

Diverse Origins of Gases From Mud Volcanoes and Seeps in Tectonically Fragmented Terrane

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1	Diverse origins of gases from mud volcanoes and seeps in tectonically fragmented
2	terrane
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- 39 *Key point:*
- Mud volcanoes and gas seeps provide a rapid access to probing subsurface fluid
 characteristics in tectonically active regions.
- Thermogenic methane constitutes a major component of hydrocarbons and
 forms at temperatures of 99-260°C.
- A wide spectrum of geochemical characteristics indicates diverse formation
 mechanisms and conditions that constrain gas and water origins.
- 46
- 47 Abstract

48 Identification of methane origins remains a challenging work as current 49 diagnostic signals are often not sufficient to resolve individual formation and 50 post-formation processes. To address such a knowledge gap in a tectonically active 51 and fragmented terrain, samples from mud volcanoes, gas seeps, and springs 52 distributed along structural features onshore and offshore of Taiwan were analyzed 53 for their isotopic compositions of methane, nitrogen, helium, dissolved inorganic carbon, CO₂, and water. Our analyses yielded Δ^{13} CH₃D and Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values ranging 54 55 between +1.9‰ and +7.8‰, and between +3.0‰ and +19.9‰, respectively. A 56 portion of the samples were characterized by values that represent the thermodynamic 57 equilibrium at temperatures of 99–260°C. These temperature estimates, together with 58 the bulk isotopic compositions and local geothermal gradients (25-30°C/km), suggest 59 that methane was formed by thermal maturation of organic matter at depths of 2 to 9 60 km below the land surface and channeled upward along faults. Other samples were 61 found to deviate from equilibrium by varying degrees. Considering the geological 62 background, helium isotopic ratios, and nitrogen isotopologue compositions, and 63 methanogens detected at some sites, these gases are either abiotic in origin or a 64 mixture of microbial and thermogenic sources. Regardless of whether the equilibrium 65 of methane isotopologues was reached, few sites hosted by sedimentary formations 66 were characterized by mantle-like helium signatures, indicating decoupled origins 67 and potential degassing of helium from the relic igneous source. Overall, these results 68 suggest the extraction of methane and other gases from multiple depths from strata 69 fragmented by fault displacement in an active orogenic belt.

70

72

71 Plain Language Summary

Mud volcanoes and gas seeps are distributed primarily in active tectonic regimes

73 and represent the surface expression of subsurface fracture networks. They provide 74 rapid access to probing subsurface characteristics for the generations of methane, 75 other gases, and water. Identifying the exact mechanisms of methane formation 76 remains a challenging work due to the lack of diagnostic signals with sufficient 77 resolving power. This study employed a wide range of isotopic tools to constrain the 78 origins of gases and water from mud volcanoes and seeps in Taiwan, where dual 79 subductions and associated arc-continent collision between the Philippine Sea and 80 Eurasian plates have enabled the plumbing of gases and water in accordance with 81 structure development and stratum deformation. Our results reveal a spectrum of 82 geochemical characteristics that point to diverse formation mechanisms and conditions. In particular, deeply sourced thermogenic methane (from depths of 2 to 9 83 84 km) appears to constitute a major gas component at most sites, and is mixed by 85 various degrees with abiotic methane pertinent to igneous bodies emplaced during 86 subduction/collision, or microbial methane generated at shallow depths. Overall, the 87 results address the temporal and spatial variations in gas origins prone to terrain 88 fragmentation and dynamic structural control associated with mountain building. 89

90 Keywords:

91 methane isotopologue, helium isotope, mud volcano, seep, active tectonic regime

92 1. Introduction

93 Methane is the main gas component associated with petroleum and coal 94 systems (Lundegard et al., 2000). Three major mechanisms have been suggested for 95 its formation, including biological production from CO_2 and methylated compounds, 96 stepwise thermal degradation of complex organic matters, and to a lesser extent, the 97 Fischer-Tropsch Type reaction catalyzed by metals or sulfide minerals (Kietäväinen 98 & Purkamo, 2015; Schoell, 1988; Stolper et al., 2014). Identifying the exact 99 mechanisms and quantifying their fluxes from individual sources would greatly 100 enhance our understanding of carbon cycling between reservoirs and their impact on 101 future climate.

102 Mud volcanoes and seeps represent the surface expression of subsurface fracture 103 networks and are considered to be an effective channel of methane emission (Kopf, 104 2003; Etiope, 2009). Gases (predominantly hydrocarbons), water, and unconsolidated 105 sediments originating from deep environments migrate upward due to gravitational 106 instability and overpressurization driven by rapid burial and fault displacement 107 (Carson & Screaton, 1998), facilitating the minimum alteration of gas during channel 108 transport, and the direct methane emissions into the atmosphere or seawater. 109 Therefore, the geochemical characteristics of methane (e.g., abundance and isotopic 110 composition) could potentially serve as an indicator of methane formation conditions, 111 and the connectivity and extent of fractures in the crustal plumbing system (Mazzini 112 & Etiope, 2017; Milkov & Etiope, 2018).

Methane isotopic compositions ($^{13}C/^{12}C$ and $^{2}H/^{1}H$) and abundance ratios as 113 compared to higher hydrocarbons (C_1/C_2^+) are conventionally used to characterize 114 115 methane origins (e.g., Bernard et al., 1977; Whiticar, 1999). The principle stems from 116 experimental and field observations that constrain various degrees of isotopic 117 fractionations and abundance ratios for different methane-formation mechanisms 118 (Milkov and Etiope, 2018). These fingerprints are not unequivocal, as they are subject 119 to further alteration caused by secondary processes, such as mixing, migration, and 120 microbial oxidation (e.g., Bernard et al., 1977; Whiticar, 1999). The advancement of 121 mass spectrometric techniques has enabled the measurement of two doubly substituted isotopologues (¹³CH₃D and ¹²CH₂D₂) at high precision (Young et al., 122 123 2016). The isotopologue approach provides a direct means to assess whether the 124 methane has reached isotopic equilibrium (with coherent temperature estimates from

125 two thermometers), overcoming the potential bias derived from the abundance of 126 single doubly substituted isotopologue quantified by either mass or optic 127 spectroscopy (Douglas et al., 2017; Ono et al., 2014; Young et al., 2016). Furthermore, 128 the approach adds two additional constraints to conventional mixing models based on 129 mass conservation, thereby facilitating coherent reservoir or process mixing models 130 among different isotopic signals and better identification of end components. Finally, 131 gas origins could best be resolved with additional isotopic fingerprints of the 132 constituent gases. While helium isotope ratios are conventionally exploited to 133 differentiate mantle from crust and atmospheric sources (Poreda & Craig, 1989), the 134 abundances of rare nitrogen isotopologues emerge as a sensitive indicator to track the

135 cycling of air-derived nitrogen that could be falsely identified as the mantle nitrogen

136 using the bulk nitrogen isotopic compositions (Labidi and Young, 2022). The approaches arise from the observation that mantle derived ¹⁵N¹⁵N abundances (from 137 138 mid-ocean ridges and plumes) are consistent with the stochastic distribution for the 139 intramolecular equilibrium, and are greatly distinctive from atmospheric nitrogen 140 (Labidi et al., 2020). These results combined with bulk nitrogen isotopic 141 compositions and noble gas ratios enable to trace nitrogen cycling associated with 142 subduction and hydrothermal circulation potentially impacted by air contamination, 143 as well as to identify the primordial mantle (Labidi et al., 2020 and 2021; Labidi and 144 Young, 2022). As terranes associated with subduction systems are fragmented by 145 faulting and magmatism, gases that originate from multiple sources likely have 146 distinctive combined isotopic patterns. The integration of multiple isotopic 147 fingerprints (bulk and isotopologue) for specific geological occurrences offers 148 insights into gas formation, mixing, and alteration that have rarely been explored.

149 This study aims to determine the origins of methane from mud volcanoes and 150 seeps onshore and offshore Taiwan by combining the abundances of rare methane and 151 nitrogen isotopologues, and bulk isotopic compositions of helium, methane, 152 dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), CO_2 , and water. The study materials were chosen 153 to take advantage of Taiwan's unique tectonic setting, at the intersection of dual 154 subduction systems between the Eurasian and Philippine Sea plates (Lallemand, 155 2016). Mud volcanoes/seeps are associated with different structural features in 156 different geological units, providing ideal opportunities to probe gas reservoirs in 157 fragmented subsurface environments. These isotopic results were integrated with

158 geological characteristics to address mechanisms and potential depths of methane 159 formation, and post-formation mixing and alteration.

160

161 2. Site background

162 Taiwan is located in an active tectonic setting, at the boundary between the 163 Philippine Sea plate and the Eurasian plate (Suppe, 1984; Teng & Lin, 2004). Major 164 structures are oriented roughly northeast-southwest as a result of compression driven 165 by the convergence and collision between the Luzon arc and the Eurasian continent. 166 Geological units on land, from west to east, include the Coastal Plain, the Western 167 Foothills, the Hsuehshan Range, the Central Range (Backbone Range), the 168 Longitudinal Valley, and the Coastal Range (Teng & Lin, 2004). A developing 169 accretionary wedge is located offshore of southwestern Taiwan and features ridges 170 and pockmarks (bathymetric depressions often interpreted as the signature of 171 subseafloor fluid transport) that have been postulated to extend from corresponding 172 structures on land (Figure S1; Liu et al., 1997). Seismic surveys across the transect 173 between Taiwan and the Eurasian continent reveal two structural domains (active and 174 passive continental margins) separated by a projected deformation front that 175 represents the extension of the Manila Trench (Lin et al., 2008). The active margin is 176 further composed of the Upper Slope unit to the east, where mud diapirs predominate, 177 and the Lower Slope unit to the west, where anticlinal ridges have formed (Chen et 178 al., 2014; Wang et al., 2022). Numerous mud volcanoes and seeps are distributed 179 along faults or near anticlinal axes in southwestern and eastern Taiwan, and offshore 180 southwestern Taiwan (Chao et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2010). Field 181 sites investigated here are distributed near, or along structures, including the Chukou 182 fault, Chishan fault, Gutingkeng anticline, blind structures in the Coastal Plain, 183 Longitudinal Valley fault, volcanic complexes, and the Formosa and Four Way 184 Closure ridges offshore southwestern Taiwan (Figure S1; Table S1). A more detailed 185 description of the site background is given in the Supporting information.

186

187 3. Materials and methods

188 3.1 Field sampling and sample processing

A total of 31 gas and water samples were collected from 23 mud volcanoes, gas seeps, and boreholes (Table S1). For most samples, gases were collected directly

191 from bubbling features with the most vigorous activity. Sites AT and YSES are 192 boreholes connected with a gas-water separator. Site GI-03 was an artisan well with 193 vigorous bubbling, whereas site GI-01 was a pond (episodically flooded with 194 seawater) with several bubbling features. To perform sampling at most sites, gases 195 were drained into 50 mL gas-tight, pre-evacuated glass bottles with two stopcocks 196 connected to a funnel. The funnel was first placed above bubbling features and filled 197 with water. Water in the funnel was replaced gradually with the exsolved gases. The 198 gases were used to purge the connecting tubing five times, and drained into 199 pre-evacuated glass bottles (Figure S2). Sampling procedures were adjusted for three 200 sites (YSES, WD, and AT). For samples from sites YSES and AT, gases discharged 201 from the gas-water separator were directly diverted into pre-evacuated glass bottles. 202 For samples from site WD, high erupting activities and outflowing water temperatures 203 (63°C) prohibited direct sampling access. Therefore, mud and water flowing to the 204 rim of the affected area were drained into serum bottles without headspace and capped 205 with blue butyl rubber stoppers. Gases were extracted by connecting the sample 206 bottles with pre-evacuated glass bottles. A total of five replicate bottles were collected 207 for multiple gas analyses.

208 Offshore gas samples were collected from sediment cores drilled into 209 gas-hydrate bearing zones at Formosa Ridge (site FR) and Four Way Closure Ridge 210 (site FWCR) with the seafloor drill rig MARUM-MeBo200 during cruise SO266 with 211 R/V SONNE (Bohrmann et al., 2023). Sediment cores dedicated to gas sampling were 212 collected with pressure core samplers (Pape et al., 2017) and kept under in situ 213 pressure during core retrieval. During onboard gas sampling, the pressure core was 214 first depressurized slowly while monitoring gas pressure. Gases were collected into 215 stainless steel cylinders when the incremental gas pressure increased abruptly (up to 216 725 psi), an indicator of hydrate dissociation.

For all sites, water temperatures were measured on-site. Water samples were collected in 50 mL tubes and centrifuged at a speed of $10,000 \times g$ for 20 min. The supernatant was filtered through 0.22 µm pore-sized cellulose membranes and stored with no headspace at room temperature.

221

222 3.2 Sample analyses

223

CH₄, C₂H₆, C₃H₈, and CO₂ concentrations were analyzed by a gas

224 chromatograph (GC; 6890N, Agilent Technologies) with a flame ionization detector, 225 and a thermal conductivity detector in line with a Porapak Q column using helium as 226 the carrier gas. DIC concentrations were analyzed on CO₂ gases exsolved from 227 water acidified with phosphoric acid (5%) using a CO₂ analyzer (Aurora 1030, O.I. 228 Analytical). The reported gas abundances were corrected for the air assuming that 229 oxygen measured was derived from the air and the N2/O2 ratio is 3.7. Since all 230 samples were collected in 5 replicates, the sample was discarded if the air 231 constituted the main component of the gases.

Carbon isotopic compositions of CH_4 , DIC and CO_2 were measured with a MAT253 isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS) equipped with a GC IsoLink (Thermo Fisher Scientific) hosted at the National Taiwan University. The isotopic compositions are expressed in δ notation using the following equation:

236

237
$$\delta^{13}C = (R_{sample} / R_{standard} - 1) \times 1000\%$$
 eq.

1

238

239 where R is ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$, and the standard is Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB).

240 For noble gas analyses, gases were introduced into a preline system for 241 purification and separation. Helium isotopic ratios (³He/⁴He) and neon concentrations 242 were measured by a helium isotope mass spectrometer (Helix, Thermo Scientific) in 243 line with a quadrupole mass spectrometer (QMS200, Pfeiffer Vacuum). Helium ratios 244 were calibrated against the standard atmospheric helium (Mishima et al., 2018) and a standard with a 3 He/ 4 He ratio 20.4 times of the atmospheric ratio (R_a) provided by the 245 246 University of Tokyo (Sano et al., 2008), whereas neon concentrations and He/Ne 247 ratios were calibrated against the air. Helium isotope ratios are expressed relative to 248 the air using the following equation:

249

250
$$R/R_a = ({}^{3}He/{}^{4}He)_{sample}/({}^{3}He/{}^{4}He)_{atmosphere}$$
 eq.2

251

252 where R and R_a are the ${}^{3}\text{He}/{}^{4}\text{He}$ ratios of sample and atmospheric helium, 253 respectively.

254 Hydrogen and oxygen isotope compositions of water were measured by an 255 Off-Axis Integrated Cavity Output Spectrometer (Los Gatos Research). The isotopic 256 compositions are expressed in δ notation (eq. 1) with reference to VSMOW (Vienna 257 Standard Mean Ocean Water).

Typical analytical uncertainties were 5% for gas concentrations, 2% for DIC concentrations, 0.2‰ for δ^{13} C values, 0.2‰ for $\delta^{18}O_{H2O}$ values, 1.0‰ for $\delta^{2}H_{H2O}$ values, and 2% for ³He/⁴He. The detection limits for gas abundances and DIC concentrations were 10 ppmv, and 0.05 mM, respectively.

For methane isotopologues, currents of ${}^{12}CH_4^+$, ${}^{13}CH_4^+$, ${}^{12}CH_3D^+$, ${}^{13}CH_3D^+$, and 262 12 CH₂D₂⁺ were measured using the Panorama (Nu Instruments) at the University of 263 264 California at Los Angeles following established protocols (Giunta et al., 2019; Young 265 et al., 2016, 2017). The mass resolving power of the spectrometer was equal to, or 266 greater than 40,000, allowing for the resolution of two mass-18 isotopologues, ¹³CH₃D and ¹²CH₂D₂. Methane was purified using a GC equipped with two packed 267 columns filled with 5A molecular sieve and HayeSepD porous polymer using helium 268 269 as the carrier gas. Purified methane was collected, transferred, and expanded into the sample bellows connected to the mass spectrometer. In general, ${}^{12}CH_3D^+/{}^{12}CH_4^+$ and 270 ${}^{12}CH_2D_2/{}^{12}CH_4^+$ ratios, and ${}^{13}CH_4^+/{}^{12}CH_4^+$ and ${}^{13}CH_3D/{}^{12}CH_4^+$ ratios were measured 271 272 with more than twenty blocks of data acquisition. In each block, alternating 273 measurements on 20 samples and 21 standards were cycled every 30 seconds. Data 274 was further integrated over individual blocks. The bulk isotopic compositions are adopted from ${}^{13}CH_4^+/{}^{12}CH_4^+$ and ${}^{12}CH_3D^+/{}^{12}CH_4^+$, and expressed in δ notation ($\delta^{13}C$ 275 276 and δ^2 H referenced to VPDB and VSMOW, respectively; eq. 1), whereas the 277 isotopologue abundances are shown as uppercase delta values, defined as:

279
$$\Delta^{13}$$
CH₃D = [(¹³CH₃D/¹²CH₄)_{sample}/(¹³CH₃D/¹²CH₄)_{stochastic} - 1] × 1000‰ eq. 3

280
$$\Delta^{12}CH_2D_2 = [({}^{12}CH_2D_2/{}^{12}CH_4)_{sample}/({}^{12}CH_2D_2/{}^{12}CH_4)_{stochastic} - 1] \times 1000\%$$
 eq. 4
281

where the ratio of the isotopologues under stochastic conditions was calculated using the bulk isotope composition. Typical internal uncertainties for Δ^{13} CH₃D, and Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values were less than ±0.2‰ and ±0.6‰ 1 σ , respectively (Young et al., 2016, 2017).

The equilibrium temperatures were calculated following the relationshipdescribed in Young et al. (2016 and 2017):

288

289
$$\Delta^{13}$$
CH3D $\approx 1000 \times \ln (1 + 0.0355502 / \text{T} - 433.038 / \text{T}^2 + 1270210.0 / \text{T}^3 - 5.94804 \times 10^8 / 10^$

290

$$T^4 + 1.196630 \times 10^{11}/T^5 - 9.0723 \times 10^{12}/T^6$$
)
 eq. 5

 291

 292
 $\Delta^{12}CH_2D_2 \approx 1000 \times \ln (1 + 0.183798/T - 785.483/T^2 + 1056280.0/T^3 + 9.37307 \times 10^{17}/T^4 - 8.919480 \times 10^{10}/T^5 + 9.901730 \times 10^{12}/T^6$)
 eq. 6

 293
 $10^{7}/T^4 - 8.919480 \times 10^{10}/T^5 + 9.901730 \times 10^{12}/T^6$)
 eq. 6

 294
 295
 where T is in Kelvin.
 eq. 6

 296
 Nitrogen isotopologues for five samples (sites KTL-02, WSD-01, AT, GI-01, and
 eq. 7

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 GI-03) were also determined. In short, nitrogen was purified on the same preline
 system as methane (Young et al., 2016). The abundances of $^{14}N^{14}N^+$, $^{14}N^{15}N^+$, and

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 $^{15}N^{15}N^+$ ions were measured at a mass resolving power of approximately 50,000

 300
 (Labidi & Young, 2022). Data are expressed as $\delta^{15}N$ (eq. 1; referenced to the air) and

 301
 $\Delta_{30} = (^{30}R/(^{15}R)^2 - 1) \times 1000\%$
 eq. 7

 303
 $\Delta_{30} = (^{30}R/(^{15}R)^2 - 1) \times 1000\%$
 eq. 7

 304
 where $^{30}R = ^{15}N^{15}N/^{14}N^{14}N$ and $^{15}R = ^{15}N/^{14}N$.
 306

 307
 4. Results
 Gase compositions and isotopic compositions are shown in Figure 1 and Table S1.

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 Gases in most samples were dominated by methane (>75%), with the exception of
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The Δ^{13} CH₃D and Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values ranged between +1.90‰ and +7.83‰ and between +2.97‰ and +19.85‰, respectively (Figure 2; Table S2). Among all samples, eight (CLP, CLS, KTL, SYNH-02, WSD-01, WD, AT, and LS) had isotopologue abundances consistent with the thermodynamic equilibrium at temperatures ranging from 23°C to 260°C (Table S2). Other samples were

 $\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$ values ranged from -24.8% to +20.5%.

(0.1-1.7%) and propane (0-0.4%) were observed in all samples. Bulk carbon and hydrogen isotopic compositions of methane spanned over a wide range ($\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$ from

-86.9‰ to -16.7‰ and $\delta^2 H_{CH4}$ from -206.4‰ to -78.4‰) with the majority of $\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$

and $\delta^2 H_{CH4}$ values clustering between -39.3% and -30.7% and between -167.8% and

-138.5‰, respectively. While DIC δ^{13} C values were from -29.5‰ to +30.6‰, DIC

concentrations varied considerably between 0.4 mM and 271.3 mM. For comparison,

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characterized. by values deviating from the equilibrium by varying degrees (Figure 2). The δ^{15} N and Δ_{30} values ranged between -2.1‰ and +3.6‰, and between 1.8‰ and 16.4‰ relative to the stochastic distribution of isotopologues, respectively (Figure S3; Table S3).

Helium isotopic compositions spanned from 0.1 to 5.4 Ra. Eight samples possessed ${}^{3}\text{He}/{}^{4}\text{He}$ ratios of >1 Ra (Figure 3; Table S4). The $\delta^{2}\text{H}_{\text{H20}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H20}}$ values spanned from -52.5‰ to -1.0‰, and from -8.1‰ to +6.4‰, respectively (Figure 4a; Table S5). While eight samples from the Chukuo fault and Coastal Range fell along the local meteoric water line (LMWL; Peng et al., 2010), the others deviated from the LMWL by varying degrees.

333

334 5. Discussion

335 5.1 First order assessments on the origins of methane

336 Conventional approaches based on bulk isotopic compositions of methane and 337 CO_2 , and abundance ratios were first used to interpret the origins of hydrocarbon gases for individual structural domains (e.g., Milkov, 2011; Milkov & Etiope, 2018). 338 339 The principle stems from laboratory and field observations (e.g., Bernard et al., 1977; 340 Whiticar, 1999; Milkov & Etiope, 2018) that thermogenic gases are generally characterized by relatively high $\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$ and $\delta^{2}H_{CH4}$ values (from -60% to -25%), and 341 -300% to -150%, respectively), low C_1/C_2^+ ratios (1 to 100), and low $\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$ values. 342 Microbial gases possess geochemical characteristics (low $\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$ and $\delta^{2}H_{CH4}$ values 343 (< -50‰ and <-150‰, respectively; Whiticar, 1999), and high C_1/C_2^+ ratios (>1000; 344 345 Bernard et al., 1977)) distinct from thermogenic gases by various degrees (even 346 though the less fractionated isotopic compositions of microbial methane resemble 347 early mature thermogenic gases). Abiotic gases may follow variable patterns partially overlapping with thermogenic gases and with a tendency toward greater 348 $\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$ values (Milkov & Etiope, 2018). For comparison, as CO₂ derived from 349 biodegraded oil is converted into secondary microbial methane, the residual CO₂ 350 becomes progressively enriched in ¹³C (Head et al., 2003). Biodegradation also leads 351 352 to an increasing CH₄ fraction in the gas. Furthermore, methane oxidation (aerobic 353 and anaerobic styles) and diffusive transport would all lead to the residue methane enriched with ¹³C and ²H by various degrees (Figure 1; Whiticar, 1999). Therefore, 354 355 gas alteration and mixing can complicate possible interpretations.

Based on these empirical fields defined in $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{2}H$ values, and C_{1}/C_{2}^{+} ratios, 356 15 out of the 31 samples could be interpreted as dominantly thermogenic in origin 357 358 (Figure 1; Table S1; S2). While these samples were primarily distributed along the 359 Chukou and Chishan faults, 4 of the 15 were from the Coastal Range (sites LGH and 360 LS), the Gutingkeng anticline (site LCW), and the Coastal Plain (site WD). For 361 comparison, data for two boreholes from the Coastal Range (sites AT and GI) were 362 interpreted as abiotic in origin (Figure 1). On the Bernard plot (Figure 1b), these data 363 points fell either within the empirically defined abiotic field or the overlapping range between the thermogenic and abiotic fields (Milkov and Etiope, 2018). The $\delta^2 H_{CH4}$ 364 values for both sites (between -79‰ and -77‰) and the $\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$ value for site GI were 365 366 much higher than those commonly identified as thermogenic methane. This, 367 combined with their high temperature nature, proximity to the volcanic bodies, and 368 island arc setting suggest that methane could be abiotic (Milkov, 2011; Milkov and 369 Etiope, 2018). Data for two marine sediments (sites FR and FWCR) were categorized 370 as microbial in origin, whereas data points for LGH (Coastal Range), TDS (Coastal 371 Plain), YSES (Chukou fault), and all samples from the Gutingkeng anticline fell 372 between typical ranges of thermogenic and microbial end components (Figure 1b; see 373 section 5.3 for the mixing model).

The $\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$ values of samples collected from the Chishan fault fell between 374 -15.9‰ and +20.5‰ (Figure 1c; Table S1). In particular, δ^{13} C values of CO₂ and DIC 375 376 for SYNH-01, and WSD -01 and -02 ranged from +8.9‰ to +20.5‰ and from +18.5‰ to +30.6‰, respectively. This, combined with the detection of active CO_2 377 reducing methanogens in the region (Cheng et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2018) suggests that 378 the ¹³C enrichment in CO₂ is catalyzed by secondary methane formation from CO₂. 379 380 Secondary microbial methane is formed through the anaerobic degradation of 381 petroleum (Head et al., 2003). As CO_2 is the byproduct of petroleum degradation, its 382 quantity is limited by the degradability of petroleum, and therefore, considered as the close system. In this regard, further methane formation would preferentially reduce 383 ¹²CO₂ over ¹³CO₂, leaving the residue CO₂ enriched with ¹³C and methane depleted in 384 ¹³C. The interpretation is also supported by the presence of patchy oils constantly 385 386 observed in the bubbling pools or craters. To assess this process, a Rayleigh distillation model was applied assuming an initial $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DIC}}$ value of -25‰ and a 387 388 fractionation factor (α DIC-CH₄) of 1.05 (Chasar et al., 2000). The calculation also

389 assumed that CO₂ or DIC in environments was produced primarily from the degradation of organic matter with δ^{13} C values between -30% and -20% (Campeau 390 391 et al., 2017). Since the isotopic fractionation for organic degradation is small ($<1\infty$), the median δ^{13} C value (-25‰) was arbitrarily chosen for modeling. The calculation 392 suggests that in order to replicate the observed $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ value, the fraction of reaction 393 394 would be 36% or the concentration of DIC consumed or methane produced would be 395 equivalent to 57 mM. The quantity of DIC reduced or methane produced is at least 396 one order of magnitude higher than the observed maximum methane concentration (2 397 mM). If the fractionation factor is raised to a more extreme level of 1.08 (Summons et 398 al., 1998), the reaction fraction would reach 54%, or the concentration of methane 399 produced would be 34 mM. The overall results from the Rayleigh distillation 400 modeling suggest that secondary methane formation by CO₂ reducing methanogens might not be solely responsible for the ¹³C enrichment in CO₂ or DIC. Other microbial 401 402 channels, such as acetate formation from CO_2 (Karakashev et al., 2006), might be 403 involved. Alternatively, the high predicted concentration of methane could have been 404 lost due to the depressurized degassing during transport along the fluid conduit. The 405 temperature of methane formation for SYNH has been estimated to be up to 236°C 406 (Figure 2; Table S2). By applying a local geothermal gradient of 25°C/km (Chi & 407 Reed, 2008), the formation depth could range up to 9 km below the land surface. As 408 methane ascends toward the land surface, dissolved methane would be depressurized 409 and transformed into bubbles. The inference is supported by vigorous bubbling at 410 SYNH during sampling.

411 The excess methane or carbon could not be accounted for by the anabolic 412 assimilation as most substrate consumptions are often diverted to the energy yield 413 rather than biosynthesis. For example, tests on S. funaroxidans cocultured with M. 414 hungate have obtained a yield of 0.15-0.25 mole-CH₄/g-dw-biomass (Scholten & 415 Conard, 2000). If 50% of biomass is attributed to carbon, the yield would range from 416 3.57 to 5.95 mole-CH4/mole-C-biomass. For every mole of CO₂ utilized, less than 417 20% of it is diverted to biomass generation. Even with this, the predicted CO_2 418 consumption or CH₄ production still greatly exceeds the observed methane 419 concentrations. In sum, the bulk isotopic compositions provide a first-order 420 interpretation for the origin of hydrocarbons (methane in particular). While the 421 excess methane predicted for the Chishan fault could have been accounted for by the

depressurization loss, the interpretation for the origins of all samples is still subject
to variations caused by potential mixing with a small fraction of non-major end
components.

The majority of Δ^{13} CH₃D and Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values for samples from the Chukou 425 426 and Chishan faults, and the Coastal Range were distributed either on, or close to the 427 equilibrium curve (Figure 2). The equilibrium temperatures were calculated to range 428 from 23°C to 260°C for sites CLP, CLS, and KTL in the Chukou fault, sites WSD-01 429 and SYNH-02 in the Chishan fault, site WD in the Coastal Plain, and sites AT and 430 LS in the Coastal Range (Table S2). Except for sites WSD-01 and AT, samples that 431 displayed the isotopologue equilibrium also possessed bulk isotopic compositions and 432 abundances interpreted as the products of thermal maturation of organic matters at 433 high temperatures. Such a pattern is comparable with the observations of large-scale 434 continental sedimentary basins, the Southwest Ontario and the Michigan Basin, as described in Giunta et al. (2019). Although the Δ^{13} CH₃D and Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values for 435 436 sites WSD-01 and AT yielded comparable temperature estimates, these isotopologue 437 abundances were considered to represent either a mixture of thermogenic and 438 microbial (for site WSD-01) sources, or abiogenic methane (for site AT) (see sections 439 5.3 and 5.4).

440

441 5.2 Re-equilibration and other secondary processes for methane

442 Post-formation secondary mechanisms, including re-equilibration, microbial 443 methane oxidation, and diffusive transport, have been proposed to explain the 444 variations in clumped isotope composition that do not align well with the 445 thermodynamic equilibrium (Beaudry et al., 2021; Giunta et al., 2021; Giunta et al., 446 2022; Jautzy et al., 2021; Krause et al., 2022; Labidi et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2023; Ono 447 et al., 2021; Shuai et al., 2018; Stolper et al., 2015; Young et al., 2017). 448 Re-equilibration is referred to the process that alters the original clumped isotopic 449 compositions toward or along the thermodynamic equilibrium at a temperature range 450 or condition either comparable with or drastically different from the current in situ 451 setting. Because the re-equilibration takes place with intra-molecular re-ordering, the 452 bulk isotopic compositions could have remained unaltered (Giunta et al., 2021; Labidi 453 et al., 2020). The mechanism has been used to account for the origins of methane from 454 the Precambrian continental shield, hydrothermal systems, Baltic Sea sediments, and

seep sediments from the Marmara Sea (Ash et al., 2019; Giunta et al., 2021; Labidi et
al., 2020). The interpretation becomes even more appealing when the bulk isotopic
compositions are apparently kinetic controlled (e.g., microbial methanogenesis) and
clumped isotopic compositions reflects a state of or close to the thermodynamic
equilibrium (Ash et al., 2019; Giunta et al., 2022; Ono et al., 2021).

460 To assess this inference, the probability of data distribution for Δ^{13} CH₃D and 461 Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values for mud volcanoes in western Taiwan and offshore sediments were 462 plotted considering their structural configuration and hosted formations might 463 resemble each other (Figure S4). Like that reported by Giunta et al. (2021), the 464 Δ^{13} CH₃D values were scattered across the measured range and did not exhibit any 465 pattern that demonstrated the clustering within a particular interval. In contrast, the 466 Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values clustered within two broad ranges (0-8‰ and 12-17‰) if a 1‰

467 interval was chosen. The bi-modal data distribution became even more prominent if a

468 2‰ interval was used (Figure S4). The re-equilibration hypothesis lies on the premise that the intra-molecular re-ordering of ¹²CH₂D₂ proceeds at a rate much faster 469 (probably 2 times higher) than ¹³CH₃D. Therefore, over the course of re-equilibration, 470 Δ^{13} CH₃D values produced by kinetic reactions (e.g., methanogenesis or thermal 471 maturation) would vary toward the equilibrium line while Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values remain at 472 a relatively invariant range. Under this circumstance, the estimated temperature 473 474 projected by clustering Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values could be used to infer the possible temperature of re-equilibration, whereas Δ^{13} CH₃D values represent the degrees of 475 476 partial re-equilibration. The inference of re-equilibration described above is not 477 favored based on the following arguments.

(1) The two clusters of Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values obtained in this study could be 478 479 translated into the estimated temperatures of $60\pm10^{\circ}$ C and $200\pm50^{\circ}$ C (Figure S4b). 480 The lower one $(60\pm10^{\circ}C)$ is derived from the samples collected from the Chishan 481 fault (SYNH-01 and WSD) and offshore sediments. All samples from the Chishan 482 fault possess bulk isotopic compositions interpreted as thermogenic methane, and Δ^{13} CH₃D and Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values close to the equilibrium curve. For comparison, bulk 483 484 isotopic compositions of methane for marine sediments indicate typical microbial origin. If the hypothetical re-equilibration proceeds with the variation in Δ^{13} CH₃D 485 value only, the re-equilibration would occur at the temperature ($60\pm10^{\circ}$ C), which is 486 487 lower than the gas window commonly considered for the formation of thermogenic 488 methane (>80°C) (Pepper & Corvi, 1995). The scenario is unlikely unless the catalyst 489 involved in the re-equilibration is sufficiently efficient to facilitate the intra-molecular 490 re-ordering of methane isotopologues at that low temperature. Instead, the data 491 distribution (both bulk isotopic and clumped compositions) could be best explained 492 by the mixing between a thermogenic end component and a microbial end component 493 represented by the offshore sediments (Figure S5; see section 5.3 for details).

494 (2) The cluster with higher projected temperatures $(200\pm50^{\circ}C)$ (Figure S4b) encompasses several sub-clusters spanning over 30% of Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values. Values off 495 496 the equilibrium line were derived from samples collected from the Chukou fault, 497 Chishan fault, Gutingkeng anticline, and Coastal Plain. For samples from the Chukou and Chishan faults, the majority of their $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{2}H$ values are interpreted as 498 thermogenic in origin (with the exception of YSES). For comparison, all samples 499 from the Gutingkeng anticline and Coastal Plain possessed $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{2}H$ values 500 categorized as a mixture of microbial and thermogenic origin. By examining the 501 details, the projected temperatures of re-equilibration based on $\Delta^{12}CH_2D_2$ values 502 503 range around 200°C and could reach as high as 686°C (Table S2). If the former 504 projected temperature represents a temperature of re-equilibration, the 505 re-equilibration would proceed with a burial of approximately 7 km depth (assuming 506 the geothermal gradient is 25°C/km; Chi and Reed, 2008) following the initial 507 formation through either microbial process or thermal maturation. Since the 508 disequilibrium clumped isotopic composition for thermogenic methane has not been 509 affirmatively validated for environmental samples (Shuai et al., 2018; Xia & Gao, 510 2019), only the scenario for the re-equilibration of microbial methane is addressed 511 here. Although the temperature limit to life or methanogenesis could range up to 512 122°C (Takai et al., 2008), the formation of microbial methane in petroleum or natural 513 gas systems is generally considered to take place at temperature less than 80°C (Head 514 et al., 2003). In this regard, at least additional ~5 km of burial after its initial formation 515 is presumably needed to reach the temperature for the designated re-equilibration. To

515 is presumably needed to reach the temperature for the designated re-equilibration. To 516 assess this possibility, the uplift history of Taiwan orogenesis that has accommodated 517 the shortening between the Luzon arc and the Eurasian plate is utilized. While the 518 collision started at about 5 Ma (based on the first appearance of slate fragments in the 519 sedimentary records; Teng, 1987), the uplift and exhumation accelerated during the 520 period of 1-2 Ma (Chen et al., 2023; Lee et al., 2022). If the uplift rate of 1 cm/yr is ssumed (Chen et al., 2023; Yen et al., 2008), a total of 1000-2000 m of uplift would be expected. The estimate does not take erosion (up to 5 mm/yr based on ¹⁰Be dating; Fellin et al., 2017) into account and should be considered an optimum scenario. This quantity could also be translated into the burial of the formations in the footwall of thrust faults. Unless the uplift rate could be raised by at least a factor of 2.5 and the erosion could be ignored, the estimated optimum burial is apparently not sufficient to reach the designated re-equilibration temperature.

(3) Some of the data points for the high temperature cluster were distributed at $\Delta^{12}CH_2D_2$ values of less than 4 (samples collected from the Chukou fault, Gutingkeng anticline, and Coastal Plain). If these data points are attributed to the hypothetical re-equilibration, then the re-equilibration temperatures could be at least 261°C and reach as high as 686°C (Table S2). Such a temperature range requires an unlikely burial depth as being described and exceeds the upper bound for thermal maturation. Again, the data distribution could not be accounted for by re-equilibration.

535 For microbial methane oxidation, bulk isotope compositions for residue methane 536 would generally increase with the extent of consumption (Whiticar, 1999). Depending 537 on the fractionation factors, the enrichment in heavier isotopes would vary 538 considerably among species or environmental characteristics. In contrast, the 539 clumped isotopic compositions exhibit drastically different patterns between aerobic 540 and anaerobic methane oxidation based on culture, enrichment, and environmental observations. The Δ^{13} CH₃D and Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values either decrease off or along the 541 542 equilibrium curve for aerobic methane oxidation (Giunta et al., 2022; Krause et al., 543 2022), or cluster close to or along the equilibrium curve and its extension off 0°C mark or vary off the equilibrium curve and along the Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ axis for AOM (Ash et 544 545 al., 2019; Giunta et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2023; Ono et al., 2021). In one case for the 546 Baltic Sea sediments (Ash et al., 2019), a methanogenic zone is sandwiched by two 547 sulfate-methane transition zones (SMTZ) attributed to the sulfate- and Fe-AOM. The Δ^{13} CH₃D and Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values for the deep SMTZ are nearly constant, reaching a 548 549 thermodynamic equilibrium at a temperature consistent with the in situ 7.8°C. The 550 results obtained from the Black Sea sediments, on the other hand, exhibit a different pattern (Giunta et al., 2022). Their Δ^{13} CH₃D and Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values are close to the 551 equilibrium curve at the bottom of SMTZ and increase to a highly enriched level 552 (15-16‰ for Δ^{13} CH₃D and 60-75‰ for Δ^{12} CH₂D₂) at the top of the SMTZ, a pattern 553

554 also observed in the incubations of AOM enrichments from Svalbard sediments (Liu 555 et al., 2023). For comparison, the potential AOM in seep sediments (from Santa Barbara Channel) and deep materials (Nankai sediments and Beatrix fluids) shift the 556 Δ^{13} CH₃D value toward the thermodynamic equilibrium with the insignificant change 557 in Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ value (Liu et al., 2023). The contrast patterns of isotopologue 558 559 abundances have been linked to the reversibility of methane oxidation potentially 560 controlled by the thermodynamic drive intrinsically linked to the availability of 561 sulfate and methane (Liu et al., 2023). For abundant substrate (and energy flow) like 562 that attested by culture experiments (Ono et al., 2022), AOM is regulated by kinetic

563 effects that lead to the disequilibrium isotopologue abundances. In contrast, AOM

564 imposed by limited substrate availability proceeds with the high reversibility so 565 thermodynamic equilibrium could be readily reached (Liu et al., 2023). Various 566 thresholds of the substrate availability have been proposed primarily based on field 567 observations (Ash et al., 2019; Giunta et al., 2022; Ono et al., 2021), thereby 568 warranting the validation from laboratory tests.

To address the potential of AOM for this study, the distribution of Δ^{13} CH₃D and 569 Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values was first examined. Only two seep sediments (FWCR and FR) 570 possess Δ^{13} CH₃D and Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values resembling those from the Baltic and Black 571 Seas near the equilibrium curve at the low temperature end. However, these two 572 573 sediments were retrieved from the gas hydrate stability zone at a depth of 108 m for 574 FWCR and 22 m for FR below the seafloor. Based on the geochemical characteristics 575 (Bohrmann et al., 2023), these samples are not representative of sediments typical for 576 AOM. Furthermore, the data points for mud volcanoes in western Taiwan (Figure S4) 577 are not near the low temperature end of the equilibrium line but resemble the shift 578 caused by potential AOM that proceeds with high reversibility under or near 579 thermodynamic threshold (Liu et al., 2023). Although sulfate-AOM at <10 cm depth 580 has been validated based on the geochemical profile and genetic data for SYNH (Cheng et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2018), these samples were collected from the mud 581 582 platform formed by the accumulation of fluidic mud emanating from the bubbling 583 pool. Here, sulfate-AOM is fueled by methane percolating off the major fluid conduit 584 and through the porous medium, and by sulfate generated by the oxidation of pyrite or 585 iron sulfide through the exposure of deeply sourced sediments to the atmosphere 586 (Cheng et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2018). As our samples were collected from the

587 bubbling pools that represent the surface expression of subsurface fluid channels, 588 collected gases were plumbed from the deep source with minimum alteration during 589 the transport, thereby exhibiting geochemical and community composition patterns 590 distinct from those in the mud platform (Cheng et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2018). Similarly, 591 aerobic methane oxidation has been validated with geochemical, incubation, and 592 genetic data for the mud platform sediments at SYNH (Cheng et al., 2012; Lin et al., 593 2018). Again, companion data for samples collected from bubbling pools are distinct 594 from those from the mud platform. The bulk and clumped isotopic compositions for 595 our samples were also not aligned with the ranges commonly attributed to aerobic 596 methane oxidation (Figures 2 and 3). Taken together, while these lines of evidence do 597 not favor microbial methane oxidation (either anaerobic or aerobic style) as the main 598 cause of isotopic variations, the possibility of AOM could not be completely ruled 599 out.

600 Finally, molecular diffusion has been considered to address the isotopic 601 variations (both bulk and clump isotopes) (Giunta et al., 2021). The tenuous nature of 602 diffusive pathway in sedimentary rocks would particularly enable the 603 mass-differentiation transport during fluid percolation over a long-distance range. 604 According to the rules of mass difference (Etiope et al., 2009), diffusion facilities to 605 transport lighter isotopes over heavier ones, resulting in the preferential depletion of ¹³C or smaller $\delta^{13}C/\delta^2H$ values for migratory methane (or vice versa for residue 606 methane). On the other hand, the corresponding Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ vs. Δ^{13} CH₃D values would 607 increase (Giunta et al., 2021). Both these variation trends follow a 1:1 slope in the $\delta^2 H$ 608 vs. δ^{13} C and Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ vs. Δ^{13} CH₃D plots (Figure S4; constrained by the beta value 609 610 (0.05) for single or double substituted isotopologues). Either plot for the data reported 611 in this study reveals that diffusion seems to account for multiple linear distributions of isotopic compositions (Figure S4). However, if a δ^{13} C value of -33‰ (CLP; 612 thermogenic methane) is used to anchor one end of the diffusion trend in the plot of 613 Δ^{13} CH₃D vs. δ^{13} C (Figure S4), it is apparent that the variations in δ^{13} C value is not 614 sufficient to account for those in Δ^{13} CH₃D value (nearly all data points plotted above 615 616 the diffusion trend). If diffusion is the governing mechanism for isotopic fractionation, the anchor point in δ^{13} C axis has to be set at a higher value (> -20‰), a scenario more 617 618 likely representing abiotic source and not supported by the current data. Again, 619 diffusion could not explain the data variation.

620 Overall, the data pattern, geological context, and the projected temperature based 621 on individual isotopologue abundance are not in favor of the re-equilibration, 622 microbial methane oxidation, and diffusive transport as a broad-scaled control on the 623 variations in bulk and clumped isotopic compositions. For those clumped isotopic 624 compositions off the equilibrium line, the mixing between thermogenic and microbial 625 sources appears to be the most plausible explanation for most samples (see section 5.3 626 for details). Since these samples are distributed in several structural domains, the 627 exchange of fluids and gases between domains is unlikely. Lumping all data together 628 across structural domains could have potentially masked the intrinsic characteristics 629 associated with primary and secondary mechanisms responsible for the formation or 630 alteration of methane for individual structural domains or samples. To unequivocally 631 discern methane origins in such a tectonically complex and fragmented terrain like 632 Taiwan, a wider coverage of sampling with designated targets and designed 633 laboratory experiments is warranted.

634

5.3 Mixing of methane, helium, and nitrogen between sources

636 The isotopologue abundances provide an extra dimension to account for a 637 mixed origin, in addition to bulk isotopic compositions and abundance ratios. The 638 mixing scenarios are discussed here in accordance with the structural domains. As the 639 exact mechanisms and characteristics of abiotic methane are still vague, the mixing 640 scenarios are limited to using thermogenic and microbial end components. In 641 principle, the highest estimated temperatures based on isotopologue abundances for 642 the individual structural domain were selected as the thermogenic end component. 643 Results obtained from culture experiments (Young et al., 2017; Giunta et al., 2019) 644 were first used as the microbial end component. Other than that, environmental 645 samples indisputably attributed to methanogenesis could also be considered. To avoid 646 of arbitrary designation, it would be even better if the target samples and 647 environmental samples treated as the end component could belong to a similar/same 648 geological context. Therefore, the potential heterogeneity of the end component 649 compositions would be taken into account. Regardless of which end component is 650 chosen, the mixing scenarios based on bulk and clumped isotopic compositions 651 should be coherent. For sites along the Chishan fault, methane from some sites 652 (SYNH-01 and WSD-01) was partially produced by secondary CO_2 reduction (see

653 section 5.1). Their bulk isotopic compositions slightly deviated from the potential end 654 component of thermal maturation ascribed to SYNH-02. To quantify the contribution 655 of thermogenic versus microbial methane, mass conservation was first applied with a thermogenic end component represented by $\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$ of -35.3‰ and $\delta^{2}H_{CH4}$ of 656 657 -143.6‰ (site SYNH-02), and a microbial end component represented by average culture values for either CO_2 reduction methanogenesis ($\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$ of -51.1‰ and 658 $\delta^2 H_{CH4}$ of -389.4‰) or methylotrophic methanogenesis ($\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$ of -45.8‰ and 659 $\delta^2 H_{CH4}$ of -299.4‰) (Young et al., 2017; Giunta et al., 2019). For sites SYNH-01 and 660 661 WSD-01, their similar bulk isotopic compositions both yielded 10% and 25% 662 contributions of microbial methane from CO₂ and methylated compounds, 663 respectively (Figure S5). Similar approaches were adopted in the isotopologue mixing model (Δ^{13} CH₃D of 2.13‰ and Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ of 5.47‰ from site SYNH-02 for the 664 thermogenic end component; Δ^{13} CH₃D of 2.90‰ and Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ of -16.46‰ from 665 666 methanogens in laboratory (Giunta et al., 2019; Young et al., 2017) as the average 667 microbial end component). The calculation yielded a 60% microbial fraction for site 668 SYNH-01, and 45% for site WSD-01, from CO₂ reduction methanogenesis (Figure 669 S5). For comparison, the isotopologue mixing model based on methylotrophic 670 methanogenesis could not replicate the observations.

671 Marine sediments collected offshore Taiwan (FR and FWCR) as the potential 672 microbial end component were also assessed. These two samples possessed bulk isotopic compositions typical for microbial methane ($\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$ of -69‰ and $\delta^{2}H_{CH4}$ of 673 674 -190‰). Their clumped isotopic compositions were, however, distinct from the 675 culture representatives, and distributed off the equilibrium line (Figure 2) in the space 676 occupied with a number of data points from marine sediments (Ash et al., 2019; 677 Giunta et al., 2022). The mixing scenarios are not coherent between clumped and bulk 678 isotopic compositions. While the isotopologue mixing model yielded a microbial 679 contribution ranging from 20% to 60%; Figure S5), the bulk-based mixing model 680 yielded a much less microbial contribution (<10%) with greater uncertainties.

681 For sites in the Chukou fault, the Gutingkeng anticline, and the Coastal Range, a 682 mixing model was constructed using a similar thermogenic end component (KTL for 683 the Chukou fault, SYNH-02 for the Gutingkeng anticline, and LS for the Coastal 684 Range) and a microbial end component derived from marine sediments (either 685 FR/FWCR values or $\delta^2 H_{CH4}$ and $\Delta^{12}CH_2D_2$ values slightly smaller than FR/FWCR values). The calculations for bulk isotopic and isotopologue mixing yielded comparable fractions (40% to 80% for bulk isotope mixing and 20% to 90% for isotopologue mixing) of the microbial end component (Figure S5), a pattern consistent with the detection of methanogens using different substrates in these regions (Chang et al., 2012; Ling et al., 2012; Wang et al. 2014).

691 Helium isotopic ratios ranged from 0.1 to 6.8 Ra (Figure 3; Table S4). Most ratios 692 (except for sites AT, CLP, CLS, TDS, GI, and LS) were smaller than 1 Ra, indicating 693 that the gases originated from a crustal component. The N₂ isotopologue results 694 appear to be correlated with helium isotopes. Three sites (KTL-02, WSD-01, and AT) 695 showed Δ_{30} values ranging between +11‰ and +17‰ (Figure S3; Table S3;). This is 696 lower than the air value of +19.3‰ (Yeung et al., 2017) but much higher than 0‰ 697 observed for crustal and volcanic nitrogen (Labidi et al., 2020), suggesting the 698 addition of the air to deep crustal/volcanic nitrogen. A mass balance calculation 699 yielded that 40-80% of the N₂ in the gas mixtures must be accounted for by the 700 air-derived nitrogen. In other words, the nitrogen with a deep origin with a Δ_{30} value 701 of 0% (Labidi et al., 2020) contributed to 20-60% of the gas mixtures. While no robust $\delta^{15}N$ estimate could be provided for the crustal nitrogen end component, $\delta^{15}N$ 702 703 values tend to vary towards a more negative range (-2.1%) for the samples with the 704 highest air contributions. This likely reflects mass-dependent fractionation of 705 atmospheric nitrogen in the subsurface (Labidi and Young, 2022), rather than a 706 signature from deep nitrogen. The Δ_{30} pattern for KTL and WSD in the Western 707 Foothills is consistent with crustal helium signatures and methane formations at 708 temperatures of 260°C (for KTL). However, the deep nitrogen source for AT in the 709 Coastal Range is not necessarily only the crustal component. Its ³He/⁴He ratio is 710 relatively high (2.3 Ra), suggesting a mixture between mantle and air/crust. The bulk 711 and clumped isotopic compositions of methane are interpreted as the abiotic origin 712 with the formation temperature or depth unconstrained (see sections 5.1 and 5.4 for 713 details). If nitrogen shares the same source of helium, the deep source is at least 714 partially composed of the mantle component. For comparison, the two GI duplicates 715 with 6.7 Ra and 6.8 Ra showed Δ_{30} values of 3.1‰ and 1.8‰, a range close to 0‰. This likely reflects marginal (<10%) air contributions. Their δ^{15} N values were +3.6%. 716 717 a pattern consistent with the signature associated with subducted nitrogen, which is 718 later accumulated in sub-arc mantle sources worldwide (Busigny et al., 2011, Epstein

et al., 2021, Labidi et al., 2021), and previously hypothesized to contribute nitrogen to
surface vents in Taiwan (Roulleau et al., 2015). Together with mantle-derived helium,
the recycled nitrogen must have been remobilized towards the surface via volcanism
followed by hydrothermal interactions.

723 While the origins of methane from sites CLP, CLS, TDS, and LS could be 724 constrained by bulk isotopic and isotopologue compositions, and abundance ratios 725 (thermogenic for sites CLP, CLS and LS, and microbial for site TDS), their 726 anomalous helium isotopic compositions deserve special attentions. The analyses 727 yielded ³He/⁴He ratios that ranged from 1.8 Ra (TDS and LS) to 5.4 Ra (CLP and CLS) 728 and were comparable with data reported previously for sites CLP, CLS (Fu et al., 729 2021), and LS (Yang et al., 2003). The values suggest a mixture between crustal (0.01 730 Ra) and mantle components (>8 Ra) (Poreda & Craig, 1989). Except for site LS, the 731 involvement of a mantle contribution is intriguing since the other three sites are all 732 part of the accretionary prism with sporadic volcanism that dates back to 17 Ma and is 733 potentially associated with the opening of the South China Sea (Chen, 2016). These 734 igneous rocks in the subsurface might serve to account for the continuous degassing 735 of helium with mantle signatures. Alternatively, the supply of helium with mantle 736 signatures could have been along the fault or fracture network extending to the mantle 737 depth. In this regard, helium with mantle signatures should have pervasively 738 infiltrated into the fracture systems of the accretionary prism and been observed at a 739 regional scale, which is not the case in this study. For site LS, the impingement of the 740 Luzon Arc on the Eurasian continent has emplaced numerous igneous bodies in the 741 Coastal Range. Like what has been observed for site GI, helium with mantle 742 signatures could have originated from the igneous intrusion in the subsurface. 743 Regardless of the source region, methane and hydrocarbons from igneous bodies are 744 generally considered to possess abiotic signatures, which were not observed for sites 745 associated with sedimentary formations (CLP, CLS, TDS, and LS) but were 746 consistent with the arc setting for sites AT and GI.

Overall, the origins of methane, helium, and nitrogen gases could have been segregated into different compartments of the subduction system. Therefore, their individual mixing patterns would not be necessarily coupled but rather reflect the complexity of sources, transport paths, and fracture connectivity in the tectonically fragmented terrain of Taiwan. 752

753 5.4 Potential abiogenic methane in the Coastal Range

754 The methane recovered from sites AT and GI is interpreted as originating from abiotic Fischer-Tropsch Type processes. Their $\Delta^{13}CH_3D$ and $\Delta^{12}CH_2D_2$ values 755 756 (Figure 2) overlap with the range for abiotic methane reported in previous studies 757 (Young et al., 2017) and are distributed near (for site GI) or on the equilibrium line 758 (for site AT; corresponding to ~23°C) (Figure 2). Laboratory constraints have shown 759 that such surface catalyzed reactions between hydrogen and CO or CO₂ on different 760 metal sulfides proceed at temperatures between 70°C and 600°C (Etiope & Lollar, 761 2013). Field observations and interpretations that combined bulk isotopic 762 compositions, abundance ratios, and water/geological characteristics for regions with 763 prevalent serpentinization have further extended the possible temperature to between 764 50°C and 500°C (Etiope & Lollar, 2013). Limited experiments, however, have shown 765 that methane synthesized from the Sabatier reactions catalyzed by Ru at 70-600°C yielded Δ^{13} CH₃D and Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values either on the high temperature end of the 766 767 equilibrium line (>400°C) or distributed over a wide range below the equilibrium line $(\Delta^{13}CH_3D \text{ between } 0\% \text{ and } +4.5\% \text{ and } \Delta^{12}CH_2D_2 \text{ between } -55\% \text{ and } 0\%)$ (Young et 768 al., 2017). For comparison, Δ^{13} CH₃D and Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values for Chimaera and Kidd 769 770 Creek samples attributed to abiotic in origin are distributed either along the segment 771 of the equilibrium line between 25°C and 150°C or below the equilibrium line (Young 772 et al., 2017). The data pattern obtained in this study is distinct from the experimental 773 constraints but resembles the field observations. However, the temperature estimate 774 based on isotopologue abundances is much lower than the field observation for site 775 AT (23° C versus 62° C). Such temperature contradiction suggests that both 776 isotopologues do not reach internal equilibrium and thus do not record a true 777 formation temperature. In addition, helium isotopic compositions for sites GI and AT 778 were 6.7 Ra and 2.4 Ra, respectively (Table S4). This range of helium isotope 779 compositions suggests a higher mantle fraction and is comparable with the proximity 780 to igneous bodies associated with the arc impingement. Overall, the close 781 resemblance of isotopologue abundances between these two sites and Chimaera/Kidd 782 Creek combined with the higher contribution of mantle helium reinforces the 783 interpretation that methane from these two sites is abiotic in origin. The formation 784 could have proceeded at temperatures slightly lower than those imposed by

785 experimental constraints. Alternatively, post-formation resetting of abiotic methane isotopologues, dominated by changes in Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ as described by Labidi et al. (2020) 786 might explain the shift from a purely abiotic isotopologue signature to one near 787 788 equilibrium at lower temperatures, although the temperature disparity remains. The 789 possibility that the abiogenic-like signatures are derived from AOM (Warr et al., 2021; 790 Giunta et al., 2022; see section 5.2 for more discussion), thermal maturation of 791 organic matters circulated from surface waters (Fiebig et al., 2019) or biodegradation 792 of organic matters with H₂ produced by serpentinization (Xia & Gao, 2021) is noted. 793

794 5.5 Water isotopic compositions

795 Isotopic compositions of water fell within the range reported previously (Chao 796 et al., 2011; You et al., 2004). Among data points, several for sites LS and AT in the 797 Coastal Range, and site WF in the Chukou fault were distributed near or along the 798 global and local meteoric water lines (Peng et al., 2010; Figure 4a). While data 799 points for site GI clustered around a seawater composition (Table S5), all the other 800 data points deviated from the meteoric water line and exhibited various degrees of 801 ¹⁸O enrichment (Figure 4a). By combining with previous results, two variation 802 trends could be drawn. The first one is composed of data points for the Chishan fault, 803 Gutingkeng anticline, and Coastal Plain, whereas the second one comprises data 804 points solely from the Chukou fault. Both trends share a common end component enriched with ¹⁸O ($\delta^{18}O_{H20}$ values were +7‰). The presence of such an ¹⁸O-enriched 805 806 water is also observed in a previous study for the porewater retrieved from the TY 807 mud volcano offshore southwestern Taiwan, and could best be accounted for by deep 808 water derived from the smectite dehydration at 100-150°C (Chen et al., 2020). Using 809 the average geothermal gradient for the offshore region (25°C/km; Chi and Reed, 810 2008), the depth corresponding to the water formation has been estimated to range 811 between 3.6 km and 5.7 km below the seafloor (Chen et al., 2020). If this end 812 component is prevalent in the accretionary wedge across marine and terrestrial realms, 813 the water mixture would be bracketed by three end components, including deep 814 water (stated above), seawater-like water, and meteoric water.

For sites in the Chishan fault, Gutingkeng anticline, and Coastal Plain, the data
distribution (Figure 4a) suggests a greater contribution of seawater-like water over
meteoric water. Except for site TDS, most mud volcanoes in western Taiwan are

818 located at least 10 km from the shoreline (Figure S1). Therefore, the scenario of the 819 seawater intrusion is less likely. Instead, the seawater-like composition could have 820 been derived from relic seawater trapped during sedimentation. In contrast, for sites 821 in the Chukou fault, the data distribution is aligned clearly with an end component 822 comparable with the compositions of meteoric water retrieved from the southern 823 plain or mountains (Peng et al., 2010).

824 Finally, the involvement of an end component resembling meteoric water 825 suggests a short residence time of water circulation. Constraining the exact age or 826 residence time of water from mud volcanoes is challenging as the tracers available for 827 such a geological context are limited, and no data has been published to date. Site LS 828 was chosen as an example to constrain the potential limit for the circulation of 829 meteoric water as its water isotopic compositions fell on the local meteoric water line. 830 Based on the isotopologue abundances, the temperature and depth for methane 831 formation for site LS were estimated to be up to 90-100°C and 2-3 km below the land 832 surface, respectively. If this depth limit to the circulation of meteoric water is also 833 applied to all mud volcanoes in the Western Foothills, a fast-track path from recharge 834 of meteoric water to discharge along the fracture network at depths of less than 3 km 835 would be required. To accommodate this possibility, the fracture opening derived 836 from the depressurization and thrust displacement related to the rapid uplift and 837 erosion is speculated to enable bedrock more permeable for recharge and deep 838 penetration of water. The inference might not be the unique cause for tectonically 839 fragmented terrains with rapid uplift and erosion (Chen et al., 2015; Dadson et al., 840 2003), as previous studies have demonstrated that isotopic compositions of cored 841 calcite veins from a 2000-m deep borehole (Wang et al., 2010) and hot springs 842 sampled from northern Taiwan are indicative of meteoric in origin (Chao et al., 2021; 843 Lu et al., 2020). These results suggest that meteoric water could be recharged and 844 circulated to deeper regions, heated up by the exhumed bedrocks that still preserve the 845 relic heat associated with rapid uplift, and discharged along the fracture network to the 846 surface outcrops.

The isotopic compositions of water suggest water circulation along different paths and the contribution of water compartmentalized in different source regions. For most samples from eastern Taiwan and few from western Taiwan, the meteoric nature further implied that water circulation is rapid with a short residence time in the subsurface. Therefore, isotopic exchange between water and minerals is not substantially enough to alter the resultant water composition. In contrast, the majority of samples from western Taiwan bear the contribution of deep water that has experienced prolonged water-rock/mineral interactions. Water circulation along the divergent, and complex fracture network in the accretionary wedge enables the mixing process of deep water with either the formation water or meteoric water at shallow depths.

In addition to water origins, water isotopic compositions were used to constrain source characteristics of both water and methane. Estimated temperatures based on deuterium exchange between water and methane were compared with temperatures assessed by methane isotopologue abundances. The thermometer is adopted from Horibe and Craig (1995) using the following equation (for temperatures between 0°C and 370°C):

864

865 $\alpha(H_2O_{Liq}/CH_4) = 1.0997 + 8456/T^2 + 0.9611 \times 10^9/T^4 - 27.82 \times 10^{12}/T^6$ eq. 8 866

867 where α is the ratio of ²H/¹H of water to methane, and T is in Kevin.

868 For sites CLP, CLS, SYNH-02, and WD where isotopologue equilibrium is 869 reached and deep water predominates over the other component, the temperatures 870 estimated from the deuterium fractionations between methane and water ($\varepsilon_{CH4,H2O}$) correspond closely to the temperatures predicted by Δ^{13} CH₃D and Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values 871 (Figure 4; Table S5). Comparable temperature estimates could be obtained for two 872 873 additional sites (sites SYNH-01, and LCW) if only Δ^{13} CH₃D values were considered. 874 For the equilibrium fractionation associated with deuterium exchange, two phases 875 (methane and water) were involved. Therefore, comparable temperature estimates 876 deduced from isotopic substitution within a phase and between phases suggest that methane and water shared a common source region, and the isotopic exchange 877 between ¹³CH₃D and water is more rapid than between ¹²CH₂D₂ and water. The 878 $\Delta^{13}CH_3D/\Delta^{12}CH_2D_2$ values paired with $\epsilon_{CH4-H2O}$ values for all the other sites fell off 879 880 the equilibrium line (Figure 4). Since methane and water from these sites represent a 881 mixture of different sources, isotopic exchange within a phase or between phases 882 after mixing does not reach equilibrium, possibly due to insufficient time or a kinetic 883 barrier imposed by the relatively low temperature. Finally, temperature estimates

884 based on paired isotopologue abundances were coherent for site LS in eastern 885 Taiwan. However, the methane isotopologue abundances did not reach equilibrium 886 with deuterium in the water. The data pattern contrasts with other studies (Giunta et 887 al., 2019; Wang et al., 2015) and suggests that meteoric water percolating into the 888 deep subsurface does not coexist with methane sufficiently long or methane is not 889 completely dissolved in water to achieve isotopic equilibrium between phases. Again, 890 consistent with the interpretation based solely on water isotopic compositions, the 891 water circulation is likely rapid so the residence time is short.

892

893 5.6 Depth constraints using isotopologue-based temperature estimates

894 Our results indicated that the temperature estimates for sites CLP, CLS, KTL, 895 SYNH-02, WD, and LS ranged from 99°C to 260°C (Table S2 and S6). Using 896 measured local geothermal gradients (Chi & Reed, 2008) and assuming a surface 897 temperature of 20° C, the methane generation depth was estimated to range from 2 to 898 9 km. The sites where methane reaches internal equilibrium are primarily distributed 899 in three major structural features: sites CLP, CLS, and KTL in the Chukou fault, site 900 SYNH-02 in the Chishan fault, and site LS in the Longitudinal Valley fault. The 901 Chukou fault is an east dipping thrust oriented NE-SW (Yeh et al., 2016). Balanced 902 cross sections suggest that the fault probably represents a complex fault system with 903 subsurface branches forming an imbricate structure and an anticline underneath (Yeh 904 et al., 2016). The fault and its branches are generally parallel to bedding within the 905 Miocene formation and could be considered as part of the detachment fault 906 extending to a depth of 7-8 km. The depth estimate ranged from 7-8 km for site CLP, 907 to 4-5 km for site CLS, and to 6-8 km for site KTL (Figure 5a). As the formations 908 are deformed and fragmented, water and gas transport could follow multiple routes 909 interconnected to each other. Therefore, the estimated depth could be representative 910 of the detachment fault and its related fracture system. For comparison, the Chishan 911 fault is a high-angled, east dipping thrust with a left lateral component, and 912 represents one of the branches of the detachment fault propagating westward (Rau et 913 al., 2012). The depth estimates for site SYNH-02 were 8-9 km (Figure 5b), a range 914 deeper than that reported for sampling in 2017 (Rumble et al., 2018; Supporting 915 information) and coinciding with the extension of the detachment fault (10-12 km) 916 in the region (Chen, 2016). The occurrence is also consistent with the origin of 917 ¹⁸O-enriched water retrieved from sites SYNH-01 and -02. Site WD is located 918 further west of site SYNH-02 in the Coastal Plain and is not associated with any 919 apparent fault outcrop. Based on seismic reflection, mud diapirism oriented NE-SW 920 offshore this region has been identified (Chen et al., 2014). Site WD is aligned well 921 with the onshore extension of one of the offshore mud diapirs. Whether the 922 estimated formation depth of 7 km corresponds to the base of mud diapir or the 923 detachment fault remains uncertain. Regardless of the source characteristics, its 924 water isotopic composition is comparable with that of site SYNH-02 and the 925 designated deep water. Finally, the Longitudinal Valley fault is the plate boundary 926 thrust with a high angle dipping east and a left lateral sense (Chang et al., 2000). The 927 hanging wall formation (Lichi formation) hosts site LS, and is composed of 928 unlithified clays with rock fragments of various lithologies (e.g., ultramafic, 929 meta-sandstone) (Chen et al., 2007). This combined with intensively shearing 930 suggests its intimate relationship with the subduction. The depth estimate of 2-3 km 931 (Figure 5c) for this site probably corresponds to a source region at the base of the 932 Lichi formation intersected by the Longitudinal Valley fault.

933

934 6. Conclusions

935 Our methane isotopologue results combined with helium, nitrogen, water, and 936 CO₂ related isotopic compositions reveal a spectrum of geochemical characteristics 937 that point to diverse formation mechanisms and conditions for gases and water 938 emanating from mud volcanoes, seeps, and springs investigated. Thermogenic 939 methane was formed at temperatures ranging between 99°C and 260°C and appears to 940 constitute a major component of hydrocarbons. The depths (2-9 km) corresponding to 941 the estimated temperatures suggest a strong structural control that influences water 942 and gas pathways. Thermogenic methane from a deep source is likely mixed by 943 various degrees with abiotic methane pertinent to igneous bodies emplaced during 944 subduction/collision, or microbial methane at shallow depths prior to being 945 discharged to the atmosphere or seawater. Our results also suggest the potential 946 decoupling of methane from water or helium sources, and an evolving depth range or 947 mixing contribution for methane formation. Such patterns are consistent with active 948 orogenesis, where gas and water channeling can undergo temporal and spatial 949 variations associated with terrain fragmentation and dynamic structural control over

950 the course of mountain building.

951

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- 1328

1329 Figure captions

1330 Figure 1. Isotopic and abundance characteristics of hydrocarbons and CO₂ for analyzed samples. (a) $\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$ versus $\delta^{2}H_{CH4}$ values (data from Table S2); (b) 1331 $C_1/(C_2+C_3)$ ratios versus $\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$ values (data from Table S1); (c) $\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$ 1332 versus $\delta^{13}C_{CH4}$ values (data from Table S1). The plotted fields are divided into 1333 1334 areas for "primary microbial" (shaded in green and blue), "secondary microbial" 1335 (encircled by dashed lines and abbreviated as "SM"), "thermogenic" (shaded in 1336 yellow), and "abiotic" (shaded in orange) formation processes following the ranges of Milkov and Etiope (2018). "Primary microbial" methane is further 1337 1338 divided into two categories, with "F" for the fermentation of methylated 1339 compounds, and "CR" for the CO₂ reduction. Results are categorized by structural domains (yellow squares - Chukou Fault, green circles - Chishan 1340 1341 Fault, crosses - Guitingkeng Anticline, light yellow circles - Coastal Plain, blue 1342 squares - offshore FR and FWCR sites, orange triangles - Coastal Range). 1343 Green and black arrows in (a) and (b) show the possible trends for microbial 1344 methane oxidation and diffusion of migratory methane, respectively. The slope

of the arrow does not indicate the precise variation trend. Some published
results for different processes simultaneously characterized by the abundances
of doubly substituted isotopologues (Young et al., 2017; Giunta et al., 2019) are
plotted for comparison.

1349

Figure 2. Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ versus Δ^{13} CH₃D values for analyzed samples. The equilibrium 1350 1351 curve marked with temperature was calculated following Young et al. (2016). 1352 Sample legends are the same as those in Figure 1. Values for microbial methane 1353 produced from methylated compounds and from CO₂ in the lab (blue diamonds 1354 encompassed with an arbitrarily defined range in green and gray; Young et al., 1355 2017 and Giunta et al., 2019), abiotic methane produced in the laboratory 1356 (orange diamonds) or recovered from the field (gray circles with cross marks) 1357 (Young et al., 2017) are plotted for comparison. Green, black, and blue arrows 1358 show the possible trends for aerobic oxidation of methane, diffusion of 1359 migratory methane, and anaerobic oxidation of methane (AOM), respectively. 1360 The slope of the arrow does not indicate the precise variation trend. Data 1361 distribution within the region encircled by a dashed rectangle is enlarged in the 1362 lower right corner.

1363

Figure 3. ²⁰Ne/⁴He versus ³He/⁴He ratios (in Ra) for analyzed samples. A three
end-component mixing model encompasses "crust", "mantle", and "air"
components with He isotope ratios of 0.01, 8, and 1 Ra, respectively (Poreda &
Craig, 1989). Legends are the same as those in Figure 1.

1368

1369 Figure 4. Water isotopic compositions and fractionations, and methane isotopologue abundances. (a) Water $\delta^2 H$ versus $\delta^{18} O$ values for analyzed samples. Legends 1370 are the same as those in Figure 1 (except for the red star for seawater from the 1371 1372 Green Island; small blue circles for meteoric water in eastern and southern 1373 Taiwan). The solid line indicates the global meteoric water line (GMWL; Craig, 1374 1961), whereas the dashed line is the local meteoric water line (LMWL; Peng et 1375 al., 2010). The dotted lines with arrows indicate the potential mixing between deeply sourced water and meteoric water or seawater. Data for mud volcanoes 1376 published in previous studies are also plotted for comparison. (b) Δ^{13} CH₃D and 1377 (c) Δ^{12} CH₂D₂ values versus hydrogen isotopic fractionations (ε ; defined as 1378 $(\alpha-1)\times 1000$ %, where α is the fractionation factor (eq. 8) between methane and 1379 1380 water). The equilibrium curves (in blue dashed lines) are plotted using the 1381 relationships described in Horita & Wesolowski (1994) and Horibe & Craig (1995). The dotted lines indicate an infinite temperature that is based on twomethane isotopologue abundances (Young et al., 2016).

1384

1385 Figure 5. Schematic geological cross sections (modified from Chen (2016)) overlaid 1386 with the estimated depths of methane formation (solid orange circles) based on 1387 methane isotopologue abundances (this study) and local geothermal gradients 1388 (Chi & Reed, 2008) (Table S6). The geographic distribution of each cross 1389 section is excerpted from the solid lines in Figure 5d. Faults with the shearing 1390 sense related to individual structural domains were shown in black dashed lines 1391 with arrows. The estimated depths of methane formation are projected directly 1392 on the related faults to help visualize the possible two-dimensional range where 1393 methane is formed. Therefore, it is likely that the exact positions of methane 1394 formation deviate from the attributed fault systems (e.g., blind faults). 1395 Interpretations for the origins of methane and helium are also provided in 1396 parentheses next to site names with the first letter denoting for methane (T for 1397 thermogenic, B for biogenic, and A for abiotic) and the second letter for helium 1398 (C for crust and M for mantle). Although the temperature (and depth) estimate 1399 (~190°C) based on two methane isotopologue abundances for site WD is 1400 available, no schematic cross section has been published due to the lack of 1401 subsurface geology data.

1402

Figure 1.



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Figure 2.



Figure 3.



Figure 4.



Figure 5.

