

Re–Os molybdenite ages and zircon Hf isotopes of the Gangjiang porphyry Cu–Mo deposit in the Tibetan Orogen

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Abstract The Miocene porphyry Cu–(Mo) deposits in the Gangdese orogenic belt in southern Tibet were formed in a post-subduction collisional setting. They are closely related to the Miocene adakite-like porphyries which were probably derived from a thickened basaltic lower crust. Furthermore, mantle components have been considered to have played a crucial role in formation of these porphyry deposits (Hou et al. *Ore Geol Rev* 36: 25–51, 2009; *Miner Deposita* doi:10.1007/s00126-012-0415-6, 2012). In this study, we present zircon Hf isotopes and molybdenite Re–Os ages on the newly discovered Gangjiang porphyry Cu–Mo deposit in southern Tibet to constrain the magma source of the intrusions and the timing of mineralization. The Gangjiang porphyry Cu–Mo deposit is located in the Nimu ore field in the central Gangdese porphyry deposits belt, southern Tibet. The copper and molybdenum mineralization occur mainly as disseminations and veins in the overlapped part of the potassic and phyllic alteration zones, and are predominantly hosted in the quartz monzonite stock and in contact with the rhyodacite porphyry stock. SIMS zircon U–Pb dating of the

pre-mineral quartz monzonite stock and late intra-mineral rhyodacite porphyry yielded ages of 14.73 ± 0.13 Ma (2σ) and 12.01 ± 0.29 Ma (2σ), respectively. These results indicate that the magmatism could have lasted as long as about 2.7 Ma for the Gangjiang deposit. The newly obtained Re–Os model ages vary from 12.51 ± 0.19 Ma (2σ) to 12.85 ± 0.18 Ma (2σ) for four molybdenite samples. These Re–Os ages are roughly coincident with the rhyodacite porphyry U–Pb zircon age, and indicate a relatively short-lived episode of ore deposition (ca. 0.3 Ma). In situ Hf isotopic analyses on zircons by using LA-MC-ICP-MS indicate that the $\varepsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values of zircons from a quartz monzonite sample vary from +2.25 to +4.57 with an average of +3.33, while zircons from a rhyodacite porphyry sample vary from +5.53 to +7.81 with an average of +6.64. The Hf data indicate that mantle components could be partly involved in the deposit formation, and that mantle contributions might have increased over time from ca. 14.7 to 12.0 Ma. Combined with previous works, it is proposed that the Gangjiang deposit could have resulted from the convective thinning of the lithospheric root, and the input of upper mantle components into the magma could have played a key role in the formation of the porphyry deposits in the Miocene Gangdese porphyry copper belt in the Tibetan Orogen.

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Introduction

Porphyry deposits are currently the world's primary source of Cu and Mo and also an important source of Au (Richards 2003), making them valuable exploration targets. They occur mainly in continental margins or island arc settings (Sillitoe 1972, 2010; Corbett and Leach 1998; Cooke et al.

2005), and are intimately associated with subduction-related magmas (Richards 2003, 2011). In arc settings, hot, hydrous, relatively oxidized, sulfur-rich mafic magmas derived from the metasomatized mantle wedge undergo MASH processes (crustal melting, assimilation, magmatic storage, and homogenization) at the base of the overlying crust. These processes yield evolved, volatile-rich, metalliferous, hybrid intermediate melts, which is widely accepted as a key requirement for generating porphyry Cu deposits in arc settings (Richards 2003, 2011). However, it has recently been recognized that the porphyry deposits can also form in post-subduction collisional settings (Richards 2009), such as the Gangdese porphyry copper belt (GPCB) in southern Tibet, China (e.g., Hou et al. 2009, and references therein). Porphyry Cu–(Mo) deposits in this belt are genetically related to Miocene adakite-like porphyries (Chung et al. 2003; Hou et al. 2004, 2009; Gao et al. 2007; Guo et al. 2007). However, both the genesis of the Cu-bearing adakite-like magmas and their genetic link with porphyry Cu deposits in the GPCB remains highly controversial (Hou et al. 2012). Chung et al. (2003) and Hou et al. (2004) proposed that these adakite-like porphyries were derived from newly formed thickened basaltic lower crust, which was further confirmed by Guo et al. (2007) and Li et al. (2011). However, as adakite-like rocks derived from lower continental crust contain significantly lower Cu contents than adakites produced by oceanic slab melting, as well as normal arc andesites (cf. Sun et al. 2011), Hou et al. (2009, 2012) proposed that the interaction of mantle components with juvenile lower crust is a key process for the formation of the Miocene porphyry deposits. Recently, Li et al. (2011) proposed that this newly formed lower crust derived from partial melting of the mantle wedge would be enriched in F, Cl, H₂O, and Cu, important for formation of porphyry deposits in the GPCB. However, Qu et al. (2004, 2007) argued that these adakite-like porphyries originated from partial melting of subducted oceanic crust.

The Gangjiang Cu–Mo deposit is a recently discovered porphyry deposit in the GPCB, which was found in 2006–2008 by Lhasa Tianli Mining Co. Ltd., a joint venture between Central China Goldfields Plc. (GGG) and the Sichuan Institute of Metallurgical Geology and Exploration. Currently, resources are estimated at 1.30 million tonnes of contained Cu and 0.15 million tonnes of contained Mo with an average grade of 0.25–0.45 % Cu and 0.02–0.04 % Mo (Zhang and Zhou 2006, unpublished exploration report). In comparison with other porphyry deposits in the GPCB (such as Qulong, Chongjiang, and Tinggong), which have been studied by various researchers (Hou et al. 2004; Zheng et al. 2004; Qu et al. 2007, 2009; Li et al. 2007; Yang et al. 2009), only a few studies have been undertaken on the Gangjiang deposit (Zhang et al. 2006; Leng et al. 2010; Zhou and Zhang 2010). Recently, two zircon U–Pb ages of 14.73 ± 0.13 Ma

(2σ) and 12.01 ± 0.29 Ma (2σ) for a quartz monzonite stock and an ore-bearing porphyry, respectively, have been obtained by secondary ion microprobe mass spectrometry (SIMS) (Leng et al. 2010). These ages indicate that the deposit was formed during a post-collision extensional event (30–10 Ma; Chung et al. 2005, 2009) in the Tibetan Orogen. In this study, we present new zircon Hf isotopic compositions, whole-rock geochemical and Sr–Nd–Pb isotopic compositions, and molybdenite Re–Os ages to constrain the magma source of the intrusions and the timing of mineralization, and to further explore their genetic relationship.

Regional geology

The Gangdese porphyry copper belt is located in the Lhasa Terrane (LT) (Fig. 1a), which extends west–eastward for several hundreds of kilometers and is bounded by the Indus–Yarlung suture to the south and the Banggong–Nujiang suture (NBS) to the north. The crystalline basement rocks of the terrane are represented by the Amdo orthogneisses with ages between 530 and 850 Ma (Guynn et al. 2006). They are distributed along the northern margin of this terrane (Harris et al. 1988). The Paleozoic–Mesozoic cover strata are composed of a succession of Ordovician–Triassic shallow marine clastic rocks (Burg and Chen 1984; Kind et al. 1996). The Upper Carboniferous–Lower Permian strata are mainly composed of pyroclastic rocks and carbonate rocks, and crop out in the northern margin of the terrane (Yin and Harrison 2000). These strata are considered to have resulted from the opening of the Nujiang oceanic basin (Pearce and Mei 1988; Gaetani and Garzanti 1991). During the Early Jurassic to the Late Cretaceous, the Neotethyan oceanic crust subducted northwards beneath the Lhasa terrane (Chu et al. 2006; Wen et al. 2008; Ji et al. 2009), forming Andean-type granitoid batholiths and the Xigaze forearc basin (Allègre et al. 1984; Harrison et al. 1992; Durr 1996). Subsequently, the voluminous Gangdese collisional granitoid batholiths were emplaced, and the Paleocene–Eocene Linzizong calc-alkaline volcanic magmas were erupted in the southern LT during collision between the Indian and Asian plates (~65 to 40 Ma) (Dong et al. 2005; Mo et al. 2007, 2008, 2009; Ji et al. 2009; Gao et al. 2010). The post-subduction magmatism in the LT comprises a mid-Miocene potassic igneous belt extending for about 1,500 km, sub-parallel to the Gangdese range. This potassic igneous belt consists mainly of potassic calc-alkaline lavas and ultrapotassic lavas (Turner et al. 1993, 1996; Miller et al. 1999; Williams et al. 2001) and adakite-like porphyries (Chung et al. 2003; Hou et al. 2004; Guo et al. 2007).

The Miocene adakite-like porphyries intruded the Gangdese granitoid batholiths and their surrounding

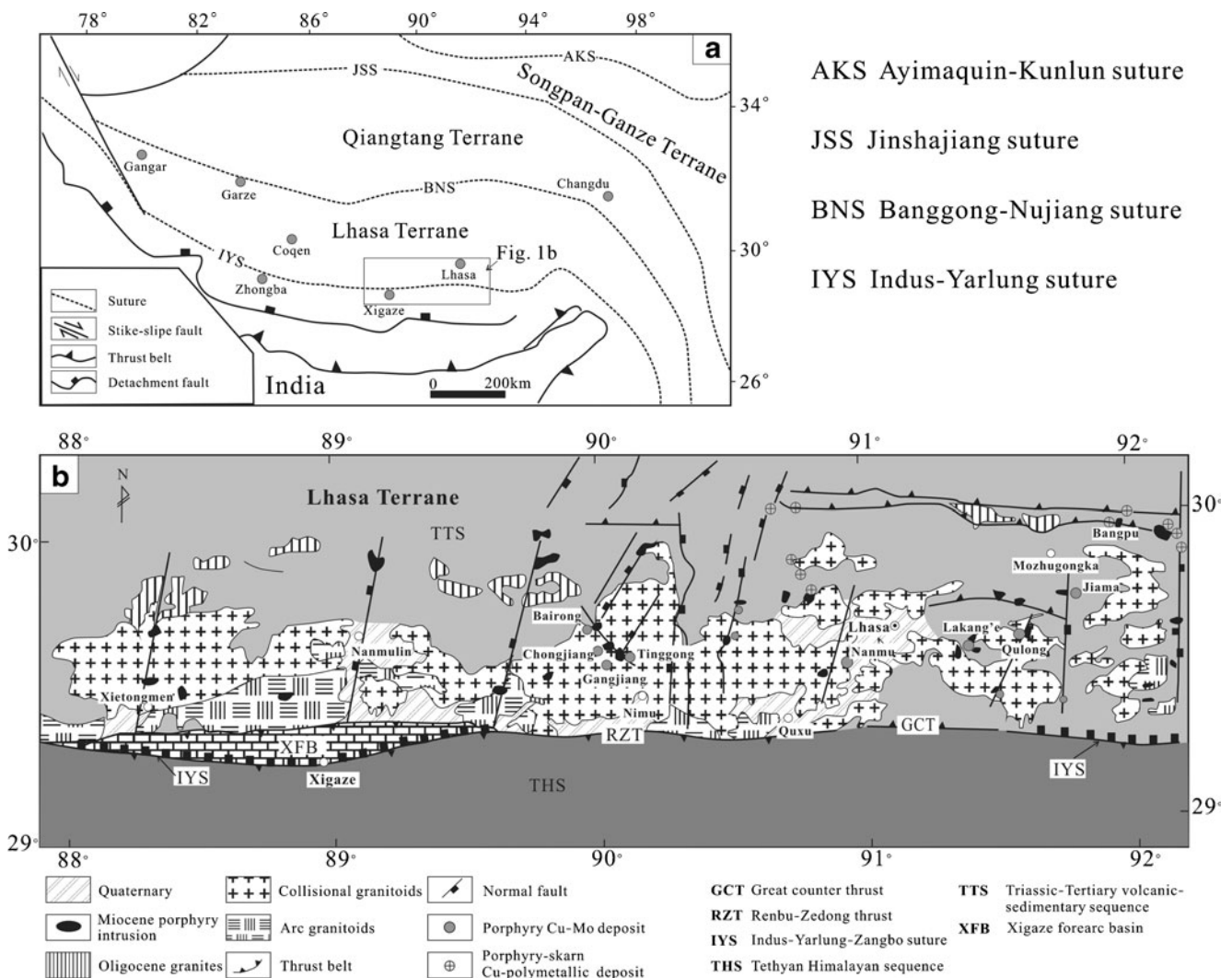


Fig. 1 a Simplified tectonic framework of the Himalayan-Tibetan Orogen (Hou et al. 2004) and b sketch geological map of the Gangdese porphyry copper belt (modified from Hou et al. 2004, 2009)

Triassic–Tertiary sedimentary sequences as small-volume stocks or dikes. They form a 400-km long, 50-km wide, EW-trending porphyry belt which is bounded by the Renbu-Zedong thrust (Fig. 1). Most age results, obtained by zircon U–Pb, K–Ar, and ⁴⁰Ar/³⁹Ar dating methods (Chung et al. 2003; Rui et al. 2003, 2004; Hou et al. 2004; Qu et al. 2007; Li et al. 2007, 2011), indicate that these porphyries were emplaced between ca. 26 and 10 Ma. Similar ⁴⁰Ar/³⁹Ar ages have been reported for the post-subduction potassic and ultrapotassic lavas in both southern and northern Tibet and southern Karakorum (Coulon et al. 1986; Turner et al. 1993; Miller et al. 1999; Maheo et al. 2002; Chung et al. 2005). Most studies indicate that emplacement of the post-subduction magmatism was controlled by the N–S-striking normal fault systems that were probably formed between 18 and 13 Ma (Yin et al. 1994; Coleman and Hodges 1995; Williams et al. 2001).

Deposit geology

The Gangjiang porphyry Cu–Mo deposit is located in Nimu County, 115 km west of Lhasa City, centered at about 90°E and 29.5°N (Fig. 1b). At present, more than three large-sized porphyry Cu deposits (Chongjiang, Tinggong, and Bairong) have been discovered in the Nimu ore field (Wang et al. 2002; Li et al. 2007; Hou et al. 2009), which are all located in the central region of the GPCB. Three main lithologic units are developed in the Nimu ore field (Wang et al. 2002; Hou et al. 2009). They include: a late Cretaceous sedimentary sequence, consisting of siltstone, mudstone, and overlying greywacke and muddy limestone; a Paleocene–Oligocene volcano-sedimentary sequence (Linzizong volcanic rocks), consisting of andesitic–dacitic lavas, welded tuffaceous rocks and tuffaceous sandstone; and a Paleocene–

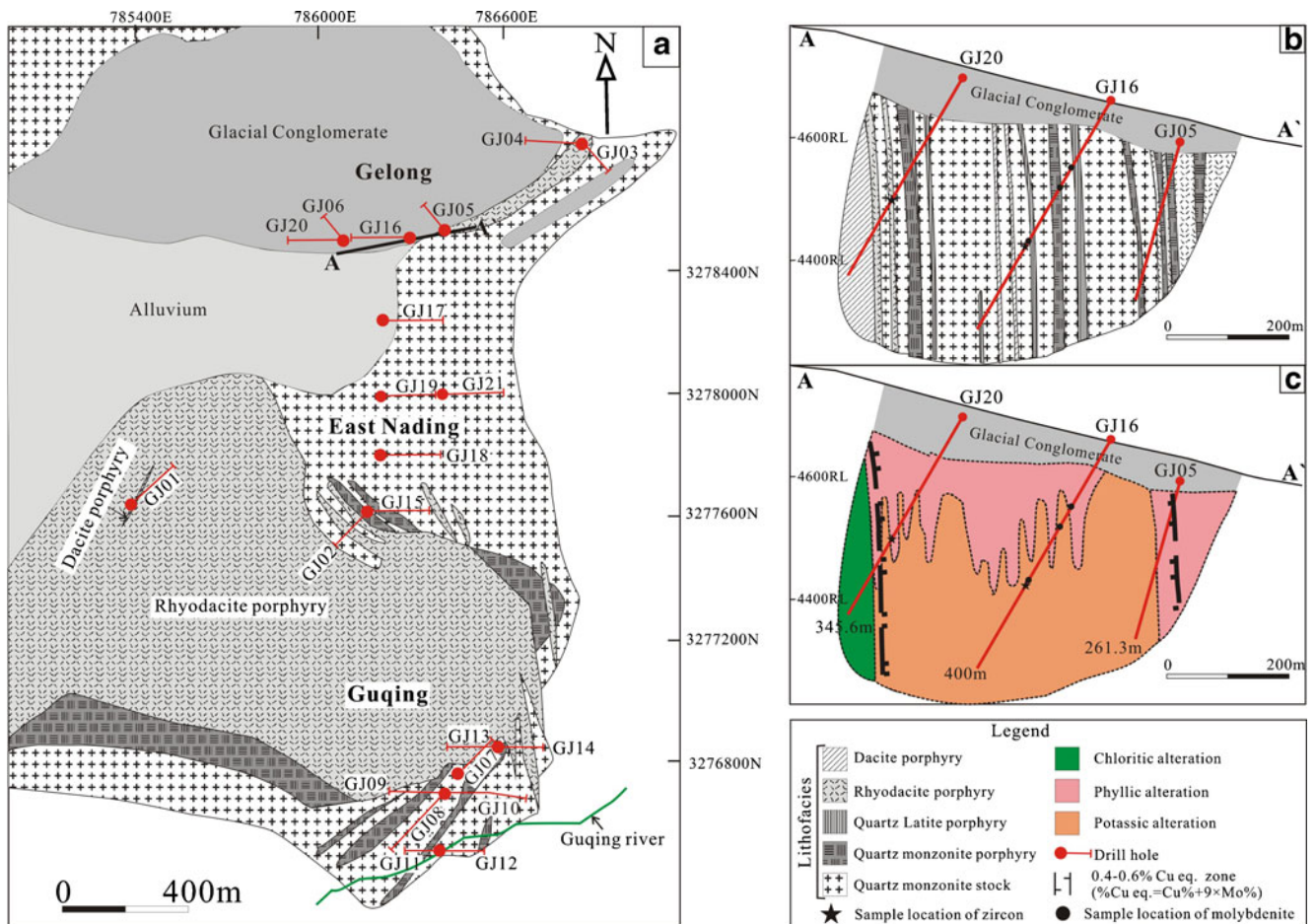


Fig. 2 **a** Simplified geological map of the Gangjiang porphyry Cu–Mo deposit, **b** cross-section along drill holes GJ16, 20 and GJ05, and **c** hydrothermal alteration zones of this cross-section (modified from GGG 2008b and Leng et al. 2010)

Miocene multiphase intrusion, mainly consisting of biotite monzogranite, quartz monzonite, granite porphyry, granodiorite, and quartz diorite.

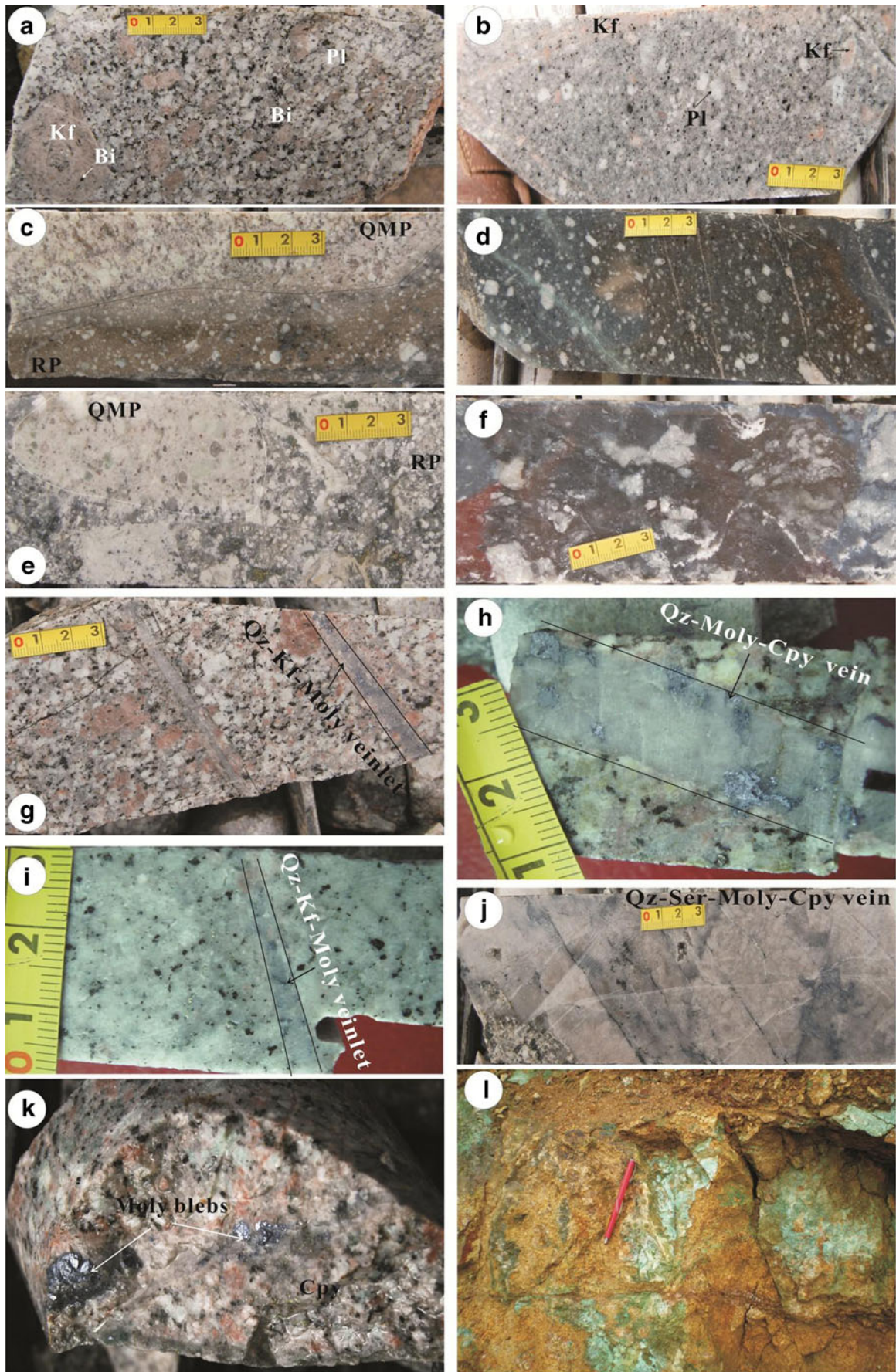
Lithology of the Gangjiang multiple intrusion

In the Gangjiang deposit, based on detailed mapping and drill core logging, five intrusions with related mineralization and alteration have been recognized (Fig. 2). From the oldest to the youngest, they are quartz monzonite stock (QM), quartz monzonite porphyry (QMP), quartz latite porphyry (QLP), rhyodacite porphyry (RP), and dacite porphyry (DP) (Fig. 3a–d). Several types of breccias (Fig. 3e, f), including magmatic hydrothermal breccias and phreatic breccias, are also developed in this district.

The QM covers an area of ca. 50 km² and it is crosscut by late porphyries. It consists mainly of coarse-grained alkali feldspar (25–30 %), plagioclase (30–40 %), quartz (15–20 %), and biotite (5–10 %), with flesh pink color and phanocrystalline texture. Its accessory minerals are dominated by zircon, apatite, magnetite, and rutile.

The quartz monzonite porphyry occurs as stocks and dikes with widths of <5 to 1,500 m. It intrudes the QM but is crosscut by the rhyodacite and dacite porphyries. It is distinctive from the QM by its porphyritic texture. The QMP contains about 35 to 45 % of phenocrysts which consist

Fig. 3 Photographs of intrusive rocks at Gangjiang porphyry Cu–Mo deposit. **a** potassic altered quartz monzonite; **b** potassic altered quartz latite porphyry; **c** quartz monzonite porphyry cut by the rhyodacite porphyry; **d** weakly chloritic-altered rhyodacite porphyry; **e** magmatic hydrothermal breccia, in which there is one partly rounded quartz monzonite porphyry fragment containing resorbed oval quartz in a matrix of rhyodacite porphyry; **f** phreatic breccia, in which various rock and mineral clasts cemented by chalcedonic matrix; **g** veinlet of quartz–K-feldspar–molybdenite in potassic altered quartz monzonite; **h** vein of quartz–molybdenite–chalcopyrite in potassic altered quartz monzonite; **i** veinlet of quartz–K-feldspar–molybdenite in potassic altered quartz monzonite porphyry; **j** vein of quartz–sericite–molybdenite–chalcopyrite in potassic and strongly phyllic altered quartz monzonite; **k** molybdenite blebs and chalcopyrite disseminated in potassic altered quartz monzonite; **l** outcrop of the copper oxide zone. Abbreviations: *Bi* secondary biotite, *Cpy* chalcopyrite, *Kf* K-feldspar, *Moly* molybdenite, *Pl* plagioclase, *Py* pyrite, *Qz* quartz, *QMP* quartz monzonite porphyry, *RP* rhyodacite porphyry, *Se* Sericite



mainly of coarse-grained K-feldspar (15–20 %), plagioclase (10–15 %), quartz (~5 %), and biotite (5–10 %). Its groundmass is composed of quartz and feldspar with fine- to micro-granular texture.

The quartz latite porphyry only occurs as dikes with widths of 1–20 m. It also intrudes the QM, but is crosscut by the rhyodacite and dacite porphyries. It contains fewer and smaller phenocrysts, compared to the QMP. It contains about 15 to 25 % of phenocrysts which consist mainly of coarse-grained K-feldspar (5–10 %), plagioclase (8–12 %), quartz (~3 %), and biotite (~5 %).

The rhyodacite porphyry occurs as stocks and dikes with widths of 1–1,000 m, and intrudes earlier intrusions. It contains about 20–30 % phenocrysts which consist of plagioclase (10–15 %), quartz (5–8 %), biotite (~5 %), and lesser amphibole (~3 %), with porphyritic texture. Its groundmass consists of micro-granular quartz and K-feldspar. Accessory minerals are zircon, apatite, and rutile.

The dacite porphyry is the latest intrusion phase in the deposit area. It occurs as dikes with widths ranging from <1 to 20 m. It contains about 10–20 % phenocrysts which consist mainly of plagioclase (5–10 %), biotite (~5 %), amphibole (~3 %), and minor quartz, with vitrophyric texture. Its groundmass consists of micro-granular quartz, feldspar, and mafic minerals.

Magmatic hydrothermal breccias are well developed in the deposit area (e.g., drill holes GJ08, GJ11, and GJ13). They are composed of partly resorbed and rounded QMP fragments, which contain resorbed rounded quartz phenocrysts, and matrix of the RP (Fig. 3e). Phreatic breccias are distinguished from magmatic hydrothermal breccias by various rock clasts cemented by chalcedonic matrix (Fig. 3f).

Hydrothermal alteration

In the Gangjiang district, many types of hydrothermal alteration have been identified. They include potassic, silicic, phyllic, chloritic, and argillic alterations (Fig. 3a–d). The alteration zones of the mineralized porphyry bodies are similar to those of other porphyry Cu deposits in the GPCB (e.g., Hou et al. 2009; Yang et al. 2009). Potassic, phyllic, and chloritic alteration zones are distributed from the center to the outer part of the porphyry bodies (Fig. 2c).

K-silicate alteration is mainly observed in the QM, QMP, and QLP (e.g., Fig. 3a, b, g). It is represented by pervasively developed potassic mineral assemblages and veinlets and veins of K-feldspar and quartz in the porphyries. The potassic alteration mineral assemblages consist mainly of K-feldspar, secondary biotite, quartz, magnetite, chlorite, and minor anhydrite. The original igneous textures in this zone have been partially destroyed as the original phenocrysts of plagioclase and biotite have been locally replaced by K-feldspar and secondary biotite, respectively.

Phyllic alteration occurs in all porphyry units. Its intensity is stronger in the RP and QMP than in the others in the deposit (Fig. 3c, e). It is characterized by a pervasive replacement of the original minerals of the porphyry by sericite, quartz, pyrite, illite, and chlorite, or was metasomatized to form alteration halos around quartz–sulfides veins. This alteration zone usually overprints the early-formed potassic alteration zone.

Argillic alteration is represented by the development of clay minerals including illite, smectite, kaolinite, and minor alunite. It is only observed in late faults and fractures in the deposit, and is probably resulted from supergene alteration.

Chloritic alteration is characterized by pervasive replacement of most mafic minerals by chlorite and calcite without epidote, distinctive from the propylitic alteration which is common in other porphyry deposits, but not in the Gangjiang district (Leng et al. 2010). The chloritic alteration occurs in all the intrusive rocks and is locally overprinted by weak to moderate phyllic alteration.

Mineralization

The copper and molybdenum mineralization occurs mainly where the potassic and phyllic alteration zones overlap in the quartz monzonite stock (QM), close to the rhyodacite porphyry (RP) (Fig. 2). Three primary orebodies including the Guqing, East Nading, and Gelong have been delineated by trenching and drilling since 2008 (GGG 2009) (Fig. 2a). At Guqing, the mineralized area is about 400 m long by 300 m wide and up to 50 m thick. Between East Nading and Gelong, the mineralized area is about 1 km long by 700 m wide with depths from surface up to 576 m. Supergene copper oxide zones are well developed, with thicknesses of about 60 to 80 m locally. The soluble Cu content of these oxide zones varies from 0.41 to 0.91 % (GGG 2008a). All the copper oxide zones also contain substantial amounts of Mo and Ag, with grades ranging from 0.01 to 0.04 % for Mo and <1 to 30 ppm for Ag, respectively (GGG 2008a). Hypogene sulfide minerals comprise chalcopyrite, molybdenite, and pyrite, with minor bornite, sphalerite, and galena. Supergene minerals in the oxide zone consist of malachite, covellite, neotocite, and limonite. Gangue minerals include quartz, K-feldspar, biotite, sericite, illite, chlorite, calcite, and minor gypsum.

Various styles of mineralization, such as disseminations and patches, veinlets, stockwork veins, vein breccias, and coarse quartz–molybdenite–chalcopyrite veins (Fig. 3e, g–k) have been identified in the deposit. Disseminated mineralization mainly occurs in the QM, and is intimately associated with early K-silicate alteration and quartz±K-feldspar–sulfide veinlets (Fig. 3g). No economic orebody was formed at this stage of mineralization because the average grades in the potassic zone are usually lower than 0.1 % for Cu and 0.01 % for Mo, respectively. Late-stage mineralization was

mostly associated with phyllic alteration, and is characterized by quartz–pyrite–chalcopyrite±molybdenite stockwork veins with pyrite more than chalcopyrite in the QM, QMP, and RP. The overprint of these stockwork veins on the early-formed disseminated and veinlet ores resulted in the upgrade of copper and molybdenum contents, and the formation of economic orebodies in the potassic alteration zone overprinted by phyllic alteration. The malachite and covellite patches are mainly hosted in the oxide zones and some vein breccias. It is worth noting that some 10- to 150-cm-wide coarse quartz veins containing abundant molybdenite and minor chalcopyrite have been observed in drill cores GJ15 and GJ16 (Fig. 3j). These veins were probably associated with strong silicic alteration and overprinted by phyllic alteration, and may represent the core of the hydrothermal alteration system. However, they are distinctive from the barren quartz veins in other porphyry deposits (e.g., Bajo de la Alumbrera in Argentina; Ulrich et al. 2002) due to their Mo and Cu mineralization. No intensive mineralization is associated with chloritic and argillic alteration in this deposit.

Analytical methods

Molybdenite Re–Os analytical methods

Four molybdenite samples collected from two drill holes were chosen for Re–Os isotopic dating (Fig. 2, 3). The GJ16-114m molybdenite sample was separated from a potassic altered QM hand specimen, which contains quartz–molybdenite veinlets (Fig. 3g). GJ16-239.4m molybdenite sample was selected from a strongly potassic and phyllic altered QM specimen, which contains a 1-cm-thick quartz–molybdenite–chalcopyrite vein (Fig. 3h). The GJ15-301m molybdenite sample was separated from a coarse quartz–molybdenite–chalcopyrite vein (Fig. 3j) in the potassic altered QM overprinted by strong phyllic and silicic alteration. And the GJ16-139m molybdenite sample was collected from quartz–K-feldspar–molybdenite veinlets in potassic altered QMP (Fig. 3i). Froth flotation was applied first to separate molybdenite from the finely crushed mineralized rocks. Then molybdenite grains were handpicked individually under a binocular microscope to get over 99 % pure molybdenite separates.

Re–Os isotope analysis was performed on a Thermo ICP-MS (TJA X-series) in the Re–Os Laboratory, National Research Center of Geoanalysis, Chinese Academy of Geological Sciences in Beijing. The detailed analytical procedures are described by Du et al. (1994, 2004). A model age of 139.5 ± 2.0 Ma, which is identical to the certified value of 139.6 ± 3.8 Ma (Du et al. 2004), for the molybdenite standard GBW04436 has been obtained in this analysis.

Blanks during these analyses are 2.9 ± 0.9 pg for Re and 0.1 pg for Os. The ^{187}Re decay constant of 1.666×10^{-11} year $^{-1}$ (Smoliar et al. 1996) is used to calculate the molybdenite model ages. Uncertainty in Re–Os model ages includes 1.02 % uncertainty in the ^{187}Re decay constant and uncertainty in Re and Os concentrations which comprises weighing errors for both spike and sample, uncertainty in spike calibration and mass spectrometry analytical error.

Major and trace elements, and Sr–Nd–Pb isotope analyses

Based on petrographic observation, the least altered porphyry samples collected from several drill holes were chosen for analyzing major elements, trace elements, and Sr–Nd–Pb isotopes. Major elements were analyzed by using conventional wet chemical methods at the State Key Laboratory of Ore Deposit Geochemistry (SKLOGD), Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences. The analytical precision is generally better than five relative percent for major elements. Trace elements were analyzed by using a Perkin-Elmer Sciex ELAN DRC-e ICP-MS at the SKLOGD. Powdered samples (50 mg) were dissolved in high-pressure Teflon bombs using a HF+HNO₃ mixture for 48 h at ~190 °C. Rhodium was used as an internal standard to monitor signal drift during counting. The international standards GBPG-1, OU-6, and the Chinese National standards GSR-1 and GSR-3 were used for analytical quality control (Qi et al. 2000). The analytical precision is generally better than 10 relative percent for trace elements.

Whole-rock Sr–Nd–Pb isotopic data were obtained on an IsoProbe-T thermal ionization mass spectrometer (TIMS) at Analytical Laboratory of the Beijing Research Institute of Uranium Geology. The mass fractionation corrections for Sr and Nd isotopic ratios are based on an $^{86}\text{Sr}/^{88}\text{Sr}$ ratio of 0.1194 and $^{146}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ ratio of 0.7219, respectively. The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of the Standard NBS987 and $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ ratio of the Standard SHINESTU Nd determined during this study were 0.710250 ± 0.000007 (2σ) and 0.512118 ± 0.000003 (2σ), respectively. Pb was separated and purified by a conventional cation-exchange technique (AG1×8, 200–400 resin) with diluted HBr used as eluant. The $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$, $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ and $^{204}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ ratios of the Standard NBS981 were 2.1681 ± 0.0008 (2σ), 0.91464 ± 0.00033 (2σ), and 0.059042 ± 0.000037 (2σ), respectively.

In situ zircon Hf analysis

Two ore-bearing porphyry samples (GJ16-247.1, GJ16-208) which were dated previously by using SIMS zircon U–Pb dating (Leng et al. 2010) were selected for zircon Hf isotopic analysis. Zircon Lu–Hf isotopic analyses were carried out on the same spots used for previous dating by using a

Table 1 Re–Os data for molybdenite from the Gangjiang porphyry Cu–Mo deposit

Sample	Weight (g)	Re (ppm)		¹⁸⁷ Re (ppm)		¹⁸⁷ Os (ppb)		Model age (Ma)	
		Measured	±2σ	Measured	±2σ	Measured	±2σ	Measured	±2σ
GJ16-114m	0.01029	33.98	0.25	21.36	0.16	4.557	0.041	12.81	0.18
GJ16-239.4m	0.01094	86.59	0.70	54.43	0.44	11.65	0.10	12.85	0.18
GJ15-301m	0.03335	37.51	0.28	23.58	0.18	5.045	0.049	12.84	0.19
GJ16-139m	0.05085	69.78	0.60	43.86	0.38	9.142	0.081	12.51	0.19

Neptune multi-collector ICP-MS equipped with a Geolas-193 laser-ablation system at the Institute of Geology and Geophysics, Chinese Academy of Sciences in Beijing (IGGCAS). The detailed instrumental conditions and analytical procedures are similar to those described by Wu et al. (2006). During the course of this study, a weighted mean ¹⁷⁶Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf ratio of 0.282516±5 (2σ) was obtained for the Standard Mud Tank of zircon, which is in good agreement with the reported ¹⁷⁶Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf ratios of 0.282507±6 (2σ) from solution analysis by Woodhead and Hergt (2005) and of 0.282523±43 (2σ) from in situ analysis by Griffin et al. (2006). Initial Hf isotope ratios are calculated with reference to the chondritic reservoir at the time of magma crystallization, which is represented by the age of zircon growth from magma. A decay constant for ¹⁷⁶Lu of 1.865×10⁻¹¹ year⁻¹ (Scherer et al. 2001), and the chondritic ratios of 0.282772 for ¹⁷⁶Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf and 0.0332 for ¹⁷⁶Lu/¹⁷⁷Hf (Blichert-Toft and Albarede 1997) have been adopted for this study. These values are reported relative to the ¹⁷⁶Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf ratio of 0.282163 for the Standard JMC475. Single-stage model ages (*T*_{DM1}) are calculated by using the measured ¹⁷⁶Lu/¹⁷⁷Hf ratios, referring to a model depleted mantle with a present-day ¹⁷⁶Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf ratio of 0.28325, which is similar to that of average MORB (Nowell et al. 1998) and ¹⁷⁶Lu/¹⁷⁷Hf ratio of 0.0384 (Griffin et al. 2002). This is similar, though not identical, to the depleted mantle curve defined by juvenile rocks through time (Vervoort and Blichert-Toft 1999). Two-stage model ages (*T*_{DM2}) are calculated for the source of magma by assuming a mean ¹⁷⁶Lu/¹⁷⁷Hf value of 0.015 for the average continental crust (Griffin et al. 2002).

Results

Re–Os ages of molybdenite

The Re, Os contents and isotopic values of four molybdenite samples from the Gangjiang porphyry Cu–Mo deposit are listed in Table 1. Total Re and ¹⁸⁷Os concentrations vary from 33.98 to 86.59 ppm and 4.56 to 11.65 ppb, respectively. The Re–Os model ages of three molybdenite samples from the

potassic altered QM samples vary from 12.81±0.18 to 12.85±0.18 Ma, with a weighted average age of 12.83±0.11 Ma (2σ, MSWD=0.053) (Fig. 4). However, a slightly younger Re–Os model age (12.51±0.19 Ma) was obtained for the molybdenite from the potassic altered QMP sample (Fig. 2).

Major and trace elements, and Sr–Nd–Pb isotopic compositions

Rocks of the Gangjiang intrusion have SiO₂ contents varying from 63.5 to 69.4 %, Al₂O₃ from 13.9 to 17.4 %, FeO from 1.76 to 4.12 %, and MgO from 0.62 to 2.18 % (Table 2). Their total alkali concentrations (Na₂O+K₂O) vary from 6.71 to 8.00 wt% with K₂O/Na₂O (wt%) ratios varying from 0.67 to 0.98. Most of them plot within the high-K calc-alkaline field in the diagram of K₂O versus SiO₂. All the samples are characterized by high Sr contents (599–846 ppm), Sr/Y ratios (45–132), and low contents of Y (5.34–17.2 ppm) and heavy rare earth elements (HREE) (e.g., Yb varying from 0.48 to 1.09 ppm). These geochemical features are similar to those of adakites defined by Defant and Drummond (1990) and Martin (1999). The rocks have similar chondrite-normalized rare earth elements (REE) distribution patterns (Fig. 5a), characterized by strong

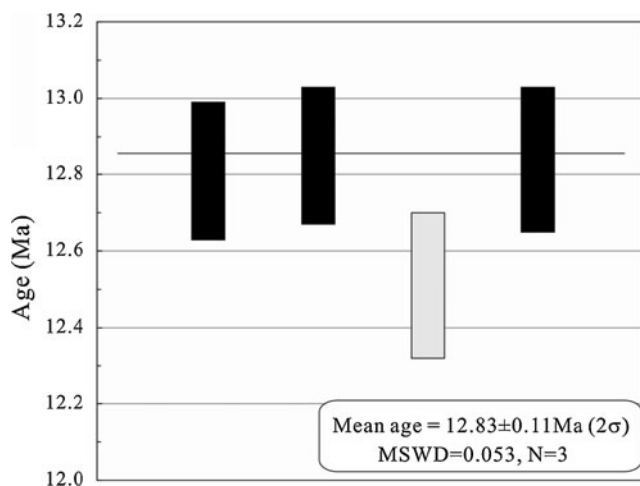


Fig. 4 Re–Os weighted average model age diagram for the molybdenite samples from the Gangjiang deposit

Table 2 Major(in weight percent)and trace element(in ppm)compositions of intrusive rocks from the Gangjiang porphyry Cu–Mo deposit

Sample	GJ10-489.7	GJ10-505	GJ15-466	GJ16-139	GJ19-118.9	GJ13-269	GJ19-143.4
Lithology	QM	QM	QM	QMP	QLP	RP	DP
SiO ₂	67.63	69.38	67.76	68.9	69.23	67.67	63.48
Al ₂ O ₃	14.00	15.56	15.40	16.31	17.20	13.92	17.37
FeO	4.12	2.35	2.82	1.76	1.8	2.67	3.84
Fe ₂ O ₃	1.56	1.02	1.36	0.85	0.88	1.26	1.52
CaO	2.32	2.01	2.03	1.88	1.31	2.43	2.26
MgO	0.74	0.62	1.15	0.78	0.76	1.09	2.18
K ₂ O	3.88	3.00	3.97	3.68	3.58	3.59	2.69
Na ₂ O	4.12	4.23	4.05	4.32	4.17	4.83	4.02
MnO	0.33	0.17	0.21	0.15	0.14	0.21	0.19
TiO ₂	0.27	0.33	0.32	0.41	0.37	0.30	0.34
P ₂ O ₅	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.06
LOI	0.77	1.11	0.94	0.66	0.43	1.76	2.10
Total	99.80	99.84	100.06	99.74	99.91	99.78	100.05
Mg#	24.3	32.0	42.1	44.2	43.0	42.2	50.3
La	30.1	21.4	41.9	22.5	16.9	23.5	46.1
Ce	55.8	40.2	73.4	41.6	33.2	43.5	85.9
Pr	6.40	4.71	8.29	4.70	3.92	5.03	11.1
Nd	23.8	17.8	31.9	17.2	15.2	19.0	44.2
Sm	3.77	2.97	5.32	2.90	2.75	3.31	7.35
Eu	0.77	0.73	1.00	0.66	0.60	0.73	1.25
Gd	2.41	1.94	2.96	1.63	1.63	1.91	4.24
Tb	0.34	0.27	0.43	0.24	0.24	0.29	0.60
Dy	1.40	1.20	1.85	1.06	0.99	1.22	2.63
Ho	0.29	0.24	0.34	0.21	0.18	0.24	0.52
Er	0.80	0.65	0.93	0.59	0.55	0.65	1.36
Tm	0.11	0.09	0.12	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.18
Yb	0.70	0.56	0.86	0.48	0.52	0.56	1.09
Lu	0.10	0.09	0.13	0.07	0.08	0.10	0.16
Li	22.0	23.5	25.7	18.8	21.3	32.6	51.7
Be	3.16	3.70	5.07	3.01	3.10	3.12	3.82
Sc	8.43	4.23	6.38	8.81	5.08	5.11	11.4
V	47.7	47.6	63.4	59.1	38.2	51.9	90.3
Cr	59.5	38.8	56.0	31.2	30.1	50.8	132
Co	9.52	6.80	8.58	5.80	4.96	7.50	11.7
Ni	21.1	15.2	19.3	14.3	12.5	20.3	62.5
Cu	87.8	773	407	617	403	64.2	692
Zn	52.1	40.5	43.3	21.6	73.7	43.6	110
Ga	22.6	21.4	21.8	19.6	20.2	22.5	23.4
Rb	210	171	303	159	158	189	252
Sr	741	846	695	671	599	618	773
Y	7.31	6.41	9.35	5.71	5.34	6.24	17.2
Zr	137	105	138	97.4	119	104	143
Nb	7.62	5.27	8.25	5.31	5.82	5.38	5.67
Mo	7.03	90.1	26.0	147	17.4	3.30	43.5
Ag	0.56	0.67	0.83	0.60	0.52	0.51	0.55
Sn	4.81	2.38	2.59	1.51	1.81	2.13	4.59
Sb	4.59	0.85	0.83	0.73	0.57	1.10	1.32
Cs	18.8	12.9	16.1	10.3	9.46	20.0	27.4

Table 2 (continued)

Sample	GJ10-489.7	GJ10-505	GJ15-466	GJ16-139	GJ19-118.9	GJ13-269	GJ19-143.4
Ba	1090	649	861	943	820	778	778
Hf	3.81	3.02	3.91	2.84	3.46	3.02	4.15
Ta	0.58	0.42	0.69	0.38	0.48	0.44	0.42
Pb	31.8	27.1	36.8	34.3	39.6	37.1	40.3
Th	20.8	14.9	33.2	14.6	15.0	16.4	14.4
U	6.41	3.91	7.00	3.03	2.67	3.67	4.50

$$\text{Mg\#} = \text{Mg}/(\text{Mg} + \text{Fe}^{2+})$$

enrichments of light REE with the La_N/Yb_N ratios of 23.13 to 35.11 and Eu^*/Eu values of 0.68 to 0.93. They show strong enrichment in large ion lithophile elements relative to high-field-strength elements (HFSE) with positive anomalies of K, Pb, Th, and U and negative anomalies of Nb, Ta, and Ti in the primitive mantle-normalized trace-element patterns (Fig. 5b).

The Sr, Nd, and Pb isotopic compositions of the analyzed samples are given in Table 3. The samples have high initial

$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios varying from 0.7052 to 0.7059, and low $(^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd})_i$ ratios varying from 0.512424 to 0.512542, corresponding to $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}(t)$ values varying from -3.83 to -1.52 , in comparison to the Chondritic Uniform Reservoir (Fig. 6a). The Nd model ages relative to the depleted mantle (DM) range from 835 to 976 Ma. All samples have similar Pb isotope compositions (Table 3), which plot well above the Northern Hemisphere Reference Line (Hart 1984) in the $(^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb})_i$ versus $(^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb})_i$ diagram (Fig. 6b). The initial Pb isotopic ratios are restricted, with the $(^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb})_i$, $(^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb})_i$, and $(^{208}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb})_i$ values varying from 18.242 to 18.468, from 15.607 to 15.625, and from 38.318 to 38.724, respectively.

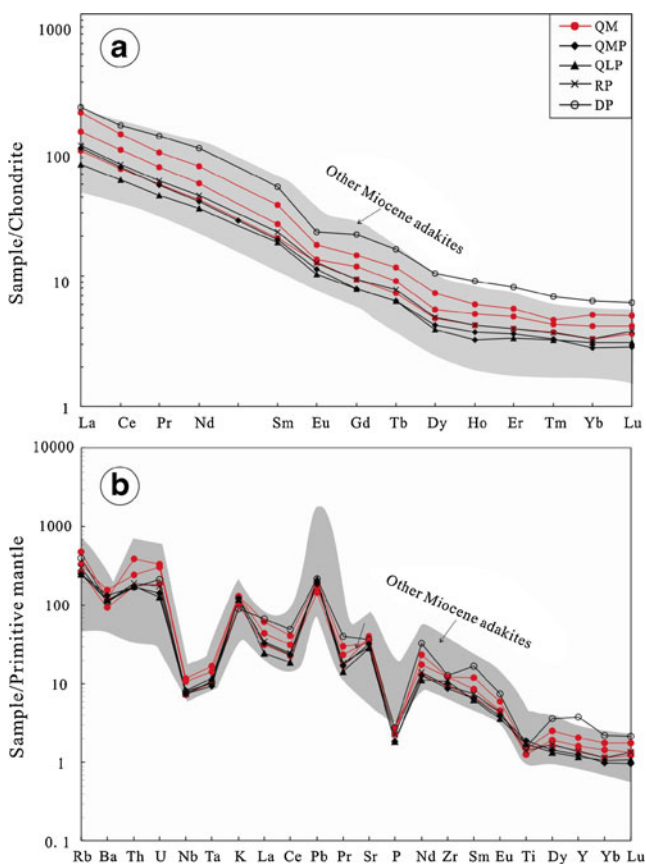


Fig. 5 **a** Chondrite-normalized rare earth element diagram, **b** primitive mantle-normalized incompatible trace-element variation diagram for intrusive rocks from the Gangjiang deposit. The normalizing values are from Sun and McDonough (1989). The published data of Miocene adakites are from Li et al. (2011), Guo et al. (2007), and Chung et al. (2005)

Zircon Hf isotopes

Lu–Hf isotopic data for zircon grains from two samples of GJ16-247.1 (QM) and GJ20-208 (RP) are presented in Table 4. The results are plotted in a diagram of $\epsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ against the $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ ages (Fig. 7). Previous analyses (Leng et al. 2010) show that zircon grains from the QM sample GJ16–247.1 have U–Pb ages ranging from 14.2 to 15.4 Ma (Table 4), with a weighted mean $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ age of 14.73 ± 0.13 Ma (2σ , $\text{MSWD}=1.3$, $n=16$), representing its crystallization age (Leng et al. 2010). However, a weighted mean $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ age of 12.01 ± 0.29 Ma (2σ , $\text{MSWD}=2.3$, $n=8$), representing the crystallization age, for the RP sample GJ20–208 sample has been obtained, although some older ages of 13.3–14.58 and 55.5 Ma for inherited zircons have also been obtained (Leng et al. 2010).

Sixteen spot analyses of Lu–Hf isotopes were made on 16 zircon grains from the quartz monzonite sample. The $\epsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values are positive and vary over a limited range from $+2.25$ to $+4.57$ with an average value of $+3.33$ (Table 4). Their corresponding crustal model ages (T_{DM2}) vary from 806 to 955 Ma with an average of 886 Ma (Table 4; Fig. 7b). Seventeen in situ analyses of Lu–Hf isotopes were done on 17 zircon grains, including six inherited zircon grains, from the rhyodacite porphyry sample. The $\epsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values for nine grains of magmatic zircon from this sample vary from $+5.53$ to $+7.81$ with an average of $+6.64$, which is higher than that

Table 3 Sr, Nd, and Pb isotopic compositions of intrusive rocks from the Gangjiang porphyry Cu–Mo deposit

Sample	GJ10-489.7	GJ10-505	GJ15-466	GJ16-139	GJ19-118.9	GJ13-269	GJ19-143.4
$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$	0.70548	0.70543	0.7061	0.705381	0.705584	0.705355	0.705406
$\pm 2\sigma$	0.00001	0.000007	0.000007	0.000007	0.000009	0.000009	0.000008
$^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$	0.512509	0.512511	0.512433	0.512496	0.512505	0.512552	0.512509
$\pm 2\sigma$	0.000006	0.000006	0.000005	0.000004	0.000006	0.000005	0.000004
$^{208}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$	38.697	38.693	38.765	38.702	38.642	38.673	38.334
$\pm 2\sigma$	0.004	0.005	0.004	0.004	0.003	0.005	0.004
$^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$	15.62	15.619	15.626	15.617	15.607	15.616	15.611
$\pm 2\sigma$	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.001	0.002	0.002
$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$	18.473	18.463	18.488	18.473	18.443	18.46	18.253
$\pm 2\sigma$	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.003	0.002
$(^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr})_i$	0.705320	0.705314	0.705849	0.705245	0.705432	0.705179	0.705219
$(^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd})_i$	0.512500	0.512502	0.512424	0.512487	0.512495	0.512542	0.512500
$\varepsilon_{\text{Nd}}(t)$	-2.34	-2.31	-3.83	-2.60	-2.44	-1.52	-2.35
T_{DM} (Ma)	835	871	976	900	952	849	871
$(^{208}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb})_i$	38.667	38.668	38.724	38.683	38.625	38.653	38.318
$(^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb})_i$	15.619	15.618	15.625	15.616	15.607	15.615	15.610
$(^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb})_i$	18.452	18.448	18.468	18.464	18.436	18.450	18.242

of zircons from the quartz monzonite (sample GJ16-247.1). Corresponding crustal model ages (T_{DM2}) range from 596 to 742 Ma with an average of 671 Ma, which is lower than that of zircons from the GJ16-247.1 (Table 4; Fig. 7b). In addition, the $\varepsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values for several zircons of other populations (13.3–14.58 Ma, $n=5$) from sample GJ20-208 vary from +4.75 to +6.23, i.e., slightly higher for zircons from sample GJ16-247.1.

Discussion

Timing and duration of the magmatism and mineralization

The timing and duration of the magmatic hydrothermal events are crucially important in understanding ore deposits, from both academic and exploration viewpoints (Stein et al. 1997). Based on published zircon U–Pb dating results (Leng et al. 2010) and the Re–Os radiometric ages for molybdenite obtained in this study, as well as detailed geologic mapping and drill core logging data, the ages of ore-bearing porphyries and associated Cu–Mo mineralization in the Gangjiang Cu–Mo deposit are well constrained.

As noted above, the zircon SIMS U–Pb dating results indicate that the quartz monzonite stock was formed at 14.73 ± 0.13 Ma, while the rhyodacite intruded at 12.01 ± 0.29 Ma (Leng et al. 2010). Therefore, it follows that the QMP and QLP were emplaced between 12 and 15 Ma, although no precise radiometric age has been determined for these porphyries. Because the orebodies were cut by the DP dikes and no copper and molybdenum mineralization

has been observed in the DP, it is inferred that the magmatism responsible for the Cu–Mo mineralization could have lasted as long as about 2.7 Ma in the Gangjiang deposit. This is comparable to the duration of porphyry copper formation elsewhere in the GPCB and the central Andes. For example, a range of zircon SHRIMP U–Pb ages from 11.6 ± 0.9 to 16.8 ± 0.8 Ma has been obtained for the multi-phase porphyry intrusions from monzogranite to quartz diorite at the Chongjiang deposit in the GPCB (Hou et al. 2004; Rui et al. 2004; Zheng et al. 2004; Qu et al. 2009). Zircon U–Pb ages of 16.0 ± 0.8 Ma for ore-bearing monzogranite porphyry (Li et al. 2011) and 17.0 ± 0.6 Ma for ore-bearing granodiorite porphyry (Rui et al. 2004) at the Tinggong deposit in the GPCB are relatively older than the bulk-rock K–Ar and $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ ages, which range from 12.9 ± 0.5 to 14.9 ± 0.2 Ma, of biotite from ore-bearing porphyries (Li and Rui 2004; Li et al. 2007). In addition, high-precision U–Pb ages of zircons from multiple intrusive rocks of the Quellaveco porphyry Cu–Mo deposit in southern Peru suggest that the porphyry system has been active intermittently for at least 3.25 Ma (Sillitoe and Mortensen 2010). Therefore, a multiple-phase porphyry system with long life spans could be required for the formation of porphyry copper deposits, especially for giant deposits (Barra et al. 2005; Schütte et al. 2012).

Molybdenite Re–Os dating method has become a powerful tool to constrain the ages of mineralization directly, due to the high Re and low common Os concentrations of molybdenite (Stein et al. 1997). In this study, Re–Os model ages obtained for four molybdenite samples from the ore-bearing porphyries

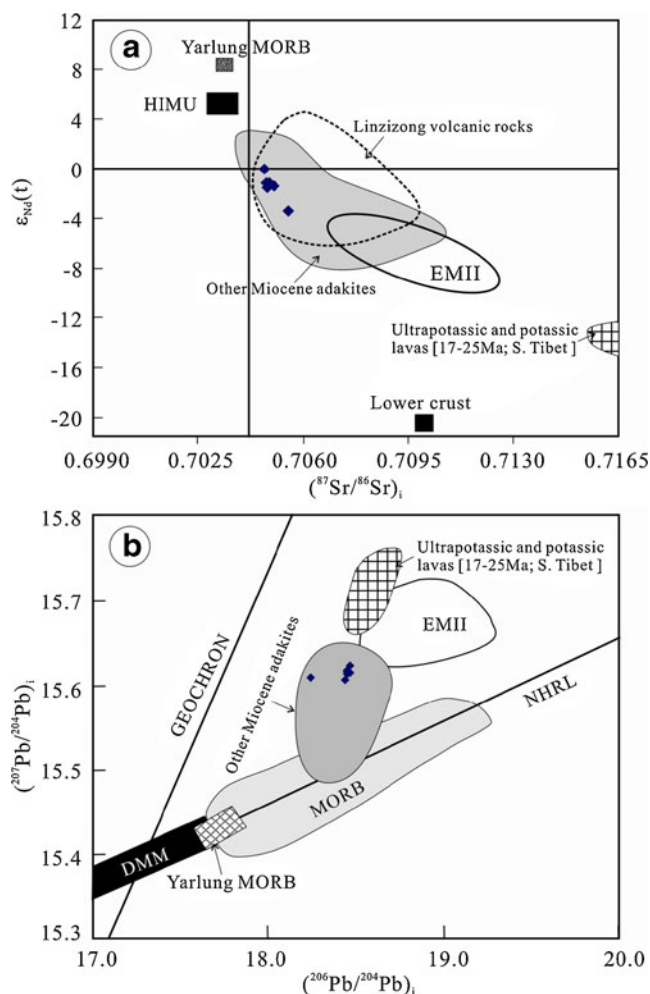


Fig. 6 **a** $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ versus $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ diagram, **b** $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ versus $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ diagram, showing the isotopic signatures for the intrusive rocks from the Gangjiang deposit. Data for the published Miocene porphyries are from Hou et al. (2004), Guo et al. (2007), and Li et al. (2011). Data for Linzizong volcanic rocks are from Zhu et al. (2008) and Mo et al. (2007). Data for ultrapotassic and potassic lavas in southern Tibet are from Turner et al. (1993), Miller et al. (1999), and Ding et al. (2003). Data for Yarlung MORB and Lower crust are from Mahoney et al. (1998) and Miller et al. (1999), respectively. DMM, HIMU and EMII represent three types of mantle end-members (Zinder and Hart 1986)

range from 12.51 to 12.85 Ma. All the Re–Os model ages are significantly younger than that of the quartz monzonite stock, while the youngest Re–Os age of molybdenite (12.51 ± 0.19 Ma) is just slightly older than that of the rhyodacite porphyry. The small difference between the RP U–Pb zircon age and the molybdenite Re–Os age might be caused by an underestimation of the age uncertainty of the U–Pb age. Highly precise and accurate radiometric dating (e.g., Arribas et al. 1995; Marsh et al. 1997) and numerical simulation (e.g., Cathles et al. 1997) studies suggest that a hydrothermal system sustained by single intrusive porphyry lasts only about 0.01 to 1 Ma. In addition, copper and molybdenum contents in the potassic altered QM are generally lower than 0.1 and

0.01 %, respectively, whereas the Cu and Mo contents of orebodies close to the RP (see Fig. 2) are much higher. Therefore, it is proposed that the RP probably played an important role in upgrading the Cu and Mo mineralization of the early potassic altered QM.

Constraints on the magma source

The geochemical features of ore-bearing intrusive rocks in the Gangjiang deposit are in accordance to those of adakite, and are similar to those of other ore-bearing porphyries in the GPCB (e.g., Gao et al. 2003; Hou et al. 2004, 2009; Li et al. 2011). However, the genesis of these adakite-like porphyries in the GPCB is still poorly constrained as their genetic models remain controversial. Three models have been proposed for adakite-like porphyries: partial melting of (1) thickened mafic lower crust (e.g., Chung et al. 2003; Hou et al. 2004), (2) subducted oceanic crust (e.g., Qu et al. 2004), or (3) metasomatized upper mantle by slab-released melts (Gao et al. 2007). All the studied samples show features of high K_2O contents (varying from 2.69 to 3.97 %), high $(^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr})_i$ ratios (from 0.7052 to 0.7059), relative low Mg# (from 24 to 40), and low $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}(t)$ values (from -3.83 to -1.52). They are quite distinct from the geochemical features of adakites derived from the partial melting of subducted oceanic crust (Martin 1999). Compared to potassic and ultrapotassic igneous rocks from this region, which have been shown to be derived from partial melting of the lithospheric mantle (Miller et al. 1999; Williams et al. 2001, 2004), the Gangjiang samples are characterized by lower Ni (mostly <20 ppm) and Cr (mostly <60 ppm) contents (Table 2), lower $(^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr})_i$ ratios and higher $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}(t)$ values (Fig. 6a). Therefore, the first model rather than the latter two models better explains the origin of the ore-bearing porphyries in the Gangjiang district, as also supported by geophysical and geochemical data (cf. Chung et al. 2005, 2009; Hou et al. 2009; and references therein). Likewise, the porphyries in the Gangjiang deposit have Sr–Nd–Pb isotopic compositions which are similar to those of the Linzizong volcanic rocks and other adakite-like porphyries in the GPCB (Fig. 6a). Moreover, these ore-bearing porphyries are characterized by high Sr/Y and La/Yb ratios and low Y and HREE contents. This indicates that these porphyries could be derived from a garnet-bearing amphibolite or eclogite, similar to other adakite-like porphyries in the GPCB. Therefore, the newly formed thickened lower crust, which resulted from magma underplating during the Paleocene–Eocene and the subsequent metamorphism of garnet-bearing amphibolite or eclogite during the period 30–45 Ma, could be a source for these adakite-like porphyries (Hou et al. 2009). Nevertheless, the real genetic link between these adakite-like magmas and the Cu–Mo mineralization is still enigmatic. Hou et al. (2004, 2009) proposed that input of

Table 4 In situ Lu–Hf isotopes of zircon separated from samples GJ16-247.1 and GJ20-208 samples in the Gangjiang porphyry Cu–Mo deposit

Spots	Age ^a (Ma)	¹⁷⁶ Yb/ ¹⁷⁷ Hf	±2σ	¹⁷⁶ Lu/ ¹⁷⁷ Hf	±2σ	¹⁷⁶ Hf/ ¹⁷⁷ Hf	±2σ	ε _{Hf} (<i>t</i>)	<i>T</i> _{DM1} (Ma)	<i>T</i> _{DM2} (Ma)
GJ16-247.1 (quartz monzonite)										
1	14.23	0.01347	0.00007	0.000565	0.000002	0.282873	0.000014	3.89	531	849
2	14.27	0.01057	0.00018	0.000474	0.000007	0.282853	0.000013	3.16	558	896
3	14.93	0.01282	0.00009	0.000572	0.000004	0.282854	0.000018	3.22	558	893
4	14.69	0.01469	0.00029	0.000642	0.000013	0.282868	0.000014	3.72	539	861
5	14.66	0.01406	0.00029	0.000619	0.000010	0.282892	0.000016	4.57	505	806
6	14.74	0.01563	0.00034	0.000619	0.000012	0.282835	0.000014	2.53	586	937
7	14.68	0.01147	0.00009	0.000513	0.000002	0.282876	0.000017	3.98	527	844
8	14.77	0.00963	0.00014	0.000425	0.000006	0.282859	0.000014	3.39	549	882
9	14.47	0.01476	0.00030	0.000625	0.000012	0.282836	0.000015	2.57	584	934
10	14.81	0.00983	0.00004	0.000434	0.000002	0.282863	0.000014	3.53	543	873
11	15.08	0.01421	0.00010	0.000614	0.000003	0.282826	0.000014	2.25	597	955
12	14.70	0.01404	0.00016	0.000612	0.000007	0.282860	0.000014	3.44	550	879
13	15.38	0.01434	0.00003	0.000651	0.000001	0.282838	0.000017	2.67	581	928
14	15.00	0.01709	0.00006	0.000704	0.000002	0.282865	0.000013	3.60	545	868
15	14.51	0.01167	0.00004	0.000519	0.000003	0.282858	0.000014	3.36	551	883
16	14.59	0.00973	0.00011	0.000422	0.000005	0.282859	0.000013	3.39	549	882
GJ20-208 (rhyodacite porphyry)										
1	11.74	0.02223	0.00021	0.000860	0.000010	0.282986	0.000019	7.80	376	596
2 ^b	14.58	0.01402	0.00016	0.000549	0.000005	0.282898	0.000017	4.75	496	794
3 ^b	13.26	0.03230	0.00134	0.001050	0.000035	0.282940	0.000016	6.23	442	698
4 ^b	14.34	0.01707	0.00033	0.000624	0.000011	0.282916	0.000018	5.40	472	753
5	11.80	0.01322	0.00038	0.000513	0.000014	0.282960	0.000018	6.92	408	653
6 ^b	14.57	0.00845	0.00026	0.000320	0.000008	0.282919	0.000017	5.52	463	745
7	12.54	0.02436	0.00056	0.000929	0.000016	0.282937	0.000018	6.10	446	706
8	11.79	0.03198	0.00030	0.001202	0.000010	0.282962	0.000021	7.32	398	627
9	11.79	0.02559	0.00029	0.000964	0.000008	0.282921	0.000020	5.70	466	731
10	12.03	0.03148	0.00040	0.000990	0.000012	0.282954	0.000023	6.46	433	683
11 ^b	55.54	0.03358	0.00150	0.001159	0.000042	0.282972	0.000024	4.47	557	843
12	11.82	0.03941	0.00142	0.001362	0.000046	0.282926	0.000023	6.73	417	665
13 ^b	14.41	0.02959	0.00020	0.001116	0.000006	0.282947	0.000023	5.35	472	755
14 ^c	–	0.05342	0.00022	0.001648	0.000011	0.282866	0.000020	6.96	414	650
15 ^c	–	0.01957	0.00089	0.000694	0.000027	0.282955	0.000020	5.53	468	742
16 ^c	–	0.01256	0.00006	0.000516	0.000002	0.282915	0.000021	6.70	422	667
17 ^c	–	0.03964	0.00042	0.001333	0.000013	0.282958	0.000021	6.83	420	659

^a Denotes the zircon ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U age from Leng et al. (2010). The initial Hf ratios of the analyzed zircon spots were calculated on the basis of the measured ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U age, respectively

^b Zircon grains of other populations

^c ε_{Hf}(*t*) and *T*_{DM2} values were calculated by using a crystallization age of 12.0 Ma based on the cathodoluminescence images of zircon grains

upper mantle components into the lower crust is a key to the metalliferous properties of these adakite-like magmas, because it can contribute Cu and other metals into the magmatic system, although no convincing evidences were provided. Li et al. (2011) argued that this juvenile lower crust could have inherited the characteristics of arc magma with abundant F, Cl, and Cu and a high oxidation state, which contributed to the formation of porphyry deposits in the GPCB. If this is the

case, it is hard to understand why the Paleocene–Eocene intrusions, which were directly derived from the underplated magma, are not associated with Cu–Mo–Au mineralization in the Gangjiang deposit.

Zircon is a resistant and refractory mineral during chemical weathering and partial melting, and can effectively preserve the initial ¹⁷⁶Hf/¹⁷⁷Hf ratios of the igneous host rocks, so their Hf isotopic compositions can be used to trace

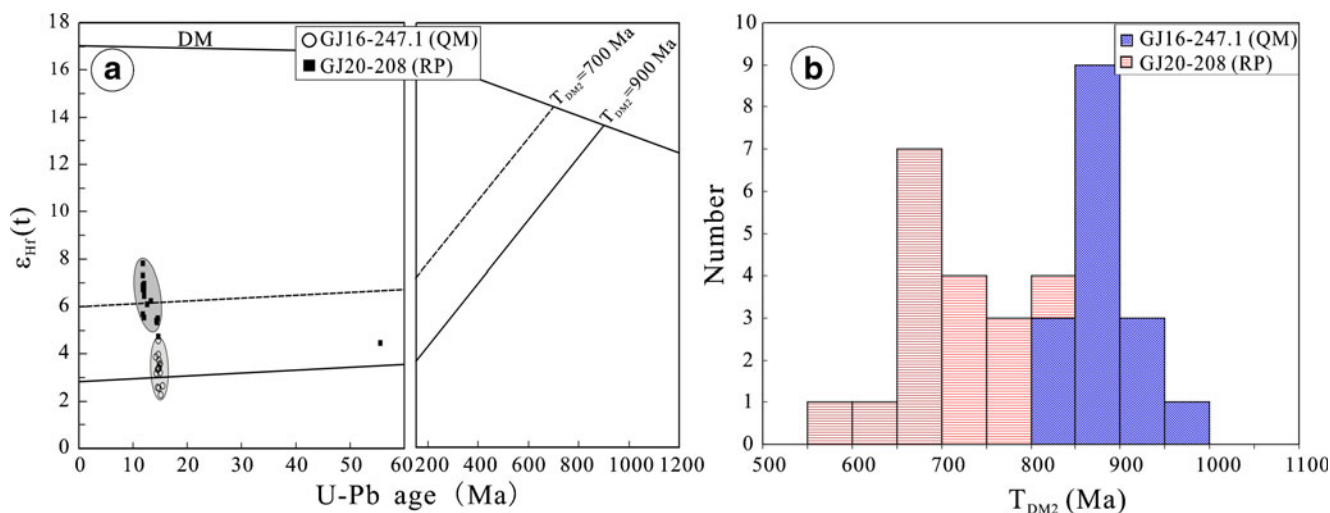


Fig. 7 **a** Plots of $\varepsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values versus U–Pb ages of zircons, **b** histograms of their Hf crustal model ages (T_{DM2})

the magma source (Kinny and Maas 2003). Most studies indicate that zircon Hf isotopic data can be a sensitive and powerful tracer with the potential to provide unique petrogenetic information (Griffin et al. 2002; Hawkesworth and Kemp 2006; Yang et al. 2007). In this study, although the Sr–Nd–Pb isotopic compositions of two ore-bearing porphyries are similar to each other, the Hf isotopic compositions of magmatic zircons from a QM sample (GJ16-247.1), with $\varepsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values ranging from +2.25 to +4.57, are quite different to those, with $\varepsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values varying from +5.53 to +7.81, of zircons from a RP sample (GJ20-208) (Table 4). Moreover, it seems that the zircon $\varepsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values correlate with the emplacement ages, with higher $\varepsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values for the younger RP than those for the older QM stock (Fig. 7a). This elevated radiogenic Hf isotopic feature might be attributed to either the involvement of subducted components (Vervoort and Blichert-Toft 1999; Woodhead et al. 2001; Chauvel et al. 2007) or the input of mantle components (Ji et al. 2009; Mo et al. 2009). If the contribution of subducted sediments in the formation of the magmas increased gradually, the model Hf ages (T_{DM2}) of zircons from the late-formed RP rocks should be older than those of the early-formed QM. However, the measured results do not support this model. Therefore, it is proposed that much more mantle components have contributed to the formation of RP than QM. This suggests that the involvement of mantle components in porphyry formation increased during late stages of magmatism in the Gangjiang igneous complex.

Implications for the tectonic setting of the Gangjiang Cu–Mo deposit

As both the U–Pb ages of zircons and Re–Os ages of molybdenite of ore-bearing porphyries in the Gangjiang deposit are in accordance with the published ages of the post-collision

adakite-like porphyries (10–26 Ma) and K-rich magmatic rocks (8–25 Ma) in the Lhasa Terrane (Miller et al. 1999; Williams et al. 2001, 2004; Ding et al. 2003; Chung et al. 2003, 2009; Hou et al. 2004, 2009), we conclude that this deposit was also formed in a post-subduction collisional setting, similar to other porphyry deposits in the GPCB. Two separate prominent geodynamic models have been put forward to explain the generation of the post-subduction magmas. They are the convective lithospheric thinning (delamination) model (Miller et al. 1999; Williams et al. 2001, 2004; Chung et al. 2005) and the subducted slab break-off model (Maheo et al. 2002; Hou et al. 2004, 2009). Ji et al. (2009) argued that the post-subduction magmatism is 20–30 Ma later than the initiation age of the India–Asia collision, thus its genesis cannot be explained by the slab break-off model. Moreover, a linear belt of the distribution of the post-subduction magmatic rocks with a length of more than 1,000 km is also hard to interpret by this model (Li et al. 2011). In addition, the Hf isotopic compositions of zircons from two-stage ore-bearing porphyries in the Gangjiang deposit indicate that the input of mantle components into the porphyry magma source has increased from 14.7 to 12 Ma. This can be easily explained by the convective lithospheric thinning model, rather than the slab break-off model. Therefore, the convective lithospheric thinning model can be used to explain the generation of the post-subduction ore-bearing adakite-like porphyries of the Gangjiang deposit in the GPCB (e.g., Li et al. 2011). Following the onset of “hard collision” between the Indian and Eurasian plates at ~45 Ma, the continuous northward impingement of the Indian plate should have given rise to significant contraction in the lower part of the Lhasa lithosphere that might have been thermally weakened and “softened” by previous arc magmatism (Chung et al. 2005, 2009). Thus, the juvenile lower crust underwent drastic thickening (≥ 55 km), and then was metamorphosed

into garnet-bearing amphibolite. This high-density lower crust, along with thickened Lhasa lithospheric mantle root, became unstable and began foundering and thinning when the maximum sustainable gravitational load had been reached (Chung et al. 2009). Resultant convective removal of the lower lithosphere root and its replacement by hotter asthenosphere would have raised the geothermal gradient and caused partial melting of the juvenile lower crust to form adakite-like magmas (Chung et al. 2005). Importantly, the upper mantle components either from the lithospheric mantle or the asthenosphere could be inevitably involved in this magmatism, which was accompanied with the convective thinning of the lower lithospheric root. This process has also been proposed by Richards (2009) to decipher the genesis of post-subduction porphyries in collisional settings. Therefore, it is proposed that the Miocene Gangjiang porphyry Cu–Mo deposit (and possibly the Gangdese porphyry copper belt) could be a consequence of the removal of the lithospheric root and the replacement by asthenosphere, following the sudden rise in topography of southern Tibet (Chung et al. 2009).

Conclusions

The Gangjiang porphyry Cu–Mo deposit is a recently discovered deposit in the Gangdese porphyry Cu belt in southern Tibet. Cu and Mo mineralization occurs as disseminations or veins mainly in the overlapping part of the potassic and phyllic alteration zones of quartz monzonite, close to a rhyodacite porphyry stock.

The Re–Os molybdenite ages, along with our previous zircon U–Pb ages indicate that magmatism and Cu–Mo mineralization in the Gangjiang deposit lasted at least about 2.7 and 0.3 Ma, respectively.

The $\varepsilon_{\text{Hf}}(t)$ values of magmatic zircons from the late intraminal rhyodacite porphyry (+5.53 to +7.81) are higher than those (+2.25 to +4.57) of the pre-mineral quartz monzonite. This observation indicates that the mantle contribution in magma formation probably increased from 14.7 to 12.0 Ma.

Based on our study and previous works, we propose that the Miocene Gangjiang deposit (and possibly the Gangdese porphyry copper belt) formed as a consequence of the removal of the lithospheric root, and the input of upper mantle components into the porphyry systems, which may have played a key role in the formation of the porphyry deposit in the Tibetan Orogen.

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