

1 ***U-Th-Pb zircon geochronology by ID-TIMS, SIMS, and laser***
2 ***ablation ICP-MS: recipes, interpretations, and opportunities***

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26 **Abstract**

27 The chronologic record encoded in accessory minerals, based on the radioactive decay of U
28 and Th, is indispensable to extract quantitative process rates over timescales encompassing
29 Earth's evolution from the Hadean to the Holocene, and extending from terrestrial to extra-
30 terrestrial realms. We have essentially three different U-Pb dating tools at hand, a high-
31 precision, whole-grain bulk technique (isotope-dilution thermal ionization mass
32 spectrometry, ID-TIMS), and two high-spatial resolution but less precise in-situ techniques
33 (secondary ion mass spectrometry, SIMS, and laser ablation inductively-coupled plasma
34 mass spectrometry, LA-ICP-MS), all of which are predominantly applied to the mineral
35 zircon. All three have reached a technological and methodological maturity in data quality
36 and quantity, but interpretational differences, which are often common (albeit at different
37 temporal and spatial scales) to all isotopic dating techniques, remain largely unresolved. The
38 choice to use one of these techniques should be governed by the scientific question posed,
39 such as (1) the duration of the geological process to be resolved; (2) the size and abundance
40 of the material to be analysed; (3) the complexity of the sample material and of the geological
41 history to be resolved; and (4) the number of dates needed to address the question. Our
42 compilation demonstrates that, ultimately, the highest confidence geochronological data will
43 not only result from the optimal choice of appropriate analysis technique and the accurate
44 treatment of analytical and interpretational complexities, but also require comprehensive
45 sample characterization that employs the full gamut of textural (e.g., cathodoluminescence,
46 charge contrast imaging, electron backscatter diffraction) and compositional (e.g., trace
47 element, stable and radiogenic isotope) analysis.

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50 **1. Introduction**

51 Determining timescales of accessory mineral crystallization is critical for deciphering process
52 rates in magmatic and metamorphic environments. Reconstruction of these processes must
53 account for their non-instantaneous or repetitive nature: magmatic cycles can last over
54 several 100 ka (e.g., Claiborne et al., 2010; Schoene et al., 2012) and hydrothermal activity
55 and formation of ore deposits occurs in short events that collectively may last up to several
56 100 ka as well (e.g., Dalrymple et al., 1999; Chiaradia et al., 2013). Even for geologically
57 young systems, it is, however, often challenging to discriminate between individual and
58 repeated events. Because temporal resolution is inevitably coarser in deep geologic time,
59 multiple high-frequency events are masked by a lack of age resolution and are integrated into
60 quasi-continuous processes or instantaneous "events". Substantial efforts are undertaken to
61 improve precision and accuracy of dating techniques to better meet the requirements of
62 temporal resolution. As a consequence, analytical uncertainties approach the timescales of
63 high-frequency events in magmatic and metamorphic environments and critical questions
64 need to be addressed: What are the limiting factors of geochronological techniques – are they
65 defined by the isotopic system, by the minerals we analyse, or by the analytical equipment we
66 use? Where are the limits for interpreting a date (the numerical result of an isotopic analysis)
67 as an age (the chronologic significance assigned to one or a series of dates) - are they inherent
68 to open or complex isotopic system behaviour, due to our insufficient knowledge of how
69 complex magmatic or metamorphic systems work in nature or is data quality and quantity an
70 issue?

71 We will first review some recent innovations in both high-precision and high-spatial
72 resolution U-Pb dating represented by chemical abrasion - isotope dilution - thermal
73 ionization mass spectrometry (CA-ID-TIMS), secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS), and
74 laser ablation - inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS). CA-ID-TIMS
75 represents the highest precision bulk dating method for zircon extracted from volcanic and
76 plutonic rocks, whereas the two high-spatial resolution techniques SIMS (for U-Th
77 disequilibrium dating of young volcanic zircon and for highest-spatial resolution
78 geochronology of magmatic, metamorphic, and diagenetic crystal domains) and LA-ICP-MS
79 (for magmatic, metamorphic, and detrital zircon; see Table 1) have wide applicability where
80 bulk methods are limited by the internal complexity of the sample, by sample size or required
81 data quantity. After summarizing key preparation and analysis procedures of the three U-Th-
82 Pb dating techniques, we will discuss problems of both analytical-technical and

83 interpretational nature that have become obvious with increasing analytical precision and the
84 understanding of process timescales gleaned from the study of active systems. An important
85 aspect of this review is that key problems in interpreting accessory mineral geochronology
86 are often similar or inter-related for the different methods, despite their differences in spatial
87 and temporal resolution. We concentrate on the isotope systems of zircon as the main and
88 most commonly used mineral for dating via the U-Pb decay systems, mainly because of its
89 refractory behaviour throughout many geological processes, as well as the stability of its
90 lattice even under conditions of high temperature and pressure. Other possible targets for U-
91 (Th-)Pb geochronology abound, such as baddeleyite (ZrO_2 ; predominantly in mafic magmatic
92 rocks), monazite (a light rare earth element [LREE] bearing phosphate; $[LREE]PO_4$), or
93 titanite ($CaTiSiO_5$; ubiquitous in magmatic and metamorphic rocks), but these are only
94 addressed for comparison, being aware that to be comprehensive, one would have to add a
95 long list of these and other minerals found in magmatic, hydrothermal, and metamorphic
96 environments where they are used with variable success and often lower precision than
97 zircon. Ultimately we present working guidelines for the optimal use of the available dating
98 techniques and data quality assurance, based on ongoing research, and provide an outlook for
99 improving zircon geochronology to achieve enhanced reliability for data interpretation in a
100 geologic context.

101

102 **2. Current analytical and instrumental status and limitations**

103 **2.1. Chemical Abrasion - Isotope Dilution - Thermal Ionization Mass Spectrometry** 104 **(CA-ID-TIMS)**

105 *2.1.1 Overview*

106 The CA-ID-TIMS technique involves the separation of individual zircon crystals from a rock
107 by either bulk methods or by extraction directly from rock sections. The material is then
108 texturally, sometimes compositionally, characterized, pre-treated by chemical abrasion
109 (Mattinson, 2005), and dissolved. The elements of interest - U, Pb, and (rarely) Th - are
110 separated using chromatographic separation techniques in a very clean environment, and their
111 concentrations and isotopic compositions analyzed by isotope dilution and thermal ionization
112 mass spectrometry techniques (e.g., Parrish and Noble, 2003; Schoene, 2014). This technique
113 yields the most precise and accurate U-Pb dates and is mainly applied to magmatic accessory
114 minerals, predominantly to zircon.

115 In 2003, the U-Pb geochronology community started the EARTHTIME initiative (Bowring et
116 al., 2005), which comprises more than 200 members from 30 countries and has gained
117 widespread acceptance as a successful way forward to improve accuracy and precision of ID-
118 TIMS U-Pb dating. Within this framework, jointly calibrated tracer and calibration solutions
119 have been distributed to minimize the inter-laboratory bias due to different tracer calibrations
120 (Condon et al., in review) and new software has been made available for the community,
121 offering accurate handling of data and their associated uncertainties (Bowring et al., 2011;
122 McLean et al., 2011b). Inter-laboratory bias exercises have shown that the differences
123 between laboratories using EARTHTIME tracers have been reduced to 0.1% demonstrated
124 by round-robin tests using natural zircon or by repeated analysis of synthetic solutions
125 (Condon, 2005; Sláma et al., 2008).

126 The mineral-dissolution, isotope dilution technique, also termed "conventional", represents a
127 multi-step procedure, which requires a high degree of control on many parameters to ensure
128 highest data quality. Some of the most critical ones, outlining the most important innovations,
129 will be addressed in the following paragraphs.

130

131 *2.1.2 Sample pre-treatment by annealing and partial dissolution ("chemical abrasion")*

132 The "chemical abrasion" treatment of selected zircon crystals prior to their dissolution
133 involves annealing at 850-900°C, followed by partial dissolution in HF or HF-HNO₃
134 mixtures (Mattinson, 2005). It now has replaced the mechanical air-abrasion technique used
135 since Krogh (1982). The treatment increases concordancy of ID-TIMS U-Pb dates by
136 efficiently removing zircon domains that have a higher degree of damage due to the
137 radioactive decay of uranium in the crystal, causing potential loss of radiogenic Pb.
138 Chemical abrasion increases precision and reproducibility but preferentially dissolves and
139 removes U-rich zones, thus possibly biasing the result towards the age of the lower-U growth
140 zones. Chemical abrasion may be applied collectively to a group of bulk separated zircon
141 crystals, or individually to single crystals or crystal fragments extracted from an epoxy
142 mount, following imaging and possibly in-situ chemical or isotopic analysis. Chemical
143 abrasion techniques have been tested on some other accessory phases without clear evidence
144 of improving concordance (e.g., baddeleyite, Rioux et al., 2010; monazite, Peterman et al.,
145 2012).

146

147 2.1.3 Mass spectrometry

148 Isotope ratio analysis is performed on a thermal ionization mass spectrometer (TIMS), an
149 instrument with a typical mass resolution of $M/\Delta M = \sim 500$ at 10% valley definition (Murray
150 et al., 2013). This mass resolution does not allow for resolution of interferences (e.g.,
151 $^{138}\text{Ba}^{31}\text{P}^{17}\text{O}^{18}\text{O}$ on mass ^{204}Pb or ^{205}Tl interfering with the synthetic spike isotope ^{205}Pb),
152 which therefore have to be monitored and appropriately corrected using mass 201 (which has
153 a $^{138}\text{Ba}^{31}\text{P}^{16}\text{O}_2$ interference on it) and ^{203}Tl , respectively. Loading Pb onto a Re filament in
154 conjunction with small amounts of a Si-gel activator and phosphoric acid produces long-lived
155 ion beams of high stability that are mostly too small for Pb isotope analysis on Faraday
156 collectors, but require the use of secondary electron or photo-multipliers in ion counting
157 mode (Richter et al., 2001; Palacz et al., 2011). Mass spectrometric sensitivities of ID-TIMS
158 (as well as for SIMS and LA-ICP-MS) are consistently expressed here as "useful ion yield"
159 (or "useful yield" in short) which is defined as the number of detected ions of an isotopically
160 pure species (atomic or molecular) divided by the total number of atoms of that isotope in the
161 analyte mass. For ID-TIMS, the useful yield of Pb ranges between 1.6 and 6.4% using
162 different Si-gels (Gerstenberger and Haase, 1997; Huyskens et al., 2012; Table 1). The best
163 ion yields are generally obtained by depositing a thin layer of Si-gel made from silicic acid
164 (Gerstenberger and Haase, 1997) onto the Re filament. Isotope ratio analysis by TIMS is
165 routinely corrected for mass-dependent fractionation; a non-mass dependent fractionation
166 component affecting the odd-valued ^{203}Tl , ^{205}Pb and ^{207}Pb isotopes has also been reported by
167 Amelin et al. (2005) and McLean et al. (2011a). The U isotope composition is determined as
168 UO_2^+ from the same Si-gel load used for Pb analysis, requiring knowledge of the oxygen
169 isotope composition of the analyte loaded onto the Re filament, to correct for isobaric
170 interference of $^{233}\text{U}^{18}\text{O}^{16}\text{O}$ on $^{235}\text{U}^{16}\text{O}_2$. UO_2^+ is analysed sequentially in ion counting mode
171 or simultaneously with Faraday cups equipped with $10^{12} \Omega$ resistors. Using Faraday
172 collection at low ion beam intensities requires accurate control of baseline intensity and
173 stability, amplifier gain calibration and resistor decay rate.

174 The uncertainty in Pb isotope ratio determinations is composed of two major components: (1)
175 the pulse counting statistic which is limited by the low ion beam signal measured on an ion
176 counter ($\% = 1/\sqrt{N} * 100$ where $N =$ total number of counts); using multi-collection via an
177 array of multipliers does not improve the precision, but adds the uncertainty of the multiplier
178 cross-calibration to the counting statistics, and (2) the mass fractionation correction inherent
179 to the TIMS source. No uncertainty is usually attached to the empirically determined dead

180 time of the multiplier, despite the well-known day-to-day fluctuations of secondary electron
181 and photo multiplier tubes.

182

183 *2.1.4 Uncertainty, accuracy, data treatment, and error reporting*

184 A good knowledge of the sources of error is a prerequisite for intercalibration between
185 different isotopic and non-isotopic (e.g., astrochronological) geochronologic techniques.
186 Correct uncertainty estimation allows distinction between purely analytical data scatter and
187 externally caused, excess data dispersion. It is also critical to avoid mistaking inter-
188 chronometer bias such as between U-Pb and $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ chronometers (e.g., Renne et al., 2010)
189 for a real age difference. Later, we discuss briefly the different sources of uncertainty and
190 error, a detailed and complete appraisal of which can be found in Schoene et al. (2013).

191 Zircon analyses may contain minute amounts of two types of Pb that are unrelated to U and
192 Th decay: (1) Initial non-radiogenic Pb, commonly referred to as "common-Pb", is
193 incorporated during crystallization. The uncertainty in the isotopic composition of the
194 common lead correction (Pb_{com}) dominates the analytical uncertainty at low $\text{Pb}_{\text{rad}}/\text{Pb}_{\text{com}}$, and
195 mainly affects the $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{235}\text{U}$ system. The isotopic composition of Pb_{com} may be estimated
196 from the crustal growth model of Stacey and Kramers (1975) or from analysis of U-deficient
197 minerals in the same sample, such as feldspars. Since most analyzed zircons contain very
198 limited amounts of Pb_{com} , the $\text{Pb}_{\text{rad}}/\text{Pb}_{\text{com}}$ is mainly limited by the procedural blank. (2)
199 Procedural blank Pb is introduced during chemical separation and analysis and can be
200 distinguished from common-Pb by its different isotopic composition. State-of-the-art
201 procedures may yield blank levels as low as 0.2 pg, including dissolution, ion
202 chromatography and isotope analysis. Such low blanks are a pre-requisite to analyse small,
203 low-U and/or young zircons at high precision. Accurate knowledge of the isotopic
204 composition of the procedural blank component is essential at $\text{Pb}_{\text{rad}}/\text{Pb}_{\text{com}}$ ratios <5 ; the
205 uncertainty on the isotope ratios used has to be propagated onto the final result. The effect of
206 different Pb_{com} (isotopic composition on two zircons with different $\text{Pb}_{\text{rad}}/\text{Pb}_{\text{com}}$ ratios is
207 shown in Fig. 1a.

208 *Insert here: Fig. 1*

209 The accuracy of a U-Pb date determined by ID-TIMS is mainly determined by the accuracy
210 of the tracer calibration, as well as by the U decay constant uncertainty. Prior to
211 EARTHTIME, individually calibrated tracer compositions resulted in up to 1% inter-

212 laboratory bias on $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ dates; the use of the (^{202}Pb -) ^{205}Pb - ^{233}U - ^{235}U tracer solutions
213 distributed by EARTHTIME (ET2535 and ET535 tracers, respectively; www.earth-time.org)
214 has now enhanced inter-laboratory reproducibility to better than 0.1% on $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ dates.
215 The tracer has been calibrated in different laboratories by using internationally certified,
216 synthetic calibration solutions, and is controlled by analysis of international synthetic and
217 natural reference materials (www.earth-time.org). The mass-dependent fractionation of
218 unknown samples in the TIMS source may be quantified by repeated measurements of an
219 international reference material (SRM 981, 982) but is for high $\text{Pb}_{\text{rad.}}/\text{Pb}_{\text{com}}$ analyses,
220 preferably quantified and corrected internally by using the EARTHTIME double-isotope
221 tracers for both U and Pb isotopes, taking into account potential isobaric and molecular
222 interference on the two tracer masses ^{202}Pb ($^{138}\text{Ba}^{31}\text{P}^{16}\text{O}^{17}\text{O}$) and ^{205}Pb (^{205}Tl). A continuous
223 control of reproducibility and accuracy has to be established in any laboratory through
224 analysis of synthetic and/or natural reference materials. The EARTHTIME community has
225 started to use synthetic solutions with apparent ages of 10, 100, 500 and 2000 Ma for the
226 assessment of laboratory reproducibility (www.earth-time.org). Reproducibility can be
227 evaluated by repeated analysis of well-characterized natural reference zircons, the most
228 recent (CA)-ID-TIMS ages of which are compiled in Table 2. Repeated analysis of reference
229 materials enables quantification of the long-term reproducibility for an isotope laboratory,
230 and comparing results between different mass spectrometers and different multipliers, the
231 latter requiring exchange every few years (in the case of secondary electron multipliers). An
232 example of a representative dataset of the R33 reference zircon from the University of
233 Geneva lab is shown in Fig. 2, demonstrating the complex nature of analytical work related to
234 (1) poor analytical reproducibility requiring rejection of outliers due to dead time correction
235 problems with the secondary electron multiplier (period 1), and (2) open system behaviour of
236 natural zircon, attributed to insufficient or poorly reproducible chemical abrasion treatment
237 prior to analysis (periods 2 and 3). This also demonstrates the difficulty of discriminating
238 between analytical (multiplier performance) and natural sources (partial open system
239 behaviour) of data scatter. Validation data from synthetic and/or natural materials should be
240 included in any publication that is reporting high-precision U-Pb dates.

241 *Insert here: Fig. 2*

242 Additional factors to take into account are the values for the natural $^{238}\text{U}/^{235}\text{U}$ ratio in dated
243 materials (Condon et al., 2010; Hiess et al., 2012) and of uranium decay constants (Schoene
244 et al., 2006; Mattinson, 2010; Boehnke and Harrison, 2014). The latter is accounted for by

245 adding the decay constants' uncertainty band to the concordia curve in all concordia diagrams
246 (Fig. 1). Be aware that for systems older than some 500 Ma, the $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ ratio is the most
247 precisely and reliably dated, at precisions of $\pm 0.02\%$ (e.g., Zeh et al., 2015).

248 Substantial discrepancies may be discovered when reducing isotopic data using different
249 software packages, related to different correction and uncertainty propagation procedures.
250 The EARTHTIME community has adopted an integrated open-source software infrastructure,
251 interfaced with commercial mass spectrometers, for read-out and statistical filtering of the
252 raw data ("Tripoli"), followed by a platform allowing for data reduction, correct uncertainty
253 propagation and online data visualization ("UPb_Redux"; Bowring et al., 2011; McLean et
254 al., 2011b). The final uncertainty of a U-Pb date is composed of several random and
255 systematic elements. It is suggested that the community adopts the x/y/z notation proposed by
256 Schoene et al. (2006; 2010a), [x] being the random (analytical) uncertainty, [y] containing the
257 systematic uncertainty of the tracer calibration, while [z] also incorporates the U decay
258 constant uncertainties (Table 1). The [x] uncertainty would be used when comparing data
259 within the same or between laboratories using the same tracer solution, i.e., within the
260 EARTHTIME community, [y] when comparing data based on different tracer solutions, and
261 [z] when comparing U-Pb data with other chronometers such as $^{40}\text{K}/^{40}\text{Ar}$ (or $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$). Such
262 an approach quantifying all random and systematic uncertainties is unfortunately not
263 generally used in geochronology.

264

265 **2.2 Secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS)**

266 *2.2.1 Overview*

267 The unique strength of geochronological SIMS lies in its high spatial resolution and high
268 useful yield or 'sensitivity' (Table 1). These merits result from the extremely shallow
269 emission of target atoms and molecules dislocated by collisions with high-energy primary
270 ions and ejected from a depth within a few nm of the surface. Ejected components include
271 atoms from the target, the primary beam, and other sources (e.g., conductive coating, surface
272 contaminants, residual gases in the vacuum). In-situ ionization of some of these species under
273 ultrahigh vacuum conditions permits efficient ion collection. The high sensitivity of SIMS
274 makes it the least destructive of the three analysis techniques described here, with the
275 advantage that sufficient material is typically preserved to permit post-analysis geochemical,
276 structural, or textural characterization. The flipside of the slow removal of material via

277 sputtering (e.g., sputter rates for zircon are $\sim 0.07 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{sec}/\text{nA O}^-$ at lateral beam dimensions
278 of ~ 2 to $30 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter and beam intensities of $\sim 50 \text{ pA}$ to $\sim 100 \text{ nA}$; Fig. 3) are
279 comparatively long analysis durations required to integrate sufficient counts, typically
280 employing electron multipliers in mono- or dynamic multi-collection. Individual spot
281 analyses may thus last at least several minutes, although 5 s duration rapid screening
282 protocols have been successfully applied to Hadean zircons (Holden et al., 2009).
283 Consequently, SIMS is optimal for dating “valuable” zircons and/or small-volume samples
284 whereas high throughput detrital zircon needs are much better served by LA-ICP-MS.

285 Since the early 1970’s, U-Th-Pb zircon analysis has become a routine geochronological
286 application in many SIMS labs worldwide, with an expanding, yet mostly non-routine,
287 spectrum of applications targeting other U-Th-Pb bearing minerals (e.g., apatite, allanite,
288 baddeleyite, calcite, monazite, opal, perovskite, pyrochlore, rutile, titanite, uraninite,
289 xenotime, or zirconolite). U-Th-Pb geochronology has overwhelmingly been the domain of
290 large magnet radius mass spectrometers (SHRIMP, CAMECA ims1270/1280) that have the
291 mass resolution required to resolve the complex mass spectrum resulting from sputtering
292 materials without prior chemical purifications (cf. section 3.4). These instruments are
293 operated by relatively few university or government agency labs, and frequently are
294 employed to serve other demands besides geochronology such as stable isotope analysis.

295

296 *2.2.2 Sample preparation requirements and analysis types*

297 Traditional SIMS mounts are rounds 25.4 mm in diameter, not exceeding $\sim 5 \text{ mm}$ in thickness
298 (Fig. 3). The useful area, however, is smaller (diameters of $\sim 22 \text{ mm}$ for SHRIMP and of ~ 20
299 mm for CAMECA) because the lip of the sample holder covers part of the mount and the step
300 between the mount surface and the holder edge causes local distortions in the secondary ion
301 extraction field. Bias in U-Pb elemental fractionation has been reported if targets are located
302 too close to the edge (e.g., Stern and Amelin, 2003). More recently, 35 mm diameter mounts
303 with larger analyzable surface areas and reduced isotopic fractionation near the mount edges
304 have been developed (Ickert et al., 2008; Peres et al., 2012).

305 *Insert here Fig. 3.*

306 In most cases, separated crystals from a rock sample and reference materials are cast in
307 epoxy, or pressed into a soft metal (e.g., indium) to make a mount that can be accommodated

308 in the ion probe sample holder. It is a critical requirement for SIMS that sample surfaces are
309 perfectly flat, requiring euhedral crystal shapes for pressed crystals, or careful grinding and
310 polishing. Moreover, the sample surface needs to be conductive, which is typically achieved
311 by applying a high-purity Au coating. Sectioned grain mounts (Fig. 4) must be imaged prior
312 to analysis to aid in targeting homogeneous domains in complex crystals (see section 4.1). *In-*
313 *situ* analysis (within petrographic thin section) is accomplished by extracting regions of
314 interest using a diamond drill or saw and mounting them together with pre-polished reference
315 zircons. Because sample chambers in SIMS instruments can only hold one mount at a time,
316 the practice of mounting standards closely spaced with the unknowns is highly recommended
317 because every sample exchange may change the analytical conditions (e.g., by altering
318 sample chamber vacuum, temperature, or the extraction potential).

319 *Insert here Fig. 4*

320 SIMS depth profiling takes advantage of the shallow emission of secondary ions, whereby
321 atomic mixing and knock-on scrambles the target to several nm depth, depending on impact
322 energy, angle, primary ion species, and target material (Hunter, 2009). Within these limits,
323 changes in the secondary ion signal can be directly related to compositional variation with
324 depth, once sputter equilibrium is achieved. To better discriminate against secondary ions
325 contributed from the more slowly sputtered edges of the pit, the primary ion beam can be
326 rastered or defocussed and secondary ions gated either electronically or (in CAMECA ims
327 “ion microscope” instruments) through an aperture in the secondary ion path so that ions
328 emitted from the center of the crater are preferentially detected. For meaningful
329 geochronological depth profiling, the sample surface must be flat, and growth domains must
330 be oriented perpendicular to the direction of sputtering and have lateral dimensions larger
331 than the sampled region of the crater. Zircon lends itself to depth profiling because euhedral
332 crystals can be aligned with (100) or (110) prism faces flush with the mount surface (Fig. 4),
333 making it possible to date very thin magmatic, metamorphic, or diagenetic overgrowths on
334 crystal surfaces. For many geochronology applications, in particular for dating young
335 crystals, secondary ion signals need to be integrated to depth intervals larger than the
336 theoretical achievable resolution to obtain meaningful age precision. Nevertheless, sub- μm
337 depth resolution for analysis of zircon growth domains is possible, permitting unique insights
338 into the timescales of magmatic or metamorphic crystallization (see section 4.2).

339 Scanning ion imaging (SII) is a third type of analysis where 2-D, or, if sequentially recorded
340 images are stacked, 3-D isotopic mapping is achieved (Fig. 4). Lateral resolution is
341 dependent on the size of the primary ion beam which is at a minimum between ~500 nm and
342 2 μm in diameter for Cs^+ (Ga^+) and O^- primary ion beams, respectively (e.g., Harrison and
343 Schmitt, 2007), and $\sim 10^3$'s to 100^3 's nm for NanoSIMS (e.g., Hofmann et al., 2009). Because
344 small primary beams correspond to low secondary ion intensities, SII analyses are generally
345 applied to highly radiogenic samples, for example to localize ~ 100 nm-sized patches of
346 unsupported high $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ in Archaean zircon (Kusiak et al., 2013; cf. Valley et al., 2014).
347 SII is also applied to augment other imaging techniques used to characterize zonation in the
348 target material (e.g., backscattered-electron BSE or cathodoluminescence CL). Compared to
349 BSE or CL imaging, SII has the advantage that it has the sensitivity to quantify trace element
350 distributions (e.g., for Ti-in-zircon; Hofmann et al., 2009).

351 Direct ion imaging (DII) is a semi-quantitative technique available in CAMECA ims
352 instruments (Fig. 4). Secondary ions are projected onto a stacked detector consisting of an
353 ion-sensitive channel plate and an electron-sensitive phosphorescent screen. In DII, spatial
354 resolution relates to aberrations in the secondary ion transmission (typically $\sim 0.5 \mu\text{m}$), and is
355 thus independent of the primary beam dimensions. A practical application of DII is aiding
356 primary beam targeting for small targets that are not readily visible in the optical (reflected
357 light) imaging or establishing isotope or elemental maps of a sectioned mineral.

358

359 *2.2.3 Inter-element ratio calibration: procedures and sources of bias*

360 Pb-isotopic fractionation in SIMS was found to be largely insignificant, although a subtle
361 instrumental mass fractionation (on average $+0.70 \pm 0.52 \text{‰}$) has been reported for $^{207}\text{Pb}_{\text{rad}}$
362 $/^{206}\text{Pb}_{\text{rad}}$ in zircon (Stern et al., 2009). Consequently, uncertainties for $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ dates are
363 predominantly determined by counting statistics, and assumptions regarding common-Pb
364 (section 2.2.4). In contrast, useful yields for Pb and U species vary strongly, as a rule of
365 thumb for zircon between $\sim 1 \%$ for Pb^+ and UO^+ , and ~ 0.1 - 0.2% for U^+ and UO_2^+ (note that
366 Pb-oxides are practically absent). This requires a correction based on the calibration of
367 relative sensitivity factors (RSF) using reference materials (e.g., Table 2). Moreover, the
368 Pb^+/U^+ RSF co-varies with the relative abundance of U-oxide species which has long been
369 harnessed to improve the Pb/U RSF calibration by determining working curves involving
370 ratios of U atomic and oxide species (i.e., “two dimensional” calibrations reviewed in detail

371 by Ireland and Williams, 2003). Regardless of the preferred calibration model, the resulting
372 ~1-3% (2σ) laboratory reproducibility of Pb/U RSF measurements on reference materials
373 believed to be homogeneous (e.g., Jeon and Whitehouse, 2014) frequently exceeds that
374 expected from counting statistics, and is a limiting factor for more precise SIMS analysis. In
375 contrast, the RSF for ThO_x/UO_x (with $x = 0, 1, \text{ or } 2$) is much closer to unity, typically
376 between 0.9 (e.g., zircon; Reid et al., 1997) and 1.1 (e.g., allanite; Vazquez and Reid, 2004),
377 and thus can be directly determined with a high level of confidence without resorting to a two
378 dimensional calibration.

379 To accurately apply the Pb/U RSF calibration, it must be realized that compositional
380 differences between reference materials and unknowns can cause RSF variations (the so-
381 called “matrix effects”) which, if unrecognized, can lead to systematic errors for the
382 unknowns. It is therefore paramount that reference materials and unknowns compositionally
383 match as closely as possible. This is straightforward for minerals with simple stoichiometry
384 (e.g., zircon, baddeleyite, or rutile), with the possible exception of high-U zircon (e.g., White
385 and Ireland, 2012) and baddeleyite (Li et al., 2010). Minerals other than zircon (e.g.,
386 monazite) often show strong compositional variability and require careful matching between
387 reference materials and unknowns (e.g., Fletcher et al., 2010). The analysis of high-energy
388 secondary ions (at -20 to 30 eV offset) mitigates Pb/Th matrix effects for monazite, but
389 comes at the expense of an order-of-magnitude decrease in useful ion yield (Hietpas et al.,
390 2010).

391 Where correlations exist between U-Pb dates and U abundances, they appear to be related to
392 radiation damage and metamictization because U-Pb determinations of young high-U zircon
393 lacks a concentration bias (White and Ireland, 2012). These findings also support the long-
394 held notion that intact crystallinity of the target zircons is a prerequisite for reliable SIMS
395 geochronology (Ireland and Williams, 2003). The magnitude of the matrix effect has been
396 described as instrumentation and tuning dependent (White and Ireland, 2012), but is broadly
397 similar for different instrumental designs (Fig. 5). High-U zircons also display wider ranges
398 in ion ratios used for calibration (e.g., UO^+/U^+) compared to reference materials with normal-
399 U concentrations (e.g., Temora), but differences exist in the calibration behaviour of high-U
400 and normal-U concentration reference materials on different instruments (Fig. 5). Regardless
401 of these differences, unusual calibration parameters are often a first-order indication of
402 problematic target zircons, and it is therefore recommended to always report the calibration
403 parameters for references and unknowns.

404 *Insert here Fig. 5*

405 A second cause of calibration bias can result from variable ion yields as a function of the
406 crystal orientation with respect to the incoming primary ion beam. These are known as
407 “crystal orientation effects” and have been documented for baddeleyite (Wingate and
408 Compston, 2000) and rutile (Taylor et al., 2012; Schmitt and Zack, 2012), but are not
409 detectable for zircon and monazite (e.g., Wingate and Compston, 2000). Elevated oxygen
410 surface concentration induced by a gas jet (O₂ flooding) pointing towards the sample surface
411 demonstrably mitigates crystal orientation effects for baddeleyite and rutile (Schmitt et al.,
412 2010; Li et al., 2010; Schmitt and Zack, 2012), while also boosting Pb⁺ ion yield of the
413 CAMECA ion probes (Schumacher et al., 1994; Schmitt et al., 2010; Schmitt and Zack,
414 2012).

415 A common characteristic of any Pb/U RSF miscalibration, regardless of its origin (e.g.,
416 matrix or crystal orientation effects), is that it shifts data along a trajectory indistinguishable
417 from modern day (Pb-loss) or reverse (U-loss or unsupported radiogenic Pb) discordance. As
418 a consequence, miscalibration causes displacement of the analyses of old zircon at a steep
419 angle to concordia. In the case of reverse discordance, this is readily identifiable as an
420 analytical artefact. When young minerals are dated, instrumental bias introduces variation in
421 U/Pb tangential to the slope of concordia which is more difficult to recognize as an artefact
422 because it resembles minor Pb-loss or inheritance.

423

424 *2.2.4. Common-Pb correction*

425 Common-Pb corrections are critical in SIMS because of the small volume of material
426 consumed which render Pb analyses vulnerable to surface contamination (especially affecting
427 the accuracy of ²⁰⁷Pb/²³⁵U ages). The presence of non-radiogenic Pb (Pb_{com}) also causes
428 displacement of data points off concordia, but their trajectory is controlled by the
429 composition of ²⁰⁷Pb_{com}/²⁰⁶Pb_{com} (Fig. 1). Proxies for common-Pb (primarily ²⁰⁴Pb) typically
430 show decreasing intensities with sputtering time, indicating that most non-radiogenic Pb is
431 surface derived. At UCLA anthropogenic ²⁰⁷Pb_{com}/²⁰⁶Pb_{com} = 0.8283 (Sanudo-Wilhelmy and
432 Flegal, 1994) is the default Pb composition for correcting zircon where common-Pb intrinsic
433 to the crystal lattice is extremely low. Measures of common-Pb used to determine corrections
434 are ²⁰⁴Pb (stable), ²⁰⁷Pb (quasi-invariant for young zircon; Baldwin and Ireland, 1995), or
435 ²⁰⁸Pb (quasi-stable for zircon with high U/Th; Compston et al., 1984). The main causes for

436 erroneous common-Pb corrections are over- or undercounting of the monitor common-Pb
437 species, in particular for ^{204}Pb . Undercounting can occur if peaks are mis-centered which can
438 typically be avoided by using nearby reference masses for peak centering (e.g., $^{94}\text{Zr}_2\text{O}$ for
439 ^{204}Pb). Overcounts can result from interferences that are unresolved at the mass resolution
440 $M/\Delta M = \sim 4500$ at 10% valley definition routinely used for SIMS U-Th-Pb geochronology.
441 Practically unresolvable interferences with their nominal mass resolution requirements in
442 parenthesis are: $^{204}\text{Hg}^+$ (500,000), $^{232}\text{Th}^{144}\text{Nd}^{16}\text{O}_2^{++}$ (50,000), or $^{186}\text{W}^{18}\text{O}^+$ (11,000). With the
443 exception of $^{204}\text{Hg}^+$ (sometimes due to contaminated Au targets used for applying the
444 conductive coating), these interferences are much more detrimental for monazite (high Th)
445 and rutile (high W) than for zircon. For monazite and rutile, peak-stripping from monitoring
446 related species (e.g., $^{202}\text{Hg}^+$, $^{232}\text{Th}^{144}\text{Nd}^{16}\text{O}_2^{++}$, or $^{183}\text{W}^{18}\text{O}^+$, respectively) or the suppression
447 of the interference using energy filtering can mitigate their impact on the common-Pb
448 correction.

449

450 *2.2.5 Data treatment and error reporting*

451 No universally accepted protocol for SIMS data reduction exists, and software is generally
452 tailored to the specific instrumentation operated by different labs. The diverse types of data
453 (e.g., spot analyses, depth profiles, or ion imaging) further complicate standardized data
454 reduction and reporting. In addition to the considerations about error hierarchies for ID-
455 TIMS, uncertainty reporting for SIMS U-Pb ages requires an additional level because of the
456 dependency on reference measurements and their analytical (random) and systematic
457 uncertainties. Although age is primarily not a factor known to constitute calibration bias
458 because Pb is characteristically present as a trace element below the levels that would cause
459 matrix effects, it is highly recommended to analyze secondary zircon references of similar
460 age as the unknowns under the same analytical conditions. This permits monitoring potential
461 analytical artefacts (e.g., peak misalignments), and aids in constraining an adequate number
462 of points analyzed for the RSF calibration curve whereby reference analyses should bracket
463 the unknowns. Reporting dates for secondary references is thus a recommended practice
464 which permits a first order assessment of data precision and accuracy.

465

466 **2.3 Laser Ablation Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS)**

467 *2.3.1 Overview*

468 With the first laser ablation U-Th-Pb dating studies being published ca. 20 years ago (e.g.
469 Fryer et al. 1993, Feng et al. 1993), this technique is relatively new compared to TIMS and
470 SIMS geochronology. Since these early studies, the major strength of the technique has been
471 recognized in its flexibility and speed of data acquisition, making it ideally suited for studies
472 requiring large datasets such as detrital mineral provenance (e.g. Machado & Gauthier, 1996;
473 Pullen et al., 2014, and references therein) and detailed investigations into complexly zoned
474 crystals (Gerdes and Zeh, 2009; Bosse et al., 2009). LA-ICP-MS can be applied to virtually
475 any U containing material suitable for geochronology (apatite, allanite, baddeleyite,
476 carbonate, monazite, rutile, titanite, uraninite, xenotime, zircon, and others), with the key
477 limitation being the availability of homogeneous reference materials (e.g., Table 2). The
478 method offers high lateral spatial resolution similar to SIMS, with typical spot sizes of 25-35
479 μm used for zircon geochronology, up to 50 μm for rutile work (having lower average U
480 concentrations), and as small as 5 μm (though usually 10-15 μm) for monazite dating which
481 is best performed *in situ* (in petrographic thin sections) to preserve the textural context of the
482 mineral and its interpretation relative to other structural and geochemical information. Depth
483 penetration during laser ablation is much higher than during SIMS analysis (see section
484 2.2.2), with ablation rates usually ranging from 0.35 to 1 $\mu\text{m}/\text{sec}$ (0.07-0.1 $\mu\text{m}/\text{pulse}$;
485 depending on the fluence used) and total crater depths of 15-40 μm during a 30-60 sec
486 analysis. These lower penetration depths are achievable routinely with higher yielding
487 instruments and analytical set-ups and recent studies and techniques are pushing even these
488 limits to shorter durations and lower analyte volumes, (e.g. Cottle et al., 2009, 2012; Johnston
489 et al., 2009; Steely et al., 2014) including depth profiling with resolution on the order of 150
490 nm/pulse for a 1-2 μm deep ablation.

491 The field of LA-ICP-MS has been rapidly expanding, driven by recent major technological
492 improvements in laser as well as ICP-MS instrumentation and the huge and still growing
493 demand for dates on magmatic and detrital zircon. One thousand U-Pb analyses per detrital
494 sample can now be collected efficiently (Pullen et al., 2014) and trace element (or other
495 isotope) data can be collected from the same volume of material (see discussion in section
496 4.3). Several recent comprehensive reviews and workshop volumes have summarized the
497 technical advances in the fundamental understanding of laser-sample interaction (laser
498 wavelength and pulse width), particle transport issues (sample cell design and carrier gas),
499 improvements in ion yield and reduction of elemental fractionation by modifications to
500 carrier and auxiliary gases (e.g. Koch and Günther, 2011; Russo et al., 2013). The LA-ICP-

501 MS U-Th-Pb community has implemented these recommended improvement strategies for
502 increasing ion yield, reducing laser-induced elemental fractionation and reducing ablated
503 volume, in order to improve data quality. Currently the method limit is stuck at 2% (2σ) for
504 $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ (Košler et al., 2013) and approximately 1% (2σ) for $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$, reflecting inter-
505 laboratory and methodological differences in the generated data (Hanchar, 2009; Košler et
506 al., 2013). However, these limits have been the focus of the laser ablation community over
507 recent years and it has been recognized that more consistent and better documented practices
508 are needed to resolve their origin. Community derived recommendations for better practice
509 have recently been described (see www.Plasmage.org; Bowring et al., 2013).

510

511 *2.3.2 Laser system influences*

512 *Ablation Cell design:* Possibly the most significant improvement to have impacted LA-ICP-
513 MS U-Th-Pb geochronology in recent years is the recognition of the importance of ablation
514 cell design on the acquired data. Two-volume cell designs are now standard in most
515 commercial laser ablation systems improving ablation signal response time and profile,
516 consistency of elemental signal and ratio quantification, signal-to-noise ratio and ultimately,
517 precision of data (Müller et al., 2009). Ablation takes place within an inner cup with a smaller
518 effective volume than the larger sample chamber and better controls the local gas dynamics,
519 evacuating the ablated material more efficiently. Signal responses and gas flows across the
520 larger sample chamber are harmonized, providing more consistent inter-element data,
521 particularly important when reference materials are mounted separately to samples. These
522 improved performance metrics have reduced the total ablation duration required and translate
523 directly to improved spatial resolution in area but particularly in depth.

524 *Laser wavelength and pulse width:* A second major improvement in recent years has been the
525 more universal adoption of the deep-ultraviolet wavelength (193 nm) laser ablation systems,
526 providing better absorption of the laser energy by the materials of interest, resulting in
527 cleaner and more reproducible ablations, producing smaller particles of more uniform size
528 distribution. These smaller particles (<150 nm) ionize more effectively in the plasma
529 improving signal response, signal and plasma stability, and repeatability of the analyses
530 (Guillong et al., 2003). Recent developments have also seen a move towards using ca. 100
531 femtosecond pulse widths (Horn and von Blanckenburg, 2007, Koch et al., 2006, Shaheen et

532 al., 2012) rather than the more traditional 4-25 nanosecond pulse widths, in an effort to
533 improve laser induced inter-element and isotopic fractionation. However, this has not yet
534 shown significant improvement for U-Th-Pb data (d'Abzac et al. 2011; Koornneef et al.
535 2012) although the optimum wavelengths and pulse widths of femtosecond laser systems
536 used for U-Pb dating have yet to be established.

537

538 2.3.3 Mass Spectrometry

539 Multiple collector (MC)-, single collector (SC)- and quadrupole (Q) ICP-MS are employed
540 for U-Pb geochronology and achieve broadly the same results, at least with respect to the
541 limiting Pb/U uncertainty. Some improvements in Pb isotope data can be achieved using MC-
542 ICP-MS but newer very rapid scanning SC-ICP-MS instruments can achieve similar counting
543 statistic precision, limited only by the dynamic range of the multiplier, due to their pseudo-
544 simultaneous mode of operation. However, until improvements of the limiting Pb/U
545 uncertainty can be realized, improved Pb isotope precision of one form of MS over another is
546 of limited value since resolving concordance is constrained by the larger Pb/U uncertainty.
547 Ultimately, single-collector detection will always be less precise than multi-collector
548 detection for highly variable, low intensity and/or short duration ion beam signals even for
549 the fastest scanning mass spectrometer systems. This is due to counting statistic limitations
550 resulting from the short dwell times required during rapid scanning mass spectrometry and
551 the non-simultaneous acquisition of the isotopes during rapid signal variations (spectral
552 skew). However, more practical limitations complicate the optimal choice of ICP-MS for
553 laser ablation analysis. For most routine U-Pb applications, a Q-ICP-MS system can achieve
554 the same Pb/U uncertainties as the sector field instruments due to the laser ablation and ICP-
555 based limiting uncertainties being greater than any spectral skew contributions when
556 appropriate analysis routines are selected. However, this comes at the expense of greater
557 sample consumption due to their lower ion yields, causing compromise in the spatial
558 resolution of the analysis. Q-ICP-MS systems are also less able to reliably measure the low
559 level ^{202}Hg and $^{204}(\text{Pb}+\text{Hg})$ peaks required for the correction of common-Pb. MC-ICP-MS
560 systems are constrained by their limited dynamic range in their ion counting systems. Here,
561 ion beams not much more than 1M cps (or those expected to reach this level in a small
562 amount of time) cause protection mechanisms to 'trip' into place, ending the acquisition and
563 generally causing loss of that analysis. Lower yielding SC-ICP-MS instruments are better

564 equipped to deal with such dynamic range variations by utilising quadrupole-like dual
565 detection systems that switch rapidly from the pulse counting to analogue conversion range
566 of the detector, thereby continuing the analysis. However, the calibration of this switch
567 between the dual detection modes requires care to achieve accuracy and contributes an
568 uncertainty usually in the percent range.

569 Great strides have been made in improving 'sensitivity' of mass spectrometers, coupled with
570 the improvements in cell geometry mentioned above. The quotation of instrumental
571 "sensitivity" varies across the ICP-MS community depending on what type of ICP-MS is
572 being used (e.g. MHz or GHz per ppm concentration for SC and Q-ICP-MS, Volts per ppm
573 concentration for MC-ICP-MS). However, all of these approaches require knowledge of the
574 amount of material utilised to allow them to be compared. In the same way, signals derived
575 by laser ablation on one instrument cannot be compared with another (or even between
576 analyses from the same set-up on two different days), unless an ablation rate or total ablation
577 pit volume is known.

578 Instrumental 'sensitivity' expressed as useful yield is independent of the method used to
579 collect the data (Table 1). It is suggested that this be a new standard (*sensu stricto*) for
580 reporting ICP-MS instrument performance with respect to signal response. Determination of
581 nebuliser uptake rate is all that is required for solution analyses, with laser ablation analyses
582 requiring determination of ablation rate per pulse at a particular laser fluence for a given
583 mineral. Expressed in this way all ICP-MS instruments can be compared within and between
584 laboratories, in wet plasma or dry, solution introduction or laser ablation, and compared to
585 equivalent SIMS and ID-TIMS metrics for a much more informative evaluation. Typical
586 useful yields for different instrument types are shown in Table 1 and better highlight their
587 differential capabilities whilst noting that although similar yields might be achieved (e.g.
588 SIMS; c.f. TIMS), the amount of material sampled constrains the overall achievable data
589 precision. Hence, TIMS data are more precise than SIMS despite having equivalent yields
590 and ICP-MS data can be as precise as SIMS but at the sacrifice of volume, despite having
591 lower useful yields. For the best precision at the smallest volume though, nothing currently
592 betters SIMS due to its comparatively high useful yields and small sampling volume.

593

594 *2.3.4 Source of bias and overall uncertainty*

595 One of the fundamental controls on U-Pb fractionation during laser ablation is the fluence
596 used for ablation. Greater fluence ($\text{J}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$) results in more ablation and therefore greater
597 downhole fractionation of the measured Pb/U ratio. The ability to correct this and the
598 uncertainty assigned to that correction, relies on the consistency of this fractionating profile.
599 In a homogenous material, therefore, the consistency or repeatability of the laser fluence is
600 critical to obtaining reproducible U-Pb data. As the community targets reduction of the U-Pb
601 uncertainty, laser fluence repeatability and therefore fluence-induced Pb/U variation, will
602 also need to improve. With increasing emphasis on single pulse, pulse-to-pulse and short
603 ablation data analysis, laser fluence repeatabilities will need to be tightly constrained if they
604 are not to become limiting to the achievable uncertainty. Ideally, it might be expected that the
605 variability of Pb/U as a result of fluence repeatability, should be ten times lower than the
606 overall target uncertainty to limit the impact of this parameter.

607 Laser-induced inter-element (or down-hole) fractionation (LIEF) is still one of the limiting
608 analytical factors in LA-ICP-MS U-Pb dating. Combined with metamictisation, geochemical
609 and structural alteration (of zircons and other accessory phases) affects the ablation rate of
610 the material, varying LIEF within and between materials of the same nominal composition.
611 This results in systematic inaccuracies in the determined sample or validation results when
612 directly compared to a reference material. Since these structural and geochemical variations
613 naturally occur, this effect can only be mitigated by reducing the degree of LIEF occurring in
614 the first place. This principally requires the use of low laser fluence and/or larger spot sizes to
615 prevent excessive depth penetration and restrict the aspect ratio of the ablation pit to less than
616 1:1, that is, a depth less than the spot size. This is more easily achieved therefore, by more
617 'sensitive' or efficient set-ups which achieve greater ion yields. The laser hardware and its
618 specific optical design also impact the extent of LIEF and poor gas dynamics in the ablation
619 cell and transport tubing can mask and overprint the true form of the LIEF, complicating its
620 correction. Great care is therefore required to prevent these effects and to limit the degree of
621 LIEF occurring.

622 One of the key problems for LA-ICP-MS U-Pb geochronology is the inability to precisely
623 measure ^{204}Pb for the correction of common-Pb. Despite the time sacrifice (for SC & Q-ICP-
624 MS systems) in doing so, we would like to advise that the two principal masses ^{202}Hg and
625 $^{204}(\text{Pb}+\text{Hg})$ should be monitored in any case, even imprecisely, to allow recognition of
626 common-Pb components clearly above background. Without this, the cause of discordant
627 data points can only be surmised to be common-Pb rather than demonstrated. Ultimately

628 however, laser ablation is limited in its ability to correct for common-Pb when compared to
629 both ID-TIMS and SIMS. Equally, ‘blind acceptance’ of common-Pb corrected data, without
630 scrutiny of the data scatter prior to correction, can mislead interpretations due to masking of
631 non-analytical scatter by the increased data point uncertainties after correction. In addition,
632 false impressions of concordance may result as data are forced to the concordia by assuming
633 potentially inaccurate common-Pb compositions for correction. This is potentially a problem
634 at all scales of precision for each of the techniques described in this manuscript. Arguably a
635 better way of assessing common-Pb affected data is to first view it without common-Pb
636 correction on a Tera-Wasserburg ($^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ vs. $^{238}\text{U}/^{206}\text{Pb}$) diagram so that the true scatter
637 in the data can be seen as well as the trend in the data indicating the appropriate composition
638 to use for correction. Sometimes this trend is not visible within a cluster of data and the
639 analyst has no option but to assume a relevant composition based on other information.
640 However, particularly for non-zircon accessory phases, common-Pb compositional
641 constraints may be determined from U-Pb data with excess scatter, by initial plotting of data
642 that are not corrected for common-Pb, prior to the expansion of the uncertainties due to the
643 correction, and thus allowing the smaller data point uncertainties to better resolve these
644 components. Better resolution of the true scatter is important in defining whether the data do
645 indeed represent a single population, the fundamental assumption which must be adhered to
646 if the data are to be corrected. A common-Pb corrected age and uncertainty can then be more
647 appropriately defined in this way. Equivalent to a ^{207}Pb -based common-Pb correction, this
648 approach still ignores however, the potential for Pb-loss to also disturb the system, except in
649 that Pb-loss in addition to common-Pb would likely result in increased scatter of the data
650 population now better resolved with the uncorrected, more precise, data point uncertainties.
651 Anderson (2002) highlighted the limitations of ^{207}Pb and ^{208}Pb -based common-Pb corrections
652 in the presence of Pb-loss and illustrated an alternative approach, not requiring measurement
653 of ^{204}Pb (particularly for ICP-MS-based measurements), which accounted for non-zero age
654 Pb-loss within a data population. The potential for systematic errors after correction were
655 however noted at Pb-loss proportions greater than a few percent.

656 *2.3.5 Method work flow and data treatment*

657 Imaging is a critical first step in the LA-ICP-MS U-Th-Pb workflow. Cathodoluminescence
658 (CL), back-scattered electron (BSE), electron back-scattered diffraction (EBSD), elemental
659 maps and other sample characterization methods are important tools allowing precise
660 targeting of microbeam analyses and evidence-based interpretation of the data. Transmitted

661 light optical imagery is also useful for laser ablation work in conjunction with surface
662 images, to avoid common-Pb bearing sub-surface cracks and inclusions which might
663 otherwise be sampled during ablation. Ultimately the output data should be interpreted with
664 the image information in hand so that aberrant data points can be considered in the context of
665 their analysis position in the material, its complexity and the likelihood of encountering a
666 problem with depth.

667 Recent community-based efforts have sought to minimise systematic artefacts in laser
668 ablation U-Pb data to better understand their nature and determine appropriate data handling
669 routines and uncertainty propagation protocols. This LA-ICP-MS U-Th-Pb Network has
670 made recommendations for the appropriate handling, reporting and interpretation of LA-ICP-
671 MS U-Pb data (www.Plasmage.org;) which should result in improved standards (*sensu*
672 *stricto*) in this field of geochronology and lead ultimately to a reduction of the method
673 limiting uncertainty, perhaps to as little as 0.5% (2σ) for the Pb/U ratio. The method limiting
674 uncertainty reflects the community inter-laboratory comparison capability and requires
675 sources of systematic errors (*sensu stricto*) to be identified.

676 Although new data handling procedures have been recommended, until such time as these
677 become common-place amongst practitioners, variability of data treatment remains a
678 fundamental limitation in this field of geochronology. Until improved uncertainty assessment
679 is common practice, allowing better resolution and comprehension of data scatter,
680 improvements to analytical and instrumental set-up will not be achieved and inter-laboratory
681 comparison will remain at the ca. 2% (2σ) level.

682

683 **3. Limits on the interpretation of geochronologic dates**

684 *3.1 Correction for initial ^{230}Th and ^{231}Pa disequilibrium*

685 As a result of differing mineral-melt distribution coefficients (D) for the different elements
686 present within the ^{238}U and ^{235}U decay chains, crystallizing accessory minerals exclude or
687 enrich long-lived intermediate daughter products relative to their parent isotopes. For
688 geochronology, the two most relevant nuclides are the comparatively long-lived ^{230}Th (half-
689 life $t_{1/2} = 75,584$ a; Cheng et al., 2013) and ^{231}Pa ($t_{1/2} = 32,760$ a; Robert et al., 1969), which
690 for zircon are enriched or depleted, respectively, relative to secular equilibrium. Magmatic
691 processes do not fractionate ^{234}U ($t_{1/2} = 245,620$ years; Cheng et al., 2013) from its parent, but

692 recoil ejection and leaching can lead to ^{234}U loss and a resulting deficit in ^{206}Pb in radiation
693 damaged minerals (e.g., Romer, 2003; Cheng et al., 2013). Corrections for initial
694 disequilibrium require knowledge of the partitioning ratio between the U parent and a stable
695 proxy X for the intermediate daughter D_X/D_U (Schärer, 1984). For ^{230}Th , X = ^{232}Th is used,
696 with the Th/U of the melt estimated from the composition of whole-rocks, matrix glasses, or
697 melt inclusions (e.g., Crowley et al., 2007). If melt or fluid compositions are unknown,
698 experimentally or empirically derived D_X/D_U can be used (e.g., Blundy and Wood, 2003;
699 Rubatto and Hermann, 2007). No stable proxy is available for ^{231}Pa , the longest-lived
700 intermediate daughter in the ^{235}U decay chain. Lattice-strain partitioning models for the
701 incorporation of $^{231}\text{Pa}^{5+}$ into the zircon lattice predict high K_D values (Blundy and Wood,
702 2003), which is in agreement with $D_{\text{Pa}/\text{U}} = 3.8 \pm 0.8$ determined from direct analysis of ^{231}Pa
703 in late Pleistocene zircons and whole rocks (Schmitt, 2011). $D_{\text{Nb}/\text{U}}$ or $D_{\text{Ta}/\text{U}}$ zircon-melt
704 values theoretically permit extrapolation to unsupported ^{231}Pa at the time of zircon
705 crystallization, but this is confounded by uncertainties in the oxidation states of Pa and U
706 (Burnham and Berry, 2012). To completely circumvent the problem of initial intermediate
707 daughter disequilibrium, $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{232}\text{Th}$ ages can be determined. In that case, disequilibrium
708 effects are negligible due to the short half lives of the intermediate daughters ($t_{1/2} < 5.75$ a;
709 Mays et al., 1962), e.g., applied to hydrothermal monazite (Janots et al., 2012).

710 For complete ^{230}Th exclusion from the zircon lattice, the resulting correction amounts to a
711 maximum of 110 ka on the $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ date, using the ^{230}Th decay constant of Cheng et al.
712 (2013). This is non-negligible for time-scale work in young, astronomically-tuned
713 sedimentary sections, where the ^{230}Th disequilibrium correction may equal approximately
714 four to five precession cycles (Wotzlaw et al., 2014). When applying a disequilibrium
715 correction, initially distinct dates may converge (Fig. 1b). This example also illustrates that
716 the Th disequilibrium correction effect becomes larger than the total $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ age
717 uncertainty for ID-TIMS dating of rocks <100 Ma, and the estimated 50% uncertainty on
718 $D_{\text{Th}/\text{U}}$ becomes the dominant source of uncertainty for dates <10 Ma (Wotzlaw et al., 2014;
719 Fig. 1b). Zircon populations may show a large dispersal in Th/U ($^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$) values that may
720 reflect variable Th/U of the magma from which they crystallized, or a variable D_X/D_U of
721 zircon at constant Th/U of the magma (see Rioux et al., 2012). For zircon, excess $^{207}\text{Pb}_{\text{rad}}$ will
722 lead to erroneously old $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{235}\text{U}$ dates by up to 130 ka for $D_{\text{Pa}/\text{U}}$ of 3.8 (Schmitt, 2011).
723 This means that any zircon <10 Ma will be measurably displaced to the right of concordia
724 due to uncorrected ^{231}Pa excess (Fig. 1b).

725

726 3.2 Protracted crystallization of igneous zircon

727 3.2.1 Insights from U-series studies

728 How fast does zircon crystallize in natural systems, and what are the limits on the dating
729 accuracy if the sampling volume integrates over diachronous crystal domains? U-series
730 dating, mainly utilizing $^{230}\text{Th}/^{238}\text{U}$ disequilibrium, offers the highest absolute temporal
731 resolution for recent crystals (e.g., Cooper and Kent, 2014). Moreover, SIMS depth profiles
732 can interrogate crystal growth domains parallel to prism faces at sub-micron spatial
733 resolution (Fig. 4). There is a growing data set for accessory minerals in youthful volcanic
734 systems studied by U-series geochronology (e.g., Claiborne et al., 2010; Stelten et al., 2013),
735 but for brevity we can only highlight results that bear directly on the interpretation of zircon
736 ages. This is best done by focusing on a single study region, the Quaternary Taupo Volcanic
737 Zone (TVZ) which embodies many characteristics of volcanic systems underlain by
738 batholith-scale silicic magma bodies and which lends itself for a review because (1) its late
739 Quaternary to recent age is ideal for high-temporal resolution U-series dating of zircon, (2) it
740 preserves the products of high-frequency eruptions from multiple nested caldera systems, and
741 (3) it has been studied by several research groups, thus providing an excellent opportunity to
742 test different methodological approaches (Fig. 6).

743 Zircon populations from TVZ rhyolites and plutonic ejecta have been intensely studied by ID
744 TIMS bulk and SIMS spot analysis, as well as SIMS studies using sectioned crystals and
745 depth profiling of the outermost crystal margins (e.g., Charlier et al., 2003, 2005; Charlier
746 and Wilson, 2010; Klemetti et al., 2011; Danišik et al., 2012; Shane et al., 2012; Storm et al.,
747 2011, 2012; 2014), with results being largely complementary and mutually supportive. ID
748 TIMS analysis of ~1 mg zircon separates comprising 100s of individual crystals for the
749 Rotoiti eruption (~45 ka; Danišik et al., 2012) is in excellent agreement with the
750 concentration-weighted SIMS average of multiple spots (~1 ng per spot; Charlier et al., 2003,
751 2005; Fig. 6). The stated precision of the TIMS age (approximately ± 2 ka), however, is
752 geologically meaningless in the light of protracted crystallization (>300 ka) revealed by
753 SIMS spot analyses (e.g., Charlier et al., 2003).

754 *Insert here Fig. 6*

755 Detailed depth profiling studies of zircon in post-Rotoiti rhyolites erupted from Tarawera
756 volcano (TVZ) have revealed that zircon crystal rims frequently predate the eruption (Storm

757 et al., 2011; 2012). Moreover, individual crystals record protracted crystallization, which can
758 be interrupted during recharge events due to increase of magma temperature and resorption of
759 zircon. Tarawera data also reveal that, despite some actual heterogeneity of rim ages, the
760 peak of the zircon rim age distribution progressively shifts towards younger age with
761 decreasing eruption age. Statistical comparison of zircon age probability density distribution
762 (PDD) curves further demonstrates that interior ages of the same population are
763 indistinguishable from the rim ages of the preceding eruption (“Storm’s rule”; Fig. 6),
764 implying that pre-existing zircon in unerupted residual magma is a preferred nucleation site
765 for renewed crystallization. Trace element zoning within Tarawera zircons displays mostly
766 normal, retrograde (down-temperature) crystallization trends indicated by rimward
767 decreasing Zr/Hf and Ti (Fig. 7), but a significant (~30%) proportion of depth-profiled
768 zircons indicate crystallization following thermal and compositional reversals (i.e., rimward
769 increases of Zr/Hf and Ti; “recharge” in Fig. 7).

770 These observations collectively reveal that the zircon ‘cargo’ in volcanic rocks is sourced
771 from heterogeneous domains in the magma storage region where zircon crystallization
772 followed distinct thermal and compositional evolutionary paths. Moreover, the absence of
773 near-eruptive aged rims in some crystals indicates that zircon residence in the host magma is
774 often too short to directly record the conditions in the liquid-dominated, eruptible portion of a
775 magma reservoir. In favourable instances, plutonic clasts excavated during pyroclastic
776 eruptions provide additional insights into the compositional and thermal heterogeneity of
777 long-lived magma reservoirs. Where zircons in plutonic rocks formed synchronously to those
778 of their volcanic host, they have been interpreted as ripped up from highly crystalline mushes
779 (e.g., Charlier et al., 2003), whereas in other cases plutonic zircons predate those in co-
780 erupted volcanic rocks and may indicate an origin from older intrusive carapaces which acted
781 as barriers to the interaction of magma with country rock, but also are a potential source of
782 “old” zircons in subsequent eruptions (e.g., Shane et al., 2012).

783 The recognition of the complexity of zircon ages in young igneous rocks led to the
784 classification of Miller et al (2007) who distinguished an *autocrystic* population (youngest
785 grains that grew in equilibrium with the last magma batch in which they occur), and an
786 *antecrystic* population that is derived from earlier stages of magma evolution within the same
787 plumbing system and thus yielding older U-Pb dates (see example in Fig. 8), to be
788 distinguished from *xenocrystic* (zircon that is accidentally entrained into the magma) or
789 *inherited* zircon (derived from melting of a source rock). There are no clear boundaries

790 between these categories (Fig. 7). In particular, the difference between antecrystic and
791 autocrystic growth (according to the definition of Miller et al., 2007) merits some more
792 consideration: zircon is stable within a temperature window and a magma composition
793 characteristic for melt saturation for this mineral (Watson and Harrison, 1983; Boehnke et al.,
794 2013). This temperature may be repeatedly exceeded during recharge of a magmatic system
795 by incoming hot magma, leading to resorption and partial dissolution of previously
796 crystallizing zircon, followed by cooling down to temperatures of zircon saturation and
797 crystallization. Repeated cycling through the saturation temperature band commonly lasts for
798 a few 10's to 100's ka (e.g., Broderick 2013; Storm et al., 2011; 2012; 2014; Wotzlaw et al.,
799 2013), reflected by multiple peaks in PDD curves from multi-episodic zircon growth (Fig. 8a,
800 b). Because of the extended zircon crystallization in long-lived magma systems, zircon ages
801 cannot *a priori* be interpreted to record an instantaneous geologic event, with implications for
802 ID-TIMS dating discussed below.

803 *Insert here Fig 7*

804 3.2.2 Scattered zircon U-Pb dates from high-precision ID-TIMS dating of igneous rocks

805 The advent of the precisely calibrated EARTHTIME tracers, the chemical abrasion pre-
806 treatment and the use of linear and stable electron and photo multipliers for ion counting of
807 the minor Pb masses, has led to <0.1% precision on common-Pb corrected $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ dates.
808 The low $\text{Pb}_{\text{rad}}/\text{Pb}_{\text{com}}$ ratios, the uncertainty of the isotopic composition of the procedural blank
809 and the possibility of a common-Pb component in the zircon, renders the $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{235}\text{U}$ date
810 unreliable for Phanerozoic zircon (see Fig. 1b). The community focused on high-precision
811 dating of igneous rocks has therefore shifted away from the concordia-age concept (Ludwig,
812 2003) and is using instead a statistical approach on the $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ date only. The data are
813 displayed as $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ date-ranked distribution plots, and corresponding PDD curves (Fig 8).
814 High-precision ID-TIMS dates are obtained from a whole volume or a (mostly randomly
815 sampled) fragment of one single zircon grain, excluding only the decay-damaged zones that
816 have been mostly dissolved during chemical abrasion. The date therefore represents an
817 integrated history of crystallization over many growth zones. In the absence of radiogenic Pb
818 loss or inheritance, dispersion of ID-TIMS dates therefore always give a *minimum* period for
819 zircon crystallization in a given magmatic system. This approach implies removal of all
820 discordance within the zircon volume that survived the chemical abrasion treatment, an
821 assumption that cannot be proven in reality. Instead, perfect reproducibility within youngest

822 clusters of zircon dates, or coincidence with other chronometers such as U-Pb titanite, or
823 astrochronology (Wotzlaw et al., 2014) are used as arguments to support this assumption.

824 *Insert here Fig. 8*

825 High-precision ID-TIMS U-Pb dating is predominantly applied to questions related to magma
826 reservoir processes and for the reconstruction of the geological time scale, usually by dating
827 volcanic ash beds in sedimentary sections. In the case of a volcanic ash or flow the aim is to
828 date its eruption. The $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ date of the youngest data cluster (assuming that it is not
829 biased by Pb loss) is commonly adopted as an approximation of the age of the last
830 crystallization; it then remains to quantify the time lapse Δt between the youngest zircon date
831 and final solidification or eruption. High-precision U-Pb dating of volcanic zircon in 4 to 12
832 Ma old ash beds from astrochronologically well-characterized upper Miocene sedimentary
833 successions demonstrates that in some cases Δt cannot be resolved because it is therefore
834 smaller than our analytical uncertainty of 4 to 12 ka; at the other extreme the Δt may reach a
835 few 100 ka (Wotzlaw et al., 2014). This means that for volcanic rocks >100 Ma, Δt is largely
836 negligible relative to analytical uncertainties.

837 The total dispersion of U-Th or $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ dates in a zircon population characterizes the
838 temporal and spatial heterogeneity of magma bodies which may alternate between near-
839 solidus and partially re-molten states, and which are open to thermal and compositional
840 rejuvenation via magma recharge (e.g., Wotzlaw et al., 2013; Storm et al., 2014). Although
841 the dynamics of such magma systems are not entirely understood, it is conceivable that
842 liquids carrying suspended zircons (and other fine-grained minerals) separate from coarser-
843 grained solids, and that melt-zircon suspensions are transported towards higher crustal levels
844 due to buoyancy overpressure. Consequently, zircon age dispersion may not necessarily
845 record protracted zircon growth in a melt batch undergoing closed-system crystallization, but
846 may result from zircon crystallization in melts that were saturated at different times and that
847 were intermittently stored under conditions close to the magma solidus (Broderick, 2013;
848 Cooper and Kent, 2014). Based on thermal considerations, the time taken for effective
849 solidification at the level of final emplacement in the middle or upper crust is expected to be
850 one or two orders of magnitude shorter than the age dispersion of plutonic zircon populations.
851 The interpretation of zircon U-Pb ages in volcanic and plutonic systems may therefore be
852 very complex; zircon may be recycled from precursor mushes and crystallize at any time the
853 melt is zircon-saturated, be it during magma transfer through the crust, at emplacement, or

854 even during final cooling to the solidus and possibly hydrothermally under sub-solidus
855 conditions. A plutonic zircon date therefore marks simply a transient stage of "rheological
856 freezing" of a magma mush. The PDD curves derived from the distribution of $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$
857 zircon dates have been demonstrated to be related to magma volume and flux (Caricchi et al.,
858 2014) and may be used for quantitative modelling of these parameters.

859 A concern for representative sampling of a population is the number of grains analyzed. This
860 is generally more critical for CA-ID-TIMS dates where the time and effort to carry-out
861 individual analyses significantly exceeds that for SIMS or LA-ICP-MS, especially in cases of
862 obviously complex zircon populations. Experience shows that 10-20 analyses are needed to
863 interpret a complex population with sufficient confidence; if applied as a chronostratigraphic
864 tool to a sedimentary succession, a high sample density is required in addition, to recognize
865 complex magmatic behaviour of the U-Pb system in zircon (Guex et al., 2012; Wotzlaw et
866 al., 2013, 2014).

867

868 *3.3 Scattered vs. clustered U-Th-Pb dates: data point precision and uncertainties on average* 869 *ages*

870 Irrespective of the analytical method, the uncertainty in individual isotopic measurements or
871 data points determines ones ability to resolve scatter within a data set and to discriminate one
872 data population from another. Most samples of volcanic and plutonic rocks contain zircons
873 with a range of dates that may or may not be resolvable, depending on the uncertainty of the
874 technique used (see, as an example, the history of U-Pb dating of the Fish Canyon Tuff;
875 Schmitz and Bowring, 2001; Bachmann et al., 2007, Wotzlaw et al., 2013). In order to
876 evaluate whether the scatter may reflect solely analytical uncertainty, in which case it would
877 be appropriate to calculate a weighted mean $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ age, or whether it contains a
878 component of excess scatter, the mean square weighted deviation (MSWD) is evaluated. For
879 a large number of analyses, a $\text{MSWD} \approx 1$ (with the exact range of permissible values
880 calculated from the number of analyses N averaged in the calculation; Wendt and Carl, 1991;
881 Mahon, 1996) indicates scatter from analytical uncertainty only and/or has scatter
882 unresolvable at the level of the assigned data point uncertainty (Kalsbeek, 1992). By
883 calculating a weighted mean age we imply that all zircons have crystallized simultaneously
884 within analytical resolution, or that any age difference remains unresolved within uncertainty.
885 Zircon populations with excess scatter will yield unacceptably high MSWD values at a given

886 N and have to be interpreted in terms of real age dispersion (or open system behaviour) after
887 any analytical bias has been ruled out. It is important to emphasize that even for zircon
888 populations with no analytically resolvable scatter (i.e., MSWD = 1), it would be fallacious to
889 interpret the limits of the uncertainty-weighted average as an indication for the actual
890 duration of zircon crystallization. It is the analytical uncertainty of the individual
891 measurements which dictates the capability to define a single population, and one may not *a*
892 *priori* assume homogeneity in the population below this limit.

893 In addition it should be noted that a single population of data validated by MSWD statistics
894 does not preclude a systematic error (i.e. bias) being present within the dataset. Sample
895 results using a relative method cannot therefore be any more accurate (i.e. including
896 precision) than the level to which the relevant reference materials are defined. Therefore, one
897 of the fundamental limiting uncertainties for SIMS and LA-ICP-MS is the uncertainty in the
898 composition of the reference zircon being used (Table 2). Systematic uncertainties (e.g., from
899 tracer calibration in the case of ID-TIMS, or from decay constant determination) do affect
900 data accuracy despite apparent high precision, and need to be propagated into final
901 uncertainties when comparing between data from different techniques or to data from other
902 chronometers.

903

904 *3.4 Efficiency of chemical abrasion in ID-TIMS, SIMS, and LA-ICP-MS*

905 The approach of focusing on the youngest sub-population of zircon grains requires that any
906 trace of post-crystallization radiogenic Pb loss has been removed during the chemical
907 abrasion treatment (Mattinson, 2005). There remains, however, the suspicion that a residual
908 Pb loss component can influence the U-Pb date of the youngest zircons in a population,
909 predominantly in ash beds that suffered post-depositional fluxing by aqueous solutions and
910 volatiles. Whether a given analysis is biased by residual Pb loss or not is often a subjective
911 decision. Failure to report such data in the data table of a scientific publication is poor
912 practice that prevents eventual re-assessment of previously erroneously interpreted data.

913 Since chemical abrasion is a purely empirical procedure, it may be desirable to develop
914 proxies in the future to detect minor traces of Pb loss. In addition, we need to be aware that
915 chemical abrasion is preferentially removing the zones richest in U, thus biasing the U-Pb
916 data towards, marginal or more internal, low-U growth zones (Fig. 7). How can “pathologic”
917 behavior of the U-Pb system (e.g., Pb-loss, inheritance, and to minor extent initial

918 disequilibrium) be distinguished from true variations in crystallization age, and how much
919 bias do we actually introduce through chemical abrasion? The high degree of reproducibility
920 of chemically-abraded zircon dates in inter-laboratory cross-calibrations on natural zircon
921 populations suggests that we can be rather optimistic in this respect, if we respect the limiting
922 parameters and analyse a sufficient number of zircon crystals. These studies, however,
923 employ mostly high-quality materials that have been proposed as international reference
924 materials, which more easily reproduce their high-precision age.

925 A number of studies have now also identified the potential utility of thermal annealing or
926 chemical abrasion for SIMS (Kryza et al., 2012) and LA-ICP-MS (Allen and Campbell,
927 2012; Marillo-Sialer et al., 2014; Crowley et al., 2014; von Quadt et al., 2014). Most studies
928 demonstrate reduced ablation rates for thermally annealed or chemically abraded material
929 when compared to ablation rates in untreated materials and improved concordance (reduced
930 Pb-loss/common-Pb effects) of final results. Allen and Campbell (2012) cite the annealing of
931 alpha recoil tracks and structural harmonization as the mechanism for a reduced ablation rate
932 and improved validation to better than 1% accuracy, whilst Marillo-Sialer et al. (2014)
933 indicate that the relative deviations between validation materials remain after annealing
934 although ablation rates are reduced. Crowley et al. (2014) recognise reduced ablation rates
935 even for Archaean zircons despite the mineral structure becoming more porous after
936 widespread partial dissolution after chemical abrasion and von Quadt et al. (2014) also
937 illustrate reduced Pb-loss effects, greater geological accuracy of the results and improved
938 precision due to a reduction of scatter within the chemically abraded data populations.

939 However, since both SIMS and LA-ICP-MS techniques are described as requiring
940 compositional and structural homogeneity between sample and reference materials to obtain
941 appropriate calibrations, the indiscriminate application of chemical abrasion preparation
942 procedures for samples could lead to increased variability in both parameters relative to the
943 reference materials. Unless extensive unleached (low U) portions of the sample crystal are
944 preserved, the dissolution part of the chemical abrasion procedure may result in extensive
945 structural differences between samples and reference materials, exacerbating the variability
946 of ablation rates and indeed increasing it significantly. Clearly then chemical abrasion and/or
947 thermal annealing has a significant role to play in improving the method uncertainty limit and
948 overall accuracy of SIMS and LA-ICP-MS U-Pb dates, but greater clarification of the effects
949 of this approach are still required not least to ascertain the effect for complex zircons with
950 multiple age domains which might be removed by the abrasion process. The value of high

951 spatial resolution techniques is in illustrating the presence of such previously unrecognised
952 domains whilst attempting to date them. Their removal prior to their recognition could be
953 considered a backward step.

954 It should be noted that for zircon dated by high spatial resolution techniques from material
955 that is not pre-treated by chemical abrasion techniques it is not appropriate to apply the
956 common strategy used by CA-ID-TIMS specialists to adopt the youngest analysis as a proxy
957 for the last crystallization event in a magma, because such a date is potentially biased by Pb
958 loss. In the same way, single laser ablation or SIMS analyses from detrital zircon spectra
959 should not be used to interpret the maximum depositional age of sediments. This is best
960 estimated from the average of multiple young dates overlapping within analytical uncertainty
961 (Dickinson and Gehrels 2009; see recommendations on www.Plasmage.org) and regardless
962 of whether CA pre-treatment was applied or not.

963

964 *3.5 Reference materials*

965 SIMS and LA-ICP-MS U-Th-Pb dating are comparative methods dependent on reference
966 materials for determining RSF values for inter-element ratio corrections. They therefore
967 require suitable natural or artificial reference materials, of similar elemental concentration
968 and structural state to the unknowns, homogenous in age and ideally also Th/U and trace
969 elements. There are currently very few well-characterized reference materials available
970 (Table 2) and many with insufficient ID-TIMS age control. This limitation means that a
971 SIMS or LA-ICP-MS date can only be as good as the homogeneity of the reference materials,
972 the accuracy and precision to which such material is known, as well as the stability of the
973 system during analysis (see section 3.3; Table 2). Some materials are well defined at ca. 0.1%
974 ([x] uncertainty; 2σ) of their $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ age (e.g., Plešovice, Sláma et al., 2008, or AUSZ2,
975 Kennedy et al., 2014). For other materials, e.g., the Mud Tank zircon (Black and Gulson,
976 1978) and many of the monazite, rutile and titanite reference materials, this can be as bad as
977 3-4% (2σ , $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ age). Concerning homogeneity, some of these “candidate reference
978 materials” are far from being ideal, especially for non-zircon phases, but are simply all that is
979 available. There is also a dearth of well-characterized Quaternary reference materials, where
980 analytical challenges are highest because of low signals, crystallization age heterogeneity and
981 initial isotopic disequilibrium.

982 The Plešovice zircon was demonstrated to perhaps have some age and/or matrix variation
983 impacting on SIMS dates and likely also consistency of laser ablation results (Sláma et al.,
984 2008). U variations within Plesovice crystals are as high as 465-3084 ppm, resulting in
985 metamict areas with increased ablation rate and therefore downhole fractionation. The GJ-1
986 zircon appears very homogeneous for age within one crystal but different crystals are claimed
987 to have slightly different ID-TIMS reference U-Pb ages (Jackson et al., 2004; Schaltegger et
988 al., unpubl., in Boekhout et al., 2012).

989 It should be ensured that relevant reference values are used in reference to the relevant
990 sample value. Comparing the Pb/U result for a material to its expected concordia age for
991 example, is invalid and gives a false impression of accuracy, positively or negatively. Since
992 few of the known ‘candidate reference materials’ for in situ U-Th-Pb geochronology, are
993 concordant within the precision limits of the reference data (e.g. GJ-1, 91500), comparison of
994 the correct reference ratio with the equivalent sample ratio is imperative. This is particularly
995 important for non-zircon accessory phases which are increasingly the focus of research.
996 Apatite (Chew et al., 2011; Thomson et al., 2012), rutile (Kooijman et al., 2010; Zack et al.,
997 2011; Schmitt and Zack, 2012), titanite (Storey et al., 2006) and monazite (Harrison et al.,
998 1995; Košler et al., 2001; Hietpas et al., 2010) all incorporate initial Pb to greater or lesser
999 extents and commonly contain excess ^{206}Pb due to incorporation of excess ^{230}Th during
1000 crystallization. Reference values reflecting the exact composition of the material sampled are
1001 therefore required.

1002 Ultimately, at the smallest scale, no reference material will be compositionally or structurally
1003 matrix-matched to an unknown. Recent individual and community efforts have attempted to
1004 compile a list of available reference materials for laser ablation U-Th-Pb geochronology. The
1005 Arizona LaserChron Centre (<https://sites.google.com/a/laserchron.org/laserchron/>) and the
1006 LA-ICP-MS U-Th-Pb Network (www.plasmage.org) detail lists of materials, their
1007 availability and origin.

1008

1009 *3.6 Zircon U-Pb precision in comparison with other accessory minerals*

1010 As shown above, minerals other than zircon - with the exception of monazite, xenotime and
1011 baddeleyite - have distinctly lower $\text{Pb}_{\text{rad}}/\text{Pb}_{\text{com}}$ ratios and therefore cannot yield U-Pb dates at
1012 the same level of precision as zircon (see, e.g., Schoene et al., 2012). Correct uncertainty
1013 propagation of the isotope composition used for Pb_{com} correction is essential to obtain an

1014 accurate $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ age with correct associated uncertainty from these minerals. An
1015 optimized approach is to measure Pb_{com} in low-U phases such as feldspars and assume
1016 equilibrium with crystallizing zircon, instead of blindly using a model isotope composition
1017 from the crustal growth model of Stacey and Kramers (1975), evidently not possible for
1018 detrital minerals. For assessing the uncertainty of the Pb_{com} isotope composition, we can
1019 propagate the analytical uncertainty from the feldspar analyses, or model uncertainty limits
1020 taking the most extreme Pb_{com} isotope compositions found in the studied rocks. The
1021 application of the 3D isochron approach may evidence non-common, slightly radiogenic
1022 initial Pb isotope compositions, but is biased by the fact that, e.g., titanite crystallizes over a
1023 significant time span and therefore different single grains are not strictly coeval (Schoene et
1024 al., 2012).

1025 Additional complication is presented in the case of baddeleyite which often shows effects of
1026 post-crystallization lead loss. Chemical abrasion or leaching treatment prior to analysis
1027 proved to be inefficient and leads to analytical artifacts (Rioux et al., 2010); the accuracy of
1028 baddeleyite and zircon data is therefore often not entirely equivalent.

1029 High-precision monazite dating is hampered by initial ^{230}Th disequilibrium leading to
1030 unsupported radiogenic ^{206}Pb , which cannot be corrected in a metamorphic environment
1031 since the Th/U of the crystallizing medium is not known. This obstacle may be overcome by
1032 using the $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{235}\text{U}$ date at marginally lower precision, or to use the $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{232}\text{Th}$ isotopic
1033 systems instead, especially for SIMS and LA-ICP-MS.

1034

1035

1036 **4. Improving the interpretation of geochronologic data**

1037 *4.1 Imaging and texturally controlled sampling*

1038 Cathodoluminescence (CL) imaging for zircon, back-scattered electron (BSE) imaging and
1039 electron probe elemental maps (for monazite and other accessory phases with complex
1040 chemical zoning) are essential aids for guiding selection of analysis locations for high spatial
1041 resolution dating studies (and increasingly for selecting crystals or crystal domains for high-
1042 precision ID-TIMS analysis) and help enable robust interpretations of U-Th-Pb data. Without
1043 knowledge of what is being analysed, a result, however precise, is less meaningful or even
1044 non-interpretable. Increasingly, techniques such as electron back-scattered diffraction
1045 (EBSD; e.g., Moser et al., 2009; Fig. 9a), SIMS ion imaging (e.g., Kusiak et al., 2013), charge

1046 contrast imaging (CCI; Watt et al., 2000; Fig. 9b), Raman spectroscopy (e.g., White and
1047 Ireland, 2012), and transmission electron microscopy (TEM; e.g., Dobrzhinetskaya et al.,
1048 2014) are also coming to the fore, demonstrating the relationship between structural
1049 coherency of the material, crystal orientation, inclusions, contamination, and the significance
1050 of geochronological data.

1051 The combination of imaging methods and U-Th-Pb age data, in providing compositional and
1052 structural variation information related to age, provides for much more powerful
1053 interpretations and better quality control of data. When consulted during data interpretation,
1054 imaging can help distinguish between isotopic results that are biased by lead loss and
1055 inheritance (or antecrystic zircon growth). However, although CL imaging is most prevalent,
1056 distinct boundaries between CL zones do not necessarily correlate with detectable age
1057 differences within a grain, locations of disturbance, or thermochemical boundaries.
1058 Conversely, zircon crystallization hiatuses have been documented by U-Th dating in young
1059 magmatic systems where CL images show no obvious discontinuities (Storm et al., 2011).

1060 *Insert here Fig. 9*

1061 While CL often gives a qualitative idea about the degree of complexity of the growth
1062 structures, other imaging techniques can reveal more reliable insights into the crystal
1063 structure (e.g., EBSD) and zonation (e.g., CCI). Moreover, repeated recharge of a magmatic
1064 system with increased temperature may lead to periods of dissolution (resorption) followed
1065 by growth again when saturation conditions are achieved. This leads to very complex internal
1066 textures of magmatic zircon formed over timespans that may not be resolved by high-
1067 precision ID-TIMS dating and whose detection may require ultrahigh-spatial resolution
1068 techniques such as depth profiling (e.g., Fig. 7).

1069

1070 *4.2 In-situ and ultra-high spatial resolution analysis*

1071 High-spatial resolution techniques can directly target crystals in polished petrographic
1072 sections (*in situ* analysis *sensu stricto*). In-situ dating offers several advantages: (1)
1073 preservation of textures and context (e.g., linking metamorphic textures and parageneses to
1074 accessory mineral growth; Foster et al., 2004; Möller et al., 2003; Catlos et al., 2002); (2)
1075 accessibility of micro-crystals, inclusions, or epitaxial overgrowths which are otherwise
1076 difficult or impossible to separate (e.g., micro-baddeleyite; Schmitt et al., 2010; micro-zircon;
1077 Ault et al., 2012; diagenetic zircon overgrowths; Rasmussen, 2005); (3) avoiding

1078 contamination (Hellebrand et al., 2007) and (4) the possibility to target armoured crystals
1079 which may be protected from later fluid events that mobilized Pb in radiation damaged
1080 crystals (e.g., Ault et al., 2012; Fig. 10). To facilitate targeting and minimize sample changes,
1081 pieces from the sections are cut or drilled out, and mounted together with pre-polished
1082 reference grains for SIMS, or for laser ablation multiple thin sections are simply loaded into
1083 the larger sample chamber. If micro-crystals are analyzed, laser or ion beam overlap onto
1084 adjacent minerals with high common-Pb potentially reduces radiogenic yields, but this can be
1085 mitigated through a more constrained sampling beam, i.e., use of a smaller laser spot size or,
1086 in the case of CAMECA ims instruments, narrowing secondary beam apertures (“field” and
1087 “contrast” apertures; Figs. 4 and 10) to preferentially select ions from the interior of the crater
1088 and ions with a near-perpendicular take-off angle, respectively.

1089 Of course one disadvantage to *in situ* analysis of materials in thin section is that they cannot
1090 be treated using chemical abrasion to reduce Pb-loss. The potential for Pb-loss to affect the
1091 data has therefore to be taken into consideration during the interpretation of *in situ* data.
1092 However, the added benefit of textural context may outweigh the potential for complications
1093 from Pb-loss in the case of zircon data and for some accessory mineral data (e.g. monazites),
1094 data interpretation is virtually useless without petrographic context and Pb-loss problems in
1095 monazites are considered to be minimal.

1096 *Insert here Fig. 10*

1097 Depth profiling of zircon by SIMS (e.g., Fig. 11; Vorhies et al., 2013) or single-shot LA-ICP-
1098 MS (Cottle et al., 2009) is a viable technique revealing age variations on the 100 nm scale.
1099 Addition of tiny zircon layers during metamorphism was investigated by Vorhies et al.
1100 (2013) on detrital zircons from the Barrovian Complex (Scotland; see Fig. 11) where SIMS
1101 depth profiles of grain faces revealed thin (often <1 μm) zircon rims with low Th/U in
1102 greenschist to K-feldspar-sillimanite grade rocks. Only zircon from the highest grade rocks
1103 produced rims and marginal domains >10 μm in thickness that could be detected by
1104 conventional spot analysis on sectioned crystals. However, as discussed in Cottle et al.
1105 (2009), surface analysis of zircons using depth profiling methods to reveal ages of the crystal
1106 rim are prone to Pb loss and common-Pb effects. For young material (<100 Ma), the Pb-loss
1107 trajectory is tangential to the concordia curve and indistinguishable from concordance at the
1108 uncertainties of microprobe data. These data therefore need considered interpretation to take
1109 such factors into account.

1110 *Insert here Fig. 11*

1111

1112 *4.3. Combining data sets from different techniques and analytical approaches - Harnessing*
1113 *the full potential of high spatial resolution and high-precision methods*

1114 Ultimately, one of the factors limiting the accuracy of U-Pb data interpretation, is the quality
1115 and nature of the data themselves. Our ability to discriminate between two similarly aged
1116 materials or data points within data sets, is greatly increased by combining these data with
1117 other information. The complexity of accessory minerals at sub-grain to population level
1118 precludes any automation in date interpretation, but requires careful evaluation of additional
1119 and independent, chemical and physical information from the analysed material, to arrive at
1120 an accurate interpretation. Structural and chemical image analysis, or trace element and
1121 isotope chemical composition, add additional information upon which to base an assessment
1122 of single population status or exclude data points from the calculation of an average. The
1123 best, most robust dates will have proven their single population status through independent
1124 information (e.g., co-registered trace element or isotopic analyses) rather than ‘blindly’
1125 assuming it based only on the MSWD statistic of the U-Pb data. In addition, high-precision
1126 and/or high-spatial resolution geochronology can now ‘map out’ changing processes such as
1127 magmatic differentiation and the crystallization history of a complexly zoned zircon and
1128 allow interpretation of the rate of chemical and geological evolution.

1129 Trace element information can help to characterize the crystallization history of zircon in
1130 different evolving melt batches over periods of 10's to 100's ka (Claiborne et al., 2010;
1131 Schoene et al., 2012). We may use specific trace element characteristics, such as depletions
1132 in Th/U or increases in Yb/Gd, produced by fractionation through co-precipitating accessory
1133 phases (e.g., monazite or titanite), which are characteristic of equilibrium with the last melt.
1134 When zircon crystallizes in a magma containing a certain percentage of crystals (a crystal
1135 mush), the trace elements of the U-Pb dated zircon can be used to model the chemical
1136 evolution of melts over time, employing published zircon - melt partition coefficients
1137 (Rubatto and Hermann, 2007; Blundy and Wood, 2003). The melt signal, in turn, can
1138 subsequently be used to infer the fractionation path of the co-precipitating paragenesis during
1139 solidification, and infer the proportion of crystallized material in the magma at any time.
1140 Petrological models for melt evolution and emplacement sequence can therefore be tested
1141 quantitatively. Timescales of crystallisation and fractionation have been established for the
1142 evolution of the Fish Canyon Tuff magma by using this approach, demonstrating that the
1143 assemblage containing 0.4 vol-% titanite formed over ~ 250 ka, starting at ~28.6 Ma when

1144 zircon saturation was reached in a magma with 40% crystals, reaching a near-solidus state at
1145 28.4 Ma with 76% crystals, followed by thermal rejuvenation and remelting over 170 ka, and
1146 ultimately eruption at 28.2 Ma when the magma contained ~45% crystals (Wotzlaw et al.,
1147 2013; Fig. 12). The curved trend in Fig. 12 is therefore not equivalent to a liquid line of
1148 descent, but consists of thermal prograde and retrograde paths acquired during the history of
1149 the Fish Canyon Tuff magma system. Zircon thus reflects repeated re-dissolution and re-
1150 precipitation during thermal cycling of a periodically recharged magmatic system, with most
1151 of the grains recording an age of 28.4 Ma, i.e., 200 ka before eruption. The isotopic and
1152 elemental budget of a whole zircon grain is dominated by the outer growth zones because of
1153 volume considerations; the whole grain isotopic and trace element information can therefore
1154 be considered to closely approximate equilibrium with the last melt batches. Recharge can
1155 also produce a late generation of zircon which can have the opposite characteristics to earlier
1156 zircon crystallized from more evolved melts (e.g., Rivera et al., 2013).

1157 *Insert here Fig. 12*

1158 Geochronological studies should evolve to increasingly include the collection of trace
1159 element and isotope (Hf and O) data in addition to U-(Th-)Pb. This can be achieved in a
1160 number of ways. ID-TIMS analysis of whole zircons or fragments historically discarded the
1161 material separated during ion chromatographic purification which contains many
1162 petrologically useful minor and trace elements. These solutions are now commonly retained
1163 for Hf isotope (Davis et al., 2005) and trace element (Schoene et al., 2012) analysis, the latter
1164 reference coining the term 'TIMS-TEA'. This approach benefits from the fact that all data are
1165 representative of the same dissolved volume and goes some way to off-setting the problems
1166 of 'bulk' sampling for TIMS analysis when considering spatial variation within the sample
1167 material. Alternatively, high spatial resolution methods can be used to provide all of this
1168 information (albeit at lower precision) with the added benefit of spatially controlled
1169 sampling. Laser ablation-ICP-MS and SIMS techniques are complimentary in this approach
1170 and should therefore be used depending on the number of information sets required, the
1171 available volume of material and/or the volume within which analyses need to be
1172 constrained. To this end, O and Hf isotopes provide important crustal generation indicators
1173 and are determined by SIMS and LA-ICP-MS respectively. Either method can also determine
1174 the U-Pb and trace element data, so spatial resolution considerations should determine which
1175 technique is used. In order to maximize the amount of information obtained from a zircon
1176 whilst consuming the minimum amount of material, O isotope, U-Pb and trace element data

1177 should preferentially be gathered by SIMS with Hf isotopes afterwards by LA-ICP-MS. With
1178 a moderate sacrifice in volume, the U-Pb and trace element data can also be determined by
1179 LA-ICP-MS. Increasingly, a ‘split-stream’ approach (Spencer et al., 2013, Kylander-Clark et
1180 al., 2013, Cottle et al., 2012) is being preferred for LA-ICP-MS analyses where the sample
1181 stream from one laser is split between two mass spectrometers to determine the Hf isotopes
1182 (or Nd isotopes in monazite, Goudie et al., 2014) and U-Pb or trace elements on exactly the
1183 same ablated volume. Used carefully this can help to reduce the total volume utilized whilst
1184 obtaining the maximum amount of information from a limited amount of sample material.
1185 However, the comparison of time-resolved data between the two mass spectrometers can be
1186 complicated by slight differences in instrumental set-up (e.g. tube lengths, connections,
1187 differential volumes and integration times) sometimes making the interpretation of data
1188 within an analysis difficult. In addition, if the total volume ablated for the split stream
1189 approach is greater than that required for the acquisition of one of the information sets alone,
1190 the benefit of the approach is lessened.

1191 For isotopically uniform or structurally simple crystals, the ultimate approach is to determine
1192 the required elemental and isotopic data set by high-spatial resolution methods whilst
1193 subsequently analyzing the smallest possible portion of the crystal to obtain a high-precision
1194 U-Pb age (Rivera et al., 2014), preferably then comparing the Hf and trace elements from the
1195 wash with those data determined by high-spatial resolution (Broderick, 2013). By combining
1196 data sets from different techniques and analytical approaches, well-constrained, accurate
1197 geochronological interpretations can be made and geological interpretations greatly improved
1198 and substantiated.

1199 Although zircon provides the most precise U-Pb data (see section 3.6) its extremely sluggish
1200 diffusion precludes the extraction of meaningful cooling rates and insights into lower
1201 temperature processes, unless (U-Th)/He data are acquired for these purposes. However, the
1202 combination of zircon with chronometers of lower retentivity (e.g., apatite, rutile, or titanite)
1203 to define P-T-t paths and fluid histories (e.g., Parrish et al., 2006; Rubatto, 2002) is a
1204 powerful tool to more completely understand tectonic and hydrothermal histories.

1205

1206 *5. Summary and forward look*

1207 We have undoubtedly entered a new era for U-Th-Pb geochronology. Unprecedented levels
1208 of precision, spatial resolution, flexibility of approach and range of application are now

1209 possible at increasingly higher analytical efficiency, and access to this capability for
1210 geoscientists is ever increasing. It might be asked “What is the best method or approach for
1211 U-Th-Pb dating?” Increasingly, the answer is "the one with appropriate precision and spatial
1212 resolution to answer your scientific questions appropriately, that can be demonstrated to work
1213 by validation and can be best tied most directly to other information sets". Most likely this
1214 will mean using capabilities not available in your laboratory! Whichever single or combined
1215 approach is selected, TIMS, SIMS or LA-ICP-MS, it is important to comprehend the
1216 limitations of the techniques, not to over-interpret the data and to quantify the uncertainties
1217 correctly. The relevant questions must be asked at the beginning of a project and the
1218 analytical techniques and approaches chosen with consideration. For timescale research,
1219 highest precision and accuracy is required; this can only be provided by CA-ID-TIMS using
1220 EARTHTIME calibrated isotopic tracers and careful statistical data treatment (Schoene et al.,
1221 2006, 2013; Bowring et al., 2005; Bowring et al., 2011; McLean et al., 2011b). CA-ID-TIMS
1222 is also required to resolve comparatively ancient (>0.5 Ma) magmatic emplacement pulses
1223 (Schoene et al., 2012; Broderick, 2013) but for late Pleistocene to recent systems (<0.3 Ma)
1224 only U-Th SIMS (e.g., Claiborne et al., 2011; Schmitt, 2011), and more recently LA-ICP-MS
1225 (Bernal et al., 2014) analysis can provide the necessary temporal and spatial resolution. For
1226 the lowest volume analysis of the most precious materials (e.g. lunar accessory minerals;
1227 Grange et al., 2013; Rasmussen et al., 2011) and minerals with fine scale growth domains,
1228 SIMS is the method of choice, as well as for highest-resolution isotopic mapping and depth
1229 profiling. For the efficient accumulation of large data sets at a \pm 1-2% level of uncertainty
1230 and deeper depth profiling, LA-ICP-MS U-Pb dating is superior, and has to a great extent
1231 become the method of choice for detrital provenance and reconnaissance studies. There is
1232 still a large gap in the study of complex, ancient zircons (as, e.g., in Phanerozoic
1233 metamorphic complexes), where we need high spatial resolution for dating, analysis of other
1234 isotope systems and trace elements, but also would need high precision to decipher the
1235 sequence of metamorphic reactions.

1236 In this new era we should discourage acceptance and publication of studies employing
1237 analytical techniques with uncertainties greater than the duration of processes required to be
1238 resolved. Averaging large numbers of low-precision analyses has repeatedly been
1239 demonstrated to produce rather precise but inaccurate average age information. Equally, in
1240 some circumstances, the true duration of events might not be determined (due to bulk

1241 averaging), until lower precision, higher spatial resolution methods have been employed. The
1242 right tool for the job in hand must therefore be employed.

1243 The geochronology community has taken great strides and expended much effort to
1244 understand its data quality better and how it should best be represented, as for instance in the
1245 frame of the EARTHTIME and LA-ICP-MS U-Th-Pb Network efforts. It is no longer
1246 acceptable to submit manuscripts that do not characterize the different uncertainty levels,
1247 differentiate random and systematic uncertainties, report acquisition and data handling
1248 parameters appropriately or do not give any proof of accuracy and laboratory reproducibility
1249 by presenting results for internationally validated reference materials. Reviewers should insist
1250 on these information sets and editors should refuse to accept manuscripts for review or
1251 publication without them. The reason for this is simple: interpretations and models - often
1252 considered to be the most important part of a manuscript - may be subject to change of
1253 paradigms, whilst high-quality data remain. Any geochronologic study can only persist, if
1254 data are established using state of the art technology, are supported by the most
1255 comprehensive sample characterization possible, and are well documented.

1256

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1679

1680

1681 **Figures:**

1682 Fig. 1: Concordia diagram of two c. 7.24-7.26 Ma old zircons showing the effect of different
 1683 corrections during the CA-ID-TIMS procedure on the precision and the accuracy of the
 1684 result; the grey band describes the uncertainty of the position of the concordia curve
 1685 due to the decay constant uncertainties. a) effect of common-Pb correction: blue
 1686 ellipses: zircon with $\text{Pb}_{\text{rad}}/\text{Pb}_{\text{com}} = 21.0$; red ellipses: zircon with $\text{Pb}_{\text{rad}}/\text{Pb}_{\text{com}} = 6.7$.
 1687 Three ellipses are shown with different Pb_{com} isotope compositions from left to right
 1688 $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 18.70, 18.45, 18.20$, respectively, and $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{204}\text{Pb} = 15.75, 15.60, 15.45$,
 1689 respectively; the Pb_{com} isotope composition does not significantly influence the
 1690 $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$, but does affect the $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{235}\text{U}$.

1691 (b) same two zircons as above, before (below the concordia) and after (concordant)
 1692 correction for initial ^{230}Th disequilibrium (Schärer 1984) using $D_{\text{Th/U}} = 0.16$ to calculate
 1693 $\text{Th}/\text{U}_{\text{source}}$. The corrected uncertainty ellipses contain 50% uncertainty of the $\text{Th}/\text{U}_{\text{source}}$,
 1694 propagated onto the final date after McLean et al. (2011). Example from Wotzlaw et al.
 1695 (2014; zircons MDC7_z6 and z10).

1696 Fig. 2: Compilation of all R33 reference zircon data (Black et al 2004) from the University of
 1697 Geneva isotope laboratory, measured between 2004 and 2014 with different tracer

1698 solutions and different mass spectrometers equipped with different secondary electron
1699 multipliers (SEM's). The period 2004-2006 contains data measured on MAT262 at
1700 ETH Zürich (ETP-SEM) and TRITON at UNIGE (MasCom1-SEM), with a ^{205}Pb - ^{235}U
1701 tracer; data measured during the period 2007-2011 used an Earthtime (ET) ^{205}Pb - ^{233}U -
1702 ^{235}U tracer, measured on a Triton with a MasCom-2 SEM; the data from 2012-2014
1703 were measured with an ET ^{202}Pb - ^{205}Pb - ^{233}U - ^{235}U tracer on a Triton with a MasCom3-
1704 SEM.

1705 Fig. 3: Standard SIMS sample holder geometry for the CAMECA ims1270/1280 showing
1706 $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ ages determined on fragments of reference zircon z6266 mounted on mount
1707 IP222 (Stern and Amelin, 2003). The random distribution indicates the absence of bias
1708 relative to the position within the sample mount (XY-effect) when targets are located
1709 within the 15 mm “bullseye” of the mount; XY effects close to the window edge are
1710 particularly problematic for high-precision stable isotope analyses, and are mitigated by
1711 large sample holder designs (Peres et al., 2012). (B) Histogram and relative probability
1712 for $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ ages in (A) indicating the reproducibility for a linear Pb/U RSF vs.
1713 UO^+/U^+ calibration based on analysis of reference zircon z6266 using the University of
1714 California Los Angeles (UCLA) CAMECA ims1270. Average sputter rate for this
1715 experiment is indicated in $\mu\text{m}^3/\text{s/nA O}^-$.

1716 Fig. 4: Schematic of the UCLA CAMECA ims1270 large magnet radius ion microprobe (A)
1717 with types of quantitative SIMS analysis used in geochronology: spot mode (B; CL
1718 image with typical spot dimensions overlain), depth profiling (C; surface map of
1719 unsectioned zircon with SIMS crater on prism face), scanning ion imaging SII (D;
1720 $^{49}\text{Ti}^+/\text{SiO}^+$ secondary ion maps overlain onto a Hadean zircon surface image showing
1721 high-Ti domains in red associated with fractures), and direct ion imaging DII using the
1722 ims1270 channel plate (E; $^{90}\text{Zr}^+$ secondary ion distribution of a zircon with a quartz
1723 inclusion in the center of the image; image generated from an accumulated channel
1724 plate signal; white square indicates outline of the field aperture).

1725 Fig. 5: Apparent $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ date vs. U abundance for zircons from Tasmanian dolerites
1726 analysed by SHRIMP RG (A; White and Ireland, 2012) and CAMECA ims1270 at
1727 UCLA (B) relative to the Temora reference zircon. The legend shows the range of the
1728 calibration parameter UO^+/U^+ relative to Temora. Gray dashed hockey-stick line
1729 schematically represents unbiased low-U analyses in agreement with other radiometric

1730 age determinations for Tasmanian dolerite of ~175 Ma and the apparent age increase at
1731 U >2500 ppm (after Fig. 1 in White and Ireland, 2012).

1732 Fig. 6: Probability density distribution (PDD) curves of U-Th zircon crystallization ages for
1733 four sequential rhyolite eruptions from Tarawera volcano (Taupo volcanic zone, New
1734 Zealand). Model ages are based on two point isochrons using zircon and melt (from
1735 whole-rock analysis) compositions. Numbers of individual crystal face, interior (after
1736 grinding to ~15 μm depth), and core (in equatorial section at ~50 μm depth) dates are
1737 indicated for each curve. Eruption ages (horizontal bars with volcano symbol) are based
1738 on ^{14}C ages. Interior ages linked to rim ages of the preceding eruption indicate high
1739 probabilities ($P = 0.10 - 0.54$) of similarity suggesting consecutive overgrowth.
1740 Horizontal arrows indicate the time lapse Δt between major peaks in rim and interior
1741 age distributions, translating into integrated growth rates of $\sim 10^{-13}$ to 10^{-15} cm/s. Note
1742 that not only the population, but also individual zircon crystals can record episodic
1743 crystallization over time-spans $>10^5$ a. Data from Storm et al. (2011) and Klemetti et al.
1744 (2011).

1745 Fig. 7: Age and compositional zonation revealed by depth-profiling of Kaharoa zircon (grain
1746 KaT2z3 in Storm et al., 2011; 2014). Parallel depth profiles were acquired on
1747 unpolished crystal faces (A); the side opposite to the analyzed crystal face was
1748 sectioned to ~15 μm depth and imaged by CL (B). U-Th age and U concentration depth
1749 profiles (C); Ti concentrations with model Ti-in-zircon temperatures using $a\text{TiO}_2 = 0.5$
1750 and $a\text{SiO}_2 = 1$ (D); and Zr/Hf as indicator for temperature-dependent zircon
1751 fractionation (E). The excursion to high-T (and more primitive melt compositions
1752 indicated by low U and high Zr/Hf) after ca. 45 ka is interpreted as local rejuvenation
1753 of the crystal storage reservoir following the Rotoiti caldera-forming eruption which
1754 was followed by the eruption of comparatively hot and primitive intra-caldera
1755 rhyodacites (see Storm et al., 2014, for references).

1756 Fig. 8: Examples of age-ranked $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ dates showing different degrees of age dispersion
1757 (data from Broderick, 2014). a) sample with statistically significant age cluster (MSWD
1758 = 1.6, within the range of acceptable values for $N=10$; Wendt and Carl 1991) and 2
1759 xeno- or antecrystic zircons with ~250 ka older age ; b) sample showing a larger age
1760 dispersion over 184 ± 83 ka; the probability density distribution (PDD) curve indicates
1761 two major phases of zircon crystallization at ~42.6 and ~42.5 Ma; c) set of 9 $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$

1762 dates indicating an age scatter over 205 ± 86 ka, showing an additional peak of zircon
1763 crystallization at ~ 42.45 Ma.

1764 Fig. 9: (a) EBSD (left) and U-Pb data (right) from a ductile zircon crystal from a lower
1765 crustal mafic mylonite xenolith, illustrating the role of structural state on U-Pb
1766 concordance. The central axis of the crystal has experienced complete resetting of the
1767 U-Pb chronometer after deformation resulting in up to 35° rotation of the crystal lattice.
1768 Crystal is ca. $100\mu\text{m}$ across (Figures from Moser et al., 2009, reproduced with
1769 permission from Elsevier Science). (b) CCI (left) and BSE (right) images of a dolostone
1770 from the Bunter Formation, North Sea. The CCI image shows dolomite cores with
1771 evidence of partial dissolution surrounded by new concentric growth material. This
1772 illustrates the ability of CCI to resolve complexity in crystal structures aiding targeting
1773 for high spatial resolution in-situ analysis. Scale bar in both images is $100\mu\text{m}$. Images
1774 courtesy of Jeremy Rushton, BGS, for the Bunter Properties Project.

1775 Fig. 10: In-situ analysis of micro-zircons from a Northern Madison Range (Montana)
1776 metamorphic mafic dike. (A) Micro-zircon crystals in backscatter-image showing
1777 crystals completely enclosed in quartz (z272), intersected by an annealed fracture in
1778 quartz (z271), and interstitial at grain boundaries between quartz and garnet (z274).
1779 Inset illustrates primary beam spot size ($\sim 20\mu\text{m}$) and dimensions of field aperture (~ 10
1780 μm) limiting secondary ion acceptance. (B) Concordia diagram of SIMS analyses
1781 highlighting spots in (A). Discordance is high for crystals located at grain boundaries,
1782 whereas those hosted in intact quartz are concordant. These results suggest that
1783 radiation damage alone is insufficient to explain discordant vs. concordant behaviour of
1784 zircon, and indicates that shielding can mitigate Pb-loss (Ault et al., 2012).

1785 Fig. 11: SIMS depth profile for zircon from the sillimanite-K-feldspar zone sample 286B
1786 (Glen Muick, Barrovian, Scotland). (A) $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ dates and percent concordance
1787 between $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{235}\text{U}$ and $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ dates and (B) Th/U. (C) backscatter electron image
1788 of depth-profiled zircon (with SIMS analysis spots in center of crystal showing up as
1789 bright areas due to charging where the conductive Au coat has been removed). The
1790 analyzed metamorphic overgrowth is only $\sim 1.5\mu\text{m}$ thick and is preceded by a spike in
1791 Th/U interpreted to be due to Th mobilization during partial melting. Crystal interior is
1792 an inherited core, likely of metamorphic origin (Vorhies et al., 2013)

1793 Fig. 12: (a) Model using middle and heavy rare earth element variations in ID-TIMS dated
1794 zircon as a result of titanite fractionation, used to calculate percentage of crystal in the
1795 crystallizing Fish Canyon Tuff magma over 420 ka; (b) modelled compositional trends
1796 for a titanite-free fractionation assemblage (grey points) and for an assemblage
1797 containing 0.4% titanite. The model documents near-solidification with 78% crystals at
1798 28.4 Ma and subsequent rejuvenation of the magma to 40% crystals at 28.2 Ma
1799 (modified from Wotzlaw et al., 2013).

1800

1801 **Tables**

1802 Tab. 1: Charted strengths and weaknesses of the three methods of U-Pb dating. Sources: [1]
1803 Schmitt et al. (2010), [2] Frei and Gerdes (2009), [3] Cottle et al. (2009)

1804 Tab. 2: Natural zircon reference materials characterized by ID-TIMS; source of data: [1]
1805 Kennedy et al. (2014); [2] Sláma et al. (2008); [3] Black et al. (2003); [4] Black et al.
1806 (2004); [5] Jackson et al. (2004); [6] Schaltegger et al., unpubl., in: Boekhout et al.
1807 (2012); [7] Wiedenbeck et al. (1995); [8] Schoene et al., (2006); [9] Paces and Miller
1808 (1993). Uncertainties are indicated in X/Y format (following Schoene et al., 2006)
1809 where available. Data in [1], [2], [6] and [8] are corrected for initial ^{230}Th
1810 disequilibrium.

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1812

Figure 1

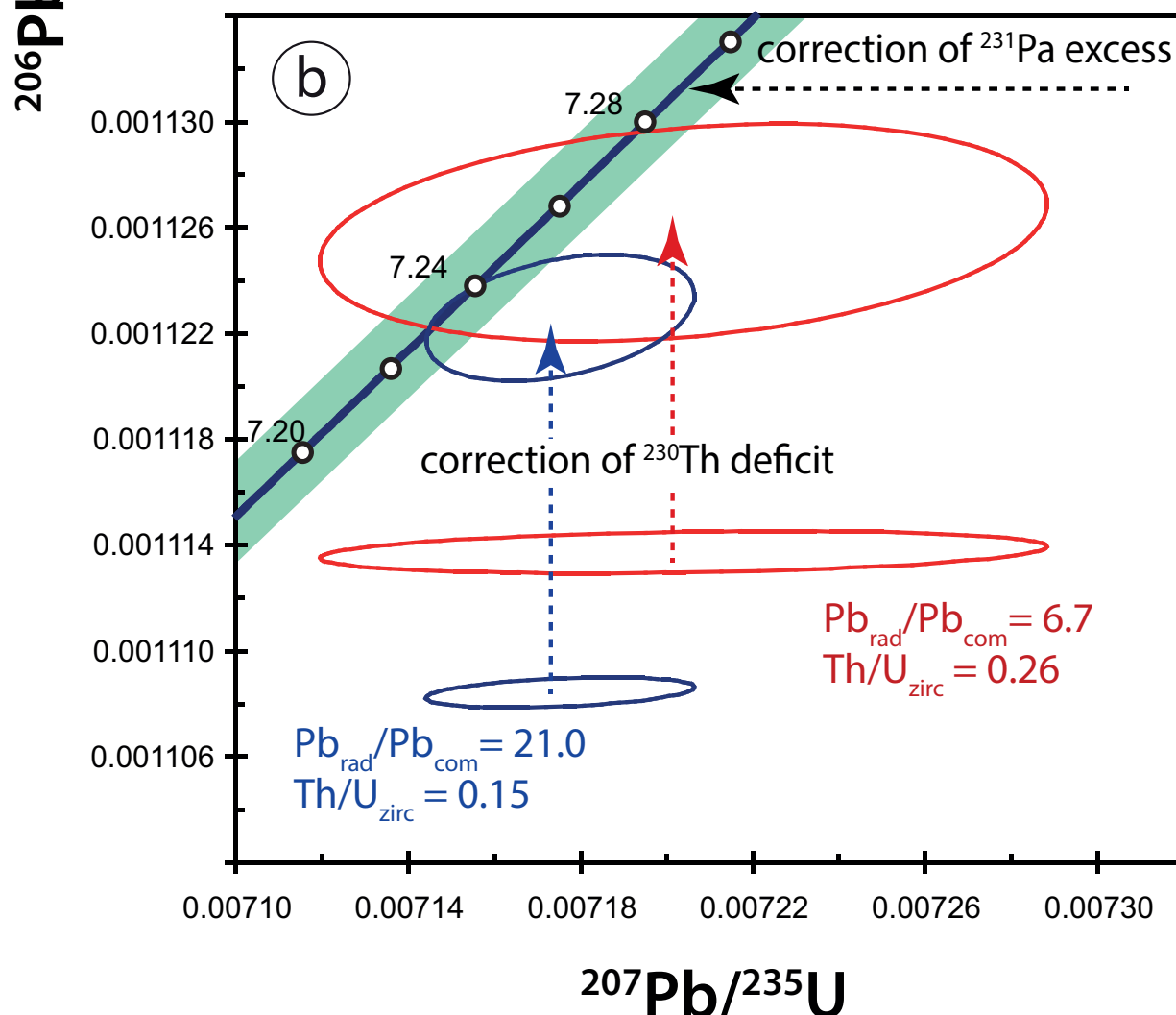
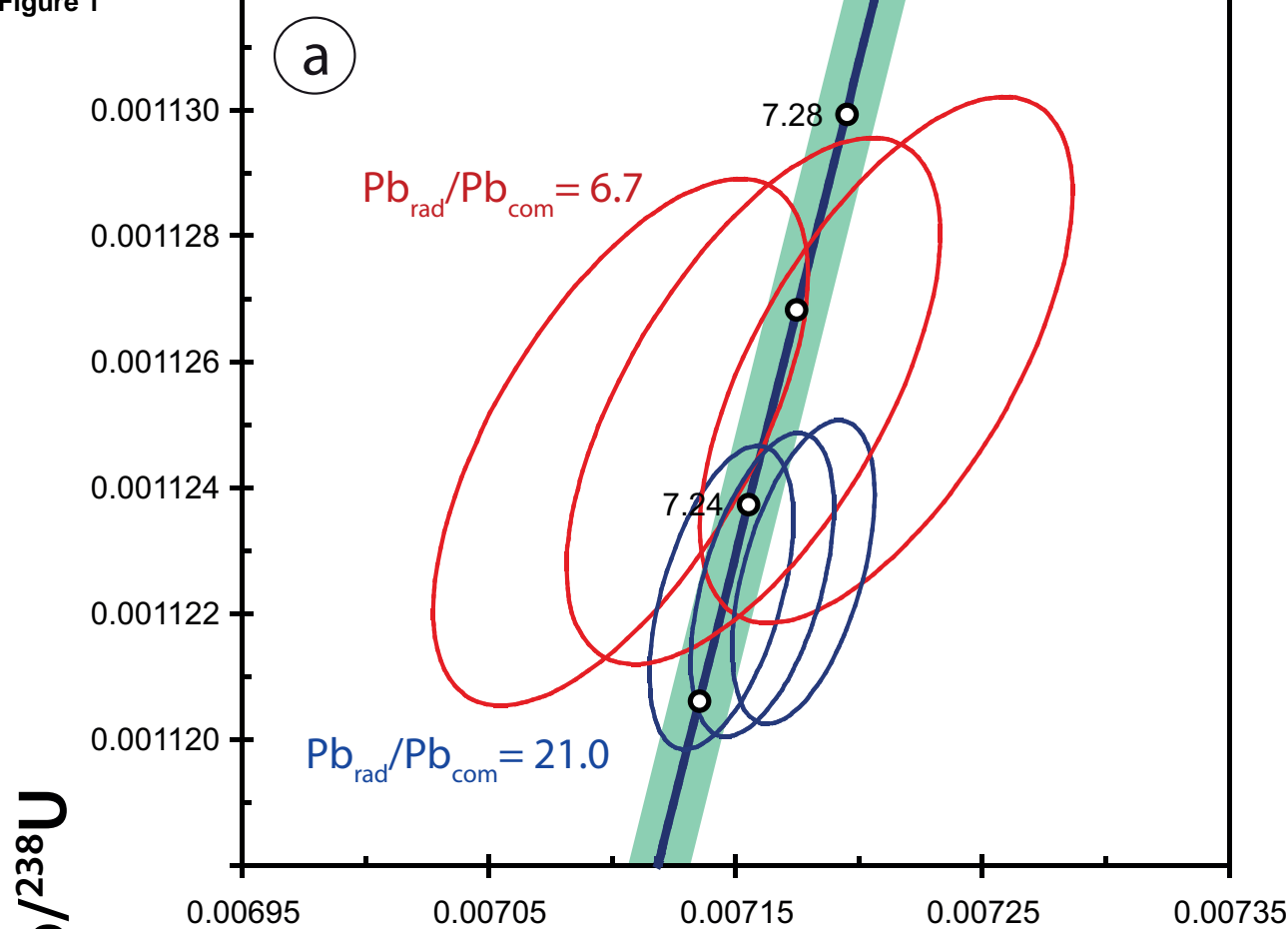


Figure 2

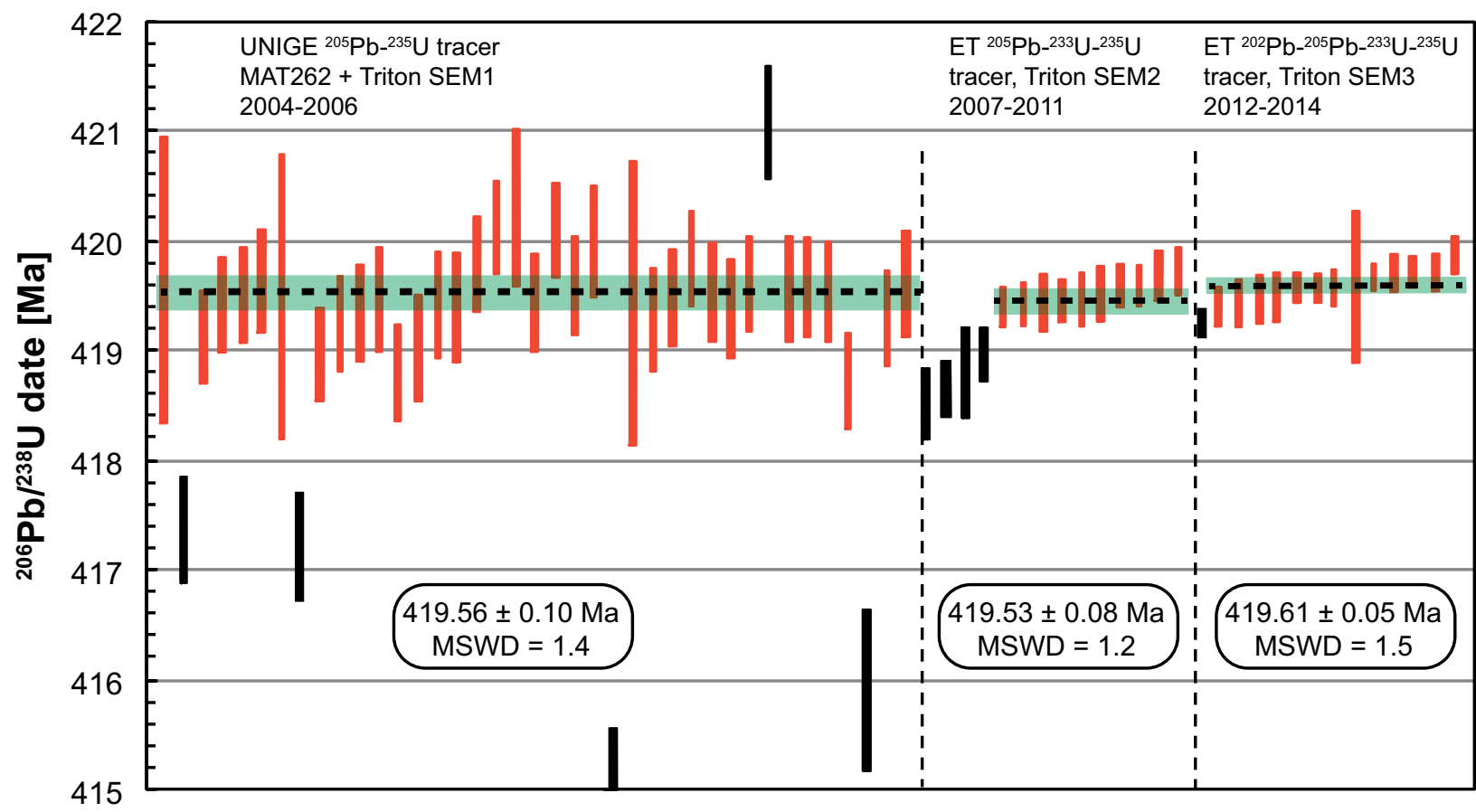


Figure 3

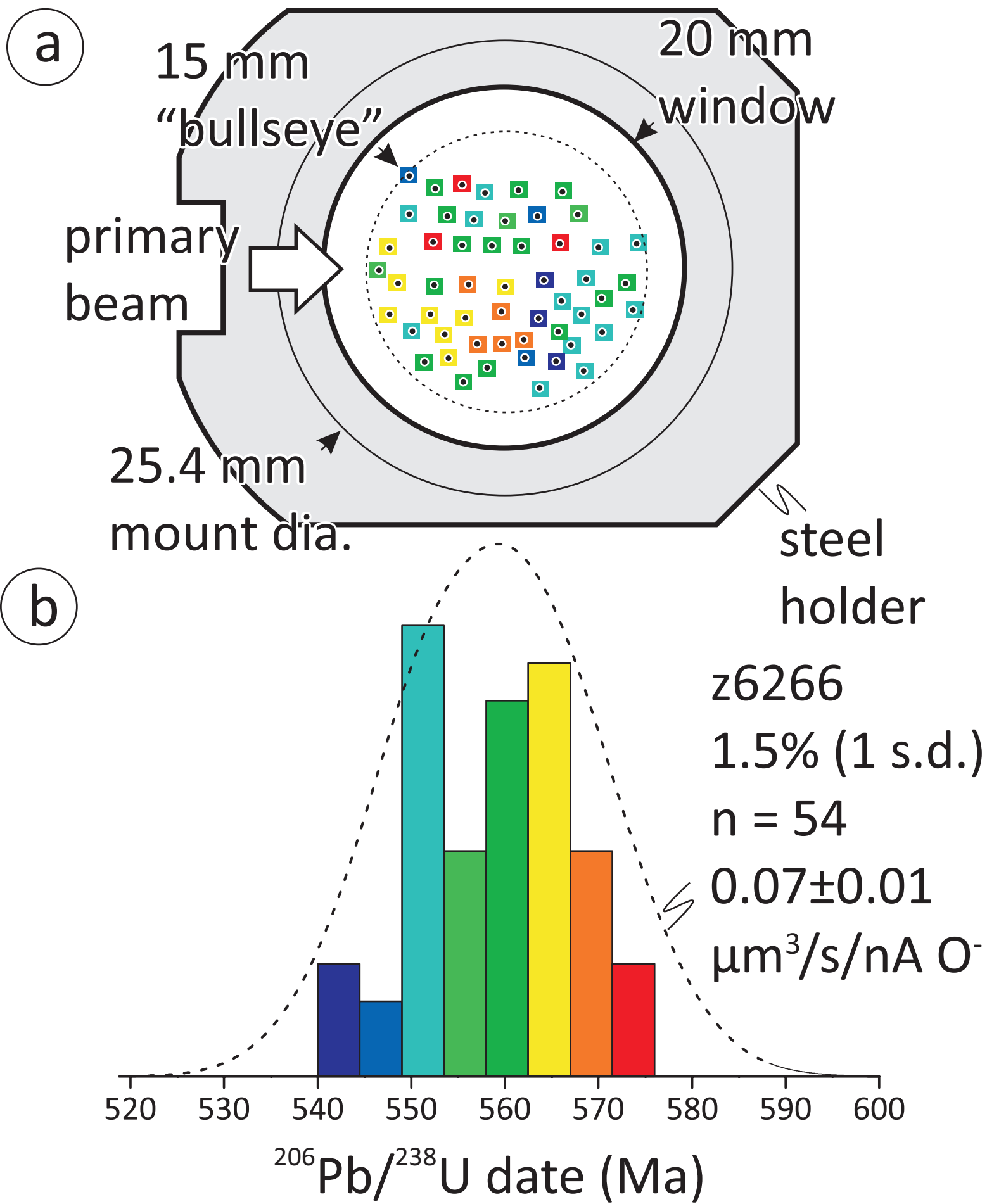
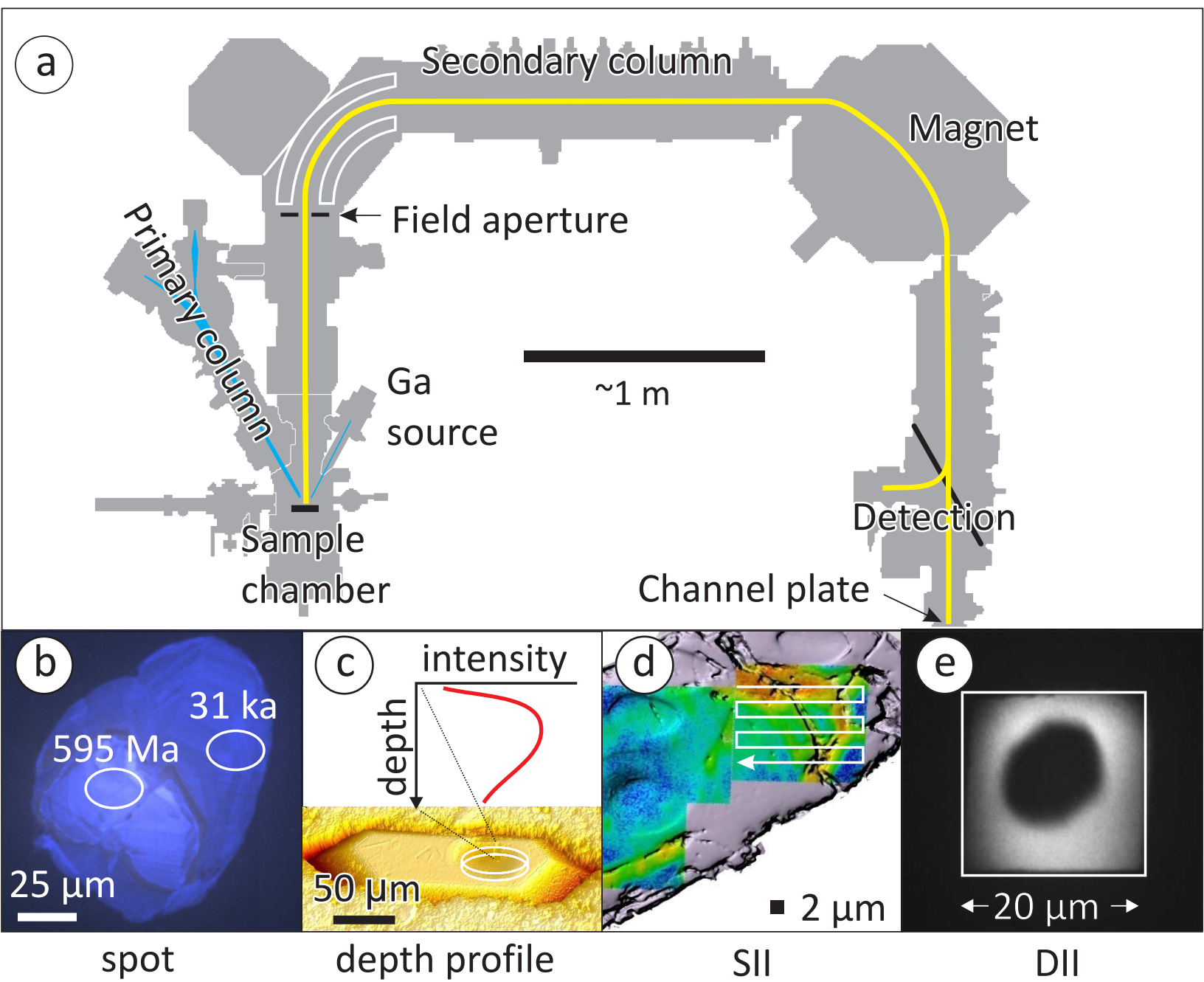


Figure 4



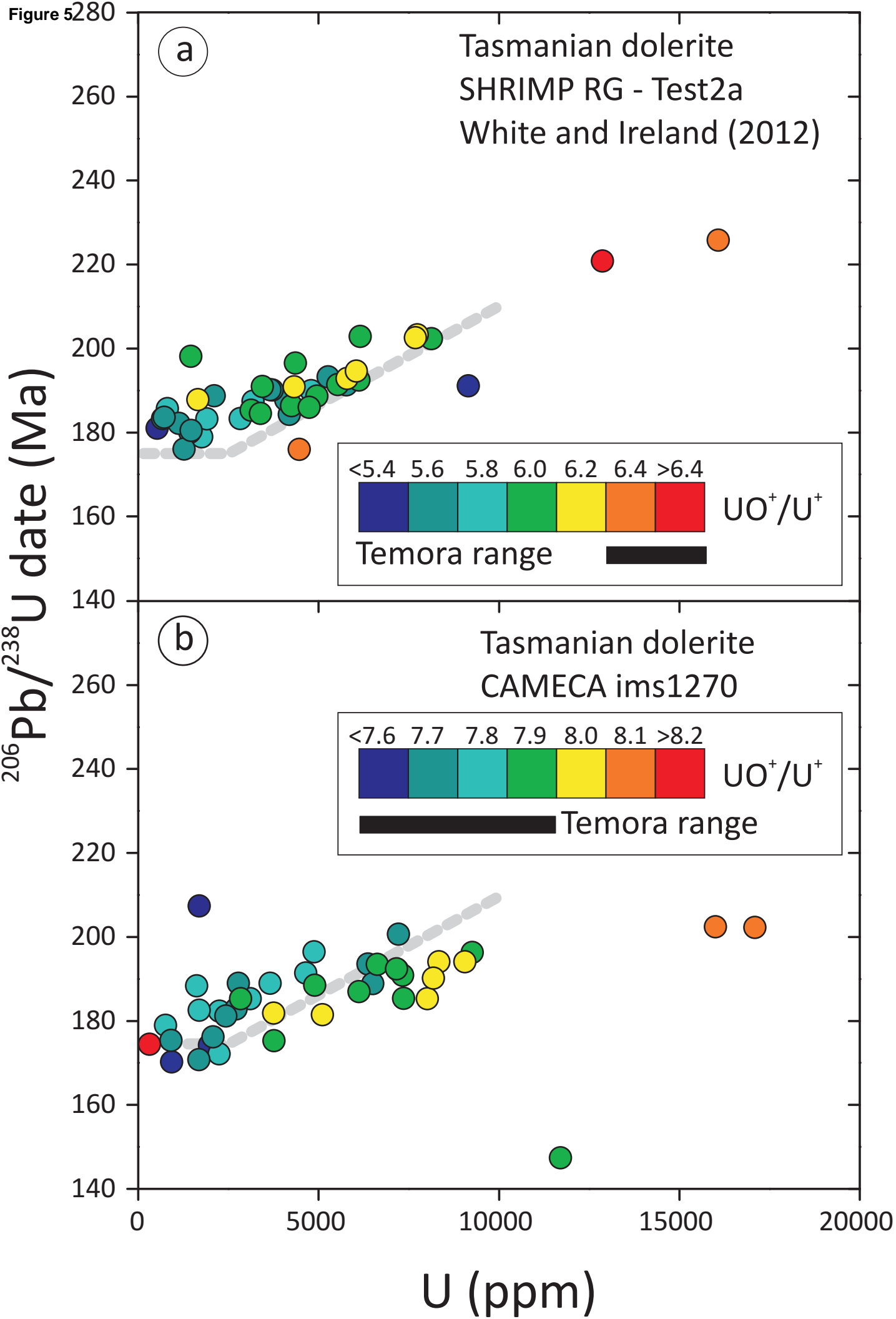


Figure 6

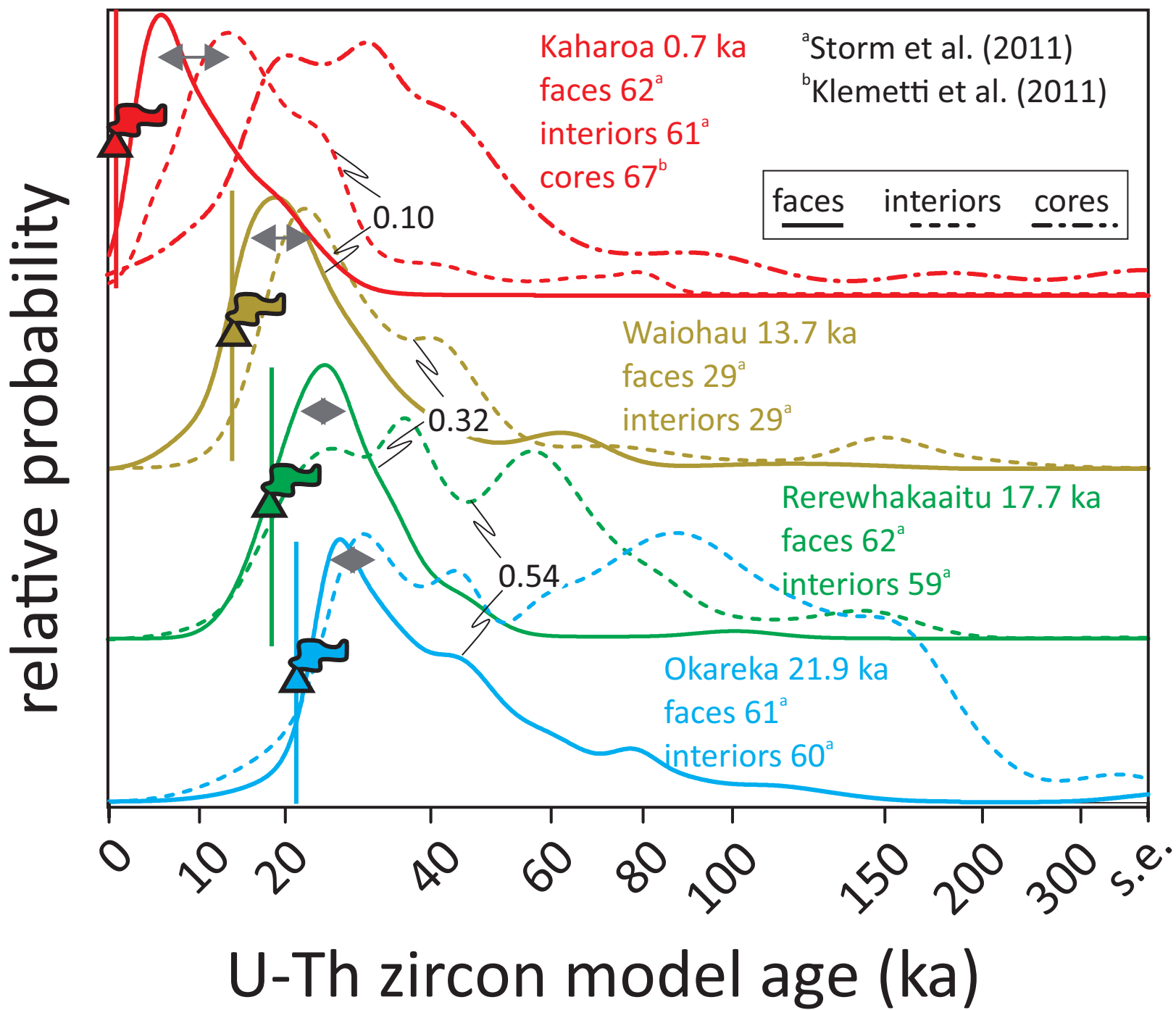


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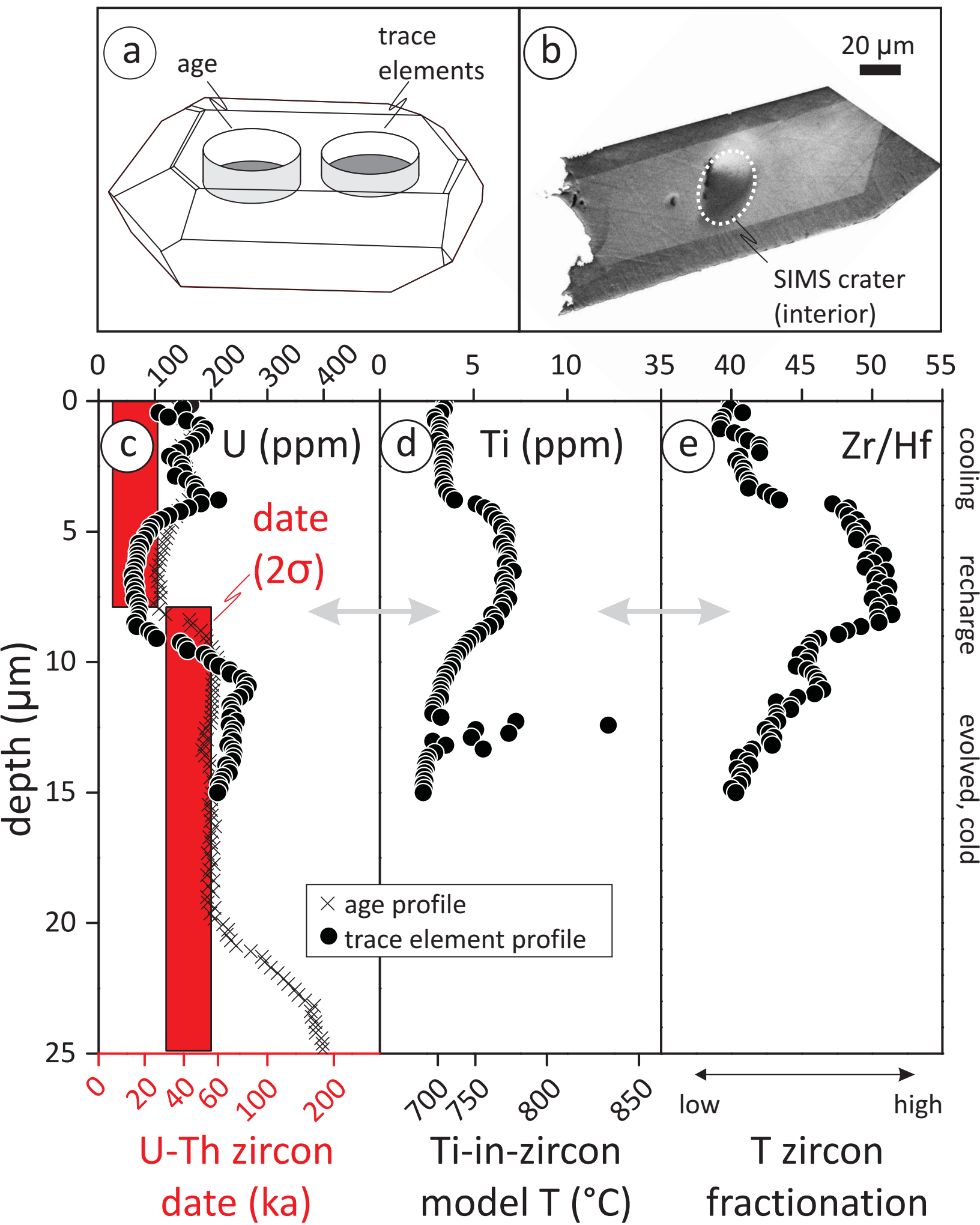


Figure 8

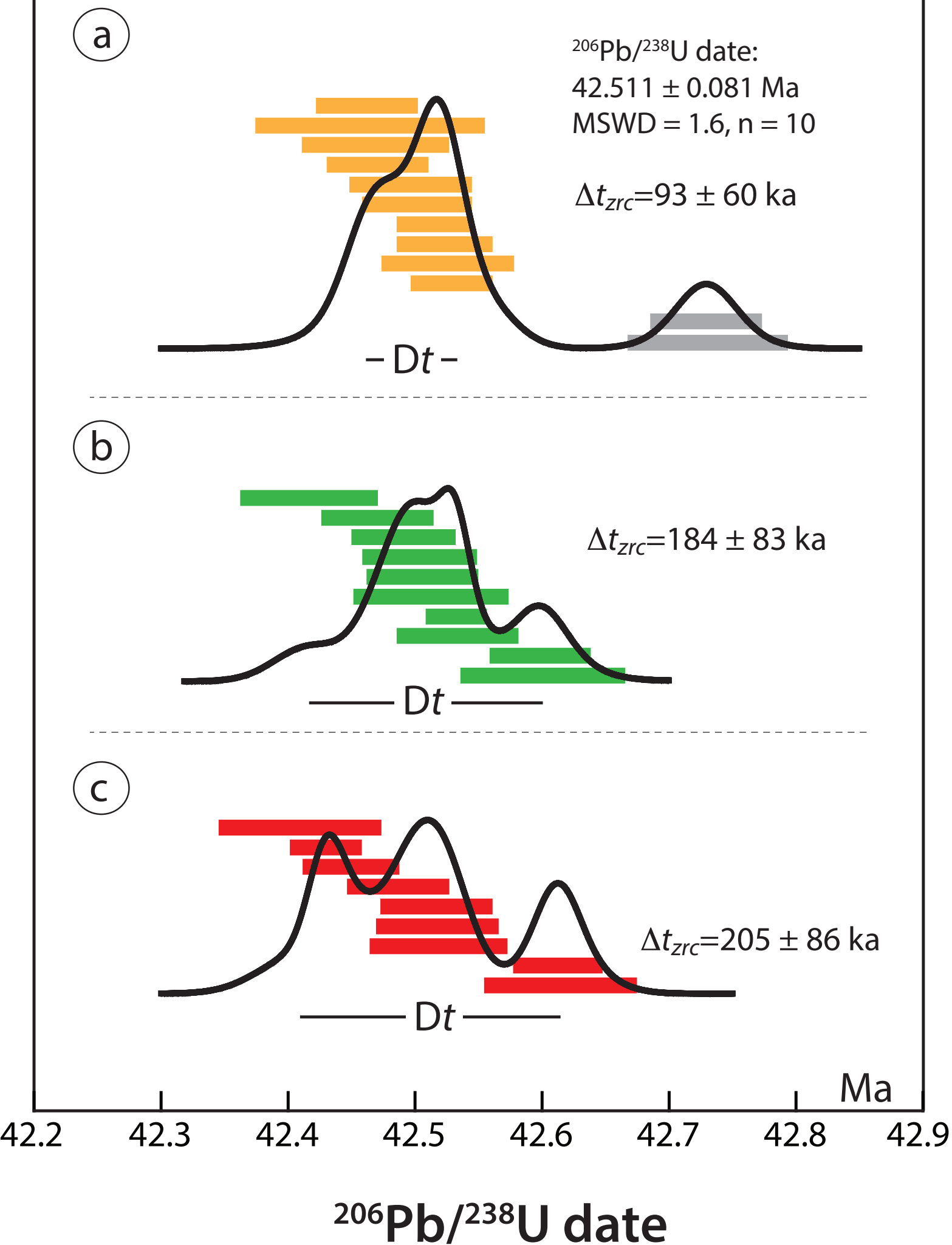


Figure 9

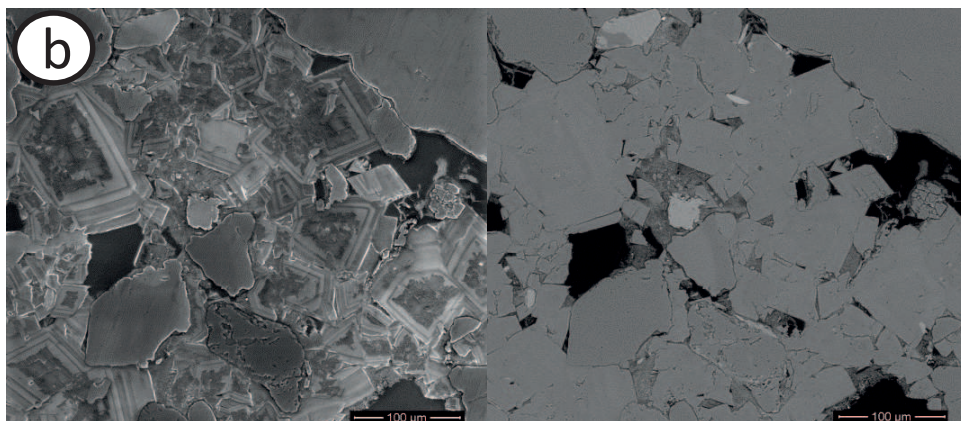
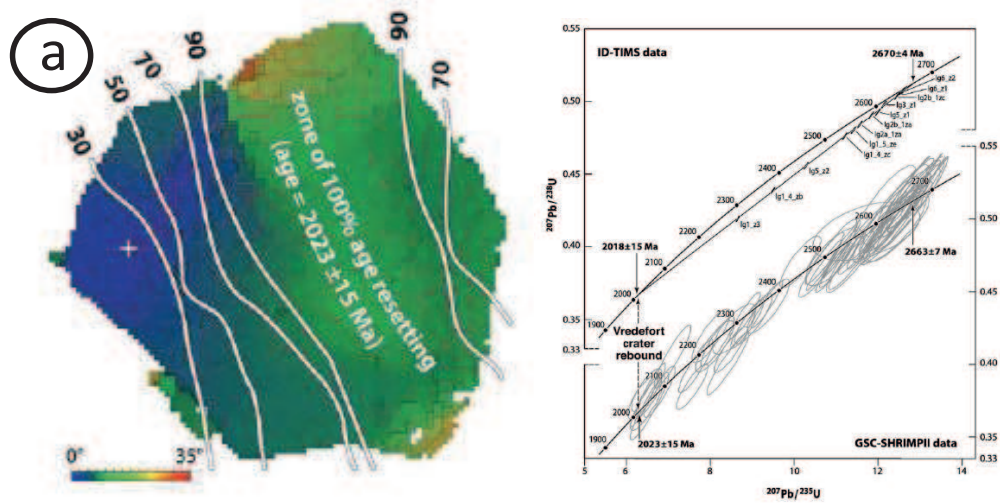


Figure 10

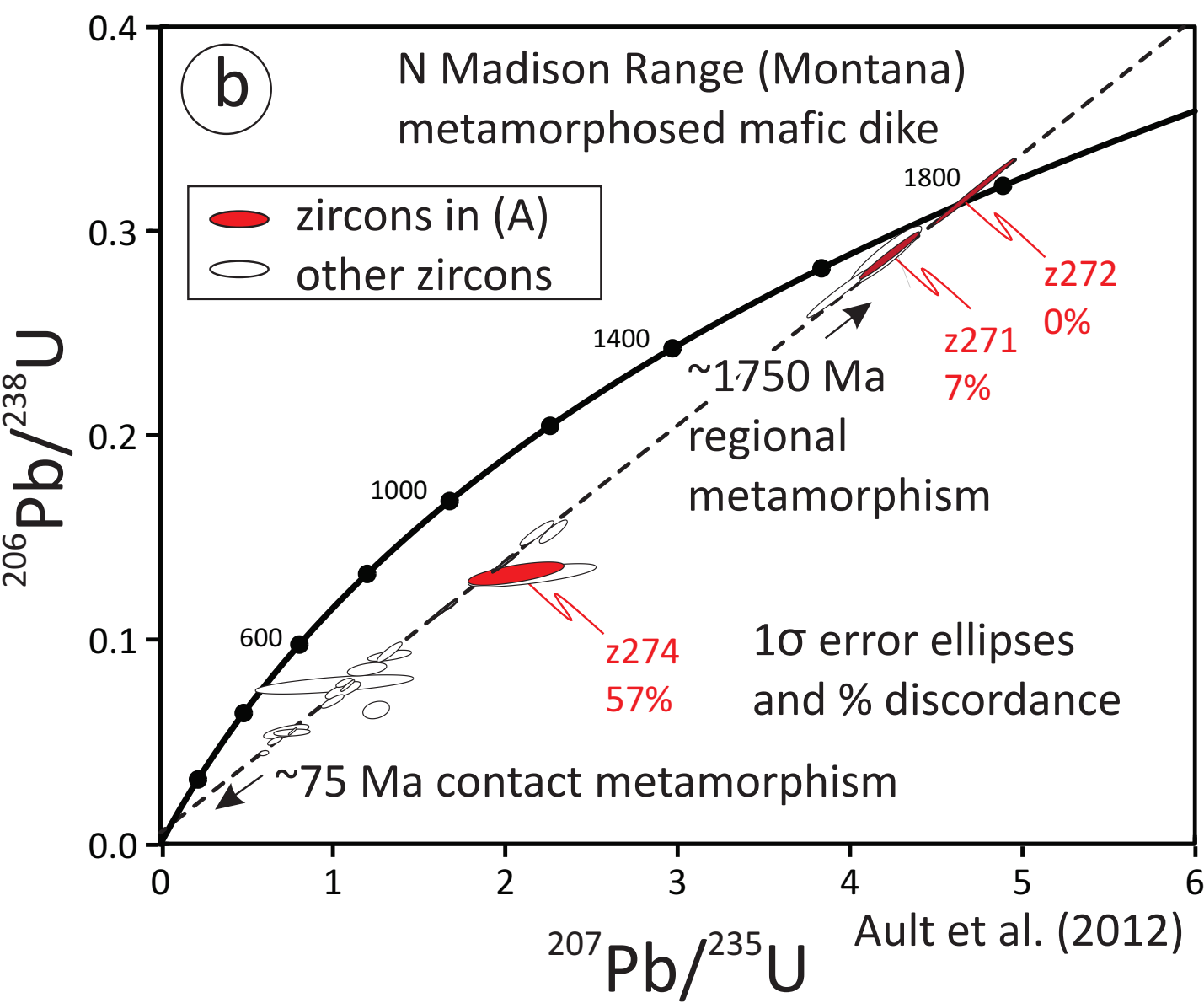
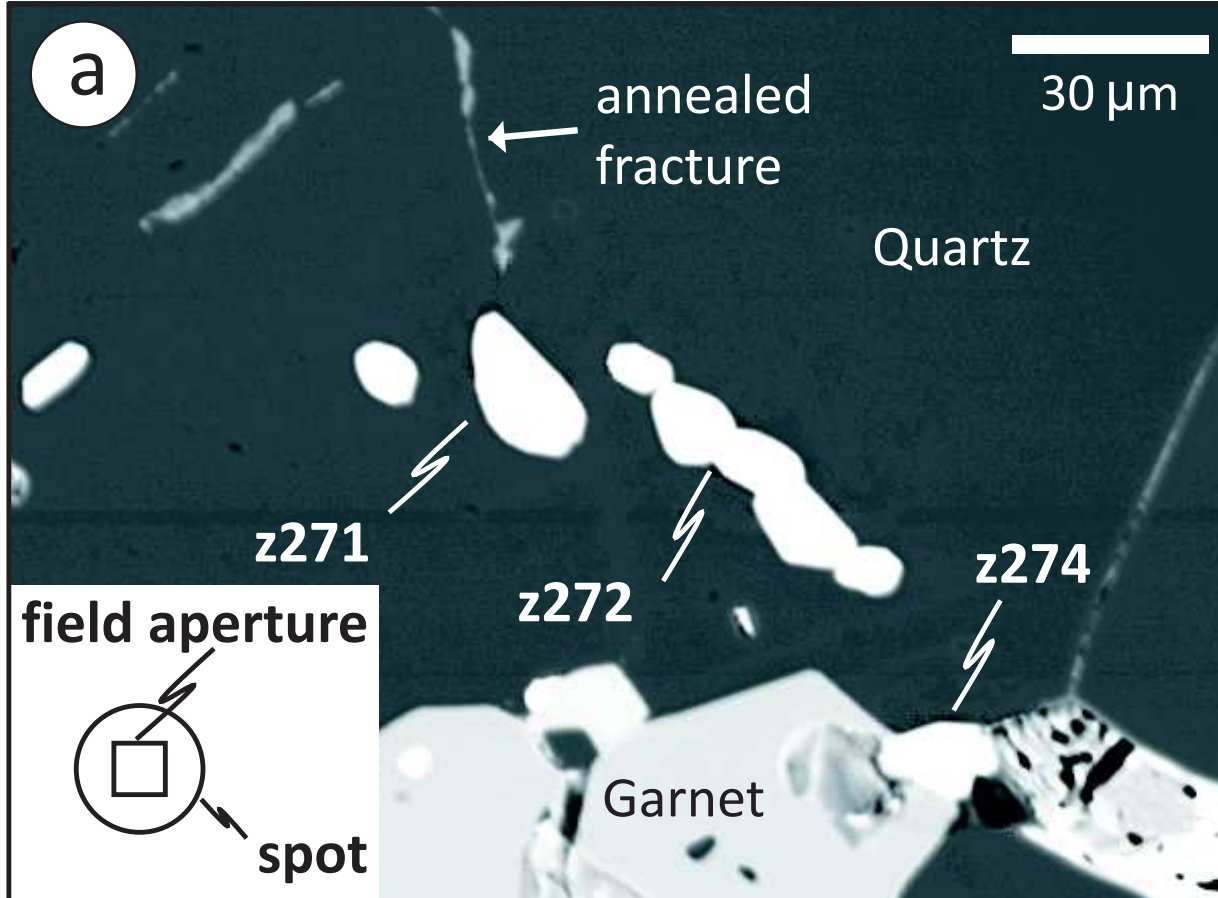


Figure 11

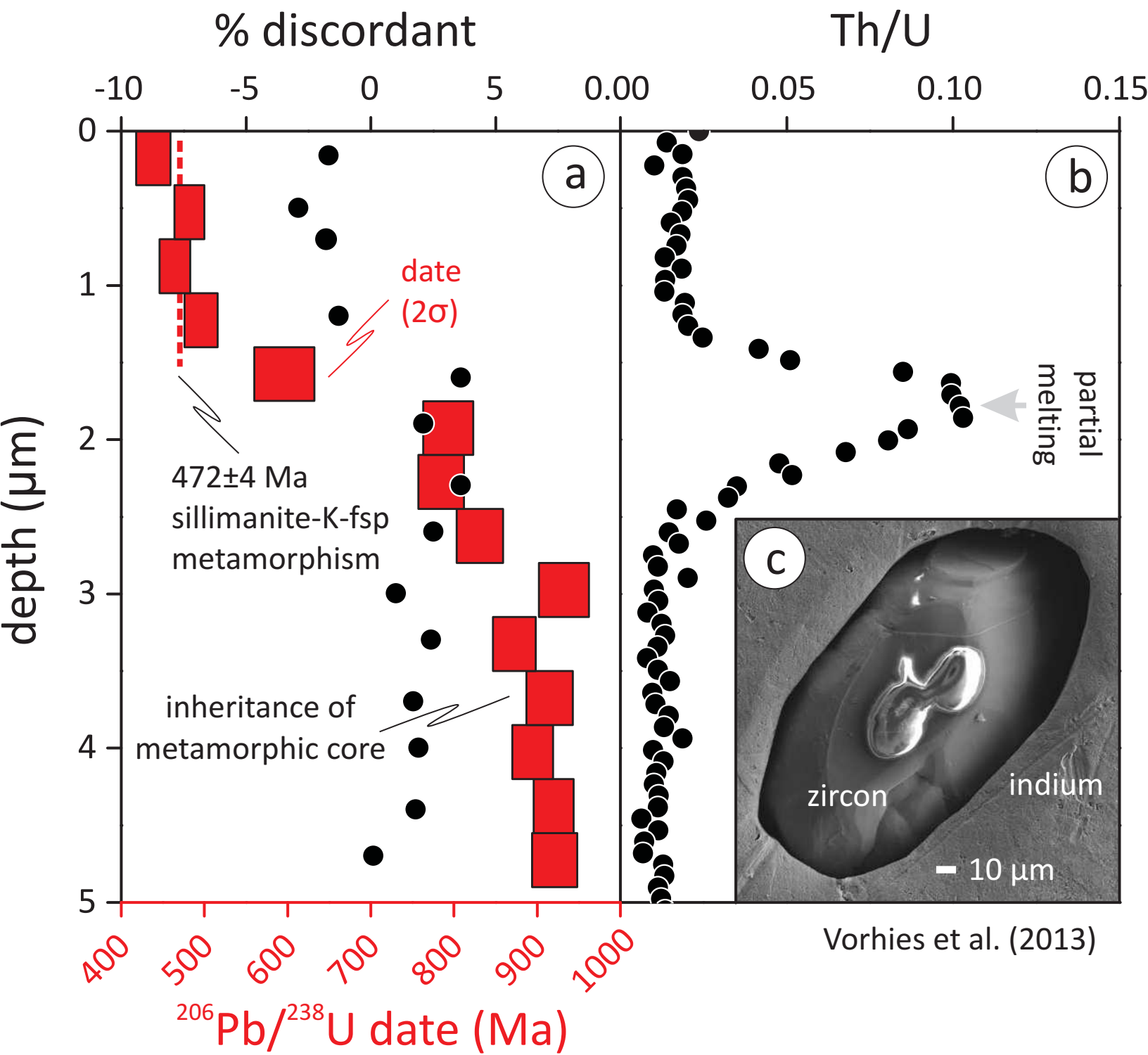
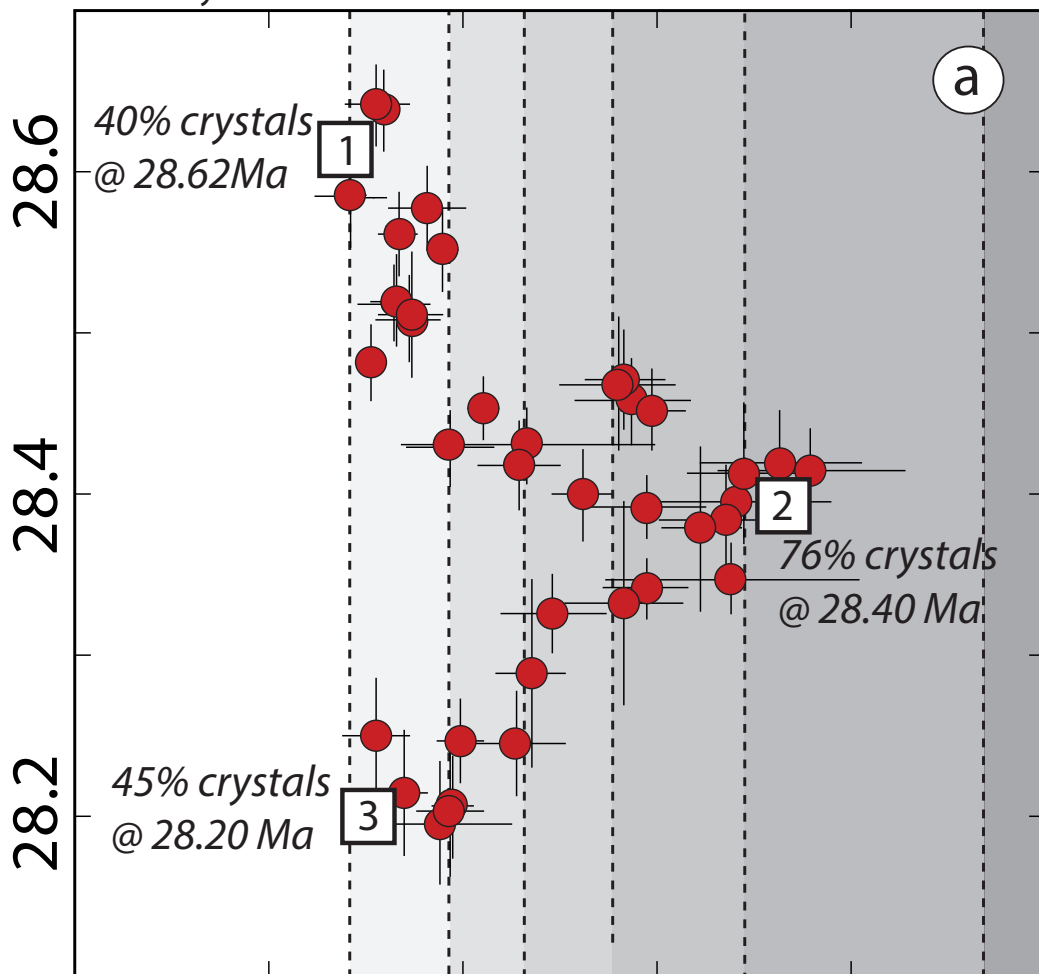
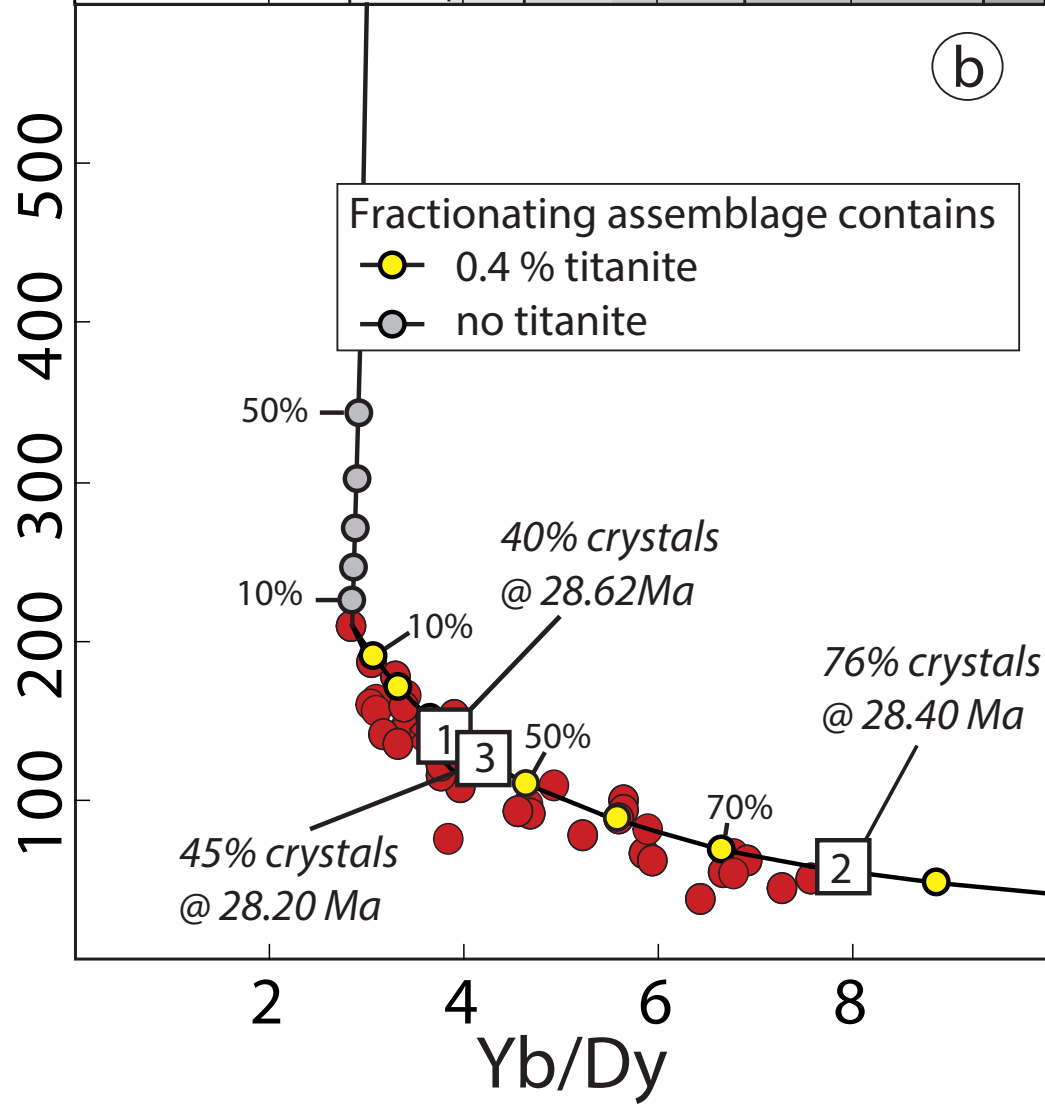


Figure 12

vol.% crystals 40 45 55 65 75 85

 $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ date

Dy (ppm)



Tab. 1

	ID-TIMS	SIMS	LA-ICP-MS
Absolute age resolution (2σ)	U-Pb high to very high: $\leq 0.1\%$ precision and accuracy	U-Th and U-Pb ca. 1-2 %; very high ($\sim 10^3$ - 10^4 years) for U-Th dating < 300 ka	U-Pb ca. 2% Th-Pb ca. 3%
Spatial resolution	Poor (mixing of age domains in single crystals hardly avoidable)	Excellent (sub- μm in depth profiling); quasi non-destructive	Good (20-30 μm laterally, single μm vertically, depending on analytical system)
Useful yield for U	$< 1\%$ (as UO_2^+)	0.7-1% (as UO^+)	Very variable (0.01-2.8%) depending on type of mass spec*)
Useful yield for Pb	High ($\sim 5\%$), depending on the source of Si-gel	High ($\sim 1\%$) [1]	Intermediate ($\sim 0.2\%$ -0.4%) to high (2%) depending on type of mass spec [2]*)
Time requirements for sample preparation and analysis	Slow (digestion and chemical separation)	Fast (CL imagery, volumetric excavation rate $\sim 0.1 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{sec/nA}$ primary beam) [1]	Very fast (CL imagery, volumetric excavation rate $\sim 0.125 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{pulse}$ at 2.4 J cm^{-3} fluence) [3]
Preferred geologic applicability	Volcanic and plutonic systems of any age	Young volcanic systems with volcanic and plutonic enclaves; Metamorphic systems; Microcrystal and in situ analysis	Detrital provenance studies, young volcanic and plutonic systems, metamorphic systems, in situ analysis

*) Useful yields in % (=ions detected/total number of atoms in sample volume for a species of interest) for U and Pb, respectively; for quadrupole-ICP-MS: 0.01%, 0.01%; for single collector, sector-field ICP-MS: 0.3%, 0.2%; for multicollector ICP-MS: 0.4-2.8%, 0.3-2%.

Tab. 2

Name	Certified age [Ma]	Type of age	Source
AUSZ2	$38.8963 \pm 0.0044/0.012$	$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$	[1]
Plešovice	$337.13 \pm 0.06/0.23$	$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$	[2]
Temora 1	416.75 ± 0.24	$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$	[3]
Temora 2	416.78 ± 0.33	$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$	[4]
R33	418.9 ± 0.4	$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$	[4]
	419.26 ± 0.39	$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$	[4]
GJ-1	608.53 ± 0.37	$^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$	[5]
GJ-1 nr. 67	600.5 ± 0.4	$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$	[6]
Harvard 91500	1065.4 ± 0.3	$^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$	[7]
	$1066.4 \pm 0.3/5.0$	$^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$	[8]
	$1063.6 \pm 0.2/0.3$	$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$	[8]
AS3	1099.1 ± 0.5	$^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$	[9]
	1099.0 ± 0.7	$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$	[9]
	$1098.6 \pm 0.3/5.0$	$^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$	[8]
	$1095.9 \pm 0.2/0.3$	$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$	[8]
FC1	1099.0 ± 0.6	$^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$	[9]
	1099.9 ± 1.1	$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$	[9]
QGNG	1851.5 ± 0.3	$^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$	[8]
	$1848.7 \pm 0.7/0.9$	$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$	[8]