

# Specialty (Rare) Metals in British Columbia, Canada

by George J. Simandl, Emrys A. Prussin, and Nicholas Brown

British Columbia Geological Survey, Ministry of Energy and Mines, Geofile 2011-10

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## Background Information

The term "rare metal" (RM) is not strictly defined. It refers to uncommon, nonferrous metals derived from geographically restricted areas. "Specialty metal" is used interchangeably with "rare metal", and the two terms are considered synonymous. Examples of rare metals include: tantalum (Ta), niobium (Nb), zirconium (Zr), hafnium (Hf), lithium (Li), beryllium (Be), gallium (Ga), germanium (Ge), and rare earth elements (REE). According to the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC, Recommendation IR-3.6.2, March 2004), the term "rare earth element (REE)" encompasses yttrium (Y), scandium (Sc) and the lanthanide series: lanthanum (La), cerium (Ce), praseodymium (Pr), neodymium (Nd), promethium (Pm), samarium (Sm), europium (Eu), gadolinium (Gd), terbium (Tb), dysprosium (Dy), holmium (Ho), erbium (Er), thulium (Tm), ytterbium (Yb) and lutetium (Lu). REE are further subdivided into the light rare (LREE) and the heavy rare (HREE) categories. LREEs include Y, Sc, La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Eu and Gd and HREE include Tb, Dy, Ho, Er, Tm, Yb and Lu. Promethium (Pm) does not occur in nature and therefore is not covered by our study. Germanium (Ge), gallium (Ga) and vanadium (V) have also been classified as RMs, but they are excluded from this study because they are not covered under the mandate of the *Specialty Metals* component of the TGI-4 program (Simandl, 2010b).

On a global scale, RM mining is of minor importance relative to Cu, Ni, or Fe mining in terms of value and tonnage. However, the external trade balance of industrialized countries depends on RM availability. High technology industries cannot operate effectively without a secure supply of RMs at competitive prices. Although other materials can be substituted for several RMs, they are either more expensive or less effective. A number of countries, including the United States, consider several RMs essential for national security. Many RMs are critical for development of "green" technologies and for the reduction of global greenhouse gas emissions (eg. high power magnets for hybrid car drives, Li for energy storage). Several RMs are highlighted in the 2010 "Review of Critical Raw Materials for Europe" spearheaded by the European Commission. Table 1 describes the prices, uses and market information for selected RMs.

Table 1: Background information regarding the size of the market, uses and prices of selected rare metals (USGS, 2010; Industrial Minerals - September World Annual 2010; Industry contacts).

Rare Metal	Annual Production Estimate (1000's of tonnes unless noted otherwise)	Representative Price (US\$ unless noted otherwise)	Main Producing Countries	Main Uses
Nb	62	Ferromolybdenum (65% Nb): \$39/kg	Brazil (9%) Canada (7%)	Steel industry (76%, ferromolybdenum); Aerospace/military applications (24% Super alloys)
Ta	1.16	Tantalum concentrate: \$110/lb Ta <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> : \$220 - 230/kg	Historically Australia and Canada; recently Brazil, Rwanda, and DR Congo	Ta capacitors (60% of total use) are essential for automotive electronics, personal computers, and portable telephones etc.
Zr	Zr (metal): 1.3 million tonnes Zircon (industrial mineral): 1.1 - 1.5 million tonnes	Zircon conc: FOB Australia \$830-\$900/tonne Fused ZrO <sub>2</sub> monocrystal, CIF European port: \$4400 - 5200/tonne	Australia, South Africa, China, Ukraine, Indonesia and Brazil	Zircon: ceramics, foundry, opacifier, and refractory products Zr metal: noncorrosive applications in nuclear industry, oxygen sensors, combustion control, flue gas monitoring, condenser ceramics; cubic zirconia
Be	0.20 - 0.25	Beryllium-copper master alloy: \$120 lb	Contained Be: USA (176 tonnes), China (20 tonnes), Mozambique (1 tonne). Also: Kazakhstan and Russia (tonnages not available)	Computer and telecommunications (> 50%), also aerospace / defence, aircrafts, automotive electronics, medical and industrial x-ray equipment
REE	124 (Rare Earth Element Oxides)	Bastnaesite concentrate: 70% leached, CIF Europe \$2,255/lb, REOs (FOB China, bulk, 99%) in 5 kg: Ce: 22-\$8; Eu: 575-\$85; La: 20-23; Nd: 48-49; Pr: 48-49	China (99% of total production)	Catalytic converters, permanent magnets, rechargeable batteries for electric and hybrid vehicles, glass additives, glass-polishing compounds; catalysts in oil refining, armaments, base-metal alloys, lighter flints, pyrophoric alloys, electronic thermometers, fibre optics, lasers, oxygen sensors, superconductors, x-ray intensifying screens
Li	18	Li carbonate (USA), large contracts \$2.3 - 2.4/lb. Spodumene concentrate: > 7.25% Li <sub>2</sub> O, (FOB West Virginia): \$700-770/tonne	Australia and Canada (pegmatites) Chile, Argentina, Australia, China, Portugal and Zimbabwe (lithium brines)	Ceramics and glass (31%); batteries (22%); lubricants (10%); continuous casting; 4% aluminum production (3%)
Cs	Not available	The main Cs mineral is produced in Canada. This is transformed into Cs metal and sent to oil and gas drilling companies	Canada	Formate brines (high-density, low-viscosity drilling fluids), Atomic resonance frequency standards in atomic clocks, GPS satellites, internet, cell phone transmissions and aircraft guidance systems

The general public is fascinated by RMs and in particular REEs and by the fact that China controls the market (Simandl, 2010a). If we take REEs as an example, junior exploration companies are currently maintaining over 400 active projects worldwide. Of these, 237 are grassroots (no drilling), 135 have limited drilling, 42 are in the advanced exploration stage, 12 are in the pre-feasibility stage, 9 are at the feasibility stage and two operations are under construction (Interni, 2011). Clearly, the best will reach the production stage and remain economically viable over an extended period of time. REE availability and price trends may be affected when some of the advanced projects reach production. High potential exists for substantial tonnage of REE as a by-product of uranium and/or phosphate fertilizer production (Simandl et al., 2011a, b, c). REE resources on the seafloor have recently received renewed attention (Kato et al., 2011). REE export restrictions imposed by China may be eliminated if it decides to protect its share of the market. Brazil is the main producer of Nb and Chile, Australia, China, Zimbabwe and Brazil are the main sources of Li and Li-compounds. Significant proportions of Ta-bearing concentrates originating from unstable regions of Africa are considered 'conflict minerals' and this may contribute to the reopening of Ta mines or development of presently uneconomic Canadian deposits.

## British Columbia's deposits

The accompanying map shows the location and geological setting of known RM occurrences in British Columbia. It represents a good starting point for exploration work given that RM deposits commonly occur in clusters. The RM-bearing deposits in British Columbia can be loosely grouped into the following seven main geological categories based on the association between mineralization and host-rock or key lithological units:

- 1) Carbonatite/Syenite
- 2) Peralkaline Intrusion-Related
- 3) Skarn
- 4) Pegmatite/Granite
- 5) Placer/Paleoplacer
- 6) Sedimentary Phosphate
- 7) Other

These deposit classes are described below, and some background information is provided.

## Carbonatite/Syenite

Carbonatites are carbonate-rich, intrusive or extensive igneous rocks consisting of more than 50 percent carbonate minerals (Wolley and Kenpe, 1989). However, some of these rocks may be carbonthoritic in origin. Carbonatites form plugs, dikes, sills and breccia zones and are associated with fertilization (Na, K, Fe alteration) and syenites. Carbonatites are known to contain economic concentrations of Nb (=Ta), LREEs and in specific cases also with Fe, Sr, Mo, Cu, U, Th, Ca and Mg carbonates, fluorite, barite, vermiculite, apatite (phosphate) and others (Mariano, 1989a,b; Richardson and Birkett, 1996a,b; Birkett and Simandl, 1999). Carbonatites are commonly associated with syenite intrusions and both may be mineralized. The carbonatite-associated RM deposits in British Columbia that have received the most attention are the Aley (Kressal et al., 2010; McLeach et al., 2010), Upper Fir (Gorham, 2011), and Wicheeda Lake (Graef et al., 2009), deposits. Both the Aley and Upper Fir carbonatites are potential sources of Nb and Ta; however, the two deposits differ in grade, mineralogy, and shape. The Wicheeda Lake deposit has seen less development than the other two, but can be described as a relatively high grade REE system (Graef et al., 2009). A similar type of mineralization was encountered in shorter drill intersections on the neighbouring Carbo property. Occurrences associated with nepheline syenite gneiss complexes are also included in this category.

## Peralkaline Intrusion-Related

Alkaline intrusions are characterized by their content of feldspathoids, alkali amphiboles and pyroxenes (Sørensen, 1986). Peralkaline intrusions are described as agapaitic if their agapaitic index ((Na + K) / Al) is greater than unity (Salvi and Williams - Jones, 2004). They are characterized by the presence of aegirine, arfvedsonite, enigmatite, etc. Like carbonatites, peralkaline intrusions, especially those of agapaitic type, are known to contain large quantities of RMs, though the ore mineralogy and chemistry differ significantly from carbonatites. Peralkaline intrusion-associated deposits chiefly contain Zr, Nb, Ta, Y, HREE, Th, and Be (Richardson and Birkett, 1996c). These elements are included in Zr-Ti minerals such as eudyalite. The REE mineralization within these deposits is characterized by relatively flat chondrite-normalized patterns and may have negative U anomalies, as illustrated by examples from the Nechalacho project near Thor Lake, Northwest Territories (Williams-Jones, 2010) and the Strange Lake Complex on the border of Quebec and Labrador (Kerr, 2011). These deposits represent important sources of HREE and Y. Currently, HREE are

primarily sourced in China, where they are derived from ion adsorption clay deposits. Peralkaline intrusion-related deposits may diversify the global supply of HREE and reduce reliance on Chinese exports brought into production. Several large peralkaline intrusion-related RM deposits in Canada and elsewhere have reached advanced exploration stages; however, none of them is currently in production. Metallurgy of these is now better understood but remains challenging.

Ice River is a large peralkaline complex with the potential to host RM deposits. Most of this complex is located within Kootenay and Yoho National parks, where no development may take place.

## Pegmatite/Granite

Granitic pegmatites are major sources of Ta, Li, Rb, Cs, Be, Sn and a number of other industrial mineral commodities (Sinclair, 1996). In general, these pegmatites are derived from a granitic source to which they are geographically and temporally related. Chemical evolution through a Li-rich pegmatite grade is reflected by enrichment in volatiles, increased fractionation and increased complexity in the zoning of individual pegmatites. The complexity of pegmatite zoning also increases with distance from the granitic source (Treiman and Cerny, 1982; London, 2008). The idealized sequence reflecting the chemical evolution of a granite through primitive pegmatite into an evolved pegmatite is as follows:

*granite* → *barren (ceramic) pegmatite* → *Be pegmatite* → *Be, Nb, Ta pegmatite* → *Li, Be, Ta, Nb pegmatite* → *Li, Cs, Be, Ta, Nb pegmatite*.

World-class pegmatites containing economic concentrations of Ta and/or Li are rather uncommon, due in part to their large size.

For example, the Tanco pegmatite (Manitoba, Canada) is more than 2 km long, 820 metres wide and over 100 metres thick, and the Bikita pegmatite (Zimbabwe) is about 2 km long and up to 230 metres wide. No Ta- or Li-enriched pegmatites of comparable dimensions are known to occur in British Columbia. Smaller pegmatites containing potentially economic concentrations of Li + Be minerals in eastern Canada are currently in pre-feasibility stages. Information regarding pegmatite - /granite-related or known Be occurrences in British Columbia is compiled by Legun (2004, 2005). Most of the British Columbia Be occurrences correspond to small aquamarine showings; however, Hellroaring Creek prospect was explored with Be production in mind.

## Skarn

From the point of view of an economic geologist, skarns are contact metamorphic or metamorphic zones formed by mass and chemical transfer between igneous rocks and adjacent lithologies. Typical skarns consist of pyroxene, garnet, idocrase, wollastonite, actinolite, magnetite, hematite and epidote. The same mineral assemblages may also form from the interaction of silica-rich and carbonate-rich lithologies during metamorphism. Skarn deposits are important sources of gold, base metals, tungsten and a variety of industrial minerals including garnet and wollastonite. Information regarding skarn deposits in British Columbia is summarized by Ray and Webster (1997). Several of the skarn deposits are described as containing notable concentrations of REE or beryllium. Beryllium-bearing skarns typically have a tungsten- or tin-affinity although some of them are classified as Zn-Pb or Mo skarns by Ray and Webster (1997). Tungsten and tin skarn deposits are characterized by Ray (1995a, b). The Heff deposit was originally described as a skarn (Ray and Webster 1997) but later referred to as a possible ICGC deposit (Ray and Webster, 2000).

## Placer/Paleoplacer

Placers and paleoplacers are significant global sources of precious metals (especially gold, platinum and palladium), zircon, titanium oxides, Ta, monazite (REE-bearing) and gemstones. There are nearly 440 known placer/paleoplacers in British Columbia. They are classified either as 'marine' or 'surficial' places, and at least 11 of them contain RMs. Marine and surficial placers are described by Leveson (1995a, b). Marine placer deposits are located along the west coast of British Columbia and are reported to contain a variety of minerals including gold, ilmenite, rutile, cassiterite, PGES, zircon, magnetite, gemstones, garnet, monazite and various industrial minerals (Leveson, 1995a). It is not clear if there has been any attempt to determine concentrations of monazite or xenotime in these deposits.

RM-bearing surficial placers are found in southeastern British Columbia. They are located near areas of alkaline igneous activity and are characterized by a Nb, U, Th, ± REE, ± Ta, ± Zr assemblage. Some of these placers were originally staked for uranium during the post-World War II uranium rush. More RM-bearing placers will be discovered in British Columbia. Most heavy minerals associated with gold are discarded and are not routinely analysed for REE, Nb or Ta, and some of them may contain non-negligible concentrations of RM-bearing minerals.

## Sedimentary Phosphate

World-wide recovery of REE from phosphate rocks was considered or attempted by several companies in the 1960's and 70's. In these years, market conditions precluded long-term commercial success. However, the current market conditions may make recovery of REE from phosphate rock commercially viable (Simandl et al., 2011c). The metallurgical procedures for REE recovery during phosphate fertilizer manufacturing are described by Hibashi (1985). Commercial REE production from phosphate rock (Hibashi, *ibid.*), most likely apatite concentrate, took place between 1965 and 1972 in Finland by Kemira Oy. Other papers considering extraction of REE, during phosphate fertilizer manufacturing include Ionescu et al. (1980), Loumanea et al. (1980), Kijkowska (1980) and Fidells (1980).

In British Columbia, some upwelling-type phosphate deposits (Simandl et al., 2011a, b) are known to contain significant quantities of REEs (Pell, 1914; Simandl et al., 2011d). The Fernie Formation in southern BC and the Whistler Member of the Sulphur Mountain Formation in northeastern BC are two of the more promising geological units in terms of REE concentrations in British Columbia. A summary of information concerning sedimentary phosphate deposits in British Columbia and their REE content is given by Butenschuk (1996) as well as by Simandl et al. (2011a, b, c).

## Other Deposits

Several deposits, for example Rexspar, which was previously investigated as a potential source of fluorospar and uranium and is associated with metacalcines, do not fit particularly well in any of the above deposit types (Petro, 1978). Other occurrences were assigned to more than one deposit type. An example is the Heff occurrence which has been described both as an Iron Oxide Copper Gold (IOCG) deposit (Ray and Webster, 2000) and as a skarn (Ray and Webster, 1997). To reduce the risk of misclassifying the above deposits, we grouped them into an "other" category.

There are several other deposits with the IOCG affinity in British Columbia, although they appear to have relatively low REE content. This does not mean that IOCG deposits are not important as potential REE sources. Olympic Dam deposit (Australia) is probably the most important IOCG deposit. In addition to Cu, U, Fe, Au, and Ag, it also contains substantial concentrations of REEs that are not currently recovered, but may be in the future.

## Applied Mineralogy and Metallurgical Considerations

Metallurgy (including related technical, environmental and economic aspects) is often more important than geological and geochemical constraints on the development of RM deposits. It should not be overlooked during the early assessment of all RM projects.

All the universal (including textural and grain-size) principles of applied mineralogy are valid when assessing REE deposits. Generally, REE-bearing carbonates and fluoro-carbonates are easy to deal with using conventional chemical methods. Examples of operations that have relied historically, or still rely, on fluoro-carbonates (mainly bastnaesite ((Ce, La)(CO<sub>3</sub>)F)) are the Mountain Pass (USA) and Bayan Obo (China) mines. Deposits containing REE phosphates (mainly monazite ((La,Ce,Nd)PO<sub>4</sub>)) typically contain higher thorium concentrations. From that point of view they are considered slightly more difficult to deal with (especially in developed countries). Good examples of past producers are the Steenokmarz monazite-apatite-quartz veins (South Africa) and monazite placer deposits in Brazil and Australia (Castor, 1994). REE-bearing silicates (exemplar: aluminite ((Ca,Ce,U)Al<sub>2</sub>(Fe<sup>3+</sup> Fe<sup>2+</sup>)(SO<sub>4</sub>,SiO<sub>4</sub>,O<sub>2</sub>OH)) and a number of exotic minerals associated with peralkaline intrusion –hosted deposits such as eudyalite ((Na,Ca,Ce)Fe<sup>3+</sup>(Mn<sup>2+</sup>)ZrSi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>(OH, Cl)) represent the highest degree of metallurgical difficulty (at competitive cost). There is currently no commercial production of REE from silicates. However, recent press releases of Canadian and Australian companies suggest that over the last few years significant progress has been achieved. Recovery of REE as a by-product of phosphate fertilizer does add some complexity to existing fertilizer plant circuits; however, it should not interfere with production. Similarly, HREE recovery from uranium ores is a relatively well established procedure previously used in Canada.

Principal primary ore minerals are pyrochlore ((Ca,Nb,Ta,Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>(OH,F)), ferrocolumbite (Fe<sup>3+</sup> Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>) and fersmite ((Ca,Ce,Nb,Ta,Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>(OH,F)). In Russia, Nb is also recovered from loparite ((Ce,Nb,Ca,Ti)(Nb,La)<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>). The main, economically important, tantalum ore minerals are tantalite ((Fe,Mn)(Nb,Ta)<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>: 42-84 % Ta<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>), columbitantantalite ((Fe,Mn)(Nb,Ta)<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>: 20-50% Ta<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>), columbite ((Fe,Mn)(Nb,Ta)<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>: 1-40 % Ta<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>), wodginite ((Mn,Sr)(Ta,Ti,Fe,Cu)(Ta,Nb)<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>), microcline (Ta-rich mineral of the pyrochlore group) and strivite (Simandl, 2002). Columbite-tantalite minerals are the most widespread Ta-Nb minerals; in some occurrences they are replaced by fersmite or microcline. Information regarding traditional Ta/Nb resources and ore-dressing implications is summarized by Simandl (2002).

## Summary

More than 100 RM occurrences are reported in British Columbia. This compilation may serve as a starting point for

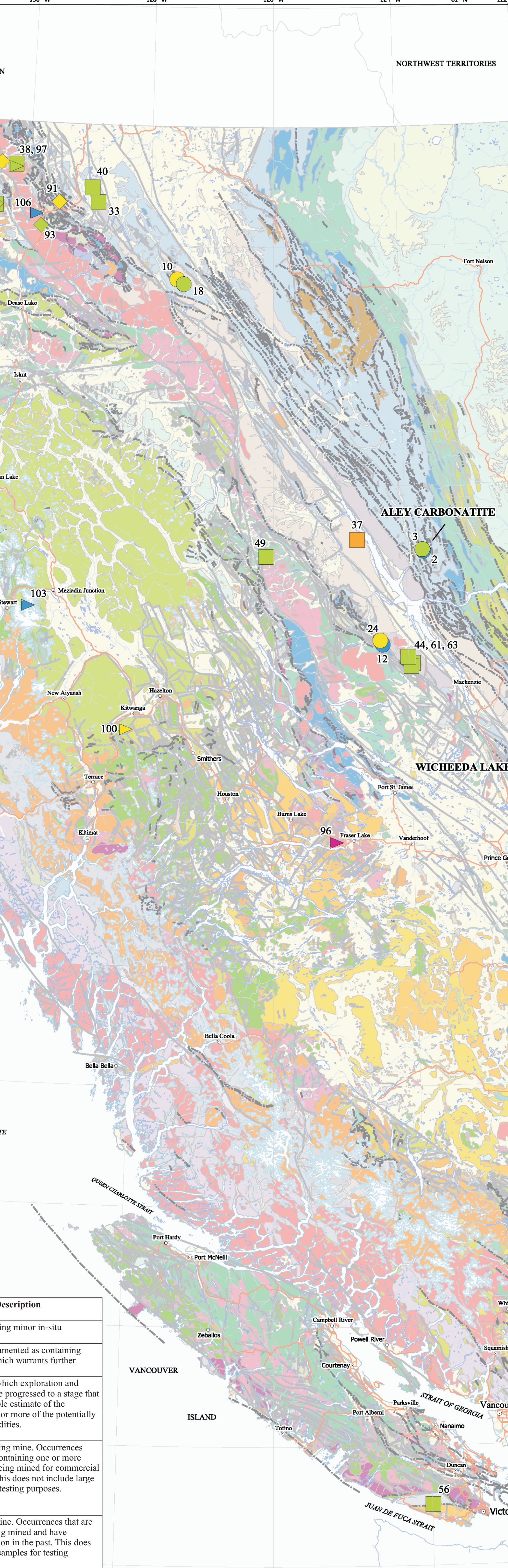
those considering RM exploration programs in British Columbia. There is uncertainty in the classification of some occurrences due to the scarcity of available information or the unusual nature of particular occurrences. The scientific significance of many of these occurrences is poorly known because the size, shape, depth, grade, composition and significance of many of these is poorly known because the size, shape, depth, grade, composition and orientation are not well defined. Future research could address these uncertainties for selected deposits in order to develop a more comprehensive understanding of RM occurrences in British Columbia. Based on currently available information, carbonatite/syenite-related deposits are the most promising for the recovery of RMs, especially Nb and REE, and should be given priority.

## Acknowledgements

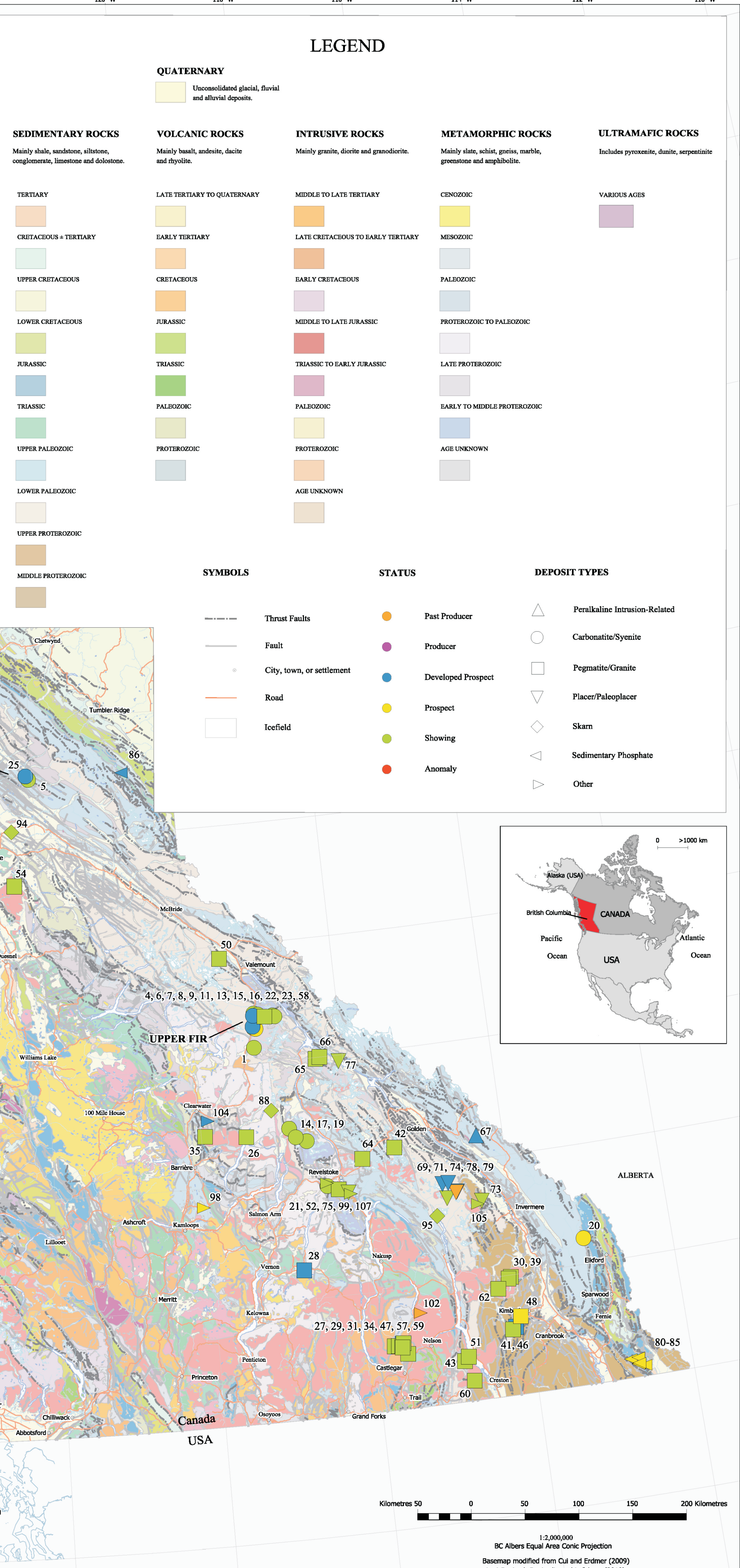
Kirk Hancock, Sarah Meredith-Jones, David Lefebvre, and JoAnne Nelson of the British Columbia Geological Survey in Victoria improved an earlier version of this document. The original electronic version of the geological base map used for this compilation was provided by Pat Desjardins and was created by Yao Cui and Philip Erdner (2009).

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Abbreviation	Status	Description
SHOW	Showing	Occurrences hosting minor in-situ mineralization.
PROS	Prospect	Occurrences documented as containing mineralization which warrants further exploration.
DEPR	Developed Prospect	Occurrences on which exploration and development have progressed to a stage that allows a reasonable estimate of the amount(s) of one or more of the potentially mineable commodities.
PROD	Producer	Currently producing mine. Occurrences from which one or more commodities is being mined for commercial gain or benefit. This does not include large bulk samples for testing purposes.
PAPR	Past Producer	Past producing mine. Occurrences that are not currently being mined and have recorded production in the past. This does not include bulk samples for testing purposes.



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