Fluid–rock interactions in the shallow Mariana forearc: carbon cycling and redox conditions

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Abstract. Few data exist that provide insight into processes affecting the long-term carbon cycle at shallow forearc depths. To better understand the mobilization of carbon in sediments and crust of the subducting slab, we investigated carbonate materials that originate from the subduction channel at the Mariana forearc (<20 km) and were recovered during 15 International Ocean Discovery Program Expedition 366. The calcium carbonates exist as vein precipitates within metavolcanic and metasedimentary clasts. The clasts represent portions of the subducting lithosphere, including ocean island basalt, that were altered at lower blueschist facies conditions and were subsequently transported to the forearc seafloor by serpentinite mud volcanism. Euhedral aragonite and calcite and the lack of deformation within the veins suggest carbonate formation in a strain-free environment, that is after peak metamorphism affected their hosts. Intergrowth with barite and 20 marked negative Ce anomalies in carbonate attest the precipitation within a generally oxic environment that was not controlled by serpentinization. Strontium and O isotopic compositions in carbonate ($^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr$ = 0.7052 to 0.7054, $\delta^{18}O_{VSMOW}$ = 20 to 24‰) imply precipitation from slab-derived fluids at temperatures between ~130 and 300°C. These temperature estimates are consistent with the presence of blueschist facies phases, such as lawsonite coexisting with the carbonates in some veins. Incorporated carbon is inorganic ($\delta^{13}C_{VPDB}$ = -1 to +4‰) and likely derived from the decarbonation of 25 carbonaceous sediment and/or oceanic crust. These findings provide evidence for the mobilization of carbon in the downgoing slab at depths of <20 km. Our study for the first time shows in detail that a portion of this carbon forms carbonate precipitates in the subduction channel of an active convergent margin. This process may be an important asset in understanding the deep carbon cycle since it highlights that C is lost from the subducting lithosphere before reaching greater depths.

1 Introduction

Subduction of oceanic lithosphere plays a crucial role in geochemical cycling on Earth, as subduction zones are the primary locus of transfers between exogenic and endogenic reservoirs. During subduction of H_2O-rich sediments as well as hydrated and carbonated lithosphere, a continuum of prograde diagenetic and metamorphic reactions in the downgoing slab drive its

5   devolatilization and dehydration (e.g., van Keken et al., 2002). The nature and extent of these processes control whether components of subducted materials are mobilized and transported into the suprasubduction lithosphere or back to the atmosphere or are carried into the deeply convecting mantle.

The largest portion of C on Earth is stored in the lithosphere, and because subduction is the main route for recycling of this shallow carbon, a thorough understanding of (de-)carbonation processes in the subduction channel is crucial to

10   understanding Earth's carbon cycle (e.g., Sleep and Zahnle, 2001). Geochemical flux estimates of C in convergent plate boundary settings have thus gained much attention in the recent past (e.g., Kerrick and Connolly 2001; Newton and Manning, 2002; Gorman et al., 2006; Dasgupta and Hirschmann 2010; Füri et al., 2010; Kelemen and Manning 2010; Sverjensky et al., 2014; Frezzotti et al., 2011; Ague and Nicolescu, 2014; Piccolo et al., 2016). Yet, the fate of C in subduction zones remains unconfined. Recent mass balance estimates suggest that $\ll 1$ to ~80% of the subducted 40 to

15   66 Mt C per year are transported back into the convecting mantle (Kelemen and Manning, 2015).

Some insight into the deep C cycle is derived from studying magmatic products of backarc volcanism. It has been shown that C is mobilized below volcanic arcs and transported into the upper plate's mantle or lithosphere and/or back into the atmosphere in the form of CO_2 (e.g., Kerrick and Connolly, 1998; Sleep and Zahnle 2001; Blundy et al., 2010). These insights, however, only reflect processes at deep subduction levels, i.e., at depths of 70 km or more, and the amount of CO_2

20   emitted from arc volcanoes does not balance the amount of C initially being subducted (e.g., Dasgupta and Hirschmann, 2010; Kelemen and Manning, 2015). A significant portion of subducted C must hence either be released from the downgoing slab before reaching these great depths, or it is transported to even greater depths (discussed in more detail by, e.g., Kelemen and Manning, 2015). Geologic processes at both shallower and greater depths remain poorly understood since obtaining natural samples from these portions is not technologically possible. Insight into the shallow system, however, comes from

25   the investigation of ophiolite sequences that commonly include obducted forearc materials (e.g., Frezzotti et al., 2011; Cook-Kollars et al., 2014; Piccoli et al., 2016; Schwarzenbach et al., 2018). The Oman ophiolite, for instance, exhibits extensive outcrops of listvenites, rocks composed of magnesite ± dolomite + quartz (Falk and Kelemen, 2015). Carbon bound in these rocks is derived from carbonate dissolution of subducted sediments (Falk and Kelemen, 2015); Kelemen and Manning (2015) hence proposed that the transfer of CO_2 to the leading edge of the mantle wedge, where the listvenites were formed,

30   could depict an important process in forearc regions of convergent margins and that 'substantial carbon transfer at low temperature occurs here. These observations are in line with experiments that demonstrated the increase in solubility of calcite in aqueous fluids with increasing pressure and temperature (Caciagli and Manning, 2003), suggesting that an efficient release of C from downgoing slab should occur even at relatively shallow levels.

Slab-derived fluids that upwell in a number of serpentinite mud volcanoes at the deeply faulted Mariana forearc affirm the suggestion of carbonate breakdown at shallow subduction depths. The compositions of these fluids reflect prograde metamorphic processes in the subducting lithosphere, and hence provide a direct, natural window into an active subduction system (e.g., Fryer et al., 1985; Fryer et al., 1995; Hulme et al., 2010). In particular fluids upwelling at the deeper-rooted

5   mud volcanoes exhibit high carbonate alkalinities (CO_3^{2-}) and elevated concentrations of dissolved hydrocarbons (CH_4 and C_2H_6), indicative of decarbonation reactions in the downgoing plate at depths of <30 km (Mottl et al., 2003; Hulme et al., 2010; Fryer et al., 2018a).

In peridotite, carbonate minerals can precipitate over a wide range of pressure and temperature conditions and in various natural settings. In shallow parts of the crust, carbonates can form during heating of seawater, cooling of hydrothermal

10   fluids, mixing of hydrothermal fluids with seawater, and metasomatic replacement reactions (e.g., Bach et al., 2011; Grozeva et al., 2017; Klein et al., 2015; Schroeder et al., 2015); carbonation of peridotite may also occur under conditions similar to those of intermediate depths of forearc regions, as indicated by laboratory experiments at 1 to 2 GPa and 500 to 600°C (Sieber et al., 2018). But no carbonated mantle wedge peridotites have been described from the serpentinite mud volcanoes in the Mariana forearc. Carbonate precipitates described from serpentinite mud volcanoes to date appear to have mostly

15   formed where upwelling fluids mixed with seawater near/at the seafloor (Haggerty et al., 1991; Gharib, 2006; Tran et al., 2014), except for few samples that are thought to have formed at temperatures of up to 250°C from slab-derived fluids (Alt and Shanks III, 2006). The latter have not been studied in detail.

We studied ~~rock~~ xenoliths brought to the seafloor along with fluids in the Mariana serpentinite mud volcanoes, which were recovered during International Ocean Discovery Program (IODP) Expedition 366. Investigated samples include

20   metavolcanic and metasedimentary rocks as well as serpentinized peridotite. They originate from the downgoing oceanic crust and from the upper plate's lithosphere, respectively. The clasts contain carbonate ± silicate ± sulfate veins, the genesis of which expand the knowledge into the subduction channel conditions and into the cycling of C in the shallow portions of the Mariana convergent margin. Geochemical and isotopic signatures of metavolcanic-hosted carbonates attest to mobilization of carbon in the downgoing plate and its precipitation in the form of Ca carbonates. Such carbonate formation

25   below the 'cold nose' of a convergent margin represents a sink for C in the deep carbon cycle that remains largely unconstrained. Across-forearc trends in the geochemistry of upwelling fluids in the mud volcanoes (Fryer et al., 2018a) imply that the carbonation at depth may be widespread in the Mariana subduction system.

2 Study area and materials

Deep-rooted faults in the forearc of the non-accretionary Mariana subduction system act as pathways for upwelling fluids

30   released from the subducting Pacific plate (Fig. 1; Uyeda and Kanamori 1979; Fryer et al., 1990, Fryer, 1992; Phipps and Balletti, 1992; Fryer, 1996; Fryer, 2012). Together with mobilized serpentinite fault gouge these fluids rise through the mantle and crust of the Philippine Sea plate to the seafloor, where they form more than a dozen active serpentinite mud

volcanoes typically tens of km in diameter and up to 2.5 km high (Fryer and Fryer, 1987; Fryer, 1992; Fryer, 1996). These structures are chiefly composed of unconsolidated serpentinite mudflows, containing clasts of serpentinized forearc mantle peridotite and other rare lithologies including sediments and mafic crust derived from the subducted Pacific plate (e.g., Maekawa et al., 1995; Fryer et al., 1999; Fryer et al., 2018a). The mud volcanoes are found at varying distances ~~from~~ to the

5 trench, i.e., the depth to the subducting slab ~~and~~ pressure and temperature conditions at the location of fluid release also vary (e.g., Oakley et al., 2007; Hulme et al., 2010). The mud volcanoes in the Mariana forearc hence provide direct access to deep-sourced fluids and materials from the subduction channel and suprasubduction zone and an unique insight into shallow subduction zone processes. There is tentative evidence that serpentinite mud volcanism has occurred ~~as early as~~ the Archean (Pons et al., 2011) so uch processes may have been prevalent through Earth history.

10 Five serpentinite mud volcanoes have been targeted by three ocean drilling campaigns: Yinazao (55 km distance from the trench, 13 km slab depth, slab temperature ~80°C), Fantangisña (62 km from the trench, 14 km slab depth, ~150°C), Asùt Tesoru (72 km from the trench, 18 km slab depth, ~250°C), South Chamorro (78 km from the trench, 18 km slab depth, ~250–350°C), Conical (86 km distance from the trench, 19 km slab depth, ~250–350°C; Maekawa et al., 1993; Fryer and Salisbury, 2006; Gharib, 2006; Oakley et al., 2007; Oakley et al., 2008; Hulme et al., 2010). We studied drill core materials

15 recovered from Yinazao, Fantangisña, and Asùt Tesoru during IODP Expedition 366 (Fig. 1). Our samples include (i) rock clasts of serpentinized peridotite, altered mafic volcanics, and lithified metasediment, (ii) authigenic carbonate precipitates from the serpentinite mud, and (iii) serpentinite mud pore waters. Veins composed of carbonate, silicate, and sulfate phases crosscut the clasts.

3 Methodology

20 Visual observations were conducted in thin section with both a standard petrographic microscope and a scanning electron microscope. Detailed mineralogical and geochemical analyses of mineral assemblages were carried out in thin section and isotopic compositions were determined on hand-picked mineral separates of vein material.

3.1 *In situ* analyses

3.1.1 Raman

25 Mineral assemblages were analyzed with a computer controlled Horiba LabRAM HR confocal Raman microscope at the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution. The device is equipped with three lasers (473 nm, 532 nm, and 633 nm), two gratings (600 and 1800 grooves mm^{-1}), a thermoelectric cooled (-70°C) CCD detector, 4x, 10x, 50x and 100x objectives, a x–y–z motorized stage and automated mapping options. Most spectra were collected using the 633 nm laser and the 600 grooves mm^{-1} grating for 5 to 10 s with three to five accumulations between 100 and 1280 cm^{-1}. The LabSpec 6 software

30 suite was used for post-processing of acquired spectra. The instrument was calibrated daily using a silicon wafer and the RRUFF Raman database (Lafuente et al., 2015) was used for identification of unknown phases.

3.1.2 Electron microprobe

Elemental compositions of minerals were obtained with a CAMECA SX100 electron microprobe at the University of Bremen. The device is equipped with four wavelength dispersive spectrometers. Analytical conditions included an accelerating voltage of 15 kV and beam currents of 10 nA for silicates and 8 nA for carbonates. Peak counting times varied

5   between 20 to 40 s per element and analyses were carried out with a fully focused beam (silicates) and 5 μm defocused beam (carbonates). The built-in PAP correction was applied for data reduction and correction. Repeated analyses of natural silicate and carbonate standards guaranteed data quality. For most elements with concentrations >1 wt.%, averaged precision is better than 2% and averaged accuracy is better than 5%.

3.1.3. Laser ablation ICP-MS

10   Analyses of trace elements (B, Mn, Rb, Sr, Y, Cs, Ba, and rare earth elements) were carried out using a Thermo Finnigan Element2 ICP-MS coupled to a New Wave UP193 solid-state laser ablation system at the University of Bremen. Analytical conditions included an irradiance of ~1 GW cm^{-2} for ablation, spot sizes of 75 to 100 μm and a laser pulse rate of 5 Hz. Helium (0.7 L min^{-1}) and Ar (0.9 L min^{-1}) were used as sample and make-up gases, respectively. All isotopes were analyzed at low resolution with five samples in a 20% mass window and a total dwell time of 25 ms per isotope. After every 4 to 8

15   samples the glass standard NIST SRM 610 was measured for external calibration using the values from Jochum et al. (2011). To correct for interferences between ^{43}Ca and ^{86}Sr^{2+} we determined the quantitative relationship between ^{86}Sr^{2+} and ^{88}Sr in an in-house Ca-free but Sr-containing glass standard; the abundance of ^{86}Sr^{2+} is about 1.7% of that of ^{88}Sr, which is considered to mirror its natural isotopic existence. For all analyses we hence subtracted 1.7% of the intensity counts per second of ^{88}Sr from that of ^{43}Ca. The ^{43}Ca isotope was used as internal standard and concentrations were calculated with the Cetac

20   GeoPro^{TM} software. We tentatively assigned a detection limit of 0.001 μg g^{-1} for REEs and Y as their detection limits are not well defined due to their low blanks. Such low contents correspond to few counts per second for some elements, which results in relative standard deviations as high as 50%. Analytical quality was controlled by repeated analyses of USGS reference materials BRC-2G, BHVO-2G, and MACS-3 and comparison of our data with the GeoReM database (as of February 2018). For the three reference materials, averaged precisions are better than 7.5% except for Ho and Tm (better

25   than 10%). Averaged accuracies of BCR-2G and BHVO-2G are better than 6% except for Tm and Yb (up to 10.5%), averaged accuracy of MACS-3 is better than 10% except for Gd, Dy, Ho, Er, and Lu (all better than 15%).

3.2 Isotope analyses

3.2.1. Carbonate

Carbon and oxygen Hand-picked carbonate minerals were washed with deionized water and cleaned in an ultrasonic bath.

30   Vein carbonate samples were measured on a ThermoScientific MAT 253 connected to a Kiel IV and authigenic carbonate samples on a Finnigan MAT 251 gas isotope ratio mass spectrometer connected to a Kiel I automated carbonate preparation

device at MARUM. Carbon isotopes are reported in the usual delta notation versus VPDB, O isotopes are reported versus VSMOW. The instrument was calibrated against the house standard (ground Solnhofen limestone), which in turn was calibrated against the NBS 19 standard reference material. Over the measurement periods the standard deviations of the house standard were 0.06‰ for $\delta^{13}C$ values and 0.11‰ for $\delta^{18}O$ values for the Thermo Fischer and 0.04‰ for $\delta^{13}C$ and

5 0.03‰ for $\delta^{18}O$ for the Finnigan instrument.

Strontium For the analyses of Sr isotopes, approximately 2 mg of homogenized carbonate powder were dissolved in 2 M HNO_3, dried, and re-dissolved in 500 µl of 2 M HNO_3 in preparation for the chemical separation of Sr from unwanted matrix elements. Sr was extracted using columns loaded with ca. 70 µl of Sr-spec ion exchange resin (Triskem International) following a procedure adapted from Deniel and Pin (2001). The Sr was loaded on single Re filaments with Ta-oxide

10 emitters, and analyzed by ThermoScientific TritonPlus TIMS in the multidynamic acquisition mode at MARUM. The $^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr$ ratios were normalized to a $^{86}Sr/^{88}Sr$ ratio of 0.1194 to correct for instrumental mass fractionation. The long-term external reproducibility of the NIST SRM 987 standard material is 0.710249±0.000014 (2σ, n = 220) and falls within the range of 0.710250±0.000034 (2σ, n = 1245; data <0.7102 and >0.7103 are discarded) of published NIST SRM 987 values analyzed by TIMS (GeoReM database, as of September 2017).

15 ### 3.2.2. Sulfate

Sulfur and oxygen The S and O isotope compositions of barite were analyzed at the University of Münster. Prior to the analyses, the barite was treated with HCl (10%) to remove intergrown carbonate, cleaned, and dried. For S isotope measurements ($^{34}S/^{32}S$), an aliquot of 400 µg of barite was homogeneously mixed with 400 to 600 µg vanadium pentoxide (V_2O_5) in a tin capsule. Sulfur isotopes were measured with an EA-IRMS (element analyzer-isotope ratio MS) with a

20 combination of EA IsoLink™ and ThermoScientific Delta V Advantage MS. For oxygen isotopes, 200 µg barite was weighted into an Ag capsule. Analyses were carried out with a temperature conversion/EA interfaced with a ThermoScientific Delta V Plus MS. Results are reported in the common delta notation, for O isotopic compositions versus VSMOW. Replicates were measured for both $\delta^{34}S$ and $\delta^{18}O$ and the accuracy of the measurements was monitored using the international reference materials IAEA-S1, IAEA-S2, IAEA-S3, and NBS 127 for S, and IAEA-SO5, IAEA-SO6, and NBS

25 127 for O as well as internal reference materials Ag_2S and CdS for S, and $BaSO_4$ for O. Reproducibility as determined from replicate analyses was better than ±0.3‰ for S and ±0.5‰ for O isotope measurements.

3.2.3. Pore waters

Strontium Pore waters were sampled from the serpentinite mud volcanoes during IODP Expedition 366; treatment of the pore waters onboard is described in Fryer et al. (2018a). Preparation for the analysis of Sr isotopes was undertaken in the

30 University of Southampton's Class 100 clean laboratories. Sub-samples of pore waters were taken to contain sufficient Sr for isotope measurement and Sr was separated from dissolved matrix elements using Sr-spec resin following Harris et al. (2015). The Sr was loaded on Ta filaments with Ta-oxide emitters, and measured on a ThermoScientific TritonPlus TIMS in the

multidynamic acquisition mode at the University of Southampton. External reproducibility was assessed using international reference material: average values for $^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr$ of NIST SRM 987 are 0.710244±0.000019 (2σ, $n = 135$).

3.3 Geothermometry

5   Carbonate formation temperatures were calculated based on the O isotopic compositions of carbonates and of the solutions from which these precipitated. For the carbonates formed within the subduction channel, we used the calibrations from O'Neil et al. (1969) and Friedman and O'Neil (1977). The latter was as well used for the single calcite crystal that was recovered from Asùt Tesoru, whereas the calibration curve from Grossman and Ku (1986) was used for authigenic aragonite formed within Yinazao mud volcano.

10 ### 4 Results

4.1 Host rocks

Host rocks of the carbonate ± silicate ± sulfate veins are ultramafic, metavolcanic, and metasedimentary clasts. Metavolcanic and metasedimentary clasts originate exclusively from the deeper-sourced mud volcanoes Fantangisña and Asùt Tesoru, whereas ultramafic hosts were recovered at Asùt Tesoru and the shallow-sourced Yinazao (Table 1).

15 Studied peridotites include two samples of dunite and one sample of harzburgite. One of the dunites is about 30% serpentinized, whereas the other peridotites are fully serpentinized and characterized by mesh textures and distinct generations of crosscutting serpentine ± brucite ± magnetite veins (Fig. S1). The harzburgite contains hydroandradite intergrown with serpentine in bastite texture after pyroxene (Fig. S1b), and scarce late veins that contain carbonate phases. Seven variably metamorphosed volcanic rocks (Fig. 2a; Table 1) contain relict primary minerals including lath-shaped

20 plagioclase and titanoferous clinopyroxene (Fig. 2a–c). The Ti-rich pyroxenes mostly plot in the field of alkali basalt, as classified by Leterrier et al. (1982; Fig. 2e). The primary mineral assemblages were largely altered to prehnite–pumpellyite and blueschist facies mineral assemblages, including chlorite, prehnite, pumpellyite, glaucophane, lawsonite, titanite, and vesuvianite (representative analyses available in Table S1). These samples are characterized by complex networks of carbonate–silicate veins.

25 The metasedimentary quartzite ~~sample~~ is brecciated into smaller fragments in a fine-grained matrix rich in calcite and hematite (Fig. 2d). Narrow calcite veins crosscut the quartz fragments; the breccia is crosscut by a cm-wide vein of aragonite, calcite, and barite.

4.2 Mineral assemblages in veins

4.2.1. Petrography

Distinct vein generations crosscut the clasts and comprise (i) carbonate–silicate, (ii) silicate-only, or (iii) carbonate–sulfate vein types (Table 1). The veins usually dissect grain boundaries, are of kinked to irregular shape, and occasionally show

5 branching (*cf.* Shipboard Scientific Party, 2004). The vein minerals usually exhibit euhedral grain shapes and lack signs of deformation.

Carbonate–silicate veins hosted by variably serpentinized peridotite are < 0.5 mm wide and crosscut most other textures, indicating a late formation (Fig. 3a). Carbonate phases are calcite and aragonite with grain sizes of up to ~0.3 mm. Both phases can co-occur in the same sample (Fig. 3a); in one clast they coexist in the same vein. Serpentine ± iowaite ± minor

10 magnetite and hematite coexist with the carbonates in the veins. Iowaite can show needle-like textures suggestive of growth in open fractures (Fig. S1).

The veins in metavolcanic clasts can be up to centimeter in width and commonly overprint earlier textures (Fig. 3b,d). The most abundant vein minerals are aragonite, calcite (less abundant than aragonite), pectolite, and prehnite; some veins contain minor lawsonite, nesquehonite, phengite, and thaumasite (see Table 1 and Fig. 3f for vein mineral Raman spectra). Aragonite

15 grains are up to a mm in size. Calcite is generally <0.25 mm in size or microcrystalline. Several generations of carbonate are observed in some samples, e.g., sample U1498B-8R, 10–15 cm, where calcite and pectolite overgrow earlier aragonite (Fig. 3d). Carbonates and silicates generally occur intergrown or with straight crystal contacts indicative of chemical equilibrium; silicates, particularly pectolite, in many cases show radial growth (Fig. 3d). These crystallization patterns are indicative of ~~free~~ growth in open fractures. Veins in metavolcanic sample U1498B, 32–34 cm, consist of pectolite and

20 prehnite except for a narrow (<1 mm) vein of pure calcite, crosscutting all other textures (Fig. 3b). Metavolcanic sample U1498B-8R-1, 0–4 cm, contains veins of pectolite, prehnite, and minor mostly microcrystalline calcite. Late veinlets of nesquehonite ± thaumasite are present in two samples. Two other metavolcanic clasts do not exhibit any carbonate-bearing veins (cf. Table 1). One of those has veins of pectolite in radiating crystal clusters; the other clast is not veined.

The quartzite sample (U1497A-7X-CC, 29–31 cm) has millimetric aragonite and barite crystals in a mm wide vein (Fig. 3c,

25 Table 1). Intergrowth of aragonite and barite suggests co-crystallization in equilibrium with a fluid. The vein further hosts one ~200 µm long calcite crystal extending into the barite. No barite has previously been observed/studied in the eruptives of the serpentinite mud volcanoes.

In addition to vein-carbonates in the clasts, we sampled authigenic carbonates contained in the serpentinite mud matrix (Table 1). At Yinazao, acicular aragonite crystals up to 4 mm in length were scattered throughout the recovered drill core

30 (sample U1492B-1H-4, 8–10 cm; Fig. 3e). At Asùt Tesoru, calcite crystals with euhedral shapes and diameters of up to 5 mm occurred disseminated in the mud matrix (sample U1496B-4F-3, 105–106 cm). The euhedral growth of both aragonite and calcite implies *in situ* precipitation of these minerals in the mud matrix, as previously interpreted by Fryer et al. (2018c,d,e).

4.2.2. Mineral chemistry

Major and trace elemental compositions in the carbonates are highly variable. Magnesium and Fe concentrations vary from <10 µg g^{-1} to up to ~14000 µg g^{-1} and ~1600 µg g^{-1}, respectively. Serpentinite-hosted calcite exhibits the highest Mg contents; concentrations in aragonite and calcite hosted by metavolcanic and the -sedimentary clasts are below 8500 µg g^{-1}.

5 Accordingly, Mg/Ca ratios are variable and range up to 0.022 for the latter-mentioned vs. values up to 0.038 for carbonate in serpentinite. Strontium concentrations vary from <30 µg g^{-1} to ~15000 µg g^{-1}, and Sr/Ca ratios from <0.001 to ~0.04. Aragonite has highest Sr concentrations but concentrations can also be low (<1200 µg g^{-1}). Aragonite further reveals ~~strongly~~ variable B concentrations (0.5–34 µg g^{-1}, mean = 4.9 µg g^{-1}, n = 34); by comparison, B contents in calcite are much lower (0.3–6.2 µg g^{-1}, mean = 1.4 µg g^{-1}, n = 24). Yttrium concentrations are low in aragonite (<0.1–4.4 µg g^{-1}, mean = 0.4 µg g^{-1})

10 but range up to 8.6 µg g^{-1} in calcite (mean = 2.4 µg g^{-1}). The chondrite-normalized REE+Y patterns of aragonite and calcite are indistinguishable within individual samples (chondrite composition from McDonough and Sun, 1995). Distinct variations in carbonate REE+Y systematics are, however, observed as a function of the respective host lithologies (Fig. 4). Chondrite-normalized REE+Y patterns of carbonates hosted by serpentinite clasts or the serpentinite mud are flat or slightly HREE-enriched and concentrations are below chondritic (highest Lu value is <0.7 times chondritic). Chondrite-normalized La/Lu

15 ratios range from 0.3 to 22.3. Contrastingly, carbonate phases hosted by metavolcanic clasts and the quartzite have generally higher REE+Y concentrations and show a strong depletion in HREEs, with Lu depletion over La of <0.001 to 0.84. The patterns of these vein minerals commonly show negative Ce anomalies with Ce/(La*Pr)$^{0.5}$ of 0.01 to 1.18. Because these carbonates are commonly associated with high-pressure phases, such as lawsonite, we will refer to the carbonates with high LREE concentrations as 'deep carbonates' and to the REE-low carbonates as 'shallow carbonates' (Fig. 4). Representative

20 chemical analyses are presented in Table 2.

4.2.3. Isotopic compositions

Strontium isotopic ratios (^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr) have a narrow range from 0.70523 to 0.70538 in deep carbonates and from 0.70495 to 0.70644 in shallow carbonates (Fig. 5, Table 3). Sr concentrations in pore water samples from Yinazao, Fantangisña, and Asùt Tesoru serpentinite mud volcanoes are variably: with up to ~690 µM, [uio] ascending at the shallower are considerably

25 enriched relative to bottom seawater (90 µM; Mottl et al., 2004), whereas those at Asùt Tesoru are strongly depleted (<22 µM; Fig. 5, Table S2). The pore fluids range in ^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr from 0.70566 to 0.70598 at Yinazao, from 0.70495 to 0.70585 at Fantangisña, and from 0.70510 to 0.70675 at Asùt Tesoru, whereby the pore waters from the deepest sections of the individual bore holes usually exhibit the most unradiogenic values. The pore waters are hence relatively depleted in radiogenic Sr in comparison to modern seawater (^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr = 0.7091; Mottl et al., 2004), but their compositions at the core

30 tops follow mixing trends with seawater.

Carbonate δ^{13}C values range from -0.6 to +3.3‰ VPDB (Fig. 6, Table 3) with no distinction between deep and shallow carbonates. Similar C isotopic compositions were reported by Alt and Shanks III (2006; δ^{13}C = +0.07 to +2.5) for aragonite

that precipitated from slab-derived fluids in veins of metabasalt and siltstone clasts recovered from Conical serpentinite mud volcano, and by Tran et al. (2014) for Ca carbonate chimneys that formed on the summit of Conical by mixing of upwelling fluid and seawater ($\delta^{13}C$ = -3.7 to 0‰). Carbon isotopic compositions of authigenic carbonate precipitates in serpentinite clasts and muds from several other mud volcanoes partly overlap with our data but generally sample a much wider range

5   ($\delta^{13}C$ = -27.4 to +10.2‰; Haggerty, 1987; Haggerty, 1991; Gharib, 2006).

Oxygen isotopic values of shallow carbonates ($\delta^{18}O$ = 33.0–36.3‰) fall in the range of previously reported authigenic carbonate (Haggerty, 1987, Haggerty, 1991; Gharib, 2006; Tran et al., 2014), but the deep carbonates have $\delta^{18}O$ values ranging between 20.2 and 23.5‰, which are clearly different (Fig. 6, Table 3). These are in the range of aragonite data reported by Alt and Shanks III (2006) and are among the lowest $\delta^{18}O$ values reported for carbonates from the Mariana

10 forearc.

Barite of the carbonate–sulfate vein hosted by the quartzite sample has a $\delta^{34}S$ value of 18.8‰ and a $\delta^{18}O$ value of 13.5‰ (Table 3).

5 Discussion

5.1 Recycling of Pacific crust through serpentinite mud volcanism

15 The serpentinized peridotite clasts represent forearc mantle material; by contrast, the likely origin of the metavolcanic and metasedimentary lithologies is the subducting plate. The presence of remnant Ti-rich pyroxene implies an ocean island provenance for the metavolcanic rocks (Fig. 2; Leterrier et al., 1982). These data are in line with petrographic observations and geochemical data on IODP Expedition 366 recovery demonstrating the recycling of Pacific plate seamount material via serpentinite mud volcanism (Fryer et al., 2018b; Fryer et al., in review at Phil. Trans. A). Secondary phases within the

20 metavolcanic clasts illustrate a high-pressure metamorphic overprint in accordance with estimated peak pressure conditions at depth beneath Fantangisña (slab depth ~14 km) and Asùt Tesoru (~18 km; Oakley et al., 2007; Oakley et al., 2008; Hulme et al., 2010). Glaucophane and lawsonite, present in samples from Asùt Tesoru, indicate beginning blueschist metamorphic conditions. Similar blueschist materials from the serpentinite mud volcanoes have previously been studied by, e.g., Maekawa et al. (1995) and Fryer et al. (1999).

25 Quartzite breccias have not been previously described from the serpentinite mud volcanoes. We suggest that this sample represents lithified sedimentary siliceous ooze from the subducted Pacific plate. Such oozes cover large areas of the Western Pacific seafloor (*cf.* ODP Sites 801 and 1149, Shipboard Scientific Party, 2000), as the abyssal depth of the Western Pacific is in many places below the carbonate compensation depth (~4.5 km), which leads to the dissolution of large parts of otherwise frequent calcareous plankton (e.g., Pälike et al., 2012). With progressive metamorphism during subduction, the

30 silica-rich sediments were likely transformed into quartzite (*cf.* Kastner et al., 1981). The brecciation indicates the exposure of the quartzite to strain at temperatures below that of the brittle–plastic transition zone (<300–350°C; e.g., Stipp and Kunze,

2008), in agreement with estimated temperature of 150°C for the subduction channel below Fantangisña (Hulme et al., 2010).

5.2 Carbonate formation in the subduction channel

For all veins, geochemical data and textural relationships of the vein assemblages demonstrate that the precipitates formed
5   (i) within the subduction zone and (ii) after deformation of the clasts and their eventual detachment from the forearc mantle and subducting slab, respectively. (i) The carbonate REE patterns substantially differ from those of carbonates formed during seawater circulation within the ocean crust where the formation of Ca carbonate veins in mafic portions of the ocean crust is a common process (e.g., Alt and Teagle, 1999). Rausch (2012) studied carbonate veins within the upper oceanic crust from the West Pacific (Sites 801 and 1149, ODP Leg 185) in host lithologies comparable to those subducted at the Izu–Bonin–
10   Mariana convergent margin (Fig. 4). These carbonates exhibit higher REE concentrations than the carbonates in this study and enrichments in HREEs compared to our deep carbonates, which are characterized by significant depletions in HREEs and frequent negative Ce anomalies (Fig. 4). Only one sample (U1498B-8R-1, 10–15 cm) shows a slight HREE-enrichment similar to Pacific crust carbonates, yet total REE concentrations are considerably lower. Hence, we rule out that the deep carbonates, i.e., carbonates hosted by metavolcanic and -sedimentary clasts, have formed during alteration of the ocean crust
15   before subduction. In contrast, vein carbonates in ultramafic clasts exhibit REE concentrations and patterns similar to those of carbonates from Sites 801 and 1149 (Fig. 4). But these veins are hosted by peridotite clasts from the forearc mantle—they hence must have formed within the subduction zone. Further credence to the formation within the forearc is lend by the Sr isotopic signatures of the carbonates: compositions are similar to those of the slab-fluids with the lowest, i.e., most unradiogenic, $^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr$ values (Fig. 5). These unradiogenic signals represent the pore waters least altered by mixing with
20   seawater and we interpret them to depict endmember compositions. The similar isotopic characteristics between these endmember fluids and the deep carbonates imply their likely precipitation from these slab-derived fluids at depth. (ii) We further base this interpretation on textural evidence: radial growth (e.g., Fig. 3d) and euhedral crystal shapes (e.g., Fig. 3c) of vein precipitates associated with the deep carbonates indicate growth in strain-free environments, i.e., subsequent to deformation/brecciation. The host rocks show evidence of high-pressure/low-temperature metamorphism along a cold
25   geotherm as deformation and recrystallization to, e.g., pumpellyite or glaucophane; no such indications could be identified for the deep carbonates or associated silicates and/or barite.

We conclude that the vein assemblages including the deep carbonates have precipitated from fluids after high-strain events affected their metavolcanic and metasedimentary hosts. The veins and cavities that now host the deep carbonates can either have formed (for instance by high pore fluid pressure resulting from ongoing fluid release; *cf.* Hacker et al., 2003; Taetz et
30   al., 2018) before their host rocks were detached from the slab or during breakup of the clasts within the subduction channel. During and after vein assemblage formation, relatively strain-free environments must have prevailed to form and preserve the observed undeformed mineral textures. Nevertheless, pressure–temperature conditions during vein precipitate formation were likely similar to the peak metamorphic conditions under which their host rocks recrystallized, as indicated by the

presence of aragonite and its intergrowth with lawsonite and phengite. Aragonite itself is restricted to high-pressure systems (e.g., Johannes and Puhan, 1971). Lawsonite is characteristic of metamorphic alteration of mafic rocks under blueschist facies conditions (e.g., Black, 1977) at high pressures and temperatures ranging from 150 to 400°C (Essene et al., 1965; Diessel et al., 1978). Intimate intergrowth of lawsonite with aragonite (Fig. 2a) hence clearly indicated that these veins

5   formed at great depth. Furthermore, the uniform REE+Y patterns as well as Sr isotopic compositions of those deep veins suggest that they have precipitated from fluids with alike compositions.

Temperatures of formation are difficult to constrain from metamorphic assemblages in subduction zones, but carbonate formation temperatures can be calculated from their $\delta^{18}O$ values if the O isotopic composition of the precipitating solution is

10   known. Pore waters of the most deeply rooted mud volcano (Asùt Tesoru) have $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$ values of +1.7 to +2‰ (Debret et al., 2019); however, it is unlikely that these fluids retained their O-isotopic composition during their ascent from the décollement. Temperature estimates based on these isotopic compositions would range from ~60 to 95°C for deep carbonates (Fig. 7; O'Neil et al., 1969, Friedman and O'Neil, 1977). These values are much lower than the temperatures of 150 to 250°C estimated for the depth of the slab interface beneath the serpentinite mud volcanoes (Hulme et al., 2010) and it

15   seems unlikely that the $\delta^{18}O$ values of the pore waters of the mud volcanoes are representative for the slab-derived fluids from which the carbonates precipitated. The precipitation of the deep carbonates presumably occurred at (considerably) higher temperatures. Alt and Shanks III (2006) calculated isotopic compositions of fluids released at depth that are in equilibrium with the weighted mean of subducting sediment (their Table 4). These authors estimate the $\delta^{18}O$ value of such fluid to be 12‰ at 200°C and to be 16‰ at 300°C. Adopting their approach, we calculated $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$ in equilibrium with

20   subducting sediment based on fractionation coefficients for calcite–water, quartz–water, albite–water, illite–water, and chlorite–water from Zheng (1993a,b, 1999). For the inferred slab temperatures of 150°C below Fantangisña and of 250°C below Asùt Tesoru (Hulme et al., 2010) we obtain $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$ compositions of 9.3‰ and 14.9‰, respectively. If the deep carbonates formed in equilibrium with these fluids, precipitation would be shifted to 130 to 175°C and to 220 to 310°C, respectively (Fig. 7). These estimates overlap with those for carbonates hosted in metavolcanic and -sedimentary clasts from

25   Conical seamount that have similar O isotopic compositions ($\delta^{18}O$ = 16.7–24.5‰; Fig. 6) and are interpreted to have formed from slab-derived fluids at temperatures of up to 250°C (Alt and Shanks III, 2006). Fluids expelled from sediments at shallow depths in subduction zones may generally have high $\delta^{18}O$ values: for instance, Bebout and Barton (1989) estimated a $\delta^{18}O$ value of 13‰ for slab-derived fluids at 25 to 45 km depth in the Catalina Schist subduction complex.

Yet, incipient serpentinization in the subduction channel likely removes ^{18}O from the fluids into serpentine (e.g., Alt and

30   Shanks III, 2006; Debret et al., 2019) so that the actual $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$ in the subduction channel, which likely contains eroded variably serpentinized materials from the basal plane of the mantle wedge, may be somewhat lower. The temperatures estimated on the basis of calculated $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$ values should therefore be considered maximum estimates. But besides that, the estimated formation temperatures of 130 to 310°C are well in line with pectolite and prehnite associated with the deep carbonates in some of the veins. These phases require formation temperatures that well fit the above proposed temperatures:

Pectolite may form at temperatures as high as 300 to 350°C (e.g., Craw and Landis, 1980; Esteban et al., 2003), and similarly, prehnite may be stable in water–rock systems up to temperatures of ~300°C (e.g., Bird and Spieler, 2004). Pectolite and prehnite are often associated with rodingitization (e.g., Austrheim and Prestvik, 2008), a process in that crustal rocks interacting with serpentinization fluids undergo Ca-metasomatism including the formation of Ca–Al silicates, such as

5   hydrogarnet, prehnite, and vesuvianite (see, e.g., Bach and Klein, 2009, for details).

We suggest that the deep carbonates formed from dehydration fluids in the subduction channel soon after they were released from the downgoing slab. This idea is supported by the trace element composition of the deep carbonates, specifically the generally high concentrations of REEs and negative Ce anomalies. The low REE mobility and oxidizing conditions indicated

10   by these REE compositions do not support the idea that the fluids had been modified significantly by serpentinization reactions taking place where peridotitic clasts dominate the subduction channel mélange.

Furthermore, prevailing serpentinization within the subduction channel would produce reducing conditions due to the release of H_2 to the aqueous solutions (e.g., McCollom and Bach, 2009). But the pronounced negative Ce anomalies indicate that precipitation took place under fairly oxidizing conditions where Ce is tetravalent (e.g., German et al., 1991). Cerium is the

15   only REE that can exist in the trivalent and tetravalent oxidation state; in aqueous solutions, Ce^{4+} is less soluble than Ce^{3+}, resulting in its precipitation and the removal of Ce from the fluid, and the creation of the observed negative Ce anomalies. Cerium anomalies may hence be used as a redox proxy (e.g., German and Elderfield, 1990; Tostevin et al., 2016). We calculated the predominant redox states of Ce and Eu in the $aH_2(aq)$ vs. temperature plane to identify the low reduction potential under which the carbonates have formed (Fig. 8; see figure caption for details on the calculations). Within the

20   estimated temperature range of ~130 to 310°C, Ce^{4+} will be stable under fairly oxidizing conditions. Since not all deep carbonates exhibit Ce anomalies, the conditions presumably shifted towards slightly more reducing conditions, i.e., approaching the field of Ce^{3+} (Fig. 8). Yet, the redox conditions under which tetravalent Ce is expected to predominate are clearly within the stability region of SO_4^{2-} and CO_2 (Fig. 8). This result is consistent with the abundance of carbonate veins and the presence of barite in the quartzite sample. Our estimate puts the upper boundary of H_2 activity in the fluids well

25   below levels imposed by serpentinization reactions, which would be > log -2 for temperatures between 200 and 300°C (McCollom and Bach, 2009). These findings lend further credence to the hypothesis that the carbonate precipitation occurred in a system that was not dominated by serpentinization reactions. It is hence likely that the deep carbonates formed within the subduction channel, where serpentinization of the mantle wedge contributes to a lower degree to the overall redox conditions. Instead, dehydration processes induced by prograde reactions in the subducting slab are thought to drive more

30   oxic conditions. These processes include the release of pore waters due to sediment compaction, dehydration of opal-CT, decomposition of clay, as well as decarbonation (e.g., Mottl et al., 2004; Fryer et al., 2018b). On the basis of the textural relationships implying strain-free environments, we can speculate that the deep carbonate precipitation occurred after the metavolcanics/metasediments were detached from the subducting lithosphere (Figure 9). Our isotope-based temperature

estimates are in line with this interpretation as they well match inferred slab-temperatures of ~150°C beneath Fantangisña and ~250°C beneath Asùt Tesoru.

5.3 Processes in the mud volcano conduits

Within the mantle wedge, serpentinization is expected to become a dominant process and the redox conditions will become
5 ~~highly~~ reducing, which is indicated by the presence of magnetite and awaruite in the serpentinite clasts (Kahl et al., 2015). These reducing conditions prevail in the mantle wedge and mud volcano conduits: Kawagucci et al. (2018) suggested that the fluids venting at the South Chamorro mud volcano had as much as 40 mM H_2, before most of the H_2 was consumed by microbial sulfate reduction.

The veined metavolcanic clasts were exposed to these reducing conditions imposed by serpentinization reactions, but the
10 carbonate phases preserved a record of earlier oxidizing conditions in the subduction channel. However, evidence for late-stage reactions between the metavolcanic clasts and serpentinization fluids exists in the form of vein phases such as nesquehonite, $Mg(HCO_3)(OH) \cdot 2(H_2O)$. This phase is stable only at temperatures of <100°C (Davies and Bubela, 1973; Suzuki and Ito, 1974; Ballirano et al., 2010) and forms exclusively in alkaline environments (Wilson et al., 2009). Thaumasite, $Ca_3Si(CO_3)(SO_4)(OH)_6 \cdot 12(H_2O)$, another low-temperature alteration phase in mafic rocks, forms preferentially
15 in the presence of carbonate and sulfate at low temperatures and under alkaline conditions (e.g., Karpoff et al., 1992; Schmidt et al., 2008). Within the marine realm, the formation of thaumasite occurs at temperatures of <100°C (e.g., Noack, 1983; Karpoff et al., 1992). Nesquehonite and thaumasite are not directly intergrown with the deep carbonates but rather occur in veins that in some cases crosscut the deep carbonates. They likely formed during low-temperature alteration of the clasts below or within the mud volcanoes.

The precipitation of shallow carbonates within the mud volcanoes took place under drastically different conditions in comparison to the deep carbonate formation, as indicated by their contrasting O isotope compositions. Radiating clusters of aragonite at Yinazao have exceptionally high $\delta^{18}O$ values (~36.6‰), which leads to unrealistically low calculated formation temperatures (after Grossman and Ku, 1986) if the lowest $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$ value (-1.5‰; Debret et al., 2019) is assumed.
25 Temperatures calculated for the highest values of $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$ at Yinazao (+0.6‰) would be just below 1°C. Temperatures of 3.0°C and 15.6°C are computed for the calcite crystal ($\delta^{18}O = 33$‰) recovered from Asùt Tesoru (using Friedmann and O'Neil, 1977) and the range of $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$ values of pore water (-0.2 to +2.5‰; Debret et al., 2019). These estimates imply a formation of the shallow carbonates at low temperatures, which is in accordance with results of earlier work (Gharib, 2006; Tran et al., 2014).
30 The very low REE+Y contents of authigenic aragonite and calcite and of carbonate hosted in veins of the serpentinite clasts and one metavolcanic clast may point to a fluid source distinct from the slab-derived fluids. Low total REE+Y concentrations would be plausible if seawater was mixed in the shallow muds of the serpentinite mud volcanoes (REE concentrations in NW Pacific bottom water are <60 pM; e.g., Piepgras and Jacobsen 1992). The co-occurrence of iowaite

with the shallow carbonates implies oxic conditions, further strengthening our conclusion of the presence of seawater (*cf.* Heling and Schwarz, 1992; Bach et al., 2004). Seawater would as well provide Cl$^-$ during the formation of iowaite. Yet, this interpretation is inconsistent with the similar ^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr isotopic compositions of the deep and shallow carbonates, indicating that entrainment of seawater in the shallow parts of the system were minimal (no apparent seawater fraction for two out of

5 three authigenic carbonate samples; *cf.* Fig. 6). The lower REE+Y contents of the shallow carbonates may hence be more plausibly explained by (i) a loss of the REEs *en route* to the surface (*cf.* Kahl et al., 2015; see also next section), or (ii) lower precipitation temperatures that will favor crystal-chemical discrimination against REEs.

If the pore waters from the mud volcanoes indeed represent cooled slab-derived fluids, then the oxygen isotopic composition must have been considerably changed from high initial δ^{18}O values to overall seawater-like compositions near the seafloor.

10 This shift in δ^{18}O may be explained by isotopic exchange in the mud between water and serpentine, which has higher δ^{18}O values than mantle wedge peridotites (e.g., Alt and Shanks III, 2006; Debret et al., 2019) and may hence explain the postulated decrease of δ^{18}O values in the interacting fluids. The magnitude of the shift would indicate very low water-to-rock ratios.

5.4 Element transfers into the mantle wedge

15 #### 5.4.1. Fluid release and subsequent fluid–mineral interactions

In addition to help constraining the temperature and redox conditions in the mud volcanoes' plumbing system, our results yield insights into the transport of elements from slab to seafloor. Barite intergrown with aragonite represents sulfate that was subducted with the downgoing slab. Sediment pore waters of the subducting lithosphere contain seawater with noticeable sulfate concentrations (D'Hondt et al., 2002). The isotopic composition of barite (δ^{34}S = 18.8‰) is lower than that

20 of modern seawater (21‰). In the Cretaceous and Cenozoic ocean water, δ^{34}S values of sulfate was as low as ~15‰ (e.g., Paytan et al., 2014). Since the downgoing plate is inferred to have an age of >150 Ma (Müller et al., 2008), the isotopic composition of barite may represent Upper Mesozoic or Cenozoic seawater.

Strontium isotopic compositions and high LREE+Y contents of the deep carbonates provide additional evidence for mass transfer from the slab to the subduction channel and hanging wall. The unradiogenic values of ^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr ranging from

25 0.70495 to 0.70566 cannot be reconciled with simple expulsion of seawater trapped in void space of the subducting sediment and basement. A fraction of the Sr must have also been released from slab minerals in the course of dehydration to explain the low ^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr numbers of the veins. Textural relations between the deep carbonates and silicates as well as barite imply that these phases grew simultaneously. The associations of carbonate with silicates or barite can be observed in the clasts of the intermediate-sourced Fantangisña and deep-sourced Asùt Tesoru, indicating an input of slab-derived dissolved inorganic

30 carbon (DIC) in slab–interface depths of >14 km. For these mud volcanoes, the element release by dehydration of subducted clays and altered basalt has been suggested based on pore water compositions (Mottl et al., 2004; Hulme et al., 2010). These authors further proposed from an across-forearc comparison of pore water compositions that compositional differences are

due to progressive slab dewatering and related element release (e.g., Mottl et al., 2004; Hulme et al., 2010; Fryer et al., 2018b). The Ca and Sr contents of the pore waters do reflect the distribution of vein carbonates in the clasts, indicating that deep slab-derived fluids are preserved in the mud volcano fluids all the way from the top of the subducting slab to the seafloor. This seems particularly true for Sr isotopic compositions. It is, however, likely that the contents of elements less mobile than Ca and Sr are influenced by fluid–rock interactions. Geochemical studies of veined clasts show that these interactions do take place. Slab-derived fluid compositions are altered by interactions of these fluids by subsequent exchange processes with rocks in the subduction channel and forearc. Using trace element compositions of serpentine veins from South Chamorro, Kahl et al. (2015) showed that trace element and Si concentrations were high during early but low during later serpentinization stages of ultramafic clasts. This trend was interpreted to result from an *en route* loss of these elements from the fluids to the rocks within the subduction channel. Our results show that the highly immobile behavior of REEs likely resulted in rapid uptake by early precipitates. The depletion from the ascending fluids then gave rise to low concentrations of REEs in the shallow carbonates of the serpentinite mud volcanoes. Other species that were incorporated into the vein assemblages, such as Al in lawsonite, were likely sequestered from the slab-derived fluids in a similar manner. Calcium-rich vein phases, namely aragonite, calcite, pectolite, and prehnite, derive their Ca either from slab-derived fluids or it is provided by the Ca-rich metavolcanic host rocks (mid-ocean ridge and ocean island basalt in the Pacific Ocean basin typically contain >8 wt.% CaO; e.g., Dasgupta et al., 2010; White and Klein, 2014). The latter could be particularly important at Asùt Tesoru, where Ca (and Sr) concentrations in the shallow pore waters and seep fluids are low (Mottl et al., 2004; Fryer et al., 2018b). If these low Ca and Sr concentrations were inherited from processes in the subduction channel, it would support the formation of deep carbonate veins in basalt clasts and the quartzite breccia sample of Asùt Tesoru. In contrast, the very high concentrations of Ca (58 mM on average; Wheat et al., 2018) and Sr (mostly >600 μM) in shallow fluids at Yinazao may indicate a lack of carbonate precipitation at depth. This idea is consistent with a lack of carbonate veins in the clasts at Yinazao. Calcium and Sr concentrations in pore waters at Fantangisña are intermediate, as is to be expected based on slab depths and inferred slab interface temperatures that are in-between those at Asùt Tesoru and Yinazao. The deep carbonate distribution hence appears to support the model by, e.g., Mottl et al. (2004) and Hulme et al. (2010), who suggested that the geochemical diversity of fluids seeping at the seafloor reflects differences in the compositions of the fluids liberated from the downgoing slab at different depths and temperatures as well as post-liberation fluid–rock interactions.

5.4.2. Element sources

The constituents needed to precipitate the vein carbonates as well as coexisting minerals may have been provided by the slab-derived fluids (external source) or were present in the respective clasts that reacted with the fluids (internal source). This is particularly true for C, Na, Al, Si, SO_4^{2-}, Ca, Sr, and Ba as well as REEs. Comparison of Sr isotope compositions of the deep carbonates with that of upwelling fluids attests to a formation from slab-derived fluids. We argue that this is indicative of a fluid-dominated system, i.e., high water/rock ratios, and hence of external sources for the chemical species

stated above. Nevertheless, more rock-dominated interactions between fluids and clasts may have prevailed in narrow, sub-mm wide veinlets crosscutting the samples; internal element sources cannot be ruled out in these cases.

The elements are likely liberated during the breakdown of opal and clay in subducted sediments and crust and/or during reactive fluid flow through slab- and subduction channel-materials (e.g., John et al., 2008). The similarity in REE+Y patterns

5 of sediments and deep carbonates (Fig. 4) is suggestive of a sediment source, but these patterns may be biased by the presence of other vein phases. For instance, lawsonite serves as a primary host for REEs under blueschist facies conditions (Spandler et al., 2003); the REE patterns of aragonite intergrown with lawsonite in sample U1496B-8X-CC, 33–41 cm, are consequently a function of the REE incorporation into lawsonite and must not represent the composition of the fluid initially released from the slab. Other vein phases coexisting with the deep carbonates may have similar effects so that we cannot

10 make a conclusive statement on the primary element sources. However, carbon isotopic compositions (δ^{13}C = -0.6 to +3.3‰) imply the C to be derived from inorganic portions of the sediments/crust (e.g., Craig, 1953).

The compositions of venting fluids across the Mariana forearc sequentially change in response to pressure and temperature conditions within the subduction channel, reflecting progressive devolatilization processes that trigger fluid and elemental release from the downgoing slab (e.g., Mottl et al., 2004; Hulme et al., 2010; Fryer et al., 2018b). However, it is likely that

15 fluid compositions at depth differ from what has been measured in seafloor samples. Initial fluid compositions are altered by metamorphic, metasomatic, and mineral dissolution and precipitation processes occurring in the forearc (e.g., Kahl et al., 2015). Low measured pore water element concentrations at the serpentinite mud volcanoes may hence either indicate that no significant amounts of the respective species to have been released from the slab, or that these were exhausted during fluid–rock interactions and mineral precipitation during fluid transit to the seafloor.

20 **5.5 Implications for carbon cycling**

Our data provide an important asset on understanding the transfer of carbonic fluids from the subducting slab and reactions of these fluids with rocks in the subduction channel. The data show that C is mobilized from the downgoing slab at subduction depths as low as ~14 km and lower blueschist facies temperatures within the Mariana subduction system. The mobilization of C at these low metamorphic grades is in accordance with experiments by Caciagli and Manning (2003), who

25 showed that calcite solubility increases with pressure and temperature at pressures ≥0.3 GPa. Some of the mobilized C subsequently rises through the forearc with upwelling fluids and is either incorporated into carbonate precipitates within the serpentinite mud volcanoes or reduced to methane and transported back to the seafloor by serpentinite mud volcano activity (Mottl et al., 2004; Hulme et al., 2010; Fryer et al., 2018b). The abundance of carbonate veins in clasts from mud volcanoes with slab depths of ≥14 km show that the portion of C that is trapped by carbonate mineralization within the subduction

30 channel is likely large. The REE+Y characteristics of these carbonates indicate that the redox conditions within the subduction channel are oxic and within the stability field of DIC (and not methane). Carbon isotope compositions (δ^{13}C = -0.6 to +3.3‰) also show that CO_2 reduction, which would deplete ^{12}C from the DIC pool, does not take place. Carbonate veins in clasts of metasediment were also recovered from Conical (~19 km depth to slab; Shipboard Science Party, 1990);

these carbonate minerals have similar C isotopic compositions compared to the here-studied carbonates ($\delta^{13}C$ = +0.07 to +2.5‰; Alt and Shanks III, 2006). The presence of these attest that the mobilization of carbon continues at greater depths. The bulk of these carbonates presumably is not entrained into the serpentinite mud volcano conduits and remains at depth where it could remain in the forearc mantle or may even be subducted further in the system.

5   Based on the pore water compositions of the Mariana serpentinite mud volcanoes, it has previously been suggested that the decarbonation of the subducted slab initiates at depths of <30 km (e.g., Mottl et al., 2004; Hulme et al., 2010; Fryer et al., 2018b). Our examination of the deep carbonate precipitates formed within the subduction channel provides information on geochemical conditions at depths of ~14 to 18 km and potential C sources. Samples from these shallow slab depths have not previously been described and hence shallow decarbonation processes have not been assessed. Geochemical modeling,

10 experiments, and field evidence have focused on potential carbon mobilization at greater depths and temperatures of >300°C (e.g., Ague and Nicolescu, 2014; Dasgupta et al., 2004; Frezzotti et al., 2011; Gorman et al., 2006; Molina and Poli, 2000; Newton and Manning, 2002; Piccoli et al., 2016; Schwarzenbach et al., 2018; Sieber et al., 2018; Sverjensky et al., 2014; Kerrick and Connolly, 2001). Budgets for the deep carbon cycle are hence plagued by very large uncertainties (e.g., Dasgupta and Hierschmann, 2010; Füri et al., 2010; Kelemen and Manning, 2015).

15 To predict the global significance of this process and its weight in the deep carbon cycle, further work is needed. Our data suggest that simple devolatilization reactions (e.g., Kerrick and Connolly, 2001) do not account for the mobilization of C within these shallow portions of the subduction system. Instead, we suggest that fluid-induced dissolution of carbonate (e.g., Poli et al., 2009) is the more likely process that leads to the release of C under shallow forearc conditions. Kelemen and Manning (2015) estimated the global C loss from forearcs to up to 12 Mt C a^{-1}. This budget includes carbon loss due to

20 venting of carbonic fluids as it occurs in the Mariana forearc, but does not cover the solid storage of C within the shallow portions of subduction systems. Our study highlights that additional work is needed to better understand the shallow processes that affect the cycling of C.

6 Conclusions

We studied clasts recovered from serpentinite mud volcanoes at the Mariana forearc that provide insight into shallow

25 subduction zone processes. The clasts include serpentinite, metavolcanic, and metasedimentary lithologies that host carbonate ± silicate ± sulfate veins. The samples can be subdivided into two groups:

(i)   Veins comprising 'deep' carbonates are present in metavolcanic and -sedimentary clasts from the subducting Pacific plate. Phase assemblages, euhedral textures, and geochemical data suggest that these veins formed within the subduction channel after the clasts were detached from subducted lithosphere. Negative Ce

30   anomalies in carbonate and the co-occurrence of sulfate imply precipitation under oxic conditions, and carbonate O isotopic compositions imply temperatures of ~130 to 300°C. This interpretation is consistent with carbonate $^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr$ isotopic compositions that indicate considerable exchange of Sr between seawater-derived

fluids and rock within the slab and subduction channel. Mass transfers from the subducting Pacific slab to the subduction channel are particularly apparent for C, Sr, SO_4^{2-}, Ba, and LREEs; C is inorganic and is likely derived from the decarbonation of carbonaceous sediment and/or oceanic crust.

(ii) 'Shallow' carbonates are mainly hosted by in veins of variably serpentinized ultramafic clasts representing the forearc mantle of the Philippine Sea plate. Crosscutting relationships imply a late formation of these veins, and coexisting iowaite points at precipitation from oxidizing, Cl-containing fluids. The carbonate REE+Y patterns are similar to those of acicular, authigenic aragonite and calcite that formed at ambient seawater temperatures within the serpentinite mudflows. Carbon incorporated in these carbonates is inorganic; it may be slab-derived or from sourced from seawater.

Our data attest the mobilization of C from the downgoing slab at subduction depths of <20 km and low metamorphic grades (lower blueschist facies temperatures or below) within the Mariana subduction system. Some of the mobilized C subsequently rises through the forearc with upwelling fluids (e.g., Mottl et al., 2004; Hulme et al., 2010; Fryer et al., 2018b) and is either incorporated into carbonate precipitates within the serpentinite mud volcanoes or is transported back into the short-term carbon cycle as the fluids vent at the seafloor. But another portion of the mobilized C is trapped during carbonate mineralization under oxic conditions within the subduction channel. The bulk of these carbonates presumably remains at depth and may even be subducted further in the system.

Author contributions

EA carried out sampling, analyses, and data evaluation, except for pore fluids (CDM) and carbonate Sr isotopes (FL). FK supervised the Raman work. WB implemented the geochemical modeling. EA prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors. EA, WB, and CDM acquired funding for this project.

Acknowledgements

We thank the conveners and participants of the EGU Galileo conference 'Exploring new frontiers in fluid processes in subduction zones' for inspiring discussions and for inviting this manuscript. We are grateful to the captain and crew of the D/V *JOIDES Resolution*, to the Expedition 366 co-chief scientists P. Fryer and G. Wheat and the members of the Science Party. Timm John is thanked for stimulating discussions and comments on an earlier version of this contribution. Harald Strauß and Henning Kuhnert are thanked for the analyses of S and C and O isotopes, respectively, and Patrick Monien for help with LA-ICP-MS analyses. Constructive comments by Timm John helped to improve this manuscript. This research used samples and data provided by IODP. EA received financial support from the BremenIDEA out-program and from GLOMAR – Bremen International Graduate School for Marine Sciences. Funding was provided by the Deutsche

Forschungsgemeinschaft (German Research Foundation), grant no. BA 1605/18-1, to WB, and by a NERC UK IODP Phase 2 Moratorium Award [NE/P020909/1] to CDM.

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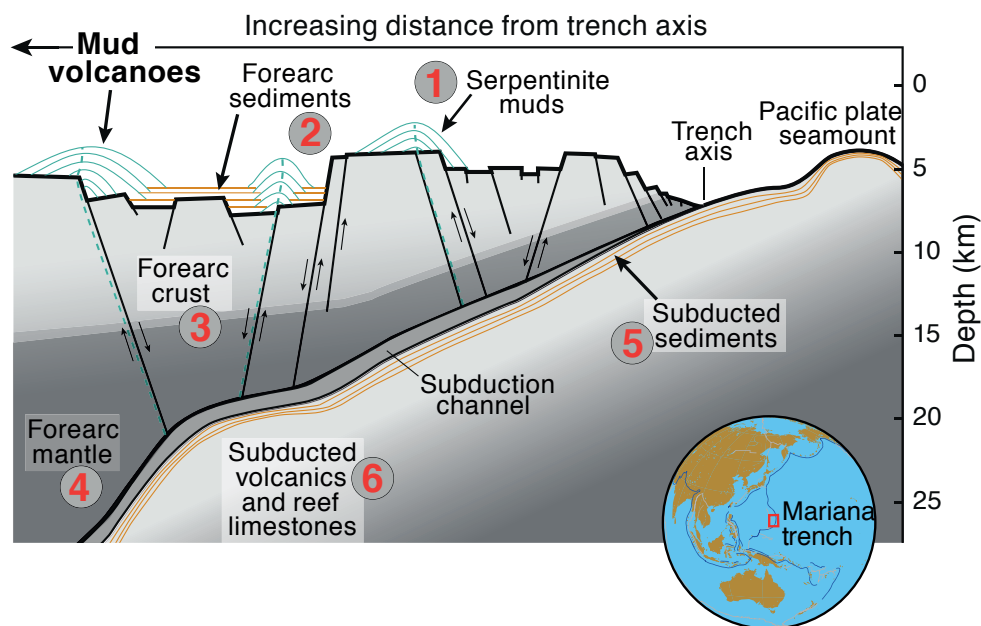
Figures

Figure 1: Geotectonic setting of the study area. Idealized cross-section of the Mariana forearc, including the relative positioning of serpentinite mud volcanoes drilled during IODP Expedition 366. Sediments (5) and crustal rocks (6) from the downgoing plate are
5   reworked in the shallow subduction zone and are, together with materials from the forearc lithosphere (2–4), erupted within the serpentinite mudflows (1). Figure modified from Fryer et al. (2018b).
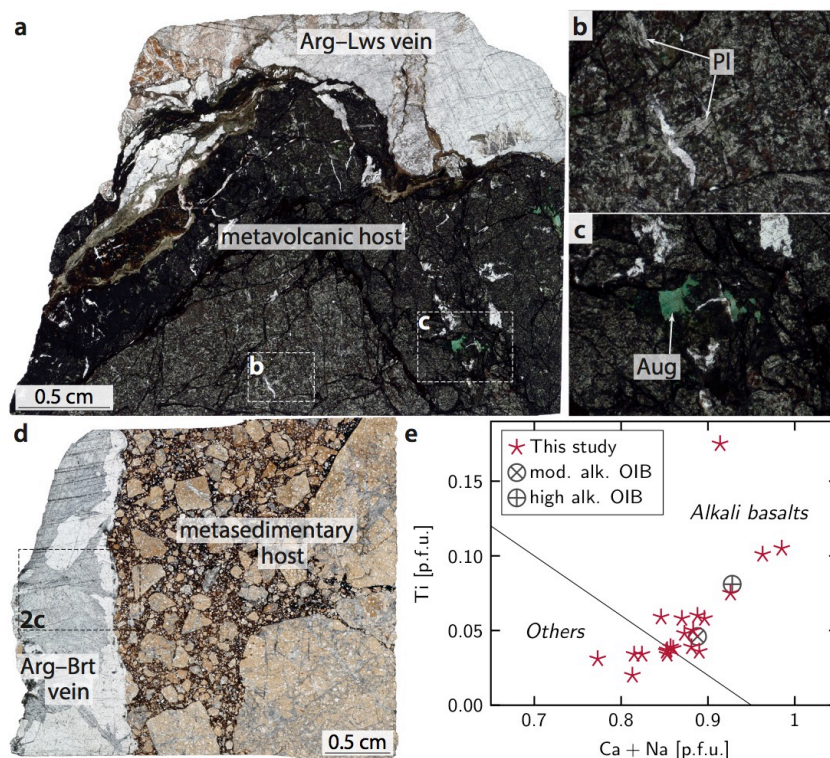
Figure 2: Thin section scans and photomicrographs showing host lithologies. (a) Thin section scan of a metavolcanic clast interpreted as subducted and recycled Pacific plate seamount material (sample U1496B-8X-CC, 33–41cm). A carbonate–silicate vein crosscuts the clast. Close-ups show **(b)** remnant primary plagioclase lath textures and **(c)** titanoferous clinopyroxene inside the metavolcanic rock. Representative analyses of metamorphic phases within the metavolcanic clasts are shown in Table S1. **(d)** Thin section scan of a metasedimentary clast representing subducted and recycled Pacific plate sediment (sample U1497A-7X-CC, 29–31 cm). The sample is cut by a carbonate–sulfate vein (close-up in Fig. 3.3c). **(e)** Discrimination diagram for clinopyroxene phenocrysts (after Leterrier et al., 1982). Many clinopyroxenes from the metavolcanic samples plot in the field of alkali basalts (calculated on the basis of 6 O). Averaged basalt compositions are shown for comparison (as compiled by Leterrier et al., 1982). Abbreviations: alk., alkaline; Arg, aragonite; Aug, augite; Brt, barite; Lws, lawsonite; mod., moderately; OIB, ocean island basalt; Pl, plagioclase.
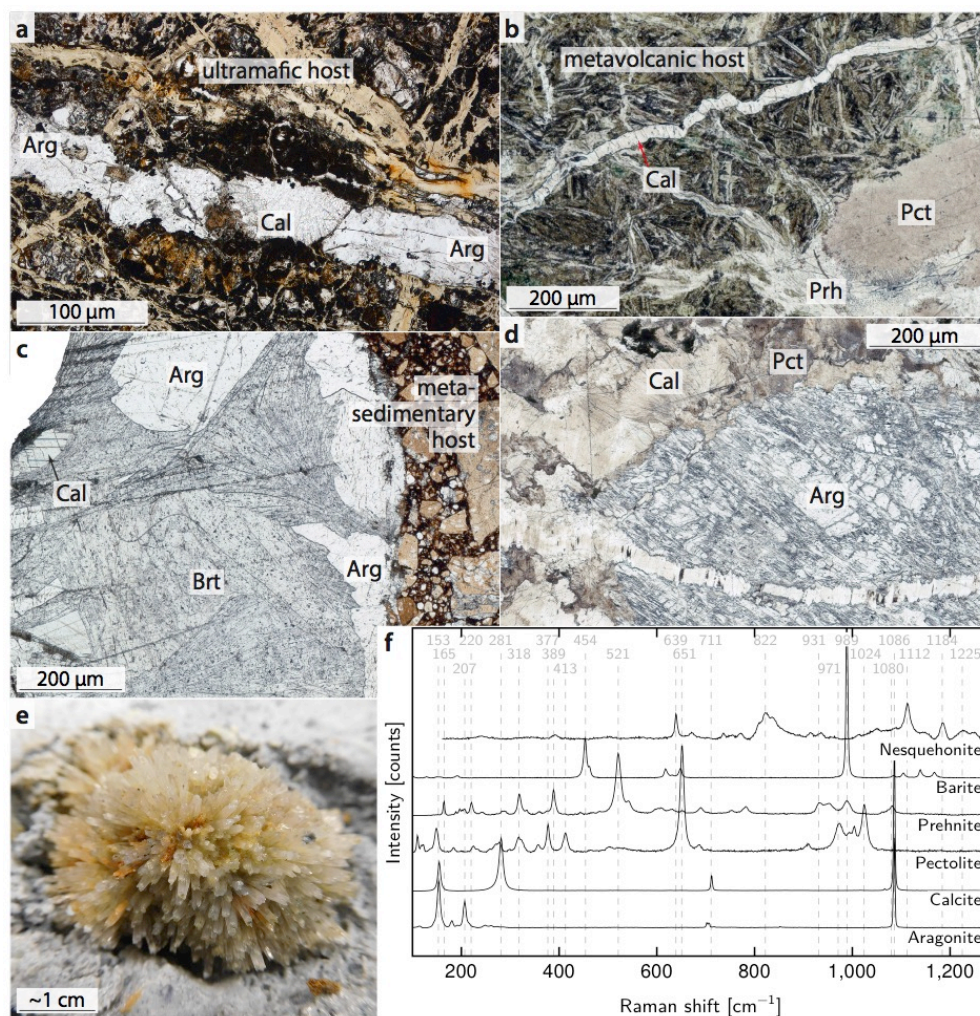
Figure 3: Thin section scans and photomicrographs depicting vein assemblages. (a) Late-stage calcite–aragonite vein in partially serpentinized ultramafic clast (sample U1491B-5H-CC, 1–3 cm). (b) Narrow late-stage calcite vein in metavolcanic host rock (sample U1498B-8R-1, 32–34 cm). (c) Wide barite–aragonite–calcite vein in a brecciated quartzite clast (sample U1497A-7X-CC, 29–31 cm). Euhedral crystal shapes imply a strain-free environment and chemical equilibrium during precipitation. (d) Wide vein inside metavolcanic clast with complex intergrowth of pectolite and microcrystalline calcite overgrowing earlier aragonite (sample U1498B-8R-1, 10–15 cm). (e) Authigenic aragonite with acicular growth within serpentinite mudflow (sample U1492B-1H-3, 16–18 cm). (f) Raman spectra of the most common carbonate, silicate, and sulfate vein assemblages. Abbreviations: Arg, aragonite; Brt, barite; Cal, calcite; Pct, pectolite; Prh, prehnite.
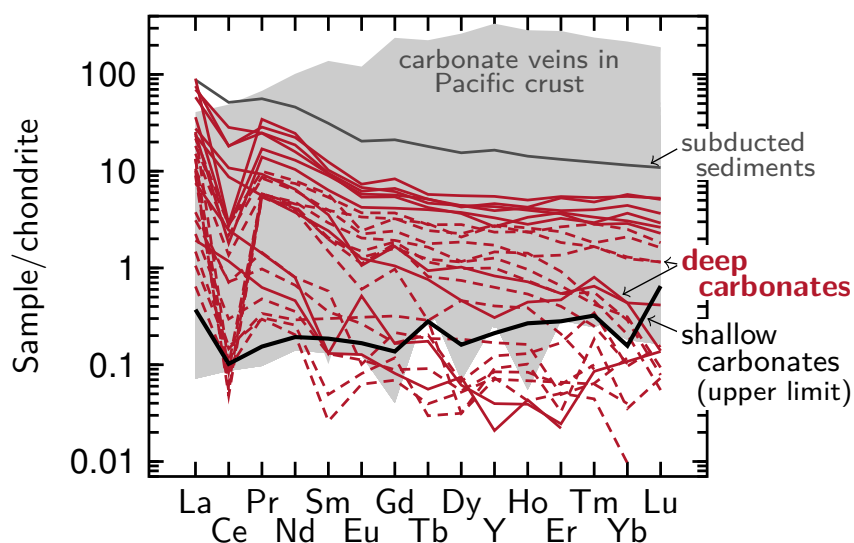
Figure 4: REE+Y compositions of vein carbonates normalized for chondrite (McDonough and Sun, 1995). Carbonates formed from deep fluids (red lines) are enriched in REEs and exhibit negative Ce anomalies. They are hosted by metavolcanic clasts and a quartzite breccia. Samples are from Fantangisña (dashed lines) and Asùt Tesoru (solid lines). Carbonates formed close to the seafloor have low REE contents (the black line marks the upper limit of REE contents across all authigenic carbonates and carbonates within serpentinite clasts) and likely precipitated from mixed venting fluid and seawater. These carbonates are hosted by serpentinite and one metavolcanic clasts, and also include carbonates that grew in the mud matrix. For comparison, REE data of carbonate veins in the basaltic Pacific crust (ODP Sites 801 and 1149; Rausch, 2012) and of subducting sediments (ODP Sites 800 and 801; Plank and Langmuir, 1998) are shown.
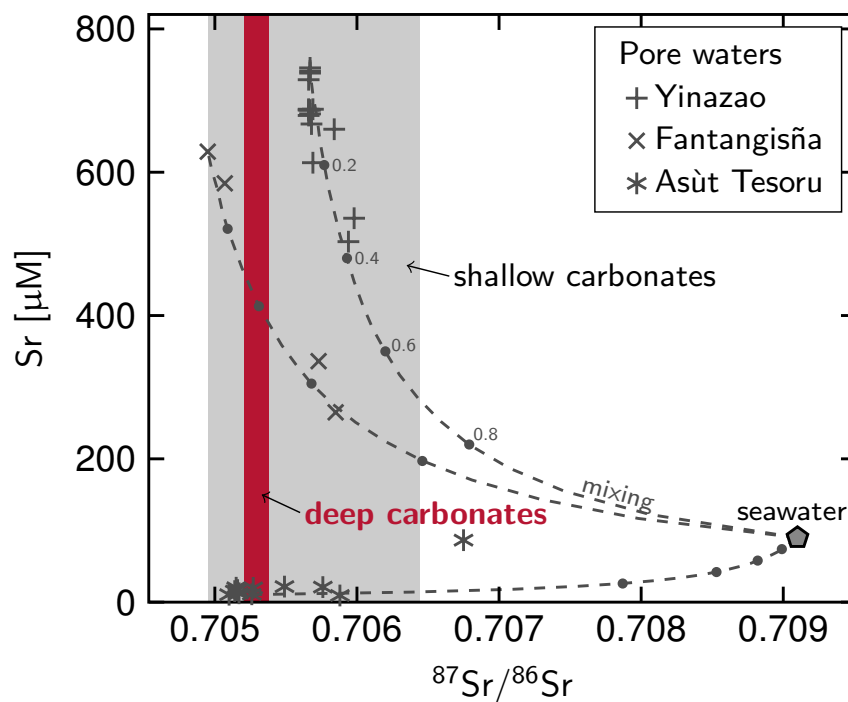
Figure 5: Strontium geochemistry of carbonates and serpentinite mud pore waters. Slab- derived fluids are more unradiogenic than seawater. Mixing of slab-derived fluids with seawater is indicated by sample plotting on the mixing lines; it usually occurs towards the core tops (*cf.* Table S2). Strontium isotopic values of deep carbonates well resemble those of slab-derived fluids, implying that they precipitated from these fluids at depth. Shallow carbonates exhibit a wider range of Sr isotopic compositions. They likely formed in the mixing zone of upwelling fluids and seawater. Note that even large amounts of seawater admixed into slab-derived fluids do not necessarily alter the Sr isotopic composition strongly (numbers along dashed mixing lines indicate fraction of seawater). Bottom seawater composition from Mottl et al. (2004).
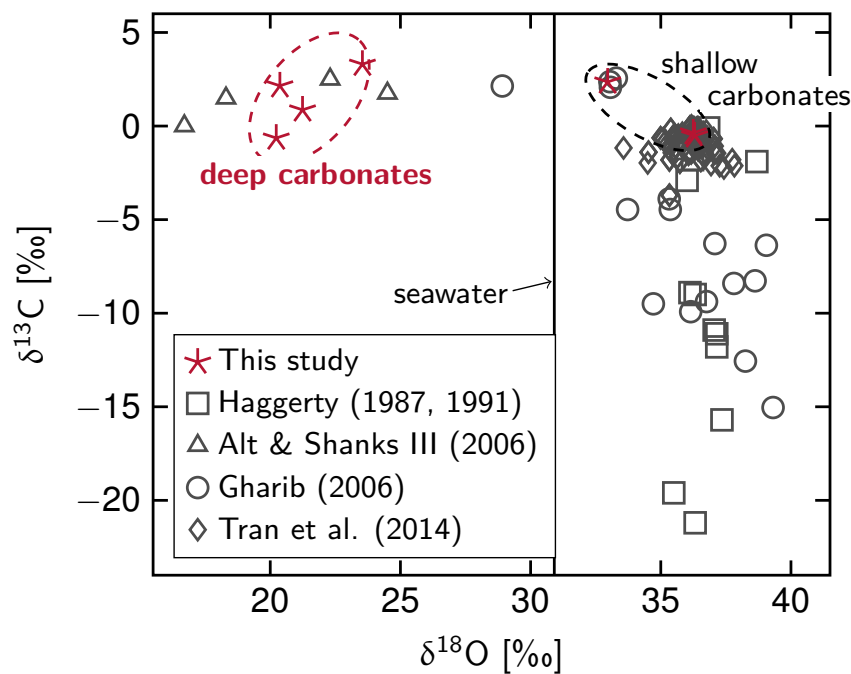
Figure 6: Carbonate C and O isotopic compositions. Carbonates from this study have slightly positive δ^{13}C values, suggesting an inorganic carbon source. Oxygen isotopic values of deep carbonates are considerably lower in comparison to authigenic carbonates since they precipitated at much higher temperatures. Compositions of carbonates from other Mariana serpentinite mud volcanoes are shown for comparison, including data depicting carbonate chimneys from Conical (Tran et al., 2014), authigenic carbonates from several Mariana mud volcanoes (Haggerty, 1991; Gharib, 2006), and aragonite in metabasalt and siltstone clasts from Conical (Alt and Shanks III, 2006). The latter potentially had the same carbon source and formed at similar high temperatures; carbonates studied by Haggerty (1991) and Gharib (2006) are influenced by organic compounds and precipitated at ambient seawater conditions.
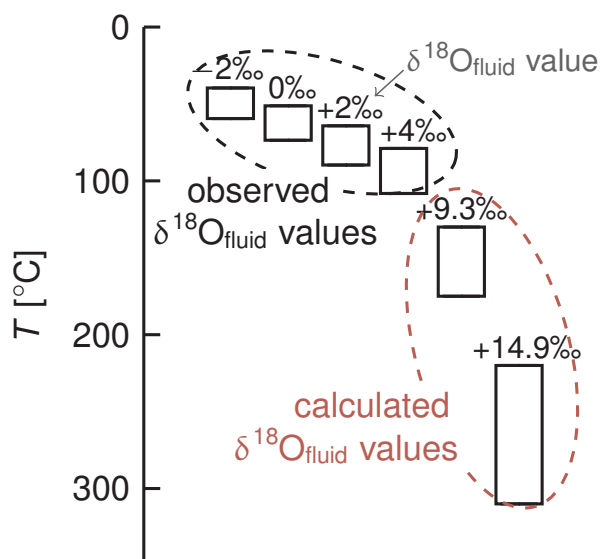
Figure 7: Estimated formation temperatures for deep carbonates. Oxygen isotopes suggest variable carbonate precipitation temperatures, depending on the isotope value of the fluid from which they formed. Pore water $\delta^{18}O$ compositions increase with depth-to-slab from negative values at Yinazao (–1.5‰) to positive values at Asùt Tesoru (+2.5‰) and Conical (+4‰). These would result in temperatures below 100°C; however, these fluids are not representative of fluid compositions at depth. In fact, calculated compositions of fluids being released from the subducting sediments have $\delta^{18}O$ ranging from 9.3 to 14.9‰. Temperature estimates based on these values are 130 to 175°C and 220 to 310°C, respectively. Serpentinite mud pore water data from Debret et al. (2019) and Mottl et al. (2004); temperature calculation after O'Neil et al. (1969) and Friedman and O'Neil (1977).
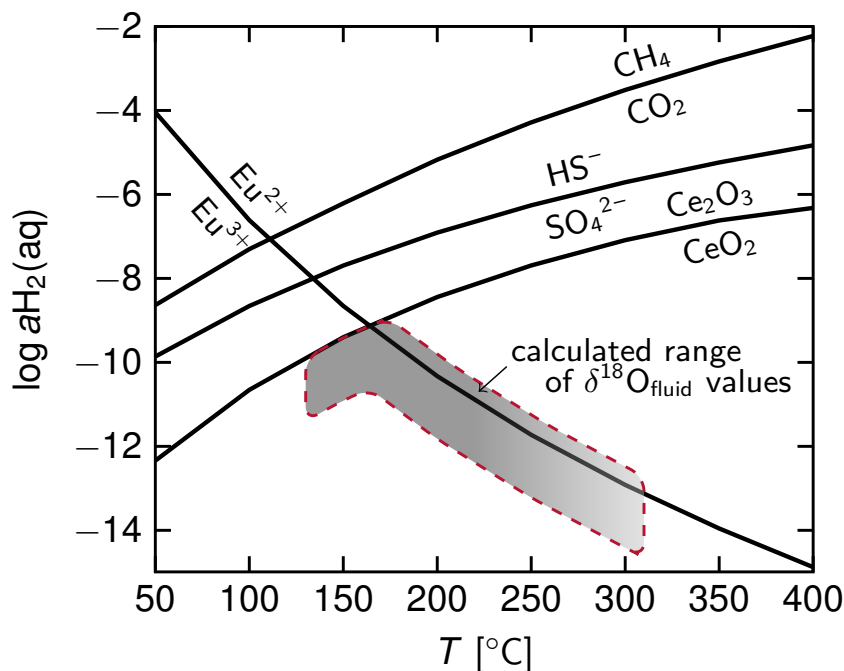
Figure 8: Predominance diagram showing the position of redox reaction equilibria for equal activities of oxidized and reduced species. Over the entire temperature range, Ce^{4+} is only stable under conditions of low log $aH_2(aq)$, i.e., in oxidizing environments. At these aH_2 conditions, CO_2 and SO_4^{2-} are stable as well. The shaded field marks the here suggested conditions under which the deep carbonate Ce anomalies may have developed underneath Fantangisña and Asùt Tesoru, as based on temperature estimates relying on calculated $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$ value (*cf.* Fig. 7). Europium anomalies are weakly developed (*cf.* Fig. 4), indicating Eu to be mostly present in a trivalent state in the fluids from which the carbonates precipitated. The positions of the reaction lines were computed with SUPCRT92 (Johnson et al., 1992) for a pressure of 50 MPa; this pressure roughly corresponds to a depth of 15 km, which is intermediate between the inferred depths below Fantangisña and Asùt Tesoru. For the computations, thermodynamic data from Shock and Helgeson (1988), Shock et al. (1997), and Helgeson et al. (1998) for aqueous species and Robie et al. (1978) as well as Robie and Hemingway (1995) for Ce oxides were used.
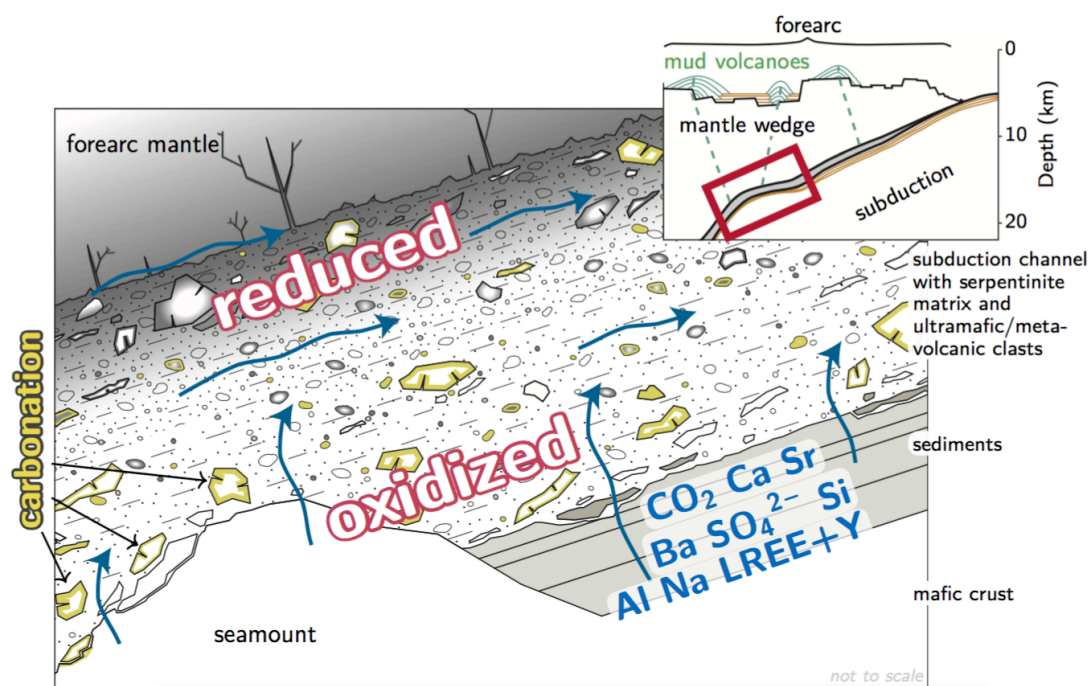
Figure 9: Cartoon illustrating inferred conditions within the subduction channel below the Mariana forearc. Dehydration and decarbonation reactions release CO_2, SO_4^{2-}, and other species into the subduction channel, where carbonation of metavolcanic clasts occurs under oxidizing conditions. Towards the mantle wedge, conditions become increasingly reducing. See text for further discussion. Inset modified from Fryer et al. (2018b).

Tables

Table 1: Overview on samples and vein mineralogies.

Sample	Seamount	Type	Vein mineralogy
U1491B-5H-CC, 0–3 cm	Yinazao	Serp. dunite	Cal, Arg, Hem
U1492B-1H-3, 16–18 cm	Yinazao	Authigenic	Arg
U1492B-1H-4, 8–10 cm	Yinazao	Authigenic	Arg
U1492C-1H-2, 18–20 cm	Yinazao	Serp. harzburgite	Cal, Brc, Mt
U1497A-7X-CC, 29–31 cm	Fantangisña	Metasediment	Arg, Cal, Brt
U1497A-8F-1, 118–122 cm	Fantangisña	Metavolcanic	none
U1497A-12F-1, 93–95 cm	Fantangisña	Metavolcanic	Cal
U1498B-8R-1, 0–4 cm	Fantangisña	Metavolcanic	Cal, Nsq, Pct, Prh, Thm
U1498B-8R-1, 10–15 cm	Fantangisña	Metavolcanic	Arg, Cal, Pct
U1498B-8R-1, 32–34 cm	Fantangisña	Metavolcanic	Cal, Pct, Prh
U1495B-5G-CC, 1–3 cm	Asùt Tesoru	Serp. dunite	Cal, Arg
U1496A-10G-CC, 23–26 cm	Asùt Tesoru	Metavolcanic	Pct
U1496B-4F-3, 105–106 cm	Asùt Tesoru	Authigenic	Cal
U1496B-8X-CC, 33–41 cm	Asùt Tesoru	Metavolcanic	Arg, Ms, Lws, Ttn
U1496B-10F-2, 10–12 cm	Asùt Tesoru	Metavolcanic	Arg, Nsq

Abbreviations: Arg, aragonite; Brc, brucite; Brt, barite; Cal, calcite; Hem, hematite; Lws, lawsonite; Ms, muscovite; Mt, magnetite; Nsq, nesquehonite; Pct, pectolite; Prh, prehnite; serp., serpentinized; Thm, thaumasite; Ttn, titanite.

Table 2: Representative carbonate geochemistry.

Sample	U1497A-7X-CC, 29–31 cm	U1497A-7X-CC, 29–31 cm	U1497A-12F-1, 93–95 cm	U1496B-8X-CC, 33–41 cm	U1496B-8X-CC, 33–41 cm	U1496B-10F-2, 10–12 cm	U1496B-10F-2, 10–12 cm	U1492B-5H-CC, 0–3 cm	U1492B-1H-4, 8–10 cm	U1496B-4F-3, 105–106 cm
Seamount	Fantang-isña	Fantang-isña	Fantang-isña	Asùt Tesoru	Asùt Tesoru	Asùt Tesoru	Asùt Tesoru	Yinazao	Yinazao	Asùt Tesoru
Host rock	Meta-sediment	Meta-sediment	Meta-volcanic	Meta-volcanic	Meta-volcanic	Meta-volcanic	Meta-volcanic	Ultramafic	-	-
Phase	Cal	Arg	Arg	Arg	Arg	Cal	Cal	Cal	Arg	Cal
Formation	Deep	Deep	Deep	Deep	Deep	Deep	Deep	Shallow	Shallow	Shallow
wt.%										
$CaCO_3$	98.15	99.77	100.97	100.40	100.71	100.42	101.74	91.47	89.01	96.83
$FeCO_3$	0.03	0.04	0.07	0.04	<0.01	0.15	<0.01	0.20	2.802	0.65
$MnCO_3$	0.08	0.07	<0.01	0.06	<0.01	0.06	0.08	2.17	0.038	0.02
$MgCO_3$	0.00	0.02	0.058	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	4.86	8.092	2.48
Total	98.26	99.90	101.09	100.50	100.71	100.62	101.82	98.70	99.942	99.98
$\mu g\ g^{-1}$										
Sr	123	1086	2705	2660	1836	370	428	785	11931	58
Y	1.30	0.14	0.48	0.26	4.29	1.57	0.99	0.01	0.081	b.d.l.
La	6.53	0.15	5.53	0.89	3.59	2.41	3.18	b.d.l.	b.d.l.	b.d.l.
Ce	6.62	0.06	5.35	0.44	1.34	0.03	0.04	b.d.l.	b.d.l.	b.d.l.
Pr	0.864	0.028	0.519	0.134	0.785	0.506	0.508	b.d.l.	b.d.l.	b.d.l.
Nd	2.97	0.12	1.71	0.37	2.88	1.93	1.88	0.002	0.015	b.d.l.
Sm	0.524	0.007	0.358	0.085	0.583	0.294	0.293	b.d.l.	0.004	b.d.l.
Eu	0.060	0.005	0.070	0.006	0.189	0.084	0.062	b.d.l.	0.003	b.d.l.
Gd	0.332	0.023	0.209	0.043	0.641	0.370	0.355	b.d.l.	0.003	b.d.l.
Tb	0.034	0.001	0.027	0.007	0.104	0.042	0.029	b.d.l.	b.d.l.	b.d.l.
Dy	0.251	0.008	0.113	0.045	0.513	0.243	0.183	0.004	0.010	b.d.l.
Ho	0.039	0.006	0.024	0.009	0.128	0.040	0.029	b.d.l.	b.d.l.	b.d.l.
Er	0.087	0.005	0.075	0.008	0.426	0.087	0.064	b.d.l.	0.001	b.d.l.
Tm	0.016	0.005	0.020	0.002	0.070	0.014	0.006	b.d.l.	0.001	b.d.l.
Yb	0.070	0.006	0.070	0.019	0.403	0.046	0.016	0.011	0.003	b.d.l.
Lu	0.010	0.002	0.003	b.d.l.	0.045	0.002	b.d.l.	0.002	b.d.l.	b.d.l.

Abbreviations: Arg, aragonite; Cal, calcite; b.d.l., below detection limit.

Table 3: Carbonate and sulfate stable isotope geochemistry.

Sample	Type	$^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr$	$\delta^{18}O$ [‰]	$\delta^{13}C$ [‰]	$\delta^{34}S$ [‰]	$\delta^{18}O_{Brt}$ [‰]
U1492B-1H-3, 16–18 cm	Authigenic	0.70644	36.3	-0.5	-	-
U1492B-1H-4, 8–10 cm	Authigenic	0.70524	36.2	-0.4	-	-
U1496B-4F-3, 105–106 cm	Authigenic	0.70495	33.0	2.4	-	-
U1496A-10G-CC, 23–26 cm	Metavolcanic	0.70523	21.2	0.9	-	-
U1497A-7X-CC, 29–31 cm	Metasediment	0.70525	20.2	-0.6	18.8	13.5
U1498B-8R-1, 0–4 cm	Metavolcanic	0.70526	20.4	2.2	-	-
U1498B-8R-1, 32–34 cm	Metavolcanic	0.70538	23.5	3.3	-	-

Notes. $\delta^{13}C$ in VPDB, $\delta^{18}O$ in VSMOW.

Abbreviations: Brt, barite; -, not detected.