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1 **New $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ Dating of Alunite from the Cerro Quema Au-Cu Deposit, Azuero**
2 **Peninsula, Panama**

3

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8

9

Abstract

10 Cerro Quema is a high-sulfidation epithermal Au-Cu deposit located in the Azuero
11 Peninsula, southwestern Panama. It is hosted by a dacite dome complex of the Río Quema
12 Formation, a volcanosedimentary sequence of the Cretaceous – Paleogene magmatic arc. Cerro
13 Quema has oxide resources of 24.60 Mt at 0.71 g/t Au and 0.04% Cu, and sulfide resources of
14 11.38 Mt at 0.41 g/t Au and 0.31% Cu. Alunite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ dating of a sample from Cerro Quema
15 yielded a final age of 48.8 ± 2.2 Ma (weighted average of plateau age), and of 49.2 ± 3.3 Ma
16 (weighted average of total gas age). This age is interpreted to represent the formational age of
17 the Cerro Quema deposit at ~49 Ma, linking it to the Valle Rico Batholith intrusive event.
18 Based on the new alunite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ data and a re-examination of published geochronological
19 data, magmatic-hydrothermal deposits such as the Río Pito porphyry copper and the Cerro
20 Quema high-sulfidation epithermal deposit formed during the early arc stage (68 – 40 Ma) in
21 the Chagres-Bayano Arc (Eastern Panama) and the Soná-Azuero Arc (Western Panama),
22 respectively. They formed in a similar geodynamic setting at ~49 Ma, when diorites and quartz-
23 diorites intruded Cretaceous volcanosedimentary sequences. Cerro Quema and Río Pito
24 provide evidence for the exploration potential of Cretaceous – Paleogene arc segments.

25 Exploration should focus on Cretaceous volcanic and volcanosedimentary sequences intruded
26 by Paleogene batholiths of intermediate to felsic composition.

27

28 **Introduction**

29 Southern Central America is a region characterized by a long-lived intra-oceanic subduction
30 zone with a magmatic arc active since the Late Cretaceous (Lissinna, 2005; Buchs *et al.*, 2010,
31 2011). It displays many of the metallogenic features commonly associated with convergent
32 plate boundaries including epithermal Au-Cu deposits (e.g., Cana, Cerro Quema, Cerro
33 Molejón, Remance and Santa Rosa) and porphyry Cu-Au deposits (e.g., Cerro Chorcha, Cobre
34 Panamá-Petaquilla, Cerro Colorado, Río Pito; Fig. 1; Kesler *et al.*, 1977; Nelson, 1995; Corral
35 *et al.*, 2011, 2016; Baker *et al.*, 2016).

36 Understanding the relationships between magmatic arc evolution and mineralization is
37 fundamental for mineral exploration, and metallogenic studies at the Panamanian magmatic
38 arc. Initial attempts to relate Caribbean geological evolution and mineralization by Kesler *et*
39 *al.* (1975; 1977) and Kesler (1978) were followed up by a metallic mineral resources
40 compilation of South Central America by Nelson (2007) and studies of the metallogenic
41 evolution of the Greater Antilles by Nelson *et al.* (2011). There have been no comprehensive
42 studies of the metallogeny of Panama, although individual publications document the geology,
43 geochemistry and geochronology of the magmatic arc (e.g, Lissinna, 2005; Wörner *et al.*, 2009;
44 Buchs *et al.*, 2010; Corral *et al.*, 2013;) and mineral deposits (e.g., Cerro Chorcha, Druecker
45 and Sandefur, 2008; Cerro Quema, Corral *et al.*, 2011, 2016; Cobre Panamá-Petaquilla, Baker
46 *et al.*, 2016).

47 This study focuses on the age of the Cerro Quema Au-Cu deposit (Fig. 1). Located in the
48 Azuero Peninsula, Cerro Quema consists of several mineralized bodies, La Pava, Cerro
49 Quemita, Mesita, and Cerro Quema. Global measured, indicated, and inferred oxide resources
50 for the four orebodies total 24.60 Mt at 0.71 g/t Au and 0.04% Cu, global sulfide resources
51 total 11.38 Mt at 0.41 g/t Au and 0.31% Cu (Sutcliffe et al., 2014; Table 1).

52 Although several studies have documented the geology of Cerro Quema (Leach, pers.
53 commun., 1992; Nelson, 1995; Corral et al., 2011), its origin and evolution (Corral et al., 2016,
54 2017), and its metal content and ore distribution (Sutcliffe et al., 2014; Corral et al., 2018), the
55 only available radiometric age determinations are Re-Os dates by Perelló et al. (2020). The
56 current manuscript presents the first $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ dating results of alunite from Cerro Quema,
57 discussing their significance within the geological framework of Panama. These data contribute
58 to a better understanding of the metallogenic evolution of the Panamanian magmatic arc.

59

60 **Metallogeny of Panamanian Porphyry and Epithermal Deposits**

61 Geochronological data for Panamanian mineral deposits is scarce but provide reliable data
62 on deposit ages, their host rocks and their related volcanic and volcanosedimentary sequences.
63 Table 2 summarizes all the published dating results of the mineral deposits shown in Figure 1,
64 as well as their proposed ages based on indirect dating and crosscutting relationships.

65 The Río Pito porphyry copper deposit (NE Panama) was discovered during the regional
66 stream sediment survey financed by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP).
67 Mineralization is hosted in the Río Pito batholith, a 49.23 ± 0.57 Ma to 48.45 ± 0.55 Ma
68 granodiorite-quartz diorite body intruded in basalts and andesites of Upper Cretaceous age
69 (Kesler et al., 1977; Nelson et al., 1995). The age of the causative intrusion (~49 Ma) has been

70 interpreted as the mineralization age. Río Pito is associated with the first stage of arc
71 magmatism from late Cretaceous to middle Eocene (68 – 40 Ma), produced after the subduction
72 initiation of the Farallon plate beneath the Caribbean plate (late Campanian; ~75 – 73 Ma) and
73 the proto-arc magmatism on the westernmost edge of the Caribbean plate (Buchs et al., 2010).
74 This magmatic stage is characterized by the development of the Soná-Azuero Arc (Western
75 Panama), and the Chagres-Bayano Arc (Eastern Panama). These magmatic arcs document a
76 major phase of tholeiitic to calc-alkaline arc magmatism, mostly derived from a hydrated
77 mantle wedge, and emplaced in an oceanic plateau crust (Lissina, 2005; Buchs et al., 2010;
78 Wörner et al., 2009; Corral et al., 2011; Montes et al., 2012; Cardona et al., 2018).

79 Cobre Panamá-Petaquilla is an Oligocene porphyry copper deposit located in N Panama. It
80 formed when multi-phase diorite-granodiorite porphyries derived from an enriched, volatile-
81 rich magma through fractional crystallization intruded the 32 – 28 Ma Petaquilla batholith at
82 29 – 28 Ma (Villeneuve, pers. commun., 1997; Speidel et al., 2001; Whattam et al., 2012; Baker
83 et al., 2016; Sepp and Dilles, 2018). Cobre Panamá-Petaquilla is associated with sporadic arc-
84 related plutonism of central Panama that occurred during a magmatic gap (~40 – 20 Ma)
85 coincident with a tectonic reorganization driven by: (1) breakup of the Farallon plate, (2) initial
86 interaction of the Panamanian arc with Colombia, (3) arc collision with thickened oceanic crust
87 or a plateau, and (4) accretion of seamounts (Lissina, 2005; Lonsdale, 2005; Whattam et al.,
88 2012; Barat et al., 2014; Buchs et al., 2019a; Redwood, 2019).

89 Molejón (N Panama) is a vein-type, low-sulfidation epithermal deposit located within the
90 Cobre Panamá-Petaquilla district. It formed as peripheral epithermal mineralization associated
91 with Cobre Panamá-Petaquilla during the Oligocene (Speidel et al., 2001; Baker et al., 2016).
92 The age of Molejón corresponds to the age of the intrusive rocks (29 – 28 Ma).

93 The Cana low-sulfidation epithermal deposit (SE Panama) was first exploited by the Spanish
94 between 1665 and 1727, producing an estimation of 1 Moz Au (Nelson et al., 1995). High-
95 grade auriferous quartz veins and breccia pipes are hosted by andesites and fragmental volcanic
96 rocks that were intruded by hornblende-feldspar porphyry dikes and stocks of Oligocene age
97 (Nelson, 2007). Cana formed in a similar geologic setting and timing to Molejón. Due to the
98 scarce geochronological constraints on this deposit, a maximum age of Oligocene is assumed
99 for Cana, corresponding to the age of the host rocks.

100 The Remance and Santa Rosa low-sulfidation epithermal deposits (Veraguas gold belt; SW
101 Panama) are characterized by auriferous quartz veins and stockworks, and by sulfide
102 disseminations and stockworks, respectively (Nelson, 2001). Mineralization is associated with
103 volcanic domes hosted by the basaltic to rhyolitic volcanic rocks of the Cañazas Formation (18
104 – 17 Ma; Wleklinski, 1969, Nelson, 2001). These volcanic rocks are discordantly overlain by
105 unaltered and unmineralized ignimbrites from La Yeguada Formation (12.6 ± 0.8 Ma;
106 Wleklinski, 1969). Crosscutting relationships indicate that mineralization occurred prior to the
107 deposition of La Yeguada Formation, and after the emplacement of the Cañazas Formation
108 volcanic domes. Therefore, an age range of 18 – 13 Ma is estimated for Remance and Santa
109 Rosa. Numerous low-sulfidation deposits in the Veraguas Belt formed when calc-alkaline arc
110 magmatism resumed in the Miocene (20 – 5 Ma), displaying a more mature volcanic arc
111 signature than previous magmatic suites in Panama (Lissinna, 2005; Wörner et al., 2009; Buchs
112 et al., 2019a, 2019b).

113 The world-class Cerro Colorado porphyry copper deposit (W Panama) is hosted in a thick
114 pile of subaerial basaltic to rhyolitic volcanic rocks of the Oligocene Chichica Formation (~32
115 Ma; Stewart, pers. commun., 1957; Clark et al., 1977). Cerro Colorado is associated with a
116 cluster of high-level intrusive bodies of the Escopeta granodiorite pluton and quartz-feldspar-
117 hornblende porphyry stocks (4 – 3 Ma; Issigonis, 1973; Issigonis et al., 1974; Clark et al., 1977;

118 Kesler et al., 1977). A Pliocene age (~3 Ma) was proposed by Kesler et al. (1977) as the age of
119 Cerro Colorado based on K-Ar dating of biotite from a weakly chlorite-altered sample of the
120 Escopeta granodiorite. Cerro Colorado formed after the magmatism shift from calc-alkaline to
121 Adakite-like magmatism at ~5 Ma due to the collision of the Cocos Ridge with Central America
122 (Hoernle et al., 2002; Lissinna, 2005; Wörner et al., 2009; Gazel et al., 2009, 2011). This
123 adakite-like magmatism was produced by melting the leading edge of the subducted Cocos
124 Ridge and older Caribbean Large Igneous Province basement, either at the margin of a slab
125 window or after slab breakoff below west-central Panama (Johnston and Thorkelson, 1997;
126 Abratis and Wörner, 2001; Wörner et al., 2009; Whattam et al., 2012).

127 Cerro Chorchá is a gold-bearing porphyry copper prospect (W Panama). It was discovered
128 by a regional stream sediment sampling program conducted by ASARCO (Nelson, 1995).
129 Porphyry mineralization is associated with the Tabasara Group intrusive complex (Pliocene –
130 Miocene) of diorite to quartz diorite composition. Porphyry stocks intruded the andesite to
131 basaltic flows and volcanoclastic rocks of the Cañazas Formation (18 – 17 Ma; Wleklinski,
132 1969; Nelson, 1995, 2001; Folk, 2005; Druecker and Sandefur, 2008). The porphyry stocks
133 have not been dated but Folk (2005) and Druecker and Sandefur (2008) proposed a similar
134 geologic setting and timing to Cerro Colorado, assuming a formational age at 3 Ma or younger
135 for Cerro Chorchá.

136

137 **Cerro Quema Exploration History**

138 In 1965, a regional stream sediment survey financed by the United Nations Development
139 Program (UNDP) was undertaken to evaluate Panama's mineral resource potential. This survey
140 targeted porphyry copper mineralization and resulted in the discovery of the Río Pito and Cobre
141 Panamá (formerly Petaquilla) deposits. The survey also revealed other areas with significant

142 copper and gold anomalies on the Azuero Peninsula (e.g., Del Giudice and Recchi, 1969;
143 Ferenčić, 1970, 1971; Kesler et al., 1977). In 1986 – 1988, the Compañía de Exploración
144 Mineral S.A. (CEMSA) followed up on UNDP stream sediment anomalies and discovered
145 Cerro Quema. From 1990 to 1994, Cyprus Amax Minerals carried out several exploration
146 programs including soil geochemistry and drilling campaigns. In 1996, Campbell Resources
147 Inc. carried out an infill drilling program to further define the resources and completed a project
148 feasibility study. In 2007, Bellhaven Copper & Gold Inc. acquired the project, and completed
149 a feasibility study and metallurgical tests. Pershimco Resources Inc. acquired the project in
150 2010 and performed an intensive drilling campaign. Additionally, they conducted lithological
151 and structural mapping of the area, with channel and geochemical sampling. Recently, several
152 geophysical surveys have been carried out, including an Induced Polarization (IP) survey and,
153 airborne radiometric, magnetic, and VTEM surveys (Kwan et al., 2016). In 2016, Pershimco
154 Resources Inc. merged with Orla Mining Ltd. to continue the exploration and development of
155 Cerro Quema under the name Orla Mining Ltd.

156

157 **Geologic Setting**

158 *Geology*

159 The Azuero Arc Group (late Cretaceous to Eocene) overlies the Azuero Igneous Basement
160 (Conacian to Santonian) and is discordantly overlain by the Tonosí Formation (Eocene to
161 Miocene; Buchs et al., 2010, 2011; Corral et al., 2011, 2013). The Azuero Arc Group consists
162 of three arc-related batholiths (El Montuoso, Valle Rico and Parita) and volcanic and
163 volcanosedimentary sequences.

164 The Cerro Quema high-sulfidation epithermal Au-Cu deposit covers an area of ~20 km² in
165 the center of the Azuero Peninsula (Figs. 1 and 2). The mineralization is hosted in a dacite
166 dome complex of the Río Quema Formation (late Campanian to Maastrichtian; Corral et al.,
167 2013, 2016), a volcanosedimentary sequence that records the earliest calc-alkaline volcanism
168 related to the Azuero Arc Group.

169 The Río Quema Formation is bounded to the north by the Valle Rico batholith, a series of
170 Eocene (55 – 49 Ma) diorite and quartz diorite intrusions with calc-alkaline affinity (Del
171 Giudice and Recchi, 1969; Lissinna, 2005; Corral et al., 2016). The Late Cretaceous Azuero
172 Igneous Basement (Aptian to Santonian; Kolarsky et al., 1995; Kerr et al., 1997; Hoernle et al.,
173 2002; Lissinna, 2005; Buchs et al., 2010) comprises tholeiitic basalts and pillow basalts of
174 oceanic plateau affinity that bounds the Río Quema Formation to the south (Fig. 2).
175 Geochemical characterization of the igneous rocks of the Azuero Peninsula is provided by
176 Hoernle et al. (2002, 2004), Lissinna, (2005), Wörner et al. (2009), Buchs et al. (2010, 2011),
177 Corral et al. (2010, 2011), and Wegner et al. (2011).

178 The main tectonic structures in the Cerro Quema area include the east-trending Agua Clara
179 and Río Joaquín Fault zones, associated with an extensive network of minor northwest- to
180 northeast-trending subvertical faults with normal dip-slip and minor strike-slip components.
181 Mesoscale southwest-plunging open folds with moderately dipping limbs are also present in
182 the area. Overall, the structures suggest dextral transpression with dominant reverse dip-slip
183 motion during late Campanian to middle Eocene time (Corral et al., 2013).

184 *Alteration and mineralization*

185 Hydrothermal alteration at Cerro Quema occurred along an eastward trend that is parallel to
186 secondary faults related to the Río Joaquín Fault Zone. Multiple concentric alteration halos are
187 mainly restricted to dacite domes of the Río Quema Formation. According to Corral et al.

188 (2011, 2016), four distinct alteration zones can be identified at Cerro Quema (Fig. 3): several
189 vuggy quartz centers (quartz – barite – rutile; up to ~600 m in length) and local advanced
190 argillic alteration zones (quartz – alunite – kaolinite/dickite ± pyrophyllite – barite – illite –
191 diaspore – rutile; up to ~250 m in length) form the central core of the deposit, enclosed by an
192 argillic alteration zone (quartz – kaolinite – illite – illite-smectite ± chlorite; up to ~1900 m in
193 length). Propylitic alteration (chlorite – epidote – calcite ± rutile) forms an outermost halo
194 surrounding the argillic alteration zone.

195 Mineralization at Cerro Quema is subdivided into two different zones. Hypogene
196 mineralization was produced by magmatic-hydrothermal fluids, whereas supergene
197 mineralization was produced by oxidation of the hypogene ores, resulting in the precipitation
198 of secondary sulfides (Corral et al., 2016, 2018). Hypogene mineralization is generally
199 developed below the oxidized zone. Pyrite is the most abundant sulfide, with diverse
200 accompanying sulfides (enargite, tennantite, chalcopyrite, sphalerite, and bornite) also
201 associated with Au-Cu mineralization. Main ore stages consist of veinlets of pyrite,
202 chalcopyrite, enargite, and tennantite, with traces of bornite, and ~5 cm thick breccia bands,
203 composed of pyrite, chalcopyrite, and minor enargite. Gold occurs as submicroscopic grains
204 and as invisible gold within pyrite. Copper occurs as Cu-bearing sulfides and sulfosalts such
205 as chalcopyrite, enargite, bornite, and tennantite. Supergene weathering affected the Cerro
206 Quema area to depths of 150 m, developing a thick quartz- and iron oxide-rich zone that
207 overprinted the primary sulfide-bearing zone. Supergene mineralization is characterized by
208 abundant hematite and goethite occurring within the vuggy quartz groundmass. Gold has been
209 found as submicroscopic grains (< 1 µm). Below the oxidation zone, supergene enrichment
210 caused deposition of secondary Cu-sulfides (e.g., chalcocite, covellite) that replaced
211 chalcopyrite, tennantite, and enargite as well as filled thin fractures.

212

213

Age of host rocks

214 The first geochronological studies of igneous rocks in the Azuero Peninsula were conducted
215 by Del Giudice and Recchi (1969) and Kesler et al. (1977) who performed K/Ar dating on
216 hornblende and feldspar to constrain the age of the El Montuoso and Valle Rico batholiths.
217 Later studies (e.g., Lissinna, 2005; Wegner et al., 2011; Montes et al., 2012; Corral et al., 2016,
218 Ramírez et al., 2016) applied U-Pb and Ar/Ar radiometric dating techniques to constrain both
219 the age of the main batholiths and the volcanic rocks of the Azuero Peninsula.

220 Published geochronological data are summarized in Table 3. Arc-related magmatism began
221 in the Late Cretaceous with intrusions of the El Montuoso batholith and the deposition of the
222 Río Quema Formation (68 – 66 Ma). Paleocene magmatism (61 – 59 Ma) resulted in basalts
223 on NE Azuero and a diorite intrusion on Coiba Island (W Azuero). Eocene rocks (55 – 49 Ma)
224 crop out as part of the Valle Rico (E Azuero) and Punta Mala (SE Azuero) batholiths, and as
225 plutons on Coiba Island (W Azuero) and the Soná Peninsula (W Azuero). The youngest
226 magmatic rocks cropping out in the Azuero Peninsula are Eocene (48 – 36 Ma) plutons of the
227 Parita batholith (NE Azuero), and basaltic andesites from Coiba Island (W Azuero).

228

229

Age of Mineralization

230 Prior to this study, the age of the Cerro Quema deposit has been constrained by field
231 observations, crosscutting relationships and known radiometric and biostratigraphic ages.
232 Corral et al. (2016) proposed a lower Eocene age (55 – 49 Ma) for Cerro Quema based on a
233 combination of detailed mapping and petrographic analysis of the different rock units in the
234 Cerro Quema area, and a geochronological (Ar/Ar) study of the different intrusive bodies and
235 host rock from the Cerro Quema area. A lower Eocene age is supported by the absence of

236 hydrothermally altered clasts/pebbles or grains in the Río Quema Formation (Campanian-
237 Maastrichtian), including in conglomerates derived from the erosion of the dacite dome
238 complex (68 – 66 Ma) that hosts Cerro Quema. Therefore, hydrothermal alteration and
239 mineralization should be younger than the age of the dacite dome complex. A second argument
240 supporting a lower Eocene age for mineralization is related to the origin of high-sulfidation
241 epithermal deposits. These deposits can be considered as the top of larger intrusion-driven
242 hydrothermal mineralizing system such as porphyry intrusions that may be enriched in Cu
243 and/or Au (Hedenquist and Lowenstern, 1994; Arribas et al., 1995; Hedenquist et al., 1998;
244 Sillitoe, 2010). In Cerro Quema area surroundings, the first recorded post-Cretaceous
245 magmatic event occurred in the lower Eocene (55 – 49 Ma), represented by the Valle Rico
246 batholith. After this magmatic event the arc migrated to the north ~50 km, represented by the
247 Parita batholith (48-41 Ma). Thus, Cerro Quema can only be related to the lower Eocene (55-
248 49 Ma) magmatic event.

249 A recent study by Perelló et al. (2020) reported the first results of Re-Os dating on
250 molybdenite from La Pava. Four samples were dated yielding ages of 70.74 ± 0.29 , $70.70 \pm$
251 0.29 , 70.66 ± 0.29 and 68.72 ± 0.29 Ma. Results of this study indicate that the age of Cerro
252 Quema mineralization is Late Cretaceous, contrasting with previous studies.

253

254

Sampling and Analytical Methods

255 Alunite is present in the advanced argillic alteration zone of Cerro Quema. The coarse grain
256 size, platy crystal habit, local Na-enrichment and presence of inner cores of APS minerals
257 observed for alunite at Cerro Quema (Fig. 4; Corral et al., 2016), together with its stable isotope
258 composition ($\delta^{34}\text{S} = \sim 15 \text{ ‰}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SO}_4} = 10 \text{ ‰}$ to 0 ‰ ; Corral et al., 2017) are consistent with a
259 magmatic-hydrothermal origin (Rye et al., 1992; Rye, 2005). Alunite is a key mineral for the

260 study of high-sulfidation epithermal deposits, in part because it can be dated using K/Ar and
261 Ar/Ar (Rye et al., 1992; Itaya et al., 1996; Arribas et al., 2011; Sahlström et al., 2018).
262 Therefore, dating this mineral provides a time constraint on magmatic-hydrothermal activity at
263 Cerro Quema.

264 The selected sample for dating was collected from drill hole PDH0308 (at 61 m; Fig. 4).
265 This sample (0308-61) consists of a pyrite-alunite cemented breccia formed during the
266 magmatic-hydrothermal activity that led the Au-Cu mineralization at Cerro Quema (Fig. 4).
267 Alunite separates from this breccia were dated using step heating $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ geochronology.

268 Mineral separates were prepared by crushing, sieving, washing and handpicking to obtain
269 ~100 mg of alunite. Sample purity was checked both optically and via scanning electron
270 microscopy – energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (SEM-EDS). Two alunite mineral
271 separates (sample and duplicate; 100-200 μm grain size) were irradiated with fast neutrons at
272 the McMaster Nuclear Reactor at McMaster University, Canada. The irradiated samples were
273 subsequently analysed for $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ at the Argon Geochronology Laboratory at the University
274 of Michigan, USA. The samples were step-heated using a continuous 5-W Ar-ion laser and Ar
275 isotopes were measured in a VG-1200S mass spectrometer, following the procedure described
276 in Frey et al. (2007) and Rooney et al. (2009).

277

278

Results

279 Step heating $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ results are shown in Table 4, Figure 5 and Appendix 1. Calculated
280 final age for alunite using the weighted average of plateau age is 48.8 ± 2.2 Ma, and its
281 calculated final age using the weighted average of total gas age is 49.2 ± 3.3 Ma. Calculation
282 of the final age from the alunite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ spectra was done using 2σ for error including a 1%

283 of external error accounting for uncertainties in decay constants, the age of the standards
284 $^{40}\text{K}/^{39}\text{K}$. Obtained ages (plateau and total gas age) are consistent, conferring a ~49 Ma age to
285 the alunite from Cerro Quema.

286

287

Discussion

Age of Cerro Quema

289 Although alunite is a common mineral used for age determinations of high-sulfidation
290 epithermal deposits, problems may arise due to thermal resetting during deformation and/or
291 magmatism (e.g., Pueblo Viejo, Arribas et al., 2011; Mt. Carlton, Sahlström et al., 2018).
292 Closure temperature for alunite was estimated at 320 – 240°C by Itaya et al. (1996), Love et al.
293 (1998) and Arribas et al. (2011). Closure is strongly influenced by the cooling rate, and the
294 alunite crystal size, with the closure temperature decreasing proportionally with decreasing
295 crystal size and cooling rate. The grain size of the Cerro Quema alunite sample was 100 to 200
296 μm , therefore, a blocking temperature similar to the one estimated for the Pueblo Viejo alunite
297 is proposed (~300°C; Arribas et al., 2011). Based on this inference, two possible scenarios can
298 explain the ~49 Ma age for alunite obtained from Cerro Quema.

299 The new geochronological data, shows that alunite was above the closure temperature at
300 ~49 Ma, implying that alunite associated with high-sulfidation epithermal Au-Cu
301 mineralization post-dated the host dacite dome complex (66.5 ± 1.6 Ma weighted average of
302 plateau age; Corral et al., 2016). This interpretation supports the previously proposed age range
303 of 55 – 49 Ma (lower Eocene, Corral et al., 2016) for mineralization at Cerro Quema.

304 Alternatively, this alunite formed at broadly the same time as the dacite dome complex (66.5
305 ± 1.6 Ma weighted average of plateau age; Corral et al., 2016), which is a common feature of

306 this type of deposits (e.g., Arribas, 1995, Bissig et al., 2001; Holley et al., 2016; Sahlström et
307 al., 2018), and it was subsequently reset during the magmatic event at 55 – 49 Ma. This
308 interpretation contradicts the proposed age range of Corral et al. (2016).

309 Although this study cannot disprove the hypothesis of resetting, the interpretation of a reset
310 alunite is considered unlikely because: 1) both $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ spectra show good plateaus with no
311 evidence of argon loss, disruption or thermal resetting; 2) there is no record, within the Cerro
312 Quema area, of any post-alunite heating event capable of producing a large enough temperature
313 increase to reset the alunite as the nearest small-scale intrusion is at 2 – 3 km from La Pava;
314 and 3) it is inconsistent with field and petrographic observations. If reset could be proven, the
315 obtained alunite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ age would be interpreted as a minimum age for Cerro Quema. In
316 this case, the maximum age of Cerro Quema is that of the host rocks, 66.5 ± 1.6 Ma (dated at
317 La Pava ore body; Corral et al., 2016).

318 A recent study by Perelló et al. (2020) reported Re-Os dating on molybdenite from La Pava
319 orebody. Four samples were dated yielding ages of 70.74 ± 0.29 , 70.70 ± 0.29 , 70.66 ± 0.29
320 and 68.72 ± 0.29 Ma being the youngest age discarded by the presence of significant common
321 Os. The ~71 Ma age for the mineralization at Cerro Quema proposed by Perelló et al. (2020)
322 conflicts with both, the age range proposed in Corral et al., (2016), and the alunite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$
323 results presented in this study.

324 Some geological issues may arise from Perelló et al. (2020) Re-Os ages on molybdenite and
325 their significance within the Azuero Peninsula geological framework. Perelló et al. (2020)
326 considered that their Re-Os dates (~71 Ma) agree with the $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ dates of ~71 Ma for
327 amphibole-bearing dacitic rocks from Cerro Quema (Wegner et al., 2011; Corral et al., 2016).
328 They relied on a 71.0 ± 2.5 Ma (weighted average) hornblende $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ age as the age of the
329 Cerro Quema host rock. However, this sample is a dacite located 10 km from mineralization

330 (Wegner et al., 2011). At the same time Perelló et al. (2020) discarded the 67.5 ± 1.9 Ma
331 hornblende $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ plateau age for a dacite located 5 km from Cerro Quema (Wegner et al.,
332 2011), and the 66.5 ± 1.6 Ma hornblende $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ plateau age (weighted average) of the Cerro
333 Quema host rock collected at La Pava (Corral et al., 2016). Although Wegner et al. (2011)
334 sample PAN-05-017A (Fig. 6A) has a bumpy spectra between 20 – 40% of cumulative ^{39}Ar
335 fraction that compromises the age, a plateau age of 72.3 ± 2.5 Ma was calculated. A duplicate
336 sample (PAN-05-017B; Fig. 6B) has a disturbed spectra between 10 – 30% of cumulative ^{39}Ar
337 fraction with no apparent plateau that compromises the reported plateau age at 68.9 ± 3.3 Ma.
338 The final reported age of this sample (71.0 ± 2.5 Ma) is an average of the two plateau ages,
339 which is questionable given nature of their spectra. Dacite samples reported by Wegner et al.
340 (2011) and Corral et al. (2016; Fig. 6C-F) dated by $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ on hornblende showing well-
341 defined plateaus with no disturbed spectra, are considered here to be more reliable ages of the
342 Cerro Quema host rocks, constraining their age to 66.6 ± 1.8 Ma (weighted average of
343 plateaus). Dacite domes of the Río Quema Formation are contemporaneous with the El
344 Montuoso Batholith emplacement (Fig. 7). Thus, Perelló et al. (2020) Re-Os age of ~ 71 Ma is
345 considerable older than the host rock age 66.6 ± 1.8 Ma (weighted average of plateaus; Table
346 3; Fig. 7).

347 Additionally, Perelló et al. (2020) invoke a previously unrecorded magmatic event to
348 explain the mineralization at Cerro Quema based on their Re-Os ages. As reported in Table. 3
349 and Figure 7, the Azuero Peninsula geochronological data show strong consistency between
350 the different dating methods (e.g., U-Pb in zircon, $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ in hornblende and plagioclase),
351 indicating that these ages are representative of the different magmatic events that occurred in
352 the Azuero Peninsula. The proposed magmatic event by Perelló et al. (2020) has not been
353 confirmed by any previous geochronological studies (U-Pb zircon, Montes et al., 2012;
354 Ramirez et al., 2016; $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ hornblende and plagioclase, Lissinna, 2005; Corral et al., 2016;

355 K-Ar hornblende and plagioclase, Del Giudice and Recchi, 1969; Kesler et al., 1977). If the
356 newly proposed magmatic event occurred (Table 3; Fig. 7), it would be between the proto-arc
357 (~75 – 73 Ma) and the Azuero Volcanic Arc group (~68 – 40 Ma; Table. 3), which is
358 stratigraphically >500 m below the Cerro Quema host rock (Buchs et al., 2010; Corral et al.,
359 2011, 2016).

360 Based on weights of evidence, the alunite $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ date of this study is interpreted as
361 representative of the age of hypogene mineral precipitation (at ~240°C; Corral et al., 2017),
362 and is therefore concluded to constrain the age of the Cerro Quema Au-Cu deposit. This
363 hypothesis is consistent with geological observations, crosscutting relationships and, previous
364 $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ and U-Pb dating studies.

365

366 *Contextualization of Cerro Quema within the Metallogeny of Panama*

367 Figure 8 integrates the tectono-magmatic events, volcanic and intrusive rock ages, and
368 mineral occurrences of Panama (Table 2). Magmatic-hydrothermal deposits such as the Río
369 Pito porphyry copper and the Cerro Quema high-sulfidation epithermal deposit formed during
370 the early arc stage (68 – 40 Ma) in the Chagres-Bayano Arc (Eastern Panama) and the Soná-
371 Azuero Arc (Western Panama). They formed in a similar geodynamic setting at ~49 Ma, when
372 diorites and quartz-diorites intruded Cretaceous volcanosedimentary sequences (Kesler et al.,
373 1977; Nelson et al., 1995; Corral et al., 2011, 2016).

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Implications for Regional Scale Exploration

378 Porphyry systems are usually associated with continental or intraoceanic magmatic arc
379 setting above active subduction zones at convergent plate margins (Sillitoe, 1972, 2010;
380 Richards, 2003). They commonly occur in linear orogen-parallel belts (Sillitoe and Perelló,
381 2005) associated with precursor plutons of batholithic dimensions and diorite to granite
382 compositions (Sillitoe, 2010). Porphyry systems are also associated with comagmatic calc-
383 alkaline volcanic rocks typically of intermediate to felsic composition (Sillitoe, 1973).

384 Panama is a region characterized by a long-lived intra-oceanic subduction zone with a
385 magmatic arc active since the Late Cretaceous (e.g., Lissinna, 2005; Buchs *et al.*, 2010, 2011;
386 Corral *et al.*, 2011, 2016). It is mainly constituted by two east-trending parallel magmatic arcs
387 (Fig. 1) of Cretaceous to Paleogene and Neogene to Quaternary ages. These arcs record
388 changes in magmatism (tholeiitic → calc-alkaline → adakite-like) and are intruded by
389 comagmatic batholith scale intrusions of intermediate to felsic composition (Lissina, 2005;
390 Buchs *et al.*, 2010; Wörner *et al.*, 2009; Wegner *et al.*, 2011; Corral *et al.*, 2011; Montes *et al.*,
391 2012). These conditions favoured the formation of numerous porphyry and epithermal deposits
392 (Fig. 1).

393 The mature Neogene to Quaternary magmatic arc hosts most of the known porphyry and
394 epithermal deposits in Panama (e.g., Cerro Colorado, Cerro Chorchá, Santa Rosa and Remance;
395 Fig. 8). In contrast, porphyry and epithermal deposits hosted in the early magmatic arc are
396 scarce (Cerro Quema, Río Pito; Fig. 8). The presence of these two deposits indicates that the
397 early magmatic arc was mature enough to produce Au-Cu mineralization of economic interest.

398 Considering that the Panamanian magmatic arc was ore-productive by ~49 Ma broadens the
399 areas where additional mineral deposits can be found in the overlooked Cretaceous – Paleogene
400 magmatic arc. These would include Cretaceous volcanic and volcanosedimentary sequences

401 intruded by Paleogene batholiths of intermediate to felsic composition, as in the Cerro Quema
402 and the Río Pito deposits. Evidences of this potential are shown by the numerous gold
403 occurrences present in the Azuero Peninusula (e.g., Pitaloza, Juan Díaz, Quebrada Iguana,
404 Cerro Negro; Corral et al., 2011, 2016; Medina-Molero et al., 2014; Fig 2.).

405 This study reinforces the importance of properly exploring early arc segments in the
406 Panamanian magmatic arc. Additionally, it also highlights the potential of these arc segments
407 for hosting Au-Cu mineralization of economic interest in the Caribbean realm.

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420

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497 [Type=03&projectNo=01325834&docId=2284568](https://www.sedar.com/GetFile.do?lang=EN&docClass=24&issuerNo=00005673&issuerType=03&projectNo=01325834&docId=2284568)

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654 **Fig. Captions**

655 Fig. 1: Simplified geologic map of Panama with the location of known porphyry copper and
656 epithermal deposits, including Cerro Quema (Modified from Buchs et al., 2010). Bathymetry
657 based on Smith and Sandwell (1997). Quaternary faults from Cowan et al., (1998), Montero et
658 al., (1998), and Paris et al., (2000). NPDB = North Panama Deformed Belt.

659 Fig. 2: Simplified geologic map of the Azuero Peninsula with the main epithermal occurrences.
660 AAG = Azuero Arc Group, ACF = Agua Clara fault, PMF = Punta Mala fault, RJFZ = Río
661 Joaquín Fault Zone (after Direccion General de Recursos Minerales, 1976; Buchs et al., 2011;
662 Corral et al., 2011, 2013, 2016). 1) Cerro Quema, 2) Pitaloza, 3) Juan Díaz, 4) Las Minas, 5)
663 Quebrada Barro, 6) Quebrada Iguana, 7) Cerro Viejo.

664 Fig. 3: Cerro Quema hydrothermal alteration maps A) La Pava orebody and Chontal Edge zone.
665 B) Cerro Quemita and Cerro Quema orebodies (after Corral et al., 2011, 2016, 2017).

666 Fig. 4: Characteristics of alunite from Cerro Quema. A) Drill core sample of the alunite ±
667 pyrite-cemented hydraulic breccia developed in a quartz – alunite ± dickite altered dacite. B)
668 Microphotography of the alunite ± pyrite-cemented breccia and the host rock (cross-polarized
669 transmitted light). C) BSE image of the quartz - alunite ± dickite - pyrite assemblage. APS

670 minerals typically occur in the core of alunite crystals. Alunite crystals show compositional
671 banding: Dark grey Na-rich zone; Light grey K-rich zone. D) BSE image of a well crystallized
672 woodhouseite within the advanced argillic alteration. Mineral abbreviations according to
673 Whitney and Evans (2010): alu = alunite, aps = aluminum phosphate-sulfate minerals, dck =
674 dickite, K-alu = K-rich alunite, Na-alu = Na-rich alunite, py = pyrite, qz = quartz, qz-e = quartz
675 eye and wo = woodhouseite.

676 Fig. 5: $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ spectra of the dated alunite samples from Cerro Quema.

677 Fig. 6: Summary of the hornblende $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ dating of the Río Quema Formation dacite domes
678 and equivalent rocks from the Azuero Peninsula. A – C: Samples from Wegner et al. (2011)
679 collected at 10 and 5 km away from Cerro Quema, respectively. D – F: Samples from Corral
680 et al. (2016) collected at La Pava orebody. Plateau ages of A and B have been discarded in this
681 study, and C to F are the representative ages of the Río Quema Formation (as discussed in the
682 text).

683 Fig. 7: Comparative diagram showing the geochronological data of the El Montuoso Batholith,
684 Dacites of the Río Quema Formation and the Re-Os molybdenite ages of Perelló et al. (2020).
685 Avg. = average, CQ = Cerro Quema, hbl = hornblende, mo = molybdenite, RQF = Río Quema
686 Formation.

687 Fig. 8: Summary of age determinations on volcanic and plutonic rocks associated with the
688 described Panamanian ore deposits.

689 Table 1: Summary of the Cerro Quema mineral resources (after Sutcliffe et al., 2014).

690 Table 2: Main characteristics summary of the known Panamanian porphyry and epithermal
691 deposits.

692 Table 3: Summary of the available geochronological data of the Azuero Peninsula (SW
693 Panama). * = Assigned to the Río Quema Formation due to textural, geochemical and
694 geochronological similarities. ** = Not considered in this study as described in the text. *** =
695 Not considered in this study as it is not a plateau age.

696 Table 4: Age calculations for the dated alunite sample.

697 Appendix 1: $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ raw data for alunite from Cerro Quema.