



for sandy-clay minerals poor soils is also true in clay rich-substratum soils.

Phyllosilicates and hematite-rich deposits from the Atacama Desert (Chile), the Death Valley CA, and the California Coast (USA), encompassing a broad arid-hyper-arid climate range (annual rainfall <0.2 to ~700mm/y), were analyzed for Gram-negatives biomass (LAL assays).

**X Ray Diffraction:** Mineralogy of crushed samples (<53- $\mu$ m sieve) was assessed with a Rigaku Ultima III diffractometer in standard  $\theta$ :2 $\theta$  coupled geometry with Cu radiation, variable slits and a diffracted beam monochromator.

**Total living biomass:** We measured the *in situ* Adenosine 5'-triphosphate (ATP)-based total biomass in soil samples with a Luminometry portable system (Lightning-MVP, BioControl Systems, Inc., WA). ATP assay-based biomass data (as Relative Luminosity Units, or RLUs) are then calibrated vs. Phospholipid Fatty Acid (PLFA)-based total biomass.

**Total Gram-negatives biomass:** The endotoxin-producing Gram-negative biomass in the mineral samples was determined with a portable system (Charles River Laboratories PTS System Package 550®) based on the Limulus Amebocyte Lysate assay, or LAL [33]. This is an extremely sensitive non culture-based method to measure, in a relatively rapid and accurate manner, the amount of lipopolysaccharides, or LPS (a.k.a. the microbial's endotoxin) in the environment. LPS are present in the external cellular membrane of a wide range of Gram-negative-like microorganisms, including cyanobacteria [34], unicellular algae [35], and even in select vascular plants, i.e., eukaryote chloroplasts, and green algae [36].

1-g of well-homogenized mineral and soils samples underwent triple water extraction. In 15mL sterile falcon tubes a 2mL-aliquot of high quality ultrapure water (Milli-Q® Advantage A10) was added each time to samples, which were vortexed (20s), sonicated (5 minutes), and centrifuged at high speed for 5-10 minutes per [37] NASA Procedural Requirements, NPR 5340, 2007). Basically, bacterial's endotoxin in samples catalyzes the activation of a proenzyme in the LAL assay triggering a colorimetric variation (change in color) that is measured by the spectrophotometer (405-410 nm). This yields a value expressed in Endotoxin Units (EU/mL) that can be directly converted into total Gram-negative microbial biomass i.e., cell/g (1EU/mL is equivalent to about  $10^5$  cells/mL, E. coli-like cells).

**Results and Conclusions:** *1. Comparison over rainfall gradient:* When comparing phyllosilicate-rich samples against the aridity/moisture gradient, there is an overall, significant difference between biomass con-

tent of clay samples from the hyper-arid Atacama (MAP <2mm/y) and the arid Death Valley settings, but no significant difference between the latter site and those from the ten-time moister (>700 mm/y) California coastal site. This last result is counterintuitive and seems to imply that increasing moisture in these clays analogue environment does not necessarily translate to higher biomass content.

To explain similar biomass contents in clays from arid and highly moist conditions, factors such as clay type assemblages and abundances, grain size, and variable water contents could be responsible for the encountered differences.

*2. When comparing biomass in clays vs. non-clays,* we can distinguish three contrasting cases: 1) there is no systematic pattern in biomass content of clays vs. non-clays (oxidized) materials; 2) Atacama desiccation polygons (~ $6.0 \times 10^4$  cells/g) and contiguous hematite-rich deposits contain the lowest biomass (~ $1.2 \times 10^5$  cells/g), which is even lower than that of coarse-grained soil nearby ( $3.3$ - $5.0 \times 10^5$  cells/g); 3) The Atacama clays (muscovite and kaolinite) are three-order magnitude lower than surface clays (montmorillonite, illite, and chlorite) from the Death Valley (~ $6.4 \times 10^7$  cells/g); and 3) Finally, and unexpectedly, the Gram-negative (~ $10^7$  cells/g) of clay minerals-rich materials from the arid Death Valley region is about the same than that (~1.5 to ~ $3.0 \times 10^7$  cells/g) of water-saturated massive clays (kaolinite, illite, and vermiculite) from the wetter and coastal fog dominated California coast.

From these preliminary results it is unclear whether or not clay minerals-rich environments have a higher habitability potential with respect that of background, non clays environment. Therefore, a wider number of study sites should be tested to determine the effective role of minerals in hosting viable biomass ad/or preserving related organic biosignatures.

Understanding the limit for organic preservation and habitability potential of these mineralogical analogues will provide critical information in support of landing site selection for the MSL11 and the EU/US Pasteur ExoMars Missions.

**References:** [1] Navarro-González, R., F. et. al. (2003). *Science*, 302:1018-1021; [2] McKay, C. P. (2002) *Ad Astra*; [3] McKay, C. P., et al. (2003), *Astrobiology*, 3, 393-406; [4] Warren-Rhodes et al. (2006) *Microbial Ecology* 52:389-398; [5] Vidiella, P. E. (1999) *J. of Arid Environments* 43:449-458; [6] Maier et al. (2004) *Science* 306:1289-1290; [7] Navarro G. et al. (2004) *Science* 306:1289-1290; [8] Skelley et al. (2006). *LPSC.XXXVII*, Abstract #2270.