Chinese Science Bulletin

© 2008 🔇 SCIENCE IN CHINA PRESS

Ammonium record over the last 96 years from the Muztagata glacier in Central Asia

ZHAO HuaBiao^{1,2†}, YAO TanDong^{3,1}, XU BaiQing³, LI Zhen¹ & DUAN KeQin¹

¹ State Key Laboratory of Cryospheric Science, Cold and Arid Regions Environmental and Engineering Research Institute, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Lanzhou 730000, China;

² Graduate University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100049, China;

³ Institute of Tibetan Plateau Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100085, China

As a major alkaline gas in the atmosphere, ammonia (NH_3) plays an important role in atmospheric chemistry. However, there is little knowledge about NH_3 variations in the Central Asia. Here we analyzed the ammonium (NH_4^+) history recorded in an ice core from the East Pamir in Central Asia, which was drilled on the Mt. Muztagata at the elevation of 7010 m a.s.l. in 2003. The core was carefully dated and NH_4^+ concentration history during 1907–2002 was reconstructed. The result shows that NH_4^+ concentration remained approximately constant until the 1930s after a sudden decrease at the very beginning of the 20th century, followed by a minimum in 1940 before increasing steadily to the peak at the end of 1990s. It is found that the annual mean NH_4^+ concentration was strongly associated with the Northern Hemisphere temperature, suggesting the impact of temperature on NH_3 emissions in the Central Asia. Moreover, an increase of NH_4^+ concentration after 1940 also reflects the enhancement of NH_3 emissions from anthropogenic sources such as fertilizer applications and livestock wastes in the 20th century.

Muztagata, ice core, ammonium concentration, ammonia emission, deposition, source

As the primary gaseous base in the atmosphere^[1], NH₃ influences the oxidation rate of SO_2 in cloud^[2,3], and neutralizes the acids generated in the atmosphere by the oxidation of SO_2 and NO_r (NO + NO₂). The resulting NH₄⁺ is a major component of atmospheric aerosols and precipitation^[4-8]. Atmospheric NH₃ is derived from a variety of sources, including livestock wastes, fertilizer applications, biomass burning, and so on^[1,9]. Globally, domestic animals are the largest source of atmospheric NH₃, comprising ~40% of natural and anthropogenic emissions combined, while synthetic fertilizers and agricultural crops together account for ~23% of total emissions^[5,8,10,11]. NH₃ is one of the most important N-containing compounds in the global nitrogen cycle. Excessive nitrogen deposition may lead to the eutrophication of terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems, altering both their ecological functioning and the diversity of plant species^[4,5,12,13], and to some extent, affecting global carbon cycle^[14–16]. In addition, atmospheric NH₃ is considered to be acidifying after deposition because of the nitrification processes by Nitrosomas and Nitrobacteria bacteria in the soil where H⁺ is produced^[2,17–19]. The control measures for NH₃ emissions are much later implemented than that for SO₂ and NO_x, which has caused the constantly high level of NH₃ emissions in Asia, for example, showed a dramatic increase from 24.6 Tg in 1989/1991 to 27.5 Tg in 2000^[20,21].

However, due to a lack of continuous long-term

doi: 10.1007/s11434-008-0139-2

[†]Corresponding author (email: zhaohb@lzb.ac.cn)

www.scichina.com | csb.scichina.com

Chinese Science Bulletin | April 2008 | vol. 53 | no. 8 | 1255-1261

Received October 29, 2007; accepted December 20, 2007

Supported by the National Basic Research Program of China (Grant No. 2005CB422004) and the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant Nos. 40121101, 40571039 and 40471022)

measurements of atmospheric NH₃ or NH₄⁺ in precipitation, it was difficult to further understand the impacts of NH₃ deposition on human health and biological environment. To find an alternative approach is therefore impending for investigating the atmospheric NH₃ content of the past. The high-resoluted ice core record thus outstands as one of the ideal proxies for paleoenvironmental and paleoclimatic reconstruction^[22 - 24]. The variations of atmospheric NH₃ content can be retrieved from the NH_4^+ concentration in ice cores, thereby reflecting the changes of NH₃ emission strength from regional sources. The global estimates of NH₃ emissions by some researchers differed from each other due to large uncertainties in emission factors for source categories^[1,2,8]. Furthermore, NH₃ emission shows a high spatial and temporal variability, which makes it very difficult to estimate global distribution of atmospheric NH₃ content from measurement alone. It is therefore necessary to reveal the regional atmospheric NH₃ content. Bearing this in mind, in this paper we will discuss the changes of atmospheric NH₃ content in the Central Asia over the last 96 years by analyzing the variations of NH_4^+ concentration in a Muztagata ice core.

1 Methodology

1.1 Ice core drilling and analytical procedure

Mt. Muztagata (75°06′E, 38°17′N, 7546 m a.s.l.) is located on the East Pamir Plateau, near the border of Tajikistan, Kyrgyzstan and Kazakhstan in Central Asia. In the summer of 2003, five ice cores (diameter 9.4 cm) were drilled at the elevation of 7010 m a.s.l. on the Muztagata glacier. The borehole temperature is -23.09° C at 10 m depth and -25.73° C near the bottom. The mean annual accumulation rate is ~56 cm (w.e.a⁻¹), and the firn/ice transition is observed at a depth of ~33 m^[25]. The high accumulation rate and low englacial temperature ensure the preservation of a climatic and environmental record. The ice cores were transported frozen to the Cold and Arid Regions Environmental and Engineering Research Institute (CAREERI), Chinese Academy of Sciences (CAS) for analysis.

This study focuses on the 54.6 m long Core3 nearly down to the bedrock. The ice core was sectioned continuously into 1223 samples, with a resolution of 3-5 cm per length. For each of the sample, an outer part of 1-1.5 cm thick was removed with pre-cleaned stainless

bistouries for stable oxygen isotope analysis, leaving the inner portion in pre-cleaned polyethylene sample container for further chemical analysis. All sampling procedures were performed in a cold (-5° C) clean room and were strictly quality-controlled to avoid any possible contamination. The samples were afterwards stored frozen in a cold room (-20° C) till analysis.

Analyses of stable oxygen isotope ratios (δ^{18} O) and soluble anion species (Cl⁻, NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-}) were performed in the Laboratory of Environment and Process of the Institute of Tibetan Plateau Research, CAS, using a MAT-253 mass spectrometer and a Dionex ICS-2500 ion chromatography, respectively. δ^{18} O values are expressed as the relative deviation of heavy isotope content of standard mean ocean water (SMOW), with the precision of the δ^{18} O measurement better than ± 0.2 %. The soluble cation species (Na⁺, NH₄⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺, Ca²⁺) were analyzed by a Dionex DX-600 ion chromatography in the State Key Laboratory of Cryospheric Science, CAREERI, CAS. Anions were analyzed with an AS11 analytical column, AG11 guard column, ASRS-ULTRA II 4-mm suppressor, 0.5 mL sampling loop and 25 mmol/L KOH eluent. Cations were analyzed with a CS12A analytical column, CG12A guard column, CSRS-ULTRA 4-mm suppressor, 25 µL sampling loop and 25 mmol/L MSA eluent. Samples were melted immediately prior to ion chromatographic analysis for inorganic ion compositions. The analytical uncertainty for NH_4^+ concentration is <3%, with others <1%. The detection limits for all ions are less than $1 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$. Detailed ion chromatography techniques were described by Buck and others^[26]. Baseline values for NH₄⁺ were subtracted from the measurement data.

1.2 Ice core dating

This ice core was dated by counting the seasonal variations of the stable oxygen isotopic profile, with verification in 1954 and 1963 by double β activity peaks as the results of the atmospheric thermonuclear tests in the early 1950s and the early 1960s. The upper 51.6 m of this core, including 1122 samples, was dated to span the period of 1907–2002 (Figure 1). The lowest 3 m section was not dated due to layer thinning near the bottom. Moreover, the profile of δ^{18} O in this core is strongly consistent during the overlapping period with the one in another 41.6 m ice core^[27] (figure omitted) drilled at the same site, thus verifying our dating result.



Figure 1 Variations of δ^{18} O and NH₄⁺ concentration (original sampling) in Muztagata ice core and dating result.

2 Results and discussions

2.1 Record of NH_4^+ concentration in Muztagata ice core

The original NH_4^+ record is shown in Figure 1. Large short-term concentration fluctuations are observed, and attributed to seasonal effects. The concentration of the aerosol species in snow reflects the pronounced seasonality of the atmospheric aerosol concentration. In the case of NH₄⁺, the seasonality is influenced by the seasonal variations of NH₃ emissions from animal excreta, soil and natural plant which are remarkably dependent on the ambient temperature^[4,5,8]. The agricultural activities, which are maximal in summer, also augment the seasonal variations^[28]. Figure 2 shows the variations of annual mean NH⁺₄ concentration in the period of 1907-2002, from which we can see that NH_4^+ concentration remained approximately constant until in the 1930s after a sudden decrease at the very beginning of 20th century, followed by a minimum in 1940 before increasing steadily to the peak at the end of 1990s. Though a weak drop can be observed around 1967/1968, the decadal average NH₄⁺ concentration in the 1990s generally increased by a factor of three compared to the 1940s.

The profiles of NH_4^+ concentration from Muztagata ice core and East Rongbuk ice $core^{[9,29,30]}$ in the Himalayas both displayed a decline trend at the beginning of 20th century and a rising trend after 1940 (Figure 2). However, the two series peaked at different periods of



Figure 2 Variations in annual mean NH_4^+ concentration in ice cores from East Rongbuk^[9,29,30], Belukha^[31], Muztagata and Colle Gnifetti^[6].

time, with Muztagata ice core series peaking in the late 1990s, while the East Rongbuk series in the 1980s. East Rongbuk NH⁴₄ variations reflect the changes of agriculture activities in the East and Southeast Asia and its relationship with atmospheric circulation^[9,29,30]. These four time series of NH⁴₄ concentration in Figure 2 all showed significant increase trends in the 20th century. It is also noteworthy, however, that NH⁴₄ concentration in Colle Gnifetti ice core^[6] had substantially increased since as early as the end of 19th century, earlier by about 50 years than that in Muztagata ice core. NH⁴₄ in Belukha ice core from the Siberian Altai^[31] displayed a decline trend since the 1880s, then experienced a strong ATMOSPHERIC SCIENCES

increase in the 1940s until peaked in the 1970s, though a slight decrease was apparent during the 1980s—1990s. The different NH_4^+ variations in ice cores may be caused by the regional differences in emission source strength and the atmospheric transport and deposition for NH_x ($NH_3 + NH_4^+$).

2.2 Relationship between NH_4^+ concentration and temperature

As NH₃ emission is mainly influenced by temperature, NH₃ content in the atmosphere therefore exhibits pronounced seasonal and diurnal cycles^[32]. Figure 3 shows the profiles of annual mean NH₄⁺ concentration and Northern Hemisphere temperature anomaly^[33]. For a comparison, annual mean air temperature record (data available at http://222.82.227.218:81/scbweb/index.htm) is also given from Taxkorgen Meteorological Station (75°14'E, 37°47'N, 3100 m a.s.l.), the nearest meteorological station to the ice core drilling site. Similar trends exist between NH₄⁺ concentration and air temperature during the overlapping period. The series of NH₄⁺ concentration is significantly correlated with that of the Northern Hemisphere temperature anomaly, especially after 1940 with the correlation coefficient of 0.70 (significant at 0.01 level, P < 0.0001). Global temperature fluctuations can alter the plant community structure in many ecosystems, thereby affecting the emission strength of atmospheric NH₃ from natural sources such as plant, soil and ocean. The high temperature may speed up NH₃ emissions from breakdown of animal excreta and dead plant in soil by ammoniafication^[30] (Defined as the breaking down of organic nitrogen compounds with releasing NH_3 or NH_4^+). The different responses of NH⁺₄ concentration to temperature before and



Figure 3 Comparison of annual mean NH_4^+ concentration with air temperature from Taxkorgen Meteorological Station and Northern Hemisphere temperature anomaly. The thick grey line represents the 3-year smoothing average.

after 1940 may be associated to some extent with nitrogen fertilizer applications. Synthetic fertilizer were not widely used until the middle of the 20th century^[30,34], causing more NH₃ volatilization from fertilizer applications accompanied by rising temperature^[24,35]. Besides, as a long-term nitrogen reservoir, soil has released more and more nitrogen compounds under a rapid warming over the past decades, thus contributing significantly to the total amounts of atmospheric NH₃.

2.3 Relationship between NH₄⁺ and acid species

A substantial part of the acid in the atmosphere is neutralized by NH₃^[4-8]. The resulting (NH₄)₂SO₄, NH₄-HSO₄ and NH₄NO₃ are important constituents of airborne fine particulate matter^[36]. In order to explore the possible effect of acid species on NH_4^+ concentration in the Muztagata ice core, annual mean concentrations are compared between NH_4^+ and acidic ions $(SO_4^{2-} + NO_3^-)$ (Figure 4). The correlation coefficients between the two time series are 0.61 during 1907-2002 and 0.76 during 1940-2002 (All significant at 0.01 level, P < 0.0001), respectively. This suggests that the three species may share the same sources or transportation and deposition processes^[37,38]. It is notable that annual mean NH₄⁺ concentration correlates more strongly with NO₃ than with SO_4^{2-} , with the correlation coefficients of 0.69 and 0.50 (All significant at 0.01 level, P < 0.0001), respectively. This is also the case with the East Rongbuk ice core^[29] and Belukha ice core^[38] (figures omitted), given the fact that atmospheric NH₃ and NO_x have lots of common sources such as fertilizer applications, natural soil, and biomass burning.



Figure 4 Comparison of annual mean concentrations between NH_4^+ and acidic ions $(SO_4^{2-} + NO_3^-)$ in Muztagata ice core.

1258

Virtually all NH_x emissions occur in the form of NH₃, with NH_4^+ in the atmosphere originated from chemical reactions of NH₃. Some of the emitted NH₃ return to the surface by dry deposition, while the others diffuse upwards over the source areas and then react with acid species. The reaction rate of NH₃ and acid species depends on the acid concentration, atmospheric humidity and air temperature^[4]. Also, the reaction rate has a large influence on the deposition and long-distance transport of NH_x because NH_3 is usually dry deposited at a high rate, whereas NH_4^+ is deposited much more slowly. Thus the amount and the temporal and spatial distribution of atmospheric NH_x depend not only on atmospheric turbulence but also on the degree to which the air mass is polluted and acidified^[30]. Based on these analyses, it is reasonable to conclude that NH₄⁺ concentration increase in the Muztagata ice core can be partly attributed to enhanced atmospheric acidification.

2.4 Possible sources of NH₄⁺ in ice core

In the global emission inventories for NH₃, about 60%-70% of the global NH₃ emission is estimated to come from the anthropogenic sources^[4,5]. The regions with the highest emission rates are found in Europe, the Indian Subcontinent, eastern China^[4,5], and parts of U.S^[39]. The rising NH₄⁺ concentration in Muztagata after 1940, partly due to the enhanced emission from natural sources caused by global warming, probably originated mainly from the increasing anthropogenic emissions. A growing population has boosted the agricultural activities, fertilizer applications and energy consumption, all of which would contribute to an increasing amount of NH₃ emission year by year^[30,31]. The similar trends of annual mean concentrations between NH₄⁺ and acid species suggest not only that NH₄⁺ concentration was affected by the acid content in the atmosphere, but also that the precursor gases (NH₃, SO₂ and NO_x) were all associated with anthropogenic pollution.

Arguably, dry deposition of NH_3 near the sources is most important for its short atmospheric lifetime. On the other hand, NH_3 can be converted to NH_4^+ in cloud droplets or on aerosol particles, resulting in a longer atmospheric lifetime than gaseous NH_3 . NH_4^+ can therefore be transported over long distances away from the sources and be mainly deposited by wet deposition^[4,9]. The climate of Mt. Muztagata region is affected by the prevailing westerlies. Accordingly, precipitation in this region is largely contributed by water vapor transport from the westerlies and local moisture circulation^[25,40]. Countries in Europe and Central Asia are therefore attributed as the main source regions for NH₄⁺ in Muztagata ice core, given their locations in the upwind direction of Mt. Muztagata. The rising trend of NH₄⁺ concentration in Colle Gnifetti ice core showed that NH₃ emissions in Europe had substantially increased in the 20th century^[6]. Yet NH₃ emission rates in European countries either showed a somewhat decline trend or remained stable during the 1980s—1990s^[19,34]. It seems that the variations of NH₄⁺ concentration in Muztagata ice core were slightly, if not at all, affected by NH₃ emissions in Europe based on the different trends between them.

The variations of NH_4^+ concentration in Muztagata ice core differ from those in Belukha ice core, although they are all subjected to the control of westerlies. This indicates that local emission sources around the regions had more contributions to the two ice cores. NH_4^+ concentration in Belukha ice core was attributable to biogenic emissions, biomass burning and agricultural activities in southern Siberia and its surrounding areas^[31]. Mt. Muztagata is adjacent to Central Asia regions, where agriculture and animal husbandry are well developed and play an important role in their economy^[41,42]. Emissions from agricultural activities, both crop and animal, are exactly the major sources for atmospheric NH₃^[1,9,10]. Otherwise, the total NH₃ amount emitted from Commonwealth of Independent States presented a persistent increase during the recent decades^[34]. Based on the above discussions, we suggest that NH₄⁺ in Muztagata ice core is mainly originated from NH₃ emissions in Central Asia and its surrounding regions. The contribution from Europe was trivial, though it does exist. As a confirmation of our result, Kreutz et al.^[43] analyzed the soluble ionic composition of a shallow firn core, Inilchek glacier, central Tianshan Mts. and also suggested that an increase of NH₄⁺ concentration was related to regional agricultural activities.

3 Conclusions

Variations of NH_4^+ concentration have been recovered over the last 96 years using an ice core record from Mt. Muztagata. An increase of NH_4^+ concentration after 1940 reflects the enhancement of NH_3 emissions from anthropogenic sources (e.g. fertilizer applications, livestock wastes) and natural sources (e.g. soil, natural plant) in the 20th century. Ice core NH_4^+ record is correlated

significantly with Northern Hemisphere temperature anomaly, reflecting a large scale temperature effects on NH₃ emissions and NH_x deposition under global warming. Due to the discrepancy in spatial distribution of atmospheric NH₃, the post-depositional effects for NH₄⁺ in ice core, and the shortage of detailed emission inventory in the upwind and surrounding regions, more available

- Schlesinger W H, Hartley A E. A global budget for atmospheric NH₃. Biogeochemistry, 1992, 15(3): 191–211
- 2 Buijsman E, Maas H F M, Asman W A H. Anthropogenic NH₃ emissions in Europe. Atmos Environ, 1987, 21(5): 1009-1022
- 3 ApSimon H M, Kruse M, Bell J N B. Ammonia emissions and their role in acid deposition. Atmos Environ, 1987, 21(9): 1939-1946
- 4 Asman W A H, Sutton M A, Schjorring J K. Ammonia: emission, atmospheric transport and deposition. New Phytol, 1998, 139(1): 27-48
- 5 Bouwman A F, Lee D S, Asman W A H, et al. A global high- resolution emission inventory for ammonia. Global Biogeochem Cy, 1997, 11(4): 561-588
- 6 Döscher A, Gäggeler H W, Schotterer U, et al. A historical record of ammonium concentrations from a glacier in the Alps. Geophys Res Lett, 1996, 23(20): 2741-2744
- 7 Asman W A H. Modeling the atmospheric transport and deposition of ammonia and ammonium: an overview with special reference to Denmark. Atmos Environ, 2001, 35(11): 1969–1983
- 8 Walker J T, Whitall D R, Robarge W, et al. Ambient ammonia and ammonium aerosol across a region of variable ammonia emission density. Atmos Environ, 2004, 38(9): 1235-1246
- 9 Hou S G, Qin D H, Zhang D Q, et al. A 154 a high-resolution ammonium record from the Rongbuk Glacier, north slope of Mt. Qomolangma (Everest), Tibet-Himal region. Atmos Environ, 2003, 37(5): 721-729
- 10 Robarge W P, Walker J T, McCulloch R B, et al. Atmospheric concentrations of ammonia and ammonium at an agricultural site in the southeast United States. Atmos Environ, 2002, 36(10): 1661-1674
- 11 Walker J T, Aneja V P, Dickey D A. Atmospheric transport and wet deposition of ammonium in North Carolina. Atmos Environ, 2000, 34(20): 3407-3418
- 12 Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, et al. Livestock's Long Shadow: Environmental Issues and Options. Rome: FAO, 2006. 101–114
- Galperin M Y, Sofiey M A. The long-range transport of ammonia and ammonium in the Northern Hemisphere. Atmos Environ, 1998, 32(3): 373-380
- 14 Asner G P, Seastedt T R, Townsend A R. The decoupling of terrestrial carbon and nitrogen cycles. Bioscience, 1997, 47(4): 226–234
- 15 Tian H Q, Melillo J M, Kicklighter D W, Pan S F, et al. Regional carbon dynamics in monsoon Asia and its implications to the global carbon cycle. Global Planet Change, 2003, 37(3-4): 201–217
- 16 Lü C Q, Tian H Q. Spatial and temporal patterns of nitrogen deposition in China: Synthesis of observational data. J Geophys Res, 2007, 112, D22S05, doi:10.1029/2006JD007990
- 17 Galloway J N. Acid deposition: Perspectives in time and space. Water Air Soil Pollut, 1995, 85(1): 15-24
- 18 Van Breemen N, Burrough P A, Velthorst E J, et al. Soil acidification

data are needed for elucidating the detailed characteristics of NH_4^+ variations in Muztagata ice core and recovering the NH_3 emission history.

We are grateful to all members of the 2003 Muztagata Expedition for their assistances in the field, Qu Dongmei and Wang Xiaoxiang for their help in laboratory work, and two anonymous reviewers for their thoughtful comments on this paper.

from ammonium sulphate in forest canopy through fall. Nature, 1982, 299: $548\!-\!550$

- 19 De Leeuw F A A M. A set of emission indicators for long-range transboundary air pollution. Environ Sci Pol, 2002, 5(2): 135–145
- 20 Streets D G, Bond T C, Carmichael G R, et al. An inventory of gaseous and primary aerosol emissions in Asia in the year 2000. J Geophys Res, 2003, 108(D21), 8809, doi:10.1029/2002JD003093
- 21 Zhao D W, Wang A P. Estimation of anthropogenic ammonia emissions in Asia. Atmos Environ, 1994, 28(4): 689-694
- 22 Yao T D, Wang N L. Ice core study—the past, the present and the future. Chin Sci Bull, 1997, 42(13): 1057–1064
- 23 Duan K Q, Thompson L G, Yao T D, et al. A 1000 year history of atmospheric sulfate concentrations in southern Asia as recorded by a Himalayan ice core. Geophys Res Lett, 2007, 34, L01810, doi:10.1029/2006GL027456
- 24 Kang S C, Mayewski P A, Qin D H, et al. Glaciochemical records from a Mt. Everest ice core: Relationship to atmospheric circulation over Asia. Atmos Environ, 2002, 36(21): 3351-3361
- 25 Li Z, Yao T D, Tian L D, et al. Atmospheric Pb variations in Central Asia since 1955 from Muztagata ice core record, eastern Pamirs. Chin Sci Bull, 2006, 51(16): 1996-2000
- 26 Buck C F, Mayewski P A, Spencer M J, et al. Determination of major ions in snow and ice cores by ion chromatography. J Chrom, 1992, 594(1-2): 225-228
- 27 Tian L D, Yao T D, Li Z, et al. Recent rapid warming trend revealed from the isotopic record in Muztagata ice core, eastern Pamirs. J Geophys Res, 2006, 111, D13103, doi:10.1029/2005JD006249
- 28 Goebes M D, Strader R, Davidson C. An ammonia emission inventory for fertilizer application in the United States. Atmos Environ, 2003, 37(18): 2539-2550
- 29 Qin D H, Hou S G, Zhang D Q, et al. Preliminary results from the chemical records of an 80.4 m ice core recovered from East Rongbuk Glacier, Qomolangma (Mount Everest), Himalaya. Ann Glaciol, 2002, 35: 278-284
- 30 Kang S C, Mayewski P A, Qin D H, et al. Twentieth century increase of atmospheric ammonia recorded in Mount Everest ice core. J Geophys Res, 2002, 107(D21), 4595, doi:10.1029/2001JD001413
- 31 Olivier S, Blaser C, Brütsch S, et al. Temporal variations of mineral dust, biogenic tracers, and anthropogenic species during the past two centuries from Belukha ice core, Siberian Altai. J Geophys Res, 2006, 111, D05309, doi:10.1029/2005JD005830
- 32 Fuhrer K, Neftel A, Anklin M, et al. High-resolution ammonium ice core record covering a complete glacial-interglacial cycle. J Geophys Res, 1996, 101 (D2): 4147-4164
- 33 Jones P D, Parker D E, Osborn T J, et al. Global and hemispheric temperature anomalies: Land and marine instrumental records. In: Boden T A, Kaiser D P, Sepanski R J, et al, eds. Trends: A Compen-

1260

dium of Data on Global Change. Oak Ridge, Tennessee: Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, U.S. Department of Energy, 2006

- 34 Van Aardenne J A, Dentener F G, Olivier J G J, et al. A 1°×1° resolution data set of historical anthropogenic trace gas emissions for the period 1890–1990. Global Biogeochem Cy, 2001, 15(4): 909–928
- 35 Kim J Y, Song C H, Ghim Y S, et al. An investigation on NH₃ emissions and particulate NH₄⁺–NO₃⁻ formation in East Asia. Atmos Environ, 2006, 40(12): 2139–2150
- 36 Battye W, Aneja V P, Roelle P A. Evaluation and improvement of ammonia emissions inventories. Atmos Environ, 2003, 37(27): 3837-3883
- 37 Knüsel S, Brütsch S, Henderson K A, et al. ENSO signals of the twentieth century in an ice core from Nevado Illimani, Bolivia. J Geophys Res, 2005, 110, D01102, doi:10.1029/2004JD005420
- 38 Olivier S, Schwikowski M, Brütsch S, et al. Glaciochemical investigation of an ice core from Belukha glacier, Siberian Altai. Geophys

Res Lett, 2003, 30(19), 2019, doi:10.1029/2003GL018290

- 39 Sharma M, Kishore S, Tripathi S N, et al. Role of atmospheric ammonia in the formation of inorganic secondary particulate matter: A study at Kanpur, India. J Atmos Chem, 2007, 58(1): 1−17
- 40 Yu W S, Yao T D, Tian L D, et al. Relationships between δ^{18} O in summer precipitation and temperature and moisture trajectories at Muztagata, western China. Sci China Ser D-Earth Sci, 2006, 49(1): 27–35
- 41 Suleimenov M, Iniguez L, Musayeva M. Policy Reforms and Livestock Development in Central Asia. In: Babu S C, Djalalov S, eds. Policy Reforms and Agriculture Development in Central Asia. New York: Springer, 2006. 277–309
- 42 Wilson R T. Livestock, pastures, and the environment in the Kyrgyz Republic, Central Asia. Mt Res Dev, 1997, 17(1): 57–68
- 43 Kreutz K J, Aizen V B, Cecil L D, et al. Oxygen isotopic and soluble ionic composition of a shallow firn core, Inilchek glacier, central Tien Shan. J Glaciol, 2001, 47(159): 548-554

Science in China Series D: Earth Sciences

A SELECTION OF RECENTLY PUBLISHED PAPERS

Petrogenesis of Shangyu gabbro-diorites in western Shandong: Geochronological and geochemical evidence

YANG ChengHai, XU WenLiang, YANG DeBin, WANG Wei, WANG WeiDe, LIU JinMin (2008, 51(4): 481)

SHRIMP zircon U-Pb dating from K-bentonite in the top of Ordovician of Wangjiawan Section, Yichang, Hubei, China

HU YanHua, ZHOU JiBin, SONG Biao, LI Wei, SUN WeiDong (2008, 51(4): 493)

Gold contents of both mantle-derived xenoliths and sulfides in them from eastern China

YUE KeFen, HE Ying (2008, 51(4): 499)

Carbon isotopic compositions of 1,2,3,4-tetramethylbenzene in marine oil asphaltenes from the Tarim Basin: Evidence for the source formed in a strongly reducing environment

JIA WangLu, PENG PingAn, XIAO ZhongYao (2008, 51(4): 509)

Effects of abnormally high heat stress on petroleum in reservoir-An example from the Tazhong 18 Well in the Tarim Basin ZHU DongYa, JIN ZhiJun, HU WenXuan, ZHANG XueFeng (2008, 51(4): 515)

Evolution of strontium isotopic composition of seawater from Late Permian to Early Triassic based on study of marine carbonates, Zhongliang Mountain, Chongqing, China

HUANG SiJing, Qing HaiRuo, HUANG PeiPei, HU ZuoWei, WANG QingDong, ZOU MingLiang, LIU HaoNian (2008, 51(4): 528)

Evolution and global correlation for strontium isotopic composition of marine Triassic from Huaying Mountains, eastern Sichuan, China

HU ZuoWei, HUANG SiJing, QING HaiRuo, WANG QingDong, WANG ChunMei, GAO XiaoYong (2008, 51(4): 540)

Major element, trace element, and Sr, Nd and Pb isotope studies of Cenozoic basalts from the South China Sea YAN QuanShu, SHI XueFa, WANG KunShan, BU WenRui, XIAO Long (2008, 51(4): 550)

Mechanism for calcite dissolution and its contribution to development of reservoir porosity and permeability in the Kela 2 gas field, Tarim Basin, China

YU BingSong, DONG HailLiang, RUAN Zhuang (2008, 51(4): 567)

The uplifting process of the Bogda Mountain during the Cenozoic and its tectonic implication

WANG ZongXiu, LI Tao, ZHANG Jin, LIU YongQing, MA ZongJin (2008, 51(4): 579)

Depositional model of Permian Luodianian volcanic island and its impact on the distribution of fusulinid assemblage in southern Qinghai, Northwest China

NIU ZhiJun, XU AnWu, WANG JianXiong, DUAN QiFa, ZHAO XiaoMing, YAO HuaZhou (2008, 51(4): 594)

Modern microbialites and their environmental significance, Meiji reef atoll, Nansha (Spratly) Islands, South China Sea SHEN JianWei, WANG Yue (2008, 51(4): 608)

Bacterial community in deep subseafloor sediments from the western Pacific "warm pool"

ZHAO Jing, ZENG RunYing (2008, 51(4): 618)

ZHAO HuaBiao et al. Chinese Science Bulletin | April 2008 | vol. 53 | no. 8 | 1255-1261

1261