

# **The origin of polymetallic Ni-Co-As-Bi-Sb(-Ag-U) veins in the East Arm Basin and southern Slave Province, Northwest Territories**

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A thesis submitted to Saint Mary's University, Halifax, Nova Scotia in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in Applied Science

April 2019, Halifax, Nova Scotia

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## Abstract

### The origin of polymetallic Ni-Co-As-Bi-Sb(-Ag-U) veins in the East Arm Basin and southern Slave Province, Northwest Territories

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Polymetallic, “five-metals association (FMA)”-type Ni-Co-As-Bi-Sb (-Ag-U) hydrothermal vein deposits occur in the vicinity of the East Arm Basin, Great Slave Lake, at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass, Northwest Territories of Canada (Great Slave Lake East Arm basin), the locations of this study. Integration of bulk and microanalytical methods (e.g., cathodoluminescence (CL), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), fluid inclusion microthermometry, secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS), and laser ablation inductively coupled mass spectrometry (LA-ICPMS)) was focused on these systems with the goal of updating the current model for this deposit style.

The vein systems in the East Arm Basin occur over 55 km, and share similar microthermometric, isotopic, ore tenor and paragenetic characteristics. Fluid inclusion results indicates salinity (~18-23 wt% CaCl<sub>2</sub> equiv.) and minimum entrapment T (~170-250°C) varied little with time during vein formation. An entrapment window between ~145 and 225 °C and 0.5 to 0.95 kbar is estimated for coeval brine and carbonic inclusions. Fluid δ<sup>18</sup>O values increased by as much as 10 ‰ at the onset of mineralization. Quartz-carbonate hosted fluid inclusions in mineralized veins are enriched in Ca-Sr-Ba-Mg-Mn-Pb-Zn but contain only low-ppm concentrations of ore metals. Primary coeval bitumen inclusions, in contrast, are *significantly* enriched in U-Ni-Co-Bi-Ag-Sb-As-Mo-Cu. Integration of all data types strongly suggests that the precipitation of metals and bitumen was triggered by isothermal mixing of <sup>18</sup>O-rich basinal brines and metal-rich bitumen particles or oil droplets; oxidation of this hydrocarbon phase resulted in metal precipitation. The basinal brines and associated metal-rich bitumen are thought to be derived from formerly overlying outliers of the Athabasca -Hornby Bay -Thelon sedimentary basins that now outcrop ~300-1000 km away from the study areas. This work provides a direct confirmation for the involvement of basinal ore fluids, supporting recent models (i.e fluid mixing) and demonstrating hydrocarbons participated as metal transport agents.

April 2019

## **Acknowledgments**

I thank first and foremost, Dr. Jacob Hanley for his willingness to take me on for this project and for providing his time, assistance, and guidance over the duration of my thesis to provide me with everything I needed to succeed. Dr. Hanley created an environment that allowed me to work independently and productively to make my own thoughts and models for the study area. I also thank my committee members Luke Ootes (British Columbia Geological Survey), Dr. Dan Kontak (Laurentian University), and Dr. Jason Clyburne (Saint Mary's University) for their continued support throughout this thesis. I specifically thank Luke Ootes for all the time and patience he has dedicated and shown throughout this project, and for the many lessons taught during our time in the field. I thank Dr. Mathias Burisch for acting as my external examiner for this work. I would like to acknowledge all the help, support, and funding by the Northwest Territories Geological Survey, without your support, this work would not have been possible. A special thanks to the Hanley Lab group members, especially Glen, Mitch, Kevin, Corwin and Dan, for constantly putting up with my complaining, my fantasy football chats, and obnoxiously loud music pounding through my ear buds. Last but not least, I thank my amazing parents, Karen and Ian, brothers Ryan and Taylor, and long-time partner Lisa for their immense patience and support throughout my graduate degree. I would not have had the opportunity to complete this project if it were not for your support.

# Table of Contents

<b>Abstract</b> .....	2
<b>Acknowledgments</b> .....	3
<b>Table of Contents</b> .....	4
<b>List of Figures</b> .....	7
<b>List of Tables</b> .....	9
<b>Chapter 1: Introduction</b> .....	10
<b>1.0 Structure of Thesis</b> .....	10
<b>1.1 Objectives of thesis</b> .....	10
<b>1.2 List of abbreviations</b> .....	12
<b>1.3 Introduction to polymetallic “five-metal association” deposits</b> .....	<b>13</b>
<i>1.3.1 Paragenetic sequence of FMA vein systems</i> .....	16
<i>1.3.2 The silver-arsenide association, mechanism of metal deposition, and metal sources</i> .....	17
<b>1.4 Overview of study area</b> .....	22
<i>1.4.1 Regional geology</i> .....	22
1.4.1.1 Slave Province .....	22
1.4.1.2 Pethei Group .....	24
<i>1.4.2 Exploration History for Blanchet Island and Copper Pass</i> .....	24
1.4.2.1 Blanchet Island.....	24
1.4.2.2 Copper Pass.....	25
<b>1.5 References</b> .....	26
<b>Chapter 2: Geology, fluid characteristics, and paragenesis of polymetallic Ni-Co-As-Bi-Sb(-Ag-U) veins East Arm, Great Slave Lake, Northwest Territories, Canada</b> .....	29
Abstract.....	29
<b>2.1 Introduction</b> .....	30
<b>2.2 Geological Setting</b> .....	33
<i>2.2.1 Slave Province</i> .....	36
<i>2.2.2 Pethei Group</i> .....	38
<i>2.3.3 Other polymetallic FMA occurrences in the East Arm</i> .....	38
<b>2.3 Exploration History</b> .....	39

2.3.1 Blanchet Island .....	39
2.3.2 Copper Pass .....	40
<b>2.4 Sampling and analytical methodology .....</b>	<b>40</b>
2.4.1 Sample collection and processing .....	40
2.4.2 Optical microscopy and SEM-EDS analysis of ore and gangue mineralization .....	41
2.4.3 Bulk rock geochemistry .....	42
2.4.4 Fluid inclusion petrography and microthermometry .....	42
2.4.5 UV fluorescence microscopy.....	43
2.4.6 Confocal Raman spectroscopy.....	44
2.4.7 Laser ablation inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry (LA-ICPMS) .....	45
2.4.8 Bulk C-O and Sr isotope compositions and trace element analyses of vein carbonates.....	46
2.4.9 K-U-Th scintillometry .....	48
<b>2.5 Results .....</b>	<b>49</b>
2.5.1 Field observations and macroscopic textures .....	49
2.5.2 Vein metal tenors.....	55
2.5.3 Vein ore petrography.....	57
2.5.3.1 Blanchet Island.....	57
2.5.3.2 Copper Pass.....	61
2.5.3.3 Alteration .....	65
2.5.4 Sulfarsenide chemistry and thermometry .....	65
2.5.5 Fluid inclusion petrography, cathodoluminescence (CL) imaging and microthermometry .....	68
2.5.5.1 Petrography .....	68
2.5.5.2 Cathodoluminescence .....	77
2.5.5.3 Microthermometry .....	80
2.5.6 Raman Spectroscopy .....	85
2.5.7 SEM-EDS X-ray mapping of primary bitumen inclusions.....	91
2.5.8 Laser ablation ICP-MS analyses of fluid inclusions, bitumen, and carbonates.....	93
2.5.8.1 Fluid inclusions.....	93
2.5.8.2 Bitumen.....	94
2.5.8.3 Carbonate .....	98
2.5.9 Stable O and C, and radiogenic Sr isotope composition of vein carbonates .....	98
2.5.9.1 Carbonate bulk oxygen and carbon isotopes.....	98

2.5.9.2 In-situ oxygen isotopes (SIMS) of early vein quartz .....	99
2.5.9.3 Carbonate radiogenic Sr isotope data.....	99
2.5.10 K-U-Th scintillometry.....	100
<b>2.6 Discussion.....</b>	<b>100</b>
2.6.1 <i>Timing and paragenesis of FMA mineralization in the East Arm basin</i> .....	101
2.6.1.1 Barren (pre-vein) stage and early vein period.....	103
2.6.1.2 Main vein period, stages 1 and 2 - Arsenides .....	103
2.6.1.3 Main vein period, stage 3 - Sulfarsenides .....	104
2.6.1.4 Main vein period, stage 4 - Base metal sulfide and native Bi.....	104
2.6.1.5 Late vein period .....	105
2.6.2 <i>Comparison of FMA mineralization in the East Arm basin and Southern Slave province</i> .....	107
2.6.3 <i>Comparison to other relevant regional and global deposit examples</i> .....	111
2.6.3.1 Regionally .....	111
2.6.3.2 Globally .....	112
2.6.4 <i>Constraints on fluid and ore metal sources</i> .....	113
2.6.4.1 Fluid sources .....	113
2.6.4.2 Metal sources .....	118
2.6.5 <i>Estimates of P-T conditions for FMA vein formation</i> .....	123
2.6.6 <i>A revised model for FMA vein formation in the East Arm basin and elsewhere</i> .....	128
<b>2.7 Conclusions.....</b>	<b>135</b>
<b>2.8 References.....</b>	<b>138</b>
<b>Chapter 3: Key conclusions and future work.....</b>	<b>147</b>
<b>3.1 Key conclusions.....</b>	<b>147</b>
<b>3.2 Future work.....</b>	<b>150</b>

## List of Figures

### *In Chapter 1*

**Figure 1** Geological map of the Northwest Territories, Canada, highlighting historical polymetallic vein deposits of the Port Radium, Camsell River, and East Arm areas

### *In Chapter 2*

**Figure 1** Geological map highlighting polymetallic “five metals ± U” vein deposits within Canada

**Figure 2** Outcrop-scale images of East Arm deposits demonstrating showing spatial relations between host rocks and polymetallic veins

**Figure 3** Hand sample slabs from the East Arm deposits

**Figure 4** Bulk rock ore metal abundances from mineralized samples in the East Arm

**Figure 5** Backscattered electron images showing textural relationships between (sulf)arsenides and trace/accessory phases at Blanchet Island

**Figure 6** Backscattered electron images showing textural relationships between (sulf)arsenides and trace/accessory phases at Copper Pass

**Figure 7** Ternary diagram showing atomic weight % (relative) Ni-Co-Fe sulfarsenides for East Arm deposits

**Figure 8** Photomicrographs of fluid inclusion types and relevant textural features of Blanchet Island and Copper Pass deposits

**Figure 9** Photomicrographs of quartz-hosted fluid inclusion assemblages and their textural relationships

**Figure 10** Schematic illustration of textural relationship between nickeline vein, early comb texture quartz, late quartz, and carbonate gangue with associated fluids inclusion assemblages

**Figure 11** Hot cathodoluminescence of early quartz, nickeline and later ferroan dolomite at Copper Pass

**Figure 12** Box and whisker plots showing salinity range and homogenization temperatures of carbonate and quartz-hosted fluid inclusions from Blanchet Island and Copper Pass

**Figure 13** P-T diagram of isochore fields showing range in possible trapping conditions for all 2-phase (at 20°C) brine inclusions

**Figure 14** Raman spectroscopy spectra diagrams of quartz-hosted inclusions.

**Figure 15** Raman spectroscopy spectra diagrams of carbonate-hosted inclusions

**Figure 16** Raman spectra from hydrocarbon+oil-bearing fluid inclusions, Copper Pass

- Figure 17** Scanning electron microscopy/ energy dispersive x-ray spectroscopy mapping of primary bitumen particles
- Figure 18** Major, minor, and trace element plot of quartz-hosted fluid inclusions at Copper Pass
- Figure 19** Laser ablation inductively coupled mass spectroscopy transient signals for ablations of bitumen and brine inclusions
- Figure 18** Major, minor, and trace element composition plot of quartz-hosted fluid inclusions at Copper Pass
- Figure 20** Paragenetic sequence polymetallic Ni-Co-As-Bi-Sb(-As-U) veins including fluid inclusion and ore mineralogy of Blanchet Island and Copper Pass
- Figure 21** Comparison of fluid inclusion homogenization temperature and wt.% CaCl<sub>2</sub> equiv. at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass.
- Figure 22** Comparative isotope (Sr, O and C) diagram of East Arm deposits and Canadian polymetallic deposits
- Figure 23** Comparative ternary plots of barren and mineralizing fluids of polymetallic, sedimentary, and basement-hosted hydrothermal environments found globally
- Figure 24** Strontium isotope plot, comparing Blanchet Island and Copper Pass to rock units of the East Arm Basin and Great Bear magmatic zone
- Figure 25** Box-whisker plot summarizing five-metal association ore metal contents bitumens and bulk mineralization
- Figure 26** Normative abundance diagrams (unnormalized) comparing rare earth elements (REEs) of bitumen and carbonate gangue of Copper Pass, Union Island veins, and Athabasca Basin
- Figure 27** Graphical estimation of trapping conditions for quartz-hosted, bitumen-free *Type 1* and *Type 3* inclusion assemblages at Copper Pass (sample SL-M-2-1)
- Figure 28** Schematic crustal section consisting of crystalline basement rocks covered by overlying intracratonic sedimentary basin, showing the role of sedimentary fluids in polymetallic vein precipitation.



## List of Tables

### *In Chapter 1*

- Table 1** List of abbreviations and acronyms
- Table 2** Summary of polymetallic veins in the NWT and their historical mining production

### *In Chapter 2*

- Table 1** Bulk rock geochemistry of East Arm polymetallic veins at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass
- Table 2** Representative electron microprobe analysis of arsenide metals and associated trace phases at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass
- Table 3** Representative electron microprobe analytical results of sulfarsenide metals at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass.
- Table 4** Results of microthermometry of representative fluid inclusions from polymetallic veins at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass.
- Table 5** Results of laser ablation ICP-MS analyses of major, minor, and trace elements in saline fluid inclusions at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass.
- Table 6** Results of laser ablation ICP-MS analyses of quartz-hosted primary bitumen inclusions in quartz at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass.
- Table 7** Results of laser ablation ICP-MS analyses of carbonate gangue at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass.
- Table 8** Results of stable isotope and ICP-OES analyses of gangue minerals in nickeline veins at Copper Pass.
- Table 9** Results of secondary ion mass spectrometry oxygen isotope data for quartz at Copper Pass.
- Table 10** Results of K-U-Th hand-held scintillometer readings on mineralized veins at Copper Pass

## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

### **1.0 Structure of Thesis**

This study is comprised of three chapters: Chapter 1 contains a brief outline of the thesis structure, research objectives, and a general description of polymetallic “five metals association” veins (characteristics and ore genesis models). Chapter 2 provides a detailed petrographic and mineralogical description of arsenide/sulfarsenide mineralization styles present at two sub-economic mineral deposit settings (Blanchet Island and Copper Pass, East Arm of Great Slave Lake, NWT, Canada), and presents comprehensive fluid inclusion, mineral chemistry and stable and radiogenic isotope data for the two deposits. These data are used to define a model for the formation of this style of mineralization in the study area and elsewhere. Chapter 3 reiterates the main conclusions of Chapter 2 and proposes future work to further elucidate the formation of the polymetallic “five-metals association” veins in the study area and elsewhere.

### **1.1 Objectives of thesis**

Polymetallic, FMA deposits remain understudied when compared with other mineral deposit types (e.g Orogenic gold, Ni-Cu-PGE or Cu-Mo porphyry), despite being historically important as high grade sources of Ag±U in Canada (e.g., Cobalt-Gowganda, Ontario and Port Radium, NWT) and elsewhere globally in the early 20<sup>th</sup> c. FMA deposits have not received attention in research and mineral exploration in recent decades. While these deposits have high grades and multi-commodities, their low tonnage discontinuous vein-hosted nature has rendered them less attractive targets relative to bulk-mineable U, Ag and Co. The main objectives of the study are: (i) to constrain fluid PTX conditions, depth of ore emplacement, conditions of ore formation, metal source rock or magma; (ii) to compare deposits and evaluate the influence of local geology on ore-

grade and mineralization style (host rock composition, proximity to metal sources, proximity to intrusive rocks). (iii) to develop a model for the evolution of the “five-metals association” mineralizing systems in the study area by establishing the relationship between mineralization and metal/fluid source/s, and (iv) to illustrate the potential influence and importance of sedimentary basins as sources of sedimentary bitterns, hydrocarbons and metals required for this style of mineralization. This project uses mineralogical, geochemical and isotope methodologies to provide an updated model for polymetallic five-metal veins at Blanchet Island, which is hosted by Great Slave Supergroup rocks (Paleoproterozoic), and at Copper Pass, which is hosted by Yellowknife Supergroup rocks (Archean) in the East Arm region of Great Slave Lake. The results are compared to historical deposits, of similar classification, in the Great Bear Lake area, and to other deposits distributed globally. This comparison provides insights into the fundamental controls required for the generation of economic vs. subeconomic deposits. While the mineralization styles at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass are similar (*sensu lato* five-metals vein deposits), they have different metal associations (i.e., Co-dominated mineralization at Blanchet Island, Ni-dominated mineralization at Copper Pass), and they are hosted in two different geological settings with contrasting host rocks of different age. This study provides insight into the conditions of ore formation in these five-metal associated veins, including temperature, fluid salinity, paleodepth and mechanisms for metal precipitation, as well as fluid and metal sources.

## 1.2 List of abbreviations

Abbreviation	Meaning
anna	annabergite
BI	Blanchet Island occurrence
BSE	backscattered electrons
btm	bitumen
ca	calcite
carb	carbonate
carbonic	fluid composed of CO <sub>2</sub> and/or hydrocarbons
cbt	cobaltite
CIS	Compton intrusive suite
CL	cathodoluminescence
CLG	Caribou Lake Gabbro occurrence
clv	cleavage plane
CP	Copper Pass occurrence (alt: BM, NIX, GOGO, Sachowia Lake)
Fe-dol	ferroan dolomite
FIA	fluid inclusion assemblage
FMA	“five metal association”
GC	gas chromatography
gdf	gersdorffite
gn	galena
HC	hydrocarbon
LA-ICP-MS	laser ablation inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry
L <sub>aq</sub>	aqueous liquid phase
L <sub>carbonic</sub>	carbonic liquid phase
LB	Labelle Penninsula (occurrence)
ME	metal
nk	nickeline
polymetallic	“five-metal vein association” main: Ni-Co-As-Ag-Bi; other: Sb, U, Cu, Pb, Zn, Mo
py	pyrite
qtz	quartz
ram	rammelsbergite
saf	safflorite
S <sub>brine</sub>	secondary origin brine fluid inclusion trail
S <sub>carbonic</sub>	secondary origin carbonic fluid inclusion trail
SIMS	secondary ion mass spectrometry

skut	skutterudite
TD-MS	total digestion mass spectrometer
T <sub>h</sub>	temperature of homogenization
T <sub>h</sub> <sup>carbonic</sup>	temperature of homogenization for carbonic phase
T <sub>m</sub> <sup>ice</sup>	temperature of final ice melting
UI	Union Island shale occurrence
urn	uraninite
V	vapour phase
V <sub>carbonic</sub>	carbonic vapour
wt. %	weight percentage
wt. % CaCl <sub>2</sub> eq. or equiv.	fluid inclusion bulk salinity in weight percentage CaCl <sub>2</sub> equivalent

### 1.3 Introduction to polymetallic “five-metal association” deposits

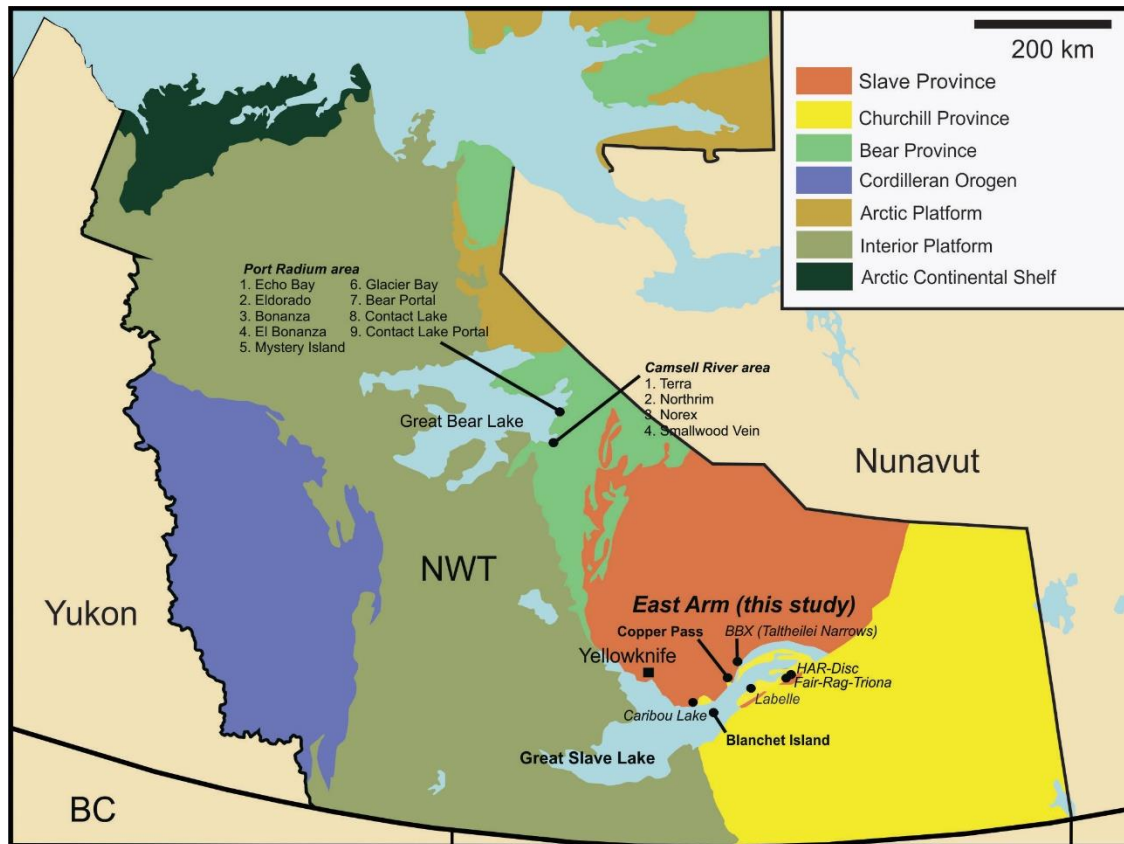
Polymetallic veins deposits enriched in *Ni, Co, As, Ag, Bi*, Sb, U, Mo, Cu, Zn, Pb and other metals, traditionally defined as “five-metal association” (FMA) veins (Badham, 1975; Kissin 1992), occur worldwide with major examples, in Canada, Czech Republic (Jachymov: Ondrus et al., 2003), Switzerland (Jaffe, 1986; Penninic Alps: Kreissl et al., 2018), Germany (Odenwald: Burisch et al., 2017; Schneeberg: Lipp and Flach 2003), Mexico (Batopilas: Wilkerson et al., 1988), Morocco (Bou Azzer: Ahmed et al., 2009), and Norway (Kongsberg: Lietz, 1939; Neumann, 1944; Staude et al., 2007). Canada hosts three of the largest FMA vein deposits in the world at Cobalt-Gowganda (Boyle, 1968; Andrews et al., 1986; Marshall et al., 1993), and Thunder Bay, Ontario (Franklin et al., 1986), and the Great Bear Lake region, Northwest Territories (Robinson and Ohmoto, 1973; Changkakoti et al., 1986; Changkakoti and Morton, 1986).

Mineral exploration and historic mining activity in the Northwest Territories identified many other FMA vein systems in the southern Slave Province and East Arm basin of Great Slave Lake. Compared to deposits in the Great Bear Lake region, these FMA systems have not been studied in

detail and their genetic kinship to the larger deposits in the Great Bear Lake region is unknown. Two FMA occurrences are found at Blanchet Island in the Great Slave Supergroup and Copper Pass in the Yellowknife Supergroup and are the topic of this study (Fig. 1). These mines produced minor amounts of cobalt and nickel (Table 2).

**Table 2 Summary of polymetallic "five-metals association" (FMA) veins in the NWT (Silke, 2009)**

Name	Commodity	Tonnage, grade details	Historical grade
Bear Portal	Ag	unknown	unknown
Blanchet Island	Co-Ni	330 tons	15% Ni + 11% Co
Bonanza	Ag	unknown	unknown
Contact Lake	U+Ag	16995 tons (678,000 oz Ag and 6933 lbs U <sub>3</sub> O <sub>8</sub> )	unknown
Contact Lake Portal	Ag-Cu	unknown	unknown
Copper Pass	Ni	>450 tons	33-35% Ni
Echo Bay	Ag-Cu	363,140 tons (23,544,461 oz Ag, 4505 tons Cu)	unknown
El Bonanza	Ag	2.95 tons (30,175 oz Ag)	unknown
Eldorado	U-Ra-Ag-Cu-Ni-Co-Pb	1,366,602 tons (6,079 tons U <sub>3</sub> O <sub>8</sub> , 450g Ra, 13,371,382 oz Ag, 2,389 tons Cu, 140 tons Ni, 250 tons Co, 8 tons Pb)	4,328 oz/ton Ag
Glacier Bay	Ag	unknown	4 oz/ton Ag, 0.02% U <sub>3</sub> O <sub>8</sub>
Mystery Island	U-Ra	unknown	unknown
Norex	Ag	53,697 tons (2,066,744 oz Ag)	unknown
Northrim	Ag	12,000 tons (30,000 oz Ag)	unknown
Smallwood Lake	Ag	18,204 tons (169,720 oz Ag)	unknown
Terra	Ag-Cu	507,629 tons (14,236,325 oz Ag, 2,248 tons Cu)	unknown



**Figure 1 - Geological map of the Northwest Territories, Canada, showing major geological divisions and historical and existing polymetallic FMA-type vein deposits of the Port Radium, Camsell River and East Arm basin areas.**

### *1.3.1 Paragenetic sequence of FMA vein systems*

The mineralogy of FMA veins is their most distinctive feature, containing a combination of mineral species considered rare in other deposit settings (Kissin 1992). Kissin (1992) summarizes the typical sequence of mineral assemblages (i.e., stages of mineralization) present in FMA systems (cf. Bastin, 1939; Boyle, 1968; Boyle and Dass, 1971; Petruk, 1971; Badham, 1975; Andrews et al., 1986; Changkakoti and Morton, 1986; Marshall et al., 1993; Ondrus et al., 2003; Markl et al., 2016; Gandhi et al., 2018 and others therein):

- Stage 1- Early barren stage. Quartz precipitated, sometimes with base metal sulfides (pyrite, chalcopyrite, and sphalerite).
- Stage 2- U stage. Uraninite-quartz precipitation occurs. This stage is absent in many large deposit examples (e.g., Cobalt-Gowganda, Ontario), but economically important in others (e.g., Port Radium district, Great Bear Lake, NWT).
- Stage 3- Ni-Co arsenide-Ag stage. Ni-Co arsenide mineralization occurs with native Ag and Bi, occurring with carbonate gangue (calcite or dolomite).
- Stage 4- Sulfarsenide-sulfide stage. A gradational stage following Stage 3, comprised of Ni-Co-sulfarsenides and later base metal sulfide (pyrite, galena, chalcopyrite, sphalerite) mineralization occurring with native Ag, argentite in carbonate gangue with minor quartz, barite, fluorite. Native arsenic and antimony may occur in this stage, as well as Sb-As-Ag sulfosalts.
- Stage 5- Late barren stage. Dominated by low temperature carbonate precipitation (calcite) with minor barite, fluorite.



Kissin (1992) further noted the Ni-Co arsenide-Ag stage is most diagnostic of FMA systems and not all stages of mineralization are present within all FMA deposits. Badham (1975) described the complex mineralogical variance within polymetallic veins of Ni-Co-Ag with trace Bi, with observations from the Camsell River area (district) of the Great Bear Lake region, NWT. The chemistry and mineralogy of arsenides may be extremely variable, but generally they may consist of (i) Ni monoarsenides (nickeline), (ii) Ni diarsenides (rammelsbergite), (iii) Co-Fe diarsenides (safflorite, smaltite and loellingite) and (iv) Co-Fe rich, Ni-poor triarsenides (skutterudite) (Kissin 1992). Antimony analogues of the Ni monoarsenides may also be present (e.g., breithauptite). Typically, arsenides in FMA systems grow into dendrites and rosettes, and usually show remarkable compositional zonation from Ni-rich core zones to Co-rich margins and rims, and with sporadic concentrations in the outer parts of Fe. Silver concentrations occur within the core of the arsenide structure, typically with nickeline. Transitional sulfarsenides (e.g. Ni-cobaltite, Co-gersdorffite) and later base-metal sulfides (chalcopyrite, pyrite, sphalerite and galena) are often associated with FMA veins. Gangue minerals quartz and calcite dominate the early and late stage mineralization and often host microinclusions of hematite and magnetite (Leblanc, 1986). Alteration assemblages are spatially restricted to within ~10 cm of mineralized veins and comprise primarily propylitic assemblages (chlorite -albite nearest vein contact, epidote-carbonate away from the contact) as well as hematitization and minor sericitization peripherally (Andrews et al., 1986; Kissin, 1992).

### *1.3.2 The silver-arsenide association, mechanism of metal deposition, and metal sources*

The FMA deposit style is a distinct vein style, with Ag found in association with Co-Ni-Fe sulfarsenides and arsenide mineral assemblages. Kissin (1992) highlights that host rocks can be of

varying composition and age, suggesting FMA deposition is not limited to one specific period or periods, or host rock types. Metal associations and ore mineralogy and textures are similar between deposits styles. However, studies of the alteration styles, fluid composition and physicochemical characteristics, stable isotope systematics and other features demonstrate significant variability between deposits, with several alternative ore genesis models proposed (cf. Kissin, 1992; Markl et al., 2016; Burisch et al., 2017; Gandhi et al., 2018; Kreissl et al., 2018 and authors therein). Generally, previous literature highlighted depositional environments for FMA systems are characterized by: (i) tectonic environments broadly characterized by basinal subsidence and rifting; (ii) spatial association between the deposits and regional-scale faults; and (iii) close spatial and temporal relationship between the deposits and mafic or felsic intrusions, with both mineralizing solutions and magmas potentially utilizing deep fault systems to access the upper levels of the crust (Andrews, 1986).

Marshall et al. (1993) and Marshall et al. (2000) discuss that Ag deposition (i.e., at Cobalt), occurred via three possible mechanisms: (i) the hydrothermal boiling of Ag-saturated saline solutions; (ii) cooling of Ag-saturated fluid; or (iii) mixing of a Ag-saturated fluid with a less saline fluid (of meteoric or magmatic origin). These mechanisms assume that Ag was transported as a chloride complex (rather than bisulfide complex) in the saline brines. Fluid inclusion studies confirm the presence of highly saline brines as the primary fluid phase responsible for vein deposition (Scott and O'Connor, 1971; Kerrich et al., 1986; Marshall et al., 1993); and the low sulfur fugacity associated with vein formation, indicated by lack of aqueous or gaseous sulfur species in fluid inclusions, and sulfur deficiency interpreted from the Ag-arsenide association (Marshall et al., 2000).

Fluid inclusion studies in the Cobalt deposits (Kerrick et al. 1986 and Andrews et al. 1986), and Great Bear Lake deposits (Robinson and Ohmoto 1973 and Changkakoti et al. 1986b), investigated fluid inclusions in the Cobalt and Great Bear Lake deposits, respectively. Deposits in the Cobalt-Gowganda district formed from highly saline brines (~30-54 wt% NaCl equiv.) in the temperature range of 150-250°C at depth of ~2 km (Andrews et al., 1986), and in the Great Bear Lake region from highly saline brines (15-35 wt% NaCl equiv.) between 200-300°C at a depth of 2-4 km (Robinson and Ohmoto, 1973; Changkakoti et al., 1986). Kerrich et al. (1986) and Changkakoti et al. (1986) provided textural and microthermometric evidence of boiling (homogenization of liquid-rich and vapor-rich simultaneously, at the same T) supporting a much shallower depth of formation (< 600 bar and < 200 bar, for Cobalt and Great Bear Lake deposits, respectively) and supporting a hydrothermal boiling model for silver deposition. However, it has been suggested (Marshall and Watkinson, 2000) that owing to an incomplete microthermometric data set, it is impossible to make a distinction between true boiling assemblages and assemblages that suffered post-entrapment volume changes and phase separation (due to leakage). This challenged the boiling theory.

Evidence from stable isotope data of gangue minerals, although limited, supports the fluid mixing ore depositional model (e.g., at Cobalt-Gowganda). While  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta\text{D}$  compositions for carbonates and quartz span broadly from the field for magmatic waters, through metamorphic fluids and seawater, towards the meteoric water line, a distinct binary mixing trend was identified between a high  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , high-salinity end-member and low  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , and low-salinity end-member (Kerrick et al., 1986). Marshall et al. (1993) confirmed a transient mixing event at the time of silver deposition; specifically, high salinity (halite-saturated) inclusions predate and postdate silver deposition, whereas less saline (halite-undersaturated) inclusions are a syn-silver deposition.

Kissin (1992) suggested that silver deposition may have been further promoted by fluid interaction with rock or mineralogical units of a reducing nature, such as pre-existing Ni-As-Co-S minerals, or graphite/sulfur-bearing shales.

Suspected metal sources for the FMA deposit style remain controversial. Kissin (1992) summarized FMA deposit in the Great Bear Lake, Cobalt-Gowganda and Thunder Bay districts.

These include:

- (i) A hydrothermal/magmatic model, where granitic intrusions are thought to be a source of silver.
- (ii) A hydrothermal/metamorphic model, where thermal and chemical effects are thought to occur from mafic (diabase sills; metamorphic heating) intrusions in-situ or at depth.
- (iii) Mixing of hydrothermal solutions of mafic and granitic affinities.
- (iv) By hydrothermal/metamorphic processes concentrating components from organic-rich black shales, pre-existing massive sulphides, or metal-rich volcanoclastic rocks.
- (v) A syngenetic model, where an exhalative process is responsible for a syngenetic stratiform deposits.
- (vi) A non-magmatic model, where FMA solutions originate at depth, near the crust-mantle boundary.
- (vii) By introduction, via deep fractures, of a juvenile five-element solution in a basalt-generating environment near the crust-mantle boundary.
- (vii) Circulation of connate brines in a continental rift environment.

A considerable gap in the literature exists after 1992 until recently. Markl et al. (2016) considered textural evidence, stable isotope data, and mineral assemblage chemistry and proposed an elegant mass balance model for the formation of FMA deposits involving the sudden influx of hydrocarbons, liberated through “natural fracking” induced by cyclic seismic events, and subsequent mixing of CH<sub>4</sub> with metal-rich aqueous fluid causing rapid metal precipitation (and changes in fluid chemistry) through redox and pH changes. Burisch et al. (2016) tested the general model of Markl et al. (2016) in the Odenwald district, in SW Germany, combining mineralogical and textural observations with geochronological, stable isotope, and fluid inclusion (microthermometry, Raman spectroscopy) data to model the formation of the FMA ores as the products of mixing of three distinct fluids (a metal-rich crystalline basement brine, a sulfide-bearing basinal [sedimentary] brine, and methane-dominated fluid). They asserted that metals were derived from basement brines, and confirmed the present of (trace) CH<sub>4</sub> and HS<sup>-</sup> in fluid inclusions in carbonate. They related the ore-forming process through lithotectonic considerations and geochronology to be linked to opening of the North Atlantic basin in the mid-Jurassic. In a study by Kreissl et al. (2018), the earlier work of Markl et al. (2016) and Burisch et al. (2016) was tested further through a comprehensive mineral chemical, textural, fluid inclusion, stable isotope and geochronological study of an FMA vein system in the Penninic Alps, Switzerland. They highlight the mineralogical and thermodynamic complexity of the earlier models along with identifying more complex hydrocarbons (e.g., kerogen) in fluid inclusions. That study conceptualized a model for the evolution of basinal fluids and reiterated the importance of basement lithologies (e.g., metal-enriched “fahlbands” in gneisses, or other mafic rocks and possibly granitoids) as likely metal sources for the FMA association.

## **1.4 Overview of study area**

### *1.4.1 Regional geology*

#### 1.4.1.1 Slave Province

The Slave Province is one of 35 Archean cratons preserved worldwide. The Yellowknife Supergroup refers to a package of supracrustal rocks that includes volcanic and sedimentary units that were deposited in the Neoproterozoic, between ca. 2.74 and 2.62 Ga. The Yellowknife Supergroup overlies and older Meso to Paleoproterozoic core, and both were intruded by extensive plutons in the late Archean (ca. 2.63 to 2.58 Ga) (Bleeker and Hall 2007; Henderson 1970). Between 2595 and 2585 Ma (Bleeker and Hall 2007; Davis and Bleeker 1999) a craton-wide event known as the “granite bloom” transferred a significant fraction of heat-producing elements and lower crustal fluids into the upper crust, promoting slow cooling and stiffening of the crust. This allowed for the craton to be preserved long-term (Bleeker and Hall 2007). Located in the Yellowknife Supergroup are metasediments of amphibolite and greenschist facies, along with metavolcanics such as pillow basalts, breccia, tuff and amphibolite. The western portion of the Yellowknife Supergroup is dominated by mafic volcanic rocks, where the eastern limits are dominated by felsic rocks. These Late Archean granitic intrusions coincided with regional and contact metamorphic events. Stratigraphic subdivision of the supracrustal rocks of the supergroup are distinguished with three divisions: (a) the base, consisting of mainly mafic flows and intrusions (b) composed of conglomerates, quartzites, and intermediate to felsic volcanics (c) greywacke and slate (Heilmstaedt and Padgham, 1986).

The East Arm refers to a geographic region of Great Slave Lake, NT. The north shore of the East Arm is underlain by Archean rocks of the Slave craton, in addition to the Blachford Intrusive complex (ca. 2.17 Ga; Figure 1). The south shore of the East Arm is underlain by mylonitic rocks

of the Great Slave Lake shear zone (ca. 2.6 to 1.92 Ga) (Hamner et al 1988). The East Arm basin refers to stratigraphic package of supracrustal and lesser intrusive rocks that were deposited between ca. 2.04 and 1.85 Ga (Bowring et al., 1984; Kjarsgaard et al. 2013; Sheen et al., 2019). These are preserved on a series of islands in the East Arm of Great Slave Lake, with lesser occurrences on the southern and northern mainland (Figure 1).

The East Arm basin is composed of four temporally and geologically distinct units (Hoffman, 1968, 1988), from base to top: the Union Island Group (ca. 2.04 Ga; Sheen et al., 2019); Wilson Island Group (ca. 1.93 Ga; Bowring et al., 1984); Great Slave Supergroup (<1.93 to 1.85 Ga; Kjarsgaard et al., 2013; Bowring et al., 1984), and; Et-Then Group (<1.85 Ga). Two associated intrusive suites are known in the region, the Butte Island suite (ca. 1.89 Ga; Bowring et al., 1984) and the Compton Intrusive suite (ca. 1.87 Ga). Sedimentological studies of the East Arm basin led Hoffman (1968, 1969, 1970) to believe the basin was a preserved fold-belt, however was later interpreted to have developed as a failed rift (Athapuscow aulacogen) (Hoffman, 1973; Bowring et al., 1984; Sheen et al., 2018). Hoffman (1987) revisited the aulacogen model, rejecting it in favour of a model involving a syn-collisional transtensional basin during Slave-Rae provincial collision (Sheen et al., 2018).

The Great Slave Supergroup (1.93 Ga and 1.85 Ga; Bowring et al., 1984 and Kjarsgaard et al., 2013) is relevant to this study as it is host to the Blanchet Island deposit (Figure 1). It is composed of four lithostratigraphic formations (Hoffman, 1968, 1988), from base to top: the Sosan; Kahochella; Pethei, and; Christie Bay groups. The units of the Great Slave Supergroup consist of alternating fluvial and marine sedimentary rocks (feldspathic sandstones, mudstones,

conglomerates, limestones and shales) with volcanic sequences of the Sosan (basalt, rhyolite), Kahochella (basalt, rhyolite, gabbro) and Christie Bay groups. The rock units of interest for this study are the Pethei Group and the Compton Intrusive Suite.

#### 1.4.1.2 Pethei Group

The Pethei Group is composed of ten lithostratigraphic formations, representing a sequence consists of basinal and platformal lithologies, consisting of feldspathic wacke turbidites and greywackes and dolomitic limestones respectively. The FMA veins at the Blanchet Island deposit are hosted in the Blanchet Formation which consists of feldspathic wacke turbidites, marlstone, and limestone-argillite rhythmites that were deposited in deeper-water basins (Hoffman, 1968).

The Compton Intrusive Suite refers to a series of sills that extend the length of the East Arm basin (Bowring et al., 1984). These intrusions range from hornblende-biotite diorite to quartz monzonites and intruded at ca. 1.87 Ga (Bowring et al., 1984). The Compton Intrusive Suite are interpreted equivalents to the Great Bear Magmatic zone (1.85-1.87 Ga) of the Wopmay Orogen, preserved to the northwest (van Breeman et al., 2013). The Compton Intrusive Suite are geochemically classified as volcanic arc granites (Kjarsgaard et al., 2013).

### *1.4.2 Exploration History for Blanchet Island and Copper Pass*

#### 1.4.2.1 Blanchet Island

In 1968 Alfred V. Giaouque discovered and staked mineral claims for cobalt-nickel mineral occurrences at Blanchet Island. These claims were optioned to Jason Explorers Limited in 1969, who had staked additional claims near the original Blanchet showing. Blasting of open-cuts and



adits installation began in 1969, when 300 tons of Co-Ni-arsenide ore was bagged and shipped to France for processing. Ore was sold to Ugine-Kuhlmann SA of Paris, France, where the ore smelter reported assays of 11% cobalt and 12% nickel. Underground mining ceased in 1970, when the final shipment of 243 tons was shipped to France, yielding 5% cobalt and 15% nickel. Thirty tons of ore was left on the shores and was found by Dave Smith in 1980. In 1984 Highwood Resources Limited staked “HRL” claims on Blanchet Island, covering mineralized zones (Silke 2009).

#### 1.4.2.2 Copper Pass

In 1940, the Cominco mining company staked initial claims; these lapsed and were re-staked by C. McAvoy in 1950. Venture Resourced Limited obtained the claims in 1957 and conducted surface mining from a primary trench. Venture Resources Limited blasted a deep trench in the Main Zone showing, consisting of ~260 cubic yards of rock in 1957. Claims were re-staked twice before being incorporated into the “Gogo” group claims in 1969 by J. McAvoy. Claims under the “Gogo” group were acquired by the Copper Pass Mines Limited Company in March, who shipped out 24 barrels of ore to Edmonton for grade estimation. These returned assays between 25% and 43% Ni, with trace cobalt, bismuth, and silver. By October 1969, 200 tons of ore had been mined from the open trench (Kelly, 1969; Silke, 2009).

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## **Chapter 2: Geology, fluid characteristics, and paragenesis of polymetallic Ni-Co-As-Bi-Sb(-Ag-U) veins East Arm, Great Slave Lake, Northwest Territories, Canada**

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*Submitted to Precambrian Geology*

### **Abstract**

Polymetallic, “five-metals association (FMA)”-type Ni-Co-As-Bi-Sb(-Ag-U) hydrothermal vein deposits in the Northwest Territories of Canada show widely contrasting grade and tonnage characteristics from one deposit district to another, with historically world-class deposits in the Great Bear Lake region (e.g., Eldorado-Echo Bay, Terra) and smaller, sub-economic systems in the Great Slave Lake East Arm basin, and southern Slave Province, including Copper Pass and Blanchet Island, the locations of this study. Integration of a variety of bulk and microanalytical methods (e.g., CL, SEM, fluid inclusion microthermometry, SIMS, LA-ICPMS) was focused on these sub-economic systems with the goal of revising the current model for this deposit style, specifically with respect to fluid and metal sources, metal precipitation mechanisms, and reasons for variability in metal tenor at a regional scale.

Similarities in microthermometric, isotopic, ore tenor and paragenetic characteristics for vein systems in the East Arm basin indicates that a common mineralizing process operated over an area of 100 km<sup>2</sup>. Fluid salinity (~18-23 wt% CaCl<sub>2</sub> equiv.) and minimum entrapment T (~170-250°C)

remained consistent during the evolution of vein formation. An entrapment window between ~145 and 225 °C and 0.5 to 0.95 kbar is estimated for coeval brine and carbonic inclusions. Fluid  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values increased by as much as 10 ‰ at the onset of mineralization. Fluid inclusions in mineralized quartz-carbonate veins are enriched in Ca-Sr-Ba-Mn-Pb-Zn but contain only low-ppm concentrations of ore metals. Coeval bitumen inclusions, in contrast, are *significantly* enriched in U-Ni-Co-Bi-Ag-Sb-As-Mo-Cu. Integration of all data types strongly indicates that the precipitation of metals and bitumen was triggered by isothermal mixing of  $^{18}\text{O}$ -rich basinal brines and metal-rich bitumen particles, or oil droplets in structures within crystalline basement. Oxidative and thermal decomposition of the hydrocarbon phase resulted in metal and carbonate precipitation. The basinal brines and associated metal-rich bitumen are thought to be derived from former overlying outliers of the Athabasca-Hornby Bay-Thelon sedimentary basins that now only outcrop ~300-1000 km away from the study areas.

This study highlights the role of hydrocarbons in transporting metals in FMA hydrothermal systems. Importantly, high-grade polymetallic vein systems of this variety may be linked to the metal budgets of previously overlying sedimentary basins rather than the basement rocks in which the deposits are hosted. This work also supports independent models that indicate the involvement of basin-derived ore fluids, supported by the identification of Mg, Pb, and Zn in fluid inclusions. Vein systems at Copper Pass and Blanchet Island, East Arm of Great Slave Lake, may represent the deep expression of a much larger FMA hydrothermal system, where the evidence is eroded.

## **2.1 Introduction**

Polymetallic “five-metals association” (FMA) hydrothermal veins are typically characterized by successions of open-space filling intergrowths of Ni-, Co-, and Fe-arsenides and sulfarsenides

with variable Ag and lesser amounts of Bi, Sb, As and rarely U (in a few global examples) enclosed by quartz and carbonate gangue minerals (*cf.* Bastin, 1939; Boyle, 1968; Boyle and Dass, 1971; Petruk, 1971; Badham, 1975; Andrews et al., 1986; Kissin, 1992; Marshall et al., 1993; Ondrus et al., 2003; Markl et al., 2016; Gandhi et al., 2018 and others therein). While this ore deposit style was historically a major source of Ag and U in the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, they have not received attention in research and exploration endeavours in recent decades. However, with an increase in global demand for Co, and to a lesser extent, other strategic metals within this unique metal association (e.g. Bi), as well as new mining and exploration activity imminent regionally in the NWT (i.e., the polymetallic NICO Cu-Co-Au-Bi deposit; proven and probable reserves of 33 Mt containing 1.1 M oz Au, 82 M lbs Co, 102 M lbs Bi, 27 M lbs Cu), renewed interest for the FMA deposit style has arisen in the mineral resources community.

Five-metals association deposits occur worldwide in a diversity of igneous, metamorphic and sedimentary host rock settings of varied ages ranging from Archean to Oligocene (Kissin, 1992). Notable deposits under FMA classification or having many characteristics similar to such deposits are found in Canada (Cobalt-Gowganda: Boyle, 1968; Andrews et al., 1985; Marshall et al., 1993; Great Bear Lake: Robinson and Ohmoto, 1973; Changkakoti et al., 1986; Changkakoti and Morton, 1986; Thunder Bay district: Franklin et al., 1986), Czech Republic (Jachymov: Ondrus et al., 2003), Switzerland (Jaffe, 1986; Penninic Alps: Kreissl et al., 2018), Germany (Odenwald: Burisch et al., 2017; Schneeberg: Lipp and Flach 2003), Mexico (Batopilas: Wilkerson et al., 1988), Morocco (Bou Azzer: Ahmed et al., 2009), and Norway (Kongsberg: Lietz, 1939; Neumann, 1944; Staude et al., 2007). Metals, ore mineralogy, and textures are similar between deposits styles. However, studies of the alteration styles, fluid composition and physicochemical characteristics, and stable isotope systematics demonstrate significant variability between

deposits, with several alternative ore genesis models (*cf.* Kissin, 1992 and authors therein) proposed in the earlier literature: (i) by direct magmatic-hydrothermal fluid evolution from granitic intrusions (Badham, 1975); (ii) by direct magmatic-hydrothermal fluid evolution from mafic intrusions (locally and in-situ, or sourced at depth; Tanton, 1931; Jambor, 1971;); (iii) by mixing of hydrothermal solutions of mafic and granitic affinities (Badham, 1976) (iv) by hydrothermal/metamorphic processes concentrating components from organic-rich black shales (Kerrick et al., 1986); pre-existing massive sulfides (Goodz et al., 1986), or metal-rich volcanoclastic rocks (Boyle and Dass, 1971) (v) by syngenetic processes (Schneider, 1972) (vi) by introduction along deep fractures of a juvenile five-element solution in a basalt-generating environment near the crust-mantle boundary (Halls and Stumpff, 1972) (vii) by circulation of connate brines in an environment of continental rifting (Kissin, 1988).

None of these models are predictive in an exploration context, and there is ongoing ambiguity concerning the key factors (i.e., metal and fluid source, and precipitation mechanism) responsible for the development of deposits. Recent work (e.g., Markl et al., 2016; Burisch et al., 2017) has greatly modernized the model for such deposits within Europe, in particular through detailed geochemical modelling involving prediction of the conditions required for vein formation (and associated mineral precipitation). Studies implicate multiple fluid end-members (including hydrocarbons) as prerequisites for deposit formation and lend support to the earlier hypothesis (Robinson and Ohmoto, 1973; Morton and Changkakoti, 1987; Kissin, 1988) that sedimentary basinal fluids infiltrating basement rocks is a prerequisite for FMA vein systems.

This study characterizes polymetallic FMA systems in the southern Slave Craton (Archean) and East Arm basin (Paleoproterozoic) of Great Slave Lake, Northwest Territories, Canada. The study focuses on two occurrences, Blanchet Island, which occurs within the Hearne Channel, and

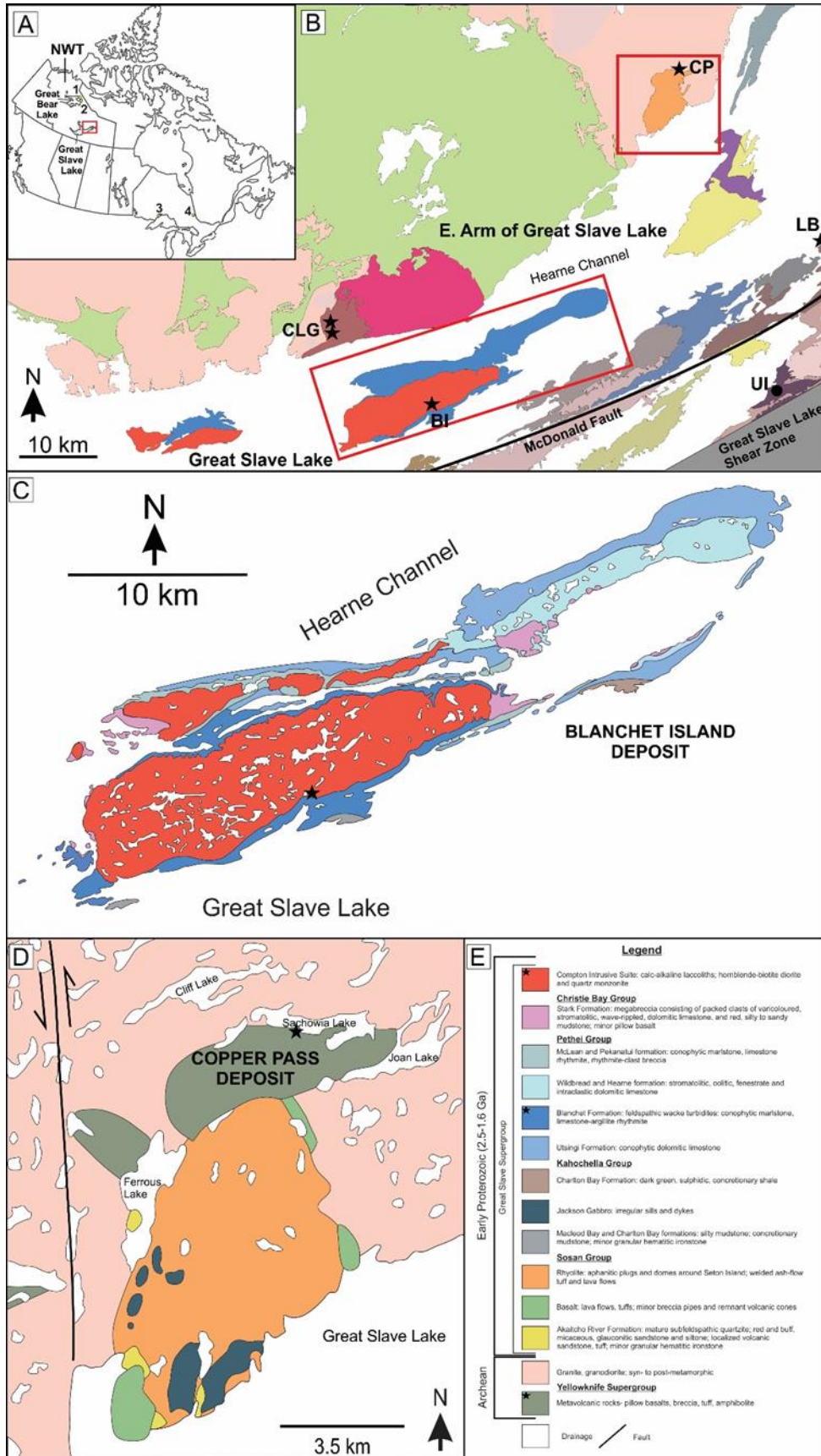


Copper Pass, which occurs on the mainland, north of Sachowia Point of the East Arm of Great Slave Lake. These localities were minor producers of Co, Ni and Ag (Badham, 1978) but unlike the much larger and higher grade FMA equivalents in the Great Bear Lake region (e.g., Eldorado and Echo Bay mines, and Port Radium), strongly mineralized surface outcrop are accessible at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass. Badham (1978) proposed that the leaching of ore metals from mafic minerals was essential for the genesis of required Co-Ni-As ore fluid. Using a range of complementary analytical techniques, we examine the paragenesis and radiogenic/stable isotope composition of ore and gangue assemblages, and the P-T evolution and chemical composition of fluid and hydrocarbon inclusions at these two localities.

New constraints on ore-forming processes, and the nature of metal and fluid sources in FMA vein systems. The results of this study implicate former intracratonic sedimentary basins overlying basement rocks as the source of metal-bearing hydrocarbons and metal-poor, but oxygenated brines necessary for ore formation. The study also provides unambiguous field evidence for some aspects of the ore-forming processes recently described by Markl et al. (2016), Burisch et al. (2017), and Kreissl et al. (2018) for European examples of FMA systems.

## **2.2 Geological Setting**

The five-metal association (FMA) vein systems at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass (the study areas) occur in the East Arm area of Great Slave Lake, Northwest Territories. Relationships between these occurrences and host-rocks are depicted on Figure 1. The Blanchet Island deposit occurs on Blanchet Island in the Hearne Channel of Great Slave Lake. The Copper Pass deposit occurs on the Mainland, north of Sachowia Point on Great Slave Lake.



**Figure 1 (previous page). Geological maps showing the study.** **A)** Map of Canada highlighting polymetallic “five metals ± U” vein deposits at Great Bear Lake, NWT (1,2), Cobalt-Gowganda, ON (3) and Lake Superior, ON (4) with the East Arm of Great Slave Lake highlighted with a box. **B)** Simplified geological map of the East Arm region of Great Slave Lake, NWT, highlighting vein occurrences at Blanchet Island (BI) and Copper Pass (CP) with other showings at the Labelle Peninsula (LB) and Caribou Lake (CLG), as well as the location of hydrothermal veins (for comparison) in the Union Island Group shales (UI) modified from Hoffman (1988). **C)** Geological map of Blanchet Island showing the vein location between the Blanchet Formation and Compton Intrusive Suite (black star). **D)** Geological map of Copper Pass demonstrating vein mineralization occurring within the Yellowknife Supergroup.

### *2.2.1 Slave Province*

The Slave Province is one of 35 Archean cratons preserved worldwide. The Yellowknife Supergroup refers to a package of supracrustal rocks that includes volcanic and sedimentary units that were deposited in the Neoproterozoic, between ca. 2.74 and 2.62 Ga. The Yellowknife Supergroup overlies and older Meso to Paleoproterozoic core, and both were intruded by extensive plutons in the late Archean (ca. 2.63 to 2.58 Ga) (Bleeker and Hall 2007; Henderson 1970). Between 2595 and 2585 Ma (Bleeker and Hall 2007; Davis and Bleeker 1999) a craton-wide event known as the “granite bloom” transferred a significant fraction of heat-producing elements and lower crustal fluids into the upper crust, promoting slow cooling and stiffening of the crust. This allowed for the craton to be preserved long-term (Bleeker and Hall 2007). Located in the Yellowknife Supergroup are metasediments of amphibolite and greenschist facies, along with metavolcanics such as pillow basalts, breccia, tuff and amphibolite. The western portion of the Yellowknife Supergroup is dominated by mafic volcanic rocks, where the eastern limits are dominated by felsic rocks. These Late Archean granitic intrusions coincided with regional and contact metamorphic events. Stratigraphic subdivision of the supracrustal rocks of the supergroup are distinguished with three divisions: (a) the base, consisting of mainly mafic flows and intrusions (b) composed of conglomerates, quartzites, and intermediate to felsic volcanics (c) greywacke and slate (Heilmstaedt and Padgham, 1986).

The East Arm refers to a geographic region of Great Slave Lake, NT. The north shore of the East Arm is underlain by Archean rocks of the Slave craton, in addition to the Blachford Intrusive complex (ca. 2.17 Ga; Figure 1). The south shore of the East Arm is underlain by mylonitic rocks of the Great Slave Lake shear zone (ca. 2.6 to 1.92 Ga) (Hamner et al 1988). The East Arm basin refers to stratigraphic package of supracrustal and lesser intrusive rocks that were deposited

between ca. 2.04 and 1.85 Ga (Bowring et al., 1984; Kjarsgaard et al. 2013; Sheen et al., 2019). These are preserved on a series of islands in the East Arm of Great Slave Lake, with lesser occurrences on the southern and northern mainland (Figure 1).

The East Arm basin is composed of four temporally and geologically distinct units (Hoffman, 1968, 1988), from base to top: the Union Island Group (ca. 2.04 Ga; Sheen et al., 2019); Wilson Island Group (ca. 1.93 Ga; Bowring et al., 1984); Great Slave Supergroup (<1.93 to 1.85 Ga; Kjarsgaard et al., 2013; Bowring et al., 1984), and; Et-Then Group (<1.85 Ga). Two associated intrusive suites are known in the region, the Butte Island suite (ca. 1.89 Ga; Bowring et al., 1984) and the Compton Intrusive suite (ca. 1.87 Ga). Sedimentological studies of the East Arm basin led Hoffman (1968, 1969, 1970) to believe the basin was a preserved fold-belt, however was later interpreted to have developed as a failed rift (Athapuscow aulacogen) (Hoffman, 1973; Bowring et al., 1984; Sheen et al., 2018). Hoffman (1987) revisited the aulacogen model, rejecting it in favour of a model involving a syn-collisional transtensional basin during Slave-Rae provincial collision (Sheen et al., 2018).

The Great Slave Supergroup (1.93 Ga and 1.85 Ga; Bowring et al., 1984 and Kjarsgaard et al., 2013) is relevant to this study as it is host to the Blanchet Island deposit (Figure 1). It is composed of four lithostratigraphic formations (Hoffman, 1968, 1988), from base to top: the Sosan; Kahochella; Pethei, and; Christie Bay groups. The units of the Great Slave Supergroup consist of alternating fluvial and marine sedimentary rocks (feldspathic sandstones, mudstones, conglomerates, limestones and shales) with volcanic sequences of the Sosan (basalt, rhyolite),

Kahochella (basalt, rhyolite, gabbro) and Christie Bay groups. The rock units of interest for this study are the Pethei Group and the Compton Intrusive Suite.

### *2.2.2 Pethei Group*

The Pethei Group is composed of ten lithostratigraphic formations, representing a sequence consists of basinal and platformal lithologies, consisting of feldspathic wacke turbidites and greywackes and dolomitic limestones respectively. The FMA veins at the Blanchet Island deposit are hosted in the Blanchet Formation which consists of feldspathic wacke turbidites, marlstone, and limestone-argillite rhythmities that were deposited in deeper-water basins (Hoffman, 1968).

The Compton Intrusive Suite refers to a series of sills that extend the length of the East Arm basin (Bowring et al., 1984). These intrusions range from hornblende-biotite diorite to quartz monzonites and intruded at ca. 1.87 Ga (Bowring et al., 1984). The Compton Intrusive Suite are interpreted equivalents to the Great Bear Magmatic zone (1.85-1.87 Ga) of the Wopmay Orogen, preserved to the northwest (van Breeman et al., 2013). The Compton Intrusive Suite are geochemically classified as volcanic arc granites (Kjarsgaard et al., 2013).

### *2.3.3 Other polymetallic FMA occurrences in the East Arm*

Several polymetallic type occurrences are also found within the East Arm Basin (Fig. 1B; *cf.* Badham, 1978). In the southern portion of the Slave Craton, located northwest of Blanchet Island, FMA veins occur (cross-cut) the Caribou Lake Gabbro, on the western extent of the Blatchford Intrusive Complex (2.184±2 Ma; Mumford, 2013). The veins consist of an early, barren (quartz±ankerite) stage, a main Ni-Co arsenide stage (nickeline) transitioning to sulfarsenides (cloanthite-rammelsburgite and safflorite-skutterudite solid solution ± ankerite ± quartz), a minor

base metal sulphide stage (pyrite ± galena ± chalcopyrite ± sphalerite ± ankerite ± quartz), and a late, barren (quartz ± ankerite) stage. East of Blanchet Island, FMA veins are found at the Labelle Peninsula hosted within Compton intrusive rocks. Veins at Labelle Peninsula consist of Fe-dolomite+ arsenides (nickeline) cored by quartz, calcite, tetrahedrite, Ag sulfides and sulfosalts, native Ag, uraninite and rare molybdenite (Badham, 1978). Located further northeast of Labelle Peninsula are two other suspected FMA-style showings called HAR-Disc and Fair-Rag-Triona; these are identified as Cu-Ag-Co and Co-Ni-Cu-As-Pb-Au-Ag-U veins, respectively. HAR-Disc is an outcrop of disseminated to fracture-filling “stratabound” sulfide mineralization. Finally, northeast of Copper Pass, along the Taltheilei Narrows, the BBX showing is an outcrop of possible FMA-related, sulfide-bearing polymetallic volcanic breccia enriched in Co-Ni-Cu-Fe-As-Ag-Au-Pb-Bi-U (J. Kerswill, communication, 2015).

## **2.3 Exploration History**

### *2.3.1 Blanchet Island*

At Blanchet Island, polymetallic vein-hosted Ni mineralization is hosted by carbonate sedimentary rocks of the Pethei Group (Great Slave Supergroup) and a monzonite sill of the Compton intrusive suite (Fig. 1C). In 1968 Alfred V. Giauque discovered cobalt-nickel mineral occurrences at Blanchet Island. These claims were optioned to Jason Explorers Limited in 1969, who had staked additional claims near the original Blanchet showing. Blasting of open-cuts and adits installation began in 1969 (Mason, 1969), when 300 tons of Co-Ni-arsenide ore was bagged and shipped to France for processing. Ore was sold to Ugine-Kuhlmann SA of Paris, France, where the smelter reported assays of 11% Co and 12% Ni. Underground mining ceased in 1970, when the final shipment of 243 tons was shipped to France, yielding 5% Co and 15% Ni. Thirty tons of

ore was left on the shores and was discovered by D. Smith in 1980. In 1984 Highwood Resources Limited staked “HRL” claims on Blanchet Island, inclusive of all known mineralized zones (Silke, 2009).

### *2.3.2 Copper Pass*

The Yellowknife Supergroup and younger granitic rocks host cross-cutting hydrothermal veins and Ni-Co mineralization at Copper Pass, in the southwestern Slave craton (Fig. 1D). In 1940, Cominco staked initial claims at Copper Pass before it was re-staked by Chuck McAvoy in 1950. Venture Resourced Limited obtained the claims in 1957 and conducted surface mining from a primary trench. Venture Resources Limited blasted a deep trench in the Main Zone showing, consisting of ~260 cubic yards of rock in 1957. Claims were re-staked twice before being incorporated into the “Gogo” group claims in 1969 by Jim McAvoy. Claims under the “Gogo” group were acquired by the Copper Pass Mines Limited Company, who shipped 24 barrels of ore to Edmonton for grade estimation. These returned assays between 25 and 43 wt. % Ni, with trace Co, Bi, and Ag. By October 1969, 200 tons of ore had been mined from the open trench (Kelly, 1969; Silke, 2009).

## **2.4 Sampling and analytical methodology**

### *2.4.1 Sample collection and processing*

During the summer of 2015 samples were collected from five locations at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass. The samples consisted of fresh and altered host rocks and mineralized veins and breccias. Additionally, supplementary samples of mineralized veins and breccias from Copper Pass and the Labelle Peninsula were obtained from the Geological Survey of Canada (J. Kerswil,



communication, 2015). From the sample suite, 50 samples were cut and prepared into polished thin and fluid inclusion sections, highlighting representative ore and associated gangue mineralogy, and some host rock compositions (dolostone, metasediments and aplite). These sections formed the base collection for petrographic and mineral analysis, fluid inclusion microthermometry and petrography, Raman and LA-ICPMS analysis. A subset of these samples was selected, on the basis of petrographic and mineralogical characteristics for major and trace element analysis (assaying), and stable (O, C) and radiogenic (Sr) isotope analysis by bulk and in-situ methods (SIMS).

For the purposes of comparison with FMA data from the East Arm basin in order to assist with interpretation of sedimentary and basement fluid and metal sources, samples from two other geological environments were obtained. These were quartz-carbonate veins containing syn-mineralization brines from the Rabbit Lake U deposit (Athabasca intracratonic basin, northern Saskatchewan), syn-uraninite bitumens also from the Athabasca basin (Alexandre and Kyser, 2006), and quartz-carbonate-sulfide-pyrobitumen veins crosscutting the 2.043 Ga Union Island group shales, East Arm basin (S. Gandhi, communication, 2015; Sheen, 2017; Sheen et al., 2019).

#### *2.4.2 Optical microscopy and SEM-EDS analysis of ore and gangue mineralization*

All samples were characterized petrographically using conventional optical microscopy (transmitted and reflected light) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM) at Saint Mary's University to determine paragenetic (primary growth, overprinting) history of vein and gangue minerals. Optical microscopy was carried out using Olympus BX51 and BX41, and Nikon Eclipse 50i polarizing microscopes equipped with colour cameras. The SEM used for imaging as well as semiquantitative analysis of ore and gangue minerals, and bitumens, was a TESCAN MIRA 3

LMU Variable Pressure Schottky Field Emission SEM equipped with a back-scattered electron detector and a solid-state, 80 mm<sup>2</sup> X-max Oxford Instruments EDS detector. Analyses were obtained using an accelerating voltage between 20 and 30 kV, and a beam current of 40 uA, with a working distance of 20 mm.

#### *2.4.3 Bulk rock geochemistry*

Bulk rock analysis of host rock and vein mineralization styles was completed at Activation Laboratories, Ltd. (Ancaster, Ontario) by a combination of (i) closed-vessel, four acid digestion followed by ICP-MS (Method: TD-MS); (ii) sodium peroxide “total” fusion (Method: FUS-Na<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) followed by ICP-OES or ICP-MS for over range determination of Ni, Co and As; (iii) fire assay followed by ICP-MS for Au determination (Method: FA-ICP); (iv) aqua regia digestion followed by ICP-OES for Ag determination (Method: AR-ICP); and (v) infrared following combustion for S determination (Method: CS-IR).

#### *2.4.4 Fluid inclusion petrography and microthermometry*

Optical microscopy of double-polished thick sections was done to characterize and classify fluid inclusion assemblages (FIA) in terms of their origin (i.e., relative to host phases, as primary, pseudosecondary, or secondary), contained phases at room temperature, and timing relationships relative to one another. Fluid inclusion microthermometry was performed using a Linkham FTIR600 heating-freezing stage attached to an Olympus BX51 microscope at Saint Mary’s University. Stage calibration was done using synthetic fluid inclusion standards of pure CO<sub>2</sub> (melting at -56.6°C) and pure H<sub>2</sub>O (melting at 0°C and homogenization at the critical point at 374.1 °C). Uncertainties for the microthermometric measurements are ±0.2°C for measurements around

0°C, and  $\pm 0.5$  °C for measurements over 300 °C at a heating rate of 1°C/min. For two-phase  $L_{aq}$ -V inclusions, the programs BULK and ISOC (Bakker, 2003; empirical and theoretical equations of state from Oakes et al. 1990 and Zhang and Frantz, 1987, respectively) were used to calculate inclusion bulk salinity, molar volumes (cc/mol) and corresponding isochores utilizing the temperature of final ice melting ( $T_m^{ice}$ ) and temperature of homogenization (by  $L_{aq}+V \rightarrow L_{aq}$ ;  $T_h$ ). Due to the low final ice melting temperatures commonly encountered ( $T_m^{ice} < -21.3^\circ\text{C}$ ), the inclusions should be modelled in the system  $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{NaCl}-\text{CaCl}_2$ . However, in the absence of hydrohalite melting (not observed), the system  $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CaCl}_2$  system was used to model fluid inclusion compositions and all salinity determinations are reported in units of wt%  $\text{CaCl}_2$  equivalent. Salinity values were averaged from samples (justified by consistency in microthermometric measurements; see below) and used for internal calibration of LA-ICP-MS data reduction for aqueous inclusions. For carbonic inclusions, BULK and ISOC (Bakker, 2003) were also used to calculate molar volumes (cc/mol) and corresponding isochores, but the equations of state of Bakker (1999) and Bowers and Helgeson (1983) were used to model end-member carbonic fluids in the  $\text{CO}_2-\text{CH}_4$  system, with the  $X_{\text{CH}_4}$  and  $X_{\text{CO}_2}$  determined by confocal Raman spectroscopy (see below).

#### 2.4.5 *UV fluorescence microscopy*

UV fluorescence microscopy was used for qualitative detection and imaging of hydrocarbons in fluid inclusions by combining a mercury burner (UV excitation source) and an Olympus filter cube U-MWUS3 (excitation: BP330–385 nm; emission: BA420 nm; dichroic beam splitter DM400, barrier filter BA420), and examining the resulting fluorescence using an UV-2A filter

block (Olympus) and RetigaEXi (QImaging) CCD camera mounted on an Olympus BX51 microscope.

#### *2.4.6 Confocal Raman spectroscopy*

Qualitative Raman spectroscopy analysis was performed on polished thin sections containing gangue mineralization hosting 2-phase LV fluid inclusions, as well as suspected hydrocarbon inclusions. Analyses were performed to identify the presence of certain dissolved ionic species volatile phases (CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, hydrocarbons, etc.) in individual inclusions trapped at different ore stages of FMA mineralization. Analyses were conducted at Saint Mary's University on a Jobin-Yvon Horiba LabRam HR confocal Raman microscope with an 800 mm spectrograph and Synapse 1024 x 256-pixel CCD detector. An 1800 groves/mm grating (spectral resolution of approximately  $\pm 0.5$  cm<sup>-1</sup>) and 100  $\mu$ m confocal hole size were used during spectrum collection, with a 532 nm (green) Nd-YAG laser (~2.15 mW at sample surface) was used for excitation, directed through a 100x objective. Pure silicon was used as a frequency calibration standard. Spectrum collection over the range 100-4500 cm<sup>-1</sup> was done at an acquisition of 30s per accumulation with 3 accumulations obtained per inclusion analysis. Semi-quantitative determination of the relative abundance of inclusion-hosted gas species (in mol%) was performed using the methodology and empirical quantification parameters described by Wopenka and Pasteris (1986, 1987), Dubessy et al. (1989), Burke (2001), and Beeskow et al. (2005). The instrument efficiency factors (z) for CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> were determined by comparing CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> contents determined by Raman spectroscopy to the results obtained via microthermometric analysis for quartz-hosted CO<sub>2</sub>-CH<sub>4</sub> standard inclusions from the South Wales Coal Field (Beeskow et al., 2005). Instrument efficiencies for other gas species were assumed to be 1, in the absence of standards, and results in

a slight overestimation of the mole fraction (e.g., N<sub>2</sub>). Uncertainties in the mole fractions of dissolved species in the carbonic phase of the inclusions are within 20% relative.

#### *2.4.7 Laser ablation inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry (LA-ICPMS)*

The major and trace element composition of quartz-hosted fluid and bitumen inclusions, and vein quartz and carbonates were determined by LA-ICPMS at the University of Toronto Magmatic and Ore Forming Processes Research Laboratory. The instrument used was a NWR 193UC ArF excimer laser ablation system attached to an Agilent 7900 quadrupole mass spectrometer. The typical analytical approach for fluid inclusions using a similar prototype system is described in Heinrich et al. (2003). The instrument was tuned to maximum sensitivity while maintaining robust plasma conditions (U<sub>235</sub>/Th on reference standard glass SRM610 from NIST) and low oxide and doubly charge ion production rates (ThO/Th < 0.3%; mass-21/mass-42 < 0.3%) at He and Ar carrier and make-up gas flow rates of 1.0 and ~0.85 l/min, respectively. The dwell time for all measured isotopes was 10 ms, except for 50 ms for <sup>197</sup>Au and <sup>238</sup>U. The NIST SRM610 silicate glass standard was used for calibration of analyte sensitivities during quantification. The analyses of no more than 16 unknowns were bracketed by 2 SRM610 standard analyses at the beginning and the end of each analysis block. For inclusions, a laser spot size was used that was ~10 μm larger than the diameter of each inclusion, typically ranging between 20 and 30 μm. For quartz and carbonate, a spot size of 25 μm was used. Laser pulse frequency was 10 Hz and fluence on the quartz surface was Aqueous fluid inclusion compositions were quantified using the software SILLS (Guillong et al., 2008 and approach described therein) applying a host correction for trace element contributions from quartz and utilizing microthermometric bulk salinities (in wt. % NaCl

equiv. converted from wt% CaCl<sub>2</sub> equiv.). Data for carbonates and quartz were quantified using Ca (wt%) and Si (wt%) for ideal ferroan dolomite and quartz, respectively.

Inclusions containing a solid or viscous liquid hydrocarbon phase, described below, were also analyzed semi-quantitatively by LA-ICPMS. Like aqueous fluid inclusions, background-corrected inclusion+quartz host transient signals were also quantified with SILLS but using knowledge of the bulk inclusion compositions estimated from SEM-EDS analysis of opened inclusions for internal standardization.

#### *2.4.8 Bulk C-O and Sr isotope compositions and trace element analyses of vein carbonates*

Approximately 30–60 µg of carbonate powder was excavated from each sample using a tungsten carbide microdrill bur (Komet Dental; 0.4 mm diameter) mounted on a dremel tool and weighed into glass vials (Saint Mary's University). Carbon and oxygen isotope ratios of carbonates were measured on a Nu Perspective dual-inlet isotope ratio mass spectrometer connected to a NuCarb carbonate preparation system at McGill University Stable Isotope Laboratory (Montréal, Canada). The powdered carbonates were then reacted individually with H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> after heating to 90°C for 1 hour (McGill University). The released CO<sub>2</sub> was collected cryogenically, and isotope ratios were measured against an in-house reference gas in dual inlet mode. Samples were calibrated to VPDB using house standards. For reporting data in this study, δ<sup>18</sup>O values reported from the McGill facility relative to VPDB were converted to VSMOW. Uncertainties are ±0.05‰ (1σ) for both δ<sup>13</sup>C and δ<sup>18</sup>O.

For Sr isotope analyses, approximately 15 mg of sample powder was collected for each sample using a tungsten carbide dental drill. Strontium isotope ratios were measured on a Thermo Scientific Triton™ thermal ionization mass spectrometer (TIMS) at the Université de Québec à Montréal/Geotop. Powders were first leached three times in 0.2M ammonium acetate, and then rinsed three times in MQH<sub>2</sub>O. The calcite fraction of the samples was then dissolved in 0.5M acetic acid, which was then separated from the insoluble fraction by centrifugation, dried down, and taken up in 3N HNO<sub>3</sub>. Sr was separated from the matrix following standard Sr chromatography procedures using EICHRON Sr Spec™ resin. Internal mass bias was corrected based on the ratio  $^{86}\text{Sr}/^{88}\text{Sr} = 0.1194$ . Analyses of NBS SRM 987 yielded a long-term average of 0.710245, compared to the accepted value of 0.710250. No correction was made to sample data.

#### *2.4.9 Secondary ion mass spectrometry determination of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in vein quartz*

Oxygen isotope ratios ( $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ ) of Copper Pass quartz in multiple crystals containing various growth zones classified using CL were collected using a CAMECA 7f SIMS at the University of Manitoba. Areas (spots) for analysis were chosen using cathodoluminescence images for texturally-early quartz along vein margins (see below). A cesium (Cs<sup>+</sup>) primary beam with a 6.5 nA current for oxygen was accelerated (+10 kV) onto the sample surface with a sputtering diameter of ~25  $\mu\text{m}$ . The instrument operated with a 200 V offset, -9 kV secondary accelerating voltage, and a mass resolving power of 350. Fayek et al. (2002) provides a detailed description of operating conditions and strategy for correction of instrumental mass fractionation and matrix effects. Grains of University of Wisconsin rose quartz (UWQ-1) with a  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  value of  $12.3 \pm 0.1\%$  (Kelly et al., 2007) were used as the quartz standard for oxygen isotope analysis. Precision for individual analysis was 1.2 for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values. Therefore, the  $1\sigma$  error for oxygen isotope analysis is 1.2. SIMS

results from the standards were compared to accepted isotopic compositions to calculate correction factors that were applied to the unknowns measured during the same analytical session (e.g., Holliger and Cathelineau, 1988) and results are reported as  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}}$ .

#### *2.4.10 Cathodoluminescence imaging of quartz*

Qualitative CL imaging of growth zoning in quartz was completed at Saint Mary's University for textural information for quartz. This was obtained using a Lumic HC4-LM hot-cathode CL microscope coupled to a Olympus BXFM focusing mount with images captured by a Kappa DX40C Peltier cooled camera operated using the DX40C-285FW software package. The hot CL was operated at an acceleration voltage between 12.4 and 13.1 kV, a beam current of 0.35 mA, a filament current of 2.3 A, a deflection of 10 V and a focus of 5.5 V.

#### *2.4.9 K-U-Th scintillometry*

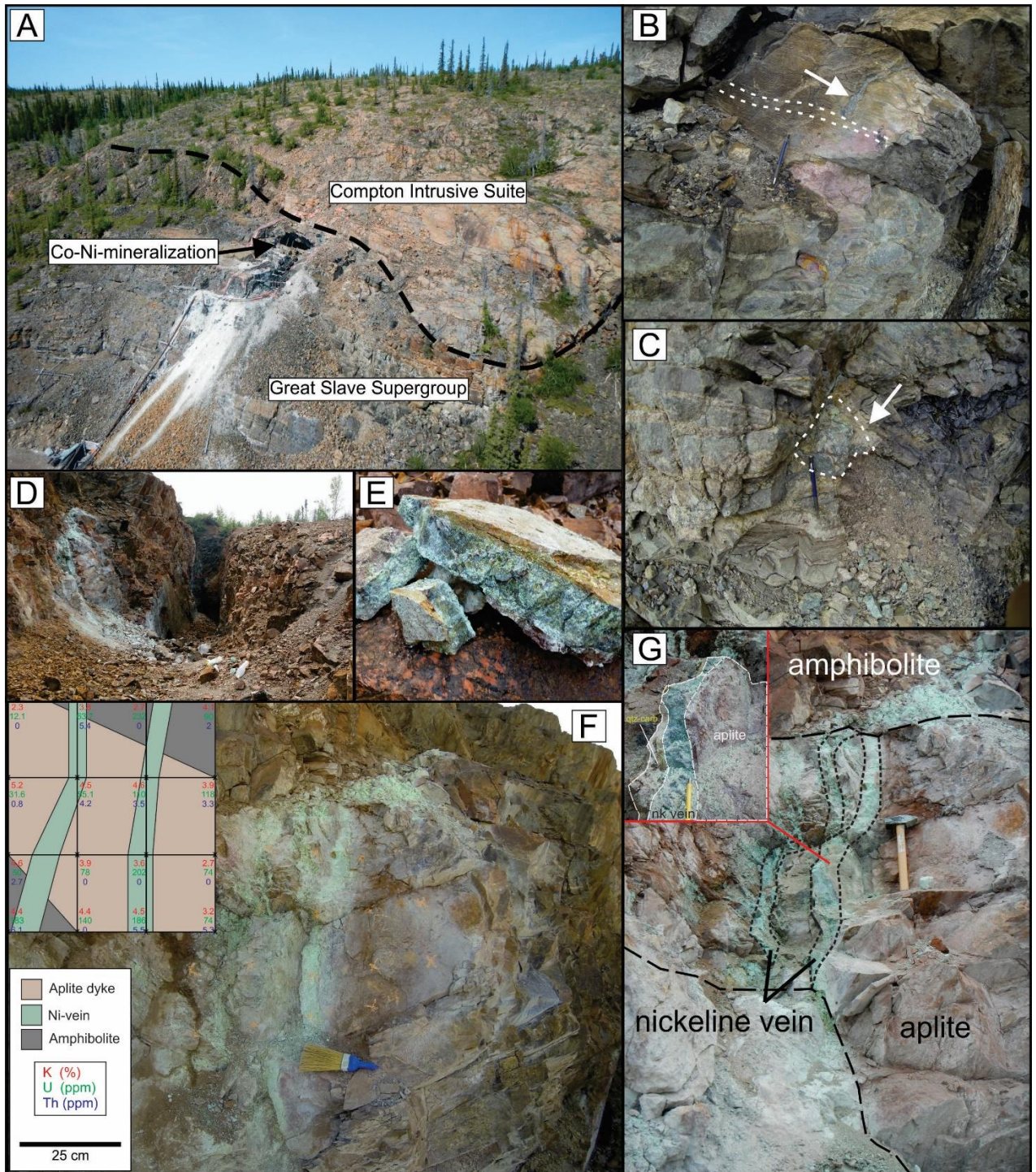
Radioactivity mapping (K-U-Th; concentrations equivalency derived from activity) mapping was carried out *in situ* in the field on mineralized veins of Copper Pass. This was completed using a handheld RS-125 Superspec – 6.3 cu ins sodium-iodide detector scintillometer. Spot analysis was carried out on each limb of the bifurcating vein in a 25cm by 25 cm grid on the trench surface. Scintillometer provided concentrations of K (%), U (ppm) and Th (ppm). Results demonstrated a strong relationship between uranium concentrations and vein-aplite margins.



## 2.5 Results

### 2.5.1 Field observations and macroscopic textures

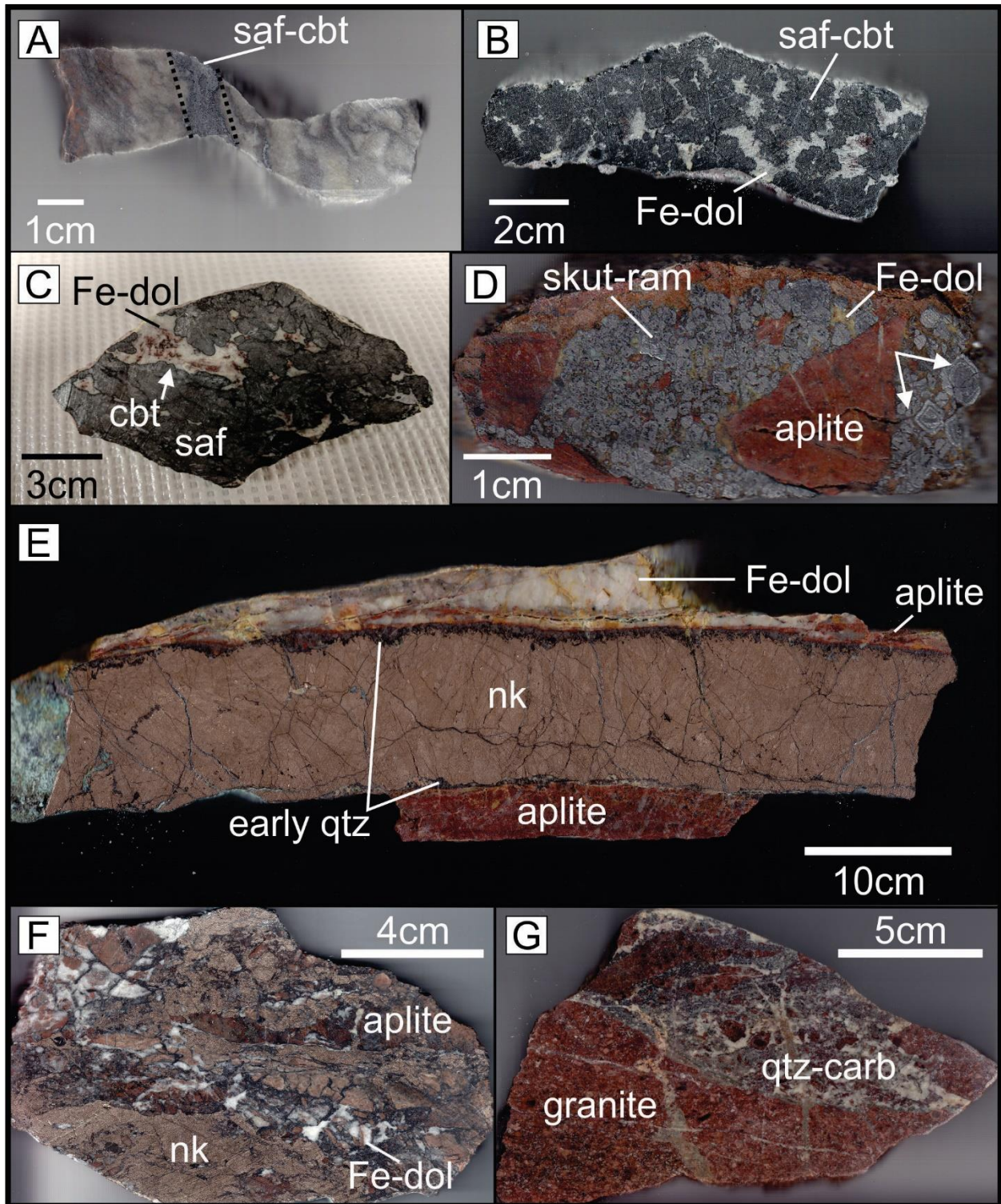
Mineralized zones at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass can be easily identified at surface within former trenches and workings by the presence of weathering products annabergite [ $\text{Ni}_3(\text{AsO}_4)_2 \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ] (green-white colour) and erythrite [ $\text{Co}_3(\text{AsO}_4)_2 \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ] (pink) formed from Ni and Co arsenides/sulfarsenides, respectively. At Blanchet Island (Fig. 2A-C), vein-hosted styles of "five metals" association mineralization occur within carbonate (dolostone) sedimentary rocks of the Paleoproterozoic Great Slave Supergroup, adjacent to (and within) monzonitic sills (Compton Intrusive Suite) and within skarns in host carbonates. Mineralization is confined to a 3-metre zone along the brecciated contact between dolostone and monzonite with multiple veins each having a maximum exposed length of ~0.6 m, and a maximum thickness of 4 cm. Cobalt-enriched mineralized veins strike approximately  $184^\circ$ , and dip  $20^\circ$ , and are oriented perpendicular to bedding in the host carbonate (striking  $305^\circ$ ) (Figure 2B). In addition to veins, irregular mineralized masses (Fig. 2C) are also observed. In addition to veins, irregular mineralized masses (Fig. 2C) are also observed.



**Figure 2 (previous page). Outcrop-scale images of East Arm deposits demonstrating spatial relations between host rocks and polymetallic veins. A)** Aerial field photo of Blanchet Island, demonstrating the spatial relationship of mineralization within host Great Slave Supergroup dolostone and Compton Intrusive Suite monzonite intruding the dolostone. Old mine workings (adits) visible at the top and bottom of slope where Co-Ni mineralization was extracted. **B)** Cobalt-rich polymetallic vein with secondary erythrite (pink) staining indicated by arrow, crosscutting primary bedding (dashed lines) of host dolostone of the Great Slave Supergroup at Blanchet Island. **C)** Massive aggregate of open-space filling Co(-Ni) mineralization highlighted by arrow at Blanchet Island. **D)** Field photo of an open (mined out) trench at the Copper Pass polymetallic vein showing. Secondary green staining (annabergite) highlights the mineralized zone rich in nickeline. **E)** Massive nickeline vein hand samples showing annabergite staining. **F)** Graphical representation (inset) of field-based radioactivity measurements (with estimated K, U, and Th contents at grid nodes) through the use of a scintillometer spot analysis of the mineralized nickeline vein and host rocks at Copper Pass. **G)** Anastomosing polymetallic veins cross-cutting associated Archean aplite dyke cross-cutting amphibolite of the Yellowknife Supergroup, occurring in a localized shear zone at the Copper Pass main showing. Inset demonstrates vein morphology, highlighting host aplite, massive nickeline vein and a synkinematic (late) carbonate vein. Mineral abbreviations: nk=nickeline; qtz=quartz; carb-carbonate.

At Copper Pass, two zones of mineralization occur (Main and West zones) and comprise massive nickeline-rich veins that cross-cut metasedimentary and metavolcanic (Yellowknife Supergroup) rocks and Archean aplite dyke (Figure 2D-G). At the Main zone, maximum vein thickness reaches 8 cm, with veins striking approximately  $170^{\circ}$  and dipping sub-vertically ( $89^{\circ}$ ) and lies parallel to a locally developed shear zone. Veins show anastomosing morphology (Fig. 2G). Synkinematic quartz-carbonate veining is visible along the contact between the massive nickeline-rich veins and aplite dyke (Fig. 2G inset). Near nickeline-rich veins, botryoidal masses of cobaltite-safflorite mineralization occur within the aplite dyke. At the West zone, west of the main zone, nickeline-rich veining occurs in outcrop over a ~20-30cm interval.

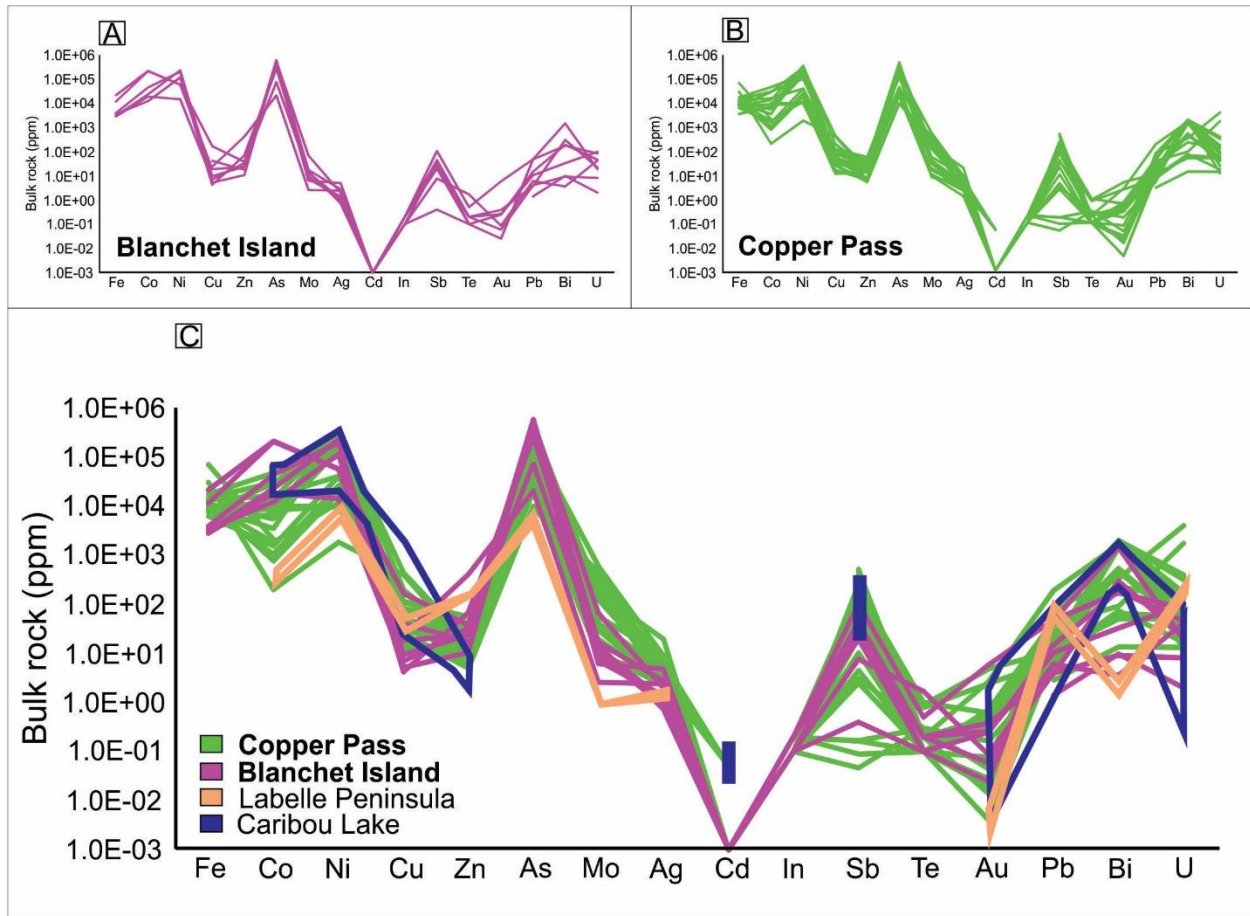
Polymetallic vein mineralization at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass is dominated by Ni-Co-arsenides and sulfarsenides with a variety of accessory Bi-Mo-Pb-U minerals and quartz-carbonate gangue. A range of ore textures occur at both locations (Fig. 3), consisting predominantly of arsenide-sulfarsenide mineral growth in open spaces (e.g., between brecciated fragments of wall rock) and structures (massive fracture infillings and partial replacements of wall rocks). Textures within veins and breccias range from massive to polycrystalline (subhedral to euhedral) to botryoidal, zoned arsenide-sulfarsenide aggregates with interstitial carbonate (Fig. 3A-G). Rims of sulfarsenide on arsenide, and concentric zoning within single crystals of arsenides are clearly visible in hand-sample (Fig. 3C, D). Textural evidence for multiple veining events in reactivated single structures (synkinematic veining and wall-rock delamination; Fig. 3E) and repeated brecciation (e.g., of earlier arsenide minerals; Fig. 3F) events is unambiguous.



**Figure 3 (previous page). Polymetallic vein styles in hand sample slabs from the East Arm deposits.** **A)** safflorite-cobaltite (saf-cbt) vein hosted in dolostone from Blanchet Island. **B)** Botryoidal safflorite-cobaltite ore slab showing infilling carbonate gangue (Fe-dol) from Blanchet Island. **C)** Botryoidal safflorite-cobaltite ore slab showing infilling carbonate gangue (Fe-dol) from Blanchet Island. Dark rims of cobaltite occur on massive safflorite. **D)** Hydrothermal breccia of skutterudite-rammelsbergite (skut-ram) and carbonate infilling between aplite fragments at Copper Pass. Concentric zoning in skut-ram is visible in large crystals on the right side of the image (white arrows). **E)** Massive nickeline vein hosted in aplite at Copper Pass. Nickeline is bordered by early comb-textured quartz, with later synkinematic carbonate (Fe-dol) vein. Thin, exfoliated aplite septae are visible at one contact. **F)** Hydrothermal breccia from Copper Pass showing nickeline-carbonate (Fe-dol) infilling around aplite fragments. Note fragmentation of the nickeline as well (see text for explanation). **G)** Brecciated Compton Suite granite showing weakly mineralized quartz-carbonate infilling and later carbonate veinlets from the Labelle Peninsula, a third location where polymetallic “five metals ± U” mineralization occurs.

### 2.5.2 Vein metal tenors

The results of the whole-rock geochemistry of mineralized veins at Blanchet Island (n=8) and Copper Pass (n=17) are summarized in Table 1. Non-normalized abundance patterns for metals are plotted in Figure 4A-B and show that Blanchet Island and Copper Pass have very similar ore and accessory metal tenors. Cobalt, Ni, As, and Fe are present in wt.% concentrations, but mineralization at Blanchet Island demonstrates greater enrichments in Co and lower Ni (up to 22.5 wt% Ni; up to 21.1 wt%; average Ni:Co ~1.1) compared to Copper Pass (Ni up to 36.6 wt%; Co up to 4.7 wt%; average Ni:Co ~7.8). Iron concentrations in mineralized samples reach values up to 19.7 wt% and 7.1 wt% at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass, respectively. This reflects the higher abundances of ferroan dolomite present as vein gangue and within host rock dolostone. Arsenic reaches concentrations of 58.7 and 50.8 wt% for Blanchet Island and Copper Pass, respectively. This reflects assays of massive arsenides in some vein samples. Other metals sharing similar enrichment levels between deposits are Zn, Mo (higher at Copper Pass), Ag (higher at Copper Pass), Sb (higher at Blanchet Island), Te, Au, Pb, Bi and U (higher at Copper Pass). Of particular note are the Ag and U tenors, the main commodities in historically large FMA vein systems. At both study locations, Ag concentrations are less than ~ 20 ppm (range 4.8-19.1 ppm), and Uranium concentrations reach higher values at Copper Pass, as (up to 4030 ppm) compared to only 98 ppm at Blanchet Island. Partial assays for other FMA systems in the region (Caribou Lake Gabbro: LeBlanc et al., 2014; Labelle Peninsula: J. Kerswil, communication, 2015) are compared to Blanchet Island and Copper Pass in Figure 4C and show major similarities in metal tenors.



**Figure 4. Bulk rock ore metal abundances from mineralized samples in the East Arm of Great Slave Lake. A)** Comparison of main East Arm deposits studied (individual assays from Blanchet Island and Copper Pass) with other polymetallic vein showings in the Caribou Lake Gabbro (blue fields, partial data; Leblanc et al., 2014) and Labelle Peninsula (individual assays; Potter et al., 2013; Kerswil, communication, 2015). **B)** Individual analyses for Blanchet Island polymetallic veins. **C)** Individual analyses for Copper Pass polymetallic veins.



### 2.5.3 Vein ore petrography

#### 2.5.3.1 Blanchet Island

Vein mineralization at Blanchet Island is dominated by Co-di/triarsenides and sulfarsenides. Arsenide phases consist of safflorite ( $\text{CoAs}_2$ ) and skutterudite ( $\text{CoAs}_3$ ) with minor nickeline ( $\text{NiAs}$ ). Cobaltite ( $\text{CoAsS}$ ) represents the only sulfarsenide phase. Gangue minerals consist of calcite and ferroan dolomite. Ore, gangue and accessory minerals textural relationships are shown in Figure 5.

##### 2.5.3.1.1 Co-Ni-arsenides and sulfarsenides

Safflorite occurs as anhedral aggregate clumps, forming veinlets, and are often rimmed by cobaltite (Fig. 5A-B). In rare occurrences, safflorite contains minor Ni as seen in Figure 5G. Skutterudite occurs as massive, irregular to elongated crystals with cobaltite (rarely Ni-rich) rimming its grain boundaries or as fracture infilling. (Fig. 5B, E, F, J). The late paragenesis of cobaltite (exclusively found rimming, or as fracture infillings in, arsenides) is consistent with an increase in  $f_{\text{S}_2}$  during mineralization. Although mineralization is dominated by Co-rich species, minor Ni arsenides are also present as rammelsbergite ( $\text{NiAs}_2$ ) demonstrating boxwork-type exsolution textures (Fig. 5H) and contemporaneous nickeline ( $\text{NiAs}$ ), rarely Co-rich. Brecciation of arsenides and sulfarsenides (Fig. 5D) suggests reactivation of mineralized structures.

##### 2.5.3.1.2 Base metal sulfides

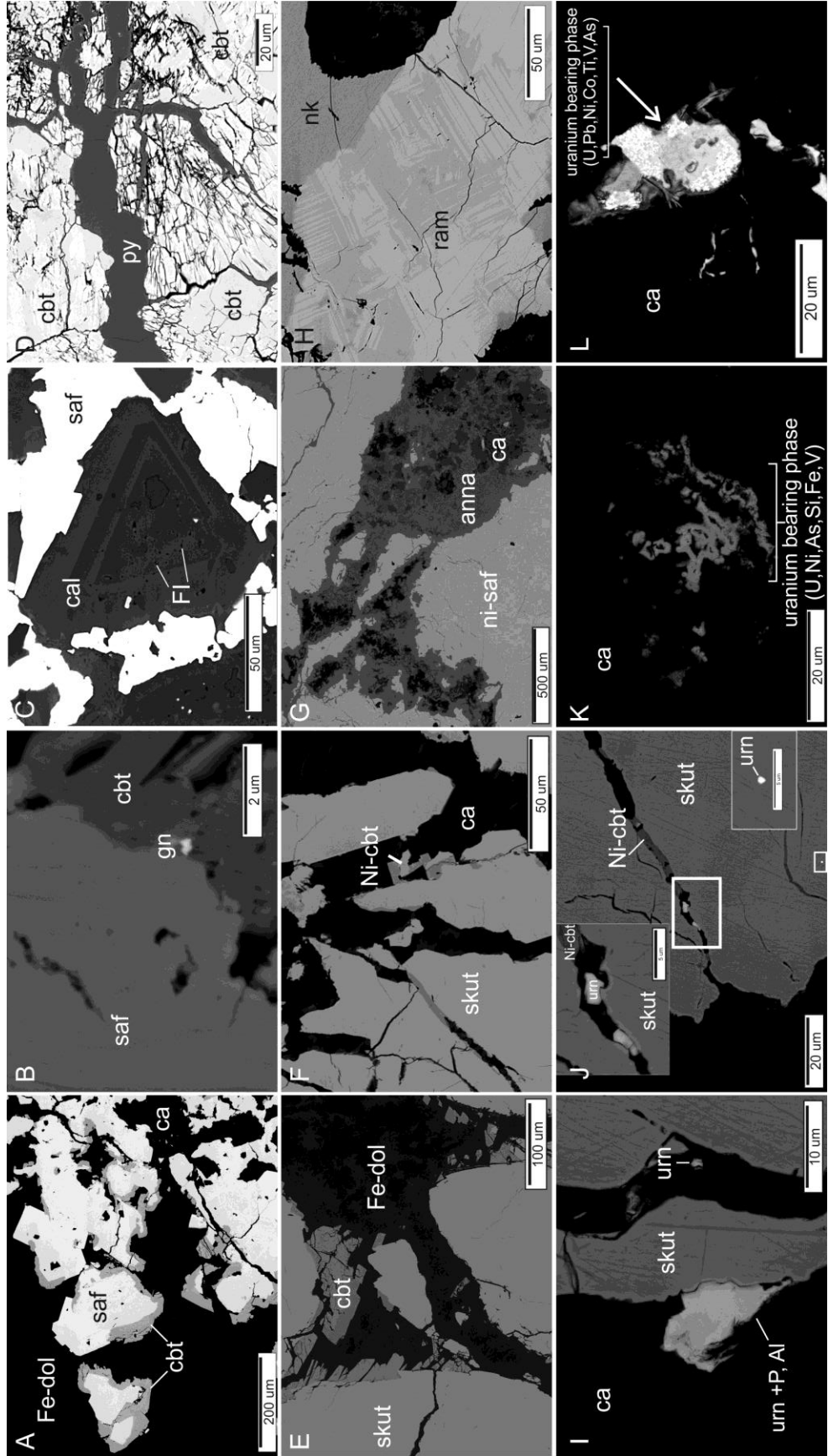
Transitioning from arsenide-sulfarsenide mineralization, a base metal sulfide stage is represented by late pyrite veins that infill brecciation spaces in cobaltite (Fig. 5D). Small grains of chalcopyrite occur within the pyrite veins but is rare. Rarely, inclusions of galena occur along the boundaries between safflorite and cobaltite (Fig. 5B).

#### 2.5.3.1.3 Uranium carriers

Uraninite occurs in fracture infillings with cobaltite in, along grain boundaries of, and as blebs in, skutterudite (Fig. 5I-J). Some uraninite grains showed elevated P and Al contents. An unidentified uranium carrier enriched in Ni, Co, As, V, Ti, Pb, Si, and Fe, occurs as zoned blebs with a U-rich rim and U-poor core, or colliform masses, both within calcite gangue. (Fig. 5K-L).

#### 2.5.3.1.4 Gangue minerals

Calcite and ferroan dolomite comprise the main gangue minerals associated with mineralization. Calcite occurs as milky euhedral rhombohedral grains, where ferroan dolomite shows massive habit. Carbonates are unambiguously late, infilling spaces in the arsenide-sulfarsenide masses, and often showing strong compositional zonation and abundant, early fluid inclusions in crystal cores (Fig. 5C).



**Figure 5 (previous page). Scanning electron microscope (SEM-BSE) images showing textural relationships between (sulf)arsenides and trace/accessory phases at Blanchet Island, utilized for paragenetic interpretation. A)** Safflorite ( $\text{CoAs}_2$ ) clumps rimmed by cobaltite ( $\text{CoAsS}$ ) in a matrix of Fe-dolomite. **B)** Galena inclusion along grain boundary between safflorite and cobaltite. **C)** Safflorite (saf) masses with late calcite (cal) infilling. Calcite crystals show strong compositional zonation and crystal cores are rich in primary fluid inclusions. **D)** Massive cobaltite crosscut by a late pyrite ( $\text{FeS}_2$ ) vein. **E)** Skutterudite ( $\text{CoAs}_3$ ) clumps with partial cobaltite rims, and Fe-dolomite infilling. **F)** Skutterudite clumps with Ni-cobaltite and late calcite. **G)** Ni-safflorite with late calcite and secondary alteration product annabergite [ $\text{Ni}(\text{AsO}_4)_2 \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ]. **H)** Massive rammelsbergite ( $\text{NiAs}_2$ ) showing exsolution lamellae with variable As content, and adjacent massive nickeline. **I)** Skutterudite in a matrix of calcite with uraninite ( $\text{U}_3\text{O}_8$ ) included along skutterudite-calcite grain boundaries, or in calcite. **J)** Massive skutterudite with fracture infillings and inclusions of uraninite, and Ni-cobaltite. **K)** Unknown uranium-bearing phase lining late porosity infilling in calcite. **L)** Unknown uranium-bearing phase included in calcite. (Abbreviation: ca=calcite; Fe-dol=ferroan dolomite; skut=skutterudite; nk=nickeline; ram=rammelsbergite; saf=safflorite; cbt=cobaltite; gn=galena; urn=uraninite; anna=annabergite; py=pyrite; qz=quartz; Ni indicates nickel-rich).

### 2.5.3.2 Copper Pass

Vein mineralization at Copper Pass is dominated by Ni-di/triarsenides and sulfarsenides. Arsenide phases consist of nickeline (NiAs) and rammelsbergite (NiAs<sub>2</sub>). Gersdorffite (NiAsS) represents the only sulfarsenide phase. Gangue minerals consist of early quartz and later ferroan dolomite. Ore, gangue and accessory minerals textural relationships are shown in Figure 6 and some representative SEM-EDS analyses of arsenides, sulfarsenides and accessory minerals are listed in Table 2.

#### 2.5.3.2.1 Ni-arsenides and sulfarsenides

Nickeline is the dominant phase found at Copper Pass, forming massive vein and breccia matrix infillings. Nickeline also occurs as anhedral clumps in ferroan dolomite where this carbonate also occurs as late vein and breccia infill, mostly postdating or possibly synchronous to nickeline in a few cases (Fig. 6A-C). Nickeline demonstrates exsolution intergrowth or oscillatory zoning with (synchronous), and replacement (fracture controlled, or rimming) of, or by, rammelsbergite (Fig. 6A, D). Nickeline can also be found adjacent to (simple contacts) and between grain boundaries of early quartz, in association with later gersdorffite, uraninite, and ferroan dolomite (Fig. 6E-F). Nickeline in these early grain-boundary associations may be enriched in Sb. Gersdorffite is commonly found rimming grain boundaries, and within fractures of, nickeline, indicating increasing S:As as mineralization progressed (Fig. 6C, I, G, K). Although mineralization is dominated by Ni species, rarer Co species (safflorite, skutterudite and cobaltite) are present, usually found rimming nickeline (Fig. 6B, D) and occurring together as networks of interconnected veinlets in carbonate (Fig. 6L). Brecciation of Ni and Co carriers is evident, suggesting structural reactivation of mineralization-hosting faults after arsenide-sulfarsenide precipitation.

#### 2.5.3.2.2 Base metal sulfides and native metals

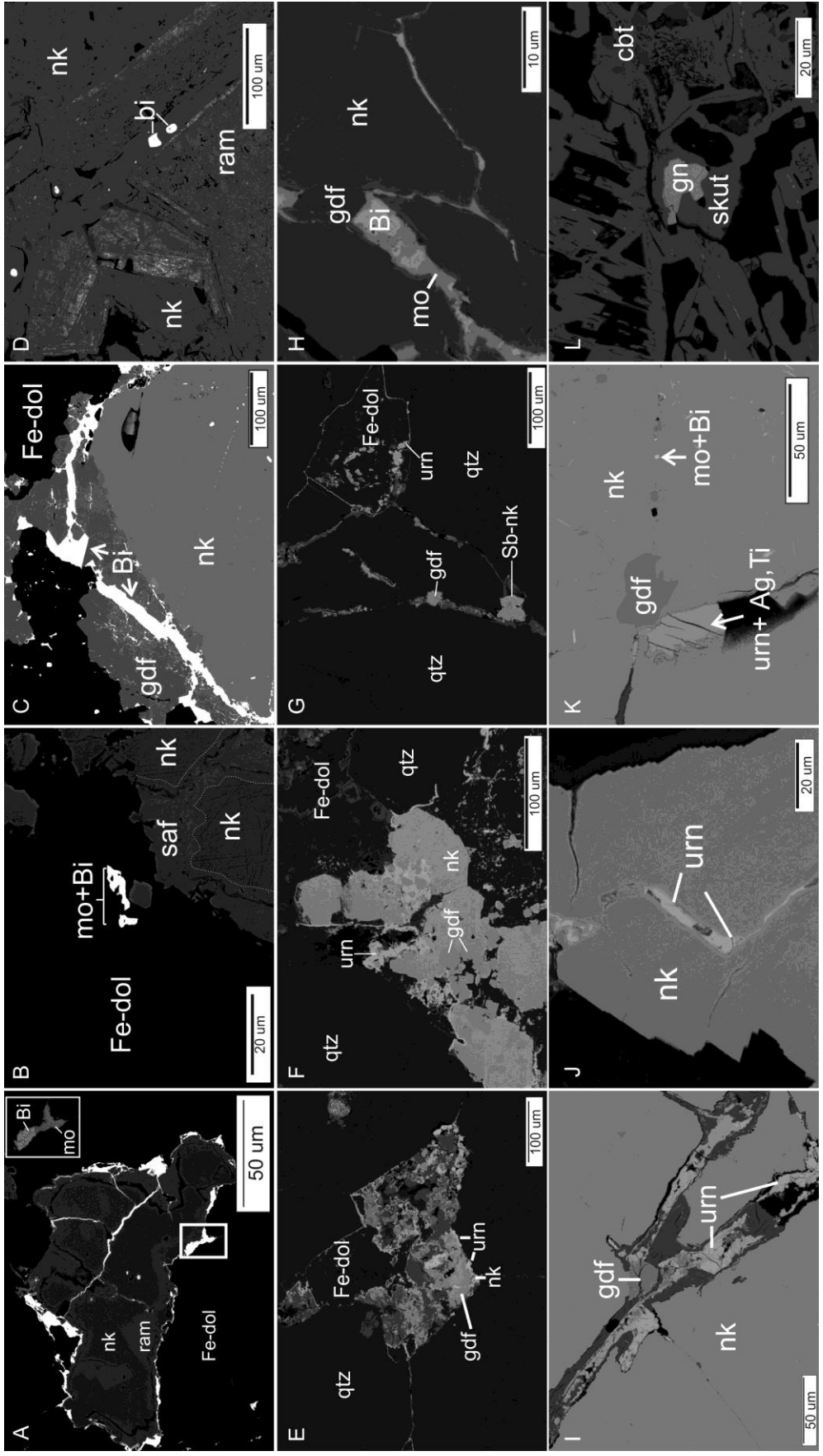
FMA veins at Copper Pass contains a higher abundance of trace accessory phases in comparison to Blanchet Island. Native bismuth and molybdenite are the most abundant accessory phases, occurring as rims, crosscutting veins, fracture infills and isolated inclusions filling dissolution pits on, or in, ferroan dolomite, nickeline and gersdorffite (Fig. 6A-D, H, K). Molybdenite and bismuth are intergrown, suggesting simultaneous deposition (Fig. 6A, H). Galena occurs as inclusions in skutterudite-cobaltite (Fig. 6L).

#### 2.5.3.2.3 Uranium carriers

Uraninite occurs as fracture infillings in nickeline and quartz after gersdorffite (Fig. 6I-J), and commonly intergrown ferroan dolomite in fracture infills and grain boundary junctions in quartz with nickeline and gersdorffite (Fig. 6E-G). A single occurrence of Ag-enriched uraninite has been noted, occurring as fracture infill in nickeline (Fig. 6K).

#### 2.5.3.2.4 Gangue Minerals

Trace ferroan dolomite appears to be intergrown with (rarely) Co and Ni phases at an early stage, but most commonly post-dates Co and Ni phases; therefore, its coprecipitation throughout vein formation is suggested but with the majority precipitated late in the paragenesis. Comb-textured quartz occurs as euhedral grains forming prior to, or possibly overlapping with the onset of, nickeline growth but is not present beyond nickeline growth. Ferroan dolomite appears to be in textural equilibrium with earlier quartz. Ferroan dolomite occurs as cloudy, massive clumps of subhedral-euhedral grains (Fig. 6A).



**Figure 6 (previous page). Scanning electron microscope (SEM-EDS) images of textural relationships between (sulf)arsenides and trace/accessory phases at Copper Pass, utilized for paragenetic interpretation. A)** Nickelinite with rammelsbergite rimming hosted in a Fe-dolomite (Fe-dol) matrix. Fracture infillings and grain boundaries host native bismuth and molybdenite. Inset shows lower brightness/contrast BSE image showing area in box, with Mo and Bi discriminated. **B)** Nickelinite mineralization transitioning to safflorite rims, hosted in Fe-dol matrix. Blebs of native bismuth and molybdenite also visible. **C)** Nickelinite bordered by gersdorffite (NiAsS) rim with native bismuth infilling fractures in gersdorffite and as inclusions (filling former porosity) in nickelinite. **D)** Native bismuth inclusions (filling former porosity) in rammelsbergite-nickelinite intergrowth. **E-F)** Nickelinite-gersdorffite-Fe-dolomite intergrowth filling porosity at quartz grain junction. Uraninite infills fractures, grain boundaries and porosity in the earlier (sulf)arsenide-dolomite assemblage. **G)** Nickelinite (Sb-rich)-gersdorffite-Fe-dolomite and later uraninite filling fractures and porosity in quartz. **H)** Massive nickelinite with euhedral gersdorffite crystal in fracture. Massive native bismuth- molybdenite intergrowth fills fracture in nickelinite, but surrounding gersdorffite. **I-K)** Late fracture and porosity infillings in nickelinite composed of gersdorffite followed by uraninite. Trace molybdenite and native bismuth also visible in K. **L)** Galena infilling porosity in skutterudite-cobaltite intergrowth. (Abbreviations: Bi= native bismuth; my=molybdenite; Fe-dol=ferroan dolomite; ram=rammelsbergite; nk=nickelinite; saf=safflorite; gdf=gersdorffite; ga=galena; urn=uraninite; anna=annabergite; qtz=quartz; Sb indicates antimony-rich).



### 2.5.3.3 Alteration

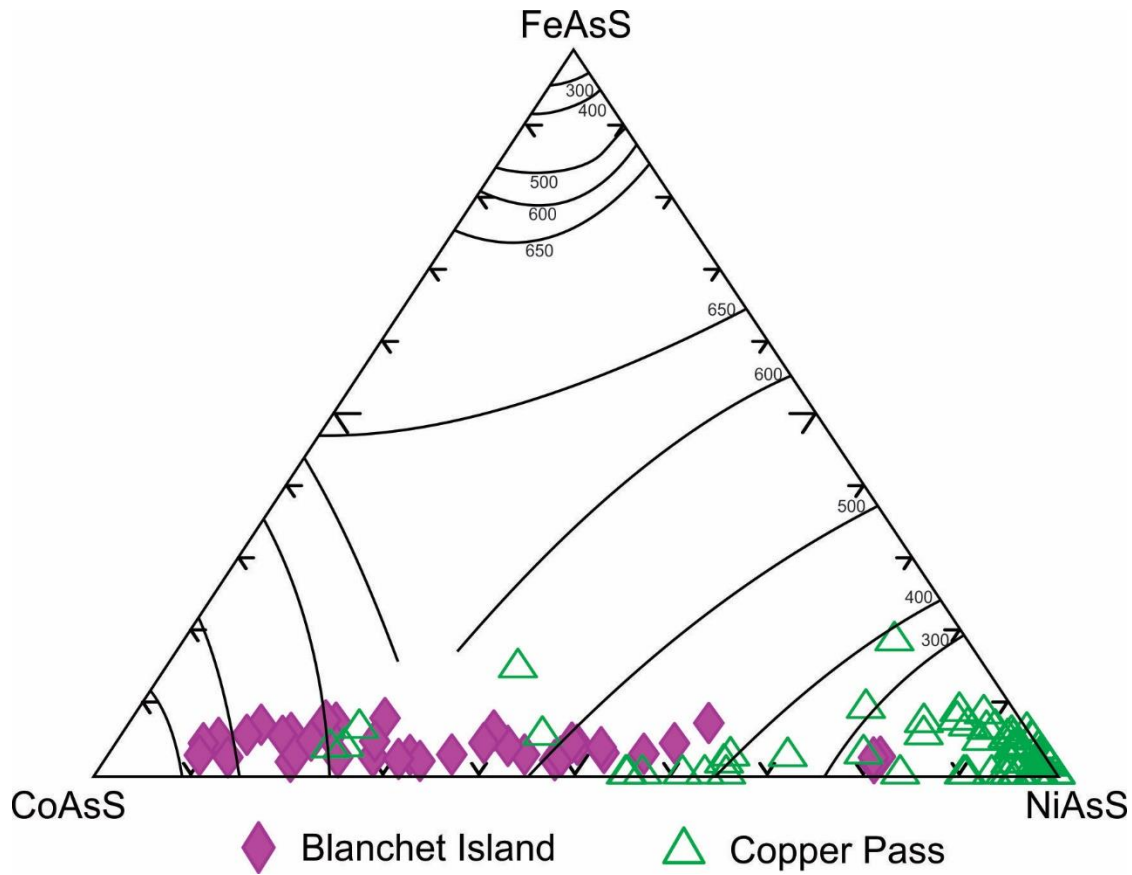
At Blanchet Island and Copper Pass no alteration halos were observed at outcrop scale. In thin section, hydrothermal alteration of coherent and brecciated wall-rocks associated with the FMA vein systems in the East Arm basin was observed but is minimal, comprising low intensity and spatially restricted propylitic assemblages extending mm to cm distances into wall rock and breccia fragment margins. Weak propylitic alteration manifests as chloritization and hematitization of host dolostone at the margins of mineralized veins. Within the veins, chlorite and disseminated hematite forms rims and patches infilling grain boundaries and fractures in calcite and ferroan dolomite. White mica (sericitization) is present in trace amounts within calcite gangue in the veins. Albitization of plagioclase in wall-rock along vein margins, and wall-rock fragments within mineralized breccias is also noted. Carbonate microveinlets extend into wall rocks adjacent to veins.

### 2.5.4 Sulfarsenide chemistry and thermometry

SEM-EDS analyses of sulfarsenide phases from both localities are listed in Table 3 and the compositional ranges are portrayed on a ternary diagram of mole % abundances for Co, Fe, and Ni sulfarsenide end-members (Fig. 7; cobaltite, arsenopyrite, gersdorffite; Klemm, 1965). The majority of sulfarsenides at Copper Pass plot at or close to end-member gersdorffite, with some solid solution spread along the CoAsS-NiAsS join. In contrast, sulfarsenides from Blanchet Island show a wide range in composition along the CoAsS-NiAsS join, tending towards more Co-rich compositions approaching end-member cobaltite.

The ternary diagram also shows isotherms for a two-phase solvus. Plotting sulfarsenide compositions on this ternary diagram provides a constraint on sulfarsenide crystallization

temperature. Blanchet Island sulfarsenides intersect the limbs of the CoAsS-NiAsS solvus at a temperature of  $\sim 350^{\circ}\text{C}$  or less. Gersdorffite at Copper Pass, occurring at the edges of nickeline grains, intersects the solvus at significantly lower T than Blanchet Island,  $< 300^{\circ}\text{C}$ . These findings coincide with other constraints (e.g., microthermometry; see below), supporting a low temperature of mineralization



**Figure 7. Ternary diagram showing atomic weight % (relative) Ni-Co-Fe sulfarsenide solid solution end members (gersdorffite-cobaltite-arsenopyrite) and the composition of sulfarsenides from the East Arm deposits. Isotherms (labelled with T in °C) are from Klemm (1965). Data show compositional ranges reflecting contrasting initial sulfarsenide compositions that crystallized prior to unmixing (Co-rich starting compositions at Blanchet Island; Ni-rich starting compositions at Copper Pass).**

## 2.5.5 Fluid inclusion petrography, cathodoluminescence (CL) imaging and microthermometry

### 2.5.5.1 Petrography

Inclusions were grouped based on textural criteria using the fluid inclusion assemblage (FIA) method, whereby coevally trapped inclusions present in small clusters, growth zones, healed fracture trails, or along grain boundaries are grouped as an FIA. Accidentally trapped solid phases were recognized by variable proportion within an FIA as well as being included also in the host phase. Heterogeneous (coeval) fluid entrapment was recognized within an FIA by variable phase ratios. All inclusion types are very small, ranging typically from ~3 to 10  $\mu\text{m}$  in diameter. Based on phases observed in inclusions at 20°C in carbonate at Blanchet Island and carbonate/quartz at Copper Pass, five distinct fluid inclusion types are identified (Fig. 8, Fig. 9):

(i) *Type 1* brine inclusions are 2-phase ( $L_{\text{aq}} + V$ )  $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{NaCl}-\text{CaCl}_2$  inclusions. They are hosted in either carbonate (Fig. 8A-F) or quartz crystals (Fig. 8G, M, N, Fig. 9A) with V bubble proportions of ~10-15 vol%. *Type 1* inclusions occur (i) in the inclusion-rich cores of calcite and quartz crystals with relatively inclusion-poor rims characteristic of primary origin (Fig. 8A, B, M, N; cf. Roedder, 1984; Goldstein, 2003); (ii) in trails representing healed fractures (secondary origin) on their own (Fig. 9C) or heterogeneously trapped with *Type 3* (Fig. 9D) or *Type 4* (Fig. 9E-H) inclusions; (iii) in outer rim growth zones (primary origin) in quartz heterogeneously trapped with *Type 3* (Fig. 8Q-S) and *Type 5* inclusions (Fig. 8Q-S); (iv) as isolated, large inclusions (Fig. 8D-F) or in small clusters of unknown origin (Fig. 8C, Fig. 9A). Inclusion shapes may resemble host mineral habit (Fig. 8D, E) in carbonate inclusions and in rare occurrences, demonstrate some degree of necking down (Fig. 8F). Boiling is absent in *Type 1* FIA in quartz and carbonate from both localities.

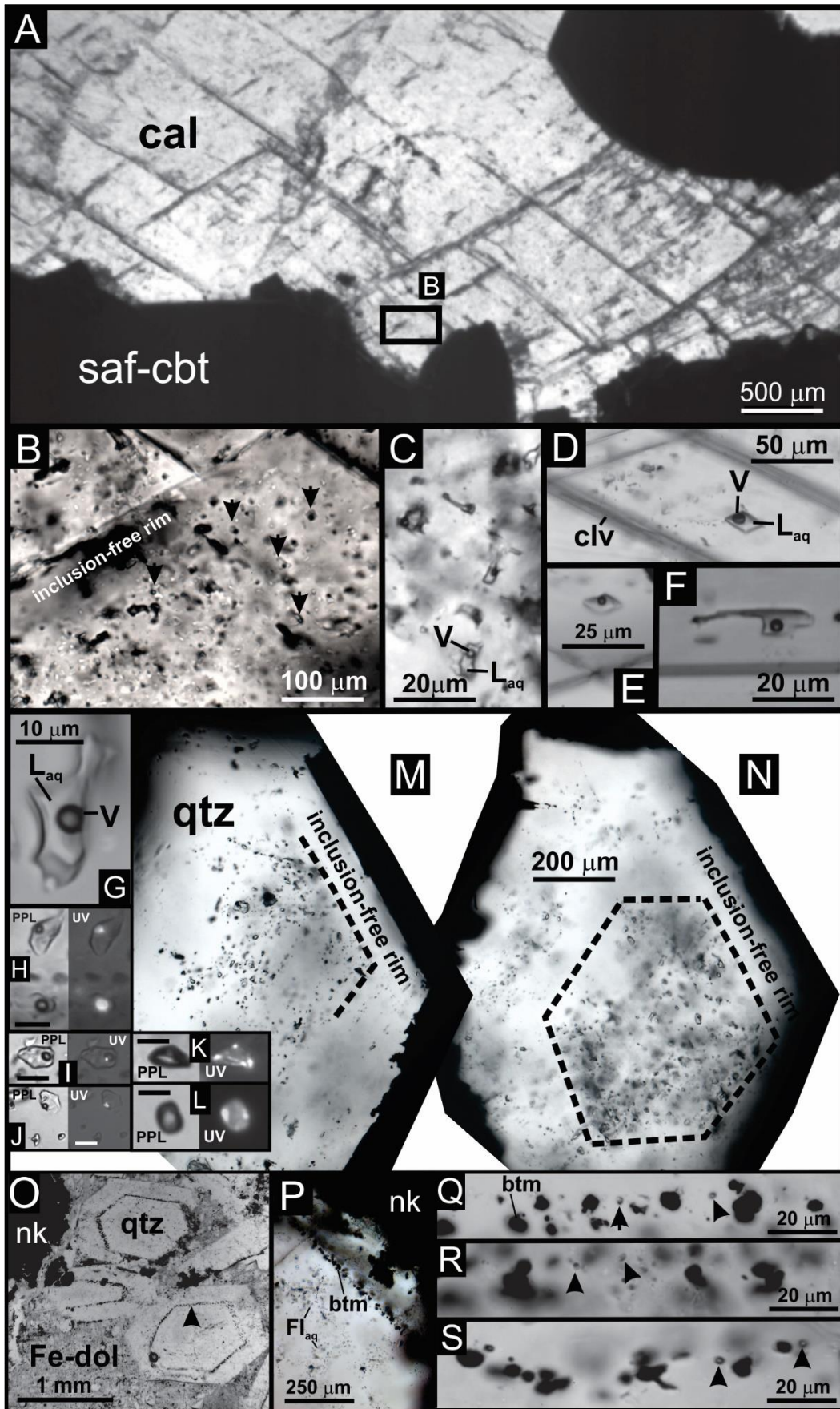
(ii) *Type 2* brine inclusions are rare, 2-3 phase ( $L_{\text{aq}} + V \pm \text{bitumen}$ )  $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{NaCl}-\text{CaCl}_2$  inclusions. They are hosted in early crystals of quartz at Copper Pass, occurring in clusters of unknown origin or in healed fractures (secondary origin) crosscutting the *Type 1* inclusion-rich cores and in the inclusion-poor rims. Commonly, they occur with heterogeneously trapped *Type 3* inclusions. *Type 2* inclusions may contain accidentally trapped, fluorescing particles of a solid HC phase (“bitumen”) clinging to the vapour bubble (Fig. 8H-J). Vapour proportions are similar to or slightly larger than in *Type 1* brine inclusions. *Type 2* inclusions greatly resemble *Type 1* inclusions and can only be differentiated under UV light.

(iii) *Type 3* carbonic inclusions are 1-4 phase ( $L_{\text{carbonic}} \pm V_{\text{carbonic}} \pm \text{bitumen} \pm \text{carbonate}$ )  $\text{CO}_2 \pm \text{CH}_4$  inclusions. They occur in quartz at Copper Pass (i) in secondary trails and clusters of unknown origin on their own (Fig. 9B,C) or heterogeneously trapped with *Type 1* (Fig. 9D) or *Type 2* inclusions; and (ii) in outer rim growth zones (primary origin) in quartz heterogeneously trapped with *Type 1* (Fig. 8Q-S) and *Type 5* inclusions (Fig. 8Q-S). Similar to *Type 2* inclusions, *Type 3* inclusions accidentally trapped fluorescing particles of bitumen may be present (Fig. 8K-L) and in some inclusions, the entire inner wall of the inclusion fluoresces suggesting that a fluorescent liquid may also be present, or that particles of bitumen coat the inner wall of the inclusion. A second, rare, accidentally trapped phase is carbonate (Fe-dolomite; confirmed by Raman) recognized by its birefringence in cross-polarized transmitted light (Fig. 9B). Reflecting variable density, *Type 3* inclusions may or may not contain a  $V_{\text{carbonic}}$  bubble at 20°C.

(iv) *Type 4* liquid hydrocarbon (HC) inclusions are rare, 1-2 phase ( $L_{\text{HC}} \pm V_{\text{carbonic}}$ ) inclusions, resembling *Type 3* inclusions and show some post-entrapment modification (necking down) (Fig. 9E-H). They occur in quartz at Copper Pass, and are secondary in origin, occurring on their own or heterogeneously trapped with *Type 1* inclusions. *Type 4* inclusions exhibit strong bright yellow-

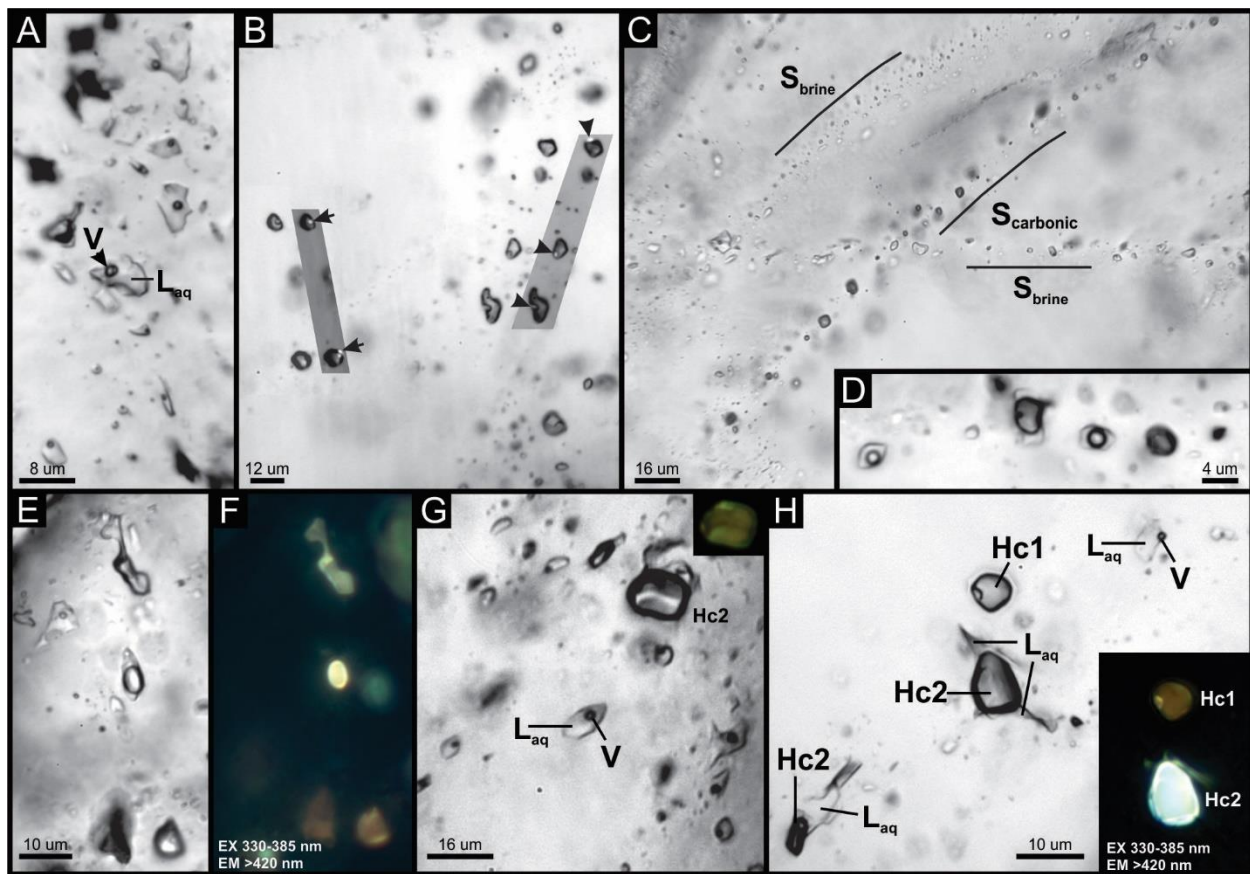
blue-green (when containing immiscible brine) to brown fluorescence (when coentrapped brine is not visible), indicating the presence of higher order hydrocarbons of variable maturity or composition.

(v) *Type 5* “bitumen” inclusions contain a non-fluorescing, high density solid or viscous liquid hydrocarbon (thus, not low viscosity “fluid” inclusions *sensu-stricto*). They occur in outer rim primary growth zones in early quartz crystals at Copper Pass where they are heterogeneously trapped with *Type 1* and *Type 3* inclusions (Fig. 8O-S).



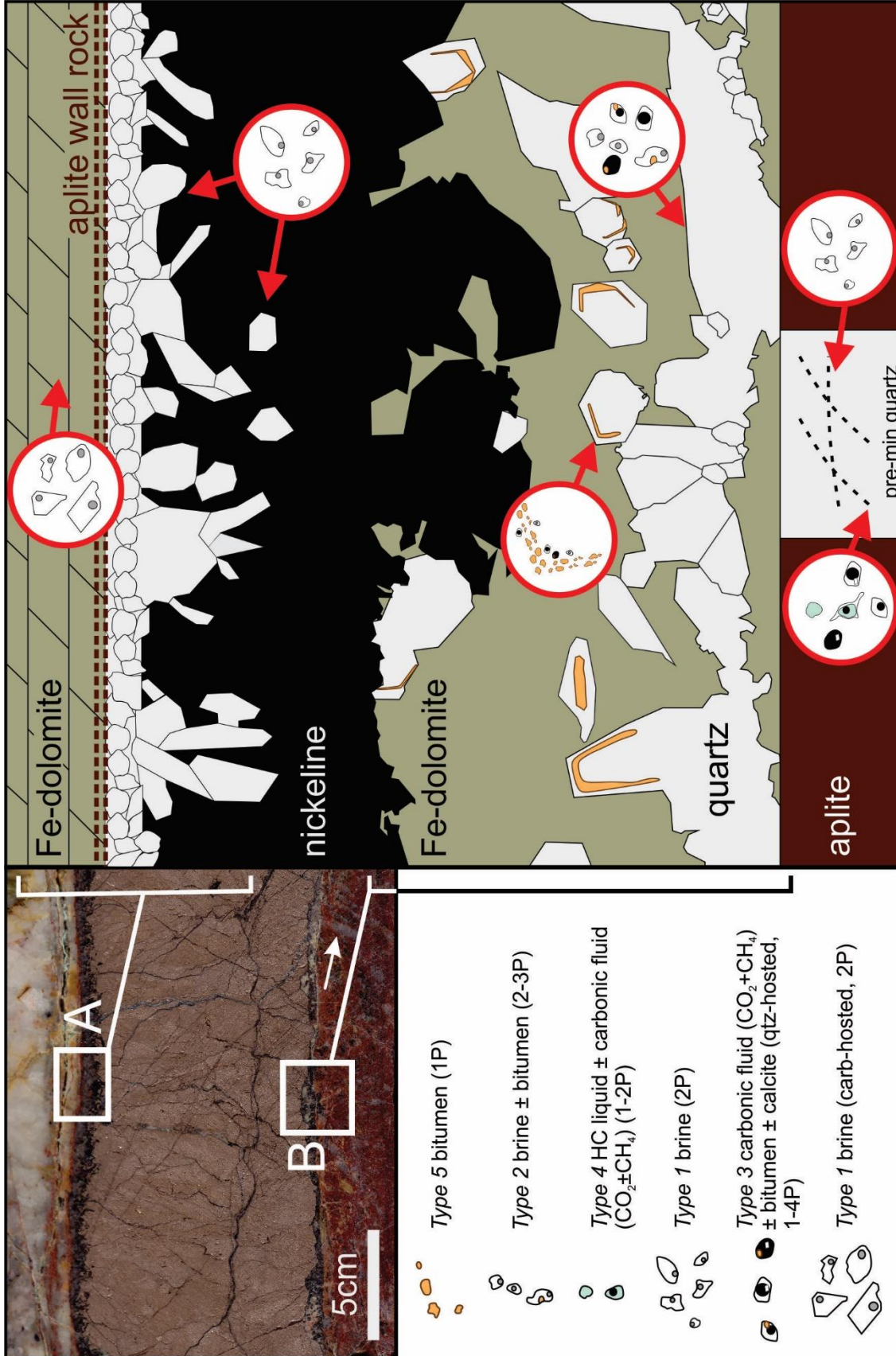
**Figure 8 (previous page). Photomicrographs of fluid inclusion types and relevant textural features in quartz and carbonate in mineralized veins.** All images were obtained at 20°C in transmitted, plane-polarized (PPL) light except for (H)-(L) that include images in combined transmitted PPL and reflected ultraviolet light (UV). (A) Massive safflorite-cobaltite (saf-cbt) with ferroan dolomite infill (calcite) showing typical host setting for *type 1* calcite-hosted inclusions at Blanchet Island. Inset box shows the location of inclusions shown in (B). (B) Enlarged view of an area in (A) showing calcite crystal boundaries (not cleavage planes) with a relatively inclusion-free rim, and inclusion-rich core containing primary, *type 1* two phase ( $L_{aq}+V$ ) brine inclusions marked with yellow arrows. (C) Irregularly-shaped, secondary, two phase ( $L_{aq}+V$ ) aqueous inclusions from Copper Pass. (D)-F) Suspected primary *type 1*, two-phase ( $L_{aq}+V$ ) inclusions in Fe-dol showing negative crystal shapes and adjacent cleavage planes (clv) from Copper Pass. (G) Two-phase *type 1* ( $L_{aq}+V$ ) brine inclusion in quartz from Copper Pass, hosted in the core of an euhedral quartz crystal. (H)-J) Unclassified (unknown origin) *type 2* inclusions in quartz from Copper Pass containing fluorescing liquid or solid hydrocarbon (HC) phases in addition to an aqueous liquid. In frame (H) two adjacent inclusions contain a volumetrically-dominant  $L_{aq}$  but show variable bubble sizes, with bubbles containing a fluorescing HC phase (liquid or liquid film on vapour bubble). In frames (I) and (J), a strongly fluorescing phase appears to be a solid HC particle attached to the vapour or carbonic liquid bubbles. (K)-L) Unclassified *type 3* inclusions in quartz from Copper Pass containing two fluorescing HC phases, as solid particles (brightly fluorescing) and a darker fluorescence throughout (liquid or liquid film on vapour bubble). (M)-N) Quartz crystal (view down c-axis) shown at two different depths of focus. An inclusion-poor rim surrounds an inclusion-rich core containing abundant *type 1* ( $L_{aq}+V$ ) aqueous inclusions of primary origin. (O) Mineralized vein margin showing euhedral quartz crystals with interstitial Fe-dol and nickeline (nk). Black arrow marks a primary growth zone containing opaque, solid *type 5* bitumen inclusions. Growth zones containing these inclusions are seen in each quartz crystal. (P) Enlarged view of the mineralized (nk) outer margin of a quartz crystal showing a growth zone containing solid HC (bitumen-btm) inclusions and two phase ( $L_{aq}+V$ ) aqueous inclusions in the crystal core. (Q)-S) Enlarged views of solid HC inclusion assemblages showing coeval *type 1* and *type 3* fluid inclusions containing aqueous and carbonic phases. Inclusions containing at least two phases ( $L_{aq}+V$  or  $L_{aq}+L_{carbonic}$ ) are visible in frames (Q) and (R). Inclusions in frame (S) appear to be carbonic liquid only (see text for description).





**Figure 9. Quartz-hosted fluid inclusion assemblages in pre-mineralization quartz from Copper Pass showing interaction of hydrocarbon (HC) liquid and carbonic inclusions with brine.** All images were obtained at 20°C in transmitted, plane-polarized (PPL) light except insets that include images in combined transmitted PPL-XPL (B), and reflected ultraviolet light (UV; F, G, H). **A)** Unclassified, *type 1* two-phase brine ( $L_{aq}$ -V) inclusions. **B)** One to two phase *type 3* ( $L_{carbonic} \pm V_{carbonic} \pm carbonate$ ) fluid inclusions demonstrating accidental calcite entrapment (birefringent phase highlighted by arrows) in XPL insets. **C)** Intersection of secondary (S) *type 1* brine and *type 3* carbonic ( $CO_2$ - $CH_4$ ) inclusion trails. **D)** Fluid inclusion assemblage demonstrating coentrapment of *type 1* brine and *type 3* carbonic phases (i.e., variable brine-carbonic phase ratios). **E-H)** UV-fluorescent *type 4* hydrocarbon (HC) liquid-rich inclusions associated with brine ( $L_{aq}$ -V) inclusions, showing coeval entrapment of immiscible brine and hydrocarbon liquid. Hydrocarbon (HC) liquid demonstrates UV fluorescence colour variance due to variations in hydrocarbon composition (Hc1=brown fluorescence; Hc2=yellow-blue-green fluorescence).

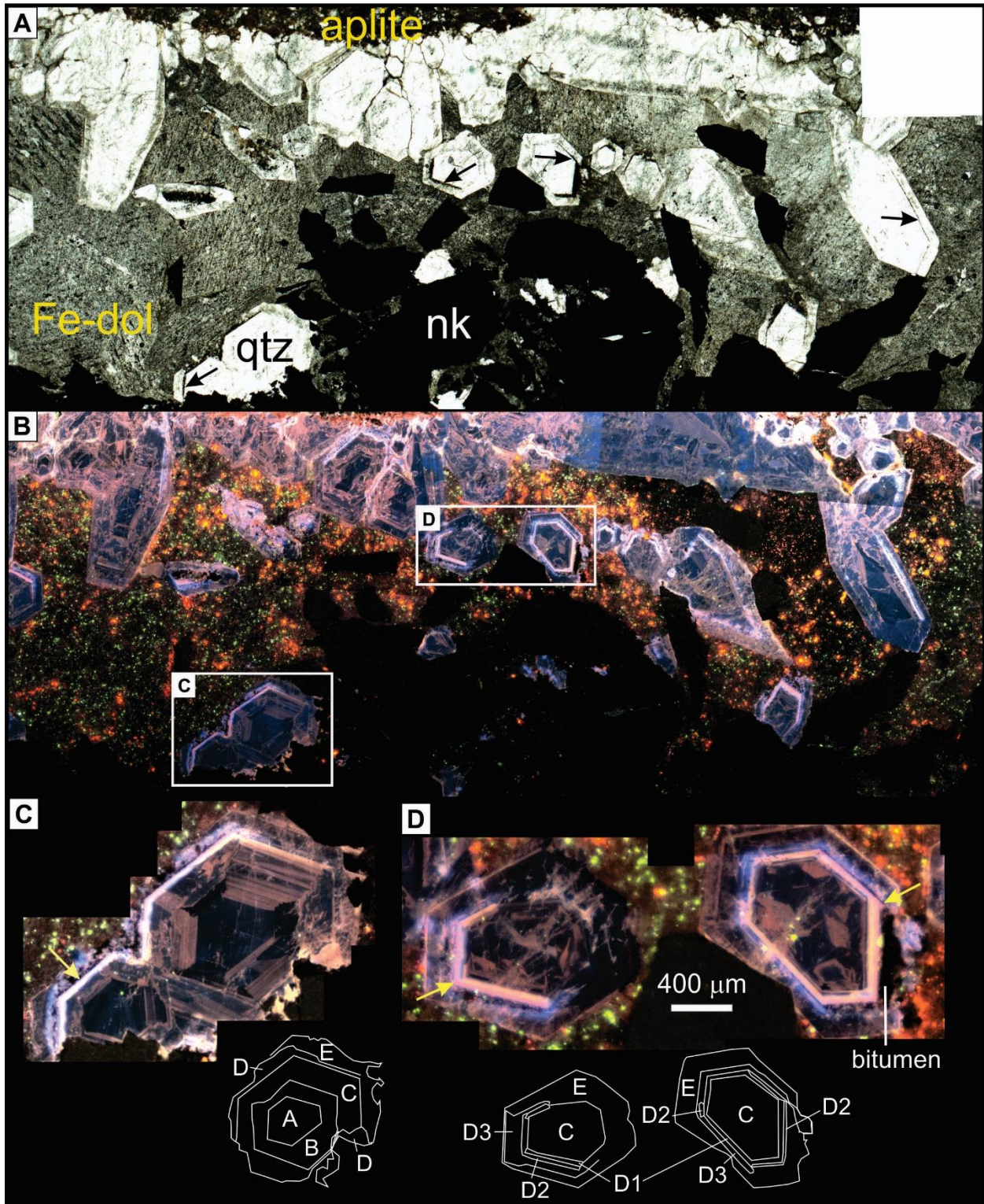
Spatial relationships amongst inclusions types based on petrographic observations from thin section at Copper Pass are sketched and represented in Figure 10. Pre-mineralization quartz (cross-cut by nickeline vein) contain inclusion types 1 (brine), 3 (carbonic), and 4 (HC liquid) in primary clusters and secondary intersecting trails (and heterogeneously trapped) (Fig. 9D and G). Although inclusion type 2 were not documented, it is reasonable to assume their presence due to the abundance of hydrocarbon-rich inclusions. As mineralization begins, early quartz hosts inclusion types 1-3 as aqueous brine, carbonic and bitumen phases are present as primary and secondary inclusions (Fig. 10 inset B). Bitumen colloids (type 5) are present in early quartz along aplite margins, occurring along growth zones with brine and carbonic inclusions (Fig. 8Q-S), showing evidence of homogeneous and heterogeneous entrapment. Ferroan dolomite along the aplite margin occurs as dirty massive carbonate and resulting in the lack of fluid inclusion identification. Along the other vein margin (Fig. 10 inset A), fluid inclusion types present is limited to type 1 brine inclusions in quartz and later stages of mineralization ferroan dolomite.



**Figure 10 (previous page).**- Schematic diagram, sketched based on petrographic observations from thin section, of the textural relationships between nickeline mineralization, early comb -textured quartz, Fe-dolomite gangue and fluid inclusion types at Copper Pass. 2-phase  $L_{aq}$ -V brine inclusions are commonly found in quartz and carbonate throughout all stages of mineralization. Pre-mineralization quartz (cross-cut by the nickeline-bearing vein) contains intersecting trails of (and heterogeneously trapped) brine, HC liquid, and carbonic ( $CO_2+CH_4$ ) fluid inclusions. Early-stage quartz along one aplite vein margin (section B) contains bitumen, brine, and carbonic fluid inclusions showing evidence of homogeneous and heterogeneous entrapment. Textural variants range from early growth zones in quartz containing brine inclusions only, to later growth zones and cross-cutting secondary trails containing coentrapped bitumen, brine and carbonic fluid inclusions. Quartz along the other vein margin (section A) contains only brine inclusions. Crack-seal events have separated and trapped laminae of aplite wall rock that now lie between early quartz and later Fe-dolomite. Late Fe-dolomite, formed during the later stages of mineralization, contain only 2-phase  $L_{aq}$ -V brine inclusions.

#### 2.5.5.2 Cathodoluminescence

A mineralized vein boundary with intergrown quartz, ferroan dolomite, and nickeline at Copper Pass (Fig. 11A) was imaged using hot cathodoluminescence (CL) colour microscopy. The resulting CL map reveals spectacular zonation in early vein quartz along the aplite dyke margin (Fig. 11B). Specifically, domains of early, comb-textured quartz demonstrate intense and variable styles of zonation showing blue-pink-yellow luminescence highlighting multiple growth zones (Fig. 11B-D). Ferroan dolomite demonstrates speckled green-red-orange luminescence (Fig. 11B). Quartz demonstrates five growth zones, interpreted from enhanced and magnified CL images and shown as simple line diagrams in Figure 11C-D. Zones have been characterized as follows: A=core zone, dark with no distinct features and not observed in all quartz crystals (black-blue luminescence); B=core zone showing sectoral zoning and not observed in all quartz crystals, mid brightness (pink-orange luminescence); C=core zone showing irregular patches of luminescence and non-luminescence quartz, suggestive of dissolution-reprecipitation, bright (pink-orange luminescence); D1=transitional zone showing complete or partial, concentric euhedral crystal faces (very bright yellow-pink luminescence); D2=transitional zone showing complete or partial, concentric euhedral crystal faces (very bright pink luminescence); D3= transitional zone showing complete or partial, concentric diffuse luminescence (very bright blue); E=rim zone showing minimal features, dark (black-blue luminescence). It is important to note that along primary growth zones (highlighted by black arrows in Fig. 11A, and yellow arrows in Fig. 11C and D), coeval bitumen and fluid inclusions are hosted in zone D3, and specifically at or near the D2-D3 interface.



**Figure 11 (previous page). Transmitted light and cathodoluminescence (hot CL) colour photomicrographs of early quartz along vein margins at Copper Pass.** A) Transmitted light (plane-polarized) photomicrograph showing early quartz (qtz) crystals containing visible bitumen inclusions along primary growth zones (indicated with arrow), nickeline (nk) and Fe-dolomite (Fe-dol). B) Hot cathodoluminescence photomicrograph mosaic showing intense zonation in quartz (blue-pink-yellow zones) and speckled green-red-orange colours (Fe-dol). C-D) Enlarged quartz crystals from two inset areas (shown as boxes in A) showing systematic CL zonation, interpreted (classified) into distinct zones according to colour. Line drawings show growth zone classifications A through E.

### 2.5.5.3 Microthermometry

The results of fluid inclusion microthermometry on *Type 1* and *Type 3* inclusions are reported in Table 4 and summarized graphically in Figure 12 where data are grouped according to bulk sample measurements including multiple FIAs. (Single FIA data are reported in Table 4). Microthermometry was done on 187 (57 at Blanchet Island, 130 at Copper Pass) *Type 1* inclusions hosted in carbonate (calcite and ferroan dolomite) at Blanchet Island and *Type 1* and *Type 3* inclusions in quartz at Copper Pass.

For *Type 1* brine inclusions hosted in carbonate at Blanchet Island, final ice melting temperature ( $T_m^{\text{ICE}}$ ) ranged between  $-12.4^\circ$  and  $-23.5^\circ\text{C}$ , corresponding to a bulk salinity of 16.0 to 23.5 wt.%  $\text{CaCl}_2$  equiv. (avg.=  $20.8 \pm 1.8$  [ $1\sigma$ ] wt%  $\text{CaCl}_2$  equiv.) (Fig. 12A). No hydrohalite or clathrate was observed. Final homogenization of *Type 1* inclusions occurred by vapour bubble closure ( $L_{\text{aq}} + V \rightarrow L_{\text{aq}}$ ) at a  $T_h$  between  $124.8^\circ$  and  $224.4^\circ\text{C}$  (avg.=  $176.1 \pm 25.3$  [ $1\sigma$ ]  $^\circ\text{C}$ ) (Fig. 12B). The narrow range in  $T_h$  values for individual samples and FIA within them, and consistency in  $T_h$  from sample to sample (Fig. 12, Table 4) suggests that inclusions at Blanchet Island experienced minimal post-entrapment modification (e.g., leakage, necking down) though a few outliers exist.

*Type 1* inclusions hosted in quartz at Copper Pass show  $T_m^{\text{ICE}}$  between  $-17.4^\circ$  and  $-24.8^\circ\text{C}$ , corresponding to bulk salinities between 19.2 and 23.1 wt. %  $\text{CaCl}_2$  equiv. (avg.=  $21.46 \pm 0.61$  [ $1\sigma$ ] wt%  $\text{CaCl}_2$  equiv.) (Fig. 12A). Homogenization of the vapour phase in *Type 1* inclusions occurred by vapour bubble closure between  $122.4^\circ$  and  $252.7^\circ\text{C}$  (1<sup>st</sup> to 3<sup>rd</sup> quartile; all data avg.=  $187.7 \pm 61.6$  [ $1\sigma$ ]  $^\circ\text{C}$ ) (Fig. 12B), with maximum values reaching up to  $359.5^\circ\text{C}$  and minimum values reaching  $70^\circ\text{C}$ . Sample and FIA ranges in  $T_h$  are wider at Copper Pass (for quartz-hosted inclusions) and are attributed to post entrapment modification (leaking or necking down). Post entrapment modification contributes significant to the expansion of the isochore field for quartz-



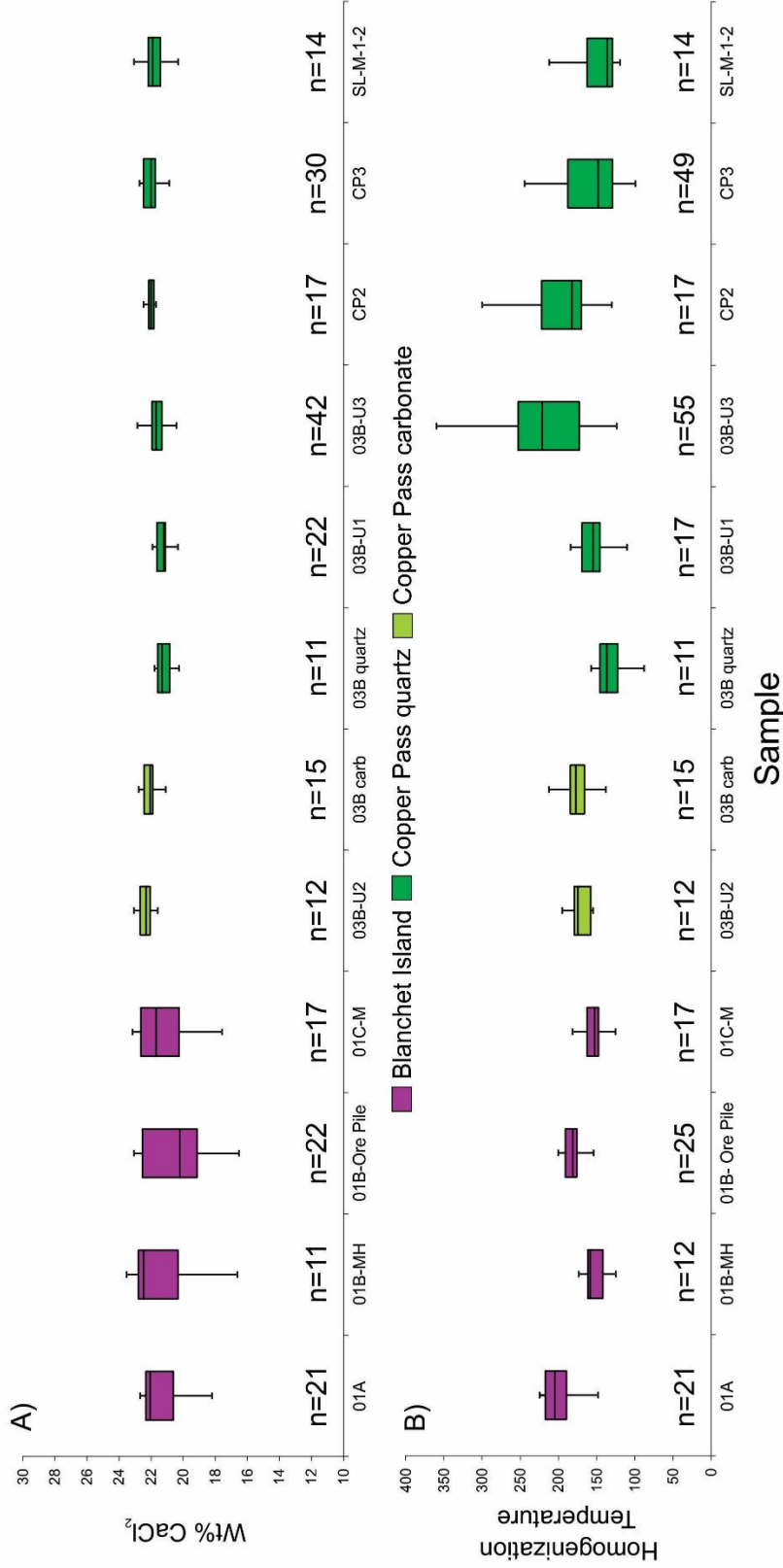
hosted *Type 1* inclusions at Copper Pass, spuriously extending the possible range of entrapment conditions into the albite-epidote hornfels metamorphic fields (Fig. 13).

Type 1 inclusions hosted in ferroan dolomite at Copper Pass show  $T_m^{ICE}$  between  $-20.2^\circ$  and  $-24.7^\circ\text{C}$ , corresponding to bulk salinities of the aqueous phase ranging from 20.8 to 22.4 wt.%  $\text{CaCl}_2$  equiv. (avg. =  $22.2 \pm 0.5$  [ $1\sigma$ ] wt%  $\text{CaCl}_2$  equiv.), (Fig. 12A). Homogenization temperatures of the vapour phase in type 1 carbonate hosted brine inclusions occurred by vapour bubble closure between  $157.6^\circ$  and  $184.5^\circ\text{C}$  (avg. =  $168.51 \pm 32.18$  [ $1\sigma$ ] $^\circ\text{C}$ ) (Fig. 12B). Isochores (Fig. 13) show the range in possible entrapment conditions for all analyzed *Type 1* inclusions. However, it is important to note that the range is much narrower for individual FIAs.

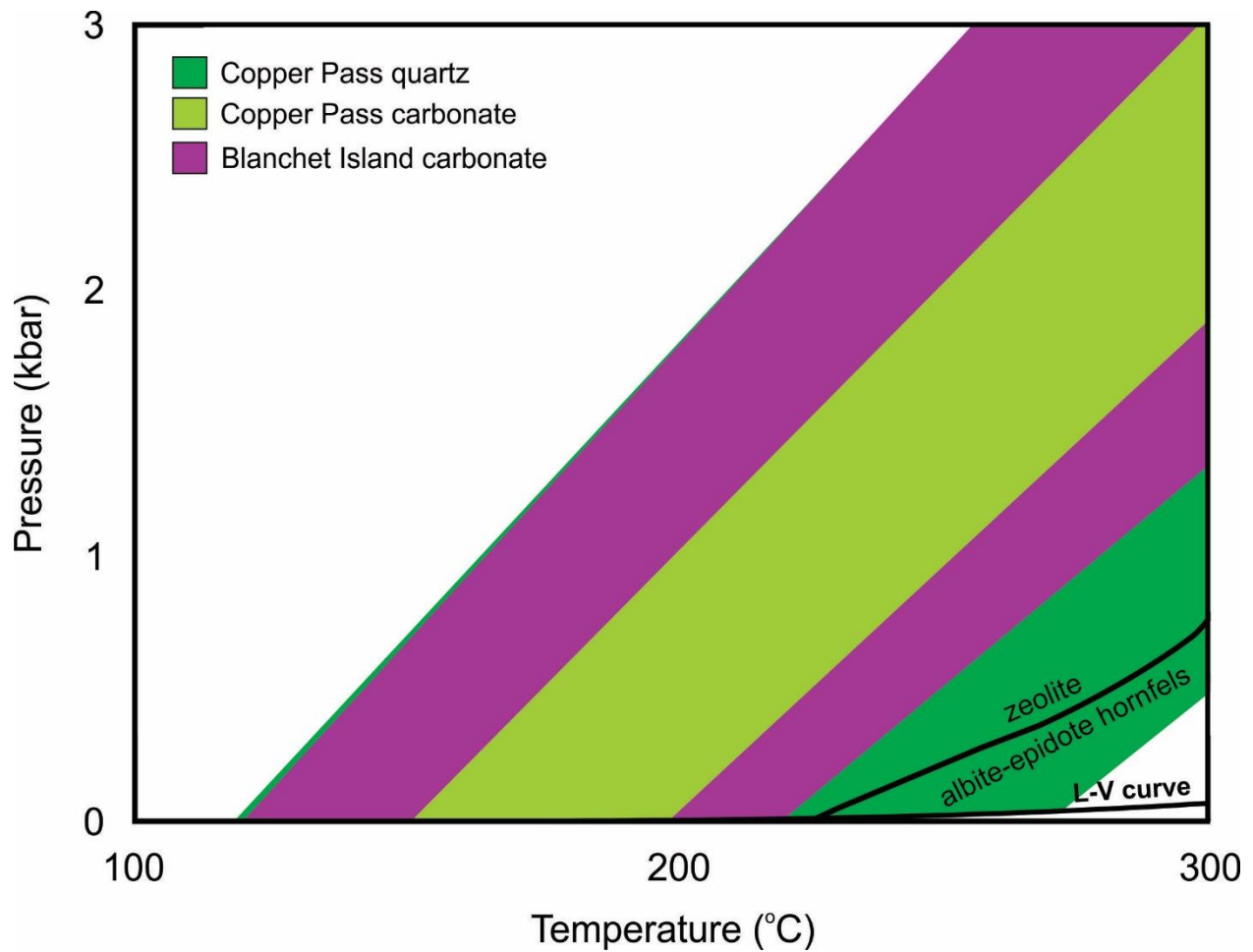
For one sample of quartz from Copper Pass showing homogeneously and heterogeneously trapped *Type 1* and *Type 3* inclusions (Fig. 9A-D; sample SL-M-1-2), microthermometric measurements (Table 4; Fig. 12) were obtained for each of the fluid types where they occurred along separate secondary trails for the purpose of P-T modeling using the method of intersecting isochores. *Type 1* inclusions showed  $T_m^{ICE}$  between  $-18.2^\circ$  and  $-24.8^\circ\text{C}$  for this sample, yielding bulk salinity values between 19.9 to 23.1 wt.%  $\text{CaCl}_2$  equiv. (Fig. 12A). Homogenization of the vapour phase occurred by vapour bubble closure between  $119.4^\circ$  and  $235.6^\circ\text{C}$  (Fig. 12B). Thus, the data for this sample is representative of typical data for *Type 1* inclusions at Copper Pass. From this same sample, 14 *Type 3* inclusions were measured from multiple FIA (Table 4). Final melting of carbonic phase occurred at  $T_m^{\text{carbonic}}$  between  $-58.1^\circ$  and  $-56.3^\circ\text{C}$  with the majority of inclusions showing carbonic phase melting within measurement uncertainty of  $-56.6^\circ\text{C}$  indicating pure  $\text{CO}_2$ . A few inclusions contain minor  $\text{CH}_4$  which lowers  $T_m^{\text{carbonic}}$  (confirmed by Raman). Variation in temperature of homogenization for carbonic phase ( $T_h^{\text{carbonic}}$ ) was observed, ranging from  $8.9^\circ$  to

28.4°C (avg.  $21.3 \pm 5.5$  [ $1\sigma$ ] °C). Homogenization occurred by disappearance of the carbonic vapour bubble ( $L_{\text{carbonic}} + V_{\text{carbonic}} \rightarrow L_{\text{carbonic}}$ ).

The overall consistency in homogenization and bulk salinity data at the FIA and sample scale is notable between Blanchet Island and Copper Pass. While at each locality subtle variations in salinity and  $T_h$  for samples with narrow data ranges likely reflect small but real fluctuations in trapping conditions and fluid salinity, Blanchet Island and Copper Pass share the same microthermometric characteristics with respect to the predominant fluid inclusion type present. Furthermore, there is relatively very little variation with time from early vein quartz to later carbonate at Copper Pass, indicating that fluid T-salinity remained more or less static throughout FMA vein formation.



**Figure 12 - Box and whisker plots summarizing microthermometric data for 2-phase (L<sub>aq</sub>+V) brine inclusions at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass.** The number 'n' corresponds to the number of inclusions measured in each sample (Data for individual fluid inclusion assemblages are differentiated in Table 4). A) Ranges in salinity (wt% CaCl<sub>2</sub> equivalent) and B) Ranges in homogenization temperature (T<sub>h</sub>). Microthermometry demonstrates that brines at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass had similarly high salinities, ranging from ~19-23 wt. % CaCl<sub>2</sub> equivalent (1<sup>st</sup>-3<sup>rd</sup> quartile range), and homogenization temperatures, ranging from 120–250 °C. At Copper Pass where inclusions in both carbonate and quartz were investigated, ranges in salinity and T<sub>h</sub> within quartz- and carbonate-hosted inclusions are very similar.



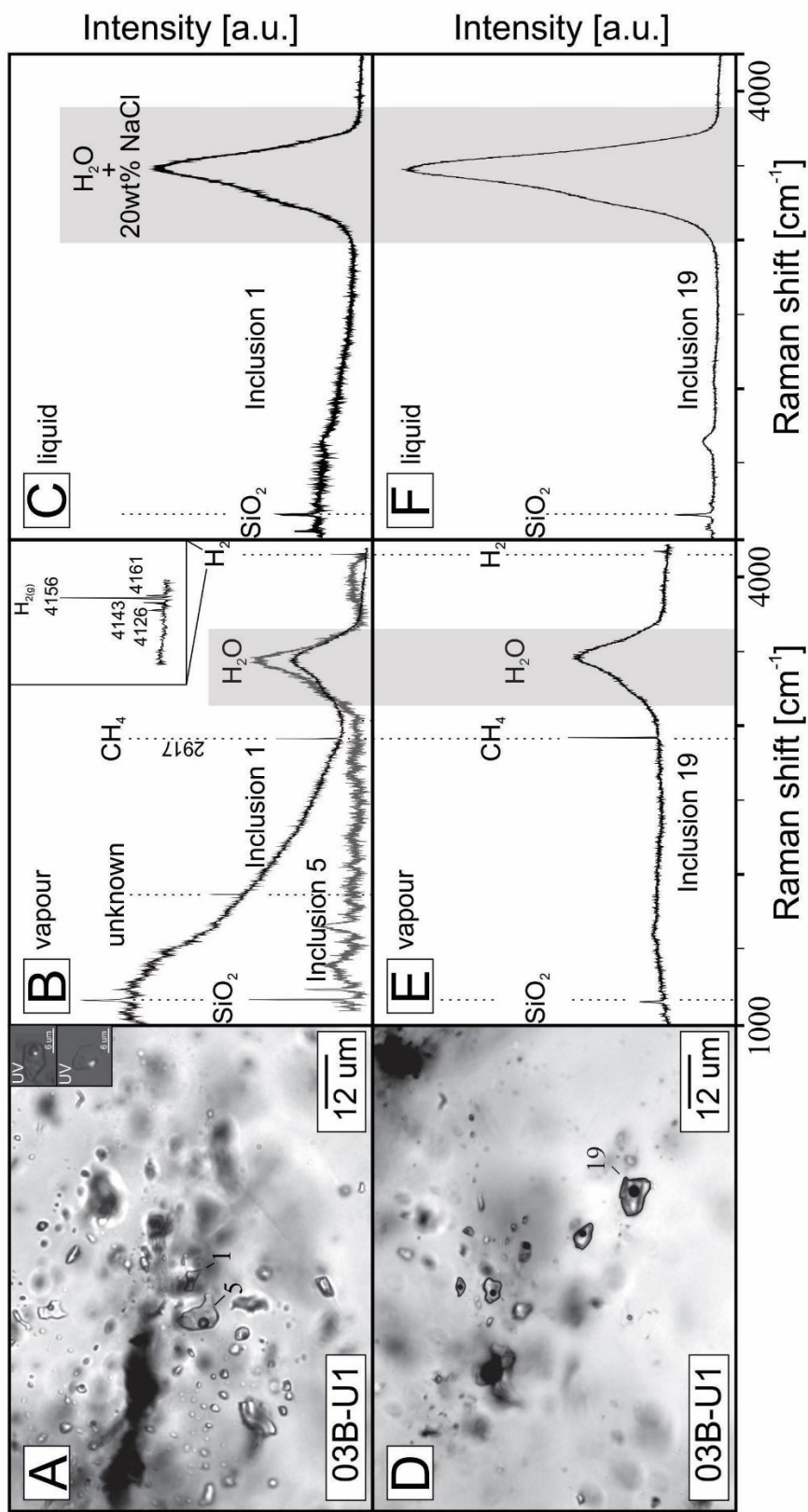
**Figure 13 - P-T diagram of isochore fields showing range in possible trapping conditions for all 2-phase (at 20°C) brine inclusions hosted in carbonate and quartz at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass.** Note that the range in isochores is much narrower for individual fluid inclusion assemblages (Table 4). Black curve shows metamorphic facies boundary between zeolite and albite-epidote hornfels. The liquid-vapour curve shown is for a 20 wt% CaCl<sub>2</sub> fluid.

### 2.5.6 Raman Spectroscopy

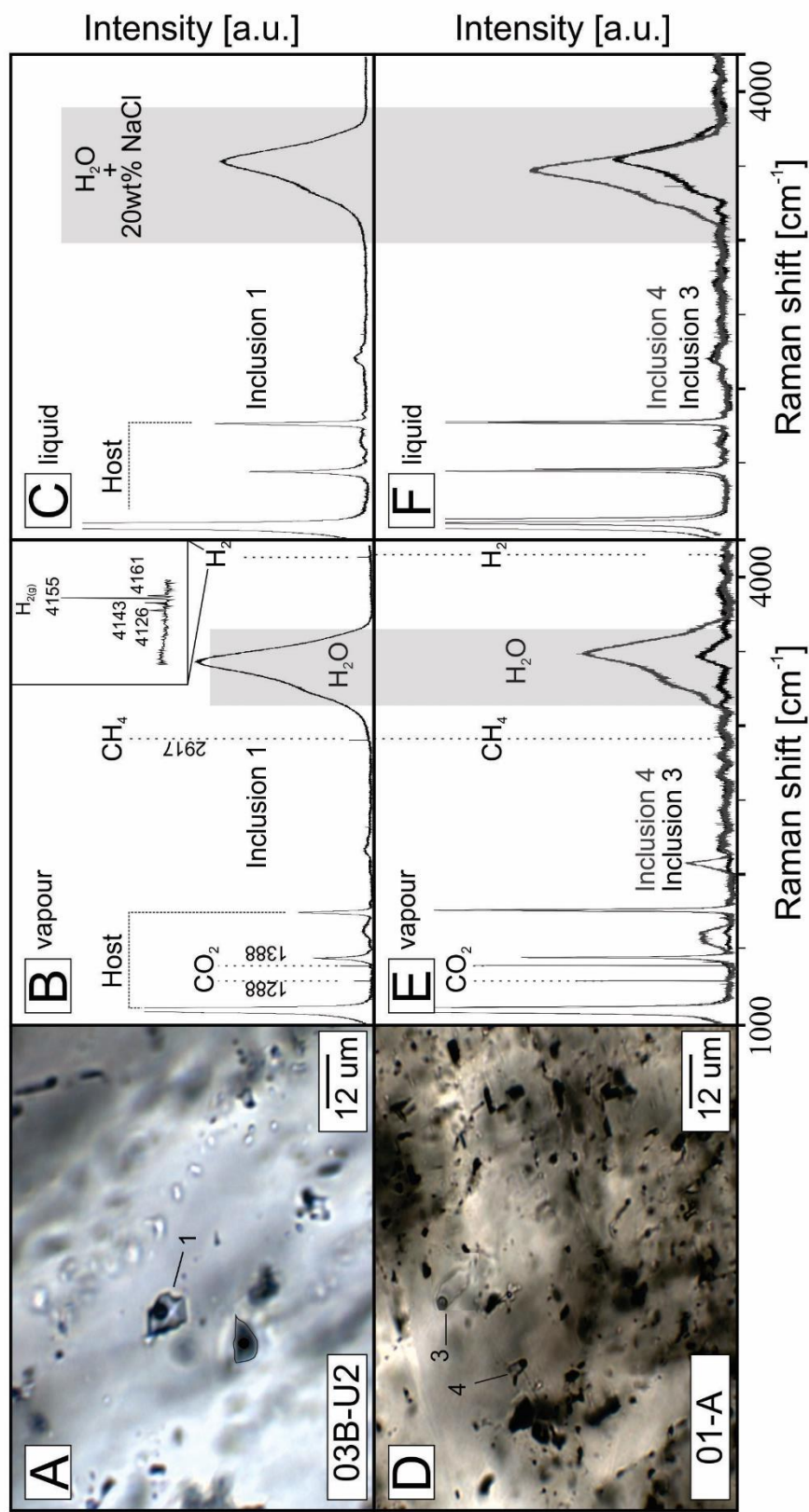
The vapour and liquid phases of *Type 1* brine inclusions, carbonic phase in *Type 3* inclusions, fluorescing phases in *Type 4* HC liquid inclusions, and opaque material in *Type 5* bitumen inclusions were analyzed by confocal Raman microspectroscopy. Both CH<sub>4</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> were detected in the vapour phase of *Type 1* inclusions in vein quartz and carbonate from Blanchet Island and Copper Pass (Fig. 14, 15) while the coexisting liquid phase contained no detectable dissolved volatile phases. Additionally, CO<sub>2</sub> was detected in *Type 1* inclusions hosted in carbonate gangue. In all *Type 1* inclusions, a strong H<sub>2</sub>O peak was observed with peak shape characteristics consistent with a high salinity (i.e., > ~20 wt. % NaCl equiv.) aqueous solution (Mernagh and Wilde, 1989; Frezzotti et al., 2012). Raman spectroscopy analysis coincides with microthermometric determination of brine salinity. It is important to note that some inclusions within individual FIA lacked any detectable volatile phases within the vapour bubble, whereas in other inclusions in the same FIA numerous volatile phases were detected. It is unlikely that this observation reflects analytical conditions (that are optimized for inclusion analysis). Heterogeneous entrapment of aqueous, carbonic, and liquid or solid hydrocarbon phases was observed at some stages of vein growth, and the detection of volatile species does not appear to be related to inclusion size (Fig. 14, 15).

Determination of the composition of the carbonic phase in simple *Type 3* inclusions showing only 1-2 phases ( $L_{\text{carbonic}} \pm V_{\text{carbonic}}$ ) in one sample (SL-M-1-2) was performed on a inclusions homogenized to single phase ( $L_{\text{carbonic}}$ ) using a simple heating stage held at 35°C (OPTIKA M-666 stage and controller). Other than CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> was the only volatile species detected in the inclusions. The calculated  $X_{\text{CO}_2}$  and  $X_{\text{CH}_4}$  range from ~1 to 0.95, and ~0 to 0.05, respectively, consistent with the results of microthermometry that show some inclusions showing carbonic melting below -

56.6°C for pure CO<sub>2</sub>. Other *Type 3* inclusions containing fluorescing bitumen inclusions were not analyzed.



**Figure 14- Raman spectra of 2-phase ( $L_{\text{aq}}-V$ ) brine inclusions hosted in quartz.** **A** and **D**) Photomicrographs of quartz from sample 03B-U1 showing analyzed fluid inclusions within two FIAs. **B** and **E**) Representative Raman spectra of vapour bubble (mixed with aqueous phase) for three inclusions in sample 03B-U1. Fluid inclusions 1 and 19 contains trace hydrocarbons ( $\text{CH}_4$ ) and  $\text{H}_2$  (black spectra) whereas 5 does not (grey spectrum). **C** and **F**) Representative Raman spectrum of the aqueous phase of inclusion 1 showing peak characteristic of high salinity (>20wt% NaCl equiv.) aqueous fluid. Peaks for  $\text{SiO}_2$  matrix are also shown at lower wave numbers.

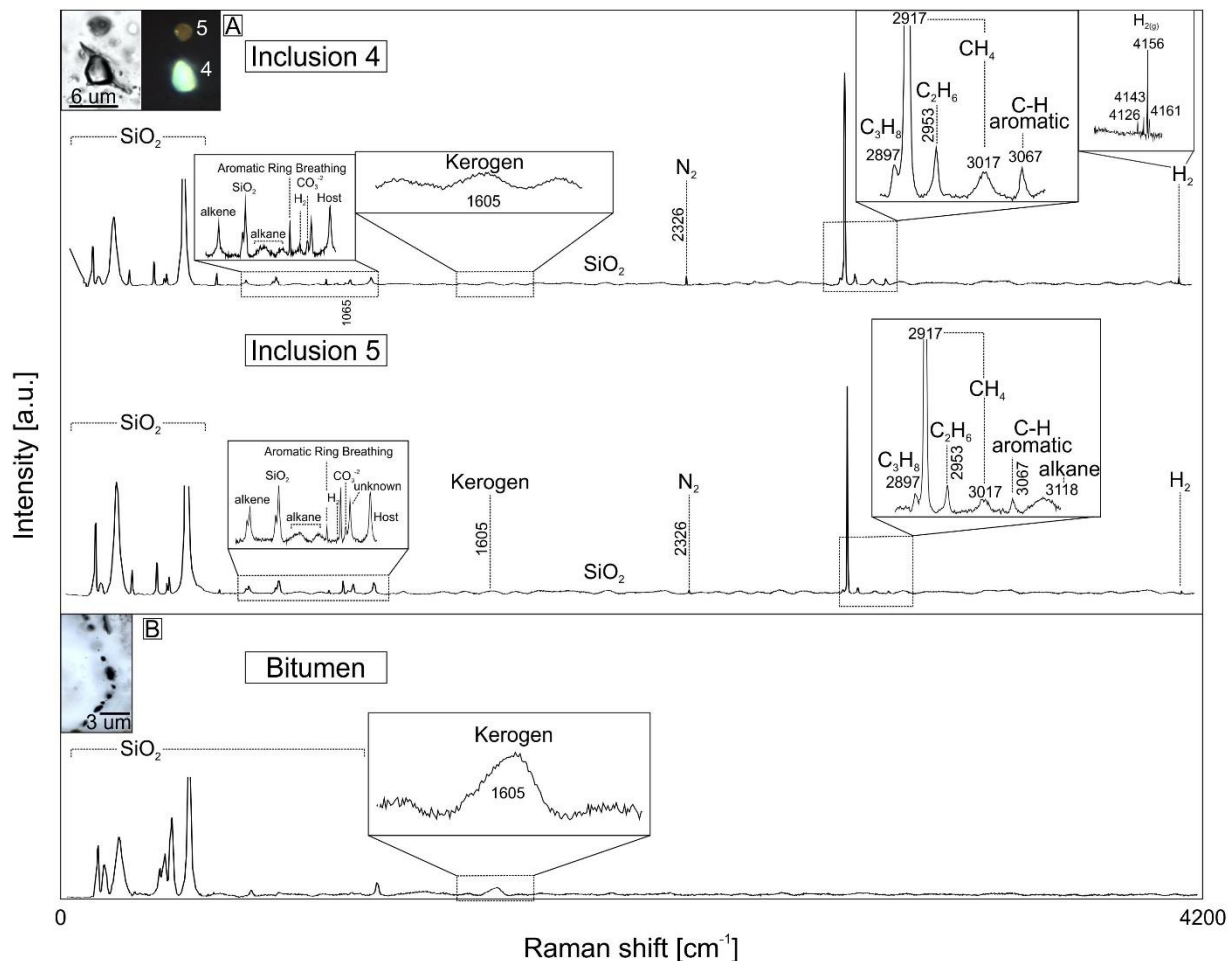


**Figure 15 - Raman spectra of 2-phase (L<sub>aq</sub>-V) brine inclusions hosted in carbonate from sample 03B-U2 (Copper Pass) and 01-A (Blanchet Island) showing an analyzed fluid inclusion within two FIA. **B) and E)** Representative Raman spectra of vapour bubble (mixed with aqueous phase) for one inclusion from 03B-U2 and two inclusions from 01-A. Fluid inclusion 1 demonstrates peaks for a hydrocarbon (CH<sub>4</sub>) phase, carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and H<sub>2</sub> gas in the vapour bubble (black spectra). Fluid inclusions 3 and 4 contain the same gas species but at lower concentrations (peak intensity). Although peak intensities for gas species are not the same between Copper Pass and Blanchet Island, it is important to note that gas phases are the same between sites in the East Arm. **C) and F)** Representative Raman spectrum of the aqueous phase in inclusions 1, 3, and 4 showing host carbonate peaks and broad peak for high salinity (>20wt% NaCl) H<sub>2</sub>O liquid.**



*Type 4* quartz-hosted HC liquid inclusions at Copper Pass were analyzed by Raman spectroscopy to identify volatile and organic species in the vapour and liquid phases present (Fig. 16A). Peak identification was done through comparison with Raman spectral analyses of fluid inclusion volatile compounds summarized in Burke (2001) and Frezzoti et al. (2012). It was not possible to clearly differentiate between vapour and liquid phases, however, spectra showed weak Raman peaks for H<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub> (2326 cm<sup>-1</sup>), kerogen (1605 cm<sup>-1</sup> "G" band), aqueous CO<sub>3</sub><sup>-2</sup>, and strong peaks for CH<sub>4</sub> and various other aliphatic (olefin and paraffin) hydrocarbon species including C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub> (2953 cm<sup>-1</sup>), C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub> (2897 cm<sup>-1</sup>), aromatics (e.g., 3067 cm<sup>-1</sup>), and unidentified alkanes (e.g., 3118 cm<sup>-1</sup> peak) and alkenes (Fig. 16A). Inclusions with differing fluorescence colouration (Fig. 16A; inclusion 5 vs. 4) showed slightly differing peak intensities for hydrocarbon compounds, with darker fluorescing (brown) inclusions having lower intensity aliphatic and H<sub>2</sub> bands.

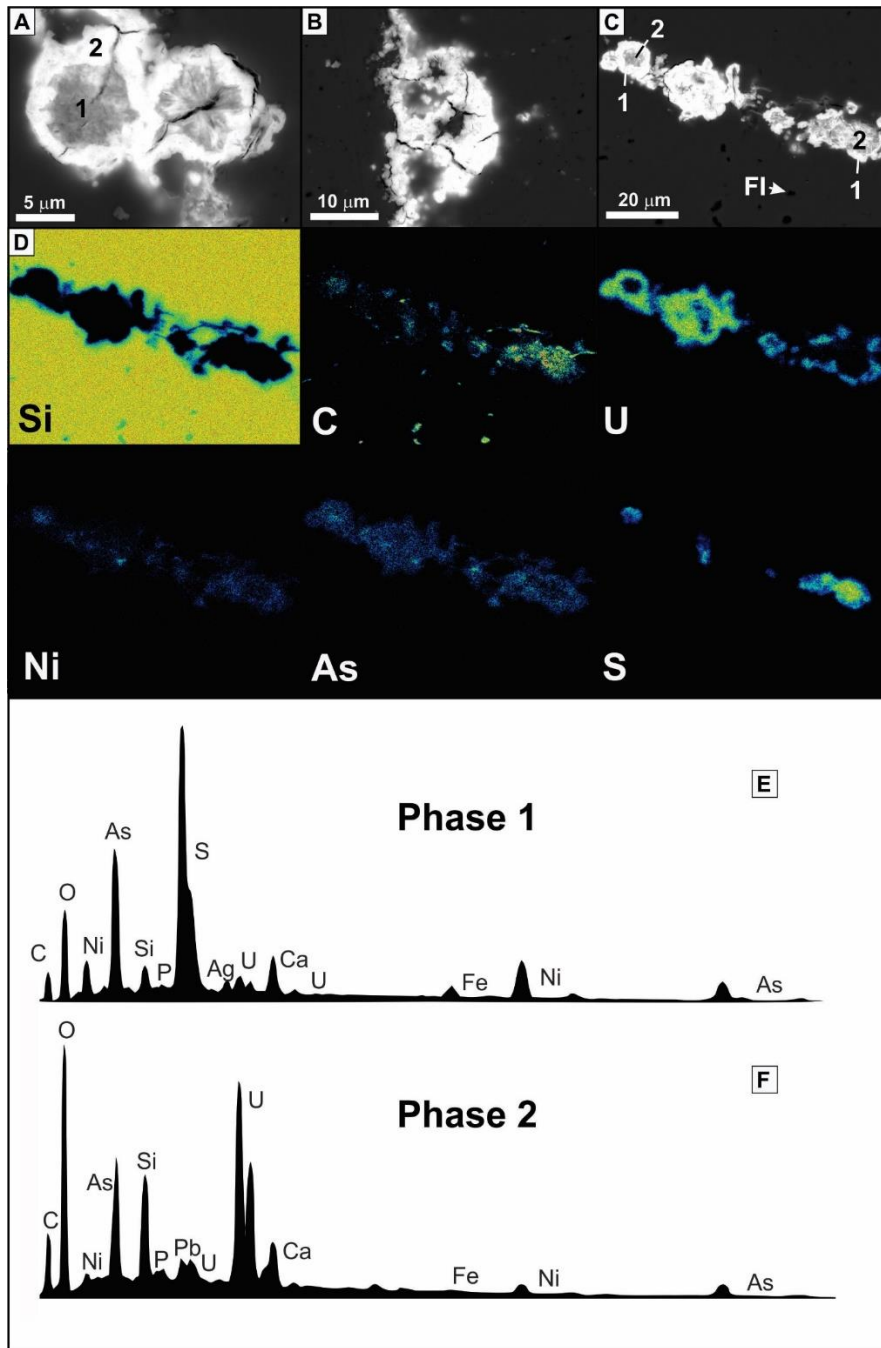
Primary bitumen (*type 5*) inclusions along growth zones in early quartz at Copper Pass were analyzed and contained no detectable volatiles with exception to a pronounced kerogen peak (1605 cm<sup>-1</sup>) that had stronger peak intensity than in HC liquid inclusions (Fig. 16B).



**Figure 16 - Representative Raman spectra from fluorescence hydrocarbon (HC) liquid and bitumen inclusions found at Copper Pass. A)** Hydrocarbon liquid inclusions 4 and 5 (inset, upper left corner) yielded Raman spectra with many characteristic peaks for alkanes, alkenes, aromatics, kerogen and methane, along with nitrogen ( $\text{N}_2$ ) and hydrogen gas ( $\text{H}_2$ ). Also present is a peak for  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ . **B)** Primary bitumen inclusions hosted in quartz growth zones showing demonstrating host silica peaks and a strong kerogen peak ( $1605 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). Peak identification was done through comparison with Raman spectral analyses obtained from Frezzoti et al. (2012) and Burke (2001).

### 2.5.7 SEM-EDS X-ray mapping of primary bitumen inclusions

Preliminary characterization of the metal content of *Type 5* primary bitumen inclusions exposed on polished thin section surfaces, hosted in growth zones of early quartz at Copper Pass was carried out by SEM-EDS (spot analyses and X-ray mapping). SEM-BSE and X-ray maps (Fig. 17) show that *Type 5* inclusions are zoned with lower density (dark; phase '2') cores and higher density (bright; phase '1') rims, with core zones having a radiating, fibrous morphology (Fig. 17A-C). Corresponding X-ray mapping (Fig. 17D) and corresponding SEM-EDS spectra of phase '1' and '2' (Fig. 17E and F, respectively) in the bitumen illustrates enrichments in many elements, notably C, U, Ni, As, and S with cores enriched in C, S, Ni and As, and rims enriched in U. This observation is important as it demonstrates that concentrations of FMA-style ore metals are present at high concentrations (i.e., wt.%) to be detected by SEM-EDS, having a routine detection limit of 0.1 wt% for heavy elements.



**Figure 17 - SEM-BSE photomicrographs and SEM-EDS X-ray maps of bitumen inclusions in growth zones within early quartz at Copper Pass. A)-C)** BSE photomicrographs of exposed bitumen inclusions on polished surface showing zoned nature of the inclusion with bright (higher density; phase '1') rims and dark (lower density; phase '2') cores with a radiating, fibrous morphology. Opened fluid inclusions (FI) are visible in the quartz. Bitumen aggregates included along growth zone, corresponding to the area for which X-ray maps (D) were obtained. **D)** X-ray maps showing quantified element intensity for selected elements Si, C, U, Ni, As and S. Note the enrichment in C, S, Ni and As in phase 2 and U in phase 1. **E)** SEM-EDS spectra of phase '1' seen in C). **F)** SEM-EDS spectra of phase '2' seen in C).

## 2.5.8 Laser ablation ICP-MS analyses of fluid inclusions, bitumen, and carbonates

### 2.5.8.1 Fluid inclusions

Representative primary *Type I* brine inclusions from early quartz along margins (aplite margin, sample 03-A2; carbonate vein margin, 03B-U1) of nickeline (Ni-Co-As-Bi-Mo-Pb-Sb±Ag-U) veins at Copper Pass were analyzed by LA-ICP-MS. Data is summarized in Table 5 and plotted in Figure 18. Figure 19 shows a representative LA-ICP-MS transient signal for a *Type I* inclusion. Elements in Figure 18 are grouped together whereby group I elements are major cations, group II are minor cations, and group III are ore and accessory metals. Group I elements are Na, Mg, K, Ca and Mn. Analysis shows that Na is the dominant cation in the fluid ranging from 60920 to 90782 ppm (avg 81990 ppm). In addition, brines are enriched in K (avg 7850 ppm), Ca (avg 15485 ppm), with lesser Mg (avg 945ppm) and Mn (avg 93.6 ppm). Group II elements consist of minor cations Rb, Sr, and Ba. Strontium values range from 91.2 to 1794.6 ppm (avg 866 ppm), with lesser Rb (avg 30.8 ppm) and Ba (avg 492.5 ppm). Group III elements comprise the ore metals Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Mo, Ag, Sb, Pb, Bi, Th and U. Cobalt values are often below detection limits, however when, concentrations reach an average of 3 ppm when detected (n=4). Nickel contents were undetectable in all inclusions and routine detection limits are high owing to poor sensitivity of this method for Ni. Whereas average detection limits for Ni are in the 10<sup>2</sup> ppm range, the lowest detection limits, in the 20-40 ppm range for the largest inclusions analyzed are more representative of maximum concentrations for this element (Table 5). Likewise, while Ag was detected in two inclusion measurements (19.4 and 24.1 ppm), those concentrations are unusual and routine detection limits appear to be lower, in the low ppm-range. Copper content ranges from 8 to 331 ppm (avg 57 ppm). Zinc was detected in all inclusions, with ranges in concentration from 12 to 532 ppm (avg 145.2 ppm). Pb was detected in all inclusions ranging from 1 to 146 ppm (avg 40

ppm). As was detected in majority of inclusions ranging from 22 to 1167 ppm (avg 230 ppm) and is one of the few metals where enrichment in the brine is greater than bitumen.

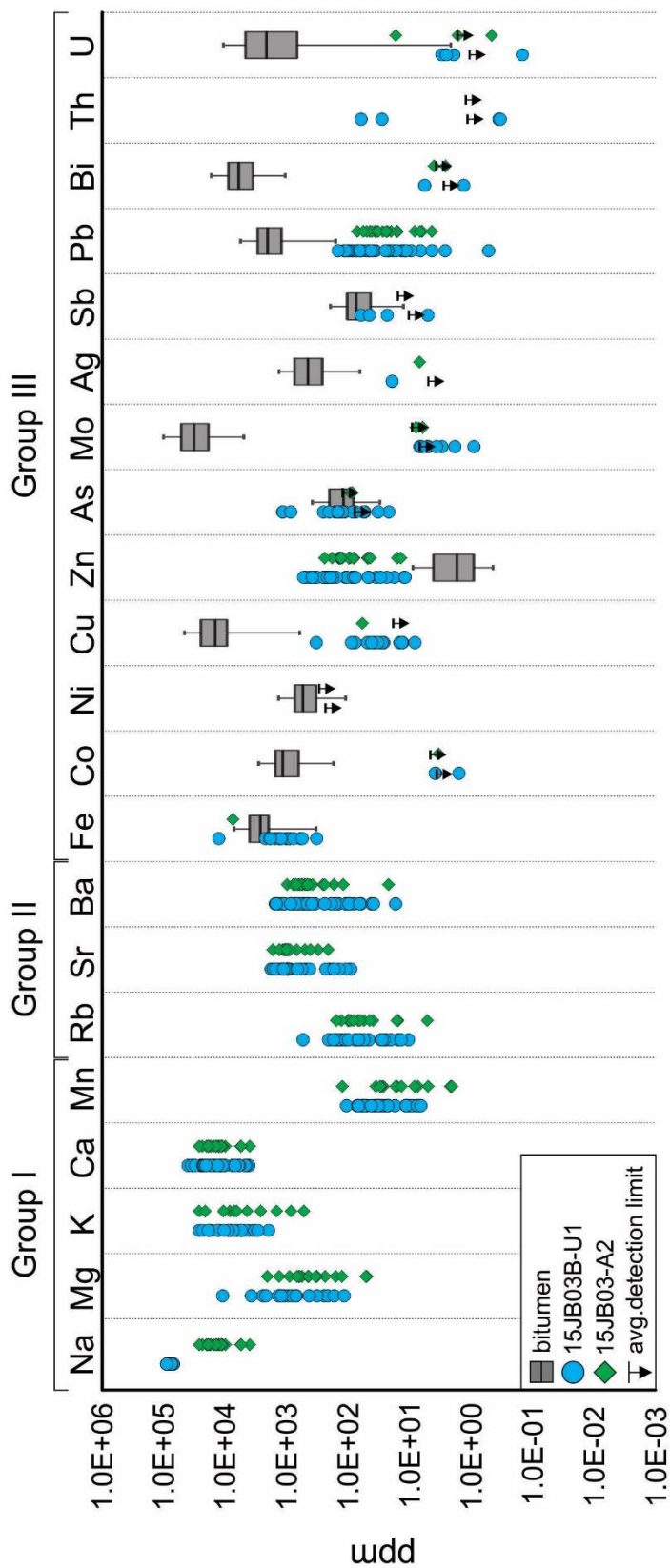
#### 2.5.8.2 Bitumen

LA-ICP-MS analyses of *Type 5* bitumen inclusions from Copper Pass, (pyro)bitumen from the Union Island shale, and bitumen from the Athabasca Basin are summarized in Table 6, and metal concentrations (Group III) for the *Type 5* inclusions from Copper Pass are plotted in Figure 18 in box-whisker format. Figure 19 shows a representative LA-ICP-MS transient signal for a *Type 5* inclusion.

Unlike *Type 1* inclusions for which independent salinity determination provides an internal standard, quantification of bitumen inclusions posed a challenge. The inclusions are composed of a dense hydrocarbon phase and the presence of elements other than C and H (not quantifiable by LA-ICPMS) could only be estimated independently (semi-quantitatively) through SEM-EDS analyses. SEM-EDS data (mapping and spectra) of *Type 5* inclusions shows that elements such as U, S, Ca, As, Fe and Ni are present in very high concentrations (wt% level), otherwise their main X-ray lines would not be detectable by EDS as the method has a widely recognized routine detection limit around the 0.1 wt% level. Quantification of LA-ICP-MS background-corrected count rates utilized the ‘total oxides’ routine in the program SILLIS accounting for the sum of all analytes measured by LA-ICP-MS. Based on semi-quantitative SEM-EDS analyses, this constraint was set iteratively between 5 wt% and 50 wt% with the remaining mass assumed to be C+H. Using U, As, and Ni as examples, the 5 wt% total oxides constraint resulted in concentrations calculated using SILLIS on the order of  $10^2$  ppm,  $10^1$  ppm, and  $10^1$  ppm, respectively. The 50 wt% total oxides constraint resulted in concentrations an order of magnitude higher for each element. The reported

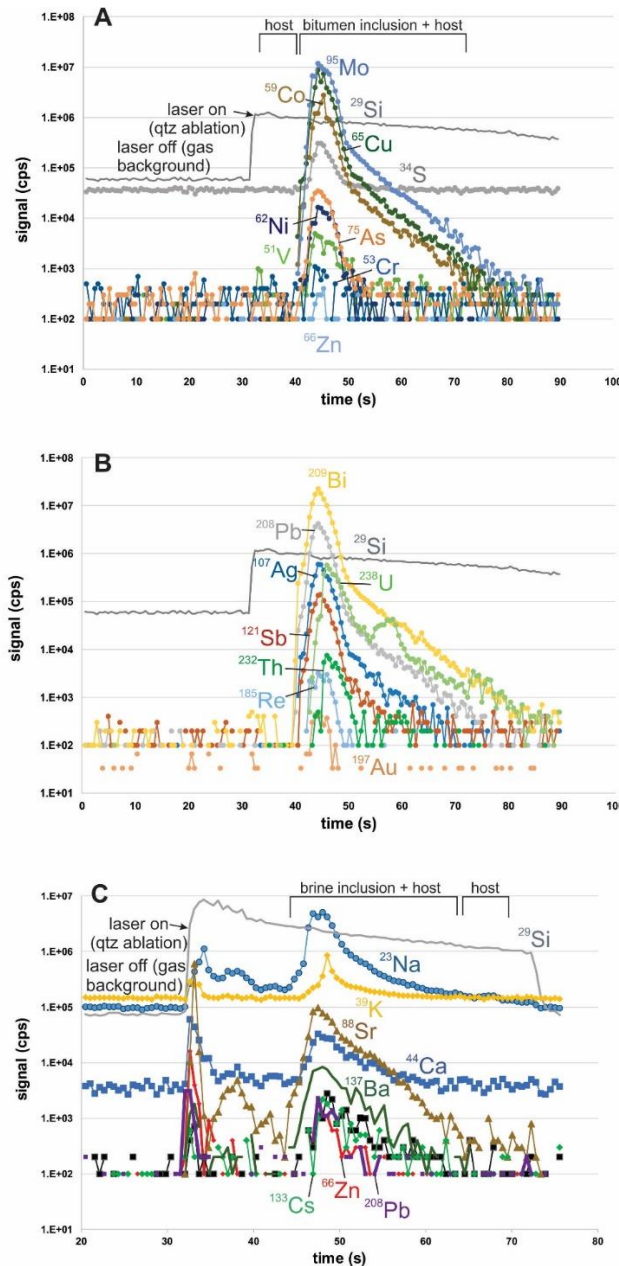
data for the bitumens in Table 6 and Figure 19 is based on this 50 wt% total oxides constraint. Importantly, this is likely to be still an underestimate as the secondary X-ray peaks for these metals appear to be large and, for the purposes of comparing bitumens from Copper Pass to other bitumen compositions in other ore-forming systems, the relative concentrations of different trace elements are not impacted by changes in assumed quantification constraints.

*Type 5* inclusions demonstrate a significant enrichment in Ca and the ore metals Co, Ni, Fe, As, Ag, Bi, Pb, Sb, and U, all (conservatively) in the  $10^2$  to  $10^3$  ppm range (U may reach up to  $10^4$  ppm in some inclusions). Sulfur, and the metals Cu and Mo are in the  $10^4$  range. Other elements reported include the REE, Zn and Au, all in the low ppm to  $10^1$  ppm range. Notably, and of significance to the interpretation of FMA vein formation, the FMA metals Co, Ni (detection limits in brines very high), Ag, Bi, and U are much higher in the bitumens than in early *Type 1* (brine) inclusions. The exceptions to this are As and Sb which appears to be present in the brine phase at comparable concentrations to the bitumen. The rare earth element (REE) concentrations of bitumen demonstrate a flat bell-shaped pattern where  $LREE \ll MREE > HREE$  and a small Eu anomaly is present (Fig. 26).



**Figure 18 – LA-ICPMS data summary showing measured concentrations (ppm) of major cations (Group I), minor cations (Group II), and ore metals (Group III) in quartz-hosted brine ( $L_{aq+V}$ ) and bitumen inclusions from early quartz in a mineralized (nickeline-rich) vein at Copper Pass.** Concentration data are shown for all inclusions analyzed in quartz crystals on both vein margins (sample 03-A2, in contact with aplite; and sample 03B-U1 with delaminated aplite and synkinematic carbonate vein). For metals in fluid inclusions, the average detection limit based on all fluid inclusions falling below detection limit is shown as a line and downward arrow. Metal concentrations in bitumen inclusions in growth zones in quartz are also shown as box-whisker plots (min, 1<sup>st</sup> quartile, median, 3<sup>rd</sup> quartile, max). Bitumens exhibit a metal-rich signature relative to brines.





**Figure 19 - LA-ICPMS transient signals (counts per second vs. time) for ablations of bitumen (A-B) and brine (C) inclusions. A-B)** Transient signal for a 20 μm diameter bitumen inclusion in quartz showing the same inclusion ablation in A and B, but different measured isotopes. A background interval is collected (laser off) for ~30s. The laser is turned on and the bitumen inclusion is intersected at ~40s at a depth of 10 μm below the quartz wafer surface. The signals in A and B show all isotope count rates rising and falling synchronously, suggesting homogeneous distribution throughout the bitumen inclusion. **C)** A transient signal for a 20 μm diameter brine (L+V) inclusion, showing a ~30s interval of background (laser off; only time interval between 20 and 30s shown) and some surface contamination when the laser is switched on. The brine inclusion is well resolved, intersected at ~43s, a depth of 15 μm below the surface.

### 2.5.8.3 Carbonate

Complimenting analysis of the mineralizing fluids and bitumen chemistry, microanalysis of late carbonates (ferroan dolomite hosting *Type 1* inclusions) at Copper Pass were completed and summarized in Table 7. Carbonates (ferroan dolomite) demonstrate a bell shaped REE pattern, where  $LREE \ll MREE > HREE$ , along with an Eu anomaly (Fig. 26A).

### 2.5.9 Stable O and C, and radiogenic Sr isotope composition of vein carbonates

#### 2.5.9.1 Carbonate bulk oxygen and carbon isotopes

Oxygen and carbon isotope compositions were determined for 15 samples of microdrilled bulk vein carbonate (Fe-dolomite) from FMA mineralization at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass and are summarized in Table 8. Ferroan dolomite and calcite in cobaltite-safflorite veins at Blanchet Island has  $\delta^{13}C_{VPDB}$  values between -2.73‰ to -2.02‰ (avg. -2.49‰, n=4) and  $\delta^{18}O_{VSMOW}$  values between 12.06‰ to 13.46‰ (avg 12.99‰, n=4). Ferroan dolomite in nickeline-carbonate vein and breccias at Copper Pass has  $\delta^{13}C_{VPDB}$  values between -4.06‰ to -1.13‰ (avg. -2.54‰, n=6) and  $\delta^{18}O_{VSMOW}$  values between 10.85‰ to 16.24‰ (avg 13.28‰, n=6). A single analysis from FMA vein carbonate from the Labelle Peninsula veins has a  $\delta^{13}C_{VPDB}$  value of 0.19‰ and a relatively high  $\delta^{18}O_{VSMOW}$  value of 18.69‰. For comparison purposes, vein carbonates from the Rabbit Lake (Athabasca Basin) U deposit occurrence were analyzed, yielding  $\delta^{13}C_{VPDB}$  values between -5.08‰ to -4.16‰ (avg. -4.50‰, n=4) and relatively high  $\delta^{18}O_{VSMOW}$  values between 21.1‰ to 24.4‰ (avg. 22.7‰, n=4).

### 2.5.9.2 In-situ oxygen isotopes (SIMS) of early vein quartz

In-situ oxygen isotope compositions were obtained for 117 spots within the 7 different growth zone types in comb-textured quartz lining a nickeline-carbonate vein-aplite dyke contact at Copper Pass. Owing to textural complexity of the growth zoning, SIMS spot positioning was guided using detailed CL maps (ie. Fig. 11) combined with transmitted and reflected light petrography to ensure that single analyses could be tied to a specific growth zone. Data for growth zones in 6 quartz crystals are summarized in Table 9. Core zones A, B, and C have  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}}$  values ranging from 3.9‰ to 7.4‰ (avg. 5.1‰, n=5), 4.0‰ to 10.4‰ (avg. 6.6‰, n=17), and 3.9‰ to 20.2‰ (avg. 8.7‰, n=21) respectively. Transitional zones D1, D2, D3 exhibiting very bright CL luminescence have  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}}$  values of 5.2‰ to 12.3‰ (avg. 9.9‰, n=20), 6.8‰ to 14.2‰ (avg. 9.5‰, n=7), 5.2‰ to 22.6‰ (avg. 15.5‰, n=14), respectively. The outermost rim (zone E) has  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}}$  values of 6.7‰ to 22.6‰ (avg. 16.4‰, n=33). Analyses highlight a systematic shift to higher  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  from core to rim. In particular, the transition from D2 to D3 shows an increase in the average  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}}$  value of 6.5‰ coinciding to the textural position of primary, metalliferous bitumen inclusions.

### 2.5.9.3 Carbonate radiogenic Sr isotope data

Ratios of  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_0$ , representing values corrected for negligible radiogenic ingrowth using the Rb concentrations determined for the carbonates by solution ICP-MS, were determined for 15 samples of FMA vein carbonate from Blanchet Island, Copper Pass, Labelle Peninsula (East Arm) and vein carbonate from Rabbit Lake (Athabasca Basin) and are summarized in Table 8. Ferroan dolomite from Blanchet Island veins has  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_0$  ratios from 0.709655 to 0.710387 (avg.  $0.7100 \pm 0.000064$ ;  $2\sigma$ , n=4). Ferroan dolomite of Copper Pass veins has  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_0$  ratios from 0.708093 to 0.719578 (avg.  $0.7117 \pm 0.0011$ ;  $2\sigma$ , n=6). A single analysis of late carbonate at

Labelle Peninsula yields an  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_o$  value of  $0.711159 \pm 0.000046$  ( $2\sigma$ ). For comparison, vein carbonate from Rabbit Lake has  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_o$  ratios from 0.708156 to  $0.709081 \pm 0.000046$  (avg  $0.7084 \pm 0.000046$ ;  $2\sigma$ ,  $n=4$ ).

#### 2.5.10 K-U-Th scintillometry

Radioactivity mapping (K-U-Th; concentrations equivalency derived from activity) mapping was carried out *in situ* in the field on mineralized veins at Copper Pass and are summarized in Table 10. Uranium values (scintillometer activity equivalent concentrations) for *in situ* veins at Copper pass reached levels up to 232 ppm U along vein-aplite margin, weakening into the country rock (Figure 2F). Assays yielded values up to 116.7 ppm U, with low levels ranging from 7.9 to 19.9 ppm U for Copper Pass. Samples collected from Blanchet Island were insignificant, with less than 10 ppm U, with the exception of a float sample, containing 86.4 ppm U.

## 2.6 Discussion

This study integrates field observations, petrography, microthermometry, Raman spectroscopy, LA-ICP-MS analysis of inclusions, and stable and radiogenic isotope composition of gangue minerals. These data provide new insight into the chemical composition and evolution of hydrothermal fluids as they relate to ore formation, and help constrain ore formation conditions, the origin of ore fluids, and source of ore metals.

## *2.6.1 Timing and paragenesis of FMA mineralization in the East Arm basin*

### 2.6.1.1 Constraints on the relative and absolute age of mineralization

The age of FMA vein formation at Copper Pass and Blanchet Island relative to major rock types in the study area can be established at the outcrop scale by cross-cutting relationships. At Blanchet Island, mineralization is hosted in the Blanchet Formation of the Pethei Group (Great Slave Supergroup; 1.90-1.87 Ga; van Breeman et al., 2013) where veining is parallel and crosscuts bedding. The Compton Intrusive Suite monzonite occurs as a sill and topographically overlies the mineralization and intrudes the Pethei Group carbonates, providing a maximum FMA vein age, as mineralization does not crosscut the monzonite (due to competency). It is important to note that this relationship is limited by field exposure. It is reasonable to assume veins do not crosscut the monzonite as high fluid P would be required, inconsistent with low P conditions estimated for similar FMA veins at Copper Pass. At Copper Pass, mineralization is hosted within the Yellowknife Supergroup where veining crosscuts amphibolite and aplite dykes (Fig. 3G), providing a maximum vein age of 1.89 Ga. In the southern portion of the Slave Craton, FMA veins occur within the Caribou Lake gabbro and along the contact with the gabbro and the Hearne Channel granite, providing a maximum FMA vein age of ~2.18 Ga. Based on cross-cutting relationships at the three localities, a maximum age of 1.86 Ga is proposed for FMA veins in the East Arm basin.

Determining an absolute age of FMA vein formation is problematic due to absence of dateable minerals as noted in studies at Cobalt-Gowganda, Ontario (Marshall et al., 1985). Uraninite appears to be the only potentially dateable ore mineral for these mineralization styles. However, owing to its late remobilization (Fig. 7 I-K) and trace abundance, reliable age determination for

the primary FMA mineralizing event using U-Pb systematics analyses seems unlikely. It is most likely that U-Pb dating of uraninite would provide a minimum age as regional isotopic resetting of U-Pb isotopes has been reported in the region, related to orogenic or magmatic events at ~1.4 Ga (LeBlanc et al., 2014; Ghandi et al., 2018).

Occurring along growth zones in early stage quartz, U-rich bitumen in *Type 5* inclusions provides a potentially datable phase. Bitumen inclusions were isolated as droplets/particles along growth zones, possibly preventing Pb loss or gain during metamorphism. Alexandre and Kyser (2006) dated ancient bitumen successfully in the Athabasca basin. However, due to the insignificant quantities at Copper Pass an in-situ method (e.g., via SIMS) would need to be developed to provide an absolute age.

Looking at similar FMA systems (Ni-Co arsenides/sulfarsenides + U) in the NWT, veins from the Port Radium district provide a much higher grade-tonnage possible analog to deposits in the East Arm basin. The Port Radium FMA veins at the Eldorado deposit crosscut the Cleaver dyke swarm with a U-Pb baddeleyite age of 1.74 Ga and are crosscut by the 1.59 Ga Western channel diabase (Ghandi et al., 2018). The maximum age constraints for FMA veins in the East Arm basin, described above (between ~1.86 and ~1.4 Ga) agree broadly with the age bracket for the Eldorado deposit.

#### 2.6.1.2 Paragenetic sequence of FMA veins

The complexity of textures seen at the study areas at multiple scales makes it difficult to establish the timing of individual ore minerals and so key groups of mineral species (and the textures they showed in association with other groups) were used to establish a paragenetic sequence involving multiple mineralization periods and stages. Petrographic observations (ore and

gangue minerals, inclusion timing) from mineralized veins at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass are summarized in a paragenetic sequence in Figure 20. The vein systems have been assigned early, main and, late development periods with the main development period further broken down into 4 stages. Ore minerals precipitated only within the 4 stages of the main vein development period, whereas gangue minerals may have formed throughout all development stages. Additionally, a barren stage (quartz-only with *Type 1* inclusions) is reported for Copper Pass, and a post-mineralization stage involving weathering (surficial) of Co and Ni phases to produce annabergite and erythrite is also documented in the paragenesis (but not discussed below).

#### 2.6.1.1 Barren (pre-vein) stage and early vein period

These are characterized by early quartz and minor ferroan dolomite formation at Copper Pass but are not observed at Blanchet Island.

#### 2.6.1.2 Main vein period, stages 1 and 2 - Arsenides

In these stages, mineralization begins with the formation of Ni-Co arsenides, as nickeline and safflorite-nickeline at Copper Pass and Blanchet Island, respectively. These minerals occur as massive clumps, botryoidal nodules or “blooms” within veins and vein breccias and are the primary ore minerals. As the system evolves, the As:Ni and As:Co ratios of the arsenides increases as seen by the precipitation of Ni and Co di/triarsenides (e.g., rammelsbergite, skutterudite). Rammelsbergite can be found sharing grain boundaries with nickeline (Fig. 5H) but also replacing, or (rarely) being replaced by nickeline (Fig. 6A, D). Skutterudite clumps are rimmed by cobaltite and nickeline is rimmed by gersdorffite, reflecting an increase in S:As ratio. The increase in S marks a transition from the arsenide to sulfarsenide stage. In the ore assemblages, arsenides and sulfarsenides exhibit strongly zoned crystals, with dissolution-reprecipitation and compositional

zoning/rimming demonstrating disequilibria and significant changes in conditions or fluid composition with time. It is possible that some carbonate gangue is coprecipitated throughout these stages based on its occurrence both prior to and after these stages, as well as at the very end of Stage 2.

#### 2.6.1.3 Main vein period, stage 3 - Sulfarsenides

In the sulfarsenide stage, an enrichment in S is recognized at the edges of arsenides where rims of Ni-Co sulfarsenides occur (Fig. 5A, 6C). Cobalt arsenides are rimmed by Co-sulfarsenides (cobaltite) exclusively, as Ni arsenides are rimmed by Ni sulfarsenides (gersdorffite). Independent of other controls, Ni-dominated sulfarsenides at Copper Pass may have crystallized at lower temperature than the Co-dominated sulfarsenides at Blanchett Island (Fig. 7). Carbonate gangue starts to precipitate at this stage, first coprecipitated with sulfarsenides (along quartz grain boundaries at Copper Pass) and mainly later, infilling and cementing spaces between arsenides and sulfarsenides (Fig. 5A, C, E, F, I).

#### 2.6.1.4 Main vein period, stage 4 - Base metal sulfide and native Bi

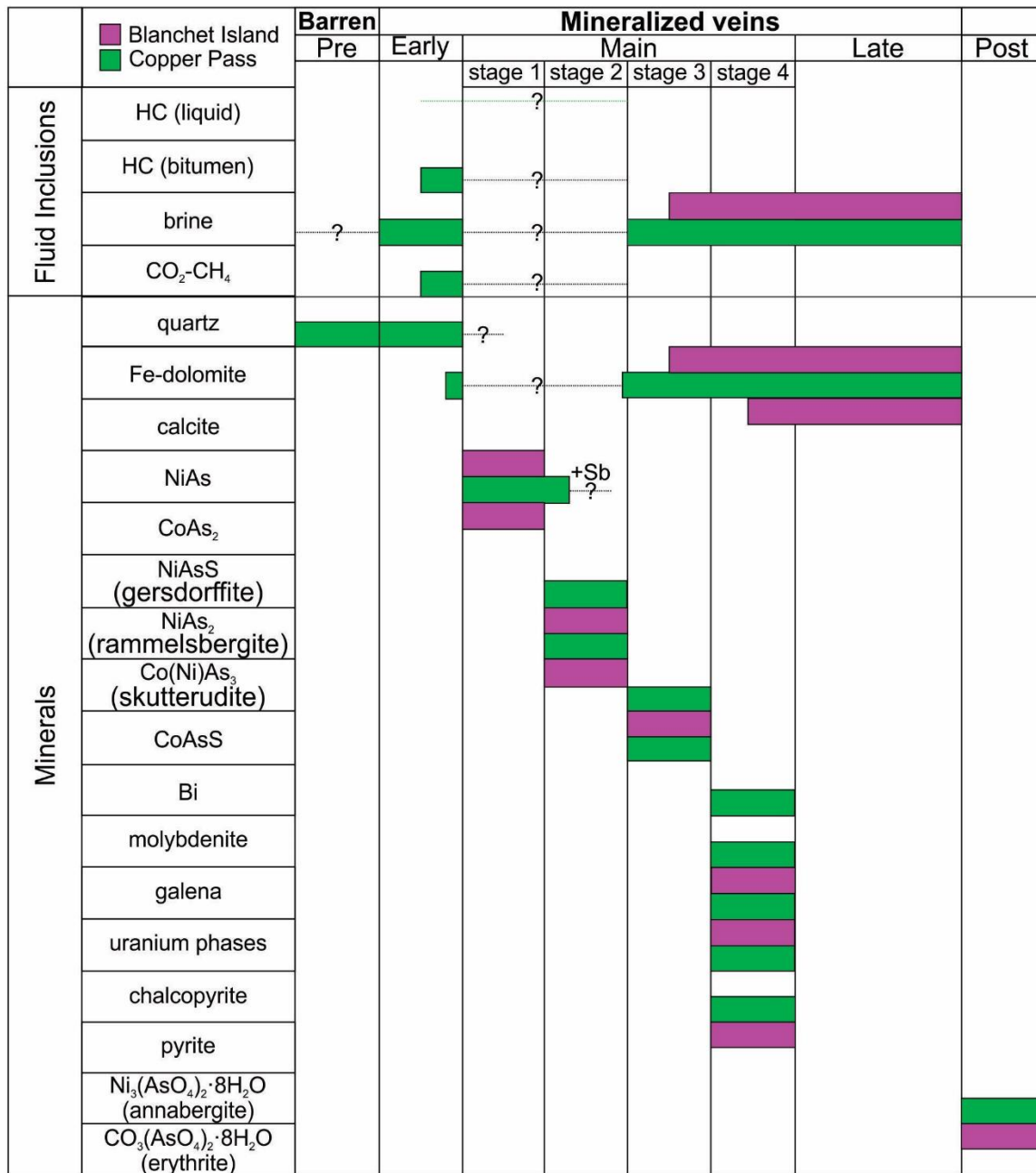
Following the formation of sulfarsenides, base metal sulfides and trace native metal (Bi) grow in the veins in the final stage of mineralization. Brecciated arsenides and sulfarsenides from stages 1-3 are crosscut by pyrite veinlets and fracture infill (Fig. 5D). Native Bi precipitates along with trace sulfide minerals chalcopyrite, galena, and molybdenite and uraninite. These minerals occur as inclusions and fracture infillings in arsenides and sulfarsenides (Fig. 6 C,D,H). Bismuth and molybdenite is found associated with nickeline and gersdorffite, while uraninite and galena are



strictly associated with nickeline (Fig. 6I-K) and skutterudite (Fig. 5I-J, Fig. 6L). Carbonates continue to coprecipitate with base metal sulfides and native Bi.

#### 2.6.1.5 Late vein period

The final stage of the mineralized vein stage consists of the precipitation of more hydrothermal carbonate (ferroan-dolomite and calcite at Blanchet Island, and ferroan dolomite at Copper Pass). Remaining porosity in the arsenide-sulfarsenide veins is filled in with carbonates, and secondary carbonate veins (i.e., at Copper Pass; Fig. 3) form along earlier vein margins delaminating older wall rock contacts.



**Figure 20 – Paragenetic sequence polymetallic Ni-Co-Bi-Ag-Sb-As-U veins including fluid inclusion and ore mineralogy of cobalt-dominated veins at Blanchet Island (pink) and nickel-dominated veins at Copper Pass (green) polymetallic veins. Dashed lines suggest implied phases (lacking physical record for specific vein stage) based on petrographic evidence. Solid bars indicated that phases were observed in various petrographic stages.**

### 2.6.2 Comparison of FMA mineralization in the East Arm basin and Southern Slave province

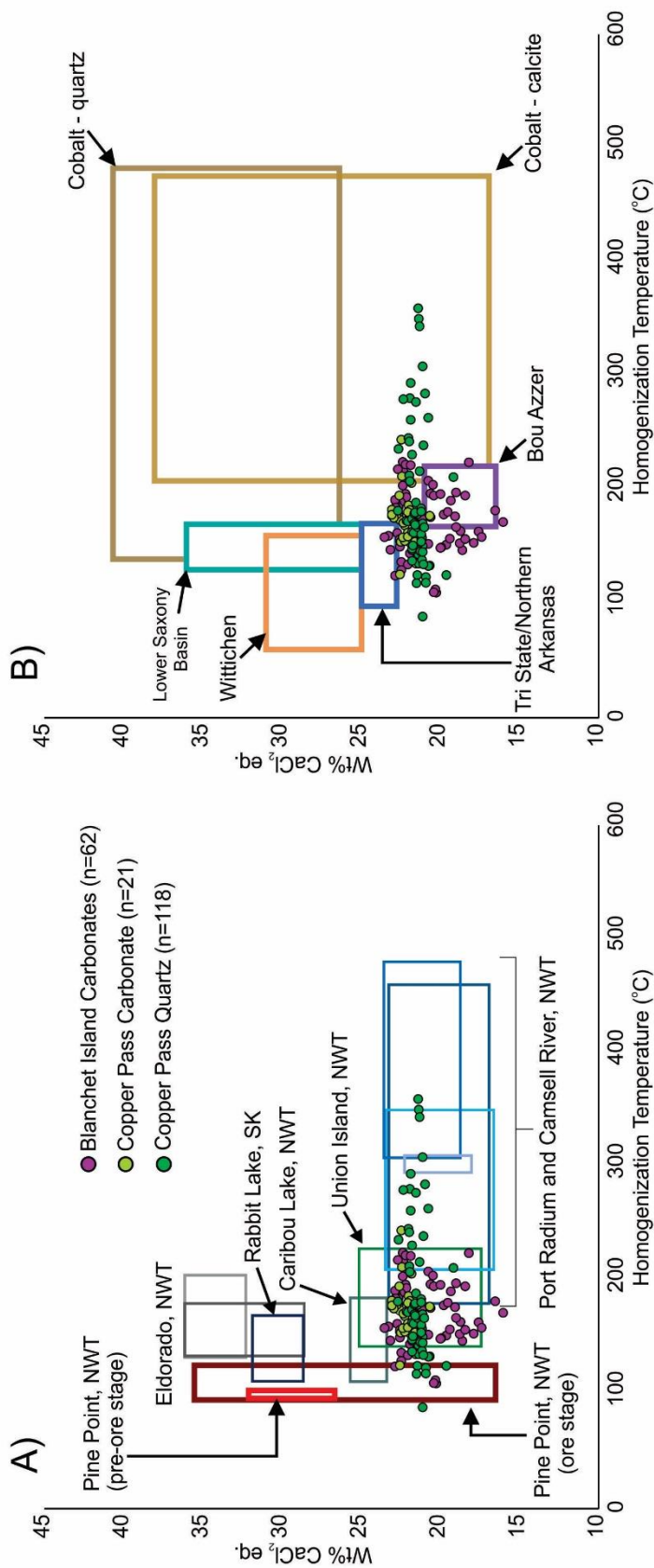
As noted by Badham (1975) the chemistry and mineralogy of FMA veins can be extremely variable, and so the documentation of similarities between different deposits suggests kinship. Although separated by nearly 100 km, and hosted in very different host rocks, Blanchet Island, Copper Pass (and other showings in the East Arm basin) are remarkably similar with respect to ore and gangue mineralogy, paragenetic sequence, metal tenors enrichments and depletions (e.g., absence of significant U and Ag), fluid characteristics (bulk salinity/ $T_h$ ), stable O-C, and radiogenic Sr isotope characteristics. The similarities in paragenesis and metal enrichments have already been described above in some detail. In particular, mineralizing fluids in each deposit were very similar with respect to their  $T_h$  and salinity characteristics. Figure 21A summarizes fluid inclusion salinity- $T_h$  for all *Type 1* inclusions at Copper Pass and Blanchet Island showing close overlap. The majority of data for both deposits ranges from ~20-23 wt%  $\text{CaCl}_2$  equiv. and ~100-220°C. This range does not include anomalously high  $T_h$  excursion at Copper Pass resulting from post-entrapment modifications of few inclusions, and an excursion to lower salinity by some inclusion FIA at Blanchett Island (unexplained).

Volatile species including  $\text{CH}_4$ - $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2$  are present in fluid inclusions from both localities (Figs. 14, 15) and while more complex hydrocarbons (e.g., oil, bitumen) were not observed in inclusions from Blanchet Island, an unusual trace, zoned uranium phase within carbonate containing enrichments in Ni, Co, and As was observed (Fig. 5K, L) and are remarkably similar to the metalliferous *Type 5* bitumen inclusions in growth zones within early quartz at Copper Pass. Figure 22 summarizes stable O and C, and radiogenic Sr isotope data for carbonates at Blanchet Island, Copper Pass, and FMA veins in the Caribou Lake Gabbro, illustrating consistency in these parameters between the two occurrences.

Differences in the mineralogy of FMA veins at Copper Pass and Blanchet Island include: (i) some variations in paragenesis (i.e., absence of some minerals, or differences in the timeline of occurrence for specific minerals); (ii) the domination of Ni phases at Copper Pass (mainly nickeline) vs. Co phases at Blanchet Island (mainly safflorite); (iii) the presence of early quartz at Copper Pass, and calcite at Blanchet Island; (iv) the absence of a base metal stage at Copper Pass (e.g., no pyrite); (v) accessory minerals: a greater abundance of late stage uraninite, and the presence of native bismuth and molybdenite, at Copper Pass, and the presence of an unidentified, late stage uranium phase with a polymetallic composition (U-Ni-As-Si-Fe-V-Ti) (similar to *Type 5* inclusions) at Blanchet Island. The Blanchet Island and Copper Pass deposits also differ in their host rock compositions. At Blanchet Island, veins are hosted in sedimentary carbonate rocks of the Pethei group (Utising Formation), where Copper Pass veins are hosted in metavolcanics and metasediments of the Yellowknife Supergroup, and older intrusive (aplite) rocks of Archean age.

Figure 21 summarizes fluid inclusion data for FMA veins in the Caribou Lake gabbro (LeBlanc et al., 2014) and carbonate-pyrobitumen veins cross-cutting the Union Island bituminous shale occurring east of Blanchett Island (Figure 1; fluid inclusion data from P. Ramlochund, communication, 2018). Brine inclusions from FMA veins in the Caribou Lake gabbro yielded a similar range in  $T_h$  as at Copper Pass and Blanchett Island, from 112° to 185.5°C, but with bulk salinities slightly higher, ranging from 23.4 to 25.7 wt% CaCl<sub>2</sub> equiv. Union Island brines (in carbonate) share similar  $T_h$  and salinities (though a wider range) with Blanchett Island and Copper Pass, ranging from 139.4 to 228.6 °C and from 14 - 25.1 wt. % CaCl<sub>2</sub> equiv. While only base metal sulfides are present in veins in the Union Island shale, it is proposed that based on fluid inclusion microthermometry and proximity to the other FMA veins that the fluids are related to the FMA veins.

The remarkable similarities between 3 (possibly 4) East Arm basin FMA localities suggests that these mineralized zones formed in small enclaves as parts of a much larger (FMA vein systems occur over a minimum of a ~20 x 50 km area), relatively thermally and compositionally homogeneous hydrothermal system. Furthermore, critical to any argument concerning the source of metals for FMA veins is the observation that despite different host rocks, local variability in host rocks appears to not have had a significant impact on vein characteristics at each locality, reinforcing the idea of a common and distal fluid and metal source.



**Figure 21 - Comparison of Th-salinity data for brine inclusions at the Blanchet Island and Copper Pass vein systems with other relevant regional and global polymetallic FMA vein systems. A)** Comparative fields from FMA vein deposits in the study area and those occurring regionally including the Port Radium and Camsell River districts (including the Eldorado Mine; Chankakoti et al., 1986b), Eldorado mine (C. Trottier, unpublished M.Sc. thesis, 2018), and within the Caribou Lake Gabbro in the Southern Slave Province, north of Blanchet Island (LeBlanc et al., 2014). Also shown are data for quartz-carbonate-pyrobritumen-sulfide veins hosted in the Union Island shale (P. Ramlochund, communication, 2018) and data for the Pine Point MVT deposit (Hannigan 2007). **B)** Comparative fields from FMA veins in the study area, and for FMA and relevant sediment-hosted deposits found globally including Bou Azzer (En Naciri et al., 1997), Cobalt (Kerrich et al., 1985), Lower Saxony Basin, Germany (Luders et al., 2012), Tristate/Northern Arkansas MVT deposits (Stoffell et al., 2008) and Wittichen Ag-Bi-Co-Ni-U deposit (Staude et al., 2012) are plotted.

### 2.6.3 Comparison to other relevant regional and global deposit examples

#### 2.6.3.1 Regionally

Located in the northwest region of the Northwest Territories at Great Bear Lake, high grade FMA vein deposits containing major Ag and U are found in the historic Camsell River and Port Echo Bay (including Port Radium) regions of the Great Bear Magmatic Zone. Importantly, unlike the East Arm basin FMA veins, the multitude of deposits in the Great Bear Lake region are consistently very enriched in Ag (and in one example, at the Eldorado deposit, very high U; Gandhi et al., 2018 and references therein) and showing a more extensive established vein paragenesis including productive U, Ag and base metal (Cu-Pb-Zn) stages. Fluid inclusion studies in these deposits are limited. Changkakoti et al. (1986b) provided the most extensive data set, constraining a wide range in  $T_h$  for early vein stages between ~180 to 480°C, with a narrower range in salinities from ~17 to 24 wt. %  $\text{CaCl}_2$  equiv. (Fig. 21A). Unpublished data (C. Trottier, communication, 2018) indicates that both the  $T_h$  and salinity data reported by Changkakoti is erroneous, owing to failure to recognize post-entrapment modification (leading to  $T_h$  values that are too high) and the presence of hydrohalite during microthermometric investigations (leading to salinity values that are too low). Figure 21A shows the revised ranges in data for the Eldorado deposit (C. Trottier, unpublished data), overlapping in  $T_h$  with the East Arm basin FMA deposits, but with much higher salinities between 28 and 36 wt%  $\text{CaCl}_2$  equiv.

Other potentially relevant data for comparison to the East Arm basin FMA veins summarized in Figure 21A include data for the Pine Point Mississippi Valley-Type (MVT) deposit, NWT ( $T_h$  = ~100° to 130°C, salinity ~16 to 35 wt%  $\text{CaCl}_2$  equiv.; Hannigan, 2007), and for brines within syn-U quartz-carbonate-hematite veins ( $T_h$  = ~100° to 160°C, salinity ~28 to 32 wt%  $\text{CaCl}_2$  equiv

from the Rabbit Lake U deposit, Athabasca basin, Saskatchewan (G. Hodge, communication, 2018).

Stable O and C isotope data from the Echo Bay area deposits (Robinson and Ohmoto, 1973) for carbonates coeval with, and postdating, arsenide mineralization (Fig. 22) shows overlap between the postdating carbonate and similar late carbonate at Copper Pass and Blanchet Island.

#### 2.6.3.2 Globally

Other world-class Canadian high-grade FMA vein deposits are located in the historic Cobalt-Gowganda district, Ontario. Unlike East Arm deposits, these are high-grade Ag deposits, associated with Ni-Co sulfarsenides. Fluid inclusions present in gangue minerals consist of 3-phase (liquid-vapour-halite) and 2-phase (liquid-vapour) inclusions with  $T_h$  values varying widely from 139.3 to 482.5 °C, and bulk salinities also varying widely from 16.9 to 42.1 wt. % CaCl<sub>2</sub> equiv. (Kerrick et al., 1985; Marshall and Watkinson, 2000 and authors therein; Fig. 21), extending to much high T and salinity than observed in the East Arm FMA veins. Raman spectroscopy (Marshall and Watkinson, 2000) did not identify volatile species (CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S, CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, and higher order hydrocarbons) associated with fluid inclusions in the East Arm FMA deposits. However, like the late carbonates in the deposits of the Great Bear Lake region, O and C isotope values for late carbonates in the Cobalt-Gowganda camp also overlap with those from the East Arm basin deposits.

Other relevant fluid inclusion  $T_h$ -salinity data sets for FMA-style deposits globally are summarized in Fig. 21, as well as MVT deposits (Bou Azzer: En Naciri et al., 1997; Lower Saxony



Basin, Germany: Luders et al., 2012; Tristate/Northern Arkansas MVT deposits: Stoffell et al., 2008; Wittichen Ag-Bi-Co-Ni-U deposit: Staude et al., 2012). Fluid inclusion microthermometry from the Odenwald FMA deposits, SW Germany (Burisch et al., 2016) yielded very similar ranges in  $T_h$  and salinity compared to the East Arm basin FMA veins. Furthermore, they reported similar volatile species in fluid inclusions.

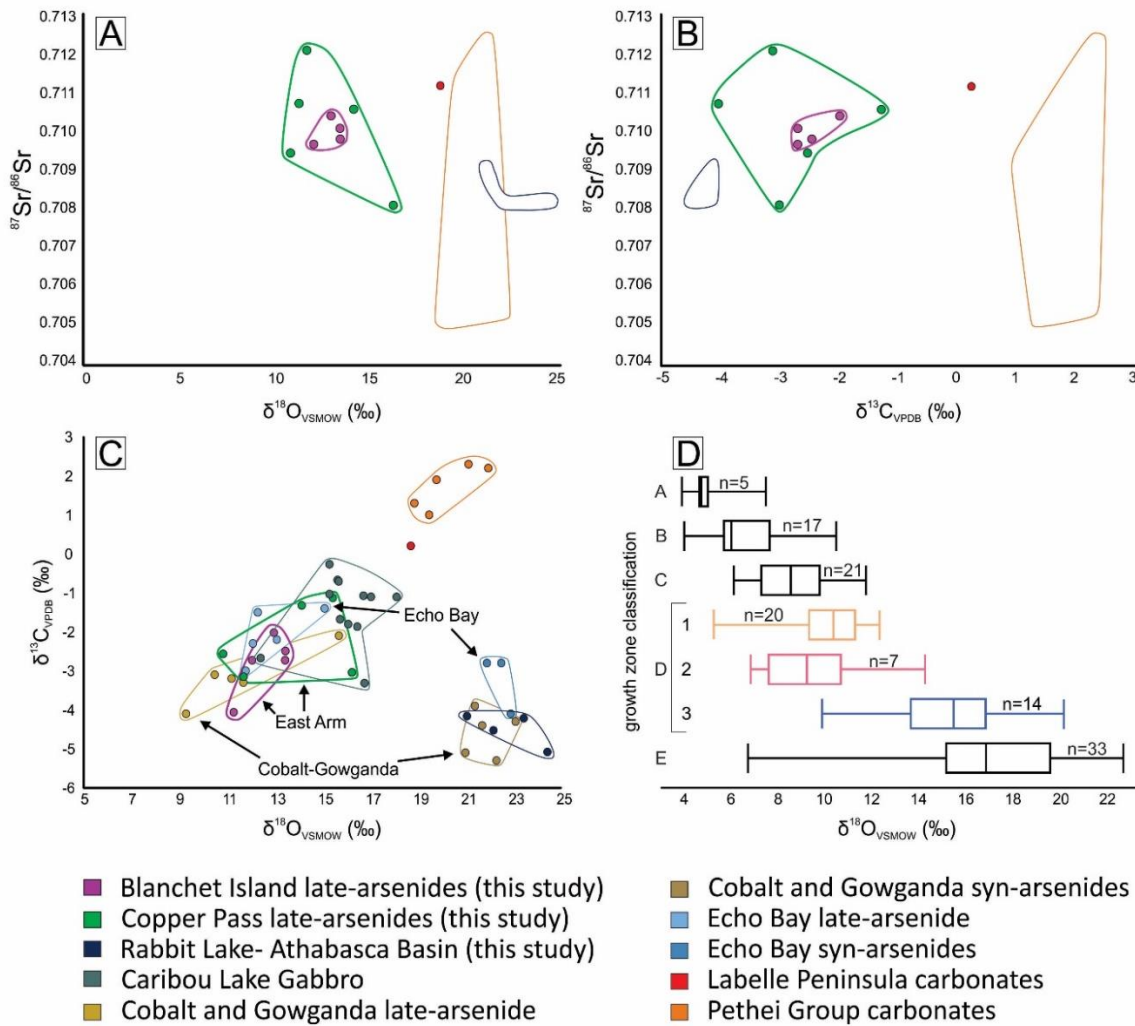
#### 2.6.4 Constraints on fluid and ore metal sources

##### 2.6.4.1 Fluid sources

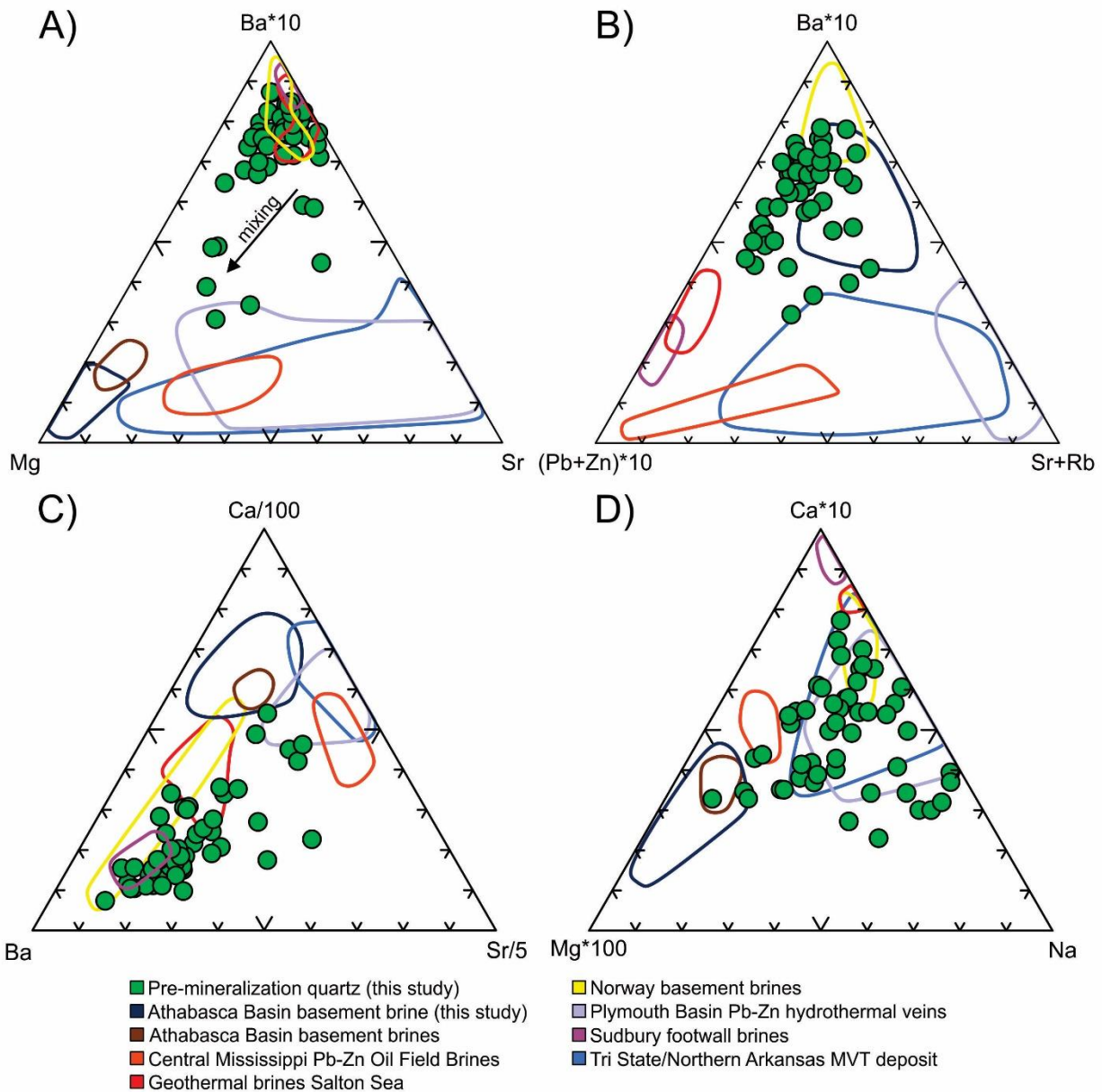
Fluid characteristics in the East Arm basin FMA veins were determined through microthermometry and LA-ICPMS analysis of *Type 1* inclusions and can be used to constrain the origin of the brines. The brines are highly saline (~18-24 wt%  $\text{CaCl}_2$  equiv.), ore metal-poor, and contain minor abundances of multiple salt cations (K, Ba, Sr, Mg, Pb, Zn) in addition to the dominant Na and Ca (Table 5, Fig. 18). Fluid inclusion compositions analyzed by LA-ICP-MS were plotted on a range of devised ternary plots with the goal of comparing FMA fluids at Copper Pass with other relevant fluid reservoirs (Fig. 23) including crystalline basement brines (Munz et al., 1995; Hanley et al., 2005), sedimentary basin brines (including oil-field and MVT-type fluids: Carpenter et al., 1974; Stoffell et al., 2004), and brines from U deposits in the the Athabasca Basin (Richard et al., 2010; J. Hanley, communication, 2018), and geothermal fluids in the Salton Sea basin (Williams and McKibben 1989), produced by active metamorphism of sediments. The Ba\*10-Sr-Mg ternary (Fig. 23A) demonstrates that Copper Pass brines share characteristics of Ba enrichment noted in crystalline basement brines from Norway and Sudbury, as well as geothermal brines from the Salton Sea. Barium (in addition to Sr and Ca) will be extracted from feldspars during fluid-rock interaction in basement rocks and or through the introduction of a basement-derived fluid formed by long-term water-rock interaction in crystalline rocks (Frape et al., 1984),

but is not typically enriched in basinal fluids (Richard et al., 2010). In Figure 23A, *Type 1* brine inclusion analyses lie near the Ba apex but appear to trend outward towards the Mg apex, with several analyzed inclusions showing significant Mg enrichment (up to  $10^3$  ppm; Table 5). Notably, fluids from the Athabasca Basin basement hydrothermal system at various U deposits lie near the Mg apex as do some MVT fluids, with Mg originating from evaporated seawater in those environments. The Ba\*10-(Sr+Rb)-(Pb+Zn\*10) ternary (Fig. 23B) demonstrates that Copper Pass brines lie close to, or overlap with, Athabasca Basin basement brines as well as Norway basement brines. The Ca/100-Sr/5-Ba and Ca\*10-Na-Mg\*100 ternary diagrams (Fig. 23C-D) show a similar result to the other diagrams: compositional range spanning between the fields for basinal brines and basement brines.

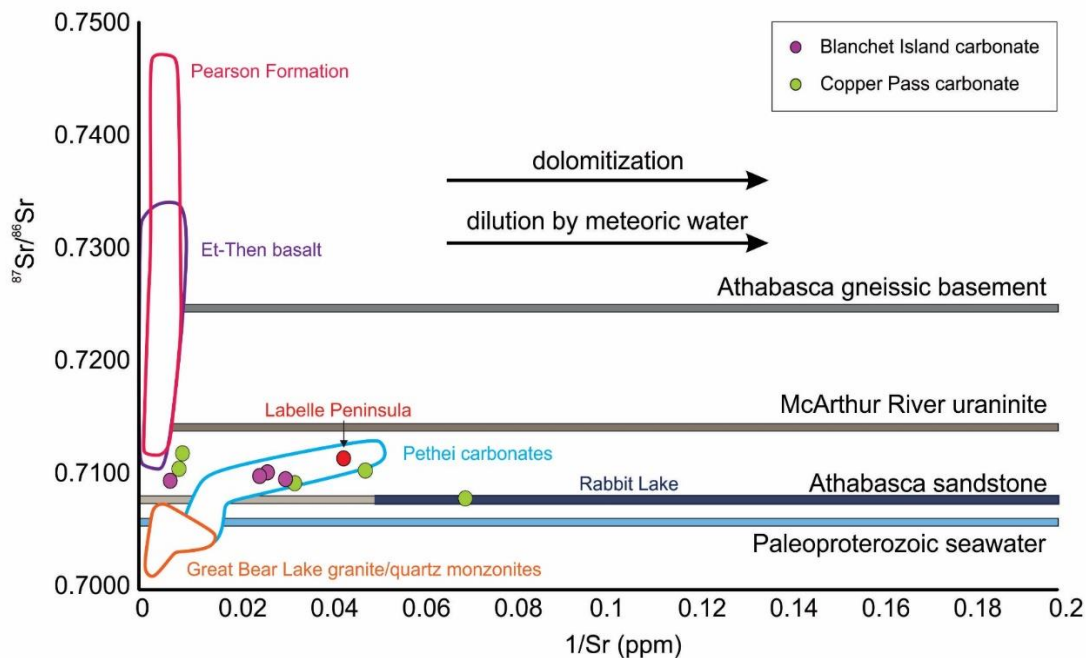
Stable O-C and radiogenic Sr isotope data for gangue minerals at Copper Pass are in support of a basinal fluid component present in the FMA hydrothermal system at the time of mineralization. For example, mineralizing fluids at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass (using the  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_0$  composition of hydrothermal carbonates as a proxy; Fig. 24) show a narrow range in Sr isotope composition and are only slightly more radiogenic than Paleoproterozoic seawater (est. at ~1.6 Ga; Veizer et al., 1989) and Athabasca sandstone (Pagel et al., 1993) but are much less radiogenic than would be expected if fluids derived Sr from interaction with metavolcanics in the study area (Fig. 24). Furthermore, while interaction of fluids with the Pethei carbonate host rock at Blanchet Island may be appealing to explain the isotope systematics observed, O, C, and Sr isotope data for the Pethei formation (Fig. 22) are distinct from the vein carbonates in the FMA deposits.



**Figure 22 - Comparative isotope (Sr, O and C) diagram of East Arm deposits and Canadian polymetallic deposits from carbonate gangue. A)**  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  vs  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}}$  (‰). **B)**  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  vs  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{VPDB}}$  (‰) **C)**  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{VPDB}}$  (‰) vs  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}}$  (‰). Polymetallic deposits and relative carbonate stages consist of Caribou Lake Gabbro (Leblanc 2014), Cobalt and Gowganda (Marshall et al., 1985) Deposits, Echo Bay (Robinson and Ohmoto 1973), Labelle Peninsula carbonates (this study), Pethei group carbonates (Whittaker et al., 1998). **D)** Box-whisker plot showing oxygen isotope compositional ranges (min, Q1, median, Q3, max) for growth zones in early euhedral quartz along margins of mineralized vein from Copper Pass, determined using secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) targeted at zones identified through hot-cathode CL imaging. The number of analyses obtained for each zone classification is listed. Note the marked increase in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  from core through to rim, in particular in the transition from zone D2 to D3. Colours of box-whisker symbols for zones D1-D3 correspond to colour of key transitional zones shown in Figure 10 and do not correspond to the caption colours in the legend below this figure.



**Figure 23 - Ternary plots of A) Ba\*10-Mg-Sr; B) Ba\*10-(Pb+Zn)\*10-(Sr+Rb); C) Ba-Ca/100-Sr/5; and D) Mg\*100-Ca\*10-Na for Type 1 fluid inclusion major and minor element compositions comparing relevant fluid reservoirs to FMA vein fluids. Sedimentary deposits consist of the Plymouth Basin Pb-Zn hydrothermal veins (Stoffell et al 2004), Tri State/Northern Arkansas MVT deposit (Stoffell et al., 2008), Central Mississippi Pb-Zn oil field brines (Carpenter et al 1974), Salton Sea geothermal brines (Williams and McKibben, 1989), Norway basement brines (Munz et al., 1995), Athabasca Basin brines (Richard et al., 2010) and Sudbury footwall brines (Hanley et al., 2009).**



**Figure 24 – Plot of  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_{(o)}$  vs.  $1/\text{Sr}$  comparing East Arm basin FMA vein carbonates to relevant rock units of the East Arm basin and Great Bear Magmatic zone, NWT as well as basement, uraninite, carbonate and sandstone compositions from the Athabasca Basin. Rock units illustrated include Et-Then Formation basalts (Gandhi and Loveridge 1982), Great Bear Lake granite/quartz monzonites (Ootes et al., 2017), Labelle Peninsula carbonate (this study), Pearson Formation basalts (Goff et al., 1981), and Pethei group carbonates (Whittaker et al., 1998). Sedimentary basin analogues include Athabasca gneissic basement and Athabasca sandstones (Pagel et al., 1993), McArthur River uraninite (Fayek and Kyser 1997), and Paleoproterozoic seawater (Veizer et al., 1989). Data for carbonates from Rabbit Lake (Athabasca Basin) are reported in Table 8.**

#### 2.6.4.2 Metal sources

The results of LA-ICPMS analyses show that *Type 1* inclusions have low ppm-range concentrations of metals present in FMA veins at Copper Pass (e.g., Co, Ni, Ag, Bi, Mo, U) and  $\sim 10^2$  ppm As. Bitumen grains are the proposed metal carrier for polymetallic veins owing to their high concentrations of metals relative to brines. Studies of bitumen composition (Parnell, 1988; Hurlbert, 1996; Alexandre and Kyser 2006; Johnson et al., 2017 and others therein) have demonstrated that bitumens are known to metal loads, including Co, Ni, Ag, Pb, Fe, Zn, and U. Parnell (1988) highlights that such metals occur as an intrinsic component of bitumens that are either (i) inherited from the hydrocarbon source rock as organometallic complexes (Poplavko et al., 1978; organophilic elements include elements such as V, Ni, Mo, and Se); (ii) scavenged by migrating hydrocarbon-bearing fluids, or (iii) deposited in the bitumens at the site of mixing of a metal-bearing and hydrocarbon-bearing fluids (Roberts, 1980). Additionally, as highlighted by Saxby (1976), there are five potential modes of interactions between dissolved metals and organic bitumens (bitumen and source rocks) that would result in the mobilization, or immobilization of ore metals including: (i) chemisorption of metals into organic materials, (ii) physical adsorption of metals onto organic materials, (iii) precipitation of organometallic compounds by reaction of metals with organic ligands, (iv) the change in oxidation state, resulting in reduction of metals by organic materials and consequent mineral precipitation, and (v) mobilization of metals by the formation of organometallic complexes and subsequent deposition of ore minerals after destabilization. Changkakoti and Morton (1987) proposed that Precambrian biota could play an important role in silver-bearing FMA vein associations, stating that potential source rocks include carbonaceous sedimentary rocks such as black shales, coals, and crude oil-bearing strata. Their “black shale metal association” (V, Cr, Mn, Co, Ni, Cu, Fe, Mo, Ag, Pb, U, Se, S, and As) is very

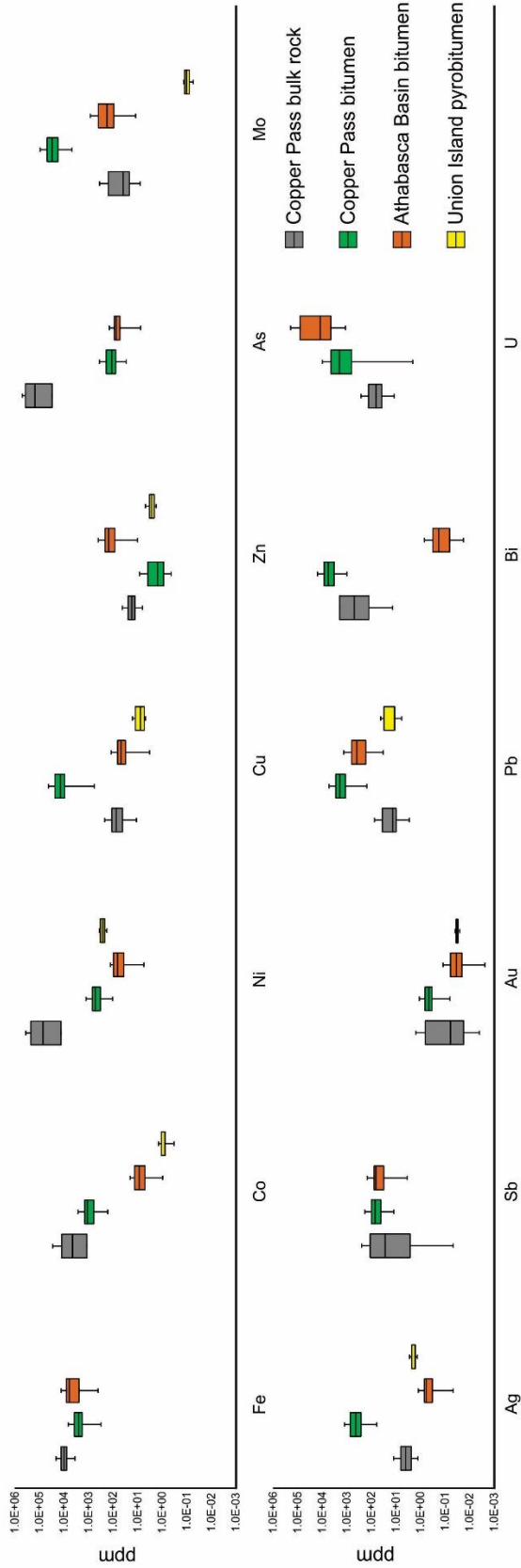
similar to enrichments seen in the *Type 5* inclusions and unidentified uranium carriers at Blanchet Island. Changkakoti and Morton (1987) further illustrate that organic fractions in sediments are responsible for the generation of polymetallic associations and could be the source for metals concentrated in FMA veins in the Great Bear Lake region. However, no direct comparison has been made thus far between the metal tenors of black shales and the actual ores. Hahn et al. (2013) illustrates the correlation of Late Paleoproterozoic basins of northern Canada, including the Thelon, Athabasca, and Hornby Bay basins. These basins contain organic mudstones (some of which are oil-bearing) which provide a possible source rock analogue for organic shale-associated FMA metals and hydrocarbons (oil, bitumen).

Metal enrichments in bitumen inclusions at Copper Pass provide insight into the relationship between East Arm FMA deposits and the possible source of hydrocarbons in the overlying units of basinal sediments (Athabasca, Hornby Bay and Thelon basins analogous). Due to the lack of bitumen geochemical analyses for analogues from Hornby Bay and Thelon basins, bitumen from the Athabasca Basin was used for comparison (Table 6, Fig. 25). Bulk rock geochemistry of Copper Pass shares many similarities with bitumen from Copper Pass, with comparable concentrations in Fe, Co, Sb, Au, and Bi. Elements enriched in bitumen are Cu, Mo, U, Ag, and Pb. Note that Pb values found in bitumen may be elevated partly as a product of radioactive decay of U. Metals Cu and Mo are enriched in bitumen compared to bulk rock chemistry. The reasons for this are unknown, but it may be related to the S-deficient nature of the ore forming system, preventing precipitation of these metals as sulfide as bitumens became oxidized, except for in trace quantities, as observed. Athabasca Basin bitumen share enrichments in Ni, As, Sb, Pb, and U with Copper Pass and highlighting the potential genetic relationship between the two. Shales of the Union Island group, another possible source unit for metals can be ruled out as remobilized

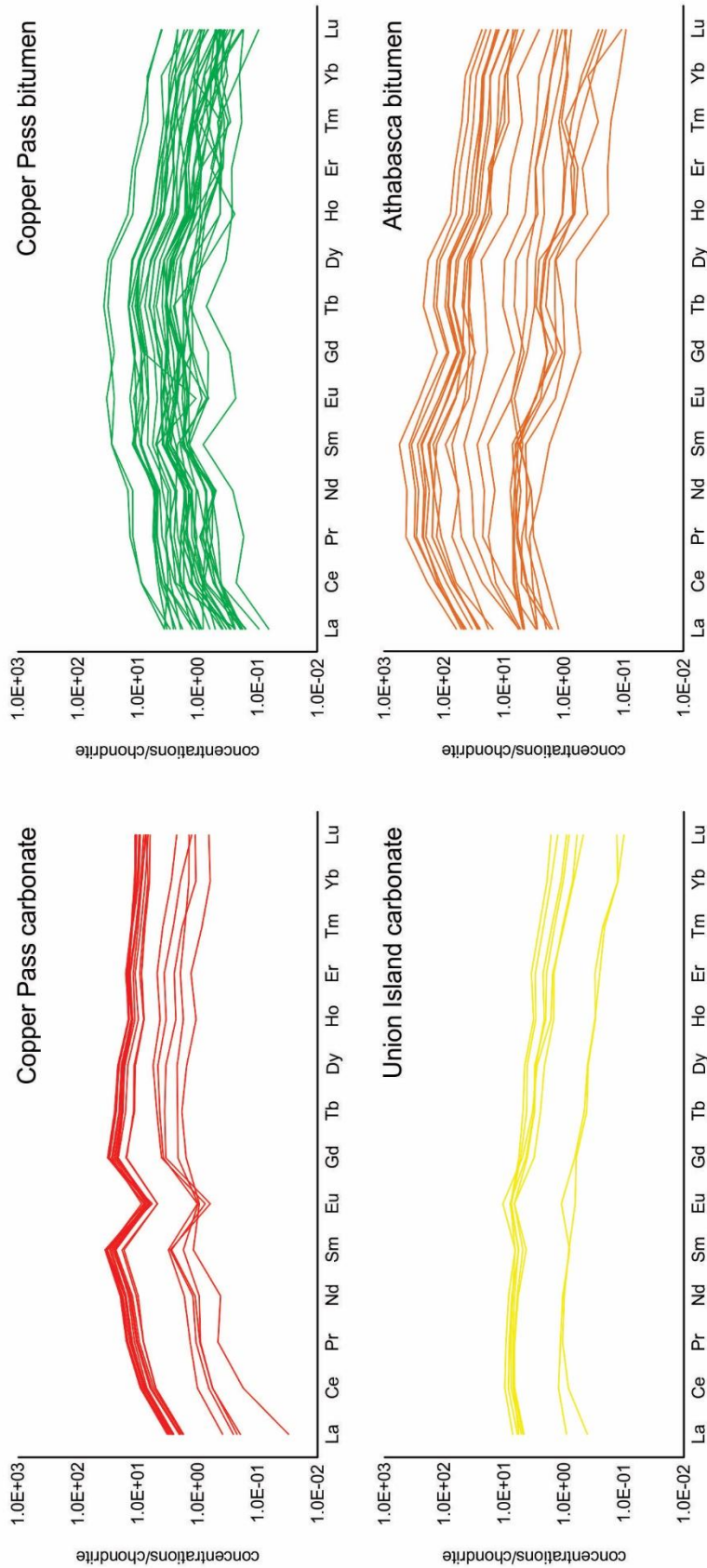
bitumen from those rocks are enriched in Ni, but contain very low concentrations of other FMA metals (Co, As, Sb, Bi, U; Table 6, Fig 25) due to their insufficient concentrations of FMA metals Co, As, Sb, Bi, and U.

The rare-earth element (REE) patterns for carbonates and bitumen from Copper Pass, Union Island and the Athabasca Basin are summarized in Tables 6 and 7 and plotted in Figure 26. Analysis of REE patterns are key for a definition of meaningful genetic model (Mercadier et al., 2011). Bitumens and carbonates of Copper Pass share REE patterns with Athabasca Basin bitumen characterized by a bell-shaped LREE << MREE > HREE pattern, similar to uraninites of the Athabasca unconformity-related U deposits noted by Mercadier et al. (2011) and Ghandi et al. (2018). Comparing carbonate of Union Island shales with Copper Pass carbonate demonstrates similar characteristics with less inflection and vertical extent in LREE and contains a positive Eu anomaly. As a potential source rock, carbonate REE and bitumen metal chemistry demonstrates that the Union Island group shales are not a potential source rock for FMA deposits in the East Arm. Copper Pass carbonates also share REE patterns similar to bitumen, suggesting carbonate precipitation occurred following the breakdown of bitumens.





**Figure 25 – Box-whisker plot summarizing FMA ore metal contents and bulk mineralization.** Data for bulk mineralized veins at Copper Pass are from Table 1 (this study). Data for *Type 5* (bitumen) inclusions from Copper Pass (analyzed in this study), bitumen from the Athabasca Basin (analyzed in this study; samples from P. Alexandre, communication, 2016) and pyrobitumen from hydrothermal veins in the Union Island shale (analyzed in this study; samples from H. Falck, communication, 2016) are listed in Table 6. Elements not reported for Union Island locality (Fe, As, Sb, Bi, U) were below detection limits (see Table 6 for detection limits).



**Figure 26— Normative abundance diagrams (unnormalized) comparing rare earth elements (REEs) of bitumen and carbonate gangue of Copper Pass with Union Island carbonate (this study) and Athabasca Basin bitumen (Alexandre and Kyser 2006).**

### 2.6.5 Estimates of P-T conditions for FMA vein formation

There are numerous lines of evidence providing qualitative and semi-quantitative constraints on the P and T conditions of vein formation at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass. First, classic open-space filling mineral growth textures (comb-textured quartz with carbonate infilling; colliform and crustiform, botryoidal, and radiating masses of zoned arsenide-sulfarsenide minerals with carbonate infilling) within veins and breccias are characteristic of FMA veins globally as well as other deposit styles (e.g., MVT) and are associated with very shallow crustal conditions, confirmed independently for FMA vein systems by fluid inclusion studies (e.g., < 700 m paleodepth at Cobalt-Gowganda; Marshall et al., 1993).

Second, the presence of coeval bitumen and liquid hydrocarbons in some primary and secondary FIA in the veins at Copper Pass restricts vein deposition to low T. *Type 1* inclusion FIA showed  $T_h$  values between ~120-250°C with few outliers above and below this range (Fig. 13; Table 4). This would imply not only that brine FIA heterogeneously trapped coevally with hydrocarbons were trapped not far above their homogenization temperatures (and therefore not far above  $P_h$ ) but that any interaction between brine and hydrocarbons that took place in the East Arm basin at the time of FMA vein formation took place very close to the maximum thermal stability of oils/bitumens and methane (~180°C and ~230°C; Price, 1993; Dieckmann et al. 2002). Furthermore, in the absence of any significant P fluctuations during vein formation, the relatively consistent  $T_h$  values during different stages of vein formation (early quartz → vein infilling carbonate) indicates invariant fluid T. This is an important observation as it is inconsistent with the findings of Changkakoti et al. (1986b) who interpreted very high temperatures (up to ~450-500°C) from microthermometric results for early stages of FMA vein formation in the Great Bear

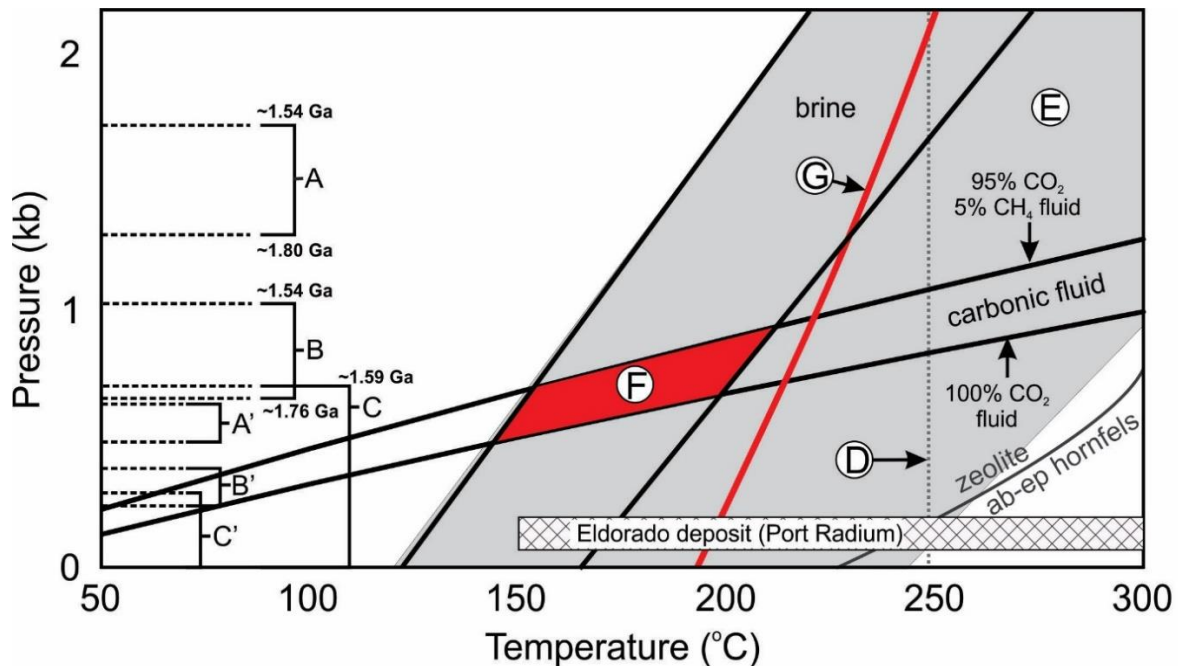
Lake deposits (cf. Kissin, 1992), but consistent with modelling assumptions of Robinson and Ohmoto (1973).

Coeval carbonic (*Type 3*) and aqueous (*Type 1*) fluid inclusions in sample SL-M-1-2 from Copper Pass provides an opportunity to more accurately constrain the P-T conditions of vein formation using the method of intersecting isochores (Roedder and Bodnar, 1980; Mullis, 1987) as these inclusions satisfy several criteria: (i) FIA of each end-member most commonly occur in separate secondary inclusion trails that transect one another (Fig. 9A-C) but with unambiguous evidence of periodic heterogeneous entrapment (Fig. 9D); (ii) each end-member (carbonic and aqueous) did not arise from unmixing of a previously homogeneous single fluid phase, rather they correspond to the mixing of fluids from differing external sources; (iii) the inclusion types have measureable properties allow determination of their respective end-member isochores.

Consistent with microthermometric determination of  $T_m^{\text{carbonic}}$ , Raman spectroscopy analysis showed that *Type 3* inclusions in the measured assemblages (Table 4) contain a maximum  $X_{\text{CH}_4}=0.05$  with the majority of the carbonic phase as  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $X_{\text{CO}_2} > 0.95$ ) content in carbonic inclusions, with the majority of inclusions containing ~pure  $\text{CO}_2$ . The absolute range of resulting isochores for *Type 1* and *Type 2* inclusion FIA are shown in Figure 25 (red field 'F') constraints an entrapment window between ~145 and 225 °C and 0.5 to 0.95 kbar, representing the most accurate P-T constraint for vein formation that can be provided with available data in this study. This P-T range lies in the lower T portion of the isochore field for quartz-hosted fluid inclusions at Copper Pass (field 'E' in Fig. 27; 1<sup>st</sup> to 3<sup>rd</sup> quartile range from Table 4), in agreement with the statement that brine and hydrocarbon interaction would have taken place below but close to T condition of maximum hydrocarbon stability. For comparison, also shown in Figure 27 is the maximum  $T_h$  value for fluid inclusions containing basinal brine in uraniferous sandstones of the

Athabasca basin (line 'D'; Richard et al., 2010), the maximum stability boundary for the assemblage rutile-carbonate-quartz at low  $X_{CO_2}$ , an alteration assemblage observed in the margins of FMA veins in the Caribou Lake Gabbro by LeBlanc et al. (2014), and the fluid inclusion entrapment conditions for the main FMA vein stages at Eldorado deposit (Port Radium, Great Bear Lake; Changkakoti et al., 1986b).

The PT constraints described above have important implications for FMA vein formation in the East Arm basin. First, it confirms existing literature that the systems form at relatively shallow depths (in this case < 1 kbar). Second, the systems formed at low temperature (around the HC stability window). Third, a comparison of the P estimate for Copper Pass (0.5-0.95 kbar) with estimated lithostatic and hydrostatic pressures at different times in the development of the large, early-mid Proterozoic intracratonic sedimentary basins (Fig. 27; Athabasca, Thelon, Hornby Bay) provides insight into the possible timing of FMA vein formation relative to basin development, as critical sources of brine, hydrocarbons, and ore metals.



- |  |  |
|--|--|
| Minimum basin thickness ranges:                      | Ⓓ Athabasca basement max $T_h$ of fluid inclusions   |
| A Athabasca (Martin and Athabasca Gp.)               | Ⓔ Copper Pass <i>Type 1</i> inclusions (all samples) |
| B Thelon (Baker Lake, Wharten, and Barrensland)      | Ⓕ Brine-carbonic fluid interaction (Copper Pass)     |
| C Hornby Bay (Big Bear, Mountain Lake, Dismal Lakes) | Ⓖ Rutile+carbonate+quartz max. stability             |

**Figure 27 – Graphical estimation of trapping conditions for quartz-hosted, bitumen-free *Type 1* and *Type 3* inclusion assemblages at Copper Pass (sample SL-M-2-1).** Fields and ranges identified by letters as follows: Ranges A-C are lithostatic pressure windows for minimum ranges in thickness of intracratonic basins, as analogues for those covering the study area. Pressures calculated based on stratigraphic thicknesses of the accumulating Martin and Athabasca Groups between ~1.80 and 1.54 Ga (Athabasca basin), the Baker Lake, Wharten and Barrensland Groups between ~1.76 and ~1.54 Ga (Thelon basin), and the Big Bear, Mountain Lake and Dismal Lakes Groups before ~1.59 Ga (Hornby Bay basin). Basin thickness data from R. Rainbird (communication, 2017) and Hahn et al. (2013). Ranges A'-C' are hydrostatic pressure windows for the same minimum basin thicknesses as for A-C. Line D is the maximum  $T_h$  reported for broadly syn-U brine inclusions in mineralized sandstones at the McArthur River U deposit (Athabasca basin; Richard et al., 2010). Field E is the total range in calculated isochores for *Type 1* brine inclusions at Copper Pass for all FIA. Field F is the range in *absolute* trapping conditions estimated for *Type 1* and *Type 3* secondary inclusion assemblages in quartz in sample SL-M-2-1, determined using the method of intersecting isochores. The field is defined as the intersection of maximum and minimum isochores for end-member brine FIA and carbonic FIA, ranging between ~145 and 225 °C and 0.5 to 0.95 kbar. Line 'G' the phase boundary between the assemblages rutile-quartz-carbonate and titanite (Castelli et al., 2007) for aqueous fluids with low dissolved  $CO_2$  content (*Type 1* brines), drawn from LeBlanc et al. (2014) who recognized rutile+carbonate rather than titanite in the alteration margins of FMA veins in the Caribou Lake gabbro, providing a maximum T constraint for the alteration assemblage.

Lithostatic and hydrostatic ranges in overburden P for the basins at different stages in their development were estimated using stratigraphic sections (Hahn et al., 2013; R. Rainbird, communication, 2017; lines A to C-lithostatic; lines A'-C'-hydrostatic in Fig. 27). As FMA veins at Copper Pass formed below the unconformity level (i.e., below sedimentary basin-crystalline basement interface), the P for inclusion entrapment (field 'F') reflects either the overlying mass of crystalline basement + sediment (lithostatic), or equivalent depth of fluid (hydrostatic) if the mineralizing fractures were behaving as open systems, or some intermediate scenario (i.e., lithostatic basement load + hydrostatic depth through the sediment column, or transient lithostatic-hydrostatic load coinciding to fault movement). Both P extremes of this situation can be considered. At purely lithostatic conditions (A-C; Fig. 27.), the estimated range of fluid entrapment P would only be achieved if the overlying load resulting from an unknown thickness of crystalline basement had a thin sediment column overtop, consistent with the Hornby Bay basin at an early stage in its evolution. At this time, thicker basin sequences like the Athabasca and Thelon basins would have imposed overlying lithostatic P loads that were too high to be consistent with the fluid inclusion entrapment window estimated. Alternately, if conditions were hydrostatic, or transitioning between hydrostatic and lithostatic conditions, vein formation under such conditions could have taken place at the conditions estimated at Copper Pass with a wide range in overlying basin thicknesses (A'-C'; Fig. 27.).

An accurate estimation of the thickness of sediment directly over the study areas is impossible but this exercise simply illustrates a concept that through comparison of hypothetical sediment loads in relation to estimated P of entrapment, it can be concluded that either overlying sedimentary columns were relatively thin and/or hydrostatic conditions prevailed at the time of vein formation. This lends considerable support to similar models (eg., Changkakoti et al., 1986b; Kissin, 1992;

Kreissl et al., 2018; Gandhi et al., 2018) that implicated meteoric water or seawater as an important fluid end-member during vein formation, and possibility of cyclic faulting events that would encourage a transiently open and interconnected shallow fracture network for deposit development (Markl et al., 2016; Burisch et al., 2016). The data for P conditions at Copper Pass also illustrates that deposits in the East Arm basin formed at considerably greater P than in the Great Bear Lake region (Fig. 27.), regardless of lithostatic or hydrostatic load.

#### *2.6.6 A revised model for FMA vein formation in the East Arm basin and elsewhere*

Existing models for FMA veins at Great Bear Lake are varied, with some authors favouring Aphebian magmatic intrusive and volcanic rocks as sites for ore vein localization as well as heat and metalliferous fluid sources (Badham, 1975) arguing that the FMA veins are the low temperature products of a continuum of mineralization styles deposited over a temperature gradient away from cooling intrusions, over multiple/repeated stages of structural preparation at the close of an orogenic cycle, beginning with high temperature sulfide skarns and IOCG-type deposits that are spatially related to FMA veins. Gandhi et al., (2018) have revisited the U-Pb geochronology, O isotope and REE composition of uraninite at the Eldorado deposit (Port Radium) demonstrating temporal and compositional kinship of the early uranium mineralization stage at Port Radium to basement-hosted unconformity-related U deposits in the Athabasca and Thelon intracratonic sedimentary basins, implicating the analogous Hornby Bay Basin.

Models for the formation of FMA vein deposits of the East Arm basin are limited to a single study (Badham, 1978) and their temporal and genetic relationship to larger FMA deposits in the Great Bear Lake region is unknown. On the basis of cross-cutting relations and structural relationship of this style mineralization to intrusive margins, Badham (1978) associated the veins



in the East Arm basin with the release of metals during alteration of mafic minerals in intrusive rocks of the Great Slave supergroup, and that the FMA veins may have some genetic association with later magnetite-apatite-amphibole deposits. Fluid circulation responsible for this alteration may have been related to regional heating by dioritic intrusions emplaced between 1845 and 1630 Ma (Hoffman, 1968) on the basis of cross-cutting relationships (xenoliths of Sosan group sandstone). FMA deposits located outside of the East Arm share similar deposit characteristics, however despite similarities among deposits, elements such as formation temperatures, fluid salinity, host rock and alteration styles, paragenesis, isotope compositions and bulk rock geochemistry can strongly vary between deposits (Kissin 1992; Changkakoti et al., 1986a,b,c; Staude et al., 2012; Markl et al., 2016; Burisch et al., 2016; Kreissl et al., 2018; Ghandi et al., 2018). Many authors have tried to explain the formation of these complex systems based on fluid inclusion or electrochemical arguments. Such arguments summarized by Markl et al. (2016) include iron oxidation (Ondrus et al., 2003), fluid mixing (Marshall et al., 1993), or boiling, and cooling, or a combination of factors (Kissin 1992). Many recent genetic models have been proposed regarding FMA deposits; Kissin (1998) suggests five-element veins form in environments of continuous continental rifting, where connate brines can circulate; Marshall et al. (1993) suggests a decrease of chlorine activity due to the mixture of a highly saline silver-rich fluid with meteoric water, resulting in the deposition of silver and associate arsenide/sulfarsenides. A more recent model proposed by Markl et al. (2016) supports claims of mixing by Marshall et al. (1993), suggesting that five-element veins form due to the influx of a methane and/or hydrocarbon rich fluid with a pre-existing hydrothermal system, oxidizing  $\text{CH}_4$  to  $\text{CO}_2$ , resulting in the precipitation of native metals with arsenides in a reducing environment. Burisch et al. (2017) concludes that ascending metal-rich deep-seated basement fluids were mixed closely below the

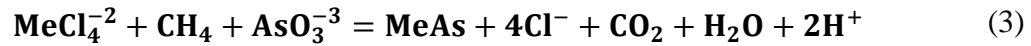
basement-cover unconformity with basinal/sedimentary fluids. These fluids contained sufficient amounts of methane, where subsequent oxidation of methane results in the precipitation of arsenides at very reducing conditions.

The criteria for the genetic model of FMA formation is based on crosscutting relationships, ore textures, alteration styles, fluid chemistry and isotopic data. Combining these comprehensive methods allows us to propose a model for FMA deposits, in which sedimentary style basement brines mix with metal-rich bitumen and oils, resulting in the abrupt reduction of the oxidized brine resulting in rapid precipitation of Ni-Co-rich arsenides. Oxidization of oils (heating), results in the breakdown into lower hydrocarbons (methane, ethane and propane), creating the necessary reducing agent to disrupt equilibrium, resulting in ore metal precipitation. As noted by Kerrich et al. (1986; Cobalt, Canada) and Burisch et al. (2016; Odenwald, SW Germany), methane and other hydrocarbons are present in fluid inclusions, and are presumed to be the reducing phase to drive metal precipitation (Markl et al., 2016).

Ore forming processes occur at far-from-equilibrium conditions, as highlighted by Markl et al. (2016), due to open space filling ore textures and weak wall rock alteration. Ore precipitation occurs when a hybrid sedimentary-basement brines (metal poor; fluid 1) mixes with a hydrocarbon (oil or bitumen) (metal rich; fluid 2) (Eq. 1).



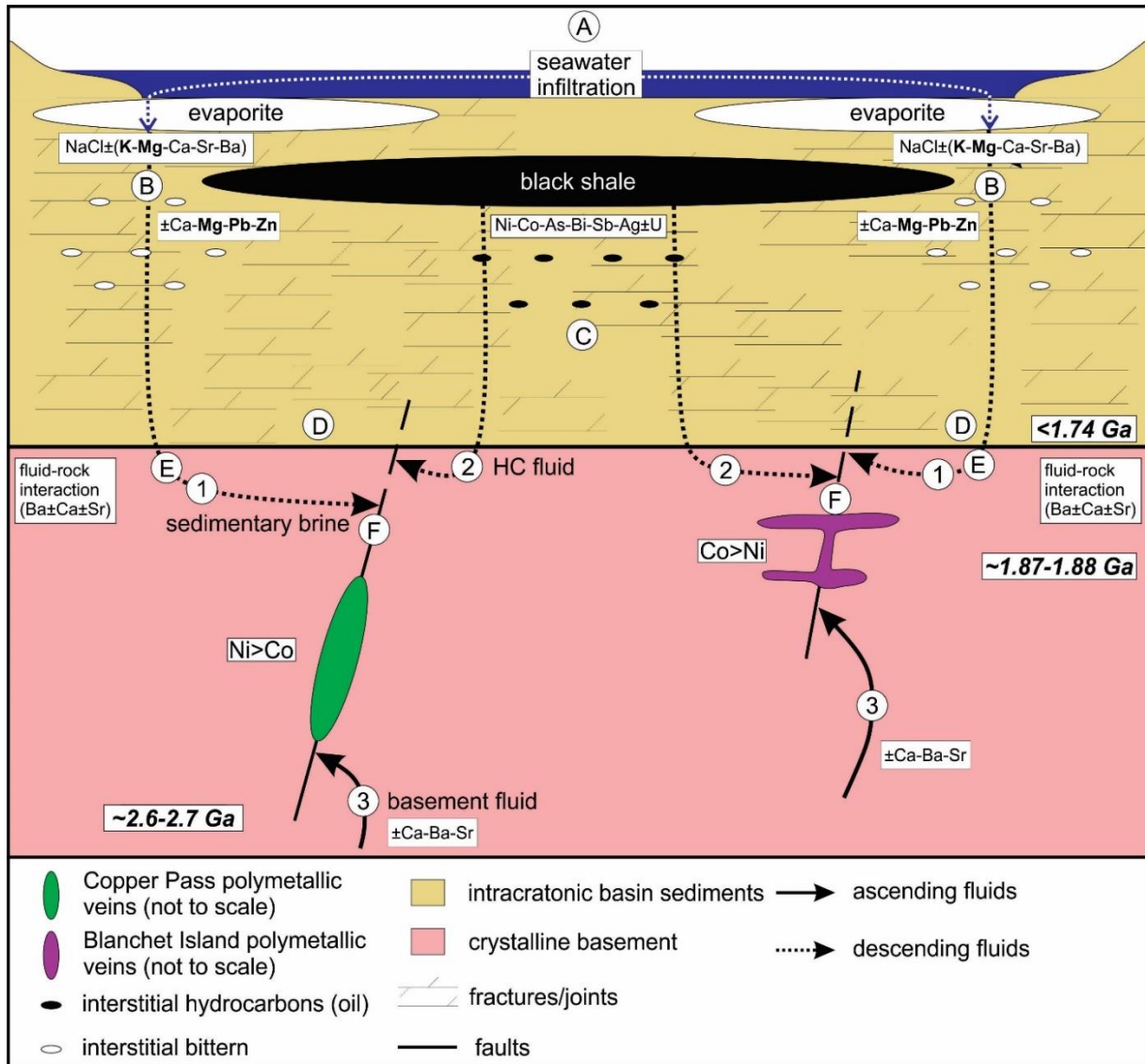
Hydrocarbons are oxidized, resulting in the breakdown of oils into lower hydrocarbons (i.e methane). Arsenide precipitation can occur in multiple ways; (1) lower hydrocarbons and metal-chloride complexes react with  $As^{-2}$  ions to produce arsenides and  $CO_2$  (Eq. 2), and/or through the reaction with metal-chlorides and  $AsO_3^{-3}$ , resulting in the production of arsenides and  $CO_2$  (Eq. 3).



The breakdown of methane during mixing to produce CO<sub>2</sub> is evident as carbonate gangue is produced in the form of ferroan-dolomite precipitation (Eq. 4). Presented Raman data demonstrates that methane is present throughout the ore stage as carbonate inclusions contain amounts of methane.



Figure 28 shows a proposed model for polymetallic vein formation in the East Arm, NWT. The interpretations of fluid inclusion petrography, microthermometric and LA-ICP-MS data demonstrate that multiple fluids were mixed together to form these FMA ores. As previously highlighted, a highly saline sedimentary bittern (fluid 1) mixes with a hydrocarbon rich fluid (fluid 2) in existing fault-fracture intersections. These fluids use enhanced rock permeability, fractures and joints in an actively forming sedimentary basin, to migrate into the basement and precipitate. The potential of a basement component is highlighted by fluid 3, where heating convection may drive basement fluids into structures, mixing with fluids 1 and 2. Paleoproterozoic seawater infiltrates (step A) through a proposed evaporite sequence, extracting salt cations such as NaCl±K±(Mg,Ca)±Cl (step B) and migrates through the sedimentary basin and into basement rock (step E). As the sedimentary fluid migrates through the basin, added to the fluid is a combination of Ca-Mg-Pb-Zn through extraction from an interstitial bittern. Our sedimentary fluid has evolved into a sedimentary bittern (fluid 1) and infiltrates into the basement



**Figure 28 (previous page) - Schematic crustal section consisting of metamorphic and igneous crystalline basement rocks covered by overlying intracratonic sedimentary basin and the role of sedimentary fluids in the proposed genetic model of polymetallic vein precipitation.**

(A) Seawater infiltration into the sedimentary units (evaporites) through rock permeability and/or fractures/joints. (B) Infiltrated seawater picks up salt cations (Na<sup>+</sup>K-Mg-Ca-Sr-Ba) from evaporites before extracting interstitial bittern where Ca-Mg-Pb-Zn are added to the fluid, producing a sedimentary bittern (fluid 1). (C) Anoxic black shale units yield a hydrocarbon-rich fluid (fluid 2) that contains metals Ni-Co-As-Bi-Sb-Ag±U and interstitial hydrocarbons (oils) that migrate into the crystalline basement. (D) Basement infiltration through fault/fracture networks. (E) Descending sedimentary fluids penetrate into basement rocks where fluid rock interaction occurs, extracting Ba, Ca and Sr from plagioclase and feldspar minerals. (F) Mixing of fluids 1 and 2 occurs, resulting in precipitation of polymetallic veins. It is important to note that basement fluids (fluid 3) are a potential source of Ca, Ba and Sr as convection (driven by magmatic sources) upwells basement fluids into fault networks.

The hydrocarbon rich fluid (fluid 2) is believed to be sourced from anoxic (black) shale. As highlighted by Morton and Changkakoti (1986), the “black shale association” of metals: Ni, Co, Cu, Fe, Mo, Ag, Pb, U, S, and As, along with organic hydrocarbons (oils), are added to the fluid through extraction from a seawater infiltration (step C). This organic-rich fluid migrates deep into the crystalline basement, before interacting with both sedimentary bittern and/or basement fluids.

As both fluids penetrate the crystalline basement, the potential for fluid-rock interaction, introducing Ba±Ca±Sr from feldspars and plagioclase dissociation, is possible (step E). Fluids 1 and 2 infiltrate fault structures where the system rapidly moves to far from equilibrium conditions as fault systems act as extremely efficient geochemical traps, resulting in the precipitation of Ni, Co, Ag, Bi and As (step F) as polymetallic veins (Markl et al., 2016). It is important to note that a potential 3<sup>rd</sup> fluid from the basement (fluid 3) could migrate through these fault networks, through convection, acting as a potential source of Ca-Ba-Sr.

Highlighted by Markl et al. (2016), Bursch et al. (2017) and Kissin (1992), ore precipitation happens geologically extremely rapid, on the order of hours to days, as conditions rapidly move from equilibrium, becoming more acidic. The glaring difference between Copper Pass and Blanchet Island ores is that the former is nickel dominated, where the latter is cobalt dominated. This highlights the change from a more alkaline to an increasingly acidic system. It is important to note that the difference in host rocks between the two localities (i.e metasediments and metavolcanics vs carbonates) could potentially act as buffers to the fluid system, explaining why the veins at Blanchet Island are Co-dominated.

## 2.7 Conclusions

Polymetallic veins enriched in Ni-Co-As and other metals within the East Arm basin and Southern Slave province, NWT, represent atypical “five-metals association (FMA)” mineralization as they are lacking productive U, Ag and base metal stages, but in terms of mineral textures, fluid chemistry and microthermometry, and stable/radiogenic isotopes, they share characteristics with other deposits of this type. The East Arm basin deposits were mineralized in 4 distinct stages (arsenides → di/triarsenides → sulfarsenides → base metals and native Bi). Blanchet Island and Copper Pass differ significantly in their respective Ni and Co contents whereby Blanchet Island is Co-dominated with minor Ni, and Copper Pass is Ni-dominated, suggesting that at Blanchet Island, the main metal association (Co-Ni vs. Ni) was influenced by the fluid buffering capacity of the host carbonates deposits, buffering pH to higher values.

Early quartz, and later (capping, cementing) carbonate host a diversity of fluid inclusion types that record part of the evolution of the FMA veins. Fluid inclusion evidence constrain relatively constant fluid salinities (18.5 to 23.7 wt% CaCl<sub>2</sub> equiv.) and temperatures throughout vein formation, bracketing the oil stability window, and at relatively low pressure, between 0.5 and 0.95 kbar. Importantly, the unambiguous presence of coeval brines, carbonic fluids, liquid hydrocarbons and metalliferous bitumens in the fluid inclusion record, timed closely with metal and carbonate precipitation highlights the role of hydrocarbons as metal carriers but also identifies the mechanism (brine-HC interaction, and HC oxidation/thermal decomposition) critical for FMA vein formation.

The remarkable similarities between 3 (possibly 4) East Arm basin FMA localities suggests that these mineralized zones formed in small enclaves as parts of a much larger (FMA vein systems occur over a minimum of a ~20 x 50 km area), relatively thermally and compositionally

homogeneous hydrothermal system. Furthermore, critical to any argument concerning the source of metals for FMA veins is the observation that despite different host rocks, local variability in host rocks appears to not have had a significant impact on vein characteristics at each locality, reinforcing the idea of a common and distal fluid and metal source.

A conceptual model for the formation of the FMA veins favours mineralizing fluids descending as Ca-dominated, Mg-enriched sedimentary basin-derived bitterns derived from evaporite precipitation (fluid 1) and a metalliferous hydrocarbon-rich fluid (fluid 2) sourced from black shales. As these fluids migrate deep into the sedimentary basin and into crystalline basement rock through fault fracture networks (cf. Markl et al., 2016; Burisch et al., 2016; Kreissl et al., 2018), both fluids are heated by magmatic activity in the basement and the brine gets further enriched in Ca, Sr but also K and Ba through fluid-rock interaction (e.g., albitization of plagioclase and alkali feldspar) or through mixing with heated crystalline basement brines. The mixing of bittern and hydrocarbon liquid or bitumen results in a rapid thermal and oxidative decomposition of the metal-rich hydrocarbon, resulting in the precipitation of Ni-Co arsenide/sulfarsenides and other minerals. Metals are sourced from organic bitumen colloids as bitumen carry concentrations orders of magnitude higher in Co, Ni, Cu, Mo, Ag, Pb, Bi and U than the coeval brines.

The results of this study highlight key themes relevant to mineral exploration for this unusual metal association in the East Arm basin and elsewhere. The involvement of a sedimentary basin sequence as both a source of fluid and metals is implicated as a prerequisite in the formation of the FMA veins in the East Arm basin. This is based on the following observations: (i) hydrocarbon-brine interaction at the onset of FMA vein formation; (ii) the metalliferous nature of bitumens relative to brines; (iii) specific compositional characteristics of the brines (i.e., elevated Ca-Mg-Pb-Zn-Ba-Sr) straddling compositional fields for basinal (i.e. evaporitic bitterns, oil field brines)



and crystalline basement fluids; and (iv) isotopic evidence for involvement of a fluid of suspected sedimentary marine origin (i.e., from the marked positive shift in O isotopes at the onset of bitumen incursion and mineralization; and Sr isotopes). Furthermore, differences in the depth of formation of the FMA veins in the East Arm basin (fluid trapping pressure = 0.5-0.95 kbar; this study) and larger deposits at Great Bear Lake (0.07-0.2 kbar) suggest that these systems formed at different depths below the level of the basin-basement unconformity. Therefore, metalliferous fluids and hydrocarbons would have had to migrate further into the underlying basement and were possibly depleted of metals at shallower depths prior to reaching the level at which the East Arm basin veins formed. Sub-economic vein systems at Copper Pass and Blanchet Island may represent the deep expression of a much larger FMA hydrothermal system, now eroded away.

## 2.8 References

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## Chapter 3: Key conclusions and future work

### 3.1 Key conclusions

The results of the study are described in Chapter 2 and summarize five-element vein associations with respect to ore mineralogy, ore texture, formation conditions and fluid chemistry.

The main conclusions are summarized as:

- (i) Bulk rock geochemistry demonstrates similar ore metal abundance between Blanchet Island and Copper Pass FMA deposits. Blanchet Island deposit is enrichment in Co relative to Copper Pass whereas the Copper Pass deposit is enriched in Ni and U relative to Blanchet Island. Blanchet Island is dominated by Co-arsenide/sulfarsenides (safflorite, skutterudite and cobaltite) while Copper Pass is dominated by Ni-arsenide/sulfarsenides (nickeline, rammelsbergite and gersdorffite). Paragenesis of ore vein mineralization at both Blanchet Island and Copper Pass deposits can be summarized in 4 stages of mineralization: 1) arsenides 2) di-tri-arsenides 3) sulfarsenides and 4) native metals and associated ore minerals with uraninite. Gangue mineralization marks the end of vein formation at Blanchet Island, while it marks the onset and end of mineralization at Copper Pass.
- (ii) Fluid inclusion Microthermometry demonstrates the FMA veins formed from 124.8° to 224.4 °C at Blanchet Island and 122.4° to 252.7°C at Copper Pass. Bulk salinities of fluids range from 16.0 to 23.5 wt% CaCl<sub>2</sub> and 19.2 and 23.1 wt% CaCl<sub>2</sub> at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass respectively. The fluid characteristics at both deposits overlap with respect to formation temperatures and bulk salinities support a genetic relationship. The East Arm deposits share fluid characteristics with sedimentary ore

deposits with respect to homogenization temperatures, bulk salinities, and brine chemistry.

- (iii) The role of hydrocarbons as a reducing agent in metal precipitation mechanisms presented by Markl et al., (2016) and Burisch et al., (2017) is generally supported. Our supporting evidence is hydrocarbon liquid phases that are heterogeneously trapped with brines in fluid inclusion assemblages. Further analysis by Raman spectroscopy supports the notion that hydrocarbons are an abundant reducing agent in the metal precipitation mechanism, as hydrocarbon-bearing fluid inclusions hosted in both quartz and carbonate are abundant at both Blanchet Island and Copper Pass. Volatile species identified by Raman spectroscopy include CH<sub>4</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, kerogen, aqueous CO<sub>3</sub><sup>-2</sup>, and various other aliphatic (olefin and paraffin) hydrocarbon species including C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>, C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>, aromatics, and other unidentified alkanes and alkenes.
  
- (iv) Bitumen is the proposed metal sources for FMA deposits due to the lack of abundant metal concentrations in brines (through fluid inclusion analysis). Bitumen grains contain high concentrations (ranging 10<sup>1</sup> to 10<sup>5</sup> ppm) of metals, including Co-Ni-Ag-Pb-Fe-Mo-Bi-Zn-S-U, while brine-rich fluid inclusions lack these metals.
  
- (v) Stable and Radiogenic isotopes demonstrate that Blanchet Island and Copper Pass deposits have similar  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{VPDB}}$ ,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}}$ , and  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ . Blanchet Island carbonates

contain  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{VPDB}}$  between -2.73‰ to -2.02‰,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}}$  between 12.06‰ to 13.46‰, and  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_0$  from 0.709655 to 0.710387. Ferroan dolomite in the nickeline-carbonate veins and breccias at Copper Pass has  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{VPDB}}$  between -4.06‰ to -1.13‰ and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}}$  between 10.85‰ to 16.24‰. Zoned quartz at Copper at Copper Pass contain  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}}$  ranging from 3.9‰ to 20.2‰ between core to rim growth zones A-C. Transitional rim zones D1, D2, D3 contain  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}}$  of 5.2‰ to 22.6‰. The outermost rim (zone E) has  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}}$  values of 6.7‰ to 22.6‰. The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  results indicate a systematic shift to higher  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  from core to rim. In particular, the transition from D2 to D3 shows an increase in the average  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}}$  value of 6.5‰ coinciding with the textural position of primary, metalliferous bitumen inclusions. Ferroan dolomite from Blanchet Island veins has  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_0$  ratios from 0.709655 to 0.710387, while ferroan dolomite of Copper Pass veins has  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_0$  ratios from 0.708093 to 0.719578. Isotopic signatures of late carbonate are shared with late carbonates from major polymetallic vein deposits at Echo Bay, NWT, and Cobalt and Gowganda, ON deposits.

- (vi) The preferred model for FMA deposits is the mixing of basinal-derived HC and brines, derived from separate areas in a sedimentary basin, but heated in the basement rocks compared to magmatic and/or basement-derived models. This is based on evidence provided through fluid inclusion petrography, laser ablation-ICPMS of brine and bitumen inclusions, Raman spectroscopy,

### **3.2 Future work**

Additional work needs to be performed in order to improve the classification and understanding of formation conditions for all five-element vein types. Constraints on fluid provenance, metal sources, chemical processes affecting ore deposition (i.e reducing agents) and overall paragenetic model can be improved upon. To better constrain fluid and metal sources, further investigation into fluid chemistry and bitumen metal contents through fluid inclusion microthermometry and laser ablation-ICPMS of bitumens from other polymetallic systems is needed. This will allow for further insight into the effective roles that bitumen play in the formation of these unique deposit styles. Further petrographic analysis and data accumulation of fluid inclusion types in other FMA deposits is needed as the identification of bitumen and HC liquid inclusions in other polymetallic systems would provide analogous information between low grade East Arm FMA deposits and high grade FMA deposits found globally (i.e. Canada, Czech Republic, and Germany). Further classification of the role of HC liquid will need to be done through Raman spectroscopy and LA-ICPMS to provide a better understanding of speciation and metal concentrations affiliated with the fluid. An investigation into the radiogenic isotope analysis of other FMA deposits is needed to provide information on potential fluid source reservoirs as the role of sedimentary basin continues to gain steam compared to magmatic basement derived models. Additionally, robust thermodynamic modelling of the precipitation order and solubility model for FMA systems requires far more experimentally determined parameters, which at the present time are limited.

**Table 1.1: List of acronyms and abbreviations used throughout this thesis**

Abbreviation	Meaning
anna	annabergite
BI	Blanchet Island occurrence
BSE	backscattered electrons
btm	bitumen
ca	calcite
carb	carbonate
carbonic	fluid composed of CO <sub>2</sub> and/or hydrocarbons
cbt	cobaltite
CIS	Compton intrusive suite
CL	cathodoluminescence
CLG	Caribou Lake Gabbro occurrence
clv	cleavage plane
CP	Copper Pass occurrence (alt: BM, NIX, GOGO, Sachowia Lake)
Fe-dol	ferroan dolomite
FIA	fluid inclusion assemblage
FMA	"five metal association"
GC	gas chromatography
gdf	gersdorffite
gn	galena
HC	hydrocarbon
LA-ICP-MS	laser ablation inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry
L <sub>aq</sub>	aqueous liquid phase
L <sub>carbonic</sub>	carbonic liquid phase
LB	Labelle Peninsula (occurrence)
ME	metal
nk	nickeline
polymetallic	"five-metal vein association" main: Ni-Co-As-Ag-Bi; other: Sb, U, Cu, Pb, Zn, Mo
py	pyrite
qtz	quartz
ram	rammelsbergite
saf	safflorite
S <sub>brine</sub>	secondary origin brine fluid inclusion trail
S <sub>carbonic</sub>	secondary origin carbonic fluid inclusion trail
SIMS	secondary ion mass spectrometry
skut	skutterudite
TD-MS	total digestion mass spectrometer
T <sub>h</sub>	temperature of homogenization
T <sub>h</sub> <sup>carbonic</sup>	temperature of homogenization for carbonic phase
T <sub>m</sub> <sup>ice</sup>	temperature of final ice melting
UI	Union Island shale occurrence
urn	uraninite
V	vapour phase
V <sub>carbonic</sub>	carbonic vapour
wt. %	weight percentage
wt. % CaCl <sub>2</sub> eq. or equiv.	fluid inclusion bulk salinity in weight percentage CaCl <sub>2</sub> equivalent

**Table 1.2 Summary of polymetallic "five-metals association" (FMA) veins in the NWT (Silke, 2009)**

Name	Commodity	Tonnage, grade details	Historical grade
Bear Portal	Ag	unknown	unknown
Blanchet Island	Co-Ni	330 tons	15% Ni + 11% Co
Bonanza	Ag	unknown	unknown
Contact Lake	U+Ag	16995 tons (678,000 oz Ag and 6933 lbs U <sub>3</sub> O <sub>8</sub> )	unknown
Contact Lake Portal	Ag-Cu	unknown	unknown
Copper Pass	Ni	>450 tons	33-35% Ni
Echo Bay	Ag-Cu	363,140 tons (23,544,461 oz Ag, 4505 tons Cu)	unknown
El Bonanza	Ag	2.95 tons (30,175 oz Ag)	unknown
Eldorado	U-Ra-Ag-Cu-Ni-Co-Pb	1,366,602 tons (6,079 tons U <sub>3</sub> O <sub>8</sub> , 450g Ra, 13,371,382 oz Ag, 2,389 tons Cu, 140 tons Ni, 250 tons Co, 8 tons Pb)	4,328 oz/ton Ag
Glacier Bay	Ag	unknown	4 oz/ton Ag, 0.02% U <sub>3</sub> O <sub>8</sub>
Mystery Island	U-Ra	unknown	unknown
Norex	Ag	53,697 tons (2,066,744 oz Ag)	unknown
Northrim	Ag	12,000 tons (30,000 oz Ag)	unknown
Smallwood Lake	Ag	18,204 tons (169,720 oz Ag)	unknown
Terra	Ag-Cu	507,629 tons (14,236,325 oz Ag, 2,248 tons Cu)	unknown



Table 1. Bulk Rock Geochemistry of East Arm polymetals (with sample (Buckner and Copper localities))

C.D. Method	Sample Location	1983-1984		1985-1986		1987-1988		1989-1990		1991-1992		1993-1994		1995-1996		1997-1998		1999-2000		2001-2002		2003-2004		2005-2006		2007-2008		2009-2010		2011-2012		2013-2014		2015-2016	
		BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI	BI
C	% 0.01	7.54	0.58	5.82	1.58	1.49	0.91	0.57	1.28	3.5	1.32	11.2	1.11	1.37	1.39	0.58	0.88	0.42	1.38	8.7	1.58	3.99	1.85	1.83	4.38	10.8									
Si	% 0.01	0.4	0.88	0.20	0.32	1.28	0.89	1.7	0.007	1.18	0.16	0.3	8.79	2.32	2.09	0.08	1.12	0.36	1.52	0.58	0.66	3.77	1.88	1.98	0.59	0.08									
Co	ppm 0.1	18500	21000	12100	23000	44300	>500	21000	179	3520	170	1080	2130	36500	47100	340	7120	11	172000	45500	245000	1860	311000	13700	16100	1520									
Ni	ppm 0.5	14400	57300	115000	225000	197000	0	57100	0	305000	18500	26400	0	109000	150000	0	366000	0	172000	10000	245000	1860	311000	13700	16100	40600	11800								
B	ppm 1	<0.1	<0.1	2	<0.1	100	<0.1	7	10	60	8	2207	19	9	7	<0.1	115	34	16	20	80	6	34	1											
Li	ppm 0.5	TDMS	0.9	0.7	<0.05	3.9	<0.25	25.4	1.7	<0.5	6.1	1.6	<0.5	1.4	5.7	3.4	<0.5	6.3	10.8	1.2	<0.5	7.3	1.5	8.3	13.8	34	<0.5								
Ca	ppm 0.1	TDMS	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	
V	ppm 1	TDMS	88	2.5	3.2	149	38	23	76	3	27	61	120	24	9	2	5	27	34	424	69	120	6	15	53	27									
Cr	ppm 0.5	TDMS	5.6	2.5	3.2	4.3	2.1	16.9	3.2	<0.5	5.6	17.1	1.5	86.2	9.2	4.4	8.3	3.5	10.4	32.5	11	24	14.5	2.7	6.9	40.2	1.8								
Mn	ppm 1	TDMS	1950	110	1300	406	391	1190	1000	2350	1070	456	3470	250	1050	1560	263	530	183	509	3280	730	890	542	571	3100	3610								
Fe	ppm 0.01	TDMS	3800	1160	3900	3000	3900	19100	21200	100	9000	12600	8800	7000	14700	16000	1.3	6700	3600	3000	35000	35000	7700	7700	13000	10600									
Hf	ppm 0.1	TDMS	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	1.3	<0.1	<0.1	2	<0.1	1	<0.1	0.1	<0.1	0.1	<0.1	0.2	<0.1	<0.1	0.2	1.5	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1									
Br	ppm 0.1	TDMS	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	0.2	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1									
Be	ppm 0.1	TDMS	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	3.5	<0.1	<0.1	0.2	3	<0.1	3.9	0.8	0.3	4.8	0.3	5.8	0.7	<0.1	0.7	1.2	0.4	0.8	1	<0.1								
Mo	ppm 0.1	TDMS	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1									
As	ppm 0.05	TDMS	1.15	0.9	0.73	1.97	2.73	2.43	4.81	1.38	2.31	2.27	3.31	4.29	19.3	8.14	2.2	7.42	4.5	4.17	7.07	4.06	2.32	3.99	2.77	2.86	1.28								
Cs	ppm 0.05	TDMS	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	0.1	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	0.06	0.31	0.15	0.4	0.15	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.73	0.16	0.06	0.09	0.50	<0.05	<0.05	0.05	<0.05								
Eu	ppm 0.05	TDMS	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	0.007	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	0.31	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05									
Ba	ppm 0.02	TDMS	9.18	298	3.6	32.8	198	173	1450	9.71	>2000	92.3	65.6	74.4	1670	>2000	51.2	>2000	340	468	61000	231	1850	>2000	>2000	441	13.8								
Sr	ppm 0.1	TDMS	<0.1	42.9	10.9	25.7	48.5	<0.1	71.4	<0.1	1	<0.1	0.4	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1									
Zn	ppm 0.2	TDMS	33	23.5	69.1	10.5	23.5	411	37.8	17.8	17.5	21	17.3	15.6	41.1	39.1	13	17.6	25.6	13.4	22.8	7.2	12.8	33.7	20.5	55.7	12.6								
Cd	ppm 0.1	TDMS	0.8	<0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2	8.7	0.4	0.2	0.3	4.8	0.3	13.1	2.5	0.7	14.4	7.9	2.3	0.4	<0.1	6	0.4	0.6	2.2	0.3									
As	ppm 0.1	TDMS	73300	587000	263000	521000	503000	30700	363000	361	365000	30600	42200	4740	365000	466000	4900	411000	30500	202000	47400	281000	12.8	509000	414000	127000	20400								
Rb	ppm 0.2	TDMS	1.6	0.6	1.4	1.9	0.7	0.6	0.2	0.6	2.9	11	3.6	26.9	6.8	3.1	1.4	1.2	20.8	9.1	4.1	6.9	10.1	0.6	1.2	5.9	1.8								
V	ppm 0.1	TDMS	<0.1	0.3	<0.1	0.1	<0.1	0.3	<0.1	<0.1	0.2	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	1.3	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	0.3	0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1									
Zr	ppm 1	TDMS	<0.1	<0.1	8	<0.1	1.7	33	<0.1	1.1	52	<0.1	26	<0.1	1.1	18	<0.1	18	<0.1	1.1	26	38	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1									
Nb	ppm 0.1	TDMS	13.9	12.1	16.2	5.4	1.7	11.1	11.7	11.2	13.1	33.3	15.9	14.2	14.9	13.7	11.9	17.1	30.4	13.7	12.6	9.5	9.8	16.1	15.4	16.1									
Mo	ppm 0.05	TDMS	13	9.47	14.8	66.8	1.7	2.68	6.2	7.1	20.9	40	15.7	7.95	171	56.4	10.7	17.2	41	222	216	125	19.4	38.7	33	33.6	9.13								
Sr	ppm 0.1	TDMS	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1									
Sn	ppm 0.1	TDMS	31.2	44	7.6	37.5	19.7	10.4	0.0407	21.3	86.5	4.5	160	178	2.5	0.09	41.7	203	34.3	121	3.1	0.107	0.166	83.2	10.3										
Te	ppm 0.1	TDMS	0.2	0.2	1.7	0.2	<0.1	<0.1	0.5	<0.1	0.3	<0.1	0.8	0.1	0.2	<0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.9	<0.1	0.3	0.3	<0.1	<0.1									
La	ppm 0.1	TDMS	<0.1	0.5	<0.1	0.2	0.2	7.8	0.2	<0.1	0.5	<0.1	0.5	<0.1	0.2	<0.1	0.1	<0.1	0.3	0.4	<0.1	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.2	<0.1								
Ce	ppm 0.1	TDMS	0.2	1.8	<0.1	0.4	0.3	26.5	0.3	<0.1	<0.1	7.2	<0.1	0.3	1.9	0.1	0.6	<0.1	9.5	3.6	<0.1	1	4.3	0.2	0.3	<0.1	<0.1								
Pr	ppm 0.1	TDMS	<0.1	0.3	<0.1	<0.1	0.8	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	0.5	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	0.9	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1									
Nd	ppm 0.1	TDMS	<0.1	0.7	<0.1	0.4	0.3	2.4	<0.1	<0.1	2.3	<0.1	<0.1	0.2	<0.1	0.2	<0.1	5.3	0.4	<0.1	0.6	0.8	<0.1	0.2	<0.1	<0.1									
Sm	ppm 0.1	TDMS	<0.1	0.2	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	0.2	<0.1	<0.1	0.5	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	1.4	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1									
Gd	ppm 0.1	TDMS	<0.1	0.2	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	0.2	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	1.1	<0.1	<0.1	0.2	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	&										

**Table 2. Representative SEM-EDS analysis (elemental weight %) of arsenide ores and accessory minerals at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass.**

Sample	Location	Mineral	Ni	Co	Fe	As	S	Bi	Mo	Pb	Ag	U	Total
01B-M	Blanchet Island	skutterudite	-	25.4	1.8	71.3	1.5	-	-	-	-	-	100.0
01B-M	Blanchet Island	Ni-cobaltite	7.24	24.14	1.64	46.68	20.3	-	-	-	-	-	100.0
01B-M	Blanchet Island	safflorite	-	38.04	-	60.48	0.68	-	-	-	-	-	99.2
01B-M	Blanchet Island	Co-nickeline	27.7	12.2	-	60.05	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0
01C-M	Blanchet Island	rammelsbergite	27.7	1.02	-	70.15	-	-	-	-	-	-	98.9
03-A2	Copper Pass	galena	-	-	-	-	10.08	-	-	85.22	-	-	95.3
03-A2	Copper Pass	uraninite <sup>4</sup>	2.19	-	-	0.68	-	-	-	6.51	-	61.1	70.5
03-A2	Copper Pass	Native bismuth+ antimony	26.76	-	-	0.44	7.36	63.08	-	-	-	-	97.6
03-A2	Copper Pass	<sup>1</sup> uraninite with native Ag inclusion	14.3	-	1.04	14.46	0.42	-	-	-	3.04	15.5	48.8
04B-V	Copper Pass	nickeline	50.56	-	-	49.31	-	-	-	-	-	-	99.9
04B-V	Copper Pass	<sup>4</sup> Native bismuth	-	-	-	-	-	94.41	-	-	-	-	94.4
04B-V	Copper Pass	gersdorffite	15.75	24.76	1.12	42.21	16.15	-	-	-	-	-	100.0
05A	Copper Pass	<sup>3</sup> molybdenite + native bismuth	1.02	-	0.62	0.37	-	54.47	38.56	-	-	-	95.0

Notes: <sup>1</sup> uranium phase with Ag found as an inclusion in nickeline (46.85 wt% O). <sup>2</sup> Inclusion hosted in nickeline. <sup>3</sup> Inclusion hosted in nickeline. <sup>4</sup> O not reported, thus low total.

**Table 3. Representative SEM-EDS analyses (elemental weight %) of sulfarsenides at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass, NWT**

Sample	Location	Mineral	Ni	Co	Fe	As	S	Total
01A	Blanchet Island	cobaltite	4.38	35.73	2.01	40.08	17.8	100
01A	Blanchet Island	cobaltite	3.89	36.77	1.72	39.87	17.75	100
01B-M	Blanchet Island	cobaltite	4.36	27.14	1.72	46.09	20.70	100
01B-M	Blanchet Island	cobaltite	4.17	28.01	0.73	47.37	19.72	100
01C-M	Blanchet Island	Ni-cobaltite	18.56	13.83	0.89	50.55	15.72	99.5
01C-M	Blanchet Island	Ni-cobaltite	12.11	20.86	0.87	49.41	16.75	100
01C-M	Blanchet Island	gersdorffite	25.31	5.35	0.72	51.74	15.39	98.5
01C-M	Blanchet Island	gersdorffite	26.11	5.91	0.46	51.51	15.22	99.2
03-Carb	Copper Pass	gersdorffite	39.55	-	0.6	42.07	16.47	98.7
03-Carb	Copper Pass	gersdorffite	38.31	-	0.82	44.47	15.05	98.7
03-Carb	Copper Pass	gersdorffite	39.46	-	-	40.56	18.29	98.3
03-A2	Copper Pass	gersdorffite	34.84	6.73	-	40.71	17.72	100
03-A2	Copper Pass	gersdorffite	39.87	-	-	39.48	18.47	97.8
03-A2	Copper Pass	gersdorffite	17.69	20.49	2.05	41.19	18.58	100
03-K1	Copper Pass	gersdorffite	37.94	1.57	0.59	40.03	17.37	98
03-K1	Copper Pass	gersdorffite	38.29	1.51	0.58	39.17	17.28	96.8
05A	Copper Pass	cobaltite	9.63	27.46	2.38	47.54	12.99	100
05A	Copper Pass	cobaltite	8.83	28.77	1.34	49.27	11.79	100
05A	Copper Pass	gersdorffite	40.35	0.69	-	40.02	17.55	99
05A	Copper Pass	gersdorffite	33.99	4.48	2.1	44.95	14.47	100
05C	Copper Pass	gersdorffite	34.29	1.56	2.25	45.11	16.78	100
05C	Copper Pass	gersdorffite	32.89	2.18	3.17	45.07	16.7	100
05C	Copper Pass	gersdorffite-S poor	22.55	11.78	0.51	56.79	7.21	99
05C	Copper Pass	gersdorffite-S poor	23.08	12.07	-	56.95	7.9	100
03-A2	Copper Pass	nickeline	50.41	-	-	49.59	-	100
03-A2	Copper Pass	nickeline	50.49	-	-	49.51	-	100

Table 4-Microthermometry of representative fluid inclusions from polymetallic vein deposits at Blanchet Island and Copper Pass, East Arm, Great Slave Lake

Location	Sample no.	Assemblage	Host	Inclusion	T <sub>m</sub> <sup>ice</sup> (°C)	T <sub>h</sub> (°C)	wt% CaCl <sub>2</sub> eq.	T <sub>m</sub> <sup>hom</sup> (°C)	T <sub>m</sub> <sup>carb</sup> (°C)	Location	Sample no.	Assemblage	Host	Inclusion	T <sub>m</sub> <sup>ice</sup> (°C)	T <sub>h</sub> (°C)	wt% CaCl <sub>2</sub> eq.	T <sub>m</sub> <sup>hom</sup> (°C)	T <sub>m</sub> <sup>carb</sup> (°C)				
Blanchet Island	01-Ore Pit		carb	1	-26.1	-	-	-	-	Copper Pass			qtz	1	-21.9	118.3	-	-	-	-			
				2	-20.1	176.1	20.61	-	-					4	qtz	2	-22.5	174.7	21.78	-	-		
				3	-21.2	174.7	21.16	-	-					4	qtz	3	-24.5	181.9	22.68	-	-		
				6	-18.9	149.2	19.99	-	-					4	qtz	4	-21.8	178.6	21.45	-	-		
				7	-16.1	156.9	18.43	-	-					4	qtz	5	-22.2	179.2	21.64	-	-		
				9	-19.7	110.2	20.41	-	-					4	qtz	6	-21.7	169.7	21.40	-	-		
				10	-17.1	167.4	19.01	-	-					4	qtz	7	-	183.5	-	-	-		
				11	-14.7	141.7	19.34	-	-					5	qtz	8	-22	277.3	21.55	-	-		
				12	-17.7	190.8	19.34	-	-					5	qtz	9	-22	189	21.55	-	-		
				13	-	200.2	-	-	-					5	qtz	10	-22.1	180.2	21.59	-	-		
				14	-16.1	195.2	18.43	-	-					1	qtz	82	-21.7	143.7	21.40	-	-		
				15	-16.5	178.4	19.78	-	-					1	qtz	83	-22.5	147.2	21.78	-	-		
				16	-24.7	187.8	22.77	-	-					1	qtz	84	-22.5	148.5	21.78	-	-		
				17	-17.2	176.9	18.06	-	-					1	qtz	85	-22.5	137.7	21.78	-	-		
				18	-17.1	197.8	19.01	-	-					2	qtz	86	-20.4	133.3	20.76	-	-		
				19	-19.7	195.1	20.41	-	-					2	qtz	87	-20.7	118.5	20.91	-	-		
				20	-24.9	191.3	22.85	-	-					2	qtz	88	-21.3	157.2	21.21	-	-		
				21	-18.9	196.4	19.99	-	-					2	qtz	90	-21.5	100.2	21.31	-	-		
				22	-24.4	184.6	22.64	-	-					2	qtz	91	-21.7	136.5	21.40	-	-		
				23	-18.1	180.7	19.53	-	-					2	qtz	92	-19.5	128.2	20.31	-	-		
				6	carb	24	-13.1	182.1	18.53					-	-	2	qtz	93	-19.4	69.9	20.25	-	-
				6	carb	25	-24.4	181.1	-					-	-	1	qtz	94	-21.1	170.7	21.11	-	-
				7	carb	26	-25.4	177.5	23.07					-	-	1	qtz	95	-21.1	150.9	21.11	-	-
				8	carb	27	-24.8	184.5	22.81					-	-	1	qtz	96	-21.4	146.2	21.26	-	-
				10	carb	29	-23.5	186.1	22.24					-	-	1	qtz	97	-21.4	-	21.26	-	-
				1	carb	30	<90	18.63	-					-	-	1	qtz	98	-21.3	163.9	21.21	-	-
				2	carb	31	-23.1	134.6	22.06					-	-	1	qtz	99	-21.3	181.2	21.21	-	-
				3	carb	32	-25.9	158.8	23.27					-	-	1	qtz	100	-21	-	21.06	-	-
				3	carb	33	-26.5	158.5	23.52					-	-	1	qtz	101	-21.2	138.7	21.16	-	-
				4	carb	34	-16.6	163.9	18.72					-	-	1	qtz	102	-21.1	86.9	21.11	-	-
				4	carb	35	-24	128.8	22.46					-	-	1	qtz	103	-18.2	125.3	19.62	-	-
				4	carb	36	-14.4	158.7	17.39					-	-	1	qtz	104	-21.5	-	21.31	-	-
				4	carb	37	-17.3	163.8	18.10					-	-	1	qtz	105	-21	134.7	21.06	-	-
				5	carb	38	-12.4	171.8	18.04					-	-	1	qtz	106	-21.2	158	21.16	-	-
				6	carb	39	-22.8	144.4	21.92					-	-	1	qtz	107	-21.1	145.6	21.11	-	-
				6	carb	40	-24.9	124.8	22.85					-	-	1	qtz	108	-21.3	161.2	21.21	-	-
				6	carb	41	-22.6	181.3	21.93					-	-	1	qtz	109	-21.3	154.7	21.21	-	-
				6	carb	42	-24.3	173.3	22.59					-	-	1	qtz	110	-22.4	151.3	21.73	-	-
				7	carb	43	-23.1	166.8	22.06					-	-	1	qtz	111	-22.2	170.7	21.64	-	-
				7	carb	44	-24.6	155.4	22.72					-	-	1	qtz	112	-22.1	169.4	21.59	-	-
				1	carb	45	-23.5	211.2	22.24					-	-	1	qtz	113	-20.9	167.2	21.01	-	-
				1	carb	46	-18.8	148.6	18.94					-	-	2	qtz	114	-22.7	-	21.87	-	-
				1	carb	47	-24.5	218.3	22.88					-	-	2	qtz	115	-22.6	-	21.78	-	-
				2	carb	48	-23.8	203.9	22.37					-	-	2	qtz	116	-22.4	-	21.73	-	-
				2	carb	49	-24	138.9	22.46					-	-	1	qtz	117	-22.8	-	21.88	-	-
3	carb	50	-23.4	196.5	22.19	-	-	1	Fe-dol	118	-23.5	168.8	22.24	-	-								
3	carb	51	-23.1	212.2	22.06	-	-	1	Fe-dol	119	-24.2	173.8	22.55	-	-								
3	carb	52	-20.4	208.2	20.76	-	-	1	Fe-dol	120	-22.9	178.1	21.97	-	-								
4	carb	53	-16.7	153.3	18.78	-	-	1	Fe-dol	121	-24.7	178.4	22.77	-	-								
5	carb	54	-22.9	213	21.97	-	-	1	Fe-dol	122	-20.2	177.4	20.66	-	-								
6	carb	55	-21.4	171.7	21.26	-	-	1	Fe-dol	123	-22	135.4	21.55	-	-								
7	carb	56	-15.7	224.4	18.19	-	-	1	Fe-dol	124	-22.8	206.1	21.83	-	-								
8	carb	57	-23.3	193.6	22.15	-	-	1	Fe-dol	125	-24.2	126.9	22.55	-	-								
8	carb	58	-20.1	198.9	20.51	-	-	1	Fe-dol	126	-20	166.6	22.01	-	-								
8	carb	59	-24.1	189.4	22.51	-	-	1	Fe-dol	127	-23.7	171.1	22.33	-	-								
9	carb	60	-18.8	204.5	20.46	-	-	2	Fe-dol	128	-23.1	162.7	22.06	-	-								
10	carb	61	-17.8	157.3	19.40	-	-	2	Fe-dol	129	-24	244.3	22.46	-	-								
carb	62	-23.8	224.7	22.37	-	-	-	2	Fe-dol	130	-22.7	153.2	21.87	-	-								
carb	63	-23.7	217	22.33	-	-	-	2	Fe-dol	131	-22.8	182.3	21.92	-	-								
carb	64	-23.4	222.4	22.19	-	-	-	2	Fe-dol	132	-23.9	212.1	22.42	-	-								
carb	65	-22.7	225.9	21.87	-	-	-	2	Fe-dol	133	-24.1	154.4	22.51	-	-								
Copper Pass	03B-U3		Fe-dol	1	-23.1	78.4	22.05	-	-	03B-U2			Fe-dol	134	-22.7	178.7	21.87	-	-	-	-		
				2	-25.1	135	22.84	-	-					2	Fe-dol	135	-23.3	173.2	22.15	-	-		
				3	-	139.5	-	-	-					2	Fe-dol	136	-23.5	155.1	22.24	-	-		
				1	qtz	1	284.8	20.86	-					-	2	Fe-dol	137	-23.1	160.6	22.06	-	-	
				2	qtz	2	214.8	21.45	-					-	1	Fe-dol	138	-24.3	195.1	22.59	-	-	
				2	qtz	3	-20.7	123.5	20.91					-	-	1	qtz	139	-23.23	152.3	22.07	-	-
				2	qtz	4	-20.2	133.7	20.66					-	-	1	qtz	140	-23.84	165.7	22.19	-	-
				3	qtz	5	-22.5	163.3	21.78					-	-	1	qtz	141	-24.80	172.1	23.07	-	-
				3	qtz	6	-21.8	125.4	21.45					-	-	1	qtz	142	-22.64	147.4	22.10	-	-
				3	qtz	7	-22.3	162.4	21.69					-	-	1	qtz	143	-23.52	128.9	22.51	-	-
				4	qtz	8	-21.6	135.4	21.35					-	-	2	qtz	144	-22.25	135.2	21.92	-	-
				4	qtz	9	-21.8	142.9	21.45					-	-	2	qtz	145	-21.65	133.7	21.64	-	-
				4	qtz	10	-	216.1	-					-	-	2	qtz	146	-20.87	126.4	21.26	-	-
				4	qtz	11	-23.1	172.4	22.06					-	-	2	qtz	147	-18.21	130.6	19.89	-	-
				5	qtz	12	-22.9	212.8	21.97					-	-	2	qtz	148	-21.06	139.4	21.35	-	-
				5	qtz	13	-23	245.6	22.01					-	-	2	qtz	149	-21.75	197.1	21.69	-	-
				5	qtz	14	-21.5	216.5	21.31					-	-	2	qtz	150	-20.87	235.6	21.26	-	-
				5	qtz	15	-17.4	211.3	19.18					-	-	2	qtz	151	-22.15	121.2	21.87	-	-
				5	qtz	16	-	191.7	-					-	-	2	qtz	152	-22.34	138.8	21.97	-	-
				5	qtz	17	-	228.3	-					-	-	3	qtz	153	-	-	-56.70	22.5	
				5	qtz	18	-22.9	242.6	21.97					-	-	3	qtz	154	-	-	-56.30	24.9	
				5	qtz	19	-	315.4	-					-	-	3	qtz	155	-	-	-56.30	25.1	
				5	qtz	20	-	253	-					-	-	3	qtz	156	-	-	-56.50	26	
				5	qtz	21	-	252.1	-					-	-	3	qtz	157	-	-	-56.80	21.9	
				5	qtz	22	-22.8	207.7	21.92					-	-	4	qtz	158	-	-	-58.07	19.9	
				5	qtz	23	-22.8	280.6	21.92					-	-	4	qtz	159	-	-	-56.50	8.9	
				5	qtz	25	-	267.2	-					-	-	5	qtz	160	-	-	-57.09	17.2	
				5	qtz	26																	







**Table 8. Stable (O-C) and radiogenic (Sr) isotope, and ICP-OES/ICP-MS analyses of vein carbonates at Blanchet Island, Copper Pass, Labelle Peninsula and Rabbit Lake**

Sample no.	Location	$^{87}\text{Rb}/^{86}\text{Sr}$	$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}_e$	StdErr (Abs)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{VPDB}}$	$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}}$	Al	Ba	Ca	Fe	K	Mg	Mn	Na	Rb	Sr	1/Sr
					‰	‰											
01A-carbvein	Blanchet Island	0.001	0.709655	0.000009	-2.73	12.1	0.00	4.03	372544	2600	bdl	2875	1157	94.6	0.06	144	0.007
01A-Host	Blanchet Island	0.034	0.709791	0.000030	-2.49	13.5	695	3.29	147508	17629	29.5	51178	1448	224	0.37	31.0	0.032
01C-M	Blanchet Island	0.006	0.710387	0.000178	-2.02	13.0	5.42	4.00	137339	19052	4.85	63851	1747	96.9	0.08	35.4	0.028
01-ore pile	Blanchet Island	0.005	0.710065	0.000037	-2.73	13.4	13.8	4.66	136250	22878	0.000	64107	1617	106	0.06	37.7	0.027
SL-M-1-2	Copper Pass	0.004	0.710704	0.000016	-4.06	11.3	113	7.67	116062	46057	6.74	51569	2329	63.3	0.14	113	0.009
SL-M-2-1	Copper Pass	0.015	0.710555	0.000049	-1.32	14.1	56.6	7.60	140703	76225	bdl	50268	3596	91.3	0.11	20.1	0.050
SL-W-2-1	Copper Pass	0.016	0.708093	0.000085	-3.04	16.2	38.9	3.04	129059	28786	bdl	67120	2469	73.9	0.08	14.0	0.072
SL-M-2-3	Copper Pass	0.006	0.719578	0.006177	-1.13	15.4	37.8	4.18	124656	84205	bdl	37165	4675	76.2	0.04	17.7	0.057
SL-W-2-3	Copper Pass	0.001	0.712067	0.000019	-3.15	11.7	26.7	2.66	118664	47030	bdl	52448	3511	63.0	0.05	104	0.010
03B-U	Copper Pass	0.008	0.709432	0.000149	-2.56	10.8	33.5	3.83	132900	53447	bdl	57864	2604	96.7	0.08	29.2	0.034
LB-2B-1	Labelle Peninsula	0.029	0.711159	0.000046	0.19	18.7	74.0	9.43	148772	81935	bdl	50966	5718	89.2	0.24	23.1	0.043
JH-1	Rabbit Lake	0.031	0.708198	0.000078	-5.08	24.4	43.5	3.11	52162	334.98	bdl	32913	319	41.8	0.09	8.33	0.120
JH-2	Rabbit Lake	0.026	0.708191	0.000067	-4.22	23.4	21.5	2.67	46293	449.64	bdl	29036	421	44.3	0.03	3.74	0.268
JH-3	Rabbit Lake	0.004	0.709081	0.000015	-4.16	21.1	25.3	3.08	67905	1439.08	6.99	29234	2266	59.4	0.03	20.0	0.050
JH-4	Rabbit Lake	0.021	0.708156	0.000024	-4.53	22.2	29.5	2.70	71624	738.70	bdl	44347	563	54.8	0.06	7.44	0.134

Notes: bdl= below detection limits



**Table 9. Secondary ion mass spectrometry oxygen isotope data in early zoned quartz, Copper Pass**

analysis	<sup>18</sup> O (‰)	zone	analysis	<sup>18</sup> O (‰)	zone	analysis	<sup>18</sup> O (‰)	zone
CT-2-20	3.9	A	CT-4-08	7.0	C	P05	16.7	D3
CT-3-04	4.6	A	CT-5-04	7.3	C	JB-13	13.7	D3
CT-2-24	4.7	A	CT-3-15	8.2	C	JB-14	13.0	D3
CT-3-06	5.0	A	CT-5-10	10.6	C	JB-15	13.5	D3
CT-3-10	7.4	A	CT-4-09	5.2	D1	JB-16	15.6	D3
CT-3-07	4.0	B	CT-6-01	10.8	D1	JB-17	15.6	D3
CT-2-26	4.7	B	CT-6-03	11.0	D1	P07	15.5	E
CT-3-09	7.6	B	CT-3-01	11.7	D1	P08	15.1	E
CT-3-08	5.8	B	CT-5-09	12.3	D1	P11	12.6	E
CT-2-30	6.0	B	P18	11.1	D1	P01	16.8	E
CT-2-32	4.0	B	P14	10.1	D1	P02	15.5	E
CT-3-11	8.4	B	P09	9.3	D1	P16	21.0	E
CT-2-35	5.6	B	P06	6.2	D1	P17	16.6	E
CT-2-28	7.3	B	JB-22	11.9	D1	P20	20.1	E
CT-3-13	8.5	B	JB-23	9.8	D1	P21	17.6	E
CT-2-25	7.1	B	JB-24	10.7	D1	CT-3-29	9.2	E
CT-3-17	8.6	B	JB-25	10.4	D1	CT-3-27	10.3	E
CT-2-31	5.2	B	JB-26	10.0	D1	CT-5-02	15.1	E
CT-3-18	7.4	B	JB-27	9.0	D1	CT-3-36	15.9	E
CT-2-33	5.6	B	JB-28	8.0	D1	CT-3-38	16.4	E
CT-3-19	10.4	B	JB-29	8.3	D1	CT-4-01	16.9	E
CT-2-34	5.7	B	JB-31	11.3	D1	CT-2-41	16.9	E
CT-2-37	6.8	C	JB-33	12.0	D1	CT-2-40	6.7	E
CT-3-02	8.4	C	JB-34	9.4	D1	CT-2-42	7.5	E
CT-4-05	9.0	C	CT-4-04	9.2	D2	CT-3-23	11.2	E
CT-6-07	11.6	C	CT-6-08	9.4	D2	CT-3-39	13.9	E
CT-5-05	6.3	C	CT-5-13	11.8	D2	CT-5-01	15.1	E
CT-5-12	8.5	C	CT-3-21	14.2	D2	CT-6-04	16.1	E
CT-5-06	9.2	C	P04	6.9	D2	JB-4	18.4	E
CT-5-14	9.6	C	P10	6.8	D2	JB-5	19.2	E
CT-4-06	6.1	C	P13	8.2	D2	JB-6	22.6	E
CT-3-03	7.2	C	CT-6-02	9.8	D3	JB-7	22.4	E
CT-2-16	8.5	C	CT-4-10	15.3	D3	JB-10	19.7	E
CT-5-11	8.7	C	CT-5-03	16.8	D3	JB-11	20.7	E
CT-2-14	9.7	C	CT-6-06	19.8	D3	JB-12	21.6	E
CT-6-05	10.2	C	P03	15.3	D3	JB-18	17.3	E
CT-5-08	10.3	C	P19	19.9	D3	JB-19	19.7	E
CT-3-22	11.7	C	P15	20.2	D3	JB-20	19.5	E
CT-4-07	6.8	C	P12	11.7	D3	JB-21	19.1	E

Notes: <sup>1</sup>uncertainty on analysis = 1.2‰ (1σ); spot-to-spot reproducibility on quartz standard = 0.5‰. <sup>2</sup> zones classification based on hot cathode CL fluorescence colouration; A=core, dark (black-blue); B=core, mid (pink-orange); C=bright (pink-orange); D1=transitional (very bright yellow-pink); D2=transitional (very bright pink); D3=(very bright blue); E=rim (dark black-blue); coeval bitumen and fluid inclusions hosted in D3, at or near the D2-D3 interface

Table 10. K-U-Th scintillometry (concentrations equivalency derived from activity) on mineralized veins at Copper Pass

Sample	K %	U ppm	Th ppm	Sample	K %	U ppm	Th ppm
15JB03A1	1.2	14	7.9	15JB03-R	1.5	9.7	8.7
15JB03A1	1.3	19.2	6	15JB04A	1	55.7	6.2
15JB03A2	1.3	116.7	9.9	15JB04B	1.6	9.7	5.7
15JB03A2	1.5	14.9	7.1	15JB05A	1.5	12.9	6.5
15JB03B	1.8	115.6	5	15JB05A	1.5	10.3	7.2
15JB03B	1.1	12.5	7.9	15JB05B-V	1.4	19.9	4.7
15JB03B	1.7	29	3.3	15JB05B	1.4	8.9	7.8
15JB03B	1.5	66.9	4.1	15JB05B	1.3	70.8	5.5
15JB03B	1.9	68.5	9.9	15JB05C	1.5	9.7	7.2
15JB03C	1.6	6.7	4.7	15JB05C	1.4	9.6	7.6
15JB03C	1.2	6.4	8.1				