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Water Storage in Hydrous Minerals in the Shallow Martian Mantle

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2 Martian Mantle

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8 Abstract

9 In this paper we investigate the possibility of storing water in the shallow martian mantle under 10 water-saturated fluid absent conditions for different bulk silicate mars (BSM) compositions. We 11 performed phase equilibria experiments on two BSM compositions with comparable Mg 12 number for pressure between 2 and 4 GPa, temperatures between 950 to 1150°C, and for a 13 water content of 0.3 % wt. The amphibole stability fields derived from both compositions are consistent with previous results obtained for Earth-like composition: (i) the water-saturated 14 15 fluid-absent conditions expand the stability field towards higher pressures and temperature compared to fluid present conditions for both compositions tested; and (ii) the martian alkali-16 17 rich composition tend to stabilize the amphiboles at higher temperatures, as it is the case for 18 alkali-rich Earth-like compositions. We used these results to recalculate the water storage capacity of the early martian mantle: by taking into account the possibility of amphibole 19 20 crystallization in the upper mantle, the storage capacity of water in the martian mantle increases by 40 to 1000 Earth's ocean mass (400 m to 1.5 km Global Equivalent Layer) 21 22 depending on the bulk composition, water content and temperature profile of the martian 23 mantle.

²⁴1 Introduction

From many missions to the red planet (Bibring et al., 2005) it has been learned that water was 25 present in liquid form during the early stage of Mars' history (Carr and Head, 2015; Jakosky, 26 27 2021). Mars then dried out (e;g. Scheller et al., 2021, and references therein)), and most of the remaining water is present in the polar cap (Bibring et al., 2004; Carr and Head, 2015) or as 28 29 vapor in the martian atmosphere (Trokhimovskiy et al., 2015) with no liquid water left on its surface. Although a large fraction of the Martian surface water was likely lost to space (REFS), 30 a substantial amount of water also likely got sequestered in the Martian subsurface (e.g Scheller 31 et al., 2021). The question remains as to how much water can still be stored in the martian 32 mantle. 33

It is possible to store water in the planetary mantles in Nominally Anhydrous Minerals 34 (NAMs, Hirschmann et al., 2005; Keppler, 2006), and in hydrous minerals (Condamine et al., 35 2016; Fumagalli et al., 2009). Understanding the actual storage of water in a planet requires 36 determining the total storage capacity of the mantle from NAMs and hydrous minerals. This has 37 been done for Earth (Dong et al., 2021; Hirschmann et al., 2005) and Mars (Dong et al., 2022) 38 using a NAM only mantle mineralogy. For Mars, this yielded a total water storage similar to 39 global equivalent layer (GEL) of 4.9 to 9 km depending on the thermal profile. 40

The water storage capacity of the martian mantle would be increased by the presence of 41 hydrous minerals in the mantle, as it is on the Earth's mantle (Ohtani, 2015). The martian 42 mantle composition allows crystallization of amphiboles if water is present (Médard and Grove, 43 2006; Pommier et al., 2012), which could increase its water storage capacity. The presence of amphibole depends on their stability field, which itself depends on the composition of the 45 mantle. It has been shown in Earth-like composition that the bulk composition controls the 46 47 presence and amount of amphiboles that can form (from Mysen and Boettcher, 1975 to Saha et al., 2021 and references therein). It has also been shown that the stability of amphibole depends 48 on the presence of H2O-CO2 fluids (e.g. Dasgupta, 2018; Grove et al., 2006; Mandler and Grove, 49

50 2016 and references therein). As a function of bulk water content, the dominant water storage 51 mechanism in the mantle varies. At a sufficiently low water abundance, i.e., hundreds or ppm 52 by weight of H₂O, and high temperatures, all water is stored in NAMs (e.g. Dasgupta, 2018; 53 Hirschmann et al., 2005; O'Leary et al., 2010, Dasgupta and Aubaud, 2024). Similarly, too high 54 water concentrations lead to stability of hydrous fluids or hydrous partial melts, depending on 55 temperatures (e.g. Grove et al., 2006; Hirschmann et al., 2005; Médard and Grove, 2006; Pommier et al., 2012; Till et al., 2012), which may suppress stability of hydrous silicate minerals 56 57 (Green et al., 2014, 2010). At intermediate water content of thousands of ppm, and low enough 58 temperatures, water could be chiefly stored in hydrous silicate minerals such as amphiboles (e.g., Dasgupta, 2018; Mandler and Grove, 2016; Putak Juriček and Keppler, 2023; Saha et al., 59 60 2021; Wallace and Green, 1991).

Phase relations and melting of water-rich systems for the bulk silicate Mars (BSM) 61 62 composition (Wänke and Dreibus, 1994) was studied by Médard and Grove, (2006) and Pommier et al., (2012). These studies have shown that amphiboles can be present in the martian 63 mantle at relatively low pressures (0.5 to 2.5 GPa) and temperatures (700 to 950 °C). Because 64 lowering the water content relative to alkalis would tend to extend the amphibole stability field 65 toward higher temperatures and pressures, we propose to study the effect of an intermediate 66 67 concentration of water $(0.3\%$ wt bulk concentration), high enough to be in the range for 68 hydrous mineral formation, low enough to be in the absence of hydrous fluid. This concentration should extend the stability field of amphiboles from Médard and Grove, (2006) 69 to higher pressures and temperatures, providing a higher bound for the water storage capacity 70 71 in the martian mantle.

In terms of composition, the bulk concentration of alkali elements (Na and K) plays an 72 important role in the stabilization of amphiboles and other hydrous minerals, such as 73 phlogopites (Fumagalli et al., 2009; Mysen and Boettcher, 1975; Saha et al., 2018). Other 74 75 elements, such as Ca, also controls the proportion of amphibole (Saha et al., 2021, and

references therein). Since the Bulk Silicate Mars (BSM) composition is not the same as the 76 Earth's mantle (Yoshizaki and McDonough, 2020), it is important to determine the stability of 77 78 amphibole and their proportions within the martian mantle to get a precise estimate on the 79 water storage capacity. Several BSM model have been proposed, with different Mg#, alkali and Ca contents (Bertka and Fei, 1997; Lodders and Fegley, 1997; Sanloup et al., 1999; Taylor, 2013; 80 Wänke and Dreibus, 1994; Yoshizaki and McDonough, 2020). Each model will yield slightly 81 different modal distributions of mineral, (while still being comparable, see Smrekar et al., 2019 82 83 and references therein), and therefore different water storage capacities in the martian mantle. 84 In particular, the different models have different Na and K concentrations, and these differences 85 will affect the stability of amphiboles in the martian mantle. In particular, the model composition of Lodders and Fegley, (1997) is richer in alkali material (∼ 1 wt.% total Na2O + 86 K_2 O) than the one from Wänke and Dreibus, (1994; ~ 0.5 wt.% total Na₂O + K₂O), for 88 comparable Mg # (75 and 75.9 respectively) and CaO content (2.36 and 2.45 wt.%, 89 respectively). Each composition would yield different amphibole P-T stability fields and 90 therefore different water storage capacities in the martian mantle.

The goal of this study is to determine the amphibole pressure-temperature stability field 91

92 (P-T field) of two different BSM model compositions (referred as LF for Lodders and Fegley 93 (1997) and DW for Wänke and Dreibus (1994) in the rest of the paper), for a bulk water content of 0.3 wt.% in experiments performed at high pressures (2 to 4 GPa) and high temperatures 94 95 (950 to 1150 °C) relevant to the stability field of amphibole (Mandler and Grove, 2016; Médard 96 and Grove, 2006; Saha et al., 2021). With this P-T stability field, we re-evaluated the total storage capacity of a possibly hydrous martian mantle accounting for both model composition and the 97 98 thermal profiles proposed by (Samuel et al., 2021).

99

101 Table 1: Composition of the starting material normalized in wt%, after decarbonation of CaCO₃, Na₂CO₃ and K₂CO₃ and reduction
102 of Fe₂O₃, and addition of brucite for H₂O. The water content is calcula 102 of Fe₂O₃, and addition of brucite for H₂O. The water content is calculated from the amount of brucite added during preparation. In
103 the rest of the text, DW refers to Wänke and Dreibus (1994) composition (low 103 the rest of the text, DW refers to Wänke and Dreibus (1994) composition (low alkali content) and LF refers to Lodders and Fegley (1997) (higher alkali content).

105

106 2. Methods

107 2.1. Experimental Procedure

108 2.1.1. Starting Material

- 110 Al₂O₃, TiO₂, MnO, mixed with carbonates CaCO₃, Na₂CO₃ and K₂CO₃. These oxide powders were
- 111 dried and stored at 110° C prior to mixing. Each of them was weighted and mixed in ethanol
- 112 using an agate mortar. The initial mixes were fired at 1000° C for 18 h under a CO-CO₂ gas-
- controlled atmosphere so as to achieve decarbonation of the carbonate powders and an oxygen 113

114 fugacity of FMO -1 to reduce Fe2O3 to FeO. After firing, brucite $[Mg(OH)]$ was added so as to 115 obtain a bulk water concentration of 0.3 wt.%. Two compositions with different alkali contents and similar Mg# were synthesized: Lodders and Fegley (1997) and Wänke and Dreibus (1994), 116 117 adapted without trace elements and with the addition of 0.3 wt.% of H₂O. The initial weights of 118 each powder were determined so as to take into account the loss of mass during the decarbonation process, as well as the addition of the brucite powder, and get the compositions 119 120 of starting mixes in oxide weight percentages are shown in Table 1. The powders were stored 121 in a 110 °C controlled furnace between each experiment.

122 2.1.2. High P-T experiments

123 All experiments were conducted in Rice University's experimental petrology laboratory. The experiments at 2-3 GPa were conducted using a piston cylinder device and the experiments at 124 125 4 GPa were conducted using a Walker-style multi anvil device. For the piston cylinder 126 experiments, a half-inch diameter BaCO₃ pressure cell with crushable MgO internal spacers, straight-walled graphite furnaces were used. The assembly was contained in external Pb foil, 127 128 which helped to minimize friction. The P -T calibration and the procedural details of our piston cylinder assembly is given in Tsuno and Dasgupta (2011)and adopted in several subsequent 129 130 studies from this laboratory (e.g., Carter and Dasgupta, 2015; Saha and Dasgupta, 2019; Tsuno and Dasgupta, 2012). The 4 GPa experiments were conducted using a 1100-ton hydraulic press, 131 fitted with a Walker-style multi anvil module. We used Walker-style, 18/12 MgO castable 132 133 pressure medium. The *P-T* calibration for this assembly is given in Ding et al. (2014).

The starting mixes were loaded in 2 mm outer diameter gold capsules, welded with a PUK 134 135 welding machine in both ends to avoid loss of matter and contamination. The lengths of the capsules were variable (4 to 5 mm in piston-cylinder experiments, 3 mm for multi-anvil 136 137 experiments). Experimental temperatures, for both PC and MA experiments were controlled by type-C thermocouples, placed axially to the heater and within 1 mm of one end of the cylindrical 138 139 capsules, and coupled with an Eurotherm temperature controller. Thermal gradients were 140 taken into account during the entire length of the experiment both in piston-cylinder and multi-141 anvil experiments. The P-T uncertainties of our experiments are estimated to be ±0.1 GPa and $\pm 12^{\circ}$ C for PC and ± 0.3 GPa and $\pm 10^{\circ}$ C for MA. The temperatures of study range from 950°C to 1150°C. To ensure equilibrium, piston-cylinders experiments were run for 5 days (120 hours). 143 144 Multi-anvil experiments were run for 3 days (72 hours) at $T > 1050C$, to 4 days (96 hours) at T ≤ 1050C. The conditions of experiments and their name are listed in Table 2. 145

For the piston-cylinder experiments, the sample were brought to the target pressure manually 146 less than 30 minutes. For the multi-anvil experiments, the pressure was increased slowly using 147 an hydraulic pump in 3 to 4 hours. For both multi-anvil and piston-cylinder, after the pressure 148 149 was reached, the temperature was increased to the target temperature at a rate of 100 $^{\circ}$ C per 150 minute and kept stable at target temperature with an Eurotherm controller. After 72 to 120 151 hours of heating, experiments were quenched by cutting off the electrical power of the graphite 152 heater, leading to a rapid decrease of the temperature to 100° C in less than 30 seconds. The piston-cylinder experiments are decompressed manually in 1 hour, while the multi-anvil 153 154 experiments are decompressed in 15 hours by the hydraulic pump controller. Once the 155 assemblies are decompressed, the capsules are retrieved and cut longitudinally using a 50 156 microns wide diamond coated saw. After being cut, the samples are mounted in epoxy and dry-157 polished on a nylon cloth and a 3 microns diamond powder until a flat surface is achieved. Once 158 this flat surface is obtained, a final round of polishing is made using a velvet cloth and 1 micron 159 diamond powder before carbon coating the sample.

160 2.3 Sample Analysis

161 After quenching, the samples were cut, polished, carbon-coated and analyzed using a field 162 emission gun microprobe (JEOL JXA 8530F Hyperprobe) at the Department of Earth, Environment and Planetary Science of Rice University. Phase identification was performed 163 164 using backscattered electron images (BSE) and Energy Dispersive X-ray Spectroscopy (EDS). 165 The composition was determined using wavelength dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (WDS). The analysis of olivine, pyroxenes, garnet and oxides were conducted using a focused electron beam 166 167 of 20 nA with an accelerating voltage of 15kV. Na-rich phases (amphiboles and melt) were 168 analyzed with a defocused electron beam (between 5 and 20 μ m depending on the available space) in the same acceleration and intensity, to limit the effet of Na migration during analysis. 169 The calibration were performed using standard samples from the manufacturer with a known 170 171 composition. For all phase types (minerals, glass and oxides), concentration of Mn and Ti were 172 calibrated using a rhodonite and a rutile crystal, respectively. For minerals the standards used 73 were crystals of olivine (Fe, Si and Mg), almandine (Al, Si and Fe), biotite (K), plagioclase (Na, Al 1 174 and Ca), Cr-diopside (Si, Ca and Mg), and jadeite (Na). For oxides, only Fe, Al, Mg, Mn LF 175

176 and Ti were analyzed, calibrated using chromite (Fe, Al and Mg), rhodonite (Mn) and rutile (Ti). 177 For glasses, we used different commercial glasses with known concentrations to calibrate Si, 178 Na, K, Ca, Fe, Al and Mg, provided by the manufacturer.

The H₂O content was not directly measured in any mineral, and for amphiboles, the water 180 content is calculated using the stoichiometric method and the spreadsheet given by (Locod 180 content is calculated using the stoichiometric method and the spreadsheet given by (Locock, 181 $\,$ 2014) determining the molar OH/Si ratio. The H₂O content is then recalculated from this 2014) determining the molar OH/Si ratio. The H₂O content is then recalculated from this molar ratio into a percentage of H₂O (the detailed calculation is presented in Section 3.3, 182 molar ratio into a percentage of H_2O (the detailed calculation is presented in Section 3.3, and 183 the results in Tables 3 and 4). the results in Tables 3 and 4).

184 Table 2 begin

Table 2: Tables of experimental conditions and phase assembly of the run products for composition LF and DW. The pressure are known within a ±0.1 GPa range. The temperatures are known within a
186 10°C range. The oxygen fu 186 10°C range. The oxygen fugacity is not buffered during the experiments. Experiments names starting with a T (T142-LF for instance) are Piston-Cylinder experiments. Experiments names starting with 187 MA are multi-187 MA are multi-anvil experiments. The SSE is the residual squared difference obtained after mass balance calculations. The phase proportions are presented in mass fraction. For each experiment the value 188 of K_{d} of K_{dMg-Fe} opx/ol, K_{dMg-Fe} opx/cpx, and K_{dMg-Fe} ol/meltwhen melt is present are given with their 10 error.

189 Table 2 end

3 Results

194 Figure1 begin

196 Figure 1: Backscattered electron (BSE) images of different samples showing the different textures obtained in this study. a. Whole
197 sample image of sample T142-LF (2 GPa, 950°C). b. Detail of an opx-rich zone for sa sample image of sample T142-LF (2 GPa, 950°C). b. Detail of an opx-rich zone for sample T142-LF, showing an amphibole associated with a rim of opx and ol and the poikilitic texture with cpx. c. Details of an olivine rich zone in sample T142-LF showing the zonation of olivines at 950 °C. d. Detail of an ol rich zone for sample T143-DW (2 GPa, 1050°C) showing the disappearance of 200 olivine zonation for temperatures above 1000°C. e. Whole sample picture of sample T148-DW (2 GPA, 1150°C) showing the 201 presence of a melt rich area on top of the capsule. f. Detail of a melt rich area in sample T 201 presence of a melt rich area on top of the capsule. f. Detail of a melt rich area in sample T153-DW (3 GPA, 1150°C) showing the
202 typical dendritic texture of melts obtained in this study. g. Detail of a sample MA297 202 typical dendritic texture of melts obtained in this study. g. Detail of a sample MA297 (4GPa, 1100°C) showing the presence of symplectitic texture of garnets associated with ol and opx. h. Details of the symplectitic symplectitic texture of garnets associated with ol and opx. h. Details of the symplectitic texture of a garnet on sample MA297, showing the intrication of olivine and garnets. Ol = olivines. Opx= Orthopyroxenes. Cpx = Clinopyroxenes. Grt = garnet. Px = Pyroxene (undetermined). Amph= amphiboles

206 Figure1 end

208

209 3.1 Approach to equilibrium

210 No time series experiments were performed but we are confident that equilibrium was reached 211 in most of the experiment, following several lines of evidence. First of all, the time of our experiment is comparable with previous experiments in the same conditions (Condamine et al., 212 2016; Mandler and Grove, 2016; Médard and Grove, 2006; Saha et al., 2018; Saha and Dasgupta, 213 2019).

215 Secondly, from the textural analysis (see Section 3.2 and Figure 1c and 1d), only the 216 experiments at 2 GPa and 950 °C (T142-LF and T142-DW) are not entirely equilibrated, 217 showing some zonation in olivine (Figure 1c). This zonation disappears at higher pressures and 218 temperature (Figure 1d), thus indicating that the duration of the experiment was enough to obtain homogeneous samples, indicating a probable equilibrium. The problem of zoning for the 219 low temperature experiments was circumvented by using the analysis of the olivine outer rim 220 221 only in this study.

222 The third line of evidence for equilibrium attainment, is the given by the mass balance 223 calculation: all of the mass balance calculation have an SSE lower than one or close to 1 (Table 224 2) indicating the absence of elemental loss and a probable equilibrium between the phases.

225 Finally, the values of K_d Mg-Fe between different phases (Table 2) are all comparable with 226 previous studies where equilibrium was demonstrated. The K_d Mg-Fe^{ol/opx} is comprised between 227 1.0 and 1.5, in the range determined by Von Seckendorff and O'Neill (1993). Furthermore, these 228 values of K_d Mg-Fe ^{ol/opx} are comparable with the values of the previous study with longer 229 experimental durations and comparable composition of Médard and Grove (2006). These 230 values of K_d Mg-Fe ^{ol/opx} are also comparable to previous experimental work in volatile bearing 231 peridotites that reached equilibrium (Condamine et al., 2016; Saha et al., 2021). The values of 232 K_{d Mg-Fe}opx/cpx in our experiments are also comprised between 0.64 and 1.28 for all experiments, 233 within the 0.4-1.7 range determined in previous studies for which equilibrium has been 234 demonstrated (Condamine et al., 2016; Condamine and Médard, 2014; Mandler and Grove, 2016; Saha et al., 2021, 2018; Tumiati et al., 2013; Wallace and Green, 1991). For the 236 experiments with melts present, all the K_d Mg-Fe^{opx/ol} are in the range 0.30-0.40 when accounting 237 for the 1σ error, except for sample T152-DW, compatible with previous values in which chemical equilibrium has been shown (Filiberto et al., 2010a, 2010b, and references therein). 238 The high error bars are mostly due to the fact that quenched melt with dendritic textures are 239 complex to analyze, and not to the absence of equilibrium, which also explains the variation for 240 241 sample T152-DW.

The combination of all these lines of evidence (textural, chemical and comparison with previous 242 243 studies) shows that our experiments can be considered has having reached experimental 244 equilibrium.

245 3.2 Texture of the run-products

246 We obtained BSE electron image of each sample to study the phase relationships. After recovering, the capsules did not show any trace of reaction or breaking that might have lead to 247 contamination of the samples (Figure 1.a and 1.e). Both compositions tested present the same 248 minerals assemblies (Table 2) and the same textures (Figure 1), with some phases appearing 249 or disappearing sooner or later with increasing temperature and pressure. 250

251 At low temperatures (950 °C) the mineral phases are not entirely equilibrated: olivines in 252 particular show a dark region compositionally closer to the bulk than the clearer outer rim in equilibrium (Figure 1.c). For the chemical analysis, only the equilibrated parts are presented in 253 254 the rest of the paper. Despite the partial attainment of equilibrium, olivines and orthopyroxenes are crystallizing in subhedral to euhedral forms, while clinopyroxenes present anhedral 255 256 crystals. The hydrous phases are subhedral amphiboles, presenting poikilitic structure with

unequilibrated clinopyroxenes (white crystals inside the amphibole in Figures 1b and 1.d). The 257 amphiboles are associated with pyroxenes forming rims around it. Surrounding the amphibole 258 are anhedral but equilibrated cpx, themselves turning into subhedral opx. 259

260 For higher temperatures ($T \ge 1050C$), the unequilibrated zones in ol and px have disappeared. 261 When amphiboles are present, they show subhedral crystallization and are surrounded with

262 anhedral cpx and subhedral opx. As temperature and pressure increase, the amphiboles 263 disappear, being replaced by cpx, garnet and melt.

264 When garnets are present, they are subhedral and show symplectitic texture with opx (Figures 265 1g and 1h). At 3 GPa and low temperatures (950 °C and 1050 °C), both amphibole and garnet 266 are coexisting, while at higher pressure (4 GPa, Figures 1g and 1h) or higher temperature ($T \ge$ 267 – 1050 – 1100 °C depending on composition) amphiboles disappear and garnets stay stable.

268 Melt was present in the higher temperature experiments, as shown by the dendritic textures 269 shown in Figures 1e and 1f, typical of quenched melts. The quenched crystals are 270 clinopyroxenes, with a typical width of 1 to 5 μ m and lengths varying from dozens to a few 271 hundred of microns. We did not succeed in glass quenching, and analyzed the dendritic phase 272 with a large defocused beam larger than the size of the quenched crystal (5 to 20 microns depending on the amount of quenched melt available in the cross section). 273

As can be seen in Figures 1e, 1f, 1g and 1h, there is no evidence for the presence of fluids even 274 when hydrous phases are absent. The presence of hydrous phases at low pressure and low 275 276 temperature, and their disappearance at higher pressures without evidence of a fluid phase 277 being present is strong evidence that the initial bulk water content is high enough to be water 278 saturated (crystallization of hydrous phases) and low enough to be fluid under-saturated (no 279 fluid or vapour $H₂O$ present).

Figure 2: Phase assemblage observed in the run-products of our experiments, plotted as a function of T and P. The left panel with
283 blue markers presents the results for LF composition. The right panel with red markerss blue markers presents the results for LF composition. The right panel with red markerss presents the results for DW composition. The black lines in both panels mark the garnet-in boundary. The blue line (LF) and red line (DW) mark the amphibole-out boundary for each composition. On the top right of both panel are the keys for phase presence: a filled section indicate the phase is present, 286 an empty one that the phase is absent. For both compositions spinels are present in all experiments, but not necessarily analyzed due to their size.

The phase assemblage for the range of pressure and temperature is shown in Figure 3. The main 288 phases present for all the pressures and temperatures studied are the ol, opx, cpx, and sp. The 289 290 detailed mineral and melt compositions for each experiment are presented in Table 3 to 6 in 291 the main text, and Supplementary Table S.1 to S.8. The olivines are 75Fo-25Fa (Tables S.1 and S.2), reflecting the Mg # of both compositions, 292

and the high FeO content in the martian mantle compositions. 293

The orthopyroxene are 75% enstatites-25%ferrosilite (with negligible wollastonite 294 contribution, 2-3%), with a small aluminium substitution on the T site (Tables S.3 and S.4). The 295 high FeO content of martian like compositions explains the high ferrosillite contribution to the 296 opx solid solution. The Mg# of orthopyroxene is comparable to that of olivine, reflecting the 297 298 bulk Mg# of the initial compositions. Olivine and orhtopyroxene are the main bearer of Mg and 299 Fe in the phase assembly.

The third major phase present is the clinopyroxene (Tables S.5 and S.6). The cpx are Fe-Mg 300 301 rich and are in the clinoenstatite-clinferrosillite-wollastonite composition space. The wollastonite contribution is between 20 and 30%, placing the clinopyroxene in the augitic range 302 303 of composition. The Y sites of cpx are mainly occupied by Ca and Mg, but as temperature and pressure increase, Na tend to be more incorporated in the cpx. This effect is particularly visible 304 for LF composition (Table S.5). The clinopyroxenes are the main bearer of calcium and to a 305 lesser extent of sodium, while contributing very little to the aluminum budget. 306

Al-spinel is a minor phase but is present in all the samples. The spinels are usually small and 307 308 associated to the olivine and garnet. Their size is varying between less than 2 μ m and 5 209 μ m for the largest ones. In most of the case, it has been impossible to analyze them in EPMA. Except for T143-DW, the spinel phase were not necessary to constrain the bulk composition in 310 311 the mass balance calculations.

Garnet appears with increasing temperature and pressure in both compositions, but is 312 appearing for significantly lower pressure and temperature in the DW composition (Figure 3). 313 The garnet compositions (Tables S.7 and S.8) are in the almandine-pyrope-grossular solid 314 solution with the dominant end-member being the pyrope in both composition (40 to 50 %) almandine being the second contributor (30 to 40 %) with grossular being non-negligible (10 316 317 to 20%).

The garnets combined with Al-spinel are the main bearers of aluminium when melt is absent. 318 Garnets also contribute to the Ca budget through the grossular contribution, while less than cpx 319 and amphiboles when these phases are present. 320

Amphiboles are the main sodic and potassic phase when present (Tables 3 and 4), with Na 321 and Ca in the W site. This phase is calcic with high Fe and Mg content, putting their composition 322

323 toward the pargasite end-member in the amphibole compositional space. Amphibole are hydrous amphiboles, and the calculation of water content presented in Table 3 and 4 is done by 324 325 calculating the stoichiometric formula of the amphibole using the spreadsheet of Locock (2014). From this stoichiometric assignment of the element, all Si occupies the T site of the amphibole, 326 327 and all of the W site is occupied by (OH)- anions. We derived the molar ratio OH/Si, and from

this molar ratio and the mass fraction of Si given by the EPMA measurement we can calulate the 328 water content of amphibole using: 329

330
$$
X_{H_2O}(\%wt) = \frac{2M_H + M_O}{M_H M_{Si}} \frac{OH}{Si} X_{Si}
$$
 (1)

331

332 Where X_{Si} is the mass fraction of Si in wt %, M_H , M_O and M_{Si} are the molar masses of hydrogen, 333 oxygen and silicon respectively; and $\frac{\partial H}{\partial s}$ is the molar OH/Si ratio from the stoichiometric 334 assignment of the elements.

335 The W site of amphiboles being fully occupied by (OH) anions, we get 3.8-3.9 % wt of -OH, 336 equivalent to \sim 2.07 % wt of water (see Tables 3 and 4). Before melting, the presence of 337 amphiboles is sufficient to accommodate the 0.3% wt of $H₂O$ present in the initial bulk 338 composition.

	T142-LF	1σ	T143-LF	1σ	T146-LF	1σ	T150-LF	1σ	T151-LF	1σ
SiO ₂	46.48	0.71	44.95	0.71	44.26	0.69	47.19	1.13	46.53	0.57
TiO ₂	0.39	0.14	0.45	0.12	1.09	0.23	0.35	0.04	1.22	0.18
Al ₂ O ₃	9.33	0.66	10.45	0.52	11.79	0.37	9.59	0.89	10.62	0.70
FeO	11.11	0.91	11.23	0.24	10.55	0.77	10.53	0.53	9.33	0.27
MnO	0.19	0.04	0.19	0.02	0.21	0.02	0.16	0.01	0.19	0.02
MgO	17.16	0.66	17.41	0.24	16.94	0.28	17.51	0.51	17.38	0.56
CaO	7.91	0.73	7.86	0.54	7.84	0.23	7.87	0.59	8.48	0.40
Na ₂ O	3.95	0.22	3.82	0.17	3.68	0.22	4.03	0.25	3.52	0.15
K_2O	0.36	0.03	0.45	0.13	0.54	0.11	0.42	0.04	0.93	0.08
H_2O	2.05	0.03	2.09	0.03	2.08	0.03	2.08	0.05	2.09	0.03
Total	98.93		98.91		98.98		99.72		100.28	

339 Table 3: Amphiboles composition for LF bulk composition. The water content is calculated using the molar ratio OH/Si considering
340 that all Si is in the tetrahedral site, and the W-site is occupied by OH. The assignm 340 that all Si is in the tetrahedral site, and the W-site is occupied by OH. The assignment is made using the spreadsheet from Locock
341 (2014) (2014)

342 Table 4: Amphiboles composition for DW bulk composition. The water content is calculated using the molar ratio OH/Si considering
343 that all Si is in the tetrahedral site, and the W-site is occupied by OH. The assignm that all Si is in the tetrahedral site, and the W-site is occupied by OH. The assignment is made using the spreadsheet from Locock (2014)

351

 $\frac{1}{352}$ Table 5: Melt compositions for LF starting material as obtained by EPMA.

353

356 Table 6: Melt compositions for DW starting material as obtained by EPMA.

³⁵⁷4 Discussion

358 4.1 Phase Equilibria and Chemical Reaction

From the mineral composition described in section 3.2, we determined the phase proportion of 359 the assemblage using a Monte-Carlo based algorithm minimizing the squared standard error 360 (SSE) to the expected bulk. The equations used in the algorithm are presented in (Li et al., 361 2020). In Table 2 we report the phase proportions of each experiment with the associated SSE. 362 The main reactions of interest in our study are the one composing the amph-out boundary 363 shown in Figure 2. For each composition, there is two ways of destroying amphiboles: 364 increasing the pressure at a constant temperature (isothermal reaction) and increasing 365 366 temperature at a constant pressure (isobaric reaction).

367 When considering the isothermal reaction, we note that the modal shares of garnet, 368 clinopyroxene and olivine are increasing when crossing the amphibole-out boundary at 950 $^{\circ}$ C, combined with an increase in Na concentration in the clinopyroxenes and a of Ca concentration 369 370 in garnet. This indicates that formation of amphibole (main bearer of Na and Ca at lower P for 371 this temperature) at low temperature happens by destruction of clinopyroxene, garnet and olivine. The crystallization of amphiboles at low temperature (i.e. when melt is not present) can 372 be calculated using experiments MA300 and T142-LF for the LF composition: 373

 374 0.31 ol + 0.4 cpx + 0.48 grt + 0.02 H₂O \leftrightarrow 0.19opx + amph (2)

375 where the coefficients are calculated from the mass fractions in Table 2 and normalized for 1% wt of amphibole. For the DW composition the equation is almost the same, except Mg and Fe in 376 377 the amphiboles are provided by pyroxene rather than olivine. Using MA290 and T142-DW we 378 get:

 379 0.34 opx + 0.47 cpx + 0.59 grt + 0.02 H₂O \leftrightarrow 0.40 ol + amph (3)

380 with all the calculation done in %wt from the mass fraction in Table 2, normalized to 1% wt of amphibole. Reaction 2 is comparable to the reaction determined by Médard and Grove (2006) 381 for lower temperatures, and with comparable coefficients. As for reaction 3, the creation of 382 olivine instead of orthopyroxene might be explained by larger error bars on the measurements 383 (SSE are higher for DW than LF, Table 2) and by the fact that olivine and orthopyroxene are 384 acting both as Mg and Fe donor. In all cases the amount of water needed to crystallize one mass 385 unit of amphiboles is much lower than the bulk 0.3% wt in our experiments. 386

387

The other reaction in amphibole out boundary is along isobaric paths and is a melting reaction 388

(i.e. the amphibole out boundary is the same as the solidus of the composition). Experiment 389

T146-LF and T148-LF are on each side of the solidus and we get the following melting reaction 390 (normalized to 1 % wt of melt production): 391

392 2.84 amph + 0.82 opx \leftrightarrow 1.15 ol + 1.08 cpx + 0.44 grt + melt (4)

393 where everything is normalized to the creation of 1% wt of melt. For DW composition, the experiments performed at 3 GPa are more suited to calculate the melting reaction (better SSE, 394 see Table 8). Experiments T152-DW and T151-DW are on each side of the solidus, and by 395

396 difference we get:

397 4.28 amph + 8.20 opx + 4.08 cpx \leftrightarrow 12.65 ol + 2.93 grt + melt (5)

all normalized to the creation of 1%wt of melt. 398

The water present in the amphibole is then transferred to the melt which has a much higher 399

400 solubility (~3-4 % wt according to Mitchell et al. (2017), or even up to ~6-7 wt % for Lesne et

al. (2011)) at the conditions of our experiments, thus explaining the low totals in Table 5 and 401 6. 402

In the rest of the text, we will focus on isothermal reactions (Equation 2 and 3) to model the 403 404 creation of amphibole within the martian mantle.

405 4.2 Stability field and modal proportion of amphiboles

From the phase relations presented in Figures 2 and 3 and Tables 3.3 and 8, we determined the 406 P-T stability fields of the amphiboles for our compositions, shown in Figure 3. The lines are 407 drawn using a quadratic interpolation between the data points presented in Figure 2. Figure 3 408 shows that amphibole stability fields behave in the same for BSM composition and Earth's 409 410 mantle compositions. In particular our DW composition is close to the Médard and Grove (2006) composition, with lower water content. As can be seen in Figure 3, lowering the water 411 412 content expands the amphibole stability field to higher pressure and temperature, which is the 413 same effect as on Earth-like composition. Furthermore, the two compositions presented in Table 1 differ mostly by their concentration in alkalis (Na and K) elements. The LF composition 414 has more alkali element than DW, and the stability field of amphibole for LF composition is 415

417 Figure 3: Amphibole stability field in the pressure temperature space. The red line is the stability field for DW composition
418 extrapolated from Figure 2. The blue line is the stability field for LF composition extr 418 extrapolated from Figure 2. The blue line is the stability field for LF composition extrapolated from Figure 2. The green line
419 MG06 is the stability field determined by Médard and Grove (2006), for 3%wt of H2O and 419 MG06 is the stability field determined by Médard and Grove (2006), for 3%wt of H₂O and a bulk composition close to DW
420 composition. The black lines are the stability field determined for water-saturated-fluid abs composition. The black lines are the stability field determined for water-saturated-fluid absent condition in Earth-like 421 composition. G06:Grove et al. (2006) WG91: Wallace and Green (1991) MG16: Mandler and Grove (2016)

spanning larger range of temperature, especially at 2 GPa. This shows that for martian-like 422 compositions, increasing the total alkali bulk concentration tends to favor amphibole stability 423 toward higher temperatures and pressures. This effect of composition on the P-T stability field 424 is also translated in the modal composition: alkali-rich compositions tend to present higher 425 426 modal fraction of amphiboles for the than the same P-T conditions. In our case, the LF 427 compositions crystallize 22 to 23 % wt of amphibole in the P-T stability space, while DW present 428 15 to 20 % wt in the stability space.

All things considered, the results presented in this study are compatible with previous results 429 430 obtained for Earth-like composition: effect of Temperature (Green et al., 2010; Saha et al., 431 2018), fluid saturation (Mandler and Grove, 2016), bulk composition (Saha et al., 2021, and 432 references therein). This proximity we previous study means that we can then use previous 433 work alongside ours to determine a statistical relationship in order to determine the modal 434 fraction of amphibole as a function of composition, pressure, temperature and $\frac{Na_2O+K_2O}{H_2O}$ ratio.

435 By using the database in the supplementary data of Saha et al. (2021), we can parameterize the

modal concentration of amphibole following: 436

437
$$
\%wt_{amp} = \sum_{i \neq Na,K} a_i \chi_i(\% wt) + bT + cP + d \frac{\chi_{Na_2O} + \chi_{K_2O}}{\chi_{H_2O}}(6)
$$

438

439 with %wt_{amph} being the modal fraction of amphibole in % wt, b the effect of T in %wt. [∗] C⁻¹, c the effect of P in %wt.GPa−1, ai the effect of element i for each element present in the composition 440 441 except Na, K and H₂O and d the effect of the alkali over water ratio in *%wt*. The details of the parameterization are presented in Supplementary section S1 and the value of the parameter is 442 given in Table 7. This parameterization is purely numerical and used to fit the data only when 443 amphibole is present: there is no parameterization on the extent on the P-T stability space. We 444 445 use a reduced dataset from Saha et al. (2021) augmented by our data for experiments where amphibole is present. Equation 6 predicts the modal share (in % wt) of amphibole when 446 amphiboles are present, as shown in Figure 4. As shown in Figure 4, the prediction is good 447 448 except for a few points where the amphibole modal fraction is higher than 30 % wt.

450 Figure 4: Figure presenting the calculated modal share of amphiboles as predicted by equation 5 compared to the actual
451 observed modal shared. The solid black line is the 1:1 line and the dashed black lines are the 451 observed modal shared. The solid black line is the 1:1 line and the dashed black lines are the 2σ variation. After 30% wt of observed amphibole modal share, the model is significantly less precise. Data are from: Condamine and Médard (2014); 453 Fumagalli et al. (2009); Green et al. (2014); Grove et al. (2006); Mallik et al. (2015); Mandler and Grove (2016); Niida and Green

454 (1999); Pirard and Hermann (2015); Saha et al. (2018); Till et al. (2012); Tumiati et al. (2013); Wallace and Green (1991).

455

456 Table 7: Table of the parameter value for Equation 6. The parameters value were obtained by fitting the observed %wt from the
457 dataset from Saha et al. (2021) The results of the fitting are presented in Figure 4. dataset from Saha et al. (2021) The results of the fitting are presented in Figure 4.

458 4.3 Thermal model of martian mantle and modal composition of martian 459 mantle

In order to estimate the water storage capacity, one has to evaluate the modal proportion of 460 461 each phase in the martian mantle (Dong et al., 2022). In our case, we differ from previous studies by combining the NAM's modal distribution (such as Dong et al. (2022), Bertka and Fei 462 (1997) or Sanloup et al., (1999)) with hydrous minerals (in our case amphiboles), without 463 saturation (contrary to Médard and Grove, 2006; Pommier et al., 2012) and therefore without 464 lettered phase at high pressure. All modal proportion model in dry set-up are comparable 465 (Smrekar et al., 2019), therefore the main problem is to calculate, in a fluid absent-water 466 saturated martian mantle, how much amphiboles can crystallize. This amount is dependent on 467 pressure, temperature and composition, as shown in Section 4.2, so we define the aerotherms 468 for which we calculate the modal distribution of minerals to capture the effect of P and T in the 469 470 martian mantle as well as the effect of composition

To test the difference between high temperature and low temperature, we chose the 471 aerotherms from Samuel et al. (2021) (Figure 5). This study presents a 'cold' thermal profile 472 close to one of the adiabatic profiles that was used in Dong et al. (2022) study, and a 'hot' 473 thermal profile taking into account a high density 500 km thick layer at the martian core mantle 474 boundary. 475

477 Figure 5: Thermal models of Samuel et al. (2021)used in this study. The red solid line is the 'hot' mantle, determined by the
478 existence of a thermal exchange layer at the Martian Core-Mantle-Boundary. The blue dash existence of a thermal exchange layer at the Martian Core-Mantle-Boundary. The blue dashed line is the 'cold' mantle, closer to 479 an adiabatic gradients of Dong et al. (2022). The pressure associated with z is calculated using the hydrostatic equation and the 480 mean density and the standied in the Samuel et al. (2021) study mean density and thicknesses provided in the Samuel et al. (2021) study

This layer concentrates the heat producing elements which leads to a hotter present-day 481 mantle. Each thermal profile represents two end-member scenarios, one cold and one hot with 482 a sharp increase of temperature at 1200 km depth, which leads to higher temperatures at 483 484 shallower depths. We then have a relationship $z = f(P,T)$ (Figure 5) for which we can determine for each compositions (LF and DW) where amphiboles are present and how much amphiboles 485 486 are present using Equation 6.

487 The phases assembly presented in Tables 2 does not cover the full range of martian mantle pressures, so it must be completed for pressures higher than 4 GPa and lower than 2 GPa. The 488 model of Dong et al. (2022), based on the thermodynamical modeling is complete but 489 490 complicated to adapt for temperature profiles different from adiabatic profiles. Most of the 491 mineralogical model are not that different from each other, and emphasize the larger role of 492 olivine polymorph and orthopyroxenes compared to Earth (Smrekar et al., 2019). The 493 differences lie in the amount of stishovite and Ca-perovskite (5% max for (Sanloup et al. (1999), 494 0% for (Bertka and Fei (1997)).). Since even in the best case those phases are minor water

bearers (few hundreds of ppm at best, Dong et al. (2021)and references therein) and they do 495 not take up a significant modal share susceptible to affect the results. We use the simple model 496 of Bertka and Fei (1997) that neglect these minor phases, therefore we do not introduce a large 497 498 error in the estimation of the water storage capacity of the martian mantle.

When the thermal profile crosses the amphibole stability field, we use Equation 6 to calculate 499 500 the modal share of amphiboles for a given water content. The modal shares of the other 501 minerals are calculated from the amphibole modal share determined by Equation 6, using the 502 Bertka and Fei (1997) at higher pressure as a starting point and applying Equation 2 for LF 503 composition, and Equation 3 for DW composition. We obtain for Each composition and each thermal model the modal distribution in Mars's mantle for a given bulk content of water, with 504 505 an example shown in Figure 6 for 0.3% wt of water.

506 4.4 Water storage capacity per phase

From our results, we can determine the concentration of water in amphiboles using Equation 507 508 **6.** In both compositions, amphiboles hold between 2.05 and 2.09% wt of H₂O (Tables 3 and 4), 509 and their mean values is similar for both compositions $(2.08\pm0.17$ and 2.06 ± 0.12 %wt, for LF 510 and DW respectively), therefore we use $c^{amp}h_{H2O} = 2.07\%wt$ in the formulas hereafter.

28

513 Figure 6: Modal distributions of the different species as a function of depth in the martian mantle for LF composition (top row)
514 and DW composition (bottom row). The left column shows the 'cold' thermal profile of 514 and DW composition (bottom row). The left column shows the 'cold' thermal profile of Samuel et al, (2021). The right column
515 shows the 'hot' thermal profile (thermal boundary layer at the CMB) from Samuel et al. (20 shows the 'hot' thermal profile (thermal boundary layer at the CMB) from Samuel et al. (2021). All profiles are calculated for a bulk water content of 0.3% wt.

517 The capacity of NAM's are calculated using the formula of Keppler (2006) modified by Dong et al. (2021). The main bearer of water in NAMs are olivines, and at higher pressures wadsleyite, 518

519 then ringwoodite. The concentration of water in the olivine polymorphs is given by:

520
$$
c_{H_2O}ol = \frac{n}{2} ln f_{H_2O} + \frac{b_{ol}}{T}
$$

$$
521 \tag{7}
$$

522 And

523
$$
c_{H_20}
$$
wds, rwd = $a_i + \frac{b_i}{T}$ (8)

524 where the subscript *i* indicates the name of one of the olivine polymorphs (ol, wds or rwd). The 525 parameters used in these equations are the ones given by Dong et al. (2021) and Dong et al. 526 (2022). In Equation 7, we have $n = 0.6447GPa^{-1}$, and $b_{ol} = 4905.5403K^{-1}$. The water fugacity f_{H2O} 527 is calculated using the formula and code used in Hirschmann et al. (2005). As explained in Dong 528 et al. (2021), the concentration of water in wadsleyite and ringwoodite is independent of the 529 water fugacity. Therefore, the water fugacity term of equation 7 is replaced by a constant a_i in Equation 8. In this case, the parameter's values are different for wadsleyite and ringwoodite. 530 531 We have a_{wds} = 7.6356 and b_{wds} = 13739.5371K⁻¹ for wadsleyite, and a_{rwd} = -6.8856 and b_{rwd} = 12206.2676K−1. 532

533 The water concentration of the rest of the NAMS is set by the partitioning coefficients of water 534 between olivine polymorphs and the other phases (see Dong et al., 2021; Hirschmann et al., 535 2005; Keppler, 2006 for more details on the thermodynamics of water storage in NAMs). The 536 partitioning coefficient is given by:

537
$$
D_{H_2O}i/j = \frac{A_i}{A_j} f_{H_2O}^{n_i - n_j} \exp\left(-\frac{(\Delta H_i - \Delta H_j) + (\Delta V_i - \Delta V_j)P}{RT}\right)
$$

(9) 538

539 where *i* stands for one of the olivine polymorphs and *j* for one of the other NAMs present. R is 540 the ideal gas constant, P is expressed in Pa and T in Kelvins. In our case, the NAMs are opx, cpx 541 and grt. The value of the parameters A, n ΔH and ΔV are taken from (Keppler, 2006) and

Table 8: Values of the parameter used in Equation 9. The determination of the value was made in (Keppler, 2006). The olivine
543 polymorphs share the same values polymorphs share the same values

presented in Table 8. The water concentration in NAMs is then calculated by $c_{H_2O}^j = \frac{D^{1/j}}{c_{H_2O}^i}$ 544 presented in Table 8. The water concentration in NAMs is then calculated by $c'_{H_2O} = \frac{1}{c_{H2O}^2}$. The total

545 water storage capacity at any given depth is therefore given by:

546
$$
c_{H_2O}^{total}(z) = \Sigma_i \chi_i(z) c_{H_2O} i(z)
$$
 (10)

547 where $\chi_i(z)$ is the modal proportion of mineral i at depth z and c^i H2O(z) is the concentration of 548 water in mineral i at depth z. $\chi_i(z)$ is calculated following the procedure described in section 4.3. 549 An example of the type of profile Equation 10 yields is presented in Figure 7 for a bulk initial 550 concentration of 0.3% wt H₂O. Figure 7 shows the shape for all case studied here: close to the 551 surface, NAMs, especially cpx, are able to store more water than at lower depths reaching a storage capacity close to 1% wt. At higher depth (∼ 1000km and above), wadsleyite replaces 552 553 olivine and its storage capacity is higher, leading to higher values of $c_{H_2O}^{total}(z)$. When wadsleyite 554 is transformed into ringwoodite ($z > 1250km$) the storage capacity of water gets lower, thus 555 leading to a decrease in the value of $c_{H_2O}^{total}(z)$ compared to the wadsleyite layer. This profile is 556 close to the one proposed by previous studies on NAMs (Dong et al., 2022; Hirschmann et al., 2005), but differs by the presence of an amphibole riche layer. This amphibole rich layer is 557 558 deeper than the crust, and its extent varies with composition and thermal profile: LF 559 composition yields a 97.5 km to 139 km thick layer for hot and cold mantle respectively, while 560 DW composition yield a 78 km to 115 km thick layer for hot and core mantle respectively. This 561 amphibole rich layer increases locally the water storage capacity. The extent of this increase is dependent on the modal fraction of amphibole, which is also controlled by the temperature and 562 563 composition (Equation 6), which explain why in the cases presented in Figure 7 the peak in 564 water storage for the amphibole rich layer is 0.55 % wt for LF composition while it is 0.35% wt for DW compositions. The thickness and height of this peak are the main controls in the in the 566 variations of the bulk storage capacity. The thickness and position of the peak depend on the 567 thermal model which controls the stability field of amphibole (Figure 4) and the amount of 568 amphibole present (Equation 6). The height is dependent on the thermal model and bulk 569 composition: DW composition tend to have a smaller stability field (Figure 4) and a maximum 570 amount of amphiboles lower than LF composition (Table 2), as well as a smaller alkali over 571 water ratio (Equation 6).

574 Figure 7: : Water storage capacity of Mars mantle for LF composition (left), DW composition (center) and without amphibole
575 (right). On the three panels, the solid red line is the hot model from Figure 5 and the da 575 (right). On the three panels, the solid red line is the hot model from Figure 5 and the dashed blue line is the cold model from Figure 576 5. Each model is calculated for a bulk water concentration of 0.3% wt. The modal fraction of mineral is presented in Figure 6 for 577 LF and DW composition, the modal fraction of mineral without amphibole is the model of (Bertka and Fei, 1997). The water
578 concentration is aiven by Equation 10. $concentration$ is given by Equation 10.

580 Figure 8: Evolution of water storage capacity expressed in Global Equivalent Layer (GEL) thickness in km for LF composition
581 (left) and DW composition (right) as a function of martian mantle bulk water content (in % (left) and DW composition (right) as a function of martian mantle bulk water content (in %wt). The red solid lines are the 582 storage capacity for a hot mantle, the blue dashed line for a cold mantle. The Bertka and Fei (1997) model with no amphibole is
583 shown in black and shows a water storage capacity of 1.5 km for a hot mantle (solid bl 583 shown in black and shows a water storage capacity of 1.5 km for a hot mantle (solid black lines) and 4 km for a cold mantle
584 (dashed black lines). 1 km GEL corresponds to a total water mass of 107 Earth's oceans mas (dashed black lines). 1 km GEL corresponds to a total water mass of 107 Earth's oceans mass. variation of the total water storage capacity

586 4.5 Water storage capacity of Mars

587 With Equation 10, we can then calculate for each of our composition the water storage capacity 588 profile within Mars. In Figure 7 is presented an example of the evolution of $c_{H_2O}^{total}(z)$ for each 589 composition and thermal profile for a bulk water content in the Martian mantle of 0.3% wt. Integration of these profiles over the depth of the martian mantle can yield the bulk capacity of 590 591 water storage in the BSM in the form of a water concentration. If we consider that the P-T 592 stability field of amphibole in Section 4.2 determined for a bulk water content of 0.3% wt by our experiments can be representative of the P-T stability field for all the water concentration 593

below fluid saturation, we can extrapolate and calculate the total water storage capacity for 594 595 BSM bulk water content varying between 0.1% wt and 1% wt. In Figure 8 we present the bulk storage capacity for both BSM composition as a function of the bulk content of water. The same 596 597 calculation for a non-amphibole profile yields a storage capacity equivalent to a GEL of 1.5 and 598 4 km for hot and cold mantle respectively. Compared to Bertka and Fei (1997) mineralogy, our 599 amphibole bearing models (LF and DW composition) yield the water storage capacities 600 between 1.5 km and 4 km GEL depending on the composition, water content and thermal model.

Figure 8 shows the total storage capacity increases with increasing bulk content of water. This 601 is essentially by stabilizing amphiboles toward a higher modal fraction. However, this increase 602 603 reaches quickly a maximum storage capacity for bulk water content of 0.5% wt in both compositions. This may be due to the fact that we did not explore the full effect of water content 604 on the P-T stability field: increasing the bulk concentration toward a fluid present situation 605 606 would change the P-T stability of amphibole toward lower P and T, as shown by the results of 607 Médard and Grove (2006). Further studies and better parameterization of the effect of water content on the amphibole-out boundary are necessary to get a full view of the bulk capacity. For 608 609 a given composition and thermal model, this increase is limited: increasing the bulk content of 610 water from 0.1 % wt to 1%wt only increase the GEL thickness from 4.6to 5.45 km for LF 611 composition and cold model, i.e. a \sim 1 km GEL increase (around 100 Earth's Ocean mass of 612 water). In the case of the cold DW composition scenario, the same variation in the bulk content 613 of water yields an increase of 200 m GEL in the total water storage capacity (from 4.6 to 4.8 km 614 GEL). The variation of storage capacity with increasing bulk water content is even less important in the hot mantle scenarios described in Figure 8: increasing water content leads to 615 616 an increase of 200 m GEL in the water storage capacity for DW composition (from and 1.78 to 617 1.98 km GEL) and an increase of 500 m GEL for LF composition (from 1.9 to 2.4 km GEL).

The water storage capacity is affected by the total alkali content in a comparable way as it is by 618 the bulk water content. The alkali-rich composition LF yield, for a given thermal profile, a higher 619

water storage capacity than the alkali poor composition DW: for hot mantle the storage capacity 620 621 is varying between 1.9 and 2.4 km GEL for LF while it is varying between 1.8 and 2 km GEL for 622 DW; and for cold mantle the LF composition varies between 4.6 and 5.45 km GEL for LF and between 4.55and 4.9 km GEL for DW. This means that the choice of alkali-rich composition over 623 624 an alkali poor composition lead to an increase of 200 to 700 m GEL in total water storage capacity for hot and cold mantle respectively. This effect is predictable from a higher modal 625 626 share of amphiboles (Equation 6) combined with a larger P-T range of stability. The main 627 control of the water storage capacity is the thermal model: hotter mantle tends to stabilize less 628 amphiboles, and therefore store less water at depth. Furthermore, the NAMs, especially olivine and wadsleyite, are sensitive to temperature and their water storage capacity is decreased by 629 increasing temperature (Equations 7 and 8). The hot mantle in our case yields a 1.8 to 2.4 km 630 GEL for alkali rich composition LF, and between a 1.8 and 2 km GEL for alkali poor composition 631 DW, which correspond to ∼180-240 and ∼190-200 Earth's ocean mass for LF and DW 632 respectively. The cold mantle profile yields a total water storage capacity of 4.5 to to5.5 km GEL 633 for LF and 4.5 to 4.9 km GEL for DW, which correspond to ∼470-550 and ∼450-490 Earth's 634 635 ocean mass for LF and DW respectively.

636 The hot mantle results are significantly less than the lowest estimates of Dong et al. (2022) models (∼4.9 km GEL for comparable aerotherms), while the cold mantle results are 637 comparable to their high temperature models. This is due to Dong et al. (2022) model taking 638 into account the temperature for wadsleyite formation, and having a more extended wadsleyite 639 640 stability field at higher pressure than in the Bertka and Fei (1997) modal distribution chosen 641 here: the amphibole-free modal distribution yield a GEL of 1.5 km for the hot model, and 4 km 642 for the cold model. Since wadsleyite is the main bearer of water in NAMs at high pressure (responsible for the peaks around 1100 km in Figure 7), the overall water storage capacities of 643 644 the martian mantle in our models are lower than Dong et al. (2022) estimates. In any case, the 645 total water storage capacity in our models are much over the estimates of 1000-1500 m GEL of 646 liquid water present at the surface of Mars (e.g. Filiberto et al., 2016), thus confirming the fact that most of the martian water can be either degassed or stored into mantle and crust mineral 647

(Dong et al., 2022; Scheller et al., 2021; Wernicke and Jakosky, 2021). 648

649 4.6 Implications for martian mantle present state and history

Stable amphiboles within the martian mantle can increase the storage capacity of the martian 650 mantle, especially in the upper mantle area between 70 and 250 km (Figure 7). In this section, 651 we will discuss if it is possible that this amphibole-rich layer is actually present in the martian 652 upper mantle. We will then discuss what are the implications on the water initial budget of 653 654 Mars, and how the stability field of amphiboles affects the volcanism on Mars.

655 4.6.1 Existence of an amphibole-rich layer on Mars current mantle

The existence of an amphibole-rich layer can be observed in the martian mantle because 656 657 amphibole tend to decrease of S-wave velocities (Saha et al., 2021). The study of Saha et al. 658 (2021) showed that adding 10% to 20 % of amphibole in peridotite mantle would lower the S-659 wave velocity vs by 1 to 1.5 %, from 4.5 km.s⁻¹ to \sim 4.3-4.4 km.s⁻¹. From our results, the presence 660 of amphiboles in comparable amounts whould be betweeen 70 and 250 km depth, and therefore 661 the S-waves velocity on Mars should be decreased by the presence of an amphibole-rich layer. From the InSight data, Khan et al. (2021) reconstructed the seismic waves velocity profile of 662 663 Mars' upper mantle. Their profile shows that vs are comprised between 4.2 and 4.5 km.s⁻¹ at 100 664 km depth and between 4.4 and 4.6 km.s⁻¹ at 250 km depth. This range is compatible with the 665 presence to some extent of amphiboles without phlogopites, provided that the seismic 666 attenuation due to amphibole in Earth peridotite (Saha et al., 2021) is the same on Mars. On the other hand, the absence of a sharp discontinuity in Khan et al. profiles for these depths are an 667 indicator that, if present, the amphibole-rich layer is not part of a martian transition zone. In 668 any case, it is impossible to confirm or infirm the presence of such a layer in the martian mantle 669 for the depths between 100 and 250 km with the current martian seismic data. Between 70 and 670 100 km the seismic data are even more complex to untangle, with velocities ranging from 4.1 to 672 4.6 km.s⁻¹, and the beginning of the transition zone from mantle to crust inducing a decrease of 673 vs. In this area, the presence of amphiboles could account for part of the vs decrease observed by Khan et al., although it might be hard to distinguish from the crust/mantle transition around 674 675 72 km depth (Knapmeyer-Endrun et al., 2021).

If the presence of an amphibole rich-layer is confirmed, then it will have to be taken into 676 account when calculating the thermal history through relaxation (Samuel et al., 2019) given the 677 documented effect of amphibole in the mantle rheology on the Earth (Green et al., 2010; Kovács 678 679 et al., 2017). Confirmation of the presence of an amphibole-rich layer could provide more constraints on the drying scenarios of Mars (Scheller et al., 2021), as well as re-evaluating the 680 681 water reservoirs distribution of the martian mantle (Barnes et al., 2020; McCubbin et al., 2016).

682 4.6.2 Possibility of ancient amphibole rich layer

683 There is evidence for Mars to accrete some water (Brasser, 2013; Breuer et al., 2016; Dreibus 684 and Wänke, 1987; Khan et al., 2022), and for water to be present during the early stage of 685 Mars(Kurokawa et al., 2014). The crystallization of amphibole and long-term storage of water is possible if the water is retained in the mantle, and if the mantle is cooling fast enough. The 686 687 initial bulk content of water in the BSM is somewhere between 0 and \sim 3 − 4 % wt, depending 688 on the estimation methods. The models favoring simple mixing between on dry reduced component from the inner solar system and one water-rich and oxidized component from the 689 690 outer solar system tend to estimate high water contents, above 3% wt(Clesi et al., 2016; 691 Dreibus and Wänke, 1987). On the other hand, models favoring accretion from inner solar 692 system planetesimals tend to estimate low water contents on Mars, below 0.5 % wt (Brasser, 693 2013; Lunine et al., 2003). The overall range is enough for amphiboles to be present, as long as 694 the bulk content is above 0.1% wt, which seems to be the case. In the early days of martian history it is probable that the planet underwent a magma ocean stage (Elkins-Tanton, 2008; 695 696 Schaefer and Elkins-Tanton, 2018). For amphiboles to be able to crystallize, the initial content

of water has to be retained in the upper mantle through the magma ocean crystallization. If this 697 698 crystallization is made at equilibrium and some interstitial melt is present, then 70 to 90 $\%$ of 699 H can be retained in the mantle (Maurice et al., 2023). This phenomenon would provide enough 700 water for amphibole crystallization in the martian upper mantle: with 0.1 (Brasser, 2013) to 701 3% wt (Dreibus and Wänke, 1987) of water during the magma ocean phase and 70% to 90% of 702 H retained in the mantle, we get a bulk mantle containing 0.07 to 0.09 % wt H₂O for the lowest estimates of Brasser (2013) or Lunine et al. (2003); and between 2.1 and 2.7 % wt for the high 703 704 estimation of Dreibus and Wänke (1987). The latter is an upper bound and is enough for 705 saturating the mantle, and even to have vapor H_2O present, in which case the results of Médard and Grove (2006) and Pommier et al. (2012) might be more relevant. Including the changes 706 induced by the extension of amphibole stability field in model such as the one of Elkins-Tanton 707 (2008) is then necessary to understand if an amphibole-richlayer can crystallize: as the magma 708 ocean crystallizes from bottom to top, it tends to concentrate volatiles towards the surface, and 709 710 increase their concentration (from 0.05 to 1% wt H₂O at 98 % crystallization in one of Elkins-Tanton (2008) models). Therefore, even if the actual range of initial bulk water content is close 711 2 to that of Brasser (2013) or Lunine et al. (2003), the probability of Mars ever having crystallized 71 an amphibole-rich layer can be high by concentrating the water toward the upper mantle, but 713 have yet to be confirmed by proper thermodynamical modeling. As discussed in the previous 714 subsection, if the seismic record on Mars can get more precise and shows a probable existence 715 of an amphibole rich layer, then this would be an indicator that the initial water budget in early 716 717 Mars' mantle is higher than the most conservative estimations (Brasser, 2013) or that the crystallization of the magma ocean lead to localize favorable conditions for amphibole 718 719 crystallization in the upper mantle (Elkins-Tanton, 2008). Furthermore, having the right concentrations (0.1 - 1%wt) of water would extend the solidus of the martian mantle to higher 720 721 temperatures at depths around 100 km, up to 250 km. It would then tend to favor a more rapid 722 magma ocean crystallization, since the ΔT would be lower. Though this effect might be little, given the rapid timescale for magma ocean crystallization on Mars (few millions years Elkins-723

Tanton, 2008). Considering a higher initial water budget (around 1%wt), and a magma ocean 724 crystallization process that can retain at least 50% of H, then the bulk concentration of water in 725 726 the martian is high enough (0.5 %wt) for amphiboles to be stable in the upper mantle. These 727 high water concentrations in a hot environment would tend to be in the melts and contribute to early Noachian volcanism (Brož et al., 2021). On the other hand, if the cooling rate is fast 728 enough and the melts are trapped in this area of the mantle, then the formation of amphiboles 729 730 will tend to remove water from the exchangeable reservoir, since the recycling of crust is very 731 limited (Morschhauser et al., 2011). It would be possible then to remove water from the 732 exchangeable reservoir as defined by Scheller et al. (2021) by early crystallization of 733 amphiboles in the upper martian mantle.

734 4.6.3 Implications for volcanism and water loss of Mars

The water not retained in the mantle would go in forming the early atmosphere, where it can 735 be lost. Some of the atmospheric water is lost by atmospheric loss (Kurokawa et al., 2014) and 736 some by storage in surface hydrous minerals (Chassefière et al., 2013; Wernicke and Jakosky, 737 2021) The only source left of surface water is volcanism (e.g., Kiefer and Li, 2016; Xiao et al., 738 739 2012). The association of all the sources and sink of surface water preside the timing of Mars 740 drying (Scheller et al., 2021). A full thermal history derived from early Mars (e.g. Xiao et al., 2012) to the current mantle (Plesa et al., 2018; Samuel et al., 2021) would be necessary to 741 explain the ifs, when and where amphiboles might have crystallized. Furthermore, there is 742 743 evidence of heterogeneous water storage on martian mantle (Barnes et al., 2020), and that the volcanism on Mars is dominated by mantle plume (Andrews-Hanna and Broquet, 2023). 744 Localized higher concentration of water, either by initial heterogeneities in the mantle (Barnes 745 et al., 2020)or some crustal recycling (Morschhauser et al., 2011)would therefore favor a local 746 747 crystallization of amphiboles. In such a context, the mantle would be melting at higher 748 temperature, only when a heat plume would go through it (Andrews-Hanna and Broquet, 2023), producing water rich melts. The presence of volatile elements dissolved in the melt will tend to 749

favor explosive volcanism (Cashman and Scheu, 2015; Gonnermann, 2015), while mafic melts 750 751 with no volatile tend to favor effusive eruptions (Newcombe et al., 2020). In the absence of an amphibole-rich layer, then the volcanism would be less water-rich and more effusive. On Mars, 752 753 explosive volcanism is rare compared to effusive events (Brož et al., 2021) and limited to 754 Noachian times, while effusive volcanism with magmas undersaturated in water is the 755 dominant volcanic regime during the Amazonian period (Kiefer and Li, 2016). The melting of 756 an amphibole-rich assemblage can act as a source of volatile in the martian melts (e.g. Médard and Grove, 2006; Saha et al., 2018) and therefore the local variation in amphibole stability 757 758 though time might explain, at least partly, the different volcanism types observed in Mars.

⁷⁵⁹5 Conclusion

In summary, our study shows that relatively low water content in the Bulk Martian mantle 760 stabilize amphiboles towards higher temperature and pressure. The composition of the martian 761 mantle also plays a role, with compositional dependency comparable to those previously 762 determined for the Earth, despite higher iron content and lower Mg # in the bulk silicate mars. 763 764 This stabilization of amphiboles happens in the upper mantle region and extends between 70 and 250 km depth, depending on the thermal profile chosen and the total alkali content. The 765 presence of this layer leads to an increase of water storage capacity corresponding to a 400 m 766 to 1.5 km increases in the Global Equivalent Layer, i.e. ∼40 to ∼ 1000 Earth Ocean mass added 767 in water storage capacity, depending on the composition and thermal profile chosen. Seismic 768 data are not yet sufficient to conclude as to the existence of such a layer in the current martian 769 mantle. More seismic data from marsquakes could show the existence of a low S-wave velocity 770 zone in the depths predicted by our model. In which case, this would be an indication that early 771 mars accretion happened in a sufficiently wet environment to favor crystallization of hydrous 772 minerals in the mantle. The presence of an amphibole-rich layer could then be an additional 773

constraint on the thermal history of Mars and may lead to a changing of our understanding of 774

- 775 the crystallization of the magma ocean, or our understanding of the cooling rate of the martian
- 776 mantle and its relation to the long term drying of Mars. On a more local scale the presence of
- deep hydrous mineral might account for part of the variability observed for the martian 777
- 778 volcanism, by favoring deep hydrous melting and therefore explosive basaltic volcanism.

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Supplementary Materials to "Water Storage in Hydrous Minerals in the Shallow Martian Mantle"

Vincent Clesi, Rajdeep Dasgupta

S.1 Determining the amphibole modal share

In the main text we use a parameterized relationship that yield the modal share of amphibole that can crystallize as a function of composition. This relationship is purely statistical, though grounded in previous effect known to affect the amphibole crystallization. If we follow Saha et al. (2021) the main controller are temperature, calcium content and the ratio of total alkali. If we add pressure to the mix, then we get the following equation:

$$
\%wtAmph = aT + b\chi_{CaO}^{Bulk} + c\frac{\chi_{Na_2O}^{bulk} + \chi_{K_2O}^{bulk}}{\chi_{H_2O}^{bulk}} + dP
$$

The parameters a, b, c and d are minimized by a mutliple linear least square minimization of the package numpy (linalg.lstsq). The fitting is performed on a reduced dataset, using only experiments where the modal share is different than 0, otherwise a large error is introduced in the parameterization. After fitting and recalculation, we obtain the results presented in Figure S.2, plotted against the different variables of Equation S.1. As seen in the figure, the predictive power of Equation S.1 is pretty low, hence the decision to take into account the entire composition of the bulk experiments in the equation presented in the main text. The equation presented in the main text has a better predictive content (See Figure 4 in the main text) despite its limitation for the higher values of amphiboles modal share. We use in the main text the maximum amphibole content.

Figure S.1: Left: Schematics of the 18/12 apparatus in multi-anvil experiments at 4 GPa. Right: Calibration curve of the 18/12 mutli-anvil apparatus on the 100 ton Walker type press at Rice experimental petrology lab.

Figure S.2: Plot of the modal share of amphibole (%wt) as a function of CaO content (top left , $\frac{\chi_{Na_2O}^{bulk} + \chi_{K_2O}^{bulk}}{_{bbu}^{bulk}}$ $\frac{2^{O^{T}AK_{2}O}}{kH_{2}O}$ (top right), temperature (bottom left) and pressure (bottom right). The blue crosses are the value obtained using Equation S.1, and the orange circles are the actual values from the dataset of Saha et al. (2021).

Figure S.3: Figure showing the modal share of amphibole for LF (left) and DW (right) compositions as a function of P and T as obtained by Equation 6(Figure 4, main text). The modal proportion are then used to calculate the modal share of amphiboles in the martian mantle presented in Figure 6 (main text) for the thermal profiles presented in Figure 5 (main text)..

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Table Legend S.1. Olivine compositions for starting material LF obtained by EPMA analysis S.2. Olivine compositions for starting material DW obtained by EPMA analysis S.3. Orthopyroxene compositions for starting material LF obtained by EPMA analysis S.4. Orthopyroxene compositions for starting material DW obtained by EPMA analysis S.5. Clinopyroxene compositions for starting material LF obtained by EPMA analysis

- S.6. Clinopyroxene compositions for starting material DW obtained by EPMA analysis
- S.7. Garnet compositions for starting material LF obtained by EPMA analysis
- S.8. Garnet compositions for starting material DW obtained by EPMA analysis

