

## LETTERS

# Early geochemical environment of Mars as determined from thermodynamics of phyllosilicates

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Images of geomorphological features that seem to have been produced by the action of liquid water have been considered evidence for wet surface conditions on early Mars<sup>1</sup>. Moreover, the recent identification of large deposits of phyllosilicates, associated with the ancient Noachian terrains<sup>2,3</sup> suggests long-timescale weathering<sup>4</sup> of the primary basaltic crust by liquid water<sup>2,5</sup>. It has been proposed that a greenhouse effect resulting from a carbon-dioxide-rich atmosphere sustained the temperate climate required to maintain liquid water on the martian surface during the Noachian<sup>6,7</sup>. The apparent absence of carbonates and the low escape rates of carbon dioxide<sup>8</sup>, however, are indicative of an early martian atmosphere with low levels of carbon dioxide. Here we investigate the geochemical conditions prevailing on the surface of Mars during the Noachian period using calculations of the aqueous equilibria of phyllosilicates. Our results show that Fe<sup>3+</sup>-rich phyllosilicates probably precipitated under weakly acidic to alkaline pH, an environment different from that of the following period, which was dominated by strongly acid weathering<sup>9</sup> that led to the sulphate deposits identified on Mars<sup>10–12</sup>. Thermodynamic calculations demonstrate that the oxidation state of the martian surface was already high, supporting early escape of hydrogen. Finally, equilibrium with carbonates implies that phyllosilicate precipitation occurs preferentially at a very low partial pressure of carbon dioxide. We suggest that the possible absence of Noachian carbonates more probably resulted from low levels of atmospheric carbon dioxide, rather than primary acidic conditions<sup>13</sup>. Other greenhouse gases may therefore have played a part in sustaining a warm and wet climate on the early Mars.

Phyllosilicates, especially clay minerals, are usual products of the weathering process, resulting from the interaction between the atmosphere, the hydrosphere and the lithosphere. Impact-driven hydrothermalism may also form clays in the subsurface<sup>14</sup>. Although this process is unlikely to explain the OMEGA (Observatoire pour la Minéralogie, l'Eau, les Glaces et l'Activité) observations of deposits of several hundred square kilometres not correlated to impacts<sup>2</sup>, it still involves liquid water, mostly from meteoric or surface origin. Here we discuss a potential aqueous weathering process that might have leached the primary minerals to form the phyllosilicates detected on the surface of Mars. During leaching, fractionation of elements occurs because water removes ions progressively from primary silicates, according to their solubility. Soluble ions like K<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup> or Mg<sup>2+</sup> are dissolved first, leaving less soluble ions like Fe<sup>3+</sup>, Al<sup>3+</sup> and H<sub>4</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> (silica) to precipitate as phyllosilicates<sup>15</sup>. Therefore, phyllosilicates can be used as indicators of the degree of ion leaching by liquid water on the surface of Mars. The detection by OMEGA of Mg/Fe smectites primarily, as well as montmorillonite, Ca<sub>0.167</sub>(Al<sub>1.67</sub>Mg<sub>0.33</sub>)Si<sub>4</sub>O<sub>10</sub>(OH)<sub>2</sub> (ref. 2), containing both insoluble (Fe<sup>3+</sup>, Al<sup>3+</sup>) and soluble (Mg<sup>2+</sup> and Ca<sup>2+</sup>) ions, indicates weak

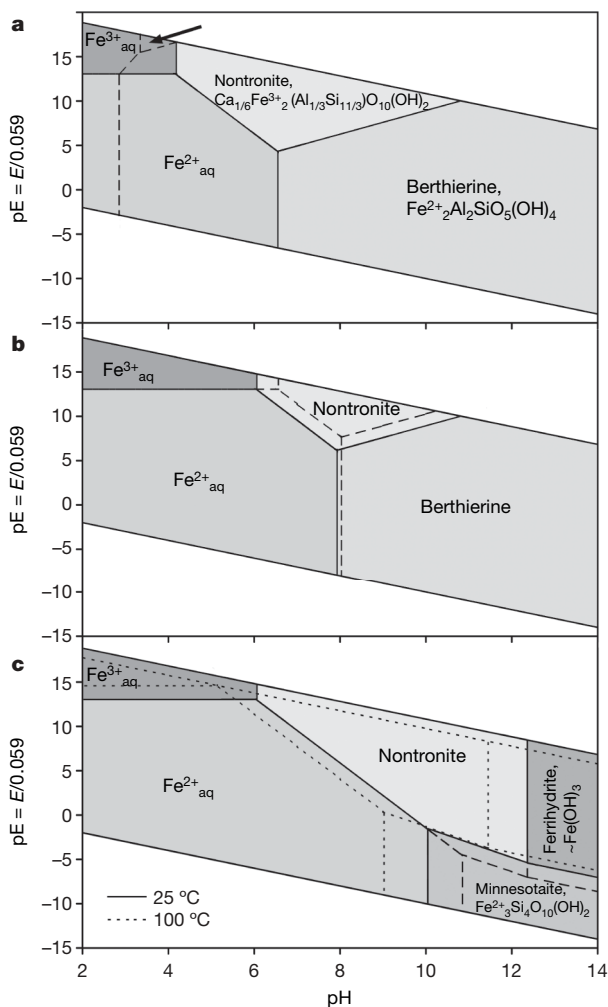
fractionation of elements and thus moderate leaching. In neutral to alkaline conditions (see below), the calculated solubility of smectites is less than 10<sup>-7</sup> g l<sup>-1</sup>. The combination of low solubility with moderate leaching suggests that the weathering process occurred at a moderate water-to-rock ratio. Very high water-to-rock ratios would have led to Al-rich phyllosilicates such as kaolinite (only tentatively detected once by OMEGA). Indeed, kaolinite is deprived of soluble ions and contains only Al<sup>3+</sup> and silica, indicating a drastic leaching of all soluble ions, and its very low solubility (10<sup>-14</sup> g l<sup>-1</sup> at pH = 7) allows it to precipitate in extremely dissolved systems.

The main chemical parameters most likely to control the precipitation of phyllosilicates are mineral, water and atmospheric compositions, as well as the temperature of the solution. The formation of iron smectite nontronite mostly depends on the oxidation–reduction and pH conditions (Fig. 1). In addition to these fundamental parameters, aluminium, iron and silica activities have a strong influence on the precipitation of nontronite. Berthierine is the usual Fe<sup>2+</sup>-phyllosilicate in reducing pedogenetic environments<sup>4,16,17</sup>. The equilibrium between berthierine and nontronite is mainly dependent on the aluminium concentration. The presence of nontronite is only possible when the activity of aluminium becomes sufficiently low, at most 10<sup>-5</sup> (Fig. 1a). Thus, at high Fe (0.8 × 10<sup>-3</sup>) and low Al<sup>3+</sup> (10<sup>-25</sup>) activities, nontronite precipitates at pH values between 4 and 10, that is, in slightly acidic to alkaline conditions. Nontronite also involves precipitation of the Fe<sup>3+</sup> phase rather than the Fe<sup>2+</sup> phase, indicating much lower iron solubility (activity of 10<sup>-10</sup>). In such higher oxidation conditions, nontronite is forced to precipitate at higher pH values of at least 6 (Fig. 1b). However, nontronite could also precipitate in subsurface environments<sup>2</sup>, in equilibrium with endogenic Fe<sup>2+</sup>-phyllosilicates such as greenalite or minnesotaite (Fig. 1c). In this case, the most significant difference is the appearance of ferrihydrite in the system, and the possibility that nontronite could precipitate at even higher pH values, up to 12 (Fig. 1c). Such environments usually present higher temperatures, which shift the stability field of nontronite towards a lower pH (about one unit at 100 °C, Fig. 1c).

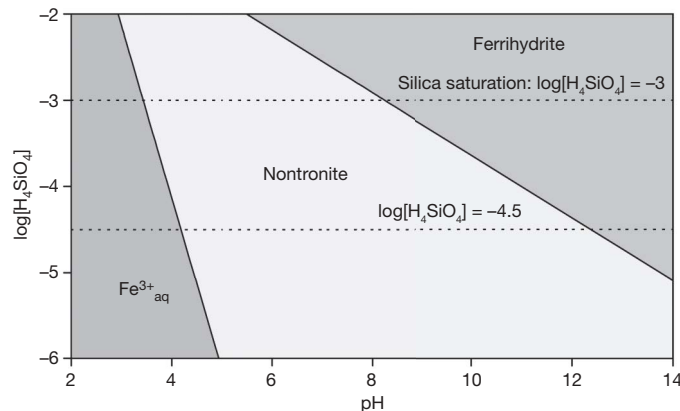
Silica activity has a strong influence on smectite precipitation. High silica activities allow nontronite to precipitate only at low pH, down to 3 at the saturation relative to amorphous silica (Fig. 2). Such low-pH conditions are often associated with the formation of sulphates observed at the surface of Mars<sup>9,11,12</sup>. Indeed, the presence of SO<sub>2</sub> generates strongly acidic waters that inhibit the formation of nontronite, and favours Fe<sup>3+</sup> sulphates. Partial pressures of SO<sub>2</sub> as low as 10<sup>-8</sup> bar generate waters with pH values of ~2–3 and high SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> activities. These values are clearly in the stability field of jarosite (Fig. 3)<sup>18</sup>. In conclusion, the presence of nontronite indicates the following conditions: (1) a low aluminium activity, (2) a high oxidation level, (3) weakly acidic to alkaline conditions and (4) very low abundance of SO<sub>2</sub>.

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The highly oxidizing conditions required for the precipitation of nontronite imply oxidation of the  $Fe^{2+}$  in primary silicates into  $Fe^{3+}$ .  $O_2$  and  $H_2O_2$  are the best potential oxidant. However,  $O_2$  abundance in the early martian atmosphere probably remained very low, below  $10^{-12}$  bar (ref. 19). On Earth, it took about 2 billion years for the  $O_2$  level to reach today's high values<sup>20</sup>, mostly because of biological activity and photosynthesis. Even in the present oxidizing martian atmosphere, the  $H_2O_2$  density is extremely low<sup>21</sup> ( $6 \times 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ ). The most abundant potential oxidant on early Mars is water. Oxidation of  $Fe^{2+}$  into  $Fe^{3+}$ , even if not thermodynamically

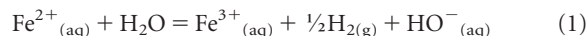


**Figure 1 | pE–pH diagrams of nontronite stability at 25 °C with other phases most likely to be present on Mars.** These phases are: aqueous  $Fe^{2+}$  and  $Fe^{3+}$ , berthierine, minnesotaite, greenalite  $Fe^{2+}_3Si_2O_5(OH)_4$  and ferrihydrite. **a**, Berthierine, with the following aqueous species activities:  $\log[Fe] = -3.1$ ,  $\log[H_4SiO_4] = -4.5$ ,  $\log[Al^{3+}] = -25$ ,  $\log[Ca^{2+}] = -3.3$ . The black dashed line shows the stability fields for the upper limit of aluminium activity ( $10^{-5}$ ) needed to still have nontronite. If the activity of  $Al^{3+}$  is larger than  $10^{-5}$ , berthierine precipitates in almost all conditions, except for very low pH (below 3) and the stability field of nontronite is extremely restricted (indicated by black arrow). **b**, Low activity of iron ( $10^{-10}$ ) resulting from oxidative conditions, indicated by the presence of  $Fe^{3+}$  phases, and for the following silica activities:  $\log[H_4SiO_4] = -4.5$  (black lines),  $\log[H_4SiO_4] = -5.5$  (dashed lines). **c**, Nontronite forms in equilibrium with endogenic phyllosilicates (minnesotaite and greenalite (dashed lines)) and for  $\log[Fe] = -10$ ,  $\log[H_4SiO_4] = -4.5$ ,  $\log[Al^{3+}] = -25$ . Endogenic conditions can lead to higher temperatures, so the equilibrium diagram is also calculated with minnesotaite at 100 °C (dotted lines) in the same conditions, using the Van't Hoff relationship<sup>30</sup>, assuming that the entropy variation is negligible in the temperature interval<sup>30</sup>.

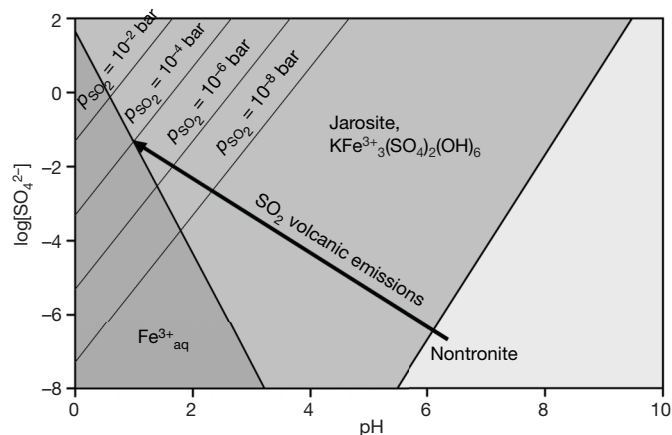


**Figure 2 | Stability field of nontronite, aqueous  $Fe^{3+}$  and ferrihydrite as a function of dissolved silica activity and pH.** Activities of  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $Al^{3+}$  are the same as for Fig. 1a. The maximum of silica activity is  $10^{-3}$ , where amorphous silica starts to precipitate, whereas  $3.2 \times 10^{-5}$  ( $\log[H_4SiO_4] = -4.5$ ) corresponds to the medium silica activity used to build the pE–pH diagrams showed in Fig. 1.

favoured, may be driven by thermal escape of  $H_2$ , resulting from the reduction of water<sup>22,23</sup>, according to the following equation:



A greenhouse effect of  $CO_2$  can be invoked to maintain liquid water long enough to allow silicate alteration, and phyllosilicate formation. Such a primitive environment has often been proposed to explain the multiple geomorphological evidences of fluvial activity<sup>6</sup> and may have resulted from primary degassing<sup>7,24</sup>. Abundant  $CO_2$  should have led to formation of carbonate deposits, which have not yet been detected by OMEGA. It has been proposed that early Noachian acidic conditions prevented precipitation of carbonates<sup>13</sup>. However, according to our calculations, the smectites observed by OMEGA on the Noachian crust indicate zones where weathering of primary silicates has acted in slightly acidic to alkaline conditions, much more favourable to carbonate formation. The large phyllosilicate-rich deposits are spatially disconnected from the Hesperian

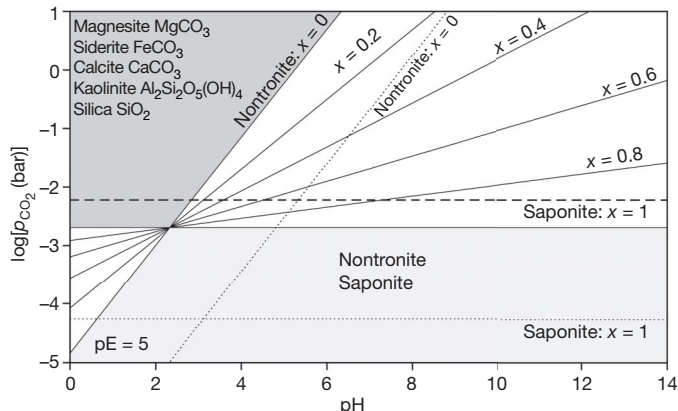


**Figure 3 | Equilibrium of nontronite versus jarosite as a function of dissolved sulphate activity ( $SO_4^{2-}$ ) and pH.** Activities of  $Fe$ ,  $Al^{3+}$ ,  $H_4SiO_4$  and  $Ca^{2+}$  are the same as for Fig. 1a, and  $\log[K^+] = -5$ . The thin lines represent various partial pressures of  $SO_2$  in equilibrium with water, at a  $H_2$  partial pressure of  $10^{-6}$  bar, according to the following reaction:  $SO_2 + H_2O = SO_4^{2-} + 2H^+ + H_2$ . The thick arrow represents the evolution of the conditions with increasing pressure of  $SO_2$  if the dissolution of  $SO_2$  is stoichiometric, forcing surface conditions to evolve from neutral-alkaline (nontronite) to acidic and sulphate-rich conditions (jarosite). The large volcanic activity at the end of the Noachian<sup>5,26</sup> has probably inhibited the precipitation of smectites, inducing the formation of the sulphate deposits widely observed in the Hesperian terrains.

sulphate-rich areas<sup>3</sup>, where the corresponding pH conditions were too low at  $\sim 3\text{--}4$  (refs 9 and 25) to allow smectite precipitation (Fig. 1).

The late Noachian to early Hesperian (around 3.7 Gyr ago) intense volcanism resulting from the Tharsis rise<sup>26</sup> and other volcanoes has probably injected large amounts of  $\text{SO}_2$  into the atmosphere, ending the neutral-weathering period of smectite formation, possibly dissolving the carbonates if present, and shifting the conditions into the sulphate-acidic environment responsible for the sulphates observed in later Hesperian terrains (Fig. 3). Smectites would still be present after this acidic phase during the Hesperian because they are far more resistant to redissolution than carbonates, and mechanical erosion continuously exposes fresh outcrops. Our modelling can also explain *in situ* observations of the  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ -bearing phase made by the Mars Exploration Rovers Spirit and Opportunity<sup>27,28</sup> as well as the detection of small phyllosilicate-rich outcrops by OMEGA in Terra Meridiani<sup>2</sup>. These observations indicate localized (in space and time) environments in which dissolved silica activity might have been sufficiently high to produce both phyllosilicates and sulphates. This could result from evaporation processes, efficient in increasing the concentrations of dissolved species<sup>9</sup>.

The (pH– $p_{\text{CO}_2}$ ) aqueous equilibrium between carbonates and smectites provides a direct insight into the  $\text{CO}_2$  partial pressure during their formation. The abundance of Mg/Fe-rich smectites<sup>2</sup> probably reflects the primary mineralogy of the martian crust dominated by Mg and Fe silicates. Because the precipitation of nontronite depends on the oxidation–reduction conditions and the pH, the equilibrium between carbonates and Mg,Fe-smectites is a function of the Fe abundance (expressed by the Mg number  $x_{\text{Mg}} = \text{Mg}/(\text{Mg} + \text{Fe})$ , in mol), and  $p_{\text{CO}_2}$  (Fig. 4). If only Mg-smectite saponite,  $\text{Ca}_{0.165}\text{Mg}_3(\text{Al}_{0.33}\text{Si}_{3.67})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$ , precipitates, the equilibrium is



**Figure 4 | Equilibrium diagram between carbonates and smectites as a function of the  $\text{CO}_2$  partial pressure, the pH and the Mg number,  $x_{\text{Mg}}$ .** ( $x_{\text{Mg}} = 1$  corresponds to Mg-smectite saponite, whereas  $x_{\text{Mg}} = 0$  corresponds to Fe-smectite nontronite). Calcite and kaolinite represent accessory phases associated to the Fe,Mg-carbonates (siderite and dolomite), accounting for the excess of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Al}^{3+}$  present in the Mg,Fe-smectites. The oxidation potential  $pE$  has been set up at 5 (oxidizing water). The silica activity has been set up at the highest value ( $10^{-3}$ ) corresponding to the saturation relative to amorphous silica, giving an upper limit to the  $\text{CO}_2$  partial pressures (thin black lines). If we consider the silica activity of the initial model ( $3.2 \times 10^{-5}$ ), the equilibrium lines of smectites and carbonates (thin dotted lines) are shifted about two orders of magnitude towards lower  $\text{CO}_2$  partial pressures. Both dark grey and light grey zones correspond to exclusive ranges of conditions (for high silica activity) where only carbonates or smectites, respectively, can exist. In the white zone, the equilibrium depends on the composition in Mg and Fe of the smectite/carbonate assemblage. Increasing concentration in Mg (and the Mg number) makes the equilibrium less sensitive to the pH. The horizontal dashed line indicates today's conditions on Mars. Considering the usually quite large error on thermodynamic values (about 0.5 log units), present-day conditions are very close to the equilibrium between Mg-rich smectites and carbonates.

independent of the pH value, at a  $p_{\text{CO}_2}$  of  $2.5 \times 10^{-3}$  bar. Increasing Fe (decreasing  $x_{\text{Mg}}$ ) abundances towards the nontronite end member makes the equilibrium more sensitive to the pH. In this case the Fe-rich smectite can precipitate at higher  $p_{\text{CO}_2}$  if the pH is higher, and at lower  $p_{\text{CO}_2}$  in a less neutral environment (Fig. 4). It has been previously demonstrated that the precipitation of nontronite is also strongly sensitive to the silica activity (Fig. 2). Setting the silica activity at the saturation relative to amorphous silica ( $10^{-3}$ ) provides an upper limit for the  $p_{\text{CO}_2}$ . Lower silica activity logically favours carbonates, which sets the carbonate–smectite boundary at lower  $p_{\text{CO}_2}$  (Fig. 4).

The ALH84001 meteorite is an Mg,Fe-orthopyroxenite ( $x_{\text{Mg}} \approx 0.8$ ) of Noachian age. If it is representative of the primary martian crust composition, the  $p_{\text{CO}_2}$  of the equilibrium between carbonates and smectites is low between  $10^{-2}$  and  $10^{-3}$  atm at silica saturation, and  $10^{-5}$  to  $10^{-4}$  for the lower silica activity ( $3.2 \times 10^{-5}$ , Fig. 4). Therefore, the presence of smectites without carbonates, if confirmed when analysed at sample levels (NASA's Mars Science Laboratory and the ESA's Exomars, which are next-generation rovers for the surface exploration of Mars), would suggest that the  $p_{\text{CO}_2}$  remained low during the Noachian, and thus probably during the entire history of Mars.

A low  $p_{\text{CO}_2}$  value in the Noachian is not sufficient to sustain a warm and wet atmosphere. Therefore, a sufficient greenhouse effect might require the presence of other gases, such as sulphur dioxide, ammonia and methane. However, ammonia is rapidly photolytised to  $\text{N}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2$  (ref. 29). The absence of sulphate deposits in the Noachian terrains<sup>5</sup> does not favour a sulphate-rich early Noachian atmosphere (Fig. 3), leaving methane as an alternative<sup>17</sup>, provided that a large flux was present.

## METHODS

The smectite compositions represent chemical end members most likely to be present on the early Mars<sup>30</sup>, according to its primary mafic composition. The thermodynamic values used in the calculations come from various sources (see Supplementary Information). All diagrams were calculated by setting the equilibrium reactions and calculating the corresponding Gibbs free energy of the reaction  $\Delta_r G_{298\text{K}, 1\text{bar}}$ , converted into the reaction constant  $K$  (see equations in the Supplementary Information) according to the formula:

$$K = \exp[-\Delta_r G_{298\text{K}, 1\text{bar}}^0 / RT] \quad (2)$$

where  $R$  is the ideal gas constant and  $T$  is the temperature of the reaction. The pH of the equilibrium was calculated from the products of the activities of the dissolved species. For the oxidation–reduction reaction potential  $E$ , we used the following formula:

$$E = E^0 + (0.059/n)\log K \quad (3)$$

where  $n$  is the number of exchanged electrons. The equilibrium reactions are then plotted in a space in which  $E$  is a function of pH such that voltage  $E$  divided by 0.059 gives a pH equivalent, that is, an activity of electrons in the solution ( $pE$ ) rather than a voltage (Fig. 1). Eventually other variables can be used, such as activities of important ions (such as  $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4$  in Fig. 2 or  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  in Fig. 3) or partial pressures ( $p_{\text{CO}_2}$  in Fig. 4). The temperature effect was determined using the Van't Hoff equation, assuming that the enthalpy variation  $\Delta_r H_{298\text{K}, 1\text{bar}}^0$  is negligible in the temperature interval<sup>30</sup>:

$$\ln(K_2/K_1) = (\Delta_r H_{298\text{K}, 1\text{bar}}^0 / R) \times (1/T_1 - 1/T_2) \quad (4)$$

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**Supplementary Information** is linked to the online version of the paper at [www.nature.com/nature](http://www.nature.com/nature).

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