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1 Extraction and separation of rare earth elements from hydrothermal metalliferous sediments.

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18 Abstract

19 Rare earth elements (REE) can be efficiently extracted from umbers, ferromanganese metalliferous 20 sediments of the Troodos ophiolite (Cyprus) by simple leaching and selective precipitation, without 21 accumulation of radioactive by-products. Umbers are dominantly composed of amorphous Fe and 22 Mn oxides with minor goethite, quartz and zeolites, and contain $350 - 500 \text{ mg.kg}^{-1}$ of rare earth 23 elements and yttrium (REY), 200 times lower than many of the major REY source ores. To 24 compensate for relatively low grades, a cost-effective extraction process was developed that 25 utilises a weak lixiviant concentration (0.1 - 1.5 N) and short reaction times (5 min to 11 h). Acid 26 solutions recover 70-85% of the initial sample REY content even at 20 °C. By contrast, extraction 27 using ionic solutions of NaCl and ammonium sulphate proved ineffective. Acid recoveries of REY 28 increase by nearly 10% at 70 °C and the use of different acids (HCl, HNO₃, H₂SO₄) yields comparable 29 results. The main impurities in the leachate include Ca and Na at even the weakest acid 30 concentration (0.1 N). However, two-step leaching method greatly reduces concentrations of 31 impurities in the REY-rich liquor, although with REY losses approaching 20%. Purification of the 32 leach liquor via selective precipitation of REY as an oxalate is highly efficient although pH 33 dependent. With maximum REY precipitation (96-99%) occurring between pH 1 and 2, the precise 34 adjustment of pH allows separation of REY from other precipitating impurities (Ca). The maximum 35 purity of the precipitate is achieved at pH 1.1 (> 65%). Strong and consistent fractionation along the 36 lanthanide series observed during the precipitation experiments has been successfully explained 37 using a speciation modelling software (PHREEQC). The uptake of REY by oxalate in the experiments 38 closely follows the bell-shape distribution of REY-oxalate solid complexes stability constant (-log β 39 $(RE_2Ox_3.nH_2O))$ replicating the fractionation trends observed at pH < 1.1. In addition, the modelling 40 demonstrates that at equivalent REE concentration in solution, oxalate precipitates fractionate REY 41 in the following order: middle REE > light REE >> heavy REE. This ordering and the variable degrees 42 of uptake reflects the interplay of aqueous REY-oxalate complexes (log $HOX\beta_1$, $OX\beta_1$ and $OX\beta_2$) with the 43 natural fractionation induced by solid REY-oxalate stability constant distribution. Overall, the 44 combined leaching process and selective oxalate precipitation produces a total enrichment factor 45 ranging between 1400 and 2400 for REY from the sample to the oxalate precipitate in a simple twostep process forming a high-purity end-product of mixed REY. 46

47 Keywords: leaching; metalliferous sediments; oxalate; PHREEQC; rare earth elements; speciation
48 modelling; umbers.

50 **1. Introduction**

51 The perceived supply risk for essential materials used in the development of green energy and other 52 state-of-the art technologies provides motivation to investigate new sources for these raw materials. Many are characterized as "critical", given supply risks posed by geographic location, the 53 54 economic and political stability of producing countries, limited possibilities for substitution and 55 currently low-levels of recycling (European Commission, 2014, Graedel et al., 2014). At present, 20 56 raw materials are listed by the European Union as critical. Among these critical elements, the 57 lanthanides and yttrium (REY) form a group of 15 metals (Rollat et al., 2016) essential for the 58 development of applications in the low-carbon energy sector (magnets, low-energy lighting, wind 59 turbines, batteries), industry (catalysis, alloys, oil refining), and other technologies (lasers, optics) 60 (Guyonnet et al., 2015). More than 90% of REY produced worldwide in the last twenty years 61 originated in China, a near monopoly that reflects environmental and economic factors rather than 62 the unequal distribution of REY resources across the world (Weng et al., 2015). Indeed, large primary deposits are known outside China including more than 550 carbonatites/alkaline 63 complexes worldwide (Kanazawa and Kamitani, 2006, Chakhmouradian and Wall, 2012, Jordens et 64 al., 2013, Jaireth et al., 2014, Xie et al., 2014, Hoshino et al., 2016). 65

66 Solvent extraction constitutes the most common treatment of REE-bearing minerals, such as 67 xenotime (YPO₄), bastnäsite ((Ce,La)CO₃F) and monazite ((REE,Th)PO₄) ores, following energy-68 consuming beneficiation via gravity separation, desliming, magnetic or electrostatic separation and 69 froth flotation (Jordens et al., 2013, Kumar et al., 2014, Xie et al., 2014). The hydrometallurgical 70 process uses strong acid or alkali leaches (sulphuric acid and sodium hydroxide being the most common) at temperatures of 200-400 °C, in a process commonly referred to as cracking (Habashi, 71 72 2013, Golev et al., 2014). This treatment produces REE-rich leach liquors usually in the range of 1 73 to 40 g.L⁻¹ RE₂O₃ with small amounts of impurities (Chi *et al.*, 1995, Abreu and Morais, 2010). REY 74 are separated from co-leached elements by further treatment such as solvent extraction and ion 75 exchange using selective precipitation as carbonates or oxalates by pH adjustment. Rare earth 76 oxalates and carbonates are then roasted to form a mixed RE oxide product ready for sale as a RE 77 alloy known as mischmetal, sent to specialized factories for further separation treatment into 78 individual high purity RE oxides or reduced to pure metal products depending on the required end 79 use (Christie et al., 1998, Golev et al., 2014). The separation of a mixed product into individual 80 elements is inherently difficult due to their very similar chemical behaviour. Multiple methods exist 81 such as selective oxidation/reduction, fractional crystallisation-precipitation, and ion-exchange, though the most effective approach is solvent extraction using organophosphorus compounds (e.g., 82 83 EDPA, HDEHP, EHEHPA, or TBP) (Abreu and Morais, 2014, Kumar et al., 2014, Xie et al., 2014). All 84 these methods are energy- and material-consuming as they require multiple iterations to obtain a 85 high purity individual rare earth oxides (REO) (Abreu and Morais, 2014).

86 Another problem associated with REY production is the handling of radioactive waste as most REY-87 rich primary magmatic deposits possess high concentrations of actinides; monazite contains 4-12 88 wt.% Th and although U concentrations are generally low, anomalous content of up to 14 wt.% can 89 occur (Jordens et al., 2013). Uranium and thorium are both concentrated during the beneficiation 90 of REY and the tailings wastes may exhibit high levels of radioactivity after cracking. Co-production 91 of radioactive elements is feasible for the highest U-Th concentration ores, albeit with significant 92 additional costs (Golev et al., 2014). These issues have led to notable pollution in China and 93 Malaysia (Golev et al., 2014, Kolo et al., 2015). For many sites, industrial processing is followed by 94 costly remediation and waste disposal in long-term storage. Significant radioactive element 95 concentrations constitute important economical drawbacks for any new REY exploitation project.

96 Considering the problems associated with magmatic-related REY deposits and despite their 97 abundance, alternative sources of REE more readily beneficiated with low radioactive waste are 98 attracting attention alongside efforts to increase recycling of REY from scrap or end-of-life 99 consumer products. The abundance of neodymium-iron-boron magnets (NdFeB) in cell phones, 100 hard drives and wind turbines forms the major target for this recycling effort with promising results 101 on Nd recovery in the laboratory (Vander Hoogerstraete et al., 2014). In addition, development of 102 REY production from industrial waste or by-products such as red-mud (Ochsenkühn-Petropulu et 103 al., 1996, Tsakanika et al., 2004, Qu and Lian, 2013, Liu and Naidu, 2014, Borra et al., 2015, Deady 104 et al., 2016) and coal residue (Rozelle et al., 2016a) has received considerable interest. These 105 formations contain REY-bearing minerals and/or adsorbed REY that are transferred to the wastes 106 during initial ore processing. These wastes constitute a low-grade resource with economically 107 significant tonnage due to the importance and spread of the coal and aluminium industries 108 (Goodenough et al., 2016). Other alternative sources, include sea-floor deposits such as 109 ferromanganese nodules (Fujimoto et al., 2016), hydrogenetic crusts, and marine clays (Kato et al., 2011, Menendez et al., 2017) that can have significant REY concentrations (Hein et al., 2013). 110 111 Although of scientific interest, their relative inaccessibility and need for advanced mining 112 technologies makes their economic exploitation challenging. As an initial approach to establish 113 methods for REY-extraction from such marine formations, here we investigate sub-aerial 114 equivalents of these deposits preserved in ophiolites; slices of ancient oceanic crust now present 115 on-land that provide ease of access and sampling. Given that, the ferromanganese metalliferous 116 sediments of the Troodos ophiolite in Cyprus known as umbers constitute an obvious best choice 117 for study. These deposits represent direct analogue of actual oceanic metalliferous sediments 118 formed in the vicinity of hydrothermal vents (Boyle and Robertson, 1984, Richards and Boyle, 1986, 119 Boyle, 1990, Robertson and Varnavas, 1993a), and have been exploited since classical times for 120 pigments. Nevertheless, to our knowledge no previous work has investigated the processing of 121 these deposits as a potential source of REY.

122 This study investigates the potential recovery of REY from umbers, metalliferous sediments of the 123 Troodos massif in Cyprus, as analogue to numerous oxide-based deposits found on-land that may 124 provide an alternative to magmatic-related REY deposits that currently dominate global supply. 125 Herein, we report the influence of various kinetic parameters such as the nature and concentration 126 of lixiviant, reaction times, temperature and pulp density, on the release of REY during simple and 127 sequential leaching experiments. We also explore in detail the efficiency of oxalate precipitation 128 for the selective extraction of low concentration REY from other impurities present in the leach 129 liquor via pH-dependent experiment and geochemical modelling.

130

2. Background geology

131 Umber deposits constitute the basal facies of the sedimentary sequence that accumulated above 132 the extrusive lavas of the Troodos ophiolitic massif, Cyprus. These metalliferous formations resulted 133 from the precipitation and accumulation on the paleo seafloor of Fe and Mn oxides from high 134 temperature hydrothermal solutions in the Tethyan Ocean 91 million years ago (Robertson and 135 Hudson, 1972, Boyle, 1990). Umbers are found interstratified with or overlying the Upper Pillow 136 Lavas of the Troodos ophiolite as lenticular bodies or in shallow depressions of the lava surface. 137 Although there are minor accumulations at multiple levels within the lavas, supra-lava umbers are by far the most abundant and these constitute the basal facies of the Perapedhi Formation, 138 139 bracketed between the basaltic upper pillow lavas and radiolarian cherts of Campanian age 140 (Robertson and Hudson, 1974). Massive umber deposits can reach thicknesses of 4 m, although 141 most are limited to 1 m. However, records indicate that outcrops up to 35 m thick existed prior to 142 extensive extraction in the Mangaleni quarry (Boyle, 1984) where production peaked at 6000 t.y⁻¹ (Morse and Stevens, 1979, Cyprus Geological Survey, 2006). The lateral extent of umber deposits is 143 144 predominantly controlled by the initial sea floor topography, subsequent preservation from sea 145 floor weathering and more recent anthropogenic activity since Classical to the modern era.

146 Umbers comprise brown Fe-Mn-rich mudstones with an amorphous oxyhydroxides-dominated 147 mineralogy, formed by the accumulation of hydrothermal plume fall-out of Fe-Mn oxyhydroxides 148 (Boyle, 1990). Umber deposits are commonly carbonate-free. Dissolved Fe and Mn from the 149 effluent issued at hydrothermal vents oxidize in contact with bottom seawater to form colloids with 150 strong surface charge that enables the efficient scavenging of dissolved species (Koschinsky and 151 Halbach, 1995, Koschinsky and Hein, 2003). Umbers thus acquired seawater-like REE signatures with concentrations up to ~500 mg.kg⁻¹ total REY (0.06% total REO (TREO) as RE₂O₃) with low 152 153 concentrations of radioactive elements (average U = 2.4 mg.kg^{-1} and Th = 2.0 mg.kg^{-1} (n=59) (Josso, 154 2017); Table 1).

Geochemical composition of supra-lava Umber (n=59)

SiO ₂	17.5 ± 4.5	V	964 ± 220	Ce	41 ± 18
TiO ₂	0.15 ± 0.05	Mo	38 ± 20	Pr	27 ± 12
AI_2O_3	3.7 ± 1.3	As	366 ± 84	Nd	103 ± 30
Fe ₂ O ₃	52.1 ± 7.4	Zn	310 ± 54	Sm	22 ± 6
MnO	10.1 ± 2.6	Ва	1080 ± 553	Eu	5.7 ± 2.6
MgO	1.8 ± 0.5	Rb	21 ± 9	Gd	23 ± 6
CaO	1.7 ± 0.5	Sr	1038 ± 626	Tb	3.7 ± 2.4
K2O	0.6 ± 0.3	Y	98 ± 24	Dy	20 ± 5
P_2O_5	0.8 ± 0.3	Zr	90 ± 23	Но	4.1 ± 1.3
Со	150 ± 37	Pb	179 ± 69	Er	10 ± 3
Ni	220 ± 57	U	2.4 ± 1	Tm	1.6 ± 1.2
Cu	736 ± 216	Th	2.0 ± 1	Yb	9.0 ± 2.1
Cr	20 ± 9	La	106 ± 29	Lu	1.3 ± 0.2

Major elements are expressed in wt.% $\pm 2\sigma$

155 Minor and trace elements are expressed in mg/kg $\pm 2\sigma$

156 Table 1: Typical geochemistry of unaltered supra-lava umbers from the Troodos massif [Josso, 2017].

157 These Fe-Mn oxide formations thus have similar concentrations to the ion-adsorption clay (IAC) deposits that are mined in southern China ($\Sigma REY = 300 - 1500 \text{ mg.kg}^{-1}$, (Yang *et al.*, 2013)). By 158 159 comparison with the most advanced rare earths projects in Europe, the REY content is 12 to 14 160 times lower than in the Khibina and Lovozero alkaline complexes of the Kola Peninsula and the 161 Norra Kärr intrusion in Sweden, respectively 0.7% and 0.59% TREO (Chakhmouradian and Wall, 162 2012, Guyonnet et al., 2015). However, in contrast with these deposits, umbers possess an 163 amorphous oxide dominated mineralogy and low concentrations of radioactive elements, and 164 these may have advantages with regards to the overall extraction and treatment costs of the ore. 165 Given the low content of targeted elements, it is of prime importance to identify the processing 166 conditions that maximise the release of REY from umbers. We therefore explore the influence of 167 major kinetic parameters of a variety of lixiviants used in the REY extractive industry, including acid and ionic solutions, on the recovery of REY to develop the best recipe for high extraction yields. 168

169

3. Material and method

170 **3.1 Experimental leaching conditions and material**

Leaching experiments were undertaken to investigate the potential recovery of REY from the metalliferous sediments. Leaching experiments tested a variety of common inorganic acids, such as nitric, sulphuric and hydrochloric acid, as well as ion exchange solutions of sodium chloride and ammonium sulphate, which are widely used in the treatment of IAC deposits in China (Yang et al., 2013). The experiments were designed to test the influence of solution concentration, liquid-tosolid (LS) ratios, time of reaction, and effect of temperature on the efficiency of REY extraction into 177 the liquid phase. Each factor was studied independently by keeping other parameters constant

178 (Table 2).

			٦	ested par		Lixivia	nts		
			Molarity (mol/L)	LS ratio	Time	Temperature	Ionic liquid	Acid	
	Dawaa	Min	0.05	2	2 min	20°C	NaCl	HNO ₃	
	Range	Max	1.75	100	13 h	70°C	(NH₄)₂SO₄	H_2SO_4	
179	When constant		1	25	120 min	20°C		HCI	

180 Table 2: Range of experimental parameters and type of lixiviant used in the leaching experiments.

181

200

182 Batch reactions experiments were performed using 1 to 10 g of powdered samples mixed with the 183 appropriate volume of lixiviant for the desired pulp density in closed 500 mL Erlenmeyer flasks. The 184 kinetic influence of temperature on leaching efficiency was investigated at controlled temperature 185 (40 and 70 °C) by mixing powdered samples and acid solutions (1 N HCl, HNO₃ and H₂SO₄) at 25:1 LS 186 ratio for 2 h on a heating and stirring plate. The acid solutions were first placed on the hot plate for 1 h to thermally equilibrate prior to insertion in the flask. 187

188 Sample PJ-CY-2014-91 (Table 3), the primary focus for this study, was recovered south-west of Marki 189 on the northeastern rim of the Troodos massif. It was chosen from a pool of other samples as 190 representative of the mean umber composition (n = 59, (Josso, 2017)). The complete sample set 191 and its geochemistry are presented elsewhere [Josso et al, in prep]. Sample PJ-CY-2014-91 is devoid 192 of weathering or known alteration affecting some umbers such as silicification or diagenetic 193 remineralisation that involves removal of Mn and formation of apatite enriched in REY. The sample 194 was first crushed using a manual press and dried for 48 h at 65 °C. Once dried, the crushed material 195 was milled in agate pestle and mortar. Quantitative grain size data of the powdered umber were 196 obtained using a Malvern Mastersizer laser particle size analyser at the National Oceanography 197 Centre Southampton (NOCS). Two aliquots of the sample were measured in triplicate with good 198 reproducibility (Supplementary Table 1). After grinding, 90% of the sample size fraction is less than 199 370 μm in diameter, which constituted the working material for the following leaching experiments.

	Sample FJ-C1-2014-31													
SiO ₂	24.1	Ni	308	Nd	110.1									
TiO ₂	0.2	Cu	801	Sm	22.5									
Al_2O_3	6.0	Zn	314	Eu	5.6									
Fe_2O_3	38.1	Ва	982	Gd	23.3									
MnO	12.2	Sr	244	Tb	3.5									
MgO	2.4	Zr	115	Dy	20.0									
CaO	1.24	Th	4.6	Но	3.9									
K ₂ O	1.2	U	1.5	Er	10.3									
Na ₂ O	0.7	Y	97.0	Tm	1.5									
P_2O_5	0.5	La	122.5	Yb	9.0									
Sc	11.6	Ce	66.3	Lu	1.3									
Со	119	Pr	27.0	ΣREY	523.7									

cample DI CV 2014 01

Table 3: Composition of sample PJ-CY-2014-91 used in leaching experiments. Major elements are expressed in wt.%, trace elements in mg/kg.

203 **3.2 Oxalate precipitation**

204 The precipitation of REY from a pregnant leach liquor was investigated by the addition of 205 ammonium oxalate at various pH values. A stock leach solution (SLS) was first produced by the 206 leaching of 20 g of umber by 600 mL of 1 N HCl over 2 h at laboratory temperature (~21 °C). This 207 solution was used as a reference material for all further precipitation experiments and its 208 composition after filtration of the solid residue through 0.45 μm cellulose nitrate membrane filters 209 is presented in Table 4. For each precipitation experiment, 20 mL of the SLS was transferred into 50 210 mL Falcon tubes, to which was added 7 mL of a 0.32 N solution of ammonium oxalate 211 $(NH_4)_2C_2O_4$. H₂O. The pH of each experiment was then immediately adjusted to the desired pH value 212 (ranging between 0.85 and 3.15) by the addition of ammonia solution and measured with a Thermo 213 Scientific Orion pH meter calibrated at laboratory temperature. All reagents used were at least 214 analytical grade or higher purity. Solutions were left to rest for 5 h and a white precipitate was 215 observed in all vials after this time. Tubes were then centrifuged and the liquid phase carefully 216 transferred into pre-weighed HDPE bottles, whereas the precipitate was redigested with 6 N HCl 217 and transferred to pre-weighed HDPE bottles. Both resulting solutions were analysed by ICP-MS for 218 major elements, trace elements and REY. A mass balance was undertaken to check the 219 measurement quality by ICP-MS and assess the experimental workflow. Our results normalized to 220 the concentration in the stock leach solution show that the mass balance for cumulated solution 221 and oxalate precipitate is good (90% - 110% of initial mass) for Na, Mg, Al, Ti, Mn, Fe, V, Co and Ba. 222 Recovery for Ni, Cu, Sr, Y, Zr and REE ranges between 75 and 100% of the initial mass introduced 223 depending on the element over the range of pH tested. In contrast, the masses of U and K were 224 constantly found in higher proportions (110-120%) when compared with the initial mass introduced 225 probably due to higher background noise and measurement precision on these elements. Calcium 226 shows the greatest variations potentially linked to the formation of insoluble Ca oxalate phases 227 during the preparation of daughter solutions with 3% nitric acid for ICP-MS analysis. Nevertheless, 228 these data are of sufficient quality to determine the general phase distribution of each element 229 during the precipitation of oxalates from the SLS at different pH values.

_	Na	Mg	AI	К	Ca	Mn	Fe							
SLS (n=3)	67.4	44.7	24.2	21.6	121.2	100.9	71.3							
Abs. Std. Dev.	1	0.6	0.3	0.3	1.2	0.8	0.5							
_	Sc	Ti	V	Со	Ni	Cu	Sr	Y	Zr	Ва	Th	U	_	
SLS (n=3)	39	684	3597	1105	548	1587	3537	2682	24	3099	32	23	-	
Abs. Std. Dev.	0.3	4.5	9.5	2.2	3.4	2.2	7.8	4.2	0.2	2.9	0.1	0.1		
_	La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Но	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu
SLS (n=3)	3651	653	826	3582	730	186	763	108	624	117	297	37	207	28
Abs. Std. Dev.	3.6	1.3	1.0	2.1	1.0	0.3	0.6	0.2	0.8	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.2
N 4 - :														

230 Major elements expressed in mg/L, trace elements in μ g/L

- 231 Table 4: Composition of the stock leach solution (SLS) presented as the mean of triplicate and absolute 232
 - standard deviation

233 3.3 Analytical procedure

234 Major, trace and rare earth elements concentrations were determined by inductively coupled 235 plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) using an Element X-series 2 at National Oceanography Centre 236 Southampton (NOCS). Solutions for measurement by ICP-MS were diluted to appropriate total 237 concentrations with a 3% nitric acid solution containing an internal spike with In-Re (5 µg.kg⁻¹) and Be (20 μg.kg⁻¹). Artificial element standards were produced at 2, 5, 10, 25, 50, 75, 100, 125, 150, 238 239 175 and 200 µg.kg⁻¹ and used together with the internal spikes to calibrate the instrument and monitor sample drift corrections. All standard calibration curves display less than 3.5% analytical 240 241 error with excellent linearity. International rock standards BHVO2, BIR1 and JB3, were run in 242 triplicate as unknown to monitor accuracy of calibration with excellent reproducibility between triplicates (Supplementary Table 2). All analysis for trace and rare earth elements, Mg, Al, Fe and 243 244 Mn are accurate and fall within the range of published recommended values (Jochum et al., 2005). 245 Sodium was measured in excess by 6% and 3% in BHVO2 and BIR1 respectively, whereas Ca and Ti 246 concentrations were 3% below recommended range in JB3. Measurement reproducibility on 247 international standards was also checked for discrepancies between standards prepared with and 248 without ammonium oxalates to check for matrix effects from the oxalates. Standard dilution to 249 daughter solutions were prepared by including ammonium oxalate matching the final 250 concentration of (NH₄)₂C₂O₄ in samples analysed by the ICP-MS. Excellent reproducibility of results, 251 showing less than 5% difference between standards with and without oxalates, indicates the 252 absence of any matrix effects.

253

3.4 Scanning electron microscopy imaging

254 Imaging of the oxalate precipitate was obtained by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) at 255 University of Southampton using a Carl Zeiss LEO1450VP. The instrument used an operating voltage 256 of 20 kV and a working distance of 19 mm. The AZtec Energy Software was used for the processing 257 of energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) with a process time of 5 on an average of 3300 counts.s⁻¹. Images were collected using a nominal probe current of 800 pA. The leachate was 258 259 treated with ammonium oxalates and the pH equilibrated with aqueous ammonia. The solution was 260 filtered and the residue washed with deionized water and then deposited onto Al-Cu pellets. The 261 samples were left to dry in an oven at 60°C overnight and C-coated prior to analysis.

262 3.5 Speciation modelling

263 A numerical modelling approach, reproducing the conditions of the precipitation experiment was 264 developed to assess rare earth element fractionation results in the oxalate precipitate. Modelling 265 calculations were performed using the hydrogeochemical code PHREEQC version 3.3.9 (Parkhurst

266 and Appelo, 2013) and the thermodynamic data for REE from the Lawrence Livermore National 267 Laboratory (LLNL) database (Delany and Lundeen, 1990). The LLNL database was supplemented by 268 stability constants for the following aqueous RE-oxalate complexes; REHOx²⁺, REOx⁺, RE(Ox)₂⁻ from 269 Schijf and Byrne (2001), where "RE" represents any lanthanide (except Pm) and "Ox" abbreviates 270 the oxalate ion $C_2O_4^{2^2}$. Presently there is no complete set of stability constants for solid RE-oxalate 271 complexes (RE₂Ox₃.nH₂O). Missing constants were obtained via linear free-energy relationship 272 (LFER) calculations using existing data on RE-oxalate binding (Chung et al., 1998) compared with 273 constants in the NIST database from other complexing agents (Smith and Martell, 2004). Best linear regression was obtained for a Phenol ($R^2 = 0.94$) and used for estimating constants absent in Chung 274 275 et al. (1998) (Supplementary Figure 1).

276 **4. Results**

277 4.1 Leaching with ion exchange solutions

Leaching experiments using ammonium sulphate $((NH_4)_2SO_4)$ or sodium chloride (NaCl) at different concentrations (0.05 - 1.75 N) and at a LS ratio high enough for the electrolytes not to be considered a limiting reactant (up to 100:1) are not effective for the leaching of REY from umbers (Figure 1). These solutions generally target the most easily exchangeable cations but the maximum cumulated REY concentration in the leachate represents just 1.3% recovery of the initial REY content of the sample.

284 **4.2 Leaching with acid solutions**

Acid-promoted release of REY displays hyperbolic trends of recovery for all kinetic parameters 285 286 tested (Figure 1). The experiments on acid concentration display curves approaching 80-85% 287 recovery of the initial REY content in the acid leach after levelling off. A threshold concentration 288 (before asymptotic values) is achieved for normality superior to 0.8 N H₂SO₄, HCl and 0.75 N HNO₃. 289 Further increases of the normality improve the recovery of REE by only a few percent whereas 290 contaminant concentrations continue to increase. REY recovery levels using HNO₃ are smaller 291 compared with HCl and H₂SO₄. Although all three are strong acids, there are multiple orders of 292 magnitude difference in their respective dissociation constant ($pK_a = -6.3, -3$ and -1.4 for HCl, H_2SO_4 and HNO₃ respectively) which explains the lower efficiency of HNO₃. 293

Another important factor influencing REY recovery is the Liquid-to-Solid (LS) ratio, or pulp density. REY yields increase with increasing LS ratio up to 20 with recovery rates of 72%, 83% and 82% for nitric, sulphuric and hydrochloric acid respectively. Further improvements in REY recovery is only minor at higher LS ratios for nitric and hydrochloric acid. In contrast, an improvement of nearly 10% is achieved with sulphuric acid between SL ratio of 20 and 100. This effect can be partly explained by the partial neutralisation of the diluted acid during the reaction with umbers (Ochsenkühn-Petropulu et al., 1996).

301 A threshold reaction time greater than 100 min is observed for the two acids tested here with only 302 minor improvements in REY recoveries for longer leaching times (Figure 1). For HCl, the total 303 recovery increases for the first 2 hours of reaction then levels off, with only a 4% gain in the recovery 304 of REY in the next 11 h of additional reaction time. The reason why the sulphuric acid gave lower 305 yields compared to other tests at equivalent concentration, LS ratio and time of reaction is not 306 known. Nevertheless, during reaction more than 75% of the total recovery was achieved after only 307 15 min for both acids, suggesting rapid reaction kinetics of extraction. However, the major elements 308 recovery continuously increased with reaction time, therefore, shorter reaction times limit the 309 amount of impurities mobilised into the leach liquor.

As acid activity increases with temperature, elemental recovery in the leach increases as a function of temperature. Recovery for REY increases by 19% when using HCl as the leaching temperature rises from 20 to 70 °C, ultimately reaching 93% recovery of the initial REY content. However, no improvement in REY recovery is observed when increasing the temperature for the nitric and sulphuric acid leach.

These results show that temperature is a key parameter during REY recovery using HCl especially at temperatures of around 70 °C.

317 In all experiments, the recovery of U and Th follow similar trends to the REY but reaching asymptotic

recoveries between 20 and 50% for Th and 40 to 70% for U across the range of parameters tested.

319 Despite the discernible mobilisation of these elements, their combined concentrations are below 3

320 mg.kg⁻¹ in all leachates.



Figure 1: Rare earth element and yttrium recovery in the leaching solution testing the influence of lixiviant molarity, liquid to solid ratio, time of reaction and temperature.

325 4.3 Multiple stage leaching conditions

326 Simple leaching experiments recovered > 80% of the initial REY content of the sample with acid

327 concentrations greater than 0.8 N. Unfortunately, undesirable impurities such as Ca and Na also

display strong leaching efficiencies (40 - 70%) in the weakest acid concentrations.

A two-stage leaching process was designed using 0.05 N HCl acid for 1 h in a first stage (L1) to

- investigate the possible separation of impurities contained in easily dissolved phases from rare
- arth and yttrium. Following centrifuging and extraction of the liquid phase, a 1 N acid solution is
- introduced to the sample and allowed to react for another hour on a shaking table (L2).

333 The first leach with weak acid shows that 66% of Ca, 64% of Na and more than 20% of Sr and U 334 passes into solution (Figure 2). The release of REY in L1 is moderate ranging from 12 to 21% although 335 the most abundant RE, La and Nd, are amongst the least mobilized. In contrast, yttrium, third most abundant RE in umbers shows the greatest recovery of the RE during the first stage of leaching 336 337 (~21%). In L2, the REY recovery is greater than 65% (up to 76%, with the exception of Ce) for the 3 338 most abundant REY (La, Nd, Y) whereas the recovery continuously decreases for the heavy REE 339 (HREE) with only 43% recovery for Lu. Similar trends and levels of recovery were observed for L1 340 with other weak nitric acid leaching whereas L2 is closer to HNO₃ and HCl recovery trends at higher 341 molarity although yields are lower by 10 to 20% (supplementary Figure 2).



342



344 Consequently, a two-stage leaching process appears to be a viable way of increasing the purity of 345 the leach solution containing the dominant fraction of REY by removing 60 - 65% of the main 346 impurities Ca and Na. These elements are present at less than 15% of their initial concentration in 347 L2 compared to a single leaching step. However, 13.5% of the sample's REY, equivalent to 19.6% of 348 the overall inventory of leachable REY, are lost at the L1 stage, which constitutes an important loss 349 considering the already low concentrations of REY in the umber ores available for recovery. Although the leaching efficiency for most major elements is below 10% (apart Na and Ca), the mass 350 351 of major elements dominate the overall composition of the leachates and highlights that further 352 steps of purification are needed.

Protocols of sequential leaching for nodules and hydrogenetic ferromanganese crusts (Koschinsky and Halbach, 1995) have already been widely used for the study of trace elements partitioning between the main mineralogical phases of these marine deposits. Applying this protocol to umbers yielded no significant REY recoveries for the first 2 leachates using acetic acid and hydroxylamine hydrochloride (5.8% and 3.9% respectively). Most REY were retrieved in the solution during the third leach when oxalic acid is employed attacking the dominant amorphous Fe oxide fraction of umbers. However, although REY recovery was good (53%), impurities, mainly Fe, were far greater than in other leachates previously produced, and the oxalic acid protocol is considered tooaggressive for the purpose of this study.

362 **4.4 Purification of the leachate via oxalate precipitation**

363 The precipitation of REY as an oxalate cake is widely used in industry for the selective extraction of 364 targeted metals (Vander Hoogerstraete et al., 2014, Xie et al., 2014). However, this method is 365 usually applied to leachates of pre-concentrated REY-bearing minerals such as xenotime, bastnäsite 366 or monazite (Xie et al., 2014). These approaches form REY-rich leachates (1 to 40 g.L⁻¹) and limit the 367 amount of impurities in the solution. In contrast to leach solutions produced by the treatment of pre-concentrated REE-bearing minerals, the challenge of this study lies in the initially low rare earth 368 369 elements concentration of the leach (0.1 - 0.5 g.L⁻¹) and the high concentration of impurities 370 imposed by the non-pre-treatment of umbers for the concentration of a REE-bearing phase. We 371 investigated, as a function of pH, the selective precipitation of RE-oxalate from other elements 372 considered as impurities.

373 4.5 Elemental partitioning between solution and precipitate in various pH

374 The distribution of measured element concentrations between the initial leachate and subsequent 375 precipitate is calculated as a mass percentage (Figure 3). Over the range of pH values considered, 376 Na, Mg, Al, K, Ti and Fe do not appear to partition into the solid phase, with less than 1% of the 377 measured mass retrieved in the precipitate for Mg, Al, K and Fe, and < 2% for Na and Ti. Ca shows 378 the greatest variation with no precipitation at pH < 1.2 and nearly complete precipitation achieved 379 with the oxalate at pH > 1.5. The virtually complete precipitation of Ca observed in the pH window 380 1.2 - 1.5 appears to drive most of the other major element variations (Figure 3). Manganese precipitation begins at pH = 1.5 and gradually increases from 0.3% at pH = 1.5, to 8.6% at pH = 3.15. 381 382 Similar precipitation trends are observed for Ba and Sr that are completely depleted in the 383 precipitate at pH < 1.5, and then strongly and continuously increase as pH becomes less acidic, with 384 up to 45% and 89% mass fraction in the solid for Ba and Sr respectively at pH = 3.15. Scandium, V, 385 Co, Ni, Cu display a similar behaviour with important precipitation occurring at pH = 1.5, although 386 their relative fraction in the solid phase decreases at higher pH values. These patterns (Figure 3) 387 suggest metal co-precipitation with Ca oxalates, the dominant phase of complexation by mass.

The partition trends of the REY into the solid show that nearly complete precipitation of rare earth elements with oxalates is achieved between pH 1.3 and 2.3 (Figure 3). Outside of these limits, the fractionation varies along the REE series. In the pH window 0.75 - 1.3, all REY show increasing affinity for oxalate complexes as a function of increasing pH. However, this fractionation between the solid or liquid phase is not equal across the lanthanides. Uptake within the solid phase increases from La to Eu to then decreases until Lu. In contrast, at pH > 2.5 a decreasing gradient of affinity for 394 the oxalate ligand is observed from light to heavy REE, which suggests a control of the ionic radius

395 on the complexation of REE with oxalates at pH > 2.3 where light REE are preferentially incorporated

396 over HREE.



Figure 3: Element fractionation in the oxalate precipitate (mass percentage) as a function of pH from thestock leach solution.

400 **4.6 Purity of the precipitate**

As demonstrated by the mass distribution between solid and liquid phases, the precipitation of oxalates constitutes an effective stage for the purification of the leach solution. Nearly complete precipitation of REE can be realized, while most major and trace elements, considered as impurities, remain in solution. However, these trends do not address the purity of the precipitate, as substantial differences in mass are not considered in the above results.

406 The purity of the precipitate is analysed as the ratio of the total mass of rare earth and yttrium (REY) 407 divided by the sum of all measured masses (Figure 4). Disregarding the mass of the oxalates, the 408 total mass of the precipitate expressed as the sum of all other elements measured in the oxalate 409 precipitate range from 30 to 4900 μ g with Ca making up 70 to 91% of the precipitate at pH > 1.3. 410 Accordingly, with more than 90% of the total REY mass precipitated from the stock leach solution 411 at pH > 1.1, the purity increases strongly at lower pH, where mostly REY bind with oxalates to reach 412 a maximum at pH 1.1. The purity then decreases as Ca, the main impurity, starts to precipitate. The 413 cumulated masses for all other elements apart from Ca and REY only account for 18 wt.% of the





Figure 4: Element masses within the oxalate precipitate as a function of pH. The right-hand axis representsthe REY fraction or purity of the precipitate (%).

416

420 4.7 Precipitate structures

421 Duplicates of the oxalate precipitation experiments were completed at pH 1.1 and 2.5 for SEM 422 imaging. Two distinct crystal structures are observed between the two experiments, which reflects 423 the difference in composition, notably the Ca content. At pH 1.1, oxalate crystals show platy 424 prismatic and rectangular shapes up to 100 µm with smaller crest-like crystals covering them (Figure 425 5 A and B). Studies of $Ln_2(C_2O_4).nH_2O$ crystal microstructure (Zinin and Bushuev, 2014) have 426 demonstrated crystallization of RE-oxalate in the monoclinic system. Oxalate crystals formed at pH 427 2.5 consist predominantly of small $(-10 \,\mu\text{m})$ rhombic bipyramid (Figure 5 C & D). Energy-dispersive 428 X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) data were acquired for bulk areas, zones with specific crystal structure as 429 well as spot analyses. The EDS spectrum and associated chemical data (Figure 6, supplementary 430 table 3 and 4) are in good agreement with previous results on the purity of precipitates deduced 431 from ICP measurements.

The EDS spectra highlight that 9 out of the 15 REY are in detectable range within the oxalate crystal at pH 1.1 whereas only Y, La and Nd, the three most concentrated REY in the experiment are detected in oxalate crystals precipitated at pH 2.5 (Figure 6). The total REY content at pH 1.1 is estimated to represent 85 to 94% of element precipitating with the oxalate. Variations of composition and REY distribution between the different crystals morphologies do not appear to correlate with shape or size. Large and well-formed crystals analysed (area_Xlarge and area_Xlarge2) encompass the range of measured REY concentrations, whereas smaller crystals with

- 439 a crest-like shape have an intermediate composition (Supplementary Table 3 and 4). At pH 2.5, Ca
- dominates the elements co-precipitating with oxalates (78 85%) and combined Y, La and Nd
- 441 concentration reach a maximum of 7%, in good agreement with ICP-MS results and purity estimates
- 442 (Supplementary table 3 and 4).



Figure 5: Backscatter image of oxalate precipitate at pH 1.1 (A and B) and at pH 2.5 (C and D). Areas and location of EDS spot analysis are shown on the figure (Supplementary tables 3 and 4).



Figure 6: EDS spectrum of the oxalate precipitate obtain at pH 1.1 (A) and 2.5 (B). The spectra correspond
to the field of view in images A and C of Figure 5. The presence of Al and Cu in measurement (A) reflects the
composition of the Al-Cu pellets, these elements are absent of any precise crystal EDS analysis otherwise.

450

451 **4.8 Overall REY recovery and distribution**

The stock leach solution used for the oxalate precipitation experiment, corrected for appropriate 452 dilution factors regarding sample PJ-CY-2014-91, contain 406 mg.kg⁻¹ REY consisting of 25.2% La, 453 454 24.7% Nd and 18.5% Y. The recovery rate for individual rare earth elements by the leaching 455 procedure is > 95% for Pr, Nd, Sm, Eu, Gd, Y and Tb, 90% for La, with the recovery of the heavy rare 456 earth elements decreasing with increasing atomic number from Dy (92%) to Lu (65%) (Supplementary Figure 3). The total REY content of the leachate consequently represents a yield of 457 458 77% of the initial REY content of the umber sample. The greatest loss occurs due to the poor 459 recovery of Ce (30%), which contributes up to 62% of the total REY content not mobilised by leaching. In contrast to the other trivalent REE, Ce is present as Ce⁴⁺, which forms acid-resistant Ce 460 461 oxide complexes (Bau and Koschinsky, 2009).

The formation of an oxalate precipitate has been demonstrated to be an efficient way of selectively 462 463 precipitating REE from the solution and separating them from other impurities with an efficiency strongly dependent on pH. The minimal uptake during precipitation is observed for pH = 0.89464 465 (61.5%) and rapidly increases up to pH = 1.3 where precipitation efficiency is > 96% for all REY. 466 Adding the efficiency of oxalate precipitation on the leaching process (85% recovery at 70 °C), the 467 REY recovery in the oxalate precipitate relative to the original sample increases from 51% of the 468 initial REY content at pH = 0.89 to 82% for pH = 1.3 - 2. Relative to the impurities that are coprecipitating, the optimal purity for the precipitate is achieved for pH = 1.1 where 76% of the initial 469 470 REY content of the sample is recovered. Based on these values following optimal leaching and 471 precipitation conditions, the processing of 1 ton of umber with an average 500 mg.kg⁻¹ REY would 472 produce an oxalate precipitate containing 380 g of mixed rare earth elements.

473 **4.9 geochemical modelling of REY recovery**

474 4.9.1 Model conditions and available data

Detailed recovery trends within the oxalate precipitate (Figure 3) have highlighted the strong fractionation that occurs along the lanthanide series at pH values < 1.5. In addition, the decreasing recovery observed at pH > 2 as a function of atomic number constitutes another unexplained observation. Although HREE are present in only minor concentrations in umbers (average Σ HREE = Σ [Tb-Lu; Y] = 147 ± 34 mg.kg⁻¹, n = 59, (Josso, 2017)), they attract the greatest commercial values, which justifies further exploration of the reasons for their less efficient recovery. Furthermore, 481 speciation of oxalic acid as a function of pH (Supplementary Figure 4) shows that the presence of 482 oxalate ion $C_2O_4^{2-}$ is minimal in the pH window considered here, although the precipitation of REE 483 oxalate is observed at pH 0.8 and decreases at higher pH when the activity of Ox^{2-} increases 484 (Supplementary Figure 4 (Chi and Xu, 1998)). To explore these questions, speciation modelling was 485 performed using PHREEQC (Parkhurst and Appelo, 2013) to reproduce the chemistry involved in 486 the precipitation experiments.

Following the conditions of the precipitation experiments, the REE contained in the leachate are partitioned between the solution and the precipitate formed after the addition of ammonium oxalate. However, not all oxalate ions will be in the correct ionic form to bind with REY to precipitate and form aqueous complexes that may remain in solution (supplementary Figure 4). Potential aqueous complexes of REY³⁺ and oxalates can be described (Eq. 1 and 2) taking into account the bioxalate (HOx⁻) and oxalate (Ox²⁻) ions such that:

493 Eq. 1:
$$_{HOx}\beta_m = [REY(HOx)_m^{3-m}]$$

494 Eq.2:
$${}_{Ox}\beta_n = [MOx_n^{3-2n}]$$

Where $_{HOx}\beta_m$ is the mth (order of complexation) stability constant of the bioxalate (HOx⁻) ion with any REY³⁺ and $_{Ox}\beta_n$ the nth stability constant of oxalate ion (Ox²⁻) with any REY³⁺. Schijf and Byrne (2001) showed that one orders of complexation for bioxalate (m = 1) and 2 for oxalate ions (n = 2) are satisfactory for modelling REY binding behaviour with oxalates in aqueous solution as further orders of complexation are minor.

500 Precipitating REE-oxalate complexes have been reported to form hydrated REY salts (Eq. 3) such501 that:

502 Eq. 3:
$$2\text{REY}^{3+} + 3\text{OX}^{2-} + \text{nH2O} \rightarrow \text{REY}_2\text{Ox}_3.\text{nH}_2\text{O}$$

503 Although the formation of solid REY oxalates complexes has been considered since the 1950's 504 (Crouthamel and Martin, 1951, Feibush et al., 1958, Bhat and Rao, 1964, Grenthe et al., 1969, Chi 505 and Xu, 1998, Chung et al., 1998, Schijf and Byrne, 2001, Xiong, 2011), a complete set of solubility 506 constants for solid rare earth oxalate remains elusive with no study presenting results for all 507 lanthanides and Y simultaneously under identical experimental conditions. The most complete data 508 set on REY₂Ox₃.nH₂O complexes are from Bhat and Rao (1964), Chung et al. (1998) and Xiong (2011) 509 (Table 5). Although diverging by two log units, two of the sets are consistent in showing increasing 510 solubility constants from La to Gd, with decreasing values along the HREE. This behaviour contrasts 511 with the variations in $\log_{0x}\beta_{1-2}$ for aqueous REY oxalates complexes that show a continuous increase 512 across the lanthanides (Table 5).

Although data from Xiong (2011) lack information on HREE, they present a better comparison with those of Chung et al. (1998) with similar constants for La, Ce and Sm, whereas data from Bhat and Rao (1964) for La, Nd and Tb are low compared to their direct neighbours suggesting the presence of potential errors.

517 With relatively complete data over the lanthanide series and consistency with other studies, data 518 from Chung et al. (1998) are used to estimate missing constants by using linear free-energy 519 relationships in combination with the NIST databases for critical stability constant (Smith and 520 Martell, 2004). Best matches were obtained by initially filtering the NIST database by $\log \beta_{La} / \log \beta_{Sm}$ 521 < 1 and $\log\beta_{Gd}/\log\beta_{Yb}$ > 1 ratios to match the incomplete convex upwards trends formed by oxalate 522 data. Accordingly, REE stability constants of 14 acids have been compared with data from Chung et 523 al. (1998) (Supplementary Figure 1) and best-fit (R² = 0.94) observed for a phenol (2-Nitroso-1-524 Naphtol-8-sulfonic acid) giving the following equation of linear regression to estimate missing 525 constant for Pr, Tb, Ho, Tm and Yb (Table 5), here exemplified for Pr (Eq. 4):

	$\text{Log}_{\text{HOx}}\beta_1$	$\text{Log}_{\text{Ox}}\beta_1$	$Log_{Ox}\beta_2$	Log _{Ox} β _{RE2Ox3.nH2O}			$Log_{PHENOL}\beta$	Calculated Log $_{\text{Ox}}\beta$ RE2Ox3.nH2O	
		Schijf and		Bhat and	Chung et	Xiong	Martell and	LFER linear	% diff
	By	rne (2001)		Rao (1964)	al, (1998)	(2011)	Smith (1982)	regression	78 UTT
Υ	2.08	6.66	11.27	-28.91	-29.29	na	na	na	
La	1.92	5.87	10.47	-26.91	-29.22	-29.15	4.70	-29.37	-0.51
Ce	2.43	5.97	10.86	-28.79	-30.40	-30.18	5.04	-30.13	0.88
Pr	2.09	6.25	10.82	-29.64	na	-30.91	5.28	-30.67	
Nd	2.16	6.31	10.82	-29.69	-30.89	-31.57	5.46	-31.07	-0.59
Sm	2.35	6.43	11.08	-30.30	-31.35	-31.59	5.65	-31.49	-0.46
Eu	2.21	6.52	11.09	na	-31.38	na	5.61	-31.40	-0.08
Gd	2.04	6.53	11.10	-29.49	-31.37	-32.31	5.50	-31.16	0.69
Тb	2.29	6.63	11.27	-29.14	na	na	5.33	-30.78	
Dy	1.96	6.74	11.35	-29.44	-30.70	na	5.21	-30.51	0.62
Но	2.17	6.77	11.41	na	na	na	5.10	-30.26	
Er	2.09	6.83	11.51	-28.82	-30.05	na	5.01	-30.06	-0.06
Tm	2.18	6.89	11.65	na	na	na	4.97	-29.97	
Yb	2.41	6.95	11.75	-28.25	-30.02	na	5.06	-30.17	-0.51
Lu	2.28	6.96	11.77	na	na	na	5.06	-30.17	

526 Eq. 4: $Log_{Ox}\beta_{Pr2Ox3.nH2O} = -2.232 Log_{PHENOL}\beta_{Pr} - 18.88$.

527

528Table 5: Data used in the model to calculate REE speciation between aqueous and precipitating oxalate529complexes. Missing data for solid oxalate complexes were calculated using LFER. Estimations530between the linear regression and available data show at most ± 0.9% difference with published531values.

532 The PHREEQC speciation modelling therefore considers the following reactions (Eq. 5 - 8) in

addition to any form of complexation already included within the thermodynamic LLNL database

534 used calculations:

535 Eq. 5: $RE^{3+} + HOx^{-} = REHOx^{2+}$ (aq.)

536 Eq. 6: $RE^{3+} + Ox^{2-} = REOx^+$ (aq.)

537 Eq. 7: $RE^{3+} + 2Ox^{2-} = RE(Ox)_{2-}^{-}$ (aq.)

538 Eq. 8: $2RE^{3+} + 3Ox^{2-} + nH_2O = RE_2Ox_3.nH_2O$ (s)

In a similar way to REE, only partial data exists to describe oxalate complexation with other major or trace elements. Some data exists for Ca oxalates complexes (Martell and Smith, 1977, 1982), which is convenient for this study as Ca constitutes the dominant impurity in the REY liquor. Therefore, only the complexation of Ca and the rare earths are taken into account in this simplified model of previous experiments. The model was set up to calculate speciation of each rare earth with the 3 aqueous oxalate complexes and include the kinetic effect of REY-oxalate solid precipitation if saturation was reached.

546 **4.9.2 Model results.**

The 5 most abundant complexes present in the results of the model have been selected and are displayed on Figure 7. Combined they account for > 94% of REY complexes at the lowest pH and > 99% at pH > 1. Using experimental conditions and complexes calculated from the LLNL database, oxalate-binding dominates REE complexation. Other complexes considered in the calculation such as RE³⁺ and REOH²⁺ are only present in the model at pH < 1 and account for less than 1% of dissolved REE.

553 Speciation calculated using PHREEQC with REE concentrations similar to those in the precipitation 554 experiments displays important differences along the lanthanide series and show divergences with 555 experimental results. In the range of pH and concentrations explored here, the Ca-oxalate 556 complexes considered never reach saturation and remain in solution. In contrast with the 557 experiments, no steep precipitation curve is observed between pH 1.1 and 1.5. Another major 558 difference in the results from the model concerns the total lack of precipitation for Tb, Ho, Er, Tm, 559 Yb and Lu. For these elements, complexation is dominated by aqueous single oxalates at pH < 0.8560 and then by increasing proportions of double oxalate at more than 90% at pH > 1.6. It is important 561 to note that these 6 elements have some of the lowest concentrations in solution ([RE] < 220 ppb). 562 Interestingly, Eu precipitates although its concentration is only 138 ppb. All elements precipitating 563 display convex upward trends of precipitation as a function of pH with a maximum reached for pH 564 0.9 - 1.1 (Figure 7). All these bell-shape curves show diverse degrees of slope inversely related to 565 the concentration of RE in the stock leach solution. These observations suggest a control of both 566 concentration and atomic number in the speciation of REE-oxalates.



567

Figure 7: REE and Ca speciation with oxalate as a function of pH calculated using PHREEQC. Initial
 concentrations used replicate the initial experimental design. Experimental results (black line
 and white squares) are overlaid for comparison and should be compared with the modelling
 of RE₂Ox₃.nH₂O complexes.

572 Accordingly, the modelling was further adjusted to test these hypotheses by calculating the 573 speciation of all lanthanides in equal concentration at 0.1, 0.5, 1, 5 and 10 mg.kg⁻¹. Complete 574 speciation results for each concentration are available in supplementary Figure 5 to 9. Figure 8 575 presents the formation of RE-oxalates precipitated at different concentrations for 6 selected rare 576 earth elements along the lanthanide series. From the following models, the formation of solid RE-577 oxalate increases up to pH 0.9 - 1.1 but decreases thereafter. The position of the maximum 578 precipitation is not constant and evolves from pH 1.1 to 0.9 as a function of increasing atomic 579 number. In addition, the formation of a precipitate is directly affected by the initial rare earth 580 concentration in solution. It appears that the formation of middle rare earth oxalate is favoured 581 against light- and even more so against heavy-rare earth oxalate at equal concentrations. This

582 distribution can be considered as a direct representation of the stability constant RE20x3.nH20 & where 583 constants increase from La to Gd and decrease again through the heavy rare earth elements. 584 However, although the stability constant of La is the lowest, modelling shows formation of La-585 oxalate at potentially lower concentrations than is possible for the heavy rare earths to form solid 586 complexes. This suggests that the HREE are affected by another parameter that inhibits their 587 precipitation. Species distribution (supplementary Figure 5 to 9) highlights the increasing 588 dominance of $REOx_2^{-}$ aqueous complexes as pH increase up to the point of inhibiting the formation of solid oxalates. Although the stability constant $_{0x}\beta_2$ increases as a function of the atomic number 589 590 (log $K_2 = 10.5 - 11.7$ from La to Lu) and could account for the decreasing formation in solid oxalates 591 for HREE by competing in REE binding, this interpretation is counter intuitive considering 592 RE2Ox3.nH2O $\beta >> Ox\beta_2$.





Figure 8: RE-oxalate precipitation as a function of the initial concentration of REE in the initial solution and
 modelling as function of increasing REE concentration. All other parameters are as in the
 experiment. Experimental results (black line and white squares) are overlaid for comparison.

597 Although the modelled and experimental trend for the precipitation of REE oxalate do not agree 598 exactly, the model reproduces some of the observations from the experiments. For example: The fractionation observed in the recovery from the experiments and the model at pH
 < 1.1 follows closely the bell-shape of the RE₂Ox₃.nH₂O stability constant

6012) The models show that at equal concentrations, the formation of precipitating RE-602oxalate is favoured in the following order: MREE > LREE >> HREE. This trend results603from (i) the positive gradient of $\log_{0x}\beta_2$ along the lanthanide series coupled to (ii) the604increase of competing species (e.g., dominantly Ca) consuming oxalate ions.605Accounting for the initial differences in concentration in the experiment, this explains606the decreasing recovery of the HREE observed in the experiment at pH > 2.

607 Under the model conditions, the maximum formation of a REE oxalate precipitate occurs at pH 1, 608 similar to values previously reported for the purification of monazite leach liquor (Salman et al., 609 2014). The species distribution following oxalic acid dissociation (Supplementary Figure 4) shows 610 that Ox^{2} ions represent less than 0.03% of the total oxalate species distribution at pH 1. In contrast, at pH 3 and above the Ox²⁻ concentration increases steeply and dominates species distribution at 611 612 pH > 4.2. However, precipitation in the model is low. The dominance of Re₂Ox₃ complexes over 613 aqueous complexes at pH 0.9 - 1.1 can be understood as a constant balance of the system. Free 614 trivalent REE partitioning between the different oxalate complexes follows the magnitude of the stability constants. Therefore RE³⁺ will bind dominantly with Ox²⁻ over HOx⁻ to form a precipitate 615 616 until Ox^{2} becomes the limiting reactant. The system therefore balances the equilibrium induced by 617 the decrease of $[Ox^{2-}]$ at a fixed pH, by dissociating more oxalic acid into HOx⁻ and Ox²⁻. The newly 618 formed Ox²⁻ ions are therefore readily available for complexation with free RE³⁺ in the solution and 619 precipitate. The cycle carries on balancing until one of the other reactants becomes limiting. The 620 decrease in Re₂Ox₃ at higher pH in favour of aqueous RE-oxalate complexes relates to the increasing 621 competition in oxalate binding from Ca^{2+} which starts to precipitate at pH > 1.1 and is largely in excess over [HOx⁻] and [Ox²⁻]. As pH rises, more oxalate and bioxalate ions bind with Ca over REY 622 due to its much greater abundance in solution; 25 to > 3000 times the REY concentration. Oxalates 623 624 constitute a chelating agent for REE and usually binds forming bidentate ligand with a ring structure 625 to form precipitates (Hansson, 1970, Rao *et al.*, 2004). The decreasing availability of Ox²⁻ at higher pH due to binding with Ca, prevents the formation of these ring structure and explains the dominant 626 627 complexation of RE³⁺ as aqueous complexes.

The absence of Ca oxalate precipitation in the model may explain the observed difference between REY recovery trends from the model and the experiment at pH > 2. In the experiments, Ca oxalate is the dominant precipitate at pH > 1.5 and REY are included as co-precipitating elements within the newly formed crystals. This may explain why REY recovery trends do not decrease as steeply as in the numerical model. Furthermore, a level of supersaturation of oxalate ion might be needed for the precipitation of a solid phase which is not considered in this model. This parameter might also 634 contribute to the underestimation of the model for RE₂Ox₃ precipitation run at the experimental635 concentrations.

636 **5. Discussion**

637 5.2 Leaching efficiency

638 The use of ionic solutions tested here has proven to be inefficient for the leaching of REY from 639 umbers. Although this method is widely used in China for the treatment of REY adsorbed in clay 640 with economic yields, a similar approach applied here resulted in only 0.3% REY recovery in optimal 641 kinetic conditions. These results highlight a major difference between IAC and umber deposits 642 considering REY location and binding within the deposit. Although REY were initially adsorbed on 643 the surface of Fe and Mn oxides during umber deposition in the Tethyan Ocean, the REY can no 644 longer be considered as easily exchangeable cations and stronger acid conditions are needed for 645 their extraction. This can be partly in response to modifications in the structure and mineralogy of 646 umbers induced by diagenesis of the deposits. Umbers comprise only minor goethite, quartz and 647 zeolite, with amorphous Fe-Mn oxides still dominant suggesting that REY remain bound to the 648 oxides, although they might be incorporated within the oxide matrix following diagenesis and 649 cannot be substituted easily by ions of equivalent size at neutral pH.

650 5.1 REE leachability

In all acid leaching experiments, the mobilization of REY has been more efficient compared to the recovery of other minor elements scavenged by Fe and Mn oxides. The REY, in all oxidation states, have large ionic radii (0.86 - 1.04 Å), up to 60% larger, when compared to other cations potentially adsorbed like V (0.79 Å), Zn (0.74 Å), Cu (0.73 Å), Ni (0.69 Å) and Co (0.65 Å) in divalent state (Shannon, 1976). This difference in ionic size might account for their ease of extraction compared to these other elements, as they do not fit within the oxide structure as readily as other transition metals.

The upper limit for REY recovery, ~80-92% of the total REY content in the original sediment, emphasizes the distinction between REY loosely bound to amorphous oxides and those incorporated within the mineral structure of minor minerals formed during diagenesis such as goethite which are more resistant to the acid leach. The grain size of the material to be leached also constitutes an important parameter to take into account to improve recovery. This parameter can easily be adjusted in a processing plant and the crushing size will have a positive impact on the potential release of REY as the reaction area increases.

665 5.2 Optimal leaching conditions

Through the experiments carried out in laboratory conditions, all parameters tested indicates a
kinetic control over the release of REY in the solution, approaching a maximum of 80 - 92% REY

668 extracted depending on the acid used. Threshold values when approaching asymptotes can be 669 considered as the lowest conditions of the parameter tested to apply to optimize REY extraction for 670 each parameter in the most cost-effective way. By implementing beyond threshold leaching 671 settings of the n experiment within the n+1 test, optimal leaching conditions can be determined for 672 an optimized REY extraction recipe considering acid concentration, pulp density, time of reaction 673 and temperature. From the results reported here (Figure 1), it can be estimated that optimal 674 extraction of REY from umbers can be achieved with either inorganic acid concentrated at 1 N, 70°C, 675 SL ratio > 10 in 1 h on a shaking table that would give a yield equivalent or superior to 90% of the 676 initial REY content (Table 6).

	Molarity				LS ratio			Time				Temperature		
	Treshold	Yield	max	Yield	Treshold	Yield	max	Yield	Treshold	Yield	max	Yield	max	Yield
	М	%	Μ	%	-	%	-	%	minutes	%	hours	%	°C	%
HNO ₃	0.75	73	1.75	80	10	73	100	76	х	Х	Х	Х	70	84
H_2SO_4	0.4	83	1.75	81	20	81	100	92	45	62	9	68	70	81
HCI	0.75	81	1.75	85	10	82	100	87	120	73	13	77	70	93

677

Table 6: Rare earth and yttrium yields from acid leaching experiments at the threshold (before asymptotic
inflection) and maximum test parameter values.

680 This leaching process, when compared with industrial processes for the treatment of REY ore from 681 alkaline rocks, pegmatites or carbonatites is relatively advantageous. It requires only low acid 682 concentrations and near ambient temperatures, in contrast to cracking methods that employ 683 concentrated acids and elevated temperatures (> 200 °C), and yields good performance considering 684 no physical pre-concentration treatment is needed apart from crushing and pulverizing of the ore. 685 Compared to IAC heap leaching (Vahidi et al., 2016), the process applied for umbers treatment is 686 relatively similar with an overall comparable efficiency although acid conditions are required. 687 However, the umber leaching process requires only a few hours, in strong contrast to the 150 - 400 688 days required for IACs.

689 **5.3 From Laboratory to industrial scale**

The projection of these results obtained in laboratory experiments to the industrial scale should
 consider the following adjustments for processing costs reduction and optimization of the plant
 economic viability.

Optimal conditions for the leaching of umbers have shown that large volumes of acid are needed as 10:1 LS ratios are used. Implementing a distillation step following the leaching would allow recovering hydrochloric acid after condensing to recycle in the next batch (Figure 9). Here, the additional cost of heating up for distillation is counterbalanced by the significant reduction of volume of reactant needed on a long-term period. Furthermore, leaching efficiency is improved at higher temperatures and could therefore benefit from the higher temperature of distilled HCI. 699 Numerical modelling has demonstrated the importance of the initial leach REE concentration for 700 the precipitation of oxalates. The higher the initial REE concentration the higher the precipitation 701 efficiency. Therefore, the distillation and associated evaporation would induce an 702 overconcentration of elements contained in the leach liquor and significantly increase oxalate 703 precipitation efficiency that in turn would lead to a reduction in oxalate consumption.

Similar to HCl recycling, consumption of ammonium oxalate can be greatly reduced if the oxalate
 cake is digested by sodium hydroxide (Eq. 9). This reaction allows the conversion of REY oxalate into
 hydroxides and formation of sodium oxalate salts (Habashi, 2013) such that:

707 Eq. 9: $RE_2Ox_3 + 6NaOH^- \rightarrow 2RE(OH)_3 + Na_xOx_y$

The hydroxides are then calcined to form a mix REY oxide product and the sodium oxalate reintroduced as a reactant in the precipitation step (Figure 9).





Figure 9: Optimized workflow of metalliferous sediment processing for the extraction of REY by simple acid
leaching and oxalate precipitation.

713 **5.3 Umber deposits as a potential REY resources in Cyprus and beyond**

714 Umbers from Cyprus have been quarried extensively for pigments since ancient time and more 715 recently for cement with a production decreasing from 30,000 tons per year in the late 70's to an 716 average 6,000 tons per year in the last decade (Morse and Stevens, 1979, Cyprus Geological Survey, 717 2006). This reduction in umber exploitation is related to both the decrease in the use of umber as 718 a natural pigment in paint or cement and to the great reduction of available, mineable umber 719 accumulations. Most umber deposits in Cyprus comprise outcrops limited in size to tens of meters 720 length for 1 or 2 meters thickness following the original paleo topography of the oceanic floor. Such 721 outcrops are too dismembered to present any economic potential due to limited availability of the 722 resource. However, incorporating REY production to the existing processing of umbers could bring 723 an important value to such exploitation and reduce economic vulnerability by diversifying end-

724 products. This seems to be the strategy employed in a number of alternative deposits whereby REY 725 extraction could be cost-effective from tailings as a by-product after main ore treatment such as 726 processed bauxite (Tsakanika et al., 2004, Qu and Lian, 2013, Ujaczki et al., 2015, Deady et al., 2016) 727 or in coal residue (Rozelle et al., 2016b). However, in the case of umbers, the extraction of REY by 728 acid leaching has to happen as a first step and the residue can be neutralised, dried and sold as a 729 pigment. Indeed, the leaching process using weak acid does not affect the overall mineralogy of 730 umbers as REY are mainly associated with the amorphous oxide phase (Supplementary Figure 10) 731 and the amount of leached Fe and Mn oxides, essential for the pigment quality, remains minor (< 732 3%).

733 Although umbers deposits in Cyprus are now too scarce to be economically viable, similar 734 metalliferous sediment deposits can be found in most ophiolitic sequences preserved on land with 735 significant tonnage to be considered of interest. Potential deposits include the multiple occurrences 736 of umberiferous deposits in Japan, such as the Mineoka Hills (Kenzai Industrial Company), the 737 Kunimiyama deposits in the Chichibu Belt, and the Mugi and Tyujin umbers in the Shimanto belt 738 (Kato et al., 2005a, Kato et al., 2005b). These umber deposits are on average 4 m thick but 739 commonly reach up to 12 m. With respect to Tethyan ophiolites, metalliferous ferromanganese 740 sediments are found in association with many of the Eurasian Tethyan ophiolite complexes, but 741 generally occur as small discrete bodies comparable to umbers in Troodos. Similar deposits are 742 described from the Othris and Pindos Ophiolites (Greece) (Robertson and Varnavas, 1993b), the 743 Kizildag (Hatay) Ophiolite (southern Turkey) (Robertson, 2002), or in the Semail Ophilite. The 744 application of the hydrometallurgical process developed here for the Troodos umbers could be applied to these deposits given their similar nature, and therefore provide local sources for the 745 746 production of rare earth metals.

747 6. Conclusions

Using Umbers, ferromanganese metalliferous sediments from the Troodos Ophiolite, as feedstock,
the effectiveness of REY release in a leachate followed by selective precipitation was evaluated
under different processing conditions.

751 In contrast to the liberation of REY from many of the current ore feedstock's, the extraction of rare 752 earth elements from umbers by simple leaching using common industrial acids is effective without accumulation of radioactive by-products, and processes can be refined to maximise leaching 753 754 efficiencies by adjusting acid concentration, temperature, pulp density and time of reaction. 755 Although ionic solutions such as sodium chloride or ammonium sulphate are widely used in China 756 for the treatment of ion adsorption clays, such approaches were not effective for leaching REY, 757 demonstrating that REY could not be considered as easily exchangeable cations in umbers, and that 758 stronger acid conditions are necessary for their extraction. Acid-promoted REY release displays 759 hyperbolic trends of recovery for all kinetic parameters tested. REY constitute the most susceptible 760 elements to the leaching conditions tested with recovery reaching 80-92% of the sample content 761 in optimized conditions. Main impurities included in the leach solutions are Mn, Ca, Fe and Na by 762 weight but Ca and Na show proportionally the highest recovery rate. The leaching stage therefore 763 produces an enrichment factor ranging from 50 to 75 for REY from sample to leach solution. A two-764 stage leaching process using HCl is an efficient method to separate most of the contaminants (Ca, 765 Na) into the first leach. However, around 20% of the total REY content of the sample is also leached 766 out which represents an important loss given the low purity of the initial ore. Therefore, the 767 valuable improvements in purity of the second leach must be balanced against significant 768 reductions in yields of the targeted elements in the second leach.

769 The use of oxalate is an efficient way of precipitating REY from acid leach liquor with more than 770 96% of the total REY content precipitated between pH 1 and 2. The strong dependence on pH for 771 precipitation of diverse chemical species allows for the selective precipitation of REY from other 772 impurities. The purity is optimal at pH 1.1 as abundant Ca-oxalate precipitates at higher pH. The 773 fractionation observed between the different rare earth elements in the experiment was 774 successfully explained via numeric modelling using PHREEQC: (i) the increasing recoveries from L-775 to M-REE and decreasing trends towards the HREE at pH < 1.5 follow the solid RE-oxalate solubility 776 constant distribution $-\log \beta$ (RE₂Ox₃.nH₂O), (ii) the decreasing recovery trends at pH > 2 results from 777 competition with Ca oxalate formation, (iii) the decrease in the recovery is not as steep in the 778 experiment as it is in the model due to co-precipitation of REY with the Ca-oxalate phase or other 779 phases not taken into account in the model. In addition, the model predicts an optimal pH window 780 for the precipitation of REY between 0.9 and 1.1 because of oxalic acid dissociation, availability of 781 Ox²⁻ and lack of competing ions.

With REO concentrations reaching 0.06 wt.%, umbers are low grade, and far below concentrations encountered in main magmatic primary deposits. However, REO contents of umber deposits are within the range of concentrations encountered in IAC deposits (Yang et al., 2013) and many active mines from which REE are processed as by-products (Graedel et al., 2014). In contrast to the numerous processing steps of these active REY mines, a REY precipitate of high purity (> 70% REY) can be produced from umber deposits rapidly in only two-steps and with extremely low radioactive content.

These experimental results and modelling confirm previous views on the beneficiation potential of deep-sea sediments potential as a REY resource (Kato et al., 2011, Fujimoto et al., 2016, Menendez et al., 2017) as well as red-mud- or coal-processing residue (Qu and Lian, 2013, Deady et al., 2016, Rozelle et al., 2016a) considered as raw polymetallic materials. These results expand the list of potential REY resource available by integrating oceanic hydrothermal metalliferous deposits preserved on-land.

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Supplementary Figure 1: Linear free-energy relationships for RE₂Ox₃.nH₂O oxalate complexes with various
 organic acids. Displayed on graphs are equation of linear regression with R² values and 95% CI on the linear
 regression.

			gr	ain size (µm	n) per fractior	n (x %) of the	sample		
Sample PJ-CY-91	5%	10%	16%	20%	50%	80%	84%	90%	95%
A1-1	2.3	3.5	5.9	8.6	101.3	279.4	314.7	387.9	486.9
A1-2	2.1	3.3	5.2	7.6	87.9	258.0	292.1	368.7	473.8
A1-3	2.2	3.5	5.9	8.7	99.1	277.4	317.8	432.1	724.5
Avg. 1st aliquot	2.2	3.5	5.7	8.3	95.8	271.5	308.1	391.2	525.6
A2-1	2.5	3.6	5.3	6.8	58.7	224.8	255.3	319.4	539.5
A2-2	2.4	3.6	5.1	6.6	53.0	217.1	250.5	330.2	596.1
A2-3	2.5	3.7	5.5	7.2	59.0	229.3	265.2	380.9	592.5
Avg. 2nd aliquot	2.5	3.6	5.3	6.9	56.9	223.6	256.8	336.7	577.7
Average ± σ	2.3 ± 0.1	3.4 ± 0.1	5.5±0.3	7.6±0.8	76.5 ± 20.1	247.7 ± 25.2	282.6 ± 27.2	369.9 ± 37.5	568.9 ± 83.8

Supplementary Table 1: Grain size measurement (in μm) for two aliquots of sample PJ-CY-91. Values
 represent the maximum size of particles for a fixed fraction of the sample.

All value	All values expressed in mg/kg											
	average (n = 3)	BHV	'02ª	average (n = 3)	BIR1 ^ª	average (n = 3)	JB3 ^a					
Na	15588 ± 381	15262 -	16100	12513 ± 522	13550	19498 ± 958	20400					
Mg	42878 ± 2125	38853 -	43600	57440 ± 1480	54752 - 60300	30818 ± 821	20321 - 34431					
Al	69812 ± 3701	70062 -	71600	81122 ± 2005	79244 - 85434	90122 ± 2690	85381 - 94215					
К	4696 ± 480	4280 -	5080	266.6 ± 31	198 - 250	6735 ± 489	6000					
Ca	80522 ± 2796	78087 -	82440	96502 ± 3421	94000 - 97281	68505 ± 4087	70000					
Ti	16405 ± 227	15113 -	27300	5736 ± 74	4875 - 6923	8460 ± 98	8842					
Mn	1338 ± 42	1020 -	1432	1383 ± 41	1278 - 1414	1473 ± 49	1263 - 1355					
Fe	88263 ± 286	71293 -	83865	84672 ± 4468	68668 - 79900	87855 ± 3379	82500 - 83689					
Sc	31.0 ± 0.8	32		41.7 ± 0.7	41 - 45	33.1 ± 0.4	32 - 35.9					
Со	43.1 ± 0.6	34 -	56.2	50.0 ± 1.2	41.3 - 64.2	34.5 ± 1.3	24 - 43.3					
Ni	118.5 ± 3.3	97.9 -	186	168.2 ± 6.6	116.7 - 249.5	37.6 ± 2.1	32 - 49.1					
Cu	130.6 ± 3.6	102 -	168	119.0 ± 4.2	97.3 - 152	193.4 ± 9.4	142 - 196					
Sr	427.3 ± 9.7	317 -	438.3	105.7 ± 5.1	90 - 130	442.1 ± 6.2	392 - 452					
Y	23.6 ± 1.2	18.8 -	30.4	14.1 ± 0.7	11.28 - 18	23.6 ± 1.1	21.7 - 28.6					
Zr	161.2 ± 12.8	124.5 -	195.3	13.4 ± 0.9	4.87 - 32.87	87.5 ± 5.8	86.2 - 110.43					
Ва	131.0 ± 5.2	99 -	150	6.4 ± 0.2	0.635 - 17.2	239.8 ± 7.6	217 - 271					
La	15.00 ± 0.84	13 -	16.9	0.60 ± 0.03	0.36 - 3.6	8.37 ± 0.40	7.65 - 10.18					
Ce	37.80 ± 1.94	32.41 -	45.3	1.90 ± 0.09	1 - 4.44	21.44 ± 0.97	19.5 - 56					
Pr	5.27 ± 0.35	4.72 -	5.93	0.37 ± 0.03	0.10 - 0.46	3.21 ± 0.20	3 - 5					
Nd	25.11 ± 1.05	22.36 -	28.1	2.46 ± 0.10	1.6 - 3.3	16.17 ± 0.59	14.5 - 17.03					
Sm	6.34 ± 0.25	5.14 -	6.9	1.15 ± 0.05	0.8 - 1.24	4.42 ± 0.17	2.95 - 4.83					
Eu	2.14 ± 0.11	1.71 -	2.7	0.54 ± 0.03	0.3 - 0.6	1.37 ± 0.07	1.24 - 1.6					
Gd	6.41 ± 0.34	4.68 -	7.34	1.94 ± 0.10	0.36 - 3.2	4.81 ± 0.24	3.9 - 5.2					
Tb	0.97 ± 0.06	0.72 -	1.08	0.38 ± 0.02	0.22 - 2.28	0.76 ± 0.05	0.65 - 0.94					
Dy	5.61 ± 0.31	4.03 -	6.05	2.74 ± 0.14	2.5 - 4	4.85 ± 0.25	3.9 - 4.98					
Но	1.03 ± 0.06	0.7 -	1.12	0.61 ± 0.03	0.34 - 0.64	0.99 ± 0.05	0.82 - 1					
Er	2.69 ± 0.16	1.7 -	2.82	1.84 ± 0.11	1 - 1.89	2.86 ± 0.16	2.39 - 2.88					
Tm	0.35 ± 0.02	0.26 -	0.42	0.27 ± 0.02	0.14 - 0.3	0.41 ± 0.02	0.34 - 0.59					
Yb	2.13 ± 0.13	1.59 -	2.38	1.80 ± 0.10	1.36 - 1.8	2.68 ± 0.14	2.2 - 2.83					
Lu	0.30 ± 0.02	0.2 -	0.38	0.28 ± 0.02	0.18 - 0.31	0.40 ± 0.02	0.32 - 0.5					
Th	1.30 ± 0.06	1.03 -	3.51	0.05 ± 0.00	0.03	1.34 ± 0.05	1 - 1.42					
U	0.45 ± 0.02	0.32 -	0.51	0.02 ± 0.00	0.031	0.52 ± 0.03	0.47 - 0.54					

1002 Standard^a, published values from Jochum et al., [2005]

1003 Supplementary Table 2: Average ± 95 % CI of measured trace element concentration of rock standards run

1004 as triplicates and their recommended published values for accuracy and reproducibility checking.



1006 Supplementary Figure 2: Detailed recovery for REY in each leaching experiment.

	pH 1.1 no HF treatment								
	Bulk	area_Xlarge	spot_Xlarge	area_Xsmall	spot_Xsmall	area_Xlarge_2			
	Wt.% ± σ	Wt.% ± σ	Wt.% ± σ	Wt.% ± σ	Wt.% ± σ	Wt.% ± σ			
Si	1.2 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.1	-	0.5 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.1	-			
Cl	1.5 ± 0.1	4.0 ± 0.2	1.7 ± 0.1	1.7 ± 0.1	5.4 ± 0.2	-			
К	-	0.5 ± 0.1	-	-	-	-			
Ca	6.9 ± 0.2	8.7 ± 0.2	8.9 ± 0.2	5.0 ± 0.1	6.2 ± 0.2	3.7 ± 0.1			
Al	3.9 ± 0.3	0.8 ± 0.2	0.9 ± 0.2	0.7 ± 0.2	0.7 ± 0.2	0.7 ± 0.2			
Cu	1.0 ± 0.2	-	-	-	-	1.1 ± 0.2			
Y	16.6 ± 0.6	15.3 ± 0.6	10.0 ± 0.4	10.8 ± 0.4	11.2 ± 0.5	23.2 ± 0.6			
La	16.4 ± 0.5	18.5 ± 0.5	19.5 ± 0.5	19.8 ± 0.4	18.1 ± 0.5	18.0 ± 0.5			
Ce	4.0 ± 0.4	4.6 ± 0.4	4.4 ± 0.4	4.9 ± 0.4	4.8 ± 0.4	4.0 ± 0.4			
Pr	6.2 ± 0.5	6.1 ± 0.5	6.1 ± 0.5	7.4 ± 0.5	7.2 ± 0.5	5.9 ± 0.5			
Nd	25.9 ± 0.6	26.5 ± 0.6	30.2 ± 0.6	29.2 ± 0.5	29.7 ± 0.6	26.3 ± 0.6			
Sm	5.5 ± 0.5	5.5 ± 0.5	6.2 ± 0.5	6.9 ± 0.5	5.6 ± 0.5	5.9 ± 0.5			
Gd	5.6 ± 0.5	5.3 ± 0.5	6.3 ± 0.5	6.4 ± 0.5	6.5 ± 0.5	5.4 ± 0.5			
Dy	3.7 ± 0.5	3.4 ± 0.5	4.2 ± 0.5	5.0 ± 0.4	4.2 ± 0.5	3.9 ± 0.5			
Er	1.7 ± 0.5	-	1.7 ± 0.5	1.6 ± 0.5	± 0.0	1.8 ± 0.5			
REY	85.6 ± 0.5	85.1 ± 0.5	88.5 ± 0.5	92.0 ± 0.5	87.3 ± 0.5	94.5 ± 0.5			

1011 Supplementary Table 3: Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy analysis of the oxalate precipitates at pH 1.1.

1012 Note that EDS analysis were made on a free C and O basis. Area and crystals analysed are displayed in Error!

1013 Reference source not found.

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_		pH 2.5 no HF	pH 2.5 with HF treatment		
	Bulk	spot-Xlarge	spot-Xsmall	Bulk	spot_Xlarge
	Wt.% ± σ	Wt.% ± σ	Wt.% ± σ	Wt.% ± σ	Wt.% ± σ
F	-	-	-	5.7 ± 1.4	3.0 ± 0.9
Na	1.1 ± 0.2	1.2 ± 0.2	1.4 ± 0.3	0.0 ± 0.0	0.9 ± 0.2
Cl	0.8 ± 0.1	1.1 ± 0.1	1.3 ± 0.1	2.0 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.1
Ca	80.6 ± 0.7	83.7 ± 0.7	84.9 ± 0.7	78.0 ± 1.4	81.9 ± 0.7
Mn	7.4 ± 0.3	7.4 ± 0.3	7.6 ± 0.3	3.0 ± 0.3	7.4 ± 0.3
Al	4.9 ± 0.3	0.8 ± 0.2	0.6 ± 0.1	4.3 ± 0.2	0.9 ± 0.1
Cu	0.6 ± 0.2	-	-	0.8 ± 0.1	-
Sr	0.9 ± 0.3	0.7 ± 0.3	0.0 ± 0.0	-	1.0 ± 0.3
Y	1.0 ± 0.4	1.8 ± 0.4	1.0 ± 0.4	1.2 ± 0.4	1.4 ± 0.4
La	1.5 ± 0.4	1.5 ± 0.4	1.7 ± 0.4	2.9 ± 0.4	2.8 ± 0.4
Nd	1.2 ± 0.4	1.7 ± 0.4	1.4 ± 0.4	2.2 ± 0.5	2.8 ± 0.4
REY	3.7 ± 0.4	5.0 ± 0.4	4.2 ± 0.4	6.3 ± 0.5	7.0 ± 0.4

1016 Supplementary Table 4: Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy analysis of the oxalate precipitates at

1017 different pH. Note that EDS analysis were made on a free C and O basis. Area and crystals analysed are

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Supplementary Figure 3: REY concentration in the leaching solution (white diamond, scale on the left) and the relative elemental recovery from the sample (grey diamond, scale on the right).



Supplementary Figure 4: Speciation of oxalic acid and conjugate oxalates as a function of pH using acid dissociation constant $K1 = 5.9 \times 10^{-2}$ and $K2 = 6.4 \times 10^{-5}$ (Chi and Xu, 1998).



1029 Supplementary Figure 5: REE speciation as a function of pH, [RE] = 0.1 ppm.





1031 Supplementary Figure 6: REE speciation as a function of pH, [RE] = 0.5 ppm.



1033 Supplementary Figure 7: REE speciation as a function of pH, [RE] = 1.0 ppm.





Supplementary Figure 8: REE speciation as a function of pH, [RE] = 5.0 ppm.









1039 Supplementary Figure 10: Comparison of X-ray diffraction patterns of sample PJ-CY-2014-91 and the residue 1040 collected after filtration of the leaching experiment using 1M HCl at a liquid to solid ratio of 25, 20°C for 2h.