## Lecture 39

# Radiogenic Isotope Geochemistry – applications to igneous systems

Reading – - White Chapter Ch 8.3 and Ch11.5-11.6 (this is the last assigned reading for the semester; you've already read parts of these chapters earlier).

Today

1. Overview.

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### Radiogenic Isotopes in Igneous Systems

Like stable isotopes, radiogenic isotopes play many roles in different branches of Earth science. They are among the most powerful tools geochemists have.

We've already discussed some of the isotopic evidence for the ages and timing of various events in Earth and early solar system history. But we haven't yet examined exactly how this evidence works in detail.

quick review of radioactive decay again:

Recall the decay equation:  $N_t = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$ 

where N is the radioactive parent, t is the time of decay, and "o" is the initial condition (at t=0).

**Radiogenic Isotopes in Igneous Systems** (1)  $N_t = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$ One can determine an age by comparing  $N_t$  and  $N_0$ . We can also determine ages if we don't know  $N_0$ , because N decays to a *daughter isotope*, D, such that  $N_0 = N_t + D_t$ , assuming that D is also not radioactive (we will discuss that special case later) Substituting into eqn (1)  $N_t + D_t = N_t e^{\lambda t}$  yields: (2)  $D_t = N_t e^{\lambda t} - N_t$   $D_t = N_t (e^{\lambda t} - 1)$  In many cases,  $D_0 \neq 0$ , so we need to include it:  $D_t = D_0 + N_t (e^{\lambda t} - 1)$   $-or - D_t = D_0 + N_t (e^{\lambda t} - 1) d d$ Where d = a non-radiogenic isotope of the daughter element; it is called the *normalizing isotope*.

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# Radiogenic Isotopes in Igneous Systems (D/d)<sub>1</sub> = (D/d)<sub>0</sub> + (N/d)<sub>1</sub>(e<sup>λt</sup>-1) Commonly, (D/d) and (N/d) are symbolized as R and P, respectively. We usually measure ratios rather than absolute amounts of isotopes because we can measure isotope ratios *far* more precisely. Two uses of the above equation: it serves as the basis for several powerful radiometric dating methods; i.e., where the goal is to measure *t*, the age of geological samples. This branch of geochemistry is called *geochronology*. Your reading describes some of the details and gives several good examples. An equally important application involves using radiogenic isotope ratios as *tracers of the composition and history of sources and geochemical processes*. This latter application follows directly from our discussions of trace elements and planetary differentiation, so we'll start with it first.





### Radiogenic Isotopes in Igneous Systems

We use radiogenic isotopes that are heavy, and produced from radioactive parents with *very long half lives*, because

• they can distinguish ancient from recent/modern processes and

• ratios of two isotopes of a heavy element are generally not fractionated during melting or crystallization (or we can correct for any minor fractionation); i.e., isotope ratios allow us to "see through" petrogenesis.

The second point is a fundamental difference between heavy-element isotopes and light-element isotopes, such as those of H, C, and O. As we saw earlier this semester, the light isotopes *can be* fractionated significantly by natural processes. For the light isotopes, it is the fractionation itself that makes them so useful.



### Radiogenic Isotopes in Igneous Systems

Over time, the **mantle has developed compositional variability** through this cycle. We see the evidence for this variability in igneous rocks from around the world.

Using <u>trace elements</u>, it's usually <u>very difficult</u> or impossible to tell whether compositional differences were produced by past melting and crystallization events or very recently, possibly even in the same melting event that formed a particular sequence of magmas.

In contrast, ratios of <u>radiogenic isotopes</u> to non-radiogenic isotopes provide a *record of ancient events* that is <u>not erased</u> or overprinted <u>by recent melting</u> or crystallization events, including the chemical fractionation that accompanies the formation of an igneous rock itself.

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### **Radiogenic Isotopes in Igneous Systems**

We usually use isotope ratios, R, where

- ☆ one isotope is *radiogenic* (produced from the decay of another)
- ★ the other is a *stable*, non radiogenic isotope.
- R = (radiogenic daughter)/(non-radiogenic isotope)

The parent and daughter element always have somewhat different incompatibility, so the ratio of radiogenic to non-radiogenic isotopes in a rock or mineral reflects the composition of the source...

but in a *time-integrated* way because the half lives of the parent isotopes are very long. For example, *high R records a high time-integrated parent-daughter ratio*, and thus preserves information on the time-integrated chemical composition and history of a mantle source.



### **Radiogenic Isotopes in Mantle Evolution**

An *isochron diagram* illustrates how an isotope ratio changes in a <u>closed system</u> after an initial fractionation event.

<u>Example</u>: let's say our closed system is a rock composed of several minerals that formed from a melt of the mantle at some time t in the past.

For the Rb-Sr system:

$$\frac{{}^{87}Sr}{{}^{86}Sr}_{today} \xrightarrow{= {}^{87}Sr}{}^{initial}_{r} \xrightarrow{+ {}^{87}Rb}(e^{\lambda t_{-}}1)$$

For the bulk rock and for each phase in it, we can measure the present-day Sr isotope ratio and parent/daughter ratio and determine the age and the initial Sr isotope ratio.

### **Radiogenic Isotopes in Mantle Evolution**

We do this with an *isochron* diagram, based on compositional relationships between different phases in a sample having the same age.

 $\begin{array}{rcl} ({}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr)_{today} &=& ({}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr)_{initial} &+& ({}^{87}Rb/{}^{86}Sr)_{today}(e^{\lambda t}-1) \\ y &=& b &+& x & \cdot & m \end{array}$ 

This is an equation for a straight line with  $m = (e^{\lambda t} - 1)$  and  $b = ({}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr)_{initial}$ .



mogeneous magma. Faure, Isotope Geochemistry

We obtain the age, t, from the slope of the line, since  $m = (e^{\lambda t} - 1)$  and the initial ratio from the intercept.

Each dot in the isochron plot at the left represents values for a given mineral or the bulk rock at a given time. The heavy lines connecting the dots are called *isochrons*.

As a rock ages, the slope of the isochron increases. Each dot evolves as indicated by the arrows.



Commor	nly used isotopes include tho	se of Sr, Nd, Hf
Isotope pair	Parent	Uses
<b></b> <sup>87</sup> Sr/ <sup>86</sup> Sr	<sup>87</sup> Rb decays to <sup>87</sup> Sr ( $t_{1/2} = 4.967 \times 10^{10} \text{ yr}$ )	in a rock, this tells us about Rb/Sr of the source
	<sup>86</sup> Sr is a stable, non- radiogenic isotope	Rb is typically more incompatible than Sr.
<b>☆</b> <sup>143</sup> Nd/ <sup>144</sup> Nd		tells us about Sm/Nd of the source
	<i>note:</i> <sup>144</sup> Nd is a stable, non-radiogenic isotope.	Sm is typically less incompatible than Nd.
<b>☆</b> <sup>176</sup> Hf/ <sup>177</sup> Hf	$^{176}$ Lu decays to $^{176}$ Hf $(t_{1/2} = 3.5 \times 10^{10} \text{ yr})$	tells us about Lu/Hf of the source
	<i>note:</i> <sup>177</sup> Hf is a stable, non-radiogenic isotope.	Lu is typically less incompatible than Hf.

and these isotopes of Pb		
<b></b> <sup>206</sup> Pb/ <sup>204</sup> Pb	$^{238}$ U decays to $^{206}$ Pb $(t_{1/2} = 4.47 \times 10^9 \text{ yr})$	in a rock tells us about U/Pb of the source
	<i>note:</i> <sup>204</sup> Pb is a stable, non-radiogenic isotope	Pb is typically less incompatible than U.
<b>☆</b> <sup>207</sup> Pb/ <sup>204</sup> Pb	<sup>235</sup> U decays to <sup>207</sup> Pb (t <sub>1/2</sub> = 7.04 x 10 <sup>8</sup> yr)	same, but with a different time scale for changes
	same	same
<b>☆</b> <sup>208</sup> Pb/ <sup>204</sup> Pb	$^{232}$ Th decays to $^{208}$ Pb ( $t_{1/2}$ = 1.40 x 10 <sup>10</sup> yr).	in a rock tells us about Th/Pb of the source
	same	Pb is typically less incompatible than Th.











We can use any combination of radigenic isotopes, stable isotopes or trace element ratios with this equation or diagram.

One very interesting (and useful) application of binary mixing arrays is in assessing magma *contamination* by either crustal country rock or something in the mantle source, for example, addition of subducted sediments and/or ocean crust.



Figure 12.22. O-Sr isotope plot showing difference in mixing curves produced by contaminating magma with crust ("crustal contamination") as opposed to contaminating the magma source with subducted material ("source contamination"). X is the fraction of end member "C" (crust or subducted sediment) in the mixture. After James (1981).

modified from White, Geochemistry

This Sr-O isotopic diagram is useful For this purpose because the Sr-O isotopic composition of crustal and mantle rocks are often quite distinct, as are their Sr concentrations, whereas O concentrations don't vary too much.

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In mantle rock, the <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr ratio will reflect the time-integrated <sup>87</sup>Rb/<sup>86</sup>Sr (and thus Rb/Sr), but *will not* provide information about recent changes in Rb/Sr caused by, for example, melt removal or addition.

Thus, without any idea of how, when, or how often Rb/Sr has changed, the <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr ratio is specifically a general indicator of Rb/Sr in the source *averaged over time*.

Tracing Mixtures in Igneous Petrogenesis with Radiogenic Isotopes

Since petrogenesis basically does not fractionate the isotopes of Sr from one another

 $({}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr)_{lava} = ({}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr)_{source}$ 

if a magma was formed from a single, *isotopically homogeneous source* and *was never contaminated* by country rock with a different isotopic value.

This is true for heavy isotope ratios in general:

a <u>lava's isotope ratio equals the source rock's ratio</u> under these conditions.

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### Tracing Mixtures ...

The same would be true for <u>two elements</u>, a and b, that are not fractionated from each other by petrogenesis (i.e., that have the same bulk distribution coefficients during melting and crystallization). Then...

$$(a/b)_{lava} = (a/b)_{source}$$

i.e., recall invariant ratio discussion of earlier this semester.

However, if a and b have different D values, they *will* be fractionated from one another by petrogenesis. Then...

 $(a/b)_{lava} \neq (a/b)_{source}$ 

In this second case, differences between  $({}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr)_{Iava}$ (constant if the source is homogeneous) and  $(a/b)_{Iava}$  (variable, because of different D values) provide a way to distinguish whether petrogenesis or anciently established source differences primarily determines trace element ratios. <sub>GG325 L39, F2013</sub>

### Tracing Mixtures ...

If the source rock is heterogeneous in <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr, the heterogeneity pre-dates petrogenesis. Then in lavas that represent mixtures...

1.  $({}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr)_{mix}$  depends on both  $({}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr)$  and Sr concentration in the end-members...

and

2.  $(a/b)_{mix}$  depends on both (a/b) and the concentrations of a and b in the end-members and the magmas.

 $(a/b)_{lava} \neq (a/b)_{source}$  and  $({}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr)_{lava} \neq ({}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr)_{source}$ 

But the difference between the two ratios is that:

√(<sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr)<sub>lava</sub> depends mainly on the mixing of mantle sources

 ✓ (a/b)<sub>lava</sub> depends on mixing of sources and the processes of petrogenesis.
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### Tracing Mixtures ...

How and when materials are mixed makes some difference in the final result, but once crustal contamination is ruled out, the Sr isotopic heterogeneity is still attributable to variation in the unmelted source, rather than to melting or crystallization.

So differences between  ${}^{87}\text{Sr}/{}^{86}\text{Sr}_{\text{lava}}$  and  $(a/b)_{\text{lava}}$  help us to categorize...

# the types of mantle heterogeneities that exist,

where they came from,

when they formed,

**and what sorts of other trace element signatures they might have.** 

We return to this topic soon with an example to illustrate this.