

Earth-like Habitable Environments in the Subsurface of Mars

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13	
14	Abstract
15	In Earth's deep continental subsurface, where groundwaters are often isolated for $>10^{6}$ -
16	10^9 years, energy released by radionuclides within rock produces oxidants and reductants that
17	drive metabolisms of non-photosynthetic microorganisms. Similar processes could support past
18	and present life in the martian subsurface. Sulfate-reducing microorganisms are common in
19	Earth's deep subsurface, often using hydrogen derived directly from radiolysis of pore water and
20	sulfate derived from oxidation of rock-matrix-hosted sulfides by radiolytically-derived oxidants.
21	Radiolysis thus produces redox energy to support a deep biosphere in groundwaters isolated
22	
	from surface substrate input for millions to billions of years on Earth. Here we demonstrate that

24 the subsurface of present-day Mars, one in which Earth-like microorganisms could survive 25 wherever groundwater exists. We show that the source localities for many martian meteorites are 26 capable of producing sufficient redox nutrients to sustain up to millions of sulfate-reducing 27 microbial cells per kg rock via radiolysis alone, comparable to cell densities observed in many 28 regions of Earth's deep subsurface. Additionally, we calculate variability in supportable sulfate-29 reducing cell densities between the martian meteorite source regions. Our results demonstrate 30 that martian subsurface groundwaters, where present, would largely be habitable by sulfatereducing bacteria from a redox energy perspective via radiolysis alone. 31

32

33 **1.0 Introduction**

The surface of Mars is an extremely hostile environment characterized by freezing 34 35 temperatures, desiccating conditions, high levels of ionizing radiation, oxidizing chemicals, low pressures, and a lack of liquid water that preclude any Earth-like organisms from surviving 36 37 without adaptation that is unprecedented on Earth. Though some extremophiles on Earth have 38 evolved to tolerate certain conditions relevant for Mars, any martian life formed in earlier eras 39 would have taken refuge in the subsurface for survival (National Academies of Sciences, 40 Engineering, and Medicine et al., 2018; Michalski et al., 2018), perhaps temporarily inhabiting transiently habitable near-surface environments formed by meteorite impacts into ice-rich rock 41 (Schwenzer et al., 2012). Within the last three decades, researchers have discovered that fluids 42 43 preserved within Earth's kilometers deep subsurface contain significant quantities of biomass utilizing a wide diversity of redox reactions to drive their microbial metabolisms (Onstott et al., 44 45 2019). Similar habitable subsurface environments could potentially have existed on ancient Mars 46 (Onstott et al., 2019; Tarnas et al., 2018), may still exist on modern Mars (Michalski et al.,

47	2013), and could exist on other planetary objects including ocean worlds, small bodies like
48	Ceres, and exoplanets, making them an exciting frontier of planetary exploration (National
49	Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine et al., 2018; Stamenković et al., 2019).
50	Planetary objects with lower surface gravity than Earth, including Mars, likely have higher
51	volumes of habitable pore and fracture space that extend deeper into the crust compared to Earth
52	(e.g., Goossens et al., 2017; Lewis et al., 2019), increasing the volume of feasibly supportable
53	biomass if sufficient liquid water and redox energy is available (Sleep, 2012).
54	In Earth's subsurface, actively metabolizing microbes can be sustained by fluids that have
55	been isolated from surface substrate input for $>10^{6}-10^{9}$ years (Lin et al., 2006; Holland et al.,
56	2013; Li et al., 2016; Warr et al., 2018; Lollar et al., 2019)-similar to groundwater isolation
57	timescales expected on Mars (Grimm et al., 2017)-powered solely by redox energy derived
58	from water-rock reactions including radiolysis and serpentinization (Sherwood Lollar et al.,
59	2014; Warr et al., 2019). Radiolysis, the breaking of H_2O molecules in pore spaces by α , β , and γ
60	radiation released from decay of radionuclides within host rock, generates both dissolved
61	reductants (e.g. H ₂ ; Lin et al., 2005b; Warr et al., 2019) and dissolved oxidants (e.g. H ₂ O ₂ ; ref.
62	Lefticariu et al., 2010; Li et al., 2016). The dissolved H ₂ generated by radiolysis can be used
63	directly as a reductant by subsurface microbes, while the primary oxidant byproducts of
64	radiolysis can oxidize sulfides within the host rock matrix to form dissolved sulfate (SO ₄)
65	(Lefticariu et al., 2010; Li et al., 2016) that can then be used by microbes as an oxidant (Lin et
66	al., 2005b; Lin et al., 2006; Chivian et al., 2008; Li et al., 2016; Lollar et al., 2019). Sulfate-
67	reducing microorganisms are found kilometers deep on Earth in many groundwaters that have
68	been isolated for $>10^7$ years (Lin et al., 2005b; Lin et al., 2006; Chivian et al., 2008; Li et al.,
69	2016; Lollar et al., 2019), and a significant component of the H_2 and SO_4 in especially ancient

70 groundwaters is typically derived from radiolysis (Li et al., 2016; Warr et al., 2019). Radiation 71 doses from decay of rock-matrix-hosted radionuclides are insufficient to sterilize microbial 72 communities, as demonstrated by the presence of microbes in these subsurface settings (e.g., Lin 73 et al., 2005a; Lin et al. 2005b; Lin et al. 2006; Chivian et al., 2008; Lollar et al., 2019). Thus, 74 these Earth systems prove that in any subsurface environment containing radionuclides, liquid 75 H₂O, and sulfides, radiolysis alone has the potential to provide sufficient biologically-supportive 76 redox energy to sustain a subsurface biome (Onstott et al., 2006; Sherwood Lollar et al., 2014). There are many alternative potential pathways to generate additional redox couples for life in 77 78 subsurface martian environments, including in fluid mixing zones that create chemical 79 disequilibria (Sherwood Lollar et al., 2007), which will not be considered here. Accordingly, the 80 gas production rates and supportable cell density ranges presented in this work should be 81 considered conservative estimates.

82

83 **2.0 Methods**

84 *2.1 Summary*

85 The model used to estimate H_2 production rates, sulfate production rates, dissolved H_2 86 concentrations, dissolved sulfate concentrations, and supportable sulfate-reducing cell densities 87 is similar to models employed in Lefticariu et al., (2010); Li et al., (2016); and Altair et al., (2018) (Section 2.2). Porosity (Section 2.3), sulfide concentrations (Section 2.4), average sulfide 88 89 grain sizes (Section 2.5), radionuclide concentrations (Section 2.6), and sulfate-reducing metabolic rates are the key parameters necessary to constrain the model. H_2 production rates are 90 91 dependent on porosity and radionuclide concentrations, increasing as porosity and radionuclide 92 concentrations increase. Sulfate production rates are dependent on porosity, radionuclide

93 concentrations, sulfide concentrations, and average sulfide grain size. They increase as porosity, 94 radionuclide concentrations, and sulfide concentrations increase and decrease as sulfide grain 95 size increases, as less reactive surface area is exposed when sulfide grains are larger. Dissolved 96 H₂ and sulfate concentrations increase as porosity decreases, as there is less fluid in which to 97 dissolve the H₂ and sulfate that is produced. Supportable sulfate-reducing cell densities in units of cells (kg rock)⁻¹ increase as porosity and sulfate production rates increase, since sulfate is the 98 99 limiting redox nutrient in all model results presented here. Supportable sulfate-reducing cell densities in units of cells L^{-1} decrease as porosity increases because there is less fluid per volume 100 rock for the cells to reside in. Supportable sulfate-reducing cell densities are higher when the 101 102 assumed sulfate-reducing metabolic rate is lower.

103 Porosity is constrained using density estimates for the martian crust from orbital 104 gravimetry (Goossens et al., 2017) that are supported by rover gravimetry (Lewis et al., 2019) 105 (Section 2.3). Sulfide concentrations (Section 2.4), average sulfide grain sizes (Section 2.5), and 106 radionuclide concentrations (Section 2.6) are constrained by their measured values in martian 107 meteorites. The maximum and minimum assumed sulfate-reducing metabolic rates are based on 108 the fastest and slowest sulfate-reducing metabolic rates estimated for fracture fluids in the gold 109 mines of the Witwatersrand Basin (Lin et al., 2006; Chivian et al., 2008). The calculated sulfate-110 reducing cell densities are compared to those found in Earth's deep subsurface (Onstott et al., 111 2003; Cockell et al., 2012; Magnabosco et al., 2018; Onstott et al., 2019) (Fig. 2). 112 The amount of radiolytic hydrogen and sulfate that would be produced in each of the 113 different martian meteorite source regions is calculated based on their individual K, Th, and U concentrations (Fig. 1e, Table 2), sulfide concentrations (Fig. 1f, Table 1), average sulfide grain 114 115 sizes (Fig. 1f, Table 1), and estimated range of porosity (Fig. 1c, Table 2) before the impact

116 events that ejected these rocks from the martian gravity well. Based on the produced amounts of 117 these redox nutrients, the number of supportable sulfate-reducing cells per kg rock is calculated 118 for each of these meteorite source regions using the range of sulfate-reducing metabolic rates 119 observed in Earth's deep subsurface (Lin et al., 2006; Chivian et al., 2008). Porosity range 120 assumptions are based on density estimates of different martian terrains from orbital gravimetry (Fig. 1c-d; Section 2.2) (Goossens et al., 2017), a range that is supported by rover gravimetry 121 122 (Lewis et al., 2019). The radiolysis model applied here (Section 2.3) is similar to the one employed in Lin et al., (2005b); Li et al., (2016); Dzaugis et al., (2018); Tarnas et al., (2018); and 123 124 Warr et al., (2019).

125

126 2.2 Radiolysis model

The model used here follows the radiolytic H₂ and SO₄ production models presented in Lin
et al., (2005a); Lin et al., (2005b); Li et al., (2016); Tarnas et al., (2018); and Warr et al., (2019).
This calculates radiogenic dose rate as

130 (1) $E_{net,i} = \frac{E_i \times W \times S_i}{1 + W \times S_i}$

131 where *i* is α , β , or γ radiation, E_{net} is the net dosage absorbed by pore water (eV kg⁻¹ s⁻¹), *E* is 132 the apparent dosage from radioactive element decay (eV kg⁻¹ s⁻¹), *W* is the weight ratio of pore 133 water to rock, and *S* is the stopping power of minerals within the rock matrix with respect to 134 each type of radiation particle/ray, where $S_{\alpha} = 1.5$, $S_{\beta} = 1.25$, $S_{\gamma} = 1.14$ (Lin et al., 2005a; Lin 135 et al., 2005b; Tarnas et al., 2018; Warr et al., 2019). The stopping power of minerals can be 136 estimated using Bragg's law (Bragg and Kleeman, 1905) and typically varies by <0.5 for silicate 137 minerals (Nogami and Hurley, 1948). 138 *W*, the weight ratio of pore water to rock, primarily depends on the rock porosity with 139 additional minor variations induced by differences in water density in solid (~900 kg m⁻³) or 140 liquid (~1000 kg m⁻³) phase. Values from Adamiec and Aitken, 1998 are used for *E* for 1 wt. % 141 K, 1 ppm Th, and 1 ppm U for α , β , and γ radiation, which are $E_{K,\alpha} = 0$ (Gy ka⁻¹), $E_{K,\beta} = 0.782$ 142 (Gy ka⁻¹), $E_{K,\gamma} = 0.243$ (Gy ka⁻¹), $E_{Th,\alpha} = 0.061$ (Gy ka⁻¹), $E_{Th,\beta} = 0.027$ (Gy ka⁻¹), $E_{Th,\gamma} =$ 143 0.048 (Gy ka⁻¹), $E_{U,\alpha} = 0.218$ (Gy ka⁻¹), $E_{U,\beta} = 0.146$ (Gy ka⁻¹), $E_{U,\gamma} = 0.113$ (Gy ka⁻¹). 1 Gy

144 = $6.2415 \times 10^{18} \text{ eV kg}^{-1}$.

145 H_2 yield is calculated as

146

(2)
$$Y_{H2} = \sum E_{net,i} \times G_{H2,i}$$

where Y_{H2} is the total yield of H₂ molecules (molecules kg⁻¹ s⁻¹) and G_{H2} is the number of H₂ 147 148 molecules produced per 100 eV of radiation. The conversion factor between (kg water) and (kg water and rock matrix) is W, the weight ratio of pore water to rock. For H₂O, $G_{H2,\alpha} = 0.96$ H₂ 149 molecules $(100 \text{ eV})^{-1}$, $G_{H2,\beta} = 0.6 \text{ H}_2$ molecules $(100 \text{ eV})^{-1}$, $G_{H2,\gamma} = 0.4 \text{ H}_2$ molecules $(100 \text{ eV})^{-1}$ 150 ¹ (Lin et al., 2005a; Lin et al., 2005b; Tarnas et al., 2018; Warr et al., 2019). The value of G_{H2} 151 152 changes depending on the liquid or solid substance filling the pore space, and has received 153 extensive study due to its importance in the context of nuclear waste storage. It is typically higher for chloride brines than for pure water (LaVerne and Tandon, 2005; Buck et al., 2012) 154 155 due to the reaction of dissolved brine ions (e.g. Cl⁻) with ions formed via radiative destruction of 156 neutral H₂O molecules (e.g. OH·). This causes a depletion of ions that would react with H· generated by radiolysis, leaving more H· in solution, which reacts to form H₂ (2H· \rightarrow H₂) (Klein 157 158 et al., 2020). Hydrated chloride salts, embedded in either pore space or within the rock matrix, will also produce H₂, though at lower production efficiencies relative to pure water, ice, or brine 159 160 (LaVerne and Tandon, 2005). These different production efficiencies are summarized in Tarnas

161 et al., 2018 and references therein. Presence of certain minerals, such as zeolites, can

significantly increase H₂ and oxidant production efficiency from radiolysis (Kumagai et al.,

163 2013). Zeolites are found in both bedrock (Ehlmann et al., 2009) and dust (Ruff, 2004) on Mars,

thus this mineral is expected to enhance radiolytic H_2 and oxidant production in some parts of the crust, but this effect is not modeled here in order to focus on the most conservative estimates

166 possible.

- 167 SO_4 production is calculated as
- 168

(3) $Y_{SO4} = \sum E_{net,i} \times G_{SO4,i}$

where Y_{SO4} is the total yield of SO₄ molecules (moles m⁻² sulfide year⁻¹) and G_{SO4} is the number 169 of SO₄ molecules produced per m² sulfide per Gy radiation. A G_{SO4} value from Lefticariu et al., 170 (2010) is used that is also used in Li et al., (2016) and Altair et al., (2018), which is 2.1×10^{-9} 171 mol m⁻² Gy⁻¹. However, while the experiments of Lefticariu et al., (2010) were performed under 172 173 high-energy radiation, they showed that G_{SO4} increases under low-radiation-dose conditions, 174 which correspond to typical radiation doses in natural systems (Li et al., 2016). Furthermore, 175 these experiments only investigated the oxidation, structural damage, and chemical weathering 176 of sulfides exposed to γ radiation. As Lefticariu et al., (2010) note, accounting for increased 177 oxidation, structural damage, and chemical weathering of sulfides from α and β radiation which typically represent >90% of total irradiated energy—would increase the G_{SO4} value, 178 179 perhaps significantly. This means once again that the calculated sulfate production rates, and 180 thus supportable sulfate-reducing cell densities herein, are likely conservative estimates. The 181 concentration of sulfate in fluid from radiolytic production is expressed as

$$(4) C_{SO4} = Y_{SO4} \times C_{sulfide} \times S_{sulfide} / W$$

where C_{S04} is the production rate of dissolved sulfate (M year⁻¹), $C_{sulfide}$ is the concentration of 183 sulfide in the rock matrix (volume ratio), and $S_{sulfide}$ is the average specific surface area of 184 sulfides in the rock matrix (m⁻² sulfide/kg). $C_{sulfide}$ values used in this study are listed in Table 185 186 2, which encompasses the values found in martian meteorites (Greenwood et al., 2000b; 187 Greenwood et al., 2000a; Rochette et al., 2001; Lorand et al., 2005; Rochette et al., 2005; 188 Chevrier et al., 2011; Lorand et al., 2015; Baumgartner et al., 2017; Jean-Pierre Lorand et al., 2018b; Jean-Pierre Lorand et al., 2018a). $S_{sulfide}$ values ranging from $2.26 \times 10^1 \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ and 189 $1.41 \times 10^3 \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ are used, which correspond to average sulfide grain sizes of 2-125 μ m. The 190 $S_{sulfide}$ values for each meteorite class are assigned based on the range of sulfide grain sizes 191 measured in those martian meteorites (Fig. 1f; Tables 1 & 2). Finally, following Altair et al., 192 (2018), minimum and maximum sulfate-reducing metabolic rates of $5.5 \times 10^{-18} - 3.6 \times 10^{-17}$ 193 moles cell⁻¹ year⁻¹ are assumed, which correspond to the minimum and maximum sulfate-194 195 reducing metabolic rates estimated in deep subsurface fracture fluids of the gold mines from the 196 Witwatersrand Basin (Lin et al., 2006; Chivian et al., 2008).

197

198 *2.3 Porosity model*

The average porosity ranges for the martian meteorite source regions are estimated using density estimates for the different regions of Mars' crust from orbital gravimetry (Goossens et al., 2017) that are validated by rover gravimetry in Gale crater that estimates a porosity range of $40 \pm 6\%$ for the top ~300 meters of bedrock (Lewis et al., 2019). Porosity in this context includes both fracture and pore space within rocks. The orbital gravimetry estimates give average densities of ~1600 kg m⁻³ for the southern highlands, 2400 kg m⁻³ for the northern lowlands, and ~2800 kg m⁻³ for the volcanic bulges. It is assumed that the volcanic bulges and northern

206 lowlands are the possible source regions for the SNCs and the southern highlands are the source region for the regolith breccias (Cassata et al., 2018). In the estimation, an average solid crust 207 matrix density range of 2000-3200 kg m⁻³ is used for the southern highlands crust, consistent 208 with its mineralogy (Ehlmann and Edwards, 2014), and 2600-3200 kg m^{-3} is used for the 209 210 northern lowlands and volcanic bulges, consistent with volcano-specific orbital gravimetry 211 (Broquet and Wieczorek, 2019). It is assumed the difference between the gravimetry density 212 measurements and rock matrix density estimates is caused by pore space filled with ice or water. The densities add linearly such that $\rho_{bulk} = \rho_{rock}(1-\theta) + \rho_{H20}(\theta)$ where θ is porosity. This 213 214 means the composition of the southern highlands rock is assumed to vary, on average, between pure phyllosilicate ($\sim 2000 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) and dense basalt ($\sim 3200 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$), while the composition of the 215 216 northern lowlands and volcanic bulges rocks are assumed to vary between 50-50 phyllosilicatebasalt mixture ($\sim 2600 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) and dense basalt ($\sim 3200 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$). Given uncertainties in density 217 218 estimates from orbital gravimetry, to be conservative, estimated porosities were reduced by 10%. 219 This does not model depth dependence of porosity, but rather the average porosity of the source 220 regions for the individual martian meteorites. This gives approximate average porosity ranges of 15-35% for the regolith breccias, 5-15% for the SNCs. The SNC porosity assumptions are 221 222 supported by images of porous float vesicular basalt rocks in Gusev crater imaged by the Spirit 223 rover (McMahon et al., 2013; McSween, 2015).

224

225 2.4 Sulfide concentrations

Martian meteorites contain sulfides of both magmatic (pyrrhotite) (Lorand et al., 2005;
Lorand et al., 2018b) and hydrothermal (pyrite) (Lorand et al., 2015; Wittmann et al., 2015;
Lorand et al., 2018) origins (Sections 2.4 & 2.5). Sulfide abundances range from <0.01-1.0 wt.

229 %. The assumed sulfide concentration ranges are derived based on these sulfide concentrations 230 found in martian meteorites (Greenwood et al., 2000b; Greenwood et al., 2000a; Rochette et al., 231 2001; Lorand et al., 2005; Rochette et al., 2005; Chevrier et al., 2011; Franz et al., 2014; Lorand 232 et al., 2015; Hewins et al., 2017; Wang and Becker, 2017; Baumgartner et al., 2017; Jean-Pierre 233 Lorand et al., 2018b; Lorand et al., 2018a; Franz et al., 2019; Hewins et al., 2020) (Fig. 1f; Table 234 1). Martian meteorites contain variable abundances of sulfides with relatively consistent grain 235 sizes for grains $>10 \,\mu\text{m}$. Published abundances for sulfides in martian meteorites, and reported 236 average grain sizes and grain size range, are presented in Table 1. Magmatic sulfides (pyrrhotite) 237 and hydrothermal sulfides (pyrite) are typically associated with SNCs and regolith breccias, 238 respectively (Greenwood et al., 2000b; Greenwood et al., 2000a; Rochette et al., 2001; Lorand et 239 al., 2005; Rochette et al., 2005; Chevrier et al., 2011; Lorand et al., 2015; Baumgartner et al., 240 2017; Lorand et al., 2018b; Lorand et al., 2018a). Pyrite is much less abundant than pyrrhotite as 241 it was described only in an orthopyroxenite (ALH84001), two chassignites and a few nakhlites 242 (as minor pyrrhotite replacement product), as well as in regolith breccias (as primary 243 hydrothermal precipitate). Sulfide abundances are typically higher in regolith breccias than in 244 SNCs. The listed sulfide abundances are also minimum abundances, as desert weathering of 245 martian meteorite samples causes oxidation of sulfides and partial S losses (Greenwood et al., 246 2000b; Greenwood et al., 2000a; Rochette et al., 2001; Lorand et al., 2005; Rochette et al., 2005; Chevrier et al., 2011; Lorand et al., 2015; Baumgartner et al., 2017; Lorand et al., 2018b; Lorand 247 248 et al., 2018a).

The original report of sulfides in Gale crater via CheMin XRD data is no longer supported
after recalibration of the data (Morrison et al., 2018), but evolved gas analysis-mass spectroscopy
(EGA-MS) (Wong et al., 2020) and sulfur isotope measurements using the Sample Analysis at

Mars (SAM) instrument (Franz et al., 2017) support the presence of sulfides in multiple Gale
crater samples. Sulfides in Gale crater are diagenetic/epigenetic, likely resulting from thermal
reduction of preexisting sulfates (Franz et al., 2017).

256 2.5 Sulfide grain sizes

Average grain sizes for sulfides in martian meteorites range from 5-100 µm with occasional outliers up to 400 µm (Fig. 1f; Table 1 and refs. therein). Sulfide grain sizes are relatively consistent across martian meteorite samples (Fig. 1f). A compilation of published measured sulfide average grain sizes and grain size ranges in martian meteorites is presented in Table 1 and plotted in Fig. 1f. It is noteworthy that many of these studies do not consider sulfides <10 µm in diameter, thus these results may skew average sulfide grain sizes towards larger-than-true values. Since sulfate production in the calculations increases as sulfide grain size decreases, as a result of greater specific surface area, this ensures the calculations are conservative. Sulfide grain sizes depend on a wide array of parameters, including temperature, supersaturation of fluids, nucleation rates, and fracturing. For each individual martian meteorite class, the range of measured average sulfide grain sizes in those meteorites are used as the basis for the calculations.

Sample	Sulfide abundance (wt. %)	Average grain size (μm)	Grain size min (µm)	Grain size max (µm)	Publications	Type
NWA 998	0.13	-	20	120	a	Nakhlite
Nakhla	0.07 (0.08)	-	10	50	a,b	Nakhlite
Governardor Valadares	0.06	-	2	25	a	Nakhlite
NWA 817	0.03	-	2	30±15	а	Nakhlite
MIL 03346 And paired samples	0.05	-	-	-	с	Nakhlite
Y000593	0.08	-	-	-	b	Nakhlite
ALH A77005	0.3 ^d , 0.12 ^c , 0.19 ^b	100	-	-	b-d	Lherzolitic shergottites
LEW 88516	0.3	17.5	-	-	d	Lherzolitic shergottites
Y-293605	0.05	-	-	-	d	Lherzolitic shergottites
Tissint	$0.6^{\rm e}, 0.35^{\rm c}$	-	<1	200	c,e	Olivine-phyric shergottite
EET A79001-A	0.52 ^b , 0.28 ^c	-	-	-	С	Olivine-phyric shergottite
DaG 476/489	0.45	50	10	100	d	Olivine-phyric shergottites
SaU 005/094	$0.30^{\rm d}, 0.16^{\rm c}, 0.38^{\rm b}$	30	10	50	b-d	Olivine-phyric shergottites
Dhofar 019	$0.5^{\rm d}, 0.20^{\rm c}$	25	-	-	c, d	Olivine-phyric shergottites
NWA 1068/1110	0.8	-	-	-	c, d	Olivine-phyric shergottites
Y-980459	0.1 ^c , 0.4 ^b	30	5	50	b-d, f	Olivine-phyric shergottites
Zagami	$0.7^{\rm d}, 0.24^{\rm c}, 0.35^{\rm b}$	<10	100	200	b-d	Basaltic shergottite
Shergotty	0.4	-	100	200	d	Basaltic shergottite
EET A79001-B	0.12	-	-	-	С	Basaltic shergottite
QUE 94201	$0.3^{\rm d}, 0.13^{\rm c}$	-	-	-	d	Basaltic shergottite
~ NWA 480	0.24	-	100	200	d	Basaltic shergottite
NWA 856	0.1	-	-	-	d	Basaltic shergottite
Los Angeles	$0.67^{\rm d}, 0.32^{\rm c}$	-	200	400	d	Basaltic shergottite
Y000097	0.12	-	-	-	b	Lherzolitic shergottite
LAR 12011	0.35	-	-	-	b	Lherzolitic shergottite
LAR12095	0.5	-	-	-	b	Lherzolitic shergottite
Mean of 37	0.21±0.18	-	-	-	c, g	Shergottites

	shergottites						
	NWA 7533	1±0.1	35	-	-	h, i	Regolith breccia
	Chassigny	0.02	20	1-5	30	j	Chassignite
	NWA 2737	0.015 ± 0.005	-	3	60	k	Chassignite
201		<0.01 ulfida concentra	- tions and a	ı noin cize	20 a in m a	1 ntion moto	chassignite
284	Table 1 S	unide concentra	uons and g	rain size	s m ma	ruan mete	cornes. Assume density of
285	5000 kg/m	³ for sulfide and	3000 kg/m ³	' for hos	t rock to	o convert f	rom vol % to wt %. Franz
286	et al. (2014	, 2019) and Wang	g and Becke	r (2017)	data are	calculated	from whole-rock S contents
287	assuming 3	8 wt.% S for pyri	rhotite and 5	54 wt. %	for pyrit	e. Other su	lfide abundances are from
288	image anal	yses on polished t	thick section	ns. ^a (Che	vrier et a	al., 2011), ¹	Wang and Becker, 2017),
289	^c (Franz et a	ıl., 2014), ^d (Loran	nd et al., 200	5 and ret	fs. therei	in), ^e (Gatta	cceca et al., 2013),
290	^f (Baumgart	mer et al., 2017),	^g (Franz et al	., 2019),	^h (Loran	d et al., 20	15), ⁱ (Lorand et al., 2018a),
291	^j (Lorand et	al., 2018b), ^k (Loi	rand et al., 2	2012), ¹ (H	lewins e	t al., 2020)).
292							
293	2.6 Radion	uclide concentrat	tions				
294	Martia	n meteorites and r	remote meas	surement	s by the	Gamma R	ay Spectrometer (GRS)
295	onboard M	ars Odyssey (Boy	nton et al., 2	2007), w	hich is s	ensitive to	the top ~tens of cm of the
296	martian cru	ist, provide first-c	order constra	uints for 1	radionuc	lide conce	ntrations in the martian
297	subsurface	(Fig. 1). Radionu	clide concer	ntrations	in the to	op ~tens of	cm in the martian crust vary
298	with latitud	le and longitude (Fig. 1a-b), a	and volca	nic sher	gottite-nak	hlite-chassignite (SNC)
299	martian me	teorites generally	have lower	radionu	clide cor	ntents than	regolith breccias (Fig. 1e)
300	that are like	ely representative	of the Noac	chian cru	st (Cass	ata et al., 2	018) (Fig. 1). Elemental
301	concentrati	ons in martian me	eteorites ran	ge from	~0.01-0.	.4 wt. % K	, ~0.01-2 ppm Th, and
302	~0.003-0.3	6 ppm U (Onstott	t et al., 2006	; Meyer,	2016) (Fig. 1e). So	ome U enrichment in these
303	samples is	possible through	desert conta	mination	(Tarnas	s et al., 201	8). K and Th concentrations
304	estimated f	rom GRS measur	ements rang	ge from ~	0.07-0.6	ó wt. % and	l ~0.015-1.1 ppm (Boynton et
305	al., 2007; T	Carnas et al., 2018), respective	ely (Fig.	1a-b,e).		

306	For calculations of SO_4 and H_2 production in martian meteorites, the measured values for K,
307	Th, and U in each individual meteorite class were used (Onstott et al., 2006; Meyer, 2016),
308	integrating both the maximum and minimum radionuclide concentration values measured (Fig.
309	1e; Table 2). The K and Th concentration ranges for SNCs are substantially lower than K and Th
310	concentrations measured in GRS data (Fig. 1e), meaning the majority of the martian crust at
311	depths shallower than ~0.5 m typically has higher radionuclide concentrations than are
312	represented by the SNCs. Following Hahn et al., (2011) and Tarnas et al., (2018), the GRS data
313	are normalized to correct for contributions from Cl, H, and S. K concentrations measured by
314	Mars rovers range from 0.05 wt. % measured by Spirit to 4.4 wt. % measured by Curiosity
315	(Gellert et al., 2004; Deit et al., 2016).

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- 317

Category	K ₂ O concentration (wt %)	Th concentration (ppm)	U concentration (ppm)	Sulfide concentration (vol %)	Sulfide grain size (um)	Porosity (%)
Regolith breccia	0.42-0.51 ^{a,b,c}	1.1-2 ^{a,b,c}	0.29-0.36 ^{a,b,c}	$0.6 \pm 0.1^{a,b,c}$	2- 100 ^{a,b,c}	15-35
Chassignite	0.036-0.05 ^d	0.057-0.13 ^d	$0.018 - 0.056^{d}$	0.006-0.012 ^{e,f}	2-60 ^{e,f}	5-15
Nakhlite	$0.11-0.27^{d}$	$0.15 - 0.42^{d}$	$0.052-0.23^{d}$	$0.018-0.078^{g}$	2-50 ^g	5-15
Shergottite	0.0156-0.35 ^d	0.0117-0.57 ^d	$0.00303 - 0.12^{d}$	$0.03-0.6^{h}$	$10-200^{h}$	5-15

Table 2 | Range of values for martian meteorites calculations. ^aAgee et al. (2013), ^bWittman

319 et al. (2015), ^cLorand et al. (2018a), ^dMeyer et al. (2016), ^eLorand et al. (2018b), ^fLorand et al.

320 (2012), ^gChevrier et al. (2011), ^hLorand et al. (2005), ⁱLe Deit et al. (2016), ^jBoynton et al.

321 (2007), ^kHahn et al. (2011), ^lTarnas et al. (2018), ^mVaniman et al. (2014). Sulfide grain size

322 excludes the few unusually large sulfide grains reported in each meteorite class.

323

324

325 **3.0 Results**

326 *3.1 Habitable redox conditions in martian meteorite source regions*

327 The results presented here show that the shergottite, nakhlite, chassignite, and regolith 328 breccia martian meteorite source localities would all produce sufficient redox energy to support 329 sulfate-reducing life where liquid groundwater exists within these lithologies. In all cases, based 330 on the calculations herein, sulfate is the limiting redox nutrient in comparison with H₂. The 331 regolith breccia source locality could support significantly more sulfate-reducing life than the 332 SNC localities because it has higher concentrations of both radionuclides and sulfides. Of the 333 SNCs, the shergottite and nakhlite source localities could support the highest densities of sulfate-334 reducing cells. Key findings are illustrated in Fig. 2, displayed in Table 3, and are summarized below as: 335

336(1) Regolith breccia source locality: The sulfate production rates for the regolith breccia337source locality vary from $\sim [2 \times 10^{-14}] - [7 \times 10^{-12}]$ moles (kg rock)⁻¹ year⁻¹, while H₂338production rates range from $\sim [1-3] \times 10^{-11}$ moles (kg rock)⁻¹ year⁻¹, which could support339 $[7 \times 10^2] \cdot [1 \times 10^6]$ sulfate-reducing cells per kg rock. The regolith breccia source locality340would generate the most redox energy for sulfate-reducing microorganisms compared to341the other martian meteorite source localities.



344

range from ~
$$[4 \times 10^{-14}]$$
- $[4 \times 10^{-12}]$ moles (kg rock)⁻¹ year⁻¹, which could support $[2 \times 10^{-12}]$

345 ¹]- $[3 \times 10^4]$ sulfate-reducing cells per kg rock wherever liquid water exists.

346 (3) *Nakhlite source locality:* The sulfate production rates for nakhlite source localities vary 347 from $\sim [1 \times 10^{-16}] - [2 \times 10^{-13}]$ moles (kg rock)⁻¹ year⁻¹, while H₂ production rates range

from
$$\sim [5 \times 10^{-13}] - [6 \times 10^{-12}]$$
 moles (kg rock)⁻¹ year⁻¹, which could support [3]-[3 × 10⁴]
sulfate-reducing cells per kg rock.

350 (4) *Chassignite source locality:* The sulfate production rates for chassignite source localities

351 vary from ~ $[1 \times 10^{-17}]$ – $[6 \times 10^{-15}]$ moles (kg rock)⁻¹ year⁻¹, while H₂ production rates

range from ~ $[2 \times 10^{-13}]$ - $[2 \times 10^{-12}]$ moles (kg rock)⁻¹ year⁻¹, which could support $[4 \times 10^{-12}]$

353 ¹]- $[1 \times 10^3]$ sulfate-reducing cells per kg rock.

354

355

	Radiolytic H_2	Radiolytic Sulfate	Supportable
	production rate in	production rate in	sulfate-reducing
	moles $(kg \ rock)^{-1}$	moles (kg rock) ⁻¹ year	cell density in cells
	year ⁻¹	1	$(kg \ rock)^{-1}$
Regolith breccia	$\sim [1-3] \times 10^{-11}$	$\sim [2 \times 10^{-14}] - [7 \times 10^{-12}]$	$[7 \times 10^{2}]$ - $[1 \times 10^{6}]$
Shergottite	$\sim [4 \times 10^{-14}] - [4 \times 10^{-12}]$	$\sim [8 \times 10^{-18}] - [2 \times 10^{-13}]$	$[2 \times 10^{-1}]$ - $[3 \times 10^{4}]$
Nakhlite	$\sim [5 \times 10^{-13}] - [6 \times 10^{-12}]$	$\sim [1 \times 10^{-16}] - [2 \times 10^{-13}]$	$[3]-[3 \times 10^4]$
Chassignite	$\sim [2 \times 10^{-13}] - [2 \times 10^{-12}]$	$\sim [1 \times 10^{-17}] - [6 \times 10^{-15}]$	$[4 \times 10^{-1}]$ - $[1 \times 10^{3}]$

Table 3 | Estimated H₂ and sulfate production rates for martian meteorite source regions

357 and associated supportable sulfate-reducing cell densities.

358

359 The sulfate production rates from these calculations are several orders of magnitude lower 360 than those of Lefticariu et al., (2010) because those authors assumed 5-10 wt. % pyrite in the 361 martian crust, while this study uses lower sulfide concentrations based on measured values from 362 martian meteorites (Fig. 1f, Table 1). Because the model uses the lowest and highest measured 363 sulfate-reducing metabolic rates in Witwatersrand Basin for calculating cell density estimates 364 (Lin et al., 2006; Chivian et al., 2008), there is a difference between the estimated maximum and 365 minimum range for sulfate production rates and the estimated maximum and minimum range for number of supportable sulfate-reducing cells per kg rock. H_2 production estimates, in units of H_2 366

dissolved in water, range from 0.002-0.165 nM H_2 /year. This compares to estimates by Dzaugis et al., (2018) of 0.001-1.2 nM H_2 /year for proposed Mars landing sites. The differences in the dissolved H_2 estimates between this study and Dzaugis et al., (2018) derive from differences in radionuclide concentrations and porosity used for calculations in the two studies.

371 The number of supportable sulfate-reducing cells per kg rock in the nakhlite, shergottite, and regolith breccia source localities are comparable to those found in Earth's deep subsurface ($\sim 10^4$ 372 -10^{6} cells per kg rock; Onstott et al., 2019) (Fig. 2). Estimates for the chassignite source locality 373 meanwhile are slightly lower ($\sim 10^1 - 10^3$ cells per kg rock). In all cases, sulfate is the redox 374 nutrient that limits sustainable cell densities, and as such estimated cell densities are most 375 376 sensitive to estimated sulfate production rates. The martian regolith breccia NWA 7034 and one 377 of its paired samples, NWA 7533, contain the highest radionuclide and sulfide concentrations of 378 the currently known martian meteorites, and thus their source locality would host sulfate 379 production rates capable of supporting the greatest density of sulfate-reducing microorganisms 380 relative to other known martian meteorites. Regolith breccia meteorites are likely representative 381 of the southern highlands, which is a major fraction of Mars' total crustal volume. The results 382 presented here support growing evidence that the subsurface is potentially the largest, longest-383 lived, and most consistently habitable environment on Mars (Michalski et al., 2018; Michalski et 384 al., 2013; Onstott et al., 2019; Tarnas et al., 2018) and could serve as a refugia for any life that ever existed on the martian surface (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine 385 386 et al., 2018; Michalski et al., 2018). Other viable processes could produce redox nutrients to 387 sustain additional metabolisms in the martian subsurface, including H_2 and CH_4 production via serpentinization and Fischer-Tropsch-type synthesis, respectively (e.g. Warr et al., 2019), 388 389 atmospheric O₂ dissolution (Stamenković et al., 2018), atmospheric H₂ and CO dissolution

(Weiss et al., 2000), as well as Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} from minerals (Onstott et al., 2019). If sulfides are 390 not present in the rock matrix, these other reactions may be favorable over sulfate reduction. 391 392 These results provide scientific justification for future missions to search for signs of extant life 393 in the martian subsurface—which is an intriguing next frontier for planetary exploration 394 (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine et al., 2018; Stamenković et al., 395 2019)—and identifies key characteristics of optimal regions for future landing sites. 396 Even the relatively small sampling of Mars' petrologic diversity via four martian meteorite 397 classes (shergottites, nakhlites, chassignites, regolith breccias) shows a wide range in redox 398 energy production rates from these different rock types/localities (Fig. 2). Some of these localities, such as the source regions for regolith breccias, shergottites, and nakhlites could 399 400 support comparable concentrations of extant life to those found in Earth's deep subsurface 401 (Onstott et al., 2003; Cockell et al., 2012; Onstott et al., 2019). As is demonstrated by the 402 diversity of radionuclide concentrations, sulfide concentrations, and sulfide grain sizes in martian 403 meteorites, some regions of the martian crust will support higher sulfate-reducing cell densities 404 than others. Because sulfate is likely the limiting nutrient for hydrogenotrophic sulfate-reducing 405 metabolisms in a martian subsurface biosphere rather than H_2 , the highest concentrations of 406 sulfate-reducing microorganisms would exist in a water-bearing crustal section with high sulfide 407 abundance, low sulfide grain sizes, and relatively high radionuclide concentrations. Regions rich 408 in zeolites, which enhance radiolytic gas production (Kumagai et al., 2013), would also sustain 409 higher sulfate-reducing bacteria concentrations. Future missions should focus on characterizing 410 where these criteria are met, as these would be prime landing site targets for extant life 411 investigation from a redox energy perspective.

412

413 **4.0 Discussion**

414 *4.1 Potential for higher cell densities elsewhere on Mars*

The possibility of relatively high sulfide concentrations on Mars has been recognized for 415 416 decades due to the presence of ultramafic lithologies there (Burns and Fisher, 1990; Baumgartner 417 et al., 2015; Humayun et al., 2019) (Section 4.2). Concentration of magmatic sulfides are 418 assumed to derive from assimilation of crustal sulfates and/or S-rich regolith in lava flows, as 419 sampled by nakhlites, which likely crystallized from a sulfide-saturated melt after this 420 assimilation (Franz et al., 2014; Mari et al., 2019). Additional evidence for the existence of 421 concentrated martian sulfides has continued to accrue in the form of sulfides in martian 422 meteorites (Table 1 and refs. therein), in Gale crater (Franz et al., 2017; Wong et al., 2020), the 423 prevalence of sulfate-hematite assemblages on the martian surface (e.g. Wiseman et al., 2008), 424 which may or may not have formed as weathering products of sulfides (e.g. Zolotov and Shock, 425 2005), verifiable orbital detections of serpentine outcrops in Noachian terrains (Leask et al., 426 2018), which are often associated with formation of reduced sulfides and metal alloys on Earth 427 (e.g. Economou and Naldrett, 1984; Thalhammer et al., 1986; Shiga, 1987; Auclair et al., 1993; 428 Wafik et al., 2001; Marques et al., 2007), Cu concentrations in Gale crater that are likely caused 429 by presence of sulfides (Payré et al., 2019), and the low oxygen fugacity (Mari et al., 2019 and 430 refs. therein) and high sulfur fugacity of the ancient martian mantle relative to Earth's (Wang and Becker, 2017; Mari et al., 2019 and refs. therein). Pyrrhotite hosts magnetization in multiple 431 432 classes of martian meteorites (Rochette et al., 2005 and refs. therein) and thus at high enough 433 concentrations its subsurface presence could explain Mars' crustal magnetic field anomalies 434 (Langlais et al., 2019; Johnson et al., 2020).

435 High concentrations of sulfides could form via differentiation of sulfide-saturated lavas that 436 were contaminated by crustal assimilation of sulfates (Burns and Fisher, 1990; Baumgartner et 437 al., 2015) as occurred in nakhlite lava flows (Franz et al., 2014; Mari et al., 2019), differentiation 438 of impact melt accompanied by crustal sulfur assimilation as occurred in Sudbury, Ontario (e.g. 439 Therriault et al., 2002), later hydrothermal sulfide precipitation with or without serpentinization, as is recorded in regolith breccia martian meteorites (Lorand et al., 2015), or differentiated 440 441 intrusions (Fig. 3; Section 4.3). Once formed, fluid fracture networks within such sulfide-rich 442 regions in the subsurface of Mars could support high concentrations of radiolytically-fueled 443 sulfate-reducing microorganisms and would be key locations to investigate the possibility of 444 extant life on Mars.

445

446 *4.2 Evidence for concentrated sulfides on Mars*

447 The conclusions from this study do not require concentrated sulfides on Mars, but rather 448 are based on the large body of data for disseminated sulfides on Mars. As such, the estimates are 449 appropriately conservative and are consistent with the body of lithological and geochemical data 450 available. The presence of concentrated sulfide deposits on Mars can be considered, however, 451 and supporting evidence includes (1) sulfur assimilation and sulfide saturation in nakhlite melts 452 (Franz et al., 2014; Mari et al., 2019), (2) geologic evidence for high sulfide concentrations elsewhere in the martian crust based on expected mantle oxygen (Stanley et al., 2011; Armstrong 453 454 et al., 2015) and sulfur (Ding et al., 2014) fugacities, (3) surface evidence for sulfide oxidation 455 (Zolotov and Shock, 2005; Dehouck et al., 2012; Vaniman et al., 2014), and (4) orbital detections of past serpentinization (Ehlmann et al., 2010; Leask et al., 2018), which produces 456 457 reducing fluids and is often associated with generation of hydrothermal sulfide deposits on Earth

458 (e.g. Economou and Naldrett, 1984; Thalhammer et al., 1986; Shiga, 1987; Auclair et al., 1993;
459 Wafik et al., 2001; Marques et al., 2007).

460	1.	Nakhlites likely crystallized from a sulfide saturated melt after S assimilation from
461		the crust/regolith based on Δ^{33} S, δ^{34} S, and highly siderophile element (HSE) patterns
462		(Mari et al., 2019). Some amount of sulfur assimilation from S-rich regolith occurred
463		after the nakhlite lavas were emplaced on or near the martian surface (Franz et al.,
464		2014; Mari et al., 2019). Nakhlites are the only SNC meteorite class known to likely
465		have crystallized from a sulfide-saturated melt, as shergottites crystallized from
466		sulfide undersaturated parent magmas (Wang and Becker, 2017). Still, 1/3 of volcanic
467		martian meteorite classes exhibiting geochemical characteristics consistent with
468		crystallization from a sulfide saturated melt implies that characteristically similar
469		volcanism could have occurred throughout Mars' history. Sulfates are prevalent
470		across the surface of Mars (Ehlmann and Edwards, 2014), S-rich regolith is
471		effectively ubiquitous across the surface (Clark et al., 1976; Foley et al., 2003), and
472		elemental sulfur concentrations measured by GRS range from 0.7-3.2 wt. % at GRS
473		spatial resolution (McLennan et al., 2010), thus a substantial amount of sulfur for
474		accumulation by lavas commonly exists on the martian surface. Therefore, it is likely
475		that lavas saturated with respect to sulfide after assimilation of S from the
476		crust/regolith-similar to those from which nakhlites crystallized-were common
477		throughout Mars' history, thus resulting in the formation of high sulfide concentration
478		zones.
479	2.	The martian mantle is generally expected to be more reducing than Earth's (Stanley et

480

22

al., 2011; Armstrong et al., 2015), with estimates for mantle oxygen fugacity based on

481 basalts measured in Gusev crater varying from iron-wüstite (IW) to IW+1 (Stanley et 482 al., 2011). Oxygen fugacity estimates from shergottites are estimated to be [OFM-4]-483 [QFM-1] (Herd, 2003), and from nakhlites are ~QFM (Mari et al., 2019). Earth's 484 mantle has an oxygen fugacity range of [QFM-1]-[QFM+1] (Blundy et al., 1991; 485 Brounce et al., 2017). Still, on Earth, pyrrhotite is found in volcanic rocks derived from partial melting of a more oxidized mantle relative to Mars (e.g. Desborough et 486 487 al., 1968; Whitney, 1984), though concentrations are typically higher in silicic magmas than basalt, the latter of which is more common on Mars. Thus, magmatic 488 489 sulfides are expected in some volcanic rocks derived from the wide variability in melt oxygen fugacities from the martian mantle. Martian mantle sulfur abundance 490 491 estimates range from ~400-2200 ppm (Wang and Becker, 2017), while Earth's mantle 492 sulfur abundance is ~250 ppm (McDonough and Sun, 1995). Additional sulfur is 493 incorporated into martian melts via crustal assimilation of sulfates and/or S-rich 494 regolith, as occurred in the nakhlite lavas (Franz et al., 2014; Mari et al., 2019). As 495 such, sulfur activity in martian melts is typically higher than in most melts on Earth, 496 while oxygen fugacity is lower than in most melts on Earth, both of which increase 497 the likelihood of sulfide precipitation. 498 3. Sulfide oxidation has been invoked to explain multiple mineral assemblages found on 499 the martian surface (King and McSween, 2005), including the hematite enrichment in 500 Meridiani Planum (Zolotov and Shock, 2005), the Burns formation –a sulfate-rich 501 sandstone in Merdiani Planum (Zolotov and Shock, 2005), sulfate-carbonate assemblages found using orbital hyperspectral data (Dehouck et al., 2012), akaganeite 502

503 detections made from orbit (Carter et al., 2015), and acidic fluid diagenetic mineral

504		assemblages detected by the Curiosity rover (Rampe et al., 2017). In its type locality
505		on Earth, akaganeite forms as an alteration product of pyrrhotite (Nambu, 1968). To
506		concentrate the abundances of sulfur needed to form the Burns formation, pre-
507		concentration of sulfur via magmatic or hydrothermal sulfides may be required
508		(Zolotov and Shock, 2005). Furthermore, oxidation of sulfides to form the acid-mine-
509		drainage-like mineral assemblages of sulfates and oxides seen on the martian surface
510		provides a functional hypothesis for generation of these assemblages. Formation of
511		concentrated sulfides could have occurred on Mars via differentiation/crustal
512		assimilation from ultramafic lavas (Burns and Fisher, 1990), the existence of which is
513		supported by possible observations of ultramafic volcanism on the martian surface
514		(Ruff et al., 2014; Ruff et al., 2019; Kremer et al., 2019), ultramafic lithologies in
515		martian meteorites (Burns and Fisher, 1990), and evidence that nakhlites crystallized
516		from sulfide-saturated melts after S assimilation from the crust/regolith (Franz et al.,
517		2014; Mari et al., 2019).
518	4.	Mg-rich serpentine has been detected on Mars using CRISM hyperspectral images
519		(Ehlmann et al., 2010; Leask et al., 2018), but most of these detections have been
520		called into question after discovery of a 2.1 μ m spectral artifact in CRISM TRR3 data
521		that can resemble the diagnostic absorption feature of Mg-rich serpentine (Leask et
522		al., 2018). Still, at least 3 Mg-rich serpentine detections have been validated as
523		unrelated to this artifact (Leask et al., 2018), demonstrating that serpentinization has
524		occurred on Mars. The fluids generated via serpentinization are highly reducing,
525		which can cause precipitation of reduced alloys and minerals such as awaruite
526		(Lorand, 1985; Sleep et al., 2004) (NiFe alloy) and sulfides (Economou and Naldrett,

527		1984; Thalhammer et al., 1986; Shiga, 1987; Auclair et al., 1993; Wafik et al., 2001;
528		Marques et al., 2007). As such, serpentinization would have generated reducing fluids
529		on Mars that could have precipitated and concentrated sulfide minerals, making
530		regions containing serpentine potential 'hotzones' for both ancient chemolithotrophic
531		life that consumed H ₂ from serpentinization, as well as modern chemolithotrophic life
532		that may consume H_2 and SO_4 from radiolysis in sulfide-rich zones.
533		
534	4.3 Possik	ole settings of concentrated sulfides on Mars
535	1.	Differentiated impact melt sheets: The Sudbury Impact Structure in Ontario, Canada
536		is one of the three largest discovered impact structures on Earth-the others being
537		Chicxulub and Vredefort—and hosts concentrations of sulfides of high economic
538		value. Sulfides were concentrated via gravitational differentiation from the impact
539		melt sheet (Zieg and Marsh, 2005). Sulfur was likely introduced to the impact melt
540		via assimilation from the surrounding country rock during the depressurization
541		melting that formed the Sudbury Igneous Complex (Walker et al., 1991; Dickin et al.,
542		1992; Mungall et al., 2004). Because of the prevalence of sulfur on Mars in the form
543		of sulfates and S-rich regolith, and the larger number of preserved impact structures
544		on Mars relative to Earth, Sudbury-type differentiated impact melt sheet sulfide
545		concentrations may be more common on Mars than they are on Earth (West and
546		Clarke, 2010) (Fig. 3 Setting 1).
547	2.	Layered intrusions: Sulfides are commonly concentrated in ultramafic-to-mafic
548		layered intrusions on Earth, such as the Bushveld Igneous Complex in South Africa
549		(Gain and Mostert, 1982), Voisey's Bay in Canada (Evans-Lamswood et al., 2000),

550		Jinchuan in China (Chai and Naldrett, 1992), and the Noril'sk-Talnakh deposits in
551		Siberia (Arndt et al., 2003). Sulfides are typically concentrated as residue in restricted
552		conduits/channels, and thus are often concentrated at the base of the layered intrusion,
553		in sills, or in stratiform reef-style deposits (Lightfoot and Evans-Lamswood, 2015).
554		Such intrusions typically form in intracratonic settings, often via mantle plume
555		activity (Barnes et al., 2017). This is similar to settings of non-subvolcanic and
556		subvolcanic intrusions formed on Mars, which is a single-plate planet. There is
557		evidence for ultramafic volcanism on Mars (Ruff et al., 2019; Kremer et al., 2019)
558		and basaltic volcanism is prevalent across the entire planet (Bandfield et al., 2000).
559		Mantle plumes have caused volcanism on Mars, likely forming the Tharsis and
560		Elysium volcanic bulges (Fuller and Head, 2003; Redmond and King, 2004; Hynek et
561		al., 2011). It is thus plausible that both subvolcanic and non-subvolcanic ultramafic-
562		to-mafic magmatic intrusions exist on Mars, providing structures for potential
563		concentration of sulfides (Fig. 3 Settings 2 & 7).
564	3.	Hydrothermal sulfides. Sulfides are concentrated by hydrothermal fluids that are S-
565		rich and reducing. Many hydrothermally-formed sulfide deposits are associated with
566		serpentinites, due to the highly reducing fluids formed during the process of
567		serpentinization (Lorand, 1985; Sleep et al., 2004) causing formation of metal alloys
568		(Lorand, 1985) and sulfides (Economou and Naldrett, 1984; Thalhammer et al., 1986;
569		Shiga, 1987; Auclair et al., 1993; Wafik et al., 2001; Marques et al., 2007).
570		Hydrothermal sulfides are found in regolith breccia martian meteorites (Lorand et al.,
571		2015; Wittmann et al., 2015; Hewins et al., 2017; Jean-Pierre Lorand et al., 2018a).
572		Minerals potentially produced by hydrothermal alteration, including smectites,

573	carbonates, chlorite, hydrated silica, and zeolites (Ehlmann et al., 2009), and small
574	amounts of Mg-serpentine (Ehlmann et al., 2010; Leask et al., 2018) are detected on
575	the martian surface from orbit using CRISM. Evidence for past hydrothermal
576	alteration has been seen by every Mars rover. NASA's Opportunity rover observed
577	evidence for multiple diagenetic episodes in the Burns Formation (McLennan et al.,
578	2005), as well as hydrothermal alteration of bedrock due to meteorite impact at
579	Endeavour crater (Squyres et al., 2012; Arvidson et al., 2014). NASA's Spirit rover
580	observed carbonate-bearing olivine-rich rocks (Comanche) formed via alteration of
581	ultramafic tuff (Algonquin) (Morris et al., 2010; Ruff et al., 2014), silica deposits
582	(Ruff et al., 2011) that likely formed in hot spring settings (Ruff and Farmer, 2016;
583	Ruff et al., 2019), and hydrothermal alteration of Home Plate resulting in
584	precipitation of silica (Squyres et al., 2008). NASA's Curiosity rover has found
585	evidence for multiple diagenetic episodes in the stratigraphy of Mount Sharp,
586	including cross-cutting Ca-sulfate veins (Yen et al., 2017), jarosite veins dated to 2.1
587	±4 Gyr (Martin et al., 2017), and evidence for diagenetic episodes that cross-cut
588	multiple stratigraphically distinct units (Sheppard et al., 2019). Sulfides could also be
589	concentrated via hydrothermal activity during submarine volcanism -as likely
590	occurred in Eridania Basin (Michalski et al., 2017). As such, hydrothermal alteration
591	has occurred on Mars in a wide variety of geochemical settings, including some that
592	precipitated pyrite in regolith breccias (Lorand et al., 2015; Wittmann et al., 2015;
593	Hewins et al., 2017; Jean-Pierre Lorand et al., 2018a), and some that formed
594	serpentinite (Ehlmann et al., 2010; Leask et al., 2018). It is plausible that higher
595	concentrations of sulfides than those found in NWA 7533 and NWA 7034- which

- were ejected from Mars by the same impact event (Wittmann et al., 2015)—could
 form from hydrothermal alteration in other regions of the martian crust (Fig. 3
 Settings 3 & 5).
- 599 4. Sulfide-bearing sediments. Mount Sharp in Gale crater is an example of a sulfide-600 bearing sediment mound on Mars (McAdam et al., 2014; Franz et al., 2017; Wong et al., 2020) (Fig. 3 Setting 4). These sulfides are diagenetic/epigenetic, likely resulting 601 602 from thermal reduction of preexisting sulfates (Franz et al., 2017). It is possible that a 603 similar sulfate thermal reduction process could occur in other sulfate-bearing martian 604 sediments, which are widespread (Ehlmann and Edwards, 2014), thus generating a higher concentration of sulfides in those localities. Cu-enrichments in Gale crater are 605 606 potentially due to presence of detrital sulfides (Payré et al., 2019). It is therefore 607 plausible that sulfides could be concentrated in martian sediments in detrital form and 608 also via diagenetic processes.
- 609 5. Differentiated ultramafic-to-mafic lava flows. Examples of sulfide concentrations in 610 komatiitic lava flows on Earth include the Kambalda and Perseverance deposits in 611 Australia. Sulfides are also concentrated picrites, including the Pechenga deposits in 612 Russia (Barnes et al., 2017). Due to the presence of ultramafic lithologies in martian 613 meteorites, the possibility of sulfide concentration in komatiite-type settings has been known for decades (Burns and Fisher, 1990). Since then, further evidence for 614 615 ultramafic volcanism on Mars has been presented (Ruff et al., 2014; Ruff et al., 2019; 616 Kremer et al., 2019). The magmas that precipitated the nakhlites assimilated sulfur from the crust, forming a sulfide-saturated melt (Franz et al., 2014; Mari et al., 2019). 617 618 Thus, there is already evidence for some degree of sulfide concentration in

620

differentiated ultramafic-to-mafic lava flows on Mars via the martian meteorites (Fig. 3 Setting 6).

621

622 **5.0 Conclusions**

623 The results presented here demonstrate that radiolysis in the martian meteorite source 624 lithologies would produce sufficient H₂ and sulfate to sustain sulfate-reducing bacteria wherever 625 groundwater is present. The regolith breccia source lithology, which is within the southern 626 highlands (Cassata et al., 2018), could sustain the highest concentrations of sulfate-reducing 627 bacteria, with shergottite and nakhlite lithologies supporting the second highest concentrations. 628 The calculated supportable sulfate-reducing bacteria densities in the regolith breccia, shergottite, 629 and nakhlite source lithologies are comparable to those measured in Earth's deep subsurface 630 (Table 3; Fig. 2).

631 If Earth-like chemolithotrophic life ever existed on Mars and survived until present, it could 632 potentially be sustained in these subsurface regions by harnessing the same radiolytically-derived 633 energy that drives the metabolisms of microbial ecosystems on Earth sustained in groundwaters $>10^{6}$ - 10^{9} years old (Lin et al., 2006; Chivian et al., 2008; Lollar et al., 2019). Furthermore, this 634 635 subsurface environment has likely remained habitable since the Noachian (Tarnas et al., 2018), 636 making it the longest-lived habitable environment on Mars and the most likely refugia for any life on the planet (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine et al., 2018; 637 638 Michalski et al., 2018). The parameters outlined here –radionuclide abundance, sulfide 639 abundance, average sulfide grain size, and porosity-along with characterization of the locations 640 of liquid groundwater, can be used to constrain an optimal landing site for a mission to detect 641 Earth-like extant sulfate-reducing martian life in the subsurface. Additional microbial

metabolisms, for which redox energy availability is more difficult to model, could also exist in
the martian subsurface, as they do in Earth's subsurface, potentially increasing the measured
biomass in any subsurface region that contains groundwater. This should be considered in the
context of future extant life detection missions to Mars.

646

647 Figures



649	Figure 1 Model input data. (a) K concentration (wt. %) from GRS data, corrected for
650	contributions Cl, H, and S (Boynton et al., 2007; Tarnas et al., 2018). (b) Th concentration (ppm)
651	from GRS data, corrected for contributions Cl, H, and S (Boynton et al., 2007; Tarnas et al.,
652	2018). (c) Possible crustal density estimates from orbital gravimetry (Goossens et al., 2017) that
653	are supported by rover gravimetry (Lewis et al., 2019). (d) Division of Mars into 3 different
654	regions. (e) Radionuclide abundances in martian meteorites (Meyer, 2016) and GRS data from
655	60°S-60°N, where near surface ice does not contaminate measurements (Boynton et al., 2007;
656	Tarnas et al., 2018). The lower spatial resolution of GRS data (100s of km) means the calculated
657	K and Th concentrations are more closely clustered than in the martian meteorites. There are also
658	no U concentration measurements from GRS data, thus the color is black. (f) Sulfide
659	concentrations and grain sizes in martian meteorites are compiled and referenced in Table 1.
660	Black symbols show the maximum and minimum reported grain sizes, while red symbols show
661	the reported average grain size.



Figure 2 | Radiolytic redox energy production and number of supportable sulfate-reducing
cells in Mars meteorite source regions. The datapoints represent the highest and lowest

endmembers for each given category, with the assumed values for the calculations presented in

Table 2. The different colors of the same datapoints represent the supportable sulfate-reducing

cells per kg rock assuming the highest and lowest metabolic rates observed in Earth's deep

669 subsurface $(5.5 \times 10^{-18} - 3.6 \times 10^{-17} \text{ moles cell}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1})$ (Lin et al., 2006; Chivian et al., 2008).

670 Cell density measurements from Earth's deep subsurface come from ^a(Cockell et al., 2012),

671 ^b(Onstott et al., 2003).

672





674 Figure 3 | Possible sulfide concentration settings on Mars in addition to those found in 675 martian meteorites. Topographic cross-section of Mars using data from the Mars Orbital Laser 676 Altimeter (MOLA) from 10°S, 141°E; 29°N, 149°E; 4°S, 104°E; 35°N, 96°E. See Materials and 677 Methods for discussion of possible sulfide concentration settings on Mars, in addition to sulfide 678 concentrations found in martian meteorites that are used for calculations in this study. (1) 679 Differentiated impact melt sheet similar to sulfide concentrations at the Sudbury Impact 680 Structure in Canada (Therriault et al., 2002). (2) Sulfide concentration in layered intrusion, 681 similar to Bushveld Igneous Complex in South Africa and many other localities on Earth. (3) 682 Sulfide hydrothermally concentrated in serpentinite, similar to many ophiolite localities on Earth. Mg-serpentine has been detected on Mars (Leask et al., 2018). (4) Sulfide concentrations in 683

	sediments, such as those in Gale crater (Franz et al., 2017; wong et al., 2020). (5) Suinde
685	hydrothermally concentrated without associated serpentinite minerals, such as those in regolith
686	breccia martian meteorites (Lorand et al., 2005; Lorand et al., 2015; Jean-Pierre Lorand et al.,
687	2018b; Jean-Pierre Lorand et al., 2018a). (6) Concentrations of sulfides in differentiated
688	ultramafic-to-mafic lava flows, as occurs in many localities on Earth including the Kambalda and
689	Perseverance deposits in Australia. Sulfides are also concentrated in picrites, including the
690	Pechenga deposits in Russia. This is a possible formation setting for nakhlites, which crystallized
691	from sulfide saturated magmas after assimilation of S from the crust/regolith (Franz et al., 2014;
692	Mari et al., 2019). (7) Concentration of sulfides in ultramafic-to-mafic subvolcanic intrusions
693	beneath volcanic provinces such as Tharsis, Elysium, and Syrtis Major.
694	
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