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Structural and geochemical ore-forming processes in deformed gold deposits: towards a multiscale and method approach

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Abstract

Integrating structural control on mineralisation and geochemical ore-forming processes is crucial when studying deformed ore deposits. Yet, structural and geochemical data are rarely acquired at the same scale: structural control on mineralisation is typically investigated from the district to the deposit and macroscopic scales whereas geochemical ore processes are described at the microscopic scale. The deciphering of a deformationmineralisation history valid at every scale thus remains challenging.

This study proposes a multiscale approach that enables the reconciliation of structural and geochemical information collected at every scale, applied to the example of the Galat Sufar South gold deposit, Nubian shield, northeastern Sudan. It gathers field and laboratory information by coupling a classical petrological-structural study with highresolution X-ray computed tomography, electron back-scattered diffraction and laser ablation inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry on mineralised sulphide mineral assemblages.

This approach demonstrates that there is a linear control on mineralisation expressed from the district to microscopic scales at the Galat Sufar South gold deposit. We highlight the relationships between Atmur-Delgo suturing tectonics, micro-deformation of sulphide minerals, syn-pyrite recrystallisation metal remobilisation, gold liberation and ore upgrading. Our contribution therefore represents another step forward a holistic fieldto-laboratory approach for the study of any other sulphide-bearing, structurally controlled ore deposit type.

1. Introduction

There is extensive literature on the role of deformation in the onset of hydrothermal mineralising fluid systems (e.g. McCaffrey et al., 1999; Cox et al., 2001; Richards and Tosdal, 2001; Chauvet, 2019; Blenkinsop et al., 2020a, 2020b; Rowland and Rhys, 2020), which is particularly well characterised for deformed lode gold or gold-bearing vein deposits such as orogenic gold (e.g. Sibson, 1990, 2001, 2020a, 2020b; Ridley, 1993; Robert and Poulsen, 2001; Faleiros et al., 2007; Weatherley and Henley, 2013; Peterson and Mavrogenes, 2014; Cox, 2016). In addition, numerous microstructural, geochemical and thermodynamic studies provide information on deformation-assisted geochemical processes leading to gold mineralisation in structurally controlled gold deposits at the microscopic scale (e.g. Tomkins and Mavrogenes, 2001; Weatherley and Henley, 2013; Fougerouse et al., 2016a; Finch and Tomkins, 2017; Petrella et al., 2020a, b; Gaboury and Oré Sanchez, 2020; Voisey et al., 2020). Sulphide minerals, most commonly pyrite and arsenopyrite, can host a variable amount of the gold stock in such deposits, either as free gold inclusions or fracture infilling, nano-inclusions and invisible-refractory gold structurally bound in the sulphide lattice or segregated along crystal defects during sulphide plastic deformation (e.g. Cook and Chryssoulis, 1990; Reich et al., 2005; Hough et al., 2011; Deditius et al., 2014; Pokrovski et al., 2019; Fougerouse et al., 2021). In a given deposit, sulphide mineral texture and geochemical signature may thus indicate gold input and crystallisation-remobilisation stages (e.g. Velasquez et al., 2014; Fougerouse et al., 2017; Pearce et al., 2018; Gourcerol et al., 2018a, 2018b, 2020; Kontak et al., 2018; Large and Maslennikov, 2020; Combes et al., 2021) and could be used as pathfinders for high-grade gold ore (e.g. Kadel-Harder et al., 2020).

However, the scale of investigation required typically differs when it comes to structural control on mineralisation or geochemical mineralisation processes. On one hand, structural control on mineralisation is documented from the district (tens to a hundred km) to the deposit $(< 1 \text{ km})$, outcrop (up to tens of m) and hand sample (up to

tens of cm) scales, relying on field observations, structural measurements and conventional petrological-structural description of mineralised structures (e.g. Allibone et al., 2002, 2018; Ashley and Craw, 2004; Blenkinsop and Doyle, 2014; Masurel et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2018; Hronsky, 2020; Combes et al., 2021). These field-based data can be further processed by geostatistical and modelling techniques (e.g. Monteiro et al., 2004; Upton and Craw, 2014; Cowan, 2020). Zooming in structural data at the microscopic scale remains however difficult, as loss of information can occur when switching from 3D view of outcrops and drill cores to 2D view of sample slabs and thin sections, even in oriented samples.

On the other hand, the statistical analysis of extensive whole rock geochemical and lithological datasets provide knowledge about elemental mobility induced by alteration and mineralisation processes which is of strong interest for ore targeting at the deposit to macroscopic scales (e.g. Gaillard et al., 2020; Meng et al., 2020). When zooming at the microscopic scale, unravelling geochemical ore processes requires the study of the micro-textural evolution of ore-bearing mineral assemblages together with their *in situ* geochemical signature (e.g. Reich et al., 2017; Román et al., 2019). Analytical techniques such as laser ablation inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS) enable the *in situ* measurement down to a few μ m-scale of minor and trace element concentrations in ore-related minerals, in relationship with micro-textural observations (e.g. Román et al., 2019). This approach has been widely used to study sulphide trace element geochemistry within individual deposits (e.g. Large et al., 2007, 2009; Cook et al., 2013; Hazarika et al., 2013; Velasquez et al., 2014; Gourcerol et al., 2018a, 2018b, 2020; Augustin and Gaboury, 2019; Li et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2019a; Kadel-Harder et al., 2020; Combes et al., 2021). When coupled to the microstructural and -textural characterisation of ore-bearing mineral assemblages, such geochemical datasets allow to reassess ore genetic models (e.g. Velasquez et al., 2014; Gourcerol et al., 2018a, 2020; Pearce et al., 2018) and integrate micro-deformation-induced geochemical ore-forming processes into the deposit- and district-scale deformation history (e.g. Dubosq et al., 2018; Sayab et al., 2020).

In support of conventional field and microscopy work, the analysis of microstructures and/or mineral geochemistry *via* laboratory analytical techniques is therefore critical to the understanding of orebodies as it offers information on structuralgeochemical ore relationships (Pearce et al., 2018). Through the example of the Galat Sufar South (GSS) gold deposit, northeastern Sudan, we show how the coupling of a classical field- and microscopy-based petrological-structural approach to laboratory 3D micro-imagery (high-resolution X-ray computed tomography, HRXCT), microstructural analysis (electron back-scattered diffraction, EBSD) and *in situ* geochemical investigation of the gold-bearing sulphide assemblage (laser ablation inductively-couple plasma mass spectrometry on pyrite, LA-ICP-MS) helps (i) zooming in structural control on mineralisation from the district and deposit-scales to the microscopic scale and (ii) bringing knowledge about deformation-induced geochemical gold mineralisation processes.

2. Current insights from HRXCT, EBSD and LA-ICP-MS into ore geology

Pearce et al. (2018) reviewed principles and applications of numerous laboratory techniques, including HRXCT, EBSD and LA-ICP-MS used in this study, enabling the micro-characterisation of metallic ore systems from the tens of cm- to the nm-scales. As the reader may consult the latter reference for further information, this section briefly reviews the insights of these three techniques into geoscience and more especially into ore geology.

2.1. High-resolution X-ray computed tomography

HRXCT uses 3D volume reconstruction and further geometrical analysis to provide information useful for (i) petrophysical characterisation of rocks (e.g. Galkin et al., 2015 and references therein), (ii) magmatic or metamorphic petrofabric studies (e.g. Sayab et al., 2015; Kahl et al., 2017), (iii) fluid and melt inclusion petrography, volumetric and thermodynamic conditions reconstruction (e.g. Richard et al., 2019), (iv) unravelling deformation mechanics (e.g. Thiele et al., 2015), (v) morphological characterisation of fossils (e.g. Vasseur et al., 2019), (vi) gemmology (e.g. Morlot et al., 2016), and (vii) planetary science (e.g. Hanna and Ketcham, 2017). Regarding ore geology, HRXCT and other tomography or X-ray methods (e.g. 3D neutron tomography, integrated absorption, diffraction and fluorescence tomography, X-ray microscopy) are mostly used for (i) ore processing optimisation (e.g. Miller et al., 2003; Dhawan et al., 2012), (ii) qualitative and quantitative characterisation of ore texture and grain distribution (e.g. Kyle and Ketcham, 2003; Godel et al., 2010; Godel, 2013; Chisambi et al., 2020), (iii) ore mineral grain shape and texture characterisation (Sayab et al., 2016; Prichard et al., 2018; Suuronen and Sayab, 2018; Masson et al., 2020; Spinks et al., 2021a), (iv) the study of mineral growth mechanisms (e.g. Prichard et al., 2018; Y. Yao et al., 2020), (v) unravelling ore-forming processes (e.g. Godel et al., 2013; Kyle and Ketcham, 2015; Voisey et al., 2020) and zooming out microscopic-scale structural control on ore formation to the regional scale (e.g. Sayab et al., 2020).

2.2. Electron back-scattered diffraction

Up to now, EBSD has mostly been used in geoscience for (i) rock deformation processes and kinematics characterisation (e.g. Bukovská et al., 2016; Cavalcante et al., 2018; Goswami et al., 2018), (ii) seismic implications (Vonlanthen et al., 2006), (iii) magmatic (e.g. Žák et al., 2008) or metamorphic (e.g. Rehman et al., 2016) process unravelling, (iv) experimental microstructural studies (e.g. Piazolo et al., 2004), and (v) characterising synthetic or natural mineral grain-scale deformation and transformation mechanism (e.g. Rosière et al., 2001; Barrie et al., 2010a; Wallis et al., 2019; X. Yao et al., 2020). When it comes to ore geology, EBSD is mostly used for (i) the crystallographic characterisation of ore minerals (e.g. Halfpenny et al., 2013; Grimshaw et al., 2017), (ii) the textural investigation of the ore and integration to the regional metamorphismdeformation history (e.g. Boyle et al., 2004; Barrie et al., 2010b; Sayab et al., 2020) as well as (iii) the study of ore formation and remobilisation processes related to microdeformation (e.g. Kolb et al., 2003; Mateen et al., 2013; Reddy and Hough, 2013; Rosière et al., 2013; Vukmanovic et al., 2013; Fougerouse et al., 2016a; Dubosq et al., 2018; Cugerone et al., 2020; Spinks et al., 2021b).

2.3. Laser ablation inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry

In situ analytical methods, such as electron microprobe (EMPA), SIMS, nanoSIMS or LA-ICP-MS, allow to couple major, minor and trace element geochemistry of sulphide minerals with their textural evolution at the µm-scale (Reich et al., 2017; Fougerouse et al., 2016b, 2021; Román et al., 2019). Recent advances in atom probe tomography even enable the study of mineral geochemistry at the sub-nanometric atomic scale (e.g. Fougerouse et al., 2016c, 2021; Gamal El Dien et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2019b; Reddy et al., 2020).

The study of trace element signatures in sulphide minerals (e.g. pyrite, sphalerite and chalcopyrite) *via* LA-ICP-MS is widely used to (i) characterise sulphide-bearing deposit types (e.g. Ye et al., 2011; Winderbaum et al., 2012; Belissont et al., 2014; Belousov et al., 2016; Frenzel et al., 2016), (ii) track temporal changes in ore hydrothermal systems (e.g. Huston et al., 1995; Maslennikov et al., 2009; Wohlgemuth-Ueberwasser et al., 2015; Bonnet et al., 2016; Gill et al., 2016; Soltani Dehnavi et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2017) and (iii) better constrain element precipitation models leading to ore formation (e.g. Butler and Nesbitt, 1999; George et al., 2018). The geochemical signature of pyrite in gold deposits is commonly used to track its thermodynamic stability, characterise boiling associated with fault rupture events, as well as the partitioning of gold and other metals and metalloids in evolving, sulphur-rich, hydrothermal systems (e.g. Reich et al., 2005; Deditius et al., 2009, 2014; Keith et al., 2016, 2018; Finch and Tomkins, 2017; Tardani et al., 2017; Pokrovski et al., 2019; Román et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2019b; Xing et al., 2019). The microscopic scale investigation of trace elements in pyrite also documents the crystal growth mechanisms, e.g. kinetics, the source(s) of ore-forming fluids (e.g. Augustin and Gaboury, 2019; Voute et al., 2019; Adam et al., 2020), and its potential contribution as a gold source (e.g. Large et al., 2007, 2011). The trace element signature of sulphide minerals may also record synmetamorphic metal remobilisation (e.g. Morey et al., 2008; Dakota Conn et al., 2019).

3. Case study: the Galat Sufar South gold deposit, northeastern Sudan

Our study focuses on the Galat Sufar South (GSS) gold deposit, northeastern Sudan, owned by Orca Gold Inc. (indicated resources of 75.6 Mt $@ 1.27 g/t$ Au for a total of 3.08 Moz Au with a 0.6 g/t Au cut-off; Duckworth, 2018). GSS is a polyphase, sulphide-dominated, vein-type gold deposit. Mineralisation expression and relationships with deformation events have already been well-constrained from the tens of km-scale to the µm-scale by satellite imagery analysis, field and conventional microscopy work (Perret et al., 2020). Samples of interest analysed in this study have been collected along several diamond drill cores within the East Zone of the GSS gold deposit (Fig. 1b).

Figure 1: Geological setting of the Galat Sufar South (GSS) gold deposit, adapted after Perret et al. (2020). **a** Structural framework of the Nubian shield, simplified after Johnson et al. (2011) and references therein. Gold occurrences are from the Arethuse Geology GIS compilation database. **b** Lithological framework of the GSS gold deposit. The collar location of sampled diamond drill holes (DDHs) for this study is indicated. Geographic coordinates are reported according to the WGS 84 coordinate system.

The GSS deposit is located within the western portion of the Arabian-Nubian shield (ANS; Fig. 1a) which represents the northern part of the East African-Antarctic Orogeny (Stern, 1994; Johnson and Woldehaimanot, 2003; Kusky et al., 2003; Fritz et al., 2013; Grenholm, 2019). The Arabian-Nubian shield formed during a \sim 850-550 Ma "Supercontinent Cycle" (Stern and Johnson, 2010; Johnson et al., 2011) and results from the amalgamation and collision between terranes that accreted onto the Saharan metacraton (Fig. 1a; Johnson and Woldehaimanot, 2003; Johnson et al., 2011 and references therein). The terranes are formed by juvenile magmatic arc and ophiolite assemblages remnants of the subduction and obduction processes that completely consumed the Mozambique ocean in the northern part of the East African-Antarctic Orogen (e.g. Burke and Sengör, 1986; Johnson et al., 2011; Fritz et al., 2013 and references therein).

The east-striking Atmur-Delgo and north-striking Keraf sutures record the collision of the Arabian-Nubian shield with the Saharan meta-craton (Fig. 1a; Almond and Ahmed, 1987; Stern, 1994; Abdelsalam et al., 1995, 1998; Bailo et al., 2003). The Atmur-Delgo suture results from the closure of an aulacogenic oceanic re-entrant associated with the Mozambique ocean into the Saharan meta-craton (Burke and Sengör, 1986; Abdelrahman, 1993; Denkler et al., 1993; Harms et al., 1994; Schandelmeier et al., 1994; Abdelsalam et al., 1998), while the Keraf suture results from the evolution of the Keraf island arc prior to arc-continent collision (Perret, 2021) and amalgamation of terranes forming the Arabian-Nubian shield over the Saharan meta-craton (Fig. 1a; Vearncombe, 1983; Burke and Sengör, 1986; Frisch and Pohl, 1986; Berhe, 1990; Abdelsalam and Dawoud, 1991; Ries et al., 1992; Mosley, 1993; Abdelsalam et al., 1998; Fritz et al., 2013). During the late collision period, the Keraf suture has been overprinted by a sinistral transpression resulting in the Keraf shear zone (Fig. 1a; Abdelsalam et al., 1995, 1998; Abdelsalam and Stern, 1996a, 1996b; Perret et al., 2021).

The GSS gold deposit is encompassed within a complexly deformed zone at the junction between the Atmur-Delgo and Keraf sutures (Fig. 1a), both structures hosting gold occurrences (Johnson et al., 2017; Gaboury et al., 2020; Perret et al., 2020, 2021). It is hosted by a strongly deformed, interleaved andesitic meta-volcanosedimentary horizon enclosed within a thick andesitic meta-volcanic sequence composed of lava flows, pyroclastic horizons and primary volcanic breccia (Fig. 1b; Perret et al., 2020). This assemblage is surrounded by meta-pelites interlayered with marbles. The deposit-scale structural framework is complex and dominated by subvertical linear fabrics, including several km- to dm-scale sheath folds inferred from satellite imagery and outcrop structural analysis (Perret et al., 2020). The GSS gold deposit recorded a complex deformation history related to several veining and alteration events. The simplified mineral paragenesis related to the deformation events is summarised in Figure 2 (for more details, please refer to Perret et al., 2020). It started with an early, ductiledominated, progressive D_{1GSS} - D_{2GSS} - (D_{3GSS}) deformation episode associated with the main gold event. It ended with a minor, late, brittle D_{4GSS} veining episode related to a minor mineralisation event (Figs. 2 and 3).

The ductile D_{1GSS} deformation stage is characterised by the D_{1aGSS} -related S_1 foliation, F_1 folding and a change from carbonate-dominant with minor quartz and pyrite to D_{1bGSS} -related quartz-pyrite-dominant with minor carbonate veining and disseminated pyrite grains (Fig. 3a to d). The increase in pyritisation from D_{1aGSS} to D_{1bGSS} veining is correlated with an increase in gold grades (from < 0.1 g/t to ~ 1 g/t Au; fire assays data from Orca Gold Inc.'s database are given for studied samples in Table 1) and is thought to represent the first gold input into the system (Perret et al., 2020).

Figure 2: Simplified mineral paragenesis of the Galat Sufar gold deposit, modified after Perret et al. (2020). The broken line separates the D1GSS-D2GSS-(D3GSS) progressive deformation stages from the late D4GSS deformation event. Mineral abbreviations for Figures 2 to 7, 9, 10 and 12 and Table 1 are Qz, quartz; Cb, carbonate; Ser, sericite; Chl, chlorite; Ab, albite; Py, pyrite; Sp, sphalerite; Ccp, chalcopyrite; Tnt-Eng, sulphosalt (tennantite-enargite); Gn, galena; Apy, arsenopyrite; Gers, gersdorffite. Pyrite generations are indexed regarding the deformation stage they relate to (see details in Perret et al., 2020).

Figure 3: Macroscopic scale features of pyrite generations identified at the Galat Sufar South gold deposit. Mineral abbreviations are the same as in Figure 2. Mineral generations are indexed based on the deformation stage they relate to (see details in Perret et al., 2020). **a** D_{1aGSS}-related pyrite. **b** D_{1bGSS}-related, disseminated pyrite with asymmetrical D_{2GSS}-related quartz-chlorite-(sericite-carbonate) strain fringes. **c** D_{1bGSS}-related pyrite in folded pyrite-dominated veinlets. **d** D_{1bGSS}-related pyrite in quartz-pyrite-(carbonate) veinlets. **e** D_{2GSS}-related pyrite as overgrowth around Py_{1b} grains. **f** D4GSS-related pyrite disseminated in silicified intervals and enclosed in a crosscutting milky quartz veinlet. **g** D4GSS-related pyrite-dominated stringers crosscutting highly silicified host rock intervals. **h** D4GSS-pyrite in quartzcarbonate-albite-polymetallic sulfide assemblage late veins.

The ductile D_{2GSS} deformation stage controls the GSS structural framework from the tens of km- to the µm-scales. It is mostly characterised by subvertical, linear, ductile structures such as a L_2 stretching lineation. The C/S_2 penetrative shear band cleavage, simplified into S_2 in illustrations and below, is the main planar fabric but remains less expressed than linear features. D_{1GSS}-related veins are boudinaged, folded and dismembered along the S_2 fabric (Fig. 3a, c and d) and pyrite overgrowth and strain fringes are developed around D_{1GSS} -related pyrite grains (Fig. 3e). These microstructures form ore shoots $(>1 \text{ g/t}$ Au, up to $>15 \text{ g/t}$ Au; Table 1) contributing to the main gold mineralisation at the GSS gold deposit.

The ductile-brittle D_{3GSS} transition is portrayed by kink bands affecting the sericiterich gangue, quartz-albite-carbonate *en échelon* extension veins. No mineralisation formed during this deformation stage. Meanwhile, a pervasive silicification event locally affected the meta-volcanosedimentary host rock during the D_{2GS} - D_{3GS} ductile to ductilebrittle deformation.

The late, brittle D_{4GSS} veining extent is limited to these silicified host rock intervals, as a response to rheological contrast with less competent, non-silicified, sericite-rich host rocks. It remains unclear whether if the vein system forms a stockwork with a preferential orientation or not. The vein mineral assemblage ranges from barren quartz-carbonatealbite to highly mineralised (up to >10 g/t Au; Table 1) polymetallic sulphide assemblage (Fig. 3f, g and h). This episode formed very local high-grade ore shoots with a minor contribution to the overall GSS gold endowment.

The gold input or remobilisation nature of each mineralisation event remains uncertain from the petrological-structural data available up to now (Perret et al., 2020).

4. Analytical procedures

4.1. Petrography

Samples illustrated in Figures 3-8 are listed in Table 1. Thin sections and one-inch epoxy mounts have been prepared for these samples. Optical microscopy and additional analyses using a scanning electron microscope in back-scattered electron mode (BSE-SEM) were carried out for petrography work at the GeoRessources laboratory (Université de Lorraine-CNRS, Nancy, France).

** Samples are named after the ID of the diamond drill hole they have been sampled from and are organised by increasing depth. Fire assay results of the corresponding 1 m-large drill core interval have been communicated by Orca Gold Inc. All samples have been described at the macroscopic and microscopic scales, but samples GS-34-05 and GS-34-07 are not illustrated in Figures 3 and 4. In italics: samples analysed through HRXCT and EBSD which are not illustrated in this study.*

Table 1: List of samples from this study, along with the corresponding analyses that they underwent.

4.2. High-resolution X-ray computed tomography

HRXCT analyses were performed to reconstruct the 3D geometry of sulphide-rich mineralised D_{2GSS} microstructures which orientation cannot be measured using conventional methods. HRXCT scans of billets GS-34-07 and GS-38-09 (Table 1) were acquired at the GeoRessources laboratory (University of Lorraine, Nancy, France) with a Phoenix Nanotom S scanner, using a CCD Hamamatsu detector, with 2300×2300 pixels resolution. Analytical conditions were set to 75 mA current and 112 kV acceleration voltage with a 85-mm source-sample distance. Fifteen hundred projections were carried out, leading to a total scan time of 120 min. The spatial resolution was 17 µm/pixel (i.e. 4913 µm³/voxel). Data visualisation was carried out using the Avizo® 9.2.0. software.

These two samples were chosen as they are the only mineralised samples showing every structure attributed to the D_{2GSS} deformation phase at the macroscopic scale. In the following section, we have decided to only describe HRXCT results for sample GS-34-07, as it is similar to sample GS-38-09 but offers a better visibility of sulphide microstructures due to fewer disseminated sulphides blurring the 3D internal reconstruction.

4.3. Electron back-scattered diffraction

EBSD analyses were performed to characterise the microstructures of mineralised sulphide assemblage in four samples containing D_{2GS} -related mineralised microstructures (Table 1). These samples have been chosen for EBSD analysis after a careful preliminary petrographic work to ensure they were representative of D_{2GSS} deformation-mineralisation relationships expressed at the GSS gold deposit. Simultaneous energy-dispersive spectrometry (EDS) and EBSD mapping were carried out at the University of Montpellier (France) using a Camscan Crystal Probe X500FE scanning microscope with

EBSD Symmetry and EDS UltimMax 100 detectors. Probe current, acceleration voltage and chamber pressure were set to 5 nA approximately, 20 kV and 2 Pa in low-vacuum mode, respectively, with a 25-mm working distance. Step size was set to 1.2 µm (e.g. GS-22-08) and 1 µm (e.g. GS-34-05). Data collection monitoring and data processing were carried out using the AZtecHKL and HKLChannel5 Project Manager softwares, respectively. In the following, we have decided to only describe EBSD results for sample $GS-22-08$ and $GS-34-05$, as they are the most representative of D_{2GSS} -related mineralised microstructures (disseminated or quartz vein-hosted pyrite with $Py₂$ overgrowth, respectively). Besides GS-38-07 and GS-38-08 samples provided similar results to GS-34- 05, but with no visible gold.

4.4. Laser ablation inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry on pyrite

LA-ICP-MS data on the different pyrite generations separated at the GSS gold deposit were collected at the Queen's Facility for Isotope Research (Queen's University, Ontario, Canada) using a ThermoScientific X Series 2® quadrupole ICP-MS coupled to a NewWave/ESI 193-nm ArF Excimer laser system. Samples for which laser ablation analyses were carried out are listed in Table 1. The isotopes measured were ²⁹Si, ³⁴S, ⁵¹V, ⁵²Cr, ⁵⁵Mn, ⁵⁷Fe, ⁵⁹Co, ⁶⁰Ni, ⁶⁵Cu, ⁶⁶Zn, ⁷¹Ga, ⁷⁵As, ⁷⁷Se, ⁹⁵Mo, ¹⁰⁷Ag, ¹¹¹Cd, ¹¹⁵In, ¹¹⁸Sn, ¹²¹Sb, 125 Te, 182 W, 197 Au, 205 Tl, 208 Pb and 209 Bi, with a dwell time of 10 ms.

Spot analyses were performed to closely match the observed micro-textures in pyrite grains with their specific trace element signatures. Care was taken in selecting spot positions, especially in Py1b altered cores, to minimise the ablation of any visible mineral inclusion, as well as during subsequent data processing and signal integration to remove the signal of any sulphide or metal alloy mineral inclusion and focus solely on the latticebound trace element composition of pyrite minerals. Prior to each analysis, the background signal, or gas blank, was measured for a duration of 25 s. The beam diameter was set to 50 μm for all samples and reference materials, with a pulse frequency of 10 Hz.

Elemental maps were also produced to (i) better understand the spatial distribution of the trace elements present in the different types of pyrite, (ii) complement the data derived from spot analyses and (iii) match areas that were mapped through EBSD to better constrain micro-deformation influence on elemental mobility in sulphide mineral assemblages. The set up used for laser mapping was the same as above. Similarly to spot analyses, a 25 s gas blank was measured prior to each ablation line. Beam size was set to 15 μm, to allow for a minimum of 40 horizontal lines per map for better image resolution. The laser scan speed was set to $8 \mu \text{m/s}$ and the pulse frequency to 10 Hz. The fluence for both spot and map analyses was about 8.0 J/cm^2 .

The LA-ICP-MS data were reduced with Iolite 3.65 (Paton et al., 2011). Spot analyses comprise blocks of 30 spots on samples bracketed by a series of 3 spots on each of the 6 certified reference materials. Similarly, for map analyses, three standard lines were analysed for each standard at the beginning and end of the analytical run to account for analytical drift and allow semi-quantification.

The reference standards were USGS GSE-1G (Jochum et al., 2005), MASS-1 (Wilson et al., 2002), as well as FeS-4, FeS-5, PTC-1b and CCU-1e sulphide reference materials from Université du Québec à Chicoutimi, Canada (CCRM, CANMET). FeS-5 was used for trace element quantification in pyrite spot analyses and correction for variations in ablation efficiency. Limits of detection (LOD) were calculated following the Howell's method (see references in Howell and Blakey, 2013). LA-ICP-MS elemental maps were edited using the Monocle add-on to determine trace element compositions of specific areas and textures of the grains of interest (Petrus et al., 2017).

5. Results and integration to previous petrological-structural field observations

5.1. Petrological-structural description of the mineralised sulphide assemblages

From the mineral paragenesis established for the GSS gold deposit by Perret et al. (2020) (Fig. 2), four pyrite generations have been described and are labelled from Py_{1a} to Py₄, each referring to the deformation stage they relate to $(D_{1a}$ _{GSS} to D_{4GSS}). The same labelling scheme is used for the other mineral phases illustrated in the figures below. The macroscopic and microscopic textural and structural characteristics of each pyrite generation are documented below and illustrated in Figures 3 and 4, respectively.

5.1.1. Py1a

Py1a occurs as disseminated grains in the sericite-rich gangue. They are wrapped by the S_2 penetrative cleavage (Figs. 3a, 4a).

There are also rare, fine-grained ($<$ 100 µm), anhedral Py_{1a} grains in D_{1aGSS}-related carbonate-dominated veinlets dismembered along the S_2 fabric (Figs. 3a, 4a). Within these veinlets, Py_{1a} is associated with scarce chalcopyrite, sphalerite and sulphosalt (Fig. 4a).

5.1.2. Py1b

 Py_{1b} is characterised by disseminated grains, affected by the $S₂$ penetrative cleavage, similarly to Py_{1a} grains. These grains are coarser than disseminated Py_{1a} grains (up to 500 µm , subhedral and display C_2 simple shearing-related asymmetrical quartz-chlorite-(sericite-carbonate) strain fringes, formed during the subsequent D_{2GSS} deformation stage (Figs. 3b, 4b).

 P_{Y1b} is also visible in D_{hGSS} -related veinlets. The increase in pyrite modal proportion from about 30 to >50 vol% from D_{1aGSS} to D_{2bGSS} veining stages is correlated with the switch from carbonate-dominated to quartz- and/or pyrite-dominated veinlets. Pyritedominated veinlets may be F_2 -folded, transposed and dismembered along the S_2 penetrative cleavage (Fig. 3c). In these veinlets, Py_{1b} is fine-grained and displays 120 $^{\circ}$ triple junction grain boundaries, i.e. annealing during recrystallisation, and interstitial polymetallic sulphide minerals (sphalerite, sulphosalt in Figure 4c). Dismembered quartzdominated veinlets (Fig. 3d) host coarser (up to about 300 μ m), subhedral Py_{1b} grains intergrown with the same sulphide mineral phases (Fig. 4d). If no Py2 overgrows Py1b grains, they look unaltered and do not host any mineral inclusion.

5.1.3. Py²

Py2 overgrows disseminated Py1b grains displaying strain fringes, resulting on Py_{1b}/Py_2 grains preferentially elongated along the S_2 fabric (Fig. 3e). At the macroscopic scale, the distinction between core and rims is sometimes possible. At both the macroscopic and microscopic scales, the Py_{1b} core shows an altered aspect with evidence of dissolution when overgrown by Py_2 (Figs. 3e, 4e). Py₂ overgrowth is also visible around Py_{1b} grains in dismembered quartz-dominated veinlets (Fig. 4f). Where Py_2 is observed, Py1b cores systematically enclose inclusions of silicate, phosphate (apatite in Figure 4e), sulphide minerals (chalcopyrite in Figure 4e, arsenopyrite and sulphosalt in Figure 4f) and electrum (Fig. 4f). Rare cogenetic gersdorffite occurs as a thin coating around the rim of Py₂ (Fig. 4e). This generation of pyrite is interpreted to be coeval with the S_2 main penetrative cleavage and L_2 stretching lineation which control the ore shoot distribution at the deposit scale (Perret et al., 2020).

5.1.4. Py⁴

The late, brittle D_{4GSS} veining encompasses all veins from non-mineralised quartzcarbonate-albite ones to polymetallic sulphide assemblage-dominated ones. Several Py⁴ facies can be distinguished depending on pyrite relative abundance and textural association with other sulphide mineral phases.

Firstly, rare, coarse, subhedral Py4 grains (Fig. 3f) occur with traces of intergrown sphalerite (Fig. 4g) in almost pyrite-free milky quartz-dominated veins. Very fine-grained disseminated Py4 grains overprint the silicified mineral gangue at the selvages of these veins (Fig. 4g). These veins are non-mineralised $(<0.1$ g/t Au; Table 1).

Secondly, Py4-dominated stringers also cut across the silicified host rock intervals (Fig. 3g) and are formed by aggregated subhedral to anhedral Py_4 grains of variable size with minor interstitial sphalerite (Fig. 4h). Disseminated Py_4 is still visible at the selvages of the pyrite stringers and seems to expand from its margins (Fig. 4h). These stringers are weakly mineralised (about 0.1 g/t Au; Table 1).

Thirdly, wider polymetallic sulphide-dominated late veins locally cut across the silicified host rock (Fig. 3h). Where the soft sulphide minerals, such as chalcopyrite and minor sulphosalts (Fig. 4i), are more abundant than pyrite, Py₄ occurs as coarse, rounded, grains embedded in the soft sulphide mineral matrix (Fig. 4i). Conversely, where pyrite is dominant, Py4 aggregates are largely fractured and soft sulphide minerals infill fractures (Fig. 4j). Such Py_4 grains may host electrum micro-inclusions (Fig. 4k). These veins are mineralised (7.7 g/t Au; Table 1).

While all pyrite generations were investigated for trace element signature through LA-ICP-MS analyses, HRXCT and EBSD analyses were only applied to $Py_{1a/b}$ and Py_2 generations. Indeed, $Py_{1a/b}$ and Py_2 generations relate to the regional progressive D_{1GSS} -D_{2GSS} deformation event coeval to the main gold mineralisation event defined at the GSS deposit, whereas the regional interpretation of D_{4GSS} remains unknown and associated gold mineralisation is limited (Perret et al., 2020).

Figure 4: Microscopic scale features of pyrite generations identified at the Galat Sufar South gold deposit. Mineral abbreviations are the same as in Figure 2. **a**, **b**, **e, f**, **j** and **k** photographs are from Perret et al. (2020). **a** D1a-related pyrite associated with scarce chalcopyrite, sphalerite and sulphosalt in carbonate-dominated veinlets (reflected light). **b** Disseminated Py1b grains are associated with quartz-chlorite-carbonate asymmetrical strain fringes related to E block-to-the-top C2 shearing (cross-polarised, transmitted light). **c** Interstitial sulphosalt-sphalerite assemblage infilling 120°-triple junction grain boundaries in Py1b-dominated veinlets (reflected light). **d** Rare sphalerite and sulphosalt associated with coarse Py_{1b} grains in quartz-pyrite-dominated dismembered veinlets (reflected light). **e** Py₂ overgrowth occurs around disseminated Py1b grain with evidence of dissolution and enclosing a lot of mineral inclusions (backscattered electron mode in scanning electron microscopy, BSE-SEM).

Figure 4 (continued): Microscopic scale features of pyrite generations identified at the Galat Sufar South gold deposit. Mineral abbreviations are the same as in Figure 2. **a**, **b**, **e, f**, **j** and **k** photographs are from Perret et al. (2020). **f** Py2 overgrowth around Py1b grains in quartz-pyrite-dominated dismembered veinlets, presence of silicate, sulfide and electrum inclusions in the pyrite core (BSE-SEM). **g** Disseminated Py4 spatially associated with crosscutting quartz-carbonate veinlet hosting rare, coarser Py4 grains (reflected light). **h** Rare sphalerite is interstitial to aggregated pyrite grains in a Py4-dominated stringer. Fine-grained, disseminated Py4 facies expands from the margins of the stringer (BSE-SEM). **i** Coarse, rounded Py4 grains embedded in a chalcopyrite-(sulphosalt) assemblage in quartzcarbonate-albite-sulfide late veins (reflected light). **j** Py4 with sulphosalt-chalcopyrite assemblage infilling in pyrite grain joints and cracks in a Py4-dominated late vein (reflected light). **k** Fine-grained electrum inclusions in Py4 grains (reflected light).

5.2. High-resolution X-ray computed tomography: 3D geometry of mineralised microstructures

Sample GS-34-07 is a 5 cm-long slab that has been cut along a half core sample. It displays a schistose texture dominated by the subvertical S_2 cleavage along which carbonate- and sericite-rich bands alternate (Fig. 5a). The S_2 orientation is N080 $^{\circ}$ E-84 $^{\circ}$ N (Fig. 5a). A F₂-folded D_{1GSS}-related veinlet transposed along the S_2 cleavage is visible on this sample (Fig. 5a).

The fold axis orientation could not be measured directly on the drill core due to the small size of the microstructure. An oriented billet has been cut to prepare an oriented thin section centered on this micro-fold (Fig. 5a and b). At the microscopic scale, the folding and individually-fragmented boudinaged structure of the D_{1aGSS} -related carbonatedominated veinlet are clearly visible (Fig. 5b). However, switching from the macroscopic 3D sample and drill core observations to the microscopic 2D thin section-scale only provides a partial view of the folded veinlet.

The oriented billet remaining from the preparation of this thin section was scanned by HRXCT. The 3D reconstruction shows that D_{1aGSS} -related sulphide-rich veinlets are transposed and folded along the S_2 planar fabric, well characterised in the sericite-rich gangue (Fig. 5c). A subhorizontal section shows that F_2 folding is similar and tight, with S2 being the related axial planar cleavage (Fig. 5c and d). Sulphide-rich fold hinges are more or less dismembered, which leads to the formation of linear sulphide micro-ore shoots (Fig. 5c and d). These linear mineralised microstructures are parallel to the F_2 fold axis and steeply plunge westwards, which is consistent with the deposit-scale L_2 stretching lineation orientation (Perret et al., 2020). HRXCT thus illustrates that F_2 micro-hinges form L_2 -parallel micro-ore shoots consistent with (i) the deposit-scale F_2 fold axis orientation and (ii) the deposit-scale ore shoot orientation that is controlled by the regional L_2 stretching lineation (Perret et al., 2020). This demonstrates the 3D continuity of the structural control on GSS gold mineralisation from the district to the

microscopic scales and strengthen conclusions suggested from conventional field and microscopy work. The complete 3D data are available in Supplementary Material 1.

Figure 5: High-resolution X-ray computed tomography (HRXCT) results for the sample billet GS-34-07. Mineral abbreviations are the same as in Figure 2. **a** View of the half core slab of sample GS-34-07. The white rectangle corresponds to the oriented billet cut for thin section preparation, centered on a F₂-folded carbonate-(quartz-pyrite) veinlet. **b** Scan of the GS-34-07 thin section (cross-polarised, transmitted light). **c** CT scan of the billet GS-34-07. Green color corresponds to gangue minerals affected by the S₂ fabric whereas orange color refers to sulfide minerals. The CT scan has been reoriented according to the orientation of the sample block. **d** Subhorizontal section across the billet GS-34-07. Gangue and sulfide minerals are in grey and orange colors, respectively.

5.3. Electron back-scattered diffraction: intra-crystalline deformation of mineralised sulphide assemblages

5.3.1. Py1b/2 grain (GS-22-08)

We investigated a disseminated pyrite grain composed of a Py_{1b} core and a Py_{2} rim (referred to as $Py_{1b/2}$ grain hereafter) in the low-grade sample GS-22-08 (0.28 g/t Au; Table 1; Fig. 6). The Py1b core encloses numerous silicate, phosphate and sulphide inclusions where the Py_2 rim is observed (Fig. 6a). The latter preferentially grows along S_2 main fabric trend and displays a very thin gersdorffite fringe (Fig. 6b). Both pyrite and gersdorffite crystallise in the isometric system, with close unit cell parameters (Bayliss, 1968, 1977). One electron back-scattered pattern (EBSP) was acquired for each mineral phase (datapoint 1 for gersdorffite and 2 for pyrite, respectively, in Fig. 6b closeup) to compare their respective crystallographic orientation. The 3D reconstruction of the unit cell corresponding to the EBSPs highlights the similar crystallographic orientations of the pyrite overgrowth and the gersdorffite coating. Such similarities in unit cell parameters suggest that these two mineral phases formed as a continuous crystallographic unit.

The entire pyrite grain was mapped with EBSD. Data processing allowed to isolate the coarse, disseminated pyrite grain of interest, as well as quartz grains, mostly occurring in subvertical C_2 -related asymmetrical strain fringes (Fig. 6c). The crystallographic orientation deviation angle is mostly $\langle 1^{\circ}$ and does not exceed 5° within the Py_{1b/2} corerim grain. The textural core-rim limit is not showing any deviation in the crystallographic orientation (Fig. 6d). However, the entire core-rim pyrite grain is divided into two distinct parts with a $\langle 10^\circ$ -misorientation, which geometries match the subvertical C2 simple shearing kinematics locally inferred from strain fringes asymmetry (Fig. 6d). We also observe the presence of a >30° misorientation grain boundary corresponding to a single anhedral pyrite subgrain. This subgrain could have formed prior or after the D_{2GSS} deformation stage, and no evidence can help determining when this occurred.

The pyrite {100} crystallographic axis orientation is roughly consistent across the whole $Py_{1b/2}$ grain, except for the previously discussed potentially recrystallised subgrain (Fig. 6d). The Py_2 rim seems to have preferentially grown or recrystallised along the z axis (Fig. 6c). It is confirmed by the steeply north-northwest-plunging preferential orientation of the $\{100\}$ axis for the Py_{1b/2} grain in the pole figure (Fig. 6d).

In summary, the absence of subgrain boundary misorientation between the Py_{1b} core and the Py₂ rim (Fig. 6c) suggests that either (i) the Py_{1b} grain has been transposed along the L_2 fabric before the Py_2 overgrowth formed, through recrystallisation or a new fluid event, or (ii) the formation of Py_{1b} core is immediately followed by its destabilisation concomitant with *in situ* recrystallisation of the Py₂ rim. The preferential growth of Py₂ rim around Py_{1b} core along the L_2 stretching lineation confirms that its formation is coeval with the progressive D_{2GSS} deformation stage (Fig. 6d). The crystallographic continuity between the Py_2 overgrowth and the gersdorffite coating (Fig. 6b) supports their cogenetic precipitation. The EBSD analysis of sample GS-22-08 therefore confirms (i) the progressive nature of the D_{2GSS} deformation stage, (ii) the mineral paragenesis previously established from macroscopic and thin section observations and (iii) that the structural control on the GSS gold deposit by the L_2 fabric is visible up to the microscopic scale (Perret et al., 2020).

Figure 6: Electron back-scattered diffraction (EBSD) analysis of disseminated Py_{1b/2} facies (sample GS-22-08). Mineral abbreviations are the same as in Figure 2. **a** BSE-SEM photograph of the investigated pyrite grain. **b** Zoom on the Py2 overgrowth and intergrown gersdorffite coating and electron back-scattered patterns (EBSPs) of gersdorffite (1) and pyrite (2). **c** Orientation deviation angle map for pyrite and quartz considering a disseminated $Py_{1b/2}$ grain with E block-to-the-top, C₂-related asymmetrical quartz strain fringes (background: orientation contrast image considering all mineral phases). **d** EBSD pole figure representing the $\{100\}$ axes of the coarse Py_{1b/2} grain. *n* refers to the number of individual electron EBSPs used to construct the pole figure.

5.3.2. Mineralised quartz-pyrite veinlet (GS-34-05)

EBSD maps were produced for a $Py_{1b}-Py_{2}-Ccp_{2}$ assemblage in a $D_{1bGSS}-related$ quartz-pyrite-dominated veinlet within the high-grade sample GS-34-05 (@6.45 g/t Au; Table 1; Fig. 7). The mineralised microstructure is completely dismembered along the S_2 main penetrative cleavage, making its margins hardly visible within the albite-sericitequartz host rock. A zoom on the investigated area shows the textural relationship between Py_{1b} grain aggregates with associated Py_2 overgrowths and Ccp_2 infilling between 120°-triple junction annealed pyrite grains (Fig. 7a and b). Rare electrum associated with $Py₂$ is visible in interstitial chalcopyrite (Fig. 7a and b). The orientation contrast background in Figure 7c shows a blurred aspect with lateral drift: this might result from a charging effect during EBSD data collection (e.g. Wright et al., 2015). Individual EBSPs indexing was nevertheless sufficient and the obtained EBSD map is considered to be reliable. The crystallographic orientation deviation angle between EBSPs measured in all pyrite grains ranges from 0 to 90°. Pyrite grain and subgrain boundaries are visible (Fig. 7c). As observed for sample GS-22-08 (subsection 5.3.1.; Fig. 6), the presence of Py_2 overgrowths around Py_{1b} cores is not associated with subgrain or grain boundaries (Fig. 7a, b and c).

Chalcopyrite crystallises in the tetragonal system in which the {001} crystallographic axis represents the *c* long axis. Although the interstitial chalcopyrite does not show any apparent preferential orientation at the microscopic scale (Fig. 7a, b and c), its $\{001\}$ axis is mostly subvertical and oriented along the deposit-scale L_2 stretching lineation (Fig. 7d). This suggests that interstitial chalcopyrite either (i) formed during the D_{2GSS} deformation stage as well or (ii) is inherited and underwent a complete recrystallisation during the D_{2GSS} stage. The first option is more likely as there is no significant evidence for chalcopyrite formation during the D_{1GSS} stage (Fig. 2; Perret et al., 2020). Therefore, the presence of electrum inclusions in the interstitial chalcopyrite (Fig. 7a, b) and intergrown with sulphide inclusions in altered Py_{1b} cores (Fig. 4e and f) confirms that the D_{2GSS} event relates to the main visible gold mineralisation formed at the GSS gold deposit. Although these timing relationships between ore mineral generations and deformation stages were suggested from a conventional petrologicalstructural study (see Fig. 2; Perret et al., 2020), EBSD now provides robust evidence that confirms the mineral paragenesis.

Figure 7: Electron back-scattered diffraction (EBSD) analysis of Py1b/2 facies in quartz-pyrite-dominated veinlet (sample GS-34-05). Mineral abbreviations are the same as in Figure 2. **a** Orientation contrast image with (**b**) a zoom on the Py1b-Py2-(Ccp2-electrum2) assemblage of interest (reflected light). **c** Orientation deviation image zoomed on pyrite and interstitial chalcopyrite assemblage (extent in **a**; background: orientation contrast image considering all mineral phases). **d** EBSD pole figure representing the $\{001\}$ axes of interstitial Ccp₂, representing the distribution of the c long axis of chalcopyrite crystals in the tetragonal system. *n* refers to the number of individual electron EBSPs used to construct the pole figure.

5.4. LA-ICP-MS geochemical signature of pyrite generations

LA-ICP-MS data are summarised in Table 2 and are sorted by pyrite generations. Only the median and mean values of trace element concentrations and associated standard deviations are shown, with the complete dataset being made available in Supplementary Material 2. We focus below on the concentrations of some metals and metalloids of interest (Au, Ag, Te, Sb, Cu, Pb, As and Co) in each pyrite generation,

displayed in a box and whisker diagram (Fig. 8). We selected these specific elements as they are commonly associated with gold in sulphide minerals and help tracking oreforming processes (see references in section 2.3.). While we carefully tried to remove signal from sulphide or metal alloy mineral inclusion during LA-ICP-MS data processing, we did not manage to systematically isolate the lattice-bound trace element composition in pyrite, resulting in obvious outliers in each statistical group. Comparisons are therefore made using the median value for trace element concentrations, unless otherwise stated, as the mean value may be overestimated due to nugget effect where micro-inclusions have been analysed. Similar results were obtained when analysing the data with or without these outliers, suggesting little to no influence of these rare micro-inclusions on the geochemical trends described below.

Figure 8: Box and whisker plots of some trace element concentrations of the various generations of pyrite from the Galat Sufar South gold deposit, northeastern Sudan. Analyses are grouped by pyrite generations. Py_{1b} free of mineral inclusion is distinguished from altered Py_{1b} grains with evidence of dissolution and with a P_{y₂} overgrowth rim. The number of analyses for each group of pyrite is given. Data below limit of detection (LOD) have been attributed the LOD/2 value. The median (line in the box), mean (white circle) and first and third quartile (box extent) values are shown as well as 1.5 times the interquartile range value (whiskers).

5.4.1. Py_{1a} and Py_{1b}

Py1a and Py1b generations display the highest Au, Ag and Te concentrations (up to 26.0, 793 and 238 ppm, respectively; Fig. 8). They can be distinguished by their Cu, Pb

and As concentrations which are higher for Py1a than Py1b (1740 *vs* 176 ppm, 304 *vs* 35.4 ppm and 1617 *vs* 95.9 ppm, respectively; Fig. 8). This is likely related to the increased amount of accessory sulphide minerals (chalcopyrite, galena, sphalerite, sulphosalt) in quartz-carbonate veinlets from D_{1aGSS} to D_{1bGSS} deformation stages (Fig. 2; Perret et al., 2020). D_{1aGSS} - and D_{1bGSS} -gold occurs as nano-inclusions or as structurally bound in pyrite lattice, as no gold micro-inclusion has been observed (subsection 5.1.) and no Au was measured for the corresponding ablation spots.

5.4.2. Py²

At the grain scale, LA-ICP-MS elemental maps were made for a composite $Py_{1b/2}$ grain, previously investigated by EBSD (GS-22-08; Fig. 6). They highlight the relative depletion in Au, Ag and Te where Py_{1b} grains show evidence of dissolution, enclose numerous mineral inclusions and with a Py_2 overgrowth rim which is also depleted in these elements (Fig. 9). This trend is confirmed by the overall spot dataset (Fig. 8). Outliers with high Au concentrations (up to 260 ppm) may represent a nugget effect related to gold micro-inclusions (Fig. 4f) or gold associated with sulphide mineral inclusions in altered Py1b cores such as chalcopyrite (Fig. 9). Ag and Te also appear to be preferentially incorporated in these mineral inclusions (Fig. 9). Sb, Cu and Pb show a different behaviour as Py1b grains are slightly enriched where the core of the pyrite grain is altered (Figs. 8, 9). The Sb- and Cu-bearing mineral inclusions in altered cores are clearly visible in both petrographic analyses (Fig. 4e and f) and elemental maps (Fig. 9), and can be related to some outliers datapoints in Figure 8 (e.g. galena inclusions corresponding to samples showing Pb concentrations up to 7436 ppm). Similarly, where Py1b grains are aggregated and annealed with interstitial chalcopyrite in a gold-bearing veinlet with dominant quartz and pyrite, metals are preferentially concentrated along pyrite subgrain boundaries and gold inclusions are formed in interstitial chalcopyrite (GS-34-05; Figs. 7b, 10). The remobilisation of Cu remains however limited as the Cu concentration is invariant whereas Au concentration decreases where Py_{1b} shows evidence of dissolution (Fig. 8). On first hand, Py_2 overgrowths are free of mineral inclusions and exhibit lower concentrations of Sb, Cu and Pb regarding mineral inclusion-free Py_{1b} type (0.78 *vs* 3.60 ppm, 62.4 *vs* 176 ppm and 88.5 *vs* 122 ppm, respectively), similarly to Au, Ag and Te behaviour (Figs. 8, 9). On second hand, As and Co exhibit higher concentrations in Py₂ (207 and 270 ppm, respectively) than the portion of Py_{1b} free of mineral inclusions (95.9 and 245 ppm, respectively) (Fig. 8). Primary As and oscillatory zoning of Co in Py1b grain are preserved despite its heavily altered aspect and the presence of a Py_2 rim (Fig. 9).

These data strongly suggest that Py1b destabilisation, alteration and recrystallisation by annealing and Py_2 overgrowing are responsible for an overall release of Au-Ag-Te-(Sb-Cu-Pb). According to our observations, these elements seem to start migrating just before the *in situ* crystallisation of electrum-chalcopyrite-sulphosalt- (galena-arsenopyrite) minerals as inclusions in altered pyrite cores and interstitial sulphide assemblage forming along pyrite subgrain boundaries. This is in agreement with the previously published model for gold mobility, based on macroscopic to microscopic scale petrological-structural observations (Perret et al., 2020). This model suggests that the (D_{1aGSS}) - D_{1bGSS} lattice-bound gold input event is followed by metal remobilisation and liberation of the main, free gold mineralisation during the D_{2GS} deformation stage (Perret et al., 2020).

Figure 9: LA-ICP-MS trace element maps (Au, Ag, Te, Sb, Cu, Pb, As, Co) of a Py1b altered core enclosing numerous mineral inclusions and with a Py2 overgrowth (sample GS-22-08). The trace element concentration is semi-quantified (ppm) and illustrated by a colour log-scale. Mineral abbreviations are the same as in Figure 2.

Figure 10: LA-ICP-MS trace element maps (Au, Ag, Te, Sb, Cu, Pb, As, Co) of a composite Py_{1b}-Py₂-Ccp₂-electrum₂ assemblage within a gold-bearing quartz-pyrite-(carbonate) veinlet (sample GS-34-05). The trace element concentration is semi-quantified (ppm) and illustrated by a colour log-scale. Mineral abbreviations are the same as in Figure 2.

5.4.3. Py⁴

The Au, Ag, Te, Sb, Cu and Pb concentrations in Py4 grains span a range of values that is similar to that measured for Py_{1a} to Py_2 generations, albeit with higher variability, illustrated by higher standard deviations (Fig. 8; Table 2). Outlier values for Au and As concentrations may be linked to the presence of gold and sulphosalt micro-inclusions within pyrite grains (Figs. 4j and k, 8).

Unfortunately, rare studies focused on metal partitioning in hydrothermal systems and calculated partition coefficients for vapor-liquid fractionation (e.g. Pokrovski et al., 2008). Partition coefficients for metals between sulphide minerals remain unknown, but some studies attempted to interpret partitioning trends among coexisting base-metalbearing sulphide minerals (e.g. Bortnikov et al., 2000; George et al., 2016, 2018), which leads to a *"predictive understanding of the fundamental crystal-structural controls on element partitioning into specific minerals"* (Cook et al., 2016). These studies investigated hydrothermal polymetallic deposits ranging from VMS, skarn, exhalative or porphyry-epithermal deposits formed in various thermodynamic conditions and coexisting sulphide minerals which differ from the ones characterised at the GSS gold deposit. Results are nevertheless consistent and we can approximate that, for minor and trace elements, Au preferentially gets enriched into pyrite, Co into sphalerite, Te-Ag-Bi into galena, As in both galena and sphalerite considering the D_{4GSS} sulphide mineral assemblage, apart from sulphosalts. The strong dispersion of the metal budget trapped by D4GSS-related sulphide assemblage could therefore depend both on the composition of the *in situ* metallic stock it is sourced from, the partial remobilisation and partial or quantitative recrystallisation together with trace element partitioning between neoformed sulphide minerals. This would support the hypothesis stating that the D_{4GSS} gold event results from the remobilisation of former gold mineralisation at the GSS gold deposit, previously suggested from petrological-structural observations (Perret et al., 2020).

Concentrations are in ppm.

** Arithmetic means and standard deviations (SD) are calculated considering the LOD/2 value for <LOD values.*

Table 2: Summary of the LA-ICP-MS trace element concentrations (in ppm) of the various pyrite generations from the Galat Sufar South gold deposit, northeastern Sudan.

6. A holistic ore-forming model

6.1. Structural control on mineralisation

6.1.1. Insights into multiscale structural control on mineralisation

The coupling between EBSD and HRXCT results from this study with the petrological-structural study of Perret et al. (2020) suggests that structural control on mineralisation is consistently expressed at every scale at the GSS gold deposit (Fig. 11):

(i) The progressive nature of the ductile D_{1GSS} - D_{2GSS} - (D_{3GSS}) deformation episode is defined up to the crystallographic scale and observed shear sense remains the same at every scale;

(ii) Sulphide-rich ore shoots are oriented along the L_2 lineation from the deposit- to the microscopic scale, which corresponds to the dominant regional fabric. Structural control on mineralisation is therefore the same at every scale and we clearly illustrated that ore shoot geometry is fractal from the km-scale to the µm-scale.

Other studies attempted to couple regional- to macroscopic-scale 2D or 3D structural information with micro-characterisation of mineralised structures through HRXCT and/or EBSD, among other techniques (e.g. Kolb et al., 2003; Duclaux et al., 2013; Gazley et al., 2014a, 2014b; Sayab et al., 2020). Similarly to what we demonstrate in this study, this approach enables a better understanding of the mineralisation-related tectonic history, i.e. to what tectonic setting(s) is (are) the ore-forming event(s) genetically associated. This knowledge is very valuable, as it is crucial for greenfield exploration targeting and near-mine exploration (e.g. Groves et al., 2018; Cowan, 2020; Hronsky, 2020). For instance, at the GSS deposit, the gold mineralisation occurred during the \sim 750-700 Ma Atmur-Delgo suturing, expressed by D_{2GSS} deformation at the district scale (Schandelmeier et al., 1994; Perret et al., 2020). L_2 -related structures are therefore pathfinders to GSS-like gold mineralisation throughout the Atmur-Delgo suture and nearby GSS gold deposit. Under-explored suture zones similar to the Atmur-Delgo suture

could also be considered as new exploration targets for vein-type gold deposits at the scale of the Arabian-Nubian shield.

Additionally, an accurate description of ore geometry, textures and paragenetic association at the microscopic scale helps discussing genetic models (e.g. Godel et al., 2010; Mateen et al., 2013; Vukmanovic et al., 2013; Dubosq et al., 2018; Spinks et al., 2021a, 2021b). It also allows for the evaluation of the feasibility of ore processing and adapt sheet flows (e.g. Reddy and Hough, 2013; Kyle and Ketcham, 2015; Sayab et al., 2016).

6.1.2. From field data to micro-analyses: representativeness and reliability on zooming in structural control

When studying deformed gold deposits, zooming from the district-scale structures up to microscopic sub-samples is a challenge. It may indeed be challenging to switch from 3D field observations and measurements to conventional 2D microstructural description of thin sections, leading to ambiguous interpretation of microtectonics (Sayab et al., 2014). The access to reconstructed 3D structural information at the microscopic and crystallographic scales *via* HRXCT and EBSD techniques is therefore of special interest for multiscale structural reconciliation.

However, it is worth noticing that 3D analyses, such as HRXCT and EBSD, are often performed on a limited number of samples, like in the present study, notably due to analytical costs. There may therefore be a lack of representativeness when zooming in which must be acknowledged. To limit this risk, it is mandatory to carry out in the first instance a very detailed petrographic study on available samples and to select the most representative ones on which 3D analyses will be performed. Finally, linking 3D structural information acquired from the field all the way to laboratory observations by ways of different methods helps better characterising the structural control on mineralisation (Fig. 11). It can be constrained from the tens of km - to the μ m-scales,

while being cautious with the potential lack of representativeness of the microscopic-scale results. Finally, linking 3D structural information acquired from the field all the way to the laboratory observations by ways of different methods helps characterising in a more robust manner the structural control on mineralisation (Fig. 11). It can be constrained from the tens of km- to the µm-scales, while being aware of the potential lack of representativeness of the microscopic-scale results acquired.

6.2. Deformation-induced geochemical ore forming processes

6.2.1. Unravelling barren vs ore hydrothermal stages and ore targeting

Similarly to what has been widely documented for sulphide-bearing ore deposits (e.g. Sung et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2011; Peterson and Mavrogenes, 2014; Velasquez et al., 2014; Genna and Gaboury, 2015; Belousov et al., 2016; Salvi et al., 2016; Augustin and Gaboury, 2018; Kerr et al., 2018; Gao et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2019a), the coupling between deposit-scale petrological-structural study, textural characterisation and LA-ICP-MS analyse of pyrite helps tracking gold endowment steps resulting in the formation of the GSS gold deposit (Fig. 11):

 (i) Py_{1a} and Py_{1b} grains show the highest structurally-bound gold concentrations at the GSS gold deposit, accounting for $\langle 1 \rangle$ g/t Au grades along logged drill cores where Py₂ is absent. The (D_{1aGSS}) - D_{1bGSS} deformation stages likely correspond to the first gold input to the system, occurring only as refractory gold, as suggested by former petrologicalstructural observations (Perret et al., 2020);

(ii) Where Py_2 occurs, the gold concentration decreases in altered Py_{1b} grains and microscopic-scale electrum inclusions are visible in pyrite cores and surrounding quartz, accounting for economic gold mineralisation $(>1 \text{ g/t}$ Au grades along logged drill cores). This observation shows that the D_{2GSS} deformation stage is likely responsible for gold liberation from early Py_{1b}, in agreement with what was suggested from logging and conventional microscopy analysis (Perret et al., 2020);

(iii) Finally, the large span in trace element concentrations in Py4 likely characterises partial remobilisation followed by partial or quantitative recrystallisation together with trace element partitioning between neoformed sulphide minerals. It confirms the discrete nature of the remobilisation of the D_{4GSS} deformation and gold episode that was inferred in a previous study (Perret et al., 2020).

LA-ICP-MS spot and map analyses therefore assess the mobility of lattice-bound trace elements in pyrite at the GSS gold deposit (Figs. 8, 9; Table 2). They confirm the relative contribution of the successive deformation-related hydrothermal episodes to the deposit-scale gold endowment. Ultimately, integrating such ore mineral geochemical data to the knowledge of the petrological-structural ore relationships and deposit-scale structural framework (Fig. 11) enables ore vectoring towards alteration haloes or mineralised structures, as already demonstrated in literature (e.g. Genna and Gaboury, 2015; Soltani Dehnavi et al., 2018; Soltani Dehnavi, 2019).

6.2.2. Insights into syn-metamorphic sulphide recrystallization and gold liberation

The coupling of LA-ICP-MS elemental maps (Figs. 9, 10, respectively) with EBSD maps (Figs. 6, 7, respectively) helps better constraining the influence of microdeformation on elemental mobility in sulphide mineral assemblages through time at the GSS gold deposit.

At the microscopic scale, there is no mineral inclusion in Py_{1b} grains where Py_2 rim is absent. These mineral inclusions are thus not trapped during Py_{1b} growth. As such textures are characteristic of dissolution-precipitation mineral replacement (Putnis, 2002), it is more likely that the high-strain, ductile D_{2GSS} deformation stage is responsible for Py_{1b} destabilisation, alteration and recrystallisation by annealing and Py_2 overgrowing (Perret et al., 2020).the high-strain, ductile D_{2GSS} deformation stage is responsible for Py_{1b} destabilisation, alteration and recrystallisation by annealing and Py₂ overgrowing (Perret et al., 2020). *In situ* trace element analyses support a remobilisation of Au-Ag-Te-(Sb-Cu-Pb) from Py1b during this deformation stage. Likely, these elements only migrated over a few µm to cm distance before reprecipitating as electrum-chalcopyritesulphosalt-(galena-arsenopyrite) inclusions in altered pyrite cores and as interstitial sulphide assemblage along pyrite subgrain boundaries. LA-ICP-MS data confirm that the D_{2GSS} deformation stage is not related to an additional gold input, but rather to a release of lattice-bound gold together with polymetallic sulphide mineral formation (Perret et al., 2020).

A similar space-limited migration pattern for structurally compatible elements such as Cu, Pb or Zn, whereas other elements, like As, Co or Ni, remain immobile, have been demonstrated in the Naime Pyrite Member and at the Mt. Torrens Pb-Zn-Ag prospect, Kanmantoo Group, South Australia (Dakota Conn et al., 2019). Such trace element evolution pattern in pyrite is attributed to its recrystallisation under amphibolite facies metamorphism (Dakota Conn et al., 2019). The trace element concentrations in Py_2 thus suggest that D_{2GSS} deformation and mineralisation occurred under amphibolite facies metamorphic conditions at the GSS gold deposit, which is in agreement with the plastic deformation pressure-temperature field considered for pyrite (Barrie et al., 2009). Furthermore, multi-equilibria thermodynamic calculations confirmed that lower amphibolite-facies metamorphic conditions were reached during the D_{2GSS} deformationmineralisation stage at the GSS gold deposit (Perret, 2021), which corresponds to regional peak metamorphism (Ahmed Suliman, 2000).

Combining deposit- to grain-scale 2D-3D structural information with ore textures and micro-chemical analyses of the ore-bearing minerals thus appears to be of prime importance when deciphering the deformation, metamorphic and geochemical ore formation-remobilisation and upgrading processes at the microscopic scale (Fig. 11; e.g. Huston et al., 1995; Morey et al., 2008; Gourcerol et al., 2018b; Pearce et al., 2018; Voute

et al., 2019; Cugerone et al., 2020; Combes et al., 2021). In that sense, more and more studies couple micro-textural or -structural ore characterisation *via* techniques such as HRXCT, 3D neutron tomography and EBSD with *in situ* geochemical analyses through hyperspectral X-ray computed tomography (e.g. Egan et al., 2015), X-ray fluorescence mapping (e.g. Fougerouse et al., 2016a), EMPA (e.g. Reddy and Hough, 2013; Wille et al., 2018), LA-ICP-MS (e.g. Dubosq et al., 2018), laser-induced breakdown spectroscopy (e.g. Cugerone et al., 2020) or nanoSIMS (e.g. Fougerouse et al., 2016b, 2021). To go further, constraining deformation-related ore-forming processes could even be extended up to the nanometric and sub-nanometric, atomic scales. This is possible thanks to the emergence of techniques such as the atom probe tomography that can image mineral defects, dislocations, *etc…* and better constrain micro-deformation processes (Reddy et al., 2020; Fougerouse et al., 2021). Systematically highlighting the relationships between microstructures and geochemical signatures of ore-related minerals would therefore represent a step forward towards a holistic laboratory approach for the study of deformed hydrothermal ore deposits.

Macroscopic scale (mm to dm) Deposit scale (m to km)

Figure 11: Insights from the suggested multiscale, multi-method approach for the understanding of the structural control defined by L_2 on gold mineralisation and deformation-induced geochemical ore-forming processes at the Galat Sufar South gold deposit, northeastern Sudan. Field and laboratory methods are separated, and their respective scale of investigation is indicated. Mineral abbreviations are the same as in Figure 2 for the petrological-structural cartoon.

7. Conclusions

The approach advocated here enables the characterisation of structural control on mineralisation and deformation-induced geochemical processes, which is critical in ore geology, especially when focusing on deformed ore deposits. It relies on (i) robust preliminary field and microscopy work, oriented sampling and conventional petrologicalstructural description of mineralisation from the district to the microscopic scales (GIS satellite imagery analysis, field and conventional microscopic observations) and (ii) coupling with multiple analytical methods in the laboratory. These are microstructural techniques such as high-resolution X-ray computed tomography (HRXCT) and electron back-scattered diffraction (EBSD) in addition to laser ablation inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS) on sulphide minerals.

Through the example of the Galat Sufar South gold deposit, Nubian shield, northeastern Sudan, we illustrate that this combined approach allows for the reconciliation of 3D structural records from the district scale up to the crystallographic scale. We unequivocally demonstrated that the structural control on mineralisation by the L2 stretching lineation is indeed characterised at every scale, which enable to fully understand the geometry of the deposit and increase our level of confidence in attributing the formation of the Galat Sufar South gold deposit to hydrothermal fluid flows triggered during Atmur-Delgo suturing.

Furthermore, our approach enables the validation of micro-textural and -structural evolution of mineralisation-related sulphide mineral assemblages firstly inferred from conventional thin section investigation. The use of *in situ* geochemical methods, such as LA-ICP-MS on ore-related minerals, can help tracking geochemical changes associated with gold mineralising or remobilisation events coeval with syn-metamorphic deformation of ore-bearing mineral assemblages, characterised at the microscopic scale by EBSD. The trace element concentrations in the distinct pyrite generations distinguished at the Galat Sufar South gold deposit provide evidence for syn-deformation and -sulphide recrystallisation metal mobility and gold liberation during the D_{2GSS} deformation stage. There, we clearly demonstrate the relationships between micro-deformation of sulphide minerals, gold mobility and lower-scale Atmur-Delgo suturing tectonics. The suggested approach therefore improves our understanding of the relationships between deformation, metamorphism, and geochemistry in ore-forming processes.

As a summary, our approach is therefore very promising for the study of deformed gold deposits and could be applied to any other sulphide-bearing, structurally controlled ore deposit type, in the wake of the increasing number of multiscale and -technique studies of ore deposits published the last decade. Such an approach leads leads to conclusive understanding of metallogenic processes but it is also key for mining industry, from greenfield exploration targeting to mining and ore processing.

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Supplementary Materials

Supplementary Material 1: Video file for the HRXCT-assisted 3D reconstruction of the internal structure of the oriented sample billet GS-34-07. The colour scale is the same as that of Figure 5. The video file is available from Julien Perret upon request at julien.perret15@laposte.net.

Supplementary Material 2: Extensive dataset of LA-ICP-MS trace element concentrations (in ppm) of the various pyrite generations from the Galat Sufar South gold deposit, northeastern Sudan.

ID Py Text. Si			S.	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	\mathbf{Z} n	Ga	As	Se	Mo	Ag	C _d	In	Sn	Sb	Te	W	Au	Tl	Pb	Bi
GS-22-10																										
$z1_1$ 2			3680 498049 0.33		2.0	13.9	495596 139		1390	-1063		10.6 0.13	38.7	5.2	1.1	0.10	0.12	0.19	< 0.16	0.04	< 0.42	0.29	2.7	0.09	2.5	2.6
$z1_2$ 1b	^{1*}		9002 488306 39.5		8.2	118	489215 36.6		9.5	282	846	1.0	102	4.6	0.45	2.3	0.98	0.07	3.8	2.0	5.5	6.5	0.52	0.16	151	1.9
$z1_3$ 2			1212 543009 < 0.34 < 5.2			4.0	454041 634		160	874		$2.2 \quad 0.10$			$57.1 \le 21.5 \le 0.26$	0.15		< 0.37 < 0.02	< 0.54	0.20	< 0.84	0.71	0.18	< 0.12	0.71	0.13
$z1_4$ 1b	$1*$		1164 462782 5.3		${<}0.92$	270	532462 366		23.0	993		53.2 0.32		$92.0 \le 3.7$	0.48	4.6		$< 0.07 < 0.004$ 0.13		7.2	< 0.15	0.28	0.12	0.33	835	5.1
$z2 \quad 1$	$\overline{2}$		4182 513629	- 2.4	1.9	903	480409 183		259	93.7	247	0.30	72.1	5.8	0.36	0.14	0.20	0.01	0.32	0.07	< 0.24	1.1	0.56	< 0.007	2.8	4.1
$z2_2$ 2			447 536948 3.8		${<}0.96$	-7.8	461839 197			41.5 312		$8.0 \le 0.02$	174	7.0	< 0.07	0.19		< 0.10 0.02	0.88	0.13	< 0.23	< 0.14	0.78	0.09	2.7	0.90
$z2\quad3$ 1b	1^*		3446 498653	1.0	< 0.81	419	486491 182			87.8 1128	3514	0.22	52.7	4.6	-1.1	6.0	3.6	0.04	< 0.25	2.7	3.0	1.6	0.34	0.09	4932	19.7
$z2_4$ 1b	1^*		7321 469187	1.9	1.1	110	519766 293			19.3 1065	799	0.50		40.3 < 2.3	< 0.05	6.8	0.16	0.02	0.19	5.3	1.5	0.22	0.13	0.28	1014	34.4
$z3_{1}$ 2			$<482\,521266$ 0.65 <1.3			246	477636 64.3		44.0	64.3	3.3	0.06	327	8.2	< 0.40	0.44		< 0.16 < 0.04	< 0.34	0.79	1.5	2.9		< 0.02 < 0.01	31.9	3.1
$z3_2$ 1b	$1*$		1988 505019 8.0		< 0.94 1032		486252 384		23.9	228		5.7 0.38 3583		5.1	0.62	3.9		$0.36 \le 0.03$	0.31	3.8	3.7	13.0	0.45	0.10	126	77.9
$z3_3$ 2			662 527121 1.5		-1.0	85.5	469297 122		89.7	15.9		$3.8 \leq 0.02$ 863		11.0	-1.6	0.44		$< 0.11 < 0.007$ 0.13		1.7	2.3	1.0	0.06	< 0.008	37.0	3.0
$z6_1$ 2			943 547733	0.80 < 1.2		71.2	448240 278		63.9	36.7	1068	0.15 1414		< 8.5	0.26	1.1	1.7	${<}0.05$	< 0.43	1.8	1.9	0.69	0.08	0.02	43.4	8.4
$z6_2$ 1b	1^*		968 489097 < 0.32		1.2	29.8	458528 103		11.1	24.5		$4.4 \leq 0.02$ 197		7.0	< 0.08	0.39		< 0.12 < 0.04	${<}0.30$	0.15	1.1	0.08	0.09	0.07	18.3	50948
$z6_3$ 1b $1*$			3997 482307 2.0		-11.0	128	512334 121		17.8	76.0		17.0 0.59	58.6	<3.0	< 0.38	4.6		< 0.11 0.02	< 0.40	1.5	0.74	0.10	< 0.01 0.22		682	4.2
$z6_4$ 2			978 510880 1.2 < 0.64			-259	482226 157		154 1607		978	0.13 2523		3.4	${<}0.36$	1.8	< 0.08 0.01		0.20	8.2	2.3	0.11	0.14	0.31	126	28.0
GS-38-12																										
$z1 \quad 1 \quad 4$	$\overline{4}$		280 532039 0.14 < 0.60			0.90 ₁	466533 583		502	5.8		$9.6 \le 0.06$	5.8		$39.1 \le 0.05$	0.10		< 0.07 < 0.02 < 0.15		0.10	0.30	${<}0.02$	0.05	${<}0.005$	0.47	< 0.02
$z1_2$	4 $\overline{4}$		<673577199 0.37 <2.0			3.0	416064 538		914	144		8.9 0.31			6.9 68.5 < 0.17			< 0.20 < 0.24 < 0.02	< 0.41	0.43	< 0.55	${<}0.08$	0.05	0.48	0.34	5050
z^2-1	$\overline{4}$ $\overline{4}$		$\langle 237\ 531147\quad 0.24\ \langle 0.70$				$<$ 0.29 466935 447		484	907	6.1	${<}0.02$	5.0	44.7	3.3	10.5		< 0.08 0.22	0.20	1.4	< 0.20	< 0.03	0.38	0.02	0.69	0.06
z^2 2	4 4		$<$ 391 535843 $<$ 0.35 $<$ 0.77				0.85 463063 473		186	33.7	300	1.6	14.6	49.1	0.45	0.83		$0.22 \le 0.46$	< 0.20	4.5	0.50	< 0.05	0.03	0.12	0.25	0.07
$z3 \quad 1$	4 4		$<447\,573885$ 0.45 <1.2				< 0.39 419234 848		5739	214		$1.8 \le 0.13$		23.4 48.4	< 0.10			< 0.03 < 0.15 < 0.01	${<}0.36$	0.08	1.5	< 0.05		< 0.01 < 0.01	0.93	< 0.09
$23-2$	4 4		$<$ 344 555964 $<$ 0.18 $<$ 0.88				0.46 434872 398		2210	6452		$2.2 \quad 0.45$			$19.5 \quad 45.5 \quad <0.08$	6.5		< 0.11 0.03	-1.1	0.53	4.2	0.05	0.66	${<}0.008$	13.1	7.0
$z3_\,3$	$\overline{4}$ $\overline{4}$		<237537662<0.16<0.57				0.77 459928 601		1749	6.1		$1.3 \le 0.02$	10.0		$37.1 \le 0.06$		$<0.07 <0.08$ 0.02		< 0.18	0.02	< 0.79			$\leq 0.03 \leq 0.009 \leq 0.006$	0.30	0.07
$z4$ ₋₁	4 4		$<$ 342 551091 3.5 $<$ 1.3				< 0.53 448474 242		98.8	${<}7.0$		$3.2 \leq 0.10$	3.5	36.1	-1.5	0.08		< 0.15 < 0.07	< 0.44	0.61	1.8	< 0.05 36.1		< 0.01	2.3	0.04
z4 2	$\overline{4}$ 4		341 527482 0.26 < 0.63				< 0.29 469978 329		1633	177		2.8 0.04	5.7	46.1	< 0.05	0.12		< 0.08 < 0.02	-1.5	0.01	${<}0.18$	< 0.03 0.08		${<}0.005$	0.72	0.03
$z4_\,3$	$\overline{4}$ 4		$<415\,523404$ 0.23 <0.62			2.1	474876 451		1075	147		$2.1 \le 0.09$	10.5	28.2	${<}0.32$	0.32	< 0.10 0.01		0.24		< 0.09 < 0.23	< 0.16	0.14	0.02	0.68	0.21
z4 4 4	4		$\langle 254 541609 \langle 0.36 \langle 1.1$				0.82 457238 113		780	161		6.9 0.04	7.6	71.7	0.11	1.5		< 0.12 < 0.07	0.16	0.39	${<}0.26$	0.18	0.10	<0.008	3.9	< 0.03
GS-36-04																										
z1 1 4	4		<394 529679 <0.19 <1.4				$<$ 0.54 465531	21.8	91.6 293			22.0 0.03		52.2 9.3	<0.09 422		0.49	0.03	0.12	20.2	367	< 0.04 0.47		0.01	3482	3.8
z1 2 4	-4		255 502639 0.14 2.1			8.5	496756	17.2	21.6 255			12.4 0.02		20.9 8.2	0.07		< 0.05 0.10	0.02	0.12		$0.15 \le 0.13 \le 0.02$		0.08	0.01	1.1	0.05

Concentrations are in ppm.

*Pyrite-bearing structures and pyrite textures are: 1 = disseminated; 2 = dismembered veinlet; 3 = pyrite-dominated veinlet; 4 = polymetallic breccia; 5 = pyrite stringer; 6 = quartz-dominated breccia; * = altered.*