

# MAGNESIUM ISOTOPES IN LUNAR ROCKS AND GLASSES AND IMPLICATIONS FOR ORIGIN OF THE MOON

Paul H. Warren, Eric Tonui and Edward D. Young

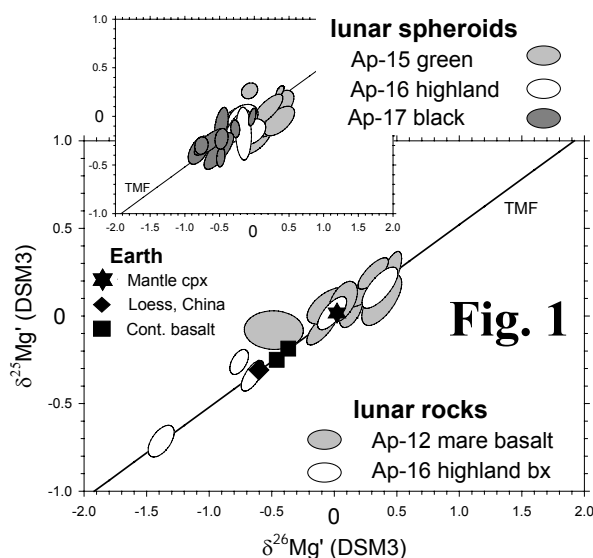
Institute of Geophysics, UCLA, Los Angeles, CA 90095-1567 (pwarren@ucla.edu)

Volatile depletion was a ubiquitous concomitant of planet formation, especially in the inner solar system. Isotopic variations of Mg, a major element with three stable isotopes, can potentially provide insight into this important aspect of planetary origin [1-4]. Refractory components within chondrites have  $\delta^{25}\text{Mg}$  up to +10 ‰ [4]. Relatively large variations (up to 3 ‰) have even been reported for terrestrial mantle samples [5]. Lunar samples are of interest because the “bone dry” Moon is often envisaged as a product of some extraordinary process(es) that gave it a refractory-element enriched bulk composition; and because various types of spherules dispersed in the lunar regolith formed by ballistic transport of molten droplets.

For this study, we employed a UV laser-ablation MC-ICPMS system to measure Mg isotope ratios in mafic components of highland impact melt breccia 65785 and Apollo 12 mare basalts 12006, 12009, 12012 and 12016; mare volcanic spheroids from Apollo 15 (15427 green glasses) and Apollo 17 (74002 black spheroids); and spheroids, presumably almost all of impact melt origin, from highland soils 61241 and 65700. We used a standard-sample comparison method to correct for mass fractionation in the MC-ICPMS instrument. The laser was a 213 nm system operated at a sample fluence of  $\sim 1 \text{ J/cm}^2$ . Spot diameters were 50-75  $\mu\text{m}$  for crystalline samples, 40  $\mu\text{m}$  for mare volcanic spheroids, and as narrow as 25  $\mu\text{m}$  for highland impact spheroids; with pit depths of order 20  $\mu\text{m}$ . Our  $\delta^{25}\text{Mg}$  precision, inferred from analyses of olivine from the terrestrial San Carlos (USNM#136718) peridotite, is  $\pm 0.2\text{‰}$ . We have also obtained similar (but still preliminary) results by applying a 193 nm excimer laser to fused glasses of several lunar meteorites.

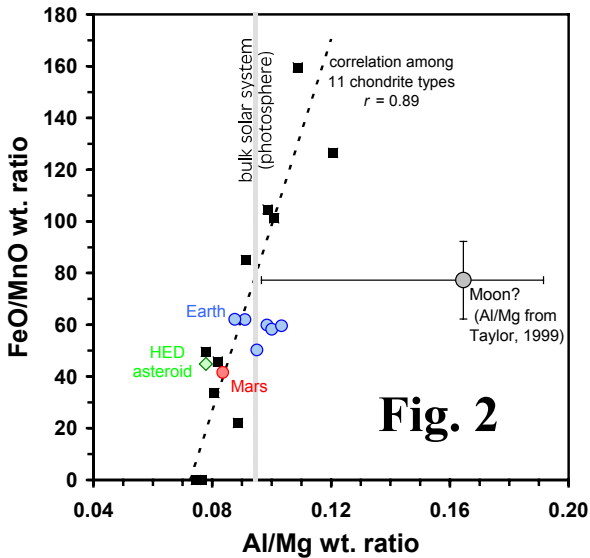
Previously, Esat and Taylor [2] (data mostly originally published by [6]) reported 13 lunar  $\delta^{25}\text{Mg}$  analyses, 4 for breccia 67016 and 9 for mare volcanic glasses. They found no fractionation vs. terrestrial Mg, but their data were imprecise, with an “analytical reproducibility” of 1.5 ‰. Norman et al. [3] showed far more precise LA-MCICP-MS data for Apollo 12 olivines, but they found it necessary to correct for a strong matrix effect. In their initial data, the most FeO-rich olivines (Fo $\sim$ 50) appeared  $\sim 1.4\text{‰}$  heavier than the San Carlos (SC) reference terrestrial olivine. After correction for FeO, the data of [3] indicate close similarity between lunar basalts and various Earth mafic rocks. Our measurements showed no such FeO-linked matrix effect. We did

notice a similar effect when we tested an instrumental configuration with a 193-nm laser combined with a small sample cell that we normally used only in conjunction with a 213-nm laser. But with the two configurations normally employed, we observed no correlation between  $mg$  (over the range 29-80 mol%) and  $\delta^{25}\text{Mg}$ .



Our results (Fig. 1; error ellipses are 1- $\sigma$ ) indicate little systematic fractionation vs. Earth's mantle for any of the five types of analyzed lunar material. Only a single 65785 spot (dominantly pyroxene) yielded a result several sigma from 0. Note that the regolith spheroid analyses show greater scatter, as a result of the lesser spot diameters (and lower signal) required for these tiny samples. Even so, it appears that the Apollo 15 green VLT-mare glasses are significantly heavier than their Apollo 17 high-Ti counterparts.

By far the most abundant refractory elements are Al and Ca. By some estimates [e.g., 7-9] these elements are not significantly enriched in the bulk Moon. However, Fig. 2 compares the estimated bulk-Moon Al/Mg ratio according to Taylor [10; cf. 2] with a variety of chondrites analyzed by Jarosewich [11], the solar photosphere [12], and estimated bulk compositions for Earth, Mars and the HED asteroid (literature estimates, averaged; from review by [7]). Compared to the bulk solar system, to Earth, or to chondrites of similar FeO/MnO, Taylor's [10] estimated Moon is enriched in Al by a factor of  $\sim 1.75$ .



The issues of volatile depletion and refractory enrichment are not necessarily related. For 10 of the 11 basic types of chondrites [11], total depletion of every constituent with volatility (i.e., solar nebula condensation temperature: [13]) between that of Si and the most volatile of all ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) would increase the concentrations of all elements more refractory than Si by a factor of 1.02-1.09 (average 1.05), an “enrichment” that, in a bulk planet, must be hard to detect. The refractory enrichments could conceivably arise by preferential accretion of some minor, almost pure-refractory component. However, the only realistic candidates for such a role among chondritic materials, the CAIs, have highly distinctive O-isotopic compositions [14]. If the refractory-enriched bulk Moon hypothesis is correct, the enrichments are more plausibly the result of loss of less refractory major oxides during high-temperature processing. Ignoring potential fractionation among  $\text{FeO} + \text{MgO} + \text{SiO}_2$  ( $\text{FeO}$  is more volatile than  $\text{MgO}$  [15], yet the Moon is widely [e.g., 8-10] claimed to be not depleted but enriched in  $\text{FeO}/\text{MgO}$  in comparison to Earth), a 1.75-fold enrichment in refractory elements would require that 43% of a former complement of Mg was lost.

The Moon is generally believed to have formed as a result of a giant impact between Earth and a roughly Mars-sized intruder. According to Canup [16], 28% of the post-impact orbiting matter in a nominal giant impact model is heated to  $>5000^\circ\text{C}$ , and only 24% is at  $<2000^\circ\text{C}$ . The ultimate formation of the Moon from such an orbiting silicate cloud remains a major extrapolation, but it is not unreasonable to suppose that the major oxides might have recondensed less efficiently than Al, Ca and other refractories. The hypothesis of refractory-enrichment by differential recondensation goes back to one of the very earliest formulations of the giant

impact hypothesis [17].

For the purpose of testing such hypotheses, an advantage of Mg is that it is a major element. Humayun and Clayton [18] observed no K isotopic effects in lunar samples, and Poitrasson et al. [19] observed only very small effects in Fe. As a minor element much more volatile than bulk lunar-terrestrial matter, K was conceivably accreted preponderantly in a minor volatile-rich component whose provenance and/or physical evolution were atypical of the bulk Moon and Earth. No such exceptionality can be invoked for Mg (or Fe).

The precise Mg-isotopic match between the Moon and other primitive materials, including Earth’s mantle, implies that Rayleigh distillation can be eliminated as a potential mechanism for achieving the putative extraordinary enrichments in refractory lithophile elements. However, ideal Rayleigh distillation requires that heating and vaporization (or cooling and condensation) occur on a time scale commensurate with the time scale for mixing within the condensed material [1]. It is still possible, in principle, that the giant impact origin of the Moon led to a major volatility-depletion of Mg. But credibility is further strained by the popular notion [e.g., 2, 8-10] of a large enrichment in the comparatively volatile FeO vs. the Earth. Systematically subchondritic Nb/Ta ratios among lunar rocks [20] (cf. the precise Moon-Earth matches in O [14] and Cr [21] isotopes) suggest at least 35% of the Moon was derived from the Earth.

**References:** [1] Young E. D. et al. (2002) GCA 66, 683. [2] Esat T. M. & Taylor S. R. (1999) Int. Geol. Rev. 41, 31. [3] Norman M. D. et al. (2004) LPSC abs. 1447. [4] Richter F. M. et al. (2002) GCA 66, 521. [5] Pearson N. J. et al. (2002) GCA 66, A584. [6] Esat T. M. et al. (1979) Science 206, 190. [7] Warren P. H. (2005) MaPS, submitted. [8] Wänke H. & Dreibus G. (1988) Phil. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. A325, 545. [9] Jones J. H. & Delano J. W. (1986) GCA 53, 513. [10] Taylor Sr. R. (1999) In *Encyclopedia of the Solar System* (eds. P. R. Weissman et al.), p. 247-275. [11] Jarosewich E. (1990) Meteoritics 25, 323. [12] Palme H. and Jones A. (2004) In *Treatise on Geochemistry, Volume 1, Meteorites, Comets, and Planets* (ed. A. M. Davis), pp. 559-599. [13] Wasson J. T. (1985) *Meteorites: Their Record of Early Solar System History*. [14] Clayton R. N. & Mayeda T. K. (1996) GCA 60, 1999. [15] Cohen B. A. et al. (2004) GCA 68, 16661. [16] Canup R. M. (2004) Ann. Rev. Astron. Astroph. 42, 441. [17] Cameron A. G. W. & Ward W. R. (1976) Lunar Sci. 7, 120. [18] Humayun M. & Clayton R. N. (1995) GCA 59, 2131. [19] Poitrasson F. et al. (2004) EPSL 223, 253. [20] Münker C. et al. (2003) Science 301, 84. [21] Lugmair G. W. & Shukolyukov A. (1998) GCA 62, 2863.