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3	Eu speciation in apatite at 1 bar: an experimental study of valence-state
4	partitioning by XANES, lattice strain and Eu/Eu* in basaltic systems
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14	
15	Abstract
16	Partition coefficients for rare earth elements (REEs) between apatite and basaltic melt were determined
17	as a function of oxygen fugacity (f_{O_2} ; iron-wüstite to hematite-magnetite buffers) at 1 bar and between
18	1110 and 1175 °C. Apatite-melt partitioning data for REE ³⁺ (La, Sm, Gd, Lu) show near constant values at
19	all experimental conditions, while bulk Eu becomes more incompatible (with an increasing negative

- anomaly) with decreasing f_{O_2} . Experiments define three apatite calibrations that can theoretically be
- 21 used as redox sensors. The first, a XANES calibration that directly measures Eu valence in apatite,
- 22 requires saturation at similar temperature-composition conditions to experiments and is defined by:

$$\left(\frac{\mathrm{Eu}^{3+}}{\mathrm{\Sigma}\mathrm{Eu}}\right)_{\mathrm{Apatite}} = \frac{1}{1 + 10^{-0.10 \pm 0.01 \times \log(f_{O_2}) - 1.63 \pm 0.16}}$$

- 23 The second technique involves analysis of Sm, Eu and Gd in both apatite and coexisting basaltic melt
- 24 (glass), and is defined by:

$$\left(\frac{\mathrm{Eu}}{\mathrm{Eu}*}\right)_{D}^{\sqrt{\mathrm{Sm}\times\mathrm{Gd}}} = \frac{1}{1+10^{-0.15\pm0.03\times\log(f_{O_2})-2.46\pm0.41}}$$

The third technique is based on the lattice strain model and also requires analysis of REE in both apatite and basalt. This calibration is defined by:

$$\left(\frac{\text{Eu}}{\text{Eu}*}\right)_{D}^{\text{lattice strain}} = \frac{1}{1+10^{-0.20\pm0.03\times\log(f_{O_2})-3.03\pm0.42}}$$

27

From an application perspective, the Eu valence-state partitioning techniques based on ($\sqrt{\text{Sm} \times \text{Gd}}$) and 28 29 lattice strain are virtually indistinguishable, such that either methodology is valid. Application of any of 30 these three calibrations is best carried out in systems where both apatite and co-existing glass are present and in direct contact with one another. In holocrystalline rocks, whole rock analyses can be used 31 32 as a guide to melt composition, but considerations and corrections must be made to either lattice strain or $\sqrt{(\text{Sm} \times \text{Gd})}$ to ensure that the effect of plagioclase crystallization either prior to or during apatite 33 growth can be removed. Similarly, if the melt source has an inherited either a positive or negative Eu 34 anomaly, appropriate corrections must also be made to lattice strain or $\sqrt{(\text{Sm} \times \text{Gd})}$ techniques that 35

36	are based on whole rock analyses. This being the case, if apatite is primary and saturates from the
37	parent melt early during the crystallization sequence, these corrections may be minimal.
38	In addition to redox calibrations, the partition coefficients for the REE range from a maximum $D_{\rm Eu^{3+}}$ =
39	1.67 \pm 0.25 (as determined by lattice strain) to $D_{\mathrm{Lu}^{3+}}$ = 0.69 \pm 0.10. The REE partition coefficient pattern,
40	as observed in the Onuma diagram, is in a fortuitous situation where the most compatible REE (Eu ³⁺) is
41	also the polyvalent element used to monitor $f_{\mathcal{O}_2}$. These experiments provide a quantitative means of
42	assessing Eu anomalies in apatite and how they be used to constrain the oxygen fugacity of silicate
43	melts.
44	
45	
46	
47	Keywords : apatite, europium, Eu/Eu*, XANES, oxygen fugacity, f_{O_2} , valence, anomaly, KREEP, basalt,
48	lunar, merrillite, Jim Webster.

49

51 Introduction

52 The similar valence state observed among the rare earth elements (REE), along with systematically 53 decreasing the ionic radii from La \rightarrow Lu, lead to a generally coherent behavior for this group of elements, 54 with predicable features in silicate melts and minerals (Trail et al., 2012; Burnham and Berry, 2012). 55 There are two notable exceptions - (i) Ce commonly shows a positive excursion and (ii) Eu can show 56 positive/negative excursions from an otherwise smooth trend when normalized to chondrite or host 57 medium concentrations (noting that simultaneous positive Eu deviations and negative Ce deviations are 58 also possible in certain natural systems; for examples see Hoskin and Schaltegger, 2003; Trail et al., 59 2015; Kato et al., 2002; Elderfield et al., 1981; Plank and Langmuir, 1998). These positive and/or 60 negative excursions, generally known as anomalies, occur because Ce and Eu exhibit polyvalent behavior over the oxygen fugacity (f_{Ω_2}) range observed in the terrestrial bodies (e.g., Earth, Moon, Mars, Vesta). 61 Here we focus on apatite-basalt partitioning of Eu valence species (Eu²⁺ and Eu³⁺) to calibrate a new 62 apatite redox (f_{0_2}) sensor. As the two Eu valence species show notably different ionic radii (^[VI]Eu²⁺ = 63 1.17 Å and ^[VI]Eu³⁺ = 0.947 Å), it is not surprising that the two can have different partition coefficients 64 between basalt and a crystallizing phase – making Eu and REE partitioning a potentially useful redox 65 66 sensor among magmatic systems.

The study of REE partitioning between co-existing phases has a long history within the petrology community and arguably the best known or cited example relates to the reciprocal REE relationship observed between the lunar highland crust and the mare basalt source regions (where the REE are generally normalized to the chondritic uniform reservoir or CHUR). The average highland crust (Taylor et al., 1973) shows the development of a pronounced positive Eu anomaly, while virtually all lunar mare basalts have negative Eu anomalies (Taylor et al., 1973; Taylor, 1982). Pioneering work done by Philpotts (1970) and later used by numerous authors (Drake, 1972, 1975; Drake and Weill, (1975; Grutzeck et al.,

74 1974; Watson and Green, 1981) used Sr as a proxy for Eu^{2+} . Use of this Sr-proxy made it possible to infer the partitioning behavior of different Eu valence species (namely Eu²⁺ versus Eu³⁺) between mineral-75 76 basaltic melt pairs. Moreover, the use of the Sr-proxy permitted Eu partitioning to be evaluated against 77 the other monovalent REE at defined P-T- f_{0_2} conditions. This subsequently led to REE partitioning studies involving plagioclase-basalt, diopside-basalt and apatite-basalt systems. Such studies, 78 79 particularly the work of Drake and co-workers (1972, 1975) confirm plagioclase is the dominant mineral in basaltic systems in which Eu²⁺ is more compatible than Eu³⁺. This led to plagioclase-rich rocks (e.g., 80 lunar highland crust) with positive Eu anomalies, and whereas melt sources from which a significant 81 82 amount of plagioclase has separated (e.g., lunar mare basalt source/s) contained a pronounced 83 complementary negative Eu anomaly. More recent studies into the pyroxene-basalt system (Karner et al., 2010) have provided an Eu²⁺:Eu³⁺ XANES valence calibration for augite and a synthetic Martian 84 basalt, while the works of Trail et al. (2012) and Burnham and Berry (2012) have extended the use of Eu 85 86 valence calibrations to zircon (in these examples Eu/Eu* is used to measure intensity of a negative Eu 87 anomaly in zircon which varies systematically in response to the intrinsic oxygen fugacity).

88 The use of apatite as a redox sensor is highly advantageous because, like zircon, apatite saturation has 89 been shown to depend on key variables in silicate melts (e.g., P₂O₅, SiO₂ and temperature; Watson, 1979; Tollari et al., 2006). Partitioning data for the trivalent REE³⁺ (particularly La, Pr, Sm, Gd, Dy and Lu) 90 has also been constrained between apatite-silicate and apatite-carbonatite systems (Watson and Green, 91 1981; Klemme and Dalpé, 2003), providing a basic knowledge of the trivalent Onuma diagram for 92 93 apatite. It should also be noted that apatite, along with the merrillite-whitlockite group minerals, is also 94 known to represent a dominant REE host within lunar basalts (Jolliff et al., 1993), making it among the 95 most suited to REE valence-based studies in basalts from terrestrial planets. Apatite has also been 96 reported from a large range of rock types, of different ages, from many locations on the Moon (e.g.,

97 KREEP, mare basalt, anorthosites, etc), Mars and the eucrite parent body (i.e., Vesta), making any Eu
98 valence calibration of potentially broad application.

99 The last decade of research into lunar apatite has seen an intense focus on the OH-F-Cl content of the 100 mineral's column anion sites. Direct comparison to terrestrial apatite grains, for example, has led to 101 different hypotheses regarding the original volatile content of the Moon (McCubbin et al., 2010a, 2010b, 102 2011; Boyce et al., 2010; Greenwood et al., 2011; Tartèse et al., 2013). Notably, thermodynamic 103 considerations regarding the uptake of several volatile species into apatite have been linked to f_{0_2} 104 (Patino-Douce and Roden, 2006), and thus apatite volatile content models of the Moon would become more complete with well constrained f_{0_2} s. For instance, the development of an independent f_{0_2} sensor 105 106 for apatite provides a direct evaluation of equilibria controlling uptake of volatiles into and the stability 107 of apatite. The development of an apatite redox sensor can also be directly compared to other methods 108 used to constrain f_{O_2} in various types of lunar magmas (Sato, 1976; Delano, 1990; Herd, 2008; Wadhwa, 109 2008), and as a means to cross check and evaluate redox preservation among different mineral phases 110 from the Moon. The use of REE as a redox sensor in apatite has the added advantage that, unlike other 111 elements/components found in apatite (e.g., OH, F, Cl, Sr, Pb, etc), the REE diffusivities in apatite are 112 among the slowest (Cherniak, 2000). This makes the REE among the more likely elements within the 113 mineral to preserve primary magmatic signatures (e.g., lunar basalts). It should also be noted the 114 calibration presented here can also be directly compared to results of the research of Konecke et al. (2017, 2019) and Brounce et al. (2019) which uses $S^{6+}/\Sigma S$ in apatite as a means to determine oxygen 115 116 fugacity in silicate melts.

117

118 Background information

Use of the intensity of a negative Eu anomaly in apatite as a proxy for redox conditions [e.g., (f_{O_2})] requires an understanding of Eu valence behavior in a basaltic (silicate) melt and the partitioning behavior between a silicate liquid and a co-existing mineral phase (e.g., apatite). The europium valence ratio within a silicate melt can be linked to f_{O_2} by the reaction:

124
$$EuO(melt) + \frac{1}{4}O_2 = EuO_{1.5}(melt)$$
 (eq. 1)

125

126 The equilibrium constant for the *Equation 1* reaction can be expressed as:

127

128
$$K = \frac{a_{\text{Eu}^{3+}0_{1.5}}^{\text{melt}}}{a_{\text{Eu}^{2+}0_{1.0}}^{\text{melt}} \cdot f_{0_2}^{1/4}}$$
(eq. 2)

where, $a_{EuO_{1.5}}$ and a_{EuO} are the activities of $EuO_{1.5}$ (Eu^{3+}) and EuO (Eu^{2+}) in the melt. As the activity term for a component is the product of the mole fraction and the activity coefficient, *Equation 2* can be rearranged as:

132

133
$$\log K = \log \frac{X_{Eu^{3+}0_{1.5}}^{\text{melt}}}{X_{Eu^{2+}0_{1.0}}^{\text{melt}}} + \log \frac{\gamma_{Eu^{3+}0_{1.5}}^{\text{melt}}}{\gamma_{Eu^{2+}0_{1.0}}^{\text{melt}}} - \frac{1}{4} \log f_{0_2}$$
(eq. 3)

134

where, *X* is the mole fraction and γ is the activity coefficient. Assuming Henrian behavior, which is consistent with the low concentration of Eu within experiments/natural systems, the activity coefficients can be considered constant. A modified equilibrium constant (*K'*) for the silicate melt can be expressed

by rearranging *Equation 2* to give (Berry and O'Neill, 2004; Burnham and Berry, 2012; and Trail et al.,
2012):

140

141
$$\frac{Eu^{3+}}{\Sigma Eu} = 1/(1 + 10^{(-x \log f_{O_2}) + \log K'})$$
 (eq. 4)

142

According to Equation 4, $\operatorname{Eu}^{3+}/\Sigma\operatorname{Eu}$ can be linked to $\log(f_{0_2})$ via a sigmoidal relationship, where "x" is proportional to the number of electrons associated with the reaction. In this example the reaction involves a single electron and thus the sigmoid "x" should approximate a value ~0.25 (as would be predicted from Equation 1). For an apatite (or any mineral) coexisting with a silicate melt of mixed Eu valence, $\log(f_{0_2})$ can be evaluated by way of apatite-melt $\operatorname{Eu}^{2+}\operatorname{Eu}^{3+}$ partitioning. In this study we use a series of experiments (equilibrated at specific T- f_{0_2} conditions) to constrain the functional form described in Equation 4 by three different methods.

150

151 Crystal chemical controls on REE partitioning

To appreciate how the redox calibrations relate to REE partitioning between apatite and melt, it is important to understand the substitution mechanisms and potential crystallographic sites within the apatite crystal structure that will influence REE partitioning. The structure of apatite (Fig. 1; modelled after Hughes and Rakovan, 2015) can be described by the formula (Fleet and Pan, 2000):

156

157
$$^{[VI+III]}Ca(1)_4 ^{[VII]}Ca(2)_6 (PO_4)_6 X_2$$
 (eq. 5)

158

Where the roman numeral (in closed brackets) refers to site coordination, Ca(1) and Ca(2) correspond to specific calcium sites, and X refers to the column anion site (e.g., F⁻, Cl⁻, OH⁻, S²⁻). The substitution of REE in apatite requires some knowledge of the potential REE³⁺ and Eu²⁺ substitution mechanisms observed in apatite. Studies from natural and experimentally grown apatite demonstrate that numerous coupled substitution mechanisms exist for the REE³⁺, with the dominant substitution mechanisms including (Hughes et al., 1991; Hughes and Rakovan, 2015):

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166
$$\operatorname{REE}^{3+} + \operatorname{SiO}_{4}^{4-} = \operatorname{Ca}^{2+} + \operatorname{PO}_{4}^{3-}$$
 (eq. 6)

167
$$\operatorname{REE}^{3+} + \operatorname{M}^{+} = 2\operatorname{Ca}^{2+}$$
 (eq. 7)

168
$$\operatorname{REE}^{3+} + X^{2-} = \operatorname{Ca}^{2+} + F^{-}$$
 (eq. 8)

169
$$2REE^{3+} + \Box = 3Ca^{2+}$$
 (eq. 9)

170

171 Where, M = monovalent cation (e.g., Na⁺), X = divalent anion groups (e.g., SO_4^{2-}), and \Box = vacancy. The 172 substitution of Eu³⁺ and other REE³⁺ cations required to constrain Eu/Eu* (i.e., Sm³⁺ and Gd³⁺ for eq. 13 173 or La³⁺ through Lu³⁺ for eq. 14) likely requires some combination of one or more of the substitution 174 mechanisms described by eq. 6-9.

175

176 The substitution of
$$Eu^{2+}$$
 is far simpler than the REE³⁺ cations and can be described as:

177

178
$$Eu^{2+} = Ca^{2+}$$
 (eq. 10)

The REE³⁺ and Eu²⁺ site occupancy coupled substitution – and how they pertain to the redox calibrations
 – is presented in the "Discussion" section of this manuscript.

182

183

Method 1: XANES determination.

The most direct measurement of $Eu^{3+}/\Sigma Eu$ (where $\Sigma Eu = Eu^{2+} + Eu^{3+}$) in apatite from experiments is 184 185 obtained by monitoring spectral features that are dependent on, and are proportional to, Eu valence. Previous studies have used Eu L_3 X-ray absorption near edge structures (henceforth described as XANES) 186 187 to constrain Eu valence in silicate melts (Cicconi et al., 2012; Burnham et al., 2015), to constrain Eu 188 valence partitioning among a co-existing mineral and silicate melt (Karner et al., 2010; Shearer et al., 189 2006), or to study Eu valence variation within an individual mineral (Rakovan et al., 2001). Previous 190 XANES studies by Konecke et al. (2017, 2019) and Brounce et al. (2019) on the sulfur K-edge 191 demonstrate the use of sulfur speciation in apatite as a viable redox sensor in magmatic systems, 192 making apatite the host of numerous, useful polyvalent elements. The use of Eu L_3 XANES spectra to 193 determine valence is based on the observation that the near-edge region shows notable white lines, corresponding to a $2p_{3/2} \rightarrow 5d$ transition, that are sensitive to the relative abundance of Eu^{2+} and Eu^{3+} 194 components within the analytical volume. The Eu^{2+} compounds show a dominant Eu L_3 XANES white line 195 at ~6975.5 eV with a peak intensity at ~2 arbitrary units, while Eu³⁺ compounds show a dominant 196 197 whiteline at ~6983.3 eV with a peak intensity of ~3 arbitrary units. From an analytical perspective the 198 intense white line observed in the Eu L_3 XANES spectra is fortunate, as the different valence absorption 199 bands show significant energy separation (~7 eV) and make spectral deconvolution of different Eu 200 valence species straight-forward. This work employs direct and in-situ Eu L₃ XANES spectroscopy from 201 synthetic apatite and basalt equilibrated at controlled temperature- (f_{0_2}) conditions. Spectral analysis 202 from normalized XANES data, discussed further in the methods section of this paper, can be used to 203 define an $\text{Eu}^{3+}/\Sigma \text{Eu} \cdot f_{O_2}$ calibration for basaltic apatite applicable to natural apatite grains that 204 crystallize and equilibrate at temperatures equivalent to experiments presented here (e.g., 1110-1175 205 °C). The $\text{Eu}^{3+}/\Sigma \text{Eu}$ in apatite (co-existing with melt/glass) can be determined from the following 206 equation (noting that an arc tangent is also used to model the edge step):

207

208
$$\left(\frac{Eu^{3+}}{\Sigma Eu}\right)_{\text{Apatite}} = \frac{\varphi_{6983.3 \text{ eV}}}{(\varphi_{6983.3 \text{ eV}} + \varphi_{6975.5 \text{ eV}})}$$
 (eq. 11)

209

where, φ_x corresponds to the amplitude or area under the gaussian curve at energy "x" eV (noting that peak shape is unit normalized such that peak height and area are proportional). This method of calculation can be applied without direct measurement of the co-existing glass, though it assumes crystallization in a melt of similar composition at temperatures described in experiments. In an ideal scenario analysis of both apatite and co-existing glass can be used to evaluate equilibrium.

215

216 Method 2: Lattice strain calculation of (Eu/Eu*)_D.

217 Where direct valence determination is not possible (i.e., XANES), Eu partitioning behavior can be 218 modeled against the partitioning of other trivalent rare earth elements present within experiments 219 (henceforth labeled REE^{3+}) - namely La, Ce, Sm, Gd and Lu. In the lattice strain technique, shown 220 graphically in Figure 2a, the REE^{3+} -based Onuma diagram from individual experiments can be used to 221 calculate a theoretical partition coefficient for Eu^{3+} ($D_{Eu^{3+}}^{Apatite/basalt}$). The intensity of a negative Eu 222 anomaly can be calculated from the difference between the measured Eu value from an experiment to

the estimated Eu^{3+} partition coefficient from a lattice strain model based on the REE³⁺ in apatite from the same experiment [the intensity of this negative anomaly we henceforth label (Eu/Eu*)_D].

225 The lattice strain model is defined as:

226

227
$$D_i = D_0 \cdot \exp\left[\frac{-4\pi E N_A \left[\frac{r_0}{2} (r_i - r_0)^2 + \frac{1}{3} (r_i - r_0)^3\right]}{RT}\right]$$
(eq. 12)

228

229 where, D_i = the partition coefficient for the element in question, D_0 = strain-free or ideal radius partition 230 coefficient for the cation site, E = Young's modulus, N_A = Avogadro's number, R = the universal gas 231 constant, r_1 = ionic radius for the element in question (in the coordination of the site in question), r_0 = ideal ionic radius for the cation site, and T = temperature (in K). The Eu/Eu* lattice strain model, labeled 232 $\left[\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu^*}\right)_{D}^{\text{lattice strain}}\right]$, of Brice (1975) and Blundy and Wood (1994) was previously used to calculate REE 233 234 partitioning between apatite-carbonatitic melt (Klemme and Dalpé, 2003) and was also used by Burnham and Berry (2012) and Smythe and Brenan (2016) to calculate $Ce^{4+}/\Sigma Ce$ or Ce/Ce^* (i.e., 235 236 similar redox-dependent valence behavior among other REE) between zircon-silicate melt. The equation 237 used to describe the lattice strain calculated partitioning of Eu valence species is:

238

239
$$\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_{D}^{\text{lattice strain}} = \frac{D_{Eu}^{\text{Apatite/basalt}}}{\left[\frac{A\text{patite}}{Eu^{3+}}\right]_{lattice strain}}$$
 (eq. 13)

240

241 Method 3: (Eu/Eu*)_p calculated from neighboring Sm³⁺ and Gd³⁺.

The third calibration technique uses the intensity of the negative Eu anomaly (i.e., the negative excursion of $D_{Eu}^{\text{Apatite/basalt}}$), relative to neighboring $D_{\text{Sm}}^{\text{Apatite/basalt}}$ and $D_{\text{Gd}}^{\text{Apatite/basalt}}$, determined by measuring co-existing apatite and glass. The theoretical partition coefficient for Eu³⁺ ($D_{\text{Eu}^{3+}}^{\text{apatite/melt}}$) can be calculated from $\sqrt{D_{\text{Sm}}^{\text{Apatite/basalt}} \times D_{\text{Gd}}^{\text{Apatite/basalt}}}$. A graphic describing this method (Figure 2b) is henceforth labeled $\left[\left(\frac{\text{Eu}}{\text{Eu*}}\right)_{D}^{\sqrt{\text{Sm}\times\text{Gd}}}\right]$ and can be expressed:

248
$$\left[\left(\frac{\mathrm{Eu}}{\mathrm{Eu}*}\right)_{D}^{\sqrt{\mathrm{Sm}\times\mathrm{Gd}}}\right] = \frac{D_{\mathrm{Eu}}^{\mathrm{Apatite/basalt}}}{\sqrt{D_{\mathrm{Sm}}^{\mathrm{Apatite/basalt}} \times D_{\mathrm{Gd}}^{\mathrm{Apatite/basalt}}}}$$
(eq. 14)

249

247

It should be stressed that *Equations 13* and *14* are both examples where $(Eu/Eu^*)_D$ can be considered a proxy for $Eu^{3+}/\Sigma Eu$ in apatite. It is also worth noting that Methods 2 (*eq. 13*) and 3 (*eq. 14*), unlike XANES methods, strictly requires analysis of both apatite and co-existing glass.

253

254 Experimental methods

The parameters required to ensure apatite saturation within a basaltic melt at 1 bar (e.g., synthetic KREEP) have been previously evaluated (Watson, 1979; Tollari et al., 2006). Apatite crystallization from a silicate melt may be characterized through system components, and these necessarily include a_{Ca0}^{basalt} , $a_{P_2O_5}^{basalt}$, $a_{P_2O_5}^{basalt}$, $a_{H_2O}^{basalt}$ and f_{O_2} – with each likely playing a role in apatite saturation. Experimental results indicate that the three dominant components/variables related to apatite saturation include P_2O_5 content (i.e., $a_{P_2O_5}^{basalt}$), SiO₂ content ($a_{SiO_2}^{basalt}$) and temperature (Watson, 1979; and Tollari et al., 2006).

261 The model of Watson (1979), for example, predicts a minimum P_2O_5 content of ~3.1 wt% to attain apatite saturation for a synthetic KREEP 15386 basalt at 1150 °C (where bulk SiO₂ = 50.83 wt%; Rhodes 262 263 and Hubbard, 1973). In this manner it is possible to calculate the P_2O_5 content required for apatite 264 saturation in experiments at temperatures from 1110-1175 °C. For experiments containing ~50 wt% SiO₂ 265 the melt will require approximately 3.1-3.5 wt% P_2O_5 , and as indicated by Table 1 experimental starting 266 compositions are doped accordingly. While experiment temperatures are on the higher end of what 267 would be expected to crystallize apatite in a natural systems, we choose these temperatures to produce 268 crystals could be analyzable by XANES, with no or limited possibility of X-ray overlap/interaction with 269 the co-existing glass.

270

271 Experimental starting material (Table 1) was modeled after Apollo sample KREEP 15386,1 considered to 272 be an uncontaminated KREEP sample as interpreted from noble metal compositions (Warren et al., 273 1978). KREEP represents an excellent target composition because the elevated REE makes it the most 274 suited for REE analysis, while the elevated P-content makes it the most likely system to saturate in 275 apatite along the liquid line of descent. A 4 gram starting mixture was synthesized by mechanical mixing 276 of high purity, reagent grade powders of SiO₂ (α -Aesar, 99.8 % purity), TiO₂ (α -Aesar, 99.9 %), Al₂O₃ (α -277 Aesar, 99.98 % purity), FeO (α-Aesar, 99.5 % purity), KAlSi₃O₈ (α-Aesar), NaAlSi₃O₈(α-Aesar), Ca₃(PO₄)₂ (α-278 Aesar, >96.0 % purity), Mg₂SiO₄ (α -Aesar), CaSiO₃ (α -Aesar, 99.0 % purity), MgF₂ (α -Aesar, 99.99 % 279 purity), La₂O₃ (Spex), CeO₂ (Aldrich), Sm₂O₃ (REaction), Eu₂O₃ (REaction), Gd₂O₃ (REaction), Lu₂O₃ (Spex). 280 This starting material is henceforth labelled as "syn-KREEP 15386-01a" It is worth noting that the REE 281 starting mix is tailored to limit potential interferences in electron microprobe analysis, with a 282 La:Ce:Pr:Sm:Eu:Gd:Lu by weight of 1:2:1:1:8:1:1. It should also be stressed that the REE concentration of the starting mix, ranging from 0.22-1.06 wt% REE³⁺, is significantly higher than natural KREEP samples 283

but is sufficiently low to maintain undersaturation in phases like monazite, xenotime, etc (which are never observed within experimental run products). Such a saturation would not invalidate the experiment, but it would present an additional layer of complexity if Eu valence species and Sm-Eu-Gd "group" elements were fractionated among three co-existing phosphate-rich phases (i.e., melt-apatite-"REE phosphate").

289

290 Mixing of starting powders was carried out by grinding compounds under acetone within an agate 291 mortar-pestle for 20 minutes, and then mechanically agitating powder-bearing vials in a slowly-rotating 292 centrifuge at an orientation ~70 degrees to the rotational axis for a minimum of 3 hours. This process of 293 'grinding and mechanical agitation' was then repeated three times. The synthetic starting powder was 294 fired at 600 °C and then stored in a desiccator to ensure that the mixture remained nominally 295 anhydrous.

296

297 Experiments were carried out in an evacuated SiO₂ tube suspended from an Al₂O₃ rod by a Pt wire and 298 held within the hotspot of a 1 bar furnace. A control, type K, thermocouple was held immediately 299 adjacent to the experimental charge to ensure experiment temperatures are maintained to within ± 5 °C 300 (Figure 3). Two different experimental approaches were used. The first employed a double capsule 301 technique, where the buffer and experimental charge are separated by crushed SiO_2 chips. The second 302 experimental technique employed a participatory capsule (e.g., graphite or Mo metal or Fe metal), 303 where the capsule also represents a component of the oxygen buffer within the charge. The bulk of 304 experiments were carried out in AgPd capsules (14 experiments), with the exception of low f_{O_2} runs 305 ApREE-03b and ApREE-07b (Mo-MoO₂), ApREE-09 and ApREE-12 (graphite-CO-CO₂), and ApREE-06b (Fe-306 FeO). As discussed in later sections of this manuscript, all low- f_{O_2} participatory capsules tend to result in

307 lower Fe glasses due to a combination of alloying with the capsule (Mo capsules) and/or saturation in 308 Fe-rich phases (e.g., olivine, schreibersite, etc). The exception to this is experiment ApREE-06b (Fe-FeO), 309 which saw considerable enrichment in Fe within the experimental glass (for this reason this experiment 310 was not included in XANES analysis). In all experiment types the top of the "syn-KREEP-15386-01a 311 bearing" capsule remained open within the evacuated silica tube. The experimental suite involved eight 312 different solid-state f_{O_2} buffers (Fe₂O₃-Fe₃O₄, Ni-NiO, SiO₂-Fe₂SiO₄-Fe₃O₄, W-WO₂, FeO-Fe₃O₄, Fe-FeO, 313 Mo-MoO₂, graphite-CO-CO₂) along with syn-KREEP 15386-01a basalts contained within either a noble 314 metal capsule (AgPd) or bored out apatite/graphite/Mo or Fe charge (gem quality Durango apatite 315 crystals or high purity rods). At completion, experiments were "drop quenched" in water to limit any 316 post-experiment (i.e., ΔT) crystallization within the charge. Assuming equilibrium, the buffer assemblage 317 will fix the oxygen fugacity so long as the buffer components exist within silica tube, and the individual 318 components are not modified by alloying or mixing with other experimental components (such that 319 activity remains constant). Upon quenching, experiments were mounted in standard 1" epoxy rounds 320 and polished to ¼ micron + colloidal silica for analysis. Subsequent optical and BSE imaging was used to 321 determine the phases present within the experimental charge and also to ensure the metal-metal oxide 322 buffer was not exhausted during the experiment (Figure 4). A detailed list of the oxygen fugacity buffer, 323 absolute fugacity, run duration, temperature and observed mineral assemblage for each experiment is 324 provided for the reader in Table 2.

325

326 Analytical Techniques

327

328 Energy dispersive spectroscopy, back scattered electron and cathodoluminescence mapping.

Energy dispersive spectroscopy and back scattered electron (BSE) imaging was performed on a Zeiss Evo 60 environmental SEM fitted with a LaB₆ crystal filament, housed at the American Museum of Natural History. All imaging was carried out at 10 keV and 30 nA. Cathodoluminescence (CL) imaging was carried out on a Gatan MonoCL attached to a Cameca sx100 electron microprobe, housed at the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. Analysis involved an accelerating voltage of 15 kV and a beam current of 10 nA. The CL images in Figure 5e-5f were obtained by combining spectra acquired through red (R), green (G) and blue (B) filters in Digital Micrograph software with equal weighing.

336

337 EPMA.

338 Major and minor element concentrations of experimental glasses and mineral phases (e.g., apatite, 339 merrillite, plagioclase and pyroxene) were acquired on a Cameca sx100 electron microprobe housed at 340 the American Museum of Natural History. Analyses used a beam current ranging from 4-40 nA, an 341 accelerating voltage of 10-15 kV, and a ~1x1 µm focused beam. The analytical setup included 3 beam 342 conditions and involved a sweep of 18 elements. The first condition was at 10 kV and 4 nA, involved 10 s 343 counting times on F (LPC1) and Na (TAP) calibrated against MgF₂ and jade standards. It should be noted 344 that initial analyses (e.g., experiments ApREE-01 to ApREE-04) did not include fluorine in the analytical 345 routine. The second condition was at 15 keV and 20 nA, and involved counting times of 20-30 seconds 346 against standards of Ti, Mn, Ca, Mg, Al, P and K (calibration standards include rutile, rhodonite, 347 wollastonite, enstatite, K-feldspar and berlinite). The third condition was at 15 keV and 30-40 nA, and 348 involved counting times of 30 seconds for Si and 200 s for La, Ce, Sm, Eu, Gd and Lu calibrated against Kfeldspar, LaPO₄, CePO₄, SmPO₄, EuPO₄, GdPO₄ and LuPO₄. The same three-condition, focused beam 349 350 techniques were used for both mineral and glass analyses. Given the proximity of peak and background 351 positions for neighboring lanthanides, peak and background positions were first modeled in Virtual WDS

(Reed and Buckley, 1996) and were compared with full wavelength scans from experimental apatites
and REE phosphates standards on the LLIF spectrometer. The background peak positions (in sinθ) and
average detection limits are for La (-600,+800; 734 ppm), Ce (-660,+660; 729 ppm), Sm (-650,+650; 663
ppm), Eu (-560,+720; 680 ppm), Gd (-500,+600; 704 ppm), Lu (-415,+595; 1146 ppm). Supplementary
Material #1 provides details regarding the wavelength scans and peak/background positions used for
WDS analysis.

358

359 The EPMA protocol involved analysis of between 4-6 apatite grains per experiment, with transects 360 across individual crystals involving between 3-8 points, to evaluate the composition and variation among 361 apatite populations from individual experiments. Elements like AI, Si, Ti and K were used to monitor 362 signal contamination from glass or mineral inclusions within apatite. Durango and Wilberforce apatite 363 standards were analyzed across all EPMA sessions (8), with measurements on the standard being made 364 after approximately every 6 ApREE apatite analyses (i.e., every 1½ hours). This Durango data was used 365 to monitor any potential drift (none observed) and to evaluate accuracy of the REE data via comparison 366 with the standard geochemistry information by Marks et al. (2012). A comparison of standard data can 367 be found in Supplementary Material #3. Glass and apatite analyses from each experiment involved 368 measurements obtained from two different regions of the capsule, though some capsules (e.g., ApREE-369 02a and ApREE-02b) have measurements from throughout the capsule (e.g., sequentially from four 370 regions parallel to the long axis of the capsule) to investigate heterogeneity. Analysis from other phases 371 from experiments (e.g., plagioclase, merrillite and pyroxene) are dependent on the size and distribution 372 within experimental charges, with thin plagioclase laths presenting a particular analytical challenge (e.g., 373 plagioclase compositions are not reported from experiments where the phase is too small for 374 reliable/consistent analytical totals).

375

376 LA-ICP-MS.

377 While the bulk of the geochemical data in this study is based on EPMA and XANES analyses, we also include LA-ICP-MS analyses from 4 representative experiments with f_{0_2} buffers that range from Fe₃O₄-378 379 Fe₂O₃ to Mo-MoO₂ (ApREE-03a, ApREE-03b, ApREE-07, ApREE-09). This provides an independent evaluation of statistical variations within experiments, while also representing a "quality control" check. 380 381 All LA-ICP-MS analyses were carried out on a Photon Machines 193 nm G2 laser systems equipped with 382 a HelEx 2-volume sample chamber connected to an Agilent 7900 quadrupole mass spectrometer 383 instrument at the University of Rochester. Analysis involved two laser footprints (or "spot sizes"), the 384 first involving a 3 μ m spot for merrillite and apatite analysis and, the second involving a 20 μ m circular spot for glass analysis. These two analytical protocols employ a fluence of 4.72 J/cm^{2,} and a constant 7 385 386 Hz pulse rate over 16 seconds. At these conditions analysis involves a total of 105 laser pulses, with a 20 387 second pre-ablation background and a 30 second post-ablation background used in both types of 388 analysis. The He flow rate in the sample chamber was set to 0.6 L/min whereas the flow rate in the 389 HelEx arm was 0.2 L/min.

390

All analysis employed a mass sweep comprised of ²³Na, ²⁴Mg, ²⁹Si, ³¹P, ⁴³Ca, ¹³⁹La, ¹⁴⁰Ce, ¹⁴⁷Sm, ¹⁵³Eu, ¹⁵⁷Gd and ¹⁷⁵Lu. Several masses (e.g., those corresponding to Na, Mg, Si, P and Ca) are useful in terms of resolving clean spectra, such that mass ratios in the time-resolved spectra can be used to identify when apatite signal is contaminated by glass and vice versa. Given the small spot size, particularly during apatite/merrillite analysis, the locus of the LA-ICP-MS analyte was also imaged in BSE to ensure ablation pits are contained within the desired target material (see Fig. 5.g-5.h).

397

398 NIST612 was used as an internal standard for glass analyses, USGS standard AGV-1 was used as a 399 secondary standard. Silicon-29 was used as the internal standard for data reduction, as determined from 400 EPMA analysis. The American Museum of Natural History Durango apatite standard (#41651) was used 401 as the primary standard for apatite analysis (the same standard with detailed EPMA information 402 presented in Supplement 3), NIST612 was used as a secondary standard, and ⁴³Ca was used as an internal standard. Glass standards NIST612 and AGV-1 were measured for every ten ApREE experimental 403 404 glass analyses, while Durango apatite and NIST612 was measured for every ten ApREE apatite/merrillite 405 analyses. All data reduction was carried out in Iolite 3.1 software with background fit with a spline 406 function (Paton et al., 2010, 2011).

407

408 XANES.

Eu L₃ edge XANES spectra was collected at Beamline 13-ID-C (GSECARS), at the 7 GeV Advanced Photon 409 410 Source, Argonne National Laboratory (IL, USA). Analyses of Eu-standards were collected on synthetic 411 powders mounted in thin film in Kapton tape and measured in transmission mode. These standards are 412 of known valence and include $Eu^{2+}TiO_3$, $Eu_2^{3+}O_3$, $Eu^{3+}PO_4$, $Eu^{3+}Cl_3$ and $Eu^{3+}(NO_3)_3 \cdot 5H_2O$ (Fig. 6.1c). Spectral analyses of ApREE experiments (Fig. 6.1a-b), by contrast, were carried out from focused 413 fluorescence measurements made in-situ on the same 1" epoxy mounts used in EPMA. All XANES 414 measurements were made prior to EPMA (and LA-ICP-MS analyses) to limit any potential damage to the 415 416 apatite prior to X-ray measurements. Here it should also be pointed out that no common apatite grains 417 from an individual experiment were analyzed across analytical methods - this was done to limit any 418 potential damage across techniques.

419

420 The incident photon energy was selected via a cryogenically-cooled Si-(111) double crystal 421 monochromator and the energy resolution for measurements made at the Eu K-edge is ~0.5 eV. Energy 422 calibration of the monochromator was carried out on the V K-edge and by defining the first derivative 423 peak observed in a V metal foil spectrum at 5465 eV. The beam was located and focused to a 2 x 2 µm 424 spot using Kirkpatrick-Baez (KB) mirrors by imaging on a Ce-doped YAG phosphor. The critical angle cutoffs of the mirrors on the instruments provided excellent rejection of high energy harmonics. Absorption 425 426 spectra were recorded from 6897-7115 eV, with steps of 5 (<6962 eV), 0.5 (6962-7007 eV), and ~3 eV 427 (7007-7115 eV). Fluorescence was recorded at 45° to the sample and perpendicular to the incident X-ray 428 beam using simultaneous counting and equal weighing on four Vortex-EX silicon drift detectors (SII 429 NanoTechnology Inc.) with digital signal processing electronics from which the Eu L_3 integrated intensity 430 was extracted and recorded digitally. At the concentrations observed in both glass and apatite, reported 431 analyses represent single points acquired using 3 second counting periods for a total analytical window 432 of just under 7 minutes. Visual inspection and BSE observations made from both glass and apatite 433 regions of analyses show no evidence for beam damage. Similar to 1 atmosphere experiments in mafic 434 glasses carried out by Burnham and Berry on the Ce L₃-edge (2014), this study did not see beam-induced 435 changes in fluorescence intensity. This is supported by repeat analyses on common apatite crystals 436 during rotation analyses, which saw no indication of fluorescence intensity change across the trio of measurements, nor any significant variation observed in the relative intensity of the Eu²⁺ and Eu³⁺ peaks 437 438 (outside of that corresponding to mineral anisotropy).

439

The REE-doped minerals (apatite and merrillite) show excellent luminescence under the X-ray beam,
with merrillite luminescing in red and apatite in purple to blue colors. This optical luminescence makes it

possible to actively image the footprint of the beam in real-time and identify regions within the experiment that are best suited to either mineral or glass analysis (see Fig. 7). Rapid "flyscan" X-ray fluorescence mapping of a region of interest (ROI) immediately surrounding a target apatite/merrillite/glass material (typically involving energies corresponding to Eu L- α line, Ca K- α line and Ti K- α line), in addition to optical luminsescence, provides an additional check for locating mineral/melt regions most suited to analysis. These flyscan maps employed a 7.1 keV incident X-ray energy, with a 45 ms/pixel dwell time and a ROI defined by the target crystal.

449

Aside from direct imaging of the X-ray path, the photon cross section for apatite can be calculated in Hephaestus (version 0.9.13). At the Eu L_3 edge (6977 eV) and at the average density of apatite (3.17 g/cm³) a single absorption length is 24.7 µm (though the majority of fluorescence X-rays recorded by the detector likely source from the near-surface environment) and as a general practice only grains that exceed twice this length were targeted (i.e., grains with a diameter \geq 50 µm).

455

456 Two analytical approaches, employing the described analytical setup, were used. The first involved 457 analysis of randomly oriented apatite grains from throughout the experimental charge to evaluate the 458 statistical variation within the experiment (Fig. 6.2c). Spectra using this approach were recorded from 28 459 synthetic apatite crystals from 9 experiments, 6 synthetic merrillite crystal from 1 experiment, and 20 glass analyses from 9 experiments. Efforts were made to analyze synthetic plagioclase crystals from 460 461 several experiments (notably ApREE-07 runs at HM and MMO) but the fine-grained plagioclase laths and the long absorption length at 6977 eV (24.6 µm) give rise to inconsistent results due to signal 462 463 contamination from other co-existing phases.

464

465 The second approach involved orientation scans (relative to a reference or "north position" on the 466 epoxy mount), with scans conducted at 0°, 60° and 120° at a common point from four different grains 467 within a given experiment. To accurately record the same position a rapid "flyscan" X-ray fluorescence 468 mapping technique was used. This was done by identifying four target grains within an experiment at 469 the 0° reference orientation, then linearly combining X-ray fluorescence maps with the Ti Kα, Ca Kα and Eu L α lines. These three fluorescence lines can be combined to produce an RGB image that makes it 470 471 possible to identify and distinguish regions of glass/apatite suitable for analysis while also helping target 472 specific crystal (i.e., by visually confirming X-ray maps reproduce key features when rotated by a 60° 473 interval). In Fig. 6.2, glass regions are generally represented by light blue hues while apatite grains are 474 represented by red-pinkish hues. Analysis involving this approach includes 24 spectra, from 8 apatite 475 grains from 2 experiments. Once the initial fluorescence analyses are complete, the sample is then 476 rotated to a 60° rotation and remapped in Ti-Ca-Eu space. The reference map and rotated map are 477 directly compared (visually inspected) to ensure the same common grains and points are analyzed. Then 478 fluorescence analyses are again carried out, though the new scans are at a 60° rotation to the original 479 reference. Finally, the sample is rotated a further 60° (now 120° from the original orientation) and 480 measured a final time.

481

The basic principle behind the two described techniques is that the first (analyses at multiple locations within an experimental charge) provides a snapshot of variation observed within a given phase within a given experiment, while the second (oriented scans) provides some quantitative estimate of anisotropy controls on the Eu L_3 XANES spectra in said phases. In reality, the two techniques provide complementary information and should be evaluated as a whole, because they represent analyses from

a common experiment, but it does represent an important control on factors contributing calibrationand analytical uncertainty.

489

Spectra normalization was performed with Athena software (version 0.9.25, Ravel and Newville, 2005) using the same set of normalization parameters from all spectra. Background subtraction over the preedge energy range employed a linear regression with clamps at 6915 and 6950 eV. The post-edge region involved regression with a quadratic polynomial with clamps at 7040 and 7175 eV. Visual inspection of the pre-edge and post-edge lines ensured that the energy range (or input parameters in Athena) of preedge and post-edge lines were optimal for normalization (i.e., to check whether the post-edge was affected by other absorption lines).

497

As indicated in Fig 6.1d, $Eu^{2+}:Eu^{3+}$ or $Eu^{3+}/\Sigma Eu$ were calculated using the 'peak fitting' function in Athena 498 499 (Ravel and Newville, 2005) with the peak positions (energies) for spectral components fixed across all experiments. These fits involved gaussian curves centered to absorption features at 6983.3 eV (Eu³⁺) and 500 6975.5 eV (Eu²⁺), with an arc tangent centered at 6983.8 eV (used to model the energy step), with the 501 502 overall fitting region including 81 individual data points over a 45 eV energy range (6962-7007 eV). 503 Analyses involved up to 6 measurements from individual apatite grains at random orientation and/or 504 glass domains within the capsule, and error was calculated from the standard deviation across all 505 measurements from an individual experiment. The orientation effect on spectra was not confirmed via 506 individual grain rotations, but crystal habit does permit an evaluation of differences in $Eu^{3+}/\Sigma Eu$ for 507 measurements carried out perpendicular versus parallel to the apatite c-axis (see Fig. 7a and Fig. 7b).

508

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509 Results

510 Experimental run products.

Experimental run products are listed in Table 2, while representative BSE/CL photomicrographs are 511 512 shown in Figure 5 and phase compositions are reported in Table 3 and Supplement 1. As indicated by 513 these tables and figures, all experiments are apatite-saturated, such that it is possible to calculate 514 apatite-melt partition coefficients for the REE. Apatite is euhedral in all experiments except one, with the hexagonal dipyramids clearly observed from crystal habit in all studied f_{0_2} conditions (see Fig. 5 or 515 516 Fig. 6.2) and as shown in Supplement 1 is restricted to compositions close to end-member fluorapatite. 517 The only exception is experiment ApREE-01b, which employs a participatory apatite capsule, where the 518 observed apatite crystals show irregular and rounded crystal habits. The apatite grains from ApREE-01b also display observable zonation in CL (Fig 5.i, ApREE-01b), where dull BSE cores correspond to "seeds" 519 520 from the Durango apatite capsule and bright rims correspond to new apatite growth.

521

In addition to apatite, phases present within experiments comprise variable mixtures of plagioclase and pyroxene, which become increasingly abundant in lower temperature experiments. The mineralogy and crystallization sequence observed in these experiments broadly match phase equilibria for a Ca-rich starting material reported from the experimental work of Walker et al. (1973), where apatite and plagioclase crystallization occur with decreasing temperature until the plagioclase-pyroxene cotectic is intercepted. Merrillite is also present in some experiments and is generally restricted to high temperature and high oxygen fugacity experiments (e.g., > 1150 °C and f_{O_2} >NNO).

530 The glass composition from experiments can generally be described as basaltic to picritic basalt, though low SiO_2 observed in experiments is the result of elevated P_2O_5 required for apatite saturation 531 532 (Supplement 1). With progressive crystallization for the lower T set of experiments, and saturation of 533 different phases with changing f_{0_2} (namely schreibersite), melt composition can vary from experiment to experiment. Most importantly, and as also observed in the experiments reported by Drake (1972), the 534 Fe content of experimental glass decreases with decreasing $log(f_{O_2})$. This is particularly true for 535 536 experiments equilibrated at $log(f_{0_2})$ <-12, where schreibersite saturation is achieved. It should also be 537 noted that the metal-metal oxide solid state buffer can also influence glass/melt composition within 538 experiments, as these components must attain some vapor pressure within the charge that enables 539 chemical communication.

540

541 Cathodoluminescence.

The CL intensity has been demonstrably linked to REE concentration – specifically and Gd³⁺, Ce³⁺ and 542 Sm^{3+} – and so it is not surprising that apatite, merrillite and plagioclase all activate under the electron 543 544 and X-ray beam (Mariano and Ring, 1975; Roeder et al., 1987; Barbar and Pagel, 2001). This 545 luminescence makes it possible to visually target glass domains that are free of small crystalline 546 material. Many of the dominant phases present in the experimental charge luminesce at different wavelengths – e.g., apatite crystals are often seen as "red" while plagioclase commonly displays a "blue" 547 548 luminescence – making it possible to distinguish regions within an experiment where two or more 549 phases may be intergrown (Fig. 5.e-f).

550

551 EPMA data.

552 Average and 1σ (in wt% oxide) for experimental run products, including apatite, glass and some 553 additional run products are presented in Supplement 1. The REE concentrations in experiment ApREE-554 01b (particularly La and Ce) are significantly different from "unseeded" experiments, suggesting that 555 analytical totals are unreliable due to contamination from Durango apatite seeds in this experiment. 556 Partitioning data from ApREE-01b is, therefore, not considered further. Faint sector zoning is also noted 557 from some experiments (Fig 5.i, ApREE-12; WM), but this variation is not accompanied by any 558 detectable multimodality in minor or trace element data distribution (see Fig. 9 and discussion section 559 "An evaluation of data..."). No inter-grain variation is observed in REE concentration within individual 560 experiments, such that there appears to be no zonation depending on capsule position or crystal size.

561

562 Three experiments from this study (ApREE-01a, ApREE-03a, ApREE-04) contain large, euhedral RE-563 merrillite (where RE indicates the phase is 'Rare Earth' rich) crystals. These crystals are often also called whitlockite (or whitlockite group under Dana classification) and are members of a mineral group that 564 565 show some multiplicity among the different cation sites. Given that the experimental starting material 566 was designed to be anhydrous and EPMA analytical totals are ~100 % (Table 3; 100.55 ± 2.03, 99.98 ± 567 1.18), we conclude that these phosphates are members of the \sim OH-free Merrillite family (e.g., Hughes 568 et al., 2006; Jolliff et al., 2006). As shown in Figure 5a, the merrillite crystals show much higher BSE 569 intensity relative to apatite, which is a good indication of the higher REE content of merrillite. The 570 merrillite compositions reported from experiments are presented in Table 3 and generally show REE 571 concentrations that are >1 wt% \sum REE (in wt% oxide), thus making the phase the dominant REE host 572 within experiments. The calculated mineral compositions, based on 56 oxygens, is 573 Ca_{16.8}REE_{1.5}(Mg,Fe)_{2.0}P_{13.7}Si_{0.2}O₅₆ for ApREE-01a and Ca_{16.5}REE_{1.6}(Mg,Fe)_{2.2}P_{13.7}Si_{0.6}O₅₆ for ApREE-04 – thus 574 confirming saturation in an RE-Merrillite phase in experiments ApREE-01a, ApREE-03a and ApREE-04.

575

576	In addition to apatite, merrillite and glass analyses, attempts were made to obtain measurements from
577	plagioclase and/or pyroxenes observed in experiments, but the REE concentrations were too low to be
578	measured by EPMA (with the exception of experiments ApREE-01a, ApREE-02a, ApREE-04 and ApREE-
579	15X, where attempted plagioclase/pyroxene analysis are included in Table 5). Reliable plagioclase
580	analysis is a particular problem, as the fine-grained nature of laths makes it difficult to isolate an
581	analytical volume suitable for EPMA. It is worth noting that experiments ApREE-15X and ApREE-02x do
582	show large Eu concentrations, while all other REE exist at concentrations below the detection limit. In
583	other words, these experiments likely record a negative anomaly in apatite and have plagioclase with an
584	associated positive anomaly.

585 **LA-ICP-MS.**

Average and 1σ (in wt% oxide) for experimental run products obtained from LA-ICP-MS analysis of a representative group of experiments, including values for apatite, glass and RE-merrillite are also presented in Supplement 2 (bottom). A representative apatite LA-ICP-MS spectra shows down hole decreases in counts typical of our analytical session (Figure 8). Such data correspond to near-surface BSE image laser ablation spots (e.g., Fig. 5.g-h), which show the dimension of the laser pit and the target phase. Collectively these two observations provide strong evidence analyses are clean.

592

Individual analyses of REE concentrations of glass and apatite are remarkably similar to those reported from EPMA, and generally range from 950-13,000 ppm (by weight). While glass analyses from LA-ICP-MS have a much smaller error than EPMA measurements, apatite analyses across the two techniques are remarkably consistent (see Fig. 17). Here it is important to stress that LA-ICP-MS analyses are included

597	from experiments at both high (i.e., hematite-magnetite buffer) and low f_{0_2} conditions (i.e., graphite-
598	$CO-CO_2$ or $Mo-MoO_2$ buffer) in this dataset – including experiments ApREE-03a, ApREE-03b, ApREE-07,
599	ApREE-09, such that a full range of potential $Eu^{3+}/\Sigma Eu$ can be evaluated across both datasets.

600

601 XANES data.

Standard Eu compounds used in this study (Figure 6.1c) demonstrate that Eu^{2+} -compounds record a dominant Eu L_3 XANES feature (or whiteline) at 6975.5 eV, while Eu^{3+} -compounds record a dominant XANES feature at 6983.3 eV (note: XANES standard data can be made available by contacting the author). Data from spectral fits on apatite and glass (average and 1 σ) from a select number of individual experiments are reported in Table 6, while representative spectra from both apatite and glass are shown in Fig. 6.1a-b.

608

As described in the methods, XANES data can be separated into two groups, where the first is used to provide a statistical snapshot of variation within an experiment through a data comparison of measurements collected at multiple locations within the experimental charge. The other group is used to investigate orientations effects (i.e., oriented XANES scans).

613

The first method (analyses throughout the charge involving randomly oriented apatite grains) show that variations in $Eu^{3+}/\Sigma Eu$ are generally small in glass analyses (with σ varying from 0.0008-0.006 or 0.008-1.72 %). Apatite analyses show higher standard deviations than glass, an observation consistent with the EPMA and LA-ICP-MS results, and is likely related to the combined effect of anisotropy (a concern for

625

626 The second analytical technique involves oriented analyses from four apatite grains from representative 627 experiments, rotated at three 60° orientations. The observed orientation-dependent variation in 628 calculated $Eu^{3+}/\Sigma Eu$ in repeat apatite analyses from experiment ApREE-02 ranges from 1.3-7.2 %, while 629 experiment ApREE-12 ranges from 3.0-7.9 %. Here it is worth noting that oriented analyses show remarkably similar $Eu^{3+}/\Sigma Eu$ variation to that measured from numerous randomly oriented apatite 630 grains described in XANES methodology 1. It is also worth highlighting that ApREE-12 (C-CO-CO₂) and 631 ApREE-02b (IW) represent examples where both Eu²⁺ and Eu³⁺ spectral features are abundant (i.e., the 632 633 samples contain a mixture of Eu valence species), such that potential orientation-dependent spectral variation is maximized. In other words, if the maximum variation in orientation-dependent calculated 634 Eu³⁺/ Σ Eu is observed in the relative peak heights at $\varphi_{6975.5}$ and $\varphi_{6983.3}$, then by definition the largest 635 636 variation must be observed at the inflection point of the valence speciation sigmoid curve. This variation will likely decrease systematically as one valence species (and one spectral feature) begins to dominate 637 638 the system. The average, maximum observed orientation-dependent variation observed in all oriented samples is 4.8 ± 2.2 %, indicating that while apatite anisotropy can result in subtle changes to 639

both EPMA and XANES but not LA-ICP-MS) and intrinsic variation within apatite. The largest inter-grain variation in XANES analysis is observed within the most reduced experiments where the Eu²⁺ content reaches significant proportions (i.e., >13 %) – most notably among experiments ApREE-07 (Mo-MoO₂ buffer), ApREE-09 (C-CO-CO₂ buffer) and ApREE-15X (IW buffer) – where σ for Eu³⁺/ Σ Eu are 2.75, 9.29 and 5.67 % respectively. It is possible that some of this variation relates to crystallographic orientation effects on the in-situ XANES method (a condition that would extend to calibration applications), but such variations only appear to influence the estimated totals by ~2-10 %.

640 $\varphi_{6975.5}$: $\varphi_{6983.3}$ in the Eu L_3 XANES features, the influence of this effect can be measured and calculated 641 using synchrotron-based techniques.

642

643 Discussion

644 **Experimental products.**

645 Run products from experiments include phases that would be predicted from a Ca-rich KREEPy starting 646 mix (equilibrated at 1 bar) at temperatures ranging from 1110 to 1175 °C. All experiments are saturated 647 in apatite, with melts at lower temperature generally showing an increasing abundance of plagioclase 648 and pyroxene. It should be noted that the crystallization of schreibersite at low f_{0_2} does complicate use 649 of the crystallization sequence in some experiments. It is also worth noting that many experiments here contain vapor bubbles, indicating the presence of one or more volatile species within the experimental 650 651 charge. The simplest explanation is that volatile components within experiments attain a vapor pressure 652 at experimental conditions (namely things like Na, F, K, P, CO and CO_2). The alternative interpretation 653 relates to experiments employing a rapid, drop quench into water that ensures the sample is quenched 654 in ~1 second (thus locking in experimental fugacity and temperature). It is possible some H_2O is trapped 655 within glasses in this manner. The important thing here to note is that (i) analytical totals approximate 656 100 % and indicate a syn-KREEP experimental glasses are anhydrous glass; (ii) if any water is present in 657 experiments, volume expansion is likely to break the silica ampoule as the capsule is added to the furnace (making H₂O unlikely to be in any experiment), and (iii) even if minor amounts of water are 658 659 contained within experiments it has previously been shown H_2O content has negligible influence on REE 660 partitioning into apatite (Watson and Green, 1981).

661

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662

An evaluation of EPMA data robustness and analytical considerations

663 Accurate analysis of apatite via EPMA has been studied by numerous authors, including Jim Webster and 664 his research group (to whom this special volume is dedicated - see Goldoff et al., 2012). The work by 665 Laputina et al. (1999), Reed and Buckley (1998), Marks et al. (2012) and Henderson (2011) collectively 666 demonstrate the use of the electron microprobe for the study of major, minor and trace elements in 667 natural apatite – most notably the REEs – is possible when done properly and where concentration/s 668 permit. This requires analytical protocols that take specific note of beam setup, orientation affects, 669 background positions, potential overlap corrections and the use of appropriate standards. Interested 670 readers are strongly encouraged to explore Supplementary Material #3 and #5 section of this paper for 671 further information. Here it is important to acknowledge previous studies into REE partitioning, most 672 notably those involving the study of lunar phosphates (i.e., apatite, RE-merrillite) have largely required 673 ion microprobe techniques (including, but not limited to, the works of Jolliff et al., 1993; Shearer et al., 674 2011; Robinson et al., 2017). This is due to a combination of factors, including low concentration (i.e., 675 ppm or lower concentrations), potential matrix mismatch between standards and unknowns (i.e., the 676 use of REEs in glasses versus REE-phosphates), and X-ray peak overlap issues among the various REE. 677 Among the REE, some elements have historically proven more truculent than others during analysis of 678 lunar phosphates, with the elements generally falling in two categories: (i) those deemed "hard to 679 measure" group; and (ii) those deemed "less difficult to measure". The "hard to measure" group of REEs 680 typically includes odd-# RE elements and the HREE (the latter largely pertaining to the LEE:HREE slope of 681 the parent melt) and typically includes elements like Lu, Yb, Tm, Ho, Tb, Eu, Pr (Lindstrom et al., 1985, 682 1991; Shervais et al., 1984; James et al., 1987; Jolliff et al., 1993). The "less difficult to measure" group 683 includes elements somewhat easier to measure by more conventional trace-/minor-element analytical 684 techniques - such as ion microprobe, mass spectrometer or EPMA (this group typically involves the 685 even-# RE elements and the light REE) and usually includes Y, La, Ce, Nd and Gd (Albee and Chodos,

686 1970; Keil et al., 1971; Gancarz et al., 1971; Griffin et al., 1972; Brown et al., 1971, 1972; Jolliff et al., 687 1993). What is important to note here is the various issues that make lunar apatite analysis difficult (as 688 listed above), can and have all been almost entirely avoided in this study by deliberately doping 689 experiments at elevated concentrations. This is to say experiments contain thousands of ppm of select 690 REE while (rather than many of the REE existing at ppm or ppb in natural silicate-phosphate systems), 691 while also avoiding the odd-even effect. The experimental approach also has the advantage that 692 elevated REE concentration is kept specifically low (such that partitioning remains Henrian) ensuring 693 primary REE-bearing phase/s saturation (like monazite or xenotime) is not achieved.

694

695 Here it should also be stressed that experiments presented here are deliberately designed to avoid REEs 696 that cause potential WDS overlaps that will influence either the lattice parabola or Sm:Eu:Gd (in either 697 peak or background position), with the highest overlap correction calculated in VirtualWDS software 698 (Reed and Buckley; 1998) from any apatite/glass/merrillite measurement made in this study is 0.00008 699 % (a correction on Ce concentration when WDS is carried out against $L\alpha_1$ peak; see Supplementary 700 Material #3). Here we should also stress to the reader that while application of the various calibrations 701 presented this study can be conducted by EPMA and LA-ICP-MS, application to natural samples (lunar, 702 martian or terrestrial) will likely require the use of an ion microprobe or mass spectrometer.

703

1 It is important emphasize the manner in which errors are calculated, as this will explain why the error bars associated with $\left[\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu^*}\right)_D^{\text{lattice strain}}\right]$ are larger than those of $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu^*}\right)_D^{\sqrt{Sm \times Gd}}$. As an example, the error bars for individual data points from the apatite and silicate glass from ApREE-03b (at Mo-MoO₂ equilibrium – i.e., mixed valence with a clear negative Eu anomaly) represent the standard deviation derived from the EPMA counting statistics (glass: Fig. 14a apatite: Fig. 14b). Note that the individual REE₂O₃ concentrations of apatite and glass reflect the La:Ce:Sm:Eu:Gd:Lu (1:2:1:1:8:1:1) of the experiment. This odd REE shape necessitates that it is highly unlikely to replicate a lattice strain parabola by analytical artifacts, rather it is only possible through the combined clean analysis of both apatite and glass.

713

As shown in Fig. 14c the $D_{\rm REE}^{\rm Apatite/baslt}$ an individual apatite within experiment ApREE-03b can 714 715 collectively shift up or down in Sm, Eu and Gd partitioning space. This collective shift results in an $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_{D}^{\sqrt{Sm}\times Gd}$ that remains relatively consistent from grain to grain (or analysis to analysis), while the 716 717 concentration-based variation in absolute partition coefficients may vary for individual REE. If we take 8 718 apatite-glass pairs from representative ApREE-03b experiment, and propagate through Sm, Eu and Gd across all the apatite and glass data we get a $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_{D}^{\sqrt{Sm\times Gd}}$ = 0.74±0.06 (noting these are the values 719 reported in Supplement 2 and Fig. 17-18). If we simply take the $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_{D}^{\sqrt{Sm\times Gd}}$ from the 8 apatite-glass 720 pairs and look at the variation amongst that population (rather than propagating error through Sm, Eu 721 and Gd across all apatite and glass analyses), then $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_D^{\sqrt{Sm \times Gd}} = 0.74 \pm 0.04$ (i.e., there is a near halving 722 in the reported error). Here it is worth noting that propagating the error for $\left[\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu^*}\right)_{D}^{\text{lattice strain}}\right]$ uses all 6 723 724 REE elements described from our ApREE experiments (La, Ce, Sm, Eu, Gd and Lu) in both apatite and glass, thus leading to larger error bars when $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_D^{\sqrt{Sm\times Gd}}$ and $\left[\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_D^{\text{lattice strain}}\right]$ are directly compared. 725 726 While we see merit in using either mechanism for reporting error – the first involving error propagation,

the second involving inter-grain variation in Eu/Eu* without propagating through Sm and Gd) – we have
 decided to use the former throughout this manuscript.

729

730 Comparison of EPMA and LA-ICP-MS datasets and analytical uncertainty.

731 To assess the quality of the EPMA data from a specific set of experiments presented in this study (as an 732 example), we first take ApREE-06 (buffered at the QFM equilibrium) and observe the statistical variation 733 within the REE measurements (Fig. 9.a). If the 34 individual apatite analyses (generally core to rim 734 transects) from 4 apatite crystals are considered we can first note several key observations: (a) all 735 elements show a normal distribution about the mean (see Fig. 9.a; reported in wt% RE_2O_3); (b) all the REEs doped in the experiment are all well above detection limits (see $EPMA_{Gd_2O_2}^{LOD}$ and $EPMA_{Smd_2O_2}^{LOD}$ in 736 737 Fig. 9.b for an example); (c) analytical uncertainty of EPMA analyses (EPMA_{δ}) is comparable to the 738 intrinsic experimental inter-grain variation (Exp_{δ}). To emphasize this, Fig. 9.b shows direct comparison of 739 all data from the same analyses (ApREE-06) where we report the analytical uncertainty (EPMA₆; light 740 error bars) based on spectrometer counting statistics, while inter-grain variation based on analyses from 741 throughout the experiment and the same data reported in Supplement 1 is shown Fig 9.b (Exp_{δ} ; heavy 742 error bars and large circles).

743

Both EPMA and LA-ICP-MS analyses have been conducted and compared for ApREE-03b, buffered at Mo-MoO₂ equilibrium (Fig. 9.c-9.d). Firstly, the instrumental and inter-grain variation is similar to our previous example (ApREE-06) and is again well above detection limit. It can also be seen that despite different counting statistics (signal/noise) across the two analytical techniques, apatite analytical uncertainty (see Fig. 9.c or EPMA_{δ} and LA-ICP-MS_{δ}) is remarkably consistent across the two techniques.

749 Similarly, as shown in Fig. 9.d, the inter-grain uncertainty (Exp_{δ}) is also remarkably similar. In other 750 words, the inter-grain variation, particularly the inter-grain variation within the apatite population from 751 a given experiment, does not depend on the analytical technique. The similar inter-grain variation 752 between the two techniques demonstrates the reported error is related to intrinsic experimental 753 variation (i.e., Exp_{δ}) and as such the calibration curves presented in Fig. 17-18 will not be dramatically 754 improved by using techniques with superior counting techniques. Here it also be noted that while glass 755 analysis (in terms of error) is vastly improved by employment of LA-ICP-MS, apatite analyses is not. In 756 this regard, most of the error of the provided calibrations presented in *Equations 17* and *18* (in terms of 757 both [Eu/Eu*]_{sm-Gd} or [Eu/Eu*]_{lattice}) will unlikely be improved greatly by employing other techniques 758 capable of obtaining better counting statistics. (e.g., ion microprobe).

759

Given this research is dependent on accurately determining the relative concentration of specific REE – namely La, Ce, Sm, Eu, Gd and Lu – we present numerous checks in supplementary material in order to provide a rigorous evaluation of data quality (including full wavelength scans of standards, potential overlap calculations/corrections, detection limits, etc). The greatest check in this study is to directly compare results from EPMA and LA-ICP-MS analyses on common experiments (see Tables 4, 4a and Fig. 17). The strong positive correlation between the two techniques provide internally consistent partition coefficients and thus calculated Eu anomalies (Fig. 17.c and 17.d).

767

If we take the average detection limit across all EPMA analyses (La = 734 ppm, Ce = 729 ppm, Sm = 663
ppm, Eu = 680 ppm, Gd = 704 ppm, Lu = 1146 ppm) and compare these values directly to LA-ICP-MS
from experiment ApREE-07 (La = 0.03 ppm, Ce = 0.03 ppm, Sm = 0.14 ppm, Eu = 0.04 ppm, Gd = 0.15
ppm, and Lu = 0.03 ppm; noting all LA-ICP-MS record similar detection limit values), clearly the LA-ICP-
772 MS has lower detection limits. Even so, the measured concentrations reported in Supplement 1a and 773 Supplement 1b are well above these reported detection limits for EPMA. With this in mind, evaluation of 774 the standard deviation (δ) across the two dataset shows remarkable similarity (Tables 4a,b Fig. 17). As 775 the interferences across the two methods are not directly transferable (particularly wavelength overlap 776 versus mass interference) that the two datasets are in excellent agreement demonstrates the two 777 techniques are accurately recording a statistical snapshot of apatite-glass distribution coefficients. 778 Looking at the same data in more detail, it is equally important to note despite having nearly 4 orders of 779 magnitude difference in detection limit, the two sets of data record similar error. In fact in some 780 experiments the LA-ICP-MS methodology records marginally higher error than the EPMA dataset despite 781 having a lower LOD (we suggest this relates to the difference in analyte volume across the two 782 techniques). In some cases, techniques with superior counting statistics will improve error in data like 783 that Fig 14-18 or calibrations presented in Equations 17-18. However in this case, the two techniques 784 record the same error when apatite analyses of single charge are considered, which is strong evidence 785 that the uncertainty is intrinsic to the experimental technique (i.e., reported from multiple analyses 786 from multiple crystals within a common experiment). Thus, the error represents the statistical variation 787 observed within the population of apatite grains from the experimental technique rather than being 788 related to analytical counting statistics. As a check of this hypothesis, one can compare results 789 presented in this paper with experimental data within the literature by Fleet and Pan (1995; n = 11 or 790 12; La-doped = 9.93 ± 0.74 , Nd-doped = 12.74 ± 0.54 , Gd-doped = 10.36 ± 0.54 , Dy-doped = 9.08 ± 0.35), 791 Watson and Green (1985; n = 7-10; experiment 818 L_2O_3 = 0.29±0.07, Sm_2O_3 = 0.43±0.05, Dy_2O_3 = 792 0.35 ± 0.06 ; Lu₂O₃ = 0.19 ± 0.05 , experiment 811, La₂O₃ = 0.84 ± 0.10 , Sm₂O₃ = 1.47 ± 0.13 , Dy₂O₃ = 1.34 ± 0.12 , 793 $Lu_2O_3 = 0.65 \pm 0.10$) and Trail et al., 2012 (here we use experiment zfo2 16d because it has the highest n 794 within the dataset; $La_2O_3 = 0.232\pm0.183$, $Ce_2O_3 = 0.323\pm0.168$, $Pr_2O_3 = 0.269\pm0.155$) are all in the same 795 reported range as that reported in the various Tables and Figures presented here.

796

797 Apatite saturation, glass compositions and application considerations

798 The apatite saturation calibration for mafic melts (Watson, 1979; Green and Watson, 1982) indicates 799 that, P₂O₅, SiO₂ and temperature play dominant roles that define apatite saturation. Results presented 800 in this study, which include 421 individual glass measurements, show agreement with the original 801 Watson (1979) apatite saturation calibration for experiments at 1 bar (Fig. 10). Specifically, the bulk of 802 glass measurements show the same topology in P_2O_5 -SiO₂ space and the data falls between the 1165-803 1200 °C saturation curves. This is an important observation in that the two sets of experiments 804 reproduce similar results and can be used to suggest apatite crystallization likely occurred under 805 equilibrium saturation conditions. Apatite saturation models are important when considering the 806 process of apatite crystallization in mafic systems (e.g., terrestrial, lunar or martian basalts), because at 807 the silica contents in question, apatite saturation tend to indicate a significant P_2O_5 content enrichment 808 is required to attain apatite nucleation. This being said, it should be stressed that experimental 809 petrology often represents a simplified or an artificially doped system and as such they may not be an 810 exact match for the full breadth of factors or complexities surrounding all range natural systems. This 811 being said, experimental petrology is an extremely useful guide to elucidating mechanisms that drive 812 geochemical variations observed in natural systems, of which oxygen fugacity is one of the most 813 important and hard to calculate.

814

The complex multiplicity of potential REE substitution mechanisms in apatite described by *eq. 6-9*, in conjunction with the compositional range of apatite-saturated magmas, suggests that the activity of other system components may influence REE^{3+} and Eu^{2+} partitioning. As described by *eq. 6* and 7 the a_{SiO_2} , a_{Na_2O} , and a_{CaO} in a silicate melt, though difficult to calculate in terms of absolute values without

a suitable buffer reaction, all potentially influence the relative partitioning of REE³⁺ and Eu²⁺. If we take 819 eq. 6 as an example, theory predicts melts of higher silica activity (e.g., rhyolites) will contain apatite of 820 821 higher $D_{ZREF^{3+}}$ (at a constant REE activity) than silicate melts at lower silicate activity (e.g., basalts). The 822 apatite-melt REE partitioning presented by Watson and Green (1981) helps provide some evidence for 823 this (with details surrounding the different experimental starting materials presented in Table 4). The 824 more mafic melts presented by Watson and Green (1981) with low SiO₂ content (38.4-56.5 wt% SiO₂; 825 basanites, tholeiites, hawaiites, tholeiitic and esites) show notably lower partition coefficients (D_{MRFF} = 826 4.0-6.0) than more silicic melts (56.5-69.7 wt% SiO₂; granites and andesite, where D_{MREE} = 9.0-40.0). 827 When the data from this study and that of Watson and Green (1981) are considered collectively, results 828 indicate melt composition and coupled substitution can affect REE partitioning in apatite.

829

830 Moreover, experimental studies into other accessory phases (e.g., zircon) have shown that mineral 831 solubility can also be dependent on the alkalinity of a melt. In holocrystalline rocks this is often visualized in terms of the alumina saturation index (ASI) versus the "Na₂O+K₂O content" (in wt%) from 832 833 bulk rock analysis. In experimental systems where both glass and mineral can be measured, a slightly 834 different methodology is commonly used, known as the M factor (where $M = [Na+K+2\cdot Ca]/[Al\cdot Si]$; 835 Watson and Harrison, 1983). This melt composition control not only plays a role in the solubility of the 836 mineral species, but also has the capacity to affect the coordination (and thus partitioning behavior) of REE³⁺ and Eu²⁺ respectively. It is for this reason, for example, that redox calibrations in zircon require 837 838 different calibrations (e.g., $[Ce/Ce^*]_D$) depending on the alkalinity of the parent melt (Trail et al., 2012). 839 It is possible then, that melts significantly different to those presented in this study (i.e., peraluminous 840 and peralkaline magmas), likely have different $(Eu/Eu^*)_D$ redox curves from those in eq. 17 and 18.

841

- Apatite practitioners who wish to utilize the experimental data presented here will need to carefully
- consider whether the experimental conditions, the constraints provided, and reproducibility of the data
- can be appropriately applied the system they seek to investigate.
- 845 **REE site occupancy and partitioning in apatite.**

846 A summary of REE partition coefficient data can be found in Supplement 2 and is shown graphically in Figures 10-19. The data presented here can be used to evaluate the REE³⁺ coupled substitution 847 mechanism in apatite within experiments. As outlined in eq. 6-9, several possible substitution 848 mechanisms have been hypothesized. Watson and Green (1981), Fleet and Pan (1994; 1995) and 849 850 Cherniak (2000) indicate the dominant REE substitution mechanism in fluorapatite involves Si (i.e., eq. 851 6). The apatite data from this study (Supplement 1) and the mafic, REE-doped experiments of Watson and Green (1981) generally show $\Sigma REE^{3+}+Si^{4+}:Ca^{2+}+P^{5+}$ (in apfu) close to the 1:1 coupled substitution, or a 852 853 strong positive correlation between ΣREE_2O_3 and SiO₂ (Fig. 11). This observation, coupled with the low 854 measured Na content in experimental apatite grains (i.e., generally below detection limit), indicates a 855 single dominant substitution mechanism within experiments.

856

The REE³⁺ partitioning data for apatite in basalt, here focusing on La, Ce, Sm, Gd and Lu, all show a 857 general concave down topology when plotted against ionic radii (Fig. 12, 13, 14 and 20). Moreover, 858 859 direct comparison of EPMA data and LA-ICP-MS data (see Fig. 11 and 18) show excellent Onuma topology agreement across the two techniques, for both apatite and merrillite. All measured REE³⁺ 860 partition coefficients from apatite in this study straddle unity, with the MREE (Sm, Eu³⁺ and Gd; D 861 862 ranging from 1.0-2.0) and are considered to be marginally compatible, while the LREE and HREE being marginally incompatible (La, Ce³⁺, Lu; *D* ranging from 0.5-1.0). Interestingly, these experimental values 863 are similar to REE³⁺ partition coefficient data from lunar apatite grains reported by Jolliff et al. (1993) 864

865 which record MREE values ~0.4 and LREE and HREE recording slightly lower values (0.12-0.30). As shown 866 in Figures 10 and 11 this lattice strain topology and compatibility is also in agreement with previous 867 experimental work in apatite-saturated melts (Watson and Green, 1981; Prowatke and Klemme, 2006), 868 all showing the highest compatibility (or the ideal trivalent cation radius in the Onuma diagram) 869 somewhere between Sm and Gd (i.e., MREE). As all lattice strain calculations from this work indicate that Eu³⁺ is the most proximal REE³⁺ element to the apex of the parabola (i.e., it is the most compatible 870 trivalent element in apatite), suggests that it is theoretically possible to produce a $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_{D}^{\sqrt{Sm \times Gd}}$ slightly 871 >1. This is because Eu³⁺ is slightly more compatible than both Sm and Gd, and thus the square root 872 methodology could result in small positive $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_D^{\sqrt{Sm\times Gd}}$ values in highly oxidized systems based on 873 *Equation 14.* This being the case, partitioning among the MREE³⁺ are so similar that the development of 874 a measurable positive Eu anomaly based on partitioning among Sm^{3+} , Eu^{3+} and Gd^{3+} is unlikely. 875

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The MREE (Sm, Eu and Gd) cations show a slightly smaller ionic radii than the ideal Ca²⁺ site apatite (be it 877 [XII], [IX] or the simplified [VI] structure used in this study), while the Eu^{2+} displays a slightly larger ionic 878 radii than Ca²⁺ in all coordinations relevant to the apatite structure. This could be used to suggest a 879 880 minor pressure effect on the relative partition coefficient of the two Eu valence species in apatite. This 881 could also be used to explain the marginally higher (i.e., ~half log unit) partition coefficients observed in 882 both the Watson and Green (1981) and Prowatke and Klemme (2006) studies - all equilibrated at 883 pressures between 0.75-2.00 GPa - relative to data presented in this study (where experiments are 884 equilibrated at 1 bar). Another plausible explanation for the marginally lower partition coefficients 885 observed in experiments presented here versus Watson and Green (1981) - the only other experimental 886 study of silicate-apatite systems - is that those experiments were generally conducted at lower

temperature (950-1120 °C). As partition coefficients generally increase with decreasing temperature (for 887 888 examples based on experimental trace element partitioning between silicate melts and zircon or apatite 889 or monazite see Trail et al., 2012; Watson and Green, 1981; Xing et al., 2013) the higher temperature 890 experiments in this study would predict a lower partition coefficient while displaying the same topology. The restricted range of temperatures (1110-1175 °C) and compositions (40-50 wt% SiO₂) observed in 891 experiments from this study makes it unsurprising that the topology in REE partitioning data between 892 893 apatite and basalt are remarkably consistent across all experiments presented here. The similarity in 894 measured partition coefficients justifies the lack of a temperature term in Equation 3, as any temperature effect on REE³⁺ partitioning over the small range in temperature of the present 895 896 experiments is essentially less than the uncertainties associated with the various analytical techniques.

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It is possible to calculate the weighted relative partition coefficient of Eu²⁺ and Eu³⁺ in experiments 898 where both Eu L_3 XANES $\left[\left(\frac{Eu^{3+}}{\Sigma Eu}\right)_{Apatite}\right]$ and partitioning data $\left[\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_D^{\sqrt{Sm \times Gd}}\right]$ exist. This represents the 899 first direct evaluation of Eu²⁺ partitioning in apatite, though many previous studies have used Sr²⁺ 900 partitioning data as a proxy for Eu^{2+} . Direct comparison of $Eu^{3+}/\Sigma Eu$ XANES speciation curves for basalt 901 and apatite (see Fig. 15.b-c) converge at log(f_{Ω_2}) values >-9 (i.e., >QFM), where Eu²⁺ content in both the 902 glass and apatite is small and the shape of the sigmoid becomes of limited use in terms of defining the 903 904 redox-related Eu partitioning. In order to estimate partition coefficients of both Eu valence states, we recommend preferred values (Table 6) based on experiments at $log(f_{O_2})$ values <-9 (i.e., at f_{O_2} conditions 905 near the locus of the sigmoid inflection). This method yields a combined XANES-EPMA $D_{{
m Eu}^{3+}}^{
m Ap/melt}$ of 906 907 1.81±0.26, which is very similar to the average partition coefficient calculated from lattice strain methods applied to all experiments in this study, where $D_{Eu^{3+}}^{Ap/melt}$ is 1.67±0.25 (noting that the ideal 908

radius or $r_0=0.957$ is very similar to the radius of ^[VI]Eu³⁺=0.947). Similarly, the $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_{D}^{\sqrt{Sm\times Gd}}$ method can 909 be used to calculate a $D_{Eu^{3+}}^{Ap/melt}$ of 1.67±0.23 and thus also indicates a value similar to the combined 910 XANES-EPMA $D_{Eu^{3+}}^{Ap/melt}$ of 1.81±0.26. The partition coefficient of divalent Eu calculated from this study 911 indicates Eu^{2+} is less compatible than Eu^{3+} within apatite and records an average $D_{Eu^{2+}}^{Ap/melt}$ of 0.87±0.08 912 and the $\left(D_{Eu^{2+}}^{Ap/melt}/D_{Eu^{3+}}^{Ap/melt}\right)$ =0.48±0.27. The only comparison that can be made from previous 913 experimental work into apatite-basalt REE partitioning is that of Watson and Green (1981), whose data 914 can be used in lattice strain calculations to constrain $D_{Eu^{3+}}^{Ap/melt}$, and where $D_{Sr^{2+}}^{Ap/melt}$ can be used to 915 estimate $D_{Eu^{2+}}^{Ap/melt}$. This method results in similar values, where $D_{Eu^{3+}}^{Ap/melt}$ is 5.18±0.35, $D_{Eu^{2+}}^{Ap/melt}$ is 916 1.35±0.07 and $\left(D_{Eu^{2+}}^{Ap/melt}/D_{Eu^{3+}}^{Ap/melt}\right)$ =0.26±0.03. In other words, the techniques described here and re-917 evaluation of the Watson and Green (1981) data indicate that Eu³⁺ is approximately 2-4 times more 918 compatible than Eu²⁺ in apatite crystallizing from basalt. 919

920

921 Another important observation from this work, shown in Fig. 16, is the REE partition coefficients $(D_{PEE^{3+}}^{Ap/melt})$ for the strictly trivalent elements (i.e., isovalent cations: La, Sm, Gd and Lu) are nearly 922 constant over the complete range of experiment f_{O_2} conditions, such that the bulk of the REE appear 923 independent of f_{0_2} . It is important to note that Ce partitioning also remains constant over all 924 experimental f_{0_2} suggesting that the Ce⁴⁺ is highly incompatible in apatite and/or the Ce valence 925 926 speciation curve likely exists at higher f_{0_2} conditions than the experimental buffers used in this study. This observation is consistent with previous studies in REE partitioning into the zircon-silicate melt 927 systems (Trail et al., 2012; Burnham and Berry, 2012) which demonstrates the Eu²⁺↔Eu³⁺ transition 928 occurs at much lower f_{0_2} than the Ce³⁺-Ce⁴⁺. 929

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Another important observation that may be discerned from the Watson and Green (1981) experiments, is where experiments are held at nearly constant melt composition-temperature-pressure- f_{0_2} , while with H₂O content varies (in terms of wt% and presumably extending to $a_{H_2O}^{silicate melt}$), the REE partitioning behavior remains nearly constant. As the Watson and Green (1981) experiments H₂O contents generally exceeds the content observed in most terrestrial, lunar and martian basalts, can be used to indicate that water activity plays a negligible role REE valence partitioning.

937

938 It has also been speculated that the volatile anion site may also play a role in the coupled substitution of REE³⁺ (Fleet and Pan, 1997) by virtue of the F⁻, Cl⁻ and OH⁻ each affecting the ^[VII]Ca(2) site (i.e., bond 939 angles and lengths describing the polyhedra) and thus potentially influencing REE³⁺ solubility in apatite. 940 While this may give rise to subtle differences in REE³⁺ partitioning among hydroxyapatite, fluorapatite 941 942 and chlorapatite end-members, the dominance of fluorapatite in igneous systems (Piccoli and Candela, 943 2002; Webster and Piccoli, 2002) and experiments presented here, likely means the anion site control on REE partitioning among magmatic apatite grains is negligible for the bulk of magmatic redox 944 945 calibration purposes. The experimental studies into REE solubility among F and OH apatite by Prowatke 946 and Klemme (2006) also show only subtle differences on REE partitioning, again suggesting the anion site plays little role on REE³⁺ partition coefficient. 947

948

949 These observations collectively demonstrate the two (Eu/Eu*)_D calibrations for apatite theoretically laid 950 out in *Equations 7* and *8* and defined by calibrations presented in *Equations 17* and *18* here are best 951 applied to metaluminous, near basaltic melts that are similar in composition and pressure to those

presented in this experimental study. In other words, this calibration should not be applied to more silicic systems that are either peralkaline or peraluminous. Further experimentation is needed to accurately extend the working range of the apatite redox sensor to a broader range of magmatic systems, including those of significantly different melt composition (silicic systems, peralkaline and peraluminous systems) and at different pressures, (in order extend use from volcanic to plutonic systems).

958

959 Lattice strain calculations and assumptions.

960 The lattice-strain model presented in Equation 12 (Blundy and Wood, 1994) has previously been applied 961 to a wide range of phases (e.g., plagioclase, clinopyroxene, garnet, zircon, etc), where Klemme and 962 Dalpé (2003) present the only calculations made from experimental apatite crystals co-existing with a melt. This calculated Eu³⁺ partition coefficient - which can be determined from a suite of trivalent ions 963 (e.g., REE³⁺, Y³⁺, Sc³⁺, etc) that substitute on the same structural site(s) - can be combined with the 964 measured Eu partition coefficient (which includes both Eu²⁺ and Eu³⁺ components) in order to determine 965 966 the intensity of a negative Eu anomaly. Similar methods have been reported for Ce in zircon-melt partitioning studies in the works of Burnham and Berry (2012) and Smythe and Brenan (2016). 967

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As the results presented in Tables 4, 4b and 5 predict REE^{3+} substitution for Ca^{2+} (*eq. 5*), lattice strain calculations necessarily assume substitution on the Ca sites within apatite. This being the case, the apatite structure has two Ca sites - here defined as Ca(1) and Ca(2) (Fig. 2). The Ca(1) site can be described as a 9-coordinated, tricapped trigonal prism site where 6 oxygens form a trigonal prism with bond lengths varying from 2.40-2.46 Å (here modeled on Gd substitution on the Ca(1)-01 and Ca(1)-02

974 sites; Hughes and Rakovan, 2002; Fleet and Pan, 1995). An additional three oxygen atoms (Ca(1)-03), 975 essentially coplanar with the Ca(1) site, are found at greater distance (2.81 Å) from the central ion. The Ca(2) site is bound to 6 oxygens with broadly similar ionic radii [Ca(2)-01 = 2.67 Å, Ca(2)-02 = 2.37 Å, 976 $Ca(2)-03 = 2.50 \text{ Å}, Ca(2)-03^{d} = 2.35 \text{ Å}; again based on Hughes and Rakovan, 2002; Fleet and Pan, 1995]$ 977 978 and one column anion (X, in experiments generally F). As discussed by Klemme and Dalpé (2003), 979 substitution on both the Ca(1) and Ca(2) sites in apatite is dominated by 6-coordinated structural 980 components, with only minor contributions from the more distal Ca(1)-03 and Ca(2)-F bonds. In order to make lattice strain calculations and to be consistent with previous calculations made from apatite (i.e., 981 Klemme and Dalpé, 2003), here the REE³⁺ substitution in apatite is based on a simplified 6-fold 982 coordination (Fig. 1). As a consequence of this methodology, calculations necessarily assume there is no 983 984 site preference or change in solubility among the two Ca sites (Ca1 and Ca2) at experimental conditions.

985

While the simplified ^[VI]Ca site can be justified, X-ray diffraction (XRD) unit cell refinements of high REE-986 987 concentration apatite grains (carbonatitic and alkaline magmas) by Hughes et al. (1991), a study 988 reporting substitution consistent with eq. 6 and eq. 7 dominating charge balance, indicates minor site preference for the LREE on the ^[VII]Ca(2) site, no observable site preference for the MREE and, minor 989 preference for the HREE on the ^[VI+III]Ca(1) site. While these site preferences may be important in some 990 991 systems, the Hughes et al. results indicate no complete exclusion of specific REE on any site, with $\operatorname{REE}_{[VII]}_{Ca(2)}/\operatorname{REE}_{[VI+III]}_{Ca(1)}$ ranging from 1.8-3.0. As the $\left[\left(\frac{\operatorname{Eu}}{\operatorname{Eu*}}\right)_{D}^{\sqrt{\operatorname{Sm}\times\operatorname{Gd}}}\right]$ redox calibration is largely 992 993 dependent on mid-REE, this suggests site preference is highly unlikely to affect eq. 14. The subtle 994 variations in site preference between LREE+HREE and MREE have some capacity to affect the shape of 995 the Onuma projection, and therefore r_0 . This could explain the subtle differences in the LREE:MREE seen 996 between the results of this study and the Watson and Green study (1981) versus that observed in

Prowatke and Klemme (2006), though additional XRD or X-ray absorption fine structures (XAFS) data
 would be required to confirm any crystal chemical control on site preference among the different REE³⁺
 cations.

1000

1001 For comparison purposes, lattice calculations $\left[\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu^*}\right)_D^{\text{lattice strain}}\right]$ made from apatite in Klemme and 1002 Dalpé (2003) are included in a complete list of lattice strain calculations from experiments in this study 1003 presented in Table 5. In order to make direct comparison with other experimental studies in mafic 1004 silicate systems, lattice strain calculations were made on apatite-melt data presented by Watson and 1005 Green (1981; Table 5).

1006

The ionic radius of Eu $^{3+}$ in 6-coordination (0.947 Å) is very similar to the ideal radius calculated from 1007 lattice strain averaged from all apatite-basalt experiments in this study (r_0 = 0.957 ± 0.008 Å) and from 1008 data reported by Watson and Green (1981; 0.960 and 0.952 Å for apatite grains reported from mafic 1009 systems). This demonstrates the apex of the REE³⁺ parabola or the most compatible REE³⁺ element in 1010 1011 apatite is proximal to Eu³⁺, meaning the most compatible REE in apatite is also the most important 1012 variable-valence REE. This is a fortuitous situation in terms of use of an REE anomaly, as it means the proximity to the apex of the Onuma parabola - when coupled to the relatively incompatible nature of 1013 Eu^{2+} - should give rise to the greatest possible resolution in the redox variable element (i.e., the lowest 1014 possible analytical uncertainty). 1015

Comparison of $\left[\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu^*}\right)_D^{\text{lattice strain}}\right]$ and $\left[\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu^*}\right)_D^{\sqrt{Sm \times Gd}}\right]$ is shown in Figures 17 and 18, with the two 1017 1018 techniques showing excellent correlation (i.e., plotting very close to the 1:1, with a slope of 0.97 and an 1019 intercept of 0.03). As stressed earlier in the discussion, two factors complicate lattice strain models for 1020 apatite: (1) Apatite has two distinct cation sites [Ca(1) and Ca(2)] and a complete lattice strain model 1021 requires determination of, and projection of, partitioning data for each individual Ca site (a condition 1022 not possible to measure via EPMA or LA-ICP-MS); and (2) The various coupled substitution mechanisms 1023 for REE partitioning into apatite (see eq. 6-9) likely distort the cation site locally (and proportionately for 1024 the individual coupled substitution mechanisms) and this likely complicates lattice strain calculations for 1025 REE in apatite. Even where the assumptions in the lattice strain model are an oversimplification (e.g., 6coordination on a single site), the calculated $[ln(D_0)]$ and r_0 still represent an accurate evaluation of the 1026 1027 intensity of the Eu anomaly. The Young's modulus estimates presented in Table 5, by contrast, should be 1028 regarded with caution (even though results are consistent with previous methods of Klemme and Dalpé, 1029 2003).

1030

1031 **Comparison of the three calibrations.**

The different analytical techniques and three different Eu valence calibrations presented in this study all show a smooth trend of increasing $(Eu/Eu^*)_D$ or $(Eu^{3+}/\Sigma Eu)_{Apatite}$ or $(Eu^{3+}/\Sigma Eu)_{Melt}$ with increasing $\log(f_{O_2})$ (see Fig. 14, 15 and 18). The simplest way to envisage the relationship between oxygen fugacity and intensity of $(Eu/Eu^*)_D$ is to directly compare partitioning data among isothermal experiments at different f_{O_2} . This is shown graphically in Fig. 14, where 1150 °C experiments at Fe₂O₃-Fe₃O₄ (HM) shows no anomaly, Ni-NiO (NNO) shows a small anomaly and C-CO-CO₂ (CCOCO2) shows a pronounced negative Eu anomaly. This change in partitioning behavior follows a sigmoidal relationship 1039 in $\log(f_{O_2})$ -(Eu/Eu*)_D or $\log(f_{O_2})$ -(Eu³⁺/ΣEu)_{Apatite} space, as would be predicted by *Equation 4*. By 1040 carrying out least squares regressions on experiments using each method (i.e., *Equations 11, 13,* and 1041 14), it is possible to derive redox calibrations for each (shown graphically in Figures 15 and 18) and these 1042 are described in *Equations 15-18*.

1043

1044 XANES calibration.

1045 A total of 9 representative experiments ranging in $log(f_{0_2})$ from -14.5 to -3.3, or from the graphite-CO-

1046 CO₂ buffer to the hematite-magnetite buffer, are used to define the Eu valence sigmoid for both apatite

and the co-existing glass. The sigmoid calculated from $(Eu^{3+}/\Sigma Eu)^{XANES}_{apatite}$ data are from individual experiments, presented in Table 6, define the following calibration (Fig. 15):

1049

1050
$$\left(\frac{\mathrm{Eu}^{3+}}{\Sigma \mathrm{Eu}}\right)_{\mathrm{apatite}}^{\mathrm{XANES}} = \frac{1}{1+10^{-0.10\pm0.01\times\log(f_{O_2})-1.63\pm0.16}}$$
 (eq. 15)

1051

1052 The $(Eu^{3+}/\Sigma Eu)^{XANES}_{glass}$, by contrast, reports a calibration shifted slightly to higher f_{O_2} (see Fig. 15):

1053

1054
$$\left(\frac{\mathrm{Eu}^{3+}}{\Sigma \mathrm{Eu}}\right)_{\mathrm{glass}}^{\mathrm{XANES}} = \frac{1}{1+10^{-0.15\pm0.01\times\log(f_{O_2})-2.49\pm0.18}}$$
 (eq. 16)

1055

1056 The minor f_{O_2} shift recorded in calibrations for both apatite and co-existing glass (Fig. 15) is essentially a 1057 measure of the differing compatibilities of Eu³⁺ and Eu²⁺ in apatite. As Eu³⁺ is more compatible, the

sigmoid shifts to lower f_{O_2} than is directly observed in the glass. Very similar results have been reported from Eu L_3 XANES spectra from augites in basalt (Karner et al., 2010), while the inverse relationship is observed between plagioclase and basalt (because Eu²⁺ is the more compatible valence species in plagioclase; Drake, 1975). It is also possible that some of this offset between the XANES Eu sigmoid between glass and apatite is related to the non-systematic substitution of Eu²⁺ in the different cation sites (i.e., 7- and 9-coordinated polyhedra) when compared directly to Eu³⁺.

1064

1065 The lattice strain calibration.

1066 The lattice strain-based Eu valence calibration or $\left[\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu^*}\right)_D^{\text{lattice strain}}\right]$ based on results presented in Table 1067 5 and shown graphically in Figure 18.b is defined by:

1068

1069
$$\left(\frac{\mathrm{Eu}}{\mathrm{Eu}*}\right)_D^{\text{lattice strain}} = \frac{1}{1+10^{-0.20\pm 0.03\times \log(f_{O_2})-3.03\pm 0.42}}$$
 (eq. 17)

1070

1071 The
$$\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_{D}^{\sqrt{Sm \times Gd}}$$
 calibration



1073 shown in Fig. 18.a) trend to the lattice strain calibration and is defined by:

1075
$$\left(\frac{\mathrm{Eu}}{\mathrm{Eu}^*}\right)_D^{\sqrt{\mathrm{SM}\times\mathrm{Gd}}} = \frac{1}{1+10^{-0.15\pm0.03\times\log(f_{\mathrm{O}_2})-2.46\pm0.41}}$$
 (eq. 18)

1076

1077 It should be noted that "x" in Equation 4, or the coefficient defining the slope of the sigmoid, for all three techniques–0.10±0.01 from Eu XANES; 0.20 ± 0.03 from $\left[\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu^*}\right)_D^{\text{lattice strain}}\right]$, and; 0.15±0.03 from 1078 $\left[\left(\frac{\mathrm{Eu}}{\mathrm{Eu*}}\right)_{D}^{\sqrt{\mathrm{Sm}}\times\mathrm{Gd}}\right] - \text{ is slightly lower than the theoretical value described by Equation 1 (where x = 0.25).}$ 1079 1080 There are many possible explanations for this, but the mostly likely explanation is changing melt 1081 composition with ΔT and Δf_{O_2} , with the most reducing experiments (i.e., $\log(f_{O_2})$ <-12) showing a 1082 dramatic decrease in FeO* content with the crystallization of schreibersite (see Fig. 19). This change in 1083 melt composition and structure likely means the activity coefficients described in Equation 3 are not 1084 strictly constant. As discussed earlier in this manuscript, oxide solid state buffers can also influence 1085 glass/melt composition within experiments, which may also subtly influence activity coefficients across 1086 different experiments. This is the most likely cause for the difference between measured and theoretical 1087 coefficients for the sigmoid, but we note that natural basalts crystallizing at low f_{0_2} (e.g., lunar basalts) can also exhibit native iron (metal) and also likely undergo dramatic changes in melt composition during 1088 1089 fractionation.

1090

1091 **Comments on Merrillite REE partitioning.**

Several experiments in this study permit an evaluation of the relative partitioning of REE^{3+} and Eu^{2+} valence species between apatite-merrillite-silicate melt, under the caveat that merrillite is present only in oxidized experiments from this study (ApREE-01a and ApREE-04). The merrillite results presented here should only be considered a guide to partitioning, as further experimentation is required to confirm partitioning over a full range of f_{O_2} conditions. As in previous comments regarding the lattice parabola in apatite, it is important to note that the Onuma diagram from LA-ICP-MS and EPMA techniques are in excellent agreement. As shown in Fig. 13.c and 20.a, the $D_{\text{REE}^{3+}}$ are ~2.9 (Lu) to ~5.7 (La) times more compatible or approximately half an order of magnitude more compatible in merrillite than in apatite (see Supplement 2). It is also important to note that the topology of the Onuma diagram for both phases are similar, though the LREE:HREE (as measured by La/Lu) tends to be lower in apatite (1.79±0.38) than in merrillite (3.05±0.57). This similarity in topology tends to suggest the that two phases are unlikely to fractionate REE³⁺ sufficiently to dramatically change parameters used to constrain the intensity of an Eu anomaly [i.e., (Eu/Eu*)_D; parameters like $\sqrt{\text{Sm} \times \text{Gd}}$ or the topology of the lattice strain parabola].

1105

Direct comparison of $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_{D}^{Sm-Gd}$ for merrillite and apatite (see Fig. 20) also demonstrates that the two 1106 phases show complementary or positive correlation among Eu valence species. As shown in Figure 18a-1107 18b, experiments at the hematite-magnetite buffer (log(f_{O_2}) = -3.28) show a mildly positive $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_{D}^{Sm-Gd}$ 1108 in both merrillite (1.04 \pm 0.02) and apatite (1.03 \pm 0.11). At the Ni-NiO buffer (log(f_{0_2}) = -8.02) both 1109 phases show the development of a small negative anomaly, with $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_{D}^{Sm-Gd}$ merrillite (0.88±0.02) and 1110 1111 apatite (0.94±0.14) both reporting values below unity. From this limited dataset it can be hypothesized that Eu²⁺ is slightly more incompatible within the merrillite structure than it is within the apatite 1112 structure, leading to the merrillite recording slightly larger negative Eu anomalies than apatite. This 1113 being the case, the relative difference in compatibility between REE³⁺ and Eu²⁺ is sufficiently small that 1114 neither phase (merrillite or apatite) is likely to significantly influence oxygen fugacity estimates made 1115 from the other phase based on either $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_D^{Sm-Gd}$ or $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_D^{lattice strain}$. This is true of a situation where 1116 both phases co-crystallize or where phase saturation occurs at different times/temperatures in the 1117 liquid line of decent (i.e., if saturation of one phase occurs earlier than the other). 1118

1119

1120 Application to natural apatite.

1121 Existing REE valence calibrations in minerals, namely Ce/Ce*-in-zircon (Trail et al., 2012; Burnham and 1122 Berry, 2012; Smythe and Brenan, 2016), can be applied to "out of context" grains under specific 1123 circumstances, largely because independent thermometers for the mineral exist (e.g., Ti-in-zircon or zircon saturation models). This is because Ce⁴⁺/Ce³⁺ is not considered to be strongly fractionated from 1124 neighboring LREE by crystallization of additional phases during magmatic evolution. The same scenario is 1125 not true of magmatic apatite, and there are two major concerns regarding application of Equations 17 1126 and 18: (i) fractionation of Eu³⁺/Eu²⁺ during crystal-melt evolution can be influenced by the 1127 1128 crystallization of phase/s that preferentially partition one of the Eu valence species, thus giving rise to spurious estimates of the Eu/Eu*, and (ii) basaltic melts can have an intrinsic Eu³⁺/Eu²⁺ derived from the 1129 1130 composition of the melt source.

1131

Previous f_{0_2} -temperature experimental studies, combined with this study into basaltic systems, 1132 1133 demonstrate that augite, diopside and apatite (and on the basis of crystal structures/compositions, presumably olivine and spinel) all show partition coefficients where $D_{E_{11}2^+}^{Mineral/melt} < D_{E_{11}3^+}^{Mineral/melt}$, and 1134 where $D_{F_{13}}^{\text{Mineral/melt}}$ are approximately at or below unity (see Fig. 20). Calculations based on natural 1135 systems (e.g., Schnetzler and Philpotts, 1970; Jolliff et al., 1993, 2006) and experimental studies by 1136 Drake (1972) and Drake and Weill (1975), demonstrate that the partition coefficient of Eu²⁺ in 1137 plagioclase is significantly higher than for other REE³⁺. The experiments of Drake (1972) equilibrated at 1138 1290-1300 °C, for example, show $D_{Eu^{2+}}^{plag/basalt}$ =1.65, while $D_{Eu^{3+}}^{plag/basalt}$ =0.045 (at temperatures 1139 comparable to this study). This represents a two order of magnitude difference in partitioning among Eu 1140

1141 valence species, where one valence species is compatible and the other highly incompatible. This 1142 partitioning behavior, particularly in melts existing at an f_{0_2} that approximates the inflection point of the $Eu^{2+} \leftrightarrow Eu^{3+}$ sigmoid (i.e., existing at mixed valence state), has the capacity to significantly fractionate 1143 1144 bulk Eu from neighboring Sm and Gd (thus influencing estimates of f_{0_2} made from revised Equations 13 and 14; i.e., where melt composition cannot be analyzed). Moreover, these studies (Drake, 1972; Drake 1145 and Weill, 1975) indicate that while Eu³⁺ partitioning appears to be insensitive to temperature variations 1146 (i.e., the slope approaches zero in $\frac{1}{T} - \ln D_{Eu^{3+}}^{plag/basalt}$ space; with similar slopes observed for Sm and Gd), 1147 the partitioning of Eu²⁺ appears to show a notable temperature effect. The work of Drake (1972; 1975) 1148 1149 and Drake and Weill (1975) show an increasing compatibility with decreasing temperature (as is the case 1150 for most trace elements) – but this temperature effect is also accompanied by a change in plagioclase composition (from anorthitic to albitic compositions with decreasing temperature). The net result of 1151 1152 decreasing temperature and changing plagioclase composition is that a melt develops an increasing 1153 negative Eu anomaly with progressive plagioclase crystallization. Given the control of bulk composition 1154 on the liquid line of descent — particularly the temperatures, composition and quantity of plagioclase 1155 and apatite crystallization — each basaltic system likely needs to be considered individually (i.e., there is 1156 no unique solution that can be broadly applied among basalts). This being the case, if apatite and 1157 plagioclase crystallize at similar conditions, or the temperature-composition interval for each phase can be calculated, then the reciprocal relationship among the Eu/Eu* (i.e., intensity of the negative anomaly 1158 in apatite and positive anomaly in co-existing plagioclase) should converge on a common calculated f_{0_2} 1159 and could be used to evaluate f_{O_2} equilibria among co-existing phases. See Supplementary Material #4 1160 for a simplified example of calculating the effect of plagioclase fractionation on $\left[\left(\frac{\mathrm{Eu}}{\mathrm{Eu*}}\right)_{D}^{\sqrt{\mathrm{Sm}\times\mathrm{Gd}}}\right]$. 1161

1163 The second (ii) major concern regarding eq. 13 and eq. 14 (where melt composition cannot be 1164 measured), is whether the parent melt from which apatite saturates has an intrinsic Eu anomaly 1165 derived/inherited from the source material. Where global MORB or N-MORB or E-MORB appear to show 1166 no negative Eu anomaly, this likely relates to the lack of plagioclase in the mantle source region. This 1167 observation is not universally true of all basaltic melt sources. Lunar basalts, for example, all record a 1168 pronounced negative Eu anomaly thought to be related to the development of the lunar highlands (e.g., 1169 plagioclase fractionation from the lunar magma ocean). In cases where there is an intrinsic anomaly, it is possible to calculate the effect of an inherited negative europium anomaly (Eu/Eu*) if the melt Eu²⁺:Eu³⁺ 1170 1171 is fixed at a given f_{0_2} (i.e., defined by XANES data) and partitioning is concentration independent and constant. Examples for $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_D^{\sqrt{Sm\times Gd}}$ corrected for equilibrium fractionation of plagioclase and for 1172 1173 inherited Eu anomalies are presented in Supplementary Material #2. While these calculations involve simplifications, they do demonstrate methodologies that can be used to make Eu valence corrections. 1174

1175

1176 Clearly the 'best-case' scenario for all valence calibrations presented in this study involves situations 1177 where partitioning pairs (i.e., apatite-melt) can be calculated from melt inclusions hosted in apatite, or 1178 where apatite is found within glass, such that the two phases share a near contemporaneous 1179 temperature and chemical history. Whole rock analysis may be used to calculate REE concentrations 1180 within a melt, but the relative timing of phase crystallization (which can effectively fractionate among 1181 the REE) will be crucial to interpreting any calculated REE abundance. Similarly, if the melt composition 1182 changes significantly during fractional crystallization and REE are fractionated during crystallization of an 1183 accessory phase, bulk analysis can lead to spurious calculations.

1184

1185 Implications and conclusions

1186	This experimental study demonstrates that partitioning of Eu valence species into apatite can be used as
1187	an effective oxygen fugacity sensor. The REE content of apatite, like other phases that may potentially
1188	crystallize from metaluminous melts (e.g., zircon, pyroxene, etc.), can be used to determine redox
1189	conditions $[log(f_{0_2})]$ in basaltic systems over a 1110-1175 °C range (i.e., the temperatures broadly
1190	approximating the near-solidus in a dry basalt at 1 bar pressure). Application of this calibration is best
1191	carried out in systems where co-existing apatite and glass are present (e.g., melt inclusions in volcanic
1192	apatite phenocrysts or where glass-apatite are immediately adjacent), under such circumstances no
1193	corrections for fractionation (e.g., plagioclase crystallization) or inherited anomalies need be considered.
1194	Numerous studies into the various meteorite and Apollo collections, which demonstrate apatite
1195	abundance within a range of mafic rocks, suggest that the calibration has broad application and can be
1196	used to evaluate the oxidation state of numerous terrestrial bodies.

1197

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1444 Tables now attached in .xls format



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1448Figure 1: (a) [001] projection of the apatite structure differentiating Ca(1) (red) and Ca(2) (orange) cation1449sites (image modified after Hughes and Rakovan, 2015). Unit cell indicated by heavy black line. (b) 9-1450coordinated or ^[VI+III]Ca(1) site, simplified 6-coordinated Ca(1) model and ball-and-stick model. (c) 7-1451coordinated or ^[VIII]Ca(2) site, simplified 6-coordinated Ca(2) model and ball-stick model.



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1455 Figure 2: Demonstration of the two EPMA-based techniques used to calculate $(Eu/Eu^*)_D$ in this study as 1456 shown from experiment ApREE-03b (Mo-MoO₂ buffer) and described by Equations 13 and 14. (a) the lattice strain parabola (dashed curve) - fit to La, Ce, Sm, Gd and Lu data - can be used to constrain the 1457 partition coefficient for Eu³⁺; i.e., a scenario where only trivalent Eu is present in the silicate melt. In this 1458 calculation $(Eu/Eu^*)_D$ is defined as the measured Eu content (grey circle) divided by the theoretical Eu³⁺ 1459 content of a monovalent Eu³⁺-bearing system defined by the lattice strain parabola (white circle). (b) the 1460 $(Eu/Eu^*)_D$ defined by neighboring REE - Gd and Sm. The numerator or $D_{Eu}^{Apatite/basalt}$ in this calculation is directly measured (grey circle), while the denominator or $\left(\sqrt{D_{Sm}^{Apatite/basalt} \times D_{Gd}^{Apatite/basalt}}\right)$ (white 1461 1462 symbol) is calculated from Sm and Gd measurements. In this type of calculation (Eu/Eu*)_D is represented 1463 by the ratio defined by grey arrow between numerator and denominator. All black symbols correspond 1464
to isovalent elements measured from this experiment (including Ce, as Ce⁴⁺ appears to be highly incompatible in apatite) that can be used to define the REE³⁺Onuma diagram. Note that all ionic radii assume 6-coordination (see text, Klemme and Dalpé, 2003 for details).

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Figure 3: Experimental setup for ApREE experiments. Note that M-MO buffer represents a metal-metal oxide solid state f_{0_2} buffer (e.g., Ni-NiO). Note that left-hand and right-hand capsules include nested solid state buffers, while the middle experiment example includes a participatory buffer capsule (graphite).

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Figure 4: Post-experiment images from different solid state f_{0_2} buffers. (a)-(c) BSE images from experiments ApREE-07 (Mo-MoO₂), ApREE-13b (W-WO₂), ApREE-06 (Fe-FeO). In all examples the bright phase represents the metal compound and the lower BSE intensity (grey) material represents the metal oxide compound. (d) Optical photomicrograph from ApREE-01a (Ni-NiO), where NiO is shown in green and Ni metal in small metallic balls.

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Figure 5: Representative photomicrographs of experimental run products. (a)-(d) BSE images from experiments, Ap = apatite, PI = plagioclase feldspar, melt = basaltic glass, Sch = schreibersite and Merr = merrillite. (e)-(f) Cathodoluminescence (CL) image from combined red-green-blue (RGB) filters from

1498 experiment ApREE-02a. Note the different phases present within experimental charges are easily 1499 distinguished by the wavelength of luminescence (i.e., experimental plagioclase crystals tend to 1500 luminesce at blue wavelengths, while apatites luminesce at red wavelengths). (g)-(h) Representative BSE 1501 images taken over LA-ICP-MS spots from experimental runs, note: the locus of the laser spot within 1502 apatite crystals. (i) BSE or grayscale CL from apatite crystals from various experiments showing the crystal habit from left-to-right: ApREE-01b (NNO), ApREE-03 (WM), ApREE-01a (NNO), ApREE-06 (QFM) 1503 1504 and ApREE-12 (WM). Scale bar for BSE images in (i) are all 20 μm. Note that all experiments, with the 1505 exception of ApREE-01b which shows apatite seeds from the apatite capsule, show sharp euhedral habit 1506 indicative of equilibrium growth.

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1511 Figure 6.1: Normalized Eu L₃ XANES features from experiments. (a) Spectra from representative apatite experiments, where numerical values correspond to different $log(f_{0_2})$ defined in the experimental 1512 charge. (b) L₃ XANES spectra from co-existing glass (in grey) and apatite (in black) from experiment 1513 ApREE-07 (Mo-MoO₂, log(f_{O_2})= -12.36). (c) L_3 XANES spectra from standard Eu compounds measured in 1514 transmission mode. Note the dominant white line for Eu²⁺ (measured here on EuTiO₃) exists at lower 1515 energy (6975.5 eV) and normalized intensity (~2.5 arbitrary units) than Eu³⁺ compounds (here measured 1516 on EuPO₄, EuCl₃, Eu(NO₃)₃·5H₂O, Eu₂O₃; with a normalized intensity between 3.0-3.5 arbitrary units). 1517 1518 Note that individual Eu standards in (c) are stepped by 0.5 units for clarity. (d) Least squares regression from XANES spectrum from experiment ApREE-06 (QFM), where the edge-step is approximated by an 1519 arc tangent, Eu²⁺ and Eu³⁺ components are modeled as Gaussians and the residual are plotted. 1520



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1523 Figure 6.2: Representative and normalized Eu L_3 XANES orientation scans from experiments (a) ApREE-1524 12 and (b) ApREE-02. Reference orientation for flyscan image is at 0° (i.e., north position). Rotations 1525 indicated by arrows in (a) and (b) match color-coded spectra in (d), with rotation indicated by arrows or 1526 degree symbols. RGB ternary image corresponds to X-ray fluorescence maps involving Ti K α , Ca K α and 1527 Eu L α lines, making it possible to identify and distinguish regions of glass/apatite for analysis. Glass 1528 regions generally represented by light blue hues while apatite grains are represented by red-pinkish 1529 hues. Eu L_3 XANES features from oriented experiments, where (c) corresponds to all glass and apatite 1530 analysis from experiment ApREE-12, and (d) corresponds to the 4 individual apatite crystals measured at the 3 reference orientation (0° in solid black curves, 60° in large dashed blue curves and 120° in short 1531 1532 red dashed curves). Note that the syn-KREEP 15386-01a glass records almost no observable orientation

1533 effect because it is isotropic, while apatite shows very minor variations due to the anisotropic nature of

the crystal structure.

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Figure 7: Optical luminescence observed from ApREE experiments, with the incident X-ray beam approaching the sample from 45° to the right. (a) Blue to purple luminescence observed within apatite crystal in ApREE-15X with analysis carried out on crystal polished perpendicular to the c-axis. (b) Blue luminescence from ApREE-15X conducted on apatite crystal near-parallel to the c-axis (c) Red luminescence observed in merrillite from experiment ApREE-01a. (d) Very limited optical luminescence observed on glass from ApREE-09. (e) Diagram illustrating the relationship between the focused beam (2x2 μm at the crystal surface) and X-ray absorption path. The observed X-ray fluorescence in

- apatite/merrillite (~28 μm) is close to2 absorption lengths (49.2/2=24.7 μm; where the division accounts
- 1545 for the 45° angle of the sample) as predicted by Hephaestus.

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Figure 8: Time-resolved LA-ICP-MS analysis from apatite in experiment ApREE-03a. Note the lack of Si counts in the time-resolved spectra (when combined with BSE observations from the locus of ablation)

1551 indicating clean apatite analysis.



Figure 9: (a) Frequency distribution histograms for individual REE oxides based on 34 REE EPMA analyses from 4 apatite grains in experiment ApREE-06 (QFM). Note that each REE shows a normal distribution,

1556 with the average and 1 σ projected. (b) Sm₂O₃ and Gd₂O₃ analyses from different synthetic apatite grains 1557 from experiment ApREE-06 (QFM). Different symbols correspond to analyses from a single grain, error 1558 bar in 1δ and shaded grey region corresponds to range of detection limit from all analyses. Note the 1559 clustering of data demonstrates almost no inter-grain variation in Gd- and Sm-content, arguably among 1560 the two most important elements when constraining Eu/Eu*, is observed in experiments. (c) and (e) 1561 comparison of EPMA data (with analytical uncertainty; open circles with error bars) and LA-ICP-MS data 1562 (solid circles with error bars) for both apatite and glass. Note that EPMA detection limit as indicated and LA-ICP-MS detection limit (at ppb levels) essentially correspond to the origin of the graph. (d) and (f) 1563 Intrinsic, inter-grain or inter-glass uncertainty from repeat analyses from an experimental charge. 1564

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Figure 10: Measured SiO₂ vs P₂O₅ of experimental glasses from this study. Solid curve corresponds to the 1571 1165 °C apatite saturation curve and the dashed curve corresponds to the 1200 °C apatite saturation 1572 curve defined by the f_{O_2} buffered experiments of Watson (1979). Symbols as indicated and error in 2σ .

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1580 Figure 11: (a) ΣREE_2O_3 (assuming CeO₂ and EuO components are negligible, which is consistent with 1581 partitioning data, XANES measurements and Eu/Eu* data) versus SiO₂ content of experimental apatite crystals. Error bars are in 2g. (b) Calculated 'REE+Si' versus 'Ca+P' projection in atoms per formula unit 1582 1583 (apfu) for all experimental apatite from this study (light grey circles), average from all experiments from 1584 this study (with 1 δ ; solid black circle) and measured compositions from comparable REE partitioning data in mafic apatite-silicate melt experiments by Watson and Green (1981; open circles). Note the 1585 dashed 1:1 curve corresponds to the coupled substitution of $REE^{3+} + Si^{4+} = Ca^{2+} + P^{5+}$. Calculations are 1586 based on 25 oxygens and assume only Eu³⁺ and Ce³⁺ are present. 1587

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Figure 12: (a) Comparison of apatite/silicate melt partition coefficients from this study (ApREE experiments shown by black symbols curves); Watson and Green (1981, shown by grey circles and solid grey curves), and; Prowatke and Klemme (2006, shown by grey triangles and dashed grey curves). (b) Bulk REE content of apatite versus $D_{La}^{Apatite/melt}/D_{Lu}^{Apatite/melt}$ (or LREE:HREE), symbols as in (a). Note: melt* is used because previous studies (Watson and Green, 1981; Prowatke and Klemme, 2006) include a range of silicate melt types (i.e., not strictly basalt).

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Figure 13: Lattice strain model fits from experiments. (a) REE³⁺ partition coefficients with lattice strain 1600 models from apatite in all individual experiment data of monovalent ^[VI]REE³⁺ from this study (black 1601 1602 circles), compared with data reported from basanite and tholeiitic andesite by Watson and Green (1981). Note that Ce is included in the model dataset because partitioning data indicates no influence 1603 from Ce⁴⁺ over the observed experimental conditions. Error bars reported in 1 σ or where absent smaller 1604 1605 than symbols. (b) REE³⁺ partition coefficients with lattice strain models from apatite four representative 1606 experiments using both EPMA (closed circles, dashed lattice strain curve) and LA-ICP-MS (open triangles, 1607 solid lattice strain curve) techniques. Note the two techniques record similar partitioning values, similar error and similar lattice strain model topology. (c) Lattice strain fits from experiments containing co-1608 existing apatite and merrillite (ApREE-01a and ApREE-04), showing relative REE³⁺ partitioning among the 1609 two phosphate phases co-existing with basalt (diamonds correspond to merrillite and circles correspond 1610 to apatite). Note data obtained from EPMA, while merrillite ionic radii correspond to 8-coordinated sites 1611 1612 of the dominant Ca sites within the mineral with elements in the Figure including La, Ce, Sm, Gd, and Lu 1613 (from right to left).

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1615	(d) REE ³⁺ partition coefficients with lattice strain models from merrillite based on EPMA (including
1616	experiments ApREE-01a and ApREE-04, solid circles, dashed curves) and LA-ICP-MS (experiment ApREE-
1617	03a, open triangles, solid curve). Note that though the two techniques show similar topology and error,
1618	though direct comparison of data is not possible.

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1622 Figure 14: (a) Raw EPMA data from experiment ApREE-03b glass analyses, where colors correspond to 1623 individual REE₂O₃ (yellow = Lu₂O₃, salmon = Gd₂O₃, black = Eu₂O₃, green = Dy₂O₃, pink = Ce₂O₃ and white 1624 = La_2O_3 . The reported uncertainty (δ) on data points represents the intrinsic error to the EPMA setup 1625 and is based on counting statistics. Also note that n=21 from this experiment. (b) raw EPMA data from 1626 apatite from the same experiment ApREE-03b, where REE₂O₃ colors are consistent with previous figure, 1627 and n=8. (c) Individual, apatite-glass partition data from experiment ApREE-03b, where color represents 1628 a given apatite-glass analytical pair used to make Eu/Eu* calculations (n=8). (d) Apatite/basalt partition coefficients as determined by EPMA from a series of isothermal (1150 °C) experiments equilibrated at 1629 different redox buffers. Note the intensity of the negative Eu anomaly (or $Eu/Eu^*)_D$ increases with 1630 1631 decreasing $[log(f_{0_2})]$. HM = hematite-magnetite buffer $[log(f_{0_2})=-3.28]$, Ni-NiO buffer $[log(f_{0_2})=-8.31]$, 1632 and graphite-CO-CO₂ buffer [log(f_{O_2})=-14.51]. Error bars reported in (d) as 1 σ .

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Figure 15: (a) Peak height intensity from Eu^{2+} and Eu^{3+} gaussian curves fit to apatite $Eu L_3$ XANES data from all experiments used to calculate $Eu^{3+}/\Sigma Eu$. Note the insert represents a single fit to an $Eu L_3$ XANES spectra from experiment ApREE-09 and is shown for guidance (with dashed purple curve = Eu^{2+} gaussian, dashed blue curve = Eu^{3+} gaussian, dashed black curve represents the arc tangent, solid red curve = model spectra and black curve represents measured spectrum. (b) Valence sigmoid from $Eu L_3$ XANES

1642 data from Table 6 fits to *eq. 11* (least squares) from in-situ analyses of (b) apatite crystals, and (c) co-1643 existing glass from individual experiments (black circles) compared to experimental data in basalt 1644 presented by Karner et al. (2010; assuming equilibration at 1130 °C). It should be noted that the Karner 1645 et al. (2010) data was not included in the sigmoidal, least squares fit. Error reported in 1 σ and where 1646 absent is smaller than symbols.



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Figure 16: Apatite/melt partition coefficients of isovalent REE^{3+} at various f_{0_2} as determined by EPMA (noting that while Ce is polyvalent, the data indicate only Ce³⁺ is compatible in apatite; see text). Linear regressions for individual elements are represented by sub-horizontal dashed curves and error bars represent 1 σ . Note: the near constant partition coefficient observed among the isovalent REE³⁺ demonstrates these elements are unaffected by f_{0_2} over the experimental range. Symbols as indicated; uncertainties are +/- 1 σ .

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Figure 17: (a) Comparison of (Eu/Eu^{*}) in apatite as determined by lattice strain (i.e., $\left(\frac{\text{Eu}}{\text{Eu}^*}\right)_D^{\text{lattice strain}}$ 1675) versus (Eu/Eu*) as determined by the concentration of neighboring REEs Sm-Gd (i.e., $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu^*}\right)_D^{Sm-Gd}$). Open 1676 symbols represent LA-ICP-MS data and closed symbols represent EPMA data. (b) Comparison of 1677 1678 (Eu/Eu*) as determined by neighboring REEs Sm-Gd versus Eu/ΣEu determined from XANES for experiments where both analytical techniques have been applied. (c) Comparison of REE concentration 1679 1680 reported in REE₂O₃ (including La₂O₃, Ce₂O₃, Sm₂O₃, Eu₂O₃, Gd₂O₃, Lu₂O₃) analyses from glass as determined by LA-ICP-MS and EPMA. (d) Comparison of REE_2O_3 analyses (same elemental oxides as 1681 1682 listed in Fig.15c) from apatite grains within an individual experiment as determined by LA-ICP-MS and 1683 EPMA. Error bars represent 1 σ . Note: dashed curves in graphs (a) and (d) represent 1:1 curve across the 1684 two analytical techniques being compared (i.e., EPMA vs LA-ICP-MS, etc).

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Figure 18: Eu valence speciation curves for apatite-basalt defined by experiments and obtained through least squares regression to data from Supplement 2. (a) $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu^*}\right)_D^{Sm-Gd}$ calibration curve as determined by EPMA, error in 1 σ . (b) $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu^*}\right)_D^{\text{lattice strain}}$ calibration curve as determined by EPMA, error in 1 δ . Closed circles in both figures represent EPMA data and open circles correspond to LA-ICP-MS data.

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FeO* (wt%)

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0

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1700

Figure 19: Average FeO* from ApREE experimental glasses vs $\log(f_{0_2})$. Note that most experiments at very reducing conditions [i.e., $\log(f_{0_2})$ <-12] report low FeO* and generally show the presence of schreibersite.

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 $log(f_{O_2})$

-4



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1707 Figure 20: Measured REE partition coefficients in experiments containing co-existing merrillite and 1708 apatite within syn-KREEP 15386-01a basalt. (a) Data from experiments ApREE-01a, ApREE-03a, ApREE-04 1709 from oxidized experiments (i.e., Fe₂O₃-Fe₃O₄ or Ni-NiO buffers), where triangles correspond to RE-1710 merrillite analyses, circles correspond to apatite analyses, open symbols represent LA-ICP-MS analyses 1711 and closed symbols represent electron microprobe analyses. Error is in 1σ. Note that ionic radii in (a) 1712 corresponds to a theoretical 6-coordinated site (as in Figure 2) and is not an accurate projection for 1713 merrillite but is used such that the two different crystal structures can be directly comparted via 1714 projection. The relative topography of the Onuma diagram and depth of the Eu anomaly in (a) can, 1715 however, be used as a guide to the relative partitioning behavior between merrillite-basalt and apatitebasalt. (b) Direct comparison of $\left(\frac{Eu}{Eu*}\right)_D^{Sm-Gd}$ or intensity of the negative Eu anomaly in co-existing 1716

- 1717 merrillite and apatite for the same set of experiments (i.e., ApREE-01a, ApREE-03a and ApREE-04) with
- 1718 direct comparison to 1:1 curve. As in previous figure open symbols correspond to LA-ICP-MS analyses
- 1719 and closed symbols correspond to electron microprobe analyses.

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Figure 21: Linear regressions to Eu partition coefficients for Eu^{3+} (grey diamonds) and Eu^{2+} (black circles; preferred values) determined from experiments where both EPMA and Eu L_3 XANES data has been obtained. Error reported as 1σ .

	Table 1			
		15386, 19	15386, 1	15386-01a [†]
in wt% oxide				
	SiO ₂	50.28	50.83	46.31
	TiO ₂	1.9	2.23	2.08
	AI_2O_3	15.3	14.77	13.98
	Cr_2O_3	0.36	0.31	n/i
	FeO	10.2	10.55	9.6
	MnO	0.15	0.16	n/i
	MgO	10.5	8.17	7.77
	CaO	9.5	9.71	12.23
	Na ₂ O	0.81	0.73	0.74
	K ₂ O	0.5	0.67	0.62
	P_2O_5	n/a	0.7	3.62
	F	n/a	n/a	0.6
in ppm				
	La	58	83.5	1950.2
	Ce	147	211	3860.6
	Sm	25.5	37.5	1936.1
	Eu	2.4	2.72	9163.4
	Gd	n/a	45.4	1926.1
	Lu	2.48	n/a	2210.9

⁺synthetic starting material used in this study

n/a = not analyzed

n/i = not included in starting mix

Table 2					
Experiment #	fO ₂ buffer	$\log(f O_2)$	Temp (°C)	Time (mins)	Capsule
ApREE-01a	NNO	-8.02	1175	1380	AgPd
ApREE-01b	NNO	-8.02	1175	1380	Apatite
ApREE-02a	IW	-12.26	1175	2660	AgPd
ApREE-02b	IW	-12.26	1175	2660	AgPd
		0.04	4450	750	
ApREE-03a	NNO	-8.31	1150	/50	AgPd
ApREE-03b	MMO	-12.59	1150	750	Мо
AnREE-04	нм	-3.28	1150	1145	ΔσPd
	11111	5.20	1150	1145	Agi u
ApREE-06	QFM	-9.02	1150	720	AgPd
ApREE-06	IW	-12.59	1150	720	Fe
ApREE-07	HM	-3.28	1150	1500	AgPd
ApREE-07	MMO	-12.36	1150	1500	AgPd
ApREE-09	G-CO-CO ₂	-14.51	1150	1275	Graphite
	0.00.00				
Apree-12	G-CO-CO ₂	-14.93	1110	1090	Graphite
ApREE-12	NNO	-8.81	1110	1090	AgPd
ApREE-12	WM	-10.63	1110	1090	AgPd
ApREE-13a	QFM	-9.53	1110	1590	AgPd
ApREE-13b	WWO	-11.83	1110	1590	AgPd
AnREE-15X	1\\/	-13 15	1110	1020	ΔσPd
ΔnRFF-15Λ-01		_12.07	1110	1020	ΔσDd
$A p R E E_{15} A_{01}$		-12.97	1110	1020	Agru An
APINEL-13A-02		-12.97	1110	1020	×μ

Run products glass, ap, merr, plag glass, ap, plag glass, ap, plag glass, ap glass, ap, merr, plag glass, ap, plag, pyx glass, merr, ap, plag glass, ap glass, ap, pyx glass, ap glass, ap glass, ap, schrib glass, ap, plag, schrib glass, ap, plag, spinel glass, ap, px glass, ap only melt glass, ap, plag glass, ap, plag glass, ol, ap

ubie 3 Werninte compo		es anu apru				
	ApREE-01a		ApREE-03a		ApREE-04	
n	24 (3)		48 (7)		15 (3)	
Composition (in wt% oxic	oxide	δ	oxide	δ	oxide	δ
P_2O_5	42.9	2.03	42.65	0.94	41.46	1.62
SiO ₂	0.55	0.02	0.65	0.34	1.5	1.02
AI_2O_3	0.02	0.01	0.21	0.6	0.21	0.3
FeO	0.34	0.05	0.65	0.06	0.36	0.14
MnO	bdl	-	bdl	-	bdl	-
MgO	3.45	0.06	3.57	0.13	3.85	0.14
CaO	41.54	0.18	41.36	0.77	40.36	0.49
Na ₂ O	0.05	0.03	0.05	0.03	0.08	0.02
TiO ₂	bdl	-	bdl	-	0.04	0.03
K ₂ O	bdl	-	bdl	-	bdl	-
La_2O_3	1.08	0.04	1.11	0.06	1.06	0.05
Ce ₂ O ₃	2.23	0.06	2.32	0.11	2.19	0.07
Sm ₂ O ₃	1.26	0.04	1.26	0.07	1.26	0.03
Eu ₂ O ₃	5.24	0.07	5.46	0.27	5.75	0.09
Gd_2O_3	1.47	0.05	1.42	0.09	1.46	0.04
Lu_2O_3	0.39	0.04	0.52	0.06	0.38	0.02
Cl	bdl	-	bdl	-	bdl	-
F	bdl	-	bdl	-	bdl	-
Total	100.55	2.03	101.3	1.16	99.98	1.18
ations per 56 oxygen at						
Р	13.74		13.62		13.39	
Si	0.21		0.24		0.57	
$\sum_{i=1}^{(P,Si)_{triva}}$	13.95				13.96	
Al	bdl		0.09		0.09	
Ti	bdl		0.01		0.01	
Fe	0.11		0.2		0.11	
Mg	1.95		2.01		2.19	
Са	16.84		16.72		16.49	
Na	0.04		0.04		0.06	
La	0.15		0.15		0.15	
Ce	0.31		0.32		0.31	
Sm	0.16		0.16		0.17	
Eu	0.68		0.7		0.75	
Gd	0.18		0.18		0.18	
Lu	0.04		0.06		0.04	
(cations)	20.46		20.54		20.45	

(REE)	1.53	1.58	1.6
(Mg.Fe)	2.05	2.21	2.3

n = number of analyses (individual grains analyzed)

 $\sum (P,Si)_{max}$ = sum of phosphorus and silica on the tetrahedral site in merrillite (in apfu)

Table 4Comparison of apatite-melt experiments

			Experiment	al melt compos
Reference	Pressure (GPa)	Temperature (°C)	SiO ₂	Na ₂ O
This study	1	1110 – 1175	39.7 – 50.2	0.2 – 0.8
Prowatke and Klemme	1	1250	35.9 – 61.5	1.3 – 16.8
Watson and Green	0.75 – 2.0	950 – 1120	40.1 - 69.6	3.0 - 4.0

⁺The Prowatke and Klemme (2006) experiments contain no initial H_2O within the melt but hydroxyapatite within the starting material (i.e., a potential H_2O source).

ition (wt%)				
H ₂ O				
0				
0.0 ^Ŧ				
0.0-10.4				

: does contain

Table 5: Lattice strain parameters derived from parabolic fits to equation 5						
Ехре	eriment	<i>Т</i> (°С)	log <i>(f</i> 0 ₂)	E (GPa)	δ	r _o (Å)
This study						
EPMA	ApREE-01a	1175	-8.02	393	19	0.959
	ApREE-03a	1150	-8.31	372	28	0.957
	ApREE-03b	1150	-12.59	335	18	0.958
	ApREE-04	1150	-3.28	337	25	0.962
	ApREE-06	1150	-9.02	387	5	0.956
	ApREE-06	1150	-12.59	391	4	0.96
	ApREE-07	1150	-3.28	339	34	0.95
	ApREE-07	1150	-12.36	313	22	0.968
	ApREE-09	1150	-14.51	487	22	0.958
	ApREE-12	1110	-14.93	366	11	0.959
	ApREE-12	1110	-8.81	406	6	0.956
	ApREE-13A	1110	-11.83	417	28	0.95
	ApREE-15X	1110	-13.15	388	3	0.953
	ApREE-15A-1	1110	-12.97	427	6	0.96
	ApREE-15A-2	1110	-12.97	318	49	0.958
LA-ICP-MS	ApREE-03a	1150	-8.31	244	5	0.954
	ApREE-03b	1150	-12.36	157	30	0.957
	ApREE-07	1150	-3.28	293	9	0.953
	ApREE-09	1150	-14.51	316	152	0.953
	Average			352	25	0.957
Klemme and Da	lpé (2003)					
	BS19	1250	uc.	223	28	0.943
	BS23	1250	uc.	321	95	0.94
	BS25	1250	uc.	405	170	0.94
	Average			316	97	0.941
Watson and Green (1981)						
	818	1080	uc.	327	16	0.96
	822	1120	uc.	385	4	0.952
	Average			356	10	0.956

uc. = unconstrained (i.e., run at intrinsic oxygen fugacity of the experimental medium)
δ	ln(D ₀)	δ
0.002	0.416	0.021
0.002	0.347	0.031
0.002	0.335	0.019
0.003	0.285	0.027
0	0.489	0.006
0	0.824	0.004
0.003	0.427	0.039
0.003	0.663	0.023
0.002	0.659	0.025
0.001	0.673	0.012
0	0.539	0.007
0.002	0.518	0.032
0	0.633	0.004
0.001	0.55	0.007
0.005	0.663	0.056
0.001	0 359	0.008
0.001	0.836	0.000
0.005	0.000	0.045
0.12	1.501	0.246
0.009	0.587	0.041
0.004	0.55	0.02
0.01	0.5	0.05
0.01	0.47	0.05
0.008	0.507	0.04
0.001	1.64	0.03
<0.001	1.72	<0.01
0.001	1.68	0.01

Table 7	(Eu3+/ΣEu)Ap as determined by Eu L3 XANES on oriented Apatite					
	0	Orientation	Eu ²⁺			
Experiment	Scan #	(relative to north)	(φ _(6975.5 eV))	sigma		
ApREE-12						
	ApREE_12_ap4_0	0°	4.960	0.152		
	ApREE_12_ap4_60	60°	4.977	0.154		
	ApREE_12_ap4_120	120°	5.924	0.160		
	ApREE_12_ap3_0	0°	5.815	0.161		
	ApREE_12_ap3_60	60°	5.606	0.154		
	ApREE_12_ap3_120	120°	5.715	0.156		
	ApREE_12_ap2_0	0°	6.072	0.160		
	ApREE_12_ap2_60	60°	5.756	0.162		
	ApREE_12_ap2_120	120°	5.823	0.159		
	ApREE_12_ap1_0	0°	5.956	0.168		
	ApREE_12_ap1_60	60°	5.851	0.181		
	ApREE_12_ap1_120	120°	6.120	0.165		
	Average		5.722	0.161		
	Standard deviation		0.337	0.009		
ApREE-02						
	ApREE_2_ap1_0	0°	5.154	0.138		
	ApREE_2_ap1_60	60°	4.679	0.147		
	ApREE_2_ap1_120	120°	5.486	0.145		
	ApREE_2_ap2_0	0°	5.723	0.157		
	ApREE_2_ap2_60	60°	5.529	0.148		
	ApREE_2_ap2_120	120°	5.620	0.148		
	ApREE_2_ap3_0	0°	5.282	0.143		
	ApREE_2_ap3_60	60°	5.690	0.149		
	ApREE_2_ap3_120	120°	5.721	0.155		
	ApREE_2_ap4_0	0°	5.934	0.155		
	ApREE_2_ap4_60	60°	5.580	0.150		
	ApREE_2_ap4_120	120°	5.370	0.148		
	Average		5.481	0.149		
	Standard deviation		0.330	0.005		

Average orientation-dependent % variaton in $\text{Eu}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Eu}$ Standard deviation

Eu ³⁺ (φ _(6983.3 eV))	sigma	arctan	χ²	reduced χ^2	R-factor	Eu ³⁺ /ΣEu	% valence change (Δ°)
12.588	0.109	1.034	0.285	0.002	0.001	0.717	
13.467	0.120	1.013	0.364	0.002	0.002	0.730	7.848
12.184	0.114	1.029	0.319	0.002	0.001	0.673	
12.398	0.117	1.032	0.333	0.002	0.001	0.681	
12.987	0.118	1.001	0.358	0.003	0.002	0.698	2.989
12.012	0.109	1.041	0.280	0.002	0.001	0.678	
11.377	0.103	1.082	0.240	0.002	0.001	0.652	
12.692	0.114	1.074	0.308	0.002	0.001	0.688	5.229
11.838	0.109	1.039	0.279	0.002	0.001	0.670	
11.708	0.112	1.072	0.284	0.002	0.001	0.663	
12.667	0.120	1.086	0.329	0.002	0.002	0.684	5.406
11.220	0.107	1.072	0.254	0.002	0.001	0.647	
12.383	0.114	1.044	0.311	0.002	0.001	0.684	
0.711	0.005	0.031	0.039	0.000	0.000	0.024	
12.002	0.107	1.035	0.239	0.002	0.001	0.700	
12.363	0.101	1.059	0.221	0.002	0.001	0.725	7.215
11.296	0.093	1.089	0.182	0.001	0.001	0.673	
11.785	0.107	1.040	0.251	0.002	0.001	0.673	
11.542	0.097	1.078	0.207	0.002	0.001	0.676	1.366
11.251	0.095	1.063	0.197	0.001	0.001	0.667	
11.758	0.095	1.071	0.198	0.001	0.001	0.690	
11.500	0.098	1.071	0.206	0.002	0.001	0.669	5.803
10.624	0.101	1.144	0.171	0.001	0.001	0.650	
11.157	0.097	1.106	0.195	0.001	0.001	0.653	
11.492	0.097	1.085	0.201	0.001	0.001	0.673	3.023
10.761	0.097	1.112	0.163	0.001	0.001	0.667	
11 461	0.000	1 070	0 202	0.001	0.001	0 676	
11.401	0.099	1.0/9 0.021	0.203	0.001	0.001	0.021	
0.492	0.004	0.031	0.025	0.000	0.000	0.021	
							<u> </u>
							7.000

Table 6						
(Eu $^{3+}$ /SEu) _{Ap} as determ	ninde by Eu	L ₃ XANES Ap	atite-melt at	random	orientations	
Experiment	т (к)	buffer	log (fO2)	n	(Eu ³⁺ /ΣEu) _{Ap}	(δ)
ApREE-01a	1448	NNO	-8.02	6	0.867	0.004
ApREE-02	1448	IW	-12.26	12	0.676	0.021
ApREE-03a	1423	NNO	-8.31	1	0.884	n/a
ApREE-04	1423	HM	-3.28	2	0.907	0.009
ApREE-06	1423	QFM	-9.02	3	0.858	0.005
ApREE-07	1423	HM	-3.28	3	0.882	0.007
ApREE-07	1423	MMO	-12.36	2	0.751	0.021
ApREE-09	1423	C-CO-CO ₂	-14.51	6	0.567	0.053
ApREE-12	1383	NNO	-8.81	2	0.868	0.004
ApREE-15X	1383	IW	-13.15	3	0.647	0.037
ApREE-2b	1448	IW	-12.59		0.676	0.021

preferred parition coefficients

Experiment	т (К)	buffer	log (fO2)	n	(Eu ³⁺ /ΣEu) _{Melt}	(δ)
ApREE-01a	1448	NNO	-8.02	2	0.900	0.003
ApREE-03a	1423	NNO	-8.31	1	0.898	n/a
ApREE-04	1423	HM	-3.28	2	0.933	0.000
ApREE-06	1423	QFM	-9.02	2	0.867	0.002
ApREE-07	1423	HM	-3.28	2	0.924	0.001
ApREE-07	1423	MMO	-12.36	2	0.581	0.002
ApREE-09	1423	C-CO-CO ₂	-14.51	5	0.355	0.006
ApREE-12	1383	NNO	-8.81	2	0.893	0.004
ApREE-15X	1383	IW	-13.15	2	0.515	0.000

(Eu/Eu*) ^{sm-Ga}	(δ)	χ ² <i>D</i> _{Eu3+}		D _{Eu2+}	
0.94	0.14	0.28	1.35	1.87	
#REF!	#REF!	0.20	n/a	n/a	
0.98	0.09	0.29	1.33	1.53	
1.03	0.11	0.41	1.29	1.83	
0.99	0.09	0.31	1.57	1.70	
1.03	0.18	0.34	1.52	2.48	
0.74	0.12	0.28	1.70	0.78	
0.71	0.15	0.19	2.13	0.89	
0.98	0.11	0.36	1.59	2.00	
0.69	0.11	0.24	1.60	0.93	
0.72	0.21				
			1.81	0.87	
(Eu/Eu*) ^{Sm-Gd}	(δ)	χ ²			

0.28

0.31

0.42

0.33

0.36

0.24 0.29

0.35

0.26

0.94

0.98

1.03

0.99

1.03

0.74

0.71

0.98

0.69

0.14

0.09

0.11

0.09

0.18

0.12

0.15

0.11

0.11