### AGE AND ORIGIN OF THE BRUCEJACK EPITHERMAL AU-AG DEPOSIT, NORTHWESTERN BRITISH COLUMBIA

by

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#### **ABSTRACT**

<span id="page-1-0"></span>Brucejack is an epithermal Au-Ag deposit located in northwestern British Columbia. The deposit is one of many world-class economic deposits that formed in association with extensive volcanic arc-related magmatism in Late Triassic–Early Jurassic time in the Canadian Cordillera. Brucejack mineralization is hosted by island arc-related Early Jurassic porphyritic latite flows, volcanic ash–block-sized fragmental rocks, and volcanic sandstones, siltstones and conglomerates. The variably altered and mineralized volcanic host rocks yield U-Pb zircon dates ranging between  $196.4 \pm 0.7$  Ma and approximately 184 Ma. Molybednite Re-Os age estimates for mineralization at Brucejack range between  $191.7 \pm 0.8$  Ma (Bridge Zone) and  $188.9 \pm 0.8$  Ma (West Zone). Individual mineralizing events spanning  $\sim$ 3 m.y. are unlikely, and multiple pulses of ore formation are more probable, whereby earlier intermediate-sulfidation-style epithermal Au-Ag mineralization (Bridge Zone and Valley of the Kings), which was perhaps distally related to porphyry-type hydrothermal activity, was followed by a younger low-sulfidation epithermal Ag-Au event (West Zone).

Brucejack is crosscut by late stage andesite–basaltic andesite amygdaloidal dykes, which truncate all mineralized veins, and which are crosscut by late stage (postmineralization) quartz-calcite veins. A U-Pb zircon age of  $182.7 \pm 1.0$  Ma has been determined for one of these dykes, providing a minimum age for mineralization. With the exception of West Zone, the deposit shows features typical of intermediate-sulfidation epithermal deposits, characterized by the presence of crustiform and cockade vein textures, minor open space filling, the presence of various sulfosalt minerals, including tetrahedrite-tennantite, chalcopyrite, and FeS-poor sphalerite, scarce arsenopyrite,

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absence of pyrrhotite, and the vertical extent of mineralization is >1000 m. Wallrocks at Brucejack are moderately phyllic-altered, with variable amounts of pervasive and texturally destructive sericite, pyrite, quartz, and carbonate. Early sericitization and pyritization is recognized, as well as hydrothermal sericitization contemporaneous with gold mineralization.

Five vein stages have been recognized at the Valley of the Kings: (I) highly deformed and discontinuous pyrite stringer veins containing carbonate and quartz commonly with chlorite and sericite-altered vein margins, containing no electrum; (II) weakly deformed quartz-carbonate stockwork veins, breccias veins, and subvertical stringer quartz vein networks, also hosting electrum; (III) Zn-Pb-(Cu) sulfide veins containing Ag-sulfosalts and electrum; (IV) highly deformed carbonate  $\pm$  quartz veins containing abundant orange-coloured, manganoan calcite and electrum; (V) late stage quartz-carbonate shear veins with asymmetrical sericite, chlorite, and pyrite vein banding, often with associated subhorizontal tension gash veins.

Fluid inclusions from vein generations II, III, and IV have relatively low homogenization temperatures (means of  $166 \pm 11^{\circ}$ C,  $n = 25$ ;  $154 \pm 18^{\circ}$ C,  $n = 89$ ;  $156 \pm 18^{\circ}$  $9^{\circ}$ C,  $n = 34$ , respectively) and a narrow range in salinity (0.5 to 7.4 wt % NaCl equiv.; n = 54), with the exception of stage III veins which have a range of 0.5 to 15.5 wt % NaCl equiv. (*n* = 89). Evidence for boiling is recognized in stages II and IV, and therefore homogenization temperatures can be taken as approximating the actual trapping temperature. Boiling is thought to be responsible for the deposition of high-grade gold mineralization for these vein stages in the VOK, where gold precipitated from condensed magmatic liquids during near-surface depressurization. Stage III fluid inclusion

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assemblages indicate fluid mixing between cooler, more saline meteoric fluids and warmer, dilute magmatic fluids resulting in Pb-Zn-Ag-Au deposition.

Oxygen isotopic compositions of vein quartz and calcite (calculated  $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$ values ranging from -9.8 to -1.5‰ and -5.8 to +1.4‰ respectively) indicate a progressive dilution from modified magmatic fluids mixing with metal-depleted meteoric surface waters. Carbon and sulfur isotopic compositions also suggest a magmatic source for these components in electrum-bearing veins; hydrothermal calcites have mean  $\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$  value of  $-6.4 \pm 1.3$  ‰ ( $n = 25$ ), and sulfur isotopic compositions of pyrite, sphalerite, and galena average  $-0.7 \pm 0.3$  % ( $n = 16$ ). With consideration to fluid inclusion and stable isotope analysis, a magmatic fluid is the most likely source for bonanza gold mineralization in the Valley of the Kings at Brucejack.

### <span id="page-4-0"></span>**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

My sincerest thanks and gratitude is extended to Dr. Jeremy Richards for his patient mentorship throughout the last three years. Jeremy, you have shown me the value of concise scientific writing and have encouraged me to think more critically academically and personally.

I am also indebted to Dr. Warwick Board and Charles Greig for their ongoing support, geological insight and knowledge. Certainly their endless debates helped influence the current understanding at Brucejack. Charles provided a large amount of raw data for the lithogeochemistry for this project, of which I am deeply grateful for. Much of the U/Pb zircon dating has also been gathered from painstaking hours in the field from these two, and is certainly an asset to the property. Early renditions of the vein paragenesis were constructed by Warwick and Charles, and have since stood the test of time. Further thanks are extended to the entire geology team at Brucejack, for their support, and geological contributions.

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Dr. Robert Creaser is thanked for his contributions to the project, where his isotope lab yielded several Re-Os molybdenite ages, providing dates for mineralized veins on the system. Terry Spell is thanked for several Ar/Ar dates, which helped in the understanding of the property.

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#### <span id="page-15-0"></span>**SOURCES OF DATA**

S. Tombe collected ten samples for whole-rock lithogeochemistry, where analyses were done at Actlabs (Ancaster, Ontario). Re-Os (molybdenite) samples were collected and submitted to R. Creaser at the University of Alberta for analysis. Two U-Pb (zircon) samples were collected, where A. DuFrane ran analyses at the University of Alberta. Four phyllosilicate samples were collected for  ${}^{40}Ar/{}^{39}Ar$  geochronology and sent to T. Spell at the University of Nevada for analysis. Several thin sections were examined for fluid inclusions, where nine thin sections were chosen and analyzed by S. Tombe at the University of Alberta. S. Tombe also collected thirty-one calcite vein samples, where he isolated carbon and oxygen isotopes; purified samples were submitted to O. Levner for ICP-MS analysis at the University of Alberta. S. Tombe collected fifteen quartz vein samples, where they were sent to P. Larson for analysis at Washington State University GeoAnalytical Lab. Thirteen sulfide samples were also collected by S. Tombe and sent to the Isotope Science Laboratory at the University of Calgary for analysis. S. Tombe contributed to the vein paragenesis with a detailed petrographic analysis.

C. Greig constructed geologic maps used by Ireland et al., 2013 and are presented herein. Seventy-two samples for whole-rock lithogeochemistry were collected by C. Greig, and sent to ALS (Vancouver, British Columbia) for analysis. Twelve samples were also collected for U-Pb (zircon) dating and sent to the Pacific Center for Isotopic and Geochemical Research (PCIGR) facility at the University of British Columbia, where analyses were done by R. Friedman. C. Greig, together with W. Board, established early renditions of the vein paragenesis.

## <span id="page-16-0"></span>**1.0 Introduction**

The Sulphurets mineral district of northwest British Columbia lies within a remote mountainous region of the Canadian Cordillera in the western part of the Stikinia (or Stikine) tectonic terrane (Fig. 1). Over 20 mineralized zones and showings occur in the mineral district (Roach and MacDonald, 1992), and the area has been heavily explored and prospected for over a century. Several world-class deposits have been found in the area in addition to the Brucejack deposit including: Eskay Creek, Snip, Johnny Mountain, Kerr, Sulphurets, Mitchell, Granduc, Scottie Gold, Silbak-Premier, and Big Missouri (Fig. 2). The Kerr-Sulphurets-Mitchell (KSM) deposits, located approximately 5 km to the west of the Brucejack deposit, collectively comprise the Sulphurets Mining Camp.



Figure 1: Map of British Columbia showing relevant accreted terranes within the Intermontane and Insular Belts. Modified from Nelson and Colpron (2011)



Figure 2: Regional geological map of the Iskut River region showing major mineral occurrences (modified from Ghaffari et al., 2010). Inset map shows location within British Columbia.

The region was first prospected in the 1880s, with continued interest recently by several exploration companies. Pretium Resources Inc. and Seabridge Gold Inc. staked large claims throughout the Sulphurets mineral district in the last decade. Pretium is currently focusing exploration on the Valley of the Kings (VOK) section of the Brucejack deposit, which is composed of high-grade Au-Ag quartz-carbonate stockwork vein system. Mineralization at Brucejack contains proven and probable reserves of 16.5 Mt grading 14.1 g/t Au (7.5 Moz Au) and 58 g/t Ag (30.7 Moz Ag) (VOK and West Zone collectively; Ireland et al., 2014).

At surface, throughout the Sulphurets mining camp, large pyritic gossans are present and are cospatial with mineralized stockworks and breccia veins. Mineralization is hosted in quartz and calcite veins and concentrated throughout Lower to Middle Jurassic Hazelton Group volcanic and sedimentary rocks, and occurs as sphalerite, galena, chalcopyrite, rutile, Ag-sulfosalts, electrum, minor arsenopyrite and acanthite, and rare molybdenite. Mineral showings throughout the area range from porphyry deposits (Cu-Au, Cu, and possibly Au-only) to mesothermal and epithermal vein deposits (MacDonald, 1993). At Brucejack, stockwork veining and breccia-veins, and minor vuggy quartz along with adularia, acanthite, and bladed calcite suggest that ore-forming conditions were near surface, and likely involved boiling. However, the absence of openspace fillings and higher molybdenite contents at the Bridge and West Zone prospects suggest deeper levels of deposition for these parts of the deposit, perhaps reflecting a mesothermal or porphyry-style system.

Several previous studies have described the geology and mineralization of the West Zone prospect (Roach and MacDonald, 1992; MacDonald, 1993; Davies et al.,

1994; Kirkham and Margolis, 1995; MacDonald, 1996). However, data are limited to this part of the deposit, and a comprehensive paragenetic and deposit model for the larger Brucejack system is not well developed. In this study we attempt to address this shortcoming by constraining the absolute timing of volcanism and hydrothermal mineralization, establishing the tectonomagmatic affiliation from whole rock lithogeochemistry, establishing a vein paragenesis, and identifying the compositions, temperatures, and sources of ore-forming fluids from fluid inclusion and stable isotope studies.

### <span id="page-20-0"></span>**2.0 Mesozoic–Present Cordilleran Tectonics and Geologic History**

The Canadian Cordillera is host to a considerable number of economic deposits that were formed as a consequence of arc-related magmatism throughout the Late Triassic–Early Jurassic. The northwestern Cordillera is subdivided into five tectonic belts that were accreted to the ancient Laurentian craton beginning in the Late Proterozoic, some 750 million years ago (Monger and Price, 2002). From east to west these tectonostratigraphic belts include the Foreland, Omineca, Intermontane, Coast, and Insular belts. The Brucejack deposit is located on the western margin of the Intermontane Belt.

These large tectonic provinces can be divided into several terranes, each having fault-bounded margins and dissociated or "suspect" relationships to adjacent terranes as well as the continent (Fig. 1; Nelson and Colpron, 2007). The Intermontane belt contains several comparable terranes that formed along the North American margin in the Paleozoic to Early Mesozoic, and which have been identified as an affiliated set of

volcanic arcs, marginal seas, and continental fragments (Colpron, 2007). The major parautochthonous, marginal pericratonic terranes belonging to the Intermontane belt include the Yukon-Tanana, Quesnellia, and Stikine terranes (Nelson and Colpron, 2007), collectively comprising the peri-Laurentian realm. The Brucejack deposit is found on the western margin of the Stikine terrane, adjacent to the Coast Complex and the later accreted Alexander and Wrangellia terranes (Fig. 1).

The peri-Laurentian realm abuts a distinctive sequence of Devonian to Permian pillow basalt, gabbro, ultramafic, chert, argillite, and minor carbonaceous rocks of the Slide Mountain terrane (Coney, 1989), which is positioned more inboard and to the east. The Mississippian to Upper Triassic Cache Creek oceanic accretionary complex also bounds this belt of parautochthonous terranes on its eastern margin, and consists of chert, argillite, carbonate, mafic volcanic rock, and alpine-type ultramafic rocks (Monger, 1977; Monger et al., 1978). Paleontological studies indicate that the amalgamated belt of terranes was 2000–3000 km longitudinally offset from the western perimeter of the North American craton by the Early Permian (Belasky et al., 2002). By the Late Permian, subduction of the Slide Mountain Ocean brought the peri-Laurentian realm, or remnants of the Intermontane terranes, closer to North American margin (Colpron et al., 2007).

The current positions of the Intermontane terranes present an enigma, because Stikinia has accreted to the western margin of the Cache Creek terrane, whereas in the late Paleozoic Stikinia is thought to have been located to the east of the Cache Creek terrane. Two competing mechanisms have been suggested to explain this relationship: (1) northward strike-slip fault movement and juxtaposition of Stikinia to the western reaches of the Cache Creek terrane (Wernicke and Klepacki, 1998); or (2) anti-clockwise

oroclinal rotation of the Stikine terrane with no latitudinal variation (Mihalynuk et al., 1994). By comparing stratigraphic, paleomagnetic, and faunal characteristics of the Stikine terrane with other terranes in the Cordilleran collage, Wernicke and Klepacki (1998) suggested that Stikinia tectonically escaped northward via strike-slip faulting beginning in Middle Jurassic time with the collision and penetration of Wrangellia into North America. This tectonic escape led to juxtaposition of Stikinia with the western margin of the Cache Creek terrane (Fig. 1). Although palaeobiogeographic evidence allows for northward advance of Stikinia since Sinemurian and Pliensbachian times, conflicting paleomagnetic results show minimal latitudinal displacements (Mihalynuk et al., 1994; Aberhan, 1999) and can not be explained by this model.

A more popular model, first proposed by Mihalynuk et al. (1994), circumvents the problem of latitudinal displacement and is in concordance with palaeobiological, palaeomagnetic, and stratigraphic data. This model suggests a counter-clockwise oroclinal rotation of Stikinia, pivoting at the Yukon-Tanana terrane (Fig. 3). The enclosure of the Cache Creek Ocean, separating Quesnellia from the more outboard Stikine terrane, occurred by the early Mesozoic. Oroclinal rotation was caused by either: (1) oblique-sinistral convergence of the ancient Pacific oceanic plate with the Stikinia-Quesnellia arc; or (2) trench rollback, resulting in arc migration toward the subduction zone (Mihalyuk et al., 1994; Norkleberg et al., 2000). Distribution patterns of ammonites and bivalves suggest that rotation occurred prior to the Pliensbachian (Aberhan, 1999).



Figure 3: Paleogeographic map of western margin of Canadian Pacific in the Early Jurassic (modified from Nelson and Colpron, 2007; Colpron and Nelson, 2011).

In the final stages of Stikinia rotation, prior to enclosure and collision with the Cache Creek terrane, Stikinia was not part of the Intermontane Superterrane as suggested by Monger et al. (1982). Instead it consisted of an oceanic micro plate with subduction occurring on opposing margins: the Pacific oceanic lithosphere was subducting from the west and the Cache Creek ocean basin from the east (Fig. 4; Marsden and Thorkelson, 1992). This tectonic disposition, analogous to the modern Philippine archipelago (Marsden and Thorkelson, 1992; Thorkelson et al., 1995; Nelson and Colpron, 2007; Gagnon et al., 2012), provided ideal conditions for large-scale volcanism. This arc

magmatism is associated with scores of Late Triassic to Early Jurassic porphyry Cu-Au and Cu-Mo, and porphyry-affiliated deposits throughout Stikinia, making it one of the most significant groups of deposits in British Columbia (Nelson and Colpron, 2007). The duration and complexity of tectonics along the passive western margin of the North American craton at this time is attributed to rich mineral deposits such as the Brucjeack deposit in northwestern British Columbia.



Figure 4: Proposed tectonic setting of the Hazelton volcanic belt in the Early Jurassic. Subduction occurs symmetrically beneath the Stikine micro plate beginning in early Hettangian. Based on subduction rates of 7 cm/yr, positions of the descending oceanic plates are shown for 1.5, 5, and 10 m.y. of subduction (modified from Marsden and Thorkelson, 1992).

The Jurassic period in the Canadian Cordillera saw the Laurentian cratonic margin evolve from a series of island arcs, marginal basins, and offshore crustal blocks and fragments to an accretionary orogen (Gagnon et al., 2012). Monger et al. (1972) suggested that the Stikinia and Cache Creek terranes had accreted by Late Triassic time based on evidence that radiolarian chert of the Cache Creek terrane is intercalated with greywacke coeval with Upper Triassic volcaniclastic rocks of Stikinia. However, Cordey et al. (1987) showed that deposition of radiolarian cherts continued to at least Pliensbachian to Bajocian time, suggesting an Early–Middle Jurassic age of accretion. Furthermore, Cache Creek deformation is estimated to have occurred at around  $152 \pm 5$ Ma (K-Ar on hornblende; Mortimer, 1987) for southern British Columbia latitudes, indicating a Middle Jurassic age of regional deformation and accretion. Thus, accretion of the Stikinia and the Cache Creek accretionary complex to North America is considered to have occurred by the Middle Jurassic (Mortimer, 1987; Cordey et al., 1987; Samson et al., 1989; Norkleberg et al., 2000; Mihalynuk et al., 2004).

As the Stikine terrane impinged and eventually collided with the already accreted Quesnel terrane, Hazelton Group volcanism, which hosts the Brucejack deposit, waned and ultimately stopped, as did volcanism in Quesnellia. With Stikinia-Quesnellia arc accretion beginning at about 185 Ma (Norkleberg et al., 2000), the Cache Creek accretionary complex and remaining ocean floor became trapped between the two arcs (Nelson and Colpron, 2007) and signaled the start of mountain building in the North American Cordillera. Multiple southward-oriented thrust faults and affiliated folds involving Triassic and Jurassic strata in northern Stikinia were formed from the convergence of the Cache Creek terrane, likely producing the King Salmon Fault

(Gabrielse, 1991). By the Early Jurassic the Stikine terrane underthrust the Cache Creek terrane along the SW-verging Nahlin and King Salmon faults (Monger and Price, 2002). Sedimentary detritus from the overthrust Cache Creek terrane deposited in the Bower Basin, a large, deep, subsiding sedimentary basin (Gagnon et al., 2012). Deep-water siliclastic sedimentary rocks consisting of siltstones, shale, sandstone, and conglomerate were deposited and collectively contribute to 4000 m of Bowser Basin Group stratigraphy (Evenchick, 1991, and references therein).

The amalgamation and eventual accretion of the Intermontane and Insular superterranes to the continent coincided roughly with the separation of North America from Africa (~180 Ma; Coney, 1972), leading to the opening of the Atlantic Ocean. The North American plate began to move rapidly westward causing outboard terranes to collide (Nelson et al., 2013), and culminating with accretion and collision of the Insular Belt terranes. Accretion of the Alexander and Wrangellia terranes to the western margin of Stikinia caused crustal thickening by tectonic stacking of crustal slabs (Crawford et al., 1987); estimated pressures exceeding 7 kbar through prograde metamorphism in highgrade metasedimentary rocks suggest depths of burial >25 km (Monger et al., 1982). Subsequent thrusting tectonically exhumed the supracrustal rocks, which form part of the Coast Plutonic metamorphic sequence. Late Cretaceous east-directed thrusting is recognized up to 700 km along the eastern margin of the Coast Plutonic Complex (Rushmore and Woodsworth, 1991), which is composed of mainly of metamorphic and plutonic rocks ranging in age from Jurassic to Eocene (Coney and Evenchick, 1994).

Through the Early Jurassic into the late Paleocene (185–58 Ma) the arc region was mainly under compression coupled with sinistral and dextral transpression (Monger

and Price, 2002), leading to considerable strike-slip movements throughout the Canadian Cordillera. This transcurrent motion, mainly established on consolidated terrane boundaries, likely occurred in response to oblique subduction (Monger et al., 1972). This Early Cretaceous deformation affected much of the eastern margin of the Coast Plutonic Complex (Rusmore and Woodsworth, 1991), including Brucejack rocks and the surrounding area. The deformation was accompanied by metamorphism throughout much of Stikinia. Metamorphic grade throughout the region is lower greenschist facies, with maximum temperatures and pressures of  $\sim$ 290 $\degree$ C and 4.5 kbar respectively (Alldrick, 1993). From field relationships, Alldrick (1993) suggested that metamorphism and deformation was restricted to between the deposition of 175 Ma sedimentary rocks in the Stewart mining camp and the intrusion of the unaltered 55 Ma Hyder Plutonic Suite.

The largest exposure of contractionally deformed rocks east of the Coast Belt is the Skeena Fold Belt (Crawford et al., 1987; Evenchick, 2001). The Skeena Fold Belt is a regional fold and thrust belt occurring mainly in the sedimentary detritus of the Bowser Basin, and stretches nearly the entire width of the northern Intermontane Belt (Evenchick, 1991a, b, 2001). Crustal thickening in the Coast Plutonic Complex, with dextral strikeslip faulting east of the Skeena Fold Belt, and shortening and compression in the Rocky Mountain Fold and Thrust Belt resulted in as much as 160 km of northeastward shortening in the Skeena Fold Belt (Evenchick, 1991a). The McTagg anticlinorium and the southeasterly directed Sulphurets thrust fault (two other structurally significant features in northwestern Stikinia; Fig. 5), are consistent with Late Jurassic to Early Tertiary structural features in the Skeena Fold Belt, located 150 km to the northwest (Bridge, 1993). Additionally, throughout the Late Cretaceous and extending into the

Tertiary, 860 km of northward translation of the Intermontane terranes occurred along dextral transcurrent strike-slip faults (Denali and Tintina Faults; Gabrielse et al., 2006; Colpron et al., 2007): this is not to be confused with northward strike-slip faulting occurring in the Middle Jurassic suggested by Wernicke and Klepacki (1998).



Figure 5: Regional geologic map showing relevant structural features and proximal deposits (modified from Kirkham and Margolis, 1995).

By the Middle Eocene (~45 Ma) Cordilleran magmatism had waned and volcanism had shifted to the Aleutian arc and Cascades of southern British Columbia and western United States (Norkleberg, 2005; Nelson and Colpron, 2007). Shortly thereafter, by ~40 Ma, formation of the Coast Plutonic Complex suddenly ended, perhaps in response to interrupted subduction off the west coast of Canada (Nelson and Colpron, 2007). At this time in the late Cenozoic the Pacific margin may have experienced decreased compressive stress due to slowed subduction of the easterly subducting Juan de Fuca plate and northerly subducting Pacific plate (Coney, 1987), possibly shifting volcanism to the current tectonic regime.

#### <span id="page-30-0"></span>**3.0 Regional Geological Setting of the Brucejack Deposit**

The Sulphurets mineral district is located in western Stikinia and is approximately 25 km east of the Coast Plutonic Complex, which is dominated by Tertiary igneous intrusions and high-grade metamorphic rocks (Kirkham and Margolis, 1995). Regionally, the mineral district is underlain by the Early Devonian to late Paleozoic Stikine assemblage (Monger, 1977), Late Triassic volcanic and sedimentary rocks of the Stuhini and Talka Groups (Monger and Church, 1977; Brown and Greig, 1989), Early to Middle Jurassic rocks (mainly volcanic) of the Hazelton Group (Marsden and Thorkelson, 1992), which host the Brucejack deposit, and Middle Jurassic to Middle Cretaceous sedimentary rocks belonging to the Bowser Lake Group (Ricketts et al., 1992).

The Stikine assemblage, as described by Monger (1977), consists of upper Paleozoic rocks exposed around the perimeter of the Bowser Basin and west and southwest of the Cache Creek Group accretionary complex. The Stikine assemblage is present as northwest to northeast-trending belts of Early to Middle Devonian, Carboniferous, and Permian rocks in the Iskut River area (Brown et al., 1991), and is the stratigraphic basement of Stikinia. This unit consists of Lower to Middle Devonian deformed and metamorphosed dacitic to rhyolitic lithic tuffs with lesser intermediate to mafic flows with thinly interbedded laminated sandstones, carbonate, shale, minor chert and aphanitic dacitic tuffs (Gunning, 1990; Monger, 1977).

Uplift and erosion within the Permo-Triassic (Tahltanian) period led to unconformable deposition of Late Triassic Stuhini Group volcaniclastic rocks onto Early Permian limestone of the Stikine assemblage (Logan and Koyanagi, 1994). Stuhini Group stratigraphy consists of dark grey turbiditic siltstone interbedded with minor micritic limestone (Kirkham and Margolis, 1995), subaqueous mafic crystal-lithic lapilli tuff, lapilli tuff-breccia, and ash tuff (Brown and Greig, 1990), and pyroxene-phyric breccia flows interlayered with massive andesites and coarse-bladed feldspar porphyry flows (Logan and Koyanagi, 1994). Stuhini Group dark turbiditic sandstones are found to the immediate west of the Brucejack deposit. The Talka Group stratigraphically overlies the Stuhini Group succession, and consists of subaerial and submarine intermediate lava flows and breccias with interbedded sedimentary conglomerate and shale (Monger and Church, 1977).

The Early to Middle Jurassic Hazelton Group unconformably overlies the Late Triassic Stuhini and Talka Groups and is composed of diverse volcanic rocks including: subaerial to subaqueous heterogeneous mafic to felsic volcanic rocks (tholeiitic to calcalkaline compositions), polymictic conglomerate, sandstone, and other coarse-grained interbedded sedimentary rocks (Tipper and Richards, 1976). Calc-alkaline and tholeiitic

rocks are geochemically constrained by depletions of Nb and Ti, and enrichments in large ion lithophile elements relative to high-field-strength elements (Marsden and Thorkelson, 1992), indicating a subduction-related genesis. Marsden and Thorkelson (1992) suggested that Hazelton Group magmatism persisted for about 35 m.y. from the Hettangian or lower Sinemurian to the Bajocian.

Brucejack mineralization is hosted by Hazelton Group rocks, and in the Iskut River area they have been subdivided into five formations: the Jack, Unuk River, Betty Creek, Mount Dilworth, and Salmon River Formations (Fig. 6; Grove, 1989; Anderson and Thorkelson, 1990; Gagnon et al., 2012). The Brucejack deposit is contained within the Unuk River and Betty Creek Formations. Lower Hazelton Group volcanic rocks are calc-alkaline to tholeiitic and have typical arc geochemical signatures (Anderson and Thorkelson, 1990; Logan et al., 2000). Deposition was likely in oxidizing subaerial environments, probably building stratovolcanoes within an evolving arc system (Alldrick et al., 1989; Gagnon, 2012).

The basal unit of the Hazelton Group, the Jack Formation, is exposed along the edge of the northern and northwestern limbs of the McTagg anticlinorium to the northwest of the Brucejack deposit (Fig. 5; Jakobs and Palfy, 1994). The Jack Formation is comprised of granitoid-clast conglomerate and limy fossiliferous sandstone and siltstone horizons (Kirkham and Margolis, 1995). Ammonoid and bivalve assemblages found locally within calcareous mudstone provide a Hettangian–Sinemurian age constraint (MacDonald et al., 1996). The Jack Formation is succeeded by thick accumulations of hornblende-plagioclase-phyric andesitic to dacitic flows and subordinate volcanic breccias and fragmental rocks with local interbedded lapilli–block

tuff, and minor volcaniclastic wacke of the Unuk River Formation (MacDonald et al., 1996). These rocks are overlain by the Betty Creek Formation, a distinct succession of andesitic and dacitic pyroclastic and epiclastic rocks, interbedded by mafic flows and dark carbonaceous mudstone (Kirkham and Margolis, 1995), which have a variable vertical thickness of up to 1200 m (Alldrick, 1993). Maroon-coloured clastic sedimentary rocks of the Betty Creek Formation are disconformably overlain by massive, aphanitic green to maroon ash tuffs of the Mount Dilworth Formation (Alldrick, 1993). The Mount Dilworth Formation contains felsic pyroclastic rocks and flows, and also includes thin interbedded welded and non-welded tuffaceous rocks (Roach and MacDonald, 1992). The resistive nature of the felsic pyroclastic and flow horizons coupled with their large lateral extent make the Mount Dilworth Formation an important stratigraphic marker unit.

Pliensbachian fossils in the underlying Betty Creek Formation and Toarcian fossils found in the overlying Salmon River Formation (belemnites and *Weyla*; Anderson and Thorkelson, 1990) constrain the age of the Mount Dilworth Formation to the Early Jurassic (Marsden and Thorkelson, 1992). The complexly folded Salmon River Formation is composed of siltstones and wackes with locally interbedded homogeneous conglomerates, limestones, tuffaceous siltstones (Alldrick, 1993), and voluminous basaltic sequences, which occur as pillowed to massive flows in the eastern Iskut River area (MacDonald et al., 1992). These mafic volcanic rocks host the Eskay Creek precious metal-rich volcanogenic massive sulfide deposit.

It should be recognized that both Anderson and Thorkelson (1990) and Alldrick (1993) suggested that the Salmon River Formation belongs to the upper Hazelton Group, although Britton (1991) and Henderson et al. (1992) suggested that it belongs to the lower

Bowser Lake Group. Hazelton Group rocks are conformably overlain by the Middle Jurassic to Middle Cretaceous Bowser Lake Group and are composed of clastic sedimentary rocks consisting of fine-grained subaqueous sandstone, siltstone, and shale with turbidite successions and chert pebble conglomerate (Evenchick et al., 1992).



Figure 6: Regional stratigraphic column (modified from McCrea, 2007; Konkin, 2007)
# **4.0 Brucejack Deposit Geology**

Several authors have published lithostratigraphic observations at, or near, Brucejack Lake (Davies et al., 1994; Henderson et al., 1992; Kirkham and Margolis, 1995; MacDonald, 1993; Roach and MacDonald, 1992), and many authors have published geologic maps of the immediate area (e.g. Kirkham, 1963,1992; Alldrick and Britton, 1988; Britton and Alldrick, 1988; Febbo et al., 2015). Brucejack mineralization occurs within thick sequences of interbedded volcaniclastic sedimentary rocks, and intermediate composition porphyritic lava flows, and crystal–block fragmented tuffaceous rocks of the Early Jurassic Hazelton Group, which overlies the Late Triassic Stuhini Group. Lithological contacts between these differentiated units are mostly sharp, but are commonly gradational between Hazelton Group sedimentary and volcanic rock units. Stuhini Group rocks are found generally to the west of the Brucjeack Fault, where unconformable, younger Hazelton Group rocks occur to the east, suggesting tilted stratigraphy and an eastward younging progression. Stratigraphy at Brucejack is complex due to the severity of folds and faults (Davies et al., 1994), which are suggested to have formed in the Early Jurassic and later in the Cretaceous. The Brucejack deposit appears to have been formed after the main stage of folding, which likely occurred in response to arc collision events on the continental margin, although the exact timing of deformation is unknown due to later Cretaceous deformation. However, strong hydrothermal phyllic alteration and post-mineralization faulting and folding, have also affected Brucejack (see below).

Large pyritic gossans containing intensely sericitized (phyllic) altered rocks occur at surface throughout the Sulphurets mining camp. Mineralization at Brucejack occurs

mainly beneath an approximate north–south trending band of heavily phyllic-altered (quartz-sericite-pyrite) Early Hazelton Group rocks running parallel the Brucejack Fault (a major north–south-trending structure to the immediate west of the deposit). Gold at Brucejack is present as gold-rich electrum and is found in all lower Hazelton Group lithologies.

The deposit is subdivided into nine zones based on mineralization style, alteration, and stratigraphic features. From north to south, these are: Golden Marmot, Bonanza Zone, Gossan Hill, Shore Zone, West Zone, Galena Hill, Valley of the Kings (VOK), Waterloo, and Bridge Zone (Fig. 7). Current exploration is focused on bonanza grade gold mineralization found in the VOK, West Zone, and Bridge Zone prospects, which are the focus of this study (Fig. 8).



Figure 7: Geology of the Brucejack deposit and locations of main mineralized zones (modified from Ghaffari et al., 2010). UTM zone: NAD83-9V.



Figure 8: Detailed map of West Zone to Bridge Zone. Refer to legend in Figure 7 for lithologies. Ore zone boundaries are shown with white dashed line. Black dot indicates location of photo in Figure 9. Cross-section in Figure 10 is defined by solid line with limits A–A'. UTM zone: NAD83-9V (modified from Ireland et al., 2013)

#### **4.1 Ore Zones**

#### 4.1.1. Valley of the Kings

The Valley of the Kings (VOK) zone is defined over a 1000 m southeast– northwest extent, 600 m northeast–southwest, and 650 m in vertical extent from surface (Ireland et al., 2014) and at surface is blanketed by abundant oxidized pyritic gossans (Fig. 9). The mineralization in this zone follows the alignment of Electrum Ridge (Figs. 8 and 9; trending west-northwest to east-southeast), a topographic high where Bridge Zone lies above, to the south. The north–south trending Brucejack fault crosscuts western VOK stratigraphy, where rocks are displaced tens of meters (see below for detailed description). The Valley of the Kings forms a syncline containing moderately sericitized pyroclastic and volcaniclastic sedimentary rocks plunging moderately to the eastsoutheast (Figs. 8 and 10).

Pyroclastic rocks overlie a polymictic conglomerate sequence with abundant pervasive silicification near the basal contact with volcanic sandstone, siltstones, and monomictic conglomerates. Fine-grained plagioclase feldspar  $\pm$  potassium feldspar  $\pm$ hornblende porphyritic volcanic latite flows occur below these volcanic sedimentary rocks (~830 m below surface; not shown in Fig. 10) and extend to unknown depths. Siliceous horizons of strongly and pervasively altered conglomerate occur on both limbs of the syncline and are generally cospatial with intervals of intense stockwork veining and lithological contacts. Adjacent to silica alteration, conglomerates are commonly completely metasomatized to monomineralic green sericite for several meters. Mineralization in this zone occurs mainly in deformed quartz stockwork veins and

breccias, deformed carbonate-quartz stringer veins, and highly deformed pinch and swell carbonate veins. Sparse cockade and crustiform banded veins occur proximal to large stockwork systems in the VOK. Gold is hosted by all lithological units, and Au:Ag ratios in the VOK are typically 2:1 or higher (Ireland et al., 2014). Exploration drilling in this zone commonly intersects high-grade gold, with values as high as 41582 g/t Au over 0.5m.



Figure 9: Photograph looking east over the Valley of the Kings (VOK) prospect showing surface gossans and intense phyllic alteration. Bridge Zone is located to the immediate south of Electrum Ridge.



Figure 10: VOK to West Zone geological section along 426600E (looking west; modified Jones, 2013). High-grade gold blocks are  $10x10$  m, using measured and indicated resource categories.

# 4.1.2. West Zone and Shore Zone

West Zone and Shore Zone rocks are believed to correlate with northwesterly trending volcanic and sedimentary rocks of the Lower Hazelton Group, Unuk River Formation (Alldrick and Britton, 1988; Britton and Alldrick, 1988; Roach and MacDonald, 1992). Intermediate composition tuffs and derived sedimentary rocks are present and are highly silicified proximal to deformed quartz stockwork and vein offshoots. Volcanic and sedimentary rocks in this area also form a syncline plunging to the southeast, similar to the VOK (Fig. 10). The West Zone and Shore Zone contain gold and silver grades exceeding several grams per ton, and have anomalously high  $Ag/Au$ ratios with respect to the rest of the property. Pre-mineralized sericite  $\pm$  quartz  $\pm$ carbonate alteration of wallrocks is present throughout the host lithologies and is texturally destructive and consistent with other prospective ore zones on the property. This alteration is continuous in a north–south trend, although is mainly restricted to 500 m east–west. Similar to other prospects at Brucejack, pervasive phyllic alteration is also penecontemporaneous with mineralized veins. MacDonald et al. (1996) recognized that low-sulfidation epithermal features are present peripheral to West Zone, including cockade and crustiform textures, cryptocrystalline quartz, and replacement of bladed calcite by quartz (indicating boiling conditions).

#### 4.1.3. Bridge Zone

Bridge Zone is located on a topographic high to the south of Valley of the Kings and to the immediate north and west of the Sulphurets glacier. The Bridge Zone is hosted by fine-grained feldspar-amphibole-porphyritic latite flows, which are cut by quartz veinlets and stockworks. Pervasive sericite, chlorite, and minor carbonate-altered wallrock is common throughout Bridge Zone volcanic host rocks.

### **4.2 Host Rocks**

## 4.2.1. Volcanic Host Rocks

Volcanic host rocks at Brucejack are plagioclase feldspar  $\pm$  potassium feldspar  $\pm$ hornblende-phyric latite flows (Fig. 11a), and are described in the field on the basis of

their phenocryst mineralogy and grain-size. Fine-grained porphyritic rocks have smaller (<3 mm) phenocrysts, whereas their coarse-grained counterparts have larger crystals. Phenocrysts in these porphyritic rocks are mainly plagioclase feldspar, with small amounts of hornblende, and potassium feldspar. Throughout the north–south band of phyllic alteration (Figs. 7 and 8), these rocks are strongly sericite-, chlorite-, and carbonate-altered. Phenocrysts in these rocks are commonly replaced by sericite and calcite (Fig. 11b, c); pyrite (up to 10%) commonly accompanied by rutile occurs as replacements along cleavage planes of relict mafic phenocrysts (Fig. 11d). Porphyritic flows have been dated in the Valley of the Kings and in the far eastern limits of Brucejack, yielding U/Pb zircon dates of  $196.2 \pm 0.2$  Ma (SU-277) and  $179.8 \pm 1.1$  Ma (ST2015-002) respectively (Appendix I; pers. comm. W. Board, June 2015). These dates support the interpretation of tilted stratigraphy with a general younging progression to the east.



Figure 11: Photographs and microphotographs of altered Brucejack lithologies and mineralogical features: (a) Megacrystic feldspar-hornblende latite porphyritic flow with sericite-replaced phenocrysts (426910E, 6258686N, 1389 m); (b) cross-polarized microphotograph of relict feldspar phenocrysts replaced by sericite and calcite (sample A2); (c) cross-polarized microphotograph of megacrystic feldspar-hornblende latite porphyritic flow with sericite and calcite replacing hornblende phenocryst (sample A11); (d) reflected light microphotograph of rutile replacing relict hornblende or pyroxene phenocrysts and pyrite growing along cleavage planes (sample A2).

#### 4.2.2. Volcaniclastic and Sedimentary Rocks

Volcaniclastic fragmental rocks are variably derived from pophyritic flows and welded crystal tuffs. Lapilli to block-sized fragments are typically angular to sub-angular and are poorly sorted (Fig. 12a), and fragments are typically much darker green than their groundmass hosts. The groundmass is composed of fine-grained quartz, plagioclase feldspar, and sericite, carbonate, and chlorite alteration products. Rutile and euhedral pyrite are also disseminated throughout the groundmass, where pyrite mineralization may locally exceed 15% (Fig. 12b). Alteration is locally intense, perhaps reflecting higher water/rock ratios within more permeable horizons.

Volcanic sedimentary rocks show evidence of deposition under both subaerial and subaqueous dynamic conditions. Volcanic conglomerates, sandstones, and siltstones are generally massive, although sandstone and siltstone horizons commonly have relict bedding where pyrite replaces bedding. Sedimentary rocks have variable grain sizes, and are typically strongly altered to sericite, carbonate, and chlorite. Pebble to boulder polymictic conglomerates typically are well to moderately sorted, with sub-rounded clasts containing variable amounts of sandstone, siltstone, rare porphyritic latite, dark argillite siltstone, and silicified clasts (Fig. 12c). Alteration is locally heterogeneous, and individual clasts may be either sericitized, chloritized, or silicified. Complete monomineralic metasomatism of sedimentary rocks (most commonly polymictic conglomerate rocks) to apple green sericite (Fig. 12d) locally exists for several meters at the basal and upper contacts with strongly silicified polylithic clastic sedimentary rocks in the VOK and to a lesser extent in West Zone. Strongly silicified wall rocks contain hydraulic fracture veinlets, which may be evidence for local overpressure conditions (Fournier, 1999). Volcaniclastic siltstones (Fig. 12e) are generally subaqueous and have abundant, variably sized calcite-chlorite-pyrite-replaced concretions; black argillaceous mudstones contain abundant pyrite mineralization forming along relict bedding planes (Fig. 12f). Volcaniclastic sandstones are also common throughout the sedimentary

package, and are commonly found interbedded with volcaniclastic siltstone and monomictic conglomerate. These volcanic-sedimentary sequences yielded U/Pb zircon ages between 196 and 188 Ma (pers. comm. W. Board, June 2015).



Figure 12: Photographs and microphotographs of Brucejack lithologies and mineralogical features containing: (a) Lapilli tuff showing abundant sericitized groundmass (light-coloured) and chloritized subangular fragments (dark-coloured; SU-125 at 55m: 426435E, 625739N, 1488 m); (b) Intense pyritic mineralization with 2-5 mm euhedral pyrite crystals (SU-289 at 410m: 426648E, 6257959N, 1160 m); (c)

Clast supported polylithic conglomerate with variably altered subrounded, moderately sorted clasts (sample A17); (d) volcaniclastic sandstone altered to pure sericite (426565E, 6258113N, 1325 m); (e) Coarsegrained volcaniclastic siltstone with minor discontinuous pyrite stringers (SU-632 at 584m: 426534E, 6257984N, 995 m); (f) Siliceous black argillaceous siltstone with abundant pyrite stringers, mainly following bedding (SU-460 at 149m: 426370E, 6258137N, 1403 m)

#### 4.2.3. Post-mineralization Mafic Dykes

Post-mineralization trachybasaltic dykes are the most common dykes found at Brucejack. They are subvertical and generally <1.5 m wide (Fig. 13), with northwest– southeast and north–south trends. The dykes cross-cut all lithologies and ore zones, but commonly follow fluid pathways in the ore zones, and are cross-cut by late-stage, barren tectonic veins. These dykes have been weakly deformed by a late-stage east–west compressive deformation event, although they cross-cut penetrative fabric and folding within sedimentary horizons. They are commonly a dark olive green colour and contain small (<4 mm) calcite-filled amygdules. The fine to medium-grained groundmass is pervasively altered to sericite and carbonate, while minor chlorite, euhedral pyrite, and anhedral rutile are also variably present. Igneous mineralogy and relict textures are heavily masked by the pervasive alteration, making identification difficult. One of these dykes has been dated at  $182.7 \pm 1.0$  Ma (U/Pb zircon; sample SU-562; Appendix I; pers. comm. C. Greig, June 2015) suggesting emplacement immediately after mineralization, but before hydrothermal activity had ceased.



Figure 13 Trachybasaltic dyke showing subvertical nature (205/85W; underground location at 426664E, 6258158N, 1293m)

#### 4.2.4. Cenozoic Basaltic Trachyandesite Dykes

Cenozoic basaltic trachyandesite dykes (up to several meters wide) also occur at Brucejack, most commonly intruding strata to the east of the Brucejack fault, and are not typically found intruding ore zones. These dykes are undeformed, and cross-cut all fabric, folding, veins, alteration zones, and earlier intruded trachybasaltic dykes, and are interpreted to be Cenozoic in age (and unrelated to the Mesozoic sequence and Brucejack mineralization). The dykes are aphyric and relatively unaltered, although small (<2 mm) calcite-filled amygdules occur throughout, and minor chlorite and pyrite occur in the groundmass, which consists of fine-grained plagioclase feldspar, quartz, hornblende, actinolite, biotite and magnetite.

#### **4.3 Structure and Metamorphism**

The Brucejack fault is a significant structure occurring to the immediate west of West Zone. The fault is a steeply dipping ( $\geq 60^{\circ}$ E), dextral, north-striking, oblique dextral and reverse dip-slip fault that cross-cuts all stratigraphic successions, dykes, vein networks, and alteration zones (Davies et al., 1994). As fault movements have occurred at different times, the structure may have been reactivated at unspecified times before and after mineralization. Structural fabrics and offset contacts near the Mitchell Glacier provide evidence for east side down, reverse dip-slip displacement exceeding 500 m (Kirkham, 1963; Kirkham and Margolis, 1995). Preserved slickenside and cast elongation lineations northwest of Brucejack Lake also indicate a sense of reverse vertical movement (Davies et al., 1994). At Brucejack, contacts are only offset dextrally tens of

meters, with an unknown vertical component (Britton and Alldrick, 1988; Davies et al., 1994; Kirkham and Margolis, 1995). Although exploration drilling has encountered gold mineralization at intersections with the Brucejack fault, this mineralization appears to have been remobilized from previously mineralized wallrock and adjacent veining; fault movement is therefore interpreted to have been largely post-mineralization. It is suggested that the Brucejack fault formed in response to late brittle deformation, which reactivated a pre-existing syn-depositional fault on the margins of a volcanic sub-basin that was formed during deposition of lower Hazelton Group rocks (Ireland et al., 2014).

Other faults in the immediate area trend NNW–SSE and less commonly ENE– WSW. They show sinistral to dextral strike-slip motions with either a normal or reverse component. Commonly fault surfaces preserve slickensides with multiple orientations, indicating variable fault movements, likely under different stress regimes.

Two stages of penetrative fabric are observed throughout the deposit and typically trend north–south and east–west (see below); the fabric is particularly well developed in heavily sericitized zones. Hazelton Group rocks on the property have been folded into synclines and anticlines with wavelengths  $>100$  m (north–south deformation; Figs. 8 and 10), and locally into small-scale parasitic folds. The Brucejack deposit appears to have been formed after the main-stage of folding, because veins are commonly observed cutting stratigraphy and penetrative fabric with minimal subsequent deformation. Mesozoic trachybasaltic dykes show moderate compressive (east–west) deformation, which is believed to be the major post-emplacement deformation event. Field observations of this east–west post-emplacement fabric are observed throughout the Sulphurets region, and this deformation event is suggested to have occurred in the Late

Jurassic–Early Cretaceous (Margolis, 1993; Febbo et al., 2015) contemporaneous with accretion of the Insular terrane and the subsequent formation of the Skeena Fold Belt (Evenchick, 1991b).

Kirkham and Margolis (1995) suggested that the whole Sulphurets district has been exposed to lower-greenschist facies regional metamorphism indicated by the presence of greenschist mineral assemblages (quartz  $\pm$  sericite  $\pm$  calcite  $\pm$  chlorite  $\pm$ epidote) and the absence of biotite, hornblende, or actinolite in bulk compositions within host volcanic rocks outside the hydrothermal alteration envelope. At Brucejack, wallrocks within hydrothermal alteration zones have been exposed to high water:rock ratios and are moderately to strongly phyllic altered, where volcanic and sedimentary rocks have abundant sericite  $\pm$  muscovite  $\pm$  quartz  $\pm$  calcite  $\pm$  chlorite alteration products. Adjacent to ore zones wallrocks are not strongly altered and volcanic rocks contain abundant plagioclase and potassium feldspar phenocrysts throughout their groundmass. If subsequent metamorphism had reached lower-greenschist facies, it would be expected that these minerals would include muscovite  $\pm$  chlorite  $\pm$  albite  $\pm$  quartz alteration products. Their absence suggests that alteration at Brucejack is mainly hydrothermal in origin and that there is little evidence for post-emplacement lower-greenschist facies regional metamorphism.

Pyrite crystals occurring within strained rocks commonly contain well-developed quartz-sericite pressure shadows indicating that pyrite grains are pre or syn-kinematic. This may suggest that mineralizing conditions occurred in a tectonically dynamic environment, which is expected for the Stikine terrane prior to accretion with North America. Margolis (1993) sampled sericite from these pressure shadows in a sample from

the West Zone and obtained a K-Ar date of  $110.4 \pm 2.6$  Ma. Similarly Kirkham (1989) dated pure metasomatic sericite that yielded ages of  $110.2 \pm 2.3$  Ma (<sup>40</sup>Ar/<sup>39</sup>Ar). In addition to these dates, in this study we also provide age estimates from hydrothermally altered volcanic sedimentary rocks and quartz-calcite stockwork veining  $(^{40}Ar)^{39}Ar$ sericite and muscovite respectively), where plateau ages are similar to the studies above (105 to 112 Ma; see details below). These dates provide a minimum age for sericite and muscovite and likely reflect thermal resetting during the formation of the Skeena Fold Belt (Evenchick, 1991b).

### **4.4 Alteration and Mineralization**

Large oxidized, pyritic gossans occur at surface above quartz-sericite-pyrite hydrothermally altered rocks at Brucejack, and form a concave-northwest arcuate belt on either side of the Brucejack Fault (Fig. 7). This sericitic (phyllic) alteration envelope extends through mineralized zones from Golden Marmot Zone to Bridge Zone (4.5 km) and is typically <700 m wide; it occurs as a pervasive overprint to all extrusive volcanic and sedimentary host rocks. Intense phyllic wallrock alteration is cospatial and cogenetic to large zones of mineralized quartz-carbonate stockwork veins and lithological contacts, and appear to have formed in response to the mineralizing hydrothermal fluids.

Hydrothermal alteration is locally intense proximal to ore zones and lithological contacts. Sedimentary rocks are commonly completely metasomatized to sericite, which are proximal to texturally destructive silicified conglomerates near geologic contacts. Sericite, quartz, pyrite, chlorite, and calcite alteration is found disseminated in wallrocks and preferentially replacing clasts in conglomerates. Pyrite alteration occurs as subhedral

clots, blotches, blebs, and discontinuous stringers throughout the host rocks. Pyritic masses also are observed replacing volcanic fragments, sedimentary clasts, submarine siltstone concretions, and bedding in sedimentary horizons.

Host rocks at Brucejack also show evidence for a sulfidization event occurring prior to mineral deposition. Wallrocks outside (but proximal to) the phyllic alteration envelope at Brucejack contain sericite and abundant disseminated pyrite (locally exceeding 10%), and are suggested to have been generated from hydrothermal fluids prior to Au-deposition. Sericite, epidote, quartz, and carbonate minerals pseudomorph replace K-feldspar crystals; phenocrysts are euhedral suggesting primary K-feldspar. Presulfidized rocks at Brucejack are present across the property, but proximal to the northwest trending band of phyllic alteration.

There is no host rock control on gold mineralization, although the key stratigraphy for Au-deposition is commonly found throughout the volcaniclastic units (sandstones, siltstones, conglomerates, and tuffaceous rocks). Mineralization at Brucejack is generally cospatial with the northwest-trending band of intense phyllic alteration and is identified within stockwork veining, and coeval vein-breccias and stringer veins composed of quartz, calcite, and commonly sericite.

Bladed calcite and vuggy quartz have been observed in West Zone and the VOK, and adularia and barite are restricted to mainly West Zone and Shore Zone. Cockade and crustiform vein textures occur infrequently (Fig. 14), and are cospatial with stockwork and breccia veins. Stockwork veins and breccia veins are mostly several meters in thickness, and extend for tens of meters, whereas cospatial sheeted vein networks are subvertical, and sub-centimeter to several centimeters in thickness. All veins hosting

mineralization are weakly strained by post-mineralization deformation, where disjointed and truncated vein networks are present. Ptygmatic vein textures are also observed in stringer veinlets (Fig. 15), suggesting that veins propagated through unconsolidated sediment, or partially lithified or ductile host rocks. Veins in the VOK dominantly trend northwest–southeast, whereas a dominant vein orientation is not yet recognized for West Zone or other prospects.



Figure 14: Crustiform banding within silica-flooded quartz stockwork-breccia vein (underground:

426647E, 6258039N, 1345 m)



Figure 15: Ptygmatic vein within lapilli tuff (SU-158 at 47m: 426483E, 6257441N, 1498m)

Mineralized veins contain variable amounts of pyrite, rutile, sphalerite, galena, tetrahedrite, chalcopyrite, arsenopyrite, electrum, freibergite, pyrargyrite, pearceite, molybdenite, and acanthite. Arsenopyrite occurs in all vein generations that host gold, whereas other minerals occur inconsistently with gold mineralization, and pyrite and sericite occur in all veins. Gold occurs in the form of electrum, as coarse-grained blebs, clots, stringers, and lace-like dendritic networks within the quartz-calcite veins (Fig. 16). Microscopic electrum is mostly found as free grains (Fig. 17a), but also as microscopic blebs or filling fractures within pyrite grains, where it is found intergrown with acanthite (Fig. 17b) and less commonly chalcopyrite. Silver sulfosalts (commonly tetrahedrite and pyrargyrite) occur in isolation (Fig. 17c), intergrown with other sulfides (Fig. 17d), and

less commonly electrum. Gold-silver ratios in electrum are generally 2:1 throughout the VOK (Ireland et al., 2014), although West Zone and Shore Zone have anomalously higher silver content (Au:Ag = 1:28; Ireland et al., 2014).



Figure 16: Various textures of electrum found at Brucejack: (a) small <1cm blebs of Au-rich electrum within quartz-calcite stockwork vein (426659E, 6258033N, 1350 m); (b) >1000 g/t Au hand sample of electrum clots within tuff (426614E, 6257970N, 1350 m); (c) Stringers of electrum throughout calcite-rich veining (sample >41,000 g/t Au over 0.5 m; SU-542 at 203m: 426619E, 6257987N, 1376 m); and (d) dendritic lattice-like electrum intergrown with Ag-sulfosalts within quartz vein (SU-115: 426548E, 6257973N, 1484 m)



Figure 17: Reflected light photographs of electrum and Ag-sulfosalts: (a) disseminated electrum cospatial with pyrite, and occurring within pyrite as a single bleb; hosted by vein quartz (HG-05); (b) intergrown acanthite and electrum within pyrite fractures; hosted by quartz vein (HG-02); (c) pyrargyrite (ruby silver) occurring separate from other mineral phases; hosted by quartz vein (HG-02); and (d) intergrown sphalerite, galena, Ag-rich chalcopyrite, and tetrahedrite; hosted by quartz and calcite vein (VP-054)

	<b>Pre-mineralization</b>	<b>Main Phase Veining</b> and Mineralization	<b>Post-mineralization</b>
<b>Alteration Facies</b>			
Phyllic			
Propylitic			
<b>Hydrothermal Veining</b>			
Stage I: Pyrite-quartz-calcite veins			
Stage II: Stockwork, breccia, and stringer			
quartz-calcite veins hosting electrum			
Stage III: Base-metal sulfide veins containing			
electrum and Ag-sulfosalts			
Stage IV: Carbonate dominated veins with			
electrum			
Stage V: Late stage quartz-calcite tectonic			
shear veins and tension gash veins			
<b>Mineralization</b>			
Pyrite			
Rutile			
Chalcopyrite			
Arsenopyrite			
Electrum			
Molybdenite			
Sphalerite			
Galena			
Tetrahedrite			
Other Ag-sulfosalts			

Figure 18: Paragenetic sequence of alteration, vein assemblages, and mineralization for the Valley of the Kings. Insufficient work has been done on other prospects to delineate a paragenetic sequence

# **4.5 Vein Paragenesis for the Valley of the Kings**

Five vein stages have been recognized at in the VOK: (1) highly deformed and discontinuous, barren, pyrite stringer veins containing calcite and quartz with common sericite  $\pm$  chlorite wallrock alteration; (2) electrum-bearing deformed quartz-calcite  $\pm$ dolomite stockwork veins and breccias, which are spatially associated with sub-vertical stringer quartz veinlets also hosting Au-mineralization; (3) Zn-Pb-(Cu) sulfide veins containing quartz, minor calcite, and common Ag-sulfosalts and electrum; (4) highly deformed carbonate veins containing abundant orange-coloured, Mn-bearing calcite, also containing electrum; (5) late stage quartz-calcite shear veins with asymmetrical sericite, chlorite, and pyrite vein banding, and cogenetic, subhorizontal bull-quartz tension gash veins with abundant vein chlorite.

#### 4.5.1 Vein Stage I

Stage I veins contain pyrite, calcite, quartz, and minor vein sericite and commonly have sericite  $\pm$  chlorite alteration along vein margins. Electrum is very uncommon, where it is found within pyrite as microscopic blebs. It is apparent that there are multiple subdivisions of stage I veins based on pyrite grain sizes and crystal habit, abundance of sericite and chlorite in alteration halos around the vein margins, and proportion of quartz and calcite to pyrite (Fig. 19). For the purposes of this study, different stage I sub-stages are not distinguished.

Euhedral–subhedral pyrite crystals are typically large (1–7 mm in diameter) and have common microscopic (1–10 µm) anhedral inclusions of sphalerite, chalcopyrite, and minor tetrahedrite and galena. Rutile and chalcopyrite are sparsely found disseminated throughout the veins. Sericite occurs frequently on the boundaries of veins, and less commonly within the veins. Chlorite is less abundant than sericite, but occurs in 2–3 mmwide alteration halos at vein margins and as disseminated patches and blebs within the veins. Most calcite and quartz crystals show penetrative deformation, and syn-kinematic quartz-filled pressure shadows occur on the flanks of euhedral pyrite crystals. These deformed pyrite stringer veins are discontinuous and do not appear to have a general trend or orientation; they are crosscut by all other vein generations (Fig. 19d).



Figure 19: Stage I pre-mineralization pyrite  $\pm$  quartz-calcite veins: (a) 1 cm wide pyrite-dominated vein with chlorite-altered margins and quartz-calcite vein infill (SU-125 at 87m: 426436E, 6257414N, 1464 m); (b) thin (<2 mm), discontinuous pyrite stringer veinlets within black siliceous argillite siltstone (426370E, 6258137N, 1403 m); (c) 4 cm-wide early-stage pyrite vein with abundant quartz and minor calcite vein infill; minor sericite alteration on vein margins (VU-418: 426648E, 6257980N, 1222 m); (d) stage I pyrite vein cross-cut by stage II quartz-calcite vein (SU-289 at 70.1 m: 426647E, 6258045N, 1488 m)

### 4.5.2 Vein Stage II

Deformed quartz-calcite  $\pm$  dolomite stockwork veins and breccias, with cospatial subvertical stringer quartz veinlets, represent the earliest stage of Au-mineralization. Stockwork, breccia, and stringer veins are likely cogenetic and episodic, because they are

cospatial and frequently found crosscutting one another throughout the deposit. These vein sets generally trend east–west in the Valley of the Kings, are steeply dipping, and are weakly to moderately deformed. Stockwork veins are macroscopically observed as deformed silica-flooded, quartz-calcite  $\pm$  dolomite veins, and are typically several meters in width. Stockwork veins commonly show good vertical continuity and along strike, with one of the veins traceable over a strike length of more than 100 m in a combination of underground workings and diamond drill hole intersections (Fig. 20a). Quartzcarbonate breccia veins are commonly proximal to stockwork veins, where veins regularly overprint one another. Silica-flooded breccia veining isolates and suspends poorly sorted, angular wall rock clasts, which are commonly highly silicified (Fig. 20b). Narrow stringer quartz veinlets (Fig. 20c) are also found cospatial to cogenetic stockwork and breccia veins.

Although individual Stage II veins show textural variability, they have consistent mineralogical features and modal abundances. Quartz is the dominant vein mineral  $(>80\%)$ , and occurs as coarse-grained (typically  $1-2$  mm), equigranular, mosaic style crystal masses. Calcite (with minor dolomite) generally fills fractures between large quartz crystals, and fine-grained calcite is associated with vein sericite and microcrystalline quartz. Anhedral pyrite is generally 0.25–1 mm in size and disseminated with other base metal sulfides, which occur infrequently and are commonly associated with sericitized zones. Sericite within veining is common and mainly occurs as discontinuous stringers, and narrow lenses. Small amounts of rutile, sphalerite, galena, and chalcopyrite  $\pm$  arsenopyrite are disseminated throughout the veins, and Ag-sulfosalts are rare. Molybdenite is present in stockwork veins in Bridge Zone (dated at ~192 Ma;

see below), although is recognized in the VOK only as trace amounts. Electrum is common in this vein generation, where it is intergrown with vein quartz and sericite.



Figure 20: Stage II stockwork, breccia, and stringer veins: (a) Intense stockwork and breccia veining within crystal lithic tuff (underground: 426643E, 6258039N, 1345 m); (b) silica-flooded breccia vein with coarse-grained electrum throughout (VU-032); (c) electrum-bearing quartz-calcite stringer veinlet adjacent to pyrite stringer vein cutting lapilli tuff (left; VU-049)

4.5.3 Vein Stage III

Base metal sulfide-bearing veins contain copious amounts of pyrite, sphalerite, galena, tetrahedrite, chalcopyrite, and lesser amounts of electrum, arsenopyrite  $\pm$ 

acanthite, and trace Ag-sulfosalts (freibergite, pyrargyrite, and pearceite) intergrown with quartz and calcite and rare sericite. The distinguishing characteristic of this vein stage is the much higher proportion of base metal sulfides compared to stage I or other vein generations; in some cases, base metal sulfides account for >25% of the vein mineralogy. The veins are typically  $1-10$  cm wide, but extend to  $>30$  cm in some localities. Macroscopically, the veins are typically banded with sulfides, where asymmetric banding consists of sphalerite, galena, and pyrite. Electrum is found as blebs, stringers, clots and dendritic masses throughout base metal sulfide veins and is cospatial and commonly intergrown and rimmed by Ag-sulfosalts (Fig. 21a,b).

The veins are mildly deformed, which is observable in microscopic features involving strained and elongated quartz, and microscopically deformed calcite twin planes. Veins containing significant amounts of base metal sulfides commonly have sharp contacts with the wall rock. Quartz and calcite crystals throughout the vein matrix are commonly overprinted by semi-continuous stringers of sericite, which are accompanied by microcrystalline quartz, and fine-grained calcite. Sulfide mineralization is commonly found proximal to bands of sericitization.

Sulfide ore-paragenesis in this vein stage is: (1) early pyrite and sphalerite; (2) galena texturally replaces sphalerite on grain margins and replaces pyrite through fracture controlled replacement; (3) chalcopyrite pervasively replaces galena and is found as chalcopyrite-disease in sphalerite; (4) tetrahedrite, freibergite, pyrargyrite, and pearceite accompanied by electrum, replace all earlier ore-minerals; and (5) acanthite commonly rims Ag-sulfosalt aggregate grains. Electrum and Ag-sulfosalts are also found disseminated throughout veins unaccompanied by other metals. Electrum content is

variable, although veins contain similar grades to that of other ore-bearing vein generations. Sphalerite compositions are typically uniform, with honey-brown colours (Fig. 21d) reflecting low Fe contents and lower temperature conditions.



Figure 21: Vein stage III base metal sulfide veins: (a) backscattered electron image of electrum zoning with sulfosalt rims (HG02); (b) base metal sulfide vein with dendritic Ag-rich electrum intergrown with Agsulfosalts (SU-123 at 531m: 426596E, 6258569N, 979 m); (c) reflected light microphotograph showing textural relationships between pyrite, sphalerite, galena, tetrahedrite, and chalcopyrite (VP014); (d) drill core with electrum and abundant sphalerite (VU-036). Abbreviations: Gn- galena, Py- pyrite, Sphsphalerite, Cpy- chalcopyrite, and Tetr- tetrahedrite.

#### 4.5.4 Vein Stage IV

These veins also contain electrum and are dominated by calcite (generally >80%), with subsidiary quartz. A distinguishing feature of this vein generation is the presence of orange-coloured Mn-calcite (Fig. 22a), which forms diffuse crystals in white-coloured calcite, and less commonly in dark grey-coloured calcite. The orange and grey-coloured calcite are restricted to stage IV veins, but pure white calcite is also observed in other vein stages. Grey and white calcite appear to have precipitated from different fluids, as trigonal-hexagonal crystal growth zones with alternating white–grey calcite are common; implying periodic discrete calcite precipitation events. Grey calcite displays a crustiform banded texture in places with white calcite adjacent to vein margins (Fig. 22b) and within the nucleus of the vein (Fig. 22c); all of which can contain electrum. Orange calcite is scarce and coprecipitated with both white and grey-coloured calcite. Pyrite occurs sparsely as fine-grained anhedral crystals disseminated throughout the vein carbonates. No other sulfides are present within this vein generation, although rutile occurs in small amounts. Electrum is present as anhedral, disseminated masses, which mainly occur in clots, clusters, and dendritic forms dispersed throughout the vein. Minor sericite typically occurs as small discontinuous patches on the margins of veins.

These veins are typically multi-centimeter in width, although in Bridge Zone they reach  $\sim$ 1.5 m; vein widths of  $\leq$ 30 cm are typical for the VOK. Calcite veins are moderately to strongly deformed and commonly show pinch and swell textures. Several of these veins have been sheared post-emplacement, where shearing has caused disaggregation and boudinage of veining. Shearing along one of these stage IV veins has

caused physical remobilization and slickensiding of electrum along sheared margins (Fig. 23*).*

Calcite veins form orthogonal sets and typically strike east–west and less commonly north–south in the VOK, and dip sub-vertically. Carbonate veins and all preceding vein stages are crosscut by trachybasaltic dykes, which are geochemically identical to dykes in the VOK and West Zone that have been dated at  $182.7 \pm 1.0$  Ma (Appendix I; pers. comm. C. Greig, June 2015), providing a minimum age constraint for Au-deposition.



Figure 22: Stage IV carbonate-dominated veins: (a) coprecipitated white and orange calcite with small clots of electrum (SU-452 at 203m: 426619E, 6257987N, 1376 m); (b) crustiform banded carbonate vein with

grey calcite and minor orange calcite on vein margins and medial white calcite (underground: 426596E, 6258191N, 1296 m); (c) white calcite vein containing electrum within medial grey calcite (SU-276 at 338m: 426370E, 6257849N, 1274 m); (d) carbonate vein containing abundant electrum (SU-452 at 203m: 426619E, 6257987N, 1376 m).



Figure 23: Slickensided electrum on footwall of subvertical, sinistral-oblique, reverse dip-slip fault (fault tending 185/81W; photo taken in underground workings: 426614E, 6257970N, 1350 m)

4.5.5 Vein Stage V

Stage V veins do not contain cogenetic electrum and have formed by postemplacement tectonic deformation. Veins include: (a) late stage quartz-calcite sheared fault-filled veins with asymmetrical sericite, chlorite, and pyrite banding, and (b) associated subhorizontal bull-quartz and calcite extensional tension gash veins. Shear veins are continuous and typically 10–20 cm wide, whereas tension gash veins that radiate from sheared margins are <15 cm wide and discontinuous. Shear veins have variable orientations, but commonly strike east–west and north–south with shallow dip angles (generally <45° south). Tension gash veins (when present) are typically subhorizontal and often form R and R' reidel shear tension gashes splaying from the dominant sheared margin. Sigmoidal tension gash veins forming en echelon vein arrays are also common (Figs. 24a,b, and 25a) and suggest heterogeneous simple shear under a brittle-ductile regime of deformation.

Fault-filled shear veins contain fine-grained quartz and calcite (<1 mm and 1–4 mm respectively), where quartz and calcite crystals show moderate microscopic deformation (i.e. undulose extinction in quartz, and deformed calcite crystal lattice frameworks), which formed through moderate to strong shearing. Asymmetric banding of fine-grained anhedral pyrite, chlorite, and sericite is common and align parallel to the shear direction (Fig. 24c). Rutile is found disseminated throughout shear veins and generally occurs in close association with pyrite. Very rare electrum and Ag-sulfosalts are present in shear veins, but appear to have been physically remobilized from the wallrock and adjacent veins, and did not coprecipitate with stage V shear veins. Tension gash veins are composed of variable amounts of quartz, calcite, and chlorite, where bull-quartz crystals are 1–3 mm, and large calcite crystals are >3 mm. Chlorite is common and occurs as coarse-grained clots and blebs within veining (Fig. 25b).

Stage V veins are the youngest veins at Brucejack and crosscut vein stage IV veins (Fig. 24d), and all other precursor vein generations. These late-stage tectonic veins also crosscut the Mesozoic trachybasaltic dykes on the property, which in turn crosscuts stage IV veins.



Figure 24: Post-mineralization tectonic stage V veins: (a) sigmoidal tension gash veins radiate from quartzcalcite shear vein (426556E, 6258966N, 1188 m); (b) small tension gash veins radiate from sheared margin (SU-125 at 76m: 426435E, 6257407N, 1472 m); (c) quartz-calcite-chlorite shear banding (SU-289: 426647E, 6258045N, 1488 m); (d) Thin, discontinuous stage V quartz tension gash veins cross-cut through stage IV calcite vein (underground: 426606E, 6258188N, 1295 m)


Figure 25: In-situ tectonic veins: (a) quartz-calcite-chlorite-pyrite banded shear veins with bull-quartz veins radiating from sheared margins (underground: 426656E, 6258174N, 1287 m); (b) bull-quartz tectonic veins with chlorite clots (from same vein as above).

# **5.0 Sampling and Methods**

#### **5.1 Samples**

Samples for this study were collected from diamond drill core, underground mine exposures, and surface outcrops at the Brucejack deposit. Sample descriptions and locations are provided in Appendices II and III.

# **5.2 Whole-rock lithogeochemistry**

A representative sample suite of least-altered intrusive and volcanic rocks was collected by the author and C. Greig across the Brucejack property for whole-rock lithogeochemistry, consisting of 55 fine-grained plagioclase-feldspar and hornblende porphyry flows, 17 coarse-grained plagioclase-feldspar and hornblende porphyry latite flows, and 13 late-stage dykes.

Five dykes and five porphyritic flows samples were analyzed at Actlabs (Ancaster, Ontario; method 4E-Research) and detection limits for this assay package are listed in Appendix III. Analytical accuracy, determined by reproducibility of lab standards is typically within 5 relative weight percent for major element oxides (except MnO: within 20 relative % at levels <0.2 wt%; and  $K_2O$  and  $P_2O_5$ , which are within 40 relative % at levels of <0.1 wt%), and to within 10 relative weight percent for minor and trace elements. Lab precision, determined by reproducibility of duplicates, is within 2 relative weight percent for major element oxides and trace elements (except Ge: within 23 relative %). Samples were dried and 1000 g was pulverized so 95% of the sample material passed through a 74 µm screen (200 mesh). Samples were treated by acid

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digestion and analyzed by either fusion inductively coupled plasma mass-spectrometry (FUS-ICP/MS), instrumental neutron activation analysis (INAA), or inductively coupled plasma total dissolution (TD-ICP), while multiple analytical methods were used for some elements.

The remaining samples were collected by C. Greig and analyzed by ALS Canada Ltd. (Vancouver). Samples were dried to eliminate moisture and crushed so 70% of the sample passed through a 2 mm mesh screen. The samples were then split using a rifle splitter, and 1000 g was pulverized to  $>80\%$  of the sample passing through a 75  $\mu$ m screen. Samples were treated with acid digestion, lithium borate fusion, or aqua regia digestion and analyzed using either ICP-MS (inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry) or ICP-AES (inductively coupled plasma-atomic emission spectrometry). Detection limits are in the low ppm and ppb range for trace elements and are reported in Appendix III. Analytical accuracy is generally within 5 relative weight percent for major element oxides and within 10 relative percent for minor and trace elements.

#### **5.3 Re-Os Geochronology**

Three molybdenite samples were collected from Brucejack (West Zone and Bridge Zone) for Re-Os geochronology, in order to date the timing of sulfide and Aumineralization. The West Zone sample was collected from the underground workings (BJ-P003; 426600E, 6258515N, 1327 m), whereas the samples from the Bridge Zone were collected from diamond drill core (SU151A and SU151B; 426707E, 6257287N, 1242 m). All samples were analyzed in the Radiogenic Isotope Facility at the University of Alberta using the methods described by Selby and Creaser (2004). A molybdenite

powder HLP-5 (Markey et al., 1998) was used as the standard, and age uncertainty is expressed at 2 standard deviations, and includes the uncertainty of the  $^{187}$ Re decay constant  $(1.666e^{-11}a^{-1})$ ; Smoliar et al., 1996).

#### **5.4 U/Pb Geochronology**

Fourteen porphyritic latite flow samples were collected at surface from across the Brucejack property. Twelve of the samples were collected by C. Greig, and were sent to the Pacific Center for Isotopic and Geochemical Research (PCIGR) facility at the University of British Columbia for analysis. The remaining two samples were collected to the immediate east of the Valley of the Kings by the author and analyzed at the Radiogenic Isotope Facility at the University of Alberta.

At the PCIGR zircon crystals were separated using standard techniques and were analyzed using laser ablation (LA) ICP-MS methods, where the PCIGR facility employed methods as described by Tafti et al. (2009). Zircon crystals were handpicked and mounted in an epoxy puck together with several grains of a Plesovice zircon standard  $(337.13 \pm 0.13 \text{ Ma}; \text{Sláma et al.}, 2007)$ . The epoxy pucks were brought to a very high polish and washed with dilute nitric acid. Analyses were run on a New Wave UP-213 laser ablation system and a ThermoFinniganElement2 single collector ICP-MS, where a laser power of 40% was used with 15–30 micrometer spot sizes, depending on the grain size of the zircons. Age uncertainty is reported at 2 standard deviations.

Similar techniques were used for the samples that were analyzed at the University of Alberta, where samples were run on a NuPlasma Multi-Collector ICP-MS equiped with a New Wave Research UP-213 laser ablation system (as described by Simonetti et

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al., 2005). The Plesovice zircon standard was used for calibration, and zircons were ablated using a spot size of 40  $\mu$ m, a fluence rate of 2 J/cm<sup>2</sup>, and a repetition-rate of 4 Hz. Age uncertainty is reported at 2 standard deviations.

# **5.5 <sup>40</sup>Ar/<sup>39</sup>Ar Geochronology**

Four samples (2 sericite and 2 muscovite) were collected from underground workings and drill core in the VOK and the data are presented in Appendix IV. Sericite (A8 and A20) and muscovite (BJ-P005) were sampled from hydrothermally altered volcanic sedimentary rocks to help constrain the timing of hydrothermal mineralization at Brucejack. One muscovite sample was collected from quartz-calcite stockwork veining (sample BJ-B6), where muscovite was believed to be cogenetic with vein minerals.

Mineral separates were prepared at the University of Alberta by crushing the sample material and individual separates were handpicked under a binocular microscope. Samples and the analytical standard (Fish Canyon Tuff sanidine, 28.02 Ma; Renne et al., 1998) were wrapped in aluminum foil and stacked in sealed fused silica tubes with neutron fluence monitors. The samples were then irradiated at the U.S. Geological Survey TRIGA Reactor, Denver, Colorado for 7 hours in the In-Core Irradiation Tube (ICIT) of the 1 MW TRIGA type reactor. Fission of 4-8 neutron flux monitor positions yielded J factors of <0.5 percent, and isotope correction factors were:  $(^{40}Ar/^{39}Ar)_K = 4.80 \pm 0.4828$ ,  $(^{36}Ar^{37}Ar)_{Ca} = 2.60 \pm 0.000687$ , and  $(^{39}Ar^{37}Ar)_{Ca} = 6.77 \pm 0.000505$ .

Irradiated samples were analyzed for  ${}^{40}Ar/{}^{39}Ar$  at the Isotope Geochronology Laboratory, University of Nevada. Samples were step heated using a 20 W  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  laser until fused. The gas emitted from each step was analyzed on a MAP 215-50 mass

spectrometer. Over the period of data collection, discrimination, sensitivity, and blanks were constant.

## **5.6 Fluid Inclusions**

Fluid inclusions were studied in order to characterize the hydrothermal fluids contributing to gold mineralization in the VOK. Numerous samples were collected from least-deformed veins genetically related to gold mineralization in the VOK (stages II– IV), but the majority of these samples contained inclusions of inadequate size  $(5 \text{ µm})$  or poor preservation. Many inclusions were located along fracture planes (Fig. 26a) and were irregularly shaped or necked (Fig. 26b), these inclusions were classified as secondary in origin (based on the criteria of Roedder, 1984) and were not measured.

Primary fluid inclusions (Roedder, 1984) were preserved mainly in quartz (Fig. 26c) and sphalerite crystals that were enclosed or partially surrounded by calcite and sulfide minerals. Enclosure by these weak minerals shielded the quartz and sphalerite from deformation, and helped preserve primary fluid inclusions. The majority of these inclusions were found in crystal growth zones, in which the inclusions displayed similar sizes (Fig. 26d;  $5-10 \mu m$ ) and vapor/liquid ratios (90:10), and did not appear necked. Such fluid inclusions were grouped into cogenetic fluid inclusion assemblages (FIA) following the criteria of Goldstein and Reynolds (1994).

Nine samples (5 quartz, 4 sphalerite) containing primary fluid inclusions from two stage II quartz veins, four stage III veins (hosted by quartz or light-coloured sphalerite), and three stage IV calcite veins were selected by the above criteria for analysis.

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Figure 26: Fluid inclusions microphotographs: (a) secondary fluid inclusions forming along fracture planes in quartz (A4); (b) Necked primary or psuedosecondary fluid inclusions in quartz, occurring in isolation (VP-032); (c) primary fluid inclusion assemblage in quartz, which is partially enclosed by galena (VP-032); (d) euhedral quartz crystal enclosed by calcite, with well-preserved growth zones containing primary fluid inclusion assemblages (VP-017).

Chips containing fluid inclusions from doubly polished thin sections  $(\sim 100 \mu m$ thick) were microthermometrically analyzed using a Linkam THMSG600 heating/freezing stage. Fluid inclusions were chilled to -100˚C and heated until homogenization, recording phase changes throughout the heating cycle. Standards were run prior to and after data collection (in-house standard AR308: pure  $H<sub>2</sub>O$ ), and the data (listed in Appendix V) have been corrected for small deviations from the standard values. Analytical accuracy for sub-ambient temperature measurements was  $\pm 0.1^{\circ}$ C, and  $\pm 1^{\circ}$ C for measurements at higher temperatures. Salinity is generally calculated from the depression of ice melting temperature using the equation of Bodnar (1992) for the NaCl-H2O system. Clathrate, however, was observed in some inclusions from vein stage III. The presence of clathrate causes an increase in salinity (and depression of melting point) of the aqueous liquid phase (Diamond, 1992), such that the equations of Bodnar (1992) do not apply. Salinity for the clathrate-bearing inclusions was therefore calculated using the equation of Diamond (1992) for the 3-phase system NaCl-CO<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O.

# **5.7 Stable Isotopes**

## 5.7.1 Calcite

Thirty-one samples of hydrothermal calcite were extracted for C and O isotopic analysis from stage II–V veins collected from drill core and underground exposures in the VOK. Samples were polished using a 2500 grit polishing disc, and then submerged in a dilute HCl solution for 20 seconds to distinguish calcite from intergrown quartz and dolomite. Etched calcite was then subsequently drilled out using a 3 mm coring drill to separate calcite grains from quartz and dolomite crystals. The tops of the calcite cores (the portion that had reacted with acid) were sanded finely to remove any reacted calcite. The samples were powdered and small aliquots were analyzed by X-ray diffraction (XRD) using a Rigaku Powder X-Ray diffractometers at the University of Alberta to confirm purity and correct identification as calcite.

Carbon dioxide was liberated from calcite by reacting the samples with 100% phosphoric acid in vacuum for 4 hours, following the methods of McCrea (1950). The  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  was then purified through a series of liquid nitrogen traps, and analyzed on a Finnigan MAT-252 mass spectrometer for oxygen and carbon isotopic compositions. The isotopic results are expressed as per mil deviation of the  ${}^{18}O/{}^{16}O$  and  ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$  ratios from standard values:

$$
\delta \left( \%_{o} \right) = \left( \left( R_{SAMPLE} - R_{STANDARD} \right) / R_{STANDARD} \right) \times 1000 \tag{1}
$$

where R is equivalent to either the <sup>18</sup>O/<sup>16</sup>O or the <sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C ratio of samples and the standard. The oxygen standard used here is VSMOW (Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Seawater), and the carbon standard is VPDB (Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite). A -10‰ correction was applied to the measured  $\rm~^{18}O/^{16}O$  ratio to account for fractionation during the phosphoric acid dissolution reaction (Clayton and Epstein, 1958; Sharma and Clayton, 1965). Measured  $\delta^{18}$ O and  $\delta^{13}$ C values have a  $2\sigma$  error of 0.1‰.

The isotopic values of fluid in equilibrium with the calcite were calculated by correcting for temperature-dependent fractionation using the equations of Chacko et al. (1991) and O'Neil et al. (1969) for C and O respectively. Temperatures used in the equations were derived from measured fluid inclusions, where mean homogenization temperatures of 160˚C are used, assuming boiling conditions.

# 5.7.2 Quartz

Fifteen samples of quartz were selected for O isotopic analysis from stage II–V veins collected from underground exposures in the VOK zone of the Brucejack deposit. Quartz samples were microscopically examined for purity and were crushed into 0.5 mg pieces with a mortar and pestle. Ten milligrams of each sample were then sent to the Washington State University GeoAnalytical Lab for analysis.

At the lab pre-fluorinations were first conducted to remove of any moisture on mineral surfaces and within the fluorination system. Each silicate sample (2 mg) was then heated with a 20W  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  laser (described by Sharp 1990), and a reaction with BrF<sub>5</sub> was used to liberate oxygen (described by Clayton and Mayeda, 1963; Sharp, 1990). Oxygen was then passed over cold traps and cleaned with KBr, which eliminates the fluorine introduced from the above reaction. The  ${}^{18}O/{}^{16}O$  isotopic composition of the oxygen gas was then measured on a Finnigan<sup>TH</sup> Delta S Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer. Isotopic compositions are reported in parts per mil  $(\%$ ) and expressed in delta notation ( $\delta$ ) as the relative difference in isotopic composition between the sample and the Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW). The accuracy of measurements was within  $0.1\%$  ( $1\sigma$ ), based on analysis of standards.

The oxygen isotopic compositions of fluids in equilibrium with the quartz  $(\delta^{18}O_{H2O})$  were calculated using the equation of Matsuhisha et al. (1979), at 160°C (based on fluid inclusion measurements).

# 5.7.3 Sulfides

Thirteen samples of pyrite, 2 samples of sphalerite, and one sample of galena were extracted from hydrothermal veins from the VOK, and analyzed for their sulfur isotopic composition. Vein samples containing sulfides were crushed and then individual sulfide grains were handpicked in ethanol under a binocular microscope (15–20 mg for

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each sample). Reflected light petrographic inspection indicates the presence of small chalcopyrite, sphalerite, and galena inclusions within larger pyrite grains, but this is not expected to significantly affect the  $34S/32S$  ratios of pyrite samples, because fractionation between the measured sulfides is very small (Ohmoto, 1972; Rye and Ohmoto, 1974).

Samples were analyzed at the Isotope Science Laboratory (University of Calgary), where sulfur isotope ratios  $({}^{34}S/{}^{32}S)$  were measured using continuous flow-isotope ratio mass spectrometry (CF-EA-IRMS). Sulfide separates were analyzed following the methods described by Gliesemann et al. (1994), where samples were loaded into tin cups and dropped into a 1050ºC quartz tube combustion reactor (Carlo Erba NA 1500 elemental analyzer). A pulse of  $O_2$  (gas) was injected into the reactor simultaneously with the introduction to a given sample for flash combustion.  $\delta^{34}S$  values were analyzed on a Thermo Delta+XL mass spectrometer and calculated by comparing a respective sample to reference peaks and output using ISODAT software. Samples were normalized to VCDT and lab precision at  $1\sigma$  is  $\pm$  0.3‰, based on analysis of standards.

# **6.0 Results**

# **6.1 Whole Rock Lithogeochemistry Results**

All Mesozoic igneous rocks at Brucejack have been affected to varying degrees by hydrothermal alteration, which is observed as sericite, chlorite, quartz, and calcite alteration of groundmass and phenocryst replacement. Samples showing the least degree of alteration (least-altered) were selected for lithogeochemical analysis, but it is recognized that abundances of highly fluid-mobile elements, such as alkalis, have likely

been affected to some extent by this alteration. Major and trace element data are listed in Appendix III.

## 6.1.1 Major Element Geochemistry

Intrusive rocks and porphyritic latite flows from Brucejack are plotted on a total alkali-silica diagram (Fig. 27), where major element oxide data have been normalized to 100% volatile free. Samples showing higher degrees of alteration are indicated with open symbols, and show wide scatter to high and low alkali contents relative to the leastaltered samples. Nevertheless, the least-altered volcanic rocks cluster relatively tightly in the sub-alkaline trachyandesite and trachydacite fields, consistent with their field classification as latites. Least-altered post-mineralization mafic dykes also group tightly in the basalt–trachybasalt fields, suggesting an overall weakly alakine character for igneous rocks in the Brucejack area. Unaltered Cenozoic dykes plot in the basaltic trachyandesite field.

The immobile element petrogenetic classification diagram of Winchester and Floyd (1997) provides a more robust indentification for altered rocks (Fig. 28). The volcanic host-rocks and least-altered post-mineralization Mesozoic dykes mainly cluster in the sub-alkaline andesite and basaltic-andesite fields, but close to the trachyandesite boundary, confirming their weakly alkaline character. In contrast, the unaltered Cenozoic dykes plot in the alkaline basalt field, confirming their mafic, alkaline character.

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Figure 27: Intrusive and extrusive igneous rock samples from Brucejack plotted on a total alkali-silica diagram (after Le Maitre, 1989). Data are recalculated 100% volatile free. The thick black line represents the alkalic/subalkalic boundary of Irvine and Baragar (1971). Strongly altered samples are shown as open symbols; all other samples except for the Tertiary post-mineralization dykes show some alteration, which may account for the scatter in the data



Figure 28: Intrusive and extrusive igneous rock samples from Brucejack plotted on a  $Zr/TiO<sub>2</sub>–Nb/Y$ discrimination diagram (after Winchester and Floyd 1977). Strongly altered samples are shown as open symbols

On Harker-type diagrams (plotted against  $SiO<sub>2</sub>$  as a measure of fractionation; Fig. 29), the alkalis (Na<sub>2</sub>O and K<sub>2</sub>O) show some scatter (as expected due to variable degrees of hydrothermal alteration). However, other less fluid-mobile elements show more coherent trends, with decreases in Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, MgO, P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, and TiO<sub>2</sub> with SiO<sub>2</sub> for all suites, reflecting progressive fractionation of ferromagnesian silicate minerals, apatite, and magnetite. Aluminum and CaO show relatively flat trends for the intermediate volcanic rocks, suggesting moderate amounts of plagioclase feldspar fractionation.

There is an insufficient range of  $SiO<sub>2</sub>$  compositions in the Cenozoic dyke samples to distinguish fractionation trends, but they plot well above the Mesozoic suite for  $P_2O_5$ and TiO2, as expected for their more alkaline character.





Figure 29: Intrusive and extrusive igneous rock samples from Brucejack plotted on Harker variation diagrams (major element oxide compositions versus  $SiO<sub>2</sub>$  in weight percent; recalculated to 100% volatile free): (a) K<sub>2</sub>O, (b) Na<sub>2</sub>O, (c) Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, (d) MgO, (e) Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, (f) CaO, (g) P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, and (h) TiO<sub>2</sub>. Strongly altered samples are shown as open symbols

# 6.1.2 Trace Element Geochemistry

Chondrite-normalized rare earth element (REE) plots for Brucejack rocks are presented in Figure 30. Porphyritic flow and mafic dyke samples show enrichment in light rare earth elements (LREE) relative to heavy rare earth elements (HREE), with listric-shaped patterns that flatten in the middle rare earth elements (MREE). Weak negative Eu anomalies are common among these samples and reflect minor plagioclase fractionation (or high magmatic oxidation states), whereas hornblende and titanite fractionation is suggested by the listric trend from MREE to HREEs (Green and Pearson, 1985; Sisson, 1994).

In contrast to the Mesozoic suite, the Cenozoic basaltic trachyandesite dykes are strongly LREE enriched, with uniform trends towards more depleted HREE compositions, and display no Eu anomalies (Fig. 30C). These strongly HREE-depleted patters suggest the presence of garnet as a fractionating or restite phase in the mantle or deep crustal (garnet amphibolitic) source rocks (Green, 1975).



Figure 30: Chondrite-normalized REE plots (normalization values from Sun and McDonough, 1989) for: (a) fine-grained plagioclase-hornblende porphyritic latite flows; (b) coarse-grained plagioclase-hornblende porphyritic latite flows and; (c) trachybasalt and basaltic trachyandesite dykes

Primitive mantle-normalized trace element plots for intrusive and extrusive igneous rocks are shown in Figure 31. Mesozoic porphyritic volcanic rocks and mafic rocks display similar patterns with strong negative Nb, Ta, and Ti anomalies, which are characteristic of arc magmas (Briqueau et al., 1984). Several samples have negative Sr anomalies, and few mafic dyke samples have large negative Rb and Nb anomalies. The Sr anomaly can be explained by the fractionation of plagioclase, and strong negative Rb and Nb anomalies may be a function of alteration.

Cenozoic basaltic trachyandesite dykes show quite distinct patterns to the Mesozoic rocks, with only weak negative Nb-Ta anomalies and no Ti anomaly.



Figure 31: Primitive mantle-normalized trace element plots (normalization values from Sun and McDonough, 1989) for: (a) fine-grained plagioclase feldspar-hornblende porphyritic latite flows; (b)

coarse-grained plagioclase feldspar-hornblende porphyritic latite flows and; (c) trachybasalt (purple crosses) and basaltic trachyandesite (orange hexagons) dyke samples

Tectonic discrimination diagrams using immobile elements are plotted in Figure 32 (after Pearce et al., 1984). The Mesozoic igneous rocks from Brucejack plot mainly within the volcanic arc field, whereas the Cenozoic basaltic trachyandesite dykes are quite distinct, plotting in the syn-collisional field, close to the within-plate field.



Figure 32: Intrusive and extrusive igneous rock samples from Brucejack plotted on immobile element tectonic discrimination diagrams (after Pearce et al., 1984): (a) Ta–Yb plot showing Mesozoic rocks clustered in the volcanic arc field, and Cenozoic basaltic trachy-andesite dykes plotting in the syn-

collisional field; (b) Nb–Y plot showing Mesozoic rocks clustered in the volcanic arc & syn-collisional field, and Cenozoic dykes plotting close to the within-plate field. Strongly altered samples are shown as open symbols

#### **6.2 Geochronology Results**

#### 6.2.1 Re-Os Geochronology Results

Molybdenite found within quartz stockwork veins in the West Zone and Bridge Zone is used to estimate the timing for main-stage Au-mineralization at Brucejack. Results from Re-Os geochronology are reported in Table 1. Ages for Bridge Zone are  $191.7 \pm 0.8$  Ma and  $191.5 \pm 0.8$  Ma, and West Zone is  $188.9 \pm 0.9$  Ma. Both samples from Bridge Zone are within error of one another, but the West Zone sample is significantly younger. Multiple pulses of mineralization in an episodic mineralizing environment can explain this geochronological discrepancy.

Table 1: Re-Os Isotope Data for Molybdenite Samples from quartz veins from the Brucejack deposit



<sup>2</sup> Model age calculated from the equation:  $t = \ln (187Qs/187Re + 1)/\lambda$ , where  $t =$  model age, and  $\lambda = 187Re$ decay constant and assuming no initial radiogenic Os

<sup>3</sup>  $\lambda =$ <sup>187</sup>Re decay constant, 1.666 x 10<sup>-11</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Smoliar et al., 2006)

# $6.2.2 \frac{40}{\text{Ar}}^{39}$ Ar Geochronology Results

 $^{40}Ar^{39}Ar$  data for hydrothermal sericite and muscovite samples are reported at 2 standard deviations and presented in Appendix IV and plotted in Figure 33. All of the samples display disturbed spectra, characterized by late Ar-loss due to thermal overprinting. Nevertheless, plateau ages can be calculated for the sericite samples, which produced dates of  $105.4 \pm 2.4$  Ma and  $112.3 \pm 2.6$  Ma for A8 and A20 respectively. The muscovite samples did not produce plateau ages, although they have apparent plateaus that are approximately the same age as the sericite samples; total gas ages for these samples are  $96.9 \pm 0.6$  Ma and  $98.9 \pm 0.4$  Ma for BJ-B6 and BJ-P005 respectively.



Figure 33: Apparent <sup>40</sup>Ar/<sup>39</sup>Ar age spectra for sericite and muscovite from Brucejack: (a) massive monomineralic sericite (A8); (b) hydrothermally sericitized polylithic conglomerate on the margins of strong pervasive silica alteration; (c) hydrothermal muscovite collected from quartz vein stockwork (BJ-B6); (d) fracture-filling muscovite in volcanic sandstone (BJ-P005).

## **6.3 Fluid Inclusion Results**

Measured primary fluid inclusion assemblages (criteria of Roedder, 1984, and Goldstein and Reynolds, 1994) contain two inclusion types: (1) high density, aqueous, liquid-rich inclusions; and (2) low density vapor-rich inclusions. Type 1 and type 2 fluid inclusions occur separately (Fig. 34a,b), or together in all vein stages and suggest that fluids were trapped under two-phase (boiling) conditions. Consequently a pressure correction has not been applied to the measured homogenization temperatures, which are believed to closely approximate original trapping temperatures.

Type 1 fluid inclusions do not contain liquid  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  at ambient temperatures, but clathrate melting was observed in some inclusions from vein stage III (Fig. 35d). Hedenquist and Henley (1985) suggested that salinity values may be overestimated by up to  $\sim$ 1.5 wt.% equiv. NaCl where inclusions containing CO<sub>2</sub> clathrate are present, and calculated pressures may also be underestimated.





Figure 34: Transmitted light microphotographs of fluid inclusions in veins from the VOK: (a) type 1 primary aqueous fluid inclusion (right) with proximal type 2 primary vapor-rich fluid inclusion (left) suggesting boiling; quartz from stage IV vein. Through adjusting the microscopic stage to variable depths

in the quartz various other neighboring type 1 fluid inclusions are visible, suggesting the inclusions constitute a single fluid inclusion assemblage (VP017-3); (b) close-up of inclusions in (a); (c) type 1 primary fluid inclusions within a 100 µm quartz crystal completely surrounded by galena, stage III vein (VP032-2); (d) fluid inclusion containing clathrate within sphalerite; stage III vein (VP032-15).

#### 6.3.1 Vein Stage II Fluid Inclusion Assemblages

Primary type 1 fluid inclusions from stage II veins homogenized to the liquidphase between 136°C to 177°C, but with a mode near 170°C. The median homogenization temperature is  $170 \pm 11^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $n = 20$ ; Fig. 35a). Salinity calculated from ice melting temperatures ranges from 3.7 to 13.9 wt. percent NaCl equiv., with a mean value of  $5.6 \pm 1.1$  wt. percent NaCl equiv. ( $n = 20$ ; Fig. 36a). Fluid inclusion assemblages are plotted for stage II veins in Fig. 37 (homogenization temperature against salinity); most of the data cluster around  $\sim$ 160C and  $\sim$ 6 wt.% NaCl equiv., and are generally tightly clustered and show no evidence for fluid mixing.

Type 2 vapor-rich fluid inclusions occur sporadically with type 1 inclusions throughout this vein generation.

#### 6.3.2 Vein Stage III Fluid Inclusion Assemblages

Primary type 1 fluid inclusions from stage III base metal sulfide-rich veins homogenized to the liquid-phase, with homogenization temperatures over a similar range to those of stage II veins from 115 to 196°C. However, stage III data show a weak bimodal distribution with modes at ~150°C and ~180°C, and an overall mean of  $154 \pm 18$ °C (n = 89; Fig. 35b). Salinities of type 1 fluid inclusions have a large range ( $\sim$ 1 to  $\sim$ 15

wt. percent NaCl equiv.), with a bimodal distribution and modes at  $\sim$ 5 and  $\sim$ 8 wt. percent NaCl equiv., and an overall mean of  $7.6 \pm 3.1$  wt. percent NaCl equiv. ( $n = 89$ ; Fig. 36b).

Clathrate-bearing fluid inclusions are found exclusively within base metal-sulfide dominated stage III veins and have liquid-phase homogenization temperatures ranging between 115 and 146<sup>o</sup>C with a median of  $125 \pm 8$ <sup>o</sup>C ( $n = 11$ ; Fig. 35a). Salinities of these inclusions range from 6.5 to 14.4 wt. percent NaCl equiv. and an overall mean of  $10.9 \pm$ 2.5 wt. percent NaCl equiv.

Individual fluid inclusion assemblages for stage III veins are plotted in Figure 38, where an unusual correlated trend is observed between higher temperature and lower salinity liquids, and lower temperature, higher salinity liquids. Range in salinity within many fluid inclusion assemblages suggest mixing between these two end-members. The CO<sup>2</sup> clathrate-bearing fluid inclusions appear to belong to the lower temperature higher salinity end-member fluid.

Type 2 fluid inclusions are rarely observed in this vein generation and are not common, suggesting perhaps not all FIA were boiling.

#### 6.3.3 Vein Stage IV Fluid Inclusion Assemblages

Primary type 1 fluid inclusions from stage IV veins show approximately normal distributions of homogenization temperature and salinity, with a means of  $158^\circ \pm 9^\circ \text{C}$  and  $3.6 \pm 1.1$  wt percent NaCl equiv respectively ( $n = 34$ ; Figs. 35c and 36c). Stage IV veins also contain type 2 vapor-rich fluid inclusions, commonly in the same assemblages as type 1 fluid inclusions, suggesting two-phase (boiling) conditions. Fluid inclusion

assemblages for stage IV veins are plotted in Figure 39, where individual fluid inclusion assemblages are clustered quite tightly and show no evidence for fluid mixing.



Figure 35: Histogram showing measured homogenization temperatures of type 1 fluid inclusions from: (a) stage II stockwork, breccia, and stringer veins; (b) stage III base metal sulfide-rich veins including CO<sub>2</sub>bearing inclusions; and (c) stage IV calcite-dominated veins



Figure 36: Histogram showing calculated salinities of fluid inclusions from: (a) stage II stockwork, breccia, and stringer veins; (b) stage III base metal sulfide-rich veins including CO2-bearing inclusions; and (c) stage IV carbonate dominated veins.



Figure 37: Plot of homogenization temperature against apparent salinity for stage II vein fluid inclusion assemblages.



Figure 38: Plot of homogenization temperature against apparent salinity for stage III vein fluid inclusion assemblages. Strong evidence for fluid mixing occurs throughout many individual fluid inclusion assemblages.



Figure 39: Plot of homogenization temperature against apparent salinity for stage IV vein fluid inclusion assemblages. These fluid inclusion assemblages show no evidence for fluid mixing.

#### 6.3.4 Pressure and Depth Estimates

Vein stages II–IV commonly contain type 1 (liquid-rich) and type 2 (vapor-rich) fluid inclusions in the same fluid inclusion assemblage, suggesting fluids were trapped under two-phase (boiling) conditions (i.e.  $Th = Tt$ , and  $Ph = Pt$ ). Therefore, no correction is needed for fluid pressures under these boiling conditions ( $P = P_h = P_f$ , where P is the total pressure,  $P_h$  is the hydrostatic pressure, and  $P_f$  is the fluid pressure; assuming hydrostatic or supra-hydrostatic conditions). Fluid pressures under vapor-saturated (boiling conditions) were calculated for stage II and IV fluids using the data of Haas (1976), and indicate low values of  $\sim$ 6 bar for fluids of 5 wt % NaCl equiv. and  $\sim$ 160°C. It is not clear whether stage III fluids were boiling at the time of vein formation, as such a pressure calculation has not been made for these fluids. When using the calculated fluid pressure values and applying them to the formula from Haas (1971):

$$
P_h = 0.1897h^{0.8719}
$$
 (2)

where h is the depth below the paleo-surface and measured in meters, a paleo-depth of  $\sim$ 50 m is calculated.

The assumption in these calculations is that the hydrothermal fluids were simple  $H<sub>2</sub>O-NaCl$  mixtures, and that no gaseous phases were present (i.e.  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ , CH<sub>4</sub>). However, CO<sup>2</sup> clathrate was found in a small number of fluid inclusions, suggesting that at least some  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  was present in these fluids. Dissolved  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  in hydrothermal liquids has been recognized to increase the vapor pressure of a given liquid (Bodnar et al., 1985; Richards et al., 1997; Wilkinson, 2001), and cause either an increase in the depth of boiling, or decrease the temperature of boiling at a given depth. Hedenquist and Henley (1985) suggested that a typical epithermal fluid may contain up to  $0.2$  molal dissolved  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ , which could cause boiling down to depths of 500 m at temperatures below 200<sup>°</sup>C (Hedenquist and Henley, 1985).

## **6.4 Stable Isotope Results**

Quartz, calcite, and sulfide (pyrite, sphalerite, and galena) mineral separates from vein specimens across the paragenetic sequence were collected to constrain O, C, and S
isotopic values. The corresponding isotopic compositions of fluids in equilibrium with these minerals were calculated by correcting for temperature-dependent fractionations, using an estimate of 160˚C from fluid inclusions. Vein stage IV calcites are separated into three types based on colour: white (type I), grey (type II), and orange (type III).

6.4.1 Carbon and oxygen isotopic compositions of vein calcite

The carbon and oxygen isotopic ratios of vein calcites are listed in Table 2 and shown in Figure 40.

6.4.1.1 Carbon

Stage II calcites have calculated  $\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$  values ranging from -6.7‰ to -3.9‰, with a mean of  $-5.6 \pm 1.1\%$  ( $n = 6$ ). A single sample of stage III calcite sample yielded a  $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>CO2</sub> value of -5.9‰. Type I and II white and grey calcites from vein stage IV have similar ranges of  $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>cO2</sub> from -8.7‰ to -6.4‰ (*n* = 8) with one outlier at -3.7‰ (sample HG-BJ05). Type III orange calcites range from -9.3‰ to -5.8‰ (*n* = 7). Taken together, all stage IV calcites yield a mean  $\delta^{13}$ Cco<sub>2</sub> value of -6.8  $\pm$  1.4‰ (*n* = 15). Stage V calcites have tightly clustered  $\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$  values with a mean of -6.4  $\pm$  0.1‰ (*n* = 3).

6.4.1.2 Oxygen

Stage II calcites have calculated  $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$  values with a small range from -4.3‰ to  $-1.4\%$  and a mean of  $-2.8 \pm 1.3\%$  ( $n = 6$ ). The single stage III calcite sample yielded a  $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$  value of -4.2‰. Stage IV white (type I) and grey (type II) calcites have a narrow

 $\delta^{18}$ Ofluid range from -5.3‰ to -3.8‰ ( $n = 8$ ), and orange calcites (type III) have a large range from -5.8‰ to 1.4‰ ( $n = 7$ ). Collectively, stage IV calcites have a mean  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{fluid}}$ value of -3.3  $\pm$  2.4‰ (*n* = 15). Stage V white calcite have a mean  $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$  value of -3.9  $\pm$ 0.1‰  $(n = 3)$  and are tightly clustered.

		Vein			$\delta^{13}C$	${\bf T}$	$\delta^{18}$ O	
$\#$	<b>Sample</b>	<b>Stage</b>	<b>Comments</b>	$\delta^{18}O$ (VSMOW)	(VPDB)	(°C)	Water	$\delta^{13}$ C CO <sub>2</sub>
	HG-BJ-							
$\mathbf{1}$	B2 HG-BJ-	<b>IIa</b>	white calcite	8.4	$-6.6$	160	$-3.6$	$-5.7$
$\overline{2}$	B <sub>3</sub> HG-BJ-	Iia	white calcite	7.9	$-7.6$	160	$-4.1$	$-6.7$
3	<b>B4</b>	Iia	white calcite	7.6	$-7.3$	160	$-4.3$	$-6.3$
$\overline{4}$	<b>BJ-A6-1</b>	Iib	white calcite	10.0	$-4.8$	160	$-1.9$	$-3.9$
5	<b>BJ-A6-2</b>	Iib	white calcite	10.5	$-5.8$	160	$-1.4$	$-4.9$
6	$BJ-A9$	Iib	white calcite	10.4	$-7.1$	160	$-1.5$	$-6.2$
$\overline{7}$	<b>VP004</b>	$\rm III$	white calcite	7.7	$-6.8$	160	$-4.2$	$-5.9$
8	<b>VP008</b>	IV	white calcite	7.2	$-7.3$	160	$-4.7$	$-6.4$
9	VP010-1	IV	white calcite	6.7	$-8.7$	160	$-5.3$	$-7.8$
10	VP047-2	${\rm IV}$	white calcite	7.6	$-7.6$	160	$-4.4$	$-6.7$
11	VP058-2	IV	white calcite	6.8	$-9.6$	160	$-5.2$	$-8.7$
12	<b>VP010</b>	IV	grey calcite	7.8	$-7.9$	160	$-4.2$	$-7.0$
13	<b>VP047</b>	${\rm IV}$	grey calcite	8.1	$-7.7$	160	$-3.8$	$-6.8$
14	<b>VP058</b>	${\rm IV}$	grey calcite	8.1	$-8.9$	160	$-3.8$	$-8.0$
15	BJ-HG05	IV	grey calcite	8.1	$-4.6$	160	$-3.8$	$-3.6$
16	VP047-1	IV	orange calcite	7.5	$-9.0$	160	$-4.4$	$-8.1$
17	VP058-1	IV	orange calcite	6.6	$-10.2$	160	$-5.3$	$-9.3$
18	$BJ-B8$	IV	orange calcite	6.1	$-8.7$	160	$-5.8$	$-7.7$
19	A1	IV	orange calcite	13.1	$-7.1$	160	1.2	$-6.2$
20	$A1-1$	${\rm IV}$	orange calcite	13.4	$-7.3$	160	1.4	$-6.4$
21	<b>BJ-A29</b>	IV	orange calcite	12.2	$-6.7$	160	0.2	$-5.8$
22	<b>BJ-A31</b>	IV	orange calcite	10.1	$-7.4$	160	$-1.9$	$-6.4$
23	<b>VP005</b>	V	white calcite	7.9	$-7.4$	160	$-4.0$	$-6.5$
24	<b>VP040</b>	$\mathbf V$	white calcite	8.0	$-7.3$	160	$-3.9$	$-6.4$
25	VP040-1	$\mathbf V$	white calcite	8.0	$-7.2$	160	$-3.9$	$-6.3$

Table 2: Calculated Carbon and Oxygen Isotopic Values for Hydrothermal Vein Calcites

*\*Note: Vein generation Iia and Iib correspond to stringer and breccia veins respectively. Temperature correction for oxygen and carbon isotope values calculated using O'Neil et al. (1969) and Chacko et al. (1991) respectively.*



Figure 40: Plot of calculated  $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$  against  $\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$  for hydrothermal calcites from main-stage vein generations containing electrum (vein stages II, III, and IV) and barren veins (stage V) at Brucejack.  $\delta^{18}O$ and  $\delta^{13}$ C values are temperature-corrected using equations from O'Neil et al. (1969) and Chacko et al. (1991) respectively. Error bars for one sample (BJ-A6-2) are shown to illustrate differences of  $\pm 10^{\circ}$ C in the temperature estimate used for fractionation calculations.

#### 6.4.2 Oxygen isotopic compositions of hydrothermal vein quartz

The oxygen isotopic ratios of hydrothermal vein quartz samples are listed in Table 3 and shown in Figure 41. Stage II quartz samples have calculated  $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$  values ranging from -1.5 to -7.1‰ and a mean of -4.1‰ ( $n = 5$ ). Stage III veins have  $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$  values ranging from  $-3.3$  to  $-7.2\%$ , and a mean of  $-4.9\%$  ( $n = 5$ ). No quartz from stage IV veins

was collected because these veins are dominantly calcitic. Stage V quartz samples have  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{fluid}}$  values ranging from -5.8 and -9.8‰, and a mean of -7.6‰ (*n* = 5).

	Vein			$\delta^{18}$ Oqtz		$\delta^{18}$ O
#	<b>Sample</b>	<b>Stage</b>	<b>Comments</b>	(VSMOW)	$T(^{\circ}C)$	Water
	HG-BJ-					
1	3	<b>Iia</b>	Au-within same vein	13.0	160	$-1.5$
2	HG-BJ- 4	<b>Iia</b>	Au-within same vein	12.2	160	
						$-2.3$
3	<b>VP003</b>	<b>I</b> ia	Au-within same vein	7.7	160	$-6.8$
4	HG-BJ- 1	<b>Tib</b>	Au-within same vein		160	$-2.9$
				11.6		
5	VP002	Iib	White quartz	7.4	160	$-7.1$
	HG-BJ-					
6	$\mathfrak{D}$	Ш	Au-within same vein	11.2	160	$-3.3$
	HG-BJ-					
7	$\mathfrak{D}$	IΙI	Au-within same vein	11.2	160	$-3.3$
8	<b>VP004</b>	Ш	White quartz	8.9	160	$-5.6$
9	<b>VP018</b>	III	White quartz	7.3	160	$-7.2$
10	VP013	Ш	White quartz	9.6	160	$-4.9$
11	VP032	Ш	White quartz	9.5	160	$-5.0$
12	<b>VP005</b>	V	White quartz	8.7	160	$-5.8$
13	<b>VP030</b>	V	White quartz	7.3	160	$-7.2$
14	<b>VP040</b>	V	White quartz	6.4	160	$-8.1$
15	VP016	V	White quartz	4.7	160	$-9.8$
16	VP023	V	White quartz	7.2	160	$-7.3$

Table 3: Calculated Oxygen Isotopic Values for Hydrothermal Vein Quartz

*\*Note: Vein generation Iia and Iib correspond to stringer and breccia veins respectively. Temperature correction for* 

*oxygen isotope values calculated using Matsuhisha et al., 1979.*



Figure 41: Graph showing calculated  $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$  values for hydrothermal quartz from vein stages II to V.  $\delta^{18}O$ values are temperature-corrected using equations from Matsuhisha et al. (1979). Errors for one of these samples (VP018) are shown for differences in fractionation at 150˚C and 170˚C.

#### 6.4.3 Sulfur isotopes of hydrothermal vein sulfides

Sulfur isotopic data for hydrothermal sulfides are listed in Table 4. Pyrite and sphalerite have  $\delta^{34}$ S values ranging from -1.7 to 0.6‰ with a mean of -0.7  $\pm$  0.7‰ (*n* = 15), which is independent of vein stage. A single galena sample from a stage III base metal sulfide vein has a lower  $\delta^{34}S$  value of -4.2‰, consistent with the expected fractionation in this mineral.

$\#$	Sample	Vein Stage	<b>Mineral</b>	$\delta^{32}S$
1	VP015	I	pyrite	$0.0\,$
$\overline{2}$	VP021	I	pyrite	0.2
$\overline{3}$	VP022	T	pyrite	$-0.1$
$\overline{4}$	VP049	I	pyrite	$-1.7$
5	<b>VP002</b>	<b>Iib</b>	pyrite	0.1
6	VP024	lib	pyrite	$-0.5$
7	<b>VP057</b>	<b>Iib</b>	pyrite	$-0.2$
8	<b>VP004</b>	Ш	sphalerite	$-1.4$
9	<b>VP018</b>	Ш	pyrite	$-1.2$
10	<b>VP025</b>	Ш	pyrite	$-0.4$
11	VP032-1	Ш	sphalerite	0.5
12	VP032-2	Ш	galena	$-4.2$
13	VP054	Ш	pyrite	$-1.7$
14	<b>VP010</b>	IV	pyrite	0.6
15	<b>VP007</b>	V	pyrite	$-0.6$
16	<b>VP030</b>	V	pyrite	0.1

Table 4: Sulfur Isotopic Values for Hydrothermal Vein Sulfides

*\*Note: Vein generation Iib corresponds to breccia veins.* 

# **7.0 Discussion**

### **7.1 Timing of magmatism and hydrothermal activity at Brucejack**

The relatively broad range of U/Pb zircon measured for intermediate porphyritic latite flows at Brucejack dates ( $196.2 \pm 0.2$  Ma to  $179.8 \pm 1.1$  Ma; Appendix I; pers. Comm. W. Board, June 2015) reveals a prolonged period of volcanism. The Early Jurassic (Sinemurian–Toarcian) age constraint for Brucejack volcanic rocks corresponds well to hornblende-plagioclase-porphyritic andesitic to dacitic flows and subordinate volcanic breccias (MacDonald et al., 1996) of the middle Hazelton Group Unuk River Formation. Dacitic pyroclastic and epiclastic rocks belonging to the Betty Creek Formation are also restricted to this age. Extrusive volcanic rocks similar to porphyritic latite flows at Brucejack are found elsewhere in the Iskut River area and have yielded

Early Jurassic U-Pb (zircon) dates ranging from 195–185 Ma (Anderson, 1993; Davies et al., 1994). One trachybasaltic dyke records a U/Pb age of  $182.7 \pm 1.0$  Ma (pers. Comm. C. Greig, June 2015). Other trachybasaltic dykes are found to crosscut stage IV carbonate dominated veins, representing the last vein generation containing Au-mineralization. This date provides the minimum age of mineralization at Brucejack.

Two Re-Os ages of molybdenite from Bridge Zone (191.7  $\pm$  0.8 and 191.5  $\pm$  0.8 Ma) are distinctly older than molybednite from West Zone (188.9  $\pm$  0.9 Ma), suggesting that these ore zones are not cogenetic and likely formed from a separate, but possibly related, period of hydrothermal activity. Textural and mineralogical discrepancies between Bridge Zone and West Zone also suggest this. West Zone features colloform and crustiform banding, open space filling with bladed calcite, and mineralization is hosted in quartz veinlets and stockworks with minor barite and adularia. In addition to physical features, West Zone has anomalously high Ag/Au when compared to other prospects at Brucejack (i.e. VOK and Bridge Zone). Bridge Zone mineralization is also hosted in quartz veinlets and stockworks, but has dissimilar textures and vein mineralogy contained within the West Zone.

Some hydrothermal systems may occur up to 1.5 m.y. after volcanism has ceased (Silberman, 1985; Heald et al., 1987; Hedenquist and Lowenstern, 1994; Conrad and McKee, 1996; Singer and Marchev, 2000), and a single large intrusive event may sustain hydrothermal convection for up to 0.8 m.y. (Cathles et al., 1997). However, most epithermal deposits record mineralization occurring  $\leq 1$  m.y. after initial volcanism (Heald et al., 1987; Arribas, 1995), and it is unlikely that hydrothermal mineralization occurred continuously at Brucejack over a period >1 m.y. period. The distinct Re-Os ages

suggest instead that multiple episodes of hydrothermal activity occurred, perhaps driven by multiple intrusions of porphyry stocks.

Apparent <sup>40</sup>Ar<sup>/39</sup>Ar ages calculated for sericite at Brucejack (112–105 Ma; Appendix IV) do not reflect the timing of hydrothermal mineralization. These dates are similar to K-Ar dates provided by other studies (Margolis, 1993: 110.4  $\pm$  2.6 Ma; Kirkham, 1989: 110.2  $\pm$  2.3 Ma), and suggest thermal overprinting in the mid- to Late Cretaceous. Evenchick (1991b) suggested that this thermal peak was related to the formation of the Skeena Fold Belt (and associated structures) formed by deformation during the Cretaceous accretion of the Insular Belt.

#### **7.2 Lithogeochemistry and Tectonic Setting**

Ore-bodies at Brucejack are contained within, or proximal to, moderate phyllic alteration halos. This hydrothermal alteration has caused significant alkali element mobility, although REE and immobile elements show minimal effects.

Lithogeochemical data from this study indicate that porphyritic lava flows (termed latites in the field) belonging to the Hazelton Group and their derived volcaniclastic equivalents are of trachyandesite and trachydacite compositions, and trachybasaltic compositions are indicated for broadly coeval mafic post-mineralized dykes (Fig. 27). Relative enrichments of LILE in least-altered samples support a subduction-related tectonic environment (Gill, 1981; Wilson, 1989; McCulloch and Gamble, 1991) with a significant crustal component (Gribble et al., 1996). This is also indicated by enrichments of U and Pb, and depletions of Nb, Ta, and Ti (Fig. 31).

Enrichments in U and Pb result from crustal contamination during magma ascent from depth (Hildreth and Moorbath, 1988).

Negative Ti, Nb, and Ta anomalies result from retention in minerals such as rutile and magnetite under subduction conditions (Brenan et al., 1994; Audétat and Keppler, 2005; Richards, 2011). Weak Eu anomalies relative to adjacent REEs are also present (Fig. 30) and indicate minor plagioclase fractionation (Frey et al., 1978; Hanson, 1980) or oxidizing magmatic conditions, whereby Eu is mainly present as incompatible  $Eu^{3+}$ . Depletions of HREE relative to LREE with listric trends between MREE and HREE indicate a degree of hornblende and titanite fractionation (Green and Pearson, 1985; Sisson, 1994), typical of evolved hydrous arc magmas. From the Ta/Yb discrimination diagrams (Fig. 32; Pearce, 1984), intermediate porphyritic latite flows and both dyke series show calc-alkaline volcanic arc signatures. This is the tectonic environment interpreted for the Stikine terrane prior to Middle Jurassic accretion with exotic terranes already accreted to the North American craton.

Cenozoic basaltic trachyandesite dykes are postmetamorphic (<110 Ma; inferred from a general lack of alteration mineralogy) and have a syn-collisional geochemical character (Fig. 32b). Basaltic trachyandesite dykes at Brucejack are mantle-derived basaltic alkaline melts, where there is an absence in U, Pb, Eu, and Ti anomalies and only weak depletions in Nb and Ta, indicating a lesser degree of crustal assimilation (Fig. 31). The Canadian Cordillera was an active accretionary rogeny in the Early Cretaceous and these late dykes were likely formed in a collisional environment.

Typical calc-alkaline arc magmas are thought to be oxidized relative to MORB (∆FMQ = +0.5 to +2; Gill, 1981; Ballhaus et al., 1991; Rowe et al., 2009; Zimmer et al.,

2010; Richards, 2011, 2015), suggesting that they are ideal transporting agents for chalcophile elements from the mantle (Botcharnikov et al., 2011). It is also documented that arc magmas have higher  $H_2O$  contents ( $\sim$ 4 wt%  $H_2O$ ; Plank et al., 2013) relative to OIB and MORB magmas  $\sim$  1.7 wt% and 0.1-0.5 wt% H<sub>2</sub>O respectively; Schmidt and Poli, 1998). The high  $H<sub>2</sub>O$  contents of arc magmas are necessary for shallow crustal emplacement and generation of near-surface, potentially metal-forming hydrothermal systems (Richards et al., 2012).

#### **7.3 Deposit Classification**

One of the main objectives of this study was to evaluate and classify Brucejack in terms of deposit type. Many of the geological and geochemical features recognized at Brucejack are those that are typical for low- to intermediate-sulfidation epithermal, intermediate volcanic-hosted, Au-Ag deposits:

- 1) Host rocks are Early Jurassic, subaerial–subaqueous intermediate volcanic flows, volcaniclastic rocks, and associated volcanic sedimentary rocks, which were likely formed in a dynamic, tectonically active, subduction-related environment.
- 2) Hydrothermal breccias and stockworks are common and suggest episodic conditions with periodic pressure releases. Crustiform and cockade banded veins occur sporadically and indicate repetitive episodic veining and near surface conditions.
- 3) The hydrothermal alteration assemblages are dominantly represented by quartz, sericite, pyrite, calcite, and minor barite, which is consistent with phyllic alteration.
- 4) The absence of enargite, and presence of vein adularia and sericite reflect near neutral pH fluid conditions (Heald et al., 1987).
- 5) The large range of sulfosalt minerals, stability of chalcopyrite, tetrahedritetennantite, and FeS-poor sphalerite, scarcity of arsenopyrite, and absence of pyrrhotite at Brucejack is consistent with intermediate sulfidation states (Sillitoe and Hedenquist, 2003).
- 6) Enrichments in Au and Ag.
- 7) Stable isotope compositions suggest fluid mixing with modified magmatic fluids and meteoric fluids.
- 8) Fluid inclusions suggest bonanza Au was precipitated at low temperatures (~140– 180˚C) and from low–moderate salinity (0.5–15.5wt % NaCl equiv.) fluids.

The Valley of the Kings is more typical of intermediate-sulfidation systems, because it contains base metal-poor veins, manganoan carbonates, and silver sulfides and sulfosalts (White et al., 1995), and does not contain colloform banding, open space filling, and only minor vuggy quartz, and no adularia or barite. West Zone contains features more suggestive of low-sulfidation epithermal deposits, where cockade textures, cryptocrystalline quartz, and replacement of bladed calcite by quartz is recognized (MacDonald et al., 1996); adularia and barite contained within vein mineralogy also suggest this. The younger age of  $188.9 \pm 0.9$  Ma provides evidence for a younger LS-epithermal system cospatial

to other prospects more characteristic of IS-epithermal mineralization (i.e. VOK, Bridge Zone, Galena Hill Zone).

Mesothermal deposits, when compared to epithermal deposits, contain intermediate–high  $CO_2$  content in fluid inclusions, have higher As, W, and Au/Ag values, and  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>H2</sub>O values ranging from +3 to +10‰, while epithermal deposits have  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>H2</sub>O values ranging between -14 to -7‰ (Nesbitt et al., 1986). Although Brucejack has anomalously high Au/Ag values when compared to typical low–intermediate epithermal deposits, the  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{H}_2O}$  values are representative of epithermal systems with magmatic values; mesothermal systems typically involve metamorphic fluids (Nesbitt et al., 1986). Greenschist metamorphism is common to mesothermal deposits. Wallrocks at Brucejack show moderate–strong hydrothermal phyllic alteration proximal to fluid pathways, and lower-greenschist metamorphic conditions are not prevalent.

Table 5: Characteristics of the Valley of the Kings within the Brucejack deposit

compared with mesothermal deposits from the Canadian Cordillera (from Nesbitt et al.,



1985, and references therein)

# 7.3.1 Depth of Emplacement

Although Brucejack is similar to low–intermediate-sulfidation epithermal deposits, it is believed that the depth of metal-emplacement is deeper than expected for typical near surface epithermal deposits. Brucejack has abundant stockwork veining and breccia-veins, and minor vuggy quartz, crustiform and cockade banded veins, along with adularia, acanthite, and bladed calcite suggesting these ore-forming conditions were at

shallow paleodepths within an epithermal environment. However, the absence of colloform banding and uncommon open-space filling suggest deeper levels of deposition, perhaps associated with a porphyry or mesothermal environment.

The presence of crystalline quartz rather than chalcedony and uncommon adularia led Sillitoe (1988) to postulate that deposits in the Philippines formed at deeper crustal levels than what is typical for epithermal deposits, which is consistent for Brucejack. The Porgera gold deposit, Papua New Guinea, is also classified as an epithermal deposit with deeper emplacement characteristics (Ronacher et al., 2000). Mineralizing fluids in the high-grade gold event (stage II) at Porgera contain small amounts of volatile gases including  $CO_2$  (Richards et al., 1997). The presence of  $CO_2$  and  $CH_4$  has been shown to affect the total gas solubility, lowering the temperature and increasing the depth where boiling can occur in epithermal systems (Giggenbach, 1997; Richards et al., 1997; Lowenstern 2001, 2002; Baker, 2002). Hydrothermal fluids containing  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  and CH<sub>4</sub> may be a significant contributing factor in the anomalous vertical depths of ore emplacement in epithermal environments (Drummond and Ohmoto, 1985; Richards et al., 1997). Although no data are available for the gas content of the hydrothermal fluids at Brucejack, CO<sub>2</sub> clathrate was observed in some fluid inclusions. This may indicate that the fluids were relatively gassy (compared to typical low-sulfidation fluids), resulting in boiling (effervescence) at greater depths and lower temperatures than in gas-poor systems. This observation may explain the large vertical extent of mineralization at Brucejack (currently confirmed to exceed 1000 m).

#### **7.4 Hydrothermal Mineralization**

### 7.4.1 Source of ore fluid and metal

The bulk salinity for magmatic fluids is believed to be between 5 and 10 wt% NaCl equivalent (Burnham, 1979; Cline and Bodnar, 1991; Hedenquist and Lowenstern, 1994; Heinrich, 2005; Heinrich, 2007), and fluids <5 wt% NaCl equiv. salinity are believed to be of meteoric affinity. Fluid inclusion data indicate that vein stage II and IV are generally 3–7 wt% NaCl equivalent, and are likely condensed magmatic fluids. Vein stage III fluid inclusion salinities are not tightly clustered, and a large range of salinity is indicated for several fluid inclusion assemblages in this vein stage (i.e. sample A22 shows a range of 0.9–14.4 wt% NaCl equiv.). At the low temperatures of these fluids it is difficult to explain this large range in salinity by boiling (as suggested by Wilkinson, 2011), and it is considered more likely to reflect mixing between two end-member fluids. The moderate salinity end-member approximates the bulk salinity of magmatic fluids, whereas the more saline fluids are interpreted to be cooler brines of original meteoric origin (as indicated by oxygen isotopes; Fig. 42).

Mineralized calcite veins (stage IV) have  $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$  values as high as  $1.4 \pm 2.3\%$ , while vein stage II and III quartz veins are up to -1.5 and -3.3‰ respectively. These temperature corrected  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{fluid}}$  values are lower than expected for exclusively magmatic fluids (typically ranging from 5.5–9.0‰; Taylor, 1979), and may be explained by early dilution of magmatic fluids with meteoric waters or isotopic exchange with surrounding sedimentary rocks as fluids ascended to higher levels in the crust.

Although it is more common for hydrothermal fluids in epithermal systems to fall between the magmatic water and the meteoric water line, magmatic fluids may be the

source of aqueous ore fluids in shallow epithermal gold deposits (*Creede, United States:* Wetlaufer, 1977; Bethke and Rye, 1979; *Eureka, United States*: Casadevall and Ohmoto, 1977; Heald et al., 1987; *Pueblo Viejo, Dominican Republic*: Muntean et al., 1990; *Metaliferi Mountains, Romania*: Alderton and Fallick, 2000; *Rosia Montana, Romania*: Wallier et al., 2006), and may be the source of metal, although this is debated.

Brucejack  $\delta^{32}$ S values for sulfides all cluster close to zero per mil (*n* = 16) suggesting a magmatic source for sulfur. Calculated  $\delta^{13}$ Cco<sub>2</sub> values for hydrothermal calcites range from -9.3 to -4.9‰ with mean values of -6.5  $\pm$  1.3‰ (*n* = 25), suggesting a magmatic source with a minor sedimentary component. Furthermore, molybdenum is observed at Bridge Zone and West Zone, where the Re concentrations (within molybdenite) are anomalously high (>1000 ppm) and suggest mantle derived Re (Stein et al., 2001).

It is likely that Brucejack ore-forming fluids were low-salinity magmatic liquids exsolved and condensed from a calc-alkaline melt at shallow levels in the crust. These fluids underwent some isotopic exchange with the surrounding volcanic-sedimentary wallrocks and also mixed with more saline groundwater of meteoric origin.

7.4.2 Early Sulfidization and Phyllic Alteration of Wall Rocks

Wallrocks throughout the Brucejack deposit are strongly pyritized and sericitized, especially close to ore zones and lithological contacts (alteration persists for tens of meters away from these zones). This widespread sulfidization of surrounding rocks is suggested to have occurred during a pre-mineralization sulfidation hydrothermal event, possibly in an early porphyry-style event. Early pyritization is present as stage I stringer

veins, disseminated masses, and clots hosted throughout the wall rock, and has a magmatic isotopic signature ( $\delta^{32}S = -1.7$  to 0.5‰). Wallrocks in the VOK commonly contain 1–2 g/t Au (pers. Comm. W. Board, June 2015), where electrum is found associated with early pyritization. Formation of pyrite in wallrocks typically occurs by reactions between iron-bearing silicates and oxides with ascending H2S-rich fluids (Gammons and William-Jones, 1997).

The formation of phyllosilicate alteration (illite) by reaction of feldspars with mildly acidic fluids occurred in two separate events: 1) during pre-mineralization sulfidization of surrounding rocks, and 2) with influx of fluids associated with gold mineralization. Low grade metamorphism associated with the accretion of the Insular Belt at 105–112 Ma, is thought to have caused recrystallization of illite to fine-grained sericite.

Heinrich et al. (2004) suggested fluid evolution paths from magmatic to epithermal conditions that act to maximize the efficiency of gold transport. High gold concentrations ( $>10$  ppm) may be transported from high temperature ( $>450^{\circ}$ C) porphyry levels to lower temperature (i.e. 150ºC) epithermal depths without gold ever becoming saturated. This is possible where conditions permit fluids to contain high S/Fe ratios and feldspar and muscovite buffer acidity (Heinrich et al., 2004).

The pre-mineralization pyritization event at Brucejack led to abundant free ferrous Fe in surrounding wall rocks to be converted to pyrite. When later mineralizing fluids passed through these pyritic wall rocks they had no capacity to buffer  $H_2S$ (Gammons and Williams-Jones, 1997), and reduced S concentrations may have remained elevated and available for gold complexation (Heinrich et al., 2004). Precious metal

systems rich in  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  also may have high  $H<sub>2</sub>S$  concentrations compared to systems depleted in gas (Hedenquist and Henley, 1985). With increased  $H_2S$  concentrations gold solubility will increase (Benning and Seward, 1996) and fluids will have a greater capacity to transport gold. Furthermore, feldspars and illite present in wallrocks during hydrothermal gold deposition buffers the acidity of the magmatic fluids through acid neutralization, again maximizing the free HS- ligand concentration (Heinrich et al., 2004). Zones of pervasive phyllic alteration (muscovite  $\pm$  pyrite  $\pm$  clay minerals  $\pm$  sulfate  $\pm$  carbonate) are the most favorable ascent paths for effective gold transport from the site of porphyry vapor separation to epithermal ore formation (Heinrich, 2005). This explains both the spatial relationship with gold mineralization to moderate–strong phyllic alteration zones at Brucejack, and the large capacity to transport gold.

#### 7.4.3 Depositional Mechanism(s): Fluid Mixing and Boiling

In hydrothermal deposits two of the main processes responsible for ore mineral precipitation are boiling and fluid mixing. Stable isotopes at Brucejack provide evidence for fluid mixing, where veins show large ranges in  $\delta^{18}O_{H_2O}$  in hydrothermal vein calcite and quartz. Hydrothermal calcite from vein stage IV shows the largest range in calculated  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{H}_2O}$  from 1.4 to -5.8 ‰ ( $n = 15$ ), and hydrothermal quartz from stage II and III also show large ranges in  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{H}_2O}$  between -1.5 to -7.1 ‰ (*n* = 5) and -3.3 to -7.2 ‰ (*n* = 6) respectively. Fluid mixing is important in carbonate-rich late-stage veins in epithermal deposits (Simmons et al., 1988; Cooke and Bloom, 1990; Kwak, 1990; White and Hedenquist, 1990). At Brucejack vein stage IV manganoan calcites have  $\delta^{18}O_{H_2O}$  values ranging from 1.4 to -5.8  $\frac{6}{10}$  ( $n = 15$ ). This suggests mixing between modified juvenile

magmatic water and meteoric water. Hydrothermal circulation of meteoric waters mixing with ascending magmatic ore-bearing fluids and progressive dilution of magmatic fluids with meteoric fluids may account for these mixing trends.

Stage III fluid inclusions provide evidence for fluid mixing where a significant salinity range (0.5 to 15.5 wt % NaCl equiv.;  $n = 89$ ) is observed over a restricted homogenization temperature interval  $(\sim 140-180^{\circ}$ C). Variable salinities are also reflected in individual fluid inclusion assemblages, where stage III fluid inclusion assemblages have ranges in salinity of  $>10$  wt. % NaCl equiv. Significant salinity variations would occur from the mixing two end-member fluids: a saline meteoric-derived groundwater and a relatively dilute magmatic fluid.

Boiling is by far the most important processes controlling the temperature of hydrothermal fluids leading to ore precipitation near the surface (White and Hedenquist, 1990). Brucejack fluid inclusions show evidence for boiling, where type 1 liquid-rich fluid inclusions are observed with type 2 vapor-rich fluid inclusions throughout electrumbearing vein generations (mainly restricted to stages II and IV) in the paragenesis. Type 1 liquid-rich fluid inclusions are cospatial and cogenetic with type 2 vapor-rich fluid inclusions indicating fluids at the time of vein formation were on the H2O liquid-boiling curve. Large-scale silica-flooded breccia veins (stage II) are another manifestation of boiling (Sillitoe, 1985). Hydraulically fractured quartz veins and hydrothermal breccias not only suggest boiling, but also indicate that hydrostatic pressure locally exceeded lithostatic pressure (DeRonde and Blattner, 1988), where pressure releases may have induced boiling events. Bladed calcite is found sporadically throughout West Zone and the VOK and again suggests boiling conditions (Browne, 1978).

### 7.4.4. Episodic Gold Mineralization

At Brucejack anomalously high gold grades are likely not the consequence of a single depositional event. Rather, it is more probable that multiple injections of gold-rich fluids occurred episodically, where gold was scavenged and reprecipitated repetitively through the duration of the hydrothermal system(s). An episodic ore-forming environment is recognized from the multiple overprinting vein relationships, where vein stages containing electrum (II–IV) are each found crosscutting one another locally. Stage II veins specifically have multiple episodes of veining characterized through the overprinting relationships of texturally dissimilar veins (i.e. stockwork, breccia, and stringer veins and veinlets). The presence of cockade and crustiform banded veins further provides evidence for repetitive fluid pulsing.

Temperature corrected oxygen isotope trends in stage II–V veins represent a shift from modified magmatic to meteoric water values, and a pulsing nature is revealed through the large ranges of  $\delta^{18}O_{H_2O}$  in isolated vein generations. Bonanza gold mineralization at Brucejack may have resulted from an episodic process, such as fault fracturing, which led to instantaneous fluid migration. Seismic fault movement may have periodically released pressure (Sibson, 1992) and triggered localized boiling conditions, which may have been enhanced by small amounts of dissolved  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  (and possibly  $CH<sub>4</sub>$ ). Stage II and IV are likely to have formed under these conditions, where boiling is prevalent in fluid inclusion assemblages and the dilute (3–7 wt% NaCl equiv.) lowtemperature (140–180˚C) fluids are derived from condensed magmatic solutions. A rapid pressure decrease produced through hydraulic fracturing would trigger the onset of

boiling, causing increases in pH by partitioning acidic volatiles into the vapor phase, promoting gold deposition (Williams-Jones et al., 2009). If this episodic fault-valve process occurred it would induce repeated gold saturation (Cox, 1995), and lead to the bonanza gold observed at Brucejack (up to 41582 g/t Au over 0.5m).

Evidence for local overpressure conditions are reflected in episodic hydraulic fractures within strongly silicified conglomerate rocks and vein breccias throughout the Valley of the Kings and West Zone prospects. Siliceous conglomerates (often cospatial with monomineralic metasomatized sericite) are found at the basal and upper contacts with volcanic sedimentary and tuffaceous rocks respectively. These rocks have been exposed to high water/rock ratios, likely from the rapid release of neutral pH hydrothermal fluids. Siliceous alteration may have formed through self-sealing silicification from convecting hydrothermal fluids, where preferential fluid migration was mainly restricted to permeable lithologies (i.e. porous volcanic conglomerate). As magmatic fluids cooled during ascent to the surface, local permeability may have been greatly reduced in response to precipitation of silica (Sillitoe, 1985). This would produce an effective aquitard in the shallow crust, below which magmatic fluids would stagnate and cool (Fig. 42).



Figure 42: Ascending magmatic fluids circulate through interbedded, pre-folded rocks and collect at the basal and upper contacts of the porous conglomerate unit. Magmatic fluids (rich in  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ , H<sub>2</sub>S, and  $SO<sub>2</sub>$ ) form siliceous horizons and stagnate beneath, where temperatures are cooled to  $\sim 160^{\circ}$ C. Magmatic fluids also migrate along faults, where they are temporarily released in periods of seismic activity.

Hydrostatic pressures beneath this silicified barrier would increase in response to: (1) ascending magmatic fluids (Sillitoe, 1985); (2) transmission of deeper fluid pressure (Hedenquist and Henley, 1985); or (3) magmatic heating (Nelson and Giles, 1985). Hydraulic fracturing would result from fluid pressure exceeding the tensile strength of the silicified rock and lithostatic pressure. The pressure surge caused through the breach of fluid through the impermeable margin would initiate localized faulting and increase

permeability, where effervescing fluids would escape upward and outward (Fig. 43), forming extreme disequilibrium conditions and gold precipitation. The cycle was likely repetitive, where hydrothermal self-sealing would cause re-accumulation of the fluid pressure.



Figure 43: Magmatic fluid pressure increases below impermeable siliceous barrier and fluid pressure increases until it has breached the tensile strength of the rock and lithostatic pressure, where a pressure surge is created. The pressure surge forms stockwork and breccia veining and causes local fluids to effervesce, where boiling occurs and superheated, volatile-rich, steam is exsolved. Extreme disequilibrium conditions occur and gold-bisulfide complexes become unstable and precipitate gold.

Episodic veining is also implied through the large ranges in salinity throughout vein stage III (0.5 to 15.5 wt% NaCl equiv.;  $n = 89$ ). It may be possible that ore minerals in stage III veins precipitated from moderate–high salinity fluids, or brines. These cooler saline fluids (having higher Pb-Zn-Ag solubility) may have mixed with warmer, more dilute magmatic fluids, resulting in deposition of Pb-Zn-Ag-Au. Sillitoe and Hedenquist (2003) suggest the fluid responsible for precipitating quartz and carbonate gangue in intermediate-sulfidation vein deposits have lower salinity than the episodic pulses of more saline fluids transporting ore and related sulfide minerals.

Simmons (1991) suggests that the fluids responsible for ore deposition at the glory hole at Cerro Proano and the Santo Nino vein in the Fresnillo mining district, Mexico, were precipitated by the injection of brines (>12 wt % NaCl equiv.) into otherwise dilute  $\ll$ 3 wt % NaCl equiv.) system. These dense brines may be present in a stably stratified, double-diffusive reservoir underlying a dilute, meteoric water-dominated system (Sillitoe and Hedenquist, 2003). The salinity composition of Brucejack stage III fluids is approximately 7.5 wt percent NaCl equiv., although salinities may be as high as 15.5 wt percent NaCl equiv., suggesting the reservoir composition shifted through time or the external saline fluid was unevenly distributed within the reservoir (Simmons, 1991).

These saline fluids may have ascended into meteoric water-dominated portions of the system through "fault-valve" processes, which creates an increase in pressure followed by significant pressure drop during eruptions, and is analogous to earthquake ruptures in active faults (Peterson and Mavrogenes, 2014). Episodic mineralizing conditions at the Porgera gold deposit based on fluctuating  $\delta^{34}$ S values within individual pyrite crystals led Peterson and Mavrogenes (2014) to link high-grade gold

mineralization to earthquake-induced fault-valve processes (Richards, 1992; Richards and Kerrich, 1993). At Brucejack, intermittent, rapidly ascending, saline ore-forming fluids would inject into the meteoric water table and mixing would occur, providing the mixing trends in stage III fluid inclusion assemblages**.** 

## **8.0 Conclusions**

The Brucejack deposit is a high-grade Au-Ag deposit in northwestern British Columbia. Brucejack has characteristics similar to epithermal, porphyry, and mesothermal deposits. Fluid chemistry and deposit textures and mineralogy suggest the deposit is a transitional low to intermediate-sulfidation epithermal deposit. Mineralization is hosted in calc-alkaline, island-arc related, Early Jurassic plagioclase-hornblende porphyritic latite flows, and associated volcanic ash-tuff fragmental rocks, subordinate volcaniclastic rocks and volcanic sandstones and siltstones. The deposit formed in an episodic environment between  $191.7 \pm 0.8$  Ma and  $188.9 \pm 0.8$  Ma (Re-Os molybdenite model ages). Continued mineralization spanning nearly 3 m.y. is unlikely, and multiple stages of mineralization are implied, where a younger low-sulfidation epithermal system was responsible for forming the West Zone deposit ~189 Ma. The presence of crustiform and cockade banded veins, bladed calcite, and minor open space filling suggest boiling in a near surface ore-forming environment, but the presence minor amounts of dissolved  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  in fluid inclusions may have caused boiling (effervescence) and gold deposition to extend to greater depths than in typical epithermal-style deposits. Pre-gold mineralization pyritization and phyllosilicate alteration of volcanic wallrocks enabled continued re-

circulation of gold complexes without precipitation, contributing to large gold concentrations found throughout the deposit.

Five vein stages have been recognized for the Valley of the Kings, where stages II–IV contain high-grade gold mineralization. Fluid in stages II and IV are condensed magmatic fluids which precipitated gold when they boiled, or effervesced, in response to large pressure decreases. Stage III fluid inclusion data clearly indicate fluid mixing, where cooler saline fluids were injected into a warmer, more dilute end-member fluid resulting in deposition of Pb-Zn-Ag-Au. These two distinct mineralization styles, formed by distinct processes, give the deposit a transitional low to intermediate-sulfidation character.

Fluid mixing is recognized in hydrothermal quartz and calcite veining, where ranges in oxygen isotopes between meteoric and modified magmatic fluids are evident. Modified magmatic  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>Water</sub> values are observed for gold-bearing veins and are the source of ore-forming fluids. Carbon and sulfur isotopes from carbonates and sulfides also show a magmatic inheritance. Boiling is commonly observed within fluid inclusion assemblages and is also suggested to produce silica-flooded breccia and stockwork veins and calcite-dominated veins, and is the main mechanism for gold precipitation. In contrast, fluid mixing led to the formation of stage III base metal veins.

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# **APPENDIX A**

## U/Pb Geochronology

## Sample Locations:





Figure 44: Geology of the Brucejack deposit and locations of main mineralized zones (modified from Ghaffari et al., 2010). UTM zone: NAD83-9V.





















0.322

0.347

0.00584

 $0.05133$  0.00315

0.496

0.485

4 1 708 35 241

12 12 2659 136 1037

148 57788

194.8 21.51 182 7 180.7 252.95 0.21152 0.02567 0.02863 0.00112

188.5 10.97 183.6 4.04 255.7 135.32 0.20402 0.01301 0.02889 0.00064





Notes: \* Indicates asmples with errors reported to 2 sigma. Abbreviations are as follows: P1= fine-grained porphyry flow, P2= coarse-grained porphyry flow, V6= Mesozoic basaltic andesite dyke

#### Concordia Diagrams:







### **APPENDIX B**

#### Samples and Locations







## **APPENDIX C**

## Whole-rock lithogeochemistry

#### Actlabs:







Notes Listed elements below analytical detection denoted as <det lim. Abbreviations for analytical methods: FUS-ICP: fusion inductively couple plasma<br>analysis; FUS-MS: fusion mass spectrometry; INAA: instrumental neutron a

## ALS:








































Notes: Listed elements below analytical detection denoted as <det lim. Analytical methods: ME-ICP06: fused bead, acid digestion and inductively coupled plasma-atomic emission spectroscopy: OA-GRA05: thermal decomposition furnace (1000C for 1hr); ME-4ACD81: multi-element four acid digestion and inductively coupled plasma-atomic emission spectroscopy; ME-MS42: multi element inductively coupled plasma-atomic emission spectroscopy; ME-MS42: multi element multi-element by lithium borate fusion and inductively coupled plasma-mass spectroscopy. \* Indicates ppb (parts per billion).

## **APPENDIX D**

# ${}^{40}\mathrm{Ar} / {}^{39}\mathrm{Ar}$  Geochronology

## Sample A8



## Sample A20



Sample BJ-B6

step	T(G)	t (min.)	36Ar	37Ar	38Ar	39Ar	40Ar	%40Ar*	%39Ar risd	Ca/K	40Ar*/39ArK	Age (Ma)	2s.d.
1	800	12	0.527	0.011	0.261	10.897	430.760	68.2	6.3	0.067113979	26.201076	79.61	1.06
$\overline{\mathbf{c}}$	850	12	4.486	0.017	1.211	26.725	2100.48	40.1	15.4	0.042291714	31.623292	95.66	1.92
3	890	12	0.355	0.022	0.487	32.197	1122.14	92.4	18.6	0.045428851	32.058585	96.94	1.12
4	930	12	0.204	0.010	0.361	24.925	873.870	95.2	14.4	0.026673924	33.083526	99.96	1.13
5	960	12	0.167	0.018	0.220	14.290	503.159	94.4	8.3	0.083747077	32.202619	97.37	1.17
6	990	12	0.185	0.013	0.180	10.812	405.499	91.7	6.2	0.07994038	32.974321	99.64	1.35
$\overline{7}$	1020	12	0.171	0.008	0.146	8.794	339.275	91.3	5.1	0.060482527	33.393895	100.87	1.23
8	1050	12	0.156	0.012	0.122	7.290	280.840	91.0	4.2	0.109442595	32.779775	99.06	1.29
9	1080	12	0.136	0.012	0.122	7.032	265.040	92.7	4.1	0.113458114	32.523081	98.31	2.15
10	1120	12	0.136	0.018	0.152	9.840	356.800	94.7	5.7	0.121621856	32.653624	98.69	1.17
11	1160	12	0.123	0.018	0.204	13.102	460.917	98.4	7.6	0.091340894	32.885203	99.37	1.13
12	1220	12	0.124	0.026	0.097	5.446	206.197	96.1	3.1	0.317435111	31.869082	96.38	1.20
13	1400	12	0.114	0.075	0.055	1.831	93.973	100.0	1.1	2.72546029	31.990317	96.74	1.56
								Cumulative %39Ar $rlsd =$	100.0		Total gas $age =$	96.90	0.54
											No plateau		
											No isochron		

#### Sample BJ-005



*Note: isotope beams in mV, rlsd = released, error in age includes J error, all errors 2 sigma (36Ar through 40Ar are measured beam intensities, corrected for decay for the age calculations) 4 amu discrimination = 1.0487 ± 0.32%, 40/39K = 0.04795 ± 48.28%, 36/37Ca = 0.000260 ± 6.87%, 39/37Ca = 0.000677 ± 5.05%*

## **APPENDIX E**

### Fluid Inclusions

## Vein Stage II:



## Vein Stage III:







## Vein Stage IV:





## **APPENDIX F**

#### Stable Isotopes

### Hydrothermal Vein Calcite:



*\*Note: Vein generation IIa and IIb correspond to stringer and breccia veins respectively. Temperature correction for oxygen isotope values calculated using O'Niel et al., 1969. Temperature correction for carbon isotope values calculated using Chacko et al., 1991.*

### Hydrothermal Vein Quartz:





*\*Note: Vein generation IIa and IIb correspond to stringer and breccia veins respectively. Temperature correction for oxygen isotope values calculated using Matsuhisha et al., 1979.*

### Hydrothermal Vein Sulfides:



*\*Note: Vein generation IIb corresponds to breccia veins.*