

1 **Geology, mineralogy, ore paragenesis, and molybdenite Re-Os geochronology of Sn-W (-**
2 **Mo) mineralization in Padatgyaung and Dawei, Myanmar: Implications for timing of**
3 **mineralization and tectonic setting**

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Abstract

The Sn-W (-Mo) deposits of Myanmar are mostly located in the Western Granite Province that is well known for its world-class Sn-W (-Mo) deposits. Previous studies have constrained the age of the granitic intrusions of the province and the timing of mineralization for a few deposits, but most of the mineralization ages are not well established. In this study, new molybdenite Re-Os dating of two Sn-W-(Mo) regions, Padatgyaung and Dawei, together with their geological setting and mineral paragenesis are carried out to constrain the timing of ore formation and geodynamic setting. In the Padatgyaung region, two weighted average Re-Os model ages of 64.23 ± 0.29 Ma (MSWD = 0.49, 2σ) and of 60.54 ± 0.45 Ma (MSWD = 1.3, 2σ) from vein molybdenites are considerably younger than molybdenite from tin mineralized greisen which has a weighted Re-Os model age of 68.5 ± 2.7 Ma (MSWD = 0.14, 2σ). This demonstrates that the vein-type W-Mo mineralization formed after tin mineralized greisenization. Combining our new age data with previous geochronological data, the Re-Os model age of 63.09 ± 0.17 Ma from the Wagone quartz vein suggests that the Sn-W(-Mo) mineralization in the Dawei region took place at around 70-60 Ma (Late Cretaceous to Paleocene). This study indicates the presence of a significant and discrete granite-related Sn-W(-Mo) mineralization with an age of 75-60 Ma in the Western Granite Province, although the overall age range of Sn-W mineralization in the belt spans from 120 to around 40 Ma emplaced during normal subduction and roll-back of the Neo-Tethyan oceanic crust.

Keywords: Re-Os geochronology; Sn-W (-Mo) deposits of Myanmar; Western Granite Province; Late Cretaceous to Paleocene event

49 1. Introduction

50 Myanmar is a major tin and tungsten producer with about 400 known individual Sn-W
51 deposits, prospects, and occurrences which form an approximately N-S trending belt (e.g.,
52 Than Htun et al., 2017). Together, they form a significant part of the Southeast Asia Tin Belt
53 and makeup about 5% of the world's tin reserves (ITRI, 2016) and about 17% of the world's
54 tin production (Lehmann, 2000). The Sn-W-Mo mineralization predominantly occurs as
55 quartz veins, greisens, pegmatites, and skarns, geologically and genetically associated with
56 the granitic rocks of the Western and Central Granite Provinces (Mitchell, 1977; Cobbing et
57 al., 1986, 1992). The Cretaceous to Eocene granites of the Western Granite Province were
58 emplaced along the western margin of the Sibumasu terrane and host hundreds of Sn-W
59 occurrences located in Myanmar and Southwest Thailand, including the large Sn-W deposit
60 at Mawchi (Hobson, 1940; Khin Zaw and Khin Myo Thet, 1983; Aung Zaw Myint et al.,
61 2017b, 2018). This granite belt reappears in the Tengchong terrane in China in the north,
62 where it hosts some Sn-W deposits, including the important Xiaolonghe and Lailishan
63 deposits (Chen et al., 2015; Cao et al., 2019) (Fig.1).

64 The Padatgyaung and Dawei Sn-W regions of Myanmar comprise a number of Sn-W
65 (-Mo) prospects with diverse styles of mineralization. Systematic lode tin mining has been
66 developed only at a few localities, all in the Dawei region, although historical records indicate
67 that tin has been found and mined a few hundred years in these two regions. The long history
68 of mining, although without any systematic production record, illustrates that the deposits
69 described in this study are of considerable economic significance. In recent years, the timing
70 of ore formation in these two regions, especially in Dawei, has been established based on
71 geological observations and geochronological dating of the host granites (Gardiner et al., 2016;
72 Jiang et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018a, 2018b), but direct age dating of the Sn-W deposits is still
73 required in order to understand the timing of Sn-W-Mo mineralization and the temporal

74 relations with the emplacement of the associated different types of granitic intrusions. In order
75 to address this question, this study provides geology, mineralogy, ore deposit characteristics,
76 and new molybdenite Re-Os ages of mineralizations from the Padatgyaung and Dawei regions
77 to constrain the nature, timing, and tectonic setting of Sn-W (-Mo) mineralization in two Sn-
78 W regions of Myanmar.

79

80 **2. Geological background**

81 *2.1 Regional geology*

82 The Western Granite Province (Cobbing et al., 1986, 1992) of SE Asia contains several
83 generations of I- and S-type granites of Jurassic to Miocene age (Khin Zaw, 1990; Cobbing et
84 al., 1992; Barley et al., 2003; Searle et al., 2007; Mitchell et al., 2012; Gardiner et al., 2016,
85 2018; Aung Zaw Myint et al., 2017a,2017b; Crow and Khin Zaw, 2017; Li et al., 2018a, 2018b,
86 2019) intruding the metamorphic rocks of the Mogok Metamorphic Belt (MMB; Searle and
87 Haq, 1964; Mitchell et al., 2007) and the sedimentary rocks of the Mergui-Mawchi Belt,
88 formerly termed as Slate Belt (Mitchell et al., 2004) (Fig. 1B). The MMB formed as a western
89 margin of the Sibumasu terrane, comprising a metasedimentary and metaigneous sequence of
90 marbles, calc-silicate rocks, schists, quartzites, gneisses, and migmatites (Searl and Haq, 1964;
91 Mitchell et al., 2007). The Mergui-Mawchi Belt comprises Carboniferous to Early Permian
92 glacio-marine diamictites, including sedimentary rocks and their metasedimentary equivalents
93 classified as Mawchi, Lebyin, Taungnyo, and Mergui Groups in Myanmar, as Kaeng Krachan
94 and Phuket Groups in Thailand, and probably as Kongshuhe Formation in western Yunnan.
95 The Sn-W(-Mo) mineralization is spatially and genetically related to the Mawchi-Mergui Belt-
96 hosted peraluminous granitic rocks in the Western Granite Province.

97 Jurassic biotite granites (with ages of around 180 Ma) in the Western Granite Province
98 exposed at Mangzhangxiang (Yunnan) and Taunggya (Myanmar) are metaluminous, I-type in

99 geochemical character and tin-barren. They are enriched in large-ion lithophile elements
100 coupled with depletion in high field strength elements (Crow and Khin Zaw, 2017; Cao et al.,
101 2018) and not associated with Sn-W mineralization. The Cretaceous granitoids (121-68 Ma)
102 include both metaluminous, sodic-potassic magnetite-series I-type granitic to dioritic rocks
103 occurring in the Laochasnpo and Guyong (Yunnan), Yebokeson, Yinmabin, and Mokpalin area
104 (Myanmar), and peraluminous S- and A-type tin granites exposed at Dabinga and Xiaolonghe
105 (Yunnan), Nattaung, Mawpalaw Taung, Tagu, and Hermyingyi (Myanmar), and Pilok
106 (Thailand) (Fig. 1B) (Charusiri et al., 1993; Barley et al., 2003; Mitchell et al., 2012; Crow and
107 Khin Zaw, 2017; Mi Paik, 2017; Jiang et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2017; Cao et al., 2019; Kyaw
108 Thu Htun et al., 2019; Cong et al., 2020; Mao et al., 2020). Younger Paleocene to Eocene
109 (about 65-40Ma) granitoids consist of metaluminous to mildly peraluminous, high-K calc-
110 alkaline granitoid series that contain highly fractionated S- and A-type granitic rocks with Sn-
111 W mineralization in the Lailishan (Yunnan), Padatgyaung, Hermyingyi, Wagone, Yadanapon,
112 and Mawchi area (Myanmar) (Brook and Snelling, 1976; Chen et al., 2015; Aung Zaw Myint
113 et al., 2017a, 2017b) as well as tin-barren I-type granites in Kyaikhtiyo and Tawmoe Taung
114 (Mitchell et al., 2012; Crow and Khin Zaw, 2017). The youngest Miocene S- and I-type
115 granitoids (30-15) exposed at Kyanigan, Yesin Dam, Payangazu, and Kabaing (Searle et al.,
116 2007; Mitchell et al., 2012; Crow and Khin Zaw, 2017) are not associated with any Sn-W
117 mineralization.

118

119 *2.2 Padatgyaung W-Sn (-Mo) Region*

120 The W-Sn (-Mo) deposits in the Padatgyaung region are confined to a partly weathered
121 and greisenized biotite granite, which has intruded the low-grade metasedimentary rocks of the
122 Mawchi Group (Fig. 2). The granite and metasedimentary rocks are bounded by the medium-
123 to high-grade metamorphic rocks of the MMB to the west and Cambrian to Cretaceous

124 sedimentary rocks of Shan Plateau to the east. Banded gneisses, schists, marbles, and
125 calcsilicate rocks are part of the lithologic units of the MMB in this region. The granite is
126 exposed as a north-south elongate pluton comprising medium- to coarse-grained quartz,
127 orthoclase, plagioclase, biotite, and muscovite. Biotite occurs as the major mafic mineral
128 occupying about 10% of the rock volume, being partially chloritized. The muscovite content is
129 less than 3 vol% but increases up to 35 vol% in the greisenized parts (Aung Zaw Myint et al.,
130 2019). Granites and greisens from Padatgyaung have 19 ppm – 9 wt.% Sn, 15 ppm – 0.5 wt.%
131 W and 10 – 186 ppm Mo. The granite is silica rich (74-77 wt.% SiO₂), geochemically highly
132 evolved, and peraluminous (Aung Zaw Myint et al., 2019). Granite samples have low Zr
133 concentrations, reflecting low temperatures of crystallization and high-level emplacement
134 (Kalsbeek et al., 2001; Aung Zaw Myint et al., 2017b). MORB-normalized spider diagrams of
135 the granites show enrichment in LILE, such as U, Th, and Rb, with distinct negative anomalies
136 for the HFSE Ti and Nb (Aung Zaw Myint et al., 2019). These geochemical features are
137 characteristic for granites formed from typical crustal melts (e.g., Harris et al., 1986). Biotite
138 K-Ar dating of the granites close to Padatgyaung and Pyiyadana yielded ages of 55±1 Ma and
139 57±1 Ma, respectively (Brook and Snelling, 1976). Greisenization, the product of magmatic-
140 hydrothermal alteration, occurs pervasively in the host rocks, and appears to be coeval with
141 pre- and syn-veining post-magmatic fluid flow focusing along the NE-SW, N-S, and WSW-
142 ENE trending fractures.

143 Bateson et al. (1972) first reported that the Padatgyaung granite hosts several Sn-W
144 deposits which contain wolframite and lesser amounts of cassiterite, associated with minor
145 chalcopyrite, galena, pyrite, scheelite, monazite, and ilmenite in quartz veins and greisen zones.
146 They focused on the Sn-W deposits located at the western margin of the granite, whereas the
147 molybdenite bearing Sn-W deposits at the eastern margin were not investigated.

148 The W-Sn-Mo mineralization at Padatgyaung comprises two types of mineralization:
149 (i) Sn-rich greisen type and (ii) W-rich quartz vein type. Generally, the prospects in the northern
150 part of the region represent the Sn-rich greisen type (e.g., Piyadana, Bularmi), whereas those
151 in the southern part are W-rich quartz veins (e.g., Tayokegone, Shwechaung, Tagun Taung).
152 The Sn-rich greisen mineralization in Piyadana occurs mainly as the greisen style forming
153 irregular patches (Fig. 3A) and veins in the greisenized granite and sedimentary rocks. The
154 greisen contains a considerable amount of molybdenite, cassiterite, fluorite, and rare sulfides.
155 Numerous small greisen-bordered quartz veins trend WNW-ESE and discordantly cut the
156 mudstones (Fig. 3B). Most veins strike approximately north-south and dip sub-vertically (80-
157 90°). The vein thickness ranges from 1 m to 9 m and the greisenized zone has an orientation
158 with a strike of NNE-SSW in Piyadana. To the south, some Sn-W bearing greisen veins are
159 hosted by partly altered mudstone and conglomeratic mudstone. The Sn-W minerals occur as
160 disseminated grains in the greisen veins, which generally trend 130° and dip to the SW. The
161 major ore minerals in these veins are cassiterite and wolframite, associated with minor amounts
162 of scheelite, arsenopyrite, pyrite, chalcopyrite, sphalerite, bornite, and galena. More detailed
163 geological observations are precluded by a thick cover of soil and dump material originating
164 from artisanal placer mining over a wide area encompassing the Bularmi, Akaung Taung, and
165 Seikphu Taung prospects. Narrow exposures in an adit show that the quartz veins are greisen-
166 bordered and contain cassiterite, wolframite, pyrite, and chalcopyrite as the main ore minerals
167 (Fig. 3C).

168 The second type of mineralization is W-rich quartz veins. Wolframite-bearing quartz
169 veins at Tayokegone (Fig. 3D) contain minor amounts of sulfides such as molybdenite and
170 pyrite and these veins are confined to the metasediments. The Shwechaung, Sakangyi, and
171 Myinmahti prospects surround the peak of Myinmahti hill, the highest peak of the region with
172 an elevation of 1243 m above sea level. The N-S trending wolframite-bearing quartz veins are

173 0.12 to 0.25 m thick and crosscut the greisenized granite at Sakangyi. The veins taper
174 downwards and contain irregular patches and fracture fillings of wolframite. At Shwechaung,
175 the moderately inclined wolframite and molybdenite bearing quartz veins strike in a NNE-SSW
176 direction and cut the greisenized granite. The veins are 0.9 to 2.1 m thick and contain
177 wolframite, molybdenite (Fig. 3E), galena, pyrite, chalcopyrite, and sphalerite. Sulfide
178 minerals occur as disseminated and irregular patches in the quartz veins. The steeply dipping
179 to sub-vertical veins at Myinmahti have a generally NNE-SSW strike with widths ranging from
180 a few centimeters to several meters. By contrast, a different set of E-W trending veins is barren.
181 The greisenized zone with irregular shape and variable thickness hosts the mineralized quartz
182 veins (Fig. 3F). Common ore minerals in the veins include wolframite, cassiterite, molybdenite,
183 and pyrite. These ore minerals also form the major constituents of the greisenized zone, which
184 additionally contains quartz and muscovite. At Yadana Gadaytike, the vein system comprises
185 about 15 essentially subparallel mineralized quartz veins that cut the N-S margin of the
186 weathered granite, forming the southernmost Sn-W prospect of the region. The veins are
187 greisen-bordered, slightly weathered, and carry wolframite with minor cassiterite (Fig. 3G).
188 Their thickness ranges from 0.12 to 0.6 m. At the Tagun Taung prospect, quartz veins penetrate
189 the highly weathered granite that is extensively greisenized and capped by metagreywacke.
190 The quartz veins trend NE-SW and contain a considerable amount of molybdenite, pyrite, and
191 wolframite, occurring as irregular patches and disseminated grains in the quartz veins, which
192 range in width from 0.1 to 0.25 m. The syn-vein greisenization is noticeable in hand specimens
193 (Fig. 3H).

194

195 *2.3 Dawei Sn-W (-Mo) region*

196 The Western Granite Province of SE Asia is exposed in three granite ranges in the
197 Dawei region, namely the Coastal Range, Central Range, and Frontier Range (Brown and

198 Heron, 1923) (Fig. 4). They form NNW-SSE trending elongated bodies in a structural zone
199 parallel to the regional strike of the (meta)sedimentary rocks of the Mergui Group. The Coastal
200 Range is mainly built up of biotite granites with minor amounts of hornblende bearing
201 granodiorite. These tin-barren granitic rocks contain mafic xenoliths up to 40 cm in diameter
202 (Aung Zaw Myint, 2019). The northeastern part of the Coastal Range is composed of medium-
203 to coarse-grained aplogranite and spatially associated with Sn-W occurrences, including
204 Kanbauk and other small prospects (Aung Zaw Myint, 2019). The primary mineralization at
205 Hermyingyi, Wagone, Bawapin, Pagaye, Pulatto, and Kalonta, and the fossil tin placer deposit
206 at Heinda are located in the Central Range (Clegg, 1944; Aung Zaw Myint et al., 2014), where
207 biotite and two mica granites host most of the Sn-W mineralization. There are four types of
208 Sn-W-Mo mineralization occurring in this region, such as greisens (e.g., Bawapin), pegmatites
209 (e.g., some veins of Bawapin), quartz veins (e.g., Putlatto, Hermyingyi, Wagone), and skarns
210 (e.g., Kanbauk).

211 In the southernmost part of the Dawei Sn-W region, steeply-dipping greisen-bordered
212 quartz veins at Putlatto are confined to a biotite granite and the metasedimentary rocks (Fig.
213 5A). The veins trend along a nearly N-S direction and have thicknesses of 0.5 to 3 m. The
214 quartz veins carry wolframite, cassiterite, molybdenite, pyrite, chalcopyrite, sphalerite, and
215 secondary covellite. The hydrothermal alteration associated with the Putlatto W(-Sn)
216 mineralization consists of greisenization, silicification, argillic alteration, and chloritization
217 (Ye Zaw and Aung Zaw Myint, 2018). The Heinda mine, which is the biggest tin placer (fossil
218 placer) deposit of the region, is located in the drainage area between the Central Range granites
219 and Mergui Group to the west. The Heinda placer deposits form a thick sequence of cassiterite
220 bearing sediments, particularly in the Heinda Chaung, Shwe Chaung, and Hpolon Taung areas
221 (Clegg, 1944; Nandar Oo, 1980).

222 The Sn-W veins at Hermyingyi are greisen-bordered and vary widely in thickness
223 ranging from 2 cm to 3 m (Fig. 5B). A N-S trending system of sub-parallel veins dipping sub-
224 vertically penetrates a biotite granite and the surrounding metasediments. The main ore
225 minerals are wolframite, cassiterite, pyrite, chalcopyrite, molybdenite, sphalerite, galena,
226 boulangerite, covellite, bismuthinite, pyrrhotite, colusite, and enargite, whereas quartz,
227 lepidolite, fluorite, garnet, chlorite, and sericite are the dominant gangue minerals (Nilar Shwe,
228 1981). LA-ICP-MS U-Pb dating of zircon from the biotite granite at Hermyingyi yielded
229 concordant U-Pb ages of 61.44 ± 0.6 Ma (MSWD = 0.9; Li et al., 2018a) and 70.44 ± 0.4 Ma
230 (MSWD = 0.9; Jian et al., 2017), respectively. The molybdenite Re-Os isochron date indicates
231 an age of 68.4 ± 2.5 Ma (MSWD=0.18, 2σ) (Jiang et al., 2019) for the Sn-W-Mo vein formation
232 at Hermyingyi. The small biotite granite stock to the south is exposed at Taungphila, where
233 greisen-bordered quartz veins carry a considerable amount of cassiterite and wolframite. This
234 granite has been dated as 68.8 ± 0.1 Ma (MSWD = 0.1; Jian et al., 2017) by the LA-ICP-MS
235 U-Pb zircon dating method.

236 The tin granites from Hermyingyi and Wagone are high in SiO_2 (75.15–82.53 wt.%)
237 and total alkalis (3.70 to 9.08 wt.%), but low in FeO (0.57–3.45 wt.%), CaO (0.23–0.86 wt.%),
238 MgO (0.02–0.19 wt.%), MnO (0.01–0.38 wt.%), TiO_2 (0.01–0.10 wt.%) and P_2O_5 (0.003–
239 0.012 wt.%). They show some variation in the MgO (0.02–0.03 wt.%), TiO_2 (0.01–0.03 wt.%)
240 and P_2O_5 (0.008–0.012 wt.%) contents (Li et al., 2018a). These granites are metaluminous to
241 weakly peraluminous with their primitive mantle-normalized multi-element diagrams
242 characterized by enrichment in Rb, Th, U, Ta, and Y but strong depletion in Ba and Sr.

243 The Sn-W mineralization at Wagone represents a combination of W-Mo (-Sn) quartz
244 veins and tin-rich hydrothermally altered granite (Aung Zaw Myint, 2015). Mineralized quartz
245 veins crosscut both the granite and the metasedimentary host rocks, which strike N-E to NE-
246 SW and dip with $50\text{-}90^\circ$ to the west. Quartz veins trending NNW-SSE are not economic and

247 contain only trace amounts of wolframite and cassiterite (Fig. 5C). In places, barren N-S
248 trending quartz veins crosscut the biotite granite and host locally abundant cassiterite and
249 wolframite. Cassiterite and magnetite are widely disseminated in the altered muscovite granite
250 and form pinkish to reddish brown patches with up to 8 wt.% Sn (Fig. 5D). Apart from the tin-
251 rich zone, a wolframite bearing quartz vein system is confined to a weathered biotite granite
252 and is associated with minor amounts of platy or massive molybdenite (Fig. 5E) and rare
253 cassiterite (Aung Zaw Myint, 2015; Aung Zaw Myint et al., 2017a). Previous LA-ICP-MS U-
254 Pb zircon dating of the biotite granite and muscovite granite at Wagon yielded virtually
255 identical ages of 61.4 ± 0.5 Ma (2σ , $n=20$, MSWD=3.0) and 60.7 ± 3.5 Ma (2σ , $n=10$,
256 MSWD=7.0), respectively (Li et al., 2018a).

257 The Bawapin Sn-W mineralization occurs as greisen zones and veins that crosscut the
258 metasediment with a NNW-SSE strike and a dip of 75° to 90° (Fig. 5F). Vein thicknesses
259 range from 3 to 35 cm and some veins exhibit a sheeted internal structure composed of several
260 incremental growth stages. The veins contain cassiterite and wolframite as the main ore
261 minerals, which are associated with chalcopyrite, pyrite, sphalerite, molybdenite, galena,
262 bismuthinite, fluorite, muscovite, calcite, and topaz (Aung Zaw Myint et al., 2017a). The ore
263 minerals are strongly associated with muscovite patches in the greisen veins (Fig. 5G), which
264 contain between 0.35 and 2.42 wt.% Sn (Kyaw Zay Ya, 2013). Common gangue minerals in
265 the veins are quartz, K-feldspar, fluorite, muscovite, and calcite with trace amounts of topaz.
266 Euhedral crystals of cassiterite occur as the major ore mineral and coexist with sulfide minerals
267 and muscovite (Aung Zaw Myint, 2015; Aung Zaw Myint et al., 2017a). LA-ICP-MS U-Pb
268 dating of cassiterite from a greisen vein at Bawapin yielded an age of 60.7 ± 2.5 Ma (2σ , $n=29$,
269 MSWD=3.0), which matches well with that of the host granites in the region (Li et al., 2018b).

270 The mineralized quartz veins at Kalonta trend NS and NNW-SSE and crosscut the
271 sedimentary rocks and granite. The host granite is partly greisenized and contains wolframite

272 and lesser cassiterite as the main ore minerals (Fig. 5H). The W-Sn ore minerals are mostly
273 associated with molybdenite, pyrite, galena, fluorite, and specularite. The veins from the
274 northern part of the deposit are present in partially to pervasively greisenized granite, whereas
275 those in the south are hosted by metasediments. Greisenization occurs both along the vein
276 margins and more pervasively in the upper part of the granite cupolas. The greisen zones are
277 mainly composed of quartz and muscovite, with subordinate amounts of fluorite, cassiterite,
278 and wolframite. Silicification is the predominant alteration in the mineralized zone and
279 associated with greisenization. In places, kaolinization related to argillic alteration is present
280 as well, and characterized by the mineral association of kaolinite with other clay minerals such
281 as illite and smectite (Aung Zaw Myint, 2019). The LA-ICP-MS U–Pb dating of cassiterite
282 from mineralized quartz veins at Kalonta yielded an age of 64.6 ± 3.9 Ma (2σ , $n=37$,
283 MSWD=3.5) (Li et al., 2018b).

284 The Kanbauk area, located in the northernmost part of the Dawei Sn-W region, is well-
285 known for its W-Sn veins, but the main ore zone also contains a Sn-W-F skarn system. The
286 deposit is developed at an apical zone of an elongate aplite stock that intrudes the
287 mudstones of the Mergui Group and limestones of likely Permian age, resulting in the
288 formation of an exoskarn zone. The skarn zone occurs as an irregularly-shaped body between
289 the metasedimentary rocks and the marble, and is composed of diopside, garnet, wollastonite,
290 hornblende, calcite, chlorite, cassiterite, magnetite, fluorite, scheelite, vesuvianite, pyrite,
291 pyrrhotite, chalcopyrite, sphalerite, arsenopyrite, bismuthinite, and galena (Aung Zaw Myint,
292 2019).

293

294 **3. Analytical methods**

295 *3.1 Mineralogical studies*

296 Minerals and textural relationships were examined by a transmitted and reflected light
297 optical microscope. The SEM-EDS determination of some sulfide minerals and the quantitative
298 EPMA analysis of wolframite was performed with a JEOL JXA-8900R electron probe
299 microanalyzer (EPMA), at the Institute of Applied Mineralogy and Economic Geology, at
300 RWTH Aachen University. Quantitative analyses for W, Sn, Fe, Mn, Nb, Ta, and Ca were
301 performed using an acceleration potential of 20 kV with a beam current of 25 nA. The intensity
302 of X-Ray was accumulated for 10s and 5s for peaks and backgrounds, respectively.

303

304 *3.2 Re-Os geochronology*

305 Thirteen rhenium-osmium (Re-Os) analyses of molybdenite were carried out in order
306 to determine the timing of greisen-associated mineralization at Pyiyadana (n = 2), Shwechaung
307 (n = 5), Tagun Taung (n = 5), and Wagone (n = 1). Pyiyadana samples were collected from the
308 tin-rich greisen patches, whereas Shwechaung, Tagun Taung, and Wagone samples were from
309 tungsten and molybdenum-rich quartz veins. All molybdenite-bearing samples were obtained
310 from undeformed vein sections thereby limiting the potential for any ^{187}Re - ^{187}Os decoupling
311 (Stein et al., 2003). Molybdenite Re-Os analysis (with the exception of the Wagone deposit
312 sample) was conducted at the State Key Laboratory of Isotope Geochemistry, Guangzhou
313 Institute of Geochemistry (GIG), Chinese Academy of Sciences. The single sample from
314 Wagone was analyzed at the Durham Geochemistry Center (DGC), Durham University, United
315 Kingdom.

316 Mineral separates were obtained using traditional isolation methods (e.g., crushing,
317 magnetic, and/or heavy liquid separation) at the noted laboratories. At GIG, molybdenite flakes
318 (grain size, 3-8 mm) were crushed using an agate pestle and then, screened by a 100 mesh (149
319 μm). Molybdenite grains were then handpicked under a binocular microscope to remove
320 impurities. Similarly, at DGC a 200 to 70 mesh (74-210 μm) pure fraction of molybdenite

321 (~0.5g) was obtained for the Wagone sample. The Carius tube method was used for the
322 dissolution of the molybdenite and equilibration of the samples with a Re and Os tracer
323 solution. Molybdenite was dissolved and equilibrated with ^{185}Re and ^{190}Os spike solutions at
324 the Guangzhou Institute of Geochemistry (Li et al., 2014, 2015), and with a mixed $^{185}\text{Re} + \text{Os}$
325 (normal isotopic composition) spike at Durham University (Selby and Creaser, 2001). About
326 0.05–0.2 g of each molybdenite separate was digested and equilibrated with a tracer solution
327 in reverse aqua regia (6 ml concentrated HNO_3 + 2 ml concentrated HCl) for 24 h at 240 °C in
328 a sealed Carius tube. Osmium was extracted by solvent extraction into CCl_4 (GIG) or CHCl_3
329 (DGC) and back-extracted into concentrated HBr . The osmium fraction was further purified
330 using subsequent microdistillation. The Re fraction was separated and purified using anion
331 column chromatography (GIG), and by $\text{NaOH-C}_3\text{H}_6\text{O}$ solvent extraction and anion
332 chromatography (DGC). At GIG, osmium was loaded onto Pt filaments and measured as OsO_3
333 – ions by negative-thermal ionization mass spectrometry (N-TIMS) using the electron
334 multiplier mode on a Thermo-Scientific Triton.

335 Repeated analyses of the Os standard solution (Merck Chemical AA standard solution)
336 yield a mean $^{187}\text{Os}/^{188}\text{Os}$ value of 0.12050 ± 0.00030 (2 SD, $n = 5$) for the period of analysis.
337 These values are in good agreement with a value of 0.12022 ± 0.00020 (2 SD, $n = 14$) measured
338 on the same mass spectrometer in Faraday cup mode (Li et al., 2010). The rhenium mass
339 fraction was analyzed by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (Thermo Elemental
340 X2 Series) at GIG. A conventional low volume quartz impact bead spray chamber with a Peltier
341 cooled (3 °C) and a 0.4 ml min^{-1} borosilicate nebulizer (MicroMist GE) were used in the
342 determinations. Ion lens settings, nebulizer gas flow rate and torch position were optimized
343 daily using a 10 ng ml^{-1} tuning In–Ce mixture standard solution in order to obtain the high
344 instrumental sensitivity and low oxide production levels. A peristaltic pump was not used, as
345 free aspiration of the nebulizer provided better signal stability. Total procedural blanks were

346 0.82 ± 0.44 pg (1σ , $n = 2$) with an $^{187}\text{Os}/^{188}\text{Os}$ ratio of 0.67 ± 0.55 (1σ , $n = 2$) on average for
347 Os and 4.8 ± 0.2 pg (1σ , $n = 2$) for Re. All data were corrected for the procedural blank for
348 each analytical batch, but blank contributions were generally insignificant. At Durham, both
349 rhenium and osmium isotope measurements were conducted using negative ionization mass
350 spectrometry on a Thermo-Scientific Triton mass spectrometer. A full analytical protocol blank
351 run along with the molybdenite analysis yielded 2.5 pg Re and 0.7 pg Os, with the latter
352 possessing a $^{187}\text{Os}/^{188}\text{Os}$ isotopic composition of 0.21 ± 0.10 . Details of the data treatment,
353 standards and reference materials are given in Li et al. (2017). The analysis of the Wagone
354 sample was conducted during the same time period as that of the Li et al. (2017) study at DGC.
355 Molybdenite Re-Os model ages are calculated using a ^{187}Re decay constant of $1.666 \times 10^{-11} \text{ y}^{-1}$
356 with an uncertainty of 0.31% (Smoliar et al., 1996; Selby et al., 2007). Isoplot v.4.15 (Ludwig,
357 2003) was used to calculate the ^{187}Re - ^{187}Os isochron ages.

358

359 **4. Results**

360 *4.1 Mineralogy and paragenesis*

361 In the Padatgyaung W-Sn(-Mo) region, the tin-rich greisen mineralization is present as
362 irregular patches, comprising mainly cassiterite, molybdenite, and minor wolframite, and as
363 veins and narrow zones adjacent to veins, containing cassiterite, wolframite, and fluorite with
364 the sulfide minerals arsenopyrite, molybdenite, pyrite, sphalerite, chalcopyrite, and galena.
365 Scheelite occurs as a rare minor mineral in the greisen veins, and wolframite rarely occurs in
366 the patches but forms a major mineral in the veins. These two sub-types (different
367 mineralization styles) may be formed synchronously (Fig. 6). Some of the veins are not Sn-
368 mineralized but are tungsten-rich quartz veins that carry a considerable amount of wolframite
369 and molybdenite with minor to rare amounts of cassiterite, pyrite, and sphalerite.

370 Cassiterite occurs as weakly zoned to un-zoned crystals mainly enclosed in and
371 overgrown by mica and quartz (Fig. 7A). Wolframite mostly occurs as clusters of bladed or
372 prismatic crystals that are replaced by later-formed sulfides (Fig. 7B, C). Arsenopyrite and
373 pyrite are generally early-formed sulfides and they are replaced and veined by later-formed
374 sulfides such as chalcopyrite, sphalerite, and galena (Fig. 7D, E). Wolframite, which is the
375 main tungsten-bearing mineral in the deposits of the region, has a Fe/(Fe+Mn) values ranging
376 from 0.14 to 0.64 (Table 1). Fe-rich wolframite (ferberite) is common in the W-rich quartz
377 veins, whereas the wolframite in Sn-rich greisen is generally hubneritic. Arsenopyrite contains
378 As, Fe, and S ranging from (41.53 to 45.31 wt.% As), (34.16 to 35.98 wt.% Fe), and (20.53 to
379 22.64 wt.% S), respectively. Sphalerite is Fe-poor, as shown by energy-dispersive X-ray
380 spectrometry (EDS).

381 The mineral paragenetic sequence of the Sn-W-(Mo) mineralization in the Dawei
382 region is variable for each type of deposit. Generally, oxide ore minerals (the major Sn-W
383 minerals cassiterite and wolframite) are deposited at the onset of vein formation. Cassiterite is
384 generally zoned and pleochroic, and mainly associated with quartz and muscovite (i.e., greisen)
385 (Fig. 7F, G, H). Wolframite coexists with quartz and muscovite (Fig. 7I, J) as well as with
386 sulfide minerals (Fig. 7K). Common sulfide minerals are predominant in the tin-rich vein
387 systems of Hermyingyi, Bawapin (Fig. 7L), and Kalonta. By contrast, molybdenite is prevalent
388 in the tungsten-rich veins (e.g., Putletto, Wagone) except in some veins of the Hermyingyi
389 deposit. It is important to note that magnetite is a common minor oxide mineral in the Wagone,
390 Kalonta, and Kanbaur deposits, and is closely associated with Sn-W minerals.

391 The wolframite composition in the Hermyingyi and Wagone deposits is generally
392 hubneritic while that in Kanbaur is mostly ferbritic (Table 1). Sphalerite has a moderate
393 amount of Fe in the range of 3 to 5 wt.% at Bawapin and 5 to 7 wt.% at Hermyingyi.

394

395 4.2 Re-Os geochronology

396 The Re-Os abundances and model ages of quartz vein- and greisen-hosted molybdenite
397 are listed in Table (2). The Padatgyaung molybdenites contain ^{187}Re and ^{187}Os abundances of
398 0.054 to 5.952 ppm, and of 0.018 to 5.984 ppb, respectively, with the Re-Os data yielding ages
399 of 58.7 to 68.8 Ma (n=13). For Pyiyadana the two analyses yield Re-Os ages of 67.7 ± 5.1 Ma
400 and 68.8 ± 3.2 Ma, which yield a weighted average of 68.5 ± 2.7 Ma (MSWD=0.14) (Fig. 8A).
401 The Re-Os model ages of the Shwechaung molybdenite are not uniform and range from 58.73
402 ± 0.7 Ma to 64.4 ± 0.7 Ma. Three samples yield similar Re-Os ages (Table 2; Fig. 8B), which
403 yield a weighted average of 64.23 ± 0.49 Ma (MSWD=0.49). Five Re-Os ages (60.5 ± 2.7 Ma
404 to 61.5 ± 2.7 Ma) of molybdenites from Tagun Taung constrain a weighted average age of
405 60.54 ± 0.45 Ma (MSWD=1.3) (Fig. 8C) and a Re-Os isochron age of 60.4 ± 1.2 Ma
406 (MSWD=3.8; initial ^{187}Os = 0.001 ± 0.064 ppb) (Fig. 8D). The molybdenite sample from the
407 Wagone deposit possesses 0.017 ppm ^{187}Re and 18.3 ppt ^{187}Os . The Re-Os data yield a Re-Os
408 model age of 64.47 ± 3.67 Ma.

409

410 5. Discussion

411 5.1 Timing of Sn-W (-Mo) mineralization and related granitic magmatism

412 The Re-Os molybdenite geochronology provides new constraints for the timing of
413 mineralization at Padatgyaung. The weighted average Re-Os age of molybdenite from
414 Pyiyadana of 68.5 ± 2.7 Ma constrains the timing of the tin-rich greisenization stage at
415 Padatgyaung, which is identical within uncertainty with the Re-Os isochron age obtained for
416 Hermyingyi (68.4 ± 2.5 Ma; Jiang et al. 2019). This mineralization age is older than the Re-Os
417 isochron age of vein molybdenite from Tagun Taung (60.5 ± 0.7 Ma), as well as the Re-Os
418 model ages (58.7 ± 0.7 Ma and 61.6 ± 0.7 Ma) and the weighted average Re-Os model age
419 (64.2 ± 0.5 Ma) of molybdenite from the Shwechaung quartz veins. Therefore, the formation

420 of the W-Mo veins occurred clearly later than tin greisen mineralization at Padatgyaung. The
421 relatively younger age (58.7 Ma) of the molybdenite sample from Shwechaung is considered
422 to have been affected by Re-Os decoupling. This was probably caused by the analysis of only
423 small sample aliquot of the relatively coarse-grained (8 mm grain size) molybdenite in sample
424 SC-4 (Stein et al., 2003; Selby and Creaser, 2004; Zhai et al., 2019).

425 Based on rather poorly constrained K-Ar age data, it was previously concluded that the
426 Padatgyaung granite was emplaced at around 55 to 57 Ma (Brook and Snelling, 1976). These
427 K-Ar ages are nominally younger than the new Re-Os molybdenite ages of this study, which
428 provide robust time constraints on the vein formation. Therefore, the younger K-Ar ages most
429 likely reflect hydrothermal overprinting and partial resetting of the K-Ar system in the host
430 granites. An alternative interpretation of the younger K-Ar ages would be that part of the granite
431 pluton hosting the Sn-W mineralization was emplaced during a later magmatic phase that
432 occurred after the Cretaceous to Paleocene mineralization. The robustness of the K-Ar data
433 would need to be tested by modern U-Pb or Ar-Ar dating techniques. Given that it has been
434 shown that the Re-Os systematics in molybdenite is generally not affected by post-ore
435 hydrothermal activity (Stein et al., 2001), the magmatic age of the Padatgyaung Sn-W
436 mineralization is taken to be the age of greisenization (around 70 Ma). This magmatic event
437 probably occurred synchronously with the emplacement of the 71 Ma old Nattaung granite that
438 is located about 100 km NW of Padatgyaung (Mitchell et al., 2012).

439 On the other hand, the newly obtained Re-Os model age of 64.5 ± 3.7 Ma from the
440 Wagone quartz vein system, in conjunction with previously determined cassiterite U-Pb ages
441 (60 to 65 Ma) and the Re-Os molybdenite ages (68 Ma) from Dawei, do strongly support a
442 major Late Cretaceous to Paleocene ore-forming hydrothermal system in the region. All the
443 modern mineralization ages obtained by Re-Os and U-Pb methods are in good agreement with

444 the U-Pb zircon ages of tin granite emplacement at Hermyingyi (61.4 ± 0.6 Ma and 70.4 ± 0.4
445 Ma) and Wagone (61.4 ± 0.5 Ma and 60.7 ± 3.5 Ma).

446 The molybdenite samples from the Padatgyaung Sn-W mineralization contain rather
447 variable Re contents between 79 and 7600 ppb. Combining these data with Re concentration
448 data from previous studies of molybdenite from Hermyingyi (Jiang et al., 2019), the Re
449 contents in molybdenite from the Dawei region are generally below 1 ppm (i.e., 23 ppb to 300
450 ppb), and therefore lower than those from Padatgyaung. Together, the data show that the Re
451 contents are low (<8 ppm) in both ore systems, which is probably compatible with a crustal
452 source for the Sn-W mineralization in the region (Mao et al., 1999; Stein, 2006). In general,
453 molybdenite from Sn-W (-Mo) deposits associated with magmas derived mainly from the
454 continental crust (e.g., Nanling region, China) possess very low rhenium abundances (< 10
455 ppm; Peng et al., 2006; Feng et al., 2011). In contrast, molybdenite from the W-Mo deposits,
456 that are related to a magma possessing a minor mantle component (e.g., Jiangnan Tungsten
457 belt, China), is characterized by slightly more elevated rhenium abundances (6.4–19 ppm, Song
458 et al., 2012; 7.8–51 ppm, Li et al., 2015).

459 In addition, Early Cretaceous to Paleocene granites from the Tengchong terrane may
460 have been derived from the partial melting of ancient crustal rocks with or without mixing with
461 metagneous rocks (Zhao et al., 2017; Fang et al., 2018). The Cretaceous tin granite (70 Ma) in
462 Hermyingyi deposit has low $\epsilon\text{Nd}(t)$ (-11.3 to -10.6) and $\epsilon\text{Hf}(t)$ (-12.4 to -10.0) values, which
463 indicate a crustal-derived melt source and support the interpretation of the Re concentration
464 data that fertile granites were generated from partial melting of the old crustal blocks with no
465 or little mantle contribution (Jiang et al., 2017). Moreover, the U-Pb age of 61 Ma for the
466 Wagone and Hermyingyi granites has been interpreted in terms of a crustal-derived origin
467 where the granitic melts were produced by partial melting of a felsic clay-rich source in a back-
468 arc extensional setting (Li et al., 2018a). By interpretation on the geochemical and Sr–Nd–Hf

469 isotopic characteristics, the magmas may have ascended relatively slowly in the crust and
470 experienced some degree of fractional crystallization and assimilation and contamination by
471 upper crustal material of Sibumasu, contributing to the extensive Sn–W mineralization in the
472 Dawei area (Li et al., 2019). Meanwhile, magma with low degree of fractional crystallization
473 and relatively high mantle components produced the formation of I-type granites (Li et al.,
474 2019). The low concentrations of rhenium in molybdenite may also support the hypothesis that
475 the ore metals that were deposited from magmatic-hydrothermal systems also had a crustal
476 source.

477

478 *5.2 Sn-W metallogeny in Myanmar and link to Western Yunnan in China*

479 The available geochronological and geochemical data for the Sn-W deposits and host
480 granites in the Sibumasu and Tengchong terranes suggest a possible genetic link between Sn-
481 W mineralization in an extensive Sn-W mineral belt extending from southern Myanmar to
482 western Yunnan (Mitchell, 2018; Aung Zaw Myint et al., 2018; Li et al., 2018b). The
483 geochronological data constrain the granite-related Sn-W (-Mo) mineralization in the Western
484 Granite Province to the Cretaceous to Eocene (Table 3; Fig. 9). The Sn-W mineralization in
485 the Western Granite Province emerges at Tieyaoshan, Dabinga, and Mawpalaw Taung at 120-
486 110 Ma (Mi Paik, 2017; Li et al., 2018b). The tin-rich (with no W and Mo) quartz and pegmatite
487 veins with greisen systems are developed in biotite granites at Tieyaoshan and Mawpalaw
488 Taung, while Mo (-W) bearing quartz veins are confined to the biotite granite of Dabinga. This
489 Early Cretaceous magmatic event is probably related to the long-lasting subduction of the
490 Meso-Tethyan plate that resulted in the collision and crustal thickening processes which were
491 able to trigger partial melting of old crustal material with the minor addition of mantle material
492 (Xu et al., 2012; Li et al., 2018b). The Early Cretaceous hydrothermal event resulted in two

493 separate systems of Sn-rich (in both Sibumasu and Tengchong terranes) and W-Mo rich (in the
494 Tengchong terrane only) ore systems forming as medium- to small-sized deposits.
495 After the Early Cretaceous collision in West Myanmar and the Sibumasu-Tengchong area
496 (Metcalf, 2013; Liu et al., 2016), low-angle subduction of the Neo-Tethyan oceanic
497 lithosphere caused the development of an Andean-type magmatic arc with Late Cretaceous-
498 Paleocene (100–50 Ma) felsic magmatism in the Western Granite Province (Mitchell et al.,
499 2012; Gardiner et al., 2016, 2018; Jiang et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2017; Fang et al., 2018) (Fig.
500 10).

501 Roll-back of the Neo-Tethyan oceanic slab is then proposed to have produced crustal
502 derived melts that underwent high degrees of fractional crystallization and subsequent fluid
503 exsolution (Jiang et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018b; Mao et al., 2020), which finally formed most of
504 the Sn-W (-Mo) deposits in the Western Granite Province. Many large-scale deposits (e.g.,
505 Xiaolonghe, Hermyingyi, Kanbauk, and Myinmahti) as well as medium to small-scale deposits
506 (e.g., Pilok, Tagu (Kuntabin), Sn-W-Mo deposits of Padatgyaung and Dawei regions) are
507 characterized by an assemblage of quartz and pegmatite veins, greisens, and skarn
508 mineralizations which represent the Late Cretaceous to Paleocene event. The significant
509 difference between the greisen-type ore mineralization in the western part of Sibumasu and
510 those in the Tengchong terrane is the lack of tungsten and molybdenum in the latter.
511 Conversely, a significant number of vein systems in the western part of the Sibumasu terrane
512 lack tin (e.g., Shwechaung, some veins of Wagone).

513 During the collision between India and Asia at around 50 Ma in the early Eocene, some
514 tin granites with large to medium-scale Sn-W deposits (e.g., Lailishan, Yadanabon) have
515 formed in the Western Granite Province, but the number of tin granites and related ore deposits
516 that occurred during this period are much smaller compared to the major Late Cretaceous-
517 Paleocene event. Partial melting of old crustal material and protracted fractional crystallization

518 are crucial factors for producing the chemically evolved and metal enriched magma that was
519 emplaced into the shallow crust as fertile tin granites (Gardiner et al., 2016, 2018; Aung Zaw
520 Myint et al., 2018; Li et al., 2018b).

521 Emplacement of late Eocene granites (42 Ma) at Mawchi, the youngest tin-tungsten
522 mineralized granite in the Western Granite Province, is probably the product of a tectonic
523 environment that was different from the setting that caused the formation of the older tin
524 granites. The Eocene granites most likely represent late collisional (Gardiner et al., 2016, 2018)
525 or post-collisional granites (Aung Zaw Myint et al., 2017b), which are probably originated
526 from lithospheric thinning in response to the regional Late Eocene-Early Miocene extension
527 (Mitchell et al., 2012; Morley, 2014). A geodynamic model of the Neo-Tethyan oceanic slab
528 tear and break-off during the late- or post-collisional event is also proposed for the origin and
529 emplacement of Eocene–Oligocene (45–30 Ma) mafic-felsic magmas and formation of related
530 ore deposits in this Province (Li et al., 2018b).

531 Generally, the mineral deposits in the Tengchong terrane lack W-Mo minerals except
532 few small veins at Dapinga, and this first-order feature is best interpreted to reflect the
533 compositional differences between the corresponding old crustal sources of the Sibumasu and
534 Tengchong terranes. Low contents of Re in hydrothermal molybdenite samples (2.9 to 8.3 ppm
535 in Dapinga, 0.02 to 0.3 ppm in Dawei, 0.1 to 9.5 ppm in Padatgyaung and 1.4 ppm in Mawchi)
536 also support that the ore metals are crustal-derived. Geochronological evidence for two or more
537 episodes of mineralization within the same granite pluton (e.g., Dapingba, one event at 120–
538 114 Ma and then a later one at ~108 Ma; Hermyingyi, one event at 70 Ma and then at a later
539 one at ~60 Ma) suggests that the plutons were built up by multiple or successive magmatic
540 stages which are linked with separate mineralization events in the Western Granite Province.
541 In addition, the formation of tin greisens generally occurred earlier than the formation of vein

542 type mineralization in greisen-rich Sn-W ore systems (e.g., Xiaolonghe, Lailishan, probably in
543 Padatgyaung).

544

545 **6. Conclusions**

546 (1) Combining and integrating the new Re-Os geochronological data for molybdenite from two
547 Sn-W regions with available Re-Os data for molybdenite and U-Pb data for host granites
548 demonstrates that magmatic-hydrothermal activity and formation of ore deposits occurred as
549 several discrete events in the Western Granite Province of SE Asia.

550 (2) Greisen formation initiated around 68 Ma and subsequent hydrothermal vein mineralization
551 was formed during 65-61 Ma at Padatgyaung, characterized by the Re-OS ages of hydrothermal
552 molybdenite. The Re-Os model age of the quartz-molybdenite veins (63 Ma) from Wagone,
553 combined with previous U-Pb (60.7 ± 2.5 Ma to 64.6 ± 3.9 Ma) and Re-Os (68.4 ± 2.5 Ma) data,
554 confirms a Late Cretaceous-Paleocene ore forming episode in the Dawei Sn-W region.

555 (3) Our new geochronological data, in conjunction with geological data, mineralogy and ore
556 paragenetic stages and existing age data for the Sn-W mineralization and granite emplacement,
557 support extensive granite-associated Sn-W(-Mo) mineralization events in the Western Granite
558 Province during ca. 75 Ma and 60 Ma probably associated with the collision regime developed
559 at that time.

560 (4) Roll-back of the Neo-Tethyan oceanic slab was responsible for the emplacement of
561 crustally derived melts that underwent high degrees of fractional crystallization and subsequent
562 post-magmatic ore fluid produced the Sn-W (-Mo) deposits in the Western Granite Province.

563 (5) Metal constituents in the Sn-W- (Mo) deposits were considered to have derived from the
564 crustal blocks, as indicated by the quite low Re content (< 10 ppm) in hydrothermal
565 molybdenite samples.

566

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573

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Figure captions

814 Fig. 1. (A) Simplified tectonic subdivision map of Myanmar and the adjacent countries
815 showing major geological units (adapted from Gardiner et al., 2016, 2018). (B) Granitoid
816 belts of Myanmar and the adjacent region showing the main occurrences of granites and
817 their geochronological ages (Aung Zaw Myint et al., 2018; modified after Cobbing et al.,
818 1992; Mitchell et al., 2007; Sone and Metcalfe, 2008). Published zircon U-Pb age data
819 for granites are from Mitchell et al. (2012), Chen et al. (2015), Gardiner et al. (2016),
820 Aung Zaw Myint et al. (2017), Crow and Khin Zaw (2017), Jiang et al. (2017), Li et al.
821 (2018a, 2018b), Cao et al. (2019), and Mao et al. (2020).

822 Fig. 2. Geological map of the Padatgyaung W-Sn (-Mo) region (Aung Zaw Myint et al.,
823 2019; modified after Bateson et al., 1972).

824 Fig. 3. Field photographs and representative hand specimen photographs of the Sn-W
825 mineralization in the Padatgyaung region. (A) Hand specimens collected from the
826 irregularly shaped greisen patches. (B) Small quartz veins crosscutting the host rock
827 mudstone at Pyiyadana. (C) Greisen-bordered quartz vein at Bularmi. (D) Wolframite-
828 bearing quartz veins from Tayokegone. (E) Molybdenite-quartz vein specimens from
829 Shwe Chaung. (F) Wolframite bearing quartz vein from Myinmahti. (G) Weathered
830 quartz veins at Yadanagadaytike. (H) Quartz vein of the Tagun Taung deposit bordered
831 by syn-vein greisenization with muscovite alteration.

832 Fig. 4. Geological map of the Dawei Sn-W (-Mo) region (Aung Zaw Myint, 2019; modified
833 after Clegg, 1944; Bender, 1983; Aung Zaw Myint, 2015).

834 Fig. 5. Field photographs and hand specimen photographs of Sn-W mineralization in Dawei
835 region. (A) Quartz + wolframite vein at Putlatto. (B) Hermyingyi veins in biotite granite.
836 (C) Sub-economic quartz vein cutting the biotite granite. (D) Cassiterite and magnetite
837 present as reddish brown patches in weathered granite. (E) Platy or massive molybdenite

838 from W-Mo quartz vein of Wagone. (F) Greisen vein in the Mergui Group at Bawapin.
839 (G) Close-up view showing the association of ore minerals with muscovite patches in
840 greisen vein. (H) Greisenized quartz vein at Kalonta containing cassiterite and
841 wolframite.

842 Fig. 6. Paragenetic sequence of W-Sn(-Mo) mineralization at Padatgyaung.

843 Fig. 7. Photomicrographs of ore mineral assemblages from the Padatgyaung and Dawei
844 regions. (A) Weakly zoned cassiterite from Piyadana. (B) Wolframite crystals from
845 Shwechaung. (C) Cluster of bladed wolframite crystals from Tagun Taung. (D) Pyrite
846 (py) and arsenopyrite replaced by sphalerite (sp) and chalcopyrite (cp) in Piyadana. (E)
847 Deformed galena replacing pyrite in the Shwechaung vein. (F) Quartz veinlet
848 crosscutting the zoned cassiterite at Bawapin. (G) Small cassiterite crystals enclosed in
849 the quartz specimen from Kalonta. (H) Cassiterite mineralization at Taungphila. (I) Small
850 wolframite clusters in quartz vein from Wagone. (J) Quartz vein containing wolframite
851 and quartz replaced by chalcopyrite from Hermyingyi. (K) Wolframite grains in the
852 quartz vein from Kanbawk. (L) Bismuthinite crystal cut by a trail of minute pyrite grains
853 in greisen vein from Bawapin.

854 Fig. 8. Re-Os weighted average model ages of (A) Piyadana, (B) Shwechaung, and (C)
855 Tagun Taung. (D) Re-Os isochron plot of Tagun Taung.

856 Fig. 9. Reconstructed temporal evolution of Sn-W metallogenesis in the Western Granite
857 Province. Data sources: *current study, ¹Chen et al., 2014, ²Li et al., 2018b, ³Paik,
858 2017, ⁴Chen et al., 2015, ⁵Charusiri, 1989, ⁶Jiang et al., 2017, ⁷Li et al., 2018a, ⁸Jiang et
859 al., 2019, ⁹Gardiner et al., 2016, ¹⁰Aung Zaw Myint et al., 2017, ¹¹Aung Zaw Myint et
860 al. 2018, ¹²Mao et al. 2020.

861 Fig. 10. Tectonic model for the Sn-W(-Mo) mineralization at Pdatgyaung and Dawei (after
862 Gardiner et al., 2016).

Fig. 1

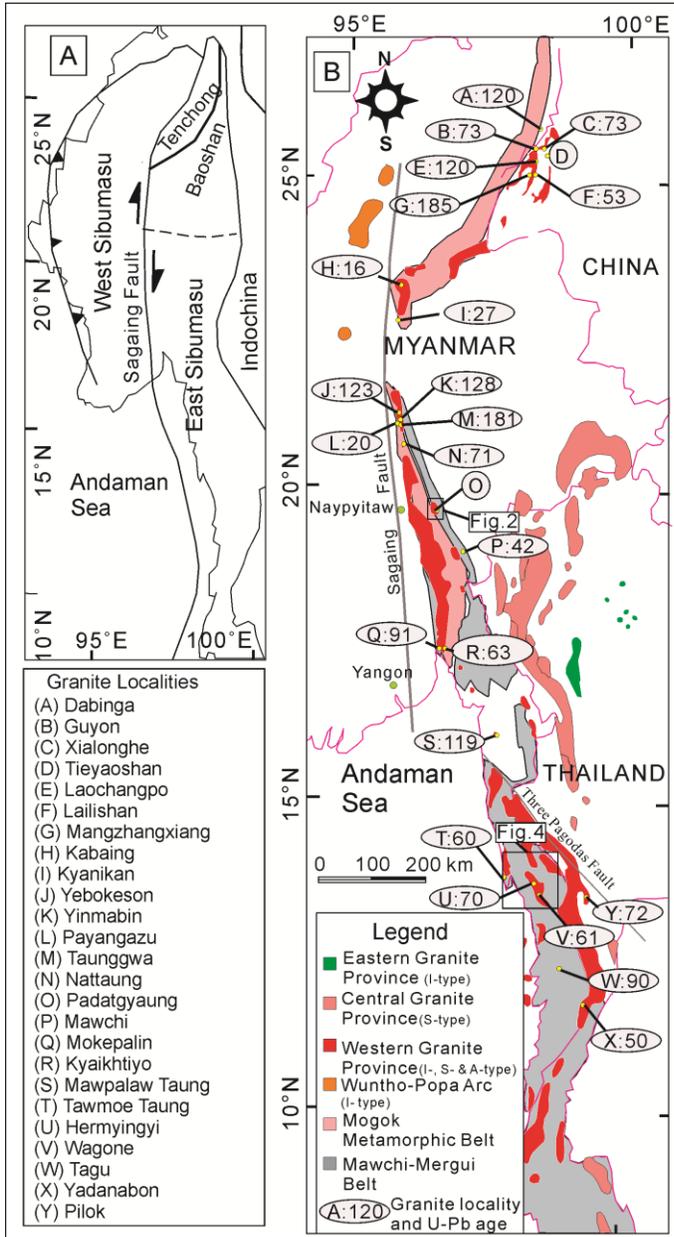


Fig. 2

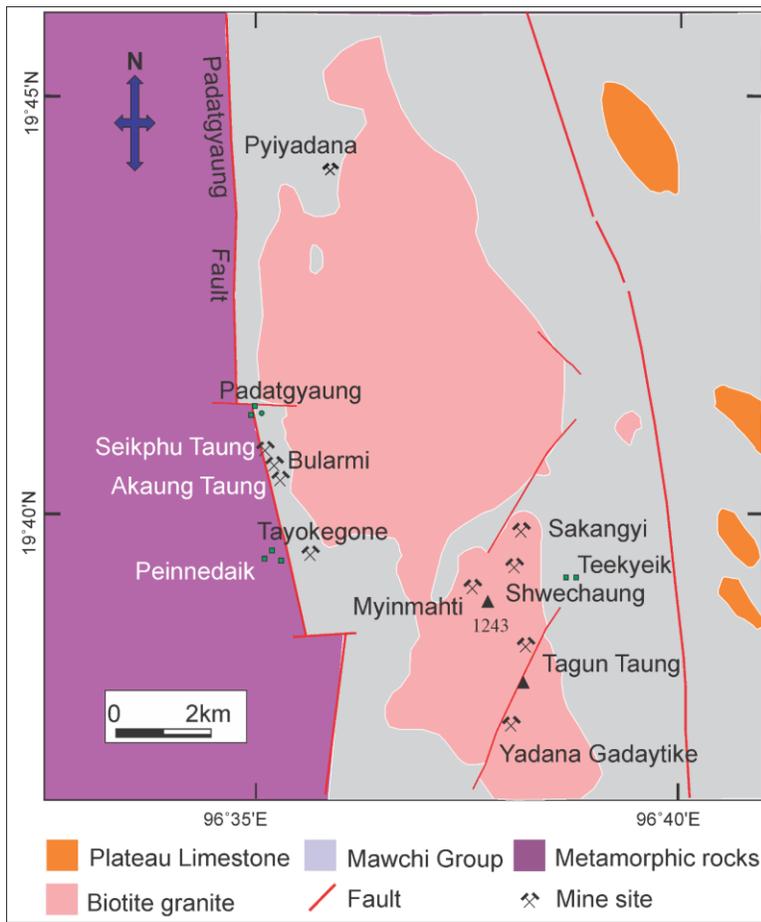


Fig. 3

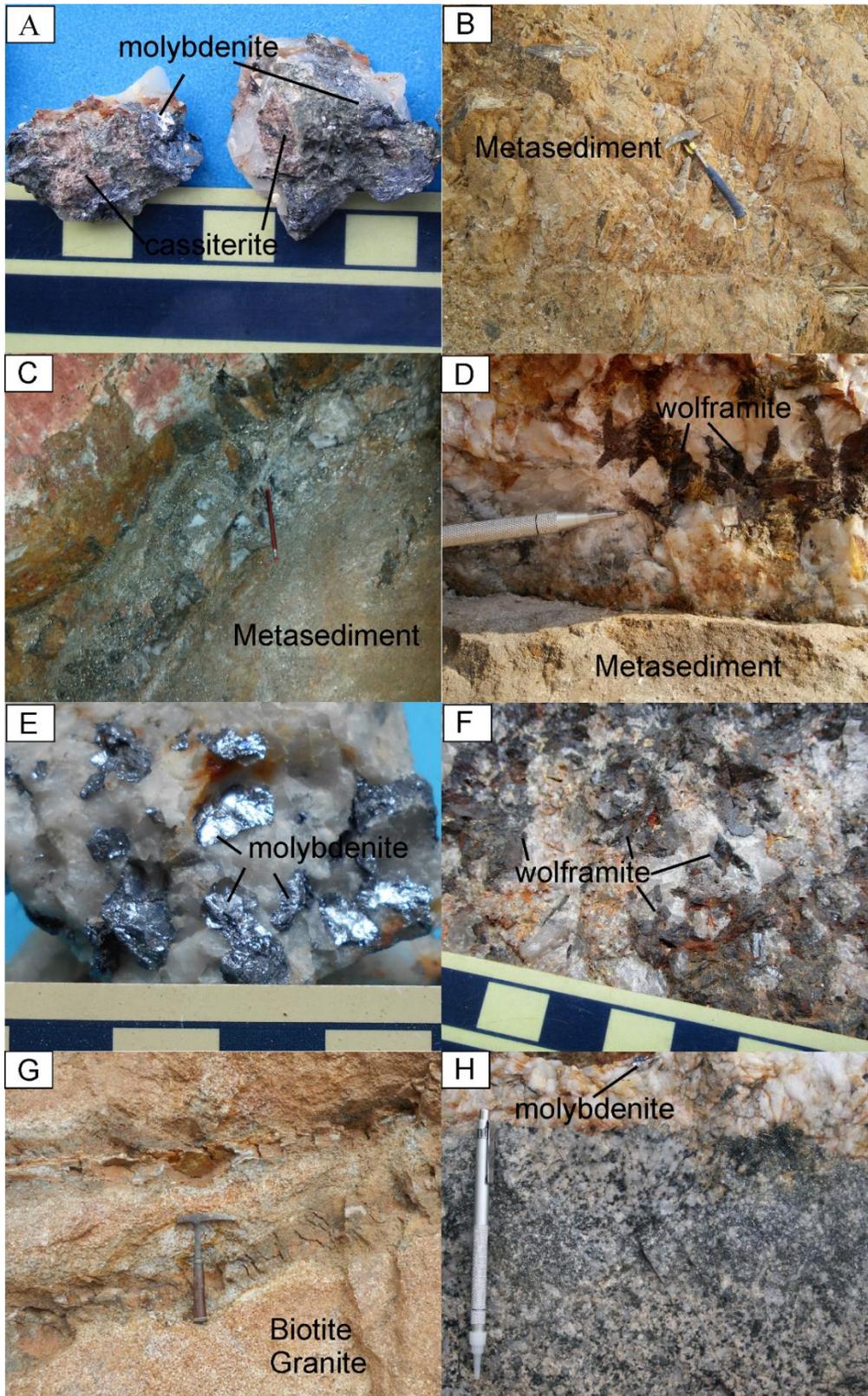


Fig. 4

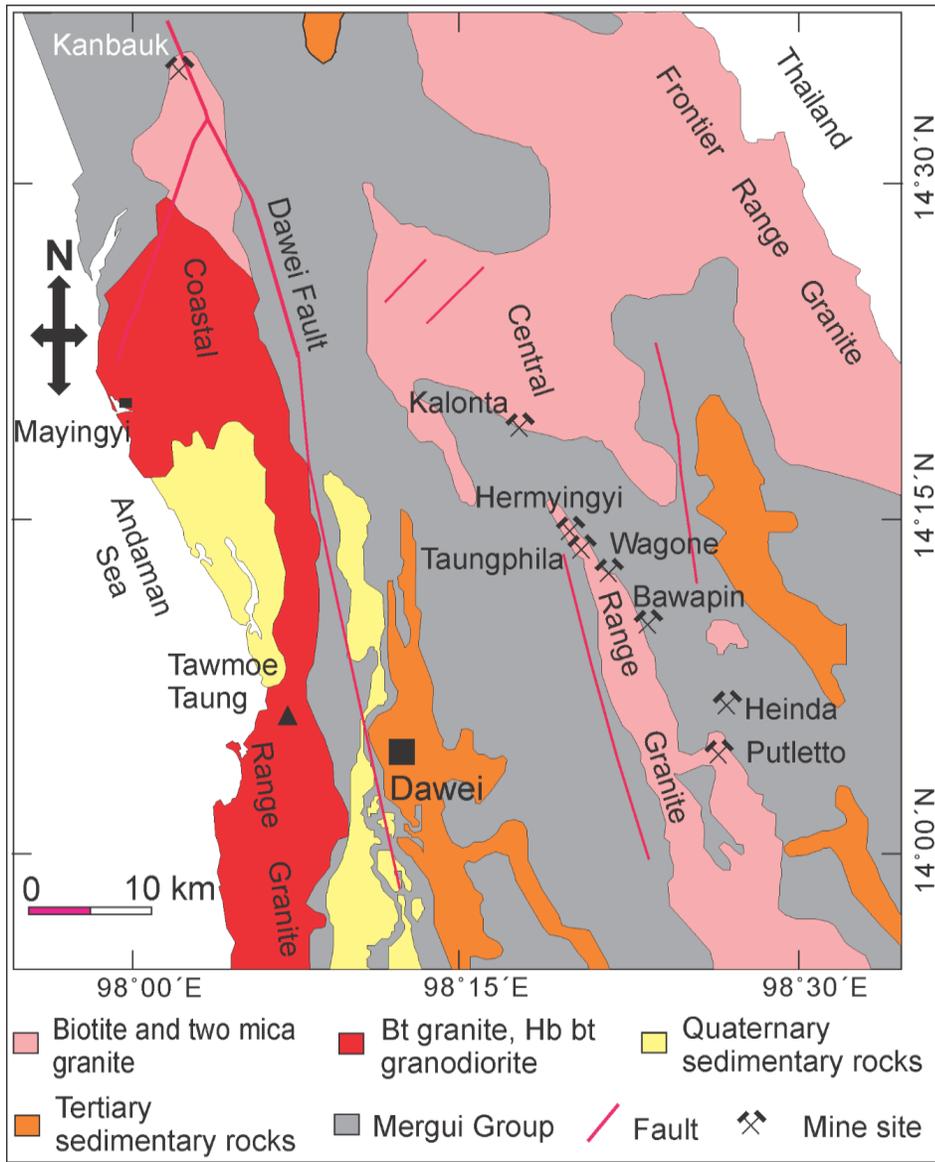


Fig. 5

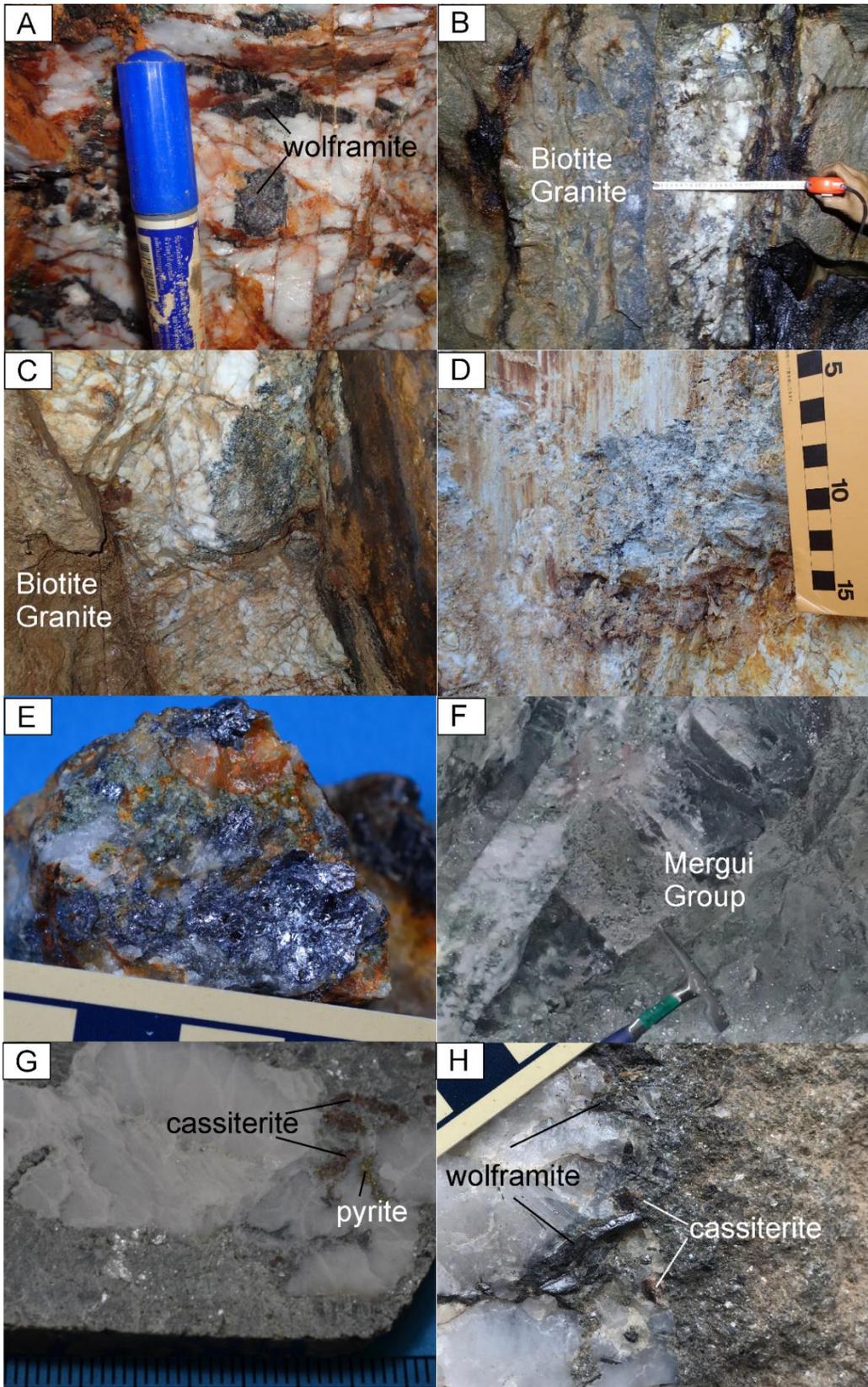


Fig.6

Mineral	Sn-rich greisen		W-rich quartz vein
	Patches	veins and zone	
Cassiterite	██████████	██████████	—
Wolframite		██████████	██████████
Scheelite		—	
Fluorite		—	
Quartz	██████████	██████████	██████████
Muscovite	██████████	—	—
Pyrite	—	██████████	██████████
Molybdenite	██████████	—	██████████
Arsenopyrite		██████████	
Sphalerite		██████████	██████████
Chalcopyrite		██████████	██████████
Galena		—	—

Fig.7

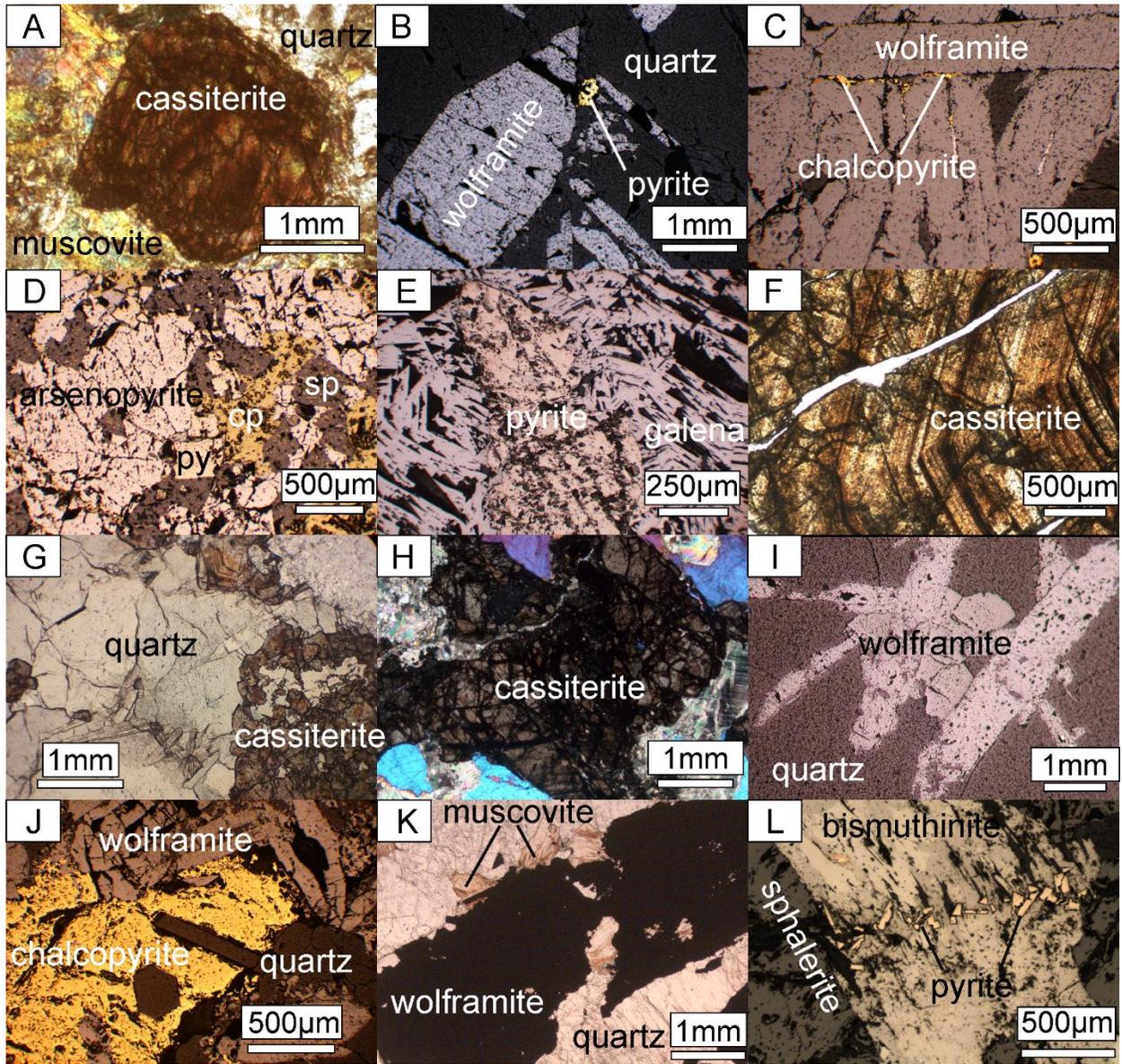


Fig.8

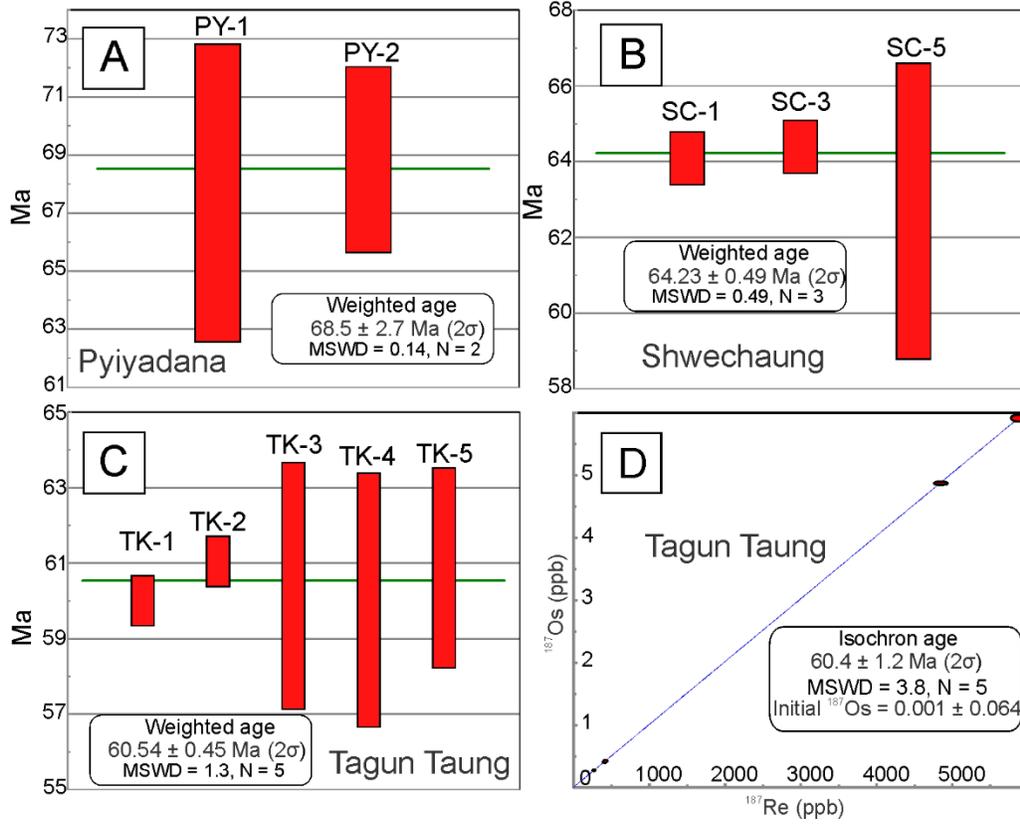


Fig. 9

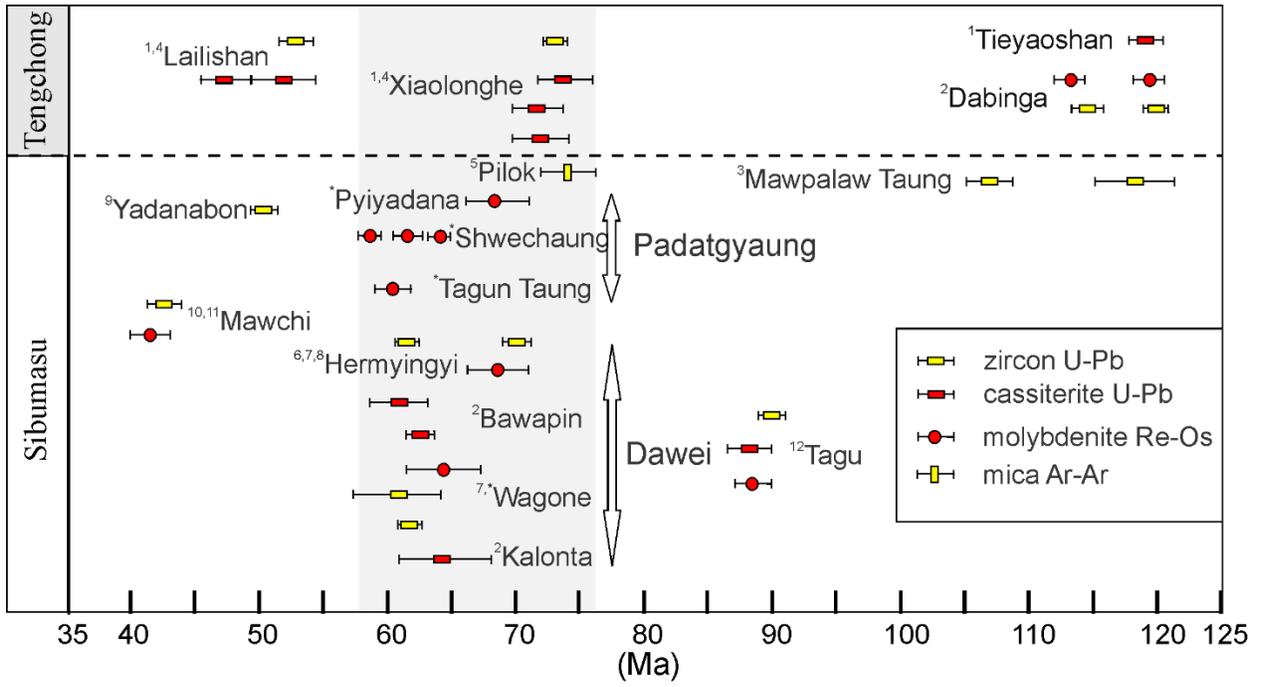


Fig. 10

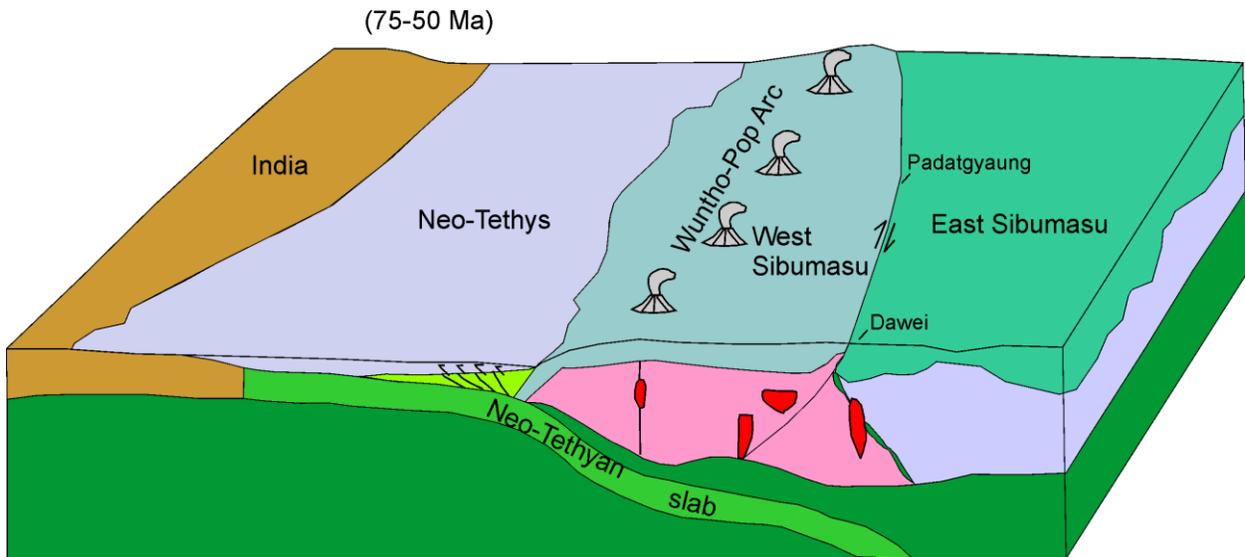


Table 1 Representative EPMA results of wolframite from Padatgyaung and Dawei

	Padatgyaung								Dawei							
	Shwechaung		Sakangyi		Tagun Taung		Pyiyadana		Wagone		Kanbauk		Hermyingyi		Taungphila	
wt.%	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max
CaO	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.03
FeO	12.78	15.70	3.82	11.31	8.04	15.23	3.18	7.66	9.91	11.89	9.37	13.04	3.01	10.36	5.24	9.56
MnO	8.72	11.89	12.31	19.51	8.47	15.33	17.69	19.92	12.96	15.99	11.26	11.60	14.20	21.26	15.04	19.08
Nb2O5	0.00	0.10	0.00	0.10	0.00	0.60	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.20	0.00	0.31	0.19	0.77	0.51	0.95
SnO2	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.05	0.02	0.22	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.11	0.03	0.17
Ta2O5	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.10	0.01	0.19	0.00	0.24
WO3	75.24	76.18	76.08	76.34	75.73	76.99	75.25	76.14	74.19	75.52	75.34	76.52	73.85	75.49	73.96	74.27
at.%																
Ca	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Fe	0.55	0.66	0.16	0.48	0.34	0.65	0.14	0.32	0.41	0.51	0.40	0.56	0.13	0.44	0.22	0.40
Mn	0.37	0.57	0.53	0.84	0.36	0.65	0.75	0.86	0.56	0.68	0.48	0.64	0.61	0.91	0.64	0.82
Nb	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.02
Sn	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Ta	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
W	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.98	1.00	0.97	1.00	0.98	0.99	0.97	0.98	0.96	0.98
Fe/(Fe+Mn)	0.52	0.64	0.16	0.48	0.34	0.64	0.14	0.30	0.38	0.48	0.38	0.54	0.13	0.42	0.21	0.39

Table 2 Molybdenite Re-Os data for Padatgyaung and Dawei

Deposit	sample	Weight (g)	Re (ppm)	$\pm 2\sigma$	^{187}Re (ppm)	$\pm 2\sigma$	^{187}Os (ppb)	$\pm 2\sigma$	Model Age (Ma)	$\pm 2\sigma$
Piyadana	PY-1	0.022	0.079	0.001	0.054	0.002	0.0564	0.0002	67.71	5.1
	PY-2	0.018	0.159	0.002	0.115	0.002	0.1153	0.0003	68.85	3.2
Shwechaung	SC-1	0.214	1.822	0.011	1.145	0.007	1.2242	0.0058	64.15	0.7
	SC-2	0.037	5.821	0.024	3.659	0.015	3.7546	0.0073	61.57	0.7
	SC-3	0.203	0.439	0.002	0.276	0.001	0.2961	0.0009	64.40	0.7
	SC-4	0.018	6.542	0.032	4.112	0.020	4.0252	0.0095	58.73	0.7
	SC-5	0.025	0.130	0.004	0.086	0.001	0.0862	0.0007	62.74	3.9
Tagun Taung	TK-1	0.122	9.469	0.060	5.952	0.038	5.9536	0.0205	60.01	0.7
	TK-2	0.134	7.643	0.056	4.804	0.035	4.8894	0.0110	61.06	0.7
	TK-3	0.012	0.670	0.007	0.428	0.002	0.4291	0.0080	60.41	3.3
	TK-4	0.027	0.638	0.007	0.417	0.001	0.4179	0.0079	60.03	3.4
	TK-5	0.018	0.432	0.003	0.278	0.002	0.2798	0.0038	60.89	2.6
Wagone	RO668-1	0.201	0.027	0.001	0.017	0.001	0.0180	0.0070	64.47	3.7

Table 3 Summary of the geochronological data representing the granite and associated Sn-W(-Mo) mineralization in the Western Granite Province

Granite and associated mineralization	Granite age	Associated mineralization	Deposit type	Mineralization age	Author
Tieyaoshan		Sn	greisen	119.3±1.7 Ma (cassiterite U-Pb)	Chen et al., 2014
Dabinga	120.5 ± 0.3 Ma 114.6 ± 0.6 Ma (zircon U-Pb)	Mo-W	quartz vein	119.6±1.3 Ma 113.5±1.0 Ma (Re-Os molybdenite)	Li et al., 2018b
Mawpalaw Taung	118.8 ± 2.9 Ma (zircon U-Pb)	Sn	pegmatite	106.8 ± 1.6 Ma (zircon U-Pb)	Mi Paik, 2017
Tagu (Kuntabin)	90.1 ± 0.7 Ma (zircon U-Pb)	Sn-W	quartz vein, greisen	88.1±1.9 Ma (cassiterite U-Pb) 67.7±0.5 Ma (Re-Os molybdenite)	Mao et al., 2020
Xiaolonghe	73.3 ± 0.5 Ma (zircon U-Pb)	Sn	quartz vein greisen	71.6±2.4- 71.9±2.3Ma (cassiterite U-Pb) 73.9±2.0 Ma (cassiterite U-Pb)	Chen et al., 2014, 2015
Pilok	72 Ma (Ar-Ar biotite)	Sn-W	pegmatite	72-76 Ma (Ar-Ar mica)	Charusiri, 1989
Hermyingyi (Dawei)	70.0±0.4 Ma 61.4±0.6 Ma (zircon U-Pb)	Sn-W-Mo	quartz vein	68.4±2.5 Ma (Re-Os molybdenite)	Jiang et al. 2017, 2019; Li et al. 2018a
Bawapin (Dawei)		Sn-W	greisen vein tin-bearing altered granite	60.7±2.5 Ma (cassiterite U-Pb) 62.5±1.0 Ma (cassiterite U-Pb)	Li et al., 2018b
Wagone (Dawei)	61.4±0.6 Ma (zircon U-Pb)	Sn	tin-bearing altered granite	60.7±3.5 Ma (zircon U-Pb)	Li et al. 2018a
		W-Mo	Quartz vein	64.5±3.7 Ma (Re-Os molybdenite)	current study
Kalonta (Dawei)				64.6±3.9 Ma (cassiterite U-Pb)	Li et al., 2018b
Piyadana (Padatgyaung)		Sn-W-Mo	Greisen	68.5±2.7 Ma (Re-Os molybdenite)	current study
Shwechaung (Padatgyaung)		Mo	Quartz vein	64.23±0.5 Ma 61.57±0.7 Ma 58.63±0.7 Ma (Re-Os molybdenite)	current study

Tagung Taung (Padatgyaung)		W-Mo (-Sn)	Quartz vein	60.53±1.2 Ma (Re-Os molybdenite)	current study
Lailishan	52.7 ± 0.3 – 53.0 ± 0.4 Ma (zircon U-Pb)	Sn	Quartz vein Greisen	47.4±2.0 Ma (cassiterite U-Pb) 52.0±2.7 Ma (cassiterite U-Pb)	Chen et al., 2014, 2015
Yadanabon	50.3 ± 0.6 Ma (zircon U-Pb)	Sn-W			Gardiner et al., 2016
Mawchi	42.72 ± 0.94 Ma (zircon U-Pb)	Sn-W	Quartz vein	42.4 ± 1.2 Ma (molybdenite Re- Os)	Aung Zaw Myint et al., 2017, 2018
