

1 **Lithology, pore-filling media, and pore closure depth**
2 **beneath InSight on Mars inferred from shear wave**
3 **velocities**

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7 **Key Points:**

- 8 • Mars' upper crust (0-8 km) beneath InSight comprises fractured gas-filled rocks
9 and weakly cemented sediments
10 • Mars' deeper crust (8-20 km) beneath InSight could comprise fractured basalts
11 or more-felsic igneous rocks with 0-23% porosity
12 • No seismically detectable cryosphere exists in the crust and pores in the deeper
13 crust host gas, liquid water, or up to 2% cement

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Abstract

We quantify the volume and distribution of water, cement, sediments, and fractured rocks within the Martian crust beneath NASA’s InSight (Interior Exploration using Seismic Investigations, Geodesy, and Heat Transport mission) lander by using rock physics models to interpret shear wave velocities (V_s) measured from InSight data. The models assume that Mars’ crust comprises sediments and fractured rocks whose pores and fractures host variable combinations of gas, liquid water, and mineral cements. Measured V_s in the upper crust (0-8 km) can be explained by layers of minimally (< 2%) cemented sediments and gas-filled fractured basalts. Measured V_s in the deeper crust (8-20 km) can be explained by fractured basalts or more felsic igneous rocks (modeled here as 100% plagioclase feldspar) that is unfractured or has up to 23% porosity. Open pores in the deeper crust could host gas, liquid water, and up to 2% cement. Modeled V_s are too low for a seismically detectable ice-saturated cryosphere in the upper crust and temperatures are too high to freeze liquid water in the deeper crust. Notably, with V_s alone, we are unable to distinguish between liquid water and gas within the pores.

Plain Language Summary

Liquid water may have existed on Mars as oceans, rivers, or ground water. Surface water was likely lost to space, buried as liquid water and ice, and/or incorporated in subsurface minerals and mineral cements. The InSight lander on Mars has a seismometer whose measurements can be used to estimate the velocity of seismic shear waves. Seismic velocities change based on rock type and the material that fills the pores within rocks (e.g., liquid water, gas, or ice and other mineral cements). We show that the measured seismic velocities in the upper (0-8 km) crust can be explained by layers of gas-filled basalts and minimally (2%) cemented sediments rather than ice-filled sediment or basalt. Measured seismic velocities in a deeper (8-20 km) crust can be explained by fractured basalt. More feldspar-rich rocks could explain the velocities in the deeper crust and they could be unfractured or have up to 23% porosity. Fractures within the deeper crust could host liquid water, gas, and up to a couple percent of mineral cements.

1 Introduction

Quantifying the volume and distribution of Mars’ subsurface lithologies, mineral cements, and liquid water are critical to unraveling the planet’s geologic evolution (Carr & Head, 2003; Di Achille & Hynes, 2010; Carr & Head, 2019; Scheller et al., 2021). Mars’ crust comprises igneous and sedimentary rocks that are lithified and fractured to varying degrees (Tanaka et al., 2014; Golombek et al., 2018; Pan et al., 2020). Two open questions are (1) what is the depth where pores close entirely within the Martian crust and (2) what percentage of existing pores in the Martian crust host liquid water or ice, or water incorporated into mineral cements

Gravity and heat flow models provide constraints on Mars’ subsurface porosity and pore closure depth (Clifford, 1993; Clifford et al., 2010; Goossens et al., 2017; Gyalay et al., 2020; Wiczorek et al., 2022). Constraining pore closure depth and how porosity changes with depth may help to constrain the pore-filling material of the crust, the crust water-carrying capacity, the maximum potential depth of aquifers (Clifford, 1993; Clifford et al., 2010; Gyalay et al., 2020), crustal densities and how to interpret seismic discontinuities (Wiczorek et al., 2022), and the geological and impact history of the Martian surface (Gyalay et al., 2020). Goossens et al. (2017) used gravity data to infer that Mars’ average bulk density in the upper 20 km is $2,582 \pm 209$ kg/m³. From this bulk density, a porosity of 0.10 to 0.23 in the upper 20 km can be obtained. Wiczorek et al. (2022) later integrated gravity and shear wave velocity data to hypothesize that a lower density (higher porosity) layer extends to 8 ± 2 or 20 ± 5 km below the surface and the pores

63 close entirely beneath one of these depths. Knapmeyer-Endrun et al. (2021) used seis-
 64 mic inversions from receiver function analyses (via two different methods that used three
 65 marsquakes) to propose that the first two km-scale detectable seismic layers extend to
 66 6-11 km and 20 ± 5 km (Figure 1). Gyalay et al. (2020) used heat flow models to argue
 67 that pore collapse via thermally-activated viscous creep should occur between 12 km and
 68 23 km below the surface. The transition from open to closed pores should occur over 1
 69 km (Gyalay et al., 2020). Gyalay et al. (2020) and Wieczorek et al. (2022) proposed pore
 70 closure depths that overlap with the depth range of the deeper crust, making it unclear
 71 whether thermally-activated viscous creep leads to pore closure at the top or base of the
 72 deeper crust (Figure 1).

73 Surface exposures alongside heat and fluid flow models provide constraints on the
 74 presence, volume, and distribution of water within the Martian crust. Rover and satel-
 75 lite images showing sediment structures and stratigraphy characteristic of ancient delta,
 76 marine, and fluvial depositional environments alongside direct and remotely inferred ob-
 77 servations of ice and liquid water at the polar regions evidence past and current water
 78 on Mars (Carr, 1987; Baker, 2006; Orosei et al., 2018; Nazari-Sharabian et al., 2020). Ev-
 79 idence for past subsurface liquid water also includes Hesperian and Amazonian-aged out-
 80 flow channels, whose discharges were sometimes a few orders of magnitude greater than
 81 Earth’s largest floods (Colaprete & Jakosky, 1998; Carr & Head, 2002; Burr et al., 2002;
 82 Manga, 2004; Bibring et al., 2005; Clifford et al., 2010; Di Achille & Hynes, 2010; Ro-
 83 driguez et al., 2015; Weiss & Head, 2017; Voigt & Hamilton, 2018). Mars’ past surface
 84 water in rivers, lakes, and possible oceans may have been lost to space or infiltrated the
 85 ground (Colaprete & Jakosky, 1998; Bibring et al., 2005; Di Achille & Hynes, 2010). Liq-
 86 uid water may have percolated through the pores of rock whose permeability is higher
 87 (compared to Earth) due to Mars’ lower gravitational acceleration and or because im-
 88 pacts have created new fracture networks or increased hydraulic connectivity between
 89 existing networks (Clifford, 1997; Wang et al., 2005). Heat flow models suggest that a
 90 0-9 km and 10-22 km thick regional cryosphere could exist at Mars’ equator and poles,
 91 respectively (Clifford et al., 2010). Atmospheric carbon dioxide may have dissolved in
 92 water, then precipitated as carbonate cement (up to 2%) (Boynton et al., 2009; Halevy
 93 & Schrag, 2009; Adam et al., 2013). Thus, mapping Mars’ subsurface ice and other min-
 94 eral cements, liquid water, and lithology may help constrain (1) the volume of water buried
 95 versus lost to space (Jakosky, 2021), (2) the planet’s water budget and cycle through time
 96 (Clifford & Parker, 2001), (3) the fates of past surface water (Citron et al., 2018), (4)
 97 the volume of water sequestered by minerals, and (5) the lithology of Martian subsur-
 98 face layers in the past and present (Mustard, 2019; Scheller et al., 2021; Wernicke & Jakosky,
 99 2021).

100 Rock physics models and shear wave velocities V_s derived from seismograms col-
 101 lected by the seismometer (the Seismic Experiment for Interior Structure, SEIS) on the
 102 InSight (Interior Exploration using Seismic Investigations, Geodesy, and Heat Transport
 103 mission) lander provide opportunities to explore Mars’ subsurface mechanical proper-
 104 ties further. SEIS is a six sensor broadband seismometer (0.01 to 50 Hz) attached to the
 105 InSight lander, and sits on Mars’ surface; SEIS records ground motions produced by a
 106 variety of sources, including marsquakes and meteorite impacts (Lognonné et al., 2019).
 107 V_s is sensitive to several rock and sediment properties, including mineralogy, fracture den-
 108 sity, porosity, and ice and other mineral cements (Mindlin, 2021; Dvorkin & Nur, 1996;
 109 Jenkins et al., 2005; Waite et al., 2009). The Martian crust beneath InSight has at least
 110 two seismically detectable km-scale layers (Knapmeyer-Endrun et al., 2021). V_s are 1.7-
 111 2.1 km/s in the upper crust (i.e., between 0 km and $\sim 6-11$ km) and 2-3.4 km/s in the
 112 deeper crust (i.e., between $\sim 6-11$ km and 20 ± 5 km) (Figure 1). Interpretations using
 113 self-consistent fractured-media rock physics models (Te Wu, 1966; Berryman, 1980) in-
 114 dicate that V_s within the upper 6-11 km is lower than expected for a cryosphere (Manga
 115 & Wright, 2021; Wright et al., 2022). V_s between 6-11 km and 20 ± 5 km may be con-
 116 sistent with basalts whose fractures are 1-5% filled with calcite cement (Manga & Wright,

117 2021). Thus, Mars' subsurface is likely a mix of sediments (i.e., layers with unconsoli-
 118 dated grains) and fractured layers of consolidated sediments or igneous rocks.

119 Our study uses granular and self-consistent fractured-media rock physics models
 120 to infer the volume and distribution of liquid water, ice and other mineral cements, and
 121 lithology from InSight-measured V_s . Here, we focus on the composition of the crust down
 122 to the second seismic discontinuity, at 20 ± 5 km depth. Goossens et al. (2017); Knapmeyer-
 123 Endrun et al. (2021) propose both a 2- and 3-layer crust beneath InSight, indicative of
 124 the Moho depth at ~ 20 - 25 km (for a 2-layer crust) or ~ 39 - 47 km (for a 3-layer crust).
 125 Although we do not provide constraints on the Moho depth, we have focused on the sec-
 126 ond seismic discontinuity as both the thinner and thicker crustal density models support
 127 a seismic discontinuity at 20 ± 5 km below the surface. Our study builds upon previous
 128 studies (Heap, 2019; Manga & Wright, 2021; Li et al., 2022; Wright et al., 2022) by con-
 129 sidering models for both fractured and granular media (Heap, 2019; Manga & Wright,
 130 2021), using more recently constrained InSight-derived velocities (Manga & Wright, 2021),
 131 and or interpreting seismic velocities constrained for a wider range of depths (0-20 km
 132 versus the upper 300 m or 8 ± 2 km) (Li et al., 2022; Wright et al., 2022). Here, we in-
 133 fer that (1) the upper crust beneath InSight comprises layers of fractured gas-filled basalts
 134 and weakly cemented sediments, (2) the deeper crust could be fractured basalts or more
 135 felsic igneous rocks that are either unfractured or has up to 23% porosity, (3) the pores
 136 of fractured rocks in the deeper crust could host liquid water, gas, or 2% cement and 98%
 137 liquid water or gas, and (4) no seismically detected ice-saturated cryosphere layer ex-
 138 exists beneath InSight.

139 2 Methods

140 We compare modeled and measured V_s to infer Mars' subsurface mechanical prop-
 141 erties, constraining model uncertainties with Monte Carlo simulations and sensitivity anal-
 142 yses. We use granular and fractured-media rock physics models to model V_s in the up-
 143 per crust; we use only the fractured-media models for the deeper crust because we do
 144 not expect sediment layers in the deeper crust.

145 We calculate V_s from

$$V_s = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_e}{\rho}}, \quad (1)$$

146 where μ_e and ρ are the effective shear modulus and bulk density, respectively. We es-
 147 timate effective shear modulus μ_e using

$$\mu_e = \sum_i \phi_i \mu_i, \quad (2)$$

148 where μ_i and ϕ_i are the mineral/fluid shear moduli and volume fractions of the i^{th} con-
 149 stituents, respectively. Rock physics models, described next, provide further explanation
 150 of estimates for μ_e . We estimate bulk density ρ using

$$\rho = \sum_i \phi_i \rho_i, \quad (3)$$

151 where ρ_i and ϕ_i are the mineral/fluid densities and volume fractions of the i^{th} constituents,
 152 respectively, which, when combined may be used to estimate bulk density ρ (equation
 153 3).

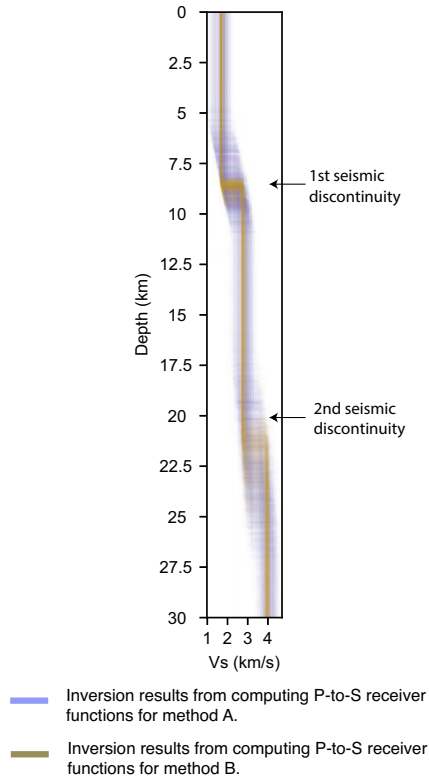


Figure 1. InSight derived shear-wave velocities (V_s) (Knapmeyer-Endrun et al., 2021). The brown and purple lines show V_s from results obtained from two different approaches for conducting P-to-S receiver function inversions for travel-time data whose source were from three marsquakes. The first seismic discontinuity is at 6-11 km. Knapmeyer-Endrun et al. (2021) interpreted this discontinuity as the bottom of the upper crust. The second seismic discontinuity is at 20 ± 5 km and Knapmeyer-Endrun et al. (2021) interpreted this discontinuity as the bottom of the deeper crust.

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2.1 Modelling V_s for sediments

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We estimate μ_e for cementless sediments using the Hertz-Mindlin rock physics model (Mindlin, 2021). The cementation model (Dvorkin & Nur, 1996) provides μ_e for sediments with cements (e.g., ice and calcite) deposited at grain contacts or that surround grains in contact. We modelled calcite because calcite may have precipitated from carbon dioxide-rich groundwater, calcite is a common cementing mineral on Earth, and Ming et al. (2009) suggested calcite as a likely cementing material on Mars based on data obtained during the Phoenix Mission. The models' equations can be found in Supporting Information Method S1, Mindlin (2021), Dvorkin and Nur (1996), and Mavko et al. (2020). Model input parameters are mineral Poisson's ratio ν_m , mineral bulk moduli κ_m , mineral shear moduli μ_m , cement fraction c_f , volume fraction of rough versus smooth grain contacts f (smooth grain contacts allow elastic micro-scale slip during seismic wave propagation and rough grain contacts do not), porosity ϕ , effective stress P , and coordination number c_n (average number of grains contacting each other). In order to use the granular media models, we calculate mineral Poisson's ratio ν_m using

$$\nu_m = \frac{3\kappa_m - 2\mu_m}{6\kappa_m + 2\mu_m}, \quad (4)$$

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where μ_m and κ_m are mineral shear and bulk moduli. We calculate mineral Poisson's ratio ν_m using equation 4 from the granular media models as the Poisson's ratio for the constituents with the elastic moduli we used were unavailable. Representative minerals within Mars' subsurface and their respective μ_m and κ_m are in Table 1. We treat basalt and clay as single mineral constituents. We estimate porosity ϕ changes with depth using

$$\phi = \phi_0 e^{-\frac{z}{k}}, \quad (5)$$

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where z , k , and ϕ_0 are depth in km, a porosity reduction constant scaled for Mars' gravitational field, and ϕ at the surface, respectively. Clifford (1987) estimated $k = 2.82$ km based on scaling lunar observations; we consider values that range from 1 to 10 km. We assume that ϕ_0 is between 0.3 and 0.5, consistent with studies that constrained ϕ_0 from rover measurements and analog Earth studies (Golombek et al., 2018; Lewis et al., 2019; Smrekar et al., 2019; Lognonné et al., 2020). Effective stress P is

$$P = \rho gh - P_f, \quad (6)$$

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where g , h , and P_f are gravitational acceleration on Mars (3.71 m/s²), depth, and fluid pressures, respectively. Coordination number c_n is from Mavko et al. (2020)

$$c_n = 20 - 34\phi + 14\phi^2. \quad (7)$$

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We use the input parameters described above to calculate μ_e from the rock physics model equations, then V_s from equation 1.

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To compare measured and modeled V_s , we create a rock physics template that relates V_s to ϕ (0-0.5), grain-contact friction (100% rough or smooth grain contacts), and pore ice percentage (0-100%) for ice deposited at grain contacts or surrounding grains in contact. Then, we identify the combinations of ϕ , grain contact friction, and or pore ice percentage that are consistent with the measured V_s . We also compare measured and modeled V_s directly; these models assume a porosity reduction profile (equation 5) and that pores host either 99% ice and 1% gas, 100% gas, 100% liquid water, 2% calcite cement and 98% gas, or 2% calcite cement and 98% liquid water. We model a cryosphere

Table 1. Mineral shear (μ_m) and bulk (κ_m) moduli, and mineral density (ρ) used in this study.

Mineral	μ_m (GPa)	κ_m (GPa)	ρ (kg/m ³)	References
Calcite	28.2	71.6	2710	Mavko et al. (2020)
Basalt	40.0	80.0	2900	Christensen (1972); Heap (2019)
Clay	6.0	12.0	2650	Vanorio et al. (2003)
Halite	15.3	25.2	2160	Zong et al. (2017)
Ice	3.8	8.7	1220	Toksöz et al. (1976)
Plagioclase	25.6	75.6	2630	Woeber et al. (1963)

193 as 99% ice and 1% gas because the cementation model breaks down for the 100% ice limit,
 194 where 0% porosity introduces indeterminacy into the equations. We use a 10,000 real-
 195 ization Monte Carlo simulation to incorporate input parameter uncertainties into the re-
 196 sults from the models used for direct comparisons with measured V_s . During the Monte
 197 Carlo simulation, we randomly select a new ϕ -depth profile for each realization. Selected
 198 ϕ values influence coordination number, bulk density, and effective stress.

199 2.2 Modeling V_s for fractured rocks

200 We estimate μ_e for fractured rocks using the self-consistent model of Berryman (1980).
 201 The model's equations can be found in Supporting Information Method S1, Berryman
 202 (1980), and Mavko et al. (2020). The model's input parameters are μ_m , κ_m , ϕ , and pore
 203 shape (defined by the aspect ratio, α – i.e., the pore's short axis divided by the long axis).
 204 We calculate μ_e assuming that the fractures within a basalt contains either 100% gas,
 205 100% water, 98% gas and 2% calcite cement, 98% water and 2% calcite cement, and 10-
 206 100% ice. We then use μ_e and ρ to calculate V_s from equation 1. We use these results
 207 to create rock physics templates relating V_s to ϕ (0.1-0.5), α (0.01-1) to account for the
 208 entire range of inclusion shapes, and pore ice, water, gas, and cement percentages. Last,
 209 we identify the ranges of ϕ , α , and pore-filling media that best explain measured V_s . While
 210 both our study and Heap (2019) use fractured media models, Heap (2019) used the Kuster
 211 Toksöz (KT) fractured media model that approximates the elastic moduli through a first-
 212 order, long-wavelength scattering theory. The Berryman fractured media model uses the
 213 'self consistent' approximation. The KT model does not allow the inclusions (cracks) to
 214 overlap, while the Berryman model does. The Berryman model also allows for a higher
 215 concentration of inclusions.

216 2.3 Sensitivity Analyses

217 We conduct sensitivity analyses to assess how model parameter uncertainties could
 218 influence interpretations as well as to identify which rock properties are resolvable with
 219 our models. Here, we first assume that ϕ_0 is 0.4, ϕ exponentially decays with depth, gas
 220 fills the pores, and there is no cement within the pores. Then, we vary a single input pa-
 221 rameter to assess how its uncertainty influences modeled V_s . For granular media mod-
 222 els, we vary mineralogy (100% basalt, plagioclase feldspar, or clay), coordination num-
 223 ber (8, 12, 16, or 20), porosity decay constant (1, 2.82, or 10 km), cement type (98% gas
 224 and 2% calcite, halite, or ice), and cement location (at grain contacts or entirely surrounds
 225 grains). For fractured media models, we vary host rock composition (100% basalt, pla-
 226 gioclase feldspar, or clay).

3 Results

3.1 Sediments

The ability to resolve changes in subsurface properties of sediment layers is most affected by uncertainties in cement type and location, followed by μ_m and κ_m , c_n , and ϕ (Figure 2). Assuming 100% basalt or plagioclase feldspar grains as representative of the compositional diversity of igneous rocks (and all else equal) results in a V_s difference of ~ 0.20 km/s (Figure 2c), which is within the measured V_s uncertainties (Figure 1). Thus, it is challenging to use the granular media rock physics models alone to distinguish between plausible igneous compositions. Clay layers may be seismically distinguishable from igneous rock layers since the differences in their V_s predictions are 0.95 km/s and 0.72 km/s, respectively. Uncertainties in the porosity decay constant k (i.e., 1, 2.82, and 10) produce a V_s range of ~ 0.28 km/s (Figure 2b); this result implies that the assumed decay constant does not significantly influence the interpretations of measured V_s . The range for the modeled V_s difference for coordination numbers of 8, 12, 16, and 20 is 0.56 km/s, which is within the uncertainty of measured V_s (Figure 2a). Assuming 2% calcite, ice, and halite mineral cement produce V_s ranges of ~ 1.18 km/s and ~ 0.64 km/s for the cement at grain contacts versus on the grain surface, respectively (Figure 2d). Assuming calcite and ice cement at grain surfaces predicts comparable velocities at all depths (i.e., within ~ 0.05 km/s), implying that we can not distinguish between a few (< 2) percent pore ice and calcite cement based on V_s alone.

Figure 3 shows the granular media rock physics template relating V_s , porosity, pore-filling media, and grain contact friction for modeled sediment layers. Measured V_s are consistent with modeled V_s for sediments comprised of 100% rough-grain contacts and sediments that host a few percent ice in their pores (Figure 3). Models for sediment with 100% rough-grain contacts are consistent with measured V_s if the sediments' porosities are between 0.14 and 0.35. Models with 100% smooth grain contacts underpredict measured V_s for all porosities between 0 and 0.5. Models for sediments that host 10-18% ice that surrounds grains in contact are consistent with the measured V_s if porosities are between 0.2-0.5. If pores are filled with 2% ice deposited at grain contacts, the porosities need to be 0.4-0.5 to explain the measured V_s . The measured V_s are consistent with modeled V_s for sediments with ice deposited at grain contacts if the pore-ice percentage is less than 2% and porosities are higher than 0.37.

Assuming a porosity-depth reduction relationship defined by equation 5, where $k = 2.82$ km, provides additional insights into the volume and type of pore-filling materials that could explain measured V_s within the upper crust. Measured V_s are most consistent with modeled V_s for a sediment with basalt grains and whose pores are filled with gas or 2% calcite cement (Figure 4b and 4d). In general, Hertz-Mindlin rough-grained models predict V_s with lower misfits than the smooth-grained models. The smooth-grained model underpredicts V_s by 0.53 km/s for a gas-filled sediment layer in the upper crust (Figure 4b). The liquid water saturated smooth-grained model underpredicts V_s by 0.61 km/s in the upper crust (Figure 4c). The rough-grained models for a gas or liquid water-filled layer predicts higher V_s than the smooth-grained models in the upper crust by 0.4 km/s. Assuming that calcite cement fills 2% of the pores and liquid water or gas fills the remaining 98% predict V_s within $\pm \sim 0.42$ km/s of measured V_s , regardless of whether the cement is deposited at grain contacts or surrounds grains (Figure 4d and 4e). Assuming ice-saturated pores overpredicts measured V_s by 1.6 km/s (Figure 4a).

3.2 Fractured Rocks

V_s of fractured rocks are most sensitive to α , ϕ , and elastic moduli of the host rock (Figures 5-7). As expected, V_s increases as porosity decreases and α increases. The difference in V_s between basalt and other host rocks (e.g., plagioclase feldspar and clay) increases with decreasing porosity and increasing aspect ratio. A plagioclase host rock

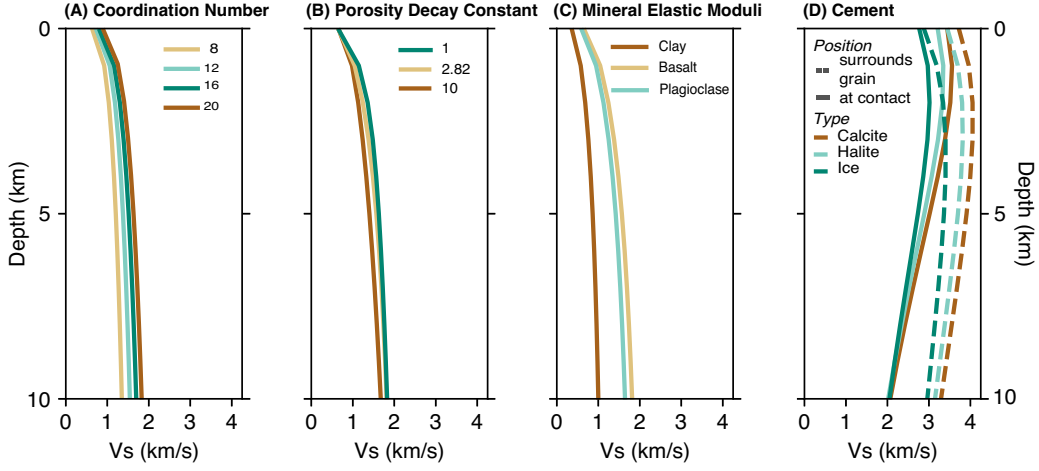


Figure 2. Effects of (A) coordination number, (B) porosity decay constant, (C) mineral moduli, and (D) cement type and location on V_s . We first assume that the subsurface comprises 100% basalt, porosity reduce exponentially with depth from $\phi_0 = 0.4$, c_n is primarily controlled empirically by ϕ as shown in Mavko et al. (2020), and no mineral cements exist between grains and pores. Then, we only change the parameters being assessed in each graph to assess their influence on V_s .

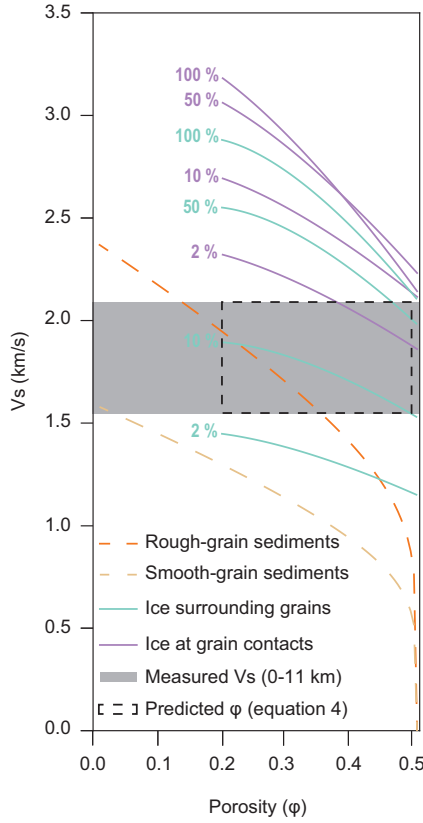


Figure 3. Rock physics template relating V_s , porosity, pore ice percentage, and sediments composed of 100% rough or smooth grain contacts. Calculations are based on the Hertz Mindlin and Cementation granular media models.

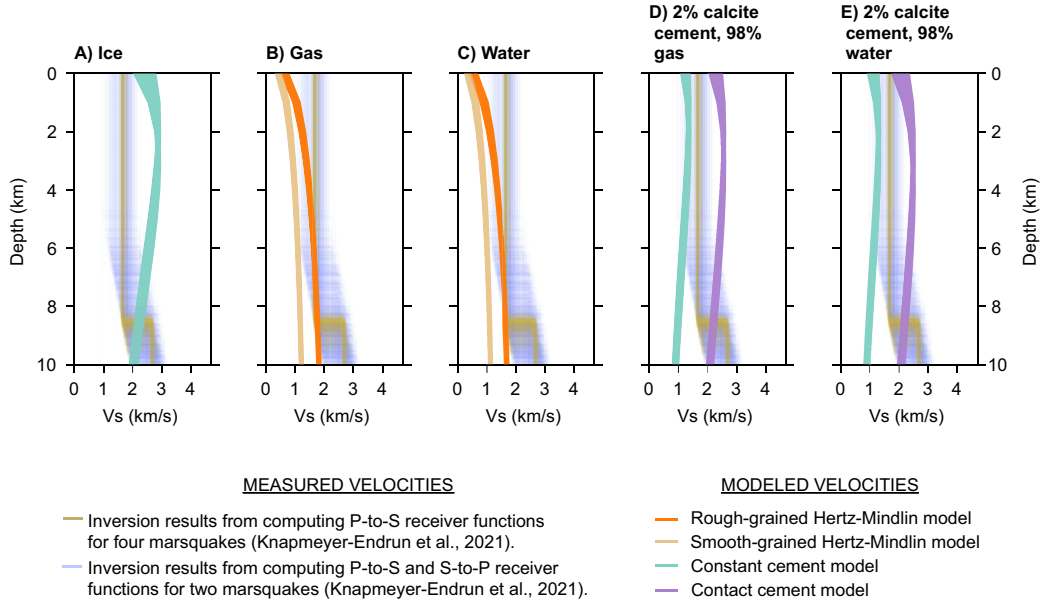


Figure 4. Comparisons of modeled and predicted V_s assuming basalt grains with pores filled with: A) 99% ice and 1% gas, B) 100% gas, C) 100% water, D) 2% calcite cement and 98% gas, and E) 2% calcite cement and 98% water. Calculations are based on the Hertz Mindlin and Cementation granular media models.

278 produces a difference of 0-0.5 km/s in V_s compared to a basalt host rock, for all pore-
 279 filling media (Figure 6). Thus, we can only distinguish between basalt and plagioclase
 280 rocks with V_s differences >0.3 km/s. A clay versus basalt host rock lowers V_s by ~ 0.4 -
 281 2 km/s for gas, ~ 0.15 -2 km/s for liquid water, ~ 0.2 -2 km/s for 2% calcite cement
 282 and 98% gas, and ~ 0.3 -2 km/s for 2% calcite cement and 98% liquid water (Figure 7). Fig-
 283 ure 7 shows the combinations of aspect ratio and porosities for when a clay and basalt
 284 host rock is resolvable (i.e., contour lines with V_s of at least 1.2 km/s).

285 A basalt host rock whose fractures are filled with varying percentages of ice, gas,
 286 water, and or calcite cement could explain the measured V_s in the upper and deeper crust.
 287 The upper crust could be filled with 100% gas, 100% liquid water, or 2% calcite cement
 288 with 98% gas or liquid water (Figure 5). Of these, a 100% gas-filled basalt (Figure 5a)
 289 produces the smallest number of ϕ - α combinations ($\phi = 0.1 - 0.47$ and $\alpha = 0.03 - 1$)
 290 that could explain the measured V_s . A 2% calcite cemented basalt (Figure 5c-d) produces
 291 the largest combinations of ϕ - α that could explain the measured V_s . Modeled V_s for basalts
 292 with ice that fills 20% to 60% of the pores are consistent with measured V_s if ϕ is be-
 293 tween 0.2 and 0.5. The measured V_s in the deeper crust are consistent with modeled V_s
 294 for a basalt filled with 100% gas or liquid water, 2% calcite cement with 98% gas or liq-
 295 uid water, or 10%-100% ice (Figures 5 and S1). A 100% gas-filled basalt (Figure 5a) pro-
 296 duces the smallest number of ϕ - α combinations ($\phi = 0.1 - 0.4$ and $\alpha = 0.04 - 1.0$)
 297 that could explain the measured V_s , while 60% ice-filled basalt host rock produces the
 298 largest number of ϕ - α combinations ($\phi = 0.1 - 0.5$ and $\alpha = 0.01 - 1.0$) (Figure 5i).

299 4 Discussion

300 Our interpretations are guided by limitations associated with rock physics model
 301 assumptions, uncertainties in model parameters and measured V_s , available satellite and
 302 rover images, gravity-derived bulk density data, and heat flow models. The rock physics

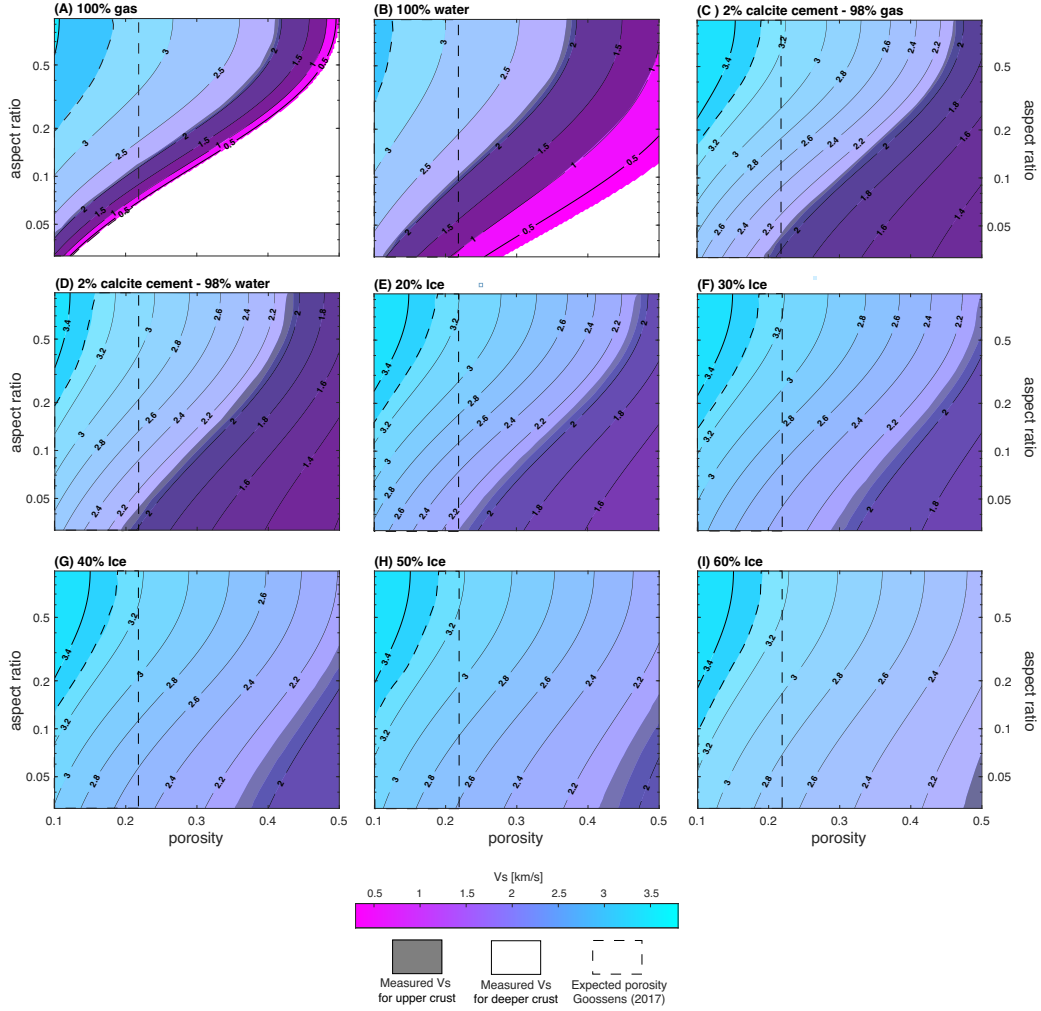


Figure 5. Rock physics template showing the V_s relationship between α (0.01-1.00), ϕ (0.1-0.5), varying pore-filling media, and varying pore-filling ice percentage. The black shading shows V_s for the upper crust; the white shading shows V_s for the deeper crust. The pore spaces are filled with either (A) gas, (B) water, (C) 2% calcite cement and 98% gas, (D) 2% calcite cement and 98% water, or (E) 20%, (F) 30%, (G) 40%, (H) 50%, or (I) 60% ice. Y-axis is logarithmic.

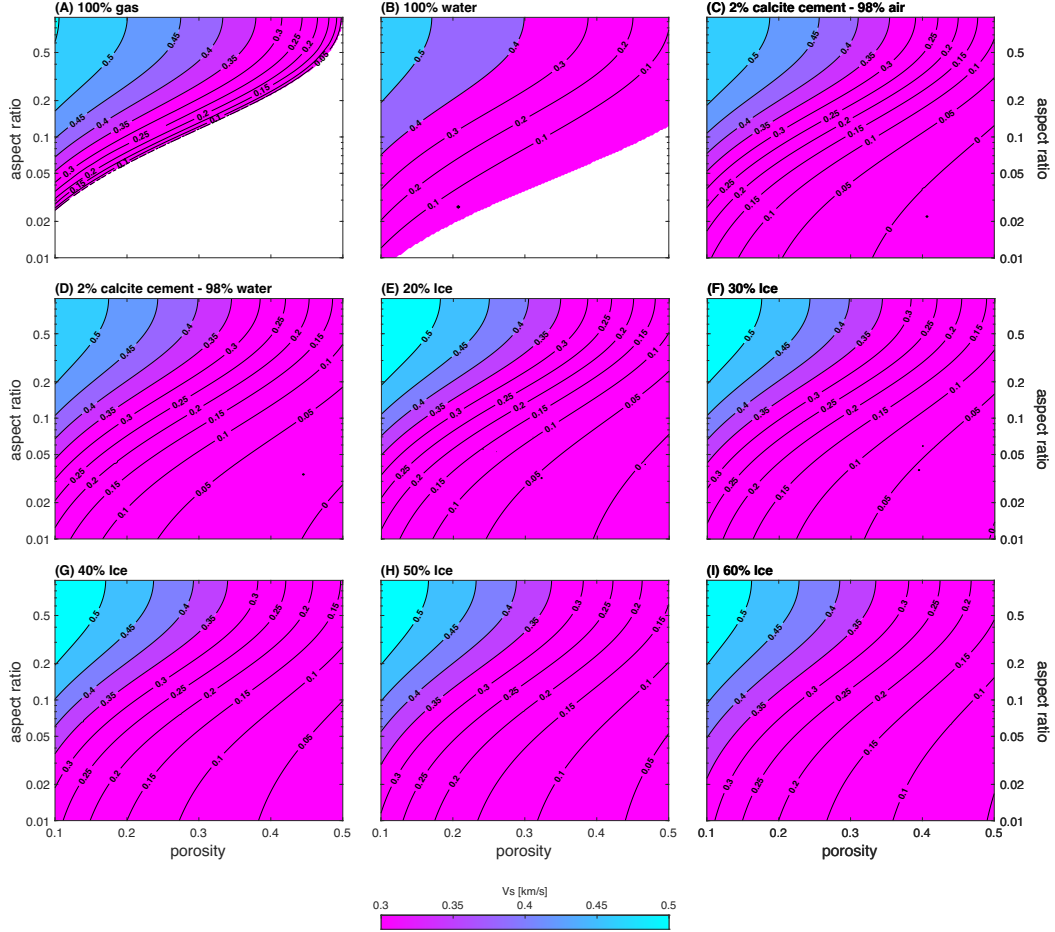


Figure 6. Rock physics sensitivity template showing the V_s difference between a basalt and plagioclase feldspar host rock. V_s changes with α (0.01-1.00), ϕ (0.1-1), and pore-filling media. The pores are filled with either (A) gas, (B) water, (C) 2% calcite cement and 98% gas, (D) 2% calcite cement and 98% water, or (E) 20%, (F) 30% , (G) 40%, (H) 50%, or (I) 60% ice. Y-axis is logarithmic.

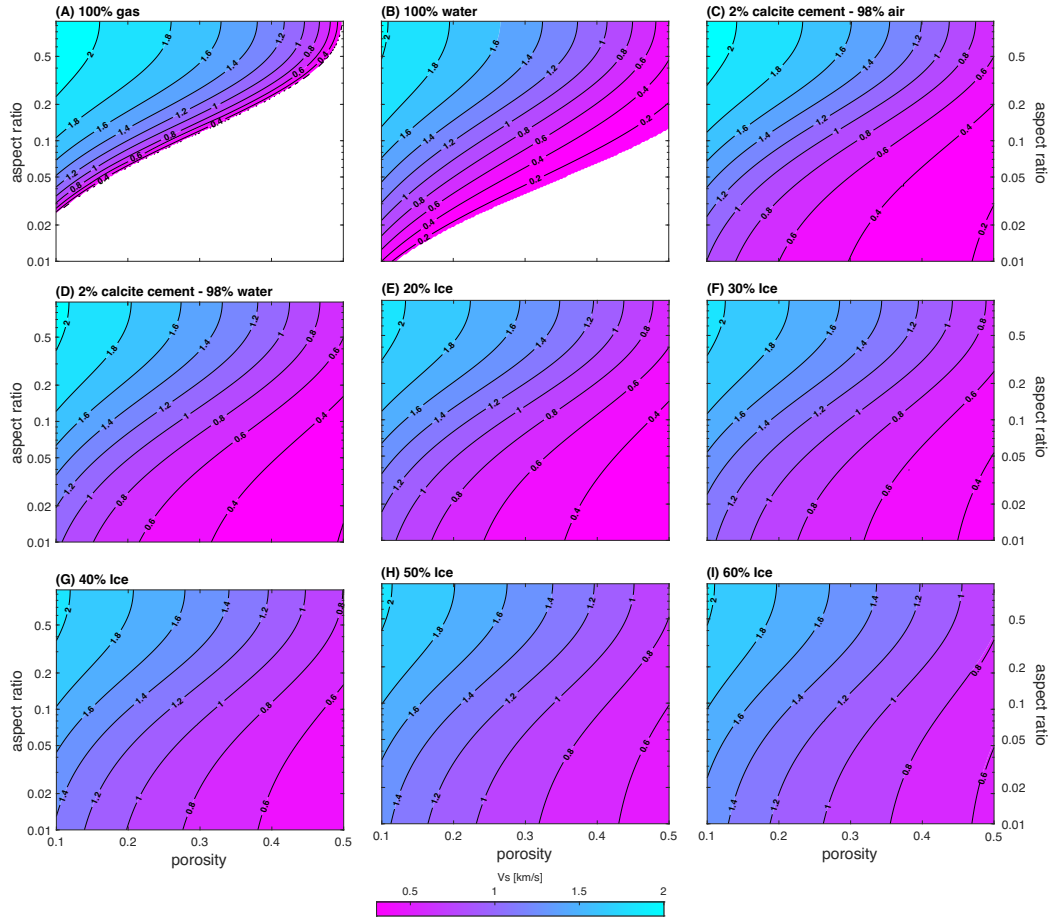


Figure 7. Rock physics sensitivity template showing the V_s difference between a basalt and clay host rock. V_s changes with α (0.01-1.00), ϕ (0.1-0.5), and pore-filling material. The pores are filled with either (A) gas, (B) water, (C) 2% calcite cement and 98% gas, (D) 2% calcite cement and 98% water, or (E) 20%, (F) 30% , (G) 40%, (H) 50%, or (I) 60% ice. Y-axis is logarithmic.

303 models provide end-member V_s estimates for the hypothesized stratigraphy (i.e., either
 304 sediments or fractured rocks filled with varying percentages of gas, liquid water, or ice
 305 and other mineral cements). Martian subsurface stratigraphy may include a mixture of
 306 fractured igneous rocks (e.g., basalts or 100% plagioclase feldspar) emplaced as volcanic
 307 lava flows or intrusions with varying physical (e.g., porosity) and mechanical (e.g., elastic
 308 properties) properties (Heap & Violay, 2021), brecciated sedimentary rocks, sands,
 309 and clays (Tanaka et al., 2014; Golombek et al., 2018; Pan et al., 2020; Warner et al.,
 310 2022). Thus, the measured V_s could be averages from several smaller rock and sediment
 311 layers that are not resolvable by the seismic velocity models (Knapmeyer-Endrun et al.,
 312 2021). Considering these limitations, our primary interpretations are that the upper crust
 313 comprises fractured basalt and cemented sediment layers whereas the deeper crust could
 314 comprises gas or water-filled fractured basalt with open, partially cemented fractures or
 315 more felsic igneous rock (represented here by 100% plagioclase feldspar) layers with 0-
 316 23% porosity.

317 **4.1 Fractured rocks and cemented sediments within the upper crust**

318 Our comparisons of measured and modeled V_s suggest that gas-filled fractured rock
 319 and cemented sediment layers may coexist within the upper crust. We interpret that the
 320 upper crust is gas-filled because temperatures in the upper crust would freeze water (Clifford
 321 et al., 2010). Sediments filled with 2% cement and 98% gas and basalts filled with gas
 322 are possible within the upper crust since their modeled V_s are consistent with measured
 323 V_s when we parameterize the models with the gravity-derived porosity range (0.10-0.23)
 324 (Figure 4) (Goossens et al., 2017). The coexistence of the gas-filled basalt and weakly-
 325 cemented sediment layers would be resolved as one seismic velocity layer in seismic ve-
 326 locity models since differences in the layers' V_s would not produce a large impedance con-
 327 trast. Additional support for the potential coexistence of igneous rock and sediment lay-
 328 ers in the upper crust comes from (1) Martian meteorites and images of surface-exposed
 329 stratigraphic columns that evidence basalts, sandstones, and sediments in the upper 1
 330 km of the crust (Carr & Head, 2002; Edwards et al., 2011; McSween, 2015; Golombek
 331 et al., 2018; Hobiger et al., 2021; Knapmeyer-Endrun et al., 2021) and (2) InSight-derived
 332 high-resolution seismic velocities that are consistent with gas-filled basalt and sediment
 333 layers down to 0.3 km below the surface of the landing site (Hobiger et al., 2021; Wright
 334 et al., 2022). Other layers with different lithologies and pore-filling media, and hence dif-
 335 ferent V_s , may exist within the upper crust. If so, these layers are likely too thin to be
 336 detected by the longer period marsquake waves used by Knapmeyer-Endrun et al. (2021)
 337 to constrain the V_s -depth structure. Seismic anisotropy may also provide constraints on
 338 fracture orientations (Li et al., 2022).

339 **4.2 No ice-saturated cryosphere in the upper crust**

340 There is likely no cryosphere within the upper crust, beneath InSight. The lack of
 341 a cryosphere is indicated by observations that when ice-filled, the granular media mod-
 342 els overpredict measured V_s by 0.5-2 km/s (Figure 4a) and that, for fractured basalts,
 343 there are no modeled combinations of porosity and pore shape that would explain the
 344 measured V_s if we restrict porosity to 0.10-0.23, as estimated by Goossens et al. (2017)
 345 (Figure 5e-i). One possibility not captured by our models is that there exists mushy ice
 346 (i.e., mix of soft, snow-like, ice and brine) within the pores of rocks and sediments de-
 347 posited at depths greater than a few hundred meters, depending on regional heat flow.
 348 Detecting a mushy ice may require improved constraints on attenuation beneath InSight
 349 and developing models connecting seismic velocities, attenuation, and mushy ice concen-
 350 trations (Dou et al., 2017). This can be done using lab and permafrost experiments.

4.3 Mineralogy, pore collapse, and pore-filling media in the deeper crust

Our model comparisons, the reliability of fractured media models for predicting V_s of very low ϕ (<3%) basalts, and differences in the effective pressures and heat flow between Earth and Mars lead us to interpret that, if basaltic, the deeper crust has 10-23% porosity. The measured V_s in Mars' deeper crust are 0.4-1.7 km/s lower than V_s for modeled unfractured basalts. Fractured media rock physics models successfully predict V_s of very low ϕ (<3%) basalts with as little as 0-2% misfit (Tsuji & Iturrino, 2008). Our model predicts V_s of ~ 3.7 km/s for unfractured ($\phi=0$) Martian basalts, assuming the mineral elastic moduli and densities listed in Table 1. If the deeper crust is basaltic and pores are filled with gas, liquid water, or 2% cement and 98% gas or liquid water, Mars' comparatively lower V_s may be explained by basalt layers with $\alpha=0.15-0.8$, $\phi=0.10-0.23$ (Figures 1, 5), and bulk density $\rho=2,318-2,713$ kg/m³ (equation 3). These ρ and hence ϕ ranges are consistent with Goossens et al. (2017) gravity-derived bulk density and porosity ranges for the deeper crust. The porosity of Earth ocean basalts reduce by $\sim 90\%$ from 0-6 km depth (Chen et al., 2020). At 6 km below the surface of Mars, assuming $\phi = 0.10$ (the lower ϕ limit proposed by Goossens et al. (2017)) and gas or liquid water fills the host rock, Earth's effective pressure is ~ 3 times greater than Mars' (equation 6). Earth's average heat flux is ~ 4.8 times greater than Mars' average (Davies & Davies, 2010; Parro et al., 2017). Manning and Ingebritsen (1999) estimates that viscous creep-induced pore collapse occurs at an average depth of ~ 12 km on Earth. Thus, we infer that Mars' lower effective stress, heat flow, and gravitational acceleration would cause elastic pore closure to occur at depths deeper than 12 km. Our findings and interpretations imply that a basaltic host rock would require 10-23% porosity and effective pressure-induced pore collapse may occur at the same depth as the second seismic discontinuity, located at the base of the deeper crust. This interpreted depth of pore collapse does not preclude the possibility that thermally-activated pore collapse occurred in the deeper crust in the past (Gyalay et al., 2020), and currently open pores may have been created by subsequent surface impacts or other stresses.

Our model comparisons show that the V_s in the deeper crust is also consistent with a plagioclase feldspar host rock with 0-23% porosity. Wiczorek et al. (2022) proposed that Mars' V_s may be lower than unfractured basalt's because the Martian crust comprises more felsic, feldspar-dominated igneous rocks whose density and shear moduli, and hence V_s , are lower than those of basalt. Payré et al. (2019) used visible and near infrared spectroscopy to identify excavated feldspar-rich crust, and based on thermal infrared data suggests that underneath a basaltic surface, the deeper crust has a more evolved feldspar-rich composition. We represent the felsic end-member igneous rock as a 100% plagioclase feldspar host rock. Our modeled V_s of an unfractured plagioclase host rock is ~ 3.1 km/s, which falls in the upper 75% quartile of the InSight-derived V_s range for the deeper crust (Figure 1) and supports the idea that the measured V_s on Mars could be explained by zero porosity (unfractured) plagioclase feldspar. We note that the two groups of InSight-derived measured V_s on Mars, based on P-S receiver function inversion from four versus two marsquakes, overlap at $\sim 2.6-2.75$ km/s (Figure 1). If the deeper crust comprises 100% plagioclase and it is fractured and filled with gas, liquid water, or 2% cement and 98% gas or liquid water, the measured V_s in the overlapping range may also be explained by layers of 100% plagioclase feldspar whose $\alpha=0.07-0.97$, $\phi=0.10-0.23$ (Figures 1, 6, S2), and bulk density $\rho=2,277-2,601$ kg/m³ (equation 3). These ϕ and ρ ranges are consistent with Goossens et al. (2017) gravity-derived ϕ and ρ ranges for the deeper crust. If the host rock is 100% plagioclase and unfractured, viscous creep-induced pore closure may occur at the same depth as the shallower seismic discontinuity, located at the top of the deeper crust. If up to 23% porosity exists, the onset of viscous creep-induced pore closure may occur at the same depth of the deeper seismic discontinuity, located at the base of the deeper crust; the porosity may also be due to post-pore-closure impact fracturing or other stresses. The higher V_s of the Northern deeper lowlands crust, 3.2 km/s (Kim et al., 2022), may reflect a more mafic composition or a less fractured crust than

405 that below InSight. Together, our analyses suggest that if the host rock is 100% plagioclase, the deeper crust is unfractured with pore closure occurring at the shallower seismic discontinuity or hosts up to 23% porosity, which is filled with gas, liquid water, or 2% cement and 98% gas or liquid water. In the latter scenario, pore closure occurs at 406 the deeper seismic discontinuity. Alternatively, the basalts could have been significantly 407 chemically and or hydrothermally altered due to heavy bombardment and impact cratering, or interactions with fluid flow and increased geothermal heat. Bolide impact and 408 cratering processes still exist today and may continue to minimise the effect of viscous 409 pore closure (Broglia & Ellis, 1990; Franzson et al., 2010; Heap et al., 2021). 410

411 If porosity exists, pores in the deeper crust could be filled with gas, liquid water, 412 or 2% cement and 98% gas or liquid water. We can not distinguish between gas and water-filled pores in the deeper crust since the V_s difference between a gas- and water-filled host 413 rock at this depth is less than 0.1 km/s (Figure 5a-d, S2) and the modeled geothermal 414 gradient on Mars suggest that liquid water could be stable beneath 8 km (Clifford et al., 415 2010). Though the measured V_s are consistent with a fractured host rock whose pores 416 are ice filled, we infer that ice does not fill the pores because temperatures in the deeper 417 crust are too high to freeze water brine (Clifford et al., 2010). Pores are likely filled with 418 at least 2% cement because models for a 2% calcite cemented crust with 98% gas or liquid 419 water are consistent with measured V_s within the gravity-derived porosity range (0.10- 420 0.23) (Goossens et al., 2017). Apart from calcite, other non-ice mineral cements could 421 exist within the pores since the differences between the elastic mineral moduli of calcite 422 and other expected cements within Mars' crust (Table 1) result in V_s differences no greater 423 than ~ 0.1 km/s if cement fills 2% of the pores. Cements usually precipitate from liquid 424 water solutions. If the source of liquid water in the deeper crust is from the surface or 425 upper crust, this liquid water needed to percolate to the deeper crust before tempera- 426 tures in the upper crust became cold enough to freeze liquid water. Modest amounts of 427 deeper crustal liquid water could also be supplied by intrusive magma below or within 428 the deeper crust (Black et al., 2022). 429 430 431 432

433 5 Conclusions

434 This study uses rock physics models and shear wave velocities V_s to constrain the 435 volume and distribution of subsurface liquid water, mineral cements, and lithology be- 436 neath InSight on Mars. The upper crust (0-8 km) most likely comprises gas-filled frac- 437 tured basalts and minimally cemented (up to 2% in pores) sediment layers. Measured 438 V_s in the upper crust are too low for an ice-saturated cryosphere layer. The deeper crust 439 (8-20 km) comprises consolidated basalts or more feldspar-rich rocks whose fractures have 440 not closed entirely and may be filled with gas, water, or 2% non-ice mineral cements and 441 98% gas or liquid water. The range of measured V_s in the deeper crust are also consis- 442 tent with unfractured feldspar. The presence and quantity of liquid water in the pores 443 would be better resolved by integrating our results with constraints from compressional 444 wave velocities.

445 The results of this study have implications for the thermal and hydrogeological history 446 of the Martian subsurface beneath InSight. Pores within the deeper crust could remain 447 open because the processes creating porosity (e.g., chemical reactions such as dis- 448 solution or impact cratering) are more dominant than thermally-activated viscous creep- 449 induced pore collapse. Pores could also be currently open because they were created by 450 impacts after the rocks experienced pore collapse induced by viscous creep. Open pores 451 could host liquid water that, if sourced from the surface or the upper crust, percolated 452 to the deeper crust before temperatures became colder, freezing the water on its way down. 453 Alternatively, liquid water could be introduced to the deeper crust via magmatic pro- 454 cesses. These results could be significant to unlocking the subsurface thermal evolution 455 of Mars, providing guidance on the search for life and water on Mars, and informing the 456 potential for in-situ resource utilization if humans were to visit Mars.

6 Data Availability Statement

Codes used in this study can be found at <https://10.5281/zenodo.7301787>. The InSight-derived seismic velocities that we used in this study are available in Knappmeyer-Endrun et al. (2021).

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1 **Supporting Information for “Lithology, pore-filling**
2 **media, and pore closure depth beneath InSight on**
3 **Mars inferred from shear wave velocities”**

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6 **Contents of this file**

- 7 1. Method S1
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9 3. Tables S1 to S2

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10 **Introduction**

11 This Supporting Information contains the equations for the rock physics models that
12 we use, two supporting figures, and two supporting tables. The rock physics models that
13 we use are the Hertz-Mindlin granular media model (Mindlin, 2021), the cementation
14 model (Dvorkin & Nur, 1996), and the Berryman self-consistent fractured media model
15 (Berryman, 1980). We refer interested readers to the papers cited above and Mavko,
16 Mukerji, and Dvorkin (2020) for more detailed derivations and descriptions of each model.
17 The figures in this Supplementary Information present results from the Berryman self-
18 consistent fractured media model. Tables S1 and S2 in this Supplementary Information
19 outline and describe the notation for the equations, symbols, and functions presented in
20 this work.

21 Method S1

22 We use granular and fractured media rock physics models to calculate dry-frame elastic
 23 moduli. We use the Hertz-Mindlin rock physics model (Mindlin, 2021) for cementless sed-
 24 iments, the cementation model (Dvorkin & Nur, 1996) for cemented sediments (whether
 25 the cements are at grain contacts or surrounding grains in contact), and the Berryman
 26 self-consistent fractured media model (Berryman, 1980) for fractured rocks. The notations
 27 for all the equations are in Table S2.

28 The equations for the Hertz-Mindlin rock physics model (Mindlin, 2021) are,

$$K_{HM} = \left[\frac{C^2(1-\phi)^2\mu_m^2}{18\pi^2(1-\nu_m)^2} P \right]^{1/3}, \quad (1)$$

$$\mu_{HM} = \frac{2+3f-\nu_m(1+3f)}{5(2-\nu_m)} \left[\frac{3C^2(1-\phi)^2\mu^2}{2\pi^2(1-\nu_m)^2} P \right]^{1/3}. \quad (2)$$

29 The equations for the cementation model (Dvorkin & Nur, 1996) are,

$$K_{CEM} = \frac{1}{6} C (1 - \phi_c) M_c \hat{S}_n, \quad (3)$$

$$\mu_{CEM} = \frac{3}{5} K_{CEM} + \frac{3}{20} C (1 - \phi_c) \mu_c \hat{S}_\tau, \quad (4)$$

$$M_c = \rho_c V_{Pc}^2, \quad (5)$$

$$\mu_c = \rho_c V_{Sc}^2 \quad (6)$$

$$\hat{S}_n = A_n \alpha_c^2 + B_n \alpha_c + C_n \quad (7)$$

$$A_n = -0.024153 \Lambda_n^{-1.3646}, \quad (8)$$

$$B_n = 0.20405 \Lambda_n^{-0.89008}, \quad (9)$$

$$C_n = 0.00024649 \Lambda_n^{-1.9864}, \quad (10)$$

$$\hat{S}_\tau = A_\tau \alpha_c^2 + B_\tau \alpha_c + C_\tau, \quad (11)$$

$$A_\tau = -10^{-2} (2.26v_g^2 + 2.07v_g + 2.3) \Lambda_\tau^{0.079v_g^2+0.1754v_g-1.342}, \quad (12)$$

$$B_\tau = (0.0573v_g^2 + 0.0937v_g + 0.202) \Lambda_\tau^{0.0274v_g^2+0.0529v_g-0.8765}, \quad (13)$$

$$C_\tau = 10^{-4} (9.654v_g^2 + 4.945v_g + 3.1) \Lambda_\tau^{0.01867v_g^2+0.4011v_g-1.8186}, \quad (14)$$

$$\Lambda_n = \frac{2\mu_c (1 - v_g) (1 - v_c)}{\pi\mu (1 - 2v_c)}, \quad (15)$$

$$\Lambda_\tau = \frac{\mu_c}{\pi\mu}, \quad (16)$$

$$\alpha_c = \frac{a}{R}. \quad (17)$$

30 The equations for the Berryman self-consistent fractured media model (Berryman, 1980)

31 are,

$$\sum_{i=1}^N x_i (K_i - K_{SC}^*) P^{*i} = 0, \quad (18)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^N x_i (\mu_i - \mu_{SC}^*) Q^{*i} = 0, \quad (19)$$

$$P = \frac{1}{3} T_{iijj}, \quad (20)$$

$$Q = \frac{1}{5} (T_{ijij} - \frac{1}{3} T_{iijj}), \quad (21)$$

32 where T_{ijkl} is a strain tensor relating far-field and intra-ellipsoid strains given by Te Wu

33 (1966). The tensors T_{iijj} and T_{ijij} are given by,

$$T_{iijj} = \frac{3F_1}{F_2}, \quad (22)$$

$$T_{ijij} - \frac{1}{3} T_{iijj} = \frac{2}{F_3} + \frac{1}{F_4} + \frac{F_4 F_5 + F_6 F_7 - F_8 F_9}{F_2 F_4}, \quad (23)$$

34 where,

$$F_1 = 1 + A \left[\frac{3}{2} (f_{sc} + \theta) - R \left(\frac{3}{2} f_{sc} + \frac{5}{2} \theta - \frac{4}{3} \right) \right], \quad (24)$$

$$F_2 = 1 + A \left[1 + \frac{3}{2} (f_{sc} + \theta) - \frac{1}{2} R (3f_{sc} + 5\theta) \right] + B(3 - 4R) + \frac{1}{2} A(A + 3B)(3 - 4R) [f_{sc} + \theta - R(f_{sc} - \theta + 2\theta^2)], \quad (25)$$

$$F_3 = 1 + A \left[1 - \left(f_{sc} + \frac{3}{2}\theta \right) + R(f_{sc} + \theta) \right], \quad (26)$$

$$F_4 = 1 + \frac{1}{4}A [f_{sc} + 3\theta - R(f_{sc} - \theta)], \quad (27)$$

$$F_5 = A \left[-f_{sc} + R \left(f_{sc} + \theta - \frac{4}{3} \right) \right] + B\theta(3 - 4R), \quad (28)$$

$$F_6 = 1 + A[1 + f_{sc} - R(f_{sc} + \theta)] + B(1 - 0)(3 - 4R), \quad (29)$$

$$F_7 = 2 + \frac{1}{4}[3f_{sc} + 9\theta - R(3f_{sc} + 5\theta)] + B\theta(3 - 4R), \quad (30)$$

$$F_8 = A \left[1 - 2R + \frac{1}{2}f_{sc}(R - 1) + \frac{1}{2}\theta(5R - 3) \right] + B(1 - \theta)(3 - 4R), \quad (31)$$

$$F_9 = A [(R - 1)f_{sc} - R\theta] + B\theta(3 - 4R), \quad (32)$$

³⁵ and the variables A , B , and R are,

$$A = \mu_i/\mu_m - 1, \quad (33)$$

$$B = \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{K_i}{K_m} - \frac{\mu_i}{\mu_m} \right), \quad (34)$$

$$R = \frac{(1 - 2v_m)}{2(1 - v_m)}. \quad (35)$$

³⁶ θ and f_{sc} are functions given by,

$$\theta = \begin{cases} \frac{\alpha_{sc}}{(\alpha_{sc}^2 - 1)^{3/2}} \left[\alpha_{sc} (\alpha_{sc}^2 - 1)^{1/2} - \cosh^{-1} \alpha_{sc} \right] \\ \frac{\alpha_{sc}}{(1 - \alpha_{sc}^2)^{3/2}} \left[\cos^{-1} \alpha_{sc} - \alpha_{sc} (1 - \alpha_{sc}^2)^{1/2} \right], \end{cases} \quad (36)$$

for oblate spheroids ($\alpha_{sc} < 1$),

$$f_{sc} = \frac{\alpha_{sc}^2}{1 - \alpha_{sc}^2} (3\theta - 2). \quad (37)$$

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53 Figures S1 to S2

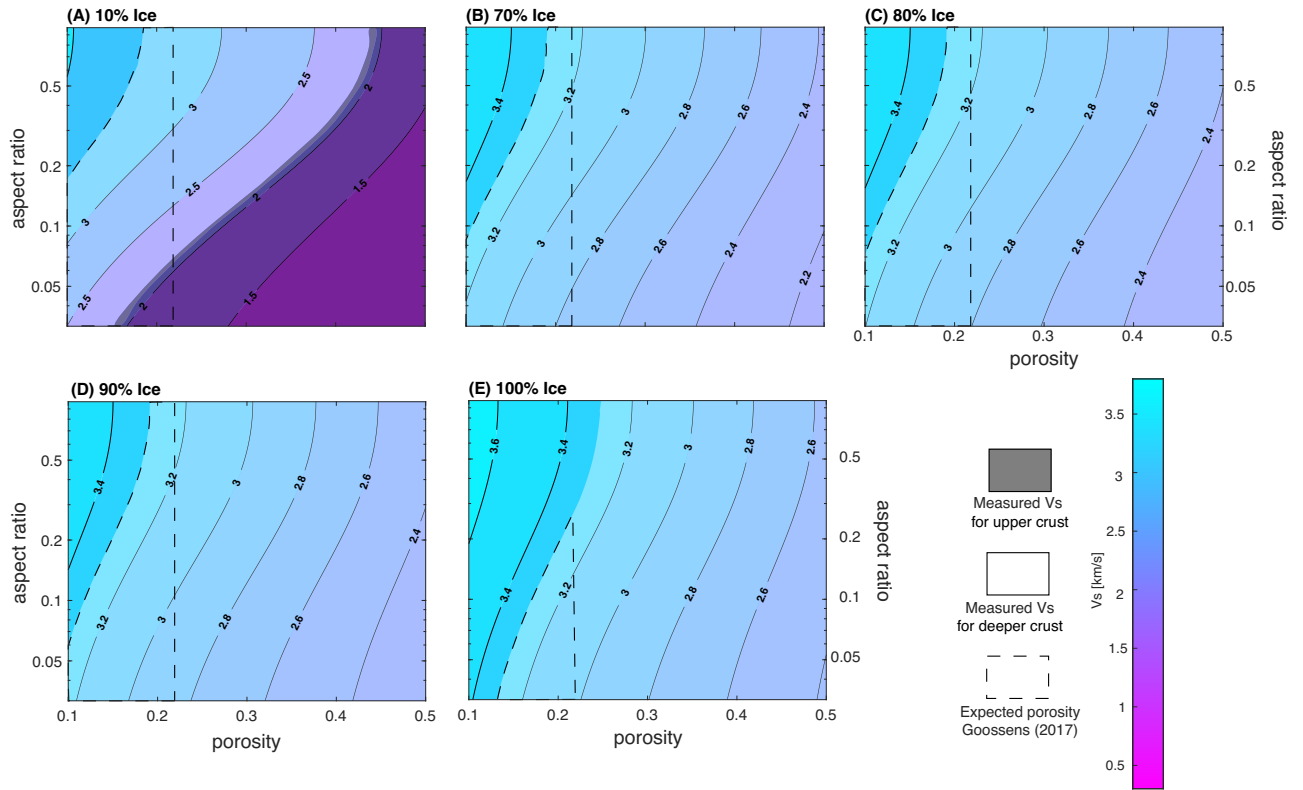


Figure S1. Rock physics templates showing relationships between V_s , aspect ratio α (0.01 - 1.00), porosity ϕ (0.1 - 0.5), and varying percentages of ice in the pores of a basalt host rock, either (A) 10%, (B) 70%, (C) 80%, (D) 90%, or (E) 100% ice. Y-axis is logarithmic.

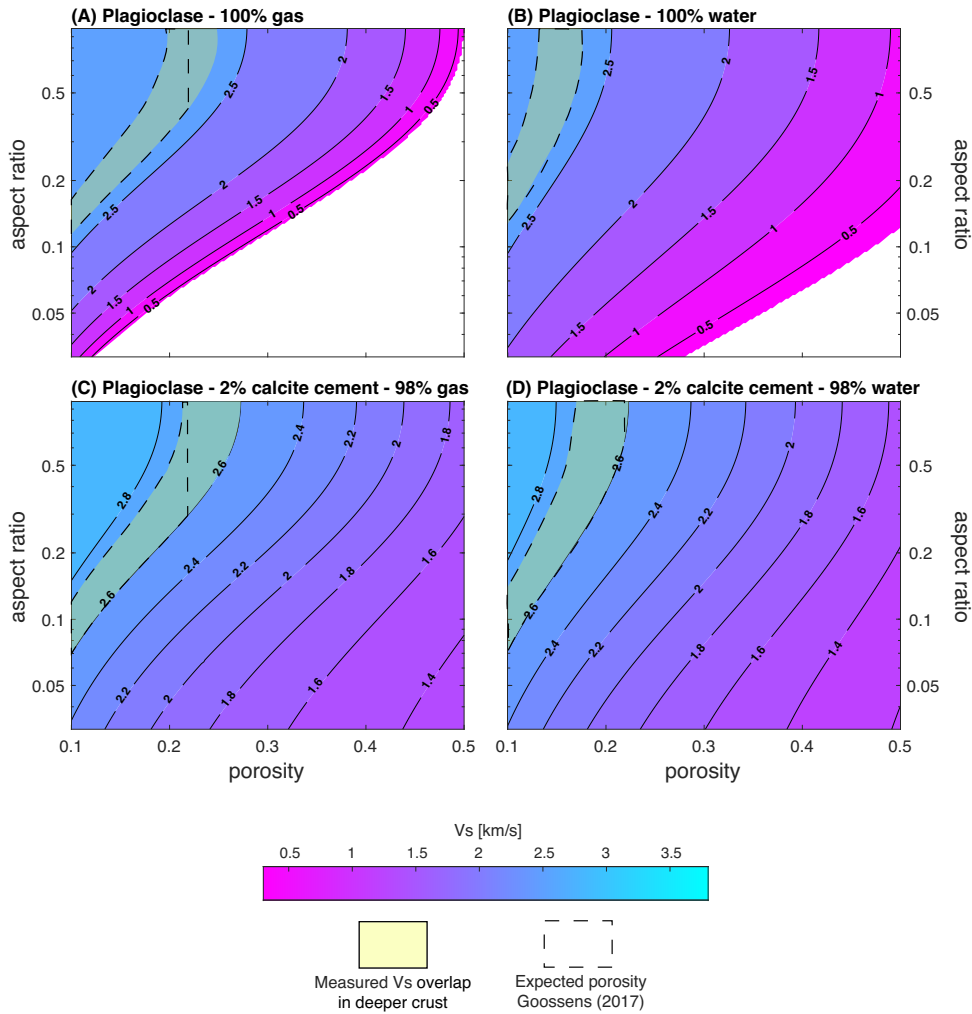


Figure S2. Rock physics templates showing relationships between V_s , aspect ratio α (0.01 - 1.00), porosity ϕ (0.1 - 0.5), and pore-filling media in a 100% plagioclase feldspar host rock. The yellow shading shows Knapmeyer-Endrun et al. (2021)'s measured V_s overlap range in the deeper crust (also see Figure 1). The pores are filled with either (A) gas, (B) water, (C) 2% calcite cement and 98% gas, or (D) 2% calcite cement and 98% water. Y-axis is logarithmic.

54 Tables S1 to S2

Table S1. P and Q coefficient equations for the background material (m) and inclusions (i).

Inclusion shape	P^{mi}	Q^{mi}
Spheres	$\frac{K_m + \frac{4}{3}\mu_m}{K_i + \frac{4}{3}\mu_m}$	$\frac{\mu_m + \zeta_m}{\mu_i + \zeta_m}$
Needles	$\frac{K_m + \mu_m + \frac{1}{3}\mu_i}{K_i + \mu_m + \frac{1}{3}\mu_i}$	$\frac{1}{5} \left(\frac{4\mu_m}{\mu_m + \mu_i} + 2\frac{\mu_m + \gamma_m}{\mu_i + \gamma_m} + \frac{K_i + \frac{4}{3}\mu_m}{K_i + \mu_m + \frac{1}{3}\mu_i} \right)$
Disks	$\frac{K_m + \frac{4}{3}\mu_i}{K_i + \frac{4}{3}\mu_i}$	$\frac{\mu_m + \zeta_i}{\mu_i + \zeta_i}$
Penny cracks	$\frac{K_m + \frac{4}{3}\mu_i}{K_i + \frac{4}{3}\mu_i + \pi\alpha\beta_m}$	$\frac{1}{5} \left[1 + \frac{8\mu_m}{4\mu_i + \pi\alpha(\mu_m + 2\beta_m)} + 2\frac{K_i + \frac{2}{3}(\mu_i + \mu_m)}{K_i + \frac{4}{3}\mu_i + \pi\alpha\beta} \right]$

$\beta = \mu \frac{3K + \mu}{3K + 4\mu}$, $\gamma = \mu \frac{3K + \mu}{3K + 7\mu}$, $\zeta = \frac{\mu}{6} \frac{9K + 8\mu}{K + 2\mu}$, $\alpha =$ inclusion aspect ratio

Table S2. Notation for equations, variables, and formulas.

Symbol	Meaning
K_{HM}	Dry-frame bulk modulus from Hertz-Mindlin
μ_{HM}	Dry-frame shear modulus from Hertz-Mindlin
C	Coordination number
ϕ	Porosity
μ_m	Mineral shear modulus
ν_m	Mineral Poisson's ratio
P	Hydrostatic confining pressure
f	Volume fraction of rough versus smooth grains
K_{CEM}	Dry-frame bulk modulus from the cementation model
μ_{CEM}	Dry-frame shear modulus from the cementation model
ϕ_c	Critical porosity
μ_c	shear modulus of the cement
\hat{S}_n	(proportional to) normal stiffness
\hat{S}_τ	(proportional to) shear stiffness
ρ_c	Cement density
V_{Pc}	Cement P-wave velocity
V_{Sc}	Cement S-wave velocity
ν_c	Cement Poisson's ratio
ν_g	Mineral Poisson's ratio
a	Cement layer radius
R	Grain radius
K_i	Inclusion bulk modulus
K_{SC}	Self-consistent background medium effective bulk modulus
μ_i	Inclusion shear modulus
μ_{SC}	Self-consistent background medium effective shear modulus
P, Q	Geometric factors (Table S1)
$*i$	i^{th} inclusion material
x_i	i^{th} background material volume fraction
N	Number of phases
T_{ijkl}	Strain tensor (Te Wu, 1966)
K_m	Background material bulk modulus
μ_m	Background material shear modulus
ν_m	Background material Poisson's ratio
α_{sc}	Aspect ratio
θ, f_{sc}	Functions

(Note: $f = 1$ means 100% rough grains)