

Mineralium Deposita

Stable H-C-O isotope and trace element geochemistry of the Cummins Range Carbonatite Complex, Kimberley region, Western Australia: Implications for hydrothermal REE mineralization, carbonatite evolution and mantle source regions --Manuscript Draft--

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Corresponding Author:	Peter Downes Western Australian Museum Welshpool DC, Western Australia AUSTRALIA
Corresponding Author Secondary Information:	
Corresponding Author's Institution:	Western Australian Museum
Corresponding Author's Secondary Institution:	
First Author:	Peter Downes
First Author Secondary Information:	
Order of Authors:	Peter Downes Attila Demény György Czuppon A. Lynton Jaques Michael Verrall Marcus Sweetapple David Adams Neal J McNaughton Lachland G Gwalani Brendan J Griffin
Order of Authors Secondary Information:	
Abstract:	<p>The Neoproterozoic Cummins Range Carbonatite Complex (CRCC) is situated in the southern Halls Creek Orogen adjacent to the Kimberley Craton in northern Western Australia. The CRCC is a composite, sub-vertical to vertical stock ~2 km across with a rim of phlogopite-diopside clinopyroxenite surrounding a plug of calcite carbonatite and dolomite carbonatite dykes and veins that contain variable proportions of apatite-phlogopite-magnetite \pm pyrochlore \pm metasomatic Na-Ca amphiboles \pm zircon. Early high-Sr calcite carbonatites (4800-6060 ppm Sr; La/YbCN = 31.6-41.5; $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ = -4.2 to -4.0 ‰) possibly were derived from a carbonated silicate parental magma by fractional crystallization. Associated high-Sr dolomite carbonatites (4090-6310 ppm Sr; La/YbCN = 96.5-352) and a late-stage, narrow, high-REE dolomite carbonatite dyke (La/YbCN = 2756) define a shift in the C-O stable isotope data ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$ = 7.5 to 12.6 ‰; $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ = -4.2 to -2.2 ‰) from the primary carbonatite field that may have been produced by Rayleigh fractionation with magma crystallization and cooling, or through crustal contamination via fluid infiltration. Past exploration has focussed primarily on the secondary monazite-(Ce)-rich REE and U mineralization in the oxidised zone overlying the carbonatite. However, high-grade primary hydrothermal REE mineralization also occurs in narrow (<1 m wide) shear-zone hosted lenses of apatite-monazite-(Ce) and foliated monazite-(Ce)-talc rocks (\leq25.8 wt% TREO; La/YbCN = 30085), as well as in high-REE</p>

	<p>dolomite carbonatite dykes (3.43 wt% TREO), where calcite, parisite-(Ce) and synchysite-(Ce) replace monazite-(Ce) after apatite. Primary magmatic carbonatites were widely hydrothermally dolomitized to produce low-Sr dolomite carbonatite (38.5-282 ppm Sr; La/YbCN = 38.4-158.4; $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ = 20.8 to 21.9 ‰; $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ = -4.3 to -3.6 ‰) that contains weak REE mineralization in replacement textures, veins and coating vugs. The relatively high δD values (-54 to -34 ‰) of H₂O derived from carbonatites from the CRCC indicate that the fluids associated with carbonate formation contained a significant amount of crustal component in accordance with the elevated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (~ -4 ‰). The high δD and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature of the carbonatites may have been produced by CO₂-H₂O metasomatism of the mantle source during Paleoproterozoic subduction beneath the eastern margin of the Kimberley Craton.</p>
Response to Reviewers:	See the attached file for a detailed response to reviewers comments.

Stable H-C-O isotope and trace element geochemistry of the Cummins Range Carbonatite Complex, Kimberley region, Western Australia: Implications for hydrothermal REE mineralization, carbonatite evolution and mantle source regions

Peter J. Downes¹, Attila Demény², György Czuppon², A. Lynton Jaques³, Michael Verrall⁴,
Marcus Sweetapple⁴, David Adams^{5,6}, Neal J. McNaughton⁷, Lalchand G. Gwalani⁸ and
Brendan J. Griffin⁵

¹Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, Western Australian Museum, Locked Bag
49, Welshpool DC, Western Australia, Australia. Email peter.downes@museum.wa.gov.au,
Ph: +61 8 92123757.

²Institute for Geological and Geochemical Research, Hungarian Academy of Sciences,
Hungary;

³Research School of Earth Sciences, Australian National University, Canberra, A.C.T.,
Australia;

⁴CSIRO Earth Science and Resource Engineering, Perth, Western Australia, Australia;

⁵Centre for Microscopy, Characterisation and Analysis, University of Western Australia,
Australia;

⁶GEMOC, Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, Macquarie University,
NSW, Australia;

⁷John de Laeter Centre for Isotope Research, Curtin University, Western Australia,

Australia;

⁸Speewah Research Project C/- King River Copper Limited, B-26/122 Mounts Bay Road,

Perth, Western Australia, Australia

Abstract

The Neoproterozoic Cummins Range Carbonatite Complex (CRCC) is situated in the southern Halls Creek Orogen adjacent to the Kimberley Craton in northern Western Australia. The CRCC is a composite, sub-vertical to vertical stock ~2 km across with a rim of phlogopite-diopside clinopyroxenite surrounding a plug of calcite carbonatite and dolomite carbonatite dykes and veins that contain variable proportions of apatite–phlogopite–magnetite ± pyrochlore ± metasomatic Na-Ca amphiboles ± zircon. Early high-Sr calcite carbonatites (4800–6060 ppm Sr; La/Yb_{CN} = 31.6–41.5; δ¹³C = -4.2 to -4.0 ‰) possibly were derived from a carbonated silicate parental magma by fractional crystallization. Associated high-Sr dolomite carbonatites (4090–6310 ppm Sr; La/Yb_{CN} = 96.5–352) and a late-stage, narrow, high-REE dolomite carbonatite dyke (La/Yb_{CN} = 2756) define a shift in the C-O stable isotope data (δ¹⁸O = 7.5 to 12.6 ‰; δ¹³C = -4.2 to -2.2 ‰) from the primary carbonatite field that may have been produced by Rayleigh fractionation with magma crystallization and cooling, or through crustal contamination via fluid infiltration. Past exploration has focussed primarily on the secondary monazite-(Ce)-rich REE and U mineralization in the oxidised zone overlying the carbonatite. However, high-

grade primary hydrothermal REE mineralization also occurs in narrow (<1 m wide) shear-zone hosted lenses of apatite-monazite-(Ce) and foliated monazite-(Ce)-talc rocks ($\leq \sim 25.8$ wt% TREO; $\text{La/Yb}_{\text{CN}} = 30085$), as well as in high-REE dolomite carbonatite dykes (3.43 wt% TREO), where calcite, parisite-(Ce) and synchysite-(Ce) replace monazite-(Ce) after apatite. Primary magmatic carbonatites were widely hydrothermally dolomitized to produce low-Sr dolomite carbonatite (38.5–282 ppm Sr; $\text{La/Yb}_{\text{CN}} = 38.4\text{--}158.4$; $\delta^{18}\text{O} = 20.8$ to 21.9 ‰; $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -4.3$ to -3.6 ‰) that contains weak REE mineralization in replacement textures, veins and coating vugs. The relatively high δD values (-54 to -34 ‰) of H_2O derived from carbonatites from the CRCC indicate that the fluids associated with carbonate formation contained a significant amount of crustal component in accordance with the elevated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (~ -4 ‰). The high δD and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature of the carbonatites may have been produced by $\text{CO}_2\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ metasomatism of the mantle source during Paleoproterozoic subduction beneath the eastern margin of the Kimberley Craton.

Keywords

Carbonatite, REE mineralization, H-C-O stable isotopes, phoscorite, clinopyroxenite, monazite-(Ce), Kimberley

Introduction

The Neoproterozoic Cummins Range Carbonatite Complex (CRCC) is situated at the southern apex of the Halls Creek Orogen, close to its junction with the King Leopold Orogen, adjacent to the Kimberley Craton in northern Western Australia (lat. 19°27'S, long. 127°10'E; Fig. 1). The CRCC is defined by a major magnetic anomaly and comprises a composite, sub-vertical to vertical zoned stock in which a phlogopite-diopside clinopyroxenite was intruded by calcite carbonatite and dolomite carbonatite dykes and veins that contain variable proportions of apatite–phlogopite–magnetite \pm pyrochlore \pm metasomatic Na-Ca amphiboles \pm zircon (Fig. 2).

Past company exploration has focussed on the oxidised zone above the carbonatite which contains a REE ore body with an inferred resource of 4.90 Mt at 1.74% TREO, 11.2% P₂O₅ and 145 ppm U₃O₈ (Kimberley Rare Earths 2012). This monazite-(Ce)-apatite-rich secondary ore largely formed through the mechanical concentration of primary magmatic–hydrothermal REE mineralization within the carbonatite during weathering and deflation. The ore body is the third largest REE resource in Western Australia behind the Mt Weld deposit and the Hastings-Brockman trachytic tuff (Geological Survey of Western Australia 2011).

In this paper we employ H-C-O stable isotope and whole-rock geochemistry to define the evolution of various phases of the Cummins Range carbonatite and associated hydrothermal–metasomatic processes involved in REE mineralization. H-C-O isotope data also provides information on the development of the mantle source regions for the CRCC where previous work has indicated the influence of subduction-related processes and the existence of a Neoarchean depleted lithospheric mantle root beneath the Halls Creek Orogen (Jaques et al. 1989a; Luguet et al. 2009; Honda et al. 2012).

87

88 **Geological setting**

89

90 The Paleoproterozoic Halls Creek Orogen is comprised of a NNE-trending band of
91 deformed and metamorphosed sedimentary, volcanic and intrusive rocks that represents a
92 suture zone between the Kimberley Craton and the remainder of the North Australian
93 Craton to the east (Fig. 1). Amalgamation following plate collision had occurred by ~1820
94 Ma (Myers et al. 1996; Tyler et al. 1999; 2012; Griffin et al. 2000; Cawood and Korsch
95 2008; Richards 2013). The Argyle lamproite, associated lamproite dykes and the Bow Hill
96 ultramafic lamprophyre dykes were emplaced along a terrane boundary within the Halls
97 Creek Orogen during the Proterozoic (Fig. 1; Jaques et al. 1986; Jaques and Milligan 2004).
98 Similarly, a deep crustal structure within the King Leopold Orogen probably provided a
99 route for lamproite magmas to reach the surface during the Miocene (~17–22 Ma)
100 volcanism in the West Kimberley (Ellendale; Fig. 1; Jaques and Milligan 2004). The
101 Cummins Range Carbonatite Complex has been interpreted by a number of workers to be
102 emplaced in the proximity of the Halls Creek Fault (Fig. 1; e.g. Sanders 1999). Country
103 rocks, including granite gneiss and chlorite schist, are interpreted to be part of the Eastern
104 zone of the Paleoproterozoic Lamboo Complex within the Halls Creek Orogen (Fig. 2;
105 Andrew 1990; cf. Hassan 2000). The contacts of the CRCC are largely inferred from
106 magnetic data and no structural disruption or contact metamorphism was found on the
107 margins of the carbonatite complex. Neoproterozoic ages of ~854–1012 Ma (currently
108 under review) are indicated for the CRCC by dating using various methods (Pidgeon et al.
109 1986; Sun et al. 1986).

Outline of Geology

Previous detailed accounts of the geology and mineralogy of the intrusive complex may be found in Richards (1983, 1985) and Andrew (1990). The CRCC has little surface expression, with the area largely being concealed by an aeolian sand sheet of varying thickness, typical of the Great Sandy Desert. Exposure is limited to patchy outcrop of low mounds of jasperoidal matrix-supported ironstone breccia, interpreted to be a residual solution collapse breccia of karst origin (Fig. 2; Richards 1983). Other regolith units noted within, or beneath sand cover, are ferruginous laterite, silcrete and calcrete. Resistate minerals, including REE-bearing monazite-(Ce), apatite, zircon and pyrochlore are considered to have been enriched by up to 10 times their original concentration in the oxidised zone (Andrew 1990), but the nature of this enrichment is not well defined.

Drilling and aeromagnetic and more detailed ground magnetic surveys have shown that the CRCC is a composite, sub-vertical to vertical stock some 1.8 x 1.6 km in maximum dimensions with three broadly concentric zones (Fig. 2). A central intrusive zone or plug of calcite carbonatite and dolomite carbonatite dykes is surrounded by variably carbonated and metasomatically altered phlogopite clinopyroxenite. Adjacent to the central carbonatite intrusive zone the clinopyroxenite was intruded by numerous steeply-dipping carbonatite dykes up to ~60m thick and metasomatism of the clinopyroxenite by the carbonatite is most intense in this zone, where there is a high density of carbonate veins/microveins and invasion of the clinopyroxenite by carbonatite (Andrew 1990). The outer envelope

comprises less altered clinopyroxenite with a mineral assemblage that includes phlogopite, diopside, apatite, magnetite, calcite and ilmenite, and lesser amounts of metasomatic Na-Ca amphiboles and accessory zirconolite (Table 1; Fig. 2). Sulfide \pm oxide assemblages composed of pyrrhotite, pyrite, chalcopyrite, \pm sphalerite \pm galena \pm magnetite are common to both the clinopyroxenite and various phases of the carbonatite, where they may form sulfide-rich bands and lenses. Within the carbonatite, vugs up to several centimetres wide commonly contain hydrothermal pyrite, marcasite and chalcopyrite (Table 1). Sulfides exhibit textures that suggest that they have formed through the replacement of carbonates (calcite and dolomite), diopside (or actinolite), to a lesser extent apatite, and rarely monazite-(Ce).

The carbonatite and clinopyroxenite are cut by vertical–sub vertical shear zones, trending $\sim 315\text{--}330^\circ$, that include weakly to strongly foliated dolomite carbonatite, zones of phlogopitite, and zones of high-REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock (Fig. 3). Some shear zones have been localised along contacts between the clinopyroxenite and carbonatite and this deformation may have played a major role in producing foliated phlogopitite along the margins of some clinopyroxenite bodies. This apparent K-metasomatism does not appear to have been entirely related to contact metasomatism with the intrusion of carbonatite into clinopyroxenite, because zones of phlogopitite are asymmetric in distribution. At some boundaries of the clinopyroxenite there are quite thick zones of phlogopitite ($\leq \sim 10$ m), but at others minimal phlogopitite is developed (cm-scale). This suggests a correlation with zones of shearing. The shear zone trend of $\sim 315\text{--}330^\circ$ may also be reflected in the approximate orientation of the outcrop of iron oxide collapse breccias (Fig. 2) and the orientation of the REE orebody within the oxidised zone (see Appendix 1).

Analytical methods

Scanning electron microscopy and electron microprobe microanalysis

Mineral identifications were assisted by detailed back-scattered electron (BSE) imaging and energy-dispersive X-ray spectrometry (EDS) using a Philips XL-40 scanning-electron microscope (SEM) at CSIRO Earth Science and Resource Engineering, Perth.

The composition of apatite was determined at the Centre for Microscopy, Characterisation and Analysis at the University of Western Australia using a field emission gun JEOL JXA-8530F Hyperprobe with five wavelength-dispersive spectrometers operating at 20 keV, 50 nA, and a 10 μm diameter beam to minimise fluorine diffusion. All analyses were performed using the Probe for EMPA software by Probe Software, Inc. F and Ca were analysed first using a Time Dependent Intensity (TDI) correction to account for any anisotropic elemental diffusion during analysis. REEs were standardised using the Smithsonian Institution single element orthophosphate standards. Ca and F were standardised on Durango apatite; Cl was standardised on a Brazilian sodalite. Natural orthoclase was used as the standard for Si and K, and San Carlos olivine was used for Fe calibration. Sr was calibrated on synthetic celestine and synthetic barite was used for S. Standards used for U, Th, and Pb were U metal, ThO_2 , and crocoite respectively. All REEs, Th, and U were counted for 100 seconds on peak and major elements were counted for 10 – 40 seconds on peak. All elemental peak overlaps were accounted for and eliminated using software peak overlap correction routines. Errors on all elements are $\leq 10\%$.

Whole-rock geochemistry

Abundances of major and trace elements were determined at Geoscience Australia, Canberra by XRF and ICP-MS for selected samples. Major and minor elements (Si, Ti, Al, Fe, Mn, Mg, Ca, Na, K, P and S) were determined by wavelength-dispersive (Bruker S8Tiger) XRF on fused disks using methods similar to those of Norrish and Hutton (1969). Precision for these elements is better than $\pm 1\%$ of the reported values. As, Ba, Cr, Cu, Ni, Sc, V, Zn, Zr, F and Cl were determined by XRF on pressed pellets using methods similar to those described by Norrish and Chappell (1977). Loss on Ignition (LOI) was by gravimetry after combustion at 1100°C . FeO abundances were determined by digestion and electrochemical titration using a modified methodology based on Shapiro and Brannock (1962), and Fe_2O_3 values were calculated as the difference between total Fe, determined by XRF, and FeO. Selected trace elements (Cs, Ga, Nb, Pb, Rb, Sb, Sn, Sr, Ta, Th, U, Y) and the Rare Earth elements were analysed by ICP-MS (Agilent 7500 with reaction cell) using methods similar to those of Eggins et al. (1997), but on solutions obtained by dissolution of fused glass disks (Pyke 2000). Precisions are $\pm 5\%$ and $\pm 10\%$ at low levels (< 20 ppm). Agreement between XRF and ICP-MS are typically within 10%. Because of problems in retaining the sample in solution, the REE and F-rich fused XRF disc of sample CDD1-36 (and CDD1-34 for comparison) was also analysed by laser ablation ICP-MS at the Research School of Earth Sciences, ANU, for REEs and other trace elements using an Agilent Technologies 7700 ICP-MS coupled to an ANU HeIEX laser-ablation system with a 193 nm wavelength EXCIMER laser (110 (ArF) COMPex, Lambda Physik) following the

method of Jenner and O'Neill (2012). Data acquisition involved a 20 second background measurement followed by 45 seconds of ablation, employing an 81 micron diameter laser spot, 5 Hz repetition rate and 50-55 mJ fluence. Samples were analysed by bracketing every 5 unknowns with analyses of NIST610 and BCR2G reference glasses. Data were processed using the Iolite software package (Paton et al. 2011). Agreement of the LA-ICP-MS and solution ICP-MS methods for sample CDD1-34, and with recommended/preferred values for standards BCR-2G and SY-3 was within 10% for most elements at the ppm level and higher. LA-ICP-MS data for the REEs, Zr, Hf, Ta, Th and U in sample CDD1-36, and Tm, Hf and Ta in sample CDD1-34, are therefore reported here.

Abundances of trace elements for 9 rock samples were determined at TSW Analytical, Perth (analyst Sven Fjastad) using a combination of ICP-MS (Agilent 7700) and ICP-AES (Thermo Scientific iCAP) analysis. Solutions for analysis were prepared by two methods: (a) The pulverised sample (0.3 g) was fused with lithium tetraborate (35.3%)/lithium metaborate (64.7%) flux (0.8 g) at 1050°C for 15 minutes, then the fused material was dissolved in a citric acid solution (50 mL, 10% m/v); and (b) The pulverised sample (0.25 g) was digested in a mixture of nitric, perchloric and hydrofluoric acids. The digestate was taken to incipient dryness and the residue dissolved in a mixture of nitric and hydrochloric acid then diluted with ultra-pure water to produce a final acid strength of ~5% v/v. The resultant solutions were then diluted appropriately for ICP-AES and ICP-MS analysis.

The elements reported for these samples have been compiled from, and confirmed by, using both the ICP-AES and ICP-MS results from the above sample preparation techniques. The detection limits vary from element to element in the various solution matrices and instrumental technique used, however as a generalisation elements reported from the ICP-

AES assay have limits of detection (2σ) of approximately 10 ppm in the pulverised sample and elements reported from the ICP-MS assay have limits of detection (2σ) of approximately 0.1 ppm in the pulverised sample.

Stable Isotopes

For carbonate samples from the CRCC the stable carbon and oxygen isotope compositions were determined by applying the carbonate-orthophosphoric acid reaction at 72°C (Spötl and Wennemann 2003) and using an automated GASBENCH II sample preparation device attached to a Thermo Finnigan Delta Plus XP mass spectrometer at the Institute for Geological and Geochemical Research, Budapest, Hungary.

Hydrogen isotope compositions of fluid inclusion-hosted H₂O and H₂O-contents in ten carbonate samples were determined by vacuum-crushing followed by H₂O purification by vacuum distillation, reaction with Zn at 480°C to produce H₂ gas and mass spectrometric analyses of D/H ratios (see Demény 1995, Demény and Siklósy 2008, Czuppon et al. 2014) using a Finnigan MAT delta S mass spectrometer at the Institute for Geological and Geochemical Research.

The isotope compositions are given as δD , $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$ in parts per thousands (‰) relative to V-PDB ($\delta^{13}C$) and V-SMOW (δD and $\delta^{18}O$), according to the equation: $\delta = (R_{\text{sample}}/R_{\text{standard}} - 1) \times 1000$, where R is the D/H, $^{13}C/^{12}C$ or $^{18}O/^{16}O$ ratio in the sample or in the international standard. The measurement precision is better than 0.15‰ for C and O isotope data based on replicate measurements of international standards (NBS-19; NBS-

18) and in-house reference materials. Reproducibilities of H isotope analyses were about 3‰ for δD values based on duplicate analyses.

Two samples of the high-REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock (CDD1-31, CDD1-37A) were examined and found not to contain fluid inclusions.

Petrography

Fresh rocks within the Cummins Range complex were encountered in two deep inclined diamond drill holes, CDD1 and CDD2, each ~402 m long (Figs 2, 3; Appendix 1). The petrographic descriptions presented here are based mostly on samples from these drill holes. Most exploration drilling has concentrated on defining the shallow REE resource within the oxidised zone. Two of the samples analysed for C-O isotopes came from shallow RC drill holes (NRC035 92–93 m, NRC058 97–98 m). We describe the various carbonatites and the high-REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock in detail here, but the associated clinopyroxenite will be described elsewhere (Table 1).

We use the term ‘phoscorite’ to describe apatite-amphibole-rich rocks that also contain varying proportions of phlogopite, magnetite, dolomite, \pm calcite \pm ilmenite (Table 1). No olivine-bearing rocks have been found in the CRCC. The definition of ‘phoscorite’ or ‘phoscorite-series’ rocks is complex, and this is discussed in detail by Krasnova et al. (2004).

Carbonatites

Multiple phases of calcite carbonatite and dolomite carbonatite dykes intruded the clinopyroxenite phase of the CRCC producing a central carbonatite plug (Fig. 2). The carbonatites contain variable proportions of apatite \pm phlogopite \pm magnetite \pm amphibole, and with increasing content of these minerals range towards silicocarbonatites or phoscorite-series rocks (Table 1; Fig. 4). Blue-green, Na-Ca amphiboles (predominantly richterite) are a metasomatic phase (\leq ~5 vol.%) that overprint the magmatic carbonatite rock fabric, including replacement of phlogopite and apatite (Fig. 4b, c). Contact relationships between carbonatites and associated phoscorite-series rocks commonly are gradational. Fresh diopside has not been observed in the carbonatites at Cummins Range, however diopside may have been a primary magmatic phase that has been replaced by richterite in associated apatite-amphibole-rich phoscorite.

The carbonatites vary from fine to coarse-grained, and from massive to foliated. The foliated textures indicate ductile deformation of the carbonatite during tectonism (Fig. 4d). Generally, the carbonatites are either calcite or dolomite dominant, where the carbonates comprise up to ~95 vol.% of the rock. Recrystallization and hydrothermal alteration of the carbonatites has produced massive, turbid, microporous dolomite or calcite in some zones. In the carbonatites, apatite occurs as individual equant to elongate crystals (\leq 1.5 cm long) or as radiating to divergent clusters of elongate crystals (\leq 4 cm across) generally situated at calcite or dolomite grain boundaries, or in lenses of polygonal crystal cumulate (Fig. 4c). Pyrochlore and zircon are characteristic minor accessory minerals. Pyrochlore (generally $<$ 1 vol.%) occurs as equant, euhedral to anhedral, dark brown to golden brown crystals

≤10mm wide. It is commonly overgrown by thin rims of pyrite, and very rarely is replaced by ferrocolumbite. Zircon exhibits a diverse range of textures including subhedral megacrysts to ~1.5cm wide with typical igneous growth zonation (Fig. 4a; occurring in CDD1 323–331 m), anhedral, metamict composite porphyroblasts intergrown with dolomite in strongly foliated carbonatite (≤3 mm wide; Fig. 4d), and turbid brown anhedral–subhedral crystals intergrown with amphibole-ilmenite-apatite-dolomite (≤5 mm wide). Textural relationships indicate that the zircon is variably igneous to hydrothermal or metasomatic in origin. The zircons have a very low U content (≤138 ppm; unpubl. data NJ McNaughton) consistent with their carbonatite origin (cf. Belousova et al. 2002).

Carbonatites within the CRCC commonly contain trace–minor hydrothermal REE-mineralization (generally <1 vol.%) in the form of disseminated grains of monazite-(Ce), parisite-(Ce) and synchysite-(Ce) in calcite and dolomite; monazite-(Ce) rimming and replacing magmatic apatite; parisite-(Ce) and synchysite-(Ce) in replacement textures, veins and lining cavities in carbonatite; as well as minor niobaeschynite-(Ce), chevkinite-(Ce), fergusonite and Ca-REE-Ba-Sr carbonates (possibly burbankite or carbocernaite; Fig. 5).

High-Sr calcite carbonatite

Calcite carbonatites may have a fine-grained, equigranular to inequigranular polygonal mosaic texture (with straight to slightly curved grain boundaries; crystals ≤1 mm wide), but vary to inequigranular textures where carbonate crystals (≤5 mm long) have irregular to

serrated boundaries. White–light grey, massive carbonatite may be intruded (and/or replaced?) by dykes or irregular bodies of light pink calcite carbonatite that occurs only in the drill hole CDD1 (Fig. 4a). This calcite carbonatite may contain minor subhedral to anhedral, phenocrysts and crystal clusters of white dolomite ($\leq \sim 5$ mm long; < 15 vol.%) in a calcite groundmass (Fig. 4a). High-Sr calcite carbonatite near the bottom of drill hole CDD2 preserves calcite-dolomite exsolution textures. Small blebs and rods of dolomite ($\leq \sim 20$ μm long) have exsolved from high-Mg calcite.

High-Sr dolomite carbonatite

White, massive, weakly–moderately fractured dolomite carbonatite is present in both drill holes (e.g. CDD1 150.45–152.26 m; CDD2 ~ 110 – 115 m). Generally, it has indistinct contacts with surrounding calcite carbonatite, but is intruded by pink high-Sr calcite carbonatite. The texture varies from zones of inequigranular, variably clear to turbid dolomite, with crystals up to ~ 2 mm wide having straight to curved or rounded boundaries, grading into a more coarse-grained turbid dolomite with elongated–anhedral crystals $\leq \sim 1.25$ cm long. This dolomite carbonatite contains rare parisite-(Ce), synchysite-(Ce) and monazite-(Ce) (< 1 vol.%). Minor patches and crystals of calcite exhibit microporosity and contain inclusions of strontianite and Ca-REE-Ba-Sr minerals (possibly burbankite or carbocernaite; ≤ 30 μm long).

333 *High-REE dolomite carbonatite dykes*

334

335 Late-stage, thin, grey dolomite carbonatite dykes intrude calcite and calcite-dolomite
 336 carbonatite over two intervals within the drill hole CDD2. These dykes contain relatively
 337 high-grade REE mineralization (e.g. CDD2 396.9–397.64 m – 3.43 wt% TREO) and their
 338 texture and mineralogy are as follows:

- 339 1) The grey, medium-grained dolomite carbonatite dyke intruding calcite-dolomite
 340 carbonatite over the interval CDD2 225.03–225.23 m, contains turbid dolomite and
 341 parisite-(Ce) (~15–20 vol.%; elongate crystals ≤ 3 mm) with minor aeschynite-(Ce)
 342 (crystals ≤ 0.8 mm long), monazite-(Ce) and pyrite (Fig. 5a, b). Crystals of parisite-
 343 (Ce) are partially resorbed or altered and fractured, with dissolution along cleavage
 344 planes. Pyrite (crystals ≤ 0.6 mm long) commonly occurs along fractures and cleavage
 345 planes in crystals of parisite-(Ce).
- 346 2) Dolomite carbonatite dykes intrude calcite carbonatite over the interval CDD2 396.9–
 347 397.18 m, 397.35–397.64 m. The REE mineralization in these dykes comprises fine-
 348 grained monazite-(Ce), parisite-(Ce) and synchysite-(Ce) in irregularly-shaped patches
 349 of pink calcite up to 2 cm long (Fig. 5c, d). Crystals of apatite may be partially to
 350 completely replaced by this calcite-REE-rich association (Fig. 5d). These calcite-
 351 monazite-(Ce) patches are not restricted to these dykes and occur in less abundance in
 352 surrounding calcite carbonatite. The sequence of replacement was apatite replaced by
 353 monazite-(Ce) that was later replaced by pink calcite and associated parisite-(Ce) and
 354 synchysite-(Ce). Monazite-(Ce) is also rarely replaced by pyrrhotite and magnetite in

this carbonatite. The dolomite carbonatite contains patches and crystals of microporous calcite with microinclusions (<2 µm wide) of strontianite ± Ca-REE-Ba-Sr carbonates (possibly burbankite or carbocernaite).

Low-Sr dolomite carbonatite

The low-Sr dolomite carbonatites are white–grey, massive and dominantly composed of turbid recrystallised, microporous dolomite (≤2 cm long crystals; anhedral with irregular boundaries). Boundaries with the surrounding calcite carbonatite commonly are gradational. Some zones within the carbonatite dykes have a vuggy texture and are weakly mineralised (e.g. 110.5–136.4 m, 303–322.2 m in CDD1; 328.3–396 m in CDD2; Fig. 5e). Vugs (≤~5 cm wide), typically containing ≤1 vol.% REE-bearing minerals, are lined by euhedral coarse dolomite crystals associated with crystals of pyrite–marcasite, quartz, monazite-(Ce), encrustations of very fine-grained platy crystals and crystal groups of the REE-fluorocarbonates parisite-(Ce) and synchysite-(Ce) (+ rare fine acicular groups of a Nb-Ti mineral, probably niobaeschynite-(Ce)) ± Mg-silicates (talc; Fig. 5f).

High-REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock

Within the drill hole CDD1, the interval 261.85–275.2 m is composed of weakly–strongly foliated rocks including carbonatite and apatite-monazite-(Ce)-amphibole-talc-rich rocks.

Some strongly foliated zones contain ~5–10 vol.% fine–medium grained disseminated zircon (the zircon has yellow SW fluorescence; ~269–269.15 m, 272.5–273 m). This shear zone was intruded by white, massive–fractured dolomite carbonatite dykes and veins, and over the interval 269.2–271.1 m light grey, fine-grained high REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rocks (containing \leq ~25.8 wt% TREO) occur adjacent to these dolomite carbonatite dykes (\leq 0.142 wt% TREO; Fig. 6). From historical exploration geochemistry, the interval 269–271m is particularly high grade, with 8.29 wt% from 269–270m, and 5.14 wt% TREO from 270–271 m (Fig. 3). The apatite-monazite-(Ce) rocks comprise complex intergrowths of apatite and monazite-(Ce) (that varies from thin, elongated crystals to granular in habit) that are overprinted by veins of talc-amphibole-pyrrhotite-dolomite (Fig. 7). Monazite-(Ce) may also occur in a talc–amphibole matrix. The thin, elongated crystals of monazite-(Ce) intergrown with apatite are up to ~0.8 mm long, and the apatite in this association is polycrystalline (variation in extinction angle), turbid and partially altered. In one sample (CDD1-33), this apatite-monazite-(Ce) zone has a sharp contact with an adjacent apatite-rich vein containing patchy to concentrically-zoned, elongated, crystals of apatite (\leq 3 mm long) aligned approximately perpendicular to the vein margins (Fig. 6).

Zones of foliated apatite-talc-monazite-(Ce)-amphibole rock are banded on a cm-scale (e.g. CDD1 265–266 m 3.3 wt% TREO). These include weakly foliated, monazite-(Ce)-talc-rich bands that contain ~40–50 vol.% anhedral–subhedral monazite-(Ce) crystals (\leq ~1.3 mm long, commonly fractured) in a talc-amphibole-pyrrhotite matrix (Fig. 7b, d). The monazite-(Ce)-talc bands are enclosed by moderately foliated bands of apatite-amphibole-monazite-(Ce)-talc in which the fabric is defined by crystals of green-blue amphibole (richterite, \leq ~1.2 mm long) intergrown with fine-grained talc and irregular

lenses and grains of pyrrhotite ($\leq \sim 1.3$ mm long). The amphiboles enclose lenses of recrystallised and altered apatite to ~ 2 mm long, and trains of equant/granular crystals of monazite-(Ce) ($\leq \sim 0.7$ mm long, $\leq \sim 5$ vol.%). Banding also includes more massive zones of altered and recrystallised apatite that are crosscut by lenses of amphibole (~ 15 vol.%, $\leq \sim 4$ mm long) and ragged grains and lenses of pyrrhotite \pm rare chalcopyrite ($\leq \sim 0.7$ mm long).

Geochemistry

Apatite chemistry

Electron microprobe data acquired from two samples of the high-REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock (CDD1-29, CDD1-33) and 3 samples of carbonatite are presented in Table 2 and Fig. 8. The high-REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock contains areas with zoned apatite crystals (~ 5 vol.%). Crystal cores, to ~ 600 μm long, occur in areas of massive uniform apatite in a talc-rich matrix. Apatite cores are REE-rich (Y_2O_3 0.22–0.43 wt%; TREO 4.07–10.1 wt%; SrO 1.22–2.81 wt%) and apatite rims or surrounding apatite in the matrix are Sr-rich (SrO 1.78–11.39 wt%) and poor in REEs (TREO ≤ 2.92 wt%; $\text{Y}_2\text{O}_3 \leq 0.12$ wt%). Notably, some of these apatite cores exhibit positive Eu anomalies ($\text{Eu}/\text{Eu}^* \sim 2.4$ –8.8; Fig. 8b). Apatite in the carbonatites has distinctive Sr and REE contents, with generally < 2 wt% SrO and ≤ 2.42 wt% TREO. Apatite analyses from the high-REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock may have low

analytical totals which could be due to the effects of hydrothermal alteration or the presence of CO_3^{2-} that has not been determined (Table 2; cf. DeToledo et al. 2004).

Whole-rock geochemistry

Whole-rock geochemical data for the CRCC is presented in Tables 3 and 4, and Figs 3 and 9 (see also Appendix 1). The high-Sr calcite carbonatite contains from 4800–6060 ppm Sr, from 1.41–3.2 wt% MgO, from 0.18–0.30 wt% MnO, and from 0.42–1.80 wt% P_2O_5 . The calcite carbonatites are weakly mineralised, containing 0.138–0.163 wt% TREO ($\text{La/Yb}_{\text{CN}} = 31.6\text{--}41.5$; $\text{La/Nd}_{\text{CN}} = 1.72\text{--}2.23$). The pink calcite carbonatite (CDD1-24) has relatively higher Zr and Hf content than other calcite carbonatite samples (Fig. 9b).

The high-Sr dolomite carbonatite contains relatively high MnO from 0.683–1.12 wt%, and MgO from 16.1–19 wt% (CDD1-34 contains 12.7 wt% MgO but this sample has a high iron content due to sulfides). Sr content ranges from 4090–6310 ppm, and P_2O_5 from 0.1–0.92 wt%. The TREO content is the lowest of all carbonatites in the complex, ranging from 0.071–0.145 wt%, but it exhibits high LREE/HREE ratios ($\text{La/Yb}_{\text{CN}} = 96.5\text{--}352$; $\text{La/Nd}_{\text{CN}} = 2\text{--}3.14$). In contrast, the low-Sr dolomite carbonatite ($\text{Sr} = 38.5\text{--}282$ ppm) contains lower amounts of Fe and Mn, but higher TREO ($\text{MnO} = 0.26\text{--}0.34$ wt%; $\text{P}_2\text{O}_5 = 0.035\text{--}0.9$ wt%; TREO = 0.124–0.358 wt%). The low-Sr dolomite carbonatite has variable REE content, with $\text{La/Yb}_{\text{CN}} = 38.4\text{--}158.4$ and $\text{La/Nd}_{\text{CN}} = 1.98\text{--}2.73$.

The high-REE dolomite carbonatite (2) dyke (CDD2-25A) contains 3.43 wt% TREO. It has relatively high P_2O_5 (7.28 wt%) due to its apatite content and very high LREE

enrichment ($\text{La/Yb}_{\text{CN}} = 2756$; $\text{La/Nd}_{\text{CN}} = 5.8$). Unfortunately, insufficient sample was available from the high-REE dolomite carbonatite (1) dyke to undertake whole-rock geochemistry. The high-REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock (CDD1-36) is rich in Ca, Sr, and P and is extremely enriched in REEs with ~25.8 wt% TREO, has a high La/Nd_{CN} ratio (~5.4), an extremely high La/Yb_{CN} ratio (30085), and a high abundance of Y (126 ppm). Notably, its chondrite-normalised REE pattern is discordant to the quasi-parallel patterns of the carbonatites sampled (Fig. 9a).

Geochemically the primary carbonatites are high in Sr, and relatively low in Ba (≤ 509 ppm) and all carbonatites are low in HFSE (e.g. $\text{Zr} \leq 279$ ppm, $\text{Nb} \leq 254$ ppm, $\text{Hf} \leq 3.81$ ppm, $\text{Ta} \leq 7.39$ ppm). The Th/U, Nb/Ta and Zr/Hf ratios of the carbonatite samples are quite variable (Table 3) and probably are controlled by zircon and pyrochlore content (Fig. 9). In four carbonatite samples Hf content is below detection limits and two carbonatites have anomalously low Zr/Hf ratios with Hf content < 0.15 ppm (Table 4). The remaining carbonatite samples have Zr/Hf ratios in the range 25.9–73.2 (average ~43.8), which is similar to the range for the Kovdor and Turiy Mys carbonatites from the Kola Alkaline Province, Russia (36–72; Ivanikov et al. 1998; Verhulst et al. 2000) and exceeds the primitive mantle value (~37). The Zr/Hf ratio of the apatite-amphibole phoscorite (52.5) is similar to the worldwide average of phoscorites and silicocarbonatites (57; Chakhmouradian 2006). The average Zr/Nb ratio of the carbonatites is the same as the worldwide carbonatite average (0.8; Chakhmouradian 2006), and much lower than the Zr/Nb ratio of the phoscorite (~6.39).

Y/Ho ratios are close to the primitive mantle value (~27) for the majority of carbonatite samples (21.5–27.1), but the high-Sr calcite carbonatite (CDD2-21A) has $\text{Y/Ho} = 15.1$ and

the high-REE dolomite carbonatite dyke (2; CDD2-25A) has a low value of 2.14 and a negative Eu anomaly ($\text{Eu}/\text{Eu}^* = 0.62$). The high-REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock (CCD1-36) also has a relatively low Y/Ho ratio of 17.9.

Ga/Ge ratios in a large group of calcite and dolomite carbonatites ($n = 6$) are on average 5.34 (Table 4), which is slightly above the ratio for the primitive mantle ~ 3.67 . Higher Ga/Ge ratios occur in samples with Al-bearing minerals, and thus a higher Ga content, apart from the late-stage high-REE dolomite carbonatite (CDD2-25A). The tightly constrained nature and consistency of the Ga/Ge ratios for the majority of carbonatite samples suggests that this ratio may reflect the mantle source.

H-C-O stable isotopes

Several groupings and trends in the C-O isotope data can be defined for the CRCC samples (Table 5; Fig. 10). High-Sr calcite carbonatites form a group with a range in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of 7.5 to 8.6 ‰ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of -4.2 to -4.0 ‰. This group exhibits a positive $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ shift (1) at almost constant $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ from a theoretical uncontaminated mantle source composition. Seven samples of dominantly dolomite carbonatite (with one sample of calcite carbonatite) define a weak positive trend over the ranges in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of 8.3 to 12.6 ‰ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of -3.4 to -2.2 ‰ (shift 2). A group of low-Sr dolomite carbonatite samples (with vuggy textures) have $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values from 20.8 to 21.9‰, with a relatively narrow range in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of -4.3 to -3.6 ‰ (shift 3 from the primary carbonatite field). The clinopyroxenite samples define two groups, one with $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values from 11.1 to 11.3 ‰ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ from -5.6 to -5.4 ‰, and another group

with $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ from 9.7 to 11.2 ‰ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ from -4.4 to -3.9 ‰ that includes one amphibole-apatite phosphorite. One further clinopyroxenite sample contains calcite that has experienced a large shift in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ compared to the signature of other clinopyroxenites ($\delta^{18}\text{O} = 21.4$ ‰, $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -3.8$ ‰). The results of H_2O -contents and stable H isotope analysis of fluid inclusion-hosted H_2O , as well as bulk carbonate C and O isotope compositions for ten carbonate samples from various carbonatites are presented in Table 6 and Fig. 11.

Discussion

Evolution of the Cummins Range carbonatites

Current evidence suggests that carbonatite magmas may have evolved from mantle-derived alkali-rich carbonated silicate magmas by some form of fractional crystallization or liquid immiscibility (e.g. Lee and Wylie 1998; Downes et al. 2005; Chakhmouradian and Zaitsev 2012). Alternatively, a small number of carbonatites probably were derived directly from the mantle by partial melting of metasomatised peridotite (e.g. Ray et al. 2013; Chakhmouradian and Zaitsev 2012). At Cummins Range, the association of the carbonatites with coeval clinopyroxenite suggests a genetic relationship between the two. No evidence for any form of liquid immiscibility (e.g. conjugate silicate-carbonate or silicate-phosphate melts, or melt inclusion evidence of two immiscible liquids) involved in the evolution of the Cummins Range carbonatites has been discovered so far, however the operation of fractional crystallization processes is evident from the presence of apatite-

phlogopite-magnetite (\pm ilmenite \pm pyrochlore) rich bands within the carbonatites, and cumulate textures in associated phoscorite and clinopyroxenite in parts of the CRCC. The fractionation of REE-poor magnetite, ilmenite, phlogopite and/or diopside, along with dolomite or calcite, is thought to have played a role in the derivation of the late-stage, high-REE dolomite carbonatite dykes at Cummins Range. However, this picture is complicated by the role of apatite in controlling the REE budget in these rocks. Bands of cumulate-textured apatite-amphibole-rich carbonatite are enriched in Zr, Nb, REEs, F, P and Na in comparison to associated calcite carbonatite (compare CDD2-21A and CDD2-27). The increased REE content in the cumulate rock could be related to higher apatite content, but Na-Zr-REE-bearing metasomatic–hydrothermal fluids have also altered these rocks, where zircon and amphiboles appear to overprint the primary fabric and calcite replaces monazite-(Ce) after apatite. One of the cumulate-textured apatite-amphibole phoscorite units (CDD1-22) also is hydrothermally mineralised, with minor fluorite replacing carbonate, and this is reflected in the relatively high Y, HREE and F content of this rock. Therefore, apart from one very low volume paraisite-(Ce)-bearing dolomite carbonatite dyke (1), the primary magmatic carbonatites do not appear to have been greatly enriched in REEs by magmatic fractionation processes. Hydrothermal processes probably were of greater importance in enriching the high-REE dolomite carbonatite dyke (2) in LREEs (see below).

The HFSE chemistry of the Cummins Range carbonatites shows similarities to carbonatites from the Kola Alkaline Province in Russia (e.g. Zr/Hf and Zr/Nb ratios), but is notably different from post-orogenic carbonatites such as Eden Lake, Canada where the Zr/Nb ratio (24.5; Chakhmouradian et al. 2008) is much higher than the worldwide carbonatite average of 0.8 (Chakhmouradian 2006). In contrast to the low Zr and Hf content

of the Cummins Range carbonatites, the associated clinopyroxenite is extremely enriched in these elements (Fig. 3). Therefore, if the primary high-Sr calcite carbonatite was derived from a carbonated silicate parental magma, then the very low Nb, Ta, Zr and Hf content of the carbonatites could be a function of the fractionation of phases such as zirconolite. The relationship between the clinopyroxenite and the carbonatites will be explored in more detail in subsequent work.

Stable C and O isotope data for the high-Sr dolomite carbonatites and one high-REE dolomite carbonatite dyke exhibits a significant shift (2; Fig. 10) from the primary carbonatite field that could be indicative of either Rayleigh fractionation, an internal fluid/magma/mineral evolution with the crystallization and cooling of a CO₂-H₂O-bearing magma (see Deines 1989; Demény et al. 2004; Ray and Ramesh 1999, 2000, 2006), the direct assimilation of sedimentary carbonate (e.g. Santos and Clayton 1995), or addition of external carbon by infiltrating fluids (Demény et al. 1998). Rayleigh fractionation appears to be a more likely process in producing shift (2) than the assimilation of sedimentary carbonate given the geological setting of the CRCC, which has intruded the metamorphosed siliciclastic sediments of the Archean Olympio Formation and gneisses of the Paleoproterozoic Lamboo Complex (Andrew 1990). The dolomite carbonatite sample (CR7) that defines the furthest extent of this trend (2) in the CRCC data ($\delta^{18}\text{O} = 12.6\text{‰}$, $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -2.2\text{‰}$) is composed of turbid, microporous dolomite and contains minor quartz veining and weak REE mineralization associated with vugs. This suggests that the sample has been hydrothermally altered, and possibly it experienced a positive shift in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ from its primary isotopic composition similar to other hydrothermally altered samples. The high-Sr dolomite carbonatites that fall along this trend (2) have relatively fractionated

LREE/HREE patterns ($\text{La/Yb}_{\text{CN}} \sim 96.5\text{--}352$), along with depletions in the HREEs and Y in comparison to the high-Sr calcite carbonatites and low-Sr dolomite carbonatites (Fig. 9). This includes the dolomite carbonatite dyke (CDD1-37B; $\delta^{18}\text{O} = 9.1\text{‰}$, $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -2.9\text{‰}$) associated with the high-REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock in CDD1.

In the high-REE dolomite carbonatite (CDD2-25), the pink calcite that replaces primary apatite and associated monazite-(Ce) has higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ than groundmass dolomite. This indicates a shift in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at relatively constant $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ that may have been produced by postmagmatic isotope exchange with a water-rich carbonatitic fluid (cf. Zaitsev et al. 2002) and there is evidence for the exsolution of an aqueous fluid phase indicated by the REE geochemistry of this dyke (low Y/Ho ratio and Eu anomaly; cf. Buhn et al. 2001; Buhn 2008). The second high-REE dolomite carbonatite (CDD2-26) has a more extreme $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value that suggests hydrothermal alteration similar to shift (3). Both of these dolomite carbonatite dykes exhibit a positive shift in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (-3 to -3.3‰) in comparison to the group of high-Sr calcite carbonatites with $\delta^{13}\text{C} \sim -4\text{‰}$. This shift may have been produced by Rayleigh fractionation processes as outlined above (shift 2), or by the addition of external carbon in the form of dissolved HCO_3^- or CO_3^{2-} in the infiltrating fluid (Demény et al. 1998; Demény et al. 2004).

Stable hydrogen isotope compositions of water trapped in inclusions can provide constraints on the origin of fluids as the δD values can significantly differ between primary magmatic water and crustal solutions (Sheppard 1986). The present δD dataset ranges from -54 to -34‰ (Fig. 11, Table 6), which is similar to the upper limit of the δD range obtained for the Speewah complex ~ 330 km NNE of the CRCC (Fig. 1; Czuppon et al. 2014). Within this δD range no systematic change was found with the H_2O content (i.e., the

amount of inclusion-hosted water; Fig. 11a) of the carbonate samples, thus the degassing and/or mixing processes assumed for the Speewah complex did not affect the Cummins Range rocks. Both the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data vary independently from the δD values (Fig. 11b, c) suggesting that the evolution of the carbonatite system was not related to mixing of fluids of different origins.

Hydrothermal processes and REE mineralization

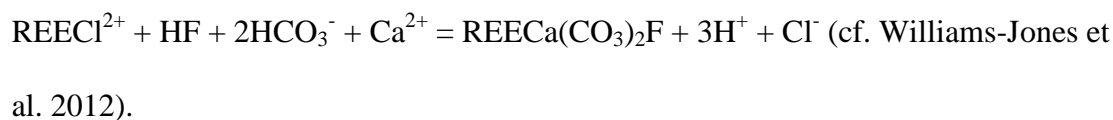
The highest grade REE mineralization discovered so far beneath the oxidised zone within the CRCC is the unusual apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock intersected in drill hole CDD1 over the interval 261.85–275.2 m (Figs 6, 7). The limited intersection of this REE-rich zone and the broken nature of the drill core does not allow for a comprehensive interpretation of its origin. In the CRCC, those intervals that show the complex intergrowth of fine, elongated monazite-(Ce) crystals in apatite are cut by veins of talc-amphibole that appears to preferentially replace apatite (Fig. 7). Associated foliated rocks in which monazite-(Ce) crystals occur in a talc-amphibole matrix may have developed from more apatite-rich rocks in which the apatite has been replaced by talc during metasomatism/hydrothermal alteration (Fig. 7). Several lines of evidence suggest a hydrothermal origin for the high-REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock. Firstly, the texture of the apatite vein adjacent to the apatite-monazite-(Ce) zone illustrated in Fig. 6 indicates hydrothermal growth. In addition, the composition of apatite from the apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock is quite distinct from that of magmatic apatite in associated carbonatites in terms of Sr and REE content (Fig. 8). High-Sr

hydrothermal apatite with some textural and compositional similarities to this occurs in hydrothermal phosphate vein-type ores from the southern Central Iberian Zone, Spain (Vindel et al. 2014). De Toledo et al. (2004) also described high-Sr hydrothermal apatites from the Catalao I alkaline-carbonatite complex in Brazil. Positive Eu anomalies in the REE-enriched cores of some zoned apatite crystals in the high-REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock suggest crystallization from a Eu-enriched fluid under reducing conditions (cf. Vindel et al. 2014). The very large enrichment in the LREEs evident in the chondrite-normalised REE pattern of the apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock also is consistent with hydrothermal mineralization (Fig. 9a; cf. Ngwenya 1994; Ruberti et al. 2008). The apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock exhibits shifts to higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in comparison to an associated dolomite carbonatite dyke (Fig. 10). Texturally, the dolomite in this apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock appears to be associated with talc-amphibole-pyrrhotite veining that crosscuts the apatite-monazite-(Ce) fabric and this shift in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ probably is related to hydrothermal alteration. A factor controlling the occurrence of this high-grade apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock appears to have been the initial presence of an apatite-rich lithology within the shear zone that was subject to subsequent hydrothermal mineralization, where monazite-(Ce) precipitated from REE-rich fluids, and partially replaced and overprinted apatite. The shear zone was the conduit for hydrothermal fluid flow probably contemporaneously with carbonatite emplacement. The timing of this monazite-(Ce) mineralization is presently the subject of further geochronological studies.

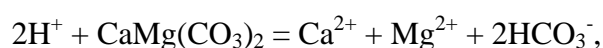
Hydrothermal alteration at decreasing temperature probably produced the significant shift from the primary carbonatite field seen particularly in the low-Sr, weakly mineralised, dolomite carbonatites (Fig. 10). The widespread hydrothermal dolomitization of

carbonatites within the CRCC and the occurrence of associated talc-rich zones within shear zones suggests some similarities to a number of hydrothermal talc deposits, e.g. Ruby Mountains, Montana, USA (Anderson et al. 1990; Brady et al. 1998); Puebla de Lillo, Cantabrian zone, Variscan belt of Iberia, Northern Spain (Tornos and Spiro 2000); and Göpfersgrün, Fichtelgebirge, Germany (Hecht et al. 1999). The talc may have precipitated from Mg and Si-rich hydrothermal fluids at temperatures of approximately 250–400°C (cf. Hecht et al. 1999). An indication of retrograde hydration is the widespread replacement of diopside by actinolite (uralitization) in the clinopyroxenite. The source of Mg for the formation of talc and dolomite is uncertain but may be the associated clinopyroxenite.

It appears that the most important episode of REE mineralization in the Cummins Range carbonatites probably was associated with the late magmatic–hydrothermal phase of carbonatite emplacement, where REEs were mobilised from primary magmatic carbonates (Sr-bearing calcite) and apatite to produce monazite-(Ce) and the REE-fluorocarbonates, parisite-(Ce) and synchysite-(Ce) (cf. Wall and Mariano 1996; Wall and Zaitsev 2004; Chakhmouradian and Zaitsev 2012). A recent review of the transport and deposition of REEs by hydrothermal fluids (Williams-Jones et al. 2012) suggested that a high chloride activity was an important feature of the fluids involved. Chloride species are thought to transport the REEs in most hydrothermal systems (Williams-Jones et al. 2012). At Cummins Range, a possible mechanism for the deposition of the parisite-(Ce) and synchysite-(Ce) could have been:



The development of vugs in the low-Sr dolomite carbonatite indicates that some dolomite (or calcite) was dissolved probably through reaction with hydrothermal fluids. The following reaction involving the dolomite carbonatite may have increased the HCO_3^- activity and raised the pH of the fluids:



resulting in the precipitation of parisite-(Ce) and synchysite-(Ce) in solution cavities (cf. Williams-Jones et al. 2012). Reaction with host carbonatite wall rocks appears to have been a valid mechanism for the precipitation of REE-fluorocarbonates. Monazite-(Ce) most commonly occurs rimming or replacing primary apatite, whereas the REE-fluorocarbonates are generally restricted to a carbonate host. The replacement of apatite by monazite-(Ce) is a common relationship in hydrothermal settings (see Wall and Mariano 1996; Smith et al. 1999), and apatite dissolution and monazite-(Ce) precipitation may have proceeded as follows:



Relationship between carbonatites and associated clinopyroxenite and phoscorite

The H-C-O stable isotope data provide some insight into the relationship between the carbonatites and associated clinopyroxenite and phoscorite in the CRCC. Cummins Range exhibits similarities in stable isotope patterns to some of the carbonatite-phoscorite complexes from the Kola Alkaline Province (Demény et al. 2004). Two samples of

clinopyroxenite and one of an amphibole-apatite phosphorite have $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of $\sim -4\text{‰}$ similar to associated high-Sr calcite carbonatite (Fig. 10). The slight positive shift in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ for these samples is consistent with carbonate-silicate isotope exchange at decreasing temperatures (cf. Deines 1989; Demény et al. 2004). One clinopyroxenite sample (CDD2-24) shows a more extreme shift in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ that suggests that it might have been affected by hydrothermal alteration. Of particular interest are the two clinopyroxenite samples (CDD2-11, CDD2-14) that have $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (-5.62 to -5.38‰) more within the range of primary mantle carbonate and similar to values for the Mt Weld carbonatite in Western Australia. The shift in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ for these samples, to place them outside the range for primary igneous carbonate, also could be related to carbonate-silicate isotope exchange at decreasing temperatures (cf. Deines 1989; Demény et al. 2004). These samples do not show the shift in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ that distinguishes the high-Sr calcite carbonatites and some clinopyroxenite and phosphorite samples (shift 1). This could mean that they are derived from a separate mantle source that has been unaffected by source contamination.

The relatively high δD values from the Cummins Range carbonatites indicate that the fluid associated with carbonate formation contained a significant amount of crustal component in accordance with the elevated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values. The normal magmatic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values (between 6 and 10 ‰) of some of the carbonates at higher-than-mantle C isotopic compositions, however, suggest that the O isotope compositions in these samples were buffered by a magmatic silicate reservoir at high temperature. These observations collectively indicate that the carbonated silicate magma interacted with crustal fluids at depth, and this interaction shifted the H and C isotope compositions due to the relatively high proportion of H and C in the fluid relative to the magma. In contrast to H and C, the O

isotope compositions were buffered by the silicate magma from which the carbonate melt and associated fluids were separated.

Nature and evolution of mantle source regions

From initial work on a limited range of samples, the Cummins Range carbonatite has quite primitive Sr-Nd isotope compositions suggesting that it is derived from an OIB-type source within the depleted convecting mantle ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} = 0.7028\text{--}0.7032$; $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}} = 1.6\text{--}2.4$; Sun et al. 1986). This source is quite distinct from the radiogenic, enriched mantle sources of the Mesoproterozoic Argyle lamproite (Jaques et al. 1989b) and the Miocene lamproites of the West Kimberley province (McCulloch et al. 1983; Fraser et al. 1985). The high starting $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of around -4‰ for the source of the Cummins Range carbonatites therefore could mean metasomatism of the mantle source region by CO_2 released by a subducted slab (Ray and Ramesh 1999; Zaitsev et al. 2002), or perhaps the removal of a ^{13}C -depleted component within the mantle via isotope fractionation processes (Deines 2002).

Several authors have proposed that a period of NW-dipping subduction beneath the Kimberley Craton occurred during the Paleoproterozoic, before the eventual collision and amalgamation of the craton with the remainder of the North Australian Craton at approximately 1820 Ma (Myers et al. 1996; Tyler et al. 1999; Griffin et al. 2000). This was the last period during which subduction-related processes would have influenced the mantle beneath the East Kimberley. The ~ 1800 Ma Hart Dolerite, a widespread series of tholeiitic

basaltic and related granophyre intrusions centered in the SE of the Kimberley Craton (Fig. 1), is inferred to have been sourced from subduction-modified mantle beneath the Kimberley Craton, and was closely related to plate reorganization in late Paleoproterozoic Australia (Sheppard et al. 2013). Other evidence of plate-margin processes are provided by C isotopic and mineral inclusion studies of eclogitic diamonds from the Argyle lamproite that suggest that they probably formed in subducted oceanic crust that was accreted to the base of the lithosphere in the Proterozoic (Jaques et al. 1989a). Schulze et al. (2013) interpreted an association of light $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in Argyle eclogitic diamonds with high $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of their garnet and coesite silicate inclusions to indicate a subduction origin. A recent study of the noble gas and C isotopic composition of eclogitic diamonds from Argyle suggests that mixing had occurred between a subducted atmospheric and crustal component and mantle noble gases in their formation (Honda et al. 2012).

Further Sr-Nd isotopic analysis is required to examine the observed variation in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in some clinopyroxenite samples from the CRCC and confirm that they are derived from a separate mantle source unaffected by subduction-related CO_2 metasomatism or the removal of a ^{13}C -depleted component within the mantle.

There are several processes that could explain the high δD values of the Cummins Range carbonatites. Degassing of H_2 from the mantle source would leave the residual fluid enriched in deuterium, so the source may acquire a high δD signature (e.g. see Demény et al. 2012). However, this process would not produce high $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. Alternatively, interaction with crustal fluids at crustal levels may have taken place, where the emplacement of a carbonated silicate magma may have induced a convective flow in the fluids surrounding the complex. If these fluids had a high- δD signature and the magma interacted with these

fluids, the magma, and later the segregated carbonate melt would have a high- δD fluid component too. Mixing of magmatic fluids and waters circulating in the surrounding country rocks may well have produced a fluid with δD around -40 ‰ as observed. This is possible, as we see appropriate fluid compositions regionally, for example at Speewah (Czuppon et al. 2014), but in this case the C and O isotope compositions should show at least a slight change with δD . No such correlation is evident in Fig. 11. The preservation of primitive Sr and Nd isotope compositions in the Cummins Range carbonatite would also argue against significant exchange with crustal fluids in this way. Finally, the subduction and devolatilization of oceanic crust may have provided D-enriched fluids that could, for example, have metasomatised the mantle wedge (e.g. Giggenbach 1992). The release of CO_2 and H_2O from a subducting slab would produce high δD and $\delta^{13}C$ in the metasomatised mantle, but the O isotope composition would be buffered by the silicate mass. CO_2 - H_2O fluids without melt may not contain significant amounts of Sr and Nd, so the magma's Sr-Nd isotope compositions would remain intact. Therefore it appears that the δD signature of the Cummins Range carbonatites could be a further indication subduction-related metasomatism of the mantle source.

Summary

The CRCC was emplaced at the junction of the Paleoproterozoic Halls Creek and King Leopold paleo-orogenic belts at the margin of the Kimberley Craton probably during a phase of Neoproterozoic extension. Trace-element geochemistry suggests that the carbonatites have affinities to rift-related carbonatites (cf. Chakhmouradian 2009) and

generally are not greatly enriched in the REEs (Fig. 9a). The Cummins Range carbonatites follow an intrusive sequence where early calcite carbonatite, possibly derived from a carbonated silicate parental magma by fractional crystallization, has been intruded by late-stage dolomite carbonatites with higher REE content (Fig. 12; cf. Wall and Mariano 1996). The shift in C-O stable isotope data from the primary carbonatite field for the high-Sr dolomite carbonatites and a high-REE dolomite carbonatite is consistent with a process of Rayleigh fractionation with magma crystallization and cooling. These dolomite carbonatites may have been derived from the calcite carbonatites through the fractionation of phases such as dolomite and apatite. Hydrothermal and metasomatic processes, probably involving fluids exsolved from the carbonatites, produced widespread dolomitization of the carbonatites and high-grade REE mineralization in a late-stage dolomite carbonatite dyke and in shear zone-hosted apatite-monazite-(Ce) rocks. The relatively high δD values (-54 to -34 ‰) of H_2O derived from carbonatites from the CRCC indicate that the fluids associated with carbonate formation contained a significant amount of crustal component in accordance with the elevated $\delta^{13}C$ values (~ -4 ‰). The high δD and $\delta^{13}C$ signature of the carbonatites may have been produced by CO_2 - H_2O metasomatism of the mantle source during Paleoproterozoic subduction beneath the eastern margin of the Kimberley Craton.

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1011

1012 **Appendix 1: Supplementary data**

1013

1014 Exploration whole-rock geochemistry

1015

1016 The graphic drill logs of drill holes CDD1 (Fig. 3) and CDD2 (red circles indicate the
1017 positions of late-stage, high-REE dolomite carbonatite dykes) were constructed using
1018 historical exploration whole-rock geochemical analyses undertaken in 1984 by Pilbara
1019 Laboratories in Perth, on behalf of CRA Exploration (Richards, 1985). These partial
1020 analyses were carried out by inductively-coupled plasma emission spectroscopy (ICP). Full
1021 details of the analytical procedures are described by Richards (1985). This report is
1022 available for download from the Western Australian Department of Mines and Petroleum
1023 website (<http://www.dmp.wa.gov.au/launch/wamex/>). The full dataset for drill holes CDD1
1024 and CDD2 is presented here. A plan illustrating a possible structural control on the
1025 orientation of the oxidised zone REE orebody in the CRCC is included (courtesy of
1026 Kimberley Rare Earths).

1027

1028 **Figure Captions**

Fig. 1 Geological map showing the location of the Cummins Range Carbonatite Complex, Kimberley region, Western Australia (1:2500000 Geological Survey of Western Australia 2014, extracted from GeoVIEW.WA on 05/06/2014. Perth, Western Australia: Department of Mines and Petroleum.)

Fig. 2 Geological map of the Cummins Range Carbonatite Complex (1:5000). Drill holes CDD001, NRC035, NRC058: azimuth 180° (mag.), inclination 60°. CDD002: azimuth 270° (mag.), inclination 60°. Geology modified after Richards (1985) and Andrew (1990) and based on company drilling. Only the locations of drill holes sampled for use in this study are shown.

Fig. 3 Graphic log of drill hole CDD1. Red circles indicate the position of high-REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock associated with dolomite carbonatite dykes within a shear zone.

Fig. 4 a Pink high-Sr calcite (cc) carbonatite containing a zircon megacryst (zrc) in an apatite (ap)-amphibole-phlogopite-pyroxhlore lamina, associated with magnetite (mt) and dolomite (dol) (CDD1 323.9 m). **b** Calcite carbonatite containing large crystals of magnetite, as well as amphibole (amp) and apatite (CDD2-4, 88.7 m). **c** High-Sr calcite carbonatite containing apatite, phlogopite (phl) and magnetite overprinted by metasomatic amphibole crystals (CDD2-21, 399.95 m). **d** Strongly foliated dolomite carbonatite containing a composite zircon-dolomite porphyroblast (py – pyrite; CR5, CDD1 204.35 m).

1050

1051 **Fig. 5 a** Grey, late stage, high-REE dolomite carbonatite (par – parisite-(Ce), dol –
 1052 dolomite, py – pyrite; CDD2-26, 225.2 m). **b** Intergrown crystals of parisite-(Ce) and
 1053 aeschynite-(Ce) (aesc) in dolomite carbonatite (note parisite-(Ce) overgrowths on primary
 1054 crystal of parisite-(Ce); CDD2-26). **c** Grey, late stage, high-REE dolomite carbonatite dyke
 1055 intruding white high-Sr calcite carbonatite (CDD2-25, 397.35 m). Contains patches of pink
 1056 calcite-monazite-(Ce) (cc-mz) replacing apatite (ap, phl – phlogopite, amp – amphibole). **d**
 1057 Calcite and monazite-(Ce) (mz) replacing apatite in high-REE dolomite carbonatite
 1058 (CDD2-25; SEM-BSE image). **e** White low-Sr dolomite carbonatite containing vugs
 1059 (CDD2-8, 152 m). **f** Crystals of synchysite-(Ce) (syn) and dolomite lining vug in low-Sr
 1060 dolomite carbonatite (CDD2-18, 328.78 m).

1061

1062 **Fig. 6** Boundary between high REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock (ap-mz) and an adjacent
 1063 comb-textured apatite vein with a dolomite (dol) carbonatite vein at the bottom of the
 1064 image (thin section in transmitted light; CDD1, 270.33 m).

1065

1066 **Fig. 7 a** Texture of complex intergrowths in apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock (CDD1-33, 270.33
 1067 m; ap – apatite, mz – monazite-(Ce)). **b** Crystals of monazite-(Ce) in talc-amphibole (amp)
 1068 matrix (CDD1-29, 265.3 m). **c** BSE image showing texture of complex monazite-(Ce)-
 1069 apatite intergrowths (CDD1-33; pyrr – pyrrhotite). **d** BSE image showing texture of
 1070 foliated monazite-(Ce)-amphibole-talc rock (CDD1-29). **e** Element map of complex
 1071 monazite-(Ce)-apatite intergrowths illustrated in **c**. Red – apatite (P); purple – monazite-

(Ce) (Ce); green – talc, amphibole (Si); light blue – pyrrhotite (S); black – dolomite. **f** BSE image illustrating further complex intergrowths of monazite-(Ce) and apatite (CDD1-33).

Fig. 8 a SrO versus TREO, and **b** Chondrite-normalised REE patterns, for apatite from the high-REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock and carbonatites from the CRCC.

Fig. 9 a Chondrite-normalised REE patterns for the Cummins Range carbonatites. Average magnesiocarbonatite from Chakhmouradian et al. (2009). **b** Primitive mantle-normalised trace element diagram for the Cummins Range carbonatites (normalising data from Palme and O'Neill (2005)).

Fig. 10 Stable carbon and oxygen isotope compositions (in ‰ relative to V-PDB and V-SMOW, respectively) for the Cummins Range carbonatite complex. Data for the Mt Weld carbonatite are from Nelson et al. (1988) and Graham et al. (2004). Boxes indicate the 'primary carbonatite fields' of Taylor et al. (1967; black) and Keller and Hoefs (1995; grey).

Fig. 11 H₂O-contents (in ppm) and stable hydrogen isotope compositions of fluid inclusion-hosted H₂O (in ‰ relative to V-SMOW), as well as bulk carbonate C and O isotope compositions (in ‰ relative to V-PDB and V-SMOW, respectively) for ten carbonate samples from the Cummins Range carbonatites. **a** δ D versus H₂O contents trapped in fluid

1093 inclusions in host carbonates. **b** and **c**: δ D values of inclusion-hosted water versus $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
1094 (**b**) and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (**c**) values of the host carbonates.

1095

1096 **Fig. 12** Schematic diagram illustrating the evolution of the CRCC.

Figure 1
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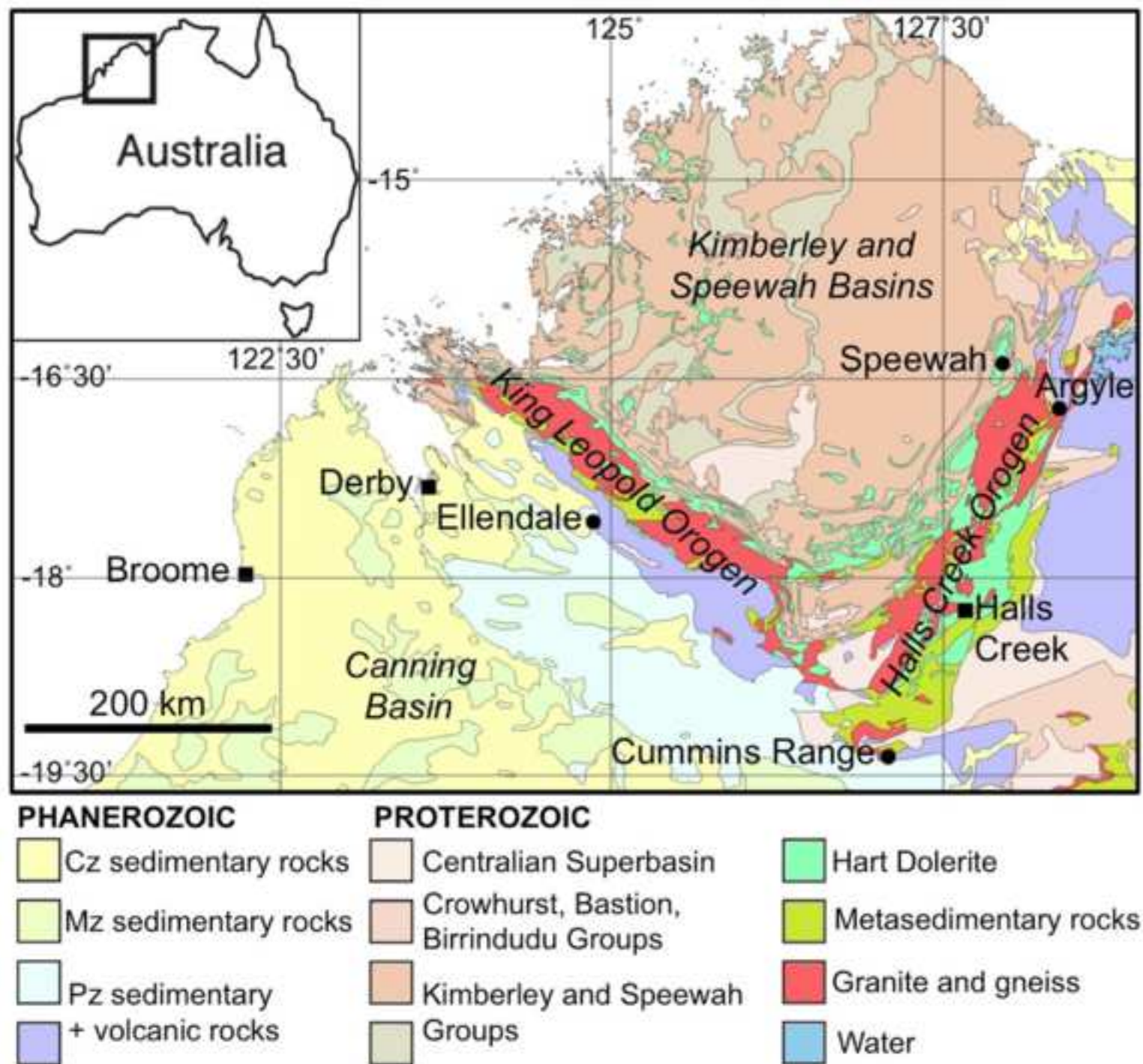


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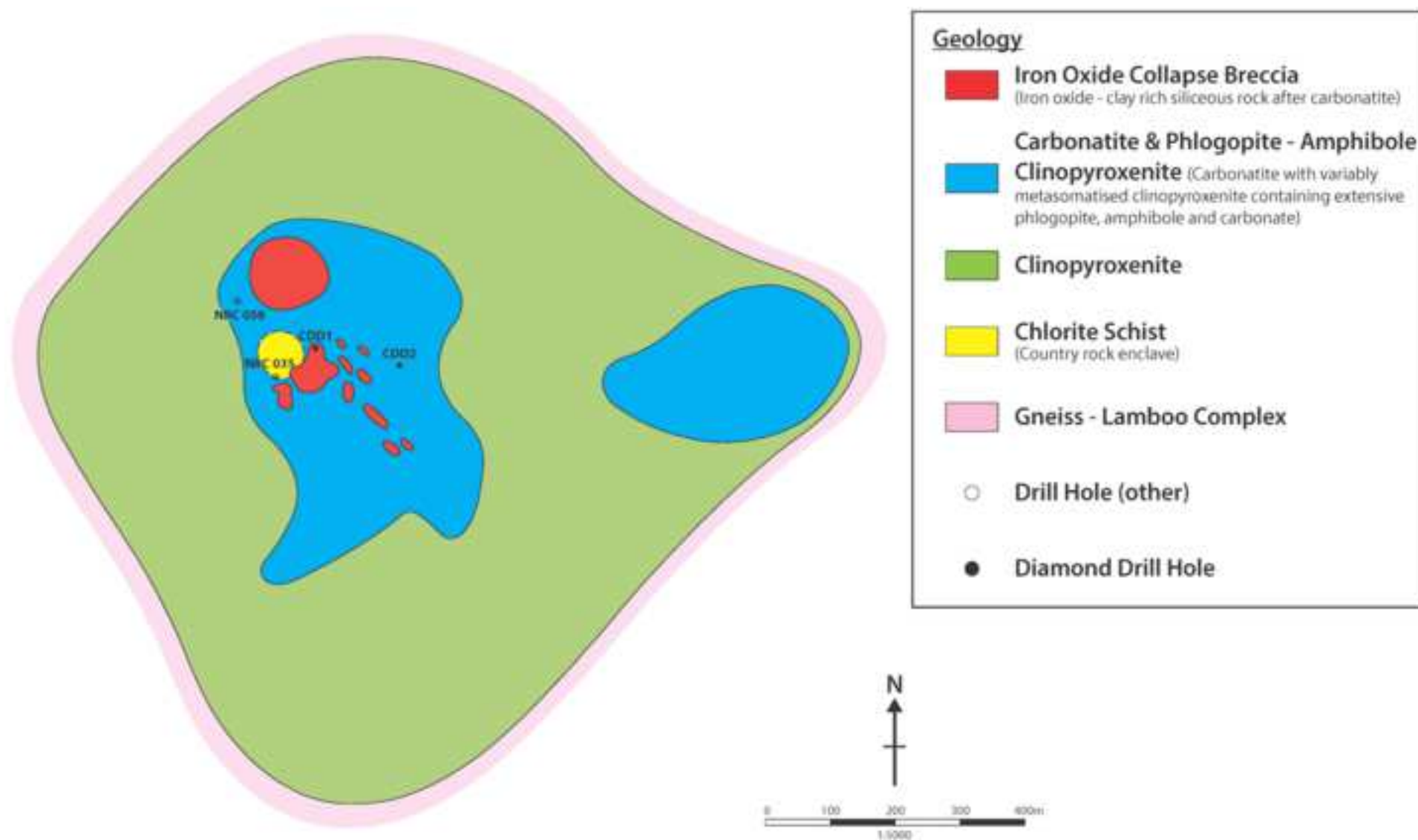


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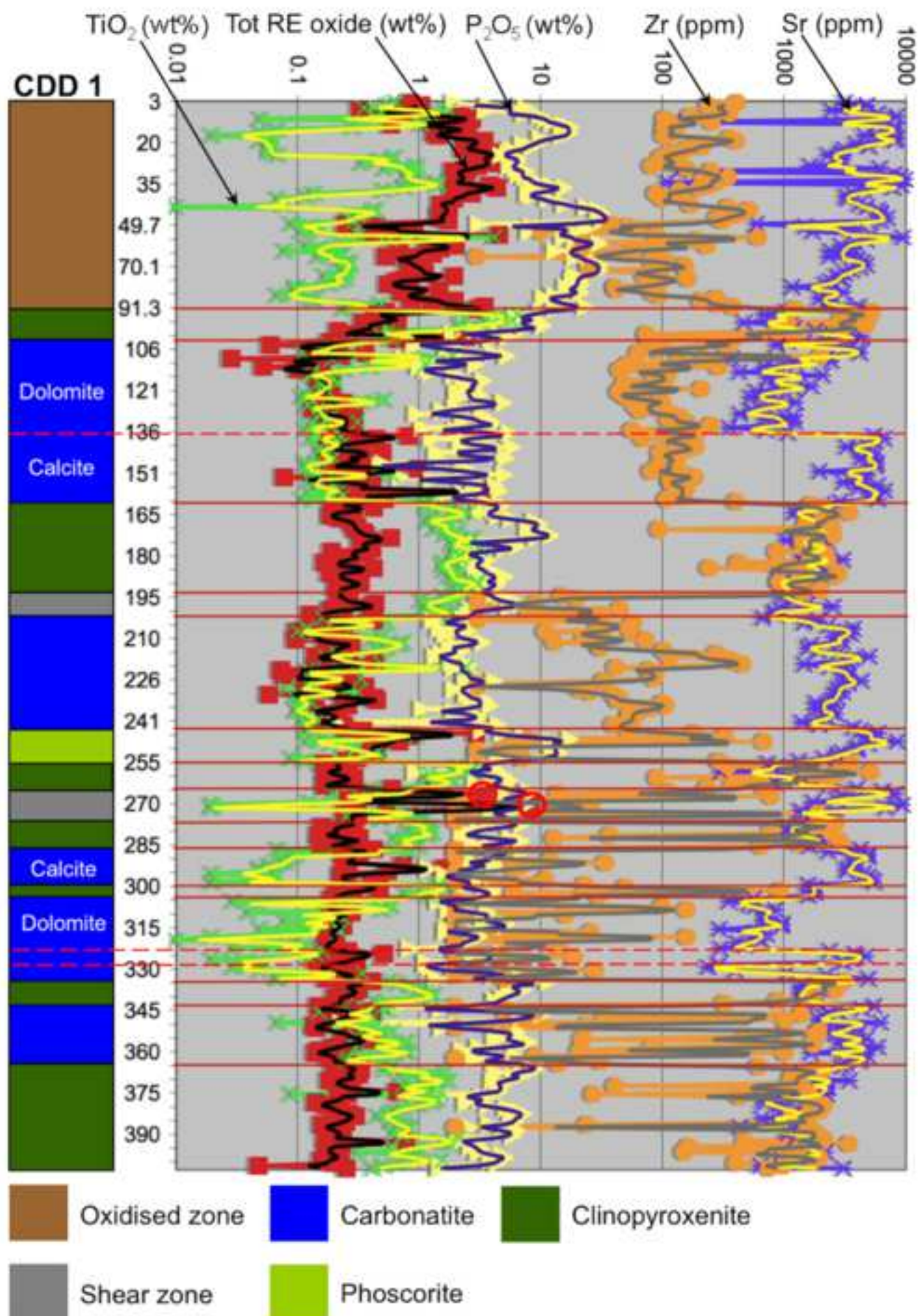


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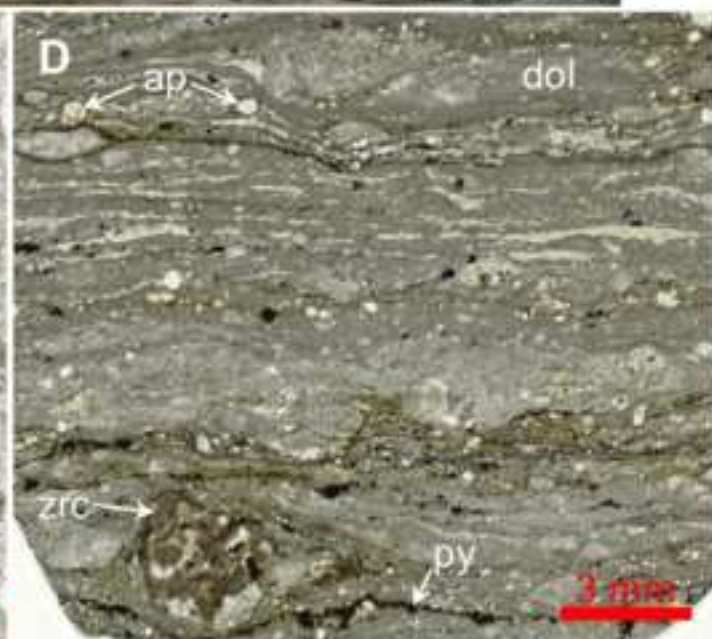
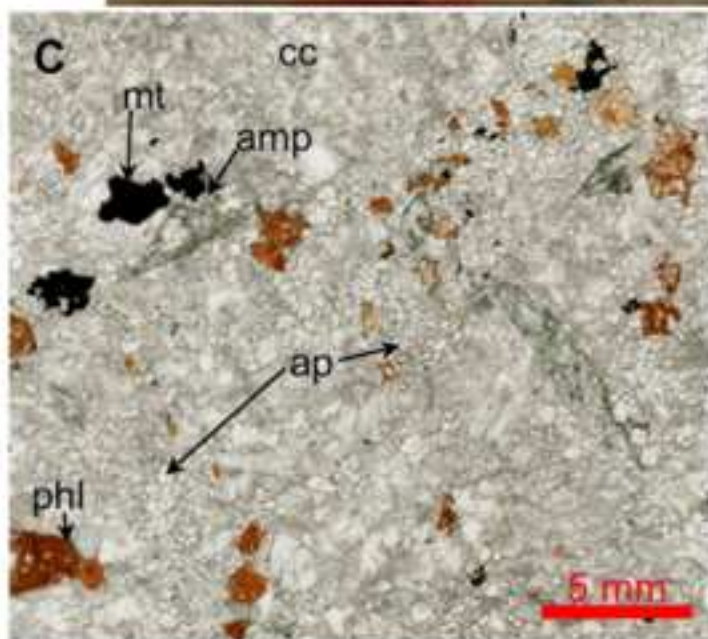
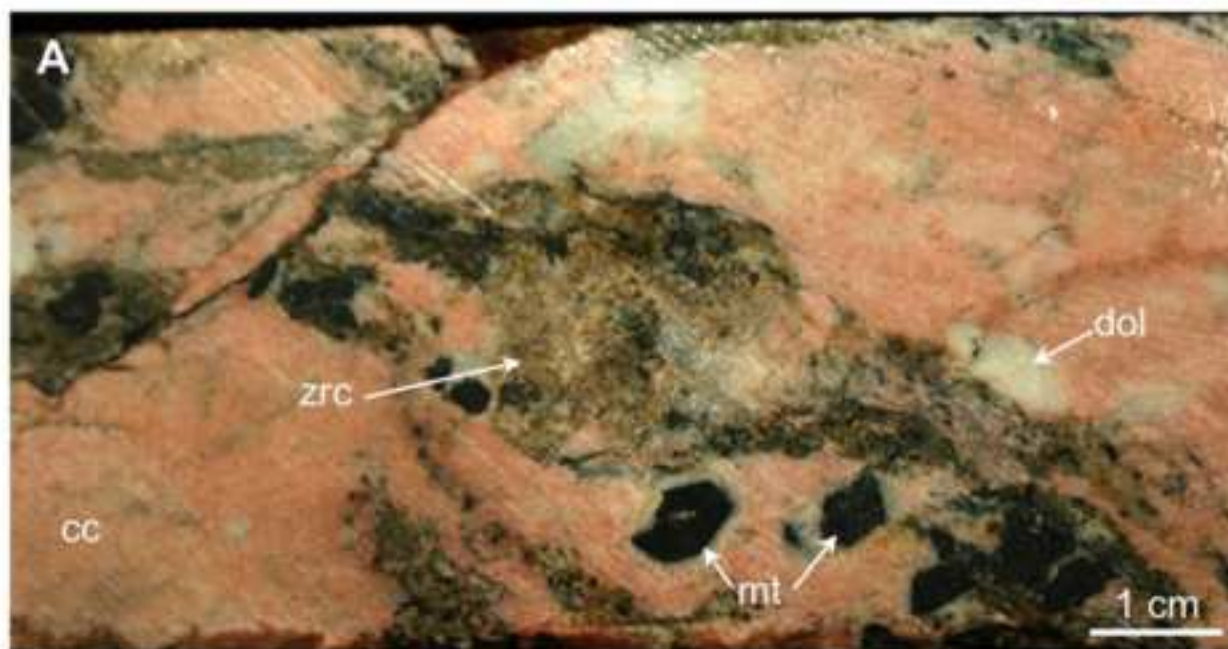


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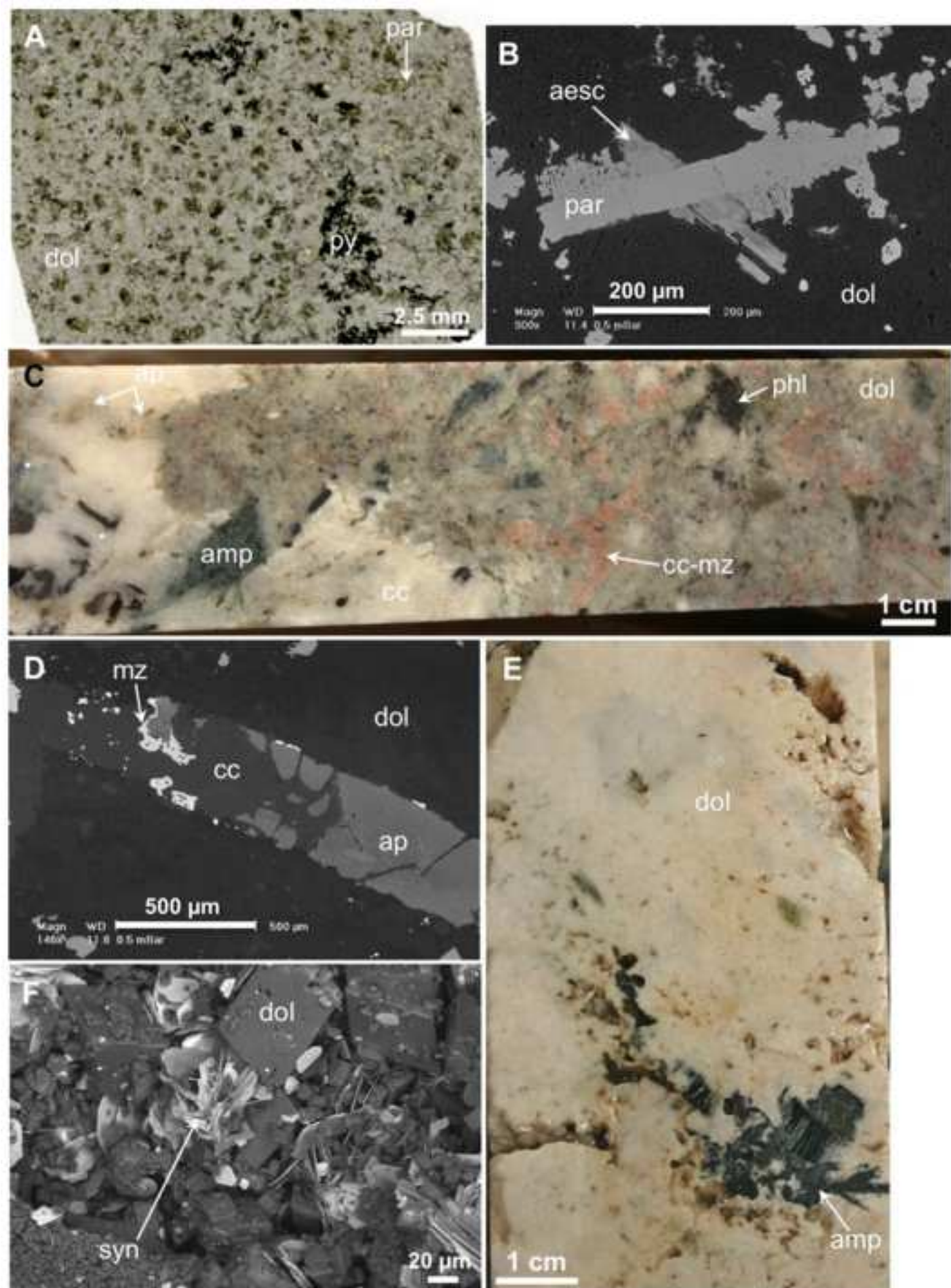


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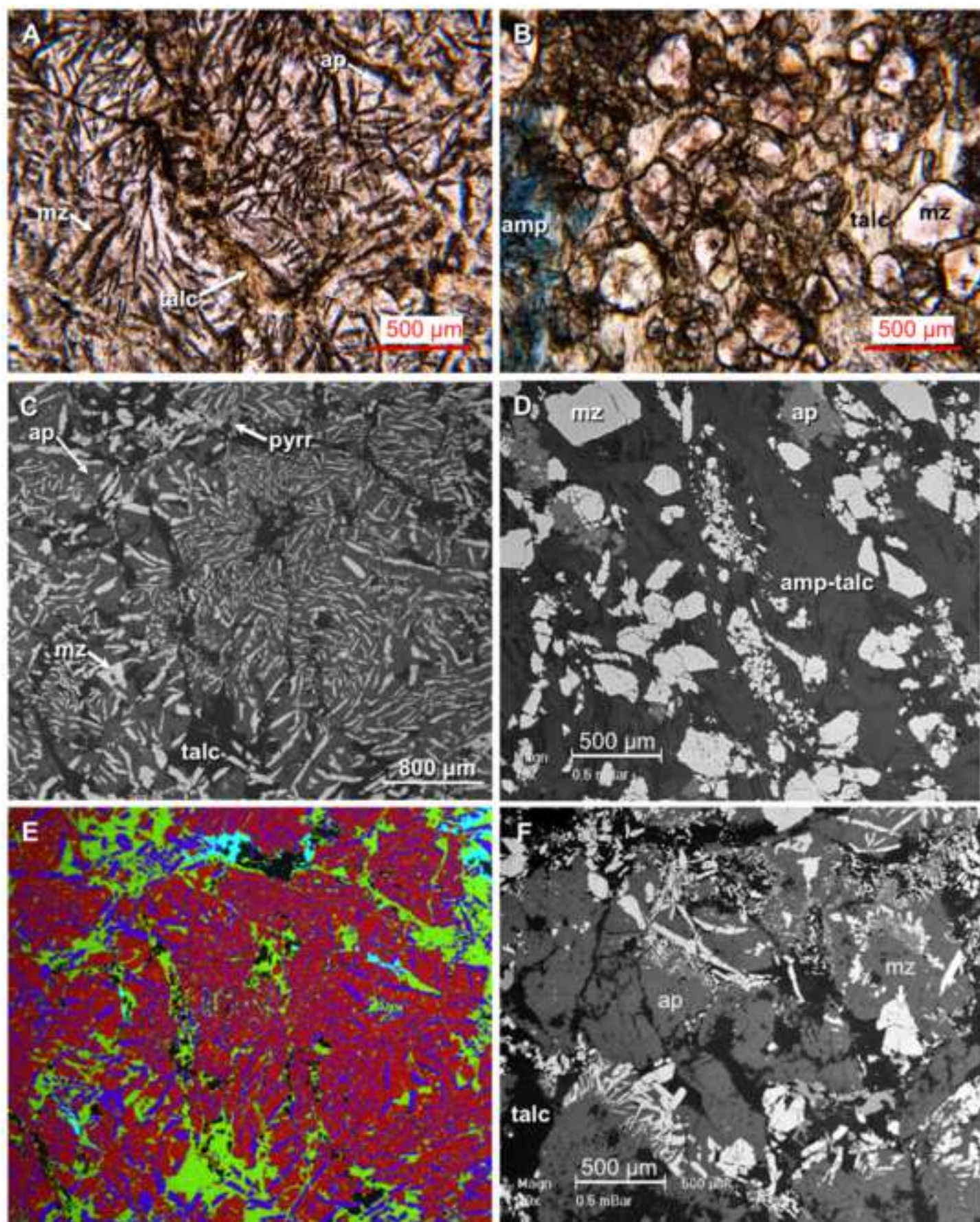


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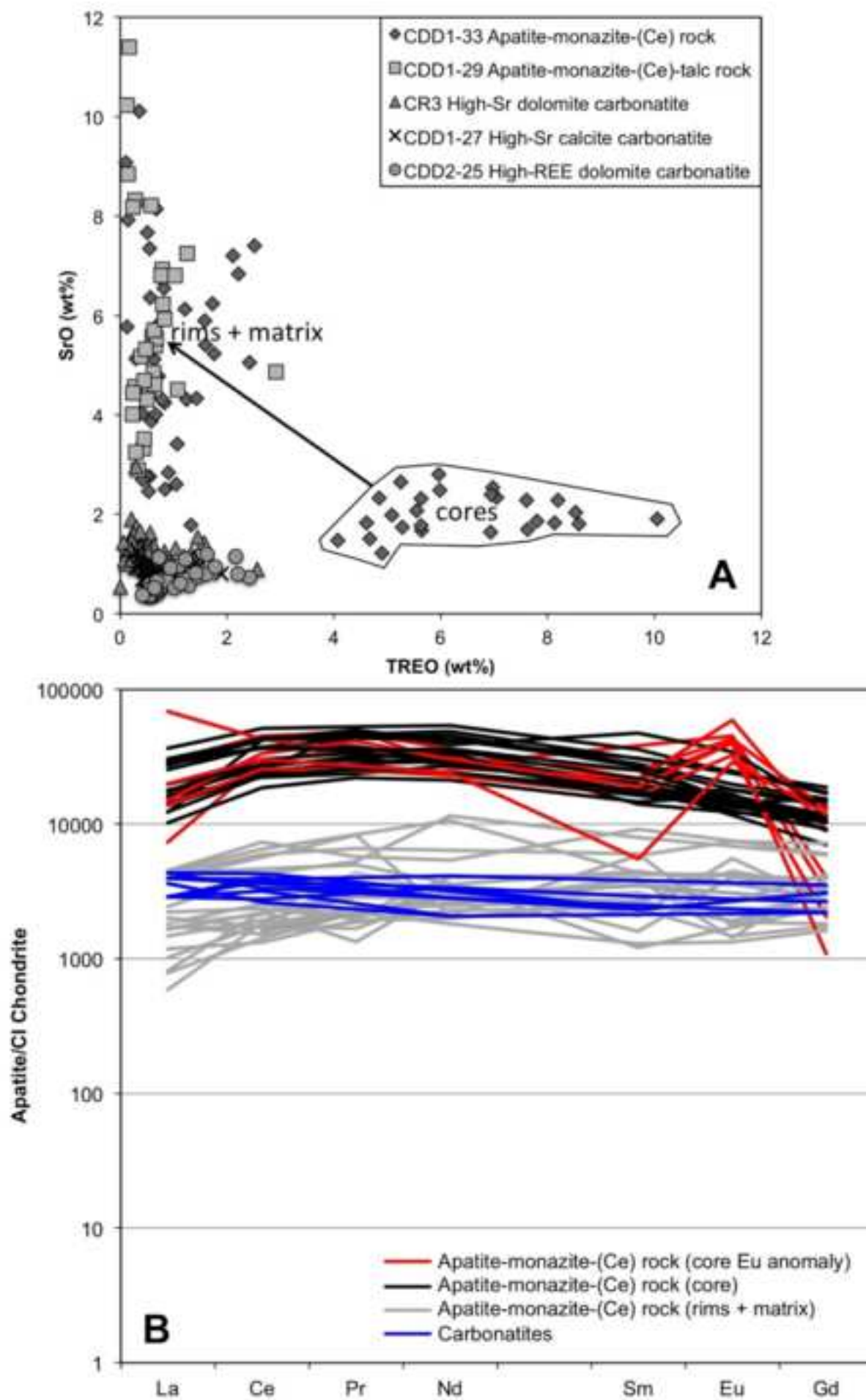


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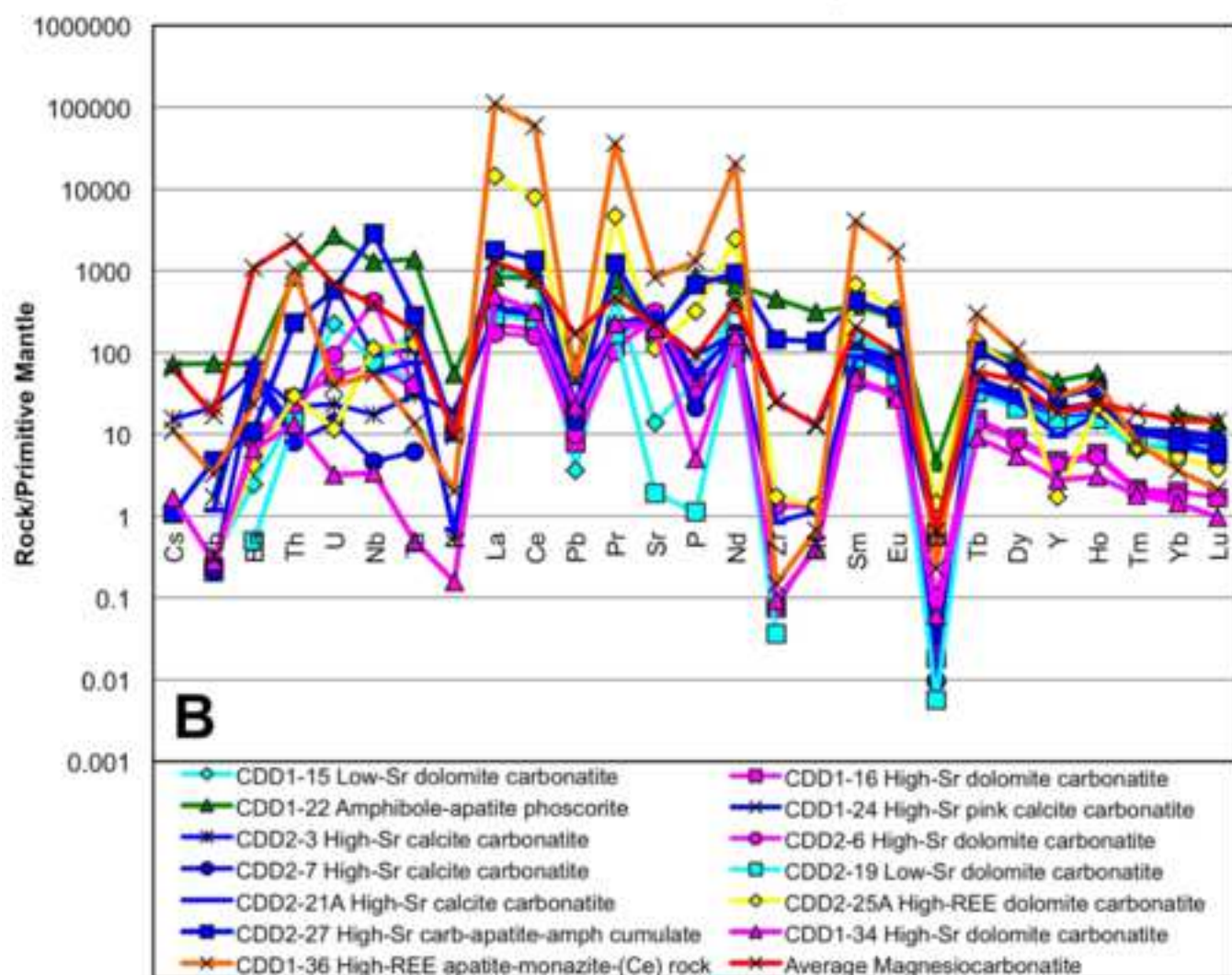
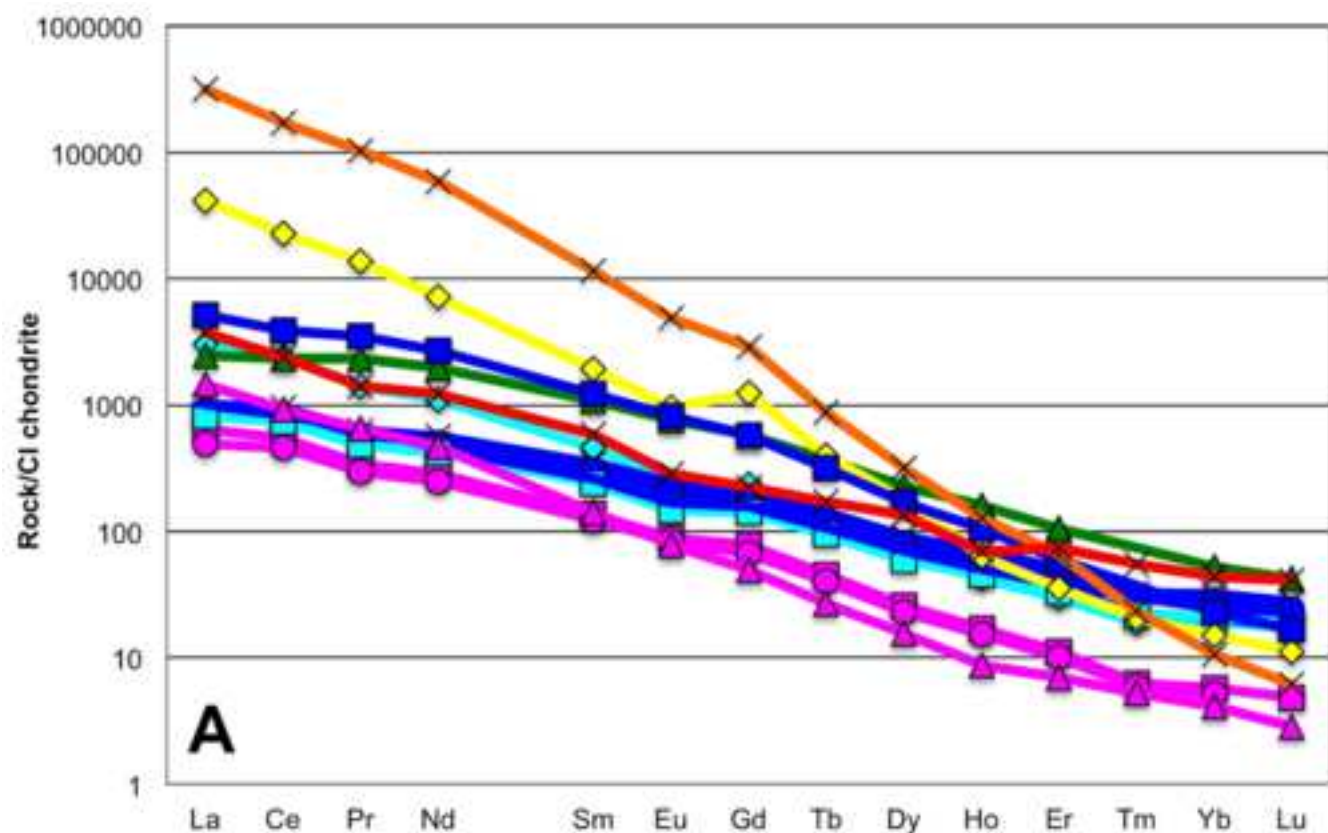


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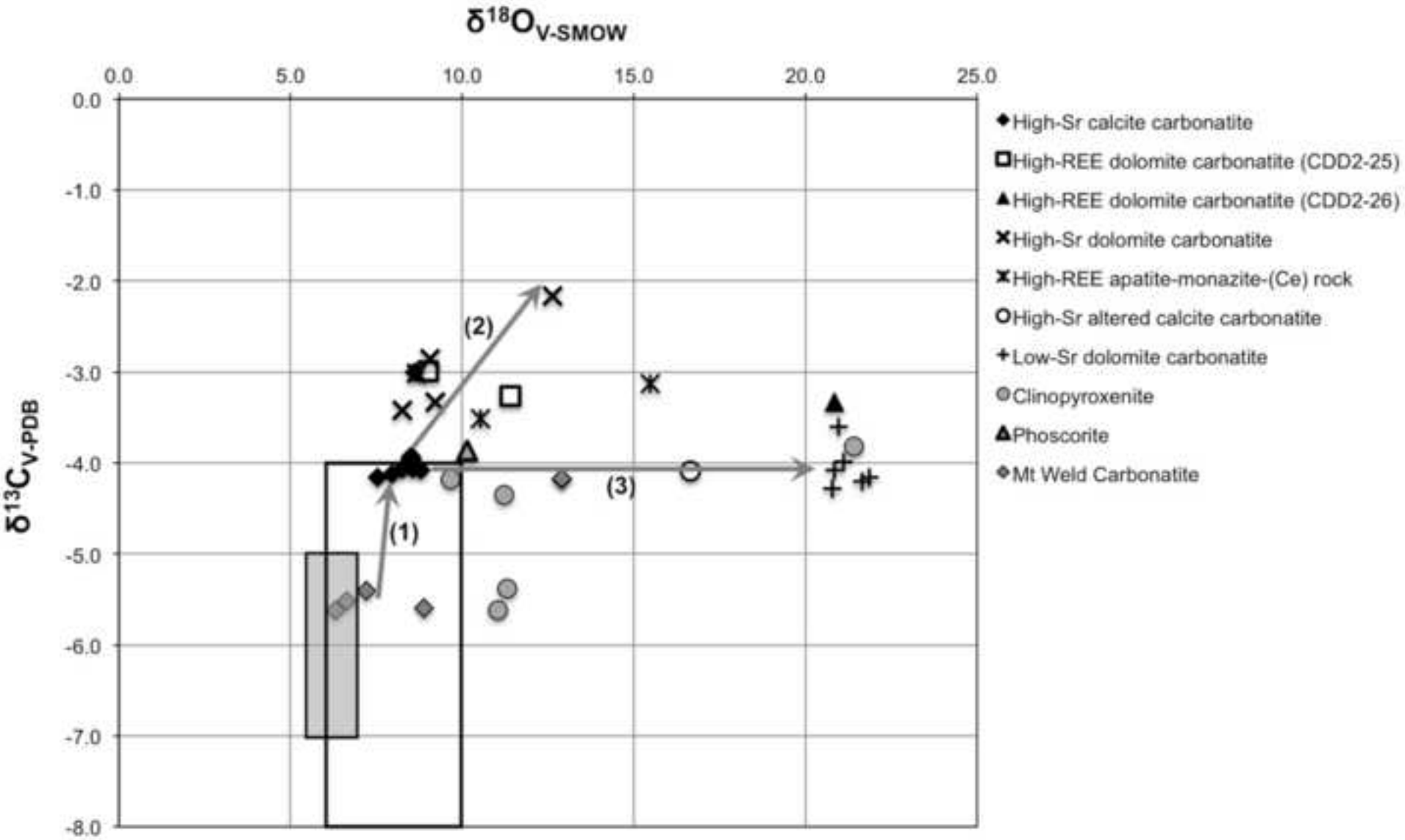


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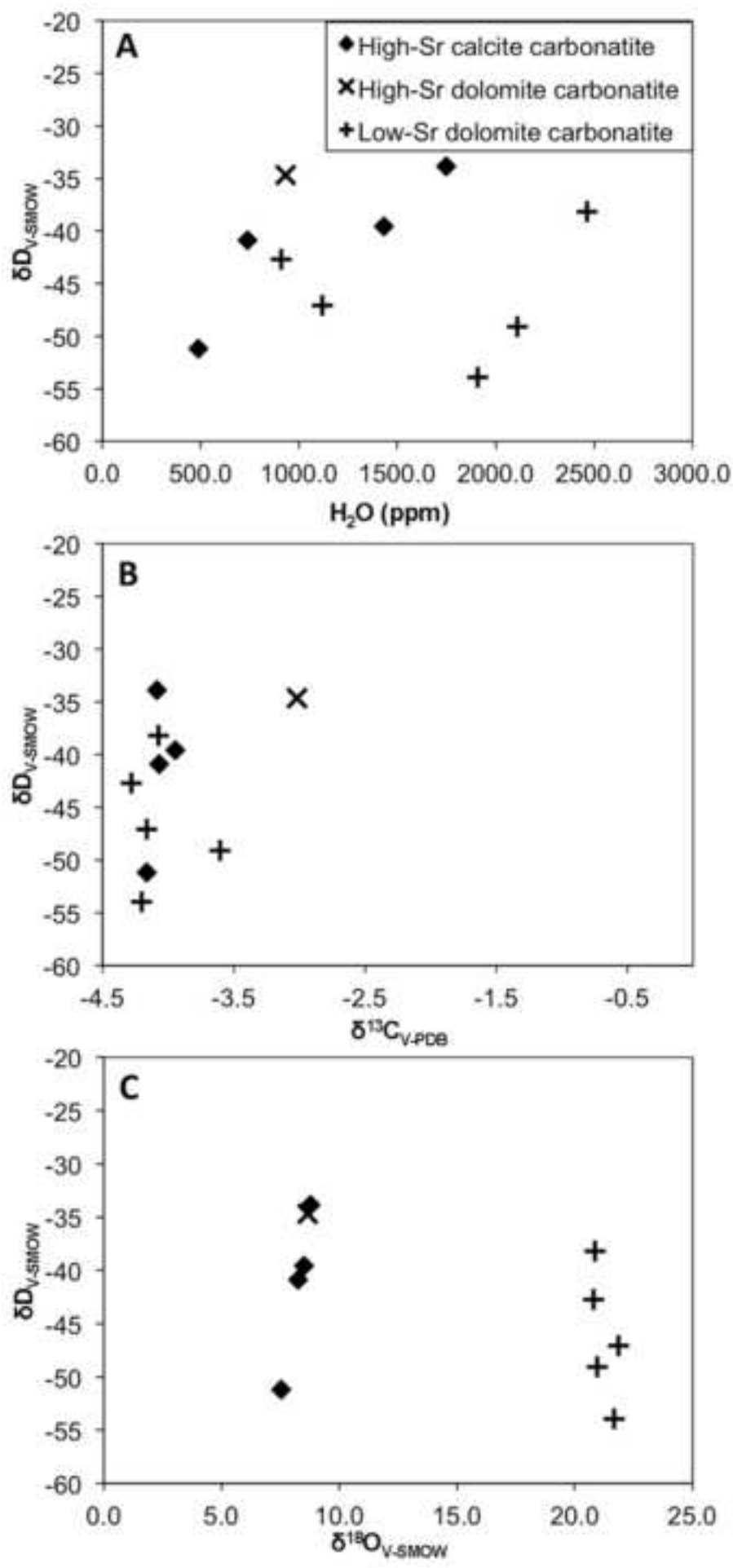


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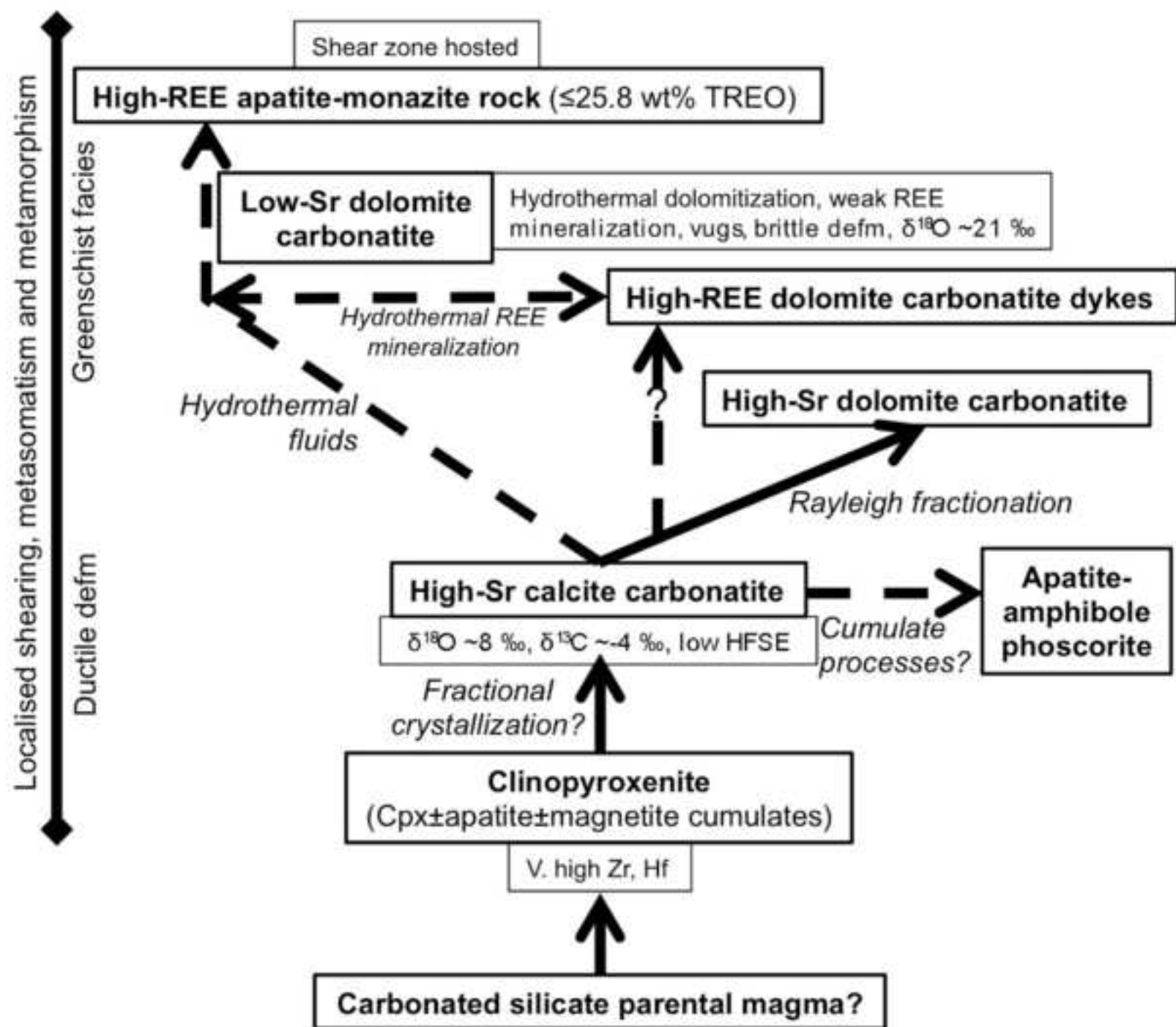


Table 1 Mineralogy of the carbonatites and associated rocks from the Cummins Range Carbonatite Complex.

Rock type	Texture	Mineralogy
Clinopyroxenite	Mesocumulate. Medium-coarse-grained.	Phlogopite, diopside, apatite, magnetite, ilmenite, richterite, calcite, dolomite, actinolite (replacing diopside). Pyrrhotite, pyrite, chalcopryrite, galena, sphalerite. Titanite, zirconolite, calzirtite, perovskite (partially-completely replaced by ilmenite, lucasite?, kassite, titanite), baddeleyite, niobaeschynite-(Ce), monazite-(Ce), allanite-(Ce), zircon, barite.
Phoscorite-series apatite-rich rocks	Cumulate. Medium-coarse-grained, massive to banded and foliated metasomatised rocks.	Apatite, phlogopite, magnetite, richterite-magnesioriebeckite, dolomite, calcite, ilmenite. Pyrite, chalcopryrite, pyrrhotite, sphalerite. Zircon, pyrochlore, niobaeschynite-(Ce), barite, fluorite.
High-Sr calcite carbonatite	White-light grey to pink. Massive to foliated. Bands of cumulate-textured apatite-phlog-amph-magnetite.	Calcite (≤ 5 mm), apatite ($\leq 30\%$; ≤ 1.5 cm), magnetite ($\leq 30\%$; ≤ 3 cm), ilmenite, phlogopite (≤ 1 cm), amphibole ($\leq 5\%$; ≤ 1.3 cm; metasomatic), dolomite (≤ 5 mm). Pyrrhotite, pyrite, chalcopryrite, sphalerite, galena. Zircon, pyrochlore ($\leq 5\%$, generally $\leq 1\%$; ≤ 10 mm), niobaeschynite-(Ce), parisite-(Ce), synchysite-(Ce), barite, chevkinite-(Ce), fergusonite, zirconolite, thorianite?
High-Sr dolomite carbonatite	Massive, white, weakly-moderately fractured dolomite carbonatite.	Dolomite, calcite, strontianite, apatite ($\leq 5\%$; ≤ 1.5 mm; crystal clusters ≤ 1 cm), pyrite ($\leq 1\%$), pyrrhotite, chalcopryrite, pyrochlore, ilmenite, monazite-(Ce) ($\leq 1\%$), parisite-(Ce), synchysite-(Ce), Ca-REE-Ba-Sr carbonates (burbankite or carbocernaite?)
High-REE dolomite carbonatite (1)	Massive, medium-grained grey dolomite carbonatite.	Dolomite, parisite-(Ce) ($\sim 15-20\%$; ≤ 3 mm), pyrite (≤ 0.6 mm), monazite-(Ce), aeschynite-(Ce) (≤ 0.8 mm), galena.
High-REE dolomite carbonatite (2)	Massive grey dolomite carbonatite. Pink calcite-monazite-(Ce) replacement textures after apatite.	Dolomite, calcite, apatite, phlogopite, magnetite, monazite-(Ce), parisite-(Ce), synchysite-(Ce), apatite, fergusonite, strontianite, Ca-REE-Ba-Sr carbonates (burbankite or carbocernaite?)
Low-Sr dolomite carbonatite	White-grey foliated to massive with vugs.	Dolomite (≤ 2 cm), calcite, apatite, magnetite, phlogopite, amphibole, quartz. Pyrite, marcasite, chalcopryrite, sphalerite. Monazite-(Ce), parisite-(Ce), synchysite-(Ce), niobaeschynite-(Ce), zircon, baddeleyite, pyrochlore, ferrocolumbite.
High-REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock	Complex intergrown apatite-monazite-(Ce) texture. Massive to foliated. Interval includes foliated monazite-(Ce)-talc rocks.	Apatite, monazite-(Ce), talc, amphibole, dolomite. Pyrrhotite, pyrite, chalcopryrite ($\leq 5\%$ sulfide mineralization along fractures).

Table 2 Representative analyses of apatite from the CRCC.

	Apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock					Carbonatites		
Sample No.	CDD1-33	CDD1-33	CDD1-33	CDD1-33	CDD1-29	CR3	CDD2-25	CDD1-27
Analysis No.	Area 3-1 A13	Area 3-3 A2	Area 3-2 A8	Area 3-2 A9	Area 4 A10	Area 1 A2	A1-4	A6
(wt%)	core	core	core	rim	matrix		core	
Na ₂ O	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.22	0.17	0.23
MgO	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.17	-	-
Al ₂ O ₃	-	-	0.08	0.01	-	-	-	-
SiO ₂	-	0.01	-	-	-	0.05	0.28	-
P ₂ O ₅	38.96	39.00	38.94	40.18	38.21	41.00	42.22	43.31
CaO	48.54	50.08	46.32	50.80	47.00	55.18	54.32	52.19
MnO	-	-	-	0.02	0.02	-	-	-
FeO	0.03	0.05	0.02	0.03	0.15	-	-	-
SrO	2.07	1.22	2.04	5.83	11.39	0.94	0.43	1.15
Y ₂ O ₃	0.30	0.31	0.27	0.02	-	0.02	0.02	-
La ₂ O ₃	0.20	0.38	1.90	0.05	0.01	0.14	0.13	0.23
Ce ₂ O ₃	2.07	1.85	3.10	0.16	0.05	0.38	0.28	0.63
Pr ₂ O ₃	0.41	0.27	0.37	0.03	-	0.05	0.05	0.11
Nd ₂ O ₃	1.39	1.23	1.65	0.19	-	0.22	0.14	0.27
Sm ₂ O ₃	0.38	0.28	0.43	0.03	-	-	-	-
Eu ₂ O ₃	0.38	0.21	0.28	0.03	0.01	-	-	-
Gd ₂ O ₃	0.20	0.05	0.29	0.08	-	0.05	0.04	0.06
ThO ₂	-	0.02	-	0.01	-	-	-	-
UO ₂	0.01	0.01	-	-	-	-	-	-
SO ₃	-	-	-	0.03	0.03	-	0.04	-
Cl	-	-	-	0.01	-	-	-	-
F	3.74	3.38	3.61	3.92	3.49	3.65	4.21	4.42
F,Cl=O	-1.57	-1.43	-1.52	-1.65	-1.47	-1.54	-1.77	-1.86
Total	97.10	96.94	97.79	99.77	98.90	100.53	100.56	100.74
Structural formulae calculated to 26 (O,OH,F,Cl)								
Na	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.072	0.056	0.075
Mg	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.043	-	-
Al	-	-	0.016	0.001	-	-	-	-
Si	-	0.002	-	-	-	0.008	0.047	-
P	5.650	5.657	5.648	5.828	5.542	5.847	6.021	6.177
Ca	8.909	9.192	8.501	9.325	8.627	9.959	9.804	9.420
Mn	-	-	-	0.002	0.003	-	-	-
Fe	0.005	0.006	0.003	0.004	0.022	-	-	-
Sr	0.206	0.121	0.202	0.579	1.132	0.092	0.042	0.112
Y	0.027	0.029	0.024	0.002	-	0.002	0.002	0.000
La	0.013	0.024	0.120	0.003	0.001	0.009	0.008	0.014
Ce	0.130	0.116	0.195	0.010	0.003	0.023	0.017	0.039
Pr	0.026	0.017	0.023	0.002	-	0.003	0.003	0.007
Nd	0.085	0.075	0.101	0.012	-	0.013	0.008	0.016
Sm	0.022	0.017	0.026	0.002	-	-	-	-
Eu	0.022	0.012	0.016	0.002	0.000	-	-	-
Gd	0.012	0.003	0.017	0.004	-	0.003	0.002	0.003
Th	-	0.001	-	0.000	-	-	-	-
U	0.000	0.000	-	-	-	-	-	-
S	-	-	-	0.004	0.004	-	0.005	-
Cl	0.000	0.001	-	0.003	-	-	-	-
F	2.025	1.833	1.957	2.125	1.892	1.944	2.243	2.355
A-site	9.456	9.613	9.229	9.946	9.788	10.219	9.943	9.687
B-site	5.650	5.659	5.664	5.833	5.546	5.856	6.069	6.177

(- = below detection limits; n.a. = not analysed)

Table 3-6

Table 3 Representative whole-rock geochemistry of carbonatites and associated apatite-rich rocks from the CRCC.

Sample No.	CDD1-16	CDD1-22	CDD2-19	CDD2-21A	CDD2-25A	CDD2-27	CDD1-34	CDD1-36
Depth	150.82 – 151.03 m	251.13 – 251.22 m	370 – 370.15 m	399.78 – 399.95 m	397.45 – 397.59 m	400.5 – 400.68 m	263.75 – 263.85 m	269.75 m
	High-Sr dolomite carbonatite	Amphibole-apatite phoscorite	Low-Sr dolomite carbonatite	High-Sr calcite carbonatite	High-REE dolomite-calcite carbonatite	High-Sr carbonatite-apatite-amph cumulate	High-Sr dolomite carbonatite	High-REE apatite-monazite-(Ce) rock
(wt%)								
SiO ₂	0.023	17.79	<0.01	0.29	0.292	8.27	3.49	8.55
TiO ₂	0.012	0.975	0.008	0.136	0.305	0.131	0.013	0.049
Al ₂ O ₃	<0.01	2.00	<0.01	0.031	<0.01	0.108	0.095	0.207
Fe ₂ O ₃	0.67	1.56	0.36	0.56	2.32	1.84	1.70	0.890
FeO	3.84	2.98	1.95	0.76	4.60	2.62	18.9	1.10
MnO	0.793	0.168	0.272	0.183	0.822	0.501	0.683	0.116
MgO	19.0	9.03	21.3	1.41	12.0	11.7	12.7	4.01
CaO	30.9	31.5	31.1	55.4	33.9	33.8	21.2	20.9
Na ₂ O	0.082	1.04	0.061	0.034	0.126	1.05	0.167	0.352
K ₂ O	0.006	1.72	0.004	0.029	0.009	0.329	0.005	0.062
P ₂ O ₅	0.92	17.05	0.035	1.25	7.28	13.4	0.099	26.1
SrO	0.601	0.415	0.005	0.689	0.270	0.454	0.484	2.00
TREO	0.085	0.440	0.125	0.138	3.43	0.671	0.142	25.8
SO ₃	0.443	0.187	0.277	0.038	0.012	0.036	19.8	0.352
LOI	44.0	10.3	46.3	41.4	34.8	24.4	18.9	3.71
F	0.111	2.02	0.040	0.512	0.720	1.39	<0.01	1.22
Cl (ppm)	197	37	448	173	239	65	246	59
Total	101.5	99.2	101.8	102.9	100.9	100.7	98.1	95.5

Table 4 Trace-element geochemistry of carbonatites and associated apatite-rich rocks from the CRCC (samples CDD1-22, CDD2-27, CDD1-34, CDD1-36 analysed at Geoscience Australia and ANU).

Sample No.	CDD1-15	CDD1-16	CDD1-22	CDD1-24	CDD2-3	CDD2-6	CDD2-7	CDD2-19	CDD2-21A	CDD2-25A	CDD2-27	CDD1-34	CDD1-36
Depth	133.7 – 133.95 m	150.82 – 151.03 m	251.13 – 251.22 m	288.95 – 289.2 m	82.25 – 82.4 m	113.9 – 114 m	128.15 – 128.3 m	370 – 370.15 m	399.78 – 399.95 m	397.45 – 397.59 m	400.5 – 400.68 m	263.75 – 263.85 m	269.75 m
	Low-Sr dol carb	High-Sr dol carb	Amph-apatite phoscorite	High-Sr calcite carb	High-Sr calcite carb	High-Sr dol carb	High-Sr calcite carb	Low-Sr dol carb	High-Sr calcite carb	High-REE dol-calcite carb	High-Sr carb-apatite-amph cumulate	High-Sr dol carb	High-REE apatite-monazite -(Ce) rock
(ppm)													
Li	1.35	1.35	n.a.	5.74	6.88	0.885	0.61	0.274	1.47	1.73	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Be	0.284	< 0.100	5.95	0.242	0.307	< 0.100	0.479	< 0.100	< 0.100	0.254	2.95	0.3	1.70
B	< 0.100	5.91	n.a.	5.34	1.24	1.79	13.2	6.84	17.7	11.9	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
V	3.59	1.29	77.2	0.949	29.8	1.87	0.773	< 0.100	14.9	37.1	34.3	4.0	4.0
Cr	2.33	0.563	24.9	4.01	0.475	0.549	0.617	3.59	0.8	5.47	13.8	22	77
Co	8.32	4.41	12	5.73	7.7	4.8	4.45	4.36	3.86	7.14	8.18	150	22
Ni	1.1	1.31	16	7.31	2.25	< 0.100	4.93	2.05	4.73	< 0.100	12.2	20	24
Cu	37	7.76	127	56.4	10.6	1.8	2.52	< 0.100	14.4	9.58	73.9	1890	28
Zn	5.01	20.1	101	9.92	9.29	28.5	2.94	0.6	7.1	36.1	33.7	44	79
Ga	33.1	5.42	22.2	10.7	14.4	5.14	9.41	8.07	6.38	32.6	20.1	4.0	25.0
Ge	3.84	0.961	1.6	1.99	1.9	0.933	1.83	1.55	1.24	2.89	1.56	0.2	1.7
As	7.88	4.79	3.5	4.14	1.84	1.33	7.05	2.33	17.3	8.12	2.85	1.5	11.0
Se	4.94	2.31	n.a.	6.76	5.52	2.64	6.55	4.84	3.92	2.42	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Rb	0.182	0.127	44.6	1.03	12.7	0.133	0.132	< 0.100	0.708	0.168	2.88	0.17	2.0
Sr	282	5080	3507	6060	4800	6310	5060	38.5	5830	2280	3843	4090	16897
Y	51.4	20.7	194	90.3	70.2	19.1	84.8	67	42	7.46	124	12	126
Zr	< 0.100	0.816	4879	279	0.871	14	< 0.100	0.395	8.92	18.5	1544	1	1.6
Nb	47.9	42	764	55.2	10.4	254	2.82	41.7	34.1	67.3	1719	1.92	25
Mo	0.337	0.233	0.33	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	0.121	0.233	0.187	0.141	1.36	0.23
Ag	n.a.	n.a.	1.59	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.328	1.3	0.2
Cd	< 0.100	0.355	1.50	0.339	0.186	0.793	0.25	< 0.100	0.202	0.379	0.862	0.40	0.20
In	< 0.100	0.128	n.a.	0.131	< 0.100	0.241	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	0.25	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Sn	0.165	0.154	3.2	< 0.100	0.289	0.208	< 0.100	0.614	0.203	0.562	3.01	1.5	0.6
Sb	< 0.100	< 0.100	0.08	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	0.355	< 0.100	< 0.100	0.106	1	4

Table 4 Trace-element geochemistry of carbonatites and associated apatite-rich rocks from the CRCC (samples CDD1-22, CDD2-27, CDD1-34, CDD1-36 analysed at Geoscience Australia and ANU).

Sample No. (ppm)	CDD1-15	CDD1-16	CDD1-22	CDD1-24	CDD2-3	CDD2-6	CDD2-7	CDD2-19	CDD2-21A	CDD2-25A	CDD2-27	CDD1-34	CDD1-36
Cs	< 0.100	< 0.100	1.29	< 0.100	0.279	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	0.019	0.03	0.2
Ba	16.3	62	490	419	397	57	325	3.32	509	28.4	73.3	44	158
La	717	152	580	239	201	117	210	195	240	9860	1216	345	75020
Ce	1490	338	1440	586	500	284	510	457	515	14200	2408	567	106220
Pr	131	31.8	216	58.7	51.6	27.6	51.7	44.7	61.5	1280	327	61	9650
Nd	508	130	895	260	227	113	230	193	209	3280	1233	213	26904
Sm	68.5	20.3	161	51.3	43.5	18.4	45.4	35.5	38.8	288	184	21	1735
Eu	13.6	4.98	42.9	13.6	11.4	4.71	11.9	8.3	9.41	53.9	45.7	4.4	276
Gd	46.8	15.5	115	40.4	32.5	13.1	34.9	28.2	31.3	244	113	9.85	571
Tb	4.29	1.62	13.25	5.03	3.95	1.42	4.44	3.38	3.78	14.3	11.3	0.96	31
Dy	16.1	6.4	55.7	22.4	16.8	5.65	19.7	14.6	17.4	43.6	41.7	3.84	78
Ho	2.32	0.926	8.82	3.81	2.75	0.835	3.35	2.47	2.78	3.49	5.78	0.48	7.03
Er	4.75	1.79	16.8	8.17	5.8	1.62	7.28	5.35	6.07	5.71	9.68	1.11	10.5
Tm	0.466	0.155	n.a.	0.811	0.545	0.145	0.718	0.535	0.746	0.508	n.a.	0.13	0.58
Yb	3.05	0.922	8.33	5.09	3.32	0.817	4.47	3.42	3.9	2.41	3.65	0.66	1.68
Lu	0.42	0.119	1.03	0.682	0.429	< 0.100	0.594	0.459	0.56	0.276	0.410	0.07	0.15
Hf	< 0.100	< 0.100	93	3.81	0.136	0.388	< 0.100	< 0.100	0.345	0.4	41.1	0.127	0.20
Ta	1.74	1.44	55	4.37	1.24	1.6	0.246	7.39	3.03	5.06	11.3	0.02	0.54
W	19.4	17.5	9	13.7	42.7	26	26.7	23.9	21.4	35.3	20.4	58	32
Tl	< 0.100	< 0.100	n.a.	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Pb	0.664	1.44	13.1	7.92	2.99	1.87	2.66	< 0.100	3.40	3.57	4.00	4.00	7.25
Bi	< 0.100	< 0.100	0.065	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	< 0.100	0.073	0.02	<0.02
Th	1.58	2.25	70	0.965	1.8	1.52	0.669	1.2	0.666	2.42	19.4	1.1	85
U	4.97	1.1	60	15	0.505	2.02	0.3	< 0.100	< 0.100	0.253	12.7	0.07	0.86
Sc	14	10.3	13.1	21.1	7.12	12.4	14.7	8.2	3.42	0.187	56.7	20.0	45.0
Zr/Hf	-	-	52.5	73.2	6.40	36.1	-	-	25.9	46.3	37.6	7.87	8.00
Nb/Ta	27.5	29.2	13.9	12.6	8.39	159	11.5	5.64	11.3	13.3	152	96.0	46.3
Th/U	0.318	2.05	1.17	0.064	3.56	0.752	2.23	-	-	9.57	1.53	15.7	98.8
Ga/Ge	8.62	5.64	13.6	5.38	7.58	5.51	5.14	5.21	5.15	11.3	12.9	17.4	14.7
Y/Ho	22.2	22.4	22.0	23.7	25.5	22.9	25.3	27.1	15.1	2.14	21.5	25.0	17.9

(n.a. – not analysed)

Table 5 Stable C and O isotope compositions (in ‰ relative to V-PDB and V-SMOW, respectively) of carbonatites and associated rocks from the CRCC.

Sample No.	Hole No.	Depth (m)	Rock type	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$
CR3	CDD1	151.8–151.94	High-Sr dol carb	-3.4	8.3
CR10	CDD1	324–324.1	High-Sr pink cc carb	-4.1	8.6
CR14	CDD1	401.65–401.75	High-Sr cc carb	-4.1	8.0
CDD2-3	CDD2	82.25–82.4	High-Sr cc carb	-4.1	8.3
CDD2-6	CDD2	113.9–114	High-Sr dol carb	-3.0	8.7
CDD2-7	CDD2	128.15–128.3	High-Sr cc carb	-4.1	8.8
CDD2-9	CDD2	178.05–178.15	High-Sr cc carb	-4.0	8.5
CDD2-22	CDD2	401.9–402	High-Sr cc carb	-4.2	7.5
NRC-35	NRC035	92–93	Dol carb	-3.3	9.2
NRC-58	NRC058	97–98	High-Sr cc carb	-3.0	8.6
CR7	CDD1	235.84–235.94	Dol carb	-2.2	12.6
CR12	CDD1	375–375.1	High-Sr cc carb	-4.1	16.7
CR13	CDD1	386–386.1	Low-Sr dol carb	-4.0	21.1
CDD2-1	CDD2	69.5–69.65	Low-Sr dol carb	-4.1	20.9
CDD2-10	CDD2	199–199.15	Low-Sr dol carb	-4.2	21.7
CDD2-12	CDD2	225.65–225.8	Low-Sr dol carb	-3.6	21.0
CDD2-18	CDD2	328.78–328.94	Low-Sr dol carb	-4.2	21.9
CDD2-19	CDD2	370–370.15	Low-Sr dol carb	-4.3	20.8
CDD2-25 cc	CDD2	397.35–397.45	High-REE dol carb	-3.3	11.4
CDD2-25 dol	CDD2	397.35–397.45	High-REE dol carb	-3.0	9.0
CDD2-26	CDD2	225.2	High-REE dol carb	-3.3	20.8
CDD1-31	CDD1	269.5	High-REE ap-mz rock	-3.1	15.5
CDD1-37A	CDD1	270.3	High-REE ap-mz rock	-3.5	10.5
CDD1-37B	CDD1	270.3	Dol carb	-2.9	9.1
CDD2-5	CDD2	92.9–93	Ap-phl phoscorite	-3.9	10.1
CDD2-11	CDD2	220.6–220.7	Clinopyroxenite	-5.4	11.3
CDD2-14	CDD2	250.85–251	Clinopyroxenite	-5.6	11.1
CDD2-17A	CDD2	293.6–293.79	Clinopyroxenite	-4.4	11.2
CDD2-23	CDD2	231.12–231.44	Clinopyroxenite	-4.2	9.7
CDD2-24	CDD2	309.85–310.06	Clinopyroxenite	-3.8	21.4
Mt Weld-88A			Mt Weld carbonatite	-4.2	12.9
Mt Weld-88B			Mt Weld carbonatite	-4.2	12.9
Mt Weld-1			Mt Weld carbonatite	-5.6	8.9
Mt Weld-2			Mt Weld carbonatite	-5.4	7.2
Mt Weld-87A			Mt Weld carbonatite	-5.6	6.3
Mt Weld-87B			Mt Weld carbonatite	-5.5	6.6

Table 6 H₂O-contents (“H₂O”, in ppm) and stable hydrogen isotope compositions of fluid inclusion-hosted H₂O (in ‰ relative to V-SMOW), as well as bulk carbonate C and O isotope compositions (in ‰ relative to V-PDB and V-SMOW, respectively) for ten carbonate samples from the Cummins Range carbonatites.

Sample No.	Hole No.	Depth (m)	Rock type	H ₂ O	δD	δ ¹³ C	δ ¹⁸ O
CDD2-1	CDD2	69.5–69.65	Low-Sr dol carb	2466	-38	-4.1	20.9
CDD2-3	CDD2	82.25–82.4	High-Sr cc carb	737	-41	-4.1	8.3
CDD2-6	CDD2	113.9–114	High-Sr dol carb	932	-35	-3.0	8.7
CDD2-7	CDD2	128.15–128.3	High-Sr cc carb	1749	-34	-4.1	8.8
CDD2-9	CDD2	178.05–178.15	High-Sr cc carb	1431	-40	-4.0	8.5
CDD2-10	CDD2	199–199.15	Low-Sr dol carb	1909	-54	-4.2	21.7
CDD2-12	CDD2	225.65–225.8	Low-Sr dol carb	2110	-49	-3.6	21.0
CDD2-18	CDD2	328.78–328.94	Low-Sr dol carb	1119	-47	-4.2	21.9
CDD2-19	CDD2	370–370.15	Low-Sr dol carb	907	-43	-4.3	20.8
CDD2-22	CDD2	401.9–402	High-Sr cc carb	489	-51	-4.2	7.5

Supplementary Material

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