



1 LA-ICP-MS U-Pb carbonate geochronology: strategies, progress, and

2 application to fracture-fill calcite

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Abstract

35 Laser Ablation Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS) U-Pb 36 geochronology of carbonate minerals, calcite in particular, is rapidly gaining popularity as 37 an absolute dating method. The technique has proven useful for dating fracture-fill calcite, 38 which provides a powerful record of palaeohydrology, and within certain constraints, can be 39 used to bracket the timing of brittle fracture and fault development. The high spatial 40 resolution of LA-ICP-MS U-Pb carbonate geochronology is beneficial over traditional 41 Isotope Dilution methods, particularly for diagenetic and hydrothermal calcite, because 42 uranium and lead are heterogeneously distributed on the sub-mm scale. At the same time, 43 this can provide limitations to the method, as locating zones of radiogenic lead can be time-44 consuming and 'hit or miss'. Here, we present strategies for dating carbonates with in situ 45 techniques, through imaging and petrographic techniques to data interpretation; we focus 46 on examples of fracture-filling calcite, but most of our discussion is relevant to all carbonate 47 applications. We demonstrate these strategies through a series of case studies. We review 48 several limitations to the method, including open system behaviour, variable initial lead 49 compositions, and U-daughter disequilibrium. We also discuss two approaches to data 50 collection: traditional spot analyses guided by petrographic and elemental imaging, and 51 image-based dating that utilises LA-ICP-MS elemental and isotopic map data.

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1. Introduction

55 Calcite (CaCO₃), along with other carbonate minerals (e.g. aragonite, dolomite, magnesite), 56 forms in a wide variety of geological environments as both a primary and secondary mineral 57 phase, including diagenetic, biogenic, igneous, metamorphic and hydrothermal 58 environments. Calcite can incorporate uranium upon its formation, making it a potentially 59 suitable chronometer for U-Pb and U-Th geochronology. Calcite geochronology therefore 60 has the potential to provide direct timing constraints to a broad suite of geoscience 61 applications. Calcite has been dated in the past by chemical dissolution and isotope dilution 62 (ID) with measurement by either Thermal Ionisation Mass Spectrometry (TIMS) or 63 Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS) (e.g. Smith and Farguhar, 1989; 64 DeWolf and Halliday, 1991; Brannon et al., 1996; Rasbury et al., 1997; Richards et al., 65 1998; Woodhead et al., 2006; Pickering et al., 2010), collectively referred to here simply as 66 Isotope Dilution (ID). More recently, there has been a proliferation in the use of laser





68 Roberts & Walker, 2016, Ring & Gerdes, 2016; Methner et al., 2016; Goodfellow et al., 69 2017; Burisch et al., 2017, 2018; Drake et al., 2017; Hansman et al., 2017; Hellwig et al., 70 2018; Godeau et al., 2017; Beaudoin et al., 2018; Drost et al., 2018; Mangenot et al., 2018; 71 Nuriel et al., 2017, 2019; Parrish et al., 2018; Walter et al., 2018; Smeraglia et al., 2019; 72 Holdsworth et al., 2019; MacDonald et al., 2019; Scardia et al., 2019). Presently, we are not 73 aware of successful secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) U-Pb dating of carbonate 74 mineralisation, but this presents an alternative microbeam method to LA-ICP-MS. 75 76 The first review of the possibilities for carbonate geochronology was published by Jahn & 77 Cuvellier (1984), and this was substantially updated by Rasbury & Cole (2009). The latter 78 provided up-to-date discussion on U-Pb isotope systematics in carbonates, particularly 79 regarding Pb-Pb and U-Pb isochron methods, as well as a review of the applications to 80 date. At that time, both marine- (e.g. limestone, dolomite) and meteoric-water sourced 81 carbonates (e.g. speleothems and tufas) had received the most attention, due to their often-82 favourable uranium contents, and studies of hydrothermal carbonate were scarce (e.g. 83 Brannon et al., 1996; Grandia et al., 2000). U-Pb dating of speleothems has been further 84 reviewed by Woodhead et al. (2006 and 2012), again, focussing on data generated by ID. 85 86 Now that microbeam (i.e. LA-ICP-MS and SIMS) U-Pb geochronology is proving to be a 87 useful method for a range of geoscience applications, it is pertinent to address what can be 88 achieved with the method, what the current limitations are, and where improvements can be 89 made in the future. We refer to LA-ICP-MS through the rest of this paper, but acknowledge 90 that nearly all of the points we cover are equally relevant to SIMS methods. The key benefit 91 to LA-ICP-MS dating is that its high spatial resolution can be used to relate U-Pb and other 92 geochemical analyses to imaged textures. This is critical for providing context to the 93 obtained dates. Carbonate materials are heterogeneous in composition elementally, 94 isotopically, and texturally. These factors can all lead to scatter in U-Pb data, and will often 95 hinder the ability to generate high precision (i.e. <1% 20) U-Pb dates. In fact, after 96 propagation of all relevant uncertainties, final U-Pb dates typically exceed 3% precision 97 (2σ). For this reason, LA-ICP-MS carbonate U-Pb geochronology is particularly suited for 98 applications in tectonics and crustal fluid-flow, but commonly less suited for applications in 99 stratigraphy and palaeoclimate.

ablation (LA-) ICP-MS applied to calcite geochronology (Li et al., 2014; Coogan et al., 2016;





Here we present a review of LA-ICP-MS U-Pb carbonate geochronology, focusing on its benefits and application, with particular attention to hydrothermal and diagenetic vein-filling carbonates; these can constrain the ages of mineral systems, crustal deformation and fluid-flow, and represent a significant growth area for this method. Using several case studies, we highlight the utility of image-guided analysis, where various imaging techniques provide critical context for interpreting U-Pb data. We also provide case studies for an age-mapping technique that is an alternative to traditional static spot ablation, and can be used in combination with sample imagery to generate U-Pb age data. Finally, we highlight issues surrounding initial lead compositions, initial disequilibrium in the U-Pb system and opensystem behaviour.

2. LA vs ID strategies

Geochronology by ID provides the most accurate assessment of the U-Pb age of a sample using calibrated isotopic tracer solutions, but it is time-consuming and requires a clean laboratory facility for sample dissolution and column chemistry. The spatial resolution of ID is typically much lower than that offered by microbeam techniques, although resolution can be increased by using a high precision micro-drill for direct sampling. A major limiting factor is that carbonate materials typically have very low U concentrations (ca. 10 ppb to 10 ppm U) compared with traditional U-bearing accessory minerals (e.g., often >100 ppm U in zircon). This means that: 1) comparatively large volumes of material are needed for ID analyses resulting in an 'averaging' effect and reduction of spread in U/Pb space, and 2) samples with lower Pb concentrations yield higher blank/sample ratios, hindering the accuracy and precision of the resulting data.

LA-ICP-MS is a much quicker technique than ID, and therefore less expensive per analysis. Several samples can be run in a single day, meaning the technique is ideal for screening of large sample sets to find the most suitable material. The effect of blanks is negated, and very low (<100 ppb) Pb contents can be analysed. However, LA-ICPMS is generally less precise analytically compared to ID approaches. Another major limitation is the need to normalise to a matrix-matched reference material. This means that the uncertainty of the reference material becomes a limiting uncertainty, and matrix effects between materials of different composition will generate scatter and/or bias in the U-Pb dates that are difficult to correct for.





The biggest benefit of LA-ICP-MS comes from the spatial resolution (less than ca. 100 μ m) at which data can be obtained, particularly given the length scales of uranium concentration heterogeneity in carbonate. We find that for hydrothermal and diagenetic calcite in particular, uranium is heterogeneously distributed across veins and vein phases, and within individual crystals (see Figure 1). Uranium concentration heterogeneity typically spans 1 to 3 orders of magnitude, with the length-scale of this variation being commonly much less than 1 mm. Targeting of high U domains is therefore difficult without a high spatial-resolution sampling method. Intracrystalline uranium distributions within calcite define several patterns (see Figure 1): concentrated along cleavage planes (A), growth-zone controlled (C, D and F), concentrated towards grain rims (areas of B and E), and with apparent disorder (areas of B and E). Laser ablation has the spatial resolution capable of targeting such elemental (and isotopic) zonation, making it easier to avoid distinguishable alteration zones and inclusions at the 10-100 μ m scale.

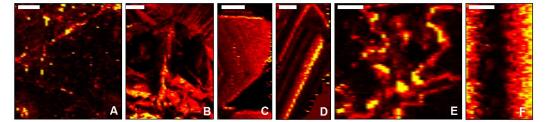


Figure 1. Maps of uranium in vein-filling calcite from a range of geological settings showing varying styles of distribution, see text for explanation (brighter = higher concentration). Maps were generated using LA-ICP-MS trace element analyses and the lolite data reduction software. Scale bar is 1 mm.

For minerals such as zircon, U-Pb ID-TIMS is considered the gold standard of geochronological techniques (Renne et al., 1998). It offers significantly greater accuracy than microbeam techniques by virtue of the use of gravimetrically quantified isotopic spikes, and generally higher detection efficiencies. ID-TIMS does, however, consume greater amounts of material. With ID methods, ages are calculated by absolute determination of the



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number of atoms of each isotope in the sample material. In contrast, microbeam techniques are relative methods, using ratio normalisation against reference minerals of known composition (generally determined by ID methods).

For common-lead bearing minerals such as calcite, the extreme range in parent/daughter

ratios encountered (quoted here as ²³⁸U divided by initial lead as ²⁰⁴Pb; a ratio known as µ), means that ID does not always lead to an improvement in precision on the regressed age. This is demonstrated by the schematic model in Figure 2. Sampling for ID provides an average of elemental and isotopic zonation within the analytical volume, perhaps >1 mm³. depending on the concentration of U and Pb within the crystal(s). The resulting data should be precise (depending on the sample/blank ratios), but may potentially have a small spread in parent/daughter ratios (i.e. ²³⁸U/²⁰⁶Pb) due to the averaging effect during sampling. In contrast, LA sampling has the potential to target and utilise such zonation, better resolving end-member µ compositions, and resulting in analyses with a greater spread in ²³⁸U/²⁰⁶Pb ratios. This potentially improves the resolving power of a regression of the measured isotopic ratios allowing definition of, ideally, the high-µ (radiogenic lead) and low-µ (initial lead) end-member compositions of the data array (see Figure 2). Along with the generally high-n datasets generated by the LA-ICP-MS approach, these well-constrained regressions can result in similar or even greater precision age determinations than those using ID data alone. However, a caveat to this, is that lower precision data points can mask true geological heterogeneity.



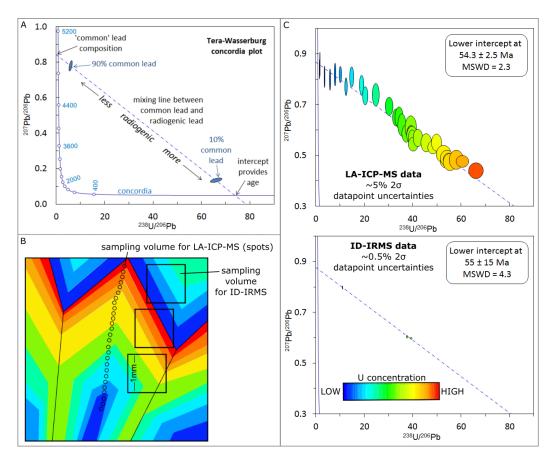


Figure 2. A) Example Tera-Wasserburg Concordia plot demonstrating the functionality of this plot for common-lead bearing U-Pb data. B) Schematic model of a calcite crystal with uranium zonation indicated by the colour-scale. Typical relative sample size for ID shown by the black squares, and LA-ICP-MS by the circles. C) Resultant U-Pb data in Tera-Wasserburg concordia assuming constant Pb concentration across the sample, and varying U concentration, for LA-ICP-MS sampling and analyses versus 'bulk' sampling and ID analyses, as represented by the sampling in B. The uncertainty on the datapoints is 4-6% (2s) for LA-ICP-MS and ~0.5-0.7% for ID.





When calculating an age and uncertainty from a regression/isochron, it is assumed 1) the dataset describes a single age population whose variability or scatter is derived solely from the analytical process, 2) each analysis represents a closed system, and 3) all analyses share the same initial Pb isotope composition. When these assumptions are satisfied, the MSWD should be about 1 (Mean Squared Weighted Deviation; Wendt and Carl, 1991). LA-ICP-MS data-points generally have a lower precision than those derived by ID. These lower precision data-points can mask scatter that exists within the level of the data-point uncertainties. This caveat must be considered when interpreting regressed data (or weighted means).

In other words, age interpretations rely on isochron assumptions that can only be resolved at the level of the data-point uncertainties. More precise ID data, therefore, have better resolution of scatter and better constrain the likelihood that a sample does not comprise a single population. However, sampling for ID can also contribute to this scatter by analysing larger amounts of material, with a greater chance of including altered zones or zones from different generations. A combination of ID and image-guided LA methods can therefore better elucidate the likely variability in any particular sample. For applications where the best possible precision is needed (e.g. for stratigraphic constraints or characterisation of potential U-Pb carbonate reference materials), a workflow involving both LA-ICP-MS dating followed by ID on the most favourable material is the most effective. For applications where the required precision is on the order of several percent, image-guided LA-ICP-MS without ID is suitable.

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222 4. Identifying suitable carbonate material for dating

4.1.µ (²³⁸U/²⁰⁴Pb) in carbonate

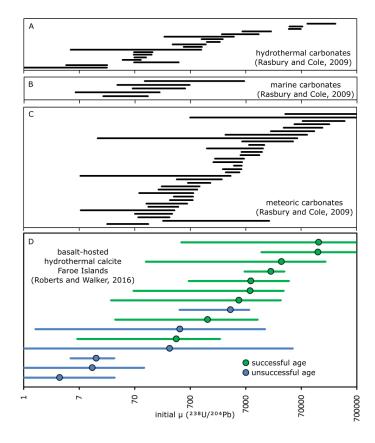
An 'ideal' U-Pb chronometer requires incorporation of U (the parent isotopes ²³⁸U and ²³⁵U which decay to ²⁰⁶Pb and ²⁰⁷Pb respectively), and zero or low concentrations of initial (or 'common') Pb during its formation; this is typically expressed as the ratio of parent uranium to initial Pb - ²³⁸U/²⁰⁴Pb, or μ. In addition, both the parent and daughter isotopes ideally remain a closed system from formation until present-day. Many chronometers lack these ideal criteria but still provide successful materials for dating: the subset of 'common-lead bearing chronometers' comprise small to large initial lead concentrations that are of uniform composition (e.g. titanite, apatite). The ideal criteria are generally rare in carbonates, but





many carbonate materials from a range of different geological environments are successful common-lead bearing chronometers.

Rasbury and Cole (2009) showed that carbonates of meteoric origin have the highest μ values, and hydrothermal varieties the lowest, with marine varieties in the middle (Figure. 3A-C). However, the recent literature on calcite dating demonstrates that with careful characterisation and sampling, high μ domains can be found in a range of hydrothermal and diagenetic calcite. As an example, we plot the range of μ values recorded in very low-U (<200 ppb) and low-Pb (<20 ppb) calcite taken from basalt-hosted fractures in the Faroe Islands (Figure. 3D). The range of mean μ values across the fifteen samples is very large (ca. 100 to 100,000), and the range within each sample is also commonly two to four orders of magnitude. Of the samples providing successful U-Pb isochron ages (Roberts & Walker, 2016), μ values extend to as low as ~2000.





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Figure 3. A-C) Compilation of μ (238 U/ 204 Pb) values taken from Rasbury & Cole (2009). Each bar is the range exhibited by an individual sample. These data were acquired using sampling by physical separation, i.e. a dental drill. D) Compilation of μ values from basalthosted vein-filling calcite in the Faroe Islands to highlight the range within crystals and across a single region; each datapoint represents the median, and the bar represents the range. These data represent laser ablation sampling.

The amount of U needed to generate an age is dependent on two factors: (1) the age of the material and (2) the initial μ ratio of the material. The younger a sample is, the less time

there is for the growth of radiogenic daughter Pb from parent U. With a higher μ, the ratio of measured radiogenic Pb to common (initial) Pb will be higher, giving greater confidence and (in general) precision and accuracy to the resulting age determination.

The effect of these factors is shown in Figure 4. Two Tera-Wasserburg plots are shown. with isochrons for samples of different ages (100 to 10 Ma on the left, 1000 to 100 Ma on the right). The most accurate and precise age determinations, i.e. those that can be interpreted with most confidence, are generated when the sample comprises abundant radiogenic lead, i.e. gets close to the lower part of the concordia curve where the regression intercepts. Each plot shows regressions for individual samples between a common-lead composition (~0.8) and a radiogenic end-member (with the age labelled). The colour-coded points along each regression reflect the amount of radiogenic lead that will be created by decay of ²³⁸U, based upon the given µ value. For example, utilising the left plot, a sample of 15 Ma, with a μ of 10,000, will have a measured ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁶Pb of ~0.4, equalling about a 50:50 ratio between radiogenic and initial lead. To get a near concordant measurement of this sample would require a µ value of over 200,000. These plots demonstrate how older samples are more amenable to dating than those young in age, at least when regarding the abundance of radiogenic lead. The preservation of a closed isotopic system over long time periods is what makes dating old samples (i.e. Precambrian materials) potentially difficult.

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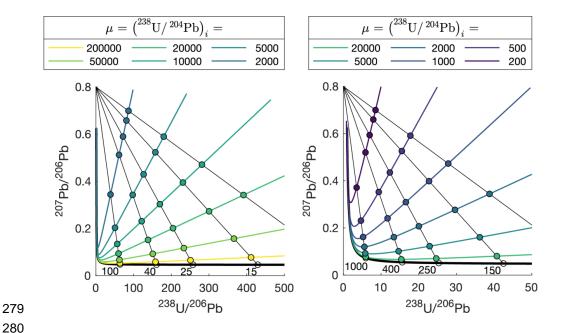


Figure 4. Tera-Wasserburg plots showing modelled regressions for samples of different age. Colour-coded spots relate to the measured isotope composition a sample would have at a given μ value (legend above). Ages of each regression in Ma are labelled adjacent to the lower intercept with concordia.

When absent of concordant analyses, both high µ and a significant spread in initial µ values

are required to generate the most robust ages, as these will pin the isochron at the radiogenic end-member with greater confidence. Some calcite exhibits sufficiently high µ to generate concordant data (e.g. Richards et al., 1998; Roberts & Walker, 2016; Nuriel et al., 2017). Such robust ages are rare with a material that so commonly exhibits high initial lead abundances. Ages can be derived from isochrons with low amounts of radiogenic lead, i.e. those with low μ. Such isochrons can be regressed to provide lower intercept ages, but the confidence in these ages is subject to having well-behaved data conforming to a single population, requiring precise data-point uncertainties (e.g. Figure 5G). Such low μ

isochrons can potentially give inaccurate lower intercept ages if the material is very young,

and thus confirmation through multiple samples and/or alternative age constraints are

favoured.

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300 In Figure 5, we present a selection of 'real-world' data to highlight the potential complexity 301 of carbonate U-Pb data. These data from natural samples broadly range from undesirable 302 to most desirable from A to I, with the following notable characteristics: 303 A) Dominated by common lead with large data-point uncertainties (due to low count-rates) 304 that hamper the distinction between open-system behaviour and radiogenic ingrowth of 305 lead. 306 B) All analyses are ca. 100% common lead, with high count-rates providing a precise 307 measurement of the composition of this common lead. 308 C) Mixed and scattered data that do not fall on a single linear isochron. This is likely caused 309 by open system behaviour, potentially involving both addition and subtraction of parent ²³⁸U. 310 311 D) Majority of data define a linear array with a large spread in U/Pb ratios. Some other 312 analyses fall on a horizontal array, suggesting they experienced open-system behaviour 313 (e.g., local ²³⁸U mobility). 314 E) Data form an apparent single linear array, but large uncertainties (due to low count-315 rates) may obscure mixed ages or minor open-system behaviour. 316 F) Dominated by relatively radiogenic isotopic compositions, but with large data point 317 uncertainties due to low count-rates. The narrow range in μ leads to a large age uncertainty 318 from extrapolating to the lower concordia intercept. The age uncertainty would be improved 319 with a common lead composition estimated from contemporaneous low-u samples of the 320 same suite. 321 G) A 'small scale isochron' (see Ring & Gerdes, 2016). There are no radiogenic isotopic 322 compositions to anchor the extrapolation to a lower intercept concordia date, but a tight 323 data array yields a realistic intercept age. 324 H) Dominated by radiogenic isotopic compositions, and the spread in the array provides a 325 precise lower intercept date; small data-point uncertainties improve ability to identify 326 potential outliers. 327 I) A precise regression due to well-behaved closed system behaviour, high count rates 328 giving small uncertainties, and a large spread in U/Pb ratios providing a precise estimate of 329 both the age and the common lead isotopic composition.



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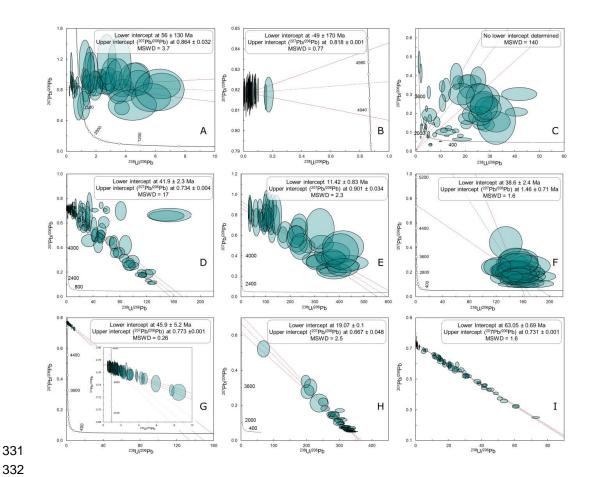


Figure 5. Tera-Wasserburg concordia plots of natural carbonate samples from a variety of settings, with no data rejection. Lower intercept dates are quoted without propagation of systematic uncertainties. See text for explanation.

4.2. U and Pb contents in carbonate

At present, there is a lack of predictive criteria that can be used in the field or in the laboratory to screen samples prior to analysis for high μ domains. Radionuclide incorporation in calcite is not well understood despite several decades of interest, primarily driven by the field of nuclear waste storage and characterisation (e.g. Langmuir, 1978; Milton & Brown, 1987; Sturchio et al., 1998; Reeder et al., 2000, 2001; Kelly et al., 2003; Weremeichik et al., 2017; Drake et al., 2018). This is because trace element incorporation in calcite does not rely on thermodynamically determined partition coefficients, but by a



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large number of phenomenological variables, including: trace element availability, calcite growth rate, temperature, pH, Eh, pCO₂ and the Ca²⁺:CO₃²⁻ ratio in solution, ionic size, and U complexation. Furthermore, different trace elements can be preferentially incorporated into structurally different growth steps and faces of growing calcite crystals (Paquette and Reeder, 1995; Reeder, 1996). Rasbury and Cole (2009) provided a geochronology-focused review of U and Pb in calcite. and we note the following salient features: 1) Pb is both particle reactive and relatively insoluble; 2) Pb is found at very low levels in most fluids (ppt-ppb), providing high Ca/Pb ratios; 3) Pb can substitute for Ca in the crystal lattice, although the Pb cation is larger ionic radii of Ca²⁺ and Pb²⁺ in six-fold coordination are 114 and 133 pm, respectively; 4) U exists in multiple oxidation states, and its solubility is strongly affected by Eh and pH; and 5) both U(VI) and U(IV) have been found in calcite, but with the latter being interpreted as the most likely and most stable form. Points 4 and 5 above are important for understanding why and when uranium is incorporated into calcite, and whether remobilisation is likely. Sturchio et al. (1998), using a combination of X-ray absorption spectroscopy and X-ray microprobe fluorescence, demonstrated that the uranium in a sample of spar calcite was in the form of U(IV), and that U(VI) was less likely based on size and ionic structure (ionic radii of U(IV) and U(VI) in sixfold coordination are 103 and 93 pm, respectively). Given that U(IV) is less mobile than U(VI), this study provided important support for U-daughter geochronology. Kelly et al. (2003) however, found that U(VI) as uranyl (UO₂²⁺) was the dominant species in a natural sample of vein calcite, which they considered to be more representative of typical low-U material than the Sturchio sample. Drake et al. (2018) found much higher concentrations of uranium in calcite precipitated from deep anoxic groundwater than experimental determinations that were performed in oxic conditions, and interpreted this high uranium uptake as due to incorporation of U(IV) and thus that the partition coefficient for U(IV) is orders of magnitude larger than for U(VI). It is evident that more data from natural carbonates in different settings are needed to more fully understand the controls on U and Pb incorporation. We have compiled uranium and lead concentration data from carbonates analysed in the BGS laboratory over several years (Figure 6). From our data, we see that median U/Pbtotal





ratios for speleothems are ~500, whereas median values for Mid-Ocean Ridge (MOR) and continental vein calcite are 8.2 and 2.6, respectively. Note that these are total Pb contents, and include radiogenic Pb as well as initial Pb, which causes the short linear trends that represent individual samples. Samples in Figure 6 are mostly younger than 200 Ma, or < 4 Ma for the speleothems. The concentration data and U/Pb ratios demonstrate that speleothems in general are much more amenable to U-Pb geochronology, which is why they have been the main focus for this method until the last few years. Dating vein calcite, with more variable and lower contents of U, and higher contents of Pb, has a lower chance of success than speleothems (although it should be noted that the speleothems in general have already been visually pre-screened during sampling).

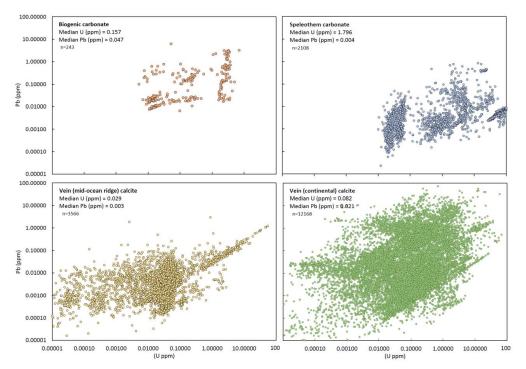


Figure 6. Uranium and total lead contents of various carbonate materials based on a compilation of laser ablation spot data from the British Geological Survey lab over several years. A) Compilation of biogenic carbonates, mostly from corals; B) Speleothem carbonates; C) Veins hosted within mid-ocean ridge oceanic crust; and D) veins hosted





Ideally, a predictive framework could be constructed to aid field sampling and laboratory-based sub-sampling of carbonate material for geochronological analyses. However, given the large number of variables controlling U and Pb in carbonate, it is unlikely that such a tool can be developed without measuring a large number of parameters in the mineralising/diagenetic system. Relevant information might include the redox history of the system. For example, oxidising fluids may mobilise U as U(VI), which is soluble in hydrous fluids, leading to U loss during fluid-mineral interaction. Conversely, U may undergo much higher precipitation into the mineral phase at redox fronts representing reducing conditions, since reduced U(IV) has lower solubility. Other pertinent information for predicting success includes the nature of the host rock and the source of the fluids. For example, if the mineralising fluids transmit through Pb-rich units, then an undesirable enrichment in the

fluid Pb/Ca would take place, leading to lower initial ²³⁸U/²⁰⁴Pb.

within a range of lithologies from the upper continental crust, from both outcrop and

The complex nature of trace element uptake, including Pb and U, in carbonate mineralisation is exemplified by recent studies in hydrothermal settings. Fracture mineralisation in the crystalline basement of southern Sweden has been investigated extensively to evaluate potential geological nuclear waste repository facilities. Several studies have shown that most trace element concentrations vary over an order of magnitude within calcite samples (at the thin section scale), and up to several orders of magnitude across individual fractures (Drake et al., 2012, 2014; Maskenskaya et al., 2014; Milodowski et al., 2018). These authors suggest that: 1) trace element chemistry does not trace the source rock of the metals; 2) the co-variation of most trace elements implies changing metal/Ca ratios in the fracture waters; and 3) in-situ factors affect trace element incorporation, such as microbial activity, metal speciation, crystal habit, water type and co-precipitation of other phases such as barite and pyrite. Our own experience of vein-filling fractures matches these previous studies, as shown for example by the basalt-hosted calcite in the Faroe Islands (see Figure 9).





429 5. Sample screening, imaging and petrography 430 As discussed above, it is difficult to predict which carbonate samples are most suitable for 431 U-Pb geochronology. We therefore utilise several methods to screen material, with the aim of limiting the time wasted on unsuitable samples, improving the quality of data that is 432 433 collected, and enhancing the overall efficacy of LA-ICP-MS U-Pb carbonate geochronology. 434 The purpose of sample imaging is two-fold: it provides important spatial characterisation of 435 U and Pb within the sample and also provides the petrographic and compositional context 436 to assess mineral growth mechanisms and alteration textures that are critical for linking 437 dates to processes. 438 439 5.1. Non-destructive techniques 440 A range of non-destructive imaging techniques is available for sample imaging (see Figure 441 7), including cathodoluminescence (CL), back-scattered electron imaging (BSE), charge-442 contrast imaging (CCI), and etch-track or digital autoradiography techniques. The latter, in 443 particular storage-phosphor imaging plate autoradiography and direct beta-imaging 444 autoradiography, have been documented previously and are established techniques for 445 meteoric carbonates such as speleothems (e.g. Cole et al., 2003; Woodhead et al., 2012). 446 In carbonate minerals, CL intensity is related to trace element contents but not specifically 447 U concentration. CL brightness is generally ascribed to a number of emitters, with Mn²⁺ being the most dominant luminescence activator and Fe²⁺ being the dominant 448 luminescence quencher in calcite and dolomite (e.g. Machel, 1985, 2000; Savard et al., 449 1995), although rare earth elements (REE) such as Eu²⁺, Eu³⁺, Dy³⁺, Sm³⁺ and Tb³⁺ along 450 451 with Pb2+ may also activate luminescence in some cases (Richter et al., 2003). Despite not 452 being directly related to U, the very high spatial resolution of CL is useful for identifying um-453 scale calcite crystal growth zonation and alteration, and for characterising different mineral generations formed from different fluids (e.g. Barnaby & Rimstidt, 1989; Tullborg et al., 454 455 2008; Milodowski et al., 2018). 456 457 BSE imaging also does not correlate directly to trace concentrations of U, but to the mean 458 atomic number of the mineral. It is useful as an imaging tool for characterising zonation, 459 alteration and growth patterns, although we note that the contrast in zonation largely

reflects variations in major element composition, and as such it is typically less sensitive





than with CL. Ukar & Laubach (2016) provide a recent review of high-spatial resolution SEM-based imaging of vein-filling calcite mineralisation.

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CCI under the SEM directly images differences in dielectric properties, which produce charge or conductivity contrasts in the near-surface of the sample that are detected by the secondary electron emission, and may reflect compositional variations or strain induced by deformation (Watt et al., 2000; Robertson et al., 2005). It is an underutilised method for geological materials, although the exact origin of charge-contrast is poorly understood. However, it can provide useful information on crystal growth, compositional zoning and microstructural features, and CCI has previously been applied to garnet (Cuthbert & Buckman, 2005), feldspar (Flude et al., 2012), limestone (Buckman et al., 2016) and biogenic calcite (Lee et al., 2008). The technique requires very clean and carefully-prepared and polished sample surfaces because it is sensitive to surface contamination and mechanical defects, and imaging needs to be undertaken on uncoated samples under low-vacuum conditions.

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In addition to the microscopy-based methods listed above, a lower resolution but potentially useful technique is provided by storage-phosphor imaging-plate (IP) autoradiography using a plastic support film coated with a photostimulated phosphor (BaFBr:Eu²⁺) (Hareyama et al., 2000). This technique records an image of the spatial distribution and intensity of total radioactivity (from alpha, beta and gamma emitters) from a flat sample surface. In natural geological materials, IP radiography records radioactivity from U, Th (and their radioactive daughters), ⁸⁷Rb, and ⁴⁰K (Hareyama et al., 2000; Cole et al., 2003). Although U is not specifically discriminated, it has been shown to be a useful screening tool for finding Ubearing domains in carbonate materials (Cole et al., 2005). The method has been particularly applied to speleothem studies where its large sample-size capabilities (up to at least 40 cm) are beneficial. Spatial resolution is a few tens of micrometres, depending on the pixel size of the laser scanner. However, the detection limit depends on the exposure time of the IP in direct contact with the sample surface: routinely this is around 14-28 days giving a detection limit of a few ppm U, which is typically higher than many carbonate samples. Whilst this may be suitable for speleothems, which typically have higher uranium concentrations, we do not regularly adopt the method for very low U contents in vein-filling or diagenetic carbonates.



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Fluorescence imaging has long been used in defining and characterising growth fabrics in speleothems, although it does not specifically identify U-rich regions. This usually involves irradiating a sliced sample with UV-light and observing the excited fluorescence emission at a longer (visible light) wavelength, using either a standard UV microscope or digital scanning with a UV laser system (e.g. Shopov et al., 1994; Baker et al., 1995; 2008; Perrette et al., 2005). Fine growth detail with spatial resolutions of between 50 to 100 µm are achievable. Speleothem fluorescence under UV at excitation wavelengths of 300-420 nm is dominated by the intrinsic fluorescence of natural high molecular weight and aromatic organic ("humic" and "fulvic") compounds, with emission between 400-480 nm (Baker et al., 2008). However, we have also successfully imaged speleothems (Figure 7) and other geological materials (Field et al., 2019) by direct laser-stimulated scanning fluorescence imaging (LSSFI) using 635 nm (red) and 450 nm (blue) wavelength excitation with 650 nm and 520 nm low-pass wavelength filters, respectively. Although, such equipment is principally applied to imaging of biological materials labelled with organic fluorescent dyes (fluorochromes) (e.g. fluorescein), it is able to image variations in fluorescence originating from organic laminae and subtle differences between carbonate minerals (calcite, aragonite), revealing microtextural details with a resolution of about 100 micrometres.

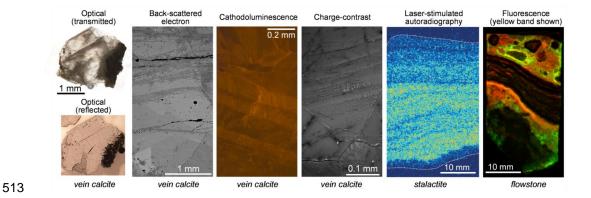


Figure 7. Example imagery from the range of techniques used for sample screening and characterisation.

5.2. Destructive techniques



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520 Several approaches for destructive sample screening using LA-ICP-MS are available. 521 These can include either systematic or non-systematic (random) spot traverses across 522 carbonate samples, and can include full analyses (i.e. a 30 second ablation following a pre-523 ablation) or a much shorter analysis time (with or without pre-ablation). We commonly adopt 524 systematic traverses across samples utilising shorter ablation times but including a pre-525 ablation, so as to avoid common Pb from the surface. This is a quick way to determine with 526 reasonable precision and accuracy whether a sample is a single age population that 527 represents a closed isotopic system with a suitable range in μ. For some samples, this 528 provides potentially useable age information that does not require any further refinement 529 (e.g. Figure 5H-5I). Conversely, this may provide a population of data that exhibits no 530 potential, i.e. dominated by common-lead (e.g. Figure 5A-5B), open-system behaviour (e.g. 531 Figure 5D), or mixed analyses (e.g. Figure 5C). Screening in this way allows us to analyse 532 several samples or sample-aliquots in a single LA-ICP-MS session, and thus identify the 533 material most likely to provide an accurate and precise age. 534 535 Either as an alternative to spot traverses, or subsequent to spot traverses, we use LA-ICP-536 MS mapping to determine both the location and nature of U and Pb zonation in the 537 carbonate material. Whereas spot traverses provide rapid screening of multiple 538 samples/aliquots, mapping provides fairly rapid (5 x 5 mm in < 2 hours) screening across 539 complexly zoned samples. Different approaches can be adopted, a suite of major and trace 540 elements can be analysed alone, a suite of elements for age determination (i.e. Pb to U ± 541 Hg) can be measured, or, depending on ICP-MS instrumentation, these can be combined, 542 i.e. using a quadrupole ICP-MS (Drost et al., 2018) or a split-stream set-up utilising two 543 ICP-MS instruments (e.g. Kylander-Clark et al., 2013). As will be shown by the examples in 544 the subsequent sections, trace element maps are useful for directly comparing U and Pb 545 zonation with other trace and major elements. We have found that in primary vein-filling 546 calcite, U typically correlates with other trace elements, this varies between samples, but 547 can include V, Mn, Y, and the REEs. We can use this information to distinguish primary 548 zones of calcite from those that have been altered (see Section 5). Elements, or elemental 549 ratios such as Ba/Ca, can be used to distinguish alteration zones or secondary material 550 (e.g. a detrital component). For example, in meteoric carbonates, high Th is commonly 551 attributed to detrital matter. The production of trace element maps rapidly produces extra 552 information that can be related to any later age determination, facilitating the relating of the





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age to a specific growth event, i.e. the petrochronological approach (i.e. Kylander-Clark et al., 2013; Engi et al., 2017).

An alternative approach is to produce maps that generate U-Pb data directly (see Section

5.5). These have obvious utility in determining suitable domains of calcite; however, for common-lead bearing minerals they can be difficult to interpret by visual inspection. Pb-Pb or Pb-U isotope maps can be created with ease; however, because of the inherent inclusion of common lead, more useful is a map of common lead-corrected ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U ages or ratios. Common lead-corrected age maps require: 1) precise knowledge of the initial lead composition (or upper intercept in Tera-Wasserburg space); and 2) knowledge that the initial Pb composition is homogeneous across the mapped region, something that is not always the case (see Section 5.4). However, with the recent advent of more advanced data processing software, such as the Monocle plug-in for Iolite (Petrus et al., 2017), complex age determination from maps is becoming more amenable (see Section 5.5). The caveat with such data processing packages is that non-related domains defining a single age with a good precision can potentially be selected with subjectivity, and without relation to actual geological/mineralogical process. For this reason, we suggest that it is imperative that users relate domains they have selected for U-Pb age determination to specific mineralogical domains that can be identified independently with other means, whether these be entire crystals, domains of crystals, growth bands, or specific veinlets. As suggested by Drost et al. (2018), who demonstrate the method for carbonate sediments, it is also useful to compare conventional spot ablation analyses with the map-generated dates to verify the accuracy of the latter.

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6. Analytical Protocol

The LA-ICP-MS method for carbonate follows a typical sample-standard bracketing approach using a matrix-matched reference material, i.e. as for other silicate or phosphate minerals (e.g. zircon, monazite, titanite, rutile, apatite, allanite), with only minor modifications. Similarly, uncertainty propagation and data reporting should follow the community-based guidelines for zircon of Horstwood et al. (2016). Details on the LA-ICP-MS method for carbonate adopted by three major laboratories taking a similar approach are provided in Roberts & Walker (2016) and Drake et al. (2017) for the British Geological Survey laboratory (Nottingham, UK); Ring & Gerdes (2016) and Methner et al. (2016) for



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Goethe-Universität (Frankfurt, Germany), and Nuriel et al., (2017, 2019) for University of California Santa Barbara (Santa Barbara, USA). There are two key points of the method we feel are worth highlighting that differ from 'standard' methods based on silicate minerals such as zircon. Firstly, the heterogeneous nature of the Pb isotope composition of matrixmatched, i.e. calcite/dolomite, minerals (due to variable common Pb incorporation), means that normalisation of the Pb-Pb isotope ratios is currently achieved using a synthetic glass rather than a carbonate, typically NIST612 or NIST614. At present, there is no evidence to suggest that the Pb/Pb mass bias is variable across different matrices. Secondly, calculation of the reproducibility of the primary and secondary matrix-matched reference materials, which is required for uncertainty propagation (Horstwood et al., 2016) and determination of the true method accuracy and precision, is hindered by the fact that the carbonate reference materials currently employed have U/Pb heterogeneity that is equal to or much larger than the analytical uncertainties (Roberts et al., 2017). This means there will typically be a significant excess variance of the reference material U/Pb isotope measurements in any one session (including after correction for common lead), which does not describe the reproducibility of the analytical system but instead reflects the natural variation in the reference material. If propagated onto the sample data-point uncertainties as a within-session excess variance as recommended for zircon in Horstwood et al (2016), these data point uncertainties will be overestimated masking any smaller scale, real geological scatter in the sample isochron and result in meaningless ages with erroneously high precision. For this reason, it is suggested that calculation of the session-based reproducibility is best estimated using a more homogenous material such as NIST glass or zircon. However, it should be noted that through this practice results can only be compared in a relative sense within session, or between sessions if validation materials are compiled and used. To compare data in an absolute sense, i.e. to assign an age and total uncertainty to a material for comparison between laboratories and/or with other methods, the uncertainty from the primary reference material must be included to reflect the accuracy with which the matrix-matched normalisation is known. In this way, the uncertainty of the primary reference material constitutes a limiting uncertainty on any sample age. Improved reference materials with less scatter around the U/Pb isochron are therefore a pre-requisite for improving this method.



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7. Generating U-Pb data and interpreting ages

Generating ages and relating these to geological processes requires the marriage of spatially-resolved variations in composition (elemental and isotopic) and U-Pb isotopic concentrations. In this section, we present several case studies to highlight our approach to dating vein-filling calcite, the potential applications to dating faulting and fluid-flow, and the type of material commonly encountered. First we present the standard approach, which used independent imagery and analysis to target, refine, and interpret the U-Pb analyses that are based on static spot ablations. This is the same approach as using CL imagery to help interpret zircon dates, and that can be further refined with information such as companion trace element data. A second approach (age mapping) is to use mapping tools not just to image the sample and its composition, but to extract age data from the map itself (Petrus et al., 2017; Drost et al., 2018).

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7.1. Image-guided dating

Example A - Variscan-related veins in the Northumberland Basin

633 Figure 8 shows U-Pb calcite data from Howick Bay in the Northumberland Basin, NE 634 England. The mudstone succession in the bay is faulted and weakly folded, which is 635 postulated to be a result of transpressional stress during the Variscan orogeny (De Paola et 636 al., 2005). Syn-kinematic calcite located within fractures has the potential to date this far-637 field intraplate deformation (c.f. Parrish et al., 2018). Screening data from one sample, 638 comprising randomly located spot traverses across a crystal, are presented in Figure 8C. 639 The data yield a regression with a large array of common to radiogenic Pb compositions, 640 but with significant scatter (MSWD = 577), indicating some alteration and open-system 641 behaviour and/or mixed age domains. The crystal was subsequently mapped for its trace 642 element distribution, revealing a zone of low Ca and Mg, and high Mn, REEs and Pb. This 643 zone can be seen optically, and is interpreted as a zone of alteration. Further U-Pb spot 644 analyses were placed in a domain away from this feature that exhibits high U, with the data 645 yielding a more precise regression with an age of 287 ± 14 Ma (MSWD = 2.5). This 646 example highlights the use of trace element mapping to locate regions of highest U, to 647 assist and refine U-Pb analyses, and shows the potential for dating calcite veins into the 648 Palaeozoic.



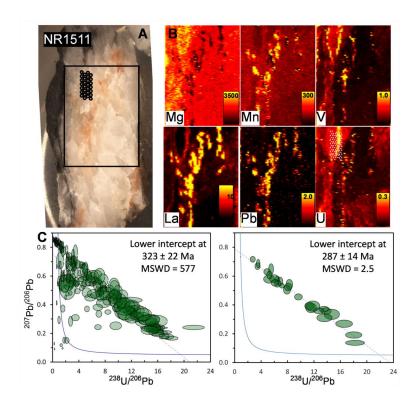


Figure 8. A) Photomicrograph of sample NR1511 showing position of mapped area and ablation spots (in black); B) Trace element maps generated with LA-ICP-MS using line rasters, the scales are in ppm and white spots show the ablation locations; C) Tera-Wasserburg concordia of U-Pb data from this sample based on screening spot traverses; D) Tera-Wasserburg concordia of U-Pb spot data placed using constraints from map data, i.e. over the unaltered high U region.

Example B - Faroe Island vein mineralisation

The aim of most studies is to date primary calcite formation rather than subsequent secondary alteration, particularly when dating syn-kinematic calcite for constraining the timing of fault slip (e.g. Roberts & Walker, 2016; Ring & Gerdes, 2016; Goodfellow et al., 2017; Hansman et al., 2017; Nuriel et al., 2017, 2019; Parrish et al., 2018; Holdsworth et al., 2019; Smeraglia et al., 2018). Trace element mapping is a useful tool to assist with identification of growth zoning, particularly on the scale of mm- to cm-sized chips. Using standard LA-ICP-MS protocols for trace element determination, with standard-sample





668 previously, depending on the analytical set-up, this trace element mapping can be 669 conducted alongside U-Pb isotope mapping. 670 671 Figure 9 shows selected results from dating of syn-kinematic crack-seal-slip calcite 672 mineralisation from basalt-hosted faults of the Faroe Islands (Roberts & Walker, 2016). 673 Sample A is from a vein exhibiting a zeolite-calcite-zeolite mineral paragenesis. The calcite 674 exhibits distinct syntaxial growth zoning towards the centre of the vein. Trace element 675 mapping reveals large variation in trace element contents in the direction of growth, 676 interpretable as changing metal/Ca ratios in the mineralising fluid (e.g. Drake et al., 2014). 677 The trace element zonation clearly follows the optically visible growth zonation, indicating 678 its primary nature. Uranium increases steadily to the maximum concentrations observed, 679 then abruptly drops to very low abundances. The U-Pb data define a well-behaved isochron 680 (low scatter with large spread in U/Pb ratios), determined from spots placed on and near 681 the high U region, and yields a lower intercept U-Pb age of 45 ± 2 Ma (MWD = 1.09). 682 683 Sample B is from a large dilational jog (up to 1 m wide) that is filled with zeolite-calcite-684 zeolite mineralisation, including calcite crystals up to 10 cm long. The mapped grain is 685 composed of calcite with a later rim of zeolite. Trace element mapping reveals a strong 686 correlation between most elements, again, representing the primary growth zonation. High 687 Mn and V 'fingers' intersect the growth zonation, and are visible optically. We interpret 688 these as pathways of secondary alteration. Given that the vein exhibits vuggy textures, it is 689 possible that fluids have precipitated or altered the original calcite much later than the 690 original fault slip. U-Pb analyses of the primary calcite in this sample reveal fairly radiogenic 691 Pb compositions, although with large datapoint uncertainties owing to the low U 692 concentrations, with a lower intercept U-Pb age of 37 ± 2 Ma (MSWD = 2.4; anchored 693 upper intercept based on other samples on this study at 0.89 ± 0.02). Trace element 694 mapping allows us to visualise and fingerprint these alteration zones, and avoid or remove 695 them from analyses used for dating. A benefit to this approach is that the maps can then be 696 used to estimate the trace metal contents of the mineralising fluids, which in turn provides 697 information about rock-water interaction and the redox conditions for example. These maps 698 also demonstrate that no measurable diffusion of trace elements across the calcite crystals 699 has occurred over a significant time span, as the distribution is interpreted as a primary 700 feature.

bracketing routines, a 5 x 5 mm region can be mapped in less than two hours. As discussed



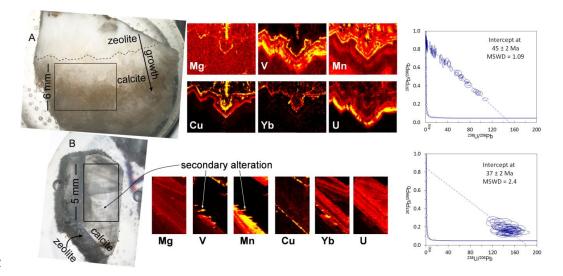


Figure 9. A) Sample microphotographs of epoxy-resin mounted zeolite-calcite vein samples, TJN-0-1 and TJN-6-1, mapped regions shown in black; B) Trace element maps generated with LA-ICP-MS using line rasters; C) Tera-Wasserburg concordia of U-Pb data from each sample (from Roberts and Walker, 2016).

Example C - Sellafield fracture mineralisation

Figure 10 shows results for fracture mineralisation from Sellafield, NW England. This location was previously investigated (1990-1997) as a potential nuclear waste repository site, and has thus been extensively studied in terms of its structure, stratigraphy, geochemistry and palaeo- to present-day hydrogeology (Michie & Bowden, 1994; Akhurst et al., 1997; Baker et al., 1997; Heathcote and Michie, 2004; Bath et al., 2006; Milodowski et al., 1998, 2018). Deep (up to 2 km) site-investigation boreholes revealed a complex sequence of fracture mineralisation within Ordovician greenschist-facies metamorphic basement rocks overlain by Carboniferous Limestone and Permo-Triassic sedimentary strata (Milodowski et al., 1998). Presented here are data from one mineralised zone that show the potential for U-Pb dating of such material.

Sample 833 is an example of euhedral calcite crystals lining open fractures and representing the latest mineralisation, and which are very closely-associated with the



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present-day fracture-controlled groundwater system (generation ME9 of Milodowski et al., 1998; 2018). The sample has U and Pb concentrations of 0.3—30 ppm and 0.1—3.6 ppm, respectively. U-Pb LA-ICP-MS spot analyses were placed in a single crystal which was optically continuous; the data yielded an age of 6.98 ± 0.43 Ma (MSWD = 15). The dated crystal was subsequently mapped for its U, Th and Pb elemental distribution using LA-ICP-MS. The map shows zoning of U, Th and Pb that is interpreted as growth zoning during primary calcite growth. Pb is distributed similarly, but with high concentrations along narrow veins that are discordant to the primary growth zoning; these are interpreted as alteration pathways where Pb-bearing fluids have invaded the crystals. Crystals were also imaged using charge-contrast imaging (CCI), which highlights structural imperfections in the calcite crystals. The same veinlets that have elevated Pb concentrations are imaged as cracks and disturbances to the growth zoning. Since the spots that lie on the alteration pathways have high Pb counts, the age data were culled based on Pb concentration (>500 ppb Pb removed). This approach reduced the scatter in the regression, presumably removing components with slightly different common lead compositions, giving a more precise age of 6.44 ± 0.26 Ma (MSWD = 2.8). These data from Sellafield demonstrate the potential utility of imaging techniques such as CCI and trace element mapping to discriminate primary growth domains from those that are altered at the micro-scale (<100 µm), and refinement of scattered analyses into those that are interpretable as a single population.

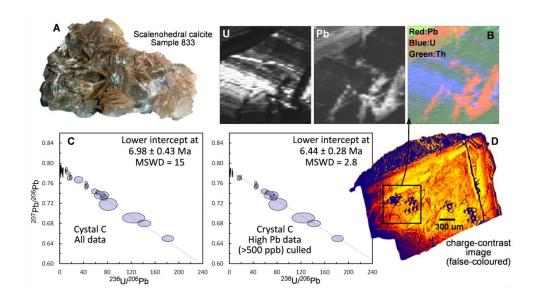






Figure 10. A) Photograph of sample 833; B) Trace element maps using LA-ICP-MS based on line rasters; C) Tera-Wasserburg concordia of U-Pb data before and after refining the data; D) False-colour charge-contrast image of the dated crystal, showing the mapped region in black.

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7.2. Age mapping of vein-fill carbonates

751 We have demonstrated that elemental mapping data are useful for refining and interpreting 752 U-Pb isotopic data. For example, in Example B above, we manually located the spots in a 753 high U zone, and in Example C, we manually removed the data with high Pb 754 concentrations. An alternative approach to using the maps to 'manually' locate spots or 755 refine spot data, is to generate a combined elemental and U-Pb isotopic 2D dataset (i.e. 756 map); the benefit of this method is that software tools can be used to both discriminate 757 specific isotopic data based upon chosen criteria, and also to show regions within these 758 pooled datasets that have similar compositional characteristics. Iolite (Paton et al., 2011) is 759 one of the most commonly used data reduction tools for both U-Pb isotopic data (Paton et 760 al., 2010), and for generation of elemental 2D maps. Monocle is a software plug-in for lolite 761 that allows the user to generate maps of isotopic and elemental data (Petrus et al., 2017), 762 and to define and extract regions of pooled compositional data, including those used for 763 age calculations. Drost et al. (2018) demonstrated the efficacy of the software for dating 764 carbonate sediments, whereby features such as bioclasts and detrital components are 765 removed. For a detailed explanation of the protocol, see Drost et al. (2018). In brief, each 766 pixel of the elemental and isotope ratio maps corresponds to one duty cycle of the ICP-MS. 767 First, pixels are removed, using user-defined selection criteria that are believed to be 768 related to alteration, secondary material, or a younger or older carbonate generation. This is 769 usually conducted after an initial inspection of the mapping data combined with prior 770 imaging and petrography; however, the screening can also employ an iterative approach 771 after generation of initial U-Pb isochrons. After this screening/filtering, the remaining data are pooled into a number of pseudo-analyses (each corresponding to the same number of 772 pixels) based on a suitable isotope ratio, such as ²³⁸U/²⁰⁸Pb or ²³⁵U/²⁰⁷Pb. The pooling is 773 774 achieved using an empirical cumulative distribution function ECDF) to maximise the spread 775 in U/Pb ratios, and an appropriate number of pixels to produce a reasonable population of 776 data, for example twenty to forty data-points. Here, we present examples of this approach 777 applied to vein-filling calcite.





Example D – BH11

This example is of a fine-scale vein cross-cutting a sedimentary host rock; the objective is to use Monocle-based criteria to discriminate the vein from the host rock and determine a robust age. Only two criteria of filtering were needed to distinguish the vein from the host: Mg of less than 5000 ppm, and Th of less than 0.1 ppm. The remaining data were pooled using 238 U/ 208 Pb ratios into 26 analyses, and yielded a robust lower intercept 238 U/ 206 Pb date of 53.95 ± 0.36 Ma, with an MSWD of 1.0 (Figure. 11). This sample was previously dated using conventional spot analyses located within the vein at 53.51 ± 0.39 Ma (MSWD = 2.0; Beaudoin et al., 2018). These dates, quoted without propagation of systematic uncertainties, show good agreement between two different labs using different instrumentation and data reduction methods.

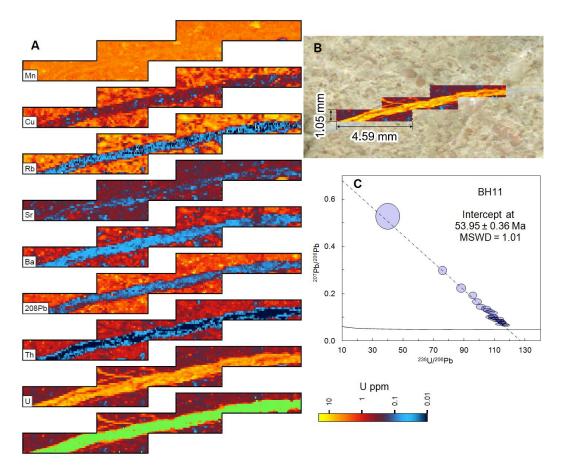






Figure 11. Image-based dating (Monocle plug-in for Iolite) of sample BH11. A) Trace element maps of the analysed region, the final map shows the region of interest selected for the U-Pb date highlighted in green; B) Photomicrograph of the sample surface showing the mapped region as a U map; C) Tera-Wasserburg concordia of U-Pb data after pooling and filtering using the Monocle plug-in (see text for description).

Example E – BM18

BM18 is another example of a vein cross-cutting a sedimentary host-rock. This time, there is clear zonation of the vein (Figure. 12). Since it is a syntaxial vein (crystals growing from the wall rock to the centre), this zonation probably represents changing fluid chemistry as the calcite crystals were precipitating. However, it could represent multiple generations of calcite precipitation. Criteria were selected for filtering of the data to highlight the outer regions of the vein; Rb < 0.05 ppm, Th < 0.01 ppm, and Sr < 400 ppm. The U-Pb data were then filtered to remove data with low U and Pb signals, since no initial rejection of data based on detection limit was conducted using this data reduction method; criteria for acceptance were 238 U > 500 cps, and 207 Pb/ 206 Pb < 1.5. The remaining data produce a robust isochron with a lower intercept date of 61.0 ± 1.7 Ma (MSWD = 1.11; 21 pooled analyses). This date overlaps that previously obtained using spot analyses that were derived from the entire width of the vein (59.5 ± 1.7 Ma; Beaudoin et al., 2018).



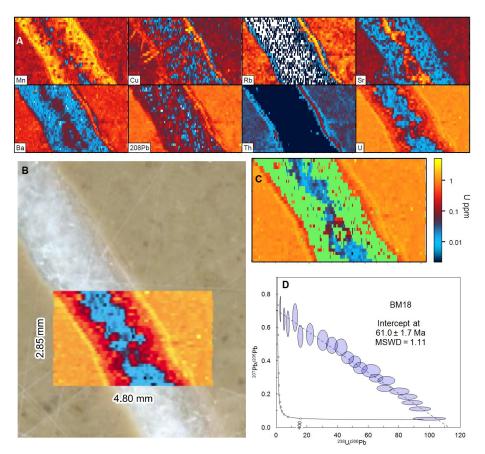


Figure 12. Image-based dating (Monocle plug-in for Iolite) of sample BM18. A) Trace element maps of the analysed region; B) Photomicrograph of sample surface showing mapped region as U map; C) U map showing the region of interest selected for the U-Pb date in green; D) Tera-Wasserburg concordia of U-Pb data after pooling and filtering using the Monocle plug-in (see text for description).

Example F – NR1511

The third example of image-based dating is from a complex vein already described in section 5.1 above (Example A). This vein features visible textures and chemistry associated with alteration (Figure. 13). The mapped region is entirely within the vein (no host rock). High concentrations in several elements (e.g. Cu, Ba, Rb, Sr, Ba and Pb) reflect veinlets that can be seen optically as a yellow altered region. The remaining portion of the vein varies in U content, which likely represents chemical zonation across the coarse sparry calcite growth. A fairly robust isochron (MSWD = 1.9) was obtained after filtering of the data





for the clearly altered regions, cleaning up the U-Pb data to remove low U and Pb signals, and pooling the data based on 207 Pb/ 235 U. The criteria for acceptance were: Cu < 0.2 ppm, Ba < 10 ppm, Rb < 0.01 ppm, and 238 U < 10000 cps (for removal of alteration), and 238 U > 500 cps, 207 Pb/ 206 Pb > 0.15 < 1.5, and 206 Pb/ 208 Pb > 0.1 < 10 (for 'cleaning up' the U-Pb data). These data yielded a date of 283 ± 9.7 Ma, which overlaps that obtained from spot analyses and manual location of the spot data based on prior LA-ICP-MS mapping (287 \pm 14 Ma; see Figure 8D), but with an improvement in the precision (4.9 to 3.4 %).

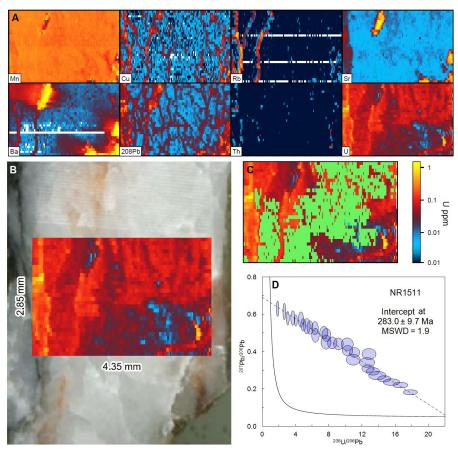


Figure 13. Image-based dating (Monocle plug-in for Iolite) of sample NR1511. A) Trace element maps of the analysed region; B) Photomicrograph of sample surface showing mapped region as U map; C) U map showing the region of interest selected for the U-Pb date in green; D) Tera-Wasserburg concordia of U-Pb data after pooling and filtering using the Monocle plug-in (see text for description).





8. Isotopic composition of common lead

Carbonates nearly always take up some amount of lead during their formation, referred to as 'common' or initial lead. Contamination during handling (i.e. during cutting and polishing) or from recent exposure to the environment will have a modern isotopic composition of common lead, i.e. approximating the Stacey & Kramers (1975) model for terrestrial lead composition at present-day, roughly ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁶Pb = 0.84. Distinguishing between such contamination and the common lead incorporated during formation can be difficult. Well behaved U-Pb isotopic systematics in a carbonate sample should yield a single mixing line between the common and radiogenic end-members, and ideally will have enough spread in U/Pb ratios to yield a precise regression with low uncertainties at both the lower (radiogenic lead) and upper (common lead) intercepts. However, many samples will exhibit a lack of spread in U/Pb ratios, or will be dominated by radiogenic compositions (e.g. Figure 5F). Although a best-fit line may be calculated for such data, the slope, and thus age, may be inaccurate. Thus, it is useful for such samples to have an estimation of the common lead composition through other means, such as from nearby cogenetic samples formed at the same age, or from different minerals also believed to have been formed at the same age.

For some mineral chronometers, such as the phosphate mineral monazite, it is common to use an estimate of the common lead composition based on the Stacey and Kramers (1975) model (e.g. Palin et al., 2013; Regis et al., 2016). In our experience, this is an acceptable approach because from a number of different studies, we find that the common lead composition determined from other minerals (i.e. feldspar, biotite, apatite) overlaps the Stacey and Kramers (1975) composition (e.g. Stübner et al., 2014; Warren et al., 2014). For carbonate however, we find this is not always such a suitable approach. Our experience from hydrothermal carbonate in particular, is that common lead compositions are often more radiogenic (lower ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁶Pb ratios) than the terrestrial lead model (Stacey and Kramers, 1975) for age of carbonate crystallisation. This can occur if the carbonate has incorporated lead during its formation that is derived from ancient sources. Figure 14 shows a compilation of common lead intercepts from a number of studies of fracture-filling calcite (compilation of BGS laboratory data). The data represent different host lithologies, different

ages (dominated by Cretaceous to Miocene), and different geological regions. It is clear

ages older than the true age due to steepening of the regression. The importance of the

that for many samples in this compilation, anchoring at a value close to the terrestrial lead model composition for Phanerozoic ages, i.e. ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁶Pb ~ 0.84, will lead to calculated







common lead composition in providing constraints on a calculated age will depend on the amount of measured radiogenic lead in a given sample; samples dominated by common lead and lacking in radiogenic lead will need a well defined array to produce a confident lower intercept. We find that within individual vein samples, the apparent composition of the common lead end-member can vary, limiting the precision of the regression and derived age. For speleothems, Woodhead et al. (2012) demonstrate that most samples analysed in their lab yield common lead compositions overlapping Stacy and Kramers (1975), and thus their ages are largely insensitive to the common lead compositions. This likely reflects the fact that they are precipitated from meteoric water that reflects the regional upper crustal Pb composition. Although, they add the caveat that samples with 238 U/ 206 Pb below 1300 (equivalent to $\mu \approx 20,000$), have large inaccuracies.

The highly radiogenic initial lead values (²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁶Pb < ~0.75) recorded in our compilation are mostly from two settings, young fractures in Proterozoic crystalline crust of Sweden (n= 10 of 104), and young fractures in the Bighorn Basin that overlies Archaean basement (n= 24 of 104). In both cases, the whole-rock Pb, although ancient, is not radiogenic enough to produce the measured values. Instead, leaching of lead from uraniferous minerals is required, e.g. titanite, allanite, monazite and zircon as a causative mechanism.

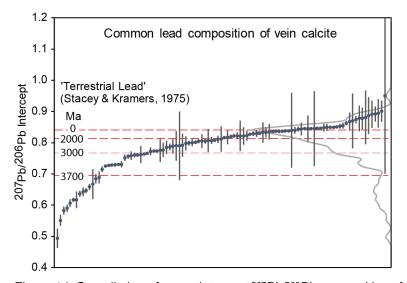


Figure 14. Compilation of upper intercept ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁶Pb compositions from vein-filling calcite from samples dated in the British Geological Survey laboratory (n=104). The grey curve is a





900 Kernel Density Estimate showing the distribution of mean compositions. The red bars show 901 the two-stage Stacey and Kramers (1975) compositions of terrestrial lead at 0, 2000, 2000 902 and 3700 Ma. Samples with very large uncertainties in the 207Pb/206Pb composition are 903 those with very low Pb count-rates. 904 905 906 Example G - Moab fault 907 Figure 15 shows results from a sample taken from the Moab fault in southeast Utah, USA. 908 The sample presented here (CHJ15-KH08) is collected from the Courthouse Junction fault 909 segment intersection. This locality has a complex, multi-phase deformation history 910 (Davatzes et al., 2005; Johansen et al., 2005) associated with multiple episodes of 911 mineralization and a range of diagenetic fluids (Chan et al., 2000; Eichhubl et al., 2009; 912 Bergman et al., 2013; Hodson et al., 2016). 913 914 U-Pb data were obtained from different sections of the vein material formed along different 915 orientations (See Figure 15). The data exhibit a high level of common/initial lead, with 916 limited spread in radiogenic lead contents, but still forming a scattered regression to a lower 917 intercept value. Using different colours to discriminate different sections of vein, it is clear 918 that they have subtly different initial lead compositions, as indicated by the upper intercept (207Pb/206Pb value) of the data arrays. These lead compositions are different from that 919 920 predicted by the Stacey & Kramers (1975) terrestrial composition, which we find is a 921 common feature of many vein-filling carbonates. This is likely due to the hydrothermal fluids 922 that are precipitating the carbonate comprising unsupported radiogenic lead components 923 derived from leaching of older uraniferous minerals or rocks. 924 925 The existence of variable Pb compositions on small length-scales (<1 mm) means that 926 careful attention is required to interpret complex data. However, the spatial resolution of LA-927 ICP-MS means that these details can potentially be teased out. This case study also shows 928 the potential of the method for measuring veinlets that are only ~150 µm wide (see Figure 929 15), a task that would be difficult for ID analyses.



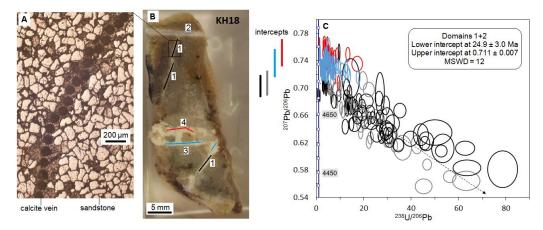


Figure 15. U-Pb data from a series of calcite veins (sample KH18) along the Moab Fault at Courthouse Junction, Utah. A) Reflected light image of a region of veining showing the 100 µm spots; B) Photomicrograph of the dated sample, with different dated domains of veining shown by blue, red, black and grey lines; C) Tera-Wasserburg plot with U-Pb spot data colour-coded to match the different domains. The bars on the left show the variable ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁶Pb upper intercept values for each domain.

In summary, vein-filling, diagenetic and hydrothermal carbonates often do not exhibit Stacy & Kramers (1975) model Pb compositions for their assumed age, but typically yield more radiogenic compositions. This means that regressions anchored with assumed common lead compositions are susceptible to inaccuracy. Mixed common lead compositions in samples hampers derivation of single age regressions, implying multiple fluid sources. Mixed ages and atypical lead compositions can also make age mapping problematic.

9. Dating young material - dealing with disequilibria

As described in Section 3, the younger the age of the sample analysed, the lower the potential for precise and accurate age determination due to the lack of radiogenic ingrowth of lead. However, young carbonates are a high priority in many applications, because they can date events more relevant to the Earth system at present, and because U-Pb can extend the age range of sample suites or study areas where U-Th age dating is also feasible. For example, records of environmental change in deep time require the dating of speleothems that are older than 500 ka (see Woodhead et al., 2012, 2019), and dating of





955 veins that record seismic cycles extending beyond 500 ka (see Uysal et al., 2011; Williams 956 et al., 2017) can provide constraints on earthquakes and other hazards associated with 957 subsurface fractures. These particular applications are likely to require high levels of 958 precision, i.e. for the Quaternary, of much less than ± 100 ka, and potentially even less than ± 10 ka or < 1000 years for the Holocene. Achieving such precision requires very high U to 959 960 achieve abundant radiogenic lead and higher µ values (see Figure 4). 961 962 A major issue for accurate dating of young samples (i.e. <10 Ma) is the potential effect of 963 initial daughter isotope disequilibrium within the uranium decay chains. The simplest form of the U-Pb and Pb-Pb age equations, often used for older samples, assume that all long-lived 964 965 daughter isotopes in the U decay chain are initially present in secular equilibrium. Both the U decay series contain long-lived daughter isotopes, including 234 U ($t_{1/2}$ = 245 ka), 230 Th ($t_{1/2}$ = 966 76 ka), and 226 Ra ($t_{1/2}$ = 1.6 ka) in the 238 U decay chain, and 231 Pa ($t_{1/2}$ = 34 ka) in the 235 U 967 968 decay chain. Of these, ²³⁴U has the longest half life and therefore the largest potential 969 effect on U-Pb dates. The excess initial 234U often observed in natural waters will lead to 970 generation of unsupported ²⁰⁶Pb. If uncorrected, excess initial ²³⁴U produces overestimated ²³⁸U/²⁰⁶Pb and lower intercept dates. An excess of the other intermediate daughter 971 products, like ²³⁰Th, relative to secular equilibrium will bias the age with a smaller 972 973 magnitude but in the same direction, whereas a deficit will result in dates that are too 974 young. 975 Carbonates are commonly precipitated from fluids containing ²³⁴U/²³⁸U out of secular 976 977 equilibrium. Thus, this initial disequilibrium must be considered in any age determination. 978 Age corrections for initial U daughter deficits are at maximum ~1.44 times the half life of the 979 daughter isotope for zero initial abundance. But for initial excesses, the age difference can 980 be many times larger (see Figure 17). For most older samples dated by U-Pb, the effect of 981 disequilibrium is deemed to be insignificant compared to larger measurement uncertainties. 982 For this reason, initial disequilibrium has thus far not been mentioned in any publication 983 concerning LA-ICP-MS U-Pb dating except for those dealing with young speleothems (e.g. 984 Hopley et al., 2019). However, here we demonstrate that initial disequilibrium may be a very 985 significant cause of uncertainty for carbonates precipitated from groundwater and other 986 crustal fluids, and not just for very young (<1 Ma) samples. 987





988 In young samples, particularly those within the range of U-Th geochronology (<600 ka), the initial ²³⁴U/²³⁸U ratio (²³⁴U/²³⁸U₀) can be estimated based on the combination of the present-989 day measured ²³⁴U/²³⁸U (²³⁴U/²³⁸U_{now}), and either the measured ²³⁰Th/²³⁸U or the estimated 990 991 date of formation. The robustness of this estimate is highly dependent on the precision and 992 accuracy at which the isotope ratio(s) can be measured (the atom ratio is very small, 993 making high precision measurement >1% difficult). In addition, if the offset between ²³⁴U/²³⁸U_{now} and secular equilibrium is small, then the measurement may overlap secular 994 equilibrium within uncertainty. For this reason, the highest precision possible is a necessary 995 996 target for any disequilibrium correction measurement. 997 998 For older samples (i.e. those older than about four times the half-life of ²³⁴U), and/or those 999 with only a small degree of initial disequilibrium, ²³⁴U/²³⁸U_{now} is likely to have reached 1000 secular equilibrium. This means that 234U/238U0 cannot be estimated from the measured 1001 data alone. One approach to alleviate this problem is to take known initial ratios from 1002 younger samples (<600 ka) formed in approximately the same geologic setting, and apply 1003 these corrections to the older samples from the same setting (e.g. Woodhead et al., 2006, 1004 2019). This approach is only applicable if the geological environment is well known and the 1005 hydrological system believed to be relatively stable. 1006 1007 There are various causes of ²³⁴U excess in fluid-mineral systems, which have been studied 1008 at length (e.g. Osmond & Cowart, 1992, 2000; Porcelli & Swarzenski, 2003; Suksi et al., 2006). In summary, ²³⁴U is generated from α decay of ²³⁸U, and may preferentially be 1009 1010 increased in the fluid state during mineral-fluid interaction due to oxidation state and 1011 valence differences between the U species (e.g. Suksi et al., 2006). Uranium activity ratios 1012 record information on the redox state of fluids, the source of uranium in the fluids, and 1013 potentially the timing of uranium residence in the fluid; therefore, they have long been a 1014 focus of groundwater studies (e.g. Osmond et al., 1968; Osmond & Cowart, 2000; Porcelli 1015 & Swarzenski, 2003). Of general interest here, is whether carbonates precipitated from different geological settings are likely to have significant ²³⁴U excess such that any 1016 measured ²³⁸U/²⁰⁶Pb dates will be inaccurate. 1017 1018 1019 Cave drip-water that generates speleothem deposits typically has excess ²³⁴U relative to secular equilibrium, although sometimes ²³⁴U is depleted. Overall, most cave systems have 1020 1021 initial activity ratios that are not grossly offset from secular equilibrium. This means that an





uncertainty limit can be placed on such carbonates with reasonable confidence. Disequilbrium corrections will significantly affect age estimates with high precision, but not the low precision estimates that typically characterise LA-ICP-MS dates. For example, Woodhead et al. (2019) used an estimate of 1.0 ± 0.3 for $^{234}\text{U}/^{238}\text{U}_0$ in their study of speleothems from the Nullarbor plain, Australia, and this had negligible impact on the resultant compilation of U-Pb dates. Hopley et al. (2019) estimated a range of ²³⁴U/²³⁸U₀ = 1.26 to 2.99 for the 'Cradle of Humankind' in South Africa, with a mean of 1.9, and discussed a resulting potential age range of 5.8 to 4.8 Ma. A known excursion from 'typical' activity ratios is the Transvaal Dolomite Aquifer, also in South Africa. Speleothem deposits in cave systems that interacted with water from this aguifer have anomalously high U activity ratios ranging from ca. 2 to 12 (Kronfeld et al., 1994). This well-known occurrence highlights that speleothem deposits could arise from fluids with variable and anomalous activity ratios, and thus that attention must be given to accurately estimating the 234U/238Uo when dating such deposits.

Unfortunately, activity ratio data that is relevant to hydrothermal and other vein-filling carbonates is sparse and potentially more variable. Carbonates precipitated in the shallow crust may arise from percolating groundwater, seawater, deep brines, formation waters, or a mixture of these sources. We can use existing data on these fluid sources to make an initial estimate of what range may exist in terrestrial carbonates. Groundwater is well known to have highly variable and significant ²³⁴U excess (e.g. Osmond and Cowart, 1976). Figure 16 shows a compilation of ²³⁴U/²³⁸U activity ratios taken from a range of literature sources (see supplementary file for sources). The population of data for groundwater (Figure 16A), mostly shallow, but including some saline and deeper samples, has a median activity ratio of 2.25, and is skewed towards higher values, with a significant tail up to ~11. Data from hydrothermal fluids and deep brines are less abundant in the literature, but can be estimated from young carbonates precipitated in travertines and hydrothermal veins. The compilation shown in Figure 16B is skewed towards samples from Turkey and surrounding regions. It has a median of 1.41, and is right-skewed with a tail ranging up to ~8 and only a few higher values.



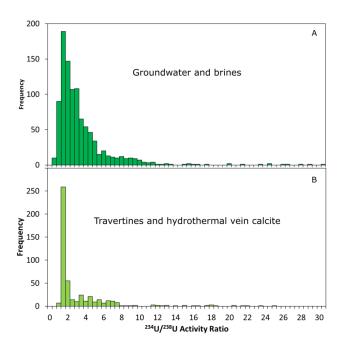


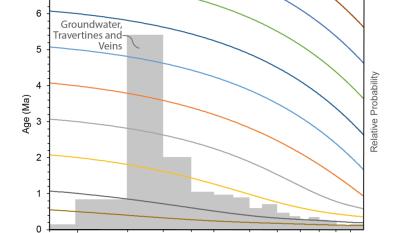
Figure 16. Compilation of uranium ²³⁴U/²³⁸U activity ratios from the literature of: A) groundwater and deep brines - these are present-day ²³⁴U/²³⁸U values (note the compilation is dominated by shallow groundwater rather than brines); and B) travertines and calcite precipitated in veins, commonly but not exclusively associated with travertines – these are estimated ²³⁴U/²³⁸U₀ values.

The compilations in Figure 16 are somewhat alarming, as they suggest that activity ratios have a high likelihood of being secular equilibrium (234U/238U of ~1) in vein-filling carbonates. The compilations shown are biased by sampling, so uncertainties on the range of activity ratios should not be based on these compilations. However, a very conservative view would be that shallow groundwater 234U/238U activity ratios average closer to ~2 than they do to ~1; hydrothermal waters average closer to ~1.5; and permissible values may be extremely out of secular equilibrium at >10. The data reveal that precise age estimates of young carbonates derived from crustal fluids are going to be severely hampered by a lack of knowledge of the U activity ratios.





To demonstrate the effect of initial activity ratios out of secular equilibrium, we have modelled synthetic data in Figure 17. This figure shows curves representing samples of ten different ages, which would range from 500 ka to 9 Ma if ²³⁴U/²³⁸U₀ was in secular equilibrium (~1) during formation. The true age of the samples get younger as ²³⁴U/²³⁸U₀ increases. The effect does not decrease in significance as we look at older ages, i.e. the age offset on a sample with a measured age of 8 Ma is similar to that on a sample of 4 Ma. The curves are shown on a log scale, because in many systems, the variation in activity ratio is going to vary a small amount, close to secular equilibrium (~1). For example, in the Nullarbor plain cave systems, the variation is likely to be within 30% of 1 (Woodhead et al., 2019). Systems with large variations in initial activity ratios, for example some hydrothermal systems, would lead to a large uncertainty on the obtained dates. Ignoring the effect of the likely ²³⁴U excess in vein-filling carbonates is likely to lead to significant inaccuracy of dates by 10s of %, in general by overestimating the age. Considering the impact that unconstrained initial ²³⁴U/²³⁸U ratios have on young dates leads to significant (> 10%) uncertainties.



2.5 3.0

Initial ²³⁴U/²³⁸U Activity Ratio

1.0

1.5

2.0

Figure 17. Curves in different colours showing how an individual ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U age (y-axis) will vary with a change in the initial ²³⁴U/²³⁸U activity ratio (x-axis). For example, a sample providing a measured ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U age of 5 Ma will actually have a true age of 3.1 Ma if the initial ²³⁴U/²³⁸U is as high as 6. The grey histogram shows the combined compilations of groundwater, travertine and vein data from Figure 16.

5.0 6.0

8.0

4.0



1139



1107 1108 So far, the discussion has involved the uncertainties surrounding excess/deficient 234U 1109 during calcite growth. However, there are several other intermediate daughter products in 1110 the uranium decay chains that can pose problems for the accuracy of measured ages; see 1111 Richards et al. (1998) and Woodhead et al. (2006) for previous discussion of these. The isotope ²³⁰Th is a potential consideration in the accuracy of ²³⁸U-²⁰⁶Pb ages. In general, 1112 most speleothem-dating studies assume no initial ²³⁰Th in the system, as Th is very 1113 insoluble in water compared to U. Any excess initial ²³⁰Th during formation would also result 1114 1115 in artificially old measured ages. ²³¹Pa is another daughter product in the decay chain, 1116 which again, is considered very insoluble, and does not form part of the disequilibrium 1117 corrections at present. ²²⁶Ra, another intermediate product, may co-precipitate with U, but 1118 its short half-life of 1.6 ka means it is likely to have little impact on U-Pb ages (Richards et al., 1998). A final concern is the gas ²²²Rn, as this may be lost from the system by diffusive 1119 processes. A study into the effect of this showed negligible impact on the ²³⁸U-²⁰⁶Pb ages of 1120 1121 a Quaternary speleothem (Richards et al., 1998). 1122 1123 Although the effects of disequilibrium in these shorter-lived intermediate daughter products 1124 is considered to be minor, and likely within the uncertainty of measured LA-ICP-MS U-Pb 1125 dates, it is worth noting that hydrological systems outside of those concerning speleothems 1126 and meteoric water have not been explored. Most of the issues presented here, particularly the excess ²³⁴U problem, are part of the ²³⁸U decay chain, and thus have implications for 1127 ²³⁸U/²⁰⁶Pb and lower intercept ages. The ²³⁵U decay chain has different intermediate 1128 daughter products, and thus measured ²³⁵U/²⁰⁷Pb and lower intercept ages will be affected 1129 1130 by a different set of processes. The problem of excess ²³⁴U is alleviated if ²³⁵U-²⁰⁷Pb ages can be used instead of 238U-206Pb ages. However, there have been few attempts to utilise 1131 1132 ²³⁵U-²⁰⁷Pb dates (e.g. Hopley et al., 2019) because the low abundances of these isotopes in 1133 comparison to ²³⁸U and ²⁰⁶Pb are major limitations on the uncertainty of the measurements. 1134 Engel et al. (2019) have provided a solution that will potentially increase the accuracy of age estimates for speleothems, utilising the ²³⁵U decay chain, as well as using ²⁰⁸Pb in 1135 1136 place of 204Pb as the initial lead composition. This approach is based on ID, and it is unclear 1137 how effective it will be for LA-ICP-MS dating, given that 204Pb is difficult to measure at high 1138 precision.





1141 carbonates. The effect is significant for material of any age, but as we get to older 1142 carbonates, the analytical uncertainty contributions will begin to swamp the uncertainties 1143 surrounding disequilibrium. For dating of Neogene-Quaternary carbonates, prior knowledge 1144 of likely activity ratios (e.g. by measuring younger or present-day values of the precipitating 1145 fluid, and inferring no change back in time) is critical for precise and accurate dates. The 1146 variation in hydrothermal systems that mix meteoric water with older brines is likely to be 1147 large in terms of the degree of ²³⁴U excess. More information is needed to further 1148 understand what sort of values can be expected in different systems and different settings. 1149 From our preliminary compilation, it is apparent that ²³⁴U excess is the norm, rather than the 1150 exception. For now, the absolute values and uncertainties on young dates (late Neogene to 1151 Quaternary) with no estimation of the initial disequilibria should be treated with caution. 1152 1153 10. Dating old material - dealing with a potentially open system 1154 Many early carbonate dating studies were attempted on very old material, i.e. Proterozoic 1155 and Archaean (e.g. Moorbath et al., 1987; Jahn, 1998; Taylor and Kalsbeek, 1990; 1156 Whitehouse and Russell, 1997); these mostly utilised Pb-Pb dating. A major issue of the 1157 Pb-Pb method, is that Pb contents of crustal fluids are much higher than that of the primary 1158 carbonates, and therefore, even small amounts of fluid-related alteration can dominate the 1159 measured Pb-Pb composition and lead to an age that is not representative of primary 1160 carbonate precipitation (e.g. Sumner & Bowring, 1996). Although there have been a handful 1161 of studies dating old carbonate material since the 1990s (e.g. Ray et al., 2003; Sarangi et 1162 al., 2004; Babinski et al., 2007; Fairey et al., 2013), Pb-Pb and U-Pb dating of Precambrian 1163 material have become rarely used techniques. This is presumably due to the difficulty in 1164 obtaining meaningful primary ages of old material. The dominant reason for this difficulty 1165 can generally be distilled down to open-system behaviour, i.e. dating material that has 1166 remained a closed isotopic system since its formation is increasingly difficult with 1167 increasingly older material. This is simply because thermal- and/or fluid-induced mobility of 1168 parent and daughter isotopes becomes increasingly likely if the material has been exposed 1169 to multiple deformation-, burial-, uplift-, glaciation-, weathering- or fracture-related events. 1170 1171 Early studies documented various transformative processes and their impact on Pb-Pb/U-1172 Pb isotope systematics, e.g. fluid infiltration in limestone (Smith et al., 1991), diagenetic

In summary, initial disequilibrium is clearly a major issue for the accuracy of U-Pb dating of





1174 during metamorphism (Russell et al., 1996; Whitehouse and Russell, 1997; Babinski et al., 1175 1999). In general, the existence of some form of open-system behaviour within a given 1176 dataset has only been recognised through the isotopic data themselves, not through an 1177 independent dataset. This is simply achieved by assessing the robustness of the Pb-Pb or 1178 U-Pb data array with mathematical means, e.g. using the MSWD value, and explaining 1179 analytical scatter outside of a robust array as due to open system behaviour. With in situ 1180 methods, the approaches that we have described in Section 5 may allow for some 1181 independent removal of data that pertains to open-system behaviour, leaving a dataset that 1182 corresponds to a closed system. 1183 1184 A method that has been utilised to screen for altered samples in whole-rock geochemistry, is to test for effects of modern weathering using ²³⁴U/²³⁸U ratios (Albut et al., 2019). Ancient 1185 samples should have measured ²³⁴U/²³⁸U activity ratios in in secular equilibrium, and 1186 1187 departure from this in a measured sample would imply a more recent addition or subtraction 1188 of ²³⁴U through weathering processes, indicating some modern fluid-rock interaction. This 1189 method of sample screening has not been applied to U-Pb dating, but we suggest is worthy 1190 of investigation. 1191 1192 In Figure 5 we documented various U-Pb datasets to demonstrate the range of behaviour 1193 that is seen with natural carbonates. Here we provide some additional comments regarding 1194 open-system behaviour, first in terms of U mobility, followed by that of Pb mobility. Uranium 1195 is mobile in oxidising fluids, so U enrichment and depletion relative to Pb is assumed to be 1196 the most common cause of open-system behaviour that will occur in natural carbonates. In Tera-Wasserburg space (238U/206Pb vs. 207Pb/206Pb), U mobility will be apparent as sub-1197 1198 horizontal trends in the data, with movement to the right reflecting gain of ²³⁸U, and 1199 movement to the left reflecting loss of ²³⁸U (see Figure 18). During a period of mobility, 1200 uranium may move into a fluid-phase, such that the remaining carbonate solid remains variably depleted in ²³⁸U, or, uranium may partially move from its original location to another 1201 1202 within the measured sample volume. In the former, this can sometimes be detected from 1203 the isotopic data if a distinct departure from a robust regression is defined by a sub-1204 horizontal array (see Figures 5d and 18). In the latter case of uranium mobility, some 1205 domains will be depleted, whereas others will be enriched. This may be difficult to ascertain 1206 from the isotopic data alone if the mobility is pervasive through the material, because the

change from aragonite to calcite (Jones et al., 1995), and resetting of Pb isotope signatures





induced scatter in the U-Pb regression (from both positive and negative movement in ²³⁸U/²⁰⁶Pb) cannot be resolved from other causes of scatter, such as mixing between different age domains.

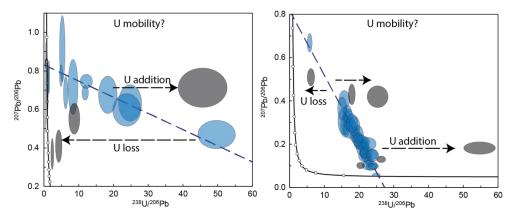


Figure 18. Tera-Wasserburg plots for LA-ICP-MS U-Pb data from two slicken-fibre calcite samples that exhibit potential open system behaviour caused by U mobility. Vectors for U loss and gain are schematic. Evidence for such U mobilisation requires additional lines of evidence that are currently lacking.

Lead can substitute for Ca in the calcite lattice, and is also insoluble in most upper crustal fluids, for these reasons, U mobility is generally considered in favour of Pb mobility. Fluid-assisted mobility of U is certainly the most likely cause of open system behaviour because of the solubility of some U species. However, at high temperatures, solid-state diffusion is also a factor of consideration. Based on experimental data, Pb diffusion in calcite is essentially slow enough to be non-existent below 300°C (when considering the composition of a grain 1 mm in diameter; Cherniak, 1997); however, at higher temperatures (>400°C), diffusion of lead is possible if encountered for long periods (> 20 Myrs). Empirical observations of Pb (or U) diffusion in calcite are lacking. Diffusion is unlikely in the low temperature calcites that have formed the basis of most modern LA-ICP-MS dating studies; however, carbonates form in a range of higher temperature environments as well, such as alteration veins within deeply subducted crust. Understanding how the calcite U-Pb system works at medium to high-metamorphic grades may therefore become very relevant information, allowing this chronometer to be used to understand dates and rates in deep crustal environments.





11. Discussion

LA-ICP-MS U-Pb carbonate geochronology has been demonstrated by this and previous studies, to offer a potentially robust technique to date the timing of carbonate mineral formation. Limitations on the technique arise from several challenges. These include the typically low U content of carbonates in many settings, the propensity for carbonate to include significant concentrations of Pb upon formation, and the ease with which fluids can alter or reprecipitate mineral growth. LA-ICP-MS is an *in situ* technique, with high spatial resolution compared to physical sampling for bulk dissolution studies, which enables many of the hurdles in carbonate geochronology to be overcome. Rare and localised high U domains can be located and sampled, a range of U/Pb ratios can be targeted to generate a spread in isochron regressions, and altered domains, inclusions and secondary mineralisation can often be avoided.

Accurate and informative U-Pb carbonate geochronology demands careful imaging and petrographic analysis to establish a link between date and process. Various imaging techniques can be utilised prior to or after dating to aid with mineral characterisation, and with refinement and interpretation of the resulting age data. We refer to this as image-guided analysis. An alternative technique involves directly determining age data from image-based data itself, which we refer to as image-based analysis. Both techniques have their different benefits and applicability, and their efficacy depends on the instrumentation used and the type of material; for example, quadrupole ICP-MS is suited to image-based analysis, as a large element suite can be measured. Limitations on using quadrupole instrumentation are the detection limits for U and Pb when counting a large suite of elements. In contrast, multi-collector instruments can be used for image-based analysis, and have a very low detection limit, but the mass range is restricted between Hg and U, meaning that additional elements useful for understanding the U and Pb distribution cannot be measured simultaneously. Overall, image-based analysis is only nascent in geochronology, and as such has not been fully explored.

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Limitations



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1264 There are several limitations to LA-ICP-MS U-Pb carbonate geochronology. The 1265 heterogeneous nature of carbonate materials pose a problem that is difficult to circumvent. 1266 The relatively high spatial resolution of laser ablation already offers the best solution to this 1267 problem, but detection limits and the very low U and Pb contents mean that spots >150 µm 1268 are commonly employed, hampering the full ability of laser ablation to target fine-scale (< 1269 50 µm) zonation. Improvements in efficiency of ICP-MS instrumentation and of the ablation 1270 process are possible solutions to his issue. 1271 1272 At present, there is only one reference material in circulation that has been widely used and 1273 documented for the purpose of U-Pb normalisation (WC-1; Roberts et al., 2017). WC-1 has 1274 an uncertainty on its U/Pb ratio of 2.5% 2σ. Using this material for normalisation of U/Pb 1275 ratios, or for validation of the method accuracy, limits the final age uncertainty of any 1276 particular sample to ~2.5%. To improve beyond this range requires the characterisation of 1277 natural (or production and characterisation of U and Pb doped synthetic) materials, with a 1278 final U/Pb precision better than 2.5%. There is also a requirement for additional well 1279 characterised materials (i.e. those with robust U-Pb systematics and well documented ID U-1280 Pb datasets) that can be used as secondary reference materials (i.e. those run as 1281 unknowns), for assessment of accuracy and long-term reproducibility. 1282 1283 Another major limitation is the nature of carbonate matrices, and the lack of quantified data 1284 on the matrix effect between different carbonate minerals and structures. Inter-element 1285 fractionation (i.e. U/Pb in this case) is one of the major limitations on the reproducibility and 1286 accuracy of laser ablation U-Pb dating. For this reason, matching matrices of the reference 1287 material with that of the sample has been standard practise in U-bearing accessory mineral 1288 geochronology. Several groups have tried to limit the effect of this issue by utilising 1289 normalisation and date reduction procedures that reduce the effect (e.g. Burn et al., 2017; 1290 Neymark et al., 2018), but regardless of the matrix used for normalisation, validation of the 1291 method should still utilise a similar matrix to the sample. Carbonates clearly have a large 1292 range of structures, even with calcite, for example, sparry to micritic, with wide-ranging 1293 crystal/grain-sizes and porosity. Nuriel et al. (2019) noted differences between the use of 1294 coarse-grained sparry reference materials to fine-grained polycrystalline reference 1295 materials, with the latter being skewed towards older ages by several percent. To move





1296 towards better precision and accuracy of the LA-ICP-MS U-Pb method, it will be necessary 1297 to have a range of well characterised reference materials that cover variable carbonate 1298 mineralogy (e.g. aragonite, dolomite, calcite), as well as internal morphology and texture. 1299 1300 11.2. **Applications** 1301 To date, LA-ICP-MS U-Pb carbonate geochronology has been applied to a wide range of 1302 applications. These include the dating of speleothem deposition (Hopley et al., 2019; 1303 Scardia et al., 2019), brittle deformation (Roberts & Walker, 2016; Ring & Gerdes, 2016; 1304 Goodfellow et al., 2017; Hansman et al., 2018; Parrish et al., 2018; Beaudoin et al., 2018; 1305 Nuriel et al., 2017, 2019; Smeraglia et al., 2019), hydrocarbon migration (Holdsworth et al., 1306 2019), hydrothermal ore mineralisation (Burisch et al., 2017, 2019), hydrothermal fluid flow 1307 (Mazurek et al., 2018; Walter et al., 2018; Incerpi et al., 2019; MacDonald et al., 2019); 1308 pedogenesis (Methner et al., 2016; Liivamägi et al., 2019); ocean crust alteration (Coogan 1309 et al., 2016), diagenesis in sedimentary deposits (Li et al., 2014; Pagel et al., 2018; 1310 Mangenot et al., 2018; Godeau et al., 2018; Lawson et al., 2018) and sedimentary 1311 deposition (Drost et al., 2018). Published dates range in age from 0.6 to 548 Ma (see 1312 Figure 19), MSWDs range from 0.2 to 89 (Figure 19a), and guoted uncertainties range from 0.6 to 143 % (2s; Figure 19B). The majority of dated samples so far range from the 1313 1314 Neogene to Jurassic, with ~50% being Oligocene or younger. Across this age range, the 1315 uncertainty is variable and uncorrelated to age or MSWD, demonstrating that the age 1316 uncertainty reflects an interplay of factors, and includes the heterogeneous nature of 1317 carbonate materials. It should be noted however, that many dates with large uncertainties 1318 or mixed results are likely unpublished, biasing this compilation towards successful 1319 samples. For example, it is possible that many unreported and failed attempts at dating 1320 samples that are Palaeozoic and older have been made. 1321 1322





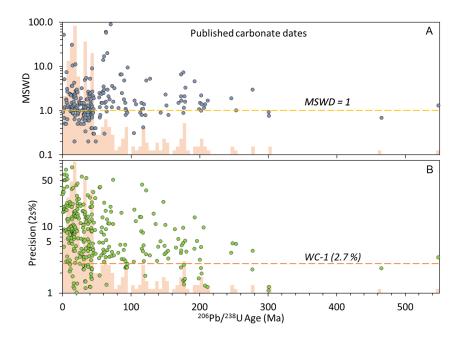


Figure 19. Compilation of published LA-ICP-MS U-Pb dates of carbonate (n=318). A) MSWD plotted against ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U age; and B) Precision as 2s % plotted against ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U age. The histograms in the background show the distribution of dates.

A major benefit of carbonate geochronology is that carbonate minerals record an archive of data that can be linked to the age of formation. Fluid inclusions, stable isotopes (carbon and oxygen), radiogenic isotopes (strontium), and elemental compositions all reveal insight into the fluid composition that precipitated the mineral. This combination has long been an approach within the field of palaeohydrology; however, the timing of mineralisation and hence fluid-flow has generally involved only relative estimates with large uncertainties, or the dating of phases associated with higher-temperature activity (e.g., Re-Os dating of Molybdenite). The addition of absolute chronological information is a critical step to understand the timing of fluid-flow through the crust in a range of settings, for example, within hydrocarbon-bearing basins, within ore-forming mineral systems, and within upper crustal bedrock that may be used to host anthropogenic waste/outputs (e.g. radioactive waste, storage and sequestration of CO₂).



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A benefit of utilising LA-ICP-MS as a method of dating, is that the same crystals that have been dated can be measured for various other chemical proxies and signatures. Several previous studies have combined fluid inclusions and/or stable carbon and oxygen isotope analysis with LA-ICP-MS dating (e.g. Mangenot et al., 2018; Pagel et al., 2018; Goodfellow et al., 2016; Walter et al., 2018), but for most of these, it is not clear if the same volume of material, or simply the same genetic domain has been sub-sampled for both the dating as well the additional isotope analyses. Use of petrography and imaging allows for the same genetic domain to be analysed for several methods; however, there are also several approaches that allow for an overlapping analytical volume to be analysed. Dated material can be micro-drilled or -milled following laser ablation, with the powder being analysed for additional chemical information (e.g. Sr, C, O isotopes). Alternatively, thin sections or polished blocks can be analysed using a combination of in situ techniques, for example, ion microprobe measurement of stable isotope and/or elemental compositions, and laser ablation measurement of Sr isotopes, elemental compositions along with U-Pb dating. Drake et al. (2017) demonstrated the utility of combining ion microprobe stable carbon and oxygen isotope analysis with U-Pb dating to study palaeohydrology and ancient microbial activity. In addition to traditional carbon and oxygen isotope measurements (δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O), clumped isotopes (Δ 47) can provide the temperature of mineral formation (e.g. Eiler, 2007). Several studies have demonstrated the combination of clumped isotope thermometry with dating (e.g. Quade et al., 2018; Mangenot et al., 2018; Lawson et al., 2017; MacDonald et al., 2019). These apply the technique to the dating of paleosols for climatic records, diagenetic mineralisation for basin histories, and hydrothermal veins to understand crustal fluid-flow. This combination of techniques is a clear growth area with a range of applications across earth and environmental science. Finally, carbonates also comprise a host of major and trace metals that offer further isotopic information that has yet to be fully explored, for example, stable isotopes of Ca, Zn, Fe, and Cu. Linking these with U-Pb dates from the same material could provide high resolution records of natural fractionation processes in subsurface environments.

12. Conclusions



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1376 Pb distribution and isotopic systematics. Although we have focused on vein-filling calcite, 1377 most of the issues highlighted in this paper are relevant to other carbonate dating 1378 applications. Various imaging techniques can be used to screen material, and to 1379 characterise U-Pb heterogeneity; a combination of these techniques is crucial to 1380 understand what exactly has been dated. Linking age information to spatial data, imagery 1381 or elemental maps, is crucial to understanding heterogeneous isotopic data. Two main 1382 approaches to dating have been presented, the traditional approach of static spot ablations 1383 guided by independent image data, and an alternative approach of age mapping using 1384 software analysis of 2D isotopic map data. Each of these approaches have benefits and 1385 drawbacks, and the choice between them will partly be governed by the instrumentation 1386 available. The applications of carbonate U-Pb geochronology are vast, with a key benefit to

We have demonstrated the heterogeneous nature of carbonate minerals, in terms of U and

1390 uncertainties on reference material isotope ratios, matrix effects and long-term reproducibility; taking these into consideration, the method is best applied to applications

the laser ablation approach being that specific volumes of material can be analysed for

several isotopic and elemental proxies and signatures, whilst also providing absolute

chronological information. The LA-ICP-MS method is limited by factors that include the

1392 where age uncertainties of greater than 3-4% are of benefit. For applications where high 1393 precision (i.e. <1%) is required, such as calibration of palaeoclimate records or of

1394 evolutionary change, then follow-up analysis with ID is the only method that can potentially

achieve the necessary precision. The future of the method in terms of accuracy and

precision requires well characterised (by Isotope Dilution methods) reference materials

covering a range of carbonate matrices. The range of studies published over the last five

years (2014 to 2019) have revealed a wide array of geoscience applications that are both

amenable to, and benefit from, LA-ICP-MS U-Pb carbonate geochronology. 1399

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1407 Ireland and the Environmental Protection Agency, Ireland. HD acknowledges Swedish 1408 Research Council grant (2017-05186) and Formas grant (2017-00766). 1409 1410 1411 1412 14. Appendix 1413 14.1. Implications of age data 1414 The focus of this paper is not on the meaning of the age data presented, or its implications 1415 for faulting or fluid-flow; however, we provide brief information for interested readers. 1416 1417 14.2. Example A and D - Variscan-related veins in the Northumberland Basin 1418 The age of ca. 287 Ma for the dated calcite crystal can be linked to deformation of the host 1419 rock based on the vein structure. The calcite is taken from a planar fracture forming on the 1420 axial plane of a small fold that has accommodated bedding-plane sliding (Fig. 8). The 1421 fracture is filled with calcite mineralisation of the stretched vein type (Bons et al., 2012), and 1422 that is interpreted to have formed soon after opening of the vein, and synchronous with 1423 deformation. The age of ca. 287 Ma broadly overlaps with the intrusion of the Whin Sill (ca. 1424 297 Ma; Heaman pers. comm. within De Paola et al., 2005), and is therefore compatible 1425 with the model of partitioned transpression of De Paola et al. (2005), who suggest that 1426 deformation was synchronous with the Whin Sill intrusion. 1427 Example B - Faroe Island brittle faults 1428 14.3. 1429 The significant of the Eocene ages has been discussed by Roberts & Walker (2016). This 1430 paper was the first to demonstrate the applicability of LA-ICP-MS U-Pb carbonate 1431 geochronology to dating brittle structures in the upper crust. 1432 1433 14.4. Example C - Sellafield fracture mineralisation 1434 Sample 877 was collected from the modern-day saline transition zone between the upper 1435 fresh groundwater system and the deeper saline basinal-basement groundwater system, at a depth of -635 m OD within the St Bees Sandstone Group (Triassic) in Sellafield borehole 1436 1437 BH10A (equivalent to sample B697 and D750: Appendix Table S2, Milodowski et al., 2018). 1438 Externally, this calcite exhibits a "nailhead" (i.e. c-axis flattened) crystal habit (Figure 10).

However, detailed petrographic analysis reveals it has a complex growth history:





1440 comprising of cores of c-axis-elongated calcite characteristic of the deeper saline 1441 groundwater that are syntaxially-overgrown by later equant and c-axis flattened calcite 1442 characteristic of the overlying fresh groundwater zone (Milodowski et al., 2018). The U-Pb 1443 analyses all come from within the saline groundwater zone type calcite core region (rather 1444 than the later freshwater-type overgrowth that has extremely low U). 1445 1446 Late-stage (generation "ME9") calcite is a characteristic feature of the present-day fracture-1447 controlled deep groundwater system in the Sellafield area of the west Cumbrian coastal 1448 plain (Milodowski et al., 2018). The resulting age suggests that ME9 calcite growth in the 1449 sampled fracture was initiated in the late Miocene, and has been preserved (or at least 1450 partially preserved until the present-day). The implication is that the modern groundwater 1451 system was developed following regional Miocene uplift and younger groundwater recharge 1452 relating to glaciations and/or uplift of the region, have not led to complete re-precipitation of 1453 fracture-filling calcite, with calcite precipitation continuing to the present-day. Taken 1454 together with other petrographic, stable isotope, strontium isotope, fluid inclusion, 1455 microchemical analyses and whole-crystal U-Th age dating, the age data support the 1456 interpretation that despite evidence for glacial recharge, the geochemical conditions (e.g. 1457 pH, Eh) have remained stable over this period at potential repository depths (cf. Milodowski 1458 et al., 2018). 1459 1460 Example E and F – Vein sets of the Bighorn Basin, Wyoming 14.5. 1461 These samples are from vein sets in the sedimentary cover of the Bighorn Basin. These 1462 samples are part of a larger study that analysed the timing of deformation in the foreland of 1463 the Sevier and Laramide orogenies, and how this deformation propagated in time and 1464 space (Beaudoin et al., 2018). Sample BH11 is related to Laramide deformation, whereas 1465 sample BM18 is related to Sevier deformation. 1466 1467 14.6. Example G - Moab fault 1468 This sample comprises multiple thin (1 to 5 mm wide) veins collected from the footwall 1469 damage zone of the Moab Fault in southeast Utah. Regional deformation is primarily driven 1470 by salt tectonics (Gutierrez, 2004), and salt dissolution has produced up to one km of offset 1471 within the sedimentary rocks along the Moab Fault (Foxford et al., 1996). Fault zone 1472 deformation was closely associated with fluid flow and carbonate cementation (Eichhubl et





- 1473 al., 2009; Hodson et al., 2016). Ar-Ar ages from clay fault gauge range from 63 to 43 Ma
- 1474 and are interpreted to record the final episodes of faulting and fracture generation (Pevear
- 1475 et al., 1997; Solum et al., 2005). Our new lower intercept age of 22 Ma is imprecise, but
- 1476 clearly younger than the early-Tertiary ages. This suggests that circulating fluids continued
- 1477 to move along the fault zone long after the cessation of fault related deformation.

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