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The long-wave infrared (8-12 μm) spectral features of selected rare earth element – bearing carbonate, phosphate and silicate minerals

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32 **Abstract**

33

34 Rare earth elements (REEs) are a group of metals essential to high technology
35 industries. This high demand, combined with a high supply risk, has led to an understanding
36 that REEs are critical to society. Despite the potential that hyperspectral imaging (HSI) data
37 offers for a fast and non-invasive characterization of the REEs, it is still poorly understood
38 whether REEs have some information in the long-wave infrared (LWIR; 8-12 μm)
39 wavelength range that can be used for their identification. To partially fill this gap, we have
40 investigated the spectroscopy of twelve REE-bearing mineral samples using relatively high
41 spatial and spectral resolution LWIR hyperspectral imaging data. These samples were
42 formerly characterized using electron probe microanalysis (EPMA), scanning electron
43 microscopy (SEM), and hyperspectral imaging data acquired in the 0.4-2.5 μm wavelength
44 range. Results from these analyses were compared to and used to guide the analysis of the
45 HSI data recorded in the LWIR range. This information was further compared to a reference
46 spectral library of rare earth oxides. Our findings suggest that the spectral features of the
47 samples can generally be traced to the asymmetric degenerate stretching and bending
48 modes of the X-O ($X = \text{C}, \text{Si}, \text{P}$) groups. Moreover and contrary to what has been observed
49 in the shorter wavelengths, there are no definitive spectral features in the LWIR wavelength
50 region that could be assigned to any specific REE.

51 **1. Introduction**

52

53 Rare earth elements (REEs) are a group of 17 chemically similar elements that cover
54 fifteen lanthanides (atomic numbers 57-71 in the periodic table), plus scandium and yttrium
55 (atomic numbers 21 and 39, respectively). In 2017, China held circa 81% of the global
56 production of REEs (U.S. Geological Survey, 2018), a geopolitical supply risk that has, in
57 combination with the extensive use of REEs for several high technology applications,
58 contributed to the European Commission (2017) and the U.S. Department of Energy (2011)
59 in classifying REEs as “critical”. In addition to their uneven global distribution, the availability
60 of the REEs is determined by their natural abundance variation that favors elements with
61 lower, rather than higher atomic numbers, and those with even, rather than odd, atomic
62 numbers, factors that may not always align with the actual demand of specific REEs. These
63 factors conspire to create an imbalance between supply and demand, a problem that can be
64 mitigated through complex technical solutions and political interventions (Binnemans and
65 Jones, 2015).

66 The recognition of the importance of REEs has led to a range of research exploring
67 the possibilities of applying hyperspectral technology to their detection. These investigations
68 have mainly focused on the visible to near-infrared (VNIR; 0.4-1.3 μm) and short-wave
69 infrared (SWIR; 1.3-3.0 μm) wavelength regions where the REEs display a series of well-
70 defined, sharp absorption features induced by electronic processes (VNIR wavelength
71 range) and REE-OH vibrational overtones (SWIR wavelength range; Dieke, 1968; Hunt et
72 al., 1972; Rowan et al., 1986 and references therein). More recent investigations in the
73 SWIR region (Turner et al., 2014; 2016; 2018) have provided a wealth of spectral
74 information relevant to the hyperspectral identification and detection of REE-bearing
75 minerals. Despite clear absorptions that cannot be confused with that of other VNIR-active
76 minerals, the presence of iron oxides, active in the same wavelength range, can hamper the
77 detection of the REEs even in small quantities (Boesche et al., 2015). Moreover, the spectral
78 features of different REEs overlap both in the VNIR and SWIR wavelength regions (e.g.
79 Turner et al., 2014, 2016, 2018), making it challenging to identify with certainty the presence
80 of a specific rare earth element in a mineral in many cases.

81 Fewer studies have applied hyperspectral technology to the detection of the REEs in
82 the long-wave infrared wavelength range (LWIR; 8-12 μm). In this wavelength range, the
83 spectral features of minerals are induced by a combination of Reststrahlen, Christiansen and
84 transparency features (Salisbury et al. 1987). The most prominent of these features, and the

85 focus of this study, are the Restrahlen features that result from the fundamental molecular
86 vibrations of minerals, and that are expressed as reflectance maxima in the mineral
87 spectrum. These maxima arise from the high absorption coefficients of minerals that results
88 in a mirror like effect and thus in high reflectance values (e.g., Salisbury et al. 1987).

89 One of the first investigations extending into the LWIR wavelength range was
90 conducted by Dieke (1968). The author documented the locations of the many $4f-4f$
91 electronic transitions (“Dieke diagram” from herein), including a suite of base energy levels
92 in the LWIR and in particular for Ce^{3+} that does not exhibit diagnostic absorptions in the
93 VNIR or SWIR. Another early work by Adler and Kerr (1963) reported spectral features of
94 several REE-bearing carbonate minerals, but did not specifically discuss the potential effect
95 of the REEs in mineral spectra. This also applies to a range of studies that applied
96 hyperspectral data to study REE-bearing minerals (e.g. Farmer, 1974; Ross 1974; White,
97 1974; Frost and Dickfos, 2007; Frost et al., 2013). A more recent study by Neave et al.
98 (2016) used LWIR hyperspectral data to the investigate a range of REE-bearing rocks,
99 predominantly carbonatitic. While the authors discussed the spectral features of several
100 minerals in the LWIR, references to the impacts of the REEs on the mineral spectra were
101 limited to a potential Sm feature near 10 μm in one of the samples. Spectral databases, such
102 as the RRUFF (Lafuente et al., 2015), the USGS spectral library (Kokaly et al., 2017) and a
103 publication by Chukanov (2014) comprise many examples of REE-bearing minerals, but
104 contain limited information as to the origins of the spectral features in minerals.

105 Prior investigations have provided a solid knowledge base relevant to the
106 hyperspectral identification and detection of REE-bearing minerals, information that can be
107 exploited for the exploration of REEs at a variety of spatial scales. Essentially absent
108 however is equivalent information in the LWIR, leaving open the possibility that unique or
109 complementary information applicable for the identification of REE-bearing minerals resides
110 in this range. The question is relevant given the increased availability of remote sensing
111 capabilities in the LWIR due to the emergence of new hyperspectral imaging (HSI)
112 instruments (Feng et al., 2018).

113 In this context, and with the goal of contributing to partially fill the knowledge gap of
114 the influence of the REEs in the LWIR wavelength range, we investigated a set of samples
115 that encompass seven REE-bearing minerals. Using these samples, we discuss the likely
116 provenance of spectral features, and the implications that these features have on the
117 identification of REEs by HSI spectroscopy. This technology not only allows for the
118 mineralogy of the samples to be identified, but also makes possible the determination of the
119 spatial distribution of their mineralogy.

120 **2. Materials and data acquisition**

122 **2.1 Sample suite**

123
124 Twelve REE-bearing mineral samples were chosen to represent the fluorocarbonates
125 (one bastnasite and one parisite sample), phosphates (one monazite and three xenotime
126 samples) and silicates (three eudialyte samples, one mosandrite sample and two zircon
127 samples). All the samples were obtained from private collections of A. Mariano and D.
128 Turner. The samples, their dimensions and localities are listed in Table 1.

129 Samples 1-6 are monomineralic as opposed to samples 7-9 that are either single
130 crystals or coarse polycrystalline aggregates of more than one mineral. Samples 10-12
131 comprise two or more minerals that either occur as irregular clusters of an average diameter
132 of 7.5 to 25 mm (samples 10-11) or as isolated crystals of up to 8 mm in diameter (sample
133 12). The dimensions of the samples and their mineral occurrences are given in Table 1.

134 **2.2 Electron probe microanalyzer data acquisition**

135

136 The Philips XL30 scanning electron microscope (SEM) at the University of British
137 Columbia was first used to investigate the potential chemical zoning of the samples and
138 ensure chemical homogeneity. Mineral chemistry was then determined using electron probe
139 microanalyzer (EPMA) facilities of the Saskatchewan Research Council's Advanced
140 Microanalysis Centre. The analyses were conducted using a Cameca SX-100 equipped with
141 5 tunable, wavelength dispersive spectrometers, using a 40° takeoff angle, beam energy of
142 15 keV, beam current of 20 nA and beam diameter of 5 µm. The results from these analyses
143 show that the samples are unzoned and the sample suite shows variable quantities of the
144 lanthanides (see Table 2 for details).

145 **2.3 Hyperspectral data acquisition and preprocessing**

146
147 To investigate the spectral features of the samples in the LWIR wavelength range,
148 hyperspectral laboratory data were acquired using the AisaOWL spectrometer (Harris et al.,
149 2017) mounted on a SisuROCK imaging system by Specim (Spectral Imaging Ltd., Oulu,
150 Finland). These LWIR data were acquired in the 7.279-20.797 µm wavelength range with a
151 47 nm sampling interval, 100 nm spectral resolution (bandwidth) and 0.7 mm spatial
152 resolution.

153 The preprocessing of the hyperspectral image took place in two steps. First, the data
154 were spectrally cropped to the 7.797-12.366 µm spectral range (98 bands) to remove bands
155 with a low signal-to-noise ratio and poor instrument responsivity. Second, the raw data
156 acquired were converted to reflectance using the aluminum standard and a blackbody cavity
157 of the imaging frame.

158 **3 Spectral analysis**

159
160 A representative spectrum was acquired from the imagery of each sample by
161 selecting 3 to 4 pixels to represent spectra with the highest available signal-to-noise-ratios
162 and purest representation of the mineral in question. This selection was conducted based on
163 visual observations and expert knowledge on mineral spectroscopy. In the case of the rock
164 samples 10-12, previous knowledge on the spatial distribution of different minerals was used
165 in the selection process. Furthermore, the spectral shapes of mosandrite and zircon,
166 extracted from the rock samples 10-12, were compared against those published by
167 Chukanov (2014). The selected pixels (see Table 1 for an exact number per sample),
168 assessed to be an optimal set to represent the spectral features of the samples, were
169 subsequently averaged to form a representative spectrum for each mineral.

170 After extracting an average spectrum of each sample, the spectra were investigated
171 for features that were subsequently recorded in Table 3 and labeled as *f1-f8*. If it was
172 assessed that a spectral feature was induced by a specific fundamental vibrational process,
173 the same label was used throughout the sample set.

174 Finally, a visual comparison was conducted between the sample spectra and those
175 of pure rare earth oxides, published by Sheibley and Fowler (1966). In this analysis, the REE
176 composition of the samples, acquired through the EPMA analysis, (see section 2.2 for
177 details), was used to compare the features of the samples against those of the REEs known
178 to be present in the sample.
179

180 **4 Results**

181 **4.1 Carbonate minerals**

182
183 The spectral range between 8 and 9 µm has little coherent data in the case of the
184 carbonate mineral samples, and was therefore omitted from further data analysis. The

185 bastnaesite sample presented a subtle spectral feature near 9.2 μm , absent or uncertain in
186 the parisite sample 2 (label *f1*, Fig. 1).

187 All the carbonate mineral samples have a pronounced spectral feature between 11
188 and 12 μm that is at slightly shorter wavelengths in parisite than in bastnasite (label *f2*, Fig.
189 1).

190 **4.2 Phosphate minerals**

191
192 The phosphate minerals monazite (sample 3) and xenotime (samples 4-6) have a
193 pronounced spectral feature that is located between 9 and 10 μm . The spectral feature,
194 labeled *f3* and *f4* in Figs. 2a-c, comprises two reflectance maxima. In samples 5 and 6 this
195 feature marks the general reflectance maximum, but in samples 3 and 4 the reflectance
196 again rises toward 12 μm after lower reflectance values near 10.5 μm .

197 Xenotime samples 4-6 also display a spectral feature near 8.6 μm (label *f5*, Figs. 2b-
198 c).

199 **4.3 Silicate minerals**

200
201 The silicate minerals investigated include eudialyte in samples 7 to 9, mosandrite in
202 sample 10 and zircon in samples 11 and 12.

203 The eudialyte sample 7 has a spectral feature labeled *f6* near 8.739 μm (Fig. 3). This
204 feature is not present or detectable in the other eudialyte samples (Fig. 3) or in the
205 mosandrite sample (Fig. 4a). We also tentatively assign this label (*f6*) to the spectral feature
206 near 8.833 μm in the zircon sample 11 (Fig. 4b) due to the close proximity of the features
207 (8.739 μm in sample 7 and 8.833 μm in sample 11) in the electromagnetic spectrum.

208 All the silicate samples show a pronounced spectral feature near 9.5-11 μm (Figs. 3
209 and 4a-b). In samples 7 and 9 this reflectance maximum is split into two. The first spectral
210 peak is identified as *f7* and the second peak being is identified as *f8* (Fig. 3). Contrary to this,
211 mosandrite and zircon only have one reflectance maximum labeled as *f8* in Figs. 4a-b.

212 **5. Interpretation of the spectral features**

213 **5.1 Carbonate minerals**

214
215 The prominent reflectance peak of the carbonate mineral samples 1 and 2, located
216 between 11 and 12 μm (label *f2* in Fig. 1), can be traced to the asymmetric deformational
217 (bending) mode ν_2 of the CO_3^{2-} ion (Adler and Kerr, 1963; Salisbury et al., 1987;
218 Gunasekaran et al., 2006). The subtler spectral feature near 9.3 μm (label *f1* in Fig. 1),
219 present in bastnasite (sample 1) has been attributed to the ν_1 stretching mode of CO_3^{2-} ion
220 by Adler and Kerr (1963). The appearance of this feature was assigned by Adler and Kerr
221 (1963) and White (1974) to increasing disorder in the CO_3^{2-} ion.

222 **5.2 Phosphate minerals**

223
224 The spectral features that occur in the phosphate mineral samples between 9.3 and
225 9.9 μm , labeled as *f3* and *f4* in Figs. 2a-c, have been assigned to the triply degenerate
226 antisymmetric stretching modes ν_3 of the PO_4^{3-} tetrahedra (e.g., as in Kravitz et al. 1968,
227 Begun et al. 1981, Christensen et al. 2000 and Heuser et al. 2014). Frost et al. (2015)
228 reported a spectral feature near 8.5 μm , also present in samples 4-5 near 8.6 μm (label *f5* in
229 Figs. 2b-c) and attributed the spectral feature to the PO_4^{3-} ν_3 antisymmetric stretching mode
230 in vantasselite ($\text{Al}_4(\text{PO}_4)_3(\text{OH})_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$).

231 **5.3 Silicate minerals**

232

233 The silicate mineral samples generally display one to three spectral features in the 8-
234 12 μm wavelength range (labels *f6-f8* in Figs. 3 and 4a-b). Spectral features in this range
235 have been assigned to the degenerate, asymmetric stretching vibrations of the ν_3 mode of
236 the Si-O-Si tetrahedra (e.g. Salisbury et al., 1991).

237 Samples 7 and 11 (eudialyte and zircon, respectively) have a spectral feature near
238 8.7-8.8 μm (label *f6* in Figs. 3 and 4b). A similar spectral feature was reported by
239 Rastsvetaeva et al. (2018) near 9.4 μm and assigned to the Si-O stretching vibrations of
240 tetrahedral rings. Furthermore, Lippincott et al. (1958) assigned a spectral feature in
241 cristobalite near 8.3 μm to the Si-O stretching modes of the mineral. A potential provenance
242 for this spectral feature was given by Zhang et al. (2000) who reported the appearance of a
243 spectral feature between 8.7 and 9.5 μm in zircon and attributed this feature to the ν_3 Si-O
244 stretching vibrations induced by radioactive decay. Zircon commonly contains radioactive
245 elements, such as U and Th, that can, as a result of such decay, damage the structure of
246 zircon, resulting in increasing asymmetry and the appearance of new spectral features.

247 All the silicate samples display an intense spectral feature between 9.5 and 11 μm
248 (labels *f7* and *f8* in Figs. 3 and 4). In the eudialyte samples these features occur between 9.5
249 and 9.9 μm . Rastsvetaeva et al. (2018) assigned the reflectance maxima between 9.4 and
250 10.8 μm in eudialyte to the Si-O stretching vibrations of the silica tetrahedra. Contrary to the
251 eudialyte samples 7 and 9, the eudialyte sample 8 and the zircon and mosandrite samples
252 only display one clear reflectance maximum (label *f8* in Figs. 3 and 4a-b) between 9.5-11
253 μm . Farmer (1974) attributed this spectral feature to the triply degenerate ν_3 stretching mode
254 in zircon.

255 To summarize, we follow the aforementioned investigations and assign the spectral
256 features *f6-f8* of the silicate minerals to the asymmetric ν_3 stretching modes of the Si-O-Si
257 tetrahedra.

258 **6. Discussion**

259

260 The samples of this study were previously well characterized using scanning electron
261 microscopy, electron probe microanalysis and hyperspectral imaging in the VNIR and SWIR
262 wavelength ranges (e.g., Turner, 2015). That body of work documented that all the samples
263 studied here have spectral features in the VNIR and SWIR wavelength ranges associated
264 with the lanthanides. Contrary to what was observed in previous studies focused on the
265 shorter wavelength regions, no spectral features were encountered in the samples that could
266 be unequivocally assigned to REEs and all the reported spectral features of the samples are
267 attributable to the C-O, P-O and Si-O fundamental bending and stretching modes of the
268 carbonate, phosphate and silicate minerals, respectively. This result follows and confirms
269 similar findings by Frost and Dickfos (2007) who observed that even considerable amounts
270 of REEs in bastnasite, parisite and northupite did not change the symmetry of the carbonate
271 anions.

272 Three phenomena merit discussion in the context of our results: 1) the variable
273 number of spectral features in the samples; 2) the shifting of spectral features; and 3) the
274 state-of-the-art of the current commercially available LWIR imaging spectrometers and their
275 wavelength ranges.

276 First, the presence of a different number of spectral features (within the same
277 mineral) in the samples (eudialyte, Fig. 3 and zircon, Fig. 4b) can - to some extent - vary
278 depending on the technical qualities of the spectrometer used, and in that regard, first and
279 foremost, their spectral resolution. Also, factors such as spectral mixing can cause spectral
280 features to appear or disappear. Despite the fact that care was taken to isolate the minerals
281 of interest in the rock samples, some spectral mixing is possible especially in the marginal
282 areas where the contents of the pixels are shared by two or more components (e.g. the
283 background material or two to several minerals). Generally, spectral mixing can occur when

284 the pixel size of an image is larger than the size of individual objects in the pixels (Keshava
285 and Mustard, 2002). As the spatial resolution (0.7 mm) of our hyperspectral image is higher
286 than the size of even the smallest mineral grains in the rock samples (7.5 mm), significant
287 spectral mixing is unlikely to occur. In addition to potential spectral mixing, the observed
288 differences in the number of spectral features can result from structural distortion (lowering
289 of the crystal symmetry) that can be induced by factors such as radiation-induced damage
290 (Zhang and Salje, 2001). As shown by Salisbury et al. (1991), different crystal orientations
291 can also affect the number of spectral features that can be detected in the sample, a factor
292 unlikely to play a role in the rock samples due to their lack of preferred directions of crystal
293 orientation.

294 Second, wavelength shifting that was observed (within the same mineral) in certain
295 samples (see spectral features *f3*, *f4*, *f7* and *f8* in Figs. 2, 3 and 4b) has been widely studied
296 in the shorter wavelengths (e.g. Duke, 1994). In the context of the LWIR wavelength range,
297 Begun et al. (1981), Kijkowska et al. (2003), Silva et al. (2006) and Heuser et al. (2014) have
298 documented general spectral shifts toward shorter wavelengths in the normal modes of
299 synthetic lanthanide orthophosphates. This shift, that takes place with increasing atomic
300 numbers and respectively, decreasing ionic radii, occurs due to the lanthanide contraction
301 where the crystal radii of the REEs decreases from La^{3+} ($z=57$) to Lu^{3+} ($z=71$), resulting in
302 closer packing of the ion groups and subsequently, shortening of the chemical bonds
303 between metal and oxygen (Begun et al. 1981). This shortening causes a shift in the
304 spectral features toward the shorter wavelengths. Spectral shifts can also occur as a result
305 of different viewing geometries of the sample (e.g. Salisbury et al., 1991; Zhang and Salje,
306 2001), different data acquisition settings (e.g. the sampling interval), spectral resolutions and
307 signal-to-noise ratios of the different spectrometers. It should be noted that in general, the
308 wavelengths of the spectral features reported in this study are in general in good agreement
309 with those shown in Chukanov (2014). Since spectral shifting can be triggered by many
310 different factors, and these shifts can be relative rather than absolute, information that could
311 potentially be obtained on the presence of specific REEs must be carefully considered.

312 Third, the hyperspectral imaging spectrometers currently available in the long-wave
313 infrared wavelength only cover the wavelength range nominally between 7.7-12 μm (ITRES
314 TASI, Specim Aisa OWL, Telops Hyper-Cam). The operative range of these instruments is
315 in the range of minimal atmospheric signal attenuation in the broader long-wave infrared
316 range, a phenomenon that increasingly obscures emitted energy beyond the 14 μm
317 threshold wavelength range (Itakura et al., 1974). However, unfortunate for the detection of
318 the REEs by hyperspectral imaging, our results indicate that this wavelength range does not
319 provide direct information on the presence or chemistry of different REEs, despite the study
320 by Sheibley and Fowler (1966) suggesting that the rare earth oxides Dy_2O_3 , Er_2O_3 , Eu_2O_3 ,
321 Gd_2O_3 , Ho_2O_3 , La_2O_3 , Pr_6O_{11} , Sm_2O_3 and Yb_2O_3 , potentially analogous to REE-bearing
322 minerals, have a subtle spectral feature near 12 μm . This feature could not be observed in
323 the mineral spectra of this study, potentially due to the masking of strong spectral features
324 associated with different mineral groups, discussed above.

325 The rare earth oxides show spectral features near 14-15 μm and at longer
326 wavelengths (Sheibley and Fowler, 1966). This is the region of the external vibrations that
327 can involve the movements of Ce^{3+} ions (Ruschel et al., 2012), also discussed above in the
328 context of the spectral features predicted in the Dieke diagram (Dieke, 1968). This is the
329 wavelength range of the ν_2 and ν_4 antisymmetric bending modes of the phosphate (Ross,
330 1974) and silicate (Farmer, 1974; Salisbury et al., 1991) ions, and those of the ν_4 bending
331 modes of the carbonate ions (Adler and Kerr, 1963; White, 1974). Furthermore, studies by
332 Hezel and Ross (1966) and Silva et al. (2006), conducted on synthetic orthophosphate
333 crystals, suggest that REE-O vibrations occur in the 22-40 μm wavelength region. Although
334 these long wavelength regions are currently not available using commercial imaging
335 spectrometers, their potential could be investigated for the remote detection of different
336 REEs. However, this wavelength range extends beyond the 8-14 μm atmospheric window
337 (Itakura et al., 1974) which may preclude any form of remote sensing. Nevertheless, even if

338 limited to controlled laboratory conditions, such an approach could be beneficiary for many
339 mineral exploration and exploitation applications (e.g. sorting).

340
341

342 **7. Conclusions**

343

344 We have investigated the spectral features of a set of economically important, REE-
345 bearing samples in the LWIR wavelength region. Our results suggest that the REEs do not
346 induce resolvable diagnostic spectral features in the 8-12 μm wavelength range, a range that
347 is dominated by the fundamental stretching modes of the different mineral groups. Longer
348 wavelengths (14-40 μm) have the potential to be used for the direct detection of the REEs,
349 but the commercially available spectrometers need to overcome the challenge of a strong
350 atmospheric attenuation beyond the current limit of 12 μm for these wavelengths to be
351 widely available for mineralogical applications in proximal sensing.

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353

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534

535 **Figures**

536
537 **Fig. 1.** Bastnasite and parisite spectra (samples 1 and 2, respectively). The arrows point to
538 the spectral features labeled as *f1-f2*. Photographs of samples shown at right.
539

540 **Fig. 2. a.** Monazite spectrum (sample 3). **b.** Xenotime spectrum (sample 4). **c.** Xenotime
541 spectra of the samples 5 and 6. The arrows point to the spectral features labeled as *f3-f5*.
542 Photographs of samples shown at right.
543

544 **Fig. 3.** Eudialyte spectra of the samples 7-9. The arrows point to the spectral features
545 labeled as *f6-f8*. Photographs of samples shown at right.
546

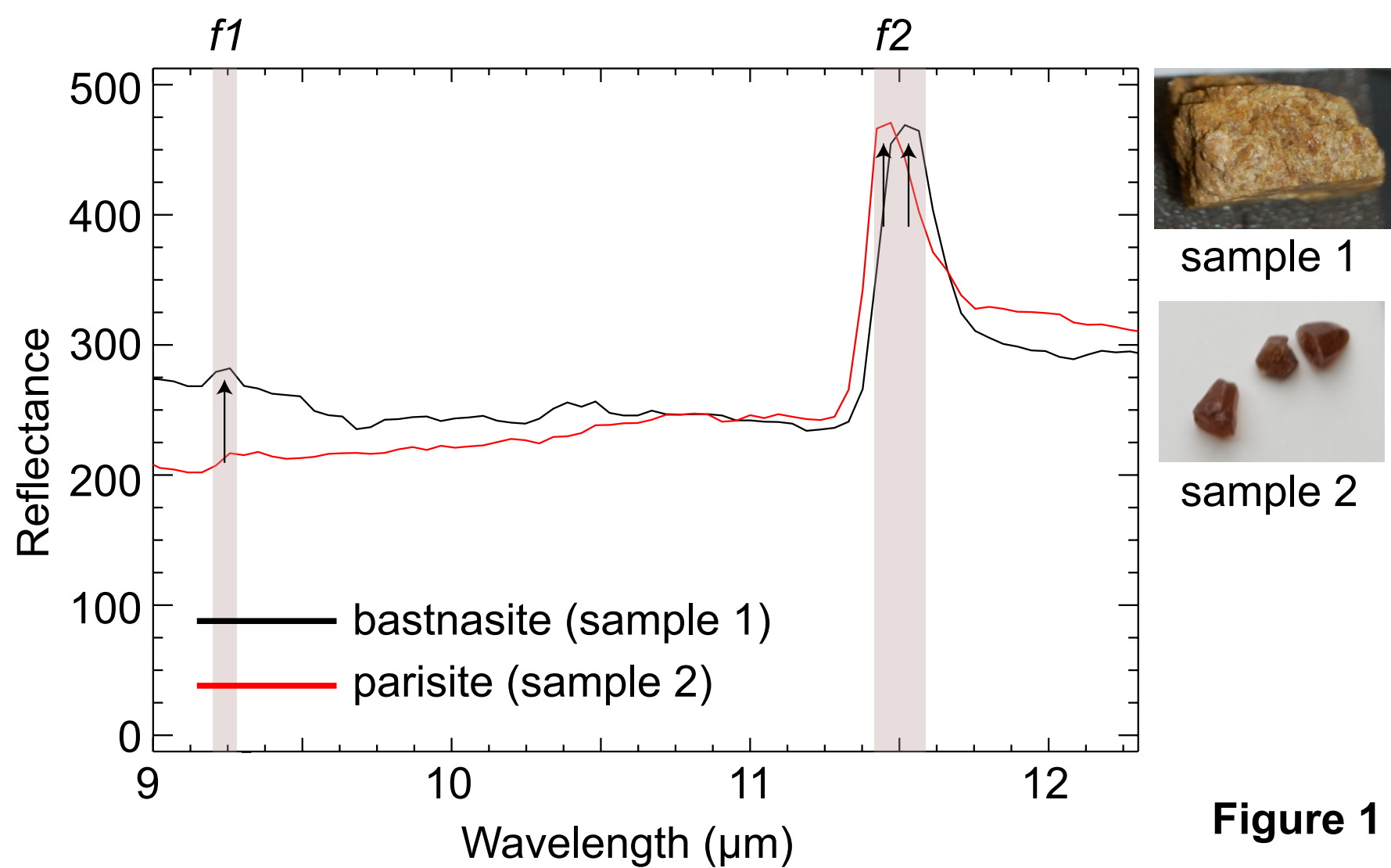
547 **Fig. 4. a.** Mosandrite spectrum (sample 10). **b.** Zircon spectra of the samples 11 and 12.
548 The arrows point to the spectral features labeled as *f6-f8*. Photographs of samples shown at
549 right.
550

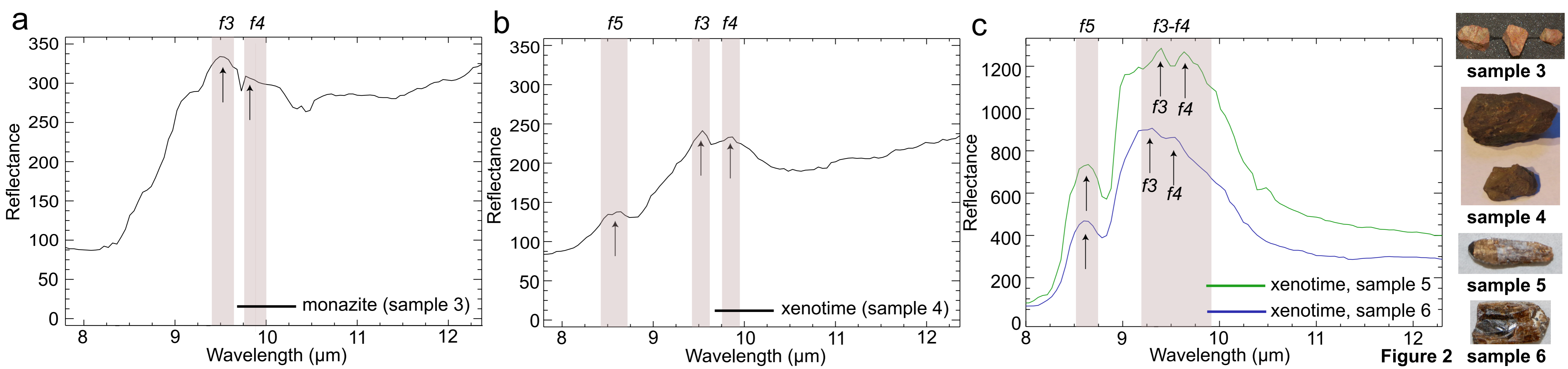
551 **Tables**

552
553 **Table 1.** Sample information, including mineral identity, ideal formulae, number of pixels
554 averaged, dimensions, mineral group and locality.

555
556 **Table 2.** Electron probe micro analysis (EPMA) results of the samples and number (#) of
557 averaged spot analyses. Further details available in Turner (2015).

558
559 **Table 3.** The spectral features *f1-f8* of the samples (1-12) shown in figures 1-4 and
560 discussed in the text. The wavelength/wavenumber refers to the highest reflectance value
561 (reflectance maximum) of each spectral feature.
562





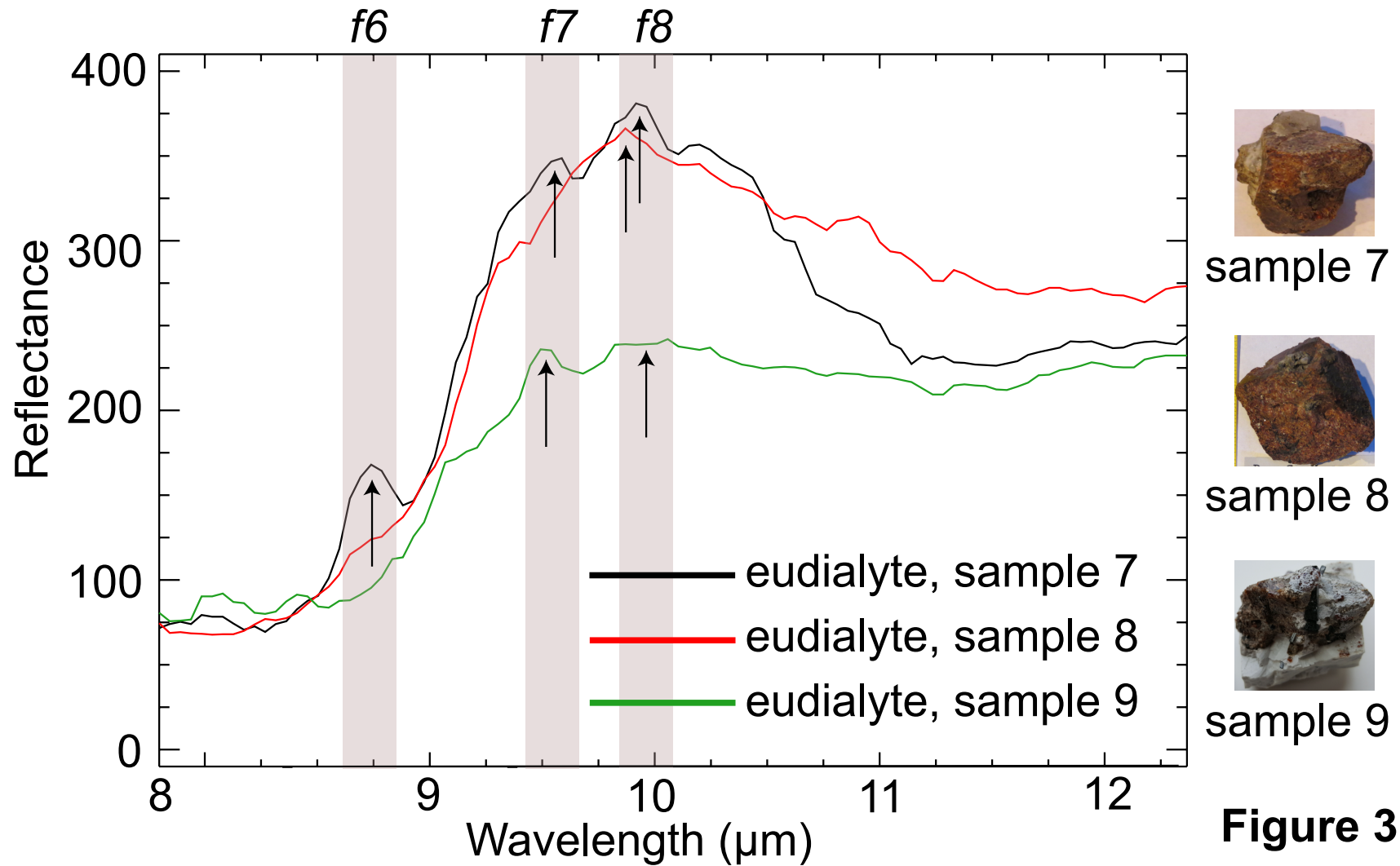


Figure 3

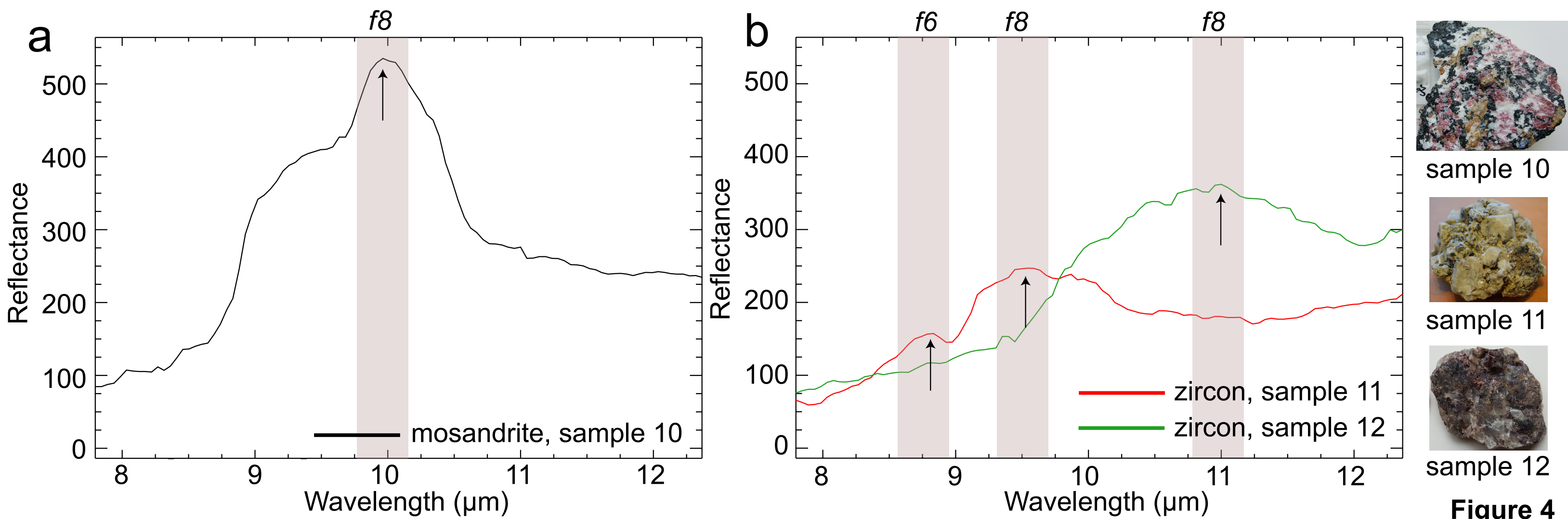


Figure 4

Table 1

Sample id	Mineral	Ideal formulae	# of pixels	Sample dimensions (mm)	Mineral group	Locality
1	bastnäsite	(Ce,La)(CO ₃)F	4	30 x 30 x 20	carbonate	Diao Loa Shan, Sichuan, China
2	parisite	Ca(Ce,La) ₂ (CO ₃) ₃ F ₂	4	5 x 5 x 5	carbonate	Muzo, Columbia
3	monazite	(Ce,La, Nd, Th)PO ₄	3	10 x 10 x 10	phosphate	Elk Mountain, Nebraska, USA
4	xenotime	YPO ₄	3	17.5 x 25 x 20	phosphate	Gunter Quarry, Ontario, Canada
5	xenotime	YPO ₄	3	22.5 x 7.5 x 7.5	phosphate	Novo Horizonte (sample "C"), Brazil
6	xenotime	YPO ₄	4	25 x 14 x 10	phosphate	Novo Horizonte (sample "J"), Brazil
7	eudialyte	Na ₄ (Ca, Ce) ₂ (Fe ²⁺ , Mn ²⁺)ZrSi ₈ O ₂₂ (OH, Cl) ₂ (?)	3	15 x 15 x 20	silicate	Mont St. Hilaire, Rouville, Quebec, Canada (sample 72-24)
8	eudialyte	Na ₄ (Ca, Ce) ₂ (Fe ²⁺ , Mn ²⁺)ZrSi ₈ O ₂₂ (OH, Cl) ₂ (?)	4	25 x 25 x 20	silicate	Mont St. Hilaire, Rouville, Quebec, Canada (sample MSH CMNOC 37104)
9	eudialyte	Na ₄ (Ca, Ce) ₂ (Fe ²⁺ , Mn ²⁺)ZrSi ₈ O ₂₂ (OH, Cl) ₂ (?)	3	35 x 20 x 20	silicate	Mont St. Hilaire, Rouville, Quebec, Canada (sample 88-79)
10	mosandrite	(Ca ₃ REE)[(H ₂ O) ₂ Ca _{0.5} □ _{0.5}]Ti(Si ₂ O ₇) ₂ (OH) ₂ (H ₂ O) ₂	3	Crystal clusters up to 25 x 10	silicate	Kipawa, Ontario, Canada (sample F92-23)
11	zircon	ZrSiO ₄	4	Crystal clusters up to 7.5 x 7.5	silicate	Mount Malosa, Malawi
12	zircon	ZrSiO ₄	4	Crystals up to 8 x 8	silicate	St Peter's Dome, Colorado, USA

Table 2

Sample id	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
# Analyses	10	6	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Nb ₂ O ₅ (wt.%)	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.08	0.07	0.08	2.48	1.96	2.24	1.61	1.53	0.19
P ₂ O ₅	0.00	0.00	22.62	34.16	29.12	30.83	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.24	0.10
SiO ₂	0.05	0.06	1.90	0.53	0.20	0.23	51.31	53.21	49.98	29.76	30.65	31.70
TiO ₂	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.32	0.29	0.10	8.29	0.03	0.00
ZrO ₂	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.17	0.13	0.11	11.19	11.73	12.27	0.44	58.01	63.70
UO ₂	0.53	0.39	0.32	0.58	0.07	0.01	0.03	0.07	0.00	0	0.00	0.00
ThO ₂	0.14	0.83	12.15	0.53	0.07	0.33	0.11	0.09	0.14	0.1	0.29	0.03
Al ₂ O ₃	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.06	0.06	0.13	0.06	0.00	0.00
La ₂ O ₃	27.77	14.03	10.60	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.01	1.05	1.48	1.47	0.02	0.00
Ce ₂ O ₃	31.13	26.11	22.98	0.00	0.00	0.02	1.93	1.88	2.93	4.02	0.24	0.00
Pr ₂ O ₃	2.50	2.90	3.03	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.17	0.15	0.30	0.54	0.05	0.00
Nd ₂ O ₃	7.25	11.90	11.86	0.15	0.05	0.08	0.59	0.52	0.92	2.51	0.48	0.00
Sm ₂ O ₃	0.47	1.85	4.94	0.34	1.05	0.70	0.08	0.07	0.16	0.74	0.42	0.00
Eu ₂ O ₃	0.00	0.03	0.12	0.00	0.35	0.12	0	0.00	0.00	0.09	0.04	0.00
Gd ₂ O ₃	0.20	1.06	2.83	1.46	5.71	3.88	0.05	0.05	0.12	0.82	0.37	0.00
Tb ₂ O ₃	0.00	0.00	0.48	0.33	1.48	1.02	0	0.00	0.00	0.14	0.00	0.00
Dy ₂ O ₃	0.00	0.00	1.64	3.58	9.75	7.73	0.02	0.00	0.04	1.05	0.29	0.01
Ho ₂ O ₃	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.02	1.72	1.67	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.21	0.05	0.01
Er ₂ O ₃	0.00	0.00	0.08	3.88	4.94	5.26	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.57	0.16	0.01
Tm ₂ O ₃	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.61	0.51	0.54	0	0.00	0.00	0.05	0.02	0.00
Yb ₂ O ₃	0.00	0.00	0.00	5.15	2.14	2.51	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.32	0.30	0.04
Lu ₂ O ₃	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.82	0.11	0.23	0.00	0.00	0.00	0	0.00	0.00
Y ₂ O ₃	0.01	0.74	0.45	45.72	41.82	44.51	0.35	0.34	0.62	5.96	2.39	0.03
SrO	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.32	0.26	0.29	0.09	0.12	0.13
MgO	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.01
FeO	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.00	2.62	2.47	2.93	0.05	0.03	0.00
BaO	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.06	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00
CaO	0.11	10.48	0.64	0.01	0.00	0.00	5.53	5.75	3.78	26.68	0.00	0.00
MnO	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	9.14	8.60	7.90	0.05	0.05	0.02
Na ₂ O	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.00	5.73	4.46	6.21	6.39	0.01	0.00
Cl	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.39	0.45	0.53	0.02	0.00	0.01
F	5.22	4.48	0.36	0.51	0.30	0.33	0.18	0.08	0.19	4.63	0.04	0.03
O=CL	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.09	-0.10	-0.12	0.00	0.00	0.00
O=F	-2.20	-1.89	-0.15	-0.21	-0.13	-0.14	-0.08	-0.03	-0.08	-1.95	-0.02	-0.01
TOTAL	93.50	98.37	96.90	99.46	99.49	100.06	95.15	95.09	94.76	99.30	95.82	96.04
REE ₂ O ₃	69.35	58.61	59.01	63.07	69.63	68.27	4.23	4.07	6.61	18.49	4.83	0.10

Table 3

Fig.	Sample id	Feature	Wavelength (μm)	Wavenumber (cm-1)
1	1	<i>f1</i>	9.257	1080.26
1	1	<i>f2</i>	11.518	868.21
1	2	<i>f2</i>	11.471	871.76
2A	3	<i>f3</i>	9.493	1053.41
2A	3	<i>f4</i>	9.776	1022.91
2B	4	<i>f3</i>	9.540	1048.22
2B	4	<i>f4</i>	9.870	1013.17
2B	4	<i>f5</i>	8.645	1156.74
2C	5	<i>f3</i>	9.399	1063.94
2C	5	<i>f4</i>	9.634	1037.99
2C	5	<i>f5</i>	8.645	1156.74
2C	6	<i>f3</i>	9.304	1074.81
2C	6	<i>f4</i>	9.540	1048.22
2C	6	<i>f5</i>	8.645	1156.74
3	7	<i>f6</i>	8.739	1144.30
3	7	<i>f7</i>	9.587	1043.08
3	7	<i>f8</i>	9.917	1008.37
3	8	<i>f8</i>	9.870	1013.17
3	9	<i>f7</i>	9.493	1053.41
3	9	<i>f8</i>	9.917	1008.37
4A	10	<i>f8</i>	9.964	1003.61
4B	11	<i>f6</i>	8.833	1132.12
4B	11	<i>f8</i>	9.540	1048.22
4B	12	<i>f8</i>	11.000	909.09