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A new chemical separation procedure for the determination of rare earth elements and yttrium abundances in carbonates by **ICP-MS** By Jean-Alix Barrat^{1,2}*, Germain Bayon³, Xudong Wang^{3,4}, Samuel Le Goff^{1,5}, Marie-Laure Rouget^{1,6}, Bleuenn Gueguen^{1,6}, Douraied Ben Salem⁷ 1 Univ Brest, CNRS, UMR 6538 (Laboratoire Géosciences Océan), Institut Universitaire Européen de la Mer (IUEM), Place Nicolas Copernic, 29280 Plouzané, France. 2 Univ Brest, CNRS, UMR 6539 (Laboratoire des Sciences de l'Environnement Marin), LIA BeBEST, Institut Universitaire Européen de la Mer (IUEM), Place Nicolas Copernic, 29280 Plouzané, France 3 IFREMER, Marine Geosciences Unit, F-29280 Plouzané, France 4 Shanghai Engineering Research Center of Hadal Science and Technology, College of Marine Sciences, Shanghai Ocean University, Shanghai 201306, China. 5 ENS Lyon, CNRS, UMR 5276, LGLTPE, 46 Allée Italie, F-69342 Lyon, France 6 CNRS, Univ Brest, UMS 3113, F-29280 Plouzané, France. 7 LaTIM (INSERM UMR 1101) Université de Bretagne Occidentale. 22, avenue C. Desmoulins, 29238, Brest Cedex 3, France. *corresponding author (E-Mail : barrat@univ-brest.fr).

34 Abstract

The determination of rare earth elements (REEs) and Y in carbonates can be complicated by 35 low REE abundances and the presence of significant amounts of Ba resulting in problematic 36 interferences when analyzed by ICP-MS. We describe here a novel ion-exchange method 37 using the DGA resin (TODGA), combined with addition of a Tm spike, which allows the 38 separation of the REEs+Y as a whole prior to analysis using an Element XR ICP-MS. This 39 method was validated with results obtained on three different reference carbonate materials 40 (CAL-S, JLs-1 and BEAN, an in-house standard), yielding reproducibility levels better than 41 3% (RSD) in most cases. This new separation scheme is particularly well suited for carbonate 42 43 samples having very low REE contents, but could be equally applied to various rock types 44 and organic-rich sample matrices whenever quantitative Ba removal is required.

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46 Key words: Rare Earth Elements, DGA resin, carbonate, ICP-MS, CAL-S, JLs-1

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48 1. Introduction

49

The lanthanides and other rare earth elements (REEs) are amongst the most studied 50 chemical elements in geochemistry, being of prime importance for addressing a wide range of 51 issues in earth and planetary sciences, such as e.g. the condensation of the first solids in the 52 Solar System, the formation of magmas, the reconstruction of present and past ocean 53 circulation patterns [e.g., 1]. The usefulness of REE as unique tracers of geochemical 54 55 processes comes first from their overall very consistent behavior in nature, which enables the modelling of their abundance in geochemical reservoirs. Most REEs are trivalent and, as a 56 consequence, cannot be easily fractionated from each other during petrogenetic processes. 57 However, two REEs, Ce and Eu, can also exist in different valence states (Ce⁴⁺ and Eu²⁺, 58

respectively), which implies that they can be decoupled from the other REEs, resulting in quantifiable abundance anomalies, which, in turn, can be used to provide constraints on rock formation processes and other redox-sensitive bio-geochemical reactions. Another important field of application of REE geochemistry is based on the use of particular radioactive and radiogenic isotopes for geochronological purposes (i.e. the La/Ce, Sm/Nd, and Lu/Hf isotope systematics).

65 Over the recent years, an increasing interest has been placed in the application of REEs to both biogenic and chemical carbonates, as chemical tracers of the composition of 66 seawater and other natural waters. For instance, the abundances of REEs in various carbonate 67 68 material (e.g. stromatolites, shells, corals, stalagmites, methane-derived carbonates, hydrothermal carbonates) can provide unique constraints on the chemistry of oceans [e.g., 2-69 4], to characterize the fluids from which these mineral phases were precipitated [e.g., 5], to 70 reconstruct past climatic changes [e.g., 6], or to track pollution linked to medical or industrial 71 uses [7-9]. 72

73 Since the 1990s, ICP-MS has become the method of choice for determining trace element concentrations in rocks, minerals and waters. A multitude of protocols have been 74 described to date, and successfully applied to a wide range of materials [e.g., 10-17]. The very 75 76 high sensitivity of ICP-MS instruments makes it possible to determine very low trace element abundances in solution, with dilution factors (=solution weight/sample weight) up to several 77 tens of thousands. Compared to previous state-of-the-art techniques, such as isotope dilution-78 thermo-ionization mass spectrometry (ID-TIMS) or instrumental neutron activation analyses 79 (INAA), the use of ICP-MS allows high sample throughput at comparatively low analytical 80 81 costs. The dissolution of biogenic and chemical carbonate samples is generally relatively straightforward, so that high quality trace element data can be obtained in the vast majority of 82 case studies [e.g., 2, 4, 6, 7 among many others]. One potential difficulty in analyzing 83

carbonates is that they are typically characterized by much lower REE abundances compared 84 to other commonly studied rocks, such as basalts, granites and sediments. Using ICP-MS 85 techniques, this difficulty can be generally successfully overcome by simply analyzing less 86 diluted solutions. Another important issue when measuring REE concentrations in carbonates 87 is that they can contain substantial amounts of Ba. During the course of ICP-MS analysis, a 88 fraction of Ba atoms present in the plasma forms oxides, which can generate isobaric 89 interferences with Eu isotopes (e.g. ¹³⁵Ba¹⁶O⁺ and ¹³⁴BaOH⁺ with ¹⁵¹Eu, ¹³⁷Ba¹⁶O and 90 ¹³⁶BaOH⁺with ¹⁵³Eu [e.g., 14, 18-19]). Uncorrected isobaric interferences cannot be neglected 91 because they typically result in the occurrence of non-natural positive Eu anomalies in studied 92 samples. In most cases, the presence of isobaric interferences on Eu can be successfully 93 corrected by monitoring the oxide formation rate during an analytical ICP-MS session, using 94 a mono-elemental solution of Ba. Many rocks, such as basalts, granites, terrigenous sediments 95 96 or peridotites commonly display Ba/Eu ratios < 1000. The contribution of Ba oxides to the 151 or 153 Eu masses is not dominant here, and the correction is generally very satisfactory 97 (Fig. 1). However, many marine or hydrothermal carbonates have much higher Ba/Eu ratios, 98 frequently >10000. For these samples, the interference contribution to measured 151 Eu and 99 ¹⁵³Eu signals can become dominant. The corrections that can be made using estimates of 100 oxide formation rates commonly yield Eu abundances with poor accuracy and/or associated 101 102 with a relatively high uncertainty. The use of collision/reaction cells and/or of ICP-MS operated in high-resolution modes can provide efficient means for eliminating the formation 103 of Ba oxides and allowing quantitative separation of Eu+ and BaO+ peaks, respectively. 104 105 However, these options significantly reduce the signal intensities, and hence are generally not adapted to low-level samples such as carbonates. One alternative to resolve the specific 106 107 problem raised by the potential occurrence of isobaric interferences upon carbonate analysis is to quantitatively separate REEs from Ba prior to ICP-MS measurements. Another advantage 108

of separating REEs is that it allows one to analyse less diluted solutions during ICP-MSmeasurements, hence improving the quality of data acquisition.

Several ion-exchange and diverse Fe-Mg hydroxide coprecipitation techniques have 111 112 been developed for application to samples having low REE abundances [e.g., 10, 12, 20-28]. Over the past twenty-five years, we have used one of these previously developed 113 chromatographic methods, based on the use cation-exchange resins (e.g. 50WX12 or 50WX8, 114 115 as first described by Strelow [29]), combined with the addition of a Tm spike in order to overcome the potential problem of any sample loss during handling and throughout the ion 116 117 chromatography process [30]. It was initially designed for silicate rocks, and over time has 118 proven particularly useful for analysing various minerals and rocks with very low REE abundances [e.g., 31-33]. The utility of this technique for measuring REE abundances in 119 carbonates has been already demonstrated [9, 34]. However, this procedure also had some 120 drawbacks, which required further improvements. First, the columns are small (1.6 ml resin), 121 which restricts their use to small sample size only (<30 mg), hence being problematic when 122 123 processing REE-depleted materials such as biogenic carbonates, for which larger amounts of material would be ideally required. Second, the procedure based on cation-exchange 124 chromatography did not yield quantitative Ba removal, resulting in eluted solutions that still 125 126 contain non-negligible amounts of this element. Finally, this procedure was also accompanied with poor recovery of Y, hence leading to non-reproducible determination of Y abundances. 127

Novel ion exchange resins have been developed and commercialized in recent years, including the DGA, normal resin. It is an extraction chromatographic resin based on N,N,N',N'-tetra-n-octyldiglycolamide extractant, commonly referred to as either DN Resin or TODGA in the literature. It has been previously used for the preconcentration of actinides and lanthanides from various samples for radioactive waste management [35, 36]. A complete set of partition coefficients has been published for this resin [37], and its capability for the preconcentration of REEs for difficult geological samples has already been demonstrated [38, 39]. In this study, we used the remarkable properties of this resin to separate the REEs from carbonates. We describe here a new procedure aimed at quantitatively separating REE from other elements in carbonate samples, and illustrate its utility using two international (JLs-1and CAL-S) and one in-house standard from hereafter referred to as BEAN for **Brest carbonate** and available on request.

140

141 **2. Experimental techniques**

142 Sample preparation and REE separation

143 All sample preparations were conducted in a Class 1000 (ISO 6) clean laboratory. Deionized 144 water purified with a Milli-Q system (Millipore®) at 18.2 M Ω (from hereafter referred to as 145 ultrapure water) was used for material cleaning and acid dilutions. Nitric and hydrochloric 146 acids were purified using sub-boiling systems.

147 Three carbonate reference materials displaying low REE abundances were selected for148 this study:

-JLs-1, a marine limestone prepared by the Geological Survey of Japan, which is one of the best characterized carbonate standard for REEs and Y abundances; this carbonate is depleted in REEs, but enriched in Ba, consequently displaying a Ba ($\mu g/g$)/Eu ($\mu g/g$) ratio ~ 98000;

-CAL-S, an Oxfordian limestone, locally known as "craie de Sorcy" (which is extensively
exploited for its high purity), prepared and distributed twenty years ago by the Centre de
Recherches Pétrographiques et Géochimiques (CRPG), Nancy; this carbonate has a low
Ba/Eu ratio (~80);

-BEAN (Brest carbonate), our in-house carbonate standard, is a pure calcium carbonate
powder with a Ba/Eu ratio ~ 1300, sold by Acros Organics® (catalog number 42351), and
available upon request to the first author.

159 Samples were precisely weighted and spiked with a solution of pure Tm. The spike solution was prepared with a Tm mono-elementary solution (custom grade, CGTM1-1, 160 Inorganic Ventures Inc. (B). About 40 ng of Tm was added for 100-200 mg of sample. 161 162 Samples were dissolved in a 30 ml screw-top Teflon vial. The spiked sample was first covered with a few ml of ultrapure water to prevent sample loss during effervescence, and 163 drops of nitric acid were carefully added until the effervescence of the solution stops. About 164 165 0.5 ml of 14 N HNO₃ was then added, and the vial was closed and let on a hot plate at 110°C during one hour to ensure the full dissolution of the sample. The vial was then opened, and 166 after evaporation to dryness, the residue was taken up with 1.5 ml of 14 N HNO₃. 167

Chromatographic columns (Triskem®, 2 ml, AC-142-TK) were loaded with 1 ml of 168 169 DGA resin. A frit washer was placed on top of the resin bed to avoid any resin disturbance 170 following subsequent addition of the eluant. As mentioned above, the properties of the DGA resin allow for a selective separation of REEs and Y as a group of coherent chemical elements 171 (Fig. 2). To large extent, Ca, Mg and other alkaline earth metals are not adsorbed by the resin 172 173 under concentrated (14 N) nitric conditions. Fe and many other transition metals are no more retained by the DGA resin with 2 N HNO3 contrary to REEs . Previous work also showed that 174 REEs are not retained by the resin under highly diluted HCl conditioning [34]. Based on the 175 above findings, we set up a novel procedure that involves an initial cleaning step with 50 ml 176 of 0.05 N HCl, followed by conditioning of the resin with 5 ml of 14 N HNO₃. The sample 177 178 solutions (corresponding to 100-200 mg of sample in 1.5 ml 14 N HNO₃) were then loaded onto the columns, prior to subsequent addition of 7 ml 14 N HNO₃, and 5 ml 2 N HNO₃, in 179 order to elute all matrix elements and Ba (Fig. 2). The final step corresponds to the elution of 180

181 REEs and Y using 25 ml 0.05 N HCl followed by evaporation on hotplate. After evaporation,
182 note that the residues were the size of a pinhead, illustrating the efficiency of the procedure
183 for separating Ca and other major matrix elements.

184 Columns were washed using 30 ml of 0.05 N HCl, followed by conditioning of the 185 resin with 5 ml of 14 N HNO₃, and were ready for next samples. While we did not evaluate 186 the resin lifetime in this study, we systematically replaced the resin beds every four samples 187 in order to prevent any effect related to resin aging, such as reduced binding efficiency.

For comparison, solutions of the three carbonate reference materials were prepared following the procedure described above. Aliquots containing the equivalent of 10 mg were placed in Teflon vials and evaporated to dryness. The residues were taken up in 10 ml of 0.4 N HNO₃ with traces of HF (corresponding to a dilution factor of 1000), and analysed with the other solutions during the same analytical sessions.

193

194 Mass spectrometry

The measurements were performed on a Thermo Scientific ELEMENT XRTM 195 spectrometer located at the "Pôle Spectrométrie Océan", Institut Universitaire Européen de la 196 Mer, Plouzané. Basic operating conditions, and selected masses are summarized in Table 1. 197 Data were acquired with a routine sequence using the software supplied by the manufacturer, 198 199 and processed as already reported in earlier studies The reader is referred to previous papers where our routine sequence, calibration and calculations of concentrations with the Tm spike 200 have been extensively described [e.g., 24-26, 30-33]. Briefly, Ba and REE oxides, and 201 hydroxide formation rates were determined by analysing solutions of ultrapure water, Ba+Ce, 202 Pr+Nd, and Sm+Eu+Gd+Tb at the beginning of the analytical session. During the course of 203 the study, these rates remained systematically < 0.1 % for BaO⁺/Ba⁺ and CeOH⁺/Ce⁺. 204

Measured sample data were corrected from the contribution of procedural blank, drift corrected, and interference corrected assuming constant rates of oxides and hydroxide formation during the session. Note that our results are given relative to our working values for the USGS basalt BHVO-2 (Table 2). In the event of future change to these BHVO-2 values, the data need only to be corrected by the ratio of the new and old values. Moreover, these working values can be used to evaluate possible inter-laboratory bias.

211

212 **3. Results and discussion**

The results for the three carbonate samples investigated in this study are given in 213 Table 2, while corresponding REE patterns normalized to Post Archaean Australian Shale 214 (PAAS, [38]) are shown in Figure 3. Concentrations obtained from samples with or without 215 separation are analytically indistinguishable, and in excellent agreement with literature values. 216 217 This confirms that the recovery of rare earths and yttrium with our procedure is complete. For the case of JLs-1, i.e. the studied carbonate having the lowest and the highest REE and Ba 218 abundances, respectively, the Eu and Gd concentrations obtained without initial ion-exchange 219 separation are higher than those obtained from the DGA purified solutions. Barium was very 220 well separated by the columns, and the solutions were nearly devoid of it with levels similar 221 to the procedural blanks (Table 2). Interferences of Ba oxides on Eu were practically absent 222 223 for the solutions obtained with the columns, contrary to the solutions without separation for which Ba oxides contributed more than 90 % of the measured signal for mass 151 used to 224 determine Eu abundances. The positive anomaly in Gd determined in the samples without 225 initial ion-exchange separation is the result of an insufficient correction of ¹⁴⁰Ce¹⁶OH⁺ and 226 ¹⁴¹Pr¹⁶O on the 157 mass signal used for quantifying Gd concentrations. This artifact is 227 probably amplified by the weak signal obtained with these solutions containing little Gd (20 228 229 pg/g), and by the uncertainties in the rates of formation of light REE oxides and hydroxides in plasma for solutions containing high total dissolved solids. These bad interference corrections
for Ba and Gd are accompanied by relative standard deviations (RSD) higher than 10 %. In
comparison, RSDs are generally less than 2 % for abundances, element ratios including REE
anomalies like Eu/Eu*, Ce/Ce* or La/La* for analyses made with the solutions obtained with
the columns, having much lower total dissolved contents.

The lack of consensual or certified data for carbonate standards with ultra-low REE concentrations does not allow us to illustrate the analytical accuracy of our procedure for such samples. However, the entire procedure requires only limited amounts of acids, and procedural blanks are very low (Table 2). During the course of the study, we have limited the mass of sample loaded on the columns to 200 mg, but since Ca is not retained on the resin, much larger quantities could be considered, in order to improve the accuracy of results obtained on samples displaying even lower REE concentrations.

For CAL-S and BEAN, both being characterized by relatively enriched REE 242 243 abundances and low Ba/Eu ratios, our novel procedure yields results that are similar in terms 244 of accuracy and precision to what can be achieved using existing analytical protocols. In particular, their low Ba/Eu ratios are such that the interferences produced can be easily 245 corrected. However, for the case of JLs-1 or any other REE-depleted carbonate material, such 246 247 as hydrothermal carbonates, corals or shells, our new method is particularly well suited, allowing one to obtain high quality data for the entire suite of REE, including for the 248 analytically-challenging Eu and Gd. 249

250

251 **4. Conclusions**

We report on a novel analytical protocol for rapid and efficient separation of REEs and Y from carbonate samples, which results in quantitative removal of Ba and other major

alkaline earth matrix elements. This procedure was validated using a suite of three carbonate 254 reference materials (CAL-S, JLs-1; BEAN) analysed by Element XR ICP-MS, providing 255 precise and accurate REE data even for depleted carbonate material characterized by high Ba 256 abundances, for which efficient Ba removal prior to analysis can prevent the formation of 257 isobaric interferences that would otherwise complicate the measurement of Eu. Overall, this 258 new protocol offers interesting perspectives for future geochemical investigations of 259 carbonates in earth sciences, but also in the field of environmental and biological sciences 260 (pollution). It can be easily adapted to the specific case of much smaller samples (≈ 1 mg). The 261 use of smaller columns containing less resin (0.1 ml of resin) is better suited to this type of 262 sample. It also allows the use of less acid, and reduces blanks. 263

Nothing prevents the use of this protocol for rocks and silicates, but also for organic matter, while taking care to load smaller quantities of samples on the columns.

266

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273 CRediT authorship contribution statement

Jean-Alix Barrat, Germain Bayon: Conceptualization, Supervision, Methodology,
Investigation, Validation, Writing – original draft. Xudong Wang, Samuel Le Goff, MarieLaure Rouget, Bleuenn Gueguen: Investigation, Validation. Douraied Ben Salem:
Conceptualization.

278

279 Declaration of competing interests

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

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Table 1. ICP-MS instrument operating conditions

RF power	1200 W
Sample uptake rate	100 µl / min
Coolant argon flow rates	16 l / min
Auxiliary argon flow rates	0.9 l/ min
Nebuliser argon flow rates	1.031 l/ min
Torch	Quartz
Nebuliser	PFA ST micro-flow
Spray chamber	Quartz cyclonic
Cones	Nickel
Low resolution mode (LRM)	¹³⁵ Ba, ¹³⁹ La, ¹⁴⁰ Ce, ¹⁴¹ Pr, ^{143,146} Nd, ^{147,149} Sm, ¹⁵¹ Eu, ¹⁵⁷ Gd, ¹⁵⁹ Tb, ¹⁶³ Dy, ¹⁶⁵ Ho, ¹⁶⁷ Er, ¹⁶⁹ Tm, ¹⁷⁴ Yb, ¹⁷⁵ Lu
Acquisition mode	Mass Accuracy
Number of scans	3*2
Ion lens settings	Acquisition to obtain maximum signal intensity
Wash time	100 s

	procedural blank (pg)	PAAS Pourmand et al.	BHVO-2 Barrat et al.	JLs-1								
				this study				Kawabe	Dulski	Bau	Ponnurangam	Kim
				without s	separation	with separation		et al.	[16]	et al.	et al.	et al.
		[38]	[40]	n=12	RSD (%)	n=39	RSD (%)	[41]		[21]	[42]	[28]
Y	<32	32200	27600	241	1.72	249	1.32	233	216	210	199	
Ba	<340		131000	449171	1.73							
La	<30	44750	15200	96.7	1.27	99.8	2.76	101	107	84.7	97.1	91
Ce	<33	87290	37500	170	1.72	185	1.54	174	187	168.7	175	148
Pr	<5	10100	5310	21.02	2.13	22.84	1.82	24.6	23.6	21.1	22	18
Nd	<12	36980	24500	88.0	1.74	92.5	1.44	94.2	90.2	87.6	83.7	81
Sm	<2.5	6908	6070	19.22	1.62	19.59	1.34	19.7	18.5	18.9	18.51	19
Eu	<1	1188	2070	11.63	10.57	4.59	1.47	3.7	4.6	4.5	4.54	3
Gd	<1.8	5958	6240	34.79	10.86	20.82	1.42	19.7	21.4	20.9	22.01	21
Tb	<0.5	894	940	2.83	2.55	3.14	1.34		3.1	3.1	3.11	3
Dy	<2.8	5272	5310	19.31	2.13	19.60	1.39	19.7	20	19.8	19.99	18
Но	<0.6	1078	1000	4.41	2.05	4.44	1.32	4.6	4.5	4.4	4.28	4
Er	<1.4	3094	2540	13.43	1.54	13.24	1.39	14.3	13.6	13.7	13.22	14
Tm	<1.8	468	340						2			2
Yb	<1.5	3028	2000	11.51	2.31	11.68	1.34	12.7	12.6	11.7	11.74	12
Lu	<0.3	438	270	1.88	3.00	1.80	1.32	2.05	2	1.9	1.75	2
La/La*		1	1.03	1.36	3.04	1.21	0.99	1.01	1.12	1.16	1.07	1.72
Ce/Ce*		1	1.03	1.10	1.86	1.04	1.44	0.86	0.96	1.05	0.96	1.17
Eu/Eu*		1	1.82	2.43	14.71	1.23	0.56	1.01	1.25	1.22	1.21	0.81
Y/Ho		29.9	27.6	54.6	1.95	56.1	0.46	50.65	48.00	47.72	46.49	

Table 2. Procedural blanks, BHVO-2, PAAS (adjusted to our values of BHVO-2), JLs-1, Cal-S, and BEAN abundances (in ng/g).

Table 2 (continue)

				BEAN this study						
	this study								Potts	Le Goff
	without separation		with separation		et al.	et al.	without separation		with separation	
	n=15	RSD (%)	n=41	RSD (%)	[43]	[9]	n=15	RSD (%)	n=41	RSD (%)
Y	1948	1.79	2177	3.58	1944	2065	5373	0.72	6078	1.69
Ba	1180	2.57			1382		88265	0.40		
La	745	1.68	806	1.33	787	793	2028	2.48	2269	2.01
Ce	286	3.88	313	2.72	333	302	786	1.56	805	1.79
Pr	82.6	1.88	89.2	1.70	90	87.1	282	1.42	292	1.76
Nd	342	1.77	363	1.70	357	359	1237	1.15	1273	1.68
Sm	60.2	1.59	63.7	1.68	64	62.4	256	0.84	262	1.65
Eu	14.8	1.84	15.85	1.33	16	15.49	67.6	2.05	66.7	1.74
Gd	89.9	3.26	92.3	1.41	93	91.6	378	0.86	380	2.08
Tb	13.4	1.45	13.90	1.23	14	13.72	55.1	0.94	54.9	1.66
Dy	97.2	1.34	100	1.29	100	98.3	360	0.62	361	1.51
Но	25.8	1.39	26.33	1.12	26	26.02	84.9	0.85	84.6	1.60
Er	80.7	1.58	82.0	1.11	81	81	241	0.69	237	1.58
Tm										
Yb	65.2	1.44	67.1	1.23	68	66.3	173	0.71	173	1.71
Lu	10.2	2.10	10.31	1.22	11	10.16	25.43	0.80	24.85	1.66
La/La*	2.60	1.86	2.52	0.80	2.32	2.60	2.33	1.61	2.49	0.64
Ce/Ce*	0.45	2.07	0.45	1.23	0.46	0.45	0.39	1.05	0.38	0.37
Eu/Eu*	1.09	1.61	1.12	0.50	1.12	1.11	1.17	1.78	1.14	0.52
Y/Ho	75.5	1.28	82.7	3.34	74.8	79.4	63.3	0.61	71.8	0.86

The La, Ce and Eu anomalies are calculated using the X/X* ratios, where X* is the extrapolated X concentration for a smooth PAAS-normalised REE pattern and X_{sn} is the concentration of element X normalised to PAAS: $La_{sn}^* = Pr_{sn}^3/Nd_{sn}^2$, $Ce_{sn}^* = Pr_{sn}^2/Nd_{sn}$, $Eu_{sn}^* = (Sm_{sn} \cdot Gd_{sn})^{1/2}$.

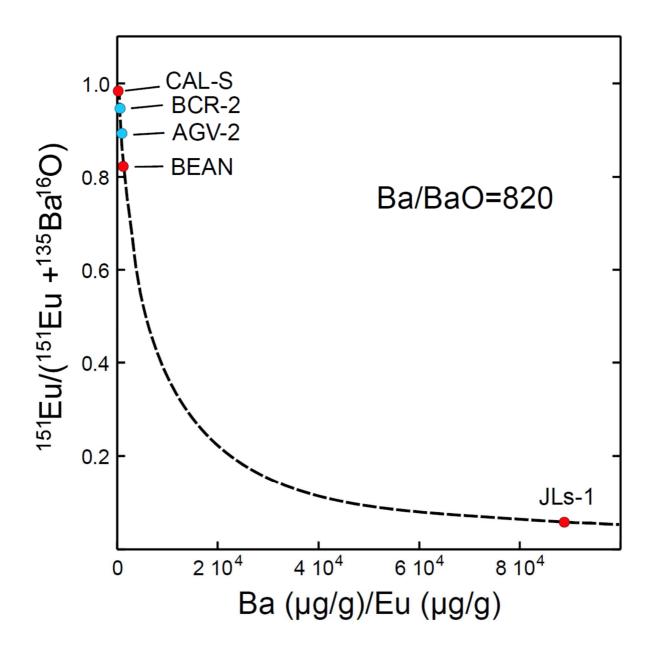


Figure 1. ¹⁵¹Eu/(¹⁵¹Eu+¹³⁵Ba¹⁶O) vs. Ba/Eu plot showing the contribution of BaO on the mass 151 used to determine the Eu abundances, calculated using a Ba/BaO ratio of 820 (as generally observed during our ICP-MS sessions). This contribution is satisfactorily corrected for samples with Ba/Eu<1500 as exemplified by BCR-2 (basalt), AGV-2 (andesite), CAL-S and BEAN (carbonates). For marine limestone like JLs-1, the BaO contribution is huge, and generally not well corrected.

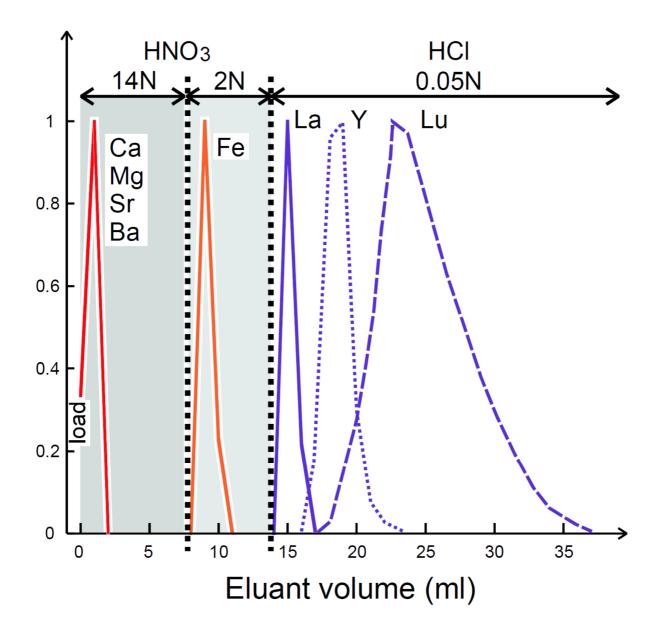


Figure 2. Elution curves for various elements using a small chromatographic column loaded with 1 ml of DGA resin. The vertical scale (concentration) is in arbitrary units.

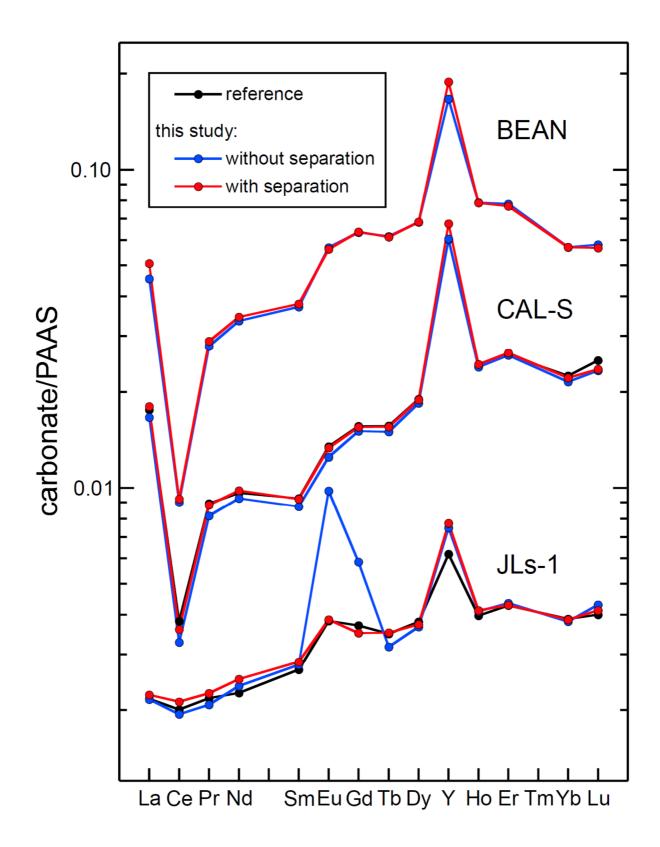


Figure 3. REE+Y patterns normalised to Post Archaean Australian Shale (Pourmand et al., 1991, adjusted to our BHVO-2 values) for the three carbonates analysed during the course of the study. References values are from Potts et al. [43] for CAL-S, and Dulski [16] for JLs-1.

