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Regional setting and geochronology of the Late Cretaceous Banatitic Magmatic and Metallogenetic Belt

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Abstract The 1,500-km-long Banatitic Magmatic and Metallogenetic Belt (BMMB) of Romania, Serbia and Bulgaria is a complex calc-alkaline magmatic arc of Late Cretaceous age. It hosts a variety of magmatic-hydrothermal Cu, Au, Mo, Zn, Pb and Fe deposits, including Europe's only world-class porphyry-copper deposits. Regional metallogeny can be linked to subduction of the Vardar Ocean during the Late Cretaceous, as part of the closure of the Neotethys Ocean that had separated Europe and Africa in the Mesozoic. Porphyry Cu-(Au)-(Mo) and intimately associated epithermal massive sulphides dominate in the central segments of the belt in southernmost Banat (Romania), Serbia and north-west Bulgaria. These districts are the economically most important today, including major active Cu-Au mines at Moldova Nouă in Romania, Majdanpek, Veliki Krivelj and Bor in Serbia, and Elatsite, Assarel and Chelopech in Bulgaria. More numerous (and mostly mined in the past) are Fe, Cu and Zn-Pb skarns, which occur mainly at the two ends of the belt, in Eastern Bulgaria and in Romania. This paper summarises some of the deposit characteristics within the geodynamic framework of terminal Vardar subduction. Heterogeneous terranes of the belt, including the Apuseni Mountains at the western end, are aligned parallel to the Vardar front following continental collision of the Dacia and Tisza blocks. All available geochronological data (numerous K-Ar and some U-Pb and Re-Os ages) are compiled, and are complemented by a new high-precision Re-Os date for the Dognecea skarn deposit, south-west Romania (76.6 ± 0.3 Ma). These data indicate that magmatism

extended over at least 25 million years, from about 90 to 65 Ma in each segment of the belt. Within Apuseni Mountains and Banat, where magma emplacement was related to syn-collisional extension in the orogenic belt of Carpathians, ore formation seems to be restricted in time and maybe constrained by a shared tectonic event.

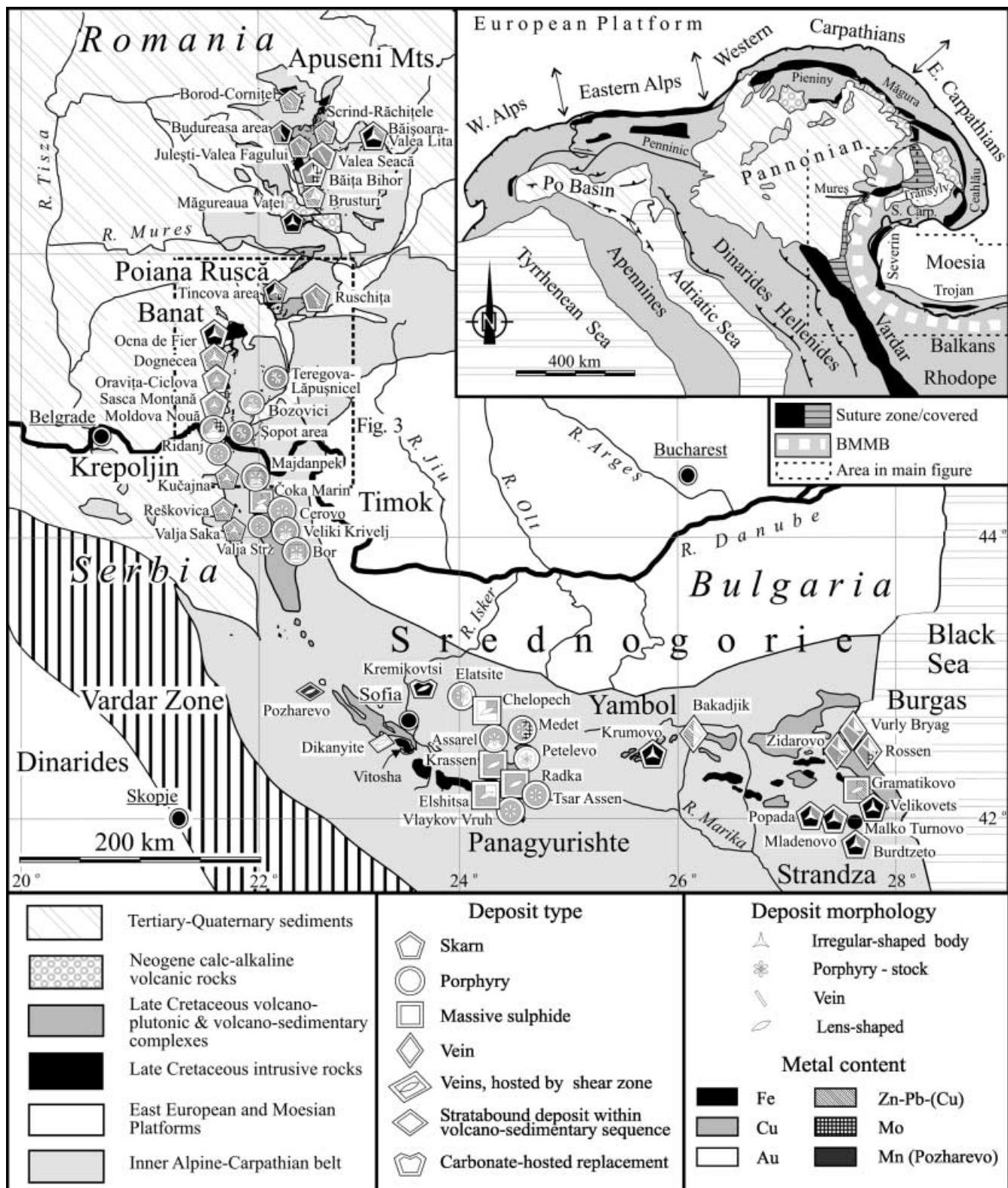
Keywords Banatitic magmatic and metallogenetic belt · Geodynamics · Late Cretaceous · Ore deposit · Re-Os dating

Introduction

The most important ore-bearing igneous belt of calc-alkaline signature within the Alpine-Balkan-Carpathian-Dinaride realm (Mitchell 1996; Janković 1997) has recently been redefined as the Banatitic Magmatic and Metallogenetic Belt, BMMB (Berza et al. 1998; Fig. 1). The BMMB extends through south-eastern central Europe, with a north-south orientation in Romania through Serbia (Yugoslavia), and an east-west-oriented belt in Bulgaria (Fig. 1). Despite gaps in the exposure of magmatic rocks and very irregularly clustered ore deposits, the BMMB can be considered almost continuous along a length of 1,500 km, with a width of 30 to 70 km. The L-shaped belt, and its contained magmatism and metallogeny, have a long-debated history since the connection between 'banatites' and adjacent deposits was first recognised in Banat and Timok in the 19th century (Von Cotta 1864). Banatite, named after the Banat province in south-western Romania, is used as a collective term for these Late Cretaceous intrusive and volcanic rocks including minor tholeiitic and alkaline, but mostly calc-alkaline, high-K calc-alkaline to shoshonitic compositions (Berza et al. 1998, and references therein; Dupont et al. 2002, this issue). The tectonic debate today is focused on the role of subduction and extension in the overall collisional evolution of the Alpine-Carpathian orogen during Late Cretaceous-Tertiary time (e.g. Linzer et al. 1998; Zweigel et al. 1998;

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Hippolyte et al. 1999; Neugebauer et al. 2001; Săndulescu and Visarion 2000). There still are conflicting geo-dynamic models for micro-plate configuration in the western Tethys (e.g. Săndulescu 1994; Stampfli et al. 1998; Stampfli and Mosar 1999), and for the kinematic

reconstruction of the region to a pre-orocinal configuration of the South Carpathians (e.g. Ratchbacher et al. 1993; Maťenco et al. 1997; Schmid et al. 1998).

Regional metallogeny and its relation to magmatism and geodynamics is unresolved, not least because of a lack

Fig. 1 Geological sketch map of part of south-eastern Europe, showing the distribution and types of main ore deposits and prospects, the principal ore districts and the Late Cretaceous magmatic provinces in the Banatitic Magmatic and Metallogenetic Belt (BMMB). Inset shows the geodynamic and structural domains of the belt within the Alpine–Balkan–Carpathian–Dinaride orogen system, with two principal sutures marked by ophiolites/flysch, interpreted as remnants of basins/segments of the Mesozoic Neotethys Ocean (e.g. Rădulescu and Săndulescu 1973; Săndulescu 1984, 1988; Linzer et al. 1998; Schmid et al. 1998; Stampfli and Mosar 1999).

of reliable geochronological data, both for the magmatic and the hydrothermal events along the entire belt. One aim of this paper, therefore, was to compile the existing geochronological data, in particular numerous K–Ar data in the Romanian, Serbian and Bulgarian literature. This compilation is a first step that may help to guide current and future studies using modern isotopic techniques, such as precise zircon dating of magmatic events by U–Pb, or direct dating of hydrothermal mineralisation by Re–Os on molybdenite or Ar–Ar dating of potassium-bearing minerals in skarn and porphyry deposits.

Geodynamic setting and magmatism

The BMMB is a linkage of magmato-metallogenetic districts that are overall discordant to mid-Cretaceous nappe structures (Cioflica and Vlad 1973). These nappe structures resulted from earlier closures of oceanic basins and collision of continental blocks (e.g. Săndulescu 1984). The main segments are, from north-west to south-east (Fig. 1), the Apuseni Mountains, the Poiana Ruscă and Banat districts (Romania), the strongly north–south-aligned Timok complex and Ridanj–Krepoljin belt (Serbia), which are separated by an apparent gap from the Srednogorie zone of Bulgaria. The complexity of magmato-metallogenetic features in the BMMB is underscored by the spectrum of geodynamic models and by disagreement between different schools of thought. Although rifting mechanisms have found proponents (Antonijević et al. 1974; Bončev 1976; Dabovski 1980; Popov 1981, 1987, 1995), subduction models now prevail.

There are two major sutures within the Carpathian–Balkan orogen, marked by two belts of ophiolites and/or flysch, which are interpreted as remnants of at least two Mesozoic ocean basins (Fig. 1 inset). To the north, remnants of the Severin Ocean are preserved along the Măgura–Ceahlău–Severin–Trojan line (Fig. 1, inset). Further south-west, the Vardar ophiolite records a second larger oceanic basin, which, together with Mureş and Transylvanian branches, may have connected to the Atlantic Ocean (e.g. Săndulescu 1984, 1988, 1994; Fig. 1, inset). Intense debate has centred on whether Late Cretaceous ‘banatite’ magmatism relates to subduction of Vardar Ocean or the Severin Ocean crust, or a combination of both.

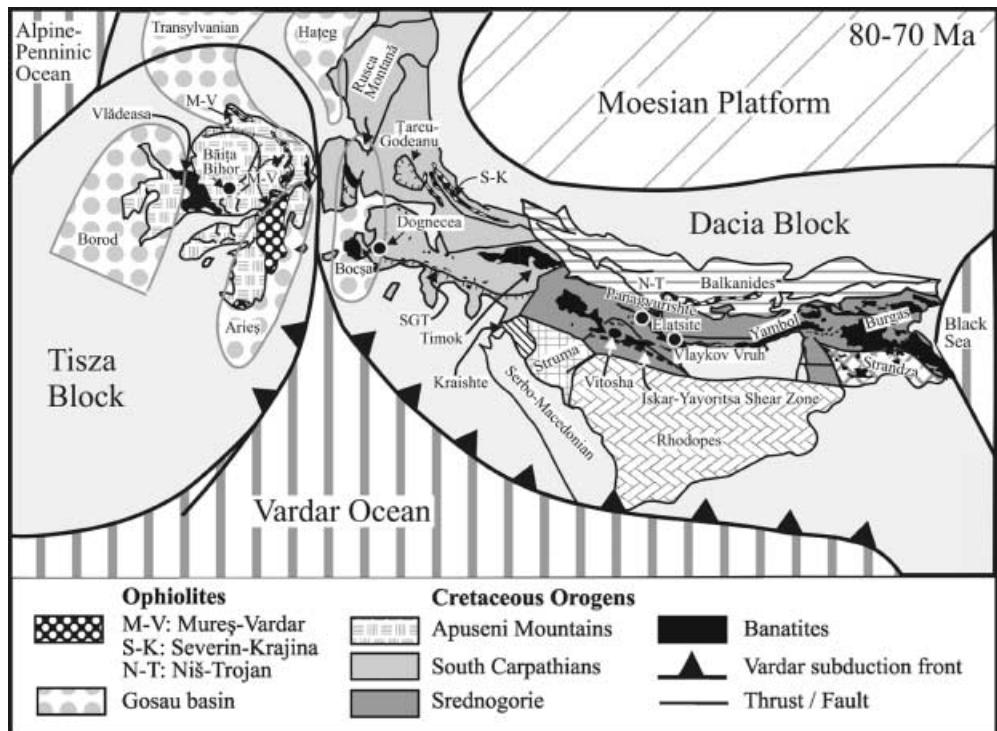
Westward subduction of rocks of the Severin basin has been invoked for banatite generation in the South

Carpathians (Rădulescu and Săndulescu 1973; Bleahu 1976; Russo-Săndulescu et al. 1978, 1984; Russo-Săndulescu and Berza 1979; Vlad 1979, 1997; Cioflica 1989). Banatites of the North Apuseni Mountains were ascribed to subduction of rocks of the Transylvanian basin (Rădulescu and Săndulescu 1973; Rădulescu et al. 1993). A model for easterly and northerly-directed subduction during Vardar ocean basin closure has also received favour (Dewey et al. 1973; Hsü et al. 1977; Burchfiel 1980; Janković and Jelenković 1997; Karamata et al. 1999). As a further possibility, Boccaletti et al. (1974) propose consumption of the Vardar Ocean already by the Early Cretaceous, and relate Late Cretaceous magmatism to slab detachment during underthrusting beneath the Rhodopes. Mantle delamination caused by slab break-off is invoked as a possible cause for magmatism in the entire belt (Berza et al. 1998). Early Cretaceous termination of Vardar subduction is consistent with later (Late Cretaceous) magma generation in an extensional regime. Neubauer (2000, 2001) ascribed magma generation to post-collisional I-type magmatism and the abundance of ore deposits within the south-eastern part of Alpine–Balkan–Carpathian–Dinaride realm (ABCD) to slab break-off of subducted lithosphere during Vardar Ocean closure. A key uncertainty remains the precise configuration and timing of Vardar subduction (e.g. Haas et al. 1995; Channell and Kozur 1997; Stampfli et al. 1998; Stampfli and Mosar 1999).

New kinematic and palaeomagnetic data for the South Carpathians (e.g. Pătrașcu et al. 1992; Bojar et al. 1998; Schmid et al. 1998) have facilitated plate reconstructions. Willingshofer (2000) considered subduction of the Severin Ocean crust to have terminated at 80–70 Ma, whereas subduction of Vardar Ocean crust was still going on. Closure of the Western Neotethys Ocean concluded by the oblique collision of the Tisza and Dacia microcontinents and the terminal stages of Vardar subduction (Fig. 2). Tisza, including the present-day Apuseni Mountains, is a block that drifted north-eastwards from the Adriatic promontory of the African continent and became attached to the European margin. In the model suggested in Fig. 2, the Apuseni Mountains are aligned with other segments of the BMMB parallel to the Vardar subduction front. Active subduction extending eastwards to the Black Sea (at that time a newly opened basin; Stampfli et al. 1998) could be the cause for magmatism along the entire belt, intruding and overlying an east–west-oriented collage of terranes along the southern border of the Moesian Platform (Fig. 2). Palaeomagnetic reconstructions support the interpretation that banatites in both the Apuseni Mountains and the South Carpathians, together with the tectonic units that they intrude, were situated within a rigid block (Tisza–Dacia block), south of Europe during the Late Cretaceous (Pătrașcu et al. 1990, 1992; Panaiotu 1998).

Crustal thickening and nappe stacking in the Apuseni Mountains (e.g. Balintoni 1998; Dallmeyer et al. 1999) and South Carpathians (e.g. Berza et al. 1994; Dallmeyer

Fig. 2 Schematic reconstruction of BMMB at 80–70 Ma, showing its E–W strike parallel to the Vardar subduction front. The position of banatites is placed on the 80–70-Ma reconstruction of the western Tethys Realm (Willingshofer 2000). ‘Gosau’ basins formed between the Apuseni Mountains and South Carpathians, adjacent to the collision zone between the two Mid-Cretaceous crustal blocks (Tisza and Dacia), are shown. Structural division in Bulgaria after IGCP Project 369 website http://www-sst.unil.ch/igcp_369/369_maps/moesia/BulgariaTecto_big.GIF. SGT Supragetic-Getic Thrust



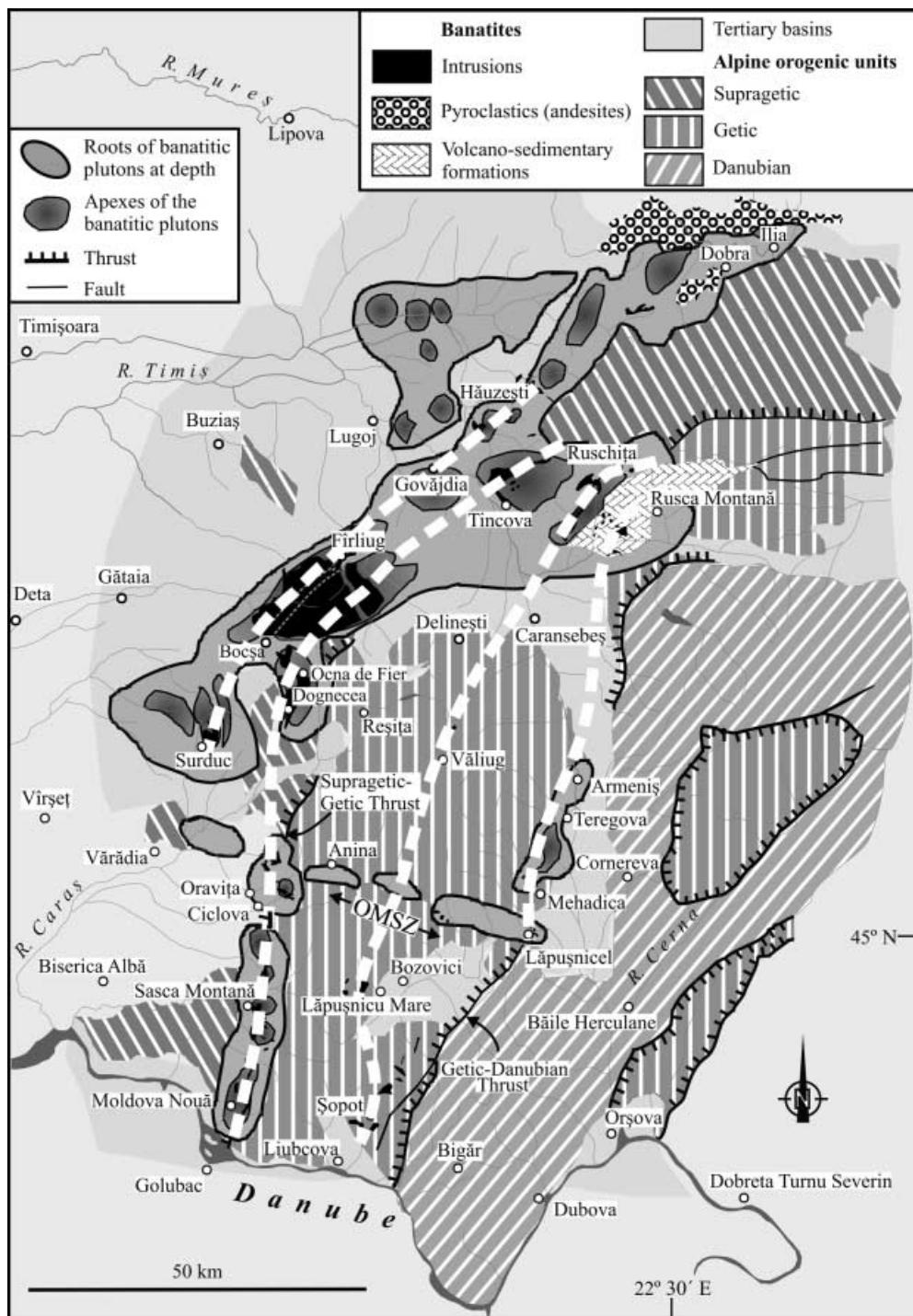
et al. 1996) resulted from Early to Mid-Cretaceous collision between the Tisza and Dacia crustal blocks. As a result, Vardar subduction was grossly coeval with gravitational collapse and rapid metamorphic core exhumation in the Late Cretaceous. This led to formation of continental ‘Gosau-type’ collapse basins (Willingshofer et al. 1999, 2001; Willingshofer 2000) in Rusca Montană, Hațeg, Arieș, Borod and Transylvania. The attending extensional regime favoured magma emplacement adjacent to these basins (Fig. 2). Interpretation of aeromagnetic and gravity maps suggests the presence of a large granite pluton beneath Bihor–Vlădeasa, along the border with the Pannonian Basin. Such data also show that magmatic rocks in parallel alignments in north-western Banat and in Poiana Ruscă (Fig. 3) are rooted at depth along the boundaries between mountain ranges and adjacent basins (Andrei et al. 1989). In the Apuseni Mountains, the interaction between pre-existing thrusts and extensional faults related to the onset of Gosau basin development played a major role in controlling emplacement of intrusions. Likewise, in Banat, emplacement was assisted by extensional reactivation of Mid-Cretaceous thrust planes.

The present L-shape of the BMMB mainly relates to post-collisional tectonics within the sutured Tisza-Dacia block, during the Tertiary. The Apuseni Mountains and South Carpathian orogens suffered Tertiary disruption and rotation in the event that generated the sinusoidal shape of the present Carpathian mountain chain (Fig. 1, inset; e.g. Csontos 1995). Palaeomagnetic data for banatites in the two mountain ranges (Pătrașcu et al. 1990, 1992; Panaiotu 1998) show clockwise rotation at

different angles because of their relative positions within the Tisza–Dacia block. Orogen-parallel extension, assisted by strike-slip faulting and dextral wrench faulting, is recognised in the South Carpathians and Moesian Platform borders (Ratchbacher et al. 1993; Schmid et al. 1998; Mațenco and Schmid 1999).

The Late Cretaceous igneous rocks of the BMMB are broadly calc-alkaline, with variably high-K to locally shoshonitic character (e.g. Drovenik et al. 1967; Boccalatti et al. 1978; Russo-Săndulescu and Berza 1979; Stanisheva-Vassileva 1980; Gunnesch 1982; Dabovski et al. 1991; Ștefan et al. 1992). Trace-element data and strontium and neodymium isotope data available for banatites support a magma source situated in the upper mantle, yet with variable local crustal contamination (e.g. Downes et al. 1995; Cioflica et al. 1996; Peycheva et al. 2001). The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ data (summarised from Berza et al. 1998; Janković and Jelenković 1997) are: 0.705–0.709 (Apuseni Mountains), 0.703–0.706 (Banat), 0.706–0.710 (Timok) and 0.704–0.705 (Srednogorie). Dupont et al. (2002, this volume) report geochemical and isotopic data from ore-related, calc-alkaline intrusions from Poiana Ruscă and Banat. They infer partial melting of heterogeneous lithospheric mantle or mafic lower crust, citing typically positive ϵ_{Nd} values (+3.9 to –0.2), concordant with data obtained by Downes et al. (1995; $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}} = +6.9$ to –2.4) and others (e.g. Cioflica et al. 1996; Peycheva et al. 2001). The magmas have all the geochemical characteristics of subduction zone magmas, but Dupont et al. (2002, this volume) speculate that the geochemical signature could also reflect an inherited previous subduction event, based on Nd model ages of about 600 Ma.

Fig. 3 Outlines of calc-alkaline plutons from Banat and Poiana Ruscă, interpreted from aeromagnetic and gravimetric data (after Andrei et al. 1989), indicating a marked structural control for emplacement of magma chambers at depth. The largest chambers in north-western Banat and in Poiana Ruscă are at the contact of mountain ranges with sedimentary basins. Intrusive rocks in southern Banat are rooted within narrow, elongate magma chambers positioned along tectonic lines including Mid-Cretaceous nappe boundaries (e.g. Supragetic-Getic Thrust, Getic-Danubian Thrust) and Late Cretaceous WNW-ESE-trending cross structures such as the Oravița-Mehadica zone (OMSZ). Dashed white lines mark the four alignments of intrusions in Banat and Poiana Ruscă (e.g. Ciocfica and Vlad 1973a)



Ore deposit distribution and characteristics

Approximately 50 mineral deposits and prospects are spatially and probably genetically associated with calc-alkaline ‘banatitic’ magmatism along the BMMB (Table 1, Fig. 1), which is the only copper-dominated belt in the ABCD orogenic system (Mitchell 1996; Janković 1997). In many deposits, copper ores are associated with important resources of gold, including at

one of Europe’s largest gold mines at Chelopech. Anomalous molybdenum is widespread, albeit in generally small amounts, but is rarely recovered. There is a strong correlation between the host rock types (notably volcanic rocks, carbonates) and deposit type, and probably with the depth of magma emplacement. Subvolcanic environments with preserved extrusive rocks are the preferred setting for porphyry-style Cu ± Au ± Mo systems, as exemplified by the large deposits in the Timok and Panagyurishte ore districts. A ‘massive

Table 1 Principal mineral deposits and prospects in the BMMB. Deposits given in *italics* are currently active gold exploration areas. Size (category): *1* < 1 Mt; *2* 1–5 Mt; *3* 5–20 Mt; *4* 20–100 Mt; *5* 100–500 Mt; *6* > 500 Mt. Tonnages marked with * are our rough estimates based on published maps and sections. Production figures for Valea Seacă (Poșepin 1874 fide Stoici 1983); 270 t Cu; 373 t Pb; 18.41 t Ag; 13.7 kg Au. Mine production figures for Bulgarian deposits (after Milev et al. 1996): Pozharevo (1907–1976): 0.24 Mt; Kremikovtsi (1951–1994): 41 Mt; Assarel (1976–1995): 52.5 Mt; Medet (1964–1973): 1.63 Mt; Krassen (1964–1993): 0.3 Mt; Radka (1942–1994): 6.4 Mt; Elshitsa (1952–1995: 2.47 Mt Cu ore; Vlaykov Vruh (1962–1979): 9.8 Mt; Zidarovo (1978–1990): 0.7 Mt; Rosen (1943–1994): 7.5 Mt; Gramatikovo (1960–1990): 1.4 Mt; Burdzevo (1960–1993): 3.2 Mt; Propada Cu-ore production: 1.7 Mt; Mladenov: 0.9 Mt. Other sources of information used: Borcos et al. (1984, 1998), Kozelj and Jelenkovic (2001)

Status	Deposit type	Commodities		Deposit size			Selected references
		Major	Minor	Category	Total (Mt)	Reserves (Mt)	
Romania							
North Apuseni Mts.							
Borod-Cornițel	Prospect	Bréccias, veins, skarn features	Zn-Pb-(Cu)	Au, Ag			Berbeleac et al. (1980)
Vlădeasa Massif Budureasa area	Prospect	Skarns, irregular Veins, stratiform sulphide lenses	Zn-Pb-(Cu), Fe Zn-Pb-(Cu)	Au, Ag, As			Istrate and Udubasa (1981) Gheorghiescu et al. (1980)
Serind-Răchițele	Prospect						
Gilau Massif Bâisoara-Valea Lita	In production	Fe skarn	Fe, Zn-Pb	B	3	ca. 20*	ca. 30 Fe*
Bihor Massif Julești-Valea Fagului	Prospect 1815–1858	Veins, skarn features Cu skarn, veins Cu-(Mo)	Cu, Zn-Pb Cu, Ag-Pb, Au Cu, Mo, Zn-Pb	Au, Ag Bi Au, Bi, W, B, wollastonite pipes	<1*		Lăzări and Întorsureanu (1981)
Valea Seacă							
Băița Bihor	In production				2	5 ^a	See footnote
Brusturi	Prospect	Veins, skarn features	Zn-Pb-(Cu), Au	As	3 ^a	0.56 Cu, 1.06 Zn, 0.46 Pb, 0.09 Mo, 0.064 Bi ^a , 1–2 Au (?)	Ciofica et al. (1971), Ciofica et al. (1977); Stoici (1983)
South Apuseni Mts. Măgureaua Vatei	Prospect	Skarn, irregular	Fe				
Poiana Ruscă Ruschija	Closed 1999	Zn-Pb skarn	Zn-Pb		1–2 (?)*	<5*	
Tineova area	Prospect	Skarns, porphyry Cu-(Mo)	Fe, Zn-Pb, Cu	Mo, Bi, W			
Banat Ocnă de Fier	Closed 1993	Fe-(Cu) skarn	Fe, Cu	Zn-Pb, B	3	13 ^b	Kissling (1967); Nicolescu and Cornell (1999); Cook and Ciobanu (2001)
					0.5 Cu ^b	30–35 Fe,	

Dogncea	Closed 1989	Zn–Pb skarn	Zn–Pb	Cu, Ag	2	2 ^b	3.69 Zn, 1.92 Pb ^b	Vlad (1974)
<i>Oranijs-Ciclova</i>	Past producer	Cu skarn, porphyry features	Cu, Zn–Pb	Au, Mo, W	2 (?)	5*	Gheorghiescu (1975); Ciofica and Vlad (1981); Constantinescu et al. (1988)	
Sasca Montană	Closed 1998	Cu skarn, porphyry features	Cu, Zn–Pb	Au, Mo	2 (?)	5*	Constantinescu (1980)	
Moldova Nouă	In production	Porphyry Cu–(Au)/Mo, skarn features	Cu, Au, Mo	Fe, Zn–Pb, As	5	400–500 ^a	300–400 ^a	Gheorghiescu (1972); Gheorghīă (1974)
	Closed 1998	Cu skarn (Florimunda sector)						
Teregova-Lăpușnicel	Prospect	Porphyry Cu, veins	Cu, Mo					Gunnesch (1982)
Bozovici	Prospect	Porphyry Cu–(Au), veins	Cu, Au					Gunnesch (1982)
<i>Sopot area</i>	Prospect	Porphyry Cu, veins	Cu					Gunnesch (1982); Ciofica et al. (1992a)
Serbia	Ridani-Krepoljin Belt	Prospect ?	Porphyry Cu Skarns	Cu Zn–Pb, Cu	Ag			
	Ridanj	Prospect	Skarns	Zn–Pb, Cu				Janković (1990); Karamata et al. (1997a)
	Kučajna							
Reškovica	Bor District/Timok Massif	Prospect	Zn–Pb skarns	Zn–Pb				
	Valja Saka	On standby	LS epithermal, porphyry Cu–(Au)	Cu, Au	Mo, Ag, PGE	6	850–1,000 ^c > 512 ^d	0.4 Cu, 0.25 Au ^c
Majdanpek		In production	Zn–Pb		Pyrite			
Coka Marin	Prospect	Stratiform sulphide lenses	Zn–Pb, Cu, Au	Ag				Janković (1990); Karamata et al. (1997b)
<i>Valja Strž</i>	Prospect	Porphyry Cu (low grade)	Cu					Janković et al. (1998)
Bor District/Timok Massif	<i>Cerovo area</i>	In production	Porphyry Cu (7 structures, of which three with cementation zones)	Cu	Ag	5–6	> 500 (?) ^d	< 1 Cu ^d
								Janković (1990); Cocić et al. (2001)

Table 1 (Contd.)

	Status	Deposit type	Commodities		Deposit size			Selected references	
			Major	Minor	Category	Total (Mt)	Reserves (Mt)		
Bor	In production	Porphyry Cu, skarn features	Cu	Au, Ag	6	750 ^c	0.44 Cu ^c	Jelenković and Vakanjac (1999)	
	Past production	HS epithermal Cu, VMS features	Cu, Au	Ag, Se	6			Milčić and Grujić (1980); Janković et al. (1980), (1998)	
	In production	Stockwork Cu-(Au)	Cu, Au			540	0.67 Cu, 0.2 Au ^c		
	Future reserves	Porphyry Cu (below stockwork)	Cu						
Bulgaria	Pozharevo	Past producer	Stratiform	Mn	1	0.24 ^e (prod) 100*	ca. 28 Mn ^e	Bogdanov (1982)	
	Kremikovtsi	In production	Replacement or SEDEX type	Fe, barite	4–5		ca. 30 Fe ^e	Bogdanov (1982)	
	Dikanyite	Prospect	Shear zone hosted	Au	Base metals			http://www.heteward.com	
	Panagyurishte District	In production	Porphyry Cu-Au	Cu, Au	Mo, PGE	5	> 300 ^e	0.33 Cu, 0.25 Au ^e	
Chelopech	Elatsite	In production	HS epithermal Au-Cu, VMS features	Au, Cu	Ag	4	50–60*	1.24 Cu, 3.38 Au ^f	
	Assarel	In production	Porphyry Cu-(Au)	Cu, Au	Ag	5	300 ^e	0.44 Cu, 0.2 Au ^c	
	Medet	Closed 1993	Porphyry Cu-Mo	Cu, Mo	W	5	200 ^c	0.34 Cu, 0.1 Mo ^c	
	Krassen	Closed 1973	HS epithermal Cu, VMS features	Cu	Au, Ag	1	0.3 ^e (prod)	Angelkov and Parvanov (1980); Bogdanov (1987)	
Petelevo			Au cap on low-grade porphyry Cu	Au	Cu			See Bogdanov (1987); Strashimirov and Popov (2000) and references therein	
	Radka	Closed 1994	IS epithermal Cu, VMS features	Cu	Au	3	8–10 ^e		
	Tsar Assen Elshitsa	Past producer 1952–1995	Porphyry Cu LS epithermal Cu-(Au), VMS features	Cu, Au, pyrite	Au, Ag	3	ca 10 ^e 6–10 ^e	1.03 Cu ^e	

Vlaykov Vruh Yambol District Krumovo	Closed 1980	Porphyry Cu	Cu	Au	3	ca. 10 ^e	Bogdanov (1982); Ivanova-Panayotova (1974) Borev (1974); Bogdanov (1987)
	Past producer	Fe skarn	Fe	B	3	ca. 20 ^e	
Bakadjik	Past producer	Epithermal Au-Zn-Pb veins	Au, Zn-Pb	Cu	2	2 ^f	45 Fe ^e
	Past producer	Cu-Zn-Pb- (Au) veins	Cu, Zn-Pb, Au	Bi	3	ca. 10 ^e	
Burges District Zidarovo	Past producer	Cu-Zn-Pb- (Au) veins	Cu, Zn-Pb, Au	Bi	3	ca. 10 ^e	Bogdanov et al. (1994); Tarkian and Breskovska (1995)
	Past producer	Cu-(Au) veins	Cu	Au	3	ca. 10 ^e	
Vurly Bryag	Past producer	Cu-Mo- (Au) veins	Cu, Mo	Au, Bi	3	ca. 10 ^e	Bogdanov (1987)
	Past producer	(Au) veins			3	ca. 10 ^e	
Rossen	Past producer	Cu-(Au) veins	Cu, Mo	Au, Bi	3	ca. 10 ^e	Bogdanov (1987)
	Past producer	(Au) veins			3	ca. 10 ^e	
Malko Turnovo District Gramatikovo	Past producer	Stratiform sulphide lenses (VMS?)	Cu, Zn-Pb		2	1.4 ^e (prod)	Bogdanov (1982, 1987)
	Past producer	Fe-(Cu) skarn	Fe, Cu	B	2	3.2 ^e (prod)	
Burdzeto	Past producer	Cu-Fe skarn	Cu, Fe		2	3.2 ^e (prod)	Bogdanov (1982, 1987)
	Past producer	Cu-Fe skarn	Cu, Fe		2	3.2 ^e (prod)	
Propada Mladenovo Velikovets	Past producer	Fe skarn	Fe		2	1.7 ^e (prod)	Bogdanov (1987)
	Past producer	Fe skarn	Fe		2	0.9 ^e (prod)	
	Past producer	Fe skarn	Fe		2	2 ^e (prod)	Bogdanov (1987)

^aSources of deposit tonnage/grade data: Minvest SA (<http://www.toptech.ro/minvest>)

^bCook and Ciobanu (2001)

^cMutschler et al. (1999)

^dBor Copper Institute

^eMilev et al. (1996)

^fNavan Resources PLC

sulphide' type of epithermal deposit, commonly, but not always, of high-sulphidation affinity, is intimately associated with porphyries in the same parts of the belt, rarely forming a continuum as seen in the Bor and Majdanpek ore fields (Sillitoe 1980; Janković et al. 1998). Several porphyry and epithermal deposits are enriched in platinum-group elements (Majdanpek: Janković et al. 1998; Elatsite: Petrunov et al. 1992; Petrunov and Dragov 1993; Tarkian et al. 1999), and are comparable with some deposits from the western Pacific margin (e.g. Tarkian and Stribrny 1999). Bismuth sulphosalts, conspicuously without antimony-bearing phases, are present in virtually all BMMB deposits, and in some they form significant concentrations (e.g. Băița Bihor, Ocna de Fier, Zidarovo; Žák et al. 1994; Tarkian and Breskovska 1995; Bogdanov and Vavelidis 2000; Ciobanu and Cook 2000a).

Skarn deposits

Skarn is the most frequent type of mineralisation along the BMMB (Tables 1 and 2, Fig. 1). Iron skarns are prominent in ore districts at the two ends of the belt, in south-western Romania and in eastern Bulgaria (Fig. 1, Table 1). Significant copper ores were exploited from iron skarns in Malko Turnovo near the Black Sea (Table 1), where early magnesium skarn associated with magnetite is overprinted by garnet pyroxene skarn and later chalcopyrite + pyrite + molybdenite (Bogdanov 1987). Forsterite skarn hosting a magnetite–chalcopyrite–bornite ore assemblage, with a characteristic Fe–Cu–Co–Bi–Ag–Sn–Te–Se–Au geochemical signature, forms an inner Cu–Fe core at the Ocna de Fier deposit. Cook and Ciobanu (2001) considered this to typify fluid plume mineralisation in a proximal skarn setting. Copper and Cu–(Mo) skarn deposits and small prospects, often with peripheral Zn–Pb–(Cu) veins with skarn and breccia features, are characteristic in the western part of Apuseni Mountains. Such spatial variation in metallogeny is interpreted in terms of pluton-derived zonation (Cioclica et al. 1982; ř Stefan et al. 1988). Similarly, the Banat district includes the full range of skarn deposits (Table 1), with small copper-rich skarns grading into porphyries or apical porphyries with skarn halos. Several authors (Vlad 1979, 1997; Cioclica et al. 1992a, 1992b) have attempted to correlate deposit types and magmatism in the Banat district to a regional zonation away from a subduction front. Zinc–lead skarns form distal parts of deposits or ore fields (Table 2) and rarely occur as isolated economic deposits (Fig. 1). The skarn affiliation of some of these Zn–Pb lenses in schists has been questioned because they commonly lack spatial relationships to proximal skarns (e.g. Ruschița; Kräutner 1996) or even intrusive rocks (e.g. Scrind-Răchiile; Gheorghiescu et al. 1980).

Most skarns are located at the immediate contacts with their causative intrusions (Table 2). Highest temperature (~ 750 °C) skarns are usually barren, but may contain

exotic mineral assemblages. Gehlenite-bearing skarns occur at Oravița–Ciclova (e.g. Constantinescu et al. 1988) and melilite-bearing-skarns are known at Măgureaua Vaței (e.g. Marincea et al. 2001; Pascal et al. 2001). Ludwigite (Marincea 1999, 2000) is a common accessory mineral in the magnesian parts of most iron skarns (Table 2). Ludwigite and other boron-rich minerals, such as szaibelyite (Marincea 2001), form significant concentrations in the Cu–(Mo) skarn at Băița Bihor. Exploitation of lithological contacts results in laterally extensive skarn ore fields with large-scale metal zonation (Table 2). Cioclica et al. (1977) described Mo → Cu → Zn–Pb deposit zoning in the Băița Bihor district, where molybdenum is enriched closest to the magmatic fluid source. Ciobanu and Cook (2000b) considered that metal zoning (Cu–Fe → Fe → Zn–Pb) in the Ocna de Fier–Dogenecea ore field is centred surrounding a single subjacent granodiorite in the deepest part of the Ocna de Fier deposit. Fluid infiltration along the contact between Mesozoic limestone and Precambrian schist in the ore field resulted in the distal formation of the Zn–Pb skarn at the Dognecea deposit, 5 km from the igneous source at the Ocna de Fier deposit. Nicolescu and Cornell (1999) derived a 10-km depth for metal deposition in the ore field based on silicate geobarometry of hornfels, but textural observations indicate a maximum depth about 5 km (Ciobanu and Cook 2001).

Porphyry-style and epithermal Cu–(Au–Mo) deposits

The two major metallogenetic districts in the central part of the BMMB (Bor in Serbia; Panagyurishte in Bulgaria) both contain hypabyssal intrusions together with approximately coeval volcanic ore host rocks. Deposits have dominantly porphyry-style characteristics, with associated epithermal deposits of low-, intermediate- and high-sulphidation type (Fig. 1, Tables 1, 3 and 4). Moldova Nouă, a significant porphyry district in southernmost Banat, lacks volcanic rocks and is associated with small copper skarns rather than epithermal veins. Significant differences between the Bor and Panagyurishte districts include the apparently greater vertical extent of mineralisation in Bor, and the exposure of the porphyritic intrusion adjacent or close to mineralisation in Panagyurishte (Strashimirov and Popov 2000). In some of the largest deposits of the Bor district, causative intrusions are only inferred at depth (e.g. Janković et al. 1998).

In the Bor district, porphyry-style mineralisation occurs in a variety of styles and at various locations as stockworks in plutonic cupolas (Valja Strž), at the same level as dyke swarms above intrusions (Veliki Krivelj; Jelenković and Vakanjac 1999), and as stockworks above intrusions, but below high-sulphidation epithermal ores (Bor; Janković 1990). At Majdanpek, the largest-tonnage copper deposit in the BMMB, porphyry-style vein stockworks are fault controlled above an inferred intrusion, with adjacent low-sulphidation epithermal veins and skarn ores (Janković et al. 1998).

The Zn–Pb–Cu–Au–Ag prospect at Čoka Marin in the Bor district (Janković 1990; Karamata et al. 1997b) is not associated with porphyry mineralisation and resembles a syngenetic volcanogenic massive sulphide (VMS) deposit. Large, but, so far, subeconomic porphyry systems extend as far north as Poiana Ruscă. Clusters of prospects in Poiana Ruscă, between Tincova and Ruschița at the border to present-day Rusca Montană, and along the Șopot–Teregova–Lăpușnicel alignment in southern Banat (Fig. 1), have been described as apical porphyries with pyrite halos and/or porphyries with skarn halos (Cioflica et al. 1985, 1995; Cioflica 1989).

In Panagyurishte (Bogdanov 1980, 1987), a pairing of porphyry deposits adjacent to epithermal ‘massive sulphide’ deposits is characteristic. These include the Elatsite porphyry near Chelopech, Petelevko near Krassen, Tsar Assen near Radka and Vlaykov Vruh near Elshitsa (Tables 3 and 4; Kouzmanov et al. 2002; Bonev et al. 2002, this volume). The sulphidation character, however, is high at Chelopech and Krassen, intermediate at Radka and low at Elshitsa. The Medet–Assarel ore field contains only porphyry deposits (Strashimirov et al. 2002, this volume). Stockworks show a variety of positions relative to causative porphyries, either within the intrusion (Medet), along the contact between intrusion and basement (Elatsite) or volcanic rocks (Assarel), or even distal to the intrusion (Petelevko). The porphyry copper deposit at Elatsite is moderately gold-rich and contains a rare assemblage of Co–Bi–Ag–Sn–Te–Se–Au-bearing minerals, as well as PGM, in massive magnetite–bornite ore at the core of the porphyry system (Dragov and Petrunov 1996; Kouzmanov et al. 2000; Strashimirov et al. 2002, this volume).

Considerable debate has focused on the origin of the ‘massive sulphide’ character of these epithermal deposits in volcanic settings. Collomorph textures, laminations and the apparent bedding parallel distribution of pyrite observed in Bor and in the Panagyurishte districts have been taken as evidence for the deposition of at least some of the sulphide minerals by submarine exhalative processes within the volcanic–sedimentary pile. This was followed by epithermal overprinting by Cu- and Au-rich fluids related to porphyry systems (e.g. Janković 1990; Petrunov 1995; Bogdanov et al. 1997; Tsonev et al. 2000). Sillitoe et al. (1996) described Bor as an example of a “high sulphidation deposit in the volcanogenic massive sulphide environment”. The high sulphidation character with advanced argillic alteration, sulphate minerals and enargite in the largest deposits (Bor, Chelopech, Krassen) encourages comparison with the Pacific Rim (e.g. Lepanto, Philippines; Hedenquist et al. 1998), suggesting a genetic link between porphyries and epithermal deposits. Fluid inclusion and isotope studies at Chelopech (Moritz et al. 2001) and elsewhere in the Panagyurishte district (Kouzmanov et al. 2001a, 2002, this volume) are consistent with such a link, but the presence or the genetic significance of a precursor syngenetic VMS stage is unclear.

Extensive Cu–(Au–Mo) vein systems are known only from the unique alkaline volcanic-hosted setting in the Yambol and Burgas districts in eastern Bulgaria. Large ring-caldera structures are preserved that host small, but rich ores, with considerable enrichment in trace metals, e.g. very high Bi contents of Cu–Au veins at Zidarovo (Tarkian and Breskovska 1995) and high Mo–Co ± W content in Cu–Pb–Zn veins at Rossen.

Geochronology

All available whole rock and mineral ages (mostly K–Ar, with some whole-rock Rb–Sr and U–Pb zircon data) for magmatic rocks of the BMMB have been compiled in order to better understand the timing of magmatism and ore formation across the belt. In addition, we report a new Re–Os age for molybdenite in Zn–Pb skarn from the Dognecea deposit, in an effort to constrain the age of mineralisation and its relationship to the Ocna de Fier–Dognecea intrusion. Our compilation (Table 5, Fig. 4) shows a range between 110 and 38 Ma, with some 80% of the ages falling between 85 and 65 Ma.

Different analytical methods have been used in the isotopic age determinations and it is likely that some of the considerable variation relates to problems with the techniques employed, rather than to real ages of the samples. Consistently narrower age intervals were calculated from data obtained using fast neutron activation for potassium concentrations and thermal neutron activation (NA) for radiogenic argon determination by the Institute of Nuclear Physics and Engineering Laboratory (INPE), Bucharest (e.g. Soroiu et al. 1986; Strutinski et al. 1986). Ages calculated from radiogenic argon data obtained by isotope dilution (ID) determined at the Institute of Geology and Geophysics (IGG), Bucharest (e.g. Kräutner et al. 1986; Russo-Săndulescu et al. 1986), show a shift towards younger and commonly wider age ranges. For Rusca Montană, the NA data of Strutinski et al. (1986) are systematically older than the ID data of Kräutner et al. (1986) for the same intrusions. Because of problems with excess argon, the inclusion of altered rocks in many data sets, and K–Ar resetting well after the time of emplacement, we appreciate that many of the K–Ar ages in our compilation, particularly those determined at IGG, should be used with caution.

Duration of magmatic activity

Nevertheless, the dataset (Table 5, Fig. 4) is representative of both the spatial distribution and types of magmatites, and thus can help to characterise the approximate age and lifetime of the belt. The oldest rock is the gabbro at Hăuzești, Poiana Ruscă (Cioflica et al. 1994; 110–92 Ma). Opinions differ concerning the youngest ages obtained for banatites. These cluster between 65–60 Ma, and a few are even Eocene. The

Table 2 Characteristics of BMMB skarns. *Pz* Palaeozoic; *T* Triassic; *J* Jurassic; *KI* Early Cretaceous; *Grt* garnet; *Di* diopside; *Px* pyroxene; *Wo* wollastonite; *Ves* vesuvianite; *Ep* epidote; *Hd* hedenbergite; *Tr* tremolite; *Fe* forsterite; *Ser* serpentine; *Lud* ludwigite; *Geh* gehlenite; *Cld* chondrodite; *Chu* clinohumite; *Szb* szaibelyite; *Ch* chondrite; *Py* pyrite; *Po* pyrrhotite; *Hm* haematite; *Bn* bornite; *Mt* magnetite; *Sp* sphalerite; *Mol* molybdenite; *Cp* chalcopyrite; *Bn* bornite; *Gn* galena; *Sch* scheelite

Skarn type	Deposit	Carbonaceous protolith		Causative intrusive	Morphology/ characteristics	Skarn mineralogy		Ore mineralogy	Deposit/ore field zoning
		Basement	Sedimentary			Calcic	Magnesian		
Fe	Băişoara								
Fe-(Cu)	Ocna de Fier	J-K1							
Fe	Krumovo	Precambrian	Pz, T, J	?	Granodiorite irregular bodies, Grt, Di at intrusive contact	Fo (Ser), Lud	Mt, Py, Po, (Mol)		
Fe-(Cu)	Vělikovets Bardzeto		Carbonate and carbonate/pelitic sediments	?	Granodiorite At limestone/intrusive contact	Grt, Px Grt, Px	Fo (Ser), Lud Fo (Ser), Lud	Mt, Cp, Py, (Mol)	
Fe-(Cu)	Popada			Monzodiorite/diorite	At limestone/gabbro contact	Grt, Px		Mt, Cp, Py, (Mol)	
Fe-(Cu)	Mladenvovo			Monzodiorite/diorite	Lenses at limestone/gabbro contact	Grt, Px		Mt, Cp, Py, (Mol)	
Cu	Valea Seacă			Granodiorite	At dike contact, Grt, Di structural control			Cp, Mt, (Mol)	
Cu-(Mo)-(Zn-Pb)	Băița Bihor		T carbonate/dolomite with siliceous levels Pz and J-K1 carbonate and carbonate/pelitic sediments	Granite/granodiorite intersected in deep drill holes	5-km strike, pipes, along siliceous level between carbonate/dolomite	Grt, Di, Wo, Ves	Fo (Ser), Lud, Chd, Chu	Cp, Bn, Mol, Sp, Gn, Sch	Mo/Cu/Zn-Pb
Cu	Oravița-Ciclova			Monzodiorite, diorite, gabbro	Lenses at intrusive contacts, porphyry features	Grt, Di, Ves, Geh		Cp, Po, Py, (Mol), Sch	
Cu	Sasca Montană			Monzodiorite, diorite granodiorite	Lenses at intrusive contacts, porphyry features	Grt, Di, Ves		Cp, Po, Py, (Mol)	
Cu	Florimunda (Moldova Nouă)			Granodiorite	Irregular bodies at limestone/intrusive contact	Grt, Di		Cp, Mt, Py	
Zn-Pb	Valea Lita (Băișoara)	Precambrian		Granodiorite	Lenses in schist, distal to Băișoara	Ep		Sp, Gn, Py	

Zn–Pb–(Fe)	Ruschița	Palaeozoic	Granodiorite/diorite? skarn	Lenses in schist, Ep breccia-Git	Sp, Gn, Hm
Zn–Pb	Dogenecea	J-K1	Granodiorite Amass and chimneys at limestone/ schist contact, distal to Ocna de Fier	Hd, Tr, Wo	Sp, Gn, Py, (Mol)
Zn–Pb	Majdanpek– Tenkal, Severni River	J-K1	Unknown, at depth (?)	Irregular bodies at limestone/ dacite contact, distal to intrusive	Sp, Gn, Py

youngest age (38 ± 3 Ma) is from a dyke in the Timok Massif (Janković et al. 1981). Some authors (Soroiu et al. 1986; Strutinski et al. 1986) contend that Late Cretaceous–earliest Palaeocene magmatic activity lasted no longer than 10–15 million years and dismiss the young ages as a consequence of alteration and subsequent rejuvenation. Other authors (e.g. Russo-Săndulescu et al. 1984, 1986; Kräutner et al. 1986; Cioclica et al. 1995) argue for a longer BMMB span of 30 million years or more, extending into the Palaeocene–Eocene.

Apart from questionable evidence for plutonic activity extending into the Palaeogene, there are several datasets for dyke swarms that are distinctly and systematically younger than Late Cretaceous. These represent intermediate composition rocks from the eastern Apuseni Mountains (Lemne et al. 1983) and alkali mafic and lamprophyre dykes from northern and eastern Poiana Rusca (Kräutner et al. 1986; Downes et al. 1995). Their real significance is supported by the observation that ages of dykes related to older intrusive bodies, e.g. in Bihor (Bleahu et al. 1984) or Tincova-Izvodia (Cioclica et al. 1987a), are similar to those of their parent intrusion. This strongly suggests at least two periods of dyke emplacement, with the younger dyke suites reflecting a separate magmatic pulse recorded most consistently in the Apuseni Mountains or at Poiana Rusca. This northern segment of the BMMB is characterised by thickened crust and strong Tertiary tectonism, which are related to Pannonian basin evolution. Therefore, the presence of younger dykes could be assigned to re-activation of magmatic activity caused by later tectonics, rather than to a final stage of banatitic magmatism sensu stricto. Late dykes with ages of 61–39 Ma also have been reported from easternmost Serbia (Jovanović et al. 2001) and adjacent parts of Bulgaria (45–42 Ma; Harkovska et al. 2001). These dykes, positioned near the junction of the South Carpathians, Balkans and Serbo-Macedonian Massif (Fig. 2) may have resulted from later tectonic events.

Although both the lower and upper limits remain unresolved, the available K–Ar dataset gives a broad 25-million-year interval (~90 to ~65 Ma), for the main magmatic activity in the BMMB. The uncertainty regarding lower and upper limits is at least partially caused by analytical precision, but also to the inability of the K–Ar method to address specific problems such as excess argon and the cooling history versus time of emplacement and later tectonic rejuvenation.

The dataset shows that the ages for any given mode of magmatism (e.g. intrusions, lavas or dyke suites) across the area tend to overlap for each segment (Table 5, Fig. 4). The data distribution actually shows a similar interval (10–20 million years, sometimes as much as 30 million years) for each massif, ore field or even for clusters of small intrusions (e.g. Poiana Rusca). This is sustained by field observations, which demonstrate the composite nature of most intrusive bodies and the fact that they are cut and surrounded by dense dyke swarms. There is no obvious correlation between composition

Table 3 Characteristics of BMMB porphyry deposits. *K*2 Upper Cretaceous; *Mt* magnetite; *Py* pyrite; *Bn* bornite; *Cp* chalcopyrite; *Mol* molybdenite; *Gn* galena; *PGM* platinum group minerals; *En* enargite; *Cov* covellite; Alteration: *X* major or dominant; *x* subordinate

Type	Deposit	Host rock			Deposit characteristics	Alteration	Ore mineralogy		Related veins			
			Basement				Potassic	Argillic				
			Schist	Granite								
Cu-(Au)- (Mo)	Suvorov, Valea Mare; Vărăd (Moldova)	X		Granodiorite	Intrusive centred, skarn features and halo	X	X		Cp, Py, Mol, Cp, Py			
Cu-(Au)	Maidanpek- Dolovi I	X	X	Unknown	Above intrusive, at same level as massive sulphides	X			Cp, Py, PGM, (Mol)			
Cu	Cerovo	X		Unknown	Cementation zone	X	X					
Cu	Veliki Krivej	X		Unknown	At the dyke swarm level, skarn features	X	X		Cp, Py, (Mol)			
Cu-(Au)	Bor	X		Unknown	Above intrusive, below massive sulphides	X	X		En, Cov, Cp, Py			
Cu-Au	Elatsite	X	X	X	Monzonite/ diorite?	X	X	Mt, Bn, PGM	Cp, Py, (Mol)			
Cu-Mo	Medet			X	Monzo- diorite intrusive?	X	X		Cp, Mol, Py			
Cu-(Au)	Assarel	X	X	X	Granodior- ite?	X	X		Cp, Py, (Mol)			
Cu	Tsar Assen			X	Granodiorite	X	X	Cp	Cp, Gn, Cp			
Cu	Vlaykov Vruh	X	X	X	Intrusive- centred	X	X		Cp, Py, (Mol)			
					Apical	X	X		Cp, Py, (Mol)			

Table 4 Characteristics of BMMB epithermal massive sulphide deposits. *P* pyrite; *Bn* bornite; *Cp* chalcopyrite; *En* enargite; *Gp* gypsum; *Anh* anhydrite. *LS* low-sulphidation; *HS* high-sulphidation; *VMS* intermediate-sulphidation; *IS* massive sulphide

Type	Deposit	Volcano-plutonic	Upper Cretaceous host rock	Volcano-sedimentary	Relationship to porphyry	Deposit characteristics	Ore mineralogy	Gangue
Cu, pyrite	Majdanpek	Within andesite			Adjacent and above porphyry at depth	LS, VMS-features	Cp, Py, Bn	
Cu	Bor	Within andesite lava			Above stockwork and porphyry at depth	HS, VMS-features	Bn, Cp, En, Py	Anh, Gp
Au-Cu	Chelopech				Unknown porphyry	HS, VMS and breccia features	Cp, Bn, En, Py	Anh, Gp
Cu	Krassen				Satellite to Petelevo porphyry	HS, VMS-features	Cp, En, Py	Anh
Cu	Radka				Satellite to Tsar porphyry	IS, VMS-features	Cp, Bn, Py, En	Gp
Cu-(Au)-pyrite	Elshitsa				Satellite to Vlaykov Vruh porphyry (1 km along a fault strike)	LS, VMS-features	Cp, Py	Gp, Anh

(i.e. mafic or felsic) in the dyke suites and age; lamprophyres or aplites can be of similar ages. There is, however, a positive correlation between magmatic evolution and age datasets in individual fields in north-western Banat (e.g. Russo-Săndulescu et al. 1986). Illustrative of this pattern are the Surduc and Bocşa Massifs, in which older ages are obtained for the primitive, alkali mafic units relative to younger, more evolved granodiorites. A similar trend is shown for the Hăuzeşti intrusion, where an evolution from mafic to intermediate magma is mirrored in the age data (Cioflica et al. 1994).

Soroiu et al. (1986) attempted to prove the temporal-zonal distribution of banatites (Russo-Săndulescu et al. 1986; Cioflica et al. 1994) relative to arc evolution by dating rocks from across southern Banat. Data from the three main lineaments suggest no temporal zoning of banatite distribution, with similar age ranges for each alignment (Figs. 3 and 4).

Timing of hydrothermal ore formation

There are currently very few direct ages for mineralisation in the BMMB. Data are limited to a K–Ar age for hydrothermal phlogopite from the Băița Bihor Cu–Mo skarn deposit of 76 ± 3 Ma (Bleahu et al. 1984), a very similar Re–Os molybdenite age for the Dogenecea deposit (Table 6), and a provisional Re–Os molybdenite age (ca. 80 Ma) for the Vlaykov Vruh porphyry deposit (Kouzmanov et al. 2001b). Potassic alteration and quartz–chalcopyrite stockwork veining at the Elatsite deposit is hosted in a major dyke, dated by U–Pb on magmatic zircons at 92.3 ± 1.4 and 91.41 ± 0.42 Ma (Fanger et al. 2001; Von Quadt et al. 2001). Ore-related hydrothermal K-feldspar + biotite give a Rb–Sr two-point isochron of 90.55 Ma, bracketing ore deposition at Elatsite between 94 and 90.5 Ma (Von Quadt et al. 2002).

Lilov and Chipchakova (1999), in a detailed K–Ar investigation of fresh igneous rocks and minerals from altered rocks, assuming successive generations of magma emplacement and ore formation, provided a general geochronological framework for the entire Panagyurishte district. Several stages of alteration were proposed for some deposits (e.g. Chelopech; syn-ore alteration at 85–74 and 58–57 Ma). A single stage of alteration was found in others (e.g. Assarel; 86–81 Ma from sericite ages on altered quartz monzodiorite and trachytic andesite). Two stages of intrusion and alteration were recognised at the Medet deposit. The first occurred at 88–87 Ma, following quartz monzodiorite emplacement at 90–88 Ma, and the latter between 85–76 Ma, following granodiorite emplacement at 87–86 Ma. These ages differ from earlier K–Ar data at Medet in which the monzodiorite is suggested to have been emplaced at 92–90 Ma, the granodiorite emplaced at 77–75 Ma, and, using hydrothermal K-feldspar in altered rocks, mineralisation occurred at 77–72 Ma (Bogdanov 1980). In the southern part of the

Table 5 Age determinations of 'bananitic' rocks (K-Ar unless otherwise stated). *Qz* Quartz; *P* porphyry; *P_X* pyroxene; *WR* whole rock; *Bt* biotite; *Hb* hornblende; *FM* given in reference as 'femic' minerals. Laboratory/method: *IGG* Institute of Geology and Geophysics, Bucharest; *INPE* Institute of Nuclear Physics, Bucharest; *ATOMKI* Debrecen, Hungary. *NA* Determination of K by fast neutron activation and radiogenic Ar by thermal neutron activation; *ID* radiogenic Ar analysed by isotope dilution (where not stated, this was not given in reference). The asterisks represent features mentioned in the next column to the right (weakly altered samples in one case, drillcore samples in a second case)

Location	Rock type	Fraction	Age (Ma)	Reference	Lab (method)
Romania					
Apuseni Mountains					
E Apuseni (Giliu border)					
<i>Bâisoara</i>	Granodiorite	Biotite	71.0 ± 7.8	Lemne et al. (1983)	IGG (ID)
<i>Cacova</i>	Granodiorite	Biotite	61.4 ± 2.3		
<i>Masca</i>	Dacite	Whole rock	63.4 ± 2.4		
	Andesite	Biotite	58.7 ± 2.2		
	Qz-andesite	Whole rock	54.8 ± 2.1		
	Granodiorite	Whole rock	49.5 ± 1.9		
	Granodiorite	Biotite	53.4 ± 2.0		
<i>Soneşul Rece</i>					
<i>Valea Ierii</i>					
W Apuseni	Granodiorite	FM	74 ± 3	Bleahu et al. (1984) (from drill core)	INPE (NA)
Budureasa*	Granodiorite	FM	73 ± 3		
	Granodiorite	Biotite	73 ± 3		
	Granodiorite	Biotite	72 ± 3		
	Granodiorite	Biotite	70 ± 3		
	Granodiorite	Biotite	72 ± 3		
	Granodiorite	Biotite	72 ± 3		
	Rhyolite	Whole rock	61 ± 3		
<i>Stânișoara*</i>					
<i>Leşu Dam</i> (<i>V. Iadului</i>)					
Bihor Massif	Basalt dyke	Whole rock	77 ± 3	Bleahu et al. (1984) (from drill core)	INPE (NA)
	Basalt dyke	Whole rock	74 ± 3		
	Basalt dyke	Whole rock	74 ± 3		
	Skarn	Phlogopite	76 ± 3		
	Granodiorite	FM	67 ± 3		
	Basalt dyke	Whole rock	75 ± 3		
	Basalt dyke	Whole rock	70 ± 3		
	Andesite dyke	Whole rock	65 ± 3		
	Granodiorite	Whole rock	70 ± 5	Pavelescu et al. (1985)	Rb-Sr
S Apuseni					
<i>Almăşel</i>	Granodiorite	Biotite	74 ± 3	Bleahu et al. (1984)	INPE (NA)
<i>Birtin</i> (Vata)	Granodiorite	Whole rock	75 ± 3	Ştefan et al. (1992)	IGG (ID)
	Granodiorite	Whole rock	68 ± 3	Unpublished	
	Granodiorite	Whole rock	61 ± 3	Bleahu et al. (1984)	INPE (NA)
	Porphyrite	FM	66 ± 3		
	Andesite	FM	77 ± 3		
	Andesite	FM	73 ± 3		
	Granodiorite	Biotite	70 ± 3		
	Granodiorite	FM	68 ± 3		
Mures Valley	Andesite	Whole rock	71.7 ± 2.7	Downes et al. (1995)	ATOMKI (ID) and Leeds Univ.
<i>Roşcani</i>					

<i>Herepea</i>	Basaltic andesite Basaltic andesite	Whole rock Whole rock	Văjdea and Tămășescu (unpublished) IGG (ID)
Poiana Ruscă	Alkali basalt Alkali basalt Cerbăl	Alkali basalt	Downes et al. (1995)
Panc	Gabbro (same sample) (same sample)	WR remnant Magnetite Feldspar	ATOMKI (ID) and Leeds Univ.
Hăuzăști intrusion	Monzonite-diorite (same sample) (same sample)	WR remnant Magnetite Biotite	ATOMKI (ID)
Jurești	Monzonite-granite Spessartite dyke	Feldspar Whole rock	Ciofica et al. (1994)
Drinova	Monzonite-diorite	Whole rock	ATOMKI (ID)
Tincova-Izvodia	Andesite	Whole rock	
Intrusion	Granodiorite P-granodiorite*	Biotite	
Dykes	Granodiorite P-granodiorite*	Biotite	
	Microgranite	FM	
	Andesite	Feldspar	
	Lamprophyre	Whole rock	
	Rhyolite	Biotite	
	Microgranite	Feldspar	
	Microdiorite	Whole rock	
	P-diorite*	FM	
Vălișor intrusion	Monzodiorite enclave	Bt/Hb	
	Monzodiorite	Bt/Hb	
	Monzodiorite	Bt/Hb	
	Microdiorite enclave	Hornblende	
	Monzonite-diorite	Whole rock	
	P-diorite	FM	
Vălișor area	P-diorite	FM	
	P-diorite	FM	
	P-diorite	FM	
	Aplitic	Whole rock	
	P-diorite	FM	
	Basic tuffite	FM	
Ruscă Montană volcano-sedimentary basin	Campionite	81.8 ± 2.4	
Ruschița	P-granodiorite	80.3 ± 2.4	
	Qz-P-diorite	80.1 ± 2.4	
	Quartz-porphyry	77.4 ± 2.3	
	Lattice	76.2 ± 2.3	
	Basaltoid andesite	75.8 ± 2.3	
	Granodiorite	75.5 ± 2.3	
	Qz-P-diorite	74.1 ± 2.2	
	Granodiorite	70.8 ± 2.1	
	Dacite	69.3 ± 2.1	

Table 5 (Contd.)

Location	Rock type	Fraction	Age (Ma)	Reference	Lab (method)
Glimboca-Ruschića	Granodiorite	Whole rock	76.2 ± 3.5	Kräutner et al. (1986)	IGG (ID)
Intrusive rocks	P-granodiorite	Whole rock	72.5 ± 9.8		
	Granodiorite	Biotite	70.8 ± 1.9		
	?		68.8 ± 2.6		
	P-granodiorite	Whole rock	68.7 ± 2.6		
	Granodiorite	Whole rock	67.5 ± 2.6		
	Granodiorite	Whole rock	65.5 ± 2.5		
	Granodiorite	Whole rock	63.3 ± 2.6		
	Granodiorite	Whole rock	63.0 ± 2.5		
	Granodiorite	Whole rock	60.6 ± 2.7		
	P-granodiorite	Whole rock	60.0 ± 2.6		
	Granodiorite	Biotite	59.9 ± 2.4		
	P-granodiorite	Biotite	56.3 ± 2.1		
	Microdiorite	Whole rock	54.4 ± 2.3		
	Granodiorite	Whole rock	54.1 ± 2.4		
Extrusive rocks	Welded tuff	Whole rock	82.0 ± 3.1	Kräutner et al. (1986)	IGG (ID)
	Andesite fragment	Whole rock	79.3 ± 3.2		
	Welded tuff	Whole rock	70.7 ± 2.7		
	Px-andesitic tuff	Whole rock	66.1 ± 2.5		
Rusca Montană volcano-sedimentary basin	Whole rock	54.5 ± 2.1	Kräutner et al. (1986)	IGG (ID)	
Extrusive rocks	Welded tuff	53.4 ± 3.1			
Lamprophyre dykes	Campionite	46.4 ± 2.3			
	Campionite	44.5 ± 2.1			
	Campionite	38.8 ± 1.9			
Banat	Whole rock	75.56 ± 2.73	Russo-Săndulescu et al. (1986)	IGG (ID)	
Surduc Massif	Kataphorite	74.25 ± 3.05			
<i>Surduc 1</i>	Kataphorite	68.4 ± 2.47			
	Whole rock	68.32 ± 2.48			
	Biotite	68.09 ± 2.8			
	Whole rock	62.23 ± 2.3			
	Biotite	55.42 ± 2.68			
Bocşa Massif	Biotite	87.94 ± 3.27	Russo-Săndulescu et al. (1986)	IGG (ID)	
<i>Bocşa 1</i>	Monzonite	81.17 ± 3.10			
	Whole rock	80.01 ± 2.90			
<i>Bocşa 2</i>	Biotite	65.57 ± 2.47			U-Pb zircon (Stockholm Univ.)
	Biotite	56.79 ± 2.32			U-Pb zircon (Stockholm Univ.)
<i>Bocşa 3</i>	Zircon	79.6 ± 2.5 (mean of 8)			Re-Os (AIRIE)
Ocna de Fer-Dognecea	Granodiorite	75.5 ± 1.6 (mean of 9)	Nicoleșcu et al. (1999)		
intrusion			Nicoleșcu et al. (1999)		
Dognecea	Zircon	76.6 ± 0.3	(this paper)		
	Molybdenite				

Ciclova–Oravija (CO)	Diorite	Biotite	Soroiu et al. (1986) Weakly altered sample
	Diorite	Biotite	
	Diorite	Biotite	
	P-granodiorite	Biotite	
	Granodiorite*	Biotite	Soroiu et al. (1986) Weakly altered sample
CO Brădișorul de Jos	P-granodiorite*	Biotite	
Moldova Nouă	P-granodiorite*	Biotite	
Lăpușnicu Mare	P-granodiorite*	Biotite	
Bănia	P-granodiorite*	Biotite	
Şopotu Vechi	Qz-monzonite–diorite	Hornblende	
	Qz-P-monzonite	Biotite	
Mehadica	Granodiorite	Biotite	
Borlovenii Vechi (Nera)	P-diorite	Hornblende	
Borlovenii Vechi (Nera)	P-diorite	Hornblende	
Serbia			
South Carpathians			
Ridani-Krepoljin belt	Various	74–70 (rejuvenated at 60)	Karamata et al. (1997a)
Dykes and shallow intrusions			
Dacites, andesites, rhyolites			
Drill core (Ridanj, Reškovića). Granodiorite, P-Qz-diorite			
Timok Massif	Hb and Bt–Hb andesite	Various	Karamata et al. (1997a)
E Timok (ET)	Dacite/Andesite	Various	ATOMKI (ID)
W Timok	Hb–Px-andesite/latite	Various	
Intrusions/younger lavas	Various	80–72	
Majdanpek	Pegmatite vein	75–62	
Čoka Marin	Bt–Hb andesite (same sample)	93±4	Janković et al. (1981) Karamata et al. (1997b)
	Feldspar	85.5±3.4	IGEM Moscow ATOMKI (ID)
	Amphibole	58.8±2.5	
	Whole rock	56.3±2.8	
	Whole rock	83.8±3.8	Univ. Geneva ATOMKI (ID)
	Whole rock	82.89	
	Whole rock	72.6±3.2	
	Whole rock	69.6±4.1	
	Whole rock	69.1±3.5	
Zlot	Qz–P-diorite	63.9±2.4	
Valja Strž	Bt–Hb andesite	62.92	Janković et al. (1981) Weakly altered sample
Crní Vrh	Dacite–andesite	80±4	
Velja Pester	Latite	78±4	
Bogovina	Monzonite	71±6	
	Diorite	67	
	Bt–Hb–Qz-diorite	38±3	
Bor area	Kajanite		
Bor	Dacite*		
Borska Reka	Hb–Bt–andesite*		
Veliki Kryvej	P-diorite		
Bor ore deposit zone	Hb-andesite		
	Px-basaltic andesite		
Widen zone SW of Bor			

Table 5 (Contd.)

Location	Rock type	Fraction	Age (Ma)	Reference	Lab (method)
Bulgaria					
Srednogorie					
Western Srednogorie					
Intrusives	Monzonite		89–73 83±6	Dabovski et al. (1991) Lilov (1989)	Rb–Sr
Vitosha Massif					
Central Srednogorie	Volcanic rocks	Zircon	94–64 80–69	Dabovski et al. (1991)	
Panagyurishte	Intrusive rocks	Zircon	92.3±1.4	von Quadt et al. (2001)	U–Pb zircon (ETH Zurich)
Panagyurishte	Monzodiorite porph.	Zircon	91.41±0.42	von Quadt et al. (2002)	Rb–Sr
Elatsite deposit	K-feldspar-biotite 2-pt. cooling age		90.55	Lilov and Chipchakova (1999)	
Elatsite-Chelopech ore field	Stage II magmatites	Whole rock	91–90		
Medet-Assarel ore field	Stage IV magmatites	Whole rock	67–65		
Medet deposit	Stage II magmatites	Whole rock	91–88	Bogdanov (1980)	
Southern Panagyurishte	Stage III magmatites	Whole rock	87–86	Lilov and Chipchakova (1999)	
Vlaykov Vruh deposit	Q-monzodiorite Granodiorite porphyry	Whole rock	90–92	Kouzmanov et al. (2001b)	Re–Os (Geneva)
Iskar-Yavoritsa shear zone	Stage II magmatites	Whole rock	77–75		
Varshilo pluton	Stage III magmatites	Whole rock	90	Peycheva et al. (2001)	U–Pb zircon (ETH Zurich)
Outcrop near Vetren	Stage IV magmatites	Whole rock	88–85	Dabovski et al. (1991)	
Marika intrusive rocks	Molybdenite	Molybdenite	75–67		
Eastern Srednogorie			ca. 80		
Strandza volcanics	Leucogranite	Zircon	82.25±0.4		
Yambol-Burgas	Gabbro	Zircon	81.3±1.5		
Yambol-Burgas	Volcanic rocks		91–69		
North Burgas	Intrusive rocks			Dabovski et al. (1991)	
	Volcanic rocks				
	Intrusive rocks				
	Volcanic rocks				

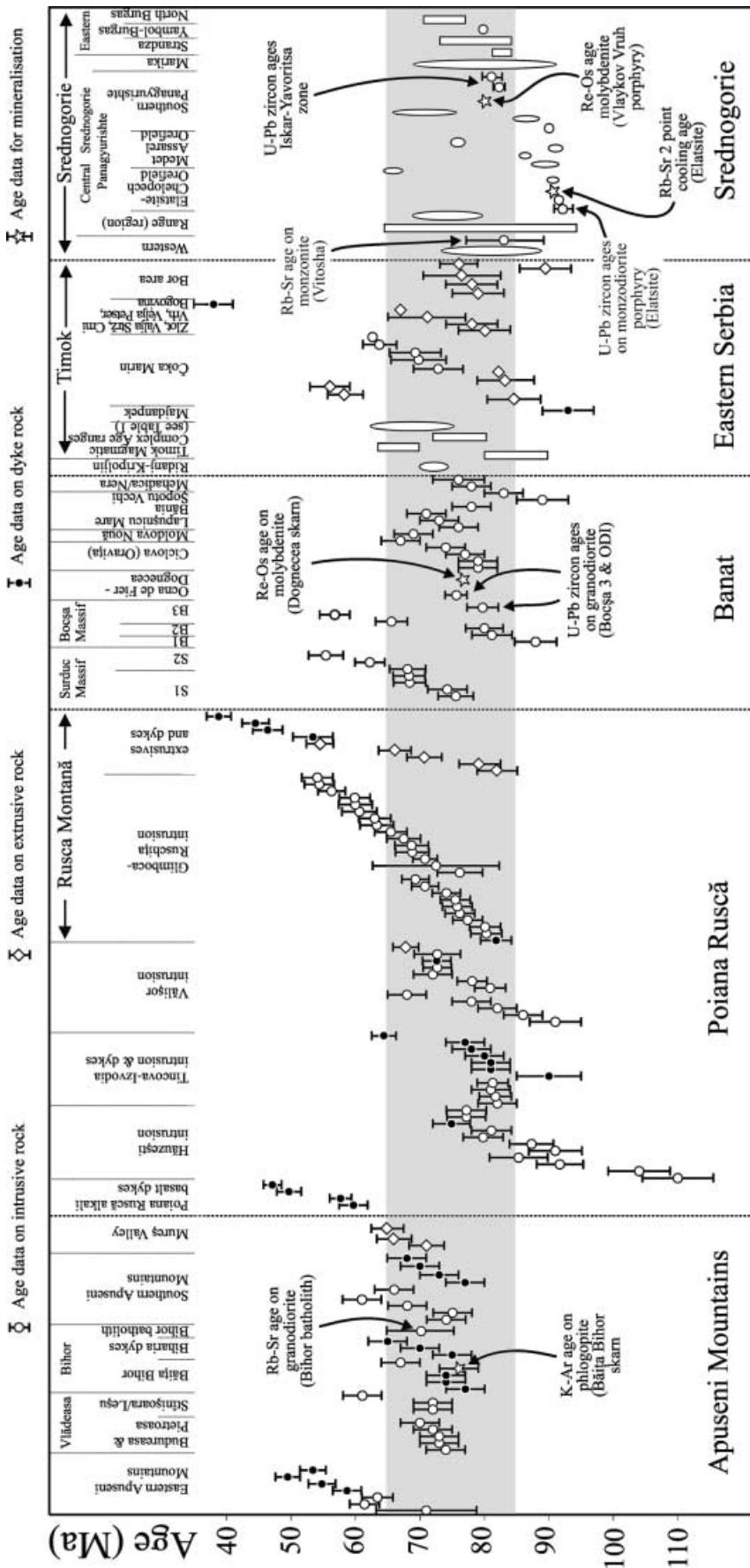


Fig. 4 Graphic summary of radiometric age data, with *error bars* as given by original sources (Table 5). Published age ranges as ellipses (intrusive rocks) and bars (extrusive rocks). Age data, in the same sequence as Table 5, are arranged from left to right on the diagram. Within each district dataset, ages are sorted by decreasing age. The central, *darker band* shows the main period of magmatic activity (85–65 Ma)

Panagyurishte district, Lilov and Chipchakova (1999) reported K–Ar data for intrusion and related porphyry alteration at the Petelevo, Tsar Assen and Vlaykov Vruh deposits (87–85, 88–86 and 86–85 Ma, respectively), which contrast sharply with ages of alteration minerals in ‘massive sulphides’ at Krassen, Radka and Elshitsa (78–71, 78–77 and 81–79 Ma, respectively). Given the limitations of the K–Ar method in complex, poly-stage porphyry deposits, where barren and mineralisation-related alteration stages may overlap, these data remain to be refined to properly constrain age of mineralisation relative to magmatism. In contrast, the K–Ar method is more reliable to date ore formation using K-bearing minerals in skarn, e.g. phlogopite, given the unequivocal paragenetic relationships.

Re–Os dating of molybdenite from Dogenecea

To provide a reference point for the timing of skarn formation in Banat, we have dated magmatic-hydrothermal activity at the Dogenecea deposit using Re–Os in molybdenite. Unlike in other deposits, molybdenite is restricted to scarce occurrences within uncommon quartz-rich skarn in the Ocna de Fier-Dogenecea district, linking it to skarn formation. Our sample consists of well-crystallised, centimetre-sized platelets of molybdenite from underground at Dogenecea. General principles and methodology for molybdenite dating are outlined in Stein et al. (1998a, 1998b). Sample-to-sample reproducibility, illustrating the robustness of the chronometer, has been documented (e.g. Watanabe and Stein 2000). Molybdenite presents a unique situation for the Re–Os method of dating in that it usually contains ppm level Re and essentially no initial or common Os, making it a single mineral chronometer. The mineral separate was prepared at AIRIE (Stein et al. 1998a) and Re and Os concentrations were determined at the AIRIE molybdenite laboratory at Colorado State University. For this study, a Carius-tube digestion was used, whereby molybdenite is dissolved and equilibrated with Re and Os spikes in HNO_3 – HCl (aqua regia) by sealing in a thick-walled glass ampule and heating for 12 h at 230 °C. Osmium is subsequently recovered by solvent extraction using CCl_4 , and Re is recovered by anion exchange. Purified Re and Os are loaded onto platinum filaments and isotopic compositions are determined using NTIMS on a NBS 12-inch radius, 90° sector mass spectrometer. Two molybdenite standards, developed at AIRIE, are run routinely as an internal check (Markey et al. 1998).

The sample gave an age of 76.6 ± 0.3 Ma (Table 6), which overlaps, at the 2σ level, with the U–Pb zircon age given by Nicolescu et al. (1999) for the Ocna de Fier-Dogenecea intrusion (75.5 ± 1.6 Ma). The age of intrusion and mineralisation, thus, is younger than that of the barren Bocşa-3 unit (mean U–Pb zircon age, 79.6 ± 2.5 Ma, Nicolescu et al. 1999). The Re–Os age shows that skarn mineralisation is contemporaneous

Table 6 Re–Os age for a molybdenite from the Dogenecea deposit, Romania

Sample number	AIRIE run	Re (ppm) ^a	^{187}Re ^a (ppm)	^{187}Os ^a (ppb)	Age ^{b,c,d} (Ma)
OdFD.99G1	CT-212	1524 (1)	957.9 (9)	1224 (2)	76.6 ± 0.3

^aRe and ^{187}Os uncertainties in parentheses are absolute at 2σ uncertainty for the last digit indicated

^bUncertainties include error in (1) ^{185}Re and ^{190}Os spike calibrations, 0.05 and 0.15%, respectively, (2) magnification with spiking, (3) mass spectrometric measurement of isotopic ratios, and (4) the ^{187}Re decay constant (0.31%)

^cMolybdenites rarely require a blank correction. In the AIRIE molybdenite laboratory, blanks are $\text{Re} = 17$ –18 pg, $\text{Os} = 6$ –8 pg with a variable $^{187}\text{Os}/^{188}\text{Os}$ ranging from 0.5 to 8.3

^dAge is calculated by $^{187}\text{Os} = ^{187}\text{Re} (\text{e}^{\lambda t} - 1)$ where $\lambda = ^{187}\text{Re}$ decay constant and $t = \text{age}$; ^{187}Re decay constant used is $1.666 \times 10^{-11} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ with an uncertainty of 0.31% (Smoliar et al. 1996); uncertainty shown for age is absolute at 2σ

with granodiorite emplacement and links the Dogenecea mineralisation conclusively to the Ocna de Fier-Dogenecea intrusion. The precise Re–Os age for mineralisation at Dogenecea, coupled with the U–Pb zircon data for the granodiorite (Nicolescu et al. 1999), substantiates the centred source model for the entire ore field (Cook and Ciobanu 2001). The data obtained by two reliable precise methods provide a point of reference for discussion of other deposits in the BMMB. In other ore fields (e.g. Oraviţa-Ciclova, Băiţa Bihor), molybdenite is widespread in skarns, hornfels and intrusions. Systematic investigation of Re–Os ages of molybdenite in each of these rock types may be necessary to establish the timing of skarn formation.

Discussion and conclusions

Formation of the BMMB as a Late Cretaceous magmatic arc in the terminal stages of Vardar subduction was governed by differing types of extensional regimes in the collisional orogens of the Carpathians and Balkans as a consequence, in part, of their inherited Early to Mid-Cretaceous geologies. In the western part of the BMMB (Apuseni Mountains, Poiana Rusă, Banat), magma emplacement was facilitated by extension subsequent to gravitational collapse and metamorphic core exhumation. This is evidenced by ‘Gosau’-type basins and the deep roots of magma chambers at the borders between mountain ranges and adjacent basins. In contrast, a sustained extensional regime is indicated from trough-graben structures with thick (2–8 km) volcano-plutonic and –sedimentary piles in the central and eastern parts of the belt (Timok and Srednogorie).

The difference in local geodynamics within the same collisional orogen is revealed by comparison of metallogenetic trends in the South Carpathians. A gradational change between ores in the two above extensional settings is emphasised by the transition from dominant skarn to porphyry between Banat and Timok. To emphasise this transition, Moldova Nouă is a porphyry

copper deposit with only minor skarn, whereas in both the Oravița-Ciclova and Sasca Montană ore fields, copper-skarns are dominant, despite the fact that the three ore fields have comparable settings, i.e. similar relationships between intrusions and carbonate units. In Timok, distal Zn–Pb skarn, rather than copper skarn, occurs peripheral to the porphyry-copper deposits wherever carbonates are present in the ore fields (e.g. at Majdanpek, Veliki Krivelj). Likewise, a comparison between low-grade, sporadic porphyry mineralisation in Poiana Ruscă and the giant tonnages in the Bor district shows the impact of variable extensional regimes on metal concentration.

The role played by tectonics upon magmatism/mineralisation during BMMB formation is further stressed by recent data from the southern Srednogorie, near the boundary with the Rhodopes, within the Iskar Yavoritsa shear zone (IYSZ; Fig. 2). A series of plutons from Elshitsa (southern Panagyurishte) to Vitosha (south-western central Srednogorie) are regarded as broadly coeval with development of this shear zone (Ivanov et al. 2001). Gold mineralisation is hosted within the IYSZ (e.g. the Dikanyite prospect at the southern border of Vitosha). The 83–80-Ma intrusions have comparable isotopic signatures to elsewhere in the belt (Peycheva et al. 2001).

Even though methodologies and relative precisions differ, the available radiometric data indicate that the BMMB was formed by protracted igneous activity, maybe extending for as much as 25–30 million years within each segment of the belt. Dates for hydrothermal ore formation are very sparse, but the Re–Os molybdenite age from the Dognecea deposit and K–Ar phlogopite age from the Băița Bihor deposit are remarkably similar (77–76 Ma). This may suggest that skarn mineralisation relates to a broad tectonic event that extended from the Apuseni Mountains to Banat, and that ultimately controlled intrusion emplacement and ore formation in the western part of BMMB. In the BMMB, as in other belts of the ABCD realm, mineralisation events are relatively late in the orogenesis and are characteristically triggered by short-lived events that allow transfer of magma/fluids/metals to shallow structural levels (c.f. Neubauer 2001).

In contrast, dates for porphyry deposits at both ends of Panagyurishte district indicate a narrower range of ~10–14 million years across the district. A provisional Re–Os age of molybdenite in at the Vlaykov Vruh porphyry deposit, southern Panagyurishte (~80 Ma; Kouzmanov et al. 2001a) is comparable with the skarn ages from the Apuseni Mts and Banat. In northern Panagyurishte, a significantly older age-range (between 94 and 90.55 Ma; Von Quadt et al. 2002) has been considered for the mineralisation in the Elatsite porphyry.

These data leave open several questions. How many mineralising events took place along/across the belt? Can different metal sources be identified? Last, but not least, what are the constraints upon the timing of these events relative to overall geodynamics during belt for-

mation? Careful observation of geological relationships between dykes and ore distribution/grades in conjunction with precise geochronometers for igneous (e.g. U–Pb on zircons) and hydrothermal events (e.g. Re–Os on molybdenite) offer a promising avenue for further work, to elucidate the geodynamic evolution of magmatism and ore formation in the BMMB.

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