MOON UNITED: MEASURING COSMIC-RAY EXPOSURE AGES OF PRISTINE SAMPLE HORIZONS. N. M. Curran<sup>1</sup>, B. A. Cohen<sup>1</sup>, S. N. Valencia<sup>1</sup>, C. M. Corrigan<sup>2</sup>, E. S. Bullock<sup>3</sup>; <sup>1</sup>NASA Goddard Space Flight Center (natalie.m.curran@nasa.gov), <sup>2</sup>National Museum of Natural History, Smithsonian Institution, <sup>3</sup>Geophysical Laboratory, Carnegie Institution for Science

**Introduction:** The Moon United team of the Apollo Next Generation Sample Analysis consortium will measure the noble gas budgets of a variety of particles from both shadowed soils and drive tubes to understand the site lithologies and complement volatile and organic compound analyses.

The lunar regolith is the boundary between the surface of the Moon and the dynamic space environment. The regolith preserves a record of the Moon's geologic history, its interaction with the solar wind and cosmic rays, and its modification by asteroid and cometary impacts [1-4]. Unlike the Earth, the Moon has an insufficiently thick exosphere and is thought not to have had a significant magnetic field to protect it from the space environment. As a result, particles from the solar wind, the lunar interior, and the wider environment (e.g., solar cosmic rays (SCRs), galactic cosmic rays (GCRs), micrometeorites) directly interact with the regolith.

Over the last 4.5 billion years, volatile compounds (such as water) and organic compounds have also been exogenically and endogenically added to the lunar surface [5-7]. Volatiles have been implanted in the regolith by the solar wind [8, 9] and trapped as they escape the lunar interior [7, 10, 11]. Both volatiles and organic molecules have been delivered by asteroidal and cometary impacts over time [12-15]. Furthermore, volatiles and organics may be produced during the interaction of the solar wind and cosmic rays with surface exposed material [16-19].

Noble gases are a powerful tool for measuring these potential sources of input and destruction on the Moon. Noble-gas ratios and abundances provide important constraints on the amount and history of the solar wind and cosmic ray exposure record, indigenous degassing, and impact processing of the lunar surface [20]. These parameters help reveal the geologic history of a specific landing site.

Soils, breccias and rock fragments collected from the surface of the Moon have, at least in the last few million years, all been exposed to surface processes, including exposure to cosmic rays (producing a "cosmogenic" component), exposure to the solar wind (direct "solar" component), in-place radiogenic decay from heavy elements, "trapping" of escaped gases from the interior of the Moon (for example, <sup>40</sup>Ar that escapes the surface but is entrained in the solar wind and re-implanted), bombardment by asteroids, and by the input of comets and micrometeorites. The noble gas inventory of the regolith helps decipher how long a sample was exposed to the space environment (cosmic ray exposure (CRE) age), how much gardening and

overturn was experienced (maturity indices), and the timing of breccia formation or soil appearance (antiquity age). These noble-gas derived quantities give crucial context to the history of volatile and organic compounds in the regolith. In this project, we will use a combination of noble-gas isotopic ratios and abundances to decipher the importance of each input source and help answer the following geologic questions.

What does the petrology and noble gas inventory tell us about the geologic history of the Apollo 17 landing site? We will investigate the noblegas parameters of exposure age, maturity, antiquity, and abundance on different rock types, originating from different depths, to acquire a range of information from different periods of lunar history. These parameters will enable us to describe the geologic history of the Apollo 17 landing site and address what properties govern the volatiles and organics budgets at the site, including lithologic types, geologic setting, and regolith processes such as landslides and impacts.

What are the relative contributions to the noblegas inventory from solar wind and micrometeorite bombardment in shadowed soils? Permanently shadowed regions (PSRs) at the lunar poles are key sites for the retention of volatiles. They are incredibly enabling them cold (<110K),to exogenously-added components from volatile-rich asteroids and/or comets, as well as endogenic noble gases [13, 22-27]. However, their geometry shields them from the solar wind. Partially shadowed soil samples 72320 and 76240 provide a useful opportunity to isolate the effect of shielding from the solar wind on the input budgets of noble gases and other volatiles. These "permanently"/partially shadowed soils record the most recent history (last few tens of millions of years) at the Apollo 17 landing site.

Measuring the noble gas contents of these soils using modern techniques will shed light on these apparent discrepancies and give a fuller picture to the processes taking place in these small shadowed regions. To minimize potential ambiguity in the results when comparing shadowed soils from our lab with noble gas analyses of non-shadowed soils in other labs, we will also request and measure the same quantities from nearby, unshadowed soils. Soil sample 76260 (I<sub>s</sub>/FeO = 58, agglutinates 45% agglutinates), has a very similar petrology and maturity to 76240 (I<sub>s</sub>/FeO = 56, agglutinates 48% agglutinates) [28, 29] and sample 72501 is very similar to 72320. We will examine both crystalline fragments and bulk soil from shadowed and unshadowed samples to determine their exposure and

maturity histories, as well as the total inventory as a proxy for micrometeorite input, to understand how shadowing has affected the relative inputs of volatiles to these soils.

What is the variation in exposure ages and maturity with depth? As lunar soil matures at the surface by micrometeorite comminution and agglutination, it can be overturned or buried by larger processes of movement and turnover collectively known as gardening. The movement of material by large impacts is the dominant mode, but slumping and landslides can also be locally important. The formation of layers can aid preservation of molecules by removing them from direct surface interaction, but organic molecules may continue to degrade as cosmogenic effects are still felt meters into the regolith.

We have already completed a mineralogic and petrographic survey of materials from horizons in Apollo 16 double-drive tube 68001/2 [30, 31] showing the different lithologies includes varying abundances of agglutinates (correlated with maturity), a variety of impact-melt breccias, highland material (anorthosites, granulites) and regolith breccias (note that we have been able to complete mineralogical, bulk composition, and petrology of these samples). Each rock type has a different origin, transport history, and bulk chemistry which allows us to not only build a picture of the compositional variation with depth but place temporal constraints on the local geology and volatile inventory with depth.

We will also be able to compare the Apollo 17 drive tube to 68001/2 and the surface soils measured, thereby enhancing our ability to interpret the history of both Apollo sites. Determining the exposure age, antiquity, maturity, and abundance of noble gases in these horizons will allow us to address how long organic molecules have been exposed to potentially damaging cosmic rays, and when volatiles and organics were gardened back into the soil column and protected from escape.

**Summary:** The Moon United team will use noblegas ratios to constrain the exposure and gardening history of the lunar regolith and thereby provide crucial context to the exposure history experienced by volatile and organic compounds in these samples. We will use shadowed samples to assess the input budgets from solar wind and exogeneous sources, while the drive tubes offer an opportunity to systematically study exposure horizons with depth and under-stand how the local region has evolved over time. Together, these measurements will provide significant value to the ANGSA consortium efforts to understand the complete geologic history of these samples, their sites, and lunar processes.

**References:** [1] Hörz, F., et al., in *Lunar Sourcebook*, G.H. Heiken, et al., Editors. 1991,

Cambridge University Press: Cambridge. p. 61-120. [2] Lucey, P., et al. (2006) Rev Min Geochem 60, 83-219. [3] McKay, D.S., et al., in Lunar Sourcebook, G.H. Heiken, et al., Editors. 1991, Cambridge University Press: Cambridge. p. 285-356. [4] Taylor, L.A. and T.T. Meek (2005) J Aerospace Eng 18, 188-196. [5] Anand, M., et al. (2012) Planet Space Sci 74, 42-48. [6] Colaprete, A., et al. (2010) Science 330, DOI: 10.1126/science.1186986. [7] McCubbin, F.M., et al. (2015) Am. Min. 100, 1668-1707. [8] Wieler, R. (1998) Space Sci. Rev. 85, 303-314. [9] Wieler, R. (2016) Chemie der Erde 76, 463-480. [10] Joy, K.H., et al. (2011) Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 75, 7208-7225. [11] Killen, R.M. (2010) Met Planet Sci 37, 1223-1231. [12] Barnes, J.J., et al. (2016) Nature Communications 7, 11684. [13] Füri, E., et al. (2012) Icarus 218, 220-229. [14] Greenwood, J.P., et al. (2011) Nature Geoscience 4, 79. [15] Marty, B., et al. (2016) Earth Planet. Sci. Lett. 441, 91-102. [16] Crites, S., et al. (2011) AGUFM. P13D1730C. [17] Dartnell, L.R. (2011) Astrobiology 11, 551-582. [18] Liu, Y., et al. (2012) Nature Geoscience 5, 779. [19] Walker, R.M. (1975) Ann Rev Earth Planet Sci 3, 99-128. [20] Eugster, O. (2003) Chemie der Erde 63, 3-30. [22] Gladstone, G.R., et al. (2012) J. Geophys. Res. Planets 117, E00H04. [23] Hodges Jr, R.R. (Year) LPSC Proceedings, 2463-2477. [24] Hodges, R.R. (2002) J. Geophys. Res. 107, 5011--7. [25] Miller, R.S., et al. (2014) Icarus 233, 229-232. [26] Sanin, A.B., et al. (2012) J. Geophys. Res. Planets 117. [27] Wacker, J.F. and E. Anders (1984) Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 48, 2373-2380. [28] Heiken, G. and D.S. McKay (Year) LPSC Proceedings, 843-860. [29] Morris, R.V. (1978) Proc. Lunar Planet. Sci. Conf. 9, 2287-2297. [30] Curran, N.M., et al. (2017) LEAG Anual Meeting, #2041. [31] Curran, N.M., et al. (2018) LPSC, #2732.