

architecture. Minimization of their surface free energy through a balance of adhesion and elastic forces⁶ could lead to vesicle distortion and to the honeycomb surface patterns. Fig. 2c, d. This tentative model is represented in Fig. 3.

Specific control experiments have cast further light on the origin of the observed morphologies and patterns. TEG allows formation of the surface patterns, whereas ethylene glycol and higher-molecular-weight polyethylene glycols do not. Increasing the mole ratio of water, varying the mole ratio of surfactant or changing the temperature, allow formation of a mesolamellar aluminophosphate, but devoid of surface patterning. A small-molecule amine unable to form self-assembled aggregates results in normal faceted crystal habits of one-dimensional (chain), two-dimensional (porous sheet) and three-dimensional (open-framework) aluminophosphate materials¹¹. These experiments emphasize the synergistic role of the surfactant-co-surfactant templates in determining morphology and surface patterning in the MLA synthesis system.

Our model for pattern formation is akin to some of those proposed in the biomineralization literature for the creation of exoskeletons^{12,13}. One prevailing idea is that radiolaria skeletons grow by the secretion of silica into a network of bubble-like alveoli^{12,16}. This model has features in common with our growing aluminophosphate sphere covered by vesicles. The concentric nature of the vesicles could facilitate the deposition of replica features on the surface of the bowls. This could account for the concentric ring and platelet formations in the bowls of Fig. 2c.

It is interesting to compare the morphologies and patterns of the artificial inorganic assemblies (Fig. 2c, d) with those of the siliceous skeletons of diatoms and radiolaria (Fig. 4a, b).^{14,16} The skeletal features are of similar size and form to those of the surfactant-based aluminophosphate morphologies. Examples of surface bowl-like features akin to the synthetic ones in Fig. 2b are common in radiolaria, Fig. 4c. Another common feature is the lack of long-range order in the aluminophosphate regions

of the synthetic ultrastructures, a situation similar to those reported for amorphous silica protozoan exoskeletons of radiolaria and diatoms¹⁷, as well as the amorphous walls of micelle-templated mesoporous silicas^{1,3}.

It would seem that there are interesting parallels to be drawn between protozoan diatoms and radiolaria and our artificial inorganic assemblies. The inorganic materials reported here hierarchically display structural features on length scales ranging from submicrometre to millimetres. The ability to synthetically control macroscopic form and surface patterns in inorganic materials could find important application in areas such as catalysis, separation technology and the development of new functional materials¹⁸.

Received 15 May; accepted 12 October 1995

1. Kresge, C. T. *et al.* *Nature* **359**, 710–712 (1992).
2. Beck, J. S. *et al.* *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **114**, 10834–10843 (1992).
3. Monnier, A. *et al.* *Science* **261**, 1299–1303 (1993).
4. Kaler, E. W. & Martino, A. *Langmuir* **11**, 779–784 (1995).
5. Thomas, B. N., Safinya, C. R., Plano, R. J. & Clark, N. A. *Science* **267**, 1635–1638 (1994).
6. Israelachvili, J. N. *Intermolecular and Surface Forces* 2nd edn (Academic, New York, 1994).
7. Hoffmann, H. *Adv. Mater.* **6**, 116–129 (1994).
8. Haslop, W. P., Allonby, J. M., Akred, B. J. & Messenger, E. T. US Patent No. 4,618,186 (1986).
9. Akred, B. J., Messenger, E. T. & Nicholson, W. J. US Patent no. 4,659,497 (1987).
10. Fendler, J. H., *Membrane Mimetic Chemistry* (Wiley, New York, 1982).
11. Oliver, S. *et al.* *Stud. Surf. Sci. Catal.* **84**, 219–225 (1994).
12. Simkiss, K. & Wilbur, K. M. *Biomineralization: Cell Biology and Mineral Deposits* (Academic, San Diego, 1989).
13. Mann, S., Webb, J. & Williams, R. (eds) *Biomineralization: Chemical and Biochemical Perspectives* (VCH, New York, 1989).
14. Takahashi, K. (ed) *Radiolaria* (Ocean Biocoenosis Ser. no. 3, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, MA, 1991).
15. Richard, M. (ed.) *Ouvrage Dedie a la Memoire du Professor Henry Germain* (Koeltz Science, Königstein, 1990).
16. Anderson, O. R. *Radiolaria* (Springer, New York, 1983).
17. Mann, S. *J. Mater. Chem.* **5**, 935–946 (1995).
18. Oliver S. & Ozin, G. A. *Adv. Mater.* (in the press).

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION. Crystallographic refinement data are available on request. Contact Mary Sheehan at the London editorial office of *Nature*.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS. This work was supported by the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada. S.O. was supported in part by the Ontario Graduate Scholarship program.

High concentrations and photochemical fate of oxygenated hydrocarbons in the global troposphere

Hanwant B. Singh*, M. Kanakidou†, P. J. Crutzen‡ & D. J. Jacob§

* NASA Ames Research Center, Moffett Field, California 94035, USA

† Centre des Faibles Radioactivites, CNRS-CEA, F-91198 Gif-sur-Yvette Cedex, France

‡ Max Planck Institute for Chemistry, D-55020 Mainz, Germany

§ Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138, USA

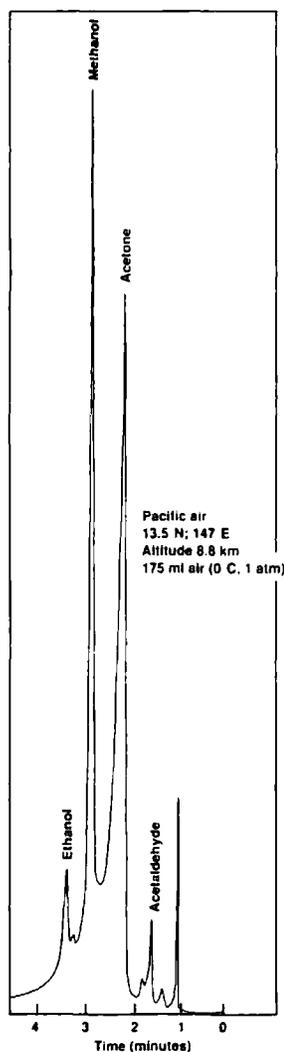
OXYGENATED species in the atmosphere are important sources of free radicals and are intricately linked with the fate of nitrogen oxides (NO_x), which are themselves necessary for tropospheric ozone formation^{1,2}. With the exception of formaldehyde, oxygenated hydrocarbons have rarely been measured in the free troposphere. Here we report airborne measurements indicating the presence of high concentrations (compared to those of routinely measured C₂–C₆ tropospheric hydrocarbons^{3,4}) of acetone and methanol. We use a three-dimensional model to show that acetone photochemistry provides a quantitatively significant (up to 50%) pathway for sequestering NO_x in the form of peroxyacetyl nitrate, a relatively unreactive temporary reservoir of NO_x. Furthermore, in the dry regions of the upper troposphere, acetone can provide a large primary source of HO₂ (OH + HO₂) radicals, resulting in

increased ozone production. This surprisingly significant contribution of such oxygenated hydrocarbons to tropospheric NO_x, HO₂ and ozone cycling is likely to be affected by their changing natural and anthropogenic emissions due to land-use change, biomass burning and alcohol-based biofuel use.

Limited measurements of alcohols and carbonyls have been reported from ground sites generally in rural/urban environments^{5–7}. Recently, we have developed and tested a semi-automated airborne instrument that uses a Reduction Gas Detector (RGD) for the sensitive (~10 parts per trillion (10¹² by volume, p.p.t.) detection of carbonyls in real time^{8,9}. We have now expanded this to include alcohols. Figure 1 shows a chromatogram that demonstrates the separation and detection of acetaldehyde, acetone, methanol and ethanol from free tropospheric air. A parallel instrument also measured peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN) to a sensitivity of ~1 p.p.t. Data were collected in February–March 1994 during the NASA Pacific Explorer Mission, PEM–West (B); an airborne campaign to study the atmosphere over the Pacific Ocean.

Figure 2 shows the latitudinal distribution of acetone and PAN in the free troposphere (5–10 km height) based on a series of six flights over the Pacific Ocean starting from 40° N to 10° S over a longitude of 125° W to 140° E. During these selected missions, westerly air flows and the great distance from the Asian continent precluded a direct effect of continental emissions, and these air samples should represent near-background conditions for this season. In the free troposphere, acetone concentrations of the order of 500 p.p.t. were present at northern mid-latitudes and declined to ~200 p.p.t. at southern latitudes. These mixing ratios are similar to those measured in the Canadian Arctic during the subarctic when clean conditions prevailed⁹, but are higher than

similar to the reported by Arnold *et al.*¹⁰ for the mid-latitude tropo-
radiolaria and (44° N; February–May) over Europe using an indirect
elle-templated method involving chemical ionization mass spectrometry. PAN
concentrations in the vicinity of 100 p.p.t. were present in the
is to be drawn from the free troposphere, although its abundance was highly
our artificial source. Near the tropics, mixing ratios below 10 p.p.t. were
orted here and seen. PAN exhibited a strong vertical gradient, and its
th scales range from concentrations in the marine boundary layer were typically
ty to synthesize 10 p.p.t. Acetaldehyde could not be rigorously quantified
patterns of use of difficulties involving its calibration. Based on relative
ation in areas of response factors determined in the laboratory, it would seem
development of 30–100 p.p.t. of acetaldehyde were nearly always present.
the free troposphere ~700 p.p.t. of methanol were present
northern mid-latitudes, declining to ~400 p.p.t. at southern
udes (Fig. 3). In general, ethanol abundance was an order
magnitude lower than that of methanol. There were instances
in ethanol was below the detection limit of 10 p.p.t. No latitudi-
onal profiles for alcohols or acetone have been reported in the

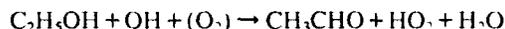
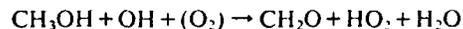


1 Chromatogram showing the detection and separation of selected
generated species from free tropospheric air. A 175-ml sample of air
reeze trapped at -140 °C in a sample loop, and its constituents
d conditions separated on a 30-m stripper (for water removal) and a 60-m analytical
ncentrations of 0.53 mm i.d., 1 µm DB wax film coating; 80 °C
mid-latitude detected with a Reduction Gas Detector (RGD). A heated (20 °C)
these mixing ratios on probe is used for sampling, and all calibrations, using permeation
dian Arctic cells held at 0 °C, are done in-flight in a manner that mimics ambient
; higher than sampling. The tailing of the acetone peak is probably due to its slow
ase from the mercuric oxide bed in the RGD.

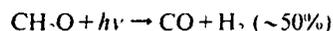
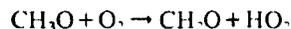
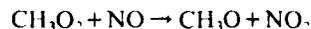
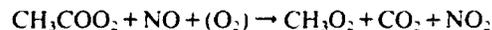
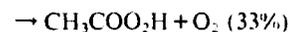
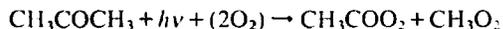
literature for comparison. Limited measurements were also made
in the mid-latitude lower stratosphere (331±104 p.p.b. (10⁻⁹ by
volume) O₃; -55 to -69 °C dew point). Under these conditions,
mixing ratios of acetone and methanol were 148±63 p.p.t. and
95±51 p.p.t. respectively, while ethanol was generally below the
detection level.

The main removal process for acetone, methanol and ethanol
is expected to be reaction with OH radicals and photolysis
(important for acetone only). Based on published OH radical
rate coefficients¹¹, the best estimates for OH radical abundance
(10⁶ molecules per cm³; methyl chloroform lifetime of 5.0 yr),
and known photolytic cross-sections, we estimate that average
lifetimes of acetone, methanol and ethanol are of the order of 16
days, 16 days and 4 days, respectively. To balance the measured
abundances and the removal rates, a global source of about
50 Tg yr⁻¹ acetone, 45 Tg yr⁻¹ methanol and 15 Tg yr⁻¹ ethanol
is required. Although these species are miscible with water, their
Henry's Law coefficients are relatively low (at 25 °C: 32 M atm⁻¹
for acetone; 220 M atm⁻¹ for alcohols) and removal by wash-
out/rainout processes or the oceanic sink should not compete
favourably with removal by reaction with OH radicals and
photolysis¹². Upper-tropospheric cloud systems may take in
some alcohols, but are likely to desorb them during precipita-
tion. The north-south latitudinal gradient implies larger sources
in the north, but we note that photochemical removal at this
time of the year (February) is about 1.5–2 times higher in the
Southern Hemisphere than the Northern Hemisphere. Addi-
tional gradients between the marine and continental environ-
ments may also exist.

Alcohols on further oxidation form photochemically active
carbonyls and free radicals¹³.

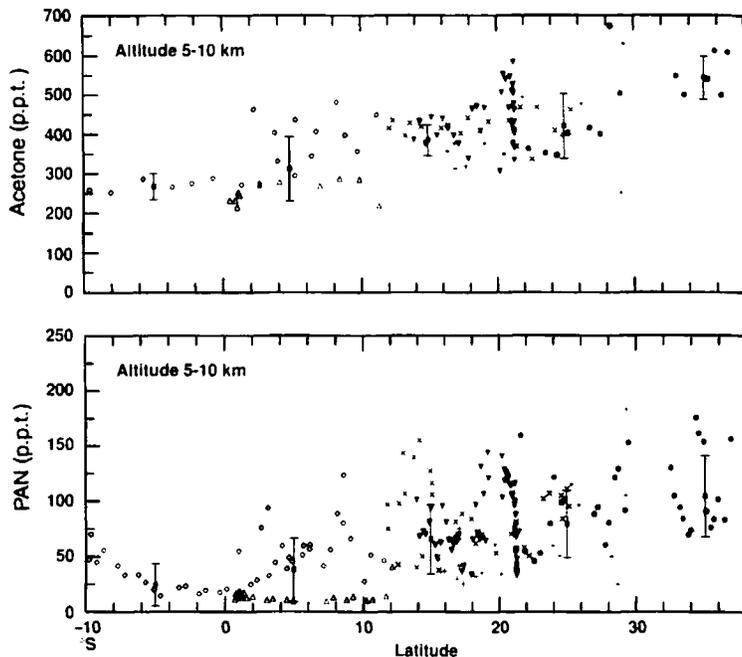


Acetone also can easily react with OH radical and be photolysed
to produce free radicals (for example, HO₂) and several stable
species such as PAN, and acetic and peracetic acids^{9,14}.



We have studied the role of acetone in PAN formation by
incorporating detailed acetone and C₁–C₃ hydrocarbon chem-
istry in a three-dimensional model of the atmosphere¹⁴. Based
on the inventory suggested by Singh *et al.*⁹, a 49 Tg yr⁻¹ global
source of acetone was incorporated in this model. Emissions
from vegetation were scaled to the annual mean net primary
productivity, while anthropogenic emissions were distributed in
a manner similar to those of CO₂. This resulted in acetone con-
centrations shown in Fig. 4a. Model PAN concentrations were
calculated with and without the inclusion of acetone. Figure 4b
shows the PAN mixing ratios that could be attributed exclusively
to acetone chemistry. It is evident that acetone is responsible
for sizeable (10–45 p.p.t.) concentrations of PAN in the free
troposphere. Its effect is greatest in the middle and upper tropo-
sphere where photolysis of acetone is quite efficient and PAN is

FIG. 2 Latitudinal distribution of acetone (top panel) and PAN (bottom panel) in the free troposphere over the Pacific. These data are for 5–10 km altitude, and are based on a series of six aircraft flights performed during 7–19 February, 1994. Each flight is represented by a separate symbol. Transit flights started from California (38° N) to Hawaii (21° N) (filled circles) and Hawaii to Guam (13° N) (inverted filled triangles). Four additional flights were undertaken north (+ and x) and south (O, Δ) from Guam. Each filled square and the line extending from it shows mean ± 1 standard deviation for data within the 10° latitude belt.



most stable. Based on model results and comparison with data, up to 50% of observed PAN may be formed by this mechanism. Model results also show that acetone photolysis can produce 10^5 – 10^6 molecules per cm^3 of peroxyacetyl radicals with highest values in the tropics. We suggest that acetone provides an important pathway in storing NO_x in the form of PAN, and must be included in global models that aim to accurately simulate ozone in the troposphere.

We also find that acetone is an important and previously unrecognized source of HO_x radicals in the upper troposphere. Current photochemical models identify the two main upper-tropospheric sources of HO_x as the reaction of $\text{O}(^1\text{D})$ with water vapour ($\text{O}_3 + h\nu \rightarrow \text{O}(^1\text{D}) + \text{O}_2$; $\text{O}(^1\text{D}) + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 2\text{OH}$) and the photolysis of CH_2O . The main source of CH_2O in these models is the oxidation of methane by OH radicals; therefore one must view the $\text{O}(^1\text{D}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ reaction as the primary source of HO_x

and CH_2O as an amplifier of this source. Under dry conditions of the upper troposphere, where the reaction $\text{O}(^1\text{D}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ is relatively slow, acetone makes an important additional contribution to the primary source of HO_x . The photolysis of acetone here yields two HO_2 and two CH_2O molecules ($\text{NO} \gg \text{HO}_2$). 30% of the CH_2O molecules photolyse via the radical branch to yield two more HO_2 molecules. Thus the HO_x yield from photolysis of acetone is ~ 3.2 ($2 + 4 \times 0.30$), as compared to a yield of 2 from the reaction of $\text{O}(^1\text{D}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}$. In a simple photochemical model calculation for the upper troposphere at equinox (40° N, 11 km, 50 p.p.b. O_3 , 90 p.p.m. (10^{-6} by volume) H_2O and 0.5 p.p.b. acetone), we find 24-hour average HO_x production rates of 7×10^3 molecules per cm^3 per s from reaction of $\text{O}(^1\text{D}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ and 9×10^3 molecules per cm^3 per s from photolysis of acetone. When all primary and secondary sources are included, acetone may enhance total HO_x concentrations by

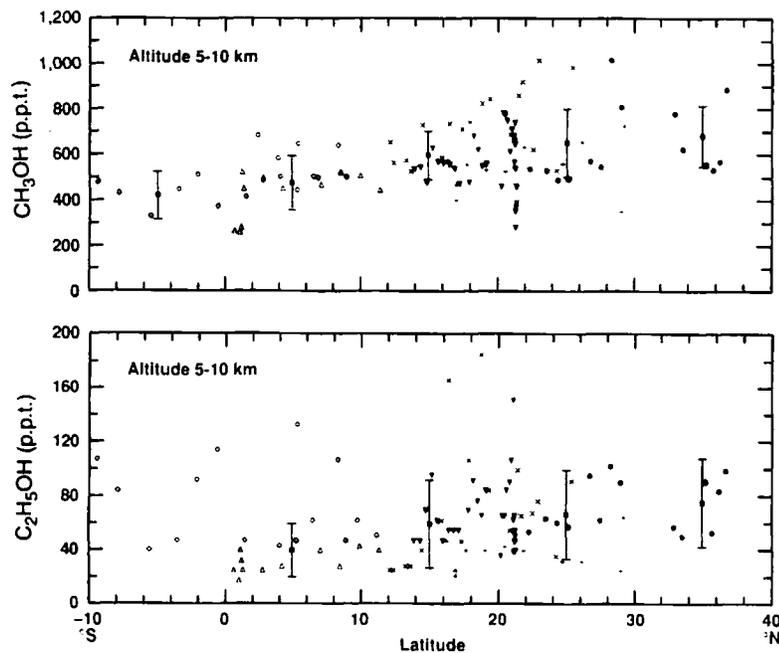
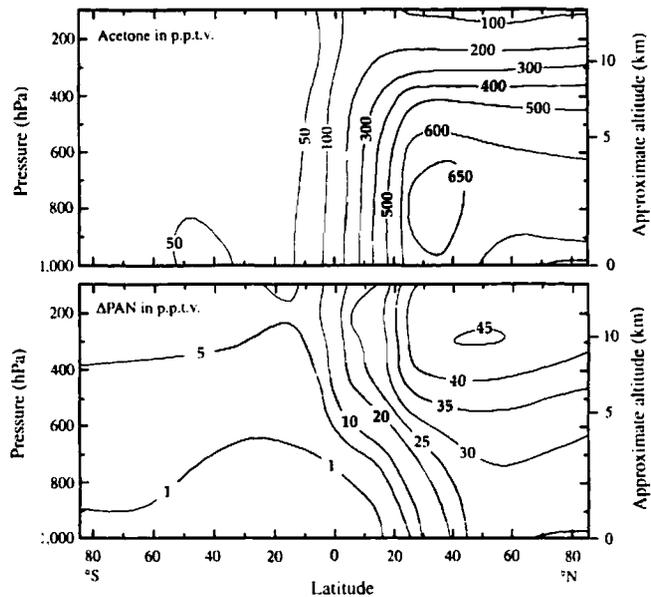


FIG. 3 Latitudinal distribution of methanol (top panel) and ethanol (bottom panel) in the free troposphere over the Pacific Ocean. Symbols are as in Fig. 2.

FIG. 4 Three
and PAN form
49 Tg yr⁻¹
results are fr
the central P

to 30% in tl
critically c
 $\text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{NO}_2$
troposphere
may have a
assessing th
ionic airera
sphere sugg
by O_3 photo
Although
not emitted
not been sul
sions from
have been
rarely been
to those of i
species¹⁸. In
ern United
one, metha
6.0 p.p.b. ar
input inferre
methyl bute
from vegeta
reported¹⁹. I
formed from
within th
 $\text{C}_5\text{H}_{10}\text{O} \leftrightarrow (\text{C}_5\text{H}_9\text{O}) + \text{H}_2$
 $\text{H}_2\text{O} \leftrightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_5$
common pre
Anthropo
trations of c
areas⁶. In c
(China/Hon
Molar ratios
ACO) were
and 0.0004 f
genic emissio
yr⁻¹ acetone
There is littl
these species
smouldering
was identifi
CO of 0.025.
ted at 200 T
yr⁻¹ is possil

Three-dimensional model results showing acetone distribution, PAN formation from acetone chemistry. a, Acetone distribution with 10 Tg yr^{-1} total source; b, PAN due to acetone chemistry alone. Model results are for 1 March and show a height-latitude cross-section over the central Pacific (175° E longitude).



dry conditions) (D) + H₂O → HO₂ + H₂O. This enhancement have a number of important implications, in particular for the atmospheric effects of NO_x emissions from subsonic aircraft. Recent HO_x measurements in the lower stratosphere suggest that HO_x sources in addition to those predicted by a photolysis are required to explain the observations¹⁵. Although PAN is a purely photochemical product which is emitted directly, sources of oxygenated hydrocarbons have been subject to rigorous studies. In studies of biogenic emissions from plants, acetone, acetaldehyde, methanol and ethanol have frequently been detected although their emissions have not been quantified^{16,17}. Emissions of methanol comparable to those of isoprene have been reported from a variety of plant sources¹⁸. In a field study at a forested rural site in the southeastern United States, average mixing ratios of acetaldehyde, acetone, methanol and ethanol of respectively 0.8 p.p.b., 3.3 p.p.b., 1.0 p.p.b. and 1.0 p.p.b. were measured, and a strong biogenic source was inferred⁷. Emission of copious quantities of highly reactive methyl butenol {C-C(C)(OH)-C=C or C₅H₁₀O}, a C₅ alcohol, from vegetation at a forested site in Colorado has also been reported¹⁹. The possibilities that carbonyls and alcohols may be formed from reaction of known biogenic chemicals and water in the plant enzyme system (C₅H₈ + H₂O ↔ C₅H₁₀O ↔ (CH₃)₂CO + C₂H₄; C₂H₄ + 2H₂O ↔ 2CH₃OH; C₂H₄ + H₂O ↔ C₂H₅OH), and that many of these chemicals may have common precursors, should be explored.

Anthropogenic emissions are also evident from high concentrations of oxygenates that have been reported from polluted areas. In our airborne study, a plume of Asian emissions from Hong Kong was intersected over the western Pacific. The ratios of enhancement of species X relative to CO (ΔX/CO) were found to be 0.003 for acetone, 0.007 for methanol and 0.004 for ethanol. Scaling to a total global CO anthropogenic emission²⁰ of 445 Tg yr⁻¹ implies a source of about 2.7 Tg yr⁻¹ acetone, 3.8 Tg yr⁻¹ methanol and 0.4 Tg yr⁻¹ ethanol. There is little doubt that biomass burning is also a source for these species. In a laboratory study²¹ designed to simulate the smoldering combustion of ponderosa pine sapwood, methanol was identified as a product with a molar ratio with respect to CO of 0.025. With global CO biomass burning emissions estimated at 200 Tg yr⁻¹ (ref. 20), a methanol source of about 6 Tg yr⁻¹ is possible. We have earlier reported that biomass burning

emissions of acetone may be in the vicinity of 10 Tg yr⁻¹ (ref. 9).

Oxygenated species are also known to be intermediate products of hydrocarbon oxidation, with methane as the most important source for methanol (2CH₃O₂ → CH₃OH + CH₂O + O₂) and propane for acetone^{22,23}. We have attempted to simulate these reactions in our model, after Madronich and Calvert^{14,23}. Assuming removal of methanol by OH oxidation, and by rainout/washout and deposition (0.1 cm s⁻¹) processes, our model calculations (for 1 March) suggest that ~160 p.p.t. (global average) of methanol could be synthesized from these reactions, and these mixing ratios may approach 500 p.p.t. in the tropical lower troposphere. Similarly, 100–300 p.p.t. of acetone and 1–10 p.p.t. of ethanol could be synthesized in the middle troposphere via these oxidation mechanisms alone^{9,14,22}.

Yet another source may be found in the oceans. Evidence for supersaturation of some carbonyls in sea water has been published, but the data are sparse and inconclusive²⁴. Oceans are known to be supersaturated with methyl halides²⁵. A possible source for methanol in sea water is from the hydrolysis of methyl halides (CH₃X + H₂O → CH₃OH + HX) which takes place at a relatively slow rate²⁶. Suffice it to say that substantial anthropogenic and natural sources of these (and other) oxygenated species are present but remain to be rigorously studied and quantified.

In recent years ethanol has been added to gasoline to achieve cleaner combustion, and the use of ethanol and methanol as biofuels is likely to increase in the future. Measurements of these species in the atmosphere have received attention only recently, in large part because these vapours are difficult to measure, are poorly retained by solid sorbents, and can be easily lost in canisters which are often used as a means of sample collection and storage. Here we have shown that these oxygenated species are globally ubiquitous, can participate in photochemistry of the troposphere in an important way, and have complex biogenic (as well as man-made) sources which require better quantification and further study. It is likely that other oxygenated species are present but have not yet been identified. □

Received 21 April; accepted 19 September 1995.

- Lloyd, A. C. *NBS spec. publ.* **587**, 27–48 (1979).
- Singh, H. B. & Hanst, P. L. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **8**, 941–944 (1981).
- Singh, H. B. & Zimmerman, P. B. *Adv. envir. Sci. Technol.* **24**, 177–235 (1992).
- Blake, D. R. et al. *J. geophys. Res.* **99**, 1699–1719 (1994).
- Cavanagh, L., Schadt, C. & Robinson, E. *Envir. Sci. Technol.* **3**, 251–257 (1969).
- Snider, J. R. & Dawson, G. A. *J. geophys. Res.* **90**, 3797–3805 (1985).
- Goldan, P. D., Kuster, W. C., Fehsenfeld, F. C. & Mörzka, S. A. *J. geophys. Res.* (in the press).
- O'Hara, D. & Singh, H. B. *Atmos. Envir.* **22**, 2613–2615 (1988).

9. Singh H. B. *et al.* *J. geophys. Res.* **99**, 1805-1819 (1994).
 10. Arnold, F., Knop, G. & Zereis, H. *Nature* **321**, 505-507 (1986).
 11. DeMore, W. B. *et al.* *Chemical Kinetics and Photochemical Data for Use in Stratospheric Modeling* (JPL Publ. No. 94-26, Jet Propulsion Laboratory, Pasadena, CA, 1994).
 12. Betterton, E. A. *Adv. env. Sci. Technol.* **24**, 1-50 (1992).
 13. Atkinson, R. *Atmos. Environ.* **24A**, 1-41 (1990).
 14. Kanakidou, M. & Crutzen, P. *J. Chemosphere* **26**, 787-801 (1993).
 15. Wennberg, P. *et al.* *Science* **266**, 398-404 (1994).
 16. Isidorov, V. A., Zenkovich, I. G. & Iofe, B. V. *Atmos. Environ.* **19**, 1-8 (1985).
 17. Isidorov, V. A. *Organic Chemistry of the Earth's Atmosphere* (Springer, Berlin, 1990).
 18. MacDonald, R. C. & Fall, R. *Atmos. Environ.* **27A**, 1709-1713 (1993).
 19. Goldan, P. D., Kuster, W. C., Fehsenfeld, F. C. & Montzka, S. A. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **20**, 1039-1042 (1993).

20. Lobert, J. M. *et al.* in *Global Biomass Burning* (ed. Levine, J. S.) 289-304 (MIT, Cambridge, MA, 1991).
 21. McKenzie, L. M., Hao, W. M., Richards, G. N. & Ward, D. E. *Atmos. Environ.* **28**, 3285 (1994).
 22. Karakidou, M., Singh, H. B., Valentin, K. M. & Crutzen, P. J. *J. geophys. Res.* **96**, 15413 (1991).
 23. Madronich, S. & Calvert, J. G. *J. geophys. Res.* **95**, 5697-5715 (1990).
 24. Zhou, X. & Mopper, K. *Envir. Sci. Technol.* **24**, 1864-1869 (1990).
 25. Singh, H. B., Salas, L. J. & Stiles, R. E. *J. geophys. Res.* **88**, 3684-3690 (1983).
 26. Elliott, S. & Rowland, F. S. *J. Atmos. Chem.* **20**, 229-236 (1995).
 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS. We thank all PEM-West (B) participants for their support. Suggestions by A. R. Ravishankara of the NOAA Aeronomy Lab were appreciated. This work was supported by the NASA Global Tropospheric Experiment, CNRS and CEA.

Experimental evidence for the origin of lead enrichment in convergent-margin magmas

James M. Brenan*, Henry F. Shaw* & Frederick J. Ryerson*†

* Earth Sciences Division, † Institute for Geophysics and Planetary Physics, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, PO Box 808, L-202, Livermore, California 94551, USA

It has been proposed¹⁻⁵ that the low Ce/Pb ratio of subduction-related basalts, relative to their oceanic counterparts, arises by the preferential transfer of lead to the mantle wedge (overlying the subducting slab) by non-magmatic processes. Fluxing of the mantle wedge by low-Ce/Pb fluids, generated by the dehydration of subducted oceanic crust, is one mechanism favoured for this process (see, for example, ref. 5). Here we report the results of a series of high-pressure experiments, which confirm that low-Ce/Pb fluids coexist with the dominant mineral phases (garnet and clinopyroxene) produced during high-pressure dehydration of altered basalt. Our results show that the production of subduction-zone magmas from mantle sources fluxed by basalt-derived fluid is a mechanism by which relatively lead-rich, cerium-poor, mantle-derived material is added to the continents. The lead enrichment of the Earth's continental crust is thus a continuing process occurring at convergent margins.

The Ce/Pb ratio in island-arc basalts (~3) is similar to that of average continental crust, but considerably below that of oceanic basalts (~25) and the bulk Earth (~10; summarized in ref. 5). Owing to similar bulk solid/liquid partition coefficients, these elements are not significantly fractionated during mantle melting processes, and melt compositions reflect the approximate Ce/Pb ratio of their source regions¹. The above-described differences, together with the general similarity between the Ce abundances of island-arc basalts (IABs) and oceanic basalts, suggest that

the source regions for IABs are enriched in Pb relative to the oceanic mantle. As subduction-related magmatism is a continuing process that adds low-Ce/Pb material to the continental crust, knowledge of the mechanism(s) of Pb-enrichment in IABs provide insight into both the origin of Pb-enrichment in continental crust, and the complementary depletion of this element in the oceanic mantle.

Recently, Miller *et al.*⁵ showed that Pb from two isotopically distinct sources is present in the IABs erupted on Unimak in the Aleutian archipelago. One source, with high ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁶Pb and low Ce/Pb, is consistent with pelagic sediment. The other source, despite having low and mantle-like ²⁰⁷Pb/²⁰⁶Pb, has a distinctly non-mantle Ce/Pb (that is, <5 compared to ~25 for the oceanic mantle). Miller *et al.* hypothesized that a low-Ce/Pb mantle component could be produced by the preferential extraction of Pb from subducted oceanic crust by a fluid phase. The transfer of Pb from subducted oceanic crust to arc magmas by this process constitutes a means to explain the origin of the complementary nature of the Ce/Pb ratios of continental crust and oceanic mantle. To test this hypothesis, we have conducted piston-cylinder experiments at 2.0 GPa and 900 °C to determine the Ce/Pb ratio of fluids coexisting with phases that may be residual during high-pressure basalt dehydration, namely clinopyroxene and garnet.

Garnet/fluid and clinopyroxene/fluid partition coefficients for Pb, Ce, Nd, Sm and Yb were measured in experiments that consisted of loading known quantities of trace-element dissolved (dried nitrate solutions) with garnet or clinopyroxene and (H₂O ± NaCl) + excess SiO₂ + albite (~3 wt%) in welded Pt capsules. Samples were equilibrated in the piston cylinder for 7 days, during which time the garnet and clinopyroxene recrystallized; the inclusion of SiO₂ and albite along with the inherent solubility of clinopyroxene and garnet produced a realistic 'eclogite-fluid' composition⁶. After an experiment, capsules were cleaned in concentrated nitric acid, then pierced in ultra-pure distilled water. Newly-formed crystals (pyrope-rich garnet, diopsidic clinopyroxene; see ref. 6) were typically greater than 300 µm in size and were easily removed by hand-picking. The post-experiment fluid, including quenched solids ('fish-

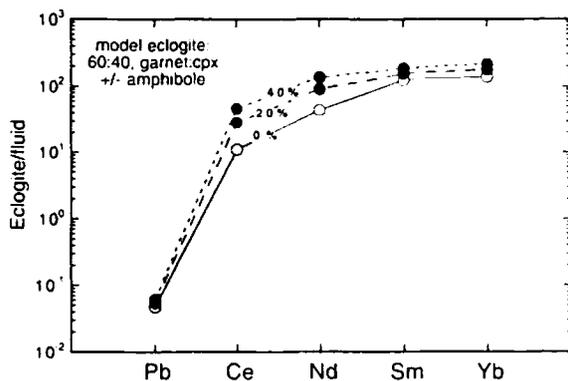


FIG. 1 Bulk eclogite/aqueous fluid partition coefficients for the REE and Pb. Bulk partition coefficients were calculated using the average clinopyroxene and garnet/aqueous fluid values measured in the experiments and assuming a model eclogite mode (wt% of each mineral in mixture) of 60:40; garnet:clinopyroxene. Clinopyroxene/aqueous fluid partition coefficients for Ce were determined from the relation $D_{Ce} = 0.3D_{Nd}$ (ref. 11) and are consistent with the Ce content of run-product crystals and mass balance (see text). The effect of adding amphibole (20 and 40%) to the residue (as a model for incomplete dehydration) was assessed by calculating amphibole/aqueous fluid partition coefficients assuming values of D_{REE} amphibole/clinopyroxene of 0.5 (Ce), 3.1 (Nd), 1.9 (Sm) and 2.5 (Yb), as obtained from mineral/fluid partitioning experiments^{11,19}. The amphibole/aqueous fluid partition coefficient for Pb is from ref. 6. Note that the calculated bulk partition coefficients for the REE are more than 200 times larger than for Pb, and this effect is expected to be largest during the onset of dehydration (when the amphibole mode is high).