulfides deposit; 4) base metal-rich ore (Zn + Pb > 10%), with minor Ag and Au; 5) the presence of MORB-like volcanic rocks after the main metallogenic period (Sun et al., 2012); 6) the presence of the multilayer iron formations; 7) $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values ranging from 0.8 to 5.4 per mil, and high fluid salinities (12–18 wt.% NaCl equiv.) (Wang et al., 2009; Zhu et al., 2010); and 8) the presence of inherited zircons from the host rocks, suggesting that they formed on continental crust.

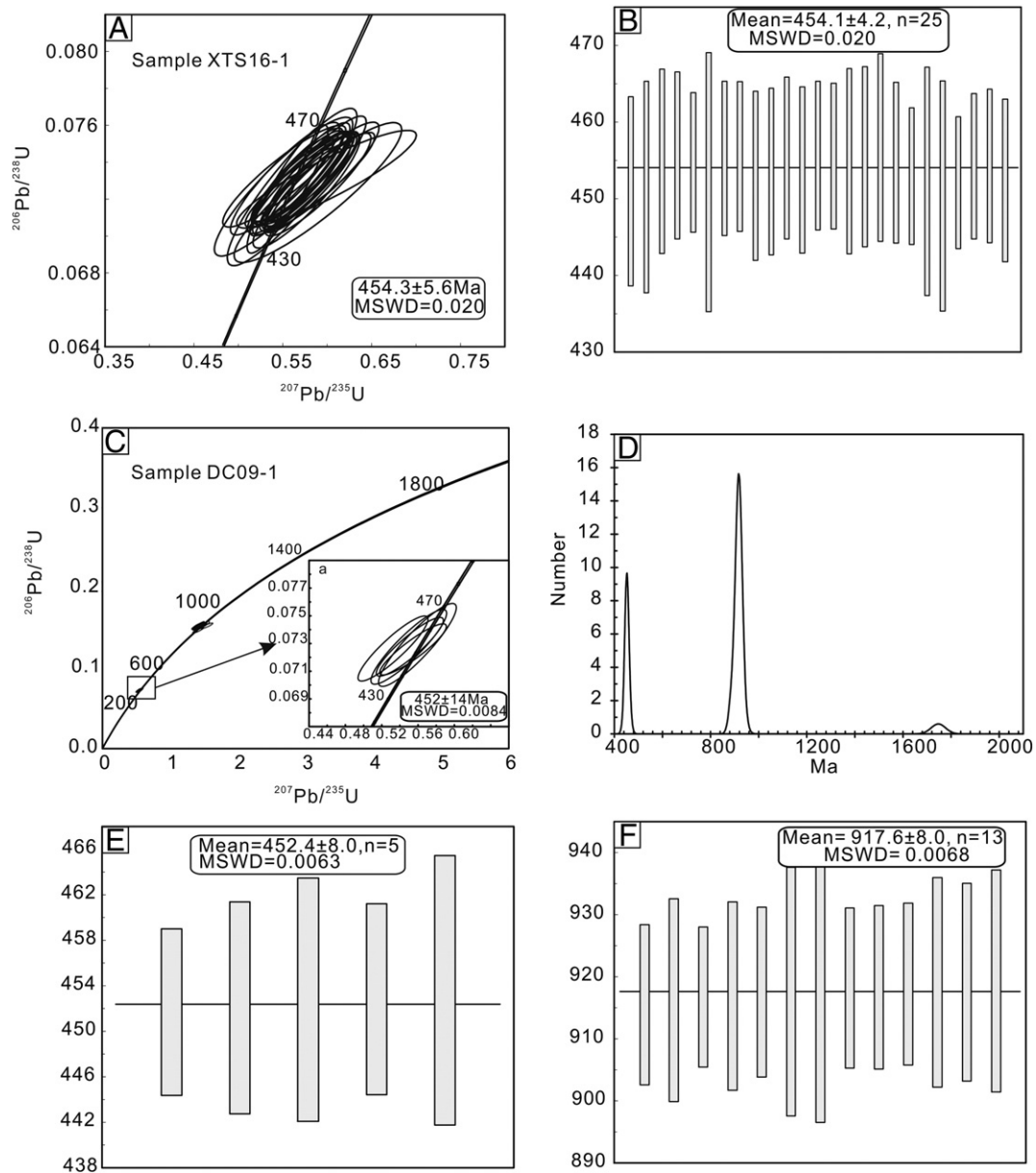


Fig. 13. A and B. U-Pb concordia diagram and weighted average plot for sample XTS16-1, respectively. C and D. U-Pb concordia diagram and probability density plot for sample DC09-1, respectively. E and F. Weighted average plots of the detrital zircons for sample DC09-1. G and H. U-Pb concordia diagram and probability density plot for sample DC13-1, respectively. I and J. weighted average plots of the detrital zircons for sample DC13-1.

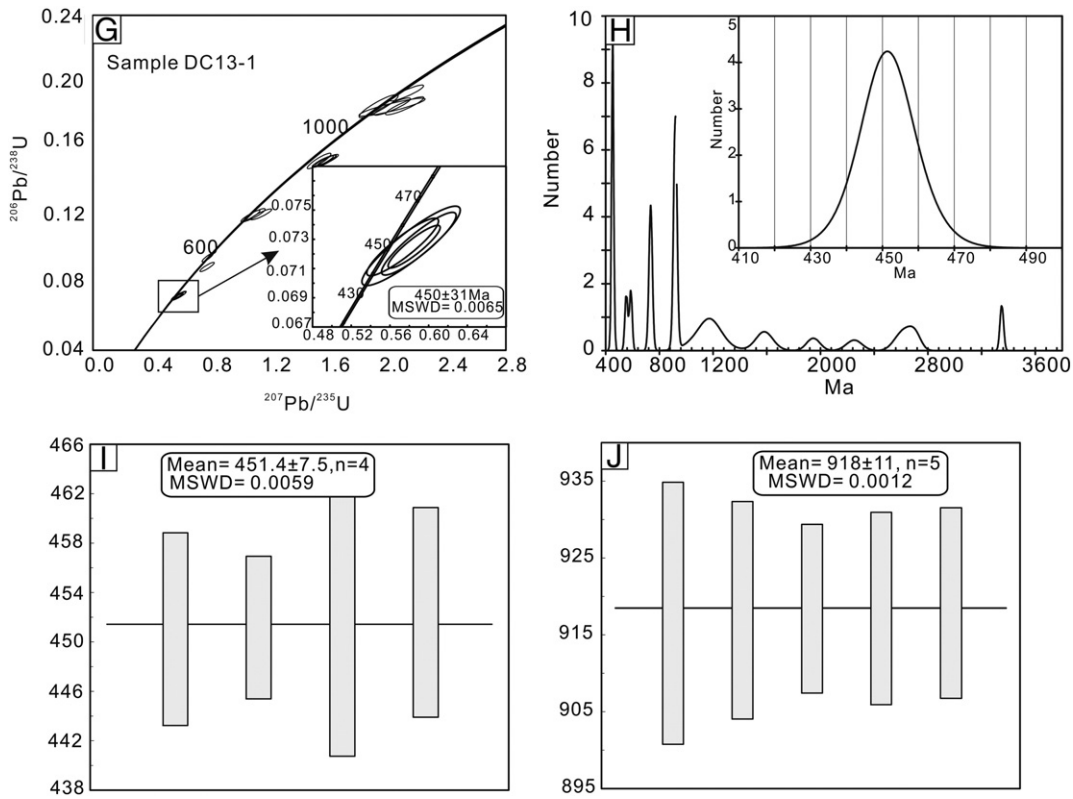


Fig. 13 (continued).

A better understanding of the genesis and setting of the Xitianshan deposits, is often aided by their comparison to similar ancient districts (Herzig and Hannington, 1995). The Xitianshan district has many features similar to the Bathurst district of Canada, the Iberian Pyrite Belt of Spain, and the Wolverine volcanogenic massive sulfide deposit in Canada (Fig. 15).

The Ordovician Bathurst Mining Camp (BMC) in Canada, especially the Brunswick 12 deposit, is the best ancient analogue to the Xitianshan district in terms of stratigraphy and geodynamic setting (Fig. 15). The BMC consists of Cambro-Ordovician clastic sedimentary sequence (Miramichi Group) that is characterized by continentally derived flysch facies on a passive continental margin, and Middle Ordovician bimodal

volcanic and metasedimentary rocks of the Tetagouche Group that formed during the initial stages of Ordovician rifting behind an ensialic arc (Goodfellow and Peter, 1996; Lentz, 1999; Lentz and McCutcheon, 2006; Mireku and Stanley, 2006; Peter and Goodfellow, 1996; Staal et al., 1991; van Staal et al., 1992). The Tetagouche Group is made up of two packages of felsic volcanic and sedimentary rocks, Nepisiguit Falls and Flat Landing Brook Formation from base to top, respectively (Staal et al., 1991; van Staal et al., 1992), and hosts the majority of the BMC massive sulfide deposits, including the super-giant Brunswick No. 12 and 6 deposits, the Mount Fronsac North deposit, the Camelback Zn-Pb-Cu deposit, the Au-rich Louvicourt deposit, the Flat Landing Brook Zn-Pb-Ag deposit (Goodfellow and Peter, 1996; Lentz, 1999;

Table 2
Dating analyzing results of $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$.

Steps	Laser energy (%)	$^{36}\text{Ar}(a)$	$^{37}\text{Ar}(ca)$	$^{38}\text{Ar}(cl)$	$^{39}\text{Ar}(k)$	$^{40}\text{Ar}(r)$	Age(Ma)	$\pm 2\sigma$	$^{40}\text{Ar}(r)$ (%)	$^{39}\text{Ar}(k)$ (%)
1	4.5%	0.000157	0.000001	0.000003	0.010540	0.220777	398	2	82.6	0.95
2	4.8%	0.000180	0.000001	0.000006	0.013343	0.273815	391	2	83.7	1.20
3	5.1%	0.000028	0.000004	0.000003	0.005332	0.113992	405	2	93.1	0.48
4	5.5%	0.000117	0.000001	0.000005	0.021896	0.452725	393	2	92.9	1.97
5	5.8%	0.000066	0.000006	0.000004	0.013769	0.288596	398	2	93.7	1.24
6	6.1%	0.000079	0.000003	0.000004	0.020457	0.426536	396	2	94.8	1.84
7	6.5%	0.000091	0.000006	0.000003	0.024739	0.511572	394	2	95.0	2.23
8	6.8%	0.000083	0.000006	0.000005	0.027442	0.569831	395	2	95.8	2.47
9	7.3%	0.000101	0.000005	0.000014	0.042632	0.884273	395	2	96.7	3.84
10	7.6%	0.000111	0.000005	0.000004	0.045158	0.945407	398	2	96.6	4.07
11	7.9%	0.000097	0.000004	0.000002	0.044558	0.932221	398	1	97.0	4.01
12	8.5%	0.000090	0.000009	0.000001	0.053292	1.116415	398	1	97.7	4.80
13	9.0%	0.000123	0.000001	0.000015	0.063557	1.333222	399	1	97.3	5.73
14	9.6%	0.000107	0.000020	0.000008	0.050478	1.057574	398	1	97.1	4.55
15	10.6%	0.000199	0.000012	0.000020	0.136184	2.854032	398	1	98.0	12.27
16	11.6%	0.000225	0.000012	0.000014	0.136182	2.854894	398	1	97.7	12.27
17	13.6%	0.000226	0.000012	0.000021	0.151486	3.177371	399	1	97.9	13.65
18	14.6%	0.000159	0.000033	0.000036	0.114802	2.413756	399	1	98.1	10.34
19	15.6%	0.000102	0.000008	0.000002	0.089138	1.875358	400	1	98.4	8.03
20	17.6%	0.000047	0.000013	0.000006	0.044851	0.945340	400	1	98.5	4.04

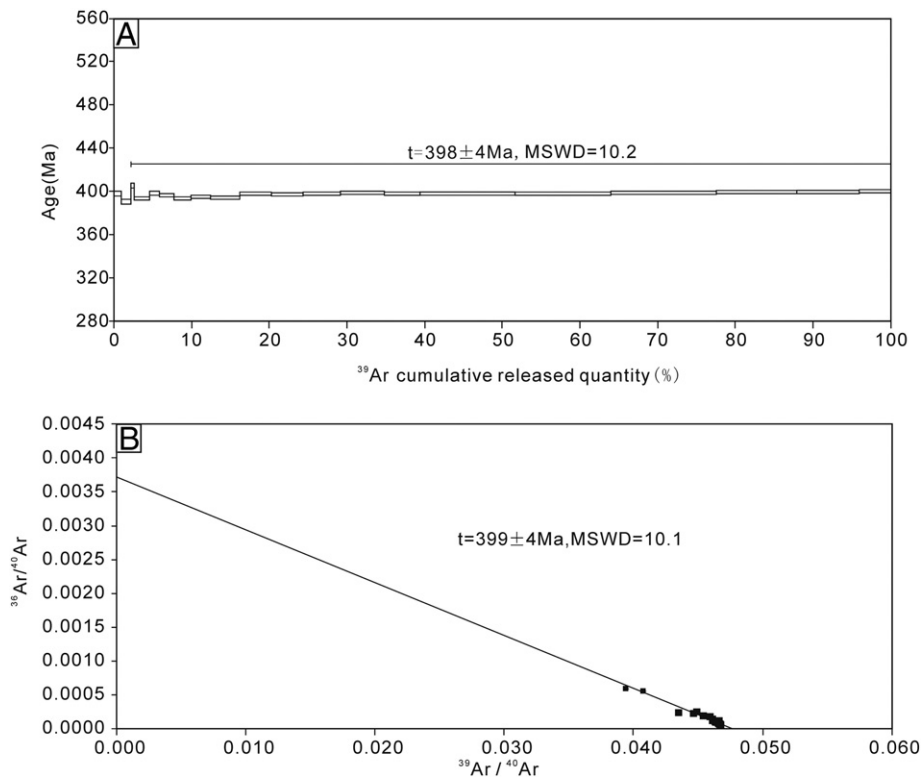


Fig. 14. Age spectrum (A) and isochron plot (B) of muscovite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ in the sample 10XTS-02.

McClenaghan et al., 2006; Walker and Carroll, 2006; Walker and Graves, 2006; Walker and Lentz, 2006). Based on the geochemical characteristics, felsic volcanic rocks from both Bathurst and Xitieshan have similar HFSE-REE systematics (Downey et al., 2006; MacLellan et al., 2006; Mireku and Stanley, 2006; Sun et al., 2012; Wills et al., 2006), and they are interpreted to have similar petrogenetic origins and to have formed in a similar tectonic setting.

The Wolverine area of Finlayson Lake district (Yukon, Canada) also exhibits some strong similarities to the Xitieshan area. First of all, both of them have similar host stratigraphic assemblages consisting of volcanic sedimentary rocks, the Wolverine Lake Group vs. the Tanjianshan Group (Fig. 15), which have been interpreted to represent a continental back-arc rift or back-arc basin assemblage (Bradshaw et al., 2008; Bradshaw et al., 2001; Piercy, 2010; Piercy, 2011; Piercy et al., 2002; Piercy et al., 2004; Piercy et al., 2001; Piercy et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2010). The Wolverine succession consists predominantly of felsic volcanic and carbonaceous sedimentary rocks, which host the Wolverine VHMS deposit (6.2 Mt @ 12.96% Zn, 1.53% Pb, 1.41% Cu, 359.1 g/t Ag, 1.81 g/t Au) (Bradshaw, 2003; Bradshaw et al., 2008; Murphy, 1997; Murphy et al., 2006; Piercy et al., 2001; Piercy et al., 2008). The Wolverine deposit occurs at the contact between footwall felsic volcanoclastic rocks and either hanging-wall carbonaceous argillite or exhalative rocks (Bradshaw, 2003). Other similarities between the Xitieshan deposit and the Wolverine deposit (Fig. 15) include the location of the felsic volcanic rocks and massive sulfides deposits, metal grades, the abundance of carbonaceous rocks and volcanoclastic rocks in the host stratigraphy, and the presence of iron formation. Geochemical features suggest that felsic volcanic rocks in the Wolverine Lake district were the products of high-temperature melting of continental crust due to slab roll back and generation of an intracontinental back-arc basin (Murphy et al., 2006; Piercy et al., 2003; Piercy et al., 2001; Piercy et al., 2008). A similar petrogenetic origin and geodynamic setting is proposed for the VMS-related felsic volcanic rocks of the Xitieshan district (Sun et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2010).

Another analogue of the Xitieshan district is the Iberian Pyrite Belt (IPB) of Spain. The IPB contains a lower sequence, the Phyllite-Quartzite (PQ) Group of meta-sedimentary rocks, which is disconformably overlain by the Volcanic Sedimentary Complex (VSC), which hosts the mineralization within the IPB (Fig. 15) (de Oliveira et al., 2011; Leistel et al., 1997; Mitjavila et al., 1997; Relvas et al., 2006a; Sáez et al., 1999; Soriano and Martí, 1999; Tornos, 2006; Tornos et al., 2008). The VSC includes a complex mafic-felsic volcanic sequence interbedded with mudstone and some chemical sedimentary rocks. The massive sulfide deposits are hosted by the felsic volcanic units and/or black schist. The thick layers of chert can either directly cap the massive sulfides or are separated from them by several meters of schist (Tornos, 2006). Key similarities between both mining areas are: 1) the presence of spatially associated and laterally extensive iron formation; 2) the presence of iron- and manganese-rich siliceous exhalites and carbonate-rich chemical sediments at several stratigraphic positions; 3) $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ compositions of sulfides (ranging from -5.5 to $+4.7$ per mil in Feitais massive sulfide deposit) (Inverno et al., 2008); 4) the mineralizing fluid from the mixing of a deep, reduced fluid of possible magmatic origin with unmodified seawater (Relvas et al., 2006b; Sánchez-España et al., 2000; Thiéblemont et al., 1997; Wang et al., 2009). Both carbonate-rich ores are interpreted to be biogenic mounds formed close to the hydrothermal vents, which show evidence of formation on an oxic sea floor and reflect the prominent low-temperature (ca. 200 °C) (Relvas et al., 2006b) hydrothermal activity.

Based on the above analogical comparisons, combined with five key characteristics of VSHMS-type deposits from the Wolverine deposit (Bradshaw et al., 2008) and other previous researches (Barrie and Hannington, 1999; Goodfellow and McCutcheon, 2003; Sáez et al., 1999), the Xitieshan deposit is very similar to VSHMS deposits in sediment back-arc continental rifting basins compared with the Bathurst Mining Camp, Finlayson Lake, and Iberian Pyrite Belt (Bradshaw et al., 2008; Goodfellow, 2002; Goodfellow and Lydon, 2007; Wills et al., 2006). It is therefore reasonable that the Xitieshan deposit should be ascribed to the VSHMS deposits.

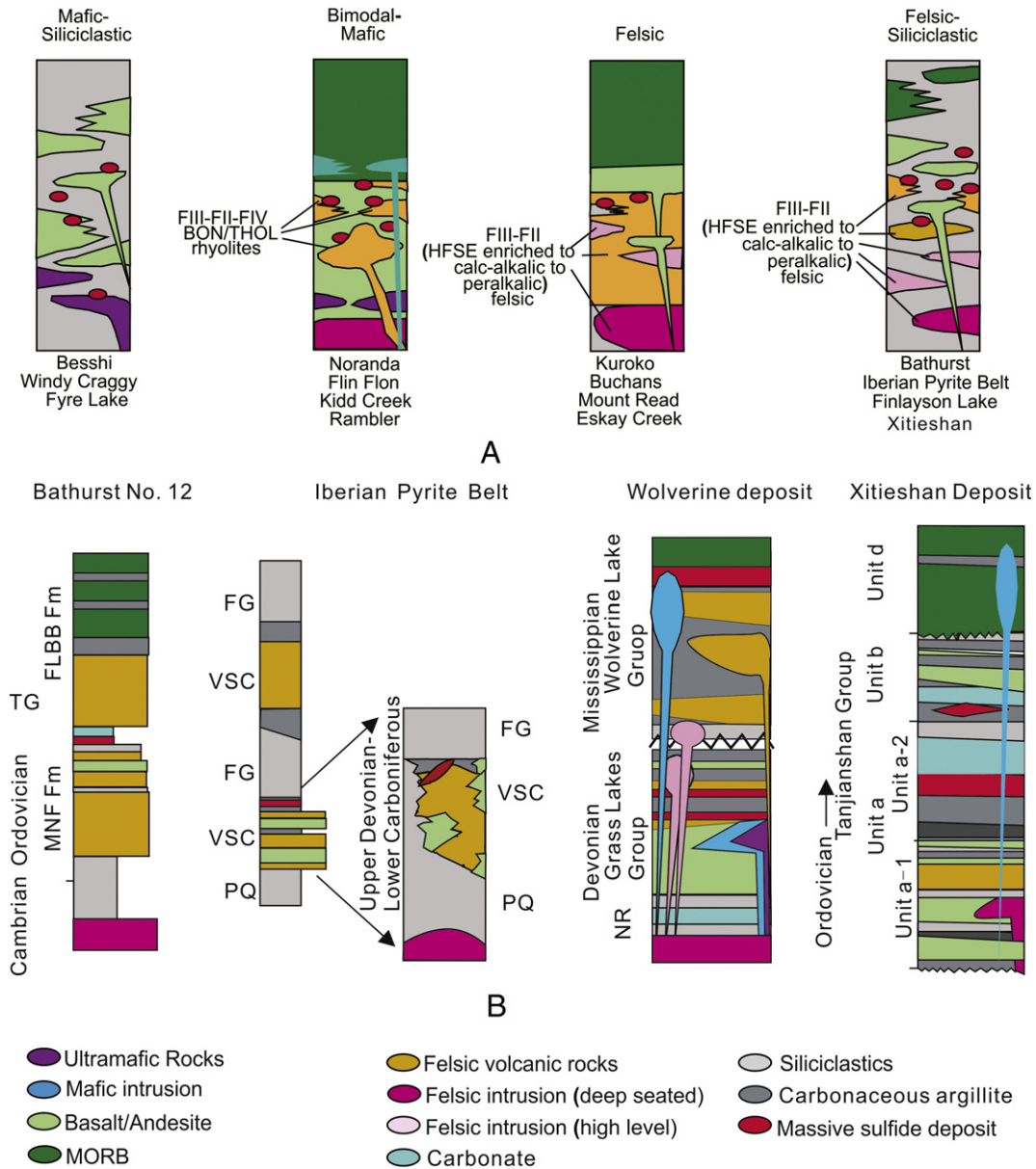


Fig. 15. A. Stratigraphic relationships and potential chemostratigraphic associations for four different VMS deposit groups. Map modified from [Piercey \(2011\)](#). B. Analogous stratigraphic sections of the Bathurst District ([Goodfellow and Peter, 1996](#)), Iberian Pyrite Belt ([Tornos, 2006](#)), Wolverine Lake ([Murphy et al., 2006](#)) and Xitieshan District illustrating the volcanoclastic and sedimentary lithofacies that characterizes these siliciclastic-felsic successions, from left to right, respectively. TG = Tetagouche Group, MNF Fm = Miramichi Nepisiguit Falls Formation, FLBB Fm = Flat Landing Boucher Brook Formation, PQ = Phyllite-Quartzite Group, VSC = Volcano Sedimentary Complex, FG = Flysch Group.

8.4. Relationship among the sedimentation, mineralization and volcanism

The presence of abundant carbonaceous schist in unit a-2 and unit b, as well as its minor amount in unit d-2, suggest periodic hiatuses in volcanism within a topographic depression. The topographic depression may represent a closed and reduced environment, and is in favor of bacterial reduction of seawater sulfate and the preservation of carbonaceous material which always play an important role in the fixing and absorption of the ore-forming material. Based on a rapid sedimentation rate of 13 cm per 1000 years ([Goodfellow and Turner, 1989](#)), the 100 m thickness of carbonaceous schist in unit a-2 should correspond to a minimum of 780,000 years (ignoring the late deformation) and represents the minimum duration of hydrothermal activity and associated felsic volcanism. This is also consistent with the age of unit b (ca. 451 Ma), and suggesting that the sedimentation of unit a-2 lasted for ca. 1 Ma, which is in agreement with the age of the mineralization at most ancient VMS

deposits that lasted normally 1–2 Ma ([Piercey et al., 2004](#)). The hiatus in volcanism is always consistent with the timing of massive sulfide formation ([Piercey et al., 2004](#)). The iron-manganese chert is also evidence for the continued hydrothermal activity between the volcanic eruption and sedimentation.

Part of the sulfur was likely originated from bacterial reduction of seawater sulfate in the Xitieshan deposit ([Zhu et al., 2010](#)), a dominant mechanism for the supply of sulfur in SEDEX deposits that formed under anoxic conditions ([Goodfellow, 1987](#); [Lyons et al., 2006](#); [Wang et al., 2009](#)). This is consistent with the paleoclimate during the Ordovician when the oceans were stratified with an anoxic and H₂S-rich water column, such as the Bathurst ([Goodfellow and Peter, 1996](#); [Lentz, 1999](#); [MacLellan et al., 2006](#); [Walker and Lentz, 2006](#)). The anoxic bottom waters environment was in favor of the ultra-large and large scale VMS deposits from the Archeozoic to the Phanerozoic ([Galley et al., 2007](#); [Goodfellow and Lydon, 2007](#); [Hannington et al., 2005](#); [Holland, 2005](#); [Large et al., 2005](#); [Leach et al., 2010](#)).

Temperatures of mineralization at the Xitianshan deposit are estimated to have been as high as 280 °C to 360 °C (Wang et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2008), slightly higher than that of the Wolverine deposit, ranging from 235 to 353 °C (Bradshaw et al., 2008), which decreased to ca. 200 °C at the initial stages of sulfide precipitation. The estimated salinities (12–18 wt.% NaCl equiv.) (Wang et al., 2009) of the hydrothermal fluids are nearly four times more than that of modern submarine hydrothermal systems or normal seawater (3.2 wt.% NaCl equiv.) (Nehlig, 1991; Rona, 1988); the higher salinities are in favor of formation of many VHMS deposits (Bradshaw et al., 2008; Lüders et al., 2001; Peter and Scott, 1988). $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values of sulfides (pyrite, galena and sphalerite)

from the Xitianshan deposit range from 0.8 to 5.4 per mil, display obviously the tower effect, suggesting that it was derived from mainly inorganic reduction of seawater sulfate and mixed with minor deep brine (Zhu et al., 2010). Traditionally, the ore forming fluids of the SEDEX deposits were derived from the seawater (Cathles, 1993; Goodfellow and Lydon, 2007). However, magmatic fluid partly contributed to the Xitianshan deposit, which evidenced from the high temperature, high salinity, intensive $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values and containing the CO_2 -fluid inclusion (Chen and Li, 2009; Chen et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2009; Zhu et al., 2010). Therefore, it is speculation that there was a deep magma chamber under the Xitianshan deposit (Fig. 16A, B). Magma upwelled along

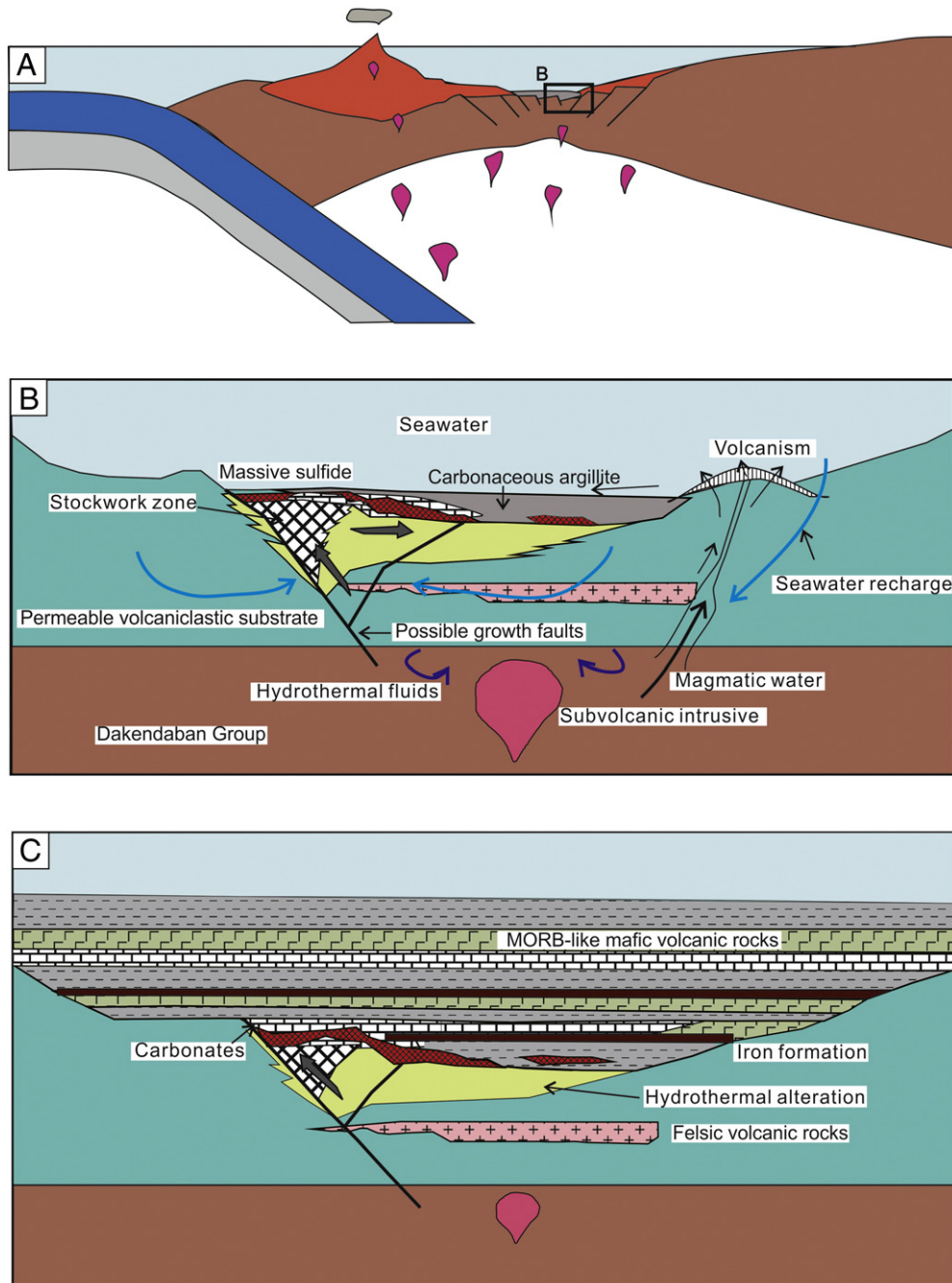


Fig. 16. Schematic block diagram illustrating the formation of the Xitianshan deposit. A. About 455 Ma, as the ocean crust continuing subduction, the subduction related island arc volcanic rocks (bimodal volcanic rocks in unit a) formed, and interpreted tectonic setting of the Xitianshan back-arc basin. B. About 452 Ma, accompanied with the initiate rifting of the back-arc basin, both the growth fault and volcanic dome controlled the secondary or third basin, the development of local topographic depressions where sulfides precipitated from hydrothermal fluids that vented onto or at the sea floor and replaced permeable volcanoclastic host rocks in the subsea floor, the hydrothermal fluids were originated from both the magma and mixture with the seawater. C. After the Xitianshan deposit forming, with increasing extension of the back-arc basin, the Xitianshan deposit was stratigraphically covered by the MORB-like in unit d. Map modified from Bradshaw et al. (2008), Wu et al. (1987) and Piercy et al. (2003).

the fault and formed bimodal volcanic rocks during the rifting stage of the back-arc basin. Subsequently, abundant marine sedimentary rocks formed during the volcanic hiatus, at the same time, owing to the thermal mechanism of the deep magma chamber and residual magmatic heat, mixture with the magmatic emanation and the magma fluid raised along deep faults with lots of volatile substance (i.e., CO₂) escaping and mixing with the cold seawater during the continued upwelling, resulting in quick deposition of the mineralization fluid and formation of the massive sulfide (Fig. 16). The exhalative pipe-like complex associated with the presence of sulfide stringer veins and hydrothermal breccias and adjacent hydrothermal alteration in fractured rock beneath the base of the Xitianshan zone (Fig. 16), represent the feeder zone that provides a channel for hydrothermal fluids that precipitated massive sulfides. At the same time, these fluids reacted with permeable host rocks below the sea floor and formed the footwall alteration zone. With increasing extension of the back-arc basin, the Xitianshan deposit was stratigraphically covered by the MORB-like volcanic rocks in unit d (Fig. 16C) (Sun et al., 2012). This evolution process is similar to that of the Wolverine deposit (Piercey et al., 2002).

The Xitianshan deposit formed within a Middle to Late Ordovician back-arc marine basin. Hydrothermal venting, nearly coeval felsic volcanism and sedimentation may have occurred within the topographic depression on the sea floor during the initial rifting stage of the back-arc basin (Fig. 16). The ideal model for the Xitianshan deposit as a combination of VMS and SEDEX types (VSHMS) is presented as Fig. 16. Its typical metallogenic characteristics are: 1) both the hydrothermal fluid at the late volcanism and infiltration of seawater provided the ore-forming material; 2) both the activities of the growth fault and volcanic dome together controlled the formation of the secondary basin; 3) heat related to volcanism provided the driving force of fluid flow leading to the formation of sulfide deposits; 4) strong deformation and metamorphism during the Early Devonian orogeny (ca. 399 Ma), which resulted in the remobilization and reworking of the massive sulfides.

9. Summary and conclusions

The Xitianshan deposit occurs in the North Qaidam district, within a geologically distinct package of metamorphosed Middle to Late Ordovician bimodal volcanic and sedimentary rocks of the Tanjianshan Group that formed within a back-arc marine basin between the Qaidam and Qilian blocks. With the exception of sandy conglomerate succession (unit c), two volcanic sedimentary cycles were identified: early and late cycle from bottom to top. The Xitianshan deposit formed at the beginning of the early volcanic sedimentary cycle. The host rocks to the deposit are composed of footwall felsic volcanic rocks, volcanoclastic rocks, carbonaceous schist and carbonates. The massive sulfides are in close contact with carbonate-bearing exhalite and iron-manganese chert iron formation. Although most abundant in unit a-2 to massive sulfide, carbonaceous schist occurs throughout the hanging wall including unit a-2 and unit b, additionally present minor amounts in unit d-2, marking periodic hiatuses in volcanism. At the same time, the presence of volcanoclastic rocks interbedded with the lamellar carbonaceous schist suggests that volcanism was almost synchronous with sedimentation. Volcanism in unit a-1 helped to focus hydrothermal upflow and contributed to efficient metal deposition. The massive carbonates provided enough space for the massive sulfide lenses, and the rapid sedimentation and burial of the carbonaceous mudstone likely contributed to the large size of the Xitianshan deposit.

The primary geologic structures at the Xitianshan mining area were partly destroyed by the strong post-mineral deformation events and precluded reconstruction of the primary setting of mineralization. The ductile shear zone at the Xitianshan deposit, formed at ca. 399 Ma, was the product of collision between the Qaidam and Qilian blocks during the Early Devonian orogeny and resulted in destruction and change in the form of the orebodies. The formation age of the Xitianshan deposit can be defined at ca. 452 Ma that corresponds to a particularly fertile

episode of VMS formation in the Tanjianshan Group and elsewhere in the world. Compared with other VSHMS deposits, such as the Bathurst district of Canada, the Iberian Pyrite Belt of Spain, the Wolverine volcanogenic massive sulfide deposit in Canada, there are many similarities in stratigraphy, geochemistry, and geodynamic setting and so on. Based on its tectonic setting, host-rock types, local geologic setting, metal grades, temperatures and salinities of mineralization fluid, and source of sulfur, the Xitianshan deposit is the intermedium between the SEDEX and VMS, and is classified as a VSHMS deposit in North Qaidam. In addition to the five attributes of this kind of deposits from the previous work (Bradshaw et al., 2008), the other key attributes are 1) formation stage during the periodic volcanic hiatuses, 2) association with the abundant carbonates in the host rocks, 3) mineralizing fluid originated from both the magmas and involved seawater, 4) multiple hydrothermal vent sites always coalesced together, 5) association with the FI type felsic volcanic rocks.

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Appendix A

A.1. Analytical methods

A.1.1. U-Pb geochronology

Each sample weighed approximately 5 kg. Samples were washed, then crushed in a jaw crusher and ground to a fine powder. The powder was panned using a Wilfley table to produce 100–200 ml of heavy mineral concentrate. The concentrate was passed through heavy liquids and a Frantz magnetic separator in a sequence of steps designed to separate minerals according to their density and magnetic susceptibility. The high quality zircons from the least magnetic high-density fractions (Romeo et al., 2006) were selected for analysis. Zircon grains were selected according to criteria of morphology and clarity using jeweler's tweezers under a microscope.

All the analyses were performed at the State Key Laboratory of Isotope Geochemistry located in the Guangzhou Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences. Using a combination of cathodoluminescence (CL) and optical microscopy, the clearest, least fractured rims of the zircon crystals were selected as suitable targets for laser ablation inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS) analysis. The methodology for LA-ICP-MS is described by Tu et al. (2011). Sample mounts were placed in the two-volume sample cell flushed with Ar and He. Laser ablation was operated at a constant energy 80 mJ and at 8 Hz, with a spot diameter of 31 μm. The ablated material was carried by the He gas to an Agilent 7500a ICP-MS. Element corrections were made for mass bias drift, which was evaluated by reference to standard glass NIST 610. Temora standard was used as the age standard (²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U = 416.8 Ma) (Black et al., 2003). Trace-element concentrations were obtained by normalizing count rates for each analyzed element to those for Si, and assuming SiO₂ to be stoichiometric in zircon (Tu et al., 2011). Age calculations were made using the method of

Liu et al. (2008). Errors associated with individual analyses were calculated using the numerical error propagation method of Ludwig (2003), and are quoted at the 95% confidence level. Decay constants used are those recommended by Steiger and Jäger (1977), and compositions for initial common Pb were taken from the model of Stacey and Kramers (1975).

A.1.2. ^{40}Ar - ^{39}Ar laser probe analyses

Muscovite ^{40}Ar - ^{39}Ar dating were undertaken at State Key Laboratory of Isotope Geochemistry, Guangzhou Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Guangzhou, China, by the laser phase heating on the GVI5400® mass spectrometer. Muscovites were separated from ca. 5 kg sample, using conventional crushing, grinding, Wilfley table, heavy liquids, Frantz magnetic separation, the selected pure (purity > 99%) by stereoscopic microscope selection and ultrasonic cleaning techniques.

The samples were irradiated at China Institute of Atomic Energy (China) for 48 h. The ZBH-2506 biotite standard in granite of the Fang Shan, Beijing, with an age of 132.5 Ma, was used to monitor the fast-neutron flux. The calculated J value is 0.0117877. Analyses were corrected for blanks measured either side of five consecutive samples analyses. ^{37}Ar decay and neutron-induced interference reactions using the correction factors: $(^{39}\text{Ar}/^{37}\text{Ar})_{\text{Ca}} = 8.984 \times 10^{-4}$, $(^{36}\text{Ar}/^{37}\text{Ar})_{\text{Ca}} = 2.673 \times 10^{-4}$, $(^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar})_{\text{K}} = 5.97 \times 10^{-3}$. The data and diagrams were processed by the software ArArCALC ver2.40 (Koppers, 2002).

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