



evident in many other minerals and glasses. The high distribution values for Ti and V – the result of very low abundances in glass - indicate that olivine is not in equilibrium with its co-existing glass inclusion and mesostasis glass.

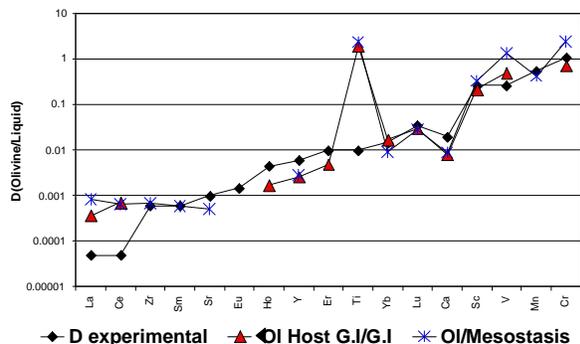


Figure 3: Distribution of trace elements between co-existing olivine and glass in Tucson silicate inclusions compared to experimentally determined olivine-liquid distribution coefficients (black diamonds, [9]).

However, because most other elements do behave very well, the petrographic finding that olivine grew from the liquid it now carries as glass inclusions [4] is strongly supported. Apparently, Ti was removed from the liquid=glass after olivine formation and re-equilibration was not possible (fast cooling). In contrast to olivine, pyroxenes in Tucson are compositionally very inhomogeneous, both in major and trace elements (Fig. 2). Their abundance patterns are fractionated, indicating chemical exchange reactions attempting equilibration with a vapor, liquid or solid (e.g., rock) system [8].

Calculation of the composition of a theoretical liquid in equilibrium with the Ca-poor, Al-rich pyroxenes shows that this liquid must have had refractory trace element abundances of around 10 x CI. The compositions of Ca-rich clinopyroxene and anorthite also indicate derivation from a liquid with refractory element abundances of ~8 – 20 x CI and 7 x CI, respectively. However, the trace element abundances of a liquid in equilibrium with Al-poor clinopyroxene appear to be very low and indicate an environment similar to that from which enstatite meteorites originated (xenocryst?). Tucson seems to contain silicates from two different sources. Both of them come from highly reduced environments and from environments very poor in volatile elements. The Sc deficit in glasses signals fractionation via a refractory phase that scavenged Sc before the liquid formed [4]. In a cosmochemical setting this indicates early condensation of a highly refractory phase, such

as corundum, hibonite, and perovskite. The two order of magnitude deficits in the abundances of Ti and Nb in all Tucson glasses – but not minerals – indicate loss of these elements from glasses after silicate formation. This could be achieved if Ti and Nb became chalcophile, moved out of the glass, and entered breznite.

Our previous results [4, 8] compel us to challenge the igneous model previously proposed for the formation of Tucson silicates inclusions [6]. Our new data support this effort and suggest that all silicates phases, have a simple, one-step nebular origin. These phases keep a record of the early highly reducing and increasingly oxidizing conditions during their evolution, before they became trapped in the metal.

The refractory and reduced silicates of the Tucson iron are embedded in a refractory and reduced metal, which has high and almost unfractionated abundances of refractory siderophile elements at ~3 – 9 x CI, low contents of volatile siderophile elements, and high contents of Si and Cr [e.g., 10]. Trace element abundances in Tucson metal also are governed by volatility (as they are in glasses). An origin by direct condensation from solar nebula gas seems to be likely. Such an origin has been predicted [14] and has also been favored by previous investigators of relatives of Tucson, such as Bencubbin and ALH 85085 [e.g., 7, 12, 13, 15, 16].

**Conclusions:** Tucson is the result of co-precipitation of metal and silicates from the solar nebula gas and precipitation of metal before silicates – in accordance with theoretical condensation calculations for high-pressure solar nebula gas [17].

**Acknowledgement:** Financial support was received from FWF, Austria (P16420-N10, P20226-N10), from CONICET (PIP 1645), Agencia (PICT212) and CONICET-FWF and CONICET-NSF International Cooperation Projects, Argentina, and NASA.

**References:** [1] Cohen (1905) *Meteoritenkunde*, Schweizerbart'sche Verlagsbuchhandlung, Stuttgart, Band III, 88-100; [2] Buchwald (1975) *Handbook of Iron Meteorites*. Univ. California Press, Berkeley, 3 vol., 1418 pp; [3] Wai and Wasson (1969) *GCA* 33, 1465-1471; [4] Varela et al., (2008) *LPS XXXIX*, Abstract #1373; [5] Bunch and Fuchs (1969) 54, 1509-1518; [6] Nehru et al. (1982) *Proc. LPSC 13th, JGR*. 87, Suppl., A365-A373; [7] Prinz et al., (1987) *LPS XVIII*, 800-801; [8] Varela et al., (2009) *MAPS* 44, A210; [9] Green, (1994) *Chemical Geology* 117, 1-36; [10] Wänke et al., (1983) *Phil. Trans. R. Soc. London A* 303, 287; [12] Newsom and Drake (1979) *GCA* 43, 689-707; [13] Weisberg et al. (1990) *Meteoritics* 25, 269-279; [14] Grossman and Olsen (1974) *GCA* 38, 173-187. [15] Meibom et al. (1999) *JGR* 104, 22,053–22,059; [16] Cambell and Humayun (2004) *GCA* 68, 3409-3422; [17] Ebel (2006) In *Meteorites and the Early Solar System II*, Lauretta and McSween (eds.) University of Arizona Press, 253-277.