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Potassium isotopic compositions of international geological reference materials

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ABSTRACT

There is a renewed interest in K isotope geochemistry driven by the advances in analytical precision and it is emerging as a useful tracer in a variety of disciplines ranging from Earth sciences to biology. However, highquality K isotopic data for reference materials are still limited but highly needed. Here, we report high-precision stable K isotopic compositions (δ^{41} K) for 23 commercially available international reference materials, including igneous, sedimentary, and metamorphic rocks, as well as an in-house seawater standard. Potassium in digested samples was separated by cation-exchange chromatography with Bio-Rad AG50W-X8 (200–400 mesh) resin in 0.5 N HNO3 media. Potassium isotopes were measured on a Nu Plasma II high-resolution MC-ICPMS. The reproducibility of K isotopic analysis, based on over one year of measurements of pure K solutions and rock standards, was ≤0.06‰ (95% confidence interval). Synthetic solutions made by mixing single element standards to represent various rock matrices confirmed the accuracy of our methods. The 23 reference materials have δ^{41} K values ranging from −0.562‰ to −0.253‰ and the seawater standard has a much higher δ^{41} K value of 0.143‰. The comprehensive dataset presented here provides a reference for quality control and inter-laboratory comparison of high-precision K isotopic analyses for future studies.

1. Introduction

Potassium (K) is the fifteenth most abundant element in the bulk Earth, the eighth in the crust, and the sixth in the ocean [\(Culkin and](#page-5-0) [Cox, 1966](#page-5-0); [McDonough and Sun, 1995;](#page-5-1) [Rudnick and Gao, 2003\)](#page-5-2). It is also an essential nutrient for metabolic and physiological reactions in organisms [\(Edelmann, 1971](#page-5-3)). Potassium has two stable isotopes ³⁹K (93.25%) and ^{41}K (6.73%), as well as one radioactive isotope ^{40}K (0.02%) [\(Berglund and Wieser, 2011](#page-5-4)). Early studies of K isotopes focused mainly on evaporation and condensation processes during planetary formation (e.g., [Humayun and Clayton, 1995b](#page-5-5)) using Thermal Ionization Mass Spectrometry (TIMS) ([Garner et al., 1975\)](#page-5-6) or Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry (SIMS) [\(Humayun and Clayton, 1995a\)](#page-5-7). Analytical uncertainties of these measurements are larger than 0.5‰ (2SD), which cannot distinguish most K isotopic variation in terrestrial samples [\(Humayun and Clayton, 1995a,b\)](#page-5-7).

Recently, high-precision Multi-Collector Inductively Coupled

Plasma Mass Spectrometry (MC-ICPMS) was applied to measure K isotopes. The strong argide interferences (e.g. ArH^+) on K^+ peaks were suppressed by either the collision cell [\(Richter et al., 2014](#page-5-8); [Li et al.,](#page-5-9) [2016;](#page-5-9) [Wang and Jacobsen, 2016a\)](#page-6-0) or by the "cold plasma" method [\(Hu](#page-5-10) [et al., 2018](#page-5-10); [Morgan et al., 2018](#page-5-11); [Chen et al., 2019\)](#page-5-12), and precision has been improved by one order of magnitude, making it possible to resolve natural K isotopic variations. To date, 3‰ variation in $\mathrm{^{41}K/^{39}K}$ ratios has been reported for samples of extraterrestrial materials (meteorites, lunar rocks, and tektites) and terrestrial rocks, sediments, seawater, as well as biological materials ([Teng et al., 2017\)](#page-6-1). These results have been used to constrain a variety of geological and biological processes such as the Moon-forming event and submarine weathering of oceanic crust and marine sediments ([Wang and Jacobsen, 2016b;](#page-6-2) [Li, 2017](#page-5-13); [Li et al.,](#page-5-14) [2017;](#page-5-14) [Parendo et al., 2017;](#page-5-15) [Morgan et al., 2018;](#page-5-11) [Santiago Ramos et al.,](#page-5-16) [2018\)](#page-5-16).

Non-traditional stable isotope systems often have relatively small variations in nature, particularly during high-temperature processes

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([Teng et al., 2017\)](#page-6-1), and their application has been limited by analytical accuracy. This limitation is especially the case for K isotopes. Since K only has two stable isotopes, the double-spike technique cannot be used to evaluate mass-dependent fractionation behavior or correct for instrumental fractionation. One way to ensure analytical accuracy is to measure well-characterized, lithologically-diverse reference materials. For K isotopes, there are currently only six bulk rock standards from United States Geological Survey (USGS) that have been analyzed independently by three laboratories ([Li et al., 2016;](#page-5-9) [Wang and Jacobsen,](#page-6-0) [2016a,b](#page-6-0); [Hu et al., 2018](#page-5-10); [Morgan et al., 2018](#page-5-11); [Santiago Ramos et al.,](#page-5-16) [2018;](#page-5-16) [Chen et al., 2019](#page-5-12)). Furthermore, there may be greater uncertainty when converting their δ^{41} K values to the same reference scale because these standards have been measured against several different bracketing standards.

Considering the limited database and relatively large uncertainty of published data, this study presents systematic high-precision and highaccuracy measurements on K isotopic compositions in a suite of 23 geological standards covering wide lithological variation, as well as an in-house Hawaiian seawater standard. The rock standards include 19 igneous rocks, three sedimentary rocks, and one metamorphic rock; they are from the USGS, Geological Society of Japan (GSJ), Centre de Recherches Pétrographiques et Géochimiques (CRPG) of France, Association Nationale de la Recherche Technique (ANRT) of France, Canadian Certified Reference Materials Project (CCRMP), and National Research Center for Geoanalysis (NRCGA) of China. These are commonly used reference materials that are commercially available. They were measured and reported against the Standard Reference Material (SRM) 3141a from National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), following the recommendation of [Li et al. \(2016\)](#page-5-9) and [Hu et al.](#page-5-10) [\(2018\).](#page-5-10) This dataset thus serves as a comprehensive reference for data quality control and inter-laboratory comparison of high-precision K isotopic analysis.

2. Analytical methods

Sample preparation was performed in a class-100 laminar flow fume hood in a class-10,000 clean laboratory in the Isotope Laboratory at the University of Washington, Seattle. Savillex screw-top Teflon beakers, double-distilled acids, and Milli-Q water (18.2 MΩ) were used to maintain low blank levels.

2.1. Sample dissolution

Typically, 5–30 mg of sample powders were weighed and digested in Teflon beakers using a mixture of concentrated $HF-HNO₃$ (optimagrade, 3:1 v/v). For samples containing organic matter, several drops of optima-grade H_2O_2 were added. These beakers were capped and heated on a hotplate at 120 °C for approximately three days, periodically vibrated in an ultrasonic bath, and dried at 100 °C. Samples were then treated with aqua regia (optima-grade HCl-HNO₃, 3:1 v/v) until complete dissolution. After that, they were refluxed in concentrated $\rm HNO_3$ and dried again. Finally, samples were dissolved in 0.5 N HNO₃, in preparation for the cation-exchange columns.

2.2. Column chemistry

Purification of K was achieved by cation-exchange chromatography with a similar method adapted from [Strelow et al. \(1970\)](#page-5-17). A precleaned Bio-Rad Poly-Prep polyethylene column was packed with 2 ml $(0.8 \times 4 \text{ cm})$ pre-cleaned Bio-Rad AG50W-X8 (200–400 mesh) resin. The resin was conditioned by 10 ml 0.5 N HNO₃. Sample solutions were then loaded on the resin and eluted by $0.5 N HNO₃$. Matrix elements were eluted in the first 13 ml 0.5 N HNO₃; the subsequent 22 ml fractions containing the K was collected; and, finally, the remaining elements were washed off the resin by 10 ml of 6 N HCl. The detailed procedure of column chemistry is provided in [Table 1](#page-1-0).

Potassium cation-exchange column procedure.

Table 2

Potassium isotopic tests of pure K and synthetic samples.

Notes:

I #1 and I #2: FZT K-1 after two and three times of column chemistry, respectively.

II #1–II #4: FZT K-1 mixed with multiple elements.

III $#1$ –III $#4$: FZT K-1 mixed with natural rock matrices ($#1$: BHVO-1 matrices; #2: AGV-1 matrices; #3: GSP-1 matrices; #4: G-2 matrices).

Replicate: repeat sample dissolution, column chemistry, and instrumental analyses.

Duplicate: repeat analysis on the same purified sample solution during different analytical sessions.

95% c.i.: two standard error corrected by the Student's t factor ([Platzner, 1997\)](#page-5-18) and representing 95% confidence interval.

2SD: two standard deviation.

n: number of analyses.

The column separation procedure was calibrated using an in-house $KNO₃$ standard solution (FZT K-1) from Spex CertiPrep® and three geostandards from NRCGA (gabbro GBW07112, granodiorite GBW07111, and granite GBW07103). Eluent fractions were measured using a Perkin-Elmer 3300 Dual View Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectrometry (DV ICP-OES) calibrated with Spex CertiPrep® standards. The elution curves indicate that K is effectively separated from other major elements ([Fig. 1](#page-2-0)). Titanium and Na were eluted before K, and other major elements (Fe, Mg, Ca, Mn and Al) were retained in the resin. However, among all elements measured, Rb cannot be quantitatively separated from K because both have similar resin-eluent partition coefficients. Nevertheless, Rb/K ratio of most natural samples is $< 1\%$, and the doping tests by [Hu et al. \(2018\)](#page-5-10)

Fig. 1. Elution curves for Spex K standard, gabbro, granodiorite, and granite. Over 99.73% K was collected from 15 to 36 ml interval. All matrix elements are completely removed with the exception of Rb.

confirmed that a Rb/K ratio of up to one does not affect the measured δ^{41} K values within analytical uncertainties. The column separation was repeated twice to achieve an effectively pure K solution. The average K yield of our analytical protocol is $99.7 \pm 1.1\%$ (2SD, $n = 4$). The procedural blank, including sample dissolution, column chemistry, and instrumental analysis varies from 0.63 to 9.4 ng; this is insignificant compared to the amount of K (100–200 μg) loaded onto the columns.

Large isotope fractionation has been observed during ion-exchange chromatography in many isotope systems, e.g., Li, Mg, Ca, and Rb ([Taylor and Urey, 1938](#page-5-19); [Teng et al., 2007;](#page-6-3) [Morgan et al., 2011;](#page-5-20) [Zhang](#page-6-4) [et al., 2018](#page-6-4)). The K isotopic variation during column chemistry was examined here to ensure there is no artificial isotope fractionation induced due to incomplete recovery. Two individual 1000 μg FZT K-1 solutions were processed through the column and the 22 ml K fraction was collected in five intervals with volumes of 7 ml, 3 ml, 2 ml, 2 ml, and 8 ml; and volumes of 8 ml, 3 ml, 2 ml, 2 ml, and 7 ml. Analyses of these K cuts suggest that the light K isotope was preferentially eluted off the resin, followed by the remaining heavy K isotope ($Fig. 2$). This is opposite to the behaviors of the K isotopes on a Dionex CS-16 cation exchange column ([Morgan et al., 2018](#page-5-11)) as well as to other non-traditional stable isotopes such as Li, Mg and Ca for which the heavier isotopes are preferentially released from the resin ([Taylor and Urey, 1938](#page-5-19); [Russell and Papanastassiou, 1978](#page-5-21); [Teng et al., 2007](#page-6-3); [Morgan et al.,](#page-5-20) [2011\)](#page-5-20). However, our result is consistent with Rb isotope fractionation on a Sr-spec resin in $HNO₃$ media ([Zhang et al., 2018\)](#page-6-4). These different fractionation behaviors might reflect the influence of the large ionic radii of K^+ and Rb^+ on the equilibrium isotope partitioning between the resin and eluent, which leads to the preference of heavier isotope

Fig. 2. K isotope fractionation during column chemistry. Horizontal bars represent the collecting volume range; vertical bars represent 95% c.i. of K isotopic value.

for the resin. Regardless of the mechanisms responsible for the differing fractionation behaviors, full recovery of K during column chemistry is required. The 22-ml fraction in our column procedure collected the entire K fraction eluted, thereby avoiding any potential column fractionation artifacts.

2.3. Mass spectrometry

The K isotopes were measured on a Nu Plasma II HR-MC-ICPMS at the Isotope Laboratory, University of Washington, Seattle. Analytical details for this instrument are presented in [Hu et al. \(2018\)](#page-5-10) and a brief description is given below.

The K isotopic compositions of the purified sample solutions were measured using "cold plasma" at a lowered RF power to suppress interferences from isobaric argides $(^{38}Ar^1H^+$ on $^{39}K^+$ and $^{40}Ar^1H^+$ on 41 K⁺, respectively). High resolution mode was used to minimize residual argide interferences thereby providing an interference-free, peak shoulder for the K isotope analysis ([Hu et al., 2018\)](#page-5-10). "Dry plasma" sample introduction was used to increase sensitivity and further reduce argide formation, which consists of a DSN-100 desolvation nebulizer system fitted with a PFA spray chamber and a MicroMist glass nebulizer. Sample solutions and bracketing standards were diluted using a same batch of 3% HNO₃ to a K concentration of 5 to 8 ppm, which produces 5 to 11 V of ³⁹K signal. On-peak zero on mass 41 varies mostly between -8×10^{-4} and -1.5×10^{-3} V and that on mass 39 is typically around -3×10^{-3} V; these are negligible compared to the signals of sample solutions.

Instrumental mass fractionation was corrected by sample-standard bracketing technique. The sample-standard sequence for each sample was repeated n times ($n \geq 4$). The K isotopic composition is expressed in delta (δ) notation following previous recommendation [\(Teng et al.,](#page-6-1) [2017\)](#page-6-1):

$$
\delta^{41}K(\%_{o}) = \left\{ \frac{\left(\binom{41}{K}^{39}K\right)_{\text{sample}}}{\binom{41}{K}^{39}K\right)_{\text{standard}}} - 1 \right\} \times 1000\tag{1}
$$

The normalization standard used for natural reference materials is NIST SRM 3141a and that used for synthetic samples is Spex CertiPrep® $KNO₃$ solution (FZT K-1).

Analytical uncertainties are reported as both 2SD (standard deviation of n repeated sample analyses during an analytical session) and 95% confidence interval (c.i.). The 95% c.i. is calculated from the standard deviation of all bracketing standard measurements during an analytical session and is corrected by the Student's t factor [\(Platzner,](#page-5-18) [1997\)](#page-5-18) (95%c. i. $=t\frac{SD}{\sqrt{n}}$) (see [Hu et al., 2018](#page-5-10) for more details). The reproducibility of K isotopic measurements of pure K solutions and rock standards over a year was $\leq 0.06\%$ (95% c.i.) [\(Hu et al., 2018](#page-5-10)). All duplicates (repeat analysis on the same purified sample solution during different analytical sessions) and replicates (repeat sample dissolution,

Fig. 3. K isotopic compositions of synthetic solutions with the expected true value of zero. I: FZT K-1 solution after passing the column successively two or three times; II: FZT K-1 mixed with multiple elements; III: FZT K-1 mixed with natural rock matrices (BHVO-1, AGV-1, GSP-1 and G-2 matrices). Data are reported in [Table 2](#page-1-1).

column chemistry, and instrumental analysis) are reproducible within 0.06‰.

3. Evaluation of analytical accuracy

To verify that the K isotopic data are both precise and accurate, we carried out the following three sets of tests:

First, we processed a pure K solution through the entire analytical procedure to assess whether any isotope fractionation occurred during column chemistry. For this purpose, a sample containing 200 μg K is prepared from Spex CertiPrep® $KNO₃$ solution (FZT K-1) and then successively passed through the column chemistry either two or three times. The δ^{41} K values of the collected K fractions are $-0.006 \pm 0.037\%$ (2SD, $n = 3$) and $0.007 \pm 0.014\%$ (2SD, $n = 3$), respectively, indicating that our column procedure does not induce analytical artifact for pure K solution (I in [Fig. 3](#page-3-0)).

In the second test, we used synthetic solutions that mimic various rock compositions in nature to evaluate whether our column chemistry effectively removes matrix elements. Two types of synthetic solutions were prepared: four individual batches of pure K solution (FZT K-1) were mixed with multiple elements (100 μg K, 100 μg Na, 100 μg Mg, 100 μg Fe, 100 μg Ca, 100 μg Al, 10 μg Mn, 10 μg Ti) (II in [Fig. 3\)](#page-3-0); the pure K solution FZT K-1 was added to the eluted matrix fractions of four USGS standards in quantities that matched the K masses in the original samples (128 μg K in a matrix of 28.79 mg BHVO-1 basalt, 120 μg K in a matrix of 4.91 mg AGV-1 andesite, 228 μg K in a matrix of 5.00 mg GSP-1 Granodiorite, and 119 μg K in a matrix of 3.20 mg G-2 granite) (III in [Fig. 3](#page-3-0)). Both sets of solutions were processed through column chemistry and analyzed against FZT K-1. These tests yielded δ^{41} K values that range from −0.033‰ to 0.040‰, with a mean of 0.007 ± 0.048‰ (2SD, $n = 9$), further validating the accuracy of our column chemistry.

For the final test, we processed and measured well-characterized reference materials for inter-laboratory comparison, including a seawater standard and 12 rock standards (BHVO-1, BCR-1, AGV-1, GSP-1, G-2, GS-N, RGM-1, QLO-1, MAG-1, SCo-1, SGR-1 and SDC-1). Our data are consistent with those reported by other laboratories within uncertainty [\(Li et al., 2016](#page-5-9); [Wang and Jacobsen, 2016b](#page-6-2); [Morgan et al.,](#page-5-11) [2018;](#page-5-11) [Santiago Ramos et al., 2018;](#page-5-16) [Chen et al., 2019](#page-5-12)) ([Fig. 4\)](#page-3-1), confirming that our methods for chemical separation and instrumental analysis are consistent with other laboratories. Furthermore, our greater precision provides tighter constraints on the published values.

4. K isotopic compositions of reference materials

The K isotopic compositions of 23 reference materials and seawater

Fig. 4. K isotopic compositions of reference materials, together with data reported by other laboratories. Precision is plotted as 2SD for comparison. The solid line and shaded area highlight the δ^{41} K of the mantle as represented by standard BHVO-1 (-0.411 ± 0.012 ‰, 95% c.i.). Data are reported in [Table 3.](#page-4-0)

are reported in [Table 3](#page-4-0) and plotted in [Fig. 4](#page-3-1), together with published data when available. Notably, 11 out of the 23 reference materials have not been analyzed for K isotopes previously.

To make an internally consistent database, we compile the reference materials' data reported in this study and in [Hu et al. \(2018\),](#page-5-10) then calculate an average δ^{41} K value and associated uncertainty for each reference material. These are calculated as an error-weighted mean of replicate and duplicate analyses using the following equations:

error – weighted mean
$$
=
$$
 $\frac{\sum \frac{X}{SD^2}}{\sum \frac{1}{SD^2}}$ (2)

2SD of error – weighted mean =
$$
2 \times \sqrt{\frac{1}{\sum_{\text{SD}^2} 1}}
$$
 (3)

95%. i. of error – weighted mean =
$$
\sqrt{\frac{1}{\sum_{\text{(95\%c.i.)}^2}}}
$$
(4)

where X is the δ^{41} K value of each analysis; SD is standard deviation; and 95% c.i. represents 95% confidence interval.

The igneous reference materials range in composition from mafic to felsic, and their δ^{41} K values vary from -0.562 ‰ to -0.253 ‰, with the diorite (DR-N) having the lowest δ^{41} K and two syenites (SY-1 and SY-2) having the highest δ^{41} K [\(Fig. 4](#page-3-1)). In comparison, basalts display a

Table 3

Literature: $1 = Hu$ et al. (2018); $2 = Wang$ $2 = Wang$ and Jacobsen (2016a); $3 = Wang$ [and Jacobsen \(2016b\)](#page-6-2); $4 =$ [Li et al. \(2016\);](#page-5-9) $5 =$ [Morgan et al. \(2018\);](#page-5-11) $6 =$ [Chen](#page-5-12) [et al. \(2019\)](#page-5-12); 7 = [Santiago Ramos et al. \(2018\)](#page-5-16). Replicate: repeat sample dissolution, column chemistry and instrumental analyses; duplicate: repeat analysis on the same purified sample solution during different analytical sessions. All data in this table are presented relative to NIST SRM 3141a. Data in literature 2 and 3 were measured against Merck Suprapur K, which has been confirmed by Literature 6 to have an identical δ^{41} K value to that of NIST SRM SRM 3141a; therefore, no conversion is needed. Data in literature 1, 4, and 6 were measured against NIST SRM 3141a. Data in literature 5 and 7 were measured against NIST SRM 999b and were normalized relative to seawater. Since that NIST SRM 3141a is prepared from NIST SRM 999a, the K isotopic compositions of the two standards are assumed to be the same. Based on the K isotopic difference between seawater and NIST SRM 999b, we normalize δ^{41} K_{seawater} to δ^{41} K_{3141a} by adding 0.03. Analytical uncertainties in literature 2 and 3 are reported as 2SE and are converted to 2SD here while uncertainties in this study are reported both as 2SD and 95% c.i.

Fig. 5. K isotopic compositions of igneous reference materials vs K₂O (A) and SiO2 (B). Error bar represents 95% c.i. The solid line and shaded area represent $δ^{41}$ K of the mantle (−0.411 ± 0.012‰, 95% c.i.). $δ^{41}$ K are reported in [Table 3.](#page-4-0) K_2O and SiO_2 contents are from [Govindaraju \(1994\)](#page-5-23).

narrow range from −0.416‰ for JB-1 to −0.348‰ for BR, which is consistent with previous analyses of basalts ([Li et al., 2016;](#page-5-9) [Wang and](#page-6-0) [Jacobsen, 2016a](#page-6-0); [Morgan et al., 2018](#page-5-11); [Chen et al., 2019\)](#page-5-12). Within all these igneous rock standards, there is no clear trend between δ^{41} K values and chemical indices of magma differentiation (e.g., K_2O and SiO_2) contents) ([Fig. 5](#page-5-22)). This is opposite to the apparent positive correlation between δ^{41} K and SiO₂ values shown in [Chen et al. \(2019\).](#page-5-12) Since the measured igneous rock standards are not genetically linked, our data suggest that in addition to magmatic differentiation, other factors such as source heterogeneity may also greatly affect the K isotopic composition of igneous rocks, particularly the more felsic ones.

Similar to most igneous rocks, the mica schist (SDC-1) has a δ^{41} K value of −0.461 ± 0.017‰, suggesting limited fractionation during metamorphic dehydration. The three shale standards show contrasting δ^{41} K values. The marine mud standard MAG-1 $(\delta^{41}K = -0.385 \pm 0.025\%)$ and marine shale standard SCo-1 $(\delta^{41}K = -0.360 \pm 0.025\%)$ fall at the high- $\delta^{41}K$ end of basalt range whereas the organic- and carbonate-rich shale SGR-1 is significantly heavier (δ^{41} K = -0.264 ± 0.015‰), reflecting the complex nature and origin of sedimentary rocks.

The Hawaiian seawater has an average δ^{41} K value of 0.143 \pm 0.013‰, which is ~0.55‰ heavier than igneous rocks and suggests large isotope fractionations occur during fluid-rock interactions. Furthermore, out data agree with published results for several seawater samples from other oceans ([Li et al., 2016;](#page-5-9) [Wang and](#page-6-0) [Jacobsen, 2016a](#page-6-0); [Morgan et al., 2018\)](#page-5-11), indicating that K in seawater is well mixed and has a homogenous isotopic composition.

5. Conclusions

In this study, we report high-precision K isotopic data for seawater and 23 widely used and commercially available geological reference materials that include major lithological types. The K isotope compositions in 11 of the reference materials have not been previously analyzed and for 12 reference materials with published values, higher precision data are provided. The robustness of the cation exchange column chemistry (Bio-Rad AG50W-X8, 200–400 mesh resin) in 0.5 N HNO₃ was confirmed in three sets of tests using both synthetic solutions and natural rock standards. The δ^{41} K values range from -0.562‰ to

 $-0.253%$ in 23 rock standards, while seawater has the highest δ^{41} K value of 0.143‰. Notably, the large K isotopic variation among the different lithologies that the standards represent suggests significant K isotope fractionation occurs during both low-temperature and hightemperature processes.

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