

Mantle-derived noble gases in ore-forming fluids of the granite-related Yaogangxian tungsten deposit, Southeastern China

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Abstract More than 90% of the tungsten resources of China are in the Nanling region of South China, and the Yaogangxian vein deposit is the largest tungsten deposit in this region. The tungsten deposits have ages of 150–160 Ma, and are spatially, temporally and genetically related to granites which were previously believed to be produced by crustal anatexis. This paper provides He and Ar isotope data of fluid inclusions in pyrite and arsenopyrite from the Yaogangxian W veins. $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ ratios range from 0.41 to 3.03 Ra (where Ra is the $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ ratio of air = 1.39×10^{-6}), and $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ ratios from 328 to 1,191. Moreover, there are excellent correlations between He and Ar isotopic compositions. The results suggest that the ore-forming fluids are a mixture between a crustal fluid containing atmospheric Ar and crustal ^4He and a fluid containing mantle components. It is likely that the former is a low temperature meteoric fluid, and the later is a fluid exsolved from the W-associated granitic magma, which formed by crustal melting induced by intrusion of a mantle-derived magma.

Keywords He and Ar isotopes · Ore-forming fluids · Tungsten deposit, granite · Mantle fluids · Nanling · China

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Introduction

China is the world's largest producer of tungsten and also has the largest tungsten resources. More than 90% of the Chinese tungsten resources are in the Nanling region, South China (RGNTD 1985; Lu 1986), and the Yaogangxian deposit is the largest tungsten deposit of this region.

Previous studies have significantly advanced our understanding of the tungsten ore formation in the Nanling region. These deposits are usually of the quartz-wolframite vein type (e.g. RGNTD 1985; Lu 1986). They have ages of about 150–160 Ma (e.g. Mckee et al. 1987; Guo et al. 2007; Mao et al. 2007; Chen et al. 2008; Peng et al. 2006; Zhang et al. 2009), and are spatially and temporally related to granites, believed to be produced by crustal anatexis (Xu et al. 1984; Lu 1986; Wang et al. 1989; Hua et al. 2003, 2007, 2010; Chen et al. 2008; Wang 2008; Sun et al. 2009; Wang et al. 2009). The ore-forming fluids were considered to be mixtures of meteoric fluid with magmatic hydrothermal fluid derived from the W-associated granitic magma (Lu 1986; Zhang 1987; Chen 1992; Zhang et al. 1997). However, it has been poorly constrained whether or not mantle components were involved in the genesis of the deposits.

Involvement of mantle-derived fluids in ore deposits can be traced using noble gas isotopes (Simmons et al. 1987; Turner and Stuart 1992; Turner et al. 1993; Stuart et al. 1995; Burnard et al. 1999; Hu et al. 1998, 2004, 2009). It is well known that $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ can tell us the difference about atmospheric versus crust or mantle Ar, and that a factor of ~1,000–100 times difference between $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ ratios of upper mantle (6–9Ra,

where Ra is the atmospheric $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ ratio, 1.39×10^{-6}) and He produced in the crust ($\sim 0.05\text{--}0.01\text{Ra}$) allows He to provide an unique insight into processes where mantle volatiles have been added to crustal fluids (Stuart et al. 1994, 1995; Baptiste and Fouquet 1996; Hu et al. 1998, 2004, 2009; Burnard et al. 1999; Kendrick et al. 2001, 2002a, b, 2005, 2011; Burnard and Polya 2004; Li et al. 2007a, b, c; Wu et al. 2011). This paper presents He and Ar isotopic analyses of fluid inclusions in pyrite and arsenopyrite from the Yaogangxian tungsten deposit. We use this dataset to discuss the origin of ore-forming fluids, thus the formation of the deposit and related granite.

Geological background

South China is made up of the Yangtze Block in the northwest and the Cathaysian Block in the southeast (Fig. 1). To the north the late Paleozoic and early Mesozoic Qingling-Dabie orogenic belt lies between the Yangtze Block and the North China Block. To the west, the Yangtze Block is bounded by the Tibetan Plateau (Fig. 1).

The Yaogangxian tungsten deposit is located in the central Nanling region, northwestern part of the Cathaysian Block. The basement consists of weakly metamorphosed Precambrian folded strata, unconformably overlain by folded Paleozoic and Lower Mesozoic strata of shallow marine origin (Yan et al., 2003). Jurassic (early Yanshanian) granitic intrusions, consisting dominantly of biotite granites, two mica granites and muscovite granites, are widespread (Fig. 1). The intrusions have peraluminous composition and relatively high

initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of 0.710–0.735, and are commonly considered to be typical S-type granites (Xu et al. 1984; Lu 1986; Wang et al. 1989; Hua et al. 2003, 2007, 2010; Chen et al. 2008; Wang 2008; Sun et al. 2009; Wang et al. 2009). Numerous tungsten deposits, including Yaogangxian, Dajishan, Piaotang, Muziyuan, Xihuashan, Taoxikeng, were found in this region in the past decades. These deposits are usually of the quartz-wolframite vein type, and may also rich in Sn, Mo and Bi. They are spatially and temporally associated with the S-type granites.

In the Yaogangxian mining district, the stratigraphic sequence consists of Cambrian meta-sandstone and slate, unconformably overlain by Devonian and Carboniferous sandstone and limestone, and Jurassic sandstone. A two mica granitic pluton, with an exposed surface area of 1.2 km², intruded Cambrian and Devonian strata (Fig. 2). Rocks from the intrusion is felsic, with SiO₂ ranging from 74.0 to 78.0 wt%, Al₂O₃ from 11.5 to 14.1 wt%, K₂O+Na₂O from 6.6 to 9.1 wt% and K₂O/Na₂O > 1 (Sun et al. 2009). U-Pb dating of zircon, and Ar-Ar and K-Ar dating of mica from the Dajishan, Piaotang, Muziyuan, Xihuashan, Taoxikeng granites indicate that the tungsten mineralization-related granites in the central Nanling region emplaced at $\sim 155 \pm 5$ Ma (Mckee et al. 1987; Jiang et al. 2004; Mao et al. 2007; Guo et al. 2007; Xiao et al. 2009; Zhang et al. 2006, 2009; Hua et al. 2003, 2010).

The Yaogangxian deposit consists of more than 200 ore veins. These veins are usually striking NNW to NWW (Fig. 2). Most ore veins occur along the northern contact zone between the granite and the sedimentary strata, and crosscut both lithologies. Individual veins are up to 1,200 m long,

Fig. 1 Sketch map of main tungsten deposits in the central Nanling region, South China. Modified after Chen et al. (2008) and Peng et al. (2006)

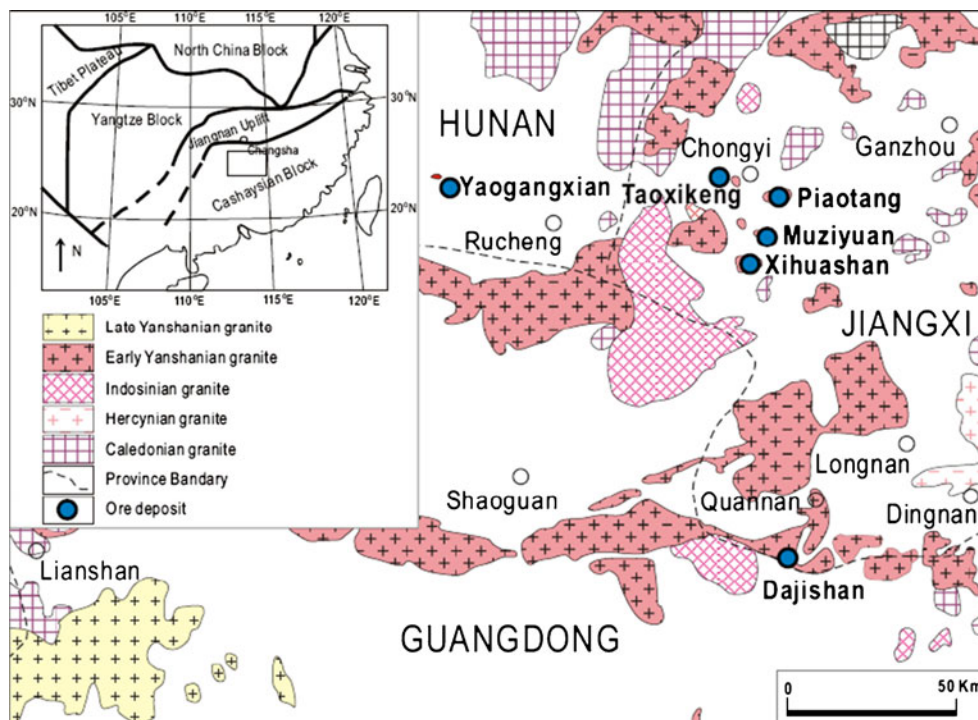
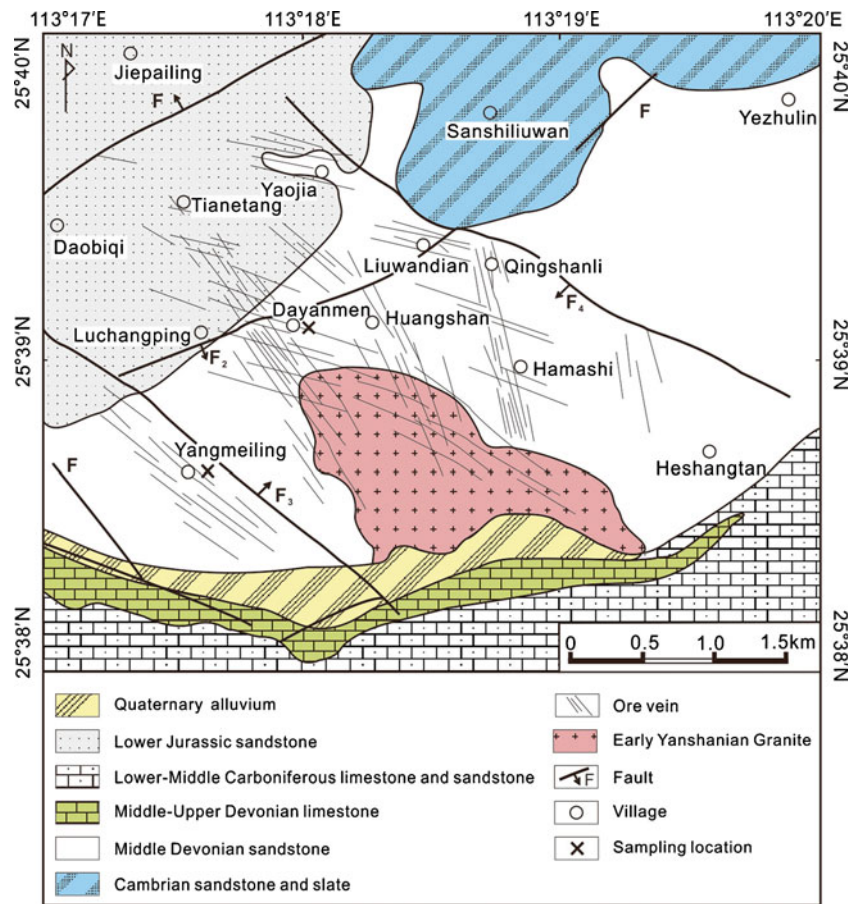


Fig. 2 Simplified geological map of the Yaogangxian tungsten deposit, South China (modified from Peng et al. 2006)



1.5 m wide, and typically extend for 100 to 1,000 m downdip (Chen 1981). Generally, the veins increase in thickness with depth, but the number of veins decreases. Ore minerals in these veins are mainly wolframite and molybdenite with minor arsenopyrite, cassiterite, chalcopyrite, pyrite, bourmonite and bismuthinite. Gangue minerals are predominately quartz with minor mica, feldspar, fluorite and calcite. Textures, crosscutting relationships, and mineral assemblages of the ores indicate that mineralization took place in four paragenetic stages which, from early to late, include a wolframite–molybdenite–quartz stage, a wolframite–cassiterite–quartz stage, a wolframite–sulfide–quartz stage, and a carbonate stage. The molybdenite Re-Os dating of the veins indicate that tungsten mineralization took place at 154.9 ± 2.6 Ma (Peng et al. 2006), which almost corresponds to the ages of tungsten-bearing granites in the central Nanling region. The homogenization temperatures and salinity of fluid inclusions in quartz from various veins range from 180 to 360°C and from 1 to 15 wt.% NaCl equivalent, respectively (Ni 1994; Wang et al. 2007; Cao et al. 2009). Stable isotope compositions (Lu 1986; Zhang 1987; Chen 1992; Zhang et al. 1997) are consistent with the ore-forming fluids being mixtures of meteoric fluid with magmatic hydrothermal fluid. The temperatures and salinity of the hydrothermal ore-forming fluids tend to decrease through the paragenetic sequence, while the proportions of meteoric fluid tend to

increase from early to later stages. Samples of arsenopyrite and pyrite from the wolframite–cassiterite–quartz stage and the wolframite–sulfide–quartz stage were analyzed for He and Ar abundances and isotopes.

Sampling and analytical methods

Samples were collected from underground workings. After the samples were crushed, mineral chips were hand-picked under a binocular microscope. Arsenopyrite separates of samples YGX57, YGX52 and YGX03 were selected from wolframite–cassiterite–quartz stage ores, and other analyzed sulfide separates were from wolframite–sulfide–quartz stage ores.

An all metal extraction line and mass spectrometer (GV 5400) at the Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Guiyang, was used. The analytical methods used here were similar to those described in Burnard et al. (1993) and Stuart et al. (1994, 1995). Approximately 500–1,000 mg of separated coarse (generally 0.5–1.5 mm, but the coarser the better) pyrite and arsenopyrite grains were cleaned ultrasonically in alcohol, dried, then loaded in on-line in vacuo crusher buckets. The samples were baked at ca. 150°C on-lined with the ultra-high vacuum system for >24 h prior to analysis in order to remove adhered atmospheric gases. Gases were

released from the grains into the all metal extraction system by sequential crushing in modified Nupro type valves. The released gases were exposed to a titanium sponge furnace at 800°C for 20 min to remove the bulk of active gases (e.g. H₂O and CO₂), and then exposed to two SAES Zr-Al getters (one at room temperature, the other at 450°C) for 10 min to further purify. He was separated from Ar using an activated charcoal cold finger at liquid N₂ temperature (−196°C) for 40–60 min to trap Ar. He and then Ar isotopes and abundances were analyzed on the GV 5400. Gas abundances were measured by peak-height comparison with known amounts of standard air from an air bottle. He and Ar abundances and isotopic ratios were calibrated against pipettes of 0.1 cm³ STP air (5.2×10^{−7} cm³ STP ⁴He and 9.3×10^{−4} cm³ STP ⁴⁰Ar). Procedural blanks were <2×10^{−10} cm³ STP ⁴He and (2–4)×10^{−10} cm³ STP ⁴⁰Ar, and constituted <1% of analyses. The blank is too low to affect calibration of the abundance measurement.

Results and discussion

He and Ar isotope analyses of fluid inclusions in pyrite and arsenopyrite from the deposit are listed in Table 1. One disadvantage of the crushing analytical technique is the difficulty to separate different generations of fluid inclusions in the sample, and the results represent some averaging of all fluid inclusions crushed (Burnard and Polyá 2004).

The concentrations of ⁴He are (0.1–14.5)×10^{−6} cm³ STPg^{−1} and those of ⁴⁰Ar are (0.6–22.0)×10^{−7} cm³ STPg^{−1}. The large variations of noble gas concentrations probably reflect variations in fluid inclusion abundance in minerals. Noble gas isotopic ratios are more consistent: ³He/⁴He ratios are 0.41–3.03 Ra (Ra represents the ³He/⁴He ratio of air, 1.39×10^{−6}), and ⁴⁰Ar/³⁶Ar ratios are 328–1,191.

Helium

Whether the measured He isotopes of fluid inclusions reflect the original fluid composition depends on the extent of modifications by post-entrapment processes which may include addition of cosmogenic ³He and in situ produced ⁴He, and He loss.

Cosmogenic ³He

Post-crystallization production of ³He within the mineral can occur by the interaction of cosmic rays with certain nuclei. This process is limited to the top 1.5 m of an exposed surface. Samples analyzed here were all collected from underground mine workings and cosmogenic ³He production in mineral lattice and fluid inclusions can be ignored (Simmons et al. 1987; Stuart et al. 1995; Burnard et al. 1999).

He loss

He loss from fluid inclusions is not likely to be significant because the samples analyzed are relatively young (~155 Ma) pyrite and arsenopyrite. Pyrite is known to be a suitable trap for noble gases (Stuart et al. 1994; Baptiste and Fouquet 1996; Burnard et al. 1999; Hu et al. 1998, 2004, 2009). It seems unlikely that arsenopyrite will be significantly different from pyrite (Burnard and Polyá 2004). In fact, arsenopyrite has not been significantly affected by He loss because it has not been systematically depleted in ⁴He/⁴⁰Ar relative to pyrite (Table 1).

Effects of in situ produced ⁴He

Compared to fusion, a major advantage in using sequential crushing of minerals to extract noble gases is to preferentially release inclusion-trapped noble gases as opposed to those contained within the mineral lattice (Stuart et al. 1994). The amount of radiogenic ⁴He released from a mineral lattice is dependent on the grain size of crushed minerals: the finer the minerals are crushed, the larger the surface area of the crushed grains and therefore the more radiogenic ⁴He will be released from the mineral lattice (Stuart et al. 1995). Constant ³He/⁴He ratios during the crushing process (Table 1) suggest that negligible radiogenic ⁴He was released from the mineral lattice and/or that He diffusion through pyrite is slow enough to prevent He loss during crushing.

Production of ⁴He within the fluid inclusions is also unlikely to be significant. The difference between the ³He/⁴He ratios after subtracting in situ produced ⁴He using U concentrations in the fluid is about the uncertainty of the measured value (<0.2 ppm U, 0 ppm Th, and a 155 Ma mineralization age were used to estimate the in situ ⁴He production; U concentration is that of hydrothermal fluids of the Xiangshan U deposit (Hu et al. 2009), actual concentration is likely to be considerably less).

Therefore, it is likely that the measured He isotopic compositions of the samples listed in Table 1 could basically represent the “initial” values of fluid inclusions or ore-forming fluids of the deposit.

Argon

Significant contributions of in situ produced ⁴⁰Ar from the mineral lattice to the measured ⁴⁰Ar/³⁶Ar ratios is thought unlikely due to the low diffusivity of Ar in pyrite and arsenopyrite (York et al. 1982; Smith et al. 2001; Burnard and Polyá 2004) and the low K content of the analyzed minerals. Although in situ radiogenic ⁴⁰Ar growth in fluid inclusions from dissolved K or K-bearing minerals cannot be ruled out, the amount of in situ radiogenic ⁴⁰Ar in fluid

Table 1 He and Ar isotopic compositions of inclusion-trapped fluid in pyrite and arsenopyrite from the Yaogangxian tungsten deposit

Sample	Mineral	Crushing number	Weight ^a (g)	⁴ He ^b (10 ⁻⁸ cm ³ STP)	⁴⁰ Ar ^b (10 ⁻⁸ cm ³ STP)	³ He/ ⁴ He (Ra)	⁴⁰ Ar/ ³⁶ Ar	³ He/ ³⁶ Ar (10 ⁻⁵)	⁴⁰ Ar*/ ⁴ He (10 ⁻³)	⁴ He (cm ³ STP g ⁻¹)	⁴⁰ Ar (cm ³ STP g ⁻¹)
ygx57	Arsenopyrite	1		2.39±0.09	2.19±0.07	3.03±0.18	350±33	1.6±0.2	142.4±30.5		
		2		9.19±0.33	6.79±0.22	2.22±0.12	332±21	1.4±0.1	81.0±24.5		
		3		1.95±0.07	- ^d	2.82±0.19					
	Total ^c		0.41	13.53±0.35		2.45±0.09				3.29E-07	
ygx52	Arsenopyrite	1		2.25±0.08	- ^d	2.58±0.18	600±48	6.4±0.5	136.1±10.1		
		2		7.00±0.25	1.88±0.06	2.04±0.11					
		3		2.71±0.10	- ^d	2.39±0.16					
	Total ^c		0.31	11.96±0.28		2.22±0.08				3.86E-07	
ygx03	Arsenopyrite	1	0.28	3.59±0.13	1.75±0.06	2.41±0.15	404±26	2.8±0.2	131.2±16.7	1.28E-07	6.24E-08
ygx43	Pyrite	1		84.40±3.02	16.98±0.56	1.21±0.06	568±28	4.8±0.2	96.5±7.5		
		2		79.20±2.82	16.82±0.55	1.46±0.08	595±30	5.7±0.3	106.8±8.0		
		3		18.40±0.66	2.57±0.09	1.45±0.08	1,191±79	17.3±1.2	105.0±5.9		
	Total ^c		0.29	182.00±4.18	36.37±0.79	1.34±0.05	603±20	5.7±0.2	101.8±4.9	6.28E-06	1.25E-06
ygx45	Pyrite	1		32.00±1.14	14.24±0.47	0.92±0.05	388±19	1.1±0.1	106.0±15.1		
		2		59.20±2.11	8.91±0.29	0.84±0.04	664±43	5.2±0.3	83.5±5.8		
		3		32.10±1.14	5.67±0.19	0.89±0.05	569±40	4.0±0.3	84.9±6.5		
	Total ^c		0.35	123.30±2.66	28.82±0.58	0.87±0.03	480±16	2.5±0.1	89.7±5.1	3.52E-06	8.23E-07
ygx48	Pyrite	1		34.40±1.23	21.20±0.70	1.42±0.07	361±17	1.2±0.1	111.5±20.7		
		2		68.20±2.43	15.40±0.51	1.53±0.08	594±30	5.6±0.3	113.5±8.5		
		3		10.30±0.37	2.38±0.08	1.60±0.09	658±46	6.4±0.5	127.2±8.8		
	Total ^c		0.23	112.90±2.74	38.97±0.87	1.51±0.05	441±15	2.7±0.1	114.1±8.2	4.91E-06	1.69E-06
ygx05	Pyrite	1	0.36	93.00±3.32	- ^d	0.41±0.02				2.58E-06	
ygx42	Pyrite	1	0.38	481.00±17.15	81.62±2.69	0.96±0.05	571±27	4.5±0.2	81.9±6.3	1.27E-05	2.15E-06
ygx66	Pyrite	1	0.35	509.22±18.13	47.61±1.57	0.84±0.05	569±27	7.1±0.4	44.9±3.5	1.45E-05	1.36E-06
ygx72	Pyrite	1	0.29	207.00±7.37	52.12±1.72	0.84±0.04	409±19	1.9±0.1	69.9±8.6	7.14E-06	1.80E-06
ygx86	Pyrite	1	0.19	145.00±5.16	41.87±1.38	0.80±0.04	416±20	1.6±0.1	83.8±10.0	7.63E-06	2.20E-06
ygx19	Arsenopyrite	1	0.43	47.30±1.68	6.28±0.21	1.25±0.06	433±25	5.7±0.3	42.1±4.6	1.10E-06	1.46E-07
ygx27	Arsenopyrite	1	0.32	69.60±2.48	8.73±0.29	0.58±0.03	454±25	2.9±0.2	43.8±4.4	2.18E-06	2.73E-07
ygx79	Arsenopyrite	1	0.34	21.60±0.77	7.17±0.24	1.31±0.07	361±19	2.0±0.1	60.2±11.1	6.35E-07	2.11E-07
ygx61	Arsenopyrite	1	0.26	25.10±0.89	15.05±0.50	1.11±0.06	328±16	0.8±0.04	59.1±19.8	9.65E-07	5.79E-07

^a Sample weights are the <100 μm fraction after crushing

^b Errors quoted are at the 1σ confidence level

^c Totals are the sums of all crushes

^d Not determined

* is non-atmospheric Ar

inclusions trapped in K-free minerals (such is the case in the present study) should be negligible (Turner and Wang 1992; Qiu 1996).

In general, the measured $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ ratios will be lower than the true $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ ratios of the fluids due to the contributions of atmospheric Ar (Burnard et al. 1999). Rigorous analytical procedures can minimize atmospheric Ar absorbed on the surfaces of the samples and the crushing apparatus, but cannot completely eliminate air-derived contaminants. As shown in Table 1, argon becomes increasingly radiogenic (higher $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$) as crushing (crush 1, crush 2 and crush 3 of a particular sample) proceeds, most likely due to decreasing contributions from a surface adsorbed atmospheric component as opposed to in situ decay of K to ^{40}Ar . Therefore, the variation of $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ ratios of a particular sample is more likely due to changes in proportions of atmospheric Ar that contaminates Ar derived from the fluids. In this instance, the only certain constraint on the true $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ ratios of the inclusion-trapped fluids is that it must be higher than the highest value measured here (Burnard and Polya 2004). However, the $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ variation of different samples may not be attributed entirely to air-contamination, and may reflect variable $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ of the fluids. In fact, this is likely considering the $^{40}\text{Ar}^*/^4\text{He}$ is also variable (Table 1 and Fig. 4), and there is a correlation between $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ and $^{40}\text{Ar}/^4\text{He}$ (not shown).

Sources of He and Ar

Noble gases in inclusion-trapped fluids have three potential sources, notably air-saturated water, mantle and radiogenic isotopes produced within the crust [Turner et al. 1993]. Helium in the atmosphere is too low to exert a significant influence on He abundances and isotopic compositions of most crustal fluids (Marty et al. 1989; Stuart et al. 1994). As a result, He in ore-forming fluids of the deposits could have only two possible sources: mantle-derived He and radiogenic He produced in the crust (Turner et al. 1993). This is consistent with the $^3\text{He}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ ($0.8\text{--}17.3 \times 10^{-3}$) ratios in our samples which are five orders of magnitude higher than those of the atmosphere or air-saturated water ($\sim 5 \times 10^{-8}$), indicating that He in the fluids that generated the Yaogangxian tungsten deposit was predominantly non-atmospheric in origin. The characteristic values of $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ produced in the crust are 0.01–0.05 Ra (Mamyryn and Tolstikhin 1984; Turner et al. 1993). As can be seen from Table 1, the $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ ratios (0.41–3.03 Ra) of the ore-forming fluids are much higher than those of the crust, but lower than those of the sub-continental mantle ($^3\text{He}/^4\text{He} \approx 6$ Ra; Dunai and Baur 1995; Gautheron and Moreira 2002), demonstrating that the ore fluids contain mantle- and crustal-derived He. However, origin of argon in the fluids could be air-saturated water and mantle from the correlations between helium and argon

isotopes (Figs. 3, 4). Therefore, the noble gases in the fluids are likely a mixture of three major end-member components, notably helium and argon from the mantle (here described as mantle fluid), argon in air-saturated water and radiogenic helium produced in the crust (here described together as crustal fluid).

Crustal fluid: argon in air-saturated water and radiogenic helium produced in the crust

Air-saturated water (ASW) (meteoric or marine) is characterized by atmospheric He and Ar isotope compositions of $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}=295.5$ and $^3\text{He}/^{36}\text{Ar}=5 \times 10^{-8}$ (Turner et al. 1993; Stuart et al. 1995; Burnard et al. 1999). The crustal fluid trapped in the fluid inclusions is probably best described as ‘modified air-saturated water, MASW’, i.e. air-saturated water with added crustal radiogenic components (much ^4He and little $^{40}\text{Ar}^*$). In general, $^3\text{He}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ ratios of the MASW fluids are unlikely to be changed, because both ^3He and ^{36}Ar are unradiogenic. Therefore, the trend in Fig. 3 can be extrapolated to the $^3\text{He}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ value of ASW (5×10^{-8}), in order to calculate the MASW $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}=302 \pm 18$ that is indistinguishable from air ($^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}=295.5$). The trend in Fig. 4 can also be extended to this modified air-saturated water. When $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ ratios are smaller than 0.05 Ra (typical of crustally produced He), a $^4\text{He}/^{40}\text{Ar}^*$ ($^{40}\text{Ar}^*$ is non-atmospheric Ar, i.e. $^{40}\text{Ar}^* = ^{40}\text{Ar} - [^{36}\text{Ar} \cdot 295.5]$) ratio of ca. 0.01–0.001 is obtained from the trend between $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ and $^{40}\text{Ar}^*/^4\text{He}$ ratios (Fig. 4), significantly lower than the estimates of the likely instantaneous $^{40}\text{Ar}^*/^4\text{He}$ production ratio of the crust (≈ 0.2 ; Torgersen et al. 1988; Ballentine and Burnard 2002), suggesting preferential acquirement of ^4He relative to ^{40}Ar from crustal rocks. Previous studies have demonstrated that contemporary groundwaters commonly have low $^{40}\text{Ar}^*/^4\text{He}$ ratios due to preferential acquirement of ^4He relative to ^{40}Ar from crustal rocks, because of the higher closure temperature of Ar relative to He (Torgersen et

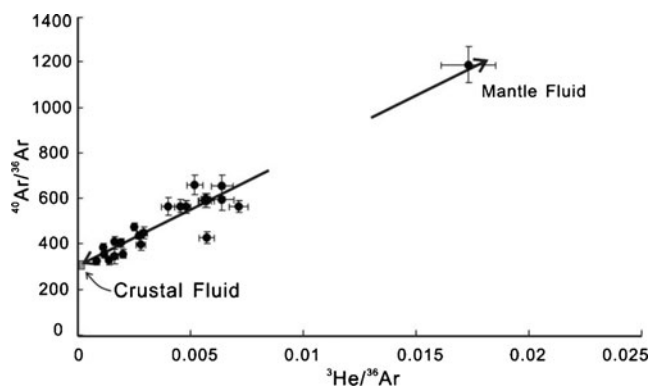


Fig. 3 $^3\text{He}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ vs. $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ plot of inclusion-trapped fluids from the Yaogangxian tungsten deposit. Least squares fitting of the data suggests that $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}=50,359(\pm 3,257)$ $^3\text{He}/^{36}\text{Ar}+302(\pm 18)$ with $R^2=0.91$

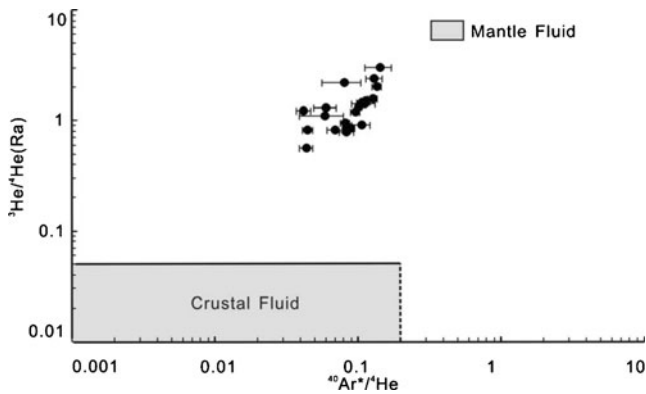


Fig. 4 $^{40}\text{Ar}^*/^4\text{He}$ vs. $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ (Ra) plot of inclusion-trapped fluids from the Yaogangxian tungsten deposit

al. 1988; Ballentine and Burnard 2002). For the majority of minerals, the closure temperature of He is usually less than 200°C, whereas Ar is quantitatively retained in most minerals at 250°C (Lippolt and Weigel 1988; McDougall and Harrison 1988; Elliot et al. 1993). The MASW trapped in these samples preferentially acquired a large amount of He, but almost no Ar from crustal rocks, implying that the fluid interacted with crustal rocks in shallow aquifers for a long time, but at relatively low temperature (<200°C).

Mantle fluid

Mantle-derived fluids are rich in ^3He and poor in ^{36}Ar (Turner et al. 1993). Consequently, the plausible source of the end-member with high $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$, high $^3\text{He}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ and high $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ ratios (Figs. 3, 4) is derived from the mantle. Extrapolating the trend in Fig. 4 to a likely mantle $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ ratio of 6 Ra or so (the $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ value of sub-continental mantle: Dunai and Baur 1995; Gautheron and Moreira 2002) implies a $^{40}\text{Ar}^*/^4\text{He}$ ratio of 0.3–0.5. This value is generally consistent with $^{40}\text{Ar}^*/^4\text{He}$ ratios of the sub-continent mantle (0.33–0.56; Burnard et al. 1998).

Production of ^3He in the crust is mainly controlled by the reaction $^6\text{Li}(n,\alpha)\rightarrow^3\text{H}(\beta)\rightarrow^3\text{He}$ (Mamyryn and Tolstikhin 1984; Morrison and Pine 1955). However, if in situ ^3He production was responsible for the high $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ ratios measured in these samples, it would be extremely difficult to account for the excellent correlation between $^3\text{He}/^{36}\text{Ar}$ and $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$, or between $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ and $^{40}\text{Ar}^*/^4\text{He}$ (Figs. 3 and 4) seen in these samples (see Hu et al. 2009 for more details). Therefore, we conclude that the high $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ ratios in the Yaogangxian tungsten deposit have resulted from a mantle component input.

Mixing mechanism

It is clear that the ore-forming fluids for the Yaogangxian tungsten deposit are a mixture between a crustal fluid (MASW,

i.e. atmospheric Ar and crustal ^4He) and a fluid containing a mantle component. The mantle end-member in ore fluids could be unrelated to the granite and directly derived from mantle as suggested at Panasqueira (Burnard and Polya 2004). In Yaogangxian, However, the deposit is spatially and temporally associated with granite intrusion, and stable isotope studies are consistent with the ore-forming fluids being mixtures of meteoric fluid with magmatic hydrothermal fluid (Lu 1986; Zhang 1987; Chen 1992; Zhang et al. 1997). Therefore, the mantle end-member in the fluids is most probably exsolved directly from the granitic magma.

The base of stable continental crust is not hot enough to initiate melting. Changes of the thermal regime of normal continental crust may be achieved by two mechanisms (Stuart et al. 1995). Tectonic thickening in collision zones, accomplished by the stacking of thrust sheets and conductive heating from below, may initiate melting of crustal rocks (England and Thompson 1984). Alternatively, a mantle-derived magma intruded the crust causing melting of the crust (Huppert and Sparks 1988). In the first case, helium isotopes of magmatic fluids would be the bulk of the melting crust and will be dominated by crustal radiogenic He. In the latter case, the resulting magma crystallized exsolving a mixture of crustal and mantle helium (Stuart et al. 1995).

As stated above, magmatic fluids differentiated from parental magmas that generated associated granites may have taken part in the formation of the Yaogangxian tungsten deposit. In combination with the geological relationship and the wide range of $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ ratios (Table 1), we favor that the mantle helium signatures were probably modified by two processes for the present study. On one hand, the mantle helium from mantle-derived magma which cause melting of the crust was diluted by incorporating radiogenic helium within the parental magma of the associated granite pluton before helium was released into hydrothermal system, a process that could have involved crustal assimilation and magma ageing (Simmons et al. 1987; Stuart et al. 1995; Hu et al. 1998, 2004). On the other hand, the diluted helium in magma fluid emanating from the parental magma, which represents a modified mantle end-member with a $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ ratio of ca. 3Ra, the maximum value measured in this study, much less than the typical sub-continental mantle value of ~6 Ra, was diluted once again by radiogenic helium from the crustal fluid (MASW) after the magmatic helium was released into the hydrothermal system.

Early Yanshanian (Jurassic) granitoids, including tungsten mineralization related granites, are widespread in the Nanling region of South China. These granitoids consist mainly of biotite granite, two mica granite and muscovite granite. In most previous studies, they were classified as S-type granites which were interpreted to be derived from the regional Paleoproterozoic meta-sedimentary rocks (e.g. Xu et al. 1984; Lu 1986;

Wang et al. 1989; Hua et al. 2003, 2007, 2010; Chen et al. 2008; Wang 2008; Sun et al. 2009; Wang et al. 2009). Recently, Li et al. (2007a, b, 2009) carried out systematic analysis of in situ zircon Hf-O isotopes, and re-analyzed the geochemical characteristics of a number of representative early Yanshanian Nanling granitoids dated at ca. 155 Ma. The results show that these granitoids are inconsistent with, but transitional between, the typical S- and I-type granites derived respectively from the supercrustal sedimentary rocks and the infracrustal igneous rocks, i.e. products of reworking of meta-sedimentary materials by mantle-derived magmas and mixing between the mantle and supercrustal melts. The helium isotopes of the Yaogangxian deposit provide new lights on the involvement of mantle-derived materials in the genesis of the tungsten deposit related granite.

Conclusions

The ore-forming fluids of the Yaogangxian tungsten deposit were a mixture between a crustal fluid containing atmospheric Ar and crustal ^4He and a fluid containing mantle components. The former was a low temperature meteoric fluid which interacted with crustal rocks, and the latter is a fluid exsolved from the W-bearing granitic magma.

The existence of mantle noble gases in fluids, exsolved from the W-bearing granitic magma, provides new insights about the origin of the tungsten deposits and associated granites. The hosting granites were previously considered as S-type, but actually formed by crustal melting induced by intrusion of a mantle-derived magma.

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