1	Titanium stable isotope investigation of magmatic
2	processes on the Earth and Moon
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22 Abstract

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24 We present titanium stable isotope measurements of terrestrial magmatic samples 25 and lunar mare basalts with the aims of constraining the composition of the lunar and terrestrial mantles and evaluating the potential of Ti stable isotopes for understanding 26 magmatic processes. Relative to the OL-Ti isotope standard, the δ^{49} Ti values of 27 28 terrestrial samples vary from -0.05 to +0.55‰, whereas those of lunar mare basalts 29 vary from -0.01 to +0.03‰ (the precisions of the double spike Ti isotope 30 measurements are ca. ±0.02‰ at 95% confidence). The Ti stable isotope 31 compositions of differentiated terrestrial magmas define a well-defined positive 32 correlation with SiO₂ content, which appears to result from the fractional 33 crystallisation of Ti-bearing oxides with an inferred isotope fractionation factor of $\Delta^{49}Ti$ = $-0.23\%_0 \times 10^6/T^2$. Primitive terrestrial basalts show no resolvable 34 oxide-melt

35 Ti isotope variations and display similar values to mantle-derived samples (peridotite 36 and serpentinites), indicating that partial melting does not fractionate Ti stable isotopes and that the Earth's mantle has a homogeneous δ^{49} Ti composition of 37 38 +0.005 ± 0.005 (95% c.i., n=30). Eclogites also display similar Ti stable isotope 39 compositions, suggesting that Ti is immobile during dehydration of subducted oceanic lithosphere. Lunar basalts have variable δ^{49} Ti values; low-Ti mare basalts 40 have δ^{49} Ti values similar to that of the bulk silicate Earth (BSE) while high-Ti lunar 41 42 basalts display small enrichment in the heavy Ti isotopes. This is best interpreted in 43 terms of source heterogeneity resulting from Ti stable isotope fractionation 44 associated with ilmenite-melt equilibrium during the generation of the mantle source of high-Ti lunar mare basalts. The similarity in δ^{49} Ti between terrestrial samples and 45 low-Ti lunar basalts provides strong evidence that the Earth and Moon have identical 46 47 stable Ti isotope compositions.

48 **1. Introduction**

49 Much of the stable isotope variation seen on Earth is mass-dependent in nature, 50 scaling as a function of the difference in mass of the isotopes involved. Departures 51 from such mass-dependent isotope fractionation are, however, commonplace in 52 meteorites (Clayton, 1993; Dauphas et al., 2002) and one of the most intriguing 53 features of the Earth-Moon system is the similarity of their mass-independent isotope 54 signatures (e.g.: O: Clayton et al., 1973; Cr: Lugmair and Shukolyukov, 1998 Ti: 55 Zhang et al., 2012;). This similarity is difficult to reconcile with simple giant impact 56 models that predict that most of the Moon's mass should consist of impactor material. 57 because in this case lunar rocks should have inherited the isotope composition of the 58 impactor, which Pahlevan and Stevenson (2007) argued should have been different 59 from that of the Earth. Different scenarios were proposed to explain this similarity 60 ranging from isotope equilibration between Earth's mantle and the protolunar disk 61 (Pahlevan and Stevenson, 2007), impact of a Mars-size body with a fast-spinning 62 Earth (Cúk and Stewart, 2012), impact between two similar-sized protoplanets 63 (Canup, 2012), "hit-and-run" impact (Reufer et al., 2012), or an Earth-like impactor 64 (Dauphas et al., 2014a, Mastrobuono-Battisti et al., 2015). The wide range of 65 physical processes invoked in each of these different models highlights the need to 66 develop new tools to evaluate the consequences of each model on the chemical and 67 isotopic evolution of the Moon with respect to the Earth.

68 Interestingly, and in contrast to many mass-independent isotope systems, the 69 mass dependent stable isotope compositions of a number of elements in terrestrial 70 and lunar samples display significant variations (e.g.: O and Fe: Liu et al., 2010; 71 Poitrasson et al., 2004; Weyer et al., 2005; Mg: Sedaghatpour et al., 2013; Zn: 72 Paniello et al., 2012; Li: Seith et al., 2006; Cl: Sharp et al., 2010; Cr: Bonnand et al., 73 2016). The stable isotope compositions of these elements have the potential to shed 74 new light on the evolution of the Earth-Moon system as their variations are diagnostic 75 features of a variety of processes such as volatile element depletion, core formation,

and magma ocean crystallization. However, many of these non-traditional stable
isotope systems are affected by multiple processes, which complicate their
interpretation.

79 Titanium has the advantage of being both lithophile and extremely refractory. 80 It is therefore unlikely to have been affected by formation of the lunar and terrestrial 81 cores, or volatile element depletion during the giant impact. It thus has the potential 82 to provide unambiguous constraints on lunar magma ocean crystallization. Despite 83 its abundance in igneous rocks and the extensive use of TiO₂ concentrations in high-84 temperature geochemistry. Ti stable isotopes have received very limited attention to 85 date (Millet and Dauphas 2014; Zhang et al., 2014). Indeed, most of the studies so 86 far focused on the detection of Ti isotopic anomalies to learn about nucleosynthetic 87 processes, genetic relationships between planetary bodies, early solar system 88 processes and/or cosmogenic effects (e.g.: Niederer et al., 1980; Niemeyer, 1988; 89 Trinquier et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2011; 2012). Titanium exists in several 90 coordinations in magmatic systems: it is predominantly present in 5-fold coordination 91 in all silicate melts but is also present in 4- and 6-fold coordinations in silicic and 92 mafic melts respectively (Farges et al., 1996; Farges and Brown, 1997). In addition, 93 5-fold coordinated titanium transitions to 6-fold coordination during crystallisation of 94 Ti-bearing oxides (Farges and Brown, 1997). As stable isotope theory (Schauble, 95 2004) predicts that stable isotope fractionation will be driven by major contrasts in 96 elemental bonding environment, the coordination behaviour of Ti raises the possibility 97 that Ti stable isotopes may serve as a tracer of magmatic processes. Furthermore, 98 as Ti is refractory and comparably immobile in fluids, Ti stable isotopes are also likely 99 to be comparatively resistant to overprinting. A potential complexity however, lies with the presence of Ti³⁺ in reduced magmas and planetary bodies such as the 100 101 Moon. fO_2 estimates for the lunar mantle range from the iron-wüstite buffer to 2 log 102 units below it (i.e. IW-2), with a most likely value of ~IW-1 (Wadhwa, 2008). 103 Experimental work has shown that in these conditions, the lunar mantle could contain 104 up to 10% Ti³⁺ (Krawczynski et al., 2009). However, direct measurements of Ti³⁺/ Σ Ti 105 (Simon et al., 2014) in pyroxenes and olivines from lunar basalts have not detected 106 any Ti³⁺.

107 In this contribution, high precision Ti stable isotope measurements are 108 presented for a range of terrestrial and lunar magmatic rocks with three aims. The 109 objectives of this contribution are to (*i*) evaluate the effect of fractional crystallisation 110 and magma differentiation on the Ti stable isotope composition of silicate melts; (*ii*) 111 determine the Ti stable isotope composition of the terrestrial mantle and assess its 112 homogeneity and (*iii*), use the Ti stable isotope composition of lunar basalts to 113 investigate the magmatic evolution of the Moon.

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115 **2. Samples and methods**

116 **2.1 Samples**

117 In addition to the dataset already presented in Millet and Dauphas (2014), we have 118 analysed 34 terrestrial samples reflecting a global coverage from a diverse range of 119 geodynamic contexts. We have also analysed 8 primitive lunar mare basalts covering 120 the range of TiO_2 concentrations observed in lunar rocks.

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Mid-Ocean Ridge Basalts (MORB): Seven MORB samples were analysed in order to constrain the composition of the upper mantle. The sample suite includes glasses from the mid-Atlantic ridge, the East-Pacific Rise (Batiza and Niu, 1992), the Pacific-Cocos-Nazca triple junction (Puchelt and Emmerman, 1983) as well as the South-West Indian Ridge (Escrig et al., 2004), including a single MORB sample displaying Sr, Pb and Os isotope compositions characteristic of the Dupal anomaly (MD57 9-1).

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Island Arc Basalts. The island arc basalts studied here mainly comprise basalts sampled from oceanic arcs in order to limit the potential for crustal contamination and assimilation processes. In addition to the New Britain basalt data published by Millet

and Dauphas (2014), 3 arc lavas from the Mariana arc were studied that were
previously analysed for major and trace elements by Yi et al. (2000). A single basalt
from the Izu-Bonin arc, rock standard JB-2, was also analysed.

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Intraplate basalts. The intraplate basalts mainly comprise ocean island basalts (OIBs)
from four different localities. Single samples from Hawaii (BHVO-2 rock standard)
and Easter Island (sample 17678, Baker et al., 1974) were analysed as well as
samples from the Cape Verde (São Nicolau island; Millet et al., 2008) and Azores
archipelagos (São Miguel island: Turner et al., 1997; São Jorge island: Millet et al.,
2009). In addition, a single continental flood basalt (the USGS rock standard BCR-2)
was also analysed.

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Eclogites. The three eclogites measured here were collected from the Zermatt-Saas Fee ophiolite, Switzerland. They consist of 2 basaltic eclogites and 1 gabbroic eclogite, based on their mineralogy (Dale et al., 2007). Estimates of peak metamorphic conditions for these samples range between 2-3 GPa and 550 to 630 C (Barnicoat and Fry, 1986; Reinecke, 1991). Major and trace element data (Dale et al., 2007) show that all the samples selected suffered loss of volatile and fluid-mobile elements during metamorphic dehydration.

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152 Mantle samples. The mantle-derived samples are of two types. First, a single 153 orogenic peridotite from the Beni Bousera massif was analyzed (GP13, Pearson et 154 al., 2004). The other 3 mantle-derived samples are serpentinites from various 155 Western Alps ophiolites. These samples originate from the lithospheric mantle 156 section of a subducted slab and have been chosen because they record different 157 metamorphic conditions during subduction. These have partly (BCh9, MM15) to fully 158 (LZ14b) re-equilibrated in the antigorite (high temperature and pressure variety of 159 serpentine) stability field during subduction (see Debret et al., 2014 for details).

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161 Differentiated magmas. In order to assess the effect of magmatic differentiation, rock 162 standards of varying SiO₂ content (AGV-1 andesite: 58.8wt%, G-2 granite: 69.1wt%, 163 RGM-1 rhyolite: 73.4wt%) and a basaltic andesite from São Miguel Island (54.5wt% 164 SiO₂, Azores archipelago) were analysed. Although not cogenetic, these samples 165 span almost the full range of silica content observed in terrestrial rocks and show a 166 continuous decrease in TiO₂ content with increasing SiO₂. To complement this 167 sample set, 6 cogenetic samples from Agung volcano (Bali, Indonesia) related to each other by fractional crystallisation were analysed. The SiO₂ concentration of 168 169 these samples ranges from 54 to ca. 63wt% and TiO₂ shows a continuous decrease 170 from 0.92 to 0.60wt% over that range (Dempsey, 2012).

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Lunar samples. Nine lunar mare basalts were analysed. Specifically, we selected 5 high-Ti basalts (TiO₂ ranging from 12.2 to 13.4wt%) and 3 low-Ti basalts (TiO₂ ranging from 1.9 to 3.3wt%). A single green glass sample was also analysed (sample 15426, TiO₂ = 0.5 wt%).

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177 2.2. Methods

178 Samples were processed and measured using the double-spike method of 179 Millet and Dauphas (2014), which is briefly outlined here. Between 10 to 50 mg of 180 rock powder (for whole rock samples) or glass chips (for MORB glasses) were 181 digested in a 1:1 mixture of concentrated HF and HNO₃ for 48 hours. After careful 182 evaporation, samples were then taken up in nitric acid and dried down 3 times before 183 being taken up in 6 M HCl and checked for residual solids. If samples were fully 184 digested, approximately 30 mg of H₃BO₃ was added to the solution in order to ensure 185 that any potential fluorides (for which Ti has a strong affinity) having escaped visual 186 inspection are re-dissolved and thus ensure that all the Ti contained in the sample is 187 in solution. An aliquot containing 5 to 20 µg of Ti is then taken and mixed with a ⁴⁷Ti188 ⁴⁹Ti double spike in appropriate proportions (the Ti concentrations of the various 189 rocks analysed were known from prior work). Purification of Ti was achieved 190 following the procedure designed by Zhang et al. (2011) and using a two-step 191 chemistry. Firstly, the samples were passed through a TODGA cartridge to remove 192 almost all sample matrix. Samples were then further purified using AG1-X8 resin in 193 order to separate Mo (thus limiting potential doubly charged interferences on Ti 194 isotopes) and remaining Ca. It is notable that lunar samples and BHVO-2 rock 195 standard were digested at the Origins Laboratory of the University of Chicago by flux 196 fusion method using LiBO₃ as a fluxing agent. This was to ensure that potential 197 refractory phases were fully digested. After fusion, samples are dissolved in 3M 198 HNO3 before an aliquot containing 20µg of Ti is taken and spiked in ideal 199 proportions. Chemical purification of Ti was achieved using the procedure outlined 200 above.

201 Isotope ratio measurements were carried out on Neptune Plus MC-ICP-MS 202 installed in the Arthur Holmes laboratory at Durham University and at the Origins 203 Laboratory of the University of Chicago. The samples were injected into the plasma 204 torch using an Aridus II desolvating nebuliser and the isotope measurements were 205 performed in medium resolution mode. Despite being double-spiked, all sample 206 measurements were bracketed by measurements of double-spiked standards (OL-Ti) 207 measured at the same concentration level in order to account for small unresolved polyatomic interferences on ⁴⁷Ti and ⁴⁸Ti produced in the mass spectrometer. Raw 208 209 data is then processed offline using in-house double-spike deconvolution codes written in Mathematica[®]. All data is expressed as δ^{49} Ti, which is the deviation of the 210 211 ⁴⁹Ti/⁴⁷Ti ratio of samples relative to that of the OL-Ti standard (Millet and Dauphas, 212 2014). This standard is available from the corresponding author upon request.

Finally, it should be noted that double-spike measurements rely on the assumption that the 4 isotopes used in the double-spike deconvolution routine are related to by mass-dependent stable isotope fractionation only. Double-spike method can provide inaccurate result if any of the isotopes involved is affected by massindependent variation. To this day, no mass-independent variations have been found in terrestrial samples for Ti isotopes, but significant ⁵⁰Ti anomalies have been detected in lunar samples related to cosmic ray exposure. These anomalies could lead to potentially inaccurate results if not accounted for. For this reason, our doublespike deconvolution procedure uses ⁴⁶Ti, ⁴⁷Ti, ⁴⁸Ti, and ⁴⁹Ti that are only related to each other by mass-dependent fractionation in both terrestrial and lunar rocks.

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224 **4. Results**

225 Data for all standards and samples analysed during the course of this study are given in Table 1. For samples measured once only, quoted errors are internal 226 227 errors, whereas for samples measured multiple times, 95% confidence intervals were 228 calculated using the Isoplot software (Ludwig, 2003). Repeated digestion and 229 analysis of BCR-2, BHVO-2 (HF or flux fusion digestion) and JB-2 reference 230 materials, previously analysed by Millet and Dauphas (2014) at the Origins 231 Laboratory (University of Chicago), were conducted in order to certify data quality 232 and the absence of inter-laboratory bias (Fig.1). The average Ti isotope compositions 233 of standards analysed at Durham University is in excellent agreement with that of the 234 Origins Laboratory data and demonstrates that the 2σ reproducibility of our δ^{49} Ti 235 measurements is ca. ±0.020‰. In addition, we have carried out replicate digestions 236 and analysis of the RGM-1 rock standard (only in Durham) which all display values 237 within analytical uncertainty (0.548±0.014‰, 95%c.i., n=4). Finally, for BHVO-2 rock 238 standard, measurements of flux fusion digestions carried out in Chicago displays 239 value within analytical uncertainty of HF-HNO₃ digestions performed in both Durham 240 and Chicago (Greber et al., 2016; Fig. 1)

241 The δ^{49} Ti values of all terrestrial samples ranges from -0.046 to +0.548‰. 242 Samples of differentiated magmas display a large range in Ti isotope compositions and an overall enrichment in isotopically heavy Ti isotopes (+0.054 to +0.548‰)
relative to basalts and mantle-derived rocks (-0.046 to +0.049‰), which display more
homogeneous compositions. In the MORB, OIB and IAB sample subsets, there
appear to be no differences related to sampling localities.

Unlike primitive terrestrial samples, primitive lunar basalts display small but resolvable Ti stable isotope heterogeneity, which relates to their TiO₂ content. High-Ti basalts display overall heavier δ^{49} Ti values (+0.011‰ to +0.033‰) relative to those of low-Ti lunar basalts and the single green glass sample analysed (-0.008 to +0.011‰).

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253 **5. Discussion**

Significant variations exist in the Ti stable isotope compositions of terrestrial and lunar magmatic samples (Table 1). Below, we discuss the probable causes of Ti stable isotope fractionation and evaluate the degree of homogeneity of the Earth's mantle in terms of Ti stable isotopes. We then focus on the variability observed in the Ti stable isotope composition of primitive lunar mare basalts and discuss the implications of these data for the magmatic evolution of the Moon.

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261 5.1 Ti stable isotope fractionation during magma differentiation

262 A striking feature of our terrestrial sample dataset is the significant enrichment 263 of differentiated magmatic rocks in isotopically heavy Ti isotopes relative to more 264 primitive magmatic rocks. This enrichment is correlated with SiO₂ content, suggesting 265 a relationship with fractional crystallisation processes (Fig. 2). Titanium is highly to 266 moderately incompatible in most of the silicate minerals typically involved in magma 267 differentiation (pyroxenes, olivine, plagioclase, micas, quartz) regardless of the 268 composition of the melt. Mass balance considerations therefore suggest that it is 269 unlikely that the crystallisation of silicate mineral phases could have modified the Ti 270 isotopic composition of the remaining melt.

271 Titanium behaviour during fractional crystallisation is mainly controlled by the 272 crystallisation of Fe-Ti oxides that can occur at all stages of magma differentiation. 273 The coordination of Ti in silicate melts and oxide minerals was investigated by 274 Farges et al. (1996) and Farges and Brown (1997). In silicate melts, Ti is 275 predominantly present in 4, 5, and 6-fold coordinations, whereas Fe-Ti oxides 276 exclusively accommodate 6-folded Ti (Farges et al., 1996). As stable isotope theory 277 (Schauble, 2004) predicts that isotopically heavy species will be preferentially 278 concentrated in low-coordination, high-force constant (stronger and stiffer) bonding 279 environments, at equilibrium Fe-Ti oxides might thus display enrichments in 280 isotopically light Ti relative to the co-existing melt. The progressive crystallisation of 281 Fe-Ti oxides during magmatic differentiation could potentially, therefore, drive the 282 residual melt to heavy isotope compositions.

283 In order to test this hypothesis, we have modelled the evolution of a primitive 284 basaltic melt to a silicic composition by fractional crystallisation using Rhyolite 285 MELTS software (Gualda et al., 2012). The composition of the starting material is set 286 to be similar to that of arc basalts (see Fig. 2 caption), crystallisation occurs at 1 kbar 287 and the relative oxygen fugacity is assumed to be constant at the NNO buffer. At 288 each calculation step, the compositions and respective mass of melt and minerals in 289 equilibrium are calculated. Steps are defined by a 5°C incremental temperature 290 decrease from the liquidus temperature (here 1118°C). The calculation stops when 291 the temperature reaches 900°C, at which point ca. 70% of the liquid has crystallised 292 and the SiO₂ content of the remaining liquid has reached 66 wt%. The Ti isotope 293 evolution of the melt is calculated, at each step, using a Rayleigh distillation law and 294 a bulk Ti stable isotope fractionation factor between the residual melt and the 295 minerals removed. As silicate minerals have a negligible effect on the budget of Ti in 296 differentiating magmas, their contribution to the Ti isotope evolution of the residual 297 melt must also be negligible. Consequently, the bulk melt-residue Ti stable isotope 298 fractionation factor is equal to that between Fe-Ti oxides and melt

 $(\Delta^{49}Ti_{oxide-melt})$ weighted according to the relative proportion of Ti sequestered by 299 300 oxides at each temperature step. Assuming that the fractionation is equilibrium in nature, the model reproduces the observed trend in δ^{49} Ti vs. SiO₂ well for an 301 empirical value of $\Delta^{49}Ti_{oxide-melt} = -0.23\% \times 10^6/T^2$ (with T in K) indicating that 302 303 fractional crystallisation of Fe-Ti oxides is a viable mechanism to explain the 304 progressive enrichments of magmas in isotopically heavy Ti with increasing silica 305 content. The predicted fractionation between oxide and melt at 900 °C is -0.167‰ for 306 δ^{49} Ti. For comparison, Nuclear Resonant Inelastic X-ray Scattering (NRIXS) force 307 constant measurements predict an equilibrium iron isotope fractionation between 308 ilmenite (Krawczynski et al., 2014) and Fe²⁺-bearing basaltic glasses (Dauphas et al. 2014b) at the same temperature of -0.09‰ for δ^{56} Fe (i.e., -0.05 ‰/amu). The 309 310 equilibrium Ti isotope fractionation factor between oxide and melt that is needed to 311 account for Ti isotope variations in silicic rocks is thus very reasonable. It should be 312 noted that our preferred model does not account for any potential dependence of the 313 Ti stable isotope fractionation factor on melt or Fe-Ti oxide chemical composition. 314 Experimental work as well as measurements of oxide minerals in well-characterised 315 sample suites will be needed to ascertain the oxide-melt isotopic fractionation factor 316 inferred from measurements of differentiated terrestrial rocks.

317 The origin of the heavy Fe isotopic composition of silicic rocks with >70wt% 318 has been the subject of some debate. The explanations proposed thus far include 319 iron mobilization by exsolved fluids (Poitrasson and Freydier, 2005; Heimann et al., 320 2008; Telus et al., 2012), Soret migration (Lundstrom, 2009), and fractional 321 crystallization (Telus et al. 2012; Sossi et al. 2012; Dauphas et al. 2014b). For most 322 silicic rocks, fluid exsolution is unlikely to be the culprit because more fluid mobile Zn 323 does not display correlated fractionation and iron isotope enrichments also affect 324 anhydrous A-type granites (Telus et al., 2012; Sossi et al. 2012). The finding of 325 significant isotope variations for a fluid-immobile element like Ti in silicic magmatic 326 rocks supports the view that fractional crystallization can drive stable isotope 327 fractionations in transition metals. Iron and titanium stable isotope variations in 328 magmatic rocks probably bear considerable insights into the processes governing 329 magmatic evolution but equilibrium fractionation factors between minerals and melts 330 need to be better know to reap the fruits of those studies.

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2 5.2 The Ti stable isotope composition of terrestrial basalts and the Bulk Silicate Earth

Basaltic magmas display less variation in δ^{49} Ti relative to differentiated 333 334 magmas (ca. 0.1% compared to ca. 0.6%; Fig. 3). The variation observed is 335 statistically significant (relative to analytical precision) and may be related to 336 heterogeneity of the terrestrial mantle or other processes. However, the full range of 337 basalt δ^{49} Ti variability is also observed in subduction zone basalts at the high end of the SiO₂ range (52-54 wt%). Two of the basaltic lavas from the Marianas and one 338 339 New Britain sample display the heaviest Ti stable isotope compositions of all the 340 basalts analysed, whereas the JB-2 rock standard (Izu-Bonin arc) displays the 341 lightest composition of the entire sample set. Other basalt samples from the New Britain and Mariana arcs, which have lower silica contents, all display δ^{49} Ti values 342 343 within analytical uncertainties, indicating that these three samples may have already 344 been affected by the early onset of Fe-Ti oxide fractionation and are thus not 345 representative of the Ti stable isotope composition of the sub arc mantle anymore. 346 Fractional crystallisation cannot however explain the composition of the JB-2 rock 347 standard, as no mineral phase typically involved during basaltic melt differentiation 348 (e.g. olivine, pyroxenes, plagioclase, spinel, garnet) has been identified to 349 preferentially incorporate the heavy isotopes of titanium relative to melt at 350 equilibrium. As an arc basalt, JB-2 is expected to display anomalously low 351 abundances of fluid immobile elements such as Ti and Nb relative to elements of similar incompatibility (Sm and Tb for Ti, Th and La for Nb; $Ti/_{Ti^*} = \frac{Ti_N}{\sqrt{Sm_N \times Tb_N}}$ 352

353 and
$$Nb/_{Nb^*} = \frac{Nb_N}{\sqrt{Th_N \times La_N}}$$
, concentrations are normalised to the primitive

354 mantle composition of McDonough and Sun, 1995) in normalised trace element 355 patterns. For example, compiled data for the Izu-Bonin arc eruptives (obtained from 356 Georoc database) show that at similar SiO₂ contents to JB-2 (53.2wt%), Izu-Bonin 357 magmas typically have Ti/Ti* of 0.7 to 0.85 and Nb/Nb* of 0.16 to 0.35. While JB-2 358 displays the strong negative Nb anomaly $(Nb/Nb^* = 0.21)$ expected for island arc 359 lavas, it does not display a negative Ti anomaly (Ti/Ti* = 1.02). This feature can be 360 explained by oxide accumulation in this sample. In contrast to Ti, Nb does not 361 partition into Fe-Ti oxides (Nielsen and Beard, 2000) and therefore the accumulation 362 of Fe-Ti oxides would lead to decoupling of Ti and Nb concentrations as well as 363 enrichment in light isotopes of titanium.

364 Once samples that are affected by Fe-Ti oxide crystallisation or accumulation 365 are removed (i.e. most silicic lavas from the Mariana arc, the most silicic New Britain sample and JB-2 rock standard), the average δ^{49} Ti values for island arc 366 367 (+0.007±0.010‰, 95% c.i., n=8), intraplate (+0.009±0.019‰, 95% c.i., n=7) and mid-368 ocean ridge basalts (+0.001±0.008‰, 95% c.i., n=7) are all within statistical error of 369 each other and within our analytical uncertainty (see Fig.1). Titanium behaves as a 370 moderately incompatible element during melting of either spinel or garnet-bearing 371 peridotite (Prytulak and Elliott, 2007) and is efficiently extracted from the mantle 372 during basalt genesis. Mass-balance considerations thus dictate that basalts should 373 record the Ti isotopic composition of their mantle source, unless melting occurs 374 under Ti-oxide saturation. Our data on primitive basalts therefore indicates that the 375 Earth's upper mantle has a homogeneous Ti stable isotope composition, within the 376 precision of our measurements. In addition, the fact that the average value of our 377 mantle samples (Beni Bousera Orogenic peridotite and Western Alps serpentinites) is indistinguishable from the average of all the primitive basalts analysed 378 $(\delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{hasalts}} = +0.006 \pm 0.006\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} = +0.013 \pm 0.023\%, 95\% \text{ c.i., } n=22 \text{ vs. } \delta^{49}\text{Ti}_{\text{mantle}} =$ 379

n=4) suggests that the partial melting of typical mantle lithologies (olivine +
 clinopyroxene + orthopyroxene + spinel and/or garnet) does not fractionate Ti stable
 isotopes.

383 In the bulk silicate Earth, Ti is mainly hosted in the mantle with only a minor 384 proportion stored the continental crust (McDonough, 1991). It is therefore possible to 385 calculate the Ti stable isotope composition of the Bulk Silicate Earth as the variance-386 weighted mean of primitive basalts, eclogites and mantle-derived samples analysed in this study, which yields a δ^{49} Ti value for the BSE (bulk silicate Earth) of 387 388 +0.005±0.005‰ (95% c.i., n=29). It is worth noting that measurement of a fully 389 processed OL-Ti standard (digestion + chemical purification) shows that the 390 analytical method used generates accurate results at the ~±0.012‰ precision level (Millet and Dauphas, 2014), so it is unknown if the δ^{49} Ti of the BSE value is accurate 391 392 at the $\pm 0.005\%$ level.

393 It is notable that primitive island arc basalts and MORBs display the same Ti 394 stable isotope compositions. The mobility of Ti and other high-field-strength elements 395 in subduction zone systems is a highly debated subject that mainly revolves around 396 the stability of Ti-bearing phases during metamorphism of the down-going slab and 397 the nature and composition of fluids in associated dehydration (e.g. Kessel et al., 398 2005). Experimental constraints have shown that rutile has low solubility in pure-H₂O 399 fluids (Audetat and Keppler, 2005) and that the rutile-aqueous fluid partition 400 coefficients for Ti, Nb and Ta are very high (Brenan et al., 1994). However, the 401 presence of rutile in fluid-related mineral veins of deep-subducted rocks (Gao et al., 2007) indicates potential mobility of Ti and other HFSE in subduction zone 402 403 environments. This is corroborated by recent experimental work on fluorine and 404 chlorine-rich fluids (Rapp et al., 2010) and albite-saturated fluids (Antignano and 405 Manning, 2008) in which Ti and other HFSE appear to be orders of magnitude more 406 soluble than in pure-H₂O fluids. It is unclear in what speciation Ti is present in such 407 fluids and it is thus hard to predict the direction and magnitude of stable isotope 408 fractionation between rutile and co-existing fluids. Nevertheless, the bonding 409 environment of Ti in halogen or Na-bearing fluids will be different to that of rutile and 410 it is expected that this process will generate stable isotope fractionation. The identical 411 average Ti stable isotope composition of MORBs and island-arc basalts therefore 412 indicates that, even if Ti is mobilised during dehydration in subduction zones, this 413 process does not affect the budget of Ti across the whole mantle wedge. Moreover, 414 the fact that the eclogites and subduction-related serpentinites measured during this study display the same Ti isotope composition as MORBs (δ^{49} Ti_{eclonites}=-415 0.014 ± 0.015 %, 95% c.i., n=3 and δ^{49} Ti_{serpentinites}=+0.016±0.043%, 95% c.i., n=3) 416 despite having been extensively dehydrated argues against significant mobility of Ti 417 418 in subduction zones and hints that recycling of oceanic lithosphere may not generate 419 detectable Ti stable isotope variation within Earth's mantle.

420

421 5.3 Titanium stable isotope heterogeneity of the lunar mantle as a consequence of422 the LMO crystallisation

423 Although limited in range, it appears that lunar mare basalts display slightly 424 variable Ti stable isotope composition (Fig. 3). This variability is due to the heavier 425 isotope composition of the high-Ti lunar basalts (Fig. 3). Titanium is an extremely 426 refractory element that only partitions into gaseous phases at extremely high 427 temperatures (Zhang et al., 2014). It is therefore extremely unlikely that the 428 difference between the two classes of lunar basalts is a consequence of evaporation 429 during eruptive processes, neither can it be due to silicate-metal segregation as core 430 formation in both the Earth and Moon took place under conditions that were too 431 oxidizing for titanium to partition into the core (Wade and Wood, 2001). The titanium 432 stable isotope variability observed in lunar basalts must therefore be related to 433 processes that took place during the magmatic evolution of the Moon.

434 The source of High-Ti basalts are thought to be genetically linked to ilmenite-435 bearing cumulates formed between 95% and 99.5% solidification of the LMO (e.g. 436 Snyder et al., 1992) as opposed to the sources of Low-Ti basalts that are formed 437 earlier (<85% solidification) in the solidification sequence of the LMO before the 438 onset of ilmenite crystallization (e.g. Hallis et al., 2014). Other minerals present in 439 lunar mantle sources are olivine and pyroxenes, in which Ti is highly to moderately incompatible. Low-Ti lunar basalts display δ^{49} Ti values that are indistinguishable from 440 441 that of the Earth's mantle. Results on terrestrial basalts undersaturated in Fe-Ti 442 oxides (SiO₂ < 52wt% in fig. 2) as well as mantle samples shows that olivine and 443 pyroxenes do not fractionate Ti stable isotopes during fractional crystallisation or 444 partial melting (Farges et al., 1996). Thus, low-Ti lunar basalts provide the best 445 estimate of the Ti stable isotope composition of the lunar mantle, which is δ^{49} Ti=-446 0.003±0.014‰ (n=4) which is within statistical error to that of the Earth's mantle. 447 Importantly, preliminary data for ordinary, enstatite and carbonaceous chondrites (Williams et al., 2015; Greber et al., 2016) also show uniform δ^{49} Ti within error of the 448 Earth's mantle (δ^{49} Ti=+0.004±0.010‰; Greber et al., 2016). Taken overall, the data 449 450 for terrestrial, lunar and meteoritic samples available to date is consistent with recent 451 models arguing for an Earth-like composition of the Moon-forming impactor (Dauphas 452 et al., 2014a; Mastrobuono-Battisti et al., 2015).

453 As a Fe-Ti oxide, ilmenite hosts six-fold Ti in its structure and is thus expected 454 to preferentially incorporate light isotopes relative to melts at equilibrium as can be 455 inferred from measurements of terrestrial silicic rocks. This behaviour provides an 456 opportunity to test the models proposed for the generation of high-Ti lunar basalts. If 457 all models agree on the involvement of an ilmenite-pyroxene cumulate layer in the 458 late stages of LMO solidification, the details of the signatures of those cumulates 459 were incorporated in high-Ti mare basalts is still a matter of debate. One view argues 460 that high-Ti lunar basalts are derived from low-Ti lunar basalts through assimilation of 461 ilmenite and pyroxene during magma ascent to the surface (Wagner and Grove, 462 1997). However, experimental work regarding the kinetics of assimilation of pyroxene 463 and ilmenite suggests that ilmenite does not dissolve fast enough relative to 464 pyroxene to generate compositions similar to high-Ti basalts (Van Orman and Grove, 465 2000) and would instead generate melt composition too rich in calcium. The other 466 view involves the fertilisation of deep-seated ilmenite-free cumulates (i.e. formed 467 earlier during the solidification of the LMO) by sinking ilmenite-bearing cumulates 468 (Hess and Parmentier, 1995; Hallis et al., 2014). Concerns regarding the buoyancy of 469 magmas generated by such sources as well as the elevated viscosity of the ilmeniterich layer have lead to the formulation of a third model. Instead of solid-state mixing, 470 this last model argues for fertilisation of the ilmenite-free cumulates by negatively 471 472 buoyant partial melts of the ilmenite-rich layer formed as a result of the late heavy 473 bombardment (Van Orman and Grove, 2000; Elkins-Tanton et al., 2002, 2004).

474 In order to test the solid-state mixing and the partial-melt fertilisation models, 475 we modelled the evolution of the LMO during the crystallisation of the ilmenite-rich 476 layer and examined its impact on the Ti stable isotope composition of high-Ti lunar 477 melts. We assume a Ti concentration of 3wt% at 95% PCS and mineral proportions 478 similar to Snyder et al. (1992). At all steps of calculations, we calculate the Ti concentrations as well as the δ^{49} Ti of the residual melt, instantaneous cumulates as 479 well as the bulk cumulate. We use the oxide-melt Ti isotope fractionation factor 480 481 calculated in section 5.1 as a proxy for the ilmenite-melt fractionation factor. A simple 482 Rayleigh distillation model (T=1125°C; Van Orman and Grove, 2000) allows us to 483 estimate the Ti stable isotope composition of the ilmenite-rich layer and evolving 484 magma (Fig. 4). Calculations are stopped at 99.5% solidification, at which point 485 0.25wt% Ti remains in the liquid. Overall, modelled ilmenite-bearing cumulates vary 486 from -0.107‰ to +0.175‰. The remaining liquid at the end of ilmenite crystallisation is strongly enriched in heavy isotopes (δ^{49} Ti=+0.288‰). 487

488 For the solid-state mixing model, we followed calculations by Hallis et al. 489 (2014) who argued that high-Ti lunar basalt sources formed by mixing ilmenite-free 490 cumulate made at 80% PCS with cumulates formed at 95% PCS (earliest ilmenite 491 cumulates) in 80:20 proportions, this mixture is then topped up with 1% of trapped 492 instantaneous residual liquid (TIRL at 95%PCS). Assuming Ti concentrations of 493 0.5wt% and 6wt% for the respective cumulates and 2.6wt% for the liquid (based on our LMO solidification model), it is possible to estimate a δ^{49} Ti of the high-Ti lunar 494 basalts mantle sources of -0.068‰. Interestingly, solid-state mixing models for the 495 496 generation of high-Ti lunar basalts imply that ilmenite is exhausted during the 497 generation of high-Ti melts (Ringwood and Kesson, 1976; Elkins-Tanton et al., 2002). Mass balance suggests that melts generated this way should display a δ^{49} Ti identical 498 499 to that of their source and therefore lighter than low-Ti lunar basalts, contrary to our 500 measurements. However, if ilmenite was not exhausted during partial melting, high-Ti 501 lunar basalts should display heavier isotope composition than this modelled source. 502 Uncertainty on the kinetics of ilmenite dissolution during lunar mantle melting to make 503 high-Ti mare basalts makes further modelling difficult. Nevertheless, if ilmenite was a 504 residual phase during generation of high-Ti magma, one may expect a negative 505 relationship between Ti content and δ^{49} Ti of high-Ti lunar basalts. Such relationship 506 does not appear in our data but this may be due to the relatively homogeneous TiO₂ 507 content of the samples measured here (12.2 to 13.4wt%) compared to the full range 508 shown by high-Ti lunar basalts.

509 An alternative to direct mixing of isotopically light ilmenite-bearing cumulates 510 into the sources of low-Ti lunar basalts is the fertilisation of these sources by 511 negatively buoyant partial melts of these cumulates. This partial melting may have 512 occurred as a result of the late heavy bombardment, directly through shock melting 513 but also by adiabatic melting cause by the incurred mantle convection. Regardless of 514 the process involved, our results predict that these partial melts should be enriched in 515 heavy isotopes of Ti relative to the residue. Quantitative constraints on the 516 composition of these melts is currently lacking but as such, this model may provide a 517 straightforward way to generate lunar mantle source with both elevated Ti content 518 and heavy Ti stable isotope composition

519

520 **6. Conclusion**

521 This study presents the first investigation of the stable Ti isotope compositions of 522 terrestrial and lunar igneous rocks. The main conclusions of this study are:

• The Ti stable isotope composition of terrestrial magmas shows a large variability that appears to be positively correlated with SiO₂ content. This is most likely the result of crystallisation of isotopically light Ti-oxides during magmatic differentiation with $\Delta^{49}Ti_{oxide-melt} = -0.23\%0 \times 10^6/T^2$; -0.106‰ at 1,200 °C). This observed fractionation is in agreement with the relative coordination of Ti between oxide minerals and silicate melts but further experimental data is needed to ascertain this value and assess whether it is equilibrium or kinetic in nature.

• The average δ^{49} Ti values of primitive mid-ocean ridge, island-arc and intraplate basalts are identical within our analytical uncertainties (*ca.* ±0.020‰). In addition, a preliminary set of mantle-derived samples also show δ^{49} Ti values within error of primitive terrestrial basalts. This demonstrates that little Ti stable isotope fractionation occurs during partial melting, and suggests that Earth's mantle (and the by extension the bulk Earth because no Ti is in the core) has a homogeneous Ti stable isotope composition of δ^{49} Ti_{BSF}=+0.005±0.005‰ (95% c.i., n=29).

• The lack of any significant fractionation of Ti stable isotopes between 538 MORBs, and island-arc basalts, as well as eclogites and serpentinites form 539 subduction zones argues against a significant mobility of Ti in fluorine or chlorine 540 bearing fluids across the mantle wedge during dehydration of downgoing slabs. 541 · Finally, primitive lunar basalts possess Ti stable isotope compositions ranging from terrestrial values to slightly enriched in heavy isotopes (δ^{49} Ti up to 542 +0.033±0.015‰). Low-Ti lunar basalts all display δ^{49} Ti values within error of the 543 544 terrestrial mantle value whereas high-Ti lunar basalts display small but distinct enrichment in isotopically heavy Ti. The heavy δ^{49} Ti values recorded in high-Ti mare 545 546 basalts indicate that their mantle source regions may have been fertilised either by 547 ilmenite cumulates formed in the latest stages of the LMO or by negatively buoyant 548 partial melts of ilmenite-bearing cumulates during the Late Heavy Bombardment.

549

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Table 1: Ti stable isotope composition of samples measured during the course of this study. Data presented for samples replicated multiple times are weighted means and 95% c.i. calculated using Isoplot (Ludwig, 2003). For rock standards BHVO-2, BCR-2 and JB2, averages represent the combination of data obtained by Millet and Dauphas (2014) and this study. For BHVO-2, measurement made after flux fusion digestion carried out in Chicago is represented as a filled diamond.

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Figure 1: δ^{49} Ti values of BHVO-2, BCR-2 and JB2 basaltic rock standards measured during the course of this study. Filled symbols represent data generated at the Origins Laboratory and published in Millet and Dauphas (2014), while open symbols represent data obtained at Durham University. Data for all rock standards are in excellent agreement between the two laboratories.

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Figure 2: Evolution of δ^{49} Ti values with SiO₂ concentration (wt%) of magmatic rocks. 851 852 Arc basalts are in black squares whereas samples form the Agung volcano 853 differentiation suite are in white squares. Other differentiated magmatic rocks are in 854 grey circles. The budget of titanium during magma differentiation is controlled by the 855 ongoing fractional crystallisation of isotopically light Ti oxides. Black curve represents 856 the fractional crystallisation model generated using Rhyolite-Melts (see full text for 857 details) and designed to fit the Agung Volcano cogenetic sample set. Starting melt 858 composition (in wt%) is set at SiO₂: 50; TiO₂: 1; Al₂O₃: 18.5; FeO_{tot}: 11; MnO: 0.2; 859 MgO: 5.5; CaO: 9; Na₂O: 2.5; K₂O: 0.7; P₂O₅: 0.2; H₂O: 1.8. Best fit for the data is 860 obtained using a Ti stable isotope fractionation factor between oxides and melts of $\Delta^{49} Ti_{oxide-melt} = -0.23 \times 10^6 / T^2.$ 861

Figure 3: Ti stable isotope compositions (δ^{49} Ti relative to OL-Ti) of terrestrial basalts, 863 864 mantle-derived samples and eclogites as well as lunar mare basalts. Weighted 865 means and 95% c.i. are calculated using Isoplot (Ludwig, 2003). Data for New Britain 866 samples are from Millet and Dauphas (2014). Samples represented with open 867 symbols show signs of fractionation or accumulation of Ti oxides based on TiO₂ concentrations and are removed from the calculation of the ⁴⁹Ti value of the BSE. 868 Once these samples are removed, the δ^{49} Ti terrestrial igneous rocks show no 869 870 resolvable variation between sampling location or geological context or petrographic 871 type, indicating that the BSE has homogeneous Ti stable isotope composition of 872 +0.005±0.005 ‰ relative to OL-Ti (95% c.i,). Low-Ti lunar basalts (red) show δ^{49} Ti 873 values within error of the BSE whereas High-Ti mare basalts (green) show values 874 ranging form BSE to enriched in heavy isotopes.

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Figure 4: Rayleigh distillation model showing the effect of ilmenite crystallisation during the late stages of solidification of the Lunar Magma Ocean. The ilmenite-melt Ti stable isotope fractionation factor is assumed to be equal to the oxide-melt fractionation factor calculated form the Agung volcano differentiation suite. Temperature is set at 1125°C and mineral proportions are taken from Snyder et al. (1992). Kds for Ti for the mineral phases are set as follows: Ilmenite: 20; Clinopyroxene: 0.15; Pigeonite: 0.15 and Plagioclase: 0.

884	Table 1								
	Type/Locality <i>MORB</i>	Sample	Lab	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	MgO	δ ⁴⁹ Ti	95% c.i.	n
	North Atlantic	A127D8-2	Dur	50.08	0.81	9.43	-0.003	0.020	1
	North Atlantic	A127D11-1	Dur	51.1	1.17	8.55	0.006	0.020	1
	EPR	R94-2	Dur	51.0	1.33	7.59	0.002	0.028	1
	EPR	R82-1	Dur	49.3	1.06	9.17	0.002	0.014	1
	Pacific	Sonne12 42a	Dur	49.93	1.5	8.23	0.005	0.021	1
	Indian	MD57 9-1	Dur	51.87	0.98	8.88	-0.010	0.025	1
	Indian	MD57 10-1	Dur	50.69	1.68	6.84	0.011	0.040	1
	Island Arc Basalts								
	Japan	JB-2	Dur/OL	53.2	1.19	4.66	-0.046	0.009	3
	Marianas	ALV1846-9	Dur	49.67	0.57	6.95	0.008	0.017	1
	Marianas	1883-5	Dur	52.26	0.77	5.46	0.049	0.013	1
	Marianas	1885-6	Dur	54.6	0.79	5.8	0.036	0.018	1
	Introplato								
	Columbia Pivor	BCD 1	Dur/OI	541	2.26	3 50	0.015	0.005	12
	Easter	17678	Dui/OL Dur	J4.1 17 70	2.20	7 70	-0.013	0.005	1
	Hawaii	BUVO 2	Dur/OI	47.79	2.97	7.73	-0.004	0.020	⊥ 12
	Capa Varda	SN01	Dui/OL Dur	49.9	2.75	15.00	0.020	0.000	12
	Cape Verde	SN01 SN10	Dur	30.88	2.00	12.09	0.003	0.022	1
	Azores	S1(10 S1	Dur	45 31	2.90	7 76	0.000	0.022	1
	Azores	S1 S3	Dur	46.43	3 59	8 34	0.020	0.027	1
	Azores	SJ52	Dur	44.35	3.78	8.20	0.017	0.018	1
	Felogites					0.20			
	Zermatt Saas	SO241ii	Dur	17 14	2 75	5 20	0.015	0.025	1
	Zermatt-Saas	SO241v 2	Dur	49.04	2.75	5.20	0.001	0.025	1
	Zermatt-Saas	SO284viix	Dur	49.9	0.7	8.8	-0.025	0.025	1
				.,,					
	Mantle-derived	D .10	D	40.01	0.00	26.04	0.012	0.021	4
	Alpine Serpentinite	BCN9	Dur	40.21	0.09	30.04	0.012	0.031	1
	Alpine Serpentinite		Dur	39.55	0.00	20.34	-0.003	0.028	1
	Alpine Serpentinite Pani Pausara Paridatita	CD12	Dur	39.05 44.01	0.07	30.13 20.70	0.050	0.025	1
		Gr15	Dui	44.91	0.14	39.19	0.007	0.022	T
	Differentiated magmas	C10	D	54.40	0.11	< 2 0	0.102	0.000	_
	Basaltic andesite	S19	Dur	54.49	2.11	6.38	0.103	0.022	2
	Andesite	AGVI	Dur	58.84	1.05	1.53	0.084	0.029	2
	Granite	G2	Dur	69.14	0.48	0.75	0.459	0.027	2
	Rhyolite	RGMI	Dur	/3.4	0.27	0.275	0.548	0.014	4
	Agung	AGU03	Dur	58.01	0.76	2.92	0.120	0.027	1
	Agung	AGU16	Dur	59.93	0.7	2.3	0.179	0.029	1
	Agung	AGU20	Dur	62.69	0.6	1.//	0.248	0.032	1
	Agung	AGU21	Dur	54.08	0.92	4.13	0.054	0.026	1
	Agung	AGU23	Dur	56.42	0.76	2.95	0.108	0.029	1
	Agung	AGU25	Dur	05.10	0.55	1.40	0.259	0.019	T
	Moon		-					0.011	_
	High-Ti	70017	OL		13.3		0.015	0.011	5
	High-Ti	70215	OL		13.0		0.033	0.015	5
	High-Ti	71055	OL		13.4		0.011	0.017	5
	High-Ti	/2155	OL		12.2		0.023	0.009	5
	High-Ti	/5075	OL		13.4		0.018	0.014	5
	Low-I1	15597	OL		1.85		-0.008	0.010	د ~
	LOW-II	12009	OL		3.30		-0.008	0.013	S ⊿
	LOW-11	15016	OL		2.30		-0.008	0.019	4
	Green Glass	15426	OL		0.50		0.011	0.017	4