

Thermodynamic constraints on the formation of condensed carbon from serpentinization fluids

Vincent Milesi, Thomas M Mccollom, François Guyot

▶ To cite this version:

Vincent Milesi, Thomas M Mccollom, François Guyot. Thermodynamic constraints on the formation of condensed carbon from serpentinization fluids. Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta, 2016, 189, pp.391-403. 10.1016/j.gca.2016.06.006 . hal-04755670

HAL Id: hal-04755670 https://hal.science/hal-04755670v1

Submitted on 28 Oct 2024

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1	THERMODYNAMIC CONSTRAINTS ON THE FORMATION OF CONDENSED
2	CARBON FROM SERPENTINIZATION FLUIDS
3	Vincent Milesi ^{a,*} , Thomas M. McCollom ^b and François Guyot ^c
4	
5	^a Équipe de Géochimie des Eaux,
6	Institut de Physique du Globe de Paris,
7	Sorbonne Paris Cité,
8	Université Paris Diderot,
9	UMR CNRS 7154,
10	F-75005 Paris, France.
11	
12	^b Laboratory for Atmospheric and Space Physics
13	University of Colorado
14	Boulder. Colorado 80309, USA
15	
16	^c Institut de minéralogie et de physique des matériaux et de cosmochimie,
17	Sorbonne Université. Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle,
18	UMR 7590, CNRS, UPMC, MNHN, IRD,
19	F-75005 Paris, France.

- 21 ^{*} Corresponding author:
- *E-mail address:* <u>milesi@ipgp.fr</u> (Vincent Milesi)

Abstract

Recent studies have identified carbonaceous material in serpentinite bodies, but 24 whether these deposits have a biologic or abiotic origin remains uncertain. In this work, 25 thermodynamic calculations were performed to examine the potential for abiotic condensed 26 carbonaceous material to be produced from serpentinization-derived fluids under 27 hydrothermal conditions. Calculation of reaction pathways during serpentinization of olivine 28 29 showed that fluid compositions should equilibrate with condensed carbonaceous material, which controls the H₂ and CO₂ activities. Fluids from laboratory serpentinization experiments 30 and from the Lost City and the Rainbow hydrothermal field are shown to be consistent with 31 this model. The predictions indicate that carbonaceous material should be the dominant 32 carbon product of CO₂ reduction in these hydrothermal settings, which would have significant 33 implications for a number of processes, including the deep Earth carbon cycle by creating a 34 pool of relatively immobile reduced carbon, the extent of H₂ production in ultrabasic 35 36 environments, and mechanisms leading to abiotic reduced carbon compounds.

37

38 1. INTRODUCTION

olivine

orthopyroxene

It is widely recognized that the serpentinization of ultramafic rocks creates strongly 39 reducing conditions that are favorable for abiotic reduction of inorganic carbon. Indeed, there 40 is mounting evidence that fluids discharged from actively serpentinizing systems contain 41 methane, formate and other simple organic compounds formed by abiotic carbon reduction 42 within these systems (Charlou et al., 2002, 2010; Proskurowski et al., 2008; Lang et al., 2010; 43 Etiope et al., 2013a, 2013b; Etiope and Sherwood Lollar, 2013; McDermott et al., 2015). In 44 addition, a number of laboratory studies have demonstrated that methane and other small 45 organic compounds can be generated from reduction of inorganic carbon at conditions 46 simulating those of hydrothermal serpentinization fluids (Berndt et al., 1996; Horita and 47 Berndt, 1999; McCollom and Seewald, 2001, 2003; Foustoukos and Seyfried, 2004; Seewald 48 et al., 2006; Fu et al., 2007). 49

50 In general terms, the serpentinization of ultramafic rocks can be represented by the 51 reaction:

52
$$(Mg,Fe)_2SiO_4 + (Mg,Fe)SiO_3 + H_2O \rightarrow (Mg,Fe)_3Si_2O_5(OH)_4 \pm (Mg,Fe)(OH)_2 + Fe_3O_4 + H_2$$
 (1)

serpentine

brucite

magnetite

The generation of H_2 during this process results from oxidation of ferrous iron (Fe^{II}) released by the primary minerals through reaction with H_2O , producing ferric iron (Fe^{III}) that precipitates in magnetite or serpentine. The formation of methane and other organic compounds is generally thought to proceed from reduction of inorganic carbon by the H_2 generated by Rxn. 1, which can be expressed in general as:

59
$$\operatorname{CO}_2 + \operatorname{H}_2 \rightarrow \operatorname{CH}_4 + \operatorname{C}_2\operatorname{H}_6 + \operatorname{HCOOH} + \ldots + \operatorname{H}_2\operatorname{O}$$
 (2)

60

53

methane ethane formic acid

While the evidence for abiotic generation of small organic compounds during 61 62 serpentinization has gotten stronger over the last couple of decades, it has remained uncertain whether carbon reduction extends to more complex compounds. Holm and Charlou (2001) 63 observed long-chain hydrocarbons (C_{16} - C_{29}) in extracts of hydrothermal fluids from the 64 ultramafic-hosted Rainbow system on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge (MAR) which they inferred 65 were derived from abiotic reduction of inorganic carbon by Fischer-Tropsch-type (FTT) 66 67 processes. However, subsequent studies have not found any definitive evidence for long-chain hydrocarbons or other high-molecular-weight organic compounds with an abiotic origin at 68 Rainbow or at other ultramafic-hosted sites on the MAR (Konn et al., 2009, 2012; McCollom 69 70 et al., 2015). Delacour et al. (2008) identified a number of long-chain linear alkanes resembling those produced by FTT reactions in serpentinized rocks recovered near the Lost 71 City hydrothermal field. However, the presence of biomarker compounds such as pristine and 72 73 phytane indicated that there was a substantial contribution of biologically derived organic matter to the rocks, making evaluations of a possible abiotic source for the alkanes equivocal. 74 75 In samples of deep altered oceanic crust, Shilobreeva et al. (2011) measured bulk carbon with a heavy isotopic composition that they explained as a mixture between carbonate and organic 76 compounds produced from the abiotic reduction of magmatic CO₂. Recent studies by Ménez 77 78 et al. (2012) and Pasini et al. (2013) identified macromolecular carbon deposits in serpentinites recovered from the subseafloor, which were interpreted to be ultimately derived 79 from biological organisms. Over the years, several studies reported the occurrence of graphite 80 associated with serpentinites (e.g., Krishnarao, 1964; Chidester, 1978; Pasteris, 1981, 1988; 81 Luque et al., 1992, 1998; Miura et al., 2011; Galvez et al., 2013; Kawamoto et al., 2013). 82 Although it has been suggested that these graphite deposits precipitated from reduction of 83 CO₂ transported into the rocks by hydrothermal fluids, it remains undetermined how they 84 actually formed. 85

A number of laboratory experimental studies have been performed to examine 86 87 inorganic carbon reduction during serpentinization. However, these studies have predominantly focused on formation of CH₄ and light hydrocarbons (e.g., Berndt et al., 1996; 88 Horita and Berndt, 1999; McCollom and Seewald, 2001, 2003; Foutoukos and Seyfried, 2004; 89 Fu et al., 2007). In some of these studies, mass balance calculations indicate decreases in the 90 91 amounts of dissolved inorganic carbon and of H_2 that cannot be completely accounted for by production of methane and other small organic molecules, suggesting the possibility that more 92 complex reduced carbon compounds had formed during the experiments. For example, Fu et 93 al. (2007) observed formation of dissolved CO and C1-C3 hydrocarbons during reaction of 94 magnetite with CO₂- and H₂-bearing aqueous fluids at 400°C and 50 MPa. Mass balance 95 calculations, however, indicated that ~14% of the inorganic carbon that had been included at 96 the start of the experiments could not be accounted for by the observed products. Those 97 98 authors suggested that more complex organic compounds had formed, such as longer-chain hydrocarbons. Similarly, in a recently completed series of hydrothermal serpentinization 99 100 experiments with olivine as the reactant by McCollom et al. (2016), the amounts of H₂ 101 produced during the experiments were up to 20% less than the amounts that should have been generated based on the Fe^{III} present in the reaction products. Since only trace amounts of 102 103 methane and other dissolved organic compounds were observed, these results suggest that some other forms of reduced carbon may be required to account for the "missing" H₂. 104

105 These findings prompted us to investigate the potential for production of insoluble 106 abiotic carbonaceous material during serpentinization. Thermodynamic calculations were 107 performed to explore the ability of carbonaceous material to form and to control the H_2 and 108 CO₂ compositions of aqueous fluids as the serpentinization reaction proceeds. The 109 compositions of experimental and natural fluids reported in the literature are interpreted in the 110 context of these thermodynamic models. The results have implications for diverse geologic disciplines including global carbon cycling, metamorphic petrology, and subsurfacemicrobiology.

113

114 **2. METHODOLOGY**

To place the composition of natural and experimental fluids in a thermodynamic 115 context, equilibrium phase diagrams were constructed for the Fe-O-H-C system. Comparison 116 between fluid compositions and mineral stability domains allows the solid phases expected to 117 precipitate at equilibrium to be identified, and to interpret which phases, if any, might control 118 the fluid composition. The stability domains of minerals involved in the serpentinization 119 120 reaction were calculated at temperatures from 100 to 400°C and pressures of 35 and 50 MPa using parameters generated with the SUPCRT92 package (Johnson et al., 1992), which 121 incorporates thermodynamic data from Helgeson et al. (1978) for minerals, and Shock and 122 Helgeson (1988) and Shock et al. (1989, 1997) for dissolved inorganic aqueous species. 123

124 Predictions of the compositional paths of the fluid and coexisting solids as serpentinization proceeds were calculated with the geochemical code CHESS (van der Lee et 125 al., 2002). The CHESS software simulates reactions between minerals and fluids, and 126 determines the compositions of minerals and coexisting fluids at thermodynamic equilibrium 127 through minimization of the Gibbs energy of the overall system for a given temperature at 128 129 steam saturation pressure. By taking into account mass balance, this model allows investigation of constraints on mineral and fluid composition that cannot be studied from 130 activity diagrams alone. 131

To obtain information on the evolution of fluid compositions during serpentinization of olivine, increments of olivine were added to the models and allowed to react with the fluid while keeping pressure, temperature, and the total amount of fluid constant. We stopped

increasing the amount of reacting olivine when a water: olivine mass ratio of ~ 2 was reached, 135 which is roughly equivalent to the ratio used in number of serpentinization experiments (e.g., 136 Berndt et al., 1996; McCollom and Seewald, 2001; Jones et al., 2010). This process simulates 137 systems where the progress of serpentinization is limited by slow dissolution of olivine while 138 precipitation of secondary minerals occurs at equilibrium. This assumption appears to be 139 consistent with laboratory studies of serpentization under hydrothermal conditions where 140 olivine is observed to gradually decompose while serpentine, brucite, magnetite and carbonate 141 minerals precipitate rapidly in apparent equilibrium with the fluid (Berndt et al., 1996; 142 McCollom and Seewald, 2001; Jones et al., 2010; Malvoisin et al., 2012; McCollom et al., 143 submitted). 144

The CHESS calculations were performed with the LLNL EQ3/6 database version 8 145 release 6 (e.g., Wolery and Jove-Colon, 2004) and activity coefficients of the aqueous species 146 were calculated using the truncated-Davies formula (Chandratillake and Robinson, 1990). The 147 148 LLNL EQ3/6 database contains equilibrium constants for formation reactions at steam saturation pressure (Psat). In Figure 1, compositional paths of the fluid are calculated at Psat 149 with the CHESS software and plotted in stability diagrams calculated at elevated pressure (35 150 MPa) with the SUPCRT92 package. Since pressure has relatively little effect on 151 thermodynamic equilibria involving condensed phases and dissolved aqueous species, the 152 differences between the two calculations are low and are neglected herein. Numerous organic 153 compounds are present by default in the LLNL EQ3/6 database. However, most of these are 154 not relevant to the model calculations as they are not expected to form at equilibrium with the 155 156 fluid due to kinetic limitations. Indeed, formation of methane and most other organic compounds is known to be highly sluggish at the conditions of serpentinization and 157 significant formation of methane requires the presence of specific mineral catalysts (Horita 158 159 and Berndt, 1999; Seewald et al., 2006). Overall, these compounds represent only a small

fraction of the carbon mass balance during experimental simulation of serpentinization (e.g., 160 161 Berndt, 1996, McCollom and Seewald, 2001, 2007; Foustoukos and Seyfried, 2004; Seewald et al., 2006). On the other hand, formate and formic acid are expected to rapidly equilibrate 162 163 with the fluids under serpentinization conditions (McCollom and Seewald, 2003; Seewald et al., 2006). Accordingly, a limited set of organic compounds was included in the models as 164 summarized in Table 1. The organic compounds were chosen based on their stability under 165 166 the studied serpentinization conditions. Furthermore, some calculations were performed that excluded selected organic species from the equilibrium calculations to test the influence of 167 kinetic limitations on the predicted speciation of carbon compounds (Table 2). 168

Two different phases of condensed carbonaceous material were considered in the 169 calculations. The stability domains of carbonaceous materials with relatively high 170 organization state (referred to herein as "graphitic carbon") were calculated by assuming that 171 this phase had thermodynamic properties similar to those of graphite, which is consistent with 172 173 the experimental results of Milesi et al. (2015). To investigate the possibility that a more hydrogenated phase of condensed carbon forms during serpentinization, anthracene ($C_{14}H_{10}$), 174 a polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAH) consisting of three fused benzene rings, was 175 adopted as a proxy for this phase in some calculations (referred to herein as "hydrogenated 176 carbon"). Nominally, this compound is intended as a proxy for solid, poorly ordered 177 carbonaceous materials akin to kerogen. Stability domains of various aliphatic and aromatic 178 hydrocarbons were calculated for comparison with that of anthracene (Fig. A1). The low 179 variability between the stability domains supports the use of anthracene as a proxy for a 180 181 hydrogenated phase of condensed carbon. Thermodynamic data for anthracene are from Richard and Helgeson (1998). 182

183 The starting conditions of the reaction path calculations mostly aim to parallel those of 184 the experimental studies of Berndt et al. (1996), McCollom and Seewald (2001) and McCollom et al. (2016). In the calculations as well as in the experimental studies, the reactant olivine has an Mg-rich composition (\sim Fo₉₀), representative of the chemical composition of this phase in peridotites recovered from the seafloor (Früh-Green et al., 1996, 2004; Mével and Stamoudi, 1996). The input constraints for the reaction path models, including which reduced carbon species are taken into account in each calculation, are listed in Table 2.

190 Three compositional paths (Path-1, -2 and -3) were calculated at 300°C with an aqueous solution containing initially 0.5 mol·L⁻¹ of NaCl and 20 mmol·L⁻¹ of NaHCO₃ to 191 provide a source of carbon. This results in dissolved inorganic carbon levels similar to those 192 used in the laboratory experiments, but $\sim 8 \times$ higher than the levels of seawater. At the last 193 194 increase of the amount of reacting olivine, the water:rock ratio consists of 20 g of olivine for 195 40 mL of aqueous solution. The three compositional paths differ in the reduced carbon species that are allowed to form at equilibrium with the fluid. In Path-1, all organic species listed in 196 Table 1 are considered to equilibrate with the fluid. In Path-2, alkanes are excluded from the 197 calculation. In Path-3, graphite is removed from the equilibrium system, and no reduced 198 carbon species other than anthracene, carbon monoxide and formic acid are allowed to form. 199 An additional compositional path (Path-4) is calculated with similar starting conditions as 200 *Path-2*, but with an initial amount of NaHCO₃ of 100 mmol·L⁻¹ to ensure saturation with 201 202 respect to carbonate minerals and allow investigation of the role of carbonate mineral precipitation on fluid composition. 203

For comparison with the thermodynamic models, activities of dissolved H_2 and CO_2 during laboratory serpentinization experiments and in fluids venting from natural serpentinizing systems were calculated based on measured fluid compositions. The serpentinization experiments considered included those of Berndt et al. (1996), McCollom and Seewald (2001) and McCollom et al. (2016) that initially contained olivine and an aqueous solution containing dissolved inorganic carbon, primarily in the form of bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻). Experiment #1 of Fu et al. (2007) was conducted at 400°C and 50 MPa with magnetite and an aqueous solution with 170 *m*molal of formic acid used as the primary source of dissolved carbon and hydrogen. In addition to consider the measured fluid compositions, $H_{2(aq)}$ and $CO_{2(aq)}$ compositions in the early stage of the experiment were estimated by assuming a rapid decomposition of the initial amount of 170 *m*molal of formic acid according to the reaction:

$$HCOOH = H_2 + CO_2 \tag{3}$$

Experiments of McCollom and Seewald (2003) of decomposition of formic acid in aqueous solution at 250°C and 350 bar showed a rate constant for Reaction (3) of $1 \cdot 10^{-5}$, meaning that 90% of the initial amount of formic acid decomposed in ~28 h. Higher decomposition rate are expected at the pressure and temperature conditions of the Fu et al. experiment such that it is reasonable to consider that early H_{2(aq)} and CO_{2(aq)} concentrations were both ~170 *m*mol·L⁻¹ in Experiment #1.

The concentration of total dissolved inorganic carbon is usually expressed as DIC or 223 $\Sigma CO_{2(aq)}$ in the literature ($\Sigma CO_{2(aq)} = CO_{2(aq)} + HCO_3^{-1} + CO_3^{-2}$), and was converted into CO_2 224 activity for purposes of plotting in phase stability diagrams. The equilibrium speciation of 225 $\Sigma CO_{2(aq)}$ was calculated at the in situ temperature, pressure and pH reported for the 226 experiments or natural fluids using thermodynamic parameters generated with the SUPCRT92 227 package. Conversion between activity and molality was performed using the activity 228 coefficients calculated with the CHESS software according to the truncated-Davies model. 229 Neutral species such as dissolved $CO_{2(aq)}$ and $H_{2(aq)}$ were assumed to have activity coefficients 230 equal to one. 231

232

Calculated mineral stability domains as a function of $H_{2(aq)}$ and $CO_{2(aq)}$ activities at 235 300°C and 35 MPa are shown in Figure 1. Note that olivine is thermodynamically unstable 236 with respect to the other Fe-bearing phases shown in the diagram at this temperature (see 237 McCollom and Bach, 2009). Equilibrium with hydrogenated carbonaceous material as 238 represented by anthracene is achieved for fluid compositions with higher $H_{2(aq)}$ and $CO_{2(aq)}$ 239 activities than those required for the formation of graphitic carbon. That is, at the $H_{2(aq)}$ and 240 $CO_{2(aa)}$ activities where graphite is predicted to occur in equilibrium with the fluid, 241 hydrogenated carbonaceous material is thermodynamically unstable. The evolution of 242 calculated equilibrium activities of dissolved $H_{2(aq)}$ and $CO_{2(aq)}$ during reaction paths for 243 serpentinization of olivine are projected onto the mineral domain in Figure 1. In these 244 calculations, the olivine is incrementally converted to secondary products that include 245 serpentine, brucite and magnetite (plus magnesite in the case of Path-4). The carbon 246 speciation, calculated as the percentage of carbon represented by a given species normalized 247 to the total amount of carbon in the system, as well as the fluid pH are plotted as a function of 248 the reaction progress for each of the reaction pathways in Figure 2. At the calculated values of 249 250 fluid pH, the total concentrations of formate plus formic acid (Σ HCOOH) and acetate plus acetic acid ($\Sigma CH_3 COOH$) are dominated by the anions. 251

Along each of the reaction paths, the concentration of $H_{2(aq)}$ increases due to redox reaction between water and ferrous iron in olivine, producing H_2 and ferric iron in magnetite. Concurrently, the $CO_{2(aq)}$ concentration decreases as reduced carbon species are produced (Fig. 1). In reaction *Path-1*, in which alkanes form at equilibrium with the fluid, essentially all of the initial $\Sigma CO_{2(aq)}$ is converted to CH_4 (Fig. 2a). When olivine is completely serpentinized at the end of the reaction path, the methane concentration is ~20 *m*mol·L⁻¹ and the $\Sigma CO_{2(aq)}$ concentration has decreased to ~1 *m*mol·L⁻¹. Reduced carbon species other than methane are present in only negligible amounts in the carbon mass balance, although formate is present in amounts representing up to ~1% of the total carbon during intermediate stages of the reaction (Fig. 2a). The pH at reaction conditions is predicted to increase slightly from 8.5 to 8.9 as the reaction progresses.

During reaction Path-2, formation of methane and other alkanes is considered to be 263 kinetically inhibited at the reaction conditions of 300°C and 35MPa, as indicated by results of 264 experimental studies (e.g., McCollom and Seewald, 2001; Foustoukos and Seyfried, 2004; 265 266 Seewald et al., 2006; Fu et al., 2007). At first, the $H_{2(aq)}$ concentration increases steadily with 267 increasing progress of the serpentinization reaction while the $CO_{2(aq)}$ concentration remains 268 constant. However, after ~5% of reaction progress, accumulation of $H_{2(aa)}$ causes the fluid to reach equilibrium with respect to graphitic carbon, which then precipitates and controls the 269 abundance of $H_{2(aq)}$ and $CO_{2(aq)}$ in the fluid as serpentinization of olivine proceeds further 270 (Fig. 1a and 2b). The pH values and $CO_{2(aq)}$ concentrations, relatively constant prior to 271 precipitation of graphitic carbon, increase and decrease, respectively (Fig. 2b). 272 Simultaneously, the rate of $H_{2(aq)}$ accumulation decreases as it is partially consumed to reduce 273 $\Sigma CO_{2(aq)}$ into graphitic carbon. Until graphitic carbon begins to precipitate, formate is the 274 275 dominant reduced carbon compound, and represents up to 6% of the total carbon (Fig. 2b). 276 With continued production of $H_{2(aq)}$ as serpentinization progresses, increasing amounts of $\Sigma CO_{2(aq)}$ are converted to graphitic carbon, while formate decreases and is eventually replaced 277 278 by acetate as the predominant dissolved carbon species. Towards completion of the reaction, dissolved carbon compounds represent increasingly smaller proportion of the total carbon, 279 and by the end of the reaction, graphitic carbon represents ~98% of the total. Other reduced 280 carbon compounds in the model represent only a negligible fraction of the total. 281

Path-3 assumes that the most likely solid carbon phase to form during serpentinization
would be a partially hydrogenated carbonaceous phase with abundant aromatic moieties,

which is approximated in the calculations by anthracene. Similar to Path-2, the $H_{2(aa)}$ 284 concentration in *Path-3* increases at constant $CO_{2(aq)}$ concentration during reaction progress 285 until attainment of equilibrium with the hydrogenated carbon phase (Fig. 2c). Then, 286 precipitation of hydrogenated carbon causes the fluid composition to evolve along the $CO_{2(aa)}$ 287 - hydrogenated carbon equilibrium boundary (Fig. 1a). In this calculation, serpentinization of 288 289 about 69% of the olivine is required to attain conditions that are sufficiently reducing for the hydrogenated carbon phase to begin to precipitate (Fig. 1a and 2c). Formate is the dominant 290 291 reduced carbon species all along the reaction path. Its concentration increases up to ~ 10 mmol·L⁻¹ while, concurrently, the pH value decreases slightly before rebounding when the 292 293 hydrogenated carbon phase starts forming. Once the serpentinization has gone to completion, $\Sigma CO_{2(aq)}$, $\Sigma HCOOH$ and hydrogenated carbon account for 29, 43 and 28 mol.% of the total 294 carbon, respectively. 295

Reaction Path-4 was calculated considering an initially high concentration of NaHCO₃ 296 of 100 mmol·L⁻¹. As in model *Path-2*, the formation of alkanes is assumed to be subject to 297 kinetic limitations (Table 2, Fig. 1b and 2d). In the initial stages of this reaction path, release 298 of Mg^{II} from olivine leads to precipitation of magnesite rather than brucite, drawing down 299 $\Sigma CO_{2(aq)}$. However, after ~1.4% of reaction, the fluid equilibrates with brucite, allowing both 300 brucite and magnesite to occur in equilibrium (Fig. 1b). While these two phases co-exist, they 301 buffer the $CO_{2(aq)}$ activity. Generation of $H_{2(aq)}$ as the reaction progresses leads to saturation of 302 the fluid with respect to graphitic carbon after 2.9% of reaction progress, when this phase 303 begins to precipitate in equilibrium with the fluid (Fig. 1b and 2d). From 2.9 to 19% of 304 reaction, the graphitic carbon – magnesite – brucite assemblage buffers the $H_{2(aq)}$ and $CO_{2(aq)}$ 305 composition of the fluid to fixed values (i.e., an invariant point). Eventually, however, carbon 306 reduction leads to conversion of magnesite to graphitic carbon and, once this consumes all of 307 308 the magnesite, the activities of $H_{2(aa)}$ and $CO_{2(aa)}$ are no longer buffered. The fluid 309 composition evolves along the $CO_{2(aq)}$ – graphitic carbon equilibrium until the olivine is 310 completely serpentinized, similar to that occurring in *Path-2* (Fig. 1b). At the end of the 311 simulation, the solid carbon phase represents 90% of the total carbon. Carboxylic acids are the 312 dominant dissolved organic compounds, representing 4% of the total carbon, with aqueous 313 concentrations of ~ 3 and 0.6 *m*mol·L⁻¹ of Σ HCOOH and Σ CH₃COOH, respectively.

314 *3.2. Fluid compositions during experimental studies*

Activities of $H_{2(aq)}$ and $CO_{2(aq)}$ based on measured fluid compositions during 315 laboratory experiments that were intended to simulate conditions during serpentinization are 316 317 projected onto the mineral stability diagrams shown in Figure 3. In most of the experiments, the abundance of $H_{2(aa)}$ increases while $CO_{2(aa)}$ decreases as the reactions progress. In the 318 experiments of McCollom and Seewald (2001) and McCollom et al. (2016) at 300°C, the 319 320 fluid compositions converge on the equilibrium boundary between $CO_{2(aq)}$ and graphitic carbon (Fig. 3b and c). Similar evolution of the fluid composition is observed in the 321 experiments of Fu et al. (2007) and in the McCollom et al. experiments at 265°C, suggesting 322 that the fluid could be equilibrating with a precipitated insoluble carbonaceous phase (Fig. 3d 323 and e). The decrease of $H_{2(aq)}$ in the Fu et al. experiment is due to the fluid composition 324 325 considered to be initially oversaturated relative to graphitic carbon. In the experiments of Berndt et al. (1996) at 300°C, the fluid composition converges on equilibrium between 326 327 $CO_{2(aq)}$ and hydrogenated carbon, corresponding to higher $H_{2(aq)}$ concentration than the CO_{2(aq)} – graphitic carbon equilibrium (Fig. 3a). 328

Experiments performed at lower temperatures (200-230°C) also tend to converge toward equilibrium between $CO_{2(aq)}$ and a hydrogenated carbon phase (Fig. 3f and g). In the experiment of McCollom et al. at 320°C, reaction progress was very limited and the H_{2(aq)} concentration remained low. As a consequence, the fluid did not reach the stability domain of
 graphitic carbon and the CO₂ concentration is relatively constant (Fig. 3h).

In the experiment of McCollom and Seewald (2001) at 300°C shown in Figure 3b, the EHCOOH concentrations range from 0.3 to 0.6 mmol·L⁻¹. For similar H_{2(aq)} – CO_{2(aq)} compositions as in this experiment, *Path-2* indicated concentrations of Σ HCOOH between 0.2 and 0.9 mmol·L⁻¹. These Σ HCOOH concentrations are also in the same range as those reported in natural serpentinization fluids venting from the Von Damm hydrothermal field on the Mid-Cayman Rise (McDermott et al., 2015), for which temperature and H_{2(aq)} – CO_{2(aq)} fluid composition are comparable.

341

342 4. DISCUSSION

343 *4.1 Condensed carbon in serpentinized rocks*

The results of the reaction path models indicate that the formation of solid 344 carbonaceous deposits is thermodynamically favored during serpentinization of ultramafic 345 rocks and can potentially regulate the abundance of H₂ and the speciation of carbon as the 346 reaction proceeds. However, precipitation of solid carbonaceous materials would require 347 kinetic inhibitions of the formation of methane, since the model Path-1 allowing attainment of 348 complete thermodynamic equilibrium among all carbon species results in methane becoming 349 the predominant form of carbon (Fig. 2a). The kinetic inhibition of the formation of methane 350 and other light hydrocarbons from the reduction of CO₂ was argued from many 351 complementary directions long ago and used as a constraint in reaction path calculations 352 (Shock 1990; 1992; Helgeson et al., 1993; Shock and Schulte, 1998). The consequences for 353 the formation of PAHs as a response were predicted for reactions involving volcanic gases 354 (Zolotov and Shock, 1999; 2000) and condensation of the solar nebula (Zolotov and Shock, 355

2001). Concurrently, a number of laboratory experiments have demonstrated that there are 356 indeed significant kinetic inhibitions to the conversion of dissolved inorganic carbon to 357 methane under hydrothermal conditions at the temperatures where serpentinization occurs 358 (<400 °C) (Berndt et al., 1996; McCollom and Seewald, 2001, 2003, 2007; Foustoukos and 359 Seyfried, 2004; Seewald et al., 2006; McCollom, 2013). In some circumstances, these kinetic 360 inhibitions may be overcome through catalysis by native metal alloys such as awaruite that 361 sometimes precipitate during serpentinization (Horita and Berndt, 1999). Where this does not 362 occur, however, inhibition of methane formation may allow solid carbonaceous matter to 363 form as a metastable equilibrium product of carbon reduction (Fig. 2b-d). In contrast to 364 365 methane, formation of formate and formic acid at equilibrium with the fluid as suggested by experimental studies (McCollom and Seewald, 2003; Seewald et al., 2006) and natural fluid 366 compositions (Lang et al., 2010; McDermott et al., 2015) does not preclude the fluid from 367 368 achieving equilibrium with solid carbonaceous material.

369 It seems likely that any solid carbonaceous matter that precipitates during serpentinization would occur in a disordered, amorphous form rather than as crystalline 370 graphite. Crystalline graphite is generally expected to form only at highly elevated 371 temperatures well above 400°C (e.g., Luque et al., 2009; Beyssac and Rumble, 2014; Rumble, 372 2014), which is above the temperature range of serpentinization in shallow subsurface 373 environments. Nevertheless, while there are likely to be kinetic inhibitions to formation of 374 crystalline graphite at the temperatures of serpentinization, this would not necessarily 375 376 preclude equilibrium precipitation of metastable macromolecular reduced carbon phases. For 377 instance, Milesi et al. (2015) observed the formation of solid carbonaceous deposits during experimental dissolution of siderite at temperatures of 200 and 300°C. At 200°C, grains of 378 siderite and magnetite produced during heating were coated by solid carbon whose 379 380 organization state depended on the mineral surface, while at 300°C solid carbon was found

intimately intermixed with iron oxides at the surface of siderite. Observations of these 381 382 carbonaceous deposits with a transmission electron microscope (TEM) showed that they were relatively poorly organized carbon phases, except at the surface of magnetites. In addition, 383 regardless of the reaction temperature, a C-bearing phase showing no obvious spatial 384 relationship with mineral phases was found to be highly unstable under the TEM electron 385 beam, suggesting a partially hydrogenated carbonaceous material. In similar siderite 386 decomposition experiments at 300°C, McCollom (2003) reported the formation of polycyclic 387 aromatic hydrocarbons, and the carbonaceous deposits observed by Milesi et al. (2015) may 388 have a large component of aromatic moieties. Consistent with the thermodynamic models 389 considered here, the fluid compositions in the experiments of Milesi et al. (2015) were found 390 to be in agreement with attainment of metastable equilibrium between the fluid and a 391 carbonaceous phase having thermodynamic properties similar to graphite. Carbonaceous 392 393 materials formed during serpentinization could also be similar to the poorly ordered graphite precipitated from the graphite-undersaturated C - H - O system at 600°C and 1000 MPa 394 395 reported in experiments by Foustoukos (2012).

Comparison of fluid compositions from laboratory serpentinization experiments with 396 thermodynamic models thus indicates that the experimental results may be consistent with 397 attainment of metastable equilibrium between $H_{2(aq)}$ and $\Sigma CO_{2(aq)}$ in the fluid and solid 398 carbonaceous materials having thermodynamic properties similar to graphitic or hydrogenated 399 carbon (Fig. 3). Apart for the experiments of Berndt et al. (1996), all serpentinization 400 experiments at temperature between 265 and 300°C showed fluid composition converging 401 402 toward the equilibrium boundary between $CO_{2(aq)}$ and graphitic carbon, which is consistent with model Path-2 (Fig. 3b, c and e). In the experiments of McCollom et al. (2016) at 300°C, 403 the H₂ production rate is of $4 \cdot 10^{-3}$ mmol·h⁻¹ whereas H₂ was generated at a higher rate of $1 \cdot 10^{-3}$ 404 ¹ mmol·h⁻¹ in the experiments of Berndt et al. (1996). This might explain why the experiments 405

of Berndt et al. (1996) tend to converge toward equilibrium between CO_{2(aq)} and 406 hydrogenated carbon, corresponding to higher $H_{2(aa)}$ concentrations than the $CO_{2(aa)}$ – 407 graphitic carbon equilibrium (Fig. 3a). The higher rate of H₂ production could be explained by 408 409 the grain size of the starting olivine of $< 75 \ \mu m$ in the experiments of Berndt et al. (1996) whereas it ranges from 53 to 212 μ m in the experiments of McCollom et al. (2016). Fluid 410 compositions of serpentinization experiments performed at lower temperatures (200°C and 411 412 230°C) are more consistently described by model Path-3. The measured fluid compositions tend to converge toward equilibrium between $CO_{2(aq)}$ and hydrogenated carbon rather than 413 graphitic carbon (Fig. 3f and g), which is consistent with the fact that formation of graphitic 414 415 carbon is generally regarded as a process that occurs at elevated temperatures of 400°C and above (e.g., Luque et al., 2008; Beyssac and Rumble, 2014; Rumble, 2014). In addition to the 416 417 formation of solid carbonaceous material, precipitation of Mg- and Ca-bearing carbonates 418 contributes to the observed decreases of the $CO_{2(aq)}$ activity (McCollom et al., 2016). Owing to the precipitation of unknown amounts of carbonates on the walls of the reaction vessels, it 419 420 is problematic to calculate an accurate carbon mass balance to estimate the amount that might be converted to carbonaceous materials during serpentinization experiments. However, the 421 amount of H₂ in many of the experiments is significantly lower than it should be based on the 422 423 production of ferric Fe in minerals, suggesting the formation of a reduced carbon phase (McCollom et al., 2016). 424

The observations of Figure 3 suggest that solid carbonaceous materials might have formed in the considered experiments that have so far gone unrecognized. Although there have been no reports to date of the observation of solid carbonaceous deposits among the products of serpentinization experiments, there does not appear to have been any concerted effort to look for such materials among the reaction products. Potentially, carbonaceous products during serpentinization could take the form of either discrete carbon-rich particles or as thin coatings on the surfaces of mineral phases, similar to those reported by Milesi et al.
(2015). In either case, such deposits might be difficult to observe unless specifically targeted
for identification.

As indicated by the results of Milesi et al. (2015), the nature of solid carbonaceous 434 precipitates varies with factors such as temperature and the presence of different mineral 435 surfaces, and it seems likely that the variations in conditions between serpentinization 436 experiments could allow for some variation in the types of carbonaceous materials that 437 precipitate, which may explain why some experiments appear to converge towards graphitic 438 carbon while others converge to hydrogenated carbon in the thermodynamic models (Fig. 3). 439 For instance, the H₂ activity of the serpentinization fluids likely has an impact on the nature of 440 the carbonaceous material that precipitates. Sangély et al. (2007) identified solid bitumen 441 associated with the uranium deposits of Athabasca (Saskatchewan, Canada) that they 442 attributed to the abiotic reduction of CO₂ by H₂ resulting from water radiolysis. Based on 443 444 isotopic data, the authors proposed that the decrease of H₂ due to the reduction of CO₂ may account for the observed decrease of aliphatic content relative to aromatic content as the solid 445 bitumen accumulates. Zolotov and Shock (2000) evaluate the potential for abiotic synthesis of 446 aliphatic and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons from volcanic gas and showed that low H/C 447 and CO/CO₂ ratio in the gas phase favor the formation of hydrocarbons with high 448 aromatic/aliphatic ratio. Similarly, the aliphatic or aromatic character of hydrocarbons 449 forming from serpentinization fluids may depend on the $H_{2(aq)}$ and $CO_{2(aq)}$ compositions of the 450 fluid. 451

452 4.2 Natural serpentinization fluids

Fluid compositions from ultramafic-hosted deep-sea hydrothermal systems also appear to plot near the $CO_{2(aq)}$ – graphitic carbon boundary, suggesting that equilibration with solid

carbon phases could potentially be taking place during serpentinization in the subsurface (Fig. 455 4). At high temperatures (300 - 350°C), fluids from the ultramafic-hosted Rainbow, 456 Logatchev, and Von Damm hydrothermal fields are especially close to the stability domain of 457 graphitic carbon (Fig. 4a). In contrast, hydrothermal fluids from basalt-hosted systems, 458 including MARK ¹/₂, TAG, Broken Spur, Juan de Fuca and Menez Gwen, appear to be well 459 undersaturated with respect to graphitic carbon, although the Lucky Strike system appears to 460 461 be close to equilibrium. At lower temperature, fluids from the Lost City hydrothermal system also plot close to the $CO_{2(aa)}$ – graphitic carbon equilibrium (Fig. 4c). It is worthwhile to note 462 that when considering a carbon phase that is partially oxygenated and/or contains traces of 463 elements other than carbon that are widespread in serpentinization fluids such as nitrogen, 464 sulfur or silica (Charlou et al., 2002; Foustoukos et al., 2009; Seyfried et al., 2011, 2015; 465 Schrenk et al., 2013), the activity of carbon in the condensed carbon phase would shift to 466 467 values lower than unity (i.e., activity < 1). This would cause the $CO_{2(aq)}$ – condensed carbon equilibrium to shift toward lower $H_{2(aq)}$ and $CO_{2(aq)}$ activities, equivalent to an increase of the 468 stability domain of the carbon phase, such that the serpentinization fluids would equilibrate 469 with the carbon phase at even lower extents of reaction progress. 470

These results suggest that precipitation of solid carbonaceous deposits could be playing 471 a role in the reduction of inorganic carbon circulating through actively serpentinizing systems. 472 At present, little evidence has been reported for the occurrence of solid carbonaceous 473 materials within natural serpentinites, although this may be more a reflection of a limited 474 search for such materials than an indication of their absence. Recently, however, Ménez et al. 475 476 (2012) and Pasini et al. (2013) reported the presence of macromolecular carbonaceous deposits in serpentinites recovered from the seafloor, which the authors attributed to a 477 biological source. Although some aspects of the composition of these deposits could be 478 479 consistent with a biological origin, the evidence so far has not revealed any property that is

uniquely indicative of a biological origin that would exclude abiotic processes. Consequently, 480 an alternative possibility is that the carbonaceous deposits originated through abiotic 481 reduction of inorganic carbon during serpentization. Graphite has also been reported to occur 482 in association with several serpentinites, but the source of these deposits remains 483 undetermined (e.g., Krishnarao, 1964; Chidester, 1978; Pasteris, 1981, 1988; Luque et al., 484 1992, 1998; Miura et al., 2011; Galvez et al., 2013; Kawamoto et al., 2013). Further 485 investigation of these and other types of carbonaceous deposits within serpentinites is 486 required to determine whether solid forms of carbon may be precipitating during 487 serpentinization. The possible occurrence of solid carbonaceous materials in these natural 488 contexts should not be viewed as contradictory with the observation of millimolal levels of 489 abiotic methane in the hydrothermal fluids at some of these locations. As mentioned 490 previously, the production of methane could be favored only at the surface of appropriate, but 491 492 widely dispersed, minor accessory minerals such as iron-nickel alloys or sulfides (e.g., Horita and Berndt, 1999), resulting in production of small amounts of methane without fully 493 494 equilibrating with the fluid.

495

496 5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Our models show that formation of solid carbonaceous materials from the reduction of CO_{2(aq)} is thermodynamically favored during serpentinization of ultramafic rocks, which could potentially regulate the abundance of H₂ in hydrothermal fluids. Experimental and natural fluid compositions are consistent with attainment of equilibrium between $CO_{2(aq)}$ and condensed carbon phases. To date, there have been few reports of the occurrence of solid carbonaceous materials within natural or experimental serpentinites, but the possibility that complex forms of reduced carbon form during serpentinization has received little attention.

Should further investigation of natural systems reveal that solid carbonaceous materials do 504 indeed precipitate from abiotic reduction of inorganic carbon during serpentinization, it would 505 have substantial implications for carbon cycling within the oceanic and continental crust. Any 506 507 inorganic carbon that is reduced to solid carbonaceous matter would become immobilized, and could potentially be converted to forms that would be recalcitrant to alteration or 508 transport by subsequent processes. Additionally, while methane and other organic compounds 509 510 formed abiotically in serpentinizing systems are known to support the activities of biological communities, high-molecular-weight carbonaceous materials might be resistant to microbial 511 utilization. In contrast, formation of low-molecular-weight PAHs, such as anthracene or 512 phenanthrene, could represent a food supply for microbes as conditions cool, which could 513 represent a chance for the emergence of heterotrophy in hydrothermal settings. Otherwise, 514 hydrogenated carbonaceous materials might become unstable as conditions change, and 515 continued hydrothermal alteration of these phases could lead to formation of abiotic methane 516 or other organic compounds. 517

518

519 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was financially supported by the Institut de Physique du Globe de Paris. T. M.M.'s participation was supported by the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation though the Deep Carbon Observatory. The authors are grateful for the constructive comments of the associate editor Eric Quirico, Everett Shock and two anonymous reviewers. We appreciated stimulating discussions with Alain Prinzhofer and Fabrice Brunet. We especially thank Laurent Richard for his expertise on thermodynamic modeling.

526

527 **REFERENCES**

528	Berndt M. E., Allen D. E. and Seyfried Jr., W. E. (1996) Reduction of CO ₂ during			
529	serpentinization of olivine at 300°C and 500 bar. <i>Geology</i> 24 (4), 351-354.			
530	Beyssac O., Rouzaud J. N., Goffé B., Brunet F. and Chopin C. (2002) Graphitization			
531	in a high-pressure, low-temperature metamorphic gradient: a Raman microspectroscopy an			
532	HRTEM study. Contrib. Mineral. Petr. 143(1), 19-31.			
533	Beyssac O., Brunet F., Petitet J. P., Goffé B. and Rouzaud J. N. (2003) Experimental			
534	study of the microtextural and structural transformations of carbonaceous materials under			
535	pressure and temperature. Eur. J. Mineral. 15(6), 937-951.			
536	Beyssac O. and Rumble D. (2014) Graphitic carbon: A ubiquitous, diverse, and useful			
537	geomaterial. <i>Elements</i> , 10 (6), 415-420.			
538	Chandratillake M. R. and Robinson V. J. (1990) Correcting for ionic strength effects in			
539	the Chemval thermodynamic database (EUR-12975) Commission of the European			
540	Communities (CEC)			
541	Charlou J. L., Donval J. P., Douville E., Jean-Baptiste P., Radford-Knoery J., Fouquet			
542	Y., Dapoigny A. and Stievenard M. (2000) Compared geochemical signatures and the			
543	evolution of Menez Gwen (37°50 N) and Lucky Strike (37°17 N) hydrothermal fluids, south			
544	of the Azores Triple Junction on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge. Chem. Geol. 171(1), 49-75.			
545	Charlou J. L., Donval J. P., Fouquet Y., Jean-Baptiste P. and Holm N. (2002)			
546	Geochemistry of high H ₂ and CH ₄ vent fluids issuing from ultramafic rocks at the Rainbow			
547	hydrothermal field (36°14'N, MAR). Chem. Geol. 191(4), 345-359.			
548	Charlou J. L., Donval J. P., Konn C., Ondréas H., Fouquet Y., Jean-Baptiste P. and			
549	Fourré E. (2010) High production and fluxes of H_2 and CH_4 and evidence of abiotic			

550 hydrocarbon synthesis by serpentinization in ultramafic-hosted hydrothermal systems on the

551 Mid-Atlantic Ridge. *Diversity of hydrothermal systems on slow spreading ocean ridges*, 265552 296.

553 Chidester A. H., Albee A. L. and Cady W. M. (1978) Petrology, structure, and genesis
554 of the asbestos-bearing ultramafic rocks of the Belvidere Mountain area in Vermont. U.S.
555 *Geol. Surv. Prof. Paper* 1016.

Delacour A., Früh-Green G. L., Bernasconi S. M., Schaeffer P. and Kelley D. S.
(2008) Carbon geochemistry of serpentinites in the Lost City Hydrothermal System (30 N,
MAR).*Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac.* 72(15), 3681-3702.

Etiope G., Tsikouras B., Kordella S., Ifandi E., Christodoulou D. and Papatheodorou
G. (2013a) Methane flux and origin in the Othrys ophiolite hyperalkaline springs, Greece. *Chem. Geol.* 347, 161-174.

Etiope G., Vance S., Christensen L. E., Marques J. M. and Ribeiro da Costa I. (2013b)
Methane in serpentinized ultramafic rocks in mainland Portugal. *Mar. Petrol. Geol.* 45, 12-16.

Etiope G. and Sherwood Lollar B. (2013) Abiotic methane on Earth. *Rev. Geophys.*565 51(2), 276-299.

Foustoukos D. I. and Seyfried Jr., W. E. (2004) Hydrocarbons in hydrothermal vent
fluids: The role of chromium-bearing catalysts. *Science* **304**(5673), 1002-1005.

Foustoukos D. I., Pester N. J., Ding, K. and Seyfried W. E. (2009) Dissolved carbon
species in associated diffuse and focused flow hydrothermal vents at the Main Endeavour
Field, Juan de Fuca Ridge: Phase equilibria and kinetic constraints. *Geochemistry, Geophysics, Geosystems*, 10(10).

- 572 Foustoukos D. I. (2012) Metastable equilibrium in the C-H-O system: Graphite 573 deposition in crustal fluids. *Am. Mineral.* **97**(8-9), 1373-1380.
- Früh-Green G. L., Connolly J. A. D., Plas A., Kelley D. S. and Grobéty B. (2004)
 Serpentinization of Oceanic Peridotites: Implications for Geochemical Cycles and Biological
 Activity. In: *The Subseafloor Biosphere at Mid-Ocean Ridges* (Eds. Wilcock W. S. D.,
 Delong E. F., Kelley D. S., Baross J. A. and Craig Cary S.) American Geophysical Union,
 Washington, D. C.
- 579 Früh-Green G. L., Plas A. and Lécuyer C. (1996) Petrologic and stable isotope 580 constraints on hydrothermal alteration and serpentinization of the EPR shallow mantle at Hess 581 Deep (Site 895). In *Proceedings-Ocean Drilling Program Scientific Results* (255-292). 582 National Science Foundation.
- Fu Q., Sherwood Lollar B., Horita J., Lacrampe-Couloume G. and Seyfried Jr., W. E.
 (2007) Abiotic formation of hydrocarbons under hydrothermal conditions: Constraints from
 chemical and isotope data. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac.* **71**(8), 1982-1998.
- Galvez M. E., Beyssac O., Martinez I., Benzerara K., Chaduteau C., Malvoisin B. and
 Malavieille J. (2013) Graphite formation by carbonate reduction during subduction. *Nat. Geosci.* 6(6), 473-477.
- Helgeson H. C., Delany J. M., Nesbitt H. W. and Bird D. K. (1978) Summary and
 critique of the thermodynamic properties of rock-forming minerals. *Am. J. Sci.* 278A, 1-229.
- Helgeson H. C., Knox A. M., Owens C. E. and Shock E. L. (1993) Petroleum, oil field
 waters and authigenic mineral assemblages: Are they in metastable equilibrium in
 hydrocarbon reservoirs? *Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac.* 57, 3295-3339.

Helgeson H. C. and Shock E. L. (1988) Kinetic and thermodynamic constraints on
phase relations among minerals, petroleum, and aqueous solutions in diagenetic processes. *Chem. Geol.*, 70(1–2), 78.

Holm N. G. and Charlou J. L. (2001) Initial indications of abiotic formation of
hydrocarbons in the Rainbow ultramafic hydrothermal system, Mid-Atlantic Ridge. *Earth Planet. Sc. Lett.* 191(1-2), 1-8.

Horita J. and Berndt M. E. (1999) Abiogenic methane formation and isotopic
fractionation under hydrothermal conditions. *Science*, 285(5430), 1055-1057.

Johnson J. W., Oelkers E. H. and Helgeson H. C. (1992) SUPCRT92: A software package for calculating the standard molal thermodynamic properties of minerals, gases, aqueous species, and reactions from 1 to 5000 bar and 0 to 1000°C. *Comput. Geosci.* **18**(7), 899-947.

Jones L. C., Rosenbauer R., Goldsmith J. I. and Oze C. (2010) Carbonate control of H₂ and CH₄ production in serpentinization systems at elevated P-Ts. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **37**, L14306.

Kawamoto T., Yoshikawa M., Kumagai Y., Mirabueno M. H. T., Okuno M. and
Kobayashi T. (2013) Mantle wedge infiltrated with saline fluids from dehydration and
decarbonation of subducting slab. *P. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, **110**(24), 9663-9668.

Konn C., Charlou J. L., Donval J. P., Holm N. G., Dehairs F. and Bouillon S. (2009)
Hydrocarbons and oxidized organic compounds in hydrothermal fluids from Rainbow and
Lost City ultramafic-hosted vents. *Chemical Geology*, 258(3), 299-314.

Konn C., Charlou J. L., Donval J. P. and Holm N. G. (2012) Characterisation of
dissolved organic compounds in hydrothermal fluids by stir bar sorptive extraction-gas

chomatography-mass spectrometry. Case study: the Rainbow field (36 N, Mid-Atlantic
Ridge). *Geochem. T.* 13(8), 1-19.

Lang S. Q., Butterfield D. A., Schulte M., Kelley D. S. and Lilley M. D. (2010)
Elevated concentrations of formate, acetate and dissolved organic carbon found at the Lost
City hydrothermal field. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac.* 74(3), 941-952.

Luque F. J., Rodas M. and Galán E. (1992) Graphite vein mineralization in the
ultramafic rocks of southern Spain: mineralogy and genetic relationships. *Miner. Deposita*,
27(3), 226-233.

Luque del Villar F. J., Pasteris J. D., Wopenka B., Rodas M. and Fernández Barrenechea J. M. (1998) Natural fluid-deposited graphite: mineralogical characteristics and mechanisms of formation. *Am. J. Sci.* **298**, 471-498.

Luque F. J., Ortega L., Barrenechea J. F., Millward D., Beyssac O. and Huizenga J. M.
(2009) Deposition of highly crystalline graphite from moderate-temperature fluids. *Geology*, **37**(3), 275-278.

Malvoisin B., Brunet F., Carlut J., Rouméjon S. and Cannat M. (2012)
Serpentinization of oceanic peridotites: 2. Kinetics and processes of San Carlos olivine
hydrothermal alteration. *J. Geophys. Res. - Sol. Ea. (1978–2012)*, **117**(B4).

McCollom T. M. and Seewald J. S. (2001) A reassessment of the potential for
reduction of dissolved CO₂ to hydrocarbons during serpentinization of olivine. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac.* 65(21), 3769-3778.

McCollom T. M. (2003) Formation of meteorite hydrocarbons from thermal
decomposition of siderite (FeCO₃). *Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac.* 67(2), 311-317.

639	McCollom T. M. and Seewald J. S. (2003) Experimental constraints on the
640	hydrothermal reactivity of organic acids and acid anions: I. Formic acid and formate.
641	Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac. 67(19), 3625-3644.

McCollom T. M. and Seewald J. S. (2007) Abiotic synthesis of organic compounds in
deep-sea hydrothermal environments. *Chem. Rev.* 107(2), 382-401.

McCollom T. M. and Bach W. (2009) Thermodynamic constraints on hydrogen generation during serpentinization of ultramafic rocks. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac.* **73**(3), 856-875.

McCollom T. M., Klein F., Robbins M., Moskowitz B., Berquó T. S., Jöns N., Bach
W., and Templeton A. (2016) Temperature trends for reaction rates, hydrogen generation, and
partitioning of iron during experimental serpentinization of olivine. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac.* 181, 175-200.

McDermott J. M., Seewald J. S., German C. R. and Sylva S. P. (2015) Pathways for
abiotic organic synthesis at submarine hydrothermal fields. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 112,
7668-7672.

Ménez B., Pasini V. and Brunelli D. (2012) Life in the hydrated suboceanic mantle. *Nat. Geosci.* 5(2), 133-137.

Mével C. and Stamoudi C. (1996) 15. Hydrothermal alteration of the upper-mantle
section at Hess Deep 1. In: *Proceedings of the Ocean Drilling Program, Scientific Results*(Eds. Mével C., Gillis K. M., Allan J. F. and Meyer P. S.) Vol. 147

Milesi V., Guyot F., Brunet F., Richard L., Recham N., Benedetti M., ... and Prinzhofer A. (2015) Formation of CO₂, H₂ and condensed carbon from siderite dissolution in the 200–300°C range and at 50 MPa. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac.* **154**, 201-211.

- Miura M., Arai S. and Mizukami T. (2011) Raman spectroscopy of hydrous inclusions
 in olivine and orthopyroxene in ophiolitic harzburgite: implications for elementary processes
 in serpentinization. *J. Miner. Petrol. Sci.* 106, 91-96.
- Pasini V., Brunelli D., Dumas P., Sandt C., Frederick J., Benzerara K., ... and Ménez
 B. (2013) Low temperature hydrothermal oil and associated biological precursors in
 serpentinites from Mid-Ocean Ridge. *Lithos*, **178**, 84-95.
- Pasteris J. D. (1981) Occurrence of graphite in serpentinized olivines in kimberlite. *Geology* 9(8), 356-359.

670 Pasteris J. D. (1988) Secondary graphitization in mantle-derived rocks. *Geology* 16(9),
671 804-807.

Proskurowski G., Lilley M. D., Seewald J. S., Früh-Green G. L., Olson E. J., Lupton J.
E., Sylva S. P. and Kelley D. S. (2008) Abiogenic hydrocarbon production at Lost City
hydrothermal field. *Science* 319(8563), 604-607.

Rao J. K. (1964) Native nickel-iron alloy, its mode of occurrence, distribution and
origin. *Econ. Geol.* 59(3), 443-448.

Richard L. and Helgeson H. C. (1998) Calculation of the thermodynamic properties at
elevated temperatures and pressures of saturated and aromatic high molecular weight solid
and liquid hydrocarbons in kerogen, bitumen, petroleum, and other organic matter of
biogeochemical interest. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac.* 62(23), 3591-3636.

681

Rumble D. (2014). Hydrothermal graphitic carbon. *Elements*, 10(6), 427-433.

682 Sangély L., Chaussidon M., Michels R., Brouand M., Cuney M., Huault V. and
683 Landais P. (2007) Micrometer scale carbon isotopic study of bitumen associated with

Athabasca uranium deposits: Constraints on the genetic relationship with petroleum sourcerocks and the abiogenic origin hypothesis. *Earth Planet. Sc. Lett.* 258(3), 378-396.

686 Schrenk M. O., Brazelton W. J. and Lang S. Q. (2013) Serpentinization, carbon, and
687 deep life. *Rev. Mineral. Geochem.* **75**, 575-606.

Schulte M. D. and Shock E. L. (1993) Aldehydes in hydrothermal solution: Standard
partial molal thermodynamic properties and relative stabilities at high temperatures and
pressures. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac.* 57, 3835-3846.

Seewald J. S., Zolotov M. Y. and McCollom T. (2006) Experimental investigation of
single carbon compounds under hydrothermal conditions. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac.* 70(2),
446-460.

Seyfried W. E., Pester N. J., Ding K. and Rough M. (2011) Vent fluid chemistry of the
Rainbow hydrothermal system (36 N, MAR): Phase equilibria and in situ pH controls on
subseafloor alteration processes. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac.* **75**(6), 1574-1593.

697 Shilobreeva S., Martinez I., Busigny V., Agrinier P. and Laverne C. (2011) Insights
698 into C and H storage in the altered oceanic crust: Results from ODP/IODP Hole 1256D.
699 *Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac.* 75(9), 2237-2255.

- Shock E. L. (1990) Geochemical constraints on the origin of organic compounds in
 hydrothermal systems. *Origins Life Evol. B.* 20, 331-367.
- Shock E. L. (1992) Chemical environments in submarine hydrothermal systems. In: *Marine Hydrothermal Systems and the Origin of Life*, (ed. N. Holm) a special issue of *Origins Life Evol. B.* 22, 67-107.

Shock E. L. (1995) Organic acids in hydrothermal solutions: Standard molal
thermodynamic properties of carboxylic acids and estimates of dissociation constants at high
temperatures and pressures. *Amer. Jour. Sci.* 295, 1255-1342.

Shock E. L. and Helgeson H. C. (1990) Calculation of the thermodynamic and
transport properties of aqueous species at high pressures and temperatures: Standard partial
molal properties of organic species. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac.* 54, 915-945.

Shock E. L., Helgeson H. C. and Sverjensky D. A. (1989) Calculation of the
thermodynamic and transport properties of aqueous species at high pressures and
temperatures: Standard partial molal properties of inorganic neutral species. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac.* 53, 2157-2183.

Shock E. L. and McKinnon W. B. (1993) Hydrothermal processing of cometary
volatiles - Applications to Triton. *Icarus*, **106**, 464-477.

Shock E. L., Sassani D. C., Willis M., and Sverjensky D. A. (1997) Inorganic species
in geologic fluids: Correlations among standard molal thermodynamic properties of aqueous
ions and hydroxide complexes. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Ac.* 61, 907-950.

Shock E. L. and Schulte M. D. (1998) Organic synthesis during fluid mixing in
hydrothermal systems. J. Geophys. Res. 103(E12), 28513–28527

van Der Lee J., De Windt L., Lagneau V. and Goblet P. (2002) Presentation and
application of the reactive transport code HYTEC. *Dev. Water Sci.* 47, 599-606.

van Zuilen M. A., Lepland A., Teranes J., Finarelli J., Wahlen M. and Arrhenius G.
(2003) Graphite and carbonates in the 3.8 Ga old Isua Supracrustal Belt, southern West
Greenland. *Precambrian Res.* 126(3-4), 331-348.

727	Wolery, T. J., and C. F. Jove-Colon (2004) Qualification of thermodynamic data for
728	geochemical modeling of mineral-water interactions in dilute systems. U.S. Department of
729	Energy, Las Vegas, Nevada.

- Zolotov M. Y. and Shock E. L. (1999) Abiotic synthesis of polycyclic aromatic
 hydrocarbons on Mars. *Jour. Geophys. Res.* 104, 14033-14049.
- Zolotov M. Y. and Shock E. L. (2000) A thermodynamic assessment of the potential
 synthesis of condensed hydrocarbons during cooling and dilution of volcanic gases. *Jour. Geophys. Res.* 105, 539-559.
- Zolotov M. Y. and Shock E. L. (2001) Stability of condensed hydrocarbons in the solar
 nebula. *Icarus* 150, 323-337.

Compounds	Formula	Reference-state data source*
Methane	CH_4	Shock and Helgeson (1990)
Ethane	C_2H_6	Shock and Helgeson (1990)
Ethylene	C_2H_4	Shock and Helgeson (1990)
Formate	HCOO	Shock (1995)
Formic acid	HCOOH	Shock (1995)
Acetate	CH ₃ COO ⁻	Shock (1995)
Acetic acid	CH ₃ COOH	Shock (1995)
Formaldehyde	HCOH	Schulte and Shock (1993)
Acetaldehyde	CH ₃ COH	Schulte and Shock (1993)
Methanol	CH ₃ OH	Shock and Helgeson (1990)
Ethanol	C ₂ H ₅ OH	Shock and Helgeson (1990)
Carbon monoxide	CO	Shock and McKinnon (1993)
Graphite	С	Helgeson et al. (1978)
Anthracene	$C_{14}H_{10}$	Richard and Helgeson (1998)

Table 1. Reduced carbon species considered in the modeling

* The thermodynamic properties of the selected reduced carbon species at high temperatures $(0 - 300^{\circ}C)$ in the LLNL EQ3/6 database are calculated with the SUPCRT92 software package (Johnson et al., 1992).

Reaction path	$\frac{\Sigma \text{CO}_2}{(m \text{mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1})}$	Reduced carbon species included
Path-1	20	All reduced species reported in Table 1
Path-2	20	Alkanes excluded; all other reduced species included
Path-3	20	Anthracene, $CO_{(aq)}$, HCOOH, and HCOO ⁻ only
Path-4	100	Alkanes excluded; all other reduced species included

Table 2. Starting conditions of reaction path calculations

1

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Calculated $H_2 - CO_2$ composition of fluids during serpentinization of olivine 2 projected onto solid phase stability domains in the Fe-Mg-O-C-H system as a function of H₂ 3 and CO₂ activities at 300°C and 35 MPa. *Path-1* (red full circles), 2 (blue full squares) and 3 4 (green full diamonds) are plotted in diagram (a), and Path-4 (blue full squares) in diagram (b). 5 6 The percentages near the symbols indicate the progress of the serpentinization reaction (i.e., the amount of olivine reacted). The concentration corresponding to saturation of the fluid with 7 respect to H₂ gas is represented by the grey, short-dashed horizontal line. Note that the 8 activity of H₂ increases going downward in the figure. 9

10

Figure 2. Carbon speciation, calculated as the percentage of carbon in a given species relative to the total amount of carbon in the system, and pH at reaction conditions as a function of the reaction progress (i.e., the percentage of olivine serpentinized). Panels a, b, c and d correspond to *Path-1*, 2, 3 and 4, respectively.

15

Figure 3. Fluid compositions from serpentinization and related experiments projected onto H_2 - CO₂ activity diagrams. Experimental data are from Berndt et al. (1996) (box *a*, yellow triangles), McCollom and Seewald (2001) (box *b*, orange diamonds and circles), Fu et al. (2007) (box *d*, blue squares) and McCollom et al. (2016) (box *c*, *e*, *f*, *g* and *h*; blue, purple, light green, green and light blue diamonds, respectively). The arrows show the reaction progress.

22

Figure 4. End-member fluid compositions for deep-sea hydrothermal systems and terrestrial 23 24 serpentinite springs projected onto $H_2 - CO_2$ activity diagrams. For clarity, the plotted H_2 and CO₂ composition of the Juan de Fuca hydrothermal fluids corresponds to the average value of 25 six homogeneous end-member compositions (see Foustoukos et al., 2009). For the Lost City 26 hydrothermal field, several end-member fluid compositions are plotted from different sample 27 sites (see Proskurowski et al., 2008, supporting online material) and a pH value of 9 is 28 considered for calculation of the DIC speciation. Measured temperatures for the hydrothermal 29 fluids shown in (a) and (b) are in the 300-350°C range, although peak temperatures in 30 subsurface reaction zones may be somewhat higher. Although vent temperatures at Lost City 31 are ~90°C, temperatures in the subsurface reaction zones where these fluids originate is 32 thought to be 150-200°C (Proskurowski et al., 2006; Foustoukos et al., 2008). Since pressure 33 has little effect on thermodynamic equilibria, all diagrams are calculated at 35MPa. Data 34 35 sources: Rainbow (2), Logatchev, MARK1/2, TAG, Broken Spur (box a): Charlou et al. (2002) and references therein; Rainbow (1) (box *a*): Seyfried et al. (2011); Juan de Fuca (box 36 a): Foustoukos et al. (2009); Menez Gwen, Lucky Strike (box b): Charlou et al. (2000); Von 37 Damm (box *b*): McDermott et al. (2015); Lost City (box *c*): Proskurowski et al. (2008). 38

39

Figure A1. Stability domains of "graphitic carbon", aliphatic and aromatic hydrocarbons as
function of H₂ and CO₂ activities. Thermodynamic properties for aliphatic and aromatic
hydrocarbons are from Richard and Helgeson (1998).

Revised Figure 1



Revised Figure 2





