

Les isotopes du strontium et du baryum dans le Système Solaire précoce

Elsa Yobregat

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Elsa YOBREGAT

Les isotopes du strontium et du baryum dans le Système Solaire précoce

Devant le jury composé de :

Bernard MARTY, Professeur des universités, CRPG Nancy, Rapporteur Herbert PALME, Professeur émérite, Frankfurt Senckenberg Museum, Rapporteur Ingo LEYA, Professeur des universités, Universität Bern, Examinateur Stéphane LABROSSE, Professeur des universités, LGLTPE ENS Lyon, Examinateur Bernard BOURDON, Directeur de recherche CNRS, LGLTPE ENS Lyon, Directeur de thèse Caroline FITOUSSI, Chargée de recherche CNRS, LGLTPE ENS Lyon, Co-encadrante de thèse The more we learn about the solar system, the more difficult it is to give a plausible answer to the question: how did it start? It is not the "answer" part that gets harder – it's the plausibility. As we learn more and more about the solar system, the reality-check that our theories have to pass becomes more and more stringent. This is one reason why scientists have a habit of opening up old questions that everybody assumed were settled long ago, and deciding that they weren't. It doesn't mean that scientists are incompetent: it demonstrates their willingness to contemplate new evidence and re-examine old conclusions in its light. Science certainly does not claim to get things right, but it has a good record of ruling out ways to get things wrong.

Terry Pratchett, Ian Stewart & Jack Cohen, The Science of Discworld

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Résumé

Des anomalies nucléosynthetiques ont été observées dans des météorites pour plusieurs éléments. L'ampleur de ces anomalies ainsi que leur répartition entre les objets du système solaire renseigne sur le degré d'hétérogénéité de la nébuleuse solaire. L'étude des phases porteuses de ces anomalies procure des informations sur les processus à l'origine de cette hétérogénéité. Les datations par radiochronomètres de courte période reposent sur la répartition hétérogène des éléments père et fils. L'utilisation de ces outils nécessite donc l'étude parallèle des variations nucléosynthétiques de ces éléments.

Cette étude présente des données isotopiques de haute précision en strontium et baryum. Une première étape de ce travail a été le développement d'une nouvelle technique de séparation des éléments puis de leur mesure isotopique par spectrométrie de masse à ionisation thermique. La présence de phases résistantes aux acides dans certaines chondrites représente une potentielle source d'anomalies apparentes dans ces objets. Afin de s'affranchir de l'influence de ces phases, les échantillons de chondrites carbonées ont été préparés par fusion laser. Les anomalies en Sr précédemment rapportées pour les chondrites ordinaires et les angrites n'ont pas été détectées dans cette étude. La nouvelle précision obtenue montre l'absence d'anomalies entre la Terre et les angrites, Mars, la Lune, les chondrites ordinaires et les chondrites carbonées de type CI. Cette observation indique que les phases porteuses du Sr et du Ba étaient bien mélangées dans le Système Solaire précoce. La présence d'anomalies à l'échelle des planètes observées pour d'autres éléments suggère que ces anomalies sont le résultats de processus secondaires ayant eu lieu dans une nébuleuse homogène.

Le rapport ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr utilisé pour la normalisation interne des données de Sr peut être modifié par des variations d'abondance des processus r (et s). Une légère anomalie sur ce rapport crée des anomalies apparentes sur les rapports ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr et ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr. Ce dernier est utilisé pour la chronologie du Système Solaire précoce et il semble donc nécessaire de prendre en compte les anomalies nucléosynthétiques dans le calcul des âges radiogéniques Rb – Sr pour les objets présentant une anomalie en ⁸⁴Sr.

Les anomalies en ⁸⁴Sr et ¹³⁵Ba sont corrélées ce qui suggère que ces anomalies sont le résultat de légères différences d'abondances des processus r et s. En revanche, la corrélation entre les deux nucléides issus du processus p ⁸⁴Sr et ¹³²Ba, est peu visible indiquant que les variations isotopiques pour ces isotopes ne sont pas le résultat direct de variation du processus p, mais sont induites par les variations des processus r et s affectant les isotopes du Sr utilisés pour la correction du fractionnement de masse lors de la mesure.

La précision de 4 ppm atteinte sur le rapport ${}^{135}Ba/{}^{136}Ba$ et l'absence d'anomalies en Ba pour Orgueil (CI) permet de contraindre le rapport initial ${}^{135}Cs/{}^{133}Cs = 4 \times 10^{-6}$ dans le système

solaire précoce. Cette nouvelle valeur, plus basse que celles précédemment publiées dans la littérature ne nécessite pas l'injection tardive de matériel dans la nébuleuse solaire pour expliquer l'abondance initiale du ¹³⁵Cs.

Mots-clés : nucléosynthèse ; strontium ; baryum ; isotopes ; TIMS ; météorites.

Strontium and barium isotopes in the early Solar System

Abstract

Nucleosynthetic anomalies have been observed in meteorites for many elements. The magnitude and repartition of these anomalies provide information about the degree of heterogeneity of the solar nebula. The study of the nucleosynthetic anomalies carriers could also give insight into the processes responsible for this heterogeneity. The presence or absence of small variations in nucleosynthetic processes is a key for the use of the short-lived radiochronometers. Small variations in the repartition of the parent or daughter isotope can lead to misinterpretations of relative ages.

This study aims at providing high precision isotopic data for strontium and barium. A first step was to develop a new analytical protocol for the chemical separation and purification of both elements along with their measurement by thermal ionization mass spectrometry. The presence of acid resistant phases in some chondrites has been suggested as potential sources of apparent anomalies. To assess their influence, carbonaceous chondrite samples were processed by laser fusion to ensure complete dissolution. Strontium nucleosynthetic anomalies reported in previous studies have not been observed during the course of this study. The new level of precision obtained reveals no anomaly in Sr and Ba for angrites, Mars, the Moon, ordinary chondrites and CI carbonaceous chondrites compared to Earh. This observation implies that the early solar system was well-mixed regarding the carriers of Sr and Ba. Compared to planetary scale anomalies observed for other elements, it suggests that nucleosynthetic anomalies in those other isotopic systems could have been inherited from secondary processes like thermal processing in a well-mixed solar nebula.

The Sr normalizing ratio 86 Sr/ 88 Sr could be affected by variations in the abundances of r and s processes, inducing apparent anomalies in 84 Sr/ 86 Sr and 87 Sr/ 86 Sr ratios. A precise examination of 84 Sr anomalies and their origin is necessary to interpret ages obtained through the 87 Rb – 87 Sr system.

Nucleosynthetic anomalies in ⁸⁴Sr and ¹³⁵Ba in fused carbonaceous chondrites are correlated suggesting that these anomalies are the result of small variations in the relative abundances of r and s processes. Moreover this correlation is consistent with modelled slope for an s-process deficit. A slight correlation is visible between the two p-process nuclides ⁸⁴Sr and ¹³²Ba but this trend more likely reflects the r and s processes variations affecting the Sr normalization ratio than a direct anomaly in the abundances of p-process.

The 4 ppm external precision obtained in ${}^{135}\text{Ba}/{}^{136}\text{Ba}$ ratios and the absence of variations from the terrestrial composition for the Orgueil CI chondrite allow the determination of a new maximum value of 4 x 10⁻⁴ for the initial ${}^{135}\text{Cs}/{}^{133}\text{Cs}$ ratio in the early Solar System. This value is lower than previous published data. Such low ratio does not need for late injection of ${}^{135}\text{Cs}$ in the solar nebula.

Keywords: nucleosynthesis; strontium; barium; isotopes; TIMS; meteorites.

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Chapitre 1 Introduction et contexte

1.1 Généralités sur la formation du Système Solaire

Les connaissances expérimentales actuelles sur la formation du Système Solaire proviennent principalement de deux sources. D'une part, l'observation directe des disques protoplanétaires dans d'autres régions de la galaxie qui permet de contraindre la durée de vie de ces objets (1 à 10 Ma, Dullemond et al., 2007) et la taille des particules. D'autre part, l'étude minéralogique et chimique des météorites, témoins de la formation du Système Solaire. Les météorites sont des fragments d'astéroïdes et leur analyse renseigne sur l'âge et les conditions de température de leur zone de formation.

Un disque protoplanétaire se forme lors de l'effondrement d'un nuage moléculaire par gravité pour former une étoile centrale entourée d'un disque de gaz et de poussière. La croissance des grains millimétriques pour former des objets kilométriques est une des phases les moins bien comprises (Chambers, 2004). Les particules sont trop petites pour s'agglomérer sous l'effet de la gravité et trop grosses pour être retenues entre elles par les forces électrostatiques. Elles sont soumises à l'entrainement du gaz de la nébuleuse qui les entraîne vers l'étoile centrale par conservation du moment angulaire à des vitesses de plusieurs cm/s.

La migration vers l'étoile est maximale pour des objets de taille métrique qui devraient par conséquent être entièrement accrétés par l'étoile. Récemment, des modèles de gravitoturbulence ont été proposés pour expliquer la formation des planétésimaux par effondrement gravitationnel dans des zones où la turbulence augmente significativement la densité de particules. Ces modèles proposent une formation des planétésimaux très rapide (Cuzzi et al., 2008), mais sporadique avec des zones de formation réparties dans l'espace et le temps (Chambers, 2010). La prévalence des effondrements gravitationnels est d'autant plus élevée que le rapport de densité solide/gaz est grand (Johansen et al., 2009). Dans les régions internes du disque, cette condition est atteinte rapidement, entrainant la formation d'une première génération de planétésimaux assez riches en isotopes radioactifs de courtes périodes (SLR pour Short-Lived Radionuclides) tels que ²⁶Al pour fondre et différencier les objets (Ghosh, 2006). Ce modèle est cohérent avec la formation des corps parents des achondrites basaltiques (angrites, eucrites) moins de 1 million d'années (Ma) après la formation des premiers solides, les inclusions riches en Ca et Al (CAI) (Hans et al., 2013 ; Kleine et al., 2012).

Une fois les planétésimaux formés, l'accrétion se poursuit dominée par l'attraction gravitationnelle des plus gros corps durant la phase de « runaway growth » pour former des

embryons planétaires. Le temps d'accrétion des planétésimaux peut être contraint par des radioisotopes de courte période. Le système ²⁶ Al – ²⁶Mg contraint l'accrétion de corps différentiés, tel que le corps parent des angrites, dans le premier million d'années du Système Solaire, ainsi que leur différentiation entre 1 et 3 Ma après la formation des CAI (e.g. Bizzarro et al., 2010; Schiller et al., 2015). Une autre contrainte sur la différentiation des planétésimaux est apportée par le système 182 Hf – 182 W. Ce système permet de dater la formation d'un noyau métallique. Des mesures réalisées sur des météorites de fer montrent que leurs corps parents se sont différenciés très tôt, environ 1 Ma après les CAI et se sont donc accrétés en quelques centaines de millions d'années après la formation du Système Solaire (e.g. Kruijer et al., 2014). La formation des embryons planétaires est également rapide, illustrée par l'accrétion rapide de Mars dans les 2 premiers millions d'années du Système Solaire (Dauphas et Pourmand, 2011). La formation des planétésimaux et embryons planétaires semble être contemporaine de celle des chondres, dont les âges de formation ${}^{26}Al - {}^{26}Mg$ couvrent une période entre 1 et 4 Ma après les CAI (Villeneuve et al., 2009). Cette observation suggère que les chondrites telles que celles observées aujourd'hui ne sont pas les matériaux constitutifs des planètes, mais peuvent toutefois provenir de réservoirs de compositions isotopiques similaires.

Lors de la formation des embryons planétaires, le gaz nébulaire disparaît, dissipé par les rayonnements intenses du jeune Soleil, ou directement accrété par ce dernier. L'interaction entre le gaz nébulaire et les planétésimaux et embryons avait pour effet de stabiliser leur extrentricité orbitale. Celle-ci augmente alors, générant d'importantes collisions (Chambers et Wetherhill, 1998). Les simulations numériques montrent qu'à cette période l'influence des planètes géantes génère des résonances dans la partie externe de la ceinture d'astéroïdes expulsant des objets vers le Soleil ou l'extérieur du Système Solaire (Chambers and Wetherhill, 2001 ; Raymond et al., 2004, 2005).

Le modèle du Grand Tack

Hansen (2009) a montré que pour reproduire la petite taille de Mars, le paramètre clé est une troncature du disque à \sim 1 AU. Sur cette base, Walsh et al. (2011) ont proposé que la troncature soit le résultat de la migration des planètes géantes pendant la phase de formation des planétésimaux et des embryons, alors que le gaz nébulaire est encore présent. Dans ce modèle baptisé « Grand Tack », Jupiter se forme très tôt. L'interaction de la géante avec le gaz induit sa migration vers l'intérieur du disque et son interaction gravitationnelle tronque le disque devant elle. La planète est alors rattrapée par Saturne, formée peu après, et la résonance entre les deux planètes géantes les fait migrer vers l'extérieur jusqu'à la disparition du gaz. Ce modèle permet de tronquer le disque à \sim 1 AU, tout en préservant une ceinture d'astéroïdes formée par des objets laissés lors du second passage de Jupiter à travers le Système Solaire interne. Une part de ces objets provient de la zone interne du disque (astéroïdes de type E et S), mais une part est issue des zones externes (astéroïdes de type C). La présence des trois types d'astéroïdes sur une distance faible (1 AU) ne peut être simplement le résultat d'un gradient thermique à leurs positions actuelles. Le modèle de « Grand Tack » explique pourquoi le temps d'accrétion de Mars est comparable à celui des astéroïdes (Dauphas et Pourmand, 2011). Mars est donc un embryon planétaire qui a été éjecté hors de la zone de formation des planètes avant d'avoir pu accréter plus de matière.

1.2 Les météorites

Les météorites sont les témoins directs de la formation de notre Système Solaire. Elles sont réparties en deux grandes classes, les chondrites et les achondrites. Les chondrites sont des objets non différenciés pouvant contenir des chondres, des inclusions réfractaires et des particules de métal rassemblés dans une matrice très fine. Les proportions des constituants sont variables d'une classe de chondrite à l'autre (Tableau 1). Les chondres sont des billes, de l'ordre du mm ou plus petits, dont la texture suggère qu'ils ont été chauffés puis refroidis sur des temps très courts, impliquant des phénomènes locaux dans la nébuleuse (Desch et Connolly, 2002 ; Ciesla et Hood, 2002). Les inclusions réfractaires (CAI) sont les premiers condensats du système solaire, ne contenant que des minéraux ayant des températures de condensation élevées. Les CAI sont les plus vieux objets du système solaire qui aient survécu jusqu'à aujourd'hui.

| | Chondrites carbonées (CC) | | | | | | | Chondrites ordinaires (OC) | | Chondrites à enstatite (EC) | | K | R | |
|----------|---------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-------|-------|-----|-------------------------------|-------|--------------------------------|------|-----|-------|------|
| | CI | СМ | CV | CO | CR | СК | СН | Н | L | LL | EH | EL | | |
| CAI | | 5 | 10 | 13 | 0,5 | 4 | 0,1 | <0,01-0,2 | <(|),01 | <0 | ,1 | <0,1 | <0,1 |
| Chondres | | 20 | 45 | 40 | 50-60 | 15 | 70 | (| 60-80 | | 60- | -80 | 20-30 | 40 |
| Métal | | 0,1 | 1-5 | 1-5 | 5-8 | <0,01 | 20 | 8 | 3 | 1,5 | 8 | 15 | 6-9 | <0,1 |
| Matrice | 99 | 70 | 40 | 30 | 30-50 | 75 | 5 | | 10-15 | | <0,1 | -10 | 70 | 35 |

Tableau 1 : Abondances (% vol.) des constituants pour les différentes classes de chondrites

Références : Scott et Krot, 2014 ; Scott et al., 1996.

Les chondrites ont subi des processus secondaires sur leurs corps parents, soit par métamorphisme thermique (type 4 à 6), soit par altération aqueuse (types 1 à 2). Ces deux processus détruisent progressivement la structure initiale des météorites en remplaçant les minéraux primaires. Les types 3, sont les chondrites ayant subi le moins de modifications. Dans ce type d'objets, des grains pré-solaires tels que SiC, nano-diamants, graphite, spinelles et

silicates ont été préservés. Les chondrites de type CI (e.g. Orgueil) ont la même composition élémentaire que la photosphère solaire pour la plupart des élements (Lodders, 2003).

L'étude de la minéralogie et de la chimie des chondrites suggère qu'elles se sont formées à différentes températures, les chondrites à enstatite s'étant formées dans l'environnement le plus chaud et les carbonées dans l'environnement le plus froid, avec les chondrites ordinaires entre les deux. Les observations spectroscopiques relient les trois types de chondrites aux astéroïdes. Les EC sont associées aux astéroïdes de type E (Fornasier et al., 2008) qui se situent dans la partie la plus interne de la ceinture d'astéroïdes (\sim 1,8 – 2 AU). Les OC sont liées aux astéroïdes de type S (Binzel et al, 1996) de la ceinture interne (\sim 2,1 – 2,8 AU). Enfin, les CC sont associées aux astéroïdes de type C (Burbine, 2000) de la ceinture externe (> 2,8 AU). Il y a toutefois des recouvrements importants dans la répartition radiale de ces astéroïdes (Gradie et Tedesco, 1982). Les récents survols de comètes, ainsi que les échantillons rapportés par la mission Stardust révèlent que la limite entre comètes et astéroïdes de type C est ténue (Gounelle et al., 2008)

1.3 Les anomalies isotopiques dans les météorites

Les anomalies isotopiques d'un objet sont définies comme la déviation de sa composition isotopique d'un fractionnement isotopique dépendant de la masse par rapport à la composition terrestre. Elles peuvent être le résultat d'un mélange incomplet des différents composants nucléosynthétiques dans la nébuleuse au moment de la formation des objets. Elles peuvent aussi provenir de la décroissance de nucléides radioactifs, de phénomènes d'irradiation par les rayons cosmiques ou encore du *nuclear field shift effect*. Les anomalies nucléosynthétiques sont un marqueur de l'homogénéité de la nébuleuse au moment de la formation des différents objets du système solaire. Le fait que les CAI et les CC soient les objets présentant le plus de variations indique que la nébuleuse n'était pas totalement homogène lors de leur formation. Toutefois, la faible amplitude des variations dans ces objets comparée à celle mesurée dans les grains présolaires, qui présentent des compositions isotopiques très différentes de celles du système solaire reflétant leurs environnements de formation, tend à prouver que la nébuleuse a été le siège d'un mélange efficace. Les anomalies nucléosynthétiques servent également de traceur des liens génétiques entre les objets (e.g. Fitoussi et al., 2016).

Les objets extraterrestres formés dans le système solaire sont caractérisés par la présence d'anomalies isotopiques. Le système présentant la plus grande variabilité entre les objets du système solaire est l'oxygène (e.g. Clayton, 2010 ; voir figure 2), y compris entre la Terre et la Lune (Herwartz et al., 2014).



Figure 2. Composition isotopique des chondrites. Source : Clayton (2010)

La détermination des anomalies nucléosynthétiques est d'une grande importance pour l'utilisation des SLR comme moyens de datation. Les excès de ¹⁴²Nd dans certaines roches terrestres ont longtemps été interprétées comme provenant de la désintégration du ¹⁴⁶Sm, impliquant un rapport Sm/Nd superchondritique pour la Terre (e.g. Boyet et Carlson, 2006) ou la présence d'un réservoir mantellique caché. Toutefois, l'amélioration de la précision des mesures de Nd suggèrent désormais que l'anomalie en ¹⁴²Nd serait le résultat de petites variations nucléosynthétiques du Nd (Burkhardt et al., 2016 ; Bouvier et Boyet, 2016).

L'amélioration récente des spectromètres de masse a permis la découverte d'anomalies pour un nombre croissant d'éléments. Certains systèmes isotopiques montrent une variabilité à l'échelle planétaire, tels que Zr (Akram et al., 2015), Ti (Leya et al., 2008 ; Trinquier et al., 2009 ; Zhang et al., 2012), Cr (Trinquier et al., 2007), Ni (Regelous et al., 2008 ; Steele et al., 2011), Mo (Dauphas et al., 2002; Burkhardt et al., 2011), Ru (Chen et al., 2010 ; Fisher-Gödde et al., 2015), Ca (Dauphas et al., 2014). D'autres éléments, en revanche, présente une quasi-homogénéité entre les objets étudiés : Os (Brandon et al., 2005a ; Walker, 2012 ; Yokoyama et al., 2007), Te (Fehr et al., 2006) et Hf (Sprung et al., 2010). Concernant le strontium, des anomalies ont été trouvées en ⁸⁴Sr dans les chondrites carbonées et les CAI, mais la présence de différences entre la Terre et les objets du système solaire interne reste débattue (Papanastassiou and Wasserburg, 1978 ; Andreasen et Sharma, 2007 ; Qin et al., 2011 ; Moynier et al., 2012 ; Paton et al., 2013 ; Hans, 2013 ; Hans et al., 2013 ; Yokoyama et al., 2015), de même que l'origine de ces anomalies. Des anomalies nucléosynthétiques en Ba ont été observées dans certaines chondrites carbonées, ainsi que dans les CAI et les expériences de lessivage de chondrites (Hidaka et al., 2001, 2003, 2013 ; Hidaka et Yoneda, 2011 ; Andreasen et Sharma,

2007 ; Carlson et al., 2007 ; Bermingham et al., 2014, 2016 ; Brennecka et al., 2013 ; Qin et al., 2011), mais aucune variation de la composition isotopique du baryum n'a été reportée pour d'autres objets.

1.4 Nucléosynthèse

1.4.1 Evolution stellaire

Les étoiles passent la plupart de leur vie sur la séquence principale (diagramme de Herzprung-Russell) en brûlant de l'hydrogène dans leur cœur. La séquence principale se termine lorsque l'étoile a épuisé l'H de son noyau. La réaction de fusion nucléaire cesse et l'intérieur de l'étoile se contracte sous l'effet de la gravité, en même temps que l'enveloppe externe s'étend et se refroidit. L'étoile devient alors une géante rouge. La fusion de noyaux de l'H se poursuit en couche autour du noyau. La coquille d'H se déplace vers l'extérieur au fil du temps. Quand la température au centre le permet, l'étoile commence à fusionner de l'He, puis progressivement des éléments de plus en plus lourds, C, N, O, Ne, Mg, Si, S, en une série de coquilles concentriques, jusqu'à former les éléments du pic du fer pour les étoiles massives. De forts vents se développent à la surface de l'étoile qui éjecte une partie de son enveloppe. Pour les étoiles massives (33-120 M_o) ces forts vents appelés vents de Wolf-Rayet (WR) éjectent la plus grande partie de la masse de l'enveloppe à la fin de la séquence principale. Au delà du ⁵⁶Fe, les réactions de fusion deviennent endothermiques, et s'arrêtent. Le noyau s'effondre sous l'effet de la gravité. La chute des couches externes sur le noyau génère une onde de choc qui éjecte l'enveloppe produisant une supernova (SN) à effondrement de cœur (Qian et Wasserburg, 2003).

Les SN sont classées en deux types. Les SNII sont issues de l'effondrement du cœur d'étoiles massives. Les étoiles très massives ayant totalement perdu leur enveloppe d'H vont produire des SNIb, et les étoiles encore plus lourdes, des SNIc. Les SNIb, SNIc et SNII sont toutes trois produites par l'effondrement du cœur d'une étoile massive. Les novae et SNIa sont des explosions induites par accrétion de matière sur une naine blanche, qui est le résidu de l'évolution d'étoiles peu massives (< 10 M_{\odot}).

1.4.2 Nucléosynthèse des éléments lourds (> ⁵⁶Fe)

1.4.2.1 Le processus s

Le processus s produit des nucléides de la vallée de stabilité. C'est un processus de capture neutronique lente, dans le sens où la capture neutronique est plus lente que la décroissance béta des noyaux instables. La densité de neutrons associée est de l'ordre de 10¹⁰ n/cm³ (Limongi et Chieffi, 2006a). Ce processus a lieu dans les étoiles appartenant à la branche asymptotique des géantes (AGB – Gallino et al., 1998). Les étoiles de masse élevée produisent un processus s dit « faible », dominant pour les nucléides de masse inférieure à 90.

1.4.2.2 Le processus r

Le processus r produit les éléments riches en neutrons, éloignés de la vallée de stabilité. C'est un processus de capture neutronique rapide, décrit pour la première fois par Burbidge et al. (1957). Il se produit quand des noyaux cibles lourds sont en présence d'un très fort flux de neutrons. La capture neutronique est plus rapide que la décroissance béta. C'est le seul processus capable de produire les éléments plus lourds que ²⁰⁹Bi, dont les actinides. Les sites de ce processus sont encore mal compris. Les SN à effondrement de cœur, ont été suggérées, mais les conditions de densité neutronique sont difficilement remplies dans cet environnement. Les collisions d'étoiles à neutrons ont également été proposées, mais ce phénomène semble trop rare pour expliquer l'abondance des éléments r dans le système solaire. Il est possible qu'il existe plusieurs processus r (e.g. Cowan et Sneden, 2012), mais cette idée est débattue concernant les éléments r du système solaire (cf. Brennecka et al., 2013; Tissot et al, 2016)

1.4.2.3 Le processus p

Le processus p (Burbridge et al., 1957) produit des nucléides riches en protons, à gauche de la vallée de stabilité. Il semble que ce processus soit lié à la photodésintégration plutôt qu'à une capture de protons (Arnould et Gorielli, 2003), bien que ce phénomène ne puisse pas expliquer les abondances du ⁹²Mo, ⁹⁴Mo, ⁸⁶Ru et ⁹⁸Ru. Il se produit dans les supernovae quand des noyaux lourds sont chauffés à plus de 2 milliards de degrés .

1.5 Comsochimie et nucléosynthèse du Sr et du Ba

1.5.1 Strontium

Le strontium est un élément lithophile de la famille des alcalino-terreux. C'est un élément réfractaire avec une température de condensation $T_{50\%} = 1464$ K ($T_{50\%}$ correspond à la température pour laquelle 50% de l'élément a été condensé à partir d'un gaz de composition solaire – Lodders et al., 2009). Il possède 4 isotopes stables : ⁸⁴Sr, ⁸⁶Sr, ⁸⁷Sr et ⁸⁸Sr avec des abondances respectives de 0.5574 %, 9.8566 %, 7.00015 % et 82.5845 % (figure 3). Le ⁸⁴Sr est un nucléide produit par le processus p. Les isotopes ⁸⁶Sr et ⁸⁷Sr sont exclusivement formés par le processus s, étant écrantés du processus r par le ⁸⁶Kr et le ⁸⁷Rb. Le ⁸⁸Sr est majoritairement formé par le processus s, avec une contribution d'environ 8 % de processus r (Arlandini et al., 1999). L'isotope ⁸⁷Sr comprend également une part radiogénique issue de la décroissance du ⁸⁷Rb selon un processus β ⁻ avec une demi-vie de 48.8 Ga.

Seul l'isotope ⁸⁴Sr peut être étudié car ⁸⁶Sr et ⁸⁸Sr sont utilisés dans le rapport de normalisation, et les variations de ⁸⁷Sr sont dominées par l'apport radiogénique du ⁸⁷Rb. Les anomalies peuvent donc être la conséquence d'une variation directe de l'abondance du processus p, mais également provenir de la propagation d'une anomalie affectant le rapport de normalisation ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr, les deux isotopes n'étant pas entièrement fabriqués par le même processus nucléosynthétique.



Figure 3. Extrait de la table des nucléides dans la région du strontium. Les flèches bleues correspondent au processus s, avec sa branche principale (ligne continue) et les branchements (lignes pointillées). Les isotopes produits uniquement par le processus s sont entourés en bleu, ceux issus du processus p en vert. Les pointillés indiquent un isotope instable. Les abondances solaires des isotopes stables sont indiquées en pourcentages.

1.5.2 Baryum

A l'instar du Sr, Ba est un alcalino-terreux réfractaire avec une température de condensation $T_{50\%} = 1455$ K (Lodders et al., 2009). Le Ba possède 7 isotopes stables^{1 130}Ba (0,106 %), ¹³²Ba (0,101 %), ¹³⁴Ba (2,417 %), ¹³⁵Ba (6,592 %), ¹³⁶Ba (7,854 %), ¹³⁷Ba (11,232 %) et ¹³⁸Ba (71,699 %) (Lodders, 2003). Les isotopes ¹³⁰Ba et ¹³²Ba sont issus du processus p. ¹³⁴Ba et ¹³⁶Ba sont des nucléides produits exclusivement par le processus s, écrantés du processus r par ¹³⁴Xe et ¹³⁶Xe. ¹³⁵Ba, ¹³⁷Ba et ¹³⁸Ba sont des mélanges des processus s et r (figure 4). Arlandini et al. (1999) ont calculé une abondance solaire du processus s de 26 %, 64 % et 87 % pour les isotopes ¹³⁵Ba, ¹³⁷Ba et ¹³⁸Ba² respectivement. Le baryum présente l'avantage de posséder deux isotopes uniquement issus du même processus et avec des abondances similaires et suffisamment élevée pour permettre une mesure fiable, ¹³⁴Ba et ¹³⁶Ba. L'utilisation du rapport ¹³⁴Ba/¹³⁶Ba pour la normalisation des données permet de s'assurer que le rapport de normalisation reste constant. Toutefois, une variation de l'abondance relative du processus s aura pour conséquence de créer une variation apparente des processus p et r. Le ¹³⁵Ba peut être produit par la décroissance du radioisotope courte période ¹³⁵Cs d'une demi-vie de 1,6 Ma (MacDonald et al., 2016). Plusieurs études ont cherché la présence du ¹³⁵Cs dans le système solaire précoce (e.g. Hidaka et al., 2001, 2003, 2013).



Figure 4. Extrait de la table des nucléides dans la région du baryum. Les flèches bleues correspondent au processus s, avec sa branche principale (ligne continue) et les branchements (lignes pointillées). Les isotopes produits uniquement par le processus s sont entourés en bleu, ceux issus du processus p en vert. Les pointillés indiquent un isotope instable. Les abondances solaires des isotopes stables sont indiquées en pourcentages.

¹ Les isotopes ¹³⁰Ba et ¹³²Ba sont en réalité instables, mais leurs demi-vies sont de l'ordre de 10¹² Ga (Meshik et al., 2001), rendant leur décroissance négligeable devant l'âge du Système Solaire.

² L'isotope ¹³⁸Ba peut être produit par la décroissance du ¹³⁸La, mais la faible abondance du ¹³⁸La (0,091 %, Lodders et al., 2009) et sa longue demi-vie (104 Ga) rendent son influence négligeable dans les météorites, bien qu'il puisse contribuer à l'abondance du ¹³⁸Ba dans les CAI (e.g. Brennecka et al., 2013), le lanthane étant un élément réfractaire.

La courte demi-vie du ¹³⁵Cs, de l'ordre de quelques millions d'années, pourrait permettre d'utiliser le système Cs – Ba pour d'affiner la chronologie des événements à l'origine de l'appauvrissement en volatils des planètes et astéroïdes. Le Cs étant également un élément très soluble, mobilisé par l'altération aqueuse, le système Cs – Ba pourrait aussi dater des épisodes d'altération aqueuse sur les corps parents.

1.6 Isotopes radioactifs de courte période

1.6.1 Origine et production

Parmi les éléments radioactifs présents dans la nébuleuse solaire, certains dont la demi-vie est suffisamment grande (> 1 Ga) sont encore présents aujourd'hui et sont utilisés comme chronomètres pour dater les événements géologiques (e.g. ⁸⁷Rb, ¹⁴⁷Sm). D'autres ayant une courte demi-vie sont aujourd'hui éteints, mais les produits de leur désintégration peuvent être observés dans les météorites. Ces radionucléides de courte période (SLR) peuvent servir à établir une chronométrie relative entre les objets du système solaire précoce, les CAI étant pris comme origine.

La présence de ces isotopes dans les objets du système solaire précoce permet de contraindre les sources stellaires ayant contribué au Système Solaire. Leur abondance est exprimée comme le rapport de l'isotope radioactif sur un isotope stable du même élément (dans le cas des actinides n'ayant pas d'isotope stable, le SLR est soit comparé à un radionuclide de demi-vie longue, soit à un élément ayant un comportement chimique similaire) puis comparée au taux de production prédit par les modèles de nucléosynthèse.

Les SLR sont hérités du milieu interstellaire (ISM) qui enrichit continuellement le nuage moléculaire par le matériel éjecté par les étoiles. Si la demi-vie du SLR est supérieure au temps caractéristique entre deux enrichissements, son abondance atteint un état stationnaire. Si en revanche sa demi-vie est plus courte, alors son abondance oscille autour d'un état stationnaire moyen. Toutefois, certains de ces radionucléides ont une demi-vie très courte, tel que ²⁶Al ($t_{1/2} = 0,717$ Ma), associée à une abondance initiale dans le Système Solaire trop importante nécessitant une ou plusieurs sources tardives. Cet isotope hautement radioactif est supposé jouer un rôle décisif dans la différentiation précoce de planétésimaux en tant que source de chaleur à l'origine de la fusion des objets.

Si des éléments ont été injectés tardivement dans le système solaire en formation, seuls les SLR produits par le processus stellaire spécifique de cette injection auront une abondance supérieure à celle de l'ISM. Un tel phénomène aura également injecté des éléments stables.

Dans le cas d'un apport très tardif, ceux-ci n'auront pas eu le temps de s'homogénéiser, créant des anomalies nucléosynthétiques entre les objets en formation, en fonction de la quantité de matériel injecté accrétée. Les supernovae (SN) sont les phénomènes les plus probables pour l'injection tardive de matériel dans le jeune Système Solaire. Kastner et Myers (1994) ont calculé que la probabilité de rencontre entre une AGB et un nuage moléculaire sur une période de temps de 1 Ma est de 1%. A l'inverse, les SN proviennent d'étoiles massives formées en même temps que les étoiles de faible masse dans les zones de formation d'étoiles. De plus, les SN de type II sont une possible origine pour l'effondrement de nuages moléculaires et la formation d'étoiles de faible masse (Preibisch et al., 2002) et l'injection du matériel dans une nébuleuse stellaire en formation (Ouellette et al., 2009). Ouelette et al. (2005) ont montré qu'un disque protoplanétaire déjà formé est capable de survivre à l'explosion d'une SNII proche.

L'irradiation par les rayons cosmiques de haute énergie peut également former des SLR. Ce processus de spallation produit le ¹⁰Be et peut également produire du ⁴¹Ca et de l'²⁶Al.

Le tableau 2 résume les différents SLR ainsi que leur vie moyenne et leurs environnements stellaires de production.

| R/S | τ (Ma) | N_R/N_S | Environnements stellaires |
|--------------------------------------|-------------|------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| $^{26}Al/^{27}Al$ | 1.03 | 5.0 x 10 ⁻⁵ | AGB ^a , SNII, WR, (irrad.) |
| ⁴¹ Ca/ ⁴⁰ Ca | 0.14 | 1.5 x 10 ⁻⁸ | AGB, SNIa, SNII, WR, (irrad.) |
| ⁵³ Mn/ ⁵⁵ Mn | 5.34 | 6.5 x 10 ⁻⁶ | SNII, SNIa, SNIb,c ^b |
| ⁶⁰ Fe/ ⁵⁶ Fe | 2.16 | 1.2 x 10 ⁻⁸ | AGB, SNII, SNIa, SNIb,c ^b |
| 107 Pd/ 108 Pd | 9.38 | 5.9 x 10 ⁻⁵ | AGB, SNII |
| ¹²⁹ I/ ¹²⁷ I | 23.1 | 1.0 x 10 ⁻⁴ | SNII, SNIb,c |
| ¹³⁵ Cs/ ¹³³ Cs | 3.32 | 4.0 x 10 ⁻⁶ | AGB, (SNII) |
| 146 Sm/ 144 Sm | 149 | 8.5 x 10 ⁻³ | SNII |
| ¹⁸² Hf/ ¹⁸⁰ Hf | 13.0 | 1.0 x 10 ⁻⁴ | SNII, (AGB ^c) |
| ²⁴⁴ Pu/ ²³² Th | 117 | 3.0 x 10 ⁻³ | SNII |

Tableau 2. Vie moyenne (τ), abondances dans le système solaire précoce (N_R/N_S) and environnements stellaires de production des SLR.

a. ²⁶Al produit dans les AGB est détruit lors des pulses thermiques et ne quitte pas l'étoile

- b. Les SNIb et SNIc surproduisent ⁵³Mn et ⁶⁰Fe (Limongi et Chieffi, 2006)
- c. Lugaro et al. (2014) ont déterminé que ¹⁸²Hf pouvait être produit par le processus s, alors qu'il était jusque là supposé être un nucléide purement issu du processus r.

Références pour les environnements stellaires : Wasserburg et al. (2006) ; Forestini et al. (1991) ; Limongi et Chieffi (2006a,b) ; Rauscher et al. (2002) ; Meyer (2005) ; Arnould et al. (2006) ; Travaglio et al. (2004, 2005).

Références pour les abondances dans le système solaire précoce : Jasobsen et al. (2008) ; Srinivasan et al. (1996); Trinquier et al. (2008) ; Tang and Dauphas (2012) ; Schönbächler et al. (2008) ; Brazzle et al. (1999) ; Boyet et al. (2010) ; Kleine et al. (2005) ; Hudson et al. (1989) ; Wasserburg et al. (1996).

1.6.2 Le ¹³⁵Cs dans le Système Solaire

Le ¹³⁵Cs est un isotope radioactif d'une demi-vie de 1,6 Ma. La valeur de sa demi-vie précédemment admise de 2,3 Ma (Sugarman, 1949 ; Zeldes et al., 1949 ; Parker et al., 1955) avait été déterminée par mesure indirecte de la concentration du ¹³⁵Xe qui décroit en ¹³⁵Cs, mais les récentes mesures de MacDonald et al. (2016) par mesure directe du ¹³⁵Cs par spectrométrie de masse semblent indiquer que la valeur de 2,3 Ma était surestimée.

Pendant l'existence du ¹³⁵Cs, l'équation de l'isochrone à un temps Δt depuis l'initial du système s'écrit :

$$\frac{{}^{135}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\Big|_{\Delta t} = \left.\frac{{}^{135}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\right|_{\text{initial}} + \frac{{}^{135}Cs}{{}^{133}Cs}\Big|_{initial} \ \frac{{}^{133}Cs}{{}^{136}Ba}\left(1 - e^{-\frac{\Delta t}{\tau_{1/2}}}\right) \ (1)$$

L'introduction du rapport des isotopes stables ${}^{133}Cs/{}^{136}Ba$ permet de s'affranchir de l'impossibilité de mesurer directement le rapport ${}^{135}Cs/{}^{136}Ba$. Actuellement, $\Delta t \gg \tau_{1/2}$, un excès radiogénique en ${}^{135}Ba^*$ peut être calculé par l'équation :

$$\frac{{}^{135}Ba^*}{{}^{136}Ba} = \left. \frac{{}^{135}Cs}{{}^{133}Cs} \right|_{initial} \frac{{}^{133}Cs}{{}^{136}Ba} \tag{2}$$

Cependant, une des incertitudes majeures provient de la détermination du rapport initial ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs. Sa détermination nécessite l'établissement d'isochrones internes. Toutefois, plusieurs processus viennent perturber ces isochrones : la présence d'anomalies d'origine nucléosynthétique sur l'isotope ¹³⁵Ba, et l'ouverture du système sur lequel est réalisé l'isochrone de par la grande mobilité du Cs. Les valeurs du rapport initial ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs publiées dans la littérature couvrent une large gamme de 10⁻⁶ à 10⁻³ (Hidaka etYoneda, 2011 ; Srinivisan et al., 2011). D'autres valeurs de ce rapport de l'ordre de 10⁻⁵ à 10⁻⁴ ont été obtenues sur la base d'isochrones issues d'expériences de lessivages sur des météorites (Hidaka et al., 2001, 2003 ; Nichols et al., 2002). Récemment, Bermingham et al. (2014) ont publié une valeur de 2,8 x 10⁻⁴ pour des CAI pour expliquer des excès observés de ¹³⁵Ba dans ces objets. Un rapport ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs aussi élevé nécessite l'injection de ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs dans le système solaire permettrait de poser une contrainte supplémentaire sur les éventuels apports de matériel tardifs dans la nébuleuse solaire.

1.7 Le système Rb – Sr et les appauvrissements en éléments volatils dans le système solaire

Le système Rb-Sr est largement utilisé pour dater roches et météorites et contraindre des événements de la formation des corps planétaires (e.g. Papanastassiou et Wasserburg, 1969). Toutefois, le développement des systèmes ¹⁴⁷Sm – ¹⁴³Nd puis ¹⁷⁶Lu – ¹⁷⁶Hf a limité l'utilisation de la méthode Rb – Sr pour la détermination d'âges. En effet, le Rb est un élément hautement mobile en présence de fluides. De plus, le Sr a la capacité de se substituer au Ca dans les minéraux d'altération tels que les carbonates. Le système Rb – Sr est donc facilement perturbable rendant les âges obtenus peu fiables. De même que pour le système Rb – Sr, le Cs est un élément modérément volatil avec une température de condensation T_{50%} = 700 K (Lodders et al., 2009), et le Ba est un réfractaire. Les conditions de fractionnement du rapport Cs/Ba sont donc les mêmes que pour le rapport Rb/Sr.

Une propriété intéressante de ce système pour les applications cosmochimiques réside dans la différence de volatilité des deux éléments. Le Rb est un élément modérément volatil, avec une $T_{50\%} = 800$ K (Lodders et al., 2009), alors que le Sr est réfractaire, faisant de ce système un traceur des processus d'évaporation et condensation dans le système solaire précoce. En effet, tous les objets du système solaire échantillonnés par les météorites montrent un appauvrissement en éléments volatils par rapport aux chondrites carbonées de type CI. Ces appauvrissements peuvent être liés à une perte des volatils lors d'un épisode de chauffage des objets dans la nébuleuse ou lié à des impacts, mais également à une condensation incomplète à une température supérieure à la température de condensation du Rb. Dans les deux cas, le fractionnement entre Rb et Sr permet la datation de ces événements.

La datation des phénomènes d'appauvrissement peut permettre de les distinguer. Si ceux-ci se sont produits dans les 3-4 premiers millions d'années du Système Solaire, alors que le disque protoplanétaire est encore présent (e.g. Podosek et Cassen, 1994 ; Williams et Cieza, 2011), la perte en volatils est à relier à un ou plusieurs épisodes thermiques au sein de la nébuleuse. Les angrites sont potentiellement le résultat de ce processus. Leur corps parent s'est accrété très rapidement (dans le premier million d'années après les CAI ; Hans et al., 2013 ; Schiller et al., 2015) et son appauvrissement en volatils est le plus fort parmi les objets du Système Solaire interne (60 fois plus appauvri que la Terre). Il est également possible que l'accrétion des objets formés à cette période se soit arrêtée alors que la température de la nébuleuse était trop élevée pour permettre la condensation complète des éléments modérément volatils. Humayun et Clayton (1995) ont proposé cette hypothèse sur la base de l'absence de fractionnements isotopiques du K dans les météorites. Toutefois, d'autres études ont par la suite prouvé que le

fractionnement isotopique est fortement limité dans le cas où les phases gazeuses et solides sont en équilibre isotopique lors des phénomènes d'évaporation ou de condensation.

En revanche, dans le cas d'un appauvrissement tardif (> 10 Ma), la cause la plus souvent invoquée est la perte des éléments volatils lors de collisions entre embryons planétaires (e.g. Halliday, 2004). Ce phénomène est probablement la cause d'une part de l'appauvrissement en volatils de la Lune. Les âges 182 Hf – 182 W obtenus sur des échantillons lunaires indiquent que cet objet s'est accrété tardivement, 50 à 100 Ma après la formation du Système Solaire (e.g. Touboul et al., 2007).

Contrairement à la Terre, la Lune a connu très peu d'activité tectonique, et a préservé des roches très primitives. Les ferroanorthosites des hauts plateaux lunaires et les zircons des roches magmatiques ont des âges maximum d'environ 4,4 Ga (e.g. Borg et al., 2011, 2015). Le système Rb – Sr ne permet pas de calculer précisément leurs âges, et peu de mesures isotopiques en Sr ont été obtenues. Les précédentes détermination de leur composition isotopique en Sr possédaient une incertitude relativement importante (~30 ppm pour les données de Carlson et Lugmair, 1988). Les ferroanorthosites sont des roches composées majoritairement de plagioclases et sont très pauvres en Rb et leur rapport ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr a donc peu évolué depuis leur cristallisation. La détermination précise de leur composition isotopique initiale en Sr pose une contrainte supplémentaire sur l'évolution précoce du rapport ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr de la Lune et par conséquent sur celle de la Terre, les deux objets s'étant vraisemblablement équilibrés isotopiquement lors de l'impact géant (Pahlevan et Stevenson, 2007).

1.8 Buts de cette étude

Le premier objectif de ce travail a été de développer une technique d'analyse de haute précision pour les isotopes du strontium et du baryum par spectrométrie de masse à ionisation thermique (TIMS). La méthode doit permettre la séparation des deux éléments à partir de la même dissolution afin d'optimiser les quantités d'échantillons utilisées et de pouvoir comparer les résultats des deux éléments. Rapidement, deux autres éléments (Mo et Sn) ont été ajoutés à la procédure car les échantillons étaient également destinés à l'étude isotopique de ces deux systèmes. Les performances analytiques du TIMS Thermo Triton plus ont été exploitées au maximum de ses capacités pour améliorer au mieux la précision externe des mesures.

Le détail de la méthode développée est donné dans le chapitre 2. Le chapitre 2 contient les détails de la méthode pour l'ensemble de ce travail de thèse, ainsi que la version soumise pour publication. Les interprétations des données de Ba sur les météorites sont présentées dans le chapitre 3, et celles du strontium dans le chapitre 4. Le chapitre 5 est consacré à la composition

isotopique du Sr dans la ferroanorthosite lunaire 60025 et à la détermination d'un âge d'appauvrissement en éléments volatils de la Terre précoce.

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Chapitre 2 Protocoles analytiques

2.1 Introduction

Ce travail de thèse repose sur l'analyse des compositions isotopiques du strontium et du baryum à haute précision. Pour ce faire, il est nécessaire de commencer par séparer les éléments d'intérêt du reste de l'échantillon. Les protocoles de séparation existants sont principalement focalisés sur un seul élément. La première partie de ma thèse a donc été consacrée au développement d'une méthode de séparation du strontium et du baryum et sa validation par la mesure d'échantillons de référence.

Le spectromètre de masse Triton Plus utilisé a été installé au laboratoire fin 2012 alors que j'entamais ce travail de thèse. Il m'a donc appartenu d'en tester les performances.

Ce chapitre présente le protocole développé pour la séparation chimique et l'analyse isotopique sur TIMS, ainsi que les mesures de standards isotopiques et d'échantillons terrestre de référence ayant servi à le valider.

2.2 Préparation des échantillons

2.2.1 Nettoyage du matériel

Le matériel en téflon est lavé entre chaque utilisation par ébullition dans 5 bains différents : un premier bain d'eau désionisée (24h), un bain d' $HNO_3 \sim 7,5 N$ (48h), un deuxième bain d'eau MQ (24h), un bain d'HCl 6N + HF 1N (48h) et enfin un rinçage dans un troisième bain d'eau MQ (24h). Les béchers ayant servi à l'attaque d'échantillons riches en matière organique, sont préalablement lavés en eau régale pendant 24h. Le matériel plastique (tubes, embouts de pipettes, colonnes) est nettoyé en HCl 20 % à froid pendant 48h minimum.

Les résines utilisées ont toutes été lavées en batch avant d'être utilisées dans les colonnes. Les résines anioniques (AG1 X8) et cationiques (AG50W X8) sont lavées dans un bécher en téflon soumis à une agitation magnétique, en alternant HCl 6N et H₂O MQ, dix fois de suite. La résine est ensuite rincée jusqu'à ramener le pH du liquide à environ 7 pour le stockage. Les résines, une fois dans les colonnes de chromatographie, sont réutilisées 5 fois avant d'être remplacées. Toutefois, les résines ne sont réutilisées que pour des échantillons similaires afin d'éviter toute contamination croisée. La résine Sr-resin est également lavée en batch avant utilisation, mais étant donné qu'elle se dégrade dans l'eau, le lavage est effectué dans les jours qui précèdent l'utilisation. La résine est lavée sans agitation magnétique, en alternant HNO₃ 0,5 N et H₂O MQ, dix fois.

Les échantillons analysés au cours de cette thèse, à l'exception des standards terrestres, sont rares et précieux. Une grande importance a donc été accordée à les préserver pour l'analyse isotopique d'autres éléments. Ainsi, certains échantillons riches en Sr et Ba (tels que les SNC ou les angrites), ont été traités en utilisant des acides ultrapurs dont les blancs ne dépassent pas quelques ppt. Dans le cas où un niveau de blanc aussi bas ne s'avère pas nécessaire, les acides utilisés ont été distillés directement au laboratoire, un fois pour HNO₃ et HCl et deux fois pour HF, avec des niveaux de blanc de l'ordre du ppb.

2.2.2 Broyage et dissolution

Une partie des échantillons m'a été fournie sous forme de poudres. La surface de tous les autres a été abrasée à l'alumine pour éliminer les éventuelles contaminations liées à la découpe à la scie diamantée et également pour débarrasser les échantillons de l'altération de surface. Les échantillons ont ensuite été nettoyés à l'eau distillée dans un bain à ultrasons, puis séchés. Les alcalino-terreux dont font partie Ba et Sr se retrouvent dans les sulfates et carbonates qui peuvent se former par altération des minéraux ou être apportés par des fluides. Il est donc important de réaliser un nettoyage minutieux des échantillons notamment des météorites provenant de campagnes de collecte ayant subi des siècles d'altération à la surface de la Terre. Les échantillons ont été broyés à la main dans un mortier en agate. Le mortier a été lavé en acide nitrique à 20% dans un bain à ultrasons après chaque broyage. Les poudres sont stockées dans des flacons en verre préalablement lavés à l'acide nitrique dilué.

Les échantillons ont été attaqués dans un mélange d'acide fluorhydrique (HF) et d'acide nitrique (HNO₃) concentrés en parts égales à raison de 3 ml de chaque acide pour 100 mg de poudre. La dissolution a été réalisée dans des béchers en Téflon Savillex sur plaque chauffante, pendant un minimum de 48h, à 150°C. Les solutions contenant les échantillons sont ensuite évaporées. Dans le cas où il reste une fraction de l'échantillon non dissoute, la solution est centrifugée et le résidu est attaqué à nouveau séparément suivant la même procédure. Les deux fractions des attaques sont ensuite rassemblées. Les attaques sont évaporées puis reprises deux fois dans 4 ml d'eau régale à 120°C pendant 24h.

Dans le cas des chondrites carbonées, une part de la matière organique subsiste même après l'attaque et les reprises en eau régale. Ces échantillons ont été traités par une lampe ultraviolette (26 nm). Les échantillons sont dissous dans 10 ml d'eau MQ et 200 µl d'H₂O₂ 30% et placé

pendant 2 h sous une lampe UV. Ce traitement permet d'éliminer la majeure partie de la matière organique qui sous l'effet combiné des UV et de l' H_2O_2 est oxydée sous forme d'eau et de CO₂.

Dans le cas des échantillons extraterrestres, le protocole de séparation du strontium et du baryum a été couplé à celui de deux autres éléments, l'étain et le molybdène, pour leur étude isotopique (le développement des protocoles propres à l'étain et au molybdène, ainsi que leur mesure isotopique, n'entrent pas dans le cadre du travail de cette thèse). Les échantillons traités selon le protocole de séparation chimique couplée ont subi deux colonnes anioniques préalablement à la purification du Sr et Ba, pour isoler l'étain et le molybdène. Dans les deux cas, strontium et baryum ont été récupérés dans la fraction de matrice. La perte de rendement associée à ces deux étapes supplémentaires est négligeable, de l'ordre de 1 à 2 %.

2.2.3 Fusion laser des chondrites carbonées

Les chondrites carbonées contiennent des phases réfractaires résistantes à la procédure de dissolution acide employée. Ces grains présolaires, tels que les SiC, sont porteurs d'importantes anomalies nucléosynthétiques (e.g. Nicolussi et al., 1998 ; Podosek et al., 2004 ; Avila et al., 2013). Les précurseurs de la Terre ou d'astéroïdes ayant subi un métamorphisme thermique ou une différenciation ont pu contenir une fraction de ces grains présolaires, mais ils ont été détruits sous l'effet de la température. La préservations de grains présolaires dans les chondrites carbonées entraine donc l'observations d'anomalies nucléosynthétiques apparentes dans le cas où ces grains ne sont pas entièrement dissouts.

Afin de détruire les grains présolaires préalablement à la dissolution acide, des échantillons de 5 chondrites carbonées ont été fondus. Les échantillons d'Orgueil (CI) et Murchison (CM2), déjà broyés, ont été compactés en pastilles de 30 mg environ. Les échantillons d'Allende (CV3), NWA1757 (CO3.5) et NWA4768 (CO3.0) ont été simplement fragmentés. Les morceaux d'échantillons ou les pastilles ont été déposés dans une buse en aluminium placée dans une chambre à vide. L'atmosphère a été remplacée par 1 bar de N₂. Le baryum et le strontium étudiés dans cette thèse sont des éléments réfractaires qui ne sont pas évaporés lors du processus de fusion. Toutefois, les échantillons sont également destinés à l'étude des isotopes du molybdène, qui lui forme des oxydes volatils en présence d'une atmosphère oxydante. L'échantillon placé en lévitation aérodynamique a été chauffé par deux lasers CO₂ pendant environ 30 s à 1800 K. Les verres produits ont été aisément dissouts avec une seule digestion HF:HNO₃ produisant une solution claire et sans résidu.

2.2.4 Séparation sur colonnes chromatographiques

Une importante part de mon travail de thèse a consisté à développer une méthode permettant de séparer et de purifier le strontium et le baryum à partir d'une même aliquote d'échantillon pour leur analyse isotopique par TIMS. J'ai développé ce protocole en calibrant toutes les colonnes à partir d'un basalte standard (BHVO-1) afin de toujours prendre en compte la matrice complexe d'un échantillon naturel. Strontium et baryum appartiennent à la famille des alcalino-terreux et sont difficiles à séparer du calcium et du magnésium de par la similarité de leur comportement chimique et de l'existence de deux à trois ordres de grandeur de différence de concentration (Sr et Ba sont à l'état de traces, avec des concentrations allant de quelques à plusieurs centaines de ppm, alors que Ca et Mg sont des éléments majeurs des roches).

L'obtention de mesures isotopiques précises en TIMS requiert l'élimination de tous les éléments pouvant interférer sur les masses des isotopes analysés, ainsi que des éléments perturbant l'émission (principalement Na, K, Ti, Ca). Le tableau 1 résume les différents isotopes du strontium et du baryum, ainsi que leurs interférences en masse et les abondances de chaque isotope (De Bièvre and Taylor, 1993).

| Isotope | Interférences | Abondance |
|-------------------|-------------------|-----------|
| ⁸⁴ Sr | | 0,5574 % |
| | ^{84}Kr | 56,96 % |
| ⁸⁶ Sr | | 9,8566 % |
| | ⁸⁶ Kr | 17,30 % |
| ⁸⁷ Sr | | 7,0015 % |
| | ^{87}Rb | 27,8346 % |
| ⁸⁸ Sr | | 85,5845 % |
| ¹³⁰ Ba | | 0,1058 % |
| | ¹³⁰ Xe | 4,08 % |
| ¹³² Ba | | 0,1012 % |
| | ¹³² Xe | 26,89 % |
| ¹³⁴ Ba | | 2,417 % |
| | ¹³⁴ Xe | 10,44 % |
| ¹³⁵ Ba | | 6,592 % |
| ¹³⁶ Ba | | 7,853 % |
| | ¹³⁶ Xe | 8,87 % |
| | ¹³⁶ Ce | 0,1904 % |
| ¹³⁷ Ba | | 11,232 % |
| ¹³⁶ Ba | | 71,699 % |
| | ¹³⁸ Ce | 0,2536 % |
| | ¹³⁸ La | 0,0902 % |

Tableau 1 : isotopes du strontium et du baryum analysés, ainsi que leurs interférences et leurs abondances isotopiques

Les protocoles existants pour la purification du strontium et du baryum sont principalement, basés sur l'utilisation d'une première colonne échangeuse de cations, suivie d'une seconde colonne du même type pour le baryum ou d'une colonne de résine Sr-resin pour le strontium. Ces protocoles ne sont destinés qu'à un seul des deux éléments. Dans le cas du baryum, les protocoles sont peu détaillés et il est difficile de les reproduire fidèlement. J'ai développé un protocole basé sur l'affinité de la résine Sr-resin pour les alcalino-terreux dont le détail est présenté dans le Tableau 2. Les calibrations de colonnes ont été réalisées sur un ICP-MS à haute résolution Thermo Element II, qui a permis l'analyse systématique des éléments majeurs (Ca, Na, K, Mg) à chaque étape, même à faibles concentrations (jusqu'à 1 ppb).

Dans le cas où les échantillons sont traités selon le protocole de séparation chimique couplée, les fractions contenant le Sr et le Ba sont obtenues après les deux première étapes (qui permettent d'isoler successivement l'étain et le molybdène) dans une solution de HCl 0,6 N. Elles sont évaporées puis reprises en HCl 6 N pour être chargées sur la première colonne de la chimie Sr-Ba. Les échantillons provenant directement de l'attaque sont repris deux fois en HCl 6 N pour enlever les traces de HNO₃ qui sont des résidus de l'attaque par l'eau régale.

Les échantillons sont ensuite chargés sur une colonne anionique (AG1 X8 100-200 mesh size) de 2 ml pour les échantillons contenant moins de 20 wt % de FeO et sur une colonne de 10 ml pour les autres. Le strontium et le baryum, ainsi que les alcalins et les alcalino-terreux ne sont pas fixés sur la colonne et sont élués avec 4 volumes de colonne de HCl 6 N alors que le fer est retenu par la résine. La fraction de fer est ensuite récupérée en éluant cet élément avec 5 volumes de colonne de HNO₃ 0,5 N dans le cas des échantillons les plus précieux (angrites, SNC, Lune).

La fraction contenant Sr et Ba est évaporée et reprise en HNO₃ concentré. La solution est évaporée et l résidu est dissout en HNO₃ 3 N. Cette dernière étape est répétée une fois pour éliminer les traces d'HCl avant le chargement sur la colonne contenant la Sr-resin. La résine Sr-resin est utilisée dans des colonnes fabriquées à partir de pipettes pasteur en LDPE d'un diamètre interne de 3,5 mm. Chaque colonne contient 0,5 ml de résine Sr-resin qui est surmontée de 0,1 ml de résine anionique AG1 X8 pour éviter la remobilisation de la Sr-resin lors des ajouts d'acide successifs (Figure 1).

L'échantillon est chargé en HNO₃ 3N et la matrice (contenant calcium, magnésium, potassium, titane, chrome, manganèse, sodium et d'éventuelles traces de fer) ainsi que les isobares du strontium et du baryum (rubidium, lanthane et cérium) sont élués dans 5 volumes de colonne de ce même acide. Le baryum est ensuite élué avec 13 volumes de colonne de HNO₃ 7,5 N (figure 3a). Enfin, le strontium est élué avec 20 volumes de colonne de HNO₃ 0,05 N. La résine Sr-resin est composée de billes imprégnées d'une solution d'éther couronne (4,4'(5')-

bis(t-butylcyclohexano)-18-crown-6) en 1-octanol. Une part de ces molécules organiques se retrouvent dans la fraction de strontium et doivent être éliminées car elles rendent difficile le dépôt de strontium sur le filament utilisé pour l'analyse par spectrométrie de masse par thermoionisation. Les fractions de strontium sont donc évaporées, puis dissoutes dans 1 ml de HNO₃ 0,5 N et chargées sur 1 ml de « résine » Pre-Filter Eichrom. Cette « résine » est composée du même matériau que celui utilisé pour l'imprégnation de la résine Sr-resin et possède la capacité de retenir la matière organique. Les molécules organiques issues de la Sr-resin sont piégées par le Pre-Filter alors que le strontium est élué par 10 ml de HNO₃ 0,5 N. Les solutions collectées sont évaporées à sec.



Figure 1 : Colonnes utilisée pour la résine Sr-resin.

En ce qui concerne les fractions de baryum, la séparation de la matrice n'est pas suffisante pour permettre l'analyse isotopique. Les éléments majeurs tels que calcium, potassium et magnésium sont encore présents dans un rapport au baryum supérieur à un. De plus, certains échantillons contiennent encore de l'aluminium, du chrome et du titane dans des quantités variables (de 10 à 100 % de la quantité de baryum). D'autres métaux de transition (fer, cuivre, zinc, manganèse, nickel, cobalt) peuvent être présent dans des proportions moindres (de l'ordre de quelques pourcents de la quantité de baryum). Ces éléments perturbent fortement l'évaporation du baryum lors de la mesure isotopique par TIMS. Les traces de K, Ca, Mg, et de métaux de transition sont éliminées sur une colonne cationique AG50W X8 (100-100 mesh size) de 1 ml (figure 2-3) ainsi que l'ont montré nos calibrations. Les fractions de baryum sont évaporées après la colonne de résine Sr-resin puis dissoutes dans 1 ml de HCl 6N.Cette étape est répétée pour éliminer tout résidu de HNO₃. Les solutions sont ensuite évaporées et dissoutes dans 150 µl de HCl 6N. Au moment du chargement des solutions sur les colonnes, 1 ml de H₂O MQ est ajouté, ce qui permet une meilleure élimination du chrome. En effet, le chrome, en milieu HCl peut se trouver sous différents complexes. En équilibrant le chrome dans une solution de HCl assez concentrée des complexes chlorés se forment avec une faible affinité pour les résines échangeuses de cations (Larsen et al, 2016). En diluant l'échantillon juste avant le

chargement, les complexes chlorés sont conservés et le chrome est élué dans les premiers millilitres de HCl 1 N. La matrice contenant le magnésium, le potassium, les métaux de transition, ainsi qu'une partie du calcium et de l'aluminium est rincée avec 5 volumes de HCl 1 N, puis le calcium et l'aluminium sont élués avec 8 volumes de HCl 2,5 N et le baryum est élué avec 14 volumes d'HCl 6N. La faible quantité de résine permet de conserver un rendement supérieur à 90 %.

Les blancs obtenus en suivant l'ensemble de la procédure décrite ci-sont inférieurs à 15 pg pour le strontium et de 114 ± 3 pg pour le baryum dans le cas de l'utilisation d'acides ultrapurs (SeastarTM). Dans le cas où les acides utilisés sont distillés au laboratoire, les blancs sont de 30 ± 4 pg pour le strontium et de 572 ± 17 pg pour le baryum. Notre protocole permet d'obtenir un blanc en baryum inférieur à ceux publiés dans la littérature (2900 pg : Nan et al., 2015 ; 200 à 1000 pg : Bermingham et al., 2016).



Figure 2 : Courbes d'élution de la colonne de Sr-resin (a) et de la colonne cationique pour la dernière purification du baryum (b).

| | Eluant | Vol | ume | | |
|---|--------------------------|---|-----------------------|--|--|
| Elimination du fer Colonne anionique AG1X8 | 100-200 mesh size | 10 ml | 2 ml | | |
| | H ₂ O MQ | 50 ml | 10 ml | | |
| | HCl 6N | 50 ml | 10 ml | | |
| Lavage | H ₂ O MQ | 50 ml | 10 ml | | |
| | HNO3 0.05N | 50 ml | 10 ml | | |
| | H ₂ O MQ | Volu 10 ml 50 ml 0,5 m 5 m 5 m 5 m 5 m 5 m 5 m 5 m 5 m 5 m 5 m 5 m 5 m 13 x 0, 10 x 0, 5 x 1 10 m 10 n 10 n 10 n 2 m 10 n 2 m 10 n 2 n 1 n 10 n 2 n 1 n 1 0 n 1 0 n 1 0 n 1 0 | 10 ml | | |
| Conditionnement | HCl 6N | 50 ml | 5 ml | | |
| Chargement | HCl 6N | 5 ml | 2 ml | | |
| Elution Sr, Ba | HCl 6N | 6 x 5 ml 3 x 10 ml | 2 x 1 ml 10 x 2 ml | | |
| Récupération du fer ¹ | HNO ₃ 0.5N | 50 ml | 10 ml | | |
| Colonne Sr-resin | | 0,5 | ml | | |
| | H ₂ O MQ | 5 1 | nl | | |
| Lavage | HCl 1N | 5 ml | | | |
| Lavage | H ₂ O MQ | 5 1 | nl | | |
| | HNO ₃ 0.5N | 5 ml 2 ml 2 x 0,5 ml | | | |
| Conditionnement | HNO ₃ 3N | 2 1 | nl | | |
| Chargement | HNO ₃ 3N | 2 x 0 | ,5 ml | | |
| Elution matrice | HNO ₃ 3N | 5 x 0,5 ml | | | |
| Elution Ba | HNO ₃ 7,5N | 13 x 0,5 ml | | | |
| Elution Sr | HNO ₃ 0.05N | 10 x 0,5 ml 5 x 1 ml | | | |
| Colonne de Pré-Filtre (fractions | de strontium uniquement) | 11 | nl | | |
| Laura | H ₂ O MQ | 10 | ml | | |
| Lavage | HNO3 0.5N | 10 | ml | | |
| Conditionnement | HNO3 0.5N | 2 1 | nl | | |
| Chargement | HNO ₃ 0.5N | 1 1 | nl | | |
| Elution Ba | HNO ₃ 0.5N | 5 x 3 | l ml | | |
| Colonne cationique AG50W X8 (fractions de baryum uniquemen | 100-200 mesh size nt) | 11 | nl | | |
| Lavage | H ₂ O MQ | 10 | ml | | |
| | HCl 6N | 20 | ml | | |
| | H ₂ O MQ | 10 | ml | | |
| Conditionnement | HCl 1N | 10 | ml | | |
| Chargement | HCl ~1N | 1 1 | nl | | |
| Elution K, Mg | HCl 1N | 5 x | l ml | | |
| Elution Ca, (Sr) | HCl 2,5N | 8 x | l ml | | |
| Elution Ba | HCl 6N | 14 x | 1 ml | | |

Tableau 2 : Protocole de séparation et purification su strontium et du baryum

¹ Cette étape n'a été réalisée que dans le cas des échantillons les plus précieux, afin de conserver les autres éléments

2.2.5 Comparaison avec les autres protocoles existants

Les protocoles publiés dans la littérature (Eugster et al., 1969 ; Chabaux et al., 1984 ; Ranen et Jacobsen, 2006 ; Carlson et al., 2007 ; Andreasen et Sharma, 2007, Qin et al., 2011 ; Nan et al., 2015 ; Bermingham et al., 2014, 2016) développés pour le baryum sur résine cationique ont tous un rendement compris entre 60 et 80 %. Bien que les analyses en TIMS ne nécessitent pas un rendement de 100 % du fait que le fractionnement des isotopes du baryum et du strontium sont théoriquement corrigés dans notre protocole de réduction de données, j'ai souhaité développer une méthode ayant un rendement supérieur à 90 %. L'objectif est double, il s'agit d'abord de limiter la perte en baryum, mais également de limiter le fractionnement lié à une perte de rendement. En effet, les mesures haute précision de TIMS nécessitent au minimum 500 ng (idéalement 1 µg), et chaque échantillon doit pourvoir être mesuré deux fois. Un rendement de 60 % revient quasiment à doubler la quantité d'échantillon utilisée, ce qui s'avère problématique dans le cas d'échantillons pauvres en baryum comme les chondrites. Il a été montré sur d'autres éléments (calcium : Nemoto et al, 2012 ; cuivre : Maréchal et al, 1999 ; fer : Anbar et al, 2007; baryum: Fujii et al, 2002) que la perte de rendement peut entrainer un fractionnement isotopique. Bien que le traitement des données en TIMS permette de s'affranchir de cet éventuel fractionnement dépendant de la masse, dans le cas où le fractionnement instrumental ne se fait pas parfaitement selon la loi exponentielle, une erreur peut se propager sur les rapports mesurés. Il est donc important d'améliorer le rendement, tout en séparant de manière efficace et rapide le baryum du strontium et de la matrice. Pin et al (2003), ont utilisé l'affinité de la résine Sr-resin pour les alcalino-terreux et plus particulièrement le strontium pour purifier baryum et strontium à partir d'une même aliquote. Cette résine a l'avantage de supporter des matrices complexes (jusqu'à 21 mg de Ca par millilitre de résine, Horwitz et al., 1992). Afin de tester la sensibilité de la séparation à la présence d'une matrice, nous avons d'abord essayé de charger directement l'échantillon (50 mg d'un basalte standard BHVO) après l'attaque (suivant Pin et al, 2003) sur une petite quantité de résine (0,5 ml). En parallèle, nous avons chargé une quantité identique d'échantillon dont une partie de la matrice (Fe, Ca, Mg, K, Na pour les éléments principaux) a été enlevée par passage sur une colonne cationique (2 ml de résine AG50W X8, 200-400 mesh size) en HCl 2,5 N, ainsi qu'une autre aliquote dont seul le fer (et quelques éléments traces) a été éliminé par passage sur une résine anionique (2 ml AG1 X8 100-200 mesh size) en HCl 6N.

Les résultats de ces trois tests montrent que la résine Sr-resin supporte effectivement une matrice complexe, mais que la présence de fer en trop grande quantité (12,4 wt%; GeoRem), soit 4,3 mg de Fe sur l'aliquote) perturbe l'élution avec des pics dont le maximum est décalé de 2 volumes de colonne par rapport à une élution en l'absence de fer. La présence des éléments de la matrice autres que le fer (Ca, Mg, K, Na, Al,...) ne perturbe pas les courbes d'élution. Il a

donc été décidé de séparer au préalable le fer sur une résine anionique AG1X8 100-200 mesh, car celle-ci est plus simple à mettre en œuvre qu'une résine cationique AG50W X8 200-400 mesh ou AG50W X12 200-400 mesh, telle qu'utilisé dans les protocoles publiés tant pour le baryum (Nan et al., 2015 ; Carlson et al., 2007 ; Bermingham et al., 2014) que pour le strontium (e.g. : Hans et al., 2013). En effet, la résine AG1WX8 100-200 mesh a un débit d'élution plus rapide, le volume d'élution nécessaire est directement proportionnel à la quantité de résine et le strontium et le baryum ne sont pas adsorbés par cette résine.

De part l'utilisation d'une résine Sr-resin associée à une résine anionique, notre protocole est facile à adapter à une grande variété d'échantillons. Alors que la colonne cationique sépare assez efficacement Mg, Ti et Na, elle laisse environ 50 % du calcium et 10 % du fer et du potassium. La colonne Sr-resin produit quand à elle une fraction de baryum contenant encore 0,1 à 0,5 % des quantités initiales de Ca, K et Mg, correspondant à des rapports Mg/Ba, Ca/Ba et K/Ba de 1 à 5. Ces résidus sont facilement éliminés par l'utilisation d'une colonne contenant 1 ml de résine cationique AG50W X8 100-200 mesh. La faible quantité de résine permet un rendement de plus de 90% en conservant un volume d'élution faible (10 ml) et en éliminant les derniers résidus de matrice pour obtenir les rapports listés dans la Tableau 3. La pureté des fractions de baryum produite est similaire à celle récemment publiée par Nan et al. (2015). Toutefois, leur protocole, basé sur l'utilisation de deux colonnes cationiques, ne peut pas s'appliquer à une utilisation en cosmochimie. En effet, leurs résultats montrent un important fractionnement ($\delta^{134/137}$ Ba = - 0,705 ‰) pour des quantités de baryum inférieures à 2 µg et les auteurs recommandent l'utilisation d'au moins 6 µg de baryum, une quantité qui s'avère trop importante dans le cas d'échantillons rares pauvres en Ba tels que les anorthosites lunaires qui ne contiennent qu'une dizaine de ppm de baryum.

Tableau 3 : Pureté des fractions de baryum et strontium produites par le protocole développé/

| | K/X | Mg/X | Ca/X | Al/X | Fe/X | Cr/X | Ti/X |
|--------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---------|---------|
| X = Ba | < 1 | < 0.1 | < 1 | < 0.01 | < 0.01 | < 0.001 | < 0.001 |
| X = Sr | < 0.1 | < 0.02 | < 0.02 | < 0.01 | < 0.02 | | < 0.003 |

Les valeurs sont exprimées comme le rapport des élements K, Mg, Ca, Al, Fe, Cr, Ti au baryum ou strontium dans les fractions finales avant chargement sur les filaments pour la mesure en TIMS. Les mesures ont été effectuées sur un HR-ICP-MS. Aucune valeur du rapport Cr/Sr n'est donnée car la quantité de Cr était en desosus de la limite de détection du spéctromètre (100 ppt).

2.3 Spectrométrie de masse

2.3.1 Fonctionnement du TIMS

Les mesures isotopiques du strontium et du baryum ont été réalisées sur un spectromètre de masse à thermo-ionisation (TIMS) Triton Plus (Thermo-Finnigan) (Figure 3). Les échantillons sont évaporés et ionisés sur des filaments de rhénium ultrapur (99,999 %). Dans le cas de l'utilisation de filaments simples, l'évaporation et l'ionisation sont réalisées à partir du même filament. Dans le cas d'une configuration en double filament, l'échantillon est déposé sur un premier filament qui sert à l'évaporer, puis un second filament est utilisé pour ioniser les atomes évaporés. Les cations sont ensuite accélérés à une énergie de 10 keV puis focalisés par un jeu de lentilles au niveau de la source. Le faisceau d'ions passe à travers un secteur magnétique qui dévie les différents isotopes en fonction de leur rapport masse/charge. A la sortie de l'aimant, des lentilles (zooms optiques) permettent, si nécessaire, d'ajuster les différents faisceaux d'ions avec les collecteurs dans le cas de mesures dynamiques (champ magnétique variable). Les différents faisceaux séparés par l'aimant sont ensuite collectés par 9 cages de faraday, dont 8 sont mobiles.



Figure 3 : Schéma simplifié du spectromètre de masse à thermo-ionisation Triton plus (source : Wieser et Schwieters, 2005).

Le TIMS est particulièrement adapté à la mesure des variations isotopiques produites par une décroissance radioactive ou des anomalies nucléosynthétiques qui sont les sujets de cette étude. Lors de l'évaporation de l'échantillon, il se produit un fractionnement isotopique dépendant de la masse qu'il faut corriger. Les méthodes utilisées sur MC-ICP-MS, où cette la correction du biais en masse peut se faire par dopage avec un autre élément ou par standard-bracketing, ne

peuvent pas être appliquées en TIMS. Lors de l'évaporation de l'élément d'intérêt sur le filament, il se produit un fractionnement isotopique dépendant de la masse. La correction de ce fractionnement instrumental se fait par l'utilisation d'un rapport de normalisation dont la valeur est connue. Cette valeur de normalisation est utilisée pour tous les échantillons afin qu'ils soient comparables. Le rapport de normalisation est considéré constant. Cette méthode élimine non seulement le fractionnement instrumental, mais également tout fractionnement dépendant de la masse qui aurait pu se produire lors de la purification sur colonne et même ceux propres à l'échantillon, à la condition implicite que les fractionnements produits par l'instrument, pendant la séparation chimique ou dans la nature obéissent à la même loi de fractionnement.

Le TIMS est intéressant pour la mesure des rapports isotopiques du strontium et du baryum car ces éléments ont tous deux des isotopes de masse identique à celle de gaz parfaits présents en faible quantité dans l'argon utilisé pour produire le plasma des spectromètres de masse à induction couplée (ICP-MS) (Tableau 1). De plus, dans le cas du strontium, l'interférence du ⁸⁷Rb sur ⁸⁷Sr est considérablement réduite du fait que le rubidium est plus volatil que le strontium et est par conséquent évaporé pendant le chauffage du filament, avant que l'émission de strontium ne soit optimale. Enfin, le TIMS produit un signal stable, avec un bruit de fond très bas, ce qui le rend idéal pour la mesure d'isotopes de très faible abondance.

2.3.2 Géométrie des filaments et activateur

Les premiers tests ont été réalisés sur des filaments fournis par ThermoScientific. Par la suite, les filaments ont été fabriqués au laboratoire à partir de ruban de rhénium fourni par H. Cross Company. Toutefois, le premier lot de rhénium produisait une émission de mauvaise qualité, avec production de molécules de SrF⁺. Il s'est avéré que ces filaments étaient plus larges et deux fois plus fins que ceux fournis par ThermoScientific. Un second lot de rhénium dont la largeur et l'épaisseur ont été adaptées, donne une émission similaire aux filaments de ThermoScientific.

Les filaments sont d'abord dégazés sous vide pendant une heure, puis laissés à l'air libre au moins 24h avant utilisation. Juste avant le dépôt, deux fines lamelles de parafilm sont déposées de part et d'autre de la zone réservée à l'échantillon pour éviter que celui-ci ne s'étale sur toute la largeur du filament. L'échantillon est ensuite déposé au centre du filament et évaporé à \sim 1,2 A. Une fois évaporés, les filaments sont chauffés pendant 30 s à 1,8 A afin de consumer le parafilm ainsi que d'éventuelles traces de matières organiques restantes. Ils sont ensuite chauffés au rouge pendant quelques secondes et refroidis.

Les mesures du strontium ont été réalisées sur des filaments simples de rhénium. Les échantillons sont dissous la veille du chargement dans $1\mu l$ d'HNO₃ 3N par μg de strontium. Environ une heure avant le chargement, l'activateur est ajouté à raison de $1 \mu l/\mu g$ de Sr. L'activateur utilisé est composé d'HF (5%), d'acide nitrique, d'acide ortho-phosphorique et de chlorure de tantale (TaCl₅). Différentes méthodes d'ajout de l'activateur ont été testées, tel que le dépôt avant ou après sans le mélanger à l'échantillon, mais l'émission de ces filaments est très perturbée, au point de rendre impossible l'acquisition de données.

Les mesures de baryum ont été réalisées sur des filaments doubles de rhénium. Les échantillons sont dissous la veille du chargement dans 1 μ l d'HNO₃ 3N par μ g de baryum. Aucun activateur n'est ajouté. Au début de ma thèse, j'ai essayé d'utiliser le même activateur que pour le strontium, mais quelle que soit la géométrie des filaments employés, l'émission était très instable car une importante partie du baryum était évaporée sous forme de BaF⁺. J'ai alors préparé un activateur sans HF, mais le tantale contenu précipite au bout de quelques jours. La configuration en double filament permet de s'affranchir de l'activateur. Elle donne des mesures plus précises en accord avec Carlson et al. (2007).

Les filaments sont placés sur un barillet dans la source du spectromètre. Le vide est ensuite réalisé pour obtenir une pression de 10^{-7} mbar. Les filaments sont chauffés lentement sur plusieurs heures afin d'obtenir un signal le plus stable possible. Chaque analyse comprend environ 800 à 1000 cycles de mesures avec des temps d'intégration de 8 s, espacés de 5 s dans le cas de mesures dynamiques. Les cycles sont groupés par bloc de 14 (en statique) et de 16 (en dynamique) pour les mesures de baryum, et de 21 pour les mesures de strontium. Le bruit de fond (baseline) est mesuré avant chaque bloc. Le gain des amplificateurs est mesuré avant chaque analyse, pendant le chauffage du filament. Tous les amplificateurs sont équipés de résistances $10^{11} \Omega$ sauf pour l'isotope 132 Ba ($10^{12} \Omega$). Les méthodes de dépôt et de chauffage utilisées permettent d'obtenir un signal de plus de 15 V sur 87 Sr (soit ~ 100 mV sur 84 Sr) et de 10 V à 20 V sur 135 Ba (~ 1 V sur 132 Ba avec résistance $10^{12} \Omega$) pendant une durée de 6 à 10h.

2.3.3 Choix d'un rapport de normalisation

La correction du fractionnement instrumental en TIMS nécessite l'utilisation d'un rapport de normalisation externe. Dans le cas du strontium, le rapport utilisé est ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr = 0,1194 (Nier, 1938). Concernant le baryum, le rapport de normalisation le plus fréquemment employé dans la littérature est ¹³⁴Ba/¹³⁶Ba (Hidaka et al., 2003, 2013 ; Hidaka and Yoneda, 2011 ; Ranen and Jacobsen 2006 ; Carlson, et al., 2007; Andreasen and Sharma, 2007; Bermingham et al., 2014), mais d'autres ont été proposés : ¹³⁸Ba/¹³⁴Ba (Loss et al., 1994; Bermingham et al., 2016)

et ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba (McCulloch and Wasserburg, 1978). Dans cette étude, le rapport de normalisation utilisé est ¹³⁴Ba/¹³⁶Ba = 0,307776 (De Bièvre et Taylor, 1993; Andreasen et Sharma, 2007) car ces deux isotopes sont produits exclusivement par le processus s. Ce rapport ne devrait donc pas être modifié par une éventuelle anomalie nucléosynthétique qui modifierait les proportions relatives en nucléides produits par les processus r, s ou p.

2.3.4 Configuration des cages

Deux configurations ont été mises en place à la fois pour le strontium et le baryum. Dans le cas du strontium, les deux rapports isotopiques ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr et ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr sont mesurés en utilisant un mode multidynamique (Tableau 4). Le Triton Plus dispose d'un amplificateur virtuel qui permet d'éliminer les différences de gains entre les différents amplificateurs en les faisant commuter sur chacune des cages de faraday utilisées (Wieser et Schwieters, 2005). Toutefois, ce dispositif ne permet pas d'éliminer les différences de gain liées aux cages de Faraday elles-mêmes. Ces différences sont théoriquement faibles, d'autant plus sur un spectromètre neuf, mais l'usure des cages de Faraday fait augmenter l'écart de rendement entre celles-ci (Roth, 2013). L'usure est d'autant plus rapide que, dans le cas des alcalino-terreux, la mesure des isotopes d'abondance faible (~0.1 %) entraine la production de signaux forts sur les isotopes les plus abondants (~20 V). Lors d'une mesure en mode multidynamique les isotopes passent sur les différentes cages au cours d'un même cycle. Afin de ne pas déplacer les cages de Faraday entre chaque ligne de mesure, des zooms optiques permettent de faire coïncider parfaitement les faisceaux d'ions avec les cages, ce qui corrige des petites différences d'écarts de masse d'une ligne à l'autre.

| C | 1.2 | 1.0 | 1.1 | | 111 | 112 | 112 | 114 | Zooms op | tiques |
|---|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-----|----------|------------|
| Cage | LJ | LZ | LI | AX | HI | HZ | нэ | H4 | Focus | Dispersion |
| ⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr en mode multidynamique | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ligne 1 | | | ⁸⁴ Sr | ⁸⁵ Rb | ⁸⁶ Sr | ⁸⁷ Sr | ⁸⁸ Sr | | 0 V | 3.5 V |
| Ligne 2 | | ⁸⁴ Sr | ⁸⁵ Rb | ⁸⁶ Sr | ⁸⁷ Sr | ⁸⁸ Sr | | | 0 V | - 0.5 V |
| Ligne 3 | ⁸⁴ Sr | ⁸⁵ Rb | ⁸⁶ Sr | ⁸⁷ Sr | ⁸⁸ Sr | | | | 0 V | - 7.5 V |
| ⁸⁴ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr en mode statique | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ligne 1 | | | ⁸⁴ Sr | ⁸⁵ Rb | ⁸⁶ Sr | ⁸⁷ Sr | ⁸⁸ Sr | | | |
| Ligne 2 | ⁸⁴ Sr | ⁸⁵ Rb | ⁸⁶ Sr | ⁸⁷ Sr | ⁸⁸ Sr | | | | | |
| ^{135, 138} Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | a en mod | e multidyr | ıamique | | | | | | | |
| Ligne 1 | | | ¹³⁴ Ba | ¹³⁵ Ba | ¹³⁶ Ba | ¹³⁷ Ba | ¹³⁸ Ba | | 0 V | 5 V |
| Ligne 2 | | ¹³⁴ Ba | ¹³⁵ Ba | ¹³⁶ Ba | ¹³⁷ Ba | ¹³⁸ Ba | ¹³⁹ La | | 0 V | 0 V |
| Ligne 3 | ¹³⁴ Ba | ¹³⁵ Ba | ¹³⁶ Ba | ¹³⁷ Ba | ¹³⁸ Ba | | ¹⁴⁰ Ce | | 0 V | -3.5 V |
| ^{130, 132} Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | a en mod | e statique | | | | | | | | |
| Line 1 | ¹³⁰ Ba | ¹³² Ba* | ¹³³ Cs | ¹³⁴ Ba | ¹³⁵ Ba | ¹³⁶ Ba | ¹³⁷ Ba | | | |

Tableau 4 : Configuration des cages et des zooms optiques pour la mesure des différents rapports isotopiques utilisés dans cette étude. *Isotope mesuré sur une résistance $10^{12} \Omega$.

Le rapport ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr est mesuré sur 3 lignes, chacune correspondant à une acquisition de 8s, séparées entre elles par un temps d'attente de 5 s pour permettre aux amplificateurs de revenir à leur ligne de base (voir section 2.3.7.3). Pour chaque ligne de mesure, il est possible de calculer une valeur du rapport isotopique en mode statique en utilisant la loi exponentielle :

$$\frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{corr} = \frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{mesur\acute{e}} \times \left(\frac{M_{87}}{M_{86}}\right)^{f}$$

Le coefficient de fractionnement instrumental f est calculé en utilisant un rapport de référence 86 Sr/ 88 Sr = 0,1194 considéré constant dans tous les échantillons. En appliquant la loi exponentielle à ce rapport de normalisation, il est possible de déterminer f.

$$\frac{\frac{86}{88}Sr}{88} \bigg|_{vrai} = \frac{\frac{86}{88}Sr}{\frac{88}{88}Sr} \bigg|_{mesuré} \times \left(\frac{M_{86}}{M_{88}}\right)^{T}$$
$$f = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{\frac{86}{88}Sr}{\frac{88}{88}Sr}\right|_{vrai}}{\ln\left(\frac{M_{86}}{M_{88}}\right)}$$

En combinant les équations ci-dessus

$$\frac{\frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{corr}}{{}^{87}Sr\Big|_{mesure}} = \left(\frac{M_{87}}{M_{86}}\right) \frac{\ln\left(\frac{{}^{86}Sr}{{}^{88}Sr}\Big|_{vrai}/\frac{{}^{86}Sr}{{}^{88}Sr}\Big|_{mesure}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{M_{86}}{M_{88}}\right)}$$

Et en réorganisant les termes :

$$\frac{\frac{87}{86}Sr}{\frac{87}{86}Sr}\Big|_{corr} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{86}{88}Sr}{\frac{88}{88}Sr}\Big|_{vrai} \\ \frac{\frac{86}{88}Sr}{\frac{86}{88}Sr}\Big|_{mesur\acute{e}} \end{pmatrix}^{\frac{\ln\left(\frac{138}{M_{86}}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{M_{86}}{M_{88}}\right)}}$$

Toutefois, l'équation ci-dessus ne tient pas compte des gains des collecteurs. En prenant les rapports isotopiques sur différentes lignes, il est possible de minimiser l'influence de ces gains. Si l'on reprend l'équation précédente en ajoutant les gains (g):

$$\frac{\frac{8^{7}Sr}{8^{6}Sr}\Big|_{corr}}{\frac{8^{7}Sr}{8^{6}Sr}\Big|_{ligne\ 1}} \approx \frac{g_{H2}}{g_{H1}} = \left(\frac{\frac{8^{7}Sr}{8^{6}Sr}\Big|_{corr}}{\frac{8^{7}Sr}{8^{8}Sr}\Big|_{vrai}} - \frac{g_{H2}}{\frac{8^{7}Sr}{8^{8}Sr}\Big|_{ligne\ 2}} \times \frac{g_{H1}}{g_{H2}}\right)^{\beta_{87}}$$

avec
$$\beta_{87} = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{M_{87}}{M_{86}}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{M_{87}}{M_{88}}\right)}$$

En réarrangeant les termes :

$$\frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{corr} = \left(\frac{g_{H2}}{g_{H1}}\right)^{\frac{1+\beta_{87}}{1-\beta_{87}}} \times \left[\left(\frac{{}^{86}Sr}{{}^{88}Sr}\Big|_{vrai}}{{}^{87}Sr}\Big|_{ligne\ 2}\right)^{\beta_{87}} \times \frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{ligne\ 1} \right]^{\frac{1}{1-\beta_{8}}}$$

Les gains ne sont pas totalement éliminés, toutefois, l'exposant du rapport de gain $(1 + \beta_{87})/(1 - \beta_{87})$ est très petit, avec une valeur de -0,0057. Si les gains des cages diffèrent entre eux de 10 ppm, alors, le facteur de gain $\left(\frac{g_{H2}}{g_{H1}}\right)^{(1+\beta_{87})/(1-\beta_{87})}$ va différer de 1 de 0,057 ppm, ce qui rend ce terme négligeable devant la précision instrumentale de l'ordre de quelques ppm.

En réécrivant l'équation ci-dessus pour les lignes 2 et 3, et en faisant la moyenne géométrique des deux rapports ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr, on obtient l'équation utilisée pour le calcul du rapport multidynamique :

$$\frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{corr}^{MD} = \sqrt{\left[\left(\frac{\frac{{}^{86}Sr}{{}^{88}Sr}\Big|_{vrai}}{\frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{88}Sr}\Big|_{ligne\ 2}}\right)^{\beta_{87}} * \frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{ligne\ 1}}\right]^{\frac{2}{1-\beta_{87}}} + \left[\left(\frac{{}^{86}Sr}{{}^{88}Sr}\Big|_{vrai}}{\frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{87}Sr}\Big|_{ligne\ 2}}\right)^{\beta_{87}} * \frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{ligne\ 2}\right]^{\frac{2}{1-\beta_{87}}}$$

Le rapport ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr est mesuré sur deux lignes, qui correspondent aux lignes 1 et 3 de la configuration utilisée pour le rapport ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr. Cette configuration est utilisée pour minimiser la dérive temporelle des rapports isotopiques dans le temps entre les deux lignes utilisées pour le calcul du rapport multidynamique. Le rapport ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr est calculé par combinaison des rapports mesurés sur les deux lignes.

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{84}{86}Sr}{\frac{86}{86}Sr}}{\frac{\frac{84}{86}Sr}{\frac{86}{86}Sr}} = \left(\frac{\frac{\frac{86}{86}Sr}{\frac{88}{86}Sr}}{\frac{88}{86}Sr}\right|_{vrai}}{\frac{\frac{88}{86}Sr}{\frac{88}{86}Sr}} \times \frac{g_{H1}}{g_{L1}}\right)^{\beta_{84}}$$

avec $\beta_{84} = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{M_{84}}{M_{86}}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{M_{88}}{M_{86}}\right)}$

soit

$$\frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{corr}^{MD} = \frac{{}^{84}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{ligne\ 1} \times \left(\frac{\frac{{}^{86}Sr}{{}^{88}Sr}\Big|_{vrai}}{\frac{{}^{88}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{ligne\ 2}}\right)^{\beta_{84}} \times \left(\frac{g_{L1}}{g_{H1}}\right)^{1+\beta_{84}}$$

L'exposant du rapport de gain $1 + \beta_{84}$ vaut 0,02, ce qui représente une déviation du facteur de gain de 0,2 ppm si les gains différent entre eux de 10 ppm.

Les rapports en mode statique sont également calculés pour chaque ligne :

$$\frac{{}^{84}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{corr} = \frac{{}^{84}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{mesur\acute{e}} \times \left(\frac{M_{84}}{M_{86}}\right)^{f}$$

Pour le baryum, nous avons établi deux configurations différentes, la première en mode multidynamique correspondant aux isotopes de masse 134, 135, 136, 137 et 138, la seconde en mode statique pour les isotopes de masse 130, 132, 134, 135, 136 et 137. Les rapports ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba et ¹³⁸Ba/¹³⁶Ba sont mesurés en mode multidynamique, et le rapport ¹³⁷Ba/¹³⁶Ba en mode multistatique (moyenne des valeurs statiques des trois lignes).

Dans le cas du rapport ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba, le calcul de la valeur multidynamique sur trois lignes se fait selon l'équation suivante :

$$\frac{{}^{135}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\Big|_{corr}^{MD} = \sqrt{\left[\left(\frac{g_c}{g_{L1}}\right)^{\frac{1+\beta_{135}}{1-\beta_{135}}} * \left(\frac{\frac{{}^{135}Ba}{{}^{134}Ba}\Big|_{iigne\ 1}}{\left(\frac{{}^{135}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\Big|_{iigne\ 2}\right)^{\beta_{135}}}\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\beta_{135}}}\right]^2 + \left[\left(\frac{g_{L1}}{g_{L2}}\right)^{\frac{1+\beta_{135}}{1-\beta_{135}}} * \left(\frac{\frac{{}^{135}Ba}{{}^{134}Ba}\Big|_{iigne\ 2}}{\left(\frac{{}^{135}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\Big|_{iigne\ 2}\right)^{\beta_{135}}}\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\beta_{135}}}\right]^2 + \left[\left(\frac{g_{L1}}{g_{L2}}\right)^{\frac{1+\beta_{135}}{1-\beta_{135}}} * \left(\frac{\frac{{}^{135}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\Big|_{iigne\ 2}}{\left(\frac{{}^{135}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\Big|_{iigne\ 2}\right)^{\beta_{135}}}\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\beta_{135}}}\right]^2 + \left[\left(\frac{g_{L1}}{g_{L2}}\right)^{\frac{1+\beta_{135}}{1-\beta_{135}}} * \left(\frac{\frac{{}^{135}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\Big|_{iigne\ 2}}{\left(\frac{{}^{135}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\Big|_{iigne\ 3}\right)^{\beta_{135}}}\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\beta_{135}}}\right]^2 + \left[\left(\frac{g_{L1}}{g_{L2}}\right)^{\frac{1+\beta_{135}}{1-\beta_{135}}} * \left(\frac{\frac{{}^{135}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\Big|_{iigne\ 3}}{\left(\frac{{}^{135}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\Big|_{iigne\ 3}\right)^{\beta_{135}}}\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\beta_{135}}}\right]^2 + \left[\left(\frac{g_{L1}}{g_{L2}}\right)^{\frac{1+\beta_{135}}{1-\beta_{135}}} * \left(\frac{{}^{135}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\Big|_{iigne\ 3}\right)^{\beta_{135}}}\right]^{\frac{1}{1-\beta_{135}}} + \left(\frac{g_{L1}}{g_{L2}}\right)^{\frac{1+\beta_{135}}{1-\beta_{135}}} + \left(\frac{g_{L1}}{g_{L2}}\right)^{\frac{1+\beta_{135}}{1-\beta_{135}$$

L'exposant du rapport de gain $\frac{1+\beta_{135}}{1-\beta_{135}}$ vaut - 0,0037, ce qui représente une déviation du facteur de gain de 0,04 ppm si les gains différent entre eux de 10 ppm.

Le rapport ¹³⁸Ba/¹³⁶Ba multidynamique est calculé selon l'équation suivante :

$$\frac{138}{136}Ba\Big|_{corr}^{MD} = \frac{138}{136}Ba\Big|_{ligne 3} \times \left(\frac{\frac{134}{136}Ba}{\frac{134}{136}Ba}\Big|_{vrai}}{\frac{134}{136}Ba}\Big|_{ligne 1}\right)^{\beta_{138}} \times \left(\frac{g_{H1}}{g_{L1}}\right)^{1+\beta_{138}}$$

avec $\beta_{138} = \frac{\ln (M_{138}/M_{136})}{\ln (M_{134}/M_{136})}$

L'exposant du rapport de gain $1 + \beta_{135}$ vaut 0,0146, ce qui représente une déviation du facteur de gain de 0,15 ppm si les gains différent entre eux de 10 ppm.

Les rapports ${}^{130}Ba/{}^{136}Ba$ et ${}^{132}Ba/{}^{136}Ba$ sont mesurés en mode statique (i = 130 ou 132):

$$\frac{{}^{i}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\bigg|_{vrai} = \frac{{}^{i}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\bigg|_{mesur\acute{e}} \times \left(\frac{M_{i}}{M_{136}}\right)^{f}$$
$$f = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{{}^{134}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\bigg|_{vrai}/\frac{{}^{134}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\bigg|_{mesur\acute{e}}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{M_{134}}{M_{136}}\right)}$$

Le choix du mode statique permet d'avoir un signal plus important sur les isotopes 130 et 132 en ne mesurant pas le ¹³⁸Ba qui aurait un signal au-delà de la limite de saturation des cages (~ 52 V). De plus, nous avons utilisé une résistance de $10^{12} \Omega$ sur l'isotope 132 afin d'améliorer le niveau de signal et d'améliorer le rapport signal/bruit. L'utilisation de la résistance $10^{12} \Omega$ ne permet pas l'utilisation de l'amplificateur virtuel qui consiste à faire une permutation circulaire de chaque amplificateur sur l'ensemble des cages de Faraday utilisées. La mesure statique sur une seule ligne et l'absence d'amplificateur virtuel augmentent le nombre de mesures pour un temps donné car il n'est plus nécessaire d'attendre entre chaque ligne et de mesurer des baselines à chaque bloc. Or le signal important (~1 V sur ¹³²Ba) nécessaire pour la mesure écourte la durée d'émission du filament.

2.3.5 Réglage des amplificateurs

L'utilisation du mode multidynamique sur plusieurs lignes nécessite un temps d'attente entre chaque ligne afin que les amplificateurs se déchargent pour revenir à leur ligne de base. La réponse des amplificateurs une fois le signal coupé dépend, entre autres, d'un paramètre appelé Decay DAC qui correspond à une correction numérique de la décroissance du signal des amplificateurs. Ce paramètre est préréglé par l'application d'un courant de 33V, brutalement coupé pour observer la réponse des amplificateurs ne répondent pas exactement de la même façon entre un signal électronique appliqué directement sur les amplificateurs et le courant produit par un faisceau d'ions collecté par une cage de Faraday reliée à l'amplificateur. Nous avons donc appliqué un signal d'environ 30 V de ⁸⁸Sr sur chacun des amplificateurs et observé leur décroissance après coupure brutale du signal par fermeture de la vanne tube. Le temps de réponse de l'amplificateur entre la coupure du signal (électronique ou réel) et le retour à la ligne de base, estimé à 2 s avec le signal électronique, est augmenté à plus de 10 s sur certains amplificateurs lorsque le signal provient d'un faisceau d'ions de strontium. Le résultat est

illustré pour un des amplificateurs sur la Figure 4. Les courbes en pointillés correspondent à la réponse au signal virtuel de 33V, les courbes pleines sont celles du signal réel de 30 V de ⁸⁸Sr. Les courbes en bleu correspondent à la décroissance du signal réel obtenue avec la valeur du decay dac (DD128) qui était attribuée par le logiciel sur la base du signal électronique. La réponse de l'amplificateur s'avère très différente dans le cas d'un faisceau d'ions de strontium, avec un temps de retour à la ligne de base de 10 s au lieu de 2 s. La réponse de l'amplificateur pour la valeur optimisée manuellement de decay dac est en vert (DD224). Le temps de réponse est toujours supérieur dans le cas d'un signal réel quelle que soit la valeur du decay dac. Toutefois, un réglage correct du facteur de décroissance à partir d'un faisceau d'ions permet d'obtenir un retour à la ligne de base en moins de 3 s. Ce réglage a été réalisé pour l'ensemble des amplificateurs utilisés dans nos mesures.



Figure 4 : Retour à la ligne de base d'un amplificateur pour deux valeurs du facteur de décroissance (decay dac), celle préconfigurée à l'installation du spectromètre (a) et celle après réglage manuel sur un signal réel (b). Les courbes pointillées correspondent à la réponse pour un signal électronique virtuel de 33 V utilisé pour le réglage initial de l'appareil. Les courbes pleines correspondent à la réponse l'application d'un signal réel (faisceau d'ions de strontium) pour les mêmes valeurs de facteur de décroissance.

Le réglage de la décroissance des amplificateurs a une importante répercussion sur la stabilité des rapports isotopiques au cours d'une mesure en mode multidynamique. Si le régalge est incorrect, les rapports de la ligne 2 peuvent être augmentés d'un résidu provenant d'une décroissance incomplète des amplificateurs suite à l'acquisition de la ligne 1. Ceci est particulièrement visible lorsque le niveau de signal varie d'un ordre de grandeur entre deux lignes sur la même cage de Faraday. A titre d'illustration, la Figure 5 présente l'évolution du rapport ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr pour le standard NIST987 au cours d'une mesure de 1000 cycles. Sur la Figure 5a, l'acquisition a été réalisée avant le réglage des facteurs de décroissance. Le rapport fluctue avec une période d'environ 2h qui correspond au temps nécessaire pour que la matrice de rotation des amplificateurs revienne à sa configuration initiale. La fluctuation provient du fait que seuls certains amplificateurs étaient correctement réglés. Pour les autres, le temps de retour

à la ligne de base était proche de 10 s, soit supérieur au temps d'attente entre les lignes de 3 s. La mesure de l'isotope ⁸⁷Sr sur la ligne 1 était augmentée d'un signal résiduel d'environ 1 mV provenant de l'isotope ⁸⁸Sr de la ligne 3 du cyclé précédent mesuré par la même cage de Faraday. La variation calculée du rapport ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr qui en résulte est de 50 ppm, similaire à la variation de 70 ppm observée sur la Figure 5. L'incertitude sur la mesure du rapport ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr est de 80 ppm (2 s.d.). Sur la Figure 5b, l'acquisition a été réalisée après le réglage de la décroissance des amplificateurs. La fluctuation n'est plus présente et l'incertitude sur le rapport ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr est de 40 ppm (2 s.d.), ce qui montre l'efficacité et l'importance du réglage du temps de décroissance des amplificateurs. La même fluctuation a été observée sur les rapports ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr. La mesure de l'isotope ⁸⁴Sr était augmentée par le résidu du signal de ⁸⁶Sr mesuré sur la ligne 3 du cycle précédent. Le réglage des amplificateurs a permis d'améliorer l'incertitude de 400 ppm (2 s.d.) avant correction, à 80 ppm (2 s.d.) après correction.



Figure 5 : Mesure du rapport ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr du standard NIST987 au cours du temps avant (a) et après (b) le réglage des facteurs de décroissance des amplificateurs. Les points correspondent à chacun des cycles, les courbes représentent le signal moyenné par bloc.

2.3.6 Précision et reproductibilité des mesures isotopiques

2.3.6.1 Strontium

2.3.6.1.1 ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr

Afin de vérifier la justesse des mesures, le standard isotopique NIST987 est mesuré régulièrement (figure 6). La moyenne sur l'ensemble des standards en multidynamique est 87 Sr/ 86 Sr = 0.710249 ± 0.000003 (4ppm, 2 S.D., n = 26). Si l'on se restreint aux mesures obtenues après la correction de décroissance des amplificateurs, la moyenne donne 87 Sr/ 86 Sr = 0.710248 ± 0.000002 (2 ppm, 2 S.D., n = 15). Cette valeur sera utilisée comme moyenne des standards par la suite. Ces résultats indiquent une reproductibilité externe sur le standard NIST 987 de 3 ppm, similaire aux meilleures publiées dans la littérature en acquisition multidynamique (Hans et al., 2013 : 4 ppm) et en acquisition statique, avec correction de la dérive liée à l'usure des cages de Faraday (Yokoyama et al., 2015 : 6 ppm). La reproductibilité externe est de presque un ordre de grandeur inférieure à celle des études en acquisition statique (Moynier et al., 2012 : 18 – 25 ppm ; Andreasen et Sharma, 2007 : 25 ppm).



Figure 6 : Mesure du rapport ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr multidynamique du standard NIST 987 au cours du temps. Les marqueurs pleins correspondent aux données acquises après le réglage de la décroissance des amplificateurs, les marqueurs vides aux données acquises avant. La zone grisée correspond à la reproductibilité externe (2 S.D.).

En mode statique (Figure 7), la moyenne des standards après réglage des amplificateurs est 87 Sr/ 86 Sr = 0.710260 ± 0.000009 (2 S.D.), soit un écart-type de 12 ppm. Cette dispersion peut être attribuée à la dégradation des cages de Faraday au cours du temps. La reproductibilité externe est de 5 ppm si l'on exclut les mesures qui dérivent, similaire à celle de Yokayama et al. (2015).



Figure 7 : Mesure du rapport ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr statique (ligne 1) du standard NIST987 au cours du temps. Les marqueurs pleins correspondent aux données acquises après le réglage de la décroissance des amplificateurs, les marqueurs vides aux données acquises avant. La zone grisée correspond à la reproductibilité externe (2 S.D.).

2.3.6.1.2 ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr

Les mesures sur le standard NIST987 en mode multidynamique (Figure 8) donnent 84 Sr/ 86 Sr = 0,0564923 ± 0,0000011 (2 S.D., n = 41), en ne prenant en compte que les valeurs après correction de la décroissance des amplificateurs. La reproductibilité externe sur le standard NIST 987 est de 19 ppm, légèrement inférieure à celles publiées dans la littérature en acquisition multidynamique (Hans et al., 2013 : 27 ppm) et en acquisition statique (Andreasen et Sharma, 2007 : 34 ppm ; Moynier et al., 2012 : 40 – 60 ppm ; Yokoyama et al., 2015 : 34 ppm).



Figure 8 : Mesure du rapport ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr multidynamique du standard NIST987 au cours du temps. Les marqueurs pleins correspondent aux données acquises après le réglage de la décroissance des amplificateurs, les marqueurs vides aux données acquises avant. La zone grisée correspond à la reproductibilité externe (2 S.D.).

En mode statique (figure 9), le standard donne 84 Sr/ 86 Sr = 0,0564964 ± 0,0000017 (2 S.D.). La reproductibilité externe est de 29 ppm, soit presque le double de celle du mode multidynamique. L'erreur interne (2 s.e.) des mesures est légèrement plus élevée en multidynamique qu'en statique (5 x 10⁻⁷ contre 3 x 10⁻⁷ respectivement), reflétant le fait que le multidynamique considère plusieurs lignes qui sont légèrement décalées entre elles. Malgré cela, le multidynamique donne une meilleure reproductibilité externe car la dispersion est minimisée entre les différentes valeurs.



Figure 9 : Mesure du rapport ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr statique (ligne 1) du standard NIST987 au cours du temps. Les marqueurs pleins correspondent aux données acquises après le réglage de la décroissance des amplificateurs, les marqueurs vides aux données acquises avant. La zone grisée correspond à la reproductibilité externe (2 S.D.).

2.3.6.2 Baryum

Il n'existe pas de standard isotopique international pour le baryum, tel que le NIST987 pour le strontium. Nous avons utilisé une solution monoélémentaire Alfa Æsar comme standard isotopique.

2.3.6.2.1 Résultats en configuration multidynamique : ^{135,137,138}Ba/¹³⁶Ba

Les mesures sur le standard Alfa en mode multidynamique (figure 10) donnent $^{135}Ba/^{136}Ba = 0,8393113 \pm 0,000016$ (2 ppm ; 2 sd), $^{138}Ba/^{136}Ba = 9,129283 \pm 0,000078$ (8 ppm ; 2 sd) et en multistatique $^{135}Ba/^{136}Ba = 0,8393172 \pm 0,000057$ (7 ppm ; 2 sd), $^{138}Ba/^{136}Ba = 9,129368 \pm 0,000092$ (10 ppm ; 2 sd), $^{137}Ba/^{136}Ba = 1,429070 \pm 0,000006$ (12 ppm ; 2 sd). La reproductibilité externe en statique est similaire à celle des meilleures publiées dans la littérature (Carlson et al., 2007 ; Andreasen and Sharma, 2007; Brennecka et al., 2013 ; Bermingham et al., 2014). Le Tableau 6 illustre l'amélioration de la précision externe apportée par l'utilisation du mode multidynamique.

| | Mode d'acquisition | ¹³⁵ Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | 2 sd (ppm) | ¹³⁷ Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | 2 sd (ppm) | ¹³⁸ Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | 2 sd (ppm) |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------|--------------------------------------|---------------|--------------------------------------|---------------|
| Cette étude | Multidyn. | 0,8393113 | 2 | | | 9,129283 | 8 |
| | Statique | 0,8393172 | 7 | 1,429070 | 12 | 9,129368 | 10 |
| Bermingham et al (2014) | Statique | 0,839317 | 9 | 1,429111 | 15 | 9,13034 | 25 |
| | Statique | 0,839321 | 10 | 1,429134 | 13 | 9,130646 | 20 |
| Carlson et al (2007) | Statique | 0,839304 | 14 | 1,428975 | 15 | 9,12886 | 16 |
| Andreasen et Sharma (2007) | Statique | 0,839250 | 4 | 1,429118 | 10 | 9,13030 | 12 |
| Brennecka et al (2013) | Statique | 0,839346 | 10 | 1,429021 | 9 | 9,128734 | 15 |

Tableau 6 : Comparaison de la reproductibilité externe (2 sd) du standard de baryum mesuré dans cette étude avec les valeurs de reproductibilités externes publiées dans la littérature.



Figure 10 : Mesures des rapports ${}^{135}\text{Ba}/{}^{136}\text{Ba}$ et ${}^{138}\text{Ba}/{}^{136}\text{Ba}$ en mode multidynamique au cours du temps. La zone grisée correspond à la reproductibilité externe (2 S.D.).



Figure 11 : Mesures des rapports ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba en mode statique correspondant à la ligne 2 de la configuration multidynamique (Tableau 4) au cours du temps. La droite pointillée correspond à la moyenne et la zone grisée à la reproductibilité externe (2 S.D.) du rapport ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba multidynamique.

2.3.6.2.2 Configuration statique : ^{130,132,135,137}Ba/¹³⁶Ba

Les mesures du standard Alfa en mode statique sont reportées par session d'analyse dans le Tableau 7. Le mode statique est très sensible aux variations temporelles de rendements des cages de Faraday. La précision externe (2 S.D.) pour les rapports 130 Ba/ 136 Ba et 132 Ba/ 136 Ba est comprise entre 16 – 174 ppm et 26 – 58 ppm respectivement. La figure 11 présente le rapport 135 Ba/ 136 Ba en mode statique pour une ligne de la configuration multidynamique utilisée pour obtenir les valeurs de la figure 10.

Les rapports ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba et ¹³⁷Ba/¹³⁶Ba montrent une dispersion importante par rapport à l'erreur interne de chaque mesure (~1 ppm). Cette dispersion ne se retrouve pas dans le cas du mode multidynamique.

| | ¹³⁰ Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | 2 s.e. | ¹³² Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | 2 s.e. | ¹³⁵ Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | 2 s.e. | ¹³⁷ Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | 2 s.e. |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------|--------------------------------------|-----------|--------------------------------------|-----------|--------------------------------------|----------|
| STD | 0.0134821 | 0.0000001 | 0.0128971 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392770 | 0.0000011 | 1.429097 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134822 | 0.0000001 | 0.0128971 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392693 | 0.0000008 | 1.429080 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134822 | 0.0000001 | 0.0128970 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392719 | 0.0000010 | 1.429076 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134823 | 0.0000002 | 0.0128974 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392655 | 0.0000012 | 1.429084 | 0.000003 |
| Mean ($\pm 2 \sigma$) | 0.0134822 | 0.0000002 | 0.0128971 | 0.0000003 | 0.8392709 | 0.0000097 | 1.429084 | 0.000018 |
| 2 σ (ppm) | | 16 | | 26 | | 12 | | 13 |
| STD | 0.0134809 | 0.0000001 | 0.0129024 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392802 | 0.0000008 | 1.429078 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134821 | 0.0000001 | 0.0129017 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392777 | 0.0000008 | 1.429084 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134821 | 0.0000001 | 0.0129022 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392719 | 0.0000009 | 1.429089 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134819 | 0.0000001 | 0.0129018 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392770 | 0.0000008 | 1.429086 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134816 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129019 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392711 | 0.0000011 | 1.429082 | 0.000002 |
| Mean ($\pm 2 \sigma$) | 0.0134817 | 0.0000010 | 0.0129020 | 0.0000006 | 0.8392756 | 0.0000078 | 1.429084 | 0.000008 |
| 2 σ (ppm) | | 76 | | 47 | | 9 | | 6 |
| STD | 0.0134830 | 0.0000001 | 0.0129006 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392847 | 0.0000007 | 1.429074 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134828 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129007 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392753 | 0.0000011 | 1.429066 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134834 | 0.0000001 | 0.0129013 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392846 | 0.0000011 | 1.429073 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134833 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129011 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392821 | 0.0000013 | 1.429083 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134841 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129009 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392788 | 0.0000012 | 1.429084 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134828 | 0.0000001 | 0.0129007 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392797 | 0.0000009 | 1.429085 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134834 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129010 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392804 | 0.0000014 | 1.429085 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134826 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129009 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392726 | 0.0000012 | 1.429064 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134832 | 0.0000003 | 0.0129014 | 0.0000002 | 0.8392748 | 0.0000016 | 1.429087 | 0.000004 |
| STD | 0.0134825 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129015 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392778 | 0.0000013 | 1.429085 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134834 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129014 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392852 | 0.0000011 | 1.429070 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134843 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129016 | 0.0000002 | 0.8392893 | 0.0000014 | 1.429078 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134822 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129017 | 0.0000002 | 0.8392861 | 0.0000013 | 1.429076 | 0.000003 |
| Mean ($\pm 2 \sigma$) | 0.0134832 | 0.0000012 | 0.0129011 | 0.0000008 | 0.8392809 | 0.0000099 | 1.429078 | 0.000016 |
| 2 σ (ppm) | | 88 | | 58 | | 12 | | 11 |
| STD | 0.0134844 | 0.0000001 | 0.0129018 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392902 | 0.0000011 | 1.429058 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134832 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129016 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392827 | 0.0000013 | 1.429061 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134845 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129015 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392839 | 0.0000012 | 1.429073 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134839 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129017 | 0.0000002 | 0.8392876 | 0.0000014 | 1.429046 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134826 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129011 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392875 | 0.0000012 | 1.429053 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134828 | 0.0000003 | 0.0129009 | 0.0000002 | 0.8392918 | 0.0000016 | 1.429078 | 0.000004 |
| STD | 0.0134844 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129016 | 0.0000002 | 0.8392961 | 0.0000016 | 1.429054 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134811 | 0.0000005 | 0.0129012 | 0.0000004 | 0.8392928 | 0.0000031 | 1.429074 | 0.000007 |
| Mean ($\pm 2 \sigma$) | 0.0134834 | 0.0000023 | 0.0129014 | 0.0000006 | 0.8392891 | 0.0000091 | 1.429062 | 0.000023 |
| 2 σ (ppm) | | 174 | | 49 | | 11 | | 16 |

Tableau 7 : Rapports 130 Ba/ 136 Ba, 132 Ba/ 136 Ba, 135 Ba/ 136 Ba et 137 Ba/ 136 Ba acquis en mode statique (Tableau 4).

2.3.7 Mesures des échantillons terrestres

2.3.7.1 Strontium

Les performances du spectromètre de masse ont été évaluées en mesurant les compositions isotopiques sur des standards géologiques, un basalte (BHVO-1), une andésite (AGV-1) et un granite (G-2), afin de vérifier l'absence d'effets de matrice et de valider le protocole de séparation chimique. Les résultats sont présentés dans le tableau 8 pour le rapport ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr et dans le tableau 10 pour le rapport ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr. Pour ce dernier, les valeurs sont reportées en

notation μ qui correspond à la déviation en ppm par rapport au standard (NIST987) calculé suivant la formule :

$$\mu^{84}Sr = \left(\frac{{}^{84}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\right|_{\acute{e}ch} / \frac{{}^{84}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{std} - 1\right) * 10^{6}$$

|--|

| | ⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr | 1.0 | ⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr | | ⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr | 1.2 | ⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr | 1.2 | ⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr | 1.2 |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------|------------------------------------|--------------|------------------------------------|--------------|------------------------------------|--------------|------------------------------------|--------------|
| | multidyn | ± 2 s.e. | multistat | ± 2 s.e. | Ligne 1 | ± 2 s.e. | Ligne 2 | ± 2 s.e. | Ligne 3 | ± 2 s.e. |
| AGV-1 | | | 0.703987 | 0.000001 | 0.703981 | 0.000002 | | | 0.703993 | 0.000001 |
| AGV-1 | | | 0.703992 | 0.000001 | 0.703985 | 0.000002 | | | 0.704001 | 0.000002 |
| AGV-1 | | | 0.703988 | 0.000001 | 0.703981 | 0.000002 | | | 0.703997 | 0.000002 |
| AGV-1 | 0.703983 | 0.000002 | 0.703979 | 0.000002 | 0.703989 | 0.000003 | 0.703968 | 0.000003 | 0.703978 | 0.000003 |
| AGV-1 | 0.703986 | 0.000004 | 0.703987 | 0.000003 | 0.703995 | 0.000006 | 0.703957 | 0.000006 | 0.704008 | 0.000006 |
| Moyenne AGV- $1 (\pm 2s.d.)$ | 0.703984 | 0.000004 | 0.703986 | 0.000009 | 0.703986 | 0.000012 | 0.703963 | 0.000015 | 0.703995 | 0.000022 |
| ϵ^{87} Sr (± 2 s.d.) | -88.2 | 0.05 | -88.2 | 0.13 | -88.2 | 0.17 | -88.2 | 0.22 | -88.2 | 0.31 |
| BHVO-1 | | | 0.703481 | 0.000001 | 0.703469 | 0.000001 | | | 0.703495 | 0.000001 |
| BHVO-1 | | | 0.703482 | 0.000002 | 0.703475 | 0.000002 | | | 0.703494 | 0.000002 |
| BHVO-1 | 0.703477 | 0.000003 | 0.703472 | 0.000002 | 0.703482 | 0.000004 | 0.703460 | 0.000004 | 0.703475 | 0.000004 |
| BHVO-1 | 0.703475 | 0.000002 | 0.703475 | 0.000002 | 0.703483 | 0.000004 | 0.703455 | 0.000004 | 0.703482 | 0.000004 |
| BHVO-1 | 0.703474 | 0.000002 | 0.703471 | 0.000002 | 0.703481 | 0.000004 | 0.703454 | 0.000003 | 0.703478 | 0.000004 |
| BHVO-1 | 0.703473 | 0.000002 | 0.703472 | 0.000002 | 0.703482 | 0.000003 | 0.703458 | 0.000004 | 0.703474 | 0.000003 |
| BHVO-1 | | | 0.703472 | 0.000002 | 0.703469 | 0.000003 | | | 0.703473 | 0.000003 |
| Moyenne | | | | | | | | | | |
| BHVO-1 (± | 0.703475 | 0.000003 | 0.703475 | 0.000009 | 0.703477 | 0.000013 | 0.703457 | 0.000006 | 0.703482 | 0.000018 |
| 2s.d.) $s^{87}Sr(+2ad)$ | 05.4 | 0.05 | 05.4 | 0.12 | 05.4 | 0.18 | 05.2 | 0.08 | 05.4 | 0.26 |
| $\varepsilon 31 (\pm 2.8.0.)$ | -93.4 | 0.03 | -93.4 | 0.15 | -95.4 | 0.10 | -93.3 | 0.08 | -95.4 | 0.20 |
| G-2 | | | 0.709769 | 0.000001 | 0.709750 | 0.000002 | | | 0.709783 | 0.000002 |
| G-2 | | | 0.709772 | 0.000002 | 0.709761 | 0.000003 | | | 0.709785 | 0.000004 |
| G-2 | 0 700750 | 0.00000 | 0./09//1 | 0.000001 | 0.709758 | 0.000002 | 0 200241 | 0.00000 | 0.709786 | 0.000002 |
| G-2 | 0.709759 | 0.000002 | 0.709756 | 0.000002 | 0.709766 | 0.000003 | 0.709741 | 0.000003 | 0.709762 | 0.000003 |
| G-2 | 0.709762 | 0.000002 | 0.709759 | 0.000001 | 0.709766 | 0.000003 | 0.709747 | 0.000002 | 0.709766 | 0.000002 |
| G-2 | | | 0.709763 | 0.000002 | 0.709756 | 0.000003 | | | 0.709770 | 0.000003 |
| Moyenne G-2 $(\pm 2s.d.)$ | 0.709760 | 0.000005 | 0.709765 | 0.000014 | 0.709761 | 0.000009 | 0.709744 | 0.000008 | 0.709775 | 0.000020 |
| ϵ^{87} Sr (± 2 s.d.) | -6.9 | 0.06 | -6.8 | 0.19 | -6.9 | 0.13 | -6.8 | 0.12 | -6.8 | 0,29 |

Tableau 9 : Comparaison des ε^{87} Sr mesurés dans cette étude avec la littérature. Les données de Weiss et al. (2006) sont acquises dans un mode statique selon une configuration correspondant à la ligne 2 de la configuration multidynamique présentée dans cette étude (Tableau 4).

| | Cette étude | 9 | Weiss et al (2006) | | | |
|--------|-------------------|----------|--------------------|----------|--|--|
| - | $\epsilon^{87}Sr$ | ± 2 s.d. | $\epsilon^{87}Sr$ | ± 2 s.d. | | |
| AGV-1 | -88.2 | 0.05 | -88.2 | 0.17 | | |
| BHVO-1 | -95.4 | 0.05 | -95.3 | 0.17 | | |
| G-2 | -6.9 | 0.06 | -6.8 | 0.14 | | |

Les valeurs du ε^{87} Sr des trois échantillons terrestres sont en accord avec celles de Weis et al. (2006) (Tableau 9). Le mode multidynamique améliore la reproductibilité externe des mesures qui est identique pour les échantillons terrestres et le standard NIST987 (5 ppm et 2 ppm respectivement). Les différences entre les rapports mesurés en mode multidynamique et ceux mesurés en mode statique sont de l'ordre de la dizaine de ppm, 0,1 unité ε , soit de l'ordre de l'incertitude sur la mesure.

| | µ ⁸⁴ Sr multidyn. | 2 s.e. | µ ⁸⁴ Sr multistat. | 2 s.e. | μ ⁸⁴ Sr ligne 1 | 2 s.e. | μ ⁸⁴ Sr ligne 2 | 2 s.e. |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------|--------|----------------------------------|--------|-------------------------------|--------|-------------------------------|--------|
| BHVO-1 * | -20.5 | 23.7 | -38.0 | 17.0 | -21.8 | 23.6 | -58 | 24 |
| BHVO-1 * | -20.0 | 26.1 | -55.4 | 17.1 | -51.4 | 24.7 | -59 | 23 |
| BHVO-1 * | -5.0 | 18.1 | -16.7 | 13.2 | -14.8 | 18.5 | -23 | 18 |
| BHVO-1 | 25.8 | 10.8 | 26.6 | 8.0 | 41.4 | 11.3 | 26 | 11 |
| AGV-1 | -11.4 | 9.5 | -12.2 | 6.1 | -9.0 | 9.5 | -14 | 8 |
| AGV-1 | 11.8 | 11.3 | -5.6 | 7.9 | 12.1 | 11.6 | -4 | 11 |
| AGV-1 | 13.2 | 9.7 | 8.2 | 7.3 | 5.0 | 10.2 | 27 | 10 |
| G-2 * | 15.6 | 47.0 | -24.1 | 32.4 | -29.7 | 46.7 | -3 | 46 |
| G-2 * | -0.9 | 16.0 | -23.9 | 12.1 | -10.6 | 16.7 | -41 | 17 |
| G-2 * | -19.3 | 18.1 | -26.4 | 12.8 | -32.2 | 18.6 | -24 | 18 |
| G-2 | 11.7 | 14.7 | -16.5 | 10.1 | 23.1 | 14.6 | -42 | 14 |
| G-2 | -2.5 | 11.9 | -13.5 | 8.5 | -2.5 | 12.0 | -21 | 12 |
| Lherzolite | -6.1 | 53.8 | -23.3 | 37.1 | -54.0 | 58.2 | -28 | 50 |
| Moyenne Terre (±2sd) | -0.6 | 26.9 | -17.0 | 31.8 | -11.4 | 47.4 | -20 | 49 |

Tableau 10 : Déviations en ppm par rapport au standard NIST987. Les lignes marquées d'un astérisque correspondent à des mesures réalisées avec la configuration du ⁸⁷Sr.

2.3.7.2 Baryum

Les performances du spectromètre ont été évaluées en mesurant trois standards terrestres, un basalte (BHVO-1), une andésite (AGV-1), un granite (G-2). Les résultats sont présentés dans la Tableau 11. Les mesures en mode statique réalisées selon la méthode présentée ci-dessus (avec l'utilisation de la résistance $10^{12} \Omega$) ont été acquises tardivement alors que les cages du spectromètre Triton présentaient déjà une dérive liées à leur usure. Afin de corriger au mieux de cette dérive, les valeurs des μ^i Ba en mode statique ont été calculées en considérant uniquement les standards les plus proches temporellement de l'échantillon.

Le décalage entre dynamique et statique observé dans le cas du strontium n'est pas visible ici. Les valeurs du standard en statique peuvent se décaler de quelques dizaines de ppm entre deux sessions de mesure, mais la déviation des échantillons terrestres par rapport au standard ne varie pas.

| | μ^{130} Ba | ± 2 se | $\mu^{132}Ba$ | ± 2 se | $\mu^{135}Ba^a$ | ± 2 se | $\mu^{137}Ba^b$ | ± 2 se | $\mu^{138}Ba^a$ | $\pm 2 se$ |
|--------------------|----------------|------------|---------------|------------|-----------------|------------|-----------------|------------|-----------------|------------|
| Mode multidynamiqu | е | | | | | | | | | |
| BHVO-1 | | | | | -0.2 | 6.8 | 7 | 7 | 10 | 17 |
| BHVO-1 | | | | | -3.3 | 3.3 | 7 | 4 | -10 | 8 |
| BHVO-1 | | | | | -2.9 | 2.5 | 3 | 3 | 14 | 6 |
| BHVO-1 | | | | | -3.8 | 2.1 | 2 | 3 | 32 | 5 |
| BHVO-1 | | | | | -4.2 | 3.1 | -3 | 4 | -3 | 9 |
| BHVO-1 | | | | | -2.6 | 1.7 | 4 | 2 | 13 | 4 |
| BHVO-1 | | | | | -1.3 | 2.9 | 10 | 3 | 12 | 7 |
| G-2 | | | | | -2.7 | 2.3 | 3 | 3 | 8 | 6 |
| G-2 | | | | | -2.9 | 2.1 | 2 | 2 | -5 | 5 |
| AGV-1 | | | | | -0.2 | 2.1 | -10 | 2 | 1 | 5 |
| AGV-1 | | | | | 2.5 | 6.1 | -3 | 7 | 7 | 14 |
| AGV-1 | | | | | -2.7 | 2.1 | 0 | 2 | 22 | 5 |
| Moyenne Terre | | | | | -2.0 | 3.8 | 2 | 11 | 9 | 23 |
| Mode statique | | | | | | | | | | |
| BHVO-1 | -38 | 10 | 1 | 8 | -9 | 1 | -11 | 2 | -22 | 2 |
| BHVO-1 | -21 | 9 | 24 | 8 | -10 | 1 | -10 | 1 | -18 | 2 |
| BHVO-1 | 15 | 10 | 15 | 8 | -5 | 1 | -4 | 2 | -28 | 2 |
| BHVO-1 | 4 | 10 | 10 | 8 | -2 | 1 | -3 | 2 | -34 | 2 |
| BHVO-1 | -14 | 4 | 2 | 4 | -2 | 1 | -6 | 1 | -29 | 1 |
| BHVO-1 | -11 | 11 | -10 | 8 | -1 | 1 | -3 | 2 | -43 | 2 |
| BHVO-1 | 117 | 16 | 21 | 12 | -4 | 2 | -8 | 2 | 7 | 3 |
| BHVO-1 | 6 | 11 | 51 | 10 | -4 | 1 | -3 | 2 | 4 | 2 |
| BHVO-1 | -18 | 11 | -19 | 9 | 1 | 1 | 10 | 2 | 22 | 2 |
| Moyenne BHVO-1 | -2 | 95 | 10 | 40 | -4 | 7 | -1 | 23 | -2 | 96 |

Tableau 11 : Compositions isotopiques en baryum des échantillons terrestres exprimées en déviation en ppm par rapport au standard Alfa Æsar

a. Les rapports ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba et ¹³⁸Ba/¹³⁶Ba sont reportés en multidynamique.

b. Le rapport ¹³⁷Ba/¹³⁶Ba est reporté en mode multistatique (moyenne des valeurs statiques des trois lignes de la configuration multidynamique).

2.4 Conclusion

Nous avons développé une méthode pour la séparation et la mesure à haute précision du baryum et du strontium, y compris de leurs isotopes de faible abondance. La précision sur les mesures est similaire aux meilleures reproductibilités externes publiées dans la littérature (Sr : Moynier et al., 2012 ; Paton et al., 2013 ; Hans et al., 2011, 2013 ; Yokoyama et al., 2015 – Ba : Carlson et al, 2007 ; Bermingham et al., 2014, 2016). Les résultats obtenus sur les standards isotopiques et les standards géologiques donnent une meilleure précision pour le mode multidynamique.

Cette méthode est destinée à être appliquée à des échantillons de météorites (angrites, chondrites ordinaires et carbonées, SNC), ainsi qu'à des échantillons lunaires.

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Annexe A : A new method for TIMS high precision analysis of Ba and Sr isotopes for cosmochemical studies¹

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Abstract

We present a new method for high precision measurement of both strontium and barium isotopes. Our method is primarily designed for extraterrestrial samples but is actually suitable for any sample, particularly for low level samples with complex matrices. The main separation of strontium, barium and matrix elements is done with EichromTM Sr resin, which provides a quick and easy way to separate all three fractions with little further purification needed. All isotope data was acquired on a Thermal Ionization Mass Spectrometer (TIMS) Thermo Triton[™] plus. Isotopic ratios were calculated using a multidynamic acquisition scheme when possible. The decay of the amplifiers associated with Faraday cups was carefully tuned to ensure no effect in the multidynamic acquisition mode. This technique improves the uncertainty on ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr, ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba by a factor of two compared with previous data obtained in static collection mode. The uncertainties reached with our new method were 2 ppm and 19 ppm (2 S.D.) for the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios, respectively and 4 ppm (2 S.D.) for the ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba ratios. The low-abundance ¹³²Ba isotope was measured with the use of a Faraday cup equipped with a $10^{12} \Omega$ resistor to improve the precision on the ${}^{132}Ba/{}^{136}Ba$ ratio. We assessed the robustness of our method by measuring several terrestrial rock standards. The use of the multidynamic calculation shows that the small, but resolvable difference of 20 - 30 ppm previously observed on ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio between Earth and isotopic standard NIST 987, which rules out the hypothesis of a ⁸⁴Sr contamination or a fractionation of NIST 987 (Movnier et al., 2012; Paton et al., 2013) and is in agreement with the results of Hans et al. (2013).

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A.1 Introduction

Strontium and barium are both refractory lithophile alkaline earth elements. Their concentrations range from a few ppm in chondrites to a few hundred ppm in magmatic rocks. Strontium has four stable isotopes, ⁸⁴Sr, ⁸⁶Sr, ⁸⁷Sr and ⁸⁸Sr with terrestrial abundances of 0.56%, 9.86%, 7.00% and 82.58% respectively. Barium has seven stable isotopes ¹³⁰Ba, ¹³²Ba, ¹³⁴Ba, ¹³⁵Ba, ¹³⁶Ba, ¹³⁷Ba, and ¹³⁸Ba with abundance of 0.106%, 0.101%, 2.417%, 6.52%, 7.854%, 11.232%, and 71.698% respectively. Both elements are of great interest for geo- and cosmochemical applications.

The ⁸⁷Rb – ⁸⁷Sr ($\lambda = 1.397 \text{ x } 10^{-11} \text{ a}^{-1}$, Rotenberg et al., 2012) system has long been used for dating terrestrial and extra-terrestrial samples. Recent improvements in mass spectrometry have allowed the study of Sr and Ba stable isotopes to trace geochemical processes, including the major isotopes of strontium and barium (Eugster et al., 1969; Charlier et al., 2012; Moynier et al., 2012; Von Allmen et al., 2010; Nan et al., 2015). Recently, nucleosynthetic anomalies in meteorites have been identified for an increasing number of elements, including Sr (Hans et al., 2013; Moynier et al., 2012; Paton et al., 2013; Yokoyama et al. 2015) and Ba (Carlson et al., 2007; Andreasen and Sharma, 2007; Ranen and Jacobsen 2006; Hidaka et al., 2003, 2011; Bermingham et al., 2014, 2016). In addition to nucleosynthetic anomalies, variations in ¹³⁵Ba abundances could be due to the decay of the short-lived radioisotope ¹³⁵Cs (t_{1/2}= 1.6 Ma) but since the abundance of ¹³⁵Cs is probably low, the induced anomalies are small compared with analytical uncertainties (e.g. Bermingham et al., 2014). The contribution of ¹³⁵Cs on the ¹³⁵Ba anomaly is difficult to estimate as it directly depends on ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs initial ratio, which, to date, has been estimated from ~10⁻⁶ up to 10^{-3} (Hidaka et al., 2011; Srinivisan et al., 2011).

Recent improvements in mass spectrometry have also led to the identification of anomalies in the low-abundance p-process isotopes of strontium and barium (Moynier et al., 2012; Paton et al., 2013, 2015; Hans et al., 2013; Bermingham et al., 2016; Carlson et al., 2007; Qin et al., 2010; Brennecka et al., 2011; Charlier et al., 2015; Yokoyama et al., 2015). Since various nucleosynthetic processes produce Sr isotopes (i.e. p-, s- and r-process), apparent anomalies found on ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr could be due either to a real variation in p-process abundance or to an anomaly affecting the normalization ratio ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr (r- or s-process). This issue does not apply to Ba isotopes since the ¹³⁴Ba/¹³⁶Ba ratio can be used for normalization, since both are s-only isotopes, it is likely that their relative abundances do not vary. Due to their very low abundances (¹³⁰Ba~0.106%, ¹³²Ba~0.101%), the two p-process Ba isotopes are the most difficult to measure with high precision.

Most studies of strontium and barium isotopes have focused on one of those two elements. Chemical separation protocols already exist for these elements, but only a few methods have been developed for purification of both elements from the same aliquote (Andreasen and Sharma, 2007; Chabaux et al., 1994; Qin et al., 2011; Pin et al., 2003; Carlson et al., 2007). Among those studies, only Andreasen and Sharma (2007) and Pin et al. (2003) used the potential of Sr resin to efficiently separate strontium and barium from their matrix.

Here, we present a new Ba and Sr purification method combined with high-precision analysis of isotope composition of both elements by Thermal ionization Mass Spectrometry (TIMS), including the measurement of the low-abundance p-process ¹³²Ba. Our protocol can be applied to a large variety of matrices, including most types of meteorites, lunar samples and terrestrial rocks and represents a significant improvement in analytical uncertainties.

A.2 Methods

A.2.1 Materials and reagents

Reagent grade nitric, hydrochloric and hydrofluoric acids were purified by sub-boiling distillation in Teflon labware. Ultrapure water with a resistivity of 18.2 M Ω was produced by a Milli-Q system (Millipore). Solutions used for elemental analysis calibration were prepared from mono-elemental solutions obtained from Alfa Æsar.

The anion resin (AG1-X8, 100-200 mesh) and the cation resin (AG50W-X8, 100-200 mesh) from Biorad were pre-cleaned by ten rinses alternating 6 M HCl and milli-Q water, were then rinsed and stored in water (pH \sim 5).

Eichrom Sr-specTM resin was purchased from the TrisKem company. This resin is made of a crown-ether dissolved in octanol and adsorbed on an inert chromatographic support made of 50 to 100 μ m size polystyrene beads. Sr resin cleaning was done only a few days prior to the column utilization with several rinses in milli-Q water and in 0.5 M HNO₃. Eichrom Pre-filter material was pre-cleaned by the same protocol as the Sr resin.

A.2.2 Sample preparation

Each separation step was calibrated using a basalt standard (BHVO-1) to take into account the influence of matrix elements and particularly of iron. Two other standard rocks were used to assess the validity of our chemical protocol for isotopic measurement of strontium and barium, an andesite (AGV-1), and a granite (G-2). All rocks were supplied as powders. Depending on their Sr and Ba concentrations, 50 to 200 mg of rock powder were weighed, and then digested
in Savillex beakers at 150°C on a hotplate using a 1:1 mixture of concentrated HNO₃ and HF. The samples were then dried down, and repeatedly refluxed in concentrated HCl until all fluorides were removed. The samples were dissolved in aqua regia to oxidize all iron to ferric iron and ensure its complete retention on the anionic resin (Nelson et al., 1964). The dried samples were then dissolved in 6 M HCl prior to the chemical separation protocol.

A.2.3 Barium and strontium separation

Samples were first loaded onto Biorad polypropylene columns filled with 2 ml of AG1-X8 100-200 mesh size resin (Cl⁻ form). For samples with more than 20 wt% FeO, we increased the column volume to 10 ml. Strontium, barium together with alkali, alkaline earths, and other elements, were not fixed by anion resins and were thus directly eluted with 8 column volumes of 6N HCl while iron, and elements such as Mo, Zn, Sn, Sb, Te, U, were retained on the column. Strontium and barium were then separated on a column filled with Sr resin (EichromTM). These columns were made with an LDPE pasteur pipette with an inner diameter of approximately 3.5 mm. Pipettes were cut on both sides to be filled by a Sr resin bed of 0.5 ml topped with 0.1 ml of anionic resin AG1-X8 (100-200 mesh), thus preventing the the ionexchange medium from being stirred up upon loading of the column due to the low relative density of the Sr resin. Alkalis and remaining matrix elements were washed with 5 column volumes of 3 M HNO₃, and then Ba was eluted in 13 column volume of 7.5 M HNO₃ and Sr in 20 column volumes 0.05 M HNO₃ (Figure 1). Strontium fractions were then passed through a column filled with pre-filter resin to remove organics released by the Sr resin. At this stage, the barium fraction still contained too much of the matrix elements for TIMS analysis (Ba/Ca ~ 0.2 , $Ba/Mg \sim 0.1$, $Ba/K \sim 1$). The Ba fraction were further purified using a column filled with 1 ml of AG50W-X8, 100-200 mesh size. First, the column was washed with 5 ml of 1 M HCl and 8 ml of 2.5 M HCl to remove any remaining elements and organics, and then Ba was eluted using 10 ml of 6 M HCl (figure 2). Samples were treated in aqua regia between each column and before loading on TIMS filaments to remove any organics derived from the chemical separation procedure. The whole separation protocol is summarized in Table 1.

| | Eluent | Volume | | | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------|---|-------------|--|--|--|
| Step 1: Separation of iron | | | | | | |
| AG1X8 100-200 mesh size | | 10 ml | 2 ml | | | |
| | H ₂ O MQ | 50 ml | 10 ml | | | |
| | HCl 6N | 50 ml | 10 ml | | | |
| Cleaning | H ₂ O MQ | 50 ml | 10 ml | | | |
| | HNO ₃ 0.05N | 50 ml | 10 ml | | | |
| | H ₂ O MQ | 50 ml | 10 ml | | | |
| Conditionning | HCl 6N | 50 ml | 5 ml | | | |
| Loading | HCl 6N | 5 ml | 2 ml | | | |
| Elution Sr, Ba | HCl 6N | 6 x 5 ml 6 x 1 ml 3 x 10 ml 10 x 2 m | | | | |
| Step 2 : Separation of stron | tium and barium and matri | x removal | | | | |
| Eichrom Sr resin | | 0.5 | ml | | | |
| | H ₂ O MQ | 5 n | nl | | | |
| | HCl 1N | 5 n | nl | | | |
| Cleaning | H ₂ O MQ | 5 n | nl | | | |
| | HNO ₃ 0.5N | 5 n | nl | | | |
| Conditionning | HNO ₃ 3N | 2 ml | | | | |
| Loading | HNO ₃ 3N | 2 x 0. | 5 ml | | | |
| Matrix elution | HNO ₃ 3N | 5 x 0,5 ml | | | | |
| Elution Ba | HNO ₃ 7.5N | 13 x 0 | .5 ml | | | |
| Elution Sr | HNO ₃ 0.05N | 10 x 0 5 x 1 | .5 ml ml | | | |
| Step 3: Sr fractions only: re | moval of organic matter | | | | | |
| Eichrom Pre-Filter material | | 1 n | nl | | | |
| | H ₂ O MQ | 10 1 | ml | | | |
| Cleaning | HNO ₃ 0.5N | 10 1 | ml | | | |
| Conditionning | HNO ₃ 0.5N | 2 n | nl | | | |
| Loading | HNO ₃ 0.5N | 1 n | nl | | | |
| Elution Sr | HNO ₃ 0.5N | 5 x 1 | ml | | | |
| Step 3: Ba fraction only: re | moval of remaining matrix | traces | | | | |
| AG50W X8 100-200 mesh | size | 1 n | nl | | | |
| | H ₂ O MQ | 10 1 | ml | | | |
| Cleaning | HCl 6N | 20 1 | ml | | | |
| | H ₂ O MQ | 10 1 | ml | | | |
| Conditionning | HCl 1N | 10 1 | ml | | | |
| Loading | HCl ~1N | 1 n | nl | | | |
| Elution K, Mg, Cr | HCl 1N | 5 x 1 | ml | | | |
| Elution Ca, (Sr) | HCl 2.5N | 8 x 1 | ml | | | |
| Elution Ba | HCl 6N | $14 \times 1 \text{ ml}$ | | | | |

Table 1. Protocol for Sr and Ba separation and purification.



Figure 1. Elution curves for the Sr resin column (2 ml). Element concentrations are measured on HR-ICP-MS Thermo Element II. Each aliquot correspond to one column volume of acid eluted. Vertical lines represent acid changes. Adding up all aliquots and dividing the sum by the content in a single aliquot determines percents eluted. Yields were verified by measuring the elemental composition of the sample before and after chemistry. All elements have at least 95% yield.



Figure 2. Elution curves for the cationic resin AG50W-X8 column for final purification step of barium fractions (1 ml). Element concentrations are measured on HR-ICP-MS Thermo Element II. Each aliquot corresponds to one column volume of acid eluted. Vertical lines represent acid changes. Percent eluted are determined by adding up all aliquots and dividing the sum by the content in a single aliquot. Yields are verified by measuring the elemental composition of the sample before and after chemistry. All elements have at least 95% yield.

A.2.4 Mass spectrometry

Strontium and barium isotope compositions were determined on a Thermo-Fisher Scientific Triton plus TIMS. At least 500 ng of the element was required for each run, this amount was doubled whenever possible, especially for the measurement of the low abundance isotopes. The configurations of the Faraday collectors used for both strontium and barium methods are summarized in Table 2.

| | | | | Cu | ps | | | | Zoor | m optics |
|--|-------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------|------------|
| | L3 | L2 | L1 | Ax | H1 | H2 | H3 | | Focus | Dispersion |
| ⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr mu | ltidynami | С | | | | | | | | |
| Line 1 | | | ⁸⁴ Sr | ⁸⁵ Rb | ⁸⁶ Sr | ⁸⁷ Sr | ⁸⁸ Sr | | 0 V | 3.5 V |
| Line 2 | | ⁸⁴ Sr | ⁸⁵ Rb | ⁸⁶ Sr | ⁸⁷ Sr | ⁸⁸ Sr | | | 0 V | - 0.5 V |
| Line 3 | ⁸⁴ Sr | ⁸⁵ Rb | ⁸⁶ Sr | ⁸⁷ Sr | ⁸⁸ Sr | | | | 0 V | - 7.5 V |
| ⁸⁴ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr mu | ltidynami | с | | | | | | | | |
| Line 1 | | | ⁸⁴ Sr | ⁸⁵ Rb | ⁸⁶ Sr | ⁸⁷ Sr | ⁸⁸ Sr | | 0 V | 3.5 V |
| Line 2 | ⁸⁴ Sr | ⁸⁵ Rb | ⁸⁶ Sr | ⁸⁷ Sr | ⁸⁸ Sr | | | | 0 V | - 7.5 V |
| ^{135, 138} Ba/ ¹³⁶ | Ba multid | ynamic | | | | | | | | |
| Line 1 | | | ¹³⁴ Ba | ¹³⁵ Ba | ¹³⁶ Ba | ¹³⁷ Ba | ¹³⁸ Ba | | 0 V | 5 V |
| Line 2 | | ¹³⁴ Ba | ¹³⁵ Ba | ¹³⁶ Ba | ¹³⁷ Ba | ¹³⁸ Ba | ¹³⁹ La | | 0 V | 0 V |
| Line 3 | ¹³⁴ Ba | ¹³⁵ Ba | ¹³⁶ Ba | ¹³⁷ Ba | ¹³⁸ Ba | | ¹⁴⁰ Ce | | 0 V | -3.5 V |
| ^{130, 132} Ba/ ¹³⁶ | Ba static | | | | | | | | | |
| Line 1 | ¹³⁰ Ba | ¹³² Ba ^a | ¹³³ Cs | ¹³⁴ Ba | ¹³⁵ Ba | ¹³⁶ Ba | ¹³⁷ Ba | ¹³⁸ Ba | | |

Table 2. Configuration of the collectors for the various acquisition modes used in this study.

All lines are measured with an 8 s integration time separated by 5 s idle time. Amplifier rotation was used except for the ${}^{130, 132}$ Ba/ 136 Ba static mode because of the use of a 10^{12} ohm resistor on one of the collector. Zoom optics allows the perfect alignment of the peaks between each line of a multidynamic configuration without moving collectors.

a. $^{\rm 132}{\rm Ba}$ is measured on a Faraday cup equipped with a $10^{12}\,\rm ohm$ resistor.

Strontium fractions were loaded onto single outgassed Re filaments using 1µl of 3 M HNO₃ and 1µl of TaCl₅-H₃PO₄-HF activator. Samples were split into two aliquots to analyze separately ⁸⁴Sr and ⁸⁷Sr. Both ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios were obtained using a multidynamic acquisition mode. When the Sr quantity was insufficient for two measurements, the ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr values were determined using a ⁸⁷Sr-specific configuration for multidynamic measurements (see Table 2). Intensities of 12×10^{-11} A (⁸⁷Sr configuration) and 20×10^{-11} A (⁸⁴Sr configuration) on ⁸⁸Sr were obtained for more than 8 hours. Each run consisted of approximately 800 cycles with an integration time of 8 s. Data were normalized to ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr = 0.1194.

Barium fractions were first taken up in 1µl of 7.5 M HNO₃ and loaded on zone refined outgassed Re filaments. Two modes of loading were tested: single and double filaments. We first tried to run barium analysis with a single filament configuration using the same activator as strontium. Unfortunately, the activator contained HF that was added to keep the tantalum in a dissolved form. In contrast with strontium emission, a strong BaF⁺ ion beam of the same intensity as Ba⁺ was observed, which meant that the overall efficiency of Ba ionization was reduced. Another activator that did not use HF was prepared but in this case, the tantalum systematically precipitated after a few days. As a consequence, all the runs reported in this study were done using a double filament configuration. The samples were loaded with 1µl of 7.5 M HNO₃, without using any activator on outgassed Re filaments. Data were normalized to 134 Ba/¹³⁶Ba = 0.307776 using the exponential law.

Ba samples were separated in two aliquots as two collector configurations were used for data acquisition: 1) a multidynamic configuration with three lines for isotope measurements from ¹³⁴Ba to ¹³⁸Ba and 2) a static configuration for isotopes from ¹³⁰Ba to ¹³⁷Ba. Although it is possible to monitor all Ba isotopes at the same time, such a configuration could only produce static measurements. However, using a multidynamic mode offers the possibility of cancelling out the relative gain factors regardless of cup degradation over time. With this approach it is possible to obtain approximately 5 ppm level uncertainty over long acquisition periods (e.g. Roth, 2013), provided the rate of mass fractionation is carefully monitored (Roth et al., 2014). For these reasons, we chose to analyze ¹³⁵Ba in multidynamic mode, as this isotope was a target for ¹³⁵Cs-¹³⁵Ba chronometry. The low abundance Ba isotopes (¹³⁰Ba and ¹³²Ba) were analyzed in a separate static run using configuration 2 (Table 2). In this particular case, owing to the low abundance of these isotopes, the counting statistics becomes the main source of error and the static acquisition has the advantage of requiring shorter acquisition times and of being totally independent of temporal drift compared with a multidynamic mode. Moreover, ¹³²Ba was monitored on an amplifier equipped with a $10^{12} \Omega$ resistor, which makes impossible the simultaneous use of a multidynamic configuration. The $10^{12} \Omega$ resistor increased the signal level by a factor of ten and thus improved the signal-to-noise ratio by a factor of two (Wieser and Schwieters, 2005).

A.3 Results

A.3.1 Blanks and yields of the chemical separation

Blanks and yields were measured on a Thermo Fisher Element II. The whole procedure yielded strontium blanks less than 30 ± 5 pg and barium blanks of 340 ± 70 pg depending on the purity of the acid batch used. Therefore, for both Sr and Ba, the procedure blanks represented 6×10^{-5} (Sr) at most 1 permil (Ba) of the amount analyzed, which is in both cases negligible.

Our protocol ensures strontium and barium yields higher than 90 % for various matrices. As this procedure is mainly designed for extra-terrestrial samples, barium and strontium yields should be as high as possible to limit the amount of sample needed for each analysis. Ion-exchange techniques are known to fractionate isotopes (e.g.: Ca: Nemoto et al., 2012; Cu: Maréchal et al., 1999). The external normalization used for correcting the internal instrumental mass-dependent fractionation during TIMS measurement should eliminate any mass-dependent fractionation.

A.3.2 Strontium isotope data

⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios were calculated from the three lines of the multidynamic configuration:

$$\frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{corr}^{MD} = \left(\left[\left(\frac{g_{H2}}{g_{H1}}\right)^{\frac{1+\beta_{87}}{1-\beta_{87}}} \left(\frac{{}^{86}Sr}{{}^{85}Sr}\Big|_{true}}{{}^{87}Sr}\right)^{\beta_{87}} * \frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{line\,1} \right]^{\frac{2}{1-\beta_{87}}} + \left[\left(\frac{g_{H1}}{g_{Ax}}\right)^{\frac{1+\beta_{87}}{1-\beta_{87}}} \left(\frac{{}^{86}Sr}{{}^{85}Sr}\Big|_{true}}{{}^{87}Sr}\right)^{\beta_{87}} * \frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{line\,2} \right]^{\frac{2}{1-\beta_{87}}} \right)^{2} (1)$$
with $\beta_{87} = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{M_{87}}{M_{86}}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{M_{87}}{M_{88}}\right)}$

The terms g represents the cup efficiencies of the Faraday cups. The use of the same cups on different lines strongly reduces the effect of cup efficiencies as the ratio of cup efficiencies is very close to 1 due to the small value of the exponent $(1 + \beta_{87})/(1 - \beta_{87})$. For example, considering a difference of 10 ppm in the cup efficiencies, its effect will correspond to less than 0.1 ppm on the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios by the multidynamic calculation. The cup efficiencies terms in the equation are thus negligible compared to total uncertainties on the measured ratios.

In the case of ${}^{84}\text{Sr}/{}^{86}\text{Sr}$, the ratios were calculated from two lines of the multidynamic configuration

$$\frac{{}^{84}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{corr}^{MD} = \left(\frac{g_{L1}}{g_{H1}}\right)^{1+\beta_{84}} \times \frac{{}^{84}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{line\ 1} \times \left(\frac{{}^{86}Sr}{{}^{88}Sr}\Big|_{true}}{{}^{88}Sr}\Big|_{line\ 2}\right)^{\beta_{84}} (2)$$

with $\beta_{84} = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{M_{84}}{M_{86}}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{M_{88}}{M_{86}}\right)}$

Table 3: ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr data for NIST 987 isotopic standard and terrestrial rock standards.

| | ⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr | ± 2 s.e. | ⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr | ± 2 s.e. | ⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr | ± 2 s.e. | ⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr | ± 2 s.e. | ⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr | ± 2 s.e. |
|---|------------------------------------|----------|------------------------------------|----------|------------------------------------|----------|------------------------------------|----------|------------------------------------|----------|
| NHCT 007 | multidyn. | 0.000001 | multistat. | 0.000001 | Line I | 0.00000 | Line 2 | 0.00000 | Line 3 | 0.00000 |
| NIST 987 | 0.710249 | 0.000001 | 0.710246 | 0.000001 | 0.710254 | 0.000002 | 0.710229 | 0.000002 | 0./10253 | 0.000002 |
| NIST 987 | 0.710249 | 0.000001 | 0.710246 | 0.000001 | 0.710256 | 0.000002 | 0.710228 | 0.000002 | 0.710253 | 0.000002 |
| NIST 987 | 0.710250 | 0.000001 | 0.710249 | 0.000001 | 0.710252 | 0.000002 | 0.710230 | 0.000002 | 0.710264 | 0.000002 |
| NIST 987 | 0.710248 | 0.000001 | 0.710249 | 0.000001 | 0.710260 | 0.000002 | 0.710217 | 0.000002 | 0.710268 | 0.000002 |
| NIST 987 | 0.710248 | 0.000001 | 0.710249 | 0.000001 | 0.710260 | 0.000002 | 0.710223 | 0.000002 | 0.710262 | 0.000002 |
| NIST 987 | 0.710250 | 0.000001 | 0.710250 | 0.000001 | 0.710265 | 0.000002 | 0.710220 | 0.000002 | 0.710265 | 0.000002 |
| NIST 987 | 0.710248 | 0.000001 | 0.710251 | 0.000001 | 0.710269 | 0.000002 | 0.710213 | 0.000002 | 0.710269 | 0.000002 |
| NIST 987 | 0.710248 | 0.000001 | 0.710249 | 0.000001 | 0.710263 | 0.000002 | 0.710220 | 0.000002 | 0.710265 | 0.000002 |
| NIST 987 | 0.710249 | 0.000001 | 0.710251 | 0.000001 | 0.710263 | 0.000002 | 0.710216 | 0.000002 | 0.710272 | 0.000002 |
| NIST 987 | 0.710249 | 0.000001 | 0.710249 | 0.000001 | 0.710260 | 0.000002 | 0.710222 | 0.000002 | 0.710266 | 0.000002 |
| NIST 987 | 0.710249 | 0.000001 | 0.710250 | 0.000001 | 0.710262 | 0.000002 | 0.710215 | 0.000002 | 0.710274 | 0.000002 |
| NIST 987 | 0.710250 | 0.000001 | 0.710251 | 0.000001 | 0.710261 | 0.000002 | 0.710214 | 0.000001 | 0.710277 | 0.000001 |
| NIST 987 | 0.710248 | 0.000001 | 0.710247 | 0.000001 | 0.710256 | 0.000002 | 0.710225 | 0.000002 | 0.710261 | 0.000002 |
| NIST 987 | 0.710249 | 0.000001 | 0.710249 | 0.000001 | 0.710257 | 0.000002 | 0.710229 | 0.000002 | 0.710260 | 0.000002 |
| NIST 987 | 0.710248 | 0.000001 | 0.710242 | 0.000001 | 0.710261 | 0.000002 | 0.710232 | 0.000002 | 0.710254 | 0.000002 |
| Mean $(\pm 2 \sigma)$ | 0.710249 | 0.000002 | 0.710249 | 0.000002 | 0.710260 | 0.000009 | 0.710222 | 0.000012 | 0.710264 | 0.000015 |
| 2 σ (ppm) | | 2 | | 7 | | 12 | | 18 | | 21 |
| AGV-1 | | | 0.703987 | 0.000001 | 0.703981 | 0.000002 | | | 0.703993 | 0.000001 |
| AGV-1 | | | 0.703992 | 0.000001 | 0.703985 | 0.000002 | | | 0.704001 | 0.000002 |
| AGV-1 | | | 0.703988 | 0.000001 | 0.703981 | 0.000002 | | | 0.703997 | 0.000002 |
| AGV-1 | 0.703983 | 0.000002 | 0.703979 | 0.000002 | 0.703989 | 0.000003 | 0.703968 | 0.000003 | 0.703978 | 0.000003 |
| AGV-1 | 0.703986 | 0.000004 | 0.703987 | 0.000003 | 0.703995 | 0.000006 | 0.703957 | 0.000006 | 0.704008 | 0.000006 |
| Mean AGV-1 ($\pm 2 \sigma$) | 0.703984 | 0.000004 | 0.703986 | 0.000009 | 0.703986 | 0.000012 | 0.703963 | 0.000015 | 0.703995 | 0.000022 |
| $\mathbf{\epsilon}^{87}$ Sr (± 2 σ) | -88.2 | 0.05 | -88.2 | 0,13 | -88.2 | 0.17 | -88.2 | 0.22 | -88.2 | 0.31 |
| BHVO-1 | | | 0.703481 | 0.000001 | 0.703469 | 0.000001 | | | 0.703495 | 0.000001 |
| BHVO-1 | | | 0.703482 | 0.000002 | 0.703475 | 0.000002 | | | 0.703494 | 0.000002 |
| BHVO-1 | 0.703477 | 0.000003 | 0.703472 | 0.000002 | 0.703482 | 0.000004 | 0.703460 | 0.000004 | 0.703475 | 0.000004 |
| BHVO-1 | 0.703475 | 0.000002 | 0.703475 | 0.000002 | 0.703483 | 0.000004 | 0.703455 | 0.000004 | 0.703482 | 0.000004 |
| BHVO-1 | 0.703474 | 0.000002 | 0.703471 | 0.000002 | 0.703481 | 0.000004 | 0.703454 | 0.000003 | 0.703478 | 0.000004 |
| BHVO-1 | 0 703473 | 0.000002 | 0 703472 | 0.000002 | 0 703482 | 0.000003 | 0 703458 | 0.000004 | 0 703474 | 0.000003 |
| BHVO-1 | | | 0 703472 | 0.000002 | 0 703469 | 0.000003 | | | 0 703473 | 0.000003 |
| Mean BHVO-1 $(\pm 2 \sigma)$ | 0 703475 | 0.000003 | 0 703475 | 0.000009 | 0 703477 | 0.000013 | 0 703457 | 0.000006 | 0 703482 | 0.000018 |
| \mathbf{F}^{87} Sr (+ 2 σ) | -95.4 | 0.000005 | -95.4 | 0.000003 | -95.4 | 0.000015 | -95 3 | 0.000000 | -95.4 | 0.000010 |
| G-2 | 22.1 | 0.05 | 0 709769 | 0.000001 | 0 709756 | 0.000002 | 75.5 | 0.00 | 0 709783 | 0.000002 |
| G-2 | | | 0.709772 | 0.000001 | 0.709761 | 0.000002 | | | 0.709783 | 0.000002 |
| G-2 | | | 0.709771 | 0.000002 | 0.709758 | 0.000000 | | | 0.709786 | 0.000000 |
| G-2 | 0 700750 | 0.000002 | 0.709756 | 0.000001 | 0.709756 | 0.000002 | 0 700741 | 0.000003 | 0.709760 | 0.000002 |
| G 2 | 0.700762 | 0.000002 | 0.709750 | 0.000002 | 0.709700 | 0.000003 | 0.700747 | 0.000003 | 0.709702 | 0.000003 |
| G-2 | 0.709702 | 0.000002 | 0.709739 | 0.000001 | 0.709700 | 0.000003 | 0./09/4/ | 0.000002 | 0.709700 | 0.000002 |
| U-2 | 0.700760 | 0.000005 | 0.709703 | 0.000002 | 0.709730 | 0.000003 | 0 700744 | 0.000009 | 0.709770 | 0.000003 |
| Mean G-2 $(\pm 2 \sigma)$ | 0./09/60 | 0.000005 | 0./09/65 | 0.000014 | 0./09/61 | 0.000009 | 0./09/44 | 0.000008 | 0./09//5 | 0.000020 |
| $\mathbf{\varepsilon}$ Sr (± 2 σ) | -6.9 | 0.06 | -6.8 | 0.19 | -6.9 | 0.13 | -6.8 | 0.12 | -6.8 | 0.29 |

Ratios for lines 1, 2, and 3 are ratios calculated for each line of the multidynamic configuration as if they were independent lines for a static acquisition. Data are corrected using the exponential law and 86 Sr/ 88 Sr = 0.1194 as normalization ratio. The uncertainty of each individual measurement is the internal 2 s.e. of the run. Precision on average values is the 2 s.d. of the mean.



Figure 3. Repeated multidynamic measurements of the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio on NIST 987 isotopic standard. Grey area represents the external reproducibility (2 s.d.) centered on the mean.

Considering once again a difference of 10 ppm in the cup efficiencies, the multidynamic equation reduces this effect to 0.2 ppm, which is negligible compared with other sources of uncertainties.

Tables 3 and 4 report ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios of the NIST 987 isotopic standard and terrestrial rock standards. Data are normalized using ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr = 0.1194 and the exponential law. Repeated analyses of the NB987 standard in multidynamic mode yielded ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr = 0.710249 \pm 0.000002 and ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr = 0.0564924 \pm 0.0000011 (see Figure 3). The external reproducibility (2 S.D.) of 3 ppm on ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and 20 ppm on ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr is similar to recent studies (see Table 5 for a comparison of uncertainties with recent literature). In addition, the value of ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr is identical within error with the multidynamic value of ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr = 0.710250 \pm 0.000003 reported in Hans et al. (2013).

We also measured three terrestrial rock standards with various compositions. Multidynamic 87 Sr/ 86 Sr measurements have an external reproducibility of 5 – 6 ppm corresponding to a temporal resolution of approximately 5 × 10⁵ years for 87 Rb – 87 Sr chronometry. The uncertainty on 84 Sr/ 86 Sr ratios obtained with NIST 987 and rock standards is 30 ppm (2 S.D.).

| Table 4a: ⁸⁴ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr d | ata for NIST 987 | isotopic standard |
|--|------------------|-------------------|
|--|------------------|-------------------|

| | 84Sr/86Sr multidyn. | 2 s.e. | 84Sr/86Sr multistat. | 2 s.e. | 84Sr/86Sr line 1 | 2 s.e. | 84Sr/86Sr line 2 | 2 s.e. |
|------------------|------------------------|-----------|-------------------------|-----------|---------------------|-----------|---------------------|-----------|
| NIST 987 | 0.0564916 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564931 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564954 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564909 | 0.0000007 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564930 | 0.0000008 | 0.0564943 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564973 | 0.0000008 | 0.0564912 | 0.0000008 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564925 | 0.0000008 | 0.0564925 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564961 | 0.0000009 | 0.0564889 | 0.0000008 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564926 | 0.0000011 | 0.0564938 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564964 | 0.0000011 | 0.0564906 | 0.0000010 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564919 | 0.0000008 | 0.0564928 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564964 | 0.0000008 | 0.0564894 | 0.0000008 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564919 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564926 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564969 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564883 | 0.0000007 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564925 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564946 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564985 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564911 | 0.0000006 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564912 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564940 | 0.0000004 | 0.0564963 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564914 | 0.0000006 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564921 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564940 | 0.0000004 | 0.0564959 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564924 | 0.0000006 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564927 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564940 | 0.0000004 | 0.0564960 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564925 | 0.0000005 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564919 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564935 | 0.0000003 | 0.0564948 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564921 | 0.0000004 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564927 | 0.0000008 | 0.0564942 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564952 | 0.0000008 | 0.0564932 | 0.0000007 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564927 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564940 | 0.0000003 | 0.0564958 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564925 | 0.0000004 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564927 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564941 | 0.0000004 | 0.0564956 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564926 | 0.0000005 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564928 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564947 | 0.0000003 | 0.0564960 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564931 | 0.0000004 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564918 | 0.0000008 | 0.0564941 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564951 | 0.0000008 | 0.0564936 | 0.0000007 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564917 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564933 | 0.0000004 | 0.0564966 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564889 | 0.0000006 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564930 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564955 | 0.0000004 | 0.0564974 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564931 | 0.0000006 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564922 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564920 | 0.0000004 | 0.0564964 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564886 | 0.0000007 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564929 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564936 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564967 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564905 | 0.0000006 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564924 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564949 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564965 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564929 | 0.0000006 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564918 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564944 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564954 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564927 | 0.0000007 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564929 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564945 | 0.0000004 | 0.0564970 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564920 | 0.0000006 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564923 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564949 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564961 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564944 | 0.0000006 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564924 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564943 | 0.0000004 | 0.0564974 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564911 | 0.0000005 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564919 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564944 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564969 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564914 | 0.0000006 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564934 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564951 | 0.0000004 | 0.0564979 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564924 | 0.0000006 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564918 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564948 | 0.0000004 | 0.0564967 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564928 | 0.0000005 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564918 | 0.0000008 | 0.0564950 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564966 | 0.0000009 | 0.0564939 | 0.0000009 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564919 | 0.0000008 | 0.0564944 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564959 | 0.0000008 | 0.0564928 | 0.0000007 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564928 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564945 | 0.0000004 | 0.0564970 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564925 | 0.0000005 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564916 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564948 | 0.0000004 | 0.0564962 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564932 | 0.0000005 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564927 | 0.0000008 | 0.0564960 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564972 | 0.0000008 | 0.0564948 | 0.0000007 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564935 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564963 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564974 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564943 | 0.0000006 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564923 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564943 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564954 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564933 | 0.0000007 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564919 | 0.0000009 | 0.0564958 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564961 | 0.0000009 | 0.0564946 | 0.0000008 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564918 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564956 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564955 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564959 | 0.0000006 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564914 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564949 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564952 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564943 | 0.0000007 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564924 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564953 | 0.0000004 | 0.0564967 | 0.0000006 | 0.0564938 | 0.0000005 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564927 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564962 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564971 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564952 | 0.0000007 |
| NIST 987 | 0.0564925 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564961 | 0.0000005 | 0.0564972 | 0.0000007 | 0.0564947 | 0.0000007 |
| Mean $(\pm 2 s)$ | 0.0564923 | 0.0000011 | 0.0564944 | 0.0000020 | 0.0564964 | 0.0000017 | 0.0564924 | 0.0000037 |
| 2 s (ppm) | | 19 | | 36 | | 29 | | 66 |

Ratios for lines 1, and 2 are ratios calculated for each line of the multidynamic configuration as if they were independent lines for a static acquisition. Data are corrected using the exponential law and 86 Sr/ 88 Sr = 0.1194 as normalization ratio. The uncertainty of each individual measure is the internal 2 s.e. of the run. Precision on average values is the 2 s.d. of the mean.

| | ⁸⁴ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr | | 84Sr/86Sr | | 84Sr/86Sr | | 84Sr/86Sr | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|--------|------------|--------|-----------|--------|-----------|--------|
| | multidyn. | 2 s.e. | multistat. | 2 s.e. | line 1 | 2 s.e. | line 2 | 2 s.e. |
| Standard | | 19 | | 36 | | 29 | | 66 |
| BHVO-1 | -20 | 24 | -49 | 17 | -25 | 24 | -76 | 24 |
| BHVO-1 | 32 | 24 | -56 | 17 | -6 | 24 | -98 | 25 |
| BHVO-1 | -20 | 26 | -66 | 17 | -54 | 25 | -77 | 23 |
| BHVO-1 | -5 | 18 | -28 | 13 | -18 | 19 | -41 | 18 |
| BHVO-1 | -12 | 18 | -12 | 12 | 0 | 18 | -21 | 17 |
| BHVO-1 | -9 | 10 | -20 | 7 | -3 | 10 | -27 | 10 |
| BHVO-1 | -4 | 9 | -7 | 6 | -57 | 58 | 23 | 8 |
| BHVO-1 | -11 | 8 | -14 | 6 | 2 | 9 | -2 | 9 |
| BHVO-1 | -11 | 15 | -9 | 11 | 10 | 8 | 9 | 14 |
| Mean BHVO-1 (± 2 σ) | -7 | 31 | -35 | 39 | -10 | 39 | -50 | 55 |
| AGV-1 | -11 | 10 | -23 | 6 | -12 | 10 | -32 | 8 |
| AGV-1 | 12 | 11 | -17 | 8 | 9 | 12 | -21 | 11 |
| AGV-1 | -6 | 54 | -35 | 32 | -57 | 58 | -46 | 50 |
| AGV-1 | 14 | 10 | -3 | 7 | 2 | 10 | 9 | 10 |
| Mean AGV-1 ($\pm 2 \sigma$) | 2 | 25 | -19 | 26 | -14 | 59 | -22 | 47 |
| G-2 | 16 | 47 | -34 | 37 | -32 | 47 | -21 | 46 |
| G-2 | -1 | 16 | -35 | 12 | -13 | 17 | -59 | 17 |
| G-2 | -19 | 18 | -37 | 13 | -35 | 19 | -42 | 18 |
| G-2 | -2 | 12 | -13 | 9 | -3 | 12 | -21 | 12 |
| Mean G-2 ($\pm 2 \sigma$) | -1 | 28 | -30 | 22 | -21 | 31 | -36 | 37 |
| Mean Earth $(\pm 2 \sigma)$ | -3 | 29 | -27 | 36 | -14 | 41 | -32 | 65 |

Table 4b: $^{84}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ data for terrestrial samples expressed and $\mu^{84}\text{Sr}$ deviations from the NIST 987 standard

Ratios for lines 1, and 2 are ratios calculated for each line of the multidynamic configuration as if they were independent lines for a static acquisition. Data are corrected using the exponential law and 86 Sr/ 88 Sr = 0.1194 as normalization ratio. The uncertainty of each individual measure is the internal 2 s.e. of the run. Precision on average values is the 2 s.d. of the mean.

Table 5. Comparison of uncertainties (2 S.D.) of NIST 987 with published values for 87 Sr/ 86 Sr and 84 Sr/ 86 Sr ratios.

| | Acquisition | ⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr | ⁸⁴ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr |
|-----------------------------|--------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| This study | multidynamic | 2 ppm | 19 ppm |
| Hans et al. (2013) | multidynamic | 4 ppm | 48 ppm |
| Yokoyama et al. (2015) | static | 1 – 8 ppm | 20 – 34 ppm |
| Paton et al. (2013) | static | 9 ppm | 30 ppm |
| Moynier et al. (2012) | static | 8 – 9 ppm | 31 – 28 ppm |
| Brennecka et al. (2013) | Static | 11 ppm | 53 ppm |
| Qin et al. (2011) | static | 10 ppm | 50 ppm |
| Andreasen and Sharma (2007) | static | 25 ppm | 34 ppm |

A.3.3 Barium isotope data

¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba and ¹³⁸Ba/¹³⁶Ba were measured in a multidynamic configuration (Table 2) using three and two lines respectively. The isotope ratios were calculated with the following equation:

$$\frac{{}^{135}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\Big|_{corr}^{MD} = \left(\left[\left(\frac{g_C}{g_{L1}}\right)^{\frac{1+\beta_{135}}{1-\beta_{135}}} * \left(\frac{\frac{{}^{135}Ba}{134Ba}\Big|_{\frac{line_1}{1-\beta_{135}}}}{\left(\frac{135Ba}{136Ba}\Big|_{\frac{line_2}{1-\beta_{135}}}\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\beta_{135}}}} \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\beta_{135}}} \right]^2 + \left[\left(\frac{g_{L1}}{g_{L2}}\right)^{\frac{1+\beta_{135}}{1-\beta_{135}}} * \left(\frac{\frac{{}^{135}Ba}{134Ba}\Big|_{\frac{line_2}{1-\beta_{135}}}}{\left(\frac{135Ba}{136Ba}\Big|_{\frac{line_2}{1-\beta_{135}}}\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\beta_{135}}}} \right]^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]^2$$
(3)

with
$$\beta_{135} = \frac{\ln (M_{135}/M_{134})}{\ln (M_{135}/M_{136})}$$

$$\frac{{}^{138}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\Big|_{corr}^{MD} = \frac{{}^{138}Ba}{{}^{136}Ba}\Big|_{line\ 3} \times \left(\frac{{}^{134}Ba}{{}^{134}Ba}\Big|_{true}}{{}^{134}Ba}\Big|_{line\ 1}\right)^{\beta_{138}} \times \left(\frac{g_{H1}}{g_{L1}}\right)^{1+\beta_{138}}$$
(4)

with $\beta_{138} = \frac{\ln (M_{138}/M_{136})}{\ln (M_{134}/M_{136})}$

Considering once again a difference of 10 ppm in the cup efficiencies, the multidynamic equation reduces this effect to 0.04 ppm for ${}^{135}\text{Ba}/{}^{136}\text{Ba}$ and 0.15 ppm for ${}^{138}\text{Ba}/{}^{136}\text{Ba}$.

For the measurements of ¹³⁷Ba/¹³⁶Ba ratio, a multidynamic calculation is not possible with our Faraday cup configuration. The ratios are calculated in static mode for each line, and the final value is estimated by calculating the mean of the three values to obtain a "multistatic" ratio. As this method does not cancel out possible secular drift in the gains of Faraday collectors, the measurements of Ba isotopes were normalized using standard values from the same measurement session.

Barium isotope data for our Alfa Aesar standard and terrestrial rock standards are reported in Table 6 for the multidynamic collection mode and Table 7 for the static configuration. Data are normalized using the exponential law with the following ratio 134 Ba/ 136 Ba = 0.307776 (as in Hidaka et al., 2003). Repeated measurements of the Alfa Aesar barium solution yielded 135 Ba/ 136 Ba = 0.8393116 ± 0.0000030, 137 Ba/ 136 Ba = 1.429066 ± 0.000009 and 137 Ba/ 136 Ba = 1.429091 ± 0.000005 (for session 1 and 2), and 138 Ba/ 136 Ba = 9.12928 ± 0.00008. The use of the multidynamic mode yields an external reproducibility of 4 ppm for the 135 Ba/ 136 Ba. This represents an improvement by a factor of 2 compared to previous published data (see Table 8 for references). Figure 4 compares the 135 Ba/ 136 Ba ratios obtained in the multidynamic and static acquisition mode. The multidynamic mode improves the internal error, and more importantly, erases the drift caused by the degradation of the Faraday collectors. Such temporal trends have already been reported before (e.g. Roth, 2013).

| | ¹³⁵ Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | 2 s.e. | ¹³⁷ Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | 2 s.e. | ¹³⁸ Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | 2 s.e. |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------|--------------------------------------|----------|--------------------------------------|---------|
| STD | 0.8393141 | 0.0000032 | 1.429051 | 0.000006 | 9.12925 | 0.00009 |
| STD | 0.8393133 | 0.0000024 | 1.429062 | 0.000004 | 9.12928 | 0.00007 |
| STD | 0.8393099 | 0.0000020 | 1.429059 | 0.000004 | 9.12929 | 0.00006 |
| STD | 0.8393109 | 0.0000025 | 1.429066 | 0.000005 | 9.12927 | 0.00007 |
| STD | 0.8393118 | 0.0000017 | 1.429054 | 0.000003 | 9.12928 | 0.00004 |
| STD | 0.8393136 | 0.0000015 | 1.429059 | 0.000003 | 9.12933 | 0.00004 |
| STD | 0.8393120 | 0.0000027 | 1.429061 | 0.000005 | 9.12932 | 0.00008 |
| STD | 0.8393102 | 0.0000023 | 1.429073 | 0.000004 | 9.12926 | 0.00006 |
| STD | 0.8393118 | 0.0000024 | 1.429061 | 0.000005 | 9.12927 | 0.00007 |
| STD | 0.8393144 | 0.0000028 | 1.429068 | 0.000006 | 9.12930 | 0.00008 |
| STD | 0.8393118 | 0.0000026 | 1.429070 | 0.000005 | 9.12919 | 0.00007 |
| STD | 0.8393127 | 0.0000023 | 1.429063 | 0.000004 | 9.12926 | 0.00005 |
| STD | 0.8393098 | 0.0000018 | 1.429066 | 0.000003 | 9.12928 | 0.00005 |
| STD | 0.8393110 | 0.0000020 | 1.429070 | 0.000004 | 9.12937 | 0.00014 |
| STD | 0.8393095 | 0.0000019 | 1.429070 | 0.000004 | 9.12928 | 0.00005 |
| STD | 0.8393118 | 0.0000017 | 1.429068 | 0.000003 | 9.12933 | 0.00005 |
| Mean session 1 ($\pm 2 \sigma$) | | | 1.429066 | 0.000009 | | |
| 2 σ (ppm) | | | | 14 | | |
| STD | 0.8393097 | 0.0000018 | 1.429081 | 0.000005 | 9.12934 | 0.00007 |
| STD | 0.8393107 | 0.0000017 | 1.429094 | 0.000003 | 9.12933 | 0.00005 |
| STD | 0.8393102 | 0.0000015 | 1.429085 | 0.000003 | 9.12927 | 0.00007 |
| STD | 0.8393121 | 0.0000015 | 1.429092 | 0.000003 | 9.12932 | 0.00004 |
| STD | 0.8393108 | 0.0000016 | 1.429098 | 0.000003 | 9.12924 | 0.00004 |
| STD | 0.8393116 | 0.0000015 | 1.429090 | 0.000003 | 9.12927 | 0.00004 |
| STD | 0.8393133 | 0.0000015 | 1.429093 | 0.000003 | 9.12928 | 0.00004 |
| STD | 0.8393136 | 0.0000017 | 1.429089 | 0.000003 | 9.12923 | 0.00005 |
| STD | 0.8393098 | 0.0000017 | 1.429089 | 0.000004 | 9.12927 | 0.00005 |
| STD | 0.8393115 | 0.0000016 | 1.429091 | 0.000003 | 9.12924 | 0.00004 |
| STD | 0.8393132 | 0.0000018 | 1.429084 | 0.000004 | 9.12924 | 0.00005 |
| STD | 0.8393130 | 0.0000017 | 1.429092 | 0.000003 | 9.12926 | 0.00004 |
| STD | 0.8393090 | 0.0000019 | 1.429077 | 0.000004 | 9.12925 | 0.00005 |
| Mean session 2 ($\pm 2 \sigma$) | | | 1.429091 | 0.000005 | | |
| 2 σ (ppm) | | | | 9 | | |
| Mean ($\pm 2 \sigma$) | 0.8393116 | 0.0000030 | | | 9.12928 | 0.00008 |
| 2 σ (ppm) | | 4 | | | | 8 |

Table 6a: Barium isotope data from multidynamic acquisition mode.

Data are corrected using the exponential law and ${}^{134}Ba/{}^{136}Ba = 0.307776$ as normalization ratio. The uncertainty of each individual measurement is the internal 2 s.e. of the run. Precision on average values are the 2 s.d. of the mean.

| | μ ¹³⁵ Ba | 2 s.e. | μ ¹³⁷ Ba | 2 s.e. | μ ¹³⁸ Ba | 2 s.e. |
|-----------------------|---------------------|--------|---------------------|--------|---------------------|--------|
| BHVO-1 | -0.2 | 6.8 | 7 | 7 | 10 | 17 |
| BHVO-1 | -3.3 | 3.3 | 7 | 4 | -10 | 8 |
| BHVO-1 | -2.9 | 2.5 | 3 | 3 | 14 | 6 |
| BHVO-1 | -3.8 | 2.1 | 2 | 3 | 32 | 5 |
| BHVO-1 | -4.2 | 3.1 | -3 | 4 | -3 | 9 |
| BHVO-1 | -2.6 | 1.7 | 4 | 2 | 13 | 4 |
| BHVO-1 | -1.3 | 2.9 | 10 | 3 | 12 | 7 |
| G-2 | -2.7 | 2.3 | 3 | 3 | 8 | 6 |
| G-2 | -2.9 | 2.1 | 2 | 2 | -5 | 5 |
| AGV-1 | -0.2 | 2.1 | -10 | 2 | 1 | 5 |
| AGV-1 | 2.5 | 6.1 | -3 | 7 | 7 | 14 |
| AGV-1 | -2.7 | 2.1 | 0 | 2 | 22 | 5 |
| Mean $(\pm 2 \sigma)$ | -2.0 | 3.8 | 2 | 11 | 9 | 23 |

Table 6b: Barium isotopic data for terrestrial rock standards from multidynamic acquisition mode expressed as μ deviations from the standard.

Data are corrected using the exponential law and ${}^{134}Ba/{}^{136}Ba = 0.307776$ as normalization ratio. The uncertainty of each individual measurement is the internal 2 s.e. of the run. Precision on average values are the 2 s.d. of the mean.

The low abundance p-process ¹³²Ba was measured in static collection mode and the data corrected using the exponential law using the following equation:



Figure 4. Repeated multidynamic (a) and static (b) measurements of the $^{135}Ba/^{136}Ba$ ratio on Ba standard. Same scale is used for comparison. Grey areas represent the external reproducibility (2 s.d.) centered on the mean. Slow drift in the $^{135}Ba/^{136}Ba$ due to degradation of the Faraday cups is clearly visible on the static acquisition but is removed by the use of the multidynamic mode.

| | 130 Ba/ 136 Ba | 2.se | ¹³² Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | 2 s e | ¹³⁵ Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | 2 s e | ¹³⁷ Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | 2 s e |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|-----------|--------------------------------------|-----------|--------------------------------------|-----------|--------------------------------------|----------|
| STD | 0.0134821 | 0.0000001 | 0.0128971 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392770 | 0.0000011 | 1.429097 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134822 | 0.0000001 | 0.0128971 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392693 | 0.0000008 | 1.429080 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134822 | 0.0000001 | 0.0128970 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392719 | 0.0000010 | 1.429076 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134823 | 0.0000002 | 0.0128974 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392655 | 0.0000012 | 1.429084 | 0.000003 |
| Mean $(\pm 2 \sigma)$ | 0.0134822 | 0.0000002 | 0.0128971 | 0.0000003 | 0.8392709 | 0.0000097 | 1.429084 | 0.000018 |
| 2 σ (ppm) | | 16 | | 26 | | 12 | | 13 |
| STD | 0.0134809 | 0.0000001 | 0.0129024 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392802 | 0.0000008 | 1.429078 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134821 | 0.0000001 | 0.0129017 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392777 | 0.0000008 | 1.429084 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134821 | 0.0000001 | 0.0129022 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392719 | 0.0000009 | 1.429089 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134819 | 0.0000001 | 0.0129018 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392770 | 0.0000008 | 1.429086 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134816 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129019 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392711 | 0.0000011 | 1.429082 | 0.000002 |
| Mean $(\pm 2 \sigma)$ | 0.0134817 | 0.0000010 | 0.0129020 | 0.0000006 | 0.8392756 | 0.0000078 | 1.429084 | 0.000008 |
| 2 σ (ppm) | | 76 | | 47 | | 9 | | 6 |
| STD | 0.0134830 | 0.0000001 | 0.0129006 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392847 | 0.0000007 | 1.429074 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134828 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129007 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392753 | 0.0000011 | 1.429066 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134834 | 0.0000001 | 0.0129013 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392846 | 0.0000011 | 1.429073 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134833 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129011 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392821 | 0.0000013 | 1.429083 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134841 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129009 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392788 | 0.0000012 | 1.429084 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134828 | 0.0000001 | 0.0129007 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392797 | 0.0000009 | 1.429085 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134834 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129010 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392804 | 0.0000014 | 1.429085 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134826 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129009 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392726 | 0.0000012 | 1.429064 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134832 | 0.0000003 | 0.0129014 | 0.0000002 | 0.8392748 | 0.0000016 | 1.429087 | 0.000004 |
| STD | 0.0134825 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129015 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392778 | 0.0000013 | 1.429085 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134834 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129014 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392852 | 0.0000011 | 1.429070 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134843 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129016 | 0.0000002 | 0.8392893 | 0.0000014 | 1.429078 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134822 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129017 | 0.0000002 | 0.8392861 | 0.0000013 | 1.429076 | 0.000003 |
| Mean ($\pm 2 \sigma$) | 0.0134832 | 0.0000012 | 0.0129011 | 0.0000008 | 0.8392809 | 0.0000099 | 1.429078 | 0.000016 |
| 2 σ (ppm) | | 88 | | 58 | | 12 | | 11 |
| STD | 0.0134844 | 0.0000001 | 0.0129018 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392902 | 0.0000011 | 1.429058 | 0.000002 |
| STD | 0.0134832 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129016 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392827 | 0.0000013 | 1.429061 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134845 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129015 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392839 | 0.0000012 | 1.429073 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134839 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129017 | 0.0000002 | 0.8392876 | 0.0000014 | 1.429046 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134826 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129011 | 0.0000001 | 0.8392875 | 0.0000012 | 1.429053 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134828 | 0.0000003 | 0.0129009 | 0.0000002 | 0.8392918 | 0.0000016 | 1.429078 | 0.000004 |
| STD | 0.0134844 | 0.0000002 | 0.0129016 | 0.0000002 | 0.8392961 | 0.0000016 | 1.429054 | 0.000003 |
| STD | 0.0134811 | 0.0000005 | 0.0129012 | 0.0000004 | 0.8392928 | 0.0000031 | 1.429074 | 0.000007 |
| Mean ($\pm 2 \sigma$) | 0.0134834 | 0.0000023 | 0.0129014 | 0.0000006 | 0.8392891 | 0.0000091 | 1.429062 | 0.000023 |
| 2 σ (ppm) | | 174 | | 49 | | 11 | | 16 |

Table 7a: Barium isotopic data from static acquisition mode.

Data are corrected using the exponential law and ${}^{134}Ba/{}^{136}Ba = 0.307776$ as normalization ratio. The uncertainty of each individual measurement is the internal 2 s.e. of the run. Precision on average values are the 2 s.d. of the mean.

The corresponding data are reported in Table 7. In individual sessions, t he external reproducibility on 132 Ba/ 136 Ba is comprised between 26 and 58 ppm for standards, which represents an improvement by a factor 2-5 compared to previous published data (see Table 8 for references).

| | μ^{130} Ba | 2 s.e. | μ^{132} Ba | 2 s.e. | μ^{135} Ba | 2 s.e. | μ^{137} Ba | 2 s.e. | μ ¹³⁸ Ba | 2 s.e. |
|-----------------------|----------------|--------|----------------|--------|----------------|--------|----------------|--------|---------------------|--------|
| BHVO-1 | -38 | 10 | 1 | 8 | -9 | 1 | -11 | 2 | -22 | 2 |
| BHVO-1 | -21 | 9 | 24 | 8 | -10 | 1 | -10 | 1 | -18 | 2 |
| BHVO-1 | 15 | 10 | 15 | 8 | -5 | 1 | -4 | 2 | -28 | 2 |
| BHVO-1 | 4 | 10 | 10 | 8 | -2 | 1 | -3 | 2 | -34 | 2 |
| BHVO-1 | -14 | 4 | 2 | 4 | -2 | 1 | -6 | 1 | -29 | 1 |
| BHVO-1 | -11 | 11 | -10 | 8 | -1 | 1 | -3 | 2 | -43 | 2 |
| BHVO-1 | 117 | 16 | 21 | 12 | -4 | 2 | -8 | 2 | 7 | 3 |
| BHVO-1 | 6 | 11 | 51 | 10 | -4 | 1 | -3 | 2 | 4 | 2 |
| BHVO-1 | -18 | 11 | -19 | 9 | 1 | 1 | 10 | 2 | 22 | 2 |
| Mean $(\pm 2 \sigma)$ | -2 | 95 | 10 | 40 | -4 | 7 | -1 | 23 | -2 | 96 |

Table 7b: Barium isotopic data for terrestrial rock standards from static acquisition mode expressed as μ deviations from the standard.

Data are corrected using the exponential law and ${}^{134}\text{Ba}/{}^{136}\text{Ba} = 0.307776$ as normalization ratio. The uncertainty of each individual measurement e is the internal 2 s.e. of the run. Precision on average values are the 2 s.d. of the mean.

Table 8. Comparison of the external reproducibility (2 S.D.) of barium isotopic data for isotopic standard with published values.

| | Acquisition mode | ¹³² Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | ¹³⁵ Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | ¹³⁷ Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba | ¹³⁸ Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba |
|----------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| This study | Multidyn. | | 4 ppm | | 15 ppm |
| | Static | $26-58 \text{ ppm}^*$ | 9 – 12 ppm | 6 – 16 ppm | |
| Bermingham et al. (2014) | Static | 336 ppm | 9 ppm | 15 ppm | 25 ppm |
| | Static | 108 ppm | 10 ppm | 13 ppm | 20 ppm |
| Carlson et al. (2007) | Static | 227 ppm | 14 ppm | 15 ppm | 16 ppm |
| Andreasen et Sharma (2007) | Static | 77 ppm | 4 ppm | 10 ppm | 12 ppm |
| Qin et al. (2011) | Static | 50 ppm | 6 ppm | 13 ppm | 22 ppm |
| Brennecka et al. (2013) | Static | 190 ppm | 10 ppm | 9 ppm | 15 ppm |

All values are obtained from a mono-elemental solution, as no reference material is available for barium. * Values acquired using a $10^{12} \Omega$ resistor.

As the static mode does not compensate for the differences in Faraday cup efficiencies, a drift in the data was observed as a result of slow Faraday cup degradation. In order to correct for this drift in cup efficiency, all μ -value deviations were calculated using the terrestrial standard monitored during the same measurement session. By comparing the μ^{135} Ba obtained in both static and multidynamic configurations and assuming that the multidynamic value is reliable, it is then possible to assess the accuracy of our results for p-process Ba isotopes (see below).

A.4 Discussion

A.4.1 Comparison with previous separation protocols

Most of the published protocols concerning the isotope measurement of strontium or barium isotopes have only focused on only one of these elements. In this study, we developed a protocol to separate both elements from the same aliquote, which means that the yield of both elements must be maximized during the separation. One advantage of our protocol is that it reduces the amount of sample used for one analysis. A second advantage is that if there is a limitation in sample size, using a single larger aliquote should minimize the effect of sample heterogeneity. These issues are critical for the study of nucleosynthetic anomalies.

Since the development of the alkali earth specific resin Sr resin (EichromTM, Horwitz et al., 1991, 1992), it has become the most reliable mean to ensure complete purification of strontium (e.g. Pin and al., 2003). Previous protocols that were developed specifically for Ba separation used only cationic resin to achieve Ba purification (Eugster et al., 1969; Carlson et al., 2007; Nan et al., 2015) and most separation schemes do not provide detailed accounts of the column calibration for many relevant elements that are difficult to separate such as other alkaline earths. Thus a close comparison of our protocol with published methods is difficult. In their recent study, Nan et al. (2015) presented an efficient purification protocol for barium using only cation exchange resin. However, their method is only reliable for high barium content as it requires a minimum of 6 µg of Ba. Such a high amount of Ba would not be a problem for the study of terrestrial materials as most rocks have a large barium concentration (100 - 1000 ppm) and are available in large quantities (several grams at least). However, this is no longer the case for meteorites or lunar samples, where the amount of available material is often of a few hundreds of milligrams only. Furthermore, chondrites have a low barium content, usually less than 10 ppm. Thus, the protocol of Nan et al. (2015) is not suited for our objectives and this protocol was designed for samples with very variable compositions and barium contents. For example, lunar ferroan anorthosites contain 2.5 times more calcium than a terrestrial basalt such as BHVO, but only a tenth of the barium concentration; high-titanium lunar basalt have up to 13 wt% TiO₂ while chondrites have very high iron contents (\sim 30 wt% FeO), but very low barium and strontium concentrations (< 10 ppm). In order to use cation exchange resin, one would need to calibrate columns using the corresponding matrix specific to each type of samples or to divide samples into many aliquots to avoid overload of the columns. In both cases, it would result in a dramatic increase of the elution volumes and of the procedure blanks. A cation exchange separation scheme could yield reasonable Ba purification (Nan et al., 2015), but it has two disadvantages. The optimal separation is obtained for resin with a high cross-linkage such as AG50W-X12, which increases dramatically the elution time. In addition, we observed that high cross linkage resins are more difficult to clean thoroughly and show more memory effects, which implies using new resin for each sample. Furthermore, these protocols cannot achieve good separation of Sr and Ba from their matrix while reaching yields exceeding 95% for samples with low barium contents (see Table 9 for matrix separation factors). It could be argued that with TIMS, the measurements of radiogenic ⁸⁷Sr or of nucleosynthetic anomalies do not require perfect separation yields since isotope ratios are normalized to a fixed value, thereby correcting for mass fractionation. However, yields are still critical when working with rare and expensive samples such as meteorites or lunar samples in order to minimize the amount consumed by each analysis to reach a given analytical uncertainty. Besides, crown ethers may induce mass-independent fractionations as shown by Fujii et al. (2009). High yields are thus required to limit the possibility of such apparent anomalies on isotopic ratios. In addition, a large mass fractionation resulting from Sr loss may also lead to artifact due to imperfect mass fractionation laws.

Table 9: Purity of strontium and barium fractions produced by our protocol.

| | K/X | Mg/X | Ca/X | Al/X | Fe/X | Cr/X | Ti/X |
|--------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---------|---------|
| X = Ba | < 1 | < 0.1 | < 1 | < 0.01 | < 0.01 | < 0.001 | < 0.001 |
| X = Sr | < 0.1 | < 0.02 | < 0.02 | < 0.01 | < 0.02 | | < 0.003 |

The values express the ratios of K, Mg, Ca, Al, Fe, Cr, Ti to barium or strontium in final fraction prior to loading on TIMS filaments. Elemental measurements have been acquired on HR-ICP-MS. No value is given for the Cr/Sr ratio as there was no measurable chromium in the strontium fraction.

The most effective separation of barium and strontium is achieved with Sr resin. Pin et al (2003) were the first to use Sr resin to separate these elements. In their protocol, samples were directly loaded onto Sr resin column. We attempted to reproduce this method using a 1 ml column. However, it was found that elution peaks were shifted by at least two column volumes if the solution contained iron. As our method is meant to be applied to a large variety of samples with very different matrix compositions, we chose to add a step of anion-exchange to remove the iron. The amount of anion resin was adjusted depending on the iron content of each sample, and for chondrites with iron contents up to 30 wt% we split samples into several aliquots, corresponding to approximately 100 mg of rock per 10 ml of resin. As neither strontium nor barium are retained on the resin in 6 N HCl, this step allowed complete separation of both elements from iron and a 100 % recovery of barium and strontium after only three column volumes. The Sr resin provides an efficient and quick way to separate the elements of interest from matrix with various compositions. This resin can allow large matrix quantities (excluding iron and up to 21 mg of Ca – Horwitz et al, 1991) and in most cases 500 μ l bed volume was

sufficient for the whole sample (using typically 50 mg of silicate rocks). Only potassium could cause a drop in strontium adsorption coefficient for concentrations exceeding 0.03 mol/l (Horwitz et al, 1992). In the case where calcium and potassium contents were found to be too high for a single column, samples were divided in several aliquots.

The barium fraction eluted from the Sr resin column still contains too much matrix elements for TIMS isotopic analysis, particularly potassium, calcium, chromium with ratios to barium higher than one. A separation on a cation resin easily removes calcium and potassium (Nan et al, 2015), but chromium showed multiple elution peaks due to multiple complexes in solution. To remove all traces of chromium, the samples were equilibrated in 6 M HCl. The chromium-chloride complexes formed in concentrated HCl ($CrCl^{2+}$ with minor $CrCl_2^+$, Cr^{3+}) have a low affinity for cation resin (Larsen et al, 2016). Samples were diluted to 1 M HCl just prior to loading on the column to kinetically preserve those complexes and ensure complete elimination of chromium within the first steps of elution.

A.4.2 Matrix effects on thermal ionization

Matrix effects caused by contaminant elements and organic matter during TIMS emission were investigated. The production of polyatomic isobaric interferences or doubly charged ions is relatively limited in thermal ionization mass spectrometry compared with MC-ICP MS. Molecular interferences produced by remaining traces of elements that are not eliminated during the chemical separation can also be avoided if their evaporation and ionization conditions are different from those required for barium or strontium. For example, it is well known that any rubidium still present in the strontium fraction of the sample after chemical purification would be completely burnt out during filament heating well before strontium starts being emitted from the filament. However, these traces of remaining matrix elements can also interfere on strontium or barium emission and ionization. We doped standard strontium and barium solutions with either K, Mg, Ca, and Ti solutions in the following relative proportions 1:1, 1:4 and 4:1. No interferences were observed as long as the ratio of matrix element to strontium or barium was less than one. For higher ratios, the emission was strongly perturbed or even prevented in the case of Ca, Al and Ti. For the sake of comparison, the level of purity of our chemical procedure is indicated in Table 9 and these figures show that our purification is sufficient to avoid any perturbation of Ba or Sr emission.

When organic matter is present, the filaments have to be heated very slowly to avoid a dramatic increase in source pressure. The presence of organic matter seems to enhance the formation of several isotope reservoirs on the filament as described by Rees (1969) for Mo, Hart

and Zindler (1989) for Ca and Upadhyay et al (2008) for Nd. These reservoirs do not have the same isotope composition and the ion beam collected is the result of mixing between those reservoirs. As a result, the mass fractionation does not follow the exponential law any longer and the global fractionation trend tends to be highly variable and is sometimes reversed. A net consequence is that such mass spectrometry runs cannot produce reliable isotopic ratios. With our procedure, the release of organics in the final Ba or Sr cut was avoided or simply eliminated prior to loading on the filament.

A.4.3 Temporal drift between lines in multidynamic configuration

When ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios are calculated from a ^{.87}Sr-specific' configuration in multidynamic mode (see Table 2), the ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio is measured on the first line (corresponding to a given magnet setting with ⁸⁵Rb on the center cup) and the ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr ratio used for mass fractionation correction is obtained on the third line (with ⁸⁷Sr on the center cup). The time interval between the two acquisitions is 18 s, which is greater than the integration time of 8 s. In multidynamic calculations, one makes the assumption that the normalizing ratio does not drift significantly between the lines used for measuring the ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr and ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios. Depending on the massdependent fractionation rate, this assumption could be incorrect. Following the work of Roth et al. (2014), it is possible to assess the impact of such a drift on the multidynamic ratio. Taking an extreme drift of 0.1 ppm/s of the ⁸⁸Sr/⁸⁶Sr normalization ratio (the observed drift calculated from all of our runs did not exceed the value of 0.1 ppm/s) and considering the measurement of the multidynamic ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr using the configuration given in Table 2, the maximum shift in ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr caused by temporal drift is less than 2 ppm, which is well below the uncertainty reported for this ratio (20-30 ppm). Even though we did not implement any temporal drift correction in our data reduction process, this effect was not ignored. Mass spectrometry runs showing too rapid fractionation (higher than the upper value of 0.1 ppm/s) or inverse fractionation probably resulting from multi-reservoir evaporation (Upadhyay et al., 2008) were systematically excluded (~ 8 % of the measurements were excluded).

A.4.4 Calibration of the amplifiers decay for multidynamic acquisition

Multidynamic collection is consists in switching the isotope signals on different Faraday cups such that the collectors used for the measured ratio are the same as those used for the normalization ratio. This procedure is able to cancel out the differences between cups efficiencies. As the intensities of measured ion beams changes between the lines in the

multidynamic configuration, one should ensure that the amplifier signals have decayed back to their original baseline between each line of measurements. For this purpose, the Triton software allows to set an idle time that has to be adjusted so that there is no residual signal on the amplifiers. On the Thermo Triton plus TIMS, the parameter controlling the signal decay function is called Decay DAC (DDAC). It is adjusted by applying a electronic signal to the amplifiers, then measuring the decay time after the signal input has been cut. During our first Sr isotope runs, we observed a periodic fluctuation of the corrected 87 Sr/ 86 Sr ratios of ~2 hours (Figure 5), corresponding to the time for the rotation of the amplifier matrix (time to return to its initial configuration). The amplifier decay time was then tested using both the electronic signal and a real ⁸⁸Sr ion beam of the same intensities. The ion beam was cut by closing the analyzer gate that separates the ion source from the mass spectrometer analyzer. It turned out that the decay time corresponding to the DDAC fitted with the electronic signal input was 2 to 10 seconds longer when using a real ion beam (Figure 6). The residual signal from one line to another varied with the amplifier rotation, thereby inducing the observed fluctuation in the multidynamic ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios. For the amplifiers with the longest decay time, the residual signal of ⁸⁸Sr from the third line on the ⁸⁷Sr signal on the first line for the next cycle is ~ 1 mV for an idle time of 4 s. The corresponding variation in 87 Sr/ 86 Sr ratio is ~50±80 ppm, which is similar to the amplitude of the observed fluctuation of ~70 ppm. After recalibrating all amplifiers DDAC with a real ion beam, the fluctuation on ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr was removed and the internal standard deviation on ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr was improved by a factor 2. This calibration procedure of the decay time solved an important issue in multidynamic measurements.



Figure 5. Evolution of the 87 Sr/ 86 Sr multidynamic ratio during a NIST 987 run before (a) and after (b) calibration of the amplifier decay.



Figure 6. Amplifier decay before (a) and after (b) calibration of the Decay DAC parameter. The electronic signal is represented by dotted lines, and solid lines show the decay of an ⁸⁸Sr ion beam of the same intensities as the electronic signal. In both cases, the decay time is \sim 2 s greater for the ion beam. Greyed area represents the 2 S.D. of the baseline. The variation in amplifier response with electronic signal for both DDAC values are similar, while there is a significant difference when a real ion beam is applied.

A.4.5 Offset between the $\mu^{84}\text{Sr}$ of the silicate Earth and the NIST 987 standard

Previous studies of ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios using a static acquisition mode reported a difference of 20 to 30 ppm between the isotopic standard NIST 987 and terrestrial rocks (Moynier et al., 2012; Paton et al., 2013; Hans, 2013; Yokoyama et al., 2015). Several hypotheses have been put forward to explain this small, yet resolvable apparent enrichment of the NBS 987 standard in ⁸⁴Sr. A contamination in ⁸⁴Sr could have occurred during the production of this isotope standard but this effect has not been documented by NBS/NIST. The methods used to purify the standard could also have led to a mass dependent fractionation. Furthermore, if it included several distillation steps during which strontium isotopes did not fractionate according to the exponential law used to correct for instrumental fractionation (Paton et al., 2013), then this could have produced a ⁸⁴Sr apparent enrichment. Such an effect has also been argued by Bizzarro et al. (2011) for a synthetic magnesium standard solution. The offset could also result from a mass-independent fractionation during the production of the standard such as a nuclear field shift effect (Moynier et al., 2012).

| | μ ⁸⁴ Sr | 2 S.D. | n | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|--------|----|--|
| Multidynamic data | | | | |
| This study | -3 | 29 | 14 | |
| Hans et al (2013) | 2 | 30 | 18 | |
| Static data | | | | |
| This study ^{a,b} | -14 | 41 | 14 | |
| | -32 | 65 | | |
| Hans et al. $(2013)^{a}$ | -25 | 30 | 18 | |
| | -25 | 37 | | |
| Paton et al. (2013) | -22 | 26 | 26 | |
| Yokoyama et al. (2015) | -29 | 17 | 4 | |
| Moynier et al. (2012) | -27 | 13 | 10 | |
| Andreasen and Sharma (2007) | -16 | 46 | 7 | |

Table 10. Comparison of published values for μ^{84} Sr of Earth.

a. Two values given, one for each of the two lines used in multidynamic configuration. Hans et al. (2013) used the same cup configuration. b. The uncertainties in our static data are increased due to the long-term drift in Farday cup efficiencies; the 2 S.D. uncertainties for a given session in static measurements is \sim 30 ppm.

A similar offset (~30 ppm) in μ^{84} Sr values between terrestrial rocks and NIST 987 was also found in our data set using a static acquisition mode (Table 10). However, the data obtained with multidynamic acquisition does not show any difference in μ^{84} Sr between mantle-derived rocks and NIST 987, which agrees with the conclusions of Hans et al. (2013) who also obtained data with a multidynamic mode.

If this difference arose from a contamination in ⁸⁴Sr or from a mass independent fractionation as argued in previous studies, no difference should be observed between the two acquisition modes. Furthermore, the observation of the same difference in an increasing number of independent laboratories calls for a more global explanation than a problem that would be specific to a particular mass spectrometer.

Strontium stable isotopes show a mass dependent fractionation of approximately 0.3‰ on ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr between the NIST 987 and terrestrial basalts (Charlier et al., 2012; Moynier et al., 2010) but this natural fractionation is an order of magnitude smaller than the instrumental fractionation and plays no role in the ⁸⁴Sr observations.

We suggest that another effect could actually produce the 30 ppm shift between NIST 987 and terrestrial basalts. In a static collection mode, the mass difference between the cups used for the acquisition of ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio covers a range of four masses from ⁸⁴Sr to ⁸⁸Sr. Ion beams farthest from the axial Faraday cups are more susceptible to be affected by optical aberrations or truncations due to non-ideal peak shapes (Albarède and Beard, 2004). This hypothesis is supported by the observation than the shift seems to increase with the distance of the ⁸⁴Sr collector from the axial Faraday cup from 11 ppm for line 1 (Table 2) with the ⁸⁴Sr beam in

Faraday cup L1, to 29 ppm for line 2 with ⁸⁴Sr in Faraday cup L3. By comparison to the static configuration, only two mass units separate the Faraday cups used for multidynamic calculation.

During a thermal ionization mass spectrometry measurement, the evaporation of the element of interest from a heated filament causes a mass-dependent isotope fractionation. The lighter isotopes are preferably evaporated and the residue on the filament is gradually depleted in light isotopes. Consequently the measured ratios, including the normalization ratio used to correct for mass fractionation, evolves with time. Mass fractionation is corrected using the empirical exponential law:

$$\frac{{}^{i}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{true} = \frac{{}^{i}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{measured} \times \left(\frac{M_{i}}{M_{86}}\right)^{f}$$
(6)

with i = 84, 87. Based on this equation, the mass fractionation factor f can be estimated:

$$f = \frac{\ln\left(\left(\frac{^{86}Sr}{^{88}Sr}\right)_{true} / \left(\frac{^{86}Sr}{^{88}Sr}\right)_{measured}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{^{M}B6}{^{M}B8}\right)}$$
(7)

Although the mass fractionation factor f is an evolving parameter, we observed that the mean value of f was systematically different between terrestrial samples and NIST 987 standard. We then calculated the impact on the μ^{84} Sr value of a sample normalized to NIST 987 due to a truncation of the most abundant ⁸⁸Sr peak using the formulation of Albarède and Beard (2004):

$$\frac{{}^{88}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{truncated} = \frac{{}^{88}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big| \times \left(\frac{M_{88}}{M_{86}}\right)^f \times \left(\frac{1+\delta M_{88}/M_{88}}{1+\delta M_{86}/M_{86}}\right)^f$$
(8)

where $\delta M_{88}/M_{88}$ represents the equivalent deviation from the nominal mass caused by the truncation due to imperfect peak shape which results in peak truncation. We hypothesized that only ⁸⁸Sr was truncated, as this peak was the most distant from the axis of the mass spectrometer. Such a truncation is due to known off axis chromatic aberrations existing in mass spectrometers.

This simple calculation indicates that for a truncation parameter $\delta M_{88}/M_{88} = 6 \cdot 10^{-5}$ and typical difference in mean mass fractionation factor between terrestrail sample (f = 0.1) and NIST 987 (f = 0.4), we can reproduce a 25 ppm apparent offset between terrestrial rocks and

NIST 987 (Figure 7). This means that we have found a plausible explanation for the difference between our results obtained in static mode and multidynamic mode. Altogether, this shows that the multidynamic mode produces more reliable results than the static acquisition mode, as the multidynamic mode is not sensitive to the effects described above. One should note here that the possible caveats of multidynamic mode related to decay of the amplifiers of drift in the mass fractionation between two magnet settings have been carefully examined in this study.



Figure 7. Offset in the μ^{84} Sr caused by a truncation of the ⁸⁸Sr peak. Truncation is expressed as the apparent deviation from the ideal mass of ⁸⁸Sr peak $\delta M_{88}/M_{88}$. Details of the calculations are given in the text.

A.5 Conclusions

We have developed a method for high precision strontium and barium isotopes analysis using a new separation protocol based on the affinity of alkaline-earths for the specific resin Srspec[™] coupled with isotope measurements on a thermal ionization mass spectrometer. This method could be applied to a large range of geological and cosmochemical samples with various matrix compositions. This was made possible by the use of Eichrom Sr resin instead of the conventional cation resin used in most Ba separation protocols described in the literature. Our protocol ensures high purity and high yields for barium and strontium fractions and is particularly suitable for the preparation of extraterrestrial materials, or of any other sample with low barium and strontium content and available in limited quantity. The precision of the isotope measurements was enhanced by the use of multidynamic acquisition whenever possible and showed that it produced reliable results. Our results on multidynamic ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr (19 ppm), ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr (2 ppm), and ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba (4 ppm) have external reproducibility two times better than most published data. The use of a multidynamic configuration allows the efficient elimination of differences between the cup efficiencies. This correction proves insensitive to any secular degradation of cup efficiencies that are known to produce a drift in the isotope ratios measured in static mode. It is a powerful method for comparison of data acquired on different mass spectrometers and over extended period of time. However, we have identified and corrected a potential source of error using the multidynamic mode. The decay of the amplifiers needs to be carefully tuned using real Sr or Ba beams to avoid using prohibitively long idle times between magnet settings. Overall, our method is perfectly suited for geochronology or the detection of nucleosynthetic anomalies in extraterrestrial materials.

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Chapitre 3 L'origine nucléosynthétique des anomalies isotopiques en baryum et ses implications sur le ¹³⁵Cs dans le Système Solaire précoce

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Résumé

Ce chapitre présente les compositions isotopiques en Ba de la Lune, de Mars, des angrites, ainsi que des chondrites ordinaires, carbonées et à enstatite. La dissolution complète des chondrites carbonées a été réalisée en utilisant une technique de fusion laser pour détruire les grains présolaires résistants aux acides. Les échantillons de chondrites carbonées de type CM et CV préparées par cette technique présentent une anomalie positive en ¹³⁵Ba couplée à un excès de ¹³⁷Ba et de ¹³²Ba. La composition isotopique des chondrites de type CV et CM est en accord avec un déficit en nucléides formés par le processus s associé à un léger enrichissement en processus p. Les anomalies nucléosynthétiques observées pour les chondrites de types CV et CM sont certainement le résultat d'un mélange incomplet de grains présolaires. L'homogénéité observée pour tous les autres objets tend à prouver qu'à l'exception de petites variations dans la répartition des grains présolaires entre les corps parent des CM, CV et du reste du Système Solaire, ce dernier était homogène. L'échantillon d'Orgueil (chondrite CI) étudié ne montre aucune déviation par rapport à la composition terrestre. Cette observation permet de contraindre le rapport initial ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs du Système Solaire à une valeur maximale de 4×10^{-6} . Cette valeur est inférieure à celles publiées dans la littérature. Une injection tardive de ¹³⁵Cs dans le système solaire précoce n'est pas nécessaire pour expliquer cette abondance initiale.

Nucleosynthetic origin for barium isotopic anomalies in meteorites and implications for ¹³⁵Cs in the early Solar Sytem

Abstract

High-precision barium isotopic compositions are reported for lunar samples, Martian meteorites, angrites, ordinary chondrites, carbonaceous chondrites, and one enstatite chondrites. Destruction of presolar acid-resistant components have been ensured through laser fusion of samples prior to acid dissolution. Fused CM and CV carbonaceous chondrites still show coupled positive excesses in ¹³⁵Ba and ¹³⁷Ba with small positive anomalies on ¹³²Ba. The anomalies observed in CV and CM chondrites are consistent with an s-process deficit with a small p-process excess. The variations in Ba isotope compositions observed in CV and CM chondrites are likely to be the result of incomplete mixing of Ba presolar carriers at the time of the formation of their parent bodies. The homogeneity between non carbonaceous objects and CI chondrites tend to show that the Solar System was well-mixed with the only Ba isotopic variation due to small heterogeneity in the distribution of presolar components. The laser fused Orgueil (CI) sample has a terrestrial composition, which constrains the initial ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs ratio of the solar system to 4 x 10⁻⁶, which is lower than published values. Such a low value no longer requires late addition of ¹³⁵Cs to the early Solar System.

3.1 Introduction

The materials that compose the terrestrial planetary objects in the Solar System are formed by a mixture of various nucleosynthetic components reflecting the stellar environment of the early Solar System. The degree of homogenization of the solar nebula is still debated, as small isotopic anomalies are found for an increasing number of elements due to the improvement in analytical techniques (e.g.: Mo: Burkhardt et al., 2011; Ru : Moynier et al., 2006; Ti: Zhang et al., 2012, Trinquier et al., 2009; Ca: Simon et al., 2009; Cr: Trinquier et al., 2007; Nd: Burkhardt et al., 2016). These anomalies could in principle be the result of different processes including (i) incomplete mixing of nucleosynthetic components, (ii) radioactive decay, (iii) cosmic rays irradiation, (iv) mass-independent fractionation such as nuclear field shift effect (e.g. Fujii et al., 2009).

Barium is well suited to study small isotopic variation due to nucleosynthetic processes. It possesses 2 s-only isotopes, ¹³⁴Ba and ¹³⁶Ba shielded from r contribution by ¹³⁴Xe and ¹³⁶Xe

respectively. Their ratio is presumably constant and ideal for internal normalization , which means that it does not result in the propagation of apparent anomalies coming from nucleosynthetic variations of the normalizing ratio. Ba also has two low abundance p-process isotopes, ¹³⁰Ba and ¹³²Ba. The last three isotopes are mixture of s- and r-processes, with a possible contribution of ¹³⁵Cs on ¹³⁵Ba and of ¹³⁸La on ¹³⁸Ba (see Table 1). As ¹³⁸La has a very low abundance (0.091 % according to Lodders et al., 2009) and a very long half life (t_{1/2} = 104 Ga) making radiogenic ingrowth on ¹³⁸Ba probably negligible on whole rock meteorites, though it might be visible in some calcium-aluminium-rich inclusions (CAI, Brennecka et al., 2013).

| Instance | | Nucleosynthetic distribution ^b (%) | | | | | | |
|-------------------|---------------|---|-----------|-----------|--|--|--|--|
| Isotope | Adundance (%) | p-process | s-process | r-process | | | | |
| ¹³⁰ Ba | 0.106 | 100 | | | | | | |
| ¹³² Ba | 0.101 | 100 | | | | | | |
| ¹³⁴ Ba | 2.417 | | 100 | | | | | |
| ¹³⁵ Ba | 6.592 | | 28.5 | 71.5 | | | | |
| ¹³⁶ Ba | 7.854 | | 100 | | | | | |
| ¹³⁷ Ba | 11.232 | | 63.2 | 36.8 | | | | |
| ¹³⁸ Ba | 71.699 | | 91.8 | 8.8 | | | | |

Table 1. Solar abundances, and nucleosynthetic process distribution for Ba isotopes

a. Solar abundances from Lodders et al. (2009).

b. Nucleosynthetic proportions of Ba isotopes in Solar System from Bisterzo et al. (2014)

Nucleosynthetic anomalies can be used to establish genetic relationships between objects from the Solar System (e.g. Lodders, 2000; Warren et al., 2011; Dauphas et al. 2014; Fitoussi et al., 2016). They can also provide an assessment of the degree of heterogeneity in the solar nebula, and the different stellar environments that contributed to Solar System materials. Another issue is the interpretation of chronometric data using both short and long-lived chronometers. For short-lived chronometers such as ²⁶Al-²⁶Mg, ¹⁴⁶Sm-¹⁴²Nd, or ¹³⁵Cs-¹³⁵Ba, knowledge of the degree of homogeneity of the parent isotope is fundamental as the relative ages are generally calculated assuming an homogeneous distribution of the extinct nuclides. Variations in isotope abundances can also be an issue for long-lived chronometers if it affects an isotope used for normalization (e.g. Hans et al, 2013) or simply the radiogenic nuclide of interest (e.g. Burkhardt et al., 2016). As the precision of isotope data continually improves, even small variations in isotopic composition could have a measurable impact on ages obtained with long-lived chronometers. While the existence of nucleosynthetic anomalies on CAIs or presolar grains have been clearly demonstrated, the smaller variations observed in bulk meteorites are less well resolved (e.g. Carlson et al., 2007). An important reason is the difficulty to ensure whole rock analysis that requires complete and total dissolution of all components, including the acid resistant presolar grains. Presolar grains have isotopic compositions that greatly differ from

the solar ratios reflecting a distinct stellar environment for their formation. Large anomalies in Ba isotopic compositions have been found in SiC using ion microprobe analysis. Their isotopic composition is interpreted as a signature of the s-process in asymptotic giant branch stars (AGB) (Savina et al., 2003; Marhas et al., 2007; Àvila et al., 2013). Mainstream SiC grains from Murchison show large s-process excess in their Ba isotopic signature (Zinner et al., 1991). Unusual X-grains SiC have enrichments in both ¹³⁷Ba and ¹³⁸Ba which is interpreted as a neutron burst effect in a supernova environment (Pellin et al., 2000).

In the case of barium isotopes, the tens of ppm anomalies observed on whole rock carbonaceous chondrites have been attributed to variations in r- and s-processes (Carlson et al., 2007; Andreasen and Sharma, 2007; Qin et al., 2011; Brennecka et al., 2013) with a possible contribution of the decay of ¹³⁵Cs on ¹³⁵Ba (Hidaka et al., 2001, 2003, 2013; Hidaka and Yoneda, 2011; Bermingham et al., 2014, 2016). Ranen and Jacobsen (2006) found signatures of neutron burst process but Andreasen and Sharma (2007) proved that this interpretation was an analytical artifact.

Previous studies of Ba isotopes also aimed at finding evidence for the presence of the extinct nuclide ¹³⁵Cs in the early Solar System materials (Hidaka et al., 2001, 2003, 2013; Hidaka and Yoneda, 2011; Srinivisan et al., 2011). ¹³⁵Cs is a short-lived radionuclide (SLR) with a half-life of ~ 1.6 Myr. This new value for the half-life of 135 Cs was determined by MacDonald et al. (2016) and is 40 % lower than the previously accepted value of 2.3 Myr. SLR are useful to establish precise early Solar System chronology and to constrain stellar sources of material constituting of meteorites and planets (e.g. Wasserburg et al., 1969; Huss et al., 2009). The use of ¹³⁵Cs – ¹³⁵Ba as a radiogenic chronometer requires elemental fractionation between parent and daughter element and the formation of reservoirs with distinct Cs/Ba ratios within ¹³⁵Cs lifetime (< 10 Ma). Cs is a moderately volatile element with a condensation temperature $T_c = 799$ K while Ba is a refractory element with a $T_c = 1455$ K (Lodders, 2003). Elemental fractionation can occur through partial condensation or evaporation, similarly to Rb/Sr fractionation. Aqueous alteration on parent bodies could also potentially fractionate Cs from Ba as Cs is a highly soluble element while Ba is more insoluble. Several issues arise when searching for traces of extinct ¹³⁵Cs. Cs has a very low abundance in chondrites with a concentration of 0.188 ppm in CI chondrites (Lodders et al., 2009), and has currently only one natural stable isotope so that precise concentrations values are difficult to obtain. Moreover as Cs is easily transported by fluids, any aqueous alteration on parent bodies subsequent to Cs decay could affect isochron relationships.

3.2 Analytical methods

3.2.1 Samples

Samples of ordinary chondrites, Martian meteorites, angrites and enstatite chondrites were first cut using a diamond-coated saw. Saw marks, fusion crust and rust were removed using corundum paper. Samples were then thoroughly cleaned in ultrapure deionized water then crushed in an agate mortar. The mortar and pestle were cleaned in an ultrasound bath with diluted HNO₃ for 15 min between each sample.

For carbonaceous chondrites (Orgueil, Murchison, Allende, NWA1757), samples had been crushed in a previous study. Aliquots weighting more than 1 g (except for NWA1757 \sim 0.5 g) were crushed to finer powders to reduce further heterogeneities between aliquots.

3.2.2 Laser fusion

Carbonaceous chondrites contain acids insoluble components, such as SiC, that show large isotope deviations up to several percent compared to terrestrial values (e.g.: Prombo et al., 1993; Savina et al., 2003; Marhas et al., 2007; Àvila et al., 2013). The relative abundances of presolar grains with "normal" solar isotopic composition or "anomalous" composition vary between meteorites (Alexander, 1993). Presolar grains are found at a level of tens to hundreds of ppm in chondrites (e.g. Huss et al., 2003) that have not be subjected to thermal metamorphism. SiC grains contain ppm level of Ba (273 ppm for mainstream grains – Marhas et al., 2007; Amari et al., 1995), and due to their large isotopic anomalies, they could influence the whole rock composition of chondrites, as long as the dissolution process is able to dissolve them partially only.

An effective method to ensure whole rock analysis is to reproduce the thermal processes that destroyed presolar grains in metamorphosed chondrites or in achondrites. Samples were fused using laser fusion similar to Bermingham et al. (2016) or Burkhardt et al. (2011). The laser fusion procedure was performed at CEHMTI (CNRS, Orléans).

Approximately 300 mg of the same samples used for acid dissolution were fused by aliquots of ~30 mg. For samples already crushed, powders were compacted in a press to form small pellets. Samples were placed into hydrodynamic levitation into an aluminium nozzle placed in a vacuum chamber. Samples were melted using two CO₂ lasers over a ~30 s heating period at 1800 K under 1 bar of N₂. The atmosphere of N₂ prevents Mo loss by oxidation during fusion. Ba is a refractory lithophile alkaline earth, with a condensation temperature $T_c^{50\%} = 1455$ K

(Lodders, 2003), and insensitive to oxygen fugacity, but Mo can be volatilized under oxidizing conditions (e.g. Fegley and Palme, 1985).

The process was applied to Orgueil (CI), Murchison (CM2), Allende (CV3) and NWA1757 (CO3.5). Except for the CO chondrite, all other fused samples were also measured after conventional acid digestion protocol for comparison to evaluate the influence of acid resistant residues.

3.2.3 Sample dissolution

Samples were dissolved in a 1:1 mixture of concentrated HF and HNO₃ for at least 48 hours in non-pressurized Teflon vials. After this first step, carbonaceous and enstatite chondrite samples were centrifuged and the residue was submitted to a second dissolution step after isolating the supernatant. The dissolved fractions in a concentrated HCl solution were then combined. Samples were dried then dissolved in concentrated aqua regia and in HCl until all fluorides were converted to a chloride form. Chondrite samples were then dissolved in water and 200 µl hydrogen peroxide was added. These samples were then placed under an ultraviolet lamp (264 nm) to remove organic matter that was not eliminated with aqua regia. Such treatment produced clear solutions for Murchison and Allende, but was unable to eliminate all organics from Orgueil. The fine black residue was centrifuged and rinsed three times in HNO₃. For all other samples, and also for the fused samples, all solutions were clear and were not centrifuged prior to separation chemistry.

3.2.4 Chemical separation

Most of our samples were also used for the isotopic analyses of other elements including Sn (Wang et al., 2016), Mo and Sr (Yobregat et al., in prep). The analytical protocol used for separating Ba is described in detail in Yobregat et al. (in prep) and a brief description is only given here. Samples were first passed through an anion-exchange resin (2 ml AG1-X8) to remove iron. For samples with high iron content such as chondrites, the column volume was increased to 10 ml. Ba along with Sr and most of matrix elements were eluted in HCl 6 M while Fe was retained on the column. This step is essential for the next separation stage involving Sr-spec resin[™] and it was shown that the presence of Fe on the column would modify the elution. Samples were loaded on a column filled with Sr-spec resin in HNO₃ 3 M. Matrix and REE were rinsed with HNO₃ 3 M, then molarity was switched to 7.5 M to elute Ba. The Sr fraction was collected in HNO₃0.05 M for further use. Ba fractions were finally processed through 1 ml

of cation-exchange AG50W X8 to remove traces of Ca, K, Ti and Al. Ba was collected in 6 M HCl after matrix then Ca was washed out with 1 M and 2.5 M HCl.

3.2.5 Isotopic analysis by thermal ionization mas spectrometry

Barium isotopic data were obtained on a thermal ionization mass spectrometer Triton Plus at ENS Lyon. Samples were taken up in 7.5 M HNO₃ and loaded onto outgassed zone refined Re filaments. A double filament configuration was preferred to single filament to avoid using an activator (see Yobregat et al., in prep for details). Measurements were done with two separate configurations. The low abundance p-process ¹³⁰Ba and ¹³²Ba were measured using a static configuration centered on ¹³⁴Ba. To increase signal/noise level, the Faraday cup used for monitoring ¹³²Ba was equipped with a 10¹² Ω resistor. The use of the 10¹² Ω resistor prevents the utilization of amplifier rotation. As the mass spectrometer is equipped with only one 10¹² Ω amplifier, ¹³⁰Ba was measured on a 10¹¹ Ω amplifier, which increases the uncertainty on ¹³⁰Ba/¹³⁶Ba ratio. With this configuration a 500 ng Ba load could produce a stable beam of ~0.5 V on ¹³²Ba over 6 hours. One run consisted of 600 – 800 integrations of 8 s, with baseline evaluation every 8 blocs (one block corresponded to 8 integrations).

For the measurement of isotopes from 134 Ba to 138 Ba, a multidynamic configuration was designed. Ba isotopes were measured with three magnet settings (with 137 Ba, 136 Ba and 135 Ba successively on the axial Faraday cup) with an 8 s integration time and separated by a 5 s idle time to allow amplifier to fully decay to baseline. Complete decay of the amplifiers within 5 s was assessed using a real ion beam instead of an electronic signal and the decay function parameters were adjusted when necessary (see Yobregat et al., in prep for details). Baselines were monitored before each block. Amplifier rotation was used, as all collectors were equipped with $10^{11} \Omega$ amplifiers. 1 µg Ba load produced a ~12 hour ion beam with 12 V on 138 Ba. A run consisted of ~1000 cycles including three lines, with 128 blocks of 8 cycles. Potential isobaric interferences from 138 La and 138 Ce were assessed by monitoring 139 La and 140 Ce beams, but those isotopes were within the background, thus, no interference correction was necessary.

The multidynamic mode cancels out any long-term drift in the Faraday cups efficiencies, such that samples can be referenced to the mean value of all standards acquired over a period of ~ 2 years. Unfortunately, only ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba and ¹³⁸Ba/¹³⁶Ba ratios could be calculated from a multidynamic reduction scheme. For the ¹³⁷Ba/¹³⁶Ba ratio, data are reported with a "multistatic" mode that corresponds to the mean of the individual ratios on each magnet setting of the multidynamic configuration. For static and multistatic ratios, samples are referenced to the

standards measured during the same data acquisition session to compensate for the long-term drift of the collectors. Both configurations are summarized in Table 2.

Mass fractionation was corrected using the reference ratio ${}^{134}\text{Ba}/{}^{136}\text{Ba} = 0.307776$ (Hidaka et al., 2001, 2013; Hidaka and Yoneda, 2011) and the exponential law. This normalization ratio has been widely used in previous studies (Ranen and Jacobsen, 2006; Carlson et al., 2007; Andreasen and Sharma, 2007; Bermingham et al., 2014). The advantage of using that ratio is that ${}^{134}\text{Ba}$ and ${}^{136}\text{Ba}$ are s-only isotopes as they are shielded by ${}^{134}\text{Xe}$ and ${}^{136}\text{Xe}$ respectively. In contrast, McCulloch and Wasserburg (1978) normalized their data to ${}^{135}\text{Ba}/{}^{138}\text{Ba}$, but this ratio is obviously not suitable for the study of ${}^{135}\text{Ba}$ anomalies. The ${}^{134}\text{Ba}/{}^{138}\text{Ba}$ ratio has also been utilized (Hidaka et al., 2003; Ranen and Jacobsen, 2006; Loss et al., 1994; Bermingham et al., 2016). However, ${}^{138}\text{Ba}$ is a mixture of both r- and s-processes (see Table 1) and if the relative proportion of these processes changes, it would be propagated to the corrected ratios. At the level of our current analytical precision (4 ppm on ${}^{135}\text{Ba}$, 15 ppm on ${}^{138}\text{Ba}$, which would be clearly resolved.

Table 2. Configuration of the collectors for the two acquisition modes used in this study.

| | Cups | | | | | Zoom optics | | | | |
|--|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------|------------|
| | L3 | L2 | L1 | Ax | H1 | H2 | Н3 | | Focus | Dispersion |
| ^{135, 138} Ba/ ¹³⁶ Ba multidynamic | | | | | | | | | | |
| Line 1 | | | ¹³⁴ Ba | ¹³⁵ Ba | ¹³⁶ Ba | ¹³⁷ Ba | ¹³⁸ Ba | | 0 V | 5 V |
| Line 2 | | ¹³⁴ Ba | ¹³⁵ Ba | ¹³⁶ Ba | ¹³⁷ Ba | ¹³⁸ Ba | ¹³⁹ La | | 0 V | 0 V |
| Line 3 | ¹³⁴ Ba | ¹³⁵ Ba | ¹³⁶ Ba | ¹³⁷ Ba | ¹³⁸ Ba | | ¹⁴⁰ Ce | | 0 V | -3.5 V |
| $^{130, 132}Ba/^{136}Ba\ static$ | | | | | | | | | | |
| Line 1 | ^{130}Ba | $^{132}Ba^{a}$ | ¹³³ Cs | ¹³⁴ Ba | ¹³⁵ Ba | ¹³⁶ Ba | 137 Ba | ¹³⁸ Ba | | |

All lines are measured with an 8 s integration time separated by 5 s idle time. Amplifier rotation was used except for the ${}^{130, 132}$ Ba/ 136 Ba static mode because of the use of a $10^{12} \Omega$ resistor on one of the collector. Zoom optics allows the perfect alignment of the peaks between each line of a multidynamic configuration without moving collectors.

a. 132 Ba is monitored on a Faraday cup equipped with a $10^{12} \Omega$ resistor

3.3 Results

The effectiveness of multidynamic mode to correct for long term drift in collectors efficiencies allows to consider all measurements of ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba and ¹³⁸Ba/¹³⁶Ba spanning over 2 years as a single session as the standard measurements are remarkably stable over that period. For the measurement of ¹³⁷Ba/¹³⁶Ba that cannot be calculated with a multidynamic scheme, results were separated into two sessions, one for year 2015 and one for year 2016. For the

 132 Ba/ 136 Ba static ratio, data were acquired using the static configuration (Table 2) during five different sessions. The influence of the long term shift on the gains of Faraday cups is more pronounced in the static mode designed specifically for measuring p-process isotopes, certainly due to the absence of the amplifier rotation and the intense ion beams produced on 136 Ba. Consequently, the μ^{132} Ba deviations are calculated within each session using the standard values closest to the sample. Data are reported in Table 3 for multidynamic configuration and Table 4 for static configuration.

A Ba solution from Alfa Æsar that was used as the terrestrial standard yielded an external reproducibility of 4 and 15 ppm on ${}^{135}\text{Ba}/{}^{136}\text{Ba}$ and ${}^{138}\text{Ba}/{}^{136}\text{Ba}$ respectively with the multidynamic configuration, 9 – 14 ppm on ${}^{137}\text{Ba}/{}^{136}\text{Ba}$ in multistatic mode and 56 – 58 ppm on ${}^{132}\text{Ba}/{}^{136}\text{Ba}$ in static mode.

Three terrestrial rock standards were used to assess that the Ba purification chemistry as well as TIMS measurements did not induce any isotopic anomalies. Data are reported in Table 3 and 4. All terrestrial rocks (BHVO-1 basalt, AGV-1 andesite and G-2 granite) were found to be indistinguishable within error from Ba standard for all isotopic ratios.
| Samples | Туре | µ ¹³⁵ Ba | $\pm 2\sigma$ | μ ¹³⁷ Ba | $\pm 2\sigma$ | µ ¹³⁸ Ba | $\pm 2\sigma$ |
|-------------------------|---------------|---------------------|---------------|---------------------|---------------|---------------------|---------------|
| Terrestrial samples | Jr- | r. 2n | | r == | | r. – w | |
| RHVO 1 | Bacalt | 0 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 10 | 17 |
| BHVO-1 | Dasalt | -3 | 3 | 7 | / A | -10 | 8 |
| BHVO-1 | Basalt | -3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | -10 | 6 |
| BHVO-1 | Basalt | -4 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 32 | 5 |
| BHVO-1 | Basalt | -4 | 3 | -3 | 4 | -3 | 9 |
| BHVO-1 | Basalt | -3 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 13 | 4 |
| BHVO-1 | Basalt | -1 | 3 | 10 | 3 | 12 | 7 |
| G-2 | Granite | -3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 8 | 6 |
| G-2 | Granite | -3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | -5 | 5 |
| AGV-1 | Andesite | 0 | 2 | -10 | 2 | 1 | 5 |
| AGV-1 | Andesite | 3 | 6 | -3 | 7 | 7 | 14 |
| AGV-1 | Andesite | -3 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 22 | 5 |
| Mean Earth | | -2 | 4 | 2 | 11 | 9 | 7 |
| Ordinary chondrites | | | | | | | |
| Fisher | L6 | -1 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 8 |
| Edmonson | H4 | -4 | 2 | 14 | 3 | 5 | 6 |
| Mean OC | | -2 | 3 | 9 | 9 | 4 | 2 |
| Martian meteorites | | | | | | | |
| NWA1068 | Shergottite | -4 | 2 | 6 | 2 | -2 | 5 |
| NWA856 | Shergottite | -1 | 2 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 5 |
| NWA856 | Shergottite | 5 | 2 | 7 | 2 | 5 | 5 |
| NWA2737 | Chassignite | -3 | 3 | 7 | 3 | -3 | 8 |
| NWA2737 | Chassignite | 0 | 2 | -8 | 2 | -6 | 5 |
| Mean Mars | 0 | 0 | 3 | 2 | 11 | 0 | 3 |
| Angrites | | | | | | | |
| NWA4590 | Angrite | -2 | 2 | 3 | 3 | -3 | 6 |
| NWA4590 | Angrite | 4 | 2 | 2 | 2 | -10 | 5 |
| D'Orbigny | Angrite | 4 | 2 | 5 | 2 | -9 | 5 |
| SAH99555 | Angrite | 2 | 2 | 7 | 3 | -4 | 6 |
| Mean Angrites | c | 2 | 2 | 4 | 2 | -6 | 4 |
| Carbonaceous chondrites | | | | | | | |
| Allende non-fused #1 | CV3 | 35 | 4 | 15 | 4 | 10 | 9 |
| Allende non-fused #2 | CV3 | 34 | 2 | 23 | 2 | 9 | 5 |
| Allende non-fused #3 | CV3 | 33 | 3 | 27 | 3 | -4 | 6 |
| Allende non-fused #3bis | CV3 | 31 | 3 | 24 | 4 | 6 | 8 |
| Mean Allende non-fused | | 33 | 2 | 22 | 5 | 5 | 6 |
| Allende fused | CV3 | 36 | 2 | 23 | 2 | 1 | 5 |
| Murchison non-fused | CM2 | 7 | 2 | 10 | 3 | -5 | 5 |
| Murchison fused | CM2 | 26 | 4 | 13 | 5 | -6 | 11 |
| Orgueil non-fused | CI | 13 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 10 | 7 |
| Orgueil fused | CI | 0 | 4 | -2 | 4 | 17 | 9 |
| NWA1757 fused | CO3.5 | 12 | 2 | 6 | 2 | -4 | 4 |
| Lunar samples | | | | | | | |
| 74255 | High-Ti | -2 | 2 | -6 | 3 | 5 | 6 |
| 15555 | Low-Ti basalt | -2 | 2 | -1 | 2 | 4 | 5 |
| 60025 | FAN | -4 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 5 |
| Mean Moon | | -2 | 2 | -2 | 10 | 4 | 3 |
| Enstatite chondrites | | | | | | | |
| Abee | EH4 | -2 | 5 | 8 | 5 | 8 | 10 |

Table 3. Barium isotope compositions of samples measured in this study reported as deviations to the terrestrial standard in ppm.

(Table 3. Continued)

Data are normalized to ${}^{134}\text{Ba}/{}^{136}\text{Ba} = 0.307776$ (Hidaka et al., 2011). μ values are calculated with $\mu^{i}\text{Ba} = (({}^{i}\text{Ba}/{}^{136}\text{Ba})_{sample}/({}^{i}\text{Ba}/{}^{136}\text{Ba})_{standard} - 1) \times 10^{6}$. Uncertainties on samples are the 2 S.D. of the mean. When samples were measured only once, the 2 σ reported is the external precision of the standard (2 SD).

Table 4. Barium isotope compositions for the p-process isotopes of samples measured in this study reported as deviations to the terrestrial standard in ppm.

| Samples | Session | Туре | n | $\mu^{130} Ba$ | 2 σ | $\mu^{132}\text{Ba}$ | 2 σ |
|--|----------------------------|--|-----------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Ba standard | | | | | | | |
| Std #1 Std #2 Std #3 | 1 2 3 | | 4 5 13 | | 16 76 88 | | 26 47 38 |
| Std #4 Std #5 | 4 5 | | 8 6 | | 174 | | 49 62 |
| Terrestrial samples | | | | | | | |
| BHVO-1 BHVO-1 Mean Earth | 1 3 | Basalt Basalt | 6 2 | -11 61 25 | 37 157 102 | 7 24 16 | 24 51 25 |
| Ordinary chondrites | | | | | | | |
| Ioka | 4 | L3.5 | 1 | -7 | 174 | 22 | 49 |
| Martian meteorites | | | | | | | |
| Zagami NWA856 NWA2737 NWA856 | 3 4 4 5 | Shergottite Shergottite Chassignite Shergottite | 2 1 2 1 | 35 -30 -8 | 119 174 1 | 14 -14 -1 -2 | 8 49 2 62 22 |
| Angritas | | | | -1 | 01 | -1 | 23 |
| SAH99555 SAH99555 D'Orbigny NWA4590 Mean angrites | 2 3 2 2 | Angrite Angrite Angrite Angrite | 3 2 5 1 | 49 66 -52 -11 12 | 32 58 32 76 108 | -12 44 1 7 10 | 14 30 24 47 48 |
| Carbonaceous chondrites | | | | | | | |
| Allende non-fused Allende fused Murchison fused Murchison non-fused Orgueil non-fused NWA1757 fused | 3 5 3 4 5 3 | CV3 CV3 CM2 CM2 CI CO3.5 | 1 1 1 1 1 | 37 24 151 | 88 88 174 88 | 104 160 -47 66 89 -81 | 38 62 38 49 62 38 |
| Lunar samples | - | | | | | | |
| 60025 | 4 | FAN | 2 | -77 | 59 | -13 | 9 |
| Enstatite chondrite | | | | · | | - | |
| Abee Abee Mean enstatite chondrites | 4 5 | EH4 EH4 | 1 1 | -78 | 174 | 275 162 219 | 49 62 160 |

Data are normalized to ${}^{134}Ba/{}^{136}Ba = 0.307776$ (Hidaka et al., 2011). μ values are calculated with $\mu^{i}Ba = (({}^{i}Ba/{}^{136}Ba)_{sample}/({}^{i}Ba/{}^{136}Ba)_{standard} - 1) \times 10^{6}$. Uncertainties on samples are the 2 S.D. of the mean. When samples were measured only once, the 2σ reported is the external precision of the standard. Due to the long-term drift in the Faraday cups efficiency, μ deviations are calculated using standards measured during the same session.

3.3.1 Ba isotope anomalies in r- and s-process nuclides

A remarkable observation is that the abundances of 135,137,138 Ba in angrites, martian meteorites, ordinary chondrites, and lunar samples are identical within error to the terrestrial Ba standard. The absence of any Ba anomalies in ordinary chondrites and lunar samples is in agreement with published data (Andreasen and Sharma, 2007; Carlson et al., 2007; Bermingham et al., 2016). The enstatite chondrite Abee (EH4) also has no resolvable anomaly in 135 Ba, 137 Ba, and 138 Ba. This result differs from Bermingham et al. (2016) and Carlson et al. (2007) who reported a 10 – 17 ppm anomaly on another EH4 chondrite (Indarch).

The carbonaceous chondrite Allende (CV3) show resolvable positive anomalies in μ^{135} Ba (33 ± 2 ppm) and ¹³⁷Ba (22 ± 5 ppm) with a slight anomaly in μ^{138} Ba (6 ± 6 ppm) but a greater precision would be required to confirm its presence. The fused aliquot has the same values within error (μ^{135} Ba = 36 ± 2 ppm; μ^{137} Ba = 23 ± 3 ppm; μ^{138} Ba = 1 ± 5 ppm) as the acid digested sample. Other studies report such anomalies in CV3 chondrites (Hidaka et al., 2003; Carlson et al., 2007; Andreasen and Sharma, 2007; Bermingham et al., 2016). Bermingham et al. (2016) also used a laser fusion technique to avoid incomplete dissolution of carbonaceous chondrites. Their comparison of laser-fused and acid digested samples from Allende exhibited no differences between their Ba isotope compositions, which is similar to the values reported here.

Amongst other carbonaceous chondrites, Orgueil has a small, barely resolvable, anomaly in μ^{135} Ba similar between fused and acid-digested samples (fused: 5 ± 4 ppm; acid digested: 6 ±3 ppm), and no resolvable anomaly in μ^{137} Ba and μ^{138} Ba. These results differ from those of previous studies (Harper et al., 1991; Carlson et al., 2007; Bermingham et al., 2016) who had reported positive anomalies for CI chondrites. However Bermingham et al. (2016) reported two different μ^{135} Ba values for Orgueil on two fused aliquots taken from samples originating from two different museum collections. The sample used here comes from yet another collection (MNHN Paris) and it is possible that bulk compositions of the three pieces are different. The CO3.5 NWA 1757 chondrite has a small positive anomaly in μ^{138} Ba.

For the Murchison CM2 chondrite, the fused aliquot has a higher anomaly in μ^{135} Ba (26 ± 4) than that measured by Bermingham et al. (2016) (14 ± 13). Among all the carbonaceous chondrites, this sample is the one characterized by the highest difference in μ^{135} Ba between fused and acid-digested samples (~20 ppm).



Figure 1. Ba isotope compositions of samples analyzed in this study. Individual samples are reported when data are available in both ¹³²Ba and ¹³⁵Ba configuration modes (see Table 2). Values for ¹³⁰Ba and ¹³²Ba were rescaled by a factor ten to plot on the same scale. The value given here is the average of ordinary chondrites measured in both modes. The errors bars represent the 2 σ of the replicate samples. For samples that were measured only once, the reported 2 σ corresponds to that of the standard. The shaded area indicates the external reproducibility (2 σ) of the standard.

3.3.2 ¹³²Ba abundances in meteorites

The only small anomalies in μ^{132} Ba were found in the carbonaceous chondrites, with the exception of a positive anomaly for the EH4 chondrite Abee (219 ± 160 ppm). The precision of the current data (26 – 58 ppm) is two times better than those of previous data set on whole rock meteorites (Andreasen and Sharma, 2007; Carlson et al., 2007; Bermingham et al., 2014, 2016) which allows the identification of small (< 100 ppm) anomalies for this isotope that were previously not resolvable. Allende (acid-digested) has an anomaly of 104 ± 38 ppm, similar

within error to the value of the fused sample (160 ± 62 ppm). Murchison (acid-digested) has a smaller yet resolvable positive anomaly (66 ± 49 ppm). Yet in contrast with Allende, the Murchison fused sample is 110 ppm below the acid-digested sample ($\mu^{132}Ba = -47 \pm 33$ ppm). The CO3.5 NWA 1757 has a negative anomaly of -81 ± 38 ppm.

3.4 Discussion

3.4.1 Origin of Ba isotopic anomalies

3.4.1.1 Homogeneity of samples and incomplete dissolution

Primitive chondrites that did not undergo thermal metamorphism contain tens to hundreds of ppm of presolar grains, mostly SiC and spinel with some nanodiamonds (e.g.: Huss and Lewis, 1995; Huss et al., 2003). These refractory materials are difficult to dissolve using conventional acid dissolution (see the procedure of Amari et al., 1994). Presolar grains are nano- to micro- meters in size and complete dissolution cannot be assessed by optical means. Bermingham et al. (2016) compared the composition of two aliquots from the same Allende powder, one dissolved only with acid digestion, and the other one fused prior to acid dissolution. The Ba isotopic composition of both aliquots was found to be similar within error. In this study, the same test was applied to carbonaceous chondrites, Allende (CV3), Murchison (CM2), NWA1757 (CO3.5) and Orgueil (CI). The Ba isotopic composition of Allende is identical for all isotopes within analytical uncertainties for both fused and acid-digested samples. However, this is not the case for Murchison and Orgueil. The fused Murchison aliquot has a higher μ^{135} Ba value and a lower μ^{132} Ba value than the acid-digested aliquot (Figure 1, Tables 2-3). For the Orgueil meteorite, the fused sample has no anomaly in ¹³⁵Ba in contrast with the small but resolvable anomaly observed for the sample that was treated with aciddigestion dissolution only. This is consistent with the results of Qin et al. (2011) who reported ¹³²Ba excesses in Murchison leachates, although their whole rock composition calculated from individual leachates and residue still shows a positive μ^{132} Ba while the fused sample in this study does not. However, it cannot be set aside that a minor fraction of the Murchison residue of Qin et al. (2011) could have remained undissolved after acid digestion. For the Orgueil sample, the amount of powder available was too low to allow the measurement with both cup configurations; thus, no ¹³²Ba data was obtained on the fused Orgueil sample. There is small difference in μ^{135} Ba with the fused sample having no anomaly while the acid-digested one shows a + 13 ppm excess.

The discrepancy in Ba isotopic composition between fused and non-fused samples for Murchison, and to a smaller extent for Orgueil, shows that incomplete dissolution of acid-resistant components can result in apparent nucleosynthetic anomalies in bulk meteorite samples. The clear difference for Murchison and Orgueil but not for Allende could be explained by the difference in their presolar grains abundances. Allende contains far less presolar SiC grains (~0.01 ppm SiC; Huss and Lewis, 1995) than Murchison (~13.5 ppm SiC; Huss et al., 2003) or Orgueil (~14.2 ppm SiC; Huss et al., 2003). However, if the anomaly was only carried by SiC grains, the non-fused samples of Murchison and Orgueil should have much larger anomalies than Allende. It is possible than the carrier of Ba anomalies in carbonaceous chondrites was partially processed on the CV parent body. Presolar spinels and silicates could also be one of the carriers of the anomalies as their abundance is higher in Allende (2096 ppm SiC + spinels; Huss and Lewis, 1995) and Murchison (1640 ppm SiC + spinels; Huss et al., 2003) than in Orgueil (88 ppm SiC + spinels; Huss and Lewis, 1995), which could explain why anomalies on Allende and Murchison are larger. These phases are more likely to be dissolved, even partially, during acid-digestion.

The presence of undisolved, acid-resistant presolar phases contributes to the nucleosynthetic anomalies observed in Ba. However, uncomplete dissolution cannot explain the whole magnitude of the anomalies, implying that other carriers, such as presolar silicates, are needed to explain the isotopic variations.

3.4.1.2 Nucleosynthetic origin

It is noteworthy that except for carbonaceous chondrites, all the planetary objects we analyzed have no Ba anomalies, implying that the inner solar system was homogenous. The only Ba isotope anomalies are found for carbonaceous chondrites. Variations in the abundances of the s- and r- processes have been proposed to explain part or totality of Ba isotope anomalies in whole rock meteorites and leaching experiments (Hidaka et al., 2001, 2003, 2013; Hidaka and Yoneda, 2011; Carlson et al., 2007; Andreasen and Sharma, 2007; Qin et al., 2011; Bermigham et al., 2014, 2016). Figure 2 shows the anomalies expected for variations of the r-, s- and p-process, and the Ba isotopes pattern corresponding to their endmember cases. Ba is almost entirely produced by r and s processes with only a minor contribution from the p-process. Consequently, the relative variations in r and s process will produce similar patterns except for the p-process isotopes ¹³⁰Ba and ¹³²Ba. Due to the normalization to two s-only isotopes, variations in r-process will not affect the ratio of the normalizing isotopes, while an s-process variation will modify the p/s ratio or the r/s ratio.



Figure 2. Ba nucleosynthetic patterns for variations of the r-, s-, and p-processes. Patterns were calculated using abundances from Bisterzo et al. (2014) and solar abundances of Lodders et al. (2009). Variations are scaled to $\mu^{135}Ba = 100$ for r- and s- processes variations and $\mu^{132}Ba = 100$ for p-process variations. Ba is mostly produced by the r- and s-processes. The p-process component of the arrow indicating the s-process deficit has been arbitrarily exaggerated to underline the effect on p-process isotopes caused by an s-process deficit. At the actual scale of the figure, the s-process deficit arrow would be undistinguishable from that of the r-process excess.

Figure 3 shows that the isotope pattern of Allende can be reproduced by a combination of rprocess excess with a slight p-process excess. An s-process deficit could explain the anomalies in μ^{135} Ba and μ^{137} Ba but would produce too high an anomaly in p-process isotopes.

By plotting all the data for carbonaceous chondrites from this study together with published values a clear correlation appears with a μ^{135} Ba/ μ^{137} Ba ratio of 1.55 ± 0.3 (2 σ) (Figure 4). A regression using only the data produced in this study yields a slope of 1.49 ± 0.4 (2 σ). This value is similar to a mixing array between a terrestrial composition and a typical AGB component with a slope of 1.54 ± 0.2 (2 σ) with the s process component represented by mainstream SiC grains (Avila et al., 2013), as SiC are free of Cs (Lugaro et al., 2003). Thus

there is apparently no resolvable radiogenic component due to 135 Cs decay such that all anomalies in their isotopic Ba composition comes from nucleosynthetic variations. These grains have most certainly been formed in low mass AGB stars before their enrichment in s-process nucleosynthesis. A pure s-process component would yield a μ^{135} Ba/ μ^{137} Ba ~0.5 (Arlandini et al., 1999; Bisterzo et al., 2014). A mixing line resulting from the addition of a solar r-process component would produce a slope of 1.94 (Bisterzo et al., 2014), and the addition of a SNII rprocess component would produce a slope of ~0.85 (Rauscher et al., 2002). The most likely explanation for the anomalies found in carbonaceous chondrites is the presence of one or several carriers formed in a low mass AGB star environment that were not fully homogenized when the carbonaceous chondrites accreted.



Figure 3. Comparison of predicted patterns for s-deficit or r-excess coupled to a p-process excess with observed anomalies in Allende. The errors bars represent the 2σ of the replicate samples. For samples that were measured only once, the 2σ reported corresponds to the standard. The shaded area indicates the external reproducibility (2σ) of the standard.

Ba isotope anomalies have been studied together with Nd and Sm anomalies in whole rock meteorites (Andreasen and Sharma, 2006, 2007; Carlson et al., 2007). Those studies interpret the isotopic variations observed in Ba to a r-process excess or a s-process deficit, possibly due to incomplete dissolution of s-process rich SiC, but their isotopic data for Sm and Nd are not in agreement with the theoretical isotopic compositions based on Ba results. They proposed that the carriers of Ba and lanthanides were decoupled or that different nucleosynthetic processes were involved in the abundances of Ba and the lanthanides. This last explanation is similar to the interpretations of Brennecka et al. (2013) who proposed two distinct sources of r-process nuclides in CAIs for elements with mass lower than 140 (including Ba) and for masses > 140 (including lanthanides). However, based on measurements in whole rock meteorites, Burkhardt et al. (2016) interpreted the abundance of Nd isotopes by an s-process deficit coupled to p-process excess in carbonaceous chondrites while the CAI pattern was explained by an s-excess and p-deficit in CAIs. They interpreted the variation in Nd isotopes to be linked to the

admixture of CAIs into carbonaceous chondrites. The coupling of an s-deficit with a p-excess in carbonaceous chondrites is actually consistent with the Ba isotope data (Figure 3).



Figure 4. μ^{135} Ba vs. μ^{137} Ba for carbonaceous chondrites from this study (black symbols) and published values (blue symbols) from Bermingham et al. (2016), Carlson et al. (2007), and Andreasen and Sharma (2007). Fused samples are represented by plain symbols and open symbols correspond to acid-digested samples. Grey area represents the mixing array between terrestrial composition and SiC corresponding to AGB component (data from Avila et al., 2013). Dashed line shows the regression on carbonaceous chondrites yielding a slope of 1.5 ± 0.3 (2 σ). The plain black line represents the production ratio of a solar r-process (Arlandini et al., 1999). All regressions were made using Isoplot and the algorithm of York (1969) which takes into account individual errors. Error bars on samples are the 2 σ of samples.

However, in the case of Ba, CAIs do not show s-process excess but more likely enrichment in r-process (Brennecka et al., 2013; Bermingham et al., 2014). However, it is likely that the carriers for r and s process nuclides responsible for Ba and lanthanide anomalies are different. Nevertheless, it is possible that the p-process excess reported by Burkhardt et al. (2016) for Nd isotopes also apply to Ba isotopes provided that the processes controlling p-process variations are similar. In this case, the observed variations in Ba in carbonaceous chondrites would be the result of an s-process deficit, linked to an AGB component similar to SiC, with a small pprocess excess. The departure of CAIs from the array defined by SiC (figure 5) could be the result of their enrichment in r-process isotopes from several sources as suggested by Brennecka et al. (2013).

Kratz et al. (2007) calculated the yields for pure r-process Ba in halo stars. Their predictions for r-process match the solar r-process for a neutron number density $\sim 10^{22}$ n/cm³ yielding a ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁷Ba ratio of ~5.9. Data for CAIs (Brennecka et al., 2013; Bermingham et al., 2014) are plotted along with fused carbonaceous chondrites (data from this study and Bermingham et al., 2016) in Figure 5. The enrichment in CAIs could thus be the result of admixing of such a pure r-

process component to a solar composition. This interpretation is clearly different from the suggestion of Bermingham et al. (2016) who argued that the ¹³⁵Ba anomalies in CAI was due to ¹³⁵Cs decay in the vapor phase followed by condensation of radiogenic ¹³⁵Ba.



Figure 5. μ^{135} Ba vs. μ^{137} Ba for fused samples of carbonaceous chondrites from this study (black symbols) and from Bermingham et al. (2016) (blue symbols) and for CAIs (Brennecka et al., 2013; Bermingham et al., 2014). Dashed line shows the regression on fused carbonaceous chondrites. The plain green line represents the production ratio of a pure r-process as calculated by Kratz et al. (2007) for halo stars.

3.4.2 ¹³⁵Cs initial abundance in the solar system

The anomalies observed in ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba in carbonaceous chondrites and CAIs and in the leachates of carbonaceous chondrites and ordinary chondrites have been interpreted as the result of the decay of the short-lived ¹³⁵Cs ($t_{1/2} = 1.6$ Ma, MacDonald et al., 2016) leading to in growth of ~50 ppm on ¹³⁵Ba (Hidaka et al., 2001, 2003, 2013; Hidaka and Yoneda, 2011; Bermingham et al., 2014, 2016; Srinivisan et al., 2011; Nichols et al., 2002; McCulloch and Wasserburg, 1978; Andreasen and Sharma, 2007). It was acknowledged in the earlier studies that the ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs estimate of 1.6 x 10⁻⁴ given by Wasserburg et al. (1996) on the basis of observed ¹³⁵Ba deficiencies in Allende FUN CAI by McCulloch and Wasserburg (1978) could have been affected by variations in r/s process nuclides as obvious in μ^{137} Ba anomalies. Thus a precise determination of ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs requires either internal isochron based on well dated meteorites and a precise apportionment of the contribution of p-, r- and s-process.

Thus, it is clear that the initial ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs ratio of the solar system remains poorly constrained. Previous studies aimed at drawing isochrons for ¹³⁵Cs – ¹³⁵Ba system based on the measurement of ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba resulting from leaching experiments (Hidaka et al., 2001, 2003; Hidaka and Yoneda, 2011; Srinivisan et al., 2011; Nichols et al., 2002). Calculated initial

¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs ratios for chondrites cover a large range from 10⁻⁶ up to 10⁻³ (Hidaka et al., 2011; Srinivisan et al., 2011). The high mobility of Cs on parent body makes difficult to reconstruct an initial value for the Solar System as the measured Cs/Ba elemental ratios could have been modified. Nichols et al. (2002) inferred an initial ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs ratio for the Solar System of (1.4 ± 0.6) x 10⁻⁴ from an Allende FUN CAI. Recently, Bermingham et al. (2014) deduced an initial ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs ratio of 2.8 ×10⁻⁴ for CAIs to explain μ^{135} Ba excesses decoupled from μ^{137} Ba. ¹³⁵Ba radiogenic excesses were calculated after removal of a nucleosynthetic component assessed using regression on bulk meteorites giving a μ^{135} Ba/ μ^{137} Ba~1.6. However, their model requires a superchondritic elemental Cs/Ba ratio in the CAI environnent. They suggested that CAIs showing enrichments in ¹³⁵Ba decoupled from ¹³⁷Ba were the result of CAIs formation in a gas enriched in Cs. However this model requires a protracted history for the formation of CAIs in contradiction with their ²⁶Al ages (Krot et al., 2009) and U-Pb ages (Amelin et al. 2008; Bouvier et al. 2010). Bermingham et al. (2014) estimated their initial ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs ratio for CI chondrite Cs/Ba ratio and with a 3.32 Ma half-life for ¹³⁵Cs.

To assess an initial ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs using whole rock Ba isotopic data, one must obtain the highest precision on ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba ratios. Any nucleosynthetic anomalies affecting the ¹³⁵Ba abundance in the samples analyzed here must be corrected for. If any evidence for ¹³⁵Cs decay is to be found in whole rock meteorites, CI chondrites would be the most likely candidates as these meteorites are the most volatile rich samples in the Solar System. The fused Orgueil sample analyzed in this study shows no isotopic anomaly in μ^{135} Ba (-0.2 ± 4 ppm), once one takes into account the ¹³⁷Ba-¹³⁵Ba correlation discussed in section 4.1.2. The initial ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs can thus be calculated from the maximum radiogenic excess in ¹³⁵Ba in CI chondrites, which have a solar Cs/Ba elemental ratio of ~0.078 (Lodders et al., 2009)

$$\frac{{}^{135}Cs}{{}^{133}Cs}\Big|_{initial} = \frac{{}^{135}Ba^*}{{}^{136}Ba}\Big/\frac{{}^{133}Cs}{{}^{136}Ba} \quad (1)$$

Considering a maximum anomaly of 4 ppm (corresponding to the analytical uncertainty) on ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba and attributing all the anomaly to ¹³⁵Cs decay, the initial ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs is $\leq 4 \times 10^{-6}$, which is lower than published values. The angrites are taken as the initial ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba due to their extreme depletion in moderately volatile elements that took place less than 1 Myr after CAI (Hans et al., 2013). It is interesting to underline that both the most volatile-rich and volatile-poor objects in the Solar System, CI chondrites and angrites respectively, have the same μ^{135} Ba within error. Recent ²⁶Al-²⁶Mg on angrites also indicate a very early age of accretion for these objects (< 0.25 Ma, Schiller et al., 2015; Kleine et al. 2012) which further supports the early age of volatile element depletion in angrites. If ¹³⁵Cs was present in significant quantities, the volatile depletion on angrites recorded by the ⁸⁷Rb – ⁸⁷Sr chronometer would also have fractionated the Cs/Ba ratio. Consequently, the angrites should have a negative ¹³⁵Ba anomaly

compared to CI chondrites. Using the initial ${}^{135}Cs/{}^{133}Cs = 1 \times 10^{-4}$ (Bermingham et al., 2014), angrites should have a $\mu^{135}Ba$ 74 ppm lower than CI.

3.4.3 Constraints from ¹³⁵Cs for the origin of short-lived radionuclides in the Solar System

With a halflife of 1.6 Ma, ¹³⁵Cs is a short-lived radionuclide (SLR) comparable with ⁵³Mn, ⁶⁰Fe or ²⁶Al. If ¹³⁵Cs was produced long ago before the formation of the solar system, it would have decayed away during the formation of the molecular cloud then its collapse and finally the formation of the first solids of the solar system. SLRs with very short half-lives could also have come from later inputs occurring between formation of the molecular cloud and condensation of the first solids in the solar system (Wasserburg et al., 1994, 2006; Dauphas, 2005; Huss et al., 2009). Constraining the source(s) of these inputs should shed some light on the environment of the young Solar system. Some SLRs are consistent with an origin from the galactic background with no addition required to match their observed initial isotopic abundance. The observed initial abundances of ¹²⁹I ($t_{1/2} = 16$ Ma) are consistent with a free decay of ~100 Ma between the last injection and the formation of the first solids (e.g. Nittler and Dauphas, 2005). Generally, SLRs with a longer half-life do no not require a late input. However, SLRs with a half-life shorter than ¹²⁹I seem to require a late addition to explain their initial values observed in meteorites. To account for this, two types of models have been developed, discrete injections of SRLs close to the Solar System formation (Wasserburg et al., 1994, 2006) or continuous enrichment of the molecular cloud by its external environment (Clayton et al., 1983; Jacobsen, 2005; Huss et al., 2009). In the first scenario, the abundances of the injected SLRs will only depend on the production ratio in the input source and the dilution factor, while the second scenario creates a link between mean lifetimes of the SLRs and their abundances recorded in the early Solar System. One difficulty in understanding the origin of the SLRs are the inconsistencies in the determination of the initial radionuclide (R) to stable (S) isotope ratio. For example, the initial ⁶⁰Fe/⁵⁶Fe calculated by Tang and Dauphas (2012) does not require late injection as it is low enough compared to the ISM value. In contrast, Wadhwa et al. (2011) found a higher value of ⁶⁰Fe/⁵⁶Fe, which could only be accounted for by a late input into the early Solar System. From an astrophysical viewpoint, Ouellette et al. (2009) following earlier work by Cameron et al. (1993) proposed that a quantitative model for the late injection of SN material into the disk that would have triggered the collapse of the molecular cloud leading to the formation of the solar nebula. Wasserburg et al. (2006) rejected the hypothesis of a late SN injection alone, based on the fact that the production of ⁵³Mn in these environments is too efficient, thereby leading to an over abundance in this SLR. A late injection of SN products has also been proposed by Brennecka et al. (2013) on the basis of r-process enrichments in Sr, Zr,Mo, Ru, and Ba associated with r-process deficits in Nd and Sm in CAIs. A very late injection, after the formation of the first solids could also explain why FUN CAIs are depleted in ²⁶Al (Ouellette et al., 2009). Overall, the origin of SLR is thus very controversial and any new observation pertaining to this issue is therefore critical.

| R/S | τ (Ma) | N_R/N_S | P_R/P_S | Refs. |
|--------------------------------------|------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|------------|
| $^{26}Al/^{27}Al$ | 1.07 | 5.0 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 3.17 x 10 ⁻³ | 1 |
| ⁴¹ Ca/ ⁴⁰ Ca | 0.14 | 1.5 x 10 ⁻⁸ | 1.80 x 10 ⁻³ | 2 |
| ⁵³ Mn/ ⁵⁵ Mn | 5.34 | 6.5 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.16 | 3 |
| ⁶⁰ Fe/ ⁵⁶ Fe | 2.16 | 1.2 x 10 ⁻⁸ | 1.17 x 10 ⁻³ | 4 |
| ¹⁰⁷ Pd/ ¹⁰⁸ Pd | 9.38 | 5.9 x 10 ⁻⁵ | 1.36 | 5 |
| ¹²⁹ I/ ¹²⁷ I | 23.1 | $1.0 \ge 10^{-4}$ | 1.45 | 6 |
| ¹³⁵ Cs/ ¹³³ Cs | 2.3 ^a | 4.0 x 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.43 | this study |
| $^{146}Sm/^{144}Sm$ | 149 | 8.5 x 10 ⁻³ | 0.95 | 7 |
| ¹⁸² Hf/ ¹⁸⁰ Hf | 13.0 | 1.0 x 10 ⁻⁴ | 0.60 | 8 |
| ²⁴⁴ Pu/ ²³² Th | 117 | 3.0 x 10 ⁻³ | 0.67 | 9 |
| ²³⁵ U/ ²³² Th | 1015 | 1.3 x 10 ⁻¹ | 1.11 | 10 |

Table 5. Mean lifetimes, early solar system abundances (N_R/N_S) and production ratios (P_R/P_S) for short-lived radionuclides.

As Pu and U have no stable isotope, ²⁴⁴Pu and ²³⁵U are normalized to the long-lived ²³²Th (τ = 20 Ga). See Jacobsen et al. (2005).

a. The half-life of ¹³⁵Cs has recently been reduced to 1.6 Ma (MacDonald et al., 2016) compared to the formerly accepted value of 2.3 Ma (Sugarman, 1949; Zeldes et al., 1949; Parker et al., 1955).

References for early Solar System abundances: 1. Jacobsen et al. (2008); 2. Srinivasan et al. (1996); 3. Trinquier et al. (2008); 4. Tang and Dauphas (2002); 5. Schönbächler et al. (2008); 6. Brazzle et al. (1999); 7. Boyet et al. (2010); 8. Kleine et al. (2005); Hudson et al. (1989); Wasserburg et al. (1996). Production ratios from Rauscher et al. (2002), Meyer et al. (2000), Wasserburg et al. (1994), Cameron et al. (1993) and Jacobsen (2005), Dauphas (2005).

Figure 6 shows the early Solar System abundances inferred from isotopic analysis of meteorites normalized to their production ratio (see Table 5) for ²⁶Al, ⁴¹Ca, ⁵³Mn, ⁶⁰Fe, ¹⁰⁷Pd, ¹²⁹I, ¹³⁵Cs, ¹⁴⁶Sm, ²³⁵U, and ²⁴⁴Pu, plotted against their mean lifetimes (see Figure 6 and Table 5 for references. We show for reference three classical models: (1) A "free-decay" model for the molecular cloud evolution Hohenberg, 1969; Wasserburg et al., 2006), (2) A model with continuous enrichment of molecular cloud with a 100 Ma mixing time and (3) a steady state model for interstellar medium (ISM). In free-decay model, the molecular cloud, or the portion that would have given birth to Solar System has been isolated from the rest of the galaxy for 100 Myr before Solar System formation. This model reproduces the observed abundances of the r-process elements ¹²⁹I, ²³⁵U, and ²⁴⁴Pu, and of the ¹⁴⁶Sm nuclide formed by the γ -process. All these isotopes are assumed to be produced by SNII explosions. The continuous enrichment

model is a two reservoir box model where the molecular cloud reservoir is continuously supplied in SLRs by the intercloud medium. The model is chosen to be 100 Myr. This timescale provides the best fit for the abundances of 107 Pd, 135 Cs, and 182 Hf, produced mainly by the s-process, along with 60 Fe and 53 Mn. Most isotopes with a half-life shorter than 129 I, including 135 Cs, fall close to the two-reservoir model, which disagrees with models based on a late input (Bermingham et al., 2016). 41 Ca and 22 Al are above the two-reservoir line and, for 26 Al, even above the steady-state ISM line. Both isotopes do require a late input that did not affect other SLRs budget (e.g. Srinivasan et al., 1996 Davis and Keegan, 2014). 135 Cs is mostly an s-process element efficiently produced in AGE but not in SN (Rauscher et al., 2002) nor in Wolf-Rayet winds (production ratio in the range of $10^{-4} < ^{135}$ Cs/ 133 Cs $< 10^{-3}$ Dearborn and Blake, 1988) which have been proposed as an explanation for 26 Al overproduction compared to 60 Fe (Tang and Dauphas, 2002). In the case of 25 Al and 41 Ca whose initial abundances still require a late addition in the Solar System by imadiation or Wolf-Rayet winds are plausible explanations for their enrichment without injection of 135 Cs.



Figure 6. Early Solar System abundances (NR/NS) of short-lived radionuclides normalized to their nucleosynthetic production ratios (PR/PS) as a function of their mean lifetime ($t = 1/\lambda = t_{1/2}/\ln 2$). Green dots are nuclides whose abundances are best explained by a continuous supply of the molecular cloud by the IS M (e.g. Ranen, 2005). They are mainly produced by the s-process (for nuclides with masses > 56). Blue dots corresponds to r-process nuclides, which are in accordance with a 100 Myr free-decay model. The ¹⁴⁶Sm nuclide (orange dot) is produced by photodesintegration in SNII. Red dots are nuclides whose observed abundances require addition by other sources, such Wolf-Rayet winds or

irradiation. Plain black curve shows model abundance for ISM steady-state assuming an age of 7.5 Ga for the Galaxy. Plain black curve represents the model of Jacobsen (2005) for a two-reservoir mixing model for the ISM where the molecular cloud is continuously supplied in SLR by the intercloud medium considering a residence time in molecular could of 100 Myr. Grey curve is based on the model of Hohenberg (1969) and Schramm and Wasserburg (1970). In this model, the molecular cloud was isolated from the rest of the ISM for a time $\Delta t = 100$ Myr before the formation of the Solar System. During this "free-decay" time, only radioactive decay modified the (NR/NS) ratio. This figure was modified from Jacobsen (2005) and Huss et al. (2009).

The new Solar System initial ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs ratio determined in this study contrasts with previous values that required a late injection of AGB material in order to explained the overabundance of ¹³⁵Cs compared to other SLR like ⁶⁰Fe also produced in AGB stars. Low mass AGB stars are stellar environments rarely associated with regions of stars formation (Kastner and Myers, 1994) and this observation was difficult to reconcile with the need of such an event to explain the abundance of ¹³⁵Cs. Our new determination of the abundance of ¹³⁵Cs in thus favors a continuous supply of SLR to the molecular cloud that ultimately formed the Solar System.

3.5 Conclusions

This study provides an insight into the efficiencies of conventional acid-digestion technique to dissolve primitive meteorites containing acid resistant presolar grains. Fusion of the sample prior to acid dissolution is required to fully assess the isotopic anomalies in whole rock carbonaceous chondrites, and this technique would be useful for the studies of residues in leaching experiments.

Resolvable anomalies in ¹³⁵Ba and ¹³⁷Ba are observed in most carbonaceous chondrites, with small ¹³²Ba consistent with s-process deficit coupled to a small p-process excess. No Ba isotope anomalies relative to the terrestrial composition were found in ordinary chondrites, Martian meteorites or lunar samples indicating a common Ba isotope reservoirs for all these objects.

Interestingly, the fused sample of Orgueil (CI) chondrites has no anomaly, which means that from the Ba isotope perspective, the CI parent body was formed in the same reservoir as Earth's precursors. Another explanation would be that the parent bodies of carbonaceous chondrites showing Ba nucleosynthetic anomalies have formed when the disk was not fully homogenized and accreted a larger amount of presolar carriers.

The absence of ¹³⁵Ba anomaly in the volatile-rich Orgueil meteorite can constrain the initial ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs ratio in the early Solar System. The new value calculated here of 4×10^{-6} is lower than published values. The initial ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs ratio, along with other SLRs can constrain the environment of the formation of the Solar System and the possible contamination sources. Recent refinements in the determination of initial ratios for SLRs disagree with the hypothesis of late injection of exotic composition material into the protoplanetary disk by supernovae or ABG stars. SLRs still requiring late input (²⁶Al, ⁴¹Ca) could be produced by Wolf-Rayet winds or irradiation, both processes that would not significantly affect other SLRs. Consequently, the nucleosynthetic anomalies found in some carbonaceous chondrites and CAIs are likely to be the result of incomplete mixing of the presolar carriers rather than late injection of non-solar composition materials.

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Chapitre 4 Anomalies nucléosynthétiques dans les météorites et homogénéité de la nébuleuse solaire

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Résumé

Ce chapitre présente des données de haute précision du rapport ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr pour la Terre, Mars, la Lune, les angrites, ainsi que des chondrites ordinaires, carbonées et à enstatite. A l'exception des chondrites carbonées, tous les échantillons présentent des valeurs de µ⁸⁴Sr terrestres, indiquant que le Système Solaire interne était homogène en strontium à l'échelle planétaire. Parmi les chondrites carbonées, seules celles de type CV et CM montrent des excès de ⁸⁴Sr, les CI et CO ayant une composition solaire. Les phases porteuses du strontium semblent avoir été bien mélangées très tôt dans la formation du Système Solaire, avec toutefois la présence d'un réservoir enrichi en ⁸⁴Sr échantillonné par les chondrites de type CM et CV, similaire aux CAI. Les chondrites carbonées ont été préparées à la fois par une méthode de digestion acide conventionnelle, mais les échantillons ont été répliqués en étant préalablement fondus grâce à un laser afin de détruire les phases présolaires résistantes aux acides. Les anomalies sur le rapport ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr observées dans les échantillons préparés par fusion laser sont légèrement plus faibles, mais toujours présentes. La dissolution incomplète des grains présolaires ne peut expliquer les anomalies observées dans les chondrites CM et CV.

Les anomalies en ⁸⁴Sr des chondrites carbonées montrent une corrélation avec l'isotope ¹³⁵Ba issu des processus r et s, impliquant que les excès de ⁸⁴Sr sont des anomalies apparentes induites par la normalisation interne par le rapport ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr. Cette observation a d'importantes conséquences sur les âges obtenus par le système ⁸⁷Rb – ⁸⁷Sr dans des objets présentant des excès apparents en ⁸⁴Sr, tels que les CAI. Toutefois, l'homogénéité des compositions isotopiques en Sr pour la plupart des objets du Système Solaire fait du système Rb – Sr une méthode robuste pour la datation des événements d'appauvrissements en éléments volatils dans le système Solaire précoce.

Nucleosynthetic Sr isotope anomalies in meteorites: evidence for a well mixed solar nebula

Abstract

High precision ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios have been determined for terrestrial samples, carbonaceous chondrites, ordinary chondrites, enstatite chondrites, angrites, martian meteorites and lunar samples. All the samples but carbonaceous chondrites are characterized by terrestrial μ^{84} Sr values indicating planetary homogeneity in Sr. Only CV and CM chondrites exhibit small anomalies in ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios relative to the terrestrial standard. CI and CO chondrites have the same Sr composition as the Earth indicating that that Sr isotopes were well-mixed in the Solar system, with the existence of a distinct reservoir similar to CAIs, sampled by CM and CV chondrites. The carbonaceous chondrites were prepared using conventional acid dissolution but were first melted using laser fusion to destroy presolar acid insoluble grains such as SiC. ⁸⁴Sr anomalies in fused samples were lower than for samples dissolved only with acid digestion. Incomplete dissolution of presolar components can be ruled out as an explanation for ⁸⁴Sr anomalies in carbonaceous chondrites.

The anomalies in ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr in fused carbonaceous chondrites are correlated to anomalies the r-, s- process nuclide ¹³⁵Ba, thus linking ⁸⁴Sr excesses to r- or s-process rather than p-process variations. This has important consequences for the ⁸⁷Rb – ⁸⁷Sr ages obtained in objects characterized by ⁸⁴Sr excesses such as CAI. Altogether, the homogeneity of Sr isotopes in the solar system, makes Rb – Sr chronometry a reliable method to date volatile element depletion in the early Solar System.

4.1 Introduction

Recent improvements in mass spectrometry have led to the discovery of nucleosynthetic anomalies in meteorites for an increasing number of elements (Ti, Cr, Ni, Mo, Ru, Ba, Nd, Sm, Ca, Zr: Leya et al., 2008; Trinquier et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2012; Trinquier et al., 2007; Regelous et al., 2008; Steele et al., 2011; Dauphas et al., 2002; Burkhardt et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2010; Fisher-Gödde et al., 2015; Andreasen and Sharma, 2006, 2007; Carlson et al., 2007; Bermingham et al., 2016; Yobregat et al., in prep; Dauphas et al., 2014; Akram et al., 2015). These anomalies are due to a heterogeneous distribution of nucleosynthetic components

amongst the different objects of the Solar System. The material that formed the solar nebula has been formed by successive generations of stars that enriched the interstellar medium with nuclides produced by diverse nucleosynthetic processes. Presolar materials have been identified in the most primitive unequilibrated chondrites (e.g. Huss and Lewis, 1995). Their isotopic compositions show large deviations from that of the Solar System reflecting the stellar environments in which they formed. Compared to the anomalies in presolar grains, bulk meteorites exhibit only small deviations indicating that presolar grains were quite homogeneously distributed throughout the solar nebula. Still they are useful tracers to establish genetic links between planetary objects (Warren, 2011; Fitoussi et al., 2016). Small heterogeneities in the isotopic composition of some elements can also affect chronometers, especially those based on extinct parent nuclides (e.g. 146 Sm $- ^{142}$ Nd: Burkhardt et al., 2016). The anomalies observed in meteorites have been attributed to incomplete mixing of presolar components. However, some elements do not show any nucleosynthetic variations (Os, Te, Hf: Brandon et al., 2005a; Walker, 2012; Yokoyama et al., 2007; Fehr et al., 2006; Sprung et al., 2010). It has been proposed that secondary nebular processes such as thermal processing affecting a well-mixed solar nebula could also have created anomalies in only some elements (Huss, 2004; Trinquier et al., 2009).

Sr is a refractory element ($T_c = 1464$ K, Lodders et al., 2003) that is unlikely to be affected by thermal processing. It possesses four isotopes, ⁸⁴Sr, ⁸⁶Sr, ⁸⁷Sr, and ⁸⁸Sr with solar abundances of 0.56 %, 9.86 %, 7.00 %, and 82.58 % respectively (Lodders et al., 2009). The low abundance ⁸⁴Sr is produced by the p-process, while ⁸⁶Sr and ⁸⁷Sr are pure s-process nuclides, shielded by 86 Kr and 87 Rb, with an important contribution due to 87 Rb decay (t_{1/2} = 48.8 Ga) to the abundance of ⁸⁷Sr. The most abundant isotope, ⁸⁸Sr is mostly produced by s-process, with only ~8 % produced by r-process (Arlandini et al., 1999). Presolar SiC grains from carbonaceous chondrites have strong deficits in ⁸⁴Sr coupled to excesses in ⁸⁸Sr (Nicolussi et al., 1998; Podosek et al., 2004) coming form s-process excesses observed in these types of grains from AGB stars. Papanastassiou and Wasserburg (1978) have reported large deficits in ⁸⁴Sr in FUN (Fractionated and Unknown Nuclear) Calcium Aluminium-rich Inclusions (CAIs). Moynier et al. (2012) and Hans et al. (2013) reported ⁸⁴Sr excesses in normal CAIs of smaller magnitude than FUN CAIs anomalies. Anomalies in bulk carbonaceous chondrites have been discovered with small excesses in ⁸⁴Sr (Andreasen and Sharma, 2007; Moynier et al., 2012; Paton et al., 2013; Hans et al., 2013). Positive anomalies in ⁸⁴Sr in leachates coupled to deficits in ⁸⁴Sr in residues from carbonaceous chondrites have also been observed (Qin et al., 2011).

In this study, high precision measurements of ⁸⁴Sr are reported for a suite of terrestrial samples, ordinary, carbonaceous and enstatite chondrites, angrites, martian meteorites and lunar

samples. To assess the influence of presolar SiC, carbonaceous chondrites were first treated by laser fusion to destroy presolar components and ensure bulk rock analysis.

4.2 Analytical methods

4.2.1 Samples

The samples analyzed in this study include several terrestrial rocks (BHVO-1, AGV-1, G-2), SNC meteorites (NWA1068, NWA856, NWA 2737, Zagami, DAG476), lunar samples (60025, 60015, 74255, 15555), angrites (D'Orbigny, SAH99555, NWA4801, NWA4590), ordinary chondrites (Ioka, Parnallee, Edmonson, Bur-Gheluai, Burdett, Alfianello, Waconda), carbonaceous chondrites (Orgueil, Murchison, Allende, NWA1757, NWA4768), and one enstatite chondrite (Abee).

For carbonaceous chondrites, samples were obtained from other studies and had already been crushed. Other samples were cut using a diamond coated saw. Saw marks, fusion crust and rust patches were removed with corundum paper. Samples were cleaned in ultrapure water and crushed in an agate mortar. The mortar and pestle were cleaned in dilute HNO₃ for 15 min in an ultrasound bath.

4.2.2 Laser fusion

Carbonaceous chondrites contain acid insoluble presolar materials (SiC, spinels, graphite, nano-diamonds) having isotopic compositions that greatly differs from that of the Solar System (Nicolussi et al., 1998; Podosek et al., 2004). Incomplete dissolution of such presolar grains could explain some of the variations observed in carbonaceous chondrites (e.g. Moynier et al., 2012; Qin et al., 2011). SiC contains tens of ppm of Sr (Amari et al., 1995) and show negative anomalies in ⁸⁴Sr extending to -900 000 ppm and positive anomalies in ⁸⁸Sr up to + 50 000 ppm (Nicolussi et al., 1998; Podosek et al., 2004). Concentrations of presolar grains varies for each group of carbonaceous chondrites and their abundance is high enough to influence the bulk rock Sr isotopic composition (Huss and Lewis, 1995; Huss et al., 2003).

To ensure complete dissolution of carbonaceous chondrites, samples were first melted using a laser fusion technique. The procedure was performed at CEHMTI (CNRS, Orléans) on samples of Orgueil (CI), Murchison (CM2), Allende (CV3), NWA1757 (CO3.5), and NWA4768 (CO3). Powdered samples were compacted to form small pellets prior to fusion. Aliquots of \sim 30 mg were placed in an hydrodynamic levitation device into an aluminium nozzle placed in a vacuum chamber. The atmosphere was replaced by 1 bar N₂ to prevent Mo loss by oxidation during heating (e.g. Fegley and Palme, 1985) for further analysis. Samples were melted by two CO₂ lasers over a \sim 30 s heating period at 1 800 K. To assess the influence of any potential contribution of undissolved presolar grains, the Orgueil, Murchison and Allende samples were also dissolved by conventional acid digestion.

4.2.3 Samples dissolution and chemical separation

Samples were dissolved in a 1:1 mixture of concentrated HF and HNO₃ for at least 48 hours in non-pressurized Teflon vials. After this first step, carbonaceous and enstatite chondrite samples were centrifuged and the residue was submitted to a second dissolution step after isolating the supernatant. Samples were then dried dissolved in concentrated aqua regia, dried down and taken up in HCl repeatedly until all fluorides were converted to a chloride form. Chondrite samples were then dissolved in MQ water and 200 μ l of hydrogen peroxide was added. These samples were then placed under an ultraviolet lamp (264 nm) to destroy organic matter that was not destroyed with aqua regia. Such treatment produced clear solutions for Murchison and Allende, but was unable to eliminate all organics from Orgueil. The fine black residue was centrifuged and rinsed three times in HNO₃. For all the other samples, and also for the fused samples, all solutions were clear and were not centrifuged prior to chemical separation.

Most of our samples were also used for the isotopic analyses of other elements including Sn (Wang et al., 2016), Mo and Sr (Yobregat et al., in prep). The analytical protocol used for separating Sr is described in detail in Yobregat et al. (in prep) and a brief description is only given here. Samples were first passed through an anion-exchange resin (2 ml AG1-X8) to remove iron. For samples with high iron content such as chondrites, the column volume was increased to 10 ml. Sr along with Ba and most of matrix elements were eluted in 6 M HCl while Fe was retained on the column. Samples were then loaded on Sr resin (EichronTM) in 3 M HNO₃. Matrix and REE were rinsed with 3 M HNO₃, then the molarity was switched to 7.5 M to elute Ba, and Sr was collected in 0.05 M HNO₃. Sr fractions were finally processed through 1 ml of prefilter material (EichronTM) to remove organics derived from the Sr resin. Blanks and yields were measured on a Thermo Fisher Element II. The whole procedure yielded strontium blanks less than 30 ± 5 pg.

4.2.4 Mass spectrometry

Strontium isotope data were obtained with a thermal ionization mass spectrometer Triton Plus at ENS Lyon. Samples were taken up in 3 M HNO₃ and loaded onto single outgassed zone refined Re filaments (see Yobregat et al., in prep for details). Measurements were done using a multidynamic configuration (Table 1). Sr isotopes were measured with two magnet settings (with ⁸⁵Rb and ⁸⁷Sr successively on the axial Faraday cup) with an 8 s integration time and separated by a 5 s idle time to allow amplifier to fully decay to their baseline. Complete decay of the amplifiers within 5 s was assessed using a real ion beam instead of an electronic signal (as is commonly done using the built in programs) and the decay function parameters were adjusted to minimize the decay time (see Yobregat et al., in prep for details). Amplifier rotation was used, and baselines were monitored before each block. 1 μ g Sr load produced ~12 hour ion beam with 15 V on the ⁸⁸Sr peak. A run consisted of ~1000 cycles including three lines, with 49 blocks of 21 cycles. Potential isobaric interferences from ⁸⁷Rb were assessed by monitoring ⁸⁵Rb beams but were found negligible with ⁸⁵Rb/⁸⁶Sr ratios ~1 × 10⁻⁶, thus, no interference correction was applied.

Table 1. Cup configuration

| | Faraday cups | | | | | | Zoom opti | cs | |
|--|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|-------|------------|
| | L3 | L2 | L1 | Ax | H1 | H2 | H3 | Focus | Dispersion |
| ⁸⁴ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr multi | idynamic | | | | | | | | |
| Line 1 | | | ⁸⁴ Sr | ⁸⁵ Rb | ⁸⁶ Sr | ⁸⁷ Sr | ⁸⁸ Sr | 0 V | 3.5 V |
| Line 2 | ⁸⁴ Sr | ⁸⁵ Rb | ⁸⁶ Sr | ⁸⁷ Sr | ⁸⁸ Sr | | | 0 V | - 7.5 V |

Mass fractionation was corrected using the reference ratio 86 Sr/ 88 Sr = 0.1194 and the exponential law using a multidynamic reduction scheme as follows:

$$\frac{{}^{84}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{corr}^{MD} = \left(\frac{g_{L1}}{g_{H1}}\right)^{1+\beta_{84}} \times \frac{{}^{84}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{line\ 1} \times \left(\frac{{}^{88}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\Big|_{true}}{{}^{88}Sr}\Big|_{line\ 2}\right)^{\beta_{84}}$$
(1)

where $\beta_{84} = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{M_{84}}{M_{86}}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{M_{88}}{M_{86}}\right)}$, and g_A refers to the efficiency of the Faraday cup A.

For a difference of 10 ppm in the cup efficiencies, the multidynamic equation reduces this effect to 0.2 ppm, which is negligible compared with other sources of uncertainties.

In addition to almost cancelling out the differences in collectors efficiencies, the multidynamic mode also cancels out any long-term drift in Faraday cups efficiencies, such that samples can be referenced to the mean value of all standards acquired over a period of \sim 2 years. Figure 1 shows the long-term drift effect in 'multistatic' data, obtained by averaging the static ratios calculated for both lines of the multidynamic configuration (table 1), compared to multidynamic data.



Figure 1. Repeated measurement of the NIST987 isotope standard during a period of 2 years for multidynamic and multistatic configuration (multistatic values correspond to the mean of the static values from lines 1 and 2. Faraday cup configuration is detailed in Table 1). Grey area represents the external precision (2S.D.) of the mean value (black line) for multidynamic measurement. The long-term drift in Faraday collectors produces a ~70 ppm deviation for the most recent data.

4.3 Results

The ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios are reported in Table 2 and plotted in Figure 1. Values reported in μ notation corresponds to the ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio of the sample relative to that of the NIST987 isotopic standard in parts per millions (ppm):

$$\mu^{84}Sr = \left(\frac{\binom{(^{84}Sr/^{86}Sr)_{sample}}{\binom{(^{84}Sr/^{86}Sr)_{NIST987}}} - 1\right) \times 10^{6}$$

Data presented in this study have been acquired over a period of 2 years but as the multidynamic configuration cancels out the long-term drift in Faraday cups efficiencies, all μ^{84} Sr are calculated using the mean 84 Sr/ 86 Sr of all standards measured during this period. The external precision for the 84 Sr/ 86 Sr of NIST987 is 19 ppm. Terrestrial samples are similar to the NIST987 isotopic standard (μ^{84} Sr = -3 ± 29, 2 σ ppm), which is similar to the value of -2 ± 7 (2 s.e.) of Hans et al. (2013) also obtained in multidynamic mode. Recent studies using static collection yielded μ^{84} Sr for terrestrial samples 20 – 30 ppm lower than NIST987 (Andreasen

and Sharma, 2007; Moynier et al., 2012; Paton et al., 2013; Yokoyama et al., 2015). They attributed the difference either to mass-independent fractionation having occurred during the preparation of the NIST987 or to incorrect correction of stable isotopes variability. Interestingly, the static ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios (line 1 and 2 of the multidynamic configuration) for terrestrial samples obtained in this study are also slightly shifted by -15 ± 43 (2 σ) and -26 ± 70 (2 σ) ppm. The shift in ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios between terrestrial standard NIST 987 and terrestrial samples observed for static collection but not with multidynamic reduction scheme, in this study and published work, seems to be the result of an analytical artefact affecting static measurements. If it were the result of mass-independent fractionation of the NIST 987, the shift would be present in both acquisition modes. We propose that the shift could be the result of a truncation of the large ⁸⁸Sr ion beam, somehow associated to a non-ideality of the exponential law to correct for all mass dependent fractionation. More details concerning this hypothesis are given in Yobregat et al. (in prep.).

The μ^{84} Sr value of angrites (μ^{84} Sr = 0 ± 19, 2 σ) overlaps with terrestrial value. This is consistent with the value of Hans et al. (2013) (μ^{84} Sr = 1 ± 12, 2 σ). Martian meteorites (μ^{84} Sr = 2 ± 15, 2 σ), and ordinary chondrites (μ^{84} Sr = -1 ± 28, 2 σ) also overlap terrestrial value. Moynier et al. (2012) also reported martian meteorites similar to Earth, but their value for ordinary chondrites is 17 ppm higher than Earth. The enstatite chondrite analysed in this study shows a negative anomaly (μ^{84} Sr = -43 ± 25 ppm), lower than the values of -34 ± 7 ppm (Moynier et al., 2012) and -8 ± 26 (Paton et al., 2013). Lunar samples have a slight negative anomaly of -18 ± 12 ppm, but still fall within the external precision of terrestrial samples. Better precision should be required to conclude on the existence of a shift in μ^{84} Sr between Earth and moon.

Carbonaceous chondrites Allende (CV3) and Murchison (CM2) show positive anomalies consistent with published values for those meteorites (Andreasen and Sharma, 2007; Moynier et al., 2012; Yokoyama et al., 2015). The value of the fused sample of Murchison and Allende is lower than the value obtained on acid-digested samples. The CO chondrites have variable anomalies, the CO3.5 NWA1757 having $\mu^{84}Sr = 14 \pm 19$ ppm while the CO3 NWA4768 having $\mu^{84}Sr = -10 \pm 19$ ppm. Comparing these data with literature is difficult as the CO samples used in this study were exclusively prepared by laser fusion, as not enough material was available to replicate them with acid-digestion. However, considering the CO3.4 measured by Moynier et al. (2012) with a $\mu^{84}Sr = 41 \pm 21$ ppm, it is likely that CO would have had a higher $\mu^{84}Sr$ if prepared via acid-digestion only, similarly to CV and CM.

The values for the Orgueil CI chondrite are similar for acid-digestion $(1 \pm 8 \text{ ppm})$ and fused samples (-4 ± 19 ppm). These values overlap with terrestrial samples. These results differs from



those of Moynier et al. (2012) and Paton et al. (2013) who found positive anomalies in ⁸⁴Sr in CI chondrites.

Figure 1. μ^{84} Sr values for samples analyzed in this study. Errors bars are the 2 s.d. of the mean, or the 2 s.d. of the standard for samples measured only once. Fused samples are represented by open symbols. Grey area represents the external uncertainty from repeated measurement of the NIST 987 isotope standard.

Table 2. ⁸⁴Sr isotope measurements

| Samples | Туре | μ^{84} Sr | 2 σ | n |
|----------------------|----------------|---------------|-----|--------|
| NIST987 | Standard | | 19 | 40 |
| Terrestrial samples | | | | |
| BHVO-1 | Basalt | -6 | 31 | 9 |
| AGV-1 | Andesite | 2 | 25 | 4 |
| G-2 | Granite | -1 | 28 | 4 |
| Average Earth | | -3 | 29 | 17 |
| Lunar samples | | | | |
| 60025 | FAN | -20 | 11 | 5 |
| 60015 | FAN | | | 2 |
| 74255 | High-Ti basalt | -9 | 19 | 1 |
| 15555 | Low-Ti basalt | -20 | 19 | 1 |
| Average Moon | | -18 | 12 | 9 |
| Angrites | | | | |
| D'Orbigny | | -2 | 17 | 5 |
| SAH99555 | | -13 | 2 | 2 |
| NWA4590 | | 8 | 9 | 2 |
| NWA4801 | | 8 | 10 | 3 |
| Average Angrites | | 0 | 19 | 12 |
| Martian meteorites | | | | |
| NWA856 | Shergottite | 0 | 20 | 2 |
| NWA1068 | Shergottite | 7 | 10 | 2 |
| NWA2737 | Chassignite | -6 | 19 | 1 |
| Zagami | Shergottite | -31 | 19 | 1 |
| DaG476 | Shergottite | 1 | 19 | 1 |
| Average Mars | 2 | 2 | 15 | 7 |
| Ordinary chondrite | \$ | | | |
| Edmonson | OC H4 | 19 | 19 | 1 |
| Bur-Gheluai | OC H5 | 4 | 19 | 1 |
| Burdett | OC H5 | -7 | 19 | 1 |
| Average OC H | | 5 | 26 | 3 |
| Ioka | L3.5 | - | _ 0 | 1 |
| Alfianello | OC L6 | -8 | 19 | 1 |
| Waconda | OC L6 | 11 | 19 | 1 |
| Average OC L | | 1 | 27 | 2 |
| Parnallee | OC LL3.6 | 1 | 21 | - |
| Average OC | CC LLJ.0 | 4 | 23 | 5 |
| Enstatite chondrites | T. | | | |
| Abee | EH4 | -43 | 25 | 2 |
| Carbonaceous chor | drites | | | |
| Allende | CV3 | 71 | | 2 |
| Allende fused | CV3 | 48 | 19 | 1 |
| Murchison | CM2 | 40 | 14 | 2 |
| Murchison fused | CM2 | 25 | 19 | 1 |
| NWA1757 fused | CO3 5 | 14 | 19 | 1 |
| Orgueil | CL | 1 | 8 | 2 |
| Orgueil fused | CI | 1 | 10 | - 1 |

Data are normalized to ${}^{86}\text{Sr}/{}^{88}\text{Sr} = 0.1194$. Uncertainties on samples are the 2 s.d. of the mean. When samples were measured only once, the 2σ reported is the external precision of the standard.

4.4 Discussion

4.4.1 Carriers of ⁸⁴Sr anomalies

Two main carriers for Sr isotopic anomalies, presolar grains and CAI, both exhibits apparent anomalies in ⁸⁴Sr. The μ^{84} Sr values of the fused samples from Murchison and Allende are slightly lower than that of the same sample prepared only via acid-digestion. This implies that part of the positive anomalies in ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr observed in carbonaceous chondrites obtained with acid digestion can be explained by an acid resistant component that remains undissolved as SiC have important depletions in ⁸⁴Sr (Nicolussi et al, 1998; Podosek et al., 2004). However, undissolved materials such as SiC cannot account for the totality of ⁸⁴Sr anomalies. Alternatively, the anomalies in carbonaceous chondrites could simply be the result of incomplete dissolution leaving an apparent anomaly in ⁸⁴Sr. However, this explanation is not consitent with the observation of a Sr anomaly in fused CV and CM chondrites. If incomplete dissolution was the source of the anomaly, then fused samples should have a terrestrial composition. SiC are more abundant in Murchison than in Allende (Huss and Lewis, 1995; Huss et al., 2003), so if SiC were the only carriers of the anomalies, Murchison should have a higher μ^{84} Sr than Allende, which is not the case in this study or previous studies (Yokoyama et al., 2015; Moynier et al., 2012; Andreasen and Sharma, 2007). Hans (2013) reported a higher value for Murchison than for Allende, however, this value was deemed unreliable by the author because of its large uncertainty. SiC are unlikely the only carrier of Sr anomalies, as other presolar grains, less resistant to acid dissolution, such as spinels or silicates, and formed in the same AGB environments as SiC could carry part of the ⁸⁴Sr anomalies. It is noteworthy that the CI chondrite Orgueil has no anomaly compared to terrestrial samples, thus implying that Earth's precursors contained the same amount of p, s and r process Sr as these chondrites. The ⁸⁴Sr anomalies found in CM and CV can be attributed to the addition of material from a distinct reservoir compared with other samples analyzed in this study. CAIs are thought to have formed from such a distinct reservoir (e.g. Brennecka et al., 2013).

CAIs have high μ^{84} Sr (Moynier et al., 2012; Paton et al., 2013; Hans et al., 2013). Thus, Sr anomalies in CV and CM have been attributed to admixing of CAIs to a terrestrial composition (Yokoyama et al., 2015). As Sr has only three isotopes that can be used to study nucleosynthetic anomalies, it is difficult to discriminate between r-, s- and p-process as the source of these anomalies. It is interesting to compare Sr with Ba, which is a chemical analogue to Sr and it has been shown that CAIs alone cannot explain the observed Ba isotopic anomalies found in carbonaceous chondrites (Hidaka et al., 2001; Yobregat et al., in prep). However the origin of Ba anomalies in CAIs is controversial and it has been attributed to an r-process excess (Brennecka et al., 2013) or to the effect of ¹³⁵Cs decay to ¹³⁵Ba (Bermingham et al., 2014). The admixture of CAIs to a carbonaceous chondrite endmember similar to CI chondrites is consistent with the observed anomalies in ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr and consistent with Allende having the largest anomaly found in carbonaceous chondrites.

4.4.2 Sr homogeneity in the inner solar system

The μ^{84} Sr values reported in this study show that angrites, the Moon, Mars and ordinary chondrites have a terrestrial composition. This result differs from the conclusion of Moynier et al. (2012) who found that basaltic achondrites had an apparent ⁸⁴Sr excess, but are in agreement with the data of Paton et al. (2013) and Andreasen and Sharma (2007) and the data of Hans (2013). It is noteworthy that the data from Moynier et al. (2012) are reported with a 2 standard error uncertainty, which may underestimate the error. Paton et al. (2013) also reported errors bars in 2 standard errors, while Hans et al. (2013) reported 2 S.D. uncertainties, similarly to this study.

The homogeneity in Sr isotopes in planetary objects other than carbonaceous chondrites is similar to the isotopic homogeneity observed for Ba isotopes (Carlson et al., 2007; Andreasen and Sharma, 2007; Bermingham et al., 2014, 2016; Yobregat et al., in prep), Os (Brandon et al., 2005a; Walker, 2012; Yokoyama et al., 2007), Te (Fehr et al., 2006), and Hf (Sprung et al., 2010), indicating that the presolar carriers of these elements were well-mixed in the inner solar system at the time of the formation of ordinary and basaltic achondrites parent bodies, along with the precursors of Earth and Mars. This isotopic homogeneity also suggests that the effect of thermal processing, if it existed, was undetected. This relative homogeneity contrasts with the heterogeneity observed at the planetary scale for Zr (Akram et al., 2015), Ti (Leya et al., 2008; Trinquier et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2012), Cr (Trinquier et al., 2007), Ni (Regelous et al., 2008; Steele et al., 2011), Mo (Dauphas et al., 2002; Burkhardt et al., 2014), which has a chemical behaviour similar to Sr and Ba.

The discrepancy between the two groups of elements is difficult to reconcile with a simple model of heterogeneous distribution of presolar carriers (e.g. Burkhardt et al. 2011). More likely secondary processes are needed to explain the observed anomalies in some elements. Thermal processing has been proposed to explain the larger variations in moderately volatile elements or in refractory elements able to form volatile oxides and hydroxides (Huss, 2004; Trinquier et al., 2009). One issue with thermal processing with respect to Sr is that Ca shows planetary heterogeneity whereas Sr and Ba show variations only in carbonaceous chondrites, although the three elements have in principle similar chemical properties in terms of condensation

temperatures. It is possible that the anomalies at the scale of bulk rocks meteorites are too low for the current analytical precision, or that the behaviour of Ca and Sr are actually different during condensation or thermal processing leading to uneven mixing properties at the scale of the protoplanetary disk. For example the study of Lamoreaux et al. (1986) shows some subtle but noticeable differences between the vaporization behaviour of CaO, SrO and BaO under reducing conditions and some sensitivity to oxygen fugacity. These differences may ultimately give some clues about isotope anomalies for these elements.

4.4.3 Nucleosynthetic process responsible for the anomalies

Sr is mainly produced by slow neutron capture with ⁸⁶Sr and ⁸⁷Sr being pure s-process, although ⁸⁸Sr has a small contribution (~8 %) from the r-process. In contrast, the low-abundance ⁸⁴Sr is a pure p-process nuclide. During TIMS analysis, the mass-fractionation is corrected for using an internal normalization ratio which is traditionally ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr. Furthermore, the important deviations in ⁸⁷Sr due to the decay of ⁸⁷Rb overprint any nucleosynthetic anomalies affecting ⁸⁷Sr. As a consequence, the only isotope ratio that has been used to investigate nucleosynthetic anomalies is ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr. Variations in ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr could be due to direct variations of p-process abundances, but they could also be the result of variations in the s and r process that would affect the normalization ratio thus creating apparent anomalies in ⁸⁴Sr.



Figure 2. Comparison of the μ^{84} Sr values with 132 Ba/ 136 Ba and 135 Ba/ 136 Ba data measurement on the same samples. Open circles represent the fused samples. No obvious correlation is observed between μ^{84} Sr and μ^{132} Ba, which are two p-process nuclides. μ^{84} Sr in fused carbonaceous chondrites correlate with μ^{135} Ba with a slope of 0.83. The grey area represents the external precision of the standards.

If ⁸⁴Sr anomalies were the result of admixing of presolar components from AGB stars, or of CAIs, then the variations could be attributed to variations in s and r process. SiC from AGB stars have clear s-process signatures (Nicolussi et al., 1998; Podosek et al., 2004), while CAIs show variations in r-process for Mo (Burkhardt et al., 2011), Ba (Hidaka et al., 2001), Sr, Sm, and Nd (Brennecka et al., 2013), Zr (Schönbächler et al., 2003), and Ru (Chen et al., 2010). Looking at a different lengthscale, Qin et al. (2011) identified clear s-process deficits in residues by analyzing Sr and Ba isotopes in Murchison leachates.

If ⁸⁴Sr anomalies were due to variations in the abundance of the p-process nuclides, then a positive correlation should be observed between ⁸⁴Sr and other p-process anomalies with similar cosmochemical properties. Comparison of μ^{84} Sr to the p-process ¹³²Ba is shown in Figure 2a. Ba data from Yobregat et al. (in prep) were obtained on the same samples as the Sr data reported in this study. No clear correlation appears between the two p-process isotopes, though there could be some trend between ⁸⁴Sr and ¹³²Ba for carbonaceous chondrites (with the exception of Orgueil CI chondrite). However, when μ^{84} Sr is plotted versus μ^{135} Ba, which is a nuclide produced by the r- and s- process (Figures 2b and 3), there is a clear correlation when

fused samples are plotted. This clearly shows the importance of the fusion technique for studying nucleosynthetic anomalies at the planetary scale. ¹³⁵Ba is produced by s (26%) and r-processes (74 %) (Arlandini et al., 1999). The correlation between ⁸⁴Sr and ¹³⁵Ba suggests that the anomalies in ⁸⁴Sr are the result of variations in the s and r processes that propagates to the ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio through internal normalization with the ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr ratio. The trend visible in Figure 2a is likely the result of apparent anomalies in ⁸⁴Sr caused by r- and s- variations affecting the normalization ratio ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr.

A correlation between Mo and Ru has been observed in meteorites by Dauphas et al. (2004). This correlation corresponds to the predicted variations expected for a variation in the s-process component. By analogy with Ru and Mo, Sr and Ba have a close chemical behaviour and are both enriched in presolar SiC grains (Amari et al., 1995). The observed correlation between ⁸⁴Sr and ¹³⁵Ba in carbonaceous chondrites can be compared to the predicted trend caused by a variation in s-process. It is possible to calculate the slope of correlated isotope anomalies in Sr and Ba using the equation developed by Dauphas et al. (2004):

$$\mu^{135}Ba = \frac{\rho^{135}Ba - \rho^{134}Ba \times \frac{135 - 136}{134 - 136}}{\rho^{84}Sr - \rho^{88}Sr \times \frac{84 - 86}{88 - 86}} \times c \times \mu^{84}Sr$$
(1)

with

$$\rho^{i}Ba = \frac{\left(\frac{^{i}Ba/^{^{136}Ba}\right)_{s-proc}}{\left(\frac{^{i}Ba/^{^{136}Ba}\right)_{Earth}} - 1}$$

$$\rho^{i}Sr = \frac{\left(\frac{^{i}Sr/^{^{86}Sr}\right)_{s-proc}}{\left(\frac{^{i}Sr/^{^{86}Sr}\right)_{Earth}} - 1}$$

$$c = \frac{\left(\frac{^{136}Ba/^{^{86}Sr}\right)_{s-proc}}{\left(\frac{^{136}Ba/^{^{86}Sr}\right)_{solar}}}$$

As ⁸⁶Sr and ¹³⁶Ba are both pure s-process isotopes, the curvature coefficient *c* is equal to unity, meaning that the correlation will produce a straight line instead of a hyperbola. ¹³⁴Ba is also a pure s-process nuclide, which implies that $\rho^{134}Ba = 0$. ⁸⁴Sr is only produced by the p-process so the value of $\rho^{84}Sr$ is -1.

For $\rho^{135}Ba$ and $\rho^{88}Sr$ the values can be deduced from the stellar model of s-process (Arlandini et al., 1999), considering that the Earth composition is similar to that of CI chondrites and the Solar System for Ba and Sr. Arlandini et al. (1999) only considers the contribution of the main s-process, but about ~40 % of the solar ⁸⁶Sr is produced by the weak s-
process in massive stars (Bisterzo et al., 2011). The theoretical values for $\rho^{135}Ba$ and $\rho^{88}Sr$ are thus -0.738 ± 0.105 and -0.079 ± 0.013 respectively. The theoretical slope for the correlation is 0.684 ± 0.248, which is a little lower than the observed value of 0.833 ± 0.206. The theoretical and observed correlations still overlap within error, reinforcing the observation than the variations in ⁸⁴Sr in carbonaceous chondrites reflect variations of the s and r processes. A small discrepancy could still arise from a difference in the abundance of the main and weak s-process between Earth and the Solar System.



Figure 3. Correlation between μ^{135} Ba and μ^{84} Sr. The red line corresponds to the regression on fused carbonaceous chondrites data and the red area is the 2 s.d. uncertainty on the slope. Regression was done with Isoplot using the York (1969) regression algorithm. The black line is the theoretical regression calculated using the equation of Dauphas et al. (2004) and data from Arlandini et al. (1999).

4.4.4 Implications for ⁸⁷Rb – ⁸⁷Sr chronology

Cameron (1973) first suggested that variations of r-process could have effects on the ages calculated with the ⁸⁷Rb – ⁸⁷Sr chronometer. A variation of r-process only affects ⁸⁸Sr, thus modifying the normalization ratio ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr used to correct mass fractionation. If the excesses in ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios observed in some carbonaceous chondrites and CAIs result only from a p-process excess affecting only ⁸⁴Sr, then this nucleosynthetic anomaly would not propagate to ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios. On the other hand, if the anomalies in ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr are due to variations in r process, then they will also affect ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios (Figure 4). The magnitude of the anomaly in ⁸⁷Sr will be half of the anomaly in ⁸⁴Sr (Papanastassiou and Wasserburg, 1978).

CAIs have apparent positive anomalies in ⁸⁴Sr (Moynier et al., 2012; Hans et al., 2013). Asssuming r-process enrichments in CAIs, Hans et al. (2013) calculated that the low initial ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio for the CAI D7 that was used as the initial value of the solar system could be an artefact of the internal normalization combined with the existence of nucleosynthetic anomalies. Our new results showing correlation of ¹³⁵Ba with ⁸⁴Sr (but not with ¹³²Ba) confirms that ⁸⁴Sr variations are indeed controlled indirectly by variations in ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr. Once corrected, the CAI initial ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr was found similar to that of eucrites and angrites. This very early timescale of Rb depletion is in agreement with the short timescale of accretion and core formation for the angrites parent body which is < 2 Myr after CAIs according to the Hf-W system, (Kleine et al., 2012) and less than 0.25 Myr according to recent ²⁶Al-²⁶Mg data (Schiller et al. 2015) Similarly, Hf-W data for eucrites by Touboul et al. (2015) also indicate a rapid accretion (at most 1 Myr) after the formation of CAI.



Figure 4. Sr isotopic pattern for an r-process enrichment affecting the normalization ratio through ⁸⁸Sr. ^{*87}Sr is considered without the radiogenic contribution from ⁸⁷Rb. p, r and s refers to the nucleosynthetic processes contributing to each isotope in the Solar System (Arlandini et al., 1999). The magnitude of the anomaly in ⁸⁷Sr is almost half of that in ⁸⁴Sr.

The correction to apply to the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio to compensate for an r-process excess affecting the ⁸⁸Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio could be calculated as follows. Considering that the normalizing ratio ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr is shifted from the true value of the standard, the equations for mass fractionation correction should be:

$$\frac{\frac{R_{meas}^{84}}{R_{actual}^{84}} = \left(\frac{R_{meas}^{86}}{R_{actual}^{86}}\right)^{\alpha} \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{\frac{R_{meas}^{87}}{R_{actual}^{87}} = \left(\frac{R_{meas}^{86}}{R_{actual}^{86}}\right)^{\beta} \quad (3)$$
with $R^{i} = \frac{i_{Sr}}{s_{Sr}}$; $\alpha = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{84}{86}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{86}{88}\right)}$; $\beta = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{87}{86}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{86}{88}\right)}$

Because the value of R_{actual}^{86} is unknown, one uses the standard value of 86 Sr/ 88 Sr = 0.1194 to correct for mass fractionation. In this case, the calculated Rⁱ values are apparent ratios and the mass fractionation correction is expressed by:

$$\frac{R_{meas}^{84}}{R_{apparent}^{84}} = \left(\frac{R_{meas}^{86}}{R_{std}^{86}}\right)^{\alpha} \quad (4)$$
$$\frac{R_{meas}^{87}}{R_{apparent}^{87}} = \left(\frac{R_{meas}^{86}}{R_{std}^{86}}\right)^{\beta} \quad (5)$$

Combining equations (2) with (4), and (3) with (5) eliminates R^{86} ratios:

$$\left(R_{actual}^{87}\right)^{\frac{1}{\beta}} = \left(R_{meas}^{87}\right)^{\frac{1}{\beta}} \times \left(\frac{R_{actual}^{84}}{R_{meas}^{84}}\right)^{\frac{1}{\alpha}} (6)$$

$$\left(R_{meas}^{87}\right)^{\frac{1}{\beta}} = \left(R_{apparent}^{87}\right)^{\frac{1}{\beta}} \times \left(\frac{R_{meas}^{84}}{R_{apparent}^{84}}\right)^{\frac{1}{\alpha}} (7)$$

Then combining equations (6) and (7), one obtains the relation between R_{actual}^{87} and $R_{apparent}^{84}$:

$$R_{actual}^{87} = R_{apparent}^{87} \times \left(\frac{R_{apparent}^{84}}{R_{actual}^{84}}\right)^{-\frac{\beta}{\alpha}}$$
(8)

In the hypothesis that all the anomaly observed in ⁸⁴Sr is caused by variations in r process, then the actual ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio of the sample, once corrected for mass fractionation using the actual ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr of the sample, is equal to the ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio of the standard The μ^{84} Sr is expressed as:

$$\mu^{84}Sr = \left(\frac{R_{apparent}^{84}}{R_{actual}^{84}} - 1\right) \quad (9)$$

Then $R_{actual}^{87} = R_{apparent}^{87} \times (1 + \mu^{84} Sr)^{-\frac{\beta}{\alpha}}$, which can be approximated as:

$$R_{actual}^{87} \approx R_{apparent}^{87} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2}\mu^{84}Sr\right) (10)$$

Equation (10) implies that a positive apparent anomaly in ⁸⁴Sr should result in a higher ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio. While the correction for r-process excess is rather straightforward because the r-process enhances only the abundance of ⁸⁸Sr, the correction for s-process deficit requires a knowledge of the relative production of ⁸⁶Sr, ⁸⁷Sr and ⁸⁸Sr. The models for s-process involve several parameters and these relative abundances are not constant (Arlandini et al. 1999). Another approach is to use observations of SiC that show large s-process enhancements (Nicolussi et al. 1998; Podosek et al., 2004). By analogy with the correction for r-process excess, the following equation for correcting ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio can be derived, since the anomaly in ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr is only due to a bias in the ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr correction in the mass bias:

$$R_{actual}^{87} \approx R_{apparent}^{87} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta s^{86}}{\Delta s^{84}} \mu^{84} Sr\right)$$
(11)

where Δs^{86} and Δs^{84} represent the maximum nucleosynthetic anomalies observed in SiC presolar grain corresponding to an s-process.

Hans et al. (2013) used this method to correct the initial 87 Sr/ 86 Sr of CAI with the assumption that the positive μ^{84} Sr observed for these objects is caused by a r-process excess affecting the 86 Sr/ 88 Sr ratio. The new initial 87 Sr/ 86 Sr ratio is 57 ppm higher than the non-corrected value, which is more than an order of magnitude higher than the current analytical precision. This underlines the importance of assessing the potential nucleosynthetic anomalies affecting the normalization ratio prior to the use of 87 Sr/ 86 Sr for chronometry purposes.

4.5 Conclusions

All the non-carbonaceous meteorites and differentiated objects investigated in this study are characterized by a terrestrial ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio. This suggests that the inner solar system was a homogeneous reservoir for Sr isotopes. This observation contrasts with the planetary scale heterogeneity observed for other elements (e.g. Ti, Cr, Ni, Mo, Ru, Nd, Sm, Ca, Zr). The only anomalies in ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr were found in CV and CM carbonaceous chondrites, and could be due to admixing of a CAI component to CI-like material representing the solar system. The laser fusion applied to carbonaceous chondrites shows that anomalies in CV and CM cannot be the result of incomplete dissolution of acid insoluble presolar components enriched in s-process that would create apparent s-process deficit.

As ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios correlate with ¹³⁵Ba anomalies, the ⁸⁴Sr anomalies are likely the result of s-, r-process variations that may affect the normalization ratio ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr. The slope of the μ^{135} Ba versus μ^{84} Sr correlation in carbonaceous chondrites is similar within error to the predicted slope for nucleosynthetic variation of s-process. If it is indeed an r-process excess in CAIs contained in CM and CV chondrites that causes their anomalies, then the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr initial ratio of CAIs is spuriously low and must be corrected for, thus modifying the ⁸⁷Rb – ⁸⁷Sr ages of CAIs. It the anomalies are caused by an s-process variation, then the influence on the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio would be smaller, but one can constrain the actual ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio to a value comprised between the apparent ratio and the ratio corrected for nucleosynthetic anomaly from a pure r-process variation. The homogeneity of Sr isotopes for Earth, CI, ordinary chondrites, angrites, Mars and the Moon makes ⁸⁷Rb – ⁸⁷Sr a robust tool to constrain the chronometry of early solar system events, especially volatile element depletion.

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Chapitre 5 Âge d'appauvrissement en éléments volatils de la Terre et contraintes du système ⁸⁷Rb – ⁸⁶Sr

Résumé

Un trait commun des objets de type terrestre et de la plupart des météorites du Système Solaire interne est leur appauvrissement en éléments volatils. Cet appauvrissement a pu se produire très précocement dans la nébuleuse solaire par condensation partielle ou évaporation lors d'épisodes thermiques. Le corps parent des angrites est un des objets les plus appauvris en volatils et ce processus s'est produit dans le premier million d'années du Système Solaire. En revanche, si la perte en volatils est associée à des phénomènes tardifs, lors des dernières phases de l'accrétions des planètes, l'hypothèse la plus probable pour en expliquer l'origine est celle des impacts entre embryons.

L'étroite similitude isotopique entre Terre et Lune suggère que ces deux corps se sont équilibrés isotopiquement lors de l'impact géant à l'origine de la Lune. La Lune est fortement appauvrie en volatils par rapport aux chondrites de type CI. Son accrétion est trop tardive pour que la perte en volatils puisse être expliquée par des processus nébulaires. L'âge de formation de la Lune est en partie contraint par ses plus vieilles roches, comprenant les ferroanorthosites, avec des âges moyens de 4,34 à 4,37 Ga. L'âge minimum est, quant à lui, limité par le système Hf - W, avec un minimum de 50 Ma après les CAI.

La Terre est également appauvrie en éléments volatils par rapport au Système Solaire, mais cet appauvrissement est plus faible que celui de la Lune. Les modèles de composition terrestre déduits de la comparaison des compositions isotopiques de la Terre avec celles des différentes classes de météorites connues produisent tous une Terre enrichie en volatils par rapport à la Terre actuelle. La perte massive de Rb d'un objet de la taille de la Terre est assez peu probable, un autre processus doit être envisagé pour expliquer l'abondance actuelle des éléments modérément volatils sur Terre.

Ce chapitre présente une nouvelle détermination du rapport initial ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr de la ferroanorthosite lunaire 60025 avec une précision de 1 ppm. Cette mesure appose une contrainte sur l'évolution isotopique précoce du Sr du système Terre – Lune. En la comparant avec l'évolution calculée pour différents modèles de composition de la Terre, nous avons déduit un âge maximum d'appauvrissement en éléments volatils de la Terre de 4,7 Ma après la formation du Système Solaire. Cette valeur tend vers l'hypothèse que la plus grande partie de la perte en volatils de la Terre a eu lieu dans le disque protoplanétaire.

⁸⁷Rb-⁸⁷Sr constraints on the age of volatile element depletion in the Earth

5.1 Introduction

A common feature of the terrestrial bodies and most chondrites in the inner Solar System is their depletion in volatile and moderately volatile elements compared to CI chondrites, which have a solar composition for most elements. This is an essential property of planetary materials and is illustrated in Figure 1 showing the various extents of the volatile depletion in different objects. The Earth shows an important depletion compared to chondrites or Mars, while the Moon is even more depleted. The volatile depletion could have occurred through nebular phenomena that lead to local heating or during impact events associated with planetary accretion. In the former case, the timing of depletion should coincide with the lifespan of the solar nebula. The maximum lifetime of the solar protoplanetary disk is of a few millions years (e.g. Podosek and Cassen, 1994). The volatile element depletion taking place during the early stages of protoplanetary disk is likely to have occurred through partial condensation or evaporation during thermal events. The objects that condensed during this period were depleted in volatile, as the temperature of the solar nebula was initially higher than the condensation temperature of moderately volatile elements. Such a scenario is probably relevant for the parent bodies of angrites and eucrites that both lost, or never accreted, their moderately volatile elements within 1 Myr after CAI (Hans et al., 2013; Schiller et al., 2015). In contrast, if the volatile elements were lost during later stages of planetary accretion, the most likely scenario is a loss during collisions between embryos (Halliday, 2004; Bond et al., 2010; Elser et al. 2010).

The Moon has a similar extent of volatile element depletion to that observed in eucrites. However, the timing of its Moon accretion clearly rules out a nebular origin (Touboul et al. 2007; Jacobson et al., 2014). The age of the Moon is a key parameter to understand the last stages of the Earth's accretion. It is now widely accepted that the Moon formed by a Giant Impact between the proto-Earth and an impactor whose size could have ranged between 5 and close to 50% of that of the current Earth (Canup, 2008; Canup, 2012; Stewart et al., 2012). It has been argued by Dauphas et al. (2014) that the close isotopic match between the Earth and the Moon (Wiechert et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2012; Fitoussi and Bourdon 2012; Armytage et al. 2012) could be explained by the formation of both precursors from a similar isotope reservoir, while the minor differences in O (Herwartz et al., 2014) are possibly explained by a late veneer. However, this scenario does not account for similarities in ¹⁸²W abundances in

Earth and Moon (Touboul et al., 2007) that should be the result of extensive isotopic homogenization following the Moon forming impact (Pahlevan and Stevenson, 2007; Lock et al., 2016).



Figure 1. K/U versus Rb/Sr diagram showing volatile element depletion in planetary materials. K and Rb are both moderately volatile while U and Sr are refractory. Adapted from Halliday et Porcelli (2001).

The age of the Moon could be assessed by the age of the ferroan anorthosites (FAN) returned by the Apollo missions, thereby setting a lower limit on the age of the Moon. Carlson and Lugmair (1988) determined a Sm-Nd age of 4.44 ± 0.02 Ga for FAN 60025 and Hanan and Tilton (1987) obtained a Pb-Pb age of 4.51 ± 0.01 Ga on the same rock. Another study by Premo and Tatsumoto (1993) reported Pb-Pb ages ranging from 4.316 ± 0.065 to 4.431 ± 0.015 Ga. More recently, Borg et al. (2011) measured internal isochrons for the FAN 60025 with two isotopic systems. The Pb-Pb and Sm-Nd ages inferred are similar within error giving a mean age for this rock of 4.360 ± 0.003 Ma. Borg et al. (2015) evaluated the reliability of ages determined on lunar rocks and determined than the most reliable ages are the youngest. If we assume that the ferroanorthosite were formed during the late stage crystallization of the lunar magma ocean, this would suggest a very young age for the Moon. However, this interpretation can be questioned because it must be ascertained first that these results really record magma ocean crystallization. Ultimately, the short-lived ¹⁸²Hf – ¹⁸²W could constrain the end of lunar accretion and the formation of its core. The Moon seems to have formed after complete decay

of the 182 Hf, which puts a lower limit for lunar formation of $\sim 45 - 50$ Myr after CAI (Touboul et al., 2007, 2015).

The 87 Rb – 87 Sr is an powerful tool to study volatile element depletion, as Rb is a moderately volatile element while Sr is refractory. The parent to daughter ratio is efficiently fractionated by incomplete condensation, evaporation or volatile loss during impact. In this study we present new data for the initial 87 Sr/ 86 Sr ratio for the FAN 60025 with an improved precision of 1 ppm (2 s.d.). This data allow to better define the lunar Rb – Sr evolution and puts a novel constrain on the timing of volatile depletion in the Earth building materials.

5.2 Methods

The 60025 is a pristine coarse grained ferroan anorthosite from the lunar highlands sampled during the Apollo 16 mission. The fragment analyzed in this study is nearly composed of pure plagioclase with only a few percents of mafic minerals. The sample was first coarsely crushed in an agate mortar, then mafic minerals, olivines, pyroxenes and oxides were handpicked under a binocular microscope. The plagioclase fraction was crushed into a fine powder and dissolved in a mixture of HF:HNO₃. After the conversion of fluorides to chlorides in concentrated HCl, the Sr fraction was purified using the analytical protocol described in chapter 2.

The ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios were measured on a Thermo Triton plus thermal ionization mass spectrometer using a multidynamic configuration mode. Details of the analytical procedure are given in chapter 2. The Rb and Sr concentrations were measured on a ~10 mg aliquot using a Thermo Element high-resolution ICP-MS. This instrument has very low detection level (~20 ppt) needed to measure the very low Rb content of ferroan anorthosites. The NIST SRM 987 standard was measured over the course of this study and yielded a value of 0.710249 \pm 0.000004 (2 ppm, 2 S.D., n = 15).

5.3 Results

The ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr multidynamic ratios and ⁸⁷Rb/⁸⁶Sr ratios for 60025 are listed in Table 1 and the data of Carlson and Lugmair (1988) for the same sample is reported for reference. The internal precision of 1 ppm (2 S.D.) achieved for the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio is more than an order of magnitude better than the uncertainty of ~30 ppm previously reported for the same sample (Carlson and Lugmair, 1988). The ICP-MS measurement of Rb and Sr concentrations used in this study is

less precise than the conventional isotope dilution method, but the values are identical within error (5 %) to the isotope dilution concentrations given by Carlson and Lugmair (1988).

| | | ⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr | 2 s.e. | Rb (ppm) | Sr (ppm) |
|----------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------------|-----------|----------|----------|
| This study | NIST 987 (± 2 S.D.) | 0.7102487 | 0.0000004 | | |
| | 60025 plagioclase | 0.6990809 | 0.0000011 | 0.020 | 196.2 |
| | | 0.6990809 | 0.0000010 | | |
| | | 0.6990817 | 0.0000013 | | |
| | Mean (± 2 S.D.) | 0.6990812 | 0.0000009 | | |
| Carlson and Lugmair (1988) | 60025 plagioclase | 0.699102 | 0.000020 | 0.192 | 196.5 |
| | | 0.699090 | 0.000022 | | |
| | 60025 mafic minerals | 0.699151 | 0.000040 | 0.0017 | 4.976 |

Table 1. ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios and elemental Rb and Sr concentrations for 60025.

Data are normalized to ${}^{86}\text{Sr}/{}^{88}\text{Sr} = 0.1194$.

5.4 A new model age of volatile element depletion for the Earth

Using our new data for one of the oldest rocks on the Moon, it is possible to constrain the age of volatile element depletion in the Earth. In order to construct such a model age, a number of assumptions must be made: (1) we assume that the isotope similarity between the Earth and the Moon even for refractory elements (e.g. Ti, W) strongly suggests that this must have been the case also for Sr isotopes. This argument was used by Halliday (2008) to constrain the age of the Moon. (2) The second assumption is that the isotope composition of refractory elements carrying nucleosynthetic anomalies combined with oxygen isotopes can be used to constrain the building blocks of the Earth and several such models have been proposed. The most recent models are based on mixtures of meteoritic components whose isotope compositions have been analysed for a number of elements (e.g. Ca, Sr, Ti, Cr, Mo, Ni and O). For example, the close isotopic match between the Earth and enstatite chondrites has led to the model of the 'Enstatite Earth' (Javoy et al., 1995, 2010) that assumes that the bulk Earth has the same chemical composition as this group of meteorites. Other models from Lodders (2000) and Dauphas et al. (2014) proposed that the Earth is mostly composed of enstatite chondrites, with the addition of carbonaceous and ordinary chondrites in various proportions (see Table 2). While these models match the isotopic composition of the Earth for most elements, they fail to explain its elementary composition, especially for the moderately volatile elements and the enrichment in refractory elements found in the Earth. A new model by Fitoussi et al. (2016) proposed that the isotopic composition of the bulk Earth could be matched without including a large proportion of enstatite chondrites. Rather, their MonteCarlo model showed that the Earth's isotope

composition could be matched by a mixture of angrites, ordinary chondrites, CI and CV carbonaceous chondrites while accounting for the refractory lithophile elements enrichment. Although this model yields a lower moderately volatile elements budget than other models (this is mostly due to the angrite component), it still has too many volatile elements compared to the present-day silicate Earth. As a consequence, all the models based on nucleosynthetic anomalies and oxygen isotopes require a process of volatile element depletion and the nature of this process is not well constrained. It was argued in Fitoussi et al. (2016) the proto-Earth had to undergo a moderately volatile element depletion process. A giant impact is a likely candidate as it is the only known phenomena able to deliver enough energy to permit the escape of elements like Rb from the Earth (Halliday, 2004; Elser et al. 2010; Bond et al. 2010). In what follows, we have used several models mentioned above and it can be concluded that our model age of volatile element depletion is not too sensitive to the choice of the model.

Table 2. End-members proportions for models of the building blocs of Earth and associated ⁸⁷Rb/⁸⁶Sr ratios.

| | Angrites | CI | CV | OC (H) | EH | EL | ⁸⁷ Rb/ ⁸⁶ Sr |
|---------------------------------|----------|-------|----------|--------|------|------|------------------------------------|
| OCCAM – Fitoussi et al. (2016) | 0.50 | 0.08 | 0.10 | 0.32 | | | 0.275 |
| Enstatite – Javoy et al. (2010) | | | | | 0.67 | 0.33 | 0.882 |
| Dauphas et al. (2014) | | 0.002 | 0.023(1) | 0.068 | 0.9 | 08 | 0.850 |
| Lodders (2000) | | 0.04 | 0.05 | 0.21 | 0.2 | 70 | 0.894 |

(1) Dauphas et al. (2014) considered a mixture of CV and CO.

Rb and Sr concentrations from: Barrat et al. (2014); Barrat et al. (2012); Stracke et al.

Based on these hypotheses, it is possible to calculate a model age for volatile element depletion by reconstructing the isotope evolution of the Moon-Earth system on the one hand and of the Earth's precursor material on the other hand. Then, by calculating the intersection between the evolution line of the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio of proto-Earth with the Sr isotope evolution of the bulk Earth, it is possible to derive an age.

For this purpose, one must first determine the elemental Rb/Sr ratio for each model of the Earth building blocks has to be calculated using a simple mass balance. Considering a mixture of n components:

$$\left(\frac{Rb}{Sr}\right)_{model} = \sum \chi_j^{Sr} \left(\frac{Rb}{Sr}\right)_j \tag{1}$$

where $\chi_j^{Sr} = \frac{[Sr]_j \chi_j}{\sum [Sr]_j \chi_j}$ represents the fraction of Sr in each component and χ_j the mass fraction of each component. The timing of volatile element depletion is determined using a two-

^{(2012);} Wasserburg and Kallemeyn (1988)

stage evolution model. The values of input parameters used in the calculations are given in Table 3. The proto-Earth model is supposed to start with the initial 87 Sr/ 86 Sr of the Solar System defined by the initial ratio of CAI (Calcium Aluminium rich Inclusions) 87 Sr/ 86 Sr = 0.698975 (Hans et al., 2013). At the time of volatile element depletion T_d, the Sr isotopic composition of the proto-Earth is given by the following equation:

$$\left(\frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\right)^{T_d}_{model} = \left(\frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\right)^{initial}_{CAI} + \left(\frac{{}^{87}Rb}{{}^{86}Sr}\right)_{model} \left(e^{\lambda T_0} - e^{\lambda T_d}\right)$$
(2)

where T_0 is the age of the age of the oldest CAI, taken here as 4568 Ma (e.g. Bouvier and Wadhwa, 2010) To constrain the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr evolution curve for the Earth, its ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio at the time of Moon formation is assumed to be equal to that of the Moon (see hypothesis 1). It is thus necessary to determine the initial ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio of the bulk Moon. The revised crystallisation age of 4.360 ± 0.003 Ga for FAN 60025 obtained by Borg et al. (2011) implies that the initial ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio of 60025 can no longer be taken as representative of the bulk Moon initial ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio as in Halliday and Porcelli (2001) or Halliday (2008). Rather, it is crucial to consider that the Sr isotopic composition of 60025 was that of the bulk silicate Moon at the time of the anorthosite formation T_{FAN} , and using a standard equation for radioactive decay in a closed system, the initial ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio for the bulk Moon can be calculated:

$$\left(\frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\right)_{Moon}^{TMoon} = \left(\frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}\right)_{60025}^{TFAN} + \left(\frac{{}^{87}Rb}{{}^{86}Sr}\right)_{Moon} \left(e^{\lambda T_{FAN}} - e^{\lambda T_{Moon}}\right)$$
(3)

The Rb/Sr = 0.0073 of the bulk Moon was calculated using the Rb/La ratio obtained by Taylor et al. (2014) and the La/Sr chondritic ratio, assuming that La and Sr in the Moon have relative concentrations similar to that of CI chondrites. The initial 87 Sr/ 86 Sr ratio of the Moon can then be used to constrain the evolution of the proto-Earth with the assumption that the protolunar disk equilibrated with the proto Earth in the aftermath of the giant impact (Pahlevan and Stevenson, 2007). The terrestrial 87 Sr/ 86 Sr evolution curve starting from the time of volatile element depletion is calculated as follows:

$$\binom{^{87}Sr}{^{86}Sr}_{Earth}^{Td} = \binom{^{87}Sr}{^{86}Sr}_{Moon}^{TMoon} + \binom{^{87}Rb}{^{86}Sr}_{Earth}^{Proto} \left(e^{\lambda T_{Moon}} - e^{\lambda T_d}\right)$$
(4)

The time of the Moon formation predates the addition of the late veneer, which is generally assumed to consist of volatile-rich materials. For this reason, we corrected the ⁸⁷Rb/⁸⁶Sr ratio of the Bulk silicate Earth for the effect of the late veneer. The ⁸⁷Rb/⁸⁶Sr of the Earth prior to the addition of the late veneer is simply inferred by subtracting 0.5 % of CI chondrites composition to the present-day bulk silicate Earth (Day et al. 2007; Walker, 2009). In this study, we redetermine a new value of the Rb/Sr ratio of the Earth using the Ba/Sr ratio determined in the Orgueil CI chondrite by Barrat et al. (2012). It should be mentioned that this value is consistent

with the Ba/Sr ratio found in the comprehensive study of Allende by Stracke et al. (2012). It is worth pointing out that this calculation provides a minimum value for the Rb/Sr ratio for the proto Earth, as long as the percentage of Earth's mass added by the late veneer does not exceed 0.5%. If the late veneer material were depleted in volatile elements compared to CI chondrites, the Rb/Sr ratio of the Earth before the addition of the late veneer would be comprised between the value calculated above and the ratio of the BSE.

The result of the calculation is illustrated in Figure 2. The age of volatile element depletion of the proto Earth is given by the intercept between the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr evolution of the proto-Earth with that of the bulk silicate Earth corrected for the effect of the late veneer.

$$T_{d} = \frac{1}{\lambda} \ln \left(\frac{\begin{pmatrix} \frac{87}{86}Sr}{86}Sr \end{pmatrix}_{model}^{rinitial} - \begin{pmatrix} \frac{87}{86}Sr \\ \frac{87}{86}Sr \end{pmatrix}_{proto}^{r} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{87}{86}Sr \\ \frac{87}{86}Sr \end{pmatrix}_{model} e^{-\lambda T_{0}} - \begin{pmatrix} \frac{87}{86}Sr \\ \frac{87}{86}Sr \\ \frac{87}{86}Sr \end{pmatrix}_{proto} e^{-\lambda T_{Moon}}}{\begin{pmatrix} \frac{87}{86}Sr \\ \frac{86}{86}Sr \\ model \end{pmatrix}_{model} - \begin{pmatrix} \frac{87}{86}Sr \\ \frac{86}{86}Sr \\ \frac{87}{86}Sr \\ \frac{87}{86}Sr$$

Table 3. Input parameters used in the model age calculation.

| λ^{87} Rb | 1.397 x 10 ⁻¹¹ a ⁻¹ | |
|--|---|---------------------------|
| Initial ⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr | | |
| Solar System (= CAI) | 0.698975 | Hans et al. (2013) |
| ⁸⁷ Rb/ ⁸⁶ Sr | | |
| CI chondrites | 0.9024 | Barrat et al. (2012) |
| Bulk Silicate Earth | 0.079 | Hoffman (1988) |
| Moon | 0.0073 | Taylor et al. (2014) |
| Ages | | |
| Moon | 50 Ma | |
| FAN 60025 | 4.360 Ga | Borg et al. (2011) |
| Solar System | 4.568 Ga | Bouvier and Wadhwa (2010) |

This simple model produces an age of volatile loss of 4.7 Myr after CAIs for the OCCAM model proposed by Fitoussi et al. (2016). Since this model yields the lowest Rb/Sr value for the Earth based on its building blocks it corresponds to the youngest age of volatile element depletion. For the other models, the Rb/Sr ratios are higher and consequently, the ages are older and range between 1.13 and 1.20 Ma. If the effect of the late veneer is neglected, the ⁸⁷Rb/⁸⁶Sr of the Earth would be higher which would make the model age older (4.38 Ma). Similarly, if the objects that formed the late veneer were depleted in volatile element compared to CI chondrites, then the proto-Earth volatile depletion would have occurred sooner. It should be mentioned also that the age of 50 Myr for the Moon is the lowest value allowed by W isotopes (Touboul et al., 2007). Increasing the lunar formation age only tend to reduce the Earth volatile depletion timing.



Figure 2. ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr temporal evolution for the proto-Earth, the Moon, and various models of the Earth. The proto-Earth Sr evolution (red line) corresponds to an Earth from which 0.5 % of CI chondrites material have been removed to reproduce the late veneer. The line is fit to match the lunar Sr evolution at $T_{Moon} = 50$ Ma. The Moon Sr evolution (blue line) is constrained by the initial ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio of 60025 at 4.360 Ga. The models of the Earth Sr evolution are considered to start with the initial ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr of the Solar System (0.698975) at $T_0 = 4.568$ Ga, and evolves with the Rb/Sr listed in table 2. The grey line corresponds to the model of. At the scale of the figure, the evolution lines of the models of Lodders (2000), Dauphas et al. (2014), and Javoy et al. (2010) are almost undistinguishable from the Solar System evolution line.

| | Td | Td (Ma) | | |
|---------------------------------|------|---------|--|--|
| | А | В | | |
| OCCAM – Fitoussi et al. (2016) | 4.70 | 4.38 | | |
| Enstatite – Javoy et al. (2010) | 1.15 | 1.07 | | |
| Dauphas et al. (2014) | 1.20 | 1.12 | | |
| Lodders (2000) | 1.14 | 1.06 | | |
| Chondritic Earth (CI) | 1.13 | 1.04 | | |

Table 4. Model ages of volatile element depletion in the Earth for $T_{Moon} = 50$ Ma.

Ages are calculated in two cases: A. with removal of the late veneer from the Earth composition. B. without removal of late veneer.

It could be argued that such an early event is more likely the result of a process in the protoplanetary disk rather than of a late event such as a giant impact. As Mars is thought to have accreted within 2 Myr after CAI (Dauphas and Pourmand, 2011), it is thus possible to have collisions among embryos as early as 2 Myr. The timescale we obtained based on Rb-Sr for the

Moon does not preclude per se that volatile element depletion in the Earth's precursor material was due to impact processes. It has been argued by Walsh et al., (2011) that the Earth and Mars were formed from an annulus and that Mars was ejected at an early stage from the annulus and that its growth was put to an end. As the Earth is more depleted in volatiles than Mars, it is possible that this ejection meant that the giant impacts that would have depleted the precursor of the Earth in volatile did not happen for Mars. An efficient and extensive loss of volatile element by such a process requires energies of impact leading to magma oceans. Such gravitational energies require objects having at least the size of Mars (Rubie et al., 2007). If we consider the simple case of thermal escape, the issue is then that the kinetic energy of Rb atoms in the vapour phase (typically mean velocity = 0.44 km.s^{-1} at 2000 K) must be greater than the escape velocity of the embryo (i.e. 5.03 km.s^{-1} for Mars, 2.38 km.s⁻¹ for the Moon). Such conditions may be hard to fulfill.

Alternatively, one could argue as Rubie et al. (2015) that there was a chemical zonation within the annulus and that turbulent mixing was not sufficient to erase these chemical heterogeneities. In this case, the depletion in volatile was probably linked to partial condensation of volatile elements in early formed planetesimals or evaporation of inward migrating planetesimals that ultimately accreted to form the Earth (e.g. Ciesla, 2008). Altogether, our model age for the depletion of volatile element in the Earth shows that this process is linked to early rather than late processes.

5.5 Conclusion

The improvement in analytical precision of Sr isotopes measurements by the multidynamic acquisition mode yields a more precise initial ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr value for the 60025 ferroanorthosite. This value puts a strong constraint on the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr evolution of the proto-Earth and Moon system. Models of the Earth's building blocks inferred from isotopic similarities with various classes of meteorites have a moderately volatile element budget higher than the actual Earth. By calculating the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr evolution of a model Earth based on these models, and comparing it with the actual proto-Earth evolution, it is possible to calculate the maximum age of volatile element depletion of the Earth. The maximum age of 4.7 Myr suggests that the building blocks of the Earth were depleted in volatile due to nebular processes but that a loss due to giant impacts cannot be totally precluded. Assuming simply that the precursor material of the Earth started out with a solar composition (i.e. CI chondrites) yields an age of volatile depletion of 0.8 Ma after CAI. In this case, the building blocks of the Earth would be more akin to achondrites such as angrites or eucites than to chondrites in terms of volatile element budgets.

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Conclusions générales

Cette étude a permis le développement d'une nouvelle méthode pour l'analyse à haute précision des isotopes du Sr et du Ba par spectrométrie de masse à ionisation thermique. Le protocole analytique développé utilise les propriétés de rétention des alcalino-terreux par la résine Sr resin de EichromTM. L'utilisation de cette résine remplaçant les séparations sur résine cationique des méthodes publiées dans la littérature permet d'appliquer cette méthode à une large gamme d'échantillons de compositions diverses. Le protocole assure un rendement de plus de 90 % pour les deux éléments, avec de faibles niveaux de blanc, le rendant particulièrement adapté à la préparation d'échantillons extraterrestres dont les teneurs en Ba peuvent être faibles (< 10 ppm) et dont les quantités disponibles sont restreintes.

Les améliorations apportées au spectromètre de masse, ainsi que l'utilisation d'une configuration multidynamique permettent d'atteindre une précision externe (2 s.d.) de 2 ppm sur le rapport ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr, de 4 ppm sur ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba, 19 ppm sur ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr et de moins de 58 ppm pour ¹³²Ba/¹³⁶Ba. Ces deux derniers rapports sont très importants pour l'exploration des variations nucléosynthétiques entre objets du Système Solaire. Ils sont la clé pour déterminer la nature du ou des processus (p, r et s) à l'origine des anomalies nucléosynthétiques. L'amélioration de la précision externe des mesures par TIMS passe par le développement de l'utilisation de l'acquisition multidynamique. Seule cette méthode permet de s'affranchir des effets liés à l'usure des collecteurs.

L'utilisation du processus de fusion laser sur les chondrites carbonées permet de déterminer l'influence de phases résistantes aux attaques acides comme les SiC ou le graphite. Les résultats montrent que les anomalies en Ba et dans une moindre mesure, en Sr sont amplifiées par l'effet de phases non dissoutes dans l'échantillon. Cette méthode représente un grand intérêt pour de futures études sur les anomalies nucléosynthétiques des chondrites de type 1 à 3.

Les données isotopiques obtenues en Sr et Ba indiquent une homogénéité des objets autres que les chondrites carbonées dans le Système Solaire. Les angrites sont supposées s'être formées très rapidement après les CAI, dont les données publiées montrent qu'ils sont les objets solaires qui présentent les plus importantes anomalies. Cette observation implique que le Système Solaire interne était bien mélangé et séparé du réservoir des CAI. L'absence d'anomalies dans les chondrites carbonées de type CI, de composition solaire, suggère que le réservoir des CC avait une composition isotopique similaire en Sr et Ba et que les anomalies observées dans les CV et CM proviennent de quelques phases porteuses (CAI, grains présolaires). Cette observation contraste avec les hétérogénéités à l'échelle planétaire découvertes dans d'autres systèmes, notamment le calcium qui a pourtant une température de condensation similaire au Sr et au Ba. Toutefois, le Ca est inclus dans des phases différentes (hibonite) que le Sr et le Ba contenus dans des titanates. Les similitudes chimiques entre Ca et Sr, Ba ne sont donc pas incompatibles avec un phénomène de *thermal processing* comme origine de la variation isotopique des systèmes comme le Ca.

L'étude haute précision du rapport ¹³⁵Ba/¹³⁶Ba dans un échantillon d'Orgueil (CI) préparé par fusion laser montre l'absence d'anomalie dans cet objet. Ceci permet de mieux contraindre le rapport isotopique initial ¹³⁵Cs/¹³³Cs du Système Solaire. La nouvelle valeur maximale de 4 x 10⁻⁶ déterminée dans cette étude ne nécessite pas l'injection tardive de ¹³⁵Cs pour expliquer son abondance observée. Des études récentes ont permis d'améliorer la connaissance du rapport d'abondance initial pour nombre de radionucléides de courte période tels que le ¹³⁵Cs. L'observation de ces éléments est en accord avec un dernier apport de matériel issu du processus r environ 100 Ma avant la formation des premiers objets du Système Solaire. Les nucléides du processus s semblent avoir été injectés de façon continue dans le nuage moléculaire à l'origine du Système Solaire.

L'observation d'une corrélation entre les anomalies en ⁸⁴Sr et ¹³⁵Ba observées dans les chondrites carbonées suggère que les variations de l'isotope ⁸⁴Sr ne sont que dans anomalies apparentes causées par une variation d'abondance des processus r et s affectant le rapport de normalisation ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr, et non une variation directe de l'abondance du processus p. La corrélation est en accord avec la pente théorique calculée dans le cas d'une variation de processus s. La recherche de corrélation entre isotopes de différents éléments nécessite de préférence que les mesures aient été réalisées sur les mêmes échantillons. L'hétérogénéité des échantillons de chondrites carbonées, particulièrement de la CM Murchison, peut être à l'origine de variations de l'amplitude des anomalies nucléosynthétiques observées. Dans le cas de corrélations recherchées sur des échantillons différents, une attention particulière devra être portée à la technique de dissolution employée pour chacun des deux éléments considérés, ainsi qu'à la masse de l'aliquote utilisée.

La nouvelle détermination du rapport ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr de la ferroanorthosite lunaire 60025 permet de placer une nouvelle contrainte sur l'évolution précoce de la composition isotopique en Sr de la Terre. En comparant cette évolution aux modèles de composition de la Terre, nous avons pu déterminer que l'appauvrissement en éléments volatils de la proto-Terre a eu lieu au plus tard 4,7 Ma après la formation du Système Solaire. Ce résultat suggère que la perte des volatils de la Terre est le résultat de processus nébulaires, et que les impacts géants plus tardifs dans l'accrétion des planètes telluriques n'auraient joué qu'un rôle mineur dans cet appauvrissement.

La précision externe de 2 ppm désormais atteinte sur le rapport ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr, associée à la mise en évidence de la variation du rapport ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁸Sr dans certains objets, implique la nécessité d'une

détermination précise du rapport ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁶Sr, ce dernier permettant de corriger des anomalies nucléosynthétiques affectant le rapport de normalisation. La compréhension de l'origine de la différence entre mesures statiques et mesures multidynamiques désormais observée par plusieurs laboratoires, est un point clé de l'amélioration des données de ⁸⁴Sr. Par ailleurs, l'incertitude de 2 ppm sur le rapport ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr permet d'obtenir une résolution temporelle maximale de 150 000 ans dans le cadre de l'utilisation du radiochronomètre ⁸⁷Rb – ⁸⁶Sr.

Ce travail de thèse a été focalisé sur l'étude de météorites dans leur intégralité. Toutefois, la composition isotopique en Ba des inclusions réfractaires des chondrites carbonées (Brennecka et al., 2013 ; Bermingham et al., 2014) n'est pas totalement résolue. L'absence de corrélation entre leurs anomalies en μ^{135} Ba et μ^{137} Ba ne semble pas cohérente avec un excès radiogénique en ¹³⁵Ba. Les résultat d'une récente étude des variations nucléosynthétiques du Nd (Burkhardt et al., 2016) suggère qu'une étude couplée entre Ba et Nd sur des CAI pourrait apporter des contraintes supplémentaires à ce problème.