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1 An experimental investigation of F, CI and H₂O mineral-melt partitioning in a reduced, model lunar system. 2 3 Nicola J. Potts¹, Geoffrey D. Bromiley^{1,2*}, Richard A. Brooker³ 4 5 ¹School of GeoSciences, Grant Institute, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK. 6 ²Centre for Science at Extreme Conditions, University of Edinburgh, UK. 7 8 ³School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK 9 10 *corresponding author: geoffrey.bromiley@ed.ac.uk

11 12

13 Abstract

14 It is believed that the Moon formed following collision of a large planetesimal with the early 15 Earth. Over the ~4 Gyr since this event the Moon has been considerably less processed by 16 17 geological activity than the Earth, and may provide a better record of processes and conditions in the early Earth-Moon system. There have been many studies of magmatic volatiles such as 18 H, F, Cl, S and C in lunar materials. However, our ability to interpret variable volatile contents 19 in the lunar sample suite is dependent on our understanding of volatile behaviour in lunar 20 21 systems. This is currently constrained by limited experimental data. Here, we present the first experimental mineral-melt partitioning coefficients for F, Cl and H₂O in a model lunar system 22 23 under appropriately reduced conditions (log fO₂ to IW-2.1, i.e. oxygen fugacity down to 2.1 log 24 units below the Fe-FeO buffer). Data are consistent with structural incorporation of F, Cl and 25 OH⁻ in silicate melt, olivine and pyroxene under conditions of the lunar mantle. Oxygen fugacity 26 has a limited effect on H₂O speciation, and partitioning of H₂O, F and Cl is instead largely dependent on mineral chemistry and melt structure. Partition coefficients are broadly 27 28 consistent with a mantle source region for lunar volcanic products that is significantly depleted 29 in F, Cl and H₂O, and depleted in Cl relative to F and H₂O, compared to the terrestrial mantle. Partitioning data are also used to model volatile redistribution during lunar magma ocean 30 (LMO) crystallisation. The volatile content of lunar mantle cumulates is dependent upon 31 32 proportion of trapped liquid during LMO solidification. However, differences in mineral-melt 33 partitioning during LMO solidification can result in significant enrichment on F relative to Cl, 34 and F relative to H₂O, in cumulate phases relative to original LMO composition. As such, CI

depletion in lunar volcanic products may in part be a result of LMO solidification.

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38 1. Introduction

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The presence of 'water' or related H-bearing species, i.e. H₂O, OH⁻, H₂ etc, in the interior of 40 41 the Earth has a controlling influence on a range of mantle properties from melting behaviour 42 to rheology (Peslier, 2010, and references therein). The additional role of water in sustaining 43 life means that the origin of Earth's volatiles and the timing of their delivery are key areas of 44 study in Earth and planetary sciences. However, many geological processes have modified the Earth since its initial formation, redistributing these volatiles and masking geochemical 45 signatures of their origin. If it is accepted that the Earth and Moon share some common history, 46 47 the question is when did their compositions diverge and to what extent (Albarède, 2009). According to the canonical "Giant Impact" hypothesis, the Moon formed following collision of 48

49 a Mars-sized planetesimal with the early Earth (Canup and Agnor, 2000; Canup, 2004). This catastrophic heating event was previously believed to be consistent with an anhydrous lunar 50 interior and lunar sample suite (Lucey et al., 2006; Taylor et al., 2006). The subsequent 51 detection of water and other volatiles in volcanic lunar glasses (Saal et al., 2008) has heralded 52 a new era of lunar research and reinvestigation of the lunar sample suite. This has revealed 53 the presence of 'water' in volcanic lunar glasses (Saal et al., 2008, 2013; Greenwood, 2018), 54 in apatites in mare basalts (Boyce et al., 2010; McCubbin et al., 2010a; McCubbin et al., 55 2010b; Greenwood et al., 2011; Barnes et al., 2013; Greenwood, 2018), in olivine-hosted melt 56 inclusions in mare basalts (Chen et al., 2015; Hauri et al., 2011; Hauri et al., 2015; Ni et al., 57 2017; Ni et al., 2019), in plagioclase from lunar anorthosites (Hui et al., 2013; 2017), as well 58 as halogens in mesostasis in lunar basalts (Greenwood et al., 2020). It is now clear that 59 various lunar mantle source regions contain appreciable H, in addition to Cl, F, C and S. As 60 61 the Moon shares a common origin with the Earth, the logical conclusion is that a similar 62 process may have been involved in volatile delivery to both components of the early Earth-Moon system. Volatiles were either delivered to the Earth prior to the Moon-forming event or 63 delivered to the Earth-Moon system shortly after the Moon-forming event, whilst the newly-64 65 formed Moon was still in a largely molten state. As the Moon has remained less affected by large-scale geological processes since its formation, the lunar volatile budget may provide 66 much needed insight into the early Earth-Moon system, and ultimately, provide constraints on 67 the origin of Earth's hydrosphere. 68

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70 The lunar sample suite is consistent with a high temperature origin for the Moon. For example, 71 the lunar anorthositic crust probably represents a plagioclase floatation crust formed during 72 lunar magma ocean (LMO) solidification (Warren, 1985). The later mare basalts most likely 73 formed by partial melting of deeper mantle cumulates, also produced by the same LMO 74 solidification process, following late-stage cumulate overturn (Ryder, 1991). As a result, the 75 volatile content of mare basalts and associated volcanic glasses provides insight into the volatile budget of the lunar mantle melts and the LMO solidification products (e.g. Hauri et al. 76 2011; Saal et al. 2008). With the detection of 'water' in lunar materials and inferred 'water' 77 contents in parental lunar magmas, it is tempting to make direct comparison with terrestrial 78 79 magmas. For example, Hauri et al. (2011) noted that volatile contents of melt inclusions in lunar olivine are similar to those in terrestrial mid-ocean ridge basalts, implying similar volatile 80 budgets in terrestrial and lunar mantle source regions. However, any such comparison can be 81 82 misleading because of differences in magmatic conditions between evolved terrestrial and 83 lunar systems. Mare basalts and associated volcanic glasses are reduced compared to terrestrial volcanic materials, with mineral assemblages and direct oxygen fugacity (fO_2) 84 measurements indicating fO₂ below that of the iron-wüstite (IW, i.e. Fe-FeO) solid buffer, and 85 86 either at or near Fe-metal saturation (Longhi, 1992; Shearer et al., 2006). The reduced nature of lunar magmas implies melting of a similarly reduced lunar interior (Longhi, 1992), with the 87 oxidation state of the source region for mare basalts and volcanic glasses generally assumed 88 to be at least 2 log units lower than Earth's upper mantle (Rutherford and Papale, 2009; Sato, 89 90 1976). Oxygen fugacity has a fundamental control on 'water' or H incorporation in silicate 91 materials. In terrestrial systems at high mantle temperatures and pressures 'water' is 92 incorporated into nominally anhydrous minerals such as olivine and pyroxenes as interstitial H associated with underbonded O atom sites (e.g. Skogby et al., 1990; Smyth et al., 1991; 93 Ingrin and Skogby, 2000; Stalder and Skogby, 2003; Bromiley et al., 2004; Bromiley and 94 95 Bromiley, 2006; Smyth et al., 2006), forming various O-H defects (Lemaire et al., 2004; Matveev et al, 2005; Grant et al, 2007). In terrestrial silicate melts, water is incorporated initially 96

97 as OH⁻, with molecular H₂O becoming more dominant at higher total water contents, at least under more oxidising conditions (e.g. Stolper, 1982; Pandya et al., 1992; Dixon et al., 1995). 98 This has recently been contested by Cody et al. (2020) who suggest that H₂O dominates at 99 low H abundances, at least in highly polymerised silicate melts, although whether this is true 100 in less polymerised, basaltic melts remains unclear. Under reducing conditions H₂O becomes 101 unstable as a species, and other H-related defects such as H_2 and CH_4 are observed in 102 spectroscopic investigations of melts at the expense of OH⁻ (Kadik et al., 2006; Mysen et al., 103 104 2011; Hirschmann et al., 2012; Ardia et al., 2013). Magmas are commonly used as probes of 105 planetary interiors as they represent escaped partial melts that transport information about source regions. The 'water' content of magmas is controlled in part by mineral-melt partitioning 106 during partial melting of the mantle source. Any change in speciation of 'water' as a function 107 of fO_2 could result in significant changes in partitioning. The 'water' content of a magma will 108 likely depend on both the H concentration and the fO_2 in its mantle source region, and any 109 110 comparison between lunar and terrestrial magmas must take this into account. Kadik et al. (2006) noted that at high pressure in silicate melts at fO₂ below IW, H₂ becomes increasingly 111 important at the expense of more oxidised species. Hirschmann et al. (2012) noted that the 112 113 proportion of H₂ in lunar magmas is low under the low total water contents of the lunar interior. However, in reduced lunar systems over a range of inferred bulk 'water' contents (Elkins-114 Tanton and Grove, 2011) the proportion of H_2/H_2+H_2O could range up to 20-50%. In solid 115 phases under similarly reducing conditions, Yang et al. (2016) demonstrated that mantle 116 silicates can also incorporate some molecular H₂, in addition to OH defects. The effects of any 117 change in speciation on volatile behaviour remain unclear. Newcombe et al. (2017) 118 demonstrated that degassing mechanisms in lunar melts over a range of highly reducing 119 conditions (below the IW buffer) are strongly controlled by H speciation, although they noted 120 that diffusion is dominated by flux of OH^2 rather than H₂. Recently, Lin et al. (2019) 121 122 demonstrated that fO_2 has a strong control on H_2O partitioning between plagioclase and silicate melt, but aside from that study there is an absence of data on the effect of fO_2 on 123 volatile partitioning in lunar systems. Here we present the first experimental data on 124 partitioning of H₂O, F and Cl in a reduced, model lunar mantle lithology system. F and Cl are 125 important tracers in lunar materials (e.g. Hauri et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2015), and are 126 increasingly used to provide insight into volatile redistribution during terrestrial geological 127 128 processes (e.g. Urann et al., 2017; Klemme and Stalder, 2018). Furthermore, isotopic variations of CI in lunar materials provide significant additional insight into lunar magmatic 129 130 processes (McCubbin et al., 2011; Potts et al., 2018; Boyce et al., 2018). Therefore, combined 131 study of F, Cl and H₂O distribution during magmatic processes provides a powerful tool for reinvestigating the importance of measured volatile concentrations in lunar samples, and for 132 drawing inferences on volatile delivery to the early Earth-Moon system. 133

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136 **2. Methods**

137 2.1 System and bulk composition

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To constrain volatile mineral-melt partitioning during lunar mantle melting, a synthetic starting material was used with a composition similar to lunar low-Ti, picritic, green volcanic glass beads. These pyroclastic glasses are believed to be amongst the most primitive lunar samples (Delano, 1979) and suggested to represent partial melts from lunar mantle cumulates formed at around 1.5 to 2.5 GPa (Shearer et al., 2006). A composition, corresponding to an average green lunar glass from Saal et al. (2008) was chosen (Table 1). This composition is close to that of Apollo 15A green glasses that best represent primitive lunar melts with minimal mantlecumulate assimilation (Barr and Grove, 2007).

147

A homogenous, reduced starting material was made by first grinding high-purity oxides (SiO₂, 148 Al₂O₃, MgO, TiO₂, Fe₂O₃, Cr₂O₃) and carbonates (Na₂O, CaCO₃, K₂CO₃), under isopropanol 149 in an agate pestle and mortar for 40 minutes. Prior to weighing, SiO₂, TiO₂, MgO, and Al₂O₃ 150 were fired at 1000 °C in a box furnace for 24 hours. These were then stored in a 110 °C oven 151 152 with the other powders. After grinding, the mixture was transferred to an Fe-saturated Pt 153 crucible and decarbonated in a box furnace from 600 to 900 °C over eight hours. The mixture 154 was removed from the furnace and stored in a 110 °C oven while the furnace was raised to 1550 °C. The mixture was then inserted into the hot spot of the furnace for 30 minutes. The 155 mixture was removed and guenched to a homogenous glass by inserting the bottom of the Pt 156 crucible in water, and then reground. The resulting fine powder was placed in an Fe-saturated 157 Pt crucible and reduced in a 1 atmosphere furnace at 1200 °C for 24 hours using a CO₂-H₂ 158 gas mix equivalent to two log units below the iron-wustite buffer (IW-2; log fO2 = -14.6). After 159 regrinding, halogens and water were added as CaF₂ and CaCl₂ and Al(OH)₃. Al and Ca 160 161 proportions prior to glassing were calculated so that addition of volatiles resulted in the final, 162 desired bulk composition.

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165 2.2 High-pressure experiments

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167 Encapsulation techniques for highly reduced, high pressure experiments are challenging with a high failure rate resulting from a loss of capsule integrity (physical or chemical; see section 168 3). After much trial and error, two capsule designs were used for these high-pressure volatile-169 170 bearing experiments. To ensure that fO₂ remained below IW we developed a capsule consisting of a 4 mm diameter high-purity (99.99%+) Fe metal outer capsule with hammer-fit 171 lid. This capsule acts as a sink for any excess O_2 present in the starting mix or introduced 172 during loading and also ensures that melts remain at/near Fe metal saturation. This use of 173 high-purity iron follows pioneering experiments on mare basalts (e.g. Longhi, 1992; Walker et 174 al., 1975). The starting mix was loaded into the capsule along with a welded 2mm diameter 175 176 inner Pt capsule containing a solid Cr-Cr₂O₃ buffer. During high pressure/temperature experiments the reaction: 177

[1]

179
$$2Cr+1.5O_2 = Cr_2O_3$$

180

178

within the Pt capsule buffers fO₂ at several log units below the IW buffer (Holzheid and O'Neill, 181 1995) at least while both Cr metal and Cr_2O_3 are present. In theory, H diffusion through the 182 thin (0.1 mm thick) Pt inner capsule allows fO_2 conditions within the inner capsule to be 183 transmitted to the outer capsule and sample, as in other double capsule techniques. However, 184 under reducing conditions Cr metal reacts with Pt to form a mixed Pt-Cr phase, implying 185 reaction [1] describes oxidation of the Cr component in a binary alloy, rather than an end-186 187 member reaction. However, the success of this technique has been demonstrated by Stokes 188 et al. (2019) who used Fe XANES spectra to demonstrate that a Cr-based buffer can maintain reducing conditions below IW, and this is further verified here by the presence of metallic iron 189 in run products, as described below. A second capsule design was used to purposely buffer 190 191 fO₂ closer IW and to allow direct comparison with previous studies. This design involved loading the starting material into a graphite capsule with press fit lid which was then loaded 192

into a welded Pt outer capsule. The graphite bucket in this standard double capsule design buffers fO_2 at C-CO, which in hydrous systems equates to roughly IW+2 to IW-1 depending on run temperature, pressure and nature of sample (e.g. Armstrong et al., 2015).

196

Experiments were performed in an end-loaded piston cylinder apparatus. For Pt+graphite runs 197 (Pt C), experiments were pressurised to ~0.5 GPa before simultaneously heating while 198 pressurising, until run values were reached. For Fe capsule runs (Fe), experiments were fully 199 200 pressurised before heating to ensure the capsules were closed (pressure welded). All runs 201 were heated at ~100°C/min, taken to the final run temperature and held for 24 hours. Rapid, isobaric quenching was achieved by turning off power to the system whilst maintaining run 202 pressures. A fuller description of high-pressure experiments is given in Bromiley et al. (2017). 203 Experimental conditions were chosen to mimic near-liquidus experiments in lunar systems, 204 205 and synthesize mantle phases in equilibrium with high fraction silicate melt (e.g. Longhi, 1992). 206

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208 2.3 Sample preparation and analysis

Recovered capsules were sectioned using a 2 µm diamond wire saw. Both halves of capsules 210 were mounted in crystal bond, then ground and polished with diamond suspensions. Samples 211 were removed from crystal bond by dissolving in high-purity acetone, mounted in indium, and 212 C coated for visual inspection and analysis using a Scanning Electron microscope fitted with 213 quantitative Energy Dispersive Spectrometer (SEM-EDS). After SEM-EDS analysis, the C 214 coat was carefully removed from samples by buffing surfaces with a 0.25 µm diamond 215 216 suspension. At this stage one half of the capsule was removed from the indium mount, glued 217 onto a glass slide with crystal bond polished side down, and ground down to produce 300 µm 218 thick section. These were then removed from the glass slide with acetone and thoroughly cleaned in ethanol for investigation by Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy. 219 However, due to the friable nature of run products only a limited number of experimental 220 221 charges could be successfully prepared in this way. Experiments run in graphite-lined platinum capsules did not survive wafering. Instead, polished run products in mounts were analysed 222 223 using a Raman Imaging microscope to identify absorption due H-related species. For all experiments, the remaining half of the capsule was gold coated and used for determination of 224 225 F, Cl, H and C contents by Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry (SIMS) analysis.

227 F, Cl, H and C contents of samples were determined by secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) using a Cameca 4f instrument at The University of Edinburgh NERC Ion Microprobe 228 Facility. Prior to analysis, samples were kept in a vacuum oven for at least a week to reduce 229 230 H backgrounds. Samples were then gold coated before immediately being loading into the relevant instruments vacuum chamber, and kept under vacuum (<5x10⁻⁸ mbar) for at least 48h 231 prior to analysis. A 5 nA negative ¹⁶O ion beam accelerated to 10 kV was used for all 232 measurements. Secondary ions were accelerated to 4500 V minus a 75 eV energy offset for 233 234 F, Cl and H measurements, and 50 eV offset for C. Beam diameter was approximately 20 µm. 235 Each analysis area was pre-sputtered for 3 minutes with a 30 µm rastered beam, then spots 236 were analysed using a 10 µm small field aperture, avoiding any cracks, crystal edges and inclusion within samples. Depth of analysis pits was <2 µm, and after SIMS analysis all 237 samples were imaged again using the SEM to ensure that analysis pits did not reveal presence 238 239 of any source of contamination. Each measurement consisted of 10 cycles, although the first 5 cycles for H₂O measurements were discounted to minimise surface contamination. CO₂ was 240

measured first with high mass resolution sufficient to resolve interference by ²⁴Mg²⁺ on the 241 ¹²C⁺ peak. CO₂ and H₂O-bearing experimental basaltic glasses (ST) from Shishkina et al. 242 (2010) were used as primary standards for both CO₂ and H₂O, with anhydrous San Carlos 243 olivine standard additionally used to determine H₂O backgrounds, and NIST-SRM610, BCR-244 2G and KL2-G used as secondary standards. Presence of volatile-bearing inclusions was 245 discounted by monitoring ¹H/³⁰Si signals. F and Cl concentrations were normalised to the ³⁰Si 246 count rate and calibrated using VG-2 (basaltic glass, Juan de Fuca ridge, #111240/52), VG-247 248 A99 (basaltic glass, Makaopuhi lava lake, Hawaii, #113498/1), GSD-1G (basaltic glass, 249 USGS), and BIR-01G (basaltic glass) standards (Jochum et al., 2005). NIST-SRM610 and BCR-2G glasses were used as a secondary standard and San Carlos olivine as a background 250 251 blank.

252

253 Electron probe microanalysis (EMPA) was used to determine mineral and melt major element 254 composition using a Cameca SX100 instrument running at 15 keV and the following 255 conditions/standards/analysing crystals: for glass, 2 nA and an 8 µm beam for Na (jadeite, LTAP), Mg (spinel, LTAP), AI (spinel, LTAP), Fe (fayalite, LLIF), Ca (wollastonite, PET and 256 257 LPET), Si (wollastonite, TAP), and a 8 nA, 80 µm beam for Ti (rutile, PET and LPET), CI (NaCl, PET and LPET), F (SrF₂, TAP and LTAP), Cr (metal, LLIF) and Mn (metal, LLIF). For 258 orthopyroxene and olivine a 4 nA, 2µm beam was used for Fe (fayalite, LLIF), Mg (forsterite, 259 LTAP) and Si (forsterite, TAP), and a 100 nA, 2 µm beam for Ca (wollastonite, PET), Ti (rutile, 260 PET), Na (jadeite, LTAP), Cr (metal, LLIF) and Al (spinel, LTAP). For clinopyroxene analyses 261 a 4 nA, 2µm beam was used Mg (spinel, LTAP), Si (wollastonite, TAP), Al (spinel, LTAP), Fe 262 263 (fayalite, LLIF), Ca (wollastonite, PET), and a 100 nA, 2µm beam for Ti (rutile, PET), Na (jadeite, LTAP) and Cr (metal, LLIF). 264

265

266 FTIR and Raman spectroscopy was used to provide information on H and C speciation and bonding environment in recovered samples. Spectra were obtained from polished, sectioned 267 samples in transmission mode using a Thermo-Nicolet iN10MX IR microscope at the School 268 269 of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol. Samples were placed on thin BaF₂ plates, and unpolarised spectra collected over the range 4000-450 cm⁻¹ at a 4cm⁻¹ spectral resolution, 270 using a variable shaped aperture to avoid cracks and inclusions within grains. Background 271 spectra were obtained through the BaF₂ plate prior to each transect, and automatically 272 subtracted from sample spectra. Raman spectra were obtained using a Thermo Scientific 273 274 DXRxi Raman Imaging microscope, also at the School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, 275 using a 532nm (green) doubled Nd:YVO₄ DPSS excitation laser, a 400 lines mm⁻¹ extended range grating, a 50x objective, a 25µm confocal pinhole and EMCCD detector. Approximately 276 1550 data points were acquired from 50-6000 cm⁻¹, typically at a laser power of 9 mW for 277 278 between 0.3 and 4s, averaged over 600-1000 scans.

279280 3. Results

281 **3.1** Phase and melt relations in recovered samples.

282

Most experiments were conducted at 2 GPa as this is an approximate pressure for multiple mineral saturation in low-Ti picritic lunar systems, and within the range of estimates for the pressure of formation of mare basalts and associated picritic glasses (Elkins-Tanton et al., 2003; Shearer et al., 2006). Run products consisted of quenched glass with some minor growth of quench crystals, and coexisting crystals of olivine, orthopyroxene, and pigeonite. There was no evidence of a fluid phase in any experiment. This is consistent with the relatively 289 low amount of volatiles loaded (or derived from the graphite) which is below fluid saturation in the melt for most of the expected species at these pressures. Experimental details and run 290 products are listed in Table 2, and SEM images representative of run products are shown in 291 Figure 1. High failure rate was noted in initial experiments, in part because the effect of low 292 293 fO₂ under H-rich conditions appears to stiffen and embrittle many metals, including Pt and Fe capsules, which ensure the integrity of the experiment. 294

295

296 Run Fe 2 is an example of an earlier experimental design where sample charge and buffer 297 were separated by Pt foil. As evident in Figure 1A, melt from the experimental charge leaked and partially reacted with the buffer during the experiment. Reaction resulted in Cr-enrichment 298 of the experimental charge and precipitation of a Cr-spinel phase not seen in other 299 experiments. The experimental charge also contains an Fe-rich metal phase, common with all 300 experiments conducted using Fe capsules, and attesting to Fe-saturated, reducing conditions. 301 302 In subsequent experiments the buffer mix was sealed within a welded Pt capsule (Figure 1B), a design with a significantly higher success rate despite Pt embrittlement under run conditions. 303 However, glass compositions (Table 3) demonstrate that high run temperatures still result in 304 305 Cr gain in the silicate run products due to solid state diffusion and/or alloying of Cr with the Pt capsule. Various experimental designs were trialed to circumvent this issue, including 306 alternative capsule materials and solid buffers. However, alloying remained an issue in all 307 designs, and other designs had higher failure rates. Therefore, we adopted the Fe-Pt-Cr-Cr₂O₃ 308 309 design for the limited number of subsequent experiments described here.

311 Use of Fe capsules and reduced starting materials results in reducing, Fe-saturated run 312 conditions at or below IW. Run fO_2 is further buffered by reaction of Cr and Cr₂O₃, although this is complicated by alloying of Cr with Pt. A lack of thermodynamic data on the Pt-Cr system 313 314 means that fO2 cannot readily be calculated from the sample assembly. However, the presence of a free Fe phase in run products using Fe capsules means that fO_2 can be 315 estimated based on the exchange of Fe between silicate melt and the Fe-phase: 316

318
$$Fe_{metal}^{0} + \frac{1}{2}O_{2} = FeO_{metal}^{0}$$

317

310

[2] elt

The equilibrium constant for [2] can be expressed as: 320

321
322
$$\log K = \log(a_{FeO}^{melt}/a_{Fe}^{metal}) - \frac{1}{2}\log fO_2 = \log(X_{FeO}^{melt}.\gamma_{FeO}^{melt}/X_{Fe}^{metal}.\gamma_{Fe}^{metal}) - \frac{1}{2}\log fO_2$$
[3]
323

where a_{FeO}^{melt} and a_{Fe}^{metal} are the activities of FeO in silicate melt and Fe in Fe metal, 324 respectively, where fO_2 is oxygen fugacity under experimental conditions, and X and y 325 corresponding mole fractions and activity coefficients for each. For pure Fe metal and pure 326 FeO, i.e. the IW buffer, activities are unity and [3] can be expressed as: 327

$$328
329 \log K = \frac{1}{2} \log fO_2^{W}$$
[4]

330

where fO_2^{W} is the oxygen fugacity of the IW buffer under experimental conditions. Combining 331 332 (3) and (4):

- $2 \log(X_{FeO}^{melt}, \gamma_{FeO}^{melt}) \times X_{Fe}^{metal}, \gamma_{Fe}^{metal}) = \Delta \log fO_2^{W}$ 334
- 335

336 demonstrates that concentrations of FeO in the melt phase, and Fe in the metal phase can be used to determine fO₂ under run conditions relative to the IW buffer. Data from O'Neill and 337 Eggins (2002) was used to estimate γ_{FeO}^{melt} . Assuming that the Fe phase in experiments is 338 pure Fe implies fO₂ in run products varying from 1.2 to 2.1 log units below the IW buffer. The 339 low FeO content of experiment Fe 13 gives a much lower fO₂ of 4.4 log units below the IW 340 buffer. Experiments Fe 13 and Fe 14 used an Fe-free starting mix, and Fe 13 may have 341 failed to attain equilibrium between the Fe capsule and experimental charge (see below), so 342 343 this value is likely unreliable. The FeO content of melt in Fe 14 is higher and comparable to 344 experiments performed using the FeO-rich starting mix, suggesting that full equilibrium was attained. Fe 14 was performed at 160°C higher temperature, providing an explanation as to 345 why this experiment achieved equilibrium and Fe 13 did not. 346

347

348 Calculations of fO_2 presented in Table 2 assume that the metal phase is pure Fe. 349 Compositions of exsolved Fe in run products were not determined here, although it is unlikely that the material is pure Fe, and may contain variable amounts of O, Si, Cr and other elements. 350 The effect of such impurities on the calculation of fO_2 can be estimated using the model of 351 352 activity coefficients in liquid Fe metal by Wade and Wood (2005). The effect of adding significant amounts (X=0.1) of Si, Cr etc to the Fe phase only results in an increase in 353 $\Delta \log fO_2^{W}$ of ≈ 0.1 . As such, estimated fO_2 based on melt compositions in table 2 provides a 354 reasonable lower bound. As expected, values lie well within the range imparted by the sample 355 assembly (IW and Cr-Cr₂O₃ buffers). This range overlaps conditions assumed for lunar mantle 356 source regions, and allows us to assess the effect of reducing conditions on volatile 357 358 partitioning.

359

360 In contrast, Pt C experiments do not contain a Fe-phase, and fO₂ cannot be estimated. The 361 absence of an Fe-rich phase in the experimental charge is consistent with a slightly higher fO2 imparted from the sample assembly, i.e. fO_2 at approximately IW or higher. However, the 362 presence of an Fe-phase in experiments using Fe capsules might represent a dynamic 363 process of Fe dissolution at the edge of the capsule and exsolution of an Fe-rich solid within 364 the sample volume. Experiments Fe 13 and Fe 14 used Fe-free starting materials to test the 365 extent of equilibration between Fe capsules and run products. For the higher temperature 366 Fe 14, comparable Fe melt contents with other experiments strongly indicates attainment of 367 equilibrium, implying that exsolution of Fe in run products is not simply a transport process, 368 but a reflection of chemical equilibration under run conditions. Experiments Fe 6 and Fe 10, 369 370 which produced 100% melt with no evidence for the presence of crystalline (silicate) phases, have melt FeO contents substantially lower than that of the Fe-rich starting composition used, 371 implying that melt FeO contents are, similarly, not simply reflective of the crystallisation of 372 373 more Fe-rich solid phases. Instead, melt composition is reflective of the equilibrium given in [2]. Lack of exsolved Fe in Pt-C experiments implies more oxidising conditions above the IW 374 buffer. More broadly, capsule-sample exchange noted in experiments Fe 13 and Fe 14 375 supports attainment of equilibrium in experiments, aside from the FeO content in Fe 13. 376 377 Demonstrating chemical equilibrium in high pressure/temperature experiments is notoriously 378 difficult. However, the fact that experiments described here are performed at high 379 temperatures, have high melt fractions favouring melt-crystal exchange throughout experimental charges, and that run products typically consist of euhedral, unzoned crystal 380 phases supports attainment of equilibrium, or at least development of steady state conditions. 381 382 Cr_2O_3 contents of run products are variable between experiments, although this likely reflects variations in capsule morphology rather than disequilibrium. 383

Compositional data for quenched melt was obtained in regions distal from quench crystals, 385 but as close to analysed solid phases as possible. Aside from Fe 13, where Fe exchange with 386 the capsule did not reach equilibrium, Fe contents in all run products are variable, with melt 387 compositions ranging from 7.5 to 18.4 weight %. Fe 5 is the exception, where silicate melt 388 FeO content, 29.5%, exceeds that of the starting mix. Melt composition is additionally 389 dependent on phase relations, although in this experiment only olivine and quenched melt 390 391 where identified, and olivine has a similarly high FeO content. The reason for this discrepancy cannot be fully explained. Olivine in Fe 4 is also relatively FeO rich and in equilibrium with 392 melt with a substantially lower FeO content. However, the lower temperature Fe 4 contains 393 additional orthopyroxene, which has a much lower FeO content. Higher FeO melt contents in 394 Fe 5 imply $\Delta \log fO_2^{W} \approx -1.3$, which is less reducing than other experiments with Fe capsules. 395 As such, this may have resulted in net dissolution of FeO into the melt from the capsule, as 396 397 opposed to exsolution of variable Fe from the melt, as noted in other samples.

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Melt in Pt C experiments has FeO contents of 9.9 and 14.0 weight %, comparable to 399 400 experiments with Fe capsules. However, in this instance there is no obvious exsolution of Fe metal from the experimental charge which might explain reduction in FeO content compared 401 to the starting bulk composition. Similarly, coexisting orthopyroxene in these experiments has 402 similarly low FeO. Fe loss to Pt is common in high pressure experiments, which might explain 403 observed compositions if parts of the experimental charge were in contact with the outer Pt 404 capsule. Although examination of run products suggests that inner graphite capsules retained 405 406 integrity, this possibility cannot be discounted. Alternatively, it is possible that the presence of 407 some additional Fe-rich phase, such as small quantities of a spinel-type phase, accounts for 408 lower than expected melt Fe contents. SEM examination of run products provides no evidence 409 for this, although the possibility cannot be discounted.

410

Phase relations in run products vary with experimental conditions and capsule type. For the 411 412 most reduced Fe-bearing experiments with Fe capsules, olivine comes onto the liquidus below 1550°C followed by orthopyroxene below 1400°C, with significant amounts of melt still present 413 (Figures 1B, C). This is broadly consistent with previous studies using low-Ti ultramafic lunar 414 415 glass bulk compositions at 2 GPa and under reducing conditions (e.g. Barr and Grove, 2013; Chen and Lindsay, 1982; Chen et al., 1983; Elkins-Tanton et al., 2003). From experiment Fe 2 416 417 it is apparent that enrichment in Cr₂O₃ stabilises Cr-rich spinel in run assemblages, and 418 orthopyroxene at the expense of olivine. Previous studies indicate that clinopyroxene is 419 stabilised at lower temperatures, sometimes at the expense of olivine, and/or at slightly higher pressures (e.g. Barr and Grove 2013; Elkins-Tanton et al., 2003). Indeed, the lowest 420 temperature (1340°C) experiment, Fe 13 which was run with an initial Fe-free bulk 421 composition that was then allowed to equilibrate with the Fe capsule did result in large 422 intergrowths of orthopyroxenes and pigeonite in equilibrium with the melt phase. In the higher 423 temperature 1500°C run for the same design, substantial reaction of the experimental charge 424 425 with the Fe capsule occurred, implying attainment of Fe saturated conditions during the 426 experiment. However, unlike the olivine+melt assemblage of run Fe 5 also at 1500°C, Fe 14 427 consisted of small pigeonite crystals disseminated throughout a glass/melt phase. 428 Stabilisation of pigeonite in these experiments might be due to Fe-Mg exchange in the run products, and/or some effect of small variations in fO₂. An fO₂ dependence on melt relations 429 430 in more Ti-rich systems was noted by Krawczynski and Grove (2012) and Brown and Grove (2015), due to its effect on Fe-Mg exchange, Ti valence and Fe-Ti coordination. In particular, 431

Brown and Grove (2015) noted that a decrease in fO₂ resulted in an increase in the multiple saturation point, and stabilisation of pigeonite. As such, varying bulk Fe contents during experiments here might explain the presence of pigeonite rather than olivine. An additional complication here is the effect of run conditions on SiO₂ activity. Lower FeO abundance in experiments results in an increase in the ratio SiO₂/(FeO+MgO). An increase in this ratio could conceivably stabilise pyroxene over olivine as a liquidus phase.

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439 Experiments Pt hal 1 and Pt hal 2 were less reduced due to the use of graphite lined Pt 440 capsules. Run products contain smaller orthopyroxene crystals in equilibrium with a melt phase instead of the liquidus olivine formed at more reduced conditions. Replacement of 441 orthopyroxene for olivine was noted by Barr and Grove (2013) as characteristic of higher-442 pressure conditions. Given these experiments were consistently run at 2.0 GPa, a change in 443 phase relations instead implies some effect of capsule design. For Pt C experiments, melt 444 445 FeO contents are again towards the lower range of compositions measured in this study. As such, a similar effect of Si activity in lower FeO systems might stabilise pyroxene, and/or it is 446 again possible that fO₂ influences Fe (and Ti) coordination and phase stability. Melt H₂O 447 448 contents in Pt C experiments are also higher than other experiments (Table 3), implying either that water was better retained during these experiments or that H-related species in the more 449 reduced runs are less soluble in silicate melt. In this capsule design most water should be 450 retained in the experimental charge, although it is evident from stiffening of Pt that some H 451 diffuses into the outer capsule material. In contrast, with the Fe+Pt capsule design one might 452 expect H diffusion into the buffer mix to give lower 'water' contents in the melt. A difference in 453 454 melt 'water' content may also affect near-liquidus phase stability, as OH is a melt network modifier. 455

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458 **3.2 H₂O, F, CI, and CO₂ composition data**.

460 F, CI and H₂O contents of all phases are listed in Table 3. F and CI contents of melts were determined using both EMPA and SIMS. As shown in Figure 2 and Table 3, there is 461 reasonable consistency between SIMS and EMPA data. For F there is a general linear 462 463 correlation with some scatter. There is a consistent offset between SIMS and EMPA data such that SIMS F contents are between 0.5 and 1 wt% higher. This could be related to a matrix 464 465 mismatch between these samples and the standards in SIMS analysis, although it might 466 equally relate to a systematic error arising from the EMP calibration. For CI data, aside from Pt hal1, there is good consistency between SIMS and EMPA data and a close to 1:1 linear 467 correlation. When determining partition coefficients (concentration in mineral/concentration in 468 melt), SIMS melt data have been used. CI and F contents of all mineral phases were below 469 470 the detection limit for EMPA, and H_2O contents cannot be determined by EMPA. Therefore, use of only SIMS data for determining partition coefficients ensures consistency. 471

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The loaded water content of all experiments at 2 wt% is well below saturation for the melt. H₂O contents in mineral phases in all samples are subsequently low, from a few 10s to 100s ppm by weight, compared to other fluid-saturated experiments. H₂O contents of melt are higher, although significantly lower than the loaded 2 wt% in the Fe+Pt capsule runs (Table 3). This implies that a significant fraction of 'H' is lost from charges during these experiments, possibly relocated to the buffer capsule, but also into Fe and Pt capsule materials under reducing conditions. This contrasts with the higher water contents in the Pt-C experiments. F and Cl 480 are also incompatible and concentrated in the melt phase, and measured concentrations 481 suggest no loss during the experiment. In fact, for samples Fe_6 and Fe_10, which are 100% 482 melt, F contents of the melt phase are higher than the starting composition. It cannot be 483 discounted that these experiments did produce small amounts of an additional solid phase not 484 observed in sections. However, this would also be explained by systematic over determination 485 in measured F by SIMS, or by weighing errors in starting mix preparation.

486

SIMS analysis of both mineral and melt in Fe capsule experiments suggests heterogeneous distribution of small amounts of C, measured as CO₂ (Table 3). Fe capsule experiments are nominally C-free. However, contamination of experimental charges during loading and during preparation of starting mixes would provide a source for the detected C. C ingress from the graphite furnace is another possibility (Brooker et al., 1998). For Pt-C experiments, the use of an inner capsule results in graphite saturation and a ready source for C, C-O, C-H species during experiments. CO₂ contents of melt in these experiments are notably higher.

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Representative FTIR spectra obtained from glass and mineral phases are shown in Figure 3. 495 496 Glass spectra contain a broad, asymmetric absorption feature over the wavenumber range 3000-4000 cm⁻¹ that is characteristic of O-H stretching. Absence of molecular H₂O bending 497 absorption bands at 1630 cm⁻¹ and 5200 cm⁻¹ suggests this species is largely absent, 498 consistent with the low total 'water' concentration (Stolper, 1982). Even under reduced 499 conditions, water is dominantly incorporated as OH⁻ in glass, either as isolated OH⁻ or as 500 clusters of OH⁻ groups, or in accordance with Cody et al. (2020), possibly even as H₂O. Only 501 502 one spectrum contains the broad absorption feature around 4000-4500 cm⁻¹ which Kadik et al. (2006) assigned to molecular H₂. This sample also has an unassigned broad feature at 503 504 2600 cm⁻¹. There is no H₂ specific calibration for silicate melt which would allow estimation of 505 an equivalent 'H₂O' content corresponding to the 4000-4500 cm⁻¹ band, although it is likely that the concentration of H_2 in Fe-10 glass is small in comparison with concentration of O-H. 506 507 This H₂ band is not noted in other spectra implying that H₂ is either absent or below detection 508 limit. Sample Fe 10 was synthesised at higher pressure than other samples (3 GPa compared to 2 GPa) but still failed to display evidence of significant H₂. It might be expected that higher 509 pressure would stabilises a small proportion of 'water' as H₂, in accordance with Hirschmann 510 et al. (2012). Attempts to access conditions higher than 3 GPa resulted in a 100% failure rate 511 with this capsule design. 512 513

514 Spectra from large orthopyroxene crystals also show broad absorption features in the O-H stretching frequency range 3000-3800 cm⁻¹ (e.g. Stalder, 2004; Bromiley and Bromiley, 2006). 515 The double absorption feature between 2300-2400 cm⁻¹ noted to varying degrees in all spectra 516 517 is due to failure to correct for atmospheric CO₂ within the spectrometer beam path. There is no indication that this CO₂ is intrinsic to samples. Spectra do, however, contain multiple 518 absorption features around 2900 cm⁻¹. 3 distinct, sharp bands are noted in spectra, 519 reminiscent, although at slightly different wavenumbers, to a cluster of small, sharp absorption 520 521 bands which Kadik et al. (2006) assign to either CH₄ or C-H related species. Although samples 522 were re-cleaned in solvent, spectra still displayed these features. Despite this, it cannot be 523 discounted that these bands represent contamination from organic material, such as resin used in sample preparation. Raman examination of guenched melt in samples Pt hal1 and 524 Pt hal2 (which could not be prepared as IR wafers) revealed the presence of a broad hump 525 at a Raman shift of approximately 3500 cm⁻¹ due to OH⁻, with no characteristic sharp 526 absorption band around 4100 cm⁻¹ due to H₂. Raman spectra show no evidence for the 527

528 presence of C-H related species, despite the higher C content of these samples, although this 529 could be due to higher fO_2 imparted by this capsule design. As expected, higher fO_2 in these 530 experiments means that all 'water' is incorporated as OH⁻ in the melt. Any H and C related 531 species in the crystalline phases would be below the detection limit of Raman spectroscopy 532 in these samples.

533

F, Cl, H₂O and CO₂ mineral/melt partition coefficients (D_{F/Cl/H2O/CO2}^{mineral/melt}) calculated using 534 SIMS data are included in Table 3. Even for a limited dataset, D_{H2O} , D_F and D_{CI} data show 535 promising consistency, except for sample Fe 13 which has a larger $D_{H20}^{opx/melt}$ than other 536 samples. This is also the sample which has the most prominent C-H absorption bands in FTIR 537 spectra and a low bulk FeO content. In contrast, there is a much larger scatter for the 538 D_{CO2}^{min/melt} data both within and between samples, with values also scattered around 1. 539 540 Although previous studies demonstrate that C can be incorporated into reduced silicate melts 541 (Kadik et al., 2006; Hirschmann et al., 2012; Ardia et al., 2013), it is likely that measured CO₂ contents here largely reflect contamination; therefore, CO₂ partitioning is not considered 542 further. 543

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546 **4. Discussion**

547

548 **4.1 Controls on H₂O, F, and CI mineral/melt partitioning in reduced lunar systems.**

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550 Figure 4 shows F, Cl and H_2O partition coefficients from this and previous studies as a function of temperature. This new data for reduced lunar conditions confirms all three volatiles are 551 552 incompatible, consistent with previous studies. There is a general trend $D_F > D_{H2O} > D_{CI}$, except 553 for limited olivine data, which suggest D_{Cl}>D_{H2O}. H₂O is slightly more incompatible than F for all phases, but CI is much more incompatible than F. This would be predicted based on the 554 significantly larger ionic radius of CI relative to F, assuming similar incorporation mechanisms. 555 For F partition coefficients, pigeonite>orthopyroxene>>olivine, which is again consistent with 556 observed halogen partitioning in natural, terrestrial samples (Urann et al., 2017). For H, 557 pigeonite>orthopyroxene>olivine, and for Cl, pigeonite>orthopyroxene=olivine. Data from 558 Hauri et al. (2006) is from reanalyses of experimental products from numerous previous 559 studies in terrestrial systems, under various conditions. Rosenthal et al. (2015) conducted 560 561 experiments using a model tholeiitic composition and either graphite-lined Pt capsules (similar 562 to experiments Pt-hal1 and Pt-hal2 here, but not with reduced starting mixes) or Fe-saturated Pt capsules (more oxidising). Dalou et al. (2012) used model basaltic and peridotitic 563 compositions that were nominally H-free and more oxidised than this study, as their use of 564 graphite capsules probably buffered fO_2 between FMQ+1 and FMQ-2. Beyer et al. (2012) 565 performed experiments in simplified CaO-MgO-Al₂O₃-SiO₂ \pm Na₂O systems using Pt capsules; 566 fO_2 was not controlled, but probably lay close to the more oxidising Ni-NiO (NNO) buffer 567 considered 'intrinsic' in solid-media apparatus (Stokes et al., 2019; Matjuschkin et al., 2015). 568 569 Joachim et al. (2015, 2017) also performed experiments in a simplified CaO-Al₂O₃-MgO-SiO₂ 570 system under water absent and water present conditions, respectively, also under unbuffered 571 but presumably more oxidising conditions. O'Leary et al. (2011) performed experiments using a natural high-Al₂O₃ basalt starting mix and nominally Al-free synthetic analogue, and used 572 olivine-Ni composite capsules with a Ni-NiO buffer. As such, comparison of experimental 573 partition coefficients demonstrates that fO_2 has little discernible influence on halogen or H_2O 574 partitioning, at least down to fO_2 of approximately IW-2 at these pressures. Importantly, this 575

576 implies that partitioning data from studies under model terrestrial conditions provide insight 577 into the behaviour of volatiles under lunar conditions.

578

Temperature has little effect on H₂O and halogen partitioning, except possibly for Cl. Joachim 579 et al. (2015) noted a temperature dependence of D^{mineral/melt}_{Cl} in a simple model system. 580 However, the same study also noted a strong effect of temperature on F partitioning which is 581 not supported by examination of data across other studies (Figure 4). In Figure 5 there is a 582 583 clear correlation between D_F and D_{H2O} , (excluding sample Fe 13) as noted by Joachim et al. (2017). There is a weaker correlation between D_F and D_{Cl} , and possibly also a correlation 584 between D_{Cl} and D_{H2O}. Joachim et al. (2017) suggested a negligible effect of H₂O on Cl 585 partitioning, and suggested that correlations between F and H₂O partition coefficients implied 586 the presence of clumped F and H defects in olivine, as proposed by Crepisson et al. (2014). 587 Olivine partitioning data in this study is too limited to test this, although from Figure 5 is it clear 588 589 that D_F and D_{H2O} are correlated across all data for olivine, orthopyroxene and pigeonite.

590

It has been repeatedly observed that H₂O pyroxene-melt partitioning, and possibly olivine-melt 591 592 partitioning is dependent on mineral Al₂O₃ content, and in particular, on the extent of Al substitution into tetrahedral sites in mineral structures (IVAI³⁺) (e.g. Hauri et al., 2006; Tenner 593 et al., 2009; O'Leary et al., 2011). Figure 6 shows a broad trend of increasing D^{pyroxene/melt}_{H2O} 594 595 with increasing ^{IV}Al³⁺, consistent with previous studies. Data here fit this broad trend, implying that a coupled substitution of Al³⁺ for tetrahedral Si⁴⁺ charge-balances H incorporation in ortho-596 and clinopyroxene under relatively reducing conditions. The obvious out-lying sample is 597 598 Fe 13, the lower temperature experiment performed using an Fe-free starting mix. Either this 599 sample is not fully equilibrated, or low bulk Fe content has a marked influence on H₂O partitioning. The effect of increasing ^{IV}Al³⁺ on D^{clinopyroxene/melt}_F for data here is broadly in 600 accordance with the trend noted by O'Leary et al. (2011) in high and low alumina basalts. 601 Scatter in the wider dataset implies additional controls on F incorporation, although from 602 Figure 6 it is apparent that coupled substitutions involving Al³⁺ are also an important control 603 604 on F pyroxene-melt partitioning.

605

Mosenfelder and Rossman (2013a,b) similarly proposed that F incorporation in pyroxene is 606 coupled to both Al³⁺ and Fe³⁺ substitution onto tetrahedral sites, and to monovalent cation 607 substitutions onto the M2 site. No effect of mineral Fe content on F partitioning is noted here, 608 609 although this is expected due to the low fO_2 used which excludes the presence of Fe³⁺. 610 However, we observe clear positive correlations between mineral F content and mineral TiO₂, Al_2O_3 , and Cr_2O_3 contents (Figure 7). Correlation between F (and H_2O) and TiO_2 across 611 mineral phases could indicate F incorporation via Ti-clinohumite/Ti-humite type planar defects, 612 613 although this is not supported by detailed TEM analysis (e.g. Joachim et al., 2015). However, in these reduced conditions it is likely that a fraction of Ti is incorporated in pyroxenes as Ti³⁺. 614 consistent with XANES measurements which demonstrate that pyroxenes and olivine 615 equilibrated at similar fO₂ can contain up for 25% Ti as Ti³⁺ (Leitzke et al., 2018). Coupled Ti³⁺ 616 617 and OH⁻ defects have been noted in other nominally anhydrous minerals such as rutile and its high-pressure polymorph TiO₂ (II) (Bromiley et al., 2004b; Bromiley and Hilairet, 2005) under 618 more oxidising, high-pressure conditions. As such, all trends in Figure 7 likely result from F 619 incorporation charge-balanced by M³⁺ substitutional defects, as discussed in detail in Dalou et 620 al. (2012). In agreement with Dalou et al. (2012) and Mosenfelder and Rossman (2013b) there 621 622 is also an additional weak correlation between mineral Na content and F. Correlations are generally weaker for CI due to greater scatter in a smaller data set. However, it is possible that 623

- there is a similar correlation between ${}^{IV}AI^{3+}$ on $D^{clinopyroxene/melt}_{CI}$ (Figure 6). It is difficult to assess the extent to which AI-Si substitution into olivine could charge-balance F and CI incorporation, although a wider comparison of data (Figure 6) possibly supports a positive correlation between olivine AI₂O₃ content and D_F^{olivine/melt}.
- 628

Both Dalour et al. (2012) and Urann et al. (2017) observed that melt polymerisation has an effect of mineral-melt partitioning of F and to a lesser extent, Cl. Melt polymerisation can be represented by the ratio of non-bridging oxygen to tetrahedral sites (NBO/T) using major element melt data, and is included in Table 3 and compared to partition coefficients in Figure 8. Within scatter, D_F appears to generally decrease with increasing NBO/T in accordance with previous studies, and there is a similar, stronger control of NBO/T on D_{H2O} . Any such relationship in the Cl dataset is less clear.

636

637 In summary, fO₂ has no discernible influence on F, Cl and H₂O partitioning. Partition coefficients for all 3 volatiles are broadly comparable between the reduced model lunar system 638 used here and model terrestrial systems under more oxidised conditions. Volatile 639 640 incorporation mechanisms are also similar, implying that 'water' is structurally incorporated in silicate melt, pyroxenes and olivines dominantly as OH⁻. Kadik et al. (2006) concluded that at 641 fO₂=IW-2.4 'water' in silicate melts is largely incorporated as OH⁻, with H₂ and C-H groups 642 dominating at more reduced conditions, although their experiments were conducted at higher 643 pressure (4 GPa). Hirschmann et al. (2012) suggested that pressure significantly increases 644 the proportion of H_2 in silicate melts. It is possible that at more reducing conditions at higher 645 646 pressures, the proportion of H_2 in both mineral and melt phases increases, potentially influencing H partitioning in some way yet to be explored. However, for fO₂ estimates for the 647 648 lunar interior, and at the relatively low pressures where melting is likely to have occurred, it 649 appears that most 'water' will be incorporated as OH-

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652 **4.2 Volatile redistribution during lunar magmatic processes**

Partion coefficients can be used to estimate the volatile content in mantle source regions for 654 655 lunar volcanic products. For example, Zhang et al. (2019) used a batch melting calculation (4 and 8% partial melting of a lunar cumulate consisting of 50% olivine, 25% pigeonite and 25% 656 657 orthopyroxene) to estimate a source region for lunar volcanic glasses with 6-22 ppm H₂O. By 658 comparison, the water content of Earth's mantle is estimated to be 290 ppm, or 100 ppm for the depleted uppermost mantle, implying significant depletion of 'water' in the Moon relative 659 to Earth (Zhang et al., 2019). The same calculation using average $D_{H20}^{min/melt}$ values 660 determined here (excluding Fe 13) gives a slightly lower maximum H₂O content of the lunar 661 mantle of 15 ppm. Applying the same calculation to F and CI contents of mare basalt olivine-662 hosted melt inclusions of 34-77 and 1.7-3.0 ppm, respectively (Chen et al., 2015), gives lunar 663 mantle volatile contents of 2.4-8.4 ppm for F, and 0.07-0.3 ppm for Cl. For comparison, Ni et 664 al. (2019) estimated a lunar mantle source region based on melt inclusion data with H₂O of 84 665 ppm, F of 5 ppm and Cl of 0.39 ppm. Estimated terrestrial halogen contents are variable, as 666 667 recently summarised by Klemme and Stalder (2018), with proposed primitive mantle F and Cl contents ranging from 18-25 ppm, and 1.4-35 ppm, respectively, depleted upper mantle F and 668 CI contents ranging from 11-16 ppm, and 0.5-1 ppm, respectively, and bulk silicate Earth F 669 670 and CI contents of approximately 15 ppm, and 17 ppm, respectively. As such, partitioning data here imply a lunar mantle source region which is both significantly volatile-depleted relative to 671

the terrestrial mantle, and depleted in CI relative to F and H_2O . As previously noted (e.g. Hauri et al. 2015; McCubbin et al. 2015; Boyce et al., 2015), depletion of CI compared to both F and H_2O is characteristic of the lunar mantle.

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As noted by McCubbin et al. (2015), however, calculation of lunar mantle volatile contents 676 from geochemical characteristics of volcanic products can give a misleading impression of 677 bulk lunar composition. The lunar mantle is likely heterogenous with respect to water and other 678 679 volatiles (McCubbin et al., 2015), and high volatile contents promote mantle melting. As such, 680 calculated volatile contents from mare basalt and volcanic glass data may not be representative of the 'average' lunar mantle, and may be overestimates. Following accretion 681 of the Moon, cooling and progressive crystallisation of the Lunar Magma Ocean (LMO) would 682 have resulted in partitioning of F. Cl and H_2O between mantle cumulates and the remaining 683 magma. The incompatible nature of all three volatiles means that they would have been 684 685 increasingly concentrated in the final products of LMO solidification. Differences in incompatibility may have also resulted in relative fractionation of F, Cl and H₂O. McCubbin et 686 al. (2015) argued that depletion of CI relative to F and H_2O in lunar volcanics implies sourcing 687 688 from a lunar mantle whose composition largely reflects mineral-melt partitioning of volatiles 689 during LMO solidification.

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Elkins-Tanton and Grove (2011) used published, i.e. 'terrestrial', H₂O partition coefficients to 691 model distribution of H₂O during LMO crystallisation, and suggested an initial LMO 'water' 692 content of approximately 1000 ppm H₂O. McCubbin et al. (2015) used published or estimated 693 694 partition coefficients for F, CI and H_2O , corrected for varying mineral chemistry, to model sequential solidification of the LMO using the crystallisation model of Elardo et al. (2015), and 695 696 constrained volatile concentration and relative fractionation. Here we adopt a similar 697 approach, incrementally solidifying a LMO over 100 steps using the crystallisation sequence of Rapp and Draper (2018) (Table 4). At each step we use D^{min/melt} values for H₂O, F and CI 698 based on data from this study, and a fractional crystallisation calculation to determine volatile 699 700 contents in remaining magma and newly-formed cumulate (Table 4, and supplementary material). McCubbin et al. (2015) derived models for the effect of ^{IV}Al³⁺ on volatile partition 701 702 coefficients to account for variations in D_{H2O/F/CI} due to changes in mineral chemistry during the various stages LMO solidification. However, due to uncertainties in the correlations 703 between D_{H2O/E/Cl} and ^{IV}Al³⁺, especially for Cl, and variations in D_{H2O/E/Cl} due to other 704 705 compositional effects (including the extent of melt polymerisation), here we use specific 706 D_{H2O/F/CI} for samples with broadly similar compositions to those in the experiments of Rapp and Draper (2018). D_{H2O/F/Cl}^{olivine/melt} are taken from Fe 5. During comparable stage 1 707 experiments, Rapp and Draper (2018) note variations in olivine composition from Al₂O₃ of 708 0.04-0.13 wt%, compared to 0.1 wt% for olivine in Fe 5. Orthopyroxene ^{IV}Al³⁺ varies from 0.08 709 to 0.128 apfu in experiments here, overlapping compositions for orthopyroxene in stage 2 710 (0.096-0.124) in experiments of Rapp and Draper (2018). Therefore, for stage 2 we use 711 average D values for orthopyroxene from experiments here, not including Fe 13. For stage 3, 712 orthopyroxene in experiments of Rapp and Draper (2018) is slightly more aluminous, with 713 ^{IV}Al³⁺ varying from 0.128-0.184. Any increase in D^{orthopyroxene/melt} for F and H₂O due to this 714 increase in ${}^{\text{IV}}\text{Al}{}^{3+}$ is small, and possibly minor compared to other compositional changes. 715 Furthermore, because of a lack of data on how D^{orthopyroxene/melt} varies for CI we use the same 716 partition coefficients as used for stage 2. $D_{H2O/F/Cl}$ clinopyroxene/melt are taken from Fe 14. 717 Clinopyroxene ^{IV}AI³⁺ for this sample is 0.14, and CaO content 16.6 wt%, compared to ^{IV}AI³⁺ 718 =0.18 and CaO=13.45 wt% for clinopyroxene in stage 3 crystallisation experiments of Rapp 719

and Draper (2018). For plagioclase we use an average D_{H20}^{plag/melt} from Lin et al. (2019), who 720 measured H₂O partitioning between plagioclase and melt in a model lunar system. Due to a 721 lack of data on plagioclase/melt partitioning of F and Cl, and the similarity of H₂O partition 722 coefficients for plagioclase from Lin et al. (2019) to pigeonite data here, we use pigeonite Cl 723 and F partition coefficients to tentatively model plagioclase-melt partitioning. Rapp and Draper 724 (2018) note formation of an intermediate Ca-content plagioclase during stage 4 experiments, 725 with $^{N}Al^{3+}$ = 0.05 to 0.09. To model crystallisation of this phase we use orthopyroxene 726 727 partitioning data from Pt hal1 ($^{IV}AI^{3+}=0.08$).

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LMO solidification was modelled up to 97% crystallisation. Later stages of crystallisation 729 involve formation of more complex cumulate assemblages, including mineral phases for which 730 no partitioning data is available. Furthermore, the effect of progressive increases in melt 731 732 polymerisation are not considered here; these may have a considerable influence during the 733 latter stages of LMO solidification. The purpose of modelling here is, instead, to test the extent 734 to which new data allow trends in volatile abundance in LMO cumulates to be identified. There 735 are, however, two additional complications in using such an approach to model lunar mantle 736 volatile abundances. Firstly, cumulates formed during LMO solidification will contain a proportion of trapped liquid. Elkins-Tanton and Grove (2011) argued for a proportion of trapped 737 intercumulate liquid (ICL) of 5-10%, which would have a strong influence on bulk cumulate 738 incompatible element chemistry. Given that all volatiles are highly incompatible, this degree of 739 liquid retention would dominate cumulate volatile content. McCubbin et al. (2015) argue that 740 because of this, geochemical observations imply that the amount of intercumulate liquid (ICL) 741 was likely low (below 1%). Here, we model ICL contents of 0 and 1% using the approach of 742 743 McCubbin et al. (2015), by instantaneously trapping liquid at each stage of cumulate formation.

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745 An additional complication is cumulate overturn and hybridisation during the latter stages of LMO solidification, which acts in effect to partially homogenise the lunar mantle (Shearer et 746 al., 2006). One important effect of cumulate overturn is partial melting within overturned, 747 748 hybridised cumulates, resulting in formation of mare basalts and associated volcanic products. As such, regions of the lunar interior 'sampled' by volcanic activity have any signature of LMO 749 solidification 'overprinted' by cumulate overturn and associated processes. Despite this, 750 modelling progressive crystallisation provides insight into the distribution of volatiles in the 751 752 products of LMO solidification, including various cumulate sequences and later stage liquids 753 (>99% crystallisation) which eventually form a proposed urKREEP component enriched in 754 volatiles (Taylor et al., 2006).

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To model the effects of LMO crystallisation on volatile distribution we use bulk silicate moon 756 757 (BSM) volatile estimates from McCubbin et al. (2015). These are based on their LMO crystallisation model and estimates for the proportion of residual liquid trapped within 758 cumulates formed during LMO solidification. LSHA* is a BSM composition which McCubbin et 759 al. (2015) derive from modelled F abundances in lunar soil and highlands apatite. This BSM 760 761 composition has an upper volatile content of 13.1 ppm H₂O, 7.1 ppm F and 13.8 ppm Cl. 762 CFHA* is a BSM composition which McCubbin et al. (2015) derive from CI chondritic and 763 highlands apatite F abundances. This BSM has upper volatile concentrations of 114 ppm H_2O_1 , 60 ppm F and 123 ppm Cl. As such, these models provide volatile-poor and relatively volatile-764 rich estimates of bulk lunar composition, although with a markedly lower H₂O content than that 765 766 proposed by Elkins-Tanton and Grove (2011).

768 Figure 9 shows the results of LMO solidification modelling using the CFHA* BSM composition (additional information, and results using both CFHA* and LSHA* compositions is given in 769 supplementary material). All three volatiles are highly incompatible, and as expected early 770 formed cumulates are essentially volatile-free. Once orthopyroxene crystallises and 771 solidification exceeds 60% there is a marked increase in cumulate volatile content, and 772 importantly, a marked change in volatile ratios (Figure 6C). The slightly higher compatibility of 773 F means that, despite overall volatile concentrations, F/H_2O in cumulate is initially >2, but 774 775 following formation of pyroxene-rich cumulates, decreases sharply, and stays at slightly above 1 during latter stages of LMO solidification. Formation of pyroxene also results in a marked 776 increase in the ratio F/CI, which approaches 3 during latter stages of LMO solidification. 777 Addition of inter-cumulate liquid (ICL) masks these signatures of mineral-melt partitioning. 778 However, even the addition of 1% ICL still results in marked trends in F/H₂O, which increases 779 780 to 0.8 during LMO solidification, and F/CI which approaches 1.

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Results of modelling are in good agreement with McCubbin et al. (2015), despite differences 782 in approach used. Cumulate volatile contents are low and largely dependent on the original 783 784 LMO composition, but with enrichment of F relative to H₂O and F relative to Cl within cumulates. During latter stages of LMO solidification volatiles contents of cumulates approach 785 a few 10s ppm for a CFHA* composition, and a few ppm for a LSHA* composition, even with 786 additional 1% ICL. As such, regardless of differences in LMO crystallisation sequence used, 787 or in choice of partition coefficients and the dependence of these on composition, there are 788 clear trends arising from LMO solidification. For low estimates of the extent of trapped 789 790 intercumulate liquid, lunar mantle cumulates are enriched in F relative to CI, and in F relative 791 to H₂O compared to the original LMO composition. As all volatiles are highly incompatible 792 there is, correspondingly, a marked increase in volatile content of remaining liquid during LMO 793 solidification (Figure 9A), which approaches 1000s ppm for each when the CFHA* composition is used, and 100s ppm for each with an LSHA* composition (supplementary material). 794 795 However, there are only relatively minor changes in volatile ratios in the liquid, even during 796 the latter stages of LMO solidification (Figure 6F). F/H₂O and F/Cl both remain close to 0.5, reflecting the original composition of the LMO. 797

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799 **5. Implications for volatiles in the early Earth-Moon system.**

- 801 New partitioning data for H₂O, Cl and F presented here demonstrate that volatile incorporation 802 in a reduced, model lunar system is comparable to more oxidised, terrestrial systems. At fO₂ down to approximately IW-2, H remains dominantly incorporated in nominally anhydrous 803 mantle minerals as OH⁻, at least at relatively low pressures of the lunar interior. Comparison 804 805 of limited F, Cl and H₂O mineral-melt partitioning data demonstrates that all three volatiles are highly incompatible, although F is slightly less incompatible, and CI considerably more 806 incompatible. Incorporation of all three volatiles is likely coupled to substitution of other minor 807 elements in mantle minerals, and likely dependent on melt composition and structure. 808
- 809

New partitioning data supports previous work where coefficients from model and actual terrestrial systems are used to investigate volatile behaviour during lunar processes. Partition coefficients can be used to estimate volatile content of lunar mantle source regions from, for example, melt inclusion data. Results are consistent with estimates based on incompatible element ratios, implying a lunar interior which is depleted in volatiles relative to BSE, and importantly, strongly depleted in CI relative to F. Forward modelling of LMO solidification using 816 new partitioning data supports the model of McCubbin et al. (2015). Cumulate phases have elevated F/H₂O and F/CI relative to the original LMO composition, although the extent of any 817 signature is dependent on the proportion of intercumulate liquid trapped during solidification. 818 McCubbin et al. (2015) argue that a clear signature of CI depletion in lunar material is 819 consistent with a lunar mantle volatile abundance largely dependent of mineral-melt 820 partitioning, implying low proportions of intercumlate liquid. However, although the lunar 821 822 mantle can have an elevated F/Cl inherited from LMO solidification, mineral-melt partitioning 823 is unable to fully account for the elevated F/Cl of lunar materials compared to chondritic and 824 terrestrial abundances (Hauri et al., 2015).

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837

 Table 1. Target model lunar compositions used for partitioning experiments. Target

- composition is an Apollo green glass composition based on average glass bead analyses by

Saal et al. (2008), but discounting K and P.

Oxide	Saal et al. (2008)*	Volatile free mix	Volatile-bearing mix
SiO ₂	45.67	45.59	44.07
TiO ₂	0.40	0.40	0.38
Al ₂ O ₃	7.79	7.77	7.52
Cr_2O_3	0.63	0.63	0.61
FeO	19.75	19.72	19.06
MgO	16.81	16.78	16.22
MnO	0.27	0.27	0.26
CaO	8.73	8.72	8.42
Na ₂ O	0.12	0.12	0.12
K ₂ O	0.01	0.00	0.00
P_2O_5	0.02	0.00	0.00
H ₂ O			1.98
F ₂			0.58
Cl ₂			0.78
Total	100.21	100.00	100.00

Table 2: Experimental conditions and run products (successful runs only). Key: opx=orthopyroxene (low Ca pyroxene), Cr-sp=Cr-rich spinel
 (due to buffer contamination), melt=quenched melt/glass, ol=olivine, pig=pigeonite.

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Run.	Capsule	Initial T	Final	Pressure	Duration	Log fO ₂ range	Estimated experimental	Products
		(°C)	Т	(GPa)	(h)	constrained from	log fO ₂ ³	
			(°C)			assembly ²		
Fe_2	Fe+Pt foil	1500	1350	2	24	0 to -5.0	-2.1	opx+Cr-sp+melt
Fe_4	Fe+Pt	1500	1400	2	24	0 to -4.8	-1.7	ol+opx+melt
Fe_5	Fe+Pt		1500	2	24	0 to -4.4	-1.3	ol+melt
Fe_6	Fe+Pt		1550	2	24	0 to -4.2	-2.1	melt
Fe_10	Fe+Pt		1500	3	24	-0 to 4.4	-2.5	melt
Fe_13 ¹	Fe+Pt		1340	2	24	0 to -5.0	(-4.4)	opx+pig+melt
Fe_14 ¹	Fe+Pt		1500	2	24	0 to -4.4	-2.0	pig+melt
Pt_hal1	Pt_C		1500	2	72	-1 to +2	-	opx+melt
Pt_hal2	Pt_C		1450 ⁴	2	72	-1 to +2	-	opx+melt

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¹ Starting mix is Fe-free but Fe is gained from the capsule

² Relative to Fe-FeO (IW) buffer based on Fe capsule and Cr-Cr₂O₃ buffer, or estimated for use of graphite inner capsule.

³ relative to IW, determined from FeO content of silicate melt in equilibrium with Fe metal (see text for details).

⁴Thermocouple failure during experiment, estimated temperature based on transformer output (±30°C)

	Fe_2		Fe_4			Fe_5		Fe_6	Fe_10
	melt	орх	melt	ol	орх	melt	ol	melt	melt
¹ n=	4/4/9	5/4/5	5/4/10	1/-/4	5/5/8	4/4/9	4/4/7	6/6/11	4/4
EMP data	(wt%)								
Na ₂ O	0.41(3)	0.03(1)	0.27(2)	n.d.	0.02(0)	0.21(2)	n.d.	0.23(2)	0.24(2)
Al ₂ O ₃	9.82(27)	3.58(55)	9.11(22)	0.12(3)	3.88(55)	7.43(28)	0.10(0)	7.94(19)	8.06(12)
FeO	11.30(43)	11.55(74)	18.44(29)	22.35(172)	13.93(74)	29.48(32)	28.86(71)	11.71(14)	7.52(24)
MgO	11.71(28)	27.52(75)	14.77(15)	38.76(150)	26.74(75)	13.79(24)	34.36(37)	17.48(10)	18.26(26)
CaO	13.88(20)	1.83(6)	9.37(19)	0.21(1)	1.39(6)	7.29(15)	0.22(0)	7.94(9)	8.24(4)
SiO ₂	43.72(63)	53.35(66)	42.75(33)	37.77(22)	52.49(66)	38.65(41)	36.91(15)	44.51(65)	46.37(49)
Cr ₂ O ₃	3.02(1)	3.03(23)	1.56(1)	1.00(5)	1.96(16)	0.52(0)	0.30(1)	7.18(40)	6.10(17)
TiO ₂	0.72(1)	0.09(3)	0.56(1)	0.01(0)	0.07(1)	0.42(1)	0.01(0)	0.43(1)	0.44(1)
MnO	0.31(1)	0.22(3)	0.30(1)	0.22(1)	0.20(1)	0.24(1)	0.18(1)	0.26(1)	0.24(1)
F	3.88(31)	-	2.41(19)	-	-	1.71(11)	-	2.19(21)	2.27(4)
CI	2.35(23)	-	0.83(1)	-	-	1.05(1)	-	1.17(1)	0.93(1)
Total	99.47(169)	101.20(35)	99.46(138)	100.44(45)	100.69(30)	100.52(103)	100.94(54)	101.25(60)	98.67(56)
NBO/T ²	1.44		1.65			2.08		1.83	1.61
Al⊤ (pfu)		0.110			0.123				
SIMS data	(ppm)								
H ₂ O	2230(130)	39(12)	4120(170)	-	63(8)	3840(150)	4(4)	1410(80)	1230(150)
CO ₂	25(5)	30(10)	19(2)	-	20(3)	27(23)	18(5)	41(38)	37(5)
F	53800(1500)	1240(120)	37500(1600)	160(-)	1048(58)	27460(690)	98(16)	30500(2400)	28100(900)
CI	28180(880)	38(5)	9400(640)	n.d	41(22)	11470(550)	34(14)	12220(1120)	9100(260)
Mineral/m	elt partition co	efficients ³						•	
D _{min/melt} ^H		0.018(6)		-	0.015(2)		0.0011(10)		
D _{min/melt} ^F		0.023(2)		0.004(0)	0.028(2)		0.0036(1)		
D _{min/melt} Cl		0.001(0)		-	0.004(0)		0.003(0)		
D _{min/melt} ^C		1.25(49)		-	1.06(18)		0.67(59)		

Table 3. Compositions of run products determined by electron microprobe and SIMS and corresponding mineral-melt partition coefficients.

	Fe_13			Fe_14		Pt_hal1		Pt_hal2	
	melt	орх	pig	melt	pig	melt	орх	melt	орх
¹ n=	4/3	4/3/6	2/2/2	5/5	1/1/4	5/4/4	5/4/5	4/4/12	5/54
EMP data	•	•	·				•		
Na ₂ O	0.33(5)	0.02(1)	0.20(1)	0.32(5)	0.23(1)	0.45(2)	0.03(1)	0.35(4)	0.02(0)
Al ₂ O ₃	15.42(21)	3.68(108)	10.79(56)	13.16(13)	7.29(59)	10.52(19)	4.11(110)	10.27(2)	2.89(27)
FeO	0.83(17)	1.81(30)	0.59(3)	12.69(28)	4.77(180)	12.97(67)	14.00(0.38)	8.96(26)	9.91(124)
MgO	8.03(11)	32.65(157)	15.95(44)	7.30(13)	17.50(96)	11.45(18)	26.79(53)	15.05(13)	30.06(34)
CaO	12.51(12)	1.23(26)	13.47(92)	12.12(13)	16.55(192)	14.20(17)	1.63(10)	11.39(12)	1.14(5)
SiO ₂	50.25(41)	54.99(138)	50.89(90)	46.43(40)	50.85(90)	41.62(81)	52.31(113)	44.22(45)	54.21(39)
Cr ₂ O ₃	4.09(10)	0.15(4)	7.31(60)	0.58(2)	1.61(30)	0.18(1)	1.14(9)	0.35(0)	0.98(16)
TiO ₂	0.49(1)	0.15(4)	0.57(2)	0.66(2)	0.30(3)	0.79(4)	0.07(1)	0.53(0)	0.05(1)
MnO	0.21(0)	0.27(4)	0.37(4)	0.19(1)	0.26(3)	0.28(1)	0.22(2)	0.23(1)	0.18(1)
F	4.95(8)	-	-	4.27(8)	-	3.92(5)	-	2.97(7)	-
CI	1.08(1)	-	-	0.97(1)	-	2.87(5)	-	2.08(1)	-
Total	98.26(45)	99.82(54)	100.15(59)	98.73(32)	99.34(76)	99.33(36)	100.30(64)	96.28(78)	99.43(53)
NBO/T ²	0.65			0.89		0.93		1.31	
Al⊤ (pfu) ³		0.09	0.136		0.141		0.128		0.08
SIMS data									
H ₂ O	660(10)	61(32)	44(21)	4400(590)	144(-)	10200(670)	156(16)	28300(500)	287(40)
CO ₂	61(23)	69(1)	81(9)	33(0)	n.d.	122(50)	50(0)	2986(62)	47(3)
F	48300(3400)	1383(58)	-	47000(5400)	3397(-)	31300(2800)	1160(125)	29500(100)	689(136)
CI	8500(670)	69(1)	-	9000(1500)	70(-)	11000(1000)	40(9)	20300(800)	39(9)
Mineral/m	elt partition co	efficients ³							
D _{min/melt} ^H		0.09(5)	0.07(3)		0.033(5)		0.015(2)		0.010(1)
D _{min/melt} F		0.029(2)	-		0.072(8)		0.037(5)		0.016(4)
D _{min/melt} Cl		0.003(0)	-		0.008(0)		0.004(0)		0.002(0)
D _{min/melt} ^C		1.13(42)	1.3(5)		-		0.41(17)		0.016(1)

¹Number of analysis for SIMS (F+CI) /SIMS (H+C)/ EMP (major elements), one analysis per crystal;

²ratio of non-bridging oxygens to tetrahedral sites as a measured of melt polymerisation;

³Calculated atoms of Al on the tetrahedral site in pyroxene (per formula unit);

⁴Based on melt SIMS data.

Table 4: input data used to model volatile distribution during lunar magma ocean solidification. Steps during solidification and phase assemblages are from Rapp and Draper (2018).

0	CD
×	h-K
J	0.0

Stage/%	Phase	D ^{ol/melt}			D ^{opx/melt}			D ^{cpx/melt}			D ^{plag/melt}		
solidifiction	assembly												
	(mineral												
	proportions)		_										_
		H ₂ O	CI	F	H ₂ O	CI	F	H ₂ O	CI	F	H ₂ O	CI	F
1 (0-52%)	ol	0.001	0.003	0.004	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2 (52-74%)	орх	-	-	-	0.015	0.002	0.03	-	-	-	-	-	-
3 (74-88%)	0.3 ol + 0.15	0.001	0.003	0.004	0.015	0.002	0.03	0.03	0.007	0.08	0.03	0.007	0.08
	cpx + 0.15 opx												
	+ 0.4 plag												
4 (88-97%)	0.6 opx + 0.4	-	-	-				-	-	-	0.03	0.007	0.08
	plag												

867 Figure 1. Backscattered electron images (SEM) of selected run products.



Figure 2: Comparison of SIMS and EMPA data for F (top) and Cl (bottom) concentrations in glass (quenched melt). Error bars are standard deviations on mean values for each sample

873 based on repeat analyses. Dashed lines are 1:1 relationships.

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877 Figure 3. Unpolarised FTIR spectra from selected run products, offset vertically for clarity,

and obtained from samples with consistent thicknesses, although not thickness corrected.

879 No background correction has been applied due to complex and contrasting backgrounds.



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Figure 4. Effect of temperature on F, H₂O and CI partitioning between silicate melt and orthopyroxene (squares), pigeonite/clinopyroxene (high Ca pyroxenes) (circles) and olivine (triangles). Black symbols: this study, Grey: Hauri et al. (2006), Red: Joachim et al. (2017), Yellow: Joachim

et al. (2015), White: Rosenthal et al. (2015), Blue: Beyer et al. (2012), Hatched: Dalou et al. (2012), Green: O'Leary et al. (2010).

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888 Figure 5. Relationship between F and H₂O mineral-melt partition coefficients (top) and Cl

and F partition coefficients, with relationship between Cl and H coefficients shown in insert).
 Key as for Figure 4.



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Figure 6. Top: F, H₂O and CI pyroxene-melt partition coefficients as a function of atoms per formula unit (APFU) Al³⁺ on the tetrahedral site in ortho- and clinopyroxene structures. Bottom: F and Cl olivine-melt partition coefficients as a function of olivine Al₂O₃ content (ppm by weight).



Figure 7. Variation in F content in minerals (measured by SIMS) with mineral chemistry determined by EMPA (TiO₂ contents x10 for clarity).



Figure 8. Effect of melt polymerisation, defined by the calculated ratio NBO/T, on volatilepartitioning. Key as for Figure 4.



Figure 9: Results from modelling F, Cl and H₂O distribution during progressive solidification of a model LMO, using crystallisation sequence of

- Rapp and Draper (2018) (grey boxes, from 0-97% solidification), based on CFHA* LMO model of McCubbin et al. (2015). A-B: solidification with
- no inter-cumulate liquid. D-E: solidification with 1% intercumulate liquid. A and D show volatile content of liquid (magma) during progressive solidification; F = black squares, $H_2O =$ dark grey squares, CI = light grey circles. B and E show volatile abundances in cumulate (same key). C
- solidification; F = black squares, H_2O = dark grey squares, CI = light grey circles. B and E show volatile abundances in cumulate (same key). Shows corresponding volatile ratios for cumulates with no intercumulate liquid (dashed lines) and 1% intercumulate liquid (solid lines): grey =
- 503 shows corresponding volatile ratios for cumulates with no intercumulate liquid (dashed lines) and 1/0 intercumulate liquid (solid li





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