

Metal fluxes during magmatic degassing in the oceanic crust: sulphide mineralisation at ODP site 786B, Izu Bonin forearc

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Abstract

Volcanogenic massive sulphide deposits are enriched in metals that are either derived from the hydrothermal alteration of the basement rocks or supplied by exsolution of metal-rich volatiles during magmatic differentiation. The extent to which each process contributes to metal enrichment in these deposits varies between different tectonic settings. Ocean Drilling Program Hole 786B recovered >800 m of upper oceanic crust from a supra-subduction zone setting and includes a 30 m-thick mineralised zone. In-situ S isotopic compositions of pyrite decrease from 5.89 ± 2.87 ‰ $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ in the upper mineralised zone down to -3.34 ± 2.09

$\% \delta^{34}\text{S}$ in the extensively altered central mineralisation zone, potentially indicating strong magmatic fluid input in this area. Whole rock data and in-situ trace element analyses in sulphide minerals show enrichment of Ag, As, Au, Bi, Mo, S, Se, Sb and Te in the mineralised zone. Evaluation of metal behaviour during magmatic differentiation and primary metal fertility of basement rocks suggests that degassing melt is the main source for the high Au, Se and S enrichment observed in the mineralised zone. Magmatic volatile exsolution occurred late during the magmatic differentiation (~ 2 wt.% MgO), concomitant with oxide crystallisation and metal depletion in the melt. Comparison of Ocean Drilling Program Hole 786B with volcanogenic massive sulphide deposits hosted by boninitic volcanic successions, such as in the Semail ophiolite, the Newfoundland Appalachians and the Flin Flon Belt, suggests that magmatic fluid exsolution could be a common mechanism for Au enrichment in bi-modal mafic volcanogenic massive sulphide deposits.

Introduction

The metals enriched in volcanogenic massive sulphide (VMS) deposits, hydrothermal ore deposits forming in extensional tectonic settings on the seafloor, are commonly considered to be derived from either hydrothermal alteration zones in the basement rocks (i.e. the lower sheeted dyke complex, Alt 1995a; Alt et al. 2010; Jowitt et al. 2012; Patten et al. 2016a) or be supplied by the exsolution of magmatic volatiles (Moss et al. 2001; Yang and Scott 2002; Sun et al. 2004; deRonde et al. 2005; Sun et al. 2015). The metal inventories of VMS deposits can be extensive with enrichments of precious (Ag, Au) and semi-metals (As, Bi, Cd, Sb, Se, Te, Tl) occurring alongside high concentrations of base metals (Cu, Pb, Zn; Hannington et al. 1991; Wohlgemuth-Ueberwasser et al. 2015; Monecke et al. 2016). It has been suggested that these enrichments of precious and semi-metals in VMS deposits are indicators of significant inputs of magmatic volatiles into the hydrothermal system (e.g. Sillitoe et al. 1996; Moss et al. 2001; Yang and Scott 2002). However, this suite of precious and semi-metals is also mobilised by hydrothermal alteration reactions in the lower sheeted dyke complex of the oceanic crust (Nesbitt et al. 1987; Patten et al. 2016a). Better

knowledge of the trace element signatures of magmatic volatile inputs would aid understanding the causes for the variable metal budgets in VMS deposits.

Ocean Drilling Program (ODP) Hole 786B in the Izu-Bonin forearc is one of the only deep holes drilled into supra-subduction oceanic crust, and recovered over 725 m of rocks from the volcanic section and the uppermost sheeted dykes (Arculus et al. 1992). A 5 m-thick, mineralised zone at 815-820 metres below seafloor (mbsf) near the bottom of the hole contains conspicuous pyrite, chlorite and sericite alteration, which based on negative $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values (-2 to -5.5 ‰) has been interpreted to have been formed by hydrothermal fluids rich in magmatic volatiles (Alt et al. 1998).

In this study, we investigate the distributions and behaviours of trace metals in the mineralized zone of Hole 786B. We use low detection limit analytical methods for the measurement of Au and trace metal concentrations in the ODP Hole 786B drill core samples (Pitcairn et al. 2006a, b) together with in-situ trace element and S-isotope analyses by laser ablation-multicollector-inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (LA-MC-ICP-MS). The objectives of this study are to characterise the mineralisation and trace metal enrichments in the mineralised zone and determine the signature of the magmatic volatile input in the hydrothermal system at ODP Hole 786B.

Geological setting

Magmatic Series

ODP Hole 786B is located in the forearc basement of the Izu Bonin Arc (Fig. 1) in oceanic crust that formed in the middle Eocene (40–45 Ma) during the initiation of subduction in the western Pacific (Mitchell et al. 1992; Cosca et al. 1998; Deschamps and Lallemand 2003). The water depth at ODP Hole 786B is 3080 m. After 103 m of sediments, Hole 786B penetrates 725 m into the volcanic section and the lava-dike transition zone of the oceanic crust. The volcanic section extends from 103 to 754 mbsf and comprises pillow lavas, volcanic breccias, lava flows and volcanoclastic sedimentary rocks (Arculus et al. 1992). The lower part of

Hole 786B, from 754 to 828 mbsf, is characterised by sheeted dykes that correspond to the transition zone between the sheeted dyke complex and the volcanic section (Arculus et al. 1992). Based on geochemistry and stratigraphic position, eight lithological units were distinguished (Arculus et al. 1992) which are grouped within four magmatic series: low Ca boninite, intermediate Ca boninite, andesite-dacite-rhyolite (ADR) and high Ca boninite (Murton et al. 1992; Pearce et al. 1992; Haraguchi and Ishii 2007). The low Ca boninite series, characterised by low Ca boninite (LCBon) and bronzite-andesite (LCBrzA), dominates the lower portion of Hole 786B below 690 mbsf and is the most primitive magmatic series (Arculus et al. 1992; Murton et al. 1992). The intermediate Ca boninite and the ADR series form the bulk of the volcanic section at Hole 786B and are interpreted to be part of the same magmatic series. The ADR series lavas are the fractionation products of the intermediate Ca boninite series. The intermediate Ca boninite series comprises intermediate Ca boninite (ICBon) and bronzite-andesite (ICBrzA; Murton et al. 1992; Pearce et al. 1992). The high Ca boninite series, comprises a few high Ca boninite (HCBon) and bronzite-andesite (HCBrzA) dykes, and records a relatively minor younger igneous episode at ca. 35 Ma associated with rifting of the proto-arc (Murton et al. 1992; Pearce et al. 1992; Mitchell et al. 1992). Differences in major and trace element compositions imply that the three boninitic series formed from different parental magmas, although the low Ti, Y and trace element concentrations of all rocks indicate a depleted mantle source metasomatised by fluids from the subducting slab (Murton et al. 1992; Pearce et al. 1992).

Alteration patterns

The alteration of the oceanic crust at Hole 786B is generally similar to that described in mid-ocean ridge (MOR) settings being dominated by low temperature (<100 °C) alteration in the volcanic section with an abrupt temperature increase (150-250 °C) corresponding roughly with the volcanic-dike transition (Alt et al. 1998). The ODP Hole 786B rocks show a higher degree of alteration (30-40 %) than MOR settings, most likely due the presence of abundant glassy material and mafic rock types (Alt et al. 1998). The volcanic section is altered to secondary smectite, Fe-oxyhydroxide, calcite and phillipsite. Breccias represent a

significant proportion of the recovered materials and show intense alteration up to 90% (Alt et al. 1998). Veins containing Fe-oxyhydroxide, celadonite, phillipsite and carbonate occur throughout the volcanic section (Alt et al. 1998). Secondary pyrite and chalcopyrite are common. Local pyrite occurs within a 7.5 m interval at 472 mbsf (Fig. 2; Alt et al. 1998). A significant increase in sulphide proportion occurs at 796 mbsf in hydrothermal altered LCBrzA delimiting the upper limit of the mineralised zone. Within the mineralised zone there are three domains that display distinct secondary mineral assemblages. The upper alteration zone (UAZ, 796-815 mbsf) is altered to secondary smectite, chlorite-smectite, chlorite, quartz, calcite, pyrite and chalcopyrite, and this alteration occurred at around 150-200 °C (Alt et al. 1998). Between 815 and 820 mbsf an intensively altered mineralised interval, referred to here as the central alteration zone (CAZ), is completely recrystallised to Mg-chlorite, quartz, sericite, pyrophyllite, albite, K-feldspar and pyrite (Alt et al. 1998). The alteration resulted from extensive mixing of seawater with hydrothermal fluids at ~250 °C (Alt et al. 1998). The secondary mineral distribution suggests that pervasive chlorite alteration by Mg-rich fluids was followed by local sericite and quartz alteration along fractures due to subsequent circulation of Mg-poor and alkali-enriched fluids (Alt et al. 1998). Below the central alteration zone down to bottom of the Hole (820-827 mbsf) is the lower alteration zone (LAZ) characterised by secondary alteration to chlorite-smectite, chlorite, quartz, albite, K-feldspar and disseminated sulphides (Alt et al. 1998).

Sampling and analytical methods

Nineteen least-altered samples from the volcanic section and 10 samples from the mineralised zone were selected for whole-rock analyses. Gold analyses were carried out at Stockholm University using a Thermo XSeries 2 inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) following the ultra-low detection limit method described in Pitcairn et al. (2006a) and digesting 3 g of sample. The 3 σ method detection limit calculated from blank digests is 0.027 ppb. Analytical accuracy and precision were controlled through multiple analyses of CANMET reference material TDB-1 and USGS reference materials WMS-1 and CH-

4. Arsenic, Sb and Se concentrations were determined by hydride generation atomic fluorescence spectrometry (HG-AFS), using a PSA 10.055 Millennium Excalibur instrument at Stockholm University (Pitcairn et al. 2006b). Analyses were carried out on the same acid digests as those used for Au analyses. The 3σ method detection limits for As, Sb and Se are 0.059 ppb, 0.081 ppb and 0.039 ppb respectively. Reference materials TDB-1, WMS-1 and CH-4 were used to control analytical precision and accuracy (ESM 1).

In situ trace element analyses of sulphide minerals by laser ablation-ICP-MS (LA-ICP-MS) were carried out at Gothenburg University using a NWR213 nm laser coupled to an Agilent 8800QQQ mass spectrometer. Spot sizes of 20 μm were used with a laser pulse frequency of 5 Hz and a laser energy density of $4.65 \text{ J}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$. Analyses of 179 points were carried out on pyrite, chalcopyrite, sphalerite, marcasite and bornite. Each analysis consisted of 22-25 s background and 20-26 s ablation. ^{34}S is used as an internal standard and sulphide phase's stoichiometric values were used for calibration. The following isotopes were monitored: ^{34}S , ^{57}Fe , ^{63}Cu , ^{66}Zn , ^{75}As , ^{77}Se , ^{95}Mo , ^{107}Ag , ^{111}Cd , ^{121}Sb , ^{125}Te , ^{197}Au , ^{208}Pb and ^{209}Bi . USGS reference material MASS-1, a pressed pellet (Fe–Zn–Cu–S) doped with 50–70 ppm As, Ag, Pb, Sb, Se and Te (Wilson et al. 2002; ESM 2) was used for calibration. Also, reference materials Po727 T1 SRM, a synthetic pyrrhotite doped with 40 ppm PGE and Au supplied by the Memorial University of Newfoundland, Sph-Upp, a naturally homogeneous sphalerite from the Plåtgruvan skarn deposit (Sweden), and non-matrix matched NIST SRM 610 and GSE-1G glasses were used as monitors to check for accuracy and precision (ESM 2). An accuracy of ~20% for sulphide LA-ICP-MS analyses is achieved using MASS-1 as the calibrant.

In-situ S isotope analyses on pyrite were performed using a Nu Plasma HR multicollector ICP-MS (LA-MC-ICP-MS) together with a Photon Machine Analyte G2 laser microprobe at the Geological Survey of Finland. Samples were ablated in He gas (gas flows = 0.4 and 0.1 l/min) within a HelEx ablation cell (Müller et al. 2009). During the ablation period, data were collected in static mode (^{32}S , ^{34}S) at medium resolution.

Single spot pyrite samples were ablated at a spatial resolution of 30 micrometers, using a laser energy density of 2.2 J/cm² at 4Hz. The total S signal obtained for pyrite was typically 1 V. Under these conditions, after a 20 s baseline, 30-50 s of ablation are needed to obtain an internal precision of $^{34}\text{S}/^{32}\text{S} \leq \pm 0.000005$ (1 SE). Two pyrite reference materials have been used for external bracketing (PPP-1; Gilbert et al. 2014) and quality control (in-house reference material Py1) of analyses. All sulphur isotope analyses are presented in δ notation relative to Canyon Diablo Troilite (CDT) in per mil (‰). The in-house reference materials Py1 have been previously measured by gas mass spectrometry. Compared to a bulk value of $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CDT}} -0.6 \pm 0.6$ ‰ (1 σ) for Py1 we have found an average value of -1.1 ± 0.44 ‰ (2s, n=11). Some of the difference in accuracy is related to heterogeneity in the in-house reference material.

Results

Whole-rock data

Major and trace element concentrations in Hole 786B rocks are highly variable due to the diverse range of rock types and the different alteration facies present (Arculus et al. 1992; Murton et al. 1992; Alt et al. 1998). Our suite of 19 least-altered samples from the volcanic section was selected based on mineralogical indicators and whole rock data. Low temperature seawater alteration in the volcanic section is extensive in Hole 786B leading to high concentrations of K₂O and Rb (Alt et al. 1998). Samples with relatively low K₂O and Rb concentrations (<1.2 wt.% and <20 ppm respectively; ESM 3) are assumed to have not been strongly affected by low temperature alteration. The degree of alteration is also estimated using the Ishikawa alteration index (AI; Ishikawa et al. 1976) and the chlorite-carbonate-pyrite index (CCPI, Large et al. 2001). The investigated samples have AI and CCPI values which do not suggest significant alteration and that they have most likely preserved their primary magmatic metal contents (ESM 3). One rhyolitic sample (64-2-83) from the volcanic section has high K₂O and Rb concentrations (4.5 wt.% and 41 ppm respectively) and a low AI value (16.4; ESM 3) is also assumed to record igneous metal concentrations. In general, we suggest

that these selected least-altered samples from the ICBon provide a reasonable indication of the primary Au, trace and base metal contents of the crust at Hole 786B (Table 1; Fig. 2). In contrast to the elemental concentrations observed in the least-altered rocks, samples from the mineralised zone show elevated metal concentrations associated with sulphide mineralisation (Fig. 2; Table 1).

Gold

Gold concentrations in Hole 786B range from 0.29 ppb to 66 ppb with mean and median values of 6.2 ppb and 1.2 ppb, respectively, with the difference between the mean and median being due to the high Au concentrations in the mineralised zone (Fig. 2). In the volcanic section, HCBon and ICBon have similar average Au concentrations with 0.81 ± 0.46 ppb and 0.74 ± 0.38 ppb, respectively (Table 1). These values are lower than boninites from other localities (e.g. 1.9 ± 1.9 ppb, Hamlyn et al. 1985). The ICBBrzA show similar Au concentrations to the boninitic samples (0.84 ± 0.54 ppb, Table 1). The ADR series have more variability in Au content with decreasing concentrations from andesitic to rhyolitic compositions, ranging from 1.9 ppb to 0.32 ppb (Table 1). The ADR series average Au concentration (0.91 ± 0.62 ppb) is lower than the average Au concentration of other BADR series (e.g. Mariana arc: 1.5 ppb, Terashima et al. 1994; Manus basin: 2.7 ± 2.4 ppb, Jenner et al. 2012; Troodos ophiolite: 1.86 ± 1.03 ppb, Patten et al. 2017). The minor variability within each magmatic series and the lack of correlation between Au and the alteration indexes (ESM 3) suggest that Au has not been significantly mobilised during low temperature seawater alteration of the least altered samples. In contrast, high Au concentrations occur in the highly altered rocks of the mineralised zone (average Au = 15.8 ppb, range = 4.2 to 66 ppb; Table 2), which is significantly higher than in MOR mineralised transitional zones (e.g. ODP Hole 504B: 0.7 ± 0.7 ppb, Nesbitt et al. 1987; IODP Hole 1256D: average Au = 2.2 ppb, range = 0.4 to 8.2 ppb, Patten et al. 2016a). Within the mineralised zone there is significant Au variation in the different alteration zones with Au concentrations being higher in the upper alteration zone (32 ± 28 ppb) compared to the central and lower alteration zones (4.4 ± 1.0 ppb and 4.7 ± 0.77 ppb respectively; Table 1).

Arsenic

Arsenic concentrations in Hole 786B range from 16 ppb to 4200 ppb with mean and median values of 1300 ppb and 670 ppb, respectively. Like Au, the discrepancy between the mean and the median is due to the high As enrichment in the mineralised zone (Fig. 2). Within the volcanic section, ICBon show higher As concentrations than HCBon (430 ± 330 ppb and 290 ± 170 ppb, respectively; Table 1) but both values are within the same order of magnitude of picrites from the Troodos ophiolite (320 ± 81 ppb; Patten et al. 2017). The ICBrzA show similar As concentrations to the boninitic samples (350 ± 200 ppb; Table 1). The ADR series show higher variability in As with concentrations ranging from 16 ppb to 3090 ppb (Table 1), but their average concentration (820 ppb) is similar to that of Troodos ophiolite lavas (850 ± 390 ppb, Patten et al. 2017), although lower than similar rocks from the Manus basin (2450 ± 930 ppb; Jenner et al. 2012). The mineralised zone contains much higher As (3640 ± 3040 ppb) which is lower but of the same order of magnitude than As concentrations in MOR mineralised transitional zones (e.g. IODP Hole 1256D: average As = 6580 ppb, range = 200 to 18200 ppb, Patten et al. 2016a). Decreasing As concentrations are observed within the mineralised zone from the upper alteration zone (6040 ± 3780 ppb) to the lower alteration zone (1450 ± 410 ppb; Table 1).

Antimony

Antimony concentrations in Hole 786B range from 11 ppb to 1350 ppb with mean and median values of 130 ppb and 77 ppb, respectively. Within the volcanic section, ICBon show higher Sb concentrations than HCBon (96 ± 12 ppb and 23 ± 9 ppb respectively; Table 1). The latter has similar composition than picrites from the Troodos ophiolite (33 ± 3.3 ppb; Patten et al. 2017). The ICBrzA show similar Sb concentrations than the HCBon but lower concentration than the ICBon (37 ± 35 ppb, Table 1). The ADR series show variability in Sb concentration ranging from 40 ppb to 264 ppb (Table 1) and its average concentration (104 ± 76 ppb Sb) is slightly higher than that of the Manus Basin and the Troodos ophiolite (87 ± 37 ppb,

Jenner et al. 2012, and 78 ± 36 ppb, Patten et al. 2017, respectively). The mineralised zone is significantly enriched in Sb (mean Sb = 250 ppb, range = 60 to 1360 ppb), which is a similar range to that in MOR settings (e.g. IODP Hole 1256D: average = 219 ppb, range = 34 to 590 ppb, Patten et al. 2016a). The upper alteration zone shows the lowest concentrations (99 ± 27 ppb) whereas the central alteration zone shows the highest concentrations (average = 406 ppb, range = 68 to 1360 ppb), although the average is skewed by one sample with a high Sb concentration (1360 ppb). The median value (101 ppb) of the central alteration zone suggests similar concentration than the upper alteration zone (Table 1). The low alteration zone shows slightly higher Sb concentrations with 230 ± 160 ppb Sb (Table 1).

Selenium

Selenium concentrations in Hole 786B range from 0.76 ppb to 13500 ppb with mean and median values of 990 ppb and 8.3 ppb, respectively. Within the volcanic section, ICBon and HCBon have similar Se concentrations (2.2 ± 1.4 ppb and 3.6 ppb, 1.7-8.3 ppb respectively, Table 1) but these are significantly lower contents than found in boninites from other localities (e.g. 53 ± 55 ppb, Hamlyn et al. 1985). The ICBrzA show slightly higher Se concentrations than the boninitic series (5.1 ± 4.4 ppb, Table 1). The ADR series show higher concentrations than the ICBrzA ranging from 1.6 ppb to 28 ppb (Table 1) but their average concentration (11 ± 11 ppb Se) is significantly lower than that of the BADR series from the Manus Basin and the Troodos ophiolite (230 ± 67 ppb, Jenner et al. 2012, and 119 ± 56 ppb, Patten et al. 2017, respectively). In the mineralised zone strong Se enrichments occur (26800 ± 4000 ppb), which are higher than in those from typical MOR settings (e.g. Hole 1256D: 1150 ± 970 ppb, Patten et al. 2016a). Within the mineralised zone Se concentrations are highly variable (Fig. 2), but Se is more enriched in the central (average = 5010 ppb, range = 670 to 13500 ppb) and the lower (average Se = 1660 ppb, range = 340 to 2970 ppb) alteration zones compared to the upper alteration zone (average Se = 851 ppb, range = 16 to 2110 ppb, Table 1).

Base metals

Copper, Zn and Pb concentrations in Hole 786B range from 1 to 304 ppm, 6 to 139 ppm and 1 to 16 ppm respectively (Arculus et al. 1990; Alt et al. 1998). Unlike Au, As, Sb and Se, there is little difference for Cu, Zn and Pb between the mean (57 ± 38 ppm, 61 ± 18 and 4.3 ± 2.8 ppm respectively) and the median (55 ppm, 59 ppm and 4 ppm respectively) concentration values in Hole 786B because there is only moderate enrichment of Cu, Zn and Pb in the mineralised zone compared to the volcanic section (Fig. 2). In the volcanic section the HCBon and ICBon have similar base metal compositions (Table 1) and are similar to those of picrite from the Troodos ophiolite (56 ± 5.4 ppm, 58 ± 3.0 ppm and 1.1 ± 0.78 ppm for Cu, Zn and Pb respectively; Patten et al. 2017 and references in there) but the Cu content is higher than average low-Ti basalt (20 ppm; Hamlyn et al. 1985). ICB_{BrzA} show similar base metal compositions to those of the boninitic series (Table 1). The average ADR series compositions (58 ± 32 ppb, 62 ± 19 ppm and 4.2 ± 2.6 ppm for Cu, Zn and Pb respectively) are within the same order of magnitude as rocks from the Manus Basin (72 ± 88 ppm, 83 ± 16 ppm and 5.1 ± 6.0 ppm respectively; Jenner et al. 2012) and the Troodos ophiolite (61 ± 46 ppm, 99 ± 74 and 1.3 ± 0.4 ; Patten et al. 2017 and references in there). Relative to the volcanic section the Cu and Zn concentrations are higher in the upper alteration zone, significantly lower in the central alteration zone and similar in the lower alteration (Table 1; Fig. 2). No systematic Pb variation is observed in the mineralised zone.

Mineralised zone sulphide mineralogy

Upper Alteration Zone

The upper alteration zone (799-815 mbsf) is characterised by alteration of primary LCBon to corrensite, smectite and albite, with common veins of quartz and carbonate (Alt et al. 1998). Sulphides occur dominantly in quartz and carbonate veins although disseminated pyrite and chalcopyrite are also present in the matrix. Vein-hosted sulphides are pyrite with accessory sphalerite, marcasite, chalcopyrite and trace of

galena (Fig. 3A, B and C). Pyrite is either present on the vein margins as homogeneous aggregates (Fig. 3A and B) or is disseminated in the veins as variably sized euhedral to subhedral grains (Fig. 3C and D). The margins of some massive pyrite grains display porous textures that are also developed along fractures (Fig. 3A). In one sample (70.2.49), marcasite occurs as an overgrowth on massive and porous vein pyrite (Fig. 3A, B). Chalcopyrite occurs mostly within the veins (Fig. 3C). Sphalerite occurs in veins either as anhedral grains within the pyrite aggregates (Fig. 3B) or as subhedral grains associated with chalcopyrite within the veins (Fig. 3C). Chalcopyrite disease texture is common in sphalerite associated with chalcopyrite. Trace galena occurs as subhedral grains within pyrite or as late infill in pyrite fracture (Fig. 3A, B).

Central Alteration Zone

The central alteration zone (815-820 mbsf) shows a change in mineralogy and intensity of alteration relative to the upper alteration zone. The central alteration zone contains the greatest abundance of sulphides in Hole 786B, forming up to 10 modal percent. The sulphide assemblage is largely dominated by pyrite with rare chalcopyrite and sphalerite as inclusions in the pyrite (Fig. 4A, B). Pyrite occurs as euhedral to subhedral, 10-100 μm grains, disseminated within the host rock groundmass or within quartz veins (Fig. 4A, B).

Lower Alteration Zone

The lower alteration zone (820-829 mbsf) contains a lower proportion of sulphide than the central alteration zone and the host rock is altered to secondary mixed layer chlorite-smectite, chlorite, quartz, albite and K-feldspar with common quartz and carbonate veins. Sulphide mineralisation is dominated by pyrite that occurs as euhedral to subhedral 10-100 μm grains disseminated in the host rock groundmass or within quartz veins (Fig. 4C, D). Rare disseminated micrometric chalcopyrite grains also occur in the groundmass. Bornite grains are present as disseminated anhedral grains up to tens of microns (Fig. 4D, E). In places bornite shows alteration along grain boundaries to chalcopyrite and covellite (Fig. 4D, E). Trace covellite associated with chalcopyrite has been observed in one sample (Fig. 4F).

Trace element concentrations in sulphides from the Hole 798B Alteration Zones

Upper Alteration Zone

In-situ trace element analyses of sulphide minerals within the mineralised zone reveal significant variations in metal concentrations between the three main alteration zones and between the different sulphide phases. The trace metal content of massive pyrite from the upper alteration zone is highly variable, and are characterised by low Bi, Se and Te relative to pyrite from the central and lower alteration zones (Table 2). Porous pyrite grains have similar metal content to massive ones but show less variability (Table 2). Marcasite has similar trace metal concentration to the massive and porous pyrite except for Bi, Sb, Se and Te (Table 2). Positive trends between Ag, Au, Sb and Pb concentrations in pyrite from the upper alteration zone (ESM 4) suggest similar behaviour for these elements during sulphide precipitation. Laser ablation spectra of massive pyrite grains occasionally display Ag-As-Au-Sb-Pb spikes suggesting possible inclusions of sulfosalts. Sphalerite from the upper alteration zone has high Cu and Cd concentrations (Table 2) with elevated Cu concentrations due to the chalcopyrite disease texture. The few grains of galena that have been analysed show high concentrations of Ag, As, Cd, Sb and Se (Table 2). The whole rock data shows no Pb enrichment in the mineralised zone but enrichments may be masked by the high detection limit for Pb analytical method (Fig. 2). The high Pb concentrations of pyrite (Table 2) and presence of galena (Fig. 3A, B) suggest that Pb may be enriched in the upper alteration zone.

Central Alteration Zone

Pyrite grains in the central alteration zone show a different trace element signature from those from the upper alteration zone having higher Se, Te, Mo and Bi concentrations but lower Au, Ag and Pb content (Table 2). Disseminated pyrite grains and vein hosted pyrite show large ranges in trace metal concentrations as highlighted by the discrepancy between average and median values (Table 2). Median concentrations indicate that disseminated pyrite and vein hosted pyrite have similar trace metal enrichments although

disseminated pyrite is slightly more enriched in Cd, Sb, Te, Pb and Bi, whereas vein hosted pyrite has higher concentrations of As and Se (Table 2). The rare chalcopyrite and sphalerite grains present in the central alteration zone were too small for analysis.

Lower Alteration Zone

Disseminated pyrite from the lower alteration zone is characterised by generally lower trace metal concentrations than disseminated pyrite from the central alteration zone but still has higher Se, Te and Bi concentrations than the pyrite in the upper alteration zone (Table 2). Positive trends between Se-Te-(Bi) in pyrite from the central and lower alteration zone suggests similar behaviour during sulphide paragenesis (ESM 4). Bornite is characterised by elevated Se and Bi concentrations (290 ± 140 ppm and 50 ± 8.4 ppm respectively; Table 2). Chalcopyrite and covellite grains were too small to analyse.

Sulphur isotopes

In-situ S isotope analyses have been carried out on pyrite from the mineralised zone to supplement published whole rock and mineral data (Alt et al. 1998). Pyrite grains in veins from the upper alteration zone have $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values ranging from 1.5 ‰ and 10.4 ‰ with an average of 5.9 ‰ (Fig. 5; ESM 5). These are similar to sulphide concentrate values from rhyolite and andesite at 705-800 mbsf, which range between 1.3 and 5.5 ‰ $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ (Alt et al. 1998; Fig. 5). Massive and porous pyrite grains from sample 69-4-48 (801.77 mbsf, ESM 5) show similar $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values (5.1 ‰ and 4.8 ‰ respectively, Fig. 5), suggesting similar S source between these two textural groups. The $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ range in the upper alteration zone is similar to sulphide mineralisation in MOR settings, such as the transitional zone of OPD Hole 504B ($\delta^{34}\text{S} = 3.5$ ‰, range = 2.9 ‰ to 5.0 ‰; Honnorez et al. 1986; Alt 1995b), TAG ($\delta^{34}\text{S} = 7.20$ ‰; Gemmell and Sharpe, 1998 and references therein) and East Pacific Rise VMS deposits ($\delta^{34}\text{S}$ from 0 up to ~ 7 ‰; Shanks III, 2001 and references therein).

A strong shift in $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values occurs between the upper and central alteration zones (Fig. 5). Disseminated pyrite from the central alteration zone has negative $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values ranging from -8.86 to -0.59 ‰ and averaging -3.34 ‰ $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ (Fig. 5; ESM 5). These values are similar to bulk rock sulphide analyses from both the central and lower alteration zones that show distinctive negative $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values ranging from -2.8 to -5.8 ‰ (Alt et al. 1998). This $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ signature is similar to that of VMS mineralisation in modern day seafloor in magmatic arc settings such as DESMOS ($\delta^{34}\text{S}$ = -8.1 to -5.3 ‰; Gamo et al. 1997), Hine Hina ($\delta^{34}\text{S}$ = -4.9 ‰; Herzig et al. 1998), Brothers Volcano Rumble V ($\delta^{34}\text{S}$ = -5.3 ‰; deRonde et al. 2005) and Brothers Volcano Cone ($\delta^{34}\text{S}$ = -4.1 ‰, deRonde et al. 2005).

Discussion

Metal behaviour during magmatic differentiation

The mineralisation in the Transition Zone of Hole 786B is generated by the hydrothermal mobilisation of metals by a number of different fluid types (Alt et al. 1998). Irrespective of the sources and pathways of the fluids transporting metals to the mineralised zones, the primary bulk metal budget available for mobilisation in the oceanic crust is controlled by magmatic processes (Moss et al. 2001; Jowitt et al. 2012; Patten et al. 2017). Metal behaviour during the magmatic differentiation of supra-subduction zone oceanic crust is strikingly different from MOR settings (Sun et al. 2004; Jenner et al. 2010; Patten et al. 2017; Keith et al. 2018). In particular, the exsolution of magmatic fluids during differentiation of volatile-rich supra-subduction magmas can release significant quantities of fluid-mobile metals to the hydrothermal system (Moss et al. 2001; Yang and Scott 2002; Sun et al. 2004; Keith et al. 2018). The high oxygen fugacity of supra-subduction oceanic crust inhibits sulphide saturation of the magma and strongly chalcophile elements including Au, Cu and Se behave as incompatible elements during the early stages of magmatic differentiation (Sun et al. 2004; Jugo et al. 2009; Jenner et al. 2010, 2012; Patten et al. 2017; Keith et al. 2018). This process enables the build-up of strongly chalcophile elements in the melt, increasing its fertility.

During later stages of magmatic differentiation, the crystallisation of magnetite results in a major decrease in oxygen fugacity and in the Fe content of the melt, which drives the reduction of the S in the melt from sulphate to sulphide (Jenner et al. 2010). This “magnetite crisis” can trigger either the exsolution of hydrosulphide complexes into magmatic fluids (Kamenetsky et al. 2001; Sun et al. 2004; Sun et al. 2015; Keith et al. 2018) or sulphide saturation and magmatic sulphide segregation (Jenner et al. 2010, 2012; Park et al. 2015). Both of these processes lead to the depletion of strongly chalcophile elements in the melt.

Metal distribution in the ICBon magmatic series coupled with magmatic modelling using the software rhyolite-MELTS_v.1.1x (Gualda and Ghiorso 2015) provides insight into metal behaviour during magmatic differentiation and the mechanisms leading to metal mobilisation in ODP Hole 786B (Fig. 6). The starting composition for magmatic modelling was estimated as the median value of the most least-altered mafic ICBon samples with MgO > 10 wt.%, K₂O < 0.5 wt.% and LOI < 4 wt.% (ESM 6); these samples are used as proxies for the primitive melt of the ICBon magmatic series. A pressure of 1.12 kBar is estimated for the magmatic chamber based on the water depth of 3080 m at ODP Hole 786B and the upper part of layer 2A at 3000 mbsf (Takahashi et al. 1998). Variable increments of H₂O (0.5 and 1.5 wt.%) and oxygen fugacity (FMQ=0 and FMQ=1) were tested (Keith et al. 2018). Calculations are made on 25 °C increments from 1350 °C to 800 °C.

The so called “magnetite crisis” is generally characterised by a strong decrease in TiO₂ during the latest stage of magmatic differentiation (MgO = 2–4 wt.%; Jenner et al. 2010). This decrease is not observed in the ICBon series at Hole 786B due to their low TiO₂ content (0.16–0.40 wt.%). Variations in FeO_T and V/Sc, however, show a significant decrease at ~2 wt.% MgO suggesting the onset of oxide crystallisation (Fig. 6). This is supported by modelling (Fig. 6; oxide crystallisation at 2.3–1.5 wt.% MgO depending on initial parameters) and by the presence of common magnetite phenocrysts in the rhyolitic samples (Arculus et al. 1992). Modelling fractional crystallisation of a parental magma with 1.5 wt.% H₂O shows the best fit with whole-rock data, which is consistent with high primary water content in boninite rocks from Bonin Islands

(2.2 wt.%; Dobson and O'Neil 1987). Further variations in FMQ have limited effects on fractionation path compared to the effect of water content (Fig. 6). Sulphur content as sulphide saturation (SCSS) is calculated using the method described in Liu et al. (2007) and the residual liquid composition from rhyolite-MELTS v.1.1.x modelling (Fig. 6). Whole-rock S data are dominantly well below the calculated SCSS until ~2 wt.% MgO where the whole rock and modelled values overlap. This implies that the melt is sulphide undersaturated during most of the magmatic differentiation. Below ~2 wt.% MgO, the decrease in the whole-rock S content may either be due to hydrosulphide complex exsolution or to sulphide saturation. The scarcity of magmatic sulphides in least-altered samples compared to sulphide saturated arc magmas (Georgatou et al. 2018), especially bornite which is expected to crystallise concomitant with magnetite (Jenner et al. 2010), suggests that sulphide saturation is most likely not the main process causes decreasing S content at < 2 wt.% MgO. Furthermore, sulphide segregation and later mobilisation through hydrothermal leaching is inconsistent with the S isotopic data from the central and lower alteration zones (Fig. 5). We suggest that the decreasing S content at below 2 wt.% MgO is caused primarily by exsolution of hydrosulphide bearing magmatic volatiles. The close timing between oxide crystallisation and magmatic volatile exsolution is supported by a decrease in whole rock LOI content at ~2 wt.% MgO (independent of LOI variations caused by low temperature alteration) and by modelling (water exsolution from the melt occurs at 1.86-1.91 wt.% MgO depending on initial parameters, Fig. 6) implying that S is mobilised from the melt by exsolving magmatic volatiles. Simultaneous sulphide saturation and magmatic fluid exsolution could lead to the formation of low density sulphide-gas compounds which can transport the sulphide mineral phases high into the hydrothermal system (Mungall et al. 2015) but no direct evidence for this process have been observed in this study. The Cu content in the melt generally increases during magmatic differentiation until ~2 wt.% MgO after which a strong decrease in Cu concentration occurs (Fig. 6). The close timing between the decrease of Cu in the melt and the exsolution of magmatic volatiles suggests Cu partitioning into the magmatic volatiles (Audétat and Pettke 2003; Frank et al. 2011). The calculated Cu content in the

melt during differentiation using a primary concentration of 40 ppm (ESM 7), the mineral and fluid proportions from rhyolite-MELTS v.1.1.x and Cu partition coefficients from Bougault and Hekinian (1974), Frank et al. (2011) and Lee et al. (2012; ESM 6), shows a similar pattern of concentration to the whole-rock data which supports the loss of Cu from the melt by magmatic degassing. Data for Au and Se from the volcanic section are too scarce and too scattered to allow the identification of clear magmatic trends (Fig. 6). However, the similar behaviour of Cu, Au and Se during magmatic differentiation based on experimental (Frank et al. 2011; Mungall and Brenan 2014; Pokrovski et al. 2014) and empirical evidence (Peach et al. 1990; Jenner et al. 2010; Patten et al. 2013, 2017) suggests that Au and Se would be expected to behave similarly to Cu. Overall the various magmatic trends suggest that metal mobilisation from the magmatic to hydrothermal system occurred during the latest stage of magmatic differentiation in the ICBon series. The melt may be an important source for the metals enriched in the mineralised zone.

Mineralisation processes in ODP Hole 786B

The upper alteration zone

The alteration mineralogy and the sulphide paragenesis in the Hole 786B mineralised zone are the result of interactions between the host rock and three different fluids; magmatic fluid, rock-buffered hydrothermal fluid and seawater-derived fluid. Each fluid is characterised by specific S isotopic signature, temperature, pH, redox and metal content, and contributes variably to the metal enrichment in the mineralised zone.

The upper alteration zone mineralogy is similar to that observed in MOR transitional zone such as in IODP Hole 1256D and ODP Hole 504B which host mineralised breccias (2.8 m and 18 m, respectively) characterised by pyrite, sphalerite, chalcopyrite and trace galena and marcasite, and which have formed from mixing of seawater with high temperature rock-buffered hydrothermal fluids (Honnorez et al. 1986; Alt et al. 2010). The positive $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ signature of pyrite from the upper alteration zone (average $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ of 5.89 ± 2.87 ‰, Fig. 5) can result from mixing between seawater-derived fluids ($\delta^{34}\text{S}$ of 21 ‰) and fluids

with lower $\delta^{34}\text{S}$. These latter fluids are most likely a mixture of magmatic S directly leached from the basement rocks (i.e. the lower sheeted dyke complex: 0-4 ‰, Alt et al. 1993), degassed magmatic H_2S (same $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ range than the lower sheeted dyke complex) and the S sourced from thermochemical sulfate reduction (TSR, -3.4 to 0.5 ‰ for 250-300 °C; ESM 5). Magmatic SO_2 is not stable in the low temperature range (150-200 °C) of the upper alteration zone (Herzig et al. 1998; ESM 5). Mixing of hydrothermal fluids (either rock-buffered or magmatic) with seawater derived fluids at ~150-200 °C promotes the enrichment of metals transported as low temperature sulphide complexes such Ag, As, Au and Pb (e.g. 100-200 °C; Huston and Large 1989; Hannington et al. 2014) potentially explaining the preferential enrichment of these metals in the upper alteration zone relative to the central and lower zones (Table 1 and 2; Fig. 7). The trace metal content of pyrite is sensitive to the conditions in which pyrite form (e.g. Maslennikov et al. 2009; Duran et al. 2015; Genna et al. 2015; Wohlgemuth-Uberwasser et al. 2015; Keith et al. 2016) and because it is the dominant sulphide phase in the three alteration zones, it provides additional insight into metal zonation. The preferential enrichments of Au, As, Ag and Pb in pyrite from the upper alteration zone relative to those from the central and lower alteration zones (Fig. 7) is similar to metal distributions observed in the upper part of MOR transitional zones and mafic VMS deposits (Herzig and Hannington 1995; ODP Hole 504B, Honnorez et al. 1986; Alt et al. 1989; IODP Hole 1256D, Teagle et al. 2006; Patten et al. 2016b; TAG, Petersen et al. 2000; Skouriotissa, Keith et al. 2016). The similarities with MOR systems, the alteration and mineralisation patterns, and the sulphide $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values indicate that sulphide precipitation in the upper alteration zone occurred from mixing of hydrothermal fluids, most likely a mixture of rock-buffered and magmatic fluids, with seawater at moderate temperature (150-200 °C; Alt et al. 1998) and under reduced and near neutral conditions (Fig. 8).

The central and lower alteration zones

The central and lower alteration zones show marked changes in S isotopic values, trace metal content and alteration mineralogy relative to the upper alteration zone implying different mineralisation mechanisms.

Negative whole rock $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values in the central and lower alteration zones were previously interpreted by Alt et al. (1998) as the result of magmatic SO_2 disproportionation. This is further supported by the in-situ pyrite analyses ($\delta^{34}\text{S} = -3.34 \pm 2.09 \text{‰}$, Fig. 5) of the central alteration zone. Degassing of magmatic SO_2 , along H_2S , leads to S disproportionation into light $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ sulphide ($\delta^{34}\text{S} < 0 \text{‰}$) and heavy $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ sulphate during mixing with seawater at temperatures below 300-400°C (Herzig et al. 1998; deRonde et al. 2005; ESM 5). Disproportionation of SO_2 produces acidic conditions which is supported by the presence of pyrophyllite and the bleached aspect of the samples in the central alteration zone (Herzig et al. 1998). Biogenic sulfate reduction (BSR) could also be responsible for the observed $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values but the lack of textural evidence for BSR in the central and lower alteration zones and in the surrounding rocks, the moderately negative $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values relative to BSR-related pyrite ($< -10 \text{‰}$; Alt and Shanks 2011) and the temperature range (BSR occurs dominantly at $< 120 \text{ °C}$; Shanks III 2001; Alt and Shanks 2011) argue against this process. Over whole the circulation in the central and lower alteration zones of hydrothermal fluids buffered by magmatic volatiles is supported by the temperature shift ($\sim +50 \text{ °C}$; Alt et al. 1998), the S isotopic signature, the increase in acidity and oxygen fugacity implied by sericitic and pyrophyllitic alteration and bornite-covellite precipitation (Fig. 4 and 8; Hannington et al. 1999a), and the different trace element composition with higher Mo, S, Se, Te and Bi enrichment relative to the upper alteration zone (Table 1 and 2, Fig. 7). This metal association is characteristic of VMS associated with magmatic fluids ($> 300 \text{ °C}$; e.g. Hannington et al. 1999a, b, 2014; Keith et al. 2016).

Copper concentrations are surprisingly low in the Hole 786B mineralised zone, especially in the central alteration zone (Fig. 2) which is possibly due to localised zone refining (ESM 8). Copper solubility is strongly temperature dependent and Cu generally precipitates at high temperatures ($\sim 350 \text{ °C}$; Seewald and Seyfried 1990; Seyfried et al. 1999). The presence of disseminated bornite and rare covellite in the lower part of the mineralised zone and the loss of Cu associated with fluid exsolution during magmatic differentiation (Fig. 6) suggests that Cu precipitation could have occurred at deeper levels in the upper

sheeted dyke complex at higher temperatures, as locally observed in MOR settings (e.g. OPD Hole 504B, Alt et al. 1989; IODP Hole 1256D, Teagle et al. 2006; Alt et al. 2010) or laterally in higher temperature alteration zones within the LCaBon.

Source of the metals: magmatic vs leached

The alteration and sulphide mineralogy, trace element geochemistry and S isotope data all indicate that magmatic fluids have contributed significantly to the metal enrichment in the central and the lower alteration zones. However, rock-buffered hydrothermal fluids are also known to contain significant S and base metals (Cu, Zn, Pb), as well as Au, As, Sb and Se in MOR settings and ophiolites (Nesbitt et al. 1987; Alt 1995a; Jowitt et al. 2012; Patten et al. 2016a). The relative role of these two fluid types is not clear. Although the hydrothermally leached lower sheeted dyke complex (Alt 1995, Jowitt et al. 2012) has not been sampled by ODP Hole 786B drill core it is possible to investigate its primary metal fertility using the compositions of least-altered samples from the volcanic section as proxies and by normalising them to average MORB (Fig. 9a). Least altered samples from the volcanic section show significant enrichments of As, Sb and Pb relative to MORB (Fig. 9a), most likely due to metasomatic contamination of the mantle wedge by fluids from the subducting slab (Noll et al. 1996; Timm et al. 2012; Hattori and Guillot 2013; Patten et al. 2017). Gold is also enriched relative to MORB (0.34 ppb Au; Webber et al. 2013) because residual sulphide phases in the mantle are consumed during boninite melt generation (Hamlyn et al. 1985). Cu and Zn concentrations in Hole 786B are within the range of MORB (Fig. 9a). In contrast, S and Se (ICBon series median S = 291 ppm; Alt et al. 1998) show lower concentrations in Hole 786B compared to MORB (Fig. 6a) due to previous mobilisation during early mantle melting (Hamlyn et al. 1985). This implies that the primary crust in Hole 786B has a relatively high fertility of As, Au, Sb and Pb, a fertility for Cu and Zn similar to MORB and a low fertility for S and Se (Fig. 9a).

Comparing the primary metal fertility of the basement rocks to the metal enrichments in the mineralised zone allows evaluation of whether rock-buffered hydrothermal fluids or magmatic fluids have provided significant metals to the mineralisation in 786B (Fig. 9b). The basement rocks have high fertility in As, Sb and Pb and these elements are efficiently mobilised during hydrothermal leaching (e.g. Patten et al. 2017) so their moderate enrichments in the mineralised zone relative to the primary composition of the basement rocks (x6.6, x3.4 and x1.4, respectively; Fig. 9b) may be sourced from by rock-buffered hydrothermal fluids. Similarly, the slight Cu and Zn enrichment in the mineralised zone (x2.1 and x1.4, respectively) could also to be controlled by the same process (Fig. 9b). Gold, Se and S, however, show significantly higher enrichments than the other elements (x18, x399 and x39, respectively; Fig 9b) implying that hydrothermal leaching alone is not enough to account for their enrichment. In comparison, Au enrichment in MORB transitional zone is significantly lower (x6 in IODP Hole 1256D and 1.3x in ODP Hole 504B; Nesbitt et al. 1987; Patten et al. 2016a). The Au, Se and S enrichment in the mineralised zone, therefore, is controlled by magmatic fluid input in the hydrothermal system. Increase in Se/S in the central alteration zone (up to 0.54; ESM 3) suggests high H_2Se/H_2S in the ore forming fluids which also supports magmatic input of Se in the system (Huston et al. 1995).

Implication on VMS deposit formation and Au endowment.

Although the mineralisation at ODP Hole 786B is not directly comparable to VMS deposits on land in term of tonnage and grade, and as VMS deposits are not common in forearc settings, it provides nevertheless important insights into ore forming processes related to magmatic degassing as it has not been affected by extensive zone refining, boiling and metamorphism. The host rocks at OPD Hole 786B, being dominated by mafic rocks with minor felsic rocks, classifies the mineralisation system as bi-modal mafic (Barrie and Hannington, 1999). In the geological record, bi-modal mafic VMS deposits are often associated with boninite rocks (e.g. Barrie and Hannington, 1999; Piercey, 2010, 2011) which show similar petrochemical assemblage to those in ODP Hole 786B (ESM 9; Piercey et al. 2010).

In the Semail ophiolite, Oman, several VMS deposits (e.g. Aarja, Rakah, Al-Bishara) are hosted in boninite rocks within the Alley unit (Gilgen et al. 2014) which is interpreted to have formed in a supra-subduction setting (e.g. Alabaster et al. 1982; Godard et al. 2003; Haase et al. 2016). These deposits are characterised by different mineralogy, metal content and paragenetic sequence than their counterpart in the Geotimes unit (Alabaster and Pearce, 1985; Hannington et al. 1998; Gilgen et al. 2014). The Aarja deposit, for example, is characterised pyrite-marcasite-sphalerite-tenantite-galena-chalcopyrite-bornite assemblage and by high Zn, Pb, Ag, Au and As (Ixer et al. 1984, Alabaster and Pearce, 1985; Hannington et al. 1998). Although the Au grade of the Aarja deposit is not properly constrained, native gold inclusions in pyrite (Ixer et al. 1984) suggest an elevated gold grade (Gilgen et al. 2014). The VMS deposits hosted in the boninite Alley unit have higher Au grade (>0.8 ppm) than the other ones in the ophiolite (<0.4 ppm; Gilgen et al. 2014). The reason for this systematic Au enrichment is not constrained; leaching from the boninites with high Au-content or seafloor boiling have been suggested (Gilgen et al. 2014). It is important to note that the mineralogical assemblages and metal enrichments do not preclude magmatic degassing as a possible mechanism for the Au enrichment in these deposits especially as several of them are spatially closely related to highly emplaced plagiogranite intrusions (Stake and Taylor, 2003).

The Rambler Camp in the Newfoundland Appalachians, Canada, is characterised by bi-modal mafic VMS deposits which are hosted in a thick rhyolite complex (Rambler Rhyolite formation; Piercey, 1997). The volcanic sequence, which is part of the Pacquet Harbour Group, shows a tectono-stratigraphic evolution from boninitic lavas and their differentiated products, to transitional arc volcanic rocks and MORB, which is interpreted to record the evolution of a primitive-arc to incipient back-arc settings (Piercey et al. 1997; Piercey, 2010; Skulski et al. 2010; Pilote and Piercey, 2018). The VMS deposits in the Rambler Camp are significantly enriched in Au, such as the Rambler Main deposit which classifies an auriferous VMS deposit with 5.1 ppm Au (Mercier-Langevin et al. 2011). The Ming deposit (21.9 Mt at 0.61 ppm Au) consists of several stacked lenticular ore bodies (Brueckner et al. 2014). The 1806 zone, one of the uppermost lenses,

is enriched in Au and Ag (4.31 ppm and 32.15 ppm, respectively) alongside As, Hg and Bi (Brueckner et al. 2014). This specific metal enrichment has been interpreted to be syngenetic and strongly points toward a magmatic fluid input (Brueckner et al. 2014) which is partly supported by the S isotopic signature of the sulphide assemblage (Brueckner et al. 2015).

The Flin Flon belt, Manitoba, Canada, hosts large Paleoproterozoic VMS deposits which are all associated with juvenile arc tectono-stratigraphic assemblages (e.g. Flin Flon and Snow Lake; Syme et al. 1999). These bi-modal assemblages are dominated by BADR series (Syme et al. 1999) but boninites are also present in the Snow Lake arc assemblage and are closely related to VMS deposits (Sterne et al. 1995; Bailes and Galley, 1999). The bi-modal mafic/felsic VMS deposits in the Flin Flon and Snow Lake arc assemblages show significant Au enrichment with, for example, the Flin Flon and the Lalor deposits classified as Au anomalous (>31 t Au) and the Photo Lake classified as auriferous (>3.41 ppm Au; Mercier-Langevin et al. 2011). These deposits have been affected by polyphase deformation and an amphibolite facies metamorphic overprint which make their primary seafloor paragenesis difficult to reconstruct but the Au enrichment is most likely syngenetic (Duff et al. 2015).

Compilation of the Ti, Fe, V/Sc and Cu concentration of the VMS hosting volcanics of the Lasail and Alley unit of the Semail ophiolite (Alabaster et al. 1982; Gilgen et al. 2014; Haase et al. 2016), the lower sequence of the Pacquet Harbour Group of the Baie Verte Peninsula (Piercey et al. 1997; Skulski et al. 2010; Pilote and Piercey, 2018) and the juvenile arc sequences of the Flin Flon belt (Syme and Bailes, 1993; Sterne et al. 1995; Syme, 1998) show similar trends with the magmatic differentiation observed at ODP Hole 786B. The decrease in Ti, Fe and V/Sc during late magmatic differentiation suggest the onset of magnetite crystallisation at 2-3 wt.% MgO in the Lasail and Alley units, 4-5.5 wt.% MgO in the lower Pacquet Harbour Group and 2.5-4 wt.% MgO in the juvenile arc sequences of the Flin Flon belt (Fig. 10). In the three settings Cu decrease in the melt is concomitant with the onset of magnetite crystallisation (Fig. 10) suggesting metal mobilisation from the melt either by magmatic fluid degassing, sulphide segregation or sulphide-gas

compounds (Mungall et al. 2015). Further investigation is required to precisely determine which process is controlling metal distribution in the melt and if there is a genetic link with the Au-bearing VMS deposits in the volcanic sequences. Nevertheless these trends highlight the importance of investigating the metal distribution in volcanic sequences hosting the VMS deposits in order to better constrain the magmatic-hydrothermal contribution to VMS deposit metal endowment, especially for Au. Combining systematic metal characterisation with classical petrochemical assemblages (Piercey, 2010) will enable to better constrain large-scale metal-fluxes in VMS hosting volcanic sequences and would improve exploration model mafic and bi-modal mafic/felsic VMS deposits.

Conclusions

Investigation of the sulphide mineralisation and the associated metal endowment in ODP Hole 786B mineralised zone highlights that exsolution of magmatic fluid has a profound impact on the hydrothermal system and on metal fluxes in arc-related oceanic crust. Analyses by low detection limit whole rock and in-situ methods enable us to determine the role of magmatic fluid inputs on the budget and distribution of Ag, As, Au, Bi, Mo, Pb, S, Se, Sb, Te and Zn in the oceanic crust at Hole 786B. This role is summarised in Figure 11 and the main outcomes of the study are:

- The primary oceanic crust at ODP Hole 786B has high As, Au, Sb and Pb, similar Cu and Zn and low S and Se concentrations relative to MORB. Arsenic, Sb and Pb high fertility is likely due to an enriched metasomatised mantle source by subducting slab dehydration while Au high fertility is likely due to melting of residual sulphides during boninitic melt generation. Low S and Se fertility is likely due to a depleted mantled source during boninitic melt generation.
- Frequent magnetite phenocrysts in rhyolitic samples and variations in V/Sc and FeOt coupled with modelling suggest that late oxide crystallisation (magnetite crisis) occurred at ~2 wt.% MgO during magmatic differentiation. Variation in LOI content coupled with modelling also suggest that

magmatic fluid exsolution is concomitant with oxide crystallisation. Depletion of S, Cu, and possibly Se and Au, in the magma is also observed at ~2 wt.% MgO. These depletions are interpreted to represent metal loss from the melt by magmatic degassing. This process can account for part of the metal endowment observed in the mineralised zone.

- The sulphide population in the mineralised zone can be divided in three hydrothermal domains. The upper alteration zone is characterised by vein hosted pyrite, sphalerite, galena, chalcopyrite and marcasite sulphide population with positive $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values. Mineralisation occurs by mixing of seawater with reduced and near neutral hydrothermal fluids (a mixture of rock-buffered and magmatic fluids) at 150-200 °C. The central alteration zone is characterised by extensive disseminated pyrite mineralisation; other sulphide phases are scarce. The lower alteration zone is characterised by vein hosted and disseminated pyrite with trace bornite, covellite and chalcopyrite. Pyrite grains in the central and lower alteration zones have negative $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values which imply a magmatic origin for S. Mineralisation occurs by intensive mixing of oxidised and acidic magmatic-buffered hydrothermal fluids with derived-seawater at ~250 °C.
- ODP Hole 786B mineralised zone shows distinct metal zonation with Ag, As, Au, enriched in the upper alteration zone and Bi, Mo, Sb, Sb and Te enriched in the central and lower alteration zones. The central alteration zone is significantly depleted in Cu and Zn. Changes in temperature, acidity and redox between the alteration domains, caused by change in fluid type mixture, were the driving mechanisms for metal zonation.
- The Hole 786B mineralisation shows some characteristics of Au-rich VMS deposits, and the strong enrichments of Au, Bi, Mo, S, Se and Te observed in the mineralised zone are interpreted to be of magmatic origin.

- Comparison of ODP Hole 786B with the VMS hosting mafic and bi-modal mafic volcanic sequences from the Semail ophiolite, the Newfoundland Appalachians and the Flin Flon Belt, suggests that magmatic fluid exsolution could be a common mechanism for Au enrichment in mafic and bi-modal mafic/felsic VMS deposits.

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Figure captions

Figure 1. Location and simplified lithostratigraphy of ODP Hole 786B in the Izu-Bonin forearc. Modified from Arculus et al. (1992), Alt et al. (1998) and Haraguchi and Ishii (2007).

Figure 2. Depth profile of whole-rock data in Hole 786B. Gold, As, Se and Sb are from this study and S, Cu, Zn and Pb are from Arculus et al. (1992) and Alt et al. (1998). Pb analyses are close to the detection limit. HCBon = high Ca boninite; ICBon = intermediate Ca boninite; ICBrzA = intermediate Ca bronzite-andesite; LCBrzA = low Ca bronzite-andesite; Min. = mineralised LCBRzA; UAZ = upper alteration zone; CAZ = central alteration zone; LAZ = lower alteration zone.

Figure 3. Sulphide population of the upper alteration zone. A) Quartz vein with early massive pyrite (Py), galena (Gn) and chalcopyrite (Cpy). On the margin the pyrite is porous. Late stage marcasite (Mc)

precipitated on top of porous and massive pyrite. Sample 70-2-49. B) Same vein that A) with early sphalerite (Sp) within massive pyrite and late subhedral sphalerite disseminated within the vein. Sample 70-2-49. C) Early euhedral massive pyrite and late chalcopyrite and sphalerite. Sample 69-6-124. D) Vein hosted pyrite and discrete disseminated pyrite grains within the groundmass. Sample 69-4-48.

Figure 4. Sulphide population of the central and lower alteration zones. A) and B) Vein hosted pyrite (Py) in the central alteration zone forming a network. Trace sphalerite and chalcopyrite occur as inclusions in pyrite. A) Sample 71-1-91 and B) sample 71-1-15. C) Disseminated sulphides in the lower alteration zone dominated by pyrite. Sample 72-1-8. D) Disseminated euhedral pyrite and associated anhedral bornite (Bn). Late chalcopyrite (Cpy) exsolutions occurs on the rim of the bornite. Sample 72-1-8. E) Disseminated bornite with covellite and chalcopyrite exsolutions. Sample 72-1-8. F) Replaced chalcopyrite by covellite in the lower alteration zone. Sample 72-1-138.

Figure 5. Sulphur isotopic data for in-situ analyses of massive, porous and disseminated pyrite within the mineralised zone. The upper alteration zone is characterised by positive $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values whereas the central and lower alteration zones are characterised by negative $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values implying different S sources. Grey points are whole rock data from Alt et al. (1998).

Figure 6. Hole 786B ICBon-ICBrzA-ADR series whole rock data plotted versus MgO and rhyolite-MELTS v.1.1x modelling. Oxide crystallisation occurs at ~2.3-1.5 wt.% MgO as suggested by a sharp decrease in V/SC and FeOt. Magmatic fluid exsolution occurs concomitant with oxide crystallisation as suggested by LOI decrease at ~2 wt.% MgO. S concentration is below the SCSS suggesting that the melt is sulphide undersaturated during most of the magmatic differentiation. Decrease in S after oxide crystallisation is interpreted as S loss associated with magmatic fluid exsolution. Cu concentration increases until oxide crystallisation and magmatic fluid exsolution after which it is lost from the melt. Calculated Cu in the melt suggest mobilisation associated with magmatic degassing (see text for details). Too scarce data for Au and

Se enable to observe clear trends. Whole rock data are from Arculus et al. (1992) except for S which is from Alt et al. (1998) and Se and Au which are from this study; the data plot within the least altered box of the AI and CCPI alteration index (ESM 3) and represent primary magmatic values. ICBrzA = intermediate Ca bronzite-andesite; ICBon = intermediate Ca boninite. Ox in = oxide crystallisation in modelling; Fluid out = magmatic fluid exsolution in modelling.

Figure 7. Trace metal content of pyrite from the upper alteration zone versus pyrite from the central and lower alteration zones. UAZ = upper alteration zone; CLAZ = central and lower alteration zones.

Figure 8. Redox-pH diagram of the mineralisation at ODP Hole 786B transitional zone. The different alteration zones are plotted based on their mineralogical assemblage. Modified from Hannington et al. (1999).

Figure 9. A) Average concentrations of Hole 786B ICBrzA-ADR and ICBon series normalised average MORB values from Arevalo and MacDonough (2010) except for Au which is from Webber et al. (2013). Troodos ophiolite and Manus basin fresh glass data are from Jenner et al. (2012) and Patten et al. (2017). ICBrzA = intermediate Ca bronzite-andesite; ADR = andesite-dacite-rhyolite; ICBon = intermediate Ca boninite; BADR = basalt-andesite-dacite-rhyolite. B) Mineralised zone MORB normalised values versus volcanic section MORB normalised values. The high S, Se and Au concentrations in the volcanic section are due to magmatic fluid input in the hydrothermal system. V.S. = volcanic section, M.Z. = mineralised zone.

Figure 10. Ti, Fe, V/Sc and Cu variation during magmatic differentiation of A) the Lasail and Alley units of the Semail ophiolite, Oman (Alabaster et al. 1982; Gilgen et al. 2014; Haase et al. 2016); B) the lower sequence of the Pacquet Harbour Group of the Baie Verte Peninsula (Piercey et al. 1997; Skulski et al. 2010; Pilote and Piercey, 2018) and; C) the juvenile arc sequences of the Flin Flon belt (Syme and Bailes; 1993; Sterne et al. 1995; Syme, 1998). Despite alteration and metamorphism, preservation of primary magmatic

trends is observed. All three terranes show late oxide crystallisation (grey bar) at 2-3 wt.% MgO in Semail, 4-6 wt.% MgO in the Newfoundland Appalachians and 2.5-3 wt.% MgO in the Flin Flon belt. Concomitant Cu decrease in the melt possibly imply magmatic degassing as in OPD Hole 786B.

Figure 11. Fluxes of metals in the oceanic crust at Hole 786B and paragenesis of the mineralisation in the mineralised zone. Simplified physico-chemicals profiles in mineralised zone are shown. See text for details.

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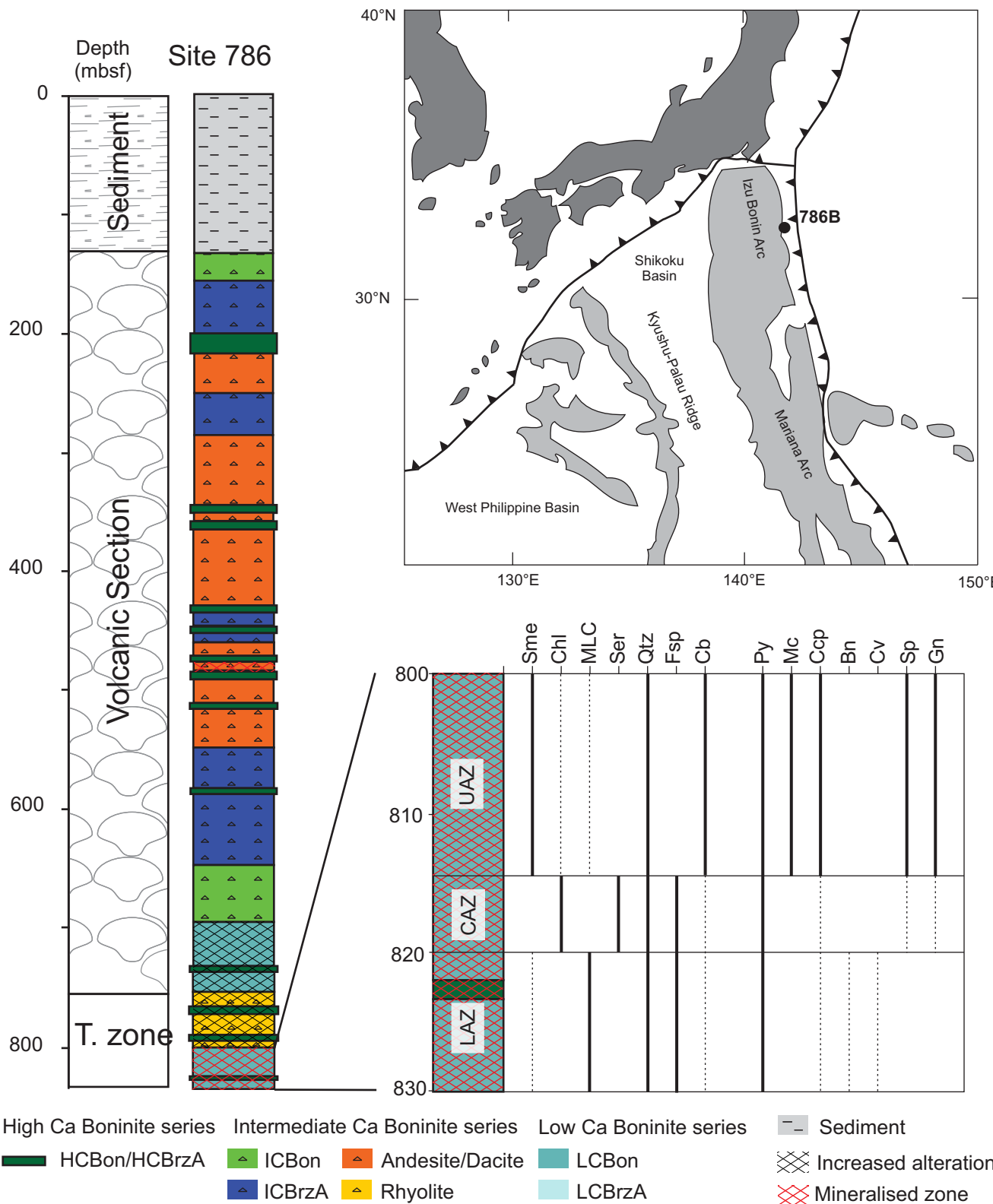


Fig. 1

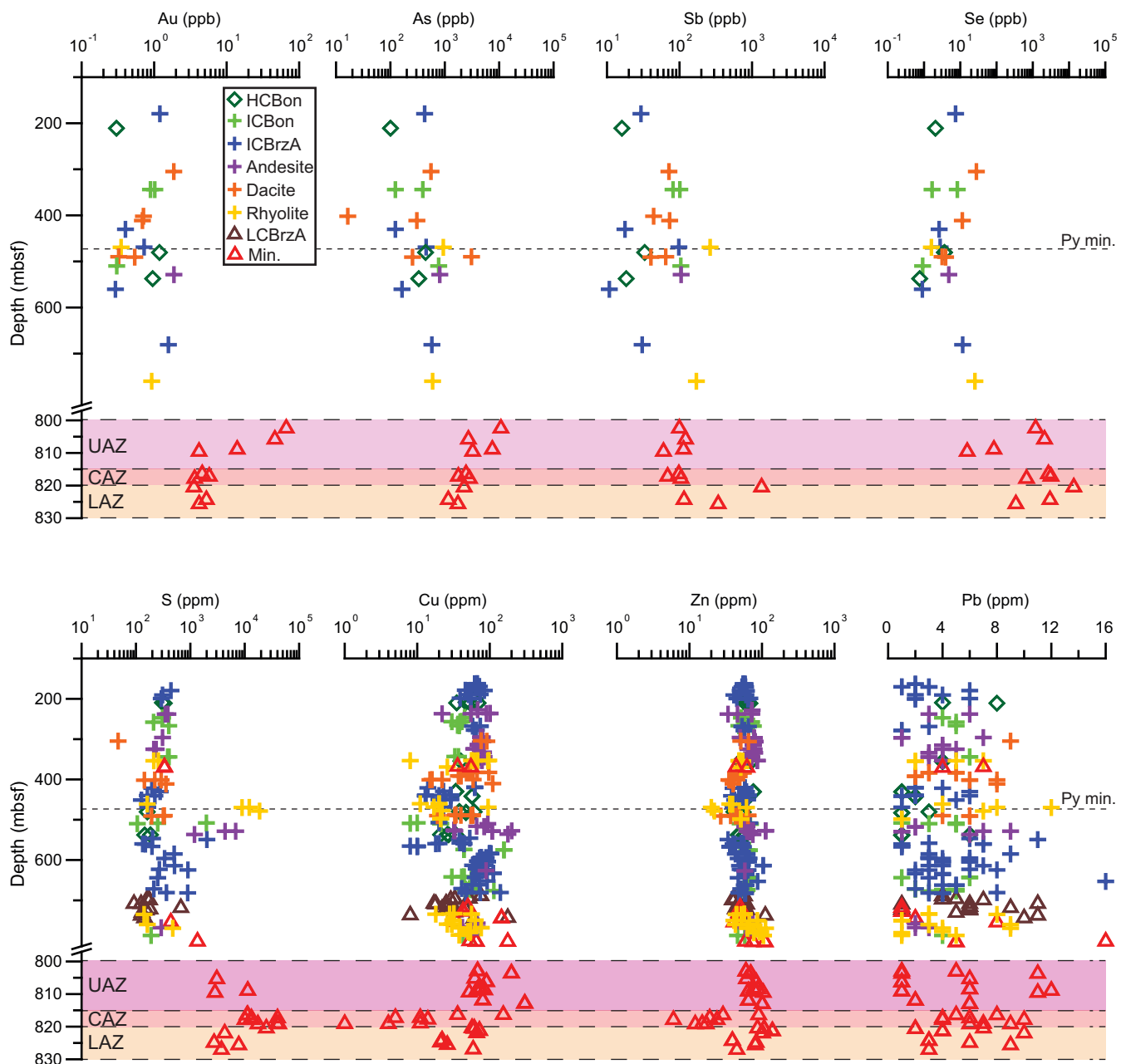


Figure 2.

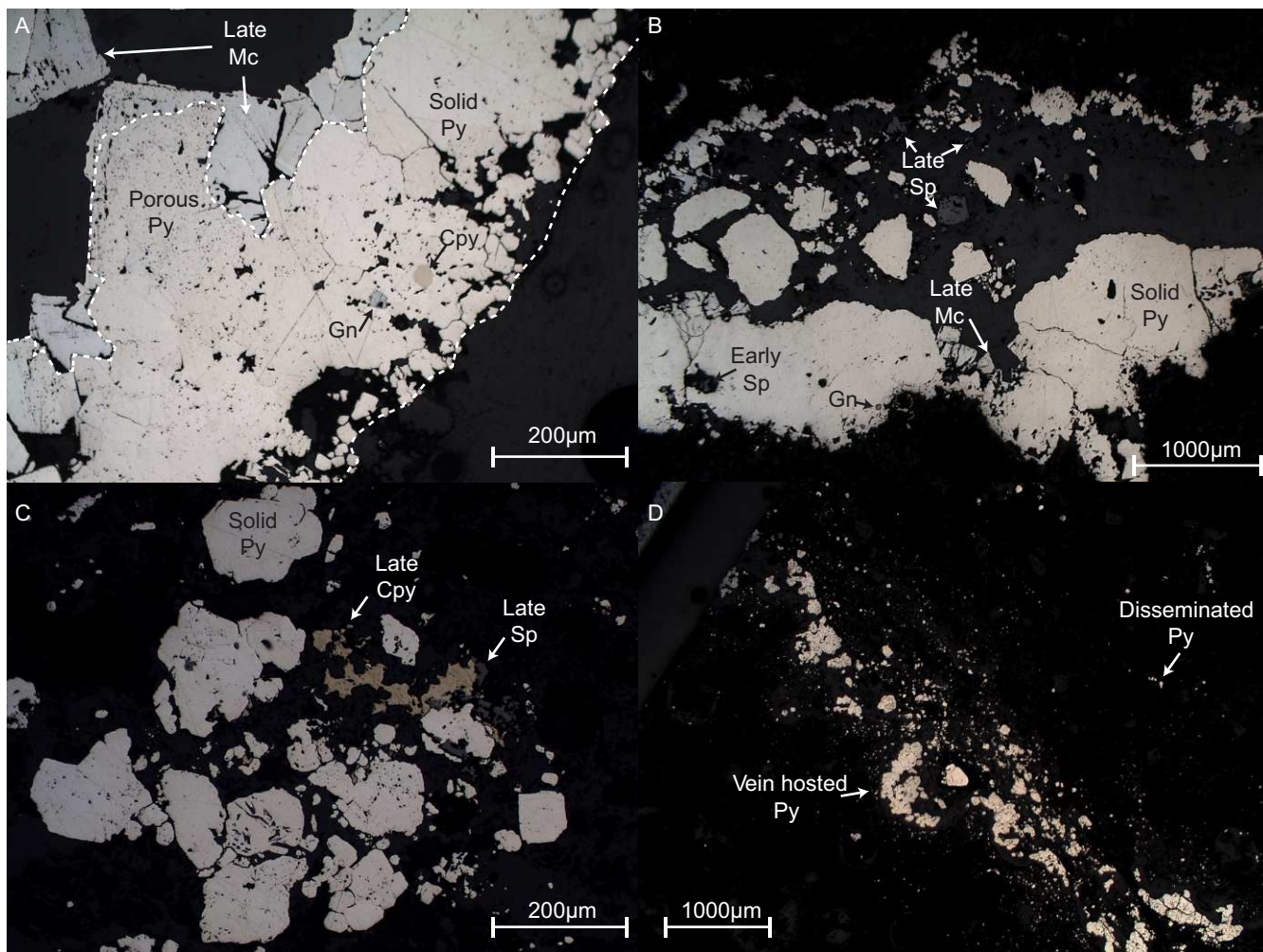


Figure 3.

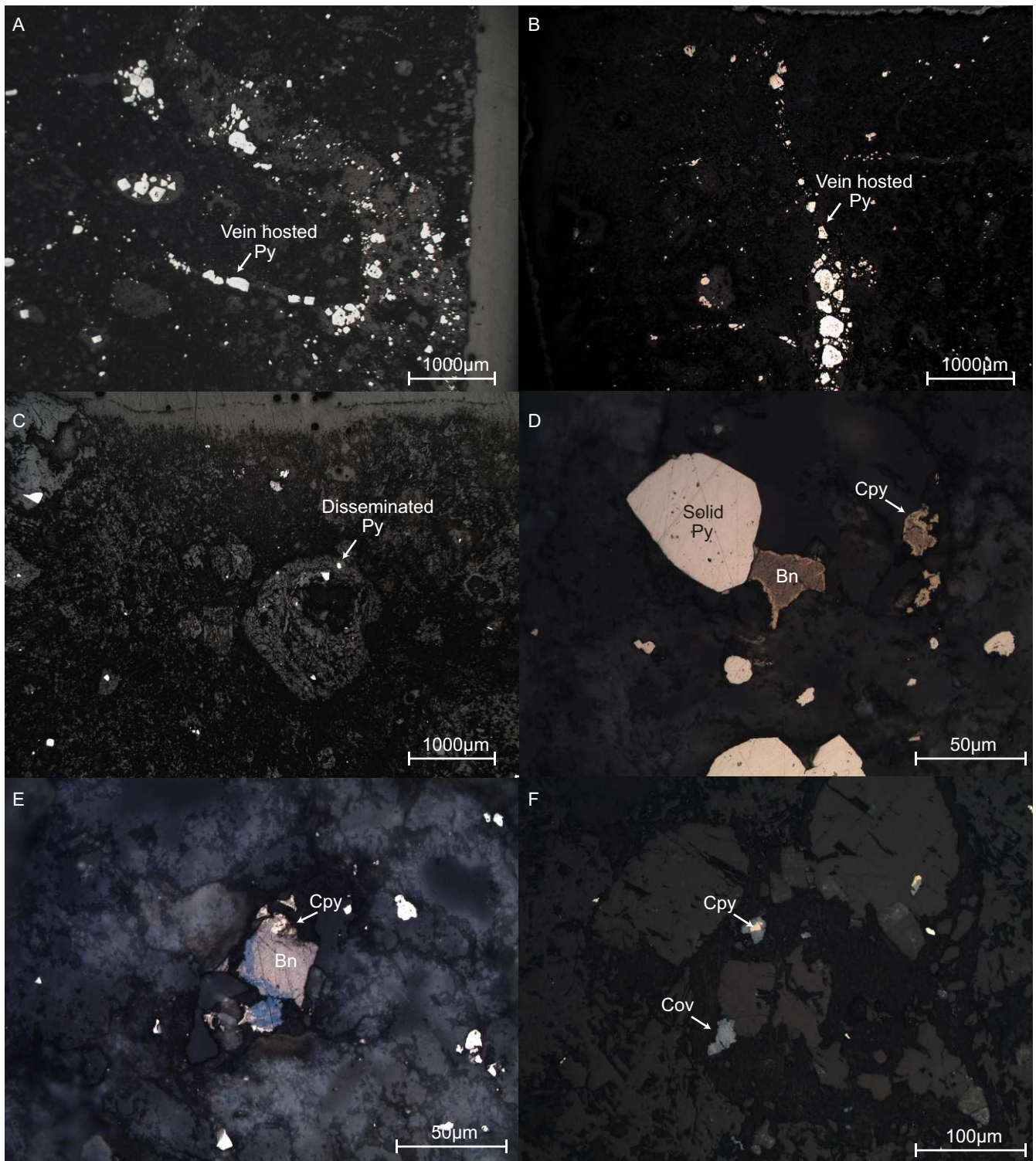


Figure 4.



Fig. 5

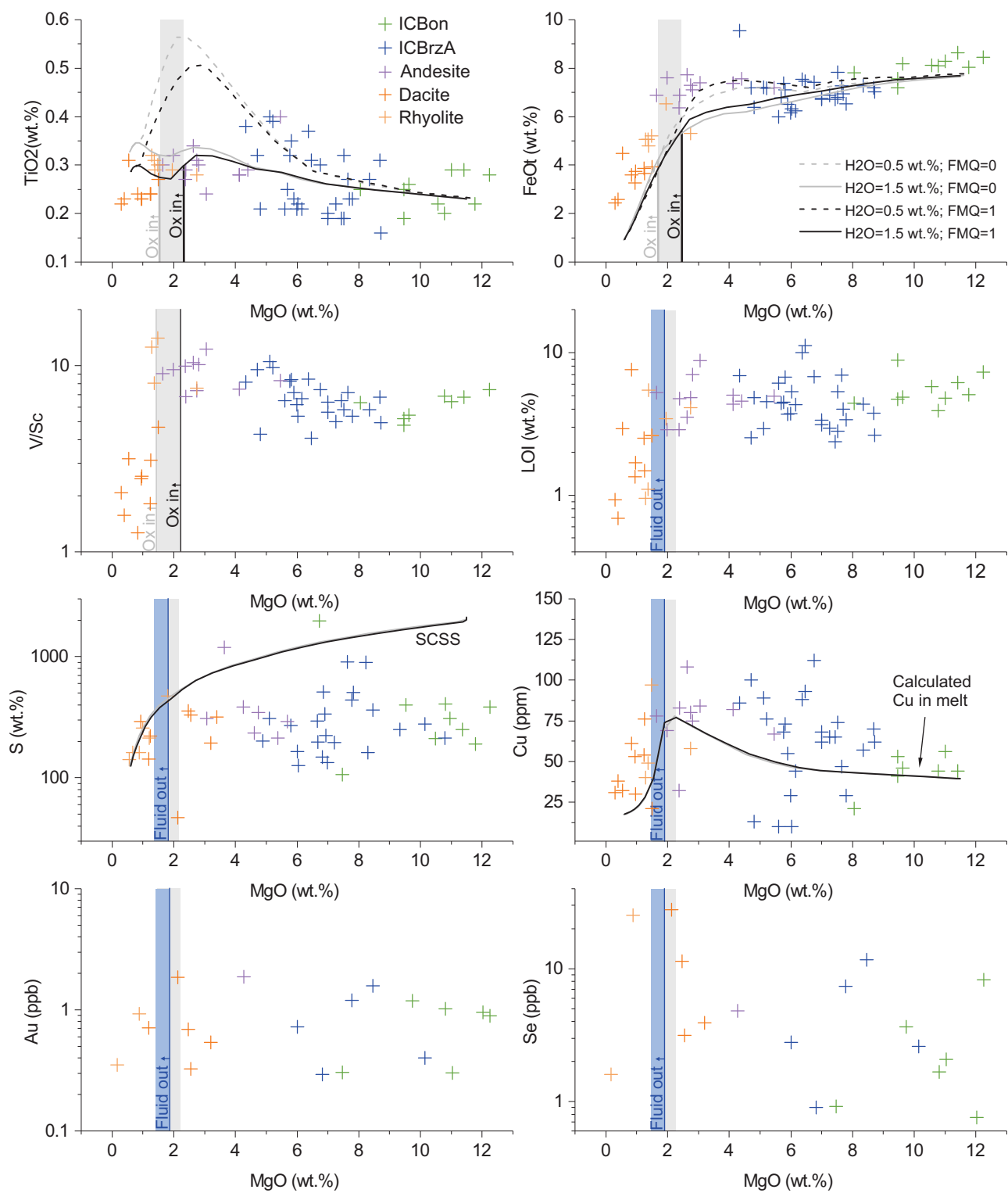


Figure 6.

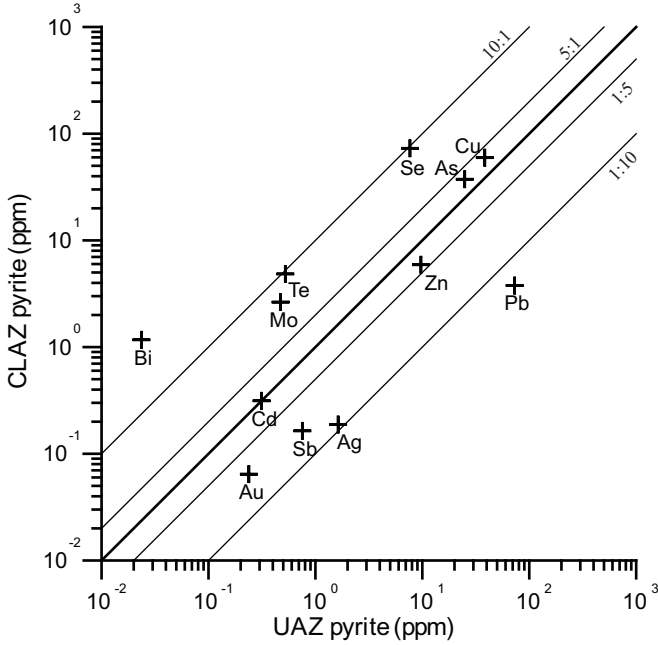


Figure 7.

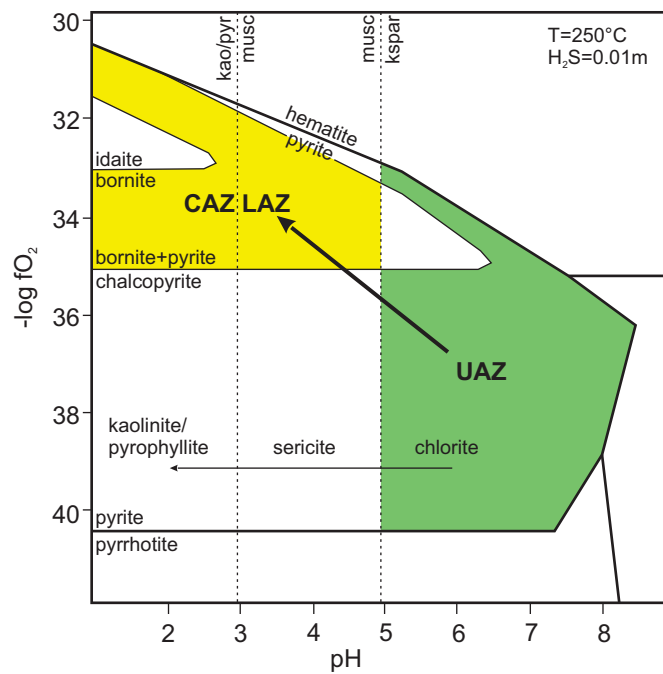


Figure 8.

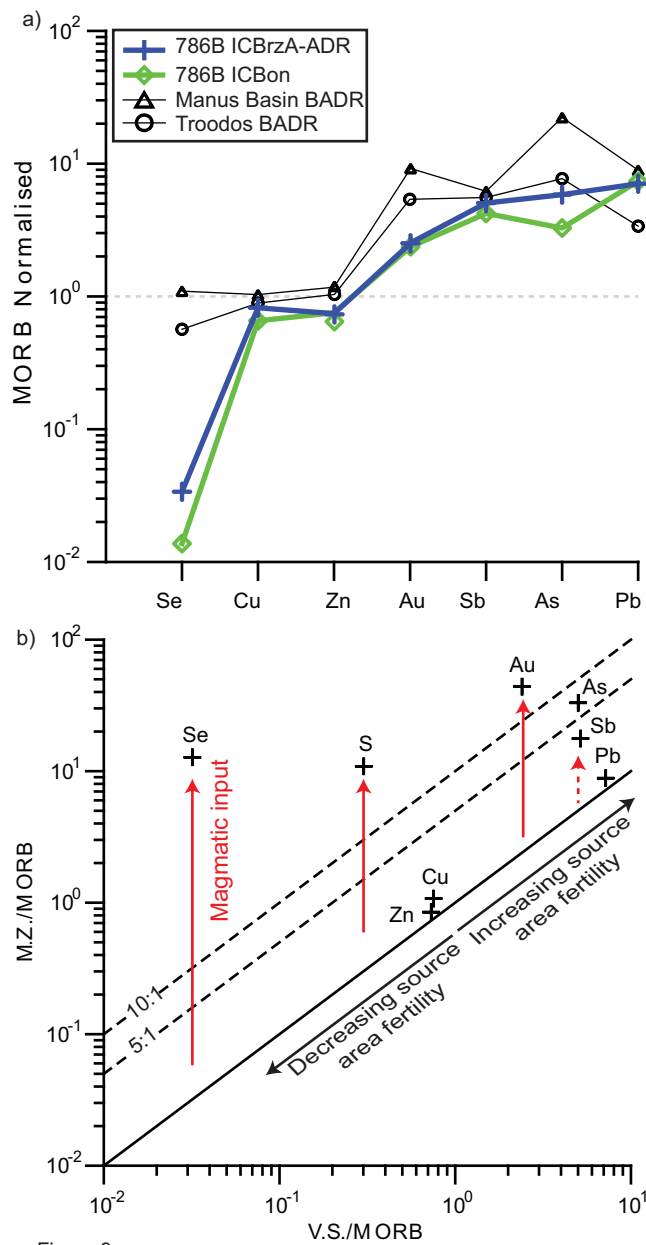


Figure 9.

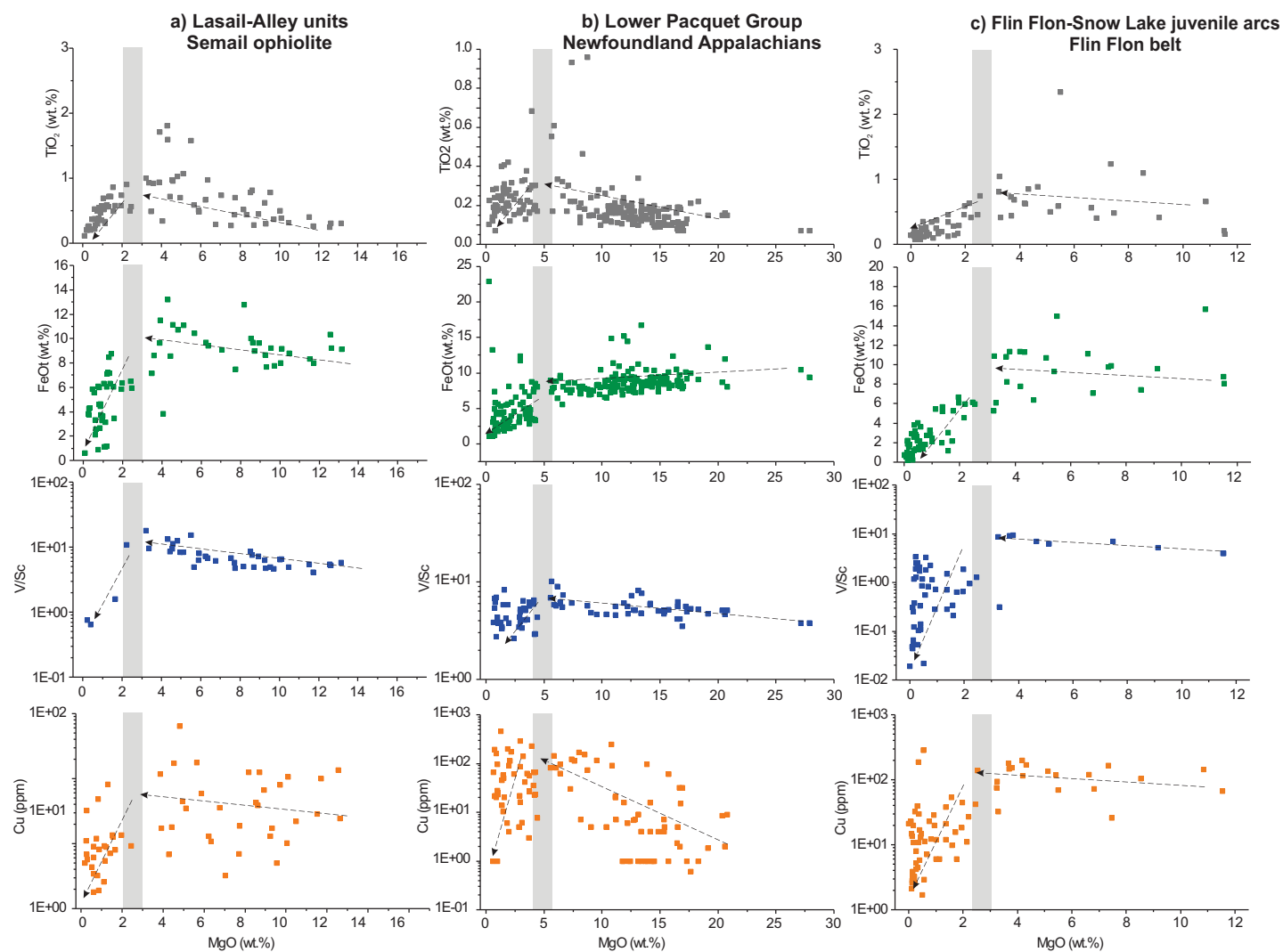


Figure. 10

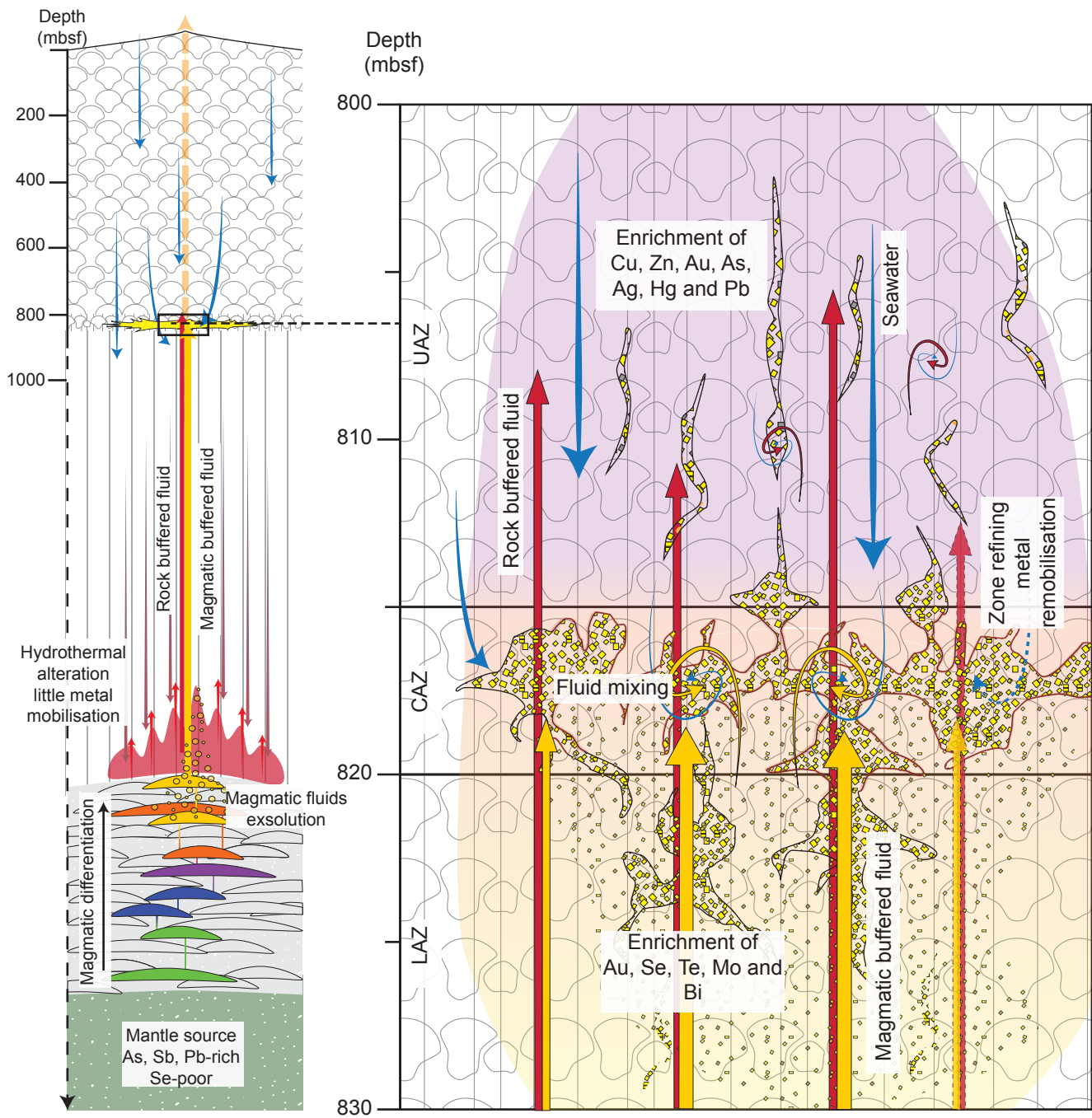


Figure 14.

Table 1. Whole rock data of Hole 786B lithologies and mineralised zone

			Au (ppb)	As (ppb)	Sb (ppb)	Se (ppb)	S (ppm)	Cu (ppm)	Zn (ppm)	Pb (ppm)
Volcanic section least altered samples										
High Ca Boninite series	HCBon	average (n=3)	0.81	292	22.5	2.16	2.26E+02	45.7	60.3	2.67
		σ	0.46	175	9.2	1.45	8.67E+01	14.1	9.9	2.16
		median	0.95	332	18.4	2.07	1.85E+02	47.0	61.0	2.00
Inter Ca Boninite series	ICBon	average (n=3)	0.74	429	95.6	3.62	4.70E+02	48.9	63.2	4.17
		σ	0.38	325	12.4	4.05	5.74E+02	31.8	7.5	1.53
		median	0.89	394	101.0	1.67	3.09E+02	44.0	62.0	5.00
	ICBrzA	average (n=5)	0.84	349	37.2	5.06	3.97E+02	56.0	56.5	3.83
		σ	0.54	197	34.9	4.40	4.11E+02	28.6	11.0	2.63
		median	0.73	426	29.4	2.78	2.69E+02	62.0	58.0	3.00
	Andesite	average (n=1)	1.87	808	105	4.82	1.57E+03	77.5	71.6	3.60
		σ					2.38E+03	31.6	15.2	2.10
		median					3.45E+02	78.0	72.0	3.00
	Dacite	average (n=5)	0.83	845	58.6	11.6	2.38E+02	49.3	47.6	5.21
		σ	0.60	1270	15.5	11.5	1.07E+02	24.4	9.4	2.22
		median	0.69	306	64.6	7.7	2.57E+02	49.0	48.0	5.50
Rhyolite	average (n=2)	0.64	768	218	13.4	4.58E+03	42.8	60.7	4.33	
	σ	0.41	243	66.2	16.7	6.98E+03	23.9	22.5	3.16	
	median	0.64	768	218	13.4	2.58E+02	35.0	54.0	3.50	
Low Ca Boninite series	LCBon /BrzA	average (n=10)	15.8	3640	248	2677	1.20E+04	75.2	66.5	5.04
		σ	22.1	3040	397	3991	1.32E+04	65.1	31.8	3.50
		median	4.93	2580	109	1652	8.94E+03	65.0	65.0	5.00
Mineralised zone (796-828 mbsf)										
Upper alteration zone	799-815 mbsf	average (n=4)	32.7	6050	99	851	5.76E+03	106	75.3	4.2
		σ	28.8	3780	27	997	4.87E+03	76.4	17.5	3.7
		median	30.1	5360	107	640	3.06E+03	75.0	70.0	2.0
Central alteration zone	815-820 mbsf	average (n=4)	4.38	2330	407	5010	2.23E+04	37.7	43.0	5.8
		σ	1.04	441	633	5760	1.32E+04	45.3	41.4	2.6
		median	4.11	2360	101	2940	1.55E+04	14.0	21.5	6.0
Lower alteration zone	820-828 mbsf	average (n=2)	4.72	1450	229	1660	4.63E+03	45.0	83.4	5.3
		σ	0.77	413	160	1860	2.19E+03	24.2	41.3	2.8
		median	4.72	1450	229	1660	4.01E+03	42.5	82.0	4.0

No HCBBrzA have been analysed. Low Ca boninite series corresponds to the mineralised zone between 796-828 mbsf. n= number of samples analysed for Au, As, Sb and Se. S, Cu, Zn and Pb data are compiled from Arculus et al. (1992), Alt et al. (1998) and Haraguchi and Teruaki (2014).

Table 2. Trace metal content of sulphides from the upper, central and lower alteration zones

		Cu (ppm)	Zn (ppm)	As (ppm)	Se (ppm)	Mo (ppm)	Ag (ppm)	Cd (ppm)	Sb (ppm)	Te (ppm)	Au (ppm)	Pb (ppm)	Bi (ppm)
Upper alteration zone													
Solid pyrite	average	88	15	110	19	2.6	5.2	0.73	4.9	3.6	1.3	170	0.086
	σ	150	13	210	71	5	10	2.8	15	15	2.8	320	0.27
	median	36	9.3	18	7.7	0.47	1.1	0.31	0.39	0.52	0.16	52	0.024
Porous pyrite	average	31	9.0	66	b.d.l.	0.86	2	1.4	1.3	1.2	0.46	110	0.15
	σ	35	13	98		1.5	3.3	3.9	2.5	1.7	0.61	120	0.27
	median	19	4.1	22		0.47	0.98	0.31	0.42	0.52	0.25	78	0.038
Marcasite	average	57	13	19	b.d.l.	0.52	1.6	0.63	0.17	b.d.l.	0.7	48	b.d.l.
	σ	81	12	4.3		0.12	1.4	0.73	0.2		0.86	130	
	median	43	8.7	18		0.47	1.4	0.31	0.078		0.37	7.6	
Sphalerite	average	2.1E+04	5.7E+05	18	8.2	1.2	4.5	1900	0.67	0.57	0.062	640	0.031
	σ	2.2E+04	1.0E+05	24	1.8	2.5	4.6	1300	1.4	0.16	0.054	2100	0.013
	median	1.3E+04	6.0E+05	11	7.7	0.47	2.1	1600	0.19	0.52	0.026	52	0.024
Chalcopyrite	average	2.1E+05	380	22	8.2	2	2.8	26	0.78	0.54	0.25	220	0.49
	σ	3.6E+04	320	10	0.57	0.27	1.4	18	0.19	0.019	0.03	130	0.012
	median	2.1E+05	380	22	8.2	2	2.8	26	0.78	0.54	0.25	220	0.49
Galena	average	33	5.9	33	110	2.7	150	94	120	0.82	0.032	8.5E+05	3.3
	σ	37	2.9	10	96	2.2	84	4.2	89	0.25	0.015	2.4E+04	2.3
	median	13	3.9	29	50	1.9	130	92	85	0.81	0.022	8.7E+05	2
Central alteration zone													
Disseminated pyrite	average	150	31	70	81	5.1	0.29	1.6	0.48	11	0.11	10	3.2
	σ	160	41	120	58	3.4	0.17	3.3	0.50	11	0.11	10	1.9
	median	100	10	33	80	3.8	0.19	0.3	0.38	8.4	0.07	5.2	3.0
Vein pyrite	average	270	12	120	120	6.0	0.23	b.d.l.	0.13	7.2	0.06	58	0.8
	σ	370	16	170	120	5.3	0.07		0.11	7.8	0.04	190	1.2
	median	110	3.9	59	100	3.7	0.19		0.08	4.0	0.06	1.4	0.6
Lower alteration zone													
Disseminated pyrite	average	110	5.3	95	69	1.1	0.35	0.4	0.74	5.4	0.09	50	3.0
	σ	230	1.5	110	97	0.8	0.43	0.2	0.80	7.4	0.06	41	4.2
	median	25	4.7	51	12	0.8	0.19	0.3	0.30	1.9	0.07	36	1.3
Bornite	average	5.6E+05	39	57	290	3.3	14.00	3.2	1.80	0.58	0.12	65	50
	σ	2.4E+04	71	25	140	5.6	8.20	1.4	3.50	0.11	0.15	78	8.4
	median	5.5E+05	3.9	72	320	0.5	8.90	2.8	0.09	0.52	0.03	39	51

b.d.l.=below detection limit