

1 Constraints on the ice composition of carbonaceous chondrites from their  
2 magnetic mineralogy

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7 **Abstract**

8 Carbonaceous chondrites experienced varying degrees of aqueous alteration on their parent asteroids,  
9 which influenced their mineralogies, textures, and bulk chemical and isotopic compositions. Although this  
10 alteration was a crucial event in the history of these meteorites, their various alteration pathways are not  
11 well understood. One phase that formed during this alteration was magnetite, and its morphology and  
12 abundance vary between and within chondrite groups, providing a means of investigating chondrite aqueous  
13 alteration. We measured bulk magnetic properties and first-order reversal curve (FORC) diagrams of CM,  
14 CI, CO, and ungrouped C2 chondrites to identify the morphology and size range of magnetite present in  
15 these meteorites. We identify two predominant pathways of aqueous alteration among these meteorites  
16 that can be distinguished by the resultant morphology of magnetite. In WIS 91600, Tagish Lake, and  
17 CI chondrites, magnetite forms predominantly from Fe-sulfides as framboids and stacked plaquettes. In  
18 CM and CO chondrites, <0.1  $\mu\text{m}$  single-domain (SD) magnetite and 0.1-5  $\mu\text{m}$  vortex (V) state magnetite  
19 formed predominantly via the direct replacement of metal and Fe-sulfides. After ruling out differences in  
20 temperature, water:rock ratios, terrestrial weathering effects, and starting mineralogy, we hypothesise that  
21 the primary factor controlling the pathway of aqueous alteration was the composition of the ice accreted into  
22 each chondrite group's parent body. Nebula condensation sequences predict that the most feasible method  
23 of appreciably evolving ice concentrations was the condensation of ammonia, which will have formed a more  
24 alkaline hydrous fluid upon melting, leading to fundamentally different conditions that may have caused the  
25 formation of different magnetite morphologies. As such, we suggest that WIS 91600, Tagish Lake, and the  
26 CI chondrites accreted past the ammonia ice line, supporting a more distal or younger accretion of their  
27 parent asteroids.

28 *Keywords:* Carbonaceous chondrites, Aqueous alteration, Magnetite framboids, Fluid composition,  
29 Ammoniated ice, First order reversal curve diagrams

## 30 1. Introduction

31 The carbonaceous chondrites (CCs) are a class of undifferentiated meteorites that underwent varying  
32 extents of aqueous alteration on their parent asteroids (Brearley, 2006; Rubin et al., 2007; Howard et al.,  
33 2015; King et al., 2015). As such, these meteorites represent a unique archive of the effects of one of the key  
34 processes that influenced the textures, mineralogies, and isotopic and elemental compositions of asteroids  
35 over their lifetimes. The carbonaceous chondrites are of particular interest due to their high volatile element  
36 abundances and isotopic similarity to Earth’s surface volatile elements, which has led to them being proposed  
37 to have played a significant role in the delivery of volatile elements to Earth and the other terrestrial planets  
38 (Alexander et al., 2018b). Despite the central role that aqueous alteration played on the properties of these  
39 meteorites, the mechanisms and conditions of chondrite aqueous alteration are not completely understood.

40 The CCs are thought to have accreted beyond the orbit of proto-Jupiter ( $\sim 3$  AU) (Desch et al., 2018),  
41 and are aggregates of sub-millimeter-sized solids, including: chondrules, metallic Fe-Ni grains, and refractory  
42 inclusions (including calcium-aluminium inclusions and amoeboid olivine aggregates) all set in a fine-grained  
43 matrix. The accretion of ice during the formation of chondrite parent bodies, and its subsequent melting  
44 due to heat released by the radioactive decay of  $^{26}\text{Al}$  and impacts (King et al., 2021b) provided the hydrous  
45 fluid responsible for the aqueous alteration recorded by these meteorites (Brearley, 2006). Variations in the  
46 extent of aqueous alteration are observed both within and between the different carbonaceous chondrite  
47 groups. The CM and CR chondrites range from mildly to extensively altered (Rubin et al., 2007; Harju  
48 et al., 2014; King et al., 2017), while the CI chondrites are all essentially fully altered (King et al., 2015).  
49 Conversely, the CO chondrites experienced limited aqueous alteration with many considered to be pristine  
50 (Davidson et al., 2019a).

51 During aqueous alteration, hydrous fluid reacted with the primitive chondrite matrix, leading to the  
52 formation of a secondary mineral assemblage. Minerals formed during this process include phyllosilicates,  
53 carbonates, Fe-sulfides, and magnetite (Brearley, 2006; King et al., 2017). These minerals can be used to  
54 investigate the process of aqueous alteration because their formation is directly affected by the pathway and  
55 conditions of these reactions.

56 Magnetite formed during aqueous alteration through the progressive oxidation of Fe-metal and Fe-  
57 sulfides. King et al. (2017) showed that within CM chondrites, the amount of magnetite formed increases  
58 with the extent of aqueous alteration. Conversely, studies of CO chondrites, which potentially represent

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Domain state	Size range ( $\mu\text{m}$ )
Multi Domain	$\sim > 5$
Vortex	$\sim < 0.1\text{--}5$
Single Domain	$< 0.1$

Table 1: Summary of the size ranges of different magnetic domain states in eqidimensional magnetite grains (Roberts et al., 2018).

59 primitive unaltered CM-like material (Schrader and Davidson, 2017), demonstrate that the most pristine  
60 CO chondrites exhibit magnetite modal abundances that far exceed those of CM chondrites, despite the  
61 minimal aqueous alteration experienced by CO chondrites (Alexander et al., 2018a). Interestingly, CO  
62 chondrites that experienced slightly more thermal metamorphism (petrological grade  $\geq 3.2$ ) contain less  
63 magnetite, indicating that the preservation and abundance of magnetite is sensitive to both the amount of  
64 aqueous alteration and the conditions of metamorphism (Rubin and Li, 2019). Previous studies have shown  
65 that magnetite exists in a range of morphologies in different carbonaceous chondrite groups, including as  
66 enigmatic framboids and plaquettes in CR chondrites (Harju et al., 2014), CI chondrites (Kerridge et al.,  
67 1979; Brearley, 2006), the ungrouped C2 chondrite (C2-ung) Tagish Lake (Greshake et al., 2005), and the  
68 anomalous CM chondrite (CM-an) WIS 91600 (Brearley, 2004).

69 Because the formation of magnetite in CCs is controlled by the process of aqueous alteration, changes in  
70 magnetite abundance and morphology are expected to reflect variations in the conditions and pathways of  
71 aqueous alteration on their parent bodies. These differences in magnetite abundance and morphology can  
72 impact the bulk magnetic properties of these meteorites, such that magnetic measurements can provide a  
73 novel means of exploring their aqueous histories.

74 A unique and informative set of bulk magnetic measurements that are particularly suited for this purpose  
75 are first-order reversal curve (FORC) diagrams. The shape and intensity of a FORC diagram reflects the  
76 size, morphology, and spatial distribution of the magnetic grains in a sample, and can be considered as a  
77 fingerprint for a given type of magnetic characteristic (Roberts et al., 2014). The magnetic domain state of  
78 a grain is determined by the alignment of the magnetic moments within it, and is sensitive to grain size and  
79 morphology (Table 1) (Roberts et al., 2018; Harrison et al., 2019). As such, FORC diagrams are particularly  
80 useful for identifying the domain state of magnetic grains present. FORC diagrams of samples that contain  
81 mixtures of magnetic particles with different characteristics can be unmixed into their end-member (EM)  
82 components using principle component analysis (PCA) (Harrison et al., 2018). FORC diagrams are also able  
83 to identify the presence of sub-micron-scale magnetite that is challenging to image using scanning electron  
84 microscopy (SEM). Finally, FORC diagrams provide a means of examining the magnetic mineralogy of

Name	Type	Classification	Weathering grade
Paris *	CM	1.7	W0
LEW 85311	CM	1.7	Be
DOM 03182 *	CM	1.7	B
GRA 06172 *	CM	1.7	B
LAP 04565	CM	1.6	B
LAP 04796	CM	1.6	A/B
LAP 04514	CM	1.6	B
Murchison (1)	CM	1.5	Fall
Murchison (2)	CM	1.5	Fall
Murchison (3)	CM	1.5	Fall
Jbilet Winselwan	CM	1.5	W1
LAP 031214	CM	1.5	B
MCY 05231	CM	1.5	B
Santa Cruz	CM	1.4	Fall
LAP 02333	CM	1.4	B
MIL 090288	CM	1.2	Be
LAP 031166	CM	1.2	B
NWA 8534	CM	1.2	Low
GRO 95645	CM	1.2	B/Ce
NWA 4765	CM	1.2	Low
LAP 02277	CM	1.2	A
Moapa Valley	CM	1.1	Low
MIL 05137 <sup>a</sup>	CM	1.1	Be
MIL 07689 <sup>a</sup>	CM	1.1	C
Ivuna (1)	CI	1.0	Fall
Ivuna (2)	CI	1.0	Fall
Orgueil (1) <sup>a</sup>	CI	1.0	Fall
Orgueil (2)	CI	1.0	Fall
WIS 91600 (1)	CM-an	~1.4	A/Be
WIS 91600 (2)	CM-an	~1.4	A/Be
DOM 08006	CO	3.0	B/C
MIL 090010	CO	3.0	A/B

Table 2: Petrographic description of the chondrites examined in this study. Classification of aqueous alteration grade from Howard et al. (2015); King et al. (2015); Alexander et al. (2018a); King et al. (2019) and Lee et al. (2019) based on phyllosilicate fraction. Weathering grade identified from the Meteoritical Bulletin; if samples were seen to fall this has been indicated. Chondrites whose phyllosilicate and magnetite abundances were established by unpublished data are indicated by an asterisk "\*". Chondrites which were imaged by scanning electron microscopy are indicated by the superscript "<sup>a</sup>".

85 the entire volume of a sample quickly and non-destructively. Here, we use FORC diagrams to recover  
86 quantitative constraints on the proportions of the different types of magnetic grains that formed in a suite  
87 of CCs that experienced different extents of aqueous alteration. We use this to constrain the pathways of  
88 aqueous alteration experienced by various CCs. We examine the possible reasons for the different styles and  
89 pathways of aqueous alteration and the potential link between ice chemistry and the evolution of chondrite  
90 parent bodies.

## 91 2. Methods

### 92 2.1. Sample petrology

93 Bulk magnetic measurements were conducted on 22 CM, two CI, and two CO chondrite powders. The  
94 same powders were previously characterised using infrared (IR) spectroscopic analysis by Bates et al. (2020),  
95 and X-ray diffraction (XRD) by King et al. (2015, 2017, 2019, 2021a) who assigned each meteorite a petrologic  
96 type based on its phyllosilicate abundance (e.g. Howard et al. (2015)). Except for Paris, LEW 85311, DOM  
97 03182, GRA 06172, Murchison (1), Santa Cruz, Ivuna (1), and Orgueil (1), all the powders were also  
98 artificially heated to 150°C under vacuum for IR spectroscopic measurements (Bates et al., 2020).

99 In addition, we studied two millimetre-sized chips of the CM-an chondrite WIS 91600. Although the  
100 official classification of WIS 91600 is CM-an, following the assessment of Rubin et al. (2007) we do not  
101 consider it to be a CM, rather an ungrouped C2 chondrite. Both WIS 91600 and Jbilet Winselwan show  
102 evidence of impact heating on their parent asteroids at peak temperatures of <600°C and 400-500°C,  
103 respectively (Bryson et al., 2020a; King et al., 2019, 2021b). **The two CO chondrites studied here,**  
104 **DOM 08006 and MIL 090010, have undergone extremely low degrees of aqueous alteration**  
105 **(Davidson et al., 2019a) which led to them containing relatively high amounts of magnetite and**  
106 **makes them comparatively different to most members of this group (which typically contain**  
107 **several wt% FeNi metal instead (Rubin and Li, 2019)).** A complete list of the chondrites examined,  
108 and their petrologic type and weathering grade is given in Table 2. **Though we cannot rule out larger**  
109 **scale sample heterogeneity, we homogenised our powders so we are confident that we created**  
110 **representative subsamples of the original chips of each meteorite.**

### 111 2.2. Bulk magnetic properties

112 A MicroMag 2900 Series Alternating Gradient Magnetometer (AGM) was used to measure the magnetic  
113 properties of the samples. Hysteresis loop measurements were conducted using an applied saturation field  
114 of 1.5 T. The averaging time was 100 ms and the field increment was 6 mT. Paramagnetic adjustment was  
115 conducted to remove the overprint of paramagnetic behaviour in the samples.

### 116 2.3. Sample Preparation

117 Hysteresis loop measurements were conducted on powdered samples loaded into 5 mm diameter gelatine  
118 capsules. Sample masses are included in Table S3 in the supplementary information. FORC measurements  
119 were conducted on immobilised powder samples; <1 mg of the powdered sample was placed on a 5 mm  
120 diameter glass disk which was coated with a thin film of Bostik superglue. This was covered by another

121 drop of superglue to fully encase and immobilise the powder. Samples were mounted onto the AGM using  
122 a perpendicular mounting rod and were held in place by silicon grease.

#### 123 *2.4. FORC diagrams*

124 We measured 300 FORCs per sample with a 2.09 mT field-step size, a 275 ms averaging time, and a  
125 saturating field of 1 T. The FORC diagrams were processed using the VARIFORC approach (Egli, 2013)  
126 within the FORCinel software package (Harrison and Feinberg, 2008). During smoothing, we used a value  
127 of 0.2 for the horizontal and vertical lambda values ( $\lambda$ ). The full range of smoothing factors used is included  
128 in the supplementary information (Table S1).

#### 129 *2.5. Principle component analysis*

130 Principle component analysis (PCA) was conducted on the processed FORC diagrams of the CM, CI and  
131 C2-ung chondrites, using the FORCem software package (Harrison et al., 2018). This analysis recovers the  
132 proportions of the principle components that describe the variation among the measured FORC diagrams.  
133 Because the FORC diagrams of different magnetic grain types are distinct, they occupy specific points  
134 in principle component space. FORC diagrams of samples that are mixtures of magnetic grain types are  
135 themselves a mixture of FORC signals of the different magnetic grains (as seen in Fig. S1), and can be  
136 "unmixed" to recover the proportions of each end-member that contributes to the bulk FORC signal.

137 In our analysis, physically realistic end-members were chosen to identify the magnetic domain states that  
138 mix to generate the magnetic signal of our samples. These end-members were chosen on the criteria that:  
139 (i) their generated hysteresis loop saturated at 1 T; (ii) the arms of the generated hysteresis loop did not  
140 intersect; and (iii) the FORCs are monotonic (Harrison et al., 2018). Feasibility metric contours are included  
141 on the PCA score plots to highlight the regions of PCA space where realistic EMs can be found. A value  
142 of 1 indicates that all the criteria have been satisfied, and a value of 0 indicates that they are completely  
143 unsatisfied.

144 PCA was conducted on two subsets of chondrites that each experienced similar levels of aqueous alter-  
145 ation: the first PCA was conducted on chondrites of petrological type 1.0-1.2; and the second PCA was  
146 conducted on chondrites of petrological type 1.3-1.7. Splitting the chondrites into these groups based on  
147 their extent of aqueous alteration allowed for trends between the groups to be easily identified due to the  
148 large diversity of FORC characteristics displayed among CM chondrites.

#### 149 *2.6. Magnetite modal abundance*

150 The magnetite volume fraction present in each gel cap sample was calculated using:

$$Magnetite(vol\%) = \frac{M_S}{\text{samplemass}} \times \rho_{CC} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

151 Where  $M_S$  is the saturation magnetisation of the chondrite,  $\rho_{CC}$  is the grain density of the powders (CM,  
 152 WIS 91600 = 2900 kgm<sup>-3</sup>, CI = 2400 kgm<sup>-3</sup>, CO (falls) = 3400 kgm<sup>-3</sup>) (Macke et al., 2011), and 480000  
 153 Am<sup>-1</sup> is the  $M_S$  per unit volume of magnetite. This method assumes that all the magnetisation of the  
 154 sample is due to magnetite, which is unlikely to be the case as previous XRD studies show the presence of  
 155 metal and sulfide (including pyrrhotite), and an unknown fraction of the sulfide may be magnetic (Howard  
 156 et al., 2015; King et al., 2017; Alexander et al., 2018a). To account for this, we calculated the representative  
 157 error that could be attributed to magnetisation due to metal and magnetic pyrrhotite (see supplementary  
 158 information).

### 159 2.7. Scanning electron microscopy

160 Scanning electron microscopy and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (SEM-EDS) analysis was under-  
 161 taken on powdered samples and carbon-coated thin sections to image magnetite morphologies in different  
 162 chondrites. Powdered samples were immobilised by placing the powder onto a drop of acetone, which evap-  
 163 orated to leave the powder adhered to the surface of an aluminium disk. Secondary electron (SE) and  
 164 back-scattered electron (BSE) images were acquired, and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) was  
 165 carried out using a QEMSCAN 650F.

## 166 3. Results

### 167 3.1. Magnetite abundance

168 A plot of the magnetite abundance determined from magnetic measurements compared to the magnetite  
 169 abundance recovered from XRD measurements shows a positive correlation (Fig. 1a). The magnetite  
 170 abundance recovered from XRD are generally greater than that recovered from magnetic measurements,  
 171 though care should be taken when making direct comparisons due to the potentially heterogeneous nature  
 172 of chondrite powders. A plot of the calculated magnetite fraction in CM chondrites against the phyllosilicate  
 173 fraction reported in the literature does not appear to show a correlation (Fig. 1b). The full list of the bulk  
 174 magnetic parameters measured for each sample can be found in the supplementary information (Table S3).

### 175 3.2. Day plot

176 A plot of hysteresis parameters  $M_{rs}/M_s$  vs  $H_{cr}/H_c$  (a Day plot) suggests that the CO, CM, CI, and  
 177 C2-ung chondrites are dominated by pseudo-single domain (PSD) grains that tend to be <0.1–5  $\mu\text{m}$ , and

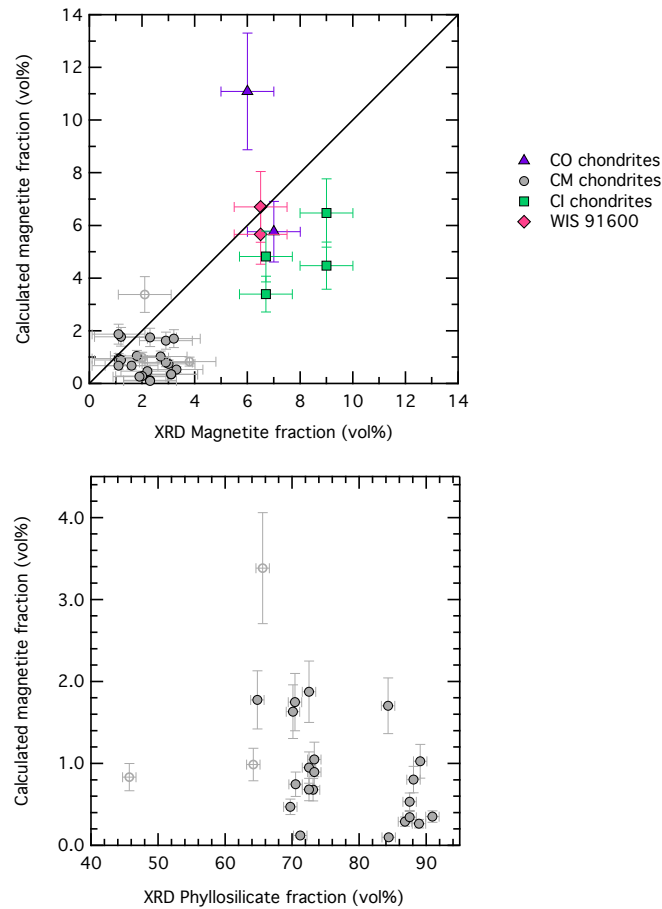


Figure 1: a) Magnetite fraction of the CM, CI, CO and C2-ung chondrites calculated via magnetic measurements plotted against magnetite fraction measured using XRD. A 1:1 line is shown for better comparison between the abundances recovered from XRD and those from this study. b) Magnetite fraction of the CM chondrites calculated via magnetic measurements plotted against phyllosilicate fraction measured using XRD. Phyllosilicate and magnetite XRD data from Alexander et al. (2018a); Howard et al. (2015); King et al. (2015, 2017, 2019, 2021a) and Lee et al. (2019). Data for the CM1.7 chondrites Paris, DOM 03182 and GRA 06172 are unpublished and are represented by unfilled points.

178 superparamagnetic-single domain grains (SP-SD) that tend to be  $<0.1 \mu\text{m}$  (Fig. 2). Plotting bulk hysteresis  
 179 parameters in this way does not reveal any systematic variation with degree of aqueous alteration.

### 180 3.3. FORC diagrams

181 FORC diagrams of the CO 3.0 chondrite DOM 08006, the CM 1.7 chondrite Paris, the CM 1.5 chondrite  
 182 Murchison, and CM 1.1 chondrite MIL 05137, the CI chondrite Orgueil, and the C2-ung chondrite WIS  
 183 91600 are shown in Fig. 3. The remaining FORC diagrams can be found in the supplementary information.

#### 184 3.3.1. CO chondrites

185 The FORC diagrams of CO chondrites display a tri-lobed pattern with a central peak (Fig. 3a). One  
 186 lobe extends along the positive  $B_u$ -axis, one spreads along the  $B_c$ -axis, and the third spreads diagonally



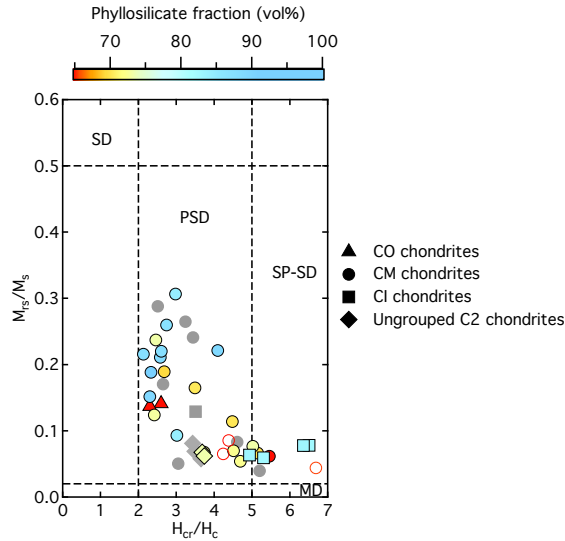


Figure 2: Day plot of all chondrite samples. Each meteorite is colour coded based on their phyllosilicate fraction measured using XRD. There is no correlation between domain state of the magnetite grain and their extent of aqueous alteration. Phyllosilicate XRD data from Alexander et al. (2018a); Howard et al. (2015); King et al. (2015, 2017, 2019, 2021a) and Lee et al. (2019). Data for the CM1.7 chondrites Paris, DOM 03182 and GRA 06172 are unpublished and are represented by unfilled points. Literature data from Cournède et al. (2015) and Thorpe et al. (2002) are also plotted in grey (excluding the CM chondrites Murray and Paris as their values of  $H_{cr}/H_c$  are too large)

187 downwards in the positive  $B_c$ -axis and negative  $B_u$ -axis direction. The peak intensity is at a slightly negative  
 188  $B_u$  value at a  $B_c$  value of  $\sim 25$  mT. This signature is characteristic of isolated vortex state (V) grains that  
 189 are typically  $< 0.1\text{--}5$   $\mu\text{m}$  in size when equidimensional magnetite (Roberts et al., 2014). Spreading along the  
 190  $B_u$ -axis is due to the self-demagnetizing field generated by the magnetic grains.

### 191 3.3.2. CM chondrites

192 The FORC diagrams of CM chondrites display variable patterns, with some chondrites (e.g. CM 1.1  
 193 MIL 05137) displaying a more prominent tri-lobed pattern with a central peak, characteristic of isolated  
 194 vortex state grains, while others (e.g. CM 1.5 Murchison) display a strong signal along the central ridge,  
 195 characteristic of isolated single domain (SD) grains of magnetite, typically  $< 0.1$   $\mu\text{m}$  in diameter (Harrison  
 196 and Lascu, 2014). Asymmetric vertical spreading along the  $B_u$ -axis in FORC diagrams of SD particles  
 197 indicates weak interactions and/or some vortex state contribution. Rare CM chondrites, such as the CM 1.7  
 198 Paris (Fig. 3f), display a peak intensity on the origin, and symmetric vertical spreading along the  $B_u$ -axis,  
 199 characteristic of larger, multi-domain (MD) grains (Roberts et al., 2014). The FORC diagrams of the CM  
 200 chondrites Moapa Valley, LAP 031166, NWA 4765, MIL 090288, LAP 02277, and LAP 03124 (Fig. S2 and  
 201 S4) show a weak signal extending along the x-axis past 300 mT, indicating the presence of some higher

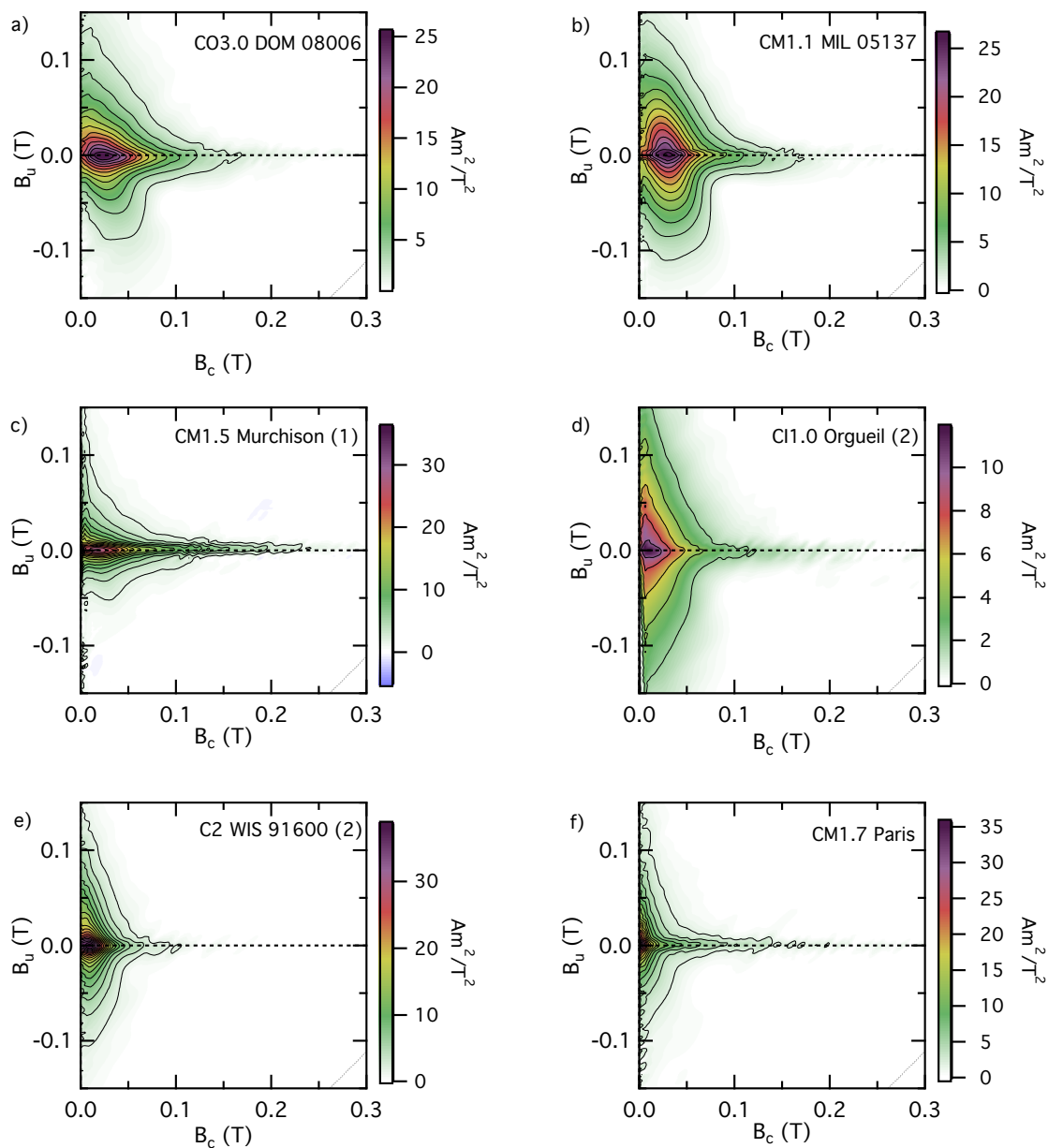


Figure 3: FORC diagrams of a) CO3.0 DOM 08006, b) CM1.1 MIL 05137, c) CM1.5 Murchison (1), d) CI1.0 Orgueil (2), e) C2 WIS 91600, and f) CM1.7 Paris. The colour scaling of intensity and the contour intervals differ between each plot to best highlight the features present.

202 coercivity grains (e.g., pyrrhotite).

### 203 3.3.3. CI chondrites

204 The FORC diagrams of CI chondrites are triangular in shape, with peak intensity off-centre along the  $B_c$ -  
 205 axis, at 10 mT. The FORC signal extends vertically along the  $B_u$ -axis to  $\pm 200$  mT, and horizontally along

206 the  $B_c$ -axis mostly to 100 mT, though there is evidence for a weak signal up to 200 mT. This signature is  
207 characteristic of closely packed, interacting vortex/multi domain grains, often found in framboids (Harrison  
208 et al., 2019). These equidimensional magnetite grains are typically  $<1$   $\mu\text{m}$  in size.

#### 209 3.3.4. C2-ung chondrites

210 The FORC diagrams of WIS 91600 also display a triangular shape, with peak intensity off-centre along  
211 the  $B_c$ -axis, at 15 mT. The vertical spreading is constrained to  $\pm 100$  mT, while intensity along the  $B_c$ -axis  
212 extends to 50 mT. This is characteristic of clustered, interacting SD/vortex state grains,  $<1$   $\mu\text{m}$  in size.

#### 213 3.4. PCA

214 PCA of the CM and C2-ung chondrites with petrological grades between 1.3-1.7 are shown in Fig. 4,  
215 along with the identified end members. PCA of CM and CI chondrites with petrological grades 1.0-1.2  
216 are shown in Fig. 5, along with the identified end members. The calculated proportions of each principle  
217 component and end-member present in each chondrite are listed in the supplementary information (Table  
218 S2). These end-member proportions represent the calculated proportions of the different morphologies of  
219 magnetite present in each of the measured samples.

##### 220 3.4.1. Aqueous alteration grade 1.3-1.7

221 Two principle components that accounted for 81% of the variability were identified and three end-  
222 members were picked manually to describe the variation among samples with aqueous alteration grades  
223 between 1.3-1.7. End-member 1 (EM1) displays a strong central ridge, with a peak intensity along the  $B_c$ -axis  
224 at 40 mT. The signal extends along the  $B_c$ -axis, to a coercivity value of  $\sim 250$  mT, with a pronounced negative  
225 signal below and to the left of the central ridge. The slight teardrop shape indicates weak interactions  
226 between individual magnetite grains. This is characteristic of weakly interacting, single domain (SD) grains  
227 (Harrison and Lascu, 2014). End-member 2 (EM2) displays a concentrated vertical spreading along the  
228  $B_u$ -axis, characteristic of MD grains (Roberts et al., 2014). EM2 also contains a pronounced central ridge  
229 extending along the  $B_c$ -axis to 200 mT due to a residual SD component. End-member 3 (EM3) displays  
230 a weak triangular pattern, resembling interacting V/MD grains (Harrison et al., 2019). The signal spreads  
231 vertically along the  $B_u$ -axis to  $\pm 100$  mT, and the peak lies slightly off the origin along the  $B_c$ -axis.

232 The C2-ung chondrite WIS 91600 plots in distinct principle component space compared to the CM1.3-1.7  
233 chondrites. WIS 91600 defines EM3, indicating the presence of interacting V/MD grains in this meteorite.  
234 The CM1.3-1.7 chondrites plot between EM1 and EM2, suggesting that they contain a mixture of SD and  
235 MD grains with varying proportions.

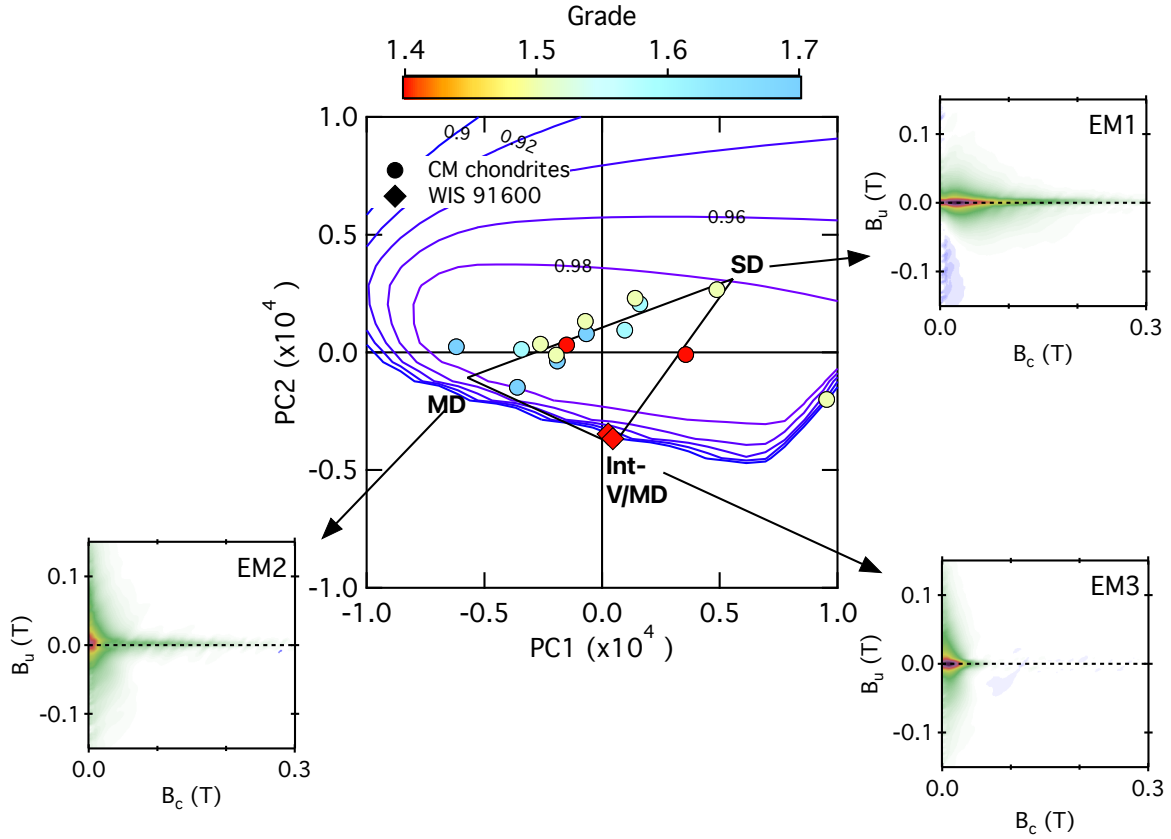


Figure 4: Score plot displaying the proportions of PC1 and PC2 present in each CM and C2-ung chondrite of aqueous alteration grade 1.3-1.7. The positions of the end members are also displayed. EM1 represents non-interacting, SD magnetite; EM2 represents interacting, MD magnetite grains; and EM3 represents interacting V/MD grains. The intensity scaling differs between each end member to better highlight their features. Contours of the feasibility metrics have been superimposed onto the score plot to help identify regions where physically realistic EMs could be situated, with contours between 0.90 and 0.98 shown with intervals of 0.02. The outlier to the right of the plot is CM 1.5 MCY 05231.

### 236 3.4.2. Aqueous alteration grade 1.0-1.2

237 Two principle components that accounted for 88% of the variability were identified and three end members  
 238 were picked manually to describe the variation in samples with aqueous alteration grades between 1.0 and 1.2.  
 239 End member 4 (EM4) displays a strong central ridge, with minimal vertical spreading and a peak intensity on  
 240 the origin. The signal extends along the B<sub>c</sub>-axis, to coercivity fields of 300 mT, with a pronounced negative  
 241 signal below the central ridge. This is also characteristic of SD grains, the absence of a negative peak in EM4  
 242 compared to EM1 is an artefact of the intensity scaling (Harrison and Lascu, 2014). End member 5 (EM5)  
 243 displays a tri-lobed pattern similar to vortex state grains, with one lobe extending vertically to 100 mT, one  
 244 lobe extending downwards to 50 mT and a the third extending along the coercivity axis to 150 mT. The  
 245 peak coercivity is off-centre along the B<sub>c</sub>-axis at 25 mT. End member 6 (EM6) displays a triangular shaped

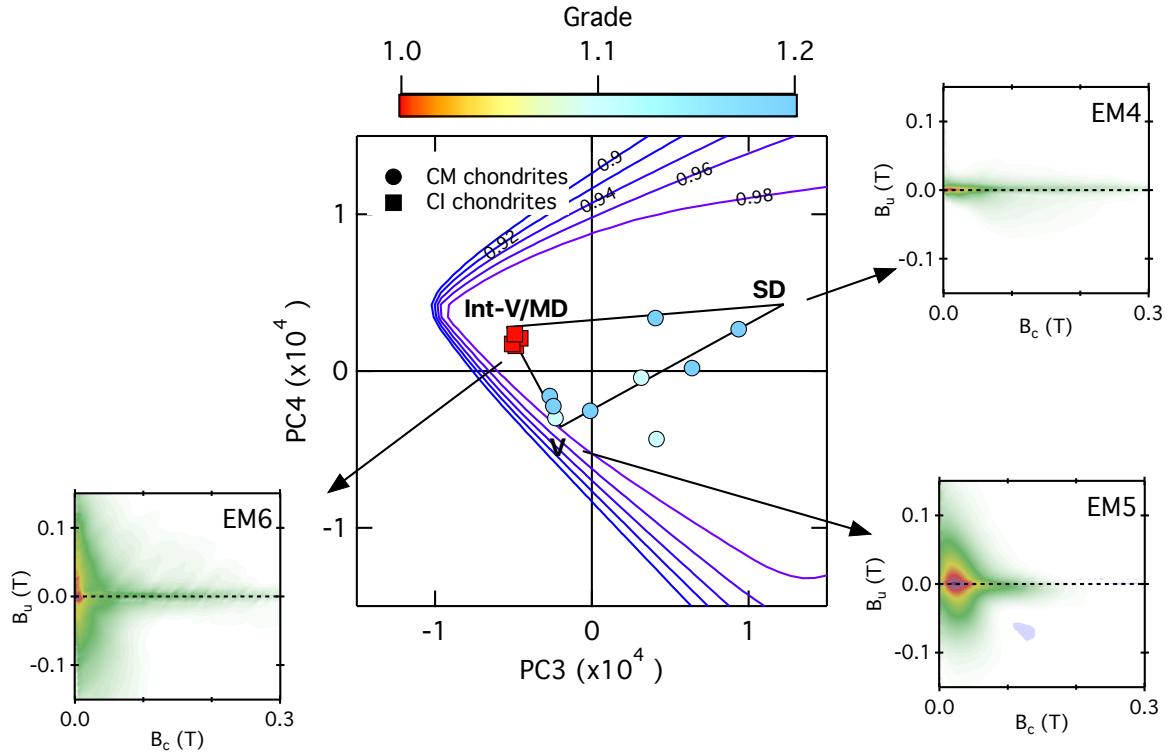


Figure 5: Score plot displaying the proportions of PC3 and PC4 present in each CM and CI chondrite of aqueous alteration grade 1.0-1.2. The positions of the end members are also displayed. EM4 represents non-interacting, SD magnetite; EM5 represents vortex state, magnetite grains; and EM6 represents interacting V/MD grains. The intensity scaling differs between each end member to better highlight their features. Contours of the feasibility metrics have been superimposed onto the score plot to help identify regions where physically realistic EMs could be situated, with contours between 0.90 and 0.98 shown with intervals of 0.02

246 pattern, resembling interacting V/MD grains. There is also a weak signal extending along the  $B_c$ -axis. The  
 247 greater vertical spreading of the signal present in EM6 compared to EM3 could indicate a higher abundance  
 248 of larger, MD grains in EM6.

249 CI chondrites plot in distinct principle space, separate from CM1.0-1.2 chondrites. The CI chondrites  
 250 most closely match the V/MD signal represented by EM6, while the CM1.0-1.2 chondrites plot between the  
 251 SD and V state EMs, represented by EM4 and EM5, respectively, indicating that they contain a mixture of  
 252 SD and vortex state grains.

## 253 4. Discussion

### 254 4.1. Reason for different magnetite morphologies

255 FORC analysis indicates that CI and C2-ung chondrites exhibit clearly distinct magnetite morphologies  
 256 compared to both CM and CO chondrites. Magnetite in CO and CM chondrites occurs as isolated sub-

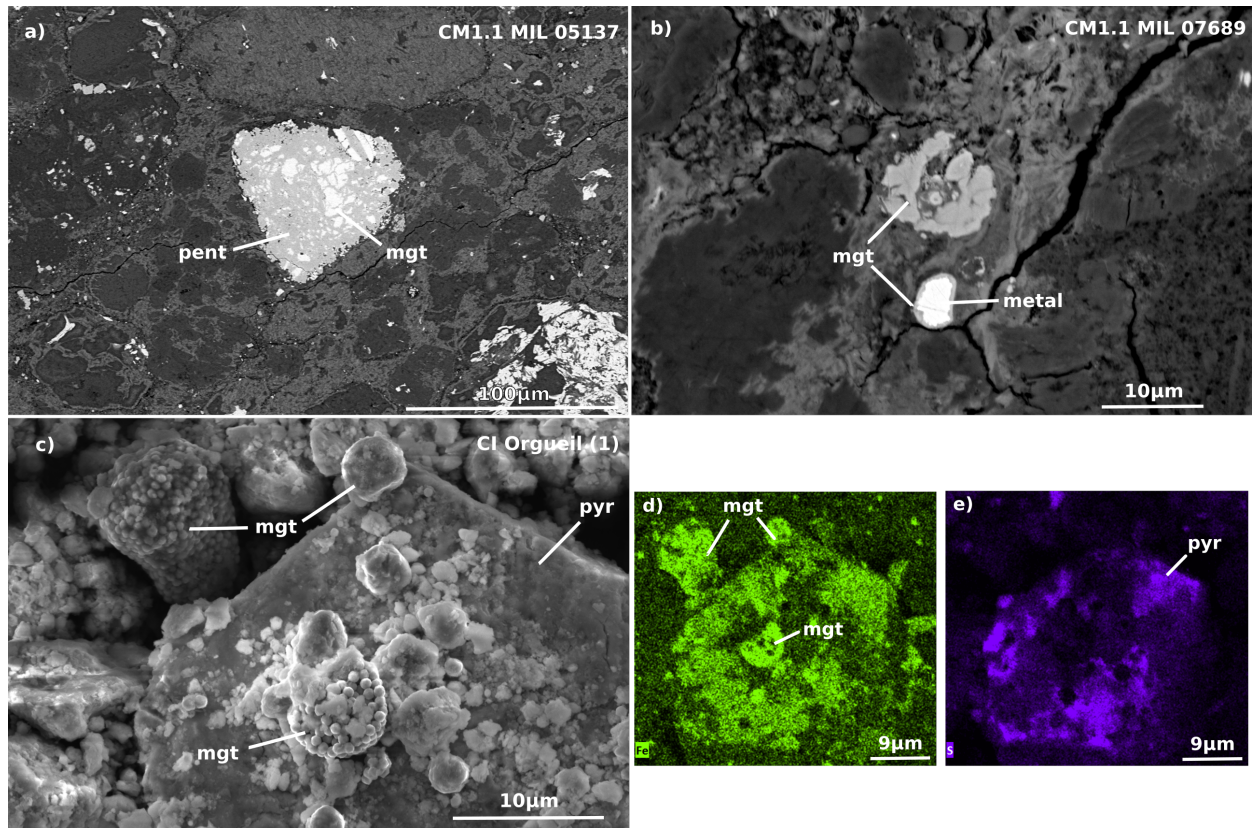


Figure 6: SEM images of selected CM and CI chondrites. a) BSE image of a thin section of the CM1.1 MIL 05137 displaying a magnetite-pentlandite intergrowth as a result of presumed aqueous alteration of a PPI grain, b) BSE image of a thin section of the CM1.1 MIL 07689 showing magnetite forming from oxidation of metal grains, c) SE image of a powder sample of the CI1.0 Orgueil (1) displaying framboids of magnetite and a euhedral, hexagonal grain of pyrrhotite, d) EDS map of the framboids and pyrrhotite in c), displaying the distribution of Fe which is present in both magnetite and pyrrhotite, and e) EDS map of the framboids and pyrrhotite in c), displaying the distribution of S which is only present in pyrrhotite. pent = pentlandite, mgt = magnetite, pyr = pyrrhotite.

257 micron to micron scale grains, or as intergrowths in magnetite-pentlandite grains (as seen in Fig. 6a). In  
 258 contrast, magnetite in CI and C2-ung chondrites occurs as framboids, plaquettes, and micron scale grains.  
 259 Previous studies have shown that the C2-ung Tagish Lake (TL) shows a very similar triangular-shaped  
 260 FORC diagram to WIS 91600 and CI chondrites (Bryson et al., 2020a,b), and contains unusual magnetite  
 261 morphologies including plaquettes and framboids (Greshake et al., 2005). Although these morphologies  
 262 have been identified in CM chondrites, they are much rarer and are not the dominant magnetite morphology  
 263 found in petrographic observations (Hewins et al., 2014). This is also evidenced by the PCA conducted in  
 264 this study where a few CM chondrites appear to contain a small contribution from the framboid-like end-  
 265 members (Figs. 4 and 5). Framboids and plaquettes of magnetite as well as isolated grains of magnetite are  
 266 both routinely reported in petrographic observations of CR chondrites (Harju et al., 2014). The presence of

267 frambooids and plaquettes is not due to preservation bias as there is no correlation between their occurrence  
268 and the weathering grade of the chondrites examined. Ruling out terrestrial processes, the presence of these  
269 unusual forms of magnetite instead of the conventional morphologies of magnetite found in CO and CM  
270 chondrites (isolated submicron - micron grains) suggests their formation is related to some aspect of the  
271 aqueous alteration processes that occurred on different chondrite parent bodies. This suggests that magnetite  
272 formation in CI chondrites, Tagish Lake, and WIS 91600 occurred along a different reaction pathway to CM  
273 and CO chondrites, and that a combination of the two pathways may have occurred on the CR parent body.

274 A number of factors played a role in the aqueous alteration pathway experienced by a chondrite, including:  
275 the extent of aqueous alteration; the primitive water:rock ratio of the meteorite; the peak temperature; the  
276 starting mineralogy; the accreted metal, sulfides, and silicate phases, and their primitive compositions; the  
277 presence of organics; and/or the composition of the fluid. These factors are not independent of each other;  
278 for instance, the extent of aqueous alteration is closely linked to the water:rock ratio present on the parent  
279 body, and the signature of organics is affected by the temperatures experienced by the chondrite. Each  
280 factor has been explored independently in previous studies, and here we review the published observations  
281 to investigate their systematic variations in relation to the morphology of magnetite recovered from FORC  
282 analysis and petrographic observations with the aim of identifying the controls on the pathway of aqueous  
283 alteration.

#### 284 *4.1.1. Extent of aqueous alteration*

285 The extent of aqueous alteration experienced by different chondrites is well documented and can be  
286 characterised by their vol% of phyllosilicate (Howard et al., 2015), their petrographic characteristics (Rubin  
287 et al., 2007), and their bulk H, C, and N abundances and isotopic compositions (Alexander et al., 2013).

288 Studies focused on phyllosilicate fraction show that the CI chondrites are essentially fully hydrated and  
289 experienced the greatest extent of aqueous alteration among carbonaceous chondrites (King et al., 2015).

290 Almost all CM chondrites contain >50 vol% phyllosilicate fraction and exhibit a range of alteration  
291 grades, from similar extents to CI chondrites, to mildly altered (Rubin et al., 2007; King et al., 2017), and  
292 a few show minimal evidence of alteration (Hewins et al., 2014).

293 Phyllosilicate fraction studies (Howard et al., 2015) and thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) and IR trans-  
294 mission spectroscopy (Garenne et al., 2014, 2016; Gilmour et al., 2019) indicate that WIS 91600 and Tagish  
295 Lake both experienced intermediate extents of aqueous alteration, overlapping with the range experienced  
296 by CM chondrites.

297 Petrographic observations and bulk H-C-N isotopic studies show that some CR and most CO chondrites

298 only experienced minimal alteration by fluids (Davidson et al., 2019a,b). The remaining CR chondrites  
299 experienced an intermediate range of aqueous alteration extents, spanning petrological grades 2.3-2.8 (Harju  
300 et al., 2014) as defined by the scale proposed by Rubin et al. (2007), overlapping with the range experienced  
301 by CM chondrites.

302 Because abundant magnetite framboids and plaquettes are rarely seen in CM chondrites, despite these  
303 meteorites having experienced the overlapping extents of aqueous alteration as some CR chondrites, WIS  
304 91600 and Tagish Lake, this argues that the extent of aqueous alteration does not control the morphology  
305 of magnetite.

#### 306 *4.1.2. Water:rock ratio*

307 Marrocchi et al. (2018) used the bulk O-isotope compositions of CM, CR, and CO chondrites to estimate  
308 their water:rock ratios. These authors calculate ratios of: 0.3-0.4 for CM chondrites; 0.1-0.4 for CR chon-  
309 drites; and 0.01-0.10 for CO chondrites. CI chondrites have an estimated water:rock ratio of  $\sim 1.2$  (Brearley,  
310 2006). Because CM and CR chondrites have overlapping water:rock ratio ranges, and CR and CI chondrites  
311 do not, it is clear that the presence of framboids does not correlate with this parameter.

#### 312 *4.1.3. Metamorphism*

313 Differing extents of thermal metamorphism, either during or after aqueous alteration, could affect the  
314 thermochemical equilibrium during magnetite formation. This heating can be due to a variety of sources,  
315 including the decay of  $^{26}\text{Al}$ , impact derived heating, and/or solar radiation (Nakamura, 2005; King et al.,  
316 2021b). The effect of temperature on magnetite formation has previously been reported in CO chondrites,  
317 with progressive thermal alteration (metamorphic grade  $\geq 3.2$ ) leading to the destruction of magnetite (Rubin  
318 and Li, 2019). The amount of thermal metamorphism experienced by different chondrites can be examined by  
319 a range of methods, including: Cr concentration of FeO-rich chondrule olivine (Davidson et al., 2019b);  $^{18}\text{O}$ -  
320 isotope fractionation (Jilly-Rehak et al., 2018); modifications of organics (Alexander et al., 2013); structural  
321 order of polyaromatic carbonaceous material (Bonal et al., 2016); identification of characteristic mineral  
322 phases and thermally induced mineralogical changes (King et al., 2021b); and the Co/Ni value of metal  
323 grains (Kimura et al., 2011).

324 CO 3.0-3.1 chondrites underwent minimal aqueous alteration and thermal metamorphism (not experi-  
325 encing temperatures  $>100\text{-}300^\circ\text{C}$ , indicated by the presence of fayalite), and contain  $\sim 2\text{-}8$  vol% magnetite.  
326 CO 3.2-3.6 chondrites experienced peak temperatures up to  $\sim 600^\circ\text{C}$  and show much lower magnetite abun-  
327 dances, due to the reduction of magnetite to form fayalite and secondary kamacite (Rubin and Li, 2019).  
328 The specific CO chondrites examined in this study are among the most primitive, with DOM 08006 experi-



329 encing similar, or lower temperatures of alteration compared to CR chondrites, and MIL 090010 experiencing  
330 marginally higher temperatures (Bonal et al., 2016; Davidson et al., 2019a; Rubin and Li, 2019).

331 Using  $^{18}\text{O}$ -isotope fractionation, aqueous alteration on the CR parent body has been argued to have  
332 been a low-temperature process, occurring at 55-88°C (Jilly-Rehak et al., 2018). Measurements of the  
333 Cr composition in FeO-rich olivine, and modification of organics support this finding (Alexander et al.,  
334 2013; Davidson et al., 2019b), indicating that CR chondrites underwent thermal alteration at much lower  
335 temperatures compared to the CI chondrites, which experienced maximum temperatures of  $\sim 150^\circ\text{C}$  (King  
336 et al., 2015).

337 CM chondrites underwent aqueous alteration at temperatures of  $<150\text{-}300^\circ\text{C}$ , and some appear to have  
338 experienced peak metamorphic temperatures of  $\sim 200$  to  $>700^\circ\text{C}$  due to transient impact heating events  
339 that do not appear to have a measurable effect on magnetite morphology (King et al., 2021b; Suttle et al.,  
340 2021).

341 Investigation of the insoluble organic matter (IOM) and conditions inferred by experiments indicates  
342 that Tagish Lake experienced aqueous alteration at temperatures between  $<150 - 300^\circ\text{C}$ , comparable to CM  
343 chondrites (Herd et al., 2011). The IOM and the structure of organics present in WIS 91600 indicate that  
344 it experienced short-duration thermal metamorphism at temperatures between  $400 - 500^\circ\text{C}$  (Yabuta et al.,  
345 2010; Quirico et al., 2018), which is unlikely to have affected the morphology of magnetite.

346 Due to the observations that: (1) CR and CI chondrites contain magnetite framboids and plaquettes,  
347 despite having experienced different extents of metamorphism; and (2) CO and CM chondrites do not  
348 contain magnetite framboids and plaquettes despite having undergone alteration at temperatures similar  
349 to CR chondrites, WIS 91600, and Tagish Lake, the extent of thermal metamorphism does not appear to  
350 control magnetite morphology in a systematic way.

351 It is possible that subsequent heating during laboratory analysis could have led to the formation, or  
352 destruction, of magnetite framboids and plaquettes. However, FORC diagrams of laboratory heated and  
353 unheated samples of the CM Murchison and Orgueil and Ivuna do not exhibit significant variations, indicat-  
354 ing that the morphology and characteristics of the magnetite have not been altered by laboratory heating  
355 (Fig. S4-6).

#### 356 *4.1.4. Presence of organics*

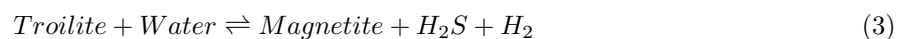
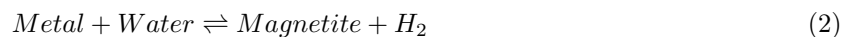
357 Organic matter is present in the chondrites in solvent soluble (SOM) and IOM forms. These are thought  
358 to form at very low temperatures in the presolar molecular cloud and/or interstellar environments, and have  
359 undergone subsequent thermal and aqueous processing on chondrite parent bodies (Alexander et al., 2017).

360 In situ studies of carbonaceous chondrites indicate close association of IOM with phyllosilicates in Tagish  
361 Lake and Orgueil (Herd et al., 2011; Alexander et al., 2017). This suggests that they are associated with  
362 the process of aqueous alteration in chondrites, possibly affecting the composition of the fluid, which could  
363 impact the morphology of magnetite.

364 The bulk concentration of H, N, and C of IOM in CI, CM, CO, and CR chondrites show no systematic  
365 variation with the morphology of magnetite, arguing that organic abundance and the nature of the organics  
366 present during aqueous alteration does not control magnetite morphology (Alexander et al., 2017, 2018b).  
367 In particular, CO and CR chondrites contain similar bulk C concentrations, and the IOM contents of CI,  
368 CM and CR chondrites are similar, demonstrating the lack of correlation between organic presence and  
369 magnetite morphology.

#### 370 4.1.5. Starting mineralogy

371 Petrographic observations of primitive CO chondrites (e.g., DOM 08006) and CR chondrites (e.g., MIL  
372 090657) find minimal evidence of aqueous alteration. Despite this, the least altered chondrites from both  
373 groups contain abundant magnetite (Davidson et al., 2019a,b). This observation suggests that magnetite  
374 must have been one of the first phases to form during aqueous alteration, before significant phyllosilicate  
375 formation or other signatures of alteration. Magnetite can be formed from alteration of either metal grains  
376 or iron sulfides, following equations 2 and 3.



377 The precursor mineralogy that undergoes alteration could control which morphology of magnetite is  
378 subsequently formed.

379 *CM and CO chondrites:* In CM and CO chondrites, metal grains are often the first phases to oxidise on  
380 hydration; this is evidenced by the CO chondrites DOM 08006 and MIL 090010, which contain  $\leq 2$  vol%  
381 phyllosilicate but have magnetite abundances that exceed those of any CM chondrites (Alexander et al.,  
382 2018a). This magnetite formed from metal during limited amounts of aqueous alteration (Rubin and Li,  
383 2019). Alteration from metal to magnetite is further evidenced by SEM images of CM and CO chondrites  
384 which clearly display magnetite mantling metal grains (Fig. 6) (Palmer and Lauretta, 2011; Davidson et al.,  
385 2019a; Rubin and Li, 2019). Magnetite can also form through the alteration of pyrrhotite in pyrrhotite-

386 pentlandite intergrowth (PPI) grains in the CM chondrites (Fig. 6) (Singerling and Brearley, 2020). In all  
387 cases, the magnetite formed rarely adopts the framboids and plaquettes seen in the CI, CR, and C2-ung  
388 chondrites.

389 *CI and C2-ung chondrites:* Framboidal magnetite and magnetite plaquettes form from alteration of  
390 sulphides in CI chondrites. This is seen in BSE images where magnetite is shown to precipitate in the space  
391 left behind from the dissolution of the sulfide grains and the large-scale morphology of the pyrrhotite is  
392 retained. The phenomenon of framboid and plaquette magnetite forming in the place of sulfide grains is seen  
393 in the ungrouped C2 chondrite Tagish Lake (Greshake et al., 2005). Close association of framboidal magnetite  
394 with sulfides has also been reported in WIS 91600 (Brearley, 2004). Though no primary metal abundances  
395 in the CI and C2-ung chondrites have been reported (King et al., 2015), petrographic observations indicate  
396 that large metal grains may alter to serpentine through a series of currently unknown intermediary phases  
397 during aqueous alteration (Brearley, 2004).

398 *CR chondrites:* In CR chondrites, magnetite forms from alteration of both sulphides, to form framboids  
399 and plaquettes, and metal grains, to form single grains (Harju et al., 2014; Singerling and Brearley, 2020;  
400 Schrader et al., 2021).

401 The composition of the starting mineralogy could affect the pathways of aqueous alteration. In pristine  
402 CO and CR chondrites, the composition of Fe-Ni metal and Fe-sulfides is not significantly different (Davidson  
403 et al., 2019a,b), and the variation in measured Fe-sulfide composition in the CM, CI, and CR chondrites  
404 appears to be a product of extent of aqueous alteration (Harju et al., 2014; Singerling and Brearley, 2018).  
405 Because the compositions of the initial metal and Fe-sulfides present in the CO, CM, CI, and CR chondrites  
406 do not significantly differ between the chondrite groups, initial compositional variation among these minerals  
407 cannot account for the differences in alteration pathways.

408 Based on the petrographic and magnetic measurements, it is clear that metal grains were present in  
409 the starting mineralogy of the CM, CO, CR, and CI chondrite groups and although metal can readily alter  
410 with water (as seen in CO chondrites), it only alters to form magnetite in the CM, CO, and CR chondrites.  
411 Sulfides with similar primitive compositions were also present in the starting mineralogy of all chondrite  
412 groups examined here, however, only in the CI, C2-ung, and CR chondrites do they alter to form magnetite  
413 framboids and plaquettes. The precursor mineralogy relates to the morphology of magnetite formed during  
414 aqueous alteration (metal transforms to single magnetite grains in CM, CO, and CR chondrites, and sulfides  
415 transform to framboid and plaquette magnetite in the CI, C2-ung, and CR chondrites), however, only one  
416 pathway of alteration occurs in each group (except the CR chondrites) despite the presence of the necessary

417 starting minerals for both pathways to have occurred. As such, because all groups have the potential for  
418 both pathways to have occurred, the initial presence or absence of metal or sulfide grains is not the reason  
419 for the differences in the observed end product. In this sense, the starting mineralogy does not control the  
420 morphology of magnetite formed during aqueous alteration.

#### 421 *4.1.6. Fluid composition*

422 The composition of the hydrous fluid within chondrite parent bodies could have potentially affected  
423 the aqueous reactions that occurred on these asteroids. This composition is expected to have evolved as  
424 different phases reacted, such that the initial fluid composition will have been controlled by the composition  
425 of the ice accreted into the parent asteroid of each group. Because magnetite was one of the very first  
426 phases to form during chondrite aqueous alteration (Rubin and Li, 2019; Davidson et al., 2019a,b), the  
427 composition of the fluid from which this mineral formed will have been governed predominantly by that of  
428 the ice accreted into its parent body rather than an evolved fluid composition (Brearley, 2006). Because we  
429 are able to systematically rule out variations in the other major factors (discussed in Sections 4.1.1 to 4.1.5)  
430 as the driving force behind the morphology of magnetite, we argue that the composition of the ice accreted  
431 into the parent bodies of Tagish Lake, WIS 91600, CI chondrites, and CR chondrites was different to that  
432 incorporated into the CO and CM parent asteroids.

433 Our current understanding of the variation of ice composition in the protoplanetary disk is not well  
434 consolidated. However, Collings et al. (2004) found that after water ice, the next molecule that is expected  
435 to have condensed out of the solar nebula in geochemically relevant quantities is ammonia. This molecule  
436 has been found on Ceres in the form of ammoniated silicates (Ehlmann et al., 2018), on Pluto's moon,  
437 Charon, as ammonia hydrates (DeMeo et al., 2014), and on comet 67P as ammonium salts (Poch et al.,  
438 2020). High yields of ammonia have also been identified in the IOM within CR and CI chondrites, attesting  
439 to its presence in these groups (Pizzarello and Williams, 2012).

440 The accretion of ammoniated ice into some chondrite parent bodies could have led to their primitive  
441 fluids being more alkaline. The presence of this basic fluid may then have affected the pathway of aqueous  
442 alteration observed among some carbonaceous chondrites, possibly influencing which minerals formed and  
443 the morphologies they adopted. Circumstantial evidence for this includes the possible influence of alkaline  
444 fluids on the morphology of magnetite highlighted by White et al. (2020), which indicates that framboids of  
445 magnetite formed under basic conditions. These authors use atom probe tomography to image the surface  
446 of framboidal magnetite in Tagish Lake, identifying the presence of Na and Mg cations, which provide an  
447 overall zero static surface charge on the individual magnetite grains only possible in more basic fluids. The

448 presence of these surface cations within this fluid prevents smaller magnetite grains from coagulating to form  
449 a larger grain, enabling well-ordered framboids of magnetite to form. Also identified by this study was Na  
450 clustered on subgrain boundaries trapped within magnetite framboids, implying an excess of sodium in the  
451 parental fluid that led to more alkaline compositions. Much of the potential ammonia originally accreted  
452 into chondrites is unlikely to be measured in laboratory studies of these samples at the present day because it  
453 readily sublimates from its principal hosts (ammonium salts and saponite) at room temperature, evidenced  
454 by the lack of ammonia observed in the coma dust grains from comet 67P analysed on the Rosetta spacecraft  
455 (Poch et al., 2020).

456 Ammonia is predicted to condense out of the solar nebula at lower temperatures ( $\sim 90$  K) than water  
457 ice ( $\sim 160$  K) (Collings et al., 2004; Dodson-Robinson et al., 2009), and so would be present in its solid  
458 form in cooler regions of the disk or at later times as the disk cooled. As such, the reliable identification  
459 of ammoniated ice in some chondrites could place constraints on the heliocentric distances and/or timings  
460 at which their parent asteroids accreted (see Fig. 7). Coupled with previous studies that indicate that:  
461 (1) the CI chondrites accreted and underwent aqueous alteration at similar times as the CM and CO  
462 chondrites (approximately 3.1-4.1 Ma, 3.0-4.2 Ma, and 2.5-2.9 Ma after CAI formation, respectively), and  
463 could represent the most distal carbonaceous chondrite group ( $>15$  AU) (Desch et al., 2018; Pravdivtseva  
464 et al., 2018); (2) the Tagish Lake and WIS 91600 parent asteroids appear to have accreted at greater  
465 distances ( $>8-13$  AU and  $\sim 10$  AU, respectively) compared to the CM, CO and CR chondrites ( $\sim 3-4$  AU)  
466 (Desch et al., 2018; Bryson et al., 2020a,b); and (3) the CR chondrite parent body accreted  $\sim 0.1-1.5$  Ma  
467 later than CI, CO, and CM parent bodies (Schrader et al., 2017; Desch et al., 2018), we hypothesise that our  
468 observation of abundant framboidal and plaquette magnetite could imply that the Tagish Lake, WIS 91600,  
469 CR, and CI chondrite parent bodies formed at more distal locations or younger times than those of the CM  
470 and CO parent bodies. The younger recovered accretion age of the CR chondrite parent body compared to  
471 the more distal CI chondrites indicates that the potential inward migration of the ammonia ice line as the  
472 protoplanetary disk cooled could explain the presence of ammonia in the CR chondrites.

473 The accretion of ammoniated ice in the most distal chondrites could impact the nitrogen budget of small  
474 planetary bodies and has consequent implications for volatile delivery to planetesimals in the early solar  
475 system.

476 If different ice composition is the controlling factor on magnetite morphology, this can then provide an  
477 explanation for the presence of rare magnetite framboids and plaquettes in some CM chondrites (Hewins  
478 et al., 2014). The water composition during the alteration of these meteorites could have been affected

479 by its local mineralogy, allowing for pockets of more alkaline fluid that potentially led to the formation  
480 of limited framboidal magnetite, without the need for accretion of ammoniated ice (Palmer and Lauretta,  
481 2011). Moreover, links between alkaline fluids and magnetite morphology could be explored in future  
482 laboratory experiments in an effort to better understand how the properties of magnetite vary with fluid  
483 compositions and the consequences of this on our understanding of chondrite alteration histories and parent  
484 body formation locations.

#### 485 *4.2. Tagish Lake: A case study*

486 Tagish Lake provides a unique opportunity to investigate which factors could control the generation of  
487 different magnetite morphologies. The different stones in the Tagish Lake fall are heterogeneous, with each  
488 stone exhibiting different water:rock ratios, and having experienced varying extents of thermal and aqueous  
489 alteration. For instance, stone TL5b has been found to have altered at  $<50^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Blinova et al., 2014) while  
490 the rest of the Tagish Lake protolith has been found to have altered at  $<150^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Herd et al., 2011). The  
491 stones also represent different stages of hydrous alteration, i.e., TL5b (the least altered)  $<$  TL11h  $<$  TL11i  
492 (the most altered). Despite these variations, all of the TL stones contain abundant framboids and plaquettes  
493 of magnetite (Blinova et al., 2014).

494 As outlined previously, but now identified in a singular meteorite, differences in water:rock ratios and  
495 the extent of aqueous and thermal alteration do not control the morphology of magnetite and the pathway  
496 of aqueous alteration. These properties can vary depending on the location of the stones within the parent  
497 body, as different depths within the parent body experienced different temperatures and amounts of aqueous  
498 alteration. The controlling factor on the pathway of aqueous alteration must instead be an independent  
499 property that is constant throughout the Tagish Lake parent body, such as the composition of the accreted  
500 ice. Upon melting, this ice controls the chemistry of the aqueous fluid and therefore the morphology of  
501 magnetite formed.

## 502 **5. Conclusions**

- 503 1. Using bulk magnetic characterisation techniques, we find that magnetite grain size and morphology  
504 varies systematically between CM, CO, CI and C2-ung chondrites.
- 505 2. Estimated modal abundances from bulk magnetic measurements suggest that there is no correlation  
506 between the extent of aqueous alteration and the amount of magnetite formed in CM chondrites.
- 507 3. The magnetic signal in CM chondrites is dominated by  $<0.1\mu\text{m}$  SD magnetite in the groundmass,  
508 formed from alteration of Fe-Ni metal.

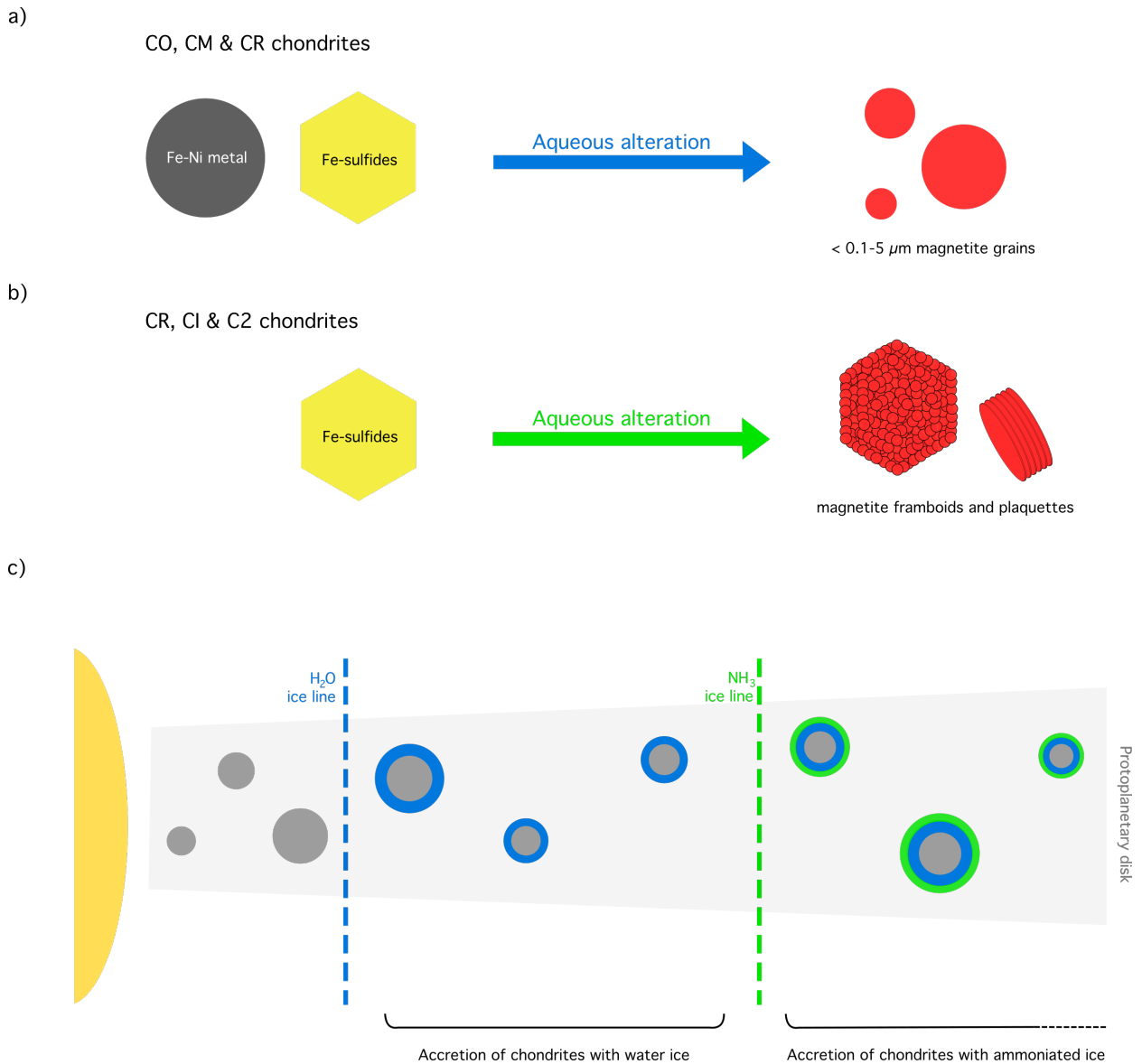


Figure 7: a) Generalised reaction pathway of metal grains and Fe-sulfides within the CO, CM and CR chondrites during aqueous alteration, where  $<0.1\text{-}5\ \mu\text{m}$  magnetite grains are typically formed, b) Generalised reaction pathway of Fe-sulfides within the CR, CI, and C2-ung chondrites during aqueous alteration, where framboids and plaquettes of magnetite are formed due to alkaline conditions during aqueous alteration, c) Schematic figure illustrating the location of accretion of the carbonaceous chondrites, proposed in Section 4.2.6. The CO and CM chondrites accrete past the water ice line and the CI chondrites, WIS 91600, and Tagish Lake accrete at greater radial distances, past the ammonia ice line. The accretion of ammoniated ice (in green) changes the fluid composition of the chondrite parent body, leading to alkaline conditions during aqueous alteration, facilitating the formation of framboids and plaquettes of magnetite.

509 4. Unusual morphologies of magnetite, including framboids and plaquettes, are found in CI, CR, and  
 510 C2-ung chondrites, including Tagish Lake and WIS 91600. This magnetite was formed during a dif-  
 511 ferent pathway of aqueous alteration compared to CM and CO chondrites, which lack these magnetite  
 512 morphologies in significant abundances.

- 513 5. Ruling out systemic variations in the extent of aqueous alteration, the primitive water:rock ratio of  
514 the meteorite, the degree of metamorphism, the primitive mineralogy and its composition, and the  
515 presence of organics, we propose that the formation of unusual magnetite morphologies is controlled  
516 by the composition of ice accreted into the different parent asteroids. The most feasible way by which  
517 the composition of the ice changed is through the condensation of ammonia from the protoplanetary  
518 disk. This process would have lead to more alkaline fluids upon melting on their parent bodies, which  
519 could have caused alteration to progress along fundamentally different pathways.
- 520 6. Given constraints on parent body accretion ages, this argues that compared to CM and CO chondrites,  
521 the CI chondrites, Tagish Lake and WIS 91600 originate from a more distal region beyond the ammonia  
522 ice line, and that the ice line could have migrated inwards by the comparatively young time of accretion  
523 of the CR chondrite parent body.
- 524 7. The volatile nature of many ammoniated compounds suggests that a considerable portion of this  
525 molecule will have been lost from CI, CR, and C2-ung chondrites on Earth. However, our results hint  
526 that the pre-terrestrial N and H budgets of these chondrites may have been significantly higher than  
527 those measured today.

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534 of Mineral Sciences of the Smithsonian Institution and Astromaterials Curation Office at NASA Johnson  
535 Space Center) for use of their meteorite samples. The magnetic data presented in this paper can be found  
536 on the MagIC database, with the DOI:10.7288/V4/MAGIC/19215 (<https://www2.earthref.org/MagIC>).



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