BULK COMPOSITIONS OF X-RAY AMORPHOUS MATERIALS IN SOILS AND SEDIMENTS ON EARTH COMPARED TO X-RAY AMORPHOUS MATERIALS IN GALE CRATER, MARS. R. J. Smith¹, B. Horgan², S. M. McLennan¹, and C. Achilles³, ¹Stony Brook University (rebecca.j.smith@stonybrook.edu), ²Purdue University, ²NASA/Goddard Space Flight Center.

Introduction: The Curiosity rover has investigated several hundred stratigraphic meters of fluviolacustrine sedimentary rocks in Gale crater, Mars [1-2]. All of the samples measured by the CheMin X-ray diffractometer (XRD) instrument contain high abundances (~15-60 wt.%) of an X-ray amorphous component (AmC) of unknown origin [3-12]. The bulk compositions of the AmCs are inconsistent with a single known X-ray amorphous material (*e.g.*, basaltic glass, ferrihydrite), indicating that the AmCs contain multiple phases [6, 13]. Hypotheses for the origin of these materials include: (1) weathered basaltic glass [3, 9], (2) detrital and subsequently altered soil or aeolian material [5-6], or (3) diagenetic cement [8].

X-ray amorphous weathering products are frequently found in relatively young soils and sediments on Earth [e.g., 14-16], and have been found in 20-60 Ma paleosols [17]. The AmC compositions of terrestrial samples could help determine the significance of martian AmCs. Unfortunately, very few terrestrial samples have been studied using the mass balance calculation (MBC) approach that is applied to samples in Gale crater [17-18], so it is not certain how bulk AmC compositions change with formation environment or are preserved through geologic time.

Here we apply the MBC approach to a diverse suite of terrestrial samples in order to determine how formation environment, climate, and diagenesis affect the composition of bulk AmCs. Terrestrial AmC compositions are then compared to AmC compositions calculated for samples in Gale crater.

Methods: Our sample suite includes sediments from recently de-glaciated basaltic to basaltic andesite volcanoes [19], modern basaltic volcanic soils from Hawaii [20], and basaltic andesite volcanic paleosols [21]. The MBC method combines bulk XRD mineralogy with bulk elemental analyses to calculate the bulk AmC composition. Mineral abundances are derived from Rietveld refinements of XRD patterns measured on a Panalytical instrument with a Co-K α source. Elemental chemistry is measured via XRF, titration (FeO), IR (S), and INAA (Cl).

Soil and sediment samples were sieved to $<150~\mu m$ to be consistent with CheMin measurements, and paleosols were crushed to \sim sand-sized particulates. XRD powders were prepared in a micronizing mill with internal standards (20 wt.% Al_2O_3) to quantify crystalline phases and the AmC.

It is important to note a few limitations of the MBC method. First, the composition of crystalline phases that are below the detection limit of XRD will be allocated to the AmC composition. Second, minor elemental substitutions not reported in the ideal structure formula for crystalline minerals are also allocated to the AmC composition. Third, clay minerals can have complex compositions, and when poorly constrained, their presence makes it difficult to precisely determine the AmC compositions [6].

Results: *Terrestrial AmC compositions.* Preliminary results suggest that the AmCs of terrestrial samples consist primarily of SiO₂, Al₂O₃, TiO₂, FeO_{Total}, with lesser amounts of other oxides (*e.g.*, MgO, CaO, Na₂O; Fig. 1a). None of the bulk AmCs are consistent with a single known X-ray amorphous material, indicating multi-phase mixtures. Compared to their respective crystalline counterparts, the glacial samples have bulk AmCs enriched in SiO₂ and FeO_{Total}, and depleted in Al₂O₃. In contrast, the AmCs of the modern soil and paleosol samples are mostly depleted in SiO₂ compared to their crystalline counterparts (Fig. 2a).

Martian AmC compositions. The AmCs of martian samples consist primarily of SiO₂, SO₃, FeO_{Total}, with highly variable amounts of other oxides (e.g., Al₂O₃, MgO, CaO, Na₂O; Fig. 1b). There are distinct trends in major oxide ratios for the AmCs of different stratigraphic units in Gale crater. The AmCs of the Bradbury group rocks tend to be enriched in FeO_{Total} when compared to their crystalline counterparts (Fig. 2b,

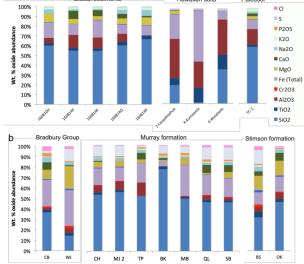


Figure 1. Bulk AmC compositions of (a) terrestrial samples compared to (b) martian samples [6, 8-12].

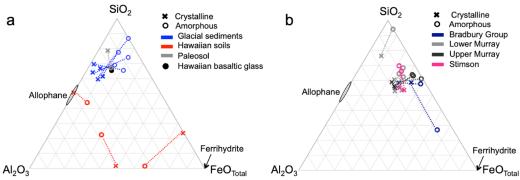


Figure 2. Major oxide ratios in weight % for bulk X-ray amorphous and crystalline component compositions derived using the MBC method for (a) terrestrial soils, sediments, and paleosols and (b) martian sediments and sedimentary rocks [6, 8-12].

blue markers). Whereas, Stimson formation rocks have AmCs that are relatively enriched in SiO₂ compared to their crystalline counterparts (Fig. 2b, pink markers). Preliminary MCB results for upper Murray rocks (MB, QL, SB; [12]) suggest that their AmCs are more enriched in FeO_{Total} and less enriched in SiO₂ (Fig. 2b, black markers) than the AmCs in rocks in the lower Murray formation (CH, MJ, BK, TP), which are enriched in SiO₂ when compared to their crystalline counterparts (Fig. 2b, grey markers).

Discussion: TEM analyses indicate that the AmCs in terrestrial samples are mostly weathering products. Therefore, our MBC results show that bulk AmC compositions do vary between weathering environments in particular, the relative enrichment or depletion in SiO₂. SiO₂ is highly mobile during the weathering of mafic parent materials [22]. Yet, colder and more rapid weathering during melt events in glacial environments preferentially forms poorly crystalline phases that take up the SiO₂ in solution [23] (Fig. 2a, blue markers). In developed soils in warm and wet environments, most of the SiO₂ is removed from the system, but what is left is taken up by more crystalline minerals, like clays (Fig. 2a, red markers). Most of the bulk SiO₂ also ends up in crystalline clays, rather than the AmC, for the one paleosol studied thus far (Fig. 2a, grey marker).

Comparison to martian samples: The overall bulk AmC compositions of the Murray and Stimson martian rocks are most similar to the AmCs of our glacial and paleosol samples, with the exception of higher SO₃ and Cr₂O₃ in the martian samples (Fig. 1). The high SO₃ abundances in martian CH, MJ, and TP AmCs have been attributed to episodes of diagenesis [9], and a similar argument can be made for the other Murray samples (Fig. 1b). As observed in our terrestrial sample set, martian rocks with higher abundances of clay minerals (upper Murray; ~16-28 wt.%; [24]) exhibit lower SiO₂ in their AmCs than rocks with lower clay abundances (lower Murray; ~0-7.5 wt.%; [9]).

The Bradbury group samples exhibit markedly different bulk AmC compositions compared to our terres-

trial samples, with depleted SiO₂ along with low Al₂O₃ abundances and higher abundances of mono- and divalent cation oxides (*e.g.*, MgO, Na₂O) than any bulk or individual X-ray amorphous composition observed in our samples thus far.

Summary: The AmCs of both terrestrial and martian samples are multi-phase mixtures, containing iron oxides and (alumino)silicates, with an additional sulfate component in the martian samples. The components of these mixtures may have different origins. Sulfate AmCs in martian samples likely represent postdepositional diagenesis [9], while similarities between some terrestrial and martian iron oxide and aluminosilicate AmCs suggest that these components can be consistent with a detrital origin (e.g., formed during weathering elsewhere and transported to Gale crater). Yet, a diagenetic origin for these materials cannot be ruled out since it is still unclear how detrital AmCs persist through diagenesis, and X-ray amorphous silicates and iron oxides are common cementing materials in terrestrial sedimentary rocks. Further analyses of our paleosols will help constrain the relative importance of weathering vs. diagenesis in the formation of martian X-ray amorphous components.

References: [1] Grotzinger et al. (2014) Science, 343. [2] Grotzinger et al. (2015) Science, 350. [3] Bish et al. (2013) Science, 341. [4] Blake et al. (2013) Science, 341. [5] Vaniman et al. (2014) Science, 343. [6] Dehouck et al. (2014) JGR, 119, 2640-2657. [7] Morris et al. (2016) PNAS, 113, 7071-7076. [8] Treiman et al. (2016) JGR-P, 121, 75-106. [9] Rampe et al. (2017) EPSL, 471, 172-185. [10] Achilles et al. (2017) JGR-P, 122, 2344-2361. [11] Yen et al. (2017) EPSL, 471, 186-198. [12] Achilles et al. (in prep.). [13] Morrison et al. (2018) Am. Min., 103, 857-871. [14] Colman (1982) Geo. Survey Prof. Paper 1246. [15] Wada (1987) Chem. Geo., 60, 17-28. [16] Fedotov et al. (2006) Eur. Soil Sci., 39, 738-747. [17] Smith et al. (2018) J. Geo. Phys. Res., 123. [18] Jones et al. (2000) Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J., 64. [19] Scudder et al. (2016) 47th LPSC, 2937. [20] Ziegler et al. (2003) Chem. Geo., 202, 461-478. [21] Retallack et al. (1999) Geo. Soc. Am., 344. [22] McLennan et al. (2003) Geology, 31, 315-318. [23] Rutledge et al. (2017) GRL, 45. [24] Bristow et al. (2018) Sci. Adv., 4(6).