



RESEARCH ARTICLE

10.1002/2015GC005812

Factors affecting the rare earth element compositions in massive sulfides from deep-sea hydrothermal systems

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Key Points:

- Hydrothermal fluids are significant sources of REEs in seafloor massive sulfides
- Sulfide-forming fluids and mineral chemistry jointly affect sulfide REE patterns
- Global seafloor sulfide deposits contain approximately 280 t of REEs

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Citation:

Zeng, Z., Y. Ma, X. Yin, D. Selby, F. Kong, and S. Chen (2015), Factors affecting the rare earth element compositions in massive sulfides from deep-sea hydrothermal systems, *Geochem. Geophys. Geosyst.*, 16, 2679–2693, doi:10.1002/2015GC005812.

Received 12 MAR 2015

Accepted 22 JUL 2015

Accepted article online 1 AUG 2015

Published online 21 AUG 2015

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Abstract To reconstruct the evolution of ore-forming fluids and determine the physicochemical conditions of deposition associated with seafloor massive sulfides, we must better understand the sources of rare earth elements (REEs), the factors that affect the REE abundance in the sulfides, and the REE flux from hydrothermal fluids to the sulfides. Here we examine the REE profiles of 46 massive sulfide samples collected from seven seafloor hydrothermal systems. These profiles feature variable total REE concentrations (37.2–4092 ppb) and REE distribution patterns (La_{CN}/Lu_{CN} ratios = 2.00–73.8; $(Eu/Eu^*)_{CN}$ ratios = 0.34–7.60). The majority of the REE distribution patterns in the sulfides are similar to those of vent fluids, with the sulfides also exhibiting light REE enrichment. We demonstrate that the variable REE concentrations, Eu anomalies, and fractionation between light REEs and heavy REEs in the sulfides exhibit a relationship with the REE properties of the sulfide-forming fluids and the massive sulfide chemistry. Based on the sulfide REE data, we estimate that modern seafloor sulfide deposits contain approximately 280 t of REEs. According to the flux of hydrothermal fluids at mid-ocean ridges (MORs) and an average REE concentration of 3 ng/g in these fluids, hydrothermal vents at MORs alone transport more REEs (>360 t) to the oceans over the course of just 2 years than the total quantity of REEs in seafloor sulfides. The excess REEs (i.e., the quantity not captured by massive sulfides) may be transported away from the systems and become bound in sulfate deposits and metalliferous sediments.

1. Introduction

The chemical properties of rare earth elements (REEs) in a trivalent state under most natural conditions are fundamentally similar [Henderson, 1984], but slight differences in their behavior are caused by the decrease in atomic radii across the group, which influences fractionation, complexation, adsorption, speciation, and mobility [Henderson, 1984; Elderfield et al., 1988]. The study of REEs in seafloor hydrothermal systems is key to evaluate the sources of fluid constituents, mixing processes, and fluid evolution [Alt, 1988; Elderfield et al., 1988; Gillis et al., 1990; Haas et al., 1995; Humphris, 1998; Humphris and Bach, 2005; Embley et al., 2007; Zeng et al., 2009]. In addition, REE data may be used to evaluate the physicochemical conditions of hydrothermal fluids [Michard et al., 1983; Michard and Albarède, 1986; Michard, 1989; Klinkhammer et al., 1994; James et al., 1995; Douville et al., 1999; Bach et al., 2003; Mills and Elderfield, 1995]. As such, REE data provide important information about (1) the geochemical nature of ancient hydrothermal activity [Rimskaya-Korsakova and Dubinin, 2003; Schmidt et al., 2010; Cole et al., 2014]; (2) the impact of hydrothermal activity on the chemical mass balance of elements between sulfides and seawater [German et al., 1990; Mitra et al., 1994; Bau and Dulski, 1999; Sherrell et al., 1999]; (3) magmatic degassing in seafloor hydrothermal systems [Craddock et al., 2010]; and (4) the formation conditions and sources of seafloor sulfides, sulfates, and native sulfur balls and chimneys [e.g., Graf, 1977; Alt, 1988; Barrett et al., 1990; Gillis et al., 1990; Mills and Elderfield, 1995; Bach et al., 2003; Rimskaya-Korsakova and Dubinin, 2003; Zeng et al., 2007, 2009, 2010, 2011].

The majority of seafloor hydrothermal fluids have REE concentrations that are several orders of magnitude higher than those of seawater [Turekian, 1968]. Seafloor hydrothermal fluids have remarkably uniform REE distribution patterns, exhibiting greater enrichment in light REEs (LREEs) than heavy REEs (HREEs), and positive Eu anomalies [e.g., Michard and Albarède, 1986; Michard, 1989; Klinkhammer et al., 1994; Mitra et al., 1994; Douville et al., 1999]. However, in some hydrothermal systems (e.g., the Comfortless Cove vent field,

Mid-Atlantic Ridge (MAR) near 5°S and the East Scotia subduction zone located in the Atlantic sector of the Southern Ocean), the hydrothermal fluids have extremely high REE concentrations (up to 123 nmol/kg), are enriched with mid-REEs (MREEs), and have negative Eu anomalies due to the accumulation of particulate anhydrite, which is MREE enriched and sourced from black and white chimneys [Schmidt *et al.*, 2010; Cole *et al.*, 2014]. In the Manus Basin, the REE patterns in different vent fluids range from LREE enriched, to MREE and HREE enriched, to flat, and show positive Eu anomalies due to the differences in the degassing of magmatic volatiles (i.e., HF and SO₂) and the precipitation of anhydrite in submarine hydrothermal systems [Craddock *et al.*, 2010]. The different REE patterns in the hydrothermal fluids are mainly attributed to differences in REE solubility due to variations in the relative abundance and stability of REE-chloride, fluoride, and sulfate complexes as a function of fluid temperature, pH, and ligand concentration [Craddock *et al.*, 2010].

To date, limited data are available on the REE compositions of sulfides from various deep-sea hydrothermal systems in mid-ocean ridges (MORs) and back-arc basins (BABs), due to the difficulty in obtaining pure sulfide mineral or aggregate samples that exclude other minerals such as sulfates and oxides [Graf, 1977; Barrett *et al.*, 1990; Mills and Elderfield, 1995]. However, the range of REE concentrations in the sulfide minerals (10–100,000 ppb) [Graf, 1977; Gillis *et al.*, 1990; Mills and Elderfield, 1995; Zeng *et al.*, 2010] encompasses the REE concentrations in the oceanic crust (~57 ppm) [Hofmann, 1988] and vent fluids (<33 ppb) [Michard and Albarède, 1986; Michard, 1989; Klinkhammer *et al.*, 1994; Mitra *et al.*, 1994; James *et al.*, 1995; Bau and Dulski, 1999; Douville *et al.*, 1999, 2002; Schmidt *et al.*, 2007]. The REE patterns are variable in hydrothermal sulfides. For example, the massive sulfide-sulfates in the Southern Explorer Ridge exhibit three REE patterns: (1) enrichment in LREEs with positive Eu anomalies, (2) flat REE patterns with positive Eu anomalies and negative Ce anomalies, and (3) enrichment in LREEs with moderately negative Ce anomalies [Barrett *et al.*, 1990]. The varying sulfide-sulfate REE patterns are interpreted as the result of variable mixtures of hydrothermal fluids and seawater [Barrett *et al.*, 1990]. In the Rainbow, Broken Spur, and Trans-Atlantic Geotraverse (TAG) hydrothermal fields, the chondrite-normalized REE patterns of 10 seafloor hydrothermal sulfide samples display enrichment in LREEs relative to HREEs, which has been attributed to crystallographic control [Mills and Elderfield, 1995; Rimskaya-Korsakova and Dubinin, 2003]. The REE patterns of the massive sulfides in the Rainbow field and Southern Explorer Ridge exhibit positive Eu anomalies, but those in the TAG, Broken Spur, and Snake Pit field feature negative Eu anomalies [Barrett *et al.*, 1990; Gillis *et al.*, 1990; Rimskaya-Korsakova and Dubinin, 2003]. The variability in the Eu anomalies may be related to the temperature (from <200 to >300°C) of sulfide precipitation in these seafloor hydrothermal systems [Mills and Elderfield, 1995].

In this study, we analyzed the REE compositions of 46 seafloor massive sulfide samples from seven hydrothermal fields associated with the MAR, East Pacific Rise (EPR), Central Indian Ridge (CIR), Southwest Indian Ridge (SWIR), and North Fiji basin (NFB). The REE compositions of the massive sulfides from these seafloor hydrothermal systems are presented in combination with the major and trace element compositions to (1) identify the sources of the REEs in sulfides, (2) understand the factors that cause variations in the REE distribution patterns in sulfides, and (3) evaluate the flux of REEs from hydrothermal fluids to seafloor massive sulfides.

2. Geological Setting and Sample Mineralogical Descriptions

Sulfide samples were recovered by TV-grab samplers from the fast spreading EPR near 13°N, the ultrafast spreading EPR near 1°S–2°S, the Kairei hydrothermal field (KHF) and the Edmond hydrothermal field (EHF) on the intermediate spreading CIR near 25°S, the “A” area of the ultraslow spreading SWIR, and the Logatchev hydrothermal field (LHF) on the slow spreading MAR near 15°N in 2005 and 2008 during the DY105-17 and DY115-20 cruises of the R/V *Dayang Yihao*. Sulfide samples from the Sonne 99 hydrothermal field (S99HF) in the back-arc NFB were collected in 1998 during the SO134 cruise of HYFIFLUX II (Figure 1 and Table 1).

The massive sulfide deposits of the EPR near 13°N and 1°S–2°S, EHF, and the “A” area are hosted by mid-ocean ridge basalts (MORBs) [Zeng *et al.*, 2014]. In the KHF, the massive sulfide deposit is hosted by basalt that is adjacent to mafic-ultramafic olivine-rich rocks [Kumagai *et al.*, 2008], and the hydrothermal fluids interact with and circulate through ultramafic rocks [Nakamura *et al.*, 2009]. In the LHF, the massive sulfide is associated with ultramafic rocks in a debris flow that consists of heterogeneous ultramafic and mafic intrusive rocks, including serpentized harzburgite, serpentized dunite, gabbro-norite, and olivine-bearing

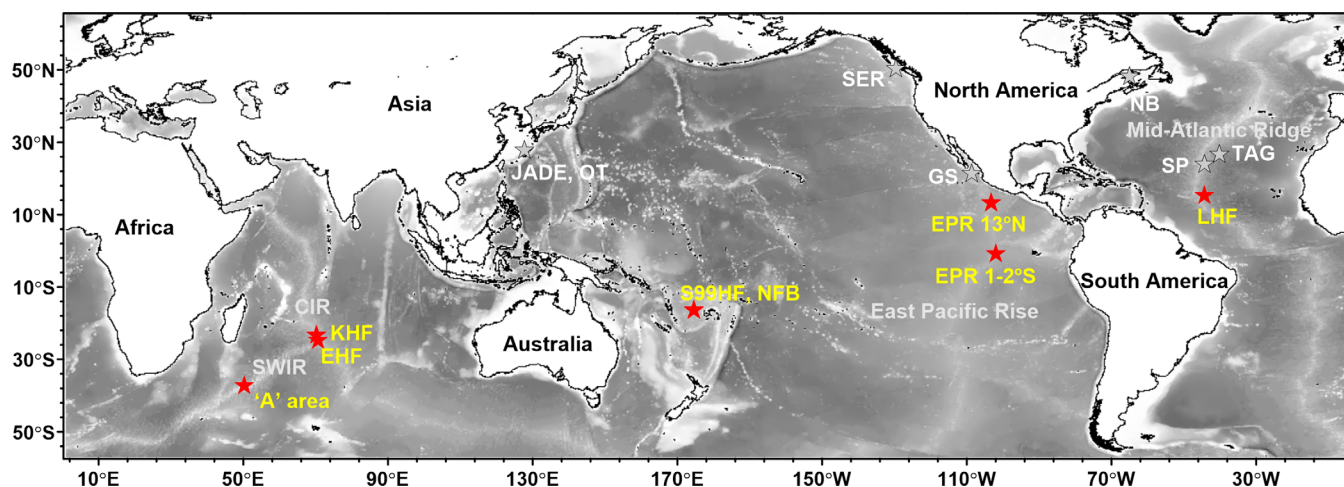


Figure 1. Locations of the seafloor massive sulfide samples from deep-sea hydrothermal fields. The red stars indicate the seven sulfide sample sites from the East Pacific Rise (EPR) near 13°N and 1°S–2°S, Kairei hydrothermal field (KHF) and Edmond hydrothermal field (EHF) in the Central Indian Ridge (CIR), “A” area hydrothermal field (“A” area) in the Southwest Indian Ridge (SWIR), Sonne 99 hydrothermal field (S99HF) in the North Fiji Basin (NFB), and Logatchev hydrothermal field (LHF). The gray stars indicate the sulfide sample sites from the Trans-Atlantic Geotraverse (TAG), Snake Pit (SP), New Brunswick (NB), Southern Explorer Ridge (SER), Green Seamount (GS), and JADE in the Okinawa Trough (OT).

basalt, and the area is largely covered by pelagic sediment [Mozgova and Efimov, 1999; Rouxel et al., 2004; Petersen et al., 2009]. The S99HF in the NFB is hosted by normal mid-ocean ridge basalt (N-MORB) and ocean island basalt (OIB) [Eissen et al., 1994; Nohara et al., 1994; Koschinsky et al., 2002; Kim et al., 2006]. Massive sulfide deposits include those formed from both focused high-temperature (>300°C) fluid outflow through chimneys and medium (300–200°C) to low-temperature (<200°C) fluids from mounds in the EPR (near 13°N), KHF, EHF, LHF, and NFB [Michard et al., 1984; Bowers et al., 1988; Merlivat et al., 1987; Ishibashi et al., 1994a, 1994b; Koschinsky et al., 2002; Gallant and Von Damm, 2006; Schmidt et al., 2007] (Table 2).

Tables 1 and 3 provide information on the sampling locations, depths, and mineralogy of the massive sulfide samples. The massive sulfide samples consist primarily of pyrite ± marcasite, chalcopyrite, sphalerite, anhydrite, barite, amorphous silica, and minor galena (Table 3). Four sample types were studied: Fe rich, Zn rich, Fe–Cu rich, and Si rich (Table 3).

3. Samples and Analytical Methods

3.1. Sampling Procedures

The collected samples were separated into small (<1 cm) chips according to differences in color, grain size, porosity, conduits, and concentric zones. The samples did not have a fixed shape and volume, but the primary weight of most samples ranged from 4 to 46 g, except for the samples from EPR near 13°N, which exceeded 100 g. All the sample chips were crushed with an agate mortar and pestle and sieved to select sulfide grains between 50 μm and 2 mm in size [Zeng et al., 2014]. The sulfides were separated from

Table 1. Locations of the Sulfide Samples From the Seafloor Hydrothermal Systems^a

Field	Sample Number	Latitude	Longitude	Depth (m)
13°N, EPR	EPR05-TVG1-2-1, 3, 4, 5	12°42.669'N	103°54.426'W	2628
13°N, EPR	EPR05-TVG1-3-1, 3, 4, 5, 6	12°42.669'N	103°54.426'W	2628
13°N, EPR	EPR05-TVG2-1-1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	12°42.678'N	103°54.414'W	2633
1°–2°S, EPR	20III-S4-TVG1-1-2, 3, 4	1°22.130'S	102°37.360'W	2747
KHF, CIR	IR05-TVG9-1, 2, 3	25°19.221'S	70°02.420'E	2437
EHF, CIR	IR05-TVG12-3, 8-4, 14	23°52.678'S	69°35.808'E	3293
EHF, CIR	IR05-TVG13-4-2, 9.2-1, 9.2-2	23°52.684'S	69°35.795'E	3292
“A” area, SWIR	20V-S35-TVG17-1-1, 1-2, 2, 3-2, 4-2, 5-1, 5-2, 6	37°46.812'S	49°38.886'E	2783
S99HF, NFB	26.2GTV-2	16°57.602'S	173°54.991'E	1976
S99HF, NFB	42GTV-1, 2, 3	16°57.533'S	173°54.978'E	1975
S99HF, NFB	113.1GTV-1, 2, 4	16°57.322'S	173°54.970'E	1967
S99HF, NFB	113.2GTV	16°57.322'S	173°54.970'E	1967
LHF, MAR	MAR05-TVG1-9, 10-2	14°45.186'N	44°58.772'W	3025

Table 2. Major Physicochemical Compositions of Hydrothermal Fluids in Various Seafloor Hydrothermal Systems From Different Tectonic Settings

Field	T (°C)	pH (25°C)	Cl ⁻ (mmol/kg)	SO ₄ ²⁻ (mmol/kg)	Host Rock
13°N, EPR ^a	<283–354	3.1–3.3	712–760	0	MORB
KHF, CIR ^b	315–365	3.35–3.51	571–620	0.479–1.56	MORB + mafic-ultramafic rock
EHF, CIR ^b	273–382	<2.97–3.13	926–933	0–0.615	MORB
HBS, diffuse fluid, NFB ^c	11.29–12.46	6.98–7.35	552–555	- ^d	MORB + OIB
Kaiyo site, NFB ^c	291	4.7	267	-	MORB + OIB
LHF, MAR ^e	170–353	3.3–3.9	515–551	0.8–2.5	Ultramafic rock + basalt + sediment
Seawater ^f	2–4	7.8–8.1	542–560	28	

^aData from Bowers *et al.* [1988], Fouquet *et al.* [1988], Merlivat *et al.* [1987], and Michard *et al.* [1984].

^bData from Gallant and Von Damm [2006].

^cData from Ishibashi *et al.* [1994a, 1994b] and Koschinsky *et al.* [2002].

^d“-” No data available.

^eData from Koschinsky *et al.* [2008].

^fData from Charlou *et al.* [2002], Douville *et al.* [2002], and Gallant and Von Damm [2006].

non sulfide minerals, e.g., sulfates and amorphous silica, via ethanol elutriation [Zeng *et al.*, 2014]. This purification of the sulfide aliquots by ethanol elutriation is based on specific gravity and uses a stream of ethanol that flows counter to the direction of grain flow in a glass dish. The less dense particles rise to the top

Table 3. Mineralogy and Types of Sulfide Samples From Seafloor Hydrothermal Systems Based on XRD, Polarized Optical Microscopy, and SEM Analysis^a

Field	Sample Number	Macroscopic Descriptions	Mineralogy			Sample Type
			Abundant	Major	Minor	
13°N, EPR	EPR05-TVG1-2	Fe-rich dense massive sulfides coated with orange Fe oxides, occurrence of small conduits and well-developed crystals	Py		Cpy, Sp	Fe rich
13°N, EPR	EPR05-TVG1-3	Fe-rich massive sulfides coated with orange oxides, local occurrence of oxidized pyrite druse	Py		Cpy, Sp	Fe rich
13°N, EPR	EPR05-TVG2-1	Fe-rich massive sulfides with many oval cavities inside, occurrence of mineral zonation, and tube worm casts	Py, Mc		Sp	Fe rich
1°S–2°S, EPR	20III-S4-TVG1-1	Fragment of porous chimney with two partially filled conduits, dense exterior, locally altered to bluish purple	Py		Cpy, Mc	Fe rich
KHF, CIR	IR05-TVG9	Fragment of chimney, occurrence of finely bladed chalcopyrite	Py	Cpy	Sp	Fe–Cu rich
EHF, CIR	IR05-TVG12-3	Fragments of gray silica minerals and brown oxides with finely disseminated sulfide minerals, minor barite	Silica	Mc, Py, Sp	Ba	Si rich
EHF, CIR	IR05-TVG12-8-4	Fragment of gray-black porous massive sulfides coated with red to brown oxide crusts	Sp	Py, Mc, S	Cpy	Zn rich
EHF, CIR	IR05-TVG12-14	Gray-black fragment of porous massive sulfide associated with yellowish brown oxides	Sp	Py, Mc, S	Cpy	Zn rich
EHF, CIR	IR05-TVG13-4-2	Oxidized columnar chimney coated with red-brown oxides, dense without apparent zonation, two oval fluid conduits	Cpy, Mc	Sp, Py		Fe–Cu rich
EHF, CIR	IR05-TVG13-9-2	Fragment of chimney, a small columnar chimney attached, abundant red, brown, and yellowish green mixture of oxides, anhydrite, and barite	Mc, Anh	Cpy, Py, Sp, Gyp	Ba	Fe rich
“A” area, SWIR	20V-S35-TVG17	Dense massive sulfide consisting mainly of pyrite and pyrrhotite, partially oxidized interior, dark brown oxide crusts	Py	Po	Cpy, Mc, Sp	Fe rich
S99HF, NFB	26.2GTV-2	Gray zinc-rich fragment from the exterior of a chimney, local honeycomb structure, and coarse black sphalerite crystals	Sp	Mc	Cpy, Py, Gn	Zn rich
S99HF, NFB	42GTV-1	Fragment of Cu-rich chimney with several conduits inside.	Mc	Py, Cpy		Fe–Cu rich
S99HF, NFB	42GTV-2	Subsamples were taken from outside to inside	Mc, Cpy	Py		Fe–Cu rich
S99HF, NFB	42GTV-3		Mc, Cpy	Py		Fe–Cu rich
S99HF, NFB	113.1GTV-1	Fragment of porous massive sulfide, Fe-rich interior, and siliceous exterior. 113.1GTV-1 and 113.1GTV-2 were taken	Py	Cp, Mc		Fe rich
S99HF, NFB	113.1GTV-2	from the interior, and 113.1GTV-4 was taken from the exterior, which consists of amorphous silica, with minor barite	Py	Ma, Cp		Fe rich
S99HF, NFB	113.1GTV-4		Silica	Py, Cpy, Sp	Ba	Si rich
S99HF, NFB	113.2GTV	Fragment of massive sulfide, higher-porosity exterior	Py	Mc	Sp, Cpy	Fe rich
LHF, MAR	MAR05-TVG1-9	Cu-rich massive sulfide with more porous exterior, light blue secondary minerals on the surface	Cpy	Py	Sp	Fe–Cu rich
LHF, MAR	MAR05-TVG1-10-2	Cemented block of gypsum and amorphous silica, disseminated chalcopyrite and marcasite, mottled oxides outside	Cpy	Py	Mc	Fe–Cu rich

^aPy: pyrite; Mc: marcasite; Cpy: chalcopyrite; Sp: sphalerite; Po: pyrrhotite; Silica: amorphous silica; Ba: barite; S: sulfur; Gn: galena; Anh: anhydrite; Gyp: gypsum. Abundant: >30%, major: 5–30%, and minor: <5%.

(overflow) because their terminal grain velocities are lower than the velocity of the rising fluid. Because most of the samples were fine grained and intergrown, an integrated mechanical separating method was used to obtain a pure monomineralic sulfide or mineral aggregate separate. The separation methods included a high-frequency dielectric splitter, magnetic separator, and electromagnetic separator [Zeng *et al.*, 2014]. All the elemental analysis sulfide samples were then carefully picked manually under a binocular microscope to avoid sulfates and oxides and were ultrasonically cleaned in ultrapure alcohol to remove any seawater influences, e.g., the presence of salts and altered seawater products. Then, all the samples were ground to a powder finer than 63 μm in an agate mortar [Zeng *et al.*, 2014]. Fine-grained glass powder was used as an abrasive to polish the mortar and pestle between samples to exclude cross contamination.

3.2. Analytical Methods

The sample mineralogy was determined by X-ray diffraction (XRD) (D/MAX-2400) at the Institute of Geology and Geophysics and by polarized optical microscopy at the Institute of Oceanology, Chinese Academy of Sciences. The D/MAX-2400 instrument was operated at 40 kV and 40 mA, at a scan range of $2\theta = 3^\circ\text{--}65^\circ$, a scan step of 0.02, and a scan velocity of 0.5 s/step. In addition, polished thin sections were analyzed with a TESCAN VEGA 3 LMH scanning electron microscope (SEM) to obtain qualitative analyses of sulfide, oxide, and sulfate minerals from back-scattered electron (BSE) images and energy dispersive spectrometry (EDS).

Each sample was divided into two subsamples, one for major and trace elements and one for REE abundances. The major and trace element abundances were measured on separate 40 mg splits of powdered sulfide separates. These pretreated samples were digested in vials by using 0.5 mL of 22.5 mol/L HF, 2 mL of 12 mol/L HCl, and 0.7 mL of 16 mol/L HNO_3 (all acids at metal-oxide-semiconductor pure grade) at 150°C for 24 h in closed Teflon vials on an electrothermal hotplate. Then, 0.2 mL of 12.4 mol/L HClO_4 was added, and the samples were dried at 120°C until no white smoke was present. When the samples were almost dry, 1 mL of 16 mol/L HNO_3 and 1 mL of deionized Milli-Q water (18.2 M Ω cm resistivity) were added, and the mixture was reheated in closed vials on the hotplate at 120°C for 12 h [Yin *et al.*, 2011]. The major elements Fe, Cu, and Zn were analyzed with an IRIS Intrepid II XSP ICP-AES (Thermo Fisher Scientific) at the Qingdao Institute of Marine Geology. The relative standard deviation (RSD), which was calculated from standard reference materials, was <2%. The trace elements were analyzed by an ICP-MS (ELAN DRC II) at the Institute of Oceanology, Chinese Academy of Sciences. The RSD was <10%. The reference materials GBW07267 (pyrite), GBW07268 (chalcopyrite), GBW07270 (sphalerite), and WMS-1a were run as external standards by using the above analytical protocols to evaluate the accuracy and precision during our measurements (Table 4).

A modified inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) technique was developed to measure the 14 REEs and to correct for analytical interferences in Ba-rich samples. The process was performed on 100 mg of a powdered sulfide sample in a Teflon vial, into which 2 mL of 12 mol/L HCl, 0.5 mL of 22.5 mol/L HF, and 0.6 mL of 16 mol/L HNO_3 were added in turn. Then, the mixture of sample and acid solution was heated at 150°C for 48 h in a closed vial. The resulting solutions were clear and free of precipitates. Following digestion, the samples were dried at 120°C, and when they were almost dry, 2 mL of 2 mol/L HCl was added and heated again for 12 h in closed vials. A Chinese 732 cation-exchange resin column (a strongly acidic styrene-type cation exchange resin) was washed with 6 mL of 2 mol/L HCl before passing the dissolved samples through the column. To remove the matrix elements (e.g., Fe, Cu, Pb, Zn, and Ba), 4 mL of 2 mol/L HCl was added. To remove the Ba, 3 mL of 2.5 mol/L HNO_3 was added (90% recovery), along with 6 mL of 4 mol/L HNO_3 to elute the REEs into Teflon vials. The collected REEs were evaporated until almost dry. The samples were redissolved with 2 mL of 0.32 mol/L HNO_3 and diluted to 5 mL in a centrifugal tube. Finally, the REEs were analyzed with an ICP-MS (ELAN DRC II) at the Institute of Oceanology, Chinese Academy of Sciences. The efficiency of Ba removal was >90%. An isotope correction formula was applied to correct for the interference of residual Ba (<10%) on Eu: $I(^{151}\text{Eu})_c = I(^{151}\text{Eu})_m - (A(^{135}\text{Ba})/A(^{134}\text{Ba})) \times (I(^{149}\text{Sm})_m - (A(^{149}\text{Sm})/A(^{147}\text{Sm})) \times I(^{147}\text{Sm})_m)$, where $I(^{151}\text{Eu})_c$ is the corrected intensity of ^{151}Eu , $I(^{151}\text{Eu})_m$ is the measured intensity of ^{151}Eu , $A(^{135}\text{Ba})$ is the relative abundance (6.592%) of ^{135}Ba [Rosman and Taylor, 1998], $A(^{134}\text{Ba})$ is the relative abundance (2.417%) of ^{134}Ba [Rosman and Taylor, 1998], $I(^{149}\text{Sm})_m$ is the measured intensity of ^{149}Sm , $A(^{149}\text{Sm})$ is the relative abundance (13.8%) of ^{149}Sm [Rosman and Taylor, 1998], $A(^{147}\text{Sm})$ is the relative abundance (15.0%) of ^{147}Sm [Rosman and Taylor, 1998], and $I(^{147}\text{Sm})_m$ is the measured intensity of ^{147}Sm . In this formula, the unit of intensity is counts per second (CPS). Data on yttrium (Y) are not provided here because of the low recovery rate (between 45 and 60%). Using GBW07270, the

Table 4. Analyses of Standard Reference Materials^a

	WMS-1a												
	DLOM Blank + Average			GBW07267			GBW07268			GBW07270			
	Blank Average	Reference Value	Added (200 ng)	Mean Recovery (%)	Average	Reference Value	DVNM	Added (200 ng)	Mean Recovery (%)	Average	Reference Value	Added (200 ng)	Mean Recovery (%)
Fe (%)		44.0	45.4 ± 0.5	40.93	46.08 ± 0.29								
Cu (ppm)		14,534	13,960 ± 140	391	431 ± 30								
Zn (ppm)		160	130 ± 4	277	219 ± 17								
Al (ppm)	0.014	13,363	13,500 ± 210	605									
Ti (ppm)	0.006	801	840 ± 20	241									
Ba (ppm)	<0.005	62.6	70	1.51									
La (ppb)	3.52	4,064	4,300	5,054	4,853	5,474							
Ce (ppb)	6.93	9,077	7,655	7,904	10,488	11,222							
Pr (ppb)	0.63	821	1,000	1,052	1,176	1,164							
Nd (ppb)	2.05	3,323	4,000	4,018	4,148	4,187							
Sm (ppb)	0.40	801	800	749	688	908							
Eu (ppb)	0.15	231	200.0	106	92.0	288							
Tb (ppb)	0.39	858	800	469	423	647							
Dy (ppb)	0.37	732	800	496	17.0	208							
Ho (ppb)	0.16	225	200	7.82	6.0	200							
Er (ppb)	0.34	440	400	33.5	34.0	225							
Tm (ppb)	0.15	71.8	80	3.07	2.0	192							
Yb (ppb)	0.31	422	500	22.9	18.0	214							
Lu (ppb)	0.15	72.1	80	3.89	3.0	191							

^aDLOM is the detection limit of the method; DVNM is the determination value with the normal method, which does not add the 200 ng REEs from the stand solutions. DVNM is used for a comparison with the average LREE values in GBW07267 to verify the accuracy. In total, three analysis values were used to calculate the average value. The 200 ng value represents the abundance of each rare earth element in one aliquot of standard solution that was added into the samples. The reference values of GBW07267, GBW07268, and GBW07270 are from <http://www.bzwz.com>. The reference values of WMS-1a are from <http://www.nrcan.gc.ca/home>.

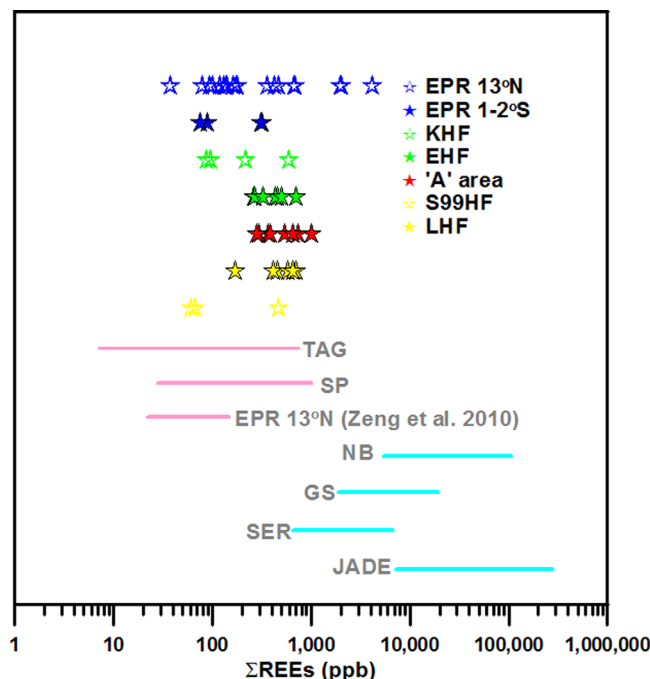


Figure 2. Σ REEs of the sulfides from the EPR 13°N and 1°S–2°S, KHF, EHF, “A” area, S99HF, and LHF. Sources: sulfide data for TAG, Snake Pit (SP), EPR 13°N, and New Brunswick (NB) from Mills and Elderfield [1995], Gillis et al. [1990], Zeng et al. [2010], and Graf [1977]. Green Seamount (GS) Si-rich sulfide, Southern Explorer Ridge (SER) sulfides-sulfates, and JADE sulfides-sulfates data from Alt [1988], Barrett et al. [1990], and Zeng et al. [2009]. The symbols indicate the Σ REE values in the sulfides from the EPR 13°N and 1°S–2°S, KHF, EHF, “A” area, S99HF, and LHF. The lines indicate the Σ REE ranges in the sulfides from TAG, Snake Pit, EPR 13°N and New Brunswick, Green Seamount, Southern Explorer Ridge, and JADE.

in the EPR near 13°N and 1°S–2°S, LHF, KHF, EHF, “A” area, and S99HF are highly variable (37.2–4092 ppb) but are similar to Σ REEs of the hydrothermal products (including sulfides, sulfates, and oxides) from the EPR and the MAR (Figure 2). Among our samples, the massive sulfide samples from the EPR near 13°N exhibit both the highest Σ REEs (4092 ppb, EPR05-TVG1-3-4) and lowest Σ REEs (37.2 ppb, EPR05-TVG2-1-7) (Table 5). The Σ REEs (<5 ppm; Table 5) of all the sulfides are far lower those of the basalts [e.g., Sun et al., 2003] and ultramafic rocks [e.g., Augustin et al., 2008] (Figures 3 and 4).

4.2. LREE Enrichment, Eu and Ce Anomalies in the Massive Sulfides

The C1-chondrite-normalized REE distribution patterns of the seafloor massive sulfide samples from the EPR near 13°N and 1°S–2°S, LHF, KHF, EHF, “A” area, and S99HF are shown in Figures 3 and 4. The REE patterns of all the sulfides show evidence of LREE enrichment (LREE/HREE ratios of 2.55–20), variable La_{CN}/Lu_{CN} ratios that range between 2.00 and 73.8, Eu anomalies ((Eu/Eu*)_{CN} ratios of 0.34–7.60), and minor or negligible Ce anomalies ((Ce/Ce*)_{CN} ratios of 0.79–1.21).

The sulfides are divided into three types based on these Eu anomalies: Type I has a positive Eu anomaly ((Eu/Eu*)_{CN} > 1.20; Figures 3 and 4), Type II has a weak or negligible Eu anomaly ((Eu/Eu*)_{CN} ≈ 1.00; Figures 3 and 4), and Type III has a negative Eu anomaly ((Eu/Eu*)_{CN} < 0.80; Figure 4). Most of the massive sulfides from the EPR near 13°N are Type I and are characterized by positive Eu anomalies that range between 1.21 and 4.08 (Figures 3 and 4). All the sulfides from the KHF and the LHF, sample IR05-TVG12-3 from the EHF, and sample 113.1GTV-4 from the S99HF are also Type I sulfides. The sulfides from the EPR near 13°N (EPR05-TVG2-1-52) and the EHF (IR05-TVG12-8-4, IR05-TVG12-14, IR05-TVG13-4-2, IR05-TVG13-9.2-1, and IR05-TVG13-9.2-2) are Type II and are characterized by weak or negligible Eu anomalies between 0.81 and 1.18 (Figures 3 and 4). All the sulfides from the EPR near 1°S–2°S, the “A” area of the SWIR near 38°S, and most of the sulfides from S99HF are Type III, with negative Eu anomalies between 0.34 and 0.77 (Figure 4).

REE recovery rates were 79% for Ce and between 91 and 113% for other elements. Using WMS-1a, the REE recovery rates were between 82% and 116% for La-Gd and between 98% and 106% for Tb-Lu. An internal standard (Re solution—5 μg/L) was used throughout the analysis process to monitor instrument stability and signal drift. The RSD was <10%.

The normalized REE data refer to C1-chondrites (subscript CN) [Sun and McDonough, 1989]. The Eu and Ce anomalies are defined as (Eu/Eu*)_{CN} = Eu_{CN}/(Sm_{CN} + Gd_{CN})^{0.5} and (Ce/Ce*)_{CN} = Ce_{CN}/(La_{CN} + Pr_{CN})^{0.5}. LREEs include La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, and Eu; HREEs include Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er, Tm, Yb, and Lu. The REE data for the MORB from the EPR, CIR, SWIR, and NFB and for the ultramafic rocks from the MAR were obtained from the updated PetDB database (www.petdb.org).

4. Results

4.1. REE Concentrations in Massive Sulfides

The total REE concentrations (Σ REEs) of the seafloor massive sulfide samples

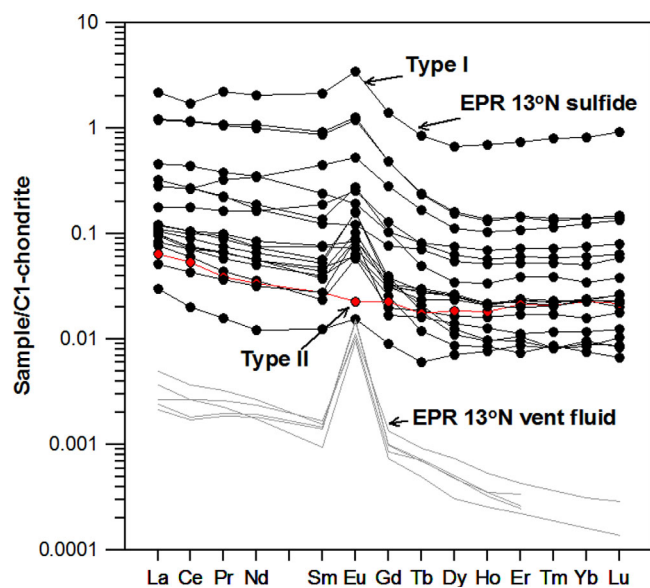


Figure 3. REE patterns in Type I and Type II (red lines) sulfides from the EPR near 13°N. Sources: vent fluid data from Douville *et al.* [1999], Klinkhammer *et al.* [1994], and Michard and Albarède [1986]. Normalization data from Sun and McDonough [1989].

that Fe-rich sulfide minerals show a wide range of formation temperatures (<100°C to >300°C) [e.g., Fouquet *et al.*, 1988; Hannington *et al.*, 1991].

Furthermore, the substitution of REEs into Fe, Cu, and Zn-rich sulfides appears to be strongly influenced by the larger ionic radii of the REEs [e.g., Alt, 1988; Mills and Elderfield, 1995]. The degrees of fractionation between the LREEs and HREEs in the seafloor massive sulfides from the EPR near 13°N and 1°S–2°S, LHF, KHF, EHF, “A” area, and S99HF are highly variable (Figures 3 and 4). The greatest fractionation difference between the LREEs and HREEs (LREE/HREE = 20, sample IR05-TVG9-3; Table 5) is present in the KHF sulfides, which consist of abundant pyrite, and the smallest fractionation difference (LREE/HREE = 2.55, sample MAR05-TVG1-9; Table 5) is present in the LHF sulfides, which consist of abundant chalcopyrite. Thus, greater HREE enrichment occurs in Cu-rich sulfide minerals than in Fe-rich sulfide minerals, which is consistent with the fact that the ionic radius of Cu^{2+} (73 pm) and Zn^{2+} (74 pm) are similar to that of Lu^{3+} (86.1 pm), whereas the ionic radius of Fe^{2+} is much smaller (55 pm) [Rimskaya-Korsakova and Dubinin, 2003].

5.2. Origin of Eu Anomalies

The REE patterns in most sulfides from the EPR near 13°N (e.g., EPR05-TVG2-1-1 and EPR05-TVG2-1-2) and all the sulfides from the LHF exhibit positive Eu anomalies of 1.26–7.60 (Figures 3 and 4), similar to the sulfide-forming fluids at the EPR near 13°N and the LHF [Michard and Albarède, 1986; Klinkhammer *et al.*, 1994; Douville *et al.*, 1999; Schmidt *et al.*, 2007]. These similarities suggest that these sulfides inherited their positive Eu anomalies from the sulfide-forming fluids [e.g., Barrett *et al.*, 1990; Gillis *et al.*, 1990; Mills and Elderfield, 1995]. Furthermore, the stability of soluble Eu^{2+} species has been found to increase in association with Cl^- complexing, low to high-temperature acidic fluids, and reducing conditions [e.g., Sverjensky, 1984; Schade *et al.*, 1989; Wood and Williams-Jones, 1994; Haas *et al.*, 1995; Mills and Elderfield, 1995; Allen and Seyfried, 2005]. Therefore, the positive Eu anomalies in the sulfides were likely formed by Cl^- complexing under high-temperature, low-pH, and strongly reducing conditions [e.g., Mills and Elderfield, 1995].

The sulfides from the EPR near 13°N (EPR05-TVG1-3-3 and EPR05-TVG2-1-52) and the EHF (IR05-TVG12-8-4, IR05-TVG12-14, IR05-TVG13-4-2, IR05-TVG13-9.2-1, and IR05-TVG13-9.2-2) are characterized by weak or negligible Eu anomalies of 0.81–1.21 (Figures 3 and 4). All the sulfides from the EPR near 1°S–2°S, the “A” area of the SWIR near 38°S, and most of the sulfides from S99HF in the NFB exhibit negative Eu anomalies of 0.34–0.77 (Figure 4) and positive Gd anomalies (Figure 4), which are both considered to be signals of low-temperature seawater [de Baar *et al.*, 1985]. Furthermore, a large proportion of the Eu in the low-temperature fluid is trivalent because divalent Eu is stable at temperatures above approximately 250°C

5. Discussion

5.1. Variable REE Concentrations and Fractionation Between LREEs and HREEs in Seafloor Sulfides

The $\sum\text{REEs}$ in our sulfide samples vary considerably (37.2–4092 ppb), and the $\sum\text{REEs}$ exhibit no systematic variation with Fe, Cu, and Zn. The $\sum\text{REEs}$ and associated ranges in Fe-rich sulfides (e.g., pyrite) (Table 5) all exceed the $\sum\text{REEs}$ and associated ranges in Cu (i.e., chalcopyrite) and Zn-rich (i.e., sphalerite) sulfides, which precipitated from high-temperature (>300°C) and medium-temperature (300–200°C) fluids, respectively [e.g., Fouquet *et al.*, 1988; Kim *et al.*, 2006]. Therefore, the high $\sum\text{REEs}$ and ranges in the seafloor massive sulfides are likely related to Fe-rich sulfide minerals, which is consistent with the fact

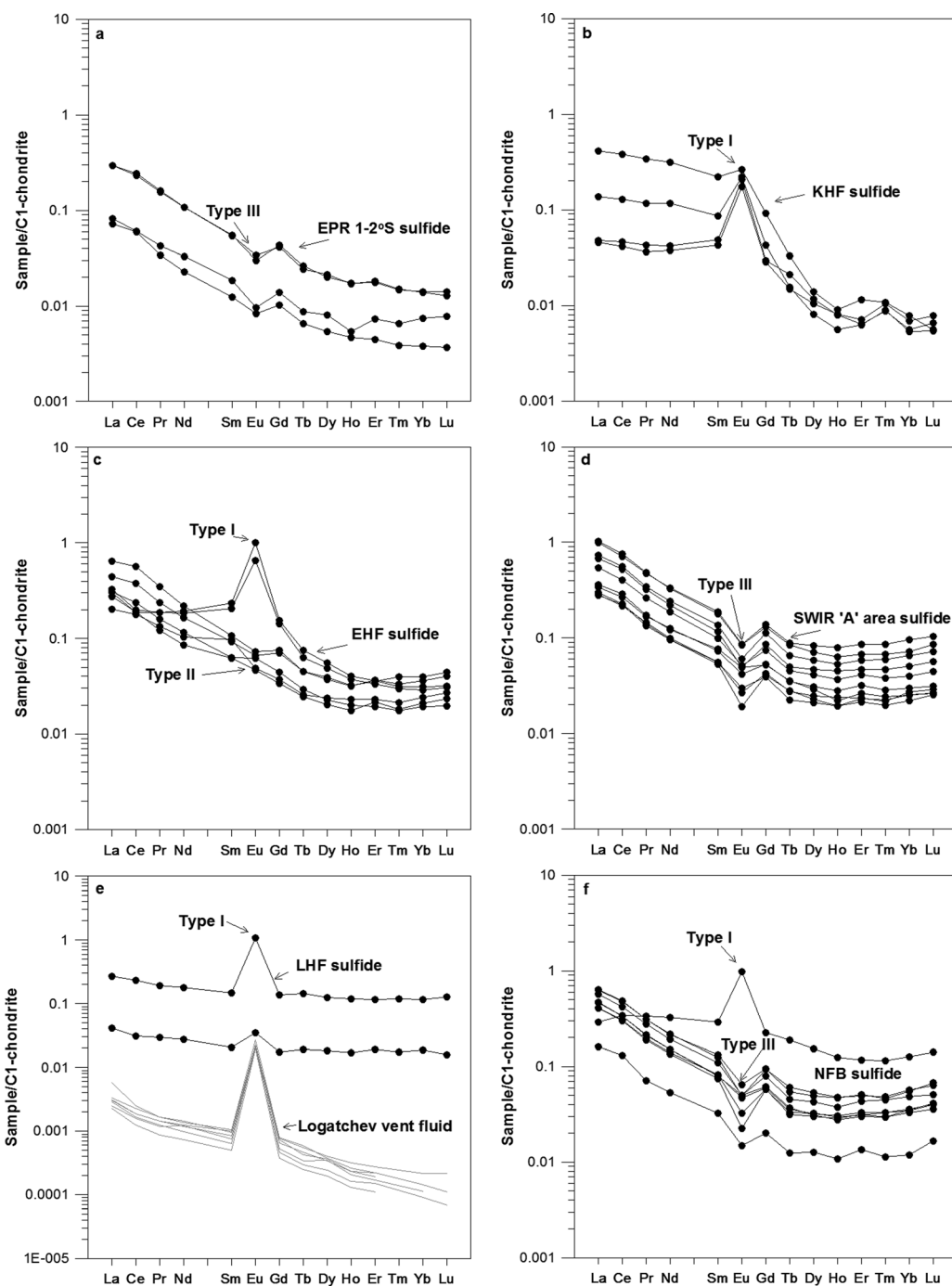


Figure 4. REE patterns in (a) Type III sulfides from the EPR near 1°S–2°S, (b) Type I sulfides from the KHF, (c) Type I and Type II sulfides from the EHF, (d) Type III sulfides from the “A” area, (e) Type I sulfides from the LHF, and (f) Type I and Type III sulfides from the S99HF. Sources: vent fluid data from Schmidt et al. [2007]. Normalization data from Sun and McDonough [1989].

[Sverjensky, 1984]. Decreases in the formation temperatures of the hydrothermal sulfides, i.e., from medium (200–300°C) to low temperatures (<280°C in the EPR near 13°N and <12°C in the NFB; Table 2), directly correlate with decreases in the $\text{Eu}^{2+}/\text{Eu}^{3+}$ ratios in the sulfide-forming fluids [e.g., Mills and Elderfield, 1995]. Thus, the accumulation of Eu^{2+} in sulfides that formed at medium to low temperatures is also reduced, which is consistent with the fact that negligible or negative Eu anomalies are related to lower Eu contents in the sulfides (Figure 5).

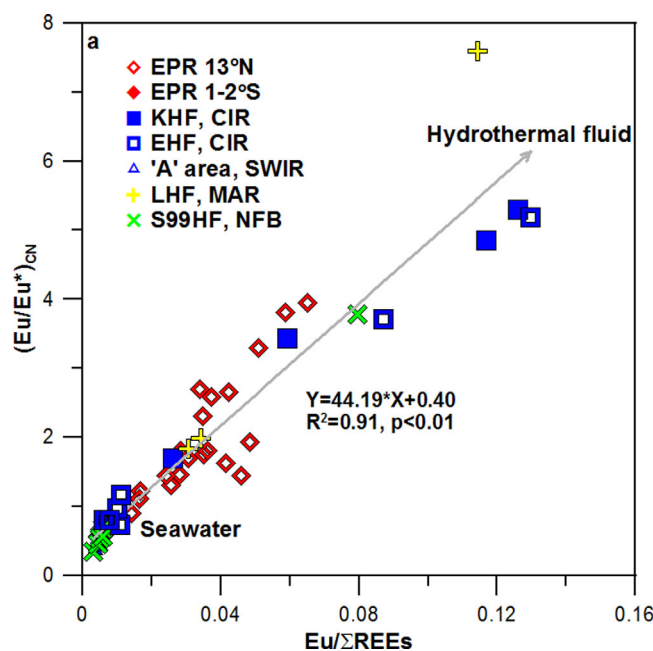


Figure 5. Eu anomalies in seafloor massive sulfides versus $\text{Eu}/\Sigma\text{REEs}$ ratios. The solid gray line indicates a correlation between elevated Eu anomalies and elevated Eu concentrations in the sulfides.

derived from hydrothermal fluids [Barrett *et al.*, 1990; Rimskaya-Korsakova and Dubinin, 2003] and are incorporated into sulfide mineral crystals during the mixing of the hydrothermal fluids and seawater. Comparisons show that the REE patterns of the massive sulfides from the EPR near 13°N and 1°S–2°S, the LHF, the KHF, the EHF, the “A” area, and the S99HF are similar to those of vent fluids (Figures 3 and 4). Thus, the REEs in the seafloor massive sulfides are likely all derived from hydrothermal fluids that leached REEs from sub-seafloor wall rocks (MORBs or ultramafic rocks) and deposited them in the sulfides [Piepgras and Wasserburg, 1985; Langmuir *et al.*, 1997].

5.4. REE Flux

The analysis of our 46 massive sulfide samples from modern seafloor hydrothermal fields permits realistic estimation of the magnitude of hydrothermal REE flux into the ocean water. The simple calculation below presumes that vent fluids readily supply REEs to massive sulfide deposits. Data from the new massive sulfide deposits from 10,000 km of ridge, arc, and back-arc spreading centers indicate that the amount of massive sulfide deposits on the seafloor of the world’s oceans is on the order of 6×10^8 t [Hannington *et al.*, 2011]. The formula for estimating the approximate amount of REEs in seafloor massive sulfide is

$$S_{\text{REEs}} = M_{\text{sulfide}} \times X_{\text{REEs}} \quad (1)$$

where S_{REEs} is the mass of REEs that hydrothermal fluids have supplied to the massive sulfide deposits, M_{sulfide} is the total mass of seafloor massive sulfide deposits (6×10^8 t) [Hannington *et al.*, 2011], and X_{REEs} is the ΣREEs of the massive sulfides. Calculations were performed for each sample using the observed REE concentrations ($\Sigma\text{REE} = 37.1\text{--}4092$ ppb) in the seafloor massive sulfides from the EPR near 13°N and 1°S–2°S, MAR, CIR, SWIR, and BAB, and an averaged calculation was conducted for all 46 massive sulfide samples. These calculations estimate that approximately 20–2500 t (an average of 280 t, $n = 46$) of REEs from hydrothermal fluids have been supplied to the sulfide deposits. Moreover, the slow (1–4 cm/yr), intermediate (4–8 cm/yr), and fast (>8 cm/yr) spreading ridges account for 86%, 12%, and <2%, respectively, of the total tonnage (6×10^8 t) of seafloor massive sulfides [Hannington *et al.*, 2011]. The ΣREEs of the massive sulfides from the slow (e.g., the “A” area and LHF), intermediate (e.g., the KHF and EHF), and fast (e.g., the EPR near 13°N and 1°S–2°S) spreading ridges are approximately 66–997 ppb (avg 425 ppb, $n = 12$), 86–699 ppb (avg 356 ppb, $n = 11$), and 37–4092 ppb (avg 541 ppb, $n = 24$), respectively (see Table 5). According to formula (1), we estimate that an average of 219 t ($n = 12$), 26 t ($n = 11$), and 6.49 t ($n = 24$) of REEs have been

Consequently, the Eu concentrations of the sulfide-forming fluids may influence the Eu anomalies in the resulting sulfides. The negligible or negative Eu anomalies in the sulfides can be interpreted as the results of medium to low-temperatures and less Eu enriched fluids [Michard and Albarède, 1986; Gillis *et al.*, 1990] due to mixing between hydrothermal fluids and seawater. Furthermore, seafloor hydrothermal recrystallization (i.e., zone refining) may also have caused remobilization of REEs, particularly Eu^{2+} , producing negligible or negative Eu anomalies in the sulfides [Mills and Elderfield, 1995].

5.3. Sources of REEs in Sulfides

The REEs in the sulfides may reflect the sources and evolution of hydrothermal fluids [e.g., Mills and Elderfield, 1995]. Previous studies on REEs in sulfides from the Rainbow, Broken Spur, and TAG hydrothermal fields on the MAR have suggested that the REEs are all

supplied by hydrothermal fluids to the sulfide deposits in the slow, intermediate, and fast spreading ridges, respectively.

The flux of hydrothermal fluid at the mid-ocean ridges is currently on the order of $6\text{--}12 \times 10^{10} \text{ t yr}^{-1}$ [Elderfield and Schultz, 1996]. Assuming an average REE concentration of 3 ng/g in the hydrothermal fluids (0.27–33 ng/g, $n = 84$) [Michard and Albarède, 1986; Michard, 1989; Klinkhammer et al., 1994; Mitra et al., 1994; James et al., 1995; Bau and Dulski, 1999; Douville et al., 1999, 2002; Schmidt et al., 2007], the global REE flux from hydrothermal vents into the oceans is approximately $180\text{--}360 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$. These figures suggest that the hydrothermal vents at MORs alone transport larger quantities of REEs to the oceans over the course of just 2 years than is estimated to be present in all the seafloor hydrothermal sulfide deposits at ocean ridges. The fate of the excess REEs (i.e., REEs not captured by massive sulfides) is unclear, but sulfate deposits and metalliferous sediment are known to be enriched in REEs deposited from hydrothermal fluids and plumes that are associated with MOR and BAB hydrothermal systems [e.g., Ruhlin and Owen, 1986; Owen and Olivarez, 1988; Barrett et al., 1990; Mills and Elderfield, 1995; Bach et al., 2003; Kato et al., 2011]. These sulfate deposits and metalliferous sediment may account for a large fraction of the REEs that are not represented in the massive sulfide deposits [e.g., Barrett et al., 1987; German et al., 1990; Bach et al., 2003].

6. Conclusions

A total of 46 seafloor massive sulfides show a widely varying range of $\sum \text{REEs}$ (37.2–4092 ppb). These deposits are notably more enriched in LREEs than HREEs and exhibit positive, weak/negligible, or negative Eu anomalies and weak or negligible Ce anomalies. The variation in the proportions of LREEs and HREEs is consistent with those observed in hydrothermal fluids, indicating that the REEs in global seafloor massive sulfides are sourced from hydrothermal fluids and that the LREE/HREE ratios are inherited by the precipitated massive sulfides from the hydrothermal fluids. The REE concentrations and patterns of seafloor massive sulfides are related to the mineral chemistry but are also influenced by the physicochemical composition, REE concentrations and REE patterns of the sulfide-forming fluids, the degree of mixing between the hydrothermal fluids and seawater, and interactions with subsurface rocks. Of these factors, we propose that the mineral chemistry and the REE concentrations and patterns of the sulfide-forming fluids are the principal factors that control the REE chemistry of massive sulfides.

A positive correlation between Eu anomalies and Eu concentrations is observed ($R^2 = 0.91$, $p < 0.01$). Three types of REE patterns related to variations in the Eu anomalies are recognized in the sulfides. Type I exhibits positive Eu anomalies ($(\text{Eu}/\text{Eu}^*)_{\text{CN}} > 1.20$). These positive Eu anomalies occur in sulfides precipitated at high temperatures in association with acidic or reducing fluids. Type II exhibits weak or negligible anomalies ($(\text{Eu}/\text{Eu}^*)_{\text{CN}} \approx 1.00$), and Type III exhibits negative Eu anomalies ($(\text{Eu}/\text{Eu}^*)_{\text{CN}} < 0.80$). Weak, negligible (Type II), or negative Eu (Type III) anomalies in sulfides are indicative of lower Eu concentrations, medium to low-temperature conditions, mixing between the hydrothermal fluids and seawater and the mineral chemistry. Therefore, Eu anomaly values could possibly be used to infer the REE properties of the sulfide-forming fluids, for example, positive Eu anomalies in all the sulfides from the KHF formed from high-temperature ($>300^\circ\text{C}$) acidic ($\text{pH} < 3.6$) fluids (see Table 2).

Based on analyses of the REE concentrations in the seafloor massive sulfides, we estimate that all the seafloor massive sulfide deposits in the world contain approximately 280 t of REEs. Therefore, discovering a deposit that contains large amounts ($>20 \text{ t}$) of rare earth elements in seafloor hydrothermal fields is unlikely. The global flux of REEs from hydrothermal vents is up to $180\text{--}360 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$. Over the course of 2 years, the minimum amount ($>360 \text{ t}$) of REEs from hydrothermal vents is far greater than the sum total contained in all the sulfide deposits. The excess quantities of REEs (i.e., REEs not captured by massive sulfides) might be partially hosted by sulfate deposits and metalliferous sediments far from the hydrothermal vents, implying that global seafloor massive sulfides are not a significant sink of hydrothermal REEs.

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Acknowledgments

We would like to thank the crews of the DY105-17 and DY115-20 cruises for helping us collect samples. We also thank Erio Rahders of the Institute for Geological Sciences, Geology Department, Free University of Berlin, Germany, for providing the samples. Wiley Editing Services checked our English and manuscript formats. We are most grateful for the detailed and constructive comments and suggestions provided by Janne Blichert-Toft, Sean H. McClenaghan, and two anonymous reviewers, which greatly improved an earlier version of the manuscript. This work was supported by the National Key Basic Research Program of China (grant 2013CB429700), National Special Fund for the 12th Five Year Plan of COMRA (grant DY125-12-R-02), National Natural Science Foundation of China (grant 41325021, 40830849, and 40976027), Shandong Province Natural Science Foundation of China for Distinguished Young Scholars (grant JQ200913), Strategic Priority Research Program of the Chinese Academy of Sciences (grant XDA11030302), CAS/SAFEA International Partnership Program for Creative Research Teams, and Qingdao Collaborative Innovation Center of Marine Science and Technology. The data used in this paper are available by contacting the corresponding author Zhigang Zeng at zgzeng@ms.qdio.ac.cn.

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