

Revision 2

Copper isotope evidence for a Cu-rich mantle source of the world-class Jinchuan magmatic Ni–Cu deposit

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ABSTRACT

A Cu-rich mantle source may play a key role in generating giant magmatic Ni–Cu deposits worldwide, but evidence for source’s Cu enrichment and its mechanism is still rare. Copper isotopes can provide novel and direct insights into this issue since metasomatism that causes Cu enrichment in the mantle is commonly associated with a huge Cu isotope fractionation. Here we present the first Cu isotopic study on the world-class Jinchuan magmatic Ni–Cu deposit in China, including disseminated, net-textured and massive sulfides. The disseminated and net-textured sulfides have variable $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values ($+0.36 \pm 0.38\%$, $n=42$), which are higher than those of massive sulfides ($-0.44 \pm 0.28\%$, $n=11$). The country rocks have a narrow

27 $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ range of 0.21‰ to 0.23‰, which is unlikely to have caused the large $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ variations. The absence of
28 a relationship between $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ and whole-rock Cu contents rules out the possibility of surface weathering and
29 diffusion-driven processes. Further, the lack of correlation between $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ and whole-rock Cu/Ni and Pd/Ir
30 ratios excludes the large Cu isotopic variations as a result of progressive evolution of parental magma or
31 sulfide melt. Numerical modeling indicates that the initially segregated sulfide melt has a mean $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ of
32 $0.44 \pm 0.22\%$ (2SD). Sulfide-liquid fractionation could have contributed to the enrichment of ^{65}Cu in the
33 Cu-rich net-textured sulfides and depletion of ^{65}Cu in massive sulfides, respectively. The fractionated sulfide
34 melts were fragmented and assimilated by new magma pluses, and consequently, the new segregated sulfide
35 melts acquired lighter and more variable $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values in comparison with the initially accumulated sulfide
36 melts. The estimated Cu isotopic composition of parental magmas for the Jinchuan Ni–Cu deposit is $0.54 \pm$
37 0.22% (2SD), which is up to $\sim 0.5\%$ higher than the mantle value. Copper transportation from oxidized
38 subducted slabs to mantle peridotites and/or dissolution of Cu-bearing sulfides in the mantle caused
39 oxidative breakdown and reprecipitation of sulfides, and shifted the hybridized mantle source toward heavy
40 $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ as previously observed in mantle xenoliths. Our study therefore suggests that source's pre-enrichment
41 is a key step in the generation of giant magmatic Ni–Cu deposits.

42

43 **Keywords:** Copper isotopes; Initial Cu enrichment; Mantle metasomatism; Magmatic Ni–Cu deposits

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45

INTRODUCTION

46 Magmatic Ni–Cu deposits have produced some of the world's most valuable economic metals (Naldrett
47 2010; Barnes and Lightfoot 2005), including $\sim 56\%$ of the world's Ni production, $\sim 3\%$ of Cu production,
48 and $> 96\%$ of platinum-group element (PGE) production. The generation of magmatic Ni–Cu deposits can
49 be envisaged as four stages: (1) mantle melting to generate primary magmas, (2) minor sulfide removal or
50 olivine crystallization during magma ascent, (3) significant sulfide segregation and coalescence in a dynamic
51 magmatic conduit, and (4) internal fractionation of sulfide melt (Naldrett 2010). Mantle melting to generate
52 primary magmas is the first and a key step, even though an efficient collection of metals by sulfides
53 promotes full maturity of magmatic Ni–Cu deposits at shallow crustal levels (Barnes and Lightfoot 2005;

54 [Naldrett 2010](#)). Especially, metasomatism is thought to introduce metals into the mantle via slab-derived
55 fluid and/or melts ([Fiorentini and Beresford 2008](#)), and generate a metal-rich mantle source (e.g.,
56 [Richardson and Shirey 2008](#); [Griffin et al. 2013](#); [Mungall and Brenan 2014](#)). To date, geochemical evidence
57 for a metal-rich mantle source largely relies on trace elements (e.g., Pt/Pd) and radiogenic Sr–Nd–Re–Os
58 isotopes instead of isotopic systematics of the ore-forming metals (e.g., [Maier and Barnes 2004](#); [Zhang et al.](#)
59 [2008](#); [Richardson and Shirey 2008](#)). Therefore, possible metal enrichment in the mantle sources of magmatic
60 Ni–Cu deposits is still poorly constrained, in particular from ore-forming metal isotopes.

61 In recent years, Cu isotope behaviors during mantle metasomatism, partial melting of mantle sources,
62 and magma differentiation have been well established (e.g., [Liu et al. 2015, 2019](#); [Savage et al. 2015](#); [Huang](#)
63 [et al. 2016a, 2017](#); [Wang et al. 2019](#)). Oxidative breakdown and reprecipitation of sulfides during mantle
64 metasomatism can cause significant Cu isotope fractionation, as widely observed in mantle peridotites and
65 pyroxenites (e.g., [Liu et al. 2015](#); [Wang et al. 2019](#)). For instance, some of metasomatized mantle peridotites
66 have much higher $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST 976}}$ values (up to +1.82‰) than that of the primitive mantle ($0.06 \pm 0.20\%$; [Liu](#)
67 [et al. 2015](#)). High $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values in some of orogenic and xenolith peridotites (up to +0.61‰) were also
68 proposed to have resulted from melt–peridotite interaction ([Huang et al. 2017](#)). These observations suggest
69 that Cu isotopes have potential as a tracer for Cu enrichment in the mantle sources of magmatic Ni–Cu
70 deposits. To date, large $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ variations ($\sim 4\%$) in worldwide magmatic Ni–Cu deposits have been observed,
71 including Noril'sk Province, Russia ([Malitch et al. 2014](#)), Midcontinent Rift System, America ([Ripley et al.](#)
72 [2015](#)), Eastern Gabbro, Canada ([Brzozowski et al. 2020](#)), Tulaergen ([Zhao et al. 2017, 2019](#)), Kalatongke
73 and Baishiquan ([Tang et al. 2020](#)), China. However, the mechanism that caused these large Cu isotopic
74 variations has not yet been well constrained.

75 To investigate whether or not mantle metasomatism induced significant metal accumulation during
76 generation of magmatic Ni–Cu deposits, here we carry out a systematical study of Cu isotopes along with
77 PGE on the world-class Jinchuan Ni–Cu deposit, China. This deposit is the third largest magmatic Ni–Cu
78 deposits in the world ([Li and Ripley 2011](#)), containing >500 million metric tons (Mt) of sulfide ores with
79 average grades of 0.7 wt% Cu and 1.1 wt% Ni ([Tang et al. 2009](#)). The primary magmas of the Jinchuan
80 intrusion were proposed to have been derived from an enriched subcontinental lithosphere mantle (SCLM)

81 source (Li et al. 2005; Li and Ripley 2011; Zhang et al. 2013). In this contribution, our Cu isotope results
82 suggest that the mantle source region of the Jinchuan deposit experienced initial Cu enrichment caused by
83 metasomatism, and that this process probably plays a key role in generation of giant magmatic Ni–Cu
84 deposits worldwide.

85

86 GEOLOGICAL SETTING AND SAMPLE DESCRIPTION

87 The Jinchuan mineralized intrusion is located in the NW-striking Longshoushan terrane in southern
88 Alxa, the southwestern margin of the North China Craton (Fig. 1a, Song et al. 2009; Mao et al. 2018; Ding
89 et al. 2021). In the Longshoushan terrane, Neoproterozoic and Paleozoic strata, including sandstones,
90 limestones, and conglomerates unconformably overlie Paleo-Mesoproterozoic metamorphic units (e.g., Li
91 and Ripley 2011; Chen et al. 2013). The Jinchuan intrusion is 6000 m long and 300 m wide, and the
92 downward extension is >1000 m in the central part (Fig. 1b). It is composed of Segment III, Segment I,
93 Segment II, and Segment IV from west to east (Fig. 1b, c). The four segments are divided by a series of
94 strike-slip faults, named F8, F16, F17 and F23 (Fig. 1b, c).

95 The Jinchuan intrusion was emplaced into the Proterozoic suite of migmatites, gneiss and marble (Fig.
96 1). Segment I intrudes into the marble, and Segment II is emplaced along the boundary between the
97 migmatites and marble (e.g., Chen et al. 2013). Both Segment III and Segment IV intrude into migmatites.
98 These segments occur as SE-trending dikes, parallel to the regional structures (Fig. 1). Dunite, lherzolite,
99 and olivine websterite are the dominant rock types of the Jinchuan intrusion (Li and Ripley 2011; Chen et al.
100 2013). In the outcrops, lherzolite is widespread, and olivine websterite occurs along the margin of lherzolite
101 (Fig. 1). Only minor dunite is located in the northwest part of the Segment I on the surface (Fig. 1a). By
102 contrast, sulfide-mineralized dunite is much more common in drill cores. These different types of rocks in
103 the Jinchuan intrusion have gradational boundaries (Mao et al. 2019).

104 Sulfide mineralizations in the Jinchuan deposit consist of disseminated (Fig. 2a), net-textured (Fig. 2b),
105 and massive types (Fig. 2c), among which net-textured and disseminated types are most abundant. Vein-like
106 massive sulfide orebodies crosscut disseminated and net-textured sulfide orebodies in some places. The
107 disseminated sulfides are hosted by dunite and lherzolite, whereas net-textured sulfides are commonly

108 associated with dunite. Disseminated and net-textured sulfides occur as spotted or net-like shapes,
109 respectively (Fig. 2a–b). Sulfide minerals in the Jinchuan deposit include pyrrhotite, pentlandite and
110 chalcopyrite (Fig. 2d).

111 Disseminated, net-textured and massive sulfides as well as country rocks were collected from
112 underground adits of 1040 m and 1220 m elevations in Segment I and Segment II (Table S1, Figs. 1, 4 and
113 5). Except for the country rocks, fresh samples with more than 6 wt.% sulfide were collected for separating
114 chalcopyrite.

115

116 ANALYTICAL METHODS

117 Analysis of Cu, Ni, PGE, and S contents

118 The whole-rock Cu, Ni, PGE, and S contents of different types of sulfide ores and country rocks from
119 the Jinchuan deposit were measured at the National Research Center of Geoanalysis, China. Samples for Cu
120 and Ni content analysis were powdered and then digested in a mixture of HF and HNO₃ in Teflon bombs.
121 The measurement was conducted by a MAT ELEMENT ICP–MS, following the procedures established by
122 Balaram et al. (1995). The accuracy and reproducibility were better than ±10% and 2%–10% in terms of
123 relative standard deviation (RSD), respectively. Sulfur contents were analyzed by a high-frequency infrared
124 carbon sulfur analyzer (HIR 944). Reproducibility was better than 10% RSD, and the accuracy was better
125 than ±5%. The PGE contents measurement utilized a NiS-bead pre-concentration and Te co-precipitation,
126 following by ICP–MS analysis, using an established procedure modified from Asif and Parry (1991). The
127 measurements were monitored using standards of UMT-1 and WPR-1. The analytical accuracy and
128 reproducibility were better than ±10% and 10% RSD, respectively.

129

130 Analysis of Cu isotopes

131 The chalcopyrite grains in each sample were checked under a microscope to avoid visible inclusions. In
132 order to check the purity of studied chalcopyrites prior to isotopic analysis, Cu/Fe ratios of chalcopyrites
133 were firstly determined by an ICP–OES, with reproducibility better than ±5%. Sample digestion, chemical
134 purification, and isotope measurement followed the established procedures of Liu et al. (2014a).

135 Approximately 0.1 mg chalcopyrite grains and 25 mg reference materials (basalt, BHVO-2) were
136 weighted and then digested in a mixed solution of HNO₃ and HCl acids. After complete dissolution of the
137 samples, 1 mL of 8 N HCl + 0.001% H₂O₂ was added to the Teflon vessels and evaporated to dryness at
138 80 °C. This procedure was repeated three times prior to anion exchange chromatography. Copper was
139 separated by pre-cleaned AG-MP-1M ion exchange resin. The collected solution was evaporated to dryness
140 and re-dissolved, and column chemistry was performed twice for further purification. The Cu yields when
141 processed twice through column chemistry were better than 99.7%, and the procedural blanks were <2 ng.
142 Each purified sample was evaporated and then re-dissolved in 3% HNO₃ to remove the chloride ion prior to
143 isotope measurement.

144 Copper isotope ratios were measured using a *Neptune plus* MC-ICP-MS at the China University of
145 Geosciences, Beijing, China. Conventional sample-standard bracketing method was utilized for mass bias
146 correction. Copper isotope data are reported in δ -notation relative to standard NIST 976 (Equation 1):

$$147 \quad \delta^{65}\text{Cu} = \left(\frac{{}^{65}\text{Cu}}{{}^{63}\text{Cu}} \right)_{\text{sample}} / \left(\frac{{}^{65}\text{Cu}}{{}^{63}\text{Cu}} \right)_{\text{NIST 976}} - 1 \times 1000 \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

148 Long-term external reproducibility was $\pm 0.05\%$ for $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ (2SD) on the basis of repeated analysis of
149 geostandards and synthetic solutions. In this analytical session, analysis of BHVO-2 yielded $\delta^{65}\text{Cu} = 0.11 \pm$
150 0.05% (2SD) and $\delta^{65}\text{Cu} = 0.09 \pm 0.05\%$ (2SD), which is in good agreement with the published ranges for
151 this standard (Liu et al. 2014a, 2015; Sossi et al. 2015).

153 RESULTS

154 Whole-rock Cu, Ni, PGE and S contents, and Cu isotopic compositions of chalcopyrites and country
155 rocks are reported in Supplementary Table S1 and Figures 3–5.

157 Cu, Ni, PGE, and S contents

158 Similar Cu/Ni and Pd/Ir ratios in disseminated and net-textured sulfide ores were observed in Segment I
159 and Segment II (Fig. 4b–c). Massive sulfide ores have lower Pd/Ir ratios and more variable Cu/Ni ratios than
160 disseminated and net-textured sulfides. In the primitive mantle-normalized diagrams, disseminated and
161 net-textured sulfides have similar PGE patterns with depletion in Os, Ir, and Ru and enrichment in Rh, Pt,

162 and Pd, except for Pt anomalies in some samples (Fig. 4d–f). Massive sulfide ores have flat PGE patterns,
163 except for Pt anomalies. These samples have higher PGE contents than the disseminated and net-textured
164 sulfide ores (Fig. 4d–f). The possibilities for Pt anomaly include crystallization of sperrylite prior to
165 solidification of the sulfide melts and preferential Pt enrichment into the Cu-rich residual sulfide melts (e.g.,
166 [Chen et al. 2013](#)).

167

168 **Copper isotopes**

169 The Cu/Fe ratios of chalcopyrite separates range from 0.90 to 1.13 (Table S1), which is consistent with
170 stoichiometric chalcopyrite (~1). This indicates that all samples analyzed in this study are magmatic
171 chalcopyrite without secondary Cu-bearing minerals. The $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values of disseminated and net-textured
172 sulfides are between -0.47‰ and $+1.29\text{‰}$, with a mean of $+0.36\text{‰}$. There is no systematical change of
173 $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values in disseminated and net-textured sulfides from Segment I to Segment II (Fig. 5). The Cu
174 isotopic composition of massive sulfides is much lighter than disseminated and net-textured sulfides,
175 varying from -0.91‰ to $+0.09\text{‰}$ with a mean of -0.44‰ . The country rocks of the Jinchuan deposit have a
176 narrow range of $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ from $+0.21\text{‰}$ to $+0.23\text{‰}$, with a mean of $+0.22\text{‰}$ (n=4, migmatite and gneiss). Four
177 chalcopyrite separates were repeated by dissolving a new aliquot, yielding Cu isotope compositions identical
178 with the original measurements (Table S1; Fig. 5). The disseminated and net-textured sulfide ores of the
179 Jinchuan deposit have elevated $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values compared with sulfide ores in other magmatic Ni–Cu deposits
180 (except for Midcontinent Rift System, [Ripley et al. 2015](#)), bulk silicate Earth (BSE) and non-metasomatized
181 peridotites, but fall within the $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ range of metasomatized peridotites (-0.64‰ to $+1.82\text{‰}$, Fig. 3).

182

183 **DISCUSSION**

184 **Possible origins of Cu isotopic variations in Jinchuan sulfides**

185 Mantle melting to generate primary magmas is the first and a key step in the generation of magmatic
186 Ni–Cu deposits ([Barnes and Lightfoot 2005](#); [Naldrett 2010](#)). Global non-metasomatized mantle peridotites
187 have a narrow range of $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ ($0.03\text{‰} \pm 0.24\text{‰}$, [Liu et al. 2015](#)) that are identical to those of basaltic rocks,
188 regardless of varying degrees of partial melting ([Liu et al. 2015](#); [Savage et al. 2015](#); [Huang et al. 2016a](#);

189 [Moynier et al. 2017](#)). The preferential release of ^{65}Cu during alteration and weathering produces ^{63}Cu
190 enrichment in the residual rocks ([Mathur et al. 2005](#); [Liu et al., 2014b](#)), which is in contrast to the elevated
191 $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values of Jinchuan sulfides. The lack of correlation between $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ and whole-rock Cu contents ([Fig.](#)
192 [7b](#)) further argues against any significant loss of isotopically light Cu by alteration and weathering. The
193 remaining mechanisms that may induce significant fractionation of Cu isotopes are: (1) crustal
194 contamination; (2) diffusion; and/or (3) sulfide segregation and internal fractionation within cumulated
195 sulfide melts. We discuss these possibilities in turn below.

196 **Crustal contamination.** Crustal contamination during magma ascent, emplacement, and differentiation has
197 occurred during the generation of the Jinchuan deposit ([Ripley et al. 2005](#); [Tang et al. 2018](#)). Average
198 continental crust contains ~30 ppm Cu ([Rudnick and Gao 2003](#)), two times lower than that of
199 basaltic/picritic magmas (~90 ppm Cu, [Lee et al. 2012](#)), the latter of which was considered to be the primary
200 magmas for the Jinchuan deposit ([Barnes and Lightfoot 2005](#); [Li and Ripley 2011](#); [Chen et al. 2013](#)). Thus,
201 contamination by crustal materials during magma ascent, if any, has not significantly changed Cu isotopic
202 compositions of the magmas. More importantly, the $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ of the continental crust (around zero, [Li et al.](#)
203 [2009](#)) is indistinguishable from non-metasomatized peridotites ($0.03\text{‰} \pm 0.24\text{‰}$, [Liu et al. 2015](#)). The
204 assimilation of marbles may have induced sulfide saturation in the Jinchuan Ni–Cu sulfide deposit ([Tang et](#)
205 [al., 2018](#); [Ding et al., 2021](#)). However, marble is poor in Cu, and the assimilation of marbles causes
206 negligible Cu isotopic variation. Also, migmatites and gneiss in the Jinchuan area are characterized by
207 restricted Cu isotopic compositions of $+0.21\text{‰}$ to $+0.23\text{‰}$ ([Fig. 5](#)), which is unlikely to have caused the
208 large $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ variation observed in the Jinchuan sulfides. Collectively, crustal contamination is not responsible
209 for the ^{65}Cu enrichment in disseminated and net-textured sulfides in Jinchuan.

210 **Diffusion.** Copper isotopes may be fractionated by diffusion-driven processes with thermal or chemical
211 gradients (e.g., [Williams and Archer 2011](#)). Here, at least two lines of evidence do not support
212 diffusion-driven isotopic effects in Jinchuan sulfides. First, if diffusion effects happened, massive sulfides
213 with high Cu contents should have heavier $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values than those of disseminated and net-textured sulfides
214 with low Cu contents, because lighter isotopes move faster than heavier ones (e.g., [Richter et al. 2003](#)). By
215 contrast, massive sulfides in Jinchuan are enriched in lighter Cu isotope ([Figs. 5, 7b](#)). Second, there is no

216 spatial Cu isotopic variation in disseminated sulfides from Segment I to Segment II (Fig. 5), precluding the
217 possible diffusion-driven process that is expected to generate systematical variation in $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values.
218 **Sulfide segregation and fractionation within cumulated sulfide melts.** Significant Cu isotope
219 fractionation (up to 2.51‰) during sulfide segregation and internal sulfide fractionation has been reported in
220 the Tulaergen deposit, China, and redox reactions were proposed to control the large $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ variations (Zhao
221 et al. 2017, 2019). Sulfide melts segregated from primary or parental magmas preferentially incorporate
222 lighter Cu isotopes relative to the coexisting silicate magmas as revealed by studies of igneous systems (e.g.,
223 Huang et al., 2016a), experiments (e.g., Savage et al. 2015; Xia et al. 2019), theoretical calculations (e.g.,
224 Liu et al., 2021), and magmatic Ni–Cu mineralization systems (e.g., Zhao et al. 2017, 2019). Sulfide
225 fractionation would result in heavy Cu isotopes preferring Cu-rich sulfide melts to Fe-rich monosulfide
226 solid-solution (MSS) (e.g., Zhao et al. 2019). Indeed, the massive ores have lighter Cu isotopic compositions
227 than disseminated and net-textured sulfides in Jinchuan, which could be attributed to sulfide segregation and
228 MSS–residual sulfide liquid fractionation (e.g., Zhao et al. 2017, 2019). The mass-balance equation
229 (Equation 2, Campbell and Naldrett 1979) and the Rayleigh equation (Equation 3, Neumann et al. 1954)
230 were used to simulate sulfide segregation (Stage II, Figs. 7, 8) and internal sulfide fractionation (Stage III,
231 Figs. 7, 8), respectively.

$$232 \quad C_S = C_M \times D \times (R + 1) / (R + D) \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

233 Where C_S = the metal concentration in sulfide melt; C_M = the metal concentration in silicate melt; D =
234 sulfide-silicate melt partition coefficient; R factors = mass ratio of silicate magma to sulfide melts in
235 equilibrium.

$$236 \quad C_f = C_i \times F^{(D-1)} \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

237 Where C_f = metal concentration in fractionated sulfide melt; C_i = metal concentration in initial sulfide
238 melt; D = bulk solid-liquid partition coefficient; F = the fraction of remaining sulfide melt.

239 Modeling results suggest that the parental magmas of the mineralized Jinchuan intrusion contain ~0.49
240 ppb Pd and ~0.14 ppb Ir, with R factors from ~500 to ~2700. Variable degrees of sulfide-melt fractionation
241 formed Fe-rich massive and Cu-rich net-textured sulfide ores (Fig. 6). The parental magmas of the Jinchuan
242 intrusion have higher Pd and Ir contents than those of the Tulaergen deposit (~0.25 ppb Pd and ~0.003 ppb Ir;

243 [Zhao et al. 2019](#)) in the Tianshan orogenic belt.

244 Numerical calculations indicate that variable R factors may be responsible for large Cu isotope
245 fractionation in the Kalatongke, Baishiquan and Eastern Gabbro magmatic Ni–Cu deposits (e.g., [Tang et al.](#)
246 [2020](#); [Brzozowski et al. 2020](#)). However, the formation of the Jinchuan deposit has experienced both sulfide
247 segregation with variable R factors and subsequent sulfide-liquid fractionation ([Fig. 6](#)), which was also
248 proposed by [Chen et al. \(2013\)](#) based on PGE data. Considering that significant Cu isotope fractionation
249 occurs during sulfide-liquid fractionation (e.g., [Zhao et al. 2017, 2019](#)), the large $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ range of the
250 Jinchuan deposit is not simply controlled by variable R factors. Copper contents and Cu/Ni and Pd/Ir ratios
251 in sulfide-saturated magma can be used as indicators of different evolution stages of parental magmas or
252 sulfide melts (e.g., [Barnes and Lightfoot 2005](#); [Zhao et al. 2017, 2019](#)), with higher Cu contents and higher
253 Cu/Ni and Pd/Ir ratios in evolved magmas or sulfide melts (e.g., [Barnes and Lightfoot 2005](#); [Naldrett 2010](#)).
254 However, Cu isotopic ratios are not correlated with whole-rock Cu contents, Cu/Ni and Pd/Ir ratios in the
255 Jinchuan deposit ([Figs. 4, 5 and 7](#)), indicating that they do not simply result from the progressively evolved
256 parental magma or sulfide melt. Disseminated sulfides can mirror the nature of the parental magma ([Barnes](#)
257 [and Maier, 1999](#)), which can be further utilized to estimate the Cu isotopic composition of parental magmas.
258 Calculations using mass-balance (Equation 2) and Rayleigh (Equation 3) equations indicate that initial
259 segregated sulfides (represented by disseminated sulfides) have been generated at ~2700 R-factors ([Fig. 6](#)),
260 having a mean $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ value of $0.44 \pm 0.22\%$ ([Table 1, Figs. 3 and 7](#)). By contrast, the initial sulfide melts of
261 the Tulaergen deposit derived from the depleted mantle have $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values of $-0.54 \pm 0.41\%$ ([Zhao et al.](#)
262 [2019](#)).

263 Calculations using the Rayleigh distillation equation (Equation 4) suggest that variable degrees of
264 sulfide-liquid fractionation (Stage III, [Figs. 7, 8](#)) contributed to the enrichment of ^{65}Cu in the Cu-rich
265 net-textured sulfides ($\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ value up to 1.29‰) and the enrichment of ^{63}Cu in the massive sulfides ($\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$
266 value as low as -0.91%).

$$267 \quad \delta_f = (\delta_i + 1000) \times (1 - f^\alpha) / (1 - f) - 1000 \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

268 Where δ_i = the $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values in sulfide melt/magma; δ_f = the $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values in sulfide melt or magma
269 when a fraction (f) of Cu is left; f = the fraction of remaining Cu. Isotopic fractionation factor α is defined

270 as:

271 $\alpha^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{residual sulfide melt-sulfide melt}} = (1000 + \delta_{\text{residual sulfide melt}}) / (1000 + \delta_{\text{sulfide melt}}) \dots\dots\dots (5)$

272 $\alpha^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{MSS-sulfide melt}} = (1000 + \delta_{\text{MSS}}) / (1000 + \delta_{\text{sulfide melt}}) \dots\dots\dots (6)$

273 $\alpha^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{sulfide melt-magma}} = (1000 + \delta_{\text{sulfide melt}}) / (1000 + \delta_{\text{magma}}) \dots\dots\dots (7)$

274 The concentrated sulfide melts were fragmented and assimilated by new magma pluses continuously,
275 accompanied by the second stage of scavenging of metals, sulfide segregation, internal sulfide fractionation,
276 and sulfide percolation (Stage IV, **Figs. 7, 8**). This hypothesis is consistent with previous explanations that
277 the formation of the Jinchuan intrusion has involved multiple magma influxes (e.g., [Li and Ripley 2011](#);
278 [Chen et al. 2013](#); [Mao et al. 2018](#)). The new segregated sulfide melts have lighter and more variable Cu
279 isotopic compositions than the pre-existing sulfide melts (Stage IV, **Figs. 7, 8**) due to sulfide-magma
280 differentiation (e.g., [Zhao et al. 2017, 2019](#)).

281

282 Evidence for a Cu-rich metasomatized mantle source in Jinchuan

283 The estimated $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values of initial sulfide melt from the Jinchuan magmatic system ($0.44 \pm 0.22\%$)
284 are much heavier than that of the terrestrial mantle (**Fig. 3**). Experimentally determined Cu isotope
285 fractionation factors between sulfide melt and silicate magma are controlled by Ni contents in sulfide, with
286 higher Ni (~25 wt.%, $\Delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{sulfide melt-magma}} = \sim -0.1\%$; [Xia et al. 2019](#)) displaying smaller fractionation than
287 sulfides with lower Ni (0.1 to 1.2 wt.%, $\Delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{sulfide melt-magma}} = 0.77 \times 10^6/T^2 - 4.46 \times 10^{12}/T^4$, where T is
288 Kelvin temperature; [Xia et al. 2019](#)). In the experimental work of [Savage et al. \(2015\)](#), sulfide phases also
289 preferentially incorporate lighter Cu isotopes relative to whole-rock Cu ($\Delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{sulfide melt-whole-rock Cu}} =$
290 $\sim -0.1\%$). The Ni contents in sulfide for the Jinchuan deposit are calculated using Equation 8 (e.g., [Barnes](#)
291 [and Lightfoot 2005](#)), ranging from 1.9 to 21.1 wt.% with a mean of 9.3 wt.%.

292 $C_{(100\% \text{ sulfide})} = C_{\text{rock}} \times 100 / (2.527 \times S + 0.3408 \times \text{Cu} + 0.4715 \times \text{Ni}) \dots\dots\dots (8)$

293 Where $C_{(100\% \text{ sulfide})}$ = metal contents in sulfides; C_{rock} = metal contents in rocks; S, Cu, and Ni = S, Cu,
294 and Ni contents in rocks (wt.%).

295 Based on these experimental studies, the Cu isotope fractionation factor between sulfide and magma
296 ($\Delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{sulfide melt-magma}}$) is assumed to be -0.1% . We further estimated the Cu isotopic composition of the

297 parental magma for the Jinchuan intrusion, which yielded an average $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ value of $0.54 \pm 0.22\%$ (2SD,
298 **Table 1**). The Cu isotopic composition of the SCLM-derived Jinchuan deposit is much higher than that of
299 the depleted mantle-derived Tulaergen deposit ($\delta^{65}\text{Cu} = 0.06 \pm 0.20\%$, [Zhao et al. 2019](#)). Given that mantle
300 melting induces negligible Cu isotope fractionation ([Liu et al. 2015](#); [Huang et al. 2016a](#); [Moynier et al.](#)
301 [2017](#)), the significant enrichment of heavy Cu isotopes in the parental magmas of the Jinchuan deposit
302 should have been inherited from its mantle source.

303 Copper occurs as monovalent and divalent in nature, with high-valence Cu-bearing minerals enriched
304 in heavy isotopes due to its redox-sensitive affinities ([Mathur et al. 2005](#)). In the range of oxygen fugacities
305 for igneous rocks, the Cu valence state remains +1 (e.g., [Ripley et al. 2002](#)). Accordingly,
306 non-metasomatized peridotites have restricted Cu isotopic composition close to zero ([Liu et al. 2015](#)). The
307 mineralized Jinchuan intrusion were derived from an enriched SCLM source ([Li et al. 2005](#); [Li and Ripley](#)
308 [2011](#); [Zhang et al. 2013](#)), potentially caused by subduction-related processes (e.g., [Song et al. 2018](#)). Slab
309 subduction and dehydration can transport a significant amount of metals from subducted slabs to overlying
310 mantle wedge (e.g., [Canil and Fellows 2017](#)).

311 Slab-derived fluids typically have high oxygen fugacity above the sulfide-sulfur oxide buffer ([Sun et al.](#)
312 [2007](#)). As ^{65}Cu is preferentially leached into fluids when redox reactions happened (e.g., [Mathur et al. 2005](#)),
313 dehydration of oceanic crust is expected to enrich ^{65}Cu in the fluids ([Huang et al. 2016b](#)). Copper in mantle
314 rocks is mainly controlled by sulfide phases, which are sensitive to metasomatism by melt/fluid–rock
315 interaction (e.g., [Lee et al. 2012](#)). Consequently, Cu transportation from oxidized subducted slabs to the
316 SCLM could potentially enrich the mantle sources in heavy Cu isotopes (e.g., [Liu et al. 2015](#); [Wang et al.](#)
317 [2019](#)). Indeed, pre-enrichment of metals in the mantle source is considered as a favorable process in the
318 generation of a variety of ore deposit types (e.g., [Wilkinson 2013](#)).

319 On the other hand, the addition of oxidizing fluids from subducted slabs to the mantle would cause
320 oxidative breakdown of sulfides (e.g., [Liu et al. 2015](#); [Huang et al. 2016a, b](#)). In this process, heavier Cu
321 isotopes are preferentially enriched in the released fluids. Precipitation of secondary Cu-bearing sulfide
322 minerals from the ^{65}Cu -rich fluids may shift the peridotites to heavy Cu isotopic compositions ([Liu et al.](#)
323 [2015](#)). By contrast, metasomatized peridotites that experienced oxidative breakdown of sulfides would be

324 enriched in lighter Cu isotopes than the primary non-metasomatized rocks. The ^{65}Cu -rich fluids derived
325 from both subducted slabs and subsequent sulfide dissolution in the mantle result in the enrichment of heavy
326 Cu isotopes. The relative contribution of Cu isotope fractionation caused by a subduction event and
327 dissolution of pre-existing Cu-bearing sulfides in the mantle is difficult to estimate. However, our study
328 clearly demonstrates that Cu enrichment in the mantle sources has been involved during the formation of the
329 Jinchuan deposit. An anomalously hot plume rising from the deep mantle may have triggered partial melting
330 of the long-term enriched SCLM in the Jinchuan area (e.g., [Li et al. 2005](#); [Li and Ripley 2011](#); [Zhang et al.](#)
331 [2013](#)). Numerical modeling indicates that the SCLM has experienced 17–20% partial melting, during which
332 sulfides were exhausted (e.g., [Li and Ripley 2011](#)). Consequently, the SCLM-derived primary magma was
333 fertile in chalcophile elements.

334 335 **The evolution of Cu isotopes during the formation of the Jinchuan Ni–Cu deposits**

336 The influx of metal-bearing oxidized fluids into the mantle source can cause the enrichment of heavy
337 Cu isotopes in the metasomatized mantle ($\delta^{65}\text{Cu} = 0.54 \pm 0.22\text{‰}$; Stage I, [Fig. 8a](#)). The metasomatized
338 mantle-derived magmas inherited heavy Cu isotopic compositions of their sources ($\delta^{65}\text{Cu} = 0.54 \pm 0.22\text{‰}$;
339 Stage I, [Fig. 8a](#)). Numerical modeling indicates that the primary magmas of the Jinchuan deposit
340 experienced $\sim 0.008\%$ sulfide liquids removal during its ascent from the mantle to the magma chamber (e.g.,
341 [Song et al. 2009](#)). Calculations using the Rayleigh equation (Equation 4, $\alpha^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{sulfide melt-magma}} = 0.9999$, e.g.,
342 [Savage et al. 2015](#); [Xia et al. 2019](#)) demonstrate that $\sim 0.008\%$ sulfide liquids removal caused limited Cu
343 isotope fractionation ($< 0.00008\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$, Stage I, [Fig. 8a](#)). Minor olivine crystallization also caused
344 negligible Cu isotope fractionation because of the low partition coefficient between olivine and silicate
345 magma ($D_{\text{olivine/magma}} = 0.05$, [Lee et al. 2012](#)).

346 In the dynamic magma conduit, sulfide melts interacted with a very large volume of metal-bearing
347 magmas ([Fig. 6](#), Equation 2 with R factors from ~ 500 to ~ 2700), scavenging of metals from these multiple
348 magma pulses ([Duan et al., 2016](#)). Sulfide-magma differentiation would enrich the sulfide melt in lighter Cu
349 isotopes ($\delta^{65}\text{Cu} = 0.44 \pm 0.22\text{‰}$) than the silicate magma ($\delta^{65}\text{Cu} = 0.54 \pm 0.22\text{‰}$; Stage II, [Fig. 8b](#)). Settling
350 of sulfide droplets and post-cumulus percolation (e.g., [Mao et al. 2018](#)) would cause the sulfide

351 accumulation in the lower parts of the magma chamber. These accumulated sulfide melts further fractionated
352 into Fe-rich sulfide cumulates (low Pd/Ir and Cu/Ni ratios, Fig. 4b–f) and residual Cu-rich sulfide liquid
353 (high Pd/Ir and Cu/Ni ratios, Fig. 4b–f), contributing to increased $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values (e.g., Zhao et al. 2017, 2019)
354 from -0.91‰ to $+1.29\text{‰}$ (Stage III, Fig. 8c). The concentrated sulfide melts were fragmented and
355 assimilated by new magma pluses, followed by the second stage of scavenging of metals, sulfide segregation,
356 internal sulfide fractionation, and sulfide percolation, which generated light and variable Cu isotopic
357 compositions (Stage IV, Fig. 8d).

358

359

IMPLICATIONS

360 Geochemical data from large igneous provinces (LIPs) show that “fertile” mantle sources are favorable
361 to formation of magmatic Ni–Cu–(PGE) deposits, whereas LIPs without interactions with ancient SCLM
362 roots are rarely mineralized (Zhang et al. 2008). Most world-class magmatic Ni–Cu–(PGE) deposits occur
363 along craton margins (Begg et al., 2010; Griffin et al. 2013), which implies that interactions between a
364 mantle plume and metasomatized mantle overlying a continental rift provides favorable conditions for giant
365 Ni–Cu–(PGE) mineralization (e.g., Barnes and Lightfoot 2005). The parental magmas of the Jinchuan
366 intrusion are estimated to have an average $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ value of $0.54 \pm 0.22\text{‰}$ (2SD), which is higher than the
367 mantle value of $\sim 0.06\text{‰}$. Copper transportation from oxidized subducted slabs to mantle peridotites or
368 dissolution of pre-existing Cu-bearing sulfides in the mantle caused oxidative breakdown and reprecipitation
369 of sulfides and shifted the hybridized mantle toward heavier Cu isotopic compositions. Our study indicates
370 that metal enrichment in the metasomatized mantle sources eventually generated primary magmas fertile in
371 chalcophile elements in the Jinchuan magmatic Ni–Cu deposit. It is worth noting that the maximum $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$
372 values of disseminated sulfides from world-class magmatic Ni–Cu deposits (1‰ to 1.84‰) are higher than
373 those of disseminated sulfides from large to small size deposits (-0.17‰ to 0.15‰ , Fig. 3). Given that
374 sulfide melts preferentially incorporate lighter Cu isotopes relative to silicate magmas (e.g., Savage et al.
375 2015; Xia et al. 2019; Liu et al., 2021), the elevated $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values in magmatic Ni–Cu deposits may be
376 inherited from their mantle sources, but this needs to be clarified by future studies. Metal enrichment in
377 mantle source could be a key step in the generation of giant magmatic Ni–Cu deposits worldwide, especially

378 for small mafic-ultramafic intrusions.

379 In porphyry Cu systems, chalcopyrites from hypogene ores have $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values that average 0‰ (Mathur
380 et al. 2009). Experimental studies indicate that exsolved fluids have higher $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ than those of the magmas
381 (Guo et al., 2020), while the vapors removed via boiling are enriched in lighter Cu isotopes relative to the
382 deeper, brine-rich source of the ore-forming fluids (Rempel et al. 2012). Thus, careful considerations of
383 these processes in porphyry Cu systems should be constrained before the Cu isotopic compositions of
384 hypogene sulfides can be used to track magma sources. By taking all important processes into account, the
385 elevated $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values of porphyries and mafic magmatic enclaves (MMEs) from giant porphyry Cu deposits
386 in southern Tibet suggest initial Cu enrichment in their magma sources (e.g., Zheng et al. 2019).

387 Copper isotopes, in combination with PGE geochemistry, can be utilized to estimate the Cu isotopic
388 compositions of parental/primary magmas and mantle sources for magmatic Ni–Cu deposits. Since sulfides
389 incorporate lighter Cu isotopes than the coexisting magmas (e.g., Savage et al. 2015; Huang et al. 2016a;
390 Zhao et al. 2017, 2019; Xia et al. 2019), the significant enrichment of heavy Cu isotopes in disseminated
391 sulfides in magmatic Ni–Cu deposits was potentially inherited from their metasomatized and metal-rich
392 mantle sources. Thus, Cu isotopes can be considered as a reliable tracer for tracking metal enrichment in
393 mantle source and shed new light on further mineral exploration, even though the influence of crustal
394 contamination, diffusion and mineralization process must be taken into account.

395

396

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572

FIGURE CAPTIONS

573 **FIGURE 1** (a) The major tectonic units of China with the Jinchuan Ni–Cu deposit indicated. (b) Geological
574 maps of the Jinchuan intrusion and (c) a projected section, modified from [Li and Ripley \(2011\)](#), [Duan et al.](#)
575 [\(2016\)](#) and [Mao et al. \(2018\)](#).

576

577 **FIGURE 2** (a) Disseminated sulfide mineralization including chalcopyrite, pyrrhotite and pentlandite. (b)
578 Net-textured sulfides with a large number of chalcopyrite, but minor pyrrhotite and pentlandite. (c) Massive
579 sulfides with Cu-rich and Fe-rich zonation. (d) Coexistence of chalcopyrite, pyrrhotite and pentlandite in
580 massive sulfides. Abbreviations: Ccp = chalcopyrite, Po = pyrrhotite, Pn = pentlandite.

581

582 **FIGURE 3** The $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ ranges of bulk silicate Earth (BSE, vertical black dotted line and green bar),
583 metasomatized peridotite, non-metasomatized peridotite, magmatic Ni–Cu deposits including Midcontinent
584 Rift System ([Ripley et al. 2015](#)), Noril'sk Province ([Malitch et al. 2014](#)), Eastern Gabbro ([Brzozowski et al.](#)
585 [2020](#)), Tulaergen ([Zhao et al. 2017, 2019](#)), Kalatongke ([Tang et al. 2020](#)), Baishiquan ([Tang et al. 2020](#)) and
586 Jinchuan (this study). The estimated initial sulfide melts and parental magma for the Jinchuan deposit are
587 also indicated.

588

589 **FIGURE 4** (a) The projected long section with sample locations indicated. (b) The Pd/Ir₁₀₀ and (c) Cu/Ni₁₀₀
590 ratios as a function of sample locations. (d–f) Primitive mantle-normalized Ni₁₀₀, PGE₁₀₀ and Cu₁₀₀ patterns
591 of sulfide ores in the Jinchuan intrusion. These elements are in 100% sulfide. The values of primitive mantle
592 are cited from [Barnes and Maier \(1999\)](#) and [McDonough and Sun \(1995\)](#).

593

594 **FIGURE 5** (a) The projected long section with sample locations indicated. (b) Cu isotopic composition as a
595 function of sample locations (error bars are smaller than symbols). (c) Cu isotopic compositions of four
596 repeated chalcopyrite samples.

597

598 **FIGURE 6** Modeling of Pd vs. Ir contents in 100% sulfide at variable R-factors (Campbell and Naldrett
599 1979) and sulfide-melt fractionation. The partition coefficients are within experiment ranges (Barnes and
600 Lightfoot 2005). Parental magmas of the Jinchuan Ni–Cu deposit contain 0.49 ppb Pd and 0.14 ppb Ir. For
601 comparison, the parental magma of the Tulaergen deposit (grey line) is provided (0.25 ppb Pd and 0.003 ppb
602 Ir, Zhao et al. 2019).

603
604 **FIGURE 7** Diagrams illustrating the variation between (a) Cu and S contents, (b) Cu contents and $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$
605 values, (c) Cu/Ni ratio and $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values, and (d) Pd/Ir ratio and $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values in the Jinchuan deposit
606 (symbols are larger than error bars). The Cu, Ni and S contents are in 100% sulfide. The parameters for
607 numerical modeling are listed in Table 1. Two groups of isotope fractionation factor were set for comparison,
608 including ($\alpha^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{MSS-sulfide melt}} = 0.9990$ and $\alpha^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{residual sulfide melt-sulfide melt}} = 1.0010$) and ($\alpha^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{MSS-sulfide melt}} =$
609 0.9998 and $\alpha^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{residual sulfide melt-sulfide melt}} = 1.0002$), the first of which matched the Jinchuan sulfides better.
610 The Cu and S contents (MORB, Barnes and Lightfoot 2005; Jugo 2009) and Pd/Ir ratio (Rehkaemper et al.
611 1999) of the normal primary magma are marked. Note that normal primary magma refers to the magma
612 derived from partial melting of the depleted/primitive mantle, instead of the primary magma for the Jinchuan
613 deposit. The detailed descriptions for Stage I–IV are given in the text and Fig.8.

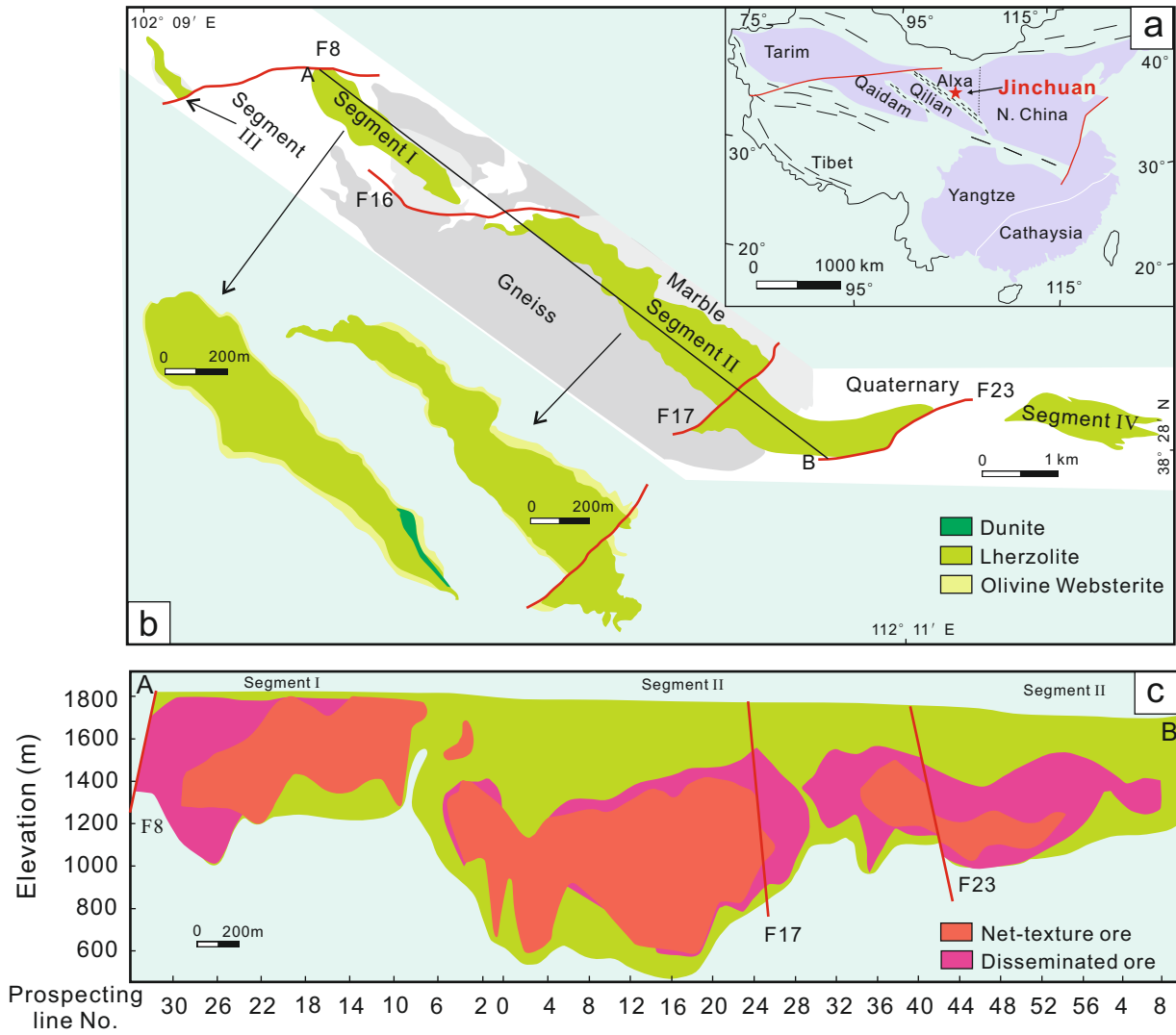
614
615 **FIGURE 8** A model illustrating Cu isotope fractionation in the Jinchuan Ni–Cu deposit, China. Stage I:
616 Partial melting of the SCLM generating primary and parental magma incorporating heavy Cu isotopes;
617 Stage II: Sulfide segregation with enrichment of light Cu isotopes, leaving heavy Cu isotopes in evolved
618 magmas; Stage III: Internal fractionation within segregated sulfide resulted in heavy Cu isotopes preferring
619 residual Cu-rich sulfide melts to Fe-rich sulfide cumulates; Stage IV: Concentrated sulfide melts were
620 fragmented and assimilated by new magma pluses, and the new-formed sulfides would have lighter and
621 more variable Cu isotopic compositions.

622 **TABLE 1.** The fractionation factors and partition coefficients between different phases and Cu isotopic compositions for primary magma, parental magma
 623 and initial sulfide melt of the Jinchuan deposit, NW China.

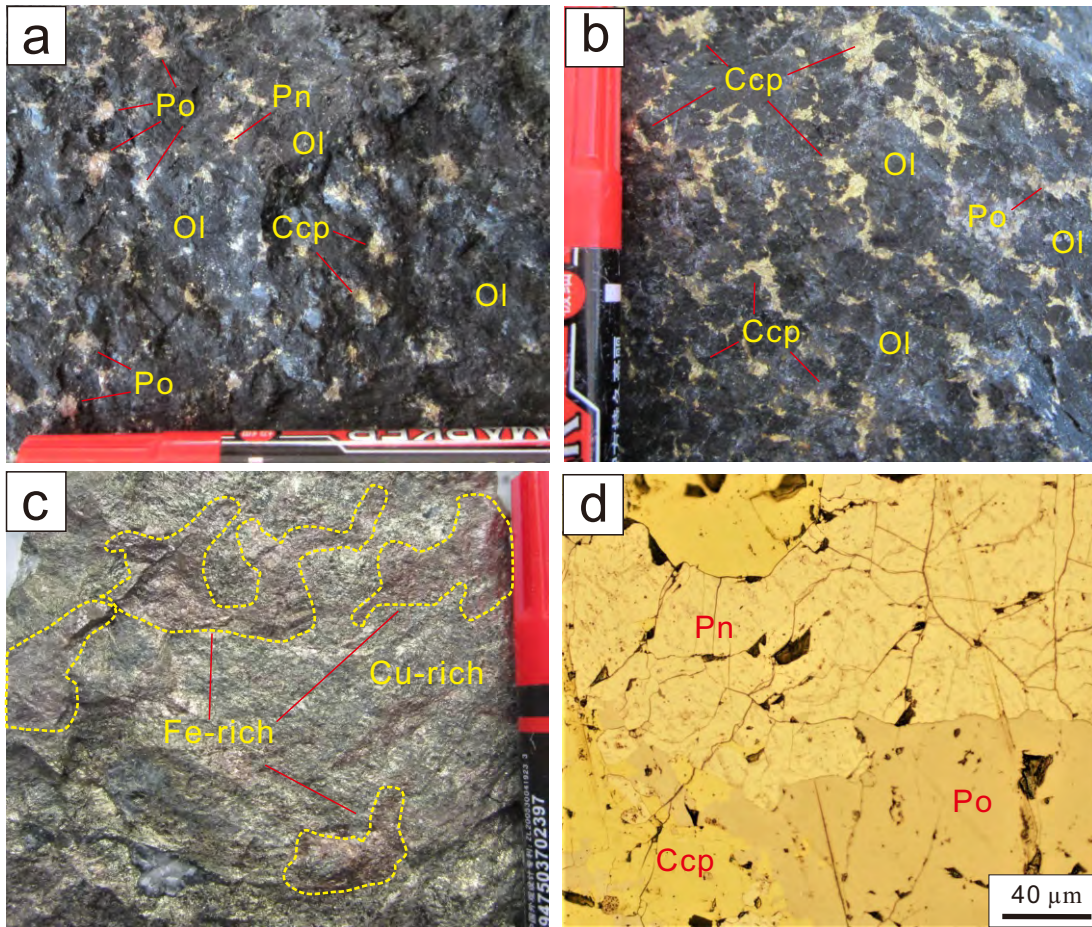
Fractionation factors	Reference	Partition coefficients	Reference	$\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ (‰)	Reference
$\alpha^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{residual sulfide melt-sulfide melt}} = 1.0010$	Zhao et al. 2019	$D_{\text{Ir sulfide melt/MSS}} = 1/3.5,$ $D_{\text{Pd sulfide melt/MSS}} = 10,$ $D_{\text{Cu sulfide melt/MSS}} = 5,$ $D_{\text{Ni sulfide melt/MSS}} = 1.25$	Barnes and Lightfoot 2005	Normal primary magma, $0.06 \pm 0.20\text{‰}$	Liu et al. 2015
$\alpha^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{MSS-sulfide melt}} = 0.9990$	Zhao et al. 2019	$D_{\text{Ir MSS/sulfide melt}} = 3.5,$ $D_{\text{Pd MSS/sulfide melt}} = 0.1,$ $D_{\text{Cu MSS/sulfide melt}} = 0.2,$ $D_{\text{Ni MSS/sulfide melt}} = 0.8$	Barnes and Lightfoot 2005	Parental magma, $0.54 \pm 0.22\text{‰}$	This study
$\alpha^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{sulfide melt-magma}} = 0.9999$	Savage et al. 2015; Xia et al. 2019	$D_{\text{Ir sulfide/silicate melt}} = 30000,$ $D_{\text{Pd sulfide/silicate melt}} = 20000,$ $D_{\text{Cu sulfide/silicate melt}} = 500,$ $D_{\text{Ni sulfide/silicate melt}} = 1000$	Barnes and Lightfoot 2005	Initial sulfide melt, $0.44 \pm 0.22\text{‰}$	This study

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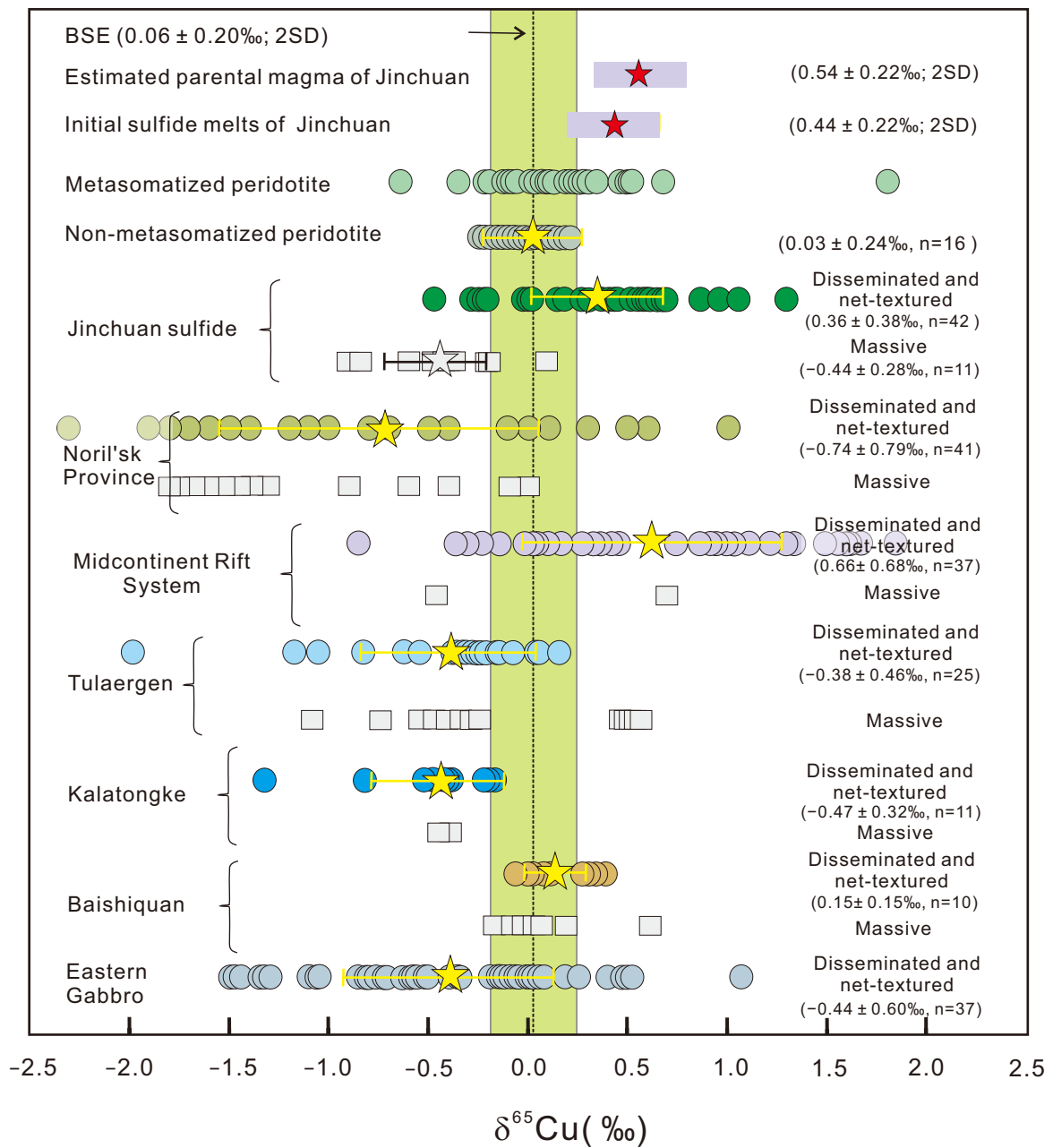
Zhao et al. Figure 1



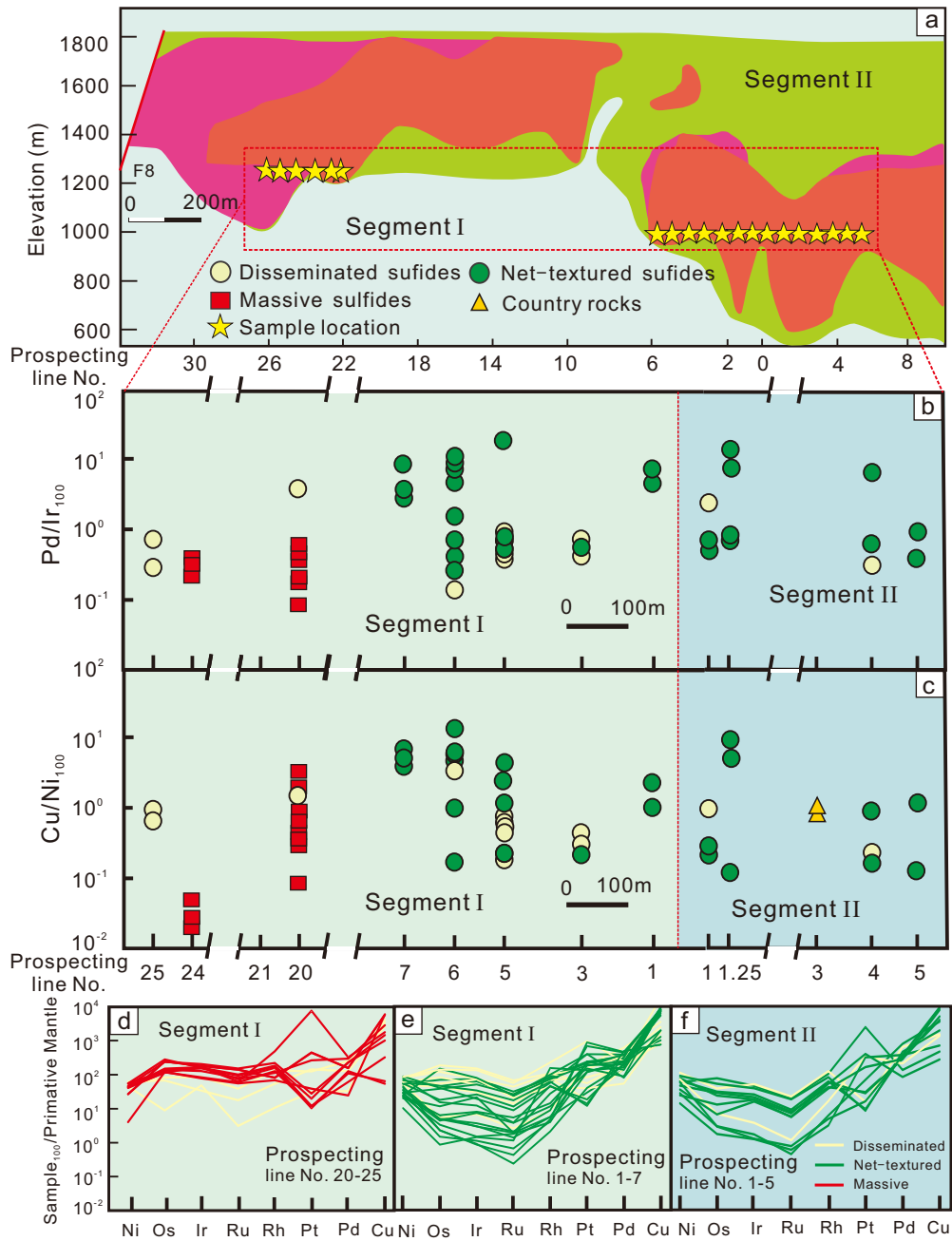
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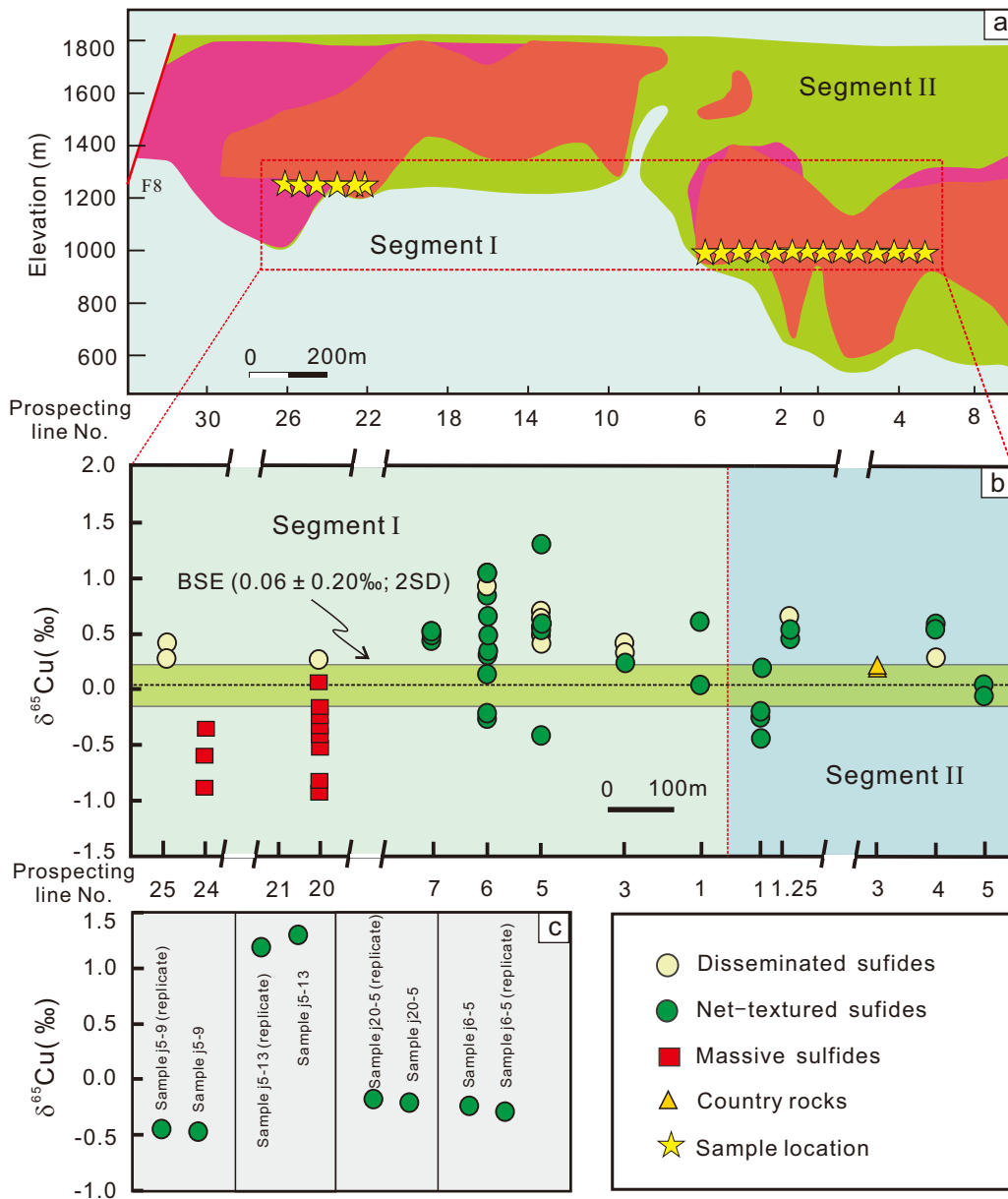
Zhao et al. Figure 3



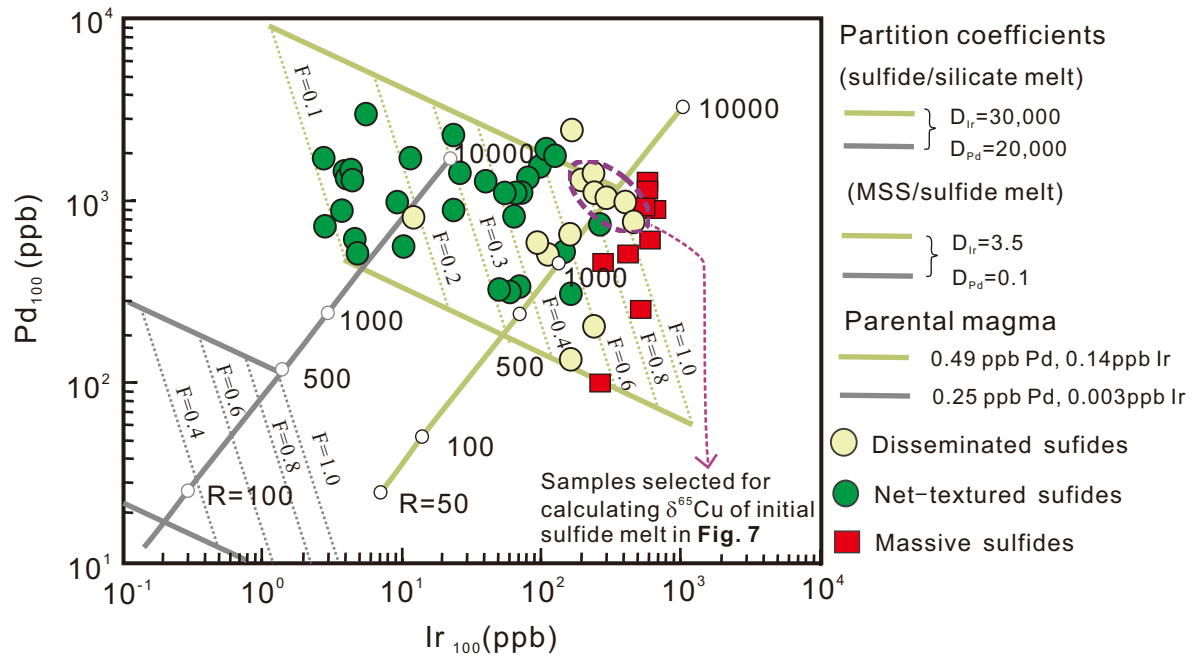
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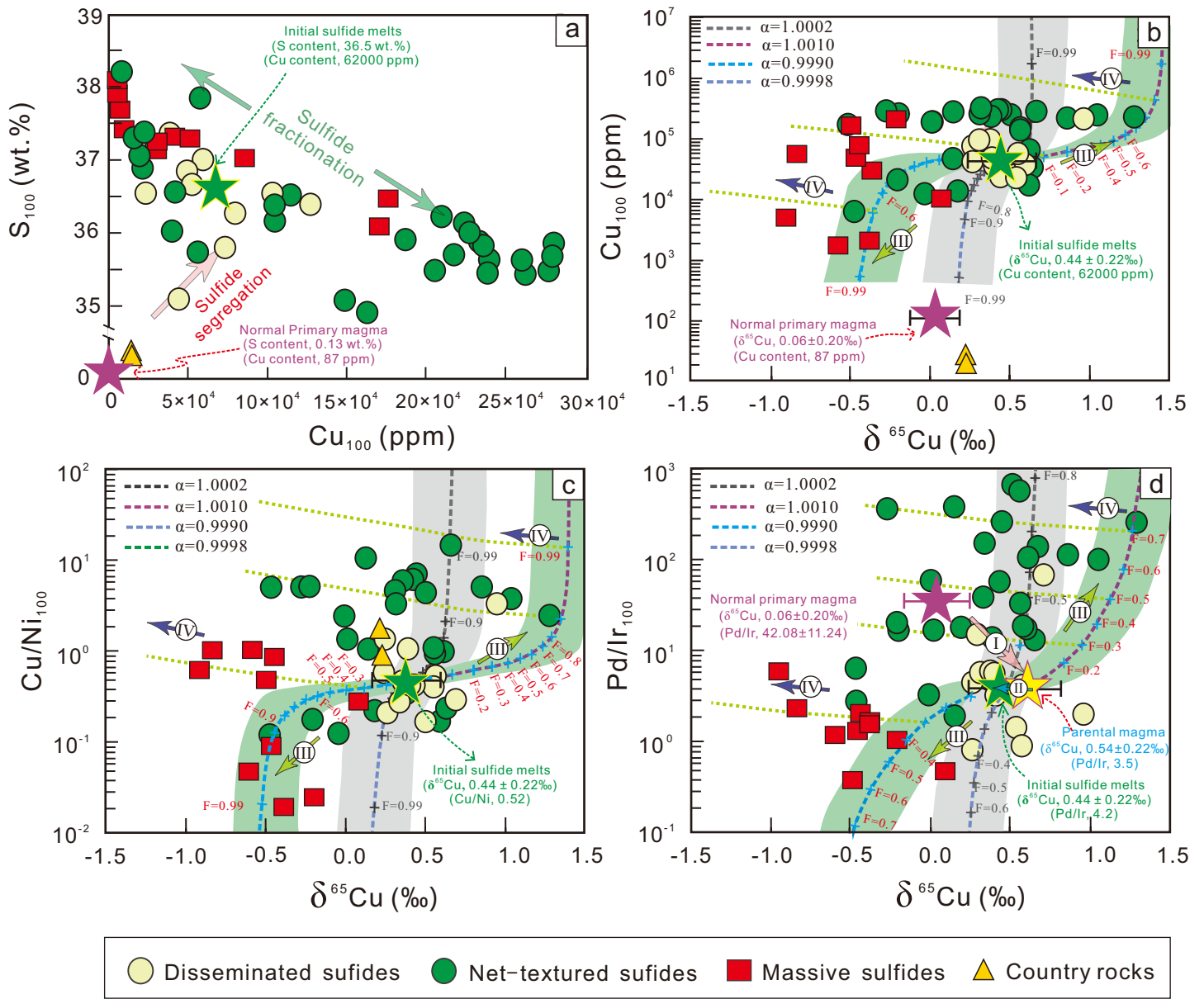
Zhao et al. Figure 5



Zhao et al. Figure 6



Zhao et al. Figure 7



Zhao et al. Figure 8

