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Evaluating the precision of Pb isotope measurement by mass spectrometry

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Abstract

Analytical precision for Pb isotope measurement by thermal and plasma source mass spectrometry has improved by an order of magnitude in the last 20 years. Much of this improvement relates to a shift away from the external method of correcting instrumental mass fractionation - where samples are assumed to fractionate to the same extent as an average value of a working measurement standard. Implementation of a variety of techniques, including thallium spiking, sample-standard bracketing and double/triple spiking has provided more robust methods of fractionation correction. Isotope laboratories use one or more of these procedures, but an assessment of the measurement precision and relative merits of each system is needed to determine which is the most appropriate for the purpose. This study reviews each of these methods and provides a comparison based on an extensive analytical record covering 18 years, and using a variety of mass spectrometers. As two or three of the methods have been applied to most measurements, direct and robust comparisons can be made between correction protocols. In particular the effects of sample purity and variable sample matrices on measurement precision and accuracy have been examined. Data acquired from the measurement of rock, soil and metal are used to provide a statistical comparison of the analytical uncertainty of each technique, guiding the choice of the most appropriate method. Isotope standard data acquired over this period is also compared with

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3 other high-precision laboratories to generate a set of concordant working ratios for the NIST SRM

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5 981 Pb standard: $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 16.9412$; $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 15.4988$; $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 36.7233$.
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1. Introduction

Three radioactive decay chains stemming from ^{238}U , ^{235}U and ^{232}Th generate the radiogenic isotopes of lead: ^{206}Pb , ^{207}Pb and ^{208}Pb respectively. When combined with the non-radiogenic ^{204}Pb , these systems provide a suite of isotope ratios that describe the time-integrated record of U/Pb and Th/Pb in a sample. Because U, Th and Pb are partitioned into natural materials in different ways each lead isotope ratio can independently vary according to when the segregation occurred. For example continental crust generally has a higher $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ compared to ocean crust because continental material has had a higher U/Pb ratio for a long period of Earth history. However, ocean crust exposed to seawater and hydrothermal alteration commonly acquires high uranium content relative to lead. A product of this high U/Pb is a characteristically radiogenic $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ relative to unaltered ocean crust.

Superimposed on this geological diversity the effective isotopic composition can vary according to the precision and accuracy of the lead isotope measurement. A number of potential sources can affect the quality of a Pb isotope analysis including: i) contamination with lead derived from environmental sources during sample collection, sample preparation, chemical refining and sample introduction to the mass spectrometer; ii) bias caused by differences between the sample matrix relative to the lead isotope standard: i.e. non-spectroscopic matrix effects; iii) bias and interference generated by mass spectrometry. Of these issues, contamination can be effectively negated by suitable collection, handling and preparation protocols. This involves the removal of metals and silicates in sample processing, and the exclusion of atmospheric and procedural contamination by way of a clean preparation and measurement laboratories and sub-boiled/ultra-purified reagents. Equalising samples and standards can be achieved by isolation of Pb from the sample matrix. Commonly this is done by multiple passes of the sample in an HBr solution through anion exchange chromatography which can provide suitable purification.

As the contamination and sample refining aspects of analysis can be controlled, it is mass spectrometry that has provided the greater challenge and presents opportunities to improve the precision and accuracy of Pb isotope data. Combining multiple Faraday cup detectors with sector field mass dispersion has been the foundation for high-precision isotope measurement since the early 1980's. Indeed, using this detection arrangement, the precision of isotope systems such as $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ and $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ ($\sim \pm 0.002\%$) has not dramatically improved since this time. Ratios such as $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ can theoretically be measured to the same level of precision as Sr and Nd. However, the

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3 lack of a non-radiogenic Pb isotope pair means that instrumental mass fractionation cannot be
4 directly constrained during a measurement. Consequently, the precision of Pb by thermal
5 ionization mass spectrometry (TIMS) was conventionally limited to estimations of how mass
6 fractionation changed during measurement and by assuming samples were fractionated by the
7 same factor as standards. Laboratories based their measurement uncertainty on the reproducibility
8 of standards which generally provided an optimistic view of precision (e.g. $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} \pm 0.052\% ^1$;
9 $\pm 0.04\% ^2$).

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16 A step change in the precision of Pb isotope measurement occurred with the re-invention of
17 double spiking and the development of multi-collector inductively coupled mass spectrometry
18 (MC-ICP-MS). Double spiking was first devised in the 1960's-70's as a solution to the problem of
19 how to measure the mass fractionation of Pb isotopes ^{3,4}. But due to problems including
20 differential blanks between the two required measurements, the technique was not widely utilised.
21 However, in the late 1990's ^{5,6} the technique was promoted as improving precision by greater than
22 five times relative to conventional TIMS Pb analysis. At the same time MC-ICP-MS brought relative
23 stability to within-run mass fractionation, and allowed fractionation to be equated between
24 different elements. Like double spiking, this promised a similar level of improvement in precision,
25 but with the advantages of measurement via solution and more rapid analysis.

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34 With these advances in instrumentation and techniques, it is good to appreciate how the resulting
35 high-precision data can be used and what limits realistic estimates of repeatability could impose on
36 interpretations. Tabulated numerical data is obligatory, but what is the most appropriate way to
37 visualise high-precision data? What types of trend are produced by correlated measurement
38 uncertainties in high precision data?

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43 An example data set of basaltic lavas from the Reykjanes Ridge is shown in Figure 1. These samples
44 were initially analysed using rigorous clean laboratory and TIMS analytical protocols, but externally
45 corrected for mass fractionation assuming all samples are offset by the same amount ($f = c$: see
46 section 2.1), which was equivalent to the average quantity for the reference standard ^{7,8}. The same
47 sample set was then re-measured on the same instrument using the double spike correction
48 procedure ⁹. The $f = c$ corrected data is coincident with the double spike data, suggesting that at
49 least their measurement trueness is similar. However, the precision of $f = c$ is lamentable as the
50 samples are dispersed in a fairly random cloud. In contrast, the equivalent double spike data define
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3 a clear linear trend. Furthermore, dividing the double spike data according to geographical
4 distribution reveals that the northern and southern regions form discrete sub-trends.
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7 In this study we evaluate comprehensive datasets of NIST SRM 981 Pb isotope standard together
8 with sample measurements, acquired on TIMS and MC-ICP-MS. These data have been generated
9 by a range of users of the isotope facilities in the School of Ocean and Earth Science at the
10 University of Southampton over a period of 18 years. We also present double spike Pb isotope data
11 for the NIST SRM 981 standard measured at the Geological Survey of Japan using the same double
12 spike. Comparisons are made between the overall precision of the main mass fractionation
13 correction techniques: $f = c$, double spike, Tl-spiking and sample-standard bracketing. Using these
14 data we also explore the potential for recognising the form of uncertainty-generated arrays in
15 sample datasets, and examine the potential to increase precision further by sample grouping and
16 repetition.
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2. Correction of instrumental mass fractionation

Many isotope systems used in geochronometry, such as Sr, Nd and Hf, have at least one pair of non-radiogenic isotopes. These pairs provide the opportunity to measure a ratio with an assumed constant value, or at least with a limited and constrained mass-related discrimination. Comparing the measured and assumed values of this ratio enables a precise calculation of instrumental mass fractionation (also termed mass discrimination or bias). In most cases this bias is a function of the difference in mass of the isotope pair. For example in the neodymium system the instrumental mass fractionation is calculated by measuring $^{146}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ (with a two mass unit difference) and relating this to the conventional value of the ratio, 0.7219. This calculated factor can then be proportioned for a mass difference of one for the radiogenic isotope ratio of interest: $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$. The key limiting factor in measuring lead isotope ratios by mass spectrometry is the lack of two non-radiogenic isotope ratios: only ^{204}Pb is unradiogenic. Consequently, other methods of mass fractionation correction are used to produce accurate Pb isotope ratios, and are outlined below.

2.1 Constant f correction

The lack of two non-radiogenic lead isotopes requires an alternative method of estimating the instrumental mass fractionation. One simple technique is to measure the ratios for an isotope standard, compare them to the accepted values, and calculate a typical bias factor for the instrument. This bias, or mass fractionation factor (f) can then be applied to separate determinations of unknown, sample isotope ratios. In the case of Pb, this is proportioned to correct any of the isotope ratios according to their mass difference. Essentially this technique assumes the mass fractionation or mass fractionation for an instrument induces a constant offset from the true value. This constant f correction ($f = c$) has been used extensively by Pb isotope laboratories prior to 2000 (e.g. ^{2,10}) and is also used for U isotopes where anthropogenic changes may have disturbed the natural ratio (e.g. ^{11,12}). Although superseded by other techniques (see below), it is still used in a number of studies (e.g. ^{13,14}).

A number of assumptions are inherent to the $f = c$ technique; the foremost being that the value of f is the same for samples and the pure Pb isotope standard. This may not be the case as the sample purity is dependent on how well Pb has been isolated from the matrix elements during laboratory processing; usually by ion exchange chromatography. With TIMS analysis the presence of

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3 pernicious elements such as Zn in the analyte may suppress ionization of Pb¹⁵. Typically a TIMS
4 measurement during the initial stages of ionization produces an isotope ratio that has a light bias
5 relative to the true value. Progressive measurement takes the level of mass fractionation closer to,
6 and eventually heavier than, the true value¹⁶. Standards, with high purity and frequently a higher
7 concentration of Pb, produce strong ion beams at relatively low temperatures (<1080°C).
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9 Consequently, measurements are acquired during the early phase of ionization, and have lighter
10 isotope ratios (e.g. a low measured ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb) compared to samples with more complex matrices.
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12 If a high level of suppression is present during ionization of a sample, then the energy required to
13 ionize lead is increased. As a similar level of ion current is required to make an accurate
14 determination on a sample as for a standard, the consequential high temperatures result in the
15 measured isotope ratios rapidly approaching greater levels of mass fractionation – i.e. effectively
16 heavier isotope ratios. As such, an $f = c$ correction to a typical Pb isotope standard value could
17 result in an over correction of the sample measurement. Potentially this is a source of a bias in the
18 Pb isotope data where sample could have heavier isotope ratios than their accurate values.

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20 Some evidence for this can be seen in Figure 1 where $f = c$ data for samples also measured by the
21 double spike are linked by tie-lines. If the double spike analyses are taken as accurate, the $f = c$
22 data predominantly lie to higher ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁴Pb and slightly higher ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb: the linked analyses
23 effectively extending along a fractionation vector.

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25 Aside from the potential inaccuracy due to matrix differences between samples and standards, the
26 $f = c$ technique has an inherent imprecision caused by the single correction factor. Laboratories
27 that used the $f = c$ typically adjust measured values to heavier isotope ratios using factors (or c
28 value) between 0.08% and 0.15%.amu⁻¹. The particular factor chosen is calculated as an average
29 fractionation level for a number of measurements of the NIST SRM 981 Pb isotope standard.
30 Estimation of the precision of any Pb isotope measurement is consequently based on the standard
31 deviation (usually at the 95% confidence level) of the NIST SRM 981 determinations that make up
32 this average. However, as an estimate of reproducibility this deviation does not include the
33 likelihood that real sample measurements may include a much wider range of fractionation
34 behavior¹⁶. Consequently, many of the quoted precision values for a series of unknowns from a
35 particular laboratory may significantly underestimate the true reproducibility.

2.2 Double spiking, triple spiking and 2 x double spiking

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3 A technique to accurately measure the instrumental mass fractionation of Pb isotopes was initially
4 developed in the late 1960's as a mathematical procedure. This involved a pair of artificially
5 enhanced or spiked isotopes added to part of the sample and measured separately from the pure
6 sample – the “double spike” procedure e.g. ^{3,17} etc. Combining the data from the spiked and
7 unspiked analyses allows the amount of fractionation in the unspiked fraction to be deconvolved.
8 However, the technique did not develop into a routine analytical tool as the results were commonly
9 hampered by significant interferences from laboratory and procedural blank contributions ^{18,19}
10 which outweighed the advantages of the double spike correction. Consequently, the technique
11 stagnated and was not used by most Pb isotope laboratories. However, Woodhead et al.,⁵
12 presented a re-assessment of the double spike technique based on the use of a ²⁰⁷Pb-²⁰⁴Pb spike,
13 and demonstrated that ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb could be reproduced to better than 0.02% (2RSD) using a TIMS.
14 Subsequently, Galer ²⁰ evaluated the ideal spike-sample mixture levels using a ²⁰⁷Pb-²⁰⁶Pb-²⁰⁴Pb
15 triple spike and Thirlwall ¹⁶ used a ²⁰⁷Pb-²⁰⁴Pb double spike to provide a comprehensive breakdown
16 of the optimal analytical procedures by TIMS. Both Galer and Thirlwall reported Pb isotope ratios
17 for the NIST SRM 981 standard using their poly-spikes.
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22 Towards the end of the last century high precision isotope ratio mass spectrometry was advanced
23 by the joining of an inductively coupled plasma (ICP) ion source with a multi-collector
24 measurement array. For many elements, such as Hf, Nd, U and Pu (e.g. ^{21,22,23,24,25,26,27}), this
25 provided an order of magnitude improvement in ionization efficiency relative to TIMS and
26 consequently enabled the precise determination of isotope ratios on much smaller sample sizes
27 (<30ng).
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32 More recently, the double spike method has been used in conjunction with MC-ICP-MS ^{28,29,30,31,32}.
33 These studies demonstrate that the double spike is just as effective at correcting for the isotopically
34 heavy, and ~ 8 times greater, mass fractionation of the plasma ion source as a TIMS ion source.
35 There are however, a set of disadvantages to ICP-based determination of Pb isotopes. Interference
36 from background, sample memory and isobaric ²⁰⁴Hg are part of the scenery and can be reduced,
37 but not eliminated, by rigorous cleaning, effective correction procedures and using large Pb ion
38 beams (e.g. 1×10^{-10} A ²⁰⁸Pb). Efficiency, or ion yield, is currently an advantage of TIMS over MC-ICP-
39 MS. Typically, plasma instruments in conjunction with desolvating nebulisers can achieve a Pb yield
40 around 0.5-1.5% (100 x ions Pb counted/atoms Pb used), whereas TIMS can achieve 2-10% ^{33,34}.
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43 However the difference in efficiency is narrowing with further advances in aspiration, desolvation,
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3 expansion chamber pumping and skimmer/sample cone design. Sensitivity of the Thermo Neptune
4 MC-ICP-MS with jet cone is currently up to $2800\text{V}\cdot\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}\Sigma\text{Pb}$, which equates to $\sim 3.5\%$ efficiency,
5 but this can be effectively improved by lowering the noise on signals produced by the ion
6 detection system by using pre-amplifier with a highly-resistive register of $10^{12}\ \Omega$ (e.g. ³⁵). Further
7 improvements in the measurement of small ion beams – ^{204}Pb in the lead system - are impending
8 with the development of $10^{13}\ \Omega$ resistors ³⁶.

14 Achieving higher ion yields, reducing backgrounds and improving detector response is of particular
15 importance where only limited quantities of Pb (<5ng) are available, but high precision analysis is
16 required. Double or triple spiking using $^{206/207}\text{Pb}$ - ^{204}Pb requires that two separate runs are made on
17 TIMS or MC-ICP-MS. As a matter of course, this increases the amount of sample required to attain
18 suitable signal levels for the unspiked and spiked runs by $\sim 20\%$. However, if a ^{202}Pb - ^{205}Pb spike is
19 used the mass fractionation of the inherent sample Pb can be calculated within the single
20 measurement ^{37, 34}. The key weakness of both ^{202}Pb - ^{205}Pb and $^{206/207}\text{Pb}$ - ^{204}Pb spiking protocols is the
21 low-abundance of ^{204}Pb . Even with improvements in amplifier technology, the statistical counting
22 limit of ^{204}Pb is the controlling factor when analysing small quantities of Pb. $^{206/207}\text{Pb}$ - ^{204}Pb poly-
23 spikes improve the abundance of ^{204}Pb in the spiked run, but it remains in its natural abundance
24 ($\sim 1.4\%$) in the unspiked run. This issue was tackled by designing a spiking system using two double
25 spikes, ^{205}Pb - ^{204}Pb and ^{207}Pb - ^{204}Pb , and developing a deconvolution of the mass fractionation from
26 two spiked runs ³⁶. As ^{204}Pb signals are boosted by a factor of ~ 10 in both measurements, the
27 uncertainties introduced as a result of low abundance are significantly reduced. Kuritani and
28 Nakamura³⁶ report equivalent precision for 1ng Pb sample size to their typical >10ng TIMS loading.

2.3 ^{203}Tl - ^{205}Tl spiking

46 An additional benefit of MC-ICP-MS is that it produces comparable mass fractionation values for
47 elements of similar mass. This has the advantage of enabling the mass fractionation calculated for
48 one element to be used to simultaneously correct the fractionation in another element. Thallium,
49 with non-radiogenic isotopes ^{203}Tl and ^{205}Tl , provides an opportunity to correct the mass
50 fractionation of Pb within the same multi-collector acquisition ^{38, 39, 40}. The same type of correction
51 procedure also works in reverse, in that if Pb of known isotope composition is added to the Tl
52 isolated from a sample, then any natural variation in $^{205}\text{Tl}/^{203}\text{Tl}$ can be quantified ^{41, 42}.

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3 An advantage of thallium spiking over double spiking is that as Tl and Pb isotopes are non-isobaric;
4 only one mass spectrometric run is required. Analytical time and also the amount of Pb consumed
5 in the measurement are reduced as a consequence. However, a number of studies have concluded
6 that Pb isotope determinations using Tl-spiking may have significant limitations. There is the
7 potential for non-spectral matrix element interferences to influence the mass fractionation
8 relationship between Tl and Pb ^{43,44,45}. In addition, it is recognized that Tl and Pb may be
9 differentially affected by redox conditions when combined in solution, inducing a reversible Tl
10 isotopic fractionation ⁴⁵. Such complexity in the Tl-Pb relationship is a potential limiting factor, and
11 consequently some studies have determined that the precision of the Tl-spiking method is
12 considerably worse than expected given the signal levels ^{28,30}. However, other studies use more
13 complex fractionation relationships ⁴⁶ or solution optimization ⁴¹ in an attempt to achieve higher
14 precision data.
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24 **2.4 Sample-standard bracketing**

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27 In systems where the number of available isotopes is limited and double spiking is not possible
28 (e.g. Cu, Zn), the stability of mass fractionation that is characteristic of MC-ICP-MS instruments can
29 be used to externally correct fractionation bias. Periodically measuring an isotopic reference
30 material and interpolating the bias to intervening samples can avoid the complications incurred by
31 extrapolation to another element, like from Tl to Pb. However, it can potentially be applied where
32 the sample and standard matrices are identical ⁴⁷ but may require pre-screening of samples to
33 verify that the chemical purification has been effective. Bracketing can be used in tandem with
34 other methods of correction such as Tl-spiking ⁴⁸. As with Tl-spiking, only a single sample run is
35 required, and consequently the quantity of Pb is lower relative to double spiking. However, mass
36 spectrometer usage time can be increased depending on the number of intercalated standards.
37 This, in turn, may depend upon the stability of the mass fractionation during the course of the
38 analytical period.
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51 **3. Experimental**

52 **3.1 Sample preparation and chemical isolation**

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56 A variety of sample types are measured for lead isotopes in the University of Southampton isotope
57 laboratories, including soil, metals, hydrothermal fluids and archaeological artifacts. However, the
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3 dominant material is rock. Preparation for analysis of water-cleaned solid samples is initiated by
4 crushing using a fly-press. Material is contained within thick polyethylene bags to ensure the
5 impact plates of the press do not make contact with the sample. The crush fraction is then graded
6 using a Teflon sieve set to isolate chips between 0.5-1.0mm. This size fraction is then rinsed
7 repeatedly with 18M Ω water, before ultrasonic agitation in water for 10min. Samples are dried in an
8 oven overnight at 80°C. Clean chips are then picked under a binocular microscope to remove
9 altered or extraneous material.

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16 Chemical purification of Pb is completed in class 100 clean laboratories, using reagents that have
17 been screened to ensure negligible Pb content. Silicate samples are dissolved for >24 hours in
18 ~4ml of an HF-HNO₃ 4:1 mixture. Isolation of Pb from the matrix is achieved by taking the
19 dissolved residue up in 1M HBr and passing through AG1-X8 200-400 mesh anion exchange resin
20 (Eichrom). One or two stages of this chromatography are employed, depending on the
21 measurement protocol to be used. Final recovery of Pb from the column is via 6M HCl. Procedural
22 blanks are generally <75pg Pb assuming two column passes.

3.2 Thermal ionization mass spectrometry (TIMS)

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33 In the period 1996-2009 lead isotope measurements in the University of Southampton were
34 conducted on one of two VG Sector 54 TIMS (instrument "Bob"), equipped with seven faraday
35 detectors. Prior to 1998 samples were loaded onto zone-refined Re filaments with 0.5M H₃PO₄ and
36 silica gel. Following evaporation, the filament temperature was raised to a dull-red glow in air to
37 oxidise the sample load. Data was acquired as integrations of 100 x 5sec with an ion current of 5-10
38 x10⁻¹²A Pb (equivalent to ~0.6V of ²⁰⁸Pb measured across a 10¹² Ω resistor) in static multi-collection
39 mode. Data acquisition was restricted to rhenium filament temperatures between 1050°C and
40 1180°C. Measurements were adjusted for mass fractionation using a linear-law ($f = c$) correction
41 with a value of 0.12%.amu⁻¹, based on the average value obtained for NIST SRM 981.

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Later Pb isotope measurements (2001-2009) on this TIMS were corrected for mass fractionation
using the Southampton-Brest Lead ²⁰⁷Pb-²⁰⁴Pb double spike (SBL74). This spike was formulated in
to provide minimized uncertainty propagation with sample isotope compositions in the range
²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb = 14 to 30. SBL74 is calibrated relative to a conventional reference value
²⁰⁸Pb/²⁰⁶Pb=1.00016 for NIST SRM 982⁴⁹ and has a composition of ²⁰⁴Pb/²⁰⁶Pb = 9.2317,

$^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb} = 36.6450$ and $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb} = 1.8586$. SBL74 is currently used for Pb isotopic determinations by more than 10 laboratories around the world.

TIMS analysis acquired $^{20x}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ ratios on two filament loads: a "natural" run with sample only and a sample-spike mixture run. Samples were loaded as for the earlier measurements, but using the silicic acid-phosphoric acid emitter defined by Gerstenberger and Haase⁵⁰. The optimum mixture of sample and spike was calculated as $^{204}\text{Pb}_{\text{Sample}}/^{204}\text{Pb}_{\text{Spike}} (q) = 0.09$, with a tolerance range of 0.03 – 0.65; within which negligible uncertainty magnification was observed. Ratios on both the sample and mixture runs were measured using a multi-dynamic routine similar to Thirlwall¹⁶. In the Southampton protocol both the natural and mixture runs included an initial measurement block of 20 ratios with $>0.9 \times 10^{-11}\text{A } ^{208}\text{Pb}$ to provide a $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ value to which dynamic results of each run could be normalized. Final $^{20x}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ ratios for both the natural and mixture runs were integrated from 3 blocks of 20 x 5sec. integrations with Pb ion currents of $\sim 4 \times 10^{-11}\text{A Pb}$, which is around five times more signal than the pre-1998 measurements. As with the earlier non-double spike measurements, rhenium filament temperatures were kept between 1050°C and 1180°C. Mass fractionation was calculated via the double spike using a power law correction following the routine of Johnson and Beard⁵¹. Results for the natural (unspiked) run were also corrected for mass fractionation using $f = c (0.14\%.\text{amu}^{-1})$, to allow a direct comparison to be made with the double spike corrected values. As the latter can be assumed to equate to the "true" isotope ratios of unknown samples they can be used to rigorously examine the actual spread of $f = c$ corrected data. For comparison with another laboratory, lead isotope data for the NIST 981 standard are presented from a VG Sector 54 instrument at the Geological Survey of Japan. These data were acquired using the same SBL74 double spike, chemical separation and loading protocols as post-2000 Southampton. Measurements were made in static mode as an integration of 100 ratios.

3.3 Multi-collector inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (MC-ICP-MS)

In addition to the TIMS, between 2000-2004 Pb isotopes were also made using a Micromass IsoProbe MC-ICP-MS instrument equipped with 12 Faraday and 5 ion-counting detectors. Immediately prior to measurement, sample solutions were split into a natural fraction, spiked with TI (NIST 997) to give $\sim 0.4 \times 10^{-11}\text{A } ^{205}\text{TI}$, and an aliquot spiked with the SBL74 double spike. Samples were run as natural/TI and DS spiked batches, with a full cleaning of the sample introduction

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3 system between. This significantly reduced the possibility of double spike contamination of the
4 non-double spiked run. Both spiked and natural/Tl fractions were introduced to the instrument in
5 0.4M HNO₃ via a Cetac MCN6000 desolvation unit in conjunction with a 100µl.min⁻¹ nebuliser. Data
6 was acquired statically in the Faraday detectors as 3 blocks of 20 integrations of 5sec from total Pb
7 ion currents of 0.5x10⁻¹⁰A (>3V ²⁰⁸Pb across 10¹² Ω). Measurements were corrected using the power
8 law deconvolution of Johnson and Beard⁵¹. Other methodology and standards data for the
9 IsoProbe measurements are provided in Ishizuka et al.,²⁹.

16 Pb isotope measurement by MC-ICP-MS was switched to a Thermo Neptune instrument from 2008
17 onwards. Sample solutions were aspirated using an Aridus II desolvating nebulizer with an uptake
18 of 100µl.min⁻¹. As with the IsoProbe protocol above, a natural fraction and double spiked fraction
19 were run in discrete batches, with rigorous cleaning of the Aridus II between. All samples and
20 standards were preceded by a 5min wash, with an additional 0.6M HNO₃ blank measured using the
21 same 8 minute acquisition procedure used for the samples. The natural run was routinely spiked
22 with Tl (NIST 997) to give ~0.5V ²⁰⁵Tl, and hence enabling a Tl mass fractionation correction to be
23 acquired simultaneously with the double spike corrected data. Isotope ratios on the Neptune were
24 measured in static multi-collector mode with 40-60 x 4.2sec integrations, using total Pb ion
25 currents of >2x10⁻¹⁰A (>12V ²⁰⁸Pb across 10¹¹ Ω). Overall ion yields are typically 1.4% (an effective
26 sensitivity of ~1100V.µg.ml⁻¹ ΣPb). Mass fractionation was calculated via the double spike using an
27 iterative exponential law correction modified after the power law method of Woodhead et al.⁵.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Assessment of Pb isotope results

45 A summary of the Pb isotope data and associated measurement precision from TIMS and MC-ICP-
46 MS are presented in Table 1. These include data for the four different mass fractionation correction
47 techniques: $f = c$, Tl-spike, double spike and sample-standard bracketing. For comparison, the $f = c$
48 and sample-standard data are corrected to the same NIST SRM 981 poly-spike average values
49 $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 16.9412$, $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 15.4988$, $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 36.7233$ (see below), and Tl-spike is
50 corrected relative to $^{205}\text{Tl}/^{203}\text{Tl} = 2.3885$ for the NIST SRM 997. This value is higher than the certified
51 ratio of $^{205}\text{Tl}/^{203}\text{Tl} = 2.3871 \pm 10^{-52}$ and is estimated as the Tl ratio which best reproduces the poly-
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3 spike average value of NIST SRM 981 from $n=50$ measurements using an exponential law function
4 to correct for mass discrimination.
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7 It should be noted that the $f = c$ and TI-spike ratio data for NIST SRM 981 are generated by
8 calibrating to the poly-spike average values for NIST SRM 981. As such, the Pb isotope ratios
9 presented in Table 1 for these measurement techniques do not provide an assessment of the
10 measurement accuracy or an estimate of the measurement trueness of these methods. However,
11 the measurement precision for isotope ratios produced by the $f = c$ and TI-spike techniques does
12 reflect the closeness of values produced by replication.
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18 Uncertainty data in Table 1 are quoted as twice the standard deviation (2sd) on each ratio. Where
19 the isotope ratios are an average compiled from a series of data sets, each of which is itself an
20 average of a number of measurements, the uncertainty is expressed as $2sd/\sqrt{n}$.
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24 Additional information on the average 2sd per mass unit difference and expressed as parts per
25 million ($2sd.amu^{-1}$ ppm) is provided in the supplementary information in Table S1.
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28 Figure 2 shows the co-variation between Pb isotope ratios for NIST SRM 981, corrected for mass
29 fractionation by three separate techniques on two instruments. As the TIMS $f = c$ analyses have
30 large variance relative to the other techniques shown in Figure 2, the scale for the TIMS double
31 spike, MC-ICP-MS double spike and MC-ICP-MS TI-spike (lower three rows of plots) is considerably
32 magnified. The box shown on each of the TIMS $f = c$ plots demarcates the length of the axes of the
33 magnified scale. Trends are also defined that extend from the average NIST SRM 981 value along
34 mass fractionation vectors and, where appropriate, reflect variation in the isotope ratio caused by
35 imprecision in the measurement of the minor ^{204}Pb isotope. An uncertainty ellipse at the 95%
36 confidence level is calculated from each co-variation and plotted parametrically with the standard
37 data. These ellipses should be considered as reflecting a minimum estimate of the true distribution.
38 As two processes, ^{204}Pb uncertainty and mass fractionation⁵³, can affect isotope ratio pairs, it
39 should be noted that the calculation of covariance and regression values for these ellipses may not
40 equate a simple relationship between two correlated normal distributions.
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51 52 53 54 55 56 **4.2 TIMS $f = c$ corrected data** 57 58 59 60

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3 TIMS $f = c$ analyses of NIST SRM 981 are separated into two analytical periods as shown in the
4 upper most plots in Figure 2: pre-2000 and 2001-2009. Pre-2000 data was measured as unspiked
5 analyses only, while the later data are the unspiked runs of the double spike analytical pairs.
6
7 Average Pb ratios of all the measured data for the standard have then been used to calculate the f -
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10 value per amu relative to the poly-spike average (see below and Table 1). This fractionation
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12 constant has then been applied to each measurement to effectively centre the data set on the
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14 poly-spike average while retaining the relative distribution of each analysis. An observation that can
15
16 be made from the $f = c$ plots in Figure 2 is that pre-2000 data (green filled symbols) has a more
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18 limited variance relative to 2001-2009 (blue symbols). It also appears that the scatter in this early
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20 data is aligned with the ^{204}Pb uncertainty vector, which is particularly apparent in $\Delta^{208}\text{Pb}-^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$
21
22 and $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}-^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ space. 2001-2009 data has a greater spread and is clearly distributed
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24 parallel to the mass fractionation vector. Table 1 defines the scatter of this data as around
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26 700ppm.amu.⁻¹, which equates to an uncertainty of ± 0.025 ($\pm 0.15\%$) on $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$.

27
28 The change in the data distribution between the two periods is likely to stem from the differing
29
30 analytical protocols used. The early period typically acquired data from $\sim 16\text{mV}$ ^{204}Pb ion beams
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32 (0.6V ^{208}Pb), while the unspiked runs of the double spike protocol demanded $\sim 80\text{mV}$ ^{204}Pb ion
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34 beams (3V ^{208}Pb). The smaller ion beams resulting in more scatter ^{204}Pb uncertainty, while the larger
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36 beams of the later period suppressed this facet. However, the increased energy required to
37
38 generate the large beams may have resulted in a greater range of fractionation.

39
40 Prior to 2000, the majority of studies publishing lead isotope ratios used the $f = c$ correction, with
41
42 the reproducibility of NIST SRM 981 used to provide an estimate of the measurement precision of
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44 samples. However, for reasons outlined above, and by Thirlwall¹⁶, real sample measurements have
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46 the potential to exhibit a greater range of fractionation than the ideal solution isotope standard.
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48 This can be effectively quantified by examining the range of mass fractionation observed in actual
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50 samples, which can be calculated for the unspiked runs of the double spike analytical pair. As the
51
52 uncertainty of double spike fractionation factors are more than an order of magnitude smaller than
53
54 $f = c$, expansion of the uncertainties through to each sample is calculated to be negligible. In the
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56 2000-2009 period, 834 samples were analysed by TIMS using double spike, and the calculated mass
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58 fractionation for these are shown as a histogram is in Figure 3. These data are also compared with
59
60 the mass fractionation distribution of the standard data covering this period and pre-2000. The
sample distribution is slightly skewed to higher mass, and has a much wider variance than the

standards ((2sd of 0.00137 vs 0.00075 f .amu⁻¹). Standard data is also skewed, but the average, median and mode are significantly higher than the sample data.

There are two aspects of the distributions in Figure 3 which have consequences for sample data corrected by $f = c$. Firstly, samples typically are fractionated $\sim 0.012\%$.amu⁻¹ less than the standards used to calculate f . Following correction by this f -factor, this offset translates into a typical inaccuracy of sample isotope ratios of 270ppm for ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb and 540ppm for ²⁰⁸Pb/²⁰⁴Pb, i.e. an offset to lighter ratios by ~ 0.005 and ~ 0.020 respectively. Secondly, any estimates of reproducibility based solely on the frequency distribution of standard measurements are likely to underestimate the variance of the sample distribution by a factor of ~ 2 . This means, for example, the true reproducibility of ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb would be ± 0.047 and ²⁰⁸Pb/²⁰⁴Pb ± 0.20 at 95% confidence. As an example, the "TIMS constant f samples" row in Table 1 shows how these uncertainties relate to NIST SRM 981 ratios.

4.3 TIMS and MC-ICP-MS double spike data

For any given parameter in Table 1, the precision of the double spike determination of standards using the Sector 54 TIMS instruments in Southampton and Tokyo are around 10x smaller than those from TIMS $f = c$ (e.g. 64-76ppm.amu⁻¹ vs. 706ppm.amu⁻¹ respectively). If the $f = c$ uncertainty is estimated from real samples, this factor rises to $\sim 20x$. In turn, MC-ICP-MS double spike measurements from the Neptune are marginally better again (51ppm.amu⁻¹) than TIMS double spike.

What is notable about the data for both TIMS and MC-ICP-MS double spike methods is that the covariance between the isotope ratio parameters appears to lie along a ²⁰⁴Pb uncertainty vector, rather than a mass fractionation vector. This MC-ICP-MS double spike data is examined in more detail in the enlarged plot shown in Figure 4. Here selected analytical time-periods have been highlighted in ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb - ²⁰⁸Pb/²⁰⁴Pb space. From the whole dataset, the long-axis of the calculated uncertainty ellipse is almost coincident with the ²⁰⁴Pb uncertainty line. When individual time-periods are considered, the data in each forms a tight linear trend which is parallel to the ²⁰⁴Pb line. Each of these trends intercepts the mass fractionation uncertainty line close to the centre of the ellipse, and roughly at its average value.

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3 This data suggests that within any given period, the double spike correction has effectively
4 removed any significant variation caused by mass fractionation. Presumably the residual
5 uncertainties are restricted to factors that particularly affect the minor isotope ^{204}Pb , such as signal-
6 to-noise ratio, baselines and peak tailing. More efficient and less noisy Faraday collector and
7 amplifier pairs in the MC-ICP-MS relative to the older-design TIMS can explain the subtle
8 differences in the extent of data scatter along the ^{204}Pb vector.
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12 On this basis future measurements protocols could produce a significant improvement in the
13 resolution of Pb double spike data if, i) standards from a particular time period are averaged, and a
14 normalising factor generated which adjusts this value to a common standard value (i.e. the poly-
15 spike average). Differences between time periods are unexplained, but could be generated by
16 changes in Faraday cup efficiencies; ii) improved low-noise, high-impedance 10^{12} - 10^{13} amplifiers
17 are deployed to reduce ^{204}Pb uncertainty. The first point would ensure accuracy and coincident
18 plotting of samples measured in different time periods, and the second would tighten the scatter
19 and constrain the length of the uncertainty ellipse.
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33 **4.4 Tl-spike correction**

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35 MC-ICP-MS Thallium corrected data are presented in the final row of Figure 2. As this data is
36 generated from Tl-spike added to the natural run of MC-ICP-MS double spike analytical pair, the
37 two measurements should provide an ideal comparison between the techniques. As such, it is
38 notable that the Tl-corrected ratios have precision around 188ppm.amu^{-1} (Table 1), which is $\sim 3\text{x}$
39 times greater than that of double spike. Distribution of the Tl-corrected data does not appear to
40 visually correlate definitively with either the ^{204}Pb or the mass fractionation vectors. However, on
41 the basis of the $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb} - ^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ and $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} - \Delta^{208}\text{Pb}$ plots, mass fractionation is the
42 dominant control on the distribution of measurement values. Theoretically, the ^{204}Pb vector
43 observed in the MC-ICP-MS double spike data (Figure 4) will be present in the same proportion in
44 the Tl-spiked data. This will then be compiled with the uncertainty produced by any defects in the
45 mass fractionation relationship between Tl and Pb, either on a long-term or within-run basis.
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55 Overall, the result of the interaction between the two resulting frequency distributions is the more
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3 steeply-aligned and oblate ellipse observed in the TI-corrected data relative to the shallower and
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5 prolate uncertainty ellipse generated by double spiking.
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8 Differences in the magnitude and distribution of TI-spiked and double-spiked data are examined
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10 further in Figure 5. These plots show the Pb isotopes of six samples of bronze taken from the
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12 Belgammel Ram; a Hellenistic-Roman Proembolion found off the Coast of Libya ⁵⁴. Bronze samples
13
14 were processed via anion exchange to isolate Pb, before the isotopic composition of each was
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16 measured by double spiking, with the natural run of the double spike pair also spiked with TI. As
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18 such, both techniques were deployed from single mass spectrometer runs. Two methods were used
19
20 to correct the TI-spike data. Firstly, all Pb isotope ratios were corrected by a single mass
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22 fractionation (β) factor derived from a specific value of $^{205}\text{TI}/^{203}\text{TI}$ (Figure 5(a)). Secondly, using the
23
24 correction method devised by Woodhead ⁴⁶, in which corrected ratios are calculated by defining
25
26 individual β -factors for each $^{20x}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ ratio with $^{205}\text{TI}/^{203}\text{TI}$ (Figure 5(b)). These two methods are
27
28 compared with the double spike corrected data shown in Figure 5(c).

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30 Like the NIST SRM 981 TI-spiked data, the precision of the single β -TI data (Figure 5(a)) is ~3 times
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32 worse than double spike. Using the individual β -TI correction, the precision is better, but still ~2
33
34 times larger than double spike. As with the TI-spiked standard data in Figure 2, the spread of TI-
35
36 spiked data for the bronze roughly defines the extent and orientation of the TI-uncertainty ellipse:
37
38 i.e. aligned with a mass fractionation vector. In the same way, the double spike Pb from the ram
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40 matches the disposition of the DS standard data along a ^{204}Pb vector.

4.5 **Sample-standard bracketing correction.**

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42 Correction via bracketing techniques has the potential to be affected by matrix differences between
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44 samples and standard as no internal monitor of mass fractionation is present. If chemical isolation
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46 of Pb is comprehensive, then matrix effects should be minimal. However, without screening and
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48 testing for a range of contaminants an ideal sample solution cannot be guaranteed. A test of
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50 sample-standard bracketing over a range of sample types and analytical conditions can be made
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52 by using the mass fractionation calculated from double spiked samples to correct intervening
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54 samples. Bracket-corrected samples can then be compared to the data from their own double spike
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56 correction. However, as each sample has an independent uncertainty on its double spike mass
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58 fractionation determination, the effect of uncertainties propagating from both bracketing analyses
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60 needs to be considered.

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3 Figure 6 summarises the results of mass fractionation variation (for simplicity shown as the linear
4 factor f .amu⁻¹) within two sessions: (a) April 2012 and (b) July 2014. Each session is made up of the
5 natural runs from the double spike analytical pair. All samples, and intervening NIST SRM 981
6 standards, were spiked with Tl. The first run was of peat samples, which had been acid-leached and
7 purified via a single-pass anion exchange procedure. The later run consisted of HF-HNO₃ digested
8 basalt and andesite volcanics, refined through two-pass anion exchange. In both cases sample
9 solutions were diluted and spiked immediately prior to analysis on the MC-ICP-MS.

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12 April 2012 analyses reflect more unstable analytical conditions through the course of the 18 hour
13 run with mass fractionation ranging fairly erratically between -0.64% and -0.52%.amu⁻¹. Given this
14 variation, it is not surprising that the precision of ratios calculated via interpolation between the
15 standards (spaced at ~10 samples) are 10 times the double spike uncertainty (see table within
16 Figure 6(a)). However, if each sample is corrected using the double spike-calculated mass
17 fractionation of its adjacent samples, the uncertainty is reduced to ~6 times that of the double
18 spike. This is still ~3 times higher than propagated from the interpolation between two double
19 spike mass fractionation determinations.

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22 July 2014 data has considerably more stable mass fractionation: only changing by 0.03%.amu⁻¹
23 during the 14 hours of measurement, and in a more systematic fashion. Interpolation between
24 standards (spaced at ~5 samples) produces an uncertainty ~3 times that of double spiking. Using
25 alternate samples to correct intervening samples produces uncertainties equivalent to, or less than,
26 the propagated double spike interpolation.

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29 Results for the earlier run show that mass fractionation calculated via the Tl-spike produces a
30 broadly similar pattern of variation relative to the double spike determinations. However, it is
31 notable that the Tl-spike mass fractionation for the standards is equivalent to the double spike
32 mass fractionation, while 90% of the samples have lower (less negative) f -factors via Tl-spike. July
33 2014 data, though produced in more analytical stable conditions and with more rigorous Pb
34 isolation, has notably more scattered Tl-spike mass fractionation compared to the standard and
35 double spike pattern. Furthermore, the Tl-spike mass fractionation for all samples can be seen to
36 have a greater (more negative) and variable f relative to the double spike. At the same time, the Tl-
37 spike fractionation for the standards is equivalent to the double spike and true value
38 determinations.

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3 Both the early and later runs suggest that regardless of chemical refinement, solution preparation
4 and instrumental stability, Tl-spike mass fractionation can be compromised by residual matrix in
5 sample aliquots. Monitoring standard data provides an erroneous overestimate of the quality of
6 sample data in terms of accuracy and resolution. Sample-standard bracketing, with alternate
7 standards, provides a more robust correction than Tl-spiking, approaching that of double spiking
8 where drift in instrumental mass fractionation is limited.
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13 14 15 16 **4.6 Towards ultra-high resolution Pb isotopes** 17

18 Evidence from the double spike corrected data above indicates that further improvement in data
19 quality may be gained from reducing the uncertainty associated with measurement of the minor
20 isotope - ^{204}Pb . This may be achieved by the introduction of a suitably-assigned high-impedance
21 resistor in the Faraday array. In the case of $10^{13}\Omega$ resistors, this could increase the relative signal to
22 noise by a factor of 100 relative to $10^{11}\Omega$, and effectively equate ^{204}Pb to the level of ^{208}Pb . An
23 alternative is the 2x double spike approach of Kuritani and Nakamura³⁶, where the ^{204}Pb is boosted
24 in each of two spiked runs. This is designed for low-level samples, but may well enhance precision
25 of larger sample sizes (>5ng Pb).
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33 As discussed in 4.3 above, double spike data can potentially be resolved to remove any significant
34 mass fractionation, to leave a Gaussian scatter along the ^{204}Pb vector. This scatter could be reduced
35 by multiple measurements of samples and taking an average. Effectively, the measurement
36 uncertainty, represented as 2sd, switches to the precision of the mean which is denoted by 2se:
37 equating to dividing 2sd by \sqrt{n} . An example of double spike averaging applied to real samples is
38 shown in Figure 7. These plots use $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ - $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ together with an alternative perspective
39 by deploying the delta $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ ($\Delta 7/4$) parameter⁵⁵ as the ordinate. This can be used to
40 effectively "stretch" lead isotope ratio plots to help visualise variations within typically co-linear Pb
41 isotope datasets. These plots show the Pb isotopes of basalt lava samples recovered from discrete
42 locations around Izu-Oshima volcano, Japan. When grouped, samples from each location define an
43 array of roughly equivalent size and shape to the double spike uncertainty ellipse (Figure 7(a) and
44 (b)), indicating that each location approximates to a homogeneous composition. What is
45 particularly remarkable in the $\Delta^{207}\text{Pb}$ plot (a) is that all of these 27 individually-processed samples
46 lie within $\pm 0.18 \Delta^{207}\text{Pb}$ units, which is within the precision defined by the Pb standard on the same
47 instrument ($\pm 0.20 \Delta^{207}\text{Pb}$; Table 1).
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3 Equivalent plots showing the averages and standard uncertainty ellipses for each location group
4 are shown in Figure 7(c) and (d). Regressions through the isotope data appear robust ($R^2=0.95$ and
5 0.99), passing through the centre of the average data points. Figure 7(d) is a $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ - $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$
6 “isochron” plot which the slope of the regression line can be computed as an age. Because these
7 lavas are $<0.5\text{Ma}$ – essentially “zero-age” in geological terms – there is not likely to be any
8 significance to the isochron, however, regression analysis equates to 2313 ± 260 Ma. This age
9 uncertainty ($\sim 10\%$) is poor by isochron standards, but given the range of isotope ratios involved
10 ($^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ maximum-minimum = 0.022), it emphasises the potential applications for increased
11 resolution. This could be in the form of geological age dating, or equally in constraining mixing
12 lines between two or more components that define a sample suite.
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23 **4.7 Precision of Pb isotopes with respect to the range of isotopic compositions.**

24 Radiogenic isotope systems including Pb, Sr, Nd, and Hf are commonly used to identify processes,
25 components or timescales within geological or oceanographic systems. Additionally, these isotopes
26 can be used to discriminate between samples or to match them with a particular provenance; for
27 example, to match archaeological artefacts with a metalogenic or lithological source, or to
28 determine the source of sedimentary particulates^{56, 57, 15}. However, for these isotope systems to be
29 effective as a discriminant between samples requires either that there is a suitable spread of
30 isotope compositions, or that the precision of the measurement technique is high enough to
31 provide a sound statistical difference. These two parameters are linked, in that if the isotope
32 system has a large natural range, then high measurement precision may not be needed, but a small
33 compositional range requires a high resolution to enable discrimination.
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44 Recent improvements in the analytical precision via Tl-spike and poly-spiking have the potential to
45 change the way in which Pb isotopes can be applied to scientific problems. To demonstrate this,
46 Figure 8 makes a comparison between each of the key radiogenic isotope systems. This plot
47 expresses the precision of each isotope system relative to the range of isotope ratios in Earth
48 materials. For simplicity, the isotopic range is calculated from the approximate extent of
49 compositions found in mantle-derived rocks. In particular, Figure 8 illustrates the ability for each
50 isotope ratio to effectively distinguish between any two sample compositions; in other words the
51 effective resolving power of the isotope system. Resolving power is expressed here as the precision
52 (2sd) as a percentage of the isotopic range of compositions. Conventional external methods of
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3 correcting Pb mass fractionation ($f = c$) mean that its effective resolution is around 1%, placing Pb
4 between Sr (0.6%) and Nd (2%). However, mass fractionation correction using the double spike
5 technique promotes Pb to the most highly resolving ($\sim 0.1\%$) of the radiogenic isotope systems – a
6 factor of ten better than conventional Pb. The result is that double spike data can be viewed on
7 enlarged areas of Pb-Pb ratio plots and still enable points to be separated outside measurement
8 precision. Ultra-high resolution Pb measurement, either by multiple analysis or increasing peak to
9 background ratios has the potential to increase the resolving power to $\sim 0.03\%$.

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16 Actual precision for each system, expressed as a percentage of the isotope ratio, is given in the
17 column on the right of Figure 8. Hf, Sr and Nd have precision in the range $\sim 0.004\%$ - 0.002% . The
18 exact precision being controlled by the relative size of the smallest isotope needed to generate the
19 fractionation-corrected ratio (e.g. ^{87}Sr from $^{86,87,88}\text{Sr}$), and the minimization and effectiveness of
20 isobaric interference corrections (e.g. ^{144}Sm on ^{144}Nd). Despite double spike Pb having the greatest
21 resolving power of the radiogenic systems, the others are still capable of generating isotope ratios
22 that are around 3-4 times more precise. As interference corrections on double spike Pb are
23 generally minimal, and mass fractionation is effectively removed, the reason for the relative
24 imprecision relates to ^{204}Pb . When this is minimized, as for the $n = 8$ replicate double spike analysis
25 shown in Figure 8, the value approaches that of the Hf, Sr and Nd systems, demonstrating the
26 potential for future improvements in Pb resolving power.
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38 **4.8 Converged values for NIST SRM 981**

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40 Table 1 also provides a re-assessment of the NIST SRM 981 standard, termed the poly-spike
41 average. This is a compilation of mean values from 13 different TIMS and MC-ICP-MS instruments,
42 all measured by poly-spike techniques (double, triple and 2x double spiking). The compilation
43 includes mass fractionation correction via linear, power law and exponential systems and comprises
44 5 different spikes: in the case of SBL74 spike, calibrated at three separate laboratories. All spikes are
45 calibrated relative to the reference measurement standard certified value of NIST SRM 982
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50 $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb} = 1.00016^{49}$.

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53 Data from all laboratories are within their stated reproducibility of the poly-spike average. Figure 9
54 shows that individual laboratory determinations cluster around the poly-spike average, with some
55 tendency for the array to be aligned with a mass fractionation vector. The analysis from Galer and
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3 Abouchami⁶ lies to lower $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ than the other poly-spike data, which may be related to the
4 anomalous behavior of ^{207}Pb on TIMS reported by Thirlwall¹⁶. Notably, later data from the same
5 laboratory – the Mainz average 2000-2008 in Table 1 – is coincident with the other poly-spike data.
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7 Original certification data⁴⁹ and later re-analysis of the standard^{58, 37} are excluded from the
8 compilation, and all lie to lighter ratios roughly along the mass fractionation vector.
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12 Poly-spike determinations in the compilation are based on the same reference datum and all
13 produce consistent isotope ratios for NIST SRM 981. This suggests that each spike is a valid
14 secondary measurement standard. Furthermore, in the absence of any systematic measurement s,
15 the poly-spike average ratios for NIST SRM 981 are estimated to be accurate values.
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20 21 22 **5. Conclusions**

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24 Different mass fractionation correction techniques for Pb isotope determination have been
25 assessed using data from a variety of mass spectrometers. Pre- double spike (or poly-spike) data
26 for Pb was corrected by $f = c$, and has been previously recognised as significantly compromised in
27 terms of their precision¹⁶. Data from this study match these observations and highlight the
28 potential inaccuracy of $f = c$ related to the measurement of samples with remaining matrix. Double
29 spike, data can be quantified as at least 10 times more precise, and has no discernable effects of
30 matrix interference on the quantification of the ratios of interest.
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37 Tl-spike corrected data can be measured during a double spike acquisition, and has provided a
38 robust comparison between the techniques. Even attending to the defective relationship between
39 Tl and Pb fractionation across the range of mass differences, and ensuring solution stability, Tl-
40 spike corrected data remains 2-3 times worse precision than double spiking. Examination of
41 equivalent data in which mass fractionation is corrected by sample-standard bracketing shows that
42 this is more precise than Tl-spiking when instrumental drift is stable and consistent, and is not
43 significantly affected by matrix effects.
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50 Double spike reproducibility data defines an uncertainty ellipse for each Pb-Pb isotope ratio that is
51 scattered according to variance of the minor ^{204}Pb isotope. Uncertainty induced by mass
52 fractionation correction are minor and appear to be related to periodic instrumental changes. This
53 suggests that data from temporally-constrained measurement periods have the potential to be
54 internally consistent and have tighter precision. Such scatter can potentially be reduced using high-
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3 impedance amplifiers, or by 2x double spiking³⁶. Alternatively, multiple analysis of individual
4 samples can replicate this increase in precision, with a 2-3 times improvement depending on the
5 number of replicates. Simulations of this ultra-high precision Pb analysis indicate that it has the
6 potential to enhance geochemical and geochronological applications.
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10 If an appreciation of differences in the uncertainty magnitude between alternative measurement
11 protocols is maintained, then Pb isotopes can provide a usable discrimination tool between sample
12 types. High-precision Pb isotopes are now the most resolving of all of the radiogenic isotope
13 systems, and have the potential to make further advances for applications in Earth sciences,
14 archaeometry and forensic science.
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20 21 22 **Acknowledgements** 23

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25 standards data set. In particular the assistance in the laboratory from Matt Cooper, Posy Boella,
26 Tina Hayes, April Lloyd, Laura Hepburn and Loraine Foley. Laure Dosso collaborated in the creation
27 of SBL74. Leah Carwithen and Sarah Munday carefully analysed the comparative samples during
28 studies at Southampton. This paper also benefited from discussions with the Southampton
29 geochemistry group and from the comments of two anonymous reviewers.
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Figure and Table captions

Figure 1. $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ vs $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ for Reykjanes Ridge basalts. Data measured by TIMS and corrected for mass fractionation by constant- f ($f = c$) from ⁷ and ⁸, are shown as open symbols. The same sample suite was re-measured by double spike (DS) by Thirlwall et al.⁹, and here is divided into two groups according to latitude. Individual samples measured by both techniques are connected by a tie-line. Shaded region highlights the $f = c$ determinations.

Figure 2. Six Pb ratio-ratio co-variation plots, each shown for four mass fractionation/mass spectrometer correction methods: TIMS $f = c$; TIMS double spike; MC-ICP-MS double spike; MC-ICP-MS TI-spike. Mass fractionation vectors and, where appropriate, ^{204}Pb uncertainty vectors are shown. The $\Delta 7/4$ and $\Delta 8/4$ parameters are from ⁵⁵ and discussed further in the text. Uncertainty ellipses are generated from covariation regression analysis with axes lengths scaled to 95% confidence.

Figure 3. Frequency distribution of fractionation factor (f) for rock samples (upper panel) and SRM 981 Pb standard (lower panel) measured on TIMS. For rock samples f is calculated for the natural run of the double spike correction procedure. For standards f is expressed relative to the poly-spike average in Table 1. Both are calculated as a linear correction per mass unit difference, $f = ((t/a)-1)/\Delta m$; where t is the true ratio, a is the measured ratio and Δm is the mass difference of the ratio (e.g. $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 2$). Red line on both panels represents the average fractionation factor.

Figure 4. $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ vs $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ for NBS SRM 981 measured on Neptune MC-ICP-MS double spike. Three analytical time periods within the dataset are highlighted.

Figure 5. Pb isotope analysis of six samples taken from the Belgammel Ram: a Hellenistic-Roman Bronze Proembolion ⁵⁴. Isotope ratios of each sample are measured during a single run, but corrected for mass fractionation using three methods. (a) spiking with TI and an exponential correction of all $^{20x}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ ratios relative to $^{203}\text{Tl}/^{205}\text{Tl} = 2.3885$; (b) spiking with TI and an exponential correction where each $^{20x}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ ratio is calibrated against $^{203}\text{Tl}/^{205}\text{Tl}$ for standards with a range of mass fractionation (β) factors ⁴⁶. (c) double spiked with SBL74; a second aliquot of each sample was measured to calculate mass fractionation of the unspiked sample via an iterative exponential-law deconvolution. Average and 2sd for the six samples are shown for each of the correction techniques. For comparison, uncertainty ellipses for individual samples are the 2sd reproducibility of SRM 981 for the particular correction technique employed (Table 1).

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3 Figure 6. Variation in fractionation (f / a.m.u. %) in samples during the course of two runs: (a)
4 from April 2012, (b) from July 2014. For simplicity, the fractionation is expressed as linear factor (f).
5 Fractionation of unknown samples (blue filled circles) is calculated by double spike (DS). SRM 981
6 Pb standards are interspersed with the unknowns, and fractionation for these are calculated by
7 double spike (filled red squares) and relative to the poly-spike average values from Table 1 (open
8 red squares). Error bars represent the $\pm 2sd$ of f calculated via double spike ($\pm 0.006\%$). Samples
9 were acquired for 100 integrations of 4 seconds, separated by with a 12min wash, of which the final
10 7min is acquired in the same mode as a sample measurement. Initiation of each sample or
11 standard is ~ 21 min apart. Inset tables estimate uncertainty as 2 sd on $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ calculated from i)
12 interpolation of fractionation between SRM 981 standards, ii) interpolation of fractionation
13 between bracketing samples (calculated by DS), iii) estimated double spike reproducibility, iv)
14 propagated uncertainty for mass fractionation of samples calculated from the interpolation of two
15 adjacent mass fractionationes calculated from double spike measurement.

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27 Figure 7. $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ vs $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ and $\Delta^{207}\text{Pb}$ for submarine volcanic rocks from offshore Izu-
28 Oshima, Japan. 4 to 6 samples collected from five spatially-discrete eruptions from the NW and SE
29 of the island are measured for Pb isotopes by double spike on Neptune MC-ICP-MS. Individual
30 sample data with 95% confidence uncertainty ellipse for double spike measurement is shown in (a)
31 and (b). Average data for each location group are plotted in (c) and (d) with standard uncertainty
32 ellipses for each mean. Isochron age calculated from slope of regression line given in (d), mean
33 squared weighted deviation (MSWD) and probability of fit calculated from⁵⁹. Pb isotope data used
34 in these plots is available as a supplementary Table.

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42 Figure 8. $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ vs $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ and $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ vs $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$ for compilation of NIST SRM
43 981 standard data. Data for poly-spike laboratories (double, triple and 2x double spikes) and the
44 poly-spike average are from Table1. Linear law mass fractionation and ^{204}Pb uncertainty vectors are
45 shown relative to the poly-spike average.

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50 Figure 9. Comparison of analytical precision for radiogenic isotope systems expressed as a
51 percentage of the spread of isotope compositions found in mantle-derived rocks. Each precision
52 bar is calculated as e.g. $\pm 2sd/(\Delta^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd})$, where $\Delta = (\max^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd} - \min^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd})$ in
53 mantle rocks. End member mantle isotope compositions were chosen from the representative
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rocks: ED-DR34-1-3⁶⁰; 98SM15⁶¹. Column to the left of the chart includes the relevant isotope ratio and the measurement method, and the right column provides the typical 2sd% of the technique.

Table 1. Compiled data for NIST SRM 981 Pb isotope standard. Upper 4 rows are non-double spike determinations from Southampton. Correction by $f = c$ is expressed as the measured standard values (first row) and for the 2s.d. of sample ratios expressed relative to the 981 standard. Central rows are the poly-spike laboratories used in the compilation including this study from^{62 28 36 30 34 62 33}, and the average value from the Mainz laboratory which is compiled from^{63 64 65 66 67 68 32 69 70}. The lower section of the table reproduces the earlier 981 determinations and provides translation factors for each isotope ratio to translate existing data to the poly-spike value.

Supplementary data tables

Table S1 Expanded version of Table 1, including data for: ΔPb values; average mass fractionation coefficients expressed as linear function (f) and exponential function (β); uncertainties expressed as ppm.amu^{-1} .

Table S2 Pb isotope ratios for basalt samples from dyke/fissure swarms to the NW and SE of Izu-Oshima, Japan. Propagated uncertainties for individual isotope ratios are quoted as $\pm 2\text{se}$ of the means of the unspiked and double spiked runs; each run consisting of 150 measurements of 4 second integrations using the Neptune MC-ICP-MS at University of Southampton. Further information on the samples and sample location are in Ishizuka et al., 2014⁷¹.

		$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$	$\pm 2\text{sd}$	$^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$	$\pm 2\text{sd}$	$^{208}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$	$\pm 2\text{sd}$	$^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$	$\pm 2\text{sd}$	$^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$	$\pm 2\text{sd}$		
1													
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4	This study: non-	TIMS $f = c$, 981 standards	16.9403	0.0248	15.4979	0.0324	36.7213	0.1013	0.91486	0.00061	2.16769	0.00291	
5	double spike	TIMS $f = c$, samples normalised to 981	16.9403	0.0469	15.4979	0.0642	36.7213	0.2020	0.91486	0.00061	2.16769	0.00291	
6	determinations	MC-ICP-MS Neptune thallium spike	16.9395	0.0069	15.4964	0.0081	36.7154	0.0255	0.91481	0.00018	2.16744	0.00077	
7		MC-ICP-MS Neptune sample-std	16.9415	0.0066	15.4985	0.0084	36.7212	0.0276	0.91483	0.00015	2.16754	0.00075	
8													
9	poly-spike study	method	Instrument										
10													
11	This study Southampton Sector 54	DS (204-207) ¹	TIMS	16.9402	0.0027	15.4981	0.0027	36.7222	0.0075	0.91487	0.00008	2.16775	0.00017
12	This study GSJ Sector 54	DS (204-207) ¹	TIMS	16.9403	0.0029	15.5000	0.0038	36.7224	0.0090	0.91497	0.00008	2.16775	0.00011
13	This study Neptune	DS (204-207) ¹	MC-ICP-MS	16.9415	0.0022	15.4985	0.0021	36.7212	0.0063	0.91483	0.00006	2.16754	0.00017
14													
15	Galer and Abouchami, 1998	TS (204-206-207) ²	TIMS	16.9405	0.0015	15.4963	0.0016	36.7219	0.0044	0.91475	0.00004	2.16771	0.00010
16	Thirlwall, 2002	DS (204-207) ³	TIMS	16.9408	0.0021	15.4980	0.0025	36.7220	0.0080	0.91483	0.00007	2.16767	0.00041
17	Thirlwall, 2002	DS (204-207) ³	MC-ICP-MS	16.9417	0.0029	15.4996	0.0031	36.7240	0.0080	0.91488	0.00008	2.16770	0.00024
18	Kuritani and Nakamura, 2003	DSx2 (204-5/204-7)	TIMS	16.9414	0.0028	15.4992	0.0029	36.7230	0.0075	0.91487	0.00005	2.16765	0.00018
19	Baker et al., 2004	DS (204-207) ¹	MC-ICP-MS	16.9416	0.0013	15.5000	0.0015	36.7262	0.0031	0.91491	0.00004	2.16781	0.00012
20	Amelin and Davis, 2006*	DS (202-205) ⁵	TIMS	16.9408	0.0012	15.4987	0.0011	36.7278	0.0029	0.91487	0.00001	2.16800	0.00005
21	Makishima et al 2007	DS (204-207) ⁴	MC-ICP-MS	16.9417	0.0024	15.4988	0.0025	36.7196	0.0066	0.91483	0.00005	2.16741	0.00016
22	Mainz average 2000-2008	TS (204-206-207) ²	TIMS	16.9415	0.0007	15.4984	0.0021	36.7264	0.0060	0.91482	0.00004	2.16784	0.00014
23	Hoemle et al, 2011	DS (204-207) ¹	TIMS	16.9416	0.0024	15.4998	0.0024	36.7231	0.0063	0.91490	0.00005	2.16763	0.00013
24	Makishima and Nakamura, 2010**	DS (204-207) ⁴	MC-ICP-MS	16.9415	0.0030	15.4991	0.0034	36.7233	0.0077	0.91486	0.00005	2.16766	0.00019
25													
26													
27													
28	NIST SRM 981 poly-spike average			16.9412	0.0003	15.4988	0.0006	36.7233	0.0013	0.914861	0.00003	2.16770	0.00008
29													
30	Todt et al., 1996	DS (202-205)	TIMS	16.9356		15.4891		36.7006		0.91459		2.16707	
31	Todt et al., 1984		TIMS	16.9374		15.4926		36.7067		0.91470		2.16720	
32	Catanzaro et al., 1968		TIMS	16.9371		15.4913		36.7213		0.91464		2.16810	
33													
34	Todt et al., 1996 to poly-spike conversion factors			1.00033		1.00063		1.00062		1.00030		1.00029	
35	Todt et al., 1984 to poly-spike conversion factors			1.00022		1.00040		1.00045		1.00018		1.00023	
36	Catanzaro et al., 1968 to poly-spike conversion factors			1.00024		1.00048		1.00005		1.00024		0.99982	
37													

* - recalculated to 982 $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb} = 1.00016$, ** = 1-5ng average, *italic numbers are 2se*

Methods DS = double spike; TS = triple spike. Spike ID: ¹ = SBL74 (Southampton) spike; ² Mainz spike; ³ = Royal Holloway spike; ⁴ = PML, Japan; ⁵ = Geological Survey of Canada

Table 1

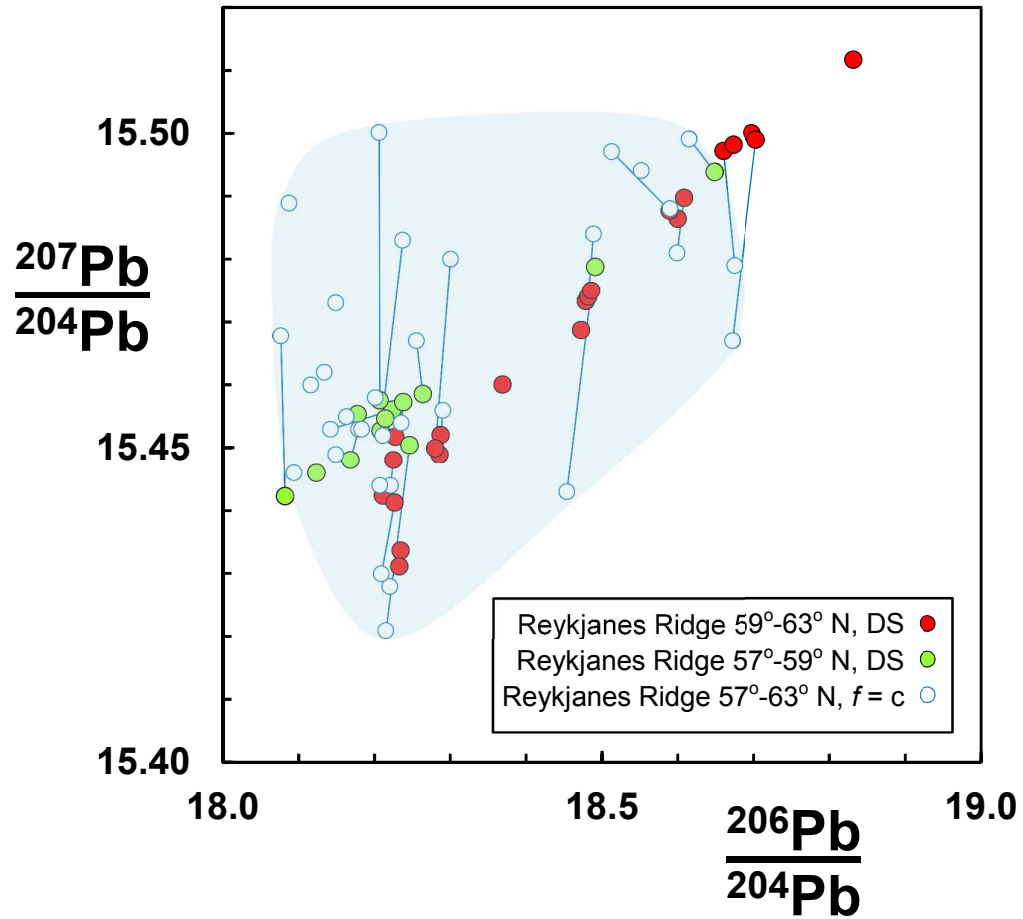


Figure 1

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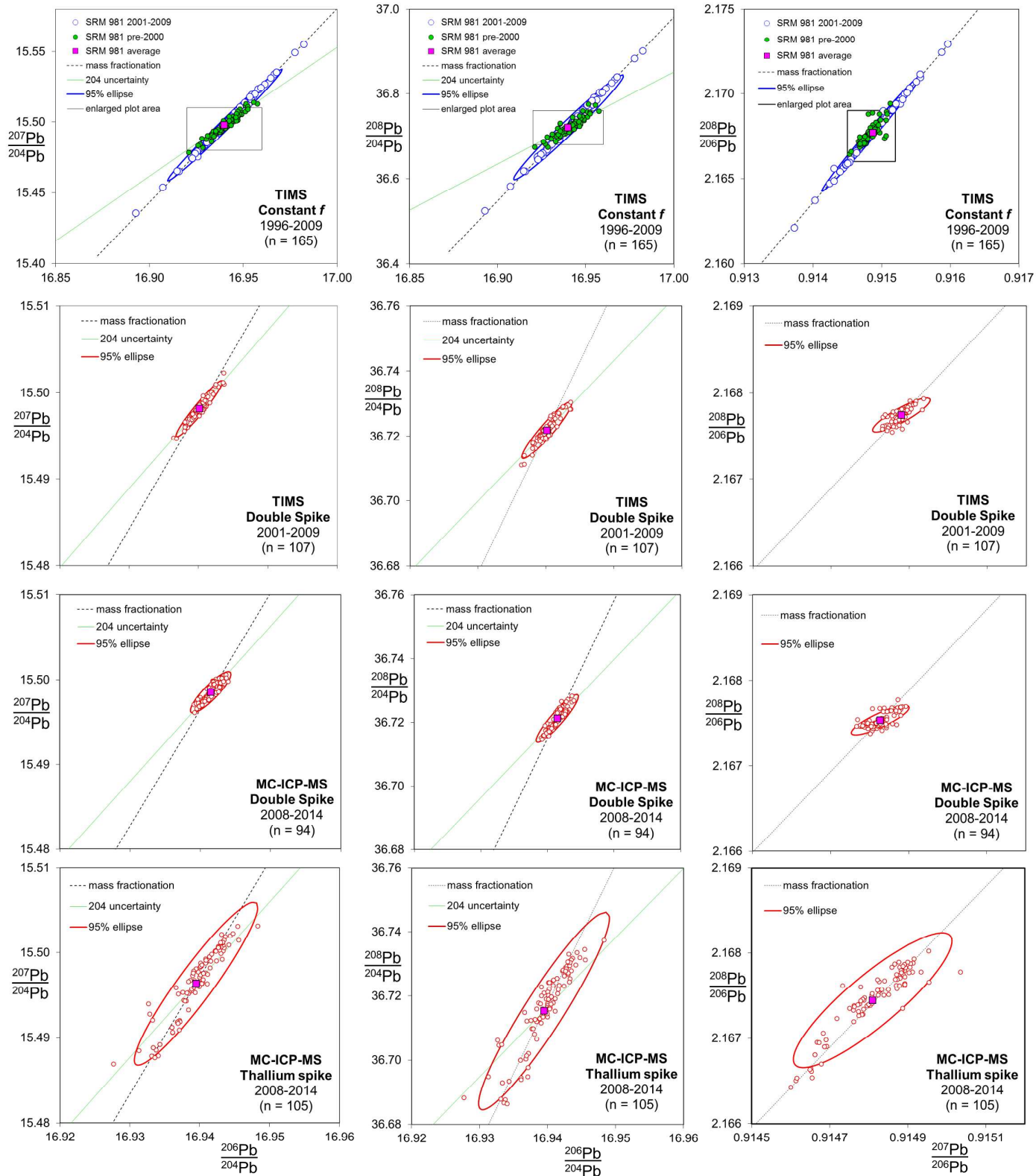


Figure 2a

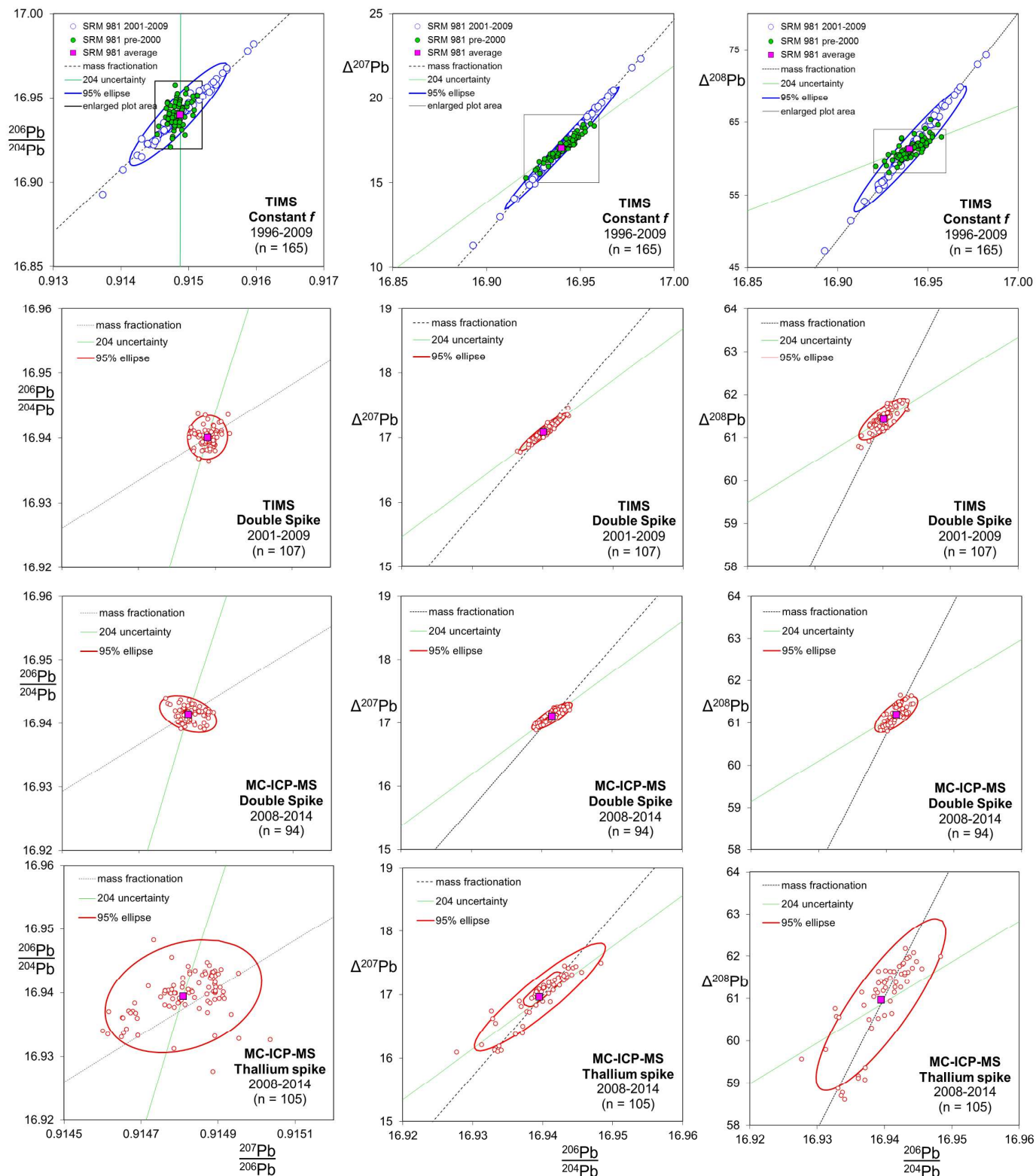


Figure 2b

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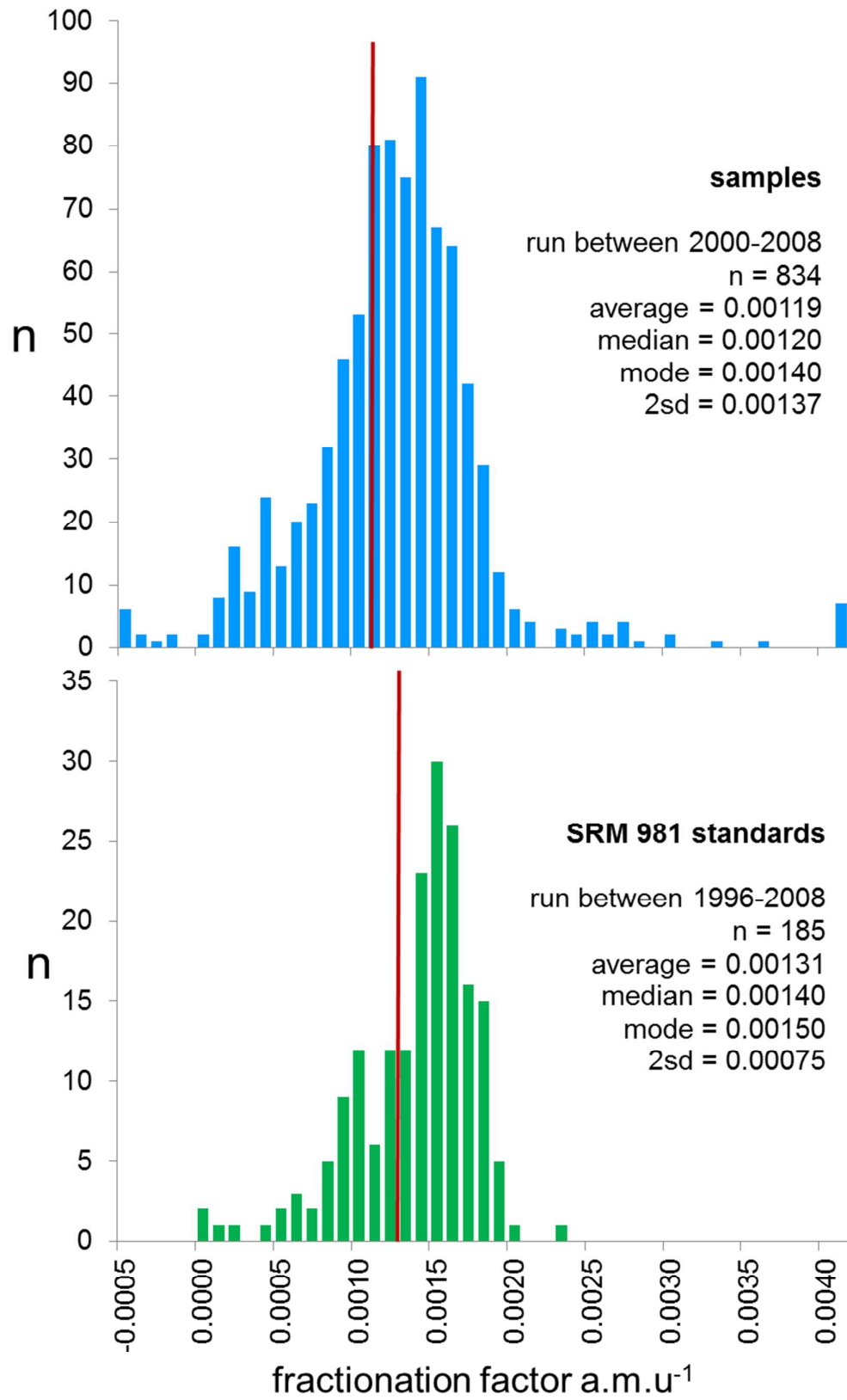


Figure 3

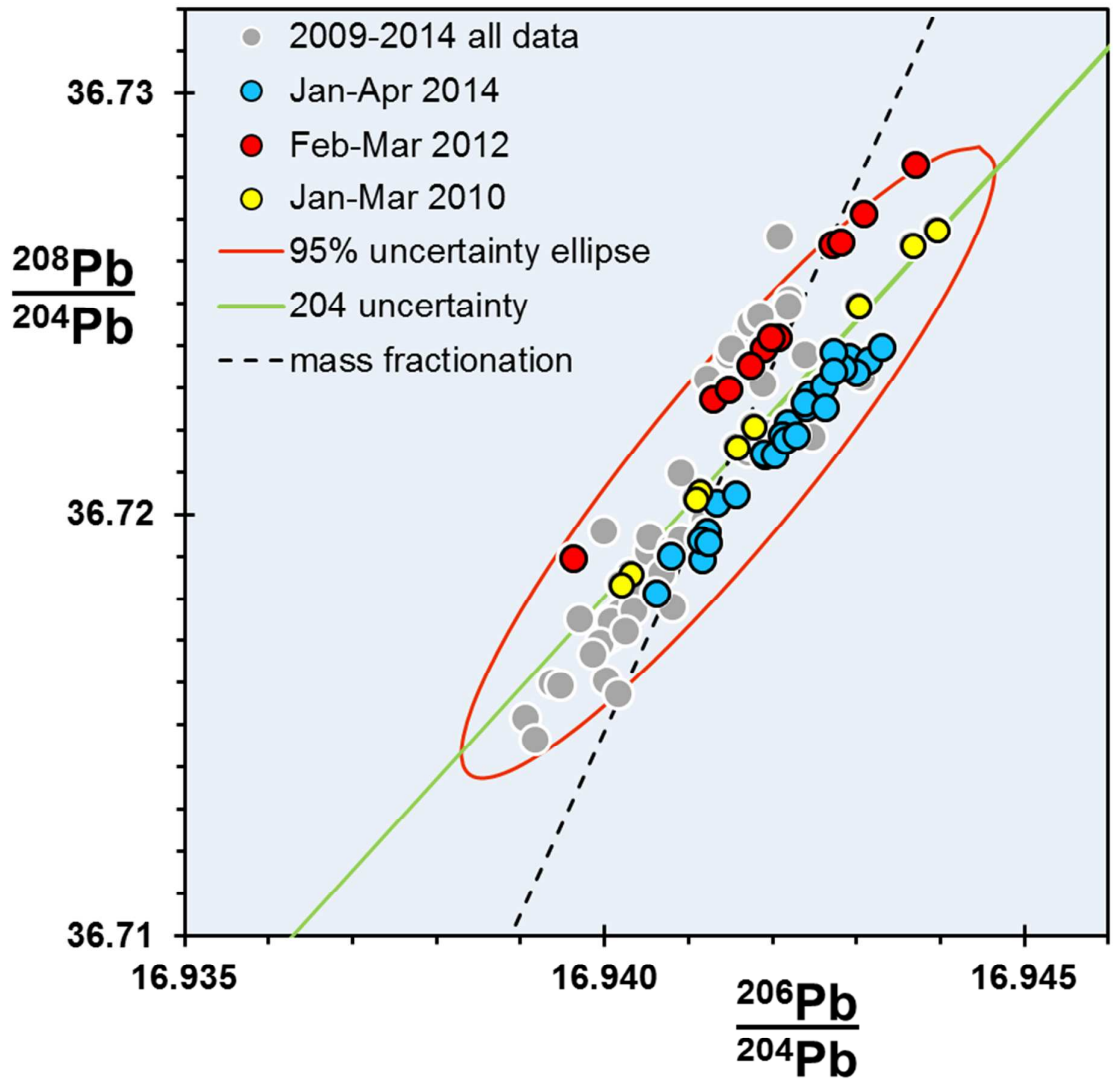


Figure 4

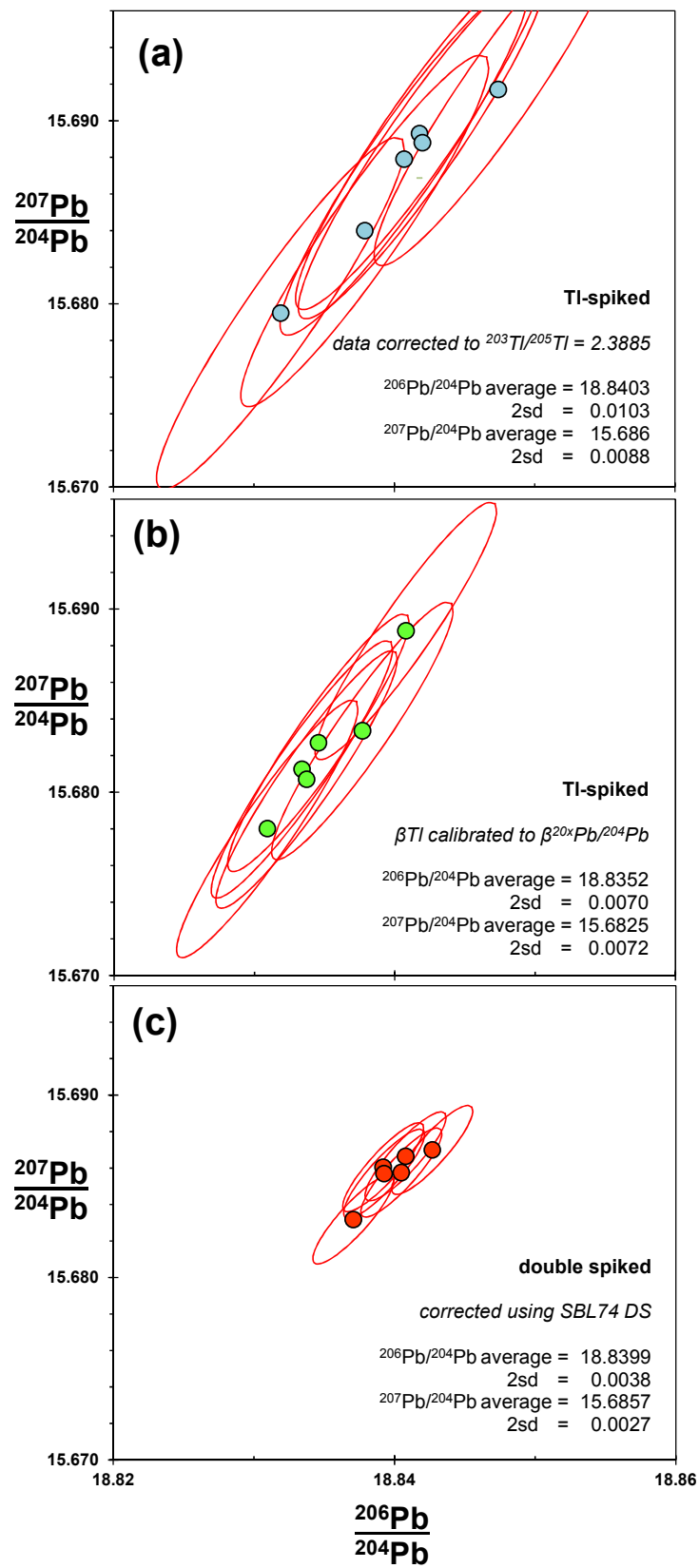


Figure 5

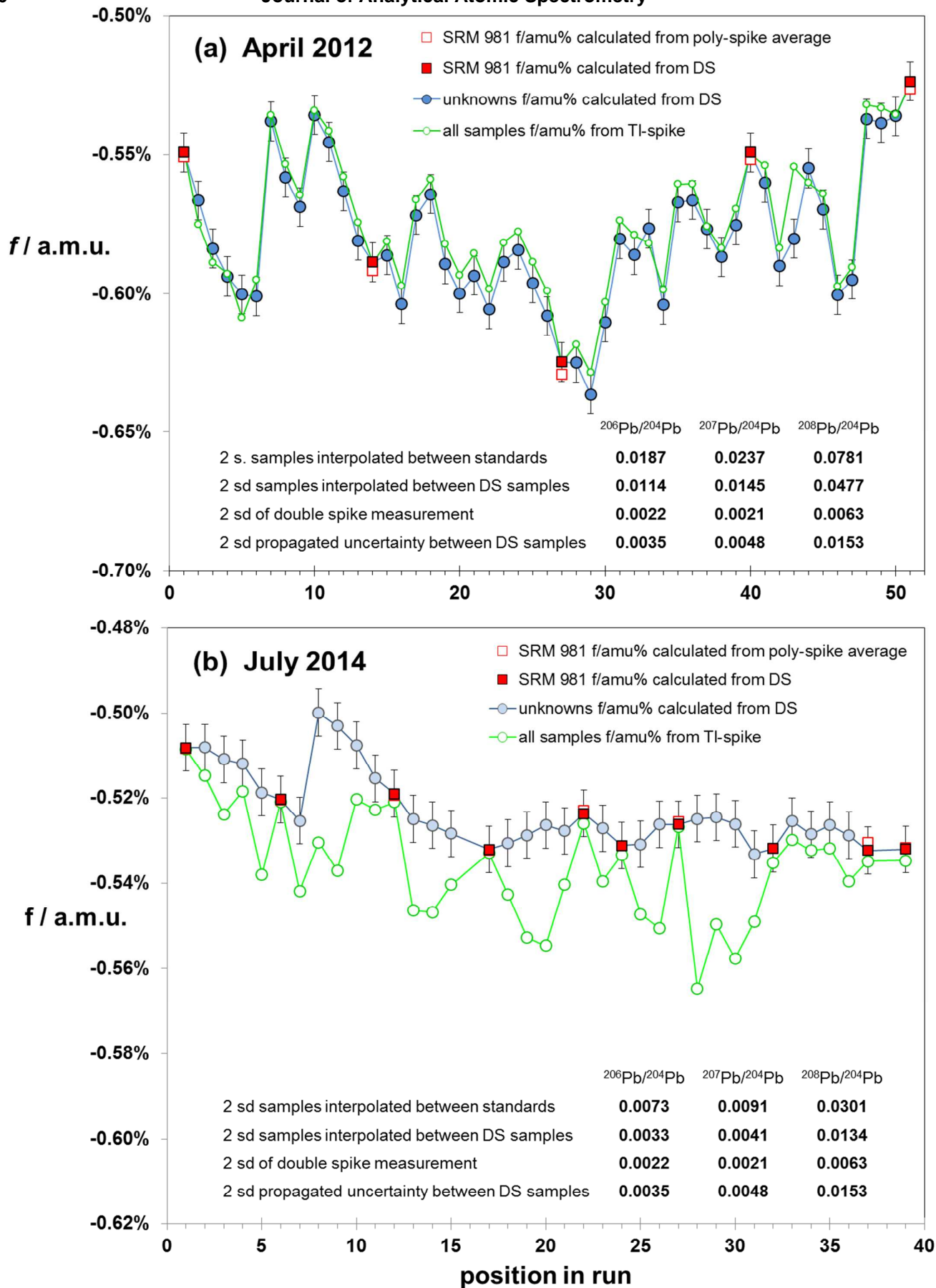


Figure 6

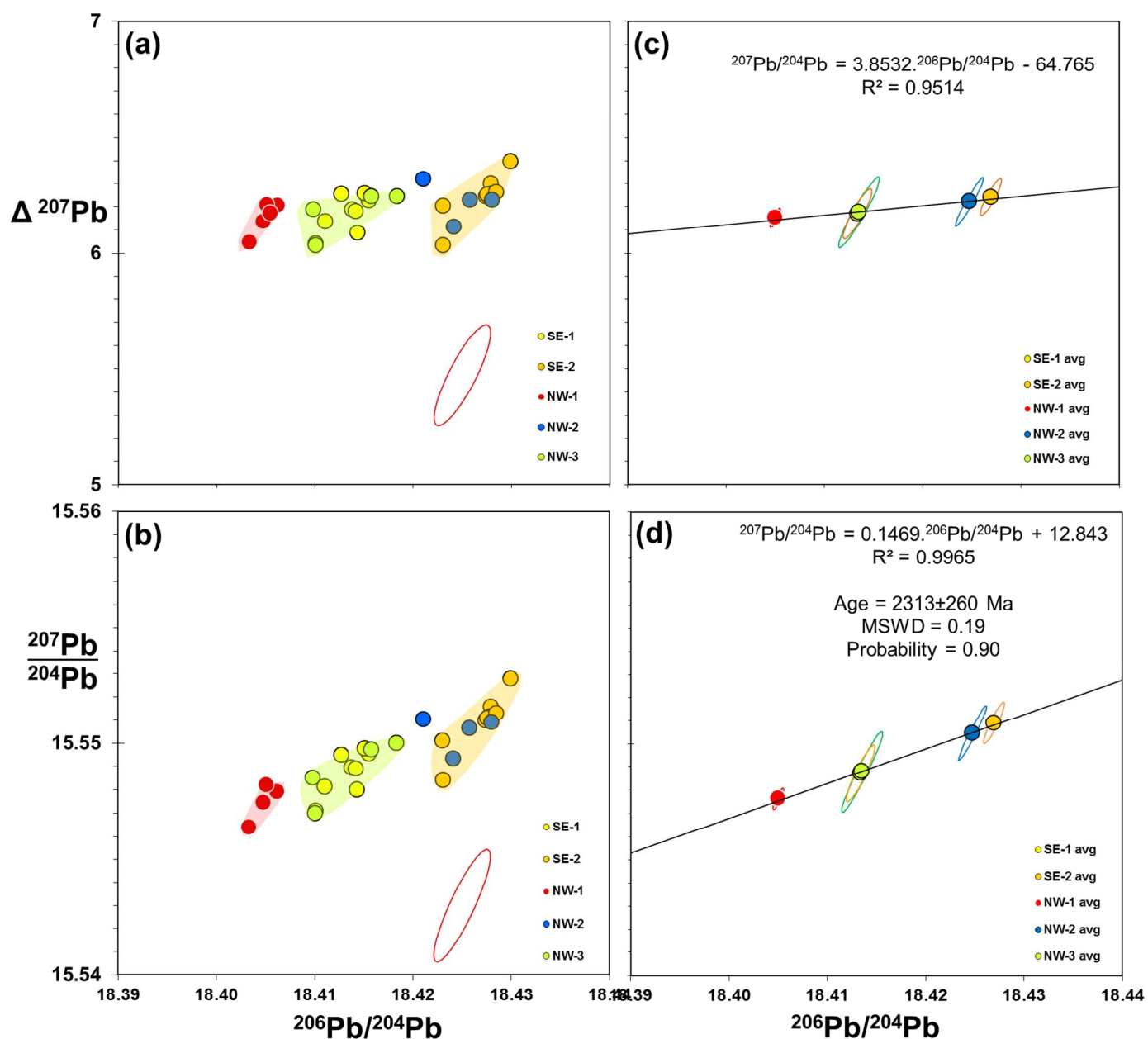


Figure 7

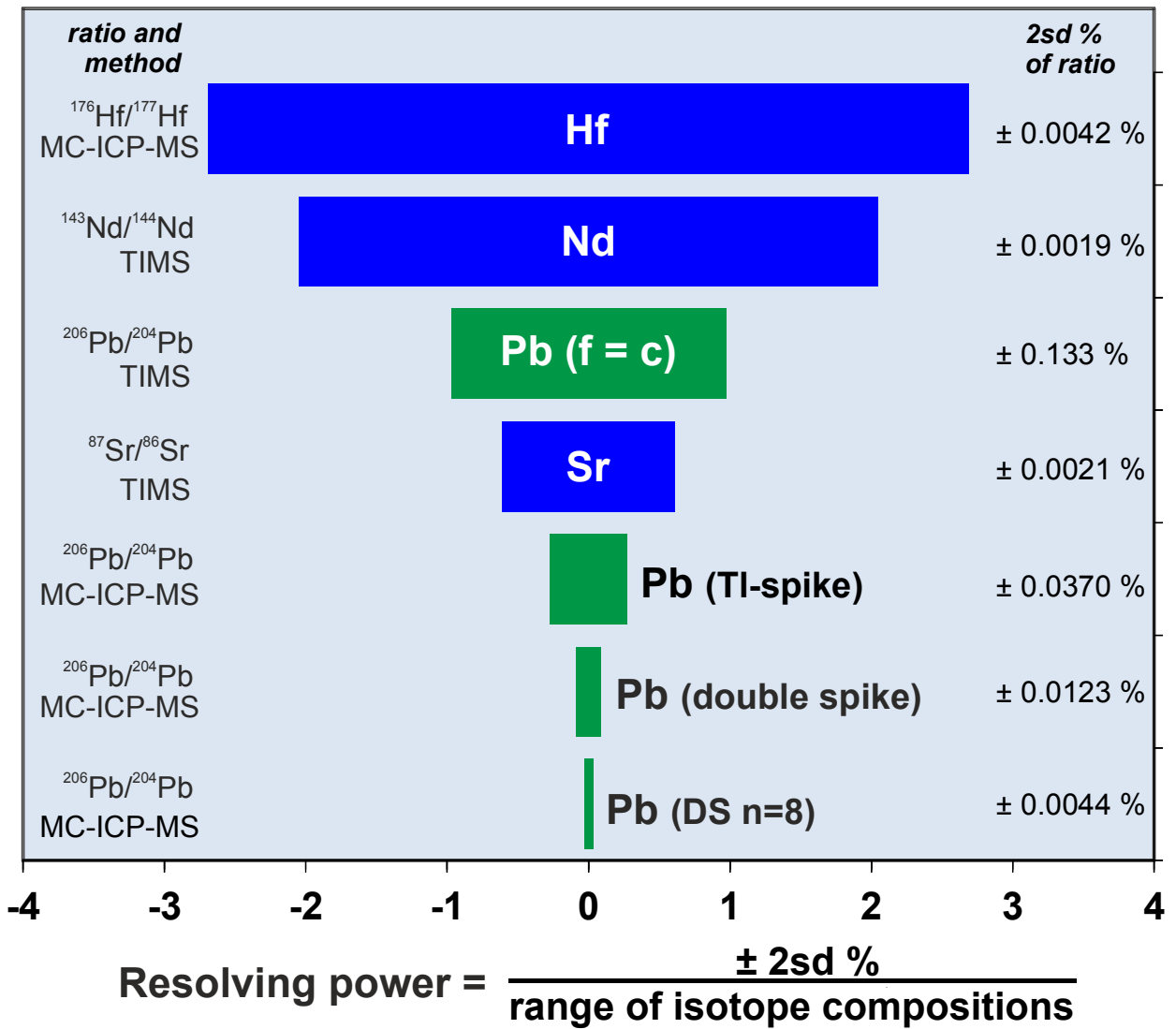


Figure 8

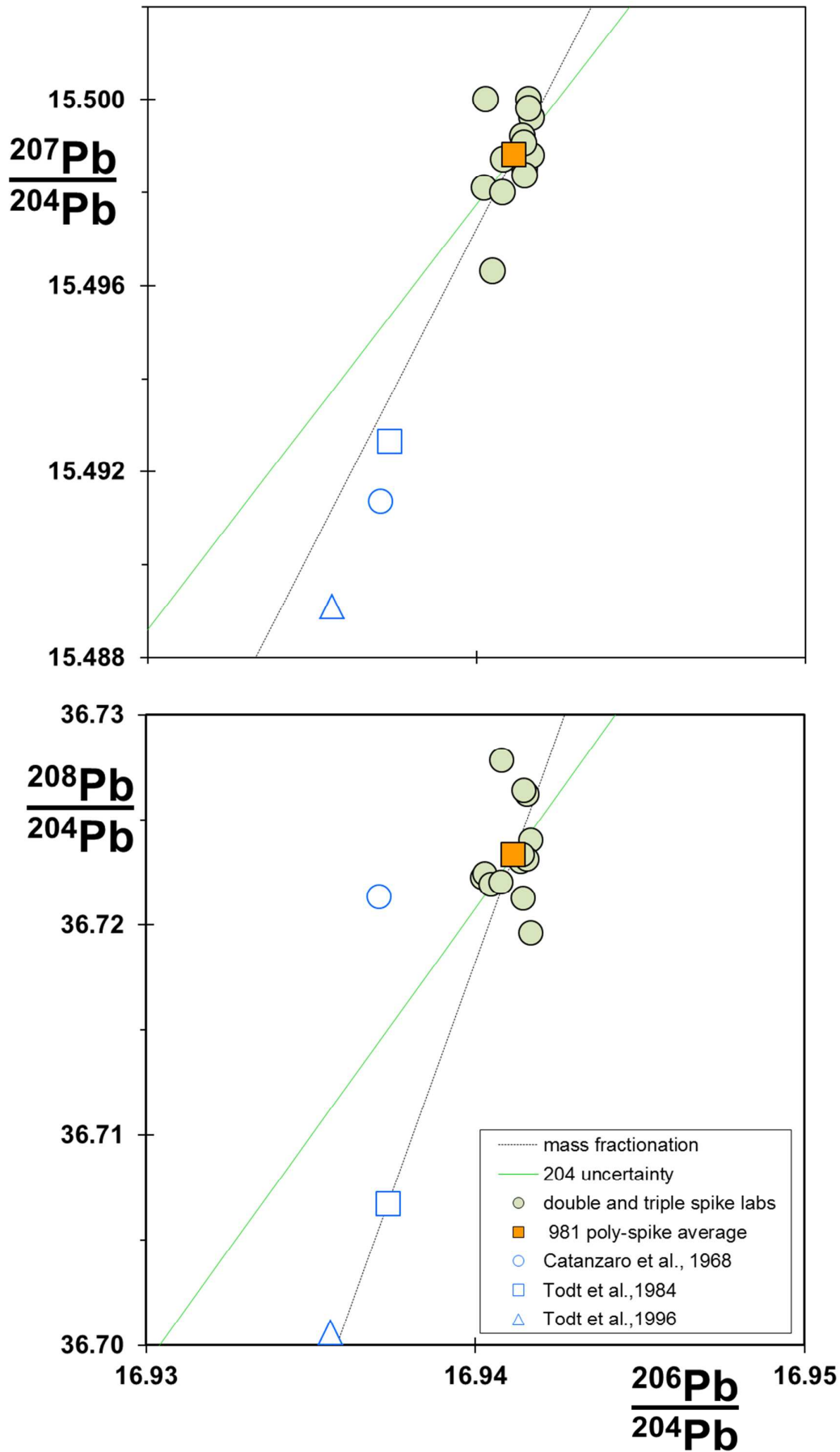


Figure 9

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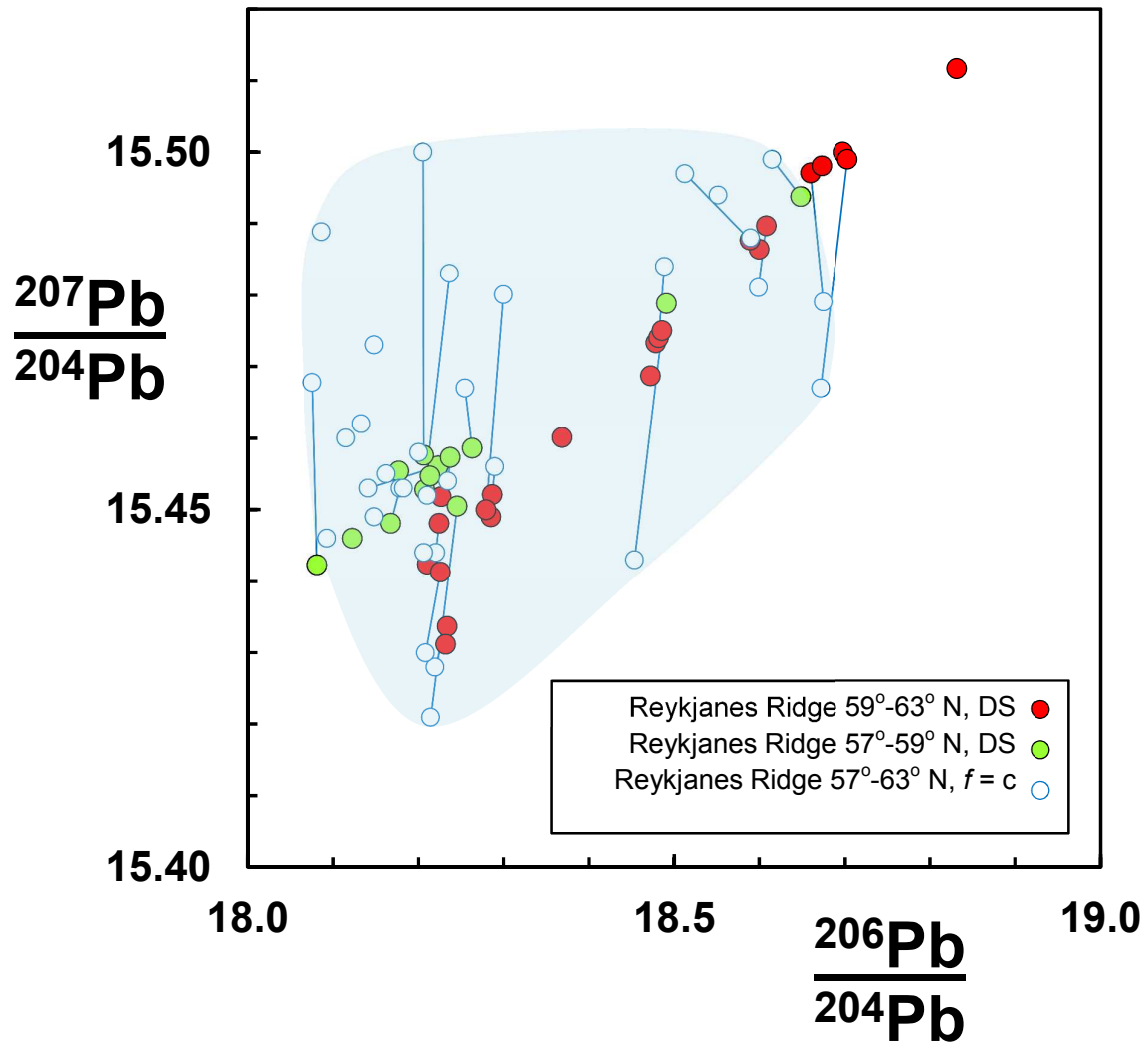


Figure 1

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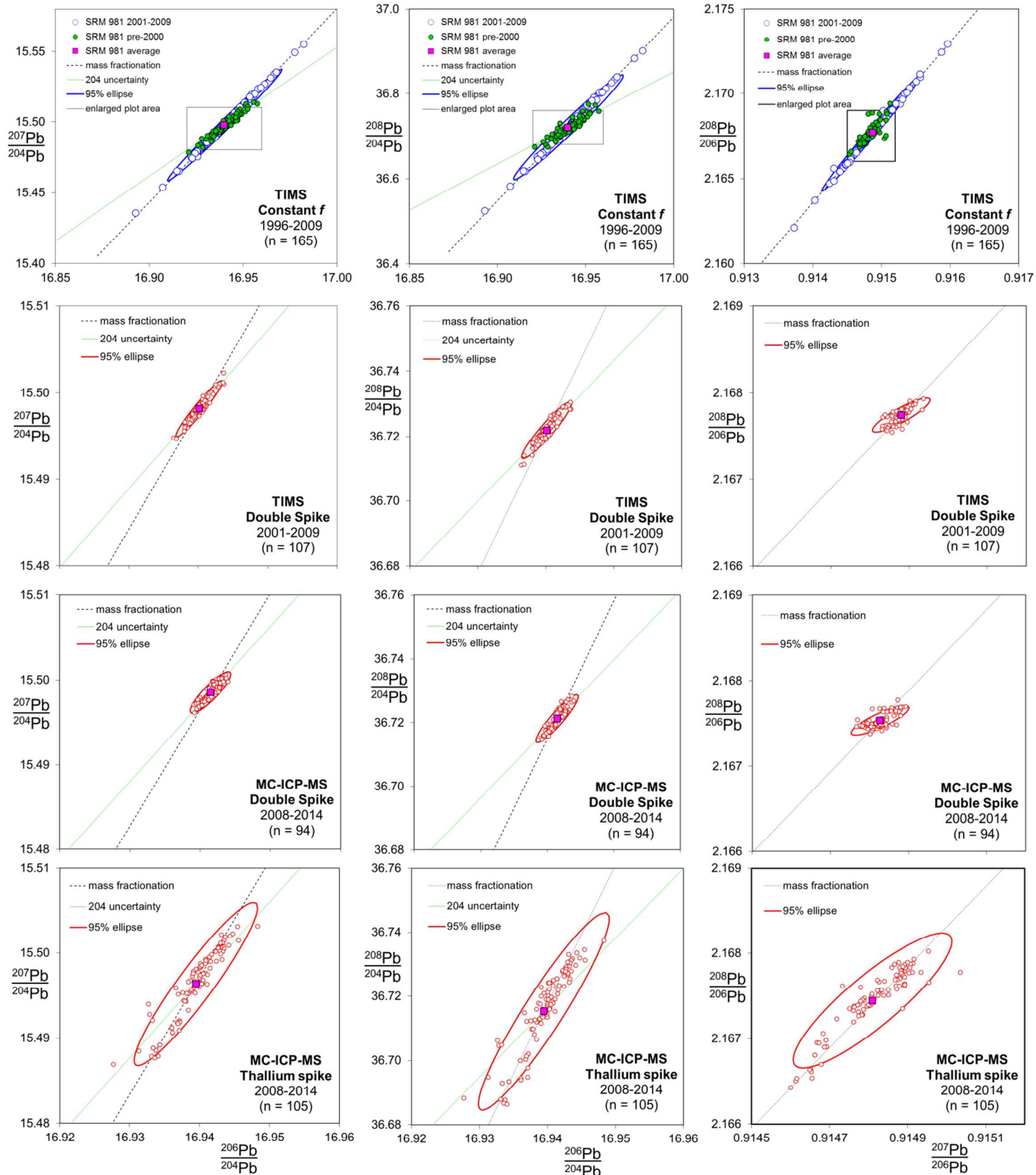


Figure 2a

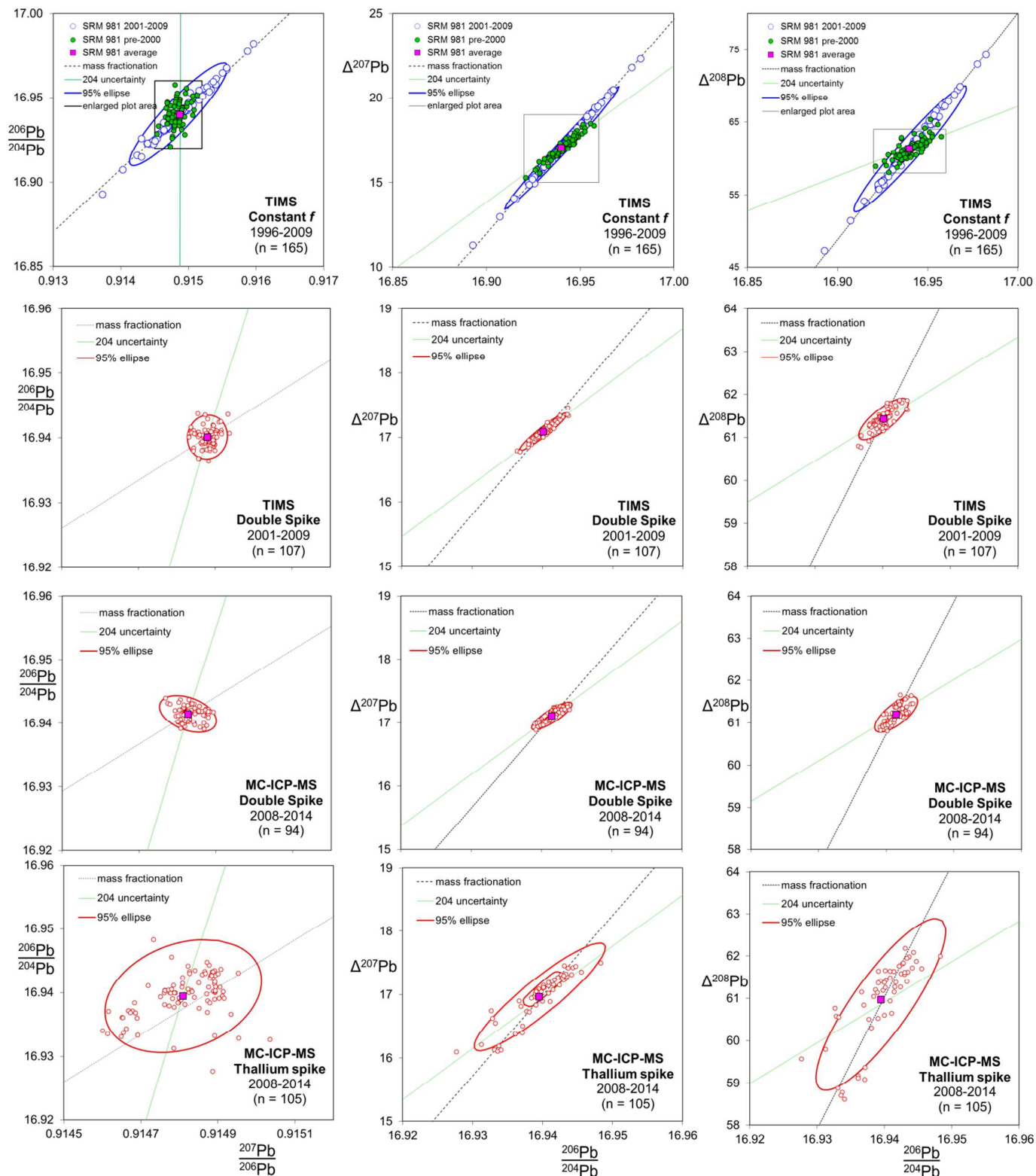


Figure 2b

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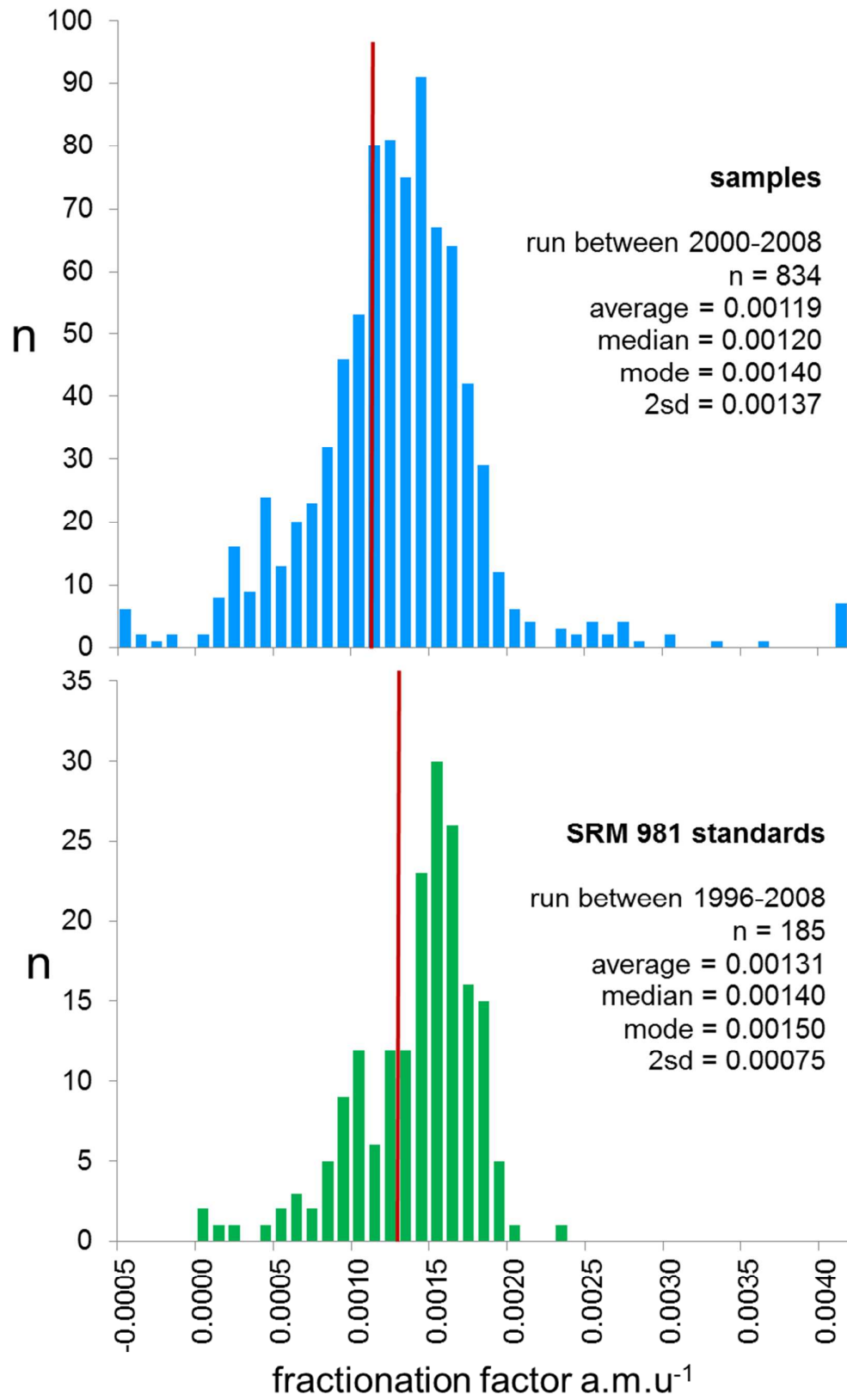


Figure 3

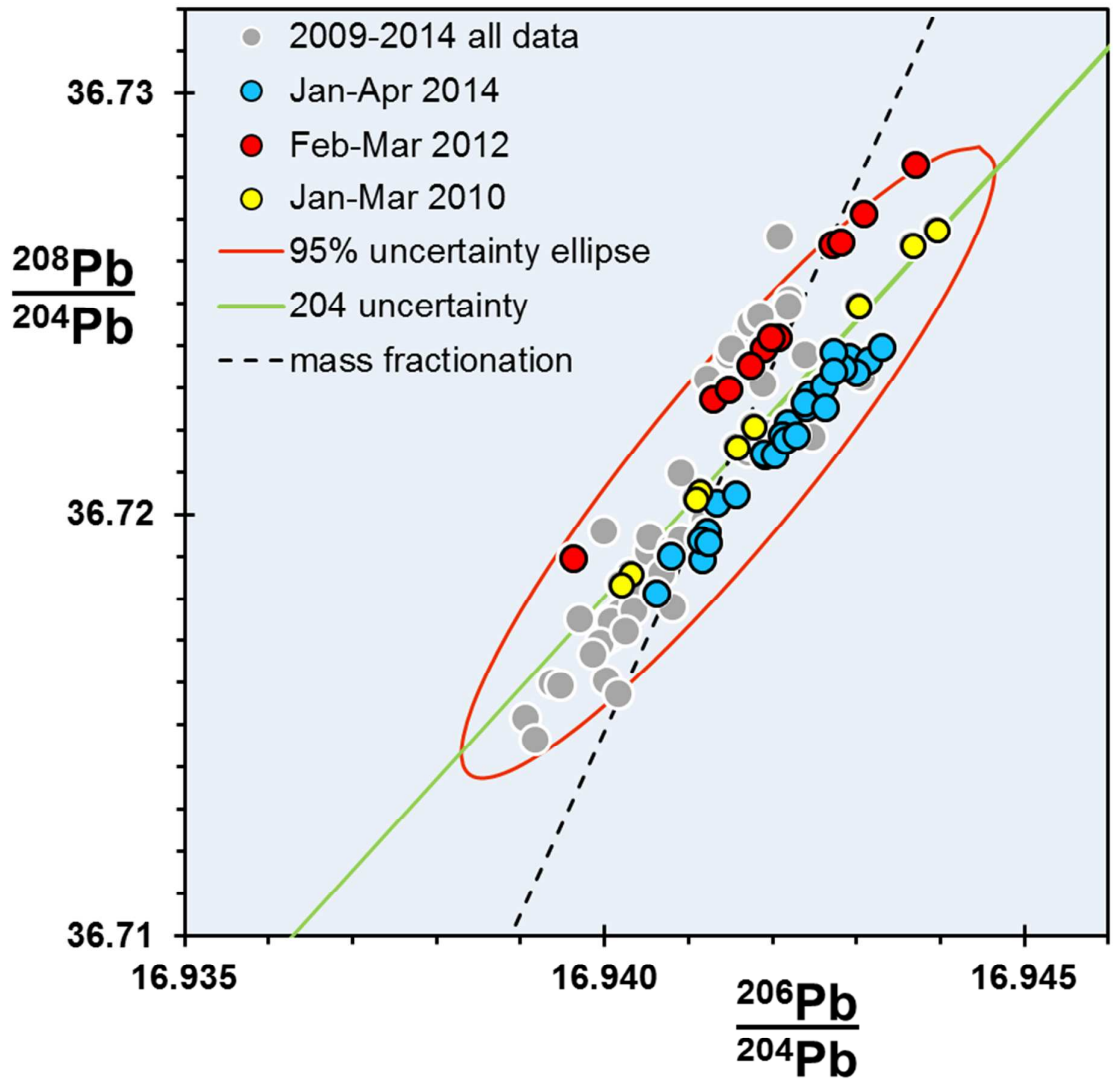


Figure 4

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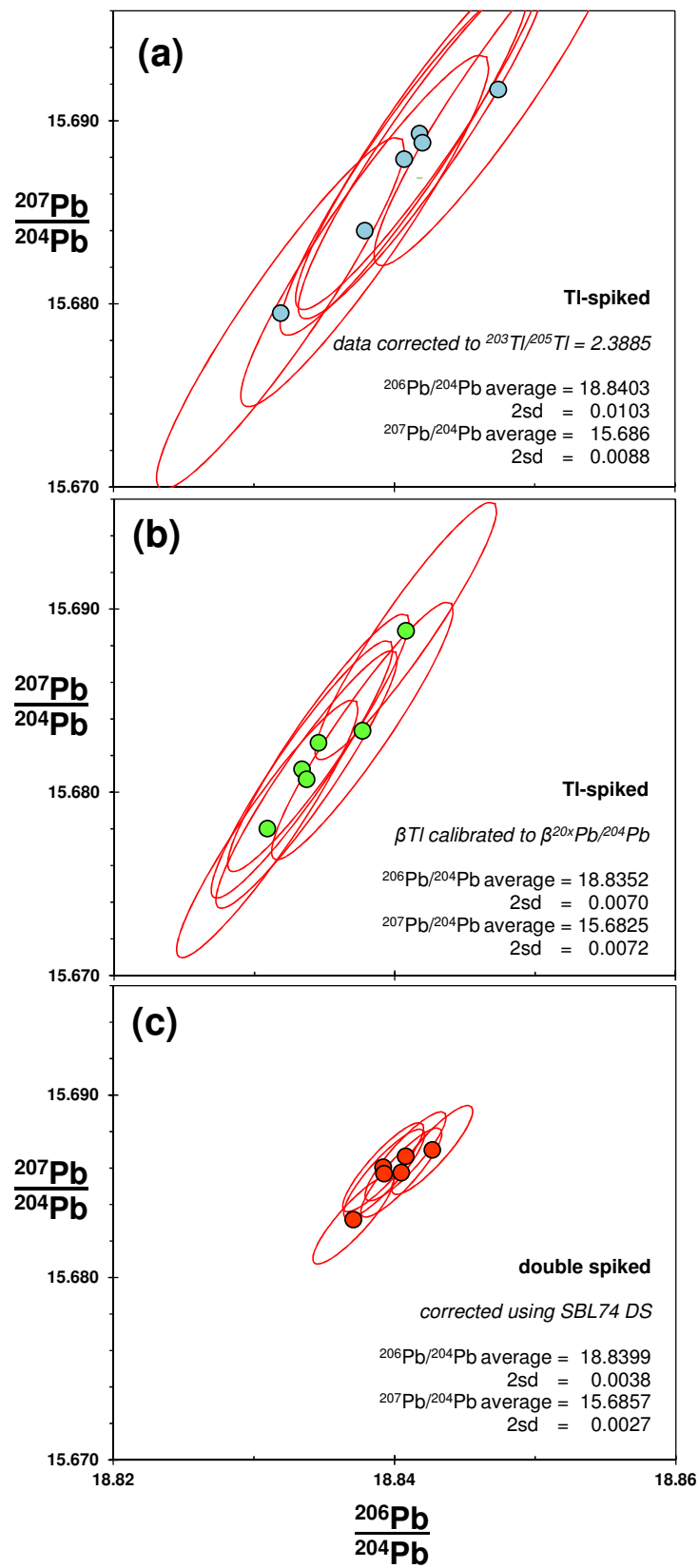


Figure 5

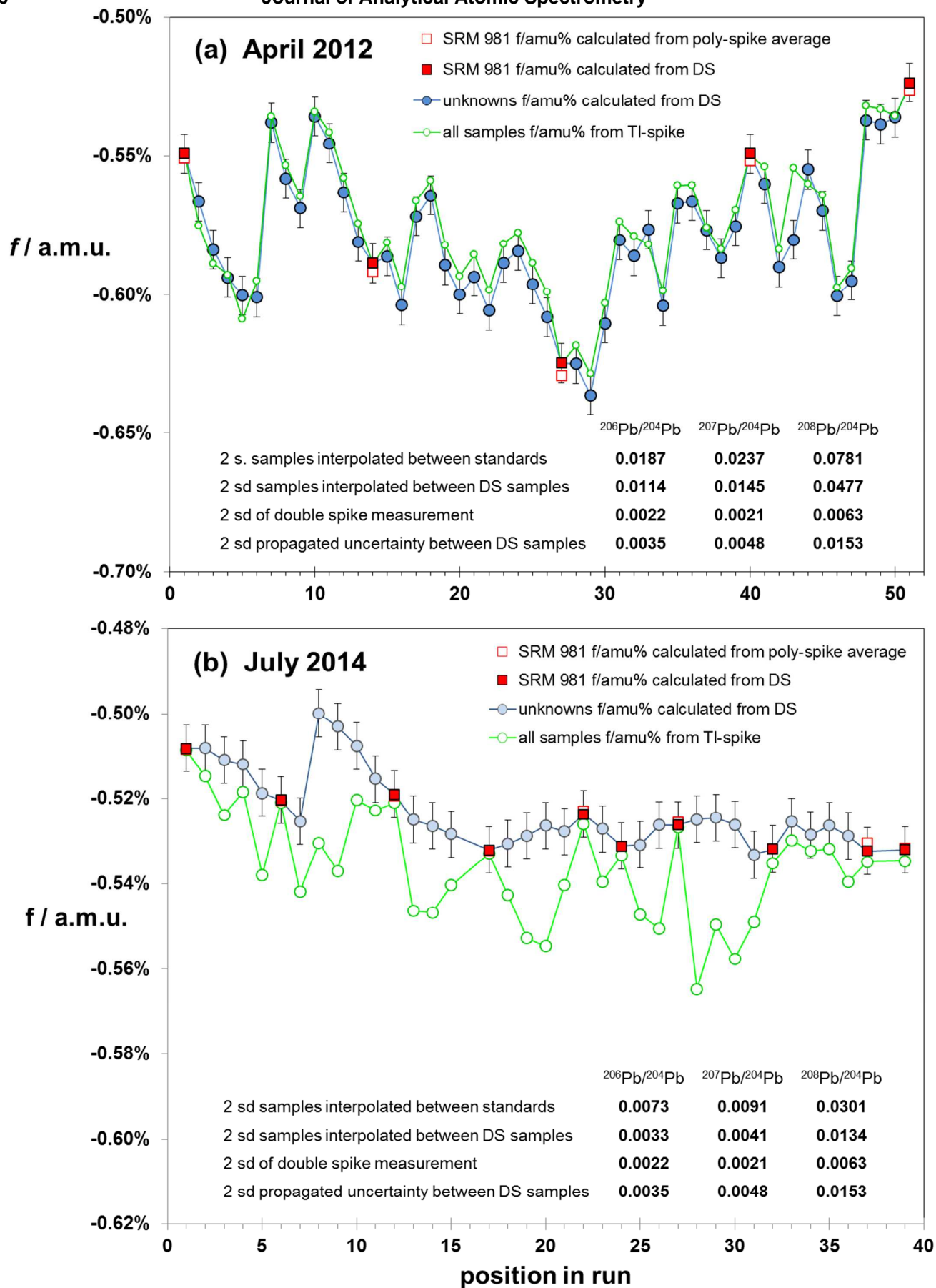


Figure 6

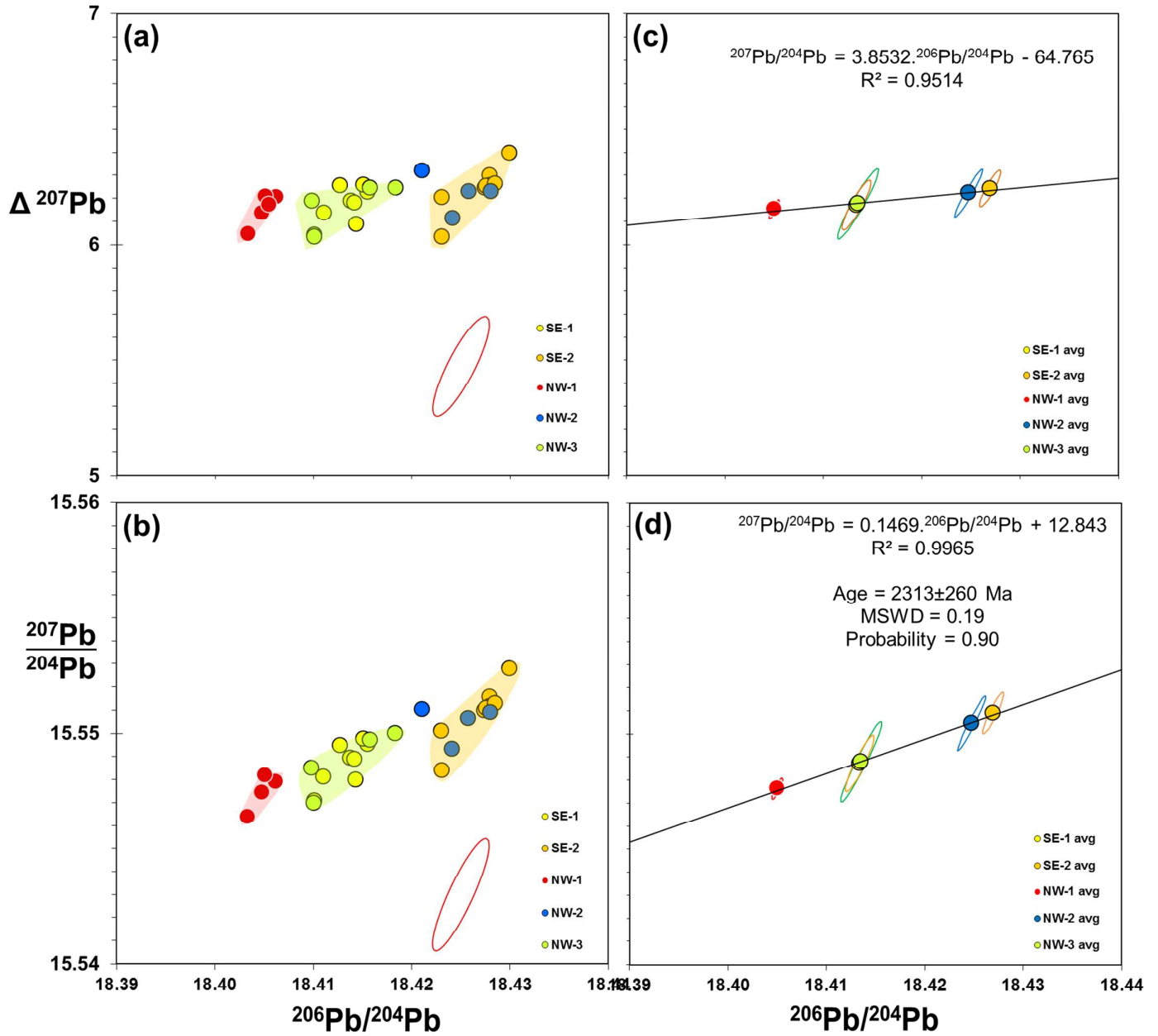


Figure 7

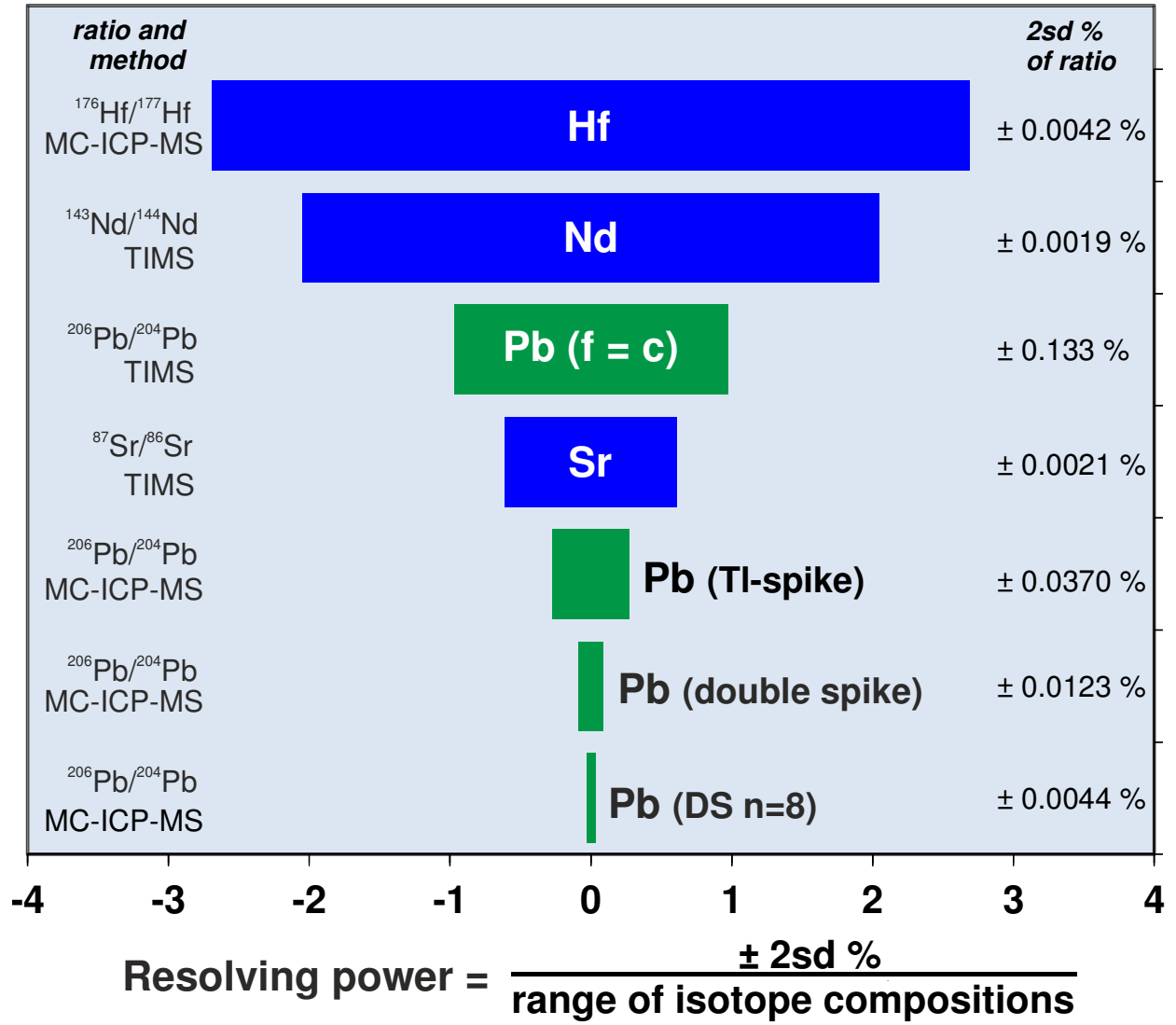


Figure 8

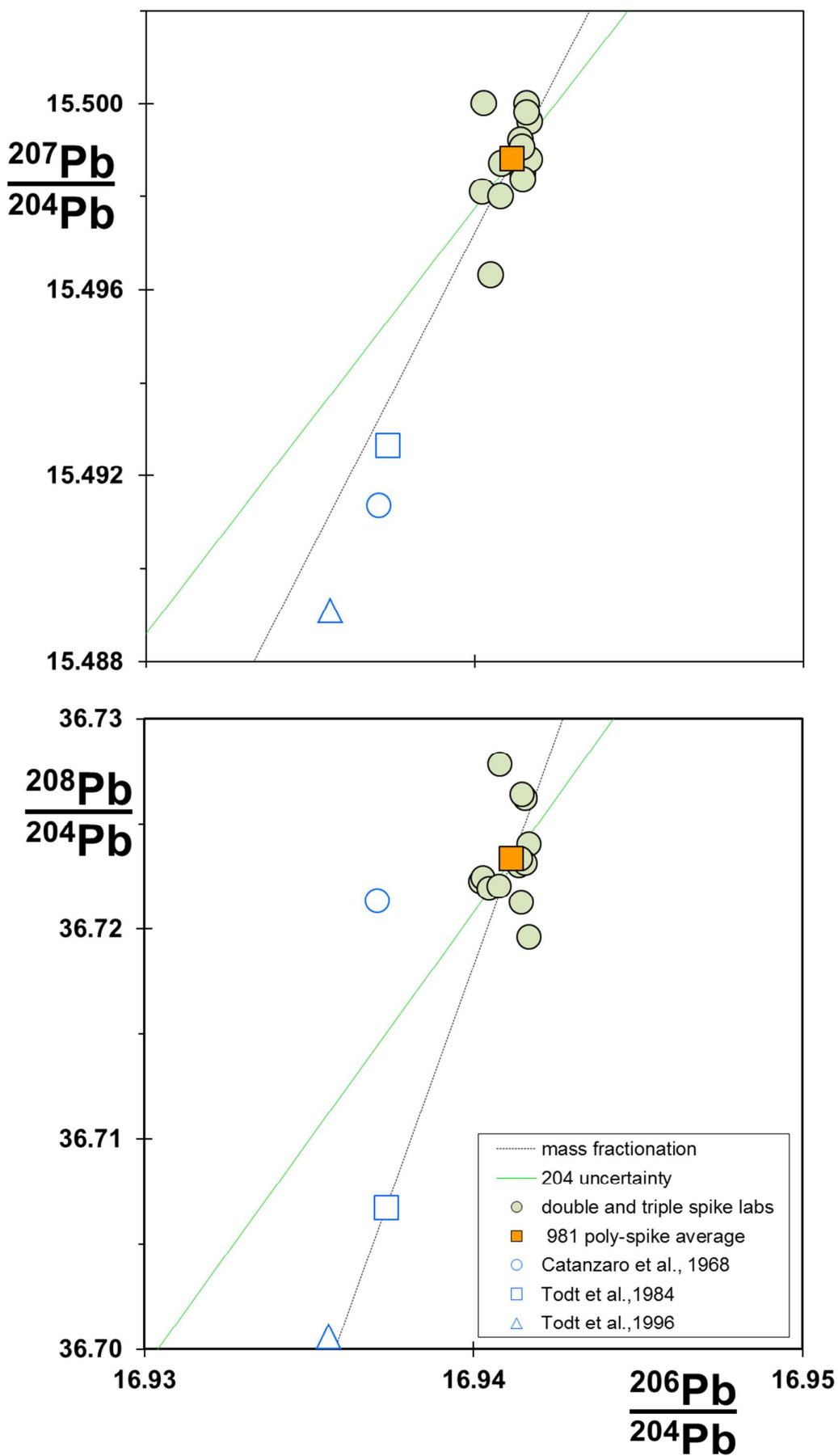


Figure 9

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		$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$	$\pm 2\text{sd}$	$^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$
<i>This study: non-double spike determinations</i>	TIMS $f = c$, 981 standards	16.9403	0.0248	15.4979
	TIMS $f = c$, samples normalised to 981	16.9403	0.0469	15.4979
	MC-ICP-MS Neptune thallium spike	16.9395	0.0069	15.4964
	MC-ICP-MS Neptune sample-std	16.9415	0.0066	15.4985

<i>poly-spike study</i>	<i>method</i>	<i>Instrument</i>			
This study Southampton Sector 54	DS (204-207) ¹	TIMS	16.9402	0.0027	15.4981
This study GSJ Sector 54	DS (204-207) ¹	TIMS	16.9403	0.0029	15.5000
This study Neptune	DS (204-207) ¹	MC-ICP-MS	16.9415	0.0022	15.4985
Galer and Abouchami, 1998	TS (204-206-207) ²	TIMS	16.9405	0.0015	15.4963
Thirlwall, 2002	DS (204-207) ³	TIMS	16.9408	0.0021	15.4980
Thirlwall, 2002	DS (204-207) ³	MC-ICP-MS	16.9417	0.0029	15.4996
Kuritani and Nakamura, 2003	DSx2 (204-5/204-7)	TIMS	16.9414	0.0028	15.4992
Baker et al., 2004	DS (204-207) ¹	MC-ICP-MS	16.9416	0.0013	15.5000
Amelin and Davis, 2006*	DS (202-205) ⁵	TIMS	16.9408	0.0012	15.4987
Makishima et al 2007	DS (204-207) ⁴	MC-ICP-MS	16.9417	0.0024	15.4988
Mainz average 2000-2008	TS (204-206-207) ²	TIMS	16.9415	<i>0.0007</i>	15.4984
Hoernle et al, 2011	DS (204-207) ¹	TIMS	16.9416	0.0024	15.4998
Makishima and Nakamura, 2010**	DS (204-207) ⁴	MC-ICP-MS	16.9415	0.0030	15.4991

NIST SRM 981 poly-spike average			16.9412	<i>0.0003</i>	15.4988
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Todt et al., 1996	DS (202-205)	TIMS	16.9356		15.4891
Todt et al., 1984		TIMS	16.9374		15.4926
Catanzaro et al., 1968		TIMS	16.9371		15.4913
Todt et al., 1996 to poly-spike conversion factors			<i>1.00033</i>		<i>1.00063</i>
Todt et al., 1984 to poly-spike conversion factors			<i>1.00022</i>		<i>1.00040</i>
Catanzaro et al., 1968 to poly-spike conversion factors			<i>1.00024</i>		<i>1.00048</i>

* - recalculated to 982 $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb} = 1.00016$, ** = 1-5ng average, *italic numbers are 2se*

Methods DS = double spike; TS = triple spike. Spike ID: ¹ = SBL74 (Southampton) spike; ² Mainz spike; ³ = Royal

$\pm 2sd$	$^{208}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb}$	$\pm 2sd$	$^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$	$\pm 2sd$	$^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$	$\pm 2sd$
0.0324	36.7213	0.1013	0.91486	0.00061	2.16769	0.00291
0.0642	36.7213	0.2020	0.91486	0.00061	2.16769	0.00291
0.0081	36.7154	0.0255	0.91481	0.00018	2.16744	0.00077
0.0084	36.7212	0.0276	0.91483	0.00015	2.16754	0.00075
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0.0027	36.7222	0.0075	0.91487	0.00008	2.16775	0.00017
0.0038	36.7224	0.0090	0.91497	0.00008	2.16775	0.00011
0.0021	36.7212	0.0063	0.91483	0.00006	2.16754	0.00017
0.0016	36.7219	0.0044	0.91475	0.00004	2.16771	0.00010
0.0025	36.7220	0.0080	0.91483	0.00007	2.16767	0.00041
0.0031	36.7240	0.0080	0.91488	0.00008	2.16770	0.00024
0.0029	36.7230	0.0075	0.91487	0.00005	2.16765	0.00018
0.0015	36.7262	0.0031	0.91491	0.00004	2.16781	0.00012
0.0011	36.7278	0.0029	0.91487	0.00001	2.16800	0.00005
0.0025	36.7196	0.0066	0.91483	0.00005	2.16741	0.00016
<i>0.0021</i>	36.7264	<i>0.0060</i>	0.91482	<i>0.00004</i>	2.16784	<i>0.00014</i>
0.0024	36.7231	0.0063	0.91490	0.00005	2.16763	0.00013
0.0034	36.7233	0.0077	0.91486	0.00005	2.16766	0.00019
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<i>0.0006</i>	36.7233	<i>0.0013</i>	0.914861	<i>0.00003</i>	2.16770	<i>0.00008</i>
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	36.7006		0.91459		2.16707	
	36.7067		0.91470		2.16720	
	36.7213		0.91464		2.16810	
	<i>1.00062</i>		<i>1.00030</i>		<i>1.00029</i>	
	<i>1.00045</i>		<i>1.00018</i>		<i>1.00023</i>	
	<i>1.00005</i>		<i>1.00024</i>		<i>0.99982</i>	

Holloway spike; ⁴ = PML, Japan; ⁵ = Geological Survey of Canada