

Magmatic-hydrothermal evolution of the Donggou porphyry Mo deposit at the southern margin of the North China Craton: Evidence from chemistry of biotite

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ABSTRACT

Late Mesozoic granitoids are widespread in the southern margin of the North China Craton (NCC), occurring commonly as both small porphyritic stocks and large batholiths. Most of the Mo deposits are closely associated with small porphyritic bodies. In order to determine the relationship between Mo mineralization and the granitoids, a systematic geochemical study of biotite from the Taishanmiao batholith and the Mo mineralization-associated Donggou porphyry was conducted.

Trace element features of biotites indicate a differentiation trend from rocks of the Taishanmiao batholith to those of the Donggou porphyry, as revealed by systematically decreasing K/Rb ratios, Co, Ba, V and Ti, and increasing Cs, Li, Ta and Tl. The contents of Mo also increase with the degree of magmatic differentiation.

The compositions of biotite follow a trend towards more magnesium-rich compositions, and mostly plot above the NNO buffer. The $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ values of biotite gradually increase from the Taishanmiao batholith to the Donggou porphyry, indicating the progressive increasing $f\text{O}_2$ during magmatic differentiation. The halogen fugacities of magmatic fluids calculated from biotite compositions show a trend of magmatic differentiation. The earlier fluids associated with the Taishanmiao batholith are relatively F-poor with $\log(f\text{HF}/f\text{HCl}) < 0$, whereas the later fluids derived from the Donggou porphyry are relatively F-rich with $\log(f\text{HF}/f\text{HCl}) > 0$. The high degree of melt fractionation and progressive increasing of oxygen fugacity is beneficial to concentrate Mo in the residual melt. In addition, later relatively F-rich fluid may be beneficial to extract Mo from the melt, and thus favorable for Mo mineralization.

1. Introduction

Late Mesozoic granitoid intrusions and Mo deposits are widespread in the southern margin of the North China Craton (NCC) (Mao et al., 2008, 2010). The Mo mineralization occurs inside and/or surrounding the granitoids that are considered to be the main source of molybdenum (Mao et al., 2011; Li et al., 2012a; Yang et al., 2013a, 2015; Gao et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015). Although many granitoids including large batholiths and small porphyritic bodies are geochemically similar, most of Mo deposits are closely associated with small porphyritic bodies.

The close association between Mo mineralization and porphyry may be attributed to either magmatic or hydrothermal processes. Magmatic crystallization can cause deficit of compatible elements and enrichment of incompatible elements in residual melts (Robb, 2005). For example, Mo^{4+} has similar radius to Ti^{4+} with 0.65 and 0.605, respectively

(Candela and Holland, 1986; Tacker and Candela, 1987), and thus Mo may substitute Ti in Fe- and Ti-rich minerals, such as titanite and biotite (Candela and Holland, 1986; Lowenstern et al., 1993). However, Mo^{6+} may be the predominant valence in magmas at $f\text{O}_2$ of Ni/NiO and above, and thus fractional crystallization will result in enrichment of Mo in residual melts (Lowenstern et al., 1993). Moreover, the sulfides may scavenge some Mo from the magma under low oxygen fugacity, whereas such an effect is limited under high oxygen fugacity. In addition, volatiles in magma can lower liquidus and solidus temperatures to promote high degrees of melt fractionation, de-polymerize the melt to stabilize Mo, and decrease viscosity to facilitate residual melt extraction and accumulation in the roof of the magma chamber (Manning, 1981; Tingle and Fenn, 1984; Dingwell, 1989; Keppler, 1993; Lowenstern et al., 1993; Bai and van Groos, 1999).

The halogen composition of fluid has an important influence on the

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migration and enrichment of specific elements (e.g., Keppler and Wyllie, 1991; Zajacz et al., 2008; Li and Zhou, 2015). Keppler and Wyllie (1991) found that the $D_{Mo}^{\text{fluid/melt}}$ was higher in the fluorine-containing system than that in the presence of chloride in experiments. In addition, Gunow et al. (1980) and Carten et al. (1981) proposed that fluorine may be important in the transport of molybdenum in hydrothermal systems and in the enhancement of the partitioning of molybdenum into hydrothermal fluids from silicate melt. Therefore, the abundances and speciation of fluorine and chlorine in magma and fluid are of broad interest in the field of economic geology (Coulson et al., 2001; Rasmussen and Mortensen, 2013; Zhang et al., 2016).

Previous research on Mo deposits and related granitoids in the region focused on geology and geochronology of ore deposits (Mao et al., 2008; Li et al., 2012b; Gao et al., 2013; Han et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2014), fluid inclusion and stable isotope systematics (Yang et al., 2013b, 2015; Chen et al., 2014; Li et al., 2014), and ages and sources of ore-hosting granitoids (Mao et al., 2010; Han et al., 2013; Bao et al., 2014; Gao et al., 2014a,b). Very few studies focus on the behavior of elements, particularly the Mo, in magmatic crystallization and subsequent fluid segregation processes.

Biotite is a common rock-forming mineral in granitoids, containing Ti, F and Cl. Thus, it can be a host mineral of Mo by substituting Ti. In addition, chemical composition of magmatic biotite is sensitive to chemical and physical factors associated with early magmatic through to subsequent hydrothermal stages (Abdel-Rahman, 1994; Siahcheshm et al., 2012). The classical experimental work of Wones and Eugster (1965) clearly showed that this mineral is a valuable indicator of redox conditions in granitic magmas. Wones and Eugster (1965) and Munoz (1984) also showed that the Fe/(Fe + Mg) ratio of biotite reflects the oxygen fugacity of the system, which should have a critical control on the partition behavior of Mo. In addition, in muscovite- and fluorite-free granitoid rocks, biotite contains between 70 and 90% of the F and Cl in the hydroxyl site with the remainders in apatite, amphibole and titanite (Speer, 1984), thus recording the fluorine and chlorine activities within magmas or aqueous fluids (Zhu and Sverjensky, 1991). Therefore, compositions of biotite were widely used to constrain the oxygen fugacity in magma and the halogen composition of the fluids in many types of deposits, such as porphyry Cu (Mo, Au) deposits (Selby and Nesbitt, 2000; Idrus et al., 2007; Ayati et al., 2008; Siahcheshm et al., 2012), intrusion-related Au deposits (Coulson et al., 2001; Yang and Lentz, 2005), and W (Mo, Cu) deposits (van Middelaar and Keith, 1990; Rasmussen and Mortensen, 2013; Zhang et al., 2016).

The Donggou porphyry Mo deposit is one of the largest Mo deposits in this region, containing 0.71 Mt Mo (metal) with an average grade of 0.113% (Li et al., 2007), and is spatially associated with the Taishanmiao batholiths and the Donggou porphyry. Although the Donggou deposit was commonly considered to be spatially and genetically related to the Donggou porphyry (Ye et al., 2006; Dai et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2015), it is still controversial whether the Donggou porphyry and Mo deposit are genetically related to the slightly older Taishanmiao batholiths (Ye et al., 2006; Dai et al., 2009; Huang et al., 2009). Biotite is a common mineral in both the Taishanmiao granitic batholiths and the Donggou porphyry, thus the trace elemental compositions of biotite could be used to study the behavior of Mo during magma differentiation. In this study, we conducted a systematic geochemical investigation of biotite from the Taishanmiao batholith and the Donggou porphyry, aiming to investigate the partition behavior of trace elements in biotite during magma crystallization, as well as halogen and oxygen fugacity in the magmatic-hydrothermal systems.

2. Geological setting

The Donggou porphyry Mo deposit is located in the Waifangshan area of the southern margin of the NCC. The southern margin of the NCC is generally bounded by the Sanmenxia-Lushan fault to the north and the Luonan-Luanchuan fault to the south (Fig. 1a). The main

outcrop strata in the region are the Archean to Paleoproterozoic crystalline basement and the overlying late Paleoproterozoic to Phanerozoic unmetamorphosed cover sequence.

The crystalline basement is represented by the Taihua Group (2.26–2.84 Ga), which is composed of metamorphic rocks, such as amphibolite, felsic gneiss, migmatite, and metamorphosed supracrustal rocks (Kröner et al., 1988; Wan et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2009). The Xionger Group (1.75–1.78 Ga) is composed of mainly intermediate to acidic lavas and pyroclastic rocks intercalated with minor sedimentary rocks (< 5%), covering an area of > 60,000 km² (Zhao et al., 2004). The Xionger Group is unconformably overlain by Meso-Neoproterozoic sedimentary rocks of the Guandaokou and Luanchuan Groups that are composed mainly of carbonaceous carbonate-shale-chert. No Paleozoic-Jurassic strata can be observed in the southern margin of the NCC. Since the beginning of the Cretaceous, lacustrine or alluvial sediments began to develop in the region (Gao et al., 2014a,b).

Late Jurassic to Cretaceous magmatism characterizes the southern margin of the NCC and resulted in numerous granitoid intrusions such as the Huashan, Heyu and Taishanmiao batholiths, and Jinduicheng, Nannihu, Shangfanggou and Donggou porphyries. They emplaced in two episodes, including the Jurassic-Early Cretaceous (158 ± 3–136 ± 2 Ma) and the Early Cretaceous (134 ± 1–108 ± 2 Ma, Mao et al., 2010).

The southern margin of the NCC is one of the most important Mo ore provinces in China, with a total reserve of ca. 6 Mt Mo metal (Chen et al., 2009; Mao et al., 2011). Most of the molybdenum deposits occur as porphyry or porphyry-skarn type, and there are also minor vein type deposits. There are three pulses of Mo mineralization in the Mesozoic: 233–221 Ma, 148–138 Ma and 131–112 Ma (Mao et al., 2008), and the latter two stages of mineralization are mainly associated with porphyritic intrusions.

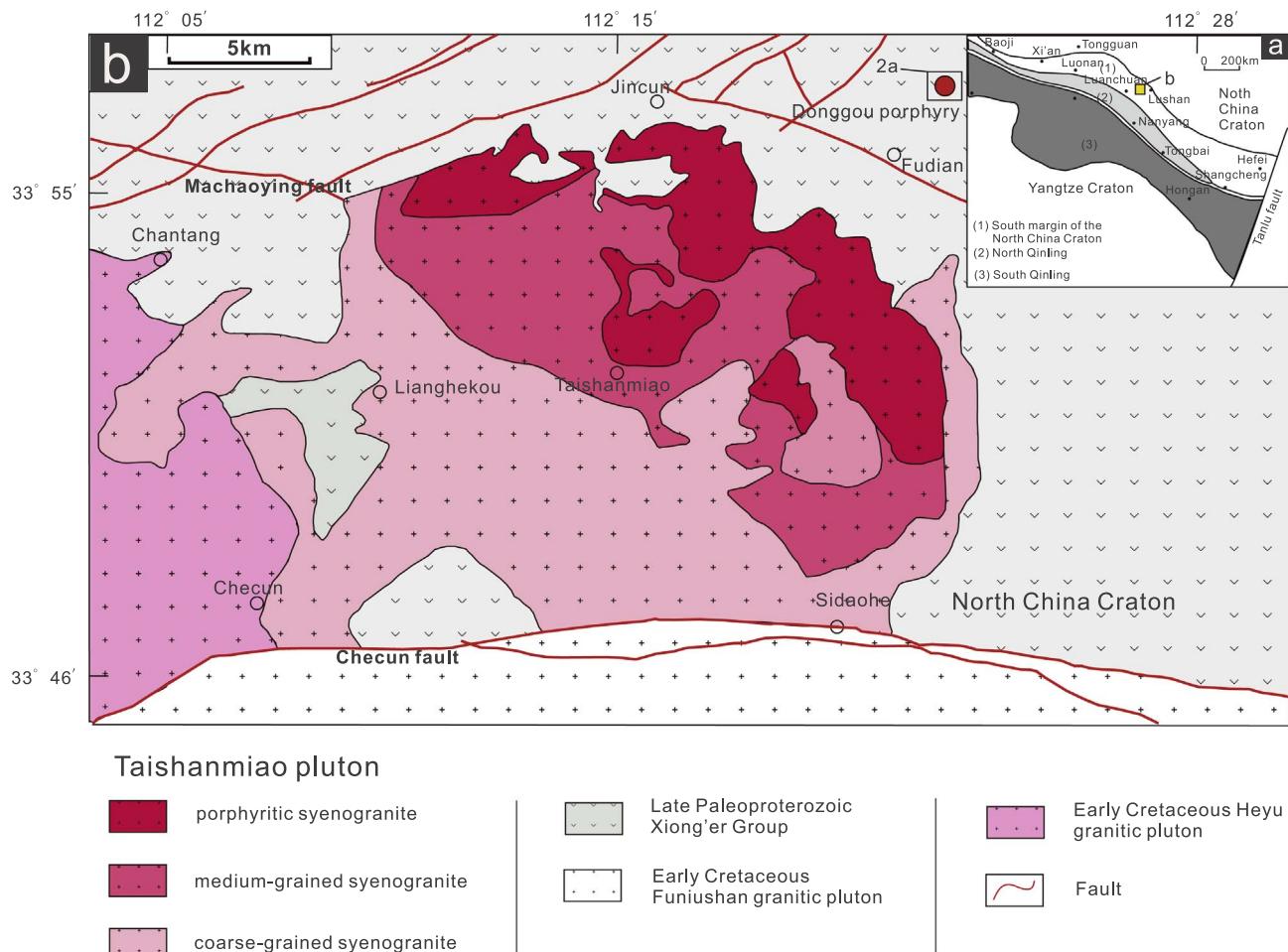
3. Field relationships and petrography

The Taishanmiao batholith, covering an area of 290 km², is one of the largest batholiths located along the southern margin of the NCC (Fig. 1b). It intruded the Paleoproterozoic Xionger Group (1.75–1.78 Ga; Zhao et al., 2004) to the northeast and the early Cretaceous Heyu granitic pluton (148–134 Ma; Gao et al., 2010; Li et al., 2012a) to the west, and is bounded by the Checun fault to the south. Based on field occurrences, the Taishanmiao batholith can be divided into three groups as follows.

Group I, covering an area of 155 km², is coarse-grained syenogranite distributed in the southwest of the pluton. It consists of K-feldspar (45%–65%), plagioclase (10%–15%), quartz (25%–30%) and biotite (1%–5%), and accessory minerals including zircon, apatite, titanite and magnetite. The magmatic biotites are texturally euhedral to subhedral, with yellow-brown to green color and ranging in size from 0.4 to 2 mm (Fig. 3a). The zircon U-Pb ages of this phase vary from 131 to 121 Ma, with a weighted mean age of 125 ± 2 Ma (Gao et al., 2014a,b), which is consistent with the zircon U-Pb age of 125 ± 1 Ma by Wang et al. (2016).

Group II is medium-grained syenogranite, intruding into the Group I and covering an area of 78 km². It is composed of K-feldspar (35%–50%), plagioclase (10%–20%), quartz (35%) and biotite (3%), and accessory minerals such as zircon, apatite, titanite and magnetite. The magmatic biotites (0.3–1.5 mm) are euhedral to subhedral, with yellow-brown color and contain mineral inclusions of zircon and apatite (Fig. 3b). The zircons yield the U-Pb ages from 122 to 120 Ma (Qi, 2014), which is consistent with the zircon U-Pb ages (121 ± 1 Ma) by Wang et al. (2016).

Group III is porphyritic syenogranite in the northern part with an outcrop area of 56 km². The phenocrysts (20%) are mainly composed of quartz and perthite, while the matrix consists of fine-grained quartz, K-feldspar and minor plagioclase. The mafic mineral is mainly composed of minor biotite, and accessory minerals include zircon, apatite,



magnetite and fluorite. The biotites (0.5–1 mm) are euhedral to subhedral, with yellow-brown to green color (Fig. 3c). Qi (2014) reported the zircon U-Pb ages from 122 to 120 Ma. Based on zircon U-Pb ages, Group II is younger than Group I, but slightly older than Group III.

The Donggou granite porphyry is located about 7 km to the northeast of the Taishanmiao batholith, with an outcrop area of only $\sim 0.01 \text{ km}^2$ (Fig. 2a). It is composed of phenocrysts of quartz, plagioclase and K-feldspar with minor biotite and accessory minerals such as magnetite, titanite, zircon and rutile. The biotites are euhedral to subhedral, 0.15–0.3 mm in length with extensive chlorite alterations. Only fresh biotite minerals were selected for geochemical analyses, especially the grains enclosed in quartz (Fig. 3d). The porphyry has LA-ICP-MS zircon U-Pb ages of $118.4 \pm 0.9 \text{ Ma}$ to $117.1 \pm 0.6 \text{ Ma}$ (Yang et al., 2013a).

The Donggou porphyry Mo deposit is spatially and genetically associated with the Donggou granite porphyry. The main Mo orebody occurs in contact zones between the porphyry and wall rocks of the Xiong'er Group, with a small part of the ore bodies within the altered porphyry (Fig. 2b). The main ore minerals are molybdenite, pyrite, chalcopyrite, galena and sphalerite. Molybdenite mainly occurs as disseminations and stockworks and is intergrown with some fluorite in the quartz–molybdenite veinlets. The main gangue minerals are quartz, feldspar, epidote, beryl, sericite, chlorite, fluorite and calcite. Hydrothermal alteration is typical of porphyry-type alteration, including potassio alteration, phyllitic alteration, propylitization, carbonation and fluoritization. Re–Os isotopic analyses on molybdenite from the Donggou deposit yielded ages of 114–116 Ma (Mao et al., 2008; Ye et al., 2006).

4. Sampling and analytical methods

Biotites in three samples from each groups of the Taishanmiao batholith and the Donggou porphyry were collected and prepared for chemical analyses by electron probe microanalysis (EPMA) at the Guangzhou Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences (GIGCAS). The polished thin sections are selected carefully under the optical microscope. The analyses were conducted in wavelength-dispersion mode on a JXA JEOL-8230 probe, with a 15 kV accelerating voltage, 20 nA beam current, 1 μm beam diameter, and 20 s peak counting time for most elements (10 s for K, Na, F and Cl; 40 s for Ti and Mn). The data reduction was done using ZAF correction. Formula calculation of biotite is based on 22 atoms of oxygen by the EMPA data. The Fe^{3+} in biotite is calculated according to Dymek (1983).

The biotite grains were analyzed by laser ablation-inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS) at Nanjing FocuMS Technology Company Limited. Teledyne Cetac Technologies Analyte Excite laser-ablation system (Bozeman, Montana, USA) and Agilent Technologies 7700x quadrupole ICP-MS (Hachioji, Tokyo, Japan) were combined for the experiments. The 193 nm ArFexcimer laser, homogenized by a set of beam delivery systems, was focused on mineral surface with fluence of 6.0 J/cm^2 . The laser spot size was $40 \mu\text{m}$, with a laser repetition rate of 7 Hz. Each analysis includes a $\sim 15 \text{ s}$ background acquisition followed by 40 s data acquisition from the sample. Helium was applied as carrier gas to efficiently transport aerosol to ICP-MS. The SiO_2 content of each spot measured by EPMA was used with an internally-standardized data reduction scheme (Appendix Table A). Data reduction methods can be found in Liu et al. (2008). The BHVO-2G and

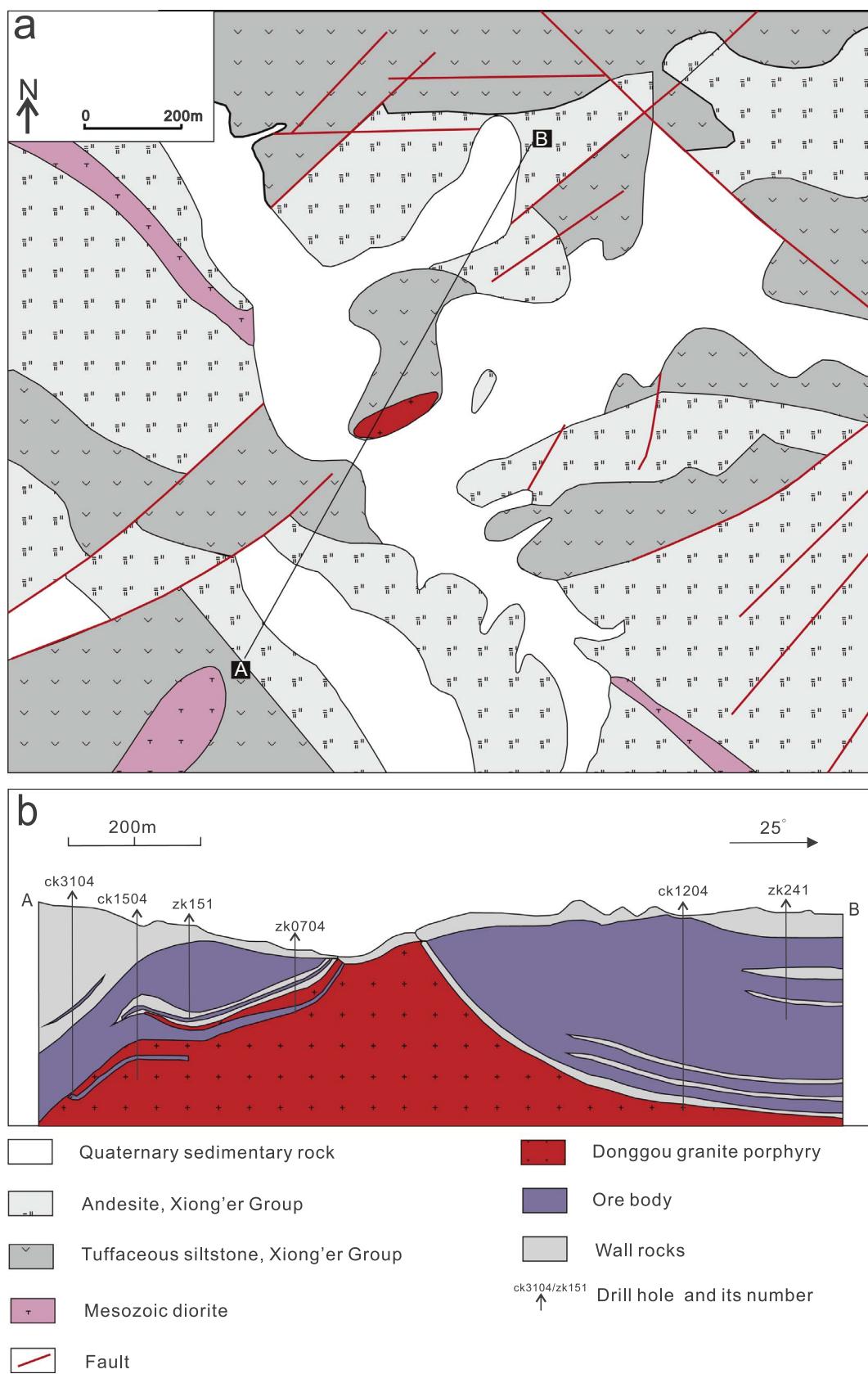


Fig. 2. (a) Simplified geological map of the Donggou Mo deposit (modified from Ye et al., 2006); (b) sketch of geological profile along A-B in Fig. 2a (modified from Fu et al., 2006).

GSE-1G glass were used as the reference material in order to confirm the precision and accuracy of the results of the LA-ICP-MS analysis. The relative standard deviations (%RSD) for the most of trace elements in

BHVO-2G and GSE-1G are lower than 4% (see Appendix Table B). The relative deviations for trace elements in them are generally within 8% (see Appendix Table B).

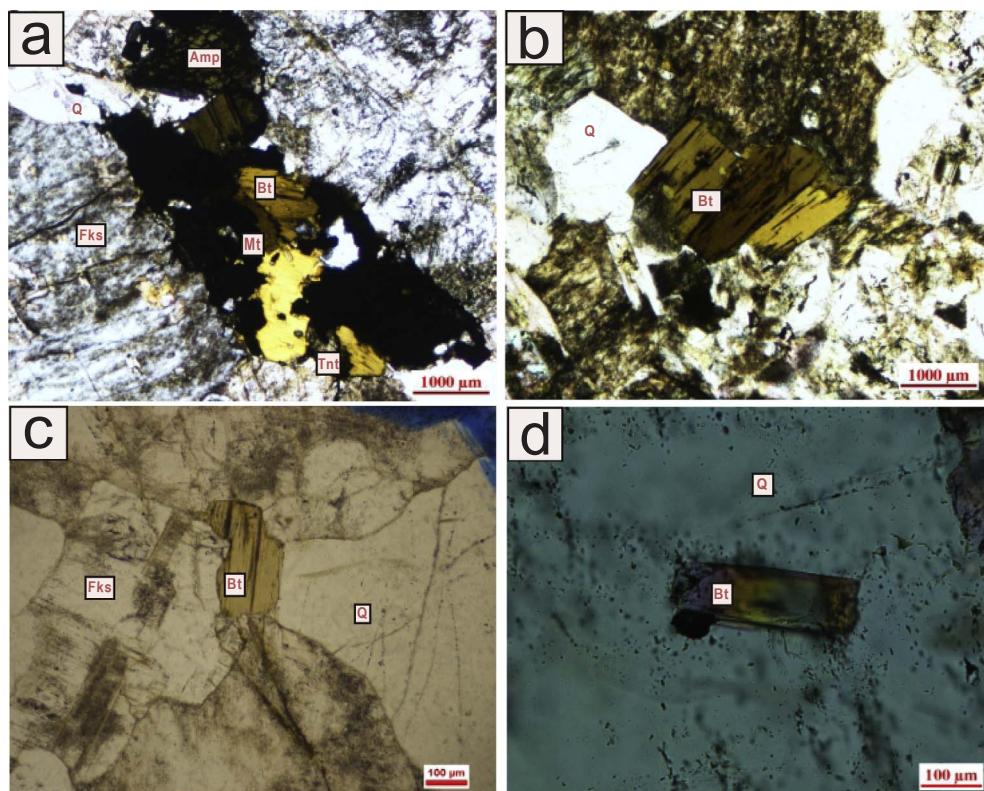


Fig. 3. Photomicrographs of biotite in Taishanmiao and Donggou plutons. (a) biotite associated with subhedral titanite, magnetite, amphibole, alkali feldspar and quartz in Group I. (b) biotite from Group II. (c) fresh magmatic biotite intergrown with alkali feldspar and quartz in Group III. (d) magmatic biotite included in quartz from Donggou porphyry. Abbreviations: Bt: biotite; Mt: magnetite; Tnt: titanite; Kfs: alkali feldspar; Amp: amphibole; Q: quartz.

5. Biotite geochemistry

5.1. Biotite classification

Only euhedral to subhedral biotites are chosen for analyses, which are most likely the primary magmatic biotites relative to the ragged secondary biotites (Rasmussen and Mortensen, 2013). In addition, TiO_2 contents can be used to distinguish primary biotite from secondary ones, because Ti content of biotite is thermally controlled (Stussi and Cuney, 1996; Patiño Douce and Harris, 1998). The biotites in this study are enriched in TiO_2 (average 2.16–3.78 wt%) (Table 1), which are similar to the magmatic biotite documented by Rasmussen and Mortensen (2013) and Zhang et al. (2016) (1.18–4.82 wt% and 1.76–4.55 wt%, respectively). According to the classification scheme of International Mineralogical Association (IMA) (Rieder et al., 1998), the trioctahedral biotites in the studied granitoids plot close to annite-phlogopite boundary, with the $\text{Fe}/(\text{Fe} + \text{Mg})$ ratios vary from 0.38 to 0.65 (Fig. 4a). The MgO and $\text{Fe}/(\text{Fe} + \text{Mg})$ in biotite from inter- and intra-intrusion have a good linear relation, and the chemical compositions vary systematically from Fe-rich biotite in the Taishanmiao batholith to Mg-rich biotite in the Donggou porphyry (Fig. 4b).

5.2. Trace-element characteristics

The K/Rb ratios of biotite decrease gradually from Group I (60.3–227, ave. 129), through Group II (59.8–156, ave. 91.5) and Group III (45.9–60.7, ave. 53.1), to Donggou porphyry (29.4–55.5, ave. 46.9) (Table 2, Appendix Table C, Fig. 5). The compatible elements ($D_{\text{minerals/melt}} > 1$ in felsic melts), Co (4.59–64.5 ppm), Ba (12.4–12088 ppm), V (5.62–183 ppm), and Ti (as TiO_2 , 2.03–4.36%) decrease gradually from coarse-grained syenogranite (Group I), through medium-grained syenogranite (Group II), to porphyritic syenogranite (Group III) and the Donggou granite porphyry, while the incompatible elements ($D_{\text{minerals/melt}} < 1$ in felsic melts), Cs (1.29–167 ppm), Li (242–2118 ppm), Ta (1.55–52.1 ppm) and Tl (2.06–30.0 ppm) show a

reversed distribution pattern and increase continuously. Mo is enriched in the Donggou porphyry (3.18–12.0 ppm) relative to the Taishanmiao batholith (0.20–4.74 ppm). Concentrations of W (0–1.64 ppm) increase gradually, whereas variations of Zn (370–1517 ppm) and Pb (2.95–60.6 ppm) are independent of K/Rb (Fig. 5, Table 2). However, biotite from the Donggou porphyry has the highest Zn and Pb contents.

6. Biotite halogen chemistry

In muscovite- and fluorite-free granitoid rocks, 70–90% of the F resides in biotite (Grabezkev et al., 1979), with the remainder in apatite and titanite (Speer, 1984). The F contents of biotite increase gradually from Group I (0.06–0.87%, ave. 0.36%), through Group II (1.19–1.47%, ave. 1.34%) and Group III (0.62–2.62%, ave. 1.86%), to the Donggou porphyry (3.59–3.75%, ave. 3.70%) (Fig. 6a and b). Relative to F, most biotites have lower Cl contents, which occupy the OH site, with $\text{Cl}/(\text{OH} + \text{F} + \text{Cl})$ greater than 0.1 for only a few biotites (Muñoz, 1984). The Cl contents of biotites from three Groups in the Taishanmiao batholith are similar, 0.15% on average. However, the Cl contents of biotites in the Donggou porphyry are much lower (ave. 0.05%) (Fig. 6c). Biotite with high X_{Mg} incorporates more F compared to biotite with lower X_{Mg} values (Fig. 6a), a crystal-chemical effect referred to as Fe-F avoidance principle (Muñoz, 1984).

The fluorine intercept [IV(F)], chlorine intercept [IV(Cl)], and F/Cl intercept [IV(F/Cl)] values are important physicochemical parameters to describe the relative degree of halogen enrichment in biotite. These values are defined by Muñoz (1984) as:

$$\text{IV}(F) = 1.52X_{\text{phl}} + 0.42X_{\text{ann}} + 0.20X_{\text{sid}} - \log(X_F/X_{\text{OH}})$$

$$\text{IV}(Cl) = -5.01 - 1.93X_{\text{phl}} - \log(X_{\text{Cl}}/X_{\text{OH}})$$

$$\text{IV}(F/Cl) = \text{IV}(F) - \text{IV}(Cl)$$

where $X_{\text{phl}} = \text{Mg}/\text{sum of octahedral cations}$; $X_{\text{sid}} = [(3 - \text{Si}/\text{Al})/1.75] (1 - X_{\text{phl}})$; $X_{\text{ann}} = 1 - (X_{\text{sid}} + X_{\text{phl}})$. The smaller intercept value represents higher degree of halogen enrichment in biotites.

Table 1

Average chemical compositions of biotite from the felsic intrusive rocks around the Donggou Porphyry Mo deposit analyzed by electron probe microanalysis (EMPA).

Sample	Group I	Group II	Group III	Donggou granite porphyry
No. of samples	3	3	3	3
No. analyzed spots	19	16	17	12
	ave.	ave.	ave.	ave.
T(K)	1021	1036	1037	1020
Na ₂ O	0.18	0.21	0.19	0.14
Al ₂ O ₃	11.89	12.56	12.64	12.64
K ₂ O	9.38	9.46	9.29	9.88
SiO ₂	36.85	37.23	37.72	39.01
MnO	0.57	0.66	0.70	1.61
MgO	9.27	12.32	12.20	13.52
CaO	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.00
FeO	23.45	18.71	19.37	15.62
TiO ₂	3.53	3.48	2.34	2.23
F	0.45	1.39	2.24	3.48
Cl	0.14	0.15	0.14	0.05
F=O	0.26	0.80	1.30	2.01
Cl=O	0.11	0.12	0.11	0.04
H ₂ O(wt%)	3.59	3.41	3.18	2.90
total	99.10	98.96	99.07	99.59
<i>Atom numbers calculated based on 22 (O)</i>				
Si	5.73	5.68	5.76	5.86
Al ^{IV}	2.18	2.26	2.20	2.14
<i>T-site</i>				
Al ^{VI}	0.00	0.00	0.08	0.10
Ti	0.41	0.40	0.27	0.25
Fe ³⁺	0.44	0.48	0.51	0.51
Fe ²⁺	2.62	1.91	1.97	1.46
Mn	0.08	0.09	0.09	0.20
Mg	2.14	2.80	2.77	3.03
<i>M-site</i>				
Na	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.04
K	1.86	1.84	1.81	1.89
Ca	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
<i>A-site</i>				
F	0.13	0.40	0.64	0.99
Cl	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.01
OH	3.84	3.57	3.33	3.00
Fe ³⁺ /Fe ²⁺	0.18	0.25	0.26	0.35
X _{Mg}	0.41	0.54	0.53	0.61
X _{sid}	0.12	0.13	0.13	0.09
X _{ann}	0.46	0.33	0.35	0.31
IV(F)	2.47	1.94	1.71	1.55
IV(Cl)	-3.66	-4.00	-3.97	-3.64
log(fH ₂ O/fHF)	4.80	4.18	4.00	3.82
log(fH ₂ O/fHCl)	3.76	3.58	3.60	4.05
log(fHF/fHCl)	-1.05	-0.60	-0.40	0.23

Notes: OH is calculated by OH = 4 - (Cl + F). Intercept values IV(F) and IV(Cl) and halogen fugacity are calculated by Munoz (1984). T_{zr} were calculated by Watson and Harrison (1983).

Biotite compositions from the Taishanmiao batholith and the Donggou porphyry are shown in Fig. 6d, plotted with respect to IV(F) vs. IV(F/Cl). The diagram shows a positive correlation, with the lowest IV(F) value of biotite in the Donggou porphyry. Loferski and Ayuso (1995) proposed that the decrease of IV(F) values might be caused by crystal fractionation during which F concentrates in the late magmatic stage. In X_{Mg} vs. log(F/OH), and X_{Mg} vs. log(Cl/OH) plots, they also have a liner trend (Fig. 6b and c). In the IV(F)-IV(F/Cl) diagram (Fig. 6d), biotites from the Donggou porphyry have more remarkable F enrichments, which is similar to that of the other Porphyry Mo deposits.

7. Halogen fugacity of associated fluids

The contents of fluorine and chlorine in biotite have been used to calculate halogen fugacity of associated magma or fluids (Loferski and Ayuso, 1995; Yang and Lentz, 2005; Idrus et al., 2007; Ayati et al., 2008; Siahcheshm et al., 2012; Rasmussen and Mortensen, 2013; Zhang

et al., 2016). The fugacity ratios were calculated using the equations of Munoz (1992), which are based on the revised coefficients for F-Cl-OH partitioning between biotite and hydrothermal fluids (Zhu and Sverjensky, 1991, 1992). These equations are:

$$\log(f\text{H}_2\text{O}/f\text{HF})^{\text{fluid}} = 1000/\text{T}(2.37 + 1.1X_{\text{phl}}) + 0.43 - \log(X_{\text{F}}/X_{\text{OH}})^{\text{biotite}}$$

$$\log(f\text{H}_2\text{O}/f\text{HCl})^{\text{fluid}} = 1000/\text{T}(1.15 - 0.55X_{\text{phl}}) + 0.68 - \log(X_{\text{Cl}}/X_{\text{OH}})^{\text{biotite}}$$

$$\log(f\text{HF}/f\text{HCl})^{\text{fluid}} = -1000/\text{T}(1.22 + 1.65X_{\text{phl}}) + 0.25 + \log(X_{\text{F}}/X_{\text{Cl}})^{\text{biotite}}$$

where X_F, X_{Cl}, and X_{OH} are the mole fractions of F, Cl, and OH in the hydroxyl site of the biotite, and T is the temperature in Kelvin of the halogen exchange. For the temperature, we use the zircon-saturation temperatures.

The zircon saturation temperatures of the Taishanmiao batholith and Donggou porphyry vary from 716 to 799 °C (Table 1) (Gao et al., 2014a,b). The calculated log(fH₂O/fHCl), log(fH₂O/fHF), and log(fHF/fHCl) ratios of magmatic fluids in equilibrium with magmas are shown in Fig. 7. The log(fHF/fHCl) increases gradually from Group I (-1.94 to -0.58, ave. -1.19), through Group II (-0.64 to -0.43, ave. -0.57) and Group III (-1.06 to -0.31, ave. -0.47), to Donggou porphyry (-0.05 to 0.17, ave. 0.07), whereas the log(fH₂O/fHF) decreases from Group I (4.51–5.45, ave. 4.94), through Group II (4.16–4.24, ave. 4.20) and Group III (3.86–4.61, ave. 4.06), to Donggou porphyry (3.79–3.81, ave. 3.80). The log(fH₂O/fHCl) ranges from 3.48 to 4.04, with the highest values in the biotites from the Donggou porphyry.

8. Discussion

8.1. The relationship between the Taishanmiao batholith and Donggou porphyry

It has long been controversial whether the Donggou porphyry is genetically related to the slightly older Taishanmiao batholiths (Ye et al., 2006; Dai et al., 2009; Huang et al., 2009).

The decrease in K/Rb ratios in biotite has previously been regarded as an index of magmatic differentiation (Zhang et al., 2016). As mentioned above, the K/Rb ratios, compatible elements (Co, Ba, V and Ti) and incompatible elements (Cs, Li, Ta and Ti) of biotite decrease or increase gradually from the coarse-grained syenogranite (Group I), through the medium-grain syenogranite (Group II), to the porphyritic syenogranite (Group III) and the Donggou porphyry. These geochemical characteristics indicate a magma evolution trend from Group I rocks, through Group II, to Group III and the Donggou porphyry (Fig. 5). The result is also proved by the major and trace-element data of the whole rocks, with decreasing TiO₂, FeO*, MgO, P₂O₅, Ba and V, and increasing Mo, Rb and SiO₂ from Group I, through Group II and Group III, to Donggou porphyry (Ye et al., 2008; and our unpublished data). In addition, the ε_{Nd(t)} and ε_{Hf(t)} of the Donggou porphyry are -13.2 to -17.3 and -3.4 to -19.9, respectively, similar to those of the Taishanmiao batholith (Dai et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2013a; Gao et al., 2014b; Wang et al., 2016).

It is notable that the zircon U-Pb ages of the Taishanmiao batholith and Donggou porphyry vary from 125 to 120 Ma and 118 to 117 Ma, respectively (Gao et al., 2014b; Qi, 2014; Wang et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2013a). The age of the Donggou porphyry is about ca. 3 Ma later than that of the Group III of the Taishanmiao batholith. Many geochronological studies of volcanic and plutonic rocks suggest that magmatic system may be long-lived, on the order of > 10⁵ to > 10⁶ years (Walker et al., 2007 and reference therein). Brown and McClelland (2000) suggested the crystallization periods can last as much as 8 Ma for individual batholiths, a likely consequence of construction by episodic pulses of magma. In addition, the geophysical data indicate that the Taishanmiao batholith is connected with the Donggou porphyry in deep level (Ye et al., 2006). Thus, we consider that the Donggou porphyry is a branch of the Taishanmiao batholith.

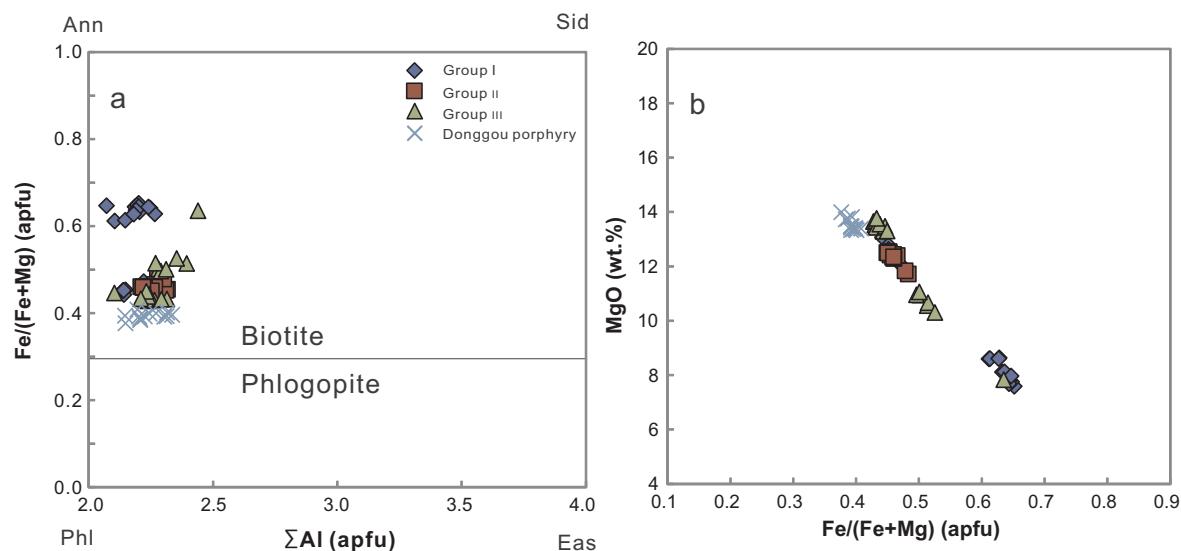


Fig. 4. Chemical compositional diagrams of biotite from the Taishanmiao batholith and Donggou porphyry. (a) $\text{Fe}/(\text{Fe} + \text{Mg}) - \Sigma\text{Al}$ (apfu) (apfu = atoms per formula unit) diagram after Rieder et al. (1998), (b) diagram of MgO (wt%) vs. $\text{Fe}/(\text{Fe} + \text{Mg})$ (apfu).

In summary, both geochemical and geochronological data suggest that the Donggou porphyry is a highly differentiated product of the Taishanmiao batholith.

8.2. Metallogenetic implication

8.2.1. Variations of oxygen fugacity and metal concentrations during magmatic differentiation

The link between the oxidation state of granitoids and metallic

mineralization is well-known (Candela, 1992; Hedenquist and Lowenstern, 1994; Ballard et al., 2002; Mungall, 2002). Formation of Mo porphyries or Mo-bearing granites are usually associated with oxidized magmas (Blevin and Chappell, 1992; Li et al., 2012c; Sun et al., 2015), whereas W-Sn deposits are related to reduced magmas (Lehmann and Mahawat, 1989; Lehmann, 1990; Blevin and Chappell, 1992; Mengason et al., 2011).

The compositions of biotite from the Taishanmiao batholith and Donggou porphyry are plotted mostly above the nickel-nickel oxide

Table 2

Average contents of trace elements in biotite from the felsic intrusive rocks around the Donggou Porphyry Mo deposit analyzed by laser ablation-inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS).

	Group I			Group II			Group III			Donggou granite porphyry		
	ave.	Int2SE	LOD	ave.	Int2SE	LOD	ave.	Int2SE	LOD	ave.	Int2SE	LOD
<i>wt%</i>												
TiO ₂	3.70	0.10	7.66E-04	3.49	0.17	4.37E-04	2.35	0.06	2.90E-04	2.19	0.06	2.94E-04
Al ₂ O ₃	12.4	0.22	1.49E-04	13.1	0.26	1.84E-04	12.8	0.23	2.14E-04	12.91	0.57	3.09E-04
FeO	22.9	0.87	8.99E-03	19.1	1.28	5.91E-03	19.1	0.68	4.51E-03	15.75	0.66	4.89E-03
MnO	0.68	0.03	2.48E-04	0.67	0.06	2.84E-04	0.68	0.03	2.30E-04	1.31	0.02	2.58E-04
MgO	9.77	0.31	1.99E-04	12.4	0.54	3.30E-04	12.7	0.31	3.53E-04	13.79	0.21	4.64E-04
CaO	0.01	0.01	6.25E-02	0.02	0.03	6.87E-02	0.01	0.01	5.74E-02	0.05	0.02	6.12E-02
NaO	0.20	0.01	2.12E-03	0.20	0.02	2.56E-03	0.17	0.01	2.22E-03	0.14	0.00	3.01E-03
K ₂ O	9.37	0.40	1.48E-03	8.82	0.55	1.67E-03	8.57	0.31	1.36E-03	9.11	0.22	2.24E-03
<i>ppm</i>												
Li	496	19.8	1.84	696	55.3	1.78	1084	37.9	1.56	1548	16.8	1.96
Sc	20.8	0.68	0.87	43.5	1.87	0.84	41.6	1.23	0.57	69.2	2.08	0.91
V	81.6	2.65	0.31	55.3	3.76	0.21	10.4	0.82	0.15	15.7	2.08	0.18
Cr	6.99	1.95	6.39	26.4	5.07	9.17	14.1	2.00	8.30	133	18.2	7.63
Co	41.7	1.69	0.08	38.1	2.25	0.05	26.5	0.96	0.05	18.6	0.70	0.06
Ni	5.14	0.55	1.58	20.2	1.63	1.01	4.35	0.42	0.97	9.67	0.81	1.12
Zn	762	32.1	6.27	550	36.4	4.25	519	23.0	3.20	1178	49.2	3.70
Ga	66.9	2.87	0.19	59.6	3.40	0.19	60.2	2.29	0.15	118	4.19	0.19
Rb	762	31.1	0.13	868	52.4	0.14	1347	68.2	0.08	1657	38.7	0.21
Nb	136	4.70	0.02	157	9.00	0.00	198	7.02	0.00	326	24.4	0.00
Mo	0.64	0.12	0.04	1.20	0.23	0.05	1.33	0.20	0.00	8.26	0.92	0.02
Sn	5.60	0.42	1.71	9.90	1.00	1.49	22.3	0.94	1.50	22.2	0.91	1.82
Cs	6.37	0.44	0.02	5.05	0.35	0.04	17.8	1.72	0.05	55.4	1.81	0.09
Ba	3863	63.7	0.30	845	35.2	0.08	137	3.57	0.08	44.0	7.66	0.07
Ta	2.51	0.13	0.06	2.43	0.21	0.01	12.5	0.42	0.00	31.8	1.53	0.01
W	0.21	0.07	0.08	0.28	0.09	0.10	0.48	0.09	0.06	1.05	7.02	0.02
Tl	3.83	0.24	0.09	3.23	0.33	0.09	6.77	0.33	0.07	18.8	0.38	0.06
Pb	6.38	0.40	0.42	6.66	0.73	0.37	7.08	0.84	0.32	51.5	7.11	0.40

Note: SiO₂ content for each spot measured by EMPA is used for internal standardization. Int2SE is the analytical error. LOD is the limit of detection which is shown in wt% and ppm for the major and trace elements, respectively.

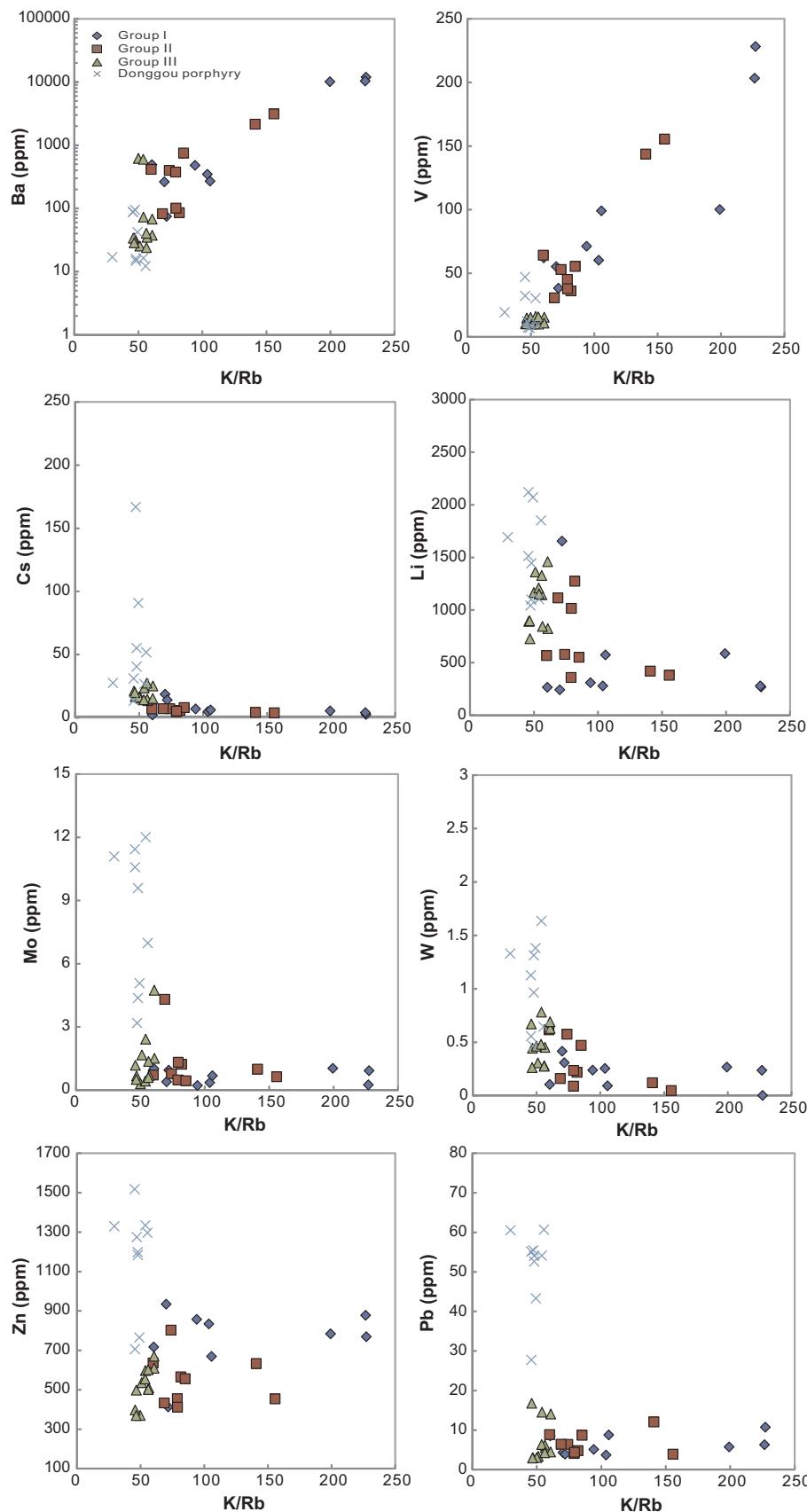


Fig. 5. Trace-element compositions of biotite from the Taishanmiao batholith and Donggou porphyry analyzed by LA-ICP-MS.

(NNO) buffer in the Fe^{2+} - Fe^{3+} -Mg diagram of Wones and Eugster (1965), indicating that these granitoids formed at relatively high oxygen fugacity (Fig. 8). In addition, the presence of the assemblage of

titanite + magnetite + quartz, which is indicative of oxygen fugacities above $\sim \text{QFM} + 1$ log unit at 800 °C (Piccoli et al., 2000), is also consistent with a relatively high oxygen fugacity. It is noteworthy that the

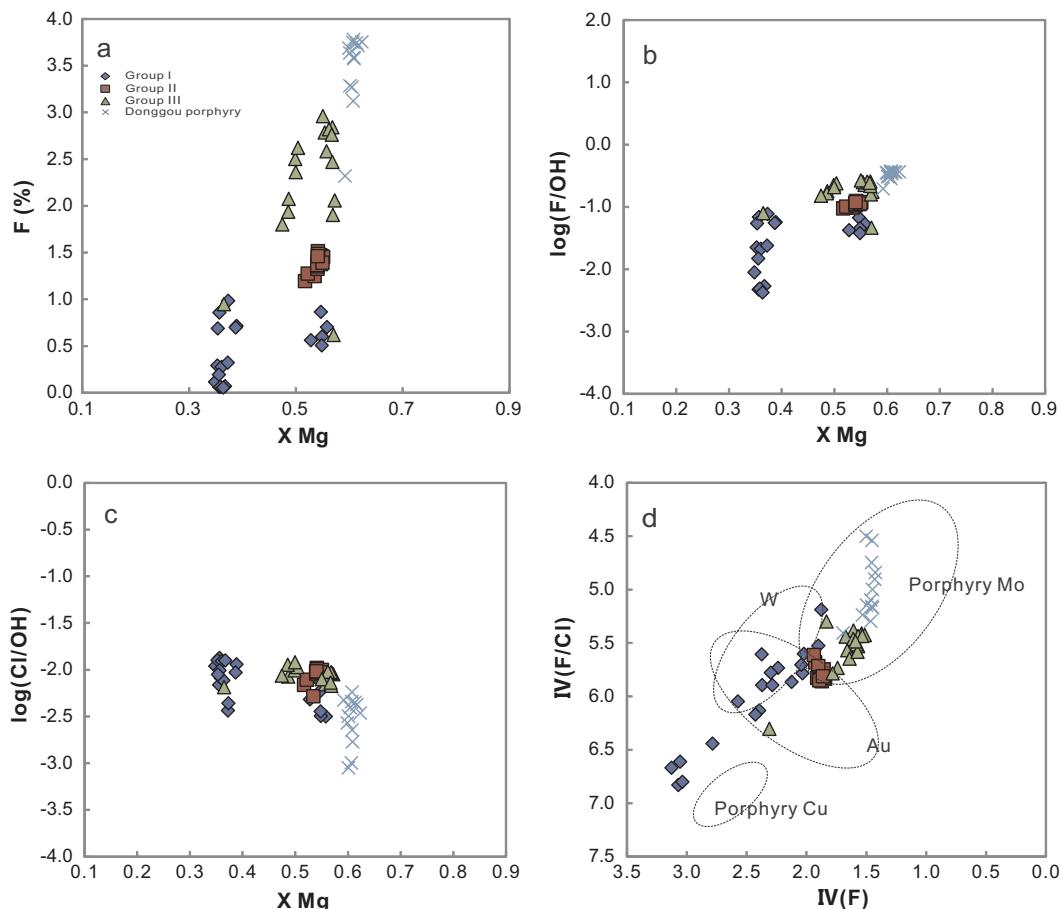


Fig. 6. Compositions of biotite from the Taishanmiao batholith and Donggou porphyry on (a) F (wt%) vs. X_{Mg} for biotites, while X_{Mg} is the ratio of Mg/(Mg + Fe) (apfu). (b), (c) X_{Mg} vs. $\log(X_F/X_{OH})$ and $\log(X_{Cl}/X_{OH})$. (d) intercept value $IV(F/Cl)$ vs $IV(F)$. See text for explanation.

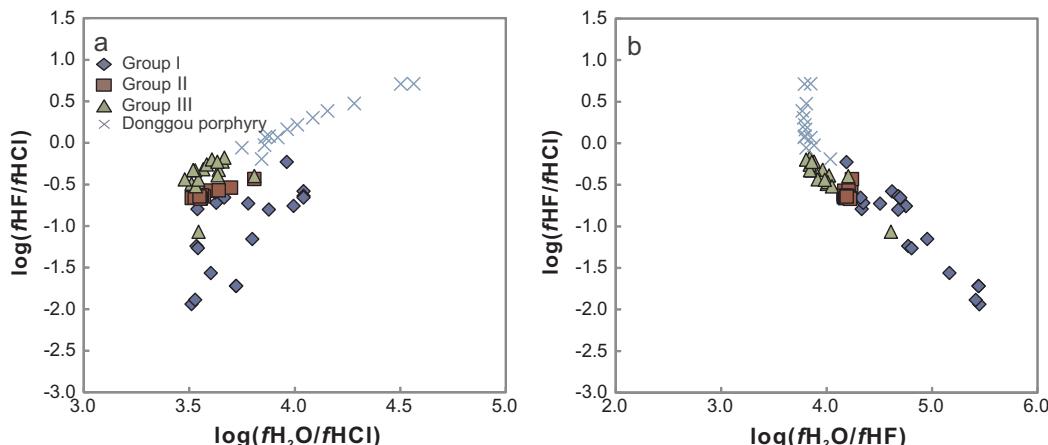


Fig. 7. Correlations of $\log(fH_2O/fHCl)$, $\log(fH_2O/fHF)$, and $\log(fHF/fHCl)$ values in fluids in equilibrium with biotite from the Taishanmiao batholith and the Donggou porphyry. These values were calculated based on their relative zircon saturation temperatures (T_{Zr}) (Watson and Harrison, 1983).

Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+} values of biotite gradually increase from Group I (ave. 0.19), through Group II (ave. 0.30) and Group III (ave. 0.28), to the Donggou porphyry (ave. 0.37), indicating progressive increasing fO_2 during magmatic differentiation, which may be attributed to H_2 release at or near H_2O vapor saturation at high H_2O/Fe^{2+} (Candela, 1986a; Lentz, 1992).

Oxidation state of magmas controls sulfur speciation and hence strongly influences sulfur solubility of the magmas (Jugo, 2009; Yang, 2012). Some scholars consider that the early crystallization and separation of sulfides from magma may cause Mo depletion in residual

melt (Mengason et al., 2011; Qiu et al., 2013). Experiments of Mengason et al. (2011) indicate that the $D_{Mo}^{\text{sulfide}/\text{silicate melt}}$ is 35 at the NNO oxygen fugacity buffer and increases with decreasing oxygen fugacity. It is thus suggested that highly evolved, oxidized felsic melts (magmatic oxygen fugacity > NNO, magnetite-series granites) may have lost as much as 14% of their initial molybdenum, whereas reduced melts (magmatic oxygen fugacity < NNO-0.5, ilmenite-series granites) may have lost 90% of the initial molybdenum. However, the solubility of sulfur in felsic magmas is very low (< 1000 ppm) (Clemente et al., 2004; Yang, 2012). Even if a large proportion of the sulfides

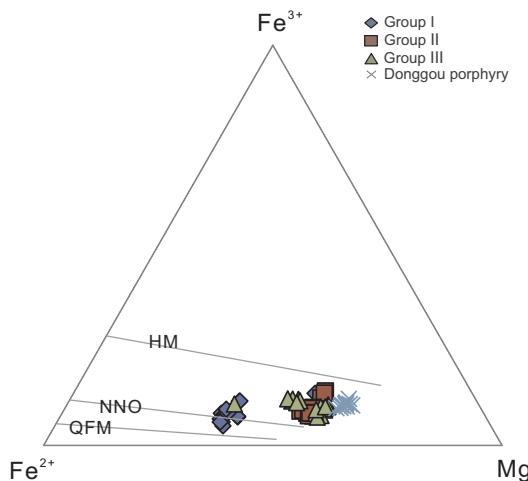


Fig. 8. Compositions of biotite from the Taishanmiao batholith and Donggou porphyry expressed in the Fe^{2+} - Fe^{3+} -Mg diagram of Wones and Eugster (1965), along with the three common $f(\text{O}_2)$ (oxygen fugacity) buffers: quartz-fayalite-magnetite (QFM), nickel-nickel oxide (NNO), and hematite-magnetite (HM). The Fe^{3+} in biotite is calculated according to Dymek (1983).

(pyrrhotite) is separated from the magma, it would not cause Mo depletion in the residual melt. Therefore, we consider that sulfides removal in felsic magma is very limited under high or low oxygen fugacity.

Oxygen fugacity can influence the valence of molybdenum in magma. Mo^{6+} may be the predominant phase in magmas at oxygen fugacity buffer of NNO or above, and thus would not substitute Ti in the crystallizing Fe- and Ti-rich minerals (Candela and Holland, 1986; Tacker and Candela, 1987). In our case, the oxygen fugacity is remarkably high and gradually increases during magmatic differentiation (Fig. 8), and hence enhances the incompatibility of Mo (Tacker and Candela, 1987; Candela and Bouton, 1990). Thus, Mo concentrations in granitoids also gradually increase from Group I (ave. 0.96 ppm), through II (ave. 0.98 ppm) and III (ave. 1.12 ppm), to the Donggou porphyry (ave. 18.72 ppm) (Ye et al., 2008; Dai et al., 2009 and our unpublished data). As such, Mo was initially concentrated during magma crystallization, and thus the exsolved hydrothermal fluids from this oxidized and differentiated magma would contain elevated Mo contents.

8.2.2. Implications for halogen elements in the magmas

As volatiles can play an important effect on melt properties and magma evolution, it is important to know the actual contents of volatiles in the melt. According to the experimental result of Icenhower and London (1997), the partitioning of fluorine and chlorine between biotite and melt has an approximate linear relationship with Mg^+ [$100 \text{ Mg}/(\text{Mg} + \text{Mn} + \text{Fe})$]. Based on this relationship, the contents of fluorine and chlorine in melt were calculated to be 0.02–0.78% and 0.02–0.07%, respectively. It is clear that the melts are rich in fluorine with the highest fluorine concentration in the Donggou porphyry (Fig. 6a). Given that water saturation was reached during crystallization, chlorine is strongly partitioned into fluid over melt when an magmatic volatile phase (MVP) was exsolved. In contrast, fluorine will act an opposite behavior, and will consistently partition into minerals relative to melt (Zhu and Sverjensky, 1991). Thus, the Cl/F and OH/F of the melts will decrease with magma differentiation (Fig. 6) once volatiles were released from the magma system (Candela, 1986b; Keith et al., 1989; van Middelaar and Keith, 1990; Loeferski and Ayuso, 1995; Christiansen and Keith, 1996; Webster, 1997a,b).

Moreover, the experimental results of Nash and Crecraft (1985) indicate that the partition coefficient of molybdenum between biotite and rhyolite varies from 1.7 to 5.7. Based on the minimum partition

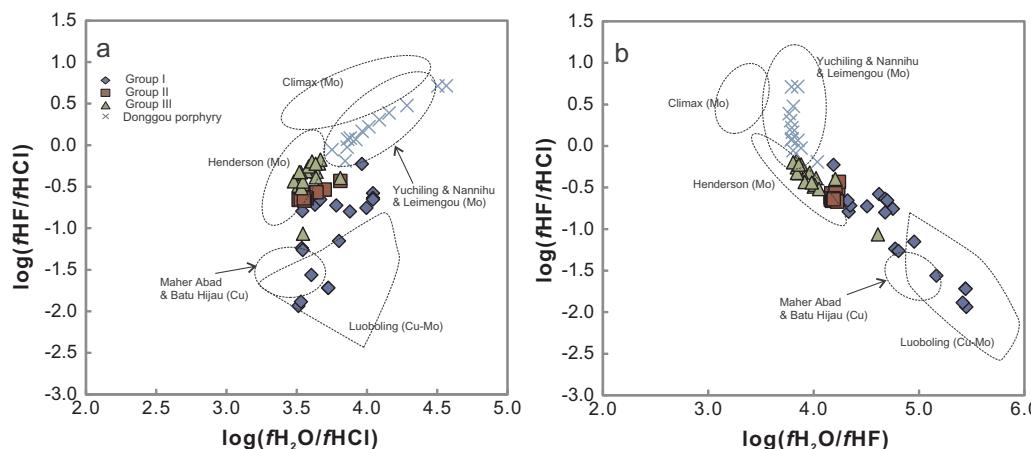
coefficient of 1.7, we calculated the Mo contents of the Donggou porphyric magma ranging from 1.87 to 7.06 ppm, consistent with Mo concentrations in melt inclusions associated with many porphyry Mo systems (2–20 ppm; Lowenstein, 1994; Audébat, 2010, 2015; Audébat et al., 2011; Mercer et al., 2015). Such low contents of Mo indicate that the Donggou porphyry covering an area of only $\sim 0.01 \text{ km}^2$, cannot be the sole Mo source for the giant Donggou Mo deposit. Lowenstein (1994) and Shinohara et al. (1995) proposed that the formation of porphyry Mo deposits results from the circulation of volatile-rich magma within narrow stocks or apophyses protruding from underling batholith of metal magma chambers, and the formation of stocks or apophyses requires efficient segregation of fractionated melts at the top of the magma chamber. Indeed, the F enrichment in the Donggou porphyry can promote high degrees of melt fractionation by lowering the magma solidus to extend the crystallization interval, and by lowering the melt viscosity to facilitate residual melt extraction and accumulation in the apical regions of magma chambers (Audébat, 2015). The high degrees of melt fractionation would promote the enrichment of molybdenum in the residual magma of which the circulation was responsible for the formation of the superlarge Donggou porphyry Mo deposit.

In addition, the $\log(f\text{HF}/f\text{HCl})$ ratio of earlier fluids derived from the Taishanmiao batholith is less than 0, whereas the $\log(f\text{HF}/f\text{HCl})$ ratio of later fluids derived from the Donggou porphyry is more than 0 (Fig. 7). Cline and Bodnar (1991) showed the salinity of the exsolving fluid increases as crystallization proceeds at pressures below 1.3 kbar, whereas at pressures slightly greater than 1.3 kbar, the salinity of exsolving fluids gradually decreases. According to the study of Yang et al. (2015), the ore-forming pressures were estimated to be less than 1.3 kbar in the earliest mineralization stage in the Donggou Mo deposit. Therefore, we consider that the salinity of exsolving fluid may gradually increase or stay constant from the Taishanmiao batholith to Donggou porphyry. Thus the earlier fluids associated with the Taishanmiao batholith are relatively F-poor, whereas the later fluids associated with the Donggou porphyry are relatively F-rich. Though the majority of dissolved molybdenum species in hydrothermal solutions occur as H_2MoO_4 , HMnO_4^- , and MoO_4^{2-} (Shock et al., 1997; Rempel et al., 2009), the fluorine in fluids may also have important effects on partitioning Mo between melt and fluid and transporting Mo (Carten et al., 1981; Candela and Holland, 1984; Keppler and Wyllie, 1991; Bai and van Groos, 1999). The $D_{\text{Mo}}^{\text{fluid/melt}}$ was higher in the fluorine-containing system than in the presence of chloride in previous experiments (Candela and Holland, 1984; Keppler and Wyllie, 1991; Bai and van Groos, 1999). Therefore, the transition of the fluid compositions from relatively F-poor in the Taishanmiao batholith to relatively F-rich in the Donggou porphyry may be beneficial to concentrate Mo in the fluids associated with the Donggou porphyry.

8.3. Comparison of halogen fugacity ratios with porphyry Cu deposits

To better understand the physicochemical conditions of the magmatic fluids, halogen fugacity ratios of biotites from the Taishanmiao batholith and the Donggou porphyry are compared with those of fluids associated with porphyry Mo-/Cu-related plutons worldwide (Fig. 9).

Magmatic fluids associated with the Donggou porphyry have $\log(f\text{H}_2\text{O}/f\text{HCl})$ and $\log(f\text{HF}/f\text{HCl})$ values similar to or slightly higher than those for Climax, Henderson, Yuchling, Nannihu and Leimengou porphyry Mo deposits, but significantly higher than those for porphyry Cu and Cu-Mo deposits (Fig. 9a). Moreover, the magmatic fluids associated with the Donggou porphyry have similar or slightly lower $\log(f\text{H}_2\text{O}/f\text{HF})$ values compare to those for other porphyry Mo deposits, but much lower than those for porphyry Cu and Cu-Mo deposits (Fig. 9b). Because the compositions of biotite in porphyry Cu-Mo deposits are limited in published literatures, we just calculate the halogen fugacity ratios in one deposit (Luoboling). Interestingly, the Luoboling porphyry Cu-Mo deposit has similar halogen fugacity ratios to other porphyry Cu



(Siahcheshm et al., 2012) in eastern Iran, and Batu Hijau (Idrus et al., 2007) in Indonesia and in the porphyry Cu-Mo-related plutons in the Luoboling (Li and Jiang, 2015) in south China based on the equations of Munoz (1992), and temperatures established from mineral or mineral pair geothermometry, e.g., 720 °C for Climax, 612–768 °C for Henderson, 758 °C for Maher Abad, 764 °C for Batu Hijau and 750 °C for Luoboling.

deposits, not situated between the porphyry Mo and Cu deposits. In fact, the size of Mo ore body is very small in this deposit, with proven reserves of 0.065 Mt Mo (metal) with an average grade of 0.036% (Li and Jiang, 2015). Therefore, we consider that these similar characteristics between Luoboling Cu-Mo and other Cu deposits may explain why the dominated Cu mineralization is formed in Luoboling.

According to the study of Audéat et al. (2008), the fluids exsolving from porphyry Mo and porphyry Cu systems appear to be similar in terms of fluid salinity. Therefore, the magmatic fluids related to porphyry Mo deposits are characterized by higher fluorine contents relative to those from porphyry Cu deposits. The difference between porphyry Mo deposits and porphyry Cu deposits may depend on the source of magma. Formation of porphyry Cu deposits are commonly related to subduction of oceanic crust that is generally Cl-rich (Sillitoe, 2010), whereas that of porphyry Mo deposits are related to continental crust that is F-rich (Sinclair, 2007; Chen and Li, 2009; Hou and Yang, 2009; Zhu et al., 2009). In addition, experimental studies indicate the Cl-rich fluids are more beneficial to extract Cu from the melt and transport copper (Candela and Holland, 1984; Keppler and Wyllie, 1991; Bai and van Groos, 1999). The above results indicate that the relatively F-rich fluids may be favorable to form porphyry Mo deposits.

9. Conclusions

The Donggou porphyry is interpreted to be the product of highly differentiation of the Taishanmiao batholith. Variations of the K/Rb ratio, compatible elements (such as Co, Ba, V and Ti) and incompatible elements (such as Cs, Li, Ta and Tl) of biotite in these granitoids were controlled by magma differentiation.

$\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ and MgO values in biotite gradually increase from the Taishanmiao batholith to the Donggou porphyry, which indicates progressively increasing $f\text{O}_2$ during magmatic differentiation. The majority of biotite compositions indicate high oxygen fugacity above the NNO buffer, indicative of Mo^{6+} as the predominant valence in the magma. In such a condition, Mo acted as an incompatible element and concentrated in the residual melt.

Metals were further concentrated into the fluids that were exsolved from magma. The earlier fluids associated with the Taishanmiao batholith are relatively F-poor, whereas the later fluids associated with the Donggou porphyry are relatively F-rich. We propose that the relatively F-rich fluids from the Donggou porphyry may be beneficial to form the porphyry Mo deposit.

Fig. 9. The calculated halogen fugacity ratios of fluids in equilibrium with biotite from the Taishanmiao batholith and Donggou porphyry in comparison to those of other porphyry Mo deposits (Henderson, Climax, Yuchiling, Nannihu and Leimengou), porphyry Cu-Mo deposit (Luoboling) and porphyry Cu deposits (Maher Abad and Batu Hijau); (a) $\log(f\text{H}_2\text{O}/f\text{HCl})$ against $\log(f\text{HF}/f\text{HCl})$ and (b) $\log(f\text{H}_2\text{O}/f\text{HF})$ against $\log(f\text{HF}/f\text{HCl})$. The recalculated fugacity ratios are determined from the compositions of biotite in the Mo-related granitoids in Climax (Audéat, 2015) and Henderson (Mercer et al., 2015) in North America, and in Yuchiling, Nannihu and Leimengou (our unpublished data) at the southern margin of the North China Craton, as well as in the porphyry Cu-related plutons in the Maher Abad

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.oregeorev.2017.10.026>.

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