

Geochemistry of 2.45 Ga mafic dykes in northern Finland: Constraints on the petrogenesis and PGE prospectivity of coeval layered intrusions

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ABSTRACT

The Karelian craton contains abundant ~2.45 Ga mafic dykes that are compositionally, temporally and, in some cases, spatially related to PGE-mineralised mafic-ultramafic layered intrusions. The dykes can be sub-divided into four groups, namely siliceous high-magnesian basalts (SHMB), gabbronorites (GBNO), low-Ti tholeiites and Fe-rich tholeiites. In this study, we group the SHMB and GBNO dykes to one group as SHMB group, and the two tholeiitic group dykes as tholeiite group, based on their similar geochemical and mineralogical features. In the SHMB group dykes, plagioclase has initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of 0.7028 to 0.7036 and initial bulk-rock ϵNd values vary from -2.5 to -1.0 , indicating moderate degrees of contamination with Archaean basement. Tholeiitic dykes show a less-radiogenic Sr isotope composition with an average initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of 0.7024 and higher initial ϵNd values ranging from $+0.3$ to $+1.7$. Thermodynamic and geochemical modelling suggests that the SHMB group dykes could have formed by crustal contamination of a komatiitic magma at deeper crust followed by fractional crystallisation at shallower depth, whereas the tholeiitic group mainly experienced fractional crystallisation with less crustal contamination. Alternatively, the SHMB dykes may have been derived from a SCLM mantle whereas tholeiitic dykes from a plume mantle, or the two types of dykes derived from different part of a mantle plume with different melting degrees, though these latter two models are not favoured in this study. Based on trace element and isotope characteristics, the SHMB dykes are suitable candidates for the parental magmas to some of the Finnish PGE-mineralised intrusions (e.g., Penikat and Portimo), whereas the tholeiitic dykes may represent the parental magma of the Tsipringa layered intrusion in Russia. Both the SHMB and tholeiitic dyke types are fertile with regard to PGE, with up to 10–20 ppb Pt and Pd and mantle-like Cu/Pd ratios in their least evolved members, suggesting that the magmas remained sulphide undersaturated during mantle melting and *en route* to the upper crust. This interpretation is consistent with the fact that most of the ~2.45 Ga Fennoscandian layered intrusions contain PGE mineralisation. Sulphide melt saturation in the dykes and layered intrusions was mostly attained after their final emplacement, likely due to crystal fractionation.

1. Introduction

Mafic layered intrusions are host to significant mineral resources, particularly Cr, PGE, Ti and V, as well as Ni, Cu, Co and Au as by-products (Smith and Maier, 2021). Many of these metals (except Au, Cr) are defined as critical raw materials and/or green transition raw materials (e.g., European Commission, 2020). To develop sustainable

exploration methods with lower environmental and social impact, efficient regional-scale exploration targeting is crucial. This requires accurate and highly refined ore models, but for most layered intrusions, one of the main obstacles is the insufficient knowledge of the composition of the parental magmas. The intrusions consist largely of slowly cooled, highly equilibrated cumulate rocks though some have chilled margins that can potentially provide clues to the parental magma composition.

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However, in many cases, the exposed chilled rocks may not represent the most primitive magma, as primary chilled margins could be remelted by the constant heat flux from the magma, or they may be contaminated by local-scale interaction with immediate country rocks (Huppert and Sparks, 1989; Maier et al., 2018). Therefore, many previous workers have attempted to constrain the parental magma composition by studying spatially or temporally associated mafic sills and dykes (Barnes et al., 2010; Helz, 1995; Wang et al., 2011). In the case of the Karelian and Kola cratons, this approach is particularly promising because a number of mafic layered intrusions with ages of ~ 2.45 Ga host significant mineralisation, and they are spatially and temporally associated with abundant mafic dykes, which likely belong to the same magmatic event (Iljina et al., 2015; Maier et al., 2018; Maier and Hanski, 2017; Vuollo and Huhma, 2005).

In the present study, we provide new compositional data for 37 dykes from the Karelian craton, including mineral chemistry, bulk-rock major element, lithophile trace element and PGE compositions, as well as in-situ Sr isotope compositions of plagioclase. We also present results of thermodynamic modelling and draw comparisons with mafic-ultramafic magmatism across the Fennoscandian Shield and globally, to constrain the petrogenesis of the dykes and evaluate the ore formation potential of

correlated layered intrusions.

2. Geological background

Archaean rocks are widely distributed in the NE Fennoscandia in different cratons (Kola, Karelian, Belomorian and Norrbotten), that are mainly composed of greenstone belts and different types of granitoids (Hölttä et al., 2012). Several Mesoarchean microcratons accreted together in the Neoarchean, forming the Kenorland supercontinent. In Finland, the Karelia craton is divided into four major blocks: Kuhmo, Taivalkoski, Pudasjärvi, and Iisalmi (Hölttä et al., 2012; Vuollo and Huhma, 2005) (Fig. 1). Across much of the NE Fennoscandian Shield, including the Karelian craton and the adjacent Belomorian and Kola cratons, widespread mafic-ultramafic magmatism occurred at ~ 2.5 – 2.45 Ga (Vuollo and Huhma, 2005). It has been suggested that this magmatism has a genetic link to the coeval magmatism in the Superior craton, Canada, representing one of the oldest known large igneous provinces (LIP) on Earth, which initiated the breakup of the Archaean Kenorland supercontinent (Ernst and Bleeker, 2010; Vogel et al., 1998).

The ~ 2.45 – 2.5 Ga Fennoscandian magmatism is composed of numerous mafic layered intrusions, mafic dyke swarms, mafic-



Fig. 1. Geological map showing the distribution of 2.45 Ga mafic dykes swarms in the Karelian Craton. Modified after Vuollo and Huhma (2005). Detailed geology map of two layered intrusions Penikat and Portimo complex are shown in Fig. 2. Age data are from Vuollo and Huhma, 2005 and Huhma et al., 2018.

ultramafic volcanic rocks, and minor felsic intrusive and volcanic rocks (Hanski et al., 2001; Huhma et al., 2018; Maier et al., 2018; Puchtel et al., 1998). The 2.5 Ga magmatism is restricted to the Kola Peninsula, including the Mochevorsk, Fedorovo-Pansky and Mt. General'skaya intrusions and the Olenogorsk dyke, while the ~2.45 Ga igneous rocks occur both in the Kola (e.g. Imandra) and the Karelian cratons. The Karelian craton contains Kemi, Penikat, Portimo, Koillismaa, Näränkäväära, Lukkulaivaara, Tsipringa, and Kivakka intrusions or intrusion complexes in the Tornio-Näränkäväära intrusive belt across Finland and its continuation in Russia, and Koitelainen and Akanvaara intrusions in Finnish Lapland (Amelin et al., 1995; Bayanova et al., 2019; Hanski et al., 2001). Several of the 2.5–2.45 Ga mafic layered intrusions in the Fennoscandian Shield host significant mineralisation of PGE-(Ni-Cu-Co) (e.g., Penikat, Portimo, Koillismaa, Fedorova Pansky, Monchegorsk), chromium (e.g., Kemi, Monchegorsk, Koitelainen, Akanvaara), and vanadium (e.g., Koitelainen, Koillismaa, Akanvaara) (Alapieti et al., 1990; Halkoaho et al., 1990; Hanski et al., 2001; Hanski, 2012; Karinen, 2010; Karinen et al., 2015; Karinen et al., 2022; Karykowski et al., 2018; Maier et al., 2018; Mokrushin et al., 2021; Mutanen, 1997; Schissel et al., 2002;). At present, only one deposit (Kemi, Cr) is under production (Huhtelin, 2015), but mining has occurred previously at Koillismaa (for V) and Monchegorsk (Cr, PGE, Cu-Ni), and many exploration projects are under development (Huhtelin, 2015; Karinen et al., 2015) (Fig. 1).

The ~2.45 Ga dyke swarms, which form the focus of this study, are present in all the blocks of the Karelian craton with the exception of the Iisalmi block. Based on their geochemistry and mineralogy, Vuollo and Huhma (2005) subdivided these dykes into five major groups: 1) boninites, 2) gabbronorites GBNO), 3) low-Ti tholeiites (LTTH), 4) Fe-tholeiites (FTH), and 5) orthopyroxene-plagioclase-phyric dykes, with the latest type being restricted to a few localities in the Kuhmo block. Since boninite is a term that is mainly applied to high-Mg, low-Ti volcanic rocks in fore-arc settings (Hickey and Frey, 1982), we replace it with the term siliceous high-magnesium basalt (SHMB) in this study.

The SHMB dykes are mainly NE-SW-trending and found throughout the Karelian block. Some of them are spatially associated with the 2.45 Ga layered intrusions of the Tornio-Näränkäväära belt and related

intrusions in Russian (Iljina et al., 2015). In the Suhanko area (Fig. 2a), some dykes are oriented subparallel to the basal contact of the small Konttijärvi layered intrusion (Iljina et al., 1992) (Fig. 2a), whereas further to the west, on the SE side of the Penikat layered intrusion, the Loljunmaa dyke trends approximately perpendicular to the strike of the intrusion and is interpreted to be its feeder conduit (Maier et al., 2018) (Fig. 2b). The SHMB dykes are 20–60 m thick, and some of them can be traced along strike for >40 km (Vuollo and Huhma, 2005). The rocks are mainly medium grained and consist of plagioclase (35 vol%), orthopyroxene (30 vol%), clinopyroxene (20 vol%), with small amounts of olivine (5 vol%, found in two samples only), chromite and Fe-Ti oxides (Fig. 3a). The dykes show internal variation in grain size, with the margins being relatively fine-grained (Vuollo and Huhma, 2005).

The GBNO dykes are typically NW-SE-trending (~310°). Their thickness reaches 50 m, and they can be followed for a few kilometres along strike. A precise baddeleyite U-Pb age of 2447 ± 10 Ma has been obtained for a dyke in the Suoperä area, ~10 km east of the Russian-Finnish border (Huhma et al., 2018). The dykes are fine grained at their margins but are medium grained in their central parts (Figs. 3c, d). The GBNO dykes are richer in plagioclase (~60 vol%) than the SHMB dykes and have broadly similar clinopyroxene contents (25 vol%), but lower contents of orthopyroxene (5–10 vol%) and olivine (1–2 vol%). Biotite and Fe-Ti-oxides are minor or accessory phases (Figs. 3c, d).

The LTTH dykes occur in the Kuhmo and Pudasjärvi blocks (Vuollo and Huhma, 2005). The width of the dykes is up to tens of metres, and they extend for up to ~2 km along strike. The rocks generally show ophitic textures and are mainly composed of plagioclase (50 vol%), clinopyroxene (35 vol%), and minor amounts of orthopyroxene (2 vol%), quartz, secondary amphibole and Fe-Ti-V oxides (Figs. 3e, f).

The FTH dykes are mainly composed of plagioclase (60 vol%) and clinopyroxene (30 vol%). The main difference between the LTTH and FTH dykes is that the latter have a significant amount of Fe-Ti-oxides (5–10 vol%). Quartz and biotite are of minor abundance (Fig. 3). Only one 10-m-wide dyke in the Taivalkoski area has been dated, yielding a Sm-Nd isochron age of 2407 ± 35 Ma with an initial ϵ_{Nd} value of +1.6 (Vuollo and Huhma, 2005) (Figs. 3g, h).

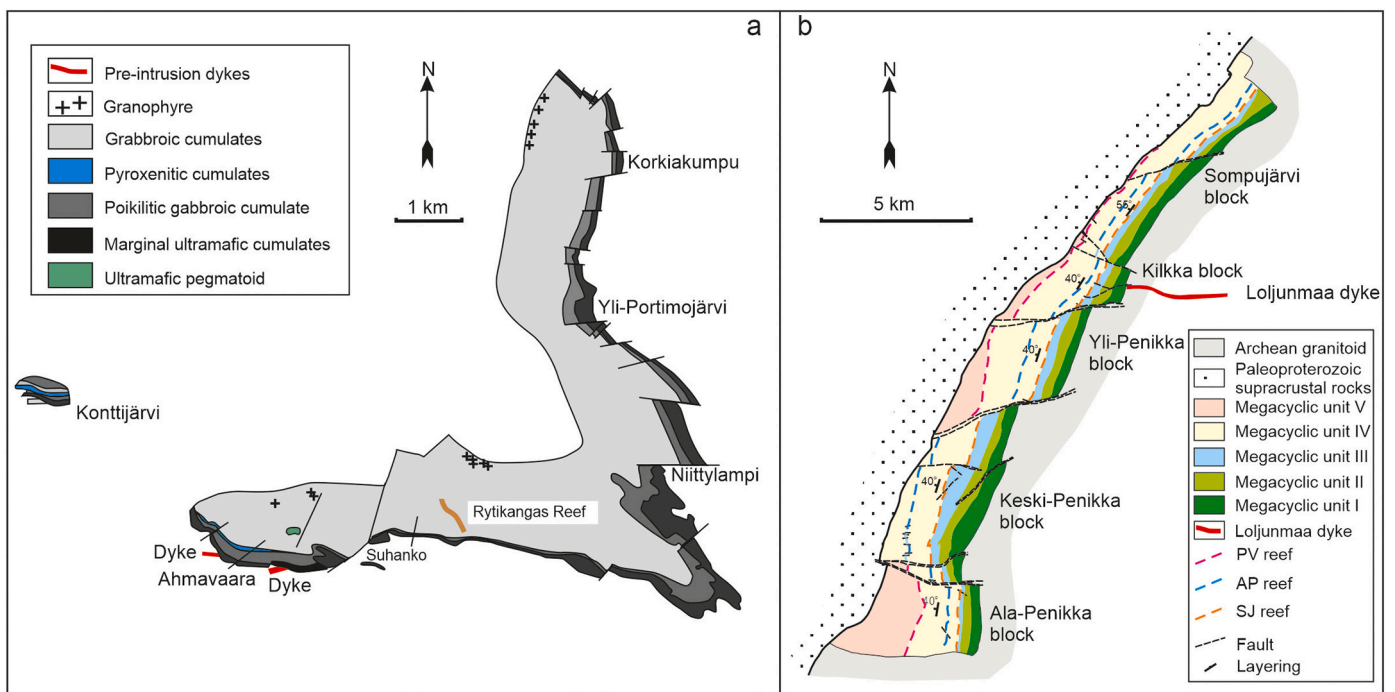


Fig. 2. A. Spatial correlation between mafic dykes and the Suhanko layered intrusion (modified after Iljina et al., 1992); B. Spatial correlation between the Loljunmaa dyke and the Penikat intrusion (modified after Maier et al., 2018).

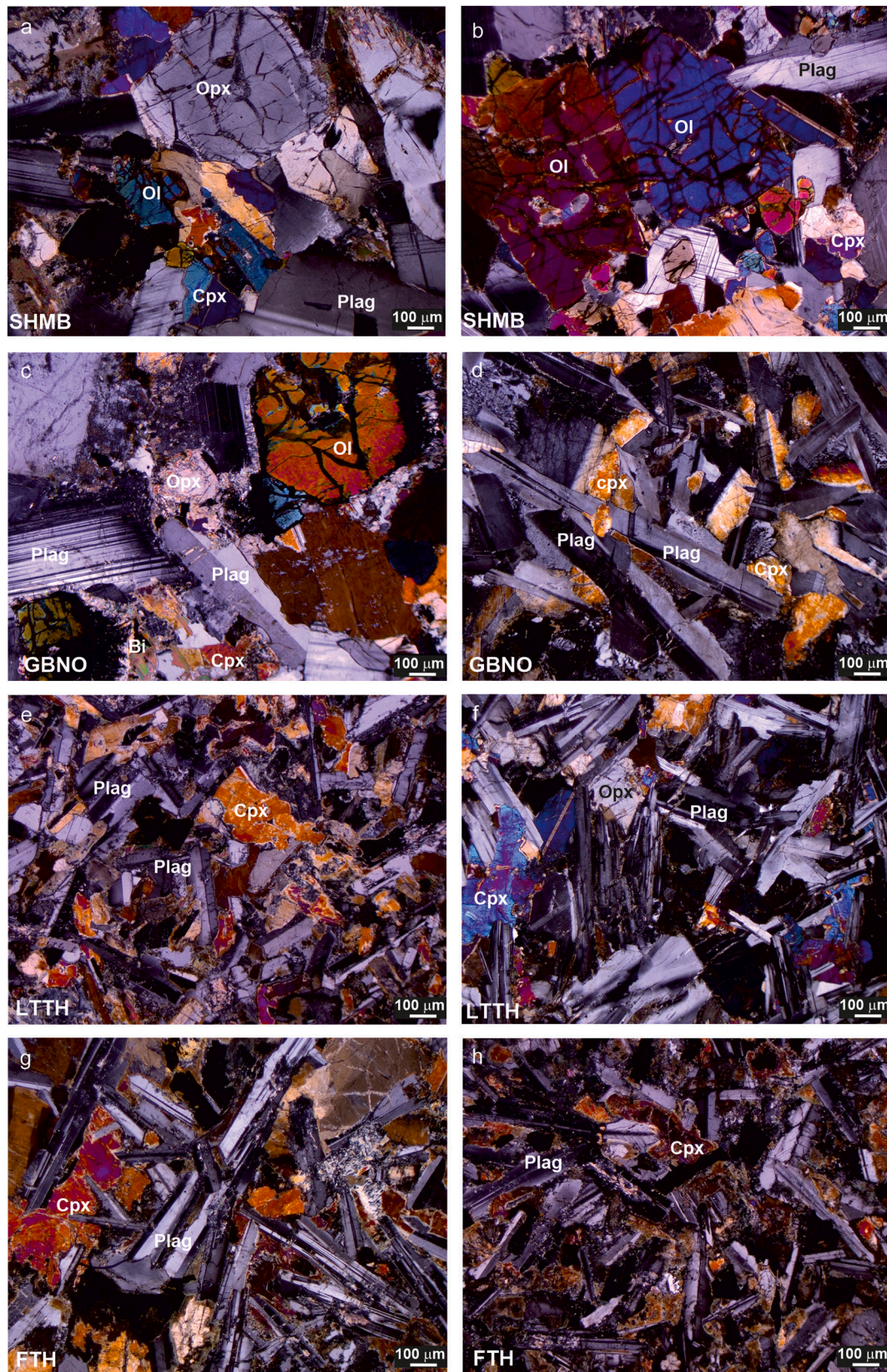


Fig. 3. Photomicrographs (crossed polars) showing the main minerals and textures of the different mafic dyke groups. SHMB = siliceous high-magnesian basalt, GBNO = gabbronorite, LTTH = Low-Ti tholeiite, FTH = Fe-tholeiite. Ol, Cpx, Opx, Plag, Bi indicate olivine, clinopyroxene, orthopyroxene, plagioclase and biotite, respectively.

3. Samples and analytical methods

3.1. Samples

Samples for this study were obtained from a previous project by GTK and University of Oulu (Vuollo and Huhma, 2005), which includes 6 siliceous high magnesian basalts (SHMB), 12 gabbro-norites (GBNO), 16 low-Ti tholeiites (LTTH), and 3 Fe-tholeiites (FTH). The SHMB dykes were mainly collected from the Taivalkoski block, with a few samples also from the Pudasjärvi and Kuhmo blocks in Finland, and Suoperä-Pääjärvi area in Russia. The GBNO dyke samples were mainly collected from the Taivalkoski and Kuhmo blocks. The Low-Ti tholeiitic (LTTH) and Fe-tholeiitic (FTH) dyke samples are from the Taivalkoski block (Fig. 1). The samples were crushed to fragments of about one centimetre in diameter using a steel plate and then pulverised in an agate mill. These methods do not cause elemental contamination, except in minor amounts for Si and O, because the devices were cleaned by crushing quartz between every sample.

3.2. Electron microprobe analysis

The compositions of olivine, clinopyroxene, orthopyroxene and plagioclase were determined using a JEOL JXA-8200 electron microprobe at the Centre of Microscopy and Nanotechnology, University of Oulu, using an accelerating voltage of 15 kV and a beam current of 30 nA, which allowed a detection limit of ~150 ppm for some trace elements (e.g., Ni, Cr). The following artificial and natural compounds were used as standards: jadeite for Na, orthoclase for K, wollastonite for Si and Ca, chromite for Cr, oxidic standards for Fe, Mg and Al, and pure metallic standards for V, Mn, Ti, Ni and Zn. The accuracy of the analyses was monitored using reference materials of similar composition. The reproducibility varied by <2% for all reported elements.

3.3. Whole-rock major and trace elements

For most samples, major elements were determined using ICP-OES and a full spectrum of trace elements were determined using ICP-MS (Perkin-Elmer Sciex Elan 5000) at the Cardiff University, UK. For ICP-MS analysis, the samples were dissolved in a mixture of hydrofluoric and perchloric acids in a Teflon dish, evaporated, and redissolved in nitric acid before measurement. To ensure complete decomposition of the samples, the solution was filtered and the filter was ashed and fused with 0.2 g of lithium metaborate and 0.02 g sodium metaborate, followed by dissolution of the fused bead in nitric acid and in combination with the filtrate. This method digests most refractory minerals and provides acceptable precision for all elements. Standard JB1a was used to monitor the analytical quality. The obtained results of these standards are generally consistent with the recommended values, with major elements roughly better than 3%, and trace element 5%, respectively. For a small group of samples, the major elements and selected trace elements (Cr, Ni, Cu, Zr) were determined by XRF at the Geological Survey of Finland (GTK) using a Philips PW 1480 sequential wavelength

dispersive spectrometer. The accuracy is better than 2% for element concentrations above 0.5 wt%, 3% for concentrations above 30 ppm, and 5% for concentrations below 30 ppm.

3.4. Platinum-group elements and Au

Platinum-group elements and Au were determined at LabMaTerre, University of Quebec at Chicoutimi (UQAC), using ICP-MS after Ni-sulphide fire assay and tellurium co-precipitation. Analytical details are provided by Savard et al. (2010). To monitor precision and accuracy, PGE and Au were determined for the reference material, OKUM, a komatiite supplied by Geolabs, Ontario (Table 1). The difference between the certificate values and values obtained in this study was 1% to 5% for Ru, Ir, Rh, Pt and Pd, except Au and Os.

3.5. In-situ Sr isotope composition of plagioclase

Pristine plagioclase grains were analysed in situ on thick sections (200 µm) by Laser Ablation ICP-MS using a Nu Plasma HR Multi-collector Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometer (MC-ICP-MS) and a Photon Machine Analyte G2 laser microprobe at the Geological Survey of Finland in Espoo. Samples were ablated in He gas (gas flows = 0.4 and 0.1 l/min) within a HelEx ablation cell (Müller et al., 2009). All analyses were made in static ablation mode using a beam diameter of 110 to 200 µm. Details of the analytical procedure are given in Yang et al. (2013). In the course of this study, the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of the in-house standard (Mir a) ranged from 0.70309 ± 0.00001 to 0.70318 ± 0.00001 , with an average value of 0.70312 ± 0.00003 , being within error to the TIMS value of 0.70310 ± 0.00010 (2σ; Rankenburg et al., 2004).

4. Analytical results

4.1. Mineral chemistry

Representative major-element contents of olivine, orthopyroxene, clinopyroxene, and plagioclase are presented in Table 2. Preserved olivine grains mainly occurs in the SHMB dykes. They have Fo contents ranging from 60 to 72 mol%. The olivine grains have relatively high Ni contents (1131–2082 ppm) compared to olivines of similar Fo content in the global database of mafic igneous rocks (Sobolev et al., 2009) (Fig. 4a). This compositional trend resembles that of the Ni-enriched Gudchikhinskaya formation in the Siberian flood basalt sequence (Sobolev et al., 2009), except that olivine grains in our dyke samples are more evolved with lower Fo.

Orthopyroxene could only be analysed in the SHMB and GBNO dykes. The orthopyroxenes in five SHMB samples show relatively high Mg# ranging from 78 to 88 (Fig. 4b). The Mg# values (78–87) of clinopyroxene from SHMB dykes shows a positive correlation with Cr and Ni contents and a negative correlation with Mn and Ti contents. Most clinopyroxenes grains from GBNO dykes have lower Mg# than those from the SHMB dykes, but on the Mg# vs. Cr₂O₃, MnO, and TiO₂

Table 1
Analytical results of platinum group elements standard material Okum in UQAC.

Elements	Detection	Okum UQAC run value		$n = 5$ RSD%	Okum Certified values		Accuracy % RSD%
	Limits (ppb)	Averg. (ppb)	SD		Averg. (ppb)	SD	
Os	0.07	0.69	0.23	33.33	0.98	0.12	12.24
Ir	0.03	0.96	0.16	16.67	0.99	0.07	7.07
Ru	0.12	4.20	0.30	7.14	4.25	0.30	16.47
Rh	0.08	1.34	0.26	19.40	1.40	0.13	9.29
Pt	0.08	11.80	0.50	4.24	11.00	0.60	5.45
Pd	0.47	11.30	0.83	7.35	11.70	0.50	4.27
Au	0.48	1.17	0.34	29.06	1.49	0.16	10.74

Certificate value issued with reference material by International Association of Geoanalysts, except for Os which is from Meisel, 2016.

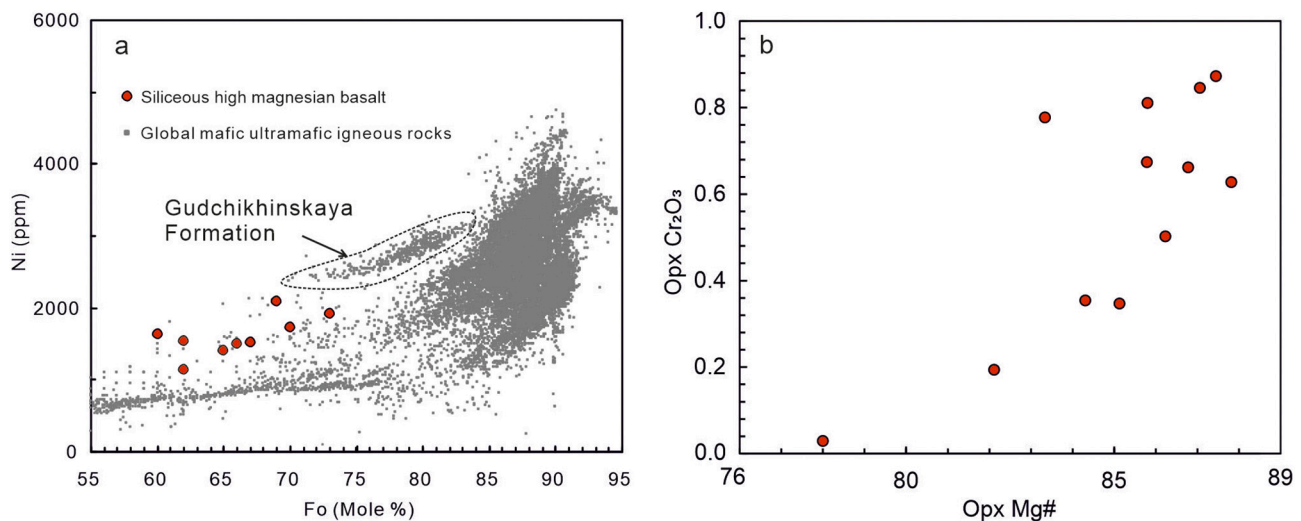


Fig. 4. Mineral compositions from SHMB dykes. A. Fo and Ni contents of olivine compared with data from a global olivine database. Global data taken from (Sobolev et al., 2009). B. Mg# vs. Cr₂O₃ for orthopyroxene.

GBNO groups, and the B2 and B3 rocks of the Bushveld in the field of the LTTH and FTH dyke groups (Fig. 6).

The SHMB and GBNO suites generally have low Ti contents, with Ti falling below 6000 ppm (or < 1% TiO₂). The LTTH and FTH dykes have clearly higher TiO₂ (2.47–2.61 wt%) than the SHMB and GBNO dykes (Figs. 6c, 7a). However, all dyke groups mainly plot in the field of the low-Ti series of other LIPs, though the FTH group plots near the lower range of the high-Ti series (e.g., Emeishan, Paraná, Fig. 7a) (Arguin et al., 2016; Mansur et al., 2021). This is consistent with the observation that all mafic dyke groups in Fennoscandia show lower Ti/Y ratios than the high-Ti series in other LIPs (Fig. 7b). Compared with the high-Ti series of the Emeishan and Paraná flood basalts, the dykes in Fennoscandia show lower Sm/Yb and La/Yb ratios (Figs. 7c, d).

The SHMB and GBNO dykes display fractionated chondrite-normalised REE patterns with a clear enrichment in LREE compared to HREE (Figs. 8a, b). One of the tholeiitic dykes shows a flat REE pattern, whereas the majority of the tholeiitic samples show enrichment in LREE but with less fractionated LREE/HREE compared to the SHMB and GBNO dykes (Figs. 8c, d). Notably, among the tholeiites, the Fe tholeiites show small negative Eu anomalies, but this is not a characteristic feature of all LTTH dykes.

In primitive mantle-normalised incompatible trace element plots, both SHMB and GBNO dykes show strong negative Ta–Nb and P anomalies, and relative enrichments in Rb, Ba, Th, U and Pb, whereas the tholeiitic dykes display weak negative Ta–Nb anomalies and generally rather flat patterns, albeit with minor enrichment in Pb and depletions in K, Sr and P (Fig. 8e, h). The FTH group shows strong negative Sr anomalies, which is consistent with the negative Eu anomalies of this dyke type. All dyke samples show a negative correlation between Nb/La and La/Sm ratios and a positive correlation between Ce/Yb and La/Sm ratios (Fig. 9), suggesting the presence of a crustal component, especially in the SHMB and GBNO suites, and to be discussed in more detail later.

4.3. Chalcophile elements

Chalcophile elements data for different dyke types are listed in Table 3. The SHMB dykes have rather variable Pt and Pd contents, ranging from 0.24 to 12.0 ppb, and contain 0.72 to 3.84 ppb Rh, 0.02–0.89 ppb Ir, 0.2–5.84 ppb Ru, 22–152 ppm Cu and 0.24–1.8 ppb Au (Table 4). The GBNO samples have broadly similar chalcophile element concentrations to those of the SHMB samples. In the SHMB and GBNO groups, MgO have good positive correlations with Ir, Ru and Rh, but a

poor correlation with Pt, Pd, Au. However, the most primitive samples with MgO from 15 to 20 wt% show moderate Pt and Pd contents ranging from 5 to 10 ppb, and the highest Pt and Pd contents occur in samples with moderate MgO of about 10 wt% (Fig. 10). Samples with low MgO contents (4–7 wt%) display a large variation in Pt and Pd contents, varying from values below the detection limit to the highest values found in the entire dyke population (Fig. 10). The LTTH dykes also have variable Pt and Pd contents ranging from 0.24 to 24.3 ppb, and very low Ir and Ru contents from below detection limit to 0.21 ppb, and 0.04–0.52 ppb Rh, 81.2–254 ppm Cu and 0.24–7.66 ppb Au (Table 4). The FTH dykes have narrow range of 11.0–14.2 ppb for Pt and Pd, 1–1.3 ppb Rh, low Ir contents from 0.12 to 0.14 ppb, low Ru contents from 0.63 to 0.72 ppb, and 13–76 ppm Cu, and 0.89–2.7 ppb Au (Table 4). Some samples of the LTTH group with moderate MgO contents (5–9 wt%) show the highest Pd and Pt contents of up to 24 ppb and 20 ppb, respectively, being higher than in the SHMB and GBNO groups. Other samples with lower MgO contents (4–7 wt%) have very low Pd and Pt contents falling below the detection limit. In contrast, the LTTH dykes show relatively low IPGE and Rh contents (Fig. 10). The FTH group with a limited number of samples (3) have moderate Pd and Pt contents, similar to those of the SHMB and GBNO dykes, and low but detectable IPGE contents, overlapping with the positive trend between IPGE and MgO displayed by the SHMB and GBNO groups. However, the FTH dykes show the highest Cu content of about 300 ppm among all dyke groups (Fig. 11). For all four dyke groups, the variation in Au is similar to that of Pd and Pt, though more scattered (Fig. 10). Platinum shows a positive correlation with Pd, plotting broadly on the 1:1 trend line, although some LTTH samples show higher Pd than Pt (2:1) (Fig. 11). This trend is somehow different from the Bushveld magma compositions (B1, B2, B3), which have higher Pt/Pd ratios (Fig. 11). On the plot of Ir vs. Pt, the SHMB and GBNO dykes show relatively high Ir and moderate Pt contents, and some LTTH and FTH dykes show low Ir but high Pt contents, whereas the other samples display very low Pt and Ir contents. In this plot, the B1 marginal rocks from Bushveld display a lot of overlap with the SHMB and GBNO group dykes, and the B2 and B3 rocks with the LTTH and FTH groups.

The samples of all four dyke groups show mostly PGE-undepleted primitive mantle-normalised chalcophile element patterns, except that the IPGE are generally depleted relative to Ni, and Au is depleted relative to Pd and Cu (Fig. 12). In terms of chalcophile element patterns, the SHMB and GBNO groups are similar to Bushveld B1, and the LTTH and FTH groups similar to Bushveld B2 and B3. Accordingly, the FTH samples typically have very high Cu/Pd >20,000 whereas most samples

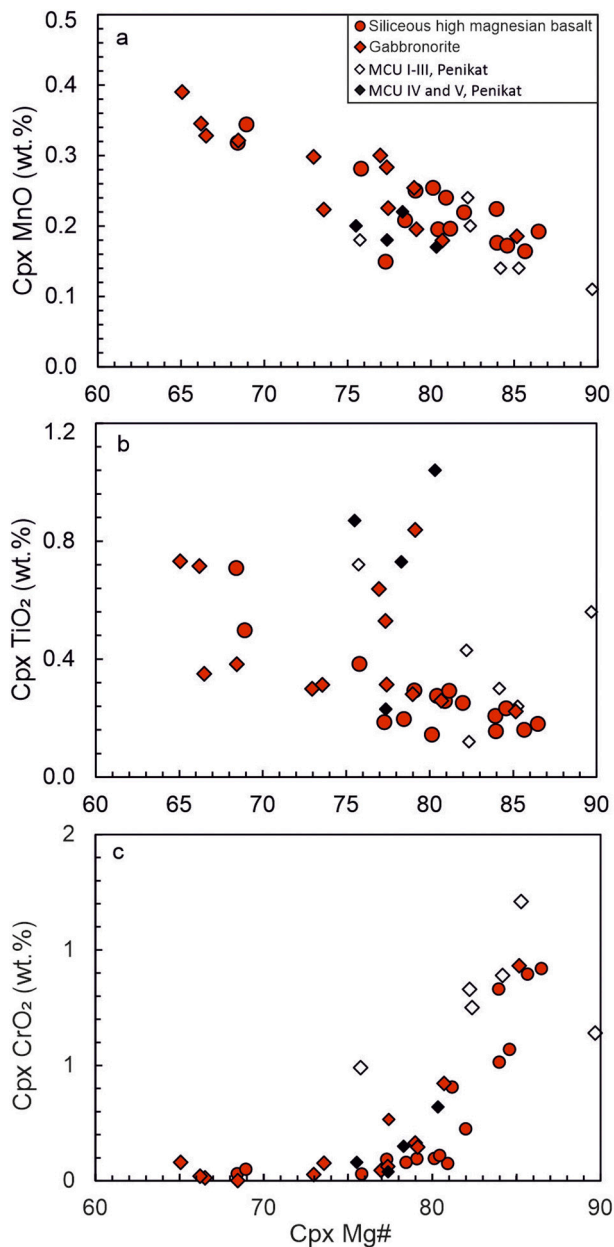


Fig. 5. Clinopyroxene compositions from SHMB and GBNO dykes compared with data from five megacyclic units of the Penikat intrusion. Penikat data taken from (Alapieti and Halkoaho, 1995).

from the other groups have Cu/Pd <15,000, except a couple of LTTH and GBNO samples with low Pd contents below detection limit showing the highest Cu/Pd ratios (Fig. 11).

4.4. Sr isotopes

The Sr isotope composition was determined for plagioclase from 14 dyke samples, with 5–13 grains for each sample (Table 5). The SHMB and GBNO dykes share similar Sr isotope compositions with each other by having initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of about 0.7030, which is clearly higher than the depleted mantle value of about 0.7010 at 2.45 Ga (Amelin and Semenov, 1996). The tholeiitic dykes show a lower initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ value of about 0.7022, being only slightly higher than the depleted mantle composition (Table 5, Fig. 13). These data are consistent with the negative initial ϵNd values of the SHMB and GBNO dykes and the positive initial ϵNd values of the tholeiitic dykes (Fig. 13), demonstrating

different degrees of source enrichment or crustal contamination in these dyke groups. It is interesting that the SHMB and GBNO samples with the highest initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios also show the largest intra-sample variation in initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$. This is in line with the general large variation of initial ϵNd values (Fig. 13). Similar large intra-sample variation of initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ has been observed in mafic intrusions affected by crustal contamination in the Musgrave province in Australia (Maier et al., 2015)

5. Discussion

5.1. Mantle sources of the dyke groups

The nature of the mantle source to the 2.45 Ga magmatism in the Karelian craton remains under debate. Based on Nd isotope data from layered intrusions, Amelin and Semenov (1996) proposed that the parental magmas to the intrusions were derived from a mantle plume and underwent small to moderate amounts (4–20%) of contamination during their ascent to the upper crust. This model is consistent with Os and Nd isotope data from the 2.45 Ga Koitelainen and Akanvaara intrusions (Hanski et al., 2001). However, as an alternative interpretation, the magmas could have formed through melting of metasomatically modified subcontinental lithospheric mantle (SCLM) (Amelin and Semenov, 1996; Huhma et al., 1990).

The available isotope and lithophile trace element data from the dyke suites provide new constraints on these models. The SHMB and GBNO dykes have negative initial ϵNd values (from -2.5 to -1.0), relatively high initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios (0.7028–0.7036) (Fig. 13), and negative Ta–Nb anomalies in multi-element variation plots. They also have relatively high La/Sm and Ce/Yb and low Nb/La ratios (Fig. 10). We argue that these data are more readily explained by crustal contamination of asthenospheric magma than melting of SCLM for the following reasons. First, magmas derived from the SCLM would be expected to mix efficiently during ascent through the SCLM, resulting in a relatively constant enriched geochemical composition (Arndt, 2013 and references therein). In Fennoscandia, the lithophile trace element composition of the SHMB and GBNO dykes is highly heterogeneous, showing an up to 3-fold variation. In addition, La/Sm displays a strong positive correlation with Ce/Yb and a negative correlation with Nb/La, consistent with variable degrees of crustal contamination (Fig. 10). Similar variation has been reported for coeval komatiites in the Vetreny belt (Puchtel et al., 1996) and interpreted as a result of AFC processes affecting a komatiitic magma derived from a mantle plume. In fact, our SHMB and GBNO dykes display much larger compositional variation, with the Vetreny belt komatiites plotting near the lower end of the variation trend (Fig. 10). This feature suggests that the Vetreny komatiite experienced less crustal contamination compared to our SHMB and GBNO dyke magmas. We conducted a simplified two component mixing model between an Archaean komatiitic magma and crust. Based on the Al-undepleted nature of the Vetreny komatiite, the komatiitic magma is assumed to be similar in composition to the komatiite in Belingwe (24 wt% MgO, Shimizu et al., 2005). With regard to the crustal end member, we tested two options: ~ 2.8 Ga trondhjemite, which occurs widely in the Karelian craton, and ~ 2.7 Ga granite, which is proposed to represent a partial melt of trondhjemite (Mikkola et al., 2011). It is quite possible that the komatiitic magma triggered partial melting, but not bulk melting, of the crustal rocks, hence the composition of the 2.7 Ga granite is used as a crustal-end member. The modelling results indicate that the SHMB and GBNO dykes underwent variable degrees of crustal contamination ranging from 3 to 5 wt%, whereas the Vetreny komatiite underwent contamination of about 2 wt% (Fig. 9).

Compared with the SHMB and GBNO dykes, the LTTH and FTH dykes exhibit no or weaker Ta–Nb anomalies, higher initial ϵNd values (from -0.3 to $+1.7$) (Vuollo and Huhma, 2005), and lower initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios (~ 0.7022) (Fig. 13). These features are best interpreted to be derived from a long-term depleted asthenospheric mantle component,

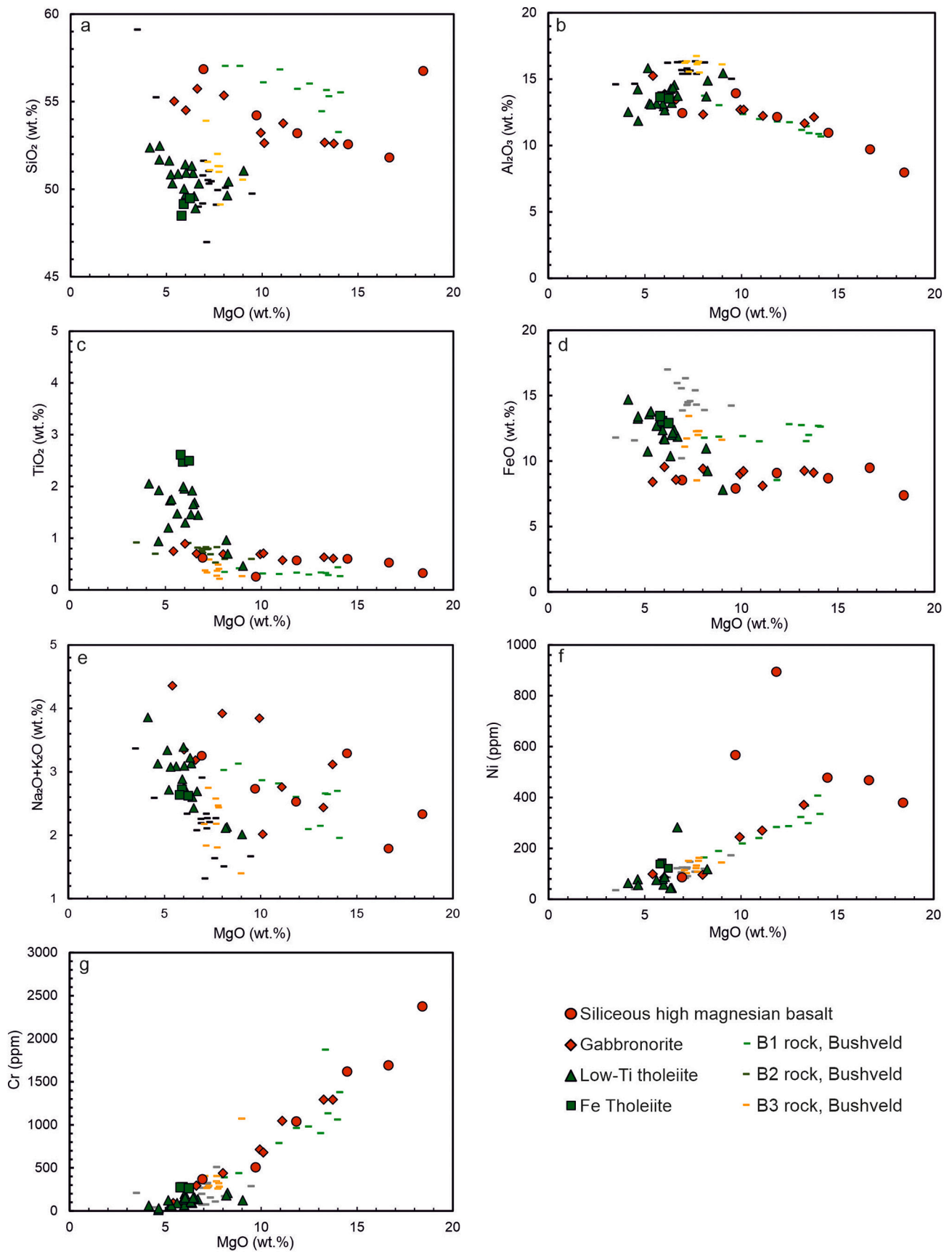


Fig. 6. Selected major element oxides plotted against MgO for the studied dykes.

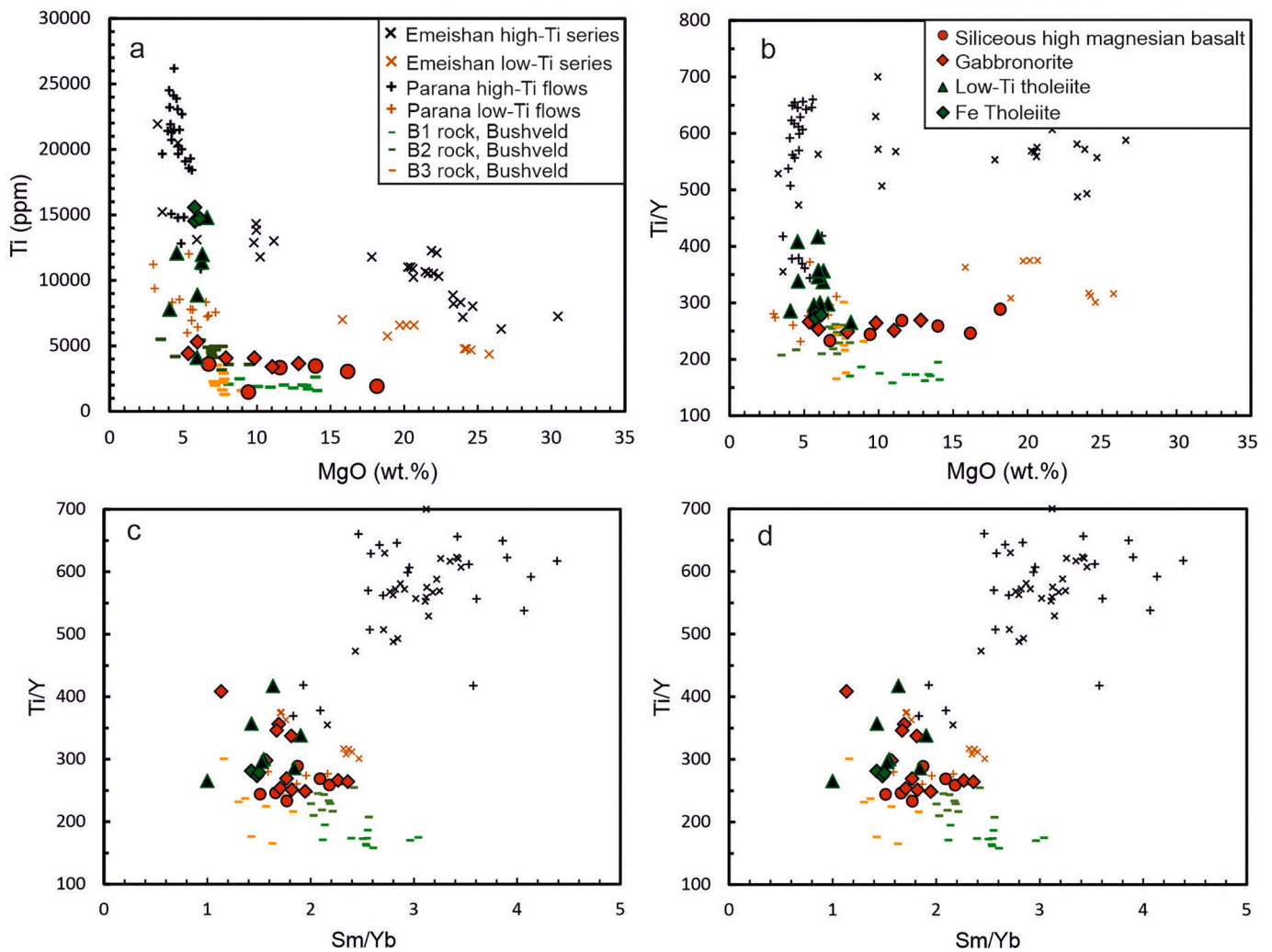


Fig. 7. Binary plots of MgO (wt%) vs Ti (ppm), MgO (wt%) vs. Ti/Y, Sm/Yb vs. Ti/Y, La/Yb vs. Ti/Y for our studies samples, high-Ti and Low-Ti basalts from the Paraná Magma Province (Mansur et al., 2021) and the Emeishan Large Igneous Province (Arguin et al., 2016). Bushveld data are taken from Barnes et al. (2010).

with a minor amount of crustal contamination. Assuming a similar parental magma and crustal contaminant as in the case of the SHMB and GBNO dykes, the two-component mixing model indicates <3 wt% crustal contamination (Fig. 9). The obtained extent of crustal contamination is lower than the estimation of Puchtel et al. (1996) for the Vetryny belt komatiites, but it should be kept in mind that the selection of end-members of both ultramafic magma and crustal contaminants will result in considerable uncertainties. In addition, two component mixing may be too simplified if compared with the real assimilation fractionation contamination (AFC) processes. Later, we will present results of thermodynamic modelling of crustal contamination processes.

Another potential approach to constrain the mantle source to magmas is to consider PGE contents and ratios (Maier and Barnes, 2004). Relative to the primitive mantle with the estimated Pt about 7 ppb and Pd about 4 ppb (Maier and Barnes, 1999), the SCLM is generally depleted in Pt and Pd (by about 50–70%, about 5 ppb Pt, 2 ppb Pd) due to dissolution of most mantle sulphides during large degrees of melting that normally occur during the SCLM formation (Lorand and Luguet, 2016; Pearson et al., 2003). Metasomatic agents may increase the PGE content of the SCLM (Hughes et al., 2014), but the paucity of mantle samples that contain significantly higher Pt and Pd than primitive mantle (PM) suggests that most metasomatic agents are poor in PGE. This idea is consistent with the low PGE contents in Karelian group-II kimberlites (mostly <1 ppb Pt and Pd; Maier et al., 2017). However, because kimberlites represent ultra-low degrees of mantle melting, it

would be desirable to determine PGE in larger-degree SCLM melts (e.g., the Nuanetsi picrites of the Karoo LIP in South Africa). One sample analysed by Maier et al. (2003) shows a moderate PGE content (12 ppb Pt + Pd) at high Pt/Pd (~2) and low Pd/Ir (~4), consistent with PGE depletion in the SCLM. All the dyke groups studied in the present project show relatively high PPGE contents and high Pd/Ir and Pd/Pt ratios, thus not supporting derivation from a SCLM source.

Maier et al. (2016) produced a number of MELTS (Ghiorso and Sack, 1995) models to constrain the mantle source of the Bushveld magmas. They simulated melting of the Kaapvaal SCLM by using mantle xenoliths hosted by Kaapvaal kimberlites. The resulting model melts were much lower in SiO₂ (~45 wt%) and higher in K₂O (~2.6 wt%) than the Bushveld SHMB magmas that are normally considered to be parental magma to the lower portions of the Bushveld Complex. Based on these results, the authors concluded that the Bushveld magmas are derived from the sub-lithospheric mantle. Yang et al. (2016) found that chromites from the most primitive magma in the Kemi and Monchepluton intrusions show chondritic Os isotope compositions, which is inconsistent with a SCLM derivation, as the latter generally has sub-chondritic ¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os (Peltonen and Brüggmann, 2006; Shirey and Walker, 2003).

5.2. Computer simulations of magma evolution

The relationship between the relatively MgO-rich SHMB and GBNO dykes and the relatively MgO-poor tholeiitic dykes (LTTH and FTH)

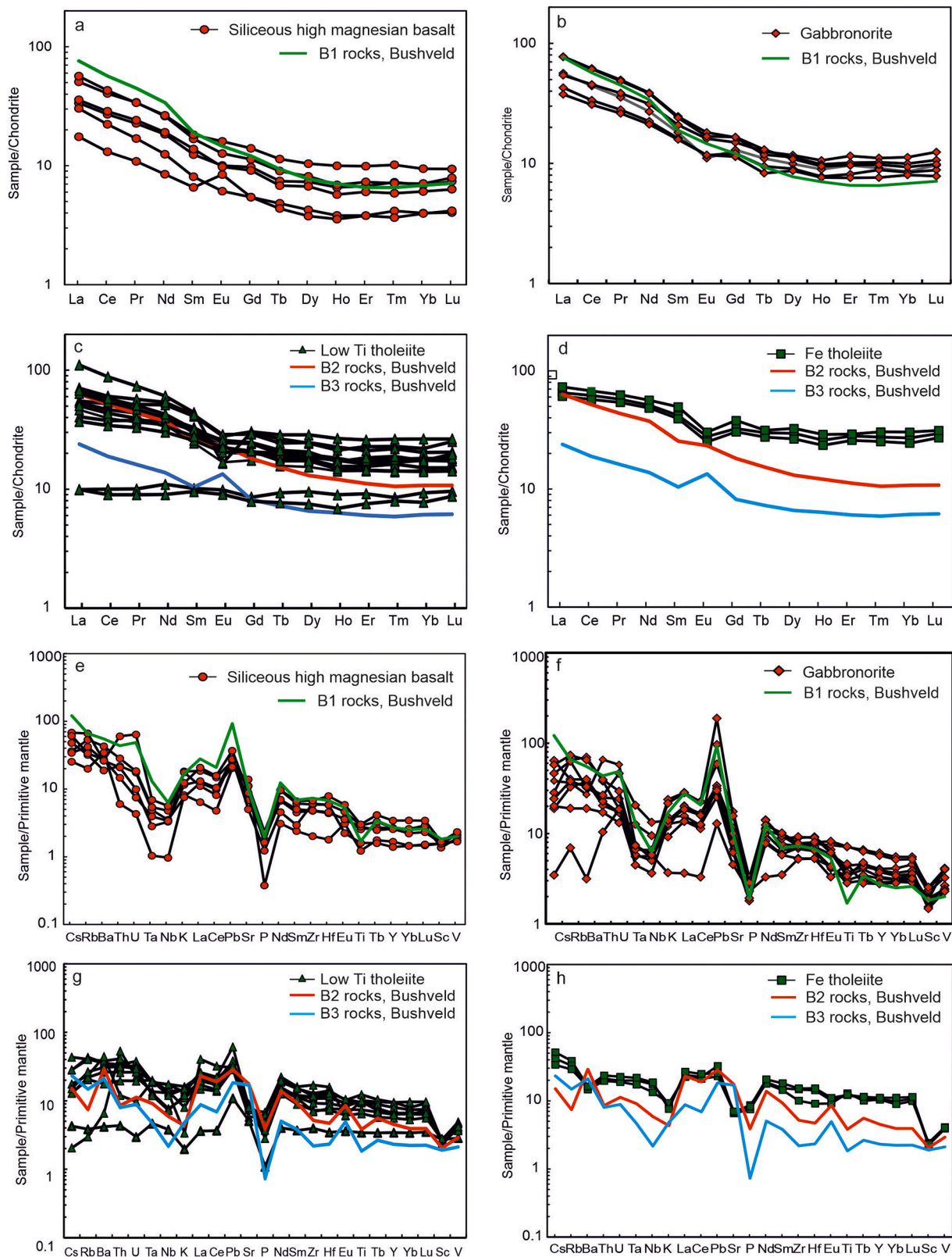


Fig. 8. Chondrite-normalised rare earth element (REE) patterns and primitive mantle-normalised lithophile trace element patterns for different dyke groups. Bushveld data are taken from Barnes et al. (2010) and normalisation values from Sun and McDonough (1989) and McDonough and Sun (1995).

remains enigmatic. It is interesting to note that other LIPs and layered intrusions also contain both SHMB and tholeiitic magma suites (Fig. 14) (e.g., Belomorian belt in Russia, Lobach-Zhuchenko et al., 1998; the Bushveld magmatic event on the Kaapvaal craton of South Africa, B1

and B2/B3 magmas, Sharpe et al., 1981; Barnes et al., 2010; the Stillwater Complex in Montana, Helz, 1995). The variation in the major element compositions of the Karelian SHMB and GBNO dykes is similar to that of SHMB dykes in the Belomorian belt and the Vetreny

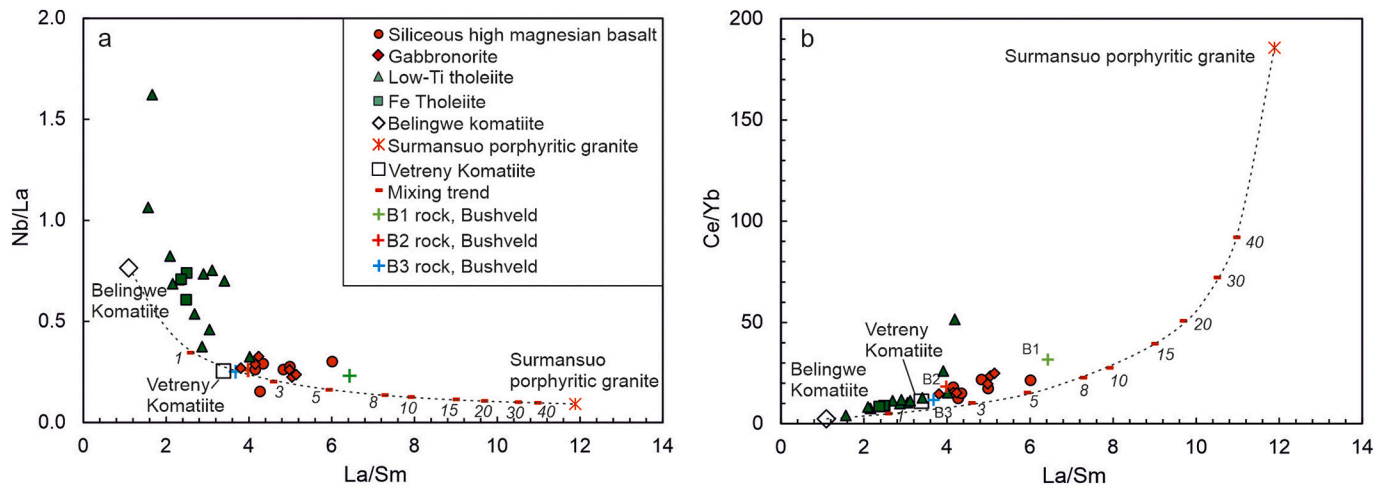


Fig. 9. Trace element ratios in the studied dykes showing a negative correlation between Nb/Th and La/Sm and a positive correlation between Ce/Yb and La/Sm. Simplified two component mixing calculation using komatiite and trondhjemite as end-members indicates <10% contamination for the tholeiite group and 5–20% for SHMB and GBNO. Primitive mantle values are from McDonough and Sun (1995). Comparative data for komatiite from Belingwe are from Shimizu et al. (2005), Vetreny komatiite from Puchtel et al. (1997), and Archaean trondhjemite from Mikkola et al. (2011).

Table 3

Chalcophile elements composition of different types of 2.45 Ga mafic dykes in Finland.

Sample No.	Rock	MgO wt%	Ni ppm	Os ppb	Ir ppb	Ru ppb	Rh ppb	Pt ppb	Pd ppb	Au ppb	Cu ppm
K450-2	SHMB	14.0	403.7	0.4	0.8	2.8	1.2	8.5	7.2	–	85.3
K480	SHMB	11.6	890.1	0.4	0.6	2.4	0.8	5.6	8.9	0.9	76.4
O16	SHMB	6.7	81.8	0.1	0.3	0.7	1.3	12.0	11.9	1.8	85.4
R658	SHMB	9.4	552.3	0.3	0.8	1.2	2.8	9.0	1.8	–	27.7
13.4 SUO-93	SHMB	16.2	441.7	0.5	0.8	3.7	1.7	9.7	10.7	1.7	87.1
13.9.3-SUO-93	SHMB	18.2	369.6	0.4	0.9	5.8	3.5	8.4	4.4	0.8	39.2
AD31-1	GBNO	6.0	90.3	0.1	0.3	1.2	2.4	12.1	11.8	1.1	111.0
35 VEN-94	GBNO	7.9	98.6	–	0.1	0.9	1.6	7.9	8.6	2.2	59.8
4.4 VEN-93	GBNO	5.3	100.5	–	0.1	0.2	0.3	2.6	2.7	–	87.6
AD5-1	GBNO	12.8	368.4	0.1	0.4	2.4	1.5	14.0	16.0	0.9	91.4
AD5-2	GBNO	9.8	256.4	0.2	0.4	2.2	1.6	5.2	5.0	–	114.7
AD54-1	GBNO	11.0	248.1	0.2	0.5	2.8	2.8	21.1	22.0	2.4	88.0
AD12-1	GBNO	6.5	75.7	–	–	0.1	–	9.0	4.6	–	93.6
AD22-2	GBNO	10.0	152.2	0.1	0.5	–	–	17.0	–	1.7	105.2
AD37	GBNO	13.1	372.7	0.7	0.7	1.9	0.7	8.6	4.1	–	34.3
K395	LTTH	4.6	83.6	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.7	0.3	–	–	27.8
7.2. SUO-93	LTTH	6.6	278.7	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.4	2.1	2.8	1.0	142.6
AD14-3	LTTH	5.9	55.8	–	0.0	–	0.2	–	–	–	71.9
AD14-4	LTTH	6.3	45.9	0.1	–	0.4	0.9	–	–	–	75.5
AD27-1	LTTH	6.3	49.7	–	–	0.2	0.1	0.1	–	–	94.4
AD1-3	LTTH	5.9	80.3	–	–	–	–	0.7	–	–	141.7
AD2-1	LTTH	4.6	58.6	–	–	–	–	9.5	24.0	3.9	203.3
UD4	LTTH	6.1	90.6	–	–	–	–	2.9	–	–	100.3
UD7	LTTH	5.6	80.4	–	–	–	–	3.4	–	–	98.5
2-TD-93	LTTH	4.1	73.2	–	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.3	–	–	88.9
K477-4	LTTH	8.1	126.7	–	0.1	–	–	5.5	–	1.8	79.3
38-VEN-94	LTTH	6.0	88.1	–	–	–	–	11.0	22.3	–	240.3
AD1-1	LTTH	6.4	69.6	–	–	–	–	0.7	–	–	164.7
AD1-2	LTTH	6.3	68.3	–	–	–	–	1.0	–	–	161.0
AD3-2	LTTH	5.2	48.9	–	–	–	–	21.0	24.3	7.7	264.9
AD8-6	LTTH	5.2	48.6	–	–	–	–	18.6	–	6.2	281.0
1-UD-93	LTTH	5.2	68.9	–	–	–	–	3.3	–	–	120.3
AD60-1	LTTH	9.0	102.9	0.1	0.2	–	–	18.0	22.2	2.5	105.9
AD43-1	LTTH	8.0	107.1	0.2	0.2	–	0.5	19.8	21.9	1.5	160.4
WD-12	FTH	5.8	156.9	–	0.1	0.6	1.3	11.0	12.6	3.1	312.7
WD13	FTH	6.1	140.4	–	0.1	0.7	1.0	13.5	14.2	1.7	342.2
WD-14	FTH	5.8	132.5	0.1	0.1	0.7	1.1	12.2	14.0	1.9	281.4

komatiites, whereas the Karelian tholeiite dykes display similar variation as the tholeiites in the Kola and Belomorian belts (Fig. 14). One possibility is that the two contrasting magma types were derived from a common mantle plume source, but the SHMB/GBNO group experienced a higher degree of crustal contamination than the tholeiitic group. The

contamination elevated the SiO₂ and alkali contents and considerably influenced the isotope and incompatible trace element ratios of the SHMB/GBNO group (Fig. 9). To test this hypothesis, we conducted thermodynamically constrained major element modelling using the recently published Magma Chamber Simulator (MCS) software (Bohrson

Table 4

Range of concentrations, average compositions, and standard deviations of PGE for each mafic dyke group.

Element	SHMB (n = 6)			GBNO (n = 9)			LTTH (n = 19)			FTH (n = 3)		
	Range	Aver.	STD	Range	Aver.	STD	Range	Aver.	STD	Range	Aver.	STD
Os	0.10–0.47	0.36	0.14	0.03–0.71	0.16	0.21	0.03–0.16	0.05	0.03	0.03–0.08	0.05	0.03
Ir	0.26–0.89	0.69	0.23	0.01–0.66	0.32	0.23	0.01–0.19	0.04	0.05	0.12–0.14	0.13	0.01
Ru	0.69–5.84	2.77	1.85	0.06–2.84	1.31	1.07	0.06–0.33	0.12	0.09	0.63–0.72	0.68	0.04
Rh	0.79–3.48	1.87	1.04	0.04–2.84	1.23	1.03	0.04–0.72	0.18	0.24	1–1.3	1.13	0.15
Pt	5.61–12.04	8.86	2.08	2.55–21.1	10.83	5.84	0.04–20.99	6.22	7.86	11.0–13.6	12.3	1.28
Pd	1.82–11.86	7.48	3.84	0.24–21.95	8.33	7.04	0.24–24.26	6.35	10.7	12.6–14.2	13.6	0.87
Au	0.24–1.83	0.94	0.68	0.24–2.41	1.03	0.88	0.24–7.66	1.45	2.30	1.72–3.15	2.24	0.78
Cu	30.9–94.4	68.6	26.3	66–116	92.7	18.53	22.4–254.4	121.6	58.1	289–341	321	27.9

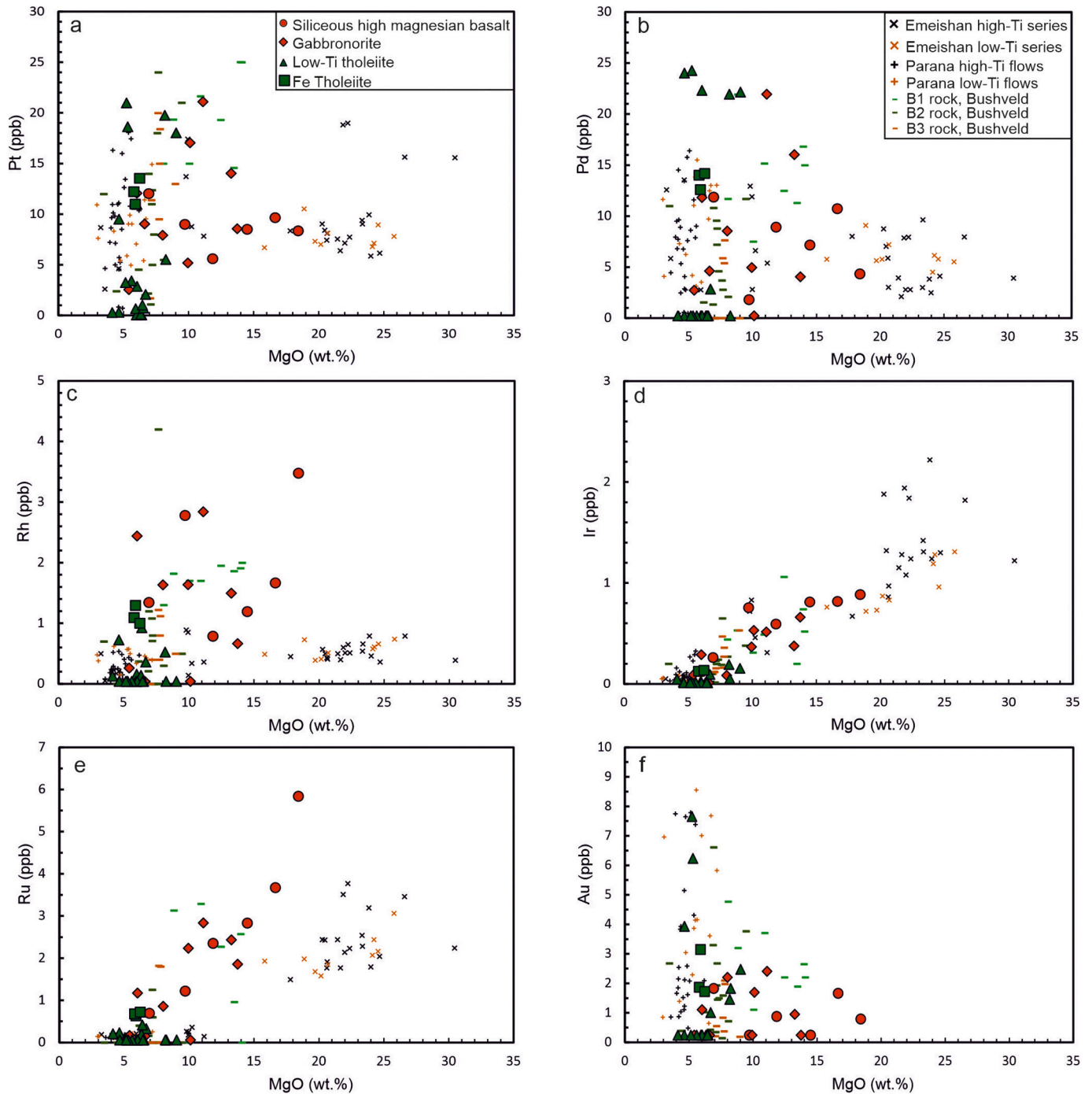


Fig. 10. Pt, Pd, Rh, Ru, Ir and Au vs. MgO diagrams for the studied dykes.

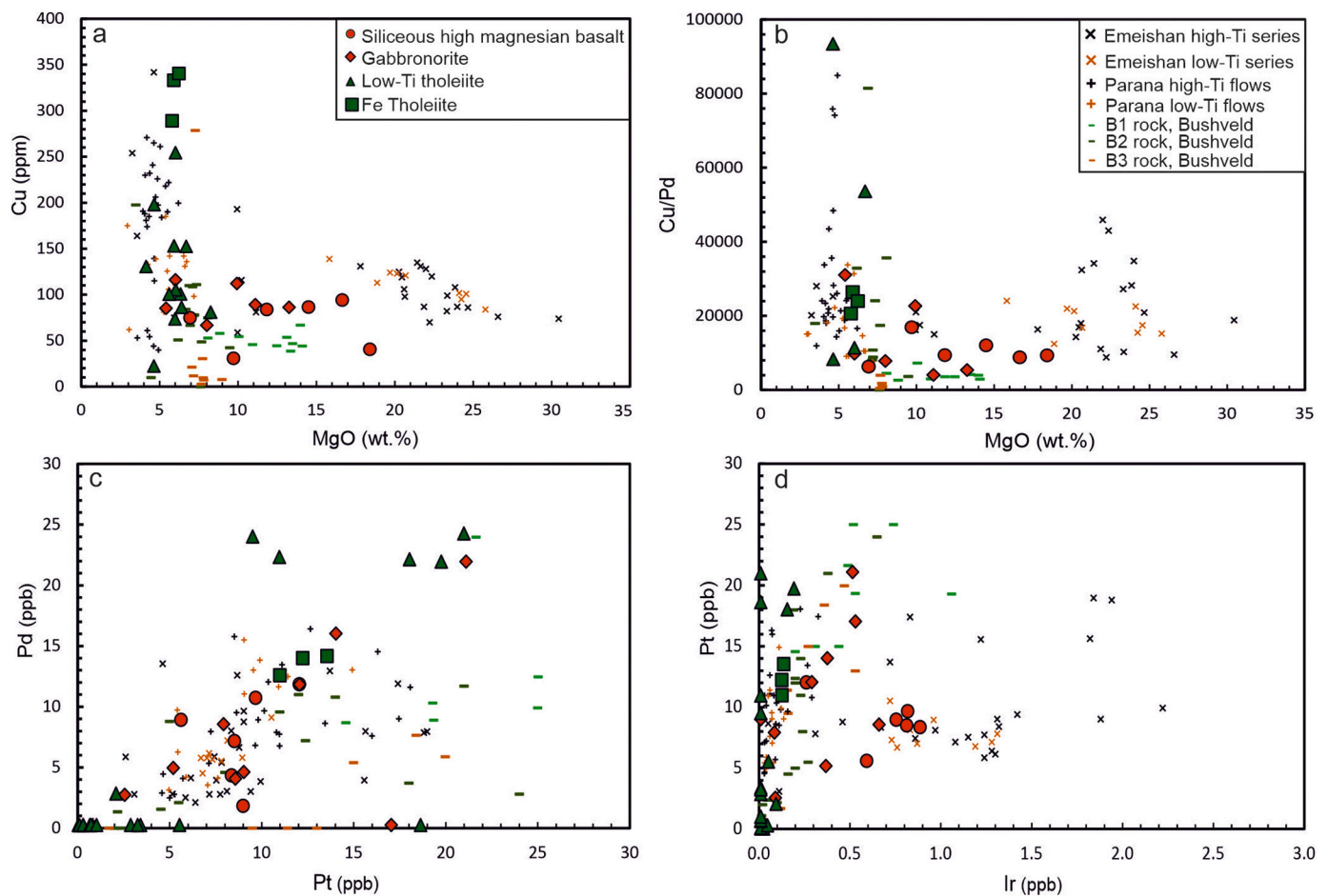


Fig. 11. Cu, Cu/Pd vs. MgO, Pd vs. Pt and Pt vs. Ir diagrams for the studied dykes.

et al., 2020). One crucial end-member needed in the modelling is an uncontaminated parental (initial) melt composition. The Vetreny belt komatiite likely is not a pristine mantle melt as it shows signs of crustal contamination (Puchtel et al., 1996). The Karelian tholeiitic dykes with their positive ϵNd (from -0.3 to $+1.7$) and low initial Sr (0.7022 – 0.7023) may in fact be less contaminated than the Vetreny komatiites, but most of them are relatively evolved and are thus unlikely to represent primary magmas. We thus chose an average composition of seven relatively primitive tholeiite dyke samples from the Karelian and Belomorian cratons and then added equilibrium liquidus olivine in 1 wt % steps until the calculated melt was in equilibrium with forsteritic mantle olivine (Fo_{92}). After adding 43 wt% of olivine, the melt reached a komatiitic composition with ~ 21 wt% MgO. We used this melt as the parental magma composition (Appendix A). The initial Fe oxidation state is assumed to be at $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}^{\text{tot}} = 0.88$ (Appendix A), but not forced through the runs, and the H_2O content is assumed to be 0.5 wt% based on the recent H_2O content estimation for Archaean komatiites by Sobolev et al. (2019). For the crustal contaminant, we chose a trondhjemite (A1906, Mikkola et al., 2011) from the Archaean Suomussalmi belt, a representative rock type for wall rocks of most Karelian mafic dykes and layered intrusions. In all the model calculations, the temperature steps were 5 °C. The assimilation-fractional crystallisation (AFC) model was conducted at a pressure of 300 MPa and the fractional crystallisation (FC) models were conducted at 100 MPa. Such conditions, where AFC takes place primarily at depth within a warm crust, and FC within a shallower cool crust, have been suggested for Phanerozoic LIPs (e.g., Heinonen et al., 2019). In the AFC model, the wall rock vs. parental melt ratio was 1:1 and the percolation threshold of the wall rock (i.e. the amount of melt that has to be generated before assimilation

begins) was 10 wt% of melt (see Bohrsen et al., 2020). In addition, to simulate early assimilation and pre-heating of the wall rock by previous magma pulses in an active rift environment, the initial temperature of the wall rock was set close to its solidus (690 °C at 300 MPa, see Heinonen et al., 2019). All output data are listed in the Electronic Appendix A.

To test whether the tholeiite dykes could be generated by fractionation of the calculated komatiitic parental magma, we simulated fractional crystallisation at 100 MPa. The modelled compositions generally replicate the compositional variation trend of the tholeiite dykes. This indicates that the komatiitic magma represents a reasonable end member in the modelling (Fig. 14). Some tholeiitic samples show slightly higher TiO_2 contents than the modelled trend (Figs. 14b, c). This could be a result of minor variations in the parental magma compositions. To generate the SHMB and GBNO dyke compositions, we simulated AFC at 300 MPa with the komatiitic magma as a starting composition. Due to residual plagioclase in the wall rock, the contaminated melt becomes depleted efficiently in Ca. The AFC model can produce the Vetreny parental liquid composition represented by chilled rocks with an MgO content of about 14.6 wt%, which corresponds to liquid compositions suggested for this magma type (Puchtel et al., 1996; Fig. 14). Continuous contamination yields a high SiO_2 content up to 62 wt% while MgO decreases to <4 wt%, slightly higher than the observed compositional variation in the SHMB and GBNO dykes. One possibility is that the AFC process that takes place in a warm crustal environment at depth is followed by fractional crystallisation within a colder crust at shallower levels (Heinonen et al., 2019, 2020). Hence, we simulated an FC model after 14 wt% crustal contamination at pressure conditions of 100 MPa. The major element compositions of the SHMB and GBNO dykes all plot

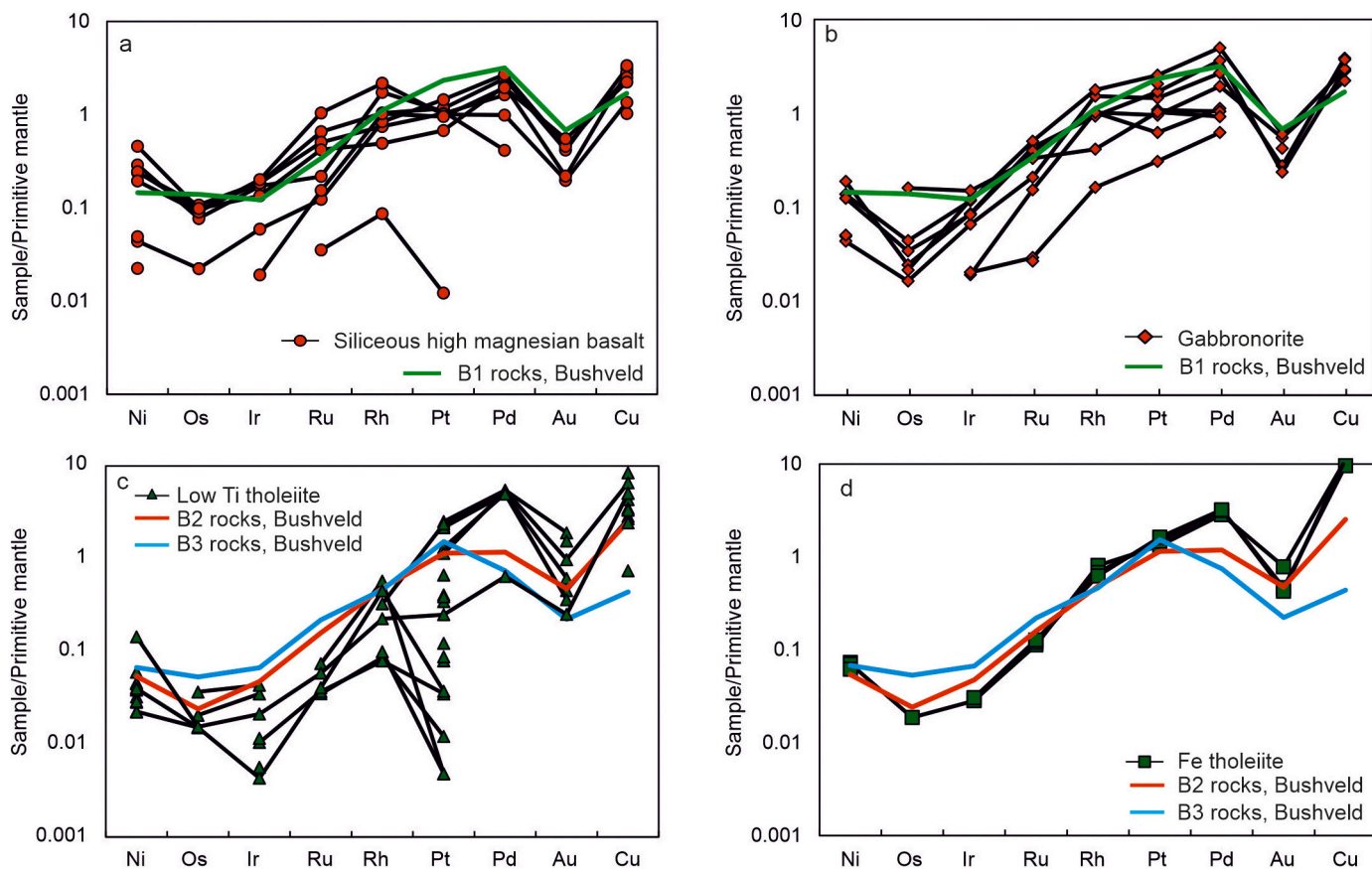


Fig. 12. Primitive mantle-normalised siderophile element patterns for the studied dykes. Normalisation values taken from (McDonough and Sun, 1995).

Table 5

In-situ Sr isotope composition of plagioclase from different types of 2.45 Ga mafic dykes in Finland.

Sample No.	Rock type	Grains (n)	⁸⁷ Rb/ ⁸⁶ Sr	Rb/Sr	⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr _i	2σ
9-SUO-92	SHMB	9	0.010	0.004	0.70303	0.00014
13.3-SUO-93	SHMB	9	0.005	0.002	0.70312	0.00016
13.7-SUO-93	SHMB	10	0.010	0.004	0.70323	0.00019
13.6-SUO-93	SHMB	13	0.005	0.002	0.70296	0.00030
7-SUO-93	SHMB	5	0.018	0.006	0.70398	0.00085
13.4-SUO-93	SHMB	8	0.005	0.002	0.70370	0.00069
14-SUO-93	GBNO	7	0.007	0.003	0.70324	0.00024
AD54-1-110	GBNO	10	0.006	0.002	0.70304	0.00038
AD22-3-110	GBNO	10	0.004	0.002	0.70376	0.00059
17-SUO-92	GBNO	6	0.018	0.006	0.70360	0.00030
AD54-6	GBNO	9	0.005	0.002	0.70313	0.00050
AD-22-2	GBNO	8	0.007	0.003	0.70319	0.00052
AD60-1	LTTH	6	0.013	0.005	0.70230	0.00021
1-TD-93	LTTH	9	0.012	0.004	0.70247	0.00030

between the AFC model and the FC model (Fig. 14), indicating that the chosen parameters are reasonable and a combined AFC and FC model can reproduce the compositions of the SHMB and GBNO dykes from a komatiitic parental melt (Fig. 14). In the modelling, the crystallisation order of komatiite is olivine-orthopyroxene-clinopyroxene-plagioclase-spinel, broadly consistent with the observed mineral assemblage observed in the Vetreny komatiite and the SHMB group dykes. The modelled most primitive olivine has Fo up to 92 mol%, slightly more primitive than the olivine in cumulates of the Vetreny komatiite with Fo up to 89 mol%, but comparable to that of the dunite unit in the Monchegorsk intrusion (Chistyakova et al., 2015; Puchtel et al., 1996). The

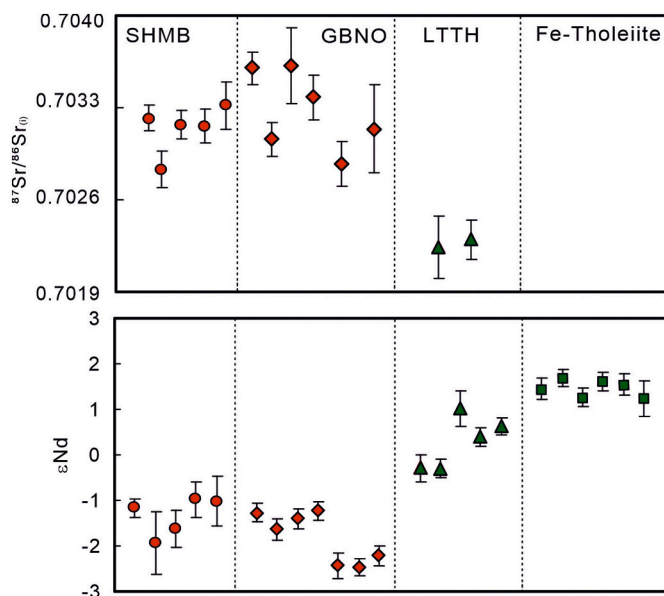


Fig. 13. In-situ Sr isotope compositions of plagioclase and bulk-rock Nd isotope compositions of the studied dykes. Nd isotope data taken from (Vuollo and Huhma, 2005).

modelled earliest liquidus orthopyroxene and clinopyroxene have Mg# of 85 and 84, respectively, comparable to the observed composition in both Vetreny komatiite (Puchtel et al., 1996), the SHMB dykes in this study (Fig. 5), and the Penikat intrusion (Alapieti and Halkoaho, 1995). Accordingly, the models are more compatible with a scenario where the

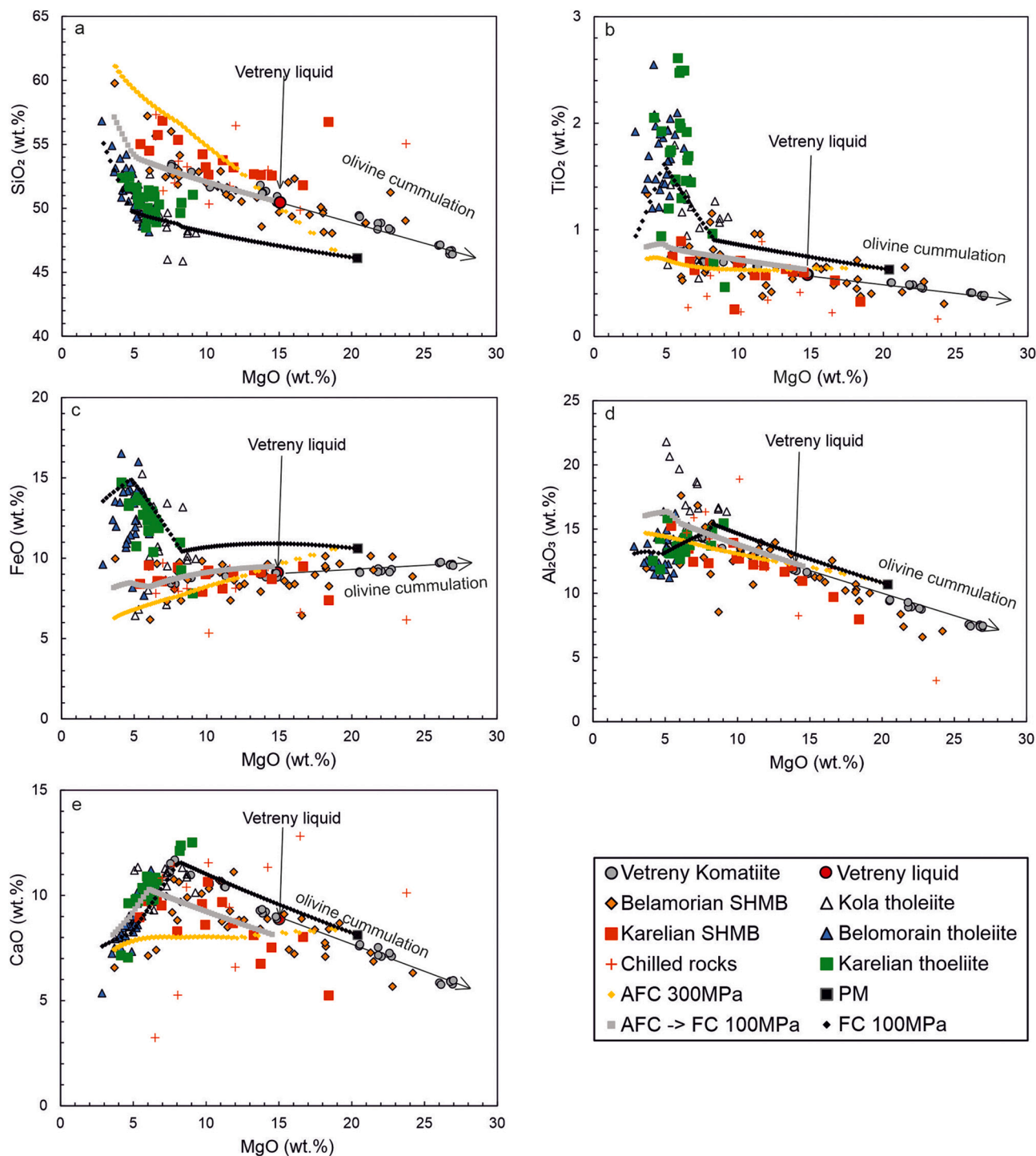


Fig. 14. MCS (Magma Chamber Simulator) major element modelling for different types of mafic dykes in Karelian, Belamorian and Kola regions at different pressures.

SHMB and GBNO dykes experienced an AFC process at a relatively deep crustal level (300 MPa), followed by a FC process in a shallower crust, whereas the LTH and FTH dykes experienced mainly a FC process with a very low degree of crustal contamination (Figs. 14, 15a). On the other hand, a model that the SHMB suite magma derived from melting of SCLM and the tholeiitic suite magma from plume mantle (Fig. 15b) is not favoured.

As was stated above, the tholeiitic dykes all have relatively low MgO contents (<8 wt%). Similar observations have been made in the Belamorian, Kola and Superior cratons (Lobach-Zhuchenko et al., 1998;

Vogel et al., 1998). It is possible that more primitive members have not been found, are not exposed, or were never emplaced in the shallow crust, but the similarity among different cratons renders it possible that primitive end-members for the tholeiitic suites do not exist. As a further note, the tholeiitic dykes show slightly higher TiO₂ contents than the SHMB and GBNO suites (Fig. 14b). This raises the possibility that, as an alternative model, the tholeiites may have formed by lower degrees of partial melting, at higher pressures in deeper mantle domains from a garnet peridotite mantle source (Fig. 15c). A similar model has been proposed to explain the genesis of a high-Ti magma suite in the

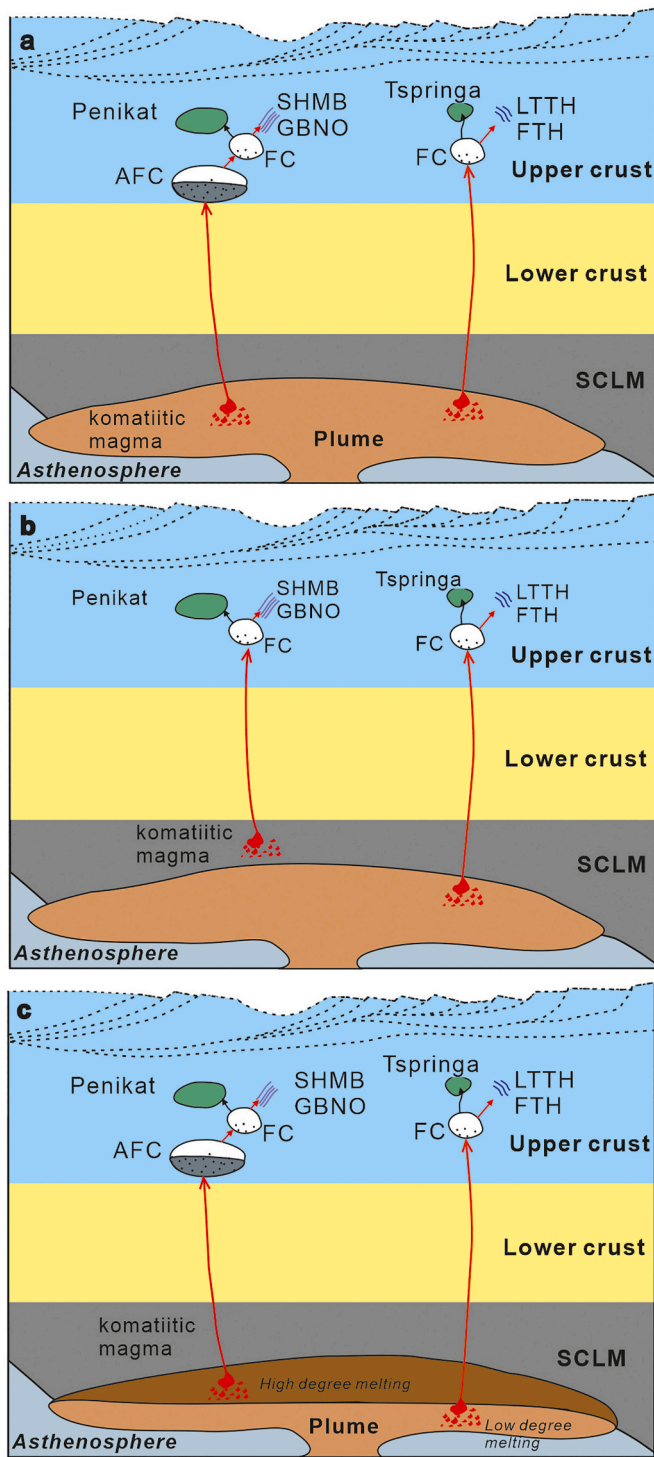


Fig. 15. Model of the petrogenesis of magmas of different dykes and correlation with coeval layered intrusions (not scaled). A. Common magma source for all dyke types, B. SHMB group dykes are derived from melting of SCLM and tholeiitic dykes from plume mantle, C. Dykes are generated at variable mantle levels.

Emeishan LIP (Wang et al., 2007). However, both the LLTH and FTH dykes in Fennoscandia show a similar Ti content to that of the low-Ti magma suite of Emeishan and Parana, but considerably lower Ti contents than the Emeishan and Parana high-Ti magma suites (Figs. 6c, 7). The relative low Ti content is coupled with lower Sm/Yb than in the Emeishan and Parana high-Ti magma series (Fig. 7c), indicating that the melting regime involved shallow spinel peridotite mantle and a

relatively high degree of partial melting.

5.3. Relationship between dykes and layered intrusions

A genetic relationship between the dyke suites and the coeval and spatially associated layered intrusions has long been assumed, based mainly on Nd isotope evidence. Hanski et al. (2001) showed that many of the layered intrusions share negative ϵNd values with the SHMB and GBNO dykes. In contrast, the Tspringa intrusion in the Olanga layered complex has positive ϵNd (+1), which is similar to the Nd isotope composition of the tholeiitic dykes studied here (Vuollo and Huhma, 2005). Maier et al. (2018) showed that the cumulates of the Penikat intrusion and the Loljunmaa feeder dyke have a similar Nd isotope and trace element signature to those of the SHMB and GBNO dykes. Similarly, the dykes in the vicinity of the Portimo complex show major element characteristics similar to the SHMB and GBNO dykes (Iljina, 1994). In the case of the Kemi intrusion, there are neither coeval dykes nor chilled margins. Nevertheless, the relatively radiogenic initial Sr isotope composition (0.7027) suggests a magma composition similar to the SHMB dykes (Yang et al., 2016). The Sr isotope data obtained for the SHMB and GBNO dykes in the present study resemble those of the Burakovka Complex in south-eastern Karelia and the Kemi intrusion, consistent with the concept that these dykes crystallised from parental magmas similar to those which produced the layered intrusions (Amelin and Semenov, 1996; Yang et al., 2016).

One common feature of many Fennoscandian 2.45 Ga layered intrusions, including the intrusions of the Tornio-Näränkäväära belt, is that the upper parts tend to have a much lower Cr content than the lower portions (Alapieti and Halkoaho, 1995; Halkoaho et al., 1990; Iljina, 1994; Maier et al., 2018). Based on mineralogical and bulk-rock geochemical data, it has been suggested two parental magma types, one high in Cr (>1000 ppm) and the other low in Cr (<600 ppm), have been involved in these intrusions (Alapieti et al., 1990; Vogel et al., 1998). The authors argue that the high-Cr magma has a similar composition to the SHMB dykes, with elevated SiO_2 content and fractionated REE patterns, whereas the low-Cr magma, featuring less fractionated REE patterns, is related to the tholeiitic dykes. A similar pattern of coexisting SHMB and tholeiitic magmas has been observed in the Bushveld Complex. The rocks of the Lower and Lower Critical Zones of the intrusion are relatively rich in Cr and share an SHMB signature with a suite of pyroxenitic sills in the floor of the complex (termed B1 sills suite by Sharpe et al., 1981). The rocks of the Main and Upper Zones are relatively poor in Cr and share a tholeiitic signature with fine-grained gabbro-noritic footwall sills (B2 and B3 sill suites). The Critical Zone, hosting the Merensky Reef and UG2 chromitite, has a hybrid SHMB-tholeiitic composition (Karykowski et al., 2017; Kruger, 1994; Sharpe et al., 1981; Yang et al., 2019).

Regarding to the relationship between the tholeiitic dykes and the Fennoscandian intrusions, the dykes have positive initial ϵNd values, which are distinct from the negative initial ϵNd values of the upper part of the Penikat, Koitelainen and Akanvaara intrusions ($\epsilon\text{Nd} = -1.3$ – -2.4 , Hanski et al., 2001; Maier et al., 2018). Also, plagioclase grains from the tholeiitic dykes show low initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{88}\text{Sr}$ of ~ 0.7024 (Fig. 13), clearly lower than plagioclase from the Penikat intrusion (0.7027–0.7032) (Rivas, 2022), which are more consistent with the initial $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{88}\text{Sr}$ ratios of the SHMB and GBNO dykes (0.7030–0.7037, Fig. 13). Maier et al. (2018) proposed that the upper part of the Penikat intrusion may have been derived from an evolved SHMB magma that ascended from a deeper staging magma chamber, and had a low Cr content due to extensive crystal fractionation. This model is consistent with our new compositional data of clinopyroxene showing that some of the SHMB dykes had relatively low Cr and MgO contents. Specifically, clinopyroxene from the Penikat intrusion plot in the same trend defined by the SHMB and GBNO dykes in terms of Mg#, TiO_2 , MnO, and Cr_2O_3 (Fig. 5).

The PELE modelling (Boudreau, 1999) carried out by Maier et al. (2018) suggests that the magma parental to the Penikat intrusion was

more evolved than the average SHMB composition. Possibly the dykes could have accumulated some Mg-rich minerals (olivine, orthopyroxene), or the magma parental to the Penikat intrusion experienced some fractionation before its final emplacement.

5.4. Sulphide saturation history and implications for PGE exploration

To form a PGE-rich sulphide deposit, it is critical that the magma remains sulphur undersaturated during its ascent through the crust or no sulphide liquid settles out of the magma. The SHMB and GBNO samples have PGE-undepleted mantle-normalised siderophile element patterns (Figs. 12a, b), with Pd contents up to 22 ppb and mantle-like Cu/Pd and Cu/Zr ratios (Fig. 11b), indicating that the magma was sulphur undersaturated during high-degree partial melting of the mantle and remained so *en route* to the upper crust. This renders the magmas prospective to form PGE deposits (e.g., Naldrett, 2004). However, one SHMB sample and two GBNO samples with a relatively low MgO content (~7 wt%) show low PGE concentrations (Pt <0.31 ppb). In addition, there is a decrease in both the Cu content and Cu/Zr ratio in the more evolved magmas (MgO, 5–10 wt%) (Fig. 11a), suggesting that these relatively evolved magmas reached saturation in sulphide melt. Notably, PGE reefs occur in both relatively primitive and relatively differentiated portions of the 2.45 Ga layered intrusions (e.g., Penikat, Portimo, Koillisma) (Maier et al., 2018), but the latter tend to be richer in PGE.

Regarding the tholeiitic dykes, the most primitive samples (LTTH) have broadly mantle-like Cu/Pd ratios (Fig. 11b) indicating that the magmas did not reach sulphide saturation during the early stage of their differentiation. Some of the LTTH samples show high Pd contents ranging from 20 to 24 ppb, which are close to the highest values reported for basaltic rocks worldwide (Fiorentini et al., 2010). The high PGE contents of these samples are unlikely a result from re-mobilisation of metals during low-T alteration as they also show the highest Pt contents of 10–20 ppb (Fig. 11c). Instead, one could suggest that the high PGE contents of the tholeiites were generated through fractionation of a more primitive magma. The problem with this model is that some studies have shown Pt to be compatible during fractionation of sulphide-undersaturated silicate melt at certain oxygen fugacity (e.g., Park et al., 2013). This would result in relatively high Pd/Pt ratios, consistent with the elevated Pd/Pt in the upper portions of many layered intrusions (e.g., Bushveld, Maier et al., 2013).

In the more differentiated members of the tholeiitic dyke suite (MgO = 4–6 wt%), PGE and Cu show large variation, with Pt and Pd contents ranging from <1 ppb to 20 ppb, indicating that sulphide melt saturation was reached during an advanced stage of fractionation. Interestingly, the FTH dykes are strongly enriched in Cu (400 ppm) at moderate Pt and Pd contents of around 10–14 ppb. The Cu/Pd ratio ranges from 20,000 to 26,000, being significantly higher than that in PM, but it is difficult to explain the high Cu/Pd ratio by a model of sulphide melt segregation as this should have caused a strong PGE depletion. Possibly, FTH dykes assimilated a small amount of Cu- and PGE-rich sulphide melt during their crustal ascent. However, these samples contain moderate amounts of PGE (12–14 ppb Pd) without significant enrichment. The other option is that high Cu is a consequence of enrichment due to metasomatic fluids (Le Vaillant et al., 2016), which is supported by the relatively high degree of alteration of these samples.

From the above discussion, it appears that all magma types occurring in the 2.45 Ga dyke suites are fertile in terms of PGE at a relatively unevolved stage. Depletion in PGE is restricted to some of the most evolved samples, suggesting that sulphide melt saturation was reached during advanced fractionation, which is commonly observed in flood basalt provinces. In the SHMB suite, sulphide melt saturation occurred at a slightly earlier stage (7–8% MgO) than in the tholeiitic suites (5 wt% MgO), possibly because the former underwent more crustal contamination. The obtained data on these 2.45 Ga dyke suites suggest that all stratigraphic levels of the coeval layered intrusions have potential to host PGE mineralisation.

6. Conclusions

The ~2.45 Ga dykes in northern and eastern Finland and adjacent parts of Russian Karelia, which are coeval with the PGE-mineralised layered intrusions, comprise several compositionally distinct types, including siliceous high-magnesian basalt, gabbro-norite, low-Ti tholeiite and Fe-rich tholeiite dykes.

- The SHMB group dykes were likely derived via AFC from a komatiitic melt, followed by FC at a relatively low pressure, whereas the tholeiitic dykes represent less contaminated magmas generated dominantly by crystal fractionation. Alternatively, the SHMB dykes may have been derived from a SCLM mantle whereas the tholeiite dykes from a plume mantle, or the two types of dykes derived from different part of a mantle plume with different melting degree, though these latter two models are not favoured in this study.
- The lower portions of most of the Finnish PGE-mineralised intrusions (e.g., Penikat, Portimo) appear to have crystallised from a primitive SHMB-like magma with high MgO and Cr contents, whereas the upper portions of the intrusions were crystallised from a fractionated SHMB magma with lower MgO and Cr contents. The parental magma of the Tsipringa intrusion has a tholeiitic affinity. There is currently no clear evidence to suggest that individual layered intrusions crystallised from hybrid SHMB-tholeiitic magmas.
- Most of the mafic dykes are undersaturated in sulphides and fertile in PGE, but several of the most differentiated samples have evidently reached sulphide saturation, indicating a high potential for PGE deposits.

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Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

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